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APPROXIMATE SCALING LAWS
FOR PARAMETRIC SONAR TRANSMITTER DESIGN

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ABSTRACT

The complexities of nonlinear radiation theory tend to make the design of parametric transmitters a cut-and-try procedure. Thus far we have only Westervelt's end-fire radiator solution to serve as a guide. However, his model assumes weak interactions that are limited to the near field by primary wave absorption. For Sonar design, we propose a strong interaction modification where primary wave saturation governs the near field limit. Approximate scaling laws for source level and directivity are presented along with supporting experimental measurements.

In spite of the complexities of nonlinear wave theory it might be expected that satisfactory approximate solutions to parametric Sonar radiation problems could be achieved. However, with perturbation methods, the results are often less than adequate. The reason is that we are interested in the highest attainable source levels and then higher order perturbations become as important as the first. It is therefore not surprising that plane and spherical wave models are so attractive since the saturated field problem becomes tractable if not too realistic.

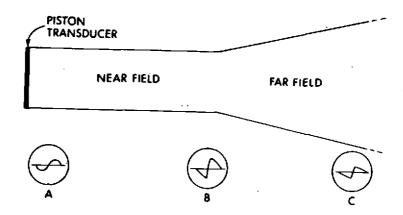
Figure 1 shows the usual "one dimensional" model of a circular piston radiator where the field is collimated to a distance R_0 and diverges spherically thereafter. The three waveforms illustrate oscilloscope pressure vs. time traces measured at the corresponding points in the field. The waveform, which is initially sinusoidal at A, becomes sawtooth at B due to the finite amplitude overtaking effect, and then diminishes in amplitude (C) as the wave diverges (phase effects are neglected).

A measure of the nonlinearity of the radiation field is given by the saturation index $\,\,x\,:\,\,$

$$X = \omega_0 T = \epsilon P_0 R_0 \omega_0/P_0 C_03$$

which defines the overtaking time T of a sine wave of peak pressure P_0 and angular frequency Q_0 , measured at collimation distance R_0 (see Appendix 1). Expressed in terms of R.M.S. source level Lg we have:

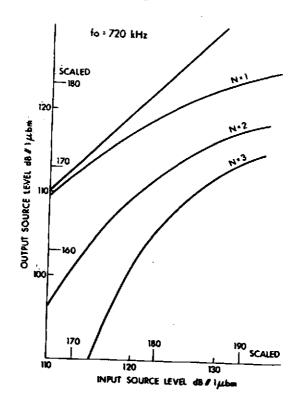
 $L_S = 20 \log (P_0 R_0) - 3 = 180 - 20 \log f_0(kHz) + 20 \log x dB//1 \mu bm$



 $\mathcal{Z}_{i,j}$

PISTON TRANSDUCER FIELD AND WAVE FORMS

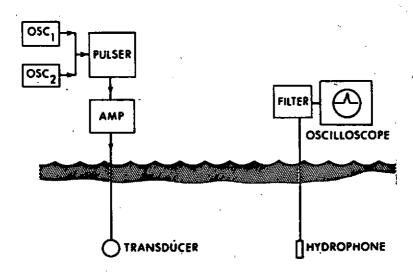
Fig. 1



- Field Saturation Curve

If, for a particular set of experimental conditions (in this case a 10 cm diameter piston at 720 kHz), the actual source level measured at a large distance from the source is plotted against the equivalent input source level, a curve similar to Fig. 2 is obtained. By adding 20 log f_0 to the scales we obtain a "generalized" input-output curve referred to 1 kHz. As the scaled input exceeds 180 dB (x = 1) it is seen that the harmonics N = 2,3 grow at the expense of the fundamental (N = 1) which then tends to deviate from linear as the wave becomes saturated.

For parametric end-fire radiation (Ref. 1-7) two high frequencies are fed to the piston radiator as shown in Fig. 3. The difference frequency field is plotted as a function of range as shown in Fig. 4. (The mean primary frequency in this example is also 720 kHz.) Figure 5 shows the difference frequency beam patterns. Note that in the far field, the difference frequency pressure tends to decrease as the square of the frequency downshift ratio while the directivity goes as the first power. This behavior is predicted by Westervelt (Ref. (1)) formula (see Appendix 2). However, in our case (Ref. (2)) the radiator length is determined by primary wave saturation rather than by absorption.



PARAMETRIC ARRAY EXPERIMENT

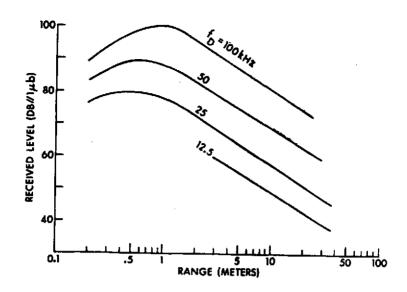


Fig. 4 - Difference Frequency Levels vs. Range for Various Frequencies

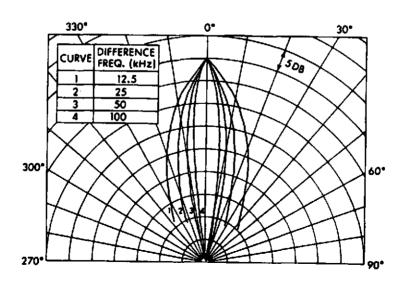
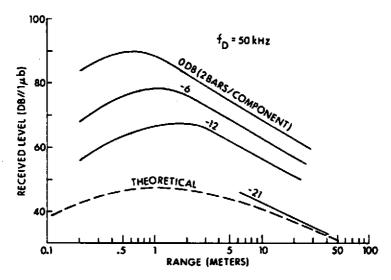


Fig. 5 - Difference Frequency Beam Patterns

Pigure 6 shows the 50 kHz field plots for various primary levels. The associated directivity patterns are shown in Fig. 7. Note that in the far field the difference frequency level begins to fall linearly with the input and then tends to square law below saturation. The directivity however tends to increase, apparently approaching the primary directivity as an upper limit. The 50 kHz results are summarized in Fig. 8 which shows the input-output source level curve and the directivity index curve. (Input source level here is based on the sum of the powers of the two primary components.) The results can be "generalized" to 1 kHz by adding 40 log fo/f to the secondary scale and 20 log fo to both scales as shown in Fig. 9. The directivity is scaled by adding 10 log fo/f to the secondary index and then subtracting the result from the primary directivity index (see Appendix 2).

The empirical scaling curves of Fig. 9 have proved to give reasonably good predictions for a variety of conditions. Tables 1-3 give a summary of results obtained in recent experiments for the three different piston transducers described. The pertinent experimental conditions are listed together with a compilation of the source levels and directivity indices for various input levels. The data are repeated with the scaling corrections applied and are also plotted in Fig. 10. Considering the apparent magnitude of the experimental error, the data show reasonably good consistency and agreement with the earlier results except for generally higher values of directivity index.

Summarizing the problem of parametric transmitter design: below saturation there is a tradeoff between secondary source level and directivity where the secondary source level varies as the square of the primary and the directivity begins to decrease as saturation is approached; above saturation the secondary source level tends to increase linearly with the primary, while the directivity decreases as the -1/2 power. As saturation further increases, secondary wave distortion must eventually become an important consideration when harmonics of the difference frequency grow to appreciable magnitude.



Pig. 6 - 50 kHz Level vs. Range for Various Primary Levels

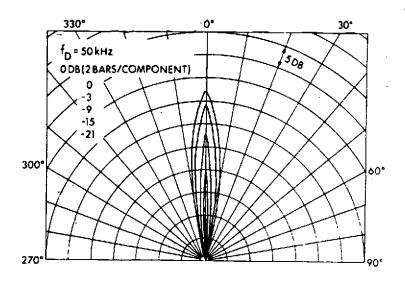


Fig. 7 - 50 kHz Beam Patterns for Various Levels

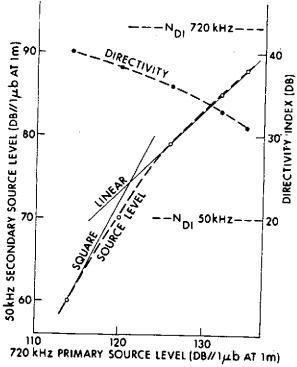
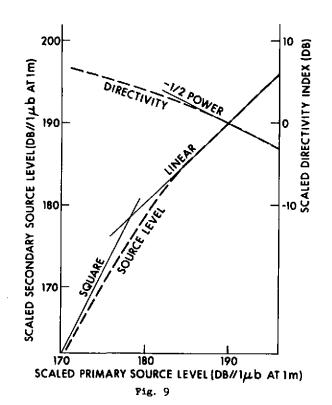


Fig. 8 - Source Level and Directivity Curves 720 kHz



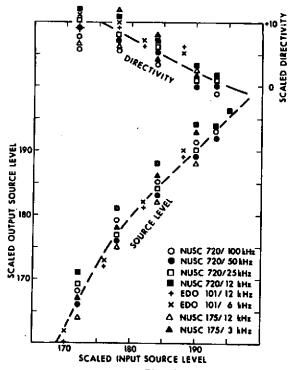


Fig. 10

TABLE 1

NUSC/720

PISTON 10 cm. dia. fo = 720 kHz $N_{DI} = 43 \text{ dB}$ $L_{SO} = 136 \text{ dB} // 1 \mu \text{bm}$

	100 kHz		50 kHz		25 kHz		12.5 kHz	
INPUT dB	Ls	N _{DI}	L _S	N _{DI}	L _S	N _{DI}	L _S	N _{DI}
0	101	33	88	31	77	28	68	26
- 3	99	35	85	32	74	29	66	28
- 9	93	38	79	36	68	35	60	32
-15	87	40	72	38	60	36	53	36
-21	76	40	62	40	53	38	43	38
193	193	-1	192	0	193	0	196	1
190	191	1	189	1	190	1	189	3
184	185	4	183	5	189	7	188	7
178	179	6	176	7	176	В	181	11
172	168	6	166	9	169	10	171	13

TABLE 2

EDO/101

PISTON 25 cm. dia. fo = 250 kHz N_{DI} = 42 dB L_{SO} = 140 dB// 1 μbm

R_O = 8 M R = 42 M

	12 kH	lz	ó kHz		
INPUT 4B	LS	N _{DI}	٦,	N _{DI}	
0 48	89	35	78	32	
- 6	81	36	70	35	
-12	72	38	60	35	
-18 .	. 60	39	50	37	
188	189	6	190	6	
182	181	7	182	9	
176	172	9	172	9	
170	160	10	162	11	

TABLE 3

NUSC/175

PISTON 40 x 40 cm.

fo = 175 kHz

N_{D1} = 45 dB

L_{SO} = 145 dB // 1 µbm

R_O = 16 M R = 42 M

	12	kHz	3 kHz		
INPUT dB	L _S	N _{DI}	Lg	N _{DI}	
0	98	34	78	28	
- 6	92	38	71	34	
-12	84	39	63	38	
-18	73 ·	41	52	_	
190	189	1	193	1	
184	183	5	186	7	
178	175	6	178	11	
172	164	8	167	-	
L.		1	1		

REFERENCES

- (1) P. J. Westervelt, "Parametric Acoustic Array," J. Acoust. Soc. Am. 35, 535-537 (1963).
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For plane waves, the nonlinear wave equation is taken as:

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial r} = \frac{e}{2g_{c}^{2}} \frac{\partial P^{2}}{\partial r} \tag{1}$$

P is the instantaneous pressure

€ = 4 is the nonlinearity parameter for water

r is the distance

T = t = r/co where t is time

Po is the normal density

co is the normal shind speed.

The solution of Bo. (1) is:

Let $P = P_0 \cos \omega_0$ t at r = 0 and let $x = \omega_0 T$,

($Y = R_0$ $Z = T_0$) where R_0 is the collimation distance of the wave.

Then

In terms of RMS source level $L_{\rm S}$:

$$L_S = 20 \log(P_0 R_0) - 3 = 180 - 20 \log f_{RR} + 20 \log X$$

$$dR/(1 - 10)$$

where P_0 is in μ bars and R_0 is in meters.

The frequency f is in kiloherts.

Westervelt's (1) equation can be written:

$$P = \frac{\epsilon P_a^2 \kappa^2 S L}{4\pi \rho_0 c_0^2 r \left[1 + \left(\kappa L \sin \frac{3\rho}{L} \right)^2 \right]^{\nu_L}}$$

where P is the difference frequency peak pressure at r, 9

Po is the peak pressure of each primary component

S is the piston area = πa^2 (a = radius)

k is the difference frequency wave number

L = 1/2 A is the absorption length

r is the distance (r>>L)

9 is the half beam angle

If we let the saturation index be:

where k_0 is the mean primary frequency wave number and R_0 is the primary wave collimation distance. Substituting $R_0 = k_0 \text{ S}/2\pi$ we have:

Taking for the primary source level:

where P_0 is the peak pressure μb per component and R_0 is the collimation distance in meters, then we have finally for the RMS secondary source level Lqs:

representing the saturated condition (x > 1).

The secondary directivity index is given by:

where 200 is the -3 dB beamwidth. The primary directivity is given by:

Therefore:

In the "plane wave" approximation we again assume two primary frequencies and compute second order terms for the difference frequency from the plane wave solution of Appendix 1. To account for radiation leakage of the secondary wave we also introduce a secondary wave collimation distance:

Then we find for P axial:

Where L is the primary wave discontinuity distance.

When the directivity function is included:
$$\frac{1}{2} R_0 P_0 \left(\frac{K/N_0}{N_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\frac{1}{1 + (N_0)N_0} \right]^{\frac{1}{N_0}}$$