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# UNPUBLISHED PRELIMINARY DATA

AN AVERAGE ATMOSPHERE FOR PARTICLES TRAPPED

IN THE EARTH'S MAGNETIC FIELD.

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# Abstract

Particles trapped in the earth's magnetic field follow orbits which vary over all longitudes and over wide ranges of latitude and altitude. An efficient method of averaging any spatially dependent function over these orbits is described. A Fortran program which computes average atmospheres, using an Anderson and Francis (1964) atmosphere and the Jensen and Cain (1962) 48 term representation of the earth's magnetic field, is described. This program has been run on the CDC 3600 and IBM 7090 computers.

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# Introduction

One of the major factors determining the distribution of particles trapped in the earth's magnetic field, is the collisions of the particles with the atmosphere. In considering the effects of the atmosphere it is necessary to integrate over the orbit of the particle. Ray (1960) has given an approximate expression for the integrals in a dipole field. Lenchek and Singer (1962a) and Hamlin et al. (1961) have refined part of the expression. However, it is known that the dipole approximation is not adequate. For example, Welch et al. (1963) has a graph which shows the variation of altitude with longitude on the line with a magnetic field of .235 gauss and an L value of 1.25. In a dipole field the altitude would be constant: in the earth's field it varies from 100 to 1300 kms. For comparison, the scale height of oxygen is about 120 km. Newkirk and Walt (1963) and Anderson, Crane, Francis, Newkirk and Walt (1964) have performed an accurate average over longitude, using a 48 term representation of the earth's magnetic field. In this paper we describe an accurate and comparatively fast method of computing averages over both latitude and longitude, and we describe a computer program which can be used to do further calculations.

#### The Mathematical Equations

It is well known that the motion of the particle can be decomposed into three separate components. The guiding center moves parallel to a line of force with velocity  $v_p$ . The guiding center also drifts perpendicular to the line of force with velocity  $v_d$ , where  $v_d$  denotes the

instantaneous drift average over a longitudinal bounce. The particle rotates rapidly about the guiding center. Let  $f(\overline{r})$  denote any property of the atmosphere; for example, f might be the density of oxygen or the total energy loss cross section. The problem is to compute the average value of f for a particle orbit, where the orbit is continued for an indefinite time. Assuming that the particle stays on a shell defined by  $B_m$  and I, where  $B_m$  is the mirror point magnetic field, and I is the usual adiabatic invariant, then

$$f_{BV}(I, B_m) = S'(f, I, B_m) / S(I, I, B_m)$$
 (1)

where 
$$S(f, I, B_m) = \iint f(r) \frac{dx dy}{v_p v_d}$$
 (2)

dx is an element of arc in the direction of  $v_p$  (that is an element of the line of force), dy is an element of arc in the direction of  $v_d$ , and the integration is taken over the whole shell defined by I and  $B_m$ . We have assumed that f(r) is evaluated at the guiding center: the effect of variations in f over distances comparable with the radius of gyration can be taken into account by the method of Lenchek and Singer (1962b). It has been shown by Hassitt (1964) that  $dy/v_d$  is independent of x, and thus that (2) is separable, we can therefore put

$$S(f, I, B_m) = \int U(f, I, B_m, \phi) \frac{d\phi}{\phi}$$
(3)

where 
$$U(f, I, B_m, \emptyset) = \int f(r) \frac{dx}{v_p}$$
 (4)

The co-ordinate  $\phi$  denotes the geographic longitude of the geomagnetic equator on the line of force. The co-ordinates  $(I, \phi)$  completely define a line of force. The integration in (4) is along the line of force defined by  $(I, \phi)$ , the limits of integration are the mirror points defined by  $B_m$ . Equation (3) has made use of the relation

$$\frac{dy}{v_d} = \frac{dy}{dy/dt} = \frac{d\phi}{d\phi/dt}$$
 (5)

where  $\phi$  is the angular drift velocity projected along the  $\phi$  co-ordinate. For certain applications it is useful to compute

$$W (f, I, B) = \int f(r) \frac{dy}{v_d}$$
 (6)

$$= \int f(r) \frac{d\phi}{\dot{\phi}}$$
 (7)

The integration in (6) is taken along the line of constant I and constant B. In fact there are two such lines, one at the northern and one at the southern end of the line of force; we take the average of the two results. The relation (7) follows from the fact that  $dy/v_d$  is independent of x. It is used as follows. We evaluate f at the point on the line (I, B), we take the line of force through this point, follow this line to the geomagnetic equator and then find the associated  $\phi$ . This rather complicated process is in fact much faster and easier than calculating  $dx/v_d$  at the point itself.

# Finding the Line of Force

Given I  $\emptyset$ , before we can do any calculation, it is necessary to find the correct line of force. A series of computer programs written by Dr. C. E. McIlwain was available to compute the line of force and the L value at any point. The program currently uses the Jensen and Cain (1960) 48 term representation of the earth's field, but it can easily be changed to use any other field. Given I,  $\emptyset$  we could have found the line of force by a three dimensional search; in fact, we took a modified approach which allowed a one dimensional search. Let

$$\phi_{\rm E}$$
 = geographic longitude at which a line of force crosses the geographic equator (8)

We used the co-ordinates  $(L, \phi_E)$  to define a line of force, where L is defined by McIlwain (1960) and is to be evaluated at the geomagnetic equator. We will relate the  $(L, \phi_E)$  system to the  $(I, \phi)$  system at a later stage. Given  $\phi_E$  we evaluate L for a series of points  $(r, \theta, \phi)$ , with  $\theta = 0$ ,  $\phi = \phi_E$  and r taking on several values. The correct line force is then found by an iterative process. Since the geomagnetic equator is close to the geographic equator and since the correct r is approximately equal to L, this process is quite rapid.

#### Integration Along a Line of Force

The use of the first invariant shows that

$$v_p = v (1 - B/B_m)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (9)

where v, the velocity of the particle, is a constant of the motion. The integrand in equation (4) is singular at the mirror points. Only in a dipole field r t possible to transform to a non-singular form. In some problems f(r) may be a rapidly varying function of x. A numerical method capable of overcoming these difficulties must be used.

The standard program which finds the line of force uses a predictor-corrector method to find a set of points along the line of force. The program was modified so that it computes x, B and h at each point of the set; x is the distance along the line of force, B is the field value and h is the altitude above the surface of the earth. B and h are smooth functions of x, hence we can find B(x) and h(x) for any x by quadratic interpolation. The function f(r) is, in practice, a function of h only. The relation

$$\int_{c}^{d} \frac{dx}{2\sqrt{a+bx}} = \frac{\sqrt{a+bd} - \sqrt{a+bc}}{b} = \frac{(d-c)}{\sqrt{a+bd} + \sqrt{a+bc}}$$
(10)

is an exact one, even near the singular point b = -a/c. To evaluate the integral (4) we assume that, over a sufficiently small interval. B is a linear function of x and f is a constant, hence

$$\int_{c}^{d} \frac{f(r)dx}{(1-B(x)/B_{m})^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{[f(h(d)) + f(h(c))](d-c)}{(1-B(c)/B_{m})^{\frac{1}{2}} + (1-B(d)/B_{m})^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$
(11)

The numerical integration proceeds as follows. Let  $x_j$  and  $x_{j+1}$  denote two successive values of x in the set of points chosen by predictor-corrector integration. Divide the range  $x_j$  to  $x_{j+1}$  into two parts, apply formula (11) on each part, using quadratic interpolation on  $B_{j-1}$ ,

 $B_j$ ,  $B_{j+1}$  to find B(x) and a similar interpolation for h(x). Next divide the range into four parts and apply formula (11) four times. Compare the two part and four part results; if they do not agree to sufficient accuracy, use eight, sixteen, etc., parts. Now repeat this process for  $x_{j+1}$  to  $x_{j+2}$  and so on.

When comparing the two part, four part, etc., results we use two differing accuracy criteria. We require the separate results to differ by less than .1% or each result to be less than R/5000, where R is the result of the integration over the range  $\mathbf{x}_1$  up to  $\mathbf{x}_j$ . In most problems the major contribution to the integral (4) comes from the part of the line of force near the southern mirror point. By starting the integration at the southern mirror point, R builds up rapidly and we avoid unnecessary accuracy at points where the contribution to the integral is small.

# Integration in the $\phi$ Direction

The program chooses  $\phi_E = 0^\circ$ ,  $60^\circ$ , ...  $300^\circ$ , and evaluates U and  $\phi$  on each of these six lines of force. It then computes the sum of the six U values; this sum is a first estimate of S. We could now take  $\phi_E = 0^\circ$ ,  $30^\circ$ , etc. and get a better estimate of S; however, this would usually be a very wasteful process. U is often a rapidly varying function of  $\phi$ : it can change by a factor of  $10^{10}$  as  $\phi$  is varied. What we would like to do is to compute  $U(\phi)$  at a number of carefully chosen values of  $\phi$ . This is done as follows.

The program takes the results for U at  $\phi = 300^{\circ}$ ,  $60^{\circ}$ , and  $120^{\circ}$ ,

It then computes U at  $\emptyset = 0^{\circ}$  by quadratic interpolation on log U. The interpolated and the exact results for U at  $\emptyset = 0^{\circ}$  are compared If they agree to sufficient accuracy, then we go on to  $60^{\circ}$ . If they do not agree then we compute U at  $\emptyset = 330^{\circ}$  and  $\emptyset = 30^{\circ}$  and repeat the interpolation. The accuracy test evaluates what effect the difference between the correct and interpolated value would make in S, and checks that this is less than .1% of the estimate of S. The estimate of S is re-computed every time an additional pair of points is found.

At the completion of this process we have a table of U(f), U(1) and  $\phi$  at many values of  $\phi_E$ . During this process we also computed  $\phi$ .  $\phi$  is computed from

$$\dot{\phi} = \left(\frac{Bx \ VB}{B^3 r \sin \theta}\right) \phi$$

$$= \frac{1}{B^3 r \sin \theta} \left(B_{\theta} \frac{\partial B}{\partial r} - \frac{B_r}{r} \frac{\partial B}{\partial \theta}\right) \frac{m \gamma e v^2}{2e} \tag{12}$$

where my is the mass, v the velocity and e the charge on the particle. This is the drift of a particle mirroring at the equator. It has been shown elsewhere (Hassitt, 1964) that the value of  $\phi T$  for a particle mirroring at B<sub>m</sub> is a constant (independent of  $\phi$ ) times the  $\phi$  of an equatorial particle. T is the bounce time and this is, by definition, a constant times U(1, I, B<sub>m</sub>,  $\phi$ ). Finally we evaluate the integral (3) by numerical integration. Simpson's rule is used; each  $\phi$  range is split into many parts and parabolic interpolation on log U and on T is used. At the same time the integral (7) is performed. Figure 1. illustrates the choice of  $\phi$  points in a particular case where U varies by a factor of  $10^{\frac{1}{4}}$ .

# Accuracy

The models of the atmosphere, and to a lesser extent, of the earth's magnetic field, which are currently available contain appreciable errors. However, in order to compare one model with another, the calculation should proceed as though the physical data were completely accurate. The accuracy of the overall calculation depends on several factors.

(a) The line of force calculation. (b) Given L, finding the correct line of force. (c) The accuracy of equation (11). (d) The choice of interval in using equation (11). (e) The calculation of  $\phi$ . (f) The integration in the  $\phi$  direction.

The lines of force are computed by a standard set of routines which have been used extensively in other theoretical calculations and in co-ordinating data from many satellites. It can safely be assumed that the basic routines are accurate and we have only to select an appropriate value of the parameter which controls the accuracy. The accuracy of (b) depends on the accuracy of the line of force calculation only; L is a smooth function of altitude and there is no problem of accuracy in the iterative search for L. The accuracy of (ll) can be analyzed using the mean value theorem; any desired accuracy can be achieved by a suitable choice of interval. The accuracy governed by factors (d) and (f) relies on the quadratic approximation of certain functions and on the efficiency of repeated interval splitting. It is possible to construct examples where splitting an interval in two will not improve the accuracy, and on which comparison tests will lead to spurious results; however, the functions employed here are monotonic over the interval of integration. The accuracy

of the quadratic interpolation depends directly on the interval since the functions approximated are nowhere singular; the interval can be varied by changing one of the parameters in the program. Newkirk and Walt (1963) have shown that the variation of drift velocity can change the value of longitudinal averages by as much as 25%. However, much of this effect is due to a geometrical factor, the spreading of the lines of force. The variation of  $\phi$  has only a 5 or 10% effect on the final result. Comparison of equation (12) with an exact method of computing the drift has shown that the approximation results in a possible 2% error in  $\phi$ ; this is comparable with errors due to variations in L, which we will discuss later.

#### The Significance of I

It has been shown by Northrop and Teller (1960) and by others that I is an adiabatic invariant. In most applications of this invariant it is usual to make an approximation, namely that L is also invariant. McIlwain (1961) has shown that L varies by less than 1% on most lines of force. The importance of the L co-ordinate is that it gives the same label to particles which are on the same line of force.

The program described here computes  $f_{av}$  and W for a given L and  $B_{m}$ . It computes its L value on any line of force from the relation

$$L = (.311653/B_0)^{1/3}$$
 (13)

where  $B_0$  is the value of B at the geomagnetic equator, this value will differ from the true L value by possibly 1%. At an L value of 1.5,

a 1% error in L at the equator corresponds to 100 km; however, this does not necessarily imply a large error in  $f_{av}$ . There are several mitigating factors. For particles mirroring near the equator there will be no significant error in L. For particles mirroring a long way from the equator, the main contributor to  $f_{av}$  will come from high B values and at high B values the error in L does not have such a large effect on the altitude.

The are several economic reasons for using this approximation in the program. It speeds up the search for the line of force with a given L and  $\emptyset$ . In addition, having found the line of force we can use it to compute results for several values of  $B_m$ . It is not necessary to compute a new line of force for each  $B_m$ . Furthermore, the function f has to be computed at many points on a line of force. We carry the calculations for several values of  $B_m$  in parallel, and whenever possible, use one f calculation for all  $B_m$  values which require that f. The program could be changed, by a minor modification, to use the correct L for each  $B_m$ , however, it would then be necessary to compute results for only one  $B_m$  in each calculation.

#### The Atmosphere

The program currently incorporates the atmosphere of Anderson and Francis (1964). Values for atmospheric properties near sunspot minimum were taken from the tables given by Anderson et al. (1964) and fitted by an exponential function of the reduced height. No attempt was made to fit values below 200 km. The atmosphere is computed in a self-contained Fortran subroutine and any other atmosphere can easily be substituted.

#### Using the Program

The program is controlled by setting some parameters in the main program. FL is the value of L required. B(I) gives the value, in gauss, of the values of  $B_m$  for which the calculation should be done. B(1), B(2),... must be in decreasing order and the last value must be zero. The program will construct a table from which values of B(I) which are less than  $B_0$  have been deleted and to which the value  $B_0$  has been added. If any of the higher B values cause the mirror point to dip below the surface of the earth, the program will set  $f(r) = 10^{30}$  for these underground points. N is the number of the atmosphere constituent used in the routine ATMO, with the correspondence

$$N = 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12$$
  
Constituent  $e^ O_2$   $N_2$  O N He H  $O_2^+$  No<sup>+</sup> O<sup>+</sup> He<sup>+</sup> H

N=13 mixes the constituents in proportion to the energy loss cross section for that constituent. This mixture appears as a single Fortran statement in the routine ATMO, and can easily be changed. N=14 sets f(r) equal to unity.

The program does not read any data, and uses no tapes other than the standard output tapes. The variable N TAPE should be set to the unit number of the print tape. The variable NP TAPE should be set to the number of the standard punch tape.

#### To Summarize

FL L value

B(1), B(2),...  $B_m$  values in decreasing order. Last value should be zero

N

Constituent to be selected for averaging.

N TAPE

Standard output tape

NP TAPE

Standard punch tape or zero if no cards required.

ERR1, ERR2, ERR3

Error control. See later description.

The program as distributed contains a main program with

$$FL = 1.25$$

$$B(3) = 0.$$

$$B(1) = 0.21892$$

$$N = 4$$

$$B(2) = 0.17822$$

This problem takes 2 mins 56 secs on the CDC 3600.

This time include loading and other times spent in the monitor. For L = 1.25 and ten B values the CDC 3600 takes 5 minutes.

#### Output

The first page of output of the sample problem is shown in Figure 2. Ignoring for the moment the line which begins with a \*, the results are

Longitude 
$$\emptyset_E$$

L = 1 Equator r  $\theta$   $\emptyset$  B<sub>O</sub> DPHI/DT  $\emptyset$ 

B(1)  $\log_{10}(U)$  U T hn f(hn) hs f(hs)

B(2) " " " " " " "

 $\phi_{\rm E}$ , B<sub>o</sub>, U and f have been defined previously. 1 is the value of L for the last point on the line of force: this point will have a B value

slightly greater than B(1). r,  $\theta, \phi$  are the co-ordinates of the geomagnetic equator.  $\phi$  is the result of equation (12) with the factor of  $m\gamma^4 cv^2/2eR^2$  omitted, where  $R_e$  is the radius of the earth. T is  $U(1, I, B_m, \emptyset)$ . This should be multiplied by 2R/v to give the bounce time in seconds. hn and hs are the height in kilometers, of the northern and southern mirror points. Any printed line marked by a \* has the following significance. The process described following equation (11) encountered difficulty in convergence. For some  $x_i$  it was necessary to split the interval  $x_j$  to  $x_{j+1}$  into more than 64 parts. The results are usually correct in this situation but a sequence of \* would indicate that the step size  $x_{,i}$  to  $x_{,i+1}$  is too large (see accuracy control) or more probably that you had changed routine ATMO and had made an error of some sort. This line of printing contains: the mirror point B, the height/ $R_{\rm p}$ , the penultimate and ultimate values of the integral of  $f(r)dx/v_n$ , the relative error, followed by similar results for  $dx/v_{n}$ 

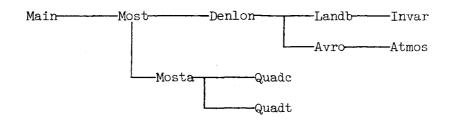
The line of print beginning "K = " refers to the quadratic interpolation process which was discussed in the section on integration in the  $\emptyset$  direction. Finally at the top of a new page (see Figure 1) we have the results for one B value, namely, the number of the substance, the value of L,  $f_{av}$ ,  $W(f, L, B_m)/W(l, L, B_m)$ , minimum height for this value of L and  $B_m$  and finally  $\log_{10}(f_{av})$ . The numbers, in the same format, are punched on a card unless NP TAPE = 0. Following this are the results for each  $\emptyset$  value, namely

$$\phi$$
  $\phi'$   $\phi_0$   $\log_{10}(U(f))$   $U(1)$   $(f(hn) + f(hs))/2$ 

This is followed by the results for the next B value, if any.

#### Organization of the Program

The program is written completely in Fortran and will compile under Fortran II or Fortran 63. The flow of control is as follows



- Atmos is the routine which computes f(h). For convenience it actually calls another routine ATMO to compute the Anderson and Francis atmosphere.
- Avro performs the integration described by equation (11). The arguments of Avro are values of  $B_m$ , and the coefficients which give a quadratic fit to B and L over the range  $x_j$  to  $x_{j+1}$ . Invar computes a line of force.
- Landb The arguments of this routine are L and  $\phi_E$ . It does an iterative calculation to find the line of force with the given value of L and which cross the geographic equator at longitude  $\phi_E$ . It then goes south along this line of force (using Invar) to a point with B greater than  $B_m$ . Starting from this point it goes north to find the complete line of force between the limits.  $B > B_m$  in the southern hemisphere to  $B > B_m$  in the northern hemisphere.

Denlon The arguments to this routine are L and  $\emptyset_E$  and the table of B values. It uses Landb to compute the line of force. Then for each B value it uses Avro to compute S(f) and S(1): it also saves f(hn) and f(hs). The calculation is arranged so that one line of force suffices for all B values and usually Atmos is called once for each point and the result saved for the next B value.

Mosta controls the integration in the  $\emptyset$  direction. It is entered when all the U values are available.

Most controls the major part of the calculation. It selects  $\emptyset = 0^{\circ}$ ,  $60^{\circ}$ , etc., calling Denlon to do the U calculation. It performs the test of parabolic fit against true value and decides if an additional pair of  $\emptyset$  values should be used. When all the data is ready it calls Mosta to do the integration.

Invar has a number of subsidiary routines, namely Start, Lines, Magnet, Bulge, Grado, Carmel, Integ. Most of these routines were written by Dr. C. E. McIlwain and have been used extensively in many computing centers; we will not describe them in detail. The routine, Magnet, computes the earth's field and is due to D. C. Jensen. We have made the following additions to these routines. Bulge computes the effect of the earth's oblateness; it was formerly used but was not a separate routine. Grado computes the  $\emptyset$  component of  $\nabla B$ . Lines has been modified so that one can start at a low B value and integrate until some specified higher B value has been passed. Lines has also been modified so that the co-ordinates of the geomagnetic equator are computed and also so that the

the co-ordinates of a point with a specified B value can be found. This latter feature is not used in the current calculations.

To change the computation of the earth's field the routine Magnet should be changed. To use a spherical earth, set Bulge equal to unity. To change the atmosphere, modify ATMO. To compute different combinations of components of the atmosphere, change Atmos.

If a clock is attached to the computer, the routine Mytime should be modified so that it calls the clock.

# Control of Accuracy

The accuracy of the line of force calculation is controlled by the variable ERR1 in routine Landb. The iterative calculation to find a line of force with a given L value is also controlled by this variable; we iterate until the change in L is less than ERR1/10. The accuracy of integration along the line of force is controlled by ERR2 in Avro. Within the interval  $\mathbf{x}_j$  to  $\mathbf{x}_{j+1}$  the routine computes equation (11) for two, four, eight, etc. divisions of the interval; it stops dividing when the  $\Delta U/U$  for the U(1) integral is less than ERR2 or when  $\Delta U(f)$  is less than ERR2/5 times (the value of U for steps  $\mathbf{x}_1$  to  $\mathbf{x}_j$ ). The accuracy of the  $\emptyset$  integration is controlled primarily by ERR3 in the routine Most. The  $\emptyset$  are chosen such that

$$(\mathtt{U}(\phi_{\mathtt{i}}) - \mathtt{Fit} (\mathtt{U}(\phi_{\mathtt{i}-2}), \ \mathtt{U}(\phi_{\mathtt{i}-1}), \ \mathtt{U}(\phi_{\mathtt{i}+1})) \times (\phi_{\mathtt{i}+1} - \phi_{\mathtt{i}-1}) < \mathtt{S} \times \mathtt{ERR3}$$

where S is the current estimate of S. The actual integration of U(f) is done in Quadc and repeated division and the use of Simpson's rule is

used until the result is changing by less than one part in 5000. Changing the accuracy numbers produces the following changes in the result. For L=1.25 and B=.21892

	fav	W	Minimum Height
Standard Values	1.028609 10 <sup>6</sup>	5.452904 10 <sup>6</sup>	276.25
With ERR1 = .0005	1.028890 10	5.453579 10 <sup>6</sup>	276.26
With ERR2 = .0005	1.028638 10 <sup>6.</sup>	5.452679 10 <sup>6</sup>	276.25
With ERR3 = .0005	1.028861 10 <sup>6</sup>	5.453576 .0 <sup>6</sup>	276.25

The standard case has ERR1 = ERR2 = ERR3 = .001.

The quantity W has been computed by Anderson et al. (1964). Their calculation was done in a different way. Their L value refers to the  $B_m$  point and not to the geomagnetic equator. They computed the drift velocity at many points on the line of force. For the test problem at B = .21892 we have  $W = 5.453 \cdot 10^6$  and minimum height 276.3 km. Anderson et al. in their table 4-3 have  $W = 5.597 \cdot 10^6$  and minimum height 272 km. The minimum height is the lowest height reached by a particle with the given B and C. The scale height of oxygen is 120 km so a discrepancy of 3% corresponds to a 4 km change in height. For the same C and C and Anderson et al. have C and C and Anderson et al. have C and C and C and Anderson et al. have C and C and C and C and C and C and Anderson et al. have C and C are C and C are C and C and C are C and C and C and C are C and C are C and C and C are C and C and C are C and C are C and C are C and C and C are C and C are C and C and C are C and C ar

The integration along the line of force can be checked for the case of f(r) equal to a constant. The integration routine is completely separate from the routine which computes the magnetic field. We have modified the routine Magnet to produce a dipole field, and the routine Bulge to use a spherical earth. The results for the time can be

compared with the function  $2LT(\mu)$  where  $T(\mu)$  is the function tabulated by Hamlin et al. (1961). For the value L=1.25 the results are shown in Table 1.

$(B_O/B)^{\frac{1}{2}}$	θ	2LT(	Т
1.	90°	1.8512	1.8516
.5647	60°	2.4065	2.4090
.2812	45°	2.823	2.826
.09310	30°	3.160	3.163

Table 1.  $2LT(\mu)$  is the bounce time computed by Hamlin et al. for a dipole field. T is the corresponding result for this program.

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#### Figure Captions

- Figure 1. Results for one value of L and B.
- Figure 2. Intermediate results for the test problem.

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