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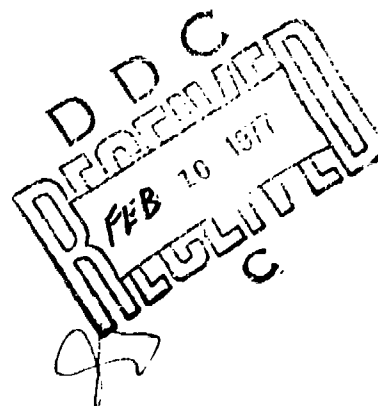
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CONTRACT REPORT NO. 327

MODEL ANALYSIS FOR PENETRATION OF
SPACED ARMOR

Prepared by

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January 1977

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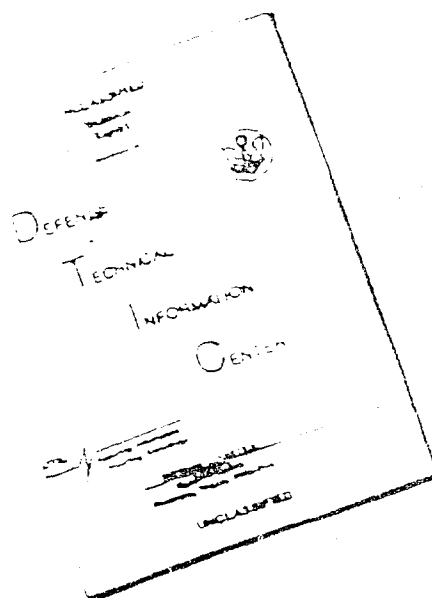
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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE (19)		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
BRL CONTRACT REPORT NO. 327	(18) BRL (CR-327)	
4. TITLE (and Subtitle)	5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED	
(6) MODEL ANALYSIS FOR PENETRATION OF SPACED ARMOR	(9) Final Report. Jun 75 - Feb 76	
7. AUTHOR(s)	6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER	
(10) W. E. Baker P. S. Westine	(14) SwRI - 02-4281	
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS	8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)	
Southwest Research Institute P. O. Drawer 28510 San Antonio, TX 78284	(15) DAAD05-75-C-0757	
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS	10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS	
US Army Ballistic Research Laboratory Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD 21005	(12) 54P.	
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)	12. REPORT DATE	
US Army Materiel Development & Readiness Command 5001 Eisenhower Avenue Alexandria, VA 22333	(11) JAN 77	
	13. NUMBER OF PAGES	
	55	
	15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report)	
	UNCLASSIFIED	
	15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE	
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)		
Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
Scale modeling Dissimilar material modeling Spaced armor Similitude Rod penetrators Dynamic material properties Kinetic energy penetrators Constitutive similarity Replica modeling Dimensional analysis		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
This report includes a discussion and similitude analysis of the penetration of spaced armor by dense, long rod projectiles. Many geometric and physical parameters are included in the analysis. A general scale model law is given, and the implications of replica and dissimilar material assumptions are discussed in detail. Very few scaling parameters are distorted for either assumption. A model validation test program is recommended for both the replica and dissimilar material assumptions. Practical lower limits on model scale and statistical methods for comparing model and prototype data are briefly discussed.		

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328 200

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Graham Silsby at the BRL offered a number of helpful suggestions and constructive criticisms of this analysis, and we gratefully acknowledge his input. At SwRI, the authors discussed with Messrs. A. B. Wenzel and J. C. Hokanson the overall problem and specific details of high velocity penetration tests conducted on another program. We also acknowledge their help in formulating the analysis and in consideration of statistical aspects of the problem.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A need exists for improved capability to predict the performance of vehicle armor attacked by kinetic energy projectiles. To this end, the Ballistic Research Laboratories (BRL) have been engaged in experimental work, including a large number of test firings under the Vehicle Armor Technology Project. Full scale firings of anti-tank rounds are extremely costly compared to small-caliber firings, so scaled-down firings present the possibility of great savings. The detailed analysis involved in modeling the perforation of multiple plate targets, including back-face spall and projectile breakup, has not been attempted, and no sub-scale experiments have been performed to date to ascertain the range of validity of scaling laws so derived.

To study problems of scaling and experimental design related to high velocity impact of kinetic energy projectiles against multiple plate targets, BRL has contracted with SwRI. The objectives of this contract are to derive scaling relationships and design experiments to demonstrate whether or not modeling methods will permit prediction of terminal ballistics effects in prototype firings of high length-to-diameter ratio (10/1 to 20/1) rods of two types of projectile materials against oblique, parallel, spaced steel armor targets, based on experimental data from similar models at different scales. This report presents the results of the study.

The prototype (full-scale) conditions which are to be modeled are typified by the penetration of long rods into spaced steel armor targets at ordnance velocities up to 1830 m/s (6000 ft/sec) at various obliquities and various combinations of armor thicknesses and spacing. A typical projectile geometry is a right circular cylinder with a hemispherical nose having length-to-diameter (L/D) ratio between 10 and 20 and a mass of 3 kg. It can have an attached windscreen of a different material and fins of a different material. Projectile penetrator materials are materials of high density and high strength, such as a heat treated tool steel, a heat treated uranium alloy, or a sintered tungsten alloy. Prototype targets usually consist of parallel, spaced arrays of flat steel armor plates of high strength, high elongation alloys. The armor material may either be essentially homogeneous and isotropic or have significant inhomogeneity and anisotropy.

For the types of projectiles, targets, and impact conditions considered in this study, a large number of physical, material and geometric parameters are needed to completely characterize the processes of interaction of projectile and target. In general, both target and projectile erode, deform elastically and plastically, and/or break up. In at least part of the penetration process, both projectile and target materials are subjected to stresses far exceeding yield and behave hydrodynamically. Intense plastic or elastic waves are generated in

penetrator and target, and gross deformations and breakup can occur during the penetration of successive plates in the spaced armor targets. Many more geometric parameters are needed to define impact conditions for these relatively complex projectiles and targets than for armor-piercing projectiles of older design versus monolithic armor. These and other parameters are considered in the model analysis.

A basic question in experimental validation of any physical theory of penetration and breakup, or in validation of a model analysis and inferences drawn from the analysis, is, "How can I prove the theory or model analysis by experiment?" To answer this question, one must invoke statistical methods because there is always scatter or variation in the results of experiments, whatever the scale of the experiments. As applied to modeling projectile penetration, an example is the experimental determination of curves of striking velocity versus limit velocity.*

A model law can usually be phrased as a prediction that some dimensionless parameter related to striking velocity determines another dimensionless parameter related to limit velocity, provided a host of still other dimensionless parameters are held constant. Statistical testing of appropriately scaled model and prototype test data can be used to validate the model law or determine the range of scaled parameters over which it is valid. Such statistical methods of comparison are discussed in this report.

The following section presents the background of this problem and covers past work in modeling in penetration mechanics. Then, in Section III we give a thorough model analysis of the problem outlined in this section, an extended discussion of physical parameters chosen as significant, and of the implications of the similarity (model) analyses.

Section IV covers a discussion of the results of the model analysis and statistical techniques. Design of experiments which we believe necessary to test the model law or laws is covered in Section V. A list of references completes the report.

* Limit velocity is the velocity for threshold of complete penetration of armor by a projectile.

II. BACKGROUND

Studies of penetration mechanics, both experimental and theoretical, are numerous and ancient. They cover a wide spectrum of types of penetrator, impact conditions, and targets. Penetrators can be jagged fragments, cubes, spheres, "conventional" cylindrical projectiles with L/D ratios of 3 or less and various nose shapes, or slender projectiles of L/D greater than 10. Impact velocities can range from less than 100 m/s to over 1500 m/s, depending on type of penetrator and target. Targets can be very "soft" (human beings or thin sheet metal), of medium "hardness" (earthworks or reinforced concrete bunkers), or very "hard" (monolithic or spaced tank armor). Because the physical processes governing penetration for almost any combination of penetrator and target are very complex, most theoretical and many experimental studies are limited to specific penetrator-target combinations and velocity regimes. The state of the art of even the most sophisticated computer programs for prediction of high velocity penetration is still limited to axisymmetric projectiles impacting monolithic targets at normal obliquity.^{1,2}

Because accurate theoretical studies are difficult, most of penetration mechanics is based on experiment. The number of terminal ballistic tests conducted over the years, with different combinations of projectiles, impact conditions, and targets is probably beyond counting--and they still continue as "new" combinations are conceived and tested by ordnance specialists. Many of these tests have been conducted full scale, at great expense in money and time, for large caliber projectiles. All too often, the tools of model analysis have been ignored in comparing tests at different calibers, or as a design tool to predict performance by sub-scale testing prior to full-scale testing.

There appears to have been little application of scaling principles to penetration mechanics prior to World War II. But, terminal ballistic studies of penetrations into steel plate and reinforced concrete slabs sponsored by National Defense Research Council (NDRC) during that war were obviously guided by scaling considerations. Curtis³ stated that dimensional analysis indicated perforation formulas for armor-piercing projectiles against plate should have the alternate forms:

$$\frac{e_1}{d^3} = \bar{c} f \left(\frac{t}{d}, \theta \right) \quad (1a)$$

or

$$\frac{W v_\ell^2}{d^3} = c f \left(\frac{t}{d}, \theta \right) \quad (1b)$$

where

$$c = 2 g \bar{c}$$

In these equations,

- e_1 = limit energy = minimum energy required for perforation
- W = projectile weight
- V_l = limit velocity
- d = maximum projectile diameter (caliber)
- t = plate thickness
- $\bar{c}$ = measure of strength of plate material expressed as force per unit area
- g = acceleration due to gravity
- $f\left(\frac{t}{d}, \theta\right)$ = a general function of $\frac{t}{d}$ and θ
- θ = angle of incidence

Curtis called the parameter (WV_l^2/d^3) the specific limit energy. His analysis was limited to non-deforming projectiles, and it therefore included no strength properties of the projectile. An empirical plot from Reference 3 shows some data for small caliber projectiles fired versus various scaled thickness of armor (Figure 1). Curtis notes that there is a minor "scale effect," i.e., a contradiction to Eq. (1), with a slight tendency for specific limit energy to decrease as projectile caliber increases. He suggests that this deviation from scaling may be connected with the occurrence of inclusions in the armor. He discounts strain rate effects and differences in basic strength properties of thick and thin plates as explanations of the "scale effect."

Following the World War II work, it apparently became common practice to report penetration and perforation data for armor-piercing projectiles in terms of projectile calibers, as typified by an extensive compilation by Killian.⁴ Separate plots are provided in Reference 4 for each type of projectile and impact obliquity, for homologous projectiles. Killian defines homologous projectiles as ones with weights varying as the third power of their diameters and lengths varying as the first power of their diameters. He apparently tacitly assumes nose shapes to be similar. (We would use the term "geometrically similar"

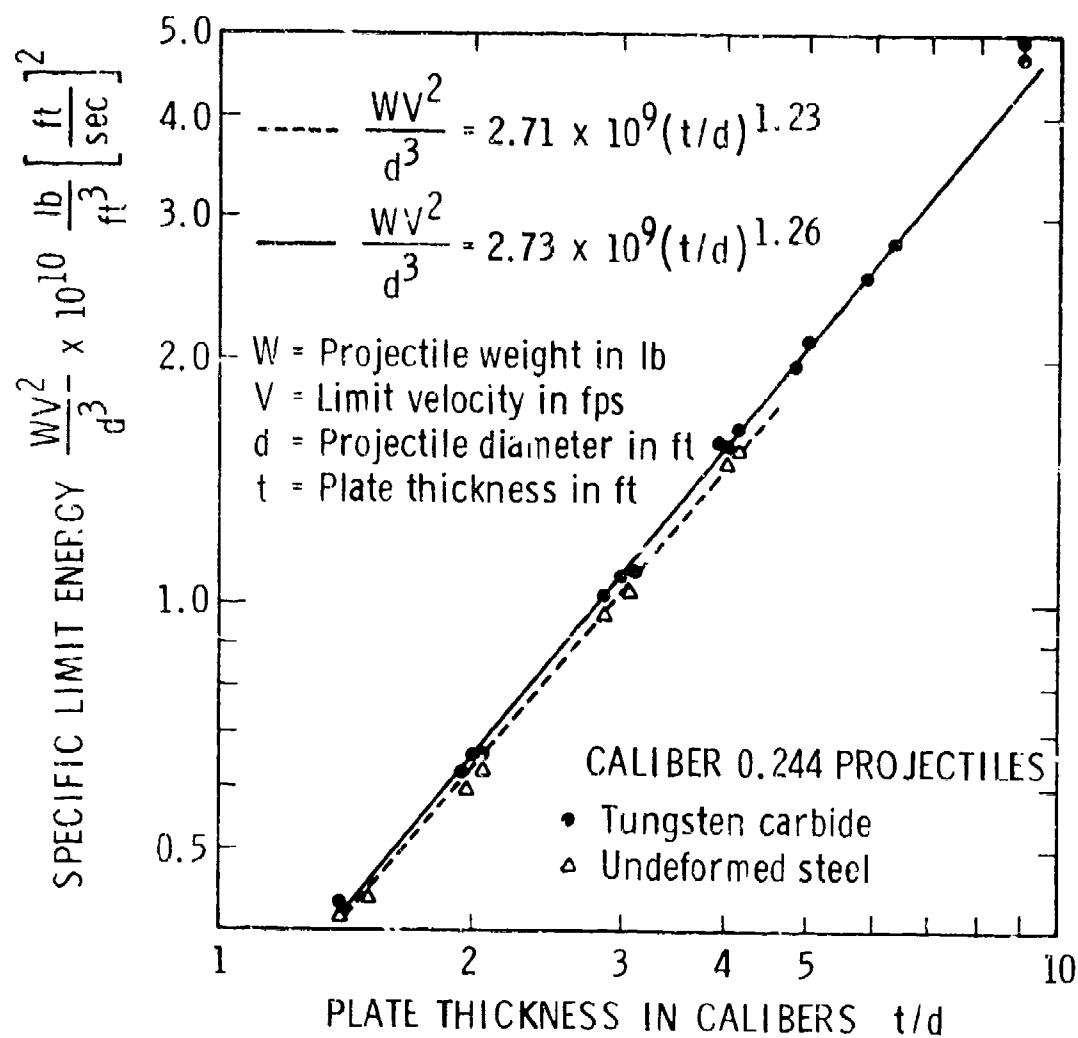


FIGURE 1. LOGARITHMIC PLOT OF SPECIFIC LIMIT ENERGY
 VS PLATE THICKNESS; NORMAL IMPACT,
 BHN 255 ARMOR(3)

rather than "homologous" in this context because homology can apply to variables other than geometric ones.) A typical plot from Reference 4 is shown in Figure 2. The abscissa is identical to that in Figure 1, but the ordinate is now simply the limit velocity, which can be obtained from the term (WV_0^2/d^3) under the assumption that W is proportional to d^3 and by taking the square root.

A rather comprehensive discussion of modeling in penetration mechanics is given by Baker, Westine and Dodge in Chapter 8 of Reference 5. These authors use the definition of regions of impact of Summers and Charters,⁶ as follows:

- (1) Low velocity region - undeformed projectile,
- (2) Transition region - significant to great projectile deformation,
- (3) Fluid impact region - projectile completely melted and/or vaporized.

They then present model analyses for projectile impacts as typified by the geometry and properties of Figure 3, for all three impact regions. As an example, Table 1 is a list of physical parameters which were considered important in the transitional region, and Table 2 is a resulting set of dimensionless parameters from the model analysis. Term π_{14} is the dimensionless equivalent of a limit velocity, while term π_{15} is the projectile penetration or perforation in calibers. A number of constitutive properties for both projectile and target enter the similitude analysis, and these in turn appear in many π terms in Table 2. A type of shorthand notation is also used in terms such as σ_1 and S_1 , implying ratios of components of stress tensors to a basic quantity with dimensions of stress. This in turn implies complete constitutive similarity. By contrast, Curtis's model law in Eq. (1a) or (1b) includes a single constitutive property for the target material, so that his parameter $\bar{C}$ is probably the counterpart of S in the analysis of Baker, et al.⁵ Note also that projectile weight W and acceleration of gravity g do not appear explicitly in Table 1 or Table 2. Instead, enough geometric parameters are included to completely define projectile volume, and projectile density is also listed. The projectile mass M is scaled in Table 2, where*

* The insertion of g by Curtis in Eq. (1b) introduces a parameter which should not enter this scaling law. Projectile mass is important in this problem, not weight, and the acceleration of gravity has no bearing on this problem.

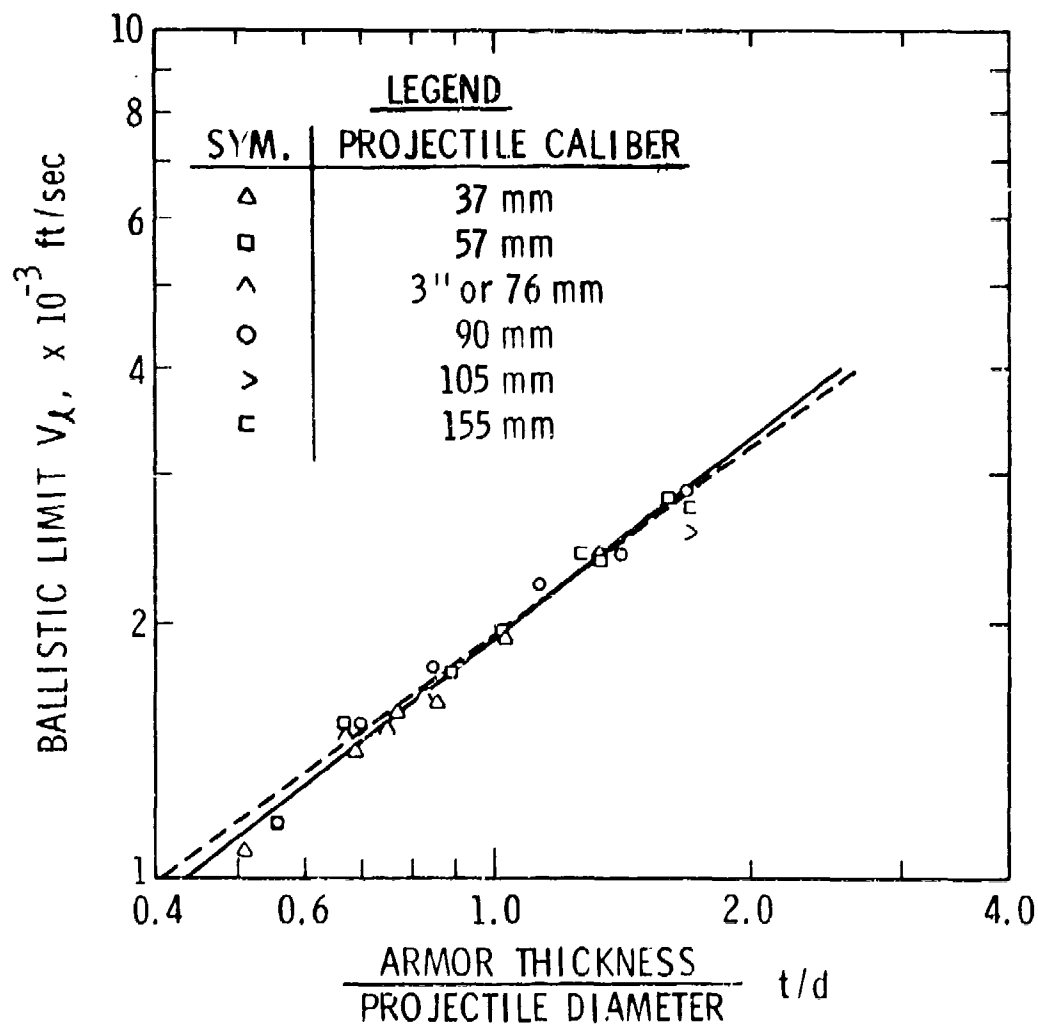


FIGURE 2. BALLISTIC LIMIT CURVE FOR ARMOR PIERCING CAPPED PROJECTILES VS ROLLED HOMOGENEOUS ARMOR, 30° OBLIQUITY (Fig. 14A of Ref. 4)

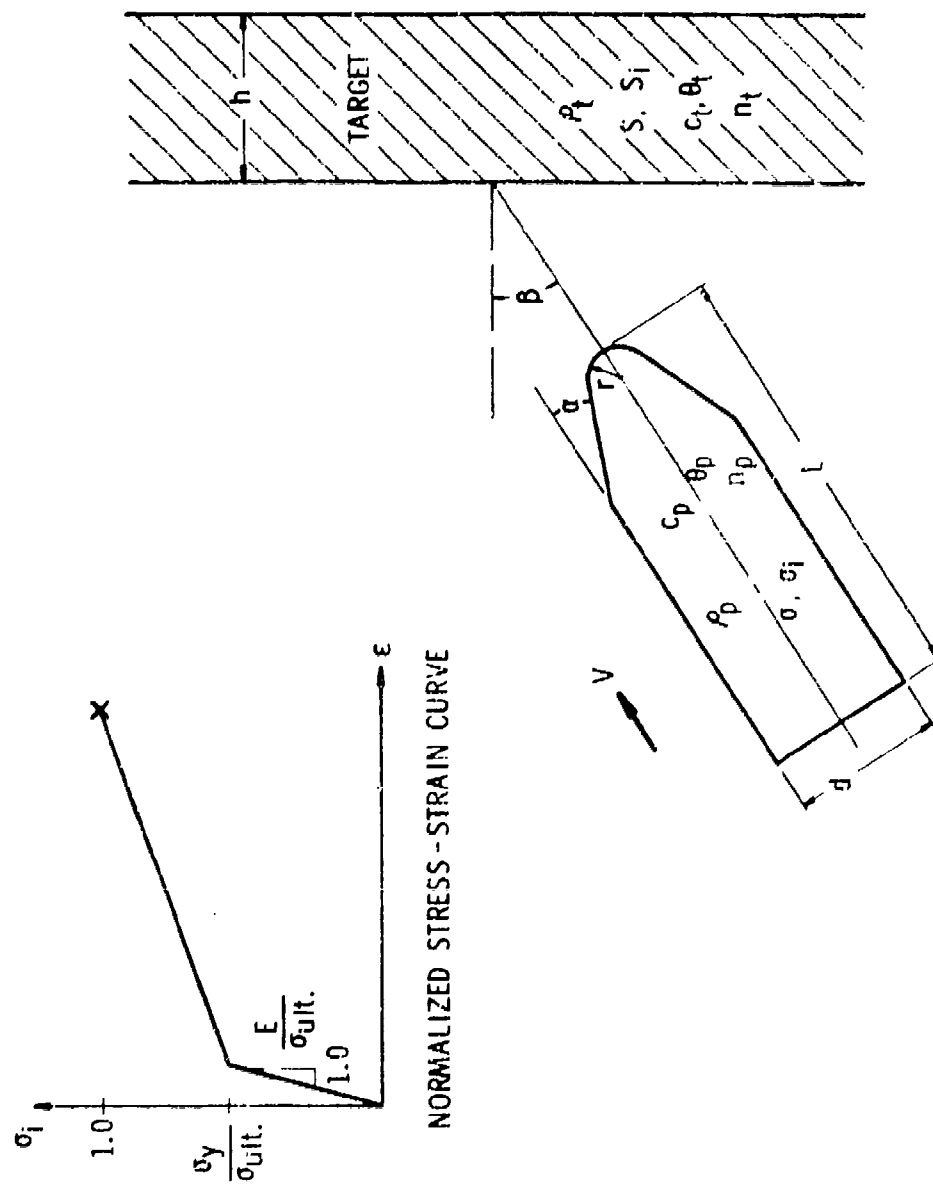


FIGURE 3. PROJECTILE PENETRATING TARGET (5)

TABLE I. LIST OF PARAMETERS FOR PROJECTILE IMPACT--
TRANSITIONAL REGION⁽⁵⁾

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Fundamental Dimensions</u>
Caliber of bullet	d	L
Length of bullet	L	L
Nose radius of projectile	r	L
Angle of projectile nose	α	-
Angle of obliquity	β	-
Density of projectile	ρ_p	FT^2/L^4
Velocity of projectile	V	L/T
Thickness of target	h	L
Density of target	ρ_t	FT^2/L^4
Temperature of target	θ_t	θ
Specific heat of target	c_t	$L^2/\theta T^2$
Heat of fusion of target	n_t	L^2/T^2
Temperature of projectile	θ_p	θ
Specific heat of projectile	c_p	$L^2/\theta T^2$
Heat of fusion of projectile	n_p	L^2/T^2
Ultimate stress of target	S	F/L^2
Ultimate stress of projectile	σ	F/L^2
Other stress or strength rates of target	S_i	F/L^2
Other stress or strength rates of projectile	σ_i	F/L^2
Strain	ϵ	-

TABLE 2. PI TERMS--PROJECTILE IMPACT IN THE
TRANSITIONAL REGION⁽⁵⁾

π_1	=	α	}	Geometric similarity
π_2	=	β		
π_3	=	L/d		
π_4	=	r/d		
π_5	=	h/d		
π_6	=	ρ_p/ρ_t		Similar density ratios
π_7	=	ε	}	Constitutive similarity
π_8	=	σ/S		
π_9	=	S_i/S		
π_{10}	=	σ_i/S		
π_{11}	=	θ_p/θ_t		Similar temperature
π_{12}	=	n_p/n_t		Similar heats of fusion
π_{13}	=	c_p/c_t		Similar specific heats
π_{14}	=	$\rho_t^{1/2} V/S^{1/2}$	}	Energy ratios
π_{15}	=	$\rho_t \theta_t c_t/S$		
π_{16}	=	$\rho_t n_t/S$		

$$M = \frac{W}{g} \quad (2)$$

Baker, et al.,⁵ note that a replica model law is consistent with Table 2, implying that all material properties must be kept identical and all geometries must be scaled by the geometric scale factor in model and prototype. If this is done, scale factors for all physical parameters in Table 1 are as shown in Table 3.

Baker, et al.,⁵ note that the law given by Table 2 is a rather general one and includes model laws for the low velocity region and the high velocity fluid impact region as special cases. In the high velocity region, they note that alternate forms of the last three pi terms in Table 2 are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \pi_{14-a} &= \frac{v^2}{n_t} \\ \pi_{15-a} &= \frac{\theta_i c_t}{n_t} \\ \pi_{16-a} &= \frac{S}{\rho_t n_t} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3)$$

and that π_{15-a} is essentially a constant for all metals, and so can be dropped from the analysis. The S_i , σ_i and $S/\rho_t n_t$ are dropped from the general solution because mechanical strength is unimportant for high velocity impacts. This procedure gives Table 4.

Subsequently, it is demonstrated that $c_t \theta_i / n_t$ is almost constant for most metals, making π_{15-a} no problem. Finally, data are used to show V^2/n_t is V^2/a^2 , or the square of the Mach Number. Data from the literature are given in Reference 5 to show the validity of this law. The authors of Reference 5 also show that many of the low velocity empirical penetration equations available in the literature are of the form

$$\frac{\rho_t^{1/2} V}{S^{1/2}} = f \left(\text{geometric similarity, } \frac{S}{\sigma}, \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_t} \right) \quad (4)$$

As an example, the left hand side of Eq. (1b) can be written

TABLE 3. REPLICA MODELING LAW IN
TRANSITION RANGE⁽⁵⁾

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Scale Factor</u>
Geometric lengths	d, L, r, h	λ
Angles	α, β	1.0
Stress	σ, S	1.0
Strain	ϵ	1.0
Density	ρ_t, ρ_p	1.0
Velocity	v	1.0
Temperature	θ_t, θ_p	1.0
Specific heats	c_t, c_p	1.0
Heats of fusion	n_t, n_p	1.0

TABLE 4. PI TERMS--HIGH VELOCITY IMPACTS

π_1	=	α	} Geometric similarity
π_2	=	β	
π_3	=	L/d	
π_4	=	r/d	
π_5	=	h/d	
π_6	=	ρ_p/ρ_t	Similar density ratios
π_{11}	=	θ_p/θ_t	Similar temperatures
π_{12}	=	n_p/n_t	Similar heats of fusion
π_{13}	=	c_p/c_t	Similar specific heats
π_{14-a}	=	v^2/n_t	Normalized velocity of impact
π_{15-a}	=	$\theta_t c_t/n_t$	Energy to raise temperature of metal relative to energy to cause liquefaction

$$\frac{WV_l^2}{d^3 2gc} = \frac{MV_l^2}{d^3 2c} \sim \frac{\rho_t d^3 v_l^2}{d^3 s} = \frac{\rho_t v_l^2}{s} \quad (5)$$

This is the square of the left hand side of Eq. (4).

References on scaling of penetration mechanics in the transition and fluid impact regions, other than the few cited in Reference 5, are scarce. Dienes and Walsh⁷ use dimensional analysis to reduce the set of differential equations governing hypervelocity impact phenomena to a smaller set before computer solution. Some data on small-scale Bearcat[®]* steel penetrators with (L/D) = 10 against single and triple aluminum plate targets are reported by Wenzel and Hokanson,⁸ but no model prototype comparisons are made.

* Bearcat is a registered trademark of Bethlehem Steel Corporation for their patented formulation of AISI-S7 tool steel.

III. MODEL ANALYSIS

A. Choice of Physical Parameters

In conducting a model analysis of the penetration of spaced armor by long rod penetrators, the first (and probably most important) step is the choice of physical parameters which are felt to be important, and the listing of their dimensions. Because the penetrator and target are both of complex geometry and because the impacts are occurring in the fluid flow and transition regions discussed earlier, a large number of physical and geometric parameters are needed to characterize the problem. Rather than simply listing the parameters we feel are important, we present here our rationale for inclusion or omission of each property or group of properties. (To keep the number of parameters within bounds for this complex problem, we will freely employ the shorthand notation of a symbol with a subscript "i" for similar physical quantities having the same dimensions.) The fundamental dimensions used for the various quantities are force (F), length (L), time (T), and temperature (θ). We could just as easily and accurately use mass (M) in place of force, but the (F, L, T, θ) set of dimensions will suffice.*

Let us first cover those quantities which describe the geometry of the problem. Figure 4 shows the geometry of a typical long rod projectile just prior to impact on spaced armor. Let "d" mean "dimensionally equal" or "has the dimensions of," and (-) mean "dimensionless"; then the projectile is impacting with a striking velocity $V_s \stackrel{d}{=} (L/T)$, whose direction makes an angle $\beta \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ to the surface of the first plate in the plane containing the target normal and velocity vector. The projectile flies at some yaw angle component $\delta_1 \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ in this plane (pitch) and some yaw angle component normal to this plane, $\delta_2 \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$, with respect to the impact angle β . Definition of projectile geometry requires a large number of lengths $\ell_i \stackrel{d}{=} (L)$ and angles $\alpha_i \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$, some of which are shown schematically in Figure 4. We also choose the diameter d (or caliber) of the main body of the finned projectile as a particular characteristic length. The geometry of the target, which consists of parallel, flat armor plates of various thicknesses and spacings, is fixed by specifying a characteristic thickness h of the first layer, thicknesses of other layers h_i , and spacings of

*For reasons which will be discussed later, a dimensional constant such as the mechanical equivalent of heat must appear in the list of parameters when θ is listed as a fundamental dimension.

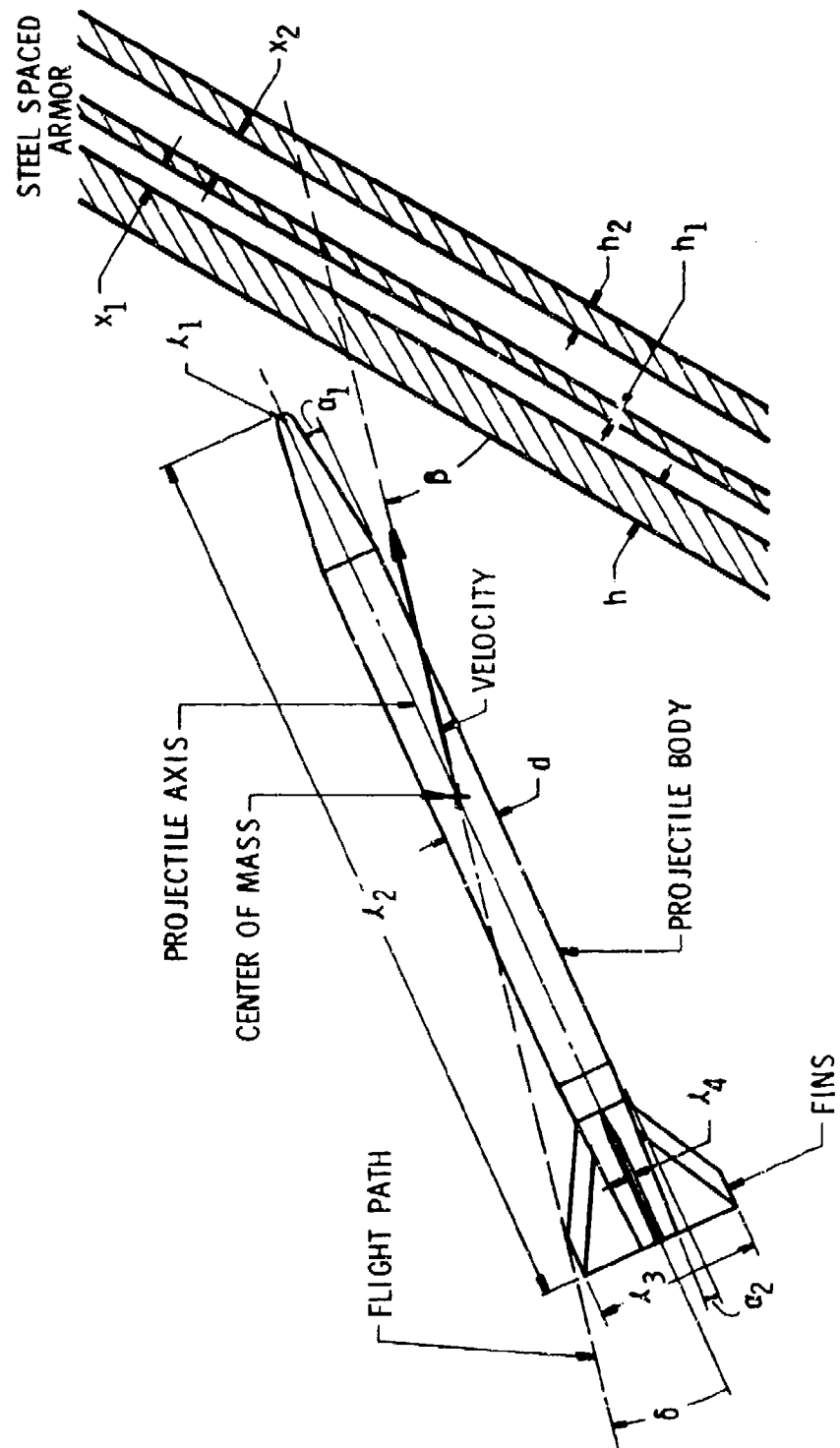


FIGURE 4. IMPACT GEOMETRY

layers x_i , all with dimensions of length L . So, we list ten geometric parameters. The important consideration is not the exact number of such parameters which we include, but is instead the inclusion of enough lengths and angles, either explicitly or implicitly by the shorthand subscript, to completely fix the geometry of projectile, target, and impact.

We are also interested in some geometric parameters after impact, and this geometry is almost certain to be very complex because the projectile can break up as it penetrates the spaced armor, and the armor can spall. A number of jagged pieces will be flying about in various directions, and exact description of this geometry does not seem possible. Instead, we assume that enough detail can be given by inclusion of the parameters $r \stackrel{d}{=} (L)$ for characteristic mean (linear dimension) of projectile or spall particles, number of particles $N \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$, distribution functions $f_i \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ for sizes or masses of fragments, and $\gamma_i \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ for fragment trajectory angles. The actual number of parameters included in f_i and γ_i may be huge.

Let us next consider material properties. In the model analysis of projectile impact in the transition region⁵ discussed in Section II, a number of material properties for both projectile and target were included. We must include at least as many parameters in this analysis and may have to add more. The properties which we feel should be included are:

- (1) Dynamic constitutive properties, including wave transmission properties
- (2) Fracture toughness
- (3) Hugoniot properties
- (4) Other continuum properties
 - (a) Densities
 - (b) Heat capacities
 - (c) Heats of fusion
 - (d) Heats of vaporization
- (5) Microscopic properties
 - (a) Grain size
 - (b) Flaw size
 - (c) General microstructure, expressed as length ratios

Dynamic constitutive properties of metals under triaxial states of stress, high strain rates, and for large plastic deformations up to fracture, are all involved in this problem. Complete definition of these parameters would require a very large number of parameters because nine components of stress tensors and strain tensors are required, as well as yield and rupture criteria involving invariants of stress tensors. But, for the model analysis the real requirement is that stress states and strain states be homologous at homologous locations and times. We can assure this by choosing characteristic yield or failure stresses for projectile material, $\sigma \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^2)$, and for target material, $S \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^2)$, and by also indicating other components of the stress tensors as $\sigma_{ij} \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^2)$ and $S_{ij} \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^2)$. Included in these latter parameters by inference are elastic moduli such as Young's modulus, bulk modulus, and shear modulus for each material. Wave transmission velocities are included in both projectile, $c_p \stackrel{d}{=} (L/T)$, and target, $c_t \stackrel{d}{=} (L/T)$. We complete our specification of dynamic constitutive properties by including in our list of parameters characteristic strains, $\epsilon_p \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ and $\epsilon_t \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$, and components of the strain tensors, $\epsilon_{pij} \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ and $\epsilon_{tij} \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$.

In listing dynamic constitutive properties, we have deliberately omitted strain rates. This is done, not because knowledge of these properties at high strain rates is not important in the physics of high velocity penetration,⁹ but because strain rates will only differ by at most an order of magnitude between model and prototype experiments.* Stress-strain curves for many metals are indeed affected markedly when one attempts to compare results at very slow rates to those encountered in high velocity penetration. This is particularly true for low yield, ductile materials. Figures 5 and 6, from Reference 9, indicate dependence of yield stress on strain rate for mild steel and a soft aluminum alloy.

However, high yield alloys, which are much more typical of the materials used in high velocity penetrators and in armor, usually exhibit minimal effect of strain rate on yield or ultimate stress. This is evident in Figure 7 for 4340 steel and Figure 8 for 7075-T6 aluminum alloy, from Reference 10. The yield stress for the high-strength steel increases by only 4% over five decades of strain rates, and the increase for the high-strength aluminum alloy is even less. Even assuming the worst case, for high strain rates for mild steel (Figure 5), the ultimate stress only increases by 10% over the single decade which is the practical upper limit for change in strain rate between our model and

* We will show later that practical model scales for this problem are $\lambda \geq 1/10$.

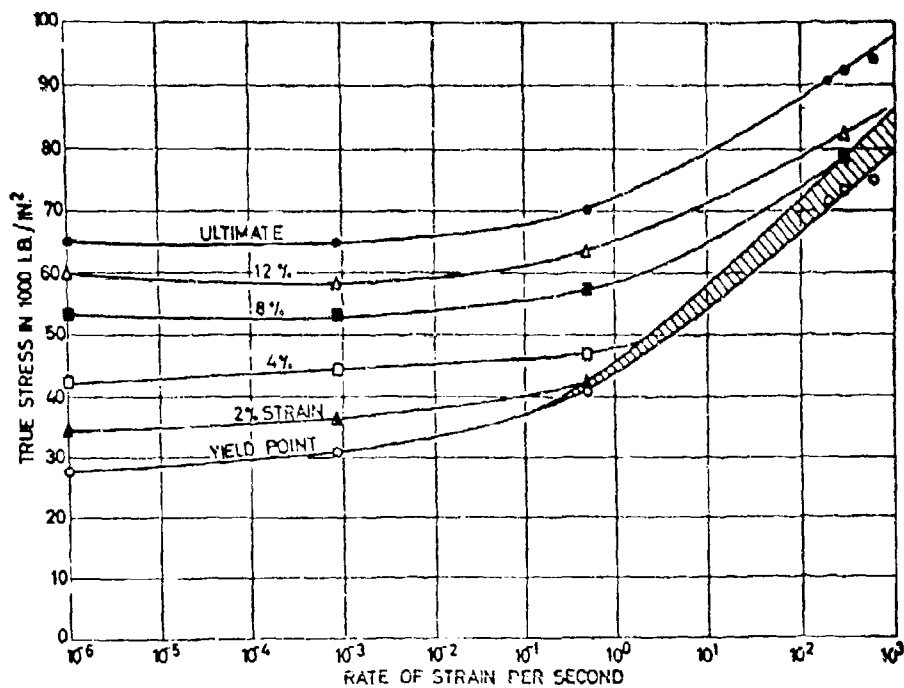


FIGURE 5. TRUE YIELD STRESSES AT VARIOUS STRAINS VS STRAIN RATE FOR MILD STEEL AT ROOM TEMPERATURE(9)

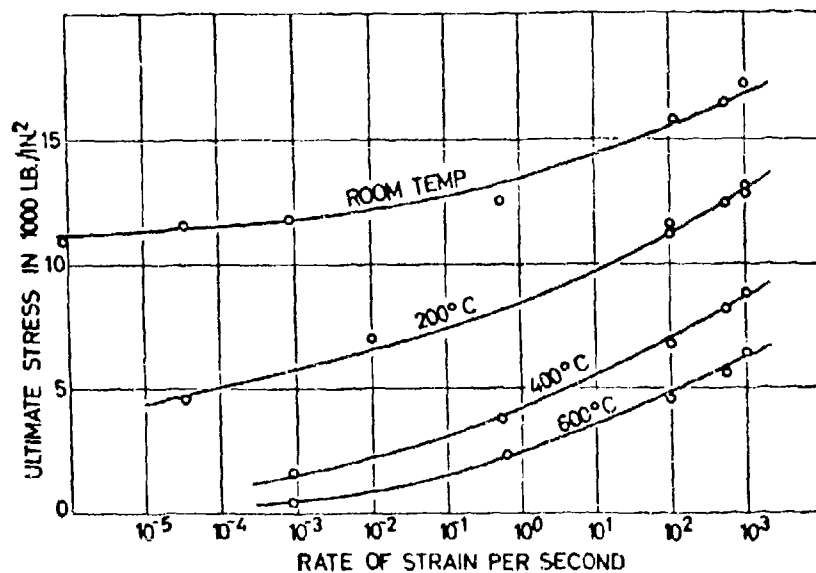


FIGURE 6. EFFECT OF STRAIN RATE ON ULTIMATE STRESS OF ALUMINUM (1100-0) AT VARIOUS TEMPERATURES(9)

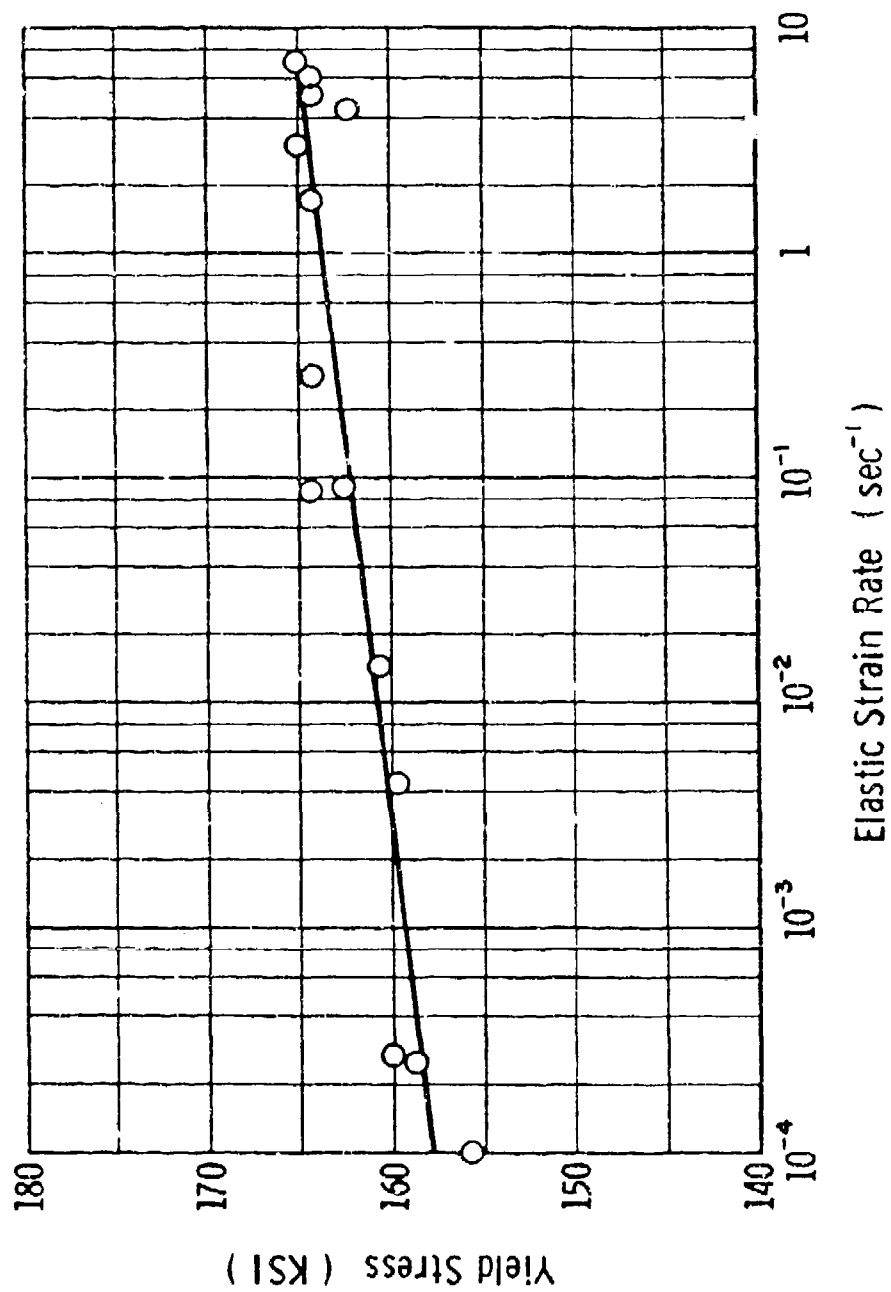


FIGURE 7. YIELD STRESS VS STRAIN RATE FOR 4340
FINE GRAINED, MARTENSITE STEEL (10)

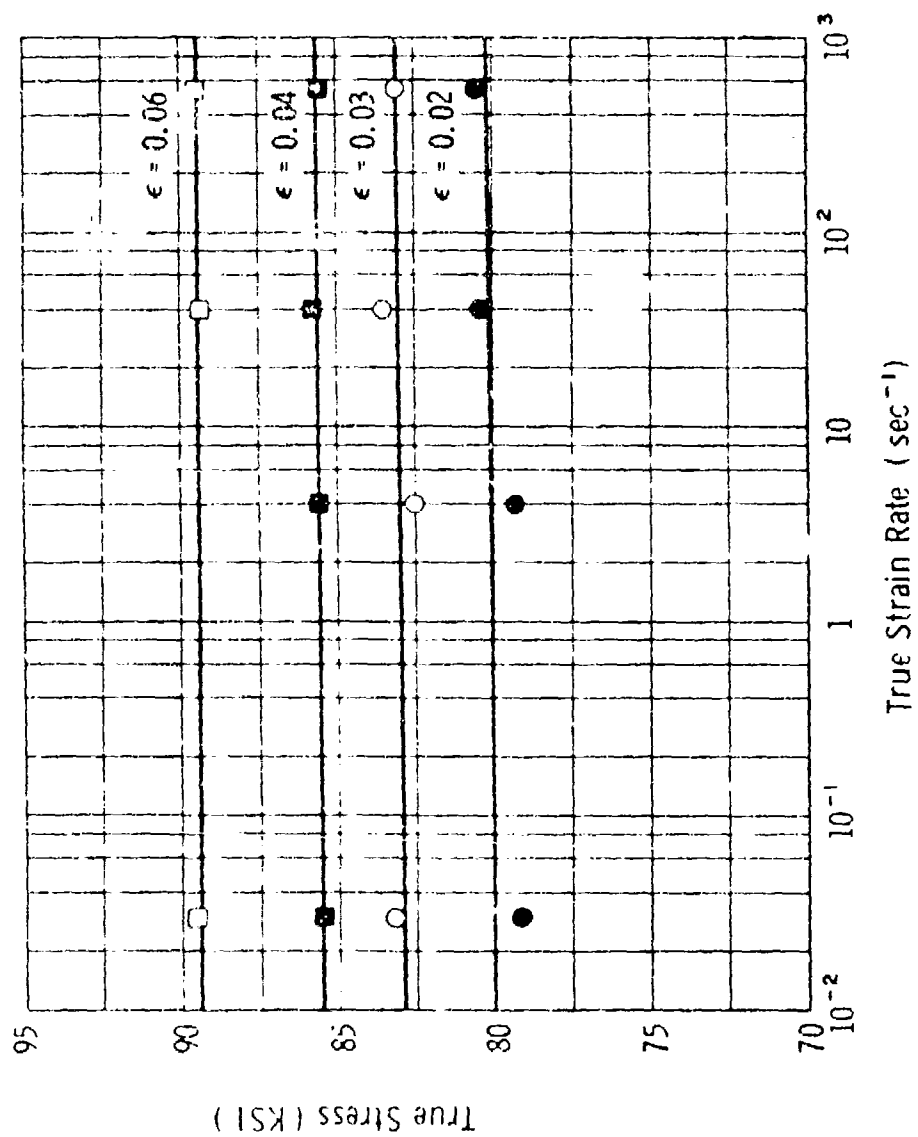


FIGURE 8. YIELD STRESS VS STRAIN RATE FOR
ALUMINUM ALLOY 7075-T6

prototype penetration tests. Much more experimental evidence could be cited to reinforce our decision to omit strain rate as a significant parameter in the model analysis, but we believe that this discussion should suffice.

A property which relates to fracture under impact, and which probably involves both basic material properties and some aspects of the tests used to measure the property, is fracture toughness, $K_c \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^{3/2})$. This property should be included in our analysis for both projectile and target materials. It seems quite probable that this quantity is in reality

$$K_c = (\ell_f)^{1/2} (\Delta_f) \quad (6)$$

where $\ell_f \stackrel{d}{=} (L)$ is the length of a critical flaw in the projectile or target material, and $\Delta_f \stackrel{d}{=} (F/L^2)$ is fracture energy per unit volume.

The latter quantity is essentially the area under the stress-strain curve for the material and has the dimensions of stress. Although inclusion of these two parameters or the fracture toughness itself will suffice, we choose the latter course.

When the impacts are at high enough velocity that all or part of the material behavior lies in the fluid impact region, the description of dynamic material properties becomes much simpler because the materials behave as compressible, inviscid fluids. They do not support shear, and one need only consider scalar pressures and their relation to shock velocity, particle velocity, or volume change. The resulting Hugoniot relations are completely defined for most metals, including steels, tungsten and uranium alloys, through the empirical relation^{11,12}

$$U = c_o + s u \quad (7)$$

where U is shock velocity, c_o is sound velocity, s is a dimensionless constant ranging between 1.0 and 1.7 for most materials, and u is particle velocity behind the shock front. If data from Reference 11 and other sources are scaled, one can see that a mean value of s , say

$$\bar{s} = 1.435 \quad (8)$$

represents a wide variety of materials with little error (Figure 9). We have already included c_o in our list of parameters, and so need only add $s \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$ to complete the Hugoniot description.

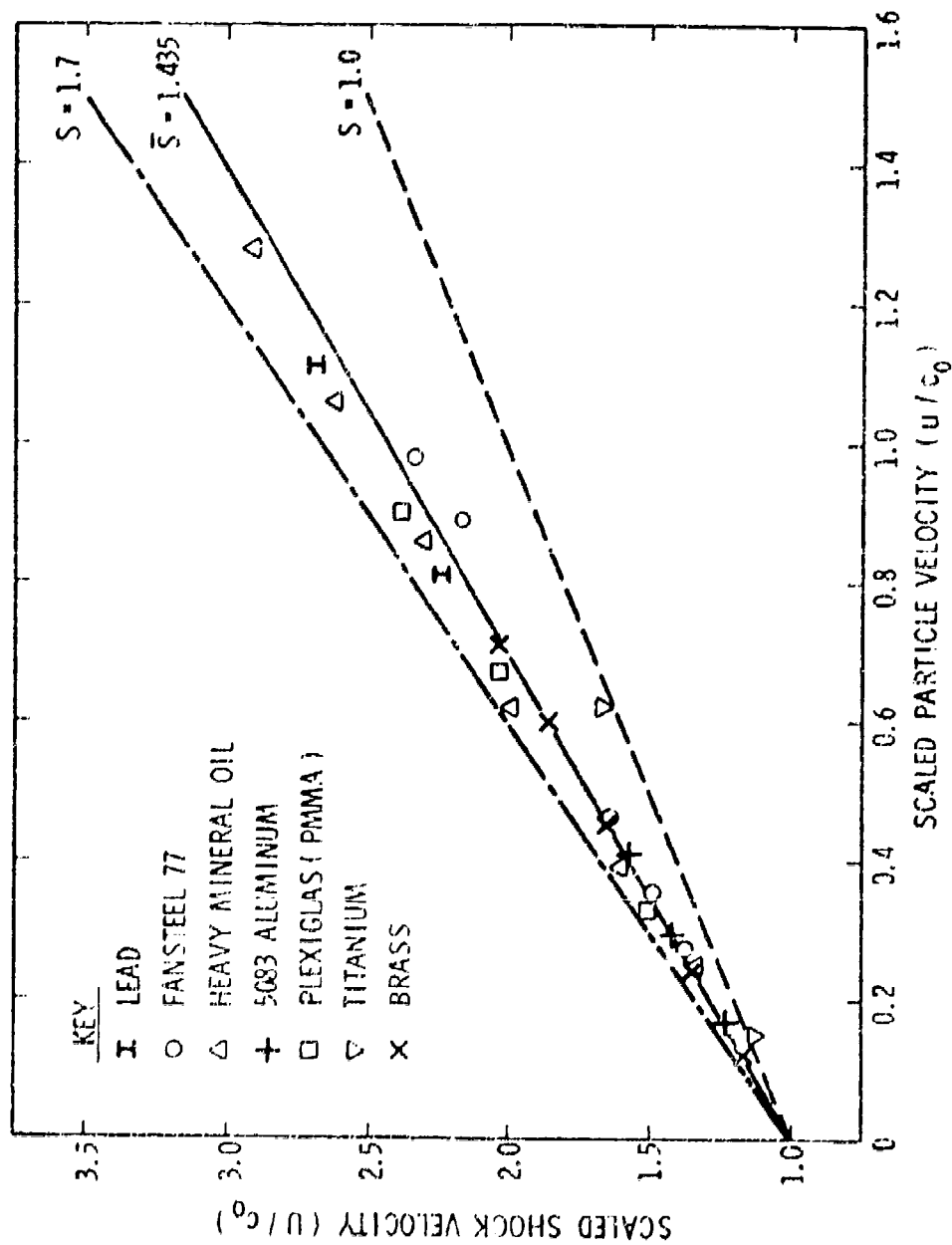


FIGURE 9. SCALED HUGONIOI PARAMETERS (u/c_0) VS (u/c_0) FOR VARIOUS PARAMETERS

A number of more mundane continuum or state properties are needed to complete our list of material properties. These are, in general, easily measured or are available from handbooks. They include densities of projectile $\rho_p \stackrel{d}{=} (FT^2/L^4)$ and target $\rho_t \stackrel{d}{=} (FT^2/L^4)$, initial temperatures of projectile $\theta_p \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$ and target $\theta_t \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$, and melting temperatures of projectile $\phi_p \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$ and target $\phi_t \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$. A number of thermal or thermodynamic energy parameters must also be included. We choose to include the list in Table 5.

TABLE 5. THERMAL PROPERTIES FOR MODEL ANALYSIS

Specific heat of projectile material	$C_p \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$
Heat of fusion for projectile	$n_p \stackrel{d}{=} (L^2/T^2)$
Internal (thermal) energy in target	$E_t \stackrel{d}{=} (L^2/T^2)$
Nondimensional (thermal) material coefficients in target	$a_t \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$
Specific heat of target	$C_t \stackrel{d}{=} (\theta)$
Heat of fusion for target	$n_t \stackrel{d}{=} (L^2/T^2)$
Internal (thermal) energy in projectile	$E_p \stackrel{d}{=} (L^2/T^2)$
Nondimensional (thermal) material coefficients in projectile	$a_p \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$
Mechanical equivalent of heat	$J \stackrel{d}{=} (-)$

If one needs other specific energies, they can be included in a_p or a_t by making ratios with E_p or E_t . Phase changes are included with the quantities n_p and n_t . The quantities C_p and C_t may be superfluous, but will be included for completeness. The reason for inclusion of J is best stated by the following quote from page 285 of Reference 5.

"Thermal modeling involves at least one more dimension--temperature--than the purely mechanical problems emphasized so far in this book. In Chapter 1 it was brought out that, by considering the statistical mechanics of small particles, the temperature can be expressed in dimensions of energy; however, this forces us to treat one of the constants of statistical mechanics (say Boltzmann's constant or the gas constant) as an abstract number in our list of relevant parameters for every thermal modeling problem. Rather than do this, we follow the customary practice of introducing temperature θ as a fourth fundamental dimension. Thus, four dimensions are necessary in thermal modeling, mass M , length L , time T , and temperature θ .

"Thermal energy (heat) is usually measured in nonmechanical energy units such as British Thermal Units (BTU) or calories, which appears then as a fifth fundamental dimension. If heat is measured in these thermal units (say BTU's), and mechanical energy is measured in mechanical units (say foot-pounds), we must include the 'mechanical equivalent of heat' in our lists of relevant parameters. Again, rather than introduce another constant, we will measure heat in mechanical units, or convert it to mechanical units, for the purposes of conducting a dimensional analysis. The reader is cautioned, however, that most tabulated values of thermal quantities are given in thermal units so that a conversion of units with the aid of the mechanical equivalent of heat (for example, 1 BTU = 772.28 ft-lb) is needed to make actual calculations. In the system of dimensions used in this book, all quantities that customarily have the units of BTU's or calories will have dimensions of FL in an F, L, T, θ system or ML^2T^{-2} in an M, L, T, θ system."

Note that there are no parameters defining heat conduction processes in either target or projectile. As is true for strain-rate effects, we feel that heat conduction need not be scaled, but for different reasons. The basic reason is that the process of high-velocity penetration is much too rapid for significant conductive heat transfer to occur. Local heating can occur and will probably be very important, but conduction from regions at high temperature to those at low temperature is a relatively slow process, even for good heat conductors like metals. In rapid processes such as this, it is no accident that a predominant failure mechanism is postulated to be adiabatic shear. This implies a process occurring so rapidly that there is no time for heat to transfer away from areas which have been heated by the mechanical work they have undergone.

Generally, in this problem, we are concerned with continuum properties of the projectile materials. Typical interatomic distances in metals are 3×10^{-7} mm, while our smallest caliber model penetrator or thinnest model armor will be about 6 mm. Grain sizes for high-strength metal alloys are, however, about 0.03 mm, which can be of the order of size of some small spall particles. We have already mentioned that a typical flaw size is included in K_c . To include other microscopic (but not submicroscopic) properties such as grain size and shape in the analysis, we need list only a few more lengths ℓ_i and angles α_i .

To complete our list of parameters, we must include ones which describe the results or response in either model or prototype tests. Strains or displacements, either transient or permanent, are already included. We are interested in the time sequence or history of events, so we now add time $t \stackrel{d}{=} (T)$. Projectile residual velocity $V_r \stackrel{d}{=} (L/T)$ and residual mass $M_r \stackrel{d}{=} (FT^2/L)$ must be recorded. We wish also to characterize back surface spall, but this has already been covered in our discussion of geometric parameters. We add only the total mass of spall fragments $m \stackrel{d}{=} (FT^2/L)$.

Our complete list of 48 physical parameters is given in Table 6. Even though we have attempted to reduce the number of parameters by use of shorthand notation, the list is still formidable. Some quantities are redundant, but are included for convenience. As an example, we list wave transmission velocities for projectile and target, even though these parameters are implied by the inclusion of elastic and plastic moduli and densities through the relation

$$C = \left[\frac{1}{\rho} \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \epsilon} \right) \right]^{1/2} \quad (9)$$

The inclusion of redundant parameters will not affect the validity of the model analysis, but will result in more dimensionless pi terms than the minimum necessary. Parameters specifically omitted include strain rates, heat conductivities, and gravity.

B. Model Analysis

The next step in a model analysis is to create nondimensional products or pi terms from the list of parameters in Table 6. Many texts exist describing various mathematical procedures for creating pi terms from a list of parameters.⁵ Because no new assumptions are involved and the mathematics, unless pi terms are written by inspection (the procedure used herein), are tedious, only the results will be presented. In making this step, no assumptions are introduced into the analysis.

TABLE 6. LIST OF PARAMETERS

Parameter	Symbol	Fundamental Units of Measure
I. Penetrator Properties		
A. Geometric and Impact		
caliber	d	L
other geometric projectile lengths	l_i	L
angle of impact	β	-
yaw angle at impact	δ	-
ogive and other projectile angles	α_i	-
velocity of impact	V_s	L/T
initial mass	M_s	FT^2/L
B. Material		
density of projectile	ρ_p	FT^2/L^4
characteristic projectile stress or strength	σ	F/L^2
other projectile strengths	σ_{ij}	F/L^2
characteristic strain in projectile	ϵ_p	-
other strains	ϵ_{pij}	-
internal energy in projectile	E_p	L^2/T^2
nondimensional material coefficients in projectile	a_p, s_p	-
specific heat of projectile	C_p	L^2/RT^2
flight temperature of projectile	θ_p	θ
melting temperature of projectile	ϕ_p	θ
heat of fusion for projectile	n_p	L^2/T^2
wave transmission velocities	c_p	L/T
fracture toughness	K_{cp}	$F/L^{3/2}$
II. Target Properties		
A. Geometric		
target thickness for principal armor plate	h	L
thickness of other armor plates	h_i	L
space between armor plates	x_i	L
B. Material		
density of target material	ρ_t	FT^2/L^4
characteristic strength of target	S	F/L^2
other target strengths or stresses	S_{ij}	F/L^2
characteristic strain in target	ϵ_t	-
other strains	ϵ_{tij}	-
internal energy in target	E_t	L^2/T^2
nondimensional material coefficients for target	a_t, s_t	-
specific heat of target plates	C_t	L^2/RT^2
initial temperature of targets	θ_t	θ
melting temperature of target materials	ϕ_t	θ
heat of fusion for target materials	n_t	L^2/T^2
wave transmission velocities	c_t	L/T
fracture toughness	K_{ct}	$F/L^{3/2}$
III. Response Parameters		
time or duration of event	t	T
residual velocity of projectile	V_r	L/T
residual mass of projectile	M_r	FT^2/L
number of spall fragments	N	-
total mass of spall fragments	m	FT^2/L
velocities of spall fragments	u_i	L/T
subsequent reference angles for spall or projectile exit trajectories	γ_i	-
distribution functions for masses or sizes of spall fragments, velocities of spall fragments, etc.	f_i	-
resulting spall or projectile characteristic mean size	r	L
	J	-

Many sets of pi terms are possible. One such set that is complete is given in Table 7. The pi terms in Table 7 are organized into groups for purposes of discussion. Because we have 48 physical parameters, less 4 fundamental dimensions, there are $48 - 4 = 44$ pi terms.

Similitude theory states that for two systems to be identical, the pi terms in the model and prototype systems must be identical. Note that individual parameters or variables can differ between both systems, provided these differences are achieved while maintaining equality in pi terms. This fact suggests that tests might be run on smaller and less expensive systems than prototype or full-scale ones; however, pi terms must be evaluated to determine if the equality between model and prototype systems can be maintained.

The first nine pi terms state that both model and prototype systems shall be geometrically similar. In other words, all geometric dimensions in the model when divided by the corresponding dimensions in the prototype shall have the same geometric scale factor λ , and all corresponding angles in model and prototype systems shall be identical, i.e., have a scale factor of one. If these two criteria are maintained, geometric similarity is maintained and these nine pi terms are invariant. Pi term 40 is a universal constant and can be dropped because it is invariant in any problem. All pi terms which include single parameters represent quantities which are already dimensionless and must remain so if the scaling law is to be valid.

The remainder of the pi terms can be used to establish relations between scale factors. For example, pi term 11 requires that:

$$\lambda_m = \lambda_{\rho_p} \lambda^3 \quad (10)$$

In words, this equation states that the scale factor for total mass of spall fragments equals the scale factor for projectile density times the cube of the geometric scale factor. The complete set of such relations is given in Eq. (11).

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\rho_t} &= \lambda_{\rho_p} \\ \lambda_m &= \lambda_{M_s} = \lambda_{M_r} = \lambda_{\rho_p} \lambda^3 \\ \lambda_{\theta_p} &= \lambda_{\theta_t} = \lambda_{\phi_t} = \lambda_{\phi_p} \\ \lambda_{V_r} &= \lambda_{V_s} = \lambda_{u_i} = \lambda_{c_p} = \lambda_{c_t} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{continued})$$

TABLE 7. LIST OF PI TERMS

$\pi_1 = \frac{h}{d}$	geometric similarity	$\pi_{22} = \frac{C_t}{C_p}$	similar specific heats	constitutive similarity
$\pi_2 = \frac{s_i}{d}$		$\pi_{23} = \frac{E_t}{E_p}$		
$\pi_3 = \frac{h_i}{d}$		$\pi_{24} = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma}$	similar stress ratios	
$\pi_4 = \frac{x}{d}$		$\pi_{25} = \frac{s}{\sigma}$		
$\pi_5 = \frac{r}{d}$		$\pi_{26} = \frac{s_{ij}}{\sigma}$		
$\pi_6 = \alpha_1$		$\pi_{27} = \epsilon_p$		
$\pi_7 = \beta$		$\pi_{28} = \epsilon_t$		
$\pi_8 = \gamma$		$\pi_{29} = a_p$		
$\pi_9 = \delta$		$\pi_{30} = a_t$		
$\pi_{10} = \frac{\rho_t}{\rho_p}$	$\pi_{31} = \epsilon_{pij}$			
$\pi_{11} = \frac{m}{\rho_p d^3}$	$\pi_{32} = \epsilon_{tij}$			
$\pi_{12} = \frac{M_s}{\rho_p d^3}$	$\pi_{33} = s_p$			
$\pi_{13} = \frac{M_r}{\rho_p d^3}$	$\pi_{34} = s_t$			
	$\pi_{35} = K_{cp}/\sigma d^h$			
	$\pi_{36} = K_{ct}/\sigma d^h$			
$\pi_{14} = \frac{u_p}{\theta_t}$	similar temperatures	$\pi_{37} = N$	spall similarity	
$\pi_{15} = \frac{\phi_p}{\theta_t}$		$\pi_{38} = f_i$		
$\pi_{16} = \frac{\phi_t}{\theta_t}$		$\pi_{39} = \frac{V_s t}{d}$	kinematic similarity	
$\pi_{17} = \frac{v_r}{V_s}$	similar velocities	$\pi_{40} = J$	ratio of mechanical energy to thermal energy	
$\pi_{18} = \frac{u_i}{V_s}$		$\pi_{41} = \frac{v_s^2}{E_p}$	ratio of kinetic energy to material specific energy	
$\pi_{19} = \frac{c_p}{V_s}$		$\pi_{42} = \frac{\rho v_s^2}{\sigma}$	ratio of kinetic energy to strain energy	
$\pi_{20} = \frac{c_t}{V_s}$				
$\pi_{21} = \frac{n_t}{n_p}$	similar heats of fusion	$\pi_{43} = \frac{\rho_p n_p}{\sigma}$	ratio of energy for phase change to strain energy	
		$\pi_{44} = \frac{\rho_p C_p \theta_p}{\sigma}$	ratio of energy to raise material temperature to strain energy	

$$\begin{aligned}
\lambda_{n_t} &= \lambda_{n_p} \\
\lambda_{C_t} &= \lambda_{C_p} \\
\lambda_{E_t} &= \lambda_{E_p} \\
\lambda_{\sigma} &= \lambda_{\sigma_{ij}} = \lambda_s = \lambda_{s_{ij}} \\
\lambda_{K_{c_p}} &= \lambda_{K_{c_t}} = \lambda_{\sigma} \lambda^{1/2} \\
\lambda_{V_s} &= \lambda_t = \lambda \\
\lambda_{V_s}^2 &= \lambda_{E_p} \\
\lambda_{\sigma} &= \lambda_{\rho_p} \lambda_{V_s}^2 = \lambda_{\rho_p} \lambda_{n_p} = \lambda_{\rho_p} \lambda_{C_p} \lambda_{\theta_p}
\end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

Table 7 and the set of equations (11) constitute the results of the similitude analysis. They are too general to be of much use, so we must make further restrictions or assumptions to tell us where this analysis leads us.

C. Implications of "Replica" Modeling

One choice which automatically satisfies many pi terms is to assume replica modeling. In a replica model, complete geometric similarity is assumed, and all materials in homologous locations in model and prototype are assumed to be identical. Let us turn to Table 7 and follow through the implications of this set of assumptions.

We have already noted that pi terms 1 through 9 are satisfied by maintaining geometric similarity. This is true for a replica model except in the microstructure of the projectile and target materials. By maintaining the same materials, grain sizes are the same rather than scaled by λ .

The next four pi terms, pi 10 through 13, state that similar density ratios should be maintained for both distributed and lumped masses in model and prototype systems. If model and prototype targets as well as penetrators are made of the same material, then these ratios will be the same in both systems provided geometric similarity is also maintained. For a model made of the same material, the densities will be

the same in homologous locations, and the total masses of a model relative to its prototype will scale as the cube of the geometric scale factor λ^3 .

Pi terms 14 through 16 state that similar temperatures and melting points must be maintained between model and prototype systems. Once again, if the same initial conditions are maintained and the same material is used in homologous locations, melting points will be identical in model and prototype systems, and these pi terms will be satisfied. These terms imply that if a prototype penetrator undergoes significant heating in launch or flight, a model projectile should also be exposed to this heating, if a model is to be strictly correct.

Pi terms 17 through 20 say that all velocities will be scaled in the same manner.

Similarities for various material properties are covered by pi terms 21 through 36. If the same materials are used at homologous locations in model and prototype, all but two of these terms will be satisfied. Pi term 21 states that heats of fusion must be similar, pi term 11 requires similar specific heats, and pi terms 23 through 36 are statements of constitutive similarity. All but pi terms 35 and 36 are satisfied by the use of identical materials. These terms require that [see Eq. (11)],

$$\lambda_{K_{c_p}} = \lambda_{K_{c_t}} = \lambda_0 \lambda^{1/2} \quad (11a)$$

But, $\lambda_0 = 1$ for a replica model, so

$$\lambda_{K_{c_p}} = \lambda_{K_{c_t}} = \lambda^{1/2} \quad (11b)$$

Comparing with Eq. (6), we see that the replica modeling requires that the length of critical flaw should scale as $\lambda^{1/2}$ because the fracture energy Δ_f is an intrinsic property of the material, which is unchanged. Our assumption of complete geometric scaling would require that flaws be scaled in the model by factor λ , whereas in reality ℓ_f will be unchanged between model and prototype, and $\lambda_{K_c} = 1$. The dependence of fracture toughness on scale factor in Eq. (11b) is weak, however, because the scale factor is raised to the one-half power.

Pi terms 37 and 38 simply state that the same number of fragments can be expected within the same scaled distributions. Pi term 39 tells

us how to interpret time in a model relative to the prototype. This pi term can be termed a statement of kinematic similarity. If time is interpreted as required, $\lambda_t = \lambda$ in a replica model, pi term 39 will automatically be satisfied.

The last five pi terms are ratios of energy. They interrelate thermal effects, mechanical ones, inertial effects, energies for phase changes, and specific energies for material states. It is these five terms that determine scale factors for this modeling problem. Similarity pi terms as discussed earlier only state that all lengths, velocities, densities, stresses, temperatures, energies, heats of fusion, and specific heats will be scaled in the same respective fashion. In this problem, all of the pi terms representing energy ratios can be satisfied if the same materials are used in homologous locations in the model as in the prototype. Pi terms 41 and 42 then tell us that we want the same velocities in the model as in the prototype at homologous locations and times.

The assumptions inherent in replica modeling have reduced the relations between scale factors in Eq. (11) to the point that scale factors for all physical parameters in the problem are either fixed, or can be immediately expressed in terms of the geometric scale factor λ . The results are summarized in Table 8.

This particular reduction of the model law in Table 7 is a very powerful one and has already been well validated for projectile impacts in the low velocity and fluid impact regions (see Ref. 5 and Section II). The distortions which occur (parameters which do not exactly scale) are minor and relate entirely to the microstructure of projectiles and target materials. Adherence to replica modeling requires use of identical materials in model and prototype, so lengths such as average grain size and flaw size are unchanged rather than being proportionately smaller in the model.

Effects which we omitted before conducting the model analysis are strain rate effects, gravitational effects, and heat conduction effects. We have given our reasons for omission of rate effects. Because armor is so overstrength relative to dead weight effects, failure to model gravity has no significant influence on spall or breakup. But, "far-field" fragment trajectories are incorrectly scaled. To scale gravitational effects would require a force field in the model that was larger than in the prototype by a factor of $1/\lambda$. Although localized heating and material phase changes because of heating are being simulated, heat transfer because of conduction is not being simulated. To model conduc-

tion would add a pi term $\frac{k\theta d}{\sigma v_s^5}$ to this analysis, and in a replica

model would cause k to be scaled as $1/\lambda$. But k is a material property; hence, it would be the same in both model and prototype if a replica

TABLE 8. LIST OF SCALE FACTORS FOR
REPLICA MODEL

<u>Quantities</u>	<u>Symbols</u>	<u>Scale Factors</u>
lengths	d, h, l_i, h_i, x, r	λ
angles	$\alpha_i, \beta, \lambda, \delta$	1.0
densities	ρ_p, ρ_t	1.0
lumped masses	m, M_s, M_r	λ^3
temperatures	$\theta_p, \theta_t, \phi_p, \phi_t$	1.0
velocities	V_r, u_i, v_s, c_p, c_t	1.0
heats of fusion	n_t, n_p	1.0
specific heats	C_t, C_p	1.0
internal energies	E_t, E_p	1.0
stresses	$\sigma_{ij}, \sigma, S, S_{ij}$	1.0
strains	$\epsilon_p, \epsilon_t, \epsilon_{pij}, \epsilon_{tij}$	1.0
nondimensional material coefficients	a_p, a_t, s_p, s_t	1.0
number of fragments	N	1.0
time	t	λ
mechanical equivalent of heat	J	1.0
fracture toughnesses	K_{cp}, K_{ct}	$\lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}$
distribution functions for spall fragments	f_i	1.0

modeling law is applied. Failure to scale k appropriately means that heat is not carried away fast enough in the model system. Probably this error is insignificant, as durations are so short in both model and prototype systems that no energy can be dissipated through this transfer mechanism.

We feel that these distortions should have little effect on scaling of the penetration process, wave transmission effects, and even gross plastic deformations and phase changes. What may be affected is the exact character of back surface spall or projectile breakup because

these processes are probably a function of the material microstructure and sizes of flaws. Experimental tests are required so comparisons can be made to assess the importance of material microstructure on spall and breakup.

D. Implications of Dissimilar Material Modeling

The general model law in Table 7 can perhaps be reduced to a practical law by at least one other set of assumptions than those inherent in replica modeling. This set of assumptions is termed "dissimilar material modeling" in Reference 5 and is discussed in some detail in Chapter 7 of that reference. In a dissimilar material model, the model materials are related to those in the prototype by requiring that they have constitutive similarity, or have similar dimensionless stress-strain curves, at appropriate strain rates. This concept is shown schematically in Figure 10. For exact constitutive similarity, the entire scaled curves should match, up to ultimate stress and strain. But, for scaling involving large plastic deformations, good correlations can be achieved if one merely requires equivalence of the integrals of the scaled stress-strain curves, or areas under these curves. The materials can be dissimilar in densities, microstructure, and other properties as long as they exhibit constitutive similarity.

If we assume geometric similarity and constitutive similarity in the sense just discussed, then the feasibility of applications of dissimilar material modeling to high velocity penetration hinges on finding whether there exist model materials, different from the prototype materials, which satisfy the other significant scaling relationships in Table 7 or Eq. (11). There are some approximate physical relationships which can help in this search.

First, many high strength metals have nearly the same sound velocities, defined by

$$c_o = (E/\rho)^{1/2} \approx 5000 \text{ m/s} \quad (12)$$

Constitutive similarity then requires, through the relation (9), that all waves at scaled stress levels will propagate at about the same velocities. In our model analysis, this translates to the requirement

$$\lambda_{c_o} = \lambda_{c_p} = \lambda_{c_t} = 1 \quad (13)$$

Second, the heats of fusion h can be shown to be proportional to the square of the sound velocity for most metals (see p. 192 of Ref. 5), i.e.,

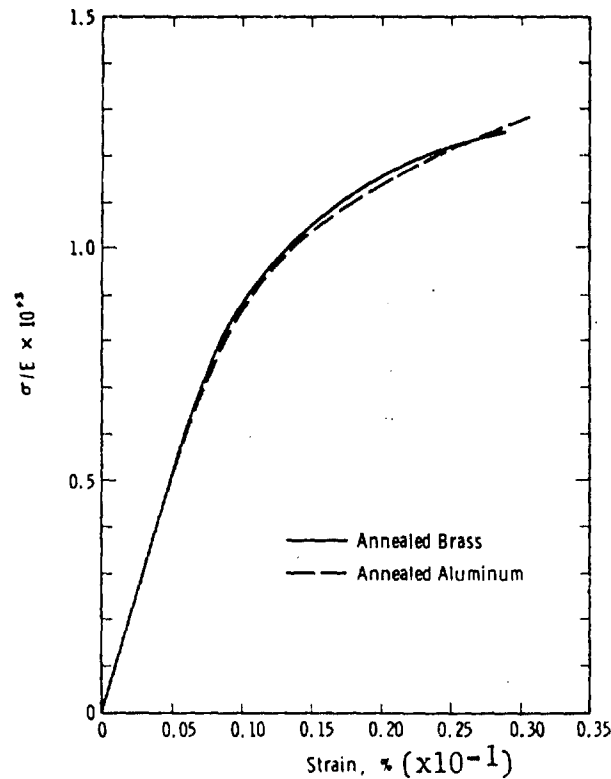


FIGURE 10. STRESS-STRAIN CURVES FOR MATERIALS POSSESSING CONSTITUTIVE SIMILARITY(5)

$$c_o^2 = (E/\rho) = C_1 n \quad (14)$$

where C_1 is a constant which is independent of the metal. But, we have just said that c_o is an invariant. So, Eqs. (14) and (13) require that heats of fusion be invariant for high strength metals

$$\lambda_{n_p} = \lambda_{n_t} = 1 \quad (15)$$

Third, it is shown on p. 191 of Reference 5 that the melting temperature of metals ϕ , the specific heat C , and the heat of fusion are related so that

$$\frac{\phi C}{n} = C_2 \quad (16)$$

where C_2 is a constant. This then tells us that

$$\lambda_\phi = \frac{1}{\lambda_C} \quad (17)$$

for either target or projectile material.

By inserting the restrictions of Eqs. (13), (15), and (16) into the relations in Eq. (11), we can construct Table 9 for scale factors in dissimilar material modeling of the penetration process.

TABLE 9. LIST OF SCALE FACTORS FOR DISSIMILAR MATERIAL MODELING

<u>Quantities</u>	<u>Symbols</u>	<u>Scale Factors</u>
lengths	d, h, ℓ_i, h_i, x, r	λ
angles	$\alpha_i, \beta, \gamma, \delta$	1.0
densities	ρ_p, ρ_t	λ_ρ
lumped masses	m, M_s, M_r	$\lambda^3 \lambda_\rho$
temperatures	$\theta_p, \theta_t, \phi_p, \phi_t$	λ_θ
velocities	V_r, u_i, V_s, c_p, c_t	1.0
heats of fusion	n_t, n_p	1.0
specific heats	C_t, C_p	$1/\lambda_\theta$
internal energies	E_t, E_p	1.0
stresses	$\sigma, \sigma_{ij}, S, S_{ij}$	λ_ρ
strains	$\epsilon_p, \epsilon_t, \epsilon_{pij}, \epsilon_{tij}$	1.0
nondimensional material coefficients	a_p, a_t, s_p, s_t	1.0
number of fragments	N	1.0
time	t	λ
mechanical equivalent of heat	J	1.0
fracture toughness	K_{cp}, K_{ct}	$\lambda_\rho \lambda^{1/2}$
distribution functions for spall fragments	ϵ_i	1.0

In Table 9, we see that three scale factors now appear, λ , λ_ρ , and λ_θ , in contrast to only the geometric scale factor in Table 8. Let us discuss some practical ranges for these factors. We have already said that

$$0.1 \leq \lambda \leq 1 \quad (18)$$

Densities of prototype materials are very high, and we will probably wish the models to be less dense. Assuming that the penetrator is tungsten and the lightest metal we are apt to use in the model is magnesium,

$$0.09 \leq \lambda_\rho \leq 1 \quad (19)$$

Critical temperatures are melting temperatures, ϕ_p and ϕ_t . For the metals we wish to use, these range from 651 C for magnesium to 3370 C for tungsten. So,

$$0.19 \leq \lambda_\theta \leq 1 \quad (20)$$

To aid in choice of materials, a brief table of properties of some metals we might use is included in Table 10. A few alloys are included in the table--many have properties intermediate between those of the elements in the table, except that sound velocities are often higher for the alloys.

Without more exhaustive study, it appears feasible to use lighter metals for model tests than for prototype tests. If the prototype situation were a tungsten alloy penetrator impacting spaced steel armor, a possible model combination would be a brass or steel penetrator impacting titanium alloy targets, or a titanium penetrator impacting an aluminum alloy or magnesium alloy target. Although Table 9 shows that impact velocities would be identical to prototype velocities, cheaper or more readily available materials could be used, and the lower densities would mean lighter projectiles which could be more easily launched at high velocity. Proportionately lower yield and ultimate stresses in the materials would ease machining problems. Scaling of melting temperatures and specific heats is accomplished [see Eqs. (16) and (17)], wave transmission effects scale, inertial effects scale, and times scale by the geometric scale factor λ as for replica modeling. Scaling of fracture toughness per se is not accomplished, but perhaps one can come close by adjusting grain size or flaw size in the model. It has already been well documented⁵ that dissimilar material modeling is possible in the fluid impact region, but of course many fewer parameters are important in this region.

TABLE 10. SOME PROPERTIES OF METALS

<u>Metal</u>	Density ρ (Mg/m ³)	Specific Heat C (cal/g°C)	Melting Temperature ϕ (C)	Sound Velocity C ₀ (m/s)
Magnesium	1.74	0.243	651	5050
Aluminum	2.76	0.215	660	5000
High Strength Steel	7.85	0.017	1500	5100
Iron	7.85	0.017	1535	3800
304 Stainless Steel	7.90	0.037	1430	4570
Titanium	4.51	0.0540	1675	5100
Naval Brass	8.41	0.090	900	3750
Uranium	18.45	0.0278	1132	2570
Molybdenum	10.22	0.060	2610	5120
Tungsten	19.30	0.034	3370	4220
Tungsten Carbide	(10-15.6)	≈0.03	(2500-2800)	4920
Copper	8.93	0.092	1083	3940

IV. DISCUSSION

A rather general similitude analysis is presented in Section III, together with the implications of this analysis for replica and dissimilar material modeling assumptions. Because a very large number of material parameters were included in the analysis, it is not possible to simultaneously satisfy (keep invariant) all of the dimensionless parameters for sub-scale testing with either a replica or dissimilar material model. But, the vast majority of the pi terms do remain invariant for either set of assumptions, and sub-scale testing appears feasible.

The possible advantages of a replica model are:

- (1) Exact matching of scaling requirements for most material constitutive properties in both penetrator and target materials,
- (2) Exact matching of thermal properties and phase change properties,
- (3) A body of existing data for simpler penetrators versus monolithic armor that demonstrates validity of the replica modeling law.

Disadvantages of a replica model are:

- (1) Microstructure of the materials and effects such as back-surface spall, which are probably affected, do not scale.
- (2) Fracture toughness does not strictly scale, although the dependence on scale factor is small.
- (3) Even on a model scale, costs of making penetrators of exotic materials may be very expensive and time-consuming.

The possible advantages of a dissimilar material model are:

- (1) Both penetrator and target can be made of relatively cheap and available materials.
- (2) Because the model materials will in general be lighter and of lower strength than prototype materials, models should be much less expensive to make and more easily launched.
- (3) It may be possible, by proper choice of model materials, to scale microstructure and fracture toughness.

Disadvantages of a dissimilar material model are:

- (1) Constitutive properties are modeled approximately, but not exactly, so scaling is less exact.
- (2) The concept of dissimilar material modeling may be more difficult to "sell" to the uninitiated.

In the general model law (and hence, in either the replica or dissimilar material laws), several physical processes which do not scale are deliberately omitted. We feel that there is ample experimental evidence for these omissions, and present that evidence in earlier sections. Gravity effects are omitted as unimportant in high velocity impacts; strain-rate effects on constitutive properties do not differ enough between model and prototype to significantly affect scaling; and the penetration process is too rapid for significant conductive heat transfer to occur.

The similitude analysis includes more geometric parameters than does the earlier one of Reference 5 and Table 2 because geometry of both the projectile and the spaced armor target are more complex. But, the scaling of more lengths and angles does not change the basic model law one iota! One still has the requirement of absolute geometric similarity between model and prototype. The inclusion of more geometric parameters to completely define thicknesses and spacings in the spaced armor does require much more testing and/or calculation to evaluate the effect of varying these dimensions on penetrators. Then, too, the second and later layers in the spaced armor can be impacted by a cloud of armor spall particles and a deformed or shattered penetrator. Constitutive properties for all materials are properly scaled through large deformations and may affect the number and size of spall particles. Possibly, penetration through the first layer of spaced armor will be accurately modeled, while penetration through later layers will not.

What is the smallest practical scale for model testing? Conceptually, the lower limit on geometric scale is fixed by the necessity to have the smallest linear dimension of either projectile or armor layers significantly larger than mean grain size. We have said earlier that average grain size for high yield alloys is about 0.03 mm, so we probably want the minimum model dimension to be about ten times this value, or 0.3 mm. The necessity to maintain closer manufacturing tolerances on the model than on the prototype (these scale by λ like any other lengths) introduces a more practical lower limit to size. An existing long-rod penetrator has a caliber $d = 20.65 \pm 0.25$ mm. A model with a reasonably small scale factor of $\lambda = 0.1$ would have a caliber of $d = 2.065 \pm 0.025$ mm. This increase in tolerance is possible to maintain, but another order of magnitude decrease would be practically impossible, or at least very expensive.

The model scale is probably best chosen to match existing gun systems capable of launching rounds with discarding sabots. Returning to Figure 4, we see a projectile which in full scale is designed for launching from a barrel with a 75-mm bore. The projectile itself has a largest lateral dimension $\ell_3 = 54.0$ mm, a caliber $d = 20.65$ mm, and a length $\ell_4 = 305$ mm. A popular launch tube for precision range testing is a 20-mm bore barrel. Using this cannon, we would suggest a scale factor $\lambda = 20 \text{ mm}/75 \text{ mm} = 0.267$. Then, a model projectile could be launched using geometrically similar sabots and dimensions $\ell_3 = 54.0 \times 0.267 = 14.4$ mm, $d = 20.65 \times 0.267 = 5.51$ mm, and $\ell_4 = 305 \text{ mm} \times 0.267 = 81.4$ mm. The minimum dimension for this projectile is the thickness of the aluminum fin material, 1.52 mm. In the model this thickness is $1.52 \times 0.267 = 0.407$ mm, which approaches the lower limit of ten times grain size. A still smaller caliber model of this particular projectile might prove difficult to hold within manufacturing tolerances, or have fins which are below our somewhat arbitrary grain size limit.

How will one know that either the replica or dissimilar material model laws suggested here are correct? This question cannot be answered until comparisons can be made between tests conducted on different geometric scales and/or with different materials. Even then, the answers can be at best probabilities that the model data correlate with the prototype data, with some level of confidence.

Measured parameters which can conceivably be compared between model and prototype are:

- (1) Velocities V_s , V_r , u_i ,
- (2) Dimensions and shapes of holes in armor, ℓ_i , α_i ,
- (3) Characteristics of spall N , f_i .

Test data for velocities V_s and V_r are usually presented graphically as in Figure 11 and fitted to empirical equations such as the one inset in the figure. For residual velocity data for model-prototype comparison, curves or data such as those in Figure 11 would first be rendered non-dimensional by using appropriate pi terms and then would be analyzed statistically.

Various methods of statistical comparison of scaled model and prototype data are possible. Scaled data for residual velocity versus impact velocity consist essentially of plots or tables of π_{17} as a dependent variable versus π_{42} (or its square root) as the independent variable, all other pi terms being held constant. If model tests are

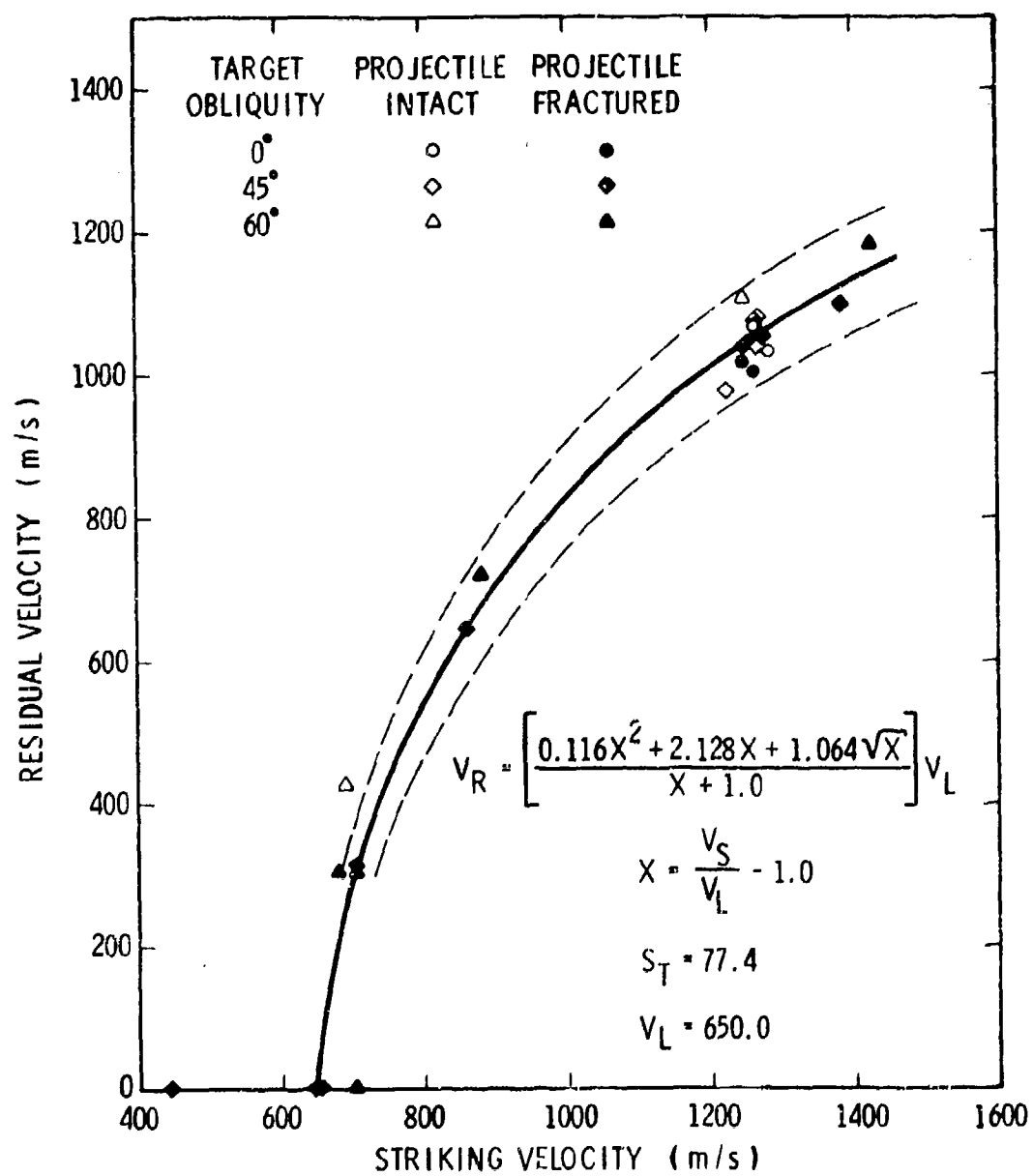


FIGURE 11. COMPARISON OF SINGLE AND TRIPLE
 TARGET TESTS⁽⁸⁾

designed to reproduce, as closely as possible, prototype values of the independent variable, then perfectly standard statistical tests can be made to compare the values of the scaled dependent variables for identical values of scaled independent variable. The standard statistical tests one would use are Students "T" test to compare means of the data, and the F test to compare variances (standard deviations). If, on the other hand, values of the scaled independent variable do not match, the simple T and F tests are inapplicable. In this instance, one can still use standard statistical methods for comparing multiple regression coefficients. following fitting of scaled prototype and model data to some empirical equation, as in Figure 11. Reference 13 is a good source for the standard statistical methods we have mentioned.

An alternative method for comparing scaled model and prototype data is given on pp. 352-356 of Reference 5. This procedure involves fitting model and prototype data individually to some appropriate empirical equation. normalizing each set of data, and computing a standard deviation about each normalized curve. Then, one uses Students "T" test to compute three probabilities, i.e.,

- (1) Measured model results being within a specific tolerance of other model results,
- (2) Measured prototype results being within the same tolerance for other prototype results,
- (3) Scaled prototype and model results being within the same tolerance for other scaled results.

Finally, one computes a "degree of association" of model and prototype scaled data. This percentage is the probability that all data (both model and prototype) correlate, divided by the poorer of the probabilities (1) and (2). A high percentage value for this last quantity indicates good agreement between model and prototype data.

To compare hole sizes in armor, various dimensions of the holes would be measured and scaled profiles compared. Hole volume, or suitable lateral dimensions could then be plotted versus scaled impact velocity, and statistical tests performed in much the same manner as for residual velocity.

The number of spall fragments produced is postulated to be invariant with scale of test, for the same scaled impact velocities, as is some (as yet unknown) set of distribution functions for mass and mean size. These, too, should be determined experimentally as a function of scaled impact velocity for model and for prototype. The distribution functions may be Gaussian or some other function. Their form will determine the specific statistical treatment which will be needed to compare model and prototype data and complete the assessment of the model law or laws.

For both model and prototype tests, enough replications of a given test must be run to obtain reasonable confidence limits in the test data. By fitting to empirical functions, exact replication is not required, and is indeed quite difficult. For a given projectile-armor-obliquity combination, it seems from past experience⁸ that 8 to 15 model or prototype tests over a range of impact velocities may be sufficient to acquire the test data for validation of a model law. Only after reviewing existing prototype data can one determine the needed number of model tests more exactly.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Two possible specific model laws evolved in our model analysis. Both require complete geometric similarity and identity of all velocities. In the first, termed the "replica law," all penetrator and armor materials are identical in homologous locations in model and prototype. In the second, termed the "dissimilar material law," model and prototype materials must have constitutive similarity, but the model projectile and targets can both be made of lighter and weaker materials than in the prototype. Both laws must rely on what we feel are minor distortions for their validity, and both have their advantages and disadvantages.

For reasons discussed above, we recommend two sets of model scale experiments designed to model existing test data for long rods penetrating spaced armor. Hopefully, there are sufficient full-scale data available to define the response parameters which should be measured in each test (see Section IV). If this is not the case, additional full-scale tests may have to be conducted, with careful attention to measurement of velocities, hole sizes and dimensions, masses and sizes of ejecta, etc. We recommend both replica model tests and dissimilar material model tests, with 8 to 15 tests of each type with a single design of penetrator and spaced target at a single impact obliquity.

If we are modeling the projectile discussed earlier, a good candidate for geometric model scale is $\lambda = 0.267$, and a good candidate for a launching gun is a 20-mm smooth bore. A brass penetrator and titanium alloy target material may be an acceptable combination to model U-(3/4) Ti penetrators versus rolled homogeneous steel armor. Titanium alloy sheet is readily available in many gages, and brass is a cheap, easily machined material for a penetrator. All tests should be well instrumented with velocity screens, flash x-ray equipment, and spall retrieval systems.

A number of supporting test and material data should be obtained. Complete dynamic material properties should be measured, preferably at strain rates $\geq 10^3/s$. Each projectile should be accurately weighed and x-rayed to detect flaws. Fracture toughness data should be reviewed, and additional data obtained if too little are available. Average grain size and shape of virgin projectile and target material should be obtained by metallographic examination. Post-test metallographic examination of recovered projectile pieces and perforated targets may prove desirable to detect regions of phase changes or adiabatic shear.

We recommend comparison of model and prototype test data on a statistical basis, using methods discussed earlier. Comparisons should be made on the dimensionless response parameters corresponding to residual

velocity V_r , spall velocities u_i , dimensions and shapes of holes in armor layers, and numbers N and distribution functions f_i of spall fragments. All of these parameters will be functions of scaled impact velocity and the particular combination of penetrator, spaced armor, and impact obliquity.

We believe that careful planning and execution of the model test will indeed validate both the replica and dissimilar material laws for this complex problem. The terminal ballisticians should then be able to invoke some of the savings in money and time which are inherent in most sub-scale testing to evaluate new concepts for high velocity kinetic energy penetrators, or alternatively, to evaluate spaced armor concepts to defeat such penetrators.

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