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Introduction to Shaped Charges

William Walters
Weapons and Materials Research Directorate, ARL
# Introduction to Shaped Charges

## Abstract
This report contains a presentation given at the U.S. Army Research Laboratory (ARL) as a 3-hr lecture introducing and presenting the basic principles of the shaped-charge concept. The lectures were given at ARL, Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD, on 8 January and 16 January 2007 for ARL personnel.

## Subject Terms
- shaped charge
- penetration
- EFP
- liner materials
- jet formation
- hemispherical liners

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1. Introduction

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• EFPs
• Liner material studies
• The HE fill
• Jet penetration
• Penetration data
• Craters
• Design rules

Figure 2. Topics (continued).


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Figure 4. The Munroe effect.

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Figure 6. The lined-cavity effect.

Figure 7. The nomenclature for a shaped-charge configuration.
Figure 8. Detonation stages of a typical shaped charge.

Figure 9. Liner collapse and jet formation.

Tip Velocity: 10 km/s
Maximum Strains > 10
Pressure: 200 GPa decaying to 20 GPa
Strain Rate: $10^4$-$10^7$/s
Jet Temperature: 400-500°C
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On impact, the shaped charge within the round ignites and begins to play a stream of plasma on the target. Each shaped charge configuration has an optimum distance from the target where the cutting power of the plasma cone is greatest. This detonation distance is established by the length of the warhead tip. The plasma cone burns through the armor and sprays molten particles into the tank at speeds of 30,000 fps.
• A shaped charge detonates on impact, liquefying metal, which melts the tanks armor.

• The jet is a high temperature plasma (about 20,000 °C).

• The jet reaches a density several times that of steel, and the armor becomes plastic and yields whilst the jet torch assists by melting and burning the armor metal.

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Figure 43. Velocities referred to a coordinate moving with velocity $V_1$. 
STEADY STATE MODEL OVERPREDICTS V.

JET L = SLANT HEIGHT OF CONE.

NONE-STEADY (PER) THEORY DEVELOPED.

COLLAPSE VELOCITIES OF VARIOUS LINER ELEMENTS ARE NOT THE SAME BUT DEPEND ON THEIR ORIGINAL POSITION ON THE LINER.

Figure 44. The Birkhoff theory.

Figure 45. Birkhoff’s geometry.
Figure 46. Relationship between $\vec{V}_o$, the liner collapse velocity, $\vec{V}$ the collapse velocity relative to the collision point, and $\vec{V}_1$ the collision point velocity.

$$V = V_0 \frac{\cos(\alpha + \delta)}{\sin \beta}$$

$$V_1 = V_0 \frac{\cos(\beta - \alpha - \delta)}{\sin \beta}$$

$$\vec{V} = V_{FLOW}$$

$$\vec{V}_1 = V_{\text{stagnation point}}$$

$$V_0 = V_{\text{collapse}} = \vec{V} + \vec{V}_1$$

Figure 47. The velocities.
IN FIXED COORDINATES

\[ V'_j - V'_i + V' \]

\[ V'_s - V'_i - V' \]

or

\[ V'_i - V'_0 \sec \frac{\beta}{2} \cos \left( \alpha + \delta - \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \]

\[ V'_s - V'_0 \sec \frac{\beta}{2} \sin \left( \alpha + \delta - \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \]

If \( \beta = \beta' = \alpha + 2\delta \)

\( V'_j, V'_s \) reduce to Dikhoff, et al. (Using trigonometric trickery)

Eliminating \( \delta \) yields

\[ V'_j = V'_0 \left( \sec \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \cos \left( \alpha - \frac{\beta}{2} + \sin^{-1} \frac{V'_0}{2\mu} \right) \]

\[ V'_s = V'_0 \left( \sec \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \sin \left( \alpha - \frac{\beta}{2} + \sin^{-1} \frac{V'_0}{2\mu} \right) \]

Figure 48. The jet and slug velocities.

\[ \frac{dm}{dm} = \frac{dm_j}{dm} + \frac{dm_s}{dm} \]

\[ \frac{dm_j}{dm} = \sin^2 \left( \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \]

\[ \frac{dm_s}{dm} = \cos^2 \left( \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \]

Figure 49. Conservation of mass yields as in the steady state theory.
Calculate $\beta$

Cylindrical coordinates of $M$ are $(r, z)$ of $P'$ are $(X \tan \alpha, X)$

$$Z = X + V_0(t - T) \sin A$$

$$r = X \tan \alpha - V_0(t - T) \cos A$$

$t = $ elapsed time since detonation wave passed the apex of the cone.

$$T = \frac{X}{U_D} = \frac{X}{U \cos \alpha}$$

$A = \alpha + \delta$

The slope of the contour of the collapsing liner at any $t$ can be obtained from the $\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial z}$ using the above equations and some calculus.
The time when a given element reaches the axis is given by

\[ r = X \tan \alpha - V_0(t - T) \cos A \]

for \( r = 0 \) or

\[ t - T = \frac{X \tan \alpha}{V_0 \cos A} \]

Also, \( \tan \beta = \frac{\dot{\gamma}r}{\dot{\gamma}z} \) evaluated at \( r = 0 \) or

\[ \tan \beta = \frac{\sin \alpha + 2 \sin \delta \cos A - X \sin \alpha(1 - \tan A \tan \delta) V'_0/V_0}{\cos \alpha - 2 \sin \delta \sin A + X \sin \alpha(\tan A + \tan \delta) V'_0/V_0} \]

Figure 52. Calculation of the collapse angle (continued).

and since \( 2\delta = \beta - \alpha \) and \( 2A = \beta + \alpha \)

\[ \tan \beta = \frac{\sin \beta' - X \sin \alpha(1 - \tan A \tan \delta) V'_0/V_0}{\cos \beta' + X \sin \alpha(\tan A + \tan \delta) V'_0/V_0} \]

\( \beta' > \beta' \) since \( V'_0 < 0 \) or the collapse velocity decreases from apex to base for cone angles (2\( \alpha \)) which are not extremely large.

Watch the trigonometric quadrant for each angle!

Figure 53. Calculation of the collapse angle (continued).
TAYLOR ANGLE APPROXIMATION

For Grazing Incidence

Acceleration to final velocity is instantaneous.

Metal plate undergoes pure rotation, i.e., no net shear flow or change in length or thickness (behaves like a hinge).

Figure 54. The Taylor angle concept.

Figure 55. Taylor’s geometry.
Figure 56. The Taylor angle.

\[ \Delta \text{OPP'} \]
\[ \text{OP} = \text{Dt} \]
\[ \text{PP'} = \text{Vt} \]
\[ \text{PO'} = \text{PO} = \text{Vt}/2 \]

\[ \sin \theta = \frac{\text{OP'}}{2 \text{OP}} = \frac{\text{Vt}}{2\text{D}} \]

- **TAYLOR RELATION** - AN EQUATION RELATING \( V_0 \) TO \( \delta \)

\[ \sin \delta = \frac{V_0}{2U} \]

- **TWO APPROACHES**

  I. **FORMULA FOR \( V_0 \)** - e.g., GURNEY

  II. **FORMULA FOR \( \delta \)** - e.g., DEFOURNEAUX

- **UNSTEADY THEORY**

  - **MODIFIED TAYLOR RELATION**

  - **LINER ACCELERATION** -- \( V = f(\text{time}) \)

Figure 57. Liner collapse.
Figure 58. Liner projection angle by the simple Taylor relation (steady) and the unsteady theory.

I. VELOCITY FORMULAS

- Gurney (1943)

\[ V_0 = \sqrt{2E} \cdot f(\mu) \]

\[ E = \text{Gurney Energy} \]
\[ \mu = \frac{M}{C} = \text{Metal-to-explosive Mass Ratio} \]

ASSUMPTIONS:
- LINEAR VELOCITY DISTRIBUTION IN GAS
- GLOBAL BALANCE OF MOMENTUM AND ENERGY

APPLICABLE GEOMETRIES:
- SANDWICHES, CYLINDRICAL, OR SPHERICAL EXPLOSION

GEOMETRY NOT APPLICABLE -- IMPLOSION

Figure 59. Liner collapse, velocity formulas.
**KLEINHANS** (1971) -- FOR IMPLODING CYLINDER, EMPIRICAL

\[ V_0 = U_f(R_0, R_1, E) \]

**DUVALL ET AL.** (1958) -- HYDRODYNAMIC THEORY

\[ V_0 = U_f(\mu) \]

**TRINKS** -- EMPIRICAL

\[ V_0 = U_f(\mu) \]

Figure 60. Liner collapse, velocity formulas (continued).

**DEFOURNEAUX:** (1970) (ADAPTED FROM RICHTER)

\[ \frac{1}{2\delta} = \frac{1}{\phi_0} + \phi \rho E \mu \]

\( \phi_0, \phi \) -- EMPIRICAL CONSTANTS

**MODIFIED DEFOURNEAUX:** DYNA EAST (1975) (USED IN DESC, BASC)

\[ \frac{1}{2\delta} = \frac{1}{\phi_0(h)} + \phi(h) \rho E \frac{A_L}{R_E} \]

\( A_L, A_E \) = CROSS-SECTIONAL AREAS OF LINER, EXPLOSIVE

**KERDRAON:** (1975)

\[ \phi = \frac{1}{c_1 + c_2} \exp \left[ - \frac{c_3}{c_4} \frac{H}{R_1^2} \right] \]

\( c_1, c_2, c_3 \) -- EMPIRICAL CONSTANTS

Figure 61. Turning-angle formulas.
LINER ACCELERATION TO THE AXIS IS NOT INSTANTANEOUS, AS ASSUMED BY THE PER THEORY!

Figure 62. Liner acceleration.

Figure 63. Liner acceleration (continued).
Figure 64. The jet-tip velocity.

Figure 65. Extensions of the theory.
Figure 66. Radiographs of jets from two typical conical charges.

Figure 67. Supersonic wedge collapse, jetless configuration, stiffened gas.
Figure 68. Comparison of jets from supersonic and subsonic collapse.

Figure 69. Comparison of jets from supersonic and subsonic collapse (continued).
The bulk speed of sound is

\[ C_b = \sqrt{\left( V_L^2 - \frac{4}{3} V_S^2 \right)} , \]

where \( V_L \) is the longitudinal speed of sound and \( V_S \) is the shear speed of sound.

Figure 70. The bulk speed of sound.

1. For subsonic collisions (or the collision velocity \( V < C \), the material bulk speed of sound), a solid coherent jet always forms.

2. For supersonic collisions \( (V > C) \), jetting occurs if \( \beta > \beta_c \), but the jet is not coherent. The angle \( \beta_c \) is the maximum angle that an attached shock wave can form at a prescribed supersonic velocity, \( V \).

3. For supersonic collisions \( (V > C) \), but \( \beta < \beta_c \), a jet will not be formed.

Figure 71. Jetting criterion for plane axisymmetric cases.
Figure 72. Jet/no jet curve for wedge collapse of a stiffened gas.

Figure 73. Cohesive jet criterion.

FOR A COHESIVE JET, FLOW INTO FORMATION REGION MUST BE SUBSONIC.

i.e., $M = \frac{V}{C} < 1$

$C = \text{LINER MATERIAL SOUND SPEED}$

FROM EXPERIMENTS,

$M < 1.1 \text{ TO } 1.25$
Figure 74. The 81.3-mm liner.

Figure 75. The jet collapse and formation.
Figure 76. Liner drawing.

Figure 77. Collapse angle vs. liner position.
Figure 78. Deflection angle (Phi) vs. liner position.

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Figure 82. Cumulative jet mass vs. jet velocity.

Figure 83. Cumulative KE vs. jet velocity.
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Figure 85. Experimental study of jet formation, objective.
Figure 86. Comparison of HELP and EPIC-2 computer code simulations of jet formation from a hemispherical liner charge for the point initiation case at $t = 56 \, \mu s$ after detonation.

Figure 87. HELP code simulations of jet formation from a hemispherical liner charge for the initiation case at $t = 67 \, \mu s$ after detonation.
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• Explosively formed penetrators
• Self-forging fragments
• Ballistic discs
• Miznay-Schardin devices

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Figure 109. EFPs.
Figure 110. State-of-the-art copper explosively formed penetrator.

Figure 111. Jet/slug velocity vs. liner half angle.
Figure 112. The effect of apex angle on the jet formation.

- Compact ball
  - W-fold: form liner into "W" shape and collapse upon itself
  - Point focus: focus all liner material into one point

- Long rod
  - Forward fold
  - Backward fold

Figure 113. Formation types.
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Figure 118. Forward-fold liner formation (continued).

Figure 119. Point-focus liner formation.
Figure 120. Point-focus liner formation (continued).

Figure 121. W-fold liner formation.
Figure 122. W-fold liner formation (continued).

Figure 123. W-fold liner formation (continued).
Figure 124. Aerostable EFPs.

Figure 125. A generic EFP charge to form EFPs.
Figure 126. Ways to form EFPs with star-shaped tail.

a) EFP with nonsymmetric tail, no flight stability
b) EFP with star shaped tail, confinement hexagonal, good flight stability
c) EFP with star shaped tail, confinement octagonal, good flight stability

Figure 127. Front and back view of three projectiles produced with an EFP charge caliber 75 mm, explosive composition B, and liner material armco iron.
Figure 128. Hit precision of EFP with star-shaped tail at 45 m. The displacement was less than 20 cm.

Figure 129. Multiple liner concepts.
Figure 130. Liner materials studied at the U.S. Army Ballistic Research Laboratory (BRL)/ARL.

Figure 131. Shaped-charge liner material as a function of crystal structure.
- Cu, Ni, Al, Ag, Au form coherent, ductile jets.

- Ni somewhat difficult to fabricate, performance has been inconsistent.

- Pb can form fluid jets.

Figure 132. Face-centered cubic (FCC).

- Ta, Mo, and W all form coherent and ductile jets when properly designed.

- W jets are somewhat less ductile than Mo or Ta and can exhibit brittle fracture on some parts of the jet surface. The proper jet conditions for W have not been completely defined.

Figure 133. Body-centered cubic (BCC).
- Useful for special applications. Be can produce very high velocity but low mass jets. Mg and Zr exhibit incendiary effects.
- DU provides an excellent jet with the proper design and appropriate treatment of its anisotropic properties.

- Multielement alloys, made by a press or sintering process or by sputter deposition.

- Cu-Y and DU-Ni tested in conical and hemispherical geometries.

- Cu-Y in a conical geometry yielded a continuous stream of very fine particles. In a hemispherical shape, the jet was highly ductile with a long breakup.

- DU-Ni liners from conical and hemispherical geometries gave a continuous, nonparticulating jet.
- Do not perform as well or as consistently as pure metal liners.

- Multiphase liners are the worst; jets are incoherent and fragment early.

- Solid solution liners can form coherent jets but are not as ductile and perform worse than their pure metal constituents.

Figure 138. Alloys.

- Eutectic alloy jets are usually continuous and nonparticulating. They have produced very good penetration into steel targets at normal obliquity. They may be fluid and susceptible to destruction by oblique targets. The jets were highly variable in quality and penetration.

Figure 139. Alloys (continued).
- The only eutectoid tested (78Zn-22A1 and variants) has not produced good quality jets. This alloy is superplastic with a submicrometer microstructure. In conical liners, the jet forms a steam of brittle particles that tend to disperse radially. In a hemispherical geometry, the jets are more continuous, but neither geometry produces a high-performance jet.

- Pressed or sintered liners produce a continuous jet of fine particles, but the jet tends to disperse radially at long standoff distances. There is also a degree of variability in the jet quality and charge performance.

Figure 140. Alloys (continued).

Figure 141. Configuration of depleted uranium alloy charges.
Figure 142. Free-flight radiograph of depleted uranium liners compared to copper (cone angles indicated).

Figure 143. Early time collapse of a hemispherical depleted uranium liner.
Figure 144. Late time collapse of a hemispherical depleted uranium liner.

Figure 145. Comparison between a copper and a lead-tin eutectic liner.
Figure 146. Flash radiographs of 60° pure cadmium liners of varied wall thickness, 25 µs after detonation wave reached apex.

Figure 147. Flash radiographs of 44° pure magnesium liners of varied wall thickness.
### Figure 148. Metallurgical and explosive effects on jets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explosive</th>
<th>Detonation Velocity, km/s</th>
<th>Coarse Grained ETP Deep Drawn ~ 100μm</th>
<th>Fine Grained OFHC Deep Drawn ~ 25μm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comp B</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>7.7/116</td>
<td>7.8/154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150μ RDX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-FO</td>
<td>8.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.0/157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60μ HMX, NP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-GB</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.3/167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-GG</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.1/173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCTOL 75/25</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.5/122</td>
<td>8.5/174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470μ HMX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-EL</td>
<td>8.51</td>
<td>8.8/122</td>
<td>8.6/173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 149. Oxygen-free high-conductivity copper.
Figure 150. Electrolytic tough-pitch copper.

Figure 151. The effect of liner grain size on jet breakup (liner 105-mm M456, modified to BRL 81 dimensions).
Figure 152. Effect of liner grain size on jet penetration (M456/BRL 81 mm).

Figure 153. Effect of liner grain size on jet breakup time.
Figure 154. Penetration standoff curve.

Figure 155. The coordinate system.
\[
- \ddot{u} = a + bu + cu^2
\]

For both constant velocity penetrators or non-eroding penetrators:

- **Robins/Euler**: \(- \ddot{u} = a\)
- **Poncelet/Euler**: \(- \ddot{u} = cu^2 + a\)
- **Resal**: \(- \ddot{u} = cu^2 + bu\)
- **General Form/Johnson**: \(- \ddot{u} = a + bu + cu^2\)

Figure 156. Penetration formulations.

\[
\frac{1}{2} \rho_j (v - u)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho_T u^2
\]

Figure 157. Bernoulli’s equation for coordinates moving at velocity \(U\).
Figure 158. Ideal penetration time (penetration stops as soon as the rear of the jet hits the target).

\[
\frac{\ell}{V-U}.
\]

\[
\dot{p} = U \frac{\ell}{V-U} \quad \text{or,}
\]

\[
p = \ell \left( \frac{\rho_j}{\rho_T} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\]

Figure 159. Momentum equation.

\[
\frac{F_A}{A} = \rho_j (v - u)^2
\]

Pressure in target material at point of impact -

\[
-\frac{1}{2} \rho_T u^2
\]
\[ \rho_j (V - U)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho_T U^2 \]

Figure 160. Equating the two expressions.

**THEN**

\[ P = \mathcal{L} \left( \frac{\lambda \rho_j}{\rho_T} \right)^{1/2} \]

Figure 161. The penetration.
Eichelberger Proposed

\[ \lambda \rho_j (V - U)^2 = \rho_t U^2 + 2\sigma \]

\[ \text{WHERE} \quad \sigma = \sigma_t - \sigma_j \]

Figure 162. Eichelberger's equation.

\[ \lambda \rho_j (V-U)^2 = \rho_t U^2 + 2\sigma \]

\[ \lambda = 1 \text{ for continuous jet} \]

\[ \lambda < 1 \text{ for broken jet} \]

\[ \sigma = \sigma_t - \sigma_j \]

where

\[ \sigma_t \text{ and } \sigma_j \text{ are the "resistance to plastic deformation" for} \]

the target and the jet: taken as

\[ Y_t < \sigma_t < 3 \ Y_t \]

\[ Y_t \text{ is the yield strength of the target} \]

Figure 163. Eichelberger's formula.
\[ P = P'_o \left[ \sqrt{2} (1 + \alpha S)^{\frac{1}{2}}/(1 + \beta S) \right] \]

\( P'_o \) IS \( P \) FROM BEFORE AT \( S = \) JET BREAKUP DISTANCE.

Figure 164. For fully particulated jets.

\[ \alpha \] ACCOUNTS FOR JET VELOCITY GRADIENT

\( S \) DENOTES STANDOFF

\[ \beta \] ACCOUNTS FOR JET SPREAD

\[ P = P_o \left( 1 + \alpha S)/(1 + \beta S) \right) \]

Figure 165. Semi-empirical models.
PACK AND EVANS TOOK TARGET MATERIAL STRENGTH INTO ACCOUNT

\[ P = \left( \frac{\rho_j}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/2} L \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha Y}{\rho_j V} \right) \]

Figure 166. Pack and Evans.

FOR PARTICULATED JETS, CHOU USES

\[ dP' = dP \left( 1 - \frac{g}{g_o} \right) \]

\( g \) IS THE DISTANCE BETWEEN PARTICLES,

and \( g_o = 6.5 \) FOR PRECISION CHARGES

= 4 TO 6 FOR NON-PRECISION CHARGES

Figure 167. Chou.
MATUSKA, FOR STEADY STATE JET PENETRATION USED,

\[ \frac{\gamma}{2} \rho_j (V - U)^2 + \beta \sigma_j = \frac{\rho_t U^2}{2} + \alpha \sigma_t \]

Figure 168. Matuska.

ALEKSEEVSKI, 
SANASARYAN, AND 
SAGOMONYAN USE

\[ H_D + k_T \rho_T U^2 = \sigma_{SD} + k_j \rho_j (V - U)^2 \]

WHERE \[ k_T = k_j = 1/2 \] AND

\[ V_{min} = \sqrt{\frac{H_D - \sigma_{SD}}{k_j \rho_j}} \]

Figure 169. Alekseevski, Sanasaryan, and Sagomonyan.
CHRISTMAN AND GEHRING PROPOSED

\[ 2 < V < 6.7 \text{ km/s} \]

\[ \frac{P}{L} = \left( 1 - \frac{D}{L} \right) \left( \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/2} + \frac{4.4 \ D}{L} \ \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_t}^{2/3} \left( \rho_t \frac{v^2}{B_{\text{max}}} \right)^{1/3} \]

FOR PROJECTILES

Figure 170. Christman and Gehring.

DOYLE AND BUCHHOLZ MODIFIED THE CHRISTMAN-GEHRING FORMULA FOR EFP'S

\[ \frac{P}{L} = \left( 1 - \frac{D}{L} \right) \left( \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/2} + \frac{0.13 \ D}{L} \ \left( \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/3} \left( \frac{E_1}{B_{\text{max}}} \right)^{1/3} \]

Figure 171. Doyle and Buchholz.
For case (a), the total penetration depth $P$ is

$$P = S \left[ \frac{V_0}{V_{\text{min}}} \right]^{\gamma} - 1$$

where $S$ is the distance from the virtual origin to the target, or the effective standoff distance. In this case $S$ is bounded by

$$0 \leq S < V_{\text{min}} t_b \left( \frac{V_{\text{min}}}{V_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}}$$

and

$$U_{\text{min}} = \frac{V_{\text{min}}}{1 + \gamma}$$

Figure 172. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model.

For case (b), the penetration is

$$P = \left(1 + \frac{1}{\gamma} \right) \left( V_{\text{min}} t_b \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} \left( \frac{V_{\text{min}}}{V_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} - V_{\text{min}} t_b - S$$

where $S$ is bounded by

$$V_{\text{min}} t_b \left( \frac{V_{\text{min}}}{V_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} < S < V_{\text{min}} t_b$$

Figure 173. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model (continued).
Finally, for case (c), the penetration is

\[ p = \frac{(V_0 - V_{\text{min}}) \gamma_b}{\gamma} \]

for standoffs in the range given by

\[ V_0 t_b < S < \infty \]

Recall that

\[ \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_r}{\rho_j}} \]

Figure 174. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model (continued).

For case (a),

\[ p = S \left[ \left( \frac{V_0}{(1 + \gamma) U_{\text{min}}} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} - 1 \right] \]

\( S \) is bounded by

\[ 0 \leq S < (1 + \gamma) U_{\text{min}} t_b \left[ \frac{(1 + \gamma) U_{\text{min}}}{V_0} \right]^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} \]

Figure 175. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model (continued).
For case (b), the penetration is now

\[ P = \frac{(1 + \gamma)(V_{0b})^{\gamma/(1+\gamma)}S^{\gamma/(1+\gamma)}}{\gamma} - S \]

where \( S \) ranges from

\[ (1 + \gamma)U_{\text{min}}t_b \left[ \frac{(1 + \gamma)V_{0b}}{V_0} \right]^{\gamma/\gamma} < S < V_0t_b \]

Figure 176. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model (continued).

For case (c), when the jet particulates before penetration begins,

\[ P = \frac{V_{0b} - \sqrt{U_{\text{min}}t_b(V_{0b} + \gamma S)}}{\gamma} \]

where \( S \) lies in the interval

\[ V_{0b} < S \leq \frac{V_0 - U_{\text{min}}}{\gamma} \left[ \frac{V_0}{U_{\text{min}}} \right] \]

Figure 177. The DiPersio, Simon, Merendino model (continued).
\[ (\rho_p/2)(v-u)^2 + Y_p = (\rho_T/2)u^2 + R_T \]

\[
\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{Y_p}{l\rho_p}
\]

\[
\frac{dl}{dt} = u - v
\]

\[
u = \frac{dp}{dt} \quad \text{or} \quad p = \int u dt
\]

**Where:**

- \( v \) is the penetrator velocity,
- \( u \) is the penetration velocity
- \( \rho_p \) is the penetrator density,
- \( \rho_T \) is the target density
- \( Y_p \) is the penetrator strength term,
- \( R_T \) is the target strength term
- \( l \) is the instantaneous penetrator length,
- \( t \) is time

---

Figure 178. The Tate model.

\[ \frac{d}{dt} \left( M \, U \right) = \pi \min \left( \sigma - \sigma_T \right) + \pi \min \rho(t) \left( V - U \right)^2 \]

\[ - \pi \min \rho_{to} \left( U^2 - 2 \pi \mu \, \left( H_0 + P_p \right) \right) \]

\[ M = \pi \min \left( P_p + H_0 \right) \rho(t). \]

Figure 179. The Walters and Majerus model.
Figure 180. The Walters and Majerus model (continued).

Figure 181. Analytical and experimental penetration vs. standoff curve for aluminum jet impacting a steel target.
Figure 182. Experimental and calculated exit velocities for charge type 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Thick.</th>
<th>Standoff Distance (m)</th>
<th>Exit Velocities (m/s)</th>
<th>Percent*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HMA</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>6.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>6.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>191</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRP</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.01</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>254</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>305</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>356</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target 5+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>5.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>4.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*CALC = AVG x 100%

**Multiple element targets**

Figure 183. Analytical and experimental penetration vs. standoff curve for a copper jet impacting a steel target.
Figure 184. Hole profiles in combination lead-plate, armor-plate targets. The distance from the top of the pile to the top of the armor plate is designated A in the discussion.

Figure 185. Predicted penetration vs. a layered target.
Metal Jets Impacting Metal Targets

* Metals have low compressibilities
* Penetration predicted well by incompressible model
* Therefore, compressibility has been neglected

Metal Jets Impacting Plastics and Liquids

* Plastics and liquids are much more compressible
* Penetration less than predicted by incompressible model
* Compressibility must be taken into account

Figure 186. Compressibility effects.

* **Jet/target density ratio** - incompressible, 1-D hydrodynamic theory states

\[ P = L \left( \frac{\rho_j}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/2} \]

* **Target strength** - at very high velocities, strength not important; at lower velocities, the greater the target strength, the smaller the penetration

* **Transient or unsteady effects** - interaction at start and finish of penetration process

* **Dispersion and tumbling** - jet segments and penetrators do not always follow ideal paths

Figure 187. Major factors in the penetration process.
* **Compressibility** - not important for metal targets; for highly compressible targets (e.g., Plexiglas), penetration can be 10 to 35% less than incompressible penetration

* **Rod foreshortening** - when passing through spaced armor, rods often shorten due to disturbance setup by skirting plate

* **Transverse disturbances** - certain special targets cause material to disturb the jet or penetrator laterally

Figure 188. Major factors in the penetration process (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Distance in $\phi$</th>
<th>Crater Depth in $\phi$</th>
<th>Crater Width in $\phi$</th>
<th>$\sum Volume in \phi^3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blast Charge</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.2-0.4</td>
<td>0.8-1.0</td>
<td>$\frac{0.8^2 \times \pi}{4} \times 0.3 \sim 0.19$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollow Charge</td>
<td>1.5-6</td>
<td>5-9</td>
<td>0.1-0.3</td>
<td>$\frac{0.2^2 \times \pi}{4} \times 6 \sim 0.19$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flat Cone Charge</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>0.25-0.40</td>
<td>$\frac{0.3^2 \times \pi}{4} \times 2.7 \sim 0.19$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projectile Charge</td>
<td>$1-10^3$</td>
<td>0.55-0.60</td>
<td>0.6-0.7</td>
<td>$\frac{0.65^2 \times \pi}{4} \times 0.57 \sim 0.19$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragment Charge</td>
<td>$1-10^3$</td>
<td>0.05-0.10</td>
<td>0.05-0.15</td>
<td>$\frac{0.10^2 \times \pi}{4} \times 0.08 \times 300 \sim 0.19$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 189. Types of charges.
Figure 190. Diagram of standard shaped charge.

Figure 191. Precision shaped-charge performance.
A shaped charge requires precision in the assembly and fabrication of its components. Precision tolerances for a typical 81-mm copper cone require that the wall thickness in the transverse plane be held to $\pm 0.0002$ in, the concentricity to the casing or TIR (total indicated readout) be held to $\pm 0.002$ in, and the maximum variation in wall thickness be held to $\pm 0.001$ in. For a typical nonprecision charge of the same diameter, the wall thickness in the transverse plane has a tolerance of $\pm 0.002$ in, a concentricity (TIR) of $\pm 0.004$ in, and a maximum variation of liner wall thickness of $\pm 0.004$ in. Note that liner tolerances are not absolute but should scale with charge diameter.

Figure 192. Shaped-charge precision assembly.

Thus, for small liners, precision tolerances are difficult to achieve. These small precision tolerances are required to eliminate poor performance, especially at long standoff distances (>5 CD). The processes of jet collapse, jet formation, and penetration are strongly dependent on the maintenance of axisymmetric flow. In other words, radial velocity components must be avoided.

Figure 193. Shaped-charge precision assembly (continued).
Many aspects of shaped charge fabrication and assembly can cause radial jet velocity components. These aspects include variations of the liner wall thickness, variations in the case thickness or asymmetric confinement of the high explosive, inhomogeneities in the explosive fill, and misalignment of the liner axis with respect to the warhead axis of symmetry or the axis of symmetry of the detonation wave.

Figure 194. Shaped-charge precision assembly (continued).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Precision Charge</th>
<th>Nonprecision Charge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wall thickness variation in any liner transverse plane (in.)</td>
<td>0.00007</td>
<td>0.0043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum variation in wall thickness throughout the liner (in.)</td>
<td>0.0010</td>
<td>0.0040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentricity of liner with casing (in.)</td>
<td>0.0020</td>
<td>0.0036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The loading procedure was kept the same for both groups of charges.

Figure 195. The gauging data for the precision and nonprecision charges.
Figure 196. Penetration performance of the standard charge.

"There Is No Problem That Can’t Be Solved by the Proper Application of High Explosives"

Sign in the office of Dr. J. Carleone,
Former Vice President, Aerojet Corporation

Figure 197. The solution.
Figure 198. Metallurgical and explosive effects on jets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explosive</th>
<th>Density (g/cm²)</th>
<th>Detonation Rate (m/s)</th>
<th>Detonation Pressure (kbars)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comp B 150μ RDX</td>
<td>1.835</td>
<td>8830</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-FG 60μ HMX, NP</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>8480</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-GD 8μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>8300</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-GG 60μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>7900</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCTOL 75/25 470μ HMX</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>7470</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RX-08-EL 60μ HMX, FEFO</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>6900</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amatex 40</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>6800</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Simon and DiPersio (1971)

Figure 199. Explosive properties.
45° Conical Steel Liner

CD = LD = 4.1 cm

L = 12.5 cm

Pentolite Load

$t_w = 0.094 \text{ cm}$

Liner Weight = 28.932g

Jet  \( d_j = 2 \cdot 3 \text{ mm} \)

\( m_j = 5 \text{ g} \)

\( V_{jo} = 7.5 \text{ km/s}, V_s = 0.5 \text{ km/s} \)


Figure 200. Liner description.

Figure 201. Disposition of a shaped charge to be fired in lead plates.
Figure 202. Photograph of a stack of lead plates penetrated by a jet from a steel conical liner. The circular plates have been cut after the firing. The 15.5-cm-diameter plates were 1.5 cm thick.

Figure 203. Photograph of a stack of plates penetrated by a jet from a steel conical liner. The circular plates, except the last one, have been cut after firing. The plates are alternately lead and steel; the top plate is lead, the next is steel, the third is lead, etc. The 15.5-cm-diameter lead plates were 1.5 cm thick; the 15.35-cm-diameter steel plates were 1.27 cm thick.
Figure 204. Plate mass loss.

Figure 205. Thin vs. thick plates.
Figure 206. Materials table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>$\rho$ (g/cm$^3$)</th>
<th>$C_p$ (km/s)</th>
<th>$T_m$ (°C)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cu</td>
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Figure 207. Materials table (continued).

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• HIGH MELT TEMPERATURE
• HIGH DENSITY
• HIGH SOUND SPEED
• FINE GRAIN, PROPER GRAIN ORIENTATION, GOOD ELONGATION
• AVAILABILITY

Figure 208. Favorable characteristics of shaped-charge liner materials.

• CHEAP
• EASY TO FABRICATE
• NON-TOXIC
• HIGH DYNAMIC STRENGTH

Figure 209. Favorable characteristics of shaped-charge jet materials.
• Jet tip velocity and jet tail velocity
• Velocity gradient
• Breakup time or breakup time distribution
• Jet diameter
• Jet length

Figure 210. Shaped-charge jet parameters.

• Ductile
• Coherent
• Straight
• Massive
• Fast

Figure 211. Favorable jet characteristics.
• High strength
• Favorable velocity gradient
• Long breakup time
• Special conditions (spaced, large tip, etc.)

Figure 212. Favorable jet characteristics (continued).
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ABERDEEN PROVING GROUND

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