

1 Experimental Measurement of TNT Equivalency For Contact Charges

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8 9 **Abstract**

10 The ability to compare explosives is fundamental. Numerous methods are used and while
11 simple conversion factors are often used, the use of TNT Equivalency (TNTE) is not a
12 simple subject as explosives exhibit very different equivalencies depending on whether the
13 pressure or impulse are being considered as well as other conditions. The scaled distance has
14 been found to have a significant effect on the TNTE but due to the difficulty of taking
15 measurements at very close ranges, no TNTE have been quoted for charges in direct contact
16 ($Z=0$). This paper describes the use of a ballistic pendulum to measure the impulse from
17 contact charges and presents some surprising results that require a two-stage propulsion, as
18 originally described by Backofen, to be explained.

19
20
21 **Key Words:** Ballistic Mortar, Explosive, Tamping, measurement of impulse, TNT
22 Equivalency, two-stage propulsion

23 24 25 **Introduction**

26 The ability to compare different explosive materials with each other is important. It gives
27 blasters the ability to optimise shots, use cheaper explosives or enhance performance by
28 selecting explosives with different compositions or from different suppliers.

29
30 The need to be able to compare different explosives has been fundamental to the
31 understanding of explosives since they were first invented. Tests such as the Trauzl test
32 (1903) which was known to give misleading results with slow-burning explosives such as
33 black powder [1, p. 34], the sand crush test (1910) [2, p. XXI], and the plate dent test (1917)
34 [2, p. XX] all give a method of comparing various explosives. The Ballistic Mortar [3] is a
35 piece of equipment that was used as the primary method of measuring the explosive
36 “strength” defined by Taylor and Morris as the “maximum mechanical work the explosion
37 products are capable of performing”, and was commonly used for testing batches of
38 explosives for conformity. It consists of a heavy pendulum mass with a cavity into which a
39 projectile is inserted. A 10g charge of the explosive to be tested is positioned within the
40 mortar and detonated, ejecting the projectile, and causing the pendulum to swing. The angle
41 of the swing is used to calculate the total energy Q . The ballistic mortar was seen as superior
42 to the earlier tests as it gives results in absolute figures. These are then compared against a
43 reference explosive to give a relative strength [4, p. 36]. In the UK the reference explosive
44 was Polar Blasting Gelatine [5, p. 178] and in the US TNT was used to give a ‘triton
45 value’[6], which is defined as the number of grams of TNT which will give the same swing
46 to the ballistic mortar as 10g of the explosive under test.

48 **Large-Scale Testing**

49 With the advent of electronic instrumentation, tests could be conducted in which pressure
50 transducers recorded pressure-time histories. Much of the original experimental work for
51 developing the blast tables used today was done in the late 1950s and 1960s [7]. A series of
52 four large TNT detonations were conducted at Suffield Experimental Station in Canada,
53 culminating in a 500 tonne TNT test shot (Operation Snowball [8]). The results from these
54 trials was later developed by Kingery and Bulmash into a more usable form [9] that now
55 forms the basis of blast prediction software such as ConWep [10]. For that reason, the data
56 used for predicting blast is all based on bare, spherical or hemispherical TNT charges that
57 are centrally initiated. As TNT is no longer a commonly used main explosive most modern
58 work requires TNT equivalence (TNTe) to allow the older field data to be used for
59 predictions to be made for other explosives. If the same trials were to be conducted today,
60 another explosive, such as RDX would no-doubt have been selected instead.

61
62 A series of trials were conducted in the 1970s and 1980s at the US Army Armament
63 Research and Development Command to use a standardised test to obtain TNT
64 equivalencies for many explosives and propellants [11]–[14]. The standardised test
65 configuration used rays of pressure sensors aligned on two perpendicular axes around
66 charges. Charges ranging from 50lb to 120lb in specific packaging were detonated and
67 recorded at scaled distances ranging from 3.0 - 40 ft/lb^{1/3} (1.19 – 15.87 m/kg^{1/3}) [10], [15].
68 Most this data was presented as TNT equivalencies however one report in the series from
69 1978 refers to equivalent weight factor and used Pentolite (50:50 TNT/PETN) as the
70 standard explosive [16]. This seems to have been short-lived and later reports reverted to
71 TNT equivalency.

72
73 This series of trials expressed the TNT equivalency as a percentage for both pressure and
74 impulse at a range of scaled distances. This shows that there are clearly very different TNT
75 equivalencies depending on the configuration of the charge and the scaled distance. RDX,
76 for instance, had equivalencies for pressure ranging from 116% up to 526% and for impulse
77 from 30% up to 258% [11].

78
79 While most references generally quote a single set of TNT equivalencies for pressure and
80 impulse for each explosive, the TNT Equivalency trials conducted by the US Army
81 Armament Research and Development Command clearly show that this is overly simplistic,
82 and that any equivalency can only be used within specific scaled distance ranges.

84 **Scaling**

85 In order to normalise data and allow meaningful comparisons to be made between trials, the
86 Hopkinson or “cube-root” scaling is typically used [17] in order to determine the Scaled
87 Distance (Z), Scaled Time (τ) or Scaled Impulse (ζ) [18] which are calculated as:

$$88 \quad Z = R/E^{1/3} \text{ or } R/W^{1/3} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

$$89 \quad \tau = t/E^{1/3} \text{ or } t/W^{1/3} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

$$90 \quad \zeta = I/E^{1/3} \text{ or } I/W^{1/3} \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

91 Where

92

93 R = distance, E = energy of the explosive, W = weight of the explosive, t = time, I = Impulse
94
95 The scaled distance allows different charge/distance configurations to be compared or scaled
96 down experiments to be done such that the time-pressure histories are comparable. For
97 example, 8,000kg of TNT at 100m has a scaled distance of $5\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$. If a scaled down
98 charge were to be tested that had 1kg at 5m, the scaled impulse would also be $5\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$
99 meaning that the blast characteristics would be the same for both tests.

100

101 **Near-Field, Mid-Field and Far Field Tests**

102 It is known that TNTe varies depending on several factors, including the scaled distance. To
103 compensate for this, some researchers separate tests into either near-field or far-field. While
104 the authors have not found any defined ranges they appear to consider near-field to be
105 scaled distances between 0.2 and $3\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$ and far-field to be greater than $3\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$ [19],
106 [20]. Interestingly, Kingery and Bulmash present data from 1kg charges from distances
107 ranging from approximately 0.05m to 40m [9]. When the scaled distance is plotted against
108 incident pressure there are two inflection points, one at $Z = 0.4$ and another at approximately
109 $Z=4$ (Fig. 1). The authors propose that this be used as the basis for defining the thresholds
110 for near-field and far-field measurements and the introduction of the mid-field which would
111 lie between $Z >0.4$ and $Z <4$.

112

113 The US DOD classification procedures have three ranges for Scaled distance when
114 considering peak pressure, 0.2-2.9, 2.9-23.8 and 23.8-198.5 $\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$ and four when
115 considering Impulse, 0.2-0.96, 0.96-2.38, 2.38-33.7 and 33.7-158.7 $\text{m}/\text{kg}^{1/3}$ [21, Tbls. 6–1].
116 There is no explanation given within the text for these ranges.

117

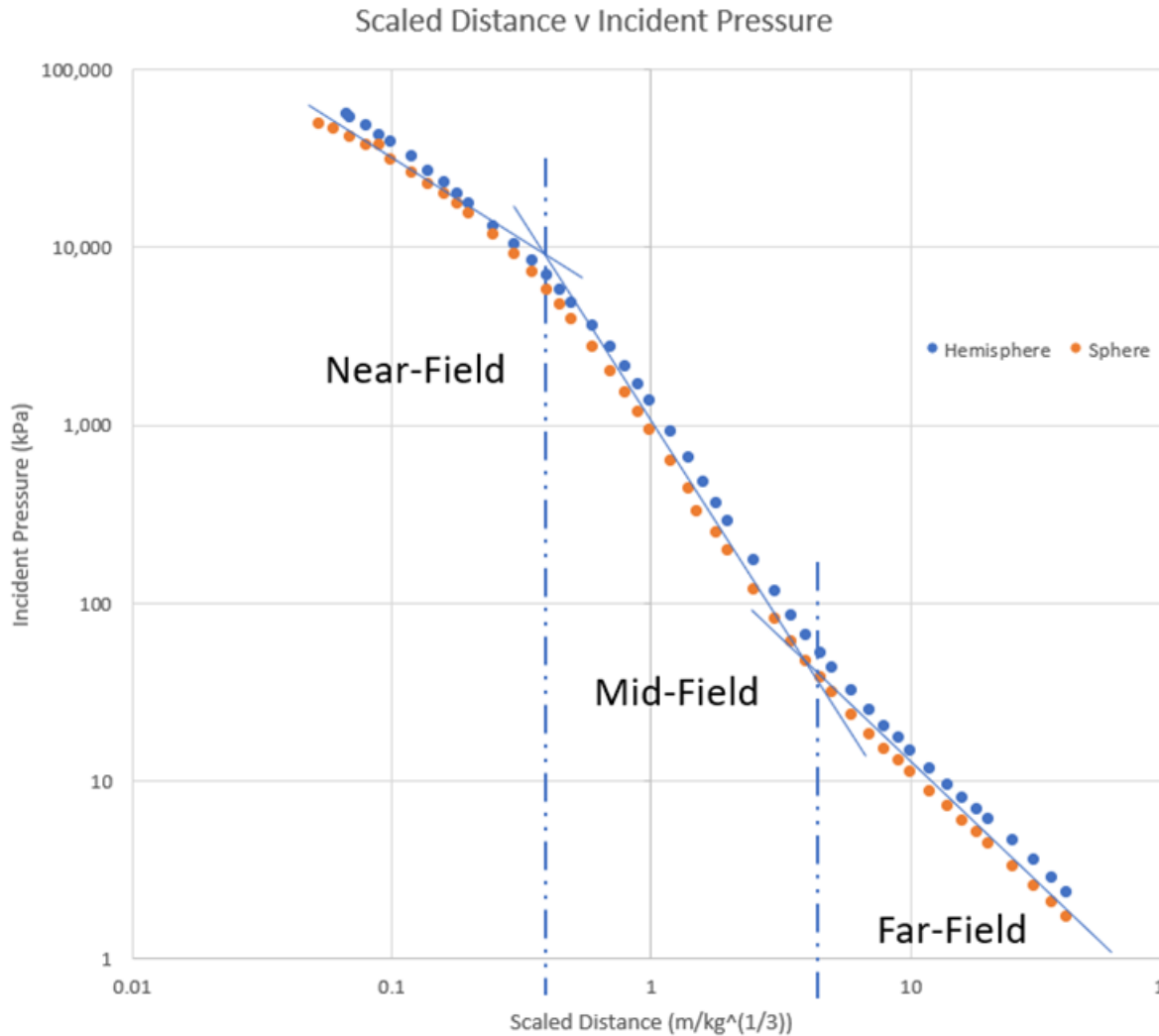


Fig. 1. Kingery & Bulmash data for 1kg Spherical TNT charge [9, Tbls. 1 & 3] with author's best-fit lines illustrating the three distinct regimes for incident pressure

118 To use this data with different explosives the TNT Equivalence (TNTe) is required for each
 119 explosive being used. There are several methods of deriving the equivalency, both
 120 theoretical and experimental [10] which will be discussed in further detail later, but it is
 121 important to recognise that the TNTe varies depending on what factor is being compared, for
 122 example the explosive strength or power, overpressure or impulse. It is also known that the
 123 TNTe is not constant with scaled distance and can vary significantly, in particular in the
 124 near-field and mid-field ranges [10], [15].

125

126 The authors are interested in the impulse from charges in direct contact with a target where
 127 $Z=0$ and the event is within the fireball. A literature search found nothing on tests with these
 128 conditions.

129

130 Locking describes some of the main theoretical methods used to determine the TNTe [22]
 131 and no further discussion will be made in this paper. Theoretical methods include using the
 132 Power Index (PI) which uses the heat of detonation and the volume of gas produced,

hydrodynamic work calculations which use the Chapman-Jouguet Detonation Pressure and the explosive density, and the Heat of Detonation (Q) which simply compares the heat of detonation between the test explosive and TNT.

Clearly, there is no single and highly accurate way to determine TNTe for explosives [23]. Cooper stated that “TNT Equivalence” has little practical meaning in respect to most of the tests which are used to define it. For applications where our interest is in understanding and quantifying the effects of explosives which apply to shattering and/or producing plastic deformation of an adjacent material, the CJ pressure of the explosive is the precise property which is applicable” [24]. The TNT equivalence is also known to change with scaled distance, impulse and pressure [22] and the TNT equivalencies of explosives have been found to vary significantly for Pressure (TNTe P) and Impulse (TNTe I) [10].

Table 1. Sample TNTe factors from various published sources

Explosive	Sand Crush test	Ballistic Mortar	Trauzl	Plate Dent	Pressure	Impulse	Range	Source
C4					1.37		NA	Maserjian & Fisher (1951) *
C4	0.557	1.3		1.15			NA	Cooper & Kurowski (1996)
C4						1.19		US DOD (2002) **
C4					1.8	4.7	Near-Field	McIntyre (1981)
C4					1.0	2.3	Far-Field	McIntyre (1981)
PE4		1.3			1.35	1.3	Far-Field	Wharton, Formby & Merrifield (2000)
RDX	0.602	1.5	1.57	1.35				Cooper & Kurowski (1996)
PETN	0.627	1.45	1.73	1.29				Cooper & Kurowski (1996)
Driftex NG Dynamite		0.71			0.55	0.5	Far-Field	Wharton, Formby & Merrifield (2000)

* [25] **[25]

Despite these limitations, TNTe is the simplest and most common way to allow some comparisons to be made between charges using different explosives [20]. Table 1 has a selection of TNTe factors for C4 and Dynamite from various sources.

TNTe for Contact Charges

The authors’ primary interest is in the use of explosive charges that can be used in explosive demolition and explosive method of entry (breaching) for displacing cut sections of structures and stripping concrete or creating access ports in walls [26]–[28]. These types of charge are generally in direct contact with the target so a knowledge of TNTe for different explosives when the scaled distance is zero is required. For these applications, the impulse is the most useful explosive characteristic, and this is known to have the most deviation as the scaled distance reduces (fig. 2). There is no simple way to directly measure the impulse or pressure at $Z=0$ using pressure sensors as they would be destroyed before they could measure any readings. For this reason, using a ballistic pendulum is the only viable method. The only reference found for this is for testing done by Baum et al in the former Soviet Union in the 1960 in which a ballistic pendulum seems to have been constructed with a long horizontal bar as the pendulum mass. Explosive charges were placed against one end of the bar to cause it to swing in order to determine the impulse of force [5, p. 177].

Table 1: Scaled Distance v Impulse

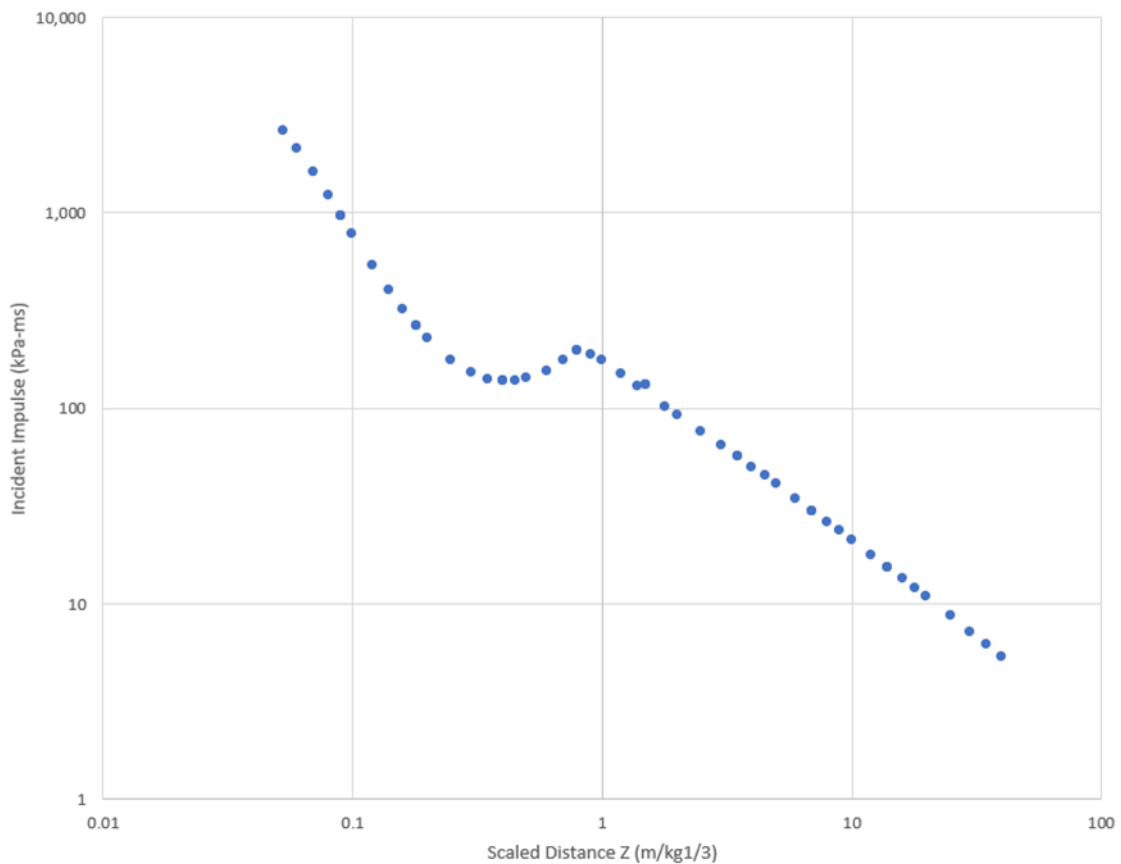


Fig. 2. Kingery & Bulmash data for 1kg Spherical TNT charge [9, Tbl. 1] showing a major discontinuity that appears common with impulse

167

168 Experimental Methods

169 Instrumentation

170 The authors have previously presented work on a modular ballistic pendulum (MBP) with
 171 interchangeable masses for measuring impulse produced by charges placed in direct contact
 172 with the pendulum mass [29]. The pendulum has previously been used to measure the
 173 impulse from explosive charges both with a stand-off ($Z = 0.7$) and for contact charges ($Z =$
 174 0). The system offers a simple method of measuring the impulse and comparing different
 175 charges.

176

177 It is reasoned that the same system could be used in much the same way that the original
 178 ballistic mortar to compare the relative performance of different explosives in terms of
 179 impulse.

180

181 Unlike the ballistic mortar, the ballistic pendulum does not have a firing chamber for
 182 containing the explosive and there is no projectile to be ejected. Charges are directly fixed to
 183 the anvil on the pendulum and the gas products allowed to vent directly into the atmosphere
 184 while imparting impulse into the pendulum, causing it to swing.

185

186 The angle of swing is recorded on video and the impulse calculated using:

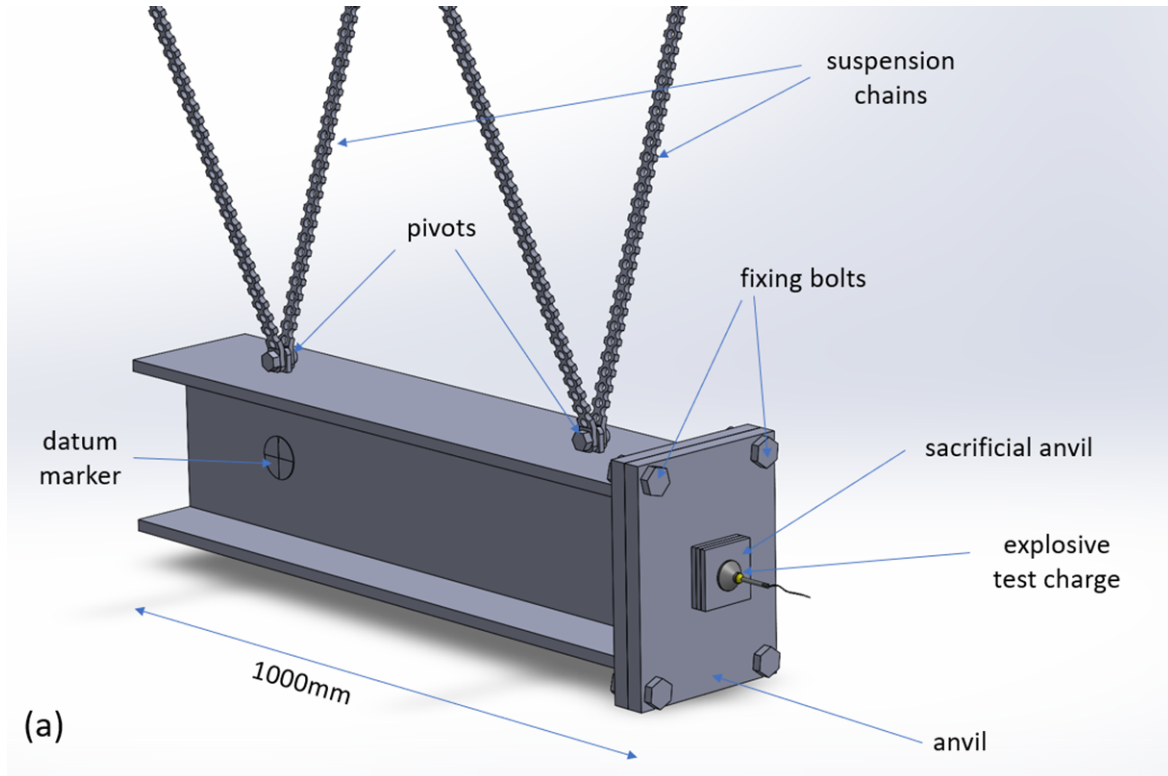
187

188
$$J = m\sqrt{2gr(1 - \cos \theta)}$$
 (Equation

189 4)

190 Where J is Impulse, m is mass of pendulum (kg), g is gravity, r is the length of the pendulum
191 arm and θ is the angle of rotation.

192





(b)
Fig. 3. (a) The 86kg pendulum mass has replaceable anvils and each charge has one or more sacrificial steel anvil plates to protect the pendulum mass from damage (b) The MBP frame and light mass being swung by a 30g charge of plastic explosive. “Tracker” software allows accurate measurement of the angle of rotation from recorded video.

193

194 **Materials**

195 Tests were carried out with charges ranging from 10g to 70g for a range of explosives which
196 were fixed directly to small sacrificial anvils designed to transmit the force into the
197 pendulum mass while preventing damage to the mass. It was reasoned that as the traditional
198 ballistic mortar is used with 10g charges, this magnitude of charge could be used if a light
199 pendulum mass were selected and conducting a series of firings in which the explosive
200 increases would be a substitute for increasing the scaled distance.

201

202 The explosives tested were cast TNT (poured-clear-coarse) [30], Poladyn [31] and PE4
203 which is RDX-based [32].

204

205 Plastic moulds or charge containers were 3D printed to make the cast charges and the more
206 plastic explosives were shaped by hand and not fired in a container. Various charge shapes
207 were tested (short cylinders, hemispheres, and cones of different angles).



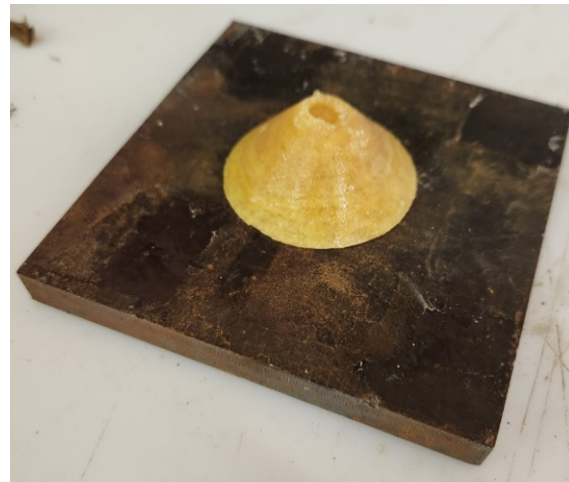
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Fig. 4. Examples of different test shapes and explosives. (a) Hand-rolled Poladyn hemispheres, (b) Poladyn charge fixed to pendulum mass, (c) 3D printed conical moulds used for casting TNT charges and forming mouldable explosives, (d) cast TNT after removal from mould. Later tests kept the charge in the mould which was considered to be a consumable.

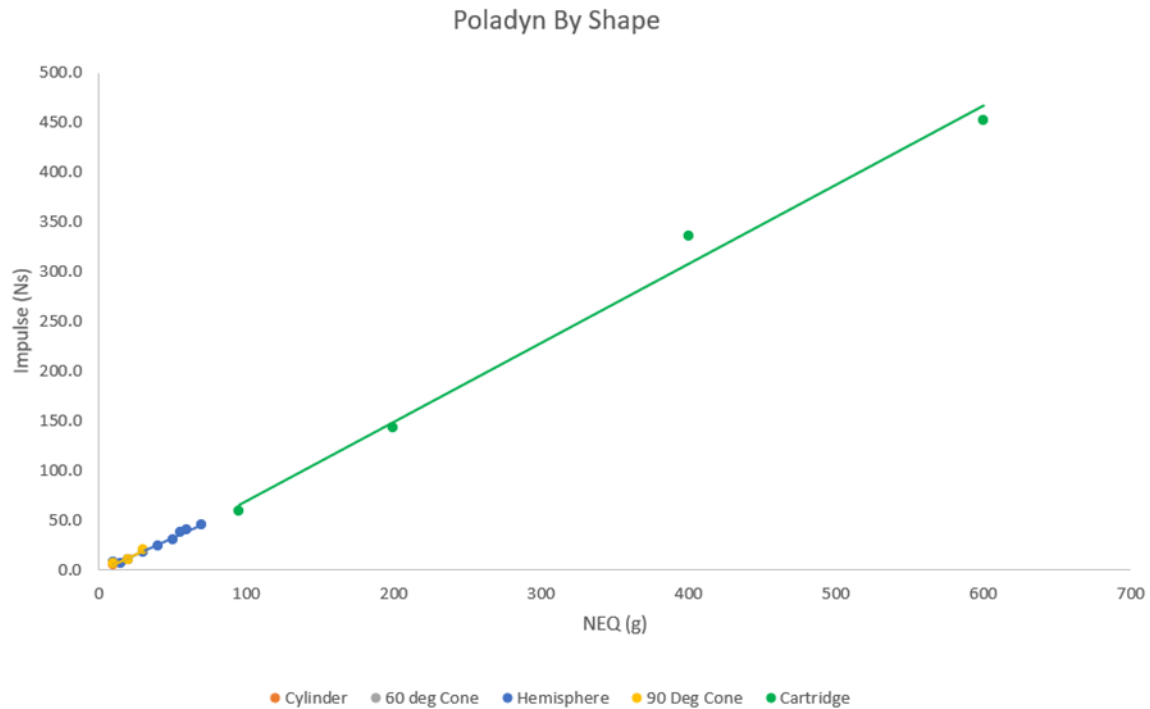


Fig. 5. Comparison of results with different charge shapes Poladyn show that the charge shape has relatively little effect on the impulse measured

209 When impulse was plotted against NEQ for different charge shapes, analysis of the data
 210 showed that the shape appears to have little effect on the impulse measured (Fig.5).

211
 212 Hemispheres were found to be good for mouldable explosives as a ball of explosive could
 213 simply be squashed onto the anvil to form a hemisphere, however cast explosives require a
 214 mould for casting into. In this case it was felt easier to design conical moulds for any given
 215 NEQ by assuming an explosive density of 1.6. The final shape selected was therefore a 90-
 216 degree cone.

217
 218 It had been assumed that making 10g TNT charges would be simple and that they would
 219 initiate easily given that they have historically been used in the ballistic mortar. In fact, it
 220 was found that getting small cast TNT charges to initiate is rather difficult.

221
 222 Various initiation conditions were used, all with a No. 8* electric detonator and a small
 223 PETN-based explosive booster. It was eventually found that a 20g charge with a 2g booster
 224 was capable of detonating, but not with 100% reliability. No literature was found to describe
 225 cast TNT charges of this size and with larger charges it is known that loose TNT is easier to
 226 detonate. Cook wrote that fine-grained loose TNT (density 0.8) could be initiated with
 227 knotted detcord whereas cast TNT required a tetryl booster was required [4, p. 54].

228
 229 For this reason, despite several test shots being attempted, only four data points were
 230 obtained for 10g and 20g loads. All other charges either deflagrated or failed to initiate
 231 completely.

232
 233 Tests were conducted using charges of three different explosives. These were cast TNT,

234 Poladyn, and PE4. The smallest pendulum mass, weighing 86.2kg, was used. Charges were
 235 attached to single-use steel plates 10mm thick and 100mm square which were damaged by
 236 the blast of the more brisant charges.

237

238 **Results and Discussion**

239 **Data Analysis**

240 Test shots were filmed at 4K Resolution on a digital camera positioned 5 from the test
 241 equipment. The video was then analysed using software called Tracker [33] which allowed a
 242 protractor to be overlaid on the image to measure the angle of swing. This was then used in
 243 Equation 4 to derive the impulse from each charge.

244

245 **Test Results**

246

Table 2. Test Firing Data

Test No.	Explosive	NEQ g	Impulse Ns
1-1	TNT-C Cylinder	10	4.5
1-2	TNT-C Cylinder	10	5.3
1-3	TNT-C Cylinder	10	4.5
1-4	TNT-C 90 deg cone w. 2g booster	10	4.9
1-5	TNT-C 90 deg cone w. 2g booster	20	8.1
1-6	TNT-C 90 deg cone w. 2g booster	30	7.0
2-1	Poladyn Cart	94.9	58.7
2-2	Poladyn Cart	200	142.5
2-3	Poladyn Cart	400	335.2
2-4	Poladyn Cart	600	452.2
2-5	Poladyn Cylinder	10	6.5
2-6	Poladyn Cylinder	10	6.1
2-7	Poladyn Cylinder	10	4.9
2-8	Poladyn Hemisphere	10	8.1
2-9	Poladyn Hemisphere	20	10.8
2-10	Poladyn Hemisphere	30	17.8
2-11	Poladyn Hemisphere	40	23.7
2-12	Poladyn Hemisphere	50	30.7
2-13	Poladyn Hemisphere	60	40.4
2-14	Poladyn Hemisphere	15	7.0
2-15	Poladyn Hemisphere	55	38.2
2-16	Poladyn Hemisphere	70	44.7
2-17	Poladyn Hemisphere	30	18.9
2-18	Poladyn 60 deg cone	20	9.7
2-19	Poladyn 90 deg cone	10	5.9
2-20	Poladyn 90 deg cone	20	10.8
2-21	Poladyn 90 deg cone	30	19.9
3-1	PE4 Cylinder	10	20.3
3-2	PE4 Cylinder	10	18.7
3-3	PE4 90 deg cone	10	16.7

3-4	PE4 90 deg cone	20	38.2
3-5	PE4 90 deg cone	30	51.1

247

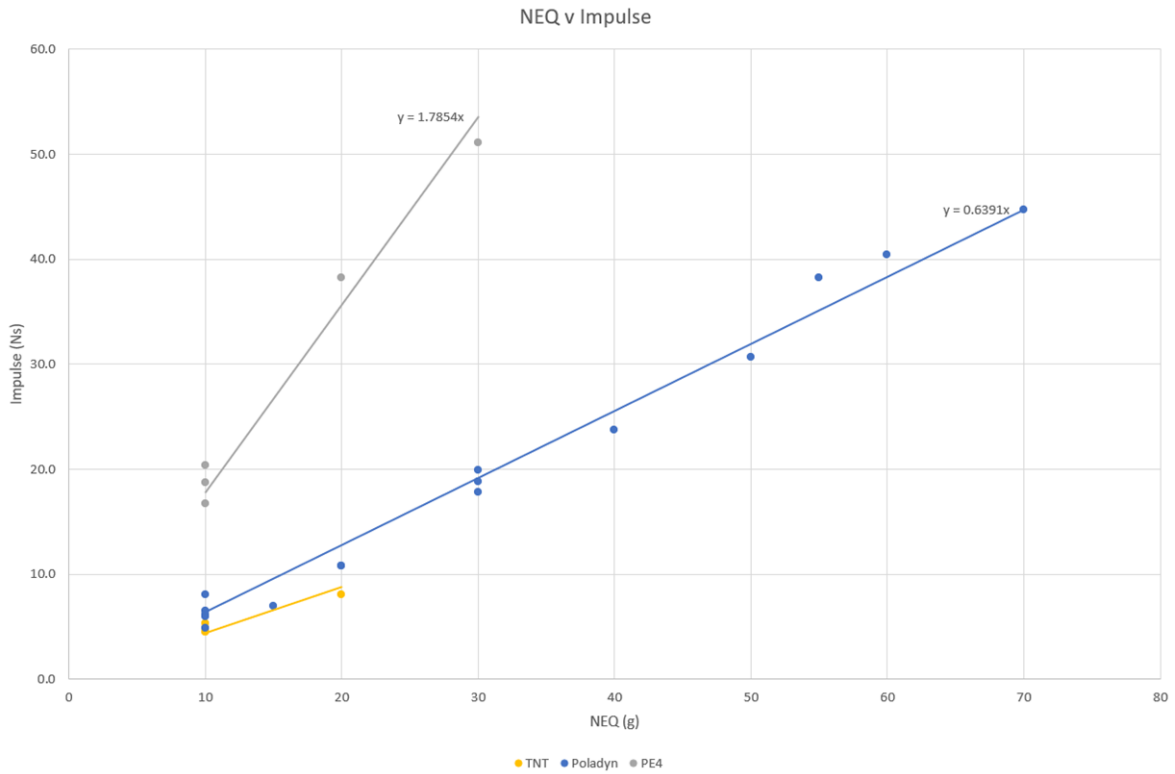


Fig. 6. Impulse plotted against NEQ for the three explosives tested. All trendlines are set to intercept the origin.

248

249

Table 3. Summary of key TNT Equivalency for different explosives

Explosive	TNTe			
	Commonly used TNTe (pressure)		McIntyre (Impulse)	Alford et al (Impulse)
	Range	Pressure	Impulse	Near-Field Contact
TNT	1.00		1.00	1.00
Dynamite	0.98			1.44
C4	1.37	1.19	4.70	
PE4				4.05

See Table 1 for Sources

250

251

252 **Discussion**

253 Two questions arise from the results (Table 2). The first is whether the TNTe for PE4 of
254 4.05 is realistic given that the most quoted figure, taken from CONWEP, is 1.37 for pressure
255 and 1.19 for impulse [34]. The second question is why there is such a large difference
256 between the TNTe of Poladyn and PE4 given that they are normally expected to be in the
257 ranges of 0.98 - 1.19 respectively [35].

258
259 The TNTe figures obtained for the three explosives in Table 3 appear, at first glance,
260 anomalous as PE4 is highly comparable to C4 [36], [37] whereas the tests gave a TNTe of
261 4.05 which is 3,7 times higher. The confirmation shots done with PENO gave comparable
262 results to those from PE4.

263
264 Given that the results were based on a range of charge sizes and the data shows highly linear
265 relationships, it should be assumed that these results are correct and that an explanation for
266 the variation is required.

267

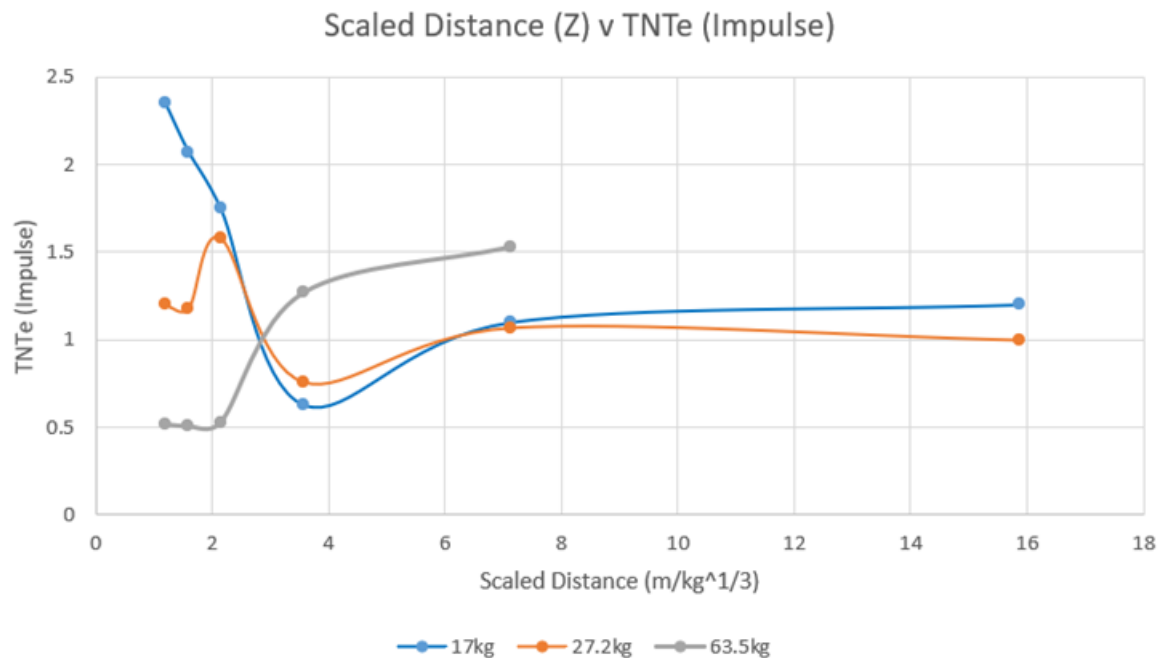


Fig. 7. Plotting McIntyre's TNTe (Impulse) for C4 and this trial's comparable figure, one can see that the two smaller NEQ charges from McIntyre show a sudden increase as Z reduces. Extrapolating back to the Y axis, they would meet the axis close to the Z=0 figure [13, Tbls. 2–4], [38].

268

269 When the work by McIntyre is considered, in which it was found that the TNTe varied
270 significantly depending on the range of scaled distance [38] the large TNTe factor is not
271 unrealistic. This is illustrated in Fig. 7 in which McIntyre's data for C4 is plotted. As the
272 scaled distance in McIntyre's data reduces, the TNTe increases rapidly and could be
273 extrapolated to be heading towards the Z=0 figure of 4.05 which was found in the current
274 tests. This corresponds to the observation by Huntington-Thresher and Cullis that at a scaled
275 distance of 0.5, the values for scaled impulse predicted by the cAst-Euler hydrocode were 4.5
276 times the CONWEP value [39].

277
278 The second question, why were Poladyn impulses so much lower than those for PE4 when the
279 TNTe was much closer to that which would normally be expected, initially requires an
280 appraisal of whether the results are due to an experimental error.

281
282 It is possible that the small charges, initiated with a No. 8* electric detonator, did not
283 propagate to full, high-velocity detonation, resulting in far lower than expected impulses. It
284 should be possible to overcome this by increasing the charge sizes. Unfortunately, no
285 successful tests were conducted with larger TNT charges than 20g, however Poladyn tests
286 were successfully conducted with a range of charge sizes from 10g up to 70g. As these results
287 showed a very linear progression, it seems unlikely that the results were due to incomplete or
288 partial detonation.

289
290 When considering Fig. 6, the most striking factor is that the explosives with the large TNTe
291 both have high velocities of detonation and are therefore highly brisant explosives compared
292 with TNT and Poladyn which are both grouped together (Table 2).

293 294 **Alternative Reference Explosive**

295 Given the difficulty found in initiating small cast TNT charges it would be worth considering
296 using an alternative reference explosive for future work.

297
298 Ideally any selected explosive should be capable of being reliably initiated with a standard
299 detonator in small quantities, be readily available or readily made in a laboratory and should
300 be capable of being formed into different shapes.

301
302 Such an explosive should be either a pure explosive material or a simple mixture which can be
303 produced rather than a commercial or proprietary composition. Two obvious contenders are
304 Composition B (RDX-TNT 60:40) and Pentolite (TNT-PETN 50:50). The former is a military
305 composition that was used as a main fill for munitions but tends to need a booster. It has also
306 largely been replaced by more modern compositions. Pentolite is widely used in commercial
307 blasting boosters and is therefore readily available. It can be melted and cast as easily as TNT
308 and is inexpensive. Most importantly, it can be readily made from the constituents in a
309 laboratory making it suitable as a universal replacement for TNT, at least for smaller-scale
310 testing.

311
312 There is a precedent for the use of Pentolite as the reference explosive. Goodman and Giglio-
313 Tos conducted a series of trials as part of McIntyre's work in 1978 in which they used
314 Pentolite in place of TNT [16]. This attempt to switch clearly failed as subsequent work in the
315 series reverted to TNT.

316 317 **Two-Stage Theory**

318 Backofen has proposed a two-stage detonation driven model which potentially explains the
319 large difference in the impulse from low and high brisant explosives [40]. The model
320 proposed separates the propulsion into two stages in which the initial motion is caused by a
321 brisant shock-dominated process that requires intimate contact with the target to transfer the
322 shock effectively. The second stage is a gas-dynamic process in which the gas products and
323 blast from the charge pushes. This theory would certainly account for the observed
324 phenomena.

325
326 It is proposed that when charges are in direct contact with a target ($Z=0$) the first brisant-

327 stage plays a significant part in the propulsive effect of the charge that is lost as soon as the
328 explosive is decoupled from the target.
329

330 **Conclusions**

331 Using the ballistic pendulum as a method of measuring the impulse from charges at $Z=0$ has
332 been demonstrated to work well and this allows comparisons to be made between different
333 explosives.

334
335 Small (10g) TNT charges are not easy to reliably detonate making it particularly
336 inappropriate for use as the standard explosive. An alternative explosive should be
337 considered as the benchmark.
338

339 The two-stage propulsion theory from Backofen in which the initial propulsion is provided
340 by a brisant shock appears to fit the evidence well as highly brisant, RDX-based explosives
341 gave a significantly higher Impulse (and TNTe) than a lower-brisant dynamite.
342
343
344

345 **Role of funding source**

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347 resources for the research but played no role in the study design, collection, analysis and
348 interpretation of data, the writing of the report and the decision to submit the paper for
349 publication.
350

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