

A SIMPLE MODEL TO PREDICT CRITICAL RICOCHET ANGLE IN LONG-ROD PENETRATION

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ABSTRACT

The ricochet of eroding long rods, from steel targets, is investigated by a series of three-dimensional numerical simulations in explicit finite element code. These are compared with the predictions of our analytical model and experimental results for ricochet. This approach is different than the rigid body treatment by A. Tate. Also it uses a new penetration velocity equation to predict critical ricochet angle. Critical ricochet angles were calculated for various impact velocities and strengths of the target plates in these approaches. It was predicted that critical ricochet angle increases with impact velocities and that higher ricochet angles were expected if higher strength targets were employed. New model's results show a better agreement with numerical results than Tate and Rosenberg models.

Keywords : Critical ricochet angle, Long-rod, Analytical

1. INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of ricochet is an important consideration in ballistics. While a large fraction of the generated ballistic data is gathered from experimental impact-conditions of normal impact, the mathematical models of ricochet are based on the analysis of mathematically probable ricochet conditions. The ballistic impacts on the ballistic target are classified into three levels of impact obliquity (normal, oblique, and extreme oblique). At low obliquity, the ballistic effect of impact is negligible. As the obliquity angle increases, the ballistic effect of impact becomes significant. However, due to the complexity of the interaction of the rod and target, the analytical models of ricochet are based on impact velocity, and yaw, and the angle of obliquity at and beyond which ricochets from the target surface.

Ricochet has been a well-studied phenomenon. An excellent review of work in the area is provided as a chapter in Goldsmith's review paper on projectile impact [1]. Much of the research in ricochet centers is on compact projectiles or on rigid projectiles. A much smaller fraction of the work is focused on medium- and long-rod ricochet, where a different phenomenology often manifests itself.

Radiographic evidence and hydrocode simulation of long-rod ricochet was presented by Jonas and Zukas [2] in 1978. With experimental radiography and corroborating hydrocode simulation, they demonstrate how the rod can form at the impact site (stationary with respect

to the target) and from a rigid target surface. While the work of Jonas and Zukas was to provide a qualitative modeling capability, no analytical analysis was offered.

Tate [3] developed an early model for the ricochet of long rods, in which the cylindrical rod (of square cross-section) responds as a rigid body away from the impact tip. Tate's model allows the local erosive deformation of the rod in the immediate vicinity of the impact. The asymmetric forces acting on this deforming rod tip are evaluated to ascertain their capacity to induce a rotation sufficient to bring about ricochet during the limited time before the rod tip becomes fully engaged in the target. While the model permits local deformation at the rod's tip, affecting the line of action of the interaction force, ricochet is judged to occur only if the remainder of the rod is adequately rotated, in a rigid fashion about its center of gravity, so as to produce a net linear velocity in the rod tip parallel to the target surface. Tate's approach produces an analytical expression for the target obliquity angle θ_{crit} , beyond which ricochet is predicted to occur. The expression for it is given as

Tate model:

$$\tan^3 \beta > \frac{2}{3} \frac{\rho_p V^2}{Y_p} \left(\frac{L^2 + D^2}{LD} \right) \left(\frac{V}{V-U} \right) \quad (1)$$

where ρ_p is the rod's density, V is the striking velocity of the rod, Y_p is the yield strength of the rod, L and D are the rod's length and diameter, respectively, and U is the

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initial penetration velocity of the rod into the target. Note that the need for the penetration velocity U as input to the model requires an auxiliary calculation from a ballistic penetration model, such that U , in addition to the rod variables already listed, becomes a function of the target resistance and the target density.

One of the drawbacks of the Tate ricochet model is its failure to predict ricochet for the rigid-rod (*i.e.*, $U = V$) scenario, because of the method used to calculate the line of action of the interaction force. Further, because of the model's requirement to ricochet by way of rigid-rod rotation, ricochet becomes increasingly improbable as the rod length is increased.

Jonas and Zukas [2], Senf *et al.* [4] showed in 1981 how the ricocheting rod can form a deformable shape at the impact site to deflect the rod from a rigid target surface. Such observations provided additional evidence that, even in the absence of erosion, a rigid rod assumption does not necessarily hold during the ricochet process. Like Jonas and Zukas, the intention of Senf *et al.* was to demonstrate hydrocode modeling capability, and so no additional analysis was offered.

Reid *et al.* [5] began to address, with analysis, the notion of the plastic hinge, traveling down the rod's length, but stationary with respect to the target surface. In their analysis, they simplified the problem to consider only the transverse bending forces, and were able to analogize the problem to one of a transverse impact on the free end of a cantilever beam.

Johnson *et al.* [6] studied ricochet into plasticine (modeling clay) rods and their work is based upon predictions from Tate's ricochet model. Johnson *et al.* limited their testing to angles of incidence above 75°. Photographic records of the rod behavior similar to that of the rigid rod model [2], Senf *et al.* [4].

By 1983, several studies of the ricochet phenomenon followed. The results of these studies are summarized in [7]. The impact velocity and target resistance were restricted to those of their work seems to focus more on the problem of rod buckling as the primary deformation, rather than bending associated with ricochet deflection.

Rosenberg *et al.* [8] revisited the ricochet problem in 1989. They acknowledge adapting many of Tate's [3] original premises, concerning the origins of the asymmetric force that acts upon the eroding tip of the impinging rod. However, the key point of departure for Rosenberg *et al.* is in assuming that the interaction force acts only upon the mass actively engaging the target, and not upon the wholly remaining rigid rod as Tate assumed. Thus, in the Rosenberg model, the interaction force acts to linearly deflect rod-tip material in the transverse direction, rather than acting to apply a rotational moment upon the rigid rod, as in the Tate ricochet model.

Rosenberg model

$$\tan^2 \beta > \frac{\rho_p V^2}{R_t} \left(\frac{V+U}{V-U} \right) \quad (2)$$

where R_t is the target resistance. Like Tate's model, the Rosenberg model's need for the penetration velocity U as input demands a further calculation that requires, in addition to those variables listed, knowledge of the rod strength Y_p and the target density. The model was shown to have good prediction ability for $L/D = 10$ tungsten (WA) rods launched against rolled homogeneous armor targets at striking velocities between 600 and 1400m/s and target obliquities between 55° and 75°.

The interaction methodology of Rosenberg *et al.* however, calculates the force interaction based upon a virgin, long-rod striking an erodible (but as yet undeformed) target. Thus it would seem that the methodology should only provide a prediction as to what happens to the initial rod material against the target. Once the initial rod is deflected, for example, the geometric shape of the remaining rod and gouged target surface are in harmony with the model's prediction. This indicates that the observed cases of ricochet followed via ricochet following establishing penetrating conditions in which it is derived, shown under conditions in which $U = V$, because of the interaction force's line of action. The studies of the ricochet phenomenon followed: rigid projectiles [9], rigid projectiles [10], experimental methods [11], or else touch on ricochet peripherally as part of a larger examination [12,13]. None of these studies offer additional analytical modeling insight into the phenomenology of medium- and long-rod ricochet.

2. MODEL CONSTRUCT

We adopt Rosenberg's arguments concerning the source of the asymmetric force acting on the tip of the long rod as it engages the oblique target. This interaction is shown in Fig. 1. which is taken from Rosenberg's work [8].

As in [8] we assume that the tip of the rod is eroding according to Rosenberg's theory [8]. and that the cross section of the rod is square, in order to simplify the analysis. Thus the same relations can be derived for the angle ψ (see Fig. 1) and the length (S) of the eroding tip [8].

$$\frac{S \cdot \sin \psi}{x} = \tan \psi \quad (3)$$

$$V - U = \frac{S \cdot \sin \psi}{t}$$

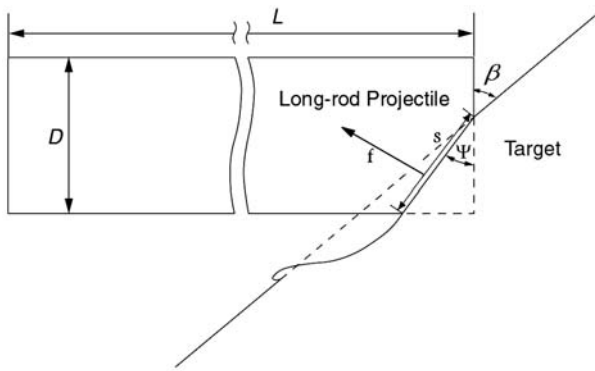


Fig. 1 The asymmetric interaction between rod and target some time after impact (from [8])

The force (f) which acts on the eroding surface is responsible for the bending of the rod and for its ricochet. Rosenberg assumed that the magnitude of this force depends on the pressure which the target exerts on the projectile. Thus, used the strength parameter R_T for the target, and wrote for the force f :

$$f = R_T \cdot S \cdot D \quad (4)$$

where $S \cdot D$ is the area of the eroding surface of the rod. Only the vertical component of f is of interest ($f \sin \psi$) and the time is needed for the whole tip of the rod to reach the target is $t_m = D \operatorname{tg} \beta / V$. Thus, the impulse imparted by the asymmetrical force to the tip of the rod is:

$$I = \int_0^{t_m} f \cdot \sin \psi \cdot dt = \frac{R_T D^3 (V - U)}{2V} \operatorname{tg}^2 \beta \quad (5)$$

The relevant mass, on which the impulse acts, is smaller than the amount of the mass of the rod tip. The mass m_2 of the rod tip is:

$$m = m_1 - m_2 \quad (6)$$

Using momentum conservation we get from Eqs. (3) and (4):

$$\rho_p D^3 \operatorname{tg} \beta \cdot \frac{V+U}{2V} V_T = \frac{R_T D^3}{2} \cdot \frac{V-U}{V^2} \cdot \operatorname{tg}^2 \beta \quad (7)$$

Where V_T is the vertical velocity imparted by the asymmetrical force (f) to the tip of the rod (Fig 2). Form Eq. (7) we get:

$$V_T = \frac{R_T}{\rho_p V^2} \left(\frac{V-U}{V+U} \right) V \cdot \operatorname{tg} \beta \quad (8)$$

In spite of Rosenberg method we use a new approach for penetration velocity as below:

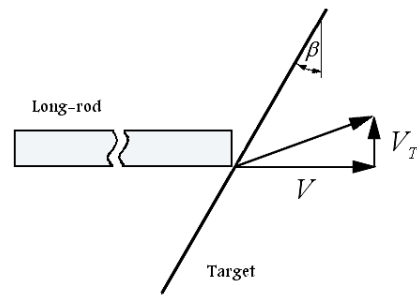


Fig. 2 The velocity vectors of the rod

First step considered here is the development of a relationship between erosion rate, \dot{l} , and the instantaneous velocity of the un-deformed portion of the rod v . For a cylindrical penetrator of length L and diameter D , the greater the instantaneous velocity of the rod, the higher the erosion rate. Therefore, it seems appropriate to assume that erosion rate, \dot{l} , is proportional to this velocity. Employing this concept, the following relation is assumed [8]

$$\dot{l} = \alpha v \quad (9)$$

where α is a coefficient of material properties. The erosion rate and velocity can be present as \dot{l}/v . As a result, it is not dependent to projectile velocity, this is a useful parameter to describe long-rod penetration phenomena. Changing the projectile geometry, the additional experimental set up to obtain the parameter α is simplified in hypervelocity regime.

Using the above assumption along with kinematic relationships about long-rod penetration:

$$\dot{l} = (u - v) \quad (10)$$

results in:

$$u = v(1 - \alpha) \quad (11)$$

Equation (11) is a relation between u and v if the dependency of α on material properties is established.

At this point it is appropriate to attempt to determine what type of a relationship should exist between u and v . The objective is to develop a mathematical relationship based on the physics of the problem as follows:

1. At hyper velocities the relationship between u and v should be independent of the strength properties of the target and penetrator. (Classical jet penetration

formula $Z = L \sqrt{\frac{\rho_p}{\rho_T}}$; Where ρ_p and ρ_T are projectile and target density that shown in Figs. 3 and 4).

2. At low velocities the relationship between u and v should depend on the strength properties of the impacting materials.

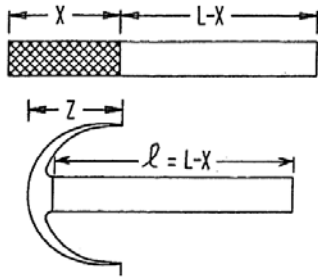


Fig. 3 Schematic of rod in penetration process (a) plastic portion X and undeformed portion L-X (b) penetration into target to a depth Z

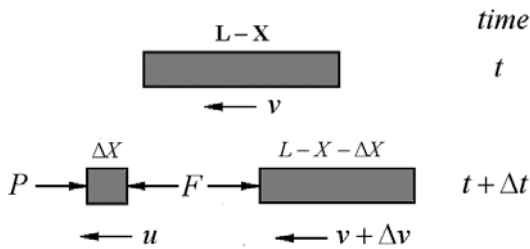


Fig. 4 Schematic diagram of mass transfer from the undeformed to the plastic portion of the rod

3. Since $l = -(v-u)$, the higher the difference between v and u , the higher the erosion rate. For a given material, higher erosion rate corresponds to higher impact velocity. This translates into the fact that higher values of impact velocity v will result in higher values of u . At low impact velocity, the erosion rate is low and the difference between v and u increases.

4. In an impact situation, the ultimate yield strength of the target is a limiting factor. That is, the resistance to penetration is limited by the ultimate yield strength of the target. Under conditions where the strength of the penetrator is much greater than that of the target, the penetrator can be considered a rigid body and consequently will not deform upon impact with the target.

Considering the above conditions, at hypervelocity the relation between u and v is given by the following form:

$$u = \frac{v}{1 + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\rho_T}{\rho_P}\right)}} \quad (12)$$

This relationship is obtained if fluid behavior is assumed for the colliding materials (negligible structural resistive forces) and the momentum equation is applied as follows:

$$\rho_P(v-u)^2 = \rho_T u^2 \quad (13)$$

Solving Eq. (13) for u will result in Eq. (12). Now, at hypervelocity there are two relationships between u and

v , Eq. (12), and relation assumed previously, Eq. (11). Comparing these two equations we obtain:

$$v(1-\alpha) = \frac{v}{1 + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\rho_T}{\rho_P}\right)}} \quad (14)$$

From which an expression for α can be obtained as

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + 1} \quad (15)$$

where λ is the square root of the ratio of the density of the target to the density of the penetrator

$$\lambda = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\rho_T}{\rho_P}\right)} \quad (16)$$

Equation (15) is valid at hypervelocity only and does not apply at low impact velocity. This term can be thought of as a limiting case where the impact velocity becomes very high,

$$(17)$$

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At low velocity, the erosion rate is a function of the impact velocity and the relation between u and v is given by an exponential expression on these parameters. The exponential expression is a function of possibilities to arise from the exponential expression between these parameters. The exponential expression is a function of possibilities to arise from the exponential expression between these parameters. The exponential expression is a function of possibilities to arise from the exponential expression between these parameters. The exponential expression is a function of possibilities to arise from the exponential expression between these parameters.

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda} \left[1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1 + \gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_T}{Y_P} \right)^{1/2}} \right] \quad (18)$$

where γ is the ratio of the target ultimate strength to that of the penetrator

$$\gamma = \left(\frac{Y_T}{Y_P} \right) \quad (19)$$

The properties of this exponential expression are as follows:

1. At hypervelocity the exponential part of the expression for α goes to zero and the relation between u and v becomes independent of the strength properties of the materials and reduces to the classical density law

$$u = \left[1 - \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda} \right] v \quad (20)$$

2. At lower velocity the effect of the strength terms become pronounced as v decreases. The value of α increases as the difference between v and u decreases corresponding to the fact that at low velocity the erosion rate becomes smaller. The relationship between u and v in this situation is

$$u = v \left[1 - \frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1+\gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_p}{Y_p} \right)^{1/2}} \right) \right] \quad (21)$$

Equation (21) corresponds to all the guidelines indicated previously and is considered to be a valid expression relating u and v . This equation also indicates that u is always less than or equal to v as expected and the internal consistency of the problem is sustained.

From Eqs. (8) and (21) we get:

$$V_T = \frac{R_T}{\rho_p V^2} \left[\frac{\frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1+\gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_p}{Y_p} \right)^{1/2}} \right)}{2V - \frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1+\gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_p}{Y_p} \right)^{1/2}} \right)} \right] V \cdot \text{tg}\beta \quad (22)$$

Figure 2 shows the two velocity vectors of the rod and one can easily show that ricochet occurs if

$$\text{tg}\beta > \frac{V}{V_T}$$

Then we have:

$$\text{tg}^2\beta > \frac{\rho_p V^2}{R_T} \left[\frac{2 - \frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1+\gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_p}{Y_p} \right)^{1/2}} \right)}{\frac{\lambda}{1+\lambda} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\gamma}{1+\gamma} \right) e^{-v \left(\frac{\rho_p}{Y_p} \right)^{1/2}} \right)} \right]$$

This relation shows a bet... because it has addition... model.

A full... element analysis with... on the principle of virt... reference time integration scheme... out to investigate the ricochet... theoretical and mathematical foundations... explicit finite element analysis are well established [14,15] and are widely adopted to solve the problem of high-strain-rate deformations [16], the lengthy derivation of the equations for the numerical analysis is not repeated here. A general-purpose explicit finite element analysis code was used for the numerical calculations.

Figure 5 shows a typical finite element model used in the numerical analysis. The model consists of a rectangular oblique target plate and a cylindrically shaped projectile with blunt nose shape that is initially located 1mm away from the target. Only half of the whole geometry was modeled due to the inherent symmetry of the model along the x-direction of the coordinate as shown in Fig. 5. The length and diameter of the projectiles chosen for the

numerical analysis were 75 and 7mm, respectively, giving an L/D ratio of 10.7. Impact velocities of the projectiles were varied from 1000 to 2000m/s with an increment of 250m/s. Target plates modeled are 150mm long, 40mm wide and 6.25mm thick. Obliquity of the plates was varied from 3° to 25° with intervals of 1° . Typical eight-node linear brick elements with reduced integration were used for meshing as shown in Fig. 3. Material properties were applied to the model by assigning appropriate material properties to the pre-defined projectile and target element sets, *i.e.*, properties of WHA to the projectile element set and properties of the two types of high hardness steel, namely, RHA class 4 [17] and S-7 tool steel [18], to the target element set.

In order to model a high-strain-rate mechanical response of the projectile and the target materials, a commonly used constitutive equation, the Johnson-Cook Eq. [18], was used as it is known to describe high-velocity mechanical response of a number of metals fairly well [19]. This has the form

$$\sigma = \left(\sigma_0 + B \left(\frac{T - T_r}{T_m - T_r} \right)^m \right) \left(1 + C \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon} - \dot{\epsilon}_0}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^n \right) \quad (24)$$

the effective... σ_0 , B , C , m and n are material constants for the materials used in this study, and T_r and T_m are the reference room temperature, and $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ is the reference strain rate. The values of σ_0 , B , C , m and n are determined from separate experiments for WHA and RHA or taken from Johnson-Cook model for S-7 tool steel [18] and are shown in Table 1. The values of ρ_p and Y_p are taken from the basic physical properties required for the calculations.

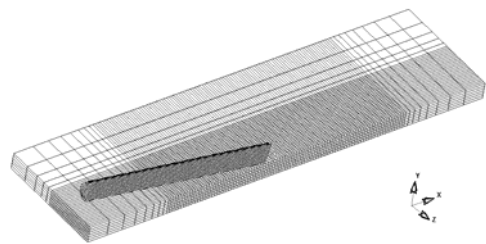


Fig. 5 Typical finite element mesh coordinate system used for the numerical study in this work

Table 1 Material properties and constants for the Johnson-Cook model applied to the numerical model

	WHA	RHA	S-7
Shear modulus (GPa)	152.02	76.96	79.96
ρ (kgm ⁻³)	17000	7840	7750
Specific heat (Jkg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	134	477	477
T_m (K)	1723	1809	1763
σ_0 (MPa)	1410	1160	1539
B (MPa)	223.3	415.9	477
n	0.11	0.28	0.18
C	0.022	0.012	0.012
m	1.0	1.0	1.0

The interaction between the projectile and the plate was simulated by a Lagrangian-Lagrangian contact algorithm based on a slave-grid/master segment concept. This algorithm checks eventual penetration of slave-grids through master segments and applies constant forces to push them back. Erosion of the projectile and the target was simulated through a so-called adaptive contact algorithm [20], which automatically updates contact definition between the interacting deformable bodies upon elimination of the elements when pre-set level of plastic strains, determined by a separate depth of penetration (DOP) calibration, are reached.

4. EXPERIMENTAL

Experiments were carried out to verify the numerical results. These results were used from last papers. The experimental set-up shown in Fig. 6 was used in last papers consists of three witness blocks (38mm thick RHA class 4), an oblique target plate (6.25mm thick RHA class 4), a velocity-measuring device and a solid propellant gun. WHA projectiles with L/D ratios of 10.7 ($L = 75$ and $D = 7$ mm) were impacted at velocities of about 1000 and 1500ms⁻¹. The velocities of the projectiles were controlled by adjusting the amount of solid propellant charge. The relations between the amount of the charge and the projectile velocities were calibrated in a preparatory experiment.

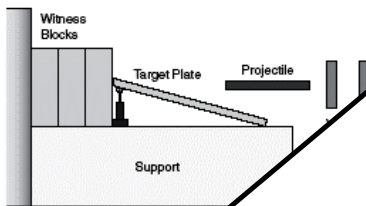


Fig. 6 Schematic of the experimental setup for oblique impact of WHA projectile on RHA target.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Post-Impact Behavior of the Projectile and the Target Plate

Numerical results are graphically shown in Figs. 7 ~ 9 in terms of the mesh deformation with the lapse of time to analyze the behavior of the WHA projectile and the RHA target with thickness comparable to the projectile diameter during the oblique impact. When the projectile impact velocity is 1000ms⁻¹ and the target oblique angle is 10°, as in the case shown in Figs. 7(a) ~ 7(h), the projectile initially bends on impact (Fig. 7(a)). Subsequently, a plastic hinge is formed which remains at the initial point of impact with respect to a fixed coordinate system (Eulerian) resulting in its relative backward motion along the x -direction of the coordinate

system (Fig. 5) as the projectile progresses forward (Figs. 7(b) ~ 7(d)). In the case being considered ($\theta = 10^\circ$), where the oblique angle is lower than the critical ricochet angle, the target does not deform much and no significant erosion of the impacted surface is noticed whilst the front end (denoted as head hereinafter) of the projectile lifts from the target surface after sliding some distance and eventually the projectile bounces away (Figs. 7(e) ~ 7(h)). Such behavior is yielded due to the asymmetric reaction force exerted from the contact area to the projectile, which is reportedly proportional to the area of the contact, target strength and oblique angle [8].

When the oblique angle of the target plate is increased to 12° whilst keeping the impact velocity the same, the projectile shows somewhat different behavior. As shown in Figs. 8(a) ~ 8(d), it initially pushes the impacted area of the target inward following impact since the target plate is allowed.

Whilst the head of the projectile tends to bounce back from the target due to the reaction force exerted from the contact area, the tail part of the impact, its trailing portion (denoted as tail hereinafter) tends to penetrate into the target. The initial trajectory of the projectile is such that the front part of the projectile slides on the target and slid on the target surface, forming a stretched impact crater in the target. In the case of critical oblique angle, the relatively thin deformed layer of the target plays a significant role in yielding such behavior. At a later time step before it completely penetrates the target achieving critical ricochet (Fig. 8(h)), the elongation of the projectile becomes so large that it results in the fragmentation of the projectile. In the case where the oblique angle is further increased to 14° beyond the critical angle, as can be seen in Figs. 9(a) ~ 9(c), the initial behavior of the projectile and the target is similar to the case of critical ricochet shown in Figs. 8(a) ~ 8(d).

However, unlike in the previous case, the tail part further progresses to penetrate into the target downward by eroding it (Figs. 9(e) and 9(f)), resulting in the fragmentation of the projectile due to extreme elongation as well as complete penetration (perforation) of the target as shown in Figs. 9(g) and 9(h).

Understanding the physical nature of the above behavior of the projectile and the target can be supplemented by analyzing the changes in the projectile velocities after impact, as has also been performed for normal penetration in the literature [21]. For this purpose, post-impact changes in the horizontal (along the x -direction) and vertical (along the y -direction) velocities of head and tail of the projectile have been monitored during the numerical calculations and the results are plotted in Figs. 10 to 15. Before impact, the head and the tail move at the same initial velocity of 1000ms⁻¹ and there is no vertical velocity term. For the case with relatively low oblique angle, *e.g.*, $\theta = 10^\circ$, as shown in Figs. 10 and 11, the horizontal velocities of

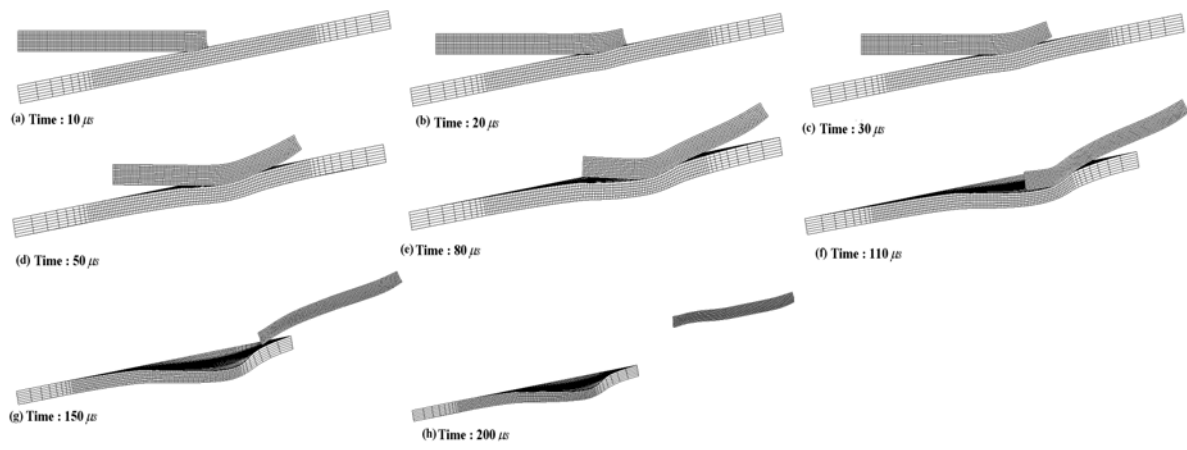


Fig. 7 Numerical results showing the behavior of the WHA projectile and the RHA target when the oblique angle is 10° and the impact velocity is 1000m/s

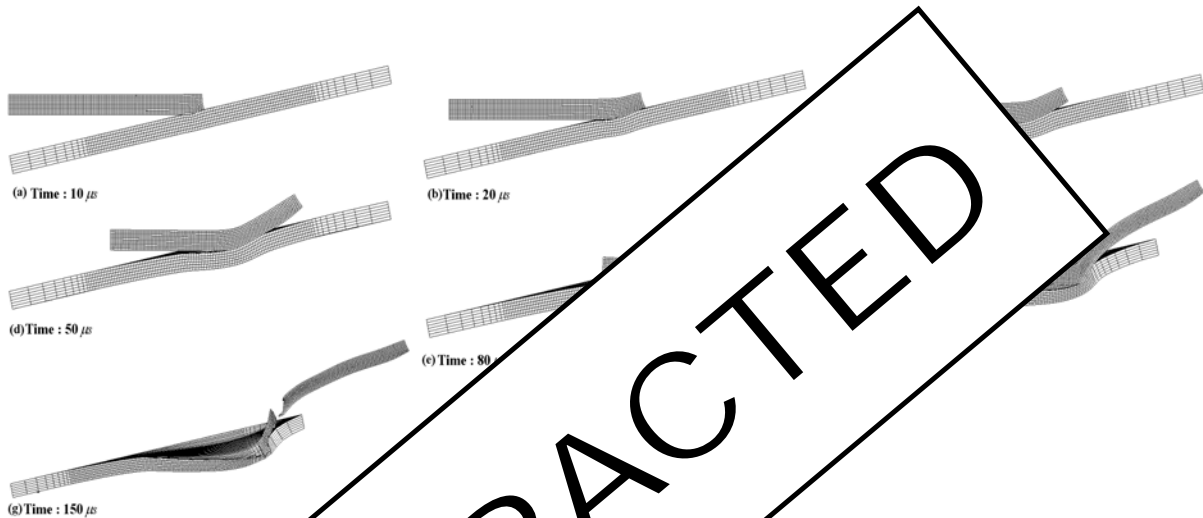


Fig. 8 Numerical results showing the behavior of the WHA projectile and the RHA target when the oblique angle is 12° and the impact velocity is 1000m/s

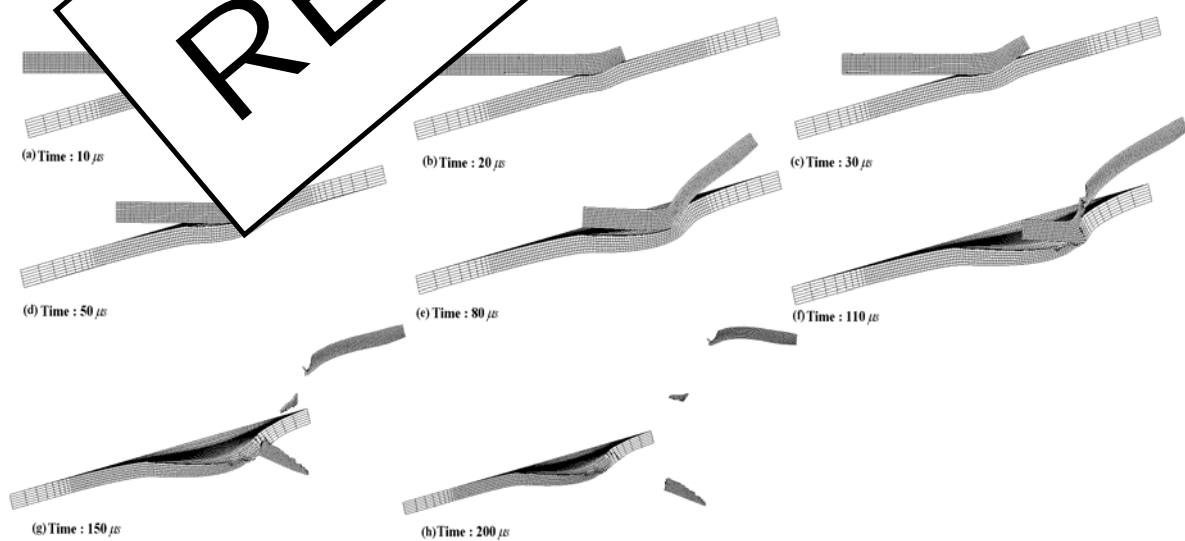


Fig. 9 Numerical results showing the behavior of the WHA projectile and the RHA target when the oblique angle is 14° and the impact velocity is 1000m/s

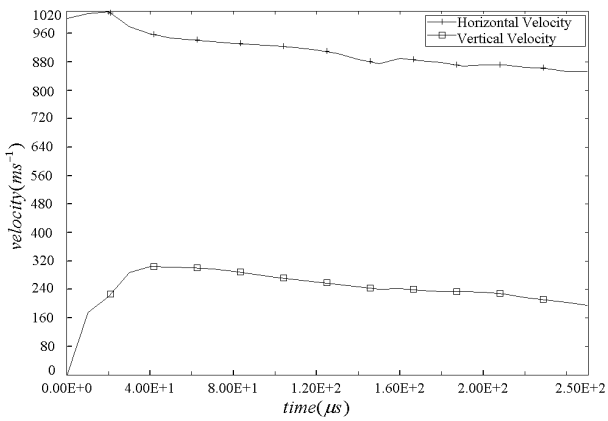


Fig. 10 Projectile head horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 10^\circ$)

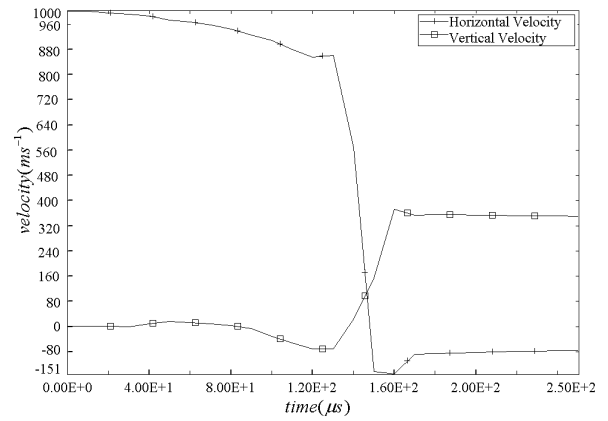


Fig. 13 Projectile tail horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 12^\circ$)

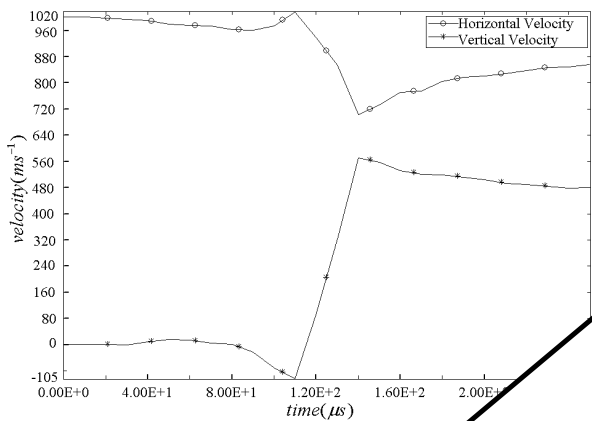


Fig. 11 Projectile tail horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 10^\circ$)

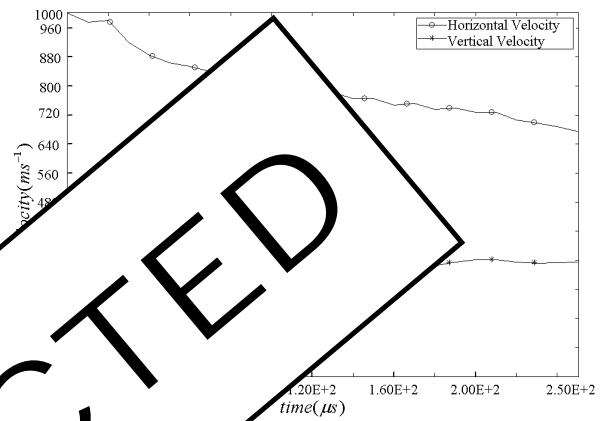


Fig. 15 Projectile tail horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 14^\circ$)

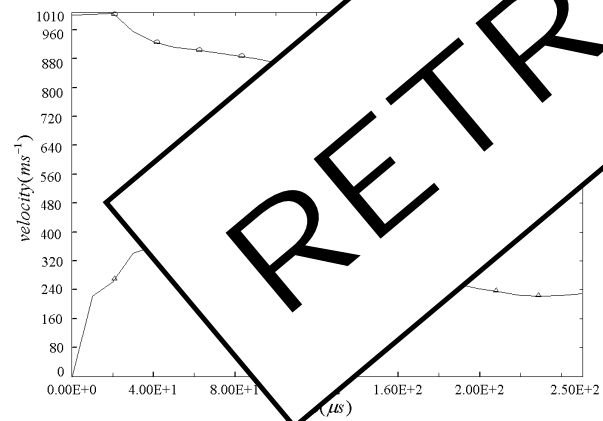


Fig. 12 Projectile head horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 12^\circ$)

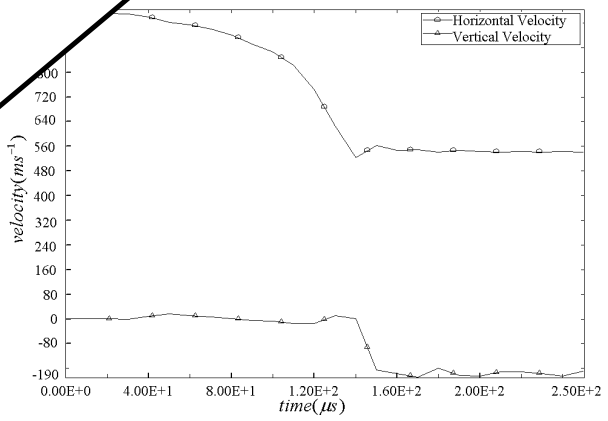


Fig. 15 Projectile tail horizontal and vertical velocity ($\theta = 14^\circ$)

the head and the tail of the projectile after impact are kept almost identical, implying no significant axial strain, which prevents the projectile segmentation. It can also be seen that the horizontal velocities did not decrease noticeably. From this, it is inferred that the projectile does not encounter any significant resistance to its motion along the flight trajectory and that the impact interaction of the projectile with the target does not cause any large-scale deformation of the target.

Whilst there were only slight changes in the horizontal velocities, vertical velocities of the head and the tail undergo noticeable changes during the impact process. As can be seen in Fig. 10, the vertical velocity of the head initially increases to about 300ms^{-1} and remains almost the same thereafter, which would be associated with sliding on the target surface and subsequent takeoff of the head shown in Figs. 7(a) ~ 7(h). On the other hand, the vertical velocity of the tail is almost 0 until

about $80\mu\text{s}$ and then increases to about 550ms^{-1} at $140\mu\text{s}$. This indicates that the impact of the head on the target does not cause any yawing force in the rear part of the projectile which is beyond the plastic hinge mentioned above. Near-constant vertical tail velocity of 460ms^{-1} after about $160\mu\text{s}$ would indicate the takeoff of the tail as shown in Figs. 7(f) and 7(h).

However, where critical ricochet was achieved ($\theta = 12^\circ$ for the case considered herein), as shown in Fig. 12, the decrease in the horizontal velocity of the head with respect to time is more pronounced than in the previous case, indicating that the progress of the head is hindered more. In particular, as shown in Fig. 13, the horizontal velocity of the tail decreases to almost 0 from about $140\mu\text{s}$, producing a velocity difference between the head and the tail of about 750ms^{-1} . Such a large velocity difference may cause large-scale deformation and therefore it would explain the stretching of the projectile shown in Fig. 8(g) followed by the segmentation of the projectile shown in Fig. 8(h). At the same time, a sudden drop in the horizontal velocity of the tail between 100 and $150\mu\text{s}$ is believed to be related to the target cratering shown in Figs. 8(f) and 8(g), which could exert a high resistance to the advance of the tail. When critical ricochet is achieved, even though the impact crater is formed on the target, this does not lead to target perforation. This can be explained from the changes in the vertical velocities of the head and the tail shown in Figs. 12 and 13, where it can be seen that the head and the tail sequentially acquire positive vertical velocity components. They begin to take off the target plate at about 0 and $150\mu\text{s}$, resulting in no further penetration of the target.

A similar trend is obtained when the impact angle is further increased, e.g. 14° and 15° whilst two angles are shown in Figs. 14 and 15 whilst two angles are shown in Figs. 14 and 15. First, the horizontal velocity of the head increases to about 550ms^{-1} and then remains nearly constant thereafter.

tion is no longer hindered by the target thereafter, probably due to the earlier segmentation of the projectile. In the previous case shown in Fig. 12, the head portion was connected to the tail portion through the elongated portion until the later time step so that the tail, still staying in the impact crater in the target, delayed the propagation of the head, which is represented as continuously decreasing velocity. Second, the behavior of the tail after segmentation is completely different: the vertical velocity of the tail decreases to a negative value of about -180ms^{-1} from about 150ms^{-1} , which is then maintained almost constant after about $180\mu\text{s}$. This indicates that the fragmented tail is heading downward, which would be responsible for the perforation of the target shown in Fig. 9(h).

The ricochet behavior illustrated in Figs. 7(a) to 9(h) are also supported by the experimentation carried out herein. Figure 16 shows the shape of the target plate and the witness block after the ricochet experiments. In this figure, the shape of the plate is apparent with an elliptical perforation hole. Occurrence of target perforation is observed by observing deformed target plate and witness block. When a projectile strikes the target plate at oblique angles, the target plate is deformed and a long groove is formed by erosion, and a crater is formed on the witness block. At impact angles higher than the critical value, the projectile broke into two parts, resulting in two distinct phenomena in the target plate and witness block shown in Figs. 16(b) and 16(d): there is a deep groove (crater) followed by a single penetration hole in the target resulting from initial erosion and a single penetration hole in the witness block. At lower angles, subsequent penetration whilst two penetration holes are noticeable in the witness block, one over and one below the white line in Figs. 16(b) and 16(d) where the edge of the target was located.

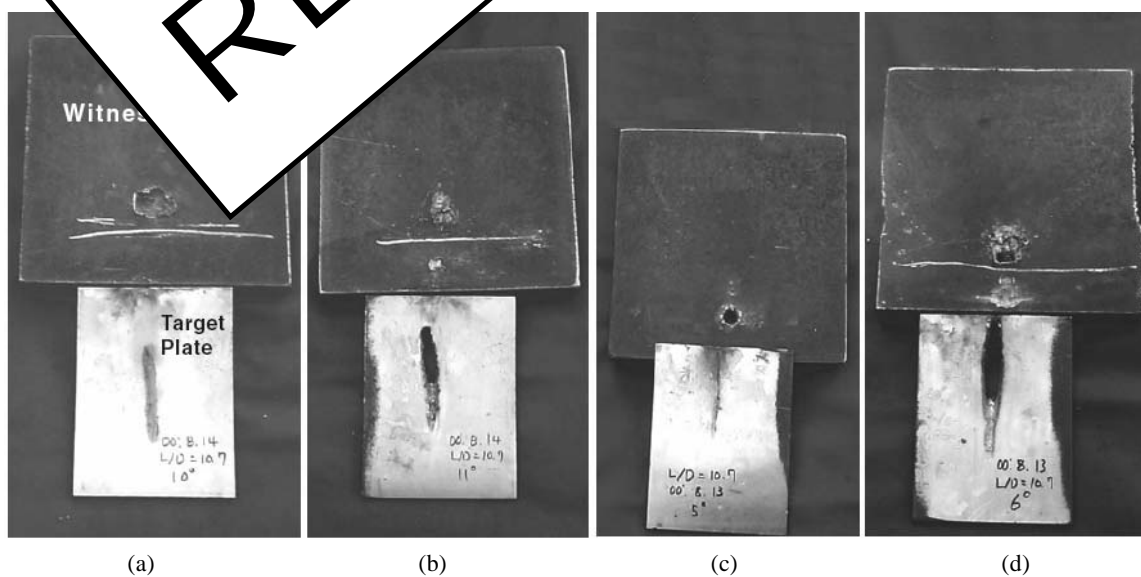


Fig. 16 Photographs showing the results from ricochet experiment [16]

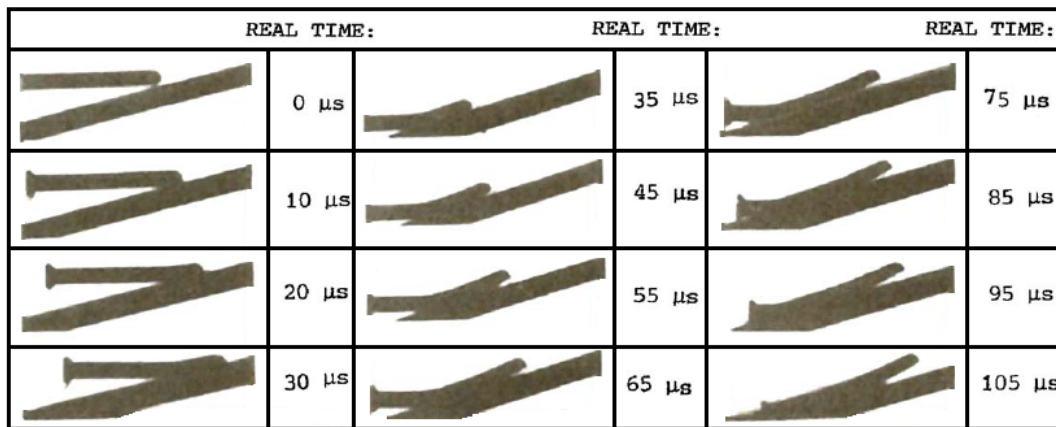


Fig. 17 Spark cinematography of a ricocheting rod projectile [4]

The post-impact behavior of the deformable projectile and the deformable target with finite thickness described so far in general agrees qualitatively with what has been observed and predicted in the previous works in which ricochet occurred at un-deformable (and sometimes rigid) target surfaces. However, as apparent in Figs. 7(a) to 9(h), the inward deformation of the target plate due to the finite thickness comparable to the projectile diameter is shown to assist the segmentation of the projectile, followed by the perforation of the target plate by the broken rear part of the projectile. Such phenomena could be responsible for the difficulty in obtaining ricochet from relatively thin plates.

Senf *et al.* [4] showed how the ricochet angle can form a plastic hinge at the impact site and differ from a rigid target surface. These results (Fig. 17) are similar the FEM solution (Fig. 18) shown in Figs. 7(a) to 9(h). But in FEM solution, the rigid and it deflected more.

5.2 Critical Ricochet

In accordance with the critical ricochet angles, the numerical results graphs are shown in last section and were plotted for various impact velocities in Fig. 18 for the RHA target. The critical ricochet angle curves shown in Fig. 18 were obtained from curve-fitting the numerical results with a first-order exponential decay function. The fitted equations, their parameter values, and the statistical analysis of the fitted results are also reported in the figure. The numerical results are confirmed with experimental results as shown in Fig. 18. In Fig. 18, the hollow circle markers indicate perforation of the RHA target plate by the long-rod projectile whilst the solid star markers indicate critical ricochet of the projectile. It can be seen that there is good agreement between the two.

The new developed model results on the critical ricochet angles are also compared with experimental, numerical results and existing two-dimensional analytical models developed by Tate [3] and Rosenberg *et al.* [8], independently. The critical ricochet angles based on

these models have been calculated for a WHA long-rod projectile and a RHA target as functions of impact velocities in Fig. 19. As shown in the figure that the numerical results are in good agreement with the Tate model. The critical ricochet angle for impact velocity is 1000 m/s and vice versa for lower impact velocity. The Tate curve is different from the experimental results. The difference in the critical ricochet angle is 10%. On the other hand, Rosenberg *et al.* shows a better agreement with the experimental results, though the former model predicts critical ricochet angles at all impact

velocities. The numerical results show a better agreement with the experimental results. As shown Fig. 19, the difference between the numerical analytical model prediction result and the experimental model result decrease up to 25%. The retraction of the projectile in this model, shifts to the experimental results, because:

1. This method was more detailed parameters to calculate the penetration velocity such as projectile density in comparing with Rosenberg analytical method.

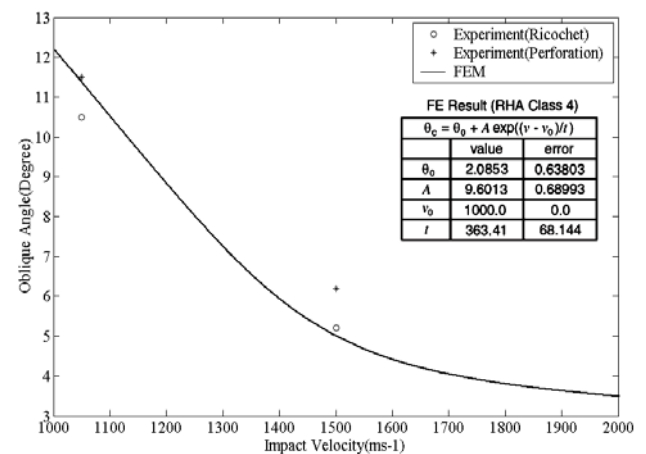


Fig. 18 Comparison of the numerically predicted critical ricochet angles for various velocities with the experimental results

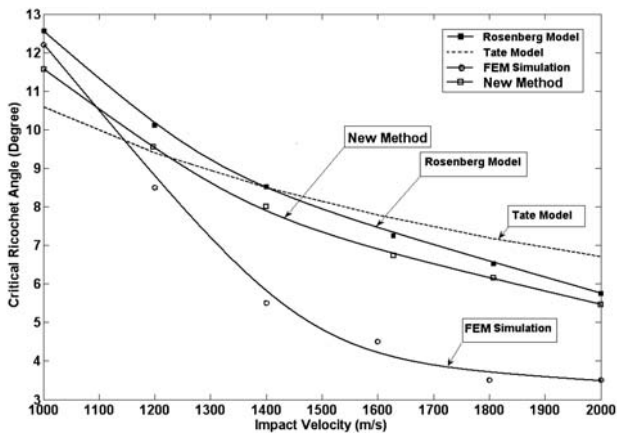


Fig. 19 Comparison of the numerically determined critical ricochet angles for various velocities with those predicted from two dimensional analytic models of Tate [6] and Rosenberg *et al.* [7] and new method

2. This method uses parameter α in calculating the critical ricochet angle, where α is based on the experimented results. Therefore the results might be more accurate.

Therefore new analytical model can be used as a practically useful guideline to estimate ricochet angles rather than existing two-dimensional analytical models developed by Tate [3] and Rosenberg *et al.* [8].

About effects of the target strength we have

Whilst the RHA has been widely used as armor material over decades, in some cases armor material such as high hardness and high strength have been adopted, though its use is limited by its low toughness. To investigate the effect of target strength on the ricochet angle, the critical ricochet angle in the Johnson-Cook model was plotted as a function of impact velocity. It can be seen that a high target strength leads to a higher critical impact velocity if the oblique angle is increased.

5.3 Summary and Conclusions

Ricochet of a WHA long-rod projectile impacting on oblique, steel target plates with finite thickness was investigated numerically using a full, three-dimensional, explicit finite element method with the predictions of our analytical model. Effects of the impact velocities of the projectiles and the hardness of the plates on the critical ricochet angle were considered.

It was predicted in the numerical analysis that the projectile and the target behave in three different ways depending on the oblique angle of the target. For a relatively low oblique angle, the impacted projectile bent and slid on the target surface to bounce away with very little velocity drop whilst no significant deformation of

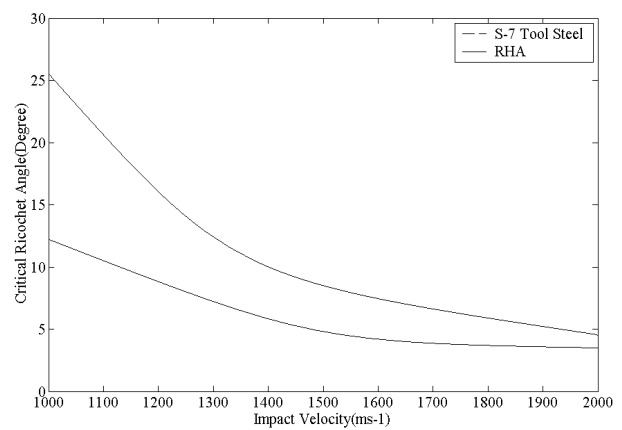


Fig. 20 Effect of target strength on the critical ricochet angles

the target was predicted. With increasing oblique angle, the projectile initially deformed substantially on impact but the target deformed substantially behind the plate. The tail portion of the target stretching behind the plate resulted in the projectile stretching behind the tail, which pulled the tail out of the target. Segments of the target were pulled out. When the projectile impact occurred, the target played the role of a rigid body through the target. Such behavior of the projectile case the projectile broke. Such behavior of the projectile is predicted in this numerical analysis. The results are in good agreement with experimental observations of the target plates and the penetration of the projectile through the target. The post-impact behavior of the projectile and the target with finite thickness blocks. The post-impact behavior of the projectile and the target with finite thickness blocks in this work in general agreed qualitatively with previous work based on un-deformable (and rigid) target surfaces. However, the deformable target assisted the breakage of the projectile followed by the perforation of the plate by the broken rear part of the projectile.

Critical ricochet angles were also derived from the numerical analysis and new model and from existing two-dimensional analytical models developed by Tate [3] and Rosenberg *et al.* [8]. As the other need many simulations in each velocity to obtain the critical ricochet angles, and also any change in geometry can lead to a new simulation, then this process is time-consuming subsequently, presenting a new analytical formulation might be of great importance to find the critical ricochet angle.

In order to calculate the critical ricochet angle it has been only two analytical model (Tate and Rosenberg models). As these two models usually overestimate the results comparing with test experimental setup; however, the others compare their results with these two analytical methods. As the presented method predicts the results more accurately and the errors are reduced into 25%. Then it can be a new analytical model to reach the better agreements. Therefore new analytical model can be used as a useful method to predict critical ricochet angle in metal cases.

When the target hardness was considered the numerical results predicted that a higher ricochet angle can be obtained by employing harder target materials for a given impact velocity, which was appreciable at lower velocities in particular.

NOMENCLATURE

- β Critical ricochet angle
 ρ_T Target's density
 ρ_P Projectile's density
 V Striking velocity of the rod
 L Projectile length
 D Projectile diameter
 U, u Projectile penetration velocity
 Y_P Projectile resistance
 R_T Target resistance
 S Length of the eroding tip of the projectile
 ψ Rotations of the projectile eroding surface relative to the un-deformed projectile edge
 x Projection of S in vertical direction ($S \cdot \cos \psi$)
 t Time
 f The force acts on the projectile
 m, m_1, m_2 Residual mass off the projectile, Projectile tip mass, Projectile eroded mass
 V_T Vertical velocity
 \dot{i} Projectile erosion rate
 v Tail velocity (Instantaneous velocity of deformed portion of the projectile)
 α Coefficient ($\alpha = -\frac{\dot{i}}{v}$)
 λ Coefficient ($\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_r}{\rho}}$)
 γ Coefficient ($\gamma = \frac{v}{V}$)
 Y_T target yield strength
 σ, σ_0 Static yield strength
 $\epsilon_p, \epsilon, \epsilon_0$ Plastic strain, strain rate, reference strain rate
 B, C, n, m Material constants in Cook relation
 T, T_r, T_m Temperature, reference temperature, melting temperature

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