

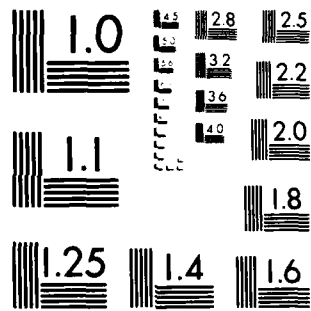
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AIRBLAST SIMULATIONS USING FLUX-CORRECTED TRANSPORT 1/1
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19 ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number) <p>Flow fields resulting from the passage of a blast wave through a mixture of high-explosive detonation products and air can be significantly altered as compared to a single-phase medium. The description of the two-phase flow has been numerically simulated in one (1-D) and two-dimensional (2-D) calculations using multi-dimensional flux-corrected transport (FCT) techniques. Calculated and experimentally determined flow field have been compared.</p> <p>FCT is a finite difference technique for solving fluid equations in problems where sharp discontinuities arise. Shocks, slip surfaces, and contact surfaces are accurately modeled through the application of diffusion and antidiffusion at each timestep. This diffusion is just large enough to prevent dispersive ripples and guarantees that all physically positive conserved quantities remain positive. Simulation of two-phase flow is a natural outgrowth of the FCT technique. Each species is treated as a separate fluid with the pressure terms in the energy and momentum equations providing the coupling. Moreover, the</p> (Continues)				
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Airblast Simulations Using Flux-Corrected Transport Codes

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19. ABSTRACT (Continued)

timestep-split feature of the most recent version of FCT allows extension from 1-D to 2-D simulation. Results are compared with shock tube and field test data.

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AIRBLAST SIMULATIONS USING FLUX-CORRECTED TRANSPORT CODES

INTRODUCTION

The method of Flux-Corrected Transport (FCT) was developed about ten years ago (Boris and Book, 1973; Book, et al, 1975; Boris and Book, 1976) as a means for solving systems of hyperbolic equations in such a way that physically positive quantities remain positive. Its principal application has been to compressible fluids, i.e., fluids in which some of the flow speeds are comparable with or greater than the local speed of propagation of waves in the medium. Examples include plasmas, combusting systems, and gas-dynamic flows.

Subsequently the method has been extended and generalized in a number of important respects. These include the construction of general-purpose algorithms for solving fluid equations on moving nonuniform grids in a curvilinear coordinate system (Boris 1976), strictly multidimensional FCT algorithms (Zalesak 1979) (as opposed to timestep-splitting of one-dimensional algorithms), and variants on these. In addition, numerous techniques have been developed by other workers which incorporate the positivity-preserving property in other ways (Harten, 1978; Van Leer 1979; Collela, 1983). The weight of opinion among computational scientists who deal with problems of compressible flow now strongly affirms the superiority of positivity-preserving methods over conventional ones. In a few words, advantages are improved robustness, flexibility, resolution, and freedom from nonphysical numerical artifacts.

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In this paper we describe some applications of FCT to airblast problems, i.e., to calculations of the blast wave and fireball produced by an explosion in the atmosphere near the ground. As this is one of the applications for which FCT was originally devised, it is not surprising that the method yields satisfactory results in a wide range of cases with very little need for computational development. Nevertheless, some of the refinements we have employed in this connection are of interest both in their own right and for other users who may need to carry out similar calculations.

In most of the airblast calculations we have carried out, four distinct stages are discernible: (i) initialization, usually employing a Chapman-Jouguet model (Kuhl et al, 1981) to describe conditions at the time the detonation wave reaches the periphery of the explosive charge; (ii) free-field (one-dimensional) evolution, before the shock reaches the ground; (iii) subsequent two-dimensional evolution using axisymmetric (r-z) geometry; and (iv) postprocessing of the resulting solution to analyze and display the results.

The advances described in this paper relate to all but the first of these states. They may be cataloged as follows: refinements in the free-field solution; development of a regridding algorithm for the early-time (high-overpressure) two-dimensional solution; improvements in boundary conditions in the two-dimensional stage; and exploitation of tracer particles as a diagnostic, particularly in the late stages of fireball evolution, after shock breakaway. In the body of the paper one section is devoted to each of these topics.

REFINEMENTS IN THE FREE-FIELD SOLUTION

Figure 1 shows one-dimensional (spherical) profiles calculated using a form of the general-purpose FCT algorithm ETBFCT (Boris (1976)). Although these profiles are accurate and physically correct on the average, they exhibit numerous flat shelves and accompanying sharp drops, especially in the region of the rarefaction wave. This phenomenon is known as "terracing." In this instance we attribute its presence to the nonlinear action of the flux limiter stage of FCT on dispersive errors from the transport stage.

To explain what this means, let us describe a class of FCT algorithms which includes ETBFCT as a particular case. To advance the one-dimensional continuity equation

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\rho v) \quad (1)$$

one time step on a uniform mesh with a given flow velocity v , we suppose the old cell-centered values ρ_j^0 and v_j are known. A general three-point conservative finite-difference operator acting on ρ_j^0 can be written in the form

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_j^T &= \rho_j^0 - \epsilon_{j+1/2} \rho_{j+1/2} + \epsilon_{j-1/2} \rho_{j-1/2} \\ &+ \gamma_{j+1/2} (\rho_{j+1}^0 - \rho_j^0) - \gamma_{j-1/2} (\rho_j^0 - \rho_{j-1}^0), \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $\rho_{j+1/2} = \frac{1}{2} (\rho_j + \rho_{j+1})$. To obtain a first-order approximation to Eq. (1), we must define $\epsilon_{j+1/2}$ to be the Courant number $v_{j+1/2} \delta t / \delta x$, where $v_{j+1/2} = \frac{1}{2} (v_j + v_{j+1})$; likewise, for a conventional scheme with second-order (spatial) accuracy, we must let $\gamma_{j+1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{j+1/2}^2$. In FCT, however, a numerical diffusion is applied to ρ_j^T according to

$$\rho_i^{TD} = \rho_i^T + v_{i+1/2}(\rho_{j+1}^0 - \rho_j^0) - v_{j-1/2}(\rho_j^0 - \rho_{j-1}^0) . \quad (3)$$

Evidently the γ 's and the v 's combine in the same way in ρ_j^{TD} , so we leave

both unspecified for the moment.

If we now applied another diffusion operation, this time with the opposite sign, it would just tend to cancel the diffusion terms already present in ρ_j^{TD} . Instead we write for the new densities ρ_j^n

$$\rho_j^n = \rho_j^{TD} - \phi_{j+1/2}^c + \phi_{j-1/2}^c, \quad (4)$$

where the "corrected" fluxes $\phi_{j+1/2}^c$ differ from the "raw" fluxes $\phi_{j+1/2} = v_{j+1/2}(\rho_{j+1}^0 - \rho_j^0)$ in two ways: we use $\{\rho_j^T\}$ instead of $\{\rho_j^0\}$ in the definition of the raw fluxes (this allows us to define γ so as to optimize some property in the difference scheme, as will be seen shortly); and we correct the fluxes, so that the antidiffusion process (which evidently tends to make all gradients steeper) can enhance no extrema already present in $\{\rho_j^{TD}\}$, nor introduce any new ones. The simplest formula for achieving this in all possible situations is that used in "strong flux limiting:"

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^c = S \cdot \{\max[0, \min(|\phi_{j+1/2}|, \Delta_{j-1/2}, \Delta_{j+3/2})]\}, \quad (5)$$

where $S = \text{sign } \phi_{j+1/2}$ and $\Delta_{j+1/2} = \rho_{j+1}^{TD} - \rho_j^{TD}$.

At most points in a gently varying profile no correction is required and $\phi_{j+1/2}^c = \phi_{j+1/2}$. In that case we can perform a Von Neumann analysis,

calculating the complex propagator or amplification factor $A = A_r + iA_i = \rho_j^n / \rho_j^0$ for a sinusoidal density profile $\rho_j^0 = \exp(ijk \delta x)$, where k is the wave number. Writing $\beta = k \delta x$ and $\epsilon = v \delta t / \delta x$, we expand in powers of β the amplification

$$|A| = 1 + A_2 \beta^2 + A_4 \beta^4 + \dots \quad (6)$$

and the relative phase error

$$R = \frac{1}{\beta \epsilon} \tan^{-1} (A_i / A_r) - 1 = R_2 \beta^2 + R_4 \beta^4 + \dots \quad (7)$$

It is easy to show that the condition that A_2 vanish is

$$\gamma + \nu - \mu = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 . \quad (8)$$

The condition that R_2 vanish is

$$\mu = \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{6} \epsilon^2 . \quad (9)$$

There remains one free parameter which can be chosen so as to build some desirable property into the algorithm (this is the reason for introducing γ). The choice $\gamma = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2$ confers no particular benefit. Letting $\gamma = 0$ as in ETBFCT (Boris, 1976) reduces the operation count and yields a useful general-purpose algorithm, which is, however, subject to the terracing problems mentioned previously. There are two other obvious candidates: $\gamma = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon^2$, which implies $A_4 = 0$, and $\gamma = \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{5} \epsilon^2$, which implies $R_4 = 0$.

Figure 2 shows this for a test involving passive advection with a uniform velocity. A test profile, initially consisting (Fig. 2a) of a half ellipse, connected by two quarter ellipses to a straight line of zero slope, is advected with a Courant number $\epsilon = 0.2$. The results obtained using the general-purpose algorithm (Fig. 2b) and the new multicoefficient version (Fig. 2c) are shown for comparison. It is clear that the latter represents a distinct improvement, a conclusion that continues to hold for other test profiles.

The results of a different test are shown in Fig. 3. In Fig. 3a, the profile obtained from an analytic solution of the bursting diaphragm (Riemann) problem with 10-to-1 density ratio and 10^3 -to-1 pressure are plotted, while in Fig. 3b those calculated with the new FCT algorithm are shown for comparison. Here again the results agree fairly closely. The agreement is worst near the contact surface, which, unlike the shock, has no physical self-steepening mechanism.

In chemical explosions a characteristic feature is the contact surface between the detonation products and the air compressed ahead of the blast (Fig. 4). In the absence of diffusion (usually a good approximation in an actual explosion, if not numerically), the contact surface remains sharp, and the two media differ in density across this discontinuity by $\sim 30\%$.

In an airblast, a layer of air is compressed beneath the burst, so that the detonation products never reach the ground. The shock wave propagates down to the ground, reflects upward, and propagates back through the layer of compressed air. When it encounters the contact surface, it is partly transmitted and partly reflected downward again. This process can repeat

several times. At finite ground range the shocks reflect obliquely and soon propagate away from the fireball, but directly beneath the burst the process is only terminated when the rising fireball recedes from the ground sufficiently far. (Experimentally and computationally the multiply reflected shocks usually become indistinguishable from noise after the second or third reflection.)

Therefore it is important computationally to model the contact surface accurately if these shock reverberations are to be described properly. If the contact surface in the simulation is diffuse, the shock reflected from it will be weak or undetectible. (If physical diffusion processes were present experimentally but absent in the simulation, however, the latter would predict excessively strong reflection.) The results shown in Fig. 4a, calculated using 200 zones, while close to the physically correct profiles, exhibit considerable diffusion at the contact surface. This is in contrast with the results shown in Fig. 4b, obtained using 400 zones, in which the contact surface is much more distinct. A consequence of improving the resolution is shown in Fig. 5, which depicts the pressure history that a sensor beneath the bursts shown in Fig. 4 would measure. The peaks are due to the initial shock and the shock re-reflected from the contact surface, respectively. Note that both maxima increase when the resolution improves, but the second peak rises more. Although in this case further enhancement of the diffusion makes little difference, it is clear that the second peak might in some cases be raised above the first. Thus a qualitative change in the solution can result from improving the resolution. This is of course also applied to the accuracy of the two-dimensional results calculated after the one-dimensional solution is laid down on 2D mesh.

REGRIDDING ALGORITHM FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL SOLUTION

To study the transition to Mach reflection extremely high resolution is required, as may be seen from the following discussion. The Mach stem at transition has vanishing length. If we are restricted to resolution of features several (say, a factor of three) times the mesh size $\delta x \sim \delta y$, then the ground range at which transition occurs will be overestimated by an amount δl equal to this length divided by the tangent of the opening angle χ , which is typically a small fraction of a radian, so the $\delta l \sim 30 \delta x$. Since core limitations restrict us to meshes with a total of no more than $10^4 - 10^5$ zones and since transition typically takes place at a ground range comparable with the height of burst (HOB), if we use a uniform mesh the error δl would be as much as ten or twenty percent of the HOB.

Fortunately, this is unnecessary. We can grid up near where transition takes place, using cells smaller by one or two orders of magnitude in each direction, with a proportionate reduction in δl . Since the mesh is rectilinear, this implies the presence of extremely elongated (non-square) zones on portions of the grid, with consequent errors in the solution. This creates no difficulties if the details of the flow there are unimportant and if those regions do not generate errors which propagate into the regions of chief interest.

However, a shock wave propagating from coarsely gridded region abruptly into a finely gridded one sheds sound waves as it steepens up, seriously degrading the solution at and behind the front (Boris and Book (1976)). Hence it is necessary to ensure that the shock at the front of the blast wave be allowed to propagate some distance through a finely gridded region prior

to reaching the point of reflection, that the transition be gradual, and most significantly, that this be true not just at transition but at all times up until then. The only way to avoid using an inordinate number of fine zones is to move the highly resolved region with the reflection point, starting at the instant the blast wave reaches the ground and continuing as long as the Mach reflection process is the interest (Fig. 6). This method exploits the "sliding rezone" (continuous regridding) capability of the ETBFCT algorithm.

Typically we start with a mesh $\sim 150 \times 150$ zones, having ~ 100 fine zones of dimension $\delta x = \delta y$ and ~ 50 coarse zones of dimension $\Delta x = \Delta y$ in each coordinate direction, with $\Delta x / \delta x = 10$. The fine zones are those closest to the axes. Let the cell boundaries be specified by $\{x_i\}$ and $\{y_j\}$. We introduce a smooth transition region by diffusing these interfaces repeatedly according to

$$x'_i = x_i + \eta(x_{i+1} - 2x_i + x_{i-1}) \quad (10)$$

$$y'_j = y_j + \eta(y_{j+1} - 2y_j + y_{j-1}), \quad (11)$$

where the diffusion coefficient η is of order 0.1. The diffusion process is repeated N times ($N \sim 30$) to generate a transition region N cells wide. The initial reflection necessarily occurs in the fine-zoned region.

As the reflection point moves outward, the grid is redefined each cycle. We search on density (or pressure) to find the smallest radial displacement such that conditions deviate from ambient by a significant amount (3%).

Using this as a center, we define new cell boundaries, smooth $\{x_j\}$ and $\{y_j\}$ as before, and deposit the transported fluid quantities into the cells of this new grid at the conclusion of the transport calculation. As the fine-zoned region marches outward, coarse cells disappear ahead of it and reappear at small radii (Fig. 6).

This method has proved successful on a number of HOB calculations. A certain amount of tuning is necessary to ensure that enough zones are present in both the highly resolved and transition regions, but there is no difficulty in tracking the reflection point, nor is any significant detail lost through diffusion.

BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

The conditions for reflection at a planar solid boundary in a perfectly inviscid flow are

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial v_t}{\partial n} = v_n = 0, \quad (12)$$

where $\frac{\partial}{\partial n}$ represents a normal derivative and the subscripts n and t label the normal and tangential components of velocity. These conditions are imposed at the interface between the last cell of the computational mesh and a guard cell juxtaposed to it. To ensure that the normal derivative of a quantity f vanish, it is sufficient to set the value in the guard cell equal to that in the last internal cell, i.e., $f_{N+1} = f_N$. To ensure that the quantity itself vanish, we simply set $f_{N+1} = -f_N$. (Special attention must be paid to the

equation describing the component of momentum normal to the boundary in order that no momentum be diffused through the interface.) Equation (12) applies to any symmetry plane or axis, and so to the axis of symmetry in the HOB problem at $r=0$. At large values of r and z (i.e., at the peripheral boundary -- the outside and top of the mesh), we impose the ambient conditions $\rho = \rho_a$, $p = P_a$, $v = 0$.

This is satisfactory until shocks propagate to the boundary. If we are interested in following the shocks further, it is necessary at this point to begin moving the grid outward (as described in the previous section), or to lay down the solution on a larger, coarser mesh. If we are interested in characteristic late-time phenomena such as vortex formation and fireball rise, however, shocks are irrelevant and it is appropriate to use simple outflow (or transmission) boundary conditions, namely

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial p}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} = 0 \quad (13)$$

Higher-order extrapolation schemes have been recommended in the literature (see e.g., Roache 1972), but have not been found particularly useful in connection with FCT, apparently because of the way they interact with FCT's tendency to clip off the tops of peaked profiles. At very late times a small but significant modification, suggested by Boris (personal communication, 1983) has been employed. This involves introducing a relaxation term at the peripheral boundary in the form

$$f_{N+1} = f_N + \alpha(f_a - f_N) \quad (14)$$

Here the relaxation coefficient satisfies $\alpha = c_a \delta t / L$, where c_a is the ambient speed of sound and L is a typical scale size (e.g., fireball cloud diameter) in the problem. Typically α is small, $\alpha \sim 10^{-2} - 10^{-3}$. Its effect is to cause the peripheral values of the fluid variables to relax toward their ambient values, simulating the influence of inflow from the surrounding atmosphere.

Also at very late times (typically tens of seconds), gravity must be included in the vertical momentum equation to describe the effect of buoyancy. The equation we solve has the form

$$\frac{\partial(\rho v)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{r \partial r} (r \rho u v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (\rho v^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (p - p_a) + (\rho - \rho_a)g = 0. \quad (15)$$

The ambient quantities, which are taken from tables, are the same as those used in the initial conditions. These represent a hydrostatic balance which truncation errors will not destabilize.

The energy equation also acquires an additional term due to gravity; this, however, plays only a minor role.

Figure 7 shows the late time evolution of a fireball calculated for a 600-ton burst of high explosive (HE) set off at a height of 50.6 m. Note the elongation of the cloud and the characteristic vortices which appear especially clearly in the HE density contours.

GRAPHICS DEVELOPMENTS

Approximately one quarter of our computational costs are accumulated in generating pictures showing the results of the calculation. These take the

form of pressure histories; plots of the surface pressure and density vs range; velocity vector (arrow) plots; contours of constant total and HE product mass density, total and internal energy density, pressure, and vorticity; instantaneous locations or trajectories of passively advected tracer particles; and movies of the time variation of these displays. Both the latter and the use of distinguishing colors are particularly revealing, although examples can not be presented here. In three-dimensional work we have carried out (Fry and Book 1983, unpublished), the problems of displaying results become significantly greater.

The approach we have taken is to perform the calculation in its entirety first, often with several restarts, producing only enough pictures to make sure everything is going well, and dumping out the results (essentially the two-dimensional ρ , u , v , and p arrays) at intervals onto magnetic tape. This means that if we require a posteriori a quantity which cannot be deduced from the data in the dump files (such as the total impulse on the ground sensors or the pressure history at a location where no sensor existed), the calculation has to be rerun. This is true also if the dump interval chosen is too long, but in many cases intermediate values can be obtained satisfactorily by interpolation. For example, a movie of some 700 frames was made using linear interpolation between twenty-seven dumps. (Cubic interpolation would have required generating a new data type containing only the arrays being processed, since the contents of four dumps cannot be fitted into core simultaneously.) The graphics calculations, like the hydrodynamics calculation themselves, were performed on a Texas Instruments ASC, a two-pipe vector machine with approximately half a million words of core. The plots were output on a Tektronix 4014 scope; the color movie was generated using a dicomed graphics system. This approach, in which we generated graphics by

postprocessing a limited number of dump files, is a compromise between generating all the graphics in the course of the calculation and saving the results from every timestep. (This would entail prohibitive disk or I/O requirements.) In general it has worked well particularly as we have learned from experience what quantities should be saved and how often they should be dumped.

In concluding, we remark that passive advection of tracer particles is among the most useful of the graphical display we have used, particularly in movies. Figure 8 shows tracer particle histories over two time intervals for the calculation described previously. Note that four distinct vortices are revealed in these pictures, two in the "forward" direction and two reversed. In previous work (both experimental and in simulations), only one of each had been detected. Moreover, we are not restricted to passive advection, which is appropriate to the motion of infinitesimal particles in the blast wind fields. We have also modeled finite-sized particles (dust and debris) by balancing inertial forces against gravity and the Stokes drag according to

$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = -mg + D(v - V), \quad (16)$$

where m and V are the particle mass and velocity, respectively, and D is the drag coefficient. By using (16) with a spectrum of particle masses $\{m_i\}$ and appropriate initial conditions obtained from an ejecta model, we can generate realistic maps showing how much material is entrained by the blast and where it is located at any given time. This is invaluable for comparison with observations of field tests, where the obscuring debris clouds are among the most conspicuous features.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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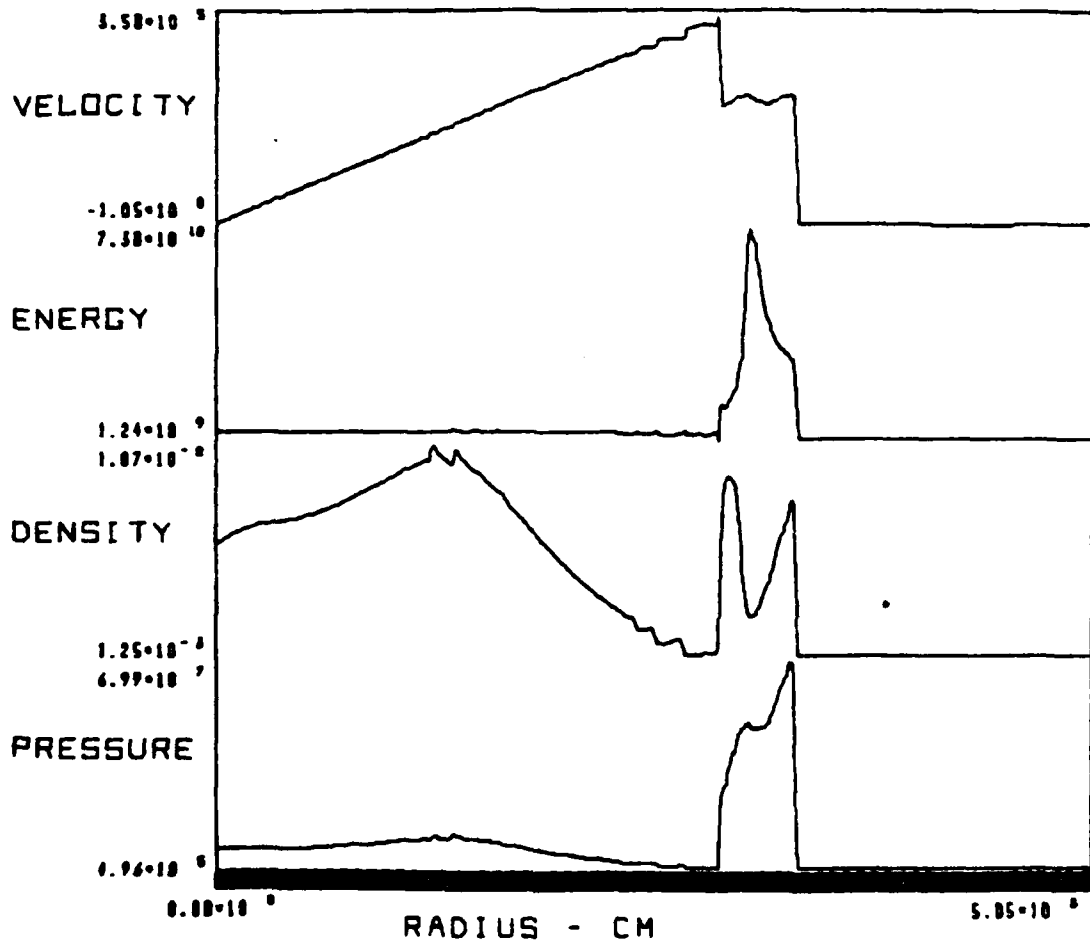
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SHOCK ONE DEE CODE

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TIME = $7.39 \cdot 10^{-3}$

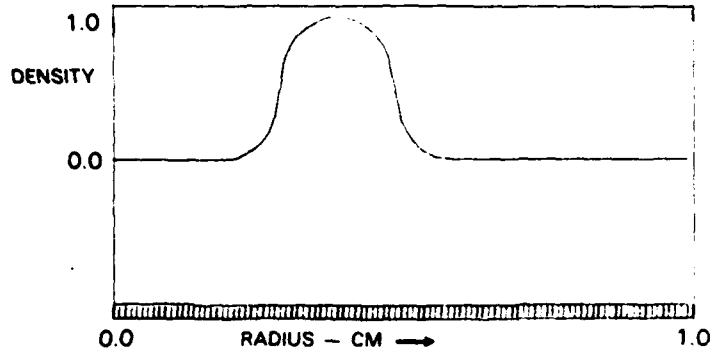
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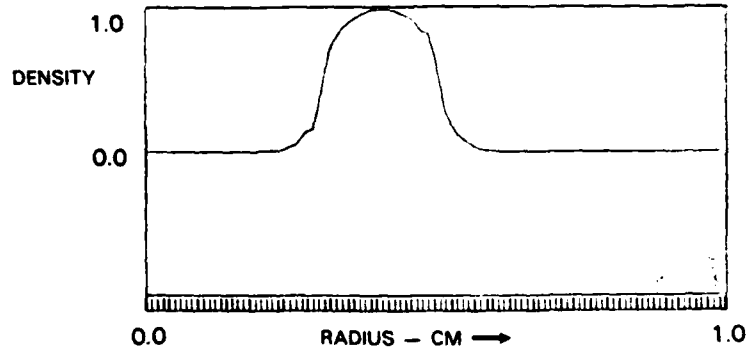
Figure 1

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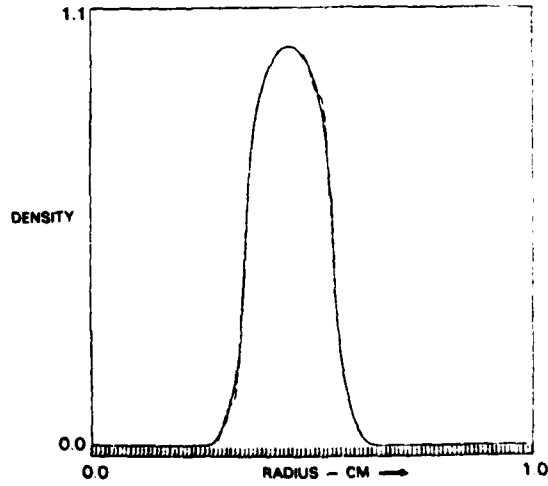
(a)

CYCLE = 14 TIME = $6.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$



(b)

CYCLE = 14 TIME = $2.17 \cdot 10^{-3}$



(c)

Figure 2

EXPLODING DIAPHRAGM
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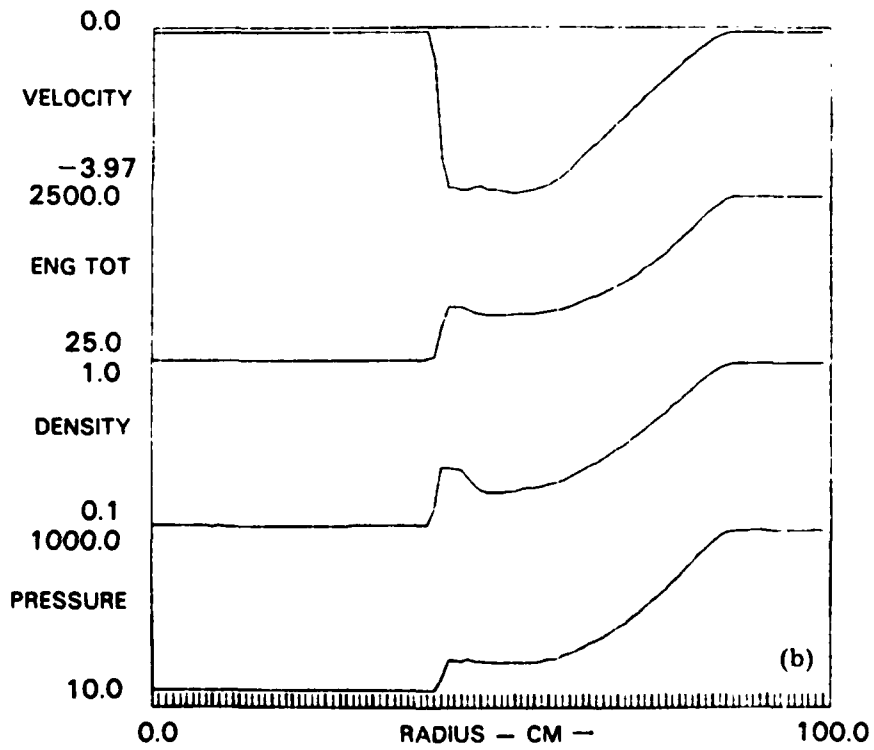
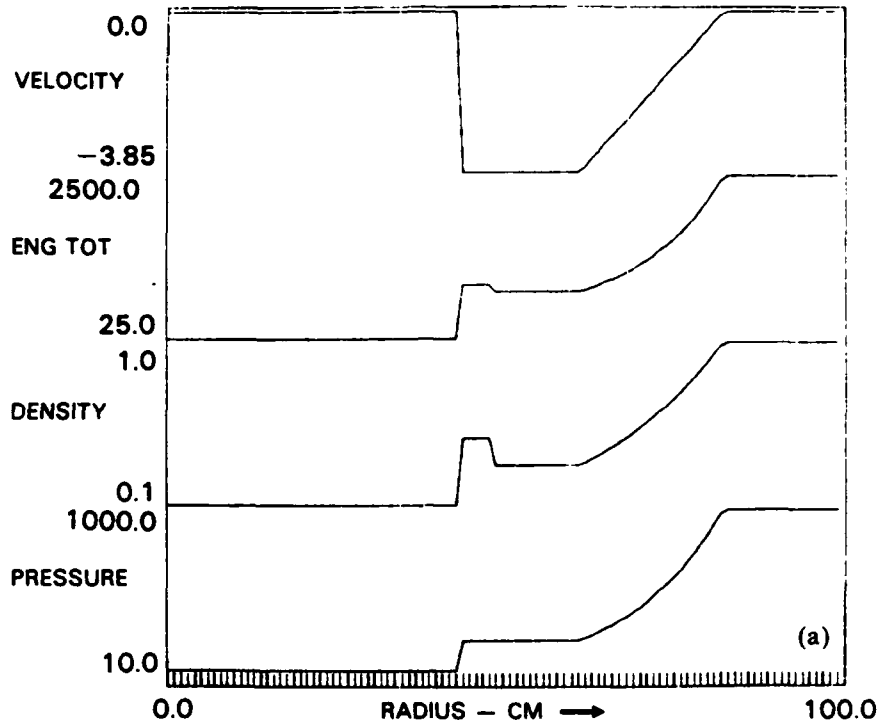


Figure 3

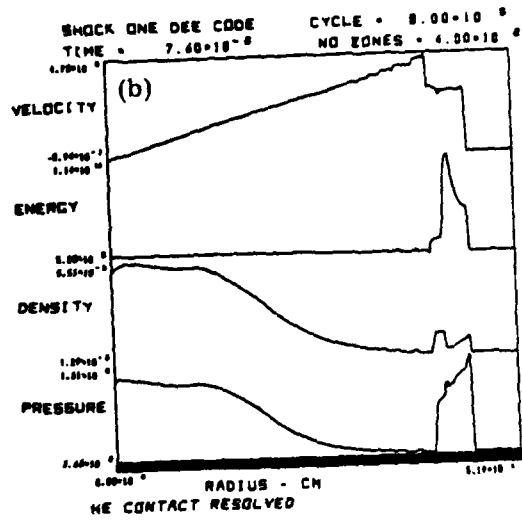
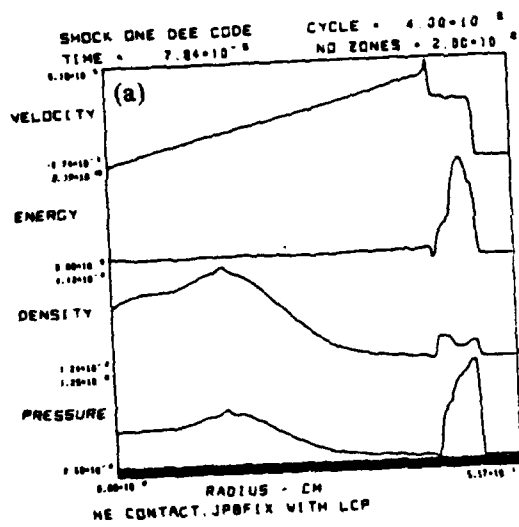


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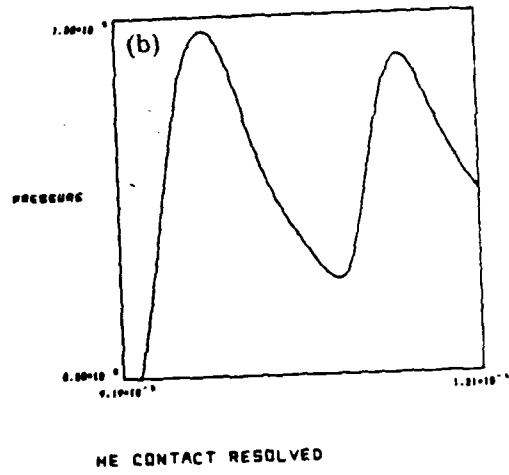
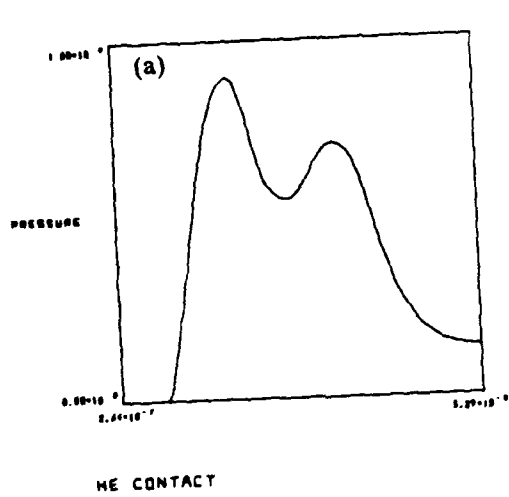
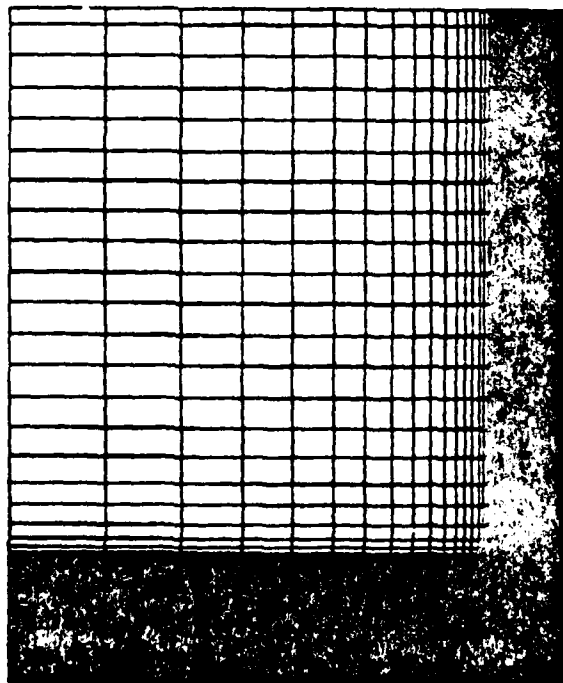


Figure 5

140 FINE ZONES

60 COARSE ZONES



**75
COARSE
ZONES**

**75
FINE
ZONES**

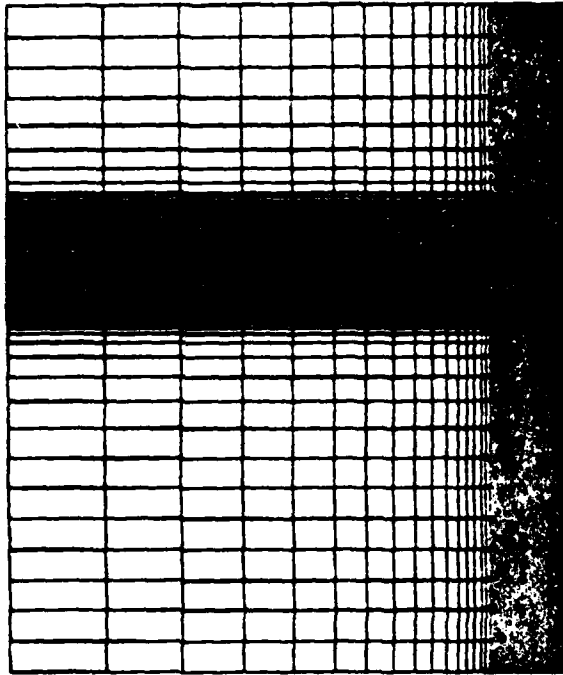


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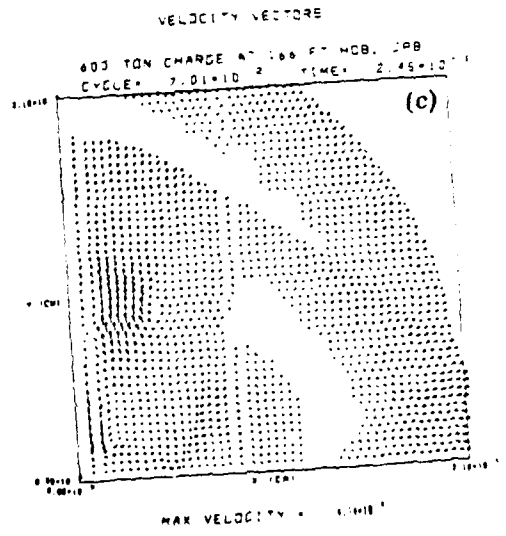
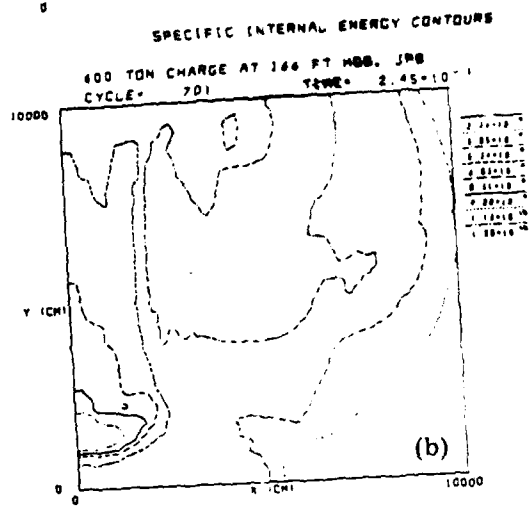
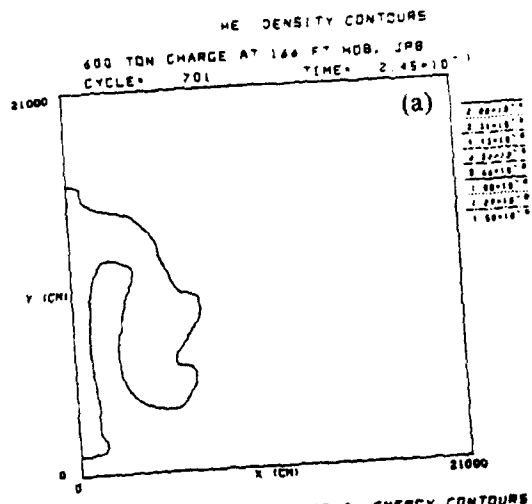
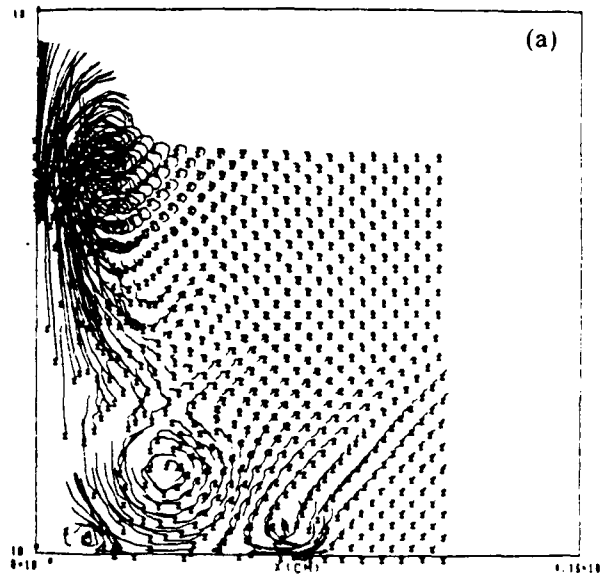


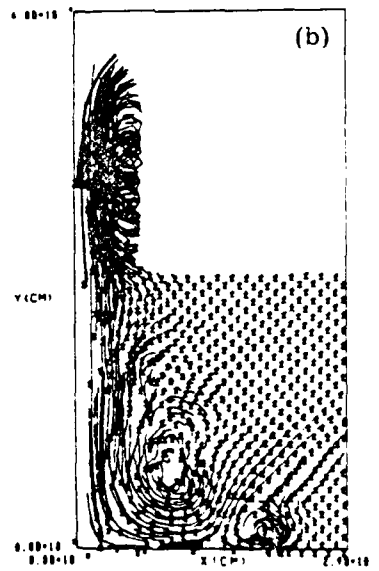
Figure 7

PARTICLE PATH PLOT
600 TON DIRECT COURSE



Time Interval
1.8 sec. - 3.97 sec.

PARTICLE PATH PLOT
600 TON DIRECT COURSE



Time Interval
3.97 sec. - 7.3 sec.

Figure 8

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O1CY Attn DRDAR-BLT, D. Menne
O1CY Attn W.J. Taylor
O1CY Attn C.W. Kitchens
O1CY Attn F. Oertel
O1CY Attn F. Oertel
O1CY Attn J. Santiago
O1CY Attn J.H. Keefer
O1CY Attn N. Ethridge
O1CY Attn W. Schuman

Director
USA Ballistic Research Laboratory
Aberdeen Proving Ground, Md. 21010
O1CY DRDAR-BLV, O.T. Johnson
O1CY R. Vital
O1CY D. Rigotti
O1CY D. Haskell

Assistant Secretary of the Navy
(R & D)
Department of the Navy
Washington, D.C. 20350

Chief, Naval Operations
Department of the Navy
Washington, D.C. 20350
O1CY Attn OP 985

Chief
Naval Material Office
Department of the Navy
Washington, D.C. 20350
O1CY Attn I. Jaffee

Commander
Experimental Engineer Division
Hanover, NH 03755
O1CY Attn A.F. Wuori USA, CRREL

Director
Nuclear Program Office
Naval Surface Weapons Center
White Oak, MD 20910
O1CY Attn R. Jenkins

Director
Defense Nuclear Agency
Washington, D. C. 20305
O1CY Attn Dr. E. Sevin

Director
Defense Nuclear Agency
Washington, D.C. 20305
O1CY Attn SPD Col M. Kovel
O1CY Attn SPTD T. Kennedy
O1CY Attn SPTD LTC Flory
O1CY Attn SPAS J.I. Slaughter

Commander, Test Command
Defense Nuclear Agency
Kirtland AFB, NM 87115
O1CY Attn FCT

Federal Emergency Mangement
Agency
Washington, D.C. 20472
O1CY Attn Dr. D.A. Bettge

Defense Intelligence Agency
Washington, D. C. 20301
O1CY Attn: DB4C2 (Carl Wiehle)

HODA
Washington, D.C. 20310
O1CY Attn DAMA/CSM/N LTC E. Driscoll

Dept. of the Navy
Theater Nuclear Warfare
Project Office (PM 23)
Washington, DC 20360
O1CY Attn CAPT D. Alderson

Commander
US Army Materiel Development and
Readiness Command
5001 Eisenhower Avenue
Alexandria, Va. 22333
O1CY Attn DRCMD B. Dunetz
O1CY Attn DRCLDC Dr. H. Gieske
O1CY Attn DRCDE-SSN, D. Bassett

Office of the Chief of Engineers
Research & Development Office
Pulaski Building
20 Massachusetts Ave, N.W.
Washington, D. C. 20314
O1CY Attn Dr. James Choromokos, Jr.

DOD Explosives Safety Board
Forrestal Bldg. 6A145
Washington, D. C. 20305
O1CY Attn T.A. Zaker

Director
Defense Advanced Research Project
Agency
1400 Wilson Blvd.
Arlington, Va. 22209

Commander
USA Health Services Command
Fort Sam Houston, Texas 78234

Commander
US Army Research Office
P.O. Box 12211
Research Triangle Park, NC 27709
O1CY Attn DRXRO-ZC

Commander
USA TRADOC
Fort Monroe, Va. 21651
O1CY Attn ATCD-Z

Commander
USA Corps of Engineers
Huntsville Division
P.O. Box 1600
Huntsville, Al 35807

Commander
US Army Nuclear and Chemical Agency
7500 Backlick Road, Bldg 2073
Springfield, Va 22150
O1CY Attn Col L.E. Minnich
O1CY Attn Maj J. Uecke

Office of the Chief of Engineers
20 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D. C 20314
O1CY Attn DAEN/MPE-T Mr. D.S. Reynolds
O1CY Attn DAEN/RDM Mr. J. Healy

Commander
USA Foreign Science and Tech. Center
220 7th Street, N.E.
Charlottesville, Va 22901
O1CY Attn DRXST-SD Charles Ward

Director
Ballistic Missile Defense Advanced
Technology Center
P.O. Box 1500
Huntsville, Al 35807
O1CY Attn M. Whitfield
O1CY Attn M. Capps (ATC-T)

Commander
USA Test & Evaluation Command
Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD 21005
O1CY Attn DRSTE-SE Mr. R. Galasso

Commander
USA Armament R&D
Dover, N.J. 07801
O1CY Attn DRDAR-LCW Dr. J. Frasier
O1CY Attn DRDAR-LCN P. Angelotti
O1CY Attn DRDAR-LCS-V M.A. Ravotto

Director
AMSAA
Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD 21005
O1CY Attn DRXSY-S, J. Brand

Commander
US Army Electronics Research and
Development Command
Fort Monmouth, N.J. 07703
O1CY Attn DRDEL-S Dr. W. McAfee

Commander
CECOM
Fort Monmouth, N.J. 07703
O1CY Attn DRSEL-COM-RM-1, A Freer

Project Manager
Pershing Project Office
Redstone Arsenal, AL 35809
O1CY Attn DRCPM-PE-EA W. Johnson

Commander
Naval Surface Weapons Center
White Oak, Md. 20910
O1CY Attn Code 241 M.M. Swisdak, Jr.
O1CY Attn Code 241 W.G. Filler

Director
US Army Construction Engineering
Research Laboratory
P.O. Box 4005
Champaign, Il. 61820
O1CY Attn Dr. W.E. Fisher
O1CY Attn Alvin Smith

Command
Naval Ship Research & Development
Center
Portsmouth, Va. 23709
O1CY Attn Underwater Explosion Research
Division Dr. E. Palmer
O1CY Attn R. Higginbotham

Commander
Naval Civil Engineering Laboratory
Port Hueneme, Ca 93043

Commander
Naval Weapons Evaluation Facility
Kirtland AFB, NM 87117
O1CY Attn WEM(R. Friedburg)

Commander
Naval Sea Systems
Command
Washington, D. C. 20350
O1CY Attn Code SEA 322, G. Sullivan

Director
Naval Surface Weapons Center
Dahlgren Laboratory
Dahlgren, Va. 22448
O1CY Attn J. Yagla

Commander
Naval Ship Research & Development
Center
Bethesda, Md. 20084
O1CT Attn Structures Dept, S. Wang

Naval Research Laboratory
Lab for Computational Physics
Washington, D. C. 20375
O1CY Attn David Book
O1CY Attn Mark Fry
O1CY Attn David Fyfe
O1CY Attn Pradeep Kamath

Commander
Naval Coastal System Center
Panama City, Fl 32407
O1CY Attn R.W. Buhl

HO US Air Force
Washington, D. C. 20330
O1CY Attn RDOI, Maj N. Alexandrow

Commander
Air Force Systems Command
Andrews AFB, MD 20331
O1CY Attn DLW, Maj. R. Padfield

Commander
Air Force Weapons Laboratory
Kirtland AFB, NM 87115
O1CY Dr. D. Payton (NT)
O1CY M.A. Plamondon (DES)

Commander
Air Force Weapons Laboratory
Kirtland AFB, NM 87115
O1CY Attn R. Guice (NTED)
O1CY Attn DY
O1CY Attn A. Sharp
O1CY Attn D. Renick

Commander
USAF Electronics Systems Division
Hanscom AFB, Ma 01731
O1CY Attn R. Karlson

Commander
Air Force Flight Dynamics Lab.
Wright-Patterson AFB, OH 45433
O1CY Attn E. Pugh

Sandia National Laboratory
P.O. Box 5800
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87115
01CY Attn M. Vigil (4522)
01CY Attn J. Reed (1111)
01CY Attn L. Vortman

Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory
P.O. Box 1663
Los Alamos, NM 87545
01CY Attn Dr. T. Dowler
01CY Attn Dr. J.R. Lilley

Lawrence Livermore Laboratory
P.O. Box 808
Livermore, Ca 94550
01CY Attn H. David Glenn (L-200)
01CY Attn P.S. Brown

Oak Ridge National Laboratories
P.O. Box X
Oak Ridge, TN 37830
01CY Attn Health Physics Division
C.K. Kearny

Aerospace Corporation
P.O. Box 92957
Los Angeles, Ca. 90009
01CY Attn H. Mirels

Agbabian Associates
250 N. Nash Street
El Segundo, Ca. 90245
01CY Attn F.B. Safford

BDM Corporation
1920 Aline Avenue
Vienna, Va. 22180
01CY Attn W. Sweeney

HO AFESC/RDCS
Tyndall AFB, Flor
01CY Attn Maj. Ha

USAF
Armament Laborato
Eglin AFB, Florid
01CY Attn P.T. Na

Commander
Air Force Cambrid
Laboratory
L.G. Hanscom Fiel
Bedford, MA 01730

Commander
US Air Force Ball
Corporation
Norton AFB, Ca. 9
01CY Attn MNNH Ma

Commander
USAF Aeronautical
Wright-Patterson
01CY Attn Materia

US Geological Sur
Geologic Division
2255 North Gemini
Flagstaff, AZ 860
01CY Attn Dr. Dav

Director for Mili
US Atomic Energy
Washington, D.C.

Sandia National L
P.O. Box 5800
Albuquerque, NM 8
01CY Attn A. Chab
01CY Attn W.R. Da
01CY Attn F. Math

IIT Research Institute
10 W 35th Street
Chicago, IL 60616
01CY Attn D. Anderson
01CY Attn Keith McKee

Jaycor
205 S. Whiting Street
Alexandria, VA 22304

Kaman Sciences Corp.
1911 Jefferson Davis Highway
Arlington, VA 22202
01CY Att Dr. D.C. Sachs

Kaman Sciences Corporation
1500 Garden of Gods Road
P.O. Box 7463
Colorado Springs, CO 80933
01CY Attn G.L. Roark

Kaman Tempo
7800 Marble Ave., NE
Albuquerque, NM 87110
01CY Attn Robert H. Miller

Kaman Tempo
715 Shamrock Rd.
BelAir, MD 21014
01CY Attn E.J. Bryant

Kaman Tempo
Huntington Bldg. Suit 506
2560 Huntington Ave
Alexandria, VA 22303
01CY Attn J. Petes

Boeing Aerospace Co.
P.O. Box 3999
Seattle, WA 98124
01CY Attn R.M. Schmidt (M/S 42-37)

Calspan Corp/ATC
P.O. Box 400
Buffalo, NY 14225
01CY Attn M.G. Dunn

Civil Systems Incorporated
P.O. Box 2083
Midland, TX 79702
01CY Attn Mr. Steve Melzer

Consolidated Developments, Inc.
515 Sherwood Drive
Marion, VA 24354
01CY Attn David E. Cary

Electro-Mechanical Systems of
Albuquerque
P.O. Box 11730
Albuquerque, NM 87192
01CY Attn Dr. Ray A. Shunk

H-TECH Laboratories, Inc.
P.O. Box 1686
Santa Monica, CA 90406
01CY Attn B.A. Hartenbaum

Information Science, Inc.
123 West Padre Street
Santa Barbara, CA 93105
01CY Attn Dr. Walter F. Dudziak

Dr. Marion Balcerzak
GATX
7449 Matchez Ave
Niles, ILL 60648

Mr. Burton S. Chambers
SEA, Inc.
P.O. Box 308
McLean, VA 22101

Burt H. Collins
Tech. Reps. Inc.
5000 Marble, NE, Suite 222
Albuquerque, NM 87110

Dr. Steve Gill
ARTEC Associates
26046 Eden Landing Road
Hayward, CA 94545

Dr. J.P. McLain
New Mexico Inst. of Mining & Technology
Socorro, NM 87801

J. Kelso
7124 Wolfree Lane
Rockville, MD 20852

Higgins, Auld & Associates, Inc.
2601 Wyoming Blvd. NE Suite H-1
Albuquerque, NM 87112
01CY Attn Dr. C.J. Higgins
01CY Attn J. Bratton

Dr. Donald R. Richmond
Lovelace Biomedical & Environmental
Research Institute
P.O. Box 5890
Albuquerque, NM 87115

SRI International
333 Ravenswood Avenue
Menlo Park, CA 94025
01CY Attn Mr. S.B. Martin
01CY Attn J.D. Colton

Southwest Research Institute
P.O. Box 28510
San Antonio, TX 78284
01CY Dr. W. Baker

Scientific Service, Inc.
517 E. Bayshore Road
Redwood City, CA 94063
01CY Attn Dr. B. Gabrielsen
01CY Attn C. Wilton

Systems, Science and Software
P.O. Box 8243
Albuquerque, NM 87198
01CY Attn C.E. Needham

Systems, Science and Software
P.O. Box 1620
La Jolla, CA 92038
01CY Attn T.H. Pierce
01CY Attn R.E. Duff

Temet USA, Inc.
P.O. Box 761
Vienna, VA 22180
01CY Attn Dale K. Henderson

TWR Electronics & Defense
1 Space Park
Redondo Beach, CA 90278
01CY Attn D.R. Ausherman
01CY Attn J.J. Schrader

Kendan Associates
801 E. Charleston Rd., #A
Palo Alto, CA 94303
01CY Attn Robert E. Dannenbert

Director
New Mexico Engineering
Research Institute
University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, NM 87131
01CY Attn G. Leigh
01CY Attn H.W. Wampler

Lockheed Missile and Space Co.
P.O. Box 504
Sunnyvale, CA 94088
01CY Attn M. C. Vivian

Physics Applications, Inc.
2340 Harris Way
San Jose, CA 95131
01CY Attn Coye Vincent

Los Alamos Technical Assoc, Inc.
P.O. Box 410
1650 Trinity Drive
Los Alamos, NM 87544
01CY Attn P. Hughes

Physics International
2700 Merced Street
San Leandro, CA 94577
01CY Attn F.M. Sayer
01CY Attn J.M. Thomsen

Management Science Assoc.
P.O. Box 239
Los Altos, CA 94022
01CY Attn K. Kaplan

Pacific-Sierra Research Corp.
1456 Cloverfield Blvd.
Santa Monica, CA 90404
01CY Attn H. Brode

Marco Scientific
1031-H East Duane Ave
Sunnyvale, CA 94086
01CY Attn J.H. Owren

Rand Corporation
1700 Main Street
Santa Monica, CA 90406
01CY Attn Dr. O. Nance

MITRE Corporation
P.O. Box 208
Bedford, Mass 01730
01CY Attn Mr. Edward M. Sullivan

San Diego State University
Dept. of Civil Engineering, SDSU
San Diego, CA 92182
01CY Attn Dr. R.J. Fragasgy

McDonnell Douglas Astronautics Co.
5301 Bolsa Ave.
Huntington Beach, CA 92647
01CY Attn Dr. P. Lewis

Martin Marietta Aerospace
P.O. Box 179
Denver, COLO 80201
01CY Attn Robert G. DeRaad

Martin Marietta Corporation
P.O. Box 5837
Orlando, FL 32855
01CY Attn G. Fotieo



