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Operation HARDTACK
April - October 1958

GROUND-SHOCK SPECTRA from SURFACE BURSTS (U)

Issuance Date: September 15, 1960

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SECRET
GROUND-SHOCK SPECTRA from SURFACE BURSTS (U)

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FOREWORD

This report presents the final results of one of the projects participating in the military-effect programs of Operation Hardtack. Overall information about this and the other military-effect projects can be obtained from ITR–1660, the "Summary Report of the Commander, Task Unit 3." This technical summary includes: (1) tables listing each detonation with its yield, type, environment, meteorological conditions, etc.; (2) maps showing shot locations; (3) discussion of results by programs; (4) summaries of objectives, procedures, results, etc., for all projects; and (5) a listing of project reports for the military-effect programs.
ABSTRACT

Self-contained mechanical reed gages, capable of measuring the displacement-shock spectrum over a frequency range of 3 to 300 cps in any one direction, were used during Shots Cactus and Koa. Canisters containing the gages were normally placed with their tops flush to the ground level at predicted pressure levels from 75 to 200 psi on both shots. Additional gages were installed in earth-confined arch structures of Project 3.2. Satisfactory records were obtained for both shots.

Limited comparisons have been made between the results obtained for the low-yield (Cactus) and high-yield (Koa) shots at the Eniwetok Proving Ground (EPG) and between the results for Shot Cactus and the low-yield Shots Whitney, Galileo, and Smoky during Operation Plumbbob at the Nevada Test Site (NTS).

In general, vertical and radial displacements for Shot Koa were much lower than expected from the extrapolation of data obtained from low-yield shots during Operation Plumbbob. Differences in soil conditions, surface versus raised bursts, and topography variations may have been contributing factors. The Appendix contains the preliminary results of intensive parametric analyses and theoretical studies being made in an attempt to establish suitable scaling laws.

In general, the vertical displacements at low frequencies (less than 10 cps) are lower and the displacements at high frequencies (greater than 100 cps) are higher from Shots Cactus and Koa than from the shots during Operation Plumbbob. Also, the ratios between radial and vertical components at various ranges tend to be more nearly equal for the two Hardtack shots than for the Plumbbob shots. Specifically, at 110 psi the vertical displacements of Shot Cactus were significantly less (one third to one fifth) than for the Plumbbob shots up to 20 cps where they are almost equal. Above 50 cps, the vertical displacements for Shot Cactus were two to four times greater than for the Plumbbob shots. The radial displacements at 110 psi for Shot Cactus were about the same as for the Plumbbob shots up to 10 cps and two to four times greater at higher frequencies.

A comparison of the vertical displacements at 90 psi for Cactus and at 84 psi for Koa, shows that the displacements for Koa were higher in the low-frequency range (twice as high at 3 cps), lower for the intermediate-frequency range (10 to 50 cps), and about equal for the high-frequency range. The radial displacements for Cactus at 90 psi were about the same as for Koa at 84 psi, except in an intermediate-frequency range (10 to 50 cps) where the Cactus values were found to be greater.
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GROUND-SHOCK SPECTRA from SURFACE BURSTS

OBJECTIVE

The objective was to measure directly the displacement-shock spectra, near the ground surface, of air-induced and ground-transmitted ground shocks produced by the blast wave from surface-burst nuclear detonations. The displacement-shock spectrum is a plot of peak displacement of a set of several linear fixed-frequency oscillators (of single degree of freedom) to specific blast wave, as a function of the frequency of the oscillators. Velocity- and acceleration-shock spectra are derived from the measured displacement-shock spectra. The measurements do not correspond to the ground motions but are the responses of linear vibration systems relative to the ground motion.

BACKGROUND

Headquarters, U.S. Air Force, has required the Air Force Ballistic Missile Division (AFBMD), Air Research and Development Command (ARDC), to provide data for a "hard" operational base for one of the ICBM missile systems. The AFBMD, in conjunction with the Space Technology Laboratories, Inc. (STL), formerly a division of The Ramo-Wooldridge Corporation (R-W), will specify input data to architect-engineer firms. As a minimum, the environmental information includes vertical and radial ground-shock spectra, permanent ground displacements, and levels of nuclear and thermal radiation. Desirable information includes soil pressures and transient ground displacements and acceleration.

The Air Force Special Weapons Center (AFSWC) furnished to AFBMD the best-known limits of peak values and transient variations of ground accelerations and displacements for the required overpressure region, based on measurements made by Sandia Corporation (SC), Stanford Research Institute (SRI), and Ballistic Research Laboratories (BRL) during operations prior to Plumbbob.

For the measurements of accelerations and displacements during Operation Plumbbob, SC, SRI, and BRL used what might be termed "standard acceleration and displacement instrumentation"; AFBMD/R-W used, for the first time in the weapon-effect tests, self-contained sets of single-frequency reed gages for direct determination of the displacement-shock spectrum. The measurements provided a better understanding of the ground-shock phenomena for kiloton-range devices. On the other hand, the shock-spectra data could not be extrapolated into the high-yield range because of the lack of normal acceleration-time records for the megaton-range devices.

The results of the AFBMD/R-W measurements during Operation Plumbbob are contained in Reference 1.

It was considered desirable to establish scaling laws for effects at different yields, particularly for application to missiles, which possess very low natural frequencies. The first attempt at scaling was made on the basis that the displacement shock at zero frequency (the peak ground displacement at the surface) should be proportional to the total overpressure impulse. Because displacement-shock spectra were not measured below 3 cps during Operation Plumbbob, the correlation at zero frequency could not be made. The attempt at correlation at 3 cps indicated a trend, but the results were indecisive. As shown in Figure 1, the least scatter of data appears to be given by a plot of vertical displacement at 3 cps versus \( (\text{overpressure})^{1/6} \times (\text{yield})^{1/3} \).
Figure 2 shows a composite plot of pertinent Plumbbob results for the vertical direction. Similarly, Figure 3 shows a composite plot of Plumbbob results for the radial direction.

Participation during Operation Hardtack was a continuation of the Plumbbob effort. Shot Cactus was in the kiloton range, and Shot Koa was in the megaton range. Correlation is available to a limited extent between low yields and high yields at the EPG, and between low yields at the EPG and the NTS, which permits scaling of surface ground-shock spectra with yield for similar conglomerate soils.

The shock spectra can be used for making estimates of upper bounds of response of missiles and structures subjected to ground motions, for conditions similar to those under which the shock spectra are obtained. The structures considered are, in general, linear with small damping, although some effort is under way to extend methods to simple nonlinear structures.

Specifically, the shock spectra are useful for estimations of: (1) maximum stress, displacement, or acceleration induced in a structure; (2) design criterion for a supporting-structure shock mounting which will protect the missile; and (3) shock environment for equipment attached to the missile.

THEORY

Complete discussions of the theory and application of shock spectra are given in References 2, 4, and 7. Briefly, if a shock due to ground motions is applied to a linear structure attached

SECRET
Figure 2 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction.

Figure 3 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction.
to the ground, the displacement of any point of the structure relative to the ground can be expressed as a sum of principal mode responses:

\[ u(t, x, y, z) = \sum q(t) \phi(x, y, z) \]  

(1)

Where:
- \( u(t) \) = displacement relative to ground
- \( q(t) \) = generalized coordinate
- \( \phi(x, y, z) \) = mode shape

An upper bound of response is obtained assuming all modes have reached their peak values at the same time:

\[ u \leq \sum |q_{\text{max}}| \phi \]  

(2)

For an acceleration input, it can be shown (Reference 4) that for each mode:

\[ \ddot{q} + 2 \epsilon \omega \dot{q} + \omega^2 q = -\gamma a(t) \]  

(3)

Where:
- \( q \) = generalized displacement relative to ground
- \( \omega \) = frequency of mode
- \( \epsilon \) = ratio of damping to critical viscous damping
- \( \gamma \) = kinematic factor = \( \int \rho \phi \, dv / \int \rho \phi^2 \, dv \)
- \( \rho \) = mass distribution per unit volume
- \( a(t) \) = acceleration of ground as function of time

The solution to Equation 3 for small damping is

\[ q_{\text{max}}(\omega, \epsilon) = \max_{t \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{\gamma}{\omega} \int_{t}^{t} a(\tau)e^{-\epsilon \omega(\tau-\tau)} \sin \omega(\tau-\tau) d\tau \right| \]  

(4)

Assuming an idealized single-degree-of-freedom system, such as a point mass on a weightless cantilever spring, the equation of motion for the mass is

\[ \ddot{Q} + 2 \epsilon \omega \dot{Q} + \omega^2 Q = -a(t) \]  

(5)

With an appropriate gage factor to adjust for stylus position and for the fact that the sets of cantilevered mass systems have distributed mass, the reed shock gages will give direct readings of peak displacements as solutions of Equation 5. The frequency spectrum of the peak displacements of the masses relative to the base that is being accelerated is called the displacement-shock spectrum, which is defined as:

\[ D(\omega) = Q_{\text{max}} = \max_{t \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{1}{\omega} \int_{t}^{t} a(\tau)e^{-\epsilon \omega(\tau-\tau)} \sin \omega(\tau-\tau) d\tau \right| \]  

(6)

If the displacement spectrum, \( D(\omega) \), is known, the modal response of any other structure having the same damping as the gage is given by:

\[ q_{\text{max}} = \gamma D \]  

(7)

or the upper bound of response by (from Equation 2):

\[ u \leq \sum |\gamma D \phi| \]  

(8)
The "velocity" shock spectrum is defined as

\[ V = \omega D \]  

(9)

This quantity has the dimensions of velocity, but is not the peak velocity of the mass relative to the base. The velocity shock spectrum is useful, however, in the determination of an upper bound of strain energy in the structures and is discussed in Reference 7.

The acceleration shock spectrum is defined as

\[ A = \omega^2 D \]  

(10)

and can be shown to be (Reference 7), the peak absolute acceleration of the mass for small damping, namely:

\[ A = \max |\ddot{Q} + a| \]  

(11)

Plumbbob results indicated a possible correlation of shock spectra (a particular displacement for a particular frequency) with the total ground impulse (air slap) resulting from that particular (low-yield) air-overpressure wave form. Predicted curves were derived on the basis that the rise time (free-air overpressure versus time) from a high-yield detonation was similar, if not identical, to that from a low-yield detonation, but that the duration (total impulse) was longer. This increase in duration obtains greater displacements for high-yield nuclear devices at low frequencies, with practically no change of the same measurement at high frequencies for this type of device.

For a better determination of how yield, pressure, depth, and soil parameters affect the scaling of measured shock spectra to different explosions and different sites, a separate study to create a mathematical model that would estimate the gross effects of these parameters has been initiated. Although this study has not been completed, a brief outline of the work, published as Reference 8, is given in the Appendix.

**OPERATIONS**

Activities at the test site included the placement of instruments, recovery of record plates and, where possible, recovery of instruments. Recovery of record plates from instruments inside two of the Project 3.2 test structures was not immediately possible, because the structures had been damaged by the blast effects of Shot Koa. Recovery of these record plates was accomplished in October 1958, by Project 3.2 personnel.

The records of two other instruments, L8 and L9, Station 125.05, for Shot Koa were invalidated by the unexplained formation of a crater, 30 feet in diameter and 10 feet deep. One of these two instruments had been displaced from its original position in the ground to a position approximately 10 feet away on top of the crater lip.

Two types of gages were used. Both were self-contained mechanical units requiring no electronic or communication channels.

**INSTRUMENTATION: HIGH-FREQUENCY GAGE**

The high-frequency gage (120 pounds) consists of ten cantilevered masses mounted on a common base plate as shown in Figure 4. The natural frequencies of the cantilevered-mass systems are approximately 3, 10, 20, 40, 80, 120, 160, 200, 250, and 300 cps. (For Shot Koa, however, certain of the 3-cps and 10-cps cantilevered masses were immobilized, because the large displacements anticipated could not be recorded on the area available on the record plate.) Peak responses to shock input for each cantilevered-mass system were recorded on polished, smoked, stainless-steel record plates by the movement of a stylus attached to each mass. The length of the marks (measure of displacement) was determined by use of a microscopic micrometer in the laboratory.

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Protection for the gage was obtained by placement inside a cylindrical canister (430 pounds, 2 feet in diameter, and 2 feet deep). Transmission of shock input to the gage, either in the vertical or horizontal (radial) direction, was secured by bolting the gage in the desired position to the 1-inch-thick base plate. Figure 5 shows a canister (lid off) with a gage installed in the vertical position.

A spring-driven record-preserving mechanism was built into the gage to raise the original record 1/4 inch, preventing subsequent shock inputs from invalidating the original record. A comparison of the record-plate vertical positions before and after the initial shock input may be made by inspection of Figures 4 and 6. The time interval for the initiation of the record-plate movement was approximately 5 minutes.

INSTRUMENTATION: LOW-FREQUENCY GAGE

The low-frequency gage (40 pounds) had three guide-tube assemblies containing roller-mounted bob weights elastically restrained by tension springs pulling on either end of the bob weight. The three assemblies possessed natural frequencies of 3, 6, and 10 cps. Each bob weight had a needle stylus which scribed through a slot in the guide tube onto a smoked metal record surface that was outside the guide tube.

A spring-driven record-preserving mechanism locked the bob weights after approximately a 5-minute delay from the time of the initial shock input. As with the high-frequency gages, the lockout mechanism was employed to prevent subsequent shock inputs from invalidating the original record.

Protection for the gage was obtained by placement inside a cylindrical canister (160 pounds,
Figure 5  High-frequency gage installed in vertical position in canister.

Figure 6  High-frequency gage. Record plate is in raised position.
8 inches in diameter and approximately 5 feet long. Figure 7 shows a gage assembly partially inserted into the canister.

GAGE INSTALLATIONS

Figures 8 and 9 show the location and layout of the project installations for Shots Cactus and Koa.

The sequence of installation of gages when used for measurements in the free field was:

1. Excavation of 30-inch cubical holes for the canisters with the high-frequency gages.

Excavation of 1-foot-diameter holes, 5 feet deep, for vertical installation, and 1-foot-deep holes, 5 feet long, for radial installation of canisters with low-frequency gages. The object was to have the tops of the canisters flush with the surrounding ground.

2. Placement of canisters, as shown in Figures 10, 11, 12, and 13.

3. Backfilling around canisters, with native material. Compaction was obtained through the use of water and hand tamping. It is estimated that a compaction of 90 percent of maximum density at optimum moisture content was obtained.

4. Placement of smoked record plates in the high-frequency gages. The low-frequency record plates were installed as a part of the low-frequency gage assemblies.

5. Cocking of record-preserving mechanism.

6. Careful placement and bolting of canister lids. (Rough handling could excite the gages.)

7. Placement of two layers of sandbags (each 4 to 5 inches thick) over the lids.
Figure 8: Gage layout, Site Yvonne, Shot Cactus.

Figure 9: Gage layout, Site Irene, Shot Koa.
Figure 10  Station 125.09, Site Yvonne.
Placement of high-frequency gage canister.

Figure 11  Station 125.09, Site Yvonne.
High-frequency gages.
Figure 12  Station 125.08, Site Yvonne.  
High-frequency gages in place.

Figure 13  Station 125.05, Site Irene.  
Low-frequency gages in foreground.
The installation within the Project 3.2 structures required the early placement of six canisters for high-frequency gages (not containing gages and record plates) inside these structures (two canisters each in Stations 322.01, 322.03, and 322.04), because the dimensions of the canisters did not permit their passage through the finished hatches of these structures. Each canister was bolted to the floor slab with four $\frac{3}{4}$-inch anchor bolts. Gage and record-plate installation, and cocking of the record-preserving mechanism, were accomplished later. The low-frequency instruments were placed inside the finished structure (Station 322.04) and anchored to the floor slabs with $\frac{3}{4}$-inch anchor bolts. The gage in the vertical position was guyed with four lengths of $\frac{3}{8}$-inch aircraft cable. Figure 14 shows the canister installation inside Station 322.04.

**GAGE CALIBRATION**

The calibration consisted of making three measurements on each gage: (1) the natural frequency of each reed, (2) the effective viscous damping ratio, and (3) a geometric parameter, denoted by the gage factor $G$. This geometric factor is required because the length of the trace that is recorded on the record plate is dependent upon the location of the scribe on the vibrating reed and the mass distribution.

High-Frequency Gages. The fundamental natural frequency for each reed-mass system was determined by placing each gage on a shake table and reading, by means of a Berkley counter, the lowest frequency that produced resonance of each cantilever mass.

The damping ratio was obtained by fastening a small crystal accelerometer to a reed, displacing the reed, and recording the decay motion on a Heiland recorder, during which time the scribe was in contact with the record plate. Because the damping varied slightly with needle
pressure and with the amplitude of motion, the test was not performed on each of the gages but only on a sample, to get typical values of the viscous damping ratio. This test also gave a natural frequency of each reed on the gages tested and was used as a check on the shake tests.

A gage factor for each typical cantilevered-mass system was computed or obtained experimentally. This gage factor is a multiplying factor for converting the length of the trace on the record plate to an equivalent displacement of a point mass, or:

\[ D = GS \]  
(12)

Where:  
\( D \) = displacement of point mass  
\( G \) = gage factor  
\( S \) = length of trace made by stylus

For one mode:

\[ S = q_{\text{max}} \phi(s) \]  
(13)

Where:  
\( \phi(s) \) = mode value at stylus

or since  
\[ q_{\text{max}} = \gamma D \] (from Equations 4 and 6)

\[ S = \gamma D \phi(s) \]  
(14)

Hence, from Equations 14 and 12,

\[ G = 1/\gamma \phi(s) \]  
(15)

Now  \( \gamma \phi(s) \) can be determined experimentally by applying a known constant acceleration and measuring the stylus trace. From Equation 3, the value of \( q \) for constant applied acceleration  \( c \) is

\[ q_c = \gamma c/\omega^2 \]  
(16)

and the length of the stylus trace is

\[ U = q_c \phi(s) = \frac{\gamma c}{\omega^2} \phi(s) \]

or

\[ G = 1/\gamma \phi(s) = c/U \omega^2 \]  
(17)

Where:  
\( c \) = constant acceleration  
\( U \) = length of trace  
\( \omega \) = frequency of reed-mass system

For the lowest-frequency reeds, the static deflection  \( U \) was measured by applying a 1-g load by inserting the record, turning the gage on end, and removing the record. For the intermediate-range reeds, a larger load was required. A steady 15-g load was applied by placing the gages in a centrifuge, bringing the centrifuge up to speed slowly, and then stopping the centrifuge. The trace recorded corresponded to the 15-g applied load. For the highest-frequency reeds, a higher load was required. Since the centrifuge capacity was limited to approximately 15-g for the 120-pound gages, the  \( G \) values for the highest-frequency reeds were determined from calculations using Equation 15.
Low-Frequency Gages. The natural frequency was measured by displacing the bob weight and letting it interrupt a light beam as the weight vibrated under free vibrations. The light beam was focused on a solar battery. The output voltage of the solar battery was amplified by a dc amplifier and fed into a Berkley meter. The Berkley meter measured the length of time between the variations in the voltage caused by the interruption of the light beam. This period of time corresponded to the natural frequency.

The damping ratio was measured by displacing the bob weight, recording the motion on the record plate, and manually rotating the plate during the decay motion of the weight; successive amplitudes could be detected and hence the damping ratio determined.

The G value of these gages could be determined by applying a load of 1-g and measuring the static deflection at the scribe. However, in this system, which closely approximates a single degree of freedom, the G value can be shown to be very nearly 1.0.

DATA REQUIREMENTS

The specification of design parameters and the cross-corroboration between low-yield and high-yield devices required that the displacement-shock spectra be obtained for the preselected overpressure level of 100 psi. Statistical considerations, variable ground conditions, and a probable variation in yield suggested the placement of gages in overpressure regions varying from below 100 psi to above 100 psi on both Shots Cactus and Koa. Accordingly, the gages were placed as shown in Figures 8 and 9.

The desire to delineate the attenuation of the ground shock through depth, and thence through an elastic floor slab, led to the placement of gages within the Project 3.2 structures.

Free-air overpressures were furnished by Project 1.7.

DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

The results are given in Tables 1 through 9 and Figures 16 through 44.

Of primary interest are the comparison and correlations between the results obtained for:

1. high-yield (Koa) and low-yield (Cactus) shots for similar soils and topography at EPG and
2. similar yields for different soils and topography (Shot Cactus at EPG and Shots Whitney, Galileo, and Smoky during Operation Plumbbob at NTS).

The following general trends were established for free-field shock-spectrum displacements near the surface at similar overpressures:

1. The vertical displacements at low frequencies (less than 10 cps) are less for EPG than for NTS, regardless of yield. Preliminary scaling of Plumbbob data, shown as Figure 15, indicated that the high-yield shot (Koa) should have given about three times the displacement of the low-yield Plumbbob shots if the soil conditions were similar. The much higher seismic velocity at EPG may qualitatively explain the differences. Quantitative studies are now being performed to establish scaling relationships to take into account soil factors. As mentioned earlier, the preliminary results of these studies are shown in the Appendix of this report.

2. The vertical and radial displacements at high frequencies (greater than 100 cps) are greater at EPG than NTS, regardless of yield. Differences in seismic velocity may also be a factor in this case.

3. The vertical and radial components at the low- and high-frequency ends of the spectrum are nearly equal for the low-yield shot (Cactus) at EPG. At NTS, the vertical component is about three times the radial component.

Shot Cactus. The vertical displacements measured by two gages adjacent to each other (21 and 3, Station 125.08) at 110 psi overpressure are similar (probably within 15 percent) as shown in Figures 18 and 19.

The vertical displacements at 110 and 90 psi (Gages 21 and 3, Station 125.08, and Gage 22, Station 125.09) show a local peaking at about 40 cps (Figures 18, 19, and 21).

At 110 psi (Station 125.08) the radial components (Gage 12) are only slightly lower (within 25
### TABLE 1  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT CACTUS, SURFACE, VERTICAL DIRECTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.07</th>
<th>125.08</th>
<th>125.09</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>110 psi</td>
<td>90 psi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>625 ft.</td>
<td>850 ft.</td>
<td>965 ft.</td>
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<th>D, inches</th>
<th>f, cps</th>
<th>D, inches</th>
<th>f, cps</th>
<th>D, inches</th>
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<td>0.033</td>
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### TABLE 2  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT CACTUS, SURFACE, RADIAL DIRECTION

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<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.07</th>
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<th>125.09</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overpressure</td>
<td>210 psi</td>
<td>110 psi</td>
<td>90 psi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>625 ft.</td>
<td>850 ft.</td>
<td>965 ft.</td>
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<th>D, inches</th>
<th>f, cps</th>
<th>D, inches</th>
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### TABLE 3  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT CACTUS, INSIDE SHELTER

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<td>Overpressure 90 psi</td>
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<td>Range 965 ft.</td>
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<th>f, cps</th>
<th>D, inches</th>
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### TABLE 4: DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, SURFACE, VERTICAL DIRECTION

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<th>Gage Number</th>
<th>High Frequency</th>
<th>Low Frequency</th>
<th>High Frequency</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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### TABLE 5: DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, SURFACE, VERTICAL DIRECTION

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<th>Low Frequency</th>
<th>High Frequency</th>
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### TABLE 6: DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, SURFACE, RADIAL DIRECTION

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SECRET
TABLE 7  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, SURFACE, RADIAL DIRECTION

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<th>Station</th>
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<td>Low Frequency</td>
<td>High Frequency</td>
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<td>f, cps</td>
<td>D, inches</td>
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<td>D, inches</td>
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<td>0.040</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>0.003</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 8  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, INSIDE SHELTER, VERTICAL DIRECTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.01</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.03*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overpressure</td>
<td>196 psi</td>
<td>Overpressure</td>
<td>86 psi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>3,200 ft</td>
<td>Range</td>
<td>3,940 ft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gage Number</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Gage Number</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Frequency</td>
<td>High Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f, cps</td>
<td>D, inches</td>
<td>f, cps</td>
<td>D, inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>1.517</td>
<td>9.9</td>
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<td>179</td>
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<td>221</td>
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<td>222</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
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<td>254</td>
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<tr>
<td>286</td>
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<td>286</td>
<td>0.002</td>
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</table>

* Low-frequency Gage Number 2 records at this station were not recoverable.

TABLE 9  DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRUM, SHOT KOA, INSIDE SHELTER, RADIAL DIRECTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.01</th>
<th>Station</th>
<th>125.03*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overpressure</td>
<td>196 psi</td>
<td>Overpressure</td>
<td>86 psi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
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<td>Gage Number</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f, cps</td>
<td>D, inches</td>
<td>f, cps</td>
<td>D, inches</td>
</tr>
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<td>—</td>
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<tr>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>0.008</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>286</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Low-frequency Gage Number 10 records at this station were not recoverable.
percent) than the vertical components (Gage 3) for all frequencies except between 10 and 100 cps when the peaking occurs in the vertical component (Figures 20 and 19).

At 90 psi (Station 125.09) the radial components (Gage 13) are less than the vertical (Gage 22) except at the high-frequency range (greater than 200 cps) as shown in Figures 22 and 21.

The vertical displacements inside the shelter at 90 psi (Gage 7, Station 125.10) do not show the peaking at 40 cps that the outside (Gage 22, Station 125.09) measurements do. The displacements are nearly the same as for outside up to 10 cps but are attenuated (factor of 7) in the intermediate-frequency range (20 to 100 cps) from the values measured in the free field adjacent to the structure (Figures 23 and 21).

The radial displacements inside the shelter (Gage 9, Station 125.10) and outside (Gage 13, Station 125.09) at 90 psi are similar up to 10 cps. Displacements inside show high attenuation (85 percent) at high frequency (greater than 100 cps) as compared with displacements outside (Figures 24 and 22).

Shot Koa. At Station 125.05, the adjacent gages (14 and 23) give nearly duplicate records for the vertical displacements at 84 psi (Figures 31 and 32).

The vertical displacements measured by the low-frequency gages (L1 and L4, Stations 125.04 and 125.06) for 86 and 78 psi agree fairly well up to 6 cps. Because these gages were designed for much greater displacements than those measured, their accuracy is in doubt (Figures 27 and 38).

The radial displacements measured by the low-frequency gages (L5, L3, L6, and L7, Stations 125.04, 125.05, and 125.06) for 86, 84, and 78 psi show considerable scatter. Records are not considered satisfactory (Figures 30, 33, 34, and 40).

The vertical displacements measured by the low-frequency gage (L1, Station 125.04) at 86 psi are consistent with low-frequency components measured by the gage (23, Station 125.05) at 84 psi (Figures 27 and 32).

The radial displacements for adjacent gages (16 and 19, Station 125.05) agree closely (within 20 percent) and indicate a dip in the spectrum (half of normal trend) at about 20 cps (Figures 35 and 36).

At Station 125.05, the vertical displacement (Gage 23) for 84 psi is generally higher than the radial displacement (Gage 19) for the entire frequency range, being from about three times as great at 3 cps to slightly greater at high frequency (above 100 cps); but with the largest difference (six times) at 20 cps, where the peak in the vertical displacements corresponds to the dip in the radial displacements (Figures 32 and 36).

The vertical displacements inside the shelter (Gage 20, Station 125.01) are considerably attenuated (factor of 8) in the intermediate-frequency range (50 to 200 cps) from the values measured in the free field (Gage 10, Station 125.02) adjacent to the structure (Figures 41 and 25).

The radial displacements inside the shelter (Gage 11, Station 125.01) are lower (factor of 4) over the entire frequency range from the values measured in the free field (Gages 17 and L5, Stations 125.02 and 125.04) adjacent to the structure (Figures 42, 26, and 30).

The vertical displacements inside the shelter (Gage 6, Station 125.03) are higher (average factor of 3) in the low-frequency range (3 to 20 cps), equal at 20 cps, then extremely attenuated (factor of 10 to 20) in the frequency range of 20 to 300 cps from the values measured in the free field (Gage 2, Station 125.06) adjacent to the structure (Figures 43 and 37).

The radial displacements inside the shelter (Gage 8, Station 125.03) are equal at a frequency of 20 cps and then gradually attenuated (factor of 7) over the range of 20 to 300 cps from the values measured in the free field (Gage 1, Station 125.06) adjacent to the structure (Figures 44 and 39).

Shot Cactus and Operation Plumbbob. At 110 psi, the vertical displacements of Shot Cactus (Gage 3, Station 125.08) are significantly less (one third to one fifth) than for the shots during Operation Plumbbob up to about 20 cps where they are almost equal. Above 50 cps, the vertical displacements for Shot Cactus are two to four times greater than for the Plumbbob shots (Figures 19 and 2).
Figure 18 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 21.

Figure 17 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 18.
Figure 21 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 22.

Figure 22 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 13.
Figure 23 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 7.

Figure 24 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 9.
Figure 25 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 10.

Figure 26 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 17.
Figure 28. Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 15.

Figure 27. Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage L1.

SECRET
Figure 29 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 5.

Figure 30 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage L5.
SECRET

Figure 31 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 14.

Figure 32 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 23.
Figure 33 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage L3.

Figure 34 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage L6.
Figure 35 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 16

Figure 36 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 19
Figure 37 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 2.

Figure 38 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage L4.
Figure 39 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 1.

Figure 40 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage L7.
Figure 41 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 20.

Figure 42 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 11.
Figure 43 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Gage 6.

Figure 44 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Gage 8.
The radial displacements at 110 psi for Shot Cactus (Gage 12, Station 125.08) are about the same as those for the Plumbbob shots up to 10 cps. For the higher frequencies, the displacements for Shot Cactus are two to four times greater than those for the Plumbbob shots (Figures 20 and 3).

Shots Cactus and Koa. A comparison of the vertical displacements at 90 psi for Shot Cactus (Gage 22, Station 125.09) and at 84 psi for Shot Koa (Gage 23, Station 125.05) shows that the displacements for Shot Koa are higher in the low-frequency range (twice as high at 3 cps), lower for the intermediate-frequency range (10 to 50 cps) and about equal for the high-frequency range (Figures 21 and 32).

The radial displacements for Shot Cactus at 90 psi (Gage 13, Station 125.09) are about the same as for Shot Koa at 84 psi (Gage 19, Station 125.05) except in an intermediate-frequency range (10 to 50 cps) where the Shot Cactus values are greater (Figures 22 and 39).

CONCLUSIONS

High-frequency gages (3 to 300 cps) gave readable records with excellent consistency of values in duplicate installations.

Low-frequency gages (3 to 10 cps), which were designed for much higher displacements than observed, produced records with considerable scatter.

In general, vertical and radial displacements for the high-yield shot were much lower than expected from the extrapolation of Plumbbob data. Differences in soil conditions, surface versus raised bursts, and topography variations may have been contributing factors.

A brief outline of separate parametric analyses and theoretical studies, published as Reference 8, is given in the Appendix.
Appendix

DISPLACEMENT SHOCK SPECTRA VELOCITY, and ACCELERATION of a HALF-SPACE in RESPONSE to a MOVING PRESSURE PULSE—

GENERAL OUTLINE

INTRODUCTION

In this study, the following conditions are assumed to exist in the soil, near the ground level, exposed to a nuclear explosion.

1. The soil is homogeneous, isotropic, and elastic.
2. The point under investigation is far enough away from the explosion so that the radius of curvature of the shock-wave front is large compared with the dimensions of the soil body considered.
3. For the size of soil body considered, the shock wave appears as a steadily moving pressure pulse whose intensity and geometric distribution are invariant. (This assumption has been eliminated in later studies; the theory is presented in Reference 12. Because the numerical calculations based on these later studies have not yet been completed, none of the results are presented here.)

Under these assumptions the soil-response problem may be approximated by a two-dimensional problem in which an invariant pressure pulse moves with a constant speed over an elastic half space. Future studies will deal with the effects of soil layering, solid bodies enclosed in the soil, nonlinear visco-elastic or plastic and compactible soils, three-dimensional effects, coupling of air and soil, and the like.

The problem of a steadily moving line load over elastic half space was formulated and solved by Lamb, Sneddon, Huth, and Cole (References 9, 10, and 11). The simplicity of the problem and the applications of the solution to shock-spectrum studies are demonstrated below.

THE MATHEMATICAL PROBLEM

Let \( x_1, y_1 \) be space coordinates fixed in the medium which occupies the half space \( y_1 > 0 \) and let \( x \) and \( y \) be coordinates which move at the constant speed of the pressure pulse \( U \) in the negative \( x_1 \) direction. The medium is assumed to obey Hooke’s law

\[
\sigma_{ij} = \lambda e_{ij} + 2\mu e_{ij}
\]

where \( \lambda \) and \( \mu \) are Lamé constants.

The equation of motion is then, in vector notation

\[
(\lambda + 2\mu) \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) - \mu \nabla \times (\nabla \times \vec{u}) = \rho \frac{\partial^2 \vec{u}}{\partial t^2}.
\]

where \( \vec{u}(u, v) \) is the displacement vector. If the displacement is separated into a dilatational and rotational part, so that, in the plane-strain case under consideration,

\[
u = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_1} - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y_1},
\]

\[
v = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y_1} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x_1},
\]

a solution is obtained, provided \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) satisfy the equations

\[
\phi_{x_1}x_1 + \phi_{y_1}y_1 = \frac{1}{a_1^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}
\]

\[
\psi_{x_1}x_1 + \psi_{y_1}y_1 = \frac{1}{a_2^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}
\]

where

\[
a_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda + 2\mu}{\rho}}, \quad a_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho}}
\]

The above problem, the pressure pulse is considered as a function of \( x + Ut \) only. Hence, with a Galilean transformation...
\[ x = x_0 + Ut \quad y = y_1 \]

and the boundary conditions are

\[ \sigma_y = -p(x) \quad \tau_{xy} = 0 \quad \text{when} \quad y = 0 \quad (A.8) \]

which is independent of the time \( t \). In the steady state, the differential equations \( A.4 \) are transformed by \( A.7 \) into

\[
\phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} + \frac{U^2}{a_1^2} \phi_{xx}
\]

\[ (A.9) \]

or, introducing the Mach numbers,

\[ M_1 = \frac{U}{a_1}, \quad M_2 = \frac{U}{a_2} \tag{A.10} \]

and the parameters,

\[ \beta_1 = \sqrt{1 - M_1^2} \quad \beta_2 = \sqrt{1 - M_2^2} \tag{A.11} \]

if \( M_1, M_2 < 1 \)

and

\[ \beta_1 = \sqrt{M_1^2 - 1} \quad \beta_2 = \sqrt{M_2^2 - 1} \tag{A.12} \]

if \( M_1, M_2 > 1 \)

the elliptic equations are

\[ \beta_1^2 \phi_{xx} + \phi_{yy} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad M_1 < 1 \tag{A.13} \]

and the hyperbolic equations are

\[ \frac{1}{\beta_1^2} \phi_{xx} - \phi_{yy} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad M_1 > 1 \tag{A.14} \]

Expressions for the stress components may be reduced, by means of Equations \( A.9 \) and \( A.10 \) into

\[ \frac{\sigma_x}{\mu} = (M_1^2 - 2) \phi_{xx} - 2 \phi_{xy} \]

\[ \frac{\sigma_y}{\mu} = (M_2^2 - 2) \phi_{xx} + 2 \phi_{xy} \tag{A.15} \]

\[ \frac{\tau_{xy}}{\mu} = 2 \phi_{xy} - (M_1^2 - 2) \phi_{xx} \]

The boundary conditions (Equation \( A.8 \)) can be integrated once to obtain, at \( y = 0 \),

\[ (M_1^2 - 2) \phi_x + 2 \phi_y = -\frac{1}{\mu} \int_0^x p(x)dx \tag{A.16} \]

\[ 2 \phi_y - (M_1^2 - 2) \phi_x = 0 \]

When \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) are solved from Equations \( A.13 \) or \( A.14 \) with the boundary conditions (Equation \( A.16 \)) on the free surface and suitable radiation and finiteness conditions at infinity are satisfied, the displacements \( u \) and \( v \) can be obtained from Equation \( A.3 \), the stresses \( \sigma_x, \sigma_y \), and \( \tau_{xy} \) can be obtained from Equation \( A.15 \), and the velocity and acceleration with respect to the space coordinates fixed in the medium by

\[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = U \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} = U(\phi_x - \phi_y) \]

\[ \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = U \frac{\partial v}{\partial x_1} = U(\phi_y + \phi_x) \tag{A.17} \]

With the same steps as in Reference 11, it is possible to obtain the following ground accelerations at any depth, \( y = UY \), and any time \( t \) in the horizontal \( (\ddot{u}) \) and vertical \( (\ddot{v}) \) directions due to an invariant pressure

\[ p(t) = P_m p_1(t), \quad \text{where} \quad p_m = \text{peak overpressure}. \]

PRESSURE PULSE MOVING FASTER THAN DILATATIONAL OR SHEAR SPEED \( (M_2 > M_1 > 1, \text{SUPERSONIC}) \)

\[ \frac{\rho a_1}{p_m} \ddot{u} = -\frac{C_1}{\beta_1} p_1(t - \beta_1 Y) + \beta_2 C_2 p(t - \beta_2 Y) \tag{A.18} \]

\[ \frac{\rho a_1}{p_m} \ddot{v} = C_1 p_1(t - \beta_1 Y) + C_2 p(t - \beta_2 Y) \]

where primes indicate the derivatives of the pressure-pulse curve with respect to the argument and

\[ C_1 = M_1 \left( \frac{M_2}{M_1} \right)^2 \left( \frac{1}{\beta_1} \beta_2 \frac{2}{\beta_2 - 1} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\beta_1} \beta_2 \frac{2}{\beta_2 - 1} \right) + 4 \beta_1 \beta_2 \]

\[ (A.19) \]
C_j = M_j \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{2 \beta_1}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2} + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2

\text{PRESSURE PULSE MOVING FASTER THAN SHEAR WAVES AND SLOWER THAN DILATATIONAL WAVES (} M_j > 1 > M_1, \text{ TRANSONIC})

\frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \ddot{u} = C_3 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_4 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_5 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_6 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_7 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_8 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right)

\text{where}

C_3 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{2 \beta_1}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2} + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2

C_4 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{4 \beta_1 \beta_y^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

C_5 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{2 \beta_1}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2} + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2

C_6 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{\beta_1 (1 - \beta_2)^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

C_7 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{\beta_1 (1 - \beta_2)^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

C_8 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{8 \beta_1 \beta_y^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

\left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{2 \beta_1}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2} + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2

\text{PRESSURE PULSE MOVING SLOWER THAN SHEAR OR DILATATIONAL WAVES (} 1 > M_j > M_1, \text{ SUBSONIC})

\frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \ddot{v} = -C_3 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_4 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_7 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right) + C_8 \left( \frac{U^2}{dx^2} \right)

\text{where}

C_3 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{2 \beta_1}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2} + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2

C_4 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{\beta_1 (1 - \beta_2)^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

C_7 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{\beta_1 (1 - \beta_2)^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

C_8 = \frac{\rho \alpha_L}{p_m} \left( \frac{M_j}{M_1} \right)^2 \frac{8 \beta_1 \beta_y^2}{\left( \beta_2 - 1 \right)^2 + 4 \beta_2 \beta_y^2}

\text{SHOCK-SPECTRA CALCULATIONS}

Shock spectra show the peak response of a single-degree-of-freedom system relative to the ground, due to the ground motion, as a function of the frequency of the single-degree-of-freedom system attached to the ground. That is \( D_{\text{max}} \) (maximum displacement) is the maximum value of the solution of the differential equation.
\[ q + \omega^2 q = -a(t) \]  

(A.25)

where \( a(t) \) is the acceleration of the support. For this study various pressure-pulse curves were taken and the resulting ground-acceleration time history for the 100-psi-overpressure region. The calculations were carried out for a triangular pressure-pulse approximation of Brode’s theoretical pressure pulse by choosing the duration of the triangular pressure-pulse curve so that the area under the curve was equal to the positive phase of Brode’s theoretical curve. The theoretical shock-spectra curves shown were based on a soil with dilatational speed, \( a_d = 1,500 \) ft/sec, Poisson ratio, \( \nu = 0.45 \), soil density = 100 lb/ft\(^3\), and depth = 5 ft. At this 100-psi-overpressure location, the blast wave velocity of \( U = 3,000 \) ft/sec is larger than the seismic speed and, therefore, corresponds to the supersonic case. It should be noted that, in general, the theoretical curves underestimate the measured data. Since the shock spectra vary nearly inversely with \( \rho a_1 \) in this range of \( U/a_1 \) values, a smaller value of \( \rho a_1 \) will shift the theoretical curve upward and bring it into closer agreement with the data.

In these calculations, the value of 100 lb/ft\(^3\) for soil density may be slightly high. In addition, the seismic speed of \( a_d = 1,500 \) ft/sec is certainly high as compared with the values measured close to the surface during Operation Hardtack, where some measured values were as low as 800 ft/sec. However, seismic measurements showed that the seismic speed increased rapidly with increasing depth near the water table, which was at about 20 feet. This, of course, makes it difficult to pick a representative seismic speed to be used.

![Diagram](image)

Figure A.1 Ground shock studies, summary of cases.

The theoretical curves were based on yields of 40 kt and 2 Mt, in the either seismic speed and, therefore, corresponds to the supersonic case. It should be noted that, in general, the theoretical curves underestimate the measured data. Since the shock spectra vary nearly inversely with \( \rho a_1 \) in this range of \( U/a_1 \) values, a smaller value of \( \rho a_1 \) will shift the theoretical curve upward and bring it into closer agreement with the data.

In these calculations, the value of 100 lb/ft\(^3\) for soil density may be slightly high. In addition, the seismic speed of \( a_d = 1,500 \) ft/sec is certainly high as compared with the values measured close to the surface during Operation Hardtack, where some measured values were as low as 800 ft/sec. However, seismic measurements showed that the seismic speed increased rapidly with increasing depth near the water table, which was at about 20 feet. This, of course, makes it difficult to pick a representative seismic speed to be used.

![Diagram](image)

Figure A.1 Ground shock studies, summary of cases.

The theoretical curves were based on yields of 40 kt and 2 Mt, in the

either seismic speed and, therefore, corresponds to the supersonic case. It should be noted that, in general, the theoretical curves underestimate the measured data. Since the shock spectra vary nearly inversely with \( \rho a_1 \) in this range of \( U/a_1 \) values, a smaller value of \( \rho a_1 \) will shift the theoretical curve upward and bring it into closer agreement with the data.

In these calculations, the value of 100 lb/ft\(^3\) for soil density may be slightly high. In addition, the seismic speed of \( a_d = 1,500 \) ft/sec is certainly high as compared with the values measured close to the surface during Operation Hardtack, where some measured values were as low as 800 ft/sec. However, seismic measurements showed that the seismic speed increased rapidly with increasing depth near the water table, which was at about 20 feet. This, of course, makes it difficult to pick a representative seismic speed to be used.

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Figure A.2 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Shot Cactus.

Figure A.3 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Shot Cactus.
Figure A.4 Displacement shock spectrum, vertical direction, Shot Koa.

Figure A.5 Displacement shock spectrum, radial direction, Shot Koa.
used in this theoretical study. If, for example, the seismic speed of 1,000 ft/sec was used in place of the value of 1,500 ft/sec, then the theoretical shock-spectra curve would be shifted upward by a factor of 1,500/1,000 = 1.5, bringing the theoretical curve into much closer agreement with the measured data.

It should be mentioned that since there is no data available from which the Poisson ratio can be determined for either the Hardtack or Plumbbob test sites, a search of the literature was made to determine a representative value of the Poisson ratio for a typical soil. In Reference 14, the shear and dilatational wave speeds were measured in Pierre shale in eastern Colorado. From these speeds, the Poisson ratio is calculated to be 0.415 and 0.419 in the vertical and horizontal directions, respectively. In Reference 13, the shear and dilatational wave speeds were measured in Eagle Ford shale and Austin chalk in Dallas County, Texas. From these speeds, Poisson’s ratio was calculated to be 0.47 and 0.46 in the vertical and horizontal directions, respectively, for the Eagle Ford shale and 0.40 and 0.41 in the vertical and horizontal directions, respectively, for the Austin chalk. From these references, it appears that the theoretical shock spectra calculated using the Poisson ratio of 0.45 is more representative for a soil than the spectra calculated using the Poisson ratio of 0.25.

An examination of the expressions for the ground accelerations show that in the subsonic case, the denominator of $C_3$ and $C_4$ may be zero for certain values of the seismic speeds $a_1$ and $a_2$. Herein lies one serious defect with the steady-state solution. In this case the pressure-pulse speed $U$ is moving over the half space (the earth) at the same speed at which Rayleigh surface waves are propagated within the half space and, therefore, a type of resonance exists. Of course, in a real situation this would not occur, because $U$ is not constant, but rather, decreases with time. Hence the airwave speed would pass through the Rayleigh wave speed and would cause large but finite ground motions at a distance from the explosion where the speed of the wave front has slowed down to the Rayleigh-wave speed. (This, of course, assumes that the speed of the wave front at the epicenter is larger than the Rayleigh-wave speed in the elastic half space.) Thus the shock spectrum cannot be computed when the Rayleigh-wave speed coincides with the blast-wave speed or is in some “neighborhood” of speeds “close” to the Rayleigh-wave speeds. As a result of this defect in the steady-state solution, another study has been undertaken in which the blast-wave speed $U$ is no longer constant but decreases with increasing distance from the epicenter. The theoretical work of this study is reported in Reference 12. The study indicated that the steady-state solution herein reported is a good approximation of the transient solution for blast-wave speeds “sufficiently far” from the Rayleigh-wave speeds. Shock-spectrum calculations based on the transient solution of Reference 12 have not been completed to date. The results of these calculations will be presented in an STL report at the completion of the investigation.
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An additional 29 WTs from HARDTACK have been re-issued with deletions and are identified with an “EX” after the WT number. These reissued versions are unclassified and approved for open publication. They are:


This memorandum supersedes the Defense Special Weapons Agency, OPSSI memorandum same subject dated June 13, 1997 and may be cited as the authority to declassify copies of any of the reports listed in the first paragraph above.

RITA M. METRO
Chief, Information Security

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