

## CHAPTER I

### PROPERTIES OF EXPLOSIVES

#### Definition

An explosive is a material, either a pure single substance or a mixture of substances, which is capable of producing an explosion by its own energy.

It seems unnecessary to define an explosion, for everyone knows what it is—a loud noise and the sudden going away of things from the place where they have been. Sometimes it may only be the air in the neighborhood of the material or the gas from the explosion which goes away. Our simple definition makes mention of the one single attribute which all explosives possess. It will be necessary to add other ideas to it if we wish to describe the explosive properties of any particular substance. For example, it is not proper to define an explosive as a substance, or a mixture of substances, which is capable of undergoing a sudden transformation with the production of heat *and* gas. The production of heat alone by the inherent energy of the substance which produces it will be enough to constitute the substance an explosive. Cuprous acetylide explodes by decomposing into copper and carbon and heat, no gas whatever, but the sudden heat causes a sudden expansion of the air in the neighborhood, and the result is an unequivocal explosion. All explosive substances produce heat; nearly all of them produce gas. The change is invariably accompanied by the liberation of energy. The products of the explosion represent a lower energy level than did the explosive before it had produced the explosion. Explosives commonly require some stimulus, like a blow or a spark, to provoke them to liberate their energy, that is, to undergo the change which produces the explosion, but the stimulus which “sets off” the explosive does not contribute to the energy of the explosion. The various stimuli to which explosives respond and the manners of their responses in producing explosions provide a convenient basis for the classification of these interesting materials.

Since we understand an explosive material to be one which is capable of producing an explosion by its own energy, we have opened the way to a consideration of diverse possibilities. An explosive perfectly capable of producing an explosion may liberate its energy without producing one. Black powder, for example, may burn in the open air. An explosion may occur without an explosive, that is, without any material which contains intrinsically the energy needful to produce the explosion. A steam boiler may explode because of the heat energy which has been put into the water which it contains. But the energy is not intrinsic to water, and water is not an explosive. Also, we have explosives which do not themselves explode. The explosions consist in the sudden ruptures of the containers which confine them, as happens in a Chinese firecracker. Fire, traveling along the fuse (note the spelling) reaches the black powder—mixture of potassium nitrate, sulfur, and charcoal—which is wrapped tightly within many layers of paper; the powder burns rapidly and produces gas. It burns very rapidly, for the heat resulting from the burning of the first portion cannot get away, but raises the temperature of the next portion of powder, and a rise of temperature of 10°C. more than doubles the velocity of a chemical reaction. The temperature mounts rapidly; gas is produced suddenly; an explosion ensues. The powder burns; the cracker explodes. And in still other cases we have materials which themselves explode. The molecules undergo such a sudden transformation with the liberation of heat, or of heat and gas, that the effect is an explosion.

### Classification of Explosives

I. **Propellants** or *low explosives* are combustible materials, containing within themselves all oxygen needful for their combustion, which burn but do not explode, and function by producing gas which produces an explosion. Examples: black powder, smokeless powder. Explosives of this class differ widely among themselves in the rate at which they deliver their energy. There are slow powders and fast powders for different uses. The kick of a shotgun is quite different from the persistent push against the shoulder of a high-powered military rifle in which a slower-burning and more powerful powder is used.

II. **Primary explosives** or *initiators* explode or detonate when

they are heated or subjected to shock. They do not burn; sometimes they do not even contain the elements necessary for combustion. The materials themselves explode, and the explosion results whether they are confined or not. They differ considerably in their sensitivity to heat, in the amount of heat which they give off, and in their *brisance*, that is, in the shock which they produce when they explode. Not all of them are brisant enough to initiate the explosion of a high explosive. Examples: mercury fulminate, lead azide, the lead salts of picric acid and trinitroresorcinol, *m*-nitrophenyldiazonium perchlorate, tetracene, nitrogen sulfide, copper acetylide, fulminating gold, nitrosoguanidine, mixtures of potassium chlorate with red phosphorus or with various other substances, the tartarates and oxalates of mercury and silver.

III. High explosives *detonate* under the influence of the shock of the explosion of a suitable primary explosive. They do not function by burning; in fact, not all of them are combustible, but most of them can be ignited by a flame and in small amount generally burn tranquilly and can be extinguished easily. If heated to a high temperature by external heat or by their own combustion, they sometimes explode. They differ from primary explosives in not being exploded readily by heat or by shock, and generally in being more brisant and powerful. They exert a mechanical effect upon whatever is near them when they explode, whether they are confined or not. Examples: dynamite, trinitrotoluene, tetryl, picric acid, nitrocellulose, nitroglycerin, liquid oxygen mixed with wood pulp, fuming nitric acid mixed with nitrobenzene, compressed acetylene and cyanogen, ammonium nitrate and perchlorate, nitroguanidine.

It is evident that we cannot describe a substance by saying that it is "very explosive." We must specify whether it is sensitive to fire and to shock, whether it is really powerful or merely brisant, or both, whether it is fast or slow. Likewise, in the discussions in the present book, we must distinguish carefully between sensitivity, stability, and reactivity. A substance may be extremely reactive chemically but perfectly stable in the absence of anything with which it may react. A substance may be exploded readily by a slight shock, but it may be stable if left to itself. Another may require the shock of a powerful detonator

to make it explode but may be subject to spontaneous decomposition.

The three classes of explosive materials overlap somewhat, for the behavior of a number of them is determined by the nature of the stimuli to which they are subjected and by the manner in which they are used. Black powder has probably never been known, even in the hideous explosions which have sometimes occurred at black powder mills, to do anything but burn. Smokeless powder which is made from colloidized nitrocellulose, especially if it exists in a state of fine subdivision, is a vigorous high explosive and may be detonated by means of a sufficiently powerful initiator. In the gun it is lighted by a flame and functions as a propellant. Nitroglycerin, trinitrotoluene, nitroguanidine, and other high explosives are used in admixture with nitrocellulose in smokeless powders. Fulminate of mercury if compressed very strongly becomes "dead pressed" and loses its power to detonate from flame, but retains its power to burn, and will detonate from the shock of the explosion of less highly compressed mercury fulminate. Lead azide, however, always explodes from shock, from fire, and from friction.

Some of the properties characteristic of explosives may be demonstrated safely by experiment.

A sample of commercial black powder of moderately fine granulation, say FFF, may be poured out in a narrow train, 6 inches or a foot long, on a sheet of asbestos paper or a wooden board. When one end of the train is ignited, the whole of it appears to burn at one time, for the flame travels along it faster than the eye can follow. Commercial black powder is an extremely intimate mixture; the rate of its burning is evidence of the effect of intimacy of contact upon the rate of a chemical reaction. The same materials, mixed together as intimately as it is possible to mix them in the laboratory, will burn much more slowly.

Six parts by weight of potassium nitrate, one of sulfur (roll brimstone), and one of soft wood (willow) charcoal are powdered separately and passed through a silk bolting-cloth. They are then mixed, ground together in a mortar, and again passed through the cloth; and this process is repeated. The resulting mixture, made into a train, burns fairly rapidly but by no means in a single flash. The experiment is most convincing if a train of commercial black powder leads into a train of this laboratory powder, and the black powder is ignited by means of a piece of *black match* leading from the end of the train and extending beyond the edge of the surface on which the powder is placed. The

black match may be ignited easily by a flame, whereas black powder on a flat surface is often surprisingly difficult to light.

Black match may be made conveniently by twisting three or four strands of fine soft cotton twine together, impregnating the resulting cord with a paste made by moistening *meal powder*<sup>1</sup> with water, wiping off the excess of the paste, and drying while the cord is stretched over a frame. A slower-burning black match may be made from the laboratory powder described above, and is satisfactory for experiments with explosives. The effect of temperature on the rate of a chemical reaction may be demonstrated strikingly by introducing a 12-inch length of black match into a 10-inch glass or paper tube (which need not fit it tightly); when the match is ignited, it burns in the open air at a moderate rate, but, as soon as the fire reaches the point where the tube prevents the escape of heat, the flame darts through the tube almost instantaneously, and the gases generally shoot the burning match out of the tube.

Cuprous acetylide, of which only a very small quantity may be prepared safely at one time, is procured by bubbling acetylene into an ammoniacal solution of cuprous chloride. It precipitates as a brick-red powder. The powder is collected on a small paper filter and washed with water. About 0.1 gram of the material, still moist, is transferred to a small iron crucible—the rest of the cuprous acetylide ought to be destroyed by dissolving in dilute nitric acid—and the crucible is placed on a triangle over a small flame. As soon as the material has dried out, it explodes, with a loud report, causing a dent in the bottom of the crucible.

A 4-inch filter paper is folded as if for filtration, about a gram of FFF black powder is introduced, a 3-inch piece of black match is inserted, and the paper is twisted in such manner as to hold the powder together in one place in contact with the end of the match. The black match is lighted and the package is dropped, conveniently, into an empty pail. The powder burns with a hissing sound, but there is no explosion for the powder was not really confined. The same experiment with about 1 gram of potassium picrate gives a loud explosion. All metallic picrates are primary explosives, those of the alkali metals being the least violent. Potassium picrate may be prepared by dissolving potassium carbonate in a convenient amount of water, warming almost to boiling, adding picric acid in small portions at a time as long as it dissolves with effervescence, cooling the solution, and collecting the crystals and drying them by exposure to the air. For safety's sake,

<sup>1</sup> Corning mill dust, the most finely divided and intimately incorporated black powder which it is possible to procure. Lacking this, black sporting powder may be ground up in small portions at a time in a porcelain mortar.

quantities of more than a few grams ought to be kept under water, in which the substance is only slightly soluble at ordinary temperatures.

About a gram of trinitrotoluene or of picric acid is heated in a porcelain crucible. The substance first melts and gives off combustible vapors which burn when a flame is applied but go out when the flame is removed. A small quantity of trinitrotoluene, say 0.1 gram, may actually be sublimed if heated cautiously in a test tube. If heated quickly and strongly, it decomposes or explodes mildly with a "zishing" sound and with the liberation of soot.

One gram of powdered picric acid and as much by volume of litharge (PbO) are mixed carefully on a piece of paper by turning the powders over upon themselves (not by stirring). The mixture is then poured in a small heap in the center of a clean iron sand-bath dish. This is set upon a tripod, a lighted burner is placed beneath it, and the operator retires to a distance. As soon as the picric acid melts and lead picrate forms, the material explodes with an astonishing report. The dish is badly dented or possibly punctured.

### A Complete Round of Ammunition

The manner in which explosives of all three classes are brought into use will be made clearer by a consideration of the things

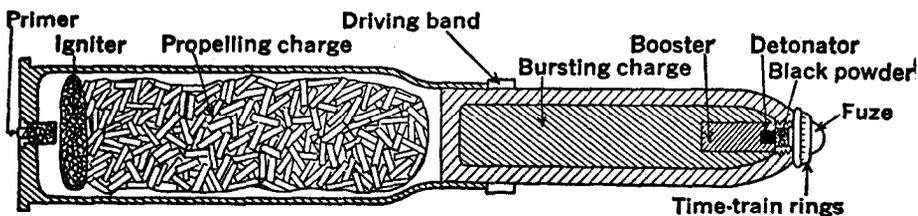


FIGURE 1. Diagram of an Assembled Round of High-Explosive Ammunition. The picture is diagrammatic, for the purpose of illustrating the functions of the various parts, and does not correspond exactly to any particular piece of ammunition.

which happen when a round of H.E. (high-explosive) ammunition is fired. The brass cartridge case, the steel shell with its copper driving band and the fuze screwed into its nose are represented diagrammatically in the accompanying sketch. Note the spelling of fuze: a fuze is a device for initiating the explosion of high-explosive shells or of bombs, shrapnel, mines, grenades, etc.; a fuse is a device for communicating fire. In cases where the shell is expected to penetrate armor plate or other obstruction, and not to explode until after it has penetrated its target, the nose

of the shell is pointed and of solid steel, and the fuze is screwed into the base of the shell—a base-detonating fuze. The fuze which we wish here to discuss is a point combination fuze, *point* because it is at the nose of the shell, and *combination* because it is designed to explode the shell either after a definite interval of flight or immediately on impact with the target.

The impact of the *firing pin* or trigger upon the *primer cap* in the base of the cartridge case produces fire, a quick small spurt of flame which sets fire to the black powder which is also within the primer. This sets fire to the powder or, in the case of bagged charges, to the *igniter*—and this produces a large hot flame which sweeps out into the chamber of the gun or cartridge, sweeps around the large grains of smokeless powder, and sets fire to them all over their surface. In a typical case the primer cap contains a mixture of mercury fulminate with antimony sulfide and potassium chlorate. The fulminate explodes when the mixture is crushed; it produces fire, and the other ingredients of the composition maintain the fire for a short interval. The igniter bag in our diagram is a silk bag containing black powder which takes fire readily and burns rapidly. The igniter and the bag containing the smokeless powder are made from silk because silk either burns or goes out—and leaves no smoldering residue in the barrel of the gun after the shot has been fired. For different guns and among different nations the igniters are designed in a variety of ways, many of which are described in the books which deal with guns, gunnery, and ammunition. Sometimes the igniter powder is contained in an integral part of the cartridge case. For small arms no igniter is needed; the primer ignites the propellant. For large guns no cartridge case is used; the projectile and the propelling charge are loaded from the breech, the igniter bag being sewed or tied to the base end of the bag which contains the powder, and the *primer* being fitted in a hole in the breech-block by which the gun is closed.

The smokeless powder in our diagram is a dense, progressive-burning, colloid straight nitrocellulose powder, in cylindrical grains with one or with seven longitudinal perforations. The flame from the igniter lights the grains, both on the outer surfaces which commence to burn inward and in the perforations which commence to enlarge, burning outward. The burning at first is slow. As the pressure increases, the projectile starts to move.

The rifling in the barrel of the gun bites into the soft copper driving band, imparting a rotation to the projectile, and the rate of rotation increases as the projectile approaches the muzzle. As heat accumulates in the chamber of the gun, the powder burns faster and faster; gas and heat and pressure are produced for some time at an accelerated rate, and the projectile acquires acceleration continuously. It has its greatest velocity at the moment when it leaves the muzzle. The greatest pressure, however, occurs at a point far back from the muzzle where the gun is of correspondingly stronger construction than at its open end. The duration of the burning of the powder depends upon its *web thickness*, that is, upon the thickness between the single central perforation and the sides of the cylindrical grain, or, in the multiperforated powders, upon the thickness between the perforations. The powder, if properly designed, is burned completely at the moment when the projectile emerges from the muzzle.

The combination fuze contains two primer caps, and devices, more or less free to move within the fuze, by which these may be fired. When the shell starts to move, everything within it undergoes *setback*, and tends to lag because of its inertia. The fuze contains a piece of metal with a point or firing pin on its rearmost end, held in place by an almost complete ring set into its sides and in the sides of the cylindrical space through which it might otherwise move freely. This, with its primer cap, constitutes the *concussion* element. The setback causes it to pull through the ring; the pin strikes the cap; fire is produced and communicates with a train of slow-burning black powder of special composition (fuze powder) the length of which has been previously adjusted by turning the *time-train rings* in the head of the fuze. The powder train, in a typical case, may burn for any particular interval up to 21 seconds, at the end of which time the fire reaches a chamber or magazine which is filled with ordinary black powder. This burns rapidly and produces a large flame which strikes through to the detonator, containing mercury fulminate or lead azide, which explodes and causes the shell to detonate while it is in flight. The head of the fuze may also be adjusted in such manner that the fire produced by the concussion element will finally burn to a dead end, and the shell in that case

will explode only in consequence of the action of the *percussion* element when it hits the target.

When the shell strikes any object and loses velocity, everything within it still tends to move forward. The percussion element consists of a metal cylinder, free to move backward and forward through a short distance, and of a primer cap, opposite the forward end of the cylinder and set into the metal in such fashion that the end of the cylinder cannot quite touch it. If this end of the cylinder should carry a firing pin, then it would fire the cap, and this might happen if the shell were dropped accidentally—with unfortunate results. When the shell starts to move in the gun, the cylinder lags back in the short space which is allotted to it. The shell rotates during flight. Centrifugal force, acting upon a mechanism within the cylinder, causes a firing pin to rise up out of its forward end. The fuze becomes *armed*. When the shell meets an obstacle, the cylinder rushes forward, the pin strikes the cap, fire is produced and communicates directly to the black powder magazine and to the detonator—and the shell is exploded forthwith.

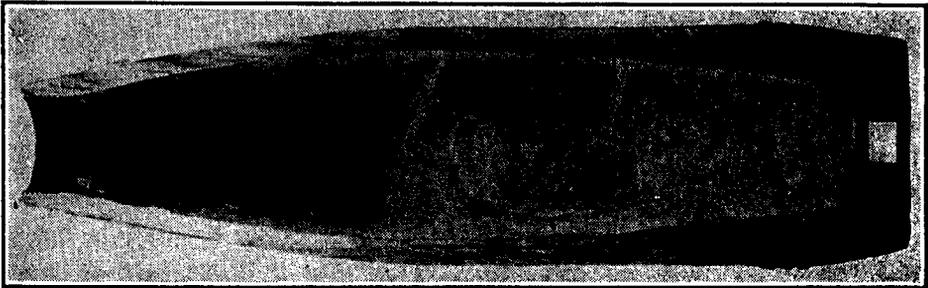


FIGURE 2. Cross Section of a 155-mm. High-Explosive Shell Loaded with TNT.

The high explosive in the shell must be so insensitive that it will tolerate the shock of setback without exploding. Trinitrotoluene (TNT) is generally considered to be satisfactory for all military purposes, except for armor-piercing shells. The explosive must be tightly packed within the shell. There must be no cavities, lest the setback cause the explosive to move violently across the gap and to explode prematurely while the shell is still within the barrel of the gun, or as is more likely, to pull away from the detonator and fail to be exploded by it.

Trinitrotoluene, which melts below the boiling point of water,

is generally loaded by pouring the liquid explosive into the shell. Since the liquid contracts when it freezes, and in order to prevent cavities, the shell standing upon its base is supplied at its open end with a paper funnel, like the neck of a bottle, and the liquid TNT is poured until the shell and the paper funnel are both full. After the whole has cooled, the funnel and any TNT which is in it are removed, and the space for the *booster* is bored out with a drill. Cast TNT is not exploded by the explosion of fulminate, which, however, does cause the explosion of granular and compressed TNT. The explosion of granular TNT will initiate the explosion of cast TNT, and the granular material may be used as a booster for that purpose. In practice, tetryl is generally preferred as a booster for military use. It is more easily detonated than TNT, more brisant, and a better initiator. Boosters are used even with high explosives which are detonated by fulminate, for they make it possible to get along with smaller quantities of this dangerous material.

### Propagation of Explosion

When black powder burns, the first portion to receive the fire undergoes a chemical reaction which results in the production of hot gas. The gas, tending to expand in all directions from the place where it is produced, warms the next portion of black powder to the *kindling* temperature. This then takes fire and burns with the production of more hot gas which raises the temperature of the next adjacent material. If the black powder is confined, the pressure rises, and the heat, since it cannot escape, is communicated more rapidly through the mass. Further, the gas- and heat-producing chemical reaction, like any other chemical reaction, doubles its rate for every  $10^{\circ}$  (approximate) rise of temperature. In a confined space the combustion becomes extremely rapid, but it is still believed to be combustion in the sense that it is a phenomenon dependent upon the transmission of heat.

The explosion of a primary explosive or of a high explosive, on the other hand, is believed to be a phenomenon which is dependent upon the transmission of pressure or, perhaps more properly, upon the transmission of shock.<sup>2</sup> Fire, friction, or shock,

<sup>2</sup> The effects of static pressure and of the rate of production of the pressure have not yet been studied much, nor is there information concerning the pressures which occur within the mass of the explosive while it is exploding.

acting upon, say, fulminate, in the first instance cause it to undergo a rapid chemical transformation which produces hot gas, and the transformation is so rapid that the advancing front of the mass of hot gas amounts to a wave of pressure capable of initiating by its shock the explosion of the next portion of fulminate. This explodes to furnish additional shock which explodes the next adjacent portion of fulminate, and so on, the explosion advancing through the mass with incredible quickness. In a standard No. 6 blasting cap the explosion proceeds with a velocity of about 3500 meters per second.

If a sufficient quantity of fulminate is exploded in contact with trinitrotoluene, the shock induces the trinitrotoluene to explode, producing a shock adequate to initiate the explosion of a further portion. The explosive wave traverses the trinitrotoluene with a velocity which is actually greater than the velocity of the initiating wave in the fulminate. Because this sort of thing happens, the application of the principle of the booster is possible. If the quantity of fulminate is not sufficient, the trinitrotoluene either does not detonate at all or detonates incompletely and only part way into its mass. For every high explosive there is a minimum quantity of each primary explosive which is needed to secure its certain and complete denotation. The best initiator for one high explosive is not necessarily the best initiator for another. A high explosive is generally not its own best initiator unless it happens to be used under conditions in which it is exploding with its maximum *velocity of detonation*.

### Detonating Fuse

Detonating fuse consists of a narrow tube filled with high explosive. When an explosion is initiated at one end by means of a detonator, the explosive wave travels along the fuse with a high velocity and causes the detonation of other high explosives which lie in its path. Detonating fuse is used for procuring the almost simultaneous explosion of a number of charges.

Detonating fuse is called *cordeau détonant* in the French language, and *cordeau* has become the common American designation for it. Cordeau has been made from lead tubes filled with trinitrotoluene, from aluminum or block tin tubes filled with picric acid, and from tubes of woven fabric filled with nitrocellulose or with pentaerythrite tetranitrate (PETN). In this country the Ensign-Bickford Company, at Simsbury, Connecticut, manufac-

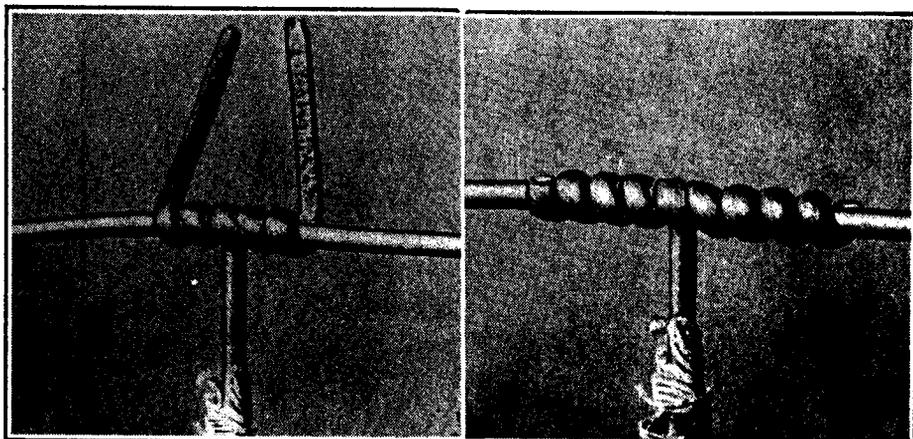
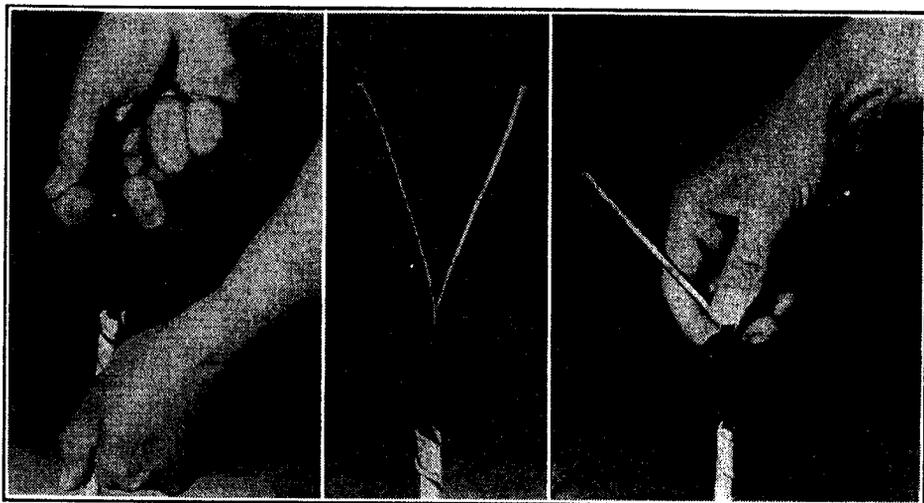
tures *Cordeau-Bickford*, a lead tube filled with TNT, and *Primacord-Bickford*,<sup>3</sup> a tube of waterproof textile filled with finely powdered PETN. The cordeau is made by filling a large lead pipe (about 1 inch in diameter) with molten TNT, allowing to cool, and drawing down in the manner that wire is drawn. The finished tube is tightly packed with finely divided crystalline TNT. Cordeau-Bickford detonates with a velocity of about 5200 meters per second (17,056 feet or 3.23 miles), Primacord-Bickford with a velocity of about 6200 meters per second (20,350 feet or 3.85 miles). These are not the maximum velocities of detonation of the explosives in question. The velocities would be greater if the tubes were wider.

Detonating fuse is fired by means of a blasting cap held snugly and firmly against its end by a *union* of thin copper tubing crimped into place. Similarly, two ends are spliced by holding them in contact within a *coupling*. The ends ought to touch each other, or at least to be separated by not more than a very small space, for the explosive wave of the detonating fuse cannot be depended upon to throw its initiating power across a gap of much more than  $\frac{1}{8}$  inch.

When several charges are to be fired, a single main line of detonating fuse is laid and branch lines to the several charges are connected to it. The method by which a branch is connected to a main line of cordeau is shown in Figures 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. The main line is not cut or bent. The end of the branch is slit in two (with a special instrument designed for this purpose) and is opened to form a V in the point of which the main line is laid—and there it is held in place by the two halves of the slit branch cordeau, still filled with TNT, wound around it in opposite directions. The connection is made in this manner in order that the explosive wave, traveling along the main line, may strike the

<sup>3</sup> These are not to be confused with *Bickford fuse* or *safety fuse* manufactured by the same company, which consists of a central thread surrounded by a core of black powder enclosed within a tube of woven threads, surrounded by various layers of textile, waterproof material, sheathing, etc. This is *miner's fuse*, and is everywhere known as Bickford fuse after the Englishman who invented the machine by which such fuse was first woven. The most common variety burns with a velocity of about 1 foot per minute. When the fire reaches its end, a spurt of flame about an inch long shoots out for igniting black powder or for firing a blasting cap.

branch line squarely against the length of the column of TNT, and so provoke its detonation. If the explosive wave were traveling from the branch against the main line (as laid), it would



FIGURES 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. Method of Connecting a Branch to a Main Line of Cordeau. (Courtesy Ensign-Bickford Company.) FIGURE 3. Slitting the Branch Line. FIGURE 4. The Slit End Open. FIGURE 5. The Main Line in Place. FIGURE 6. Winding the Splice. FIGURE 7. The Finished Junction.

strike across the column of TNT and would shatter it, but would be less likely to make it explode. For connecting a branch line of Primacord, it is satisfactory to make a half hitch of the end around the main line.

A circle of detonating fuse around a tree will rapidly strip off a belt of heavy bark, a device which is sometimes useful in the

control of insect pests. If the detonating fuse is looped successively around a few blocks of TNT or cartridges of dynamite, and if these are strung around a large tree, the tree may be felled very quickly in an emergency. In military operations it may be desirable to "deny a terrain to the enemy" without occupying it oneself, and the result may be accomplished by scattering mustard gas over the area. For this purpose, perhaps during the night, a long piece of Primacord may be laid through the area, looped here and there in circles upon which tin cans of mustard gas (actually a liquid) are placed. The whole may be fired, when desired, by a single detonator, and the gas adequately dispersed.

### Velocity of Detonation

If the quantity of the primary explosive used to initiate the explosion of a high explosive is increased beyond the minimum necessary for that result, the velocity with which the resulting explosion propagates itself through the high explosive is correspondingly increased, until a certain optimum is reached, depending upon the physical state of the explosive, whether cast or powdered, whether compressed much or little, upon the width of the column and the strength of the material which confines it, and of course upon the particular explosive which is used. By proper adjustment of these conditions, by pressing the powdered explosive to the optimum density (which must be determined by experiment) in steel tubes of sufficiently large diameter, and by initiating the explosion with a large enough charge of dynamite or other booster (itself exploded by a blasting cap), it is possible to secure the maximum velocity of detonation. This ultimate maximum is of less interest to workers with explosives than the maximum found while experimenting with paper cartridges, and it is the latter maximum which is generally reported. The physical state and density of the explosive, and the temperature at which the determinations were made, must also be noted if the figures for the velocity of detonation are to be reproducible.

Velocities of detonation were first measured by Berthelot and Vieille,<sup>4</sup> who worked first with gaseous explosives and later with liquids and solids. They used a Boulengé chronograph the precision of which was such that they were obliged to employ long

<sup>4</sup> Berthelot, "Sur la force des matières explosives," 2 vols., third edition, Paris, 1883, Vol. 1, p. 133. Cf. *Mém. poudres*, 4, 7 (1891).

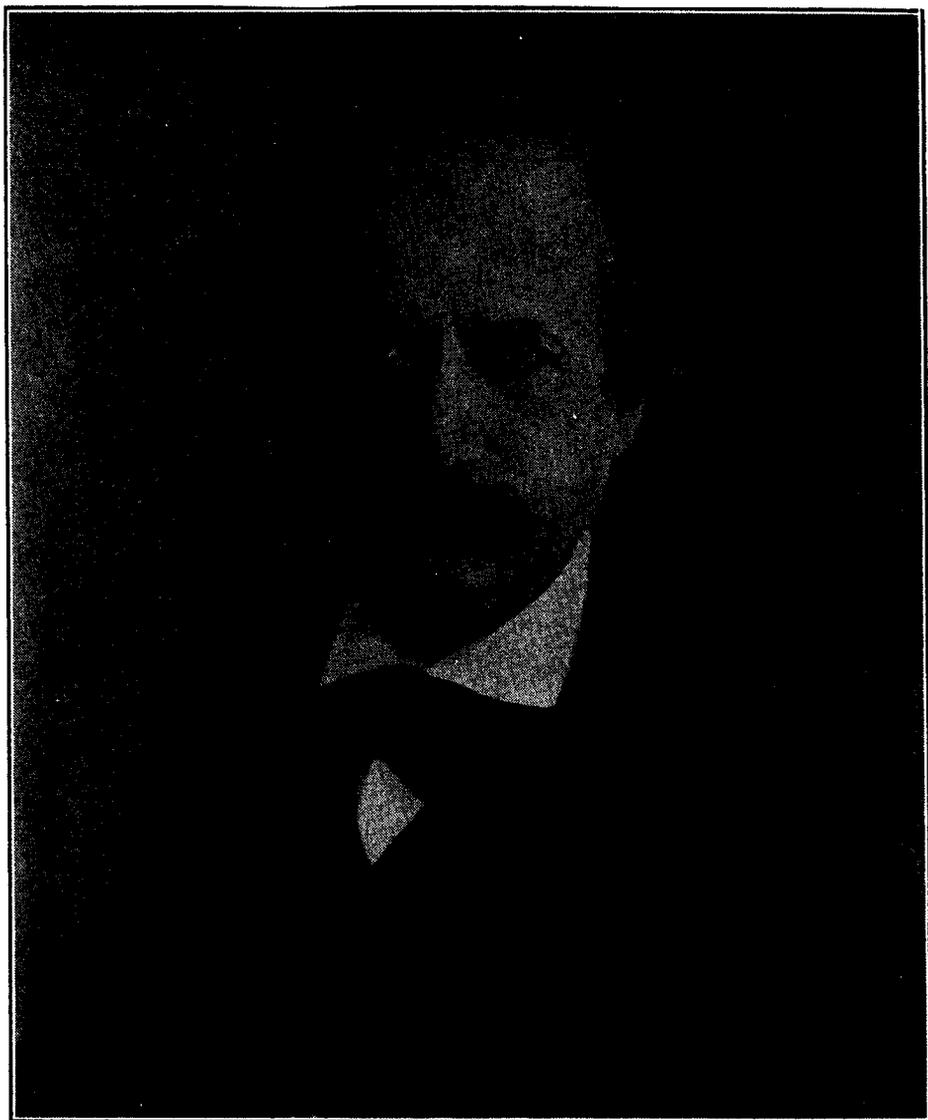


FIGURE 8. Pierre-Eugène Marcellin Berthelot (1827-1907) (Photo by P. Nadar, Paris). Founder of thermochemistry and the science of explosives. He synthesized acetylene and benzene from their elements, and alcohol from ethylene, studied the polyatomic alcohols and acids, the fixation of nitrogen, the chemistry of agriculture, and the history of Greek, Syriac, Arabic, and medieval chemistry. He was a Senator of France, Minister of Public Instruction, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, and is buried in the Panthéon at Paris.

columns of the explosives. The Mettegang recorder now commonly used for these measurements is an instrument of greater precision and makes it possible to work with much shorter cartridges of the explosive materials. This apparatus consists essentially of a strong, well-turned and balanced, heavy cylinder of steel which is rotated by an electric motor at a high but exactly known velocity. The velocity of its smoked surface relative to a platinum point which almost touches it may be as much as 100 meters per second. The explosive to be tested is loaded in a cylindrical cartridge. At a known distance apart two thin copper wires are passed through the explosive at right angles to the axis of the cartridge. If the explosive has been cast, the wires are bound tightly to its surface. Each of the wires is part of a closed circuit through an inductance, so arranged that, when the circuit is broken, a spark passes between the platinum point and the steel drum of the chronograph. The spark makes a mark upon the smoked surface. When the explosive is now fired by means of a detonator at the end of the cartridge, first one and then the other of the two wires is broken by the explosion, and two marks are made on the rotating drum. The distance between these marks is measured with a micrometer microscope. The duration of time which corresponds to the movement of the surface of the rotating drum through this distance is calculated, and this is the time which was required for the detonation of the column of known length of explosive which lay between the two wires. From this, the velocity of detonation in meters per second is computed easily.

Since a chronograph is expensive and time-consuming to use, the much simpler method of Dautriche,<sup>5</sup> which depends upon a comparison of the unknown with a standard previously measured by the chronograph, finds wide application. Commercial cordeau is remarkably uniform. An accurately measured length, say 2 meters, of cordeau of known velocity of detonation is taken, its midpoint is marked, and its ends are inserted into the cartridge of the explosive which is being tested, at a known distance apart, like the copper wires in the absolute method (Figure 9). The middle portion of the loop of cordeau is made straight and is laid upon a sheet of lead (6-8 mm. thick), the marked midpoint being

<sup>5</sup> *Mém. poudres*, 14, 216 (1907); *Comp. rend.*, 143, 641 (1906).

placed upon a line scratched in the lead plate at right angles to the direction of the cordeau. When the detonator in the end of the cartridge of explosive is fired, the explosive wave first encounters one end of the cordeau and initiates its explosion from this end, then proceeds through the cartridge, encounters the other end of the cordeau, and initiates its explosion from that end. The explosive waves from the two ends of the cordeau meet one another and mark the point of their meeting by an extra-deep, sharp furrow in the lead plate, perhaps by a hole punched

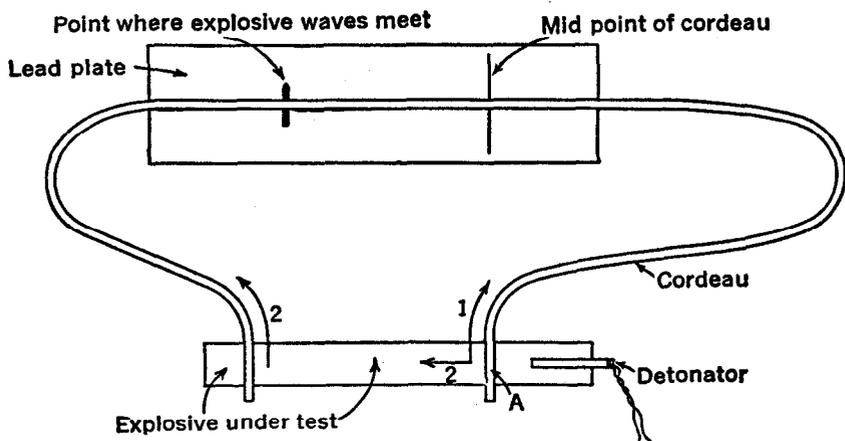


FIGURE 9. Dautriche Method of Measuring Velocity of Detonation. From the point A the explosion proceeds in two directions: (1) along the cordeau (of known velocity of detonation), and (2) through the cartridge of explosive which is being tested and then along the cordeau. When the two waves in the cordeau meet, they make a mark in the lead plate upon which the cordeau is resting.

through it. The distance of this point is measured from the line where the midpoint of the cordeau was placed. Call this distance  $d$ . It is evident that, from the moment when the near end of the cordeau started to detonate, one explosive wave traveled in the cordeau for a distance equal to one-half the length of the cordeau plus the distance  $d$ , while the other explosive wave, during the same interval of time, traveled in the explosive under examination a distance equal to the distance between the inserted ends of cordeau, then in the cordeau a distance equal to one-half its length minus the distance  $d$ . The times required for the passage of the explosive waves in the cordeau are calculated from the known velocity of detonation of the cordeau used; thence the time required for the detonation of the column of explosive which

stood between the ends of the cordeau; thence the velocity of detonation in meters per second.

Velocities of detonation have recently been measured by high-speed photography of the explosions through a slit, and by other devices in which the elapsed times are measured by means of a cathode-ray oscillograph.

### The Munroe Effect

The mark which explosive waves, traveling toward each other on the same piece of cordeau, make at the point where they meet is evidently due to the fact that they spread out sideways at the point of their encounter. Their combined forces produce an effect greater than either alone could give. The behavior of jets of water, shot against each other under high pressure, supplies a very good qualitative picture of the impact of explosive waves. If the waves meet at an angle, the resultant wave, stronger than either, goes off in a direction which could be predicted from a consideration of the parallelogram of forces. This is the explanation of the Munroe effect.

Charles Edward Munroe,<sup>6</sup> while working at the Naval Torpedo Station at Newport, discovered in 1888 that if a block of guncotton with letters countersunk into its surface is detonated with its lettered surface against a steel plate, the letters are indented into the surface of the steel. Similarly, if the letters are raised above the surface of the guncotton, by the detonation they are reproduced in relief on the steel plate, embossed and raised above the neighboring surface. In short, the greatest effects are produced on the steel plate at the points where the explosive material stands away from it, at the points precisely where explosive waves from different directions meet and reinforce each other. Munroe found that by increasing the depth of the concavity in the explosive he was able to produce greater and greater effects on the plate, until finally, with a charge which was pierced completely through, he was able to puncture a hole through it.<sup>7</sup> By introducing lace, ferns, coins, etc., between the flat surface of a

<sup>6</sup> For biographical notice by C. A. Browne, see *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, **61**, 731 (1939).

<sup>7</sup> Cf. article by Marshall, "The Detonation of Hollow Charges," *J. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, **29**, 35 (1920).

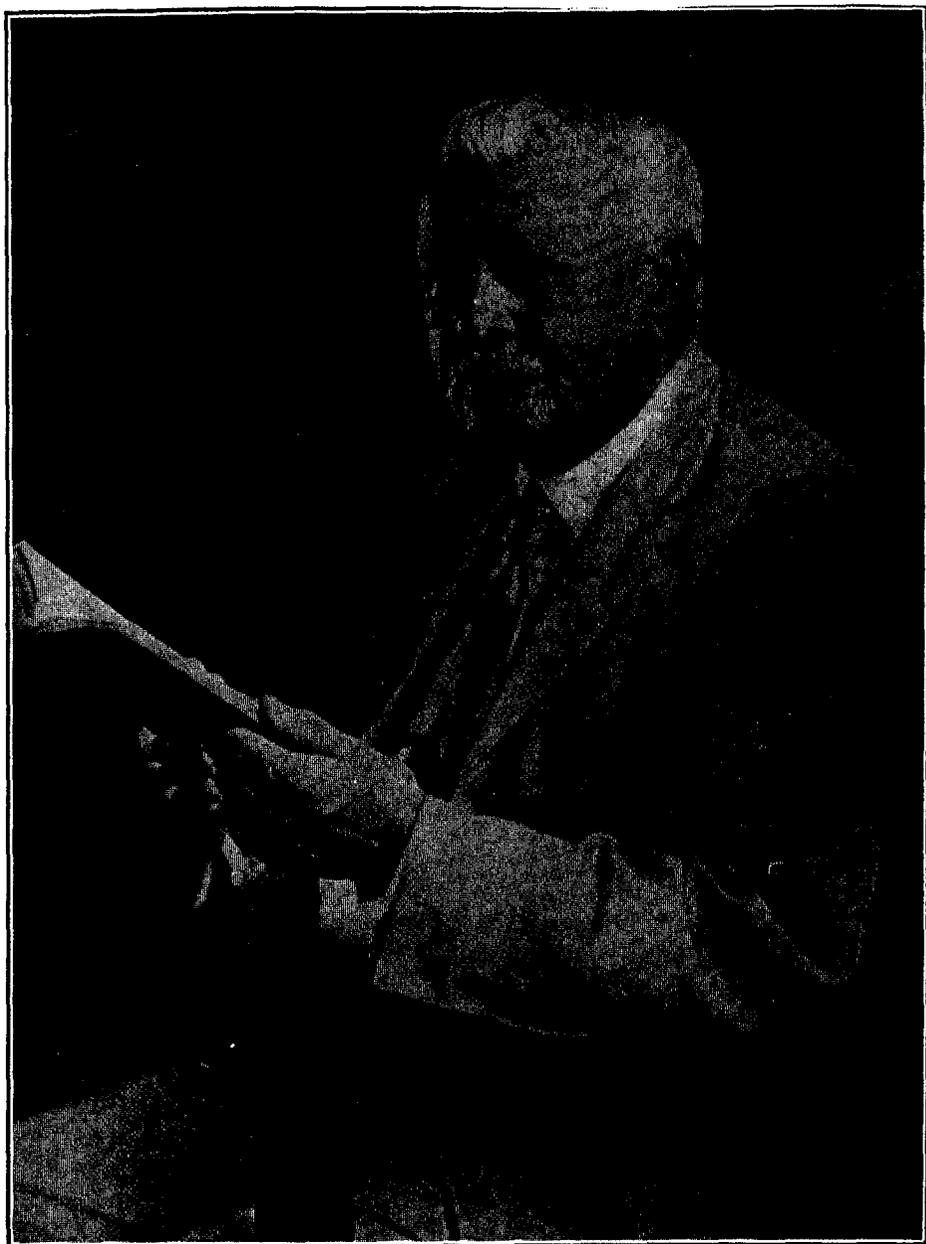


FIGURE 10. Charles Edward Munroe (1849-1938). Leader in the development of explosives in the United States. Invented *indurite*, a variety of smokeless powder, and discovered the Munroe effect. Professor of chemistry at the U. S. Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland, 1874-1886; chemist at the Naval Torpedo Station and Naval War College, Newport, Rhode Island, 1886-1892; professor of chemistry at George Washington University, 1892-1917; and chief explosives chemist of the U. S. Bureau of Mines in Washington, 1919-1933. Author and co-author of many very valuable publications of the Bureau of Mines.

block of explosive and pieces of armor plate, Munroe was able to secure embossed reproductions of these delicate materials. Several fine examples of the Munroe effect, prepared by Munroe himself, are preserved in a fire screen at the Cosmos Club in Washington.

The effect of hollowed charges appears to have been rediscovered, probably independently, by Egon Neumann, who claimed it as an original discovery, and its application in explosive technique was patented by the Westfälisch-Anhaltische Sprengstoff-

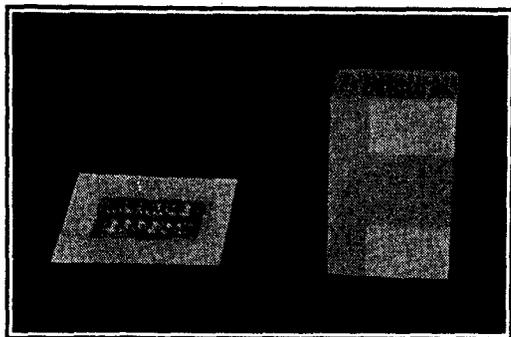


FIG. 11

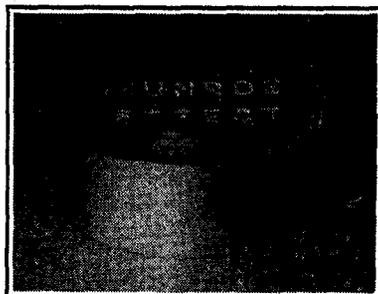


FIG. 12

FIGURES 11 and 12. Munroe Effect. (Courtesy Trojan Powder Company). FIGURE 11. Explosive Enclosed in Pasteboard Wrapper. Note that the letters incised into the surface of the explosive are in mirror writing, like words set in type, in order that the printing may be normal. A steel plate after a charge like that pictured was exploded against it, the incised surface being next to the plate. FIGURE 12. A section of steel shafting after a charge like that represented in FIGURE 11 had been exploded upon it, the incised surface of the explosive being next to the steel.

A. G. in 1910.<sup>8</sup> Neumann, working with blocks of TNT having conical indentations but not complete perforations, found that such blocks blew holes through wrought-iron plates, whereas solid blocks of greater actual weight only bent or dented them.

It has been recommended that torpedoes be loaded with charges hollowed in their forward ends. Advantage is taken of the Munroe effect in the routine blasting of oil wells, and, intentionally or not, by every explosives engineer who initiates an explosion by means of two or more electric blasting caps, fired simultaneously, at different positions within the same charge.

<sup>8</sup> Ger. Pat. Anm. W. 36,269 (1910); Brit. Pat. 28,030 (1911). Neumann, *Z. angew. Chem.*, 2238 (1911); *Z. ges. Schiess- u. Sprengstoffw.*, 183 (1914).

## Sensitivity Tests

Among the important tests which are made on explosives are the determinations of their sensitivity to impact and to temperature, that is, of the distance through which a falling weight must drop upon them to cause them to explode or to inflame, and of the temperatures at which they inflame, explode, or "puff" spontaneously. At different places different machines and apparatus are used, and the numerical results differ in consequence from laboratory to laboratory.

For the falling weight or *impact* or *drop test* a 2-kilogram weight is generally used. In a typical apparatus the explosive undergoing the test is contained in a hole in a steel block, a steel plunger or piston is pressed down firmly upon it, and it is directly upon this plunger that the weight is dropped. A fresh sample is taken each time, and material which has not exploded from a single impact is discarded. A drop of 2 to 4 cm. will explode mercury fulminate, one of about 70 to 80 cm. will cause the inflammation of black powder, and one of 60 to 180 cm. will cause the explosion of TNT according to the physical state of the sample.

For determining the *temperature of ignition*, a weighed amount of the material is introduced into a copper capsule (a blasting cap shell) and this is thrust into a bath of Wood's metal previously heated to a known temperature. If no explosion occurs within 5 seconds (or other definite interval), the sample is removed, the temperature of the bath is raised  $5^{\circ}$  (usually), and a fresh sample in a fresh copper capsule is tried. Under these conditions (that is, within a 5-second interval), 4F black powder takes fire at  $190^{\circ} \pm 5^{\circ}$ , and 30-caliber straight nitrocellulose smokeless powder at  $315^{\circ} \pm 5^{\circ}$ . In another method of carrying out the test, the capsule containing the explosive is introduced into the metal bath at  $100^{\circ}$ , the temperature is raised at a steady and regulated rate, and the temperature at which the explosive decomposition occurs is noted. When the temperature is raised more rapidly, the inflammation occurs at a higher temperature, as indicated by the following table.<sup>9</sup> The fact that explosives are more sensitive to shock and to friction when they are warm is doubtless due to the same ultimate causes.

<sup>9</sup> van Duin, Dissertation, Utrecht, 1918, p. 89. The experiments were carried out with 0.1-gram samples in glass tubes.

	TEMPERATURE OF IGNITION	
	Heated from 100°	
	at 20° per minute	at 5° per minute
Trinitrotoluene.....	321°	304°
Picric acid.....	316°	309°
Tetryl.....	196°	187°
Hexanitrodiphenylamine.....	258°	250°
Hexanitrodiphenyl sulfide.....	319°	302°
Hexanitrodiphenyl sulfone.....	308°	297°

Substances like trinitrotoluene, picric acid, and tetryl, which are intrinsically stable at ordinary temperatures, decompose slowly if they are heated for considerable periods of time at temperatures below those at which they inflame. This, of course, is a matter of interest, but it is a property of all samples of the substance, does not vary greatly between them, and is not made the object of routine testing. Nitrocellulose and many nitric esters, however, appear to be intrinsically unstable, subject to a spontaneous decomposition which is generally slow but may be accelerated greatly by the presence of impurities in the sample. For this reason, nitrocellulose and smokeless powder are regularly subjected to *stability tests* for the purpose, not of establishing facts concerning the explosive in question, but rather for determining the quality of the particular sample.<sup>10</sup>

<sup>10</sup> The routine tests which are carried out on military explosives are described in U. S. War Department Technical Manual TM9-2900, "Military Explosives." The testing of explosives for sensitivity, explosive power, etc., is described in the *Bulletins* and *Technical Papers* of the U. S. Bureau of Mines. The student of explosives is advised to secure from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., a list of the publications of the Bureau of Mines, and then to supply himself with as many as may be of interest, for they are sold at very moderate prices. The following are especially recommended. Several of these are now no longer procurable from the Superintendent of Documents, but they may be found in many libraries.

*Bull.* 15. "Investigations of Explosives Used in Coal Mines," by Clarence Hall, W. O. Snelling, and S. P. Howell.

*Bull.* 17. "A Primer on Explosives for Coal Miners," by Charles E. Munroe and Clarence Hall.

*Bull.* 48. "The Selection of Explosives Used in Engineering and Mining Operations," by Clarence Hall and Spencer P. Howell.

*Bull.* 59. "Investigations of Detonators and Electric Detonators," by Clarence Hall and Spencer P. Howell.

*Bull.* 66. "Tests of Permissible Explosives," by Clarence Hall and Spencer P. Howell.

### Tests of Explosive Power and Brisance

For estimating the total energy of an explosive, a test in the manometric bomb probably supplies the most satisfactory single indication. It should be remembered that total energy and actual effectiveness are different matters. The effectiveness of an explosive depends in large part upon the rate at which its energy is liberated.

The high pressures developed by explosions were first measured by means of the Rodman gauge, in which the pressure caused a hardened-steel knife edge to penetrate into a disc of soft copper. The depth of penetration was taken as a measure of the pressure to which the apparatus had been subjected. This gauge was improved by Nobel, who used a copper cylinder placed between a fixed and a movable steel piston. Such *crusher gauges* are at present used widely, both for measuring the maximum pressures produced by explosions within the confined space of the manometric bomb and for determining the pressures which exist in the barrels of guns during the proof firing of powder. The small copper cylinders are purchased in large and uniform lots, their deformations under static pressures are determined and plotted in a chart, and the assumption is made that the sudden pressures resulting from explosions produce the same deformations as static pressures of the same magnitudes. Piezoelectric gauges, in which the pressure on a tourmaline crystal or on discs of quartz produces an electromotive force, have been used in work with manometric bombs and for measuring the pressures which exist in the chambers of guns. Other gauges, which depend

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*Bull.* 80. "A Primer on Explosives for Metal Miners and Quarrymen," by Charles E. Munroe and Clarence Hall.

*Bull.* 346. "Physical Testing of Explosives at the Bureau of Mines Explosives Experiment Station, Bruceton, Pa.," by Charles E. Munroe and J. E. Tiffany.

*Tech. Paper* 125. "The Sand Test for Determining the Strength of Detonators," by C. G. Storm and W. C. Cope.

*Tech. Paper* 234. "Sensitiveness of Explosives to Frictional Impact," by S. P. Howell.

On this subject the book "Testing Explosives" by C. E. Bichel, English translation by A. Larnsen, London, 1905, will be found of value, as will also the book of Berthelot, already cited, and many important papers in *Mémorial des poudres* and *Zeitschrift für das gesamte Schiess- und Sprengstoffwesen*.

upon the change of electrical resistance of a conducting wire, are beginning to find application.

The manometric bomb is strongly constructed of steel and has a capacity which is known accurately. In order that the pressure resulting from the explosion may have real significance, the *density of loading*, that is, the number of grams of explosive per cubic centimeter of volume, must also be reported. The pressures produced by the same explosive in the same bomb are in general not directly proportional to the density of loading. The temperatures in the different cases are certainly different, and the compositions of the hot gaseous mixtures depend upon the pressures which exist upon them and determine the conditions of the equilibria between their components. The water in the gases can be determined, their volume and pressure can be measured at ordinary temperature, and the temperature of the explosion can be calculated roughly if the assumptions are made that the gas laws hold and that the composition of the cold gases is the same as that of the hot. If the gases are analyzed, and our best knowledge relative to the equilibria which exist between the components is assumed to be valid for the whole temperature range, then the temperature produced by the explosion can be calculated with better approximation.

Other means of estimating and comparing the capacity of explosives for doing useful work are supplied by the tests with the *ballistic pendulum*<sup>11</sup> and by the Trauzl and small lead block tests. The first of these is useful for comparing a new commercial explosive with one which is standard; the others give indications which are of interest in describing both commercial explosives and pure explosive substances.

In the *Trauzl lead block test* (often called simply the lead block test) 10 grams of the explosive, wrapped in tinfoil and stemmed with sand, is exploded by means of an electric detonator in a cylindrical hole in the middle of a cylindrical block of lead, and the enlargement of the cavity, measured by pouring in water from a graduate and corrected for the enlargement which is ascribable to the detonator alone, is reported. For the standard test, the blocks are cast from chemically pure lead, 200 mm. in height and 200 mm. in diameter, with a central hole made by the mold, 125 mm. deep and 25 mm. in diameter. The test is

<sup>11</sup> U. S. Bur. Mines Bull. 15, pp. 79-82.

applicable only to explosives which detonate. Black powder and other explosives which burn produce but little effect, for the gases blow out the stemming and escape. The test is largely one of brisance, but for explosives of substantially equal brisance it gives some indication of their relative power. An explosive of great brisance but little power will create an almost spherical pocket at the bottom of the hole in the block, while one of less brisance and greater power will enlarge the hole throughout its

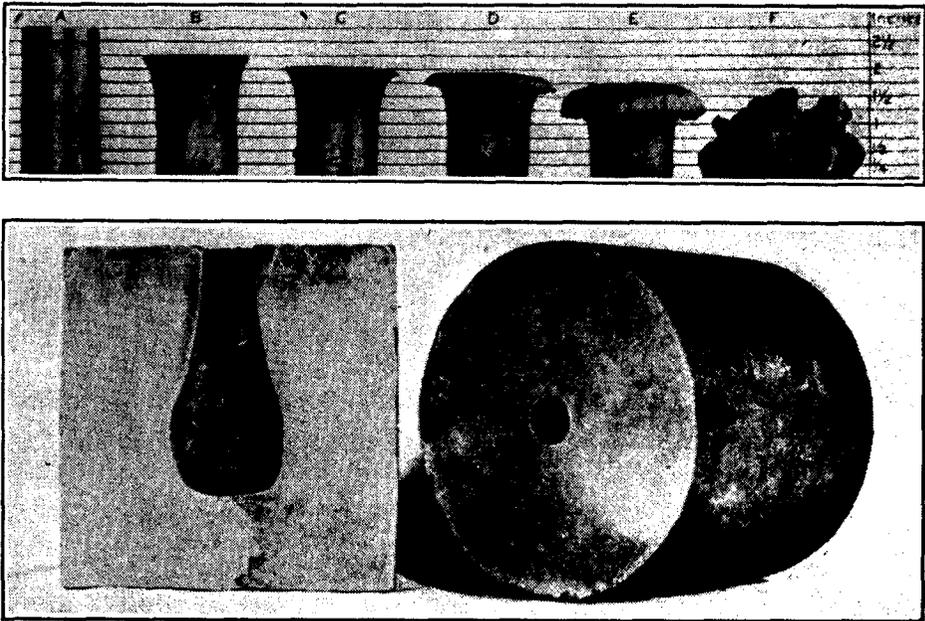


FIGURE 13. Lead Block Tests (above), and Trauzl Tests (below). (Courtesy U. S. Bureau of Mines.)

length and widen its throat at the top of the block. The form of the hole, then, as shown by sectioning the block, is not without significance. The Trauzl test does not give reliable indications with explosives which contain aluminum (such as *ammonal*) or with others which produce very high temperatures, for the hot gases erode the metal, and the results are high.

A small Trauzl block is used for testing commercial detonators.

Another test, known as the *small lead block test*, is entirely a test of brisance. As the test is conducted at the U. S. Bureau of Mines,<sup>12</sup> a lead cylinder 38 mm. in diameter and 64 mm. high is set upright upon a rigid steel support; a disc of annealed steel

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 114.

38 mm. in diameter and 6.4 mm. thick is placed upon it; a strip of manila paper wide enough to extend beyond the top of the composite cylinder and to form a container at its upper end is wrapped and secured around it; 100 grams of explosive is placed

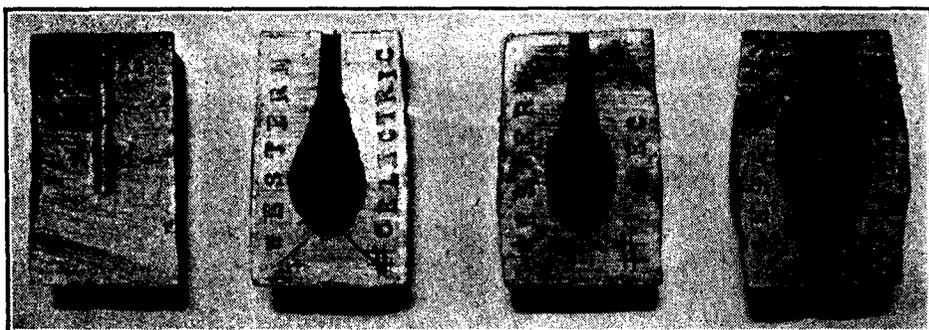


FIGURE 14. Small Trauzl Tests of Detonators. (Courtesy Western Cartridge Company.)

in this container and fired, without tamping, by means of an electric detonator. The result is reported as the compression of the lead block, that is, as the difference between its height before and its height after the explosion. The steel disc receives the force of the explosion and transmits it to the lead cylinder. With-

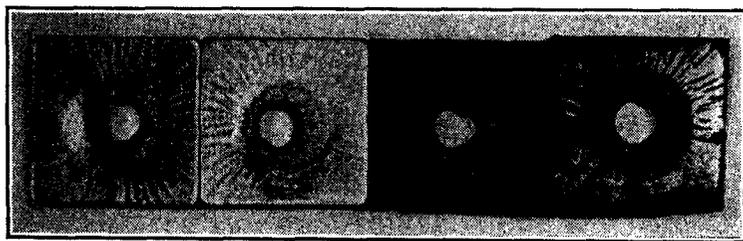


FIGURE 15. Aluminum Plate and Lead Plate Tests of Detonators. (Courtesy Atlas Powder Company.)

out it, the lead cylinder would be so much deformed that its height could not be measured.

In the *lead plate test of detonators*, the detonator is fired while standing upright on a plate of pure lead. Plates 2 to 6 mm. thick are used; most commonly 3 mm. A good detonator makes a clean-cut hole through the lead. The metal of the detonator case is blown into small fragments which make fine and characteristic markings on the lead plate radiating away from the place where

the detonator stood. With a good detonator, the surface of the lead plate ought to show no places where it has been torn roughly

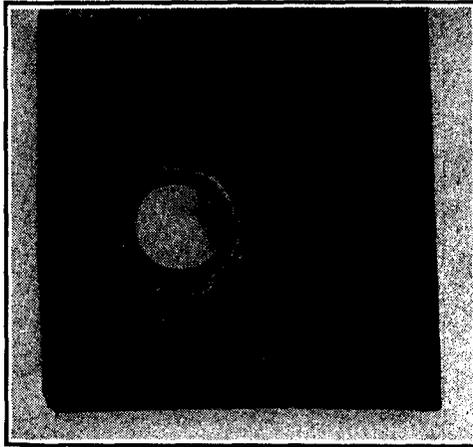


FIGURE 16. Effect of Detonator on Lead Plate 10 cm. Distant from Its End. The diameter of the hole is about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the diameter of the detonator which was fired. The lead has splashed up around the hole in much the same fashion as placid water splashes when a pebble is dropped into it. Note the numerous small splashes on the lead plate where it was struck by fragments of the detonator casing.

by large fragments of the case. Similar tests are often carried out with plates of aluminum.