

Structural Response of Composite Sandwich Panels Impacted With and Without Compression Loading

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The results of an experimental study of the impact damage characteristics and residual strength of composite sandwich panels impacted with and without a compression loading are presented. Results of impact damage screening tests conducted to identify the impact-energy levels at which damage initiates and barely visible impact damage occurs in the impacted facesheet are discussed. Parametric effects studied in these tests include the impactor diameter and dropped-weight vs airgun-launched impactors. Residual strength results of panels tested in compression after impact are presented and compared with results of panels that are subjected to a compressive preload prior to being impacted.

Introduction

SANDWICH structures have been used extensively in stiffness-critical aircraft secondary structures. The application of sandwich structures in aircraft primary structures has been limited mainly because of its undesirable moisture absorption and retention characteristics, and because of an insufficient understanding of the effects of various types of damage on the structural response of sandwich structures. One such source of damage is caused by impact events that result from dropped tools during manufacturing and from runway debris and hailstones during service. Sandwich structures have the potential for improved structural efficiency and reduced manufacturing cost. This potential can be further increased by using advanced composite material systems and architecture to construct the facesheets of the sandwich structure. These advantages will make composite facesheet sandwich concepts very attractive for application to aircraft primary structures^{1,2} if the low-speed impact damage tolerance issues for this type of structure can be understood and resolved.

Most of the reported experimental research on the impact of sandwich plates was conducted to determine the effectiveness of different core materials, to study the influence of different facesheet materials and stacking sequences on damage resistance, to simulate impact tests using static indentation tests, to identify the damage modes due to impact, and to determine the compressive or tensile residual strength and failure modes associated with final failure.^{3–7} The two main damage tolerance issues associated with sandwich structure that need to be addressed are the criterion for visible impact damage and the effect of impacting a preloaded structure on its residual strength. The existing visible impact-damage criterion for thick monolithic laminates is a 0.1-in. dent depth or 100 ft-lb of impact energy. This criterion has been used successfully for thick laminated structures such as wing cover panels. Sandwich structures that are proposed to be used in commercial transport aircraft fuselage or wing structures use facesheets that are 8–16 plies (0.04–0.08 in.) thick in a large part of the structure for which a 0.1-in. dent depth corresponds to a penetration. Reference 4 indicates that

a dent depth of 0.1 in. is not an appropriate criterion for visible impact damage for 8- to 16-ply-thick facesheet sandwich plates. A 0.05-in. dent depth has been identified as a potential visible damage criterion in Ref. 8 for relatively thick facesheet (up to 36 plies thick) sandwich structures. A similar criterion that can be used for field-service inspections of transport aircraft made from thin facesheet (8–12 plies thick) composite structures is needed. This criterion must be applicable for different impactor diameters, facesheet ply-stacking sequences, impactor masses, sandwich core densities, and impact sites away from the center of the panel. The results from this study may be used to establish the damage tolerance criteria for thin facesheet sandwich structures.

The current practice for determining damage tolerance of structures with skin-stringer construction is to impact the unloaded skin laminate and then load it to failure in compression to determine its residual strength. This approach is acceptable for thick monolithic laminates such as those studied in Ref. 9, where the residual strength results for specimens impacted while preloaded and then loaded to failure do not differ significantly from the results obtained from compression-after-impact (CAI) tests for impact-energy levels of practical interest. Similar data are needed for sandwich structures. The study of Ref. 7 addressed the influence of compression preload on the residual strength of impact-damaged sandwich plates. This work, which was limited to $(\frac{9}{16})$ s graphite-epoxy facesheet sandwich beam specimens, suggested that these 3.0-in.-wide sandwich beams fail on impact while preloaded in compression at more than 40% of the undamaged specimen compression failure load. At the visible damage threshold, which was identified to occur for this sandwich panel at 0.88 ft-lb of impact energy,⁷ the ratio of the preload to the undamaged specimen failure load was determined to be 0.52. Finite width effects influence the impact damage characteristics, the failure strength, and the failure mode of structures. Thus, there is a need for studying the residual strength of compression-loaded sandwich plates with more practical facesheet stacking sequences and with a well-quantified visible damage criterion to better understand the behavior of preloaded sandwich structures subjected to low-speed impact in service.

This paper presents and discusses results of a series of impact-damage screening tests and an experimental study of the CAI and impact-under-load responses of composite facesheet sandwich panels subjected to low-speed impact damage.¹⁰ The impact-damage screening tests establish the impact-energy levels for damage initiation and barely visible impact damage (BVID) for the test panels used in this study. Compression tests on panels impacted using dropped-weight and airgun-propelled impactors with predetermined impact energy levels values between damage initiation and BVID levels are conducted to obtain the CAI results. Additional impact tests with the same predetermined impact-energy levels are conducted on compression-preloaded panels. Preloaded panels that

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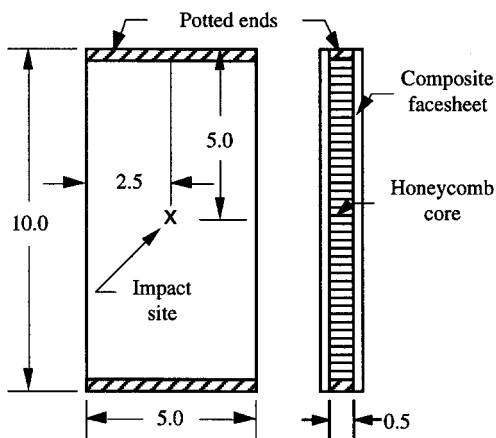
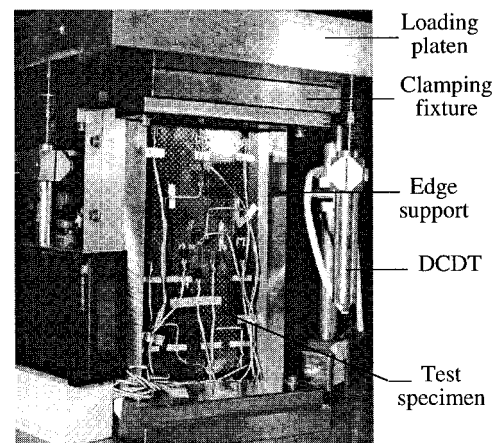
Table 1 Nominal elastic properties of AS4/8552 graphite-epoxy prepregged tape and cloth materials

Material	E_{11} , msi	E_{22} , msi	G_{12} , msi	G_{13} , msi	G_{23} , msi	ν_{12}	ν_{13}	ν_{23}	Ply thickness, in.
Tape	16.30	1.36	0.766	0.766	0.52	0.32	0.32	0.40	0.0073
Fabric	8.70	8.70	0.766	0.766	0.52	0.046	0.32	0.40	0.0078

Table 2 Test matrix and summary of failure loads

Panel	Impact energy, ft-lb	Type of impact	Dent depth, in	Damage area, in. ²	Load at impact, lb	Failure load, lb
1	Undamaged	—	—	—	—	38,500
2	1.5	Dropped weight	0.0030	0.0285	—	26,200
3	4.0	Dropped weight	0.0135	0.0873	—	22,500
4	7.0	Dropped weight	0.0501	0.0265	—	20,700
5	1.1	Airgun	0.0022	0.0160	—	27,600
6 ^a	3.8	Airgun	0.0210	0.1140	—	20,800
7	4.2	Airgun	0.0230	0.1781	—	20,400
8	6.9	Airgun	0.0450	0.3010	—	18,200
9	7.2	Airgun	—	—	8,500	18,300
10	7.5	Airgun	—	—	12,800	17,200
11	7.1	Airgun	—	—	18,000	18,000

^aProjectile did not strike center of panel; impact was repeated on panel 7; panel 6 was tested without edge supports.

**Fig. 1** Schematic diagram of a typical test specimen.**Fig. 2** Typical test setup.

survive the impact events are loaded to failure to determine their residual strength.

Test Panels, Apparatus, and Conditions

The eleven 5-in.-wide by 10-in.-long test panels of the present study were machined from a larger sandwich panel. The thin composite facesheets are 8-ply-thick laminates manufactured using Hercules, Inc., prepregged AS4/8552 graphite-epoxy tape and woven fabric materials. The facesheet laminate stacking sequence is $[O_f/45/-45/0/90/-45/45/O_f]$, where an "f" indicates a fabric ply. Nominal elastic properties of the two materials used in the facesheet laminates are given in Table 1. The core material is 0.5-in.-thick Korex[®] honeycomb core with $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. hexagonal cells and a density of 4.5 lb/ft³. The two facesheets are cobonded to the core using a film adhesive. The test matrix for the study is given in Table 2. A diagram of a typical test panel that identifies the impact site in the panel is shown in Fig. 1. The impact-energy levels selected for the CAI and the impact-under-load tests were based on the results from impact-damage screening tests.

Preparation of the test specimens is described in Ref. 10. For the CAI tests, shadow moiré interferometry was used to monitor out-of-plane displacements and to observe any local response such as delamination buckling and growth at the impact sites. The moiré fringe patterns were recorded using still and video photography. For all tests, the panels were loaded in uniaxial compression in a 120-kip-capacity hydraulic test machine. A typical test setup is shown in Fig. 2. Clamped boundary conditions were provided at the loaded edges of the panels by a steel support fixture. The unloaded edges of

the panels were supported with knife-edge supports. Surface strains were measured using electrical resistance strain gauges. Direct-current displacement transducers (DCDTs) were used to measure out-of-plane displacements of the facesheets as well as the stroke of the test machine loading platen. The axial load applied to the panels was measured using the test machine load cell. The strain gauge, DCDT, and load data were recorded using a digital data acquisition system. Data were taken at 1-s intervals while loading the panels to failure.

Impact Damage Screening Tests

The impact-damage screening samples were machined from the same panel as the test panels to establish the impact-energy levels necessary to initiate damage and to inflict BVID in the impacted facesheet. These screening tests were performed using a dropped-weight impact apparatus¹¹ and an airgun-launched impactor. Each sample was impacted after being placed into a steel support fixture with a 4.0 × 5.0 in. opening that was secured to a rigid table. The screening tests were also conducted to study the parametric effects of the impactor diameter and the location of the impact with respect to the boundaries of the samples. The latter effect is discussed in Ref. 10.

The dropped-weight impactor is a 2.5-lb weight with either a 0.5-in.- (which is a common practice) or a 1.0-in.-diam hemispherical instrumented steel tup. Justification for selecting this weight is discussed in Ref. 10. The 1.0-in.-diam tup is used to understand the sandwich panel impact response and damage characteristics for a larger tup diameter. The airgun uses a 0.5-in.-diam aluminum sphere as the impactor.

Initiation of Damage in a Facesheet

Several impacts were performed to establish the minimum impact-energy level necessary to initiate damage in the impacted facesheet of the samples. Impact-energy levels from 0.5 ft-lb to 3.0 ft-lb with energy increments of 0.5 ft-lb were used. The initiation of damage is determined from ultrasonic C-scan inspection of the impacted facesheet, as described in Ref. 10. Using C-scans of the impact-damage screening samples, damage is considered to have initiated at an impact-energy level of 1.5 ft-lb for the dropped-weight impacts using the 0.5-in.-diam tup, and at 1.0 ft-lb for the airgun impacts. The damage resulting from the dropped-weight impacts using the 1.0-in.-diam tup was considered to be negligible for impact-energy levels less than or equal to 3.0 ft-lb.

Measured values of the residual dent depth and the damaged area at each impact site are plotted as a function of the impact energy in Figs. 3 and 4, respectively, for dropped-weight impacts using both tup diameters and airgun impacts. As seen in Fig. 3, the values of dent depth for all three impact methods are very similar to each other for impact-energy levels of up to ~3.0 ft-lb. The damaged area values are also very similar for the dropped-weight impacts with a 0.5-in. tup and the airgun impacts.

Contact force profiles obtained during dropped-weight impacts using both tup diameters at impact energy levels of 1.0 and 1.5 ft-lb are presented in Fig. 5. The maximum contact force for impacts with the two tups are comparable, but the associated damage area is much smaller for the 1.0-in.-diam tup. This result is due to a larger contact area of the panel experiencing a smaller contact pressure. These

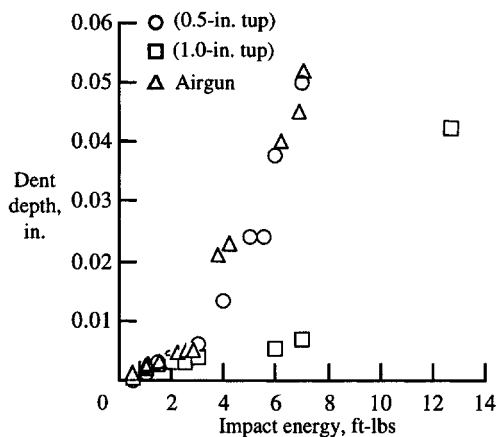


Fig. 3 Residual dent-depth values at each impact site.

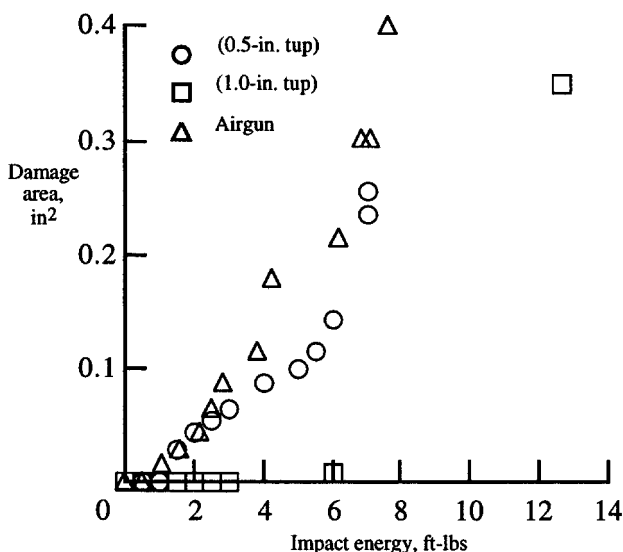


Fig. 4 Damaged area values at each impact site.

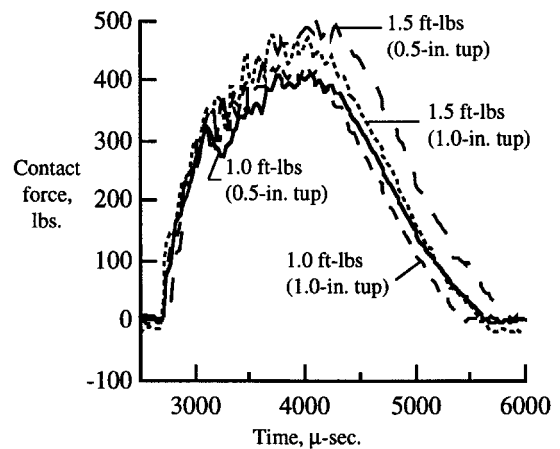


Fig. 5 Contact force profiles for dropped-weight impacts of 1.0 and 1.5 ft-lb impact energy.

results suggest that the damage resulting from dropped-weight impacts with a 0.5-in.-tup and from the airgun are very similar at these low impact-energy levels, and that a 0.5-in.-diam tup initiates damage in the facesheet at much lower values of impact energy than the 1.0-in.-diam tup.

Barely Visible Impact Damage in a Facesheet

A series of impacts was also performed to determine the impact-energy level necessary to inflict BVID in the facesheet of the sandwich panels. Impact-energy levels greater than or equal to 5.0 ft-lb were used. The criterion used for BVID in the present study is that the dent depth at the impact site should be greater than or equal to 0.05 in. This criterion was shown in Ref. 8 to be appropriate for relatively thick facesheet (up to 36 plies) sandwich structure. This criterion is being used in the present study because the results presented in Ref. 8 indicate that a significant amount of internal damage can occur in the facesheets of the sandwich before dent depths greater than or equal to the industry standard 0.1 in. occur. Before such a criterion is adopted, however, the visibility of 0.05-in.-deep dents to ramp crews performing visual inspections of the aircraft must be established. Furthermore, adopting such a criterion will result in an increase in the repair costs associated with using a composite facesheet sandwich structure on civil transport aircraft.

As shown in Fig. 3, BVID occurred for 7.0 ft-lb of impact energy for the dropped-weight impact using the 0.5-in.-diam tup and the airgun impact. However, as shown in Fig. 4, the damage area resulting from the airgun impact is slightly larger than that from the dropped-weight impact. This result is also supported by the photomicrographs shown in Fig. 6. These photomicrographs are from machined and polished sections through impact sites in two samples impacted at an impact-energy level of 7.0 ft-lb. One sample was dropped-weight impacted using a 0.5-in.-diam tup and the other sample was airgun impacted. As seen in Fig. 6, the damage resulting from the airgun impact is more severe than that resulting from the dropped-weight impact, even though the dent depths are equal and the damage areas are similar. These results indicate that as the impact-energy level increases, low-mass, high-speed airgun impacts can cause more extensive internal damage that may be difficult to detect visually. Thus, using dent depth only as a criterion for measuring the severity of impact damage in sandwich structure may not always be reliable.

Effect of Impactor Diameter on BVID

Because of height restrictions, the largest impact-energy level that can be attained with the dropped-weight apparatus using the 2.5-lb impactor used in this study is 12.7 ft-lb. The residual dent depth at this impact-energy level for an impact using the 1.0-in.-diam tup is 0.0425 in., which is slightly less than the 0.05-in. criterion used in this study. An impact at the same level of 12.7 ft-lb with the 0.5-in.-diam tup resulted in impactor penetration through the facesheet.

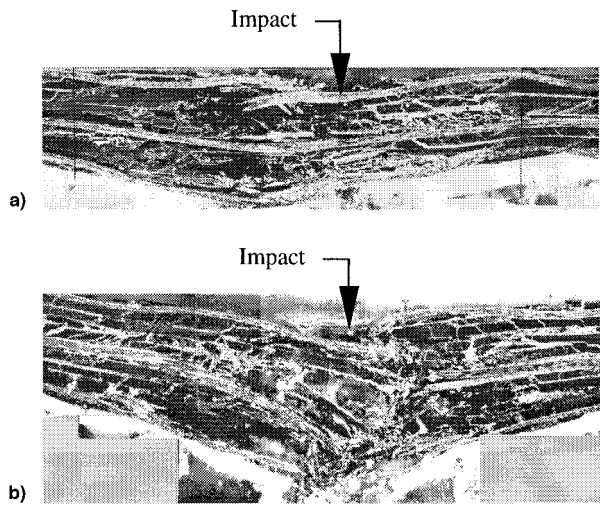


Fig. 6 Photomicrographs comparing damage state resulting from a) dropped-weight (0.5-in.-diam tup, 7.00 ft-lb of impact energy, $32\times$ magnification); and b) airgun impacts (7.10 ft-lb of impact energy, $32\times$ magnification).

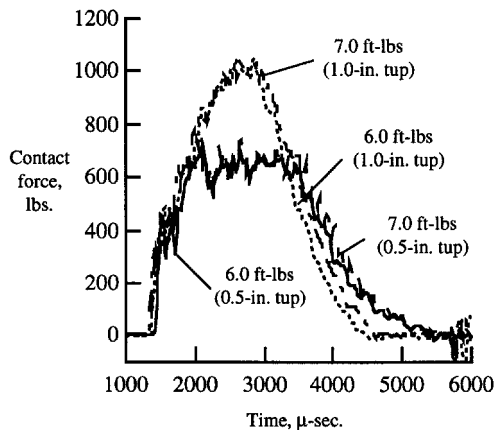


Fig. 7 Contact force profiles for dropped-weight impacts of 6.0 and 7.0 ft-lb impact energy.

These results, as shown in Fig. 3, indicate that, as the impact-energy level is increased to a value greater than 3 ft-lb, the tup diameter does influence the dent depth, resulting in a significant difference in the impact-energy values at which visible damage occurs.

Contact-force profiles for dropped-weight impacts using both tup diameters at impact-energy levels of 6.0 and 7.0 ft-lb are presented in Fig. 7. Although the maximum contact force value for the 0.5-in.-diam tup remains relatively constant for these energy levels, the dent depth increases from ~ 0.04 to 0.05 in. (see Fig. 3). Similarly, the maximum contact force value for the 1.0-in.-diam tup remains nearly constant while the dent depth increases from 0.0055 to 0.007 in. Furthermore, although the maximum values of contact force for the impacts using the 1.0-in.-diam tup are higher than those for the impacts using the 0.5-in.-diam tup, the values of dent depth and damage area are lower for the larger diameter tup. Photomicrographs of machined and polished sections through the impact sites of two samples impacted at an impact-energy level of 6.0 ft-lb using the 0.5- and 1.0-in.-diam tups are shown in Fig. 8. As shown in this figure, the damage states resulting from the two impacts are very different. Significant internal damage resulted from the impact using the 0.5-in.-diam tup, whereas only minor damage in the form of a delamination between the central 0- and 90-deg plies resulted from the impact using the 1.0-in.-diam tup. This result further illustrates that tup diameter does affect the dent depth and it is, in addition to the contact force magnitude, an important parameter in determin-

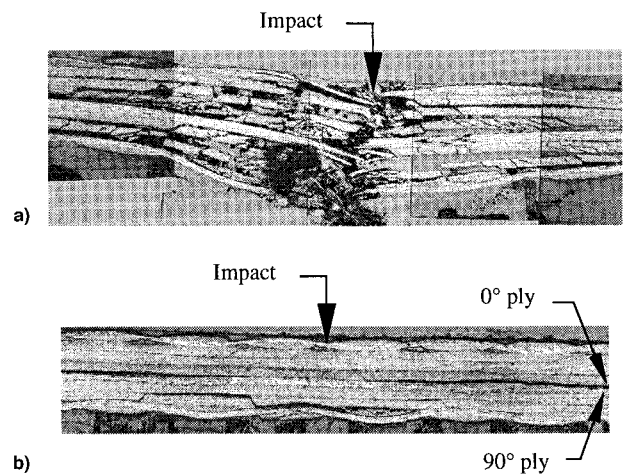


Fig. 8 Photomicrographs comparing damage state resulting from dropped-weight impacts using a) 0.5-in.-diam tup, 6.0 ft-lb of impact energy, $32\times$ magnification; and b) 1.0-in.-diam tup, 6.0 ft-lb of impact energy, $25\times$ magnification.

ing the threshold impact-energy level for BVID in this sandwich structure.

Impact-Energy Levels for Residual Strength Tests

Ten sandwich panels were impacted for residual strength testing. To allow for a direct comparison of results from the airgun impacts that used a 0.5-in.-diam sphere, only the 0.5-in.-diam tup was used for the dropped-weight impacts for these tests. Based upon the results of the impact-damage screening tests, the CAI panels were impacted at energy levels of 1.5, 4.0, and 7.0 ft-lb using the dropped-weight impactor; and at 1.1, 3.8, 4.2, and 6.9 ft-lb using the airgun impactor. The minimum and maximum impact-energy levels represent the thresholds for damage initiation and BVID in the impacted facesheet. Variations in the impact-energy levels presented in this paper for airgun impacts occur due to slight fluctuations in the speed of the airgun-launched impactor. The impact-energy level corresponding to BVID (7.0 ft-lb) was chosen for the impact-underload tests. Only the airgun was used for these tests. The selection of the preload value for these panels is discussed in a later section.

Residual Strength Characterization

Results from residual strength tests of 11 sandwich panels are presented in this section. Panel 1 was an undamaged control panel. Results for CAI panels impacted using a dropped-weight impactor with a 0.5-in.-diam tup and an airgun impactor are compared. Because of a technical problem, the airgun impactor did not strike the center of panel 6. This impact was repeated for panel 7, and panel 6 was tested without knife-edge supports along the unloaded edges to investigate the effect of boundary conditions on the structural response of the panel. The effect of applying a compressive preload prior to impacting the panel is also discussed in this section. The panel numbering and the type of test performed on each panel is given in Table 2.

Compression-After-Impact Tests

Typical load-end-shortening curves for panels 1 and 5–8 are shown in Fig. 9. The failure load for each panel is shown as a filled circle. A comparison of the data of panels 5–8 with that of panel 1 indicates that the presence of impact damage has no effect on the global axial stiffness of the panels. The load-end-shortening data for panels 1–4 also support this finding.

Typical axial surface strain results that show the redistribution of load around the impact damage location are shown in Fig. 10 for panels 1 and 5–8. In these figures, far-field strains at the location marked SG A are plotted using solid lines, and strains at a location adjacent to the impact site marked SG B are plotted using dashed lines. As shown in Fig. 10, panels 5, 7, and 8 exhibited local

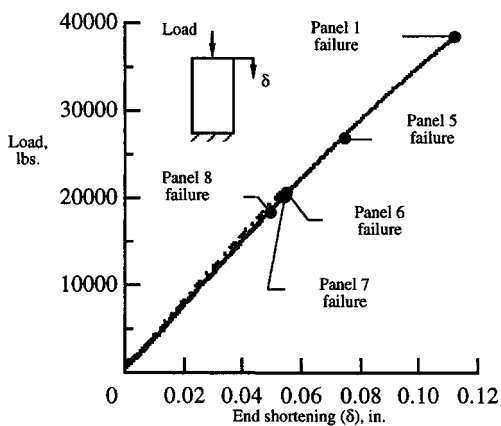


Fig. 9 Load-end shortening response for panels 1 and 5-8.

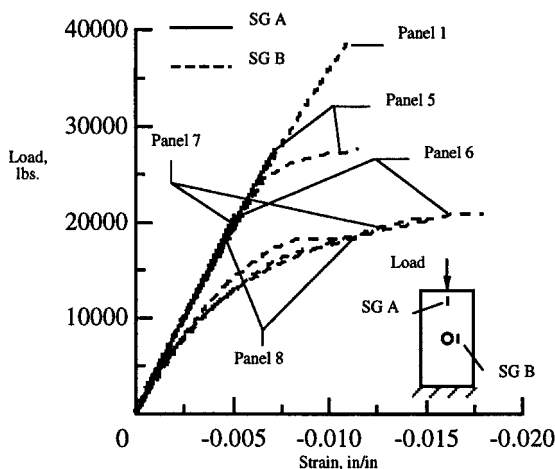


Fig. 10 Axial surface strain results for panels 1 and 5-8.

strain concentrations (ratio of SG B-to-SG A data) near the impact site. The maximum measured strain concentrations exhibited by panels 5, 7, and 8 were 1.61, 2.83, and 2.62, respectively. The strain concentrations exhibited by the airgun-impacted panels were slightly higher than those for the dropped-weight-impacted panels for a given impact energy level. These results support the observed severity of the damage conditions for airgun impacts as compared with that for dropped-weight impacts.

Panel 6 was tested without knife-edge supports, and it exhibited a failure test concentration of 3.55 just prior to failure. However, DCDT measurements normal to the undamaged facesheet indicate that bending occurred just prior to failure in a direction that increased the compressive strain in the impacted facesheet. Thus, the absence of knife-edge supports appears to only have affected the panel response just prior to failure. The global axial stiffness of the panel was not affected and the failure load was very close to that of panel 7.

The failure mode for all impacted panels was a compression failure across the width of the panel passing through the impact site. The failure mode for panel 6 is shown in Fig. 11. This figure also shows the deformation of panel 6 that contributed to the increased strain concentrations at the impact site. The failure loads for all panels tested are plotted in Fig. 12 as a function of the impact energy level at which each panel was impacted. In Fig. 12, the experimental results for the undamaged and CAI panels (1-8) are plotted as open symbols, and the results for the impact-under-load panels (9-11) are plotted as the filled circles. Polynomial curves fitted through the data for panels 1-8 are also shown to assist in identifying trends in the data. There is only a 5.1% difference in the failure loads for the panels impacted with the dropped-weight apparatus as compared with those impacted with the airgun at the impact energy level at

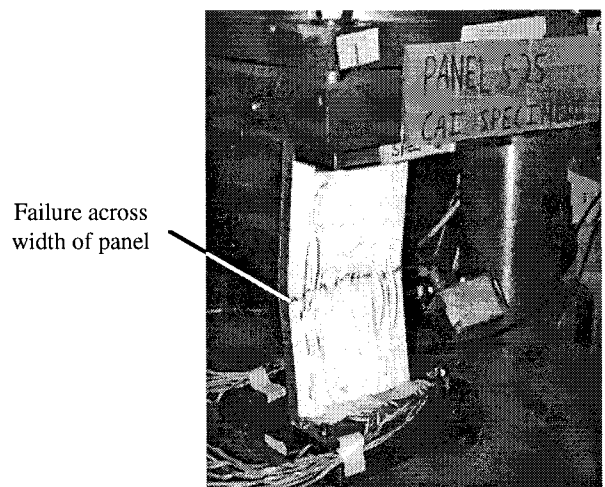


Fig. 11 Failed panel 6.

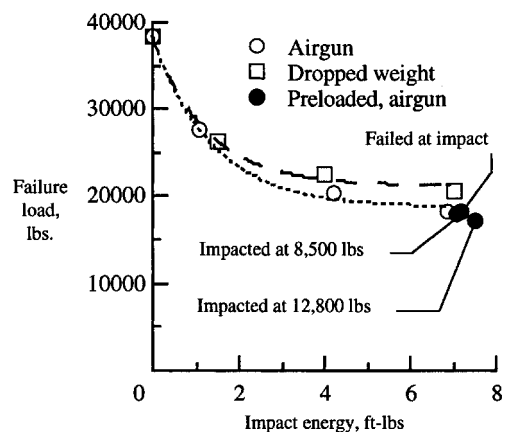


Fig. 12 Failure loads as a function of impact energy.

which damage initiates. However, as the impact energy level is increased to a level that produces BVID, this difference increases to 13.7%, with the airgun-impacted panels failing at lower loads. This result is consistent with the results of the impact-damage screening tests. The damage associated with airgun impacts was shown to be more severe than that associated with dropped-weight impacts as the impact energy level is increased.

Impact Under Load Tests

The effect of applying a compressive preload to a panel before impacting it was also investigated in the present study. This situation occurs when an aircraft in flight is struck by hailstones. Panels 9-11 were first loaded to a predetermined load level and then impacted with the airgun at impact energy levels of 7.2, 7.5, and 7.1 ft-lb.

The preload value was selected to match the design stress for the original panel from which the test panels were machined. The panel was designed to study the effect of discrete-source damage, and the design stress for this panel, corresponding to a design limit stress, is 14.4 ksi. This stress corresponds to a load of 8500 lb for the present test panels; therefore, panel 9 was loaded to 8500 lb before being impacted. Because panel 9 did not fail at impact, the preload value was increased 150% to 12,800 lb for panel 10 to represent the difference between design limit and design ultimate stress. Panel 10 did not fail at impact. In an attempt to establish a narrow load and strain range at which impact would cause failure, panel 11 was preloaded to 18,000 lb. This preload is 200 lb less than that at which panel 8 (CAI panel airgun impacted at 6.9 ft-lb impact energy) failed. Panel 11 failed at impact. These results indicate that there is a threshold value of strain in the loaded panels above which impact at an energy level high enough to cause BVID will result in failure.

A summary of the results for panels 9–11 is presented in Table 2. These results also suggest that for the BVID criterion chosen in this study, the sandwich panel can support $\sim 47\%$ of its undamaged failure load before failing when subjected to airgun impact.

Load-end-shortening curves for panels 8–11 are presented in Fig. 13. The failure load for each panel is indicated by a filled circle. Panel 8 is included to determine if differences in response occur between a CAI panel and an impact-under-load panel when both panels are impacted with the same impact-energy level. These data indicate that the effect of impacting compressive preloaded panels on the global axial stiffness of the panels was negligible.

Axial surface strain results for panels 8–11 measured at locations away from the impact site and adjacent to the impact site are shown in Figs. 14 and 15, respectively. The results in Fig. 14 indicate that the far-field response of the impacted facesheet is relatively insensitive to the order in which the panel is impacted and loaded. However, the results in Fig. 15 indicate that the local response of the impacted facesheet is sensitive to this order. On impact, panel 9 exhibited a 54% increase in the strain adjacent to the impact site ($\sim 1200 \mu\text{-in./in.}$), and panel 10 exhibited a 43% increase ($\sim 1500 \mu\text{-in./in.}$). Panel 11 failed on impact at a strain level of $\sim 4900 \mu\text{-in./in.}$. The strain at this location in panel 8 just prior to failure was $11,600 \mu\text{-in./in.}$, which is more than twice as large as that in panel 11 when it was impacted. This result also supports the conclusion that there is a threshold value of strain in the loaded panels above which impact at an energy level high enough to cause BVID will result in failure. Although this strain threshold is larger than the relatively low design strain for the present sandwich panels, a more aggressive structural design could easily require design strain values that approach this threshold. The existence of this threshold and its value must therefore be taken into account when using residual strength results determined from CAI tests to design aircraft structures.

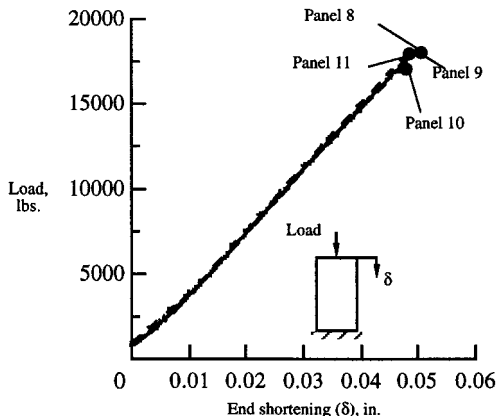


Fig. 13 Load-end shortening response for panels 8–11.

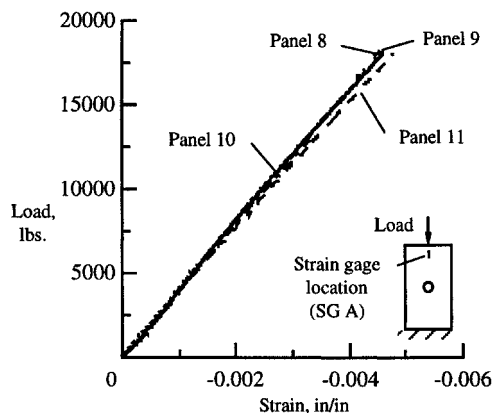


Fig. 14 Far-field axial surface strains for panels 8–11.

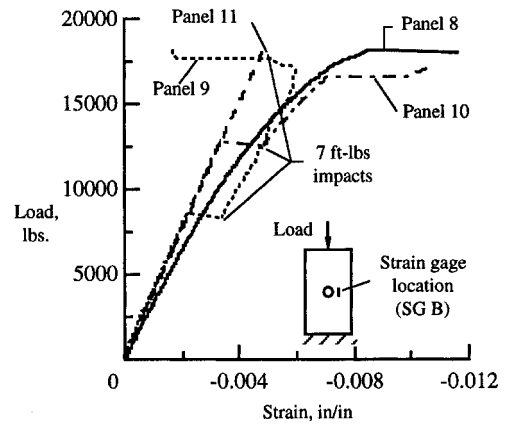


Fig. 15 Axial surface strains measured adjacent to the impact site for panels 8–11.

Concluding Remarks

The present paper describes the results of impact-damage screening tests and an experimental study of the CAI and impact-under-load responses of composite facesheet sandwich panels subjected to low-speed impact damage. These panels were 5 in. wide and 10 in. long with thin composite facesheets cobonded to honeycomb core. Dropped-weight impactors with 0.5- and 1.0-in.-diam hemispherical steel tips and an airgun-launched impactor (0.5-in.-diam aluminum sphere) were used in the present study.

A series of impact-damage screening tests was conducted to determine the impact-energy levels at which damage initiates and at which BVID occurs in the impacted facesheet. The criterion used for BVID in the present study is a residual dent depth at the impact site greater than or equal to 0.05 in. This criterion seems to be practical for the thick facesheet sandwich panels used in Ref. 8 and the thin-facesheet sandwich panels used in the present study. Results of these tests indicate that damage initiates and BVID occurs at lower impact energy levels for dropped-weight impacts with a 0.5-in.-diam tip than it does for impacts with a 1.0-in.-diam tip. Results also indicated that the damage states resulting from dropped-weight impacts with a 0.5-in.-diam tip and the airgun were very similar to each other for low values of impact energy. As the impact-energy level was increased to that which causes BVID, the airgun impacts caused more extensive internal damage than the dropped-weight impacts, even though the dent depths for the two methods of impact were very similar. This result suggests that using dent depth only as a measure of the extent of damage in an impacted structure may not always be reliable.

Tests of CAI panels impacted with 0.5-in.-diam dropped-weight and airgun impactors were conducted using impact-energy levels determined from the impact-damage screening tests. Results of the CAI tests indicate that the global response of the panels was not affected by the presence of impact damage. The residual strength of the panels impacted using both methods was similar to each other for low-energy-level impacts. However, as the impact energy level was increased, the residual strength of the airgun-impacted panels was less than that of the dropped-weight-impacted panels. This result is consistent with the results from the impact-damage screening tests.

Compression tests were also conducted on panels that were preloaded prior to being impacted with the airgun. The impact energy level used was that required to inflict BVID in the impacted facesheet. Preloaded panels that survived the impact events were loaded to failure to determine their residual strength. Results of these tests indicate that, for the BVID criterion used in this study, the global response of the panels was insensitive to the order in which the panel is impacted and loaded. However, the local response near the impact site is very sensitive to this order. Furthermore, these tests indicated that there is a threshold value of strain in the preloaded panels above which impact at an energy level high enough to cause BVID will result in failure. Thus, to allow for more aggressive designs that utilize composite facesheet sandwich structure, the existence of

this strain threshold and its value must be taken into account when using residual strength results determined from CAI tests to design aircraft structures.

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