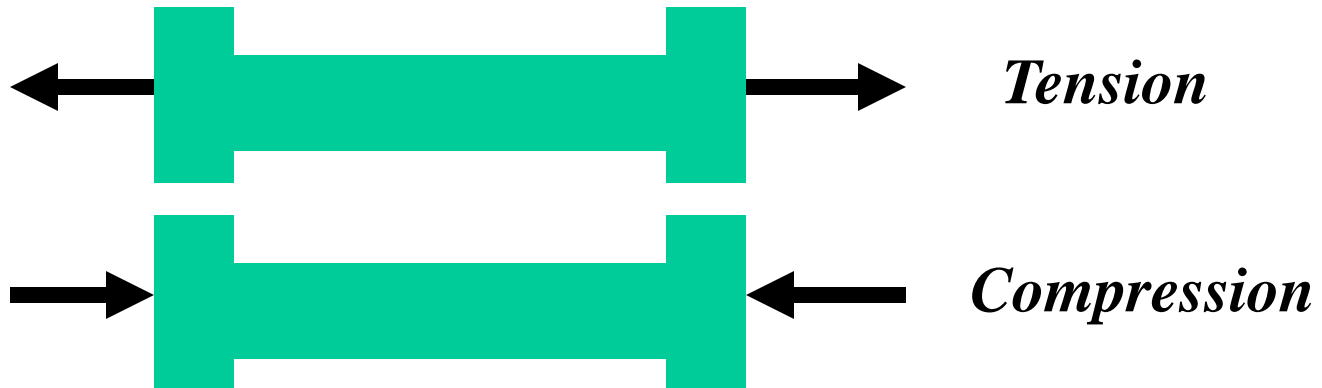


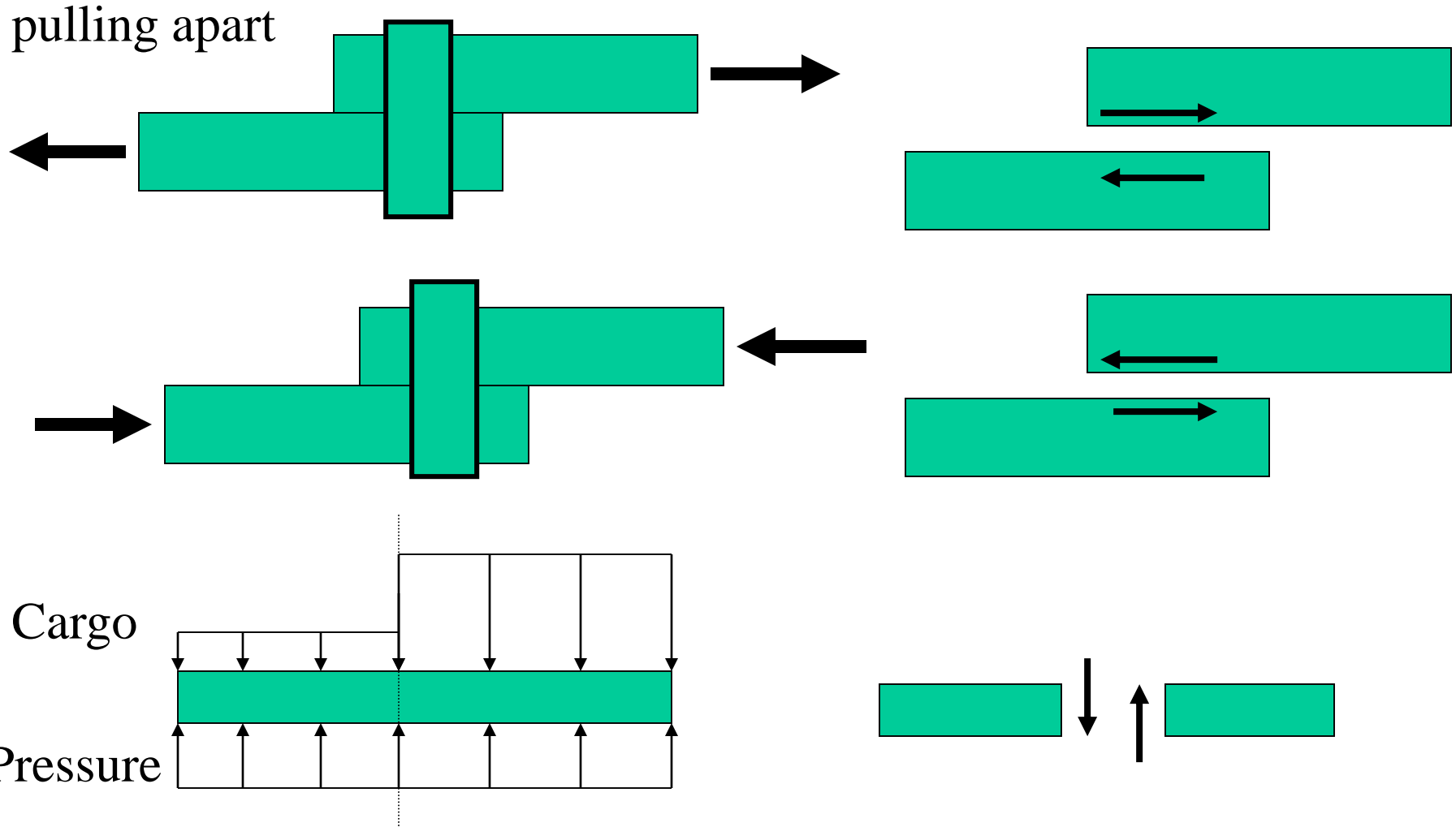
Classifying Loads on Materials

- **Normal Load (Axial load):** Load is perpendicular to the supporting material.
 - **Tension Load:** As the ends of material are pulled apart to make the material longer, the load is called a tension load.
 - **Compression Load:** As the ends of material are pushed in to make the material smaller, the load is called a compression load.



Classifying Loads on Materials

- **Shear Load : Tangential load**



Classifying Loads on Materials

- **Torsion Loads:** Angular distortion on a component, such as a shaft, when a moment is applied. (Twisting)
- **Thermal Loads:** Distortion caused by heating or cooling a material.
- **A normal load is created when the material is constrained in any direction in the plane that is constrained.**

Stress and Strain

In order to compare materials, we must have measures.

- **Stress : load per unit Area**

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A}$$

F : load applied in pounds

A : cross sectional area in in²

σ : stress in psi

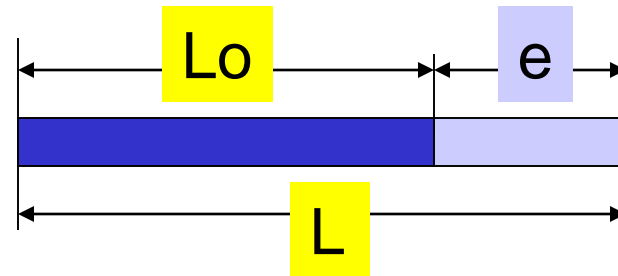


Stress and Strain

- **Strain:**

- Ratio of elongation of a material to the original length
- unit deformation

$$\epsilon = \frac{e}{L_o}$$



e : elongation (ft)

L_o : unloaded(original) length of a material (ft)

ϵ : strain (ft/ft) or (in/in)

Elongation:

$$e = L - L_o$$

L : loaded length of a material (ft)

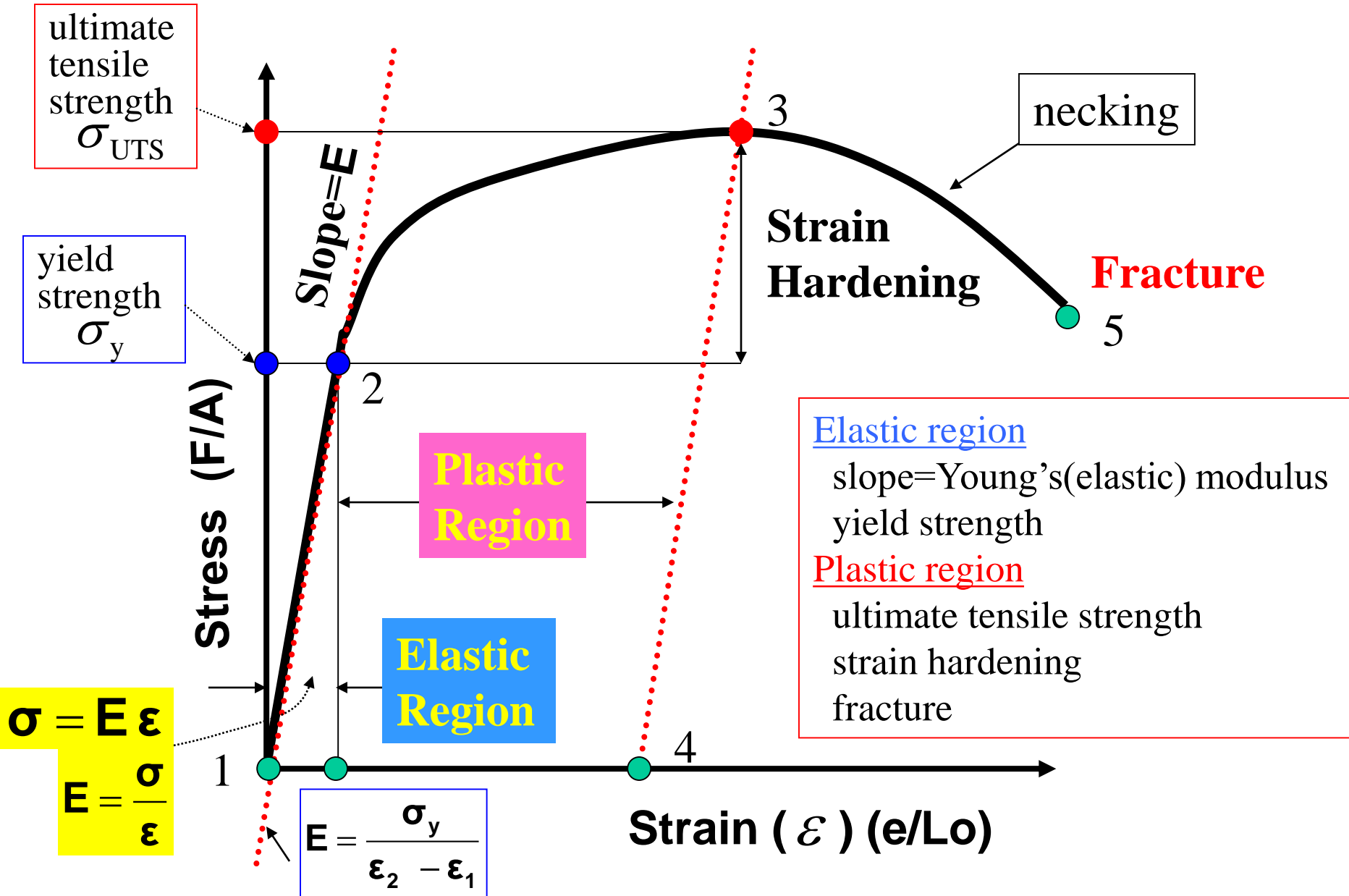
Hydraulic Machine for Tension & Compression test



Stress-Strain Diagram

- **A plot of Strain vs. Stress.**
- **The diagram gives us the behavior of the material and material properties.**
- **Each material produces a different stress-strain diagram.**

Stress-Strain Diagram



Stress-Strain Diagram

- **Elastic Region (Point 1 –2)**
 - The material will return to its original shape after the material is unloaded(like a rubber band).
 - The stress is linearly proportional to the strain in this region.

$$\sigma = E \epsilon$$

or

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon}$$

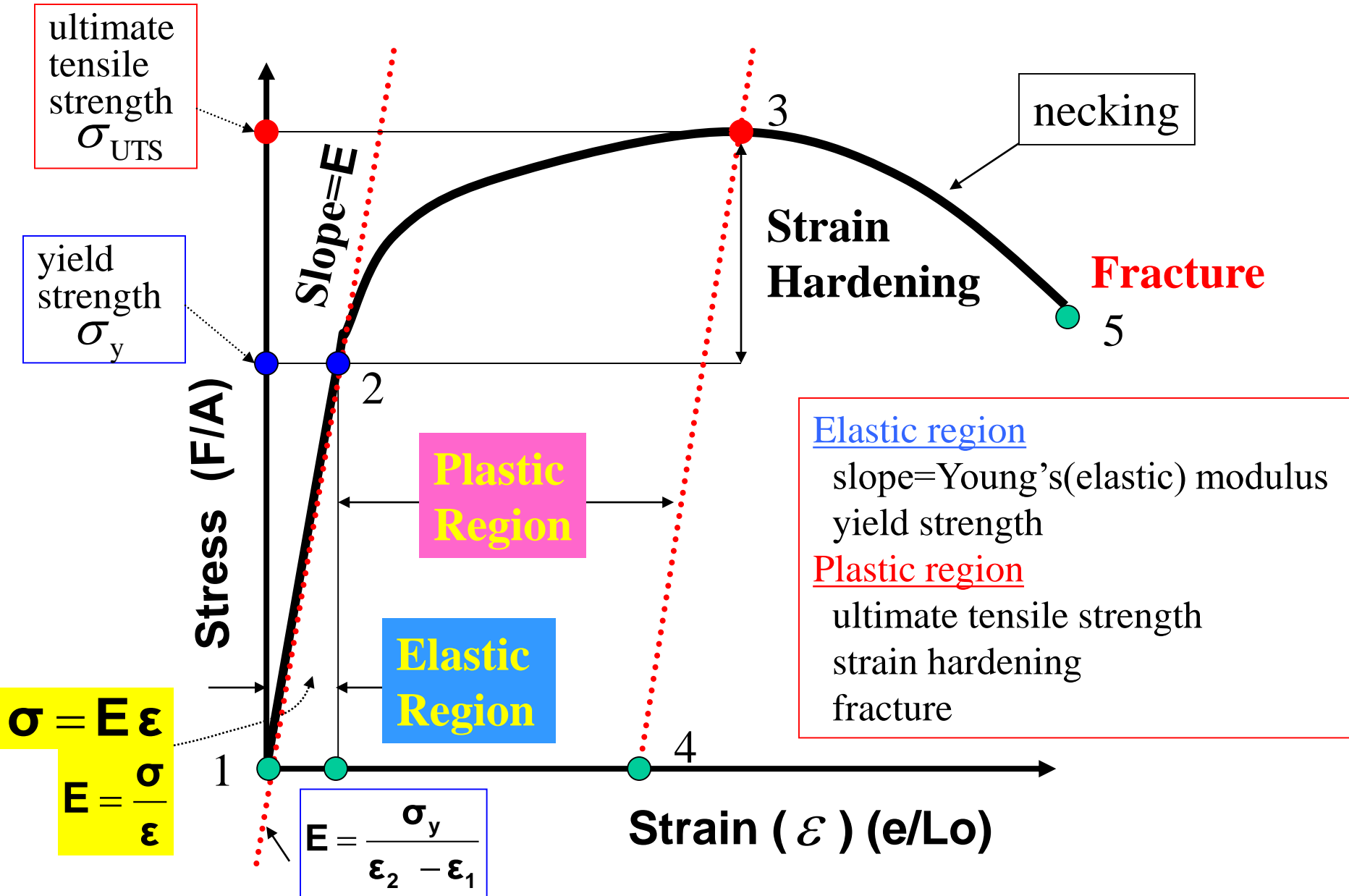
σ : Stress (psi)

E : Elastic modulus (Young's Modulus) (psi)

ϵ : Strain (in/in)

- Point 2 : **Yield Strength** : a point at which permanent deformation occurs. (If it is passed, the material will no longer return to its original length.)

Stress-Strain Diagram



Stress-Strain Diagram

The ELASTIC Range Means:

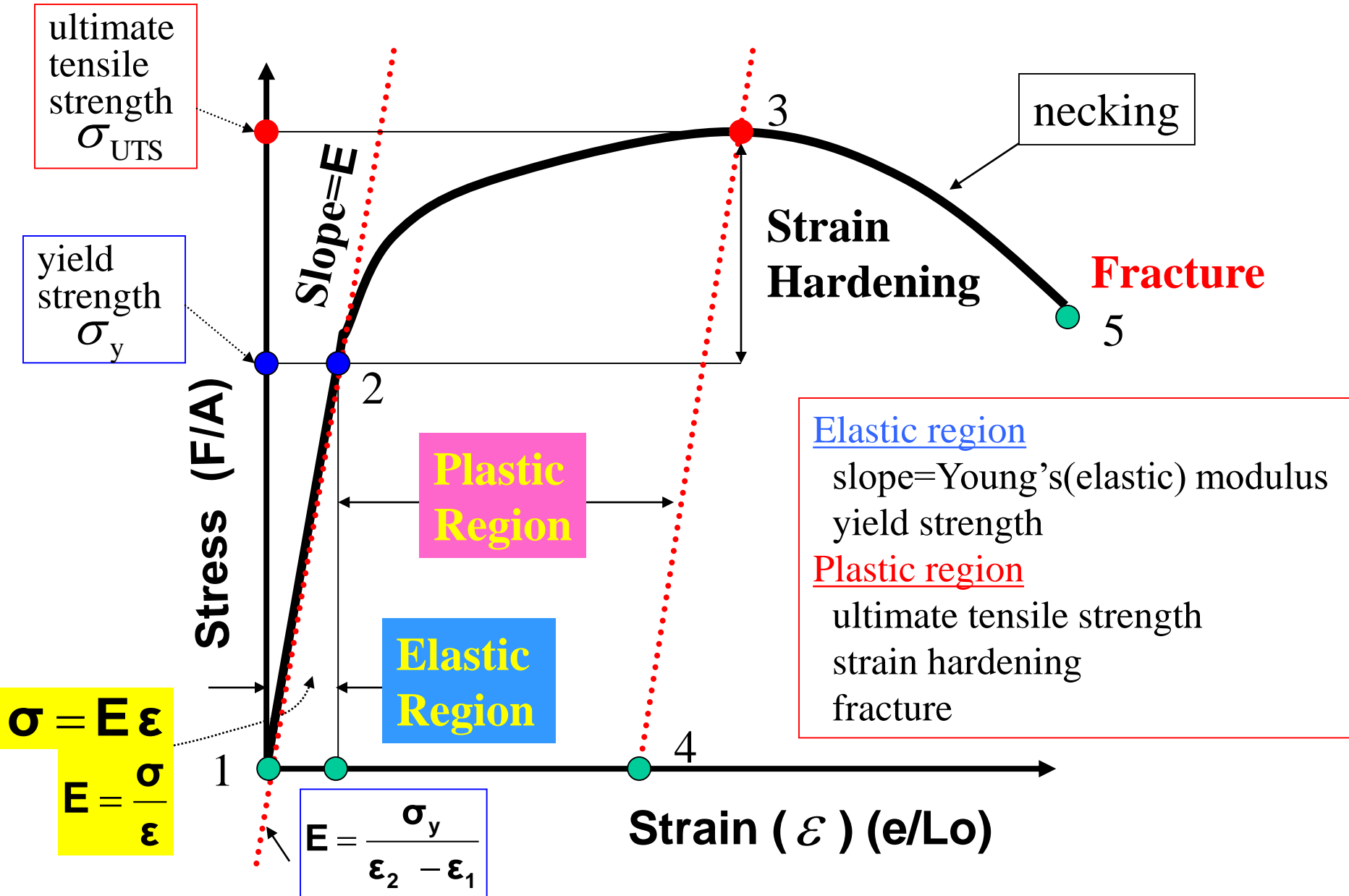
- The strain, or elongation over a unit length, will behave linearly (as in $y=mx +b$) and thus predictable.
- The material will return to its original shape (Point 1) once an applied load is removed.
- The stress within the material is less than what is required to create a plastic behavior (deform or stretch significantly without increasing stress).

Stress-Strain Diagram

Plastic Region (Point 2 –3)

- If the material is loaded beyond the yield strength, the material will not return to its original shape after unloading.
- It will have some permanent deformation.
- If the material is unloaded at Point 3, the curve will proceed from Point 3 to Point 4. The slope will be the same as the slope between Point 1 and 2.
- The distance between Point 1 and 4 indicates the amount of permanent deformation.

Stress-Strain Diagram

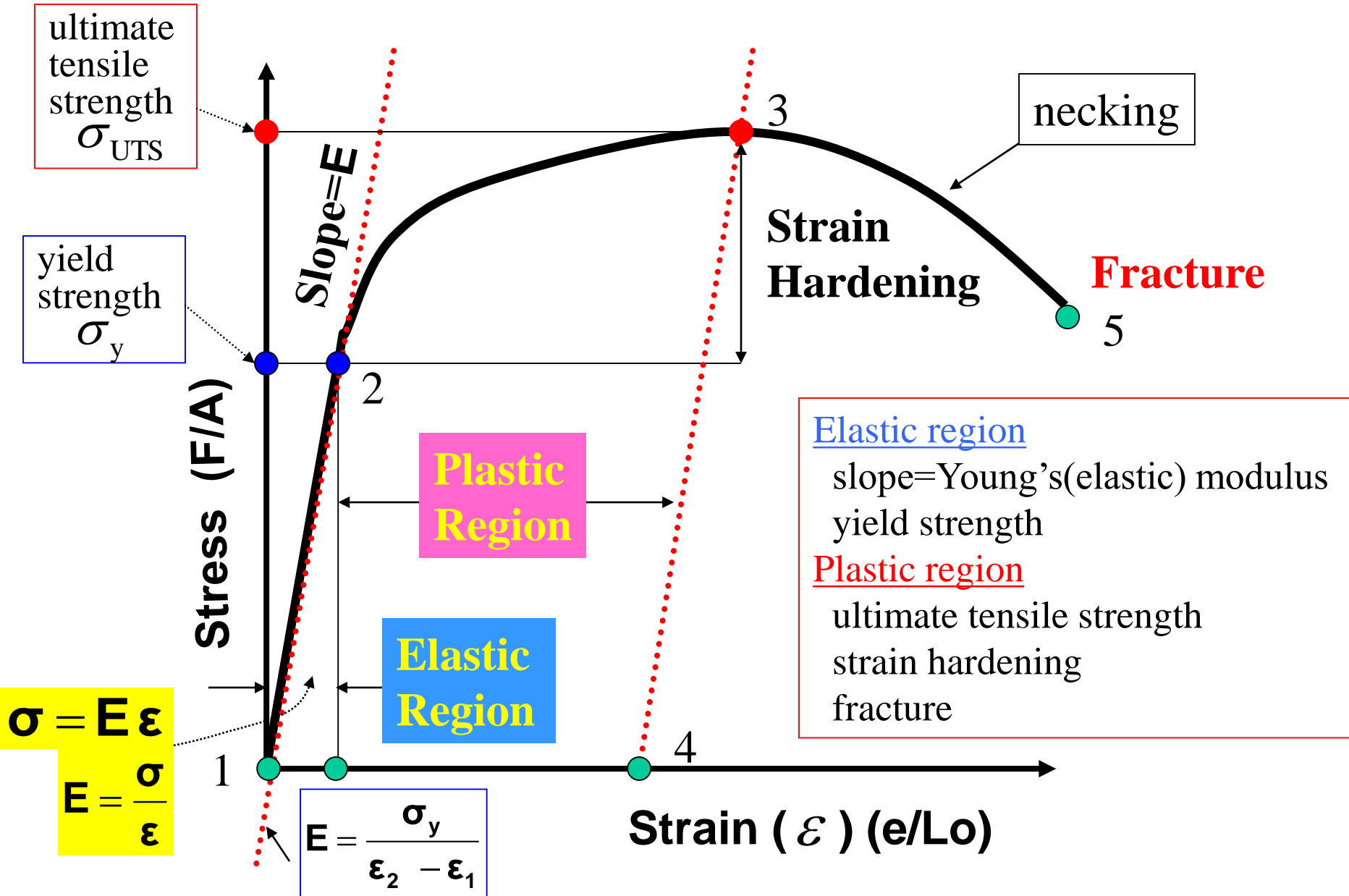


Stress-Strain Diagram

Strain Hardening

- If the material is loaded again from Point 4, the curve will follow back to Point 3 with the same Elastic Modulus(slope).
- The material now has a higher yield strength of Point 4.
- Raising the yield strength by permanently straining the material is called Strain Hardening.

Stress-Strain Diagram



Stress-Strain Diagram

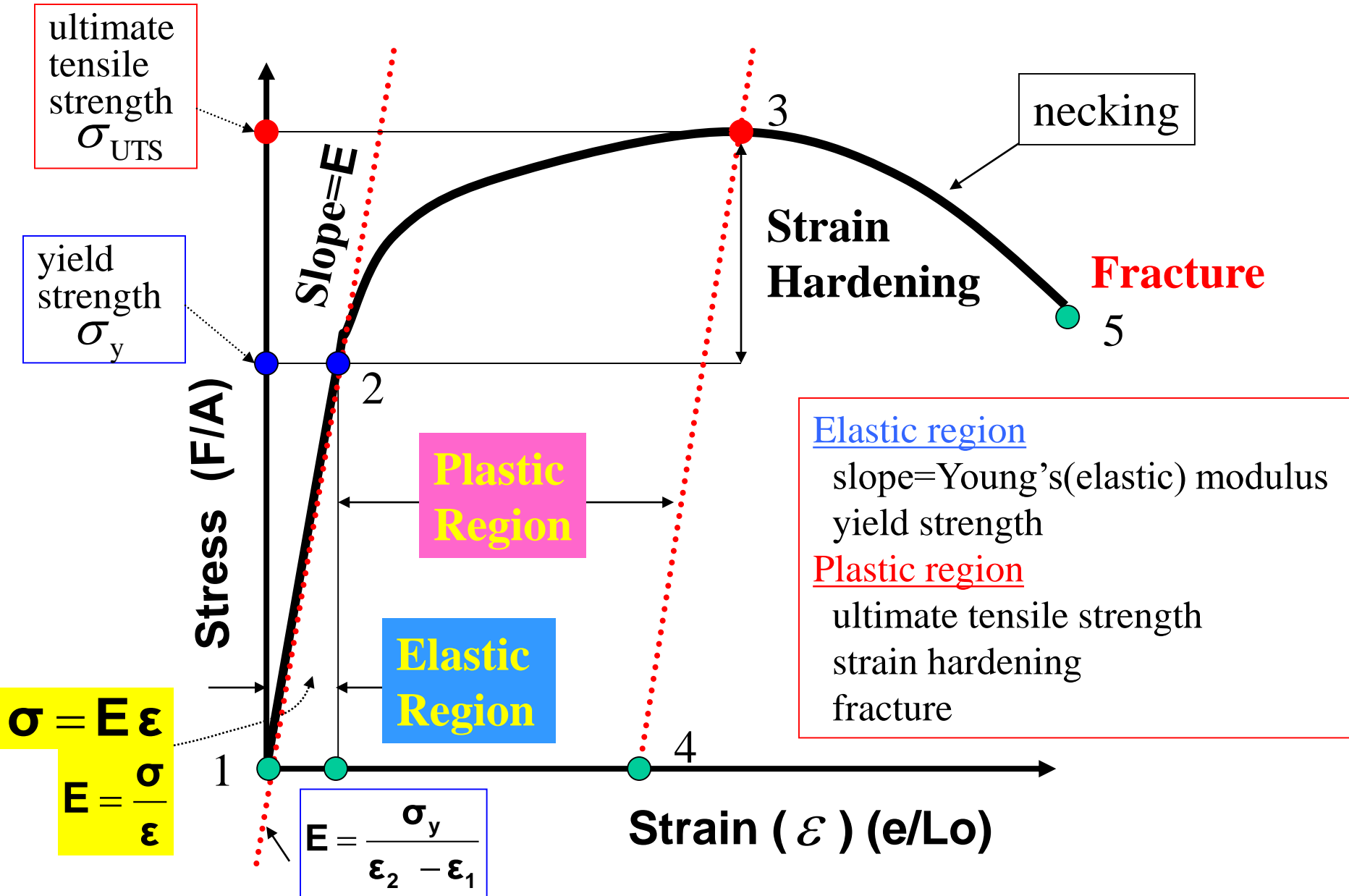
Tensile Strength (Point 3)

- The largest value of stress on the diagram is called Tensile Strength(TS) or Ultimate Tensile Strength (UTS)
- It is the maximum stress which the material can support without breaking.

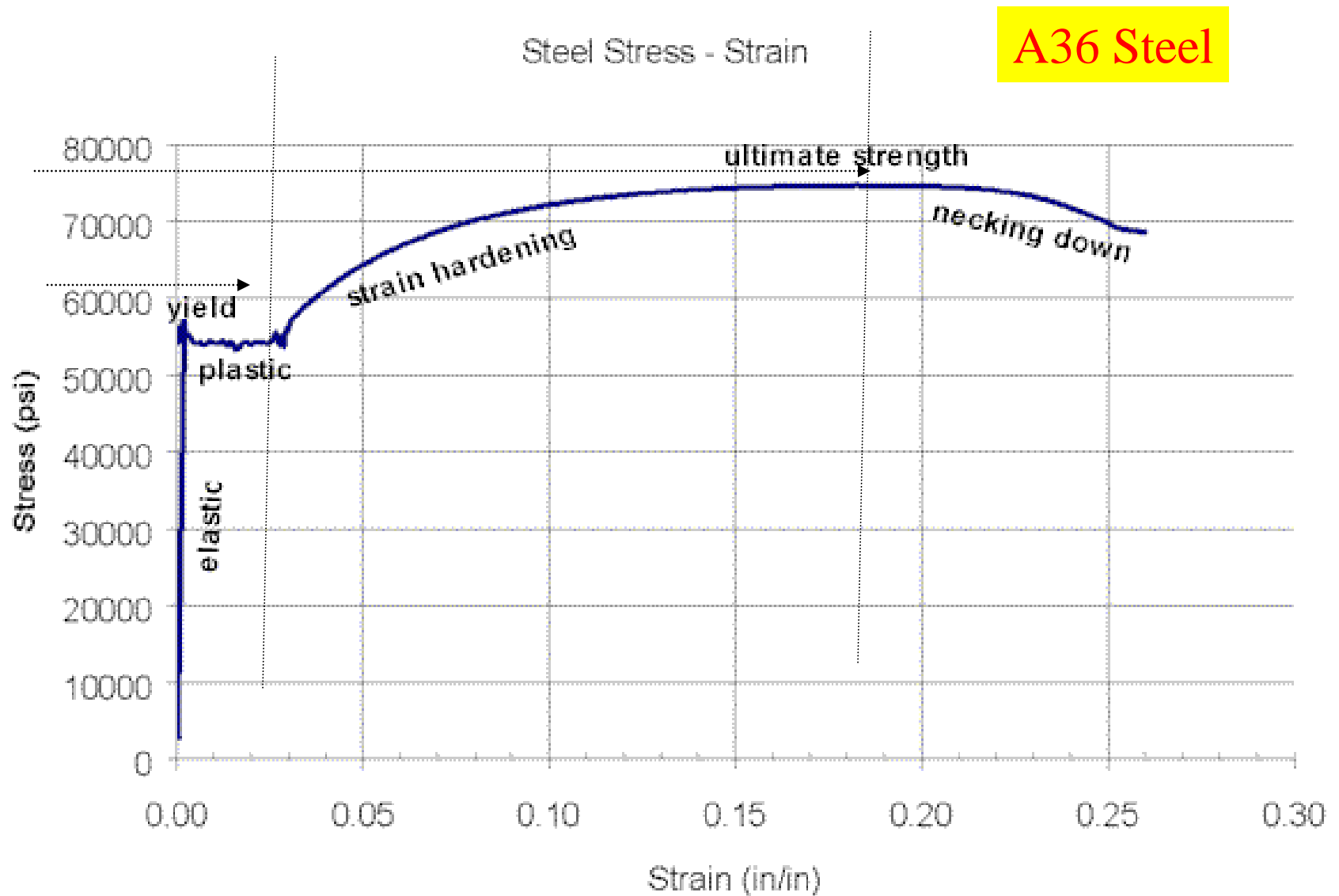
Fracture (Point 5)

- If the material is stretched beyond Point 3, the stress decreases as necking and non-uniform deformation occur.
- Fracture will finally occur at Point 5.

Stress-Strain Diagram



Stress-Strain Diagram



Material Properties

Strength:

- Measure of the material property to resist deformation and to maintain its shape
- It is quantified in terms of yield stress σ_y or ultimate tensile strength σ_{ult} .
- High carbon steels and metal alloys have higher strength than pure metals.
- Ceramic also exhibit high strength characteristics.

Material Properties

Hardness:

- Measure of the material property to resist indentation, abrasion and wear.**
- It is quantified by hardness scale such as Rockwell and Brinell hardness scale that measure indentation / penetration under a load.**
- Hardness and Strength correlate well because both properties are related to inter-molecular bonding. A high-strength material is typically resistant to wear and abrasion.**

A comparison of hardness of some typical materials:

Material	Brinell Hardness
Pure Aluminum	15
Pure Copper	35
Mild Steel	120
304 Stainless Steel	250
Hardened Tool Steel	650/700
Hard Chromium Plate	1000
Chromium Carbide	1200
Tungsten Carbide	1400
Titanium Carbide	2400
Diamond	8000
Sand	1000

Material Properties

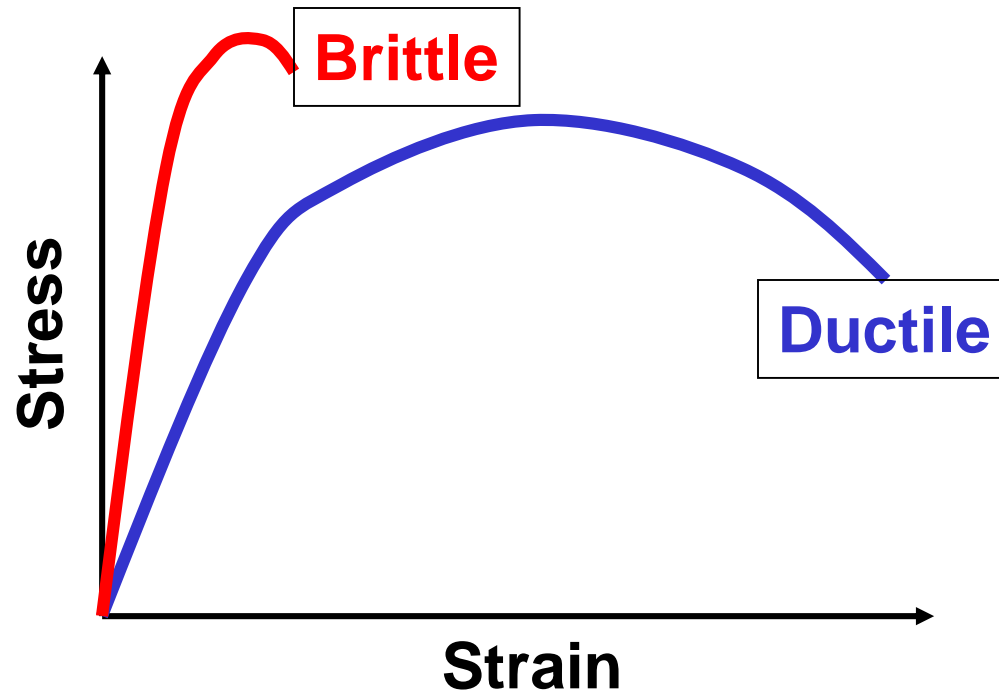
Ductility:

- **Measure of the material property to deform before failure.**
- **It is quantified by reading the value of strain at the fracture point on the stress strain curve.**
- **Ductile materials can be pulled or drawn into pipes, wire, and other structural shapes**
- **Examples of ductile material :**
 - low carbon steel**
 - aluminum**
 - copper**
 - brass**

Material Properties

Brittleness:

- Measure of the material's inability to deform before failure.
- The opposite of ductility.
- Example of ductile material : glass, high carbon steel, ceramics



Material Properties

Toughness:

- Measure of the material ability to absorb energy.
- It is measured by two methods.

a) Integration of stress strain curve

- Slow absorption of energy
- Absorbed energy per unit volume

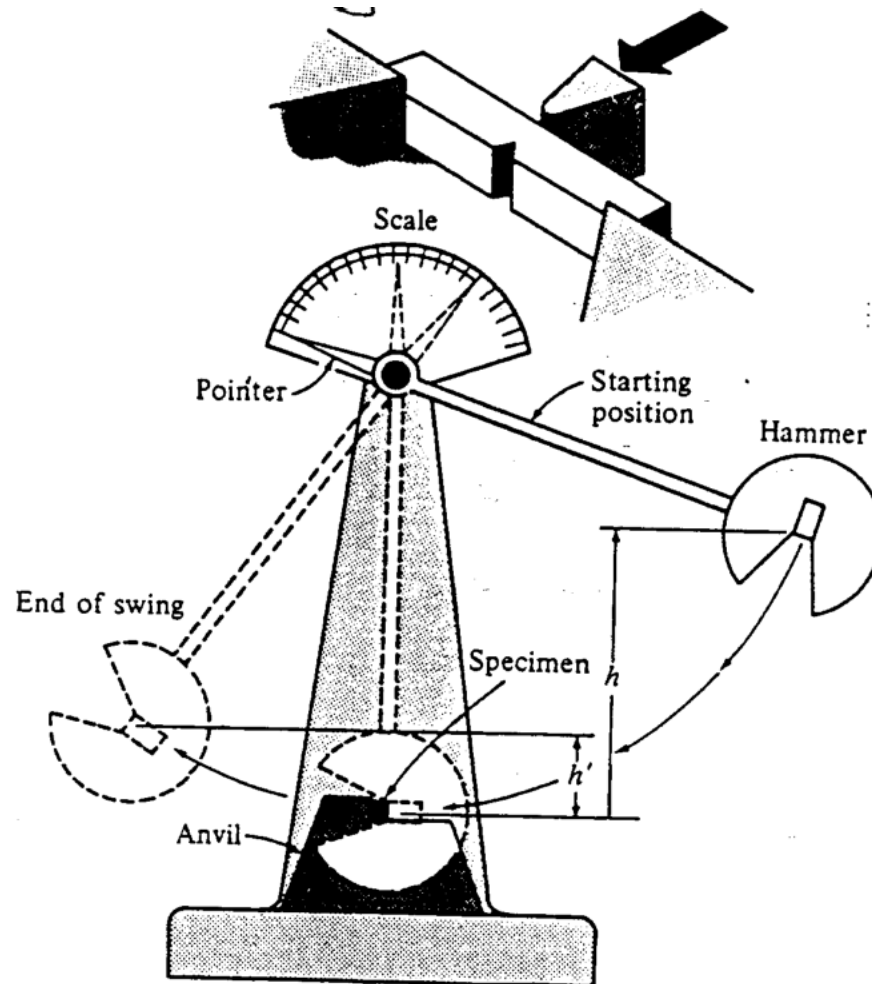
$$\text{unit : (lb/in}^2\text{) } * (\text{in/in}) = \text{lb} \cdot \text{in/in}^3$$

b) Charpy test

- Ability to absorb energy of an impact without fracturing.
- Impact toughness can be measured.

Material Properties

Charpy V-Notch Test:



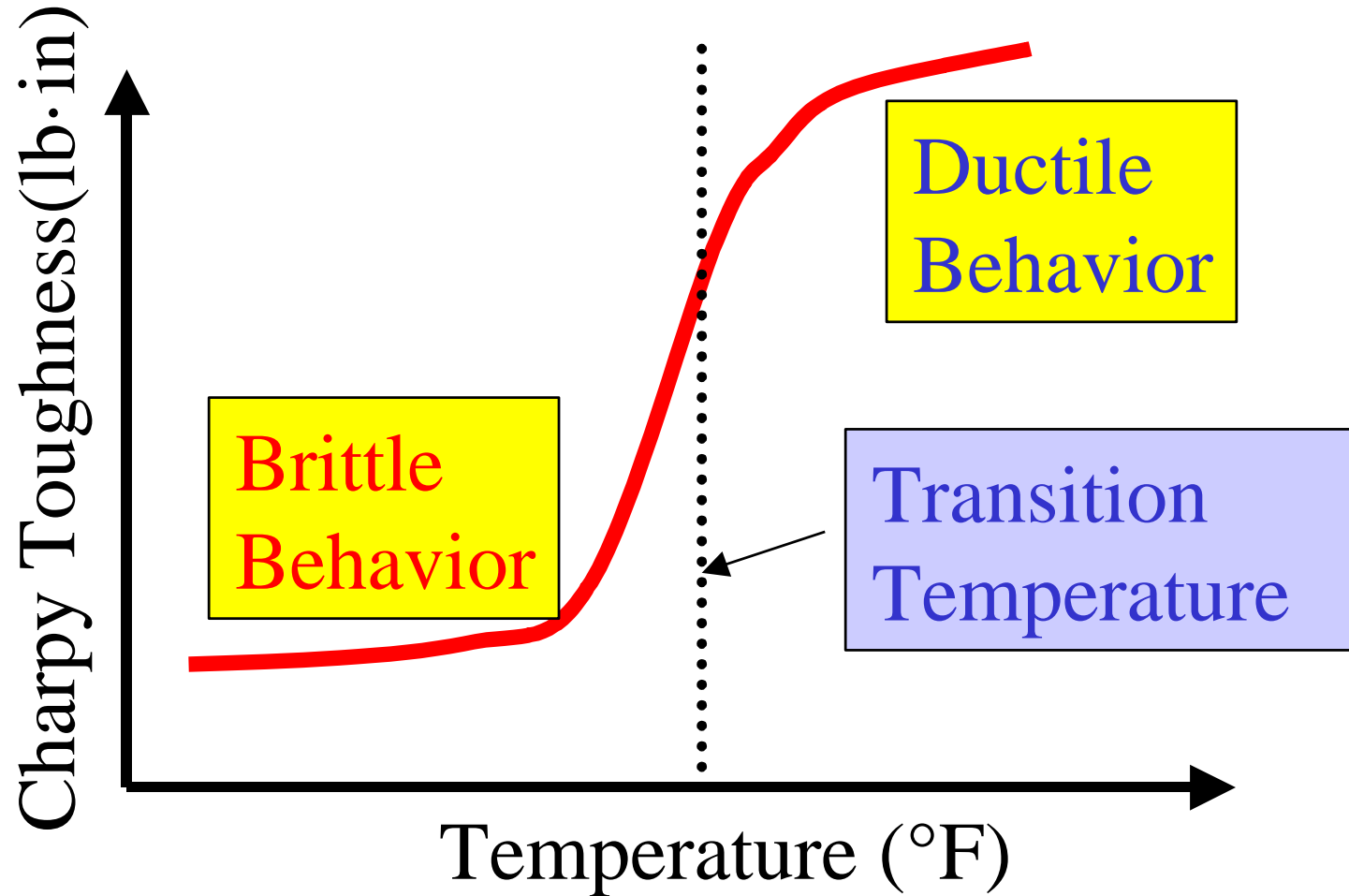
Material Properties

Charpy V-Notch Test:

- Charpy test is an impact toughness measurement test because the energy is absorbed by the specimen very rapidly.**
- The potential energy of the pendulum before and after impact can be calculated from the initial and final location of the pendulum.**
- The potential energy difference is the energy it took to break the material absorbed during the impact.**
- Purpose is to evaluate the impact toughness as a function of temperature**

Material Properties

Charpy V-Notch Test:



Material Properties

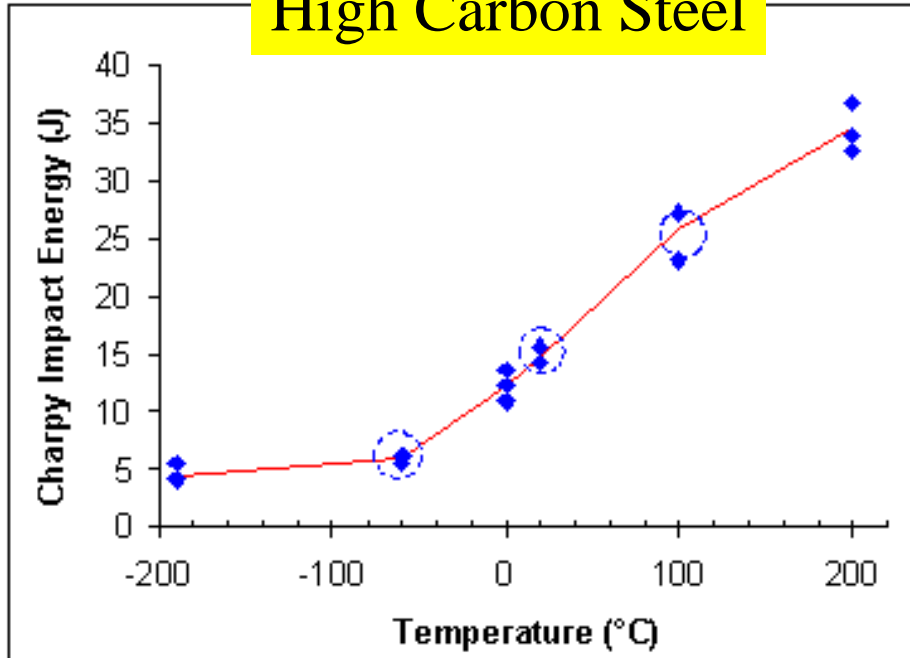
Charpy V-Notch Test:

- At low temperature, where the material is brittle and not strong, little energy is required to fracture the material.**
- At high temperature, where the material is more ductile and stronger, greater energy is required to fracture the material**
- The transition temperature is the boundary between brittle and ductile behavior.**

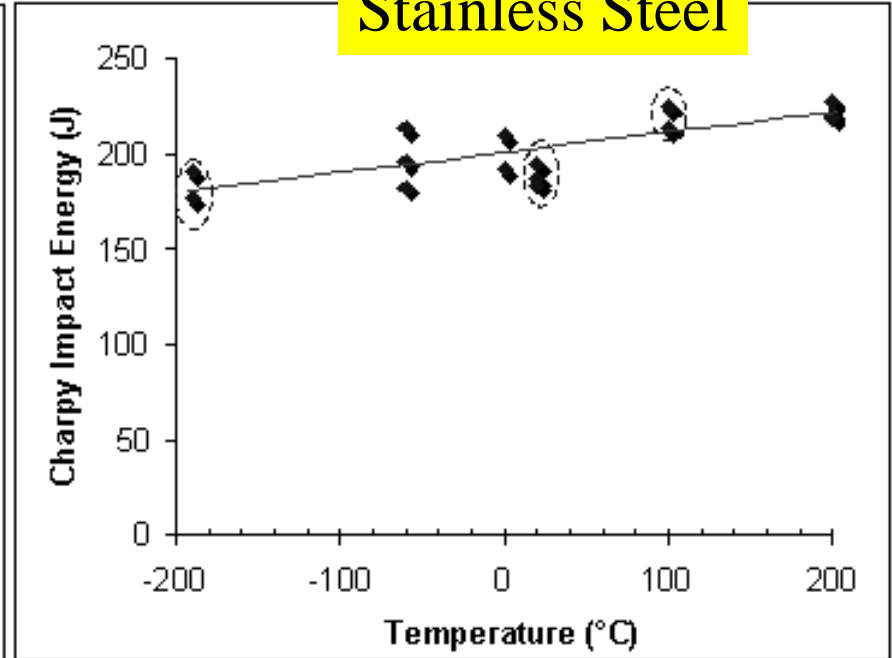
The transition temperature is an extremely important parameter in selection of construction material.

Charpy V-Notch Test:

High Carbon Steel



Stainless Steel

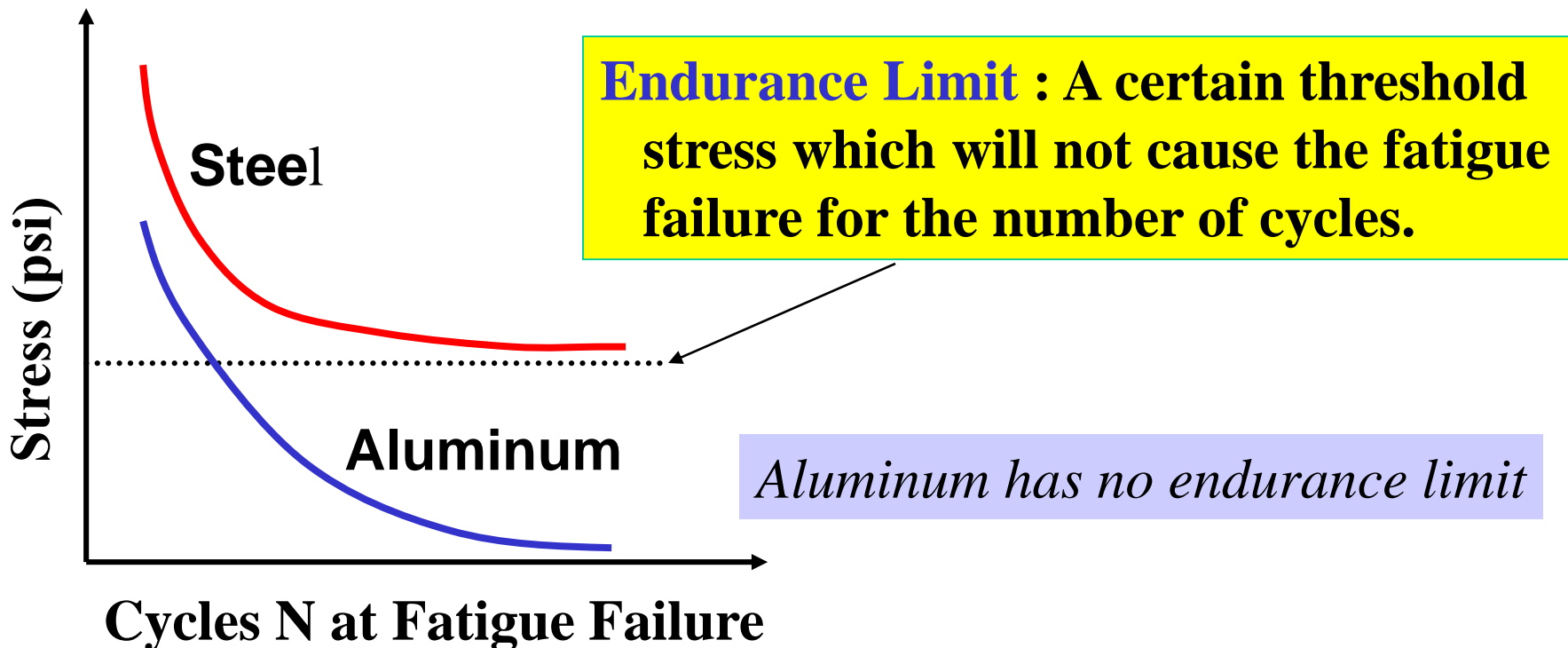


Material Properties

Fatigue:

- The repeated application of stress typically produced by an oscillating load such as vibration.
- Sources of ship vibration are engine, propeller and waves.

MAXIMUM stress decreases as the number of loading cycles increases.



Factors effecting Material Properties

Temperature :

Increasing temperature will:

- Decrease Modulus of Elasticity
(As Long as Structure Does Not Change)**
- Decrease Yield Strength**
- Decrease Ultimate Tensile Strength**
- Decrease Hardness**
- Increase Ductility**
- Decrease Brittleness**

Environment:

- Sulfites, Chlorine, Oxygen in water,
Radiation, Pressure**

Ways to Effect / Alter Material Properties

Alloying (Adding other elements to alter the molecular properties):

- Steel: Carbon, chromium, molybdenum, nickel, tungsten, manganese
- Aluminum: Copper, manganese, silicon, zinc, magnesium

Thermal Treatments (Application of heat over varying time):

Annealing:

- Heating higher than its critical temperature then cooling slowly.
- Improves hardness, strength, and ductility.
- Ship's hulls are annealed.

Hardening:

- Heating higher than its critical temperature then cooling rapidly.
- Improves hardness.
- Increases internal stresses, may cause cracking.

Ways to Effect / Alter Material Properties

Thermal Treatments:

Tempering:

- Steel is heated below the critical temperature and cooled slowly.
- Used with hardening to reduce the internal stresses.

Hot-Working:

- Forming of shapes while material is hot.
- Less internal stresses due to annealing (change in the molecular structure).

Cold-Working:

- Forming shapes while material is cold.
- Causes internal stresses, resulting in a stronger shape.

Corrosion & Corrosion Protection

Corrosion is the destruction of metals due to oxidation or other chemical reactions.

Corrosion Protection:

- Design to eliminate conditions favorable to corrosion
- You, a wire brush, and paint
- Cathodic Protection
 - Charging the metal to slow/ stop reaction with other elements
 - Providing a sacrificial metal to give up ions instead of the structure giving up ions (and corroding)

Example:

Mooring line length = 100 ft

diameter = 1.0 in

Axial loading applied = 25,000 lb

Elongation due to loading = 1.0 in

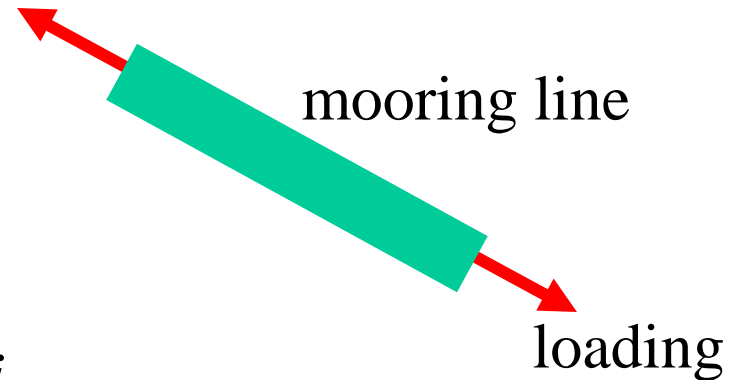
1) Find the normal stress.

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{25,000 \text{ lb}}{0.785 \text{ in}^2} = 31,800 \text{ psi}$$

$$A = \pi r^2 = \pi (0.5 \text{ in})^2 = 0.785 \text{ in}^2$$

2) Find the strain.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{e}{L_o} = \frac{1 \text{ in}}{100 \text{ ft} \times \frac{12 \text{ in}}{1 \text{ ft}}} = 0.00083 \text{ (in / in)}$$



Example:

- Salvage crane is lifting an object of 20,000 lb.

$$\sigma_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}$$

- Characteristics of the cable

$$\sigma_{UT} = 70,000 \text{ psi}$$

diameter=1.0 in, length prior to lifting =50 ft

$$E = 35 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

1) Find the normal stress in the cable.

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{20,000 \text{ lb}}{0.785 \text{ in}^2} = 25,478 \text{ psi}$$

$$(A = \pi r^2 = \pi (0.5 \text{ in})^2 = 0.785 \text{ in}^2)$$

2) Find the strain.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{25,478 \text{ psi}}{35 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}} = 0.000728 \text{ (in / in)}$$

3) Determine the cable stretch in inches.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{e}{L_o}$$

$$e = \varepsilon \times L_o = (0.000728 \text{ in / in}) \times (50 \text{ ft} \times \frac{12 \text{ in}}{1 \text{ ft}}) = 0.44 \text{ in}$$