

Materials

Properties
Mechanics

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Why we need to know about materials

- Stuff is made of stuff
 - what should your part be made of?
 - what does it have to do?
 - how thick should you make it
- The properties we usually care about are:
 - stiffness
 - electrical conductivity
 - thermal conductivity
 - heat capacity
 - coefficient of thermal expansion
 - density
 - hardness, damage potential
 - machine-ability
 - surface condition
 - suitability for coating, plating, etc.

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Electrical Resistivity

- Expressed as ρ in $\Omega \cdot m$
 - resistance = $\rho \cdot L/A$
 - where L is length and A is area
 - conductivity is $1/\rho$

Material	ρ ($\times 10^{-6} \Omega \cdot m$)	comments
Silver	0.0147	\$\$
Gold	0.0219	\$\$\$\$
Copper	0.0382	cheapest good conductor
Aluminum	0.047	
Stainless Steel	0.06–0.12	

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Thermal Conductivity

- Expressed as κ in $W m^{-1} K^{-1}$
 - power transmitted = $\kappa \cdot A \cdot \Delta T / t$,
 - where A is area, t is thickness, and ΔT is the temperature across the material

Material	κ ($W m^{-1} K^{-1}$)	comments
Silver	422	room T metals feel cold
Copper	391	great for pulling away heat
Gold	295	
Aluminum	205	
Stainless Steel	10–25	why cookware uses S.S.
Glass, Concrete, Wood	0.5–3	buildings
Many Plastics	~0.4	room T plastics feel warm
G-10 fiberglass	0.29	strongest insulator choice
Stagnant Air	0.024	but usually moving...
Styrofoam	0.01–0.03	can be better than air!

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Specific Heat (heat capacity)

- Expressed as c_p in $\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
 - energy stored = $c_p \cdot m \cdot \Delta T$
 - where m is mass and ΔT is the temperature change

Material	c_p ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$)	comments
water	4184	powerhouse heat capacitor
alcohol (and most liquids)	2500	
wood, air, aluminum, plastic	1000	most things!
brass, copper, steel	400	
platinum	130	

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Coefficient of Thermal Expansion

- Expressed as $\alpha = \delta L/L$ per degree K
 - length contraction = $\alpha \cdot \Delta T \cdot L$,
 - where ΔT is the temperature change, and L is length of material

Material	α ($\times 10^{-6} \text{K}^{-1}$)	comments
Most Plastics	~100	
Aluminum	24	
Copper	20	
Steel	15	
G-10 Fiberglass	9	
Wood	5	
Normal Glass	3–5	
Invar (Nickel/Iron alloy)	1.5	best structural choice
Fused Silica Glass	0.6	

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Density

- Expressed as $\rho = m/V$ in $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$

Material	ρ (kg m^{-3})	comments
Platinum	21452	
Gold	19320	tell this to Indiana Jones
Lead	11349	
Copper, Brass, Steels	7500–9200	
Aluminum Alloys	2700–2900	
Glass	2600	glass and aluminum v. similar
G-10 Fiberglass	1800	
Water	1000	
Air at STP	1.3	

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Stress and Strain

- Everything is a spring!
 - nothing is *infinitely* rigid
- You know Hooke's Law:
 - $F = k \cdot \delta L$
 - where k is the spring constant (N/m), δL is length change
 - for a given material, k should be proportional to A/L
 - say $k = E \cdot A/L$, where E is some elastic constant of the material
- Now divide by cross-sectional area
 - $F/A = \sigma = k \cdot \delta L/A = E \cdot \epsilon$ $\sigma = E \cdot \epsilon$
 - where ϵ is $\delta L/L$: the fractional change in length
- This is the stress-strain law for materials
 - σ is the *stress*, and has units of pressure
 - ϵ is the *strain*, and is unitless

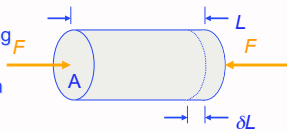
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Stress and Strain, Illustrated

- A bar of material, with a force F applied, will change its size by:

$$\delta L/L = \epsilon = \sigma/E = F/AE$$
- Strain is a very useful number, being dimensionless
- Example: Standing on an aluminum rod:
 - $E = 70 \times 10^9 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ (Pa)
 - say area is $1 \text{ cm}^2 = 0.0001 \text{ m}^2$
 - say length is 1 m
 - weight is 700 N
 - $\sigma = 7 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$
 - $\epsilon = 10^{-4} \rightarrow \delta L = 100 \mu\text{m}$
 - compression is width of human hair



$$\sigma = F/A$$

$$\epsilon = \delta L/L$$

$$\sigma = E \cdot \epsilon$$

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Elastic Modulus

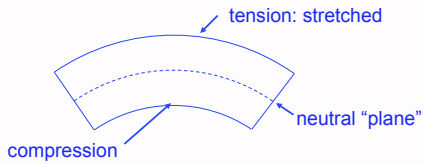
- Basically like a spring constant
 - for a hunk of material, $k = E(A/L)$, but E is the only part of this that is intrinsic to the material: the rest is geometry
- Units are N/m^2 , or a pressure (Pascals)

Material	E (GPa)
Tungsten	350
Steel	190–210
Brass, Bronze, Copper	100–120
Aluminum	70
Glass	50–80
G-10 fiberglass	16
Wood	6–15
most plastics	2–3

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Bending Beams



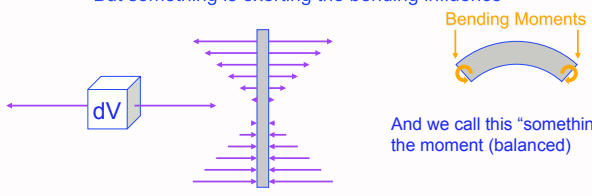
- A bent beam has a stretched outer surface, a compressed inner surface, and a neutral surface somewhere between
- If the neutral length is L , and neutral radius is R , then the strain at some distance, y , from the neutral surface is $(R + y)/R - 1$
 - $\epsilon = y/R$
 - because arclength for same $\Delta\theta$ is proportional to radius
 - note $L = R\Delta\theta$
- So stress at y is $\sigma = Ey/R$

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In the Moment

- Since each mass/volume element is still, the net force is zero
 - Each unit pulls on its neighbor with same force its neighbor pulls on it, and on down the line
 - Thus there is no net moment (torque) on a mass element, and thus on the whole beam
 - otherwise it would rotate: angular momentum would change
 - But something is exerting the bending influence



And we call this "something" the moment (balanced)

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What's it take to bend it?

- At each infinitesimal cross section in rod with coordinates (x, y) and area $dA = dx dy$:
 - $dF = \sigma dA = (Ey/R)dA$
 - where y measures the distance from the neutral surface
 - the moment (torque) at the cross section is just $dM = y \cdot dF$
 - so $dM = Ey^2 dA/R$
 - integrating over cross section:

$$M = \int \frac{E}{R} y^2 dx dy = \frac{EI}{R}$$
 - where we have defined the "moment of inertia" as

$$I \equiv \int y^2 dx dy$$

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Energy in the bent beam

- We know the force on each volume element:
 - $dF = \sigma dA = E \cdot \epsilon dA = (Ey/R)dA$
- We know that the length changes by $\delta L = \epsilon dz = \sigma dz/E$
- So energy is:
 - $dW = dF \cdot \delta L = dF \cdot \epsilon dz = E \cdot \epsilon \cdot dA \times \epsilon dz = E(y/R)^2 dx dy dz$
- Integrate this throughout volume

$$W = \frac{E}{R^2} \int y^2 dx dy dz = \frac{EIL}{R^2}$$
- So $W = M(L/R) \approx M\theta \propto \theta^2$
 - where θ is the angle through which the beam is bent

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Calculating beam deflection

- We start by making a free-body diagram so that all forces and torques are balanced
 - otherwise the beam would fly/rotate off in some direction

- In this case, the wall exerts forces and moments on the beam (though $A_x=0$)
- This example has three point masses and one distributed load

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Tallying the forces/moments

- $A_x = 0$; $A_y = 21,000$ lbs
- $M_{ext} = (4)(4000) + (8)(3000) + (14)(2000) + (11)(6)(2000) = 200,000$ ft-lbs
 - last term is integral:

$$M = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \lambda x dx = \left[\lambda \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{x_1}^{x_2} = \lambda \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2} (x_2 - x_1) = \lambda(x) \Delta x$$
 - where λ is the force per unit length (2000 lbs/ft)

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A Simpler Example

- A cantilever beam under its own weight (or a uniform weight)
 - F_y and M_{ext} have been defined above to establish force/moment balance
 - At any point, distance z along the beam, we can sum the moments about this point and find:

$$M_{\text{tot}} = M_{\text{ext}} - zF_y + \int_0^L \lambda(z-z')dz' = \frac{1}{2}\lambda L^2 - \lambda Lz + \lambda Lz - \frac{1}{2}\lambda L^2 = 0$$
 - validating that we have no net moment about any point, and thus the beam will not spin up on its own!

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What's the deflection?

- At any point, z , along the beam, the **unsupported** moment is given by:

$$M(z) = \int_z^L \lambda(z-z')dz' = \lambda \left[Lz - z^2 - \frac{L^2}{2} + \frac{z^2}{2} \right] = -\frac{mg}{2L}(z^2 - 2Lz + L^2)$$
- From before, we saw that moment and radius of curvature for the beam are related:
 - $M = EI/R$
- And the radius of a curve, Y , is the reciprocal of the second derivative:
 - $d^2Y/dz^2 = 1/R = M/EI$
 - so for this beam, $d^2Y/dz^2 = M/EI = -\frac{mg}{2EIL}(z^2 - 2Lz + L^2)$

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Calculating the curve

- If we want to know the deflection, Y , as a function of distance, z , along the beam, and have the second derivative...
- Integrate the second derivative twice:

$$\frac{d^2Y}{dz^2} = -\frac{mg}{2EIL}(z^2 - 2Lz + L^2) \rightarrow Y = -\frac{mg}{2EIL} \left(\frac{z^4}{12} - \frac{Lz^3}{3} + \frac{L^2z^2}{2} + Cz + D \right)$$
 - where C and D are constants of integration
 - at $z=0$, we define $Y=0$, and note the slope is zero, so C and D are likewise zero
 - so, the beam follows:

$$Y = -\frac{mg}{24EIL}(z^4 - 4Lz^3 + 6L^2z^2)$$
 - with maximum deflection at end: $Y_{\text{max}} = \frac{mgL^3}{8EI}$

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Bending Curve, Illustrated

- Plastic ruler follows expected cantilever curve!

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End-loaded cantilever beam

- Playing the same game as before (integrate moment from z to L):

$$M(z) = (z-L)F \rightarrow \frac{d^2Y}{dz^2} = \frac{1}{R(z)} = \frac{M(z)}{EI} = \frac{F}{EI}(z-L)$$
 - which integrates to:

$$Y = \frac{F}{EI} \left(\frac{z^3}{6} - \frac{Lz^2}{2} + Cz + D \right)$$
 - and at z=0, Y=0 and slope=0 $\rightarrow C = D = 0$, yielding:

$$Y = \frac{F}{6EI}(z^3 - 3Lz^2) \quad Y_{\max} = \frac{FL^3}{3EI}$$

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Simply-supported beam under own weight

force per unit length = λ ; total force = $mg = \lambda L$

- This support cannot exert a moment

$$M(z) = \int_z^L \lambda(z-z')dz' + \frac{1}{2}\lambda L(L-z) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda(Lz - z^2)$$

$$\frac{d^2Y}{dz^2} = \frac{\lambda}{2EI}(Lz - z^2) \rightarrow Y = \frac{\lambda}{2EI} \left(\frac{Lz^3}{6} - \frac{z^4}{12} + Cz + D \right)$$
 - at z=0, Y=0 $\rightarrow D = 0$; at z=L/2, slope = 0 $\rightarrow C = -L^3/12$
$$Y = \frac{mg}{24EIL} (2Lz^3 - z^4 - L^3z) \quad Y_{\max} = \frac{5}{384} \frac{mgL^3}{EI}$$

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Simply-supported beam with centered weight

- Working only from $0 < z < L/2$ (symmetric):

$$M(z) = F \left(z - \frac{L}{2} \right) + \frac{F}{2}(L-z) = \frac{Fz}{2} \rightarrow \frac{d^2Y}{dz^2} = \frac{Fz}{2EI}$$
 - integrating twice, setting $Y(0) = 0, Y(L/2) = 0$:

$$Y = \frac{F}{12EI}(z^3 + Cz + D) \rightarrow Y = \frac{F}{12EI} \left(z^3 - \frac{3L^2z}{4} \right)$$
 - and the max deflection (at $z=L/2$):

$$Y_{\max} = \frac{FL^3}{48EI}$$

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S-flex beam

"walls" are held vertical; beam flexes in "S" shape
total $M(z) = 2M_{\text{ext}} - Fz - F(L-z) = 0$ for all z

- Playing the same game as before (integrate moment from z to L):

$$M(z) = M_{\text{ext}} - F(L-z) = Fz - \frac{FL}{2} \rightarrow \frac{d^2Y}{dz^2} = \frac{1}{R(z)} = \frac{M(z)}{EI} = \frac{F}{2EI}(2z-L)$$
 - which integrates to:

$$Y = \frac{F}{EI} \left(\frac{z^3}{6} - \frac{Lz^2}{4} + Cz + D \right)$$
 - and at z=0, Y=0 and slope=0 $\rightarrow C = D = 0$, yielding:

$$Y = \frac{F}{2EI} \left(\frac{z^3}{3} - \frac{Lz^2}{2} \right) \quad Y'(L) = 0 \quad Y_{\max} = \frac{FL^3}{12EI}$$

as it should be

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Cantilevered beam formulae

BEAM TYPE	SLOPE AT FREE END	DEFLECTION AT ANY SECTION IN TERMS OF x	MAXIMUM DEFLECTION
1. Cantilever Beam – Concentrated load P at the free end	$\theta = \frac{Pl^2}{2EI}$	$y = \frac{Px^2}{6EI}(3l-x)$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Pl^3}{3EI}$
2. Cantilever Beam – Concentrated load P at any point	$\theta = \frac{Pa^2}{2EI}$	$y = \frac{Px^2}{6EI}(3a-x)$ for $0 < x < a$ $y = \frac{Pa^2}{6EI}(3x-a)$ for $a < x < l$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Pa^3}{6EI}(3l-a)$
3. Cantilever Beam – Uniformly distributed load ω (N/m)	$\theta = \frac{\omega l^3}{6EI}$	$y = \frac{\omega x^2}{24EI}(x^2 + 6l^2 - 4lx)$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{\omega l^4}{8EI}$
4. Cantilever Beam – Uniformly varying load, Maximum intensity ω_0 (N/m)	$\theta = \frac{\omega_0 l^3}{24EI}$	$y = \frac{\omega_0 x^2}{120EI}(10l^3 - 10l^2x + 5lx^2 - x^3)$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{\omega_0 l^4}{30EI}$
5. Cantilever Beam – Couple moment M at the free end	$\theta = \frac{Ml}{EI}$	$y = \frac{Mx^2}{2EI}$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Ml^2}{2EI}$

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Simply Supported beam formulae

BEAM TYPE	SLOPE AT ENDS	DEFLECTION AT ANY SECTION IN TERMS OF x	MAXIMUM AND CENTER DEFLECTION
6. Beam Simply Supported at Ends – Concentrated load P at the center	$\theta_1 = \theta_2 = -\frac{Pl^2}{16EI}$	$y = \frac{Px}{12EI}\left(\frac{3l^2}{4} - x^2\right)$ for $0 < x < \frac{l}{2}$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Pl^3}{48EI}$
7. Beam Simply Supported at Ends – Concentrated load P at any point	$\theta_1 = \frac{Pb(l^2 - b^2)}{6EI}$ $\theta_2 = \frac{Pa(l^2 - a^2)}{6EI}$	$y = \frac{Pb}{6EI}(l^2 - x^2 - b^2)$ for $0 < x < a$ $y = \frac{Pb}{6EI}\left[\frac{l}{b}(x-a)^3 + (l^2 - b^2)x - x^3\right]$ for $a < x < l$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Pb(l^2 - b^2)^2}{9\sqrt{3}EI}$ at $x = \sqrt{(l^2 - b^2)/3}$ $\delta = \frac{Pb}{48EI}(3l^2 - 4b^2)$ at the center, if $a > b$
8. Beam Simply Supported at Ends – Uniformly distributed load ω (N/m)	$\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \frac{\omega l^3}{24EI}$	$y = \frac{\omega x}{24EI}(l^3 - 2lx^2 + x^3)$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{5\omega l^4}{384EI}$
9. Beam Simply Supported at Ends – Couple moment M at the right end	$\theta_1 = \frac{Ml}{6EI}$ $\theta_2 = \frac{Ml}{3EI}$	$y = \frac{Mlx}{6EI}\left(1 - \frac{x^2}{l^2}\right)$	$\delta_{\max} = \frac{Ml^2}{9\sqrt{3}EI}$ at $x = \frac{l}{\sqrt{3}}$ $\delta = \frac{Ml^2}{16EI}$ at the center
10. Beam Simply Supported at Ends – Uniformly varying load, Maximum intensity ω_0 (N/m)	$\theta_1 = \frac{7\omega_0 l^3}{360EI}$ $\theta_2 = \frac{\omega_0 l^3}{45EI}$	$y = \frac{\omega_0 x}{360EI}(7l^4 - 10l^2x^2 + 3x^4)$	$\delta_{\max} = 0.00652 \frac{\omega_0 l^4}{EI}$ at $x = 0.519l$ $\delta = 0.0061 \frac{\omega_0 l^4}{EI}$ at the center

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Lessons to be learned

- All deflections inversely proportional to E
 - the stiffer the spring, the less it bends
- All deflections inversely proportional to I
 - cross-sectional geometry counts
- All deflections proportional to applied force/weight
 - in linear regime: Hooke's law
- All deflections proportional to length cubed
 - pay the price for going long!
 - beware that if beam under own weight, $mg \propto L$ also (so L^4)
- Numerical prefactors of maximum deflection, Y_{\max} , for same load/length were:
 - 1/3 for end-loaded cantilever
 - 1/8 for uniformly loaded cantilever
 - 1/48 for center-loaded simple beam
 - 5/384 ~ 1/77 for uniformly loaded simple beam
- Thus support at both ends helps: cantilevers suffer

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Getting a feel for the I -thingy

- The “moment of inertia,” or second moment came into play in every calculation

$$I \equiv \int y^2 dx dy$$
- Calculating this for a variety of simple cross sections:
- Rectangular beam:


$$I = \int_{-a}^a dx \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{\frac{b}{2}} y^2 dy = a \left[\frac{y^3}{3} \right]_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{\frac{b}{2}} = \frac{ab^3}{12} = \frac{A^2 b}{12 a}$$
 - note the cube-power on b : twice as thick (in the direction of bending) is 8-times better!
 - For fixed area, win by fraction b/a

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Moments Later


- Circular beam**
 - work in polar coordinates, with $y = r \sin \theta$



radius, R

$$I = \int_0^R r dr \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{\pi R^4}{4} = \frac{A^2}{4\pi}$$

- note that the area-squared fraction ($1/4\pi$) is very close to that for a square beam ($1/12$ when $a = b$)
- so for the same area, a circular cross section performs almost as well as a square

- Circular tube**



inner radius R_1 , outer radius R_2
or, outer radius R , thickness t

$$I = \int_{R_1}^{R_2} r dr \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{\pi}{4} (R_2^4 - R_1^4) = \frac{\pi}{4} (R_2^2 + R_1^2)(R_2 - R_1) = \frac{A}{4} (R_1^2 + R_2^2)$$

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And more moments

- Circular tube, continued**
 - if $R_2 = R$, $R_1 = R - t$, for small t : $I \approx (A^2/4\pi)(R/t)$
 - for same area, thinner wall stronger (until crumples/dents compromised integrity)
- Rectangular Tube**

 - wall thickness = t

$$I = 2 \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{\frac{b}{2}} dx \int_{\frac{b}{2}-t}^{\frac{b}{2}} y^2 dy + 2 \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{\frac{b}{2}} dx \int_{-\frac{b}{2}+t}^{\frac{b}{2}-t} y^2 dy = 2a \left[\frac{b^3}{24} - \frac{(\frac{b}{2}-t)^3}{3} \right] + 4t \frac{(\frac{b}{2}-t)^3}{3}$$

- and if t is small compared to a & b :


$$I \approx \frac{ab^2t}{2} + \frac{b^3t}{6} \text{ and for a square geom.: } I_{sq} \approx \frac{2a^3t}{3} \approx \frac{A^2 a}{24 t}$$
- note that for $a = b$ (square), side walls only contribute 1/4 of the total moment of inertia: best to have more mass at larger y -value: this is what makes the integral bigger!

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The final moment

- The I-beam**
 - we will ignore the minor contribution from the "web" connecting the two flanges



$$I = 2 \int_{-\frac{b}{2}}^{\frac{b}{2}} dx \int_{\frac{b}{2}-t}^{\frac{b}{2}} y^2 dy = 2a \left[\frac{b^3}{24} - \frac{(\frac{b}{2}-t)^3}{3} \right] \approx \frac{ab^2t}{2}$$

- note this is just the rectangular tube result without the side wall. If you want to put a web member in, it will add an extra $b^3t/12$, roughly

$$I \approx \frac{A^2 b b}{8 a t}$$
- in terms of area = $2at$:

$$I \approx \frac{A^2 b b}{8 a t}$$
- The I-beam puts as much material at high y -value as it can, where it maximally contributes to the beam stiffness**
 - the web just serves to hold these flanges apart

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Lessons on moments

- Thickness in the direction of bending helps to the third power**
 - always orient a 2x4 with the "4" side in the bending direction
- For their weight/area, tubes do better by putting material at high y -values**
- I-beams maximize the moment for the same reason**
- For square geometries, equal material area, and a thickness 1/20 of width (where appropriate), we get:**
 - square solid: $I \approx A^2/12 \approx 0.083A^2$
 - circular solid: $I \approx A^2/4\pi \approx 0.080A^2$
 - square tube: $I \approx 20A^2/24 \approx 0.83A^2$
 - circular tube: $I \approx 10A^2/4\pi \approx 0.80A^2$
 - I-beam: $I \approx 20A^2/8 \approx 2.5A^2$

} 10x better than solid form
func. of assumed 1/20 ratio

- I-beam wins hands-down**

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Beyond Elasticity

- Materials remain elastic for a while
 - returning to exact previous shape
- But ultimately plastic (permanent) deformation sets in
 - and without a great deal of extra effort

σ_u	Ultimate stress
σ_f	Fracture stress
σ_y	Yield stress
σ_{pl}	Proportionality limit

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Breaking Stuff

- Once out of the elastic region, permanent damage results
 - thus one wants to stay below the yield stress
 - yield strain = yield stress / elastic modulus

Material	Yield Stress (MPa)	Yield Strain
Tungsten*	1400	0.004
Steel	280–1600	0.0015–0.0075
Brass, Bronze, Copper	60–500	0.0005–0.0045
Aluminum	270–500	0.004–0.007
Glass*	70	0.001
Wood	30–60	0.0025–0.005
most plastics*	40–80	0.01–0.04

* ultimate stress quoted (see next slide for reason)

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Notes on Yield Stress

- The entries in red in the previous table represent ultimate stress rather than yield stress
 - these are materials that are brittle, experiencing no plastic deformation, or plastics, which do not have a well-defined elastic-to-plastic transition
- There is much variability depending on alloys
 - the yield stress for steels are
 - stainless: 280–700
 - machine: 340–700
 - high strength: 340–1000
 - tool: 520
 - spring: 400–1600 (want these to be elastic as long as possible)
 - aluminum alloys
 - 6061-T6: 270 (most commonly used in machine shops)
 - 7075-T6: 480

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Shear Stress

$\tau = F/A$, where A is bolt's cross-sectional area

- $\tau = G\gamma$
 - τ is the shear stress ($N \cdot m^{-2}$) = force over area = F/dA
 - dA is now the shear plane (see diagram)
 - G is the shear modulus ($N \cdot m^{-2}$)
 - γ is the angular deflection (radians)
- The shear modulus is related to E , the elastic modulus
 - $E/G = 2(1+\nu)$
 - ν is called Poisson's ratio, and is typically around 0.27–0.33

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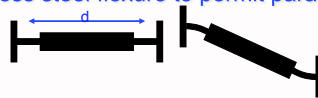
Practical applications of stress/strain

- Infrared spectrograph bending (flexure)
 - dewar whose inner shield is an aluminum tube 1/8 inch (3.2 mm) thick, 5 inch (127 mm) radius, and 1.5 m long
 - weight is 100 Newtons
 - loaded with optics throughout, so assume (extra) weight is 20 kg → 200 Newtons
 - If gravity loads sideways (when telescope is near horizon), what is maximum deflection, and what is maximum angle?
 - calculate $I \approx (A^2/4\pi)(R/t) = 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^4$
 - $E = 70 \times 10^9$
 - $Y_{\text{max}} = mgL^3/8EI = 90 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ deflection
 - $Y_{\text{max}} = mgL^2/6EI = 80 \text{ } \mu\text{R}$ angle
- Now the effect of these can be assessed in connection with the optical performance

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Applications, continued

- A stainless steel flexure to permit parallel displacement
 
 - each flexing member has length $L = 13 \text{ mm}$, width $a = 25 \text{ mm}$, and bending thickness $b = 2.5 \text{ mm}$, separated by $d = 150 \text{ mm}$
 - how much range of motion do we have?
 - stress greatest on skin (max tension/compression)
 - Max strain is $\epsilon = \sigma_y/E = 280 \text{ MPa} / 200 \text{ GPa} = 0.0014$
 - strain is y/R , so $b/2R = 0.0014 \rightarrow R = b/0.0028 = 0.9 \text{ m}$
 - $\theta = L/R = 0.013/0.9 = 0.014$ radians (about a degree)
 - so max displacement is about $d \cdot \theta = 2.1 \text{ mm}$
 - energy in bent member is $EIL/R^2 = 0.1 \text{ J}$ per member → 0.2 J total
 - $W = F \cdot d \rightarrow F = (0.2 \text{ J})/(0.002 \text{ m}) = 100 \text{ N}$ (~ 20 lb)

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Flexure Design

- Sometimes you need a design capable of flexing a certain amount without breaking, but want the thing to be as stiff as possible under this deflection
 - strategy:
 - work out deflection formula;
 - decide where maximum stress is (where moment, and therefore curvature, is greatest);
 - work out formula for maximum stress;
 - combine to get stress as function of displacement
 - invert to get geometry of beam as function of tolerable stress
 - example: end-loaded cantilever

$$Y_{\text{max}} = \frac{FL^3}{3EI}$$

Δy is displacement from centerline (half-thickness)

$$M(z) = F(z - L) \rightarrow \text{max at } z = 0$$

$$\text{max strain, } \epsilon = \frac{\Delta y}{R} = \frac{\Delta y M_{\text{max}}}{EI} = \frac{FL\Delta y}{EI} \rightarrow \text{max stress, } \sigma_{\text{max}} = E\epsilon = \frac{FL\Delta y}{I}$$

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Flexure Design, cont.

- Note that the ratio F/I appears in both the Y_{max} and σ_{max} formulae (can therefore eliminate)

$$\sigma_{\text{max}} = \frac{F}{I} L \Delta y = \frac{3EY_{\text{max}}}{L^3} L \Delta y = \frac{3EY_{\text{max}} \Delta y}{L^2} = \frac{3EY_{\text{max}} h}{2L^2}$$

where $h = 2\Delta y$ is beam thickness
- If I can tolerate some fraction of the yield stress

$$\sigma_{\text{max}} = \sigma_y / \Phi$$


where Φ is the safety factor (often chosen to be 2)

$$h = \frac{\sigma_{\text{max}}}{E} \frac{2L^2}{3Y_{\text{max}}} = \frac{\sigma_y}{\Phi E} \frac{2L^2}{3Y_{\text{max}}} = \epsilon_{\text{max}} \frac{2L^2}{3Y_{\text{max}}}$$
- so now we have the necessary (maximum) beam thickness that can tolerate a displacement Y_{max} without exceeding the safety factor, Φ
- You will need to go through a similar procedure to work out the thickness of a flexure that follows the S-bend type (prevalent in the Lab 2)

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Notes on Bent Member Flexure Design



- When the flex members have moments at both ends, they curve into more-or-less an arc of constant radius, accomplishing angle θ
- $R = EI/M$, and $\theta = L/R = ML/EI$, where L is the length of the flexing beam (not the whole assembly)
- $\sigma_{max} = E\epsilon_{max} = E\Delta y/R = h\theta E/2L$, so $h = (\sigma_y/\phi E) \times (2LI/\theta)$
 - where $h = 2\Delta y$ and $R = L/\theta$

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Kinematic Design

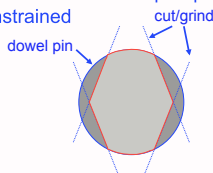
- Physicists care where things are
 - position and orientation of optics, detectors, etc. can really matter
- Much of the effort in the machine shop boils down to holding things where they need to be
 - and often allowing controlled adjustment around the nominal position
- Any rigid object has 6 degrees of freedom
 - three translational motions in 3-D space
 - three "Euler" angles of rotation
 - take the earth: need to know two coordinates in sky to which polar axis points, plus one rotation angle (time dependent) around this axis to nail its orientation
- Kinematic design seeks to provide minimal/critical constraint

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Basic Principles

- A three-legged stool will never rock
 - as opposed to 4-legged
 - each leg removes one degree of freedom, leaving 3
 - can move in two dimensions on planar floor, and can rotate about vertical axis
- A pin & hole constrain two translational degrees of freedom
- A second pin constrains rotation
 - though best if it's a diamond-shaped-pin, so that the device is not over-constrained

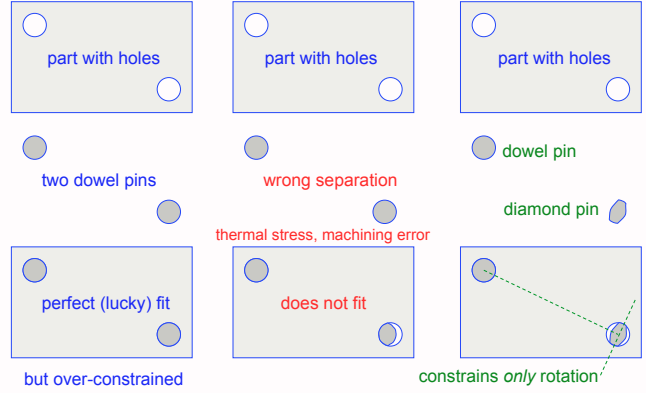


a diamond pin is a home-made modification to a dowel pin: sides are removed so that the pin effectively is a one-dim. constraint rather than 2-d

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Diamond Pin Idea



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Kinematic Summary

- Combining these techniques, a part that must be located precisely will:
 - sit on three legs or pads
 - be constrained within the plane by a dowel pin and a diamond pin
- Reflective optics will often sit on three pads
 - when making the baseplate, can leave three bumps in appropriate places
 - only have to be 0.010 high or so
 - use delrin-tipped (plastic) spring plungers to gently push mirror against pads

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References and Assignment

- For more on mechanics:
 - *Mechanics of Materials*, by Gere and Timoshenko
- For a boatload of stress/strain/deflection examples worked out:
 - *Roark's Formulas for Stress and Strain*
- Reading from text:
 - Section 1.5; 1.5.1 & 1.5.5; 1.6, 1.6.1, 1.6.5, 1.6.6 (3rd ed.)
 - Section 1.2.3; 1.6.1; 1.7 (1.7.1, 1.7.5, 1.7.6) (4th ed.)
- Additional reading on Phys239 website from 2010
 - http://www.physics.ucsd.edu/~tmurphy/phys239/lectures/twm_lecture6.pdf
 - very similar development to this lecture, with more text

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