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CRANES & RIGGING BASICS & SAFETY

Main Category:	Civil Engineering
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Course #:	CIV-120
Course Content:	94 pgs
PDH/CE Hours:	7

OFFICIAL COURSE/EXAM

(SEE INSTRUCTIONS ON NEXT PAGE)

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CIV-120 EXAM PREVIEW

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Exam Preview:

1. According to the reference material, anytime you are traveling with a crane, stay a minimum of 10 feet from any electrical power source.
   a. True
   b. False
2. According to the reference material, when the crawler crane is climbing grades, the maximum grade capability is __ percent on firm, dry material.
   a. 20
   b. 30
   c. 40
   d. 45
3. According to the reference material, in the NCF, never use a chain when it is possible to use wire rope. The reason for this is because, unlike wire rope, chain does not have reserve strength and does not give any warning that it is about to fail; therefore, you will not be alerted of a potentially hazardous condition.
   a. True
   b. False
4. According to the reference material, truck cranes have a high ground bearing pressure, ranging from 75 to 100 psi due to the pneumatic tires on which the machine travels. On a firm, dry surface, a truck carrier can climb a __-percent grade.
   a. 20
   b. 30
   c. 40
   d. 45

5. According to the reference material, swage socket, cappel socket, and zinc (spelter) socket wire rope end connections all provide 100 percent of the breaking strength of the wire rope when properly made.
    a. True
    b. False
6. According to the reference material, the construction industry rates dragline buckets in different types and classes. Which of the following buckets are available for dredging operations?
    a. Type I
    b. Type III
    c. Class S
    d. Class P
7. Using Figure 12-36. —Common wire rope defects and the surrounding reference material, you must replace the rope is there are __ or more broken wires in one lay in standing ropes.
    a. 2
    b. 3
    c. 4
    d. 6
8. According to the reference material, do not rely on the boom angle indicator for radius accuracy when lifts exceed 50 percent of the rated capacity.
    a. True
    b. False
9. Using Figure 12-45.-Crane capacity lost by crane out of level, what is the capacity lost for a long boom crane with a minimum lift radius?
    a. 20%
    b. 30%
    c. 41%
    d. 50%
10. The most common strand constructions are Ordinary, Seale, Warrington, and Filler. Which of the following wire types matches the description: where alternate wires are large and small to combine great flexibility with resistance to abrasion?
    a. Ordinary
    b. Seale
    c. Warrington
    d. Filler

CRANES AND ATTACHMENTS
BASICS & SAFETY

Cranes and attachments are essential to the support of Naval Construction Force (NCF) operations. Lifting heavy objects, loading and unloading construction materials, excavating earthwork materials, and driving and extracting piles are typical tasks accomplished by the use of cranes and attachments.

Cranes and attachments procedures are a complex set of characteristics. Proper and efficient operation of cranes and their attachments requires more knowledge and skill than for any other piece of construction equipment you will operate.

NOTE: You must always be exceptionally safety conscious when working on or around crane operations of any type.

This chapter covers the characteristics and basic principles of operations of cranes and attachments. By reading the operator's manual and attending crane school, you can obtain detailed information about crane operations.

CRANES

Cranes are classified as **weight-handling equipment** and are designed primarily to perform weight-lifting and excavating operations under varied conditions. To make the most efficient use of a crane, you must know their capabilities and limitations.

TYPES OF CRANES

Cranes have evolved from many designs to satisfy the needs of construction and industrial operations. Operational characteristics of all cranes are basically the same. Although the superstructure is about the same on all makes and models of mobile cranes, the carrier, or mounting, may be one of three types: crawler, truck, or wheel (fig. 12-1).

Crawler-Mounted Cranes

The crawler-mounted crane is categorized under the 42-00000 USN number registration series. The crawler-mounted crane is slower and less mobile than the truck-mounted crane; however, the crawler-mount crane provides a stable base for operation of the revolving superstructure.

The travel unit of the crawler crane is shown in figure 12-2. The travel unit includes the base, travel gears, clutches, travel brakes, sprockets, rollers, crawler chains, and crawler treads. The revolving superstructure rotates on the turntable (fig. 12-3).

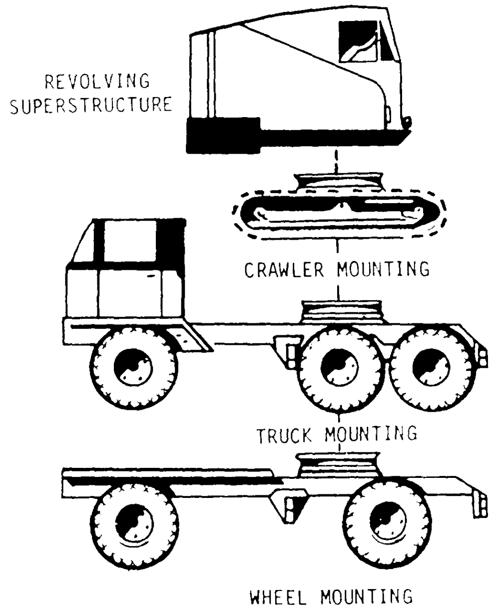


Figure 12-1.-Crane carrier mountings.

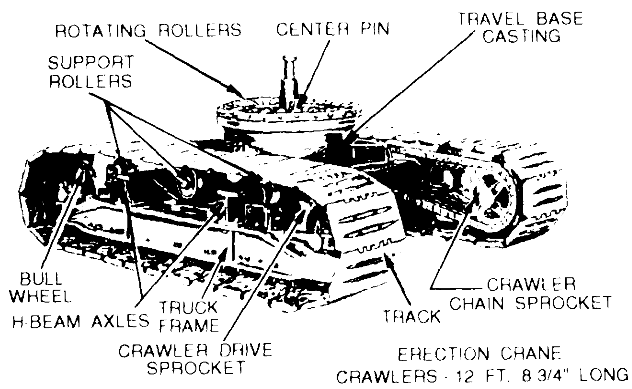


Figure 12-2.—Crawler crane travel unit.

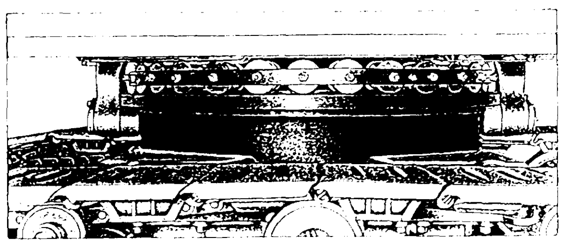


Figure 12-3.—Turntable assembly.

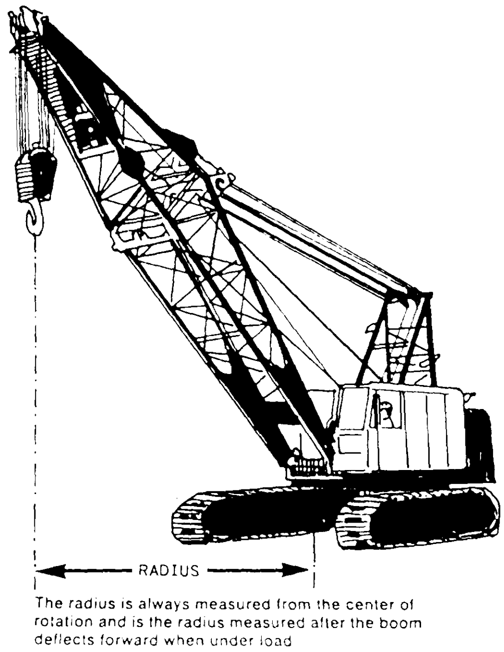


Figure 12-4.-Crane radius measurement.

The primary advantage of the crawler crane over the truck-mounted crane is that it is better suited for continuous work in remote areas that are not readily accessible to truck-mounted cranes because of terrain conditions. Also, the crawler crane has steering with positive traction that permits the crawler crane to travel and turn without cutting up the work area or roadway.

The size of the crawler treads spreads the weight of the crane over a large area. This feature gives the crawler crane a low ground bearing pressure of 5 to 12 psi, giving the crane the versatility needed to travel over soft terrain. When the crawler crane is climbing grades, the maximum grade capability is 30 percent on firm, dry material. The turning radius of the crawler crane is about the length of the tracks, which travel 1/2 to 2 mph. Because of the slow travel speed, it is not productive to try to travel more than 1 mile. Additionally, traveling the crane a long distance at one time causes extra wear to the tracks. When travel distance exceeds 1 mile, transport the crawler by tractor-trailer.

NOTE: Consult the operator's manual for detailed information if required to track travel for more than 1 mile,

Steering of the crawler crane is performed by engaging the steering lever in the direction you want the crane to turn. Some models of crawler cranes have a swing-travel jaw clutch that is controlled by one lever

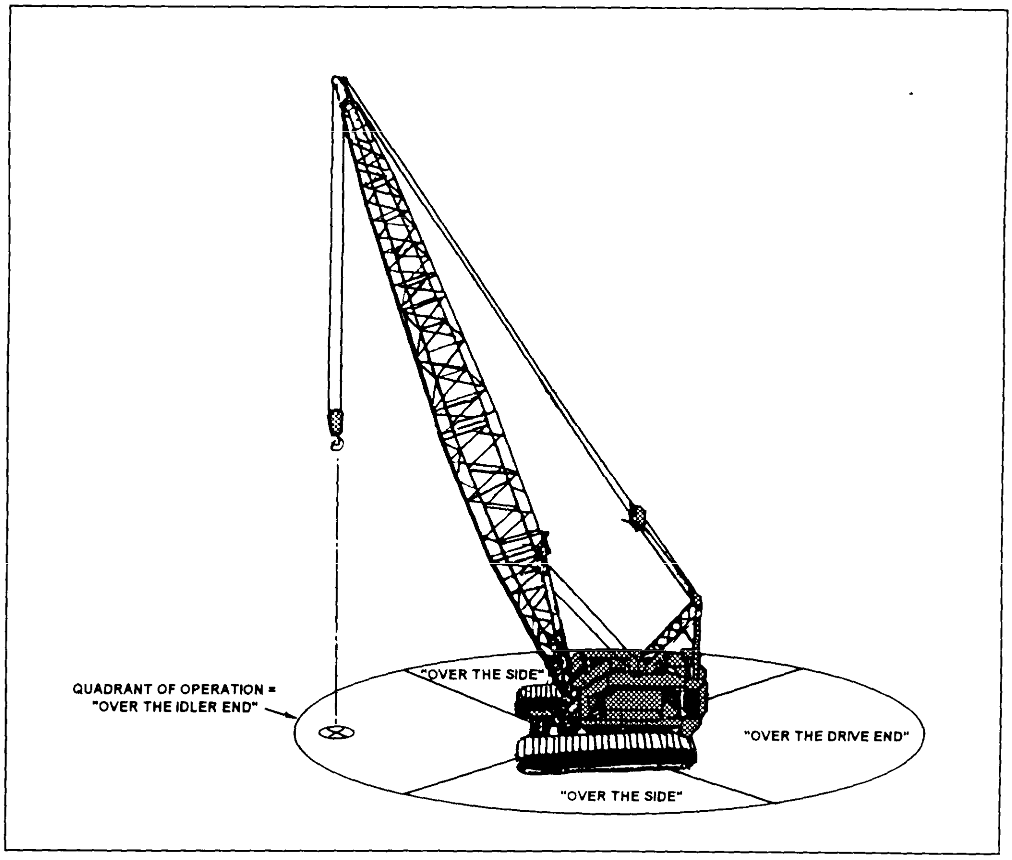


Figure 12-5.—Crawler-mounted crane quadrants of operation.

and provide power for either swinging the crane or traveling the crane. The swing-travel jaw clutch requires the operator to engage a button or push a lever to select for swing or travel operations. Other models have a separate steering and swing lever, allowing both functions to be operated at the same time.

Use caution when traveling with a crawler crane on and around slopes. Some older types of crawler cranes do not have travel brakes and power could be disengaged, causing the crawler to freewheel.

On-the-job maneuvering is easy because of the small turning radius of the crawler crane. Additionally, the crawler crane does not require the use of outriggers for stability, so it requires less room for setting up. On some models of crawler cranes, the tracks can extend outward, providing the crane with more stability. Crawler crane models, on which the crawler tracks can extend, are rated at 85 percent of the minimum weight that can cause the crane to tip at a specified radius with the basic boom, Crawler models that do not have extendable tracks are rated at 75 percent. Crane radius measurement is measured from the center of rotation to the center of the hook after the boom deflects forward when under load, as shown in figure 12-4.

Depending on the make and model, most crawler cranes have a 360-degree working area. This working area is divided into operating areas called **quadrants of operation.** The crane capacity is based on the quadrants, such as for over the side, over the drive end, and over the idler end, for a crawler-mounted crane (fig. 12-5). The capacity of the crane may change when rotating a load from one quadrant to another. This information is provided on the crane load chart.

Truck-Mounted Cranes

The truck-mounted crane (fig. 12-6) consists of a truck carrier and house (upper revolving unit) and is categorized under the 82-00000 USN number registration series. The truck carrier can travel from different jobsites at 20 to 35 mph.

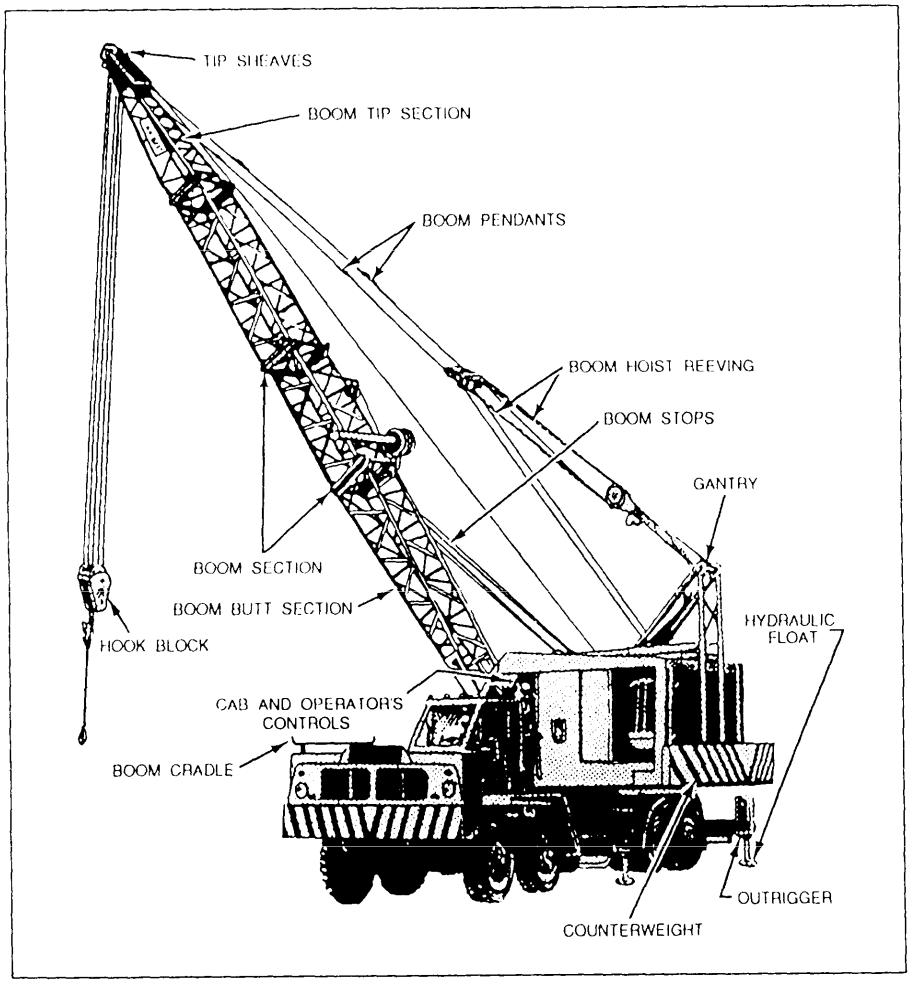


Figure 12-6.—Truck-mounted crane.

Truck cranes have a high ground bearing pressure, ranging from 75 to 100 psi due to the pneumatic tires on which the machine travels. On a firm, dry surface, a truck carrier can climb a 40-percent grade. Depending on the design of the carrier, the turning radius can range from 50 to over 90 feet. This high turning radius limits its maneuverability.

Before any crane travels to a jobsite, the crane crew supervisor must visually review the planned travel route to determine if low wires, low overpasses, narrow bridges, or other unsafe obstacles exist. The absolute limit of approach for power lines (fig. 12-7) is the following:

1. 0 to 125,000 volts, 10 feet
2. 125,000 to 250,000 volts, 15 feet
3. Over 250,000 volts, 25 feet

Anytime you are traveling with a crane, stay a minimum of 4 feet from any electrical power source.

When traveling with a truck-mounted crane equipped with a lattice boom, do NOT rest the boom on the cradle, as the lower cords of the boom can be dented if the boom bounces while traveling. Position the boom 2 to 4 inches above the cradle.

Truck- and wheel-mounted cranes are rated at 85 percent of the minimum weight that can cause the crane to tip at a specified radius with the basic boom. The truck carrier is equipped with outriggers that provide more stability for the crane; therefore, when you are making crane lifts, the outriggers should always be used.

As outlined in the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.1, Naval Mobile Construction

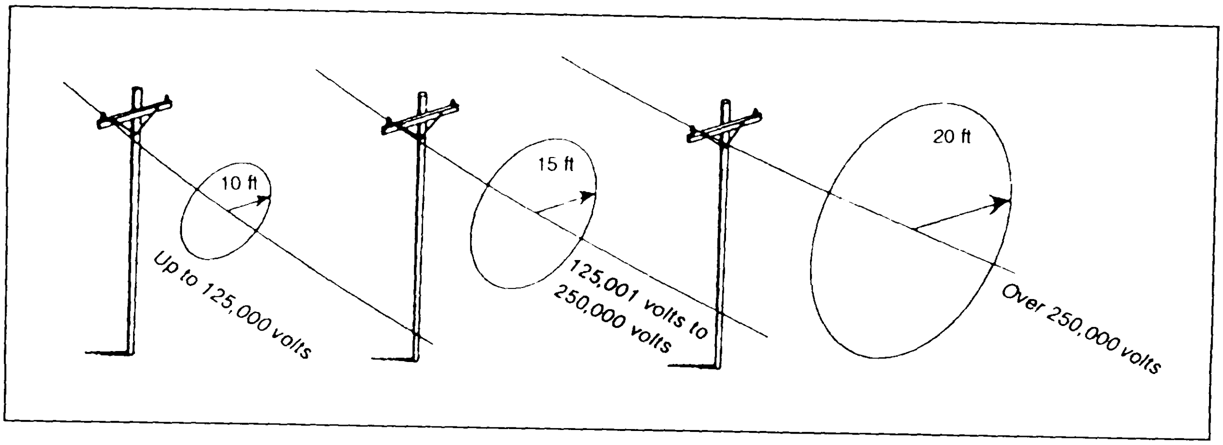


Figure 12-7.—Limit of approach for power lines.

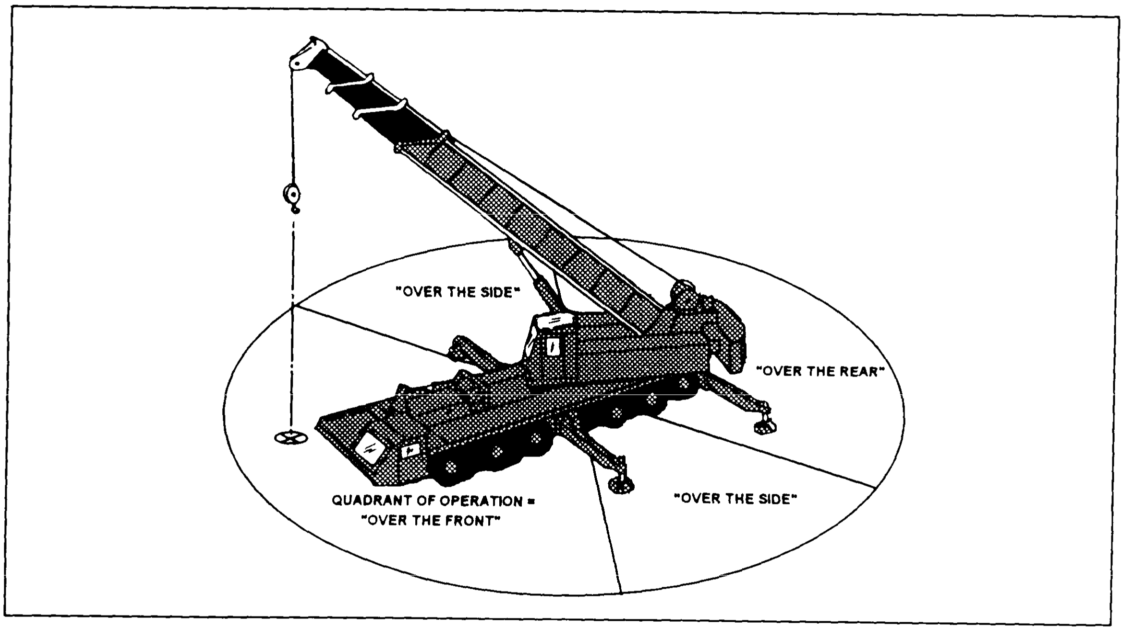


Figure 12-8.—Truck-mounted crane quadrants of operation.

Battalion, Equipment Management, rated free loads or pick and carry operations will only be performed according to NAVFAC P-307 during a crane certification, in case of an emergency, or as directed by the crane certifying officer.

Depending on the make and model, most truck-mounted cranes have a 270-degree working area. Some truck-mounted cranes are equipped with an optional front outrigger that provides a 360- degree working area The quadrants of operation for truck-mounted crones are over the side, over the rear, and over the front if equipped with the front outrigger (fig. 12-8).

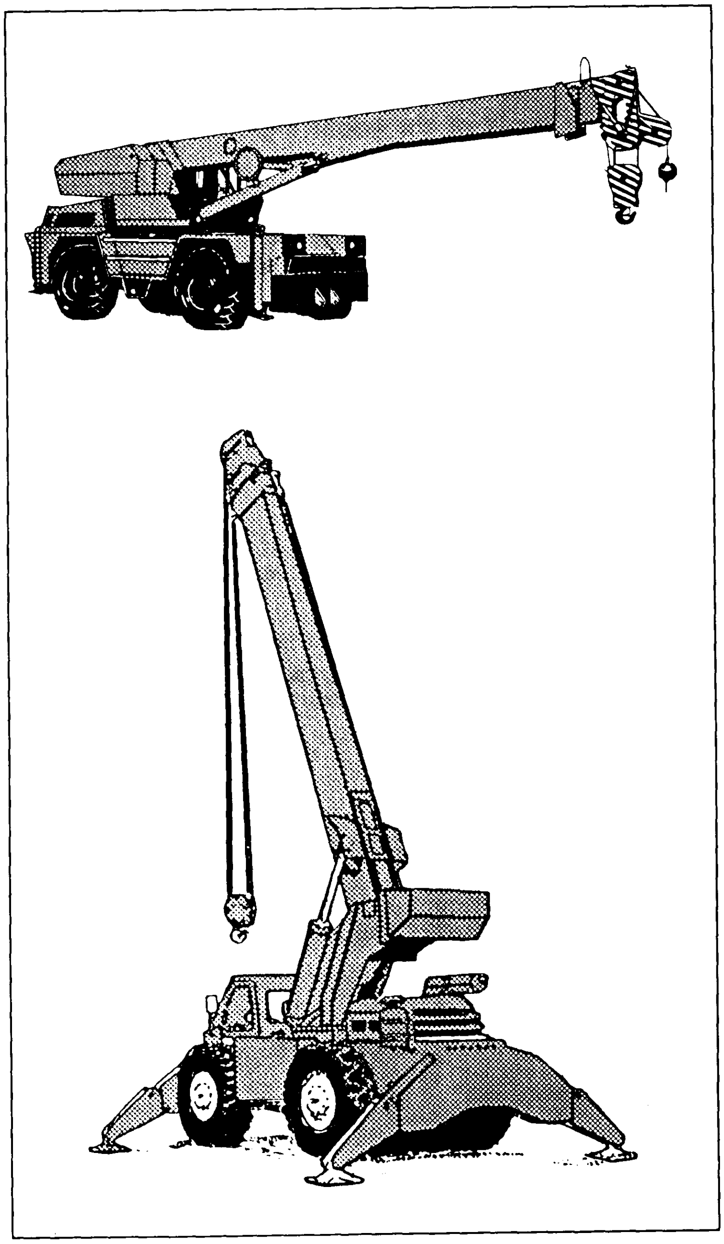


Figure 12-9.—Wheel-mounted cranes.

NOTE: The capacity of the crane may change when rotating a load from one quadrant to another. This information is provided on the crane load chart.

Wheel-Mounted Cranes

Wheel-mounted cranes range in various sizes and have capacities from 5 to 35 tons or larger (fig. 12-9).

The wheel-mounted cranes shown in figure 12-9 are hydraulically operated, four-wheel drive, four-wheel steer, pneumatic-tired, engine-powered diesel. The superstructure consists of a telescoping boom, single-acting hydraulic lift cylinders, a hydraulically operated hoist drum, and a hook block attachment.

The wheel-mounted crane has a ground bearing pressure of about 35 psi and can travel at speeds ranging from 2 to 30 mph. It can turn in a 30-foot radius with two-wheel steering and in a 17-foot radius with four-wheel steering and can travel up a firm, dry 40-percent grade.

The wheel-mounted crane is a mobile and flexible crane that can be driven on or off roads over rough terrain. It is best suited for lifts around shops or for supporting fabrication projects that call for many varied, mobile lifts within a small working area.

Depending on the make and model, most wheel-mounted cranes have a 360-degree work area The quadrants of operation for wheel-mounted cranes are over the side, over the rear, and over the front (fig. 12-10). **Remember** that the capacity of the crane may

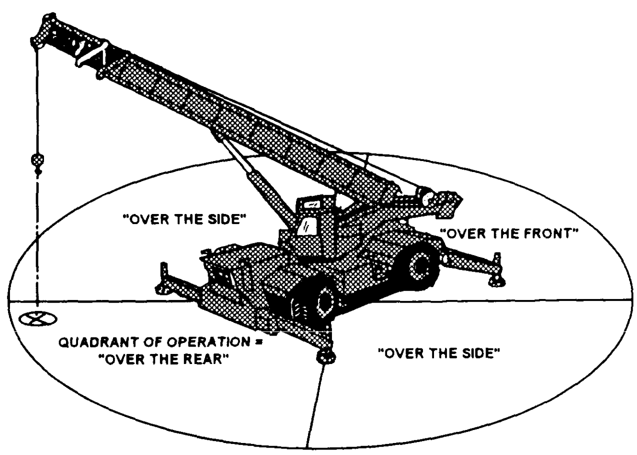


Figure 12-10.—Wheel-mounted crane quadrants of operation.

change when rotating a load from one quadrant to another. This information is provided on the crane load chart.

LATTICE BOOM CRANE

The major components of a lattice boom crane are shown in figure 12-11. Inspecting each of these components is part of the operator's prestart inspection.

The lattice boom supports the working load and is the most common boom used in the NCF. It is used on all types and makes of cranes and is mounted at the boom butt on the revolving superstructure. The basic boom consists of the boom butt and boom tip, and the length is increased by adding boom extensions.

Boom Sections

Lattice boom sections are made of lightweight, thin wall, high strength alloy tubular or angle steel and are designed to take compression loads. The most common boom is tubular. Terminology of a lattice boom section is shown in figure 12-12.

Manufacturers have set a zero tolerance on rust, bent lacings or cords, cracked welds, and other problems that affect the strength of the lattice boom. This zero tolerance requires crane crews to use extreme care when handling unused sections with forklifts, storing unused sections away from traffic areas, transporting and securing sections on tractor-trailers, and preventing equipment or obstacles from running into the boom while mounted on the crane during transport, performing operations, or when parked.

As outlined in the *Management of Weight-Handling Equipment, Maintenance and Certification,* NAVFAC P-307, all lattice boom cranes with structural damage to the main cords of the boom must be immediately

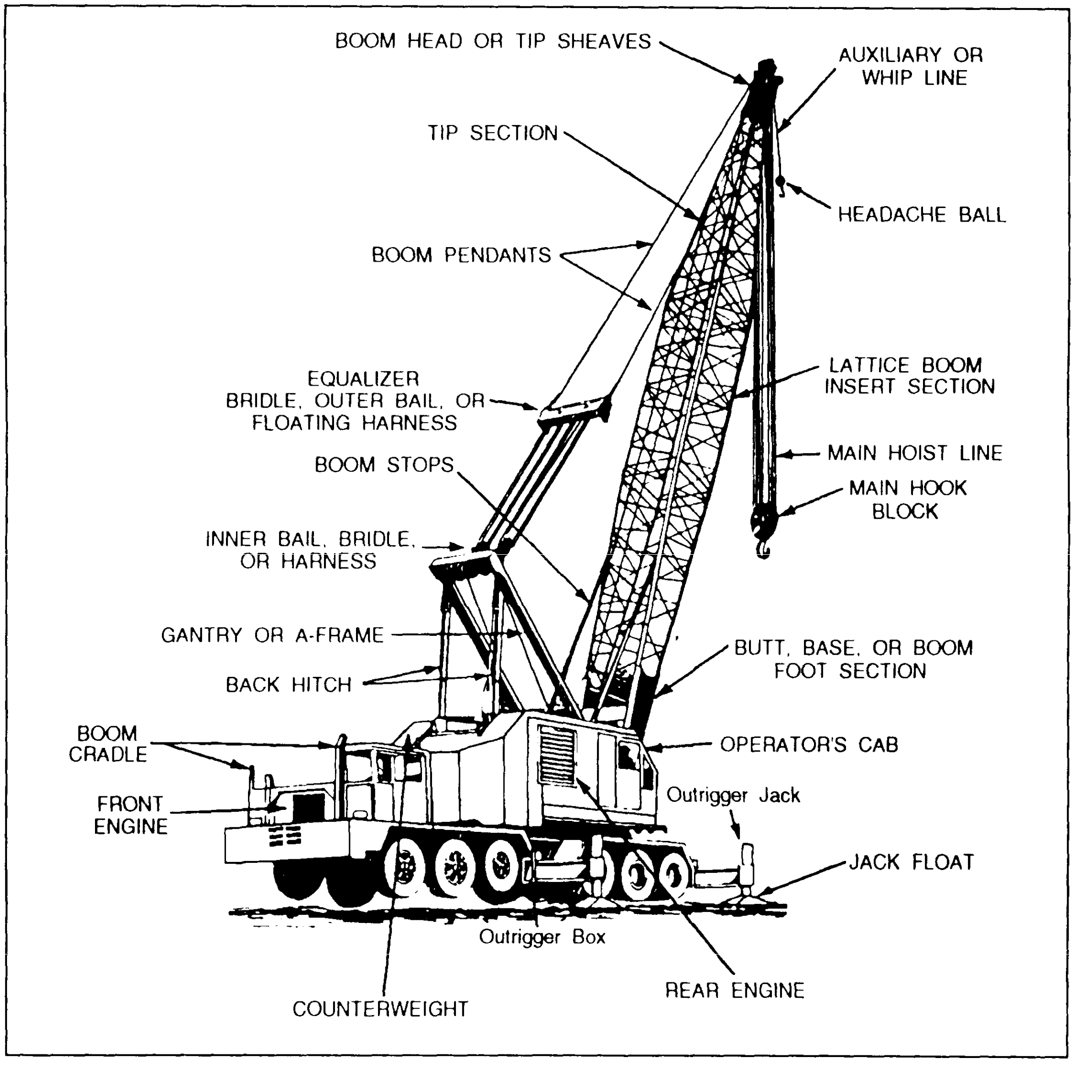
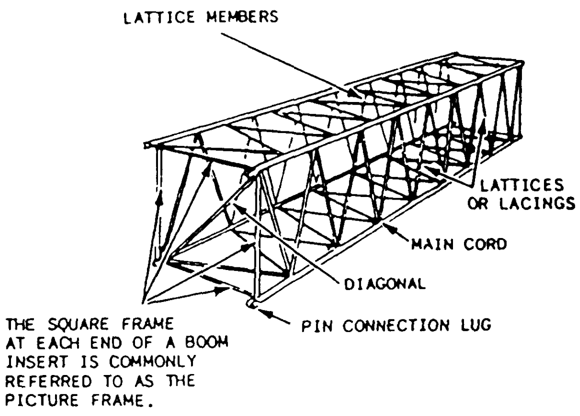


Figure 12-11.—Lattice boom crane components.



33Figure 12-12.-Lattice boom terminology.

removed from service. When the main cords of tubular boom sections are damaged in any manner, including slight dents, they are severely weakened and have failed at loads significantly below capacities. As outlined in the 11200.1, structural repairs will not be made without written approval from COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCB equipo offices.

In the NCF, sections normally come in 10- to 20-foot lengths. When adding several sections of different lengths, check the operator's manual for boom section configuration. If this information is not in the operator's manual, a rule of thumb used when mixing short boom sections with long sections, you install the shorter sections closest to the boom butt; for example, if you use two 10-foot sections and one 20-foot section, install the two 10-foot sections closest to the boom butt. The boom sections are bolted by plate (flange) connections (fig. 12-13, view A) or pin and clevis connections (fig. 12-13, view B). The most common is the pin and clevis.

All boom sections that come with a crane will have an attachment identification number attached that assigns the boom section to a specific crane.

Boom Angle Indicators

Boom angle indicators are normally mounted on the boom butt, visually readable by the operator. On most models in the NCF, the boom angle indicator is a metal plate with degree numbers (0 to 90 degrees) and a freely swinging arm that reacts as the boom angle changes (fig. 12-14). The numbers and arm should remain clean and visually readable at all time.

The capacities that are listed on the crane load charts are also based on and vary with the boom angle of the crane. On hydraulic cranes, the boom angle is the angle between the bottom of the boom butt and the horizontal

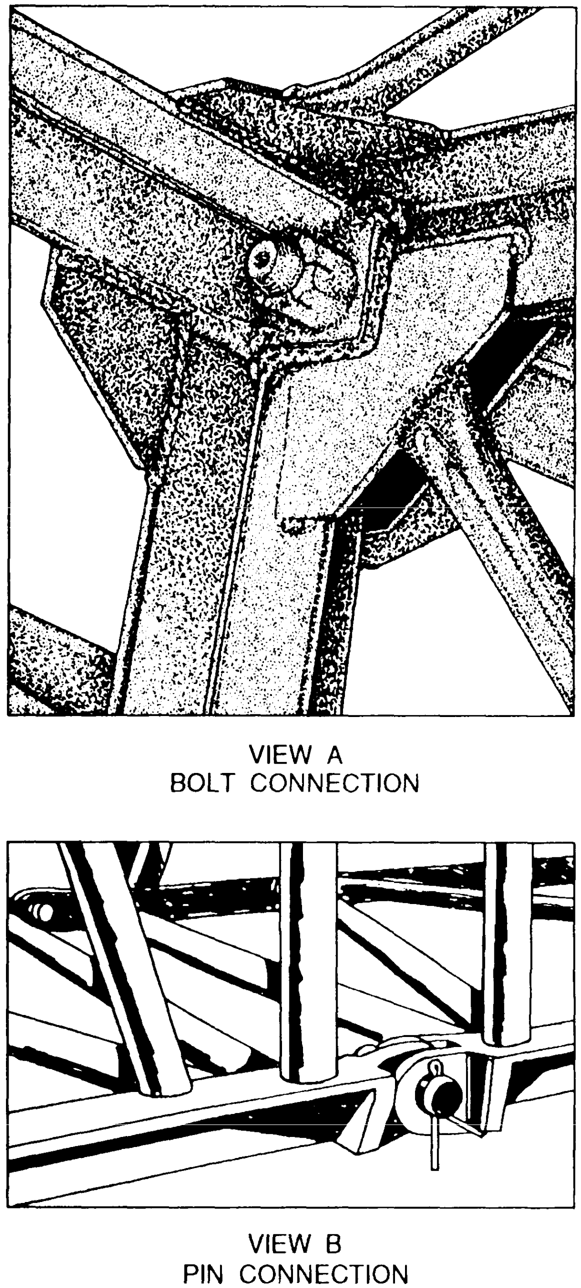


Figure 12-13.—Boom sections connection.

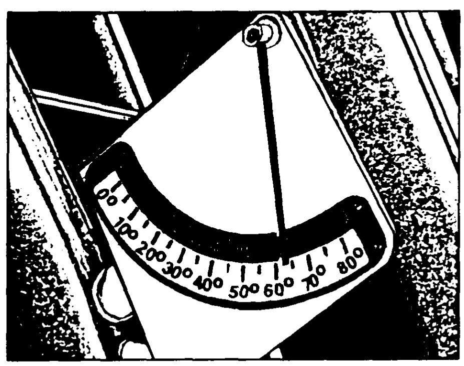


Figure 12-14.—Boom angle indicator.

while the boom is under load (fig. 12-15, view A). The boom angle on lattice boom cranes is the angle between the center line of the boom (from the boom butt pins to the boom tip sheave) and the horizontal while the boom is under load (fig. 12-15, view B).

To check the accuracy of the boom angle indicator, place a 3-foot builders level on the center boom section and raise or lower the boom until the level indicates the boom is level (fig. 12-16). At this point the boom angle indicator

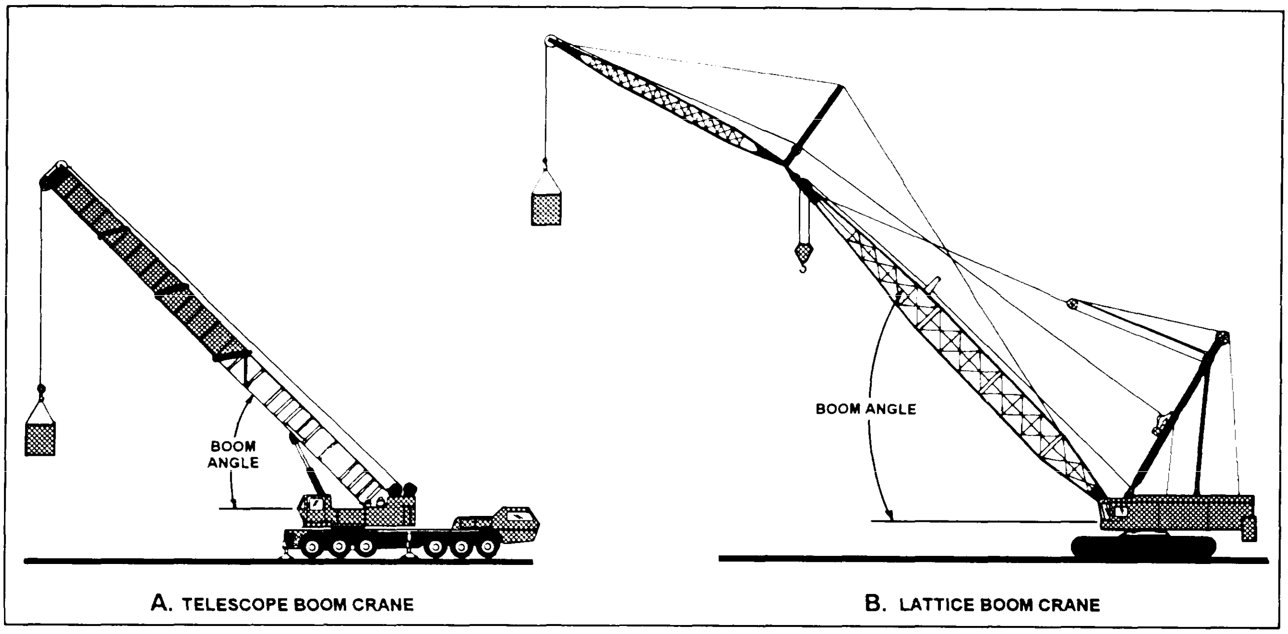


Figure 12-15.—Boom angle configurations.

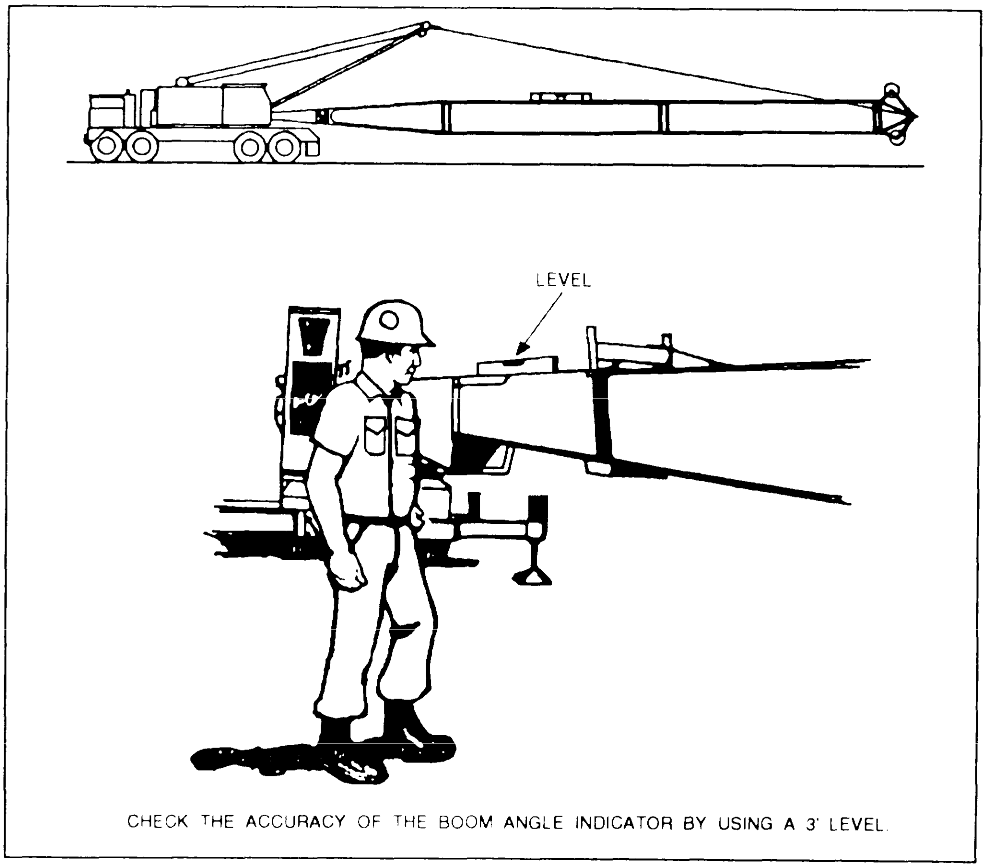


Figure 12-16.-Check accuracy of boom angle indicator.

should show the boom is at zero degrees or adjusted to read zero degrees.

The boom angle indicator is a quick reference for the operator to know what angle the boom is at. However, do NOT rely on the boom angle indicator for radius accuracy especially when the lift exceeds 75 percent of the rated capacity. Use the radius measurement to determine the capacity of the crane from the load charts and to avoid any possibility of error.

Sheaves

Sheaves are located in the hook block boom tip, boom bridle, gantry, and boom mast. Sheaves rotate on either bearings, or bushings, and are installed basically anywhere wire rope must turn or bend.

Boom Pendants

A pendant line is a fixed-length of wire rope, forming part of the boom suspension system. Each section of boom has two boom pendants. Both pendants must stay with the section of the boom they came with. When storing a boom section, secure the two pendants to the boom section with tie wire or rope. If a pendant is bad, both pendants must be replaced. If you only replace the one bad pendant, the new or replaced pendant could be of a different length or be different in manufacture. This difference will cause an uneven pull or twist on the boom when the boom is put under a load or strain.

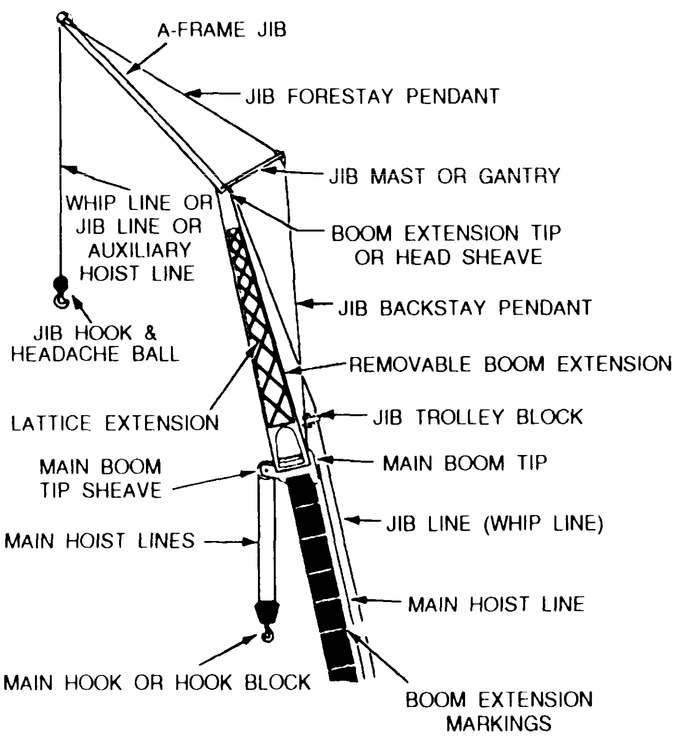


Figure 12-17.—Jib and boom extension mounted on a hydraulic boom.

Jib and Extension

Figure 12-17 shows one type of jib and boom extension. A jib is an extension of a boom capable of being mounted on either a hydraulic or lattice boom. The jib is equipped with its own forestay pendant lines, connected from the jib tip to the jib mast. The jib mast is connected to the boom tip. The jib backstay pendant is normally manually adjustable to change the angle of the jib.

On most cranes the function of the jib is to increase the lift height and to aid in increasing load radius. The operator's manual will have instructions on how to install a jib or extension. You must remember if lifts are made with the main hook block the weight of the jib assembly will reduce the lifting capacity of the crane; therefore, you must deduct the effective weight of the jib assembly from the gross capacity of the crane.

Gantry

The gantry, or A-frame, is a structural frame, extending above the revolving superstructure (fig. 12-18). The gantry supports the sheaves in which the

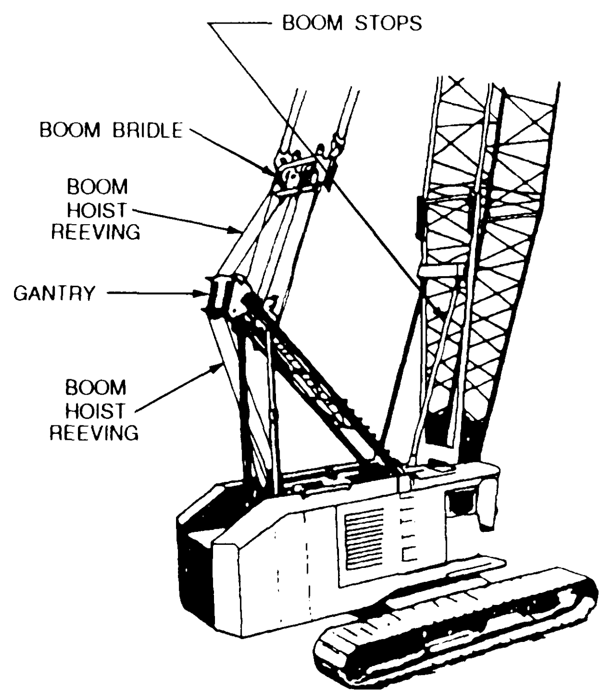


Figure 12-18.-Gantry.

boom hoist lines are reeved. The height of the gantry provides an angle between the boom pendant lines and boom that reduces the compression forces placed on the boom during raising and lifting operations. On some models of cranes, the gantry is adjustable, allowing it to be lowered so the crane can travel under wires and bridges.

WARNING

Refer to the operator's manual for instructions on how to raise and lower the gantry. A trial-and-error method of lowering or raising the gantry can cause serious injury or death.

NOTE: Raising the boom while the gantry is in the lowered position lowers the angle between the pendants lines and boom. This places unseen compression stresses on the boom; therefore, always raise the gantry before raising the boom or lifting a load.

Boom Mast

Some models of cranes are equipped with a boom mast instead of a gantry. The boom mast, sometimes called live **mast,** consists of a structural frame hinged at or near the bottom of the boom butt (fig. 12-19).

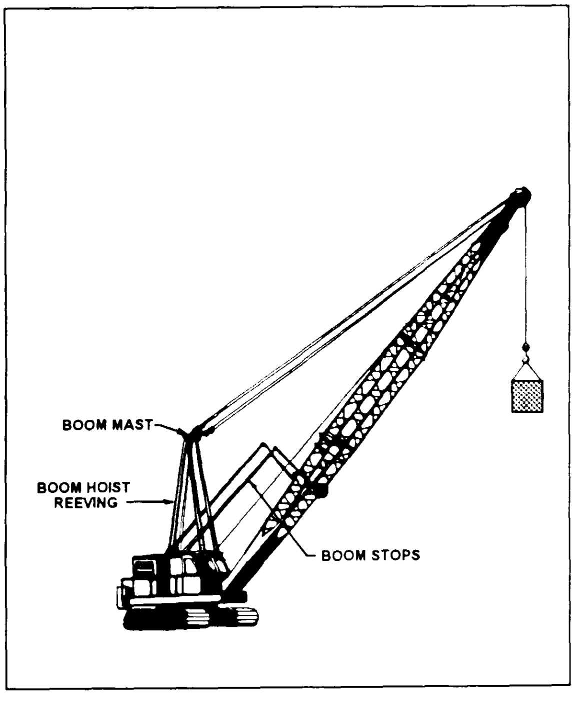


Figure 12-19.—Boom mast.

The tip of the boom mast supports the boom hoist sheaves and boom pendant lines. The boom mast works like the gantry, as it increases the angle between the boom pendants and boom, decreasing the compression forces placed on the boom.

Bridle Assembly

The bridle assembly is part of the boom suspension system and is sometimes called a floating harness. The bridle assembly may be connected to the boom mast or as a floating harness on a crane equipped with a gantry. The bridle assembly is the connection point for the boom pendant lines and is an assembly of sheaves in which the boom hoist wire rope reeves through.

Boom Stops

Boom stops are designed to prevent the boom from going over backwards in case a load line breaks. They will not stop the boom if the operator forgets to disengage the boom hoist control lever. However, some models of cranes are equipped with a boom upper limit switch that prevents the operator from raising the boom past a preset boom angle. This switch also prevents operators from raising the boom into the boom stops. Most cranes that are equipped with the upper limit switch also have a bypass switch that allows the operator to raise the boom past the preset boom angle. Two types of boom stops are shown in figures 12-18 and 12-19.

House Assembly

The house assembly is a revolving superstructure that sets on top of the carrier frame (fig. 12-20). It provides a mount for the hoist mechanisms and engine and is sometimes called the **machinery deck.** The operator's cab and counterweight are attached to the home assembly.

OPERATOR'S CAB.— The control levers for a lattice boom crane are located in the operator's cab. The control levers that are shown in figure 12-21 are typical of most cranes.

Typical crane controls areas follows:

1. The swing lever, when pulled towards you, rotates the house assembly in one direction, and when pushed, the house assembly rotates in the opposite direction.

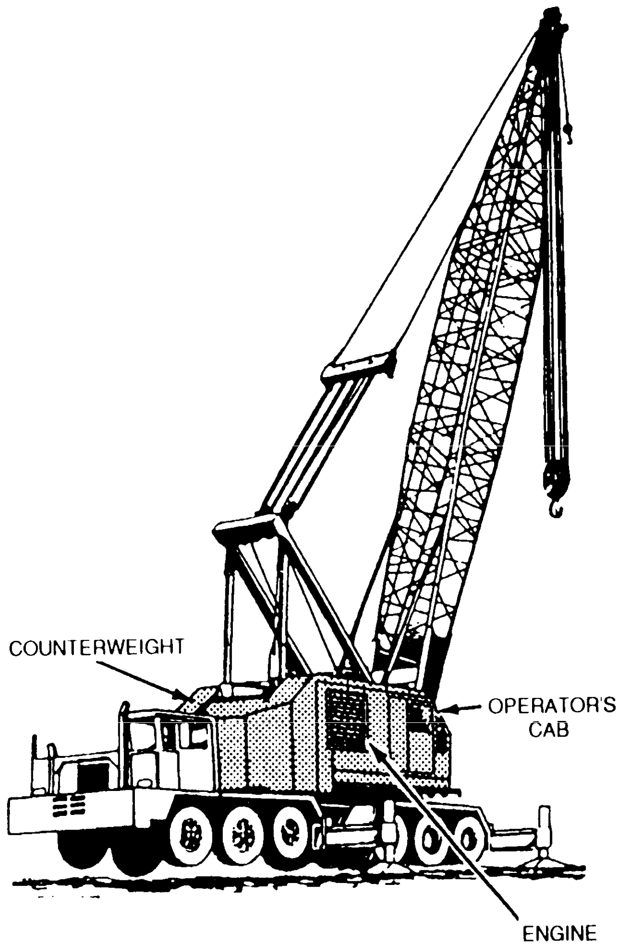


Figure 12-20.—House assembly.

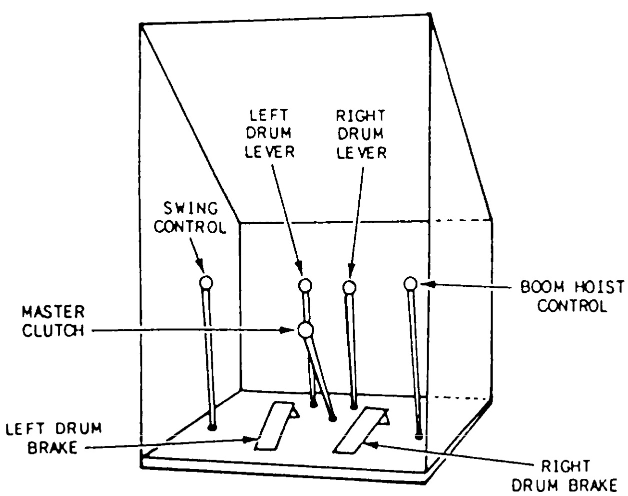


Figure 12-21.—Lattice boom crane control levers.

2. The left drum brake pedal is used to hold and lower loads placed on the hoist line. When locked, it prevents the hook block and wire rope from unwinding on the hoist drum. Figure 12-22 shows a typical hoist brake assembly.

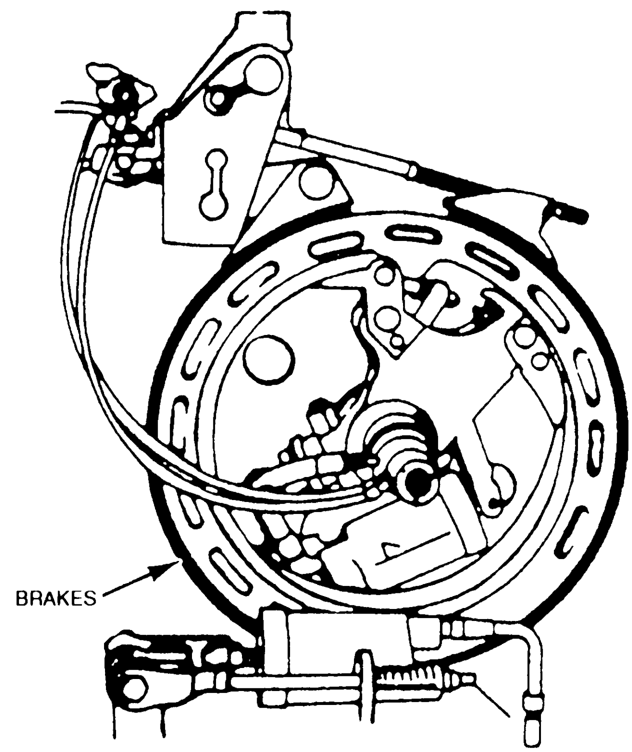


Figure 12-22.—Hoist brake assembly.

3. The main drum lever engages power to raise and, on some models, support lowering of loads placed on the main hoist drum.

4. The master clutch engages the power from the power source to the hoist and swing mechanisms.

5. The secondary drum lever engages power to raise and, on some models, support lowering of loads placed on the secondary hoist drum.

6. The right drum brake pedal is used to hold and lower loads placed on the hoist line. When locked, it prevents the hook block and wire rope from unwinding on the hoist drum.

7. The boom hoist lever allows for the raising and lowering of the boom.

HOISTING MECHANISM.— The hoisting mechanism provides the mechanical power to lift and lower loads. The hoisting mechanism usually has two hoist drums that are mounted side by side on one shaft or in tandem. A separate clutch and brake controls each hoist. The control levers, operating the clutches and brakes, are normally power-assisted with hydraulics or air pressure. A lifting operation requires the use of one drum; whereas the clamshell, dragline, and pile-driving operations require the use of two.

ENGINE.— The engine provides power to the hoisting mechanism through a gearbox or, in some cases, a drive chain reduction. In most lattice boom cranes, the engine is mounted in the crane house.

COUNTERWEIGHT.— The counterweight on the rear of the crane house creates additional stability when lifting loads. The counterweight rotates with the house as it swings. Most counterweights are removable to reduce the overall weight of the crane for transporting. Part of your prestart inspection is to check the counterweight mounting.

Lattice Boom Breakdown

The bridle assembly plays an important part when changing the length of the boom. If you forget to disconnect the boom pendants lines from the boom tip, and not connect the bridle assembly or pendant lines behind the boom section you plan to remove or install, and you drive out the bottom pins, the top pins will act as a hinge and the boom will fall, as shown in figure 12-23. If you make this mistake and a crew member is under the boom, a tragedy could result, as shown in figure 12-24.

WARNING

NEVER WORK UNDER A CRANE BOOM. Because so many accidents have occurred while personnel were changing booms, some manufacturers have made a one-way connecting pin that can only be installed from the inside. This requires the pin to be removed only from the outside, keeping personnel from getting underneath the boom (fig. 12-25). A common practice in the NCF is to install the pins from the inside out to prevent personnel from maneuvering inside the boom to drive out the pins.

Several methods are used to break down lattice booms to add or take out sections. If the boom sections are bolt-connected, you must use dunnage for support under each section.

The most common boom connection is with pins. To break down a pin-connected boom, make sure you

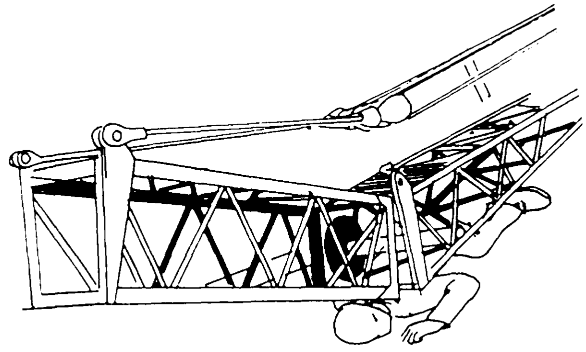


Figure 12-24.-Never work under a crane boom.

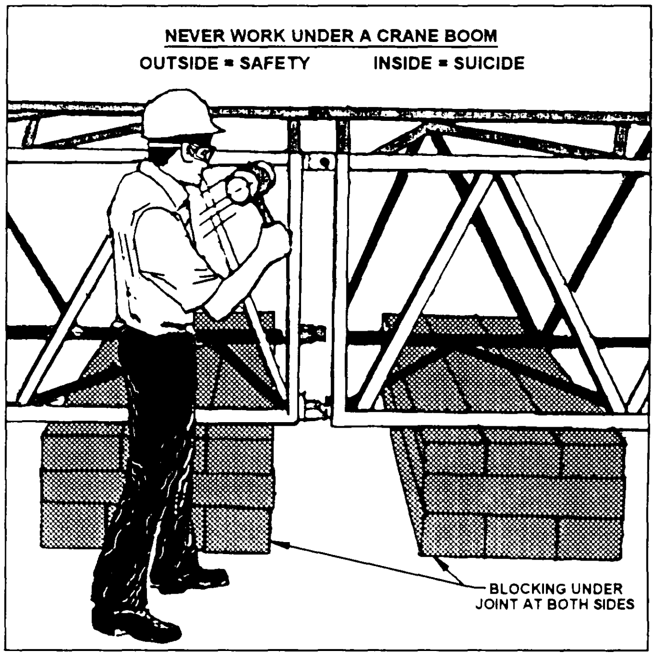


Figure 12-25.-Drive pins from the outside in.

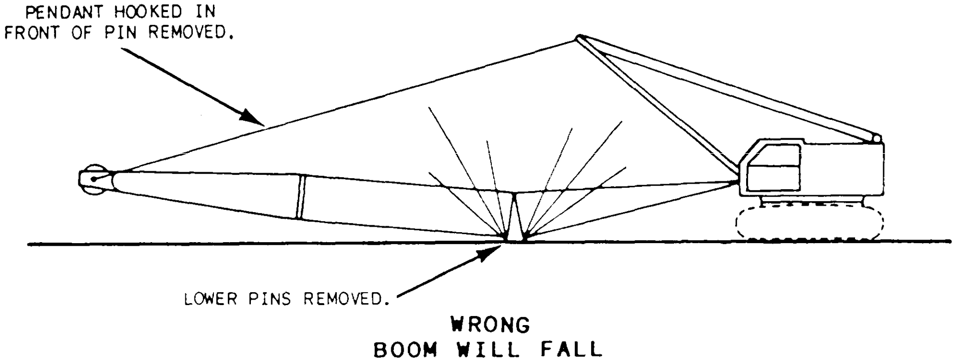


Figure 12-23.—Incorrect way to disconnect the lattice boom.

have gloves, hardhats, safety glasses or goggles, and safety shoes for all hands, sledge hammers, pliers, crowbars, marlin spikes, extra cotter pins, and dunnage.

WARNING

Always wear gloves when handling wire rope.

NOTE: When breaking down a lattice boom, take the opportunity this provides to inspect items thoroughly, such as the connecting pins, cotter keys, and inside the connecting lugs for wear, rust, and surface cracks.

A common method used to break down a pin-connected basic boom and add a section is as follows:

1. Set outriggers and swing the upper revolving unit over the rear or side, depending on the make and model of the crane.

2. Lower the hook block(s) to the ground and provide slack in the hoist line(s). Next, lower the boom and set the boom tip sheaves on a piece of dunnage.

3. Engage the boom hoist control lever to lower the bridle assembly or boom mast to slacken the pendant lines.

4. To prevent the pendant lines from falling on the ground, use tie wire or rope to secure the pendant lines to the boom. Then remove the cotter pins and drive out the main pins from the bridle assembly connections in the pendant lines.

5. Position the bridle assembly on top of the boom butt (fig. 12-26, view A). This is done by having the operator engage the boom hoist control lever to tighten the boom hoist lines until the bridle is positioned on top of the boom butt. To align the pinholes, manually position the bridle assembly using the crowbar. The pins that are used for the pendant line connections are

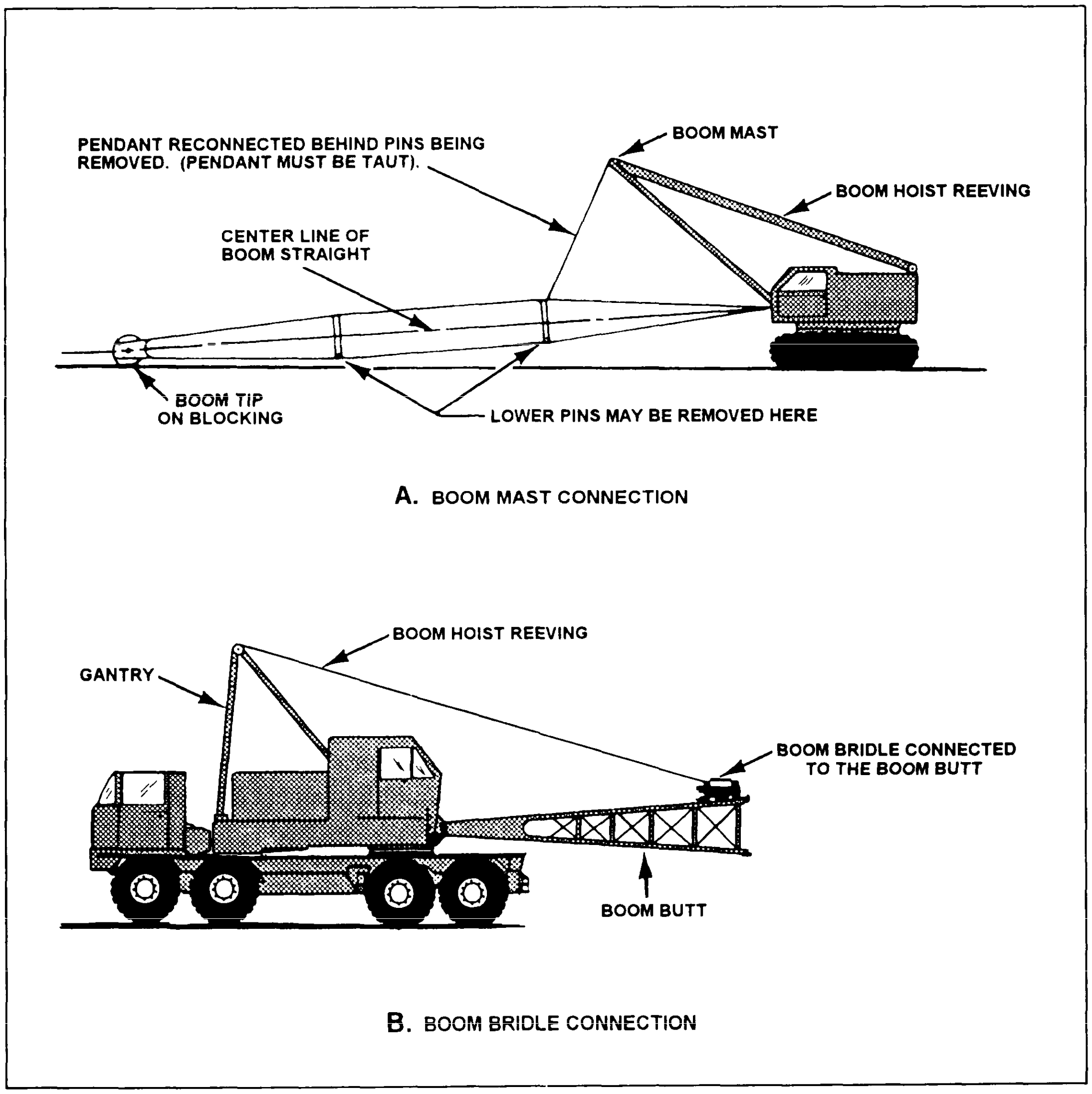


Figure 12-26.-Boom hoist assembly connected to boom butt.

normally the pins used to connect the bridle assembly to the boom butt. If the crane is equipped with a boom mast, the boom mast normally has a short set of pendants that connect to the boom butt pinholes (fig. 12-26, view B).

NOTE: Visually check the boom hoist drum to ensure the boom hoist wire rope does not loosen and cross wind on the hoist drum, resulting in crushing or kinking the wire rope.

6. Tighten the boom hoist lines to support the weight of the boom, but not so tight that the boom tip is lifted off the dunnage.

7. Remove the cotter pins from the boom connection pins and drive out the lower boom connection pins.

8. After the lower pins are removed, engage the boom hoist control lever and lower the bridle assembly or mast, allowing the boom to separate at the bottom by hinging on the top pins. hen lower the boom on a piece of dunnage.

9. Remove the top connecting pins. Once removed, engage the boom hoist enough to separate the boom connections lugs.

When the boom breakdown is performed over the rear of the crane, you separate the boom by (1) raising the outriggers enough to move forward with the travel unit and by (2) releasing the brakes on the hoist line(s) to slacken the hoist wire rope, as the travel unit moves forward to allow space to add a section(s).

When the boom breakdown is performed over the side of the crane, you separate the boom by (1) releasing the brakes on the hoist line(s) to slacken the hoist wire rope and by (2) using a forklift to pick up the boom tip carefully and maneuver it enough to provide adequate space to insert a boom section(s).

A method for adding a boom section is as follows:

1. Have a forklift align the boom section with the boom butt.

2. Reverse the crane until the boom butt top pin connection lugs are connected with the top pin connection lugs on the boom section. The boom breakdown performed over the side requires a forklift to maneuver the boom section until the pins are aligned.

3. Once the top lugs are aligned, drive the boom connection pins into the top lugs from the inside out and insert the cotter pins.

4. Engage the boom hoist control lever to raise the boom butt. This allows the top pins to perform as a hinge that draws the bottom pin connection lugs together.

5. Once the bottom lugs are aligned, drive the boom connection pins into the bottom lugs from the inside out and insert the cotter pins.

6. Raise the boom butt and boom section several inches to clear the ground. Reverse the crane until the top connection lugs of the boom section align with the top connection lugs of the boom tip. Final alignment of the lugs might require the use of a crowbar.

7. Once the lugs are aligned, drive the boom connection pins into the top lugs and insert the cotter pins.

8. Engage the boom hoist control lever to raise the boom section and boom tip. This results with the top pins performing as a hinge, drawing the bottom pin connection lugs together.

9. Once the bottom lugs are aligned, drive the boom connection pins into the bottom lugs from the inside out and insert the cotter pins.

10. Reset the outriggers.

The procedures for connecting the bridle assembly to the boom pendants are as follows:

1. Engage the boom hoist control lever to lower the bridle assembly or boom mast to produce slack in the boom hoist wire rope.

2. The next step is to connect the boom bridle assembly to the boom section pendant lines. This is done by disconnecting the bridle assembly from the boom butt and manually maneuvering the bridle assembly to connect with the boom pendants of the boom section. To produce slack in the bridle assembly may require manually feeding of the boom hoist wire rope through the sheaves.

For cranes equipped with a boom mast, lower the boom mast to connect the pendant lines.

3. When the pendants are connected to the bridle, it is a good practice to insert the pins from the inside out. This practice allows for a easier visual inspection of the cotter pins inserted in the pendant line pins when the boom is in the air.

4. The next step is to connect the boom section pendants to the boom tip pendants. This usually requires manual labor to align the boom section pendants to the boom tip pendants. You may also have to engage the boom

hoist control lever to provide slack in the boom hoist lines to align the pendant lines. Once the pendants are aligned, insert the pendant connection pins and cotter pins.

5. Next, engage the boom hoist control lever to raise the bridle assembly and pendants. Before doing this, go back through and visually inspect all boom and pendant line pin connections and cotter pins. Have someone visually watch the boom hoist drum to ensure the wire rope does not cross wind, causing the wire rope to be crushed or kinked. Additionally, ensure all of the boom hoist wire rope is properly running on all of the sheaves. Once everything checks out, engage the boom hoist control lever and raise the bridle assembly and pendants until they are tight.

6. Visually check the boom suspension system before raising the boom off the ground As the boom is being raised, visually check the reeving of the boom hoist wire rope.

7. Once the boom is erected, check the hoist wire rope reeving. You want to ensure the wire rope is correctly flowing through the boom tip and hook block sheaves and winding properly on the hoist drum.

Before the crane can be operated, as outlined in the *NMCB, Equipment Management,* COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.1, and before putting the crane back in service, the crane test director must inspect the crane for correct installation of all components and verify the prior testing and mechanical condition of added components. The crane certifying officer may direct the crane to be load-tested at its safe load capacity at minimum and maximum radius.

TELESCOPIC BOOM CRANES

Telescopic boom cranes are typically called hydraulic cranes. The booms are composed of a series of rectangular, trapezoidal, or other shape of symmetrically cross-sectional segments, fitting into each other. The largest segment, at the bottom of the boom, is called the **base section** or **boom butt.** The smallest section, at the top of the boom, is called the tip section or boom tip. In between there can be one or more sections called the **first, second, and so forth, sections.** With the boom fully retracted, the telescopic boom crane is highly maneuverable and easy to transport to jobsites. Telescopic boom crane nomenclature is shown in figure 12-27.

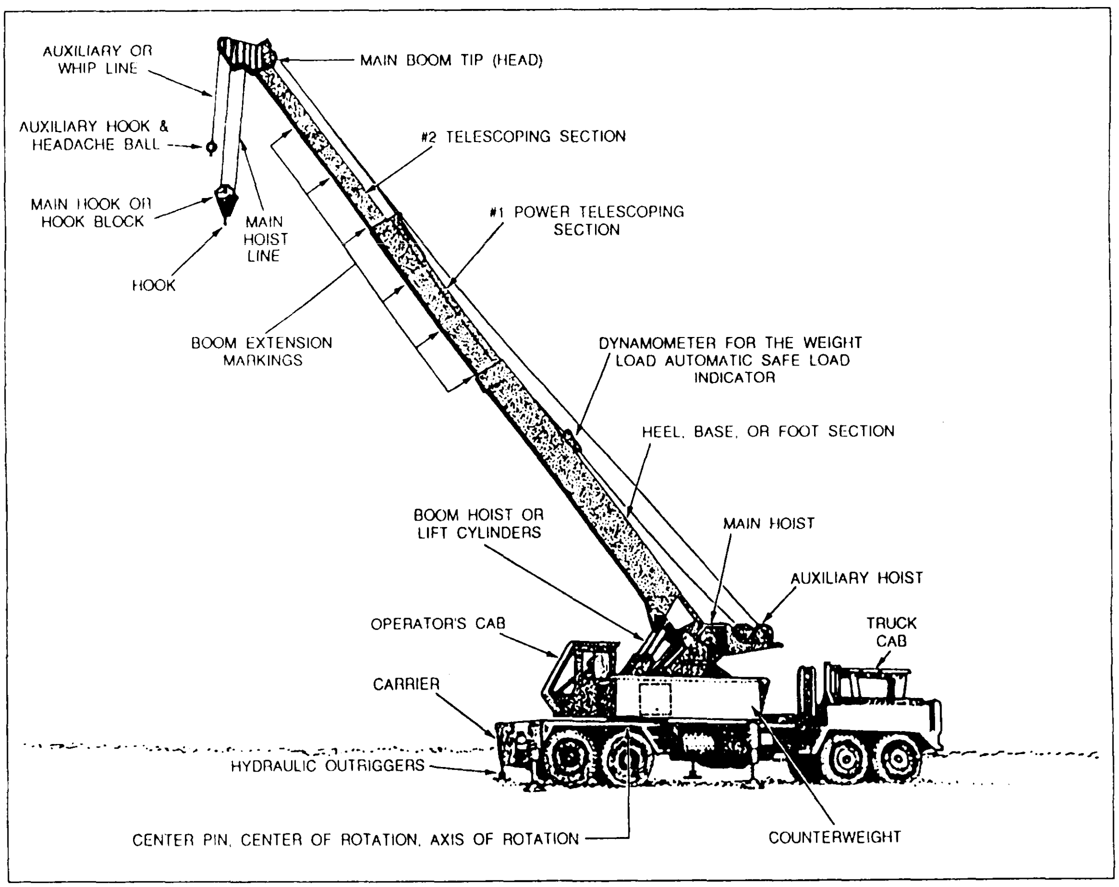


Figure 12-27.—Telescopic boom crane nomenclature.

Sections

Telescopic booms may be **a pinned boom, full-powered boom,** or a combination of both. A "pinned boom" means sections are pinned in the extended or retracted position. A "full-powered boom" means sections extend or retract hydraulically. Some models have a full-powered main boom with a pinned boom tip section. Read the operator's manual for the proper operation of the type of boom that is equipped on the crane you are assigned to operate.

On a full-powered boom, the sections are extended and retracted (except for the base section) by hydraulic cylinders, called extension cylinders. The cylinders are mounted parallel to the boom center line within each section. The boom extension cylinders on most telescopic booms have sequencing valves that allow the sections to extend (telescope) by equal amounts. These cranes usually have a single telescope control lever in the cab. However, on cranes not equipped with sequencing valves, the operator will have to extend each section equally. (The crane will have two or three boom telescope control levers in the cab, each controlling only a single boom section.) If the boom sections are extended unequally, the most fully extended section of boom could bend to uneven stresses. Additionally, the load chart will be invalidated for determining rated capacity of the crane. Boom sections that are marked off in equal increments, as shown on the boom in figure 12-27, make it easier for the operator or signalman to make sure each section is extended equally.

When a load is placed on a telescopic boom, the load weight on the boom causes the hydraulic rams within the boom to stiffen up and slightly curve. As the load is removed from the boom, the rams return straight. Because of this, do not extend the boom while it is under load. Read the operator's manual for boom extension information.

Hoisting Mechanism

The hoisting mechanism for a telescopic crane is a hydraulically powered hoist drum. The hoist drum is mounted behind the boom on the crane house or revolving turntable. Some hydraulic cranes are equipped with two hoist drums: one for the main hoist and the second for the auxiliary or whip line.

House Assembly

The house assembly is a revolving unit that supports the boom. Some small hydraulic cranes have the operator's cab and counterweight attached to the revolving unit.

OPERATOR'S CAB.— The telescopic crane will have hoist, swing, and boom control levers similar to the cab of the lattice boom crane. Control lever(s) is/are also provided to extend and retract the boom. The hoist system does not require foot-controlled brakes. When the hoist control lever is returned to the neutral position, the hydraulic system holds the load in place.

POWER SOURCE.— The power for a telescopic crane comes from hydraulic fluid. In most cases, the main carrier engine drives the hydraulic pump that supplies the hydraulic fluid to hydraulically controlled components. Power is diverted to hydraulic motors or cylinders by the valve body at the operator's control station. The hydraulic power provides positive control of all crane functions.

COUNTERWEIGHT.— The counterweight on a telescopic crane provides greater stability when lifting loads. When you are performing near-capacity lifts at high boom angles using a telescopic crane, about 60 percent of load weight is placed on the outriggers away from the load. When you are performing the same lift with a lattice boom crane, about 60 percent of the load is placed on outriggers close to the load.

CRANE ATTACHMENTS

The crane is a versatile piece of equipment that can be equipped with various attachments to perform a number of different operations. These attachments include a hook block, a clamshell, and a dragline.

HOOK BLOCK

A crane that is rigged with a hook block is the primary unit for lifting an objector load, transferring it to a new place by swinging or traveling and then placing the load. Figure 12-28 shows an eight-part line rigged hook block.

The number of parts of a line rigged on the hook block is important for figuring the capacity of the crane. Most crane load charts show the rated capacity of the crane for different parts of the line; for example, a crane that is capable of being rigged with a eight-part line is rigged with a six-part line. The eight-part line gives the crane a greater lifting capacity; therefore, you must check the load chart for the six-part line capacity to avoid overloading the crane.

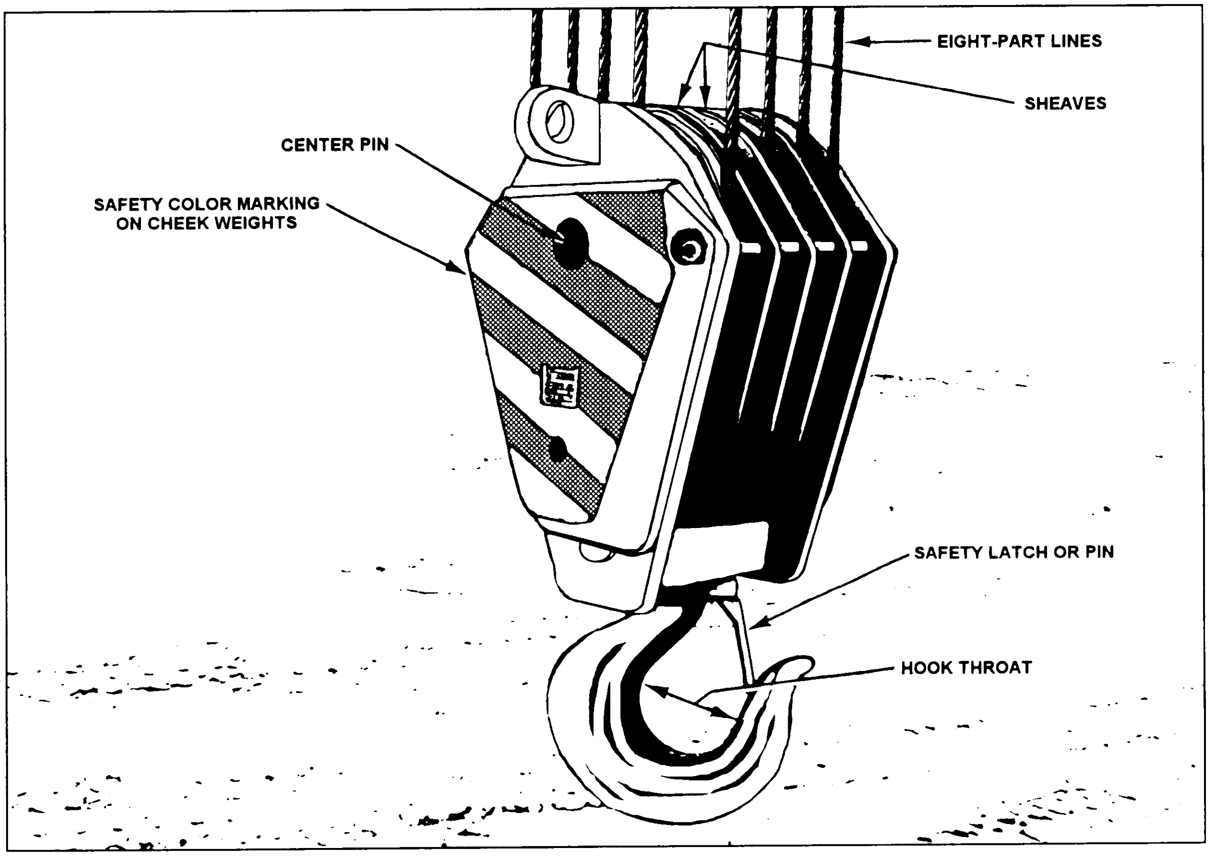


Figure 12-28.-Hook block.

CLAMSHELL

A clamshell consists of hoist drum lagging, clamshell bucket, tag line, and wire ropes to operate holding and closing lines. On some crane models, the hoist drum lagging (hoist drum diameter) can be changed to meet the speed or pull requirements for clamshell operations. Once a crane is rigged with a clamshell, the crane is referred to by the name of the attachment.

When changing attachments from a hook block to a clamshell, check the operator's manual for the correct length of wire rope reeving; for example, some crane models require 300 to 400 feet of wire rope for hook block operations and only 100 to 200 feet of wire rope for clamshell operations. Too much wire rope on the hoist drum during clamshell operations will cause the wraps of wire rope to loosen on the hoist drum and cross wind, resulting in crushed wires and kink spots in the wire rope. This is very expensive, because the wire rope is usually no longer useful for hook block operations.

Changing the length of rope requires unreeving the hook block wire rope and reeving the correct length of wire rope for the clamshell. This may be a time-consuming effort, but saves you from having to replace 300 to 400 feet of wire rope when the crane is rigged for hook block operations.

The clamshell bucket (fig. 12-29) is two scoops hinged together in the center with counterweights

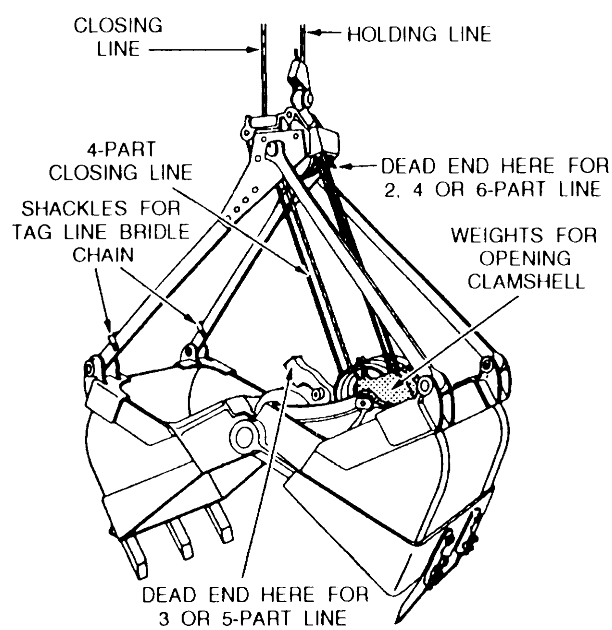


Figure 12-29.-Clamshell bucket.

bolted around the hinge. The two hoist drum wire ropes on the crane are rigged as the holding and closing lines for controlling of the bucket. An example of a clamshell rigging configuration is shown in figure 12-30.

The tag line winder (fig. 12-31) controls the tension on the tag line that helps prevent the clamshell from twisting during operations. Like the clamshell bucket, the tag line winder will exchange with most makes or models of cranes in the same-size range.

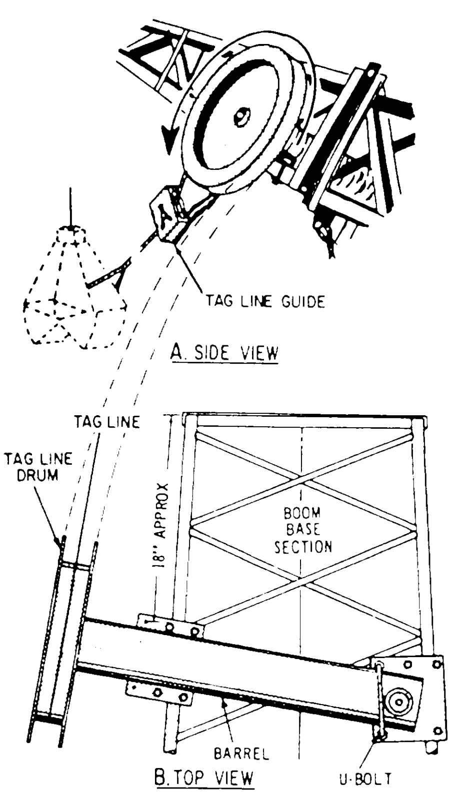


Figure 12-31.—Tag line winder.

DRAGLINE

The dragline component (fig. 12-32) consists of a dragline bucket and fairlead assembly. The wire rope components of the dragline are the drag cable, the bucket hoist, and the dump. Once a crane is rigged with a dragline, the crane is referred to by the name of the attachment,

When you are loading the bucket, the fairlead (fig. 12-33) guides the drag cable onto the hoist drum. The hoist wire rope, which is reeved through the boom point sheaves, raises and lowers the bucket.

WARNING

On some model of cranes, you must make sure the fairlead is in a vertical position when lowering the boom to avoid bending the cords of the boom base.

When changing attachments from hook block or clamshell to dragline, check the operator's manual for the lengths and diameter size of wire rope required for dragline operations. The pulling force of the dragline

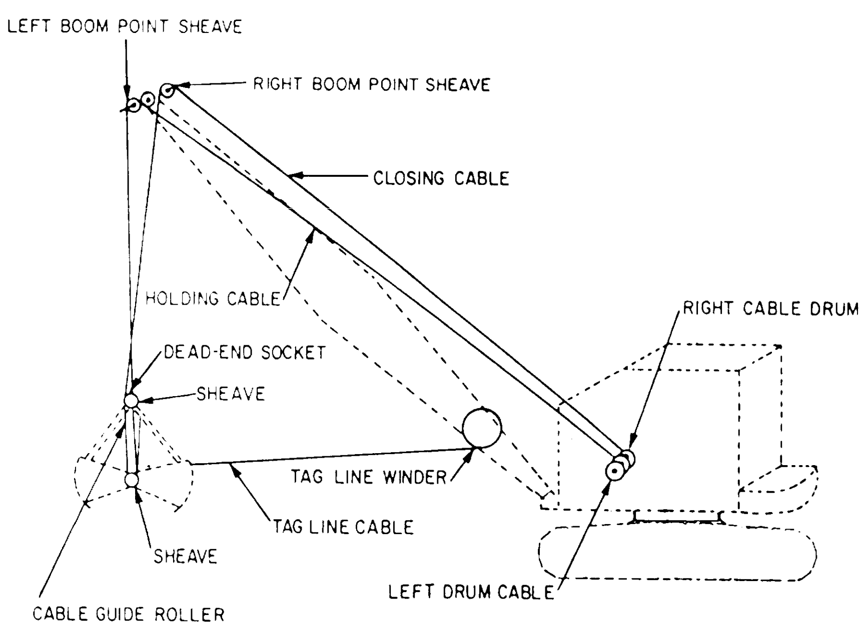


Figure 12-30.-Clamshell rigging configuration.

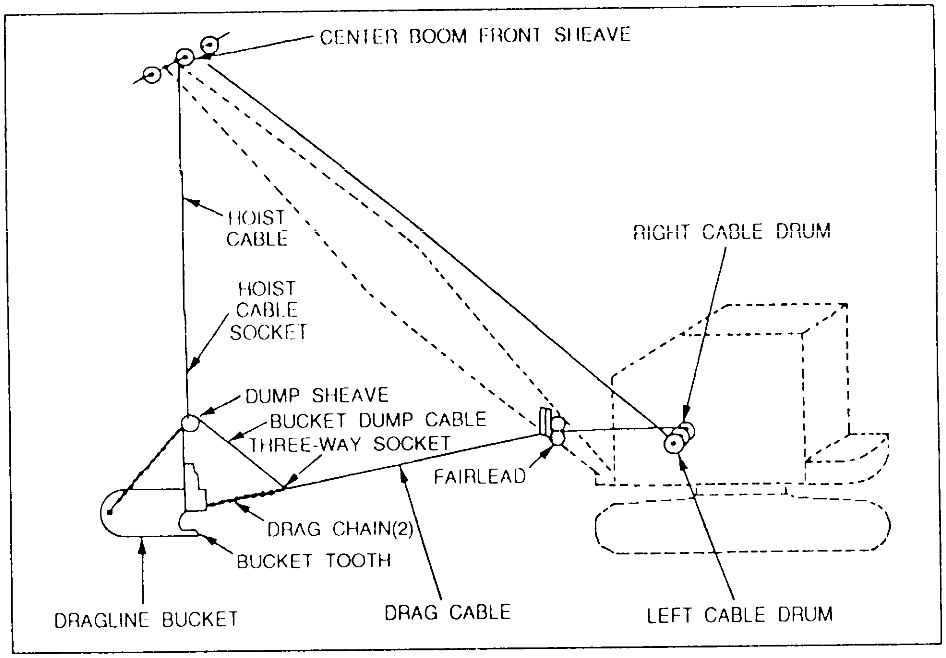


Figure 12-32.-Dragline.

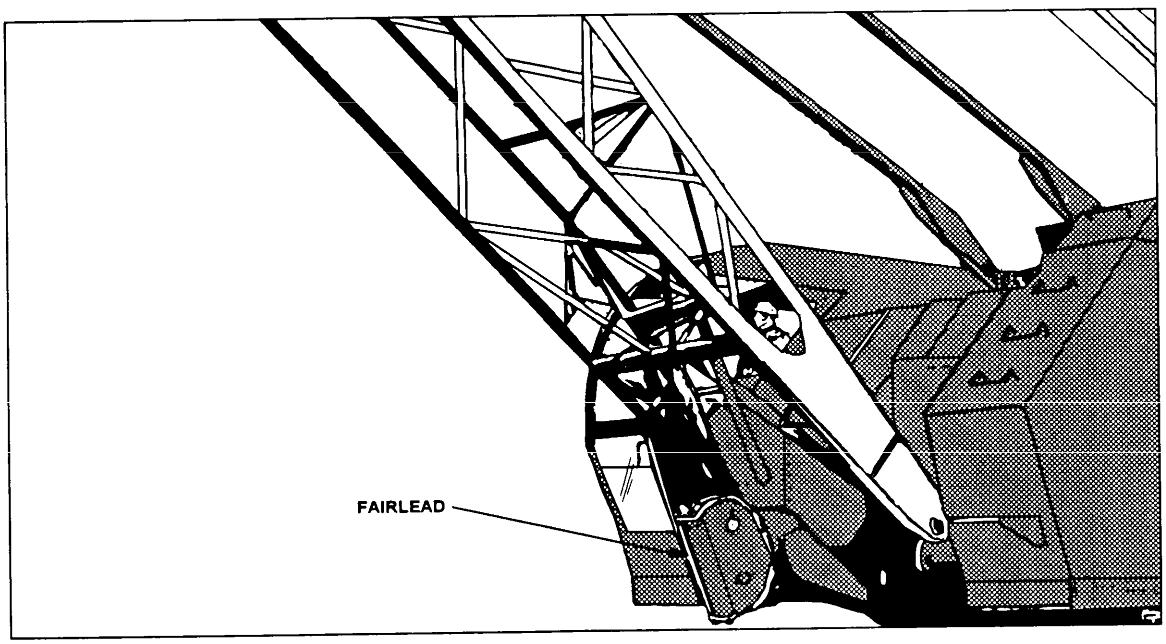


Figure 12-33.—Dragline fairlead.

normally requires a larger diameter drag cable. The length of the hoist wire rope is also shorter than normal to avoid cross winding on the hoist drum. The drag cable pulls the bucket through the material when digging. When the bucket is raised by the hoist wire rope and moved to the dump point, dump the bucket by releasing the tension on the drag cable.

NOTE: Do not lubricate the drag cable. If the drag cable is lubricated and pulled through the dirt, it retains the dirt, which causes damage to the wire rope.

The construction industry rates dragline buckets in different types and classes. The types and classes are as follows:

- Type I (light duty)
- Type II (medium duty)
- Type III (heavy duty)
- Class P (perforated plate)
- Class S (solid plate)

The most common buckets used by the Navy are the type II, class S buckets. Class P buckets are available for dredging operations. Figure 12-34 shows the makeup of a drag bucket.

CRANE OPERATIONS

People are crippled or killed and enormous property damage is incurred as a direct result of crane mishaps. Most of these crane mishaps result from **OPERATOR ERROR.** The Naval Construction Force (NCF) has an extensive crane safety program that applies to crane operators and the safe operation of weight-handling equipment.

Standards for weight-handling equipment operations are outlined in the *Management of Weight-Handling Equipment,* NAVFAC P-307; *NCF Equipment Management Manual,* NAVFAC P-404; *NMCB Equipment Management,* COMSECOND/ COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.1; *Use of Wire Rope Slings and Rigging Hardware in the NCF,* COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11; and *Testing and Licensing of Construction Equipment Operators,* NAVFAC P-306.

CRANE CREW

The skills and safety standards demanded for efficient crane operations require only mature professionals be assigned as crane operators and riggers. The supervisor of the crane crew is normally the best crane operator available within the battalion-wide assets and is assigned and designated in writing by the commanding officer. The equipment officer, the crane test director, and the crane crew supervisor share the responsibility of ensuring that any personnel that prepares, assembles, operates, or works with or around cranes are well trained in both safety and operating procedures.

Before you receive a license to operate a crane, crane operators are required to attend 40 hours of formal classroom instruction on crane operating safety, as outlined in NAVFAC P-306. Additionally, operators who need to renew their license must attend a minimum

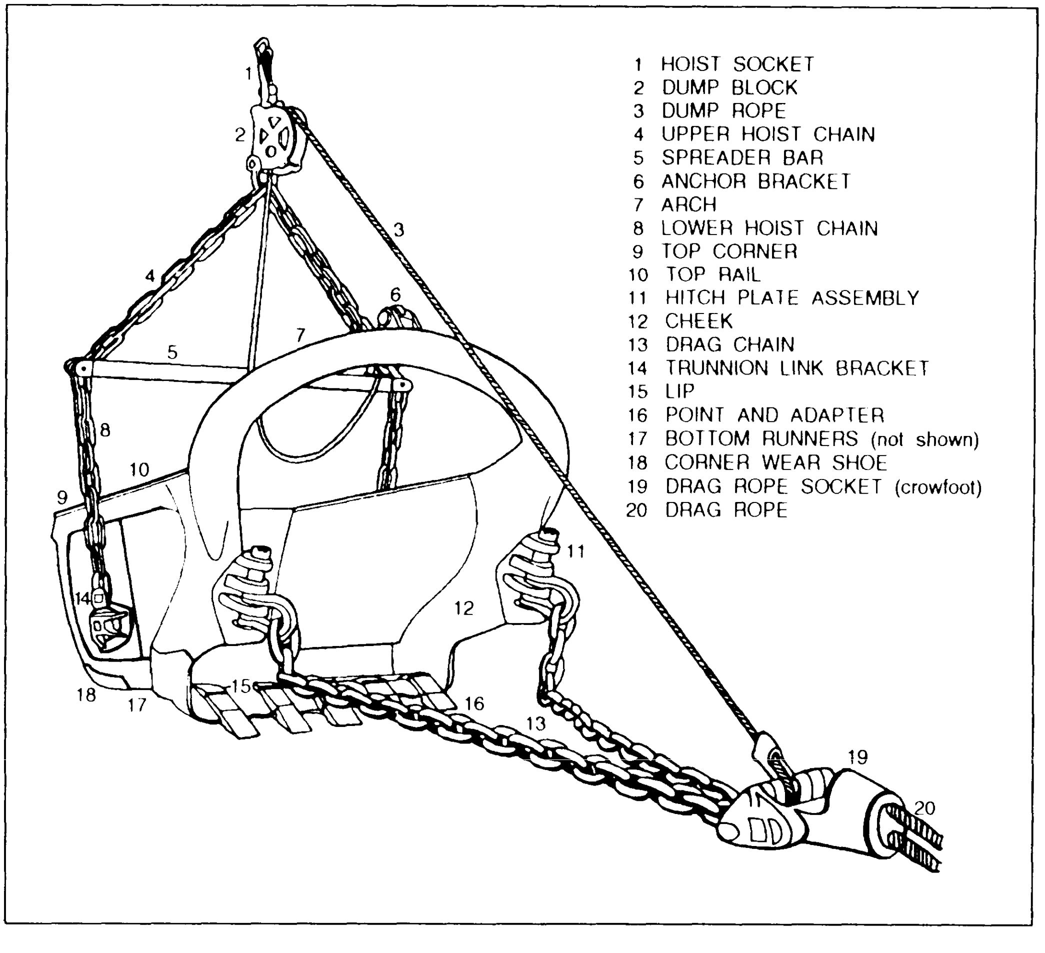


Figure 12-34.-Dragline bucket.

8-hour refresher training course on crane operator safety.

The testing of crane operators is the direct responsibility of the crane certifying officer. The crane certifying officer may be assisted in administering a performance test by the crane test director. The equipment officer is normally responsible for the duties of the crane certifying officer and is designated in writing by the commanding officer. The crane certifying officer designates in writing the crane test director and all crane test personnel. Crane license is issued on the Construction Equipment Operator License, NAVFAC 11260/2, and will indicate the make, model, capacity, and the attachments the operator is qualified to operate.

Signalman

The signalman is part of the crane crew and is responsible to the operator to give signals for lifting, swinging, and lowering loads. A signalman should be a qualified seasoned crane operator. Not only does the signalman give signals for handling loads but the signalman can visually observe what the operator cannot see from the operator's cab. For example, during a lift the signalman should make a visual check of the following:

1. The load hook is centered over the center of balance of the load, as the weight is being lifted by the crane.

2. The boom deflection does not exceed the safe load radius.

3. All the rigging gear is straight and not causing damage to itself or the load.

4. During a lift with a lattice boom crane, check the boom suspension system and boom hoist reeving to ensure proper operation.

5. Check the hook block and boom tip sheaves reeving to ensure proper operation.

6. Check the stability of the outriggers especially when swinging from one quadrant of operation to another.

NOTE: On some cranes, the capacity of the crane changes when swinging from the rear quadrant to over-the-side quadrant.

7. Use tag lines and tag line handlers to prevent the load from swinging or twisting.

WARNING

Allowing personnel to control a load by the use of hands puts them in great danger should the load fall or some unexpted mishap occurs.

8. Signal only to lift the load high enough to clear any obstacles.

9. ALWAYS have eye-to-eye contact with the crane operator. The crane operator depends on the signalman to lift, swing, and lower a load safely.

The signalman must also know the load weight being lifted and the radius and capacity of the crane. The basic hand signals used throughout the NCF are in appendix IV of this TRAMAN. Only one person gives signals to the operator. The only time anyone else should give a signal is for an **EMERGENCY STOP.**

Rigger

The rigger or riggers are responsible to the operator for properly attaching the rigging gear to the load. Rigging can be an extremely dangerous job if not properly performed. Safety gear, such as hard hats, steel-toed shoes, gloves, and any other personal safety clothing needed, must be worn.

Riggers and signalman must work closely together after the load is rigged. The signalman visually checks for proper rigging that the operator cannot visually see from the operator's cab. Once the rigging is approved, then the load can be signaled to be lifted.

NOTE: The operator has the final approval on any lift and has the ultimate responsibility for the crane lift and safety.

Operator

The operator pulls the levers on the crane and is directly responsible for the crane, the load rigging, and the lifts performed. You must know the crane, how to operate it, how it responds under loaded and unloaded conditions, proper rigging procedures, and signaling. You must be able to set the crane up properly for lifts, always keeping in mind that safety comes first and production second.

CRANE OPERATOR'S DAILY INSPECTION

Before a crane is operated or transported, it must be thoroughly inspected by the operator. The operator uses the Crane Operator's Daily Checklist (ODCL) (fig. 12-35). The operator visually inspects and checks each item prescribed on the checklist.

When the operator observes a deficiency of a **load-bearing** or **load-controlling** part or safety device (major deficiency) or an operating condition that would cause the slightest loss of control or otherwise render

Crane No.	Type	Location or Assignment	Shift 1 2 3	Date
Hour Meter Readings Beginning	Ending	Hrs Operated This Shift	Operator (Name)	Oiler (Name)
			Legend: "S" Satisfactory, "U" Unsatisfactory	

Item	S	U	Item	S	U	Item	S	U
Engines-Oil Levels			Walkways, Ladders, Handrails			Radiator Coolant		
Fan Belts			Glass			Tanks (Oil-Air)		
Fuel Oil (Amount)			Hooks			Air Compressor		
Gauges & Indicator Lights			Housekeeping			Battery-Water		
Wire Rope & Reeving			Lubrication			Tires & Wheels		
Limit Switches			Wind Locks & Chocks & Stops					
Brakes			Controllers					
Leaks (Fuel-Oil-Water)			Motors					
Warning Devices			Lights					
Instructions: See reverse side						Fuel Gals	Oil Qts. Gal	

CRANE OPERATOR'S DAILY CHECKLIST

(FRONT)

Instructions			
Check all items daily. Suspend operations immediately if an unsatisfactory item effects safety for continued operations and report all such conditions immediately to the supervisor-in-charge.		Report unsatisfactory items not effecting safe operations to the supervisor-in-charge at the end of the work shift.	
Remarks (Unsatisfactory Items)			
Operator Signature	Operations Supervisor Signature		Date
Remarks:			Supplies (Check if required)
Maintenance Supervisor Signature		Date	

(BACK)

Figure 12-35.—Crane Operator's Daily Checklist.

the crane unsafe, the operator must secure the crane and notify the crane crew supervisor.

The Operator's Daily PM Report, NAVFAC Form 11260/4, is also used with the ODCL when performing the crane prestart inspection. The ODCL is turned in to the crane crew supervisor at the end of each day or shift for reviewing and signing. The NAVFAC Form 11260/4 is turned in to dispatch. As outlined in the NAVFAC P-307, the minimum requirement for retaining ODCLs is those completed during the current month and during the previous month of operation.

Wire Rope Inspection

Part of the ODCL inspection is the thorough inspection of all wire rope before using a crane. All running rope in continuous service must be visually inspected for crushing, kinking, corrosion or other damage, broken wires, and proper lubrication (fig. 12-36).

Other areas to inspect are wire rope sockets, swage fittings, swivels, pendants, and securing hardware for wear. Hoist drum end fittings need only be disconnected or disassembled when experience or visible indications deem it necessary.

The exact time for replacement of wire rope cannot be given because many variables are involved; however, safety depends upon the use of good judgment in evaluating wire rope.

The following conditions are reasons for wire rope replacement:

1. Running ropes. six or more broken wires randomly distributed, broken or torn wires in one lay, or three broken wires in one strand in one lay. Replace end

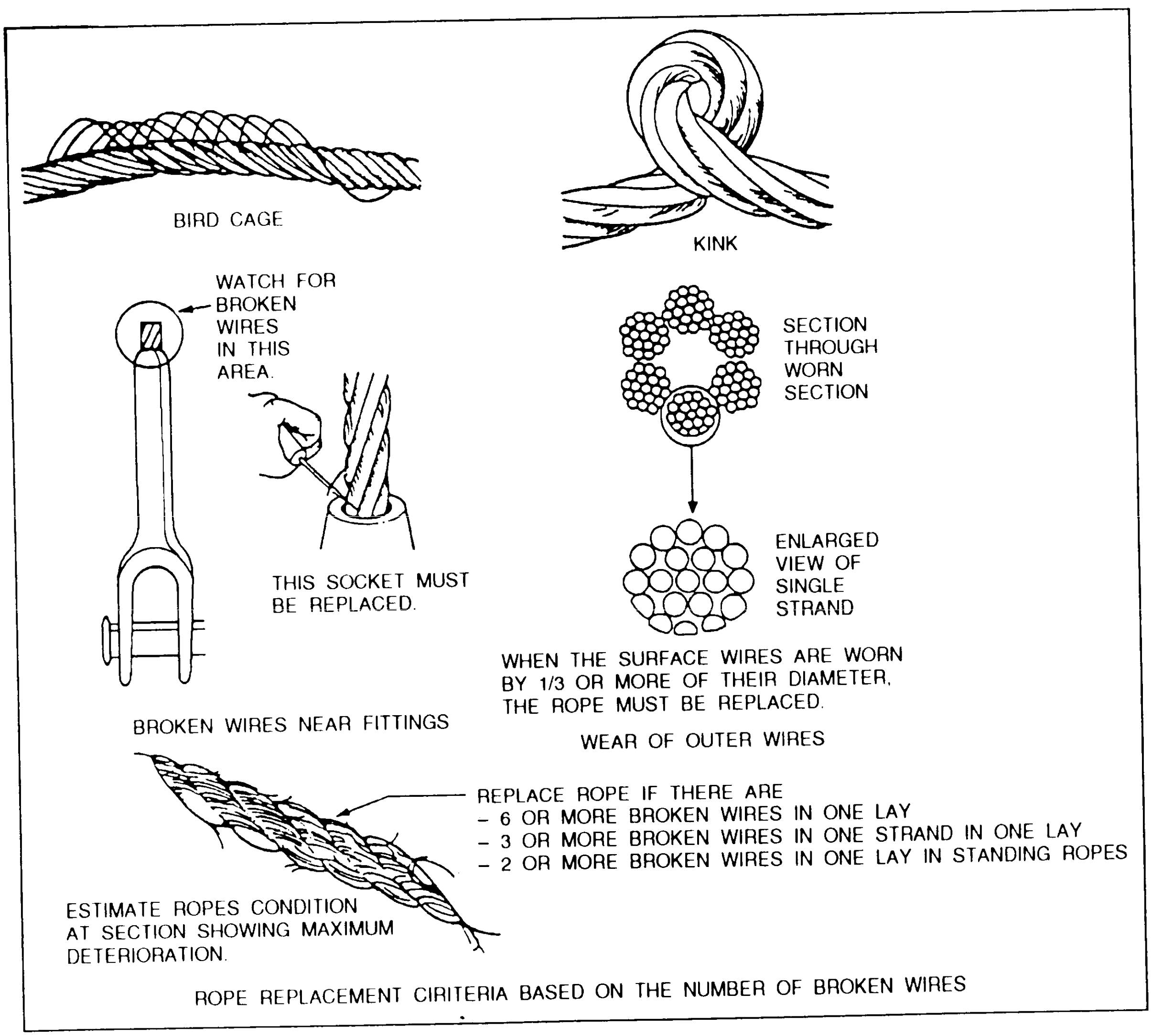


Figure 12-36.—Common wire rope defects.

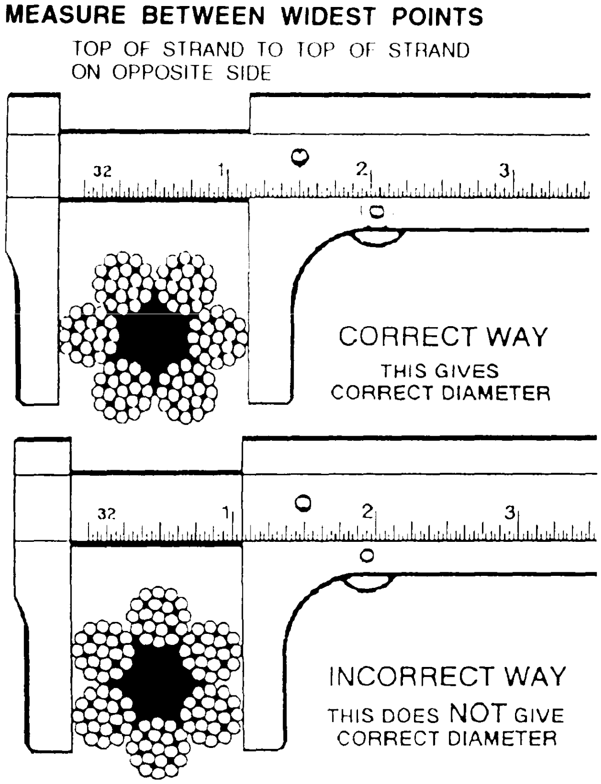


Figure 12-37.—Measuring wire rope.

connections when there are any broken wires adjacent to the end connection.

2. Boom pendant wire ropes. More than two broken wires in one lay in sections beyond the end connection or one or more broken wires at an end connection.

3. Kinks or crushed sections. Severe kinks or crushed rope in straight runs where the wire rope core is forced through the outer strands.

4. Flattened section. Flat sections where the diameter across the flat section is less than five sixths of the original diameter.

5. Wire rope wear. Measure wire rope with wire rope calipers (fig. 12-37) to check for wear accurately. Replace why rope that has wear of one third of the original diameter of outside individual wires. A crescent wrench can be used as an expedient means to measure wire rope.

Hook Block Inspection

The hook block and the hook are part of the ODCL inspection. The operator must inspect the hook block for cleanliness, binding sheaves, damaged or worn sheaves, worn or distorted sheave pins, broken bolts, and worn cheek weights (fig. 12-38).

The hook is inspected for damage, excessive wear to the hook safety latch, hook swivel trunnions, thrust collar, and securing nut. Also, the hook is inspected for damage or missing lubrication fittings, proper lubrication, cracks and gouges, and if visibly bent or twisted.

Sheave Inspection

The sheaves inspection (fig. 12-39) is the inspection for wear and damage, wear in the wire rope sheave groove, loose or damage sheave guards, and worn bearings and pins. Sheaves rotate on either bearings or bushings that are inspected for discoloration (due to

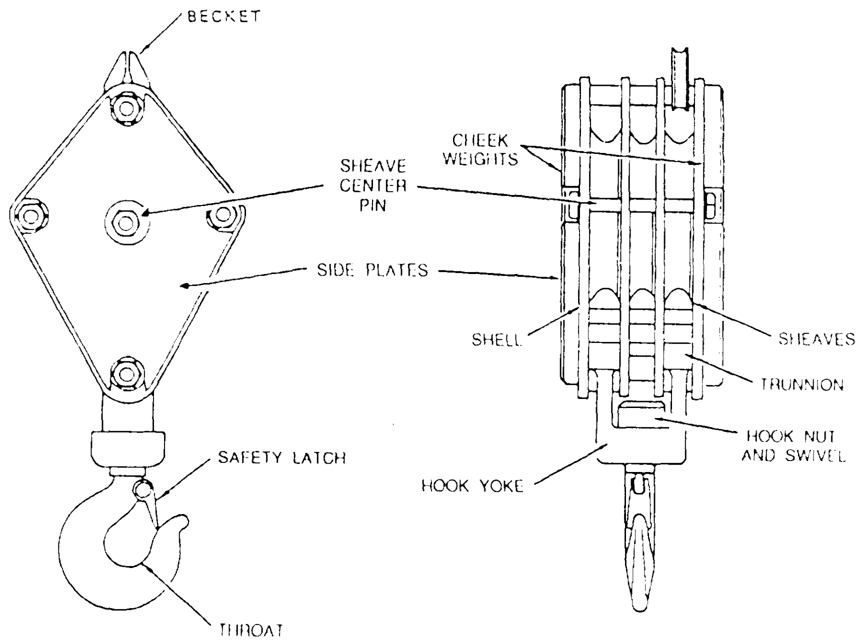


Figure 12-38.-Hook and block inspection points.

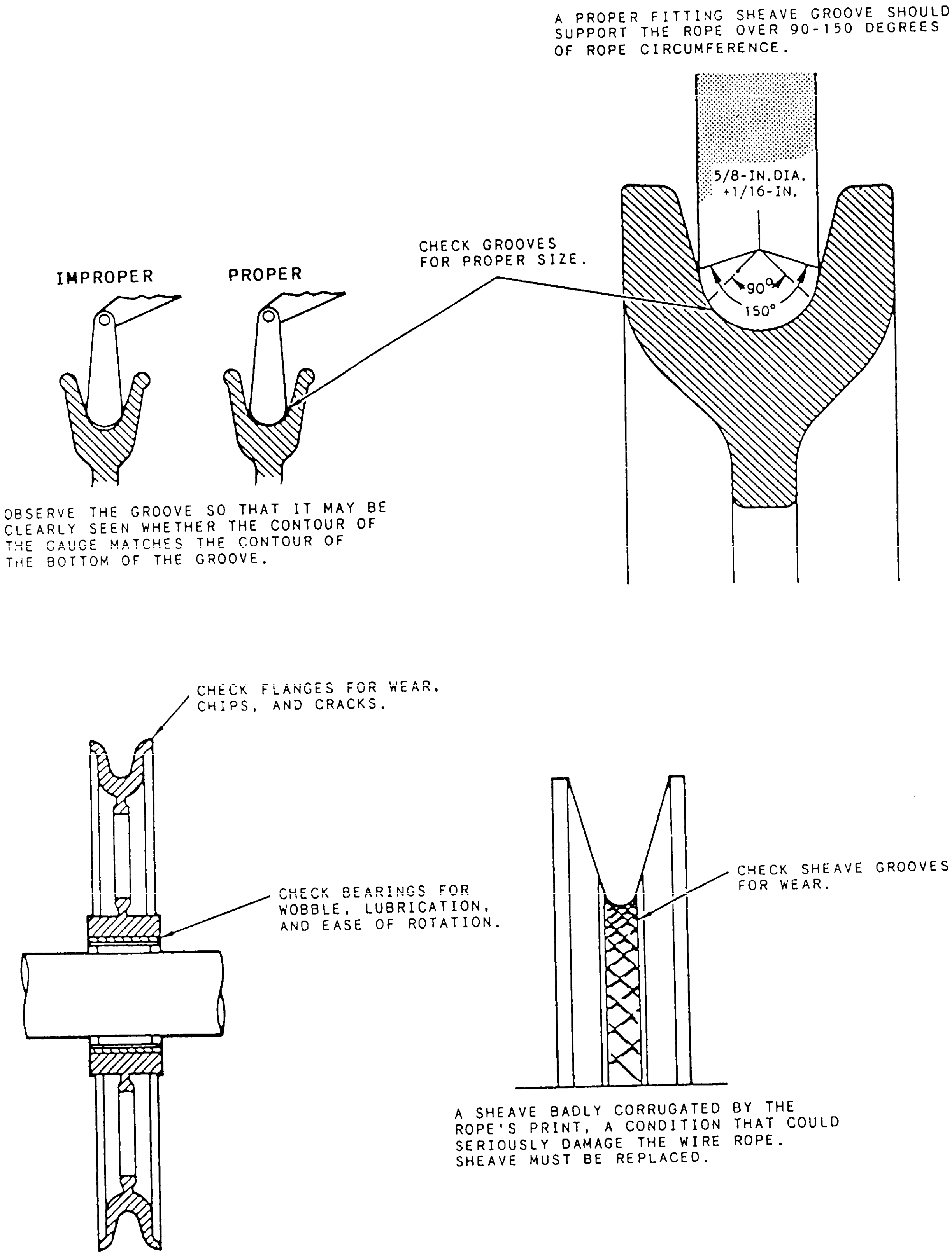


Figure 12-39.-Sheave (pulley) inspection.

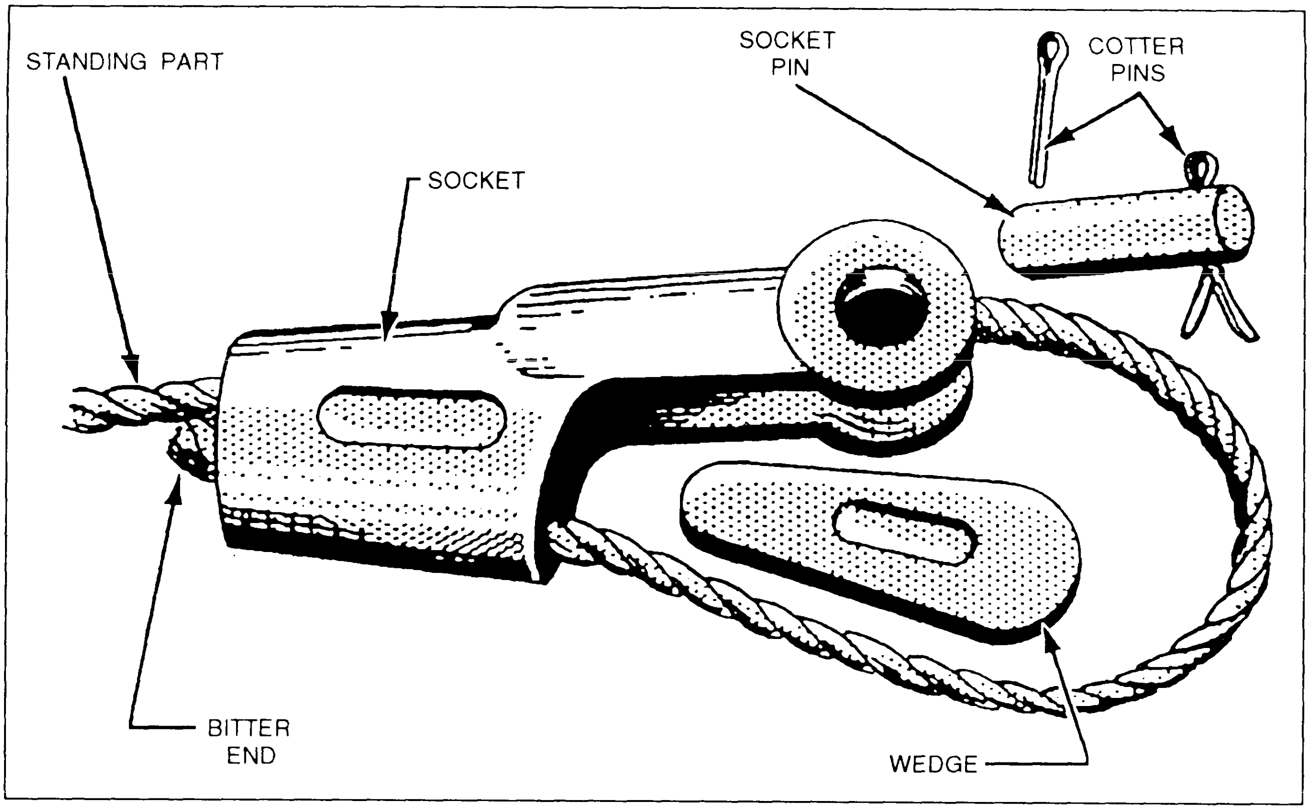


Figure 12-40.-Wedge socket.

excessive heat), metallic particles, chips or displaced metal, broken or distorted bearing retainer or seals, adequate lubrication, and tight bearing caps.

Wire Rope End Connections

Wire rope end connections must be as specified by the manufacture. The most common type of end connection used in the NCF is the wedge socket (fig. 12-40).

Wedge sockets develop only 70 percent of the breaking strength of the wire rope due to the crushing action of the wedge. Swage socket, cappel socket, and zinc (spelter) socket wire rope end connections all provide 100 percent of the breaking strength of the wire rope when properly made.

Exercise caution when wedge socket connections are used to make rated capacity lifts. Wedge sockets are particularly subject to wear, faulty component fit, and damage from frequent change outs, and are highly vulnerable to inadvertent wedge release and disassembly in a two-blocking situation.

NOTE: Two-blocking is hoisting the hook block sheaves against the boom tip sheaves.

Wedge sockets must be installed as specified in the following procedures:

1. Cut and remove any section of wire rope used in a socket that was subject to sharp bending and crushing before resocketing.

2. Install the wedge socket carefully, so the wire rope carrying the load is in direct alignment with the eye of the socket clevis pin. This ensures the load pull is direct.

3. Place the socket upright and bring the rope around in a large, easy-to-handle loop. Extend the dead end of the wire rope from the socket for a distance of at least one rope lay length. Insert the wedge in the socket, permitting the rope to adjust around the wedge.

4. As a safety precaution, install a wire rope clip on the dead end of the wire rope that comes out of the wedge socket (fig. 12-41). Measure the distance from the base of the wedge socket to the clamp. This measurement is used as a guide to check if the wire rope is slipping in the wedge socket.

NOTE: Do not attach the wire rope clip to the dead end and live end of the wire rope that comes out of the

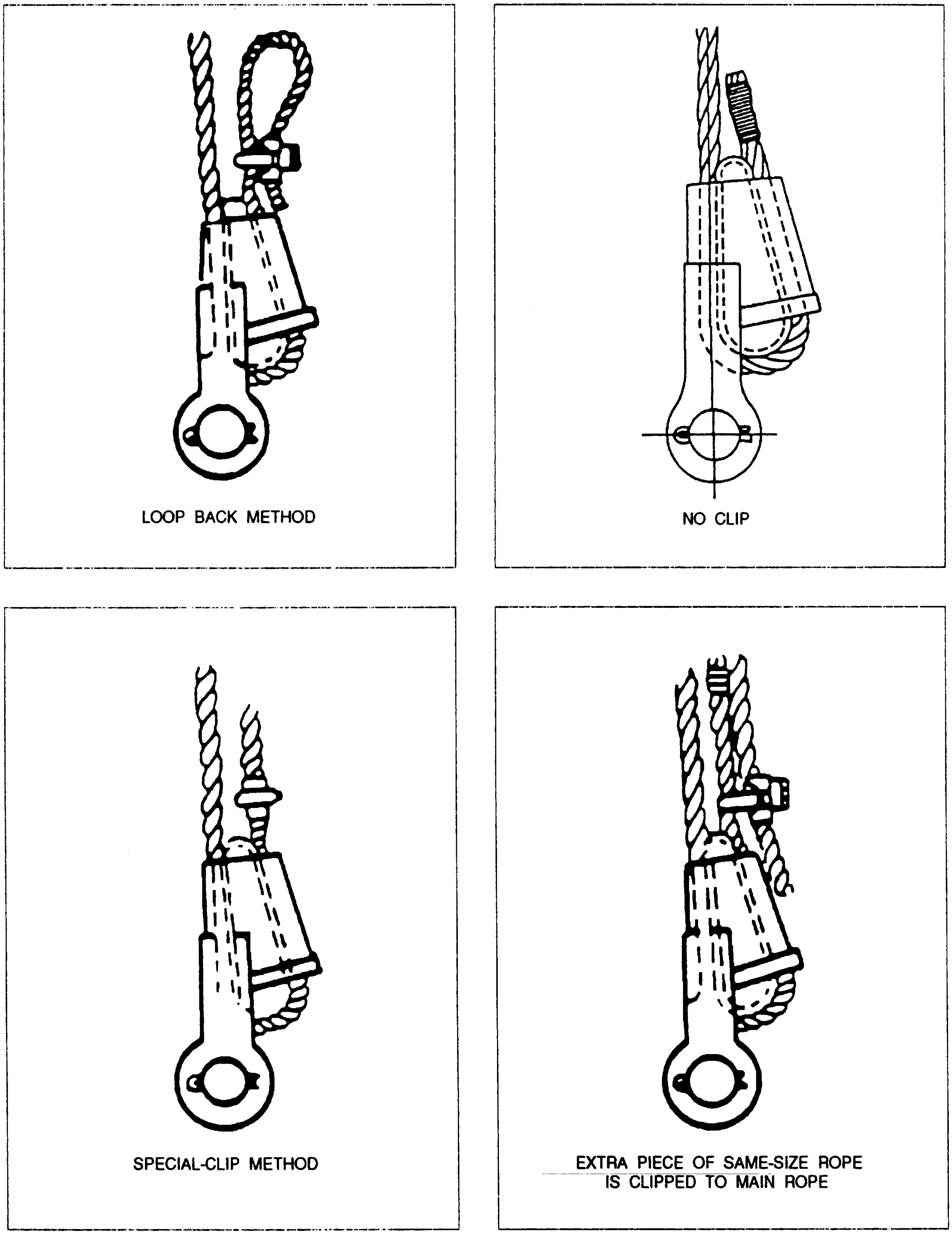


Figure 12-41.—Wedge socket clip method.

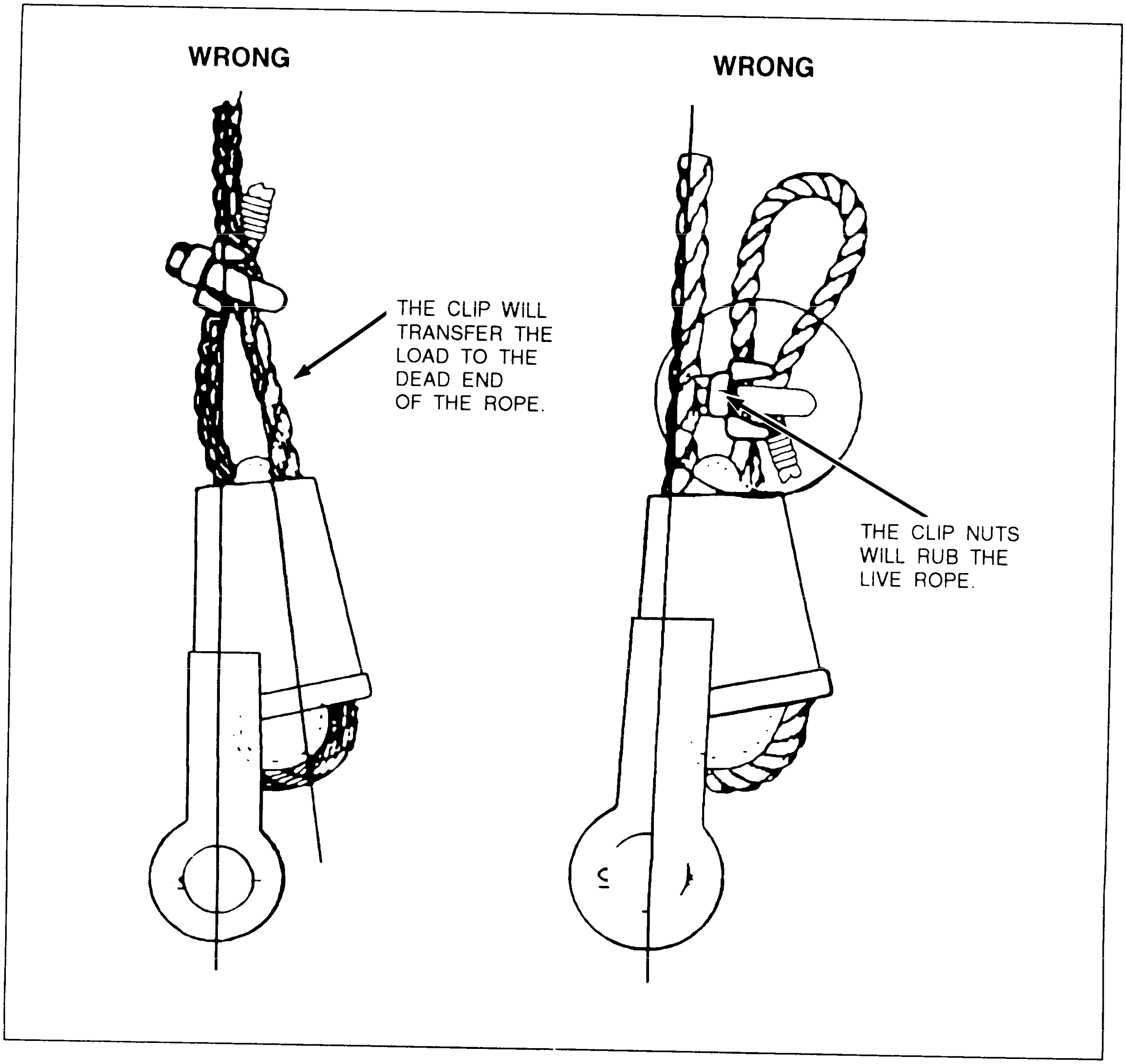


Figure 12-42.—Improper wire rope clip placement.

wedge socket. Improper wire rope clip placement is shown in figure 12-42.

5. Secure the socket to a support and carefully take a strain on the live side of the rope to ensure the proper initial seating of the wedge. Increase the load gradually until the wedge is fully seated. Avoid sudden shock loads.

CRANE LIFT CHECKLIST

The Crane Lift Checklist (fig. 12-43), outlined in the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.1, must be filled out by the crane crew supervisor or the crane test director before the crane can proceed to any project or make any crane lift. After the Crane Lift Checklist is complete, the crane crew supervisor briefs the operator and rigger on specifics of the lift and travel conditions.

Crane Stability

Setting up for a crane lift is the most critical portion of the crane operation. The most common causes of crane mishaps are as follows:

CRANE LIFT CHECKLIST

Date ____________________

1. Location of lift: ____________________
2. Supervisor responsible for lift: ____________________
3. Crane operator: ____________________
4. Rigger(s)/helper(s): ____________________
5. Lift: ____________________
   a. Description of lift:
   b. Weight of item to be lifted: ____________________
   c. Was weight estimated: Yes: ___ No: ___ If yes, by whom: ____________________
   Can weight be verified? Yes: ___ No: ___ If no, contact the crane certifying officer for further instructions.
6. Crane assigned to lift:
   a. USN #: ____________
   b. Capacity: ____________
7. Is travel route free of unsafe obstacles: Yes: ___ No: ___
   If no, explain:
8. Have travel permits been obtained (if required)?
   Yes: ___ No: ___ N/A: ___
9. Have operators and riggers been briefed on sequence to be followed during lift?
   Yes: ___ No: ___ If no, explain:
10. Has crane setup been inspected for stability?
    Yes: ___ No: ___ If no, explain:
11. Has crane operating area been inspected?
    Yes: ___ No: ___ If no, explain:
12. Have slings and other hardware being used been inspected?
    Yes: ___ No: ___ If no, explain:

Figure 12-43.-Crane Lift Checklist.

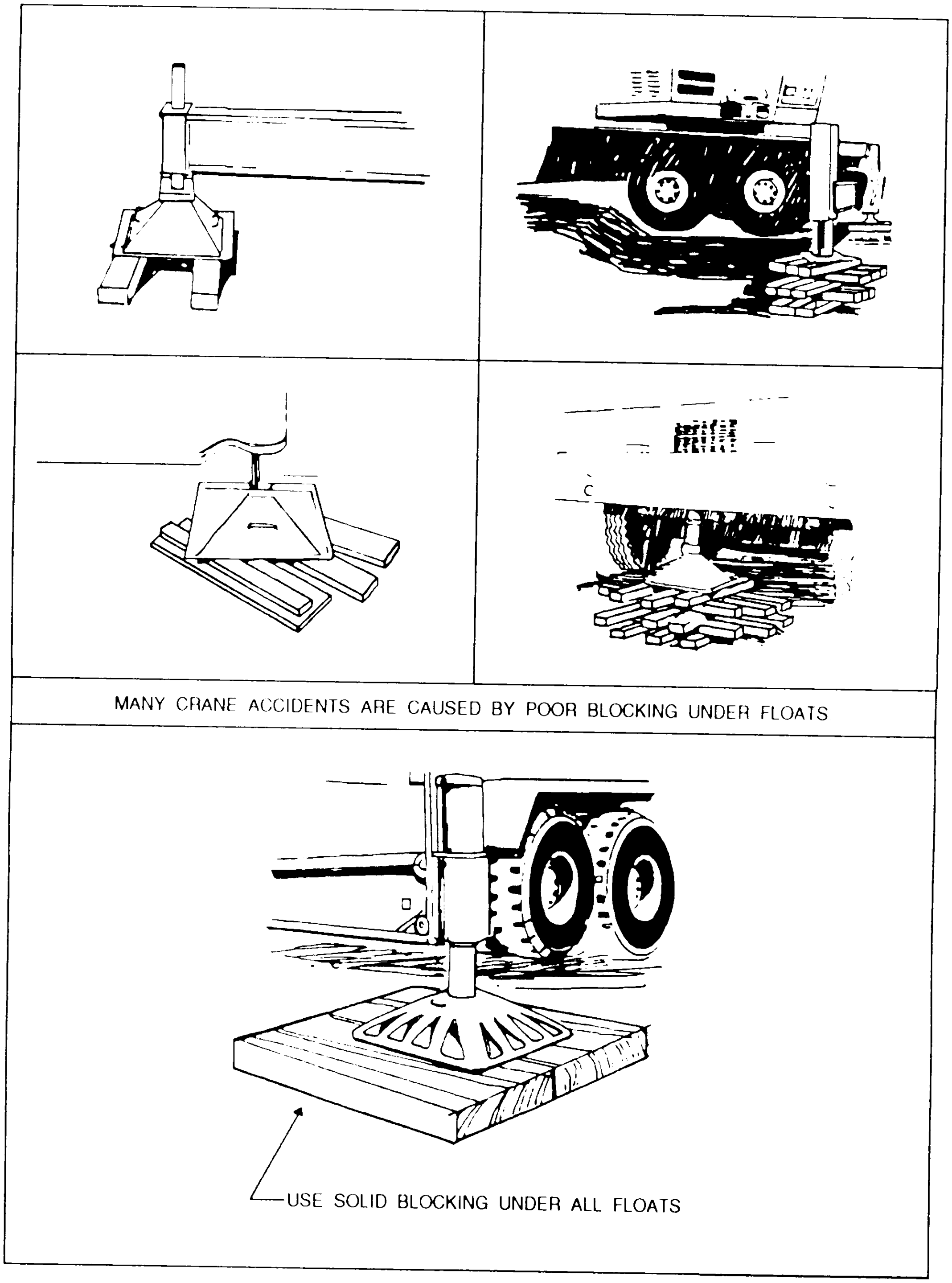


Figure 12-44.-Proper and improper cribbing.

Boom Length and Lift Radius	Chart Capacity Lost When Crane Out of Level By		
	1°	2°	3°
Short Boom, Minimum Radius	10%	20%	30%
Short Boom, Maximum Radius	8%	15%	20%
Long Boom, Minimum Radius	30%	41%	50%
Long Boom, Maximum Radius	5%	19%	15%

Figure 12-45.-Crane capacity lost by crane out of level.

1. Failure to block/crib under the outrigger pads when poor ground conditions cannot support the total weight of the crane and load. Proper and improper cribbing is shown in figure 12-44.

2. Failure to extend the outriggers fully and use them following the manufacturer's instruction.

3. Failure to note overhead obstructions, such as overpasses and power lines.

4. Failure to level the crane. Leveling the crane cannot be overemphasized. Cranes must be set up as per manufacturer's instruction with the outriggers fully extended and the crane leveled. Crane capacity is lost when the crane is out of level by only a few degrees (fig. 12-45). Most cranes have levels mounted on them, but the levels are not always accurate. Use a 3-foot builders level to check the level of the crane over the rear and over the sides (fig. 12-46).

Load Capacity

The rated capacities of mobile cranes are based on both **strength** and **stability.** Manufacturers of cranes will normally denote on the load charts a shaded area or a bold line across the chart dividing the lifting capacities based on strength or stability of the crane. It is extremely important to know the difference for, in one case, one of the structural components of the crane will break and, in the other case, the crane will tip over.

Additionally, the following factors must be recognized and the capacity adjusted accordingly:

1. Do not use stability to determine lifting capacity. Use the load chart installed by the crane manufacturer. The load chart is securely attached in the operator's cab.

2. The number of parts of line on the hoist and the size and type of wire rope for various crane loads.

3. Length of boom.

4. Boom angle.

5. Boom pendant angle (when the telescopic/folding gantry is down, the angle decreases and the stress increases).

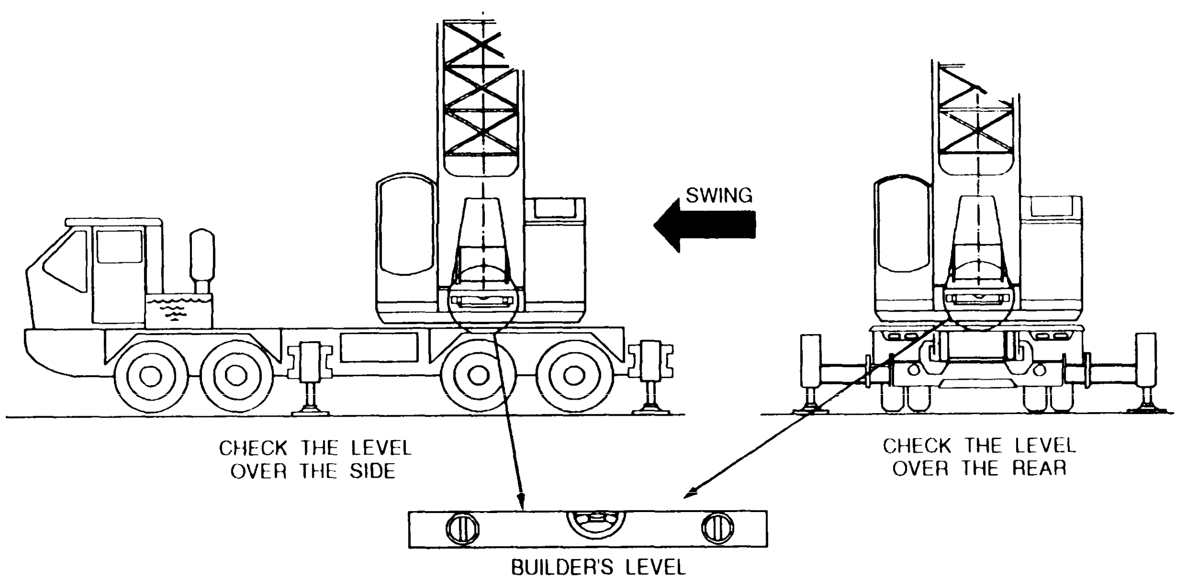


Figure 12-46.-Leveling procedures using a builder's level.

6. Gantry and/or live mast in the highest position.

7. Quadrant of operation (that is, over the side, over the rear capacities).

Load Rating Chart

Atypical load rating chart is shown in figure 12-47. To determine the capacity of the crane by using the load chart, the operator must know the length of boom, the load radius, the boom angle, and if the lift is to be performed over the side or over the rear.

When performing lifts using the boom angle indicator that indicates an angle not noted on the load chart, use the next lower boom angle noted on the load chart for determining the capacity of the crane. For example, using the load charts in figure 12-47, the crane is rigged with 60 feet of boom, and the boom angle indicator indicates a boom angle of 57 degrees. A 57-degree boom angle load capacity is not noted on the load chart, so you must use the next lower noted boom angle of 53 degrees for determining the capacity of the crane.

NOTE: Do not rely on the boom angle indicator for radius accuracy when lifts exceed 75 percent of the rated capacity. Measure the radius to avoid the possibility of error.

When using a radius measurement not noted on the load charts, use the next longer radius measurement noted on the load chart for determining the capacity of the crane. For example, using the load charts in figure 12-47, the crane is rigged with 50 feet of boom, and the radius measurement is 32 feet. A 32-foot radius measurement is not noted on the load charts, so you must use the next longer radius measurement of 35 feet noted on the load chart for determining the capacity of the crane.

The number of part lines reeved on the main hoist block can affect the capacity of the crane. If the crane is capable of being reeved with an eight-part line and the reeving is changed to a six-part line, the capacity of the crane changes. On newer models of cranes, the capacity for different parts of line configurations is noted on the load charts. On older models, you must refer to the manufacturer's manual.

The load chart provides the capacity of the crane with outriggers set and without outriggers. "Outriggers set" means the outriggers are fully extended and the weight of the crane is off of the suspension system or the tires are off the ground. If a situation arises where the outriggers cannot be fully extended, you must use the without outriggers load capacity ratings.

NOTE: Load capacities change when swinging from each quadrant of operation, such as from over the rear to over the side.

SAFE LIFTING

The following factors are basic guidelines to perform safe daily crane operations:

1. Determine the weight to be lifted and the crane required to make the lift safely.

2. Travel the proposed route the crane will follow to and from the project site, and complete the Crane Lift Checklist.

3. Obtain the travel permits if required.

4. Brief operators and riggers on the specifics of the lift and travel conditions.

5. Inspect the crane area setup for stability and safe operating area

6. Fully extend the outriggers and use them according to the manufacturer's instruction.

7. Check the crane for levelness.

8. Inspect all rigging hardware.

9. Select the proper sling with sufficient capacity rating.

10. Center the sling in the base (bowl) of the hook to avoid hook point loading, and ensure the hook block is always placed over the center of the load to eliminate shock loading of the slings or cranes, resulting from load shifts when a lift is made.

11. Make ample safety allowances for unknown factors.

12. Stand clear of and do not walk under suspended loads.

13. Boom deflection. All crane booms have deflection. When the load is lifted off the ground, the boom will deflect, causing the radius to increase. Increased radius may cause overloading of the crane.

14. An uncontrolled swinging load can cause the radius to increase.

15. Clean operating area. Water coolers, excess tools, grease, soda cans, and other unnecessary items should be kept outside of the operating area of the crane. Water coolers must be kept off the crane to prevent

BOOM LENGTH IN FEET	LOAD RADIUS IN FEET	BOOM ANGLE IN DEGREES	BOOM POINT PIN HEIGHT	WITH OUTRIGGERS SET*		WITHOUT OUTRIGGERS		
				OVER SIDE	OVER REAR	OVER SIDE		OVER REAR
						8'-0" WIDE	9'-0" WIDE	9' OR 9' WIDE
30	10	78	35'6"	•50,000	•50,000	28,800	32,200	39,300
	12	74	35'0"	•50,000	•50,000	22,500	24,900	30,800
	15	68	34'0"	•50,000	•50,000	16,800	18,500	23,200
	20	57	31'3"	36,800	•43,700	11,700	12,800	16,200
	25	44	27'3"	26,000	31,100	8,800	9,700	12,400
40	12	78	45'3"	•50,000	•50,000	22,200	24,600	30,600
	15	74	44'6"	•50,000	•50,000	16,500	18,200	22,900
	20	66	42'9"	36,600	•41,300	11,400	12,500	16,000
	25	58	40'0"	25,800	30,900	8,600	9,400	12,200
	30	49	36'3"	19,800	23,700	6,800	7,400	9,700
	35	38	30'9"	15,900	19,100	5,500	6,050	8,000
50	15	77	55'0"	•50,000	•50,000	16,400	18,000	22,700
	20	71	53'6"	36,500	•40,000	11,300	12,300	15,800
	25	65	51'6"	25,700	•30,400	8,450	9,250	12,000
	30	58	48'9"	19,600	23,600	6,650	7,250	9,500
	35	51	45'0"	15,800	19,000	5,400	5,900	7,800
	40	43	40'6"	13,100	16,800	4,500	4,900	6,600
	45	34	34'0"	11,200	13,500	3,800	4,150	5,650
60	15	79	65'3"	•48,800	•48,800	16,100	17,800	22,500
	20	74	64'0"	36,400	•39,100	11,000	12,100	15,600
	25	69	62'3"	25,500	•29,600	8,150	8,950	11,800
	30	64	60'0"	19,500	23,400	6,350	7,000	9,300
	35	59	57'3"	15,600	18,800	5,100	5,650	7,600
	40	53	53'9"	13,000	15,700	4,200	4,650	6,400
	45	46	49'6"	11,000	13,300	3,500	3,900	5,350
	50	39	44'3"	9,500	11,600	2,950	3,300	4,700
	55	32	37'9"	8,400	10,200	2,500	2,800	4,000
70	20	77	74'3"	36,200	•37,300	10,700	11,800	15,400
	25	72	73'0"	25,300	•28,800	7,850	8,700	11,600
	30	68	71'0"	19,300	•23,100	6,100	6,700	9,100
	40	59	66'0"	12,800	15,500	3,900	4,350	6,200
	50	49	58'6"	9,350	11,400	2,700	3,000	4,500
	60	36	47'6"	7,200	8,850	1,850	2,150	3,350
80	20	78	84'6"	•32,800	•32,800			
	25	75	83'3"	23,200	•28,400			
	30	71	81'9"	19,100	•22,600			
	40	63	77'6"	12,600	15,300			
	50	55	71'3"	9,200	11,200			
	60	45	62'9"	7,050	8,700			
	70	34	50'9"	5,600	6,950			
90	20	80	94'9"	•29,000	•29,000			
	25	77	93'9"	25,100	•26,000			
	30	73	92'3"	19,000	•22,200			
	40	66	88'6"	12,500	15,200			
	50	59	83'3"	9,050	11,000			
	60	51	76'3"	6,900	8,550			
	70	43	66'9"	5,450	6,800			
	80	32	53'6"	4,400	5,600			
100	20	81	105'0"	•25,300	•25,300			
	30	75	102'9"	18,800	•20,500			
	40	69	99'3"	12,300	15,000			
	50	63	94'9"	8,850	10,800			
	60	56	88'9"	6,700	8,400			
	70	49	81'0"	5,250	6,600			
	80	40	70'6"	4,200	5,350			
	90	30	56'3"	3,350	4,400			
110	20	81	115'0"	•22,000	•22,000			
	30	76	113'0"	•17,700	•17,700			
	40	71	110'0"	12,100	•14,000			
	50	65	106'0"	8,650	10,700			
	60	59	100'6"	6,500	8,200			
	70	53	93'9"	5,050	6,450			
	80	46	85'3"	4,000	5,200			
	90	38	74'3"	3,200	4,250			
	100	29	59'0"	2,600	3,500			

Figure 12-47.-Typical crane capacity chart.

people from congregating around the crane when in operation.

NOTE: Safe lifting is paramount! Project completion must not interfere with safe crane operations.

CLAMSHELL OPERATIONS

The clamshell bucket is an attachment used with a crane for vertical digging belowground level and for placing materials at considerable height, depth, or distance. You can also use it for moving bulk materials from stockpiles to plant bins, loading hoppers, and conveyors. It can be used to dig loose to medium compacted soil.

Clamshell operating procedures are as follows:

1. Position and level the crane, ensuring the digging operation is as close to the radius as the dumping operation. This prevents you from having to boom up and down, resulting in a loss of production.

2. Select the correct size and type of bucket for the crane.

3. When lowering the clamshell bucket, if too much pressure is applied to the closing line brake, the bucket will close and an excess amount of wire rope will unwind from the holding line hoist drum. To avoid this, you should release the holding line and closing line brakes simultaneously when lowering the open clamshell into the material for the initial bite. Engage the closing line control lever to close the bucket. Control the digging depth by using the holding line control lever and brake.

4. If, during hoisting, the hoist line gets ahead of the closing line, the bucket will open and spill the material. (This could also be caused by having too much wire rope on the hoist drum.) The operator must hoist both the closing and holding lines at the same speed to keep the bucket from opening and spilling material.

5. When the clamshell bucket is raised enough to clear all obstacles, start the swing by engaging the swing control lever. Hoisting the bucket can be performed, as it is swung to the dumping site. The spring-loaded tag line will retard the twisting motion of the bucket if the swing is performed smoothly.

6. Dumping and unloading the clamshell is performed by keeping the holding line brake applied while the closing line brake is released. Apply the closing line brake quickly after the load is dumped to prevent the closing line from unwinding more wire rope than is needed to dump the material. After the bucket is emptied, swing the open clamshell back to the digging site. Then lower the open bucket and repeat the cycle.

The clamshell operating cycle has four steps: filling (closing) the bucket, raising the loaded bucket, swinging, and dumping. The boom angle for clamshell operations should be between 40 to 60 degrees. Be careful when working with higher boom angles, as the bucket could hit the boom. A clamshell attachment is not a positive digging tool.

The height reached by the clamshell depends on the length of the boom used. The depth reached by the clamshell is limited by the length of wire rope that the hoist drum can handle. For the safe lifting capacity for the clamshell, refer to the operator's manual and the crane capacity load chart.

DRAGLINE OPERATIONS

The dragline is a versatile attachment capable of a wide range of operations at and belowground level. The dragline can dig through loose to medium compacted soil. The biggest advantage of the dragline over other machines is its long reach for both digging and dumping. Another advantage is its high cycle speed. The dragline does not have the positive digging force of the backhoe. The bucket is not weighted or held in alignment by rigid structures; therefore, it can bounce, tip over, or drift sideways when digging through hard materials. This weakness increases with digging depth.

Dragline operating procedures are as follows:

1. Keep the teeth sharp of the dragline bucket and built up to proper size.

2. Keep the dump rope short, so the load can be picked up at a proper distance from the crane.

3. Excavate the working area in layers, not in trenches, and sloped upward toward the crane.

4. Do not drag the bucket in so close to the crane that it builds piles and ridges of material in front of the crane.

5. Do not guide the bucket by swinging the crane while digging. This puts unnecessary side stresses on the boom. Start the swing only after the bucket has been raised clear of the ground.

6. A pair of drag chains is attached to the front of the bucket through brackets by which the pull point may be adjusted up or down. The upper position is used for deep or hard digging, as it pulls the teeth into a steeper angle.

7. The drag cable can be reversed end for end to prolong the life of the wire rope, reduce early wire rope replacement, and keep wire rope cost down. Remember, the drag cable should not be lubricated.

8. When lowering the dragline bucket into the area to be worked, release the drag brake to tip the cutting edge down and then release the hoist brake. You do not have to drop the bucket to force the teeth into the material. The bucket is filled as it is dragged toward the crane by engaging the drag control lever. The cutting depth is controlled by releasing tension from the hoist brake. The dragline is NOT a positive digging tool.

9. The dragline cycle is filling the bucket, lifting the bucket, swinging the loaded bucket, and dumping the load.

10. Since the dragline is not a rigid attachment, it will not dump materials as accurately as do other excavators. When a load is dumped into a haul unit or hopper, you need more time to position the bucket before dumping it.

NOTE: When you are dumping into a haul unit, NEVER load over the cab. Additionally, make sure the operator is out of the cab and clear of the dragline or clamshell bucket.

11. The boom angle for dragline operations should normally be from 25 to 35 degrees. However, check the crane load chart to ensure this low boom angle does not exceed the capacity of the crane. At this relatively low boom angle, you must be careful when excavating and dumping wet, sticky materials, because the chance of tipping the crane is increased because the material tends to hang in the bucket.

Dragline Employment

The dragline can be used in dredging where the material handled is wet and sticky. It can dig trenches, strip overburden, clean and dig road side ditches, and slope embankments. When the dragline is handling mud, it is the most practical attachment. Its reach enables it to handle a wide area of excavation while sitting in one position, and the sliding action of the bucket eliminates trouble with suction.

Other uses of the dragline include the following:

1. In-line approach. When excavating a trench with the dragline, ensure the dragline and carrier unit are centered on the excavation (fig. 12-48). The dragline cuts or digs to the front and dumps on either side of the excavation. The crane moves away from the face as the work progresses.

2. Parallel approach. The dragline can slope an embankment better by working it from the bottom to the top. The crane is positioned on the top with the carrier parallel to the working face, so it can move the full length of the job without excessive turning.

3. Drainage. A dragline is ideal if earthwork materials have to be removed from a trench, canal, gravel pit, and so forth, containing water. Plan the work to begin at the lowest grade point, so drainage will be provided as the dragline progresses towards higher levels.

NOTE: Digging underwater or in wet materials increase the weight of the materials and frequently prevent carrying heaped bucket loads.

Ditching the excavation through swamps or soft terrain is common. Under these conditions the excavated material is normally cast onto a levee or spoils bank.

4. Loading haul units. When the job requires excavated material to be loaded into hauling units, the excavation should be opened up so loaded hauling equipment can travel on high, dry ground or on better grades. The spotting of trucks and dragline should be planned for minimum boom swing with the truck bed under the boom point and the long axis of the bed parallel with the long axis of the boom or at right angles to the boom. More spillage is to be expected from a dragline than from a front-end loader.

Efficient Dragline Operation

Other uses of the dragline operation include the following:

1. Although the dragline bucket can be readily cast beyond the length of the boom, the machine should be positioned to eliminate casting.

2. Use heavy timber mats for work on soft ground. The mats should be kept level and clean.

3. When setting up for a dragline operation, you should have access for maintenance, operating personnel, and hauling equipment.

4. Excavate the working area in layers, not in trenches, and keep the slope upward toward the crane.

5. Do not drag the bucket in so close to the crane that it builds piles and ridges of material in front of the crane.

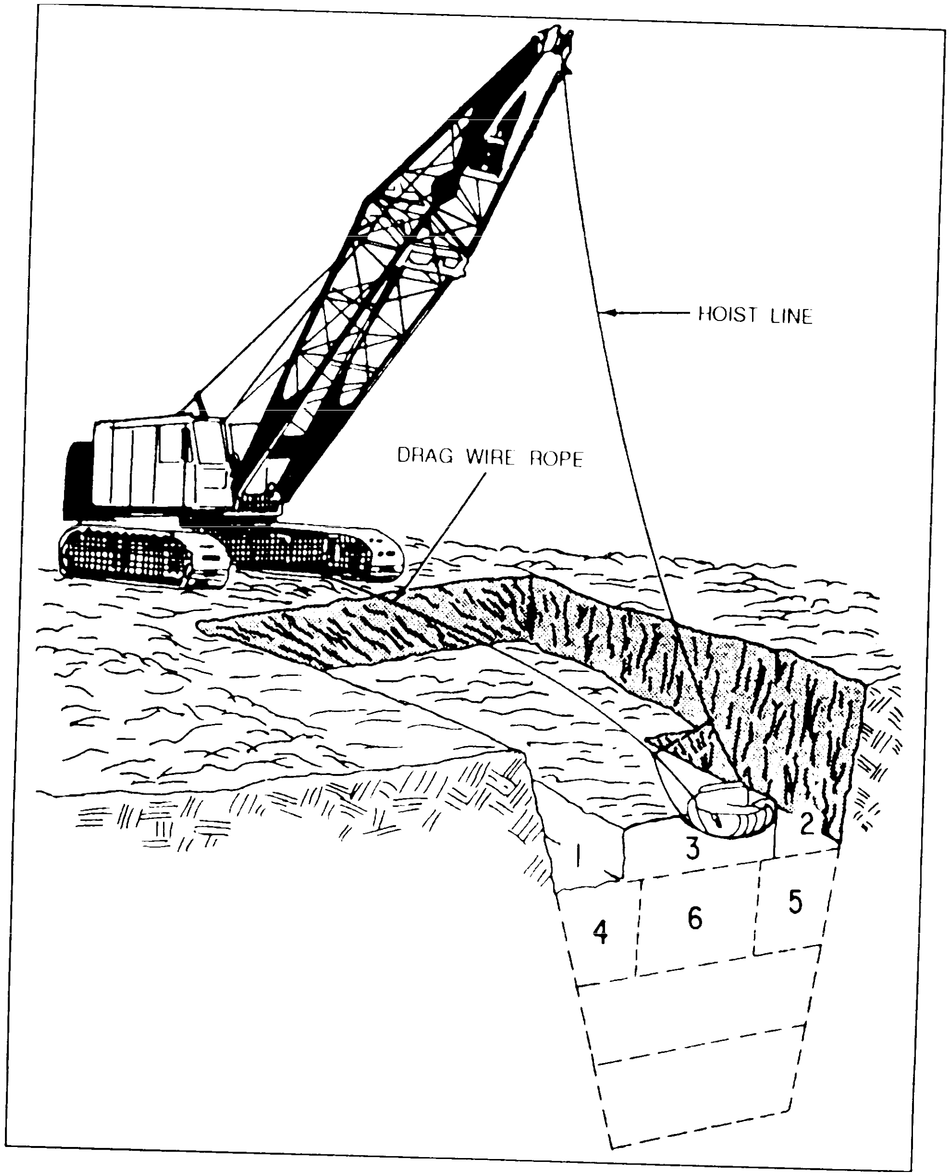


Figure 12-48.-In-line approach with dragline.

6. Salvage pieces of hoist wire rope for use as the dump rope.

PILE-DRIVING OPERATIONS

Pile driving in the NCF is done with crawler- or truck-mounted cranes rigged with pile-driving attachments, as shown in figure 12-49. The pile-driving hammer is categorized under the 36-00000 USN number registration series.

NOTE: The combined weight of all the pile-driving attachments reduces the capacity of the crane. Additionally, the crane capacity must be able to support the combined weight of all of the pile-driving attachments.

LEADS

Pile-driving leads serve as tracks along which the pile-driving hammer runs and as guides for positioning and steadying the pile during driving operations. The leads come in 10-, 15-, and 20-foot sections bolted together to form various lengths, as shown in figure 12-50.

NOTE: Because of the vibrations created during pile-driving operations, you must check all the lead

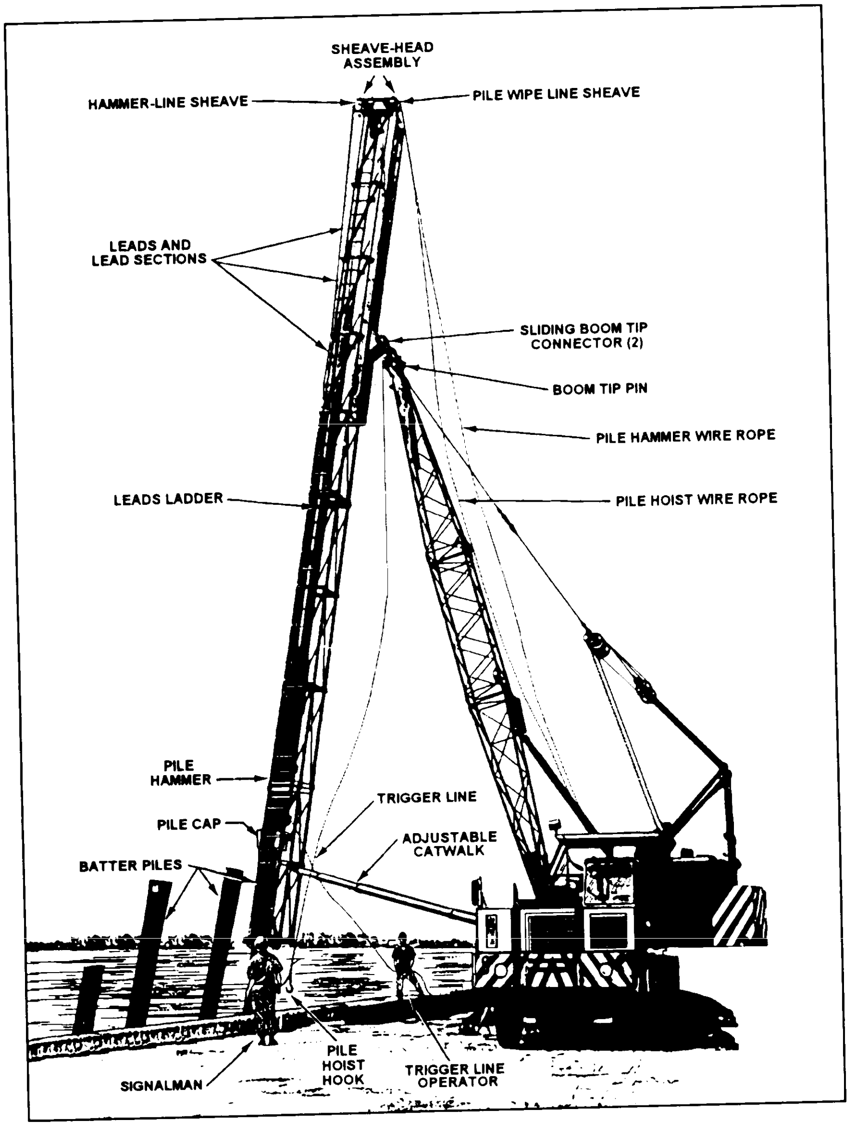


Figure 12-49.—Typical pile-driving operation.

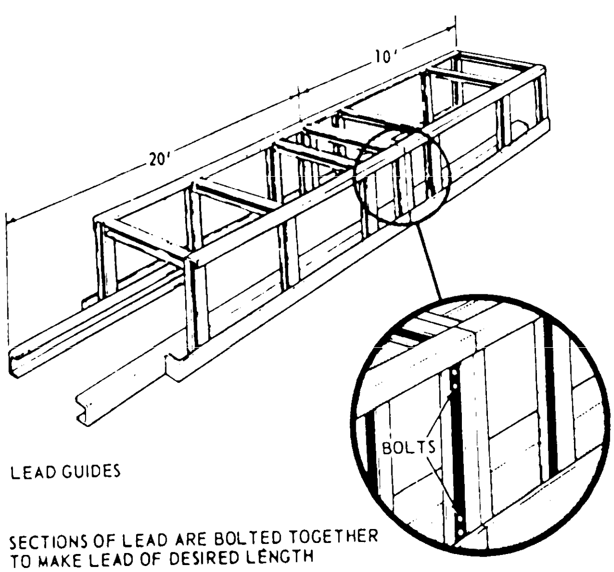


Figure 12-50.-Assembly of 10- and 20-foot lead sections.

section bolts for tightness at the beginning of each pile-driving shift.

The types of leads used in the NCF are swinging, underhung, extended four-way, and spud leads.

Swinging Leads

Swinging leads are assembled facedown on the ground by bolting the 15-foot tapered section to the selected intermediate sections. A single crane line holds the pile-driving hammer that is slipped into and guided by the rails of the swinging leads. This lead is hung from the crane boom with a second single line from the crane. The lead is spotted on the ground at the pile location, normally with stabbing points attached to the bottom of the leads, and held plumb or at the desired batter with the second single crane line. Short swinging leads are often used to assist in driving steel sheetpilings. Figure 12-51 shows the components of a swinging lead.

The boom point sheaves are used to accommodate the hoist drum wire rope that supports the pile, pile-driving hammer, and leads; therefore, its use requires a three-drum crane. Under certain conditions a two-drum crane can be used The leads are raised to the vertical by a combination of booming, swinging, and/or traveling.

ADVANTAGES.— Some advantages of using a swinging lead over other types of leads are as follows:

1. They are the lightest, simplest, and least expensive.

2. With stabbing points secured in the ground, these leads are free to rotate sufficiently to align the pile-driving hammer with the pile without precise alignment of the crane with the pile.

3. Because these leads are generally 15 to 20 feet shorter than the boom, the crane can reach out farther if the crane has sufficient capacity.

4. They can be used to drive piles in a hole, ditch, or over the edge of an excavation.

5. For long lead and boom requirements, the weight of the leads can be supported on the ground and the pile is lifted into place without excessively increasing the working load weight.

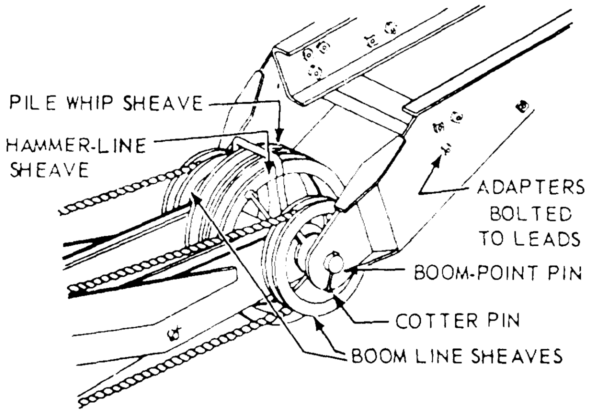


Figure 12-52.-Lead adapters connected to the boom tip.

DISADVANTAGES.— Some disadvantages of using a swinging lead are as follows:

1. It requires a three-hoist drum crane (main line for the pile, secondary for the pile-driving hammer, and third for the leads) or two-hoist drum crane with the lead hung on the sling from the boom tip.

2. Because the leads are supported by the hoist wire rope, precise positioning of the leads with the top of the pile is difficult and slow.

3. If stabbing points are not secured to the ground, it is difficult to control the twisting of the leads.

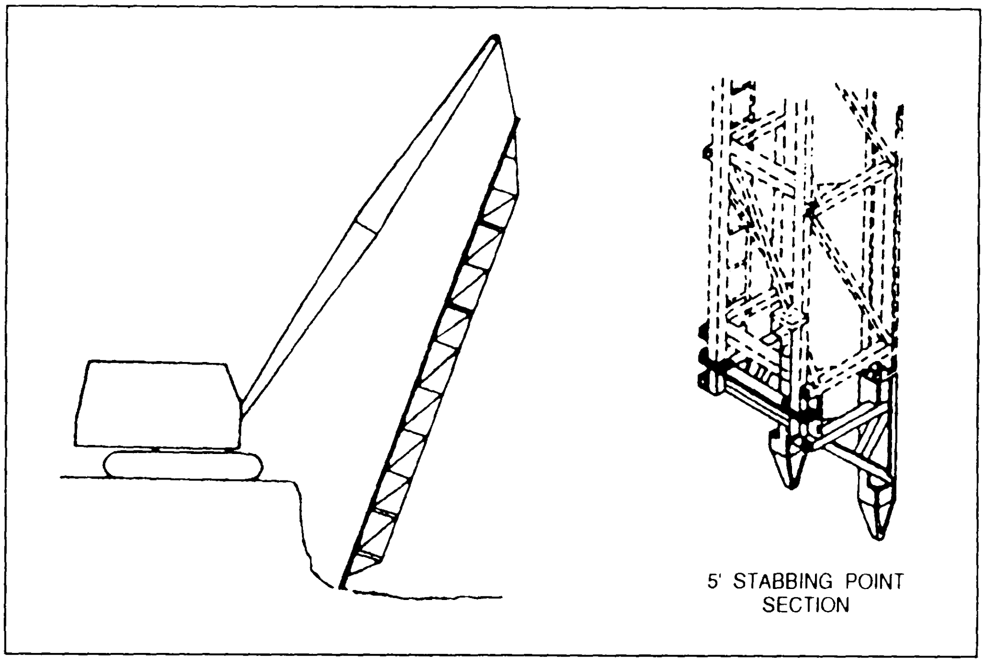


Figure 12-51.-Swinging leads.

NOTE: The tag line winder may be used to control the twisting of the leads.

4. Because these leads are not rigid, it is more difficult to position the crane to set up for pile-driving operations.

Underhung Leads

Underhung leads are composed of exactly the same sections used for swinging leads. Underhung leads are bolted together on the ground, as described for swinging leads, and connected to the boom tip through the use of lead adapters (fig. 12-52). The boom tip sheaves are used to accommodate the pile and the pile-driving hammer. All underhung leads have a standard bolt hole layout for bolting the lead adapters to the leads; however, the dimensions of the boom tip end of the adapters vary according to the make and model of the crane. After the adapters are connected to the boom, the boom is raised to bring the leads to a vertical position (fig. 12-53). Long lead sections may require the use of support equipment to raise the leads to a vertical position.

NOTE: Check the adapter bolts for tightness at the beginning of each pile-driving shift.

Adapter plates are mounted to the boom butt or crane cab and on the bottom lead section for connection of a fore-and-aft bottom brace, commonly known as a **catwalk.** The catwalk can be extended or telescoped to various lengths. It can be set to hold the leads vertical for driving bearing piles or to hold them at an angle for driving batter piles. In use, an underhung lead is held by the boom at a fixed radius (fig. 12-54).

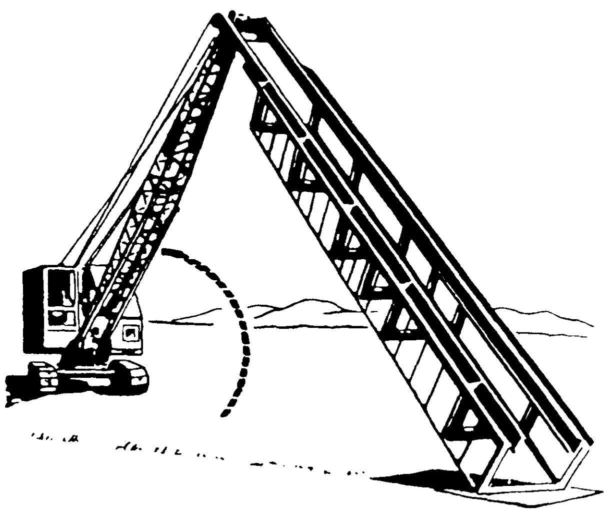


Figure 12-53.-Underhung leads being raised by the boom.

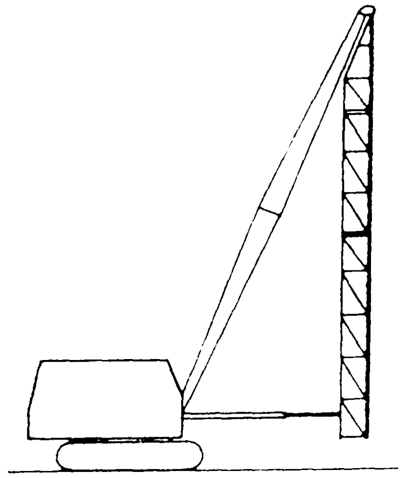


Figure 12-54.-Underhung leads.

ADVANTAGES.— Some advantages of using underhung leads over other types of leads areas follows:

1. They are lighter and generally less expensive than the extended four-way type of lead.

2. They require only a two-hoist drum crane.

3. They provide accuracy in positioning leads in vertical and fore-and-aft batter positions.

4. They provide precise control of the leads during positioning operation.

5. They reduce rigging time in setting up and breaking down.

6. They use boom tip sheaves.

DISADVANTAGES.— Some disadvantages of using underhung leads are as follows:

1. They cannot be used for side-to-side batter driving.

2. The length of pile is limited by boom length, since this type of lead cannot be extended above the boom tip.

3. When long leads require the use of long boom lengths, the working radius that results may be excessive for the capacity of the crane.

4. They do not allow the use of a boom shorter than the lead.

Extended Four-Way Leads

Extended four-way leads use the same intermediate lead sections as swinging and underhung leads. In place of a 15-foot tapered section, an extended lead uses a

30-foot slide section with a sheave head **assembly.** A universal **sliding boom tip connector,** slipped into the 30-foot slide section, connects to the boom tip (fig. 12-55). The sliding boom tip connector swivels, allowing for driving batter piles in all directions.

The boom is lowered over the leads when connecting the boom tip to the sliding boom connector. The connector is bolted into the 30-foot slide section at the location dictated by the amount of lead extension desired above the boom tip.

NOTE: Extension of the lead over the boom tip must not exceed one third of the total lead length or up to 25 feet maximum.

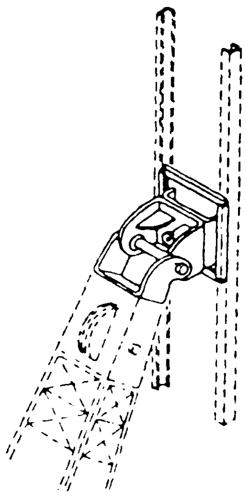


Figure 12-55.-Sliding boom tip connector.

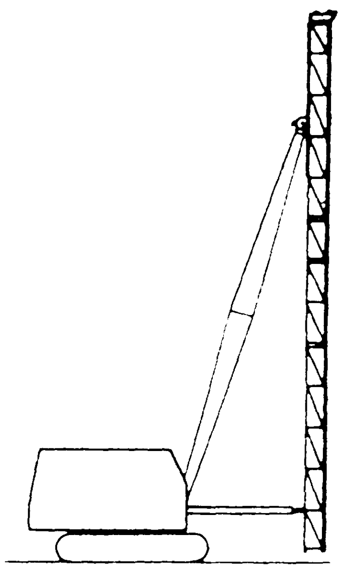


Figure 12-56.-Extended four-way lead.

The boom is raised to raise the leads. The type of catwalk used is a hydraulic or mechanical **parallelogram bottom brace.** This type of brace allows for a fixed radius or side-to-side batter by swinging the linked parallelogram in the desired position. The parallelogram allows for pile driving in all directions at the bottom. Figure 12-56 shows an extended four-way lead.

The boom point sheaves are not used to accommodate the pile-driving hammer and the piles. The extended four-way leads are equipped with a special **sheave head assembly** (fig. 12-57) that the two-hoist drum wire rope reeves through to support the pile-driving hammer and the piles.

ADVANTAGES.— Some advantages of using an extended four-way lead are as follows:

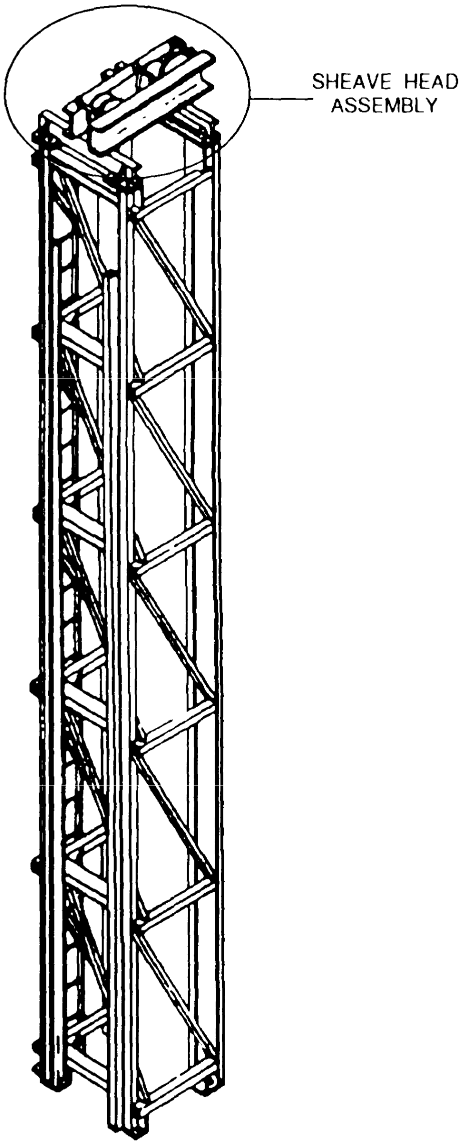


Figure 12-57.-Sheave head assembly.

1. It requires only a two-hoist drum crane.

2. It provides accuracy in locating leads in all batter positions.

3. It provides rigid control of the leads during positioning operation.

4. It allows batter angles to be set and accurately maintained.

5. It allows for the use of short boom angles that increases the crane capacity.

6. The boom can be lowered and leads folded under for short hauls over the road when a crane with adequate capacity is used This operation depends on the length of the lead and boom and the configuration of the crane.

DISADVANTAGES.— Some disadvantages of using an extended four-way lead are as follows:

1. It is the heaviest and most expensive of the three basic lead types.

2. It is more troublesome to assemble.

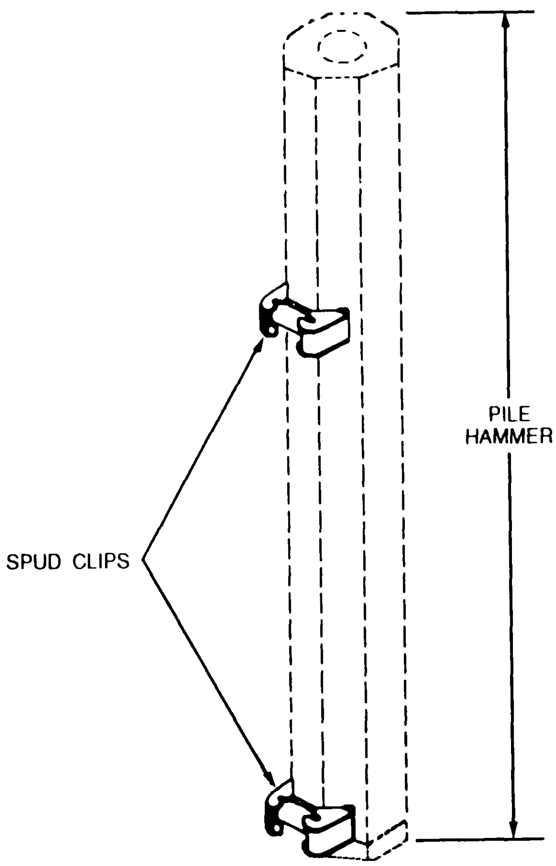


Figure 12-58.-Spud clips mounted to one side of the pile-driving hammer.

Spud Leads

A spud lead is a steel wide flange or H-beam used in place of pile-driving hammer leads. The pile-driving hammer rides on the flange of the beam through spud clips bolted to one side of the pile-driving hammer (fig. 12-58).

Depending on the design of the spud lead, the spud can be used as a swinging and underhung lead or equipped with a sheave head assembly as an extended four-way lead An advantage of this type of lead is that it bears the whole bottom of the pile cap to the piling especially when sheetpiling is being driven (fig. 12-59).

PILE-DRIVING HAMMERS

The three principal types of pile-driving hammers are the **drop hammer,** the **steam,** or **pneumatic, hammer,** and the **diesel hammer.**

A drop hammer is a block of metal hoisted to a specific height and then dropped on a cap paced on the butt or head of the pile. Drop hammers weigh from 1,200 to 3,000 pounds.

WARNING

The noise generated by a pile driving operation can cause hearing loss. Hearing protection must be worn by personnel in the vicinity of pile driving operations.

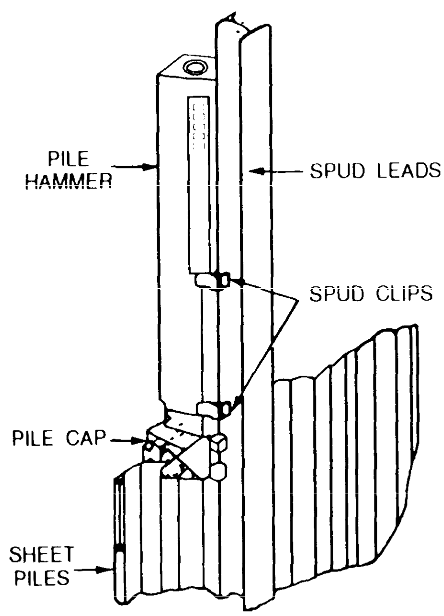


Figure 12-59.-Sheet pile driving with spud leads.

The steam, or pneumatic, hammer has basically replaced the drop hammer. This hammer (fig. 12-60) consists of a cylinder that contains a steam-driven or air-driven **ram.** The ram consists of a **piston** equipped with a **striking head.** The hammer is rested on the butt or head of the pile for driving.

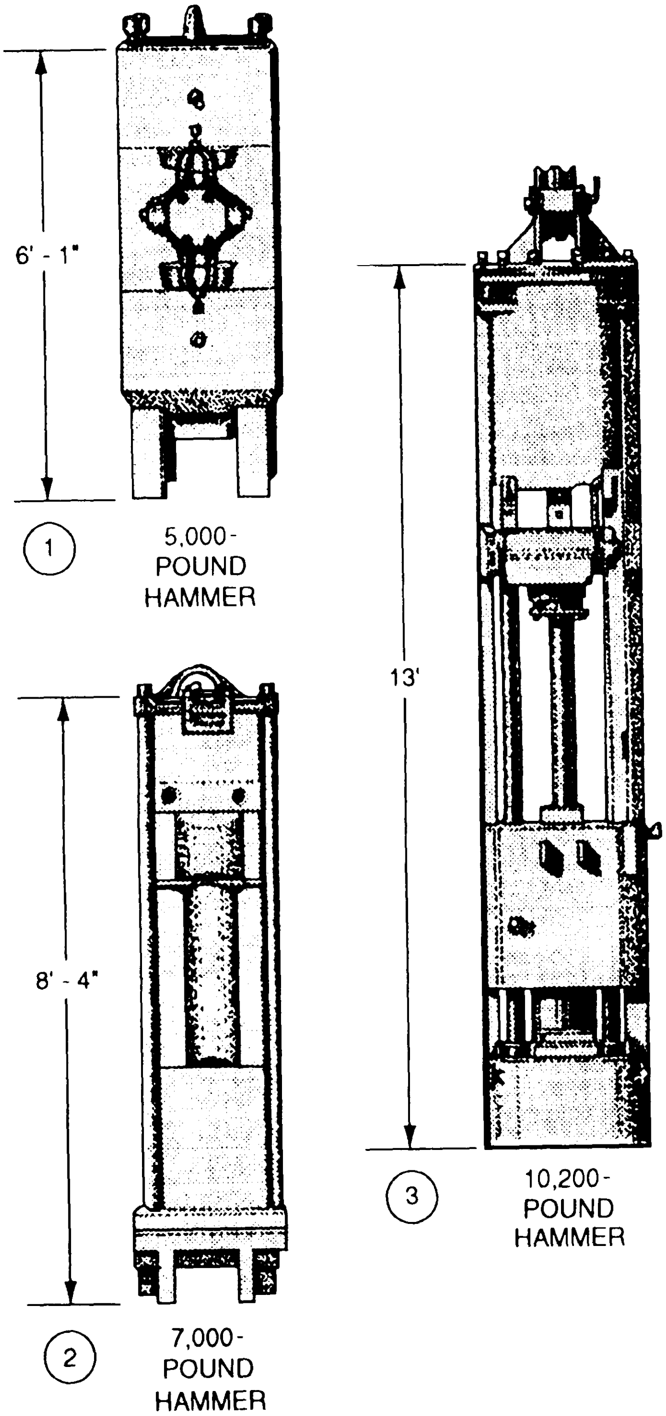


Figure 12-60.— Steam, or pneumatic, pile hammer.

With a **single-action** steam, or pneumatic, hammer, the power drive serves only to lift the ram; the downward blow of the ram results from the force of gravity only. In a **double-action** hammer, the ram is both lifted and driven downward by the power drive. A double-action hammer weighs from 5,000 to 14,000 pounds, and a single-action hammer weighs about 10,000 pounds.

The blows of the double-action hammer are lighter, but more rapid than those of the single-action hammer. The double-action hammer generally drives lightweight or average weight piles into soils of average density. The rapid blows tend to keep the pile in motion, thereby reducing the resistance of inertia and friction. However, when you are driving heavy piles in hard or dense soil, the resistance from inertia and friction, together with the rapid, high-velocity blows of the double-action hammer, tends to damage the butt or head of the pile.

The single-action hammer is best for driving heavy piles into hard or dense soil. The heavy ram, striking at low velocity, allows more energy to be transferred into the motion of the pile, thereby reducing impact and damage to the butt or head of the pile.

A conventional pneumatic hammer requires a 600-cubic-foot-per-minute compressor to operate, and the diesel is a self-contained unit constructed in sizes that deliver up to 43,000 foot-pounds of energy per blow. The diesel pile hammer is about twice as fast as a conventional pneumatic, or steam, hammer of like size and weight.

Diesel Hammer Operation

The most common diesel hammer used in the NCF is the DE-10 McKiernan-Terry pile hammer shown in figure 12-61. The hammer is lifted and started by a single crane load line connected to a **trip mechanism** (A). The hammer is started by lifting the ram piston (B) with the load line until the trip mechanism (C) automatically releases the ram piston. The ram piston falls and actuates the cam of the fuel pump (D) that delivers a measured amount of diesel fuel that falls into a cup formed in the top of the anvil (E). Continuing its downfall, the ram piston blocks the exhaust ports (F) and begins compression of air trapped between the ram piston and the anvil. The compression of the trapped air creates a preloading force upon the anvil, the drive cap, and the pile. The gravity propelled ram piston strikes the anvil, delivering its impact energy to the pile.

The rounded end of the ram piston mates perfectly with the cup in the anvil and displaces the fuel at the

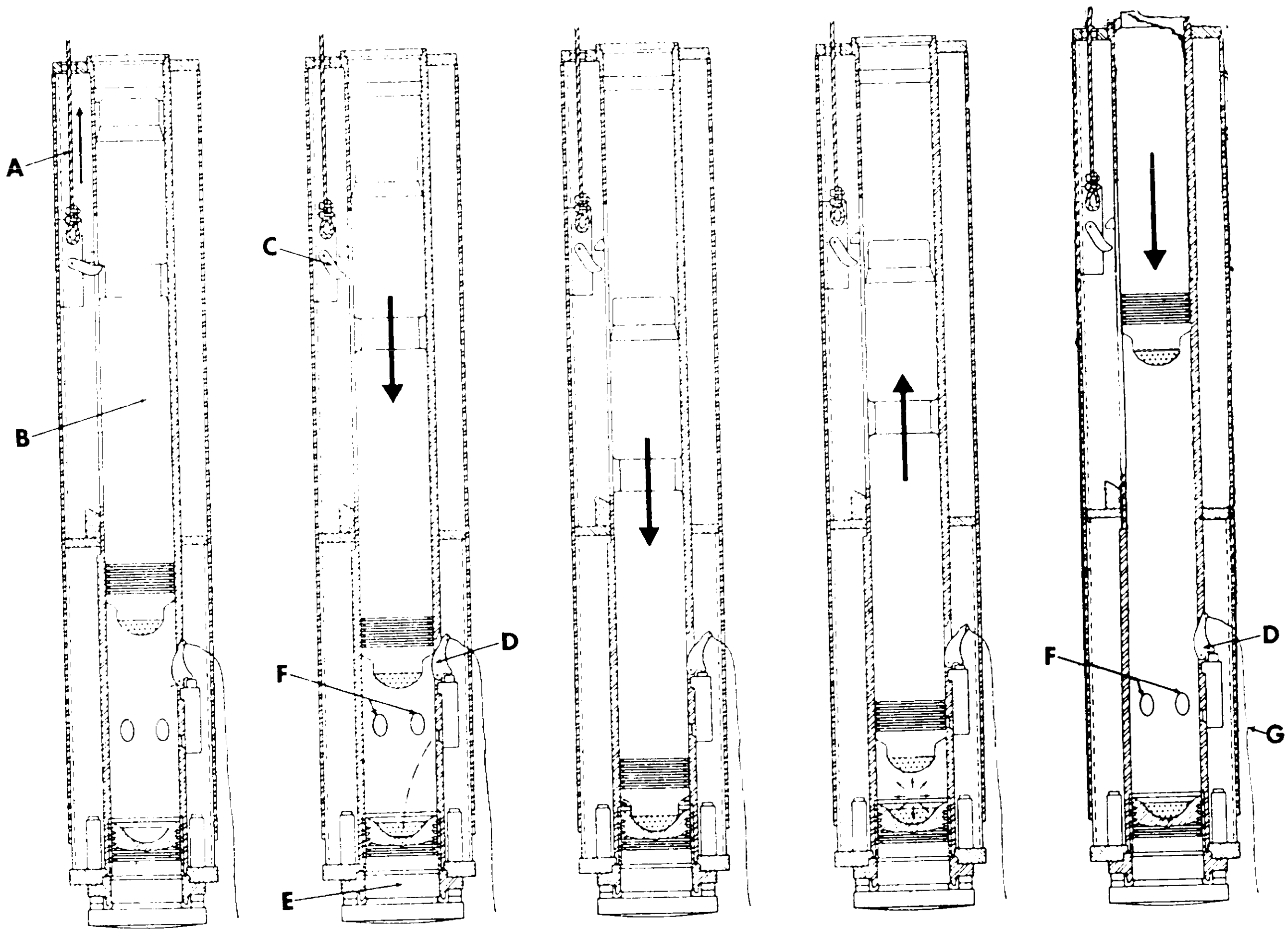


Figure 12-61.-Operating principles of the McKiernan-Terry diesel pile hammer.

precise moment of impact for perfect timing. The fuel is atomized and splattered into the annular (ring-shaped) zone between the ram and the anvil and is ignited by the heat of compression.

The resulting explosive force drives the ram piston upward and the pile downward and adds a push to the pile to extend the time of the total effort to drive the pile.

On the upstroke, the ram piston opens the exhaust ports (F) to permit scavenging the exhaust gases. The ram piston continues freely upward until arrested by gravity. The length of the stroke varies with the resistance of the pile. The greater the resistance, the longer the stroke.

Having reached the top of its stroke, the ram piston falls again, repeating the cycle. The hammer is stopped by pulling a rope (G) that disengages the fuel pump cam (D).

TRIP MECHANISM.— The trip mechanism (fig. 12-62) is an off-center linkage mechanism located at the rear of the hammer, designed to lift and drop the ram for starting. Additionally, the trip mechanism lifts and lowers the hammer in the leads. The trip mechanism is connected to a single line from the crane. Lowering the trip mechanism to the bottom of its stroke engages the lifting lever that lifts the ram. When the crane lifts the trip mechanism and ram piston past the upper stops, the finger of the trip lever is rotated clockwise around the trip lever pin, thus freeing the ram piston. The trip mechanism is held in the upper position while the hammer is in operation.

The safety link in the trip mechanism is designed to break or bend should the operator lower the trip mechanism to low and engage the lifting lever while the hammer is in operation. The safety link prevents damaging the trip mechanism or ram. If the safety link is broken while the hammer is in operation, the hammer will continue to operate; however, once the hammer is shut down, the safety link must be replaced before the hammer can be restarted.

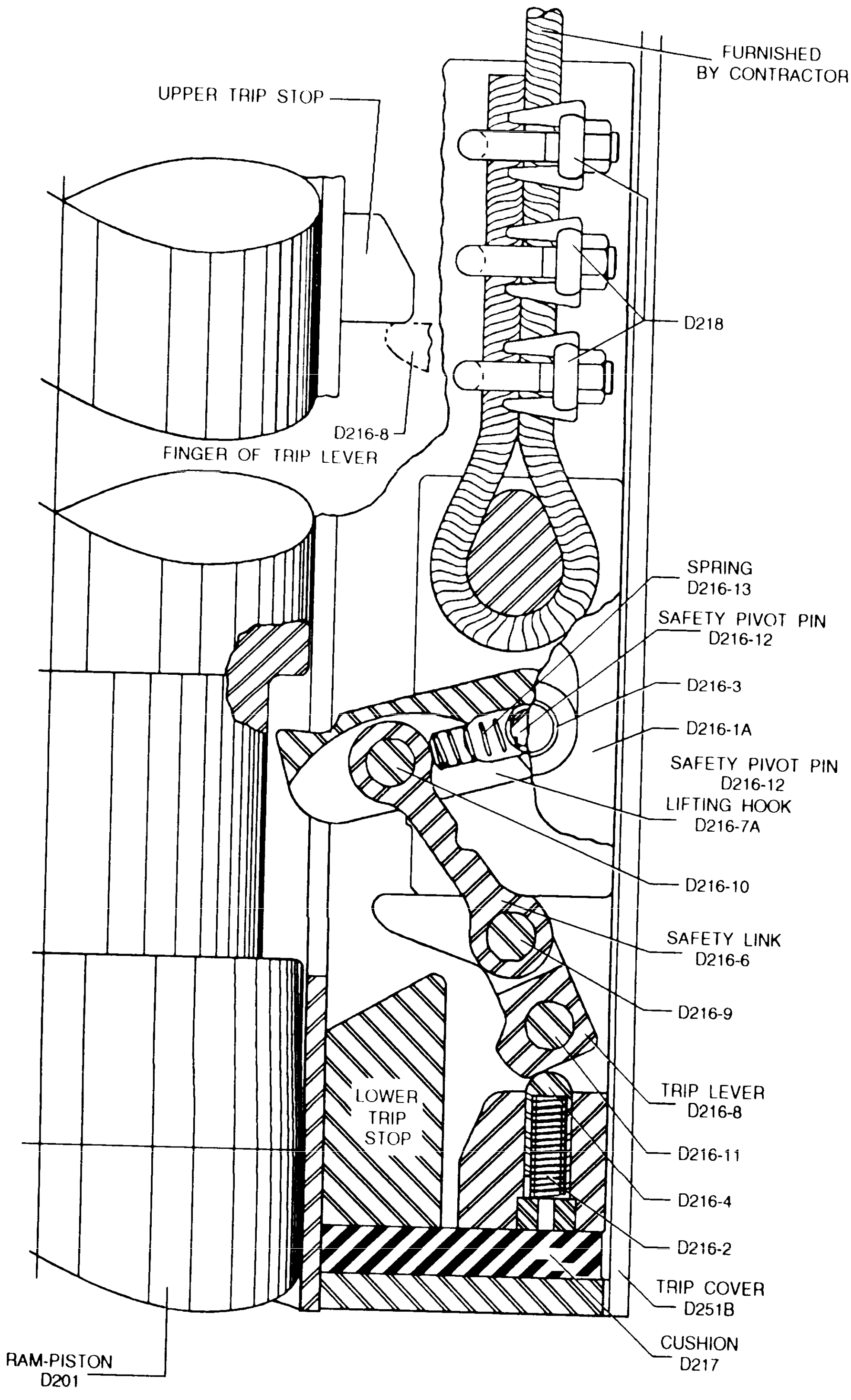


Figure 12-62.—Trip mechanism.

NOTE: The number of safety links to have on hand depends on the experience of the crane operator; however, as a rule of thumb you should have at lease 5 to 10 safety links stored in the toolbox on the jobsite.

FUEL SYSTEM.— Diesel or kerosene fuel is fed by gravity from the main fuel tank through the filter cartridge and in-line shut-off valve and down the inlet line to the pump. The cam-actuated fuel pump is located at the lower end of the cylinder and injects the fuel directly into the combustion chamber in the anvil. The hammer usually consumes about .9 gallon of fuel per hour of operation, and the capacity of the tank is 9 gallons.

LUBRICATION SYSTEM.— Oil drains are fed by gravity from the lubrication tank (fig. 12-63) through the wire mesh falter and in-line shut-off valve down the inlet line to the reservoir in the pump baseplate. From the reservoir oil feeds through passages in the pump to

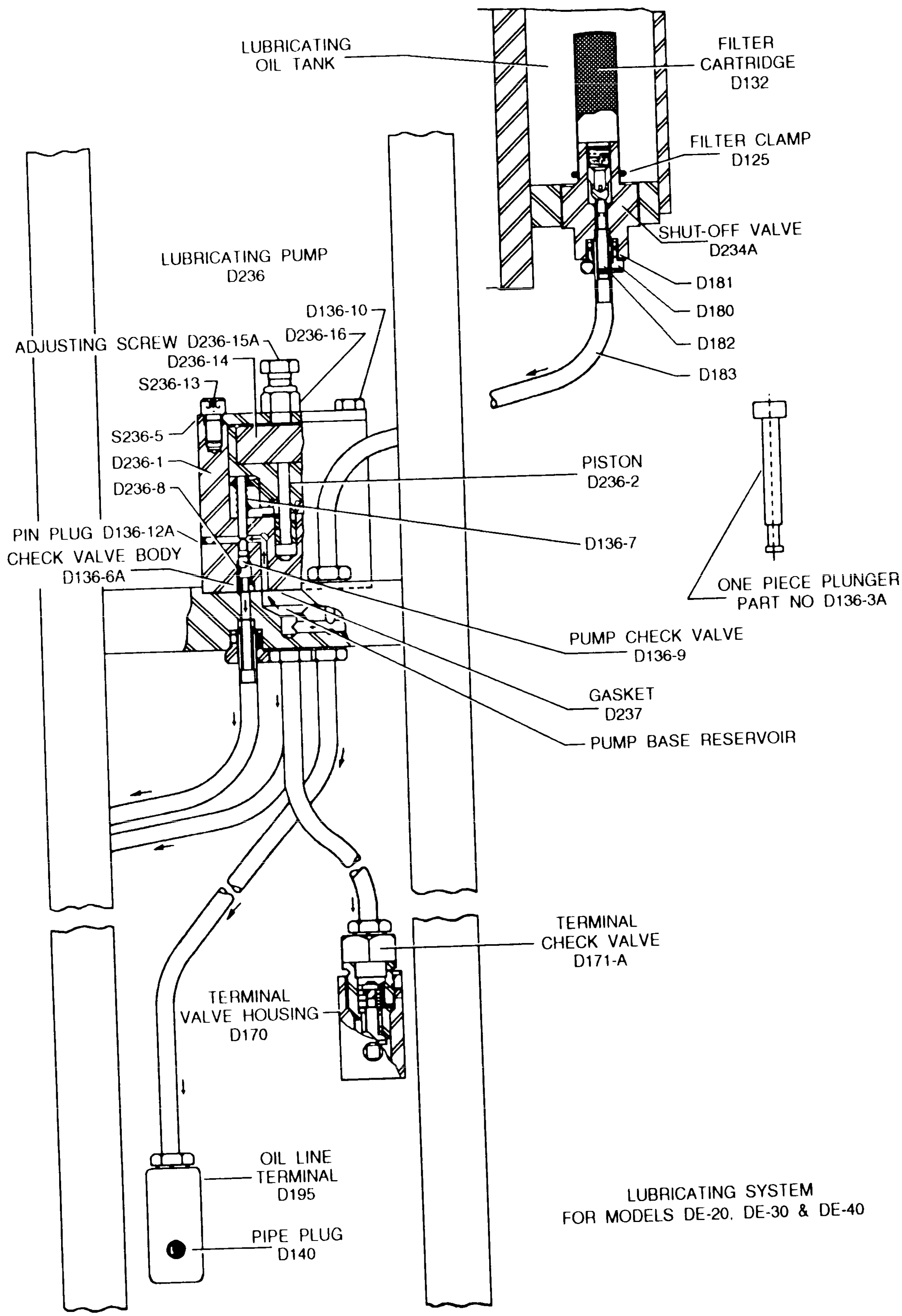


Figure 12-63.-Lubrication system.

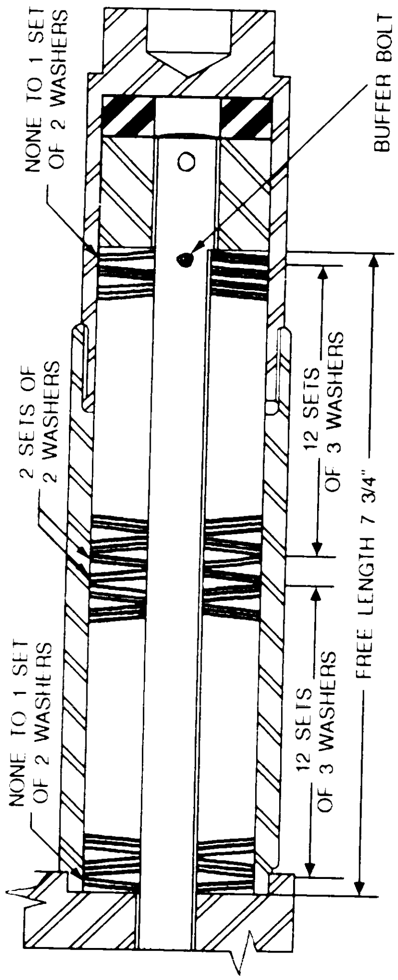


Figure 12-64.-Buffer bolt.

small plungers. A weighted piston rests on these plungers. Ajar of the hammer while in operation forces the piston and plunger down and thus drives a small amount of oil past the ball check valves and into the feed lines. Two of the feed lines have terminal checks that hold back the high pressure of the combustion chamber. A small pipe plug is provided at each terminal to observe the flow of oil.

NOTE: Fill the oil reservoir with **high temperature,** high detergent No. 30 to No. 40 viscosity diesel engine lubricating oil with a flash point of 425° to 450°.

CYLINDER.— The cylinder is a stress-relieved weldment made from steel tubing and plate with a bore specifically chrome-plated to prevent seizing, galling, and rapid wear. The shape of the shell forms a fuel and oil tank as well as protection for the fuel and oil pumps, lines, and trip mechanism. Cover plates, front and back provide easy access to the components. For safety in transporting and rigging the hammer, the ram piston is locked in place by a travel plug found midway on the front of the hammer. This plug should be removed when the hammer is rigged and ready for operation and should

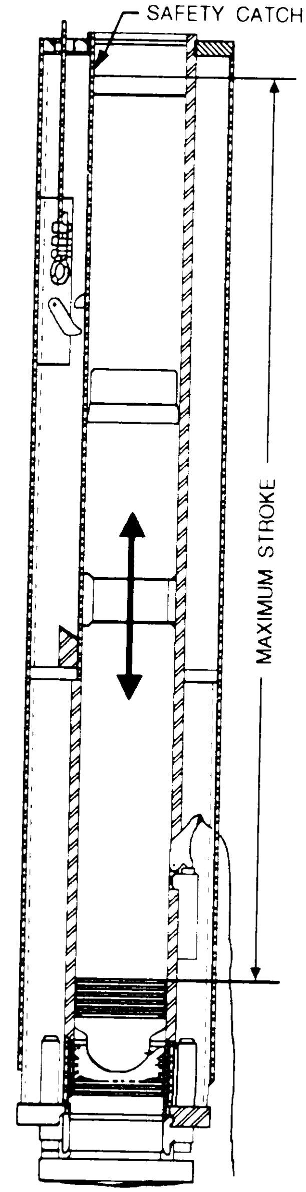


Figure 12-65.-Maximum ram-piston overstroke.

be replaced when the hammer is removed from the leads or is laid horizontal. The ram piston is a chrome-steel forging that has eight compression rings.

BASE ASSEMBLY.— The anvil block in the base assembly group is held in place by buffer bolts and has compression rings identical to those on the ram piston (fig. 12-64). Radial thrust or side thrust to the hammer is transmitted to the leads through the thrust bearing. A vibration damper, concealed under a shroud, isolates the cylinder from the shock vibration of the anvil. Buffer bumpers absorb the recoil from the Belleville washer type of buffer springs connected to the anvil by buffer bolts, dampening overtravel and holding the hammer together. Pins lock the buffer compression nuts to the buffer bolts and are held captive by the buffer housing caps. The buffer nut bumpers absorb the recoil of the Belleville springs.

RAM-PISTON OVERSTRIKE.— The length of free travel (maximum stroke) of the ram from the bottom of the stroke to the safety catch lip at the top is 109 inches (fig. 12-65). When the ram is recoiled high enough, the ram rings will engage the safety catch lip and prevent it from going out of the top. If the upward force of the ram is too great, the whole hammer will be lifted off the pile, possibly causing the rings to shear. To prevent this danger, watch the projection of the ram above the hammer and reset the throttle when necessary.

Pile-Driving Caps

A pile-driving cap is a block (usually a steel block) that rests on the butt or head of the pile and protects it against damage by receiving and transmitting the blows of the hammer or ram. In the steam, or pneumatic, hammer, the cap is a part of the hammer. The cap with a drop or diesel hammer is a separate casting with the lower part recessed to fit the head or butt of the pile and the upper part recessed to contain a hard cushion block that receives the blows of the hammer. The cap is fitted with a wire rope sling so that the cap, as well as the hammer, may be raised to the top of the leads when positioning a pile in the leads.

On the DE-10 hammer, you place one cushion block in the drive cap and lash the cap to the hammer front and back with two pieces of 1/2-inch wire rope and clips. You must allow 3 to 4 inches of slack in the wire rope. The cap is normally lashed to the hammer after the hammer is placed in the leads.

NOTE: The top of the cushion block should be kept high enough to prevent the hammer shroud from fouling on the rim of the drive cap pocket.

Pile-driving caps are available for driving timber, concrete, sheet, and H-beam piles. Figure 12-66 shows a pile cap designed for driving a H-beam pile.

Placing Hammer in Leads

Placing the pile-driving hammer in the leads is performed two ways: while the leads are horizontal or vertical. Leads are not always used in pile-driving operations. Pile hammers can be used as a flying hammer, using special adapter caps attached to the hammer (fig. 12-67). This is far the most dangerous of all types of pile-driving operations and should be attempted only by experienced personnel.

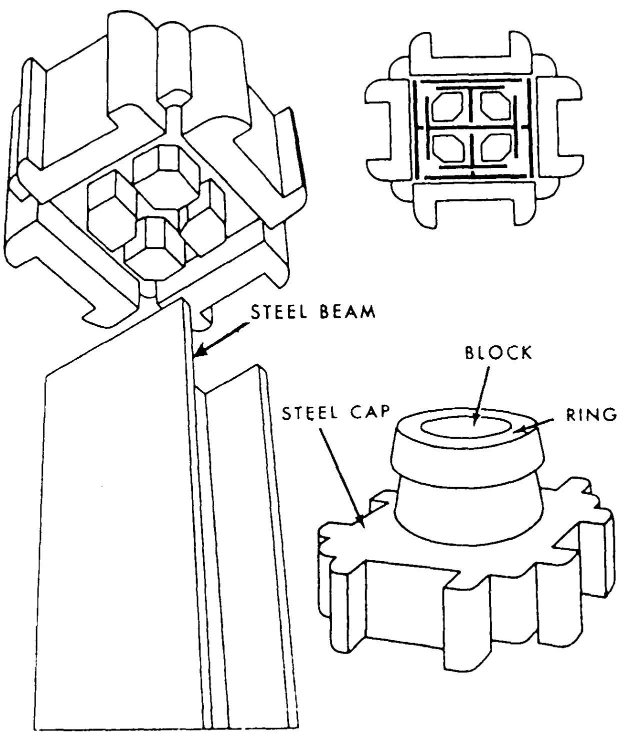


Figure 12-66.-H-beam pile-driving cap.

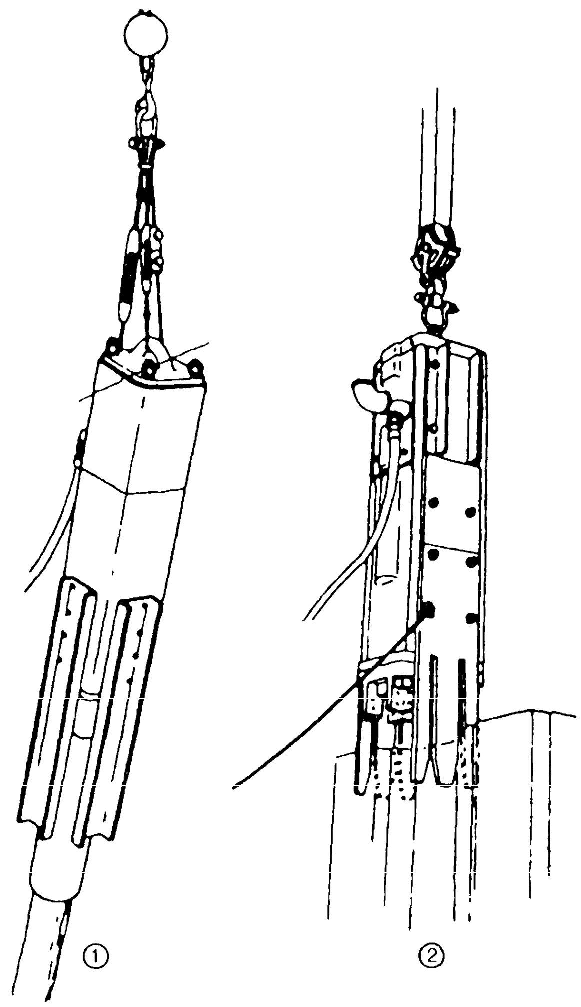


Figure 12-67.—Pile driving using a flying hammer.

The steps required to install the hammer in the leads in the horizontal position are as follows:

1. Block the leads about 18 inches off the ground in several places, keeping them as level as possible.

2. Using a forklift, place the hammer at the base of the leads with the top of the hammer towards the top of the leads.

NOTE: On underhung leads, the fuel pump faces upward. On extended four-way leads, the fuel pump faces downward.

3. Have the forklift approach the hammer from the pile cap end.

4. Adjust the forks so they will just fit the lead guides on the hammer.

5. Pick the hammer up in this manner and guide the top end into the leads as far as it will go without hitting the forks.

6. Block up the hammer that protrudes and reposition the forklift to push the remainder of the hammer into the leads.

NOTE: The crane line may assist in pulling the hammer into the leads.

7. Secure the hammer to the bottom of the leads. This will keep the strain off of the leads, as they are raised to the vertical position by the crane boom.

Installing the hammer in the leads in the vertical position is as follows:

1. Raise the boom and leads from horizontal to vertical and install the catwalk. Continue to raise the boom as high as practical and safety permits.

2. Hoist the hammer to a vertical position and position it under the leads. It takes a combination of lowering the boom and hoisting the hammer to slide the hammer onto the lead guides.

If this does not allow enough clearance to install the hammer vertically, use the following:

1. Use a deep ditch or loading ramp for additional clearance for the hammer.

2, Set the hammer in an excavated hole to clear the bottom of the leads.

3. The hammer can be partially submerged in water to gain additional clearance.

PILE-DRIVING TECHNIQUES AND TERMINOLOGY

Care must be taken during pile driving to avoid damaging the pile, the hammer, or both. The pile driver must be securely anchored to avoid a shift of position. If the hammer shifts while driving, the blow of the hammer will be out of line with the axis of the pile and both the pile and hammer may be damaged.

Carefully watch the piles for any indication of a split or brake below the ground. If driving suddenly becomes easier or if the pile suddenly changes direction, a break or split has probably occurred. When this happens, the pile must be pulled.

Springing and Bouncing

"Springing" means that the pile vibrates too much laterally from the blow of the hammer. Springing may occur when a pile is crooked, when the butt has not been squared off properly, or when the pile is not in line with the fall of the hammer. In all pile-driving operations, ensure the fall of the hammer is in line with the pile axis; otherwise, the head of the pile and the hammer may be damaged and much of the energy of the hammer blow is lost.

Excessive bouncing may come from a hammer which is too light. However, it usually occurs when the butt of the pile has been crushed or broomed, when the pile has met an obstruction, or when the pile has penetrated to a solid footing. When a double-acting hammer is being used, bouncing may result from too much steam or air pressure. With a diesel hammer, if the hammer lifts on the upstroke of the ram piston, the throttle setting is probably too high. Back off on the throttle control just enough to avoid this lifting. If the butt of the timber pile has been crushed or broomed more than an inch or so, it should be cut back to sound wood before driving operations continue.

Driving Bearing Piles in Groups

Bearing piles are frequently driven in groups, as in a pile group which will support a column footing for a building or in closely spaced rows, as beneath a wall. When piles must be driven in closely spaced groups, these principles are observed:

1. When a pile is driven into sand or gravel deposits, the soil must be compacted or displaced an amount equal to the volume of the pile. If the deposit is quite loose, the vibration of pile driving frequently results in considerable compaction of the soil. The

surface of the ground between and around the piles then may subside or shrink. This action may result in damage to the foundation of nearby structures. If piles are driven into dense sand and gravel deposits, the ground may heave.

2. Clay soils are hard to compress in pile driving; hence, a volume of soil equal to that of the pile will usually be displaced (fig. 12-68). The ground will heave between and around the piles. Driving a pile alongside those previously driven will frequently cause those already in place to heave upward. If the piles are driven through a clay stratum to firm bearing beneath, the heave may destroy the contact between the tip of the pile and the firm stratum. Such cases maybe detected by taking a level reading on the top of the piles previously placed. Piles which are raised appreciably should be redriven to a firm bearing. Soil displaced by the pile may cause enough lateral force to move previously driven piles out of line.

3. The sequence of driving piles in groups should be as follows:

- Driving should progress from an area of high resistance to one of low resistance, toward a stream, or downslope to reduce the shoving of previous driven piles that are out of place when succeeding piles arc driven.

- Outer rows in the group should be driven first if the piles derive their main support from friction. Inner rows are driven first if the piles are supported from a point bearing.

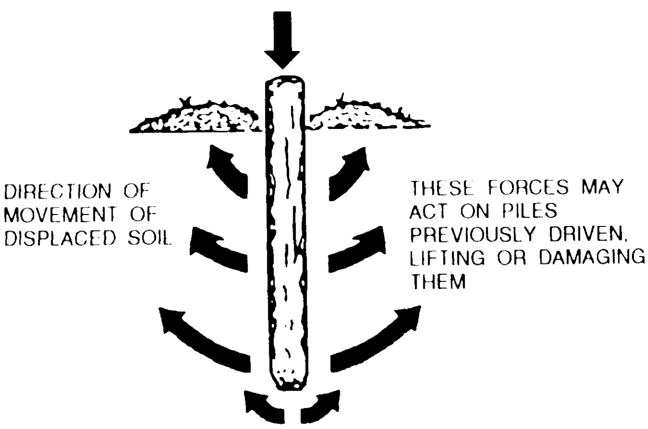


Figure 12-68.-Displacement of clay soil caused by driving solid piles.

Obstruction and Refusal

The condition reached when a pile being driven by a hammer has a 1-inch penetration per blow or zero penetration per blow (as when the point of the pile reaches an impenetrable bottom such as rock) or when the effective energy of the hammer is no longer sufficient to cause penetration (hammer is to light or velocity at impact too little), under which circumstances the pile may cease to penetrate before it has reached the desired depth is known as refusal. Further driving after refusal is likely to break or split the pile, as shown in figure 12-69.

When a pile has been driven to a depth where deeper penetration is prevented by friction, the pile has been driven to refusal. A pile supported by skin friction alone is called a **friction pile.** A pile supported by bedrock or

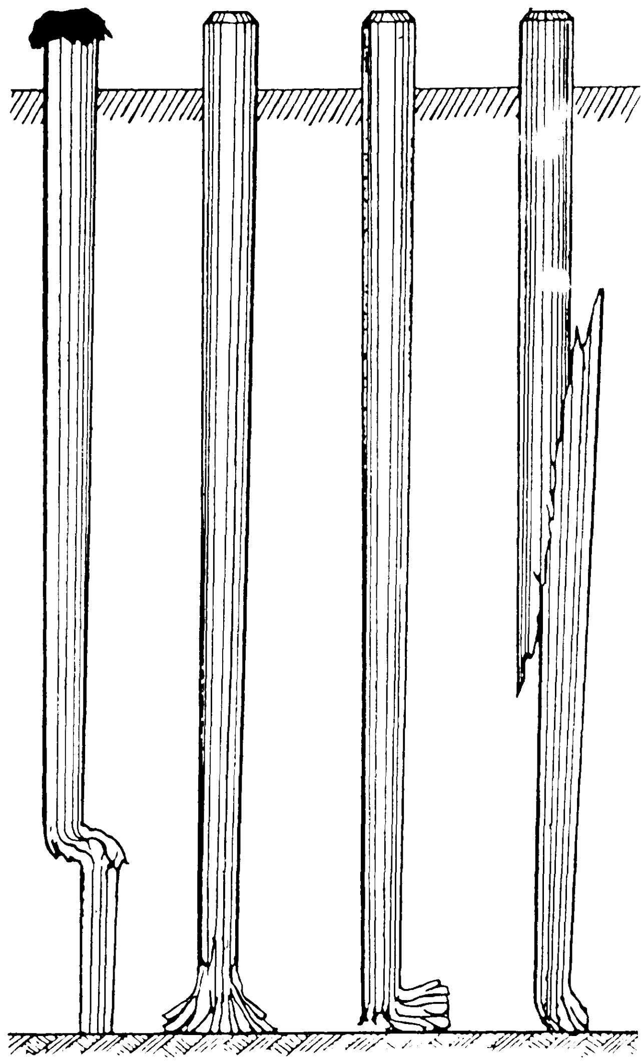


Figure 12-69.—Pile damage caused by overdriving timber piles.

an extra dense layer of soil at the tip is called an **end-bearing pile.** A pile supported partly by skin friction and partly by a substratum of extra dense soil at the tip is called a **combination end-bearing and friction pile.**

It is not always necessary to drive a friction pile to refusal; such a pile needs to be driven only to the depth where friction develops the required load-bearing capacity.

Straightening and Aligning Piles

Piles should be straightened when any misalignment is noticed during pile driving. The accuracy of alignment that should be sought for the finished job depends on various factors, but if a pile is more than a few inches out of its plumb line, an effort should be made to true it up. The greater the penetration along the wrong alignment, the harder it is to get the pile back to plumb.

One method of alignment is to use pull from a block and tackle (fig. 12-70) with the impact of the hammer jarring the pile back into line. The straightening of steel bearing piles must include twisting of the individual piles to bring the webs of the piles parallel to the center line of the bent.

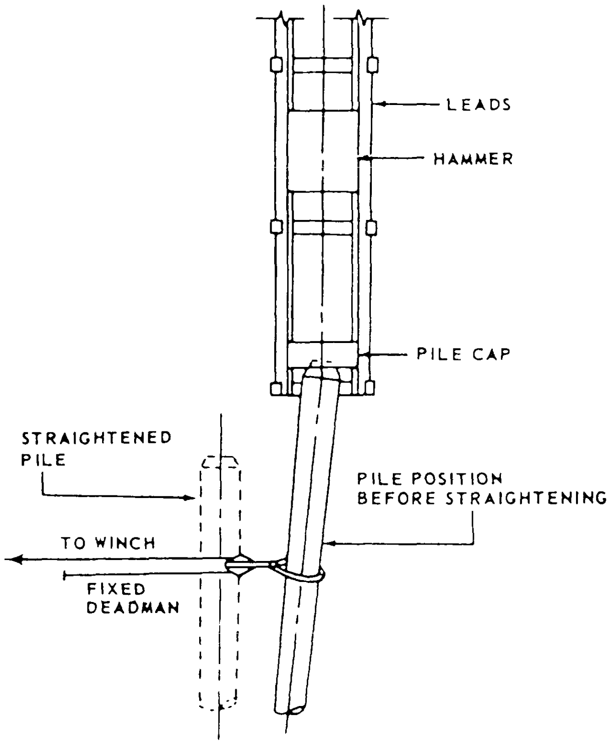


Figure 12-70.-Realigning pile using block and tackle.

Another method of alignment is to use a jet (fig. 12-71), either alone or jointly, with the block-and-tackle method

When all piles in a bent have been driven, they may be pulled into proper spacing and alignment with block and tackle and an aligning frame, as shown in figures 12-72 and 12-73.

Pulling Files

A pile that has met an obstruction, that has been driven in the wrong place, that has split or broken in

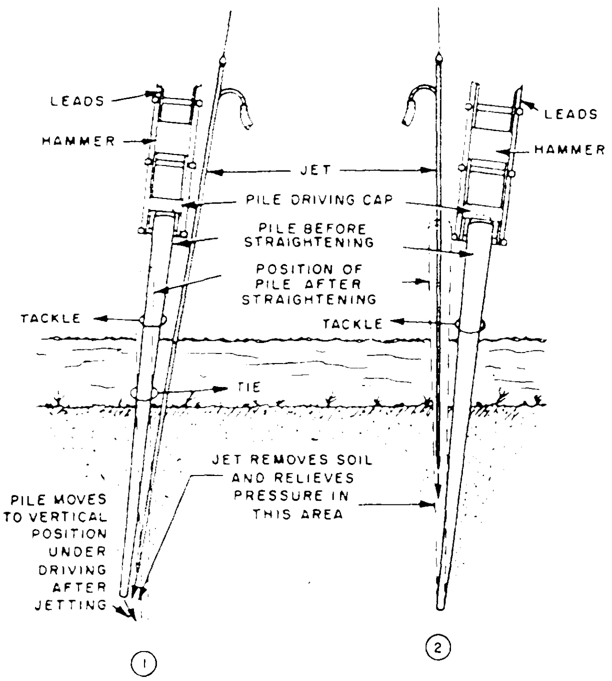


Figure 12-71.—Realigning pile by jetting.

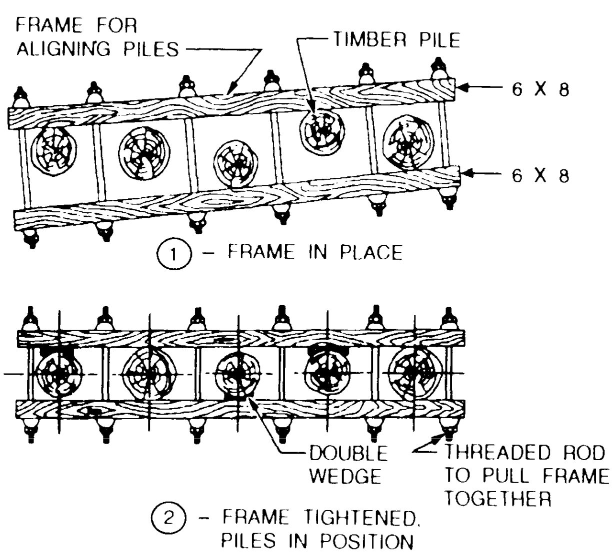


Figure 12-72.—Aligning frame used for timber pile bent.

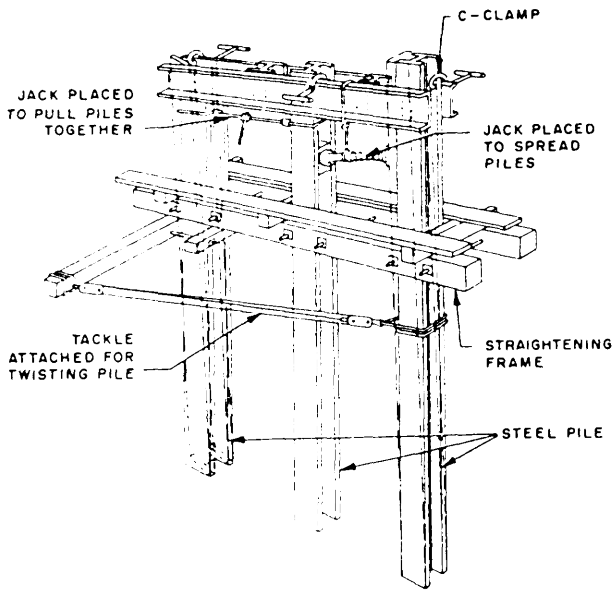


Figure 12-73.—Aligning and capping steel pile bents.

driving, or that is to be salvaged (steel sheet piles are frequently salvaged for reuse) is usually **extracted** (pulled). Pulling should be done as soon as possible after driving; the longer the pile stays in the soil, the more compact the soil becomes, and the greater the resistance to pulling will be. Methods of pulling piles are as follows:

1. In a **direct lift** method, a crane palls the pile. The crane hoist line is rigged to the pile through the use of wire rope rigging, and an increase in pull is gradually applied to the pile. Lateral blows from a **skull cracker** (heavy steel ball swung on a crane line to demolish walls) or a few light blows on the butt or head with the pile-driving hammer are given to break the skin friction, and the crane pull is then increased. If the pile still refuses to extract, it may be loosened by jetting, air extractors, or beam pullers.

2. The 5,000-pound pneumatic, or steam, hammer may be used in an inverted position to pull piles. The hammer is turned over and the wire rope rigging is attached to it and the pile is extracted. A pneumatic extractor may also be used. The crane line, holding the hammer or extractor, is hoisted taut; and the upward blows of the hammer ram on the sling, plus the pull of the crane hoist, are usually enough to pull the pile.

3. Tidal lift is often used to pull piles driven in tidewater. Rigging, wrapped around the piles, is attached to barges or pontoons at low tide; the rising tide pulls the piles as it lifts the barges or pontoons.

Types of Piles

The principal use of piles is for the support of bridges, buildings, wharves, docks and other structures, and in temporary construction. A pile transfers the load into an underlying bearing stratum by either of the following:

1. Friction along the embedded length of the pile

2. Point bearing plus any bearing from the taper of the pile

A pile maybe classified roughly as **friction** or **end bearing,** according to the manner in which they develop support. The load must be carried ultimately by the soil layers around and below the points of the piles, and accurate knowledge of the compressibility of these soil layers is of utmost importance.

Some of the common terms used with piles are as follows:

1. Piles. A pile is a load-bearing member made of timber, steel, concrete, or a combination of these materials, usually forced into the ground to transfer the load to underlying soil or rock layers when the surface soils at a proposed site are too weak or compressible to provide enough support.

2. Pile foundation. A pile foundation is a group of piles that supports a superstructure or a number of piles distributed over a large area to support a mat foundation.

3. Bearing piles. Piles that are driven vertically and used for the direct support of vertical loads are called bearing piles. Bearing piles transfer the load through a soft soil to an underlying firm stratum. They also distribute the load through relatively soft soils that are not capable of supporting concentrated loads.

4. End-bearing piles. Typical end-bearing piles are driven through very soft soil, such as a loose silt-bearing stratum underlain by compressible strata. Remember this factor when determining the load the piles can support safely.

5. Friction piles. When a pile is driven into soil of fairly uniform consistency and the tip is not seated in a hard layer, the load-carrying capacity of the pile is developed by skin friction. The load is transferred to the adjoining soil by friction between the pile and the surrounding soil. The load is transferred downward and laterally to the soil.

6. Combination end-bearing and friction piles. Many piles carry loads by a combination of friction and end bearing. For example, a pile may pass through a

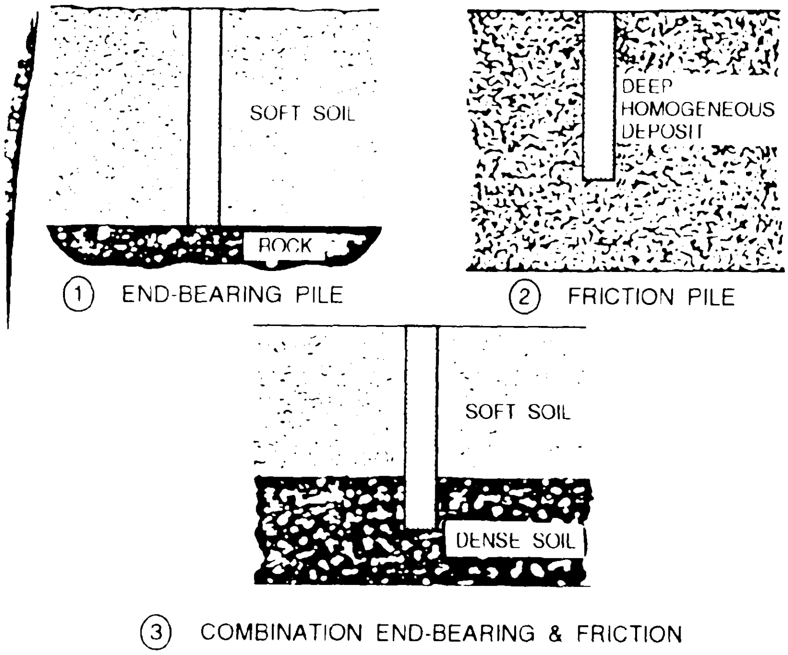


Figure 12-74.—Types of bearing piles.

fairly soft soil that provides frictional resistance and then into a form layer which develops a load-carrying capacity by both end bearing and friction over a rather short length of embedment (fig. 12-74).

7. Batter piles. Piles driven at an angle with the vertical are called batter piles. They resist lateral or incline loads when such loads are huge or when the foundation material immediately beneath the structure fails to resist the lateral movement of vertical piles. They also may be used if piles are driven into a compressible soil to spread vertical loads over a large area thereby reducing final settlement. They may be used alone (battered in opposite directions) or with vertical piles.

8. Anchor piles. An anchor pile may be used to anchor bulkheads, retaining walls, and guy wires. They resist tension or uplift loads (fig. 12-75).

9. Dolphin piles. As shown in figure 12-75, dolphin piles are a group of piles driven close together in water and tied together so that the group will withstand lateral forces, such as boats and other floating objects.

10. Fender piles. As shown in figure 12-75, fender piles are driven in front of a structure to protect it from damage.

11. Foot of pile. As shown in figure 12-75, the foot of a pile is the lower end of a driven pile, which is the smaller end.

12. Guide piles. Piles used as a guide for driving other piles or serving as a support as a wale for sheetpiling.

13. Pile bent. Two or more piles driven in a row transverse to the long dimension of the structure and are fastened together by capping and (sometimes) bracing.

14. Pile foundation. A group of piles used to support a column or pier, a row of piles under a wall, or a number of piles distributed over a large area to support a mat foundation.

15. Pile group. A number of bearing piles driven close together to form a pile foundation.

16. Test piles. A pile driven to determine driving conditions and probable required lengths; one on which a loading test may also be made to find its load settlement properties and the carrying capacity of the soil and as a guide in designing pile foundations.

17. Timber piles. Common timber piles are usually straight tree trunks cut off aboveground swell, trimmed of branches, and the bark removed. A good timber pile has the following characteristics:

- It is free of sharp bends, large or loose knots, splits or decay.
- It has a straight line between centers of the butt and tip and lies within the body of the pile.
- It has a uniform taper from butt to tip.

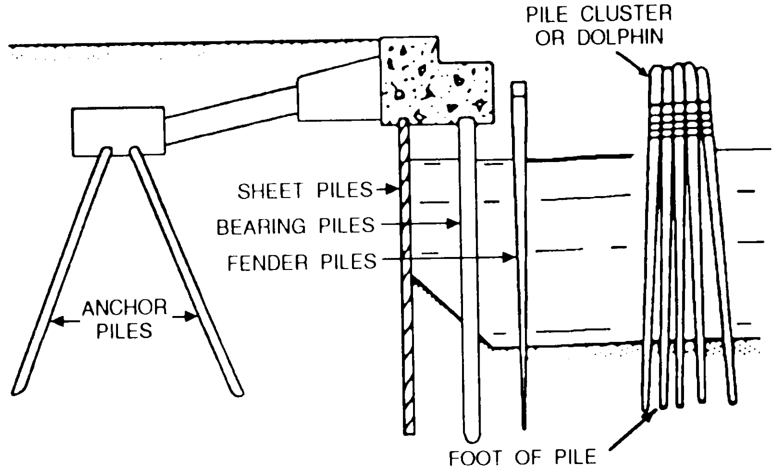


Figure 12-75.—Typical uses of piles driven in a waterfront structure.

18. Treated timber pile. A timber pile impregnated with a preservative material that retards or prevents deterioration due to organisms.

WARNING

When you are working with treated piles, protective clothing, such as long sleeves, gloves, and safety goggles, must be worn. The preservative used in treated piles can irritate the eyes and skin.

19. Concrete piles. Two types of concrete piles are precast and cast-in-place. Factors contributing to their use are the availability of the materials from which concrete is made.

- Precast concrete piles are steel reinforced sections that are square or octagonal in shape except near the tip. They vary in length up to 50 or 60 feet. Because of their great weight, greater lengths are generally not feasible. They require time for setting and curing and storage space. Precast concrete piles are frequently driven with the aid of water jetting (fig. 12-76). Water is forced through and out the pile tip through jetting pipes constructed into the piles while the pile is driven.

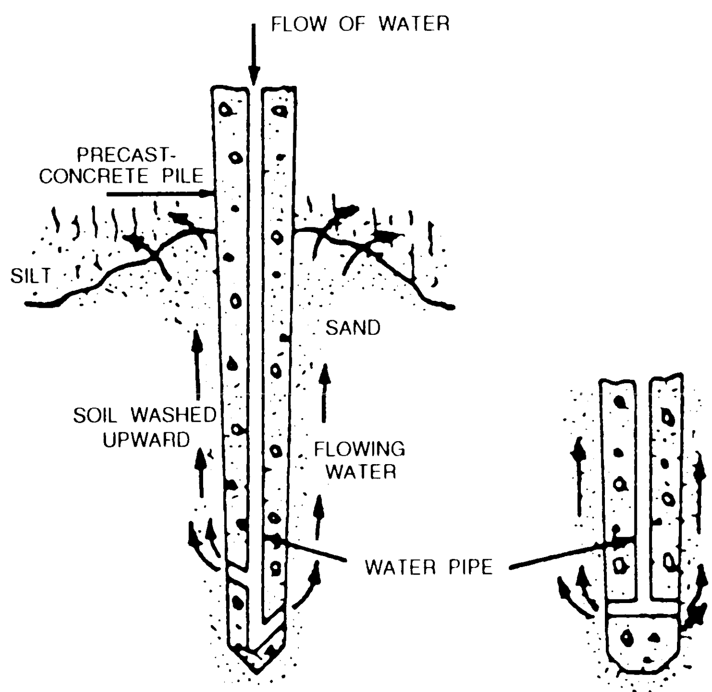


Figure 12-76.—Water jetting precast concrete pile.

● Cast-in-place concrete piles may be used when conditions are favorable. They are made by pouring concrete into a tapered hole or cylindrical form previously driven into the ground or into a hole in the ground from which a driven mandrel has been withdrawn. The left-in-place form may be a steel shell heavy enough to be driven without a mandrel, or it may be a steel form designed for driving with a mandrel that is removed on completion of driving (fig. 12-77).

20. Composite piles. Composite piles are formed of one material in the lower section and another material in the upper section (fig. 12-78). A composite pile that is constructed of wood and concrete is used to support loads of 20 to 30 tons. A composite pile that is constructed of steel and concrete is used to support loads up to 50 tons. As shown in figure 12-78, the first section of wood or steel is driven first, then a mandrel and steel casing are driven on top of the first section. The mandrel is removed and the casing is filled with concrete.

21. Sheet piles. Sheet piles are special shapes of interlocking piles that are made of steel, wood, or formed concrete which are used to forma continuous wall to resist horizontal pressures, resulting from earth or water loads.

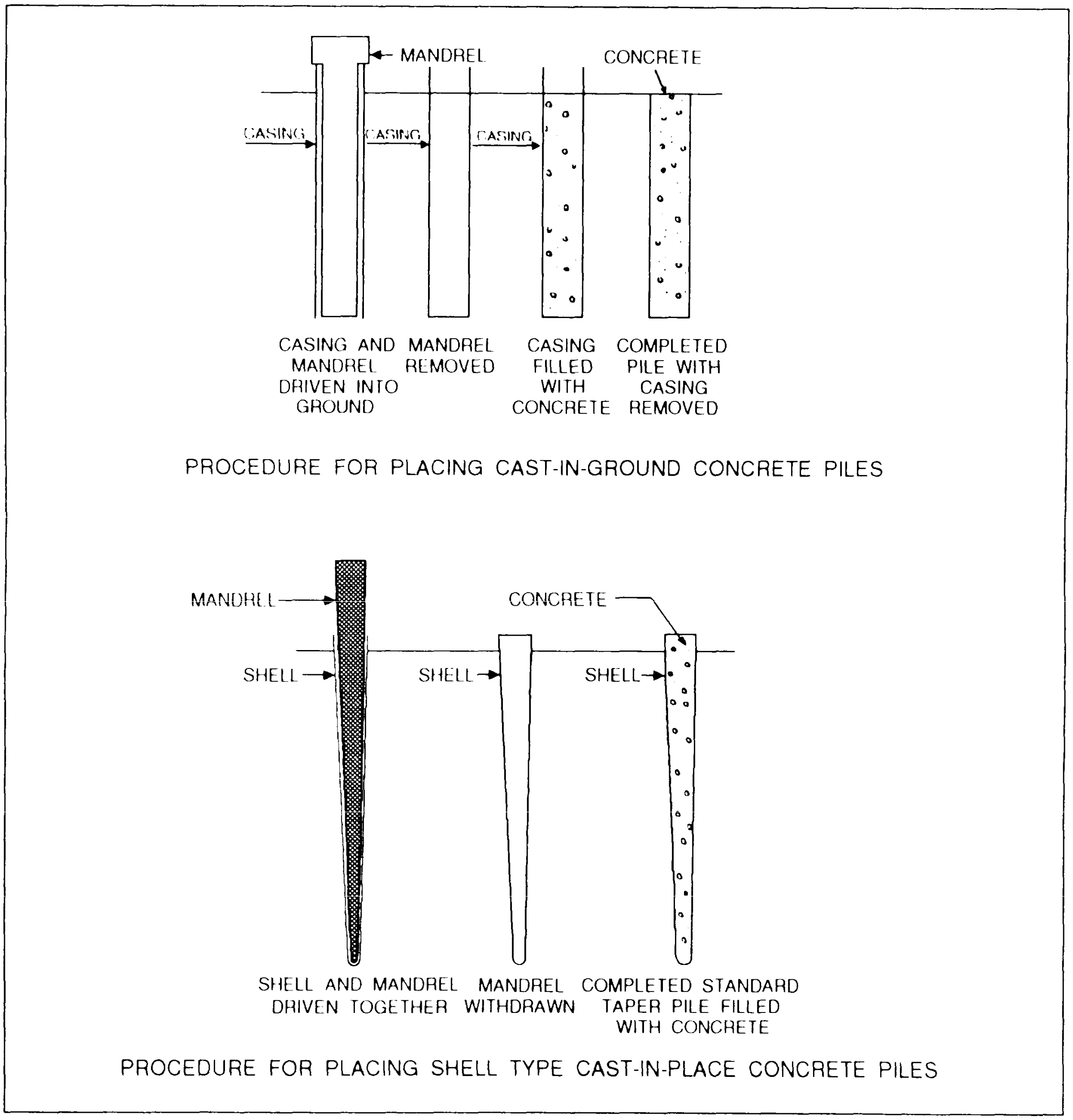


Figure 12-77.—Cast-in-place concrete piles.

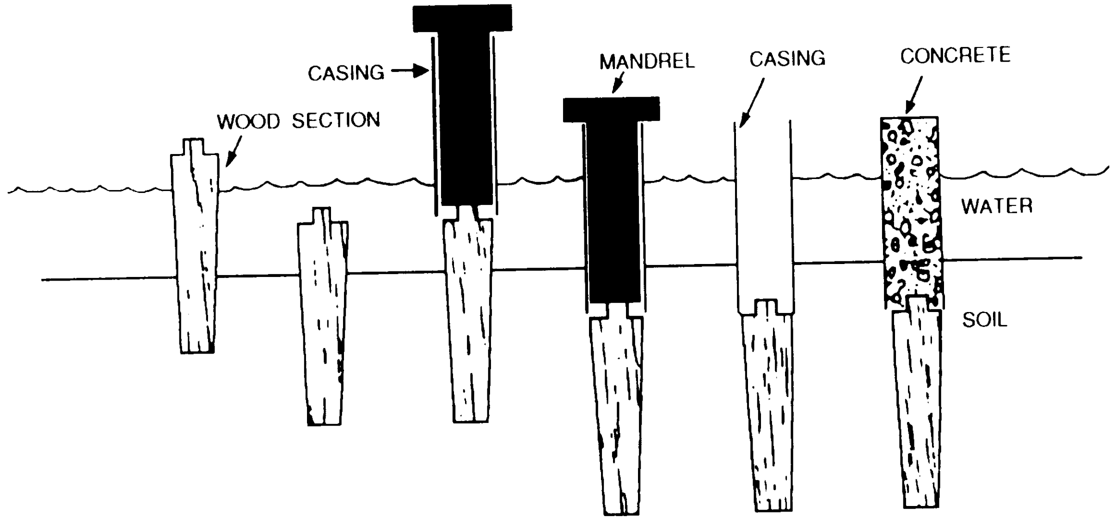


Figure 12-78.-Composite piles.

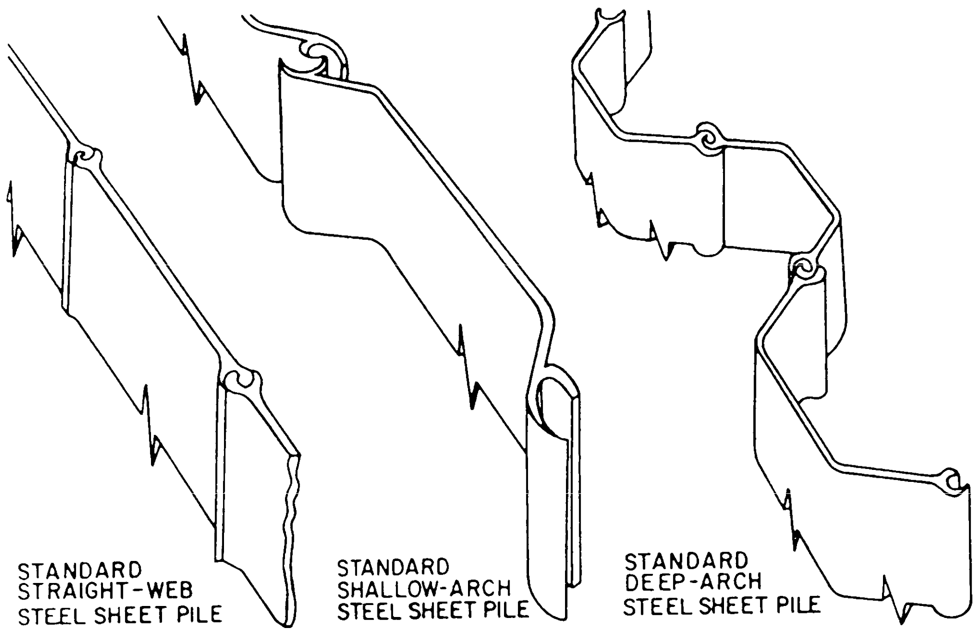


Figure 12-79.—Types of steel sheetpiling.

The most common types of sheet piles are straight-web, shallow-arch, and deep-arch (fig. 12-79).

The straight-web section is designed for maximum flexibility and tensile strength, particularly adapted to cellular cofferdam and retaining wall construction. The shallow-arch and deep-arch sections are multipurpose sections having some resistance to bending.

RIGGING

Rigging is a technique of handling materials using wire rope, fiber rope, chains, slings, spreader bars, and so forth. Rigging is a vital link in the weight-handling process.

In the Naval Construction Force (NCF), an in-depth management program for maintenance and use of all rigging gear is required to ensure the entire weight-handling operations are performed safely and professionally. These guidelines are outlined in the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11, *Use of Wire Rope Slings and Rigging Hardware in the Naval Construction Force.*

This chapter covers the characteristics, maintenance, usage, and storage of rigging gear used in weight-handling operations.

WIRE ROPE

Many of the movable components on cranes and attachments are moved by wire rope. Wire rope is a complex machine, composed of a number of precise, moving parts. The moving parts of wire rope are designed and manufactured to bear a definite relationship to one another to have the necessary flexibility during operation.

Wire rope may be manufactured by either of two methods. If the strands, or wires, are shaped to conform to the curvature of the finished rope before laying up, the rope is termed **preformed wire rope.** If they are not shaped before fabrication, the wire rope is termed **non-preformed wire rope.**

The most common type of manufactured wire rope is preformed. When cut, the wire rope tends not to unlay and is more flexible than non-preformed wire rope. With non-preformed wire rope, twisting produces a stress in the wires; therefore, when it is cut or broken, the stress causes the strands to unlay.

NOTE: When the wire is cut or broken, the almost instantaneous unlaying of the wires and strands of non-preformed wire rope can cause serious injury to someone that is careless or not familiar with this characteristic of the rope.

PARTS OF WIRE ROPE

Wire rope is composed of three parts: **wires, strands,** and **core** (fig. 13- 1). A predetermined number of wires of the same or different size are fabricated in a uniform arrangement of definite lay to form a strand. The required number of strands are then laid together symmetrically around the core to form the wire rope.

Wire

The basic component of the wire rope is the wire. The wire may be made of steel, iron, or other metal in various sizes. The number of wires to a strand varies, depending on the purpose for which the wire rope is intended. Wire rope is designated by the number of strands per rope and the number of wires per strand. Thus an 1/2-inch 6 x 19 rope has six strands with 19 wires per strand. It has the same outside diameter as a 1/2-inch 6 x 37 rope that has six strands with 37 wires (of smaller size) per strand.

Strand

The design arrangement of a strand is called the construction. The wires in the strand maybe all the same size or a mixture of sizes. The most common strand

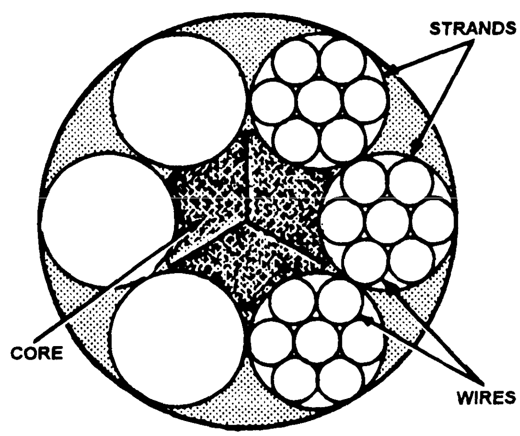


Figure 13-1.—Parts of wire rope.

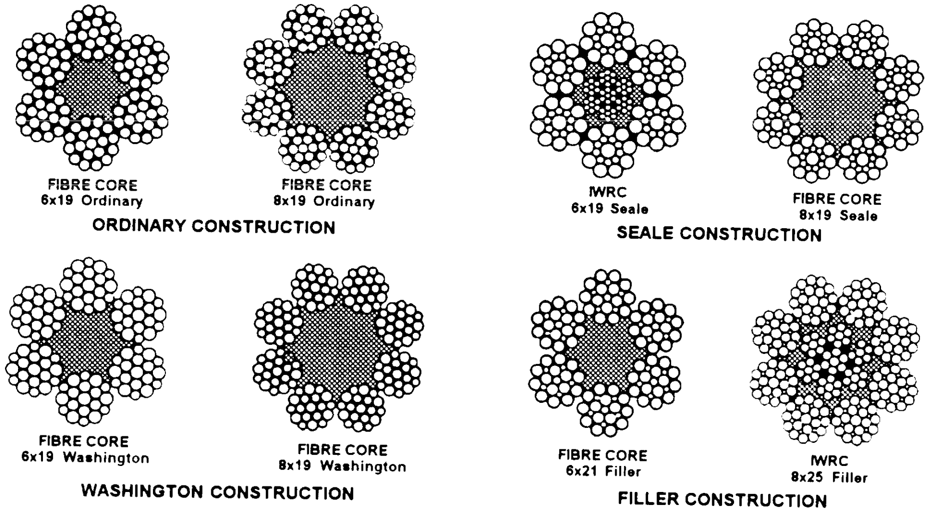


Figure 13-2.—Common strand construction.

constructions are Ordinary, Seale, Warrington, and Filler (fig. 13-2).

- **Ordinary** construction wires are all the same size.
- **Seale** is where larger diameter wires are used on the outside of the strand to resist abrasion and smaller wires are inside to provide flexibility.
- **Warrington** is where alternate wires are large and small to combine great flexibility with resistance to abrasion.
- **Filler** is where very small wires fill in the valleys between the outer and inner rows of wires to provide good abrasion and fatigue resistance.

Core

The wire rope core supports the strands laid around it. The three types of wire rope cores arc fiber, wire strand, and independent wire rope (fig. 13-3).

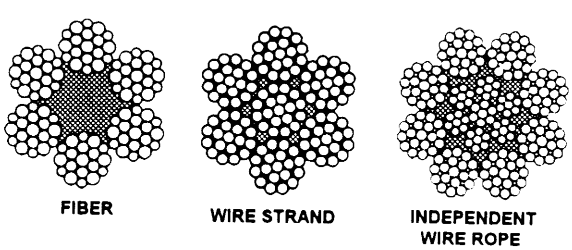


Figure 13-3.—Core construction.

- A **fiber core** may be a hard fiber, such as manila, hemp, plastic, paper, or sisal. The fiber core offers the advantage of increased flexibility. It also serves as a cushion to reduce the effects of sudden strain and acts as an oil reservoir to lubricate the wire and strands (to reduce friction). Wire rope with a fiber core is used when flexibility of (he rope is important.
- A **wire strand core** resists more heat than a fiber core and also adds about 15 percent to the strength of the rope; however, the wire strand core makes the wire rope less flexible than a fiber core.
- An **independent wire rope core** is a separate wire rope over which the main strands of the rope are laid. This core strengthens the rope, provides support against crushing, and supplies maximum resistance to heat.

GRADES OF WIRE ROPE

The three primary grades of wire rope are mild plow steel, plow steel, and improved plow steel.

Mild Plow Steel Wire Rope

Mild plow steel wire rope is tough and pliable. It can stand repeated strain and stress and has a tensile strength (resistance to lengthwise stress) of from 200,000 to 220,000 pounds per square inch (psi). These characteristics make it desirable for cable tool drilling and other purposes where abrasion is encountered.

Plow Steel Wire Rope

Plow steel wire rope is unusually tough and strong. This steel has a tensile strength of 220,000 to 240,000 psi. Plow steel wire rope is suitable for hauling, hoisting, and logging.

Improved Plow Steel Wire Rope

Improved plow steel wire rope is one of the best grades of rope available and is the most common rope used in the NCF. This type of rope is stronger, tougher, and more resistant to wear than either mild plow steel or plow steel. Each square inch of improved plow steel can stand a strain of 240,000 to 260,000 pounds. This makes it especially useful for heavy-duty service, such as on cranes with excavating and weight-handling attachments.

LAYS OF WIRE ROPE

The term **lay** refers to the direction of the twist of the wires in a strand and to the direction that the strands are laid in the rope. In some instances, both the wires in the strand and the strands in the rope are laid in the same direction; and in other instances, the wires are laid in one direction and the strands are laid in the opposite direction, depending on the intended use of the rope. Most manufacturers specify the types and lays of wire rope to be used on their piece of equipment. Be sure and consult the operator's manual for proper application.

Five different lays of wire rope are shown in figure 13-4.

The five types of lays used in wire rope are as follows:

- **Right Regular Lay:** In right regular lay rope, the wires in the strands are laid to the left, while the strands are laid to the right to form the wire rope.

- **Left Regular Lay:** In left regular lay rope, the wires in the strands are laid to the right, while the strands are laid to the left to form the wire rope. In this lay, each step of fabrication is exactly opposite from the right regular lay.

- **Right Lang Lay:** In right lang lay rope, the wires in the strands and the strands in the rope are laid in the same direction; in this instance, the lay is to the right.

- **Left Lang Lay:** In left lang lay rope, the wires in the strands and the strands in the rope are also laid in the same direction; in this instance, the lay is to the left (rather than to the right as in the right lang lay).

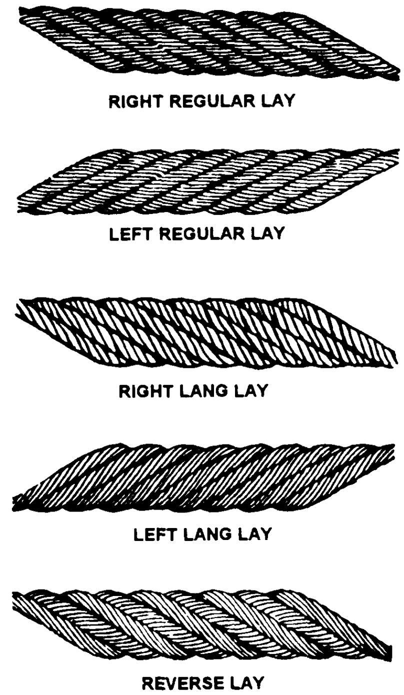


Figure 13-4.—Lays of wire rope.

- **Reverse Lay:** In reverse lay rope, the wires in one strand are laid to the right, the wires in the nearby strand are laid to the left, the wires in the next strand are to the right, and so forth, with alternate directions from one strand to the other. Then all strands are laid to the right.

LAY LENGTH OF WIRE ROPE

The length of a rope lay is the distance measured parallel to the center line of a wire rope in which a strand makes one complete spiral or turn around the rope. The length of a strand lay is the distance measured parallel to the center line of the strand in which one wire makes one complete spiral or turnaround the strand. Lay length measurement is shown in figure 13-5.

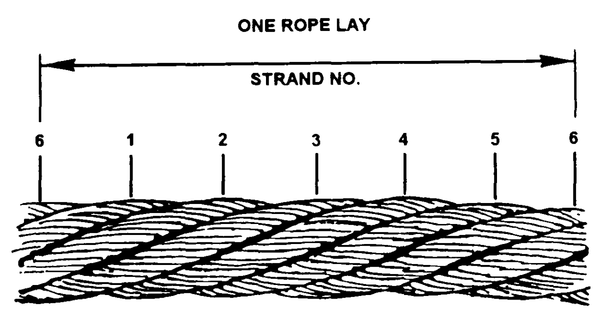


Figure 13-5.—Lay length of wire rope.

CHARACTERISTICS OF WIRE ROPE

The main types of wire rope used by the NCF consist of 6, 7, 12, 19, 24, or 37 wires in each strand. Usually, the wire rope has six strands laid around the core.

The two most common types of wire rope, 6 X 19 and 6 x 37, are shown in figure 13-6. The 6 x 19 type (having six strands with 19 wires in each strand) is the stiffest and strongest construction of the types of wire rope suitable for general hoisting operations. The 6 x 37 wire rope (six strands with 37 wires in each strand) is very flexible, making it suitable for cranes and similar equipment where sheaves are smaller than usual. The wires in the 6 x 37 are smaller than the wires in the 6 x 19 wire rope and, consequently, will not stand as much abrasive wear.

Several factors must be considered whenever a wire rope is selected for use in a particular kind of operation. The manufacture of a wire rope which can withstand equally well all kinds of wear and stress, it may be subjected to, is not possible, Because of this, selecting a rope is often a matter of compromise, sacrificing one quality to have some other more urgently needed characteristic.

Tensile Strength

Tensile strength is the strength necessary to withstand a certain maximum load applied to the rope. It includes a reserve of strength measured in a so-called factor of safety.

Crushing Strength

Crushing strength is the strength necessary to resist the compressive and squeezing forces that distort the cross section of a wire rope, as it runs over sheaves, rollers, and hoist drums when under a heavy load. Regular lay rope distorts less in these situations than lang lay.

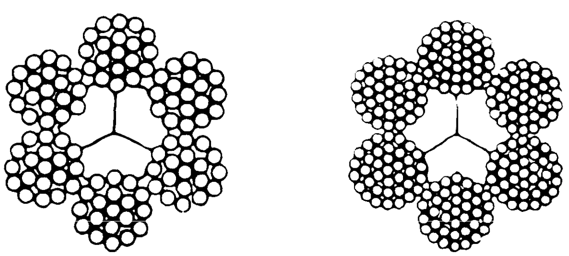


Figure 13-6.-A. 6 x 19 wire rope; B. 6 x 37 wire rope.

Fatigue Resistance

Fatigue resistance is the ability to withstand the constant bending and flexing of wire rope that runs continuously on sheaves and hoist drums. Fatigue resistance is important when the wire rope must run at high speeds. Such constant and rapid bending of the rope can break individual wires in the strands. Lang lay ropes are best for service requiring high fatigue resistance. Ropes with smaller wires around the outside of their strands also have greater fatigue resistance, since these strands are more flexible.

Abrasion Resistance

Abrasion resistance is the ability to withstand the gradual wearing away of the outer metal, as the rope runs across sheaves and hoist drums. The rate of abrasion depends mainly on the load carried by the rope and its running speed. Generally, abrasion resistance in a rope depends on the type of metal of which the rope is made and the size of the individual outer wires. Wire rope made of the harder steels, such as improved plow steel, have considerable resistance to abrasion. Ropes that have larger wires forming the outside of their strands are more resistant to wear than ropes having smaller wires which wear away more quickly.

Corrosion Resistance

Corrosion resistance is the ability to withstand the dissolution of the wire metal that results from chemical attack by moisture in the atmosphere or elsewhere in the working environment. Ropes that are put to static work, such as guy wires, may be protected from corrosive elements by paint or other special dressings. Wire rope may also be galvanized for corrosion protection. Most wire ropes used in crane operations must rely on their lubricating dressing to double as a corrosion preventive.

MEASURING WIRE ROPE

Wire rope is designated by its diameter in inches, as shown in figure 13-7. The correct method of measuring the wire rope is to measure from the top of one strand to the top of the strand directly opposite it. The wrong way is to measure across two strands side by side.

To ensure an accurate measurement of the diameter of a wire rope, always measure the rope at three places,

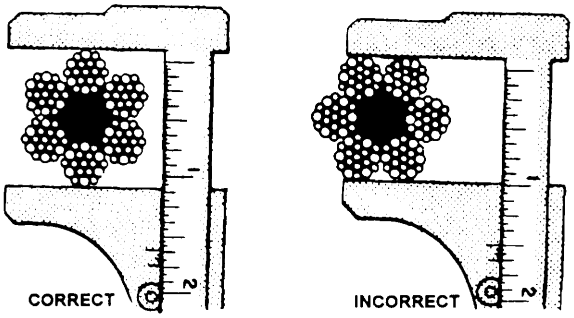


Figure 13-7.-Correct and incorrect methods of measuring wire rope.

at least 5 feet apart. Use the average of the three measurements as the diameter of the rope.

NOTE: A crescent wrench can be used as an expedient means to measure wire rope.

WIRE ROPE SAFE WORKING LOAD

The term *safe working load* (SWL) of wire rope means the load that can be applied and still obtain the most efficient service and also prolong the life of the rope.

The formula for computing the SWL of a wire rope is the diameter of the rope squared, multiplied by 8 (D x D x 8 = SWL in tons).

Example: The wire rope is 1/2 inch in diameter. Compute the SWL for the rope.

The first step is to convert the 1/2 into decimal number by dividing the bottom number of the fraction into the top number of the fraction: (1 divided by 2 = .5). Next, compute the SWL formula: (.5 x .5 x 8 = 2 tons). The SWL of the 1/2-inch wire rope is 2 tons.

NOTE: Do NOT downgrade the SWL of wire rope due to being old, worn, or in poor condition. Wire rope in these conditions should be cut up and discarded.

WIRE ROPE FAILURE

Some of the common causes of wire rope failure are the following:

- Using incorrect size, construction, or grade
- Dragging over obstacles
- Lubricating improperly
- Operating over sheaves and drums of inadequate size
- Overriding or crosr winding on drums
- Operating over sheaves and drums with improperly fitted grooves or broken flanges
- Jumping off sheaves
- Exposing to acid or corrosive liquids or gases
- Using an improperly attached fitting
- Allowing grit to penetrate between the strands, promoting internal wear
- Subjecting to severe or continuing overload
- Using an excessive fleet angle

HANDLING AND CARE OF WIRE ROPE

To render safe, dependable service over a maximum period of time, you should take good care and upkeep that is necessary to keep the wire rope in good condition. Various ways of caring for and handling wire rope are listed below.

Coiling and Uncoiling

Once a new reel has been opened, it maybe coiled or faked down, like line, The proper direction of coiling is **counterclockwise** for **left lay** wire rope and **clockwise** for **right lay** wire rope. Because of the general toughness and resilience of wire, it tends now and then to resist being coiled down. When this occurs, it is useless to fight the wire by forcing down the turn because it will only spring up again. But if it is thrown in a back turn, as shown in figure 13-8, it will lie down properly. A wire rope, when faked down, will run right

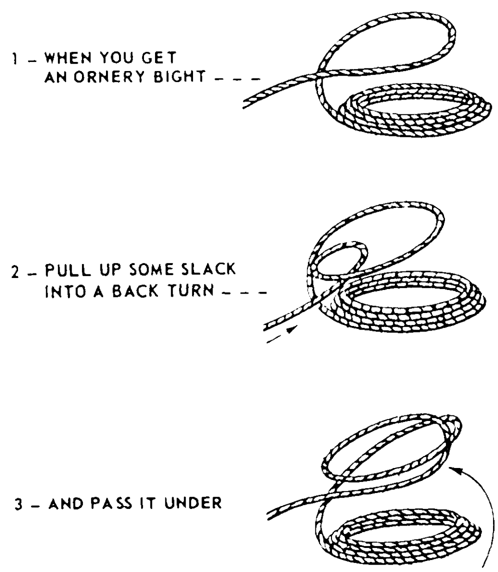


Figure 13-8.—Throwing a back turn.

off, like line; but when wound in a coil, it must always be unwound.

Wire rope tends to kink during uncoiling or unreeling, especially if it has been in service long. A kink can cause a weak spot in the rope that wears out quicker than the rest of the rope.

A good method for unreeling wire rope is to run a pipe, or rod, through the center and mount the reel on drum jacks or other supports so the reel is off the ground, as shown in figure 13-9. In this way, the reel will turn as the rope is unwound, and the rotation of the reel helps keep the rope straight. During unreeling, pull the rope straight forward, and avoid hurrying the operation. As a safeguard against kinking, NEVER unreel wire rope from a reel that is stationary.

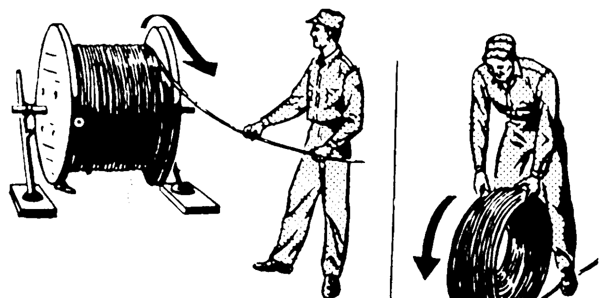


Figure 13-9.-Unreeling wire rope (left); uncoiling wire rope (right).

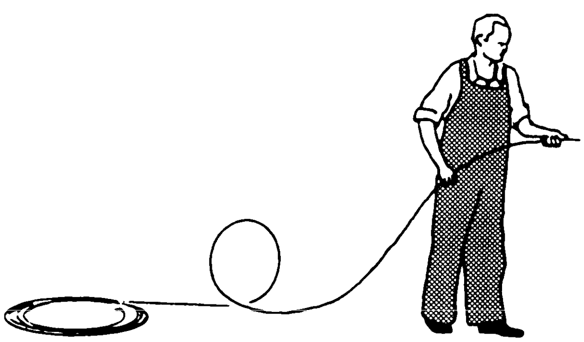


Figure 13-10.—Improper handling.

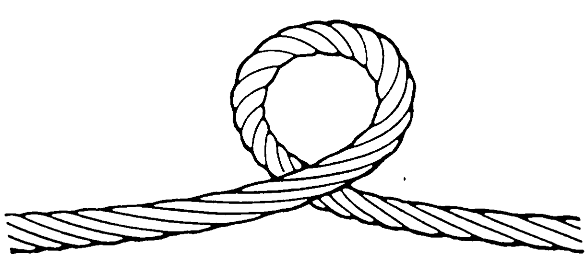


Figure 13-11.—Wire rope loop.

To uncoil a small coil of wire rope, simply stand the coil on edge and roll it along the ground like a wheel, or hoop, as also shown in figure 13-9. NEVER lay the coil flat on the floor or ground and uncoil it by pulling on the end, because such practice can kink or twist the rope.

Kinks

One of the most common forms of damage resulting from improper handled wire rope is the development of a kink. A kink starts with the formation of a loop, as shown in figures 13-10 and 13-11.

A loop that has not been pulled tight enough to set the wires or strands of the rope into a kink can be removed by turning the rope at either end in the proper direction to restore the lay, as shown in figure 13-12. If this is not done and the loop is pulled tight enough to cause a kink (fig. 13-13), the kink will result in irreparable damage to the rope (fig. 13-14).

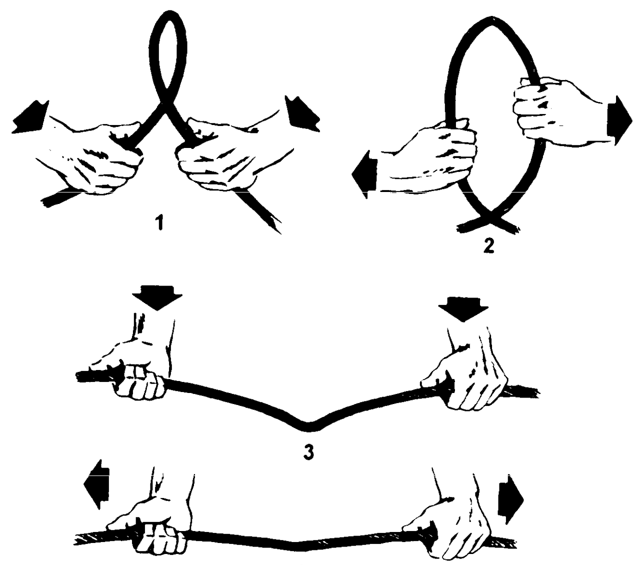


Figure 13-12.—The correct way to take out a loop in a wire rope.

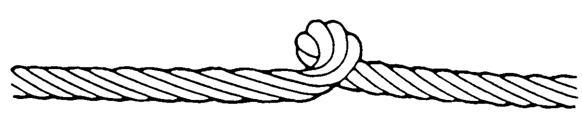


Figure 13-13.—Wire rope kink.

Figure 13-14.—Kink damage.

Kinking can be prevented by proper uncoiling and unreeling methods and by the correct handling of the rope throughout its installation.

Drum Winding

Spooling wire rope on a crane hoist drum causes a slight rotating tendency of the rope due to the spiral lay of the strands. Two types of hoist drums used for spooling wire rope are as follows:

1. Grooved drum. When grooved drums are used, the grooves generally give sufficient control to wind the wire rope properly, whether it is right or left lay rope.

2, Smooth-faced drum. When smooth-faced drums are used, where the only other influence on the wire rope in winding on the first layer is the fleet angle, the slight rotational tendency of the rope can be used as an advantage in keeping the winding tight and uniform.

NOTE: Using the wrong type of wire rope lay causes the rotational tendency of the rope to be a disadvantage, because it results in loose and nonuniform winding of the rope on the hoist drum.

Figure 13-15 shows drum winding diagrams for selection of the proper lay of rope. Standing behind the hoist drum and looking toward an oncoming overwind rope, the rotating tendency of right lay rope is toward the left; whereas, the rotating tendency of a left lay rope is toward the right.

Refer to figure 13-15. With overwind reeving and a right lay rope on a smooth-faced drum, the wire rope bitter end attachment to the drum flange should be at the left flange. With underwind reeving and a right lay rope, the wire rope bitter end attachment should beat the right flange.

When wire rope is run off one reel onto another or onto a winch or drum, it should be run from **TOP TO**

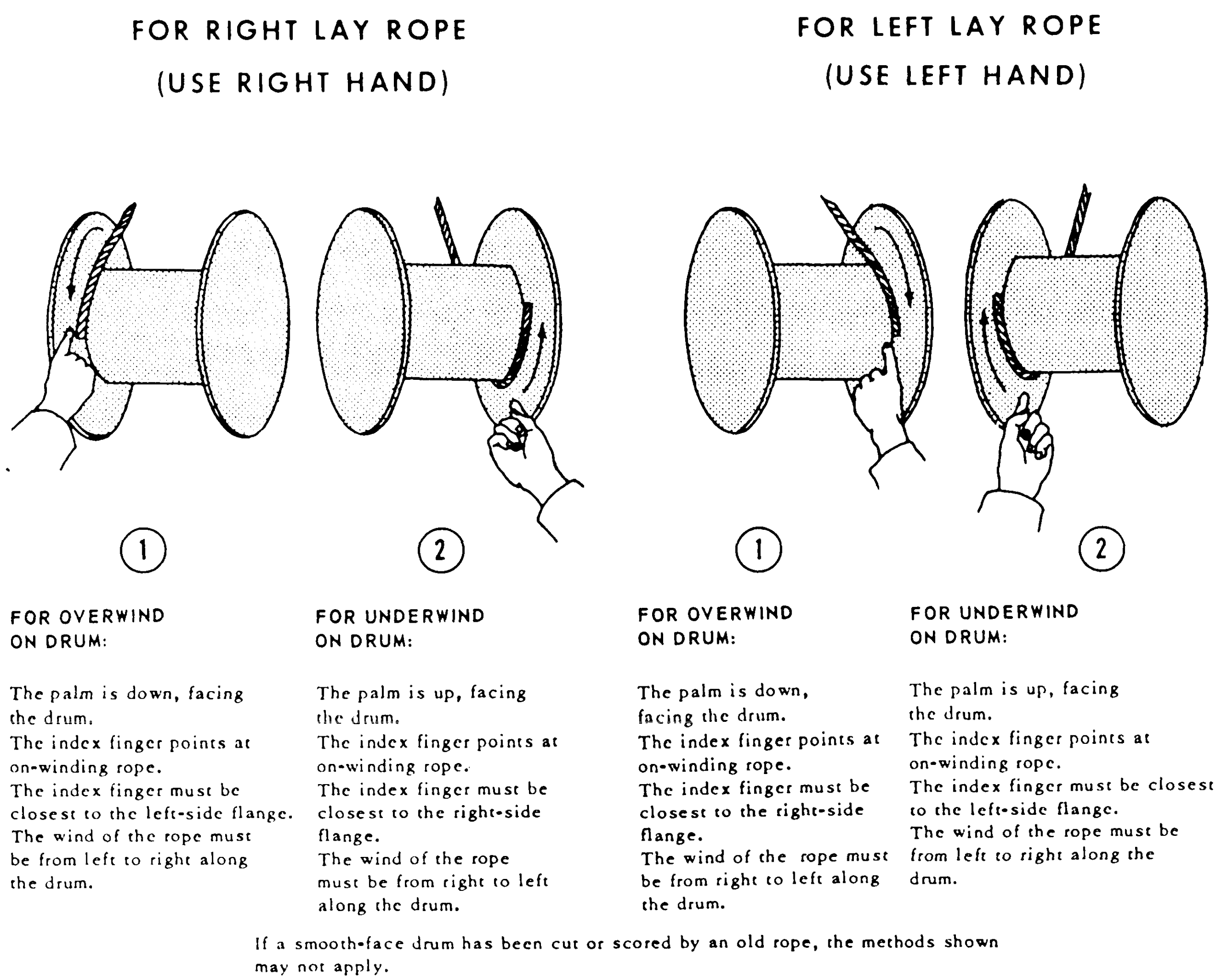


Figure 13-15.—Different lays of wire rope winding on hoist drums.

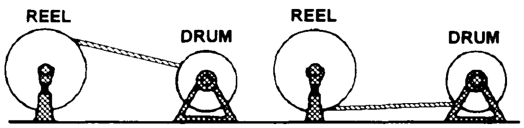


Figure 13-16.-Transferring wire rope from reel to drum.

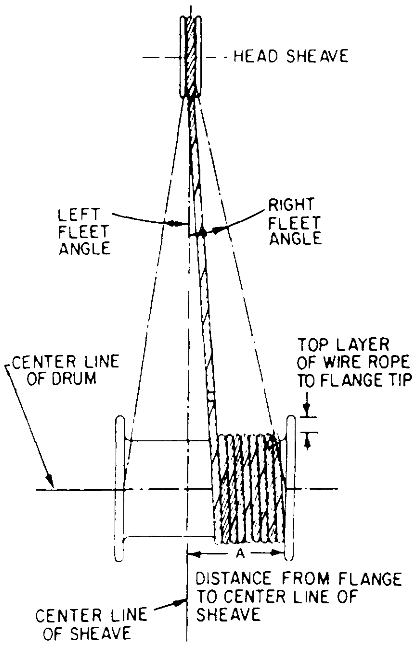


Figure 13-17.—Fleet angle relationship.

TOP or from **BOTTOM TO BOTTOM,** as shown in figure 13-16.

Fleet Angle

The fleet angle is formed by running wire rope between a sheave and a hoist drum whose axles are parallel to each other, as shown in figure 13-17. Too large a fleet angle can cause the wire rope to climb the flange of the sheave and can also cause the wire rope to climb over itself on the hoist drum.

Sizes of Sheaves

The diameter of a sheave should never be less than 20 times the diameter of the wire rope. An exception is 6 x 37 wire for which a smaller sheave can be used, because this wire rope is more flexible.

The chart shown in table 13-1 can be used to determine the minimum sheave diameter for wire rope of various diameters and construction.

Reverse Bends

Whenever possible, drums, sheaves, and blocks used with wire rope should be placed to avoid reverse or S-shaped bends. Reverse bends cause the individual wires or strands to shift too much and increase wear and fatigue. For a reverse bend, the drums and blocks affecting the reversal should be of a larger diameter than

Table 13-1.–Suggested Minimum Tread Diameter of Sheaves and Drums

Rope diameter in inches	Minimum tread diameter in inches for given rope construction*			
	6 x 7	6 x 19	6 x 37	8 x 19
1/4	10 1/2	8 1/2	---	6 1/2
3/8	15 3/4	12 3/4	6 3/4	9 3/4
1/2	21	17	9	13
5/8	26 1/4	21 1/4	11 1/4	16 1/4
3/4	31 1/2	25 1/2	13 1/2	19 1/2
7/8	36 3/4	29 3/4	15 3/4	22 3/4
1	42	34	18	26
1 1/8	47 1/4	38 1/4	20 1/2	29 1/4
1 1/4	52 1/2	42 1/2	22 1/2	32 1/2
1 1/2	63	51	27	39

Rope construction

Sheave diameter

*Rope construction is in strands times wires per strand.

ordinarily used and should be spaced as far apart as possible.

Seizing and Cutting

The makers of wire rope are careful to lay each wire in the strand and each strand in the rope under uniform tension. If the ends of the rope are not secured properly, the original balance of tension will be disturbed and maximum service cannot be obtained because some strands can carry a greater portion of the load than others. Before cutting steel wire rope, place seizing on each side of the point where the rope is to be cut (fig. 13-18).

A rule of thumb for determining the size, number, and distance between seizing is as follows:

1. The number of seizing to be applied equals approximately three times the diameter of the rope.

Example: 3 x 3/4-inch-diameter rope = 2 1/4 inches. Round up to the next higher whole number and use three seizing.

2. The width of each seizing should be 1 to 1 1/2 times as long as the diameter of the rope.

Example: 1 x 3/4-inch-diameter rope = 3/4 inch. Use a 1-inch width of seizing.

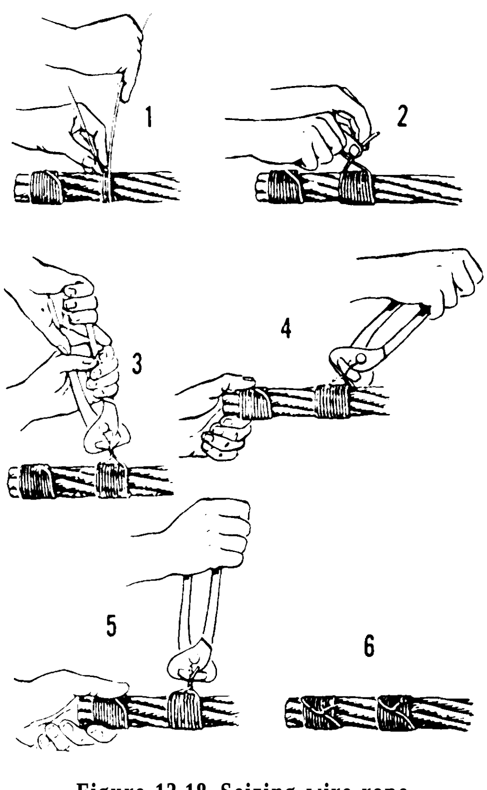


Figure 13-18.-Seizing wire rope.

3. The seizing should be spaced a distance equal to twice the diameter of the wire rope.

Example: 2 x 3/4-inch-diameter rope = 1 1/2 inches. Space the seizing 2 inches apart.

A common method used to make a temporary wire rope seizing is as follows:

Wind on the seizing wire uniformly, using tension on the wire. After taking the required number of turns, as shown in step 1, twist the ends of the wires counterclockwise by hand, so the twisted portion of the wires is near the middle of the seizing, as shown in step 2. Grasp the ends with end-cutting nippers and twist up slack, as shown in step 3. Do not try to tighten the seizing by twisting. Draw up on the seizing, as shown in step 4. Again twist up the slack, using nippers, as shown in step 5. Repeat steps 4 and 5 if necessary. Cut ends and pound them down on the rope, as shown in step 6. If the seizing is to be permanent or if the rope is 1 5/8 inches or more in diameter, use a serving bar, or iron, to increase tension on the seizing wire when putting on the turns.

Wire rope can be cut successfully by a number of methods. One effective and simple method is to use a hydraulic type of wire rope cutter, as shown in figure 13-19. Remember that all wire should be seized before it is cut. For best results in using this method, place the rope in the cutter so the blade comes between the two central seizings. With the release valve closed, jack the blade against the rope at the location of the cut and continue to operate the cutter until the wire rope is cut.

MAINTENANCE OF WIRE ROPE

Wire rope bending around hoist drums and sheaves will wear like any other metal article, so lubrication is just as important to an operating wire rope as it is to any other piece of working machinery. For a wire rope to

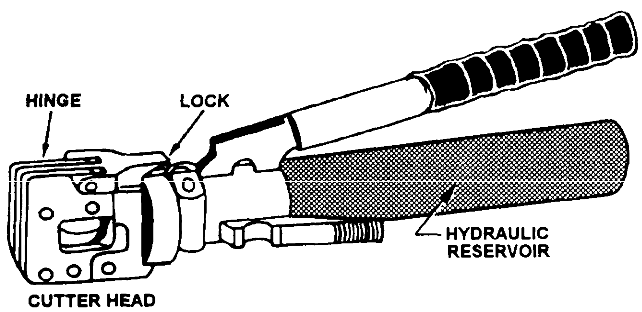


Figure 13-19.—Hydraulic type of wire rope cutter.

work right, its wires and strands must be free to move. Friction from corrosion or lack of lubrication shortens the service life of wire rope.

Deterioration from corrosion is more dangerous than that from wear, because corrosion ruins the inside wires—a process hard to detect by inspection. Deterioration caused by wear can be detected by examining the outside wires of the wire rope, because these wires become flattened and reduced in diameter as the wire rope wears.

NOTE: Replace wire rope that has wear of one third of the original diameter of the outside individual wires.

Both internal and external lubrication protects a wire rope against wear and corrosion. Internal lubrication can be properly applied only when the wire rope is being manufactured, and manufacturers customarily coat every wire with a rust-inhibiting lubricant, as it is laid into the strand. The core is also lubricated in manufacturing.

Lubrication that is applied in the field is designed not only to maintain surface lubrication but also to prevent the loss of the internal lubrication provided by the manufacturer. The Navy issues an asphaltic petroleum oil that must be heated before using. This lubricant is known as **Lubricating Oil for Chain, Wire Rope, and Exposed Gear** and comes in two types:

- Type I, Regular: Does not prevent rust and is used where rust prevention is not needed; for example, elevator wires used inside are not exposed to the weather but need lubrication.

- Type II, protective: A lubricant and an anti-corrosive— it comes in three grades: grade A, for cold weather (60°F and below); grade B, for warm weather (between 60°F and 80°F); and grade C, for hot weather (80°F and above).

The oil, issued in 25-pound and 35-pound buckets and in 100-pound drums, can be applied with a stiff brush, or the wire rope can be drawn through a trough of hot lubricant, as shown in figure 13-20. The frequency of application depends upon service conditions; as soon as the last coating has appreciably deteriorated, it should be renewed.

CAUTION

Avoid prolonged skin contact with oils and lubricants. Consult the Materials Safety Data Sheet (MSDS) on each item before use for precautions and hazards. See your supervisor for copies of MSDSs.

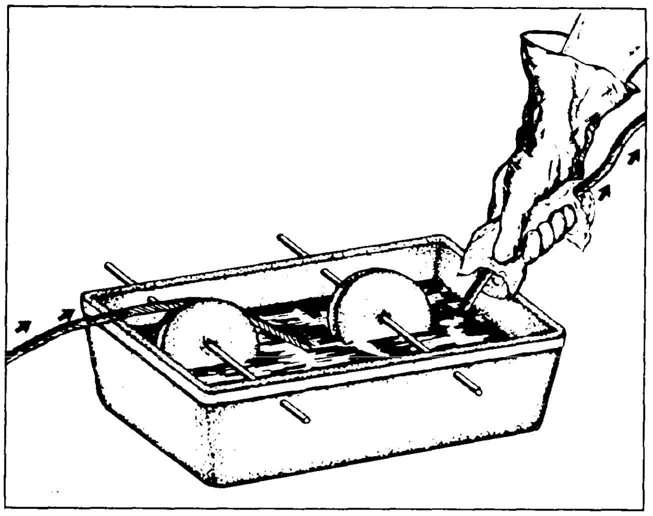


Figure 13-20.—Trough method of lubricating wire rope.

A good lubricant to use when working in the field, as recommended by COMSECOND/COMTHIRD-NCBINST 11200.11, is a mixture of new motor oil and diesel fuel at a ratio of 70-percent oil and 30-percent diesel fuel. The NAVFAC P-404 contains added information on additional lubricants that can be used.

Never lubricate wire rope that works a dragline or other attachments that normally bring the wire rope in contact with soils. The reason is that the lubricant will pick up fine particles of material, and the resulting abrasive action will be detrimental to both the wire rope and sheave.

As a safety precaution, always wipe off any excess oil when lubricating wire rope especially with hoisting equipment. Too much lubricant can get into brakes or clutches and cause them to fail. While in use, the motion of machinery may sling excess oil around over crane cabs and onto catwalks making them unsafe.

NOTE: Properly dispose of wiping rags and used or excess lubricant as hazardous waste. See your supervisor for details on local disposal requirements.

WIRE ROPE ATTACHMENTS

Many attachments can be fitted to the ends of wire rope, so the rope can be connected to other wire ropes, pad eyes, or equipment.

Wedge Socket

The attachment used most often to attach dead ends of wire ropes to pad eyes or like fittings on cranes and

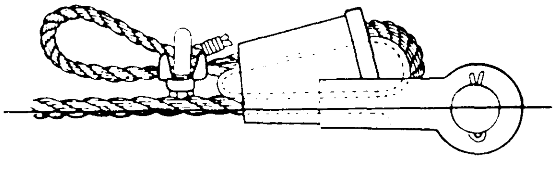


Figure 13-21.—Wedge socket.

earthmoving equipment is the wedge socket, as shown in figure 13-21. The socket is applied to the bitter end of the wire rope.

NOTE: The wedge socket develops only 70% of the breaking strength of the wire rope due to the crushing action of the wedge.

Speltered Socket

Speltering is the best way to attach a closed or open socket in the field. **"Speltering"** means to attach the socket to the wire rope by pouring hot zinc around it, as shown in figure 13-22. Speltering should only be done by qualified personnel.

Forged steel speltered sockets are as strong as the wire rope itself; they are required on all cranes used to lift personnel, ammunition, acids, and other dangerous materials.

NOTE: Spelter sockets develop 100% of the breaking strength of the wire rope.

Wire Rope Clips

Wire rope clips are used to make eyes in wire rope, as shown in figure 13-23. The U-shaped part of the clip with the threaded ends is called the **U-bolt;** the other part is called the **saddle.** The saddle is stamped with the diameter of the wire rope that the clip will fit. Always place a clip with the U-bolt on the bitter (dead) end, not on the standing part of the wire rope. If clips are attached incorrectly, the standing part (live end) of the wire rope will be distorted or have mashed spots. A rule of thumb when attaching a wire rope clip is to NEVER saddle a dead horse.

Two simple formulas for figuring the number of wire rope clips needed are as follows:

3 x wire rope diameter + 1 = Number of clips

6 x wire rope diameter = Spacing between clips

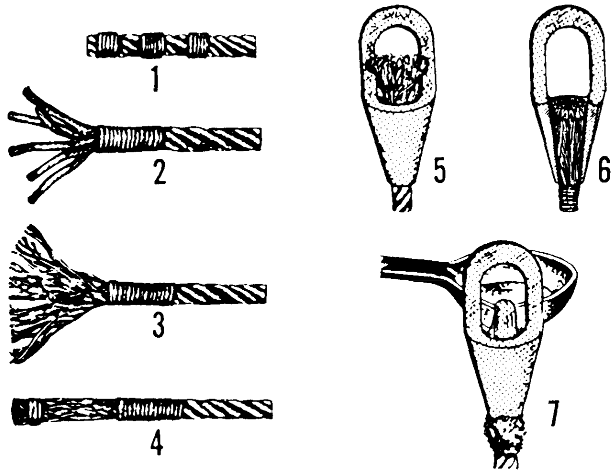


Figure 13-22.—Speltering a socket.

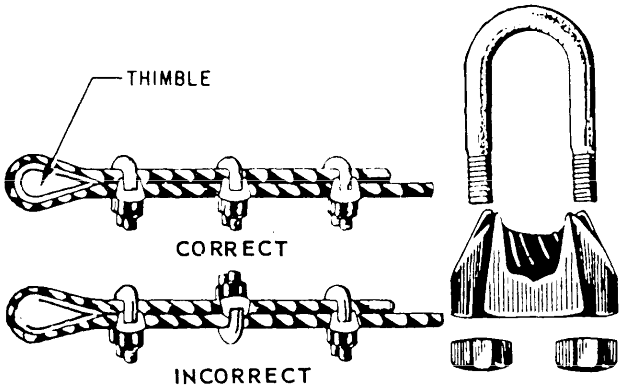


Figure 13-23.—Wire rope clips.

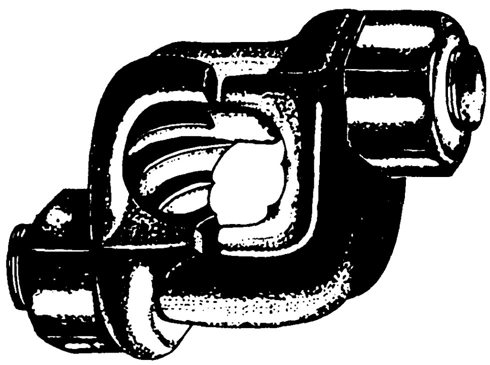


Figure 13-24.—Twin-base wire rope clip.

Another type of wire rope clip is the twin-base clip, often referred to as the universal or two clamp, as shown in figure 13-24. Both parts of this clip are shaped to fit the wire rope, so the clip cannot be attached incorrectly. The twin-base clip allows for a clear 360-degree swing with the wrench when the nuts are being tightened.

Thimble

When an eye is made in a wire rope, a metal fitting, called a **thimble,** is usually placed in the eye, as shown in figure 13-23. The thimble protects the eye against wear. Wire rope eyes with thimbles and wire rope clips can hold approximately 80 percent of the wire rope strength.

After the eye made with clips has been strained, the nuts on the clips must be retightened. Checks should be made now and then for tightness or damage to the rope caused by the clips.

Swaged Connections

Swaging makes an efficient and permanent attachment for wire rope, as shown in figure 13-25. A swaged connection is made by compressing a steel sleeve over the rope by using a hydraulic press. When the connection is made correctly, it provides 100-percent capacity of the wire rope.

Careful inspection of the wires leading into these connections are important because of the pressure put upon the wires in this section. If one broken wire is found at the swaged connection or a crack in the swage, replace the fitting.

Hooks and Shackles

Hooks and shackles are handy for hauling or lifting loads without tying them directly to the object with a line, wire rope, or chain. They can be attached to wire rope, fiber line, blocks, or chains. Shackles should be used for loads too heavy for hooks to handle.

When hooks fail due to overloading, they usually straighten out and lose or drop their load. When a hook has been bent by overloading, it should NOT be straightened and put back into service; it should be cut in half with a cutting torch and discarded.

Hooks should be inspected at the beginning of each workday and before lifting a full-rated load. If you are not sure a hook is strong enough to lift the load, by all means use a shackle.

Hooks that close and lock should be used where there is danger of catching on an obstruction, particularly in hoisting buckets, cages, or skips, and especially in shaft work. Hooks and rings used with a chain should have about the same strength as the chain.

The manufacturers' recommendations should be followed in determining the safe working loads of the various sizes and types of specific and identifiable hooks. All hooks for which no applicable manufacturers' recommendations tire available should be tested to twice the intended safe working load before they are initially put into use.

Mousing is a technique often used to close the open section of a hook to keep slings, straps, and similar attachments from slipping off the hook, as shown in figure 13-26.

Hooks may be moused with rope yarn, seizing wire, or a shackle. When using rope yarn or wire, make 8 or 10 wraps around both sides of the hook. To finish off, make several turns with the yarn or wire around the sides of the mousing, and then tie the ends securely.

Two types of shackles used in rigging are the **anchor** (Fig. 13-27) and the **chain** (fig. 13-28). Both are available with screw pins or round pins.

Shackles should be used in the same configuration as they were manufactured. Never replace the shackle pin with a bolt. when the original pin is lost or does not fit properly, do not use the shackle. All pins must be straight and cotter pins must be used or all screw pins must be seated.

A shackle should never be pulled from the side, because this causes the shackle to bend which reduces the capacity tremendously. Always attach a screw pin

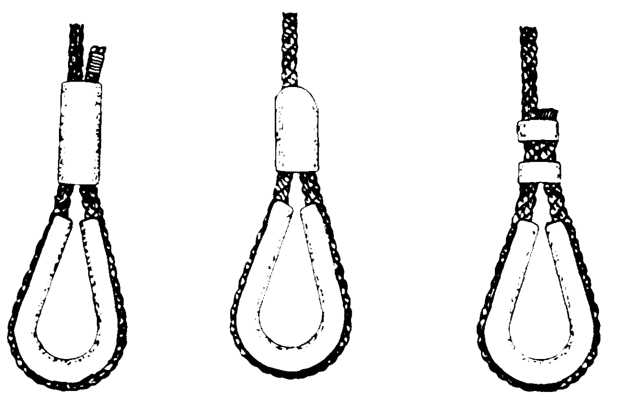


Figure 13-25.-Swaged connections.

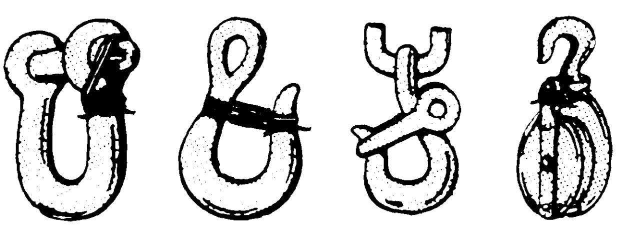


Figure 13-26.—Mousing.

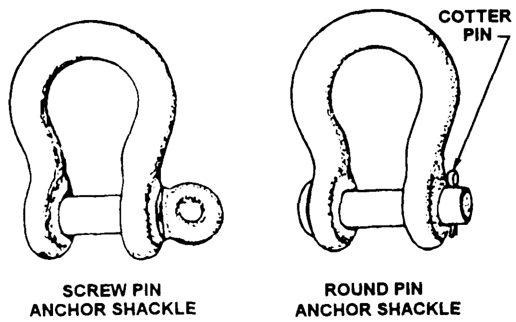


Figure 13-27.—Anchor shackles.

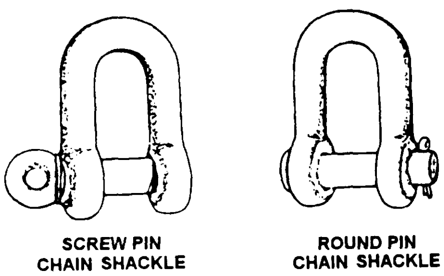


Figure 13-28.—Chain shackles.

shackle with the screw pin on the dead end of the rope. If placed on the running end, the movement of the rope may loosen the pin.

Shackles are moused whenever there is a chance of the shackle pin working loose and coming out because of vibration. To mouse a shackle, simply take several turns with seizing wire through the eye of the pin and around the bow of the shackle. Figure 13-26 shows what a properly moused shackle looks like.

FIBER LINE

Fiber line is commonly used to hoist and move heavy loads. Fiber line is constructed similar to wire rope. One difference is yarn. Yarn is used to make the strand in place of wire. Another difference is fiber line does not have a core.

TYPES OF FIBER LINE

The most common types of fiber line are manila, sisal, hemp, cotton, nylon, and Kevlar. The characteristics of these fiber lines are discussed below.

Manila

Manila is a strong fiber that comes from the leaf stems of the stalk of the abaca plant, which belongs to the banana family. The fibers vary in length from 1.2 to 4.5 meters in the natural state. The quality of the fiber and its length give manila rope relatively high elasticity, strength, and resistance to wear and deterioration. In many instances, the manufacturer treats the rope with chemicals to make it more mildew resistant, which increases the quality of the rope. Manila rope is generally the standard item of issue because of its quality and relative strength.

Sisal

Sisal rope is made from two tropical plants that yield a strong, valuable fiber. These plants, sisalana and henequen, produce fibers 0.6 to 1.2 meters long with sisalana producing the stronger fibers of the two plants. Because of the greater strength of sisalana, these fibers are used to make the rope known as sisal. Sisal rope is about 80 percent as strong as high-quality manila rope and can be easily obtained. It withstands exposure to seawater very well and is often used for this reason.

Hemp

Hemp is a tall plant that provides useful fibers for making rope and cloth. Cultivated in many parts of the world, hemp was used extensively before the introduction of manila. Its principal use now is in fittings, such as ratline, marline and spun yarn. Since hemp absorbs tar much better than the hard fibers, these fittings are invariably tarred to make them water resistant. Tarred hemp has about 80 percent of the strength of untarred hemp. Of these tarred fittings, marline is the standard item of issue.

Cotton

Cotton rope is a very smooth white rope that stands much bending and running. Cotton is not widely used in the Navy except in some cases for small lines.

Nylon

Nylon rope has a tensile strength that is nearly three times that of manila rope. The advantage of using nylon rope is that it is waterproof and has the ability to resume normal length after being stretched and/or absorbing shocks. It also resists abrasion, rot, decay, and fungus

When nylon rope is properly handled and maintained, it should last more than five times longer than manila line subjected to the same use. Nylon rope is also lighter, more flexible, less bulky, and easier to handle and store than manila line. When nylon rope is wet or frozen, it loses little strength. Additionally, nylon line defies mildew, rotting, and attack by marine borers.

Nylon rope can hold a load even when many strands are abraded. Normally, when abrasion is local, the rope may be restored to use by cutting away the chafed section and splicing the ends. Chafing, and stretching do not necessarily affect the load-carrying ability of nylon rope.

The splicing of nylon rope is very similar to that of manila; however, friction tape is used instead of seizing stuff for whipping the strands and line. Because it is smooth and elastic, nylon requires at least one tuck more than manila. For heavy loads, a back tuck should be taken with each strand.

As with manila, nylon rope is measured by circumference. Nylon, as manila, usually comes on a reel of 600 to 1,200 feet, depending upon the size. Do not uncoil new nylon rope by pulling the ends up through the eye of the coil. Unreel it as you would wire rope. Avoid coiling nylon in the same direction all the time, or you could unbalance the lay.

When nylon rope is stretched more than 40 percent, it is likely to part. The stretch is immediately recovered with a snapbaak that sounds like a pistol shot.

WARNING

The snapback of a nylon rope can be as deadly as a bullet. Make sure no one stands in the direct line of pull when a heavy strain is applied.

This feature is also true for other types of lines, but overconfidence in the strength of nylon may lead one to underestimate its backlash.

The critical point of loading is 40-percent extension of length; for example, a 10-foot length of nylon rope would stretch to 14 feet when under load. Should the stretch exceed 40 percent, the linc will be in danger of parting.

If a nylon rope becomes slippery because of grease, it should be cleaned with a light oil, such as kerosene or diesel oil.

Do not store nylon line in strong sunlight. Cover it with tarpaulins. In storage, keep it away from heat and strong chemicals.

Kevlar

Kevlar is most popularly used to make bulletproof vests and knifeproof gloves. The characteristics of Kevlar line are similar to those of Nylon line except for one significant difference—Kevlar line does not snapback when it parts. This is an important safety feature, since parted nylon line has resulted in numerous deaths due to violent snapbacks.

HANDLING AND CARE OF FIBER LINE

If you expect the fiber line you work with to give safe and dependable service, make sure it is handled and cared for properly. Procedures for handling and caring of fiber line arc as follows:

- CLEANLINESS is part of the care of fiber line. NEVER drag a line over the ground or over rough or dirty surfaces. The line can easily pickup sand and grit that can work into the strands and wear the fibers. If a line dots get dirty, use water only to clean it. **Do NOT** use soap, because it takes oil out of the line.

- AVOID pulling a line over sharp edges because the strands may break. When you have a sharp edge, place chafing gear, such as a board, folded cardboard or canvas, or part of a rubber tire, between the line and the sharp edge to prevent damaging the line.

- NEVER cut a line unless you have to. When possible, always use knots that can be untied easily.

Fiber line will contract or shrink if it gets wet. If there is not enough slack in a wet line to permit shrinkage, the line is likely to overstrain and weaken. If a taut line is exposed to rain or dampness, make sure that the line, while still dry, is slackened to allow for the shrinkage.

INSPECTION OF FIBER LINE

Line should be inspected carefully at regular intervals to determine if it is safe. The outside of a line does not show the condition of the line on the inside. Untwisting the strands slightly allows you to check the condition of the line on the inside. Mildewed line gives off a musty odor. Broken strands, or yarns, usually can be spotted immediately by a trained observer. You want to look carefully to ensure there is no dirt or sawdust-like materia] inside the line. Dirt or other foreign matter inside reveals possible damage to the internal structure of the line. A smaller circumference of the line is usually a sure sign that too much strain has been applied to the line.

For a thorough inspection, a line should be examined at several places. After all, only one weak spot, anywhere in a line, makes the entire line weak. As a final check, pull out a couple of fibers from the line and try to break them. **Sound fibers** have a strong

If an inspection discloses any unsatisfactory conditions in a line, see that the line is destroyed or cut into small pieces as soon as possible. This precaution prevents the defective line from being used for hoisting.

CHAIN

In the NCF, never use a chain when it is possible to use wire rope. The reason for this is because, unlike wire rope, chain does not have reserve strength and does not give any warning that it is about to fail; therefore, you will not be alerted of a potentially hazardous condition.

Chain is better suited than wire rope for some jobs because it is more resistant to abrasion, corrosion, and heat. When chain is used as a sling, it has no flexibility and grips the load well.

CHAIN GRADES

It is difficult to determine the grade of some types of chains by looking at them. Most chains used by the NCF are class A chain. If you are uncertain of the class or size of a chain, ask your supervisor.

CHAIN STRENGTH

Before lifting with a chain, make sure the chain is free from twists and kinks. A twisted or kinked chain placed under stress could fail even when handling a light load. Additionally, ensure that the load is properly seated in the hook (not on the point) and that the chain is free from nicks or other damage. Avoid sudden jerks in lifting and lowering the load, and always consider the angle of lift with a sling chain bridle.

The strength of any chain will be affected when it has been knotted, overloaded, or heated to temperatures above 500°F.

HANDLING AND CARE OF CHAIN

When hoisting heavy metal objects using chain for slings, you should insert padding around the sharp corners of the load to protect the chain links from being cut.

Store chains in a clean, dry place where they will not be exposed to the weather. Before storage, apply a light coat of lubricant to prevent rust.

Do NOT perform makeshift repairs, such as fastening links of a chain together with bolts or wire. When links become worn or damaged, cut them out of the chain, then fasten the two nearby links together with a connecting link. After the connecting link is closed, welding makes it as strong as the other links. For cutting small-sized chain links, use bolt cutters. To cut large-sized links, use a hacksaw.

Inspect the chain to ensure it is maintained in a safe, operating condition. A chain used continuously for heavy loading should be inspected frequently. Chain is less reliable than manila or wire rope slings because the links may crystallize and snap without warning.

Examine the chain closely link by link and look for stretch, wear, distortion, cracks, nicks, and gouges. Wear will usually be at the ends of the links where joining links rub together. If you find wear, lift each link and measure its cross section.

NOTE: Remove chains from service when any link shows wear more than 25 percent of the thickness of the metal.

Replace any link that shows cracks, distortion, nicks, or cuts; however, if a chain shows stretching or distortion of more than 5 percent in a five-link section, discard and destroy the entire chain.

Remove chains from service when links show any signs of binding at the juncture points of the links. This condition indicates collapse in the sides of the links has occurred as a result of stretching.

Before lifting with a chain, first place dunnage between the chain and the load to provide a gripping surface. For hoisting heavy metal objects with a chain, always use chafing gear around the sharp corners on the load to protect the chain links from being cut. As chafing gear, use either planks or heavy fabric. In handling rails or a number of lengths of pipe, make a round turn and place the hook around the chain, as shown in figure 13-29.

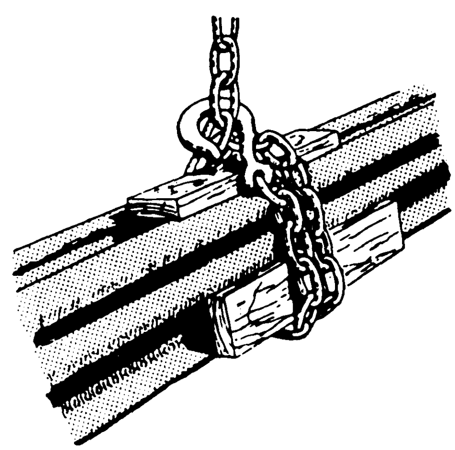


Figure 13-29.—Chain sling.

SLINGS

Slings are widely used for hoisting and moving heavy loads. Some types of slings come already made. Slings may be made of wire rope, fiber line, or chain.

SLINGS AND RIGGING GEAR KITS

The NCF has slings and rigging gear in the battalion Table of Allowance to support the rigging operations and the lifting of CESE. The kits 80104, 84003, and 84004 must remain in the custody of the supply officer in the central toolroom (CTR). The designated embarktion staff and the crane test director monitor the condition of the rigging gear. The crane crew supervisor normally has the responsibility to inventory the contents of the kits. The rigging kits must be stored undercover.

WIRE ROPE SLINGS

Wire rope slings offer advantantges of both strength and flexibility. These qualities make wire rope adequate to meet the requirements of most crane hoisting jobs; therefore, you will use wire rope slings more frequently than fiber line or chain slings.

FIBER LINE SLINGS

Fiber line slings are flexible and protect the finished material more than do wire rope sliings. But fiber line slings are not as strong as wire rope or chain slings. Also, fine line is more likely to be damaged by sharp edges on the material being hoisted than wire rope or chain slings.

CHAIN SLINGS

Chain slings are frequently used for hoisting heavy steel items, such as rails, pipes, beams, and angles. They are also handy for slinging hot loads and handling loads with sharp edges that might cut the wire rope.

USING WIRE ROPE AND FIBER LINE SLINGS

Three types of fiber line and wire rope slings commonly used for lifting a loud are the endless, single leg, and bridle slings.

An **endless sling,** usually referred to by the term **sling,** can be made by splicing the ends of a piece of fiber line or wire rope to form an endless loop. An endless sling is easy to handle and can be used as a **choker hitch** (fig. 13-30).

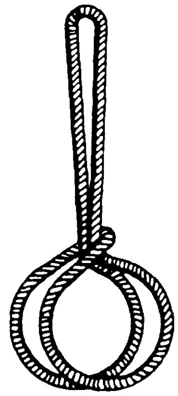


Figure 13-30.—Endless sling rigged as a choker hitch.

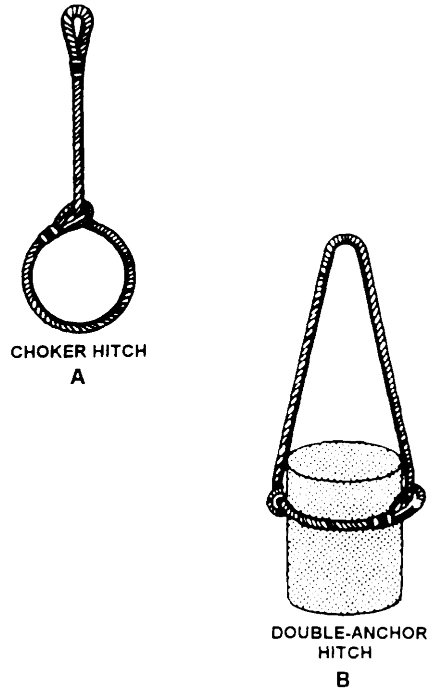


Figure 13-31.—Methods of using single-leg slings.

A **single-leg sling,** commonly referred to as a **strap,** can be made by forming a spliced eye in each end of a piece of fiber line or wire rope. Sometimes the ends of a piece oe wire rope are spliced into eyes around thimbles, and one eye is fastened to a hook with a shackle. With this arrangement, the shackle and hook are removable.

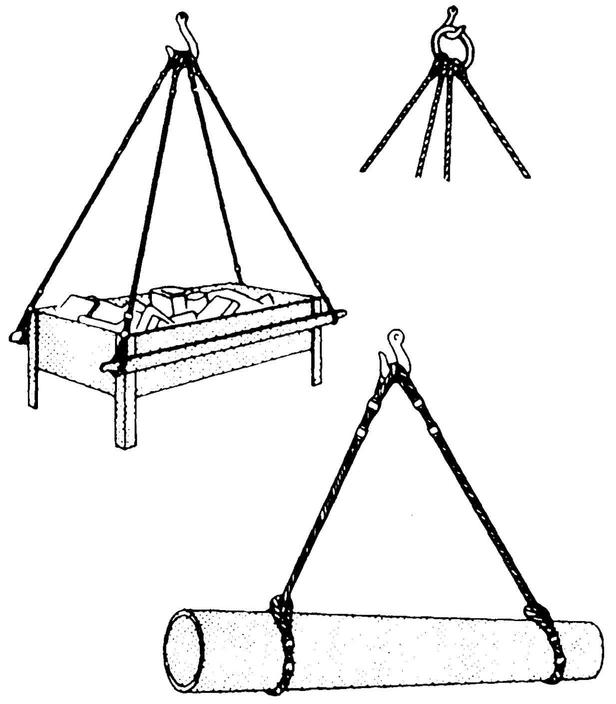


Figure 13-32.—Multi-legged bridle slings.

The single-leg sling may be used as a choker hitch (fig. 13-31, view A) in hoisting by passing one eye through the other eye and over the hoisting hook. The single-leg sling is also useful as a double-anchor hitch (fig. 13-31, view B). The double-anchor hitch works well for hoisting drums or other cylindrical objects where a sling must tighten itself under strain and lift by friction against the sides of the object.

Single-leg slings can be used to make various types of **bridles.** Three common uses of bridles are shown in figure 13-32. Either two or more single slings may be used for a given combination.

The bridle hitch provides excellent load stability when the load ia distributed equally among each sling leg. The load hook is directly over the center of gravity of the load, and the load is raised level. The use of bridle slings requires that the sling angles be carefully determined to ensure that the individual legs are not overloaded.

NOTE: It is wrong to conclude that a three- or four-leg bridle will safely lift a load equal to the safe load on one leg multiplied by the number of legs. This is because there is no way of knowing that each leg is carrying its share of the load.

With a four-legged bridle sling lifting a rigid load, it is possible for two of the legs to support practically the full load while the other two legs only balance it. COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCB strongly recommend that the rated capacity for two-leg bridle slings listed in the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11 be used also as the safe working load for three- or four-leg bridle hitches.

When lifting heavy loads, you should ensure that the bottom of the sling legs is fastened to the load to prevent damage to the load. Many pieces of equipment have eyes fastened to them during the process of manufacture to aid in lifting. With some loads, though, fastening a hook to the eye on one end of each sling leg suffices to secure the sling to the load.

Use a protective pad when a fiber line or wire rope sling is exposed to sharp edges at the corners of a load. Pieces of wood or old rubber tires are fine for padding.

Sling Angle

When you are using slings, remember that the greater the angle from vertical, the greater the stress on the sling legs. This point is shown in figure 13-33.

The rated capacity of any sling depends on the size, the configuration, and the angles formed by the legs of the sling and the horizontal. A sling with two legs used to lift a 1,000-pound object will have 500 pounds of the load on each leg when the sling angle is 90 degrees. The load stress on each leg increases as the angle decreases; for example, if the sling angle is 30 degrees when lifting the same 1,000-pound object, the load is 1,000 pounds on each leg. Try to keep all sling angles greater than 45 degrees; sling angles approaching 30 degrees are considered extremely hazardous and must be avoided.

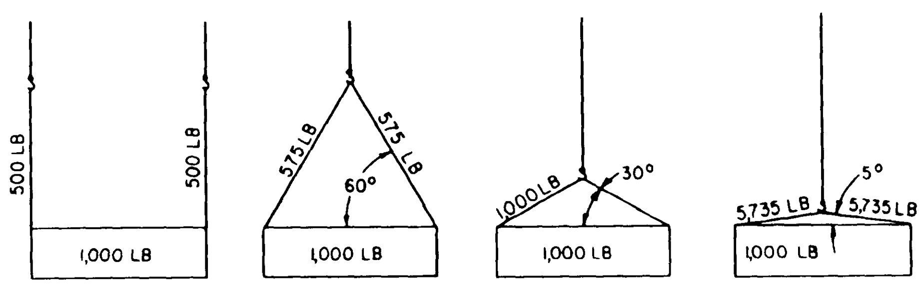


Figure 13-33.-Stress on slings at various vertical angles.

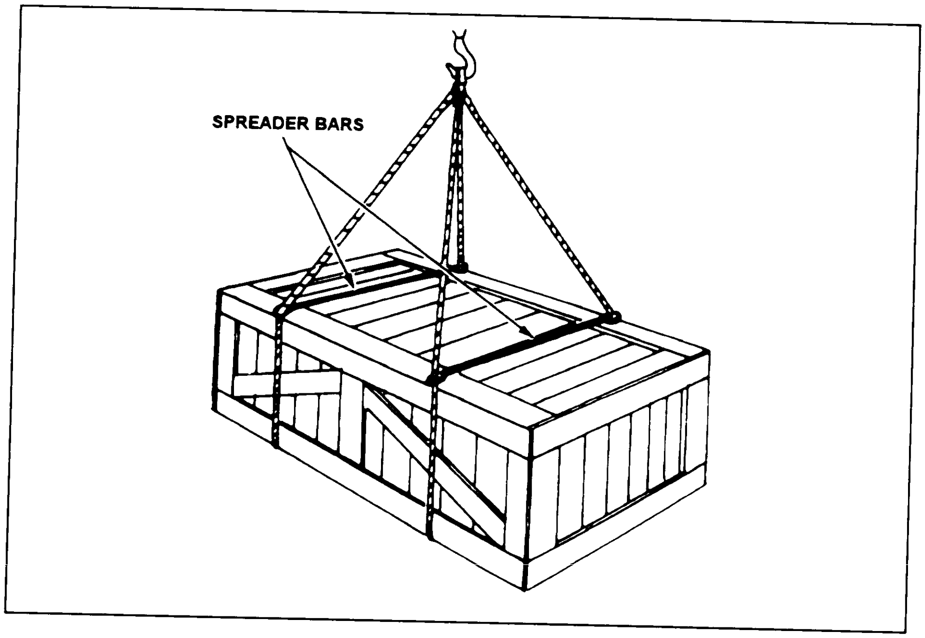


Figure 13-34.—Using spreader bars.

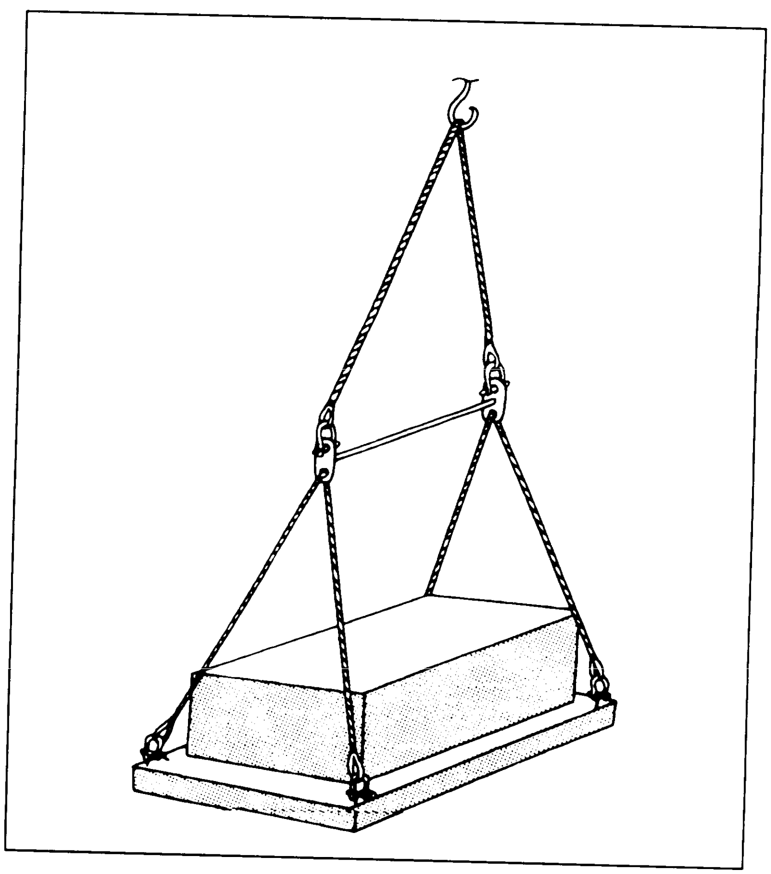


Figure 13-35.—Spreader bar used with an oversized load.

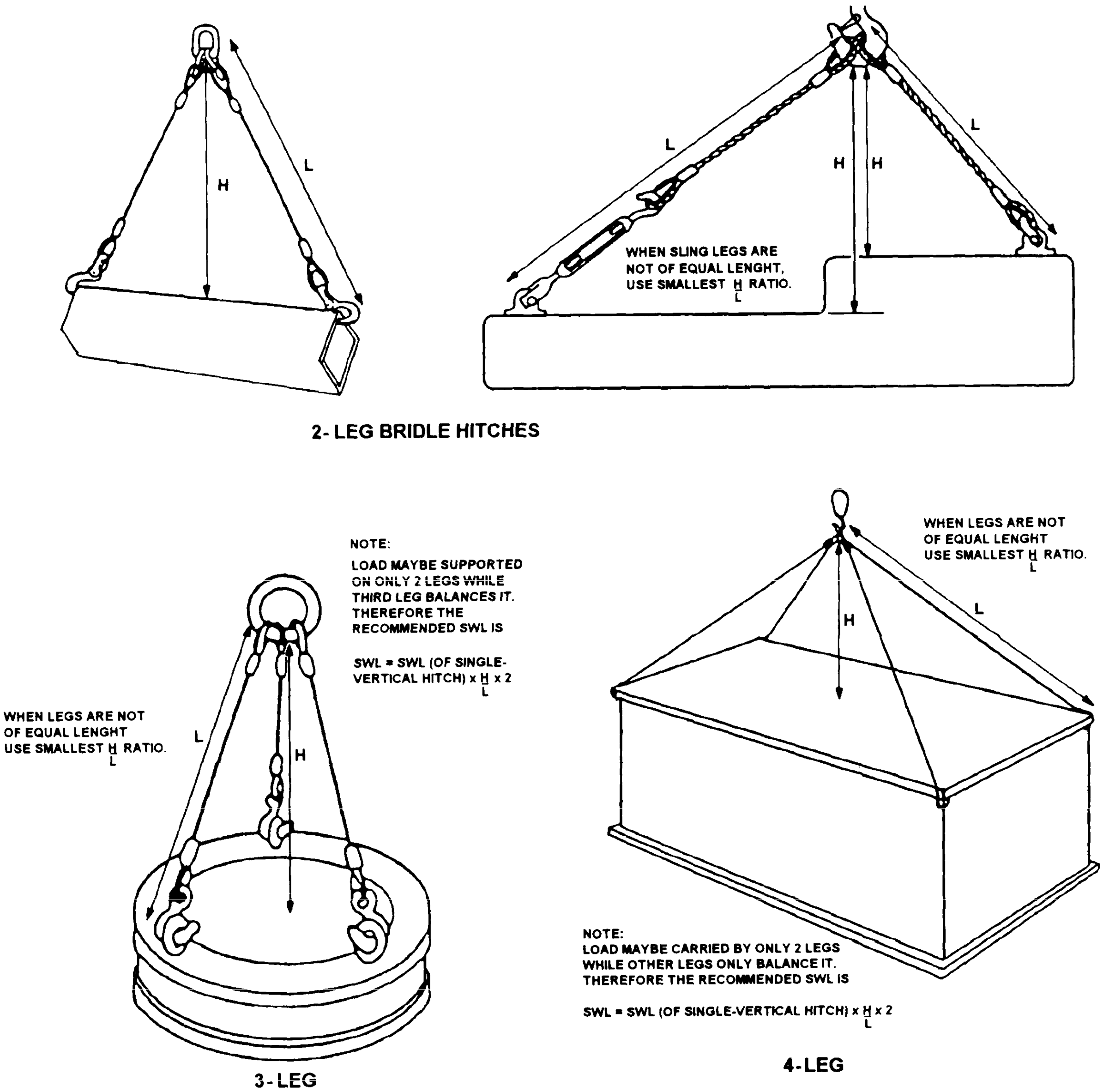


Figure 13-36.-Determination of bridle hitch sling capacity.

Spreaders Bars

In hoisting with slings, spreader bars are used to prevent crushing and damaging the load. Spreader bars are short bars, or pipes, with eyes fastened to each end. By setting spreader bars in the sling legs above the top of the load (fig. 13-34), you change the angle of the sling leg and avoid crushing the load particularly in the upper portion.

Spreader bars are also used in lifting long or oversized objects to control the sling angle, as shown in figure 13-35. When spreader bars are used, make sure you do not overload the end connection. A spreader bar has a rated capacity that is the same as hooks and shackles. A good rule of thumb is the thickness of the spreaders end connection should be the same as the thickness of the shackle pin.

Sling Safe Working Loads

Formulas for estimating the loads for most sling configurations have been developed. These formulas are based on the safe working load of the single-vertical hitch of a particular sling. The efficiencies of the end fittings used also have to be considered when determining the capacity of the combination.

The formula used to compute the safe working load (SWL) for a **bridle hitch** with two, three, or four legs (fig. 13-36) is SWL (of single-vertical hitch) times H (Height) divided by L (Length) times 2 = SWL. When

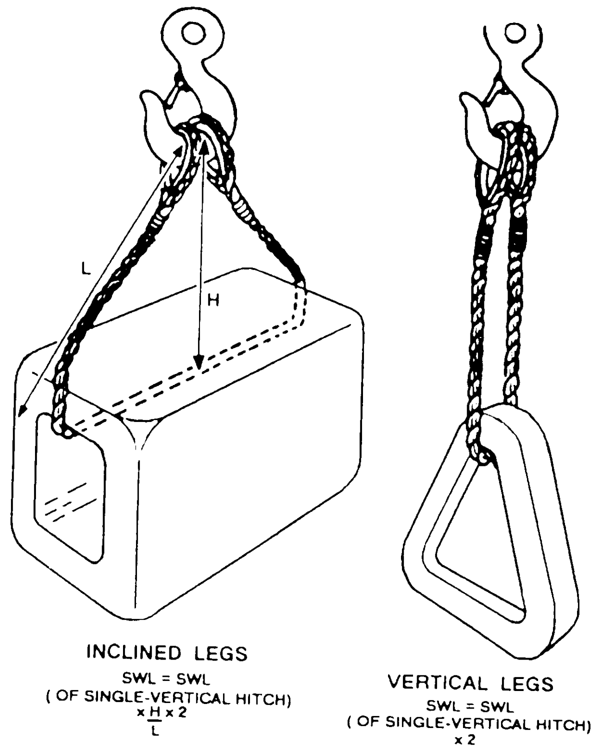


Figure 13-37.—Determination of single-basket hitch sling capacity.

the sling legs are not of equal length, use the smallest H/L measurement. This formula is for a two-leg bridle hitch, but it is strongly recommended that it also be used for the three- and four-leg hitches.

NOTE: Do NOT forget it is wrong to assume that a three- or four-leg hitch can safely lift a load equal to the safe load on one leg multiplied by the number of legs.

Other formulas are as follows:

Single-basket hitch (fig. 13-37): For vertical legs, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x 2.

For inclined legs, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x H divided by L x 4.

Double-basket hitch (fig. 13-38): For vertical legs, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x 4.

For inclined legs, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x H divided by L x 4.

Single-choker hitch (fig. 13-39): For sling angles of 45 degrees or more, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x 3/4 or .75.

Sling angles of less than 45 degrees are not recommended; however, if they are used, the formula is SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x A/B.

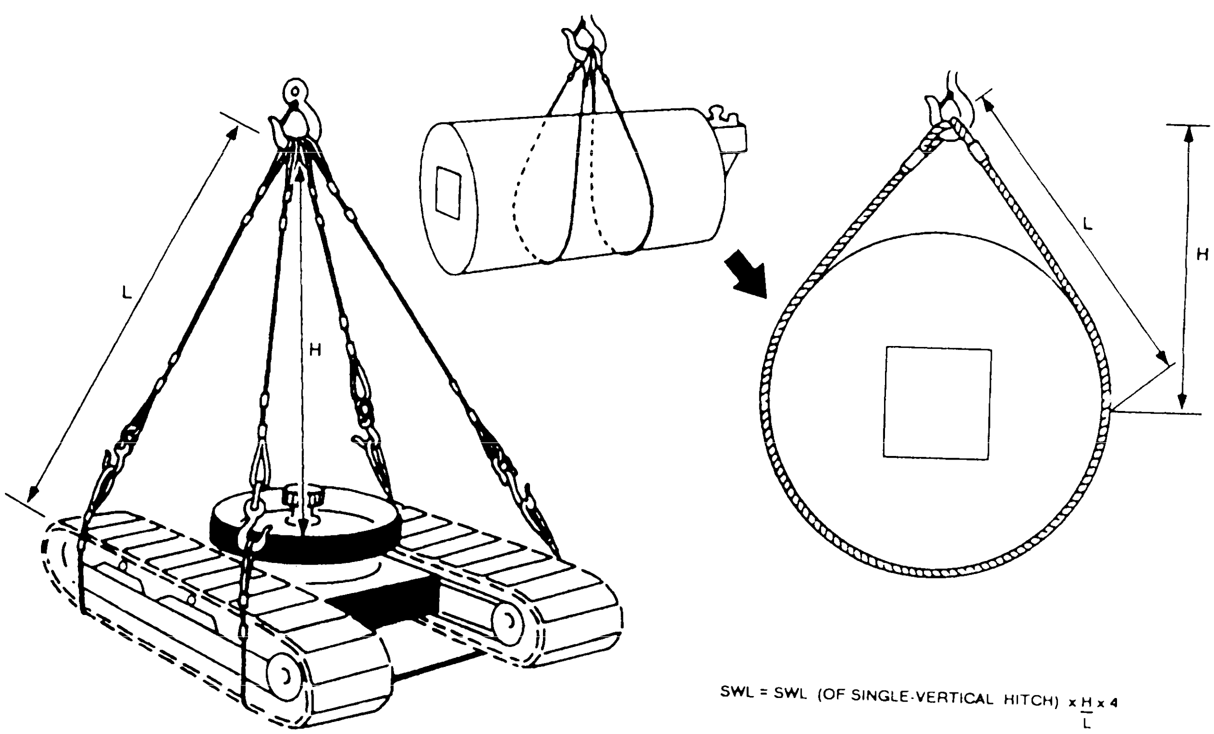


Figure 13-38.-Determination of double-basket hitch sling capacity.

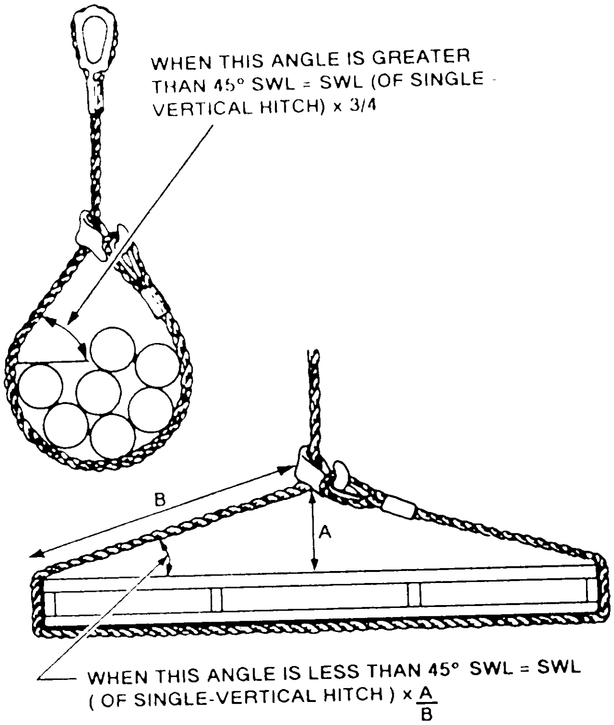


Figure 13-39.—Determination of single-choker hitch sling

Double-choker hitch (fig. 13-40): For sling angle of 45 degrees or more, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x 3 divided by 4 x H divided by L x 2.

Sling angles of less than 45 degrees, SWL = SWL (of single-vertical hitch) x A divided by B x H divided by L x 2.

Sling Inspection

All slings must be visually inspected for obvious unsafe conditions before each use. A determination to remove slings from service requires experience and good judgment, especially when evaluating the remaining strength in a sling after allowing for normal wear. The safety of the sling depends primarily upon the remaining strength. Wire rope slings must be immediately removed from service if any of the following conditions are present:

- Six randomly distributed broken wires in one rope lay or three broken wires in one strand in one lay

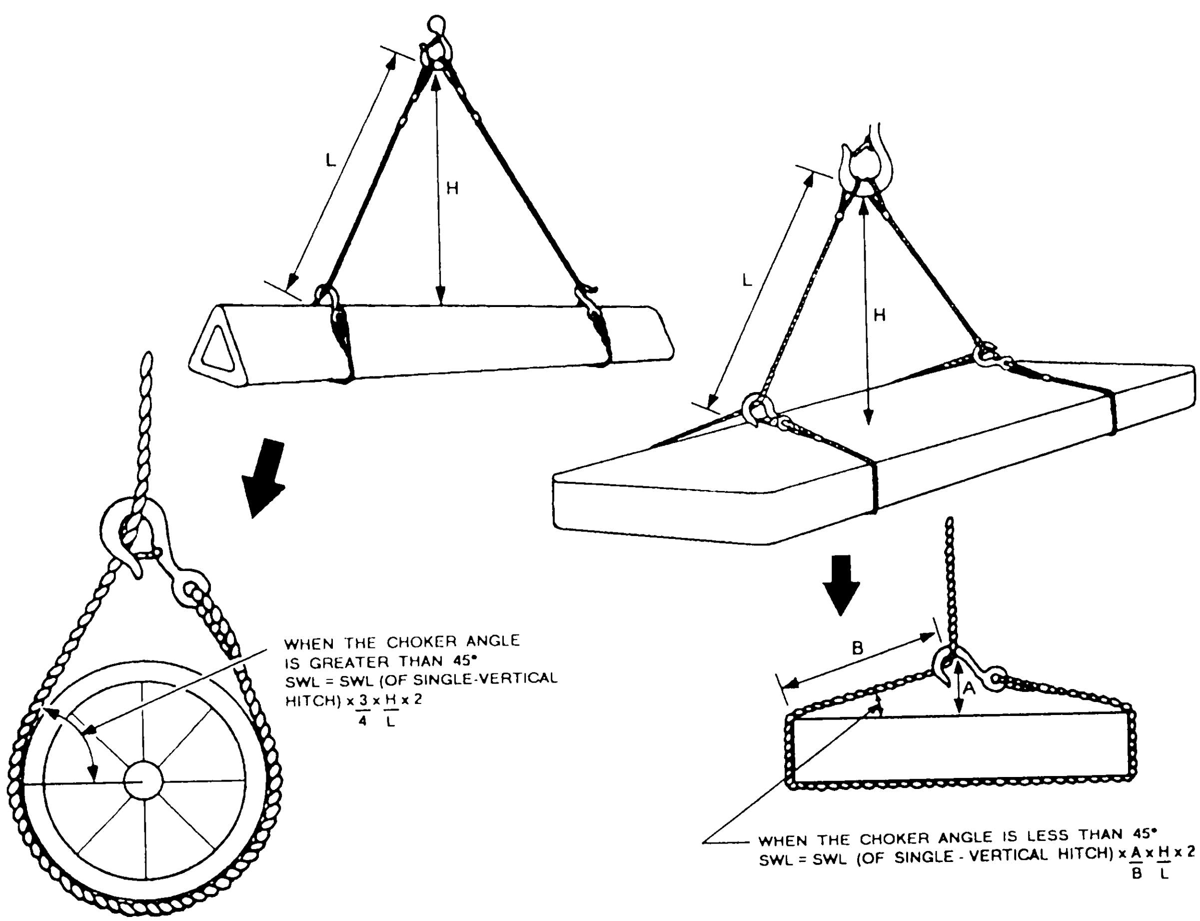


Figure 13-40.—Determination of double-choker hitch sling capacity.

- Wear or scraping on one third of the original diameter of outside individual wires

- Kinking, crushing, bird caging, or any other damage resulting in distortion of the wire rope structure

- Evidence of heat damage

- End attachments that arc cracked, deformed, or worn

- Hooks that have an obviously abnormal (usually 15 percent from the original specification) throat opening, measured at the narrowest point or twisted more than 10 degrees from the plane of the unbent hook

- Corrosion of the wire rope sling or end attachments

To avoid confusion and to eliminate doubt, you must not downgrade slings to a lower rated capcity. A sling must be removed from service if it cannot safely lift the load capacity for which it is rated. Slings and hooks removed from service must be destroyed by cutting before disposal. This ensures inadvertent use by another unit.

When a leg on a multiple-leg bridle sling is unsafe, you only have to destroy the damaged or unsafe leg(s). Units that have the capability may fabricate replacement legs in the field, provided the wire rope replacement is in compliance with specifications. The NCF has a hydraulic swaging and splicing kit in the battalion Table of Allowance (TOA). The kit, 80092, contains the tools and equipment necessary to fabricate 3/8- through 5/8-inch sizes of wire rope slings. Before use, all fabricated slings must be proof-tested as outlined in the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11.

Spreader bars, shackles, hooks, and so forth, must also be visually inspected before each usc for obvious damage or deformation.

Check fiber line slings for signs of deterioration, caused by exposure to the weather. See whether any of the fibers have been broken or cut by sharp-edged objects.

Proof Testing Slings

All field fabricated slings terminated by mechanical splices, sockets, and pressed and swaged terminals must be proof-loaded before placing the sling in initial service.

The COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11 has rated capacity charts enclosed for numerous wire rope classifications. You must know the diameter, rope construction, type core, grade, and splice on the wire rope sling before referring to the charts. The charts will give you the vertical-rated capacity for the sling. The test weight for single-leg bridle slings and endless slings is the vertical-rated capacity (V. R. C.) multiplied by two (V.R.C. x 2 = sling test weight).

The test load for multiple-leg bridle slings must be applied to the individual legs and must be two times the vertical-rated capacity of a single-leg sling of the same size, grade, and wire rope construction. When slings and rigging are broken out of the TOA for field use, they must be proof-tested and tagged before being returned to CTR for storage.

Records

A card file system, containing a record of each sling in the unit's inventory, is established and maintained by the crane crew supervisor. Proof Test/Inspection Sheets (fig. 13-41) are used to document tests made on all items of weight-lifting slings, spreader bars, hooks, shackles, and so forth. These records are permanent and contain the following entries at a minimum:

1. Sling identification number (unit location and two-digit number with Alfa designation for each wire rope component)
2. Sling length
3. Cable body diameter (inches) and specifications
4. Type of splice
5. Rated capacity
6. Proof test weight
7. Date of proof test
8. Signature of proof test director

All the slings must have a permanently affixed, near the sling eye, durable identification tag containing the following information:

1. Rated capacity (in tons) (vert. SWL)
2. Rated capacity (in tons) (45-degree SWL)
3. Identification number

Spreader bars, shackles, and hooks must have the rated capacities and SWL permanent]y stenciled or stamped on them. OSHA identification tugs can be acquired at no cost from COMTHIRDNCB DET, Port Hueneme, California, or COMSECONDNCB DET, GulfPort, Mississippi. Metal dog tags are authorized providing the required information is stamped onto the tags.

WIRE ROPE SLING PROOF TEST/INSPECTION RECORD

Card ____ of ____

____________ DATE

____________ SLING I.D. NO.

Specification: ____________
Length: ____________
Cable body diameter: ____________
Type splice: ____________
Rated capacity (lbs): ____________
* Proof test weight (lbs): ____________
* Date of proof test: ____________ Proof test director sig: ____________
Date of inspection: ____________ Crane Supv inspector sig: ____________
Date of inspection: ____________ Crane Supv inspector sig: ____________
Date of inspection: ____________ Crane Supv inspector sig: ____________

REMARKS:

* Applies only to field fabricated slings.

Figure 13-41.—Proof Test/Inspection Sheet.

Storage

Wire rope slings and associated hardware must be stored either in coils or on reels, hung in the rigging loft, or laid on racks indoors to protect them from corrosive weather and other types of damage, such as kinking or being backed over. Slings are not to be left on the crane at the end of the workday.

MECHANICAL, ADVANTAGE

The push or pull a human can exert depends on the weight and strength of that individual. To move any load heavier than the amount you can physically move, a mechanical advantage must be used to multiply your power. The most commonly used mechanical devices are block and tackle, chain hoist, and winches.

BLOCK AND TACKLE

A **block** (fig. 13-42) consists of one or more sheaves fitted in a wood or metal frame supported by a shackle

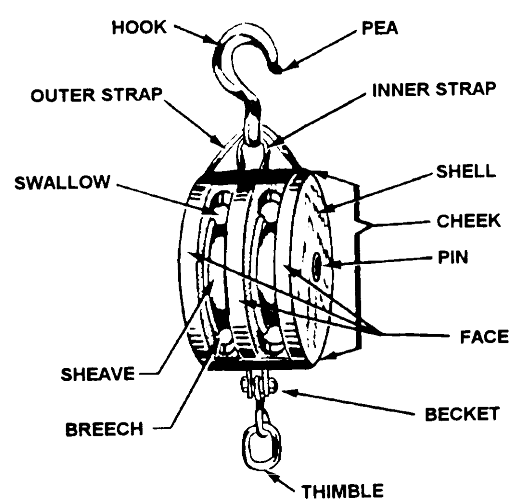


Figure 13-42.—Parts of a fiber line block.

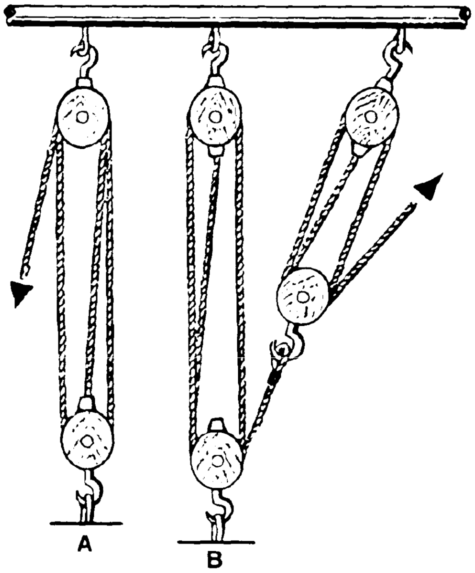


Figure 13-43.—A. Simple tackle; B. Compound tackle.

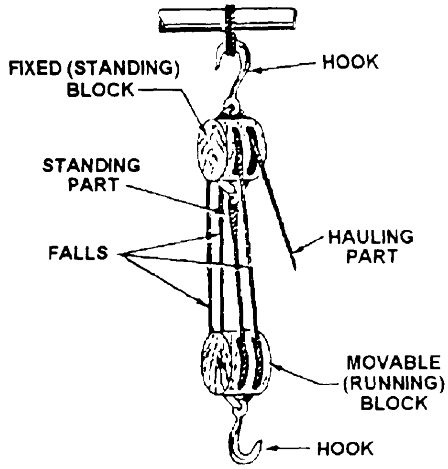


Figure 13-44.—Parts of a tackle.

inserted in the strap of the block. A **tackle** (fig. 13-43) is an assembly of blocks and lines used to gain a mechanical advantage in lifting and pulling.

In a tackle assembly, the line is reeved over the sheaves of blocks. The two types of tackle systems are **simple** and **compound.** A simple tackle system is an assembly of blocks in which a single line is used (fig. 13-43, view A). A compound tackle system is an assembly of blocks in which more than one line is used (fig. 13-43, view B).

Various terms used with a tackle, as shown in figure 13-44, are as follows:

- The **fall** is either a wire rope or a fiber line reeved through a pair of blocks to form a tackle.

- The **hauling part** of the fall leads from the block upon which the power is exerted. The **standing part** is the end which is attached to a becket.

- The **movable** (or **running) block** of a tackle is the block attached to a fixed objector support. When a tackle is being used, the movable block moves and the fixed block remains stationary.

- **"Two blocked"** means that both blocks of a tackle are as close together as they will go. You may also hear this term called **block and block.**

- To **"overhaul"** means to lengthen a tackle by pulling the two blocks apart.

- To **"round in"** means to bring the blocks of a tackle toward each other, usually without a load on the tackle (opposite of overhaul).

The block(s) in a tackle assembly change(s) the direction of pull, provide(s) mechanical advantage, or both. The name and location of the key parts of a fiber line block, as shown in figure 13-42, are as follows:

- The **frame** (or **shell),** made of wood or metal, houses the sheaves.

- The **sheave** is around, grooved wheel over which the line runs. Usually the blocks will have one, two, three, or four sheaves. Some blocks will have up to eleven sheaves.

- The **cheeks** are the solid sides of the frame or shell.

- The **pin** is a metal axle that the sheave turns on. It runs from cheek to cheek through the middle of the sheave.

- The **becket** is a metal loop, formed at one or both ends of a block; the standing part of the line is fastened to the becket.

- The **straps** hold the block together and support the pin on which the sheaves rotate.

- The **shallow** is the opening in the block through which the line passes.

- The **breech** is the part of the block opposite the swallow.

Blocks are constructed for use with fiber line or wire rope. Wire rope blocks are heavily constructed and have large sheaves with deep grooves. Fiber line blocks are generally not as heavily constructed as wire rope blocks and have smaller sheaves with shallow, wide grooves. A large sheave is needed with wire rope to prevent sharp bending. Because fiber line is more flexible and pliable, it does not require sheaves as large as that required for wire rope of the same size.

Blocks, fitted with one, two, three, or four sheaves, are often referred to as single, double, triple, and quadruple blocks. Blocks are fitted with a number of attachments, such as hooks, shackles, eyes, and rings. Figure 13-45 shows two metal framed, heavy-duty blocks. Block A is designed for manila line, and block B is for wire rope.

Block to Line Ratio

The size of a fiber line block is designated by the length in inches of the shell or cheek. The size of a standard wire rope block is controlled by the diameter of the rope. With nonstandard and special-purpose wire rope blocks, the size is found by measuring the diameter of one of its sheaves in inches.

Use care in selecting the proper size line or wire for the block to be used. If a fiber line is reeved onto a tackle whose sheaves are below a certain minimum diameter, the line becomes distorted that causes unnecessary wear. A wire rope too large for a sheave tends to be pinched that damages the sheave. Also, the wire will be damaged because of too short a radius of bend. A wire rope too small for a sheave lacks the necessary bearing surface, puts the strain on only a few strands, and shortens the life of the wire.

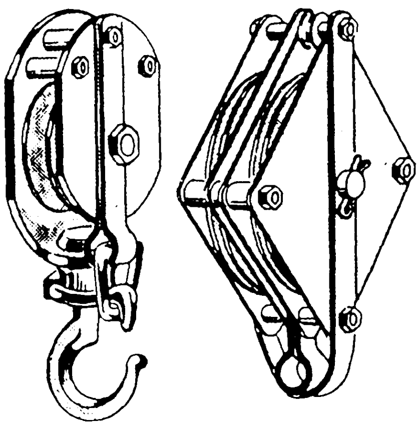


Figure 13-45.-Heavy-duty blocks.

With fiber line, the length of the block used should be about three times the circumference of the line. However, an inch or so either way does not matter too much; for example, a 3-inch line maybe reeved onto an 8-inch block with no ill effects. As a rule, you are more likely to know the block size than the sheave diameter. However, the sheave diameter should be about twice the size of the circumference of the line used.

Wire rope manufacturers issue tables that give the proper sheave diameters used with the various types and sizes of wire rope they manufacture. In the absence of these, a rough rule of thumb is that the sheave diameter should be about 20 times the diameter of the wire. Remember with wire rope, it is the **diameter,** rather than circumference, and this rule refers to the diameter of the sheave, rather than to the size of the block, as with line.

Block Safety

Safety items when using block and tackle are as follows:

- Always stress **safety** when hoisting and moving heavy objects around personnel with block and tackle.

- Always check the condition of blocks and sheaves before using them on a job to make sure they are in safe working order. See that the blocks are properly greased. Also, make sure that the line and sheave are the right size for the job.

- Remember that sheaves or drums which have become worn, chipped, or corrugated must not be used, because they will injure the line. Always find out whether you have enough mechanical advantage in the amount of blocks to make the load as easy to handle as possible.

- You must NOT use wire rope in sheaves and blocks designed for fiber line. They are not strong enough for that type of service, and the wire rope will not properly fit the sheaves grooves. Likewise, sheaves and blocks built for wire rope should NEVER be used for fiber line.

CHAIN HOISTS

Chain hoists provide a convenient and efficient method for hoisting by hand under particular circumstances. The chief advantages of chain hoists are that the load can remain stationary without requiring attention and that the hoist can be operated by one man to raise loads weighing several tons. The slow lifting travel of a chain hoist permits small movements, accurate adjustment of height, and gentle handling of loads. A ratchet handle pull hoist is used for short, horizontal pulls on heavy objects. Chain hoists differ widely in their mechanical advantage, depending upon their rated capacity.

Three general types of chain hoists for vertical operation are the spur gear hoist, the differential chain hoist, and the screw gear hoist.

The spur gear hoist (fig. 13-46, view A) is the most satisfactory for ordinary operations. This type of hoist is about 85 percent efficient. The differential chain hoist (fig. 13-46, view B) is only about 35 percent efficient and is satisfactory for occasional use and light loads. The screw gear hoist is about 50 percent efficient and is satisfactory where less frequent use of the hoist is required.

Chain hoists arc usually stamped with their load capacities on the shell of the upper block. Chain hoists

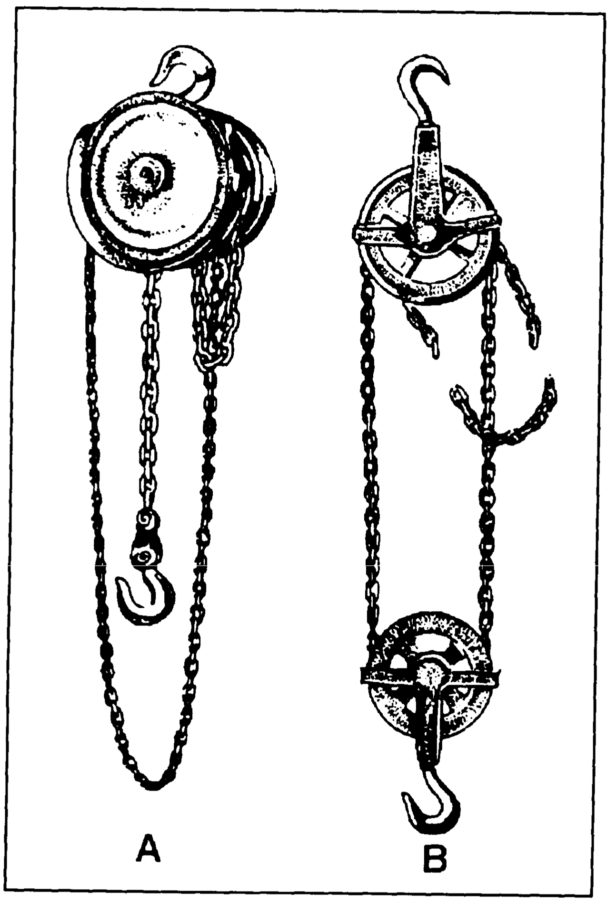


Figure 13-46.-A. Spur gear chain hoist; B. Differential chain hoist.

are constructed with their lower hook as the weakest part of the assembly. This is done as a precaution, so the lower hook will be overloaded before the chain hoist is overloaded. The lower hook will start to spread under load, indicating the approaching overload limit. Under ordinary circumstances the pull, exerted on a chain hoist by one or two people, will not overload the hoist.

Chain hoists should be inspected before each use. Any evidence of spreading of the hook or excessive wear is sufficient cause to require replacement of the hook. If the links of the chain are distorted, it indicates that the chain hoist has been heavily overloaded and probably unsafe for further use. Under such circumstances the chain hoist should be condemned. Before using any permanently mounted chain hoists, you should ensure that the annual certification is current.

WINCHES

Vehicular-mounted winches and engine-driven winches are sometimes used in conjunction with tackles for hoisting. When placing a power winch to operate hoisting equipment, you must consider two points. First, you must consider the angle with the ground that the hoisting line makes at the drum of the hoist. This angle is sometimes referred to as **ground angle,** as shown in figure 13-47. The second point to consider is the **fleet angle** of the hoisting line winding on the drum, as shown

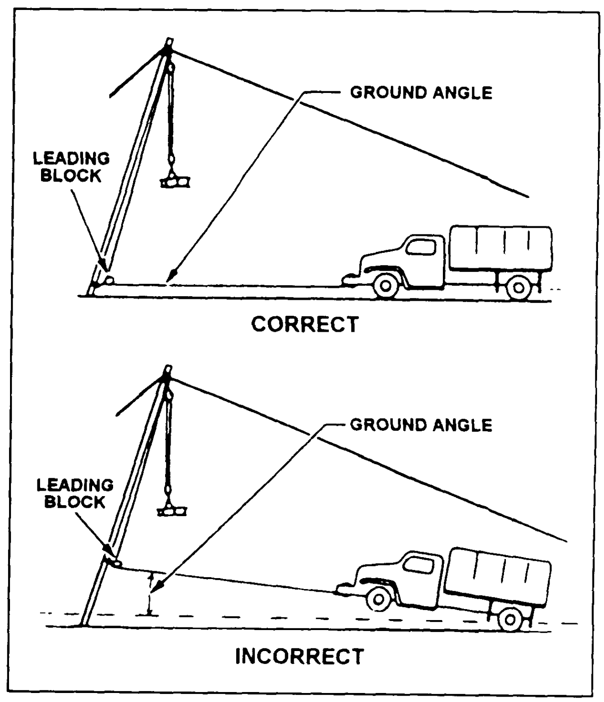


Figure 13-47.—Vehicle winch used for hoisting.

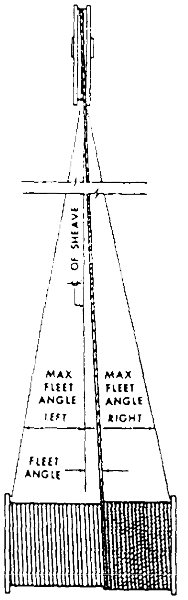


Figure 13-48.—Fleet angle of winch.

in figure 13-48. The distance from the drum to the sheave is the controlling factor in the fleet angle.

When you are using vehicle-mounted winches, the vehicle should be placed in a position which permits the operator to watch the load being hoisted. A winch is most effective when the pull is exerted on the bare drum of the winch. When a winch is rated at capacity, the rating applies only as the first layer of cable is wound onto the drum. The winch capacity is reduced as each layer of cable is wound onto the drum because of the change in leverage, resulting from the increased diameter of the drum. The capacity of the winch maybe reduced by as much as 50 percent when the last layer is being wound onto the drum.

Ground Angle

If the hoisting line leaves the drum at an angle upward from the ground, the resulting pull on the winch will tend to lift it off the ground. In this case, a leading block must be placed in the system at some distance from the drum to change the direction of the hoisting line to a horizontal or downward pull. The hoisting line should be overwound or underwound on the drum as may be necessary to avoid a reverse bend.

Fleet Angle

The drum of the winch is placed so that a line from the last block passing through the center of the drum is at right angles to the axis of the drum. The angle between this line and the hoisting line as it winds on the drum is call the fleet angle. As the hoisting line is wound in on the drum, it moves from one flange to the other, so the fleet angle changes during the hoisting process. The fleet angle should not be permitted to exceed 2 degrees and should be kept below this if possible. A 1 1/2-degree maximum angle is satisfactory and will be obtained if the distance from the drum to the first sheave is 40 inches for each inch from the center of the drum flange. The wider the drum of the hoist, the greater the lead distance must be in placing the winch.

RIGGING SAFE OPERATING PROCEDURES

All personnel involved with the use of rigging gear should be thoroughly instructed and trained to comply with the following practices:

1. Wire rope slings must not be used with loads that exceed the rated capacities outlined in enclosure (2) of the COMSECOND/COMTHIRDNCBINST 11200.11. Slings not included in the enclosure must be used only according to the manufacturer's recommendation.

2. Determine the weight of a load before attempting any lift.

3. Select a sling with sufficient capacity rating.

4. Examine all hardware, equipment, tackle, and slings before using them and destroy all defective components.

5. Use the proper hitch.

6. Guide loads with a tag line when practical.

7. When using multiple-leg slings, select the longest sling practical to reduce the stress on the individual sling legs.

8. Attach the sling securely to the load.

9. Pad or protect any sharp corners or edges the sling may come in contact with to prevent chaffing.

10. Keep the slings free of kinks, loops, or twists.

11. Keep hands and fingers from between the sling and the load.

12. To avoid placing shock on the loading slings, you should start the lift slowly.

13. Keep the slings well lubricated to prevent corrosion.

14. Do not pull the slings from under a load when the load is resting on the slings; block the load up to remove the slings.

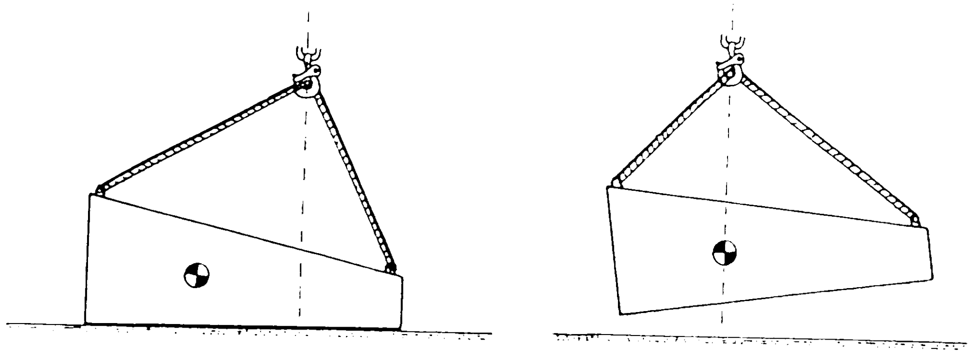


Figure 13-49.—Load shifting when Lifted.

15. Do not shorten a sling by knotting or using wire rope clips.

16. Do not inspect wire rope slings by passing bare hands over the rope. Broken wires, if present, may cause serious injuries. When practical, leather palm gloves should be worn when working with wire rope slings.

17. Center of balance. Stability of the load is important in the rigging process. A stable load is a load in which the center of balance of the load is directly below the hook, as shown in figure 13-49. When a load is suspended, it will always shift to that position below the hook. To rig a stable load, establish the center of balance (C/B). Once you have done this, simply swing the hook over the C/B and select the length of sling needed from the hook to the lifting point of the load.

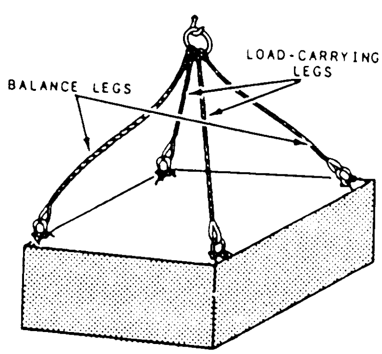


Figure 13-50.—Multi-legged bridle sling lifting a load.

18. When using a multi-legged bridle sling, do not forget it is wrong to assume that a three- or four-leg hitch will safely lift a load equal to the safe load on one leg multiplied by the number of legs. With a four-legged bridle sling lifting a rigid load, it is possible for two of the legs to support practically the full load while the other two only balance it (fig. 13-50).

NOTE: If all the legs of a multi-legged sling are not required, secure the remaining legs out of the way, as shown in figure 13-51.

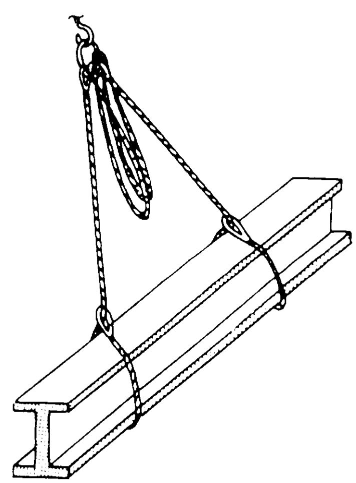


Figure 13-51.—Secure sling legs that are not used.

APPENDIX I

GLOSSARY

AGGREGATE— Crushed rock or gravel, screened to sizes for use in road surfaces, concrete, or bituminous mixes.

ANGLING DOZER (Angledozer)—A bulldozer with a blade that can be pivoted on a vertical center pin so as to cast its load to either side.

APRON— The front gate of a scraper body.

ASPHALT— A dark brown to black cementitious material in which the predominating constituents are bitumens that occur in nature or are obtained in petroleum processing. Asphalt is a constituent in varying proportions of most crude petroleums.

ASPHALT CEMENT— A fluxed or unfluxed asphalt specially prepared as to quality and consistency for direct use in the manufacture of asphalt pavements.

ASPHALT CONCRETE— High-quality thoroughly controlled hot mixture of asphalt cement and well-graded, high-quality aggregate, thoroughly compacted into a uniform, dense mass.

ASPHALT LEVELING COURSE— A course (asphalt aggregate mixture) of variable thickness used to eliminate irregularities in the contour of an existing surface before a superimposed treatment or construction.

ASPHALT, MEDIUM-CURING (MC)— Cutback asphalt, composed of asphalt cement and a kerosene type of diluent of medium volatility.

ASPHALT, RAPID-CURING (RC)— Cutback asphalt, composed of asphalt cement and naphtha or gasoline type of diluent of high volatility.

ASPHALT, SLOW-CURING (SC)— Cutback asphalt, composed of asphalt cement and oils of low volatility.

AUGER— A rotating drill having a screw thread that carries cuttings away from the face.

AUXILIARY— A helper or standby engine or unit.

AXIS OF ROTATION— The vertical line around which the upper structure rotates.

AXLE, LIVE— A revolving horizontal shaft.

BACKFILL— (1) The material used in refilling a ditch or other excavation. (2) The process of such refilling.

BAIL BLOCK— Block attached to a dragline bucket, through which rope line is reeved. Also referred to as "PADLOCK."

BAIL (BUCKET)— A yoke or spreader, hinged to the sides of a dragline bucket, to which is attached a connecting sheave or chain for hoisting and dragging operations.

BALL JOINT— A connection, consisting of a ball and socket, that will allow a limited hinge movement in any direction.

BANK— Specifically, a mass of soil rising above a digging or trucking level. Generally, any soil that is to be dug from its natural position.

BANK GRAVEL— Gravel found in natural deposits, usually more or less intermixed with fine material, such as sand or clay, and combinations thereof; gravelly clay, gravelly sand, clayey gravel, and sandy gravel indicate the varying proportions of the materials in the mixture.

BASE COURSE— The layer of material immediately beneath the surface or intermediate course. It may be composed of crushed stone, crushed slag, crushed or uncrushed gravel and sand, or combinations of these materials. It also may be bound with asphalt.

BANK YARDS— Yards of soil or rock measured in its original position (before digging).

BEDROCK— Solid rock, as distinguished from boulders.

BENCH— A working level or step in a cut that is made in several layers.

BINDER— (1) Fines which hold gravel together when it is dry. (2) A deposit check that makes a contract valid.

BITUMEN— A class of black or dark-colored (solid, semisolid, or viscous) cementitious substance, natural or manufactured, composed principally of high molecular weight hydrocarbons, or which asphalts, tars, pitches, and asphaltites are typical.

BLASTING MAT– A heavy, flexible fabric of woven wire rope or chain, used to confine blasts.

BLEEDING OR FLUSHING– Is the upward movement of asphalt in an asphalt pavement, resulting in the formation of a film of asphalt on the surface. The most common cause is too much asphalt in one or more of the pavement courses, resulting from too rich a plant mix, an improperly constructed seal coat, too heavy a prime or tack coat, or solvent-carrying asphalt to the surface. Bleeding or flushing usually occurs in hot weather.

BLUE TOPS— Grade stakes with blue tops to indicate finish grade level, usually a 2-inch by 2-inch by 6-inch hub stake.

BM— Bench mark.

BODY— The load carrying part of a truck or scraper.

BOGIE AXLE— Two or more axles, mounted to a frame so as to distribute the load between the axles and permit vertical oscillation of the axles.

BOOM CHORD— A main corner member of a lattice type of boom.

BOOM, CRANE— A long, light boom, usually of lattice construction.

BOOM HOIST— Mechanism to control the elevation of the boom and to support it.

BOOM LACING– Structural truss members at angles to and supporting the boom chords of a lattice type of boom.

BOOM, LATTICE— A long, light boom fabricated of crisscrossed steel or aluminum angles or tubing.

BOOM LENGTH— Boom length is a straight line through the center line of the boom pivot pinto the center line of the boom point load hoist sheave pin, measured along the longitudinal axis of the boom.

BOWL— (1) The bucket or body of a carrying scraper. (2) Sometimes the moldboard or blade of a dozer.

BUCKET— A part of an excavator that digs, lifts, and carries dirt.

BULLDOZER— (1) A tractor equipped with a front pusher blade. (2) In a machine shop, a horizontal press.

CAPILLARY ATTRACTION— The tendency of water to move into fine spaces, as between soil particles, regardless of gravity.

CASING— A pipe lining for a drilled hole.

CAT— (1) A trademark designation for any machine made by the Caterpillar Tractor Company. (2) Widely used to indicate a crawler tractor of any make.

CAT HEAD— A capstan winch.

CATWALK— A pathway, usually of wood or metal, that gives access to parts of large machines.

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE— Outward force exerted by a body moving in a curved line. It is the force that tends to tip a car over in going around a curve.

C-FRAME— An angling dozer lift and push frame.

CHECK VALVE— Any device that will allow fluid or air to pass through it in only one direction.

CHOKER— A chain or cable so fastened that it tightens on its load as it is pulled.

CIRCLE REVERSE— The mechanism that changes the angle of a grader blade.

CLAM— A clamshell bucket.

CLAMSHELL— (1) A shovel bucket with two jaws that clamp together by their own weight when it is lifted by the closing line. (2) A crane equipped with a clamshell bucket.

CLAMSHELL BUCKET— Usually consists of two or more similar scoops hinged together and a head assembly connected to the outer corners by struts. When the head and hinge are pulled toward each other, the scoops are forced together to dig and hold material. Control is by a holding line reeved over a boom point sheave and attached to the head assembly to support the bucket in open position and usually by a closing line also reeved over a boom point sheave, ending in a force amplifying tackle or other means between the head assembly and scoop hinge to close the bucket.

CLAMSHELL BUCKET, HYDRAULIC— Usually consists of two or more scoops hinged to a head assembly housing the hydraulic cylinder or cylinders and the force amplifying linkage to open and close the scoops and to supply the digging force for the scoops. The bucket assembly is suspended from the boom by a rope. Because digging ability is largely dependent upon bucket weight, buckets are supplied in various weight classes which range from light, for easily dug stockpiled materials, to heavy, for excavating hardpan material and the like.

CLAMSHELL EQUIPMENT— Machines with clamshell attachments are used to load material from stockpiles, gondola cars, barges, and the like, or from virgin soil generally out of small-area holes, deep trenches, or from below water. Orange peel buckets, grapples, and similar rope suspended attachments are included in this classification.

CLOSING LINE— The rope reeved from the hoist drum to control closing of a rope-operated clamshell bucket.

COFFERDAM— A set of temporary walls, designed to keep soil and/or water from entering an excavation.

COLLAR— A sliding ring, mounted on a shaft so that it does not revolve with it, used in clutches and transmissions.

COMPACTION— The act of compressing a given volume. Insufficient compaction of the asphalt pavement courses may result in channeling on the pavement surface. Compaction is usually accomplished by rolling.

CONVEYOR BELT— An endless belt of rubber-covered fabric that transports material on its upper surface.

CORRUGATIONS (WASHBOARDING) AND SHOVING— Are types of pavement distortion. Corrugation is a form of plastic movement typified by ripples across the asphalt pavement surface. Shoving is a form of plastic movement, resulting in localized bulging of the pavement surface. These distortions usually occur at points where traffic starts and stops, on hills where vehicles brake on the downgrade, on sharp curves, or where vehicles hit a bump and bounce up and down. They occur in asphalt layers that lack stability. Lack of stability may be caused by a mixture that is too rich in asphalt, has too high a proportion of fine aggregate, has coarse or fine aggregate that is too round or too smooth, or has asphalt cement that is too soft. It may also be due to excessive moisture, contamination due to oil spillage, or lack of aeration when placing mixes using liquid asphalt.

CRACKS— Breaks in the surface of an asphalt pavement.

CRACKS, ALLIGATOR— Interconnected cracks forming a series of small blocks resembling an alligator's skin or chicken wire, caused by excessive deflection of the surface over unstable subgrade or lower courses of the pavement.

CRACKS, EDGE JOINT— Are the separation of the joints between the pavement and the shoulder, commonly caused by the alternate wetting and drying beneath the shoulder surface. Other causes are shoulder settlement, mix shrinkage, and trucks straddling the joint.

CRACKS, LANE JOINT— Longitudinal separation along the seam between two paving lanes caused by a weak scam between adjoining spreads in the courses of the pavement.

CRACKS, REFLECTION— Cracks in asphalt overlays that reflect the crack pattern in the pavement structure underneath. They are caused by vertical or horizontal movements in the pavement beneath the overlay, brought on by expansion and contraction with temperature or moisture changes.

CRACKS, SHRINKAGE— Are interconnected cracks forming a series of large blocks, usually with sharp corners or angles. Frequently they are caused by volume change in either the asphalt mix or in the base or subgrade.

CRACKS, SLIPPAGE— Are crescent-shaped cracks that are open in the direction of the thrust of wheels on the pavement surface. They result when there is a lack of good bond between the surface layer and the course beneath.

CRANE— A mobile machine, used for lifting and moving loads without the use of a bucket.

CRANE MATS— A device, used for supporting machines on soft ground, usually of timber construction.

CREEP— (1) Very slow travel of a machine or a part. (2) Unwanted turning of a shaft due to drag in a fluid coupling or other disconnect device.

CRUMBER— A blade that follows the wheel or ladder of a ditching machine to clean and shape the bottom.

CULVERT— A pipe or small bridge for drainage under a road or structure.

CURVE, VERTICAL— A change in gradient of the center line of a road or pipe.

CUTBACK ASPHALTS— Mixture of asphalt cement and a cutting agent. There are three main types.

DATUM— Any level surface taken as a plane of reference from which to measure elevations.

DEADHEADING— Traveling without a load, except when traveling from the dumping area to the loading point.

DENSITY— The ratio of the weight of a substance to its volume.

DIESELING— In a compressor, explosions of mixtures of air and lubricating oil in the compression chambers and/or other parts of the air system.

DOLLY— A unit consisting of a draw tongue, an axle with wheels, and a turntable platform to support a gooseneck trailer.

DOUBLE-CLUTCHING— Disengaging and engaging the clutch twice during a single-gear shift (change of gears) to synchronize gear speeds.

DOWNSTREAM FACE— The dry side of a dam.

DOZER— Abbreviation of bulldozer.

DRAFT— Resistance to movement of a towed load.

DRAGLINE— A crane with a dragline attachment, used to excavate material from below the grade on which the crane is sitting.

DRAWBAR— A fixed or hinged bar, extending to the rear of a tractor and used as a fastening for lines and towed machines or loads.

DRAWBAR HORSEPOWER— A tractor's flywheel horsepower minus friction and slippage losses in the drive mechanism and the tracks or tires.

DRAWBAR PULL— The pull that a tractor can exert on a load attached to the drawbar. Depends on power, weight, and traction.

DRILL COLLAR— Thick-walled drill pipe, used immediately above a rotary bit to provide extra weight.

DRILL, PERCUSSION— A drill that hammers and rotates a steel and bit. Sometimes limited to large blast hole drills of the percussion type.

DRILL PIPE— The sections of a rotary drilling string, connecting the kelly with the bit or collars.

DRIVE SPROCKET— A drive roller with teeth that engage matching recesses or pins (bushings) in the track assembly.

DROP HAMMER— A pile-driving hammer that is lifted by a cable and that obtains striking power by falling freely.

DRUM, SPUDDING— In a churn drill, the winch that controls the drilling line.

EJECTOR— A clean-out device, usually a sliding plate.

EMBANKMENT— A fill whose top is higher than the adjoining surface.

EROSION— Wear caused by moving water or wind.

FACE— (1) The more or less vertical surface of rock exposed by blasting or excavating or the cutting end of a drill hole. (2) An edge of rock used as a starting point in figuring drilling and blasting. (3) The width of a roll crusher.

FACTOR OF SAFETY— The ratio of the ultimate strength of the material to the allowable or working stress.

FAIRLEAD— A device which lines up cable so that it will wind smoothly onto a drum.

FEATHER— To blend the edge of new material into the old surface smoothly.

FIFTH WHEEL— The weight-bearing swivel connection between highway type of tractors and semitrailers.

FILL— An earth or broken rock structure or embankment. Soil or loose rock used to raise a grade. Soil that has no value except bulk.

FLOAT— In reference to a dozer blade, to rest by its own weight or to be held from digging by upward pressure of a load of dirt against its moldboard.

FOOT— In tamping rollers, one of a number of projections from a cylindrical drum.

FOOT-POUND— Unit of work equal to the force in pounds multiplied by the distance in feet through which it acts. When a 1-pound force is exerted through a 1-foot distance, 1 foot-pound of work is done.

FOUR BY FOUR (4 x 4)— A vehicle with four wheels or sets of wheels, all engine-driven.

FREE FALL— Lowering of the hook (with or without a load) without it being coupled to the power train with the lowering speed being controlled by a retarding device, such as a brake.

FRONT-END LOADER— A tractor loader with a bucket that operates entirely at the front end of the tractor.

FROST— Frozen soil.

FROST LINE— The greatest depth to which ground may be expected to freeze.

GANTRY— (1) An overhead structure that supports machines or operating parts. (2) An upward extension of the revolving frame of a crane that holds the boom line sheaves.

GEAR— A toothed wheel, cone, or bar.

GOOSENECK— An arched connection, usually between a tractor and a trailer.

GRADE— (1) Usually the elevation of a real or planned surface. (2) Also means surface slope.

GRADER— A machine with a centrally located blade that can be angled to cast to either side with an independent hoist control on each side.

GRADE STAKE— A stake indicating the amount of cut or fill required to bring the ground to a specified level.

GRAVEL— (1) Rock fragments from 2mm to 64 mm (.08 to 2.5 inches) in diameter. (2) A mixture of such gravel with sand, cobbles, boulders, and not over 15 percent fines.

GRIEF STEM— See “KELLY.”

GRIZZLY— (1) A coarse screen used to remove oversize pieces from earth or blasted rock. (Maybe spelled “grizzlie.”) (2) A gate or closure on a chute.

GROUND PRESSURE— The weight of a machine, divided by the area in square inches of the ground directly supporting it.

GROUSER— Projecting lug(s) attached to or integral with the ma chine track shoes to provide additional tract ion.

GRUBBING— Digging out roots.

HAND LEVEL— A sighting level that does not have a tripod, base, or telescope.

HARDPAN— (1) Hard, tight soil. (2) A hard layer that may form just below plow depth on cultivated land.

HAUL DISTANCE— (1) Is the distance measured along the center line or most direct practical route between the center of the mass of excavation and the center of mass of the fill as finally placed. (2) It is the distance the material is moved.

HOLDING LINE— The cable reeved from a hoist drum for holding a clamshell bucket or grapple suspended during dumping and lowering operations.

HOOK, PINTLE— A towing bracket, having a fixed lower part and a hinged upper one, which, when locked together, makes a round opening.

HOPPER— A storage bin or a funnel that is loaded from the top and discharges through a door or chute in the bottom.

HORSEPOWER— (1) A measurement of power that includes the factors of force and speed. (2) The force required to lift 33,000 pounds 1 foot in 1 minute.

HORSEPOWER, DRAWBAR— Horsepower available to move a tractor and its load after deducting losses in the power train.

HOLDING LINE— The hoist cable for a clamshell bucket.

IDLER— Large end roller of a track assembly at the opposite end from the drive sprocket; the roller is not power-driven.

INJECTOR— In a diesel engine, the unit that sprays fuel into the combustion chamber.

JACK— (1) A mechanical or hydraulic lifting device. (2) A hydraulic ram or cylinder.

JACKKNIFE— A tractor and trailer in such an angle that the tractor cannot move forward.

JAW— (1) In a clutch, one of a pair of toothed rings, the teeth of which face each other. (2) In a crusher, one of a pair of nearly flat faces separated by a wedge-shaped opening.

JIB BOOM— An extension piece, hinged to the upper end of a crane boom.

KELLY— A square or fluted pipe which is turned by a drill rotary table, while it is free to move up and down in the table. Also called a “GRIEF STEM.”

LAGGINGS— Removable and interchangeable drum spool shells for changing the hoist drum diameter to provide variation in rope speeds and line pulls.

LAY— The direction of twist in wires and strands in wire rope.

LAY, REGULAR— A wire rope construction in which the direction of twist of the wires in the strands is opposite to that of the strands in the rope.

LEVEL— To make level or to cause to conform to a specified grade.

LIFT— A layer or course of paving material, applied to a base or a previous layer.

LIP— The cutting edge of a bucket. Applied chiefly to edges including tooth sockets.

LOAD BINDER— A lever that pulls two grab hooks together and holds them by locking over the center.

LOADER, FRONT-END— A tractor loader that both digs and dumps in front.

LOAM— A soft easily worked soil, containing sand, silt, and clay.

LOOSE YARDS— Measurement of soil or rock after it has been loosened by digging or blasting.

LOW BED— A machinery trailer with a low deck.

LUFFING— Operation of changing the boom angle in the vertical plane. See "BOOM HOIST."

LUG DOWN— To slow down an engine by increasing its load beyond its capacity.

MASS DIAGRAM— A plotting of cumulative cuts and fills, used for engineering computation of construction jobs.

MINERAL DUST— The portion of the fine aggregate passing the 0.075-mm (No. 200) sieve.

MINERAL FILLER— A finely divided mineral product, at least 70 percent or which will pass a 0.075-mm (No. 200) sieve. Pulverized limestone is the most commonly manufactured filler, although other stone dust, hydrated lime, portland cement, and certain natural deposits of finely divided mineral matter are also used.

MISFIRE— Failure of all or part of an explosive charge to go off.

MOLDBOARD— A curved surface of a plow, dozer blade, grader blade, or other dirt-moving implement that gives dirt moving over it a rotary, spiral, or twisting movement.

MUCK— Mud rich in humus.

OIL— Any fluid lubricant, but not water.

OPEN-GRADED ASPHALT FRICTION COURSE— A pavement surface course that consists of high-void, asphalt plant mix that permits rapid drainage of rainwater through the course and out the shoulder. The mixture is characterized by a large percentage of one-sized coarse aggregate. This course prevents tire hydroplaning and provides a skid-resistant pavement surface.

OPTIMUM— Best.

OSCILLATION— Independent movement through a limited range, usually on a hinge.

OUTRIGGER— An outward extension of a frame that is supported by a jack or block, used to increase stability.

OVERBURDEN— Soil or rock lying on top of a pay formation.

PAN— A carrying scraper.

PAWL— A tooth or set of teeth, designed to lock against a ratchet.

PENETRATION— The consistency of a bituminous material expressed as a distance in tenths of a millimeter (0.1mm) that a standard needle penetrates vertically a sample of the material under specified conditions of loading, time, and temperature.

PERCENT OF GRADE— Measurement of slope, expressed as the ratio of the change in vertical distance (rise) to the change in horizontal distance (run) multiplied by 100.

PETCOCK— A small drain valve.

PILE CAP— An adapter between the pile-driving unit and the upper end of the pile, used to center the pile under the pile-driving unit and to reduce damage to the upper end of the pile.

PIONEERING— The first working over of rough or overgrown areas.

PIONEER ROAD— A primitive, temporary road built along the route of a job to provide means for moving equipment and men.

POND— A small lake.

PORT— Left side of a ship or boat.

POTHOLE— A small steel-sided hole caused by traffic wear.

POWER EXTRACTOR— A unit hanging from the hoist line or block and attached to the upper end of the pile and containing within itself a member (ram) which is caused to reciprocate either by means of externally supplied air, steam, or hydraulic fluid under pressure, or by internal combustion within the unit. Upward pull from the hoisting machinery supplements the extraction forces.

POWER PLANT— The power plant (or plants) includes the prime power source (which may be an internal combustion engine or electric motor) and the power takeoff.

POWER TAKEOFF— A place in a transmission or engine to which a shaft can be so attached as to drive an outside mechanism. A power takeoff may be direct drive, friction clutch, fluid coupling, hydrodynamic torque converter, hydrostatic, or an electric generator type.

POWER TRAIN— All moving parts connecting an engine with the point or points where work is accomplished.

PRIME MOVER— A tractor or other vehicle used to pull other machines.

PROPELLER SHAFT— Usually a main drive shaft fitted with universal joints.

PSI or psi— Pressure in pounds per square inch.

PUMP, DIAPHRAGM— A pump that moves water by the reciprocating motion of a diaphragm in a chamber having inlet and outlet check valves.

PUSHER— A tractor that pushes a scraper to help it pick up a load.

RAKE BLADE— A dozer blade or attachment made of spaced tines.

RAKE, ROCK— A heavy-duty rake blade.

RANGE POLE— A pole marked in alternate red and white bonds, 1 foot high.

RED TOPS— Grade stakes with red tops to indicate finish subgrade level, usually a 2-inch by 2-inch by 6-inch hub stake.

REFUSAL— The depth beyond which a pile cannot be driven.

RIPRAP— Heavy stones placed at the edge of the water to protect the soil from waves or current.

RIPPER— A towed machine, equipped with teeth, used primarily for loosening hard soil and soft rock.

ROAD OIL— A heavy petroleum oil, usually one of the slow-curing (sc) grades.

ROCK— The hard, firm, and stable parts of earth's crust.

ROTARY TILLER— A machine that loosens and mixes soil and vegetation by means of a high-speed rotor equipped with tines.

RPM or rpm— Revolutions per minute.

RUBBLE DRAINS— French drains.

RULE OF THUMB— A statement or formula that is not exactly correct but is accurate enough for use in rough figuring.

SAND— A loose soil, composed of particles between 1/16 mm and 2 mm in diameter.

SCRAPER (Carrying scraper) (Pan)— A digging, hauling, and grading machine, having a cutting edge, a carrying bowl, a movable front wall (apron), and a dumping or ejecting mechanism.

SCREEN— (1) A mesh or bar surface, used for separating pieces or particles of different sizes. (2) A filter.

SEIZE— To bind wire rope with soft wire to prevent it from raveling when it is cut.

SEMITRAILER— A towed vehicle whose front rests on the towing unit.

SHEEPSFOOT— A tamping roller with feet expanded at their outer tips.

SHOE— (1) A ground plate, forming a link of a track or bolted to a track link. (2) A support for a bulldozer blade or other digging edge to prevent cutting down. (3) A clean-up device following the buckets of a ditching machine.

SIDECASTING— Piling spoil alongside the excavation from which it is taken.

SNATCH BLOCK— A pulley in a case that can be easily fastened to lines or objects by means of a hook, ring, or shackle.

SPILLWAY— An overflow channel for a pond or a terrace channel.

SPROCKET— A gear that meshes with a chain or a crawler track.

STOCKPILE— Material dug and piled for future use.

STONE— Rock.

SUPERCHARGER— A blower that increases the intake pressure of an engine.

SURGE BIN— A compartment for temporary storage.

SWELL (Growth)— Increase of bulk in soil or rock when it is dug or blasted.

SWING LOCK— A swing lock is a mechanical engagement device, not dependent on friction, to hold the upper structure in one or more fixed positions with respect to the undercarriage. When provided, it must be constructed to prevent unintentional engagement or disengagement.

SWING BRAKE (Dynamic)— A dynamic swing brake is a device to stop, hold, or retard the rotating motion of the upper structure with respect to the undercarriage.

SWITCHBACK— A hair-pin curve.

TAG LINE— A line from a crane boom to a clamshell bucket that holds the bucket from spinning out of position.

TAMP— Pound or press soil to compact it.

TERRACE— A ridge, a ridge and hollow, or a flat bench built along a ground contour.

TERRAIN— Ground surface.

TOE— The projection of the bottom of a face beyond the top.

TOOTH ADAPTER— Main part of bucket or dipper to which a removable tooth is fastened.

TOPOGRAPHIC MAP— A map, indicating surface elevation and slope.

TOPSOIL— The topmost layer of soil, usually refers to soil containing humus that is capable of supporting good plant growth.

TORQUE— The twisting force exerted by or on a shaft (without reference to the speed of the shaft).

TRACK— A crawler track.

TRACK CARRIER ROLLERS— Rolling elements in/on a track frame that support and guide the upper track shoes or chain.

TRACK SHOES— The members of the track assembly that distribute the load to the supporting surface.

TRACTION— The total amount of driving push of a vehicle on a given surface.

TRENCH— A ditch.

TRUNNION (Walking beam or bar)— (1) An oscillating bar that allows changes in angle between a unit fastened to its center and another attached to both ends. (2) A heavy horizontal hinge.

UNDERCARRIAGE— The undercarriage is an assembly that supports the upper structure of the crane. It consists of an undercarriage frame, a swing bearing, or hook and load rollers, travel mechanism, and steering mechanism. The undercarriage may be either a crawler or wheeled type.

VISCOSITY— The resistance of a fluid to flow. A liquid with a high viscosity rating will resist flow more readily than will a liquid with a low viscosity. The Society of Automotive Engineers (S.A.E.) has developed a series of viscosity numbers for indicating viscosities of lubricating oils.

VOIDS— Empty spaces in a compacted mix, surrounded by asphalt-coated particles.

VOLTS— The electromotive force that will cause a current of 1 ampere to flow through a resistance of 1 ohm.

WATERLOGGED— Saturated with water. If conditions are too wet, you will be unable to work construction equipment.

WATERSHED— Area that drains into or pasta point.

WATER TABLE— The surface of underground, gravity-controlled water.

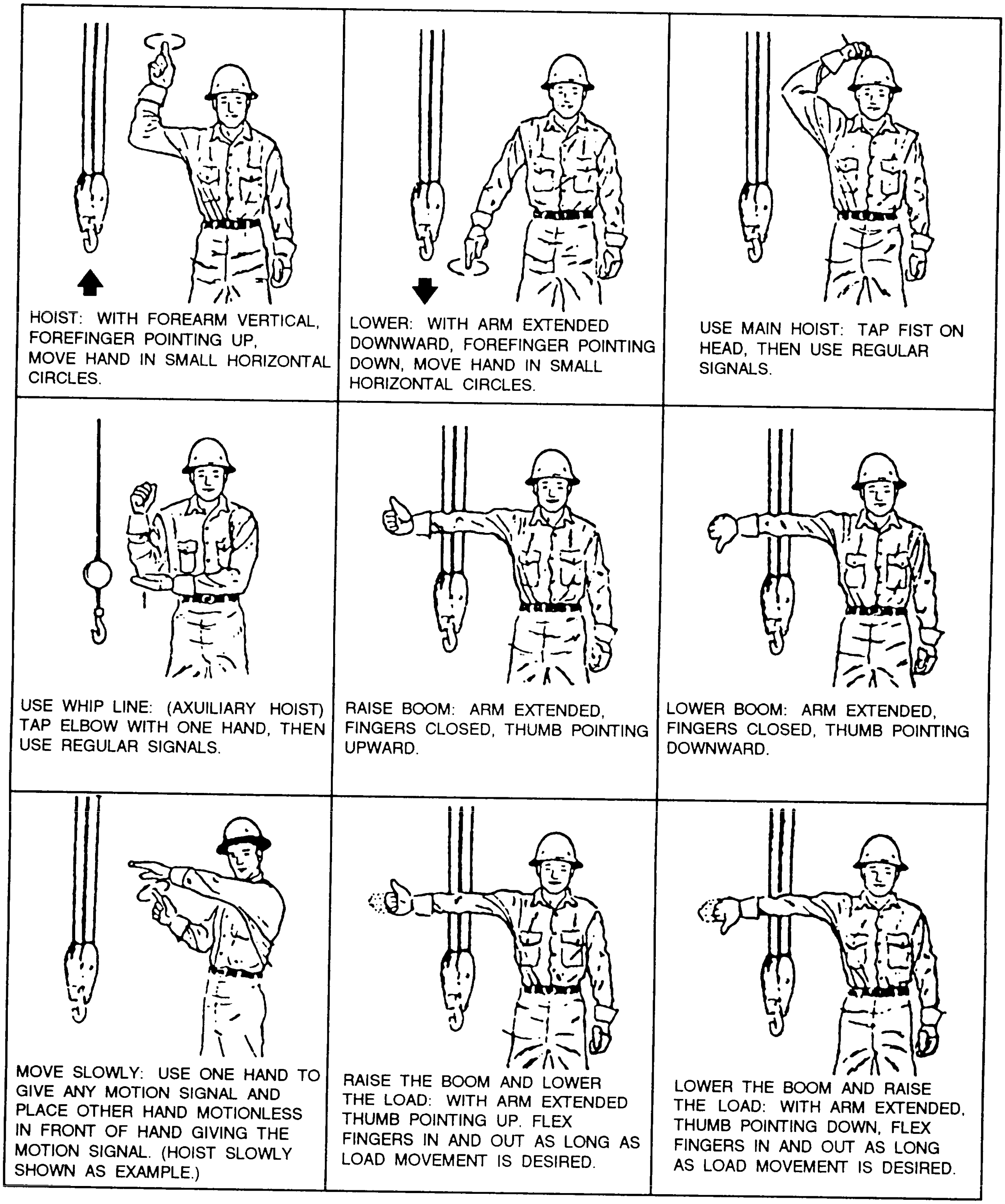
WHEEL AND AXLE ARRANGEMENT— The wheeled undercarriages.

WINCH— A drum that can be rotated so as to exert a strong pull while winding in a line.

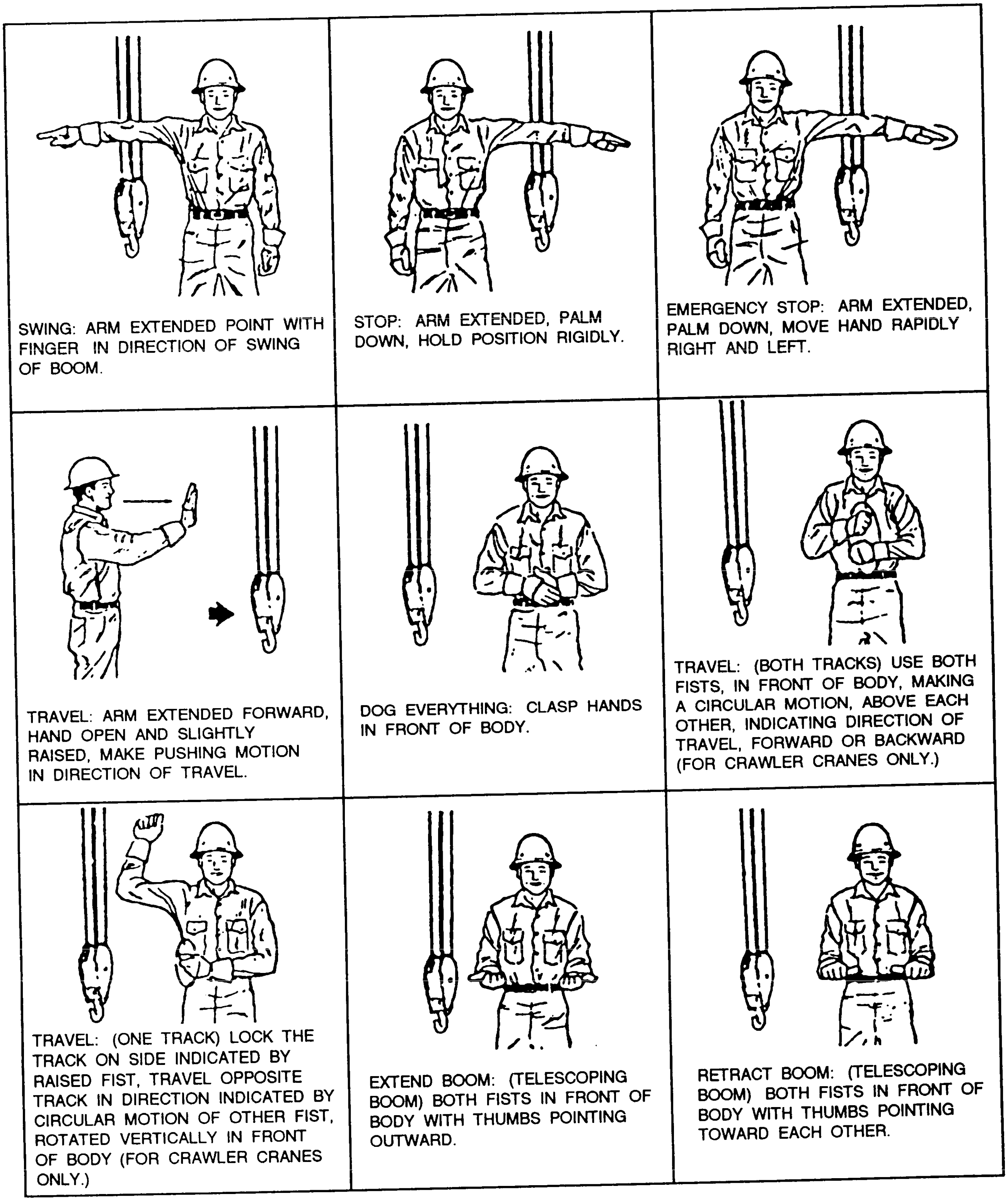
WINDROW— A ridge of loose dirt.

WING WALL— A wall that guides a stream into a bridge opening or culvert barrel.

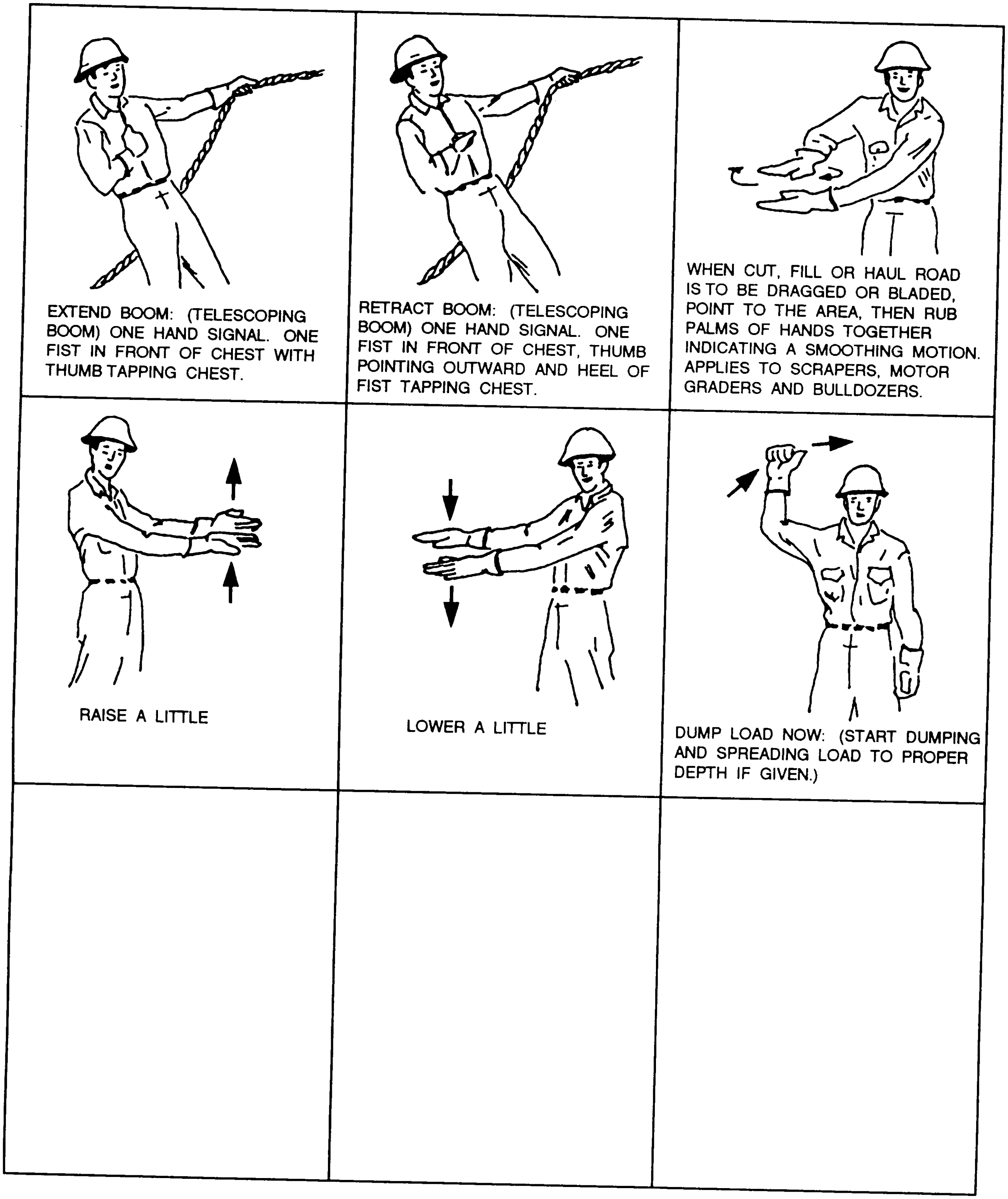
WORKING CYCLE— A complete set of operations. In an excavator, it usually includes loading, moving, dumping, and returning to the loading point.



AIV-1.—Standard Operator's Hand Signals.



AIV-1.—Standard Operator's Hand Signal—Continued.



AIV-1.—Standard Operator's Hand Signal—Continued.