



10.02.2019 – Week 1

Introduction to Materials Tests

Material Property

Hardness

➔ **Micro/Macro hardness tests**

Strength

Ductility (elongation, area of reduction)

➔ **Tension tests**

Creep (elevated-temperature strength)

➔ **Creep tests**

Torsion

➔ **Torsion tests**

Toughness (resistance to failure)

➔ **Impact tests**
Fracture toughness tests

Fatigue

➔ **S-N fatigue tests**
Fatigue crack growth tests

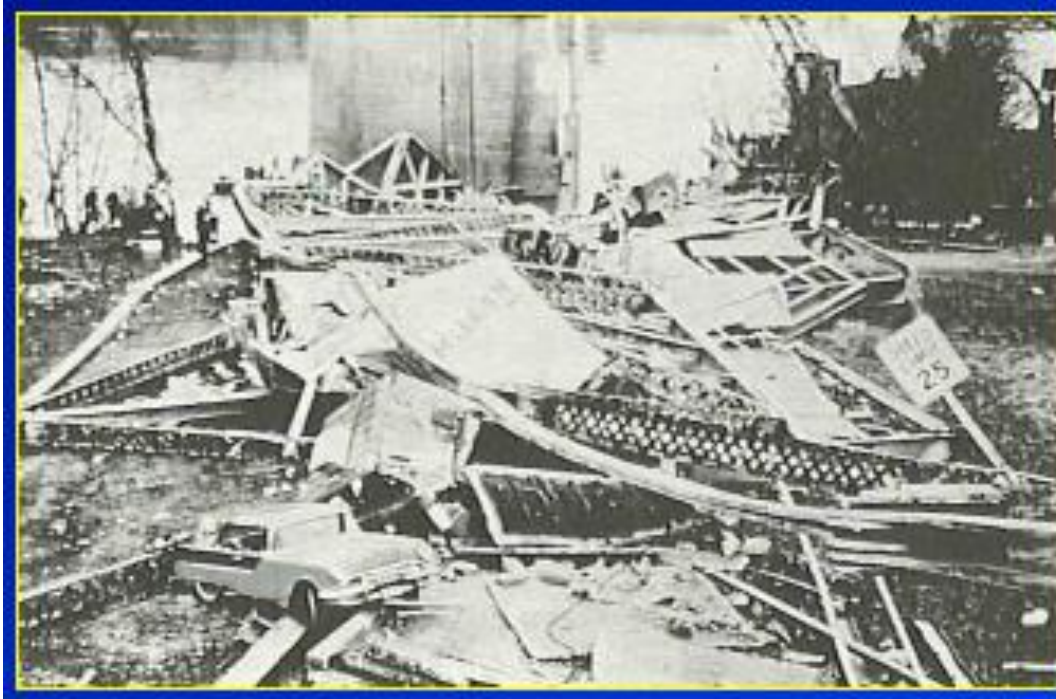
Why Material Failure



Seven of the Liberty ships built during the world war II has broken completely in two as a result of brittle fractures.

- Over **1000 of approximately 5000** merchant ships built during World War II had developed cracks of considerable size by 1946.

Why Material Failure



The bridge building industry did not pay particular attention to the possibility of brittle failure until the failure of Point Pleasant bridge in 1967.

The bridge collapsed without warning, costing 46 lives.

INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-1. Scope of materials testing**

The current course is concerned primarily with the response of metals to forces or loads. It is a combination of many disciplines and many approaches to the problem of understanding the response of materials to forces. On the one hand is the approach used in reference to strength of materials and in the theories of elasticity and plasticity, where a metal is considered to be a homogeneous material whose mechanical behavior can be rather precisely described on the basis of only a very few material constants. This approach is the basis for the rational design of structural members and machine parts.

INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-2. Strength of Materials—Basic Assumptions**

Strength of materials is the body of knowledge which deals with the relation between internal forces, deformation, and external loads. In the general method of analysis used in strength of materials the first step is to assume that the member is in equilibrium. The equations of static equilibrium are applied to the forces acting on some part of the body in order to obtain a relationship between the external forces acting on the member and the internal forces resisting the action of the external loads.

Important assumptions in strength of materials are that the body which is being analyzed is continuous, homogeneous, and isotropic.

INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-2. Strength of Materials—Basic Assumptions**

The internal resisting forces are usually expressed by the stress (*is defined as force per unit area “ σ ”. The companion term strain “ ϵ ” is defined as the change in length per unit length. More complete definitions will be given later.*) acting over a certain area, so that the internal force is the integral of the stress times the differential area over which it acts. In order to evaluate this integral, it is necessary to know the distribution of the stress over the area of the cutting plane. The stress distribution is arrived at by observing and measuring the strain distribution in the member, since stress cannot be physically measured.

INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-3. Elastic and Plastic Behavior**

Experience shows that all solid materials can be deformed when subjected to external load. It is further found that up to certain limiting loads a solid will recover its original dimensions when the load is removed.

The recovery of the original dimensions of a deformed body when the load is removed is known as elastic behavior. The limiting load beyond which the material no longer behaves elastically is the elastic limit. If the elastic limit is exceeded, the body will experience a permanent set or deformation when the load is removed. A body which is permanently deformed is said to have undergone plastic deformation.

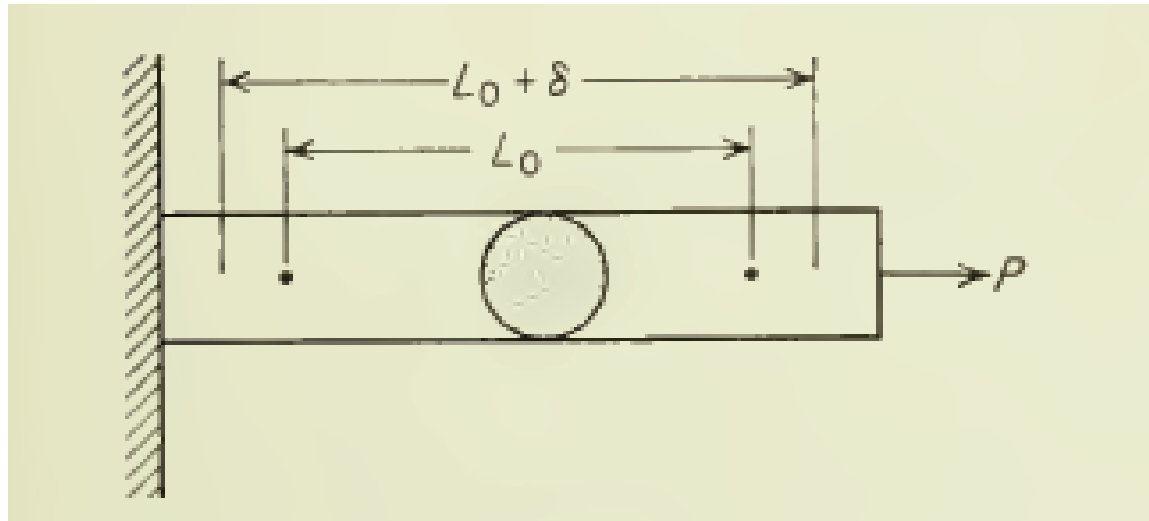
INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- 1-4. Average Stress and Strain

$$\sigma = P/A.$$

$$\varepsilon = \delta/L_0.$$

E = σ/ε = Constant. The constant **E** is the modulus of elasticity, or Young's modulus.



INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- 1-5. Tensile Deformation of Ductile Metal

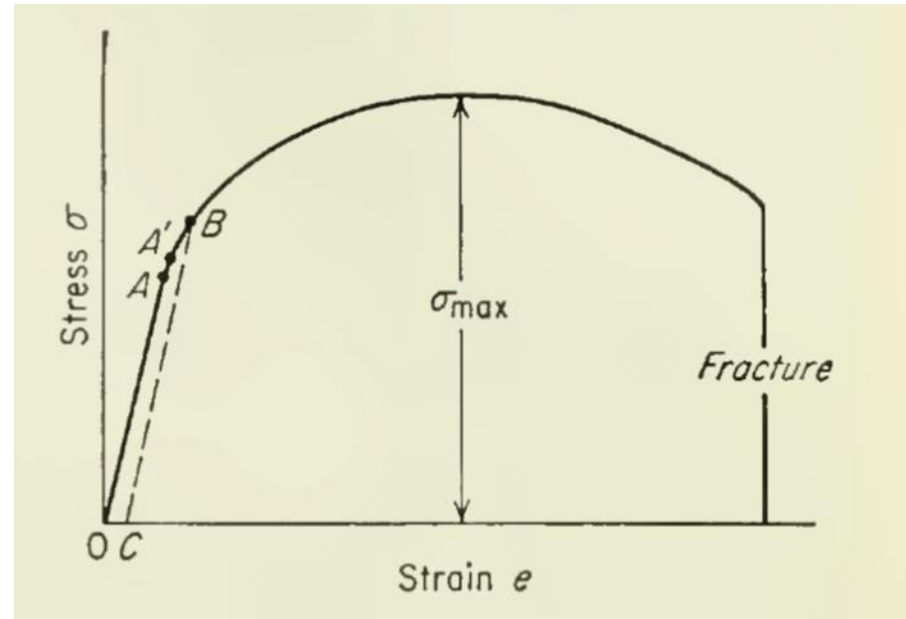
The elastic limit

The proportional limit

The modulus of elasticity.

The yield strength
(strain hardening)

The ultimate tensile strength.



INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-6. Ductile vs. Brittle Behavior**

the ability to undergo plastic deformation

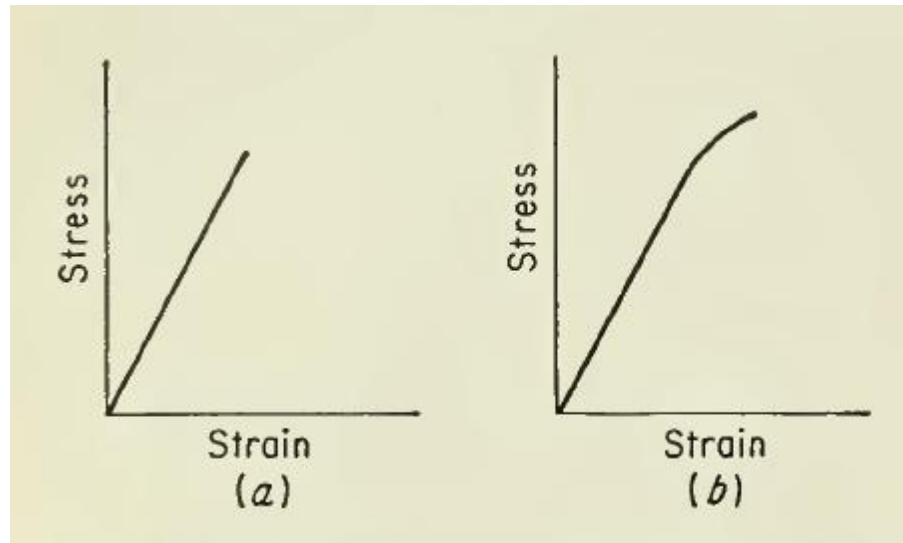


Fig. 1-3. (a) Stress-strain curve for completely brittle material (ideal behavior); (b) stress-strain curve for brittle metal with slight amount of ductility.

INTRODUCTION to mechanical fundamentals

- **1-7. What Constitutes Failure?**

Structural members and machine elements can fail to perform their intended functions in three general ways:

1. Excessive elastic deformation; **buckling**.
2. Yielding, or excessive plastic deformation; **creep**.
3. Fracture; **Fatigue, presence of hydrogen**.

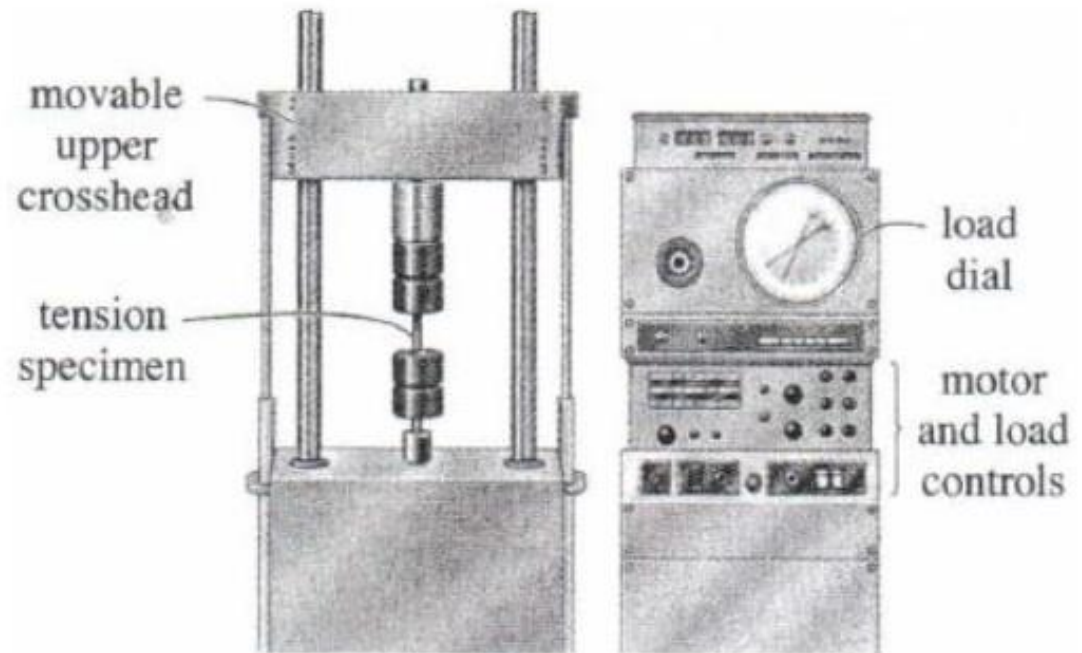
- **Factor of safety.**

Testing machines

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Testing Machines

1. The mechanical properties of materials used in engineering are determined by experiments performed on small specimens.
2. These experiments are conducted in laboratories equipped with testing machines.



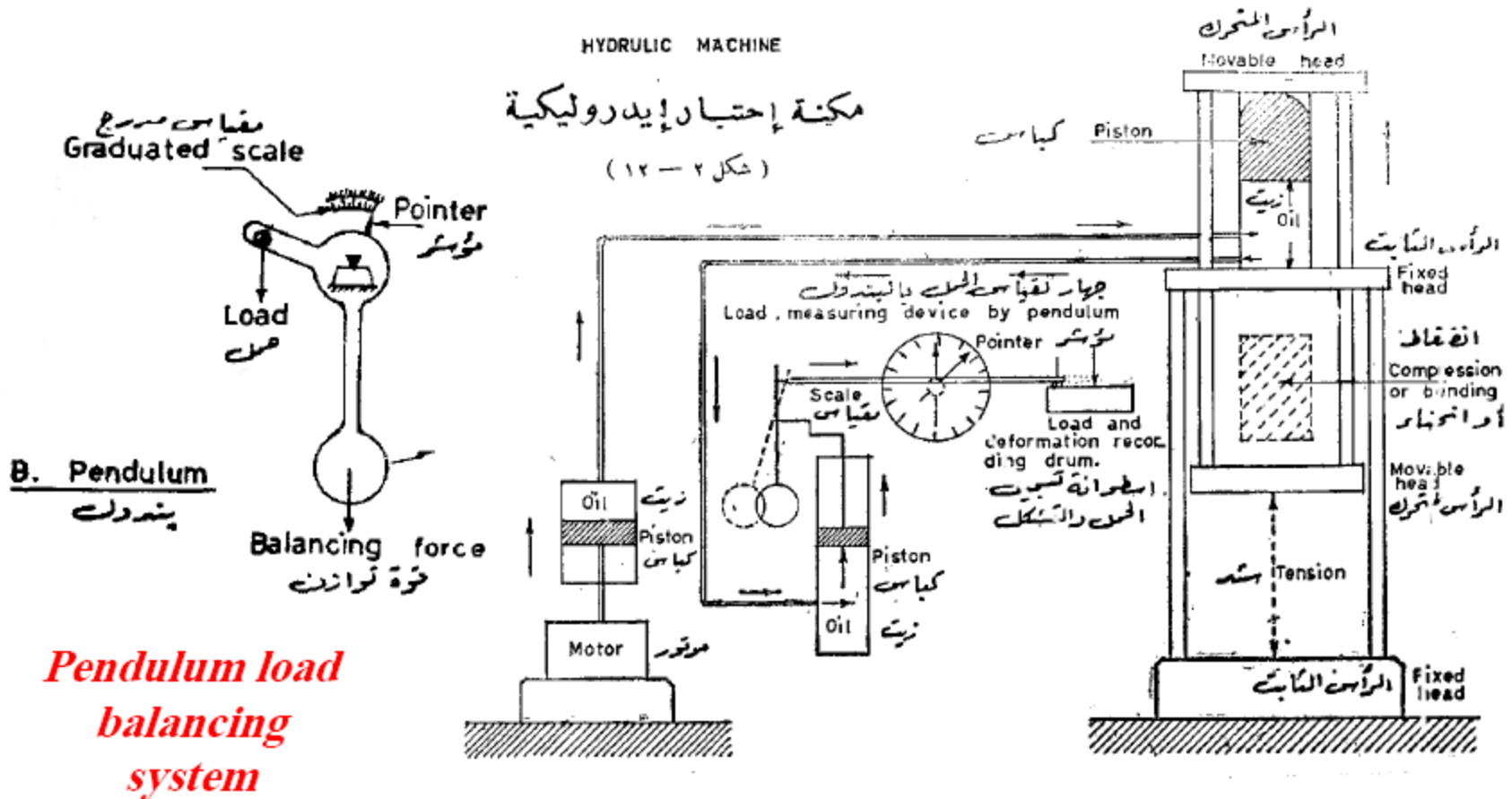
Hydraulic Universal Testing Machine

Testing Machines

Hydraulic Universal Testing Machines consist of two major portions:

- 1. Loading part:** It consists of fixed head “that does not move” and a movable head that moves using hydraulic oil pressure works on electric power. The oil pressure forces the movable jaw to move in gradual and easy-to-control motion. The test specimen is attached to both heads using either hydraulic or mechanical jaws. Depending upon the direction of motion of the movable head and the location of the test specimen, the specimen is subjected to tensile, compressive or bending stresses.
- 2. Load balancing and measuring part:** This part consists of a pendulum where the oil pressure is exerting a force on the pendulum that forces it to rotate around a pin all the way up until it reaches a balance state. Depending on the weight and length of the pendulum, the maximum capacity “maximum applied load ” of the machine is changed. The pendulum method happens instantaneously giving the load value directly on the machine grading.

Testing Machines



Pendulum load balancing system

Schematic for a universal testing machine

Testing Machines

Advantages of “Hydraulic Universal Testing Machines”:

1. **Easy and quick load application** with accurate control in loading rate by simply controlling the speed of movement of the moving cross head. This is carried out by controlling the speed of oil entering the cylinder.
2. **Free of vibrations** and noise.

Disadvantages of “Hydraulic Universal Testing Machines”:

1. **Frequent maintenance** It requires frequent maintenance for oil change. If air bubbles enter the oil circuit may cause lose of oil pressure.

Testing Machines

Requirement in the “Hydraulic Universal Testing Machines”:

1. **Accuracy**: The machine should be accurate in measuring the applied load on the specimen with an accuracy of +1% of the value of the actual load applied on the specimen at any time.
2. **Sensetivity**: The machine should be sensitive to register small changes in the applied load of no less that 0.05% of the maximum capacity of the testing machine.
3. **No Rocking**, No **Rolling** and no **Twisting**: the machine should be free of these three action so that the state of the applied load is not altered.
4. No heavy vibrations or jerking motion.
5. Load is applied gradually, rate of loading could be controlled easily, with no sudden movements.

Calibration of Testing Machines

Calibration: is the assurance of accuracy of the readings for the applied loads on the test specimens within the error limit permissible by the specification of $\pm 1\%$. Permissible engineering error is usually $\pm 0.5\%$ of the applied load.

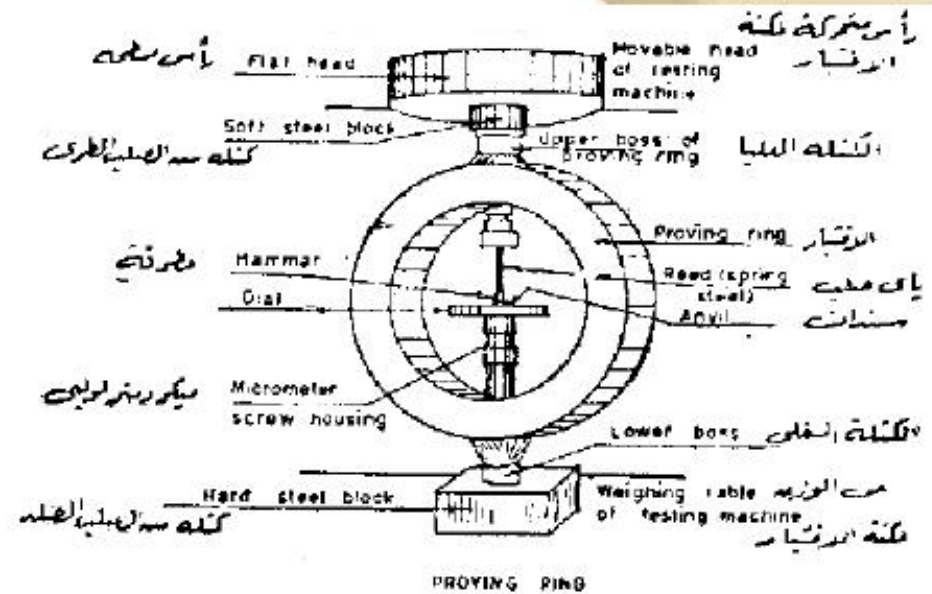
Calibration is carried as follows:

1. By the manufacturer immediately after assembling the testing machine,
2. By the client “purchaser” immediately after installing or moving the testing machine,
3. By the “owner” regularly at constant time intervals that vary according to the use of the machine, and
4. By the “owner” immediately after regular maintenance.

Calibration of Testing Machines

Calibration proving ring:

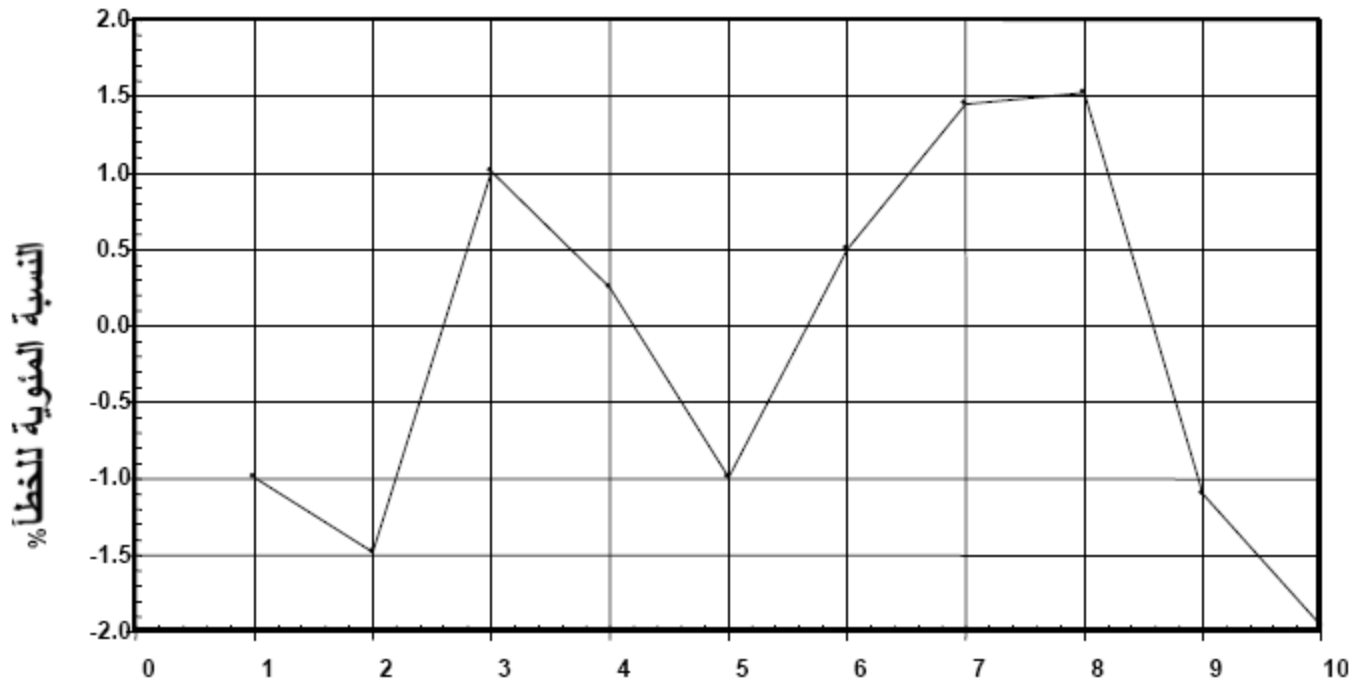
1. It is a metal ring the deforms in the elastic range under loading and return back to its original shape after the removal of the load.
2. If the ring deformation Δ is measured accurately, and the ring constant is well known K , then the actual load P is given as $P_{ACTUAL} = K * \Delta$
3. Percentage Error = $\frac{P_{Machine} - P_{ACTUAL}}{P_{ACTUAL}} \times 100$



مخلقة الاختيار لمعايرة المكنتات

Calibration Chart

$$\text{Percentage Error} = \frac{[P_{\text{Machine}} - P_{\text{ACTUAL}}]}{P_{\text{ACTUAL}}} \times 100$$



10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Machine Reading (ton)
10.2	9.1	7.88	6.9	5.97	5.05	3.99	2.97	2.03	1.01	Actual Load (ton)
1.96-	1.1-	1.52	1.45	0.5	0.99-	0.26	1.01	1.48-	0.99-	Percentage Error%

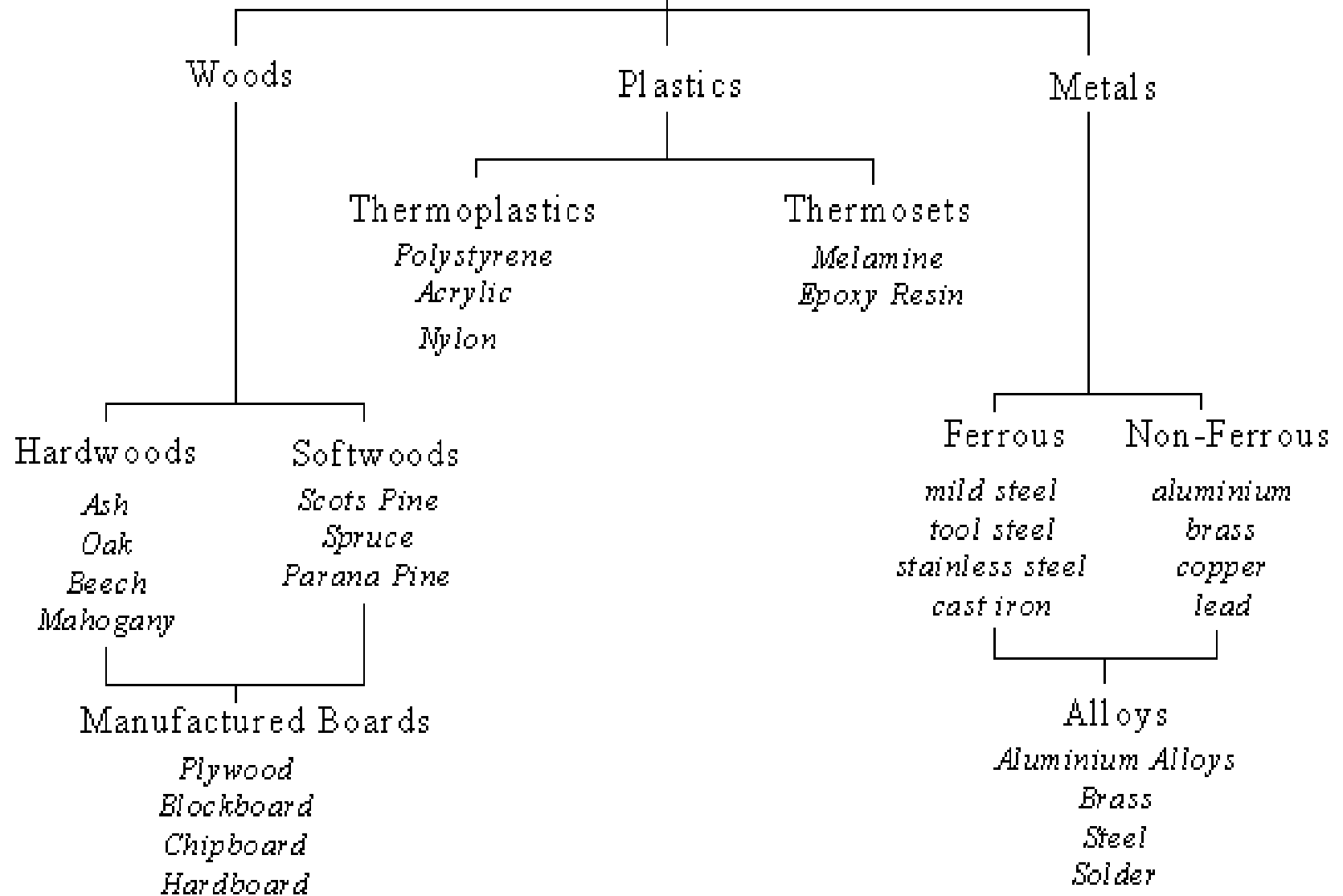
Materials classification, mechanical definitions & loading types

10.02.2019 – Week 1

Chapter 6 of Materials Science and Engineering

Author - William D. Callister

Materials



Metals

- Metals are... Solid at room temperature, except mercury, which is liquid !
- Metals have... very high melting point.
- Metals are... shiny when they cut.
- Metals are... good conductors of heat and electricity.
- Metals are... usually strong & malleable so they can be formed.

Metals

Ferrous

Containing iron & almost all are magnetic.
e.g. mild-steel, cast-iron, tool-Steel etc.

Non-Ferrous

Do not contain iron.
e.g. Aluminium, copper, silver, gold, tin etc.

Alloys

A mixture of metals, or a metal & small amount of other substance

Ferrous Alloys

e.g.
stainless steel
steel + chromium

Non-Ferrous Alloys

e.g. brass (copper + zinc)
bronze (copper + tin)

METALS & ALLOYS

Metals are available in **pure** or **alloy** form.

Pure Metals such as pure aluminium or pure copper, contain only one type of metal. They are not mixed with any other metal.

Alloys are mixture of two or more pure metals.

Alloys tend to have **better strength properties** than pure metals.

Alloys and pure metals often have **special physical properties**.

Mechanical Properties

1. Strength - The ability of a material to stand up to forces being applied without it bending, breaking, shattering or deforming in any way.
2. Elasticity - The ability of a material to absorb force and flex in different directions, returning to its original position.
3. Plasticity - The ability of a material to be change in shape permanently.
4. Ductility - The ability of a material to change shape (deform) usually by stretching along its length.

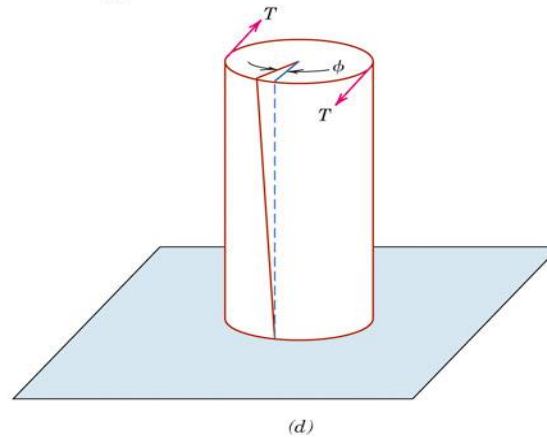
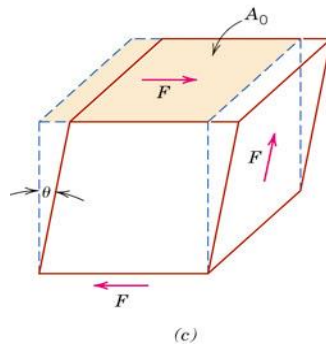
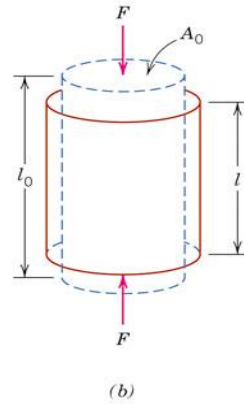
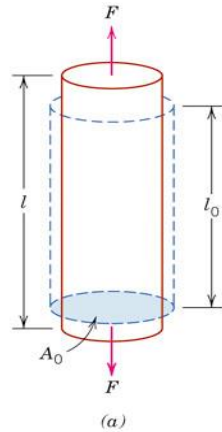
Mechanical Properties

5. Tensile Strength – The ability of a material to stretch without breaking or snapping.
6. Malleability - The ability of a material to be reshaped in all directions without cracking.
7. Toughness - A characteristic of a material that does not break or shatter when receiving a blow or under a sudden shock.
8. Conductivity - The ability of a material to conduct electricity.
1. Hardness – The ability of a material to resist scratching, wear and tear & indentation.

Mechanical Properties

- **Stiffness** - Elastic Modulus or Young's Modulus (MPa)
- **Strength** - Yield, Ultimate, Fracture, Proof, Offset Yield. Measured as stress (MPa)
- **Ductility** - Measure of ability to deform plastically without fracture - Elongation, Area Reduction, Fracture Strain
- **Toughness, Resilience** - Measure of ability to absorb energy (J/m^3).
- **Hardness** - Resistance to indentation/abrasion (Rockwell, Brinell, Vickers.)

Types of load



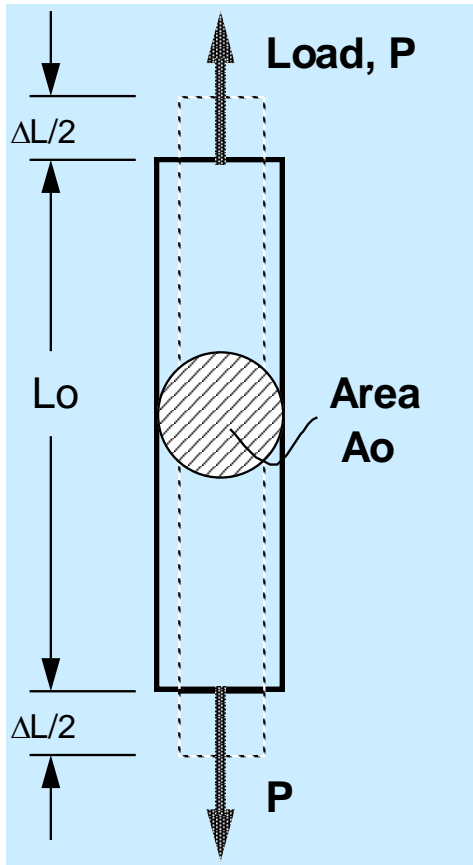
Tensile Testing

10.02.2019 – Week 1

Chapter 6 of Materials Science and Engineering

Author - William D. Callister

Mechanical Properties

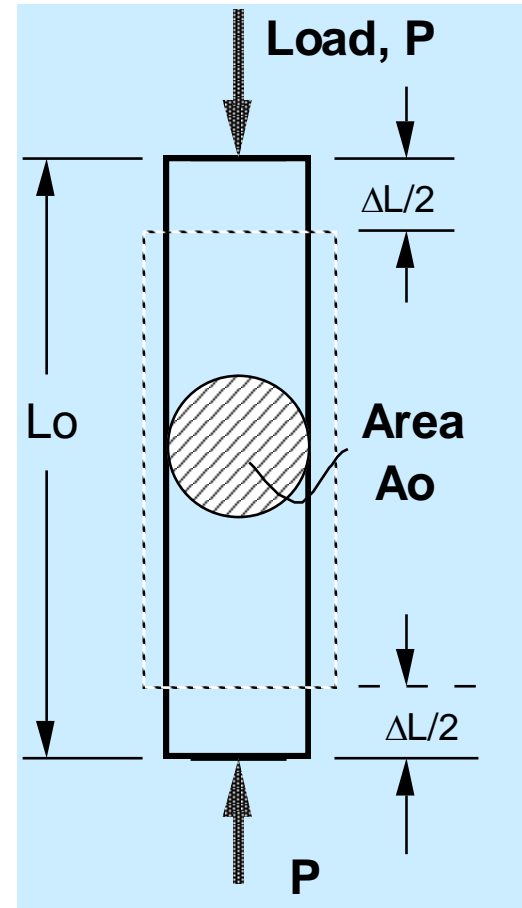


Engineering Stress

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

$$e = \frac{\Delta L}{L_o}$$

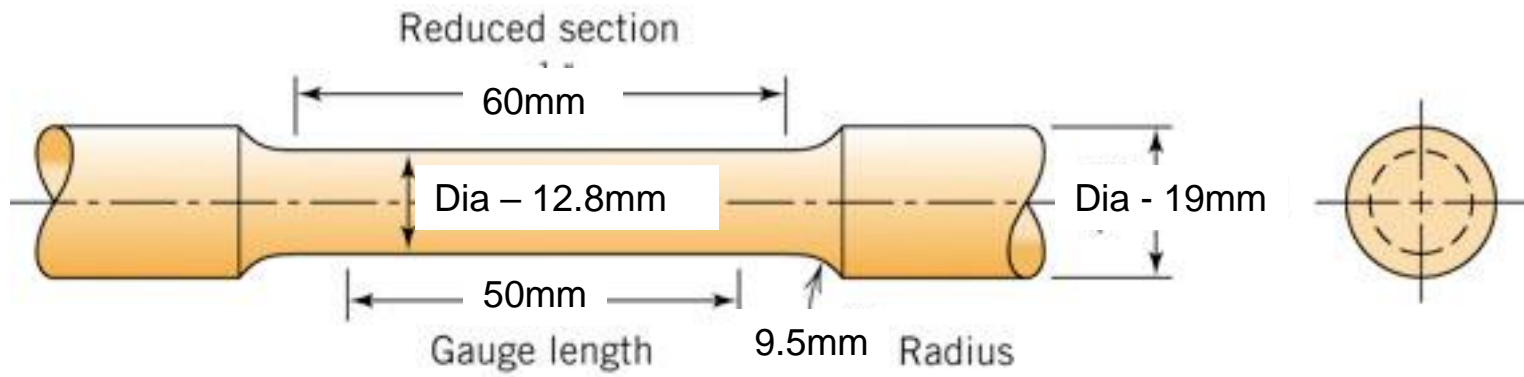
Engineering Strain



Direct Stress - Tension

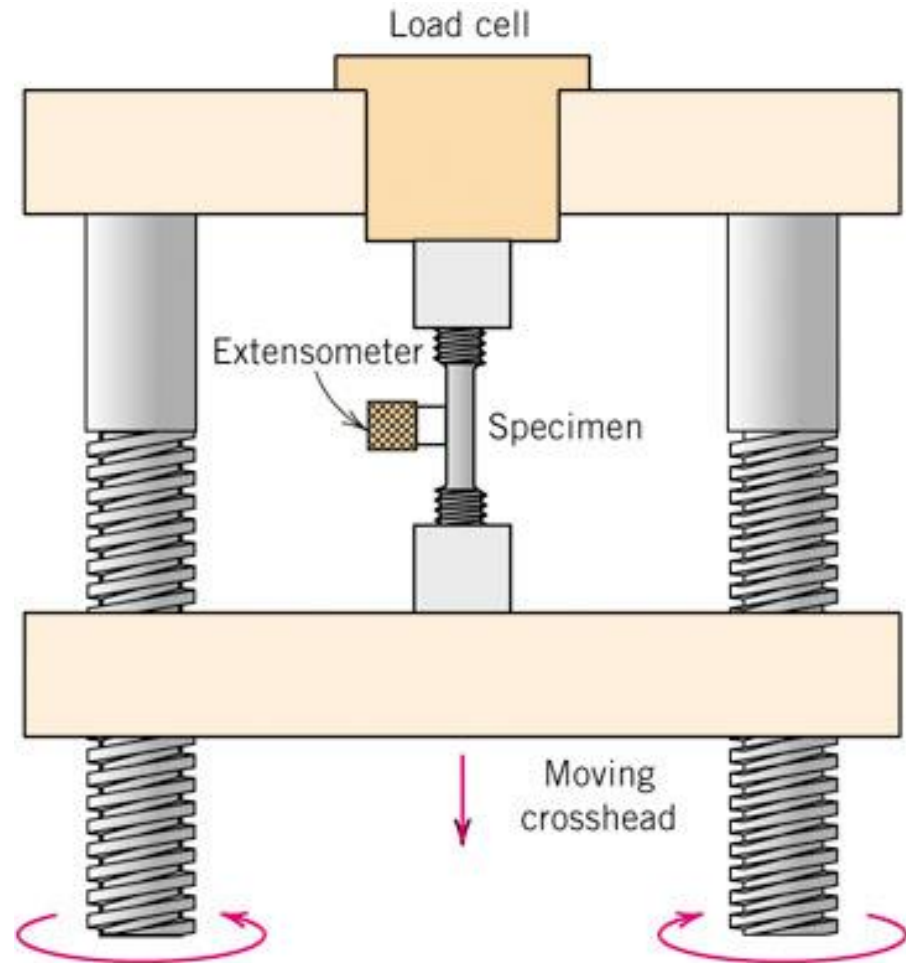
Direct Stress - Compression

Tensile specimen



Tension test

Typical Universal Testing Machine

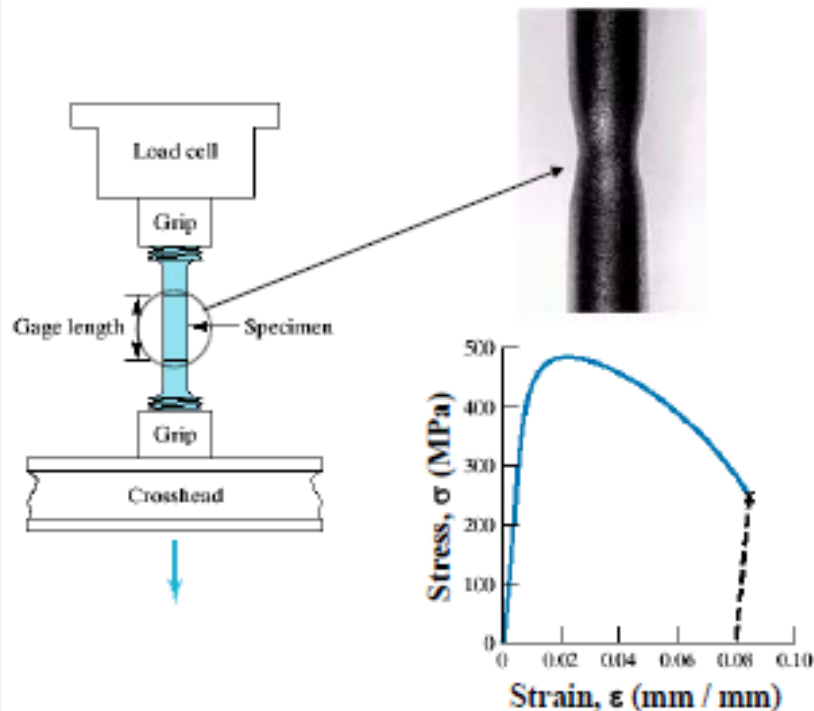


Tension test

Introduction To Materials Science, Chapter 6, Mechanical Properties of Metals

Introduction

To understand and describe how materials deform (elongate, compress, twist) or break as a function of applied load, time, temperature, and other conditions we need first to discuss standard test methods and standard language for mechanical properties of materials.



Introduction To Materials Science, Chapter 6, Mechanical Properties of Metals

Concepts of Stress and Strain (tension and compression)

To compare specimens of different sizes, the load is calculated per unit area.

Engineering stress: $\sigma = F / A_0$

F is load applied perpendicular to specimen cross-section; A_0 is cross-sectional area (perpendicular to the force) before application of the load.

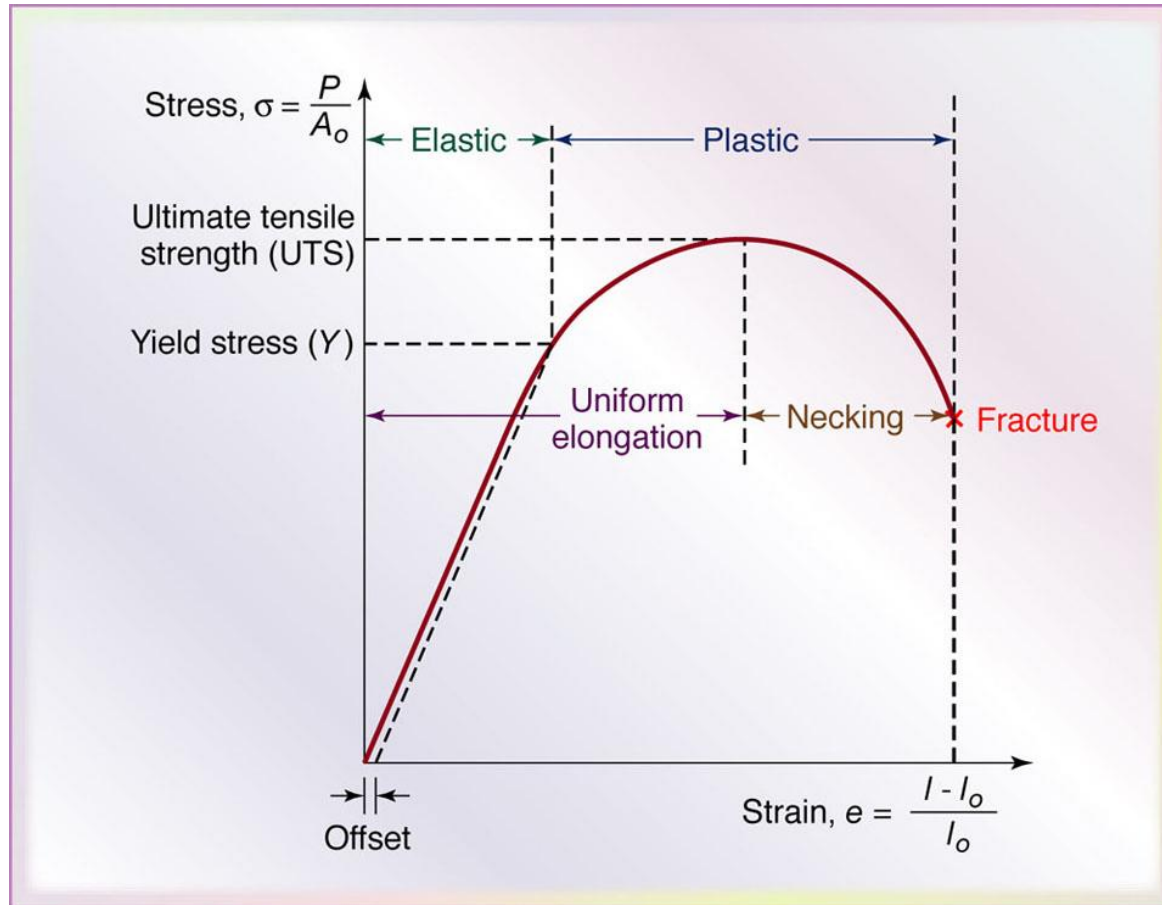
Engineering strain: $\epsilon = \Delta l / l_0$ ($\times 100\%$)

Δl is change in length, l_0 is the original length.

These definitions of stress and strain allow one to compare test results for specimens of different cross-sectional area A_0 and of different length l_0 .

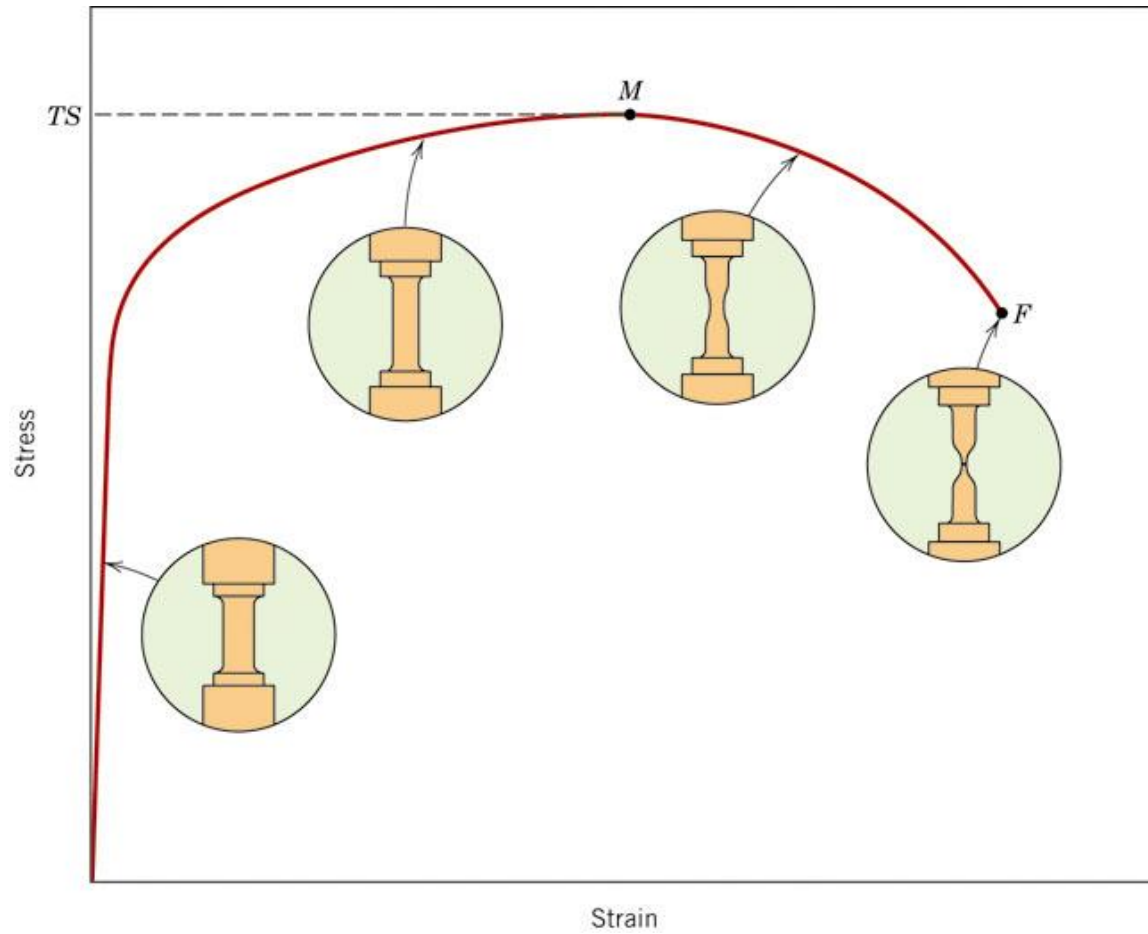
Stress and strain are positive for tensile loads, negative for compressive loads

Tension Test Stress-strain Curve

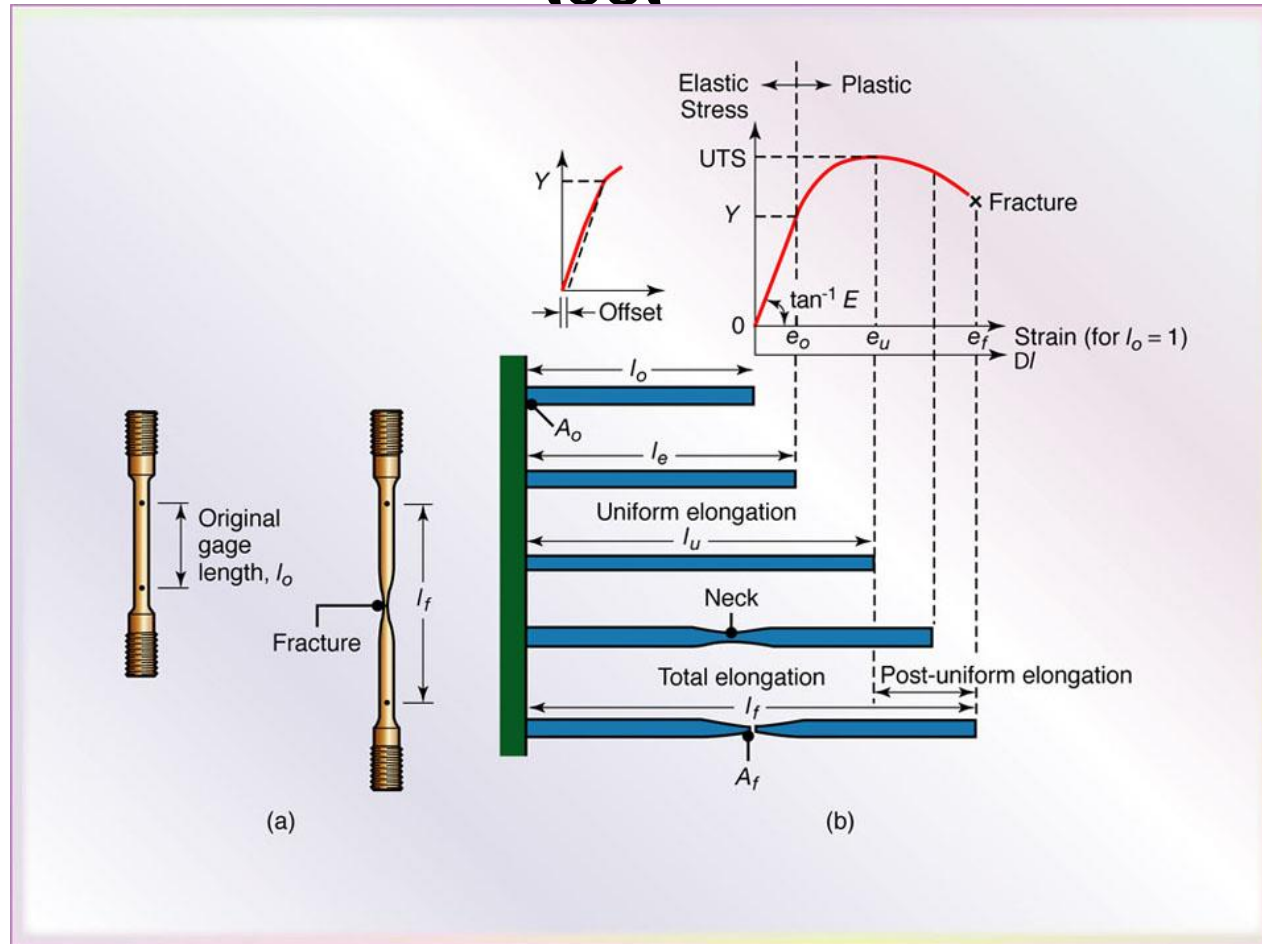


A typical stress-strain curve obtained from a tension test, showing various features

Raw data

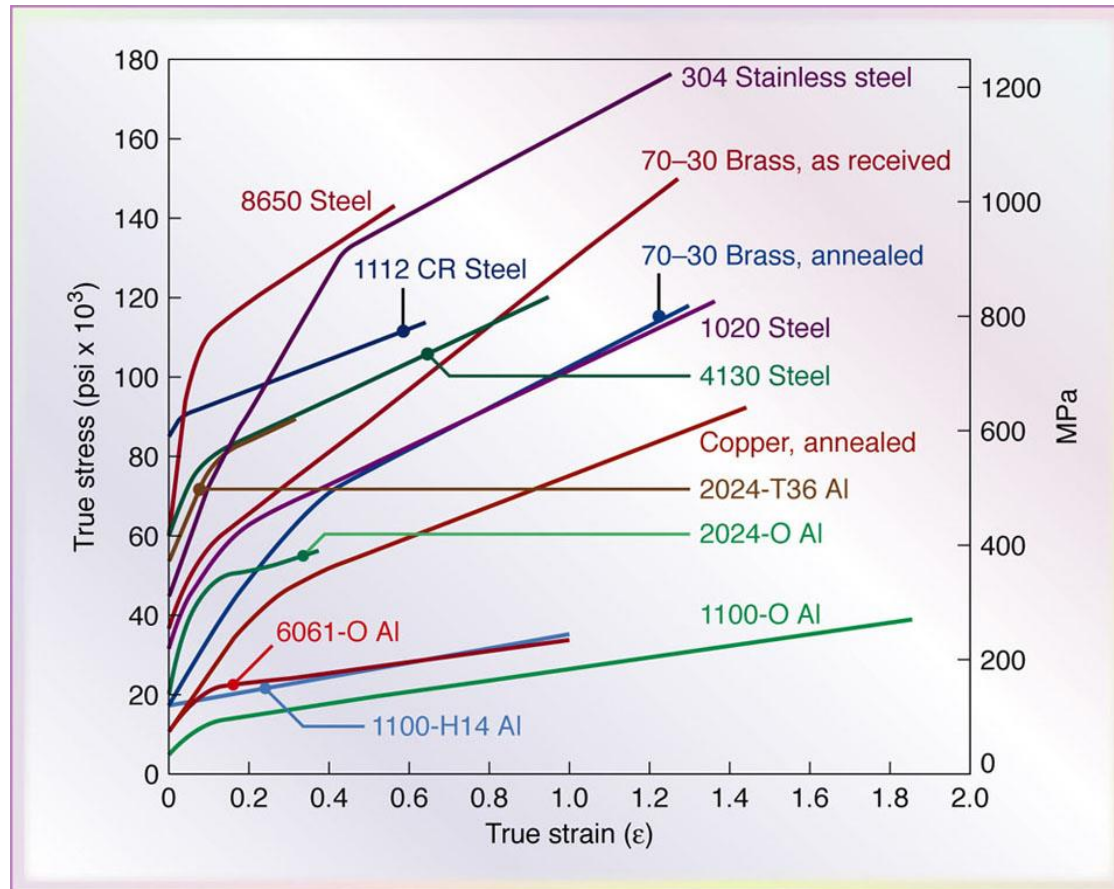


Evolution of tensile-test Specimen during tensile test



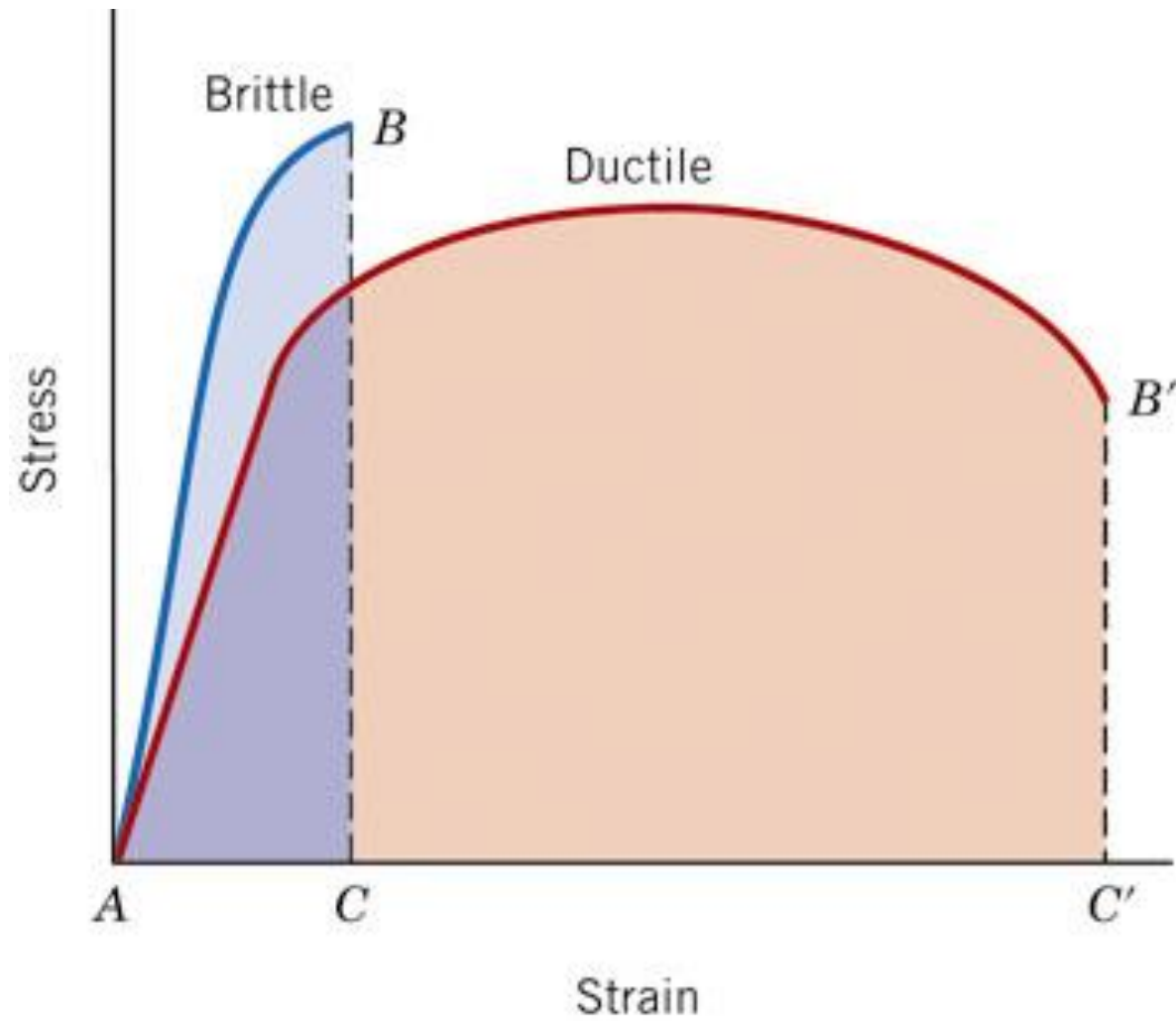
- (a) A standard tensile-test specimen before and after pulling, showing original and final gage lengths.
- (b) A tensile-test sequence showing different stages in the elongation of the specimen.

True Stress-strain Curves

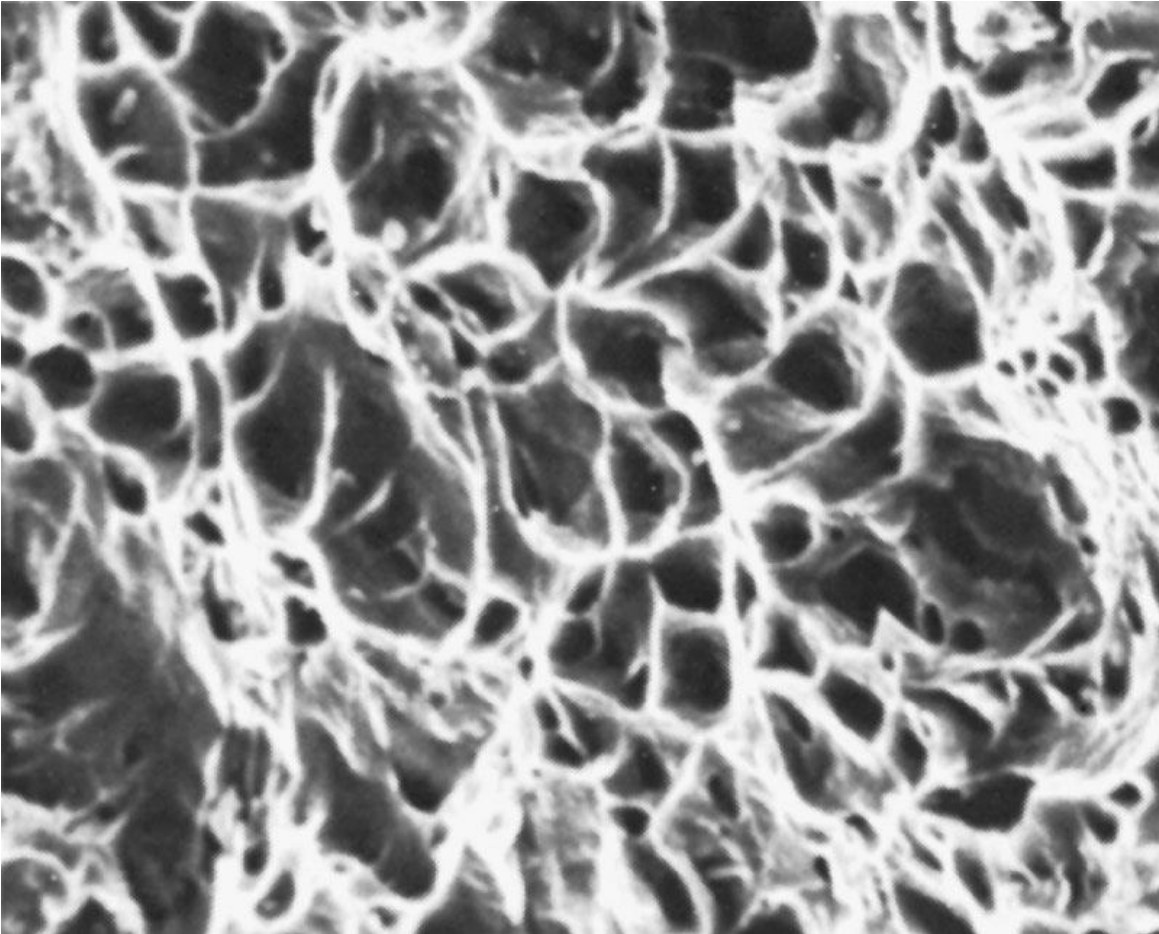


True stress-strain curves in tension at room temperature for various metals. The curves start at a finite level of stress: The elastic regions have too steep a slope to be shown in this figure, and thus each curve starts at the yield stress, Y , of the material

Brittle 'v' Ductile

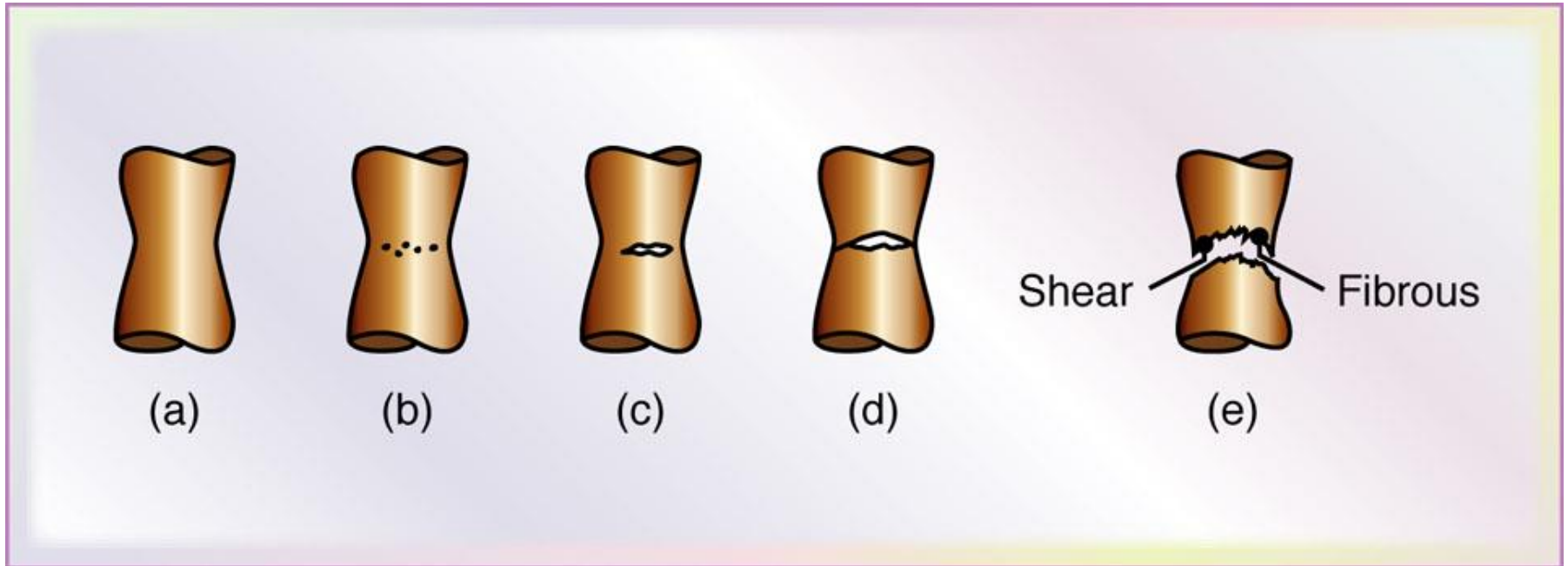


Ductile Fracture in Low-carbon Steel



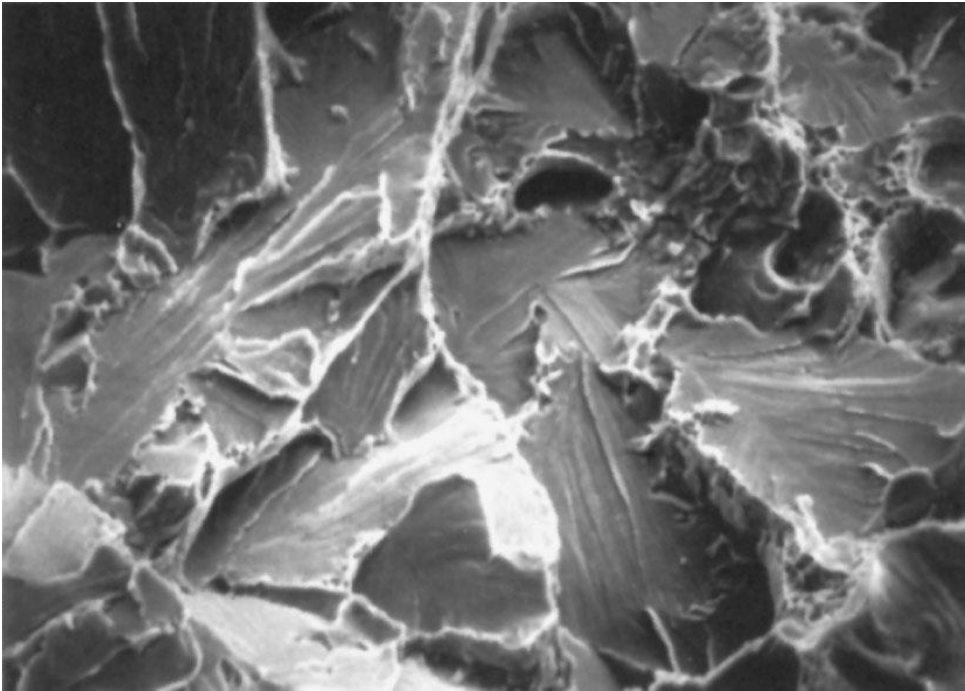
Surface of ductile fracture in low carbon steel, showing dimples. Fracture usually is initiated at impurities, inclusions, or preexisting voids (microporosity) in the metal. *Source:* Courtesy of K. H. Habig and D. Klaffke

Progression of a ductile Fracture

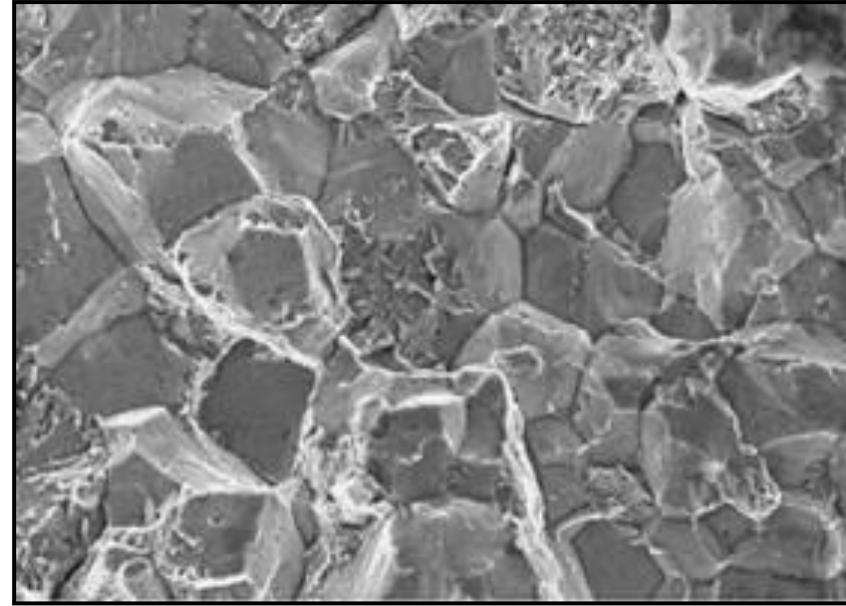


- (a) early stage of necking
- (b) small voids begin to form within the necked region
- (c) voids coalesce, producing an internal crack
- (d) the rest of the cross-section begins to fail at the periphery, by shearing
- (e) the final fracture surfaces, known as cup- (top fracture surface) and cone- (bottom surface) fracture.

Brittle Fracture Surface of Steel

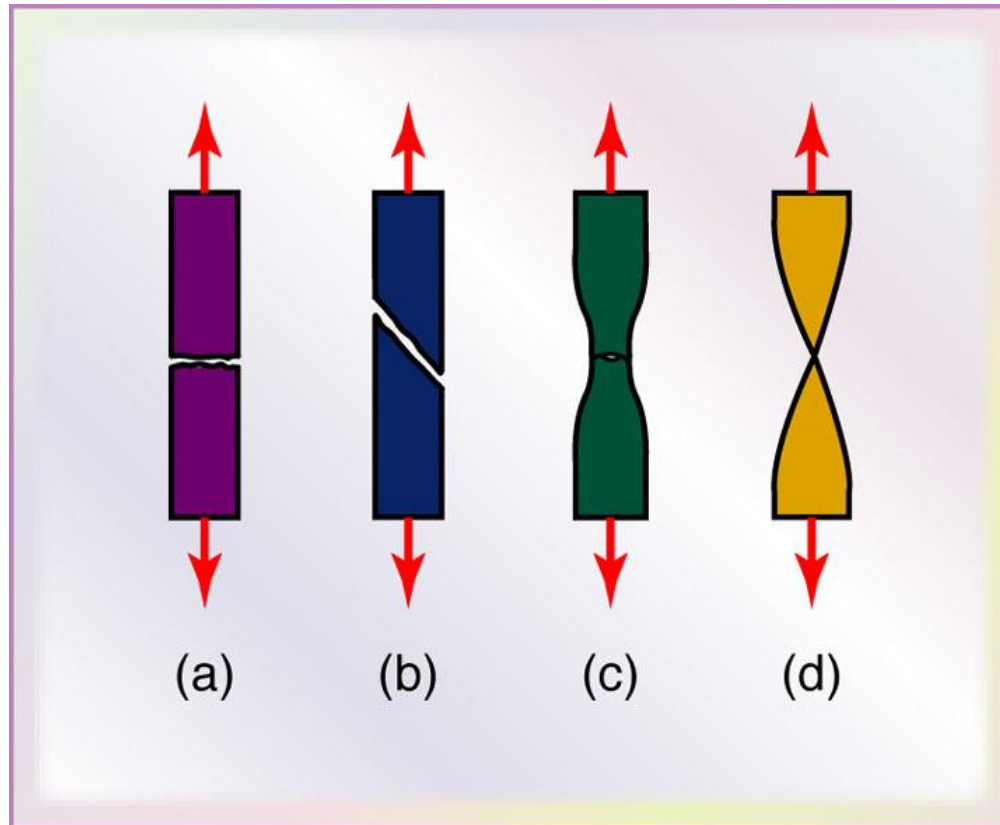


Fracture surface of steel that has failed in a brittle manner. The fracture path is transgranular (through the grains). Magnification: 200x. *Source:* Courtesy of B. J. Schulze and S.L. Meinley and Packer Engineering Associates, Inc.



A brittle fracture surface . The fracture path is intergranular (through the grain boundaries).

Fracture Types in Tension



(a)

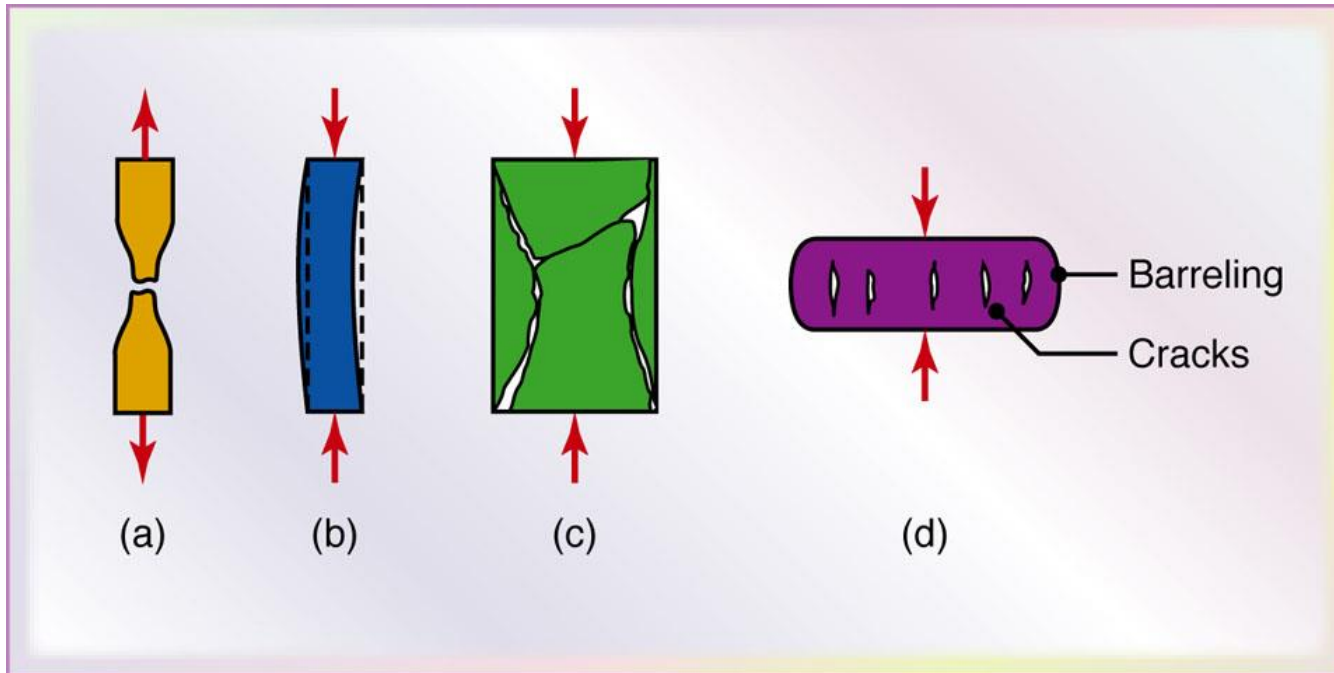
(b)

(c)

(d)

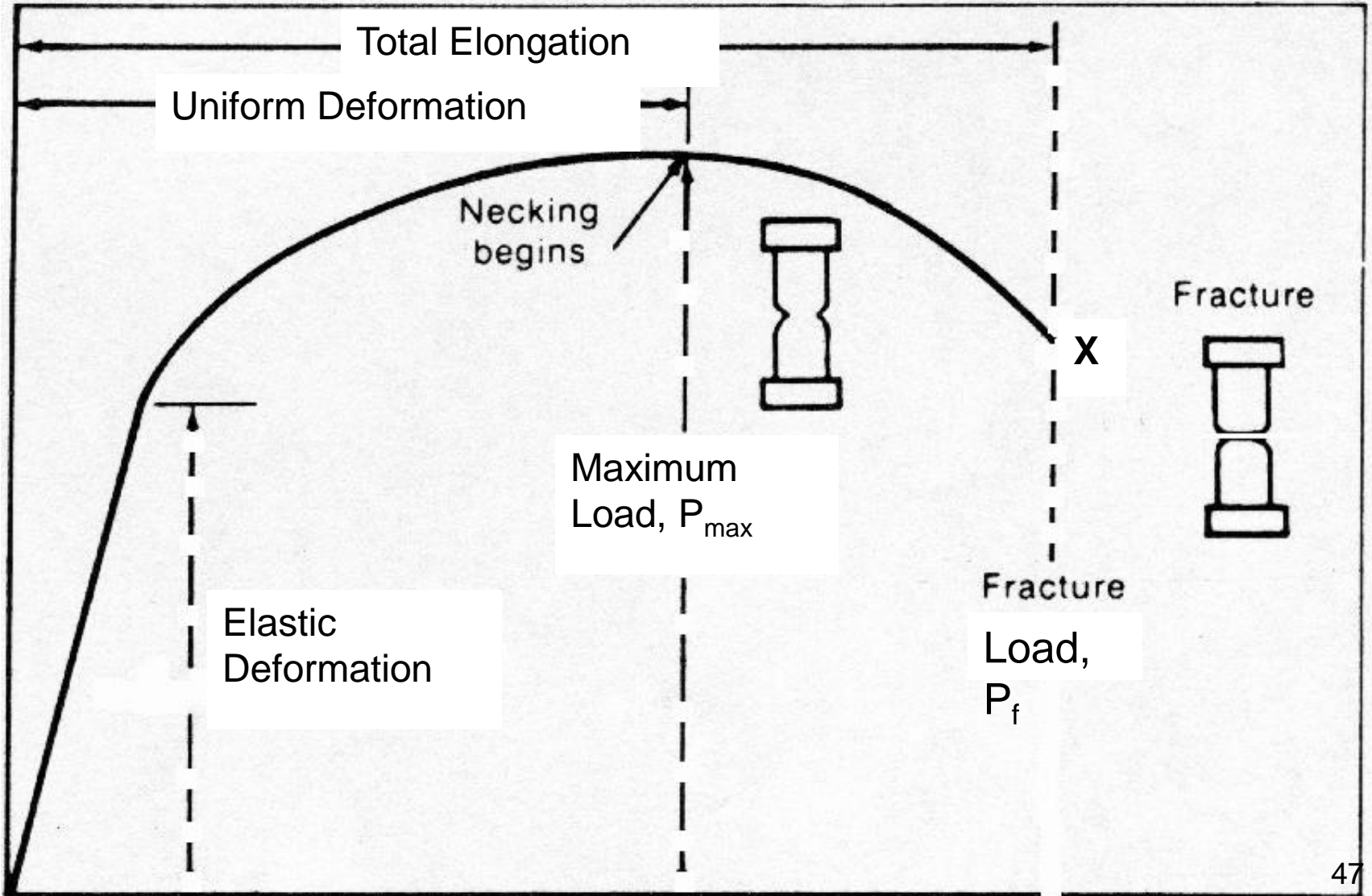
- (a) brittle fracture in polycrystalline metals
- (b) shear fracture in ductile single crystals
- (c) ductile cup-and-cone fracture in polycrystalline metals
- (d) complete ductile fracture in polycrystalline metals, with 100% reduction of area.

Material Failures

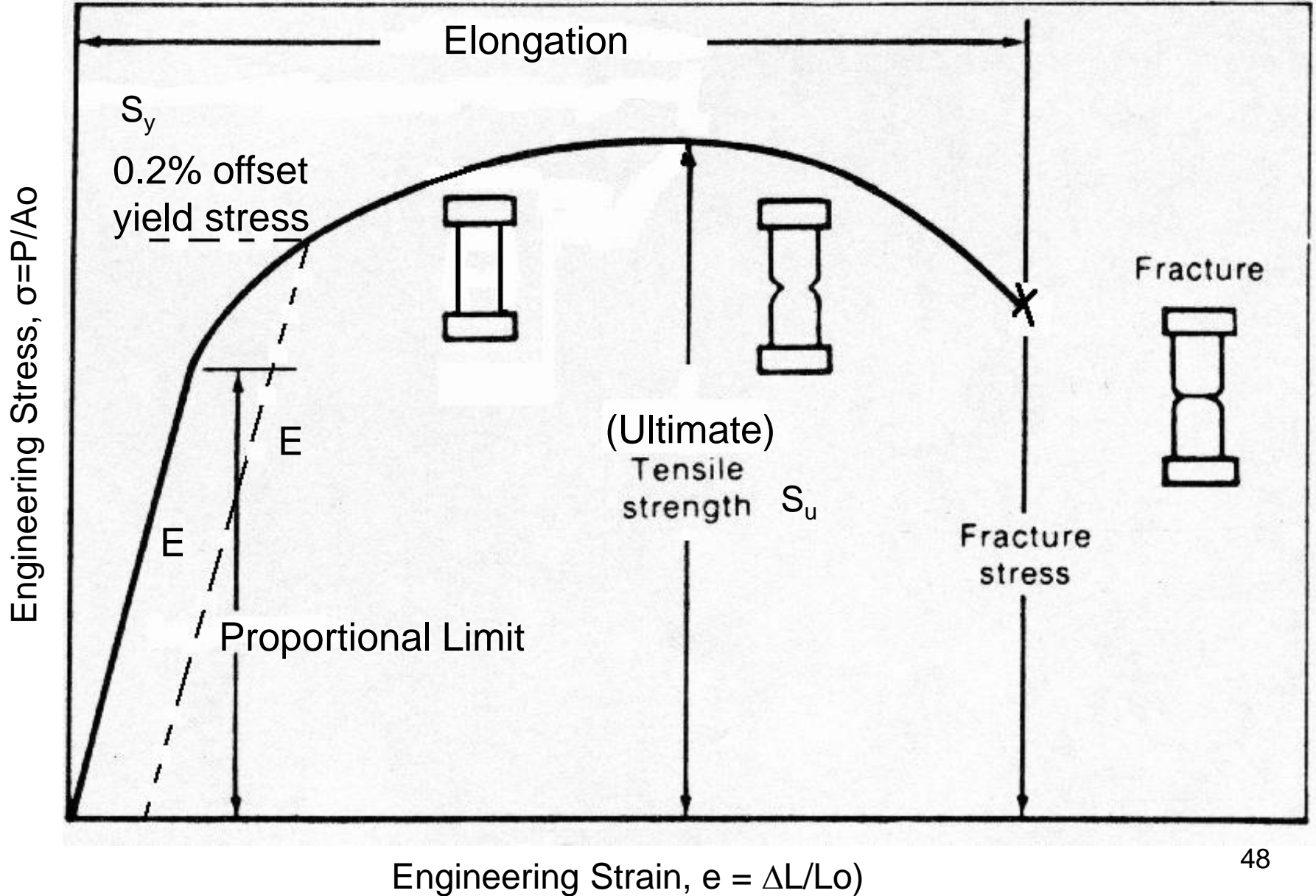


- (a) necking and fracture of ductile materials;
- (b) buckling of ductile materials under a compressive load;
- (c) fracture of brittle materials in compression;
- (d) cracking on the barreled surface of ductile materials in compression

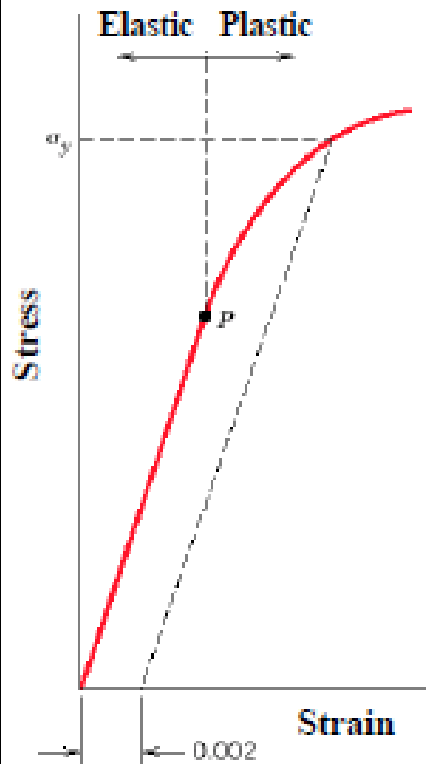
Raw data



Engineering Stress-Strain Curve



Stress-Strain Behavior



Elastic deformation

Reversible: when the stress is removed, the material returns to the dimension it had before the loading.

Usually strains are small (except for the case of plastics).

Plastic deformation

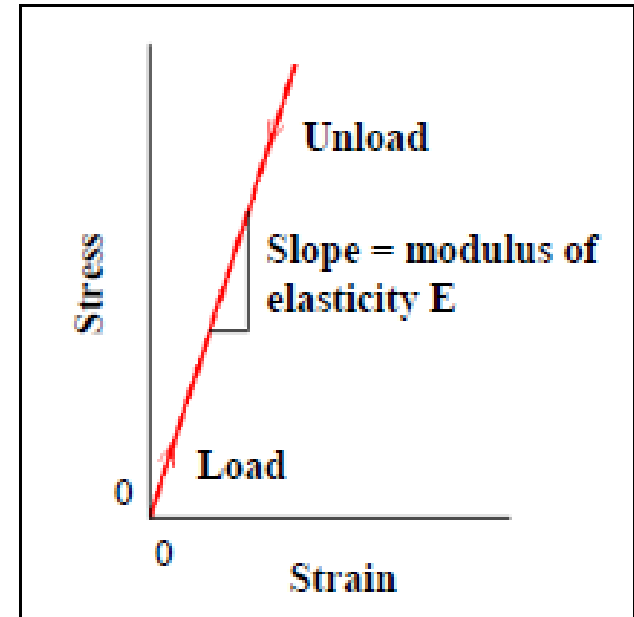
Irreversible: when the stress is removed, the material does not return to its previous dimension.

Stress-Strain Behavior: Elastic deformation

In tensile tests, if the deformation is elastic, the stress-strain relationship is called Hooke's law:

$$\sigma = E \epsilon$$

E is **Young's modulus** or **modulus of elasticity**, has the same units as σ , N/m^2 or Pa



Higher E → higher "stiffness"

Engineering Stress-Strain Curve

- Express Load in Newtons (N) and Area in mm^2 to get Stress in MPa.

$$\frac{N}{\text{mm}^2} \cong \text{MPa}$$

- Mechanical properties of metals are almost always given in MPa or ksi.
- 1000 psi = 1 ksi = 6.89 MPa

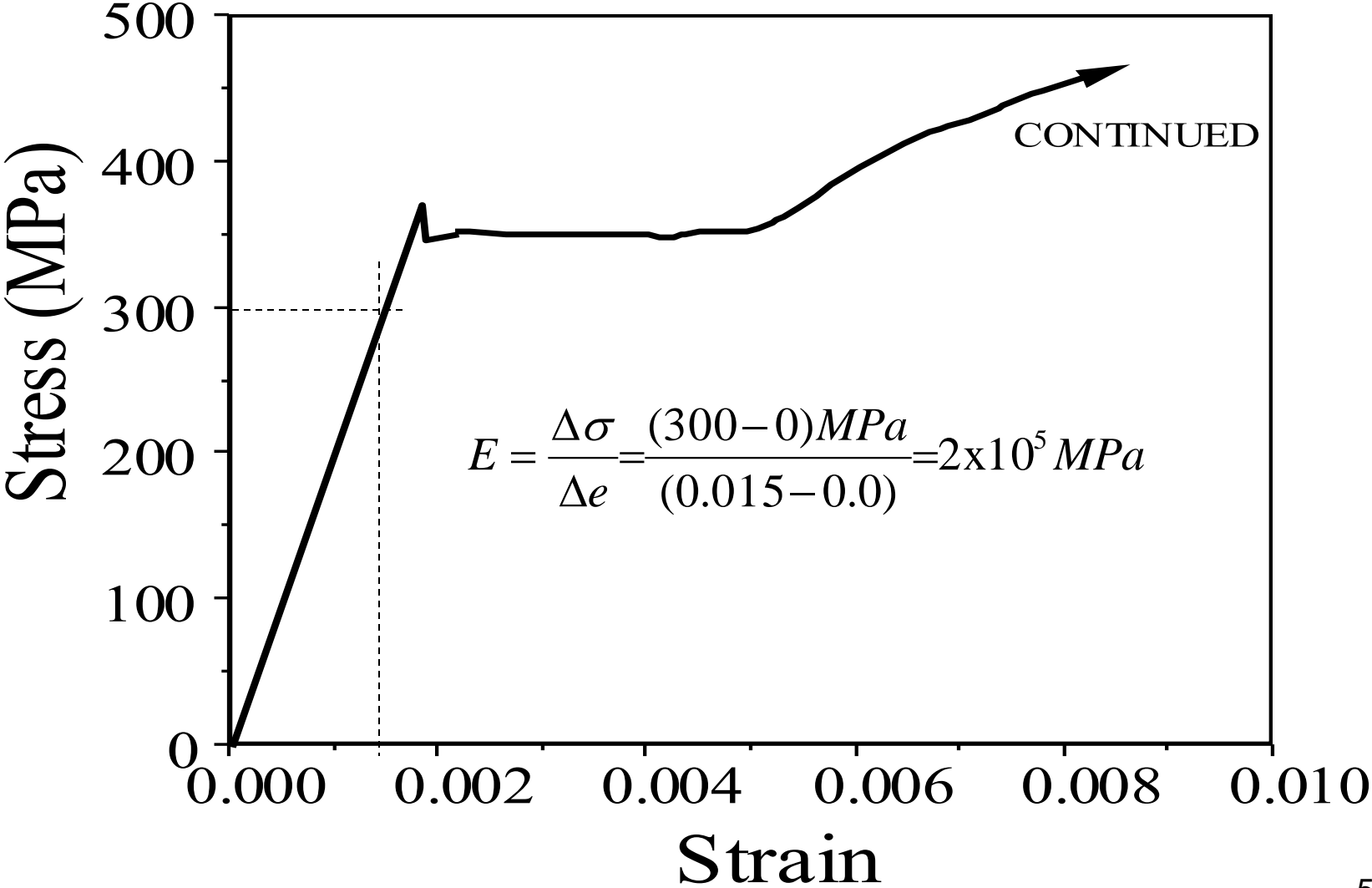
Hooks law – Elastic deformation

- Elastic deformation is not permanent; it means that when the load is removed, the part returns to its original shape and dimensions.
- For most metals, the elastic region is linear. For some materials, including metals such as cast iron, polymers, and concrete, the elastic region is non-linear.
- If the behavior is linear elastic, or nearly linear-elastic, Hooke's Law may be applied:

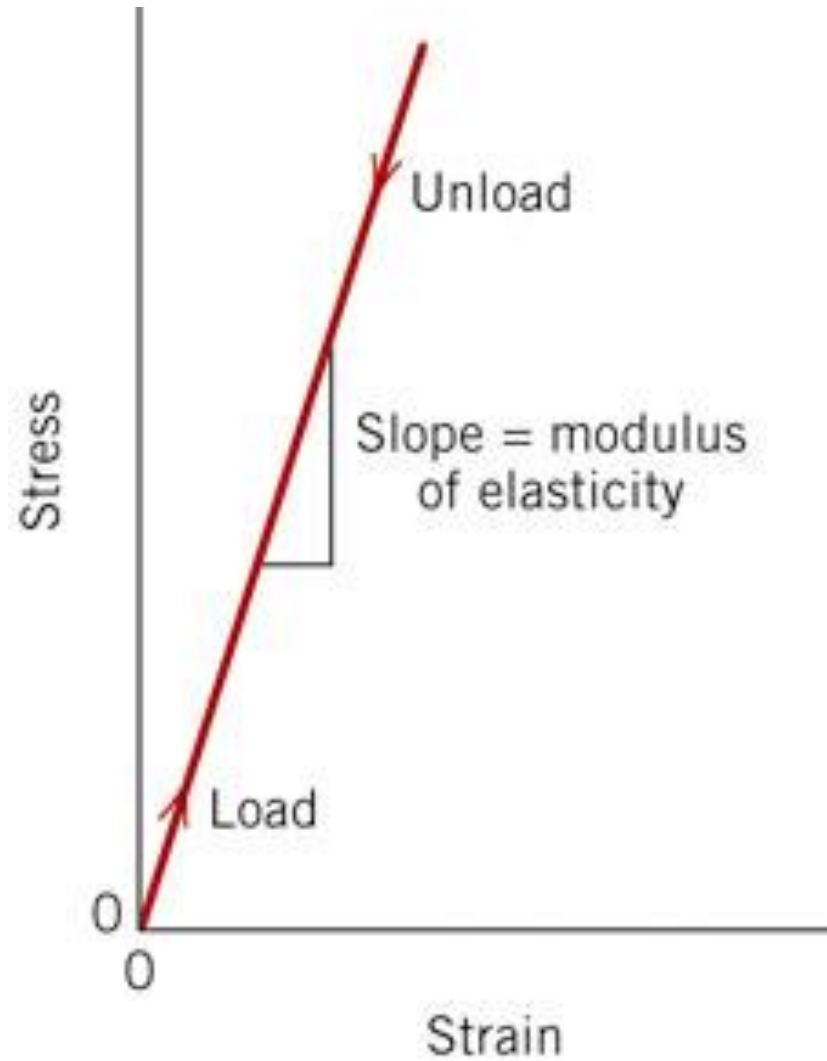
$$\sigma = Ee$$

- Where E is the modulus of elasticity (MPa)

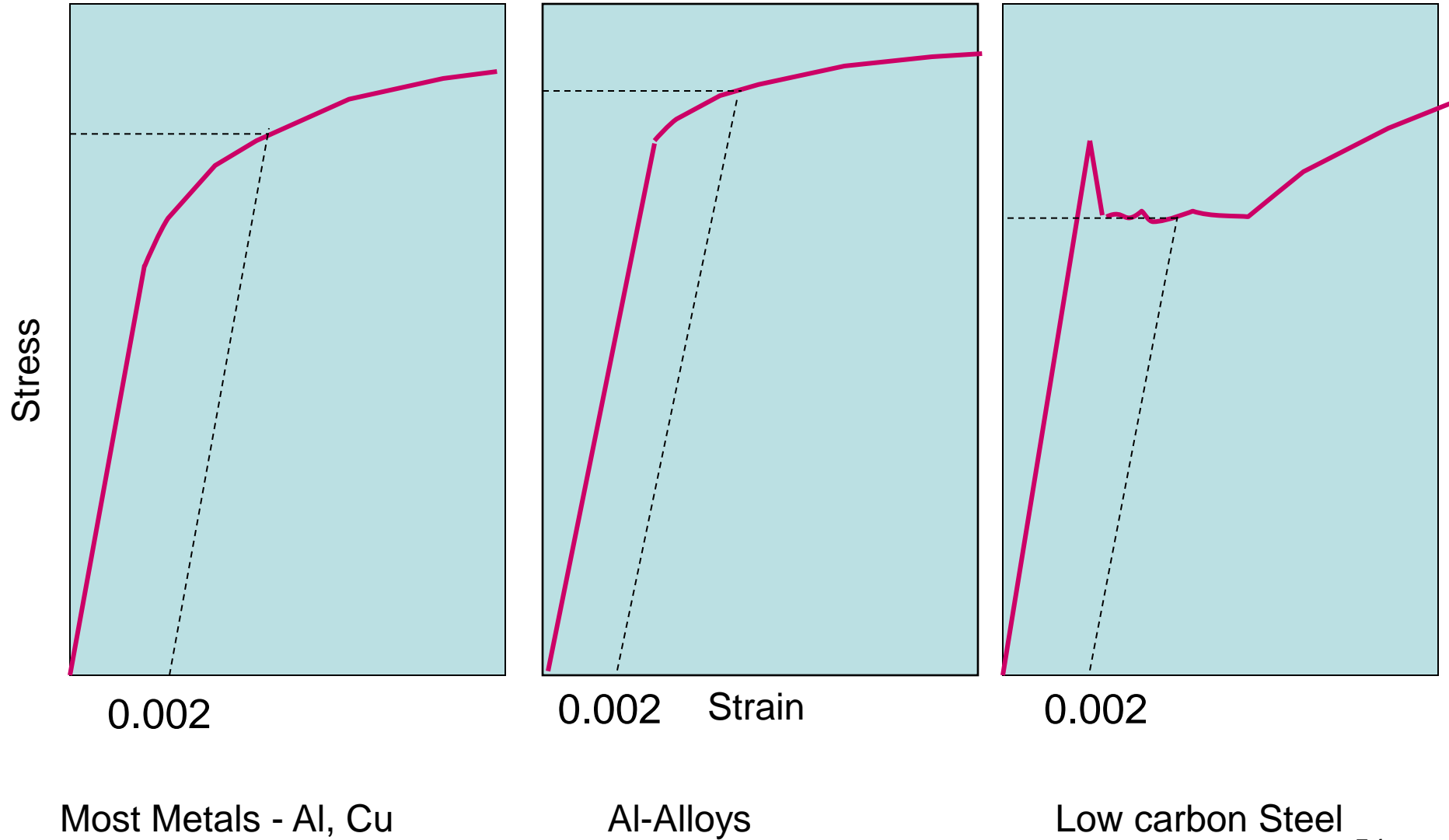
Modulus of elasticity – Stiffness (E)



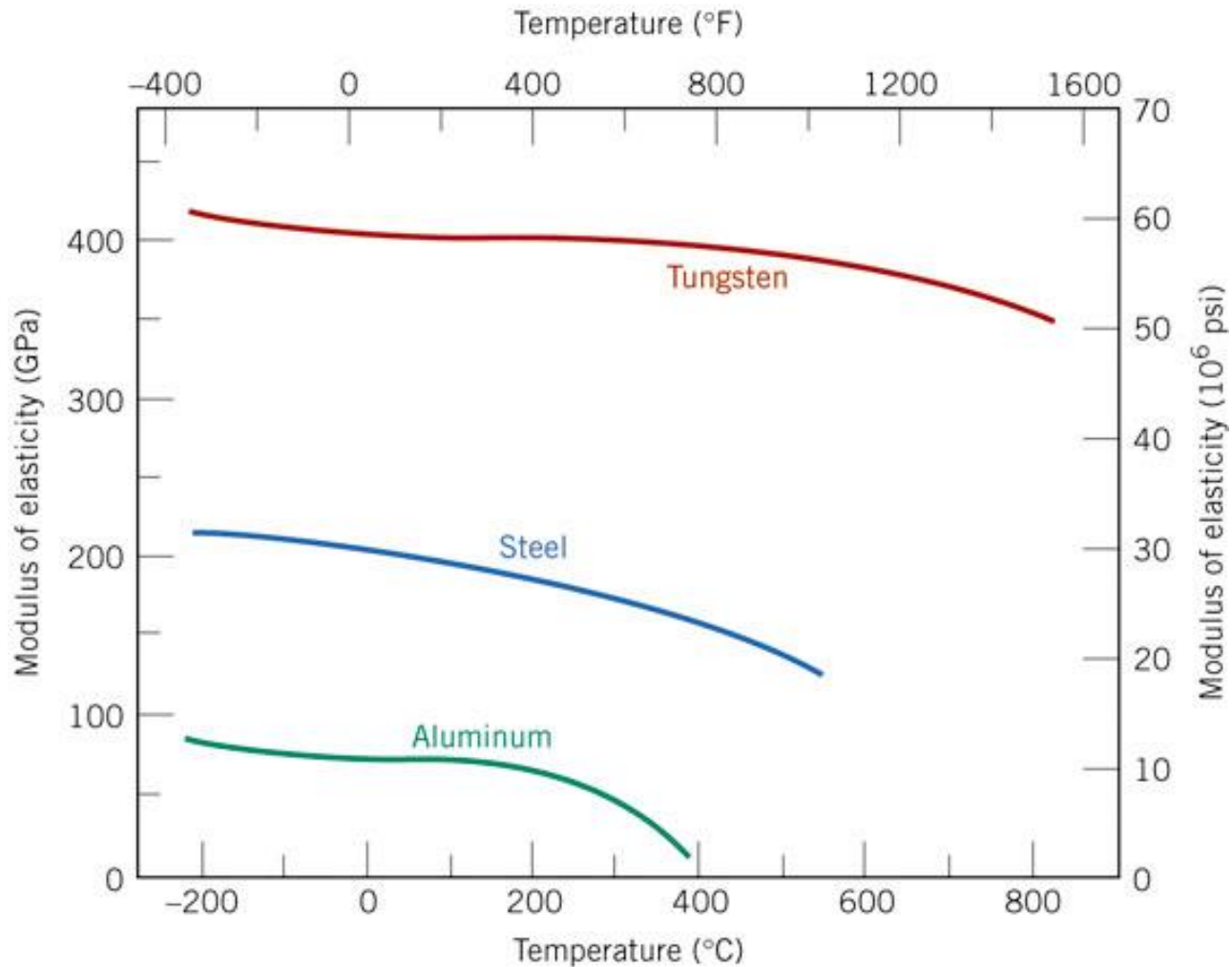
Stress / Strain Curve



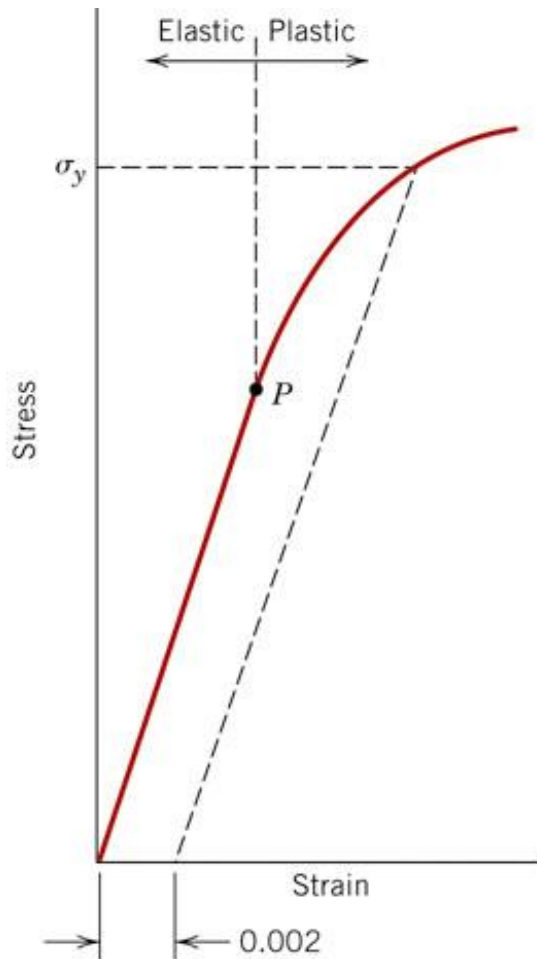
Plastic deformation



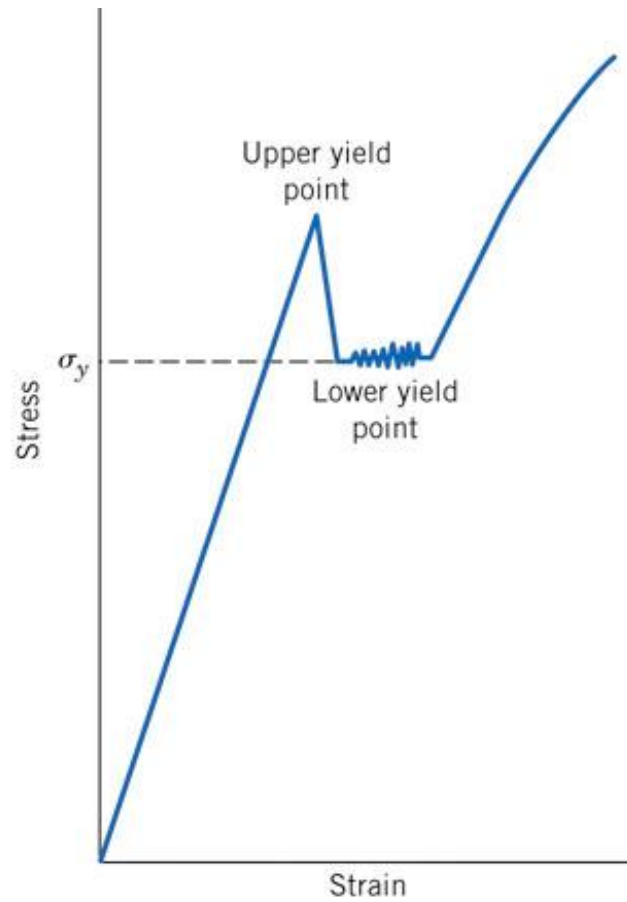
Elasticity (E) 'v' Temperature



Comparison

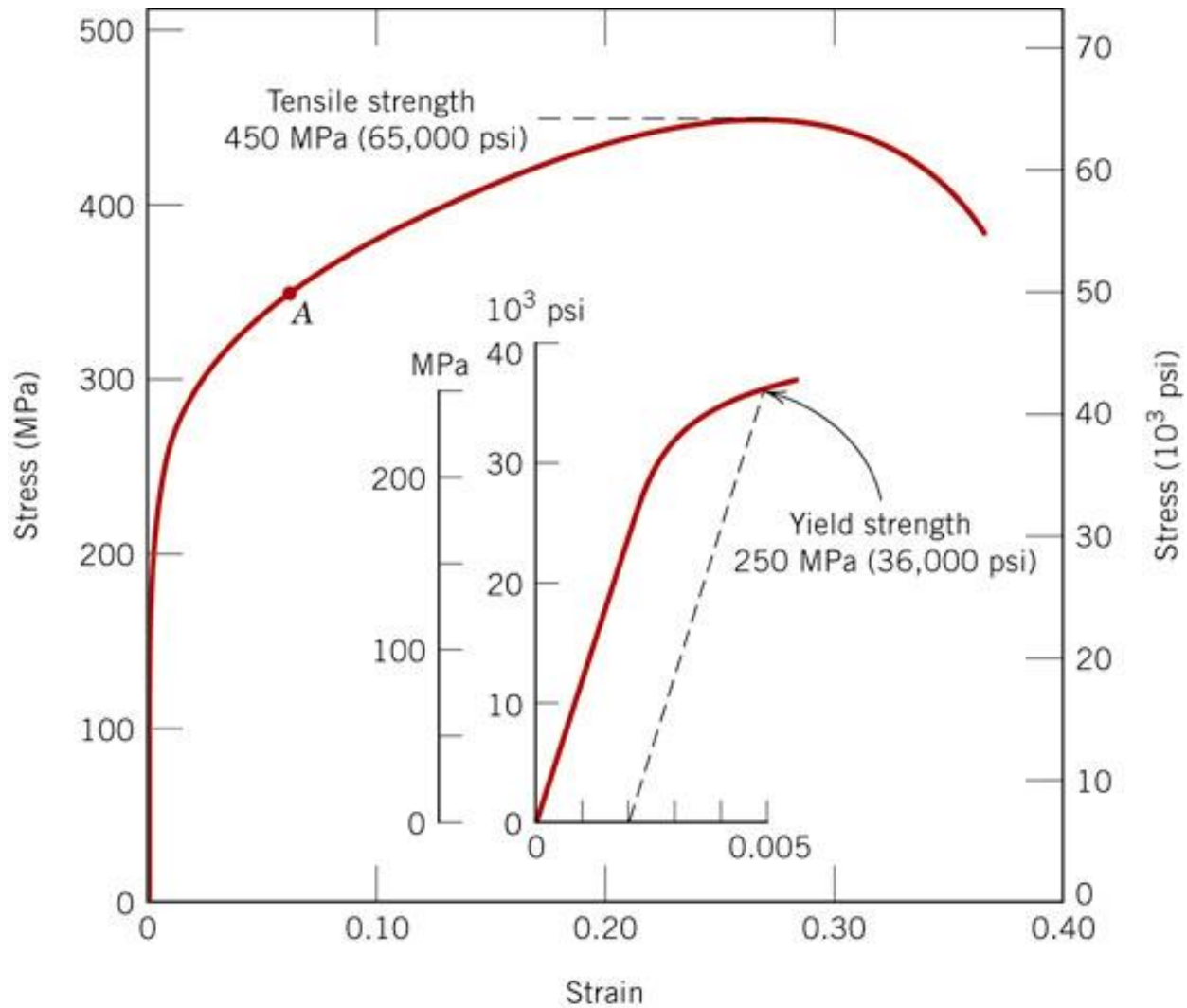


(a)

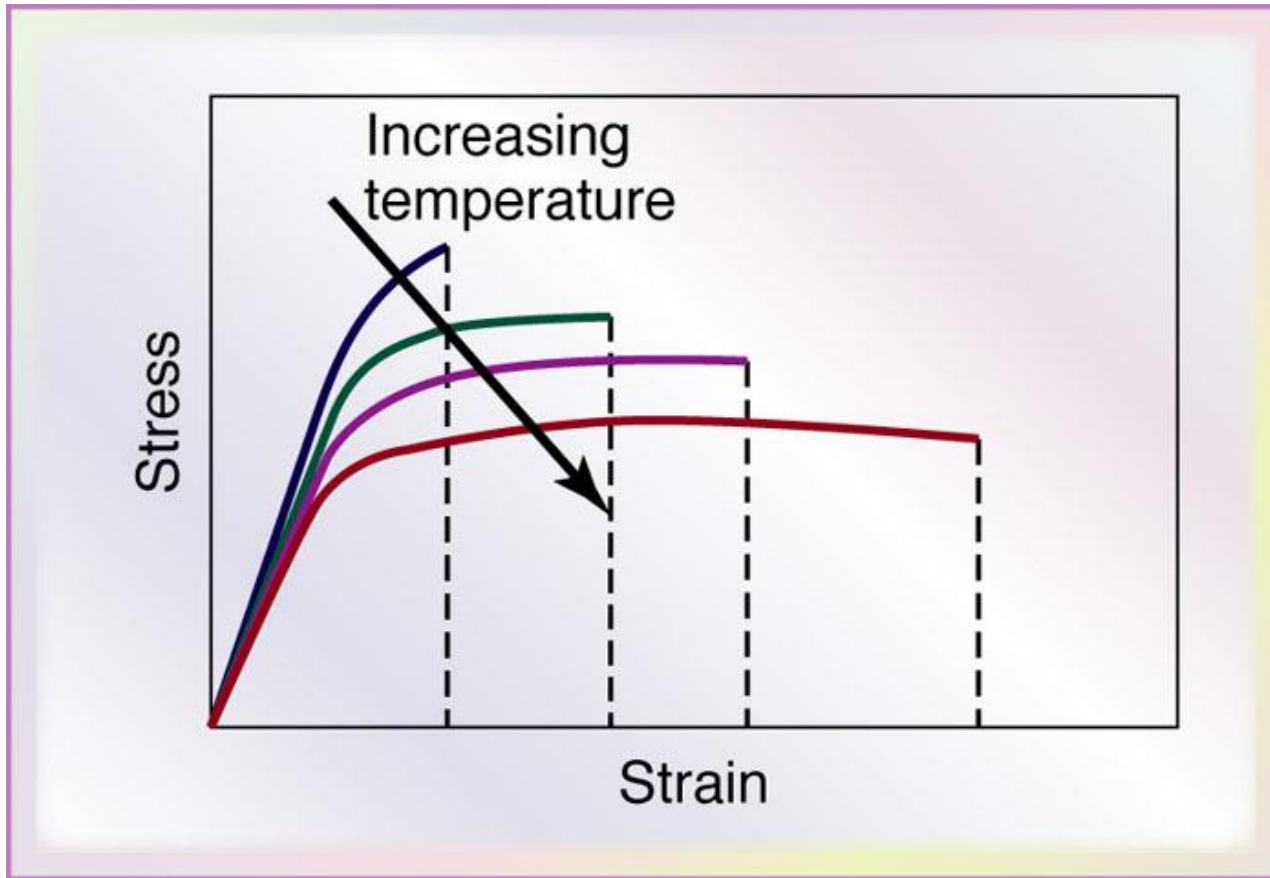


(b)

Example



Temperature Effects on Stress-strain Curves



Typical effects of temperature on stress-strain curves. Note that temperature affects the modulus of elasticity, the yield stress, the ultimate tensile strength, and the toughness (area under the curve) of materials.

Iron at 3 temp.

