

Introduction to Engineering Materials

Mechanical Properties

Why mechanical properties?

Need to design material that can withstand applied load...

e.g. materials used in building bridges that can hold up automobiles, pedestrians

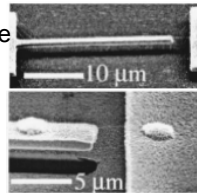


materials for skyscrapers in the Windy City...



materials for space exploration...

materials for and designing MEMS and NEMs...



Space elevators?

1

Issues to address...

- Stress and strain
- Elastic behavior
- Plastic behavior
- Strength, ductility, resilience, toughness, hardness
- Mechanical behavior of different classes of materials
- Design/safety factors

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Stress and Strain

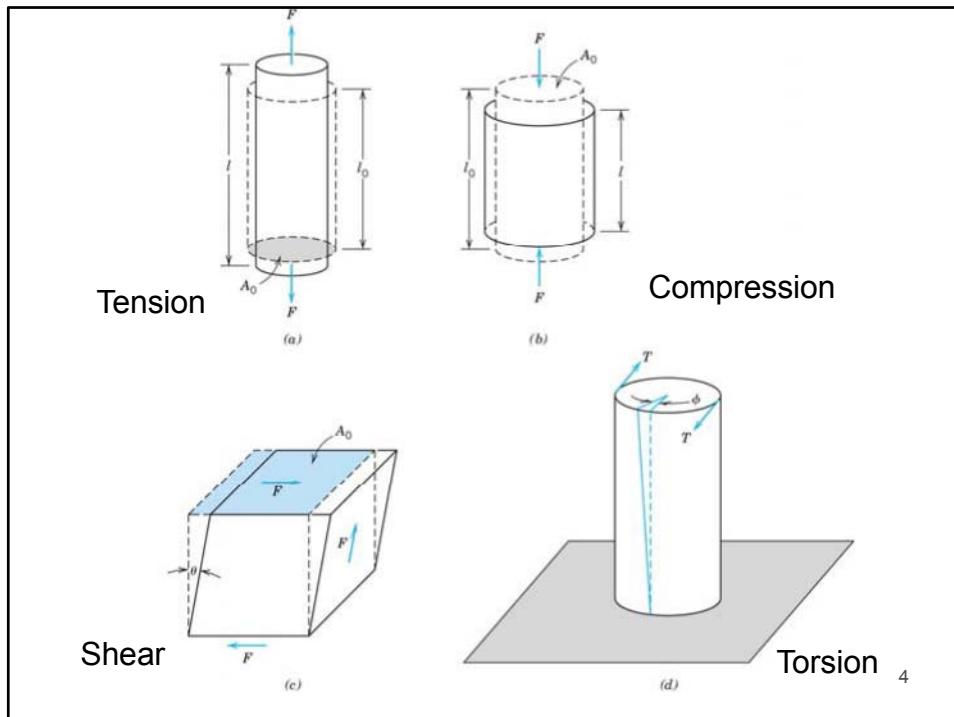
Stress: Pressure due to applied load.

tension, compression, shear, torsion, and combination.

$$\text{stress} = \sigma = \frac{\text{force}}{\text{area}}$$

Strain: response of the material to stress (i.e. physical deformations such as elongation due to tension).

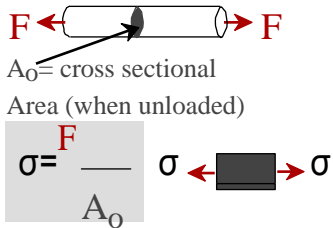
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COMMON STATES OF STRESS

- Simple tension: cable



Skilift (photocourtesy P.M. Anderson)

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COMMON STATES OF STRESS

- Simple compression:



Balanced Rock, Arches National Park



Canyon Bridge, Los Alamos, NM

$\sigma = \frac{F}{A_0}$



Note: compressive structure member ($\sigma < 0$ here).

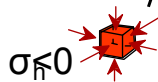
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COMMON STATES OF STRESS

- Hydrostatic compression:



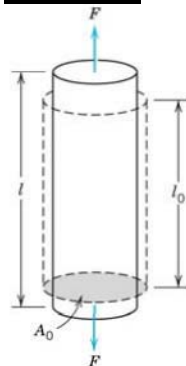
Fish under water



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Tension and Compression

Tension



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

Engineering strain = $\epsilon = \frac{l_i - l_o}{l_o} = \frac{\Delta l}{l_o}$

A_o = original cross-sectional area

l_i = instantaneous length

l_o = original length

Note: strain is unitless.

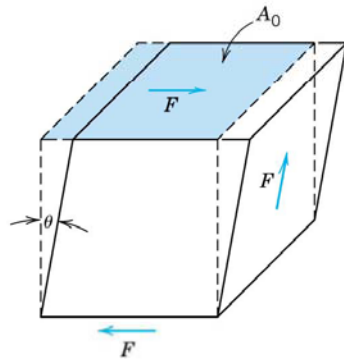
Compression

Same as tension but in the opposite direction (stress and strain defined in the same manner).

By convention, stress and strain are negative for compression.

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Shear

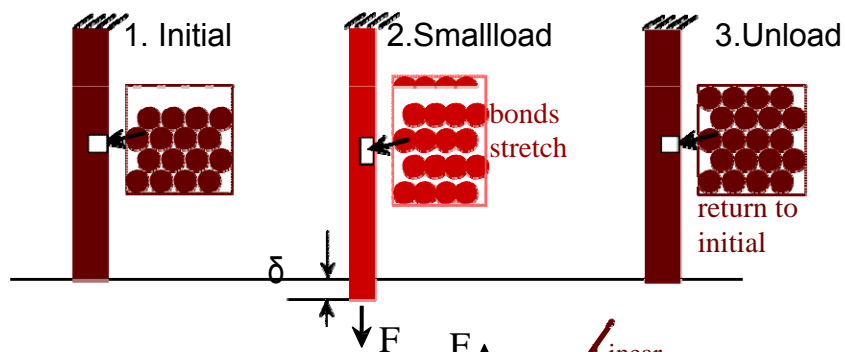


Pureshearstress= $\tau = \frac{F}{A_0}$

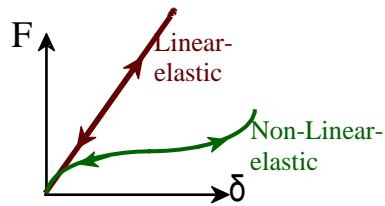
Pureshear strain= $\gamma = \tan \theta$

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ElasticDeformation

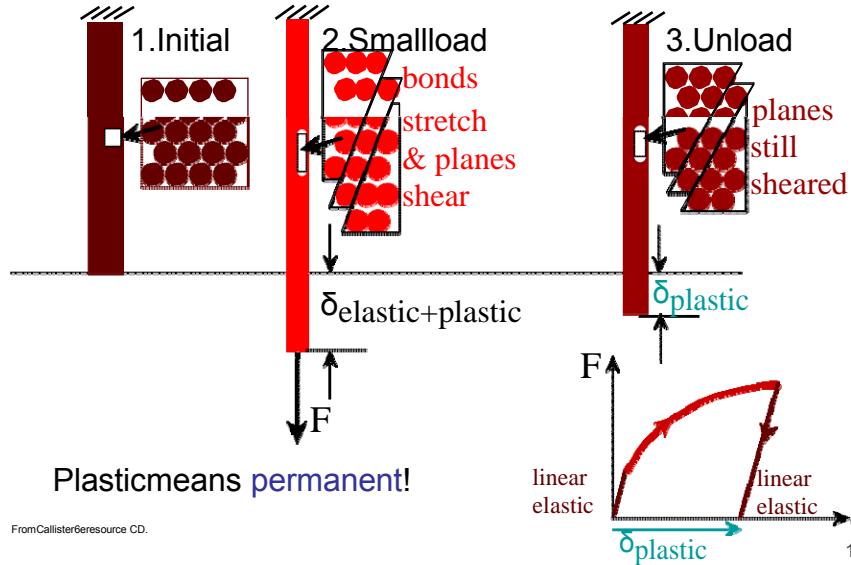


Elastic means reversible!

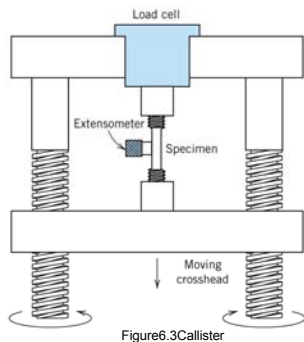
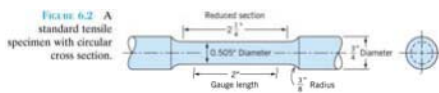


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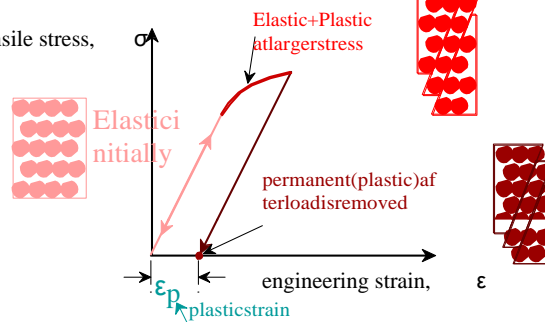
Plastic Deformation



Stress-strain test



tensile stress, σ



Elastic Deformation

-a non-permanent deformation where the material completely recovers to its original state upon release of the applied stress.

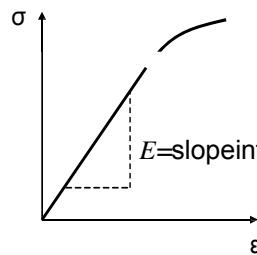
Hooke's Law:

$$\sigma = E \epsilon$$

stress strain

Modulus of elasticity (Young's modulus)

Measure of material's resistance to elastic deformation (stiffness).

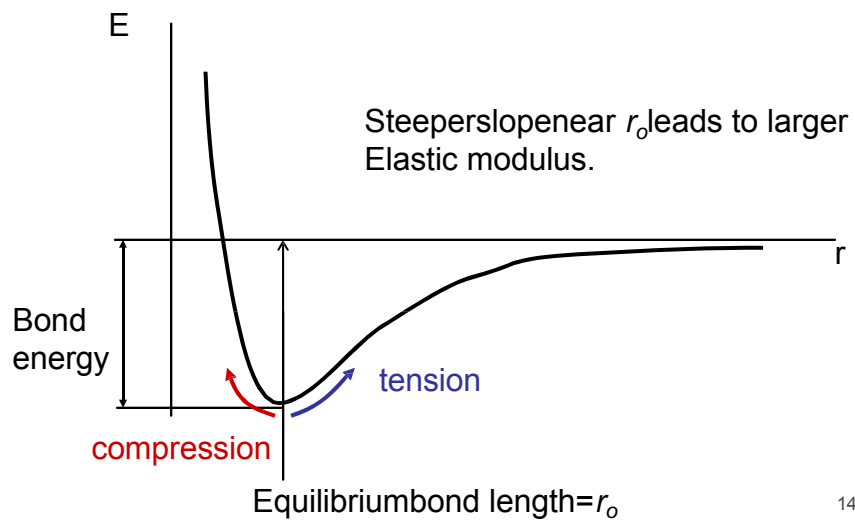


$E = \text{slope in the linear region}$

For metals, typically $E \sim 45\text{--}400\text{ GPa}$

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Recall back to bonding Energy vs. r curve...



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Table 6.1 Room-Temperature Elastic and Shear Moduli, and Poisson's Ratio for Various Metal Alloys

Metal Alloy	Modulus of Elasticity		Shear Modulus		Poisson's Ratio
	GPa	10 ⁶ psi	GPa	10 ⁶ psi	
Aluminum	69	10	25	3.6	0.33
Brass	97	14	37	5.4	0.34
Copper	110	16	46	6.7	0.34
Magnesium	45	6.5	17	2.5	0.29
Nickel	207	30	76	11.0	0.31
Steel	207	30	83	12.0	0.30
Titanium	107	15.5	45	6.5	0.34
Tungsten	407	59	160	23.2	0.28

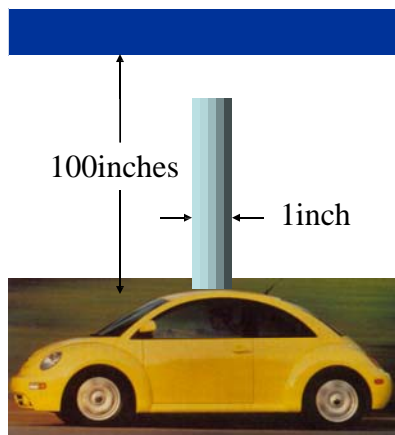
Silicon(singlecrystal) 120-190(dependsoncrystallographicdirection)
 Glass(pyrex) 70
 SiC(fusedorsintered) 207-483
 Graphite(molded) ~12
 HighmodulusC-fiber 400
CarbonNanotubes ~1000

Ifwenormalizetodensity:~20times thatofsteelwire.
 Densitynormalizedstrength~56X

thatofsteelwire.

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Elasticdeformation:exampleproblem



Steelcarhanger:Howmany VWBeetles mustwehang froma 100 inch longbar ofsteelin ordertostretchitby 1%?

$$A_0 = 1 \text{ in}^2$$

$$E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$$

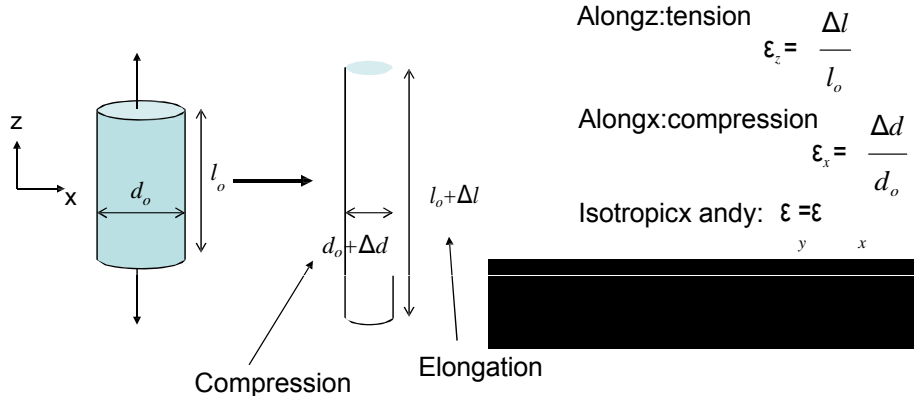
Will this be an elastic deformation?

MATSE 101MaterialsinToday's World © I. Robertson, Ken Bratland1999,2000
 ©Tim Spila,2002

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Poisson Ratio

Sofar, we've considered stress only along one dimension...



Relation between elastic and shear moduli: $E = 2G(1 + \nu)$

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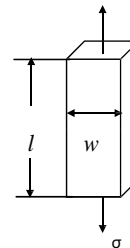
Poisson Ratio

- **Poisson Ratio** has a range $-1 \leq \nu \leq 1/2$

Look at extremes $\Delta w/w = \Delta l/l$

- No change in aspect ratio:

$$\nu = - \frac{\Delta w/w}{\Delta l/l} = -1$$



- **Volume (V=AL) remains constant:** $\Delta V = 0$ or $\Delta A = -A \Delta l/l$

Hence, $\Delta V = (l \Delta A + A \Delta l) = 0$.

In terms of width, $A = w^2$,

$$\text{and } \Delta A = w^2 - (w + \Delta w)^2 = 2w\Delta w + \Delta w^2$$

then

$$\Delta A/A = 2\Delta w/w + \Delta w^2/w^2$$

in the limit of small changes,

$$\Delta A/A = 2\Delta w/w$$

then

$$2\Delta w/w = -\Delta l/l$$

$$\nu = - \frac{\Delta w/w}{\Delta l/l} = - \frac{(-\Delta l/l)}{\Delta l/l} = 1/2$$

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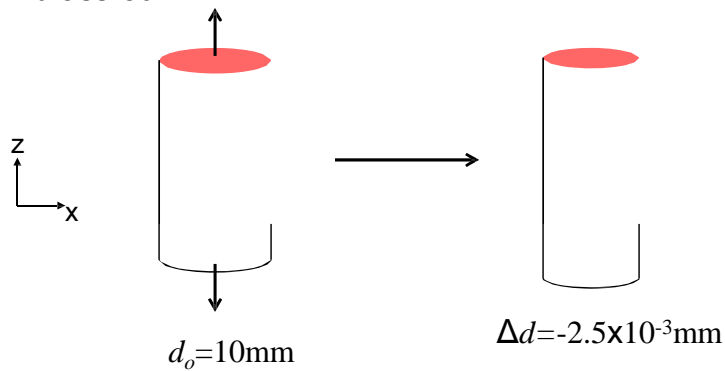
Poisson Ratio: material specific

Metals:	Ir	W	Ni	Cu	Al	Ag	Au	
		0.26	0.29	0.31	0.34	0.34	0.38	0.42
								generic value ~ 1/3
Solid Argon:	0.25							
Covalent Solids:		Si	Ge	Al ₂ O ₃	TiC			
		0.27	0.28	0.23	0.19			generic value ~ 1/4
Ionic Solids:	MgO	0.19						
Silica Glass:	0.20							
Polymers:	Network (Bakelite)	0.49			Chain (PE)	0.40		
Elastomer:	Hard Rubber (Ebonite)	0.39		(Natural)	0.49			

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Poisson Ratio: Example problem

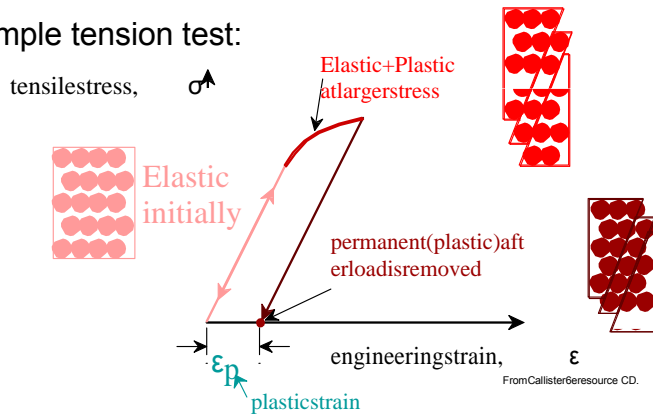
Calculate the force necessary to produce a change of -2.5×10^{-3} mm in diameter of a 10 mm diameter brass rod.



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Plastic Deformation

- Simple tension test:



- A permanent deformation (usually considered for $T < T_m/3$).
- Atoms break bonds and form new ones.
- In metals, plastic deformation occurs typically at strain ≥ 0.005 .

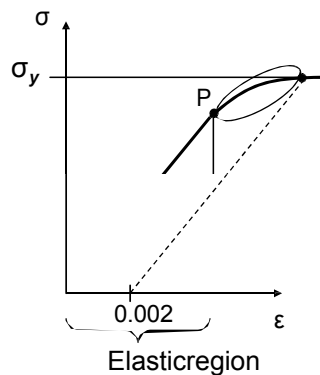
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Tensile properties

A. Yield strength (σ_y): the strength required to produce a very slight yet specified amount of plastic deformation. What is the specified amount of strain?

Strain offset method

1. Start at 0.002 strain (for most metals).
2. Draw a line parallel to the linear region.
3. σ_y = where the dotted line crosses the stress-strain curve.



P = proportional limit (beginning of deviation from linear behavior).

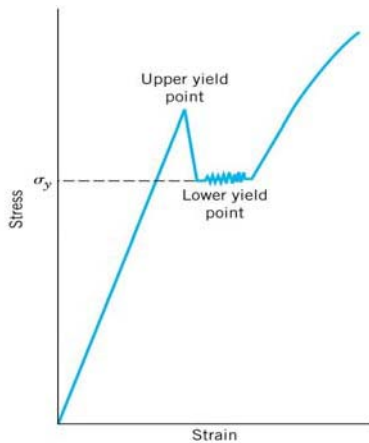
Mixed elastic-plastic behavior

For materials with nonlinear elastic region: σ_y is defined as stress required to produce specific amount of strain (e.g. ~ 0.005 for most metals).

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Tensile properties

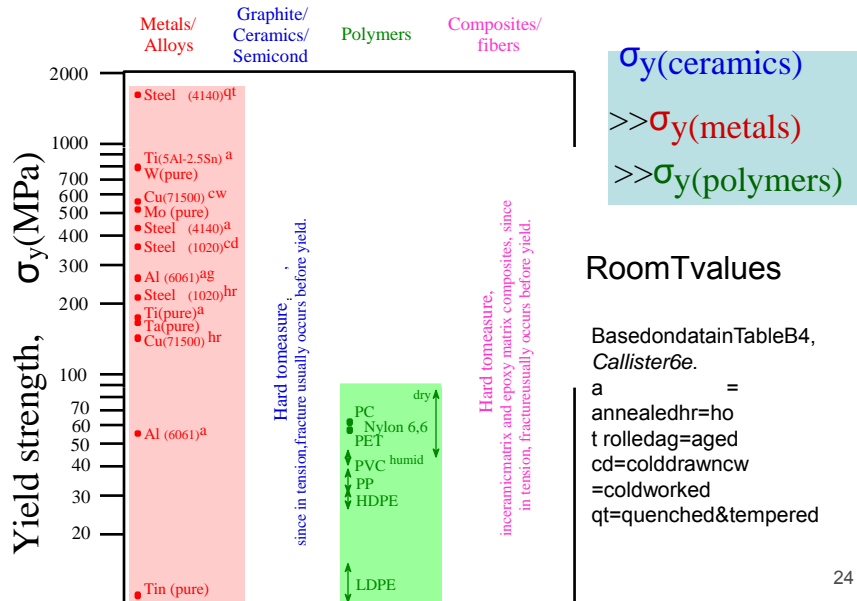
Yield point phenomenon occurs when elastic-plastic transition is well-defined and abrupt.



No offset methods required here.

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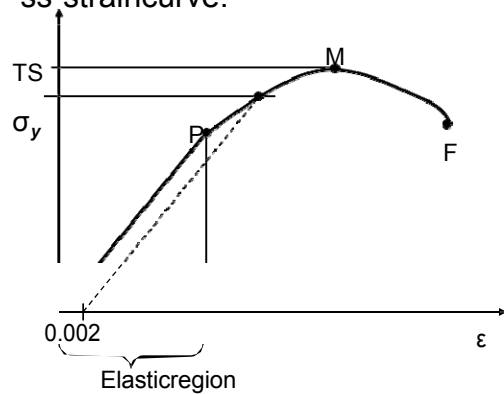
Yield strengths of different materials



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Tensile Properties

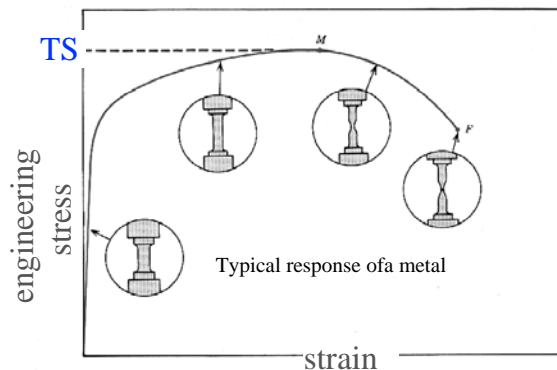
B. Tensile Strength (TS): stress at the maximum of stress-strain curve.



P=proportional limit
 σ_y = yield strength
 TS=tensile strength
 M=max. stress F= fracture point

Note: For most engineering materials, strength should be specified by **yield strength** (not tensile strength). Why? ²⁵

Necking

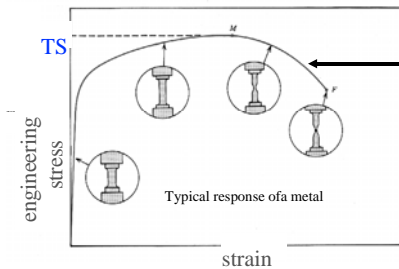


Adapted from Fig. 6.11, Callister 6e.

Necking: at maximum stress, a small constriction (a neck) appears. Subsequent deformation is confined to this neck.

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True stress and strain



Notice that past maximum stress point, σ decreases.

→ Does this mean that the material is becoming weaker?

Necking leads to smaller cross sectional area!

Recall: Engineering Stress = $\sigma = \frac{F}{A_o}$

F

A_o ← Original cross sectional area!

$$\text{True Stress} = \sigma_T = \frac{F}{A_i}$$

$$\text{True Strain} = \epsilon_T = \ln \frac{l_i}{l_o}$$

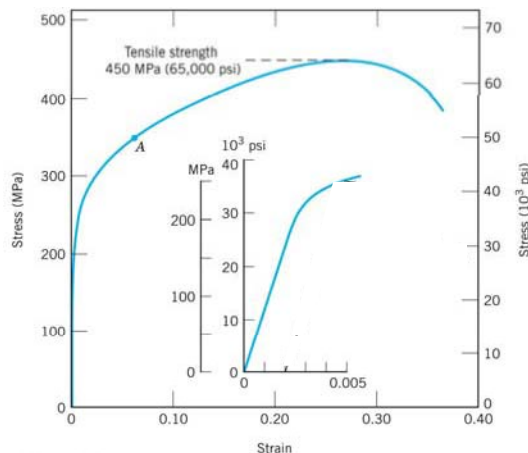
A_i = instantaneous area
 l_i = instantaneous length

If no net volume change (i.e. $A_i l_i = A_o l_o$)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \sigma_T &= \sigma(1 + \epsilon) \\ \epsilon_T &= \ln(1 + \epsilon) \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{Only true at the onset of} \\ \text{necking} \end{array}$$

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Example problem



Calculate/determine the following for a brass specimen that exhibits stress-strain behavior shown on the left.

- 1) Modulus of elasticity.
- 2) Yield strength.
- 3) Maximum load for a cylindrical specimen with $d = 12.8$ mm.
- 4) Change in length that 345 MPa if the initial length is 250 mm.

FIGURE 6.12 The stress-strain behavior for the brass specimen discussed in Example Problem 6.3.

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Tensile properties

C. Ductility: measure of degree of plastic deformation that has been sustained at fracture.

- **Ductile materials** can undergo significant plastic deformation before fracture.
- **Brittle materials** can tolerate only very small plastic deformation.

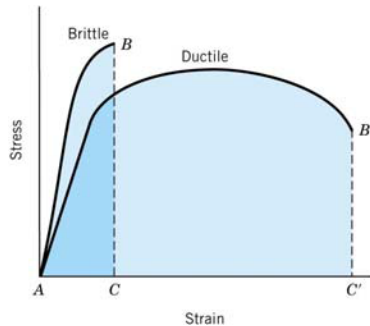


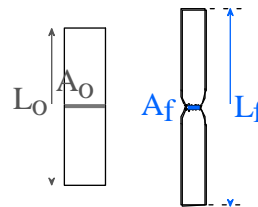
FIGURE 6.13 Schematic representations of tensile stress-strain behavior for brittle and ductile materials loaded to fracture.

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Measure of ductility

$$\% \text{elongation} = \frac{l_f - l_o}{l_o} \times 100\%$$

$$\% \text{reduction in area} = \frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \times 100\%$$



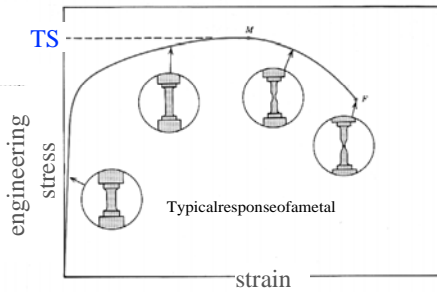
A_o and l_o are initial. A_f and l_f are at fracture.

- Note: %AR and %EL are often comparable.
 - Reason: crystal slip does not change material volume.
 - %AR > %EL possible if internal voids form in neck.

Typically, materials are considered: brittle if %EL < 5%
ductile if %EL > 5%

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Example Problem: ductility & true stress



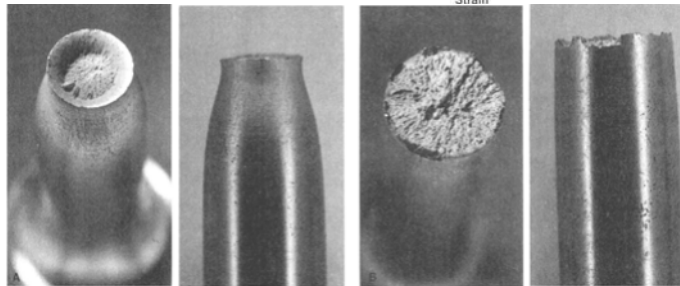
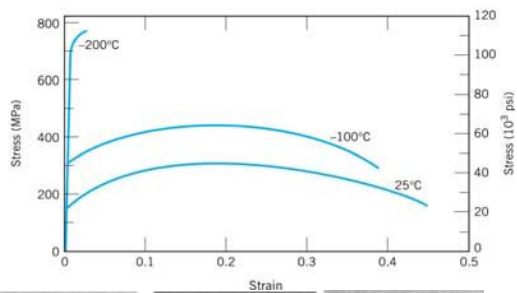
Steel specimen with
 $d_o = 12.8 \text{ mm}$
 Fracture at $\sigma_f = 460 \text{ MPa}$
 Cross sectional diameter at fracture = 10.7 mm

- A) Calculate ductility in terms of percent reduction in area.
 B) The true stress at fracture.

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Note: most metals are ductile at RT, but can become brittle at low T

Figure 6.14
 Engineering stress-strain behavior for iron at three temperatures.



Ductile failure

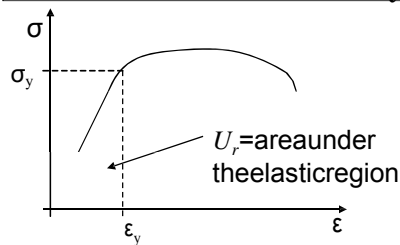
Brittle failure

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Tensile properties

D. Resilience: the capacity to absorb energy when deformed elastically and to have the absorbed energy recovered upon unloading.

$$\text{Modulus of Resilience} = U_r = \int_0^{\epsilon_y} \sigma d\epsilon$$



If the elastic region is perfectly linear

(i.e. E is independent of ϵ):

$$U_r = \frac{\sigma_y^2}{2E}$$

Resilient materials have large yield strength and small elastic modulus.

E. Toughness: the ability of a material to absorb energy up to its fracture point.

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Elastic recovery after plastic deformation

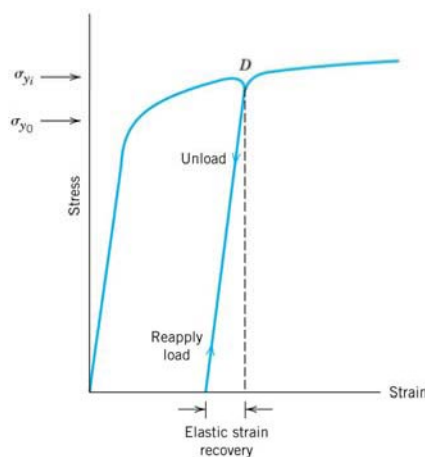


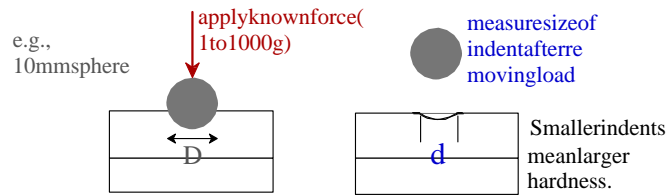
FIGURE 6.17 Schematic tensile stress-strain diagram showing the phenomena of elastic strain recovery and strain hardening. The initial yield strength is designated as σ_{y_0} ; σ_{y_1} is the yield strength after releasing the load at point D , and then upon reloading.

This behavior is exploited to increase yield strengths of metals: **strain hardening** (also called **cold working**).

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Hardness

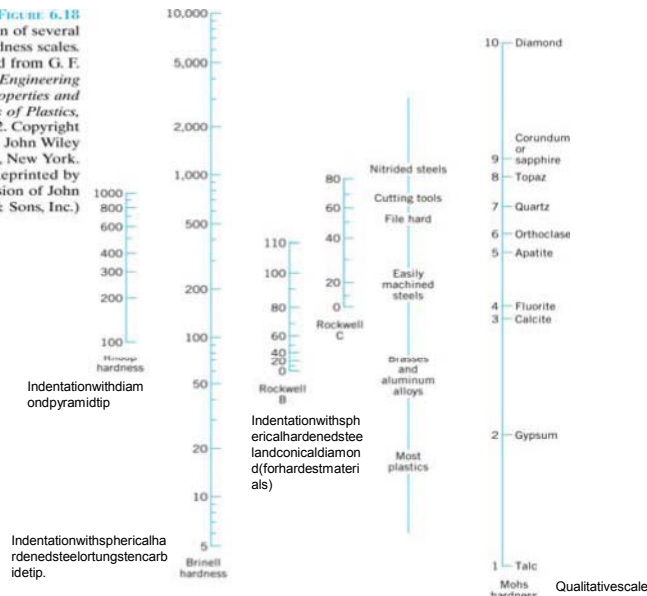
- Resistance to permanently indenting the surface.
- Large hardness means:
 - resistance to plastic deformation or cracking in compression.
 - better wear properties.



Indentation will depend not only on the material being tested but also on indenter composition and geometry.

Hardness scales

FIGURE 6.18
Comparison of several hardness scales.
(Adapted from G. F. Kinney, *Engineering Properties and Applications of Plastics*, p. 202. Copyright © 1957 by John Wiley & Sons, New York. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.)



Correlation between hardness and tensile strength

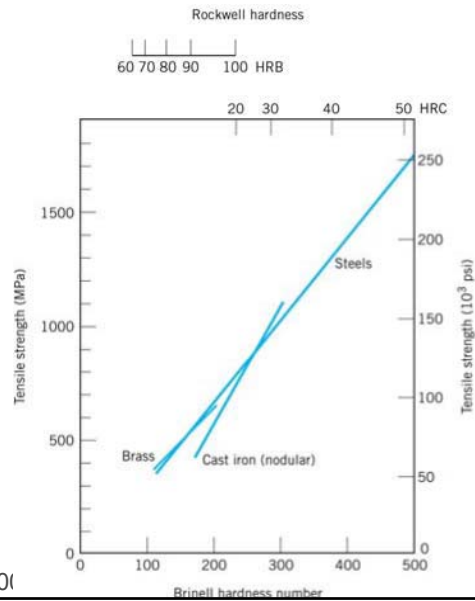
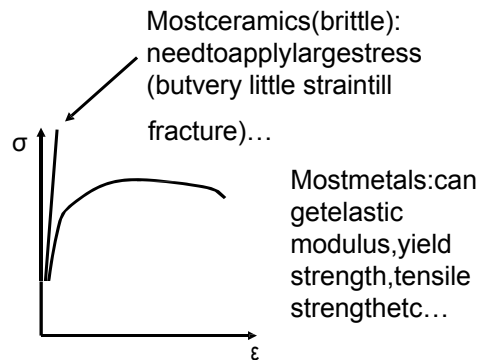
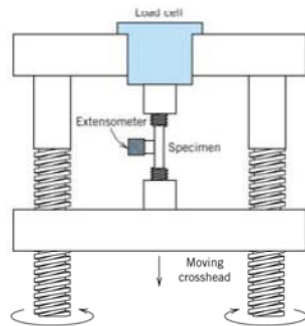


FIGURE 6.19 Relationships between hardness and tensile strength for steel, brass, and cast iron. [Data taken from *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Irons and Steels*, Vol. 1, 9th edition, B. Bardes (Editor), American Society for Metals, 1978, pp. 36 and 46; and *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Nonferrous Alloys and Pure Metals*, Vol. 2, 9th edition, H. Baker (Managing Editor), American Society for Metals, 1979, p. 327.]

Both tensile strength and hardness indicate a material's resistance to plastic deformation. ∴ these two properties are roughly proportional. ³⁷

Mechanical properties-Ceramics

Recall tensile tests for stress-strain behavior...



Most ceramics (brittle): need to apply large stress (but very little strain till fracture)...

Most metals: can get elastic modulus, yield strength, tensile strength etc...

In fact, if the testing apparatus is mainly made of metal, how do we test for ceramics with larger fracture strength?

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3-point bend test

Possible cross sections

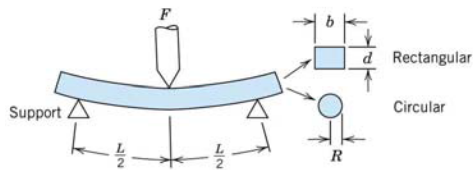
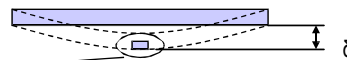


FIGURE 12.29 A three-point loading scheme for measuring the stress-strain behavior and flexural strength of brittle ceramics, including expressions for computing stress for rectangular and circular cross sections.

$$\sigma = \text{stress} = \frac{Mc}{I}$$

where M = maximum bending moment
 c = distance from center of specimen to outer fibers
 I = moment of inertia of cross section
 F = applied load

	$\frac{M}{F}$	$\frac{c}{d}$	$\frac{I}{d^3}$	$\frac{\sigma}{F}$
Rectangular	$\frac{FL}{4}$	$\frac{d}{2}$	$\frac{bd^3}{12}$	$\frac{3FL}{2bd^2}$
Circular	$\frac{FL}{4}$	R	$\frac{\pi R^4}{4}$	$\frac{FL}{\pi R^3}$



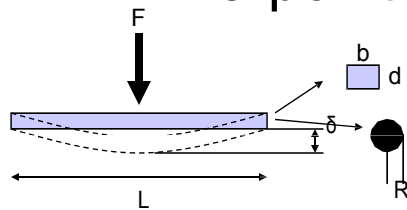
This is similar to tensile test. Why?

Look at point of max stress (where is it?).



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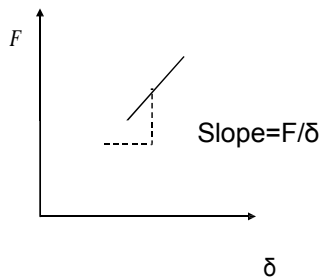
3-point bend test



Elastic modulus is proportional to F/δ

$$E_{rect.} = \frac{F L^3}{\delta 4bd^3}$$

$$E_{circ.} = \frac{F L^3}{\delta 4\pi R^4}$$



Flexural strength: strength at fracture

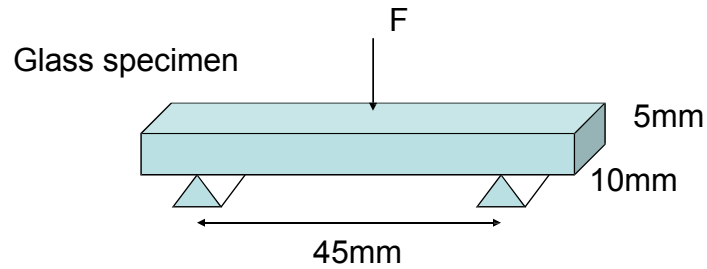
$$\sigma_{fs} = 2 \frac{F_f L}{4bd^2} \quad \text{Rectangular}$$

$$\sigma_{fs} = \frac{F_f L}{\pi R^3} \quad \text{Circular}$$

F_f = force at fracture

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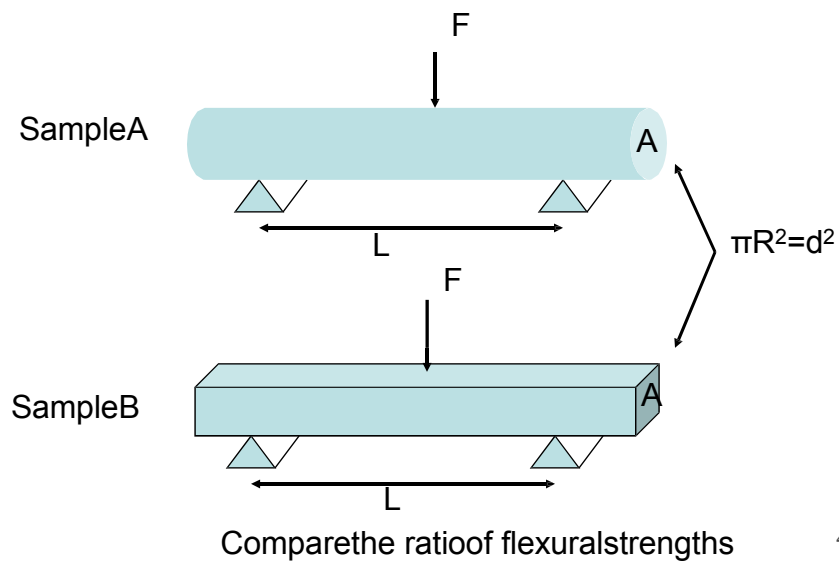
Example 1: 3pt bend test



- Calculate flexural strength if the load at fracture is 290N.
- Calculate the maximum deflection at $F=266\text{N}$

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Example 2: 3pt bend test



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Polymer stress-strain behavior

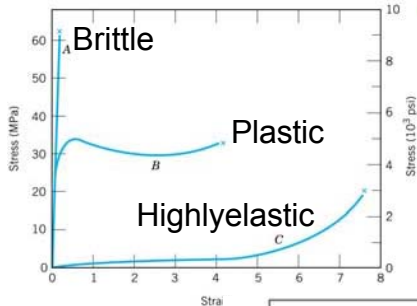


FIGURE 15.1 The stress-strain behavior for brittle (curve A), plastic (curve B), and highly elastic (elastomeric) (curve C) polymers.

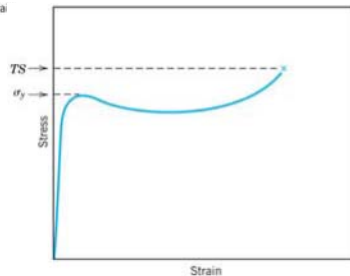


FIGURE 15.2 Schematic stress-strain curve for a plastic polymer showing how yield and tensile strengths are determined.

Plastic polymers

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Polymer stress-strain behavior

- Modulus of elasticity ~ 7 MPa to 4 GPa.
- Tensile strength up to ~ 100 MPa.
- Plastic elongation can be > 100%.
- Typically highly T sensitive mechanical properties.

Table 15.1 Room-Temperature Mechanical Characteristics of Some of the More Common Polymers

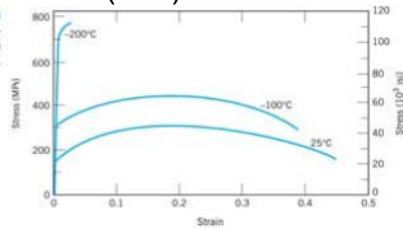
Material	Specific Gravity	Tensile Modulus [GPa (ksi)]	Tensile Strength [MPa (ksi)]	Yield Strength [MPa (ksi)]	Elongation at Break (%)
Polyethylene (low density)	0.917–0.932	0.17–0.28 (25–41)	8.3–31.4 (1.2–4.55)	9.0–14.5 (1.3–2.1)	100–650
Polyethylene (high density)	0.952–0.965	1.06–1.09 (155–158)	22.1–31.0 (3.2–4.5)	26.2–33.1 (3.8–4.8)	10–1200
Polyvinyl chloride	1.30–1.58	2.4–4.1 (350–600)	40.7–51.7 (5.9–7.5)	40.7–44.8 (5.9–6.5)	40–80
Polytetrafluoroethylene	2.14–2.20	0.40–0.55 (58–80)	20.7–34.5 (3.0–5.0)	—	200–400
Polypropylene	0.90–0.91	1.14–1.55 (165–225)	31–41.4 (4.5–6.0)	31.0–37.2 (4.5–5.4)	100–600
Polystyrene	1.04–1.05	2.28–3.28 (330–475)	35.9–51.7 (5.2–7.5)	—	1.2–2.5
Polymethyl methacrylate	1.17–1.20	2.24–3.24 (325–470)	48.3–72.4 (7.0–10.5)	53.8–73.1 (7.8–10.6)	2.0–5.5
Phenol-formaldehyde	1.24–1.32	2.76–4.83 (400–700)	34.5–62.1 (5.0–9.0)	—	1.5–2.0
Nylon 6,6	1.13–1.15	1.58–3.80 (230–550)	75.9–94.5 (11.0–13.7)	44.8–82.8 (6.5–12)	15–300
Polyester (PET)	1.29–1.40	2.8–4.1	48.3–72.4	59.3	30–300

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Polymer stress-strain behavior

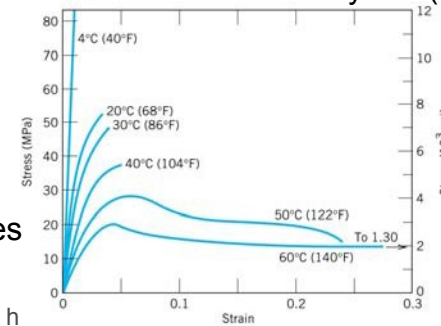
Metal (Iron)

FIGURE 6.14 Engineering stress-strain behavior for iron at three temperatures.



Polymer (PMMA)

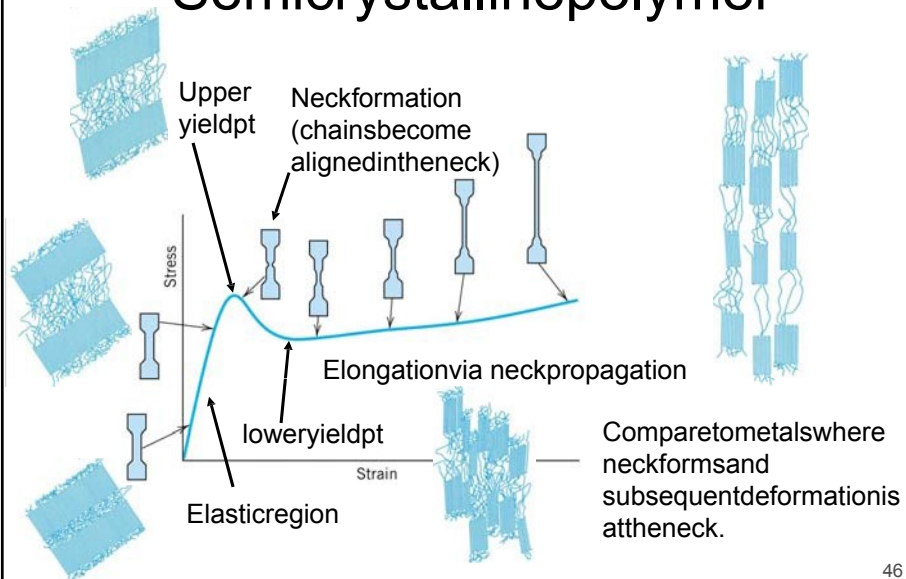
FIGURE 15.3 The influence of temperature on the stress-strain characteristics of polymethyl methacrylate. (From T. S. Carswell and H. K. Nason, "Effect of Environmental Conditions on the Mechanical Properties of Organic Plastics," *Symposium on Plastics*, American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, 1944. Copyright, ASTM, 1916 Race Street, Philadelphia, PA 19103. Reprinted with permission.)



As T increases:

- E decreases
- TS decreases
- Ductility increases

Semicrystalline polymer



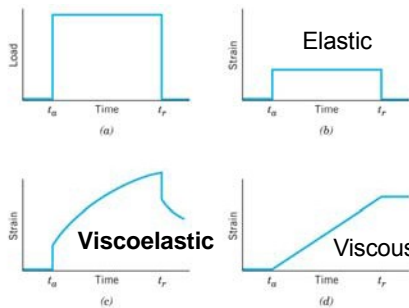
Viscoelastic deformation

Amorphous polymers may act like:

- Glass at low T ($T < T_g$ Glass transition temperature).
- Rubbery solid ($T_m > T > T_g$).
- Viscous liquid ($T > T_m$).

Viscoelasticity: mechanical characteristics exhibiting both viscous flow and elastic deformation (rubbery solid).

FIGURE 15.5 (a) Load versus time, where load is applied instantaneously at time t_a and released at t_r . For the load-time cycle in (a), the strain-versus-time responses are for totally elastic (b), viscoelastic (c), and viscous (d) behavior.



Instantaneous response/
complete recovery.

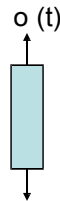
Delayed response.
Not reversible.

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Viscoelastic relaxation modulus

Recall Elastic Modulus: $\sigma = E \epsilon$

The modulus can be both time and temperature dependent.



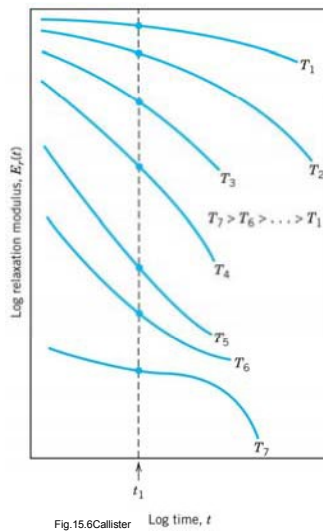
1. At a constant T , apply small stress (σ) to achieve initial strain (ϵ_0).
2. Adjust σ to maintain ϵ_0 .
3. Repeat at different T .

For each T : **Relaxation Modulus**

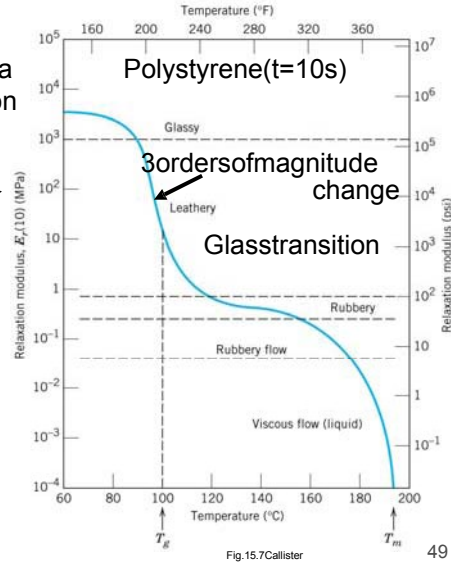
$$E_r(t) = \frac{\sigma(t)}{\epsilon_0}$$

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Viscoelastic relaxation modulus



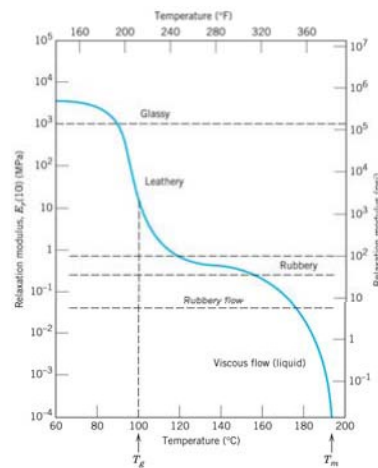
Plot a function of T at a fixed t .



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Viscoelastic relaxation modulus

- **Glassy region:**
 - Initially independent of T .
 - Rigid & brittle (molecular chains “frozen” in place).
- **Glasstransition region:**
 - Time-dependent deformation.
 - Incomplete recovery upon release of load.
- **Rubbery region:**
 - Both viscous and elastic.
 - Low relaxation modulus \rightarrow easy to deform.
- **Viscous flow region:**
 - High viscosity liquid.
 - Completely viscous deformation.

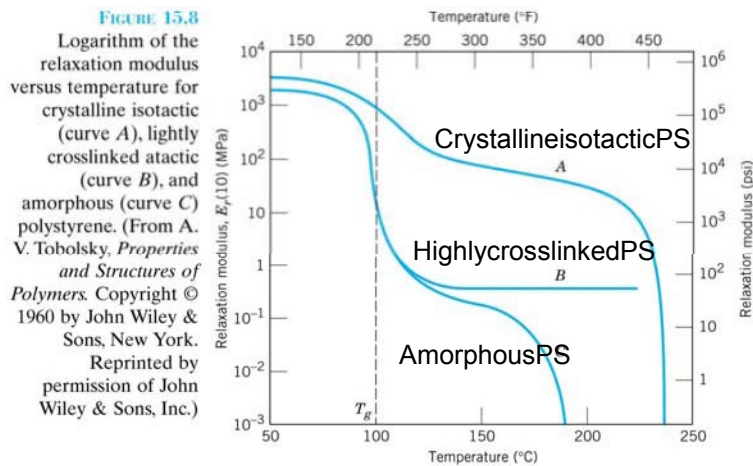


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Viscoelastic relaxation modulus

Molecular structure effect

Polystyrene



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Viscoelastic creep

Time dependent deformation when stress is kept constant (as opposed to constant strain for viscoelastic relaxation).

Creep modulus:

$$E_c(t) = \frac{\sigma_0}{\epsilon(t)}$$

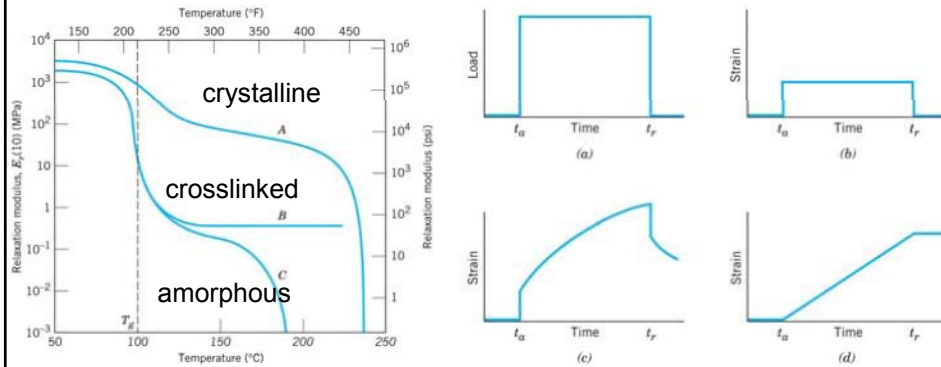
Similar to relaxation modulus, creep modulus is dependent on T and structure.

In general: $E_c(t)$ decreases with increasing T

$E_c(t)$ increases with increasing crystallinity.

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Example problem



Which behavior will polystyrene exhibit if it is:

- 1) amorphous and deformed at 120°C?
- 2) amorphous and deformed at 180°C?
- 3) crystalline and deformed at 70°C?
- 4) crosslinked and deformed at 180°C?

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Concepts to remember

- Tensile, compressive, shear, and torsional stress. Strain.
- Elastic vs. Plastic deformation.
- Modulus of elasticity.
- Yield and tensile strengths.
- Poisson ratio.
- True vs. Engineering stress and strain.
- Necking.
- Ductility, Resilience, Toughness, Hardness.
- Polymer stress-strain behavior.
- Viscoelastic relaxation and creep.

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