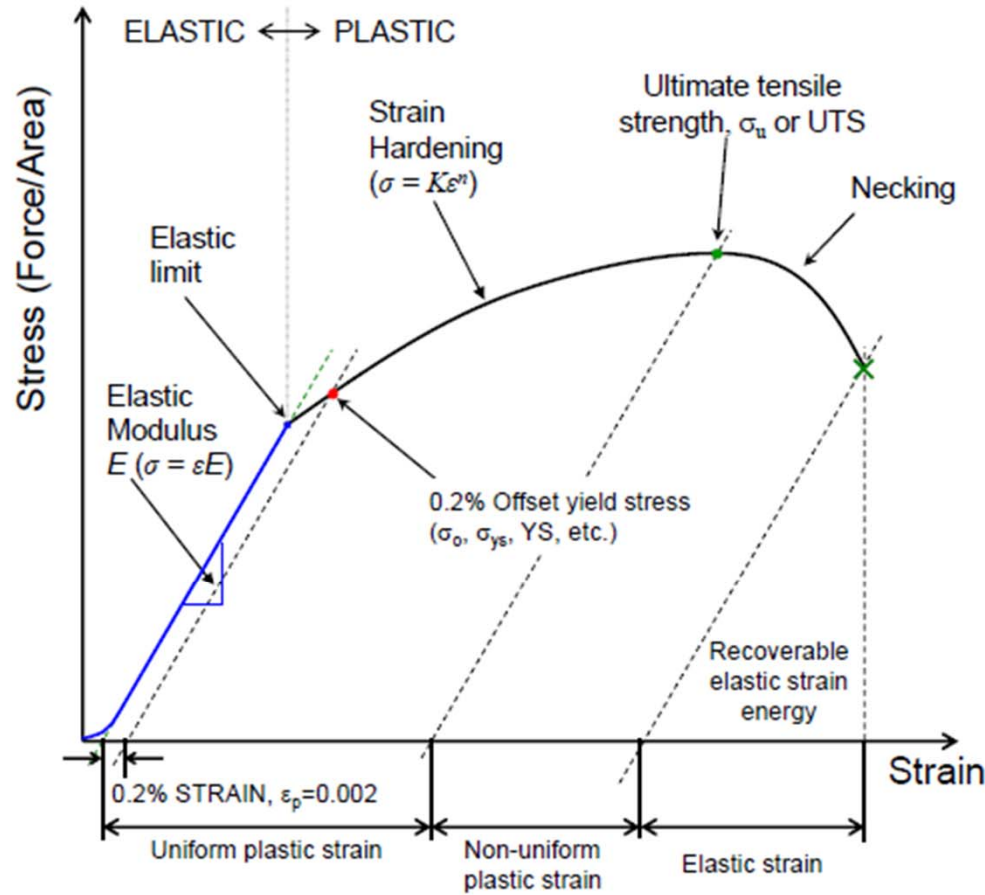


# Experimental Strength of Materials

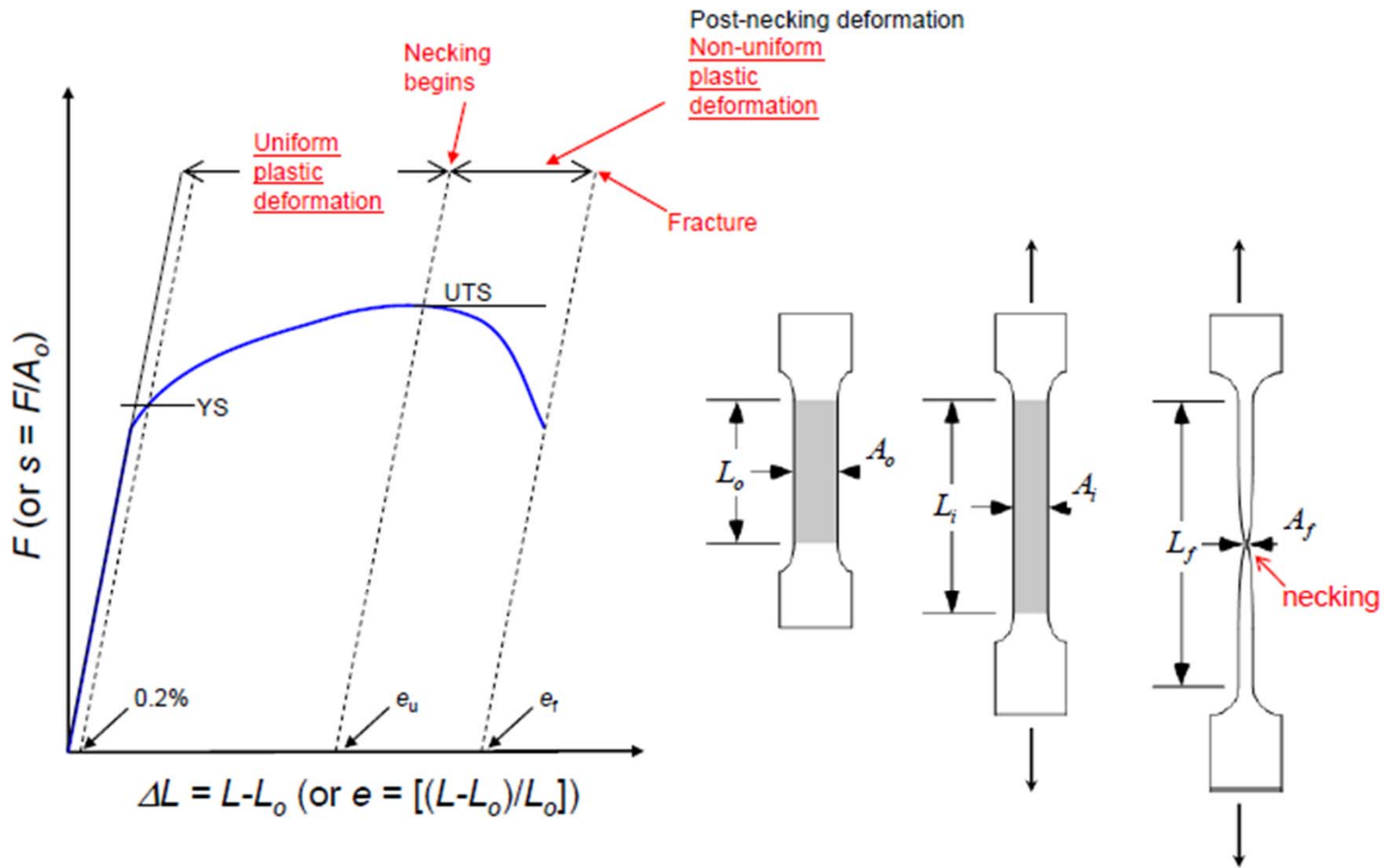
## Lecture #2

Panos Tsopelas, PhD

## Engineering Stress-Strain Curve in Tension



- Elastic deformation up to elastic limit.
- Plastic deformation after elastic limit.
- Uniform plastic deformation between elastic limit and the UTS.
- Nonuniform plastic deformation after UTS.
- In tension this non-uniform deformation is called **necking**.

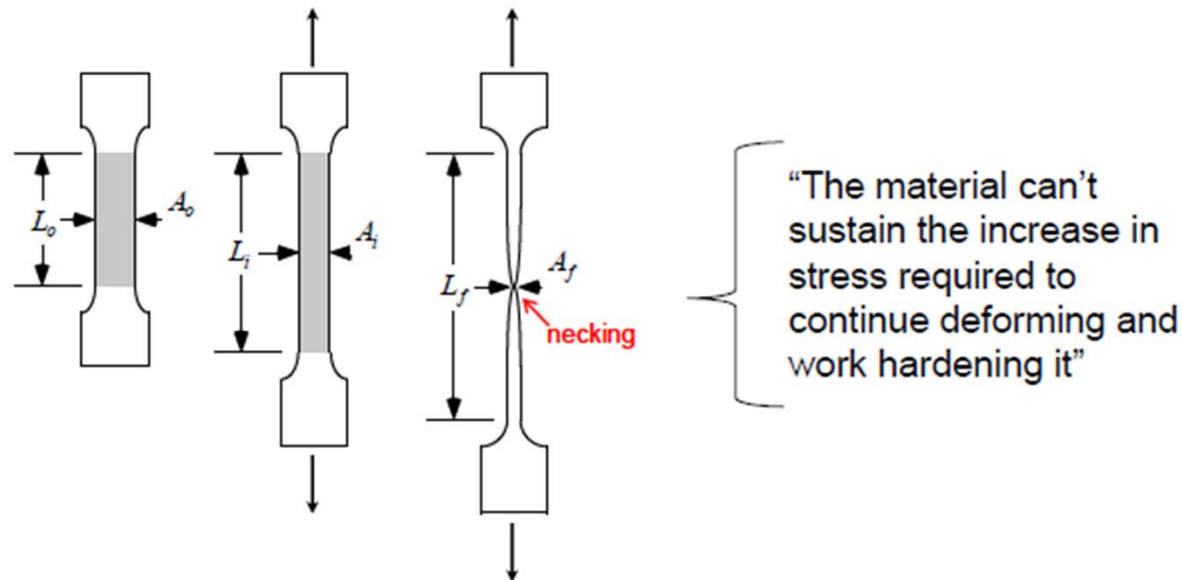


## Why does necking occur?

- Consider strength increases due to strain hardening vs. reduction in cross-sectional area caused by the Poisson effect.
- During plastic deformation, the load carrying capacity of the material increases due to strain-hardening.
- Strain hardening is opposed by the gradual decrease in the cross-sectional area of the specimen as it elongates.

## “Why does necking occur?” – cont’d

- At maximum load (i.e., the UTS), **stress needed to continue deformation** > the reduced cross-section can withstand.
- Leads to localized plastic deformation in reduced section. This is non-uniform flow or “necking.”



## Criteria for Necking – cont'd

- Local  $\downarrow$  in  $A$  (i.e., deformation) causes that region to strain harden locally (relative to the rest of the cross section). The remainder of the cross section then deforms (and strain hardens) sequentially until a uniform cross-section is re-established.
- The **rates balance at the UTS** [ $(dA/d\varepsilon) = (d\sigma/d\varepsilon)$ ].
- When  $(dA/d\varepsilon) > (d\sigma/d\varepsilon)$ , deformation becomes unstable. The material cannot strain harden fast enough to inhibit necking.

## Criteria for Necking – cont'd

- The criteria for **instability** is defined by the condition where the slope of the force distance curve equals zero ( $dF = 0$ ):

$$F = \sigma A$$

where

$$F = \text{load,}$$

$$\sigma = \text{true stress,}$$

$$A = \text{area at max load}$$

**NOTE:** We are using true stress and strain here rather than engineering

$$\boxed{dF = \sigma dA + Ad\sigma = 0} \dots\dots\dots (*)$$

## Criteria for Necking – cont'd

- Recall that deformation is a constant volume process. Therefore:

$$L_o A_o = LA = \text{constant}$$

$$\frac{dL}{L} = -\frac{dA}{A} = d\varepsilon$$

- If we invoke the instability criteria from the previous page (\*), we get:

$$-\frac{dA}{A} = \frac{d\sigma}{\sigma} = d\varepsilon$$



## Criteria for Necking – cont'd

- Thus, at the point of tensile instability,

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} = \sigma \quad \text{When "necking" occurs.}$$

- If we incorporate engineering strain  $e$ , into the equation presented above, we can develop a more explicit expression:

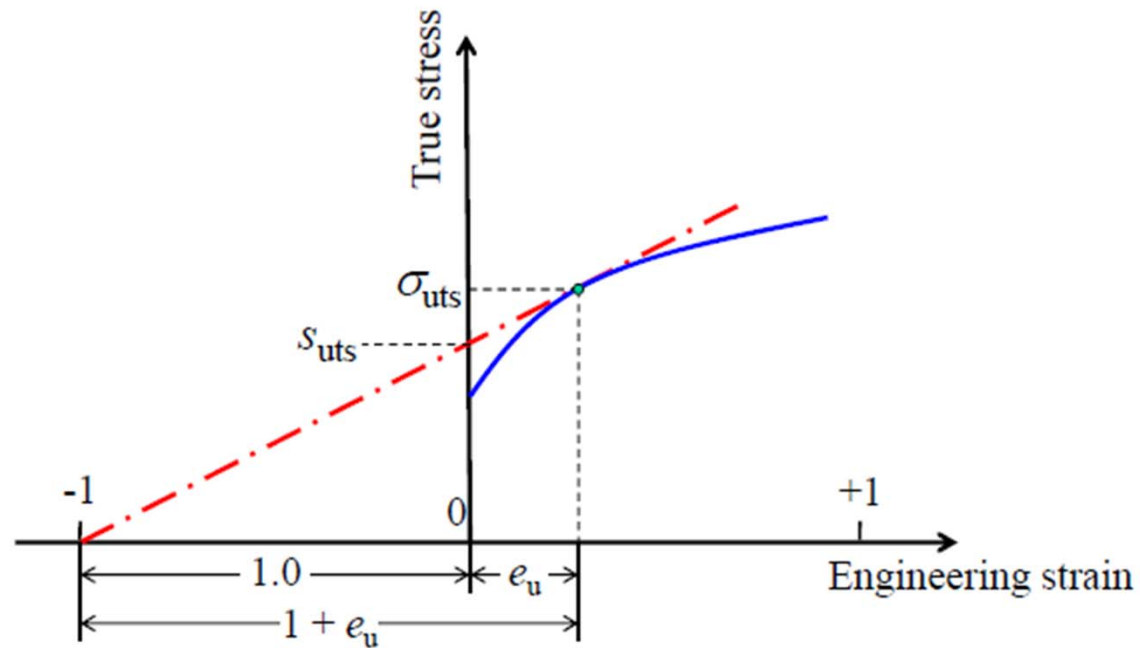
$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{d\sigma}{de} \frac{de}{d\varepsilon} = \frac{d\sigma}{de} \frac{dL/L_0}{dL/L} = \frac{d\sigma}{de} \frac{L}{L_0} = \frac{d\sigma}{de} (1+e) = \sigma$$

or

$$\boxed{\frac{d\sigma}{de} = \frac{\sigma}{(1+e)}}$$

- This is known as Considère's construction.

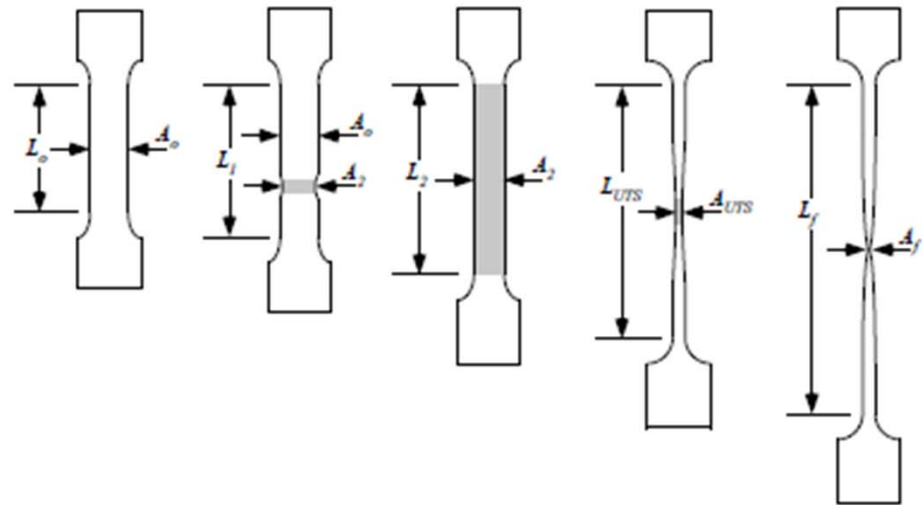
# Considère's Construction



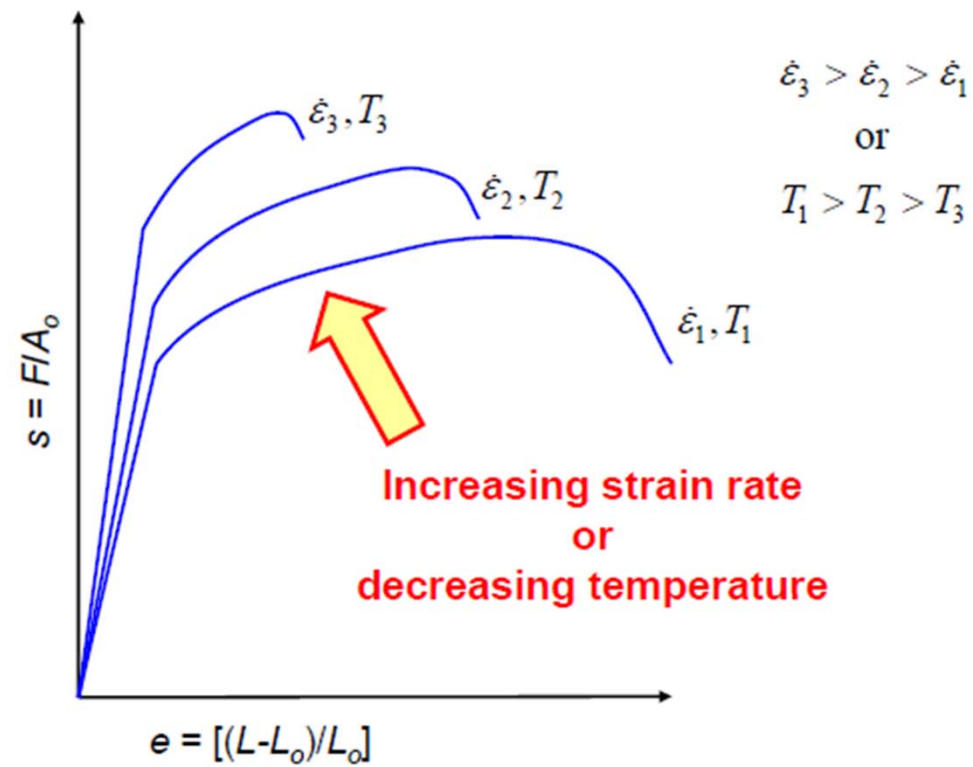
Allows determination of the amount of uniform elongation and the UTS

## Process of Necking

(a) During tensile deformation, strain can become localized along the sample length. (b) When strains are less than the UTS, work hardening strengthens the material in the strain localized area relative to the rest of the specimen. (c) The work-hardening rate (WHR) decreases as strain increases. At  $\epsilon_{UTS}$  the decrease in cross-sectional area becomes equal to the increase in flow strength due to work hardening. As a result, the localized region (i.e., "neck") becomes permanent. (d) as strain increases, the neck gets bigger until the material fails.



Parameter	Fundamental Definition	Before Necking	After Necking
Engineering stress $\sigma_e$	$\sigma_e = s = \frac{F}{A_o}$	$\sigma_e = \frac{F}{A_o}$	$\sigma_e = \frac{F}{A_o}$
True stress $\sigma_t$	$\sigma_t = \sigma = \frac{F}{A_i}$	$\sigma_t = \frac{F}{A_i}$	$\sigma_t = \frac{F}{A_{neck}}$
Engineering strain $\epsilon_e$	$\epsilon_e = e = \frac{\delta L}{L_o}$	$\epsilon_e = \frac{\delta L}{L_o}$	$\epsilon_e = \frac{\delta L}{L_o}$
True strain $\epsilon_t$	$\epsilon_t = \ln \frac{A_o}{A_{min}}$	$\epsilon_t = \ln \frac{L_i}{L_o} = \ln \frac{A_o}{A_i} = \ln(1 + \epsilon_e)$	$\epsilon_t = \ln \frac{A_o}{A_{neck}}$

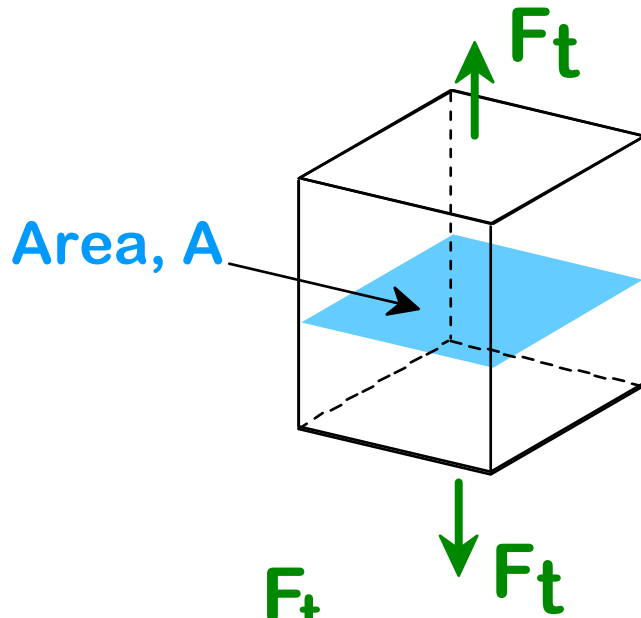


Mechanical properties are sensitive to temperature and strain rate.

HOW AND WHY?

# Engineering Stress

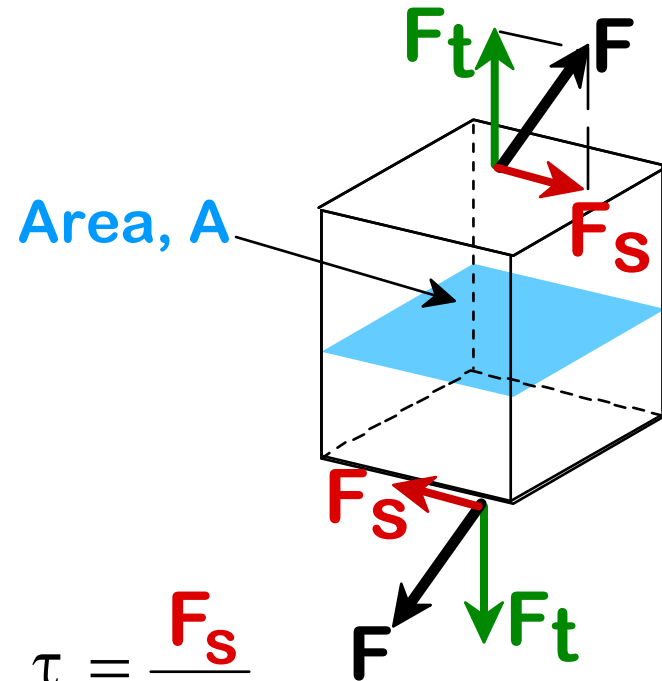
- Tensile stress,  $\sigma$ :



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

original area  
before loading

- Shear stress,  $\tau$ :



$$\tau = \frac{F_s}{A_0}$$

Stress has units:  
 $\text{N/m}^2$  (or  $\text{lb/in}^2$ )

Adapted from Ashby,  
Eng. Matls 1.

# Common States of Stress

- **Simple tension: cable**



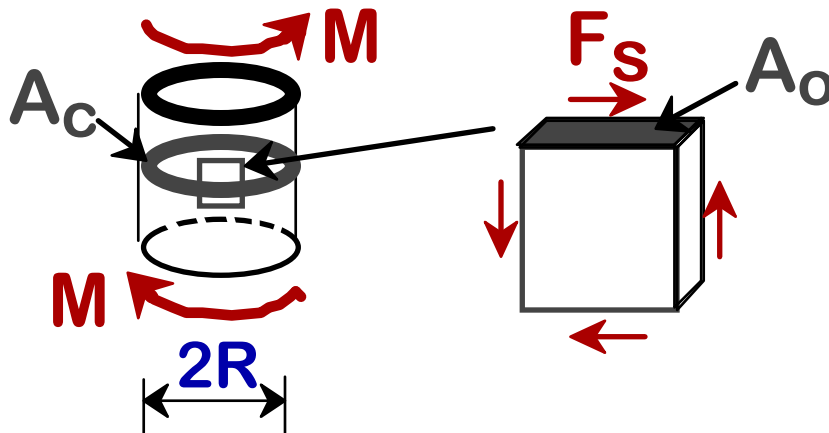
$A_0$  = cross sectional Area (when unloaded)

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

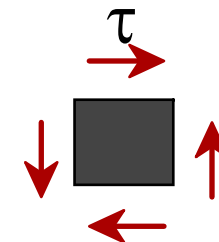


Ski lift (photo courtesy P.M. Anderson)

- **Simple shear: drive shaft**



$$\tau = \frac{F_s}{A_0}$$

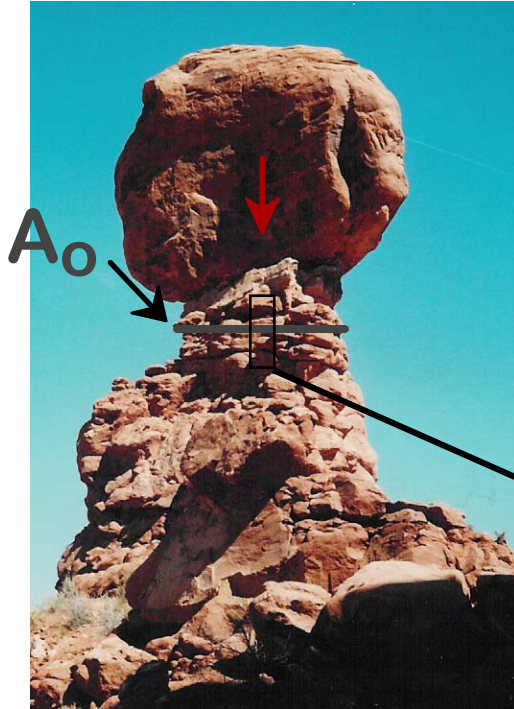


Note:  $\tau = M/A_c R$  here.



# Common States of Stress

- **Simple compression:**



Balanced Rock, Arches National Park  
(photo courtesy P.M. Anderson)



Canyon Bridge, Los Alamos, NM  
(photo courtesy P.M. Anderson)

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



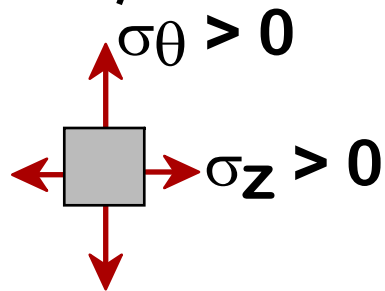
Note: compressive structure member  
( $\sigma < 0$  here).

# Common States of Stress

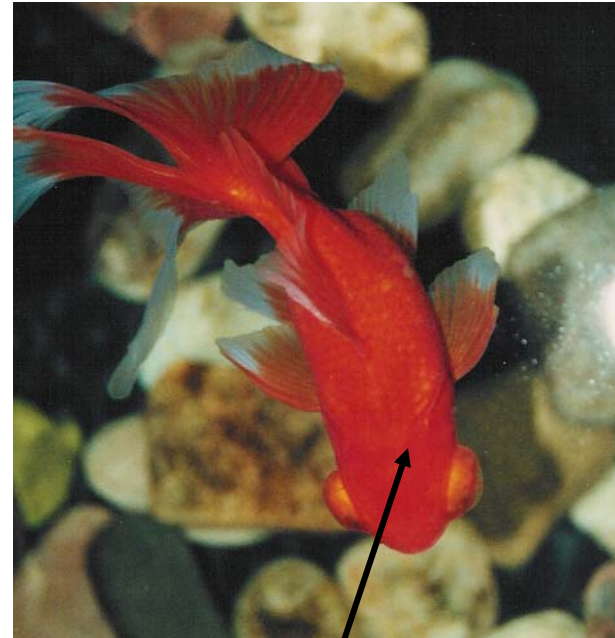
- **Bi-axial tension:**



**Pressurized tank**  
(photo courtesy  
P.M. Anderson)

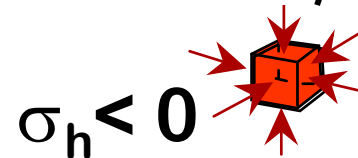


- **Hydrostatic compression:**



**Fish under water**

(photo courtesy  
P.M. Anderson)



From Callister,  
Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed

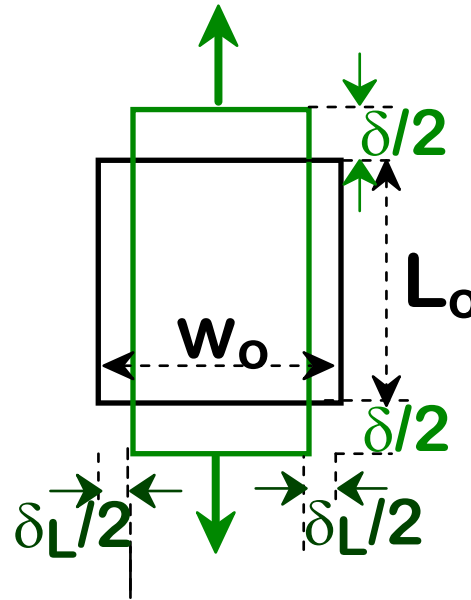




# Engineering Strain

- Tensile strain:

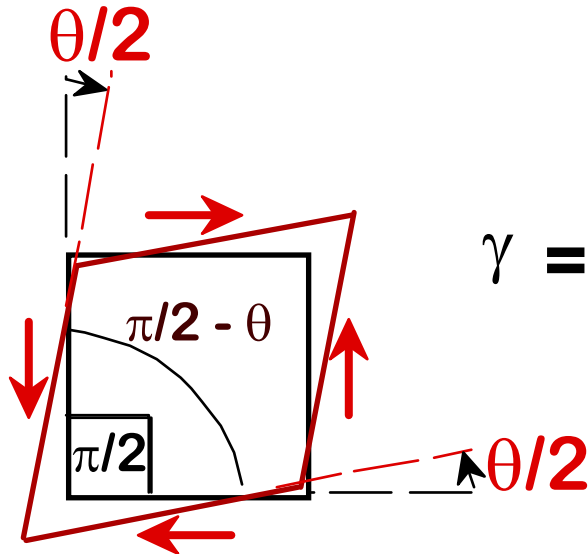
$$\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{L_0}$$



- Lateral (width) strain:

$$\epsilon_L = \frac{-\delta_L}{w_0}$$

- Shear strain:



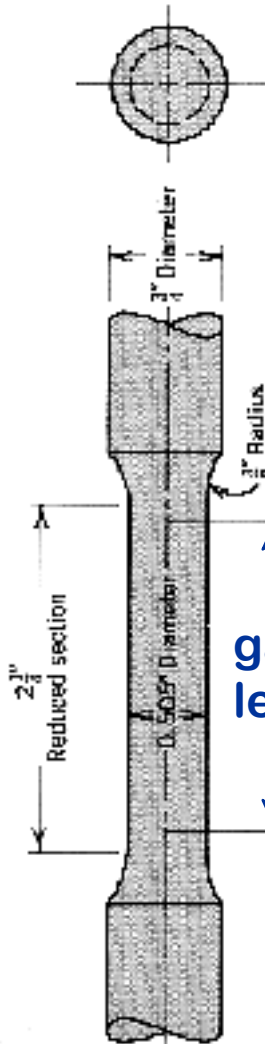
$$\gamma = \tan \theta$$

Strain is always dimensionless.



# Strain Testing

- Tensile specimen

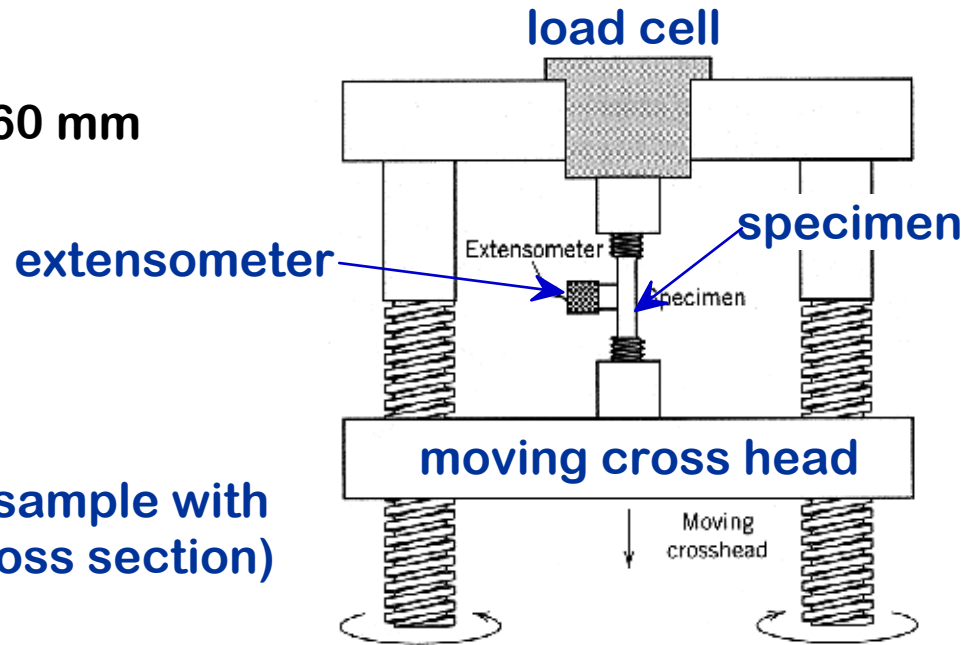


Adapted from Fig. 6.2, *Callister 6e*.

Often 12.8 mm x 60 mm

gauge length = (portion of sample with reduced cross section)


- Tensile test machine



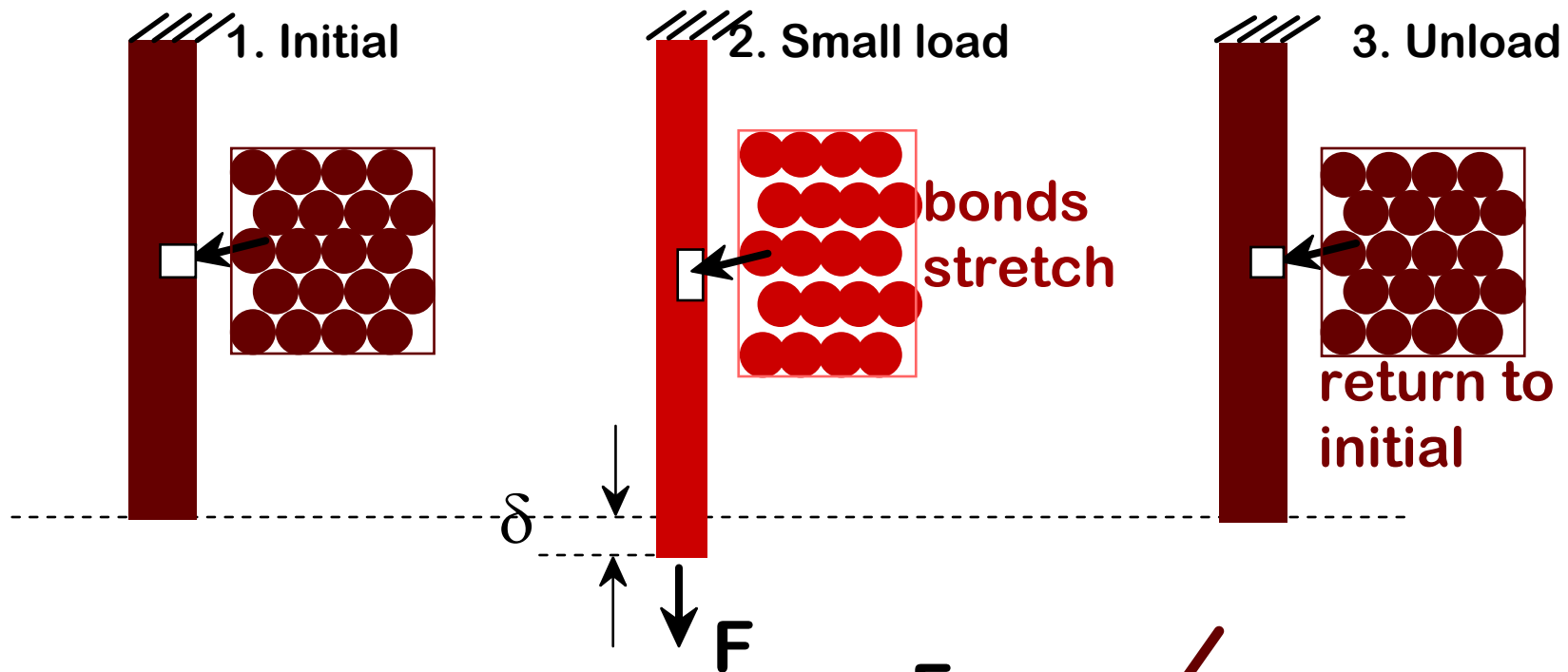
Adapted from Fig. 6.3, *Callister 6e*.

- Other types:

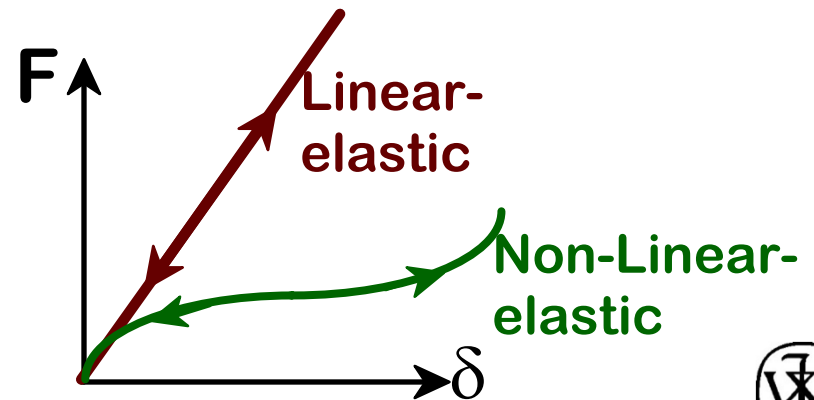
- compression: brittle materials (e.g., concrete)
- torsion: cylindrical tubes, shafts.

From Callister,  Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed

# Elastic Deformation



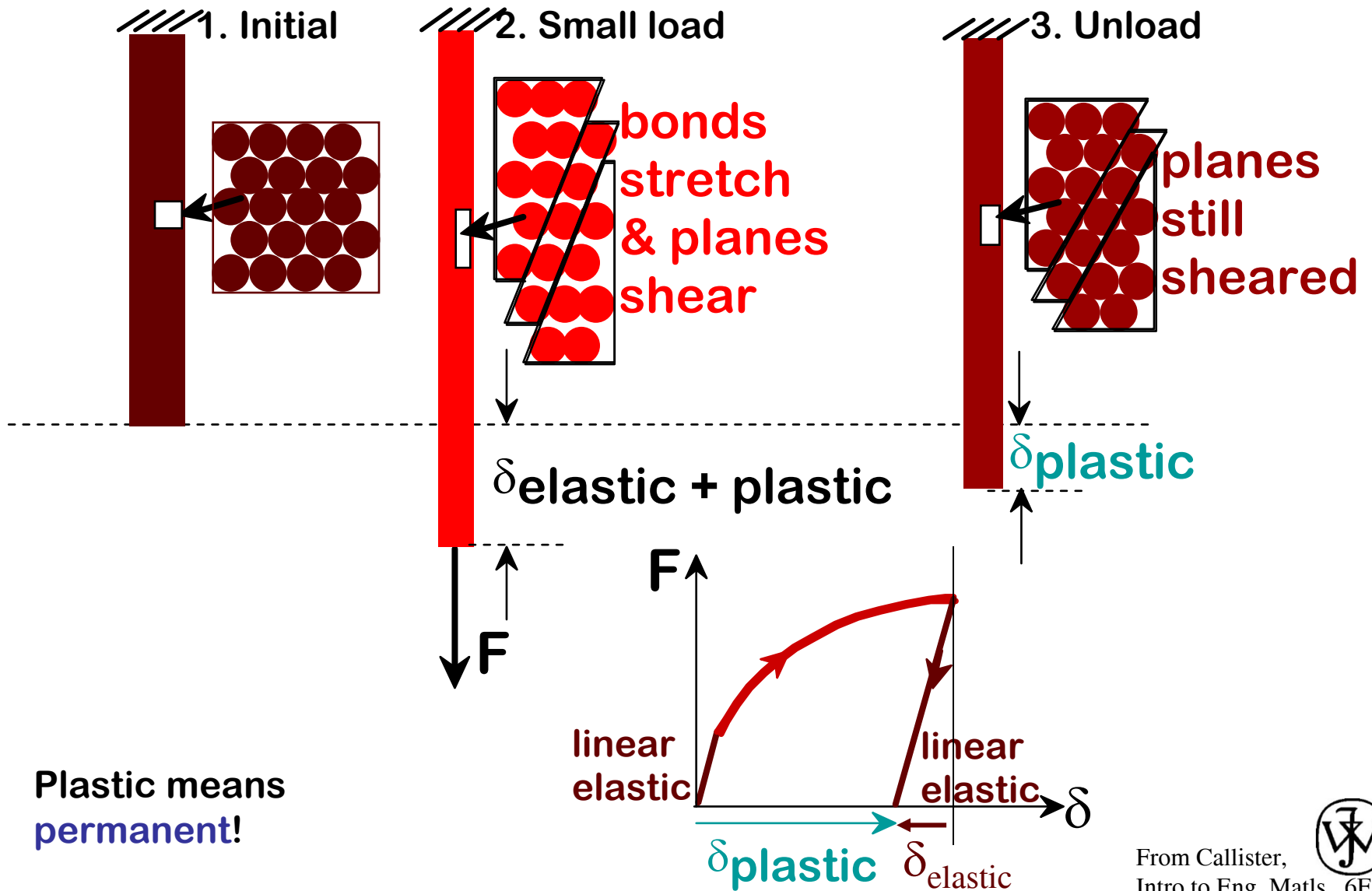
Elastic means **reversible!**



From Callister,  
Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed



# Plastic Deformation of Metals

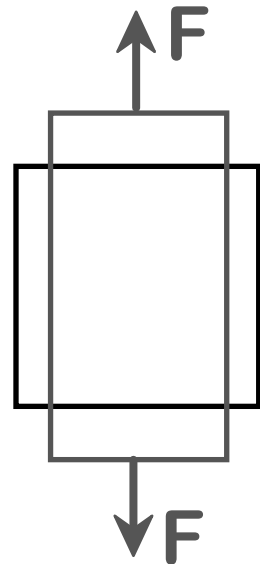


# Linear Elasticity

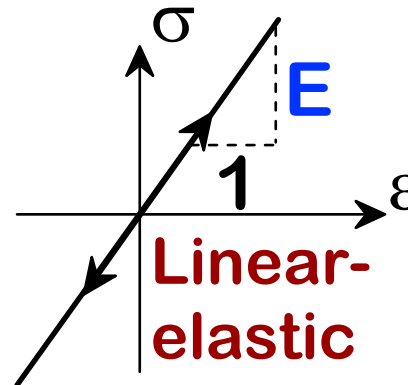
- **Modulus of Elasticity, E:**  
(also known as Young's modulus)

- **Hooke's Law:**  $\sigma = E \varepsilon$

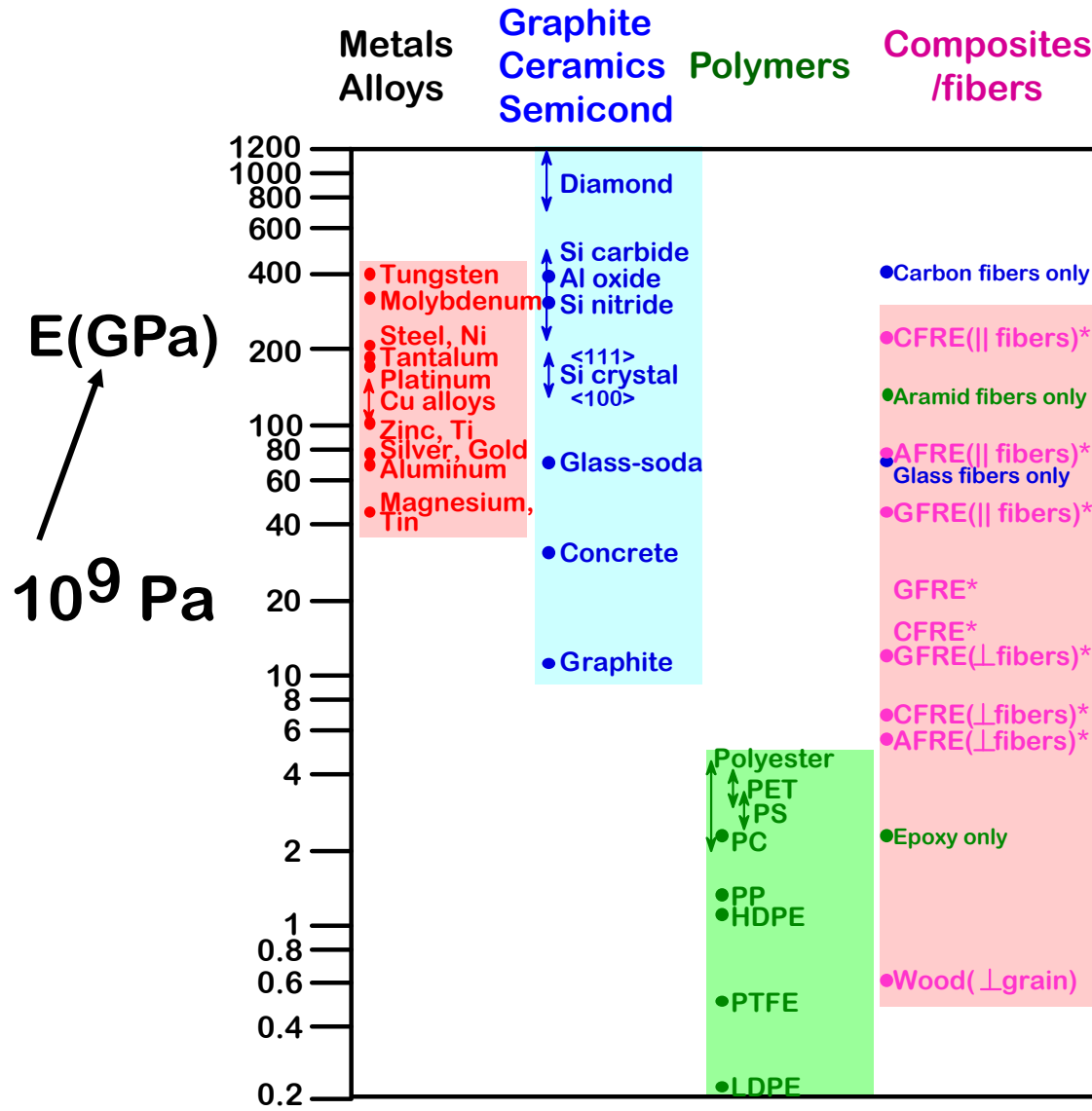
Units:  
E: [GPa] or [psi]



simple  
tension  
test



# Young's Modulus, E



**Eceramics**  
**> Emetals**  
**>> Epolymers**

Based on data in Table B2, *Callister 6e*.

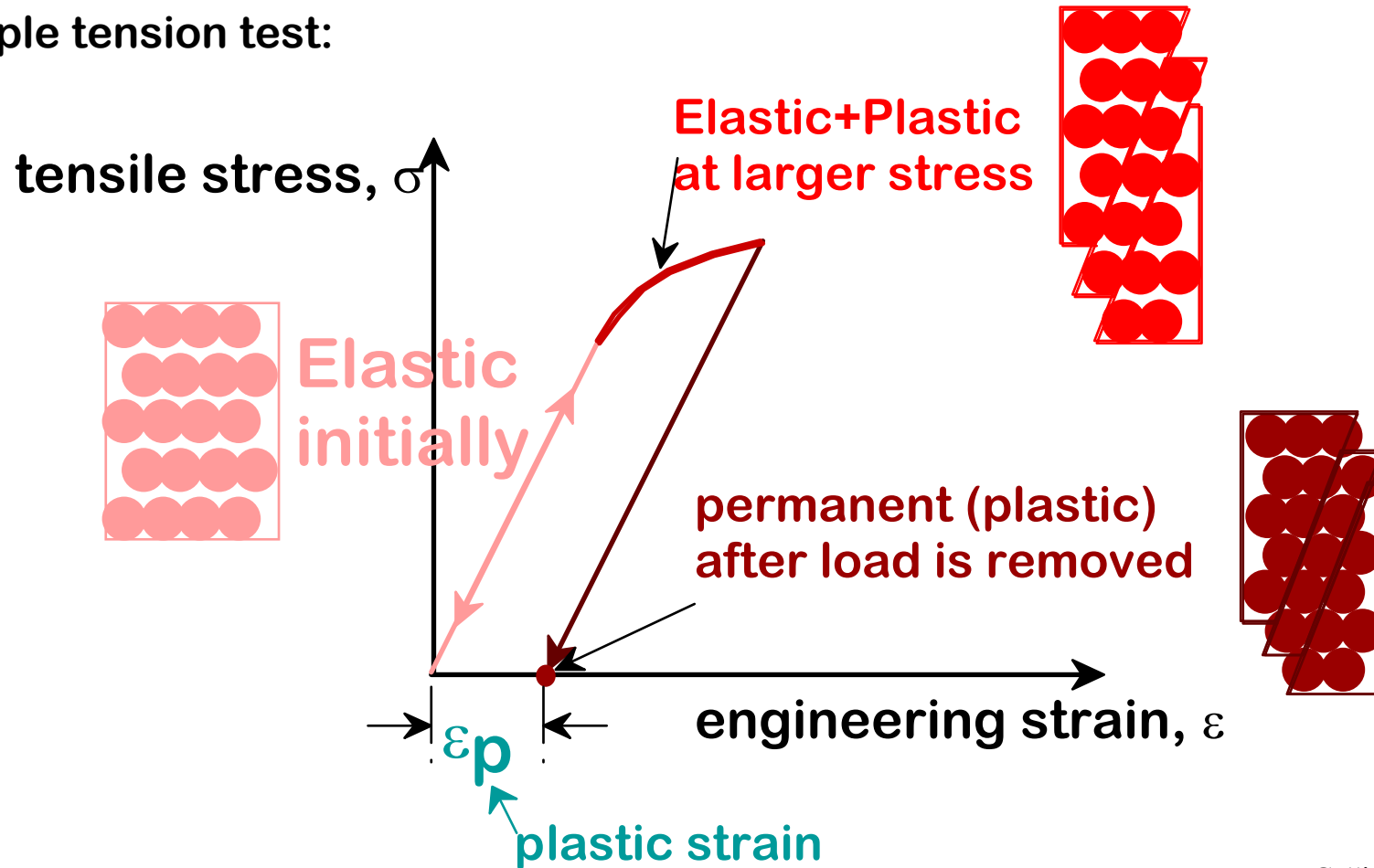
Composite data based on reinforced epoxy with 60 vol% of aligned carbon (CFRE), aramid (AFRE), or glass (GFRE) fibers.



# Plastic Deformation

(at lower temperatures,  $T < T_{\text{melt}}/3$ )

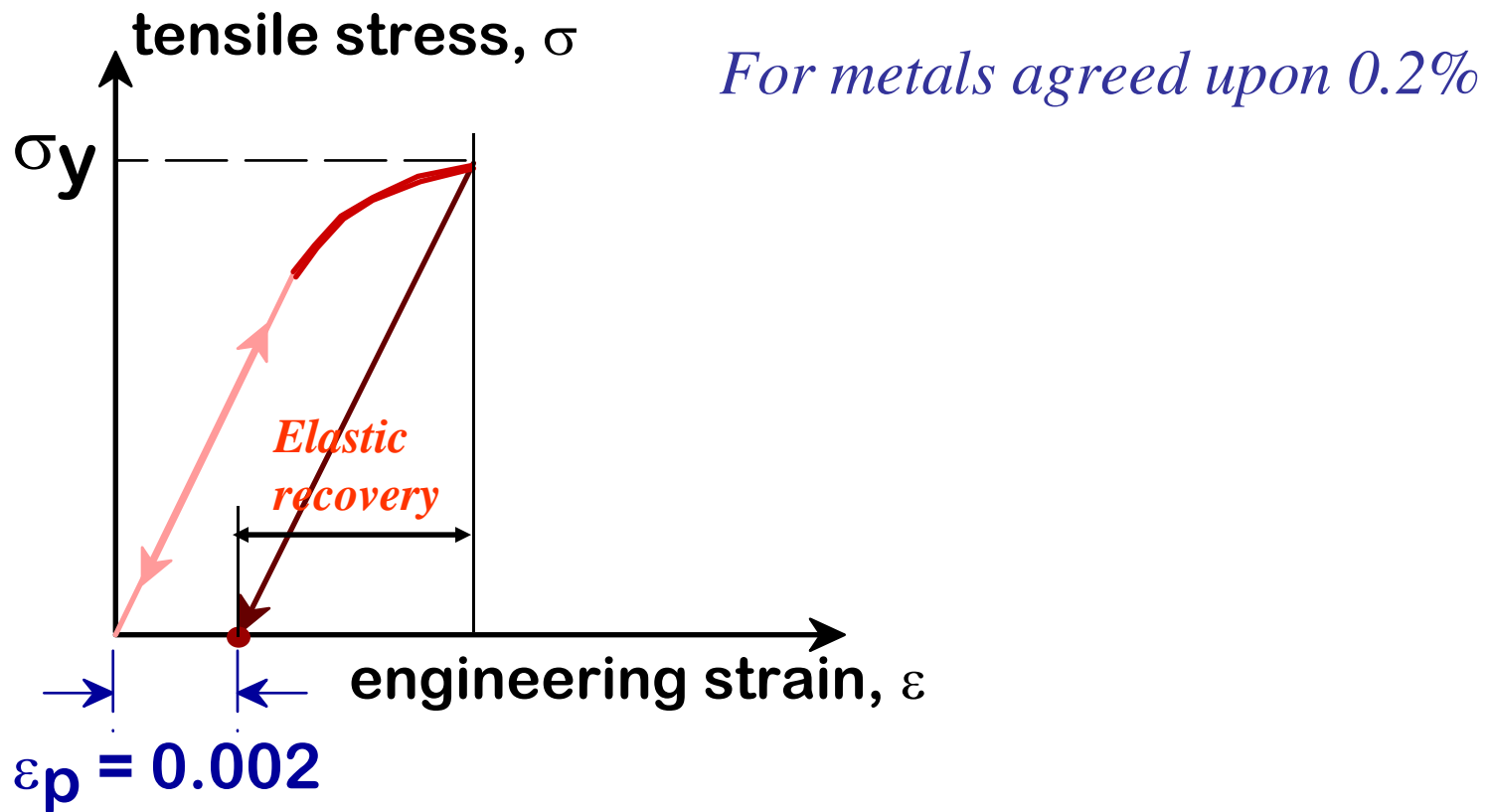
- Simple tension test:



# Yield Strength, $\sigma_{YS}$

- Stress where *noticeable* plastic deformation occurs.

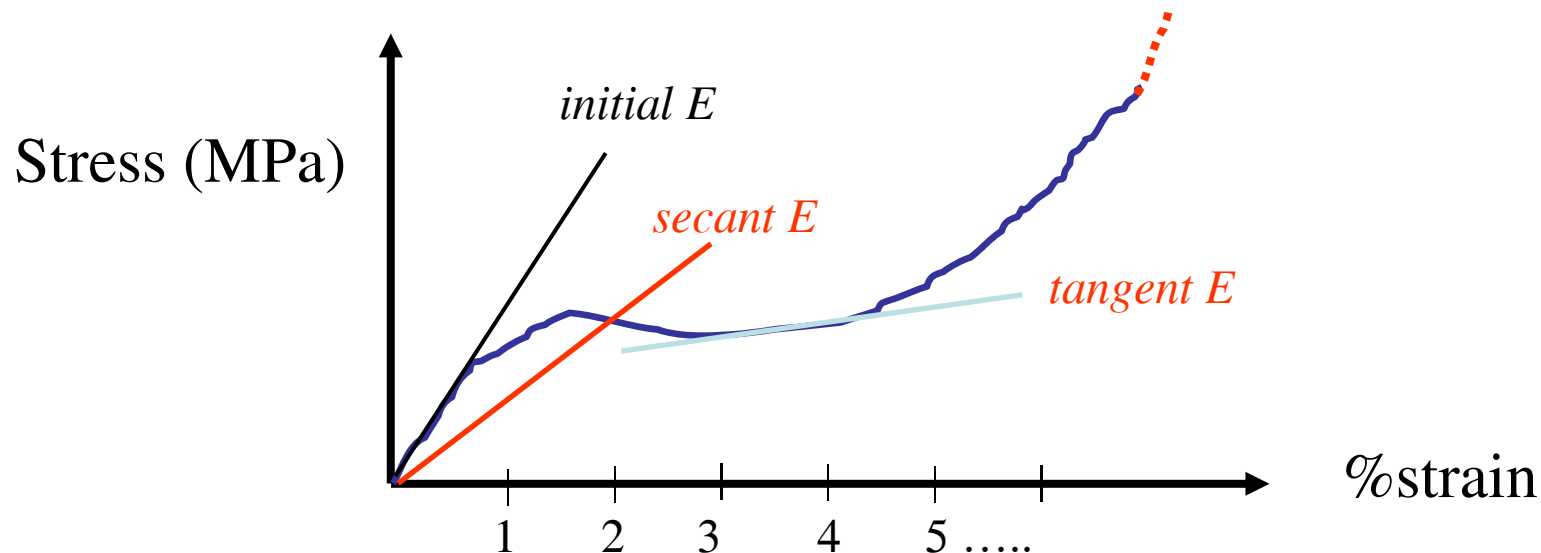
when  $\epsilon_p = 0.002$





# Polymers: Tangent and Secant Modulus

- **Tangent Modulus** is experienced in service.
- **Secant Modulus** is effective modulus at 2% strain.
- Modulus of polymer changes with *time* and *strain-rate*.
  - must report **strain-rate**  $d\varepsilon/dt$  for polymers.
  - must report **fracture strain**  $\varepsilon_f$  **before** fracture.



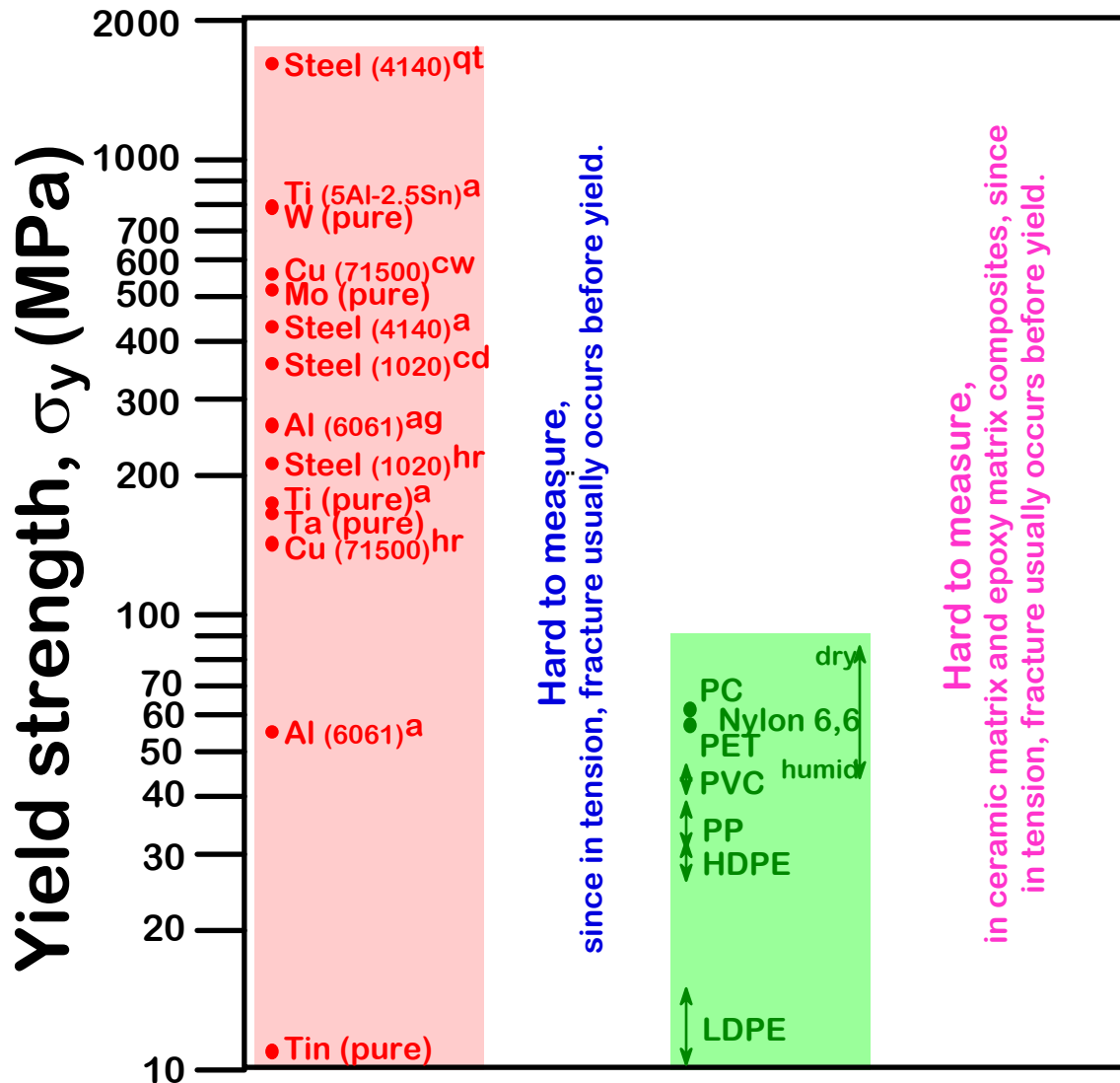
# Compare Yield Strength, $\sigma_{YS}$

Metals/  
Alloys

Graphite/  
Ceramics/  
Semicond

Polymers

Composites/  
fibers



$\sigma_y$ (ceramics)

>>  $\sigma_y$ (metals)

>>  $\sigma_y$ (polymers)

## Room T values

Based on data in Table B4,  
*Callister 6e.*

a = annealed

hr = hot rolled

ag = aged

cd = cold drawn

cw = cold worked

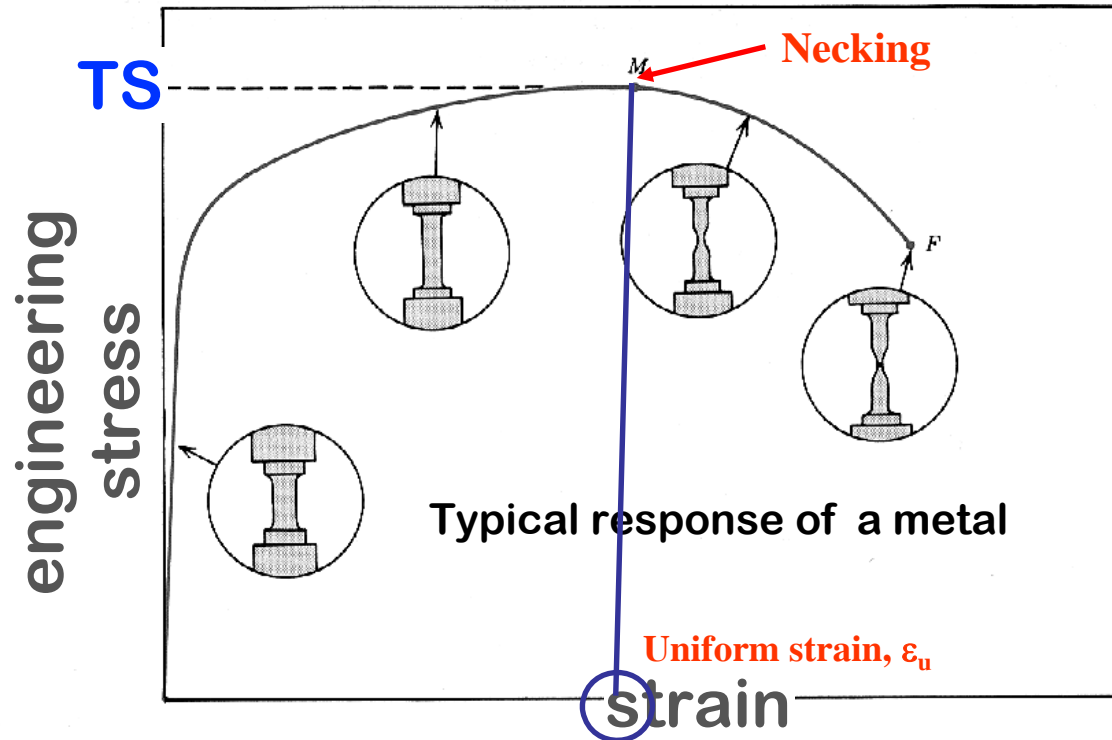
qt = quenched & tempered

From Callister,  
Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed



# (Ultimate) Tensile Strength, $\sigma_{TS}$

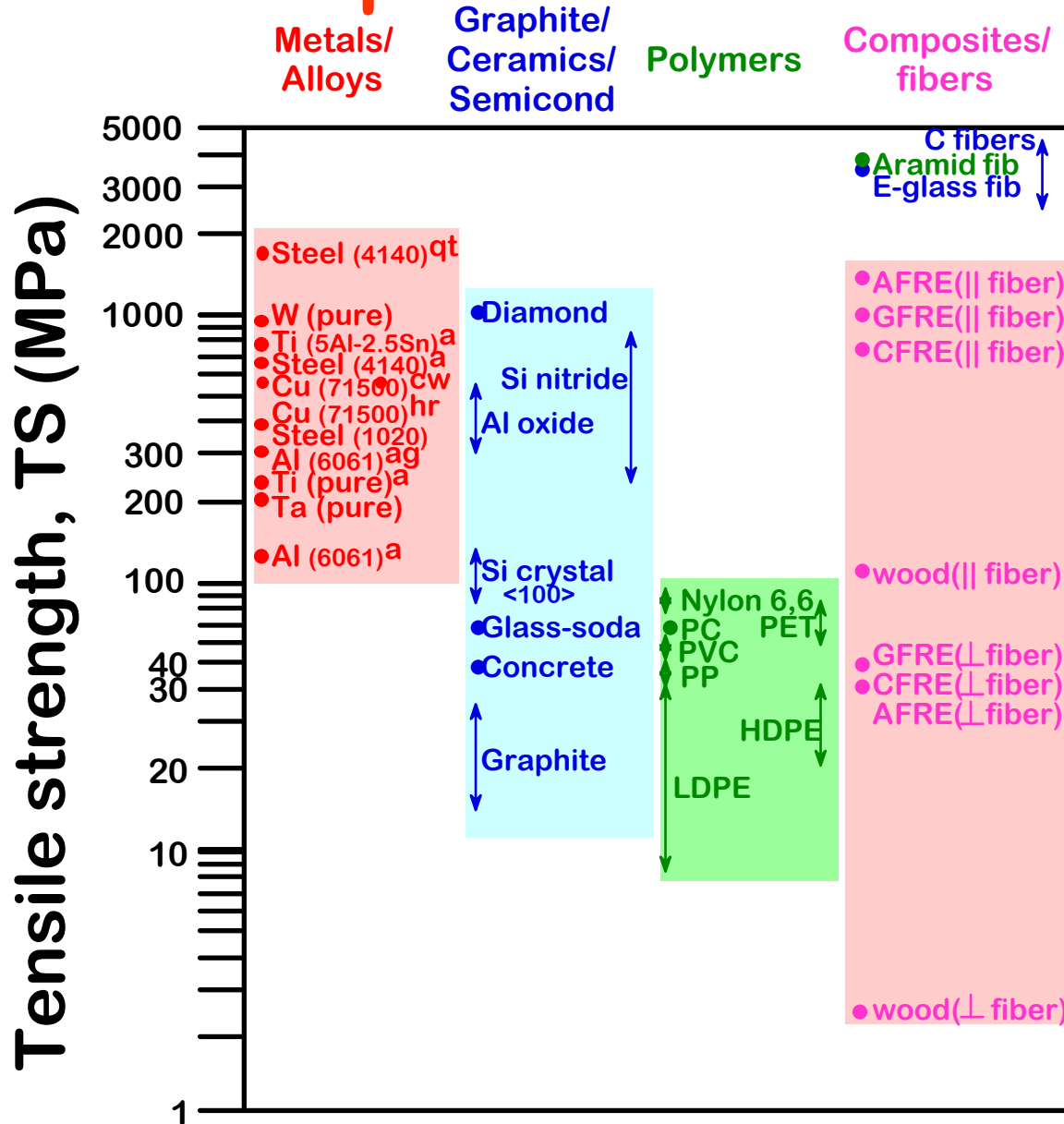
- Maximum possible engineering stress in tension.



Adapted from Fig. 6.11,  
*Callister 6e.*

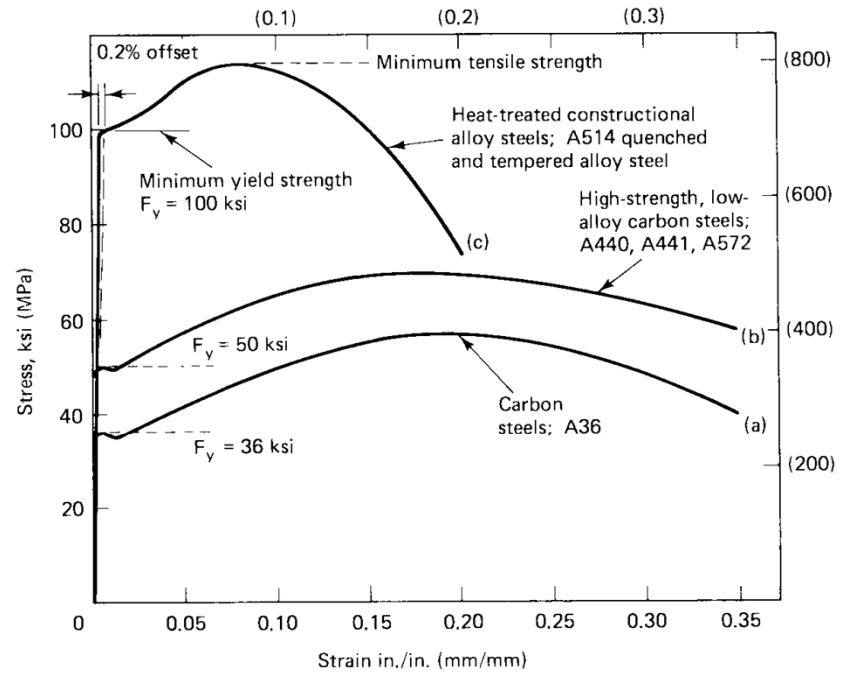
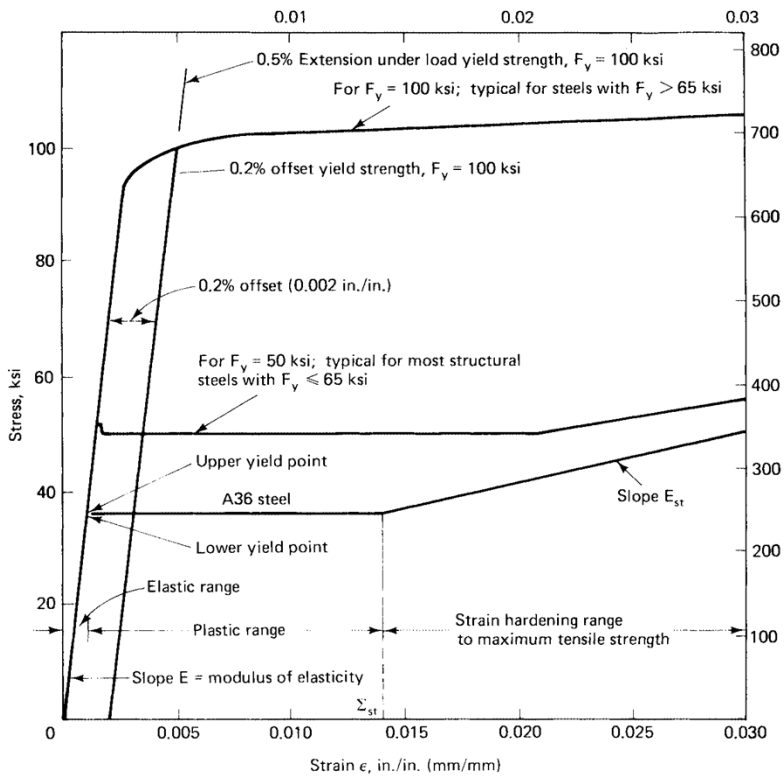
- Metals: occurs when **necking** starts.
- Ceramics: occurs when **crack propagation** starts.
- Polymers: occurs when **polymer backbones** are aligned and about to break.

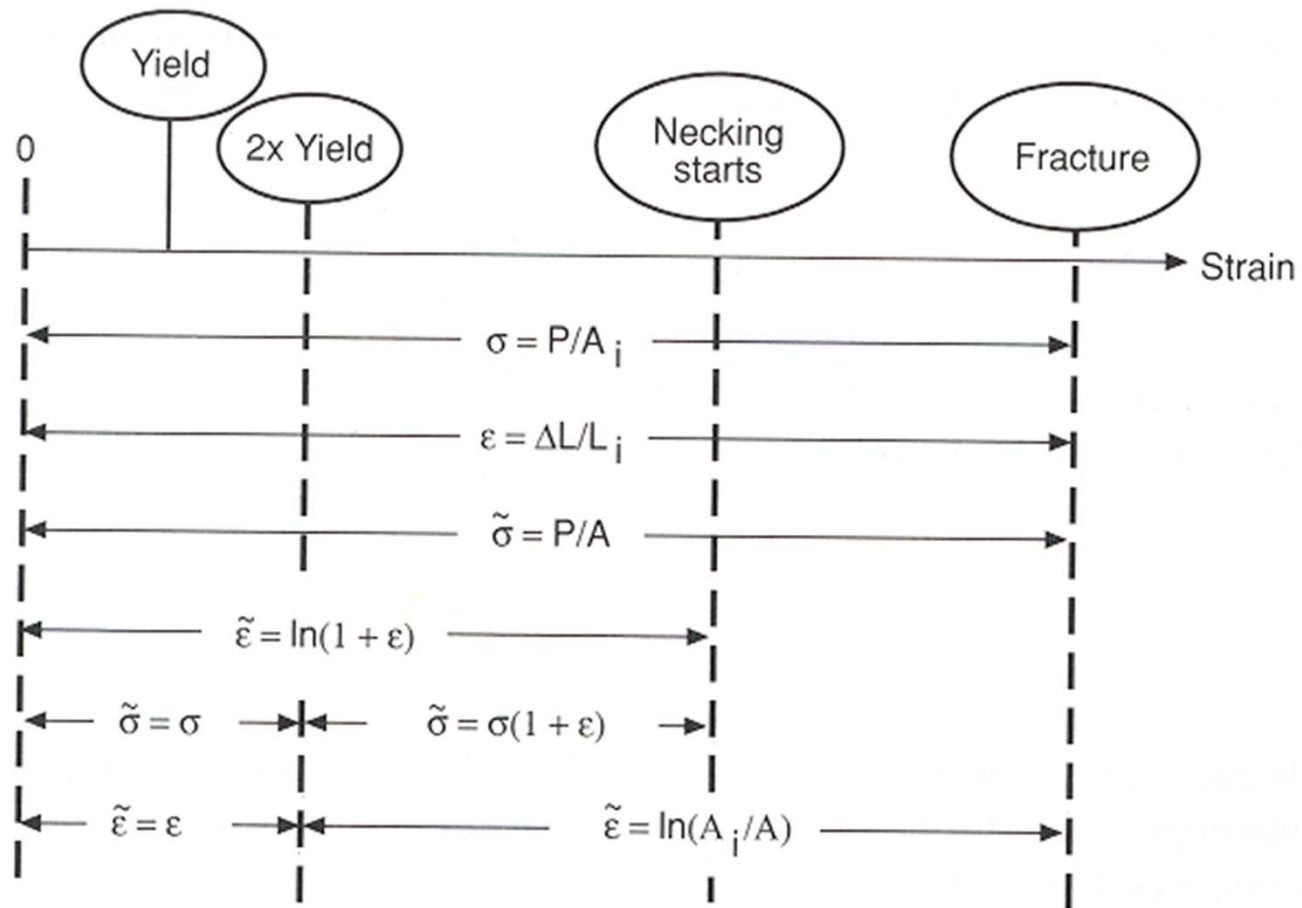
# Compare Tensile Strength, $\sigma_{TS}$



**TS(ceram)**  
 ~ **TS(met)**  
 ~ **TS(comp)**  
 >> **TS(poly)**  
 Room T values

Based on data in Table B4,  *Callister 6e.*



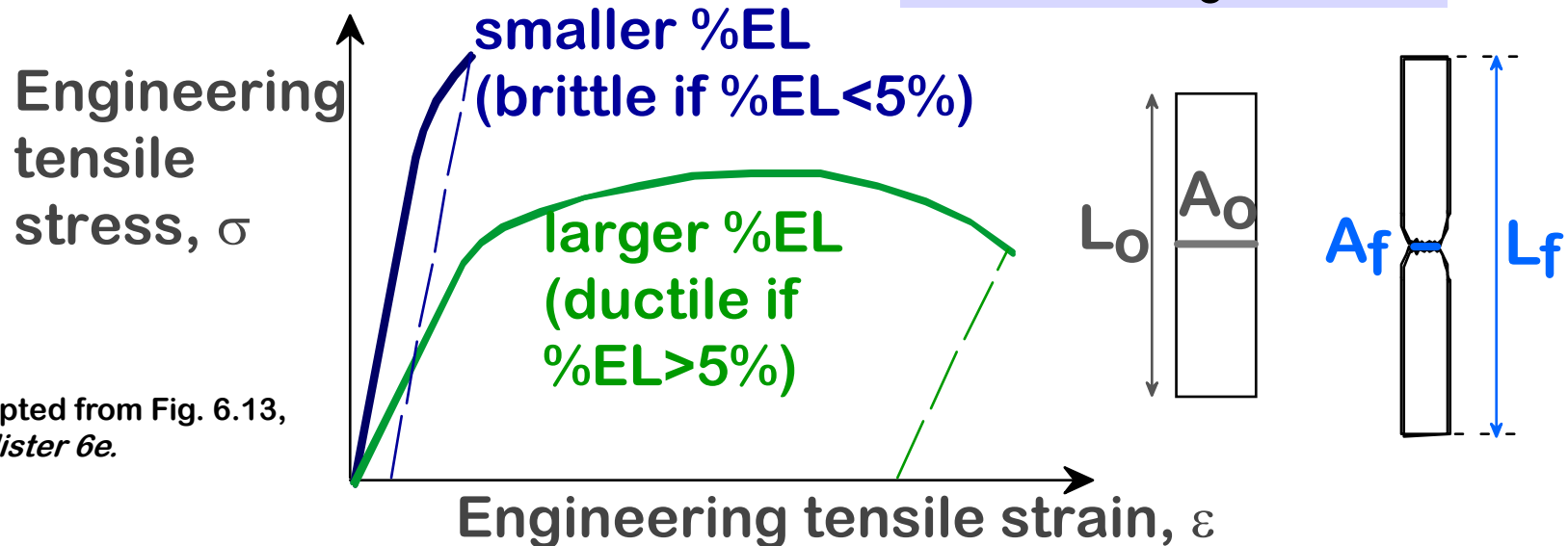


**Figure 4.20** Use and limitations of various equations for stresses and strains from a tension test.

# Ductility or %EL

- Plastic tensile strain at failure:

$$\%EL = \frac{L_f - L_o}{L_o} \times 100$$



Adapted from Fig. 6.13,  
*Callister 6e.*

- Another ductility measure:

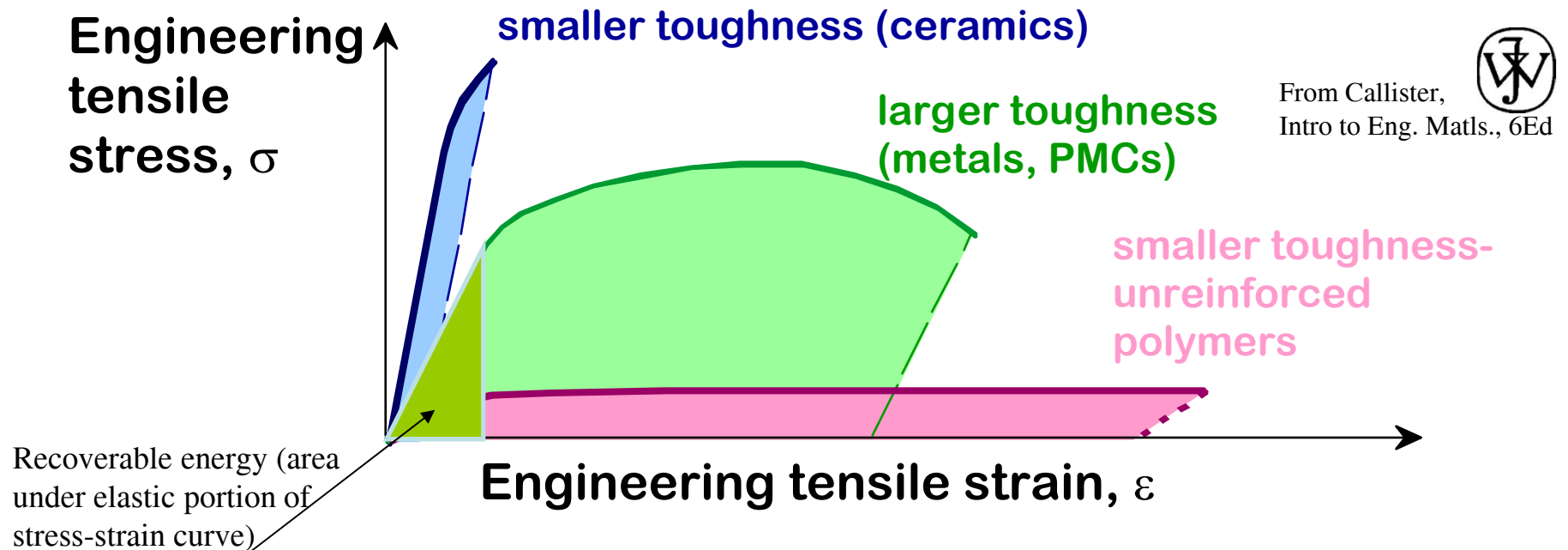
$$\%AR = \frac{A_o - A_f}{A_o} \times 100$$

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



# Toughness

- Energy to break a unit volume of material,  
*or absorb energy to fracture.*
- Approximate as area under the stress-strain curve.



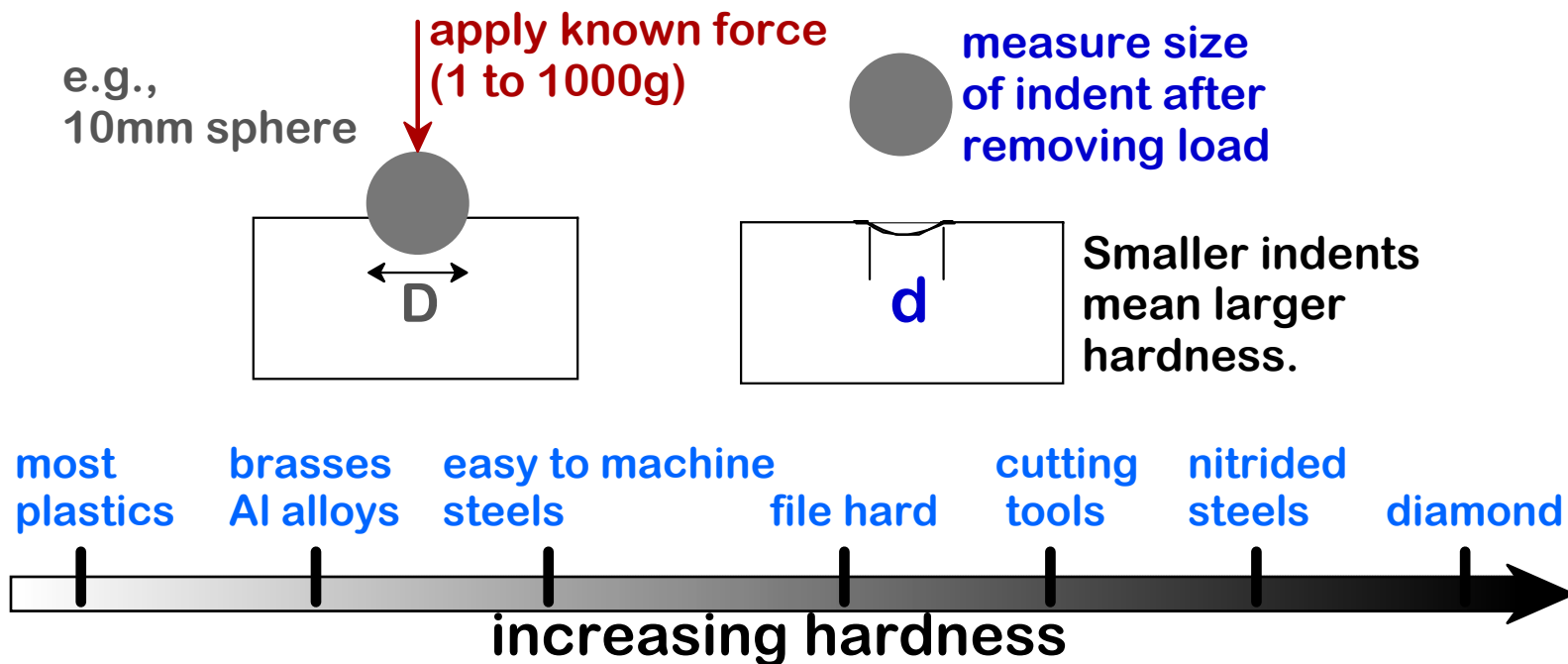
From Callister,  
Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed

**Resilience** is capacity to absorb energy when deformed *elastically* and *recover* all energy when unloaded ( $=\sigma^2_{YS}/2E$ ).



# Hardness

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

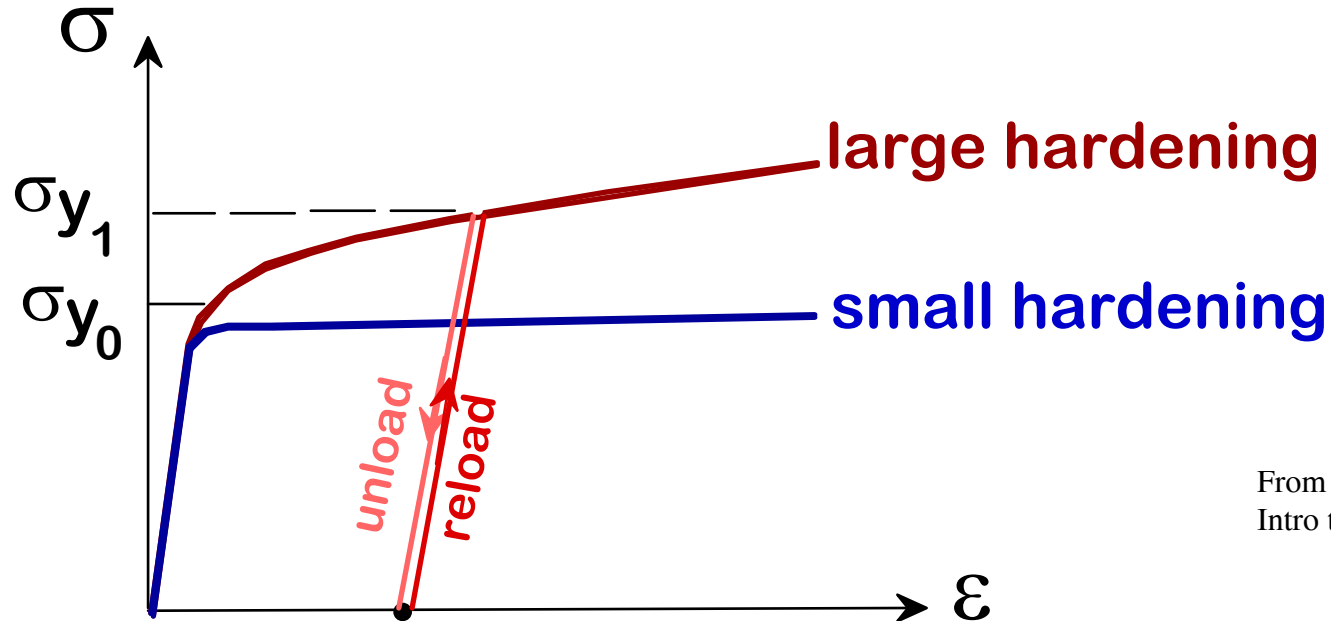



Adapted from Fig. 6.18, *Callister 6e*.



# Hardening

- An increase in  $\sigma_y$  due to plastic deformation.



From Callister,   
Intro to Eng. Matls., 6Ed

- Curve fit to the stress-strain response after YS:

$$\sigma_T = C(\epsilon_T)^n$$

“true” stress (F/A)      “true” strain:  $\ln(L/L_0)$

hardening exponent:  
 $n=0.15$  (some steels)  
to  $n=0.5$  (some copper)

# Linear Elasticity: Poisson Effect

- Hooke's Law:  $\sigma = E \epsilon$

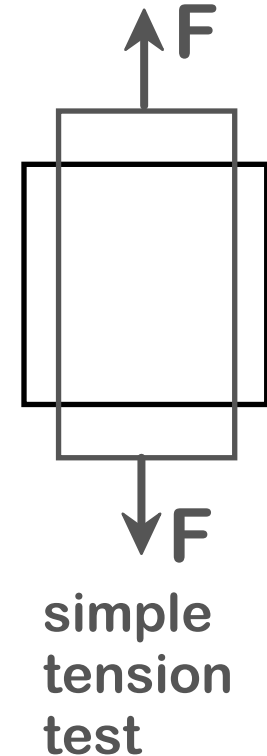
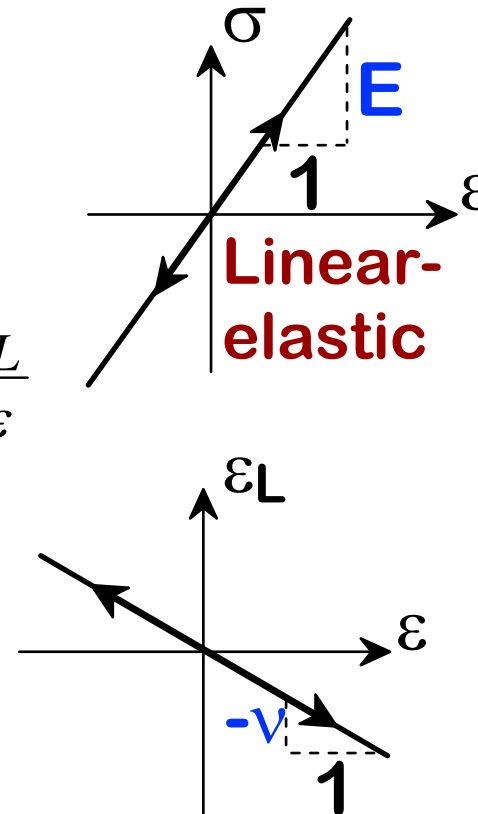
- Poisson's ratio,  $\nu$ :

$$\nu = -\frac{\text{width strain}}{\text{axial strain}} = -\frac{\Delta w / w}{\Delta l / l} = -\frac{\epsilon_L}{\epsilon}$$

metals:  $\nu \sim 0.33$

ceramics:  $\sim 0.25$

polymers:  $\sim 0.40$



Units:

$E$ : [GPa] or [psi]

$\nu$ : dimensionless

Why does  $\nu$  have minus sign?

# Poisson Ratio

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

Look at extremes

- No change in aspect ratio:

$$\Delta w / w = \Delta l / l$$

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

- Volume ( $V = AL$ ) remains constant:  $\Delta V = 0$ .

Hence,  $\Delta V = (L \Delta A + A \Delta L) = 0$ . So,  $\Delta A / A = -\Delta L / L$

In terms of width,  $A = w^2$ , then  $\Delta A / A = 2 w \Delta w / w^2 = 2 \Delta w / w = -\Delta L / L$ .

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

*Incompressible solid.  
Water (almost).*

# Poisson Ratio: materials 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<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>      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

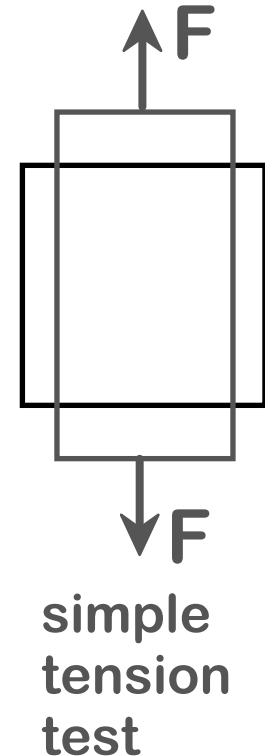
# Example: Hooke's Law

- Hooke's Law:  $\sigma = E \varepsilon$

Copper sample (305 mm long) is pulled in tension with stress of 276 MPa. If deformation is elastic, what is elongation?

For Cu,  $E = 110 \text{ GPa}$ .

$$\sigma = E\varepsilon = E\left(\frac{\Delta l}{l_0}\right) \Rightarrow \Delta l = \frac{\sigma l_0}{E}$$
$$\Delta l = \frac{(276 \text{ MPa})(305 \text{ mm})}{110 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa}} = 0.77 \text{ mm}$$



Hooke's law involves axial (parallel to applied tensile load) elastic deformation.

# Example: Poisson Effect

Tensile stress is applied along cylindrical brass rod (10 mm diameter). Poisson ratio is  $\nu = 0.34$  and  $E = 97 \text{ GPa}$ .

- Determine load needed for  $2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm}$  change in diameter if the deformation is entirely elastic?

Width strain: (note reduction in diameter)

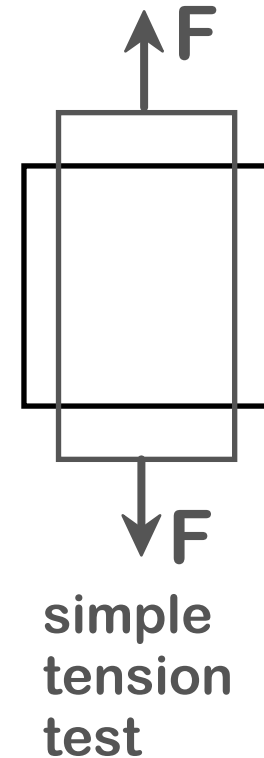
$$\varepsilon_x = \Delta d/d = -(2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mm})/(10 \text{ mm}) = -2.5 \times 10^{-4}$$

Axial strain: Given Poisson ratio

$$\varepsilon_z = -\varepsilon_x/\nu = -(-2.5 \times 10^{-4})/0.34 = +7.35 \times 10^{-4}$$

Axial Stress:  $\sigma_z = E\varepsilon_z = (97 \times 10^3 \text{ MPa})(7.35 \times 10^{-4}) = 71.3 \text{ MPa}$ .

Required Load:  $F = \sigma_z A_0 = (71.3 \text{ MPa})\pi(5 \text{ mm})^2 = 5600 \text{ N}$ .



# Complex States of Stress in 3D

- There are 3 *principal* components of stress and strain.
- For linear elastic, isotropic case, use “*linear superposition*”.
- Strain || to load by *Hooke’s Law*.  $\epsilon_i = \sigma_i/E$ ,  $i=1,2,3$  (or  $x,y,z$ ).
- Strain  $\perp$  to load governed by *Poisson effect*.  $\epsilon_{\text{width}} = -\nu\epsilon_{\text{axial}}$ .

stress \ strain	$\sigma_1$	$\sigma_2$	$\sigma_3$	
$\epsilon_1$	$\sigma_1/E$	$-\nu\sigma_2/E$	$-\nu\sigma_3/E$	→ in x
$\epsilon_2$	$-\nu\sigma_1/E$	$\sigma_2/E$	$-\nu\sigma_3/E$	→ in y
$\epsilon_3$	$-\nu\sigma_1/E$	$-\nu\sigma_2/E$	$\sigma_3/E$	→ in z

**Total Strain**

In  $x$ -direction, the total linear strain is:

$$\epsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \{ \sigma_1 - \nu(\sigma_2 + \sigma_3) \} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{E} \{ (1 + \nu)\sigma_1 - \nu(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3) \}$$



# Complex State of Stress and Strain in 3-D Solid

- Hooke's Law and Poisson effect gives total linear strain:

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \{ \sigma_1 - \nu(\sigma_2 + \sigma_3) \} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \{ (1 + \nu)\sigma_1 - \nu(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3) \}$$

Is there something important about  
Trace of  $\sigma$  ( $\text{Tr } \sigma$ )?

- For uniaxial tension test  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = 0$ , so

$$\varepsilon_3 = \sigma_3 / E$$

$$\text{and } \varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = -\nu\varepsilon_3.$$

## Complex State of Stress and Strain in 3-D Solid

• **Hydrostatic Pressure:** 
$$P = \sigma_{Hyd} = \frac{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3}{3} = \frac{Tr\sigma}{3}$$

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \{ (1 + \nu)\sigma_1 - 3\nu P \}$$

• **For volume** ( $V=l_1l_2l_3$ ) **strain**,  $\Delta V/V = \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 = (1-2\nu)\sigma_3/E$

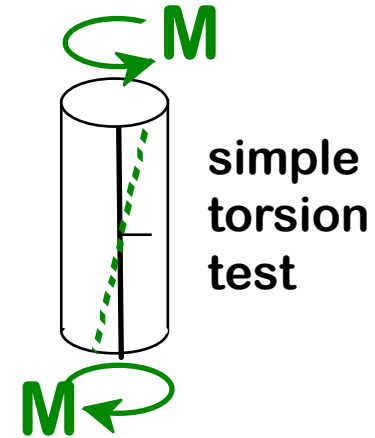
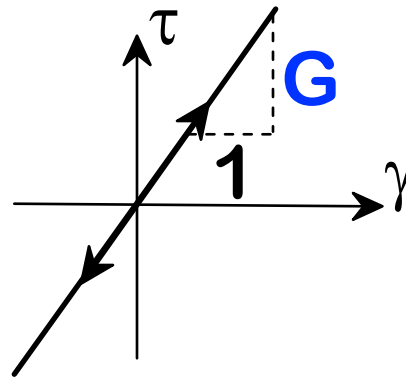
So  $\Delta V/V = 3(1-2\nu)P/E$ .

Bulk Modulus, K:  $P = -K \Delta V/V$  so  $K = 3(1-2\nu)/E$

# Other Elastic Properties

- Elastic Shear modulus,  $G$ :

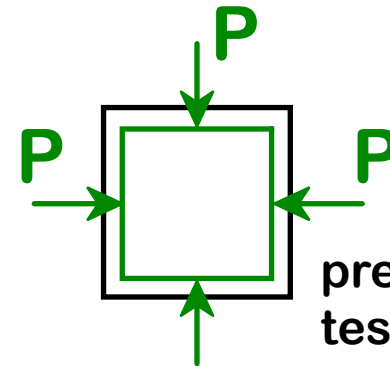
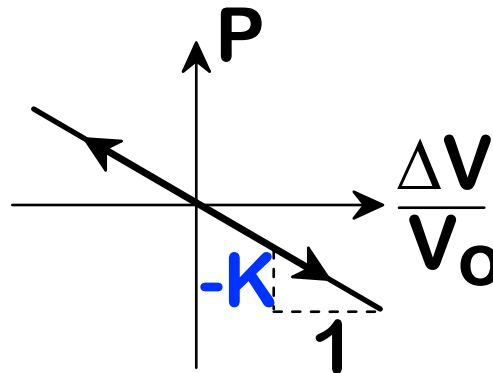
$$\tau = G \gamma$$



simple torsion test

- Elastic Bulk modulus,  $K$ :

$$P = -K \frac{\Delta V}{V_0}$$



pressure test: Init. vol =  $V_0$ .  
Vol chg. =  $\Delta V$

- Special relations for isotropic materials:

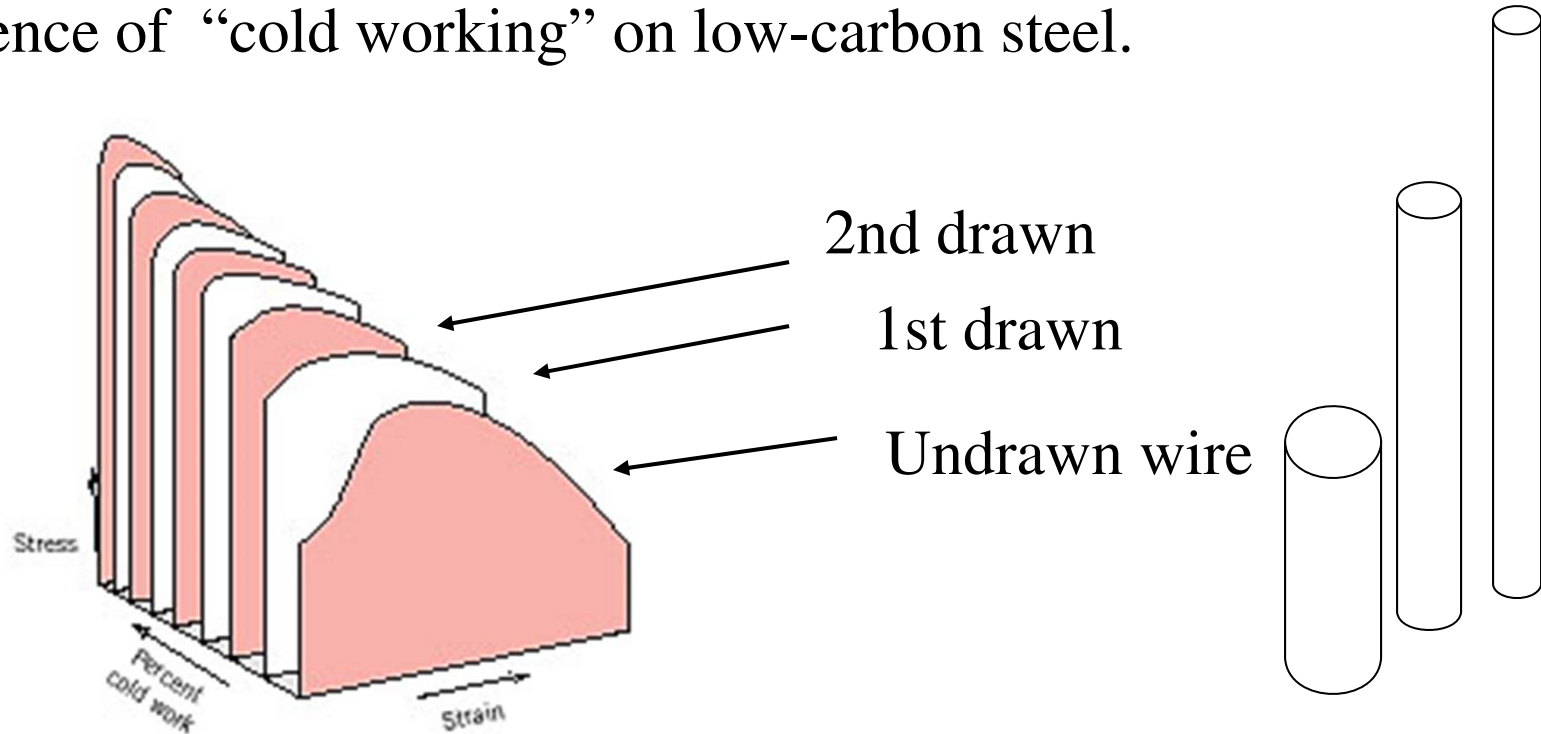
$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)}$$

$$K = \frac{E}{3(1 - 2\nu)}$$



# Using Work-Hardening

Influence of “cold working” on low-carbon steel.



Processing: Forging, Rolling, Extrusion, Drawing,...

- Each draw of the wire *decreases* ductility, *increases* YS.
- Use drawing to strengthen and thin “aluminum” soda can.

# Summary

- **Stress and strain:** These are size-independent measures of load and displacement, respectively.
- **Elastic behavior:** This reversible behavior often shows a linear relation between stress and strain. To minimize deformation, select a material with a large elastic modulus (E or G).
- **Plastic behavior:** This permanent deformation behavior occurs when the tensile (or compressive) uniaxial stress reaches  $\sigma_y$ .
- **Toughness:** The energy needed to break a unit volume of material.
- **Ductility:** The plastic strain at failure.