





Materials Science

Lecture 19

Lebanese University - Faculty of Engineering - Branch 3
Fall 2022





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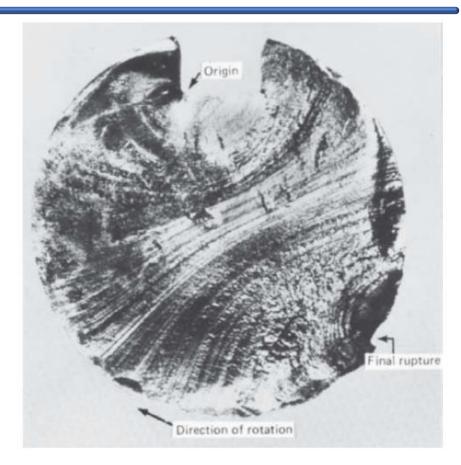
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- The process of fatigue failure is characterized by three distinct steps:
- **1. Crack initiation**, in which a **small crack forms** at some point of **high stress** concentration;
- Crack propagation, during which this <u>crack</u> <u>advances</u> incrementally <u>with</u> <u>each</u> <u>stress cycle</u>;
- 3. Final failure, which occurs <u>very rapidly</u> once the advancing crack has reached a <u>critical size</u>.
- Cracks associated with fatigue failure almost always initiate (or nucleate) on the surface of a component at some point of stress concentration.
- Crack nucleation sites include surface scratches, sharp fillets, keyways, threads, dents, and the like.
- In addition, cyclic loading can produce microscopic surface discontinuities resulting from dislocation slip steps that may also act as stress raisers and therefore as crack initiation sites.



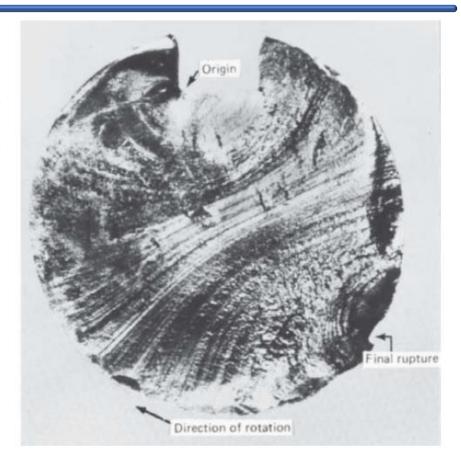
- The region of a fracture surface that formed during the crack propagation step may be characterized by two types of markings termed beachmarks and striations.
- Both features indicate the position of the crack tip at some point in time and appear as concentric ridges that expand away from the crack initiation site(s), frequently in a circular or semicircular pattern.
- <u>Beachmarks</u> (sometimes also called <u>clamshell marks</u>) are of <u>macroscopic</u> dimensions (Figure), and may be observed with the <u>unaided eye</u>.



Fracture surface of a rotating steel shaft that experienced fatigue failure. Beachmark ridges are visible in the photograph.



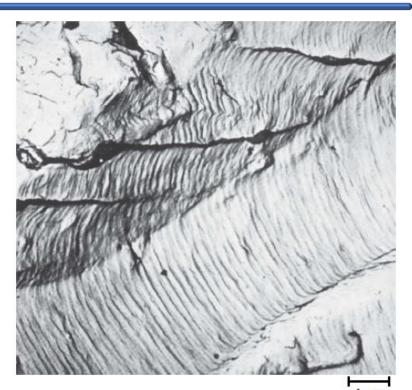
- markings found for These are that experienced components interruptions during the crack **propagation** stage—for example, a machine that operated only during normal workshift hours.
- Each beachmark band represents a period of time over which crack growth occurred.



Fracture surface of a rotating steel shaft that experienced fatigue failure. Beachmark ridges are visible in the photograph.



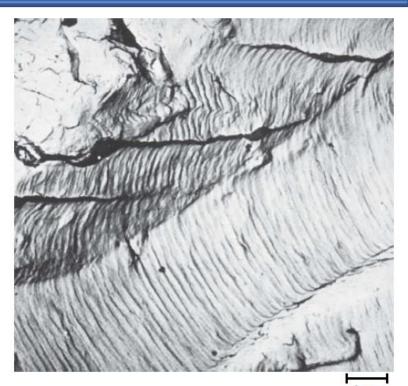
- However, fatigue striations are microscopic in size and subject to observation with the electron microscope (either TEM or SEM).
- The **figure** is an **electron fractograph** that shows this feature.
- Each striation is thought to represent the advance distance of a crack front during a single load cycle.
- Striation width depends on, and increases with, increasing stress range.
- During the propagation of fatigue cracks and on a microscopic scale, there is very localized plastic deformation at crack tips, even though the maximum applied stress to which the object is exposed in each stress cycle lies below the yield strength of the metal.



Transmission electron fractograph¹ µm showing fatigue striations in aluminum. 9000X.



- This applied stress is amplified at crack tips to the degree that local stress levels exceed the yield strength.
- The **geometry** of fatigue **striations** is a **manifestation** of this **plastic deformation**.
- It should be emphasized that although both beachmarks and striations are fatigue fracture surface features having similar appearances, they are nevertheless different in both origin and size.
- There may be thousands of striations within a single beachmark.



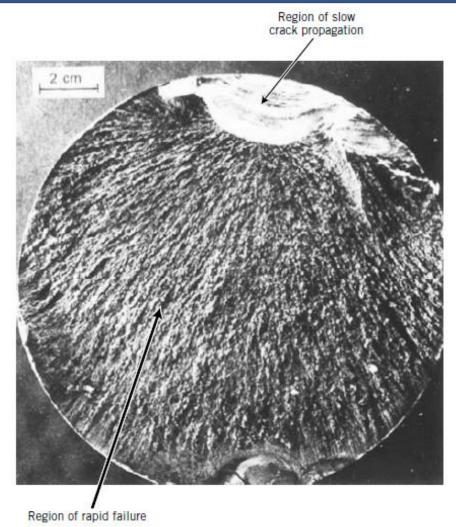
Transmission electron fractograph¹ µm showing fatigue striations in aluminum. 9000X.



- Often the cause of failure may be deduced after examination of the failure surfaces.
- The presence of beachmarks and/or striations on a fracture surface confirms that the cause of failure was fatigue.
- Nevertheless, the <u>absence</u> of either or both does not exclude fatigue failure. Striations are not observed for all metals that experience fatigue.
- Furthermore, the likelihood of the appearance of striations may depend on stress state. Striation detectability decreases with the passage of time because of the formation of surface corrosion products and/or oxide films.
- Also, during stress cycling, striations may be destroyed by abrasive action as crack mating surfaces rub against one another.



- One final comment regarding fatigue failure surfaces: Beachmarks and striations do not appear on the region over which the rapid failure occurs.
- Rather, the rapid failure may be either ductile or brittle; evidence of plastic deformation will be present for ductile failure and absent for brittle failure. This region of failure may be noted in the figure.



Fatigue failure surface. A crack formed at the top edge. The smooth region also near the top corresponds to the area over which the crack propagated slowly. Rapid failure occurred over the area having a dull and fibrous texture (the largest area). Approximately 0.5X.

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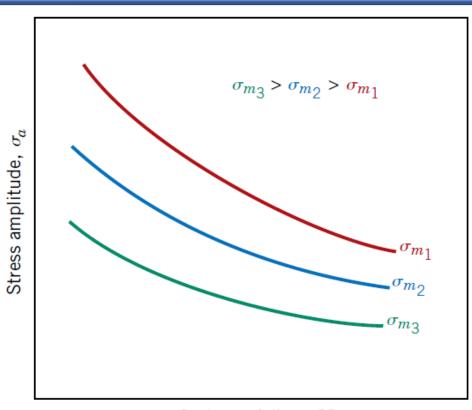
• As mentioned previously, the fatigue behavior of engineering materials is highly sensitive to a number of variables, including mean stress level, geometric design, surface effects, and metallurgical variables, as well as the environment.

This section is devoted to a discussion of these factors and to measures that may be taken to improve the fatigue resistance of structural components.



Mean Stress

- The dependence of fatigue life on stress amplitude is represented on the S-N plot.
- Such data are taken for a **constant** mean stress σ_m , often for the reversed cycle situation $(\sigma_m = 0)$.
- Mean stress, however, also affects fatigue life; this influence may be represented by a series of S-N curves, each measured at a different σ_m , as depicted schematically in the Figure.
- As may be noted, increasing the mean stress level leads to a decrease in fatigue life.



Cycles to failure, N (logarithmic scale)

Demonstration of the influence of mean stress σ_m on S–N fatigue behavior.



Surface Effects

- For many common loading situations, the maximum stress within a component or structure occurs at its surface.
- Oconsequently, most cracks leading to fatigue failure originate at surface positions, specifically at stress amplification sites.
- Therefore, it has been observed that fatigue life is especially sensitive to the condition and configuration of the component surface.
- Numerous factors influence fatigue resistance, the proper management of which will lead to an improvement in fatigue life.
- These include design criteria as well as various surface treatments.



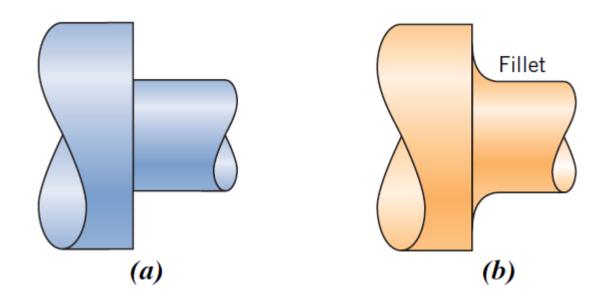
Surface Effects: Design Factors

- The design of a component can have a significant influence on its fatigue characteristics.
- Any notch or geometrical discontinuity can act as a stress raiser and fatigue crack initiation site; these design features include grooves, holes, keyways, threads, and so on.
- The **sharper** the **discontinuity** (i.e., the smaller the radius of curvature), the more **severe** the **stress concentration**.
- The **probability** of **fatigue failure** may be **reduced** by **avoiding** (when possible) these **structural irregularities** or by making design modifications by which sudden contour changes leading to sharp corners are eliminated.



Surface Effects: Design Factors

• For example, calling for rounded fillets with large radii of curvature at the point where there is a change in diameter for a rotating shaft (Figure).

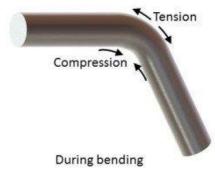


Demonstration of how design can reduce stress amplification. (a) Poor design: sharp corner. (b) Good design: fatigue lifetime is improved by incorporating a rounded fillet into a rotating shaft at the point where there is a change in diameter.



Surface Effects: Surface Treatments

- During machining operations, small scratches and grooves are invariably introduced into the workpiece surface by cutting-tool action. These surface markings can limit the fatigue life.
- It has been observed that improving the surface finish by polishing enhances fatigue life significantly.
- One of the most effective methods of increasing fatigue performance is by imposing residual compressive stresses within a thin outer surface layer. Thus, a surface tensile stress of external origin is partially nullified and reduced in magnitude by the residual compressive stress. The net effect is that the likelihood of crack formation and therefore of fatigue failure is reduced.
- Residual compressive stresses are commonly introduced into ductile metals mechanically by localized plastic deformation within the outer surface region.

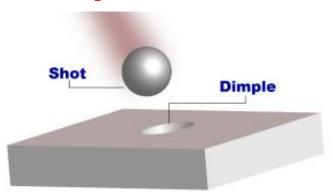






Surface Effects: Surface Treatments

- Commercially, this is often accomplished by a process termed shot peening.
- Small, hard particles (shot) having diameters within the range of 0.1 to 1 mm are projected at high velocities onto the surface to be treated.
- The resulting deformation induces compressive stresses to a depth of between one-quarter and one-half of the shot diameter.







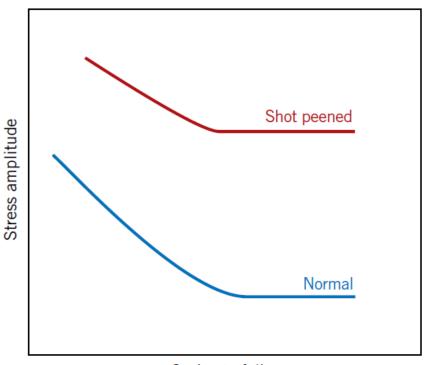






Surface Effects: Surface Treatments

• The influence of shot peening on the fatigue behavior of steel is demonstrated schematically in the figure.



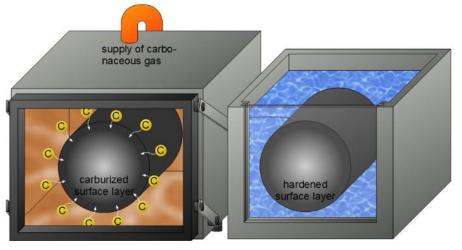
Cycles to failure (logarithmic scale)

Schematic S–N fatigue curves for normal and shot-peened steel.



Surface Effects: Surface Treatments

- Case hardening is a technique by which both surface hardness and fatigue life are enhanced for steel alloys.
- This is accomplished by a carburizing or nitriding process by which a component is exposed to a carbonaceous or nitrogenous atmosphere at elevated temperature.
- A carbon- or nitrogen-rich outer surface layer (or case) is introduced by atomic diffusion from the gaseous phase.
- The case is normally on the order of **1 mm deep** and is **harder** than the inner core of material.



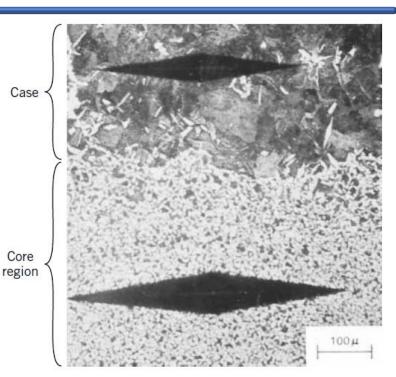






Surface Effects: Surface Treatments

- The improvement of fatigue properties results from **increased hardness** within the **case**, as well as the desired residual compressive stresses the formation of which attends the carburizing or nitriding process.
- The **increase** in **case hardness** is demonstrated in the photomicrograph in the figure.
- The dark and elongated diamond shapes are Knoop microhardness indentations.
- The **upper indentation**, lying within the carburized layer, is **smaller** than the core **indentation**.



Photomicrograph showing both core (bottom) and carburized outer case (top) regions of a casehardened steel.

The case is harder, as attested by the smaller microhardness indentation. 100x.

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- Environmental factors may also affect the fatigue behavior of materials.
- A few brief comments will be given relative to two types of <u>environment-assisted</u> <u>fatigue failure</u>: Thermal fatigue and Corrosion fatigue.



Deformation of railway due to thermal expansion





Expansion gap (railway joint)



Thermal Fatigue

- Thermal fatigue is normally induced at **elevated temperatures** by **fluctuating thermal stresses**; <u>mechanical stresses</u> from an external source need not be present.
- The origin of these thermal stresses is the restraint to the dimensional expansion and/or contraction that would normally occur in a structural member with variations in temperature.
- The <u>magnitude of a thermal stress</u> developed by a temperature change T depends on the coefficient of thermal expansion α_l and the modulus of elasticity E according to

$$\sigma = \alpha_l E \Delta T$$

- Thermal stresses <u>do not arise</u> if this <u>mechanical</u> restraint is <u>absent</u>.
- Therefore, one **obvious way** to **prevent** this type of fatigue is to **eliminate**, **or** at least **reduce**, the **restraint source**, thus allowing unhindered dimensional changes with temperature variations, or to choose materials with appropriate **physical properties**.



Corrosion Fatigue

- Failure that occurs by the simultaneous action of a cyclic stress and chemical attack is termed corrosion fatigue.
- Corrosive environments have a deleterious influence and produce shorter fatigue lives. Even normal ambient atmosphere affects the fatigue behavior of some materials.
- Small pits may form as a result of chemical reactions between the environment and the material, which may serve as points of stress concentration and therefore as crack nucleation sites.
- In addition, the **crack propagation rate** is **enhanced** as a result of the **corrosive** environment.
- The nature of the stress cycles influences the fatigue behavior; for example, lowering the load application frequency leads to longer periods during which the opened crack is in contact with the environment and to a reduction in the fatigue life.



Corrosion Fatigue

- Several approaches to corrosion fatigue prevention exist.
- On one hand, we can take measures to reduce the rate of corrosion by some chemical techniques, for example, apply protective surface coatings, select a more corrosion-resistant material, and reduce the corrosiveness of the environment.
- On the other hand, it might be advisable to take actions to minimize the probability of normal fatigue failure, as outlined previously—for example, reduce the applied tensile stress level and impose residual compressive stresses on the surface of the member.

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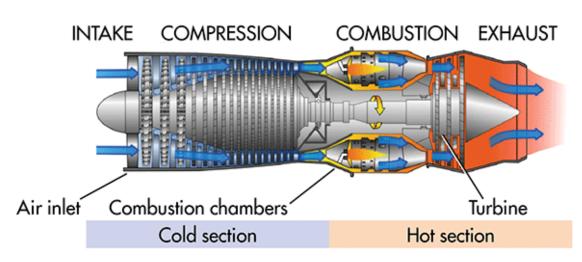
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Introduction



- Materials are often placed in **service at elevated temperatures** and exposed to **static mechanical stresses** (e.g., **turbine rotors in jet engines** and **steam generators** that experience centrifugal stresses; high-pressure **steam lines**).
- Deformation under such circumstances is termed <u>creep</u>.
- Defined as the time-dependent and permanent deformation of materials when subjected to a constant load or stress, creep is normally an undesirable phenomenon and is often the limiting factor in the lifetime of a part.

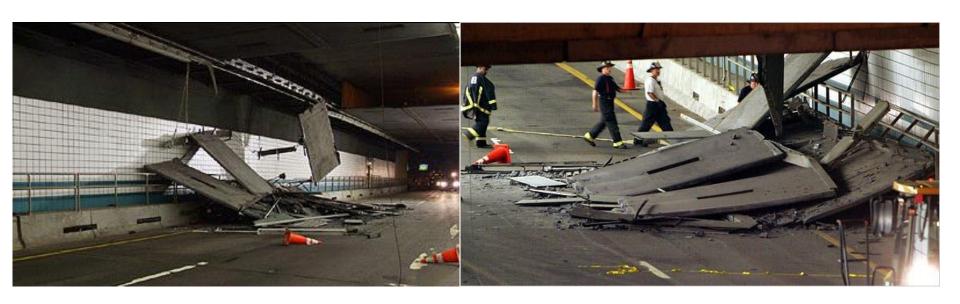
JET ENGINE CROSS SECTION



Introduction



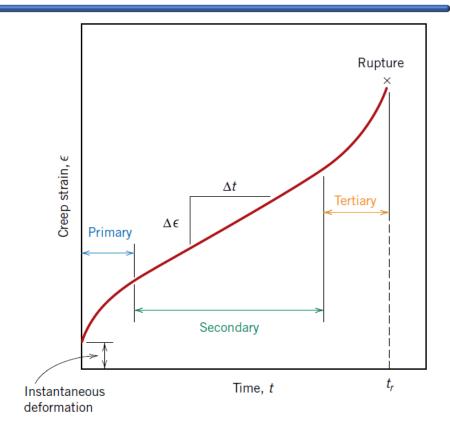
- It is observed in **all materials types**; for **metals**, it becomes important only for temperatures **greater than about** $0.4T_m$, where T_m is the **absolute melting** temperature.
- Amorphous polymers, which include plastics and rubbers, are especially sensitive to creep deformation.



A woman died in the collapse of the ceiling of a "Big Dig" tunnel in Boston (2006). Creep of polymer (epoxy glue).



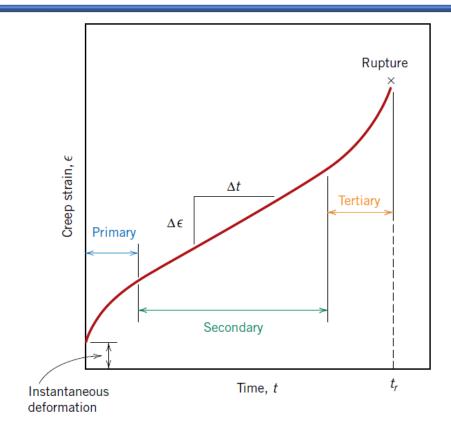
- A typical creep test consists of subjecting a specimen to a constant load or stress while maintaining the temperature constant; deformation or strain is measured and plotted as a function of elapsed time.
- Most tests are the constant-load type, which yield information of an engineering nature; constant-stress tests are employed to provide a better understanding of the mechanisms of creep.
- The following figure is a schematic representation of the typical constantload creep behavior of metals.



Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.



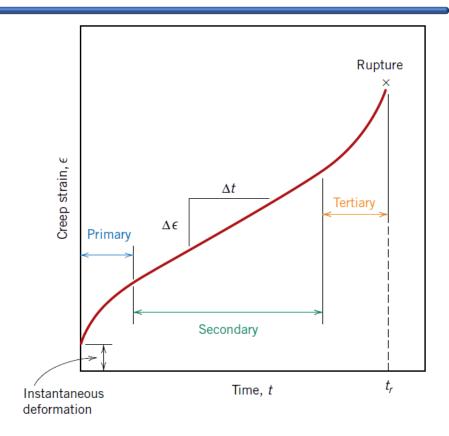
- Upon application of the load, there is an instantaneous deformation, as indicated in the figure, that is totally elastic.
- The resulting creep curve consists of three regions, each of which has its own distinctive strain-time feature.
- Primary or transient creep occurs first, typified by a continuously decreasing creep rate—that is, the slope of the curve decreases with time.
- This suggests that the material is experiencing an increase in creep resistance or strain hardening deformation becomes more difficult as the material is strained.



Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.



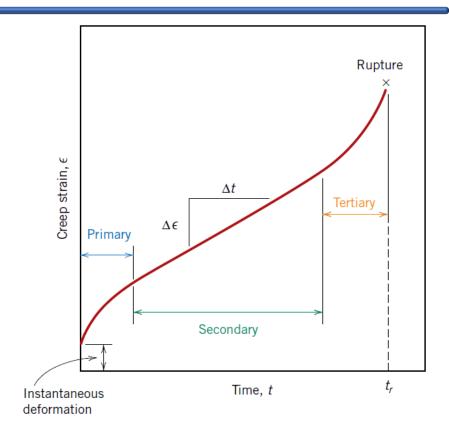
- For secondary creep, sometimes termed steady-state creep, the rate is constant—that is, the plot becomes linear. This is often the stage of creep that is of the longest duration.
- The constancy of creep rate is explained on the basis of a balance between the competing processes of strain hardening and recovery, recovery being the process by which a material becomes softer and retains its ability to experience deformation.



Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.



- Finally, for tertiary creep, there is an acceleration of the rate and ultimate failure.
- This failure is frequently termed <u>rupture</u> and results from <u>microstructural</u> and/or <u>metallurgical</u> changes—for example, grain boundary separation, and the formation of internal cracks, cavities, and voids.
- Also, for tensile loads, a neck may form at some point within the deformation region.
- These all lead to a decrease in the effective cross-sectional area and an increase in strain rate.



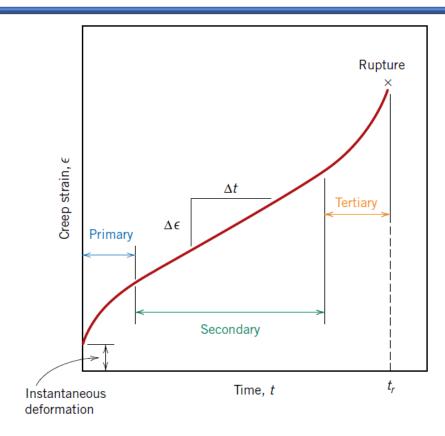
Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.



- For metallic materials, most creep tests are conducted in uniaxial tension using a specimen having the same geometry as for tensile tests.
- However, uniaxial compression tests are more appropriate for brittle materials; these provide a better measure of the intrinsic creep properties because there is no stress amplification and crack propagation, as with tensile loads.
- Compressive test specimens are usually right cylinders or parallelepipeds having length-to-diameter ratios ranging from about 2 to 4.
- For most materials, creep properties are virtually independent of loading direction.



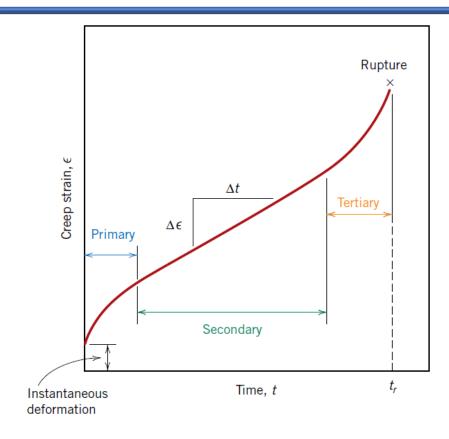
- Possibly the **most important** parameter from a creep test is the **slope** of the **secondary** portion of the creep curve $(\Delta \epsilon/\Delta t)$; this is often called the **minimum or steady-state creep rate** $\dot{\epsilon}_s$.
- It is the engineering design parameter that is considered for long-life applications, such as a nuclear power plant component that is scheduled to operate for several decades, and when failure or too much strain is not an option.



Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.



- However, for many relatively short-life creep situations (e.g., turbine blades in military aircraft and rocket motor nozzles), time to rupture, or the rupture lifetime t_r, is the dominant design consideration; it is also indicated in the figure.
- Of course, for its determination, creep tests must be conducted to the point of failure; these are termed creep rupture tests.
- Thus, knowledge of these creep characteristics of a material allows the design engineer to ascertain its suitability for a specific application.



Typical creep curve of strain versus time at constant load and constant elevated temperature.

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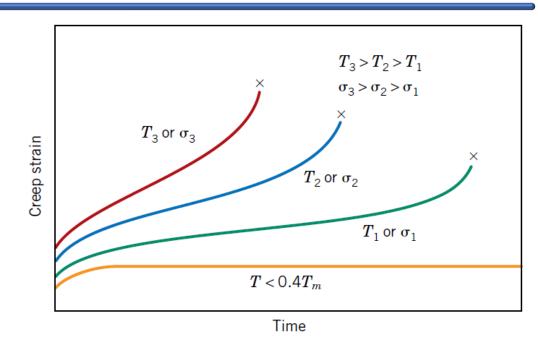
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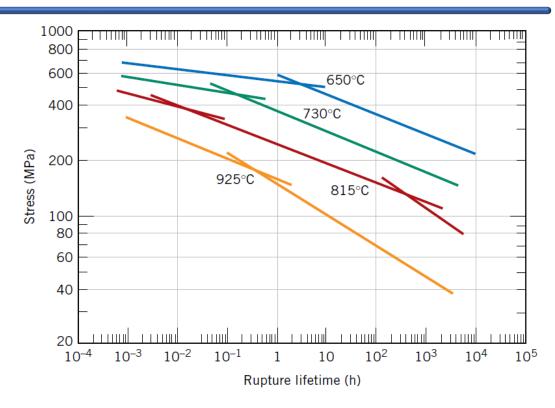
- Both temperature and the level of the applied stress influence the creep characteristics.
- At a temperature substantially below 0.4T_m, and after the initial deformation, the <u>strain</u> is <u>virtually</u> independent of <u>time</u>.
- With either increasing stress or temperature, the following will be noted: (1) the instantaneous strain at the time of stress application increases, (2) the steadystate creep rate increases, and (3) the rupture lifetime decreases.



Influence of stress s and temperature T on creep hehavior.



- The results of creep rupture tests are most commonly presented as the logarithm of stress versus the logarithm of rupture lifetime.
- This figure is one such plot for an S-590 alloy in which a set of linear relationships can be seen to exist at each temperature.
- For some alloys and over relatively large stress ranges, nonlinearity in these curves is observed.



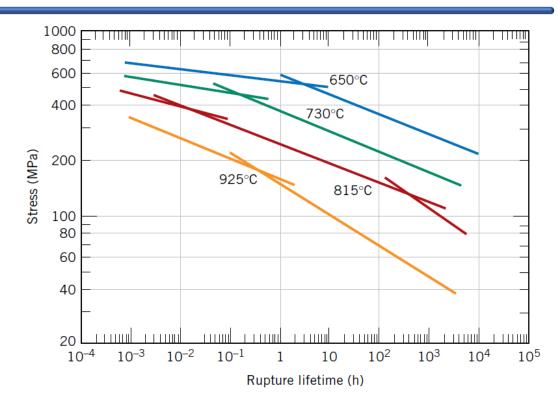
Stress (logarithmic scale) versus rupture lifetime (logarithmic scale) for an S-590 alloy at four temperatures.



Empirical relationships have been developed in which the steady-state creep rate as a function of stress and temperature is expressed. Its dependence on stress can be written:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{s}=K_{1}\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{n}$$

where K_1 and n are material constants.



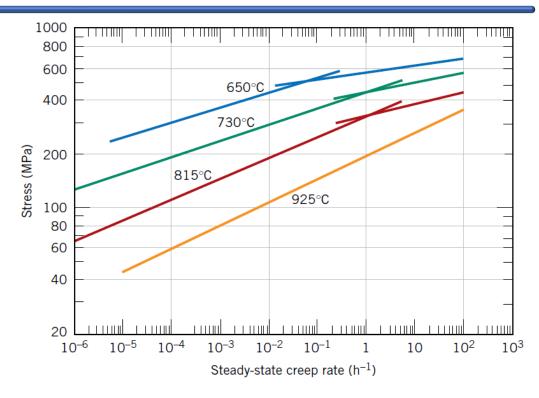
Stress (logarithmic scale) versus rupture lifetime (logarithmic scale) for an S-590 alloy at four temperatures.



- A plot of the logarithm of ἐ versus the logarithm of σ yields a straight line with slope of n; this is shown in the figure for an S-590 alloy at four temperatures.
- Clearly, one or two straight-line segments are drawn at each temperature.
- Now, when the influence of temperature is included, creep strain rate will be written:

$$\dot{\epsilon}_s = K_2 \sigma^n \exp\left(-\frac{Q_c}{RT}\right)$$

where K_2 and Q_c are constants; Q_c is termed the activation energy for creep.



Stress (logarithmic scale) versus steady-state creep rate (logarithmic scale) for an S-590 alloy at four temperatures.



- Several theoretical mechanisms have been proposed to explain the creep behavior for various materials; these mechanisms involve stress-induced vacancy diffusion, grain boundary diffusion, dislocation motion, and grain boundary sliding.
- Each leads to a different value of the stress exponent n in the previous equations.
- It has been possible to elucidate the creep mechanism for a particular material by comparing its experimental n value with values predicted for the various mechanisms.
- Creep data of this nature are represented pictorially for some well-studied systems in the form of stress-temperature diagrams, which are termed deformation mechanism maps.
- These maps indicate stress-temperature regimes (or areas) over which various mechanisms operate. Constant-strain-rate contours are often also included.
- Thus, for some creep situation, given the appropriate deformation mechanism map and any two of the three parameters—temperature, stress level, and creep strain rate—the third parameter may be determined.

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6.14. Data Extrapolation Methods



- The need often arises for **engineering creep data** that are **impractical** to **collect** from **normal laboratory tests**.
- This is especially true for prolonged exposures (on the order of years). One solution to this problem involves performing creep and/or creep rupture tests at temperatures in excess of those required, for shorter time periods, and at a comparable stress level, and then making a suitable extrapolation to the inservice condition.
- A commonly used extrapolation procedure employs the Larson-Miller parameter,
 m, defined as:

$$m = T(C + \log t_r)$$

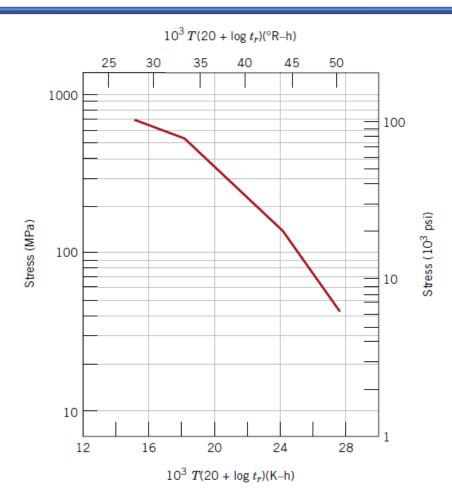
where C is a **constant** (usually on the order of 20), for T in Kelvin and the rupture lifetime t_r in hours.

6.14. Data Extrapolation Methods



The rupture lifetime of a given material measured at some specific stress level varies with temperature such that this parameter *m* remains constant (for the same stress).

• Alternatively, the data may be plotted as the logarithm of stress versus the Larson-Miller parameter, as shown.



Logarithm of stress versus the Larson–Miller parameter for an S-590 alloy.

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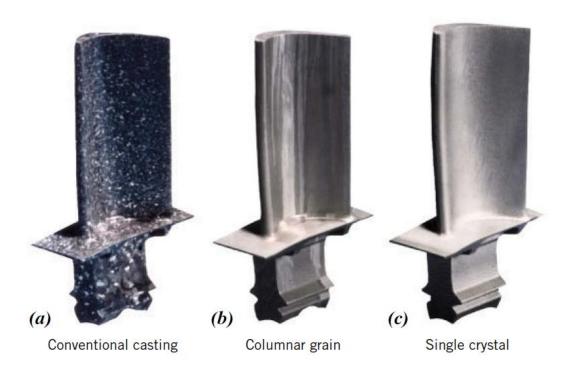


- Several factors affect the creep characteristics of metals. These include melting temperature, elastic modulus, and grain size.
- In general, the higher the melting temperature, the greater the elastic modulus; the larger the grain size, the better a material's resistance to creep.
- Relative to grain size, smaller grains permit more grain boundary sliding, which results in higher creep rates. This effect may be contrasted to the influence of grain size on the mechanical behavior at low temperatures [i.e., increase in both strength and toughness].
- Stainless steels and the superalloys are especially resilient to creep and are commonly employed in high-temperature service applications.
- The creep resistance of the superalloys is enhanced by solid-solution alloying and also by the formation of precipitate phases.

6.15. Alloys For High-temperature Use



• In addition, advanced processing techniques have been utilized; one such technique is directional solidification, which produces either highly elongated grains or single-crystal components.



(a) Polycrystalline turbine blade that was produced by a conventional casting technique. High-temperature creep resistance is improved as a result of an oriented columnar grain structure (b) produced by a sophisticated directional solidification technique. Creep resistance is further enhanced when single-crystal blades (c) are used.