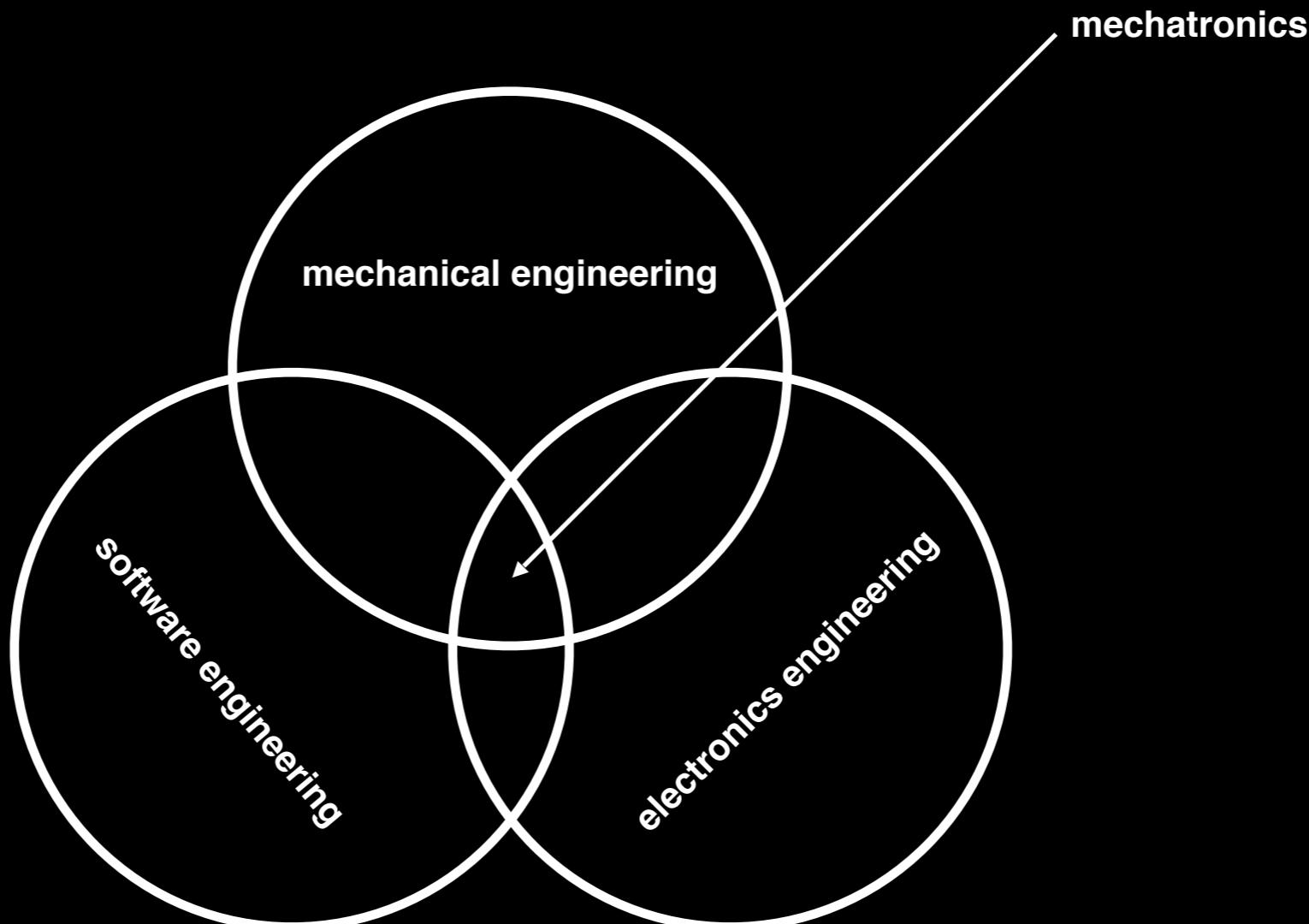
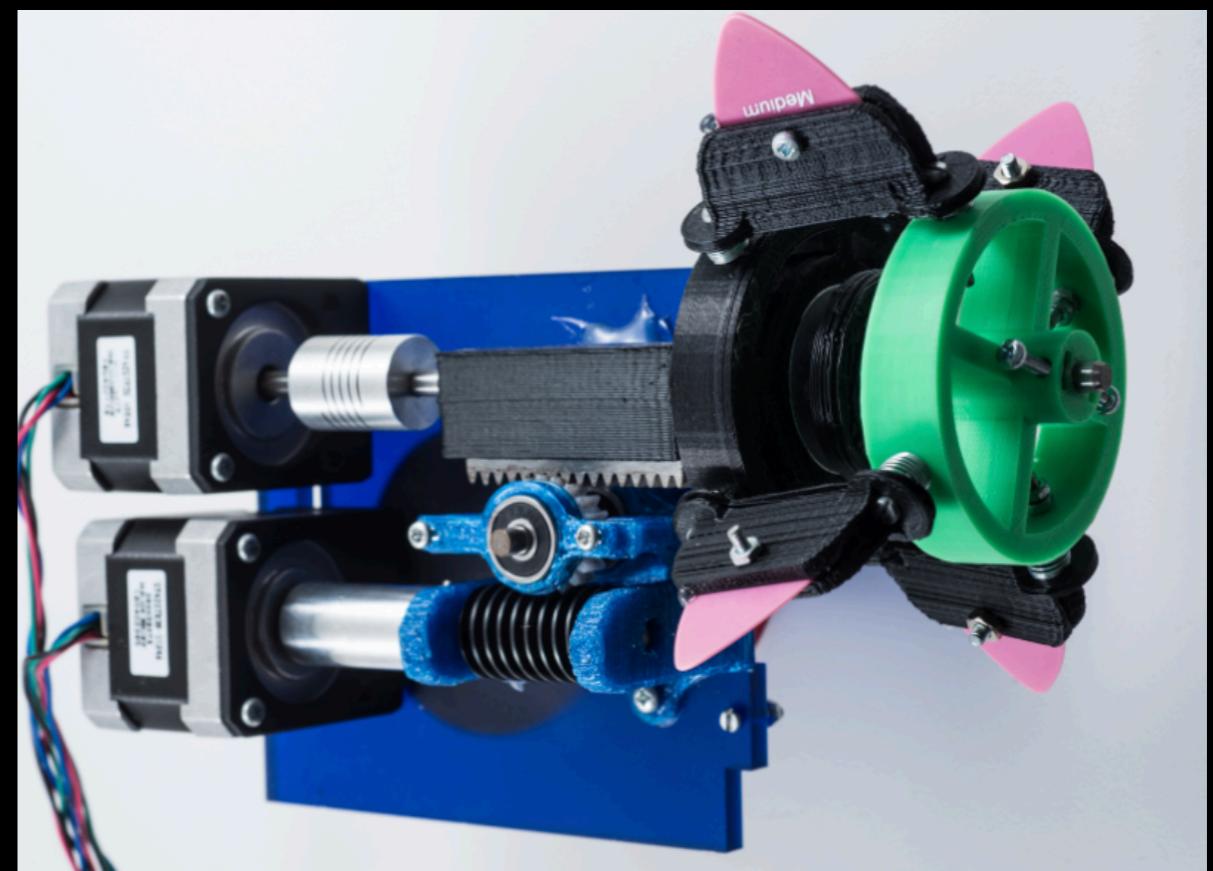
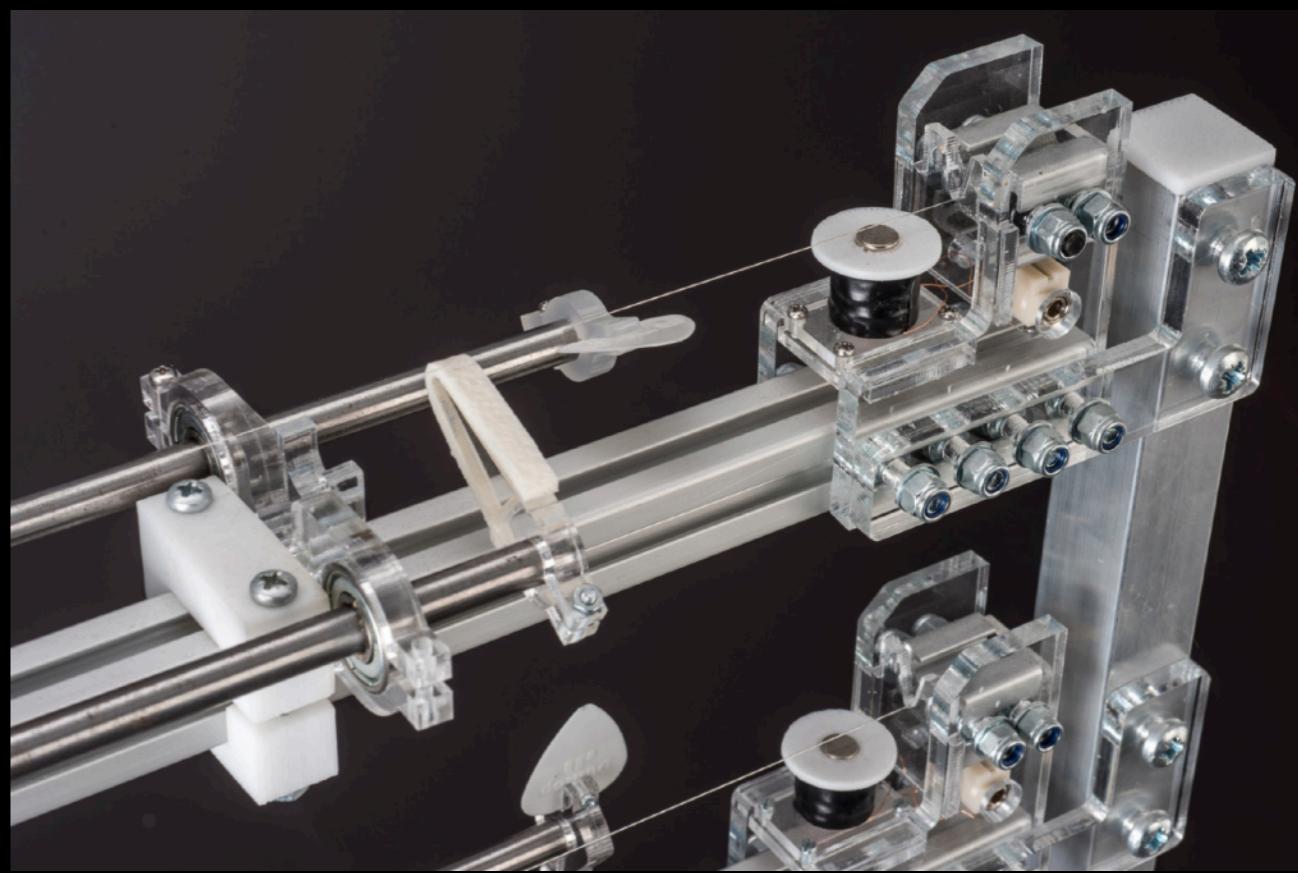
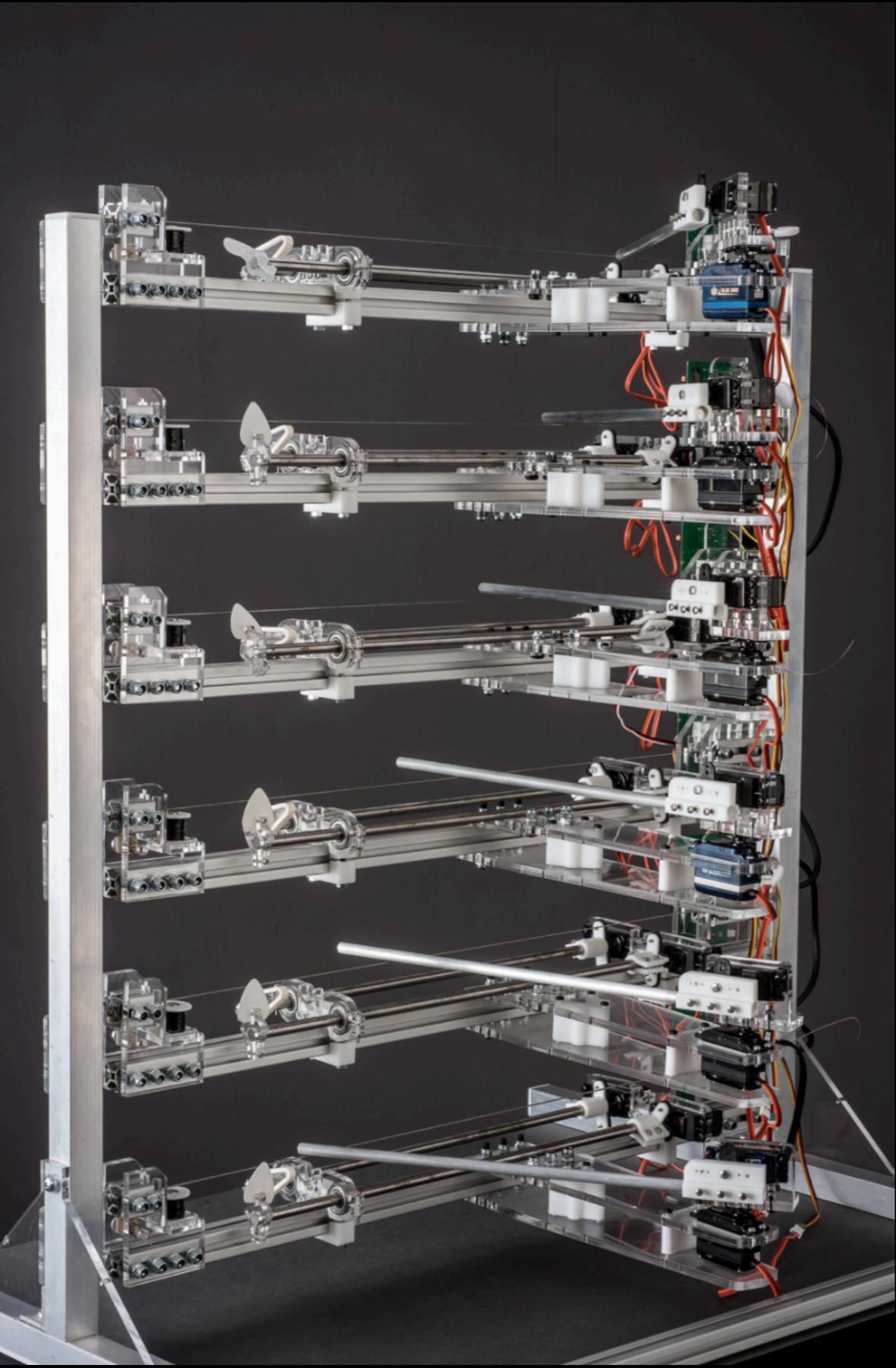


ECEN425



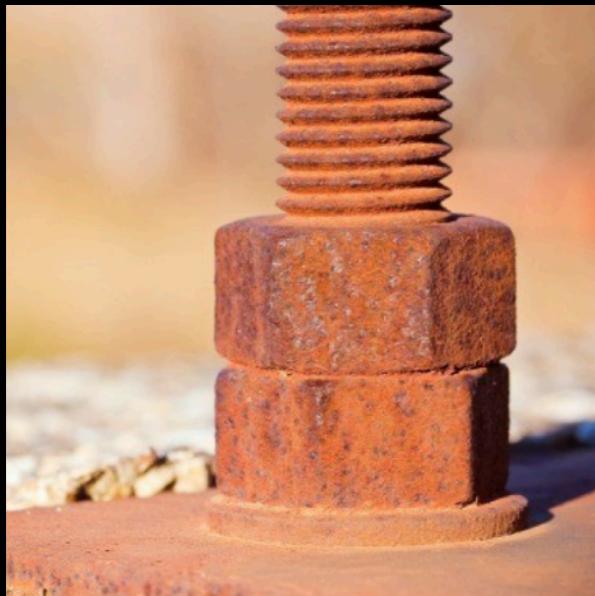
- jim.murphy@vuw.ac.nz
- 92 Fairlie Terrace, Room 202





- jim.murphy@vuw.ac.nz
- 92 Fairlie Terrace Room 202
- No fixed office hours: schedule a meeting via email!
- Lecture notes and assignments will be posted to Blackboard

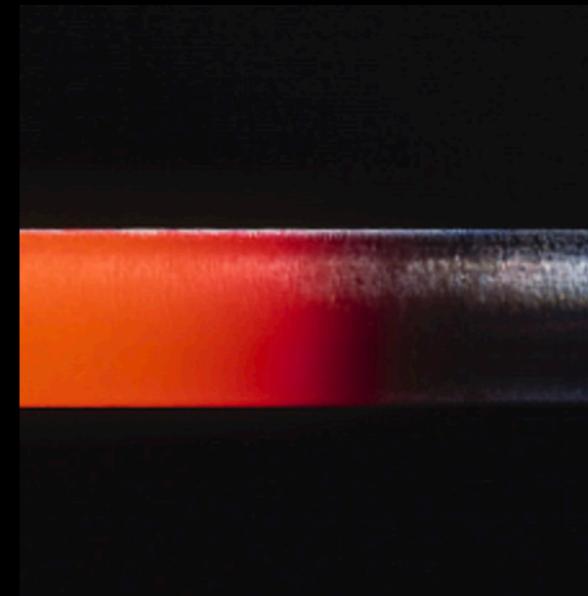
UNCERTAINTIES



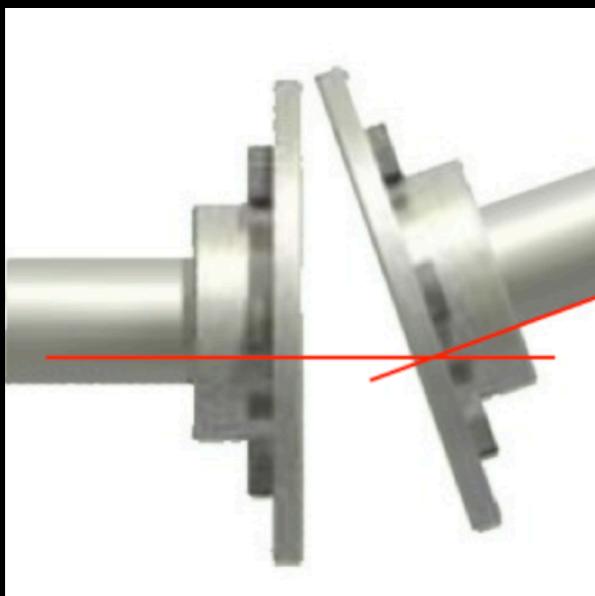
CORROSION



WEAR



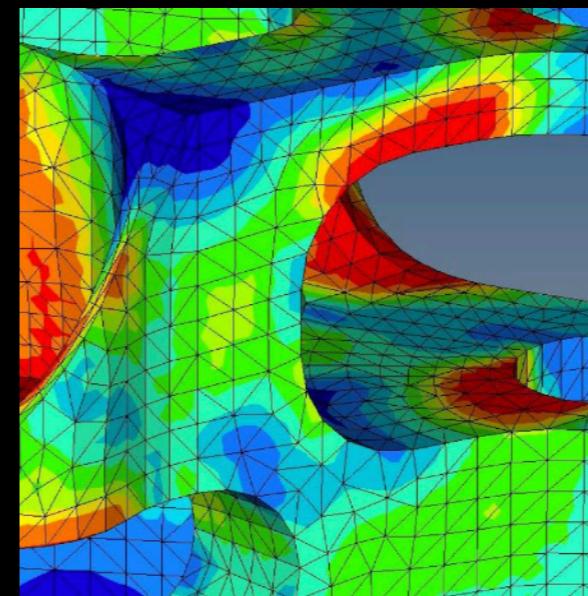
TEMPERATURE



MISALIGNMENT



MANUFACTURING
ERRORS



MODEL ERRORS

- One way to deal with these inevitable errors is to use a design factor and safety factor.
- This essentially involves building the system stronger than needed for normal use.
- It can be helpful to be able to estimate the worst case scenario.

DESIGN FACTOR

- Designing with a design factor allows uncertainties to be addressed (so long as *absolute uncertainties* can be estimated)

Design Factor

Point at which the system fails

$$n_d = \frac{\text{loss-of-function parameter}}{\text{maximum allowable parameter}}$$

Parameter to not exceed

Or... given the loss of function parameter and a design factor, we can arrive at a maximum allowable parameter

$$\text{Maximum allowable parameter} = \frac{\text{loss-of-function parameter}}{n_d}$$

DESIGN FACTOR

An electric scooter's maximum load is known to an uncertainty of ± 20 percent (*absolute uncertainty 1*). The load that will cause breakage/failure is known within ± 15 percent (*absolute uncertainty 2*). The load causing failure is nominally 2000 N. Determine the design factor and the maximum allowable load that will offset the absolute uncertainties.



The maximum allowable load must decrease to 1/1.2
(*addresses absolute uncertainty 1, ± 20 percent*)
We might see a loss-of-function load as great as 1/0.85
(*addresses absolute uncertainty 2, ± 15 percent*)

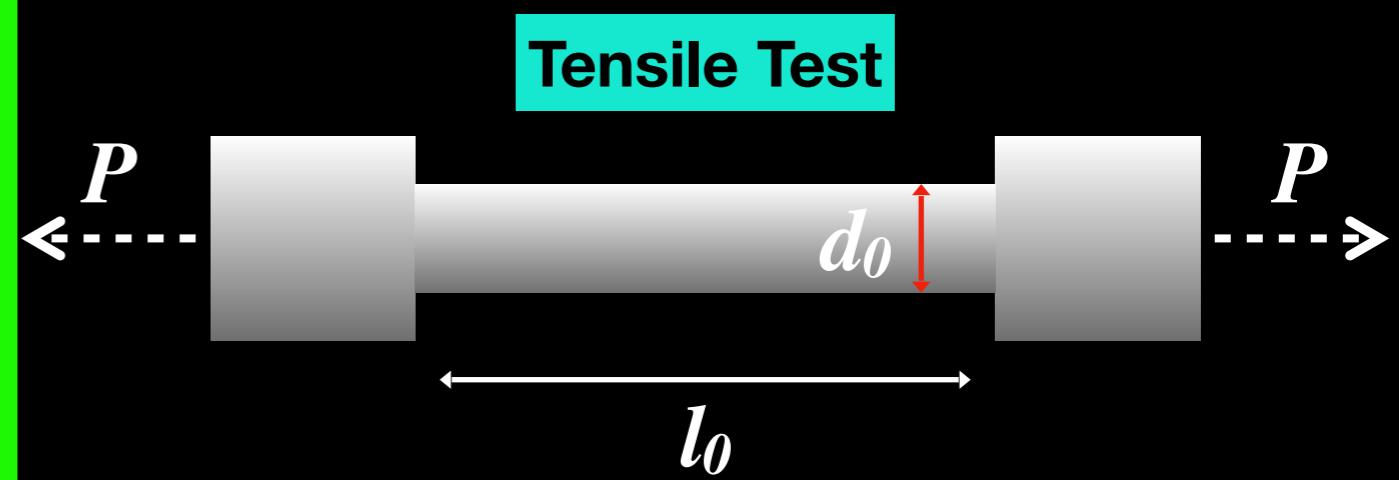
$$n_d = \frac{1/0.85}{1/1.2} = 1.4$$

$$\text{Max. allowable load} = \frac{2000}{1.4} = 1428 \text{ N}$$

- This is a deterministic approach. Stochastic (statistics-based) approaches that focus on the design's statistical survivability are also commonly used. These require many samples.

MATERIALS

- Deciding upon a material is a crucial step (often the first) in a design process.
 - This affects everything from cost to dimension to manufacturing process.
- To arrive at an understanding of allowable stresses in a component, we need to know how a material behaves.
 - What & how are the points where the material fails when subjected to stresses?



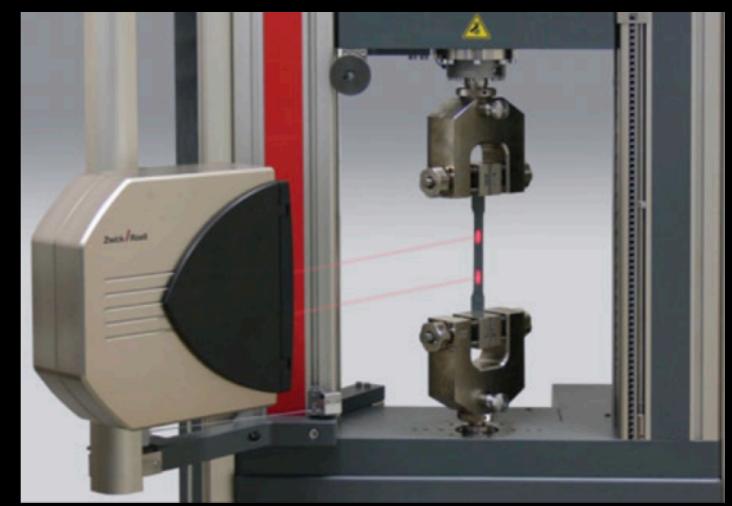
Tensile Test

Load P is converted to stress σ by

$$\sigma = \frac{P}{A_0} \quad \text{where } A_0 = \frac{1}{4}\pi d_0^2$$

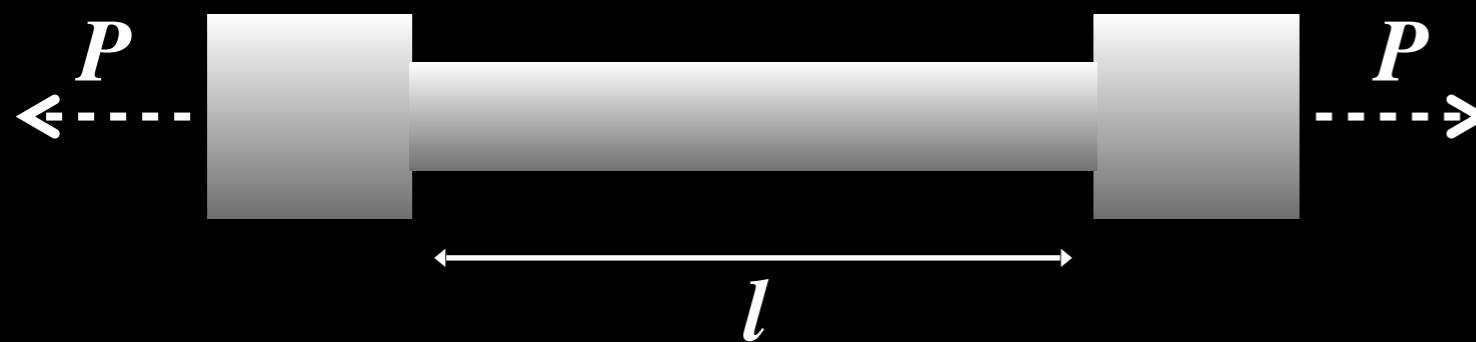
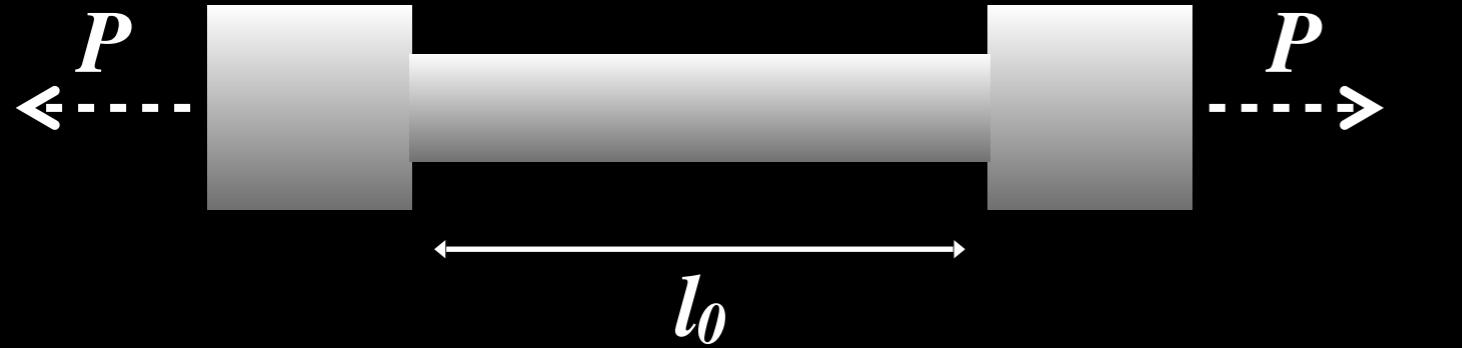
By measuring how the material responds to this stress, the relationship between input stress σ and strain ϵ can be determined

TENSION TEST

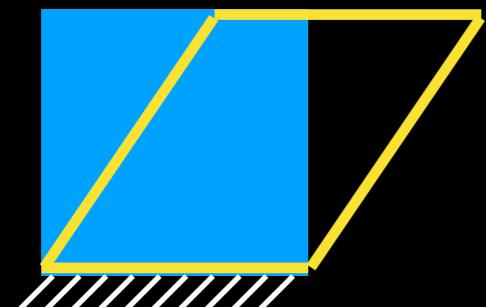


- The relationship between stress and strain can be measured with a tension tester unit.
 - This places the sample between two arms that compress/extend.
 - Change in material length l is measured
 - Measurement is conducted with an extensometer.

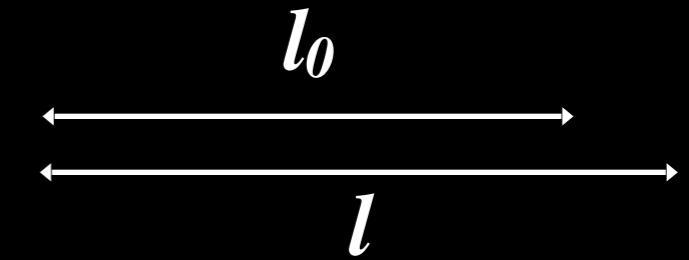
STRAIN



Normal strain



Shear strain



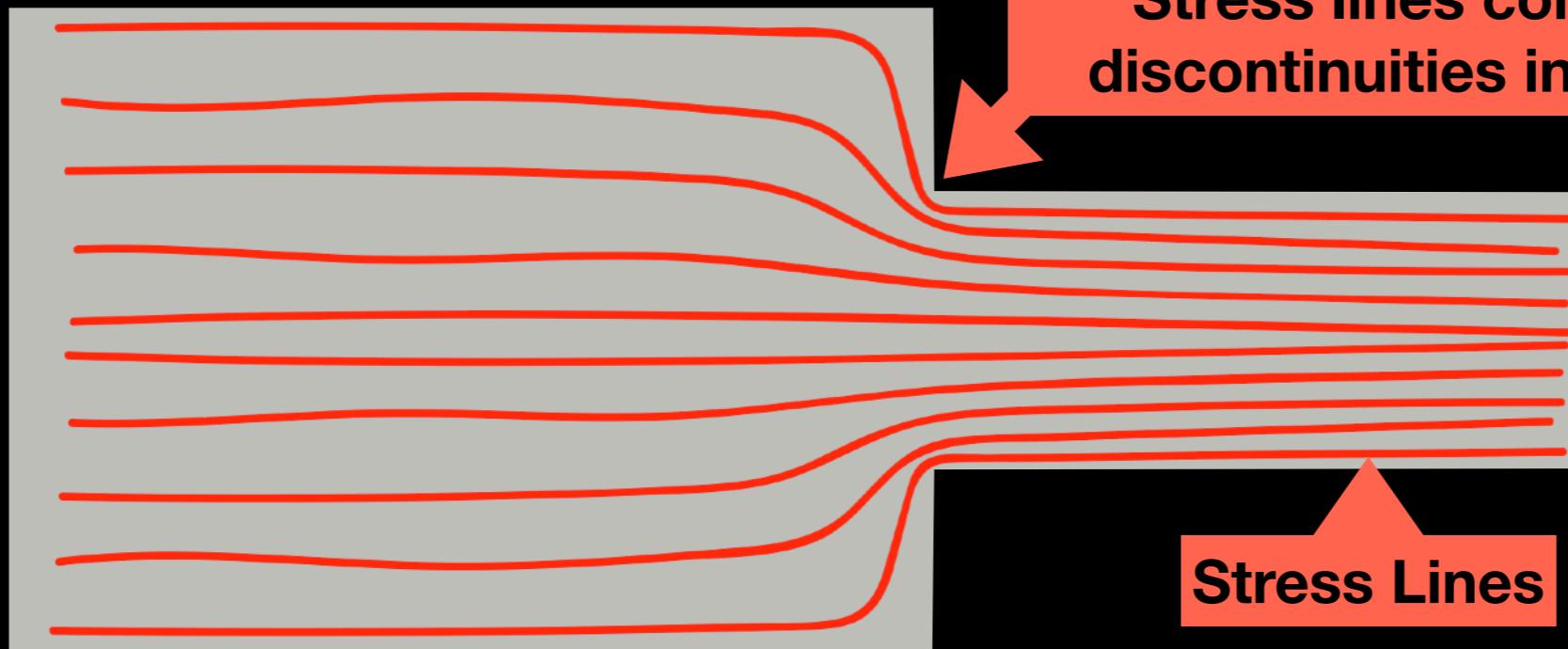
$$\delta = l - l_0$$

Deformation

Rather than be described by the actual deformation length ($l-l_0$), normal strain ϵ is described by the change in unit length of the material

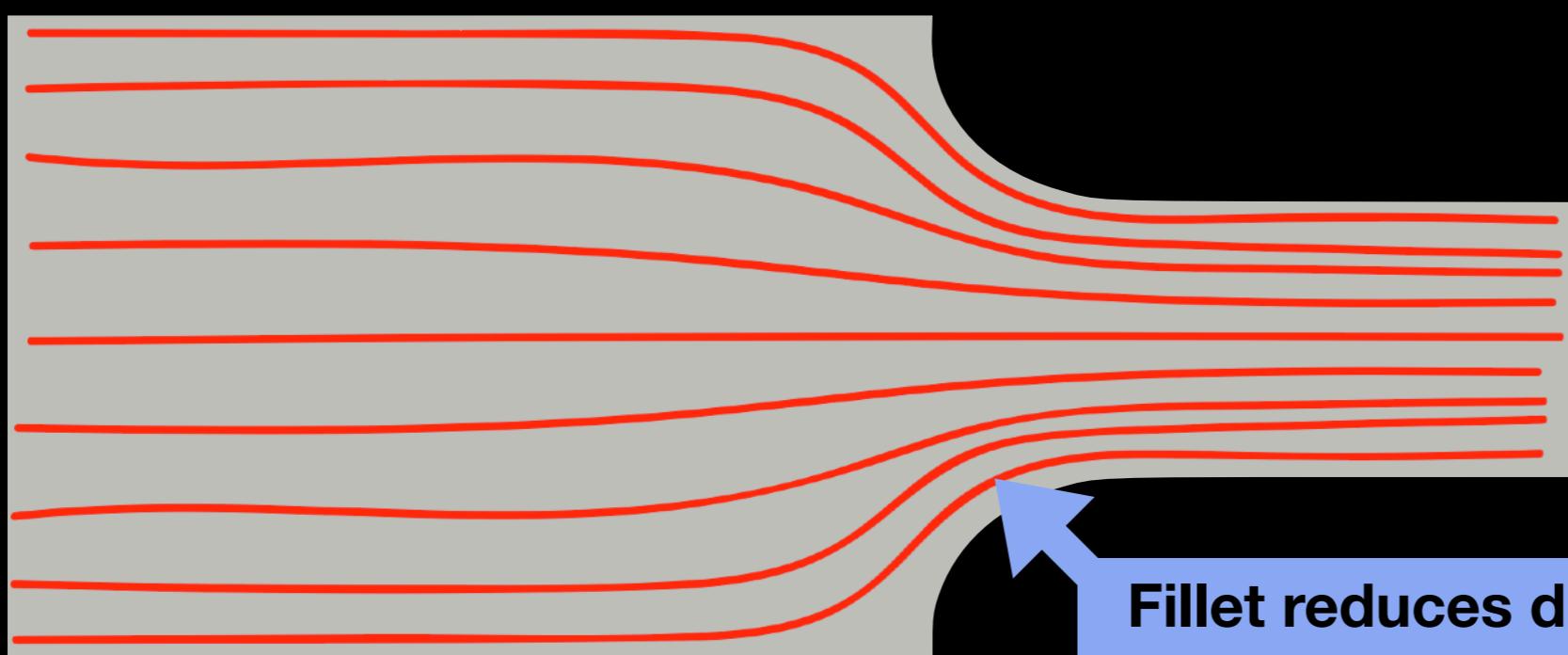
$$\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{l_0}$$

STRESS CONCENTRATION



Stress lines concentrate near abrupt discontinuities in a body ('stress risers')

Stress Lines



Fillet reduces discontinuity's abruptness

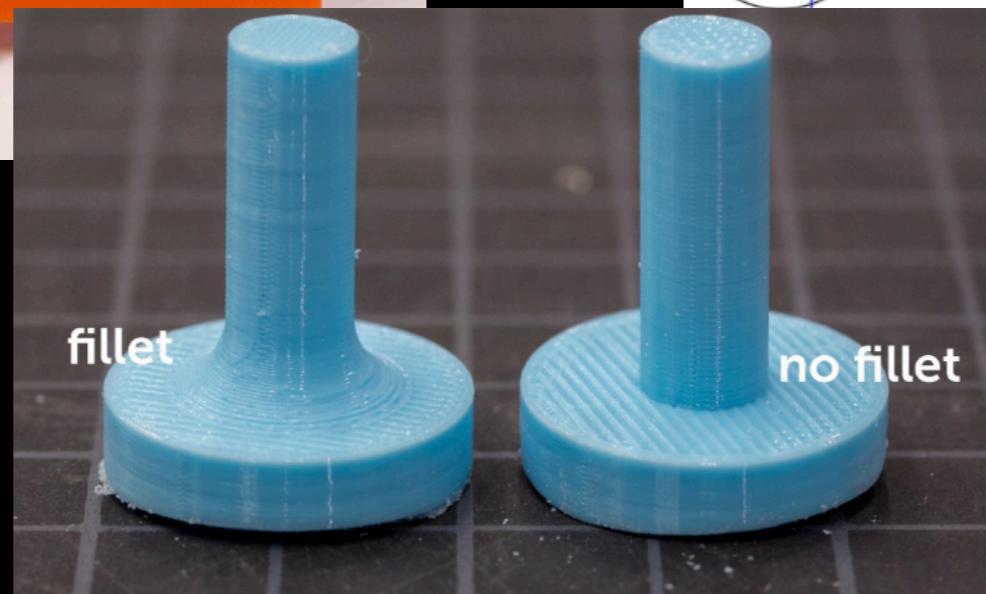
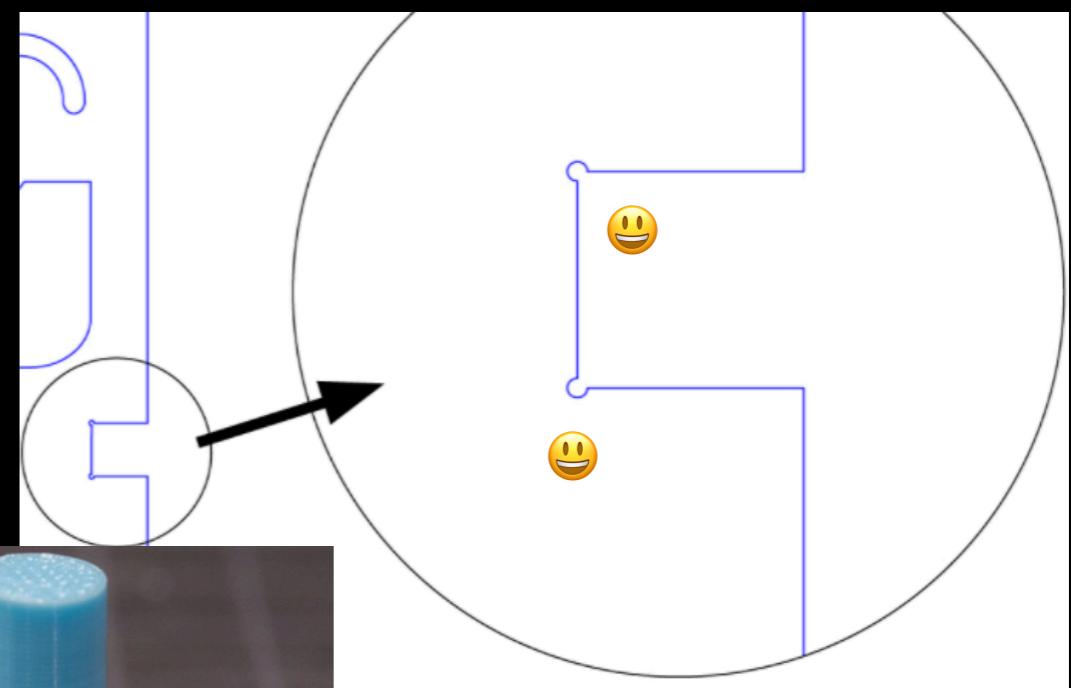
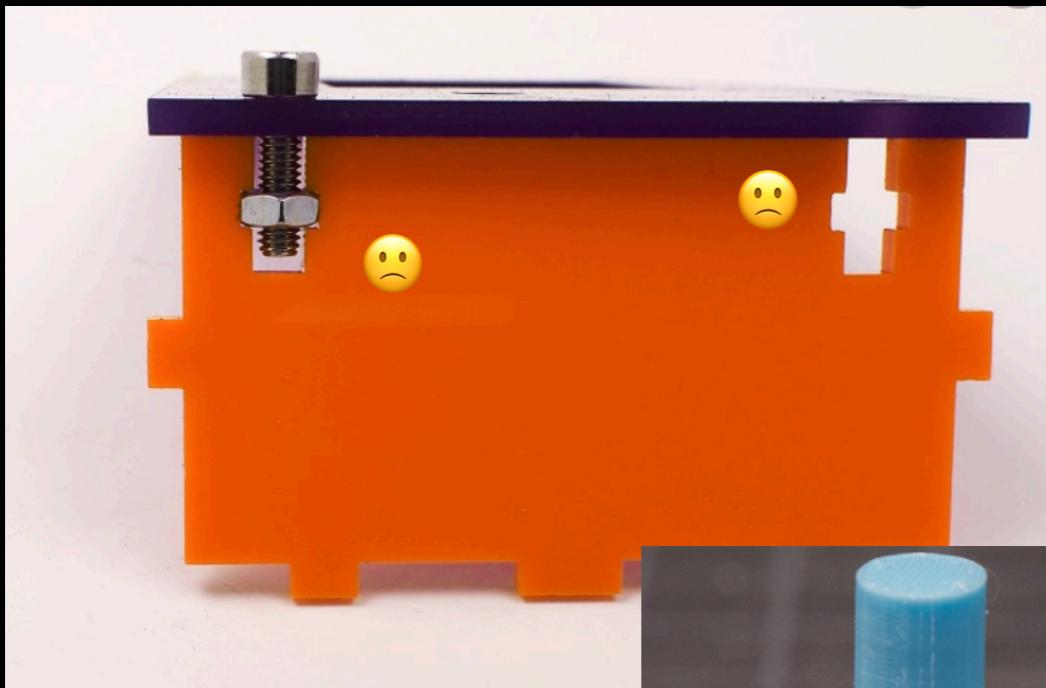
- Using force lines, we can illustrate the stresses in a body.
- These can be calculated (usually using FEA approaches).
- They can provide an intuitive, qualitative visualisation of regions in a body where stresses rise.

STRESS CONCENTRATION

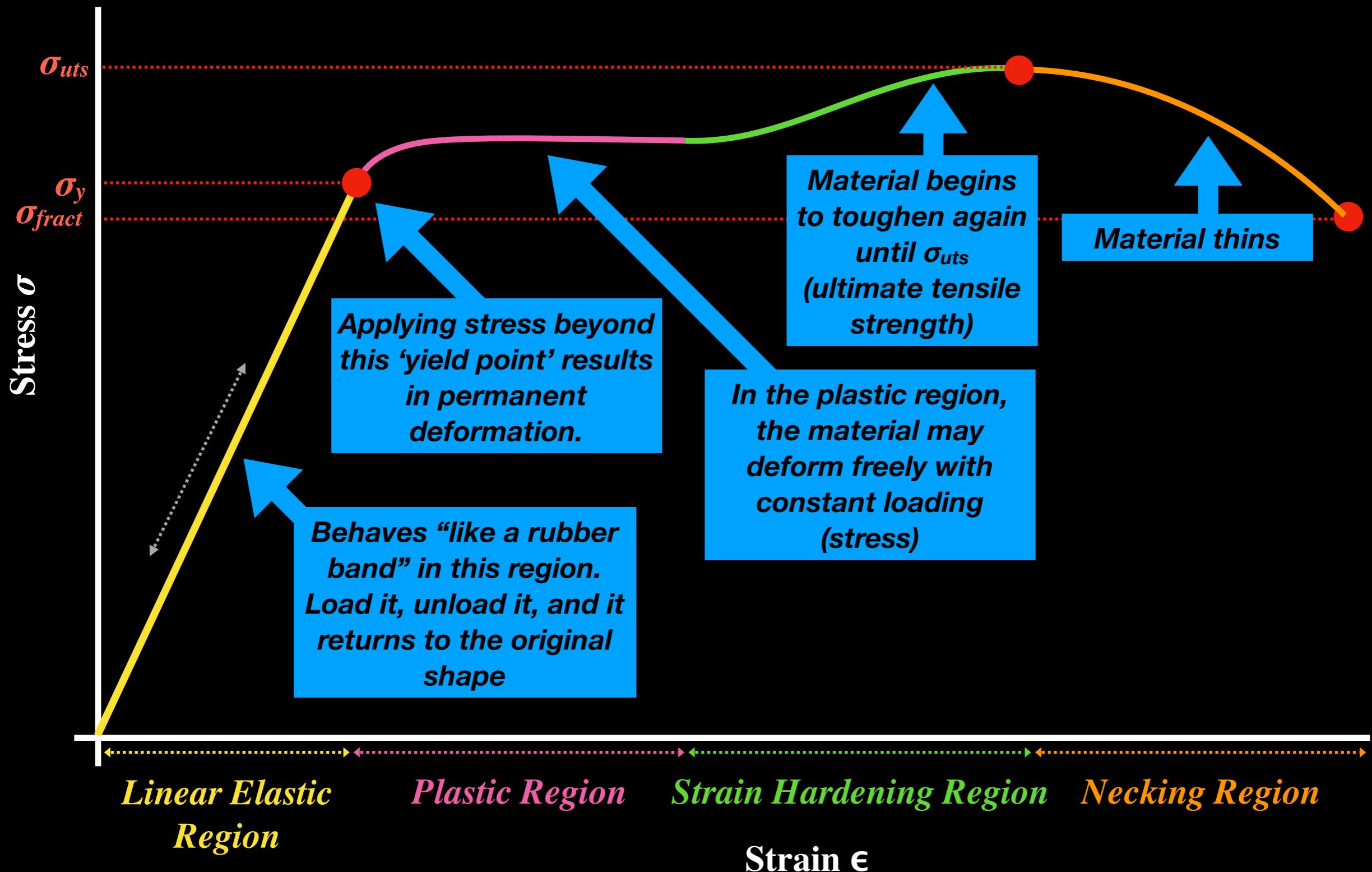


STRESS CONCENTRATION

- When laser cutting, reduce stress concentration by avoiding abrupt angular changes.
- Add fillets when 3D printing to more evenly distribute stresses



STRESS-STRAIN DIAGRAM



A NOTE ABOUT UNITS

FORCE

Unit: Newtons (N)

$$1 \text{ N} = 1 \text{ kg} \cdot 1 \text{ m/s}^2$$

(In engineering, we often use kN)

STRESS (σ , sigma)

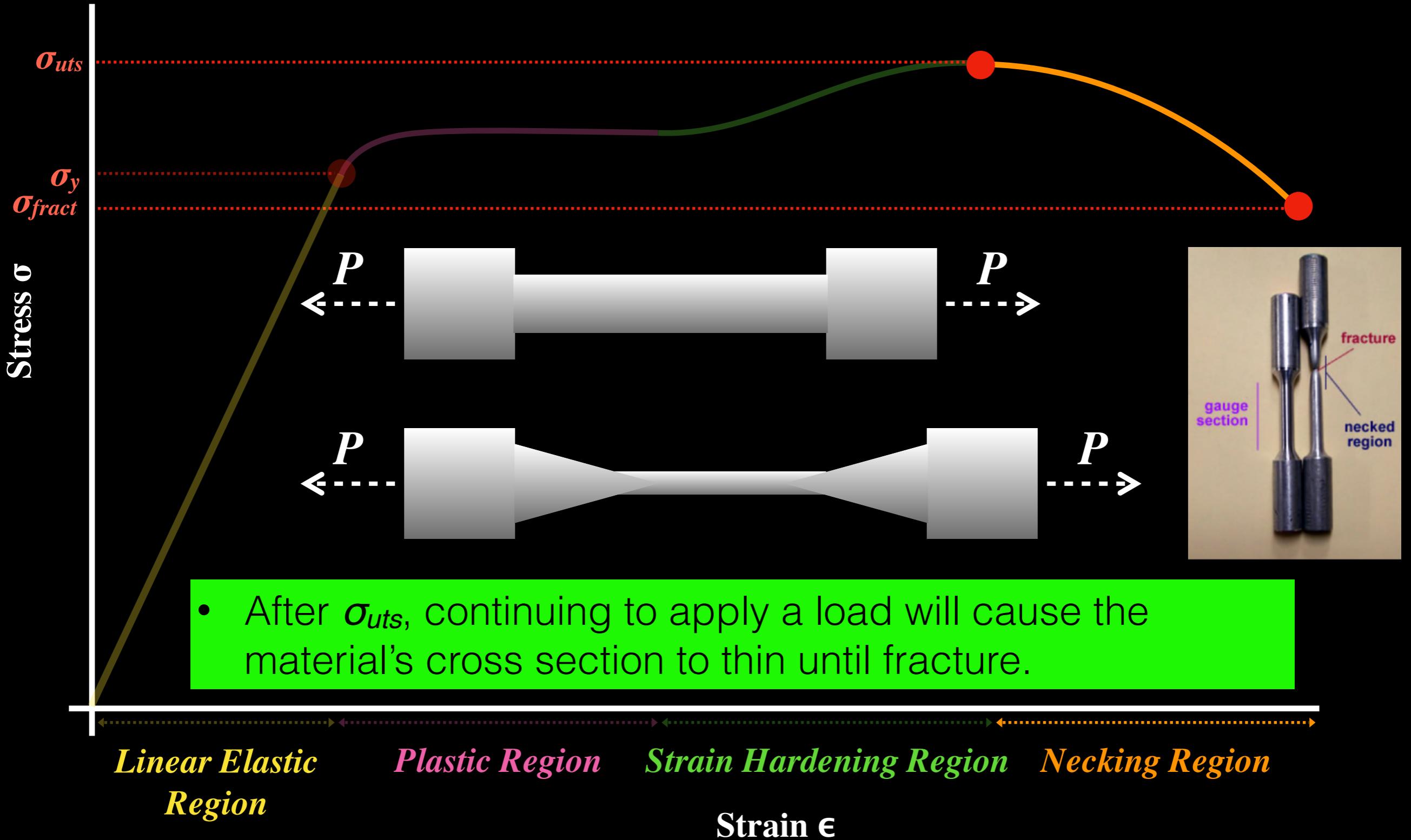
Unit: Pascal in SI (PSI in Imperial units)
(Newtons per square metre: 1 N/m²)

MPa and GPa are common in mech. engineering.

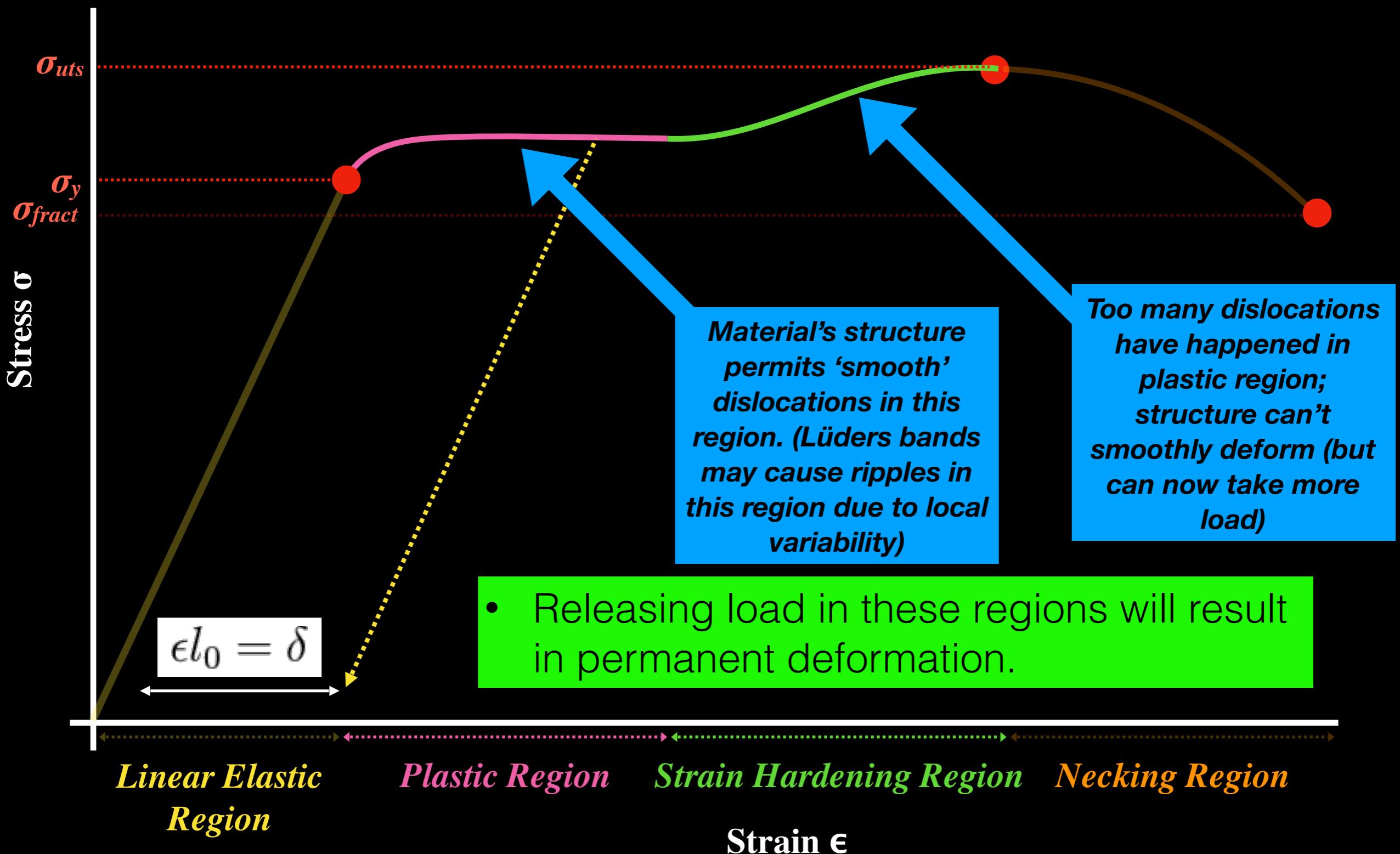
STRAIN (ϵ , epsilon)

Unit: dimensionless
(ratio of two lengths), but you often see it as a ratio of lengths (e.g., m/m)

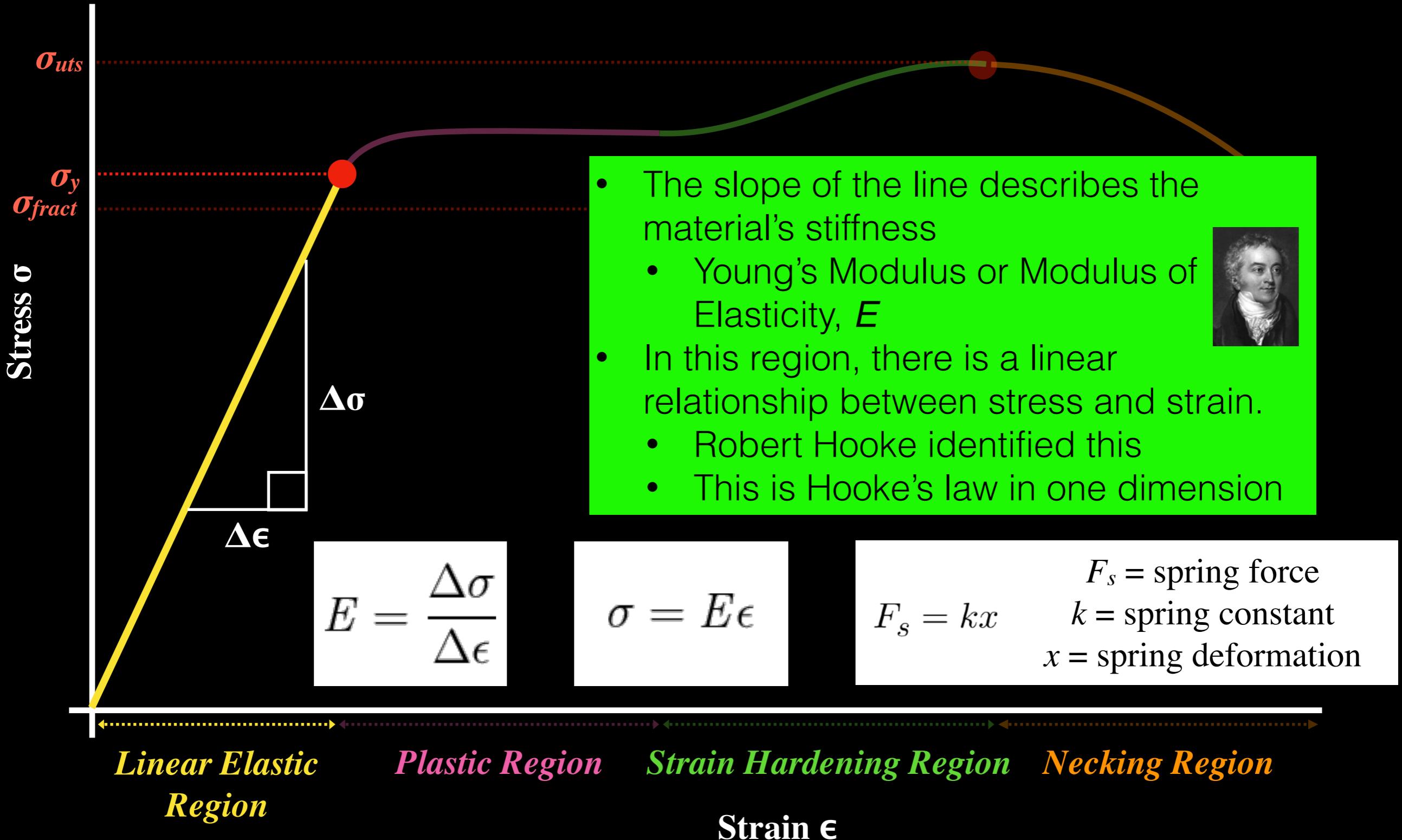
NECKING REGION



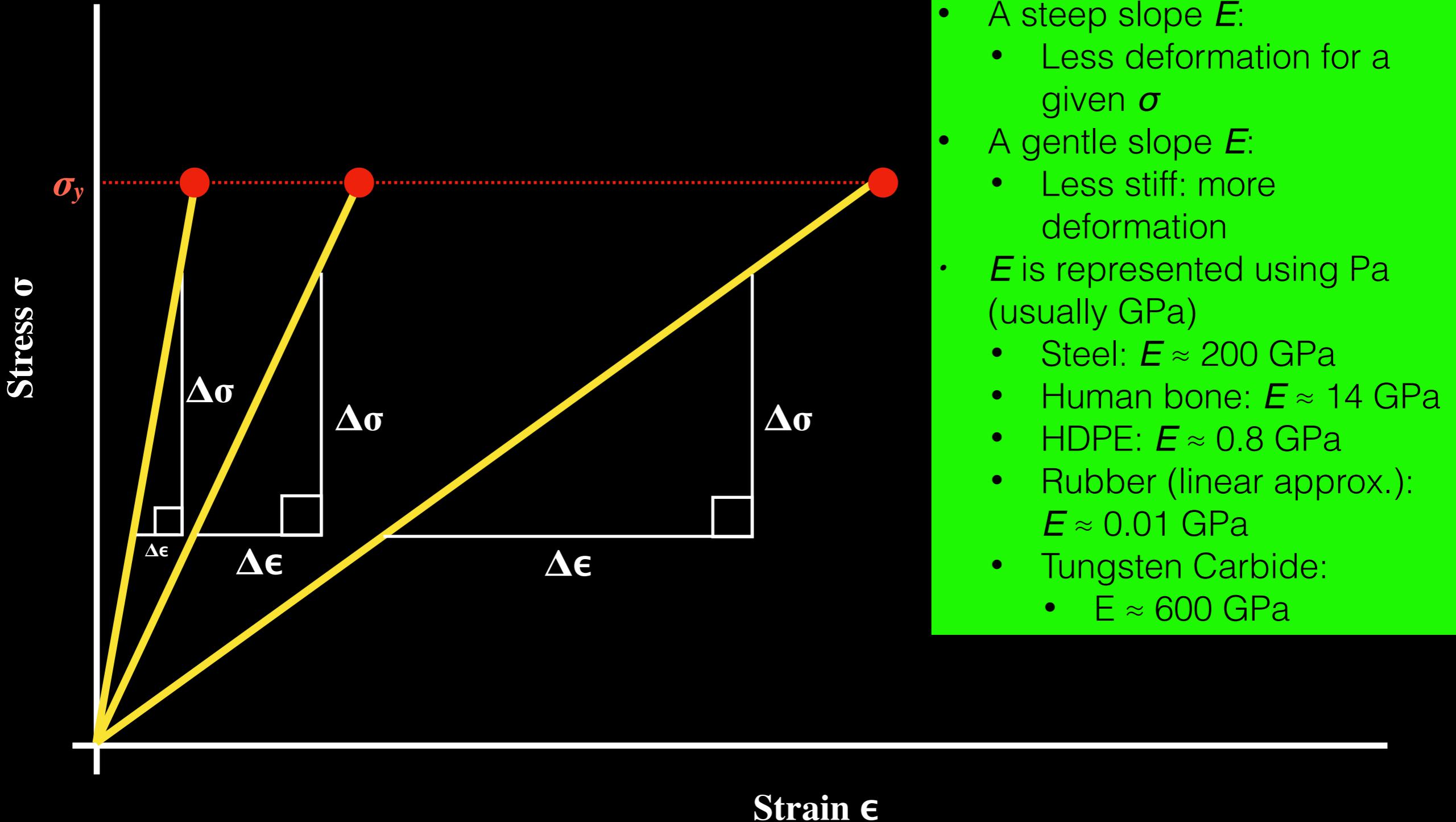
PLASTIC & STRAIN HARDENING REGIONS



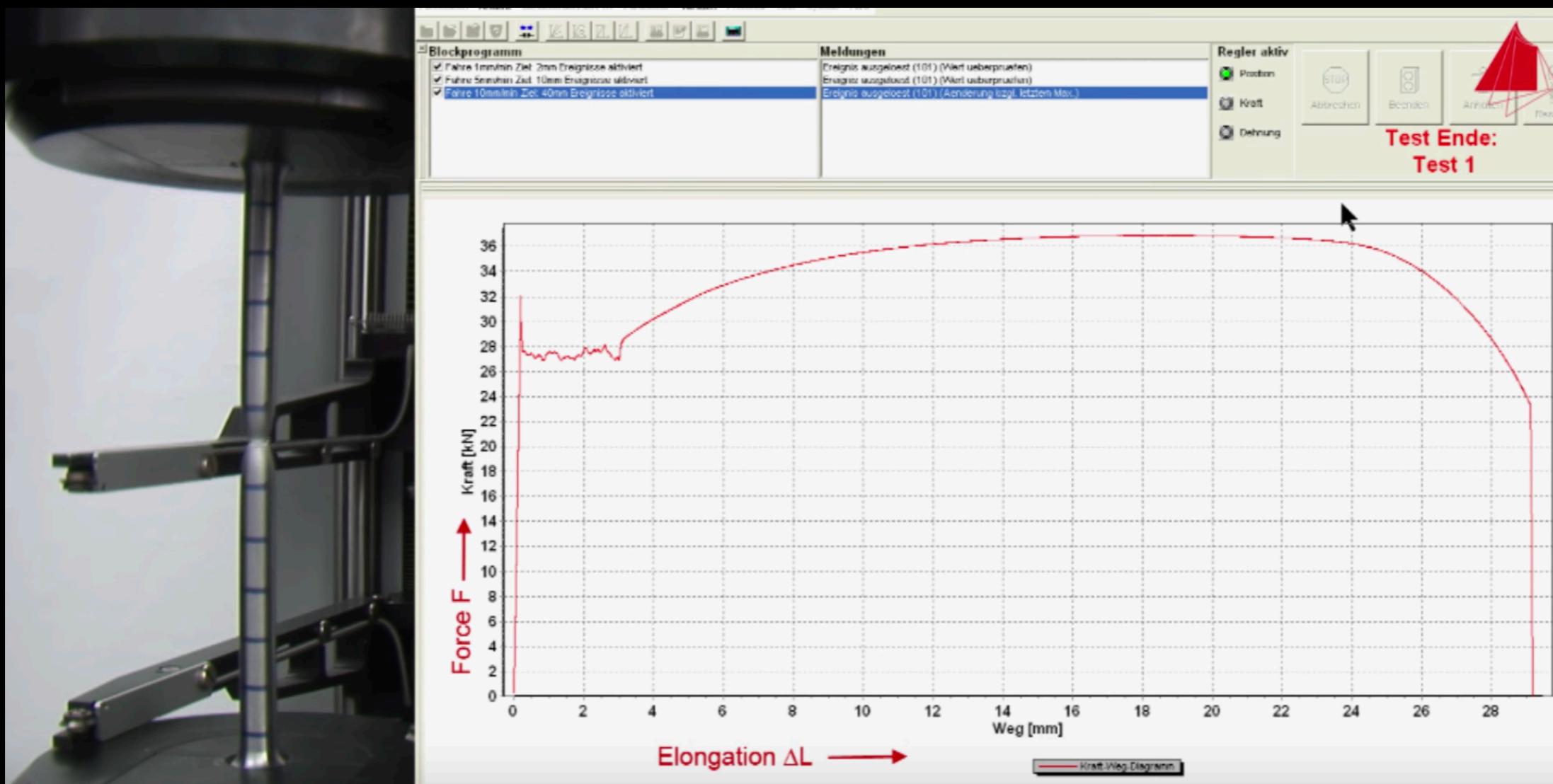
LINEAR ELASTIC REGION



MODULUS OF ELASTICITY

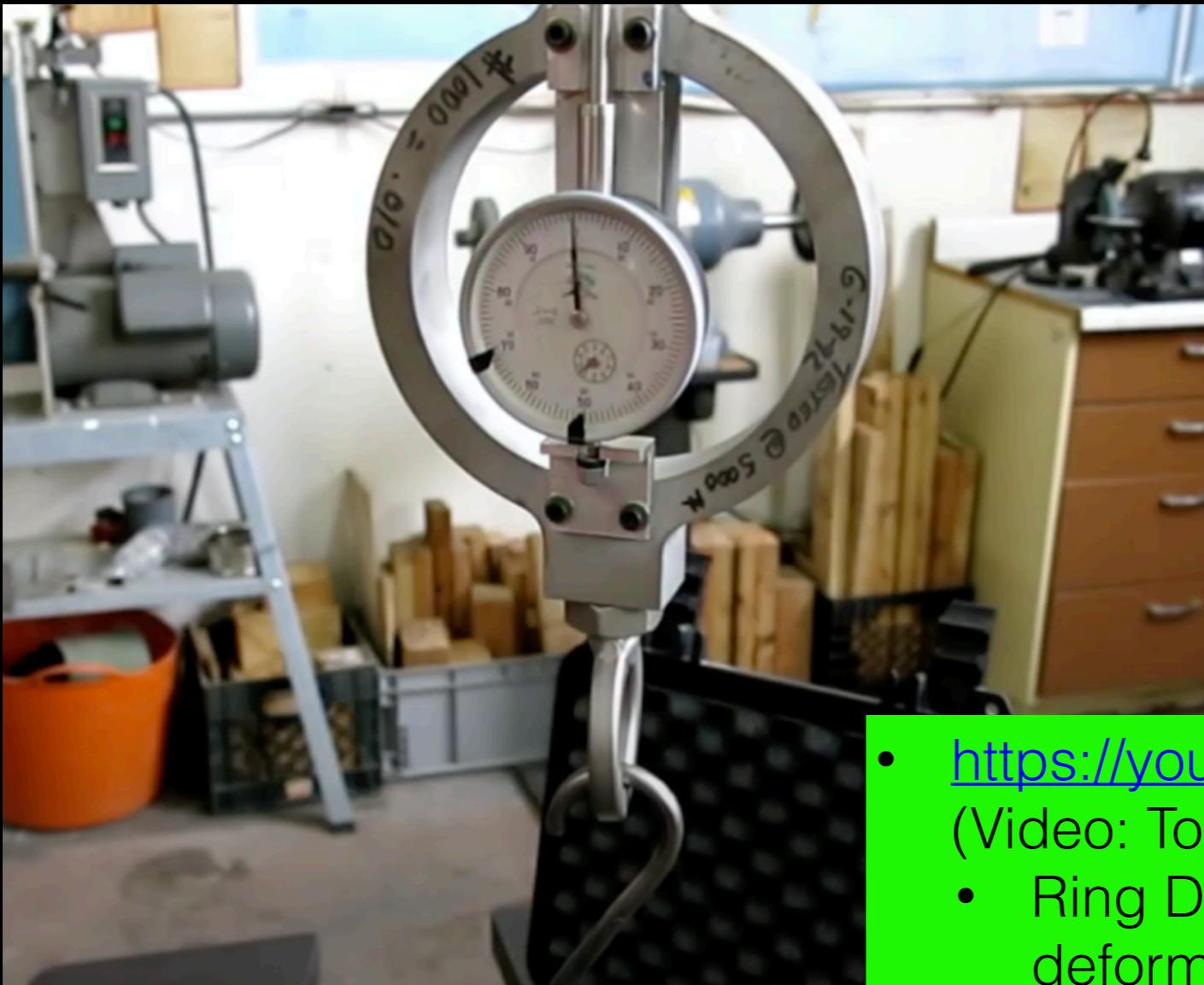


VIDEO: TENSION TEST



<https://youtu.be/D8U4G5kcpcM?t=86>

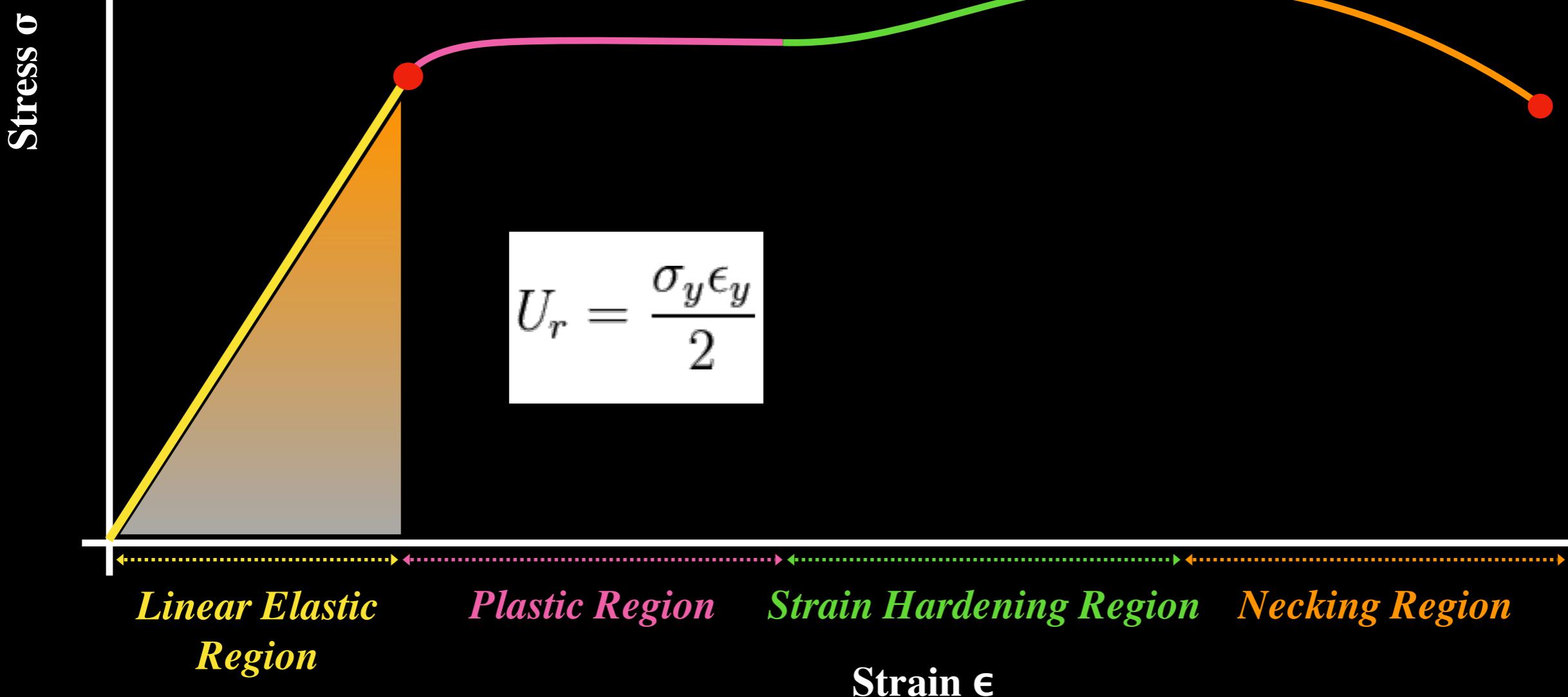
OBSERVING MATERIAL YIELD



- <https://youtu.be/kvkFWEuFxck?t=440>
(Video: Tom Lipton)
 - Ring Dynamometer - elastic deformation in aluminium ring is measured with a dial indicator.
 - Hook is loaded (stressed), and permanent deformation is induced.

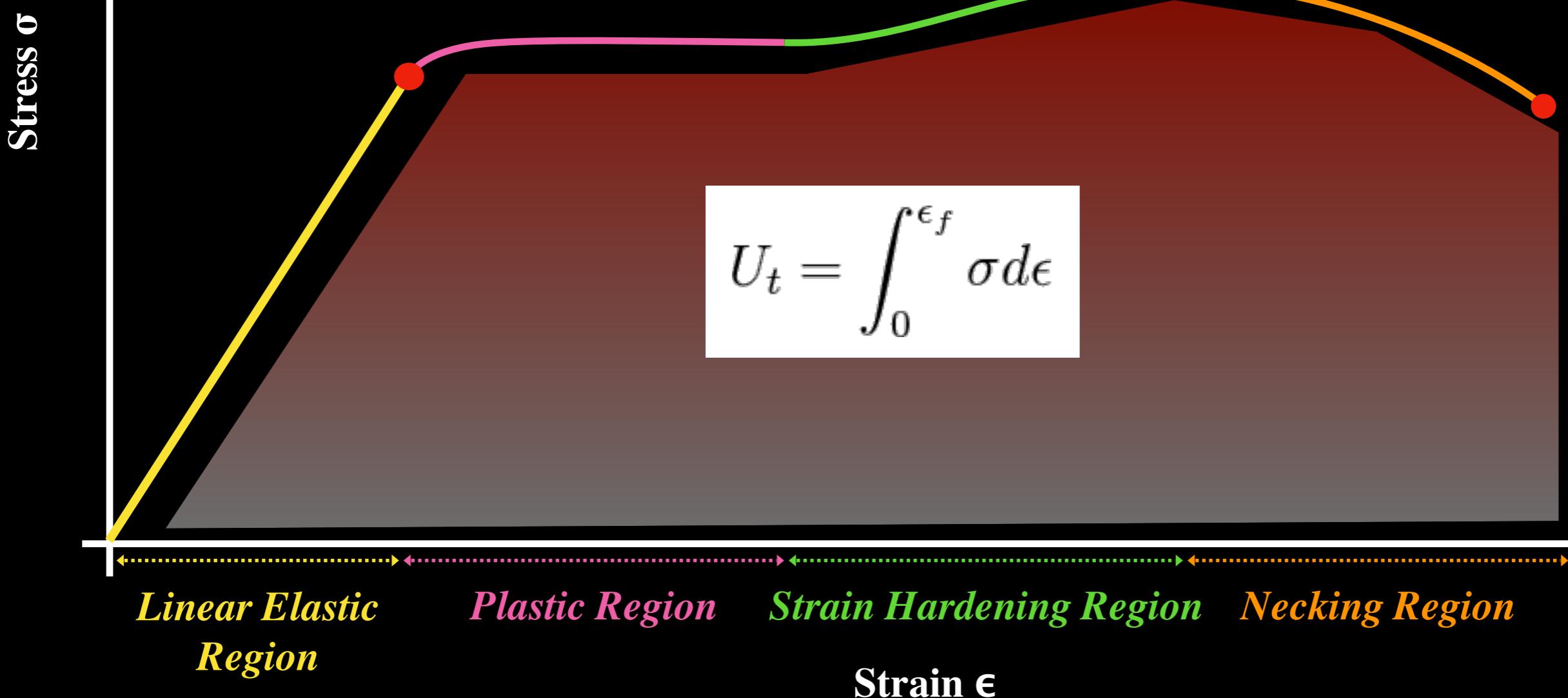
RESILIENCE

- The amount of energy required to arrive at different points in a material's stress/strain curve can be determined by finding the area under different parts of the curve.
- Area under Linear Elastic Region: amount of energy required to make the material yield.
 - This is called the Modulus of Resilience (U_r , sometimes u_r), with units of $J \cdot m^{-3}$
- Given the same σ_y , a stiffer material will have a lower U_r than a less stiff material.

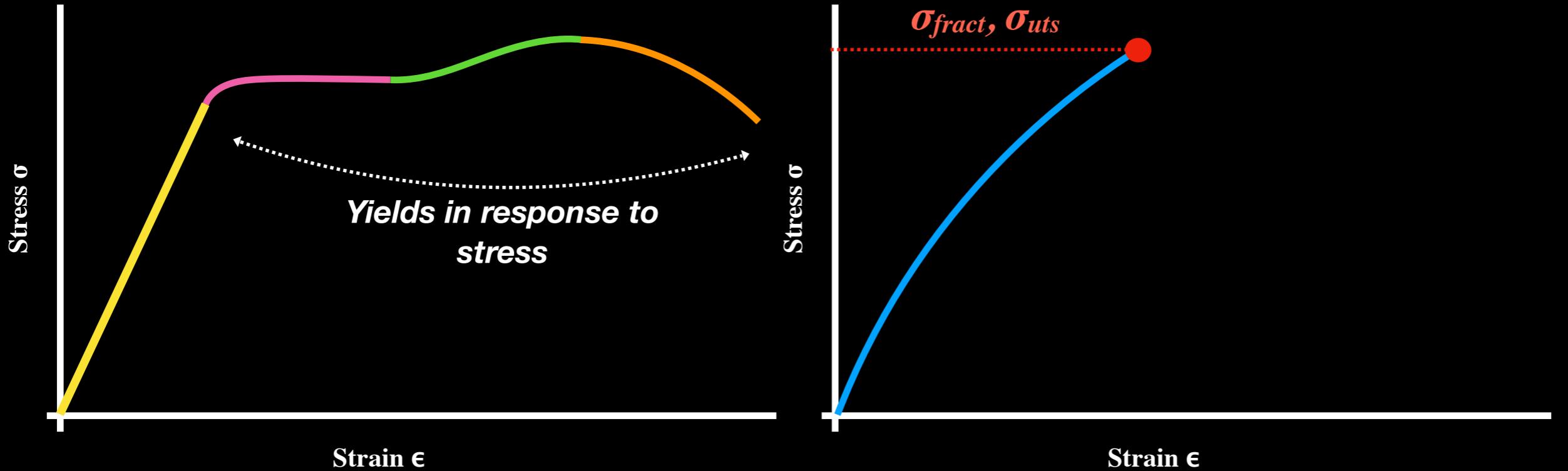


TOUGHNESS

- The amount of energy required to reach the point of fracture can be determined by finding the area under the entire stress-strain diagram.
 - This value is known as the modulus of toughness, U_t
 - Unlike the linear modulus of resilience, this is usually found using numerical integration approximations, graphical approaches, etc.
- For most structural mechatronic engineering situations, we focus more on U_r

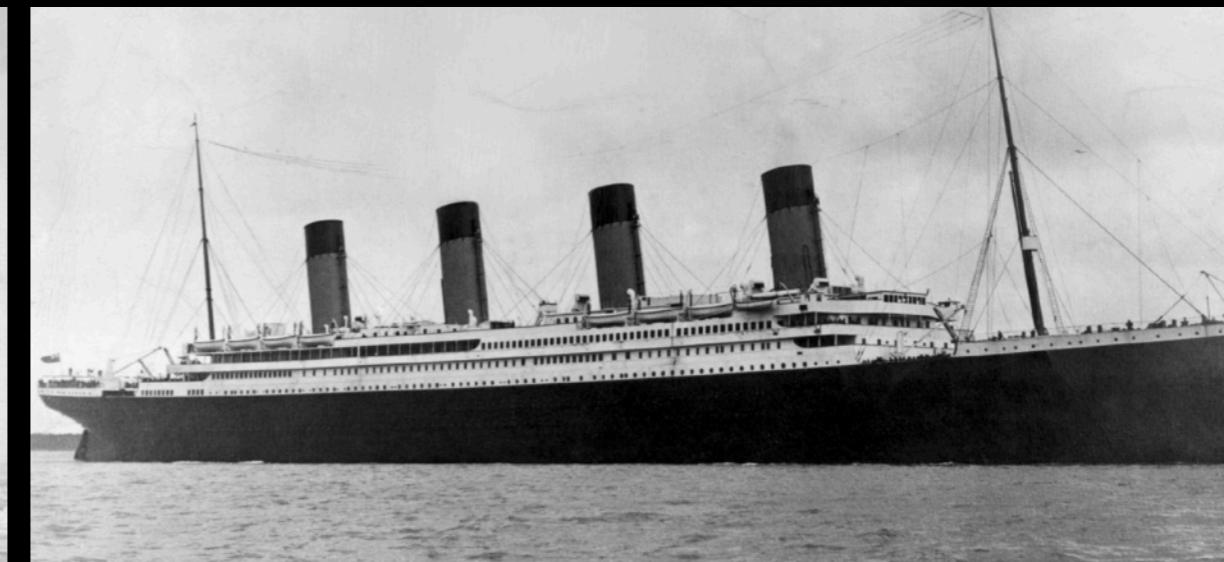
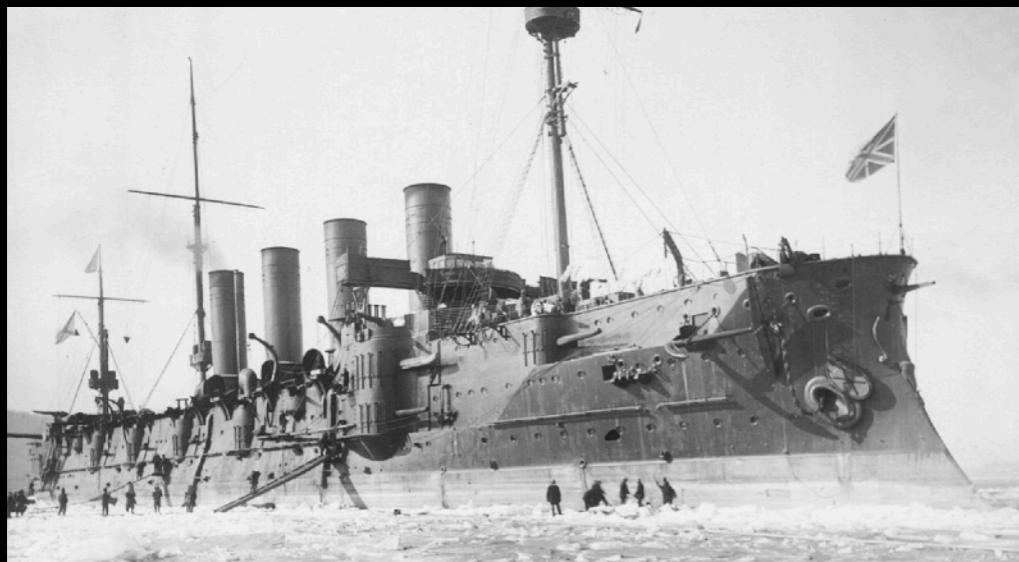
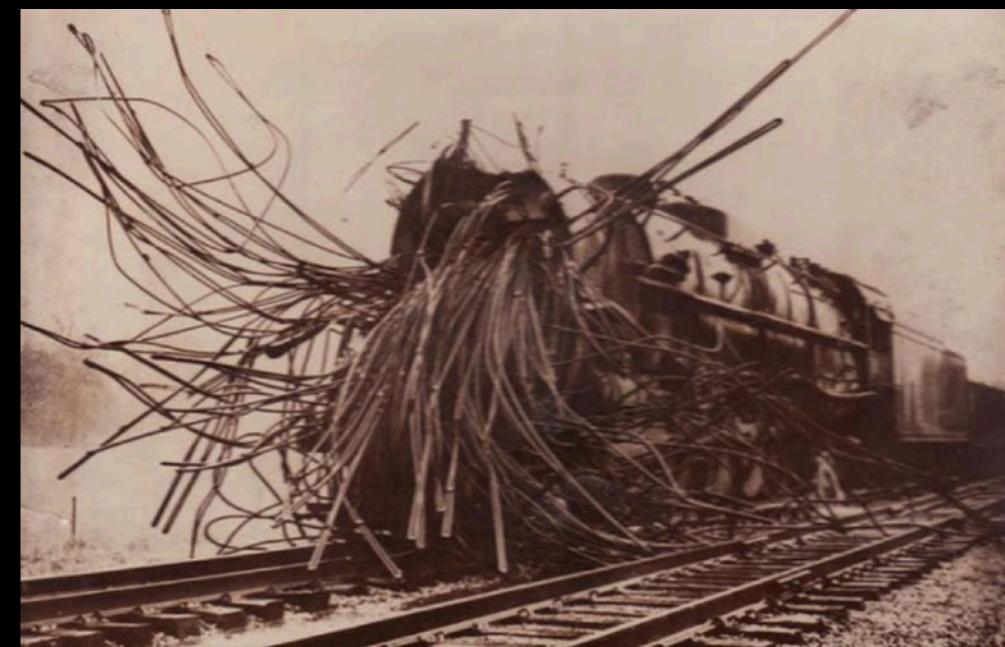


DUCTILE/BRITTLE

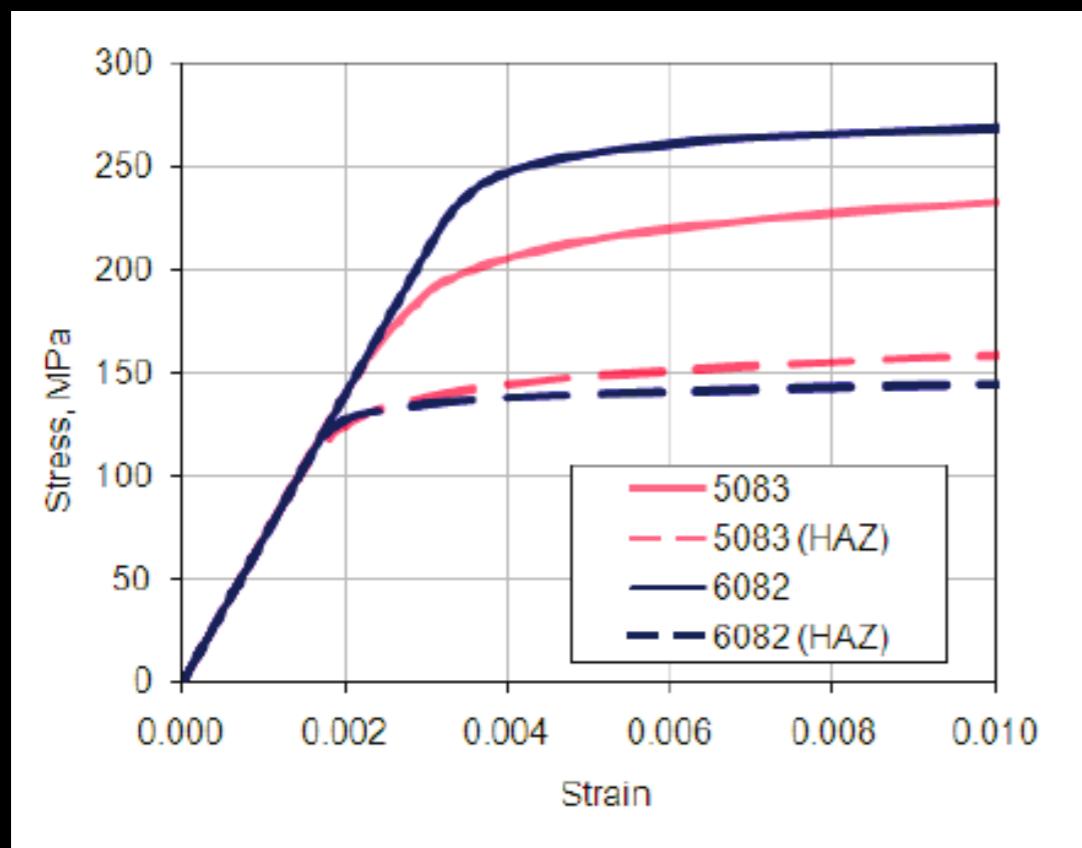


- Ductile materials exhibit yielding in response to stress.
 - Silver (Ag): very ductile
- A non-ductile material has the same point of ultimate tensile strength as its fracture point.
 - Failure occurs in the elastic region.
 - E.g., Glass: flex then break, no plastic deformation

DUCTILE/BRITTLE



EXAMPLE STRESS-STRAIN CURVE



https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Material-stress-strain-curves-for-aluminium-alloys-5083-H116-and-6082-T6-in-the-parent_fig2_233118591

Linear elastic region, affected by “Heat Affected Zones” in different aluminium alloys

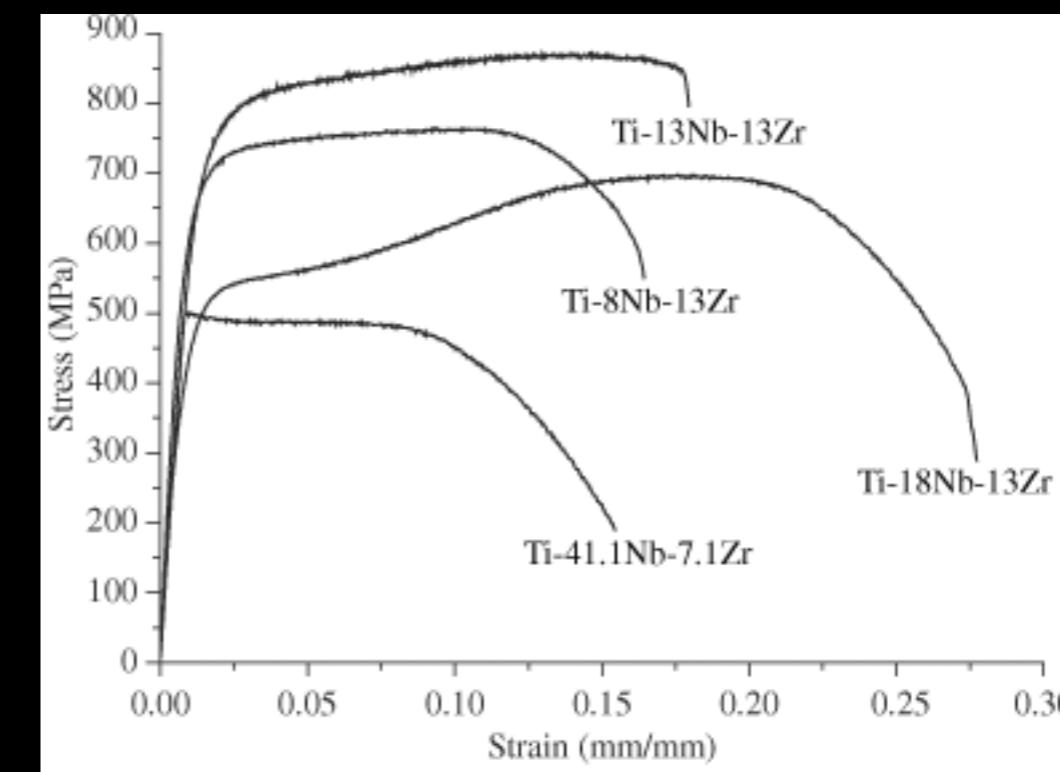


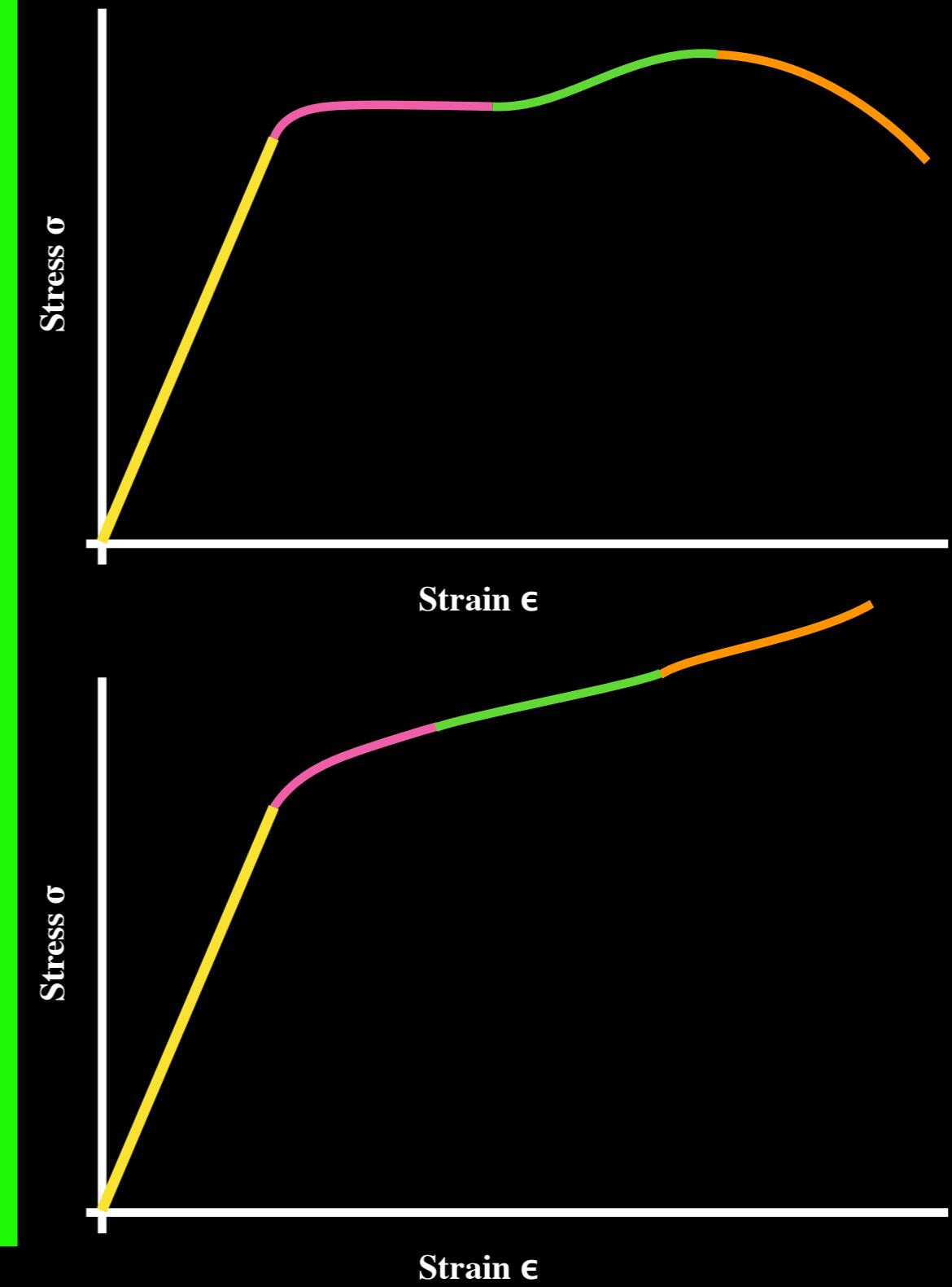
Figure 2. Full stress-strain curves for Ti-Nb-Zr alloys.

http://www.scielo.br/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1516-14392005000400013

Stress-strain curves for various Titanium alloys. Tradeoff between cost, ultimate tensile strength, machinability, etc.

TRUE VS. ENGINEERING STRESS-STRAIN

- Up to now, we have been assuming that the diameter of the sample doesn't change.
 - This assumption leads to apparent flat or decreasing slopes in stress-strain diagrams.
- As the sample is stressed, the diameter (and area) decreases.
 - If this decrease in area is taken into account, then the stress-strain diagram would show an upward slope until fracture.
 - Such a diagram is called a “true stress-strain diagram”



COLD WORKING

- There are many ways to work materials with *high temperatures*
 - *High temperatures*: temps. above recrystallisation temperature
 - These approaches tend to greatly affect the material's structure and, thus, its whole stress-strain curve.
- Working a material at normal temperatures ('cold working'):
 - Stress is applied to material into its plastic region.

