

Chapter 8: Mechanical Failure

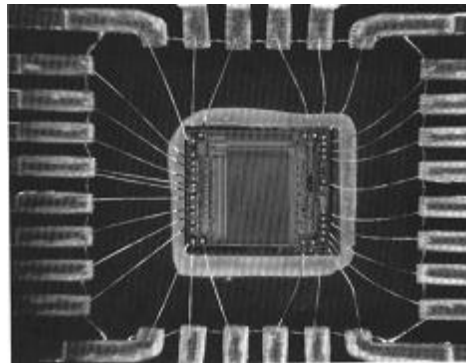
ISSUES TO ADDRESS...

- How do cracks that lead to failure form?
- How is fracture resistance quantified? How do the fracture resistances of the different material classes compare?
- How do we estimate the stress to fracture?
- How do loading rate, loading history, and temperature affect the failure behavior of materials?



**Ship-cyclic loading
from waves.**

Adapted from chapter-opening photograph, Chapter 8, *Callister & Rethwisch 8e.* (by Neil Boenzi, *The New York Times.*)



**Computer chip-cyclic
thermal loading.**

Adapted from Fig. 22.30(b), *Callister 7e.* (Fig. 22.30(b) is courtesy of National Semiconductor Corporation.)



**Hip implant-cyclic
loading from walking.**

Adapted from Fig. 22.26(b), *Callister 7e.*



Fracture mechanisms

- Ductile fracture
 - Accompanied by significant plastic deformation
- Brittle fracture
 - Little or no plastic deformation
 - Catastrophic



Ductile vs Brittle Failure

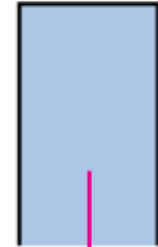
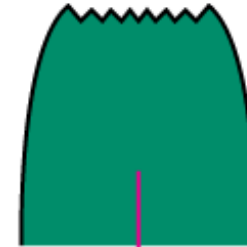
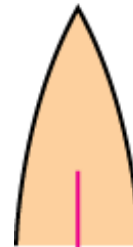
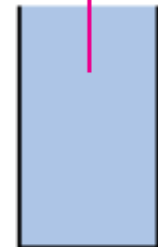
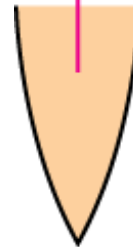
- Classification:

Fracture
behavior:

Very
Ductile

Moderately
Ductile

Brittle



$\%AR$ or $\%EL$

Large

Moderate

Small

- Ductile fracture is usually more desirable than brittle fracture!

Ductile:
Warning before
fracture

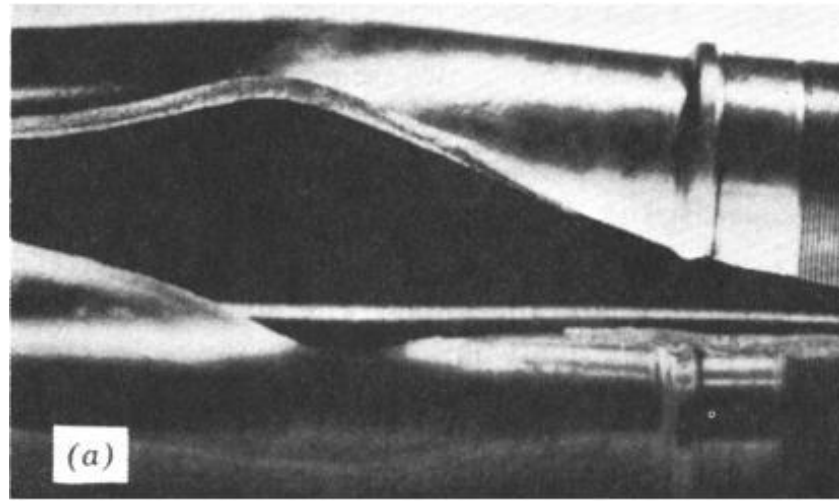
Brittle:
No
warning

Adapted from Fig. 8.1,
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.

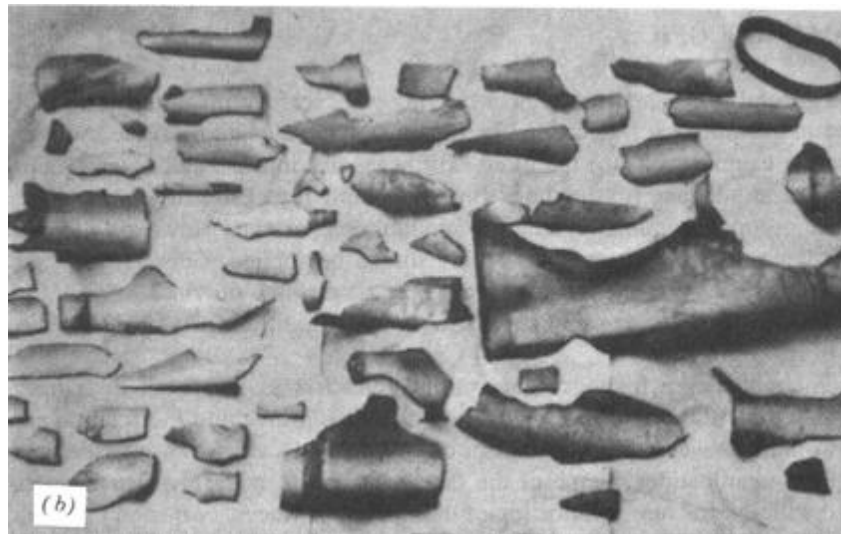


Example: Pipe Failures

- **Ductile failure:**
 - one piece
 - large deformation



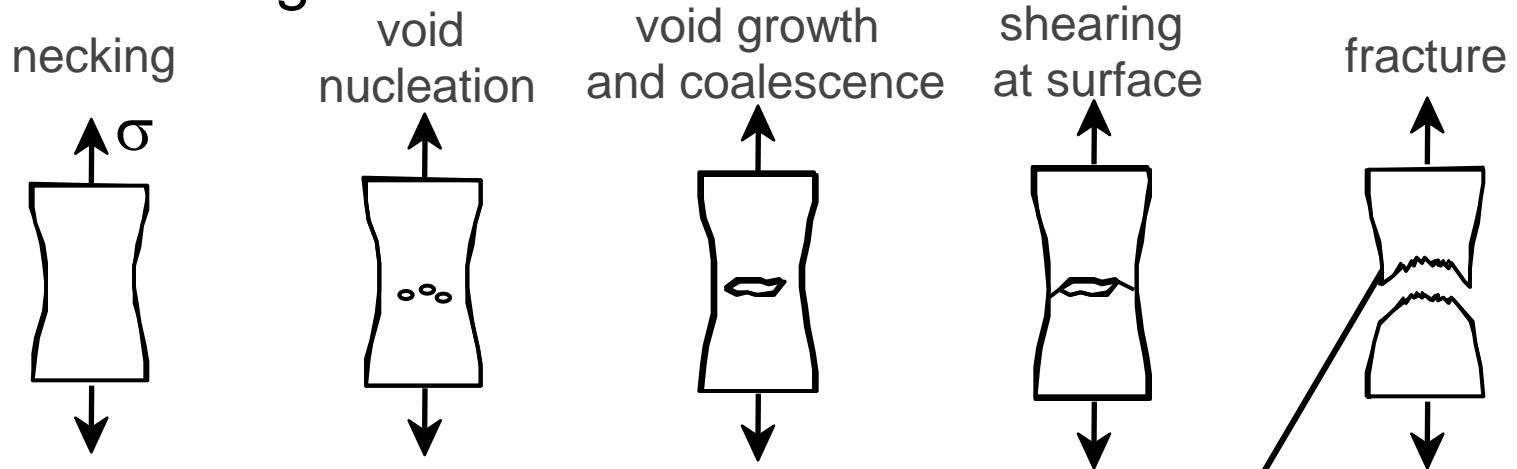
- **Brittle failure:**
 - many pieces
 - small deformations



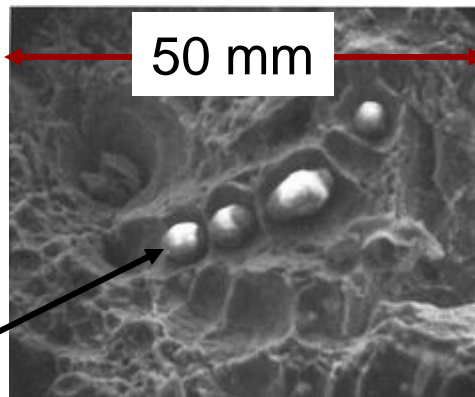
Figures from V.J. Colangelo and F.A. Heiser, *Analysis of Metallurgical Failures* (2nd ed.), Fig. 4.1(a) and (b), p. 66 John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1987. Used with permission.

Moderately Ductile Failure

- Failure Stages:

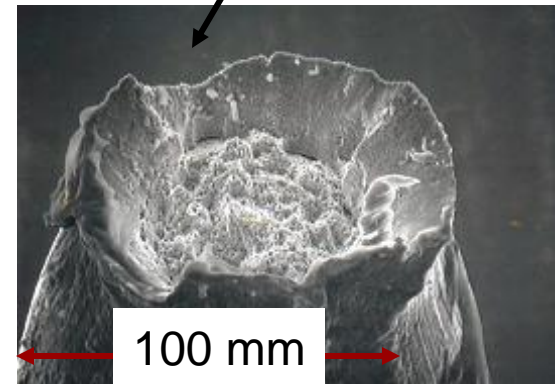


- Resulting fracture surfaces (steel)



particles serve as void nucleation sites.

From V.J. Colangelo and F.A. Heiser, *Analysis of Metallurgical Failures* (2nd ed.), Fig. 11.28, p. 294, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1987. (Orig. source: P. Thornton, *J. Mater. Sci.*, Vol. 6, 1971, pp. 347-56.)



Fracture surface of tire cord wire loaded in tension. Courtesy of F. Roehrig, CC Technologies, Dublin, OH. Used with permission.



Moderately Ductile vs. Brittle Failure



cup-and-cone fracture



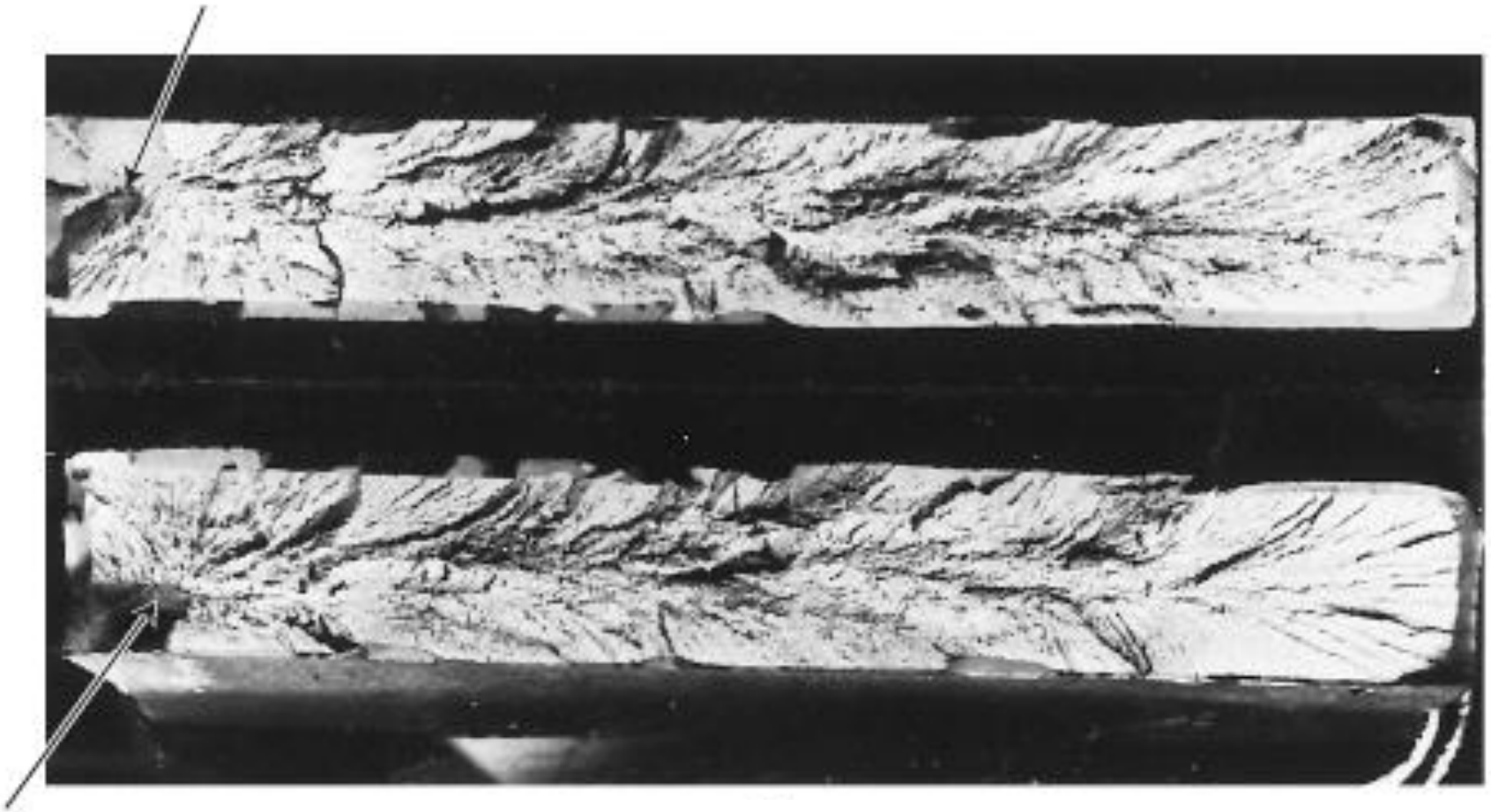
brittle fracture

Adapted from Fig. 8.3, *Callister & Rethwisch 8e*.



Brittle Failure

Arrows indicate point at which failure originated

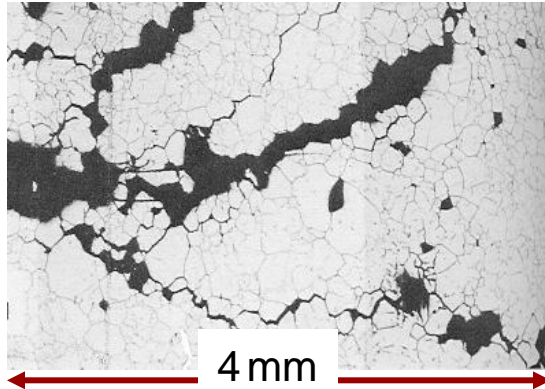


Adapted from Fig. 8.5(a), *Callister & Rethwisch 8e.*



Brittle Fracture Surfaces

- **Intergranular**
(between grains)



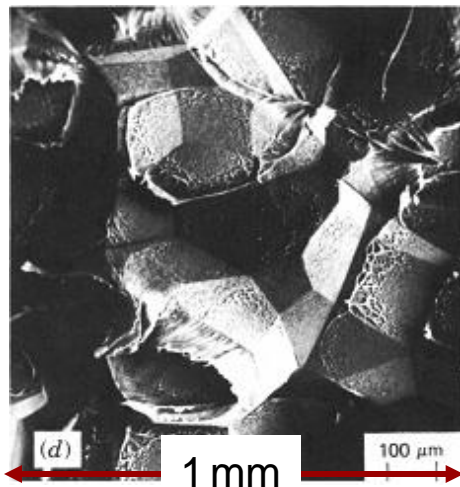
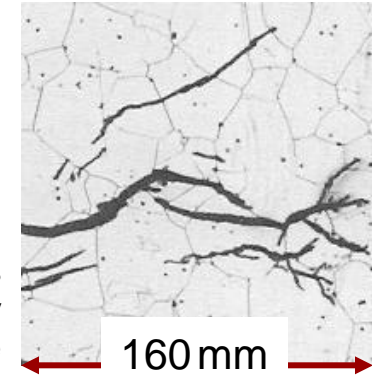
304 S. Steel (metal)

Reprinted w/permission from "Metals Handbook", 9th ed, Fig. 633, p. 650. Copyright 1985, ASM International, Materials Park, OH. (Micrograph by J.R. Keiser and A.R. Olsen, Oak Ridge National Lab.)

- **Transgranular**
(through grains)

316 S. Steel (metal)

Reprinted w/ permission from "Metals Handbook", 9th ed, Fig. 650, p. 357. Copyright 1985, ASM International, Materials Park, OH. (Micrograph by D.R. Diercks, Argonne National Lab.)

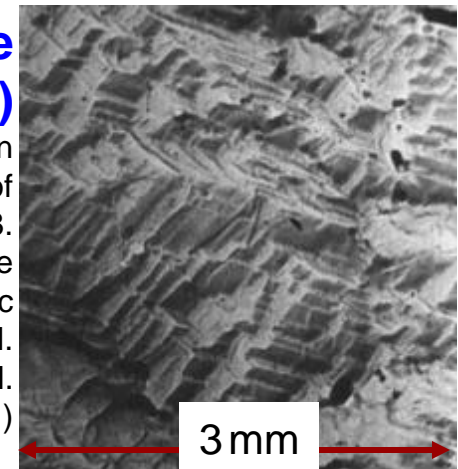


Polypropylene (polymer)

Reprinted w/ permission from R.W. Hertzberg, "Deformation and Fracture Mechanics of Engineering Materials", (4th ed.) Fig. 7.35(d), p. 303, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1996.

Al Oxide (ceramic)

Reprinted w/ permission from "Failure Analysis of Brittle Materials", p. 78. Copyright 1990, The American Ceramic Society, Westerville, OH. (Micrograph by R.M. Gruver and H. Kirchner.)

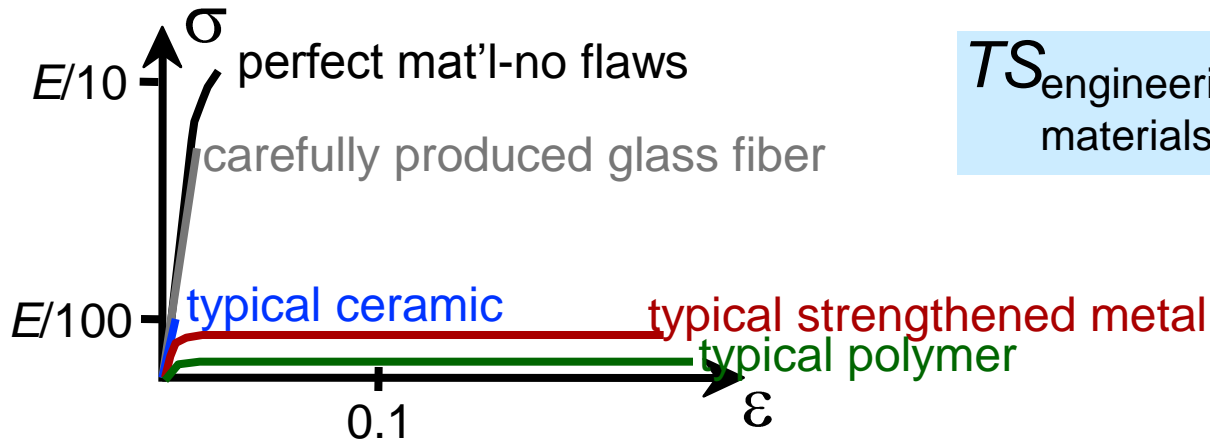


(Orig. source: K. Friedrich, *Fracture* 1977, Vol. 3, ICF4, Waterloo, CA, 1977, p. 1119.)



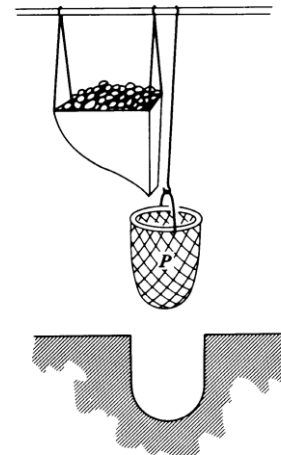
Ideal vs Real Materials

- Stress-strain behavior (Room T):



$$TS_{\text{engineering materials}} \ll TS_{\text{perfect materials}}$$

- DaVinci (500 yrs ago!) observed...
 - the longer the wire, the smaller the load for failure.
- Reasons:
 - flaws cause premature failure.
 - larger samples contain longer flaws!



Reprinted w/ permission from R.W. Hertzberg, "Deformation and Fracture Mechanics of Engineering Materials", (4th ed.) Fig. 7.4. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1996.



Flaws are Stress Concentrators!

- Griffith Crack

$$\sigma_m = 2\sigma_o \left(\frac{a}{\rho_t} \right)^{1/2} = K_t \sigma_o$$

where

ρ_t = radius of curvature

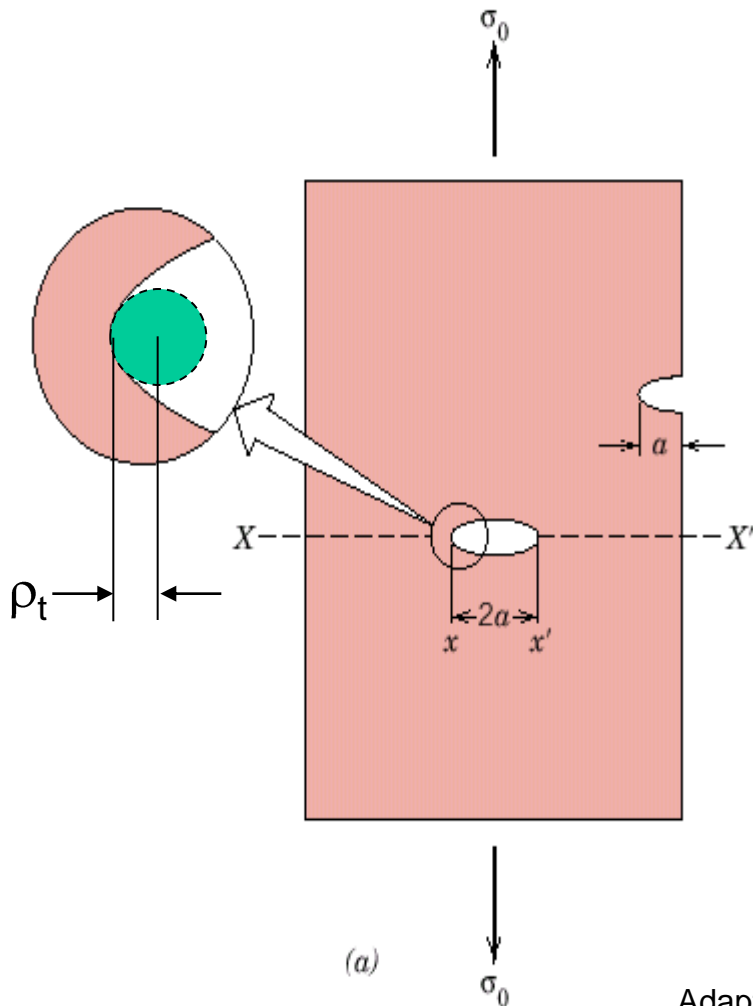
σ_o = applied stress

σ_m = stress at crack tip

a = length of crack

K_t = Stress concentration factor

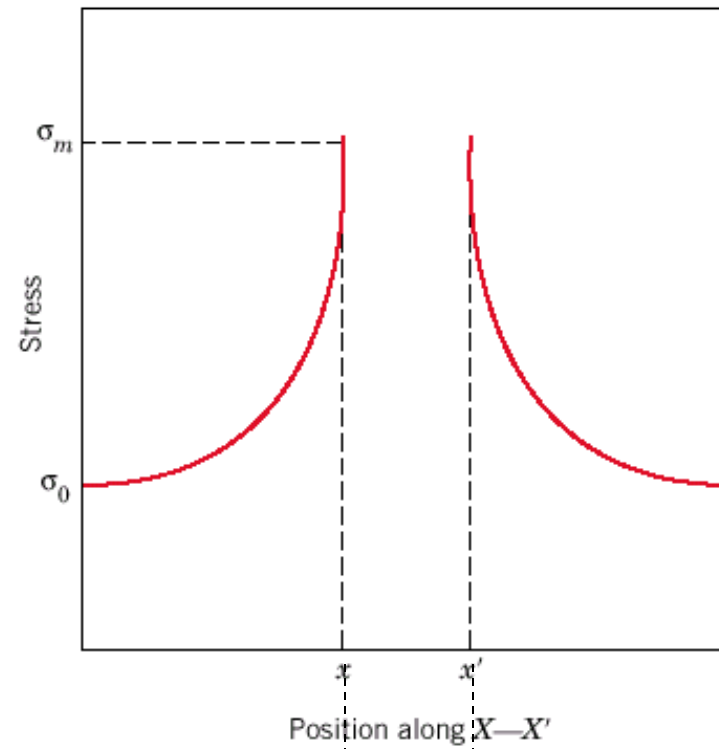
$$(\sigma_m / \sigma_o)$$



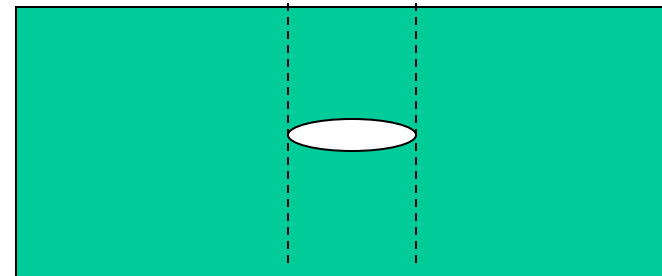
Adapted from Fig. 8.8(a), *Callister & Rethwisch 8e*.



Concentration of Stress at Crack Tip



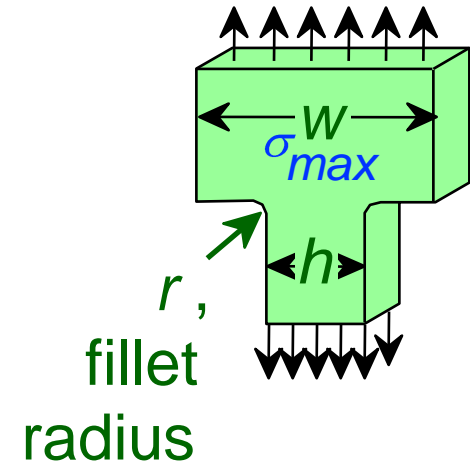
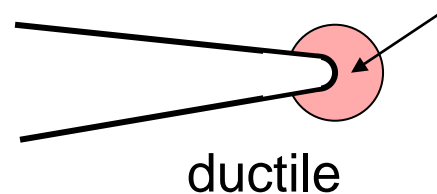
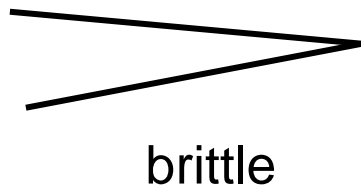
Adapted from Fig. 8.8(b),
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.



Crack Creation & Propagation

- **Avoid sharp corners!**

Cracks having sharp tips propagate easier than cracks having blunt tips



deformed region

Energy balance on the crack

- Elastic strain energy-
 - energy stored in material as it is elastically deformed
 - this energy is released when the crack propagates
 - creation of new surfaces requires energy



Criterion for Crack Propagation

Crack propagates if crack-tip stress (σ_m) exceeds a **critical stress** (σ_c)

$$\text{i.e., } \sigma_m > \sigma_c \quad \sigma_c = \left(\frac{2E\gamma_s}{\pi\alpha} \right)^{1/2}$$

where

- E = modulus of elasticity
- γ_s = specific surface energy
- α = one half length of internal crack

For ductile materials \Rightarrow replace γ_s with $\gamma_s + \gamma_p$
where γ_p is plastic deformation energy

Design Against Crack Growth

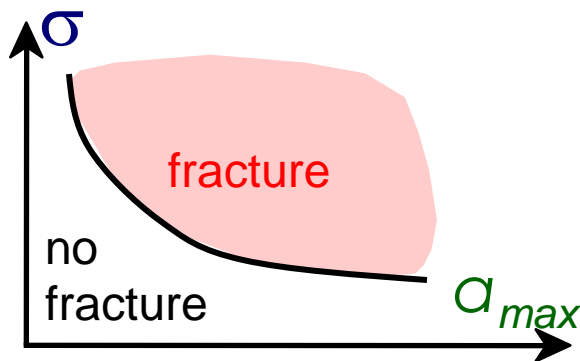
- Crack growth condition:

$$K_{Ic} = Y\sigma\sqrt{\pi a} \quad K_{Ic} = \text{Fracture toughness}$$

- Largest, most highly stressed cracks grow first!

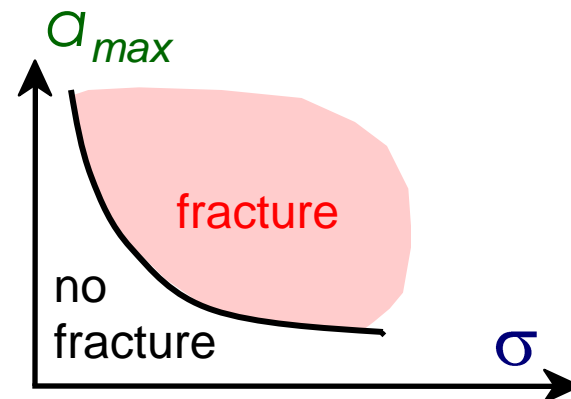
--Scenario 1: Max. flaw size dictates design stress.

$$\sigma_{design} < \frac{K_{Ic}}{Y\sqrt{\pi a_{max}}}$$



--Scenario 2: Design stress dictates max. flaw size.

$$a_{max} < \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{K_{Ic}}{Y\sigma_{design}} \right)^2$$



Design Example: Aircraft Wing

- Material has $K_{Ic} = 26 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{0.5}$
- Two designs to consider...

Design A

- largest flaw is 9 mm
- failure stress = 112 MPa

Design B

- use same material
- largest flaw is 4 mm
- failure stress = ?

- Use...

$$\sigma_c = \frac{K_{Ic}}{Y\sqrt{\pi a_{\max}}}$$

- Key point: Y and K_{Ic} are the same for both designs.

$$\frac{K_{Ic}}{Y\sqrt{\pi}} = \sigma\sqrt{a} = \text{constant}$$

--Result:

$$\sigma_c \sqrt{a_{\max A}} = \sigma_c \sqrt{a_{\max B}}$$

112 MPa
9 mm
4 mm

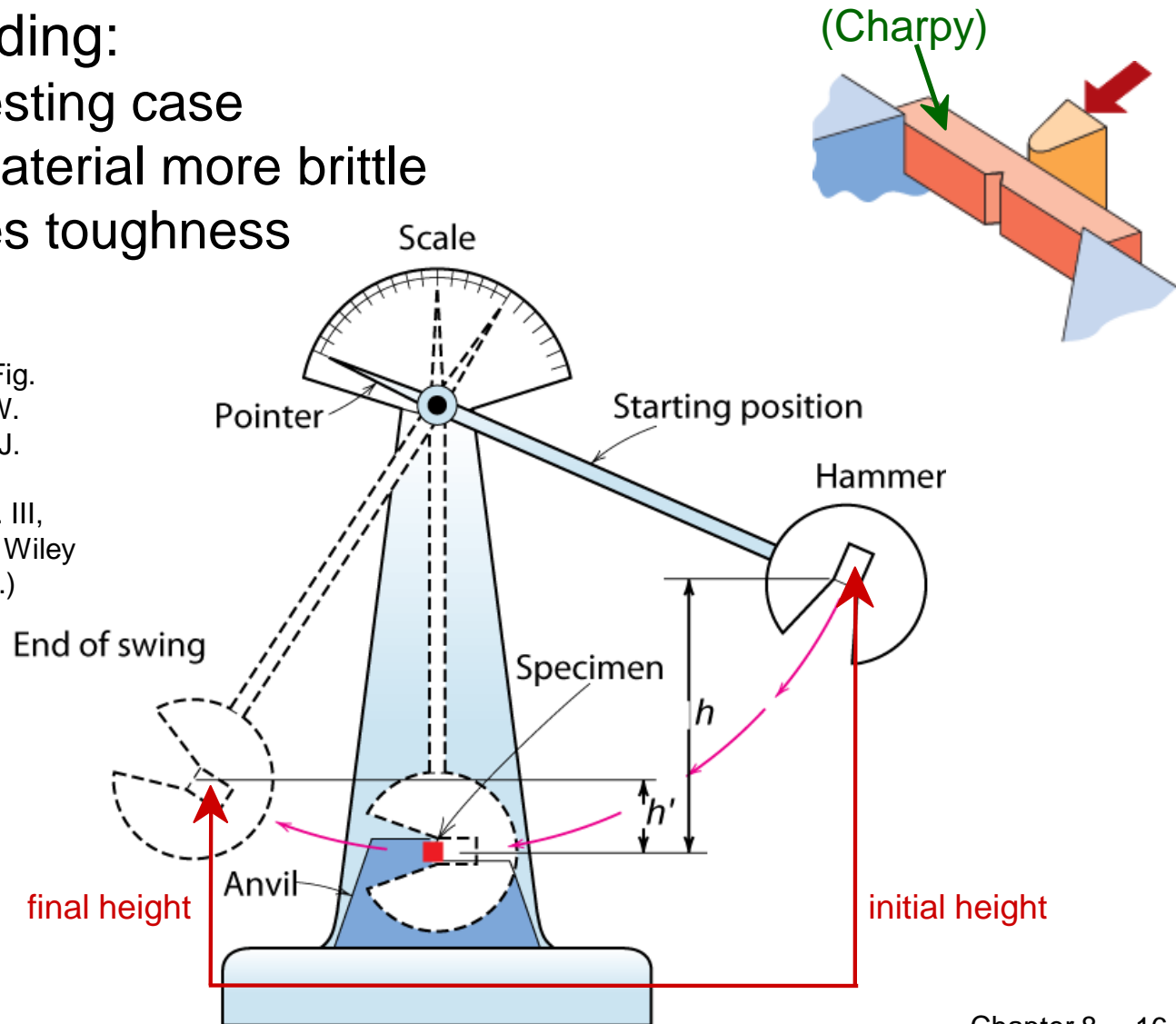
Answer: $(\sigma_c)_B = 168 \text{ MPa}$



Impact Testing

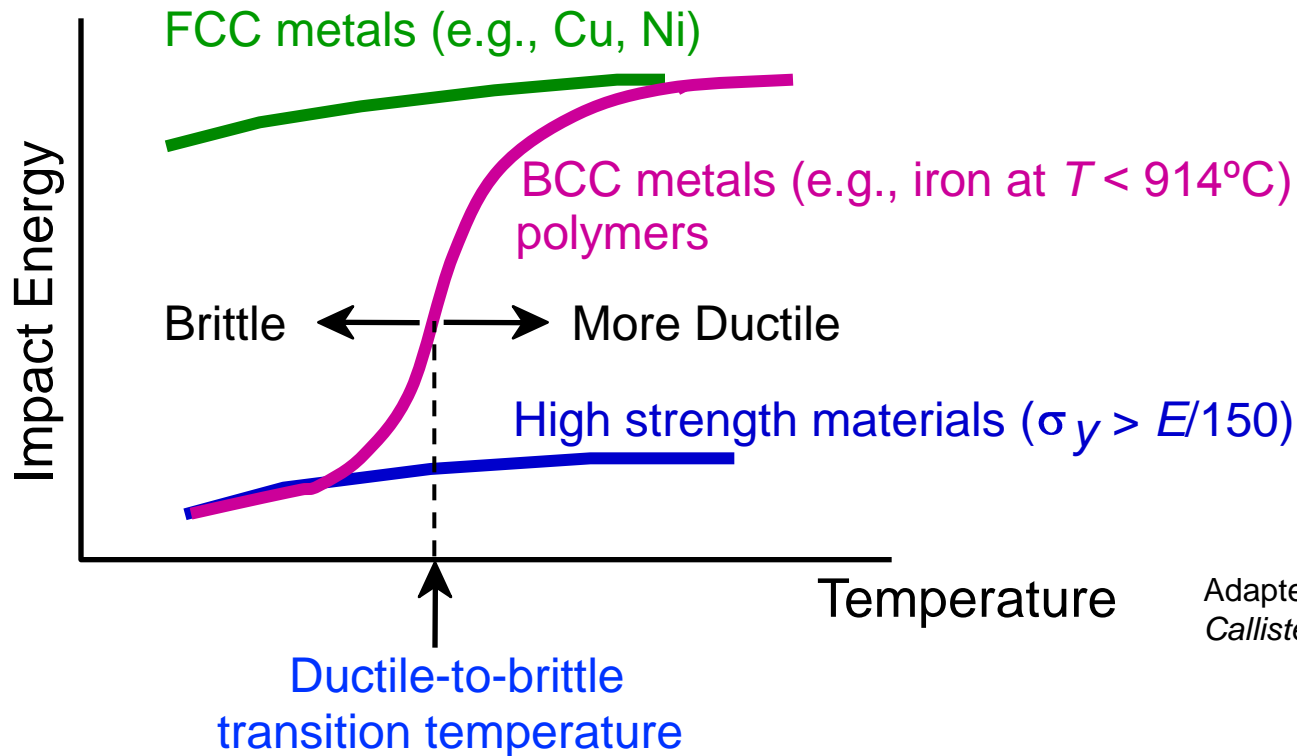
- Impact loading:
 - severe testing case
 - makes material more brittle
 - decreases toughness

Adapted from Fig. 8.12(b),
Callister & Rethwisch 8e. (Fig. 8.12(b) is adapted from H.W. Hayden, W.G. Moffatt, and J. Wulff, *The Structure and Properties of Materials*, Vol. III, *Mechanical Behavior*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. (1965) p. 13.)



Influence of Temperature on Impact Energy

- **Ductile-to-Brittle Transition Temperature (DBTT)...**



Adapted from Fig. 8.15,
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.



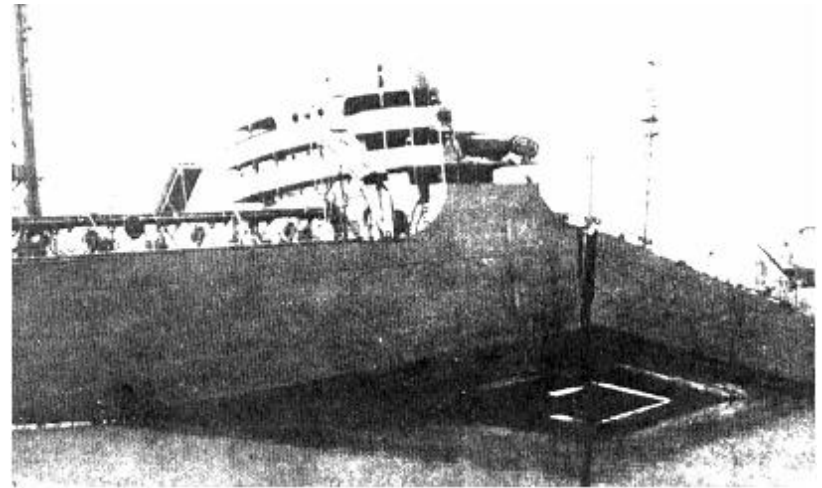
Design Strategy: Stay Above The DBTT!

- Pre-WWII: The Titanic



Reprinted w/ permission from R.W. Hertzberg, "Deformation and Fracture Mechanics of Engineering Materials", (4th ed.) Fig. 7.1(a), p. 262, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1996. (Orig. source: Dr. Robert D. Ballard, *The Discovery of the Titanic.*)

- WWII: Liberty ships

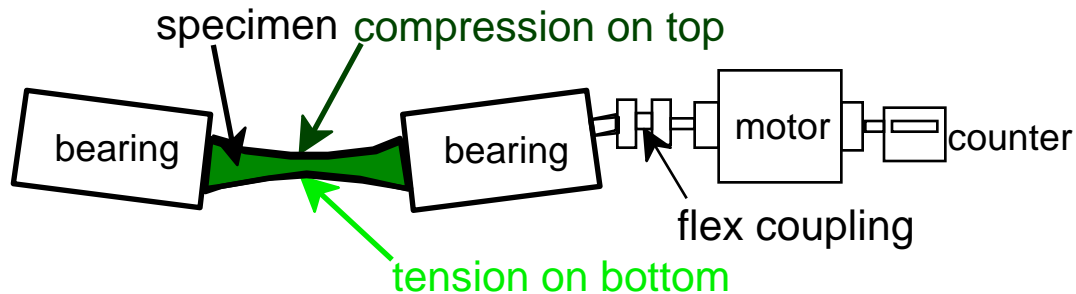


Reprinted w/ permission from R.W. Hertzberg, "Deformation and Fracture Mechanics of Engineering Materials", (4th ed.) Fig. 7.1(b), p. 262, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1996. (Orig. source: Earl R. Parker, "Behavior of Engineering Structures", Nat. Acad. Sci., Nat. Res. Council, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., NY, 1957.)

- Problem: Steels were used having DBTT's just below room temperature.

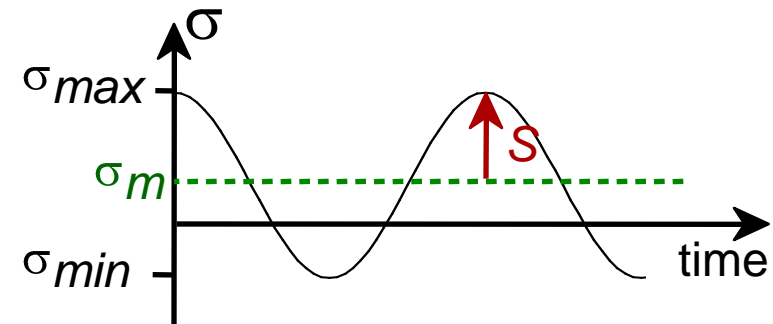
Fatigue

- **Fatigue** = failure under applied cyclic stress.



Adapted from Fig. 8.18,
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.
(Fig. 8.18 is from *Materials
Science in Engineering, 4/E*
by Carl. A. Keyser, Pearson
Education, Inc., Upper
Saddle River, NJ.)

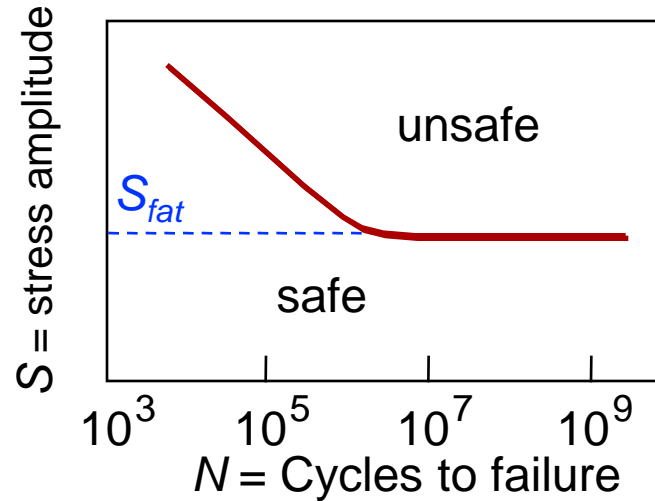
- Stress varies with time.
 - key parameters are S , σ_m , and cycling frequency



- Key points: Fatigue...
 - can cause part failure, even though $\sigma_{max} < \sigma_y$.
 - responsible for ~ 90% of mechanical engineering failures.

Types of Fatigue Behavior

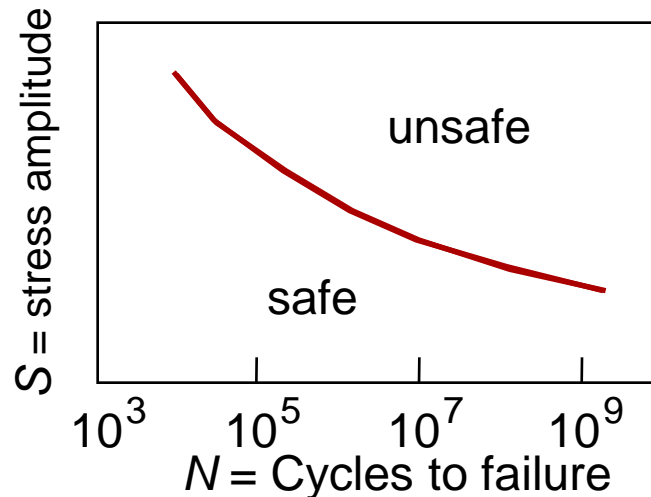
- **Fatigue limit, S_{fat} :**
--no fatigue if $S < S_{fat}$



case for
steel (typ.)

Adapted from Fig.
8.19(a), *Callister &
Rethwisch 8e.*

- For some materials,
there is no fatigue
limit!



case for
Al (typ.)

Adapted from Fig.
8.19(b), *Callister &
Rethwisch 8e.*



Rate of Fatigue Crack Growth

- Crack grows *incrementally*

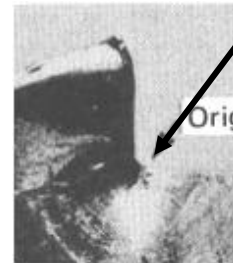
$$\frac{da}{dN} = (\Delta K)^m$$

typ. 1 to 6

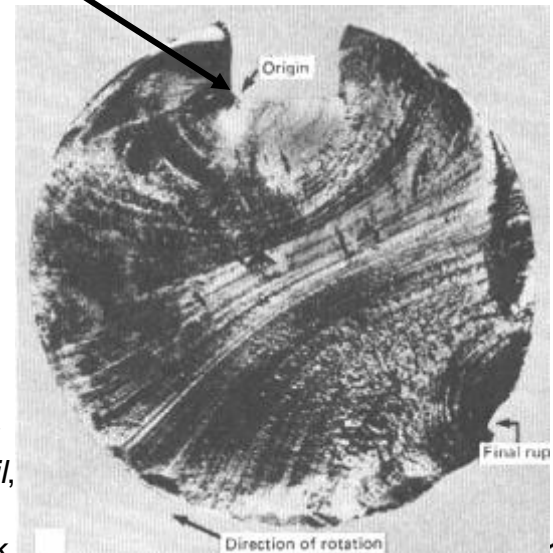
$$\sim (\Delta\sigma) \sqrt{a}$$

increase in crack length per loading cycle

- Failed rotating shaft
 - crack grew even though $K_{max} < K_c$
 - crack grows faster as
 - $\Delta\sigma$ increases
 - crack gets longer
 - loading freq. increases.



crack origin

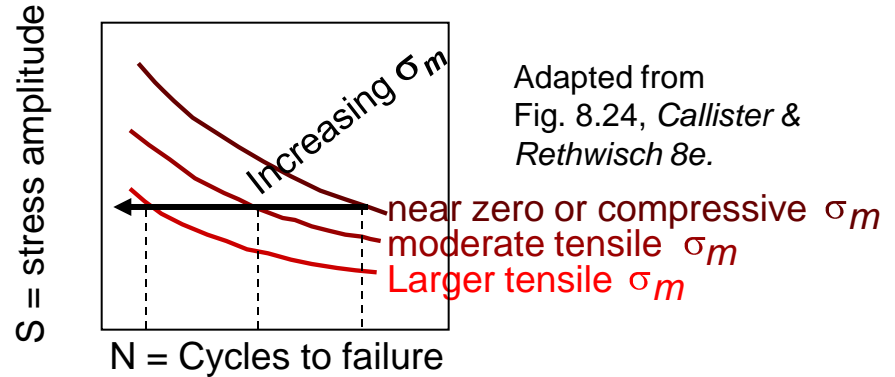


Adapted from Fig. 8.21, Callister & Rethwisch 8e. (Fig. 8.21 is from D.J. Wulpi, *Understanding How Components Fail*, American Society for Metals, Materials Park, OH, 1985.)

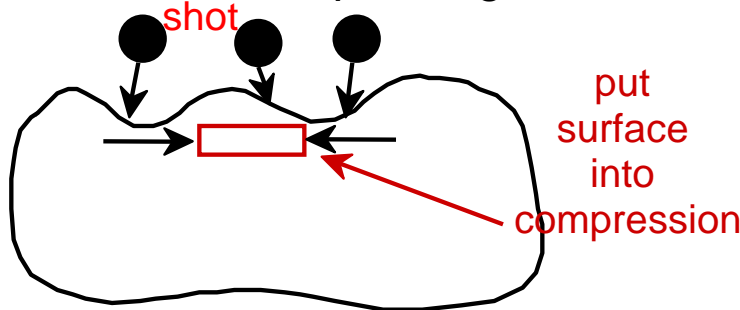


Improving Fatigue Life

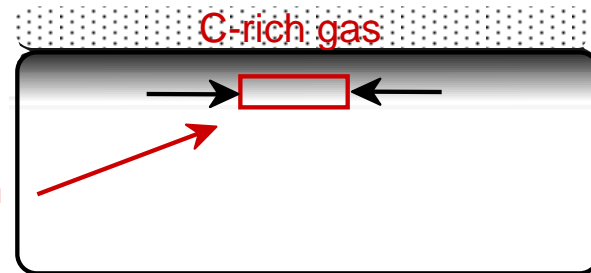
1. Impose compressive surface stresses
(to suppress surface cracks from growing)



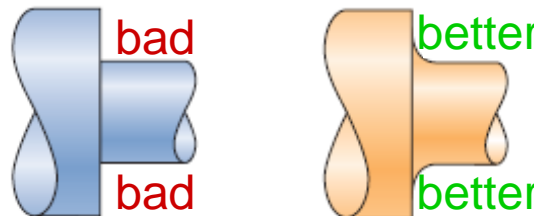
--Method 1: shot peening



--Method 2: carburizing



2. Remove stress concentrators.

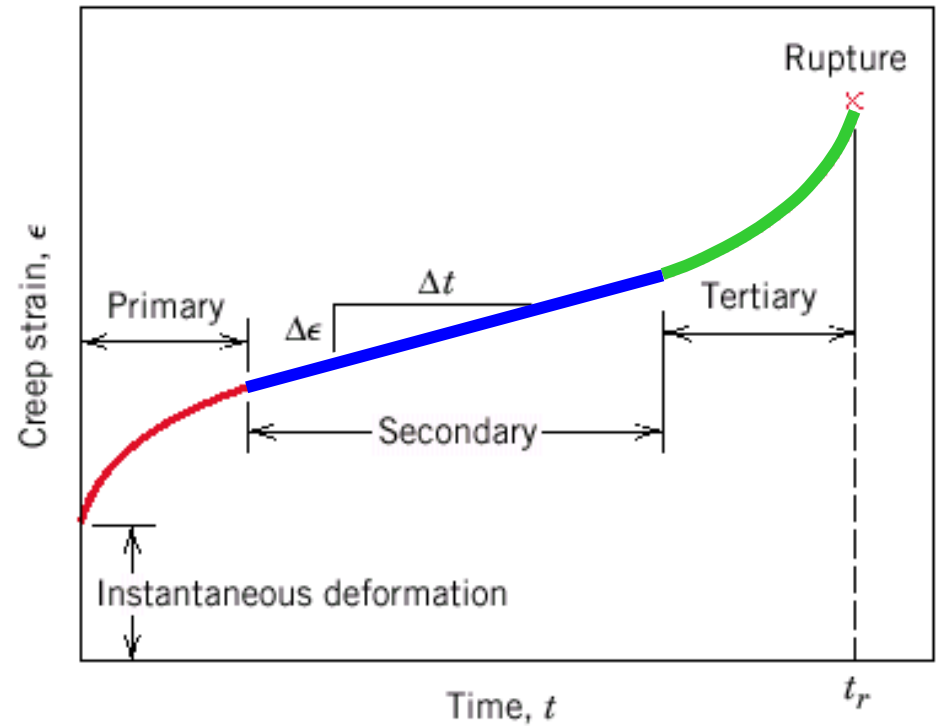
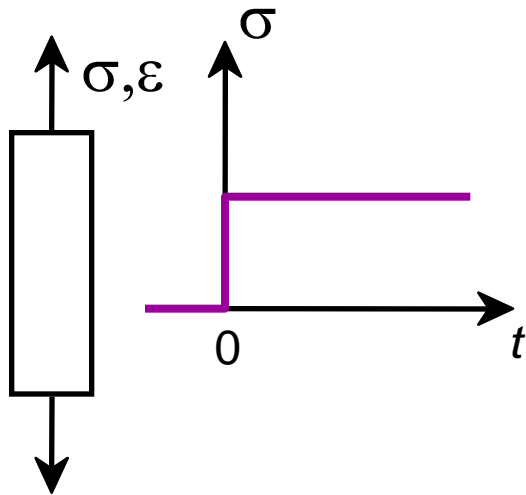


Adapted from Fig. 8.25, Callister & Rethwisch 8e.



Creep

Sample deformation at a constant stress (σ) vs. time



Primary Creep: slope (creep rate) decreases with time.

Secondary Creep: steady-state i.e., constant slope ($\Delta\epsilon/\Delta t$).

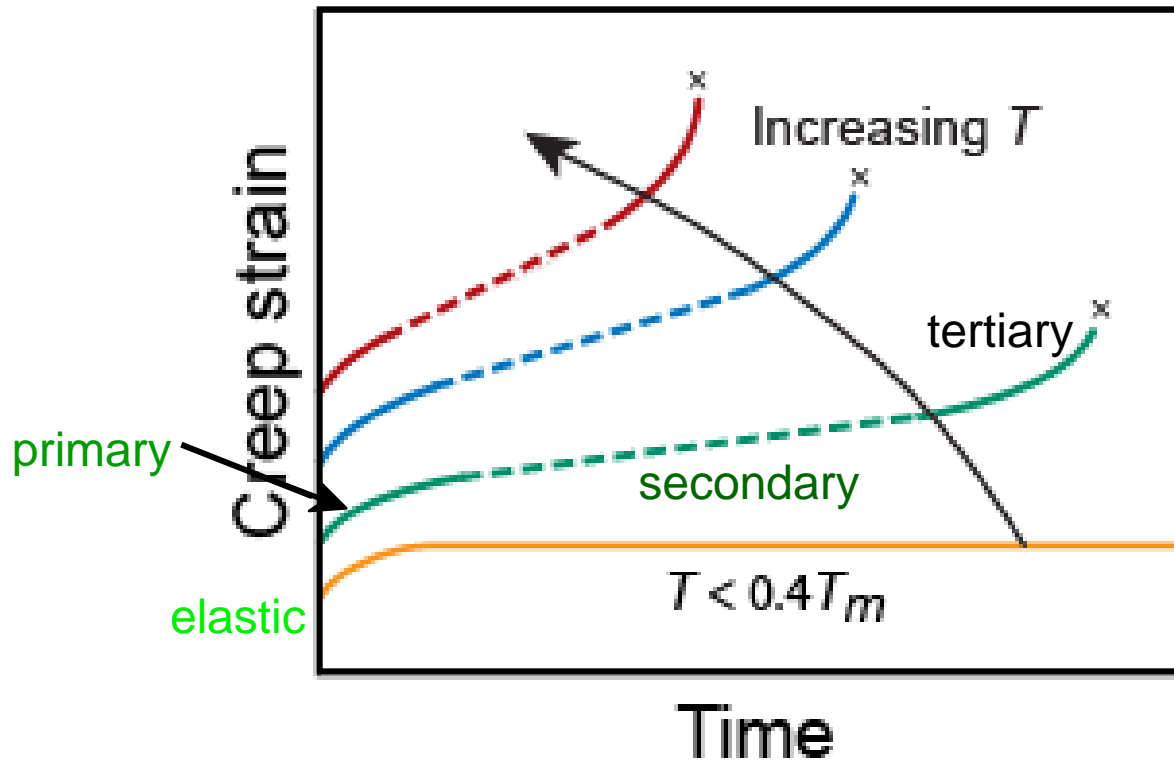
Tertiary Creep: slope (creep rate) increases with time, i.e. acceleration of rate.

Adapted from
Fig. 8.28, Callister &
Rethwisch 8e.



Creep: Temperature Dependence

- Occurs at elevated temperature, $T > 0.4 T_m$ (in K)



Adapted from Fig. 8.29,
Callister & Rethwisch 8e.



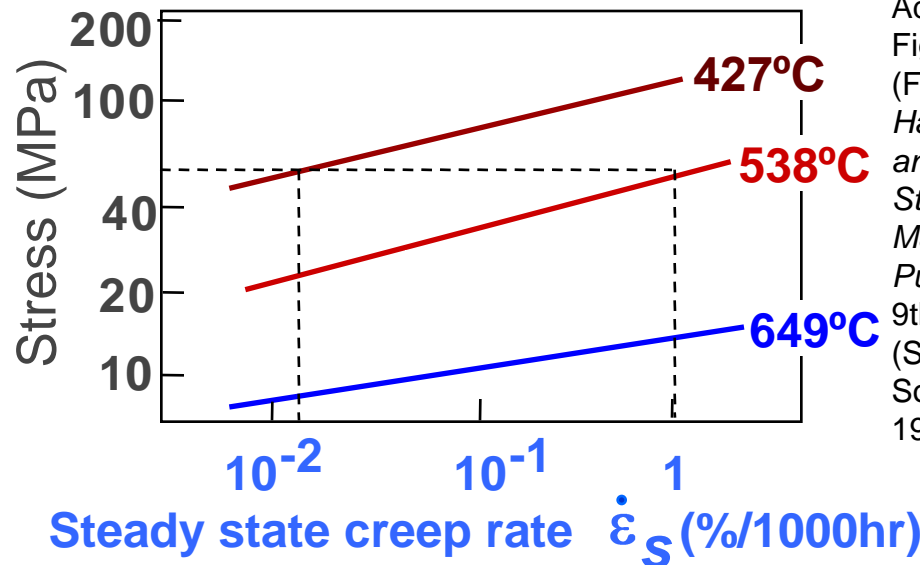
Secondary Creep

- Strain rate is constant at a given T, σ
 - strain hardening is balanced by recovery

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

strain rate $\dot{\epsilon}_s$ (blue box)
 material const. K_2
 applied stress σ
 stress exponent (material parameter) n
 activation energy for creep (material parameter) Q_c

- Strain rate increases with increasing T, σ

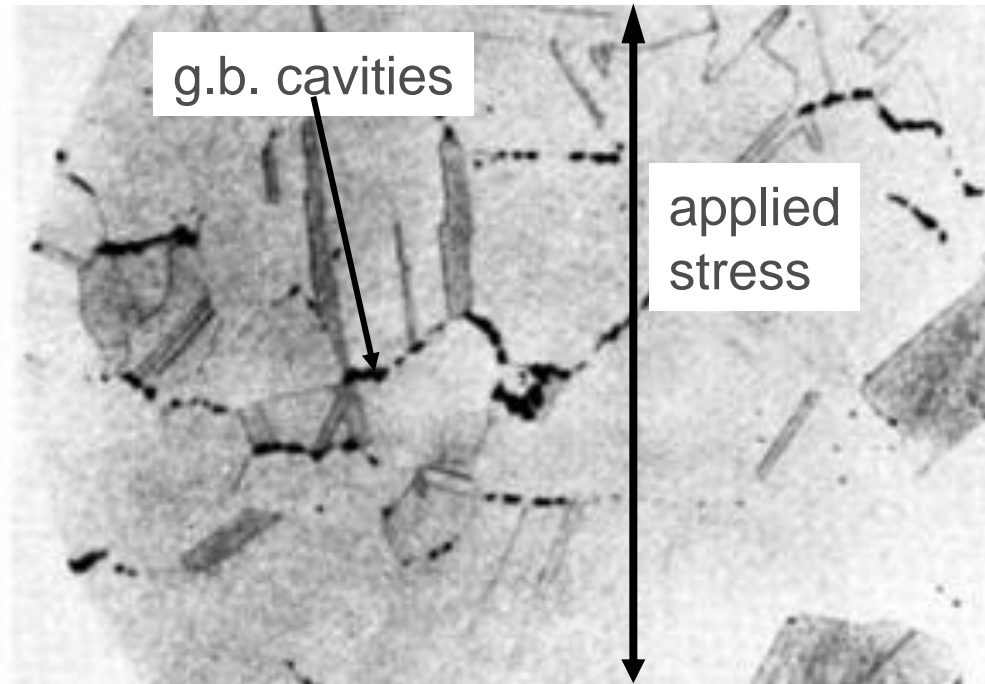


Adapted from Fig. 8.31, Callister 7e. (Fig. 8.31 is from *Metals Handbook: Properties and Selection: Stainless Steels, Tool Materials, and Special Purpose Metals*, Vol. 3, 9th ed., D. Benjamin (Senior Ed.), American Society for Metals, 1980, p. 131.)



Creep Failure

- Failure: along grain boundaries.



From V.J. Colangelo and F.A. Heiser, *Analysis of Metallurgical Failures* (2nd ed.), Fig. 4.32, p. 87, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1987. (Orig. source: Pergamon Press, Inc.)

SUMMARY

- Engineering materials not as strong as predicted by theory
- **Flaws** act as **stress concentrators** that cause failure at stresses lower than theoretical values.
- Sharp corners produce large stress concentrations and premature failure.
- Failure type depends on T and σ :
 - For simple fracture (noncyclic σ and $T < 0.4 T_m$), failure stress decreases with:
 - increased maximum flaw size,
 - decreased T ,
 - increased rate of loading.
 - For fatigue (cyclic σ):
 - cycles to fail decreases as $\Delta\sigma$ increases.
 - For creep ($T > 0.4 T_m$):
 - time to rupture decreases as σ or T increases.

