#### **Chapter 8 Failure**

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# **Chapter Outline**

- Ductile vs. brittle fracture
- Principles of fracture mechanics
  ✓ Stress concentration
- Impact fracture testing
- Fatigue (cyclic stresses)
  - ✓ Cyclic stresses, the S—N curve
  - $\checkmark$  Crack initiation and propagation
  - $\checkmark$  Factors that affect fatigue behavior
- Creep (time dependent deformation)
  - ✓ Stress and temperature effects
  - ✓ Alloys for high-temperature use

## Fracture

- Fracture: separation of a body into pieces due to stress, at temperatures below the melting point.
- Steps in fracture:
  - $\checkmark$  crack formation
  - ✓ crack propagation
- Depending on the ability of material to undergo plastic deformation before the fracture. Two fracture modes can be defined - ductile or brittle
- Ductile fracture most metals (not too cold):
  - ✓ Extensive plastic deformation ahead of crack.
  - Crack is "stable": resists further extension unless applied stress is increased.
- Brittle fracture ceramics, ice, cold metals:
- Relatively little plastic deformation
- Crack is "unstable": propagates rapidly without increase in applied stress
- Ductile fracture is preferred in most applications

## **Brittle vs. Ductile Fracture**

- Ductile materials extensive plastic deformation and energy absorption ("toughness") before fracture.
- Brittle materials little plastic deformation and low energy absorption before fracture



# **Brittle vs. Ductile Fracture**

#### A. Very ductile, soft metals (e.g. Pb, Au) at room temperature, other metals, polymers, glasses at high temperature.

- B. Moderately ductile fracture, typical for ductile metals
- C. Brittle fracture, cold metals, ceramics.



## Ductile Fracture (Dislocation Mediated)

(a) Necking (b) Formation of microvoids (c) Coalescence of microvoids to form a crack (d) Crack propagation by shear deformation (e) Fracture



#### **Ductile Fracture**



(Cup-and-cone fracture in Al)



Scanning Electron Microscopy: *Fractographic studies at* high resolution. Spherical "dimples" correspond to microvoids that initiate crack formation.

# Brittle Fracture (Limited Dislocation Mobility)

- No appreciable plastic deformation.
- Crack propagation is very fast.
- Crack propagates nearly perpendicular to the direction of the applied stress.
- Crack often propagates by cleavage breaking of atomic bonds along specific crystallographic planes (cleavage planes).



Brittle fracture in a mild steel



## **Brittle Fracture**

- A. Transgranular fracture: Fracture cracks pass through grains. Fracture surface have faceted texture because of different orientation of cleavage planes in grains.
- **B. Intergranular fracture: Fracture crack propagation is** along grain boundaries (grain boundaries are weakened or embrittled by impurities segregation etc.)





## **Stress Concentration**

- Fracture strength of a brittle solid is related to the cohesive forces between atoms. One can estimate that the theoretical cohesive strength of a brittle material should be ~ E/10. But experimental fracture strength is normally E/100 - E/10,000.
- This much lower fracture strength is explained by the effect of stress concentration at microscopic flaws. The applied stress is amplified at the tips of micro-cracks, voids, notches, surface scratches, corners, etc. that are called stress raisers. The magnitude of this amplification depends on micro-crack

orientations, geometry and dimensions.



# **Stress Concentration**

 For a long crack oriented perpendicular to the applied stress the maximum stress near the  $\sigma_{\rm m} \approx 2\sigma_0 \left(\frac{a}{\rho}\right)$ crack tip is:

where  $\sigma_0$  is the applied external stress, a is the half-length of the crack, and  $\rho_t$  the radius of curvature of the crack tip. (note that a is half-length of the internal flaw, but the full length for a surface flaw).



# **Crack propagation**

 Cracks with sharp tips propagate easier than cracks having blunt tips:

$$\sigma_{\rm m} \approx 2\sigma_0 \left(\frac{\rm a}{\rho_{\rm t}}\right)$$

• In ductile materials, plastic deformation at a crack tip "blunts" the crack.



# 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

**Critical stress for crack propagation:** 

$$\sigma_c = \left(\frac{2E\gamma_s}{\pi a}\right)^{1/2}$$
  
Griffith's criterion

 $\gamma_s$  = specific surface energy

for ductile materials  $\gamma_s$  should be replaced with  $\gamma_s + \gamma_p$  where  $\gamma_p$  is plastic deformation energy

#### **Impact Fracture Testing**

(testing fracture characteristics under high strain rates)

 Two standard tests, the Charpy and Izod, measure the impact energy (the energy required to fracture a test piece under an impact load), also called the notch toughness.

Izod



# **Ductile-to-brittle transition**

- As temperature decreases a ductile material can become brittle ductile-to-brittle transition.
- Alloying usually increases the ductile-to-brittle transition temperature. FCC metals remain ductile down to very low temperatures. For ceramics, this type of transition occurs at much higher temperatures than for metals.
- The ductile-to-brittle transition can be measured by impact testing: the impact energy needed for fracture drops suddenly over a relatively narrow temperature range temperature of the ductile-to-brittle transition.

## **Ductile-to-brittle transition**



# **Ductile-to-brittle transition**

• Low temperatures can severely embrittle steels. The Liberty ships, produced in great numbers during the WWII were the first all-welded ships. A significant number of ships failed by catastrophic fracture. Fatigue cracks nucleated at the corners of square hatches and propagated rapidly by brittle fracture.



# Fatigue

#### (Failure under fluctuating / cyclic stresses)

- Fatigue: Under fluctuating / cyclic stresses, failure can occur at loads considerably lower than tensile or yield strengths of material under a static load.
- Estimated to causes 90% of all failures of metallic structures (bridges, aircraft, machine components, etc.)
- Fatigue failure is brittle-like (relatively little plastic deformation) even in normally ductile materials. Thus sudden and catastrophic!
- Applied stresses causing fatigue may be axial (tension or compression), flextural (bending) or torsional (twisting).
- Fatigue failure proceeds in three distinct stages: crack initiation in the areas of stress concentration (near stress raisers), incremental crack propagation, final catastrophic failure.

#### Fatigue: Cyclic Stresses (I)



# Fatigue: Cyclic Stresses (II)

- Cyclic stresses are characterized by maximum, minimum and mean stress, the range of stress, the stress amplitude, and the stress ratio
  - Mean stress: $\sigma_m = (\sigma_{max} + \sigma_{min}) / 2$ Range of stress: $\sigma_r = (\sigma_{max} \sigma_{min})$ Stress amplitude: $\sigma_a = \sigma_r / 2 = (\sigma_{max} \sigma_{min}) / 2$ Stress ratio: $R = \sigma_{min} / \sigma_{max}$

Mean stress: $\sigma_1$ Range of stress: $\sigma_1$ 

Stress amplitude:

Stress ratio:

 $\sigma_{\rm m} = (\sigma_{\rm max} + \sigma_{\rm min}) / 2$   $\sigma_{\rm r} = (\sigma_{\rm max} - \sigma_{\rm min})$   $\sigma_{\rm a} = \sigma_{\rm r} / 2 = (\sigma_{\rm max} - \sigma_{\rm min}) / 2$  $R = \sigma_{\rm min} / \sigma_{\rm max}$ 



Remember the convention that tensile stresses are positive, compressive stresses are negative

# Fatigue: S — N curves (I) (stress — number of cycles to failure)

 Fatigue properties of a material (S-N curves) are tested in rotating-bending tests in fatigue testing apparatus:



 Result is commonly plotted as S (stress) vs. N (number of cycles to failure)

# Fatigue: S—N curves (II)

- Low cycle fatigue: high loads, plastic and elastic deformation
- High cycle fatigue: low loads, elastic deformation (N > 10<sup>5</sup>)

**Fatigue limit (endurance** limit) occurs for some materials (e.g. some Fe and Ti alloys). In this case, the S—N curve becomes horizontal at large N. The fatigue limit is a maximum stress amplitude below which the material never fails, no matter how large the number of cycles is.





In most alloys, S decreases continuously with N. In this cases the fatigue properties are described by:

#### **Fatigue strength: stress at which fracture occurs after a** specified number of cycles (e.g. 10<sup>7</sup>) **Fatigue life: Number of cycles to fail at a specified stress** level

# Fatigue: Crack initiation and propagation (I)

- Three stages of fatigue failure:
- 1. crack initiation in the areas of stress concentration (near stress raisers)
- 2. incremental crack propagation
- 3. final rapid crack propagation after crack reaches critical size
- The total number of cycles to failure is the sum of cycles at the first and the second stages:
- $N_f = N_i + N_p$

$$N_f = N_i + N_p$$

- N<sub>f</sub> : Number of cycles to failure
- N<sub>i</sub> : Number of cycles for crack initiation
- N<sub>p</sub>: Number of cycles for crack propagation
- High cycle fatigue (low loads): N<sub>i</sub> is relatively high. With increasing stress level, N<sub>i</sub> decreases and N<sub>p</sub> dominates

# Fatigue: Crack initiation and propagation (II)

- Crack initiation at the sites of stress concentration (microcracks, scratches, indents, interior corners, dislocation slip steps, etc.). Quality of surface is important.
- Crack propagation

✓ Stage I: initial slow propagation along crystal

planes with high resolved shear stress. Involves just a few grains, and has flat fracture surface

✓ Stage II: faster propagation perpendicular to the applied stress. Crack grows by repetitive blunting and sharpening process at crack tip. **Rough fracture surface.** 



Crack eventually reaches critical dimension and propagates very rapidly

# Factors that affect fatigue life

- Magnitude of stress (mean, amplitude...)
- Quality of the surface (scratches, sharp transitions).
- Solutions:
- Polishing (removes machining flaws etc.)
- Introducing compressive stresses (compensate for applied tensile stresses) into thin surface layer by "Shot Peening"- firing small shot into surface to be treated.
- High-tech solution ion implantation, laser peening.
- Case Hardening create C- or N- rich outer layer in steels by atomic diffusion from the surface. Makes harder outer layer and also introduces compressive stresses
- Optimizing geometry avoid internal corners, notches etc.



# Factors that affect fatigue life: environmental effects

 Thermal Fatigue. Thermal cycling causes expansion and contraction, hence thermal stress, if component is restrained.

#### Solutions:

- eliminate restraint by design
- use materials with low thermal expansion coefficients
- ✓ Corrosion fatigue. Chemical reactions induce pits which act as stress raisers. Corrosion also enhances crack propagation.

#### Solutions:

- decrease corrosiveness of medium, if possible
- add protective surface coating
- add residual compressive stresses

## Creep

 Creep is a time-dependent and permanent deformation of materials when subjected to a constant load at a high temperature (> 0.4 T<sub>m</sub>). Examples: turbine blades, steam generators.



#### **Stages of creep**





- 1. Instantaneous deformation, mainly elastic.
- 2. Primary/transient creep. Slope of strain vs. time decreases with time: work-hardening
- **3. Secondary/steady-state creep. Rate of straining is** constant: balance of work-hardening and recovery.
- **4. Tertiary. Rapidly accelerating strain rate up to failure:** formation of internal cracks, voids, grain boundary separation, necking, etc.

## Parameters of creep behavior

- The stage of secondary/steady-state creep is of longest duration and the **steady-state creep rate**  $\dot{\epsilon}_{s} = \Delta \epsilon / \Delta t$  is the most important parameter of the creep behavior in long-life applications.
- Another parameter, especially important in short-life creep situations, is **time to rupture, or the rupture lifetime, t**<sub>r</sub>.



#### **Creep: stress and temperature effects**

With increasing stress or temperature:

- The instantaneous strain increases
- The steady-state creep rate increases
- The time to rupture decreases



#### **Creep: stress and temperature effects**

- The stress/temperature dependence of the steady-state creep rate can be described by  $\dot{\epsilon}_s = K_2 \sigma^n \exp\left(-\frac{Q_c}{RT}\right)$
- where Q<sub>c</sub> is the activation energy for creep, K<sub>2</sub> and n are material constants.
- (Remember the Arrhenius dependence on temperature for thermally activated processes that we discussed for diffusion)



# **Mechanisms of Creep**

- Different mechanisms are responsible for creep in different materials and under different loading and temperature conditions. The mechanisms include:
  - ✓ Stress-assisted vacancy diffusion
  - ✓ Grain boundary diffusion
  - $\checkmark$  Grain boundary sliding
  - ✓ Dislocation motion
- Different mechanisms result in different values of n, Q<sub>c</sub>.



Grain boundary diffusion

Dislocation glide and climb



#### Alloys for high-temperature use

(turbines in jet engines, hypersonic airplanes, nuclear reactors, etc.)

- Creep is generally minimized in materials with:
  - ✓ High melting temperature
  - ✓ High elastic modulus
  - ✓ Large grain sizes (inhibits grain boundary sliding)
- Following alloys are especially resilient to creep:
  - ✓ Stainless steels
  - ✓ Refractory metals (containing elements of high melting point, like Nb, Mo, W, Ta)
  - ✓ "Superalloys" (Co, Ni based: solid solution hardening and secondary phases)

#### <u>Summary</u>

Make sure you understand language and concepts:

- Brittle fracture
- Corrosion fatigue
- Creep
- Ductile fracture
- Ductile-to-brittle transition
- Fatigue
- Fatigue life
- Fatigue limit
- Fatigue strength
- Impact energy
- Intergranular fracture
- Stress raiser
- Thermal fatigue
- Transgranular fracture