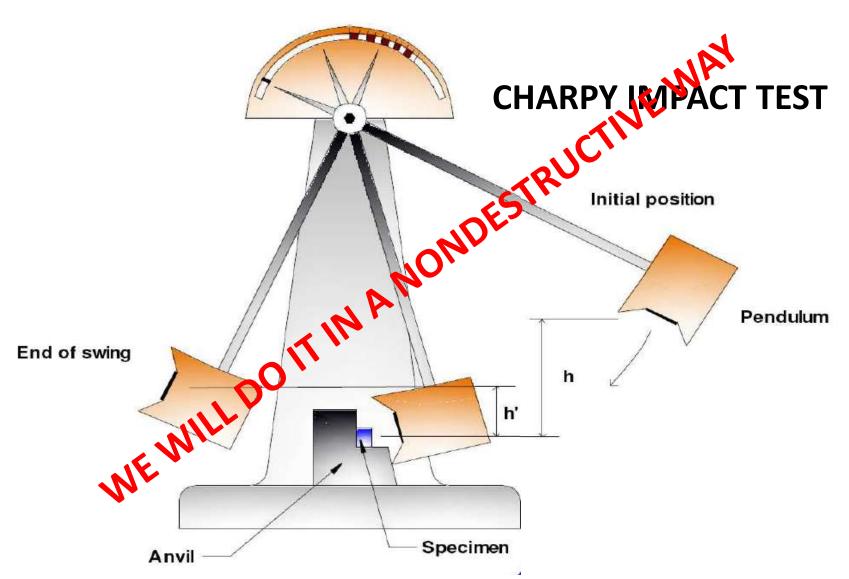
## MATERIAL CHARACTERIZATION



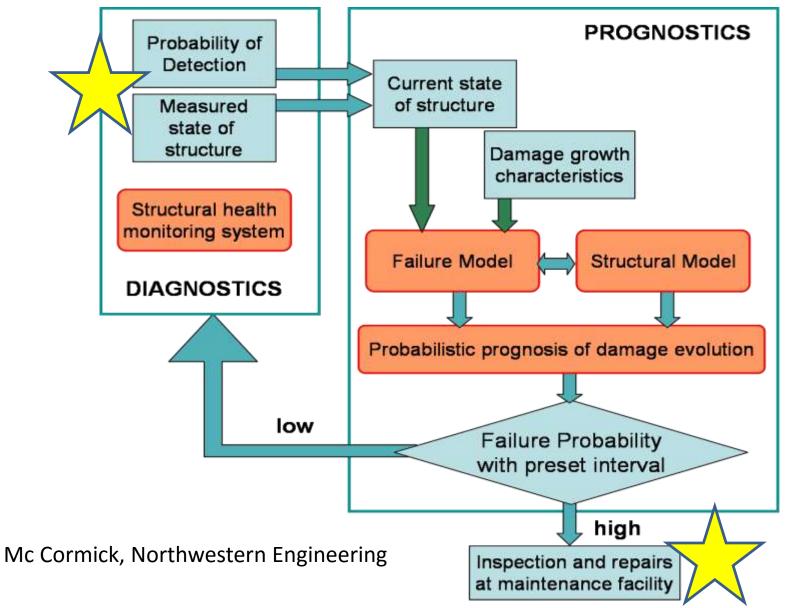


## **MATERIAL CHARACTERIZATION**

4.	Mitigation Strategies – The world is never perfect
4.1.	Structure Design and NDT
4.2.	Application of NDT
4.3.	Limits of NDT
4.4.	Quantitative NDT
4.5.	Material Characterization
4.6.	Case Study – Inspection by Cause



## **Remaining Life**





#### MATERIAL CHARACTERIZATION

## NDT beyond the location and identification of defects:



## Material Characterization – the Measurement of physical and mechanical properties of materials



## **Nondestructive Characterization of Materials**



#### MATERIAL CHARACTERIZATION

#### **ROUGH PROBLEM STRUCTURE**

#### PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES**

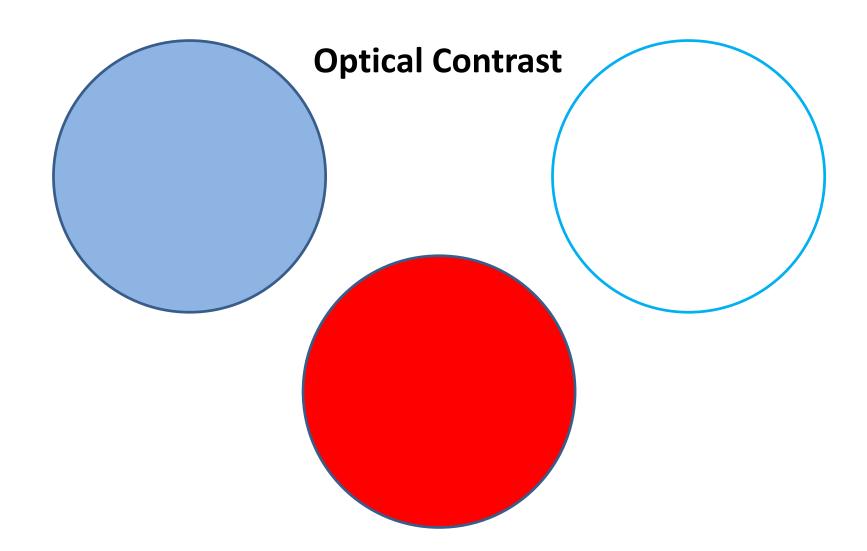
Density
Magnetic Properties
Electric Properties
Thermal Properties
Optical Properties

and many others

Strength
Elastic Limit
Proportional Limit
Yield Strength
Ultimate Tensile Strength
True Fracture Strength
Ductility
Toughness
Fatigue Ratio
Loss Coefficient



#### **PHYSICAL PROPERTIES**





#### PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

## BY DEFINITION, NONDESTRUCTIVE TESTING MEASURES PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

## There are many useful applications

- Material Identity Checks
- Sorting
- Waste Processing
- Dimension Control

•

However, it will become rather sophisticated when we need insight into the material structure



#### **PHYSICAL PROPERTIES**



# Optical Sorting Equipment (Waste Separation)

**CP Manufacturing** 



Strength; Hardness
Elastic Limit
Proportional Limit
Yield Strength
Ultimate Tensile Strength
True Fracture Strength
Ductility
Toughness
Loss Coefficient

DEFINED
BY
MECHANICAL TESTS
AS
STANDARDS
FOR
MATERIAL SPECIFICATIONS



#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES and NDC**

#### PROBLEM DIMENSION



Nondestructive Methods measure physical properties



Physical Properties
Must correlate with
Mechanical properties



#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES and NDC**

#### NDC CONCEPTS

**RESOLUTION** 

CONTRAST

Macroscopic Measurements
Meso-Methods
Microscopic Measurements

Local Changes of Properties Meso-Methods Uniform Properties

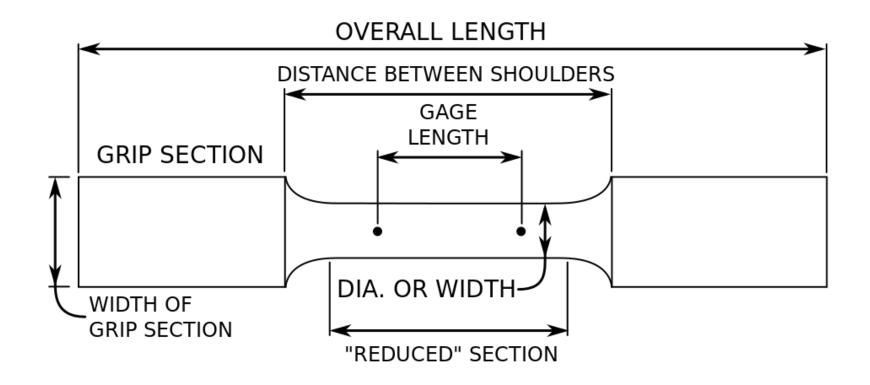
**CORRELATION** 

Parameter Space Statistics

## A Matter of Research



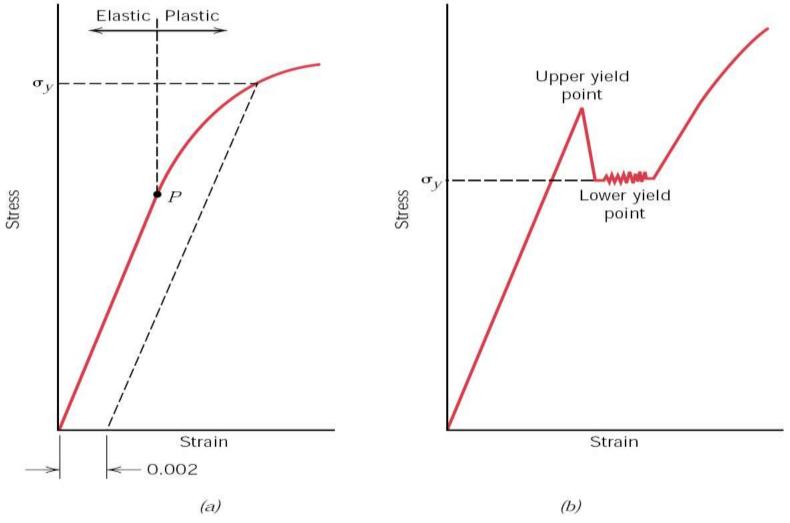
#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – TENSILE TEST**



## **TENSILE TEST SPECIMEN**



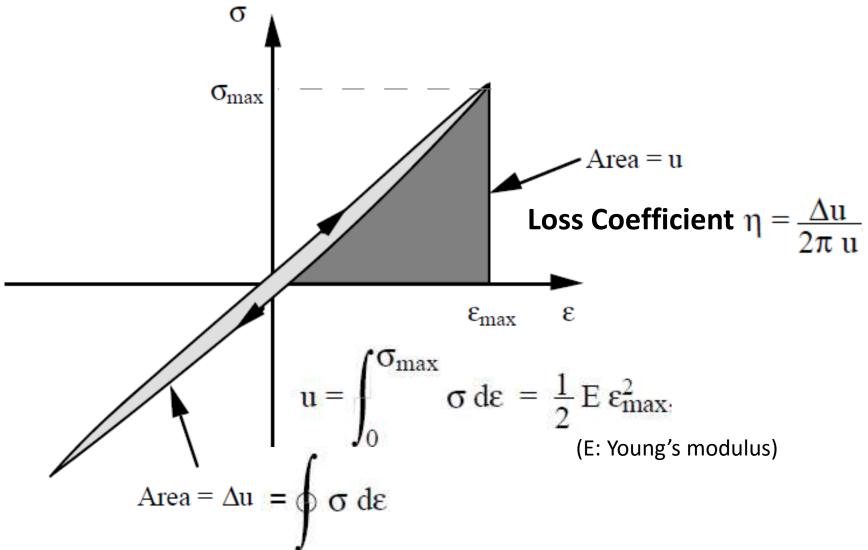
#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – TENSILE TEST**



typical stress-strain curve for a metal. Stress-strain curve for a material exhibiting the yield point phenomenon

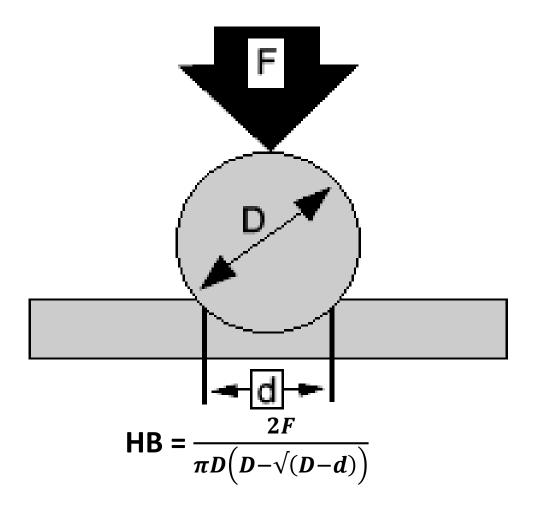


## MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – LOSS COEFFICIENT MATERIAL DAMPING (Energy Dissipation)



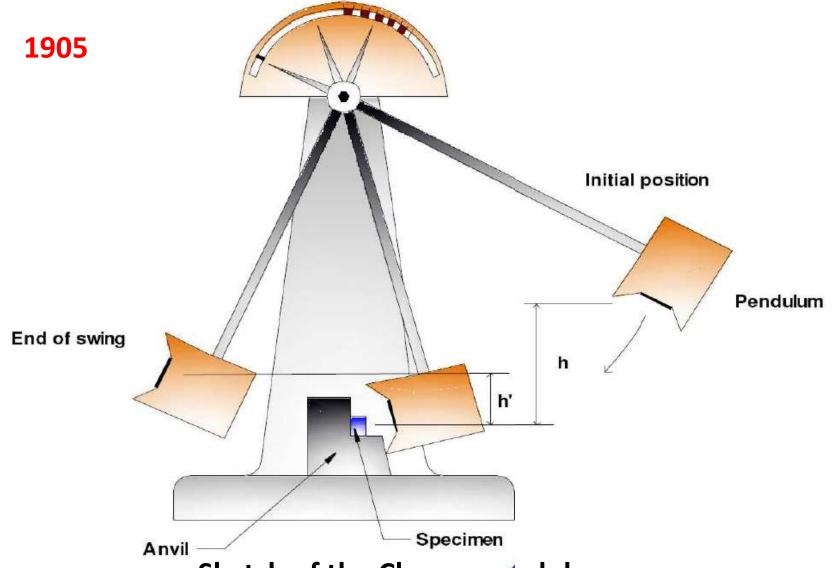


#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – HARDNESS TEST**





#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – CHARPY IMPACT TEST**

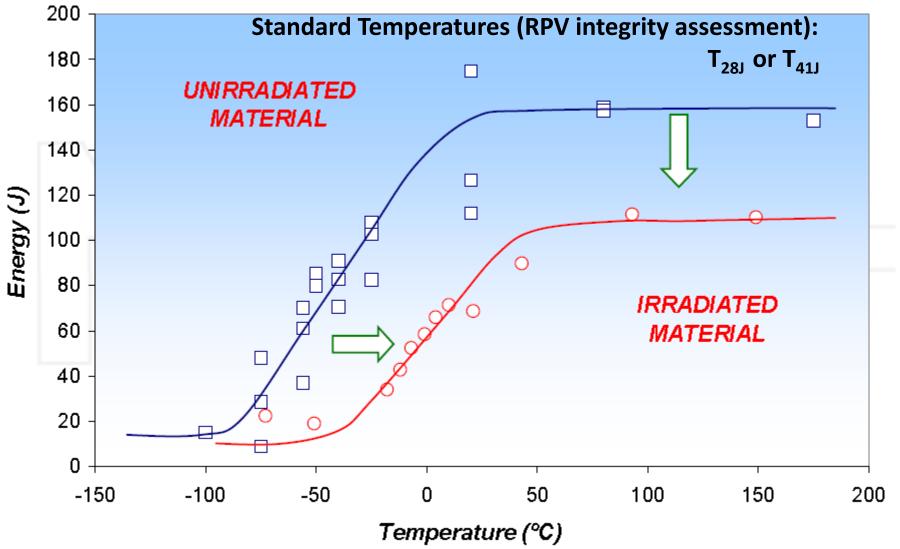


**Sketch of the Charpy pendulum** 



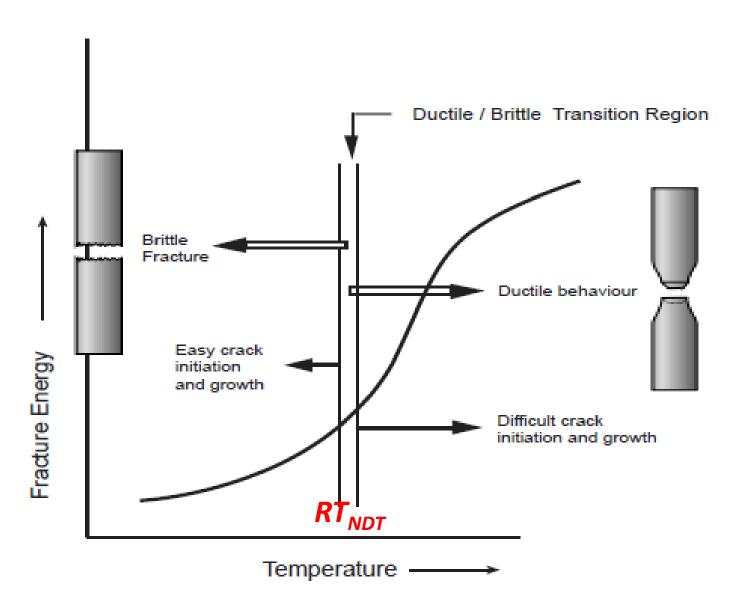
#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – CHARPY IMPACT TEST**

Effect of Irradiation on Charpy Curves





#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTIES – REFERENCE TEMPERATURE**





Integrity of Nuclear Structures - Material Degradation and Mitigation by NDE TPU Lecture Course 2014/15

## Strength

Strength has several definitions depending on the material type and application. Material class and mode of loading are important when designing for strength.

For metals the most common measure of strength is the yield strength.

Strength, for ceramics however, is the compressive failure strength.

Failure in ceramics is highly dependent on the mode of loading.

The typical failure strength in compression

is fifteen times the failure strength in tension.



#### **Elastic Limit**

The elastic limit is the highest stress at which all deformation strains are fully recoverable.

For most materials and applications this can be considered the practical limit to the maximum stress a component can withstand and still function as designed.

Beyond the elastic limit permanent strains are likely to deform the material to the point where its function is impaired.



## **Proportional Limit**

The proportional limit is the highest stress at which stress is linearly proportional to strain.
This is the same as the elastic limit for most materials.

Some materials may show a slight deviation from proportionality while still under recoverable strain.

In these cases the proportional limit is preferred as a maximum stress level because deformation becomes less predictable above it.



## **Yield Strength**

The yield strength is the minimum stress
which produces permanent plastic deformation.
This is perhaps the most common material property
reported for structural materials
because of the ease and relative accuracy of its measurement.
The yield strength is usually defined
at a specific amount of plastic strain, or offset,
which may vary by material and or specification.
The offset is the amount that the stress-strain curve deviates
from the linear elastic line.
The most common offset for structural metals is 0.2%.



## **Ultimate Tensile Strength**

The ultimate tensile strength is an engineering value calculated by dividing the maximum load on a material experienced during a tensile test by the initial cross section of the test sample.

When viewed in light of the other tensile test data the ultimate tensile strength helps to provide a good indication of a material's toughness but is not by itself a useful design limit.

Conversely this can be construed as the minimum stress that is necessary to ensure the failure of a material.



## **True Fracture Strength**

The true fracture strength is the load at fracture divided by the cross sectional area of the sample.

Like the ultimate tensile strength the true fracture strength can help an engineer to predict the behavior of the material but is not itself a practical strength limit.

Because the tensile test seeks to standardize variables such as specimen geometry, strain rate and uniformity of stress it can be considered a kind of best case scenario of failure.



## **Ductility**

Ductility is a measure of how much deformation or strain a material can withstand before breaking.

The most common measure of ductility is the percentage of change in length of a tensile sample after breaking.

This is generally reported as % El or percent elongation.

The reduction of area RA of the sample also gives some indication of ductility.



## **Toughness**

Toughness describes a material's resistance to fracture.

The most common test for toughness is the Charpy impact test.

It is often expressed in terms of the amount of energy

a material can absorb before fracture.

Tough materials can absorb a considerable amount of energy before fracture

while brittle materials absorb very little.

Neither strong materials such as glass or very ductile materials such as taffy can absorb large amounts of energy before failure.

Toughness is not a single property but rather a combination of strength and ductility.

The toughness of a material can be related to the total area

under its stress-strain curve.

A comparison of the relative magnitudes of the yield strength, ultimate tensile strength and percent elongation of different material will give a good indication of their relative toughness.

Materials with high yield strength and high ductility have high toughness.



# MECHANICAL PROPERTIES Toughness

In crystalline materials the toughness is strongly dependent on crystal structure.

Face centered cubic materials are typically ductile

while hexagonal close packed materials tend to be brittle.

Body centered cubic materials often display dramatic variation

in the mode of failure with temperature.

In many materials the toughness is temperature dependent.

Generally materials are more brittle at lower temperatures and more ductile at higher temperatures.

The temperature at which the transition takes place is known as the DBTT, or ductile to brittle transition temperature.

Use of alloys below their transition temperature is avoided due to the risk of catastrophic failure.



#### **Loss Coefficient**

The loss coefficient is an other important material parameter in cyclic loading. It is the fraction of mechanical energy lost in a stress strain cycle.

The loss coefficient for each material is a function of the frequency of the cycle.

A high loss coefficient can be desirable for damping vibrations

while a low loss coefficient transmits energy more efficiently.

The loss coefficient is also an important factor in resisting fatigue failure.

If the loss coefficient is too high,

cyclic loading will dissipate energy into the material leading to fatigue failure.



## **Macroscopic Measurement**

#### PHYSICAL PROPERTY

**MECHANICAL PROPERTY** 

Electrical Conductivity (Eddy Current)

Magnetic Hardness (Barkhausen)

Sound Velocity (Rayleigh Waves)



Strength

**Hardness** 

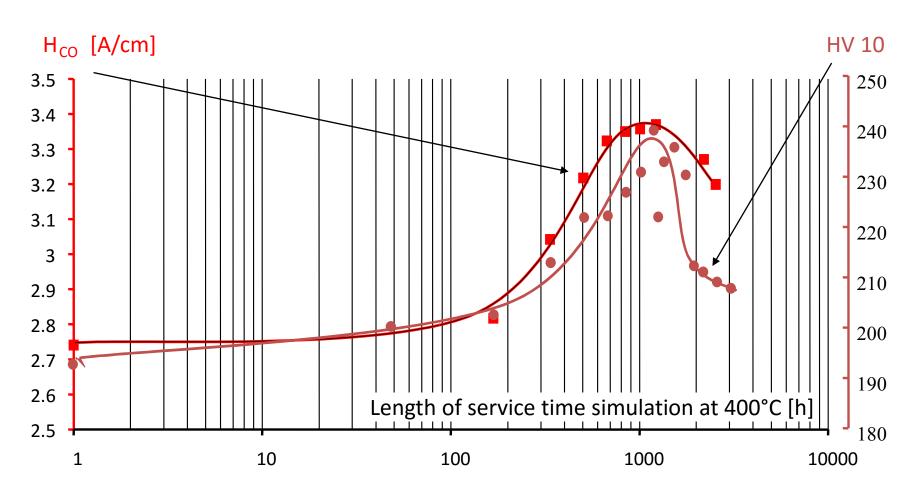
## **CORRELATION**

Defined reference samples

Complexity of Approach Validation

Confined material specification





**Analogy Between Mechanical and Magnetic Hardness** 



## **Meso - Measurement**

PHYSICAL PROPERTY

**MECHANICAL PROPERTY** 

Absorption (non-linear ultrasound)



**Fatigue Evaluation** 

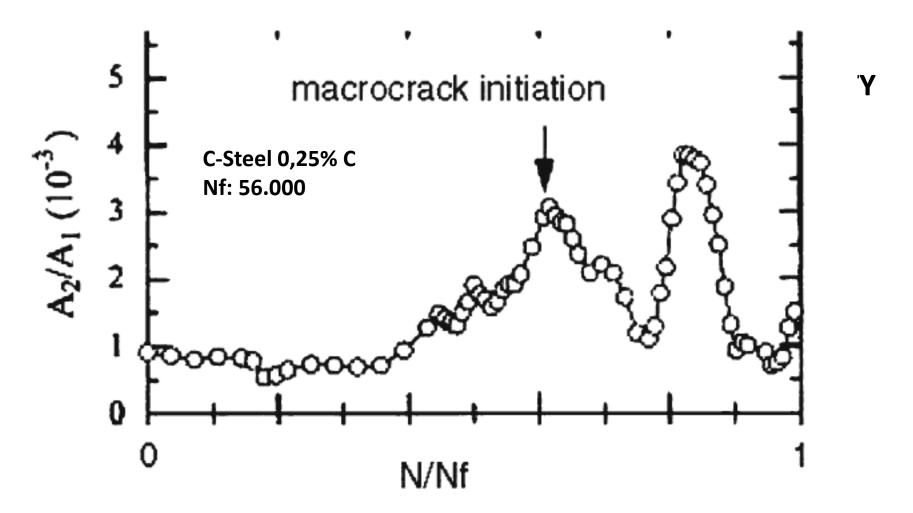
**CORRELATION** 

Macroscopic Measurement of a Specific Microstructure Effect

Confined specifics of material Require often measurement of Local Changes



## **Meso - Measurement**



**CORRELATION: Evolution of Non-Linearity** 



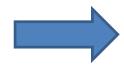
## **Microscopic - Measurement**





#### **MECHANICAL PROPERTY**

Micro Comperaphys
It is a apponents
mobile 8 apponents



Material Evaluation through Microstructure Evaluation

(SIMULATION, MATERIAL LAWS)

**CORRELATION** 

Microscopic Measurement
of a
Specific Microstructure Effect

Confined specifics of material require often measurement of local changes



Traditional methods of microstructure analysis compare 2D micrographs to reference images.

However, examining planar sections in such a way does not allow an objective assessment of the material internal structure and its properties due to the limited information accessible from this 2D data.

Advanced characterization techniques are capable of quantifying structural material features in a reasonably precise way. Depending on the size of microstructure constituents,

- X-ray
- Synchrotron
- Positron Analysis
- Focused Ion Beam (FIB)
- Atom Probe Tomography (APT)

can be used in order to characterize the microstructure and to understand its formation and influence on functionality of the material.



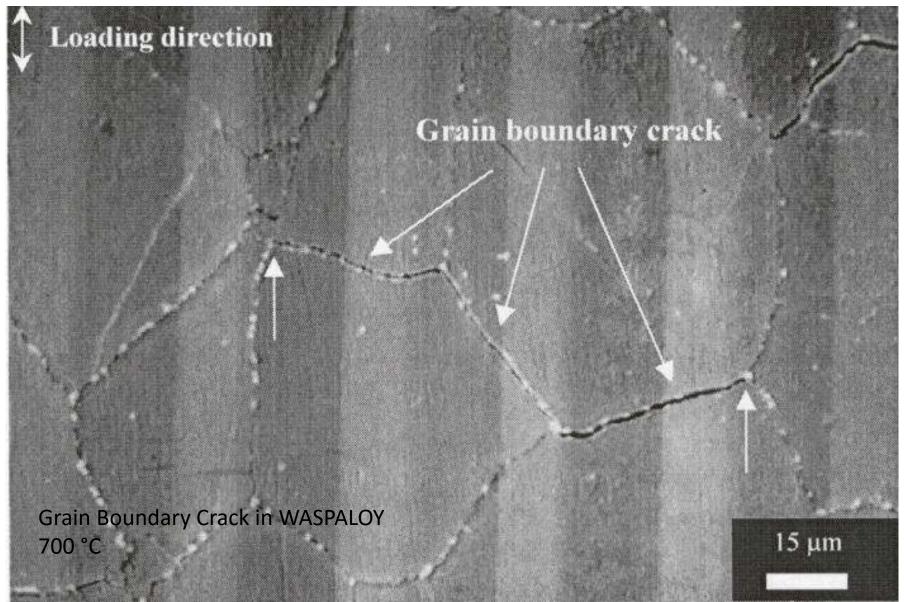
5x10<sup>4</sup> cycles 27x10<sup>4</sup> cycles (failure) 10<sup>4</sup> cycles

Slip progress in cyclic loading

## **Fatigue Evolution of Microstructure**

Nickel-base super alloy Waspaloy







#### CONCLUSION

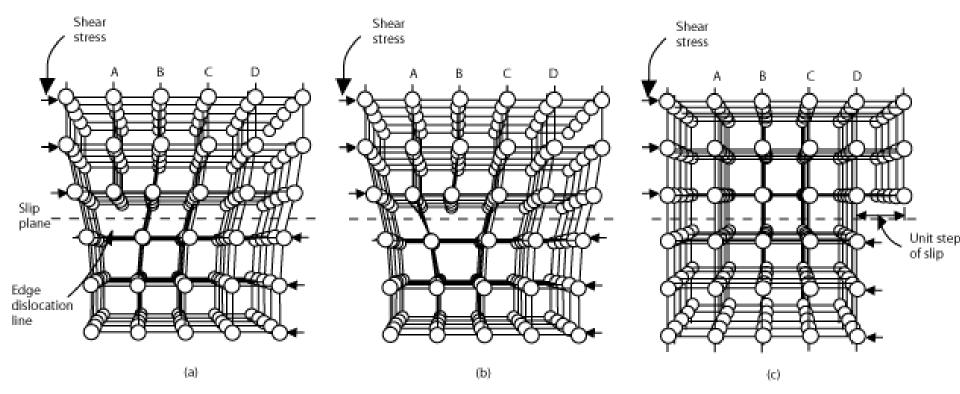
NDC cannot reveal these details until now.

However, under very well defined and confined conditions, NDC enables the assessment of material state, in particular when local attack is of concern.

NDC can only be applied with deep understanding of microstructural damage evolution and its effect on measureable physical quantities.

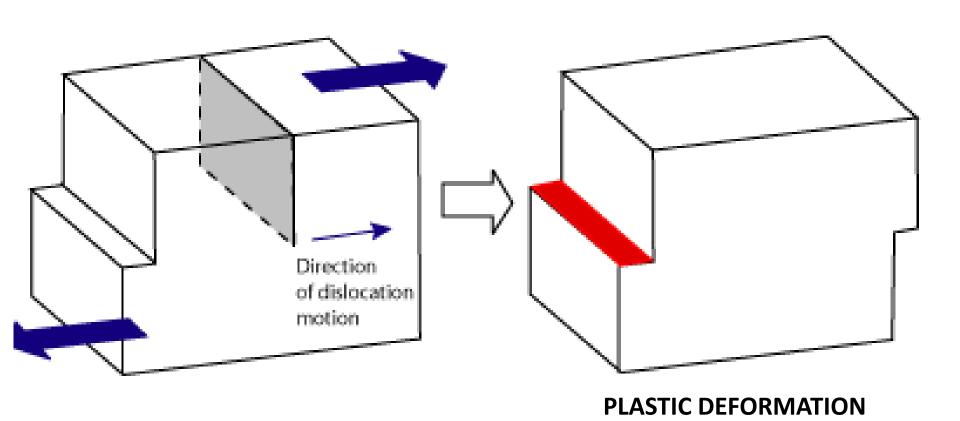
Therefore, NDC applications are unique developed for a very specific problem.





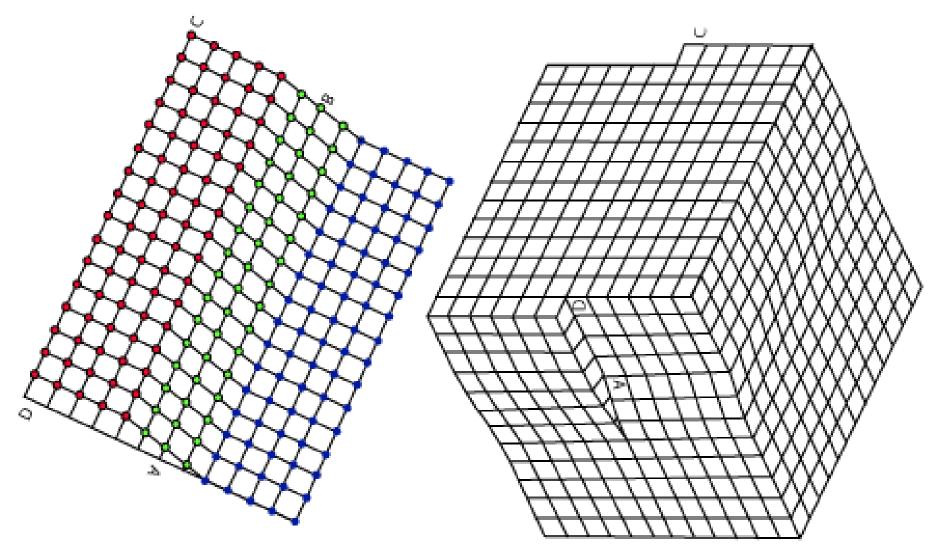
**EDGE DISLOCATION MOVEMENT** 





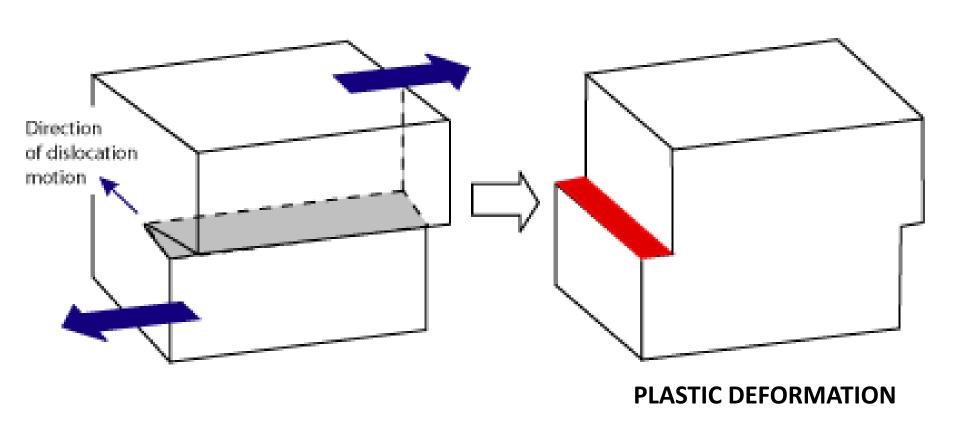
#### **EDGE DISLOCATION MOVEMENT**





## **SCREW DISLOCATION MOVEMENT**





#### **SCREW DISLOCATION MOVEMENT**



The dislocations move along the densest planes of atoms in a material, because the stress needed to move the dislocation increases with the spacing between the planes.

FCC and BCC metals have many dense planes, so dislocations move relatively easy and these materials have high ductility. Metals are strengthened by making it more difficult for dislocations to move. This may involve the introduction of obstacles, such as interstitial atoms or grain boundaries, to "pin" the dislocations.

Also, as a material plastically deforms, more dislocations are produced and they will get into each others way and impede movement. This is why strain or work hardening occurs.



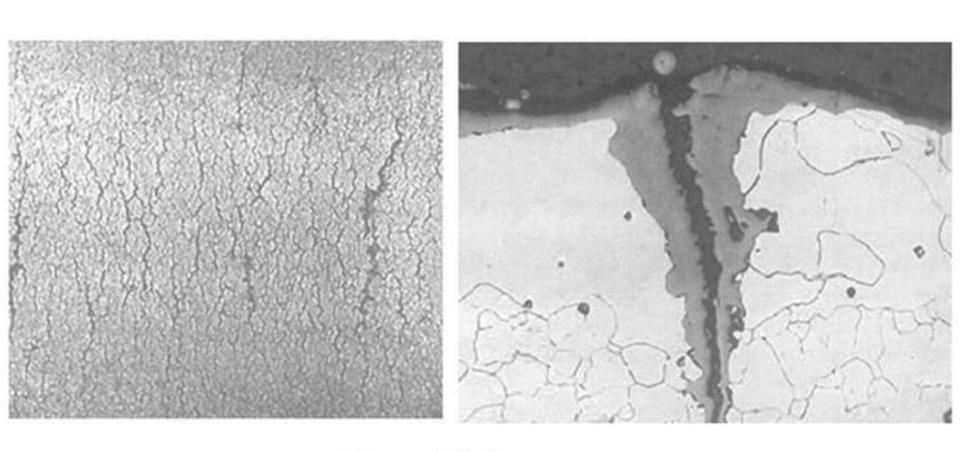
## Literature

1. D. Cebon, M.F. Ashby: Materials Selection for Precision Instruments, Meas. Science and technology, vol. 5, pp 296-306 (1994)



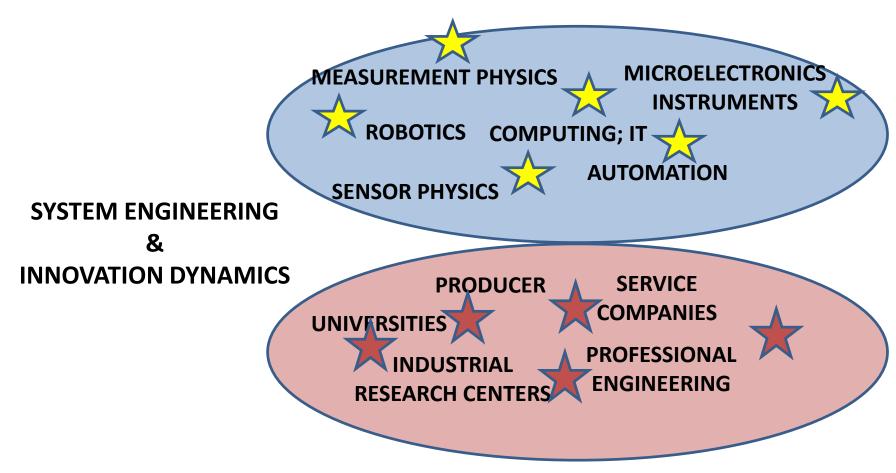
#### Fatigue

## **Thermo-Mechanical Fatigue**



Thermal fatigue





# STRATEGIC NETWORKS FOR PROFESSIONAL and COMPETENT DEMAND DRIVEN DEVELOPMENT

