

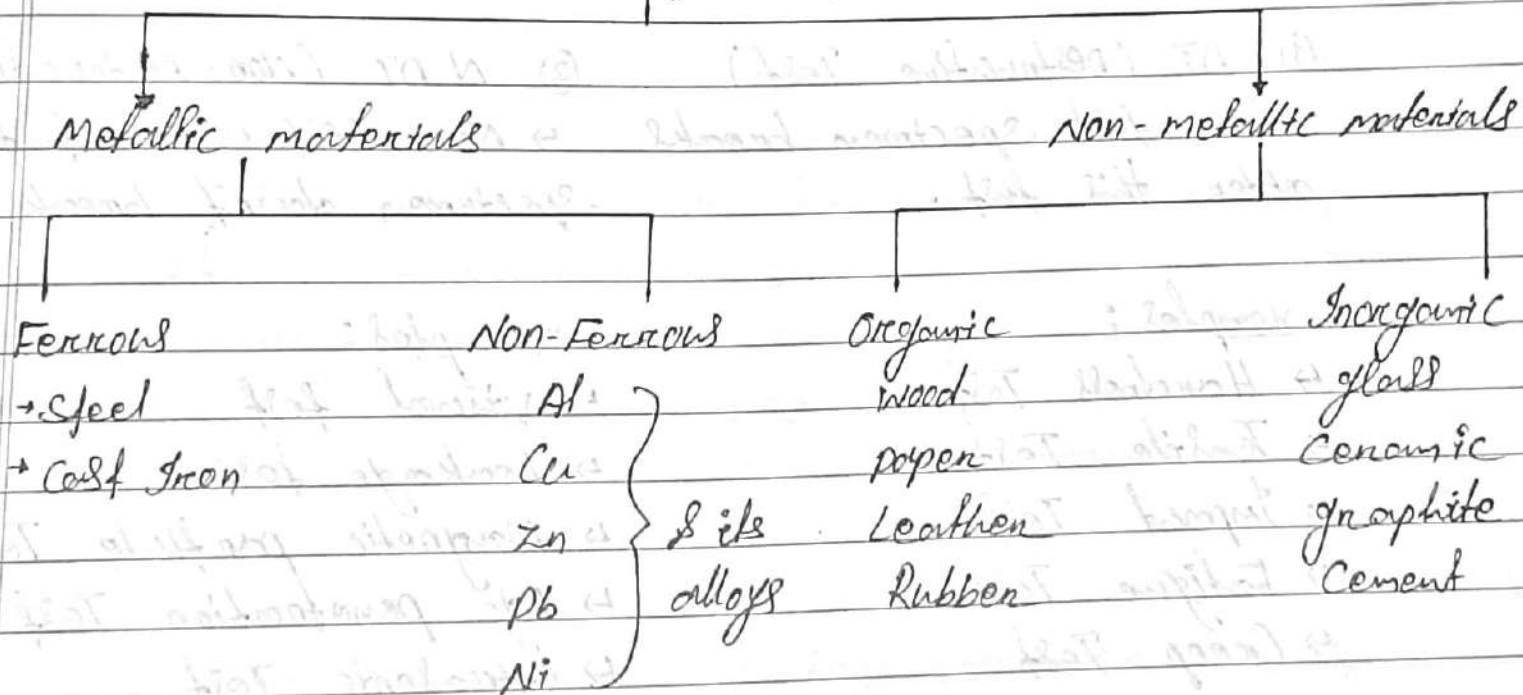
{ MATERIAL TESTING }

Importance of metals :-

Metals and their alloys are the backbone of all engineering projects and products.

Ranging from all primitive type agricultural implements to advanced aircrafts, automobiles, buildings, bridges, shipping, railways and in all such fields, metals occupy a place of prime importance.

Classification of Engineering materials :-



Testing of materials :->

Material testing is done to determine various mechanical and metallurgical properties of metals. It is done to test metal's suitability and stability for service.

Classification of material testing method :->

Generally material testing can be ~~into~~ classified into two types. Namely:

① DT (Destructive Test)

↳ The test specimen breaks after this test.

② NDT (Non-Destructive Test)

↳ Non-Destructive test specimen doesn't break in.

Examples:

↳ Hardness Test

↳ Tensile Test

↳ Impact Test

↳ Fatigue Test

↳ Creep Test

Examples:

↳ Visual test

↳ Leakage test

↳ Magnetic particle Test

↳ Dye penetration Test

↳ Ultrasonic Test

↳ Eddy Current test

↳ X-Ray Diffraction

OF NDT

Non-Destructive Testing \Rightarrow (NDT)

- \hookrightarrow Non-Destructive Testing methods are used to test the internal soundness of a material.
- \hookrightarrow In Non-Destructive Testing; The materials to be tested are neither broken nor destroyed. The tested materials can be put to direct use after NDT with an enhanced security that, they will not fail when put in operation.
- \hookrightarrow Thus NDT imparts more safety and reliability of the manufactured components.

METHOD OF NDT \Rightarrow

The commonly used NDT methods are :-

- 1- Visual Testing
- 2- Leakage Test or pressure Test
- 3- Magnetic particle Testing
- 4- Dye penetrant test or Liquid penetrant test.
- 5- Ultrasonic testing
- 6- Eddy Current testing
- 7- Radiography Test (X-Ray Diffraction)
- 8- Acoustic method

Destructive Test (DT)Non-Destructive Test (NDT)

Full form → DT stands for destructive Testing.

→ NDT stands for Non-destructive testing.

Purpose → It is carried out to find properties and behaviour of specimen under different load.

→ It is carried out to find out defects in a specimen.

Specimen → Specimen is damaged during test.

→ Specimen is not damaged during test.

Defects → Defects can not be found using DT.

→ Defects are found using NDT.

Cost → It is more costly.

→ It is less costly.

Example

- Bending Test
- Hardness Test
- Tensile Test
- Impact Test
- Fatigue Test
- Creep Test

- Visual test
- Leakage test
- Die penetration test.
- Eddy Current test
- Ultrasonic test.

NDT

classmate

Date 23/09/21

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{ Non-Destructive Test }

1/ (VISUAL TESTING)

Introduction:

- ↳ visual testing method is simple and widely applied.
- ↳ This testing is used as the first step in the inspection of a component.

Description:

- ↳ For visual testing of a component its surface is illuminated and observed with naked eye to detect the flaws.
- ↳ This is a cheap and easy technique and can be used for inspection of any material, any size, any shape where the surface can be observed.
- ↳ In visual testing; optical aids like microscope and magnifying glass can also be used for better observation of the surface.

Limitation

- ↳ It can be used for detection of surface defects only.
- ↳ The quality of result will solely depend upon the knowledge and skill of the observer.

2) (LEAKAGE TEST / PRESSURE TEST)

Introduction:

This is an important non-destructive testing method used in many engineering applications.

Description:

method: \rightarrow This testing method consist in filling the part with water under a specified pressure and examining the parts for leaks.

\rightarrow Steam and air may also be used in pressure testing.

Application:

Pressure test are used to locate leaks in castings, fabricated units, joined assemblies, vessels, valves and pipes.

3) (DYE PENETRANT TEST)

Introduction:

↳ It is a very simple and cheap method for detecting surface defects of a material.

Application:

↳ This method is widely used for all metals and non-metals of any size and shape.

↳ This method is used to detect several types of defects i.e. Cracks, porosity, leaks present in various components developed during forging, casting, welding, machining, grinding, bending and heat treatment method.

Method:

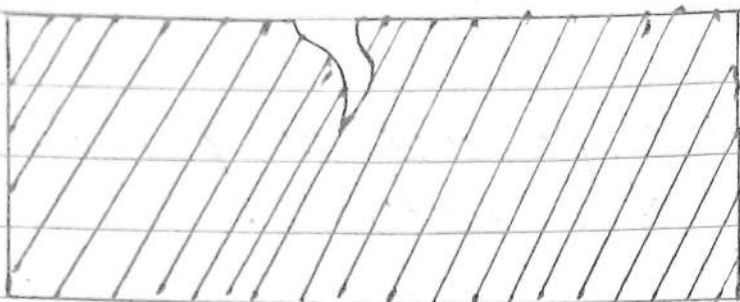
↳ At first the object to be tested is cleaned and dried. Then a thin coloured penetrating dye called 'penetrant' is applied to the surface of the cleaned object.

↳ The dye penetrant passes into the surface defects by capillary action and defects are detected.

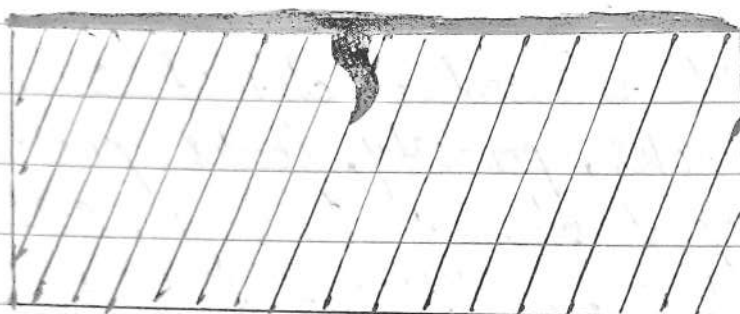
↳ Fine surface defects in an object which is not visible by naked eye is detected in this method.

* Preparation of the surface and application of penetrant

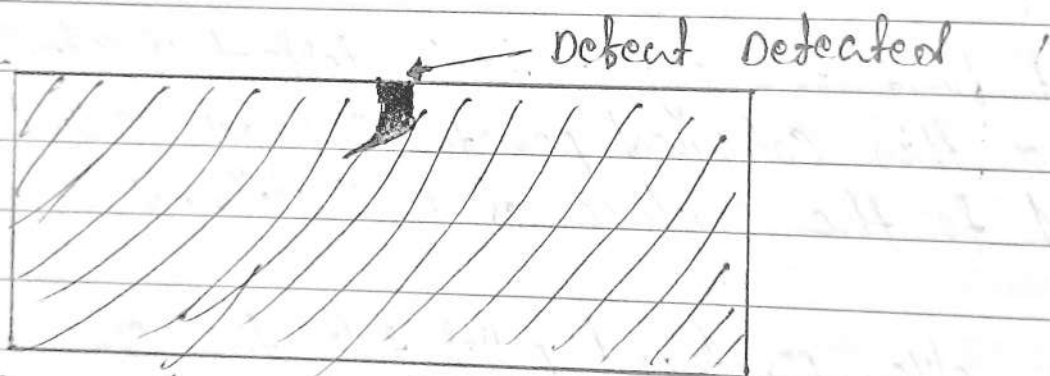
The surface of the component to be inspected is made clean by cleaner. Then the surface is treated with the dye penetrant by dipping, spraying or by dusting. The penetrant is oil like liquid which is penetrant through hole or defect by capillary action.



(a) Clean and drying of test specimen

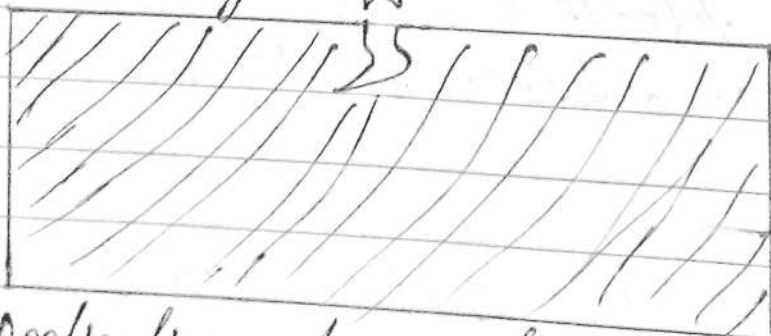


(b) Application of penetrant to the specimen



(c) Removal of penetrant from the test specimen

Crack filling



(d) Application of developer

4 ((MAGNETIC PARTICLE TESTING))

Introduction:

Magnetic particle testing is used for the testing of material which can be easily magnetized.

↳ This method is capable of detecting surface and surface having defects such as cracks and invisible cracks.

Surface preparation:

In order to identify the defects, it is necessary to remove rust, flakes and grease from the surface of inspection.

↳ If the surface is not cleaned thoroughly, it will restrict the free movement of the magnetic particles and being captured at the leakage area.

↳ Mechanical cleaning is carried out by using wire brushes or sand blasting and degreasing is possible by using solvent.

Basic principle:

The basic principle involved in this testing is, if a magnetic field is passed through a perfectly sound or defect-free component then lines of magnetic flux will be uniform and straight. But if the field is passed through a defective component then the lines of flux will get distorted in the area of defect.

Method:

The equipment used in this test is known as "magnaflo" for conducting the test the component is first magnetized. Then iron oxide powder is sprinkled over the surface of the magnetized component. The powder particles align themselves in the direction of the force.

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↳ ~~poor~~ effect occurs at defects and powder particles ~~clump~~ round the defect. In case of sound or defectless components, the powder particles are uniformly distributed all over the surface.

Defect → Curve shape Defectless → linear shape

Limitation

- ↳ This test can't be used for non-magnetic material
- ✓ ↳ All component under this test will carry some residual magnetisation. That's why the component should be demagnetised before put in use.
- ↳ This is used only to detect the surface or internal defects of magnetic materials.

5/ (ULTRASONIC TESTING)

Application:

Ultrasonic testing method is very useful for detecting internal defects, cracks and voids in all-most all materials i.e. metals, ceramic, graphite, glass, plastic etc.

↳ This test is performed very speedily and can detect the defects to any depth, below the surface because of its high penetration.

Method:

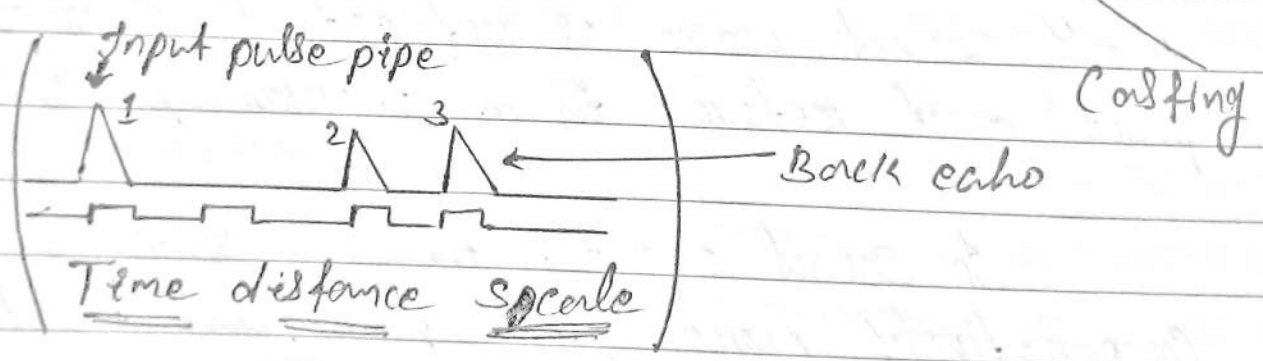
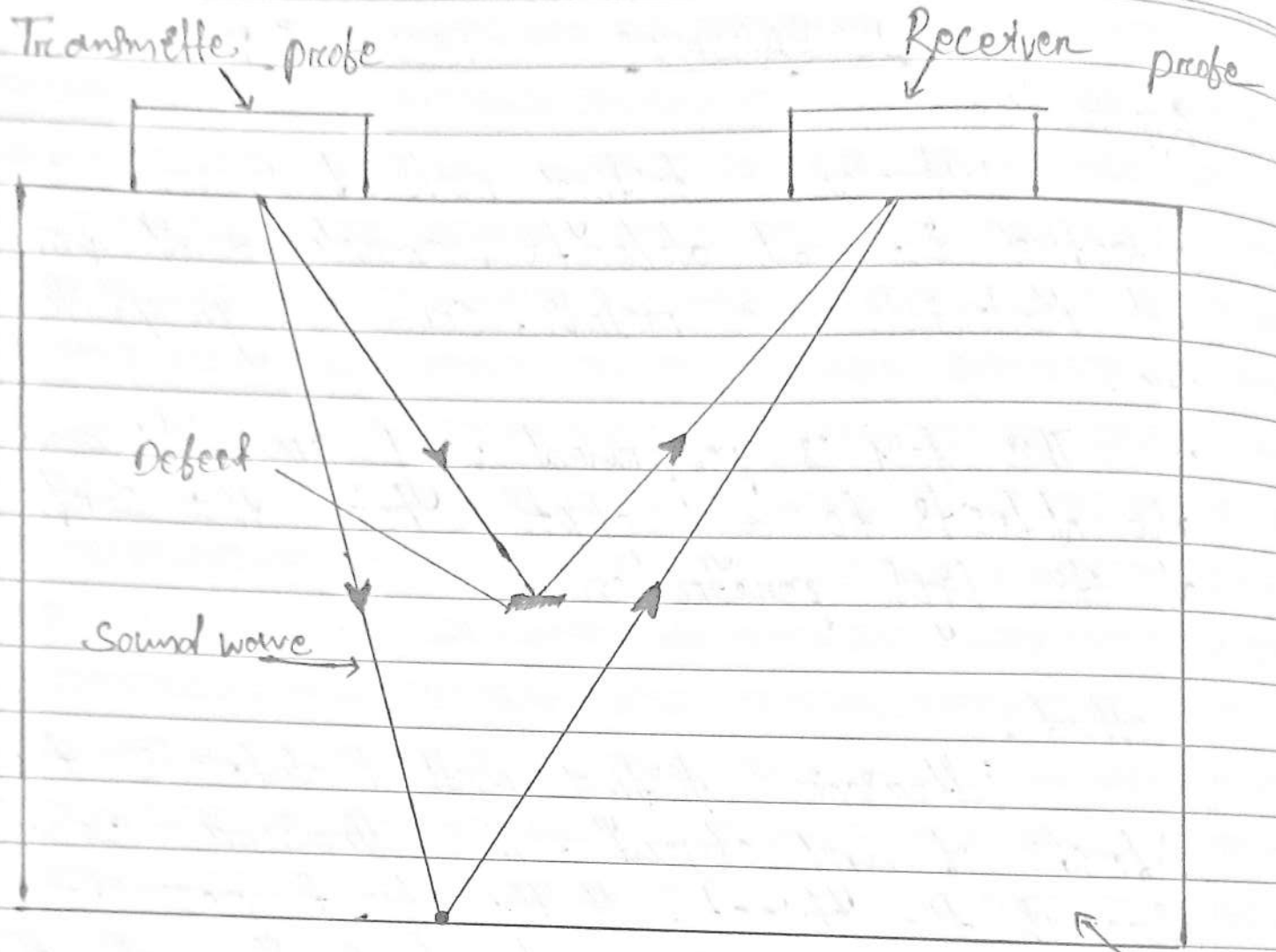
Ultrasonic testing method detects the internal defects of any object. The ultrasonic sound is passed through the object. If the object possesses any defect, the sound wave is reflected through that defective part and returns in a shorter period of time.

In sound object, the ultrasonic sound takes comparatively more time to return to its surface. The time of traveling the sound wave is found by an oscillograph.

Limitation:

Ultrasonic testing method is not well suited for complicated shapes, rough surfaces, small and thin articles and objects in which the structure is not homogenous.

★ Ultrasonic sound: It is a sound of small wavelength beyond the hearing range of human ear.



6. (RADIOGRAPHY TEST)

Application :

Radiography method are commonly used for inspection and determination of internal defects in castings, forging etc.

Radiography is a method of inspection that produces a shadow image of the exterior and interior of an object by absorption of radiations. Radiographs may be taken by X-rays or gamma-rays.

Method :

For conducting the test ; X-Ray or Gamma-Ray are directed on the material. After passing through the material the rays strike on the photographic film to show an image there.

The photographic film can be developed to reveal the formed image which consists of darker and lighter areas.

Since more radiation can pass through less denser areas i.e. cavities, voids, cracks, blowholes etc. these defects will be indicated by lighter portion on the film. The denser part of the material through which less radiation can pass will appear as darker portion on the film. Inclusions will appear more darker on the film.

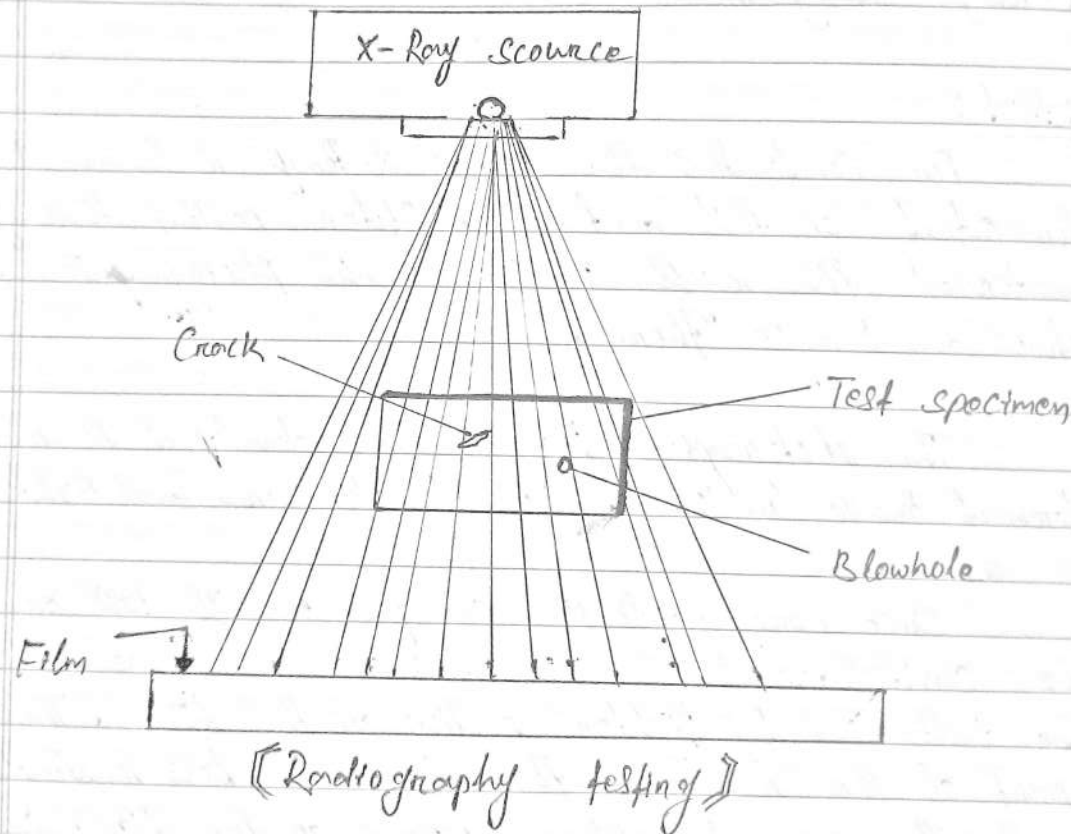
↳ In radiographic test ; the inclusion appear darker while blowhole, cavity, voids, cracks appears lighter than the surrounding metal.

Limitation:

High level precautions is required for handling X-rays & gamma-rays.

Advantages:

This method is quicker and is now gaining more popularity in the field of material testing.



(EDDY CURRENT TESTING)

Application:

This method can be used to detect surface and near surface defects in both ferrous as well as non-ferrous metals. It is a low cost method and prior surface cleaning of the surface component is not required.

Limitation:

It can be only for those materials which are electrical conductors.

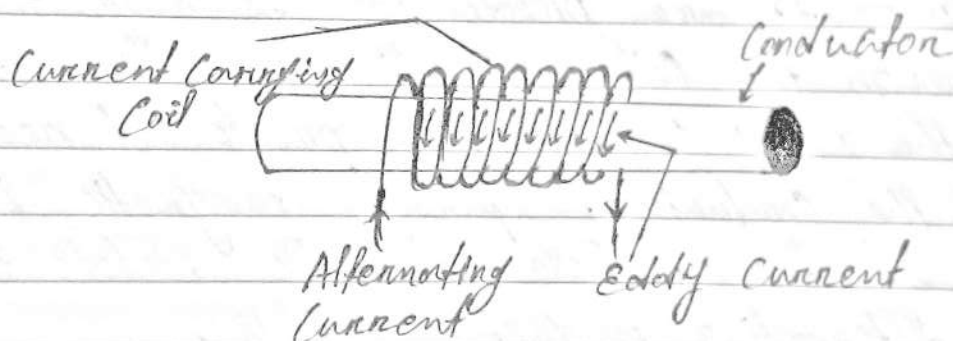
Method:

When an electrical conductor is brought near a coil carrying alternating current, eddy currents or surface currents are produced because the current flowing through the coil produces an alternating magnetic field. As the eddy currents are produced near the surface of the conductor, separate magnetic fields are generated by them. These magnetic fields interact with the alternating magnetic fields.

Consequently, the impedance of the current carrying coil is changed. The changes effected in the impedance of the coil are measured. The defects are then detected by identifying and interpreting the differential characteristic changes in impedance.

Equipments required for Eddy current test :

- ↳ A source of generating eddy currents in the test specimen.
- ↳ A source to sense the changes due to interaction of two types of magnetic fields.
- ↳ A source to detect changes in the impedance.
- ↳ A source to measure and interpret the changes in the impedance.



↳ Principle of generation of Eddy Current

Descriptive Test 3

HARDNESS TEST:

Hardness may be defined as the resistance of a material to withstand abrasion, wear, scratching and indentation.

Hardness is closely related to the strength of a material.

Different method of Hardness tests :-

1. Brinell Hardness Test
2. Rockwell Hardness Test
3. Vickers Hardness Test

1. * Brinell Hardness Test :-

- ↳ This is the most commonly used Hardness Test method.
- ↳ This test is done in Brinell Hardness testing machine.
- ↳ The testing method consists of pressing a hardened steel ball into a test specimen. Generally 10 mm diameter steel ball is used as indenter.
- ↳ The load is maintained for about 10-15 sec, and withdrawn so as to make an impression or indentation on the test specimen.
- ↳ The diameter of the impression is measured.
- ↳ Hence the Brinell Hardness Number (BHN) can be calculated as:

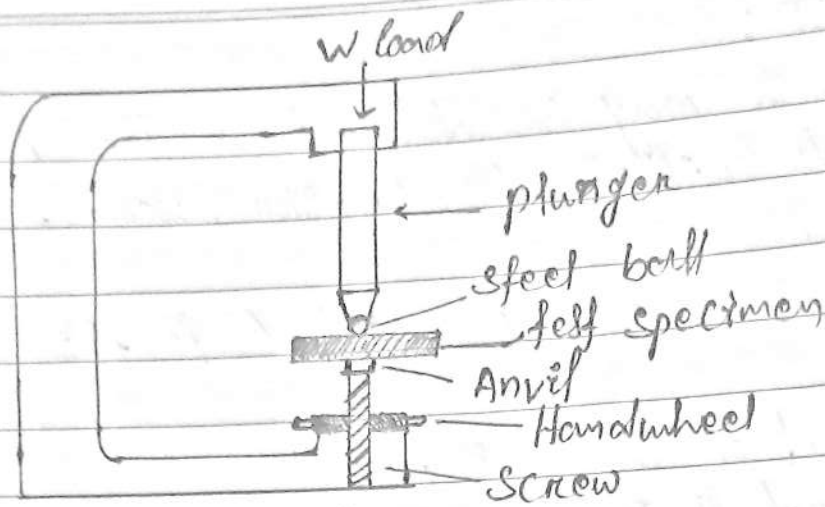
$$\begin{aligned} \text{BHN} &= \frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Area of impression}} \\ &= \frac{W}{\left(\frac{\pi D}{2}\right) (D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2})} \end{aligned}$$

where,

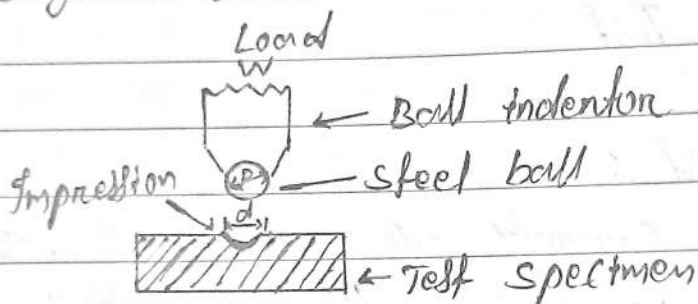
W = Load Applied in kg.

D = Diameter of steel ball (mm)

d = Diameter of the impression (mm)



(Diagram of Brinell Hardness Testing machine)



(Important parameters of Brinell Hardness Test)

- ↳ BHN is the indication of relative hardness of the material.
- ↳ The higher the number, harder the material is.
- ↳ The load applied varies from 500 kg to 3000 kg, according to the material to be tested.
- ↳ Brinell Hardness Test is used for measuring hardness of grey iron castings.

2* Vickers Hardness Test:

- ↳ The procedure adopted for conducting this test is similar to Brinell Hardness test.
- ↳ In Vickers Hardness test a square based diamond pyramid containing 136° angle between opposite faces is used as indenter.
- ↳ In this test the load generally varies from 5 kg to 120 kg.
- ↳ The main advantage of this test is the shape of indenter which ensures a higher accuracy.
- ↳ After the test the Vickers Hardness Number (VHN) or Diamond Pyramid Number (DPN) can be calculated as:

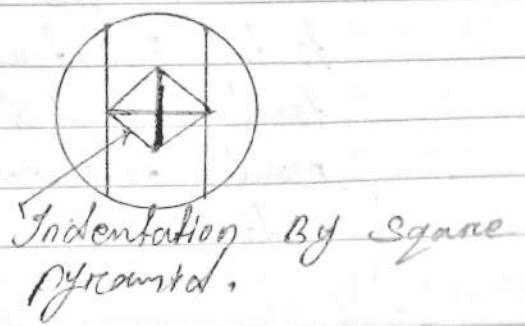
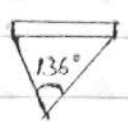
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{VHN} = \text{DPN} &= \frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Area of impression}} \\
 &= \frac{P}{\frac{d^2}{2} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \\
 &= \frac{2P \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}{d^2} = 1.8544 \frac{P}{d^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

(unit is kg/mm^2)

- where, P = applied load in kg
- d = Average diagonal length (mm).
- θ = Angle between opposite faces = 136°

Application:

Vickers Hardness Test is used for very thin and hard metals and alloys.



3* Rockwell Hardness Test:

It is very widely used Hardness test because of its speed and free from personal errors.

- ↳ Rockwell test is faster compared to Brinell test
- ↳ This test gives direct reading.
- ↳ Generally there are two scales in Rockwell Hardness testing machine.

① B-scale

↳ It is used for low and medium cast steel.

↳ In B-scale steel ball indenter is used.

↳ Load (100 kg)

② C-scale

↳ It is used for harder material i.e. alloy cast iron.

↳ In C-scale diamond cone penetrator i.e. 'Brale' is used.

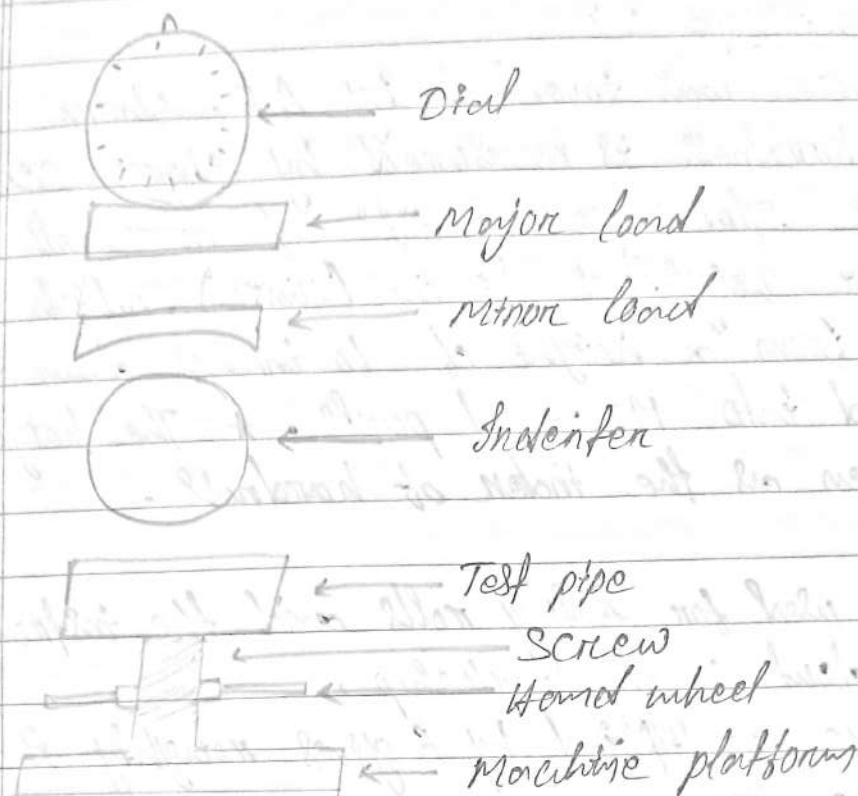
↳ Load (150 kg)

Rockwell test is carried out in 2 stages 1st stage: Minor Load

In this stage the indenter is set against the test specimen and a minor load of 10 kg is applied resulting a very small penetration into the surface.

2nd Stage: Major Load

In this stage a heavier load i.e. (60-150 kg) is applied to the indenter to produce a deeper indentation. This load is called as major load. After the indentation is made the major load is removed and the test gauge indicates the Rockwell Hardness Number.



Moh's scale of Hardness:

This scale devised by German Scientist Friedrich Moh's.

↳ In Moh's scale of Hardness minerals have been arranged in the increasing order of hardness.

Moh's scale

- 1- Talc (Softest)
- 2- Gypsum
- 3- Calcite
- 4- Fluorite
- 5- Apatite
- 6- Orthoclase
- 7- Quartz
- 8- Topaz
- 9- Corundum
- 10- Diamond (Hardest)

Shore's scleroscope :->

This device was invented by A.F. Shore. Rebounded hardness is measured by Shore's scleroscope.

1) The Shore's scleroscope consists of a small diamond pointed hammer weighting $\frac{1}{2}$ oz (ounce), which is allowed to fall freely from a height of 10 inches down a glass tube graduated into 140 equal parts. * The height of rebound is taken as the index of hardness.

- ↳ This test is used for testing rolls and the instrument can be carried about in the workshop.
- ↳ Shore value multiplied by 6 gives roughly the Brinell hardness number.

* The hammer is enclosed in a glass tube which carries graduations when the hammer falls on the surface of the material from a height; it rebounds and the height of this rebound is noted with the help of graduations in the glass tube.

Empirical relationship of hardness with strength

Both hardness and strength are the important properties of materials. The relationship between hardness and strength are quite different for different type of materials.

There is an empirical relationship between hardness and tensile strength.

$$H_v \approx 3\sigma_{UTS}$$

H_v = Hardness value.

σ = ultimate tensile strength.

This means one third of hardness represents the ultimate tensile strength of some materials.

The ratio between hardness to UTS is lower than 3 in materials having good ductility i.e. annealed Cu & Cu-Zn alloys.

The ratio is increased to a high level in materials which exhibit normal fracture behaviour in tensile test.

$H_v = 3\sigma_{UTS}$ The equation is valid for materials with relatively high hardness and better toughness.

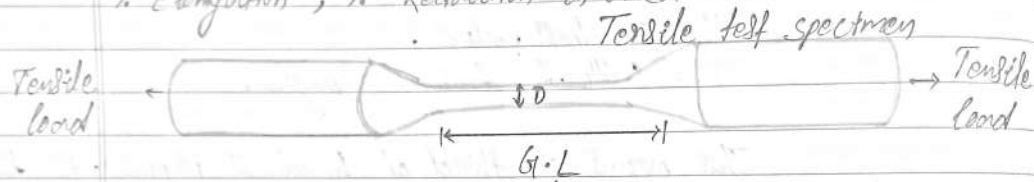
↳ Hardness is approximately 3 times of UTS.

TENSILE TEST

↳ This is a destructive test method of engineering materials. This is the most widely used mechanical test.

↳ Tensile test is done in UTM (Universal Testing Machine).

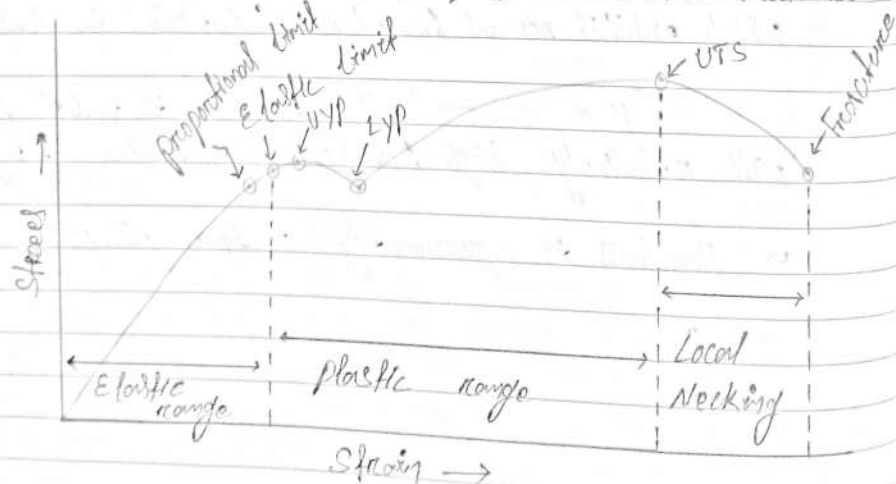
↳ This test helps to determine proportional limit, elastic limit, yield point, ultimate tensile strength, % Elongation, % Reduction in area.



Where, $D = \text{Diameter}$
 $G.L. = \text{Gauge length}$

↳ The round cylindrical test specimen is placed in the tensile testing machine and tensile load is applied until the specimen fractures.

↳ The stress-strain curve for a ductile material



Various tensile properties can be calculated as :-

- ① Elastic limit = $\frac{\text{Max}^m \text{ load within elastic limit}}{\text{Original area of the specimen}}$
- ② Yield strength = $\frac{\text{Load at yield point}}{\text{Original area of the specimen}}$
- ③ U.T.S = $\frac{\text{Max}^m \text{ load}}{\text{Original area of the specimen}}$
- ④ % Elongation = $\frac{\text{Final length} - \text{Original length}}{\text{Original length}} \times 100$
- ⑤ % Reduction in area = $\frac{\text{Original area} - \text{Final area at breaking point}}{\text{Original area}} \times 100$
- ⑥ Breaking strength = $\frac{\text{Breaking load}}{\text{Original area of the specimen}}$

Definition of Ductility :->

Ductility may be defined as the property of a material by virtue of which it can be drawn into wires. Some common ductile metals are lead, tin, silver, aluminium, copper, iron, steel etc.

Definition of Toughness :->

Toughness may be defined as the property of a material by virtue of which it can absorb maximum energy before fracture takes place.

Definition of proof stress :->

Proof stress may be defined as the amount of stress a material can withstand without taking more than a small amount of set, 0.1% - 0.2% of the original gauge length.

↳ Most ductile materials exhibit proof stress.

Definition of stress :->

Stress may be defined as load per unit area.

Definition of strain :->

Strain may be defined as the change in length per unit length of the specimen.

Definition of resilience

Resilience may be defined as the capacity of a material to absorb energy when it is elastically deformed.

Modulus of Elasticity :->

Hooke's law states that ; when a material is loaded within its elastic limit, the stress is proportional to strain.

$$\text{Thus } \frac{\text{Stress}}{\text{Strain}} = E = \text{Constant.}$$

This proportionality constant 'E' is called young's modulus of Elasticity.

yield point phenomenon :->

yield point is the point where the specimen begins to elongate. With the increasing load in any specimen a point comes when elongation increases very rapidly with very slight increase in load. This point is called 'yield point' of that material.

Upper yield point :->

The first behaviour at which materials begins to flow without any increase in load is called 'upper yield point'.

Lower yield point :->

The point at which the stress begins to rise is called 'Lower yield point'.

Engineering Stress

vs

True Stress

↳ Also called conventional stress or normal stress.

↳ Also called natural stress

↳ $\frac{\text{Load}}{\text{original Area}}$

↳ $\frac{\text{Instantaneous load}}{\text{Instantaneous Area}}$

↳ Unit $\text{kgf/mm}^2 / \text{N/mm}^2$

↳ Unit $\text{kgf/mm}^2 / \text{N/mm}^2$

Engineering Strain

vs

True Strain

↳ Also called conventional strain or normal strain.

↳ Also called natural strain

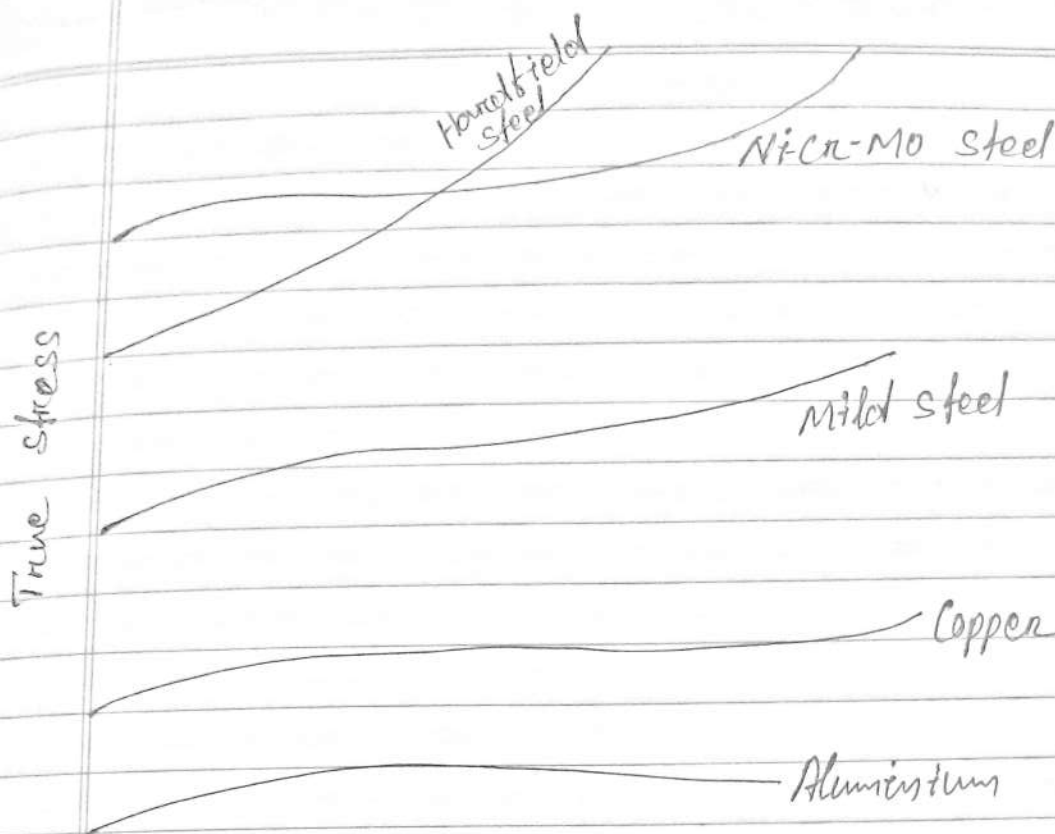
↳ $\frac{\text{Change in length}}{\text{original length}}$

↳ $\frac{\text{Change in length}}{\text{Instantaneous length}}$

↳ $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$

↳ $\int \frac{\Delta L}{L}$

True strain may be defined as the integral of the ratio of an incremental change in length to the instantaneous length of the sample.



True strain \rightarrow

The true stress - true strain curves for a number of materials & Alloys.

Q. A mild steel of 13 mm diameter was tested for tensile test with a gauge length of 50 mm. The following observations are:

Final length = 65 mm

Final dia = 8 mm

yield load = 6800 kg

maximum load = 8400 kg

Fracture load = 7300 kg

Calculate the yield strength, UTS, breaking strength, % Elongation and % Reduction in area.