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Third Semester B.E. Degree Examination, Jan./Feb. 2021 Material Science

Time: 3 hrs.

Max. Marks: 100

Note: Answer any FIVE full questions, choosing ONE full question from each module.

Module-1

- 1 a. Calculate APF for FCC crystal structure. (06 Marks)
- b. Discuss briefly point and line imperfections in crystals. (06 Marks)
- c. What is Fick's law of diffusion? Explain the factors affecting diffusion. (08 Marks)

OR

- 2 a. With a stress – strain diagram for mild steel. Explain yield strength, ductility, toughness and ultimate tensile strength. (06 Marks)
- b. Show that $\epsilon' = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$. (04 Marks)
- c. A plain – carbon steel rod is subjected to a tensile load of 7000 kg. Assume no change in volume during extension, determine engineering stress, engineering strain, true stress and true - strain. The initial diameter of the rod is 13mm and the specimen under load is 12mm. (10 Marks)

Module-2

- 3 a. Discuss Type I, Type II and Type III fractures. (10 Marks)
- b. What is Fatigue? Explain fatigue testing with a sketch. (06 Marks)
- c. Explain three stages of Creep process. (04 Marks)

OR

- 4 a. What is a Solid solution? Discuss Hume – Rothary rules for formation of Solid - solution. (05 Marks)
- b. Draw a neat Iron – Carbon equilibrium diagram and label all phases and write invariant reactions like eutectoid, eutectic and peritectic reactions. (10 Marks)
- c. Derive an expression for critical radius in homogeneous nucleation and discuss the significance of this critical radius. (05 Marks)

Module-3

- 5 a. Explain Annealing, Normalizing and Hardening heat treatment processes. (06 Marks)
- b. With the help of TTT and CCT diagrams, explain mar tempering and give one industrial application. (10 Marks)
- c. What is Hardenability? Discuss various factors affecting hardenability. (04 Marks)

OR

- 6 a. Discuss 'Nitriding' and 'Flame – hardening' processes. (08 Marks)
- b. With Al - Cu phase diagram, explain age – hardening process. (08 Marks)
- c. Explain properties, composition and uses of Gray Cast Iron. (04 Marks)

Module-4

- 7 a. Give a broad classification of composites. (04 Marks)
- b. Discuss various applications of composites. (06 Marks)
- c. Explain 'Pultrusion process' for manufacturing composites. (10 Marks)

OR

- 8 a. Discuss 'Characterization of Composites'. (06 Marks)
b. Explain 'Filament winding process' for producing FRPs. (08 Marks)
c. Calculate the modulus of elasticity, tensile strength and the fraction of the load carried by the fibre for the following composite material stresses under iso strain condition. The composite consists of a continuous glass fibre – reinforced epoxy resin produced by using 60% by volume of E – glass fiber having a modulus of elasticity of $72400 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ and a tensile strength of $2400 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ and a hardened epoxy resin with a modulus of elasticity of $3100 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$ and a tensile strength of $60 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$. (06 Marks)

Module-5

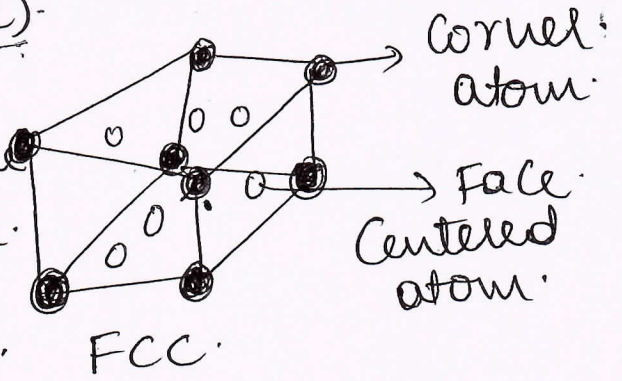
- 9 a. Explain types and properties of Ceramics. (08 Marks)
b. Explain 'Injection and Moulding' process for producing polymers. (06 Marks)
c. List out various applications of ceramics and polymers. (06 Marks)

OR

- 10 a. What are Smart Materials? Discuss the functioning of shape memory alloy. (08 Marks)
b. Explain biological and other applications of SMA. (06 Marks)
c. What are the factors to be considered for the Selection of materials? Discuss. (06 Marks)

1a. FCC (Face Centered Cubic)

One FCC unit cell has an atom at each corner of the cube, as well as one atom at the center of each of the six faces.

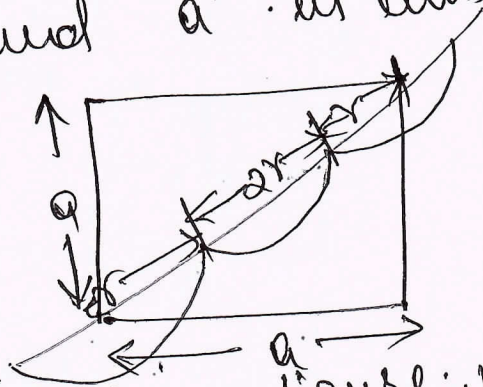


There is only $1/8$ of each corner atom effectively inside the cell where as $1/2$ of the vol. of each atom at the center of the face is all within the unit cell.

Therefore, Effective

no. of atoms in FCC one unit cell = $8 \times 1/8 + 6 \times 1/2 = 4$ atoms

To find 'a' in terms of 'r'



From above figure, where $r =$ radius of the atom

$$(4r)^2 = a^2 + a^2$$

$$4r = \sqrt{2a^2} = \sqrt{2} \cdot a$$

$$a = \frac{4r}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\text{APF} = \frac{\text{No. of atoms} \times \text{vol. of each atom}}{\text{vol. of unit cell}}$$

$$= \frac{4 \times 4\pi r^3}{4 \times 4\pi r^3 / 3 \times \left(\frac{4r}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^3}$$

$$\text{APF} = \frac{3a^3}{0.74} = 74\%$$

① Given

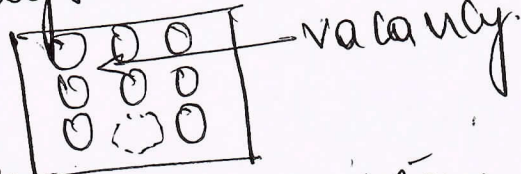
Q.6. Discuss briefly point & line imperfections in crystals.

§§

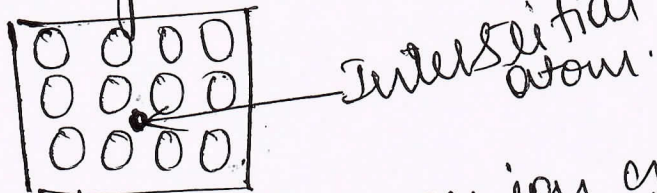
Point imperfections:

1) vacancy: A vacancy refers to an atomic site from which the atom is missing. This may be due to imperfect packing during original crystallization.

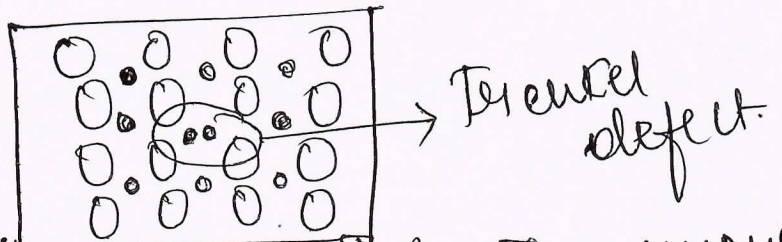
2) Schottky defect: - If two ions of opposite charges are missing but all found elsewhere in the same crystal, called as Schottky defect.



3) Interstitially: Here, a small sized foreign atom occupies the space in b/w the atoms of a crystal without dislodging any of the parent atoms.



4) Frenkel defect: When an ion of the same crystal tries to occupy an interstitial position jumping from another site, then it is called 'Frenkel defect'.



5) Substitutional impurity: - This impurity is created when a foreign atom is substituted a parent atom in the lattice structure.

② Grain

are either compressed or pulled apart.
 2. Screw dislocation or Cross slip

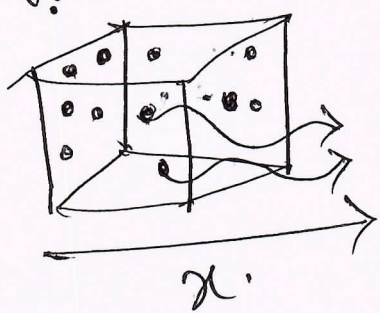
* A screw dislocation is also a line defect formed when a part of the crystal displace tangentially over the remaining part. The plane of atoms converts into a helical surface.

* Burgers vector 'b' is always parallel to screw dislocation respectively.

1. c What is Fick's law of diffusion? Explain the factors affecting diffusion.

Q1

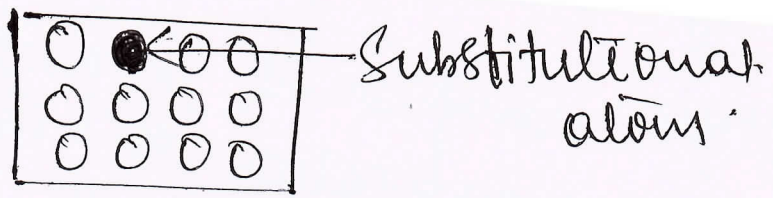
The movement of individual molecules through a substance by virtue of their thermal molecular energy is known as diffusion.



$C =$ Concentration, no. of molecules per unit.
 $\frac{dc}{dx} =$ Change in concentration moving from left to right.

Factors affecting atomic diffusion
 $J =$ Flux.

1) Temperature - High temperature provides the necessary activation energy to the atoms to begin diffusion. So at higher temperature, diffusion is faster.



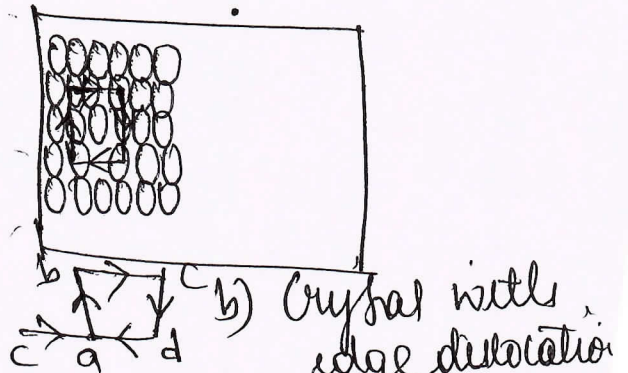
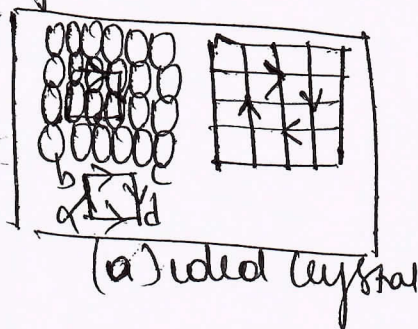
Line imperfections: Line imperfections are called dislocations. A dislocation is a defect where a uniform alignment of atoms is broken to form a discontinuity or a localized distortion in the crystal.

1) Edge dislocation 2) Screw dislocation or cross slip.

1. Edge dislocation

* Consider a perfect crystal fig (a) to be made of a number of vertical planes of atoms. If one of these vertical planes does not extend from top to bottom.

* But ends at only a part of the way within the crystal as shown in fig (b) an edge dislocation is present.



* In the perfect crystal, the atoms are in equilibrium positions and all the bond lengths are of equilibrium value. When there is an imperfect crystal, the atoms do not occupy equilibrium positions; & the bond lengths.

the

i) Yield Strength:- Yield strength is defined as the stress required to produce a small, specified amount of plastic deformation.

$$\text{Yield Stress } (\sigma_y) = \frac{F_y}{A_0}$$

where F_y = load at yield point.
 A_0 = original c/s area of the specimen.

ii) Ductility:- Ductility refers to the ability of a material to undergo plastic deformation under tensile load. Ductility is measured by the percentage elongation or % reduction in area before rupture of the specimen take place.

$$\% \text{ Elongation} = \frac{L_f - L_0}{L_0} \times 100$$

$$\% \text{ reduction in c/s area} = \frac{A_0 - A_f}{A_0} \times 100$$

iii) Toughness:- Toughness is defined as the ability of a material to withstand both elastic & plastic deformation. It is a measure of the energy a material can absorb before it fractures.

iv) ultimate tensile strength

ultimate tensile strength is defined as the maximum stress sustained by the material before fracture.

$$\text{ultimate stress } (\sigma_u) = \frac{\text{ultimate load } (F_u)}{\text{original cross-sectional area } (A_0)}$$

2) Crystal Structure: - if a crystal structure is distorted i.e., if there are more imperfections the rate of diffusion is increased.

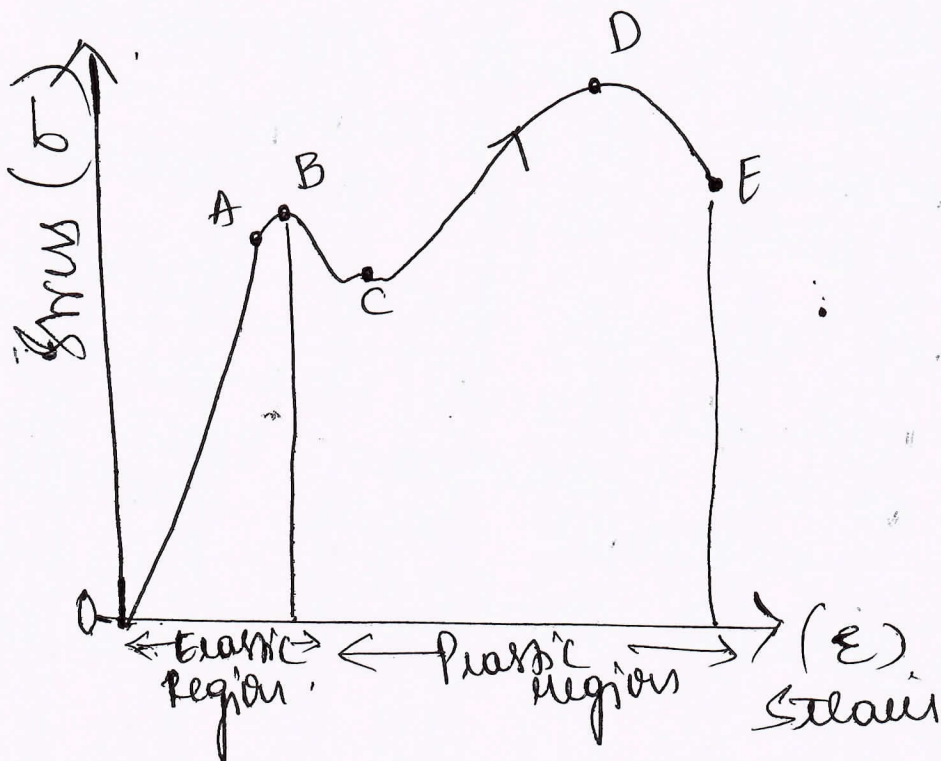
3) Atomic Packing Factor: - if APF is high, the rate of diffusion will be decreased.

4) Grain boundaries: - The diffusion process proceeds more rapidly along the grain boundaries since it is a row of crystal imperfections.

5) Grain size: - Since diffusion through grain boundaries is faster than through the grain themselves, a material with fine grains will have a faster rate of diffusion.

6) Atomic size: - Diffusion occurs more readily when the size of the diffusing atom is less.

Q. a)



Q. b) Grain

Engineering stress σ , $\sigma = \frac{P}{A_0} = \frac{68.7 \times 10^3}{132.73} = 517.35 \text{ N/mm}^2$

True stress, $\sigma_t = \frac{P}{A_i} = \frac{68.7 \times 10^3}{113.1} = 607.17 \text{ N/mm}^2$

Ans $\sigma' = \sigma (1 + \epsilon)$

Engineering strain, $\epsilon = \frac{\sigma'}{\sigma} - 1$
 $= \frac{607.17}{517.35} - 1 = 0.1736$

True strain = $\epsilon' = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$
 $= \ln(1 + 0.1736) = 0.1611$

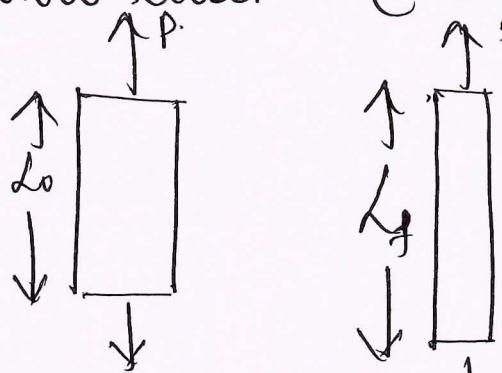
3a. Sol * Type I or Ductile fracture
 Propagation is characterised by slow crack. Plastic deformation resulting in an extensive fracture. It is characterised by appreciable amount of plastic deformation of the material before fracture. The fracture surface is ductile and the fracture proceeds relatively slowly as appearance. It is characterised by appreciable amount of plastic deformation of the material before fracture. The fracture surface is ductile and the fracture proceeds relatively slowly as appearance.

a) Highly ductile fracture :-
 In this type, the material necks down to a point of fracture & yields to 100% reduction in cross area. For example: soft metal like pure gold, lead etc.

(7) Guin

Qb.

Show that $\epsilon' = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$



L.K.T. Conventional $\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L_0} = \frac{L_1 - L_0}{L_0}$ Engineering strain

$$\epsilon = \frac{L_1}{L_0} - 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \epsilon + 1 = \frac{L_1}{L_0} \quad (1)$$

L.K.T. True strain $\epsilon' = \int_{L_0}^{L_1} \frac{dL}{L}$

$$\epsilon' = \ln \left(\frac{L_1}{L_0} \right) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Substituting equation (1) in (2).

$$\epsilon' = \ln(\epsilon + 1)$$

$$\epsilon' = \ln(1 + \epsilon)$$

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Given Load, $P = 7000 \text{ kg}$
 $= 7000 \times 9.81 = 68.7 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$

original diameter, $d_0 = 13 \text{ mm}$

$$\text{original Area} = A_0 = \frac{\pi d_0^2}{4} = \frac{\pi (13)^2}{4}$$

instantaneous diameter $d_i = 12 \text{ mm}$

$$\text{instantaneous Area, } A_i = \frac{\pi d_i^2}{4} = \frac{\pi (12)^2}{4}$$

d) As the load increases, the crack continues to grow in a direction parallel to its major axis.

e) Finally, the fracture results due to rapid propagation of crack. The fractured surface has a characteristic fibrous appearance with one of its sides having "cone" & another having "cup" like structure.

2) Type II or Brittle fracture :

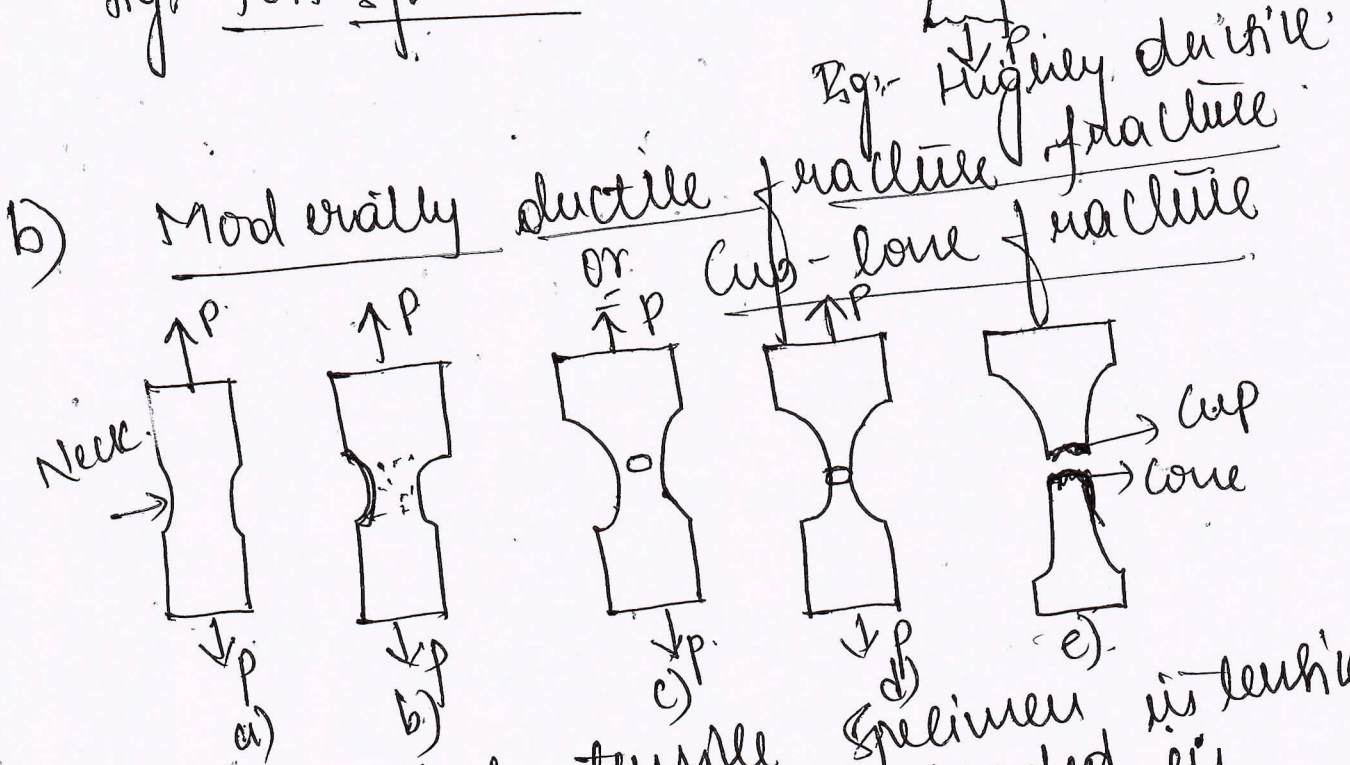
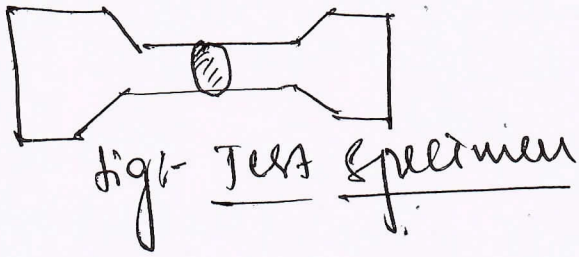
* Brittle fracture occurs suddenly without any plastic deformation or at best with very little plastic deformation.

* It is generally characterized by a rapid propagation of crack. Like in ductile fracture, here also small cavities join together to form a crack & this crack propagates.

* But all these stages happen instantly & the material failure takes place suddenly.

* Brittle fracture in metals for example cast iron can be considered to occur in the following stages.

*) Initial plastic deformation starts along the slip planes or obstacles which prevent further plastic deformation.



* Consider a std. tensile specimen is loaded in tension & when yield stress is reached the yield stress, the plastic deformation take place

* After the specimen can be observed in the following stages of plastic deformation

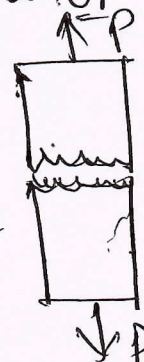
a) - initial necking (or) reduction of cross section also take place.

b) - Further loading result in the appearance of small cavities or voids in the interior of the specimen.

c) as the load is increased, these minute cavities join together to form an elliptical void which has its long axis perpendicular to direction of load.

ii) Since dislocations are blocked, shear stresses build up which result in the nucleation of micro cracks.

iii) Further increase in the stress will favour the propagation of the micro cracks which finally results in failure or fracture.



3) Type III or Shear fracture

* This type of fracture is found in ductile single crystals.

* This is promoted by shear stress & occurs as a result of extensive slip on the active slip plane.

* Fracture surfaces are normally at 45° to the direction of tensile load & appear shiny owing to extensive slip between the surfaces before fracture.



3.6 in fatigue failure, fracture of B.C. material takes place because of repetitive or fluctuating stress is applied for some period of time; in which the cracks

gradually grown until they finally reach a critical level.

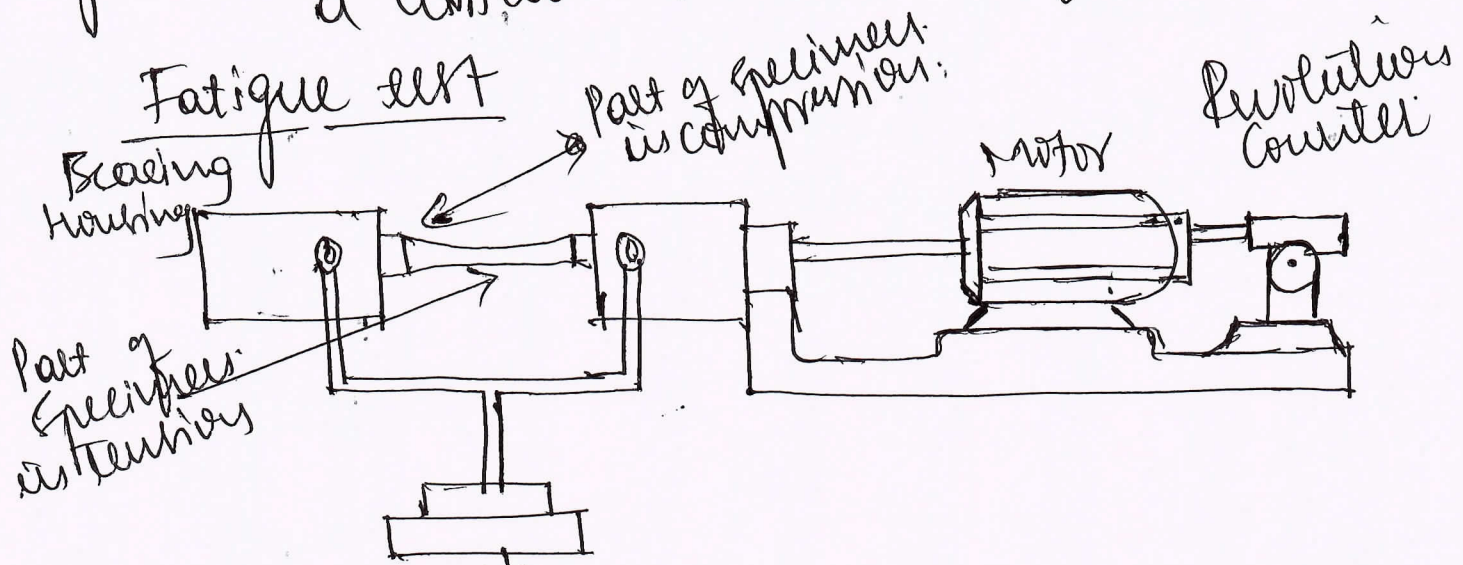


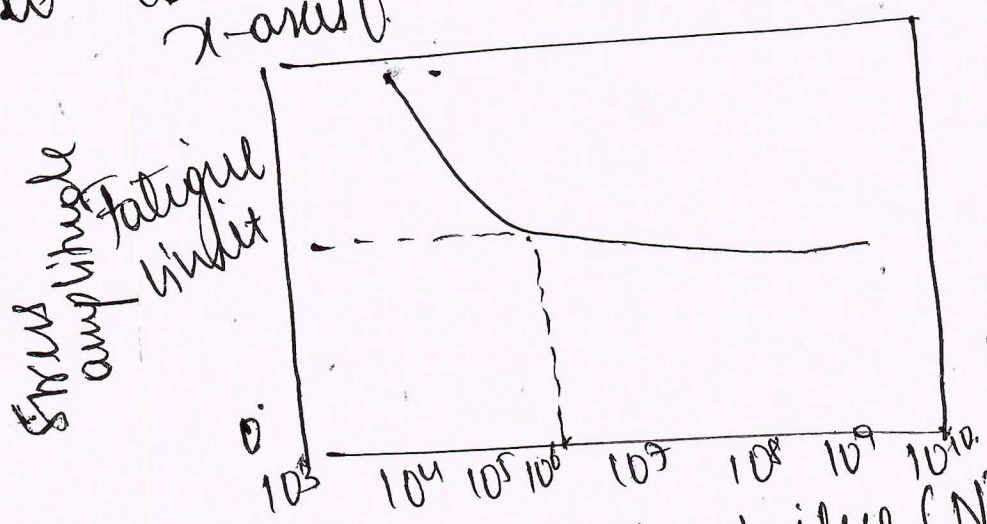
Figure 1 Reversed-bending fatigue machine

- * Fatigue tests can be carried out in a number of ways depending on the type of load used to initiate propagate a crack. E.g. Cause fracture in a material.
- * Fatigue test (Rotating-beam type) The machine consists mainly an electric motor, bearings & collars to support the specimen, & a revolutions counter as shown in figure above.

* A weight is attached at the center of the specimen in order to place the specimen in a state of bending. When the specimen is rotated by a motor the center of the specimen will be under tension on the lower surface & compression on the upper surface due to the weight.

in the center of the apparatus. Hence the specimen while rotating is subjected to alternate tensile & compressive stresses.

The revolution counter records the number of cycle applied to the specimen, & when the specimen breaks, the counter automatically disengages. A no. of specimens of the same material are tested under different stress levels. & the results are plotted on a semi-logarithmic scale with stress on y-axis & the no. of cycles (N) on x-axis.



No. of cycles to failure (N) on logarithmic scale.

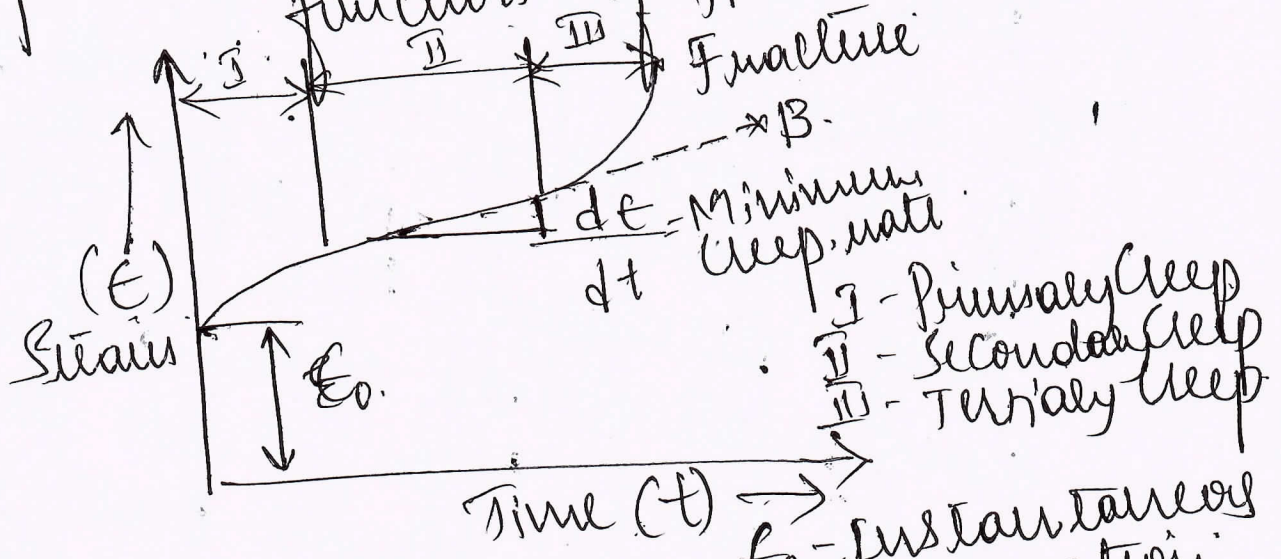
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Stages of Creep

* Creep deformation upto failure is all divided into 3 stages & can be studied using a creep curve plot.

(13) Creep materials & can be studied using a creep curve plot.

* The strain or the elongation of the specimen is then determined as a function of time.



i) Primary Creep - it is the first stage of creep which represents a region of decreasing creep rate at which the material deforms with time with a constant value.

* Primary period of transient creep ϵ is important for those materials which undergo creep at room temperature.

* Here the metal deforms ϵ and undergoes strain hardening ϵ offers more resistance to further elongation.

(14) Creep

ii)

Secondary Creep

- This stage is a period of nearly constant creep rate. The creep rate is constant because strain hardening & recovery effect balance each other.
- * The average value of the creep rate here is called as minimum creep rate.
 - * This is important part of the curve because most of the working components will be in this state.
 - * Also creep in this region take place due to this slow flow of the material & is also called as "Steady State Creep".

iii)

Tertiary Creep

- This stage is the period of increasing strain rate. Tearing creep occurs when there is an effective reduction in the cross section due to necking or internal void formation.
- * Thus the stresses at the C/S area increase & creep equally the value of the strain and increase at faster rate before the occurrence of fracture.

5) Quin

* If the stress is kept constant instead of the load or if the time strain is taken after consideration then the resulting fracture due to the creep would be at 'B' as shown in the above graph.

49. Soj A solid solution is simply a solution in the solid state & consist of two kinds of atoms in one type of space lattice.

Hume-Rothery rule for formation of solid solutions

- i) Crystal structure factor: - For complete solid solubility of two elements they should have same type of crystal lattice structure.
- ii) Relative size factor: - The atoms of solute & solvent should have same atomic size approximately.

iii) Chemical affinity factor: - For a substitutional solid solution to form the two metals should have v.l.e. i.e. chemical affinity.

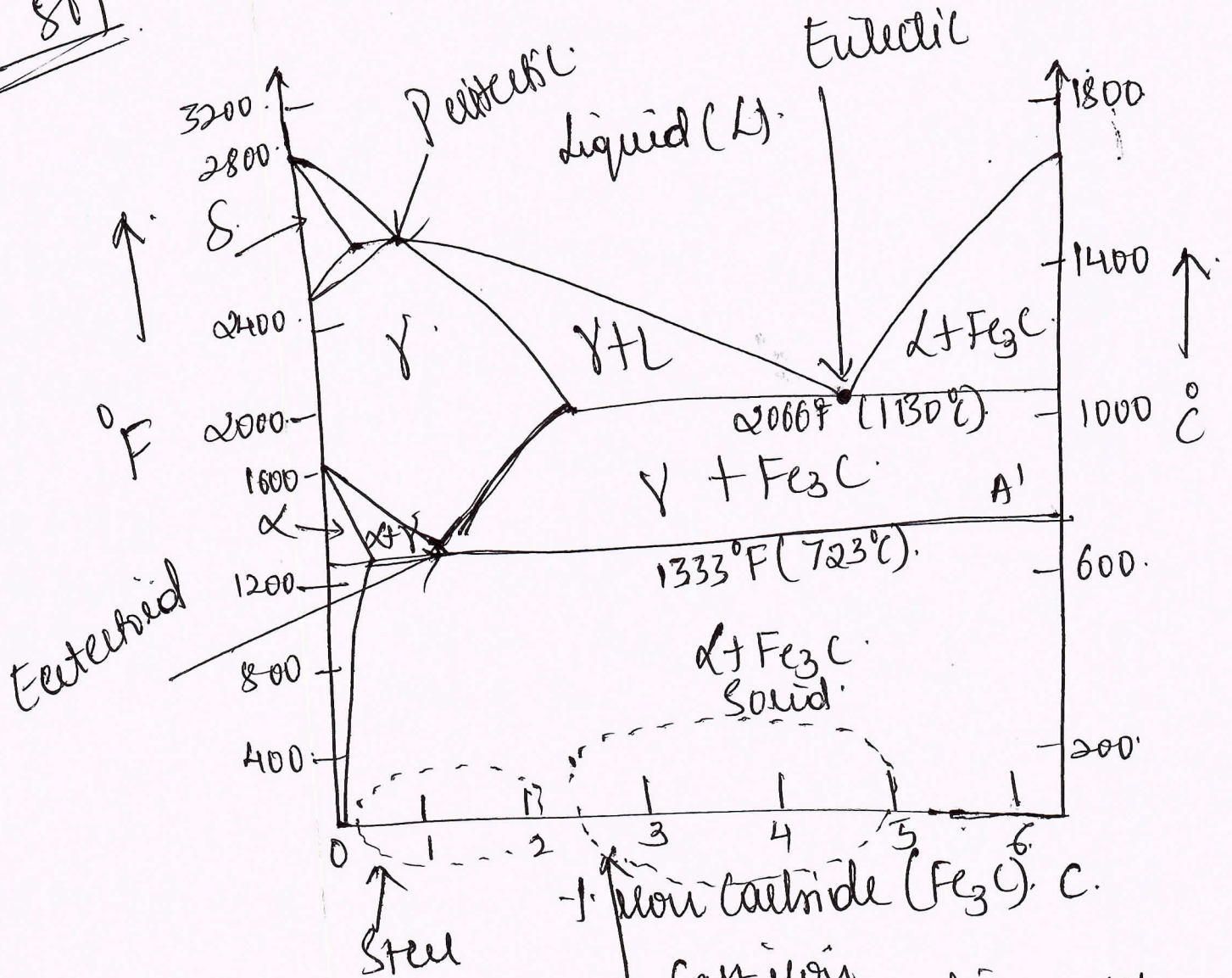
iv) Electronegativity: - Electronegativity is the tendency to acquire electron. Higher the electronegativity of the

two elements, greater will be the chances of forming an intermediate phase rather than a solid solution.

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Iron-Carbon equilibrium diagram.



A above figure shows the phase diagram contains certain points specified by particular temperature, pressure & composition at which multiple phase can coexist in equilibrium. Any change in these variables cause the equilibrium to disappear of phases i.e., phase are no equilibrium anymore.

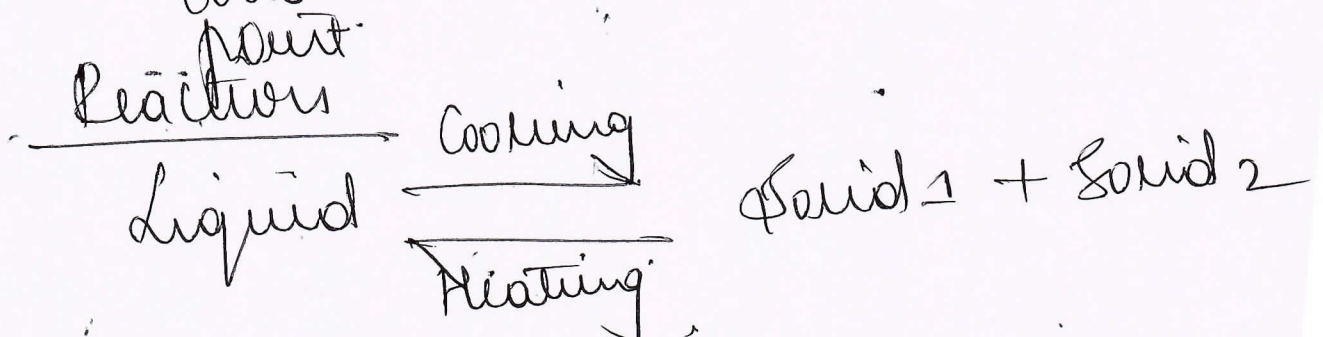
These points are known as invariant points & they represent an invariant reaction.

There are three invariant reactions all present in Fe_3C-C system.

- i) Eutectic reaction
- ii) Eutectoid reaction
- iii) Peritectic reaction

Eutectic reaction: - Binary systems with limited solubility are of eutectic type. It is so called because an alloy system having a eutectic composition melts at lowest possible temperature than all other composition of the binary alloy.

The point at which the solid & liquid phases co-exist under equilibrium condition is known as the eutectic point.



Eutectoid transformation

* Eutectoid reaction is similar to eutectic reaction except that it features a solid to solid transformation where one solid phase is converted into two solid phases upon cooling.

Solid 1 $\xrightarrow{\text{Cooling}}$ Solid 2 + Solid 3
 $\xleftarrow{\text{Heating}}$

Ex: Fe-C system undergoes eutectoid transformation at 723°C for a composition of 0.8 wt% C in iron.

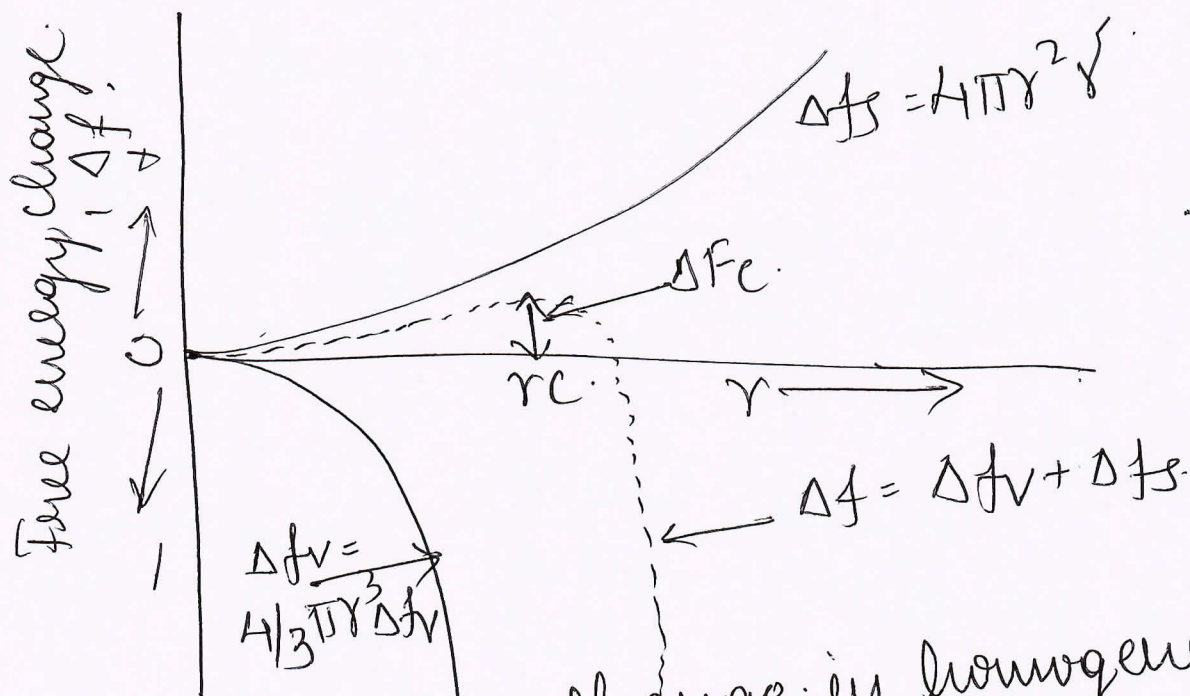
A Peritectic reaction is also an invariant reaction where three phases co-exist under equilibrium conditions.

Liquid + Solid 1 $\xrightarrow{\text{Cooling}}$ Solid 2
 $\xleftarrow{\text{Heating}}$

Ex: Fe-C system undergoes peritectic reaction at 1495°C for a composition of 0.16 wt% Carbon in iron.

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- * Homogeneous nucleation is one occurring in perfectly homogeneous materials
- * Homogeneous nucleation as pure liquid metals of ordered groups of atoms forming small zones of higher density.
- * Nucleation of the supercooled phase. This total free energy change for a particle of radius r is $\Delta f = -4/3\pi r^3 \Delta F V + 4\pi r^2 \gamma$



Free energy change in homogeneous nucleations.

* Above figure shows that as the particle radius increases, the free energy Δf also increases till the particle grows to a critical radius (r_c), & thereafter as increase in particle radius a comparison with decrease in free energy & so result that the free energy become negative also.

* Particles having radius less than (r_c) leads to unstable & thus lower the free energy.

* Particles having radius more than (r_c) tend to grow & lower free energy. Such particles are known as nuclei.

* Critical particle radius & critical free energy can be calculated by maximizing equation

$$\Delta f = -\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \Delta F_V + 4\pi r^2 \gamma$$

$$\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta r} = 0 = -3 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi r^2 \Delta F_V + 2 \times 4\pi r \gamma$$

$$\left[r_c = \frac{2\gamma}{\Delta F_V} \right]$$

5a.
81

Annealing primarily is the process of heating a metal a metal which is in metastable or distorted structural state to a temperature which will remove the instability or distortions & then cooling so that the room temperature structure is stable and/or stress free.

Purpose of annealing are:-

- * inducing a completely stable structure
- * Refining & homogenizing the structure.
- * Reducing hardness.
- * Improving machinability.
- * Removing residual stresses.

Normalizing:

Normalizing or air quenching consists in heating steel to about $40^\circ\text{C} - 50^\circ\text{C}$ above

21) Quin

its upper critical temperature & if necessary, holding it at that temperature for a short time & then cooling in still air at room temperature.

* Normalising produces microstructure consisting of ferrite & pearlite for hypoeutectoid steel.

Normalising purpose:

- * Produce a uniform structure.
- * Reduce internal stresses.
- * Improve structure in welds.
- * Produces a harder & stronger steel than full annealing.

Hardening

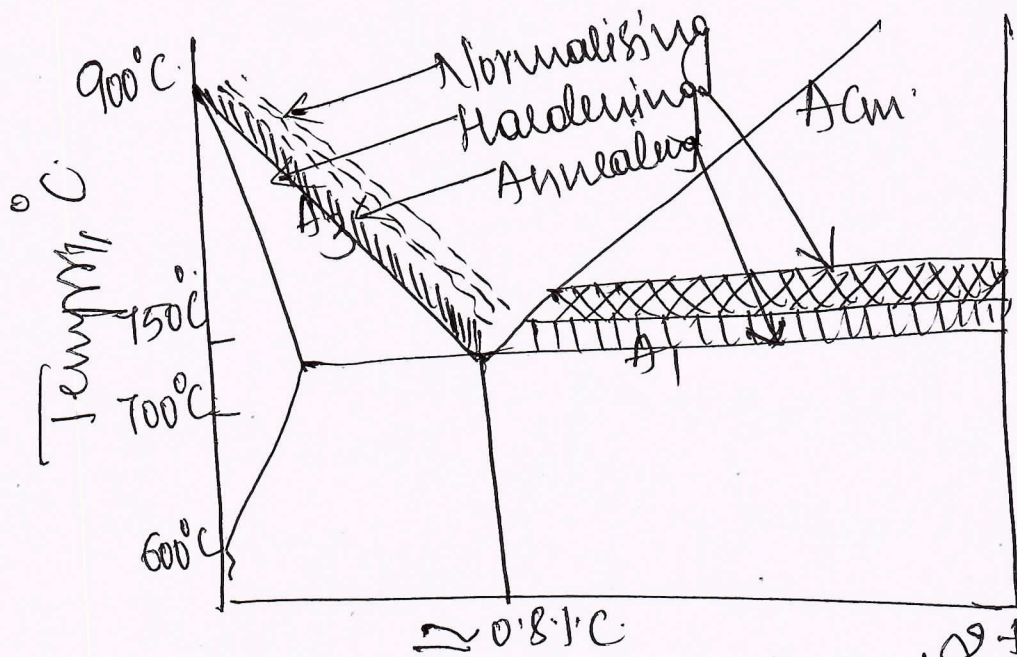
* Hardening is that heat treatment of steel which increases its hardness by quenching.

* Tools & machine parts required to undergo heavy duty service are often hardened.

Procedure:-

- * Steel with sufficient carbon (0.35-1.0%)
- * is heated 30 to 50°C above A_3 line (from figure)
- * is held at that temperature for 15 to 30 min. per 25 mm of C/S.
- * is cooling rapidly, or quenched in a suitable medium.

TO produce desired rate of cooling & a suitable hardened steel.



Heat treatment temperature for C.
Carbon Steel :

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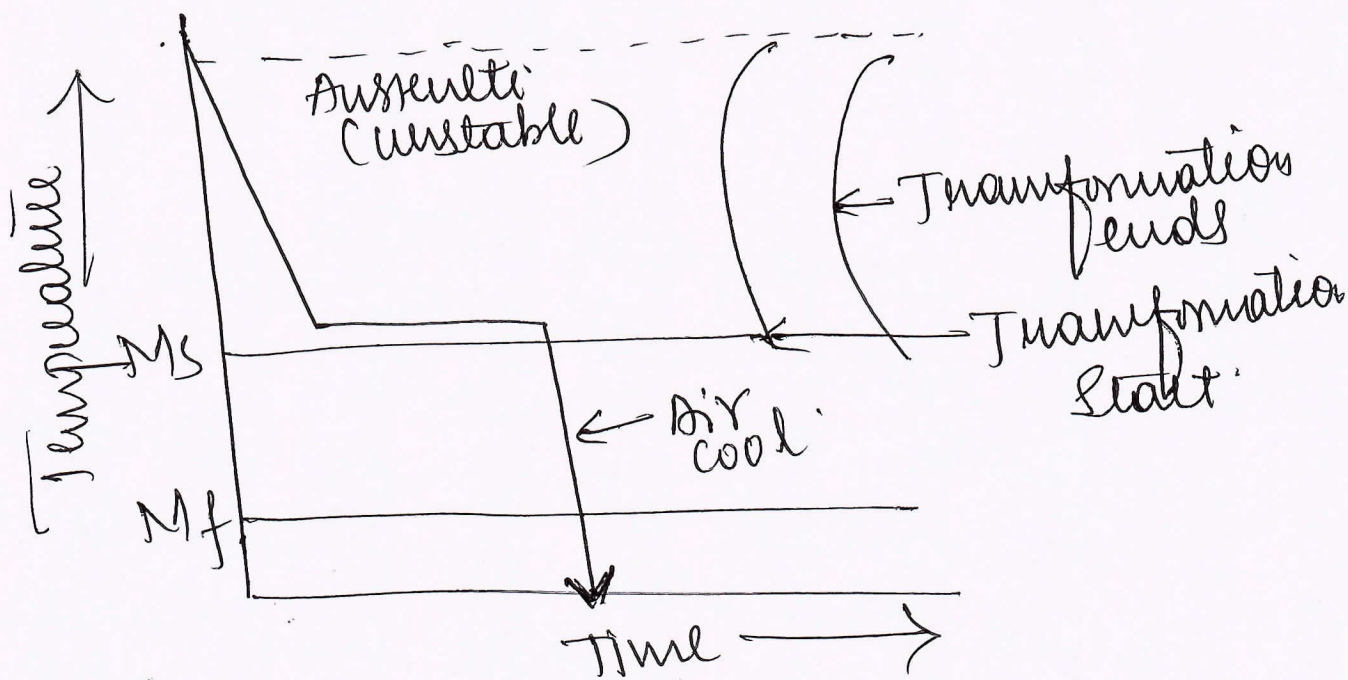
- i) In normalizing, steel is heated to above the critical range to make it all austenite, is then,
- ii) quenched into a salt bath maintained at a temperature above the M_s & is held at this temperature long enough until the temperature is uniform across the section of the workpiece. without transformation of the austenite. Subsequently cooling the workpiece in air through the water M_s range.

23) (1/2)

The result is the formation of martensite with a minimum of stresses, distortion & cracking.

- The steel thus obtained may be further tempered in order to increase ductility.

- Large sections cannot be heat treated by martempering because the time required to obtain temperature uniformity exceeds the start of transformation of austenite into bainite.



5C Sol. * Hardenability is the ability of a material to get hardened as a result of hardening heat treatment process.

Factors affecting hardenability:

Composition of steel & the method of manufacture.

Q.4) ~~Q.4) ...~~

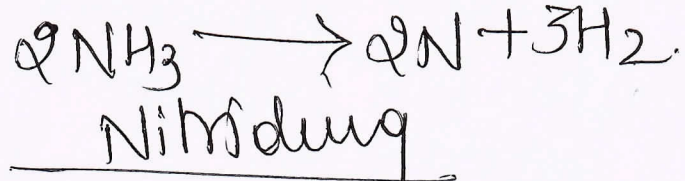
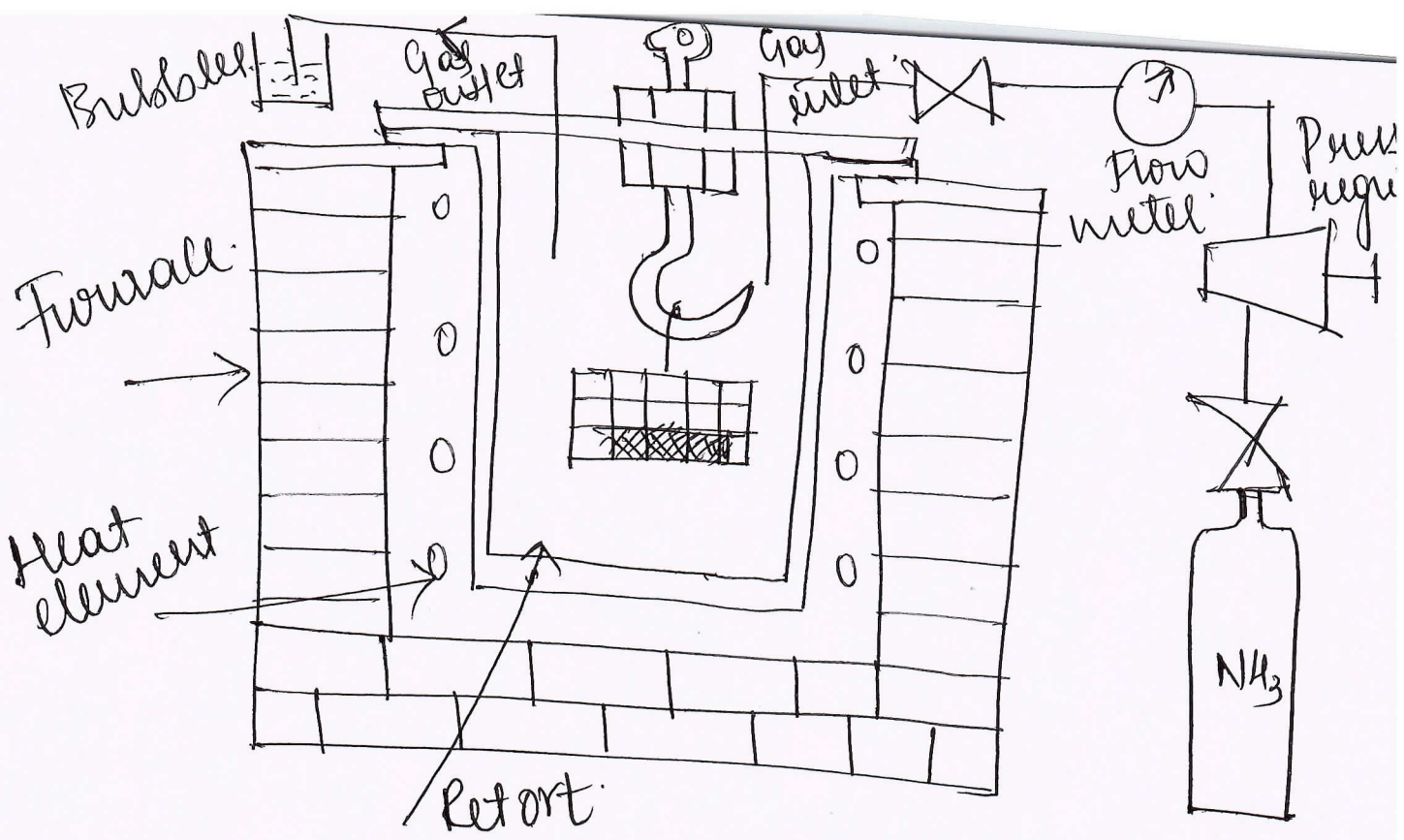
- ii) Quenching medium & the method of quenching.
- iii) Section (thickness) of steel.
- iv) Composition of steel:- For plain carbon steels, as % of carbon increases, *
- v) Austenitic grain size:- with increase in austenite grain size before quenching hardness ability increases.
- vi) Homogeneity of austenite:- Non homogeneity of austenite tends to decrease hardenability of steel.

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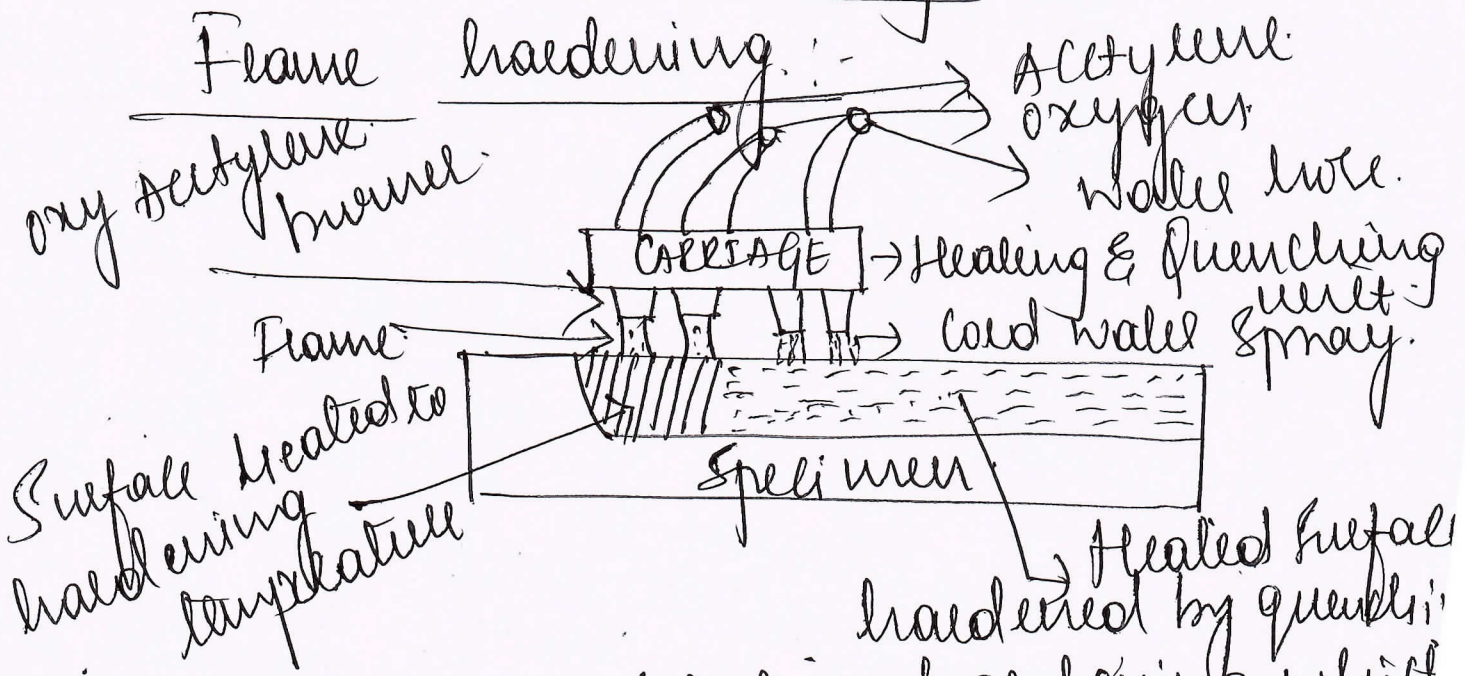
Nitriding:

It's process by which a case of hardened steel can be achieved. In nitriding, the steel piece is heated in a furnace b/w 500-600°C & at the same time is exposed to ammonia gas (NH₃). The heat from the furnace causes the ammonia to decompose into hydrogen & nitrogen (N₂). Nitrogen reacts with elements in steel to form nitrides in the outer layer of the steel providing high hardness & wear resistance. Nitriding time range b/w 1-100 hrs depending on steel composition & depth desired.

5/Quin



Flame hardening :-



* It is a process of selective hardening, which involves heating the surface of a steel specimen with oxy-acetylene flame & then immediately quenching the surface of the specimen by cold water to get martensite. Here only heated surface become hard & rest part remains soft.

→ The depth of hardening depends on the heat supplied per unit surface area per unit time (i.e.) faster the movement lesser the depth by hardening.

→ The figure represents moving frame hardening where the treating torch moves over a stationary workpiece. followed by quenching used for surface hardening of rails & guide ways.

Qb. Age hardening of Al-Cu alloys

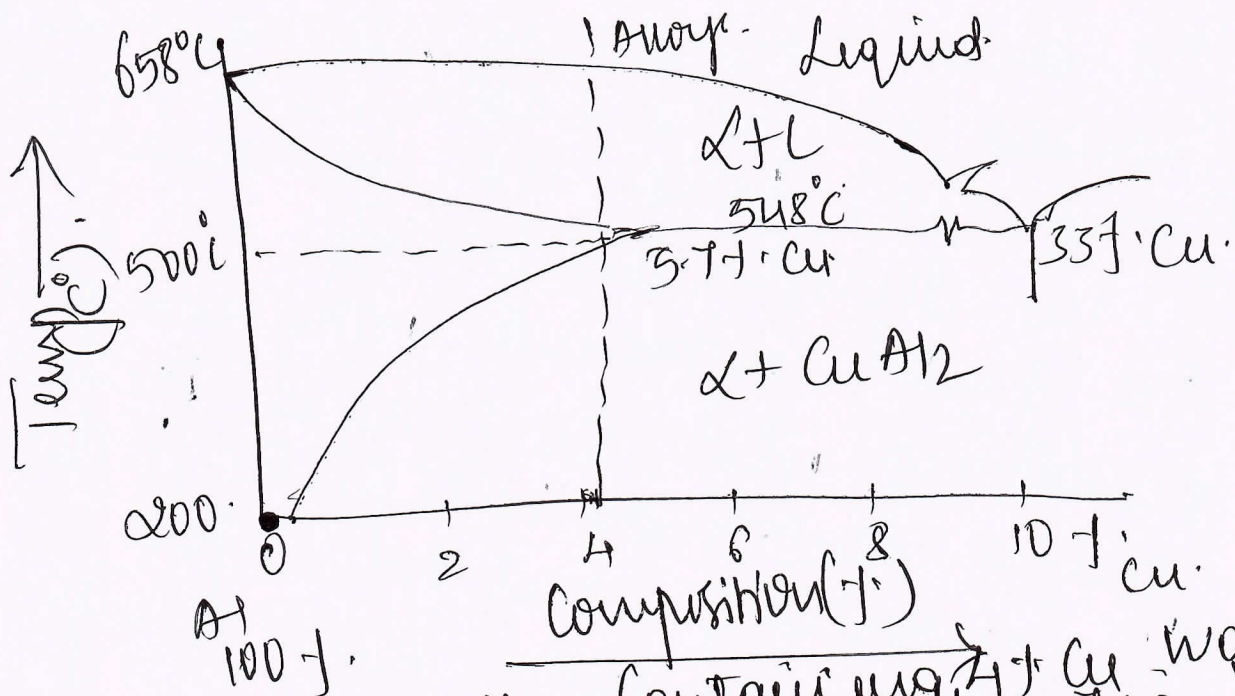
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* is carried out by hardening heat treatment most useful with the help of high rate of cooling.

* But in some ferrous metals there is no such concept & hardening takes place by a method called age-hardening.

* In this method, metals harden due to precipitation of a sub microscopic, coherent phase from a super saturated solid solution in its microstructure.

Qc * The figure represents Al-Cu phase diagram & the process is described as follows.



- * At 500°C, an alloy containing 4 wt. Cu would be made up of grains of solid solution α .
- * If this alloy is cooled from 500°C at a very slow rate, the microstructure would contain grains of solid solution α & a thick precipitate of the intermetallic compound aluminum (CuAl₂).
- * But if the alloy is quenched from 500°C the structure would contain only the solid solution α which is now supersaturated. This is an unstable state & a fine precipitate of CuAl₂ comes out of α with the passage of time.
- * The submicroscopic particles has a hardening effect on the metal. Therefore this method of hardening of metal known as age-hardening.

Q8) Quin

B.C. Properties of Grey Cast Irons:

* High Compressive Strength
Grey cast iron has high compressive strength & that's why, it is widely used in posts & columns of building.

* Tensile Strength
There are different varieties of Grey cast iron & their tensile strengths varies accordingly.

* Resistance to deformation
Grey cast iron is highly resistant to deformation & provides a rigid frame.

* Composition of Grey Cast Iron:-
Carbon (up to 4%) :- The carbon content of the grey cast iron later on gets converted to graphite after going through a series of chemical reactions. This graphite content is responsible for strength.

* Silicon (up to 3%) :- Silicon is mainly added for the de-oxidation process so that the carbon added does not get oxidized to the iron carbides.

* Manganese (0.8%) :- Manganese increases the toughening of the iron & mutes

29) Graphite :- It acts as a stabilizing element for manganese & improve the properties of the Grey cast iron.

- * Chromium (0.35%): Chromium improves the temperature range & hardness of Grey cast iron.
- * Vanadium (0.15%): Vanadium improves the wear & tear resistance.

Uses of Grey Cast Iron

- * Can be used in producing heavy-duty machine tools, bed presses, high pressure hydraulic parts, frame, gears, piston rings, base, flywheels, etc.
- * Suitable for producing core body, core, frame, hand wheels, pneumatic hammer, pipe, valve, etc.

7a. Classification of Composite materials

Q1 Composite materials are generally classified based on two distinct levels: i.e. based on the type of matrix material & based on type of reinforcement material.

- Based on type of matrix material
- a) Metal matrix Composites (MMC)
 - b) Ceramic matrix Composites (CMC)
 - c) Polymer matrix Composites (PMC)

Metal matrix Composites (MMC)

- * In MMC, matrix is made from metal or alloy.
- * The reinforcement material is usually in the form of fibre or small sized particles made from Ceramics or metallic materials.
- * MMC's offers favourable properties like high specific strength, stiffness, high operating temperatures, low coefficient of thermal expansion, low wear resistance.
- * MMC's also offers few disadvantages like high density, low ductility & high fabricating costs.

Ceramic matrix Composites (CMC)

- * Generally considered ceramic matrix is Silicon Carbide, Al_2O_3 .
- * The reinforcement material is usually in the form of fibre made from ceramic materials like Silicon Carbide, Al_2O_3 - SiO_2 .
- * CMC's offers favourable properties like high melting points, good corrosion & oxidation resistance, stability at elevated temperatures.
- * CMC's also offers few disadvantages like high brittleness & lack of resistance.

Yun

- * CMC's are usually used in disc seats of airplanes & leading edges, gas turbine engine components, combustion liner, Seals, bearing of wall stations pumps.

Polymer matrix Composite (PMC):-

- * are generally considered polymer matrix or thermosets & thermoplastics.
- * The reinforcement material is usually in the form of fibre made from natural like glass, carbon, graphite, boron, alumina, etc.
- * PMCs offers favorable properties like light in weight, abrasion & chemical resistant, high strength & stiffness along the direction of reinforcement.
- * PMCs also offers few disadvantages like low impact strength & low tensile strength.
- * PMCs are usually used in aerospace application like rotor blades & hubs, wings, landing gear, main application like propeller shafts, rubber, boat hull Automotive parts like exterior body panel, battery trays, engine components.

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Application of Composite materials

* Aircraft industry: used in rotor blades, fins, rudders, wing body, Fuel tanks, Propeller blades, landing gear doors, helicopters framed

* Space crafts: - Rocket motor casing, rotor blades, heat shields & nozzles, panel doors, turbine & combustion chambers components.

* Automobiles: - Car front end parts, side doors, seating, bumpers, head lamps, engine, components, leaf springs, disc brakes, etc.

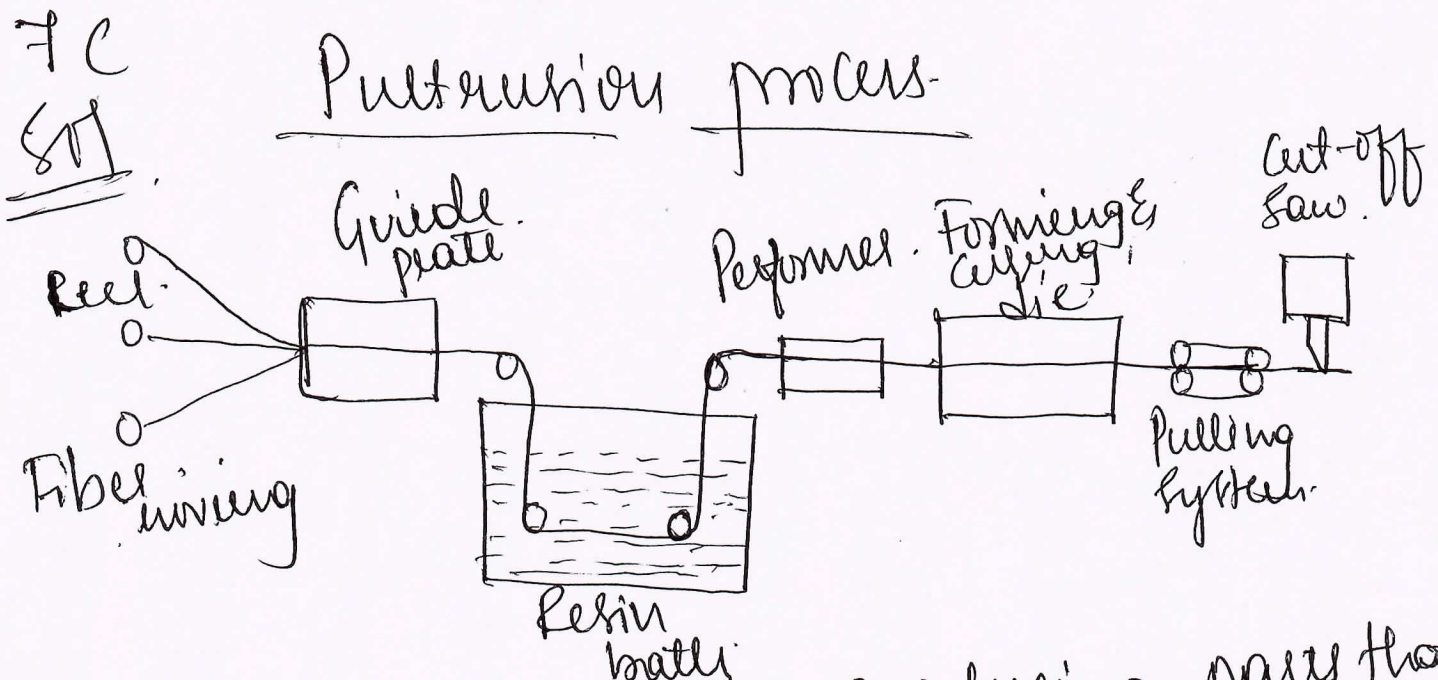
* Construction: - Doors, door hinges, window frame, water tanks, furniture, sanitary walls, interiors, pipes, etc.

* Sports equipments: - Badminton racquets, tennis racquets, golf sticks, hockey sticks, helmet, bicycle frame, etc.

* Biomedical industry: - orthopaedic joints - plate, screw, wire, bone fixation plates, crown replacement, dental applications, etc.

* Marine industry: - Boat hulls, fans & blow
 valves & strainers, gear cases, propeller
 valves etc.

* Military: - submarine, components
 armoured vehicles, bullet proof
 vests etc.



* It is process used for producing parts that
 have constant cross profile such as I-beam
 channels, tubes, pipes etc.

* The pultrusion process starts with the pull
 off raw fibers from the reel & guide
 through a resin bath. Such that
 fiber reinforcement becomes complete
 and impregnated with resin.

* The resin is usually a thermosetting
 resin & is sometimes combined with
 fillers, catalyst & pigments.

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 in

* The wet fibers exit the balls & enter the performed when the excessive resin is squeezed out from the fibers & pre-compacted to the approximate profile.

* The performed fibre is passed through the heated steel or alumina die which has the similar shape of the product.

* The heat energy transferred inside the die activates the curing of resin, changing it from liquid to solid.

* At last the cured product is cut based on desired length.

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The characterization of the composites is nothing but establishing the various properties of composites by considering the method of preparation based on.

35) Characterization of composites is nothing but establishing the various properties of composites by considering the method of preparation based on. Surface treatment of matrix like chemical treatment & reinforcement etc.

and finally on the type of tests considered based on the universal standards.

* The specimens prepared based on the considerable criteria is cut according to the standards (ASTM standards) & tested under controlled stress sphere & the obtained results are tabulated for the comparative study b/w them.

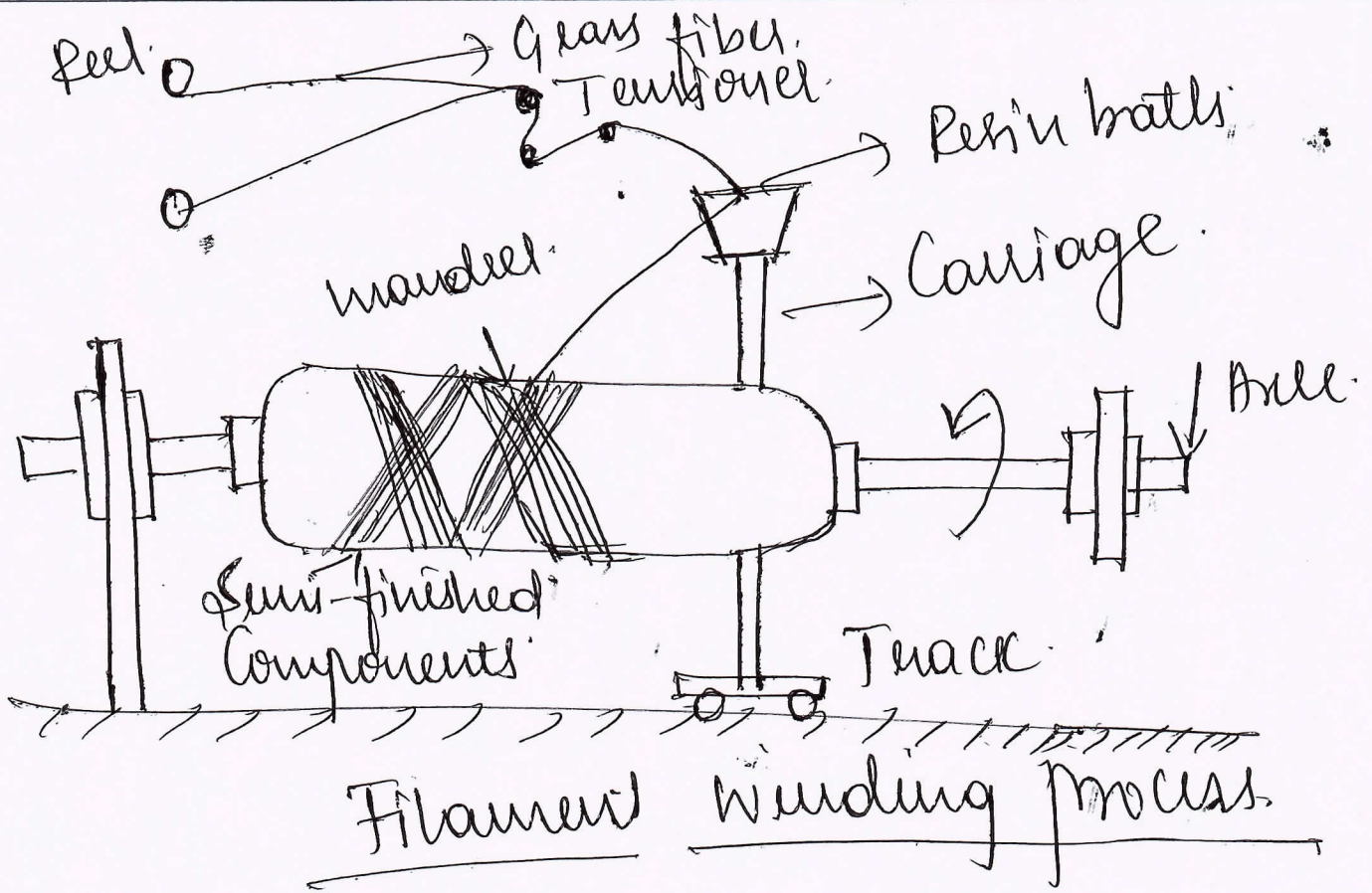
* The various tests for mechanical properties include tensile test, compression test, fatigue test, impact studies, deep loading test, & wear studies, hardness test etc. the final state of specimen after each considered for microscopic studies like SEM. & thus analysed.

* 8b Filament winding process

36 Q. 11

* It is an automated process primarily used for producing hollow, generally circular or oval cross sectional components such as pipes & tanks.

- * The Continuous strands of glass fiber is fed from a reel, passes through a resin bath (matrix), before being wound on the mandrel in the desired orientation.
- * The shape of the mandrel is similar to the internal geometry of the desired component.
- * The mandrel rotates at a predetermined speed while the carriage carrying the resin bath moves horizontally.
- * Consolidation pressure is achieved through tensioning the fiber as they are wound onto the mandrel.
- * Once the mandrel is completely covered with desired thickness, it is placed in an oven to solidify the resin.
- * Once the resin is cured, mandrel is pulled leaving the hollow final product.



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Given data :- $E_f = 72400 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$
 $\sigma_f = 2400 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$
 $\sigma_m = 80 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$
 $E_m = 3100 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$
 $V_f = 0.6$; $V_m = 0.4$

i) Iso strain condition :- $E_c = E_f V_f + E_m V_m$
 $E_c = (72400 \times 10^6 \times 0.6) + (3100 \times 10^6 \times 0.4)$
 $E_c = 44680 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$

$$\sigma_c = \sigma_f V_f + \sigma_m V_m$$

$$\sigma_c = (2400 \times 10^6 \times 0.6) + (80 \times 10^6 \times 0.4)$$

$$\sigma_c = 1464 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2$$

38 Given

Fraction of load carried by fiber is given by

$$\frac{P_f}{P_c} = \frac{E_f V_f}{E_m V_m + E_f V_f} = \frac{(72400 \times 10^6 \times 0.6)}{(3100 \times 10^6 \times 0.4) + (72400 \times 10^6 \times 0.6)}$$

$$\frac{P_f}{P_c} = 0.972 \Rightarrow 97.2\% \text{ of the load supported by fiber}$$

ii) Iso stress condition, $E_c = E_f \cdot E_m$

$$E_c = \frac{(72400 \times 10^6) \times (3100 \times 10^6)}{(0.6 \times 3100 \times 10^6) + (0.4 \times 72400 \times 10^6)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \therefore E_c = \underline{7282 \times 10^6 \text{ N/m}^2}$$

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Types of ceramics

Ceramics can be classified on the basis of their industrial applications or structure as follows.

1) Based on function :-

- 1) Abrasive \rightarrow Carborundum, Alumina etc
- 2) Fire clay products \rightarrow Bricks, porcelain tiles etc.
- 3) Cementing product \rightarrow Portland cement, lime etc.
- 4) Glasses \rightarrow Soda lime glass, Lead glass, Borosilicate glass etc.

Qum

- 5) Rocks → Igneous, Sedimentary &
- 6) Minerals → metamorphic Quartz, Calcite etc.
- 7) Clay → Kaolinite, Montmorillonite
- 8) Refractories → Magnesite, Silica brick etc.

i) Based on Structure:-

- 1) Crystalline Ceramics →
 - a) Single phase Ceramics. for example: MgO, NaCl.
 - b) Multiphase Ceramics for example: MgO-Al₂O₃.

- 2) Atomic bonding →
 - a) Covalent bonding Ex: SiC
 - b) Ionic bonding. Ex: MgO

3) Non-Crystalline Ceramics → Natural & Synthetic glass.

Properties of Ceramics :-

1) Chemical Properties

* Most ceramics are highly resistant to all chemicals.

Specific →

The are completely resistant to oxidation at high temperatures

2) Optical Properties

- * Several types of glasses are used for windows & optical lenses.
- * Special glasses are used in selectively transmitting or absorbing of certain wave-lengths such as infrared & ultraviolet rays.

3) Thermal Properties

- * Ceramics have very low thermal conductivity since they do not have free flowing electrons in their outermost shells as seen in metals.

4) Mechanical Properties

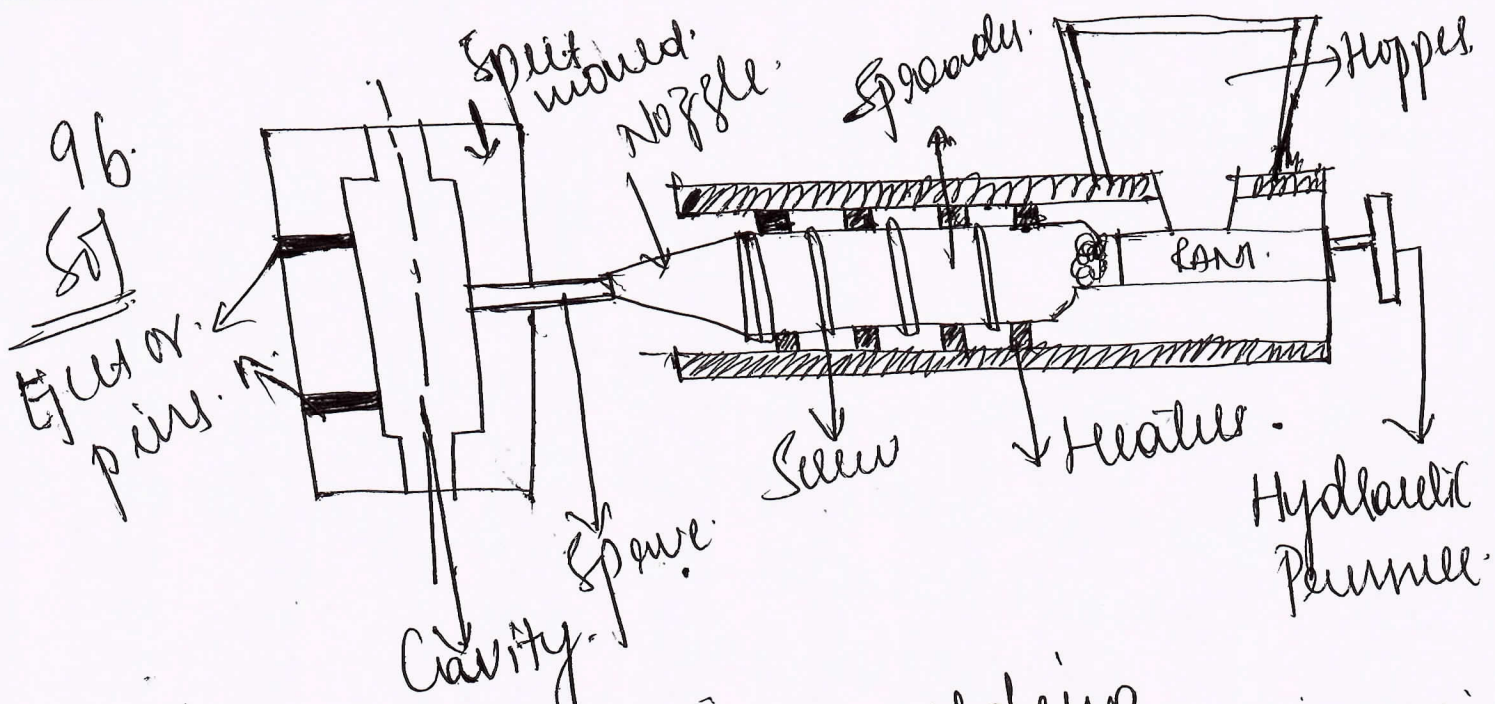
- * Ceramics have low tensile strength.
- * They generally fail due to stress concentration on flaws, pores etc.
- * They possess high compressive strength.

5) Electrical Properties

Ceramics are often used for electrical insulation.

- * Many ceramic have a dielectric constant up to 100 & very low dielectric losses.

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Injection moulding

- * The above figure illustrates the injection moulding process.
- * Here a pre-calculated quantity of plastic material in the form of powder additives are fed into hopper.
- * The hopper than feeds the plastic material into heated injection unit.
- * A motor runs the screw rod, which forces the plastic material along the heating section calling the plastic material to reach molten state.
- * The screw rod also acts as reciprocating ram, which rapidly moves forward eject the molten plastic into the wall cooled mould.

- * Ram pressure is maintained until the part cools and solidifies.
- * The mould half is opened & the finished product is ejected by means of ejector pins.

9c
Sol Application of Ceramics

- 1) Traditional Usage:- Bricks, tiles, Sand, Cement, Chimneys, mortar, glasses, plaster, pottery, etc.
- 2) Auto motive:- Brake disc catalyst support, water & fuel pumps, components, crankshaft housing part.
- 3) Aerospace:- Ceramic engine, air frame, space shuttle tiles, etc.
- 4) Electronics:- Capacitors, emulators, Semi Conductor, dielectrics, etc.
- 5) Machines:- Cutting tools, furnaces, armour plates, burners, pyrometers etc.

Applications of plastics

- 73) Ques
- 1) Thermosetting Plastics
Epoxy → Adhesives, chemical moulding machines & structural components.

- ii) Silicon → Laminate, strips high temperature resistance, components
- iii) Poly steel → Helmets, fans, chairs
- Thermoplastic polymers
- i) Nylon → Covers, gears, bearings, ropes, handles
- ii) Polyethylene → Plastic cover bags, tumblers, ice trays, toys, tubes
- iii) Polystyrene → Battery case, wall tiles, plates, trays, etc.

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Smart materials

* Smart materials are designed materials having one or more properties that can be significantly changed in a controlled fashion by means of external - intrinsic such as stress, temp, moisture, electric or magnetic field etc.

- ii) Shape memory alloys. They are those materials, even after being deformed & retaining their original shape & size upon appropriate heat treatment

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* Deformation is normally carried out at relatively low temp, whereas shape-memory effect happens due to heating.

* Among the materials that are capable of recovering significant amount of deformation, the best known are:
Nickel-Titanium alloys (NITINOL) &
Some Copper based alloys.

* When a shape memory alloy, is in its cold state, the metal can be bent, stretched & will hold those shapes until heated above the transition temp of alloy. Upon heating, the metal changes to its original shape, until deformed again.

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Biological applications of SMA.

* The first Cardiovascular device developed with SMA was "Simon filter". This filter represents a new generation of devices that are used for blood vessel stent replacement in pulmonary embolism.

(45) Simon

* SMA are used as catheters, retainers, clot filters, surgical anchors, bone plates, intra-aortic balloons, bone caproscopic tools etc. during surgical procedure. on human beings

* Stents implanted in the arteries to improve blood flow can be made from SMA.

* SMA have a large number of orthopedic applications for example the spinal vertebrae spacer made from SMA is inserted b/w two vertebrae.

* Plates made from SMA are used as cast, wires, all fracture in facial areas, nose, jaw etc.

Other applications of SMA

* Robotic applications
SMA have been used in robotic application since 1980s.

(46) Robots in which SMA are used are:
Swimming, walking, climbing, flying
Humanoid robots, Snapping, clawing.

* Automotive application

SMA can be used in the minor systems in modern vehicles due to the versatility

Ex of SMA.

General Motors came up with SMA materials in active control, Grab handle, Air dam, Air vent etc.

* Aerospace application

SMA's have been used in aerospace. Since 1970s used in hydraulic line coupling which is used in F-14 fighter jets.

* Some of the parts of plane are made up of SMA. air wing let, wing landing gear, Fuel sage, Stabilizer, Fin.

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Factors affecting the selection of materials for engineering purposes

a)

Properties of materials

The most important factor while for engineering design is the properties of the materials in relation to their intended use.

*) Given

* The properties of the material define specific characteristics of the material & form a basis for predicting.

behaviour of the material under different conditions

b) Performance requirements
* The material of which a part is composed must be capable of embodying or performing a part's function or without failure.

For example, a component part to be used in a furnace must be of a material which can withstand high temperatures.

c) Material reliability

* A material in a given application must also be reliable. A material which is made, will remain stable enough to function in service for the intended life of the product without failure.

d) Safety

* A material must safely perform its function, otherwise, the failure of the product system made out of it may be catastrophic in air-planes & high pressure systems.

E) Physical attributes
Physical attributes such as configurations
size, weight, & appearance sometimes
also serve functional requirements.

F) Environmental Conditions
The environment in which a product
operates strongly influences product
performance. service

G) Availability:
Material must be readily available
and available in large enough quantity
for the intended applications.

(Prof. ~~Gurpreet~~
Gurpreet Hattli).
11/3/2022

~~(HOD)~~
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(19) Gurpreet