

Material and process selection charts

C.1 Introduction

The charts in this booklet summarize *material properties* and *process attributes*. Each chart appears on a single page with a brief commentary about its use on the facing page. Background and data sources can be found in the appendix to Chapter 13, pp. 313–333.

The material charts map the areas of property space occupied by each material class. They can be used in two ways:

- (a) to retrieve approximate values for material properties
- (b) to select materials which have prescribed property profiles

The collection of process charts, similarly, can be used as a data source or as a selection tool. Sequential application of several charts allows several design goals to be met simultaneously. More advanced methods are described in the book cited above.

The best way to tackle selection problems is to work directly on the appropriate charts. Permission is given to copy charts for this purpose. Normal copyright restrictions apply to reproduction for other purposes.

It is not possible to give charts which plot all the possible combinations: there are too many. Those presented here are the most commonly useful. Any other can be created easily using the CMS2 (1995) or CES (1999) software.

1.1 Cautions

The data on the charts and in the tables are approximate: they typify each class of material (stainless steels, or polyethylenes, for instance) or processes (sand casting, or injection moulding, for example), but within each class there is considerable variation. They are adequate for the broad comparisons required for conceptual design, and, often, for the rough calculations of embodiment design. **They are not appropriate for detailed design calculations.** For these, it is essential to seek accurate data from handbooks and the data sheets provided by material suppliers. The charts help in narrowing the choice of candidate materials to a sensible short list, but not in providing numbers for final accurate analysis.

Every effort has been made to ensure the accuracy of the data shown on the charts. No guarantee can, however, be given that the data are error-free, or that new data may not supersede those given here. The charts are an aid to creative thinking, not a source of numerical data for precise analysis.

1.2 Material classes, class members and properties

The materials of mechanical and structural engineering fall into nine broad classes listed in Table 1.1.

Within each class, the Materials Selection Charts show data for a representative set of materials, chosen both to span the full range of behaviour for that class, and to include the most widely used members of it. In this way the envelope for a class (heavy lines) encloses data not only for the materials listed on Table 1.2 (next two pages) but for virtually all other members of the class as well.

As far as possible, the same materials appear on all the charts. There are exceptions. Invar is only interesting because of its low thermal expansion: it appears on the thermal expansion charts (10 and 11) but on no others. Mn–Cu alloys have high internal damping: they are shown on the loss-coefficient chart (8) but not elsewhere. And there are others. But, broadly, the material and classes which appear on one chart appear on them all.

Table 1.1 Material classes

Engineering alloys	(metals and their alloys)
Engineering polymers	(thermoplastics and thermosets)
Engineering ceramics	(‘fine’ ceramics)
Engineering composites	(GFRP, KFRP and CFRP)
Porous ceramics	(brick, cement, concrete, stone)
Glasses	(silicate glasses)
Woods	(common structural timbers)
Elastomers	(natural and artificial rubbers)
Foams	(foamed polymers)

Table 1.2 Members of each material class

<i>Class</i>	<i>Members</i>	<i>Short name</i>
Engineering alloys (The metals and alloys of engineering)	Aluminium alloys	Al Alloys
	Beryllium alloys	Be Alloys
	Cast irons	Cast iron
	Copper alloys	Cu Alloys
	Lead alloys	Lead Alloys
	Magnesium alloys	Mg Alloys
	Molybdenum alloys	Mo Alloys
	Nickel alloys	Ni Alloys
	Steels	Steels
	Tin alloys	Tin Alloys
	Titanium alloys	Ti Alloys
	Tungsten alloys	W Alloys
	Zinc alloys	Zn Alloys
Engineering polymers (The thermoplastics and thermosets of engineering)	Epoxies	EP
	Melamines	MEL
	Polycarbonate	PC
	Polyesters	PEST
	Polyethylene, high density	HDPE
	Polyethylene, low density	LDPE
	Polyformaldehyde	PF
	Polymethylmethacrylate	PMMA
	Polypropylene	PP
	Polytetrafluorethylene	PTFE
Polyvinylchloride	PVC	

Table 1.2 (continued)

Engineering ceramics (Fine ceramics capable of load-bearing applications)	Alumina	Al_2O_3
	Beryllia	BeO
	Diamond	Diamond
	Germanium	Ge
	Magnesium	MgO
	Silicon	Si
	Sialons	Sialons
	Silicon carbide	SiC
	Silicon nitride	Si_3N_4
Zirconia	ZrO_2	
Engineering composites (The composites of engineering practice A distinction is drawn between the properties of a ply – ‘uniply’ – and of a laminated ‘laminates’)	Carbon fibre reinforced polymer	CFRP
	Glass fibre reinforced polymer	GFRP
	Kevlar fibre reinforced polymer	KFRP
Porous ceramics (Traditional ceramics cements, rocks and minerals)	Brick	Brick
	Cement	Cement
	Common rocks	Rocks
	Concrete	Concrete
	Porcelain	Pcln
	Pottery	Pot
Glasses (Silicate glass and silica itself)	Borosilicate glass	B-glass
	Soda glass	Na-glass
	Silica	SiO_2
Woods (Separate envelopes describe properties parallel to the grain and normal to it, and wood products)	Ash	Ash
	Balsa	Balsa
	Fir	Fir
	Oak	Oak
	Pine	Pine
	Wood products (ply, etc)	Wood products
Elastomers (Natural and artificial rubbers)	Natural rubber	Rubber
	Hard butyl rubber	Hard butyl
	Polyurethane	PU
	Silicone rubber	Silicone
	Soft Butyl rubber	Soft butyl
Polymer foams (Foamed polymers of engineering)	These include:	
	Cork	Cork
	Polyester	PEST
	Polystyrene	PS
	Polyurethane	PU
Special materials (Materials included on one or a few charts only, because of their special characteristics)	Beryllium–copper alloys	BeCu
	Invar	Invar
	WC–Co Cermets	WC–Co
	Mn–Cu alloys	Mn–Cu Alloys

You will not find specific materials listed on the charts. The aluminium alloy 7075 in the T6 condition (for instance) is contained in the property envelopes for *Al-alloys*; the Nylon 66 in those for *nylons*. The charts are designed for the broad, early stages of materials selection, not for retrieving the precise values of material properties needed in the later, detailed design, stage.

The Material Selection Charts which follow display, for the nine classes of materials, the properties listed in Table 1.3.

The charts let you pick off the subset of materials with a property within a specified range: materials with modulus E between 100 and 200 GPa for instance; or materials with a thermal conductivity above 100 W/mK.

More usually, performance is maximized by selecting the subset of materials with the greatest value of a grouping of material properties. A light, stiff beam is best made of a material with a high value of $E^{1/2}/\rho$; safe pressure vessels are best made of a material with a high value of $K_{Ic}^{1/2}/\sigma_f$, and so on. Table 1.4 lists some of these performance-maximizing groups or ‘material indices’. The charts are designed to display these, and to allow you to pick off the subset of materials which maximize them. Details of the method, with worked examples, are given in Chapters 5 and 6.

Multiple criteria can be used. You can pick off the subset of materials with both high $E^{1/2}/\rho$ and high E (good for light, stiff beams) from Chart 1; that with high σ_f^3/E^2 and high E (good materials for pivots) from Chart 4. Throughout, the goal is to identify from the charts a *subset* of materials, not a single material. Finding the best material for a given application involves many considerations, many of them (like availability, appearance and feel) not easily quantifiable. The charts do not give you the final choice — that requires the use of your judgement and experience. Their power is that they guide you quickly and efficiently to a subset of materials worth considering; and they make sure that you do not overlook a promising candidate.

1.4 Process classes and class members

A *process* is a method of shaping, finishing or joining a material. *Sand casting, injection moulding, polishing and fusion welding* are all processes. The choice, for a given component, depends on the material of which it is to be made, on its size, shape and precision, and on how many are required.

The manufacturing processes of engineering fall into nine broad classes:

Table 1.3 Material properties shown on the charts

<i>Property</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Units</i>
Relative cost	C_m	(–)
Density	ρ	(Mg/m ³)
Young’s modulus	E	(GPa)
Strength	σ_f	(MPa)
Fracture toughness	K_{Ic}	(MPam ^{1/2})
Toughness	G_{Ic}	(J/m ²)
Damping coefficient	η	(–)
Thermal conductivity	λ	(W/mK)
Thermal diffusivity	a	(m ² /s)
Volume specific heat	$C_{P\rho}$	(J/m ³ K)
Thermal expansion coefficient	α	(1/K)
Thermal shock resistance	ΔT	(K)
Strength at temperature	$\sigma(T)$	(MPa)
Specific wear rate	W/AP	(1/MPa)

Table 1.4 Examples of material-indices

<i>Function</i>	<i>Index</i>
<i>Tie</i> , minimum weight, stiffness prescribed	$\frac{E}{\rho}$
<i>Beam</i> , minimum weight, stiffness prescribed	$\frac{E^{1/2}}{\rho}$
<i>Beam</i> , minimum weight, strength prescribed	$\frac{\sigma_y^{2/3}}{\rho}$
<i>Beam</i> , minimum cost, stiffness prescribed	$\frac{E^{1/2}}{C_m \rho}$
<i>Beam</i> , minimum cost, strength prescribed	$\frac{\sigma_y^{2/3}}{C_m \rho}$
<i>Column</i> , minimum cost, buckling load prescribed	$\frac{E^{1/2}}{C_m \rho}$
<i>Spring</i> , minimum weight for given energy storage	$\frac{\sigma_y^2}{E \rho}$
<i>Thermal insulation</i> , minimum cost, heat flux prescribed	$\frac{1}{\lambda C_m \rho}$

(ρ = density; E = Young's modulus; σ_y = elastic limit; C_m = cost/kg; λ = thermal conductivity; κ = electrical conductivity; C_p = specific heat)

Table 1.5 Process classes

Casting	(sand, gravity, pressure, die, etc.)
Pressure moulding	(direct, transfer, injection, etc.)
Deformation processes	(rolling, forging, drawing, etc.)
Powder methods	(slip cast, sinter, hot press, hip)
Special methods	(CVD, electroform, lay up, etc.)
Machining	(cut, turn, drill, mill, grind, etc.)
Heat treatment	(quench, temper, solution treat, age, etc.)
Joining	(bolt, rivet, weld, braze, adhesives)
Finish	(polish, plate, anodize, paint)

Each process is characterized by a set of *attributes*: the materials it can handle, the shapes it can make and their precision, complexity and size. Process Selection Charts map the attributes, showing the ranges of size, shape, material, precision and surface finish of which each class of process is capable. The procedure does not lead to a final choice of process. Instead, it identifies a subset of processes which have the potential to meet the design requirements. More specialized sources must then be consulted to determine which of these is the most economical.

C.2 THE MATERIALS SELECTION CHARTS

Chart 1: Young's modulus, E against density, ρ

This chart guides selection of materials for light, stiff, components. The contours show the longitudinal wave speed in m/s; natural vibration frequencies are proportional to this quantity. The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $E/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of stiff ties; minimum deflection in centrifugal loading, etc.)
- (b) $E^{1/2}/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of stiff beams, shafts and columns)
- (c) $E^{1/3}/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of stiff plates)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest stiffness-to-weight ratio lie towards the upper left-hand corner.

Other moduli are obtained approximately from E using

- (a) $\nu = 1/3$; $G = 3/8E$; $K \approx E$ (metals, ceramics, glasses and glassy polymers)
- or (b) $\nu \approx 1/2$; $G \approx 1/3E$; $K \approx 10E$ (elastomers, rubbery polymers)

where ν is Poisson's ratio, G the shear modulus and K the bulk modulus.

Chart 2: Strength, σ_f , against density, ρ

The 'strength' for metals is the 0.2% offset yield strength. For polymers, it is the stress at which the stress-strain curve becomes markedly non-linear — typically, a strain of about 1%. For ceramics and glasses, it is the compressive crushing strength; remember that this is roughly 15 times larger than the tensile (fracture) strength. For composites it is the tensile strength. For elastomers it is the tear-strength. The chart guides selection of materials for light, strong, components. The guide lines show the loci of points for which:

- (a) $\sigma_f/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of strong ties; maximum rotational velocity of discs)
- (b) $\sigma_f^{2/3}/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of strong beams and shafts)
- (c) $\sigma_f^{1/2}/\rho = C$ (minimum weight design of strong plates)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest strength-to-weight ratio lie towards the upper left corner.

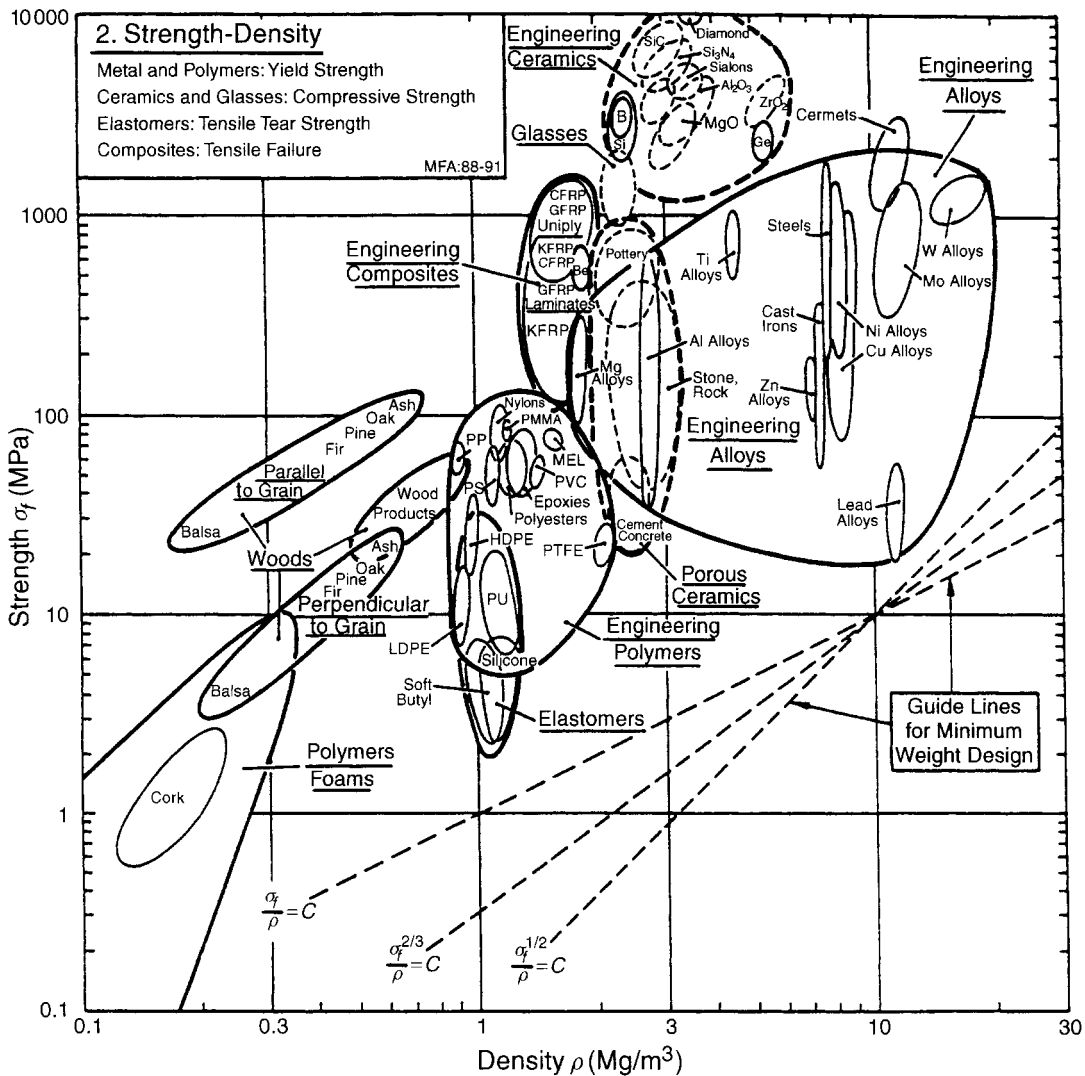


Chart 3: Fracture toughness, K_{Ic} , against density, ρ

Linear-elastic fracture mechanics describes the behaviour of cracked, brittle solids. It breaks down when the fracture toughness is large and the section is small; then J-integral methods should be used. The data shown here are adequate for the rough calculations of conceptual design and as a way of ranking materials. The chart guides selection of materials for light, fracture-resistant components. The guide lines show the loci of points for which:

(a) $K_{Ic}^{4/3} / \rho = C$ (minimum weight design of brittle ties, maximum rotational velocity of brittle discs, etc.)

$$K_{Ic} / \rho = C$$

(b) $K_{Ic}^{4/5} / \rho = C$ (minimum weight design of brittle beams and shafts)

$$K_{Ic}^{2/3} / \rho = C$$

(c) $K_{Ic}^{2/3} / \rho = C$ (minimum weight design of brittle plates)

$$K_{Ic}^{1/2} / \rho = C$$

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest toughness-to-weight ratio lie towards the upper left corner.

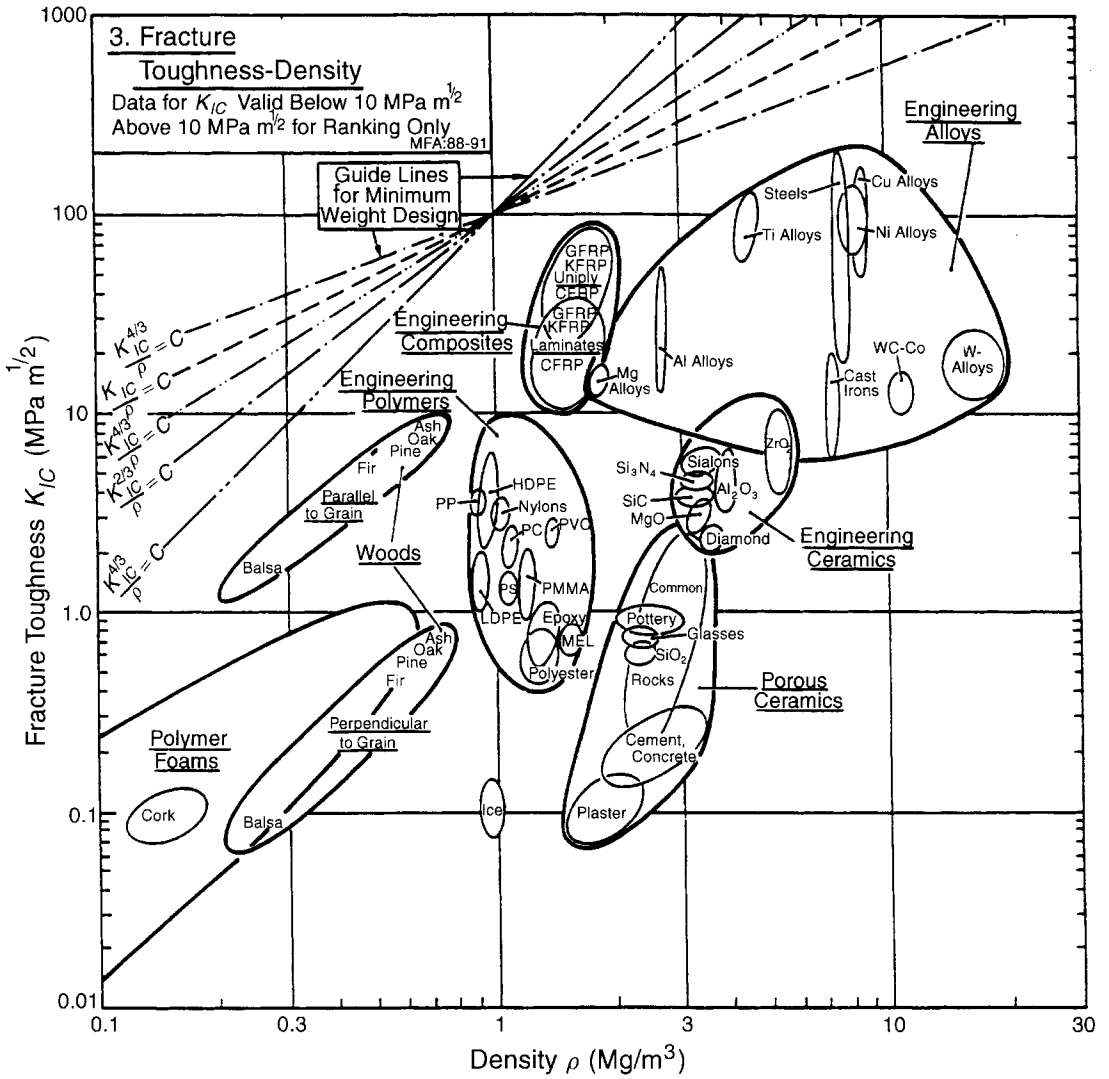


Chart 4: Young's modulus, E , against strength, σ_f

The chart for elastic design. The contours show the failure strain, σ_f/E . The 'strength' for metals is the 0.2% offset yield strength. For polymers, it is the 1% yield strength. For ceramics and glasses, it is the compressive crushing strength; remember that this is roughly 15 times larger than the tensile (fracture) strength. For composites it is the tensile strength. For elastomers it is the tear-strength. The chart has numerous applications among them: the selection of materials for springs, elastic hinges, pivots and elastic bearings, and for yield-before-buckling design. The guide lines show three of these; they are the loci of points for which:

- (a) $\sigma_f/E = C$ (elastic hinges)
- (b) $\sigma_f^2/E = C$ (springs, elastic energy storage per unit volume)
- (c) $\sigma_f^{3/2}/E = C$ (selection for elastic constants such as knife edges; elastic diaphragms, compression seals)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced downward and to the right.

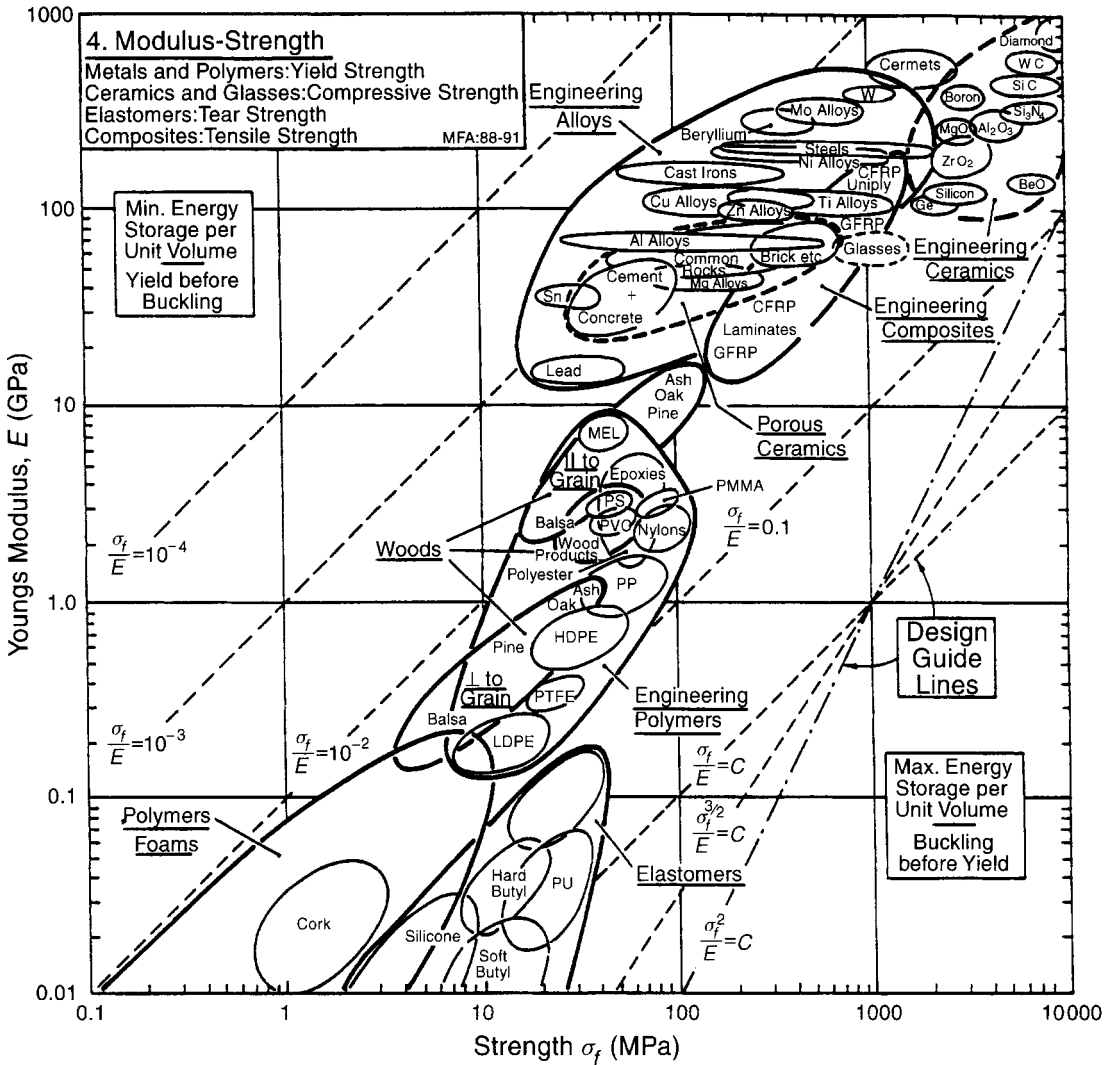


Chart 5: Specific modulus, E/ρ , against specific strength, σ_f/ρ

The chart for specific stiffness and strength. The contours show the yield strain, σ_f/E . The qualifications on strength given for Charts 2 and 4 apply here also. The chart finds application in minimum weight design of ties and springs, and in the design of rotating components to maximize rotational speed or energy storage, etc. The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $\sigma_f^2/E\rho = C$ (ties, springs of minimum weight; maximum rotational velocity of discs)
- (b) $\sigma_f^{3/2}/E\rho^{1/2} = C$
- (c) $\sigma_f/E = C$ (elastic hinge design)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced downwards and to the right.

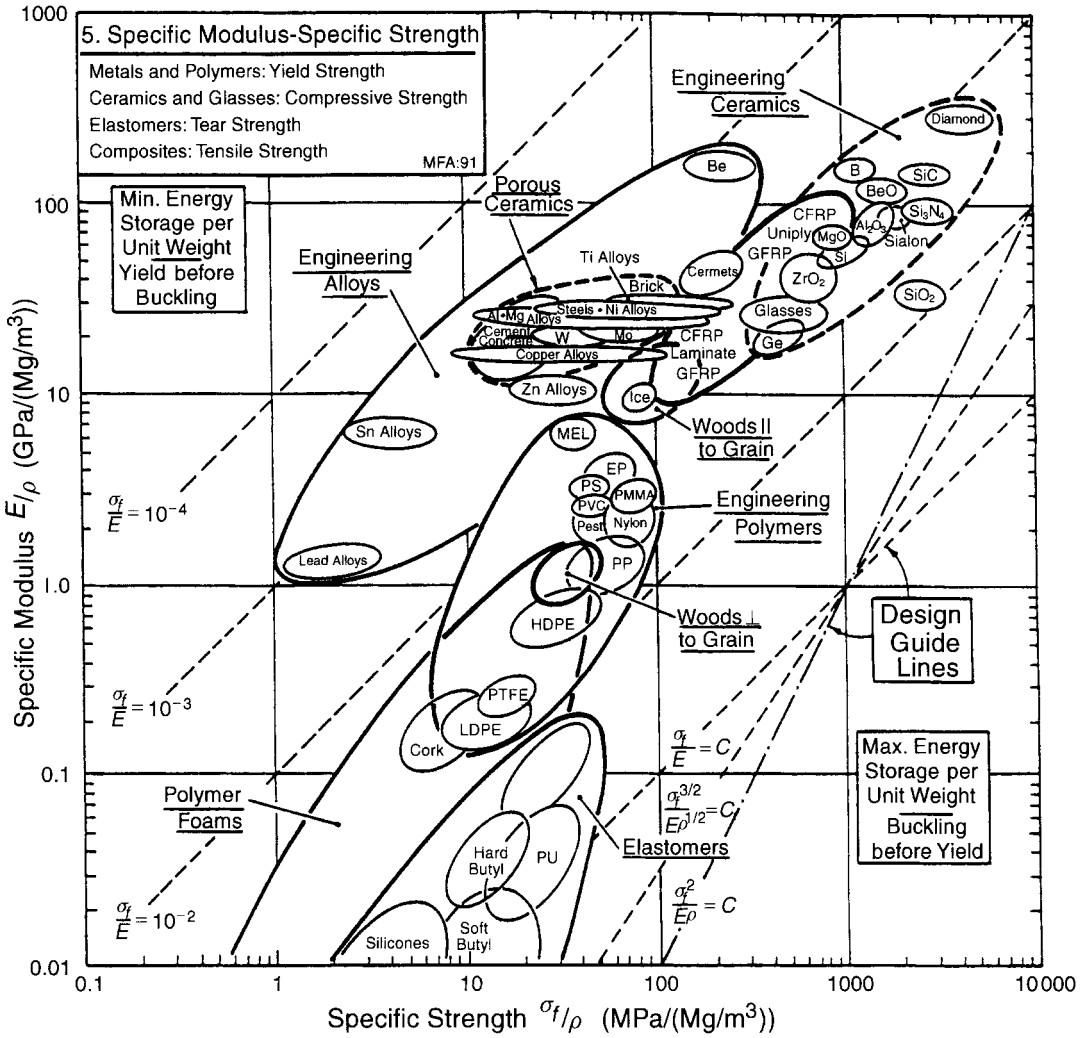


Chart 6: Fracture toughness, K_{Ic} , against Young's modulus, E

The chart displays both the fracture toughness, K_{Ic} , and (as contours) the toughness, $G_{Ic} \approx K_{Ic}^2/E$; and it allows criteria for stress and displacement-limited failure criteria (K_{Ic} and K_{Ic}/E) to be compared. The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $K_{Ic}^2/E = C$ (lines of constant toughness, G_c ; energy-limited failure)
- (b) $K_{Ic}/E = C$ (guideline for displacement-limited brittle failure)

The values of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Tough materials lie towards the upper left corner, brittle materials towards the bottom right.

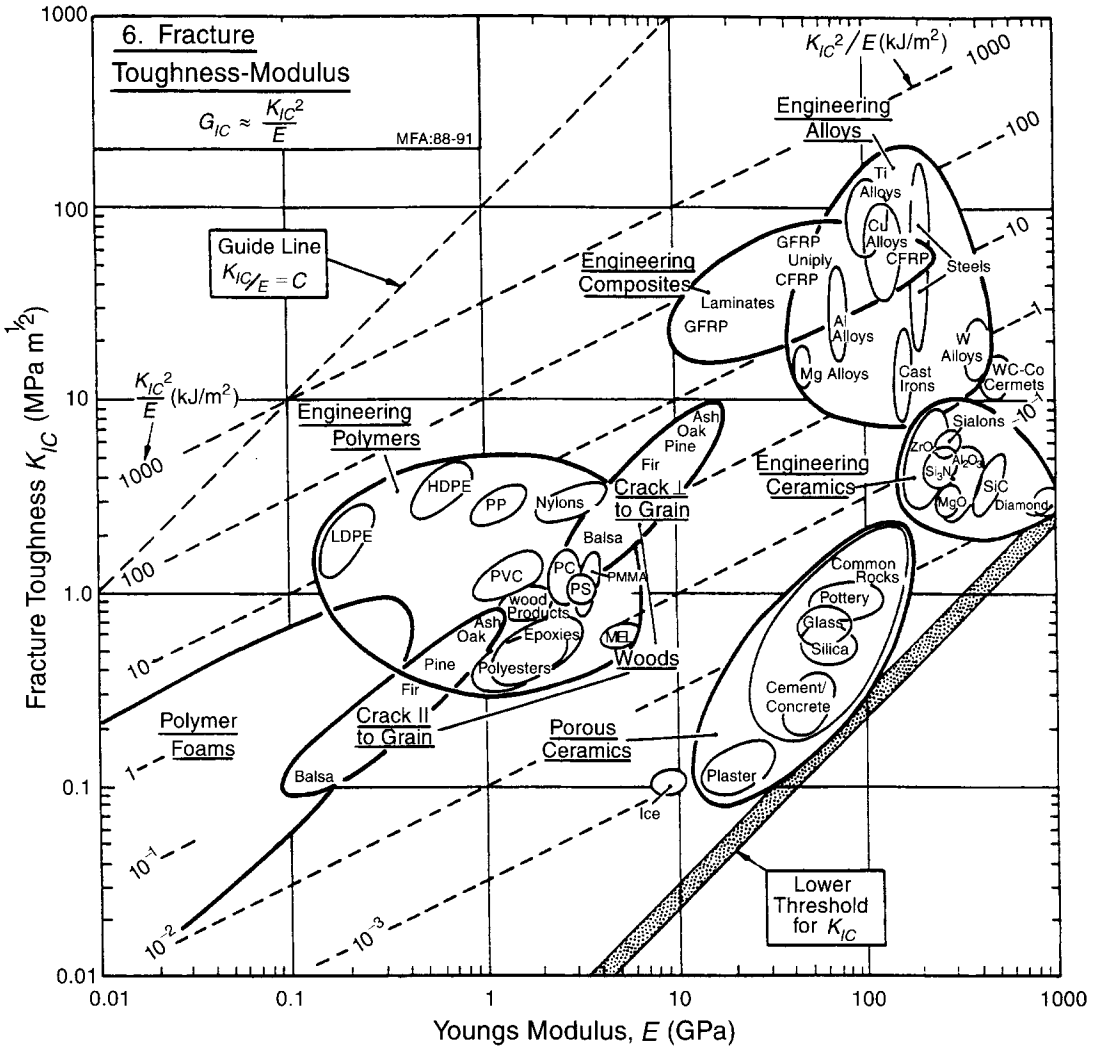


Chart 7: Fracture toughness, K_{Ic} , against strength, σ_f

The chart for safe design against fracture. The contours show the process-zone diameter, given approximately by $K_{Ic}^2/\pi\sigma_f^2$. The qualifications on 'strength' given for Charts 2 and 4 apply here also. The chart guides selection of materials to meet yield-before-break design criteria, in assessing plastic or process-zone sizes, and in designing samples for valid fracture toughness testing. The guide lines show the loci of points for which

(a) $K_{Ic}/\sigma_f = C$ (yield-before-break)

(b) $K_{Ic}^2/\sigma_f = C$ (leak-before-break)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upward and to the left.

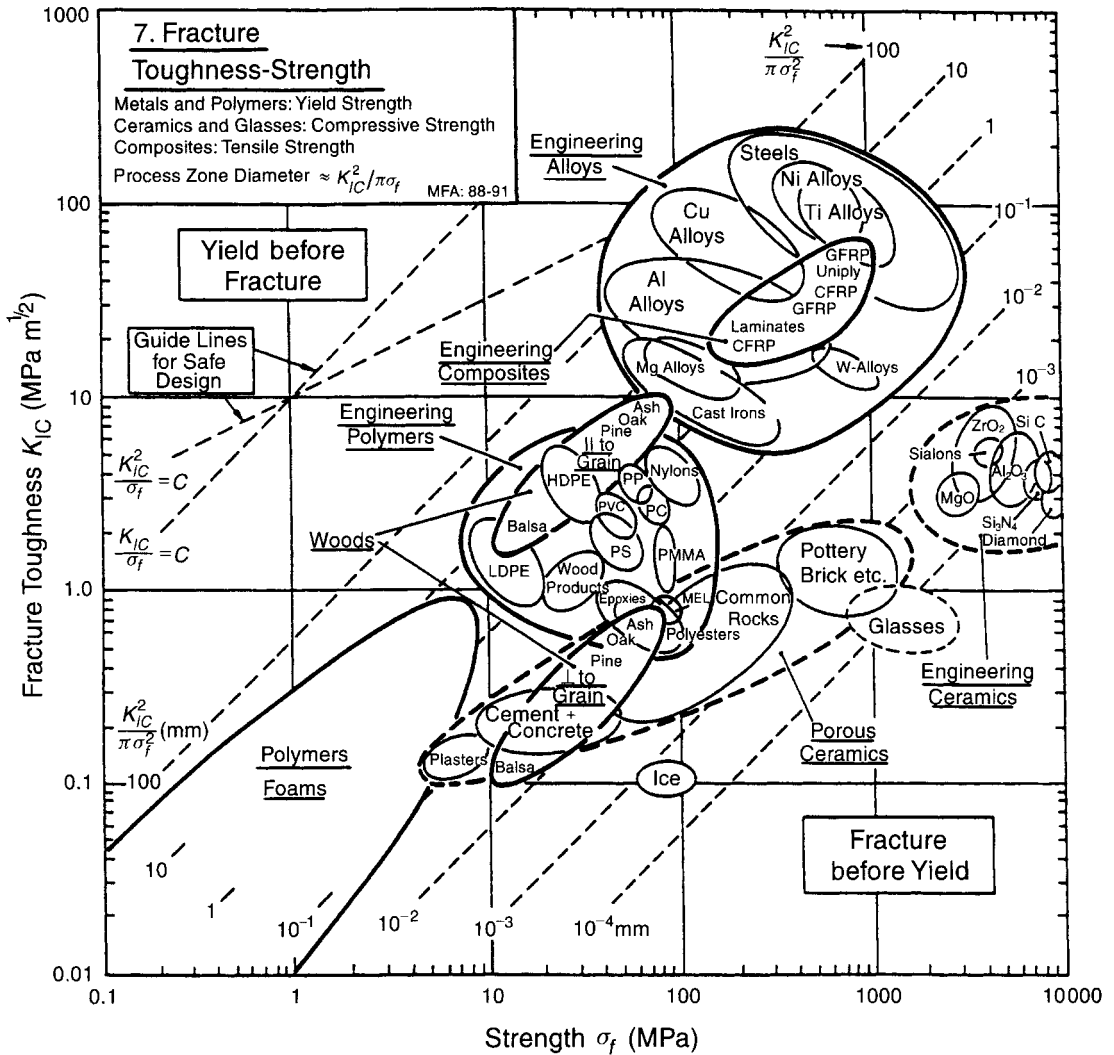


Chart 8: Loss coefficient, η , against Young's modulus, E

The chart gives guidance in selecting material for low damping (springs, vibrating reeds, etc.) and for high damping (vibration-mitigating systems). The guide line shows the loci of points for which

(a) $\eta E = C$ (rule-of-thumb for estimating damping in polymers)

The value of the constant C increases as the line is displaced upward and to the right.

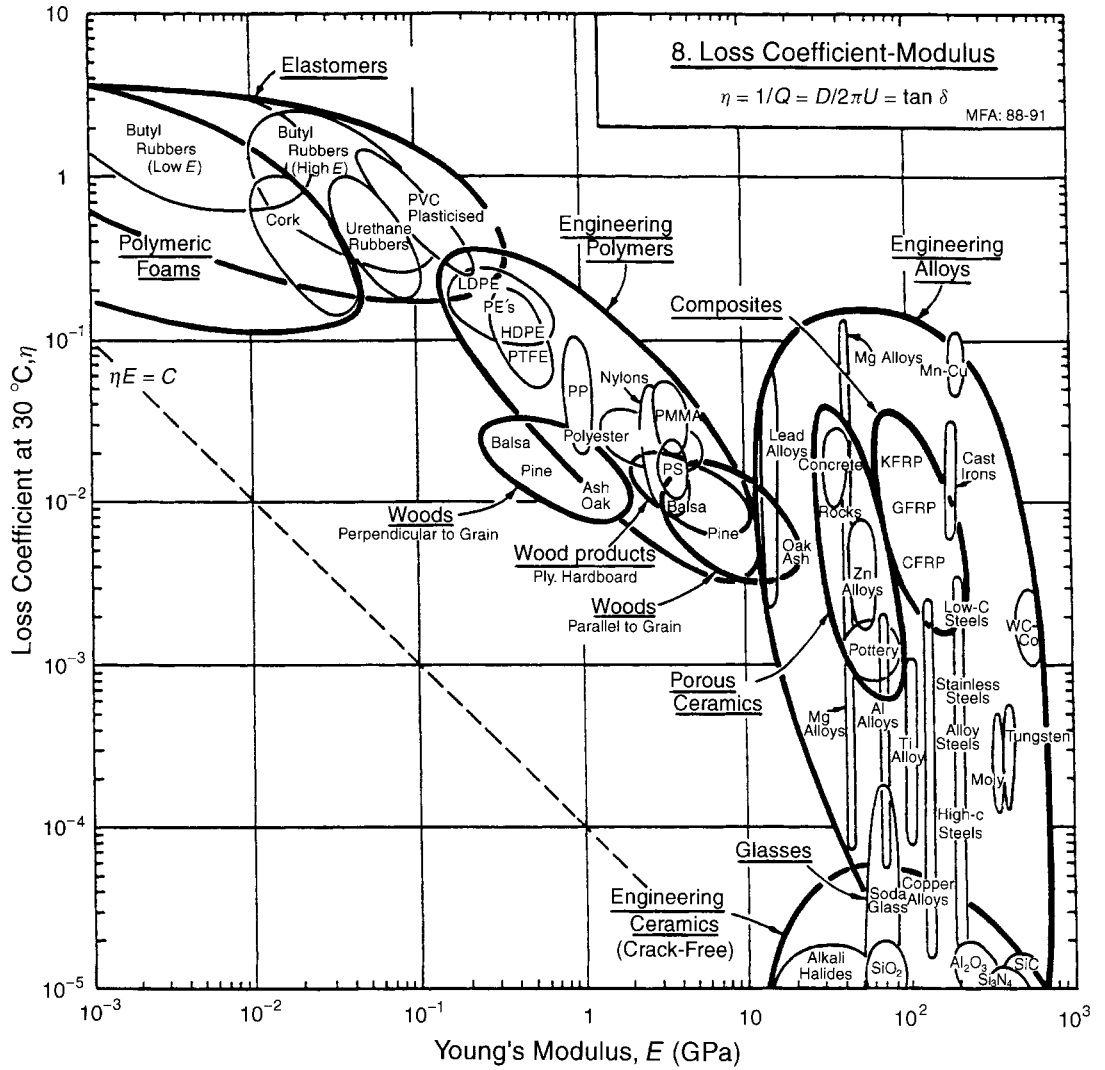


Chart 9: Thermal conductivity, λ , against thermal diffusivity, a

The chart guides in selecting materials for thermal insulation, for use as heat sinks and so forth, both when heat flow is steady, (λ) and when it is transient ($a = \lambda/\rho C_p$ where ρ is the density and C_p the specific heat). Contours show values of the volumetric specific heat, $\rho C_p = \lambda/a$ ($\text{J/m}^3\text{K}$). The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $\lambda/a = C$ (constant volumetric specific heat)
- (b) $\lambda/a^{1/2} = C$ (efficient insulation; thermal energy storage)

The value of constant C increases towards the upper left.

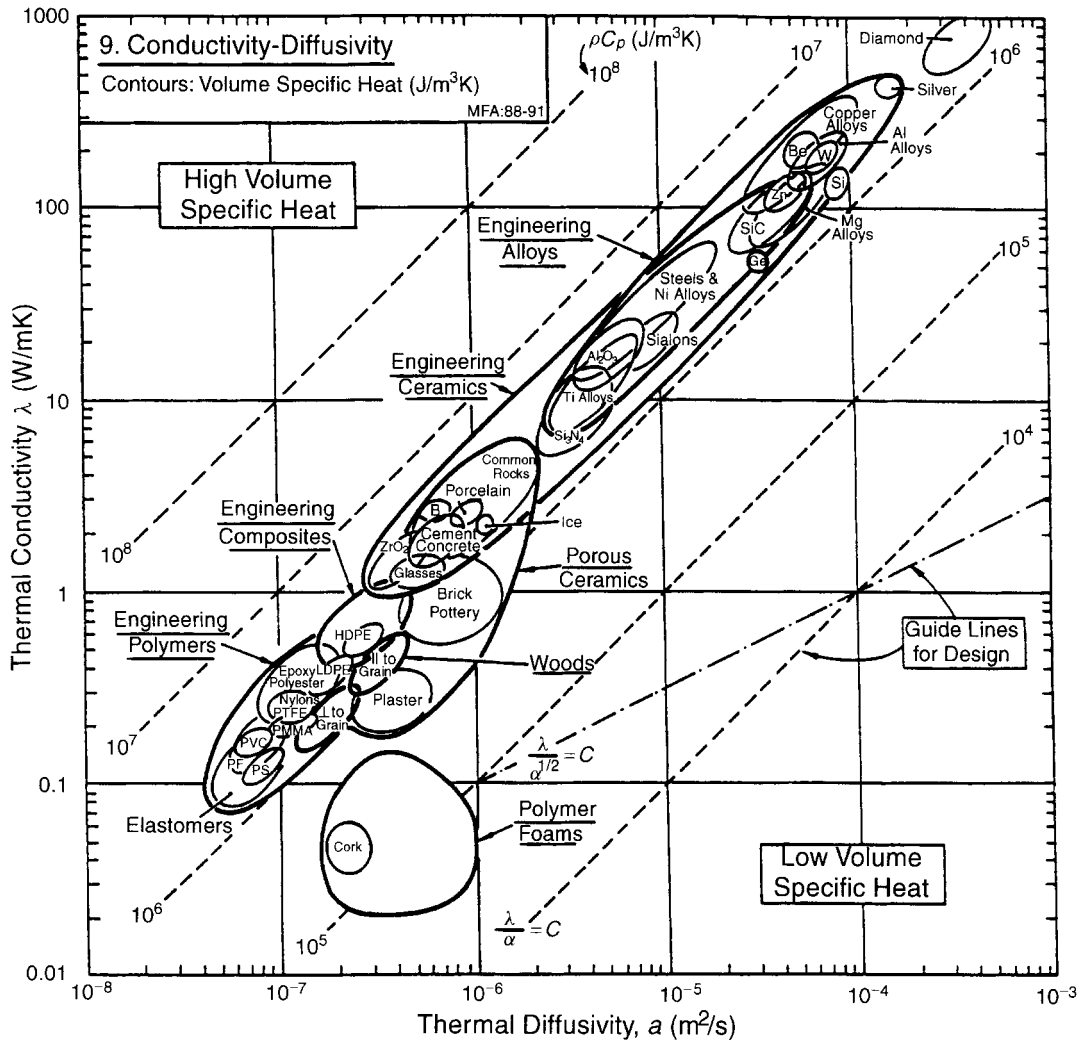


Chart 10: T-Expansion coefficient, α , against T-conductivity, λ

The chart for assessing thermal distortion. The contours show value of the ratio λ/α (W/m). Materials with a large value of this design index show small thermal distortion. They define the guide line

(a) $\lambda/\alpha = C$ (minimization of thermal distortion)

The value of the constant C increases towards the bottom right.

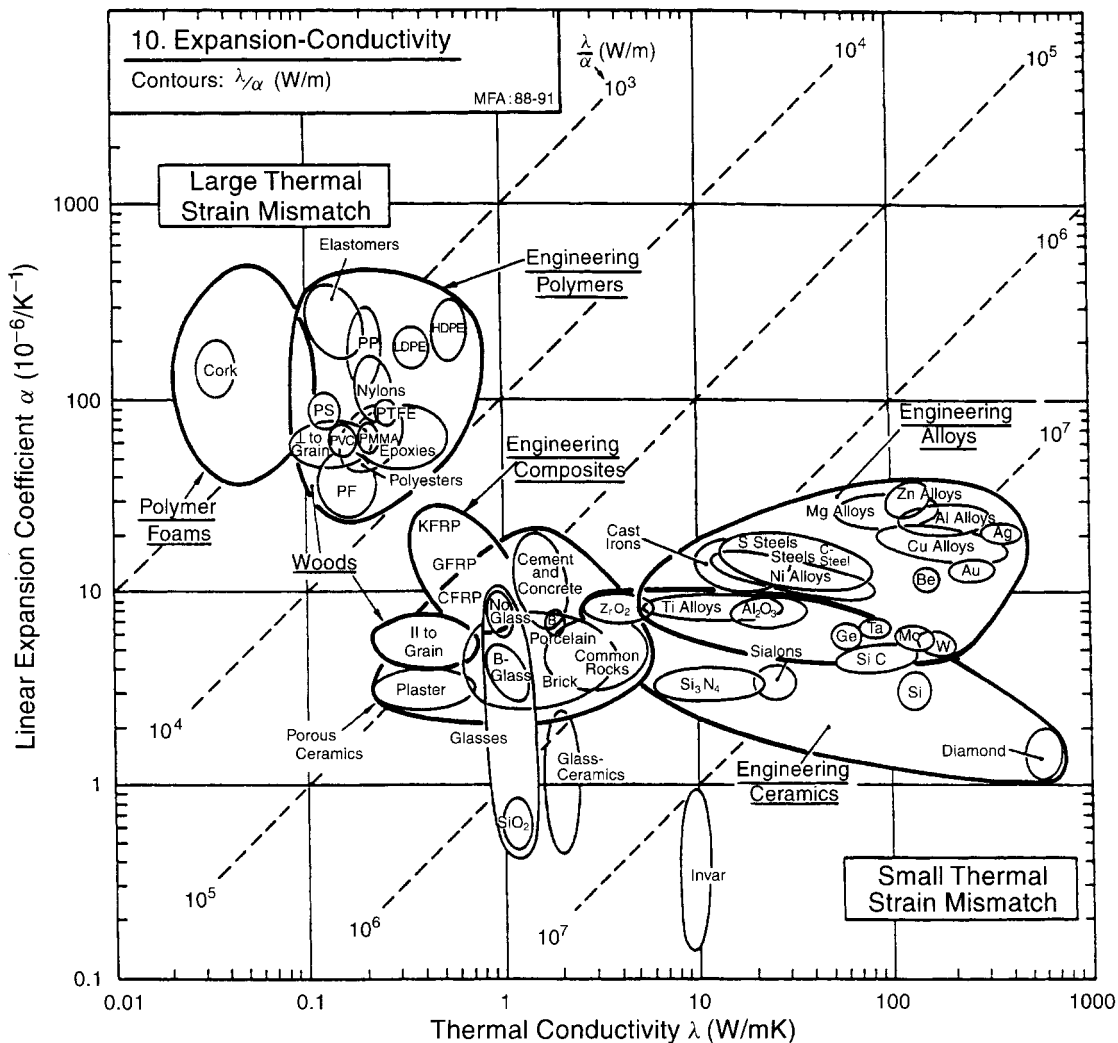


Chart 11: Linear thermal expansion, α , against Young's modulus, E

The chart guides in selecting materials when thermal stress is important. The contours show the thermal stress generated, per °C temperature change, in a constrained sample. They define the guide line

$$\alpha E = C \text{ MPa/K (constant thermal stress per K)}$$

The value of the constant C increases towards the upper right.

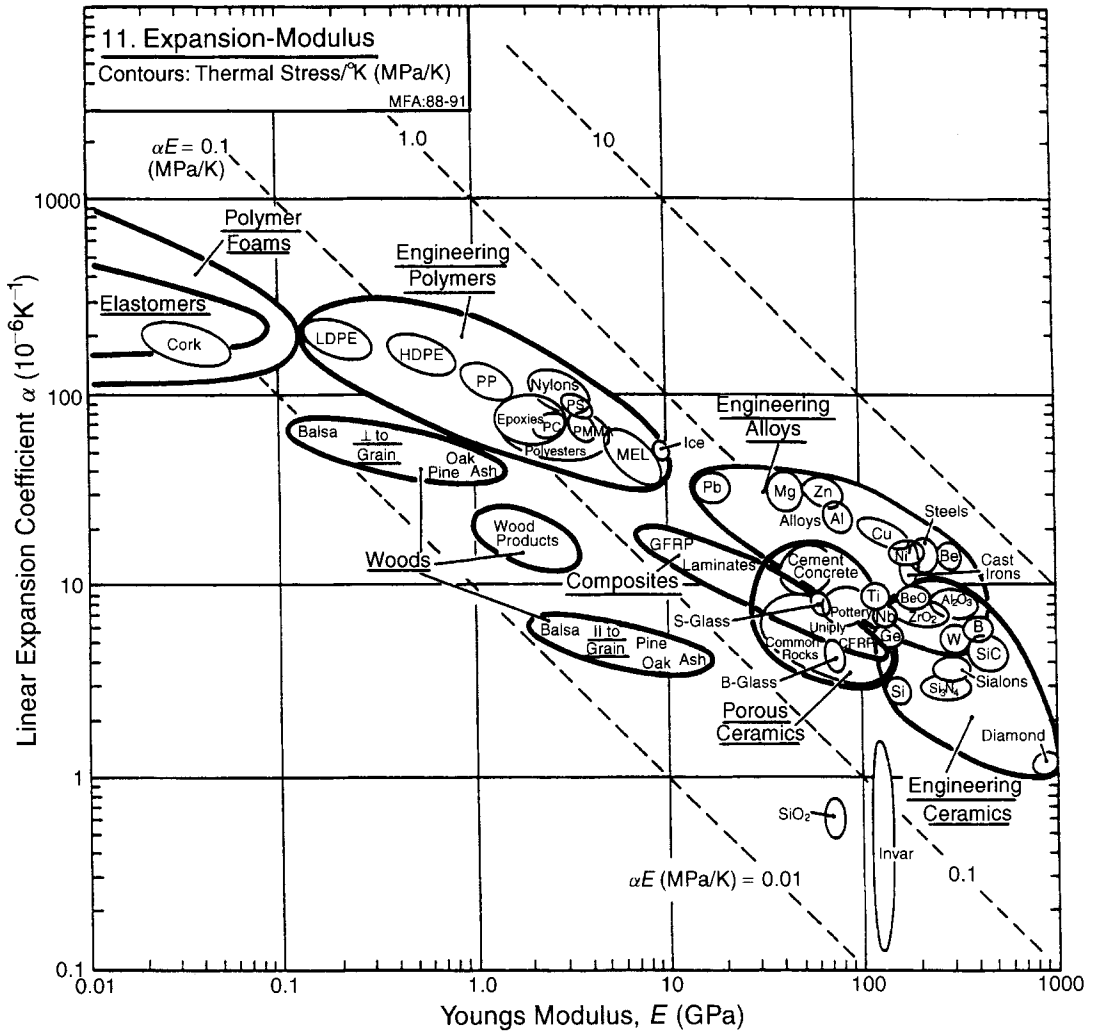


Chart 12: Normalized strength, σ_t/E , against linear expansion coeff., α

The chart guides in selecting materials to resist damage in a sudden change of temperature ΔT . The contours show values of the thermal shock parameter

$$B\Delta T = \frac{\sigma_t}{\alpha E}$$

in °C. Here σ_t is the tensile failure strength (the yield strength of ductile materials, the fracture strength of those which are brittle), E is Young's modulus and B is a factor which allows for constraint and for heat-transfer considerations:

$$B = 1/A \quad (\text{axial constraint})$$

$$B = (1 - \nu)/A \quad (\text{biaxial constraint})$$

$$B = (1 - 2\nu)/A \quad (\text{triaxial constraint})$$

with

$$A = \frac{th/\lambda}{1 + th/\lambda}$$

Here ν is Poisson's ratio, t a typical sample dimension, h is the heat-transfer coefficient at the sample surface and λ is its thermal conductivity. The contours define the guide line

$$B\Delta T = C \quad (\text{thermal shock resistance})$$

The value of the constant C increases towards the top left.

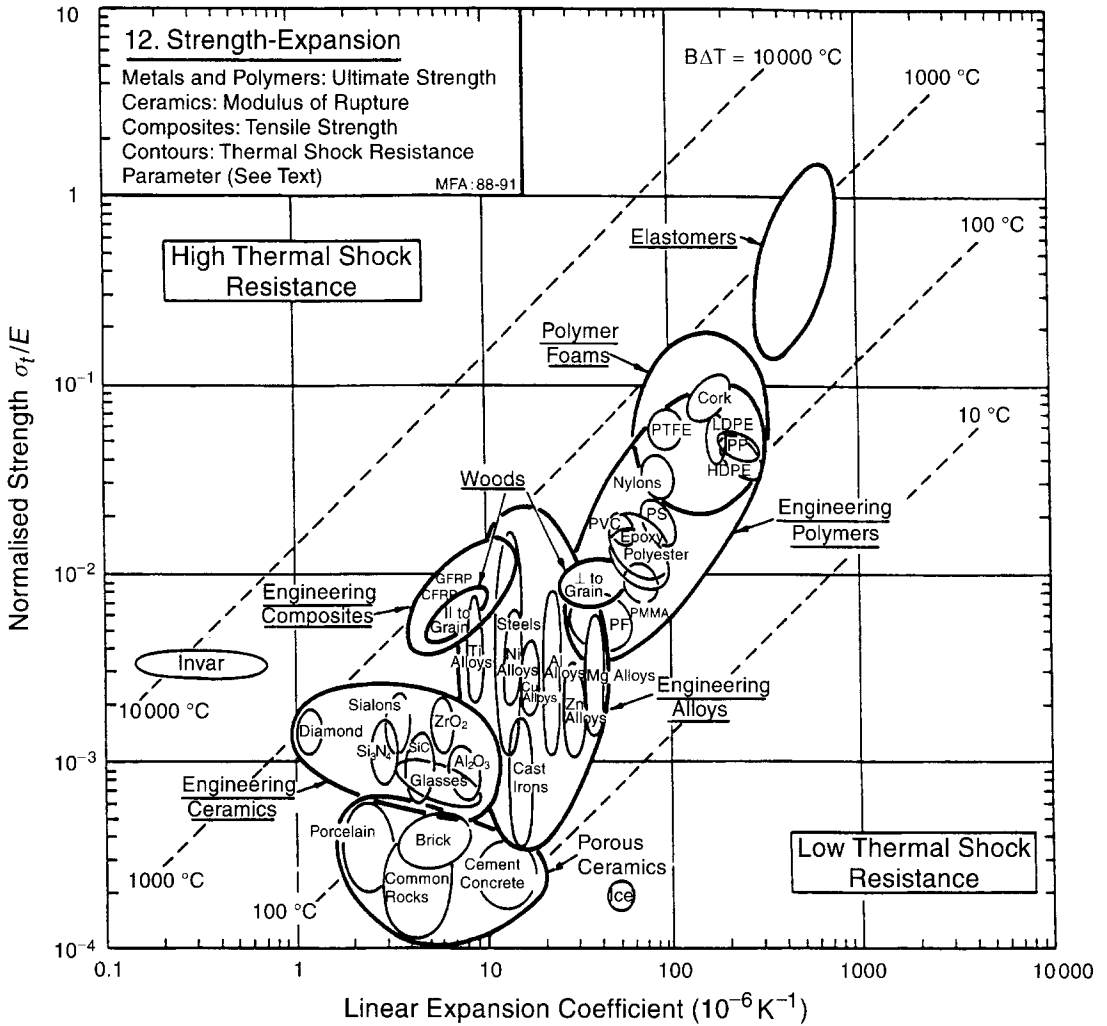


Chart 13: Strength-at-temperature, $\sigma(T)$, against temperature, T

Materials tend to show a strength which is almost independent of temperature up to a given temperature (the 'onset-of-creep' temperature); above this temperature the strength falls, often steeply. The lozenges show this behaviour (see inset at the bottom right). The 'strength' here is a short-term yield strength, corresponding to 1 hour of loading. For long loading times (10 000 hours for instance), the strengths are lower.

This chart gives an overview of high temperature strength, giving guidance in making an initial choice. Design against creep and creep-fracture requires further information and techniques.

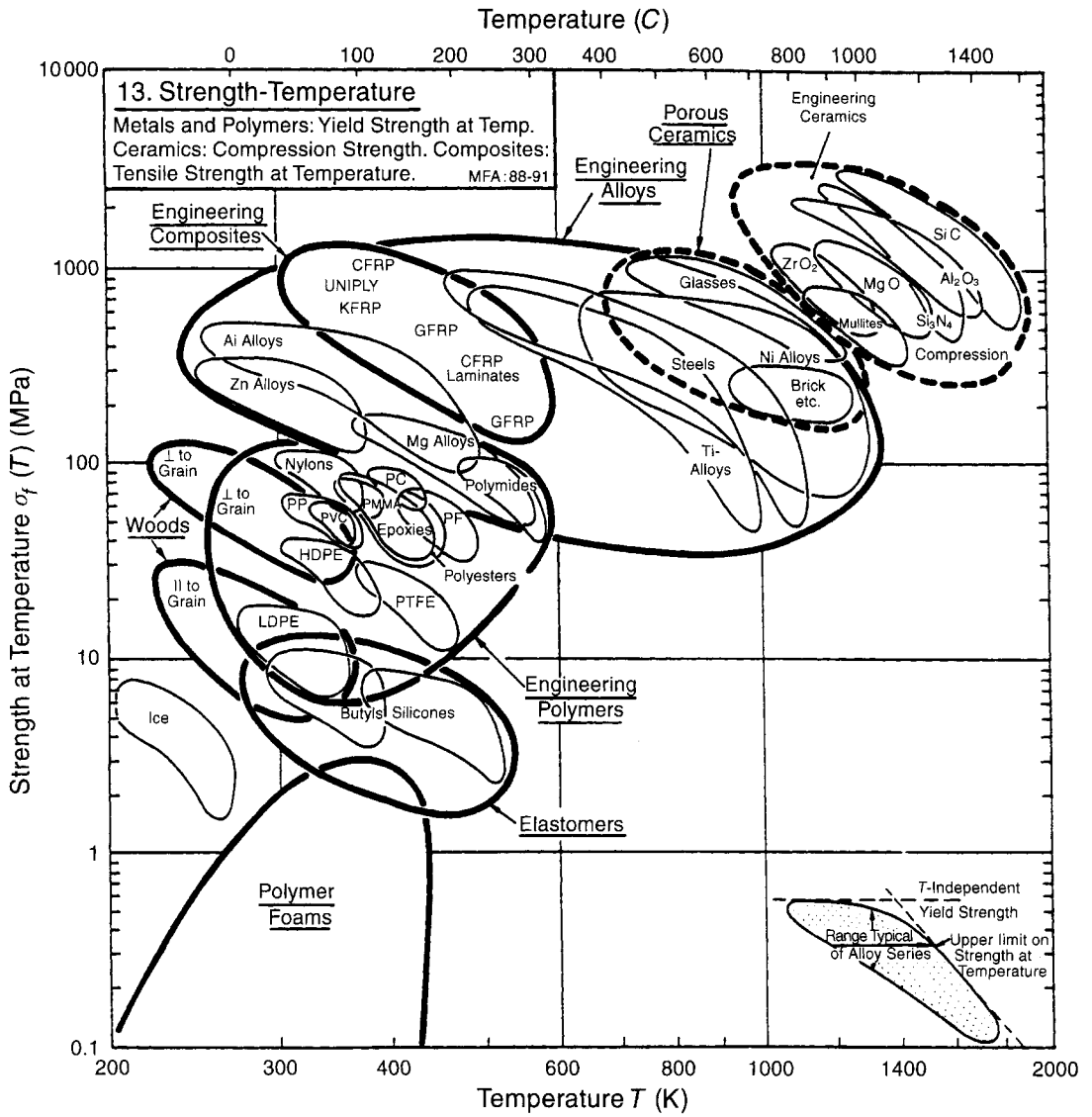


Chart 14: Young's modulus, E , against relative cost, $C_R\rho$

The chart guides selection of materials for cheap, stiff, components (material cost only). The relative cost C_R is calculated by taking that for mild steel reinforcing-rods as unity; thus

$$C_R = \frac{\text{Cost per unit weight of material}}{\text{Cost per unit weight of mild steel}}$$

The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $E/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of stiff ties, etc.)
- (b) $E^{1/2}/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of stiff beams and columns)
- (c) $E^{1/3}/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of stiff plates)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displayed upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest stiffness per unit cost lie towards the upper left corner. Other moduli are obtained approximately from E by

- (a) $\nu = 1/3$; $G = 3/8E$; $K \approx E$ (metals, ceramics, glasses and glassy polymers)
- or (b) $\nu \approx 1/2$; $G \approx 1/3E$; $K \approx 10E$ (elastomers, rubbery polymers)

where ν is Poisson's ratio, G the shear modulus and K the bulk modulus.

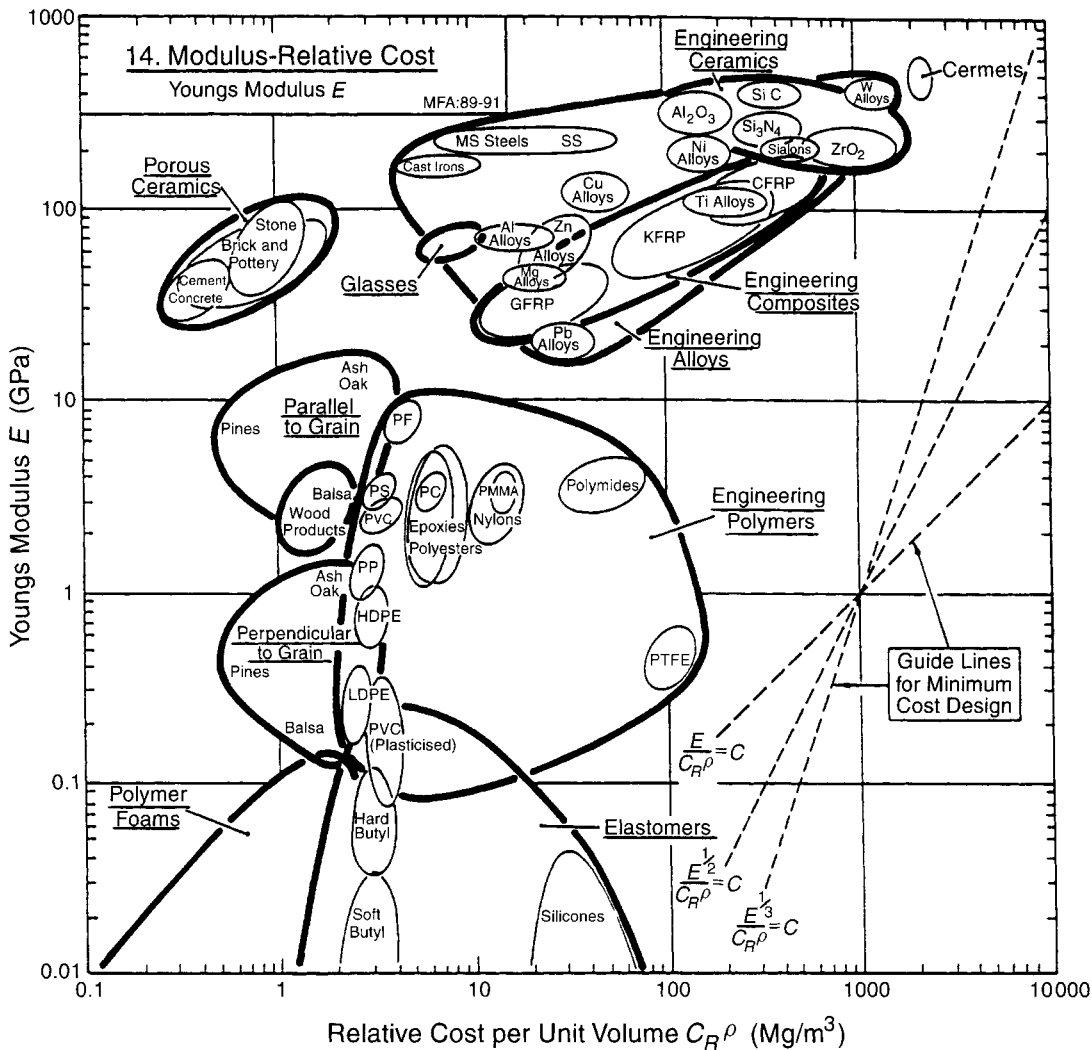


Chart 15: Strength, σ_f , against relative cost, $C_R\rho$

The chart guides selection of materials for cheap strong, components (material cost only). The 'strength' for metals is the 0.2% offset yield strength. For polymers, it is the stress at which the stress-strain curve becomes markedly non-linear — typically, a strain of about 1%. For ceramics and glasses, it is the compressive crushing strength; remember that this is roughly 15 times larger than the tensile (fracture) strength. For composites it is the tensile strength. For elastomers it is the tear-strength. The relative cost C_R is calculated by taking that for mild steel reinforcing-rods as unity; thus

$$C_R = \frac{\text{cost per unit weight of material}}{\text{cost per unit weight of mild steel}}$$

The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $\sigma_f/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of strong ties, rotating discs, etc.)
- (b) $\sigma_f^{2/3}/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of strong beams and shafts)
- (c) $\sigma_f^{1/2}/C_R\rho = C$ (minimum cost design of strong plates)

The value of the constants C increase as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest strength per unit cost lie towards the upper left corner.

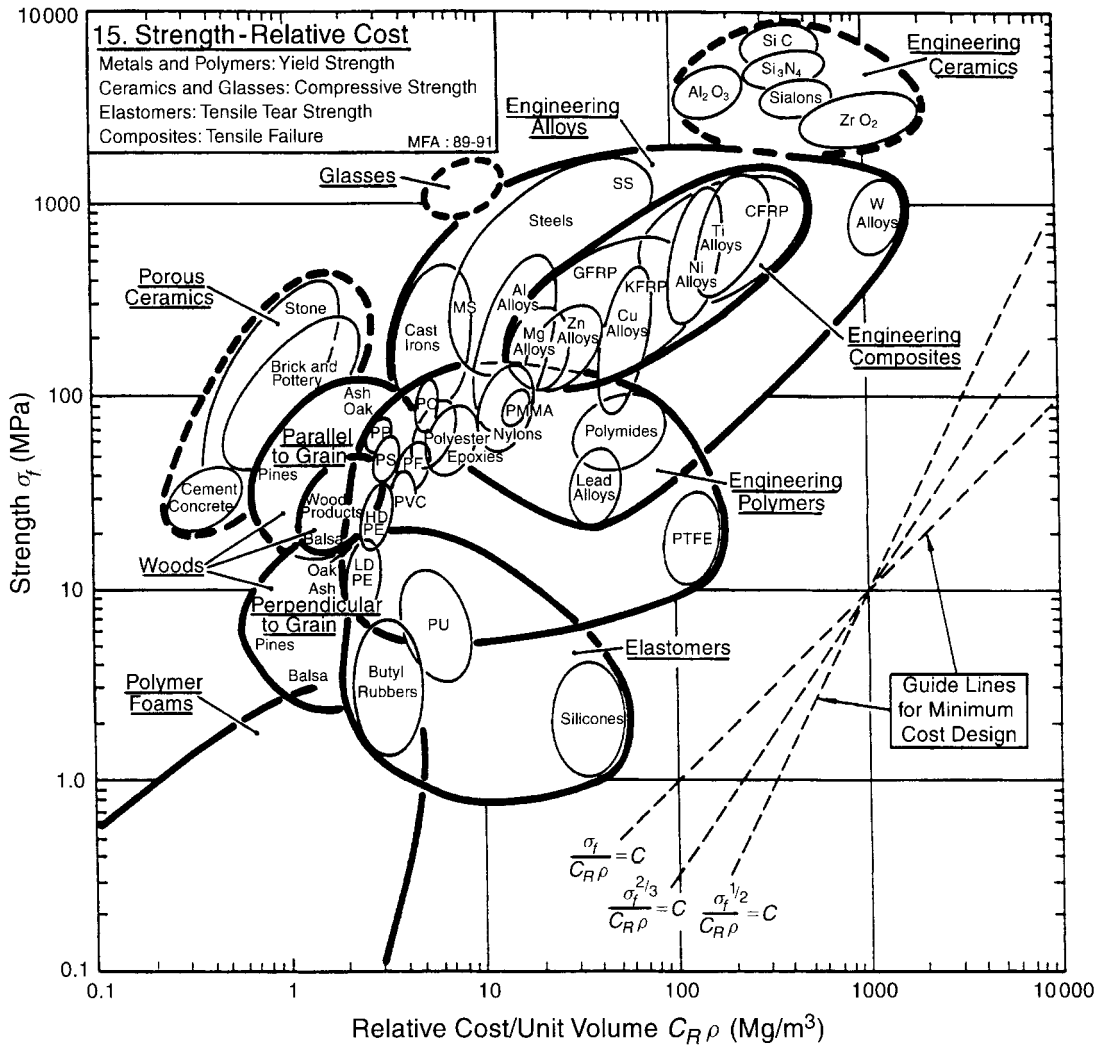


Chart 16: Dry wear rate against maximum bearing pressure, P_{\max}

The wear rate is defined as

$$W = \frac{\text{volume removed from contact surface}}{\text{distance slid}}$$

Archard's law, broadly describing wear rates at sliding velocities below 1 m/s, states that

$$W = k_a A_n P$$

where A_n is the nominal contact area, P the bearing pressure (force per unit area) at the sliding surfaces and k_a is Archard's wear-rate constant. At low bearing pressures k_a is a true constant, but as the maximum bearing pressure is approached it rises steeply. The chart shows Archard's constant,

$$k_a = \frac{W}{A_n P}$$

plotted against the hardness H of the material. In any one class of materials, high hardness correlates with low k_a .

Materials which have low k_a have low wear rates at a given bearing pressure, P . Efficient bearings, in terms of size or weight, will be loaded to a safe fraction of their maximum bearing pressure, which is proportional to hardness. For these, materials with low values of the product $k_a H$ are best. The diagonal lines show values of $k_a H$.

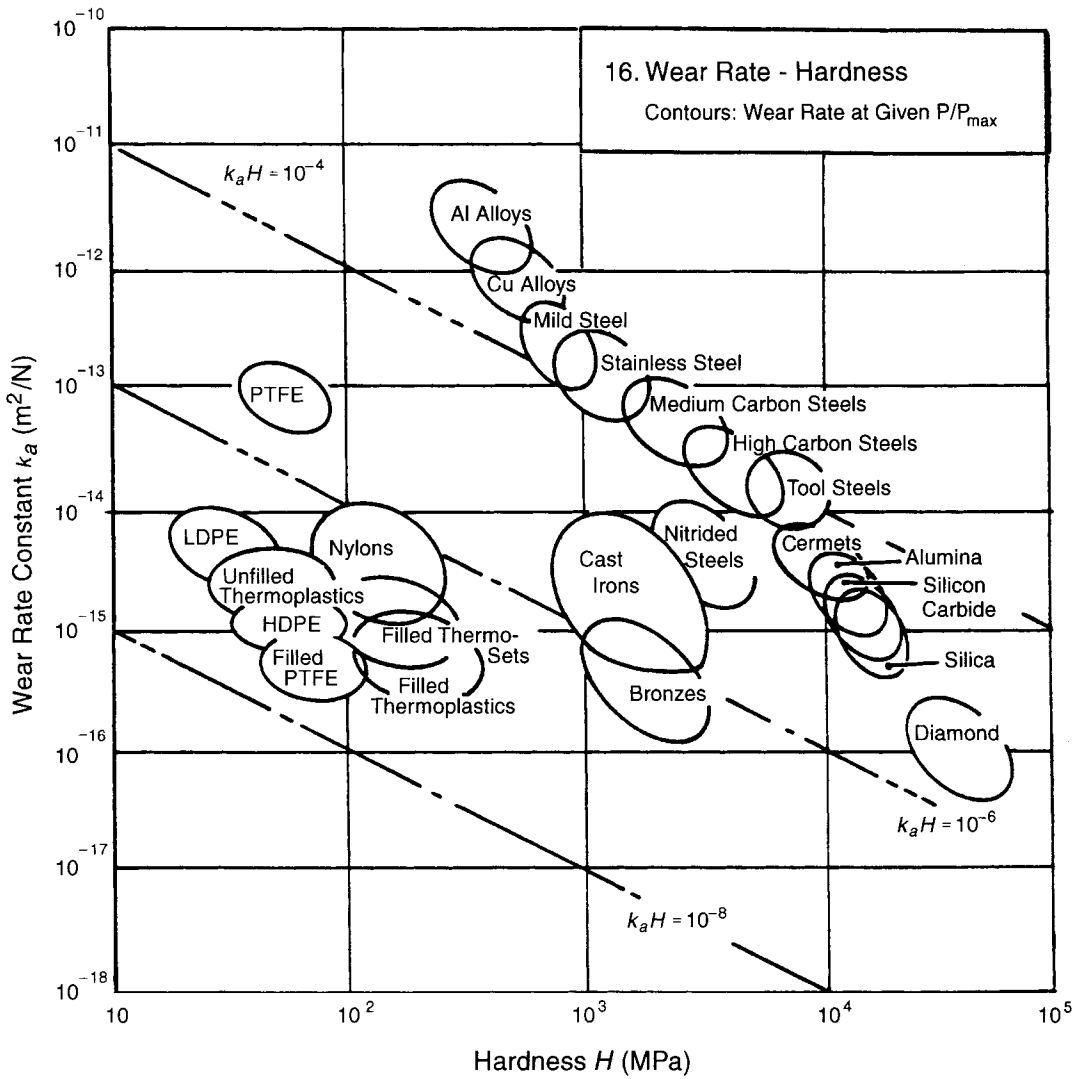


Chart 17: Young's modulus, E , against energy content, $q\rho$

The chart guides selection of materials for stiff, energy-economic components. The energy content per m^3 , $q\rho$, is the energy content per kg, q , multiplied by the density ρ . The guide-lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $E/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of stiff ties; minimum deflection in centrifugal loading etc.)
- (b) $E^{1/2}/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of stiff beams, shafts and columns)
- (c) $E^{1/3}/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of stiff plates)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest stiffness per energy content lie towards the upper left corner.

Other moduli are obtained approximately from E using

- (a) $\nu = 1/3$; $G = 3/8E$; $K \approx E$ (metals, ceramics, glasses and glassy polymers)
- or (b) $\nu \approx 1/2$; $G \approx 1/3E$; $K \approx 10E$ (elastomers, rubbery polymers)

where ν is Poisson's ratio, G the shear modulus and K the bulk modulus.

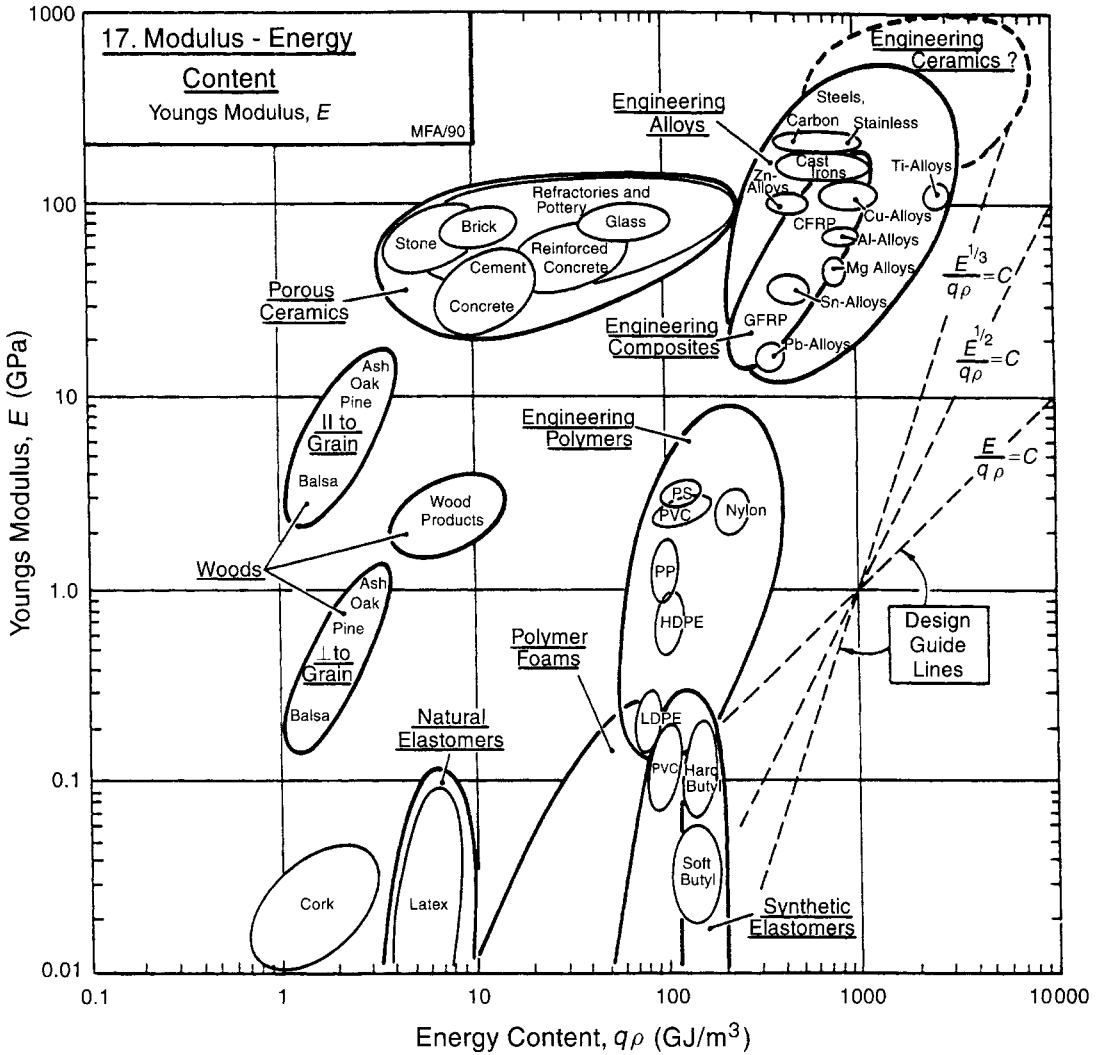
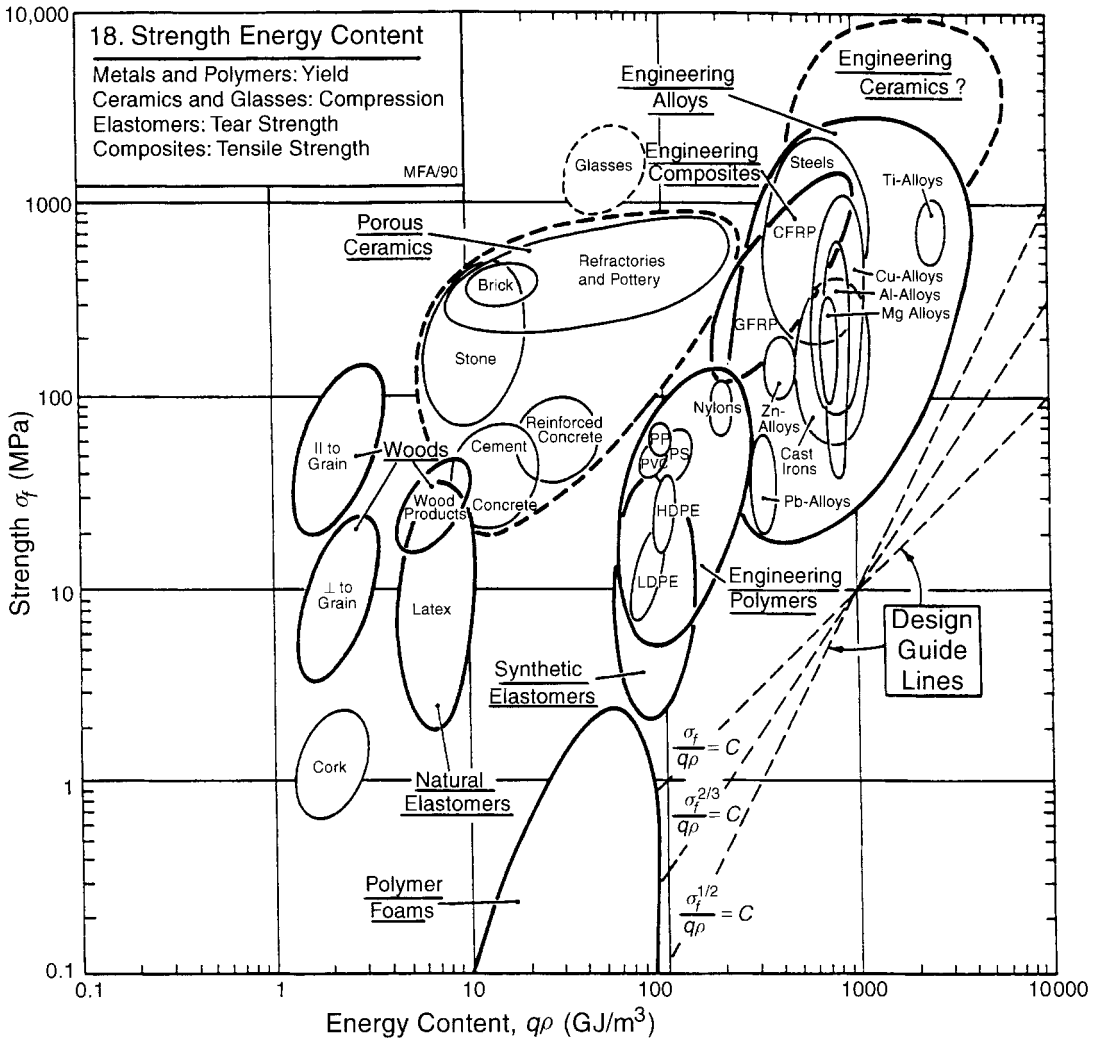


Chart 18: Strength, σ_f , against energy content, $q\rho$

The chart guides selection of materials for strong, energy-economic components. The ‘strength’ for metals is the 0.2% offset yield strength. For polymers, it is the stress at which the stress–strain curve becomes markedly non-linear — typically, a strain of about 1%. For ceramics and glasses, it is the compressive crushing strength; remember that this is roughly 15 times larger than the tensile (fracture) strength. For composites it is the tensile strength. For elastomers it is the tear-strength. The energy content per m^3 , $q\rho$, is the energy content per kg, q , multiplied by the density, ρ . The guide lines show the loci of points for which

- (a) $\sigma_f/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of strong ties; maximum rotational velocity of disks)
- (b) $\sigma_f^{2/3}/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of strong beams and shafts)
- (c) $\sigma_f^{1/2}/q\rho = C$ (minimum energy design of strong plates)

The value of the constant C increases as the lines are displaced upwards and to the left. Materials offering the greatest strength per unit energy content lie towards the upper left corner.



C.3 THE PROCESS-SELECTION CHARTS

Chart P1: The material–process matrix

The great number of processes used in manufacture can be classified under the broad headings on the vertical axis of this chart, which is a matrix relating material class to process class. The material classes, listed horizontally, are the usual ones: metals, ceramics and glasses, polymers and elastomers, and composites. These generic classes are subdivided: ferrous and non-ferrous metals, thermoplastic and thermosetting polymers, and so on. The number at a row-column intersection indicates the viability of a process for a material: 2 indicates that it is viable; 1 that it could be under special circumstances; 0 that it is not viable. Because the materials and processes are listed as subclasses (not individuals) some generalizations are inevitable. For a given material-subclass the table yields two short-lists: one of viable processes, the other of those which are possible or potentially viable.

Chart P2: Hardness, H , against melting temperature, T_m

The match between process and material is established by the link to material class of Chart P1 and by the use of the melting point–hardness chart shown here. The melting point imposes limits on the processing of materials by conventional casting methods. Low melting point metals can be cast by any one of many techniques. For those which melt above 2000 K, conventional casting methods are no longer viable, and special techniques such as electron-beam melting must be used. Similarly, the yield strength or hardness of a material imposes limitations on the choice of deformation and machining processes. Forging and rolling pressures are proportional to the flow strength, and the heat generated during machining, which limits tool life, also scales with the ultimate strength or hardness. Generally speaking, deformation processing is limited to materials with hardness values below 3 GPa. Other manufacturing methods exist which are not limited either by melting point or by hardness. Examples are: powder methods, CVD and evaporation techniques, and electro-forming.

The chart presents this information in graphical form. In reality, only part of the space covered by the axes is accessible: it is the region between the two heavy lines. The hardness and melting point of materials are not independent properties: low melting point materials tend to be soft; high melting point materials are generally hard. This information is captured by the equation

$$0.03 < \frac{H\Omega}{kT_m} < 20$$

where Ω is the atomic or molecular volume and k is Boltzmann's Constant (1.38×10^{-26} J/K). It is this equation which defines the two bold lines.

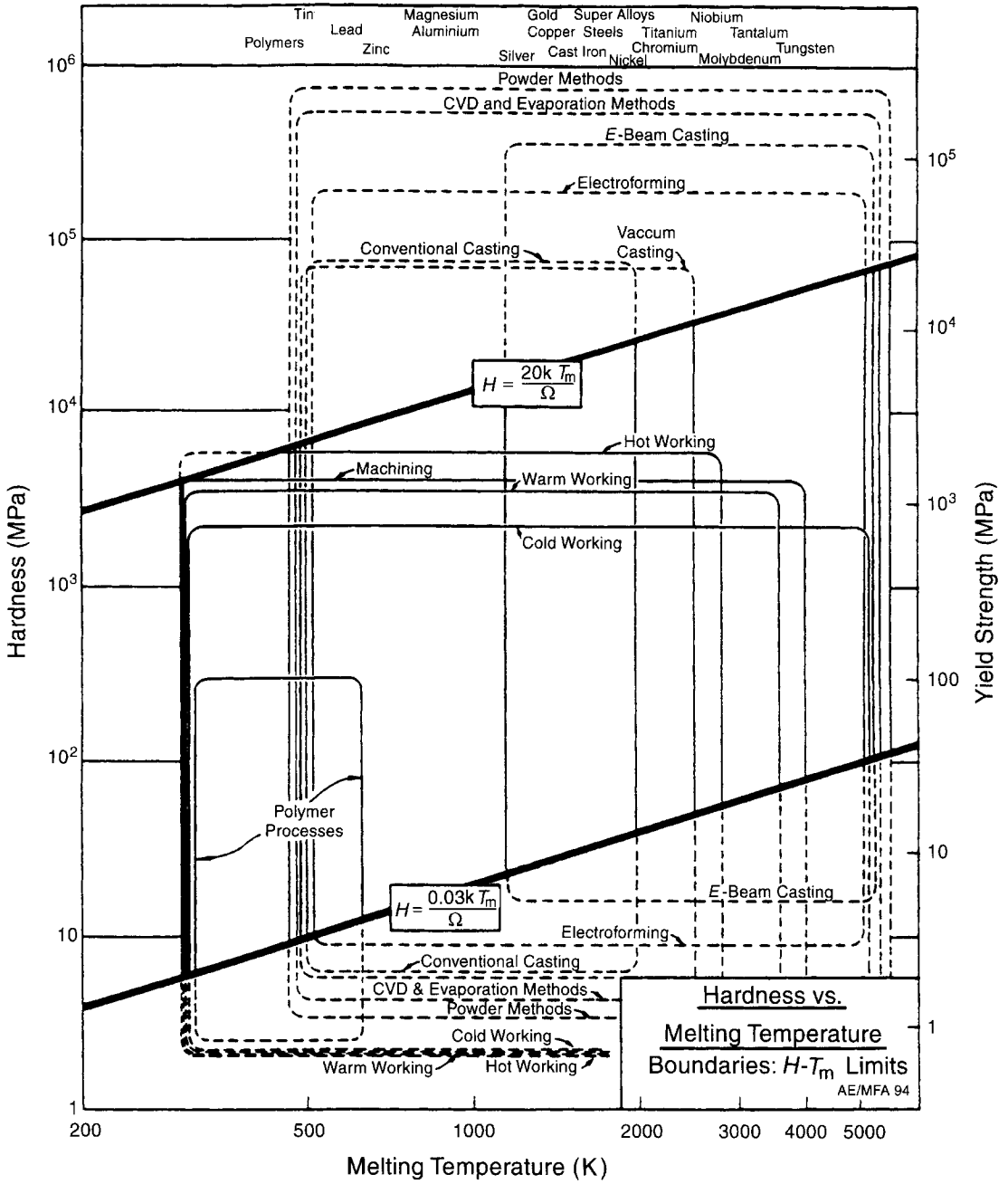


Chart P3: Volume, V , against slenderness, S

Manufacturing processes vary widely in their capacity to make thin, slender sections. For our purposes, slenderness, S , is measured by the ratio t/ℓ where t is the minimum section and ℓ is the large dimension of the shape: for flat shapes, ℓ is about equal to \sqrt{A} where A is the projected area normal to t . Thus

$$S = \frac{t}{\sqrt{A}}$$

Size is defined by the minimum and maximum volumes of which the process is capable. The volume, V , for uniform sections is, within a factor of 2, given by

$$V = At$$

Volume can be converted approximately to weight by using an ‘average’ material density of 5000 kg/m^3 ; most engineering materials have densities within a factor of 2 of this value. Polymers are the exception: their densities are all around 1000 kg/m^3 .

The size-slenderness chart is shown opposite. The horizontal axis is the slenderness, S ; the vertical axis is the volume, V . Contours of A and t are shown as families of diagonal lines. *Casting processes* occupy a characteristic field of this space. Surface tension and heat-flow limit the minimum section and the slenderness of gravity cast shapes. The range can be extended by applying a pressure, as in centrifugal casting and pressure die casting, or by preheating the mould. *Deformation processes* — cold, warm and hot — cover a wider range. Limits on forging-pressures set a lower limit on thickness and slenderness, but it is not nearly as severe as in casting. *Machining* creates slender shapes by removing unwanted material. *Powder-forming* methods occupy a smaller field, one already covered by casting and deformation shaping methods, but they can be used for ceramics and very hard metals which cannot be shaped in other ways. *Polymer-forming methods* — injection moulding, pressing, blow-moulding, etc. — share this regime. *Special techniques*, which include electro-forming, plasma-spraying, and various vapour-deposition methods, allow very slender shapes. *Joining* extends the range further: fabrication allows almost unlimited size and complexity.

A real design demands certain specific values of S and V , or A and t . Given this information, a subset of possible processes can be read off.

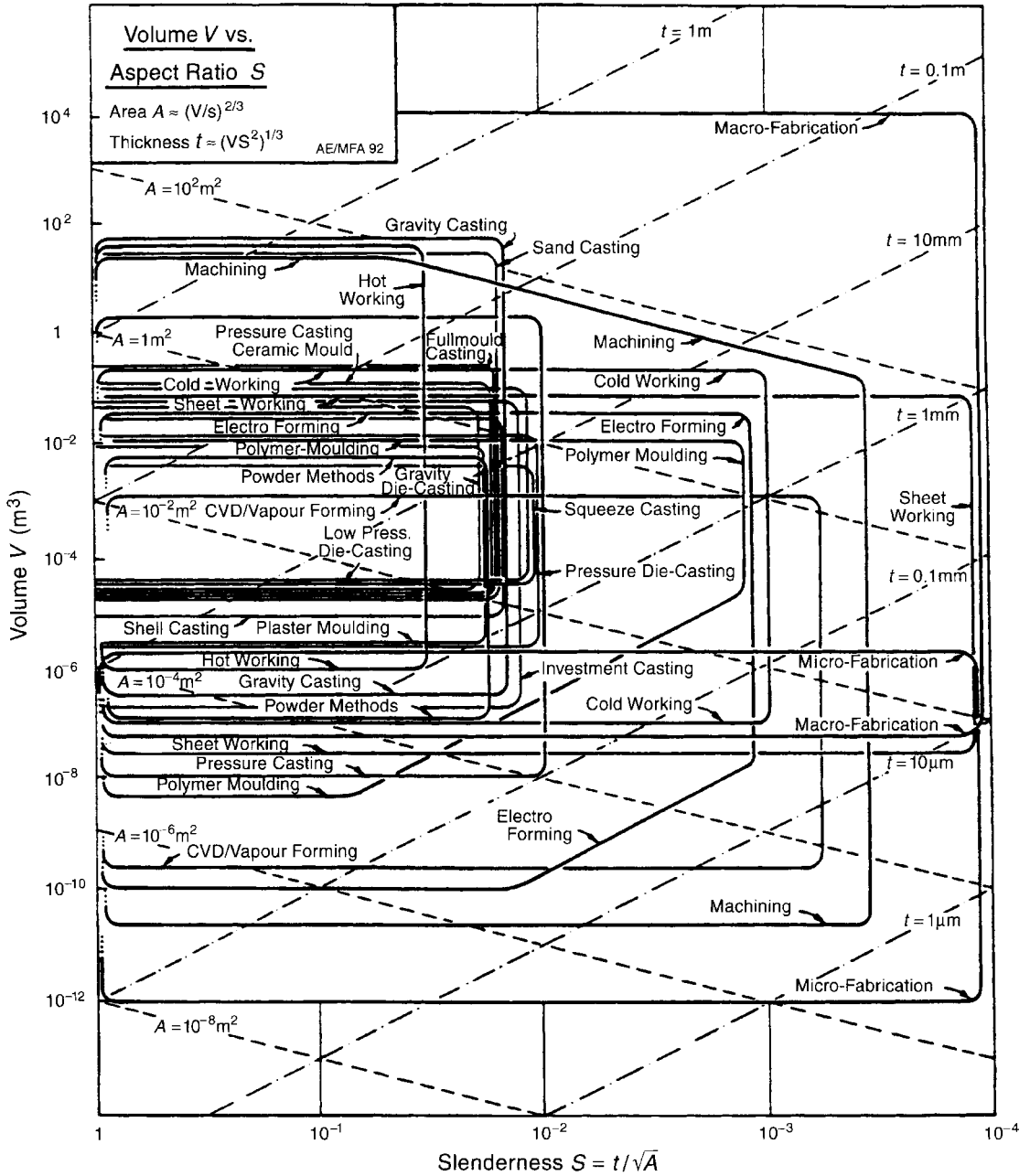


Chart P4: The shape classification scheme

Certain processes are well adapted to the manufacture of shapes with certain symmetries. Lathes, for example, are well adapted to the making of axisymmetric shapes; other shapes are possible but more difficult. Extrusion, drawing and rolling make prismatic shapes. Indexing gives shapes with translational or rotational symmetry. Shapes can be further subdivided into uniform, stepped, angled or dished. Uniform shapes are obviously easier to make than ones which are stepped or have side branches. Some processes are only capable of making hollow shapes, whereas others can make only solid ones.

The chart gives a shape classification which relates to these facts. The shapes are arranged in such a way that complexity, defined here as the difficulty of making the shape, increases downwards and to the right. Examples of each shape are given in order to facilitate the identification of the shape category which describes the desired design.

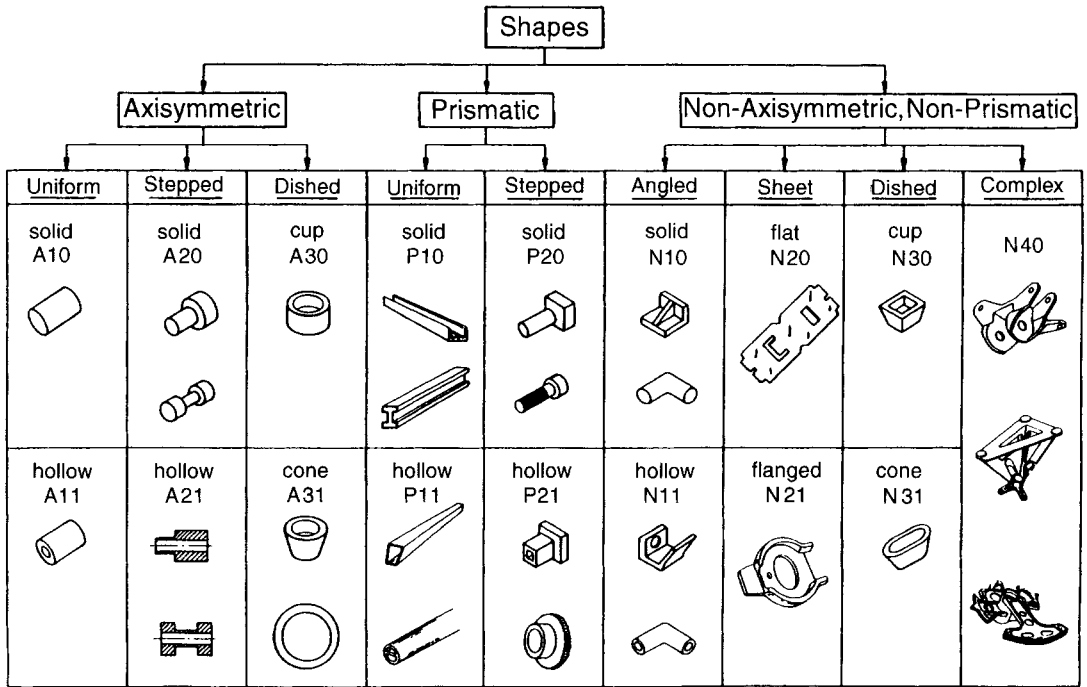


Chart P5: The shape–process matrix

The shape capabilities of manufacturing processes are summarized in this chart. It uses the same format and classifications as the material–process matrix. Processes are listed vertically and the various shapes (referred to by their codes) are listed horizontally. The capability of a process to make a shape is indicated by the number 0 or 1: the number 1 means that the process can make the shape; the number 0 that it cannot.

Chart P6: Complexity against volume, V

Complexity is here defined as *the presence of features such as holes, threads, undercuts, bosses, re-entrant shapes, etc., which cause manufacturing difficulty or require additional operations*. For purposes of comparison, a scale of 1 to 5 is used with 1 indicating the simplest shapes and 5 the most complicated. Each process is given a rating for the maximum complexity of which it is capable corresponding to its proximity to the top left or bottom right shapes in Chart P4.

This information is plotted on the complexity level-size chart shown here. *Deformation processes* give shapes of limited complexity. *Powder routes* and *composite forming methods* are also limited compared with other methods. *Polymer moulding* does better. *Casting processes* offer the greatest complexity of all: a cast automobile cylinder block, for instance, is an extremely complicated object. *Machining* processes increase complexity by adding new features to a component. *Fabrication* extends the range of complexity to the highest level.

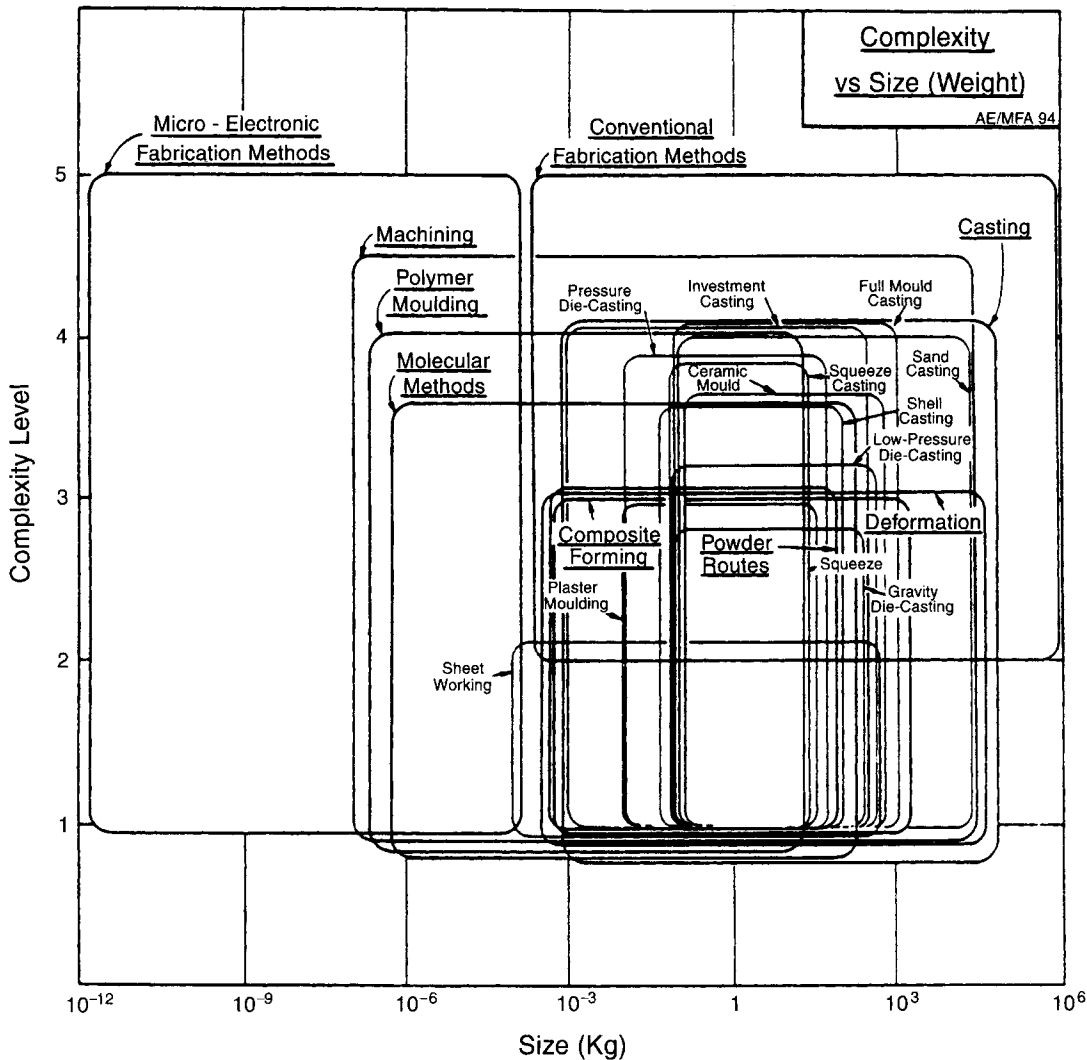


Chart P7: Tolerance range, T , against RMS surface roughness, R

No process can shape a part *exactly* to a specified dimension. Some deviation Δx from a desired dimension x is permitted; it is referred to as the *tolerance*, T , and is specified as $x = 100 \pm 0.1$ mm, or as $x = 50_{-0.001}^{+0.01}$ mm. Closely related to this is the *surface roughness* R , measured by the root-mean-square amplitude of the irregularities on the surface. It is specified as $R < 100$ μm (the rough surface of a sand casting) or $R < 0.01$ μm (a lapped surface; Table 11.2).

Manufacturing processes vary in the levels of tolerance and roughness they can achieve economically. Achievable tolerances and roughnesses are shown in this chart. The tolerance is obviously greater than $2R$ (shaded band): indeed, since R is the root-mean-square roughness, the peak roughness is more like $5R$. Real processes give tolerances which range from about $10R$ to $1000R$. Sand casting gives rough surfaces; casting into metal dies gives a better finish. *Moulded polymer* inherit the finish of the moulds and thus can be very smooth, but tolerances better than ± 0.2 mm are seldom possible because of internal stresses left by moulding and because polymers creep in service. Machining, capable of high dimensional accuracy and smooth surface finish, is commonly used after casting or deformation processing to bring the tolerance or finish to the desired level. Metals and ceramics can be *surface-ground* and *lapped* to a high tolerance and smoothness.

Precision and high finish are expensive: processing costs increase almost exponentially as the requirements for tolerance and surface roughness are made more severe. The chart shows contours of relative cost: an increase in precision corresponding to the separation of two neighbouring contours gives an increase in cost, for a given process, of a factor of two.

Achievable tolerances depend, of course, on dimensions (those given here apply to a 25 mm dimension) and on material. However, for our purposes, typical ranges of tolerance and surface finish are sufficient and discriminate clearly between various processes.

