

Physical Foundations of Dental Materials Science

7. Mechanical properties of materials 1. Elasticity

Keywords:

- ❖ 1 Stress-strain
- ❖ 2 Elasticity
- ❖ 3 Deformations

E-book
chapter 14, 15.

Problems: 4.1, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.9, 4.11, 4.16, 4.17, 4.18, 4.21, 4.22, 4.23, 4.24.

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Mechanical properties of materials

Stiffness, elasticity, toughness, hardness are the most important parameters when considering mastication, implantology or orthodontics.

Mechanical stress (force) is applied on material.

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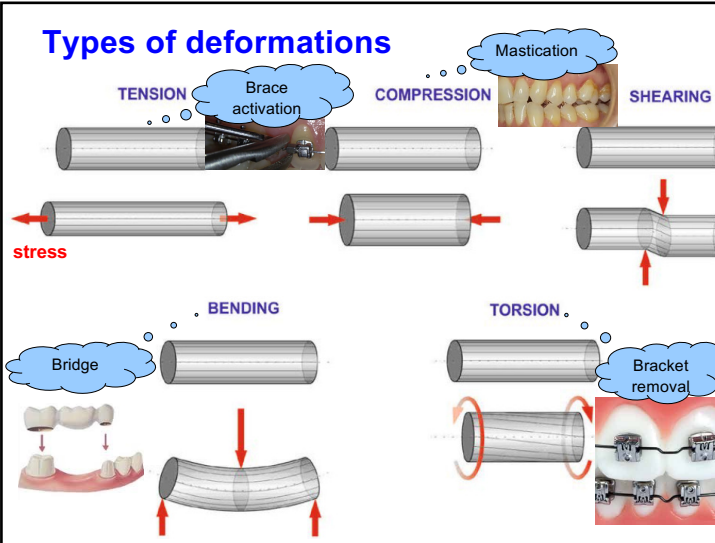
The consequence is usually some kind of deformation.
(change in shape depends on the direction and point of application)

↓

Depending on the materials mechanical properties, deformation may be reversible or irreversible.

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Types of deformations



stress

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elastic *adjective* able to resume its normal shape spontaneously after being stretched or compressed

rigid *adjective* unable to bend or be forced out of shape; not flexible

plastic *adjective* relating to the permanent deformation of a solid without fracture by the temporary application of force

strong *adjective* able to withstand force, pressure, or wear

weak *adjective* liable to break or give way under pressure; easily damaged

solid *adjective* firm and stable in shape; not liquid or fluid, strongly built or made of strong materials

tough *adjective* resistant to fracture or breaking

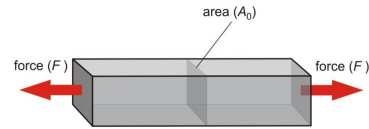
brittle *adjective* liable to break easily

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Basic concepts

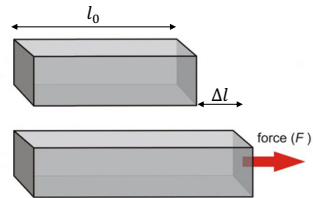
Stress

$$\sigma = \frac{F}{A_0} \quad \text{Dimension: } \left[\frac{N}{m^2} = Pa \right]$$



Strain (deformation)

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\Delta l}{l_0} \quad \text{Dimensionless: } \left[\frac{m}{m} \right]$$

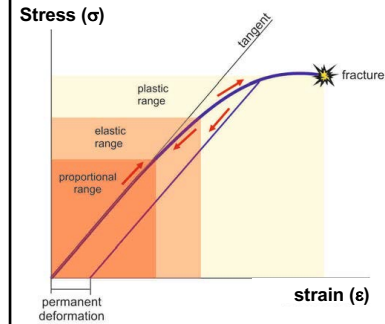


Strain is proportional to stress!

$$\sigma \sim \varepsilon$$

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Stress-strain diagram



Elastic range

Range of reversible deformation. Unloaded length (l_0) recovers when released. Hysteresis may occur.

Proportional range (part of elastic range)

Deformation is linearly proportional to the load. No hysteresis. (see Hooke's law: Biophysics, Resonance lab)

Plastic range

After a critical stress value, object undergoes irreversible change of its structure. Unloaded length (l_0) does not recover. Permanent deformation of object.

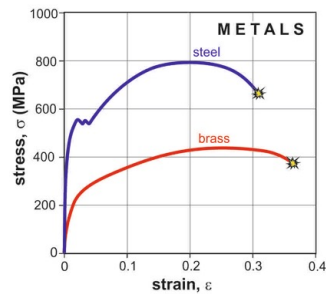
Fracture

Desintegration of object.

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Typical stress-strain curves

Metals



Short elastic range

Serious plastic range

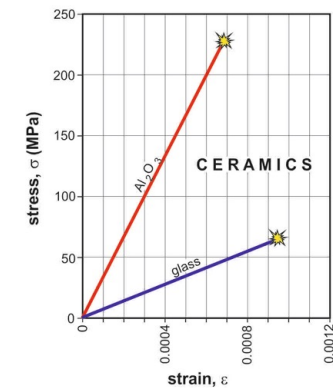
Metals are highly deformable

$\varepsilon_{\max} \sim 0.3$ (~30%)

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Typical stress-strain curves

Ceramics



Extremely short elastic range
 $\varepsilon_{\max} < 0.001$ (less than ~0.1%)

No plastic range!

Ceramics are brittle, they rupture after a short extension/compression....



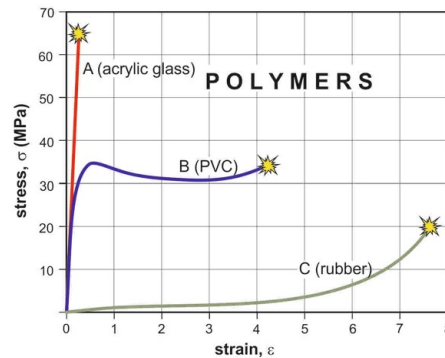
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Typical stress-strain curves

Polymers



Polymers show various behaviours

Typically they are deformable ϵ_{\max} from 0.1 to 8

Acrylic glass
No plastic range - brittle

PVC
Large plastic range
Plastic polymer

Rubber
Elastic polymer
 ϵ_{\max} up to 7-8 (~700-800%)

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Additional factors determining the stress-strain diagram

The main decisive is the material's structure (e.g. amorphous or crystalline)

1. Type of stress. (For example the behavior of ceramics is different in the case of tension or elongation.)
2. The shape, size commonly the geometry of the object. (It is more difficult to bend a thicker rod than a thin.)
3. The run-time of the stress: *stress rate*. (For example the glass is broken into pieces using a hammer but a bullet launched by a gun produces a small hole only.)
Mechanical properties – introduction
4. Temperature. (Some metals are very plastic and tough at room temperature but become more brittle cooling them.)
These conditions must be presented in the stress-strain diagram.

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Hooke's law of elasticity

Strain is proportional to stress!

$$\sigma \sim \epsilon$$

$$\sigma = E\epsilon$$

$$\frac{F}{A_0} = E \frac{\Delta l}{l_0}$$

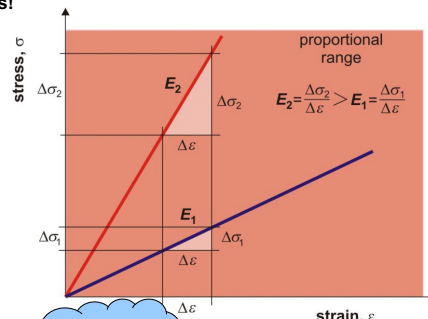
$$F = \frac{EA_0}{l_0} \Delta l$$

$$F = k\Delta l$$

Proportionality coefficients:

Young's modulus (material stiffness)

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} = \frac{F}{A_0} \frac{l_0}{\Delta l} \quad E = \left[\frac{N}{m^2} \right] = Pa$$



The symbol D is also used for spring constant!

Body stiffness

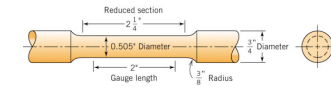
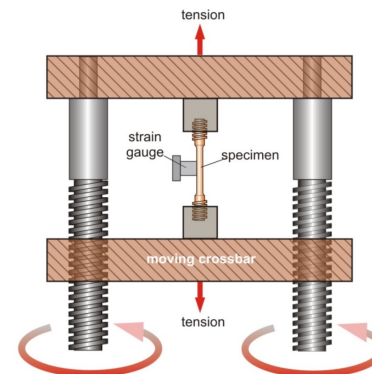
$$k = \frac{F}{\Delta l} = \frac{EA_0}{l_0} \quad k = \left[\frac{N}{m} \right]$$

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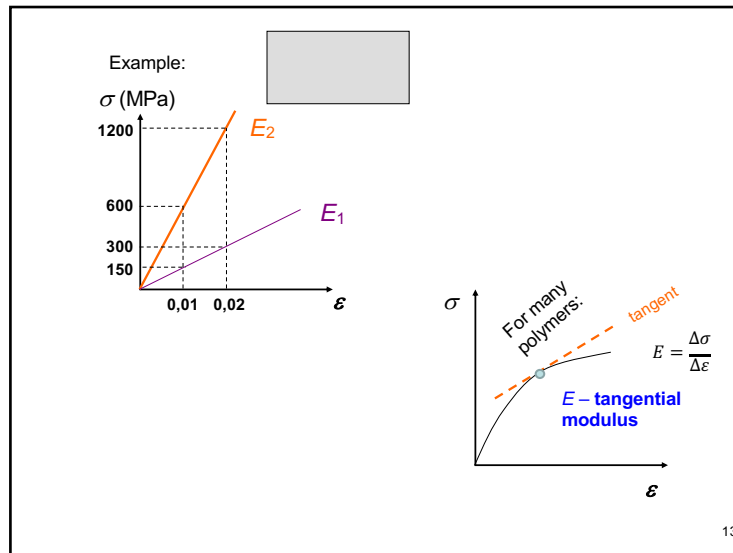
Testing

The result of such measurement is determined by:

- Type of stress (tension, ...)
- sample geometry
- Timecourse of stress
 - constant
 - changing
- temperature



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Quantification of stiffness

Young's modulus of various materials

1 GPa = 10^9 N/m²

Spring constant
Easy to measure
Depends on size and shape of object

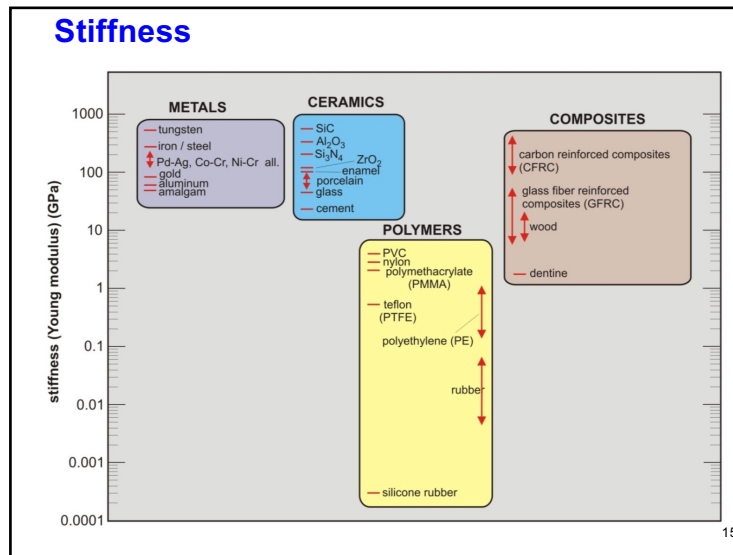
Young's modulus
Hard to measure (we need to know the object's dimensions)
Shape independent

1/E – reciprocal of E is used to express compliance!

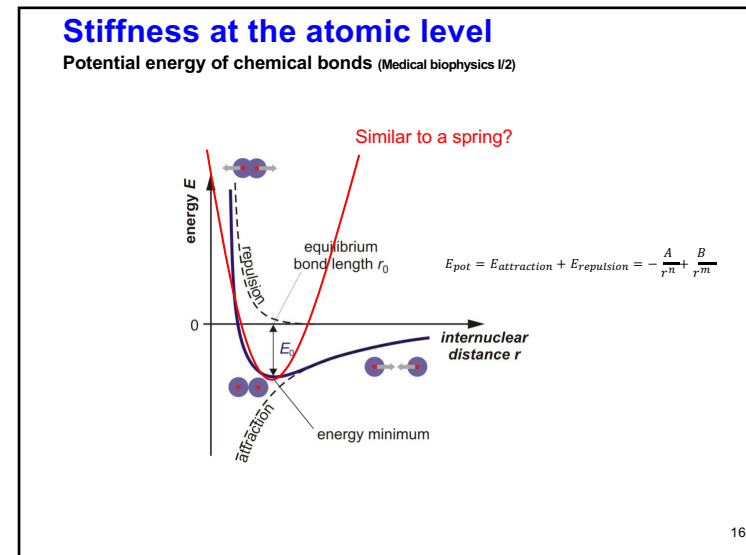
material	E (GPa)
dentine	≈ 15
enamel	≈ 100
silicon rubber	≈ 0.0003
steel	200-230
amalgam	50-60
glass	60-90
porcelain	60-110
gold	79
gold alloys	75-110
Pd-Ag alloys	100-120
titanium	110
titanium alloys	105-120
Co-Cr alloys	120-220
Ni-Cr alloys	140-190

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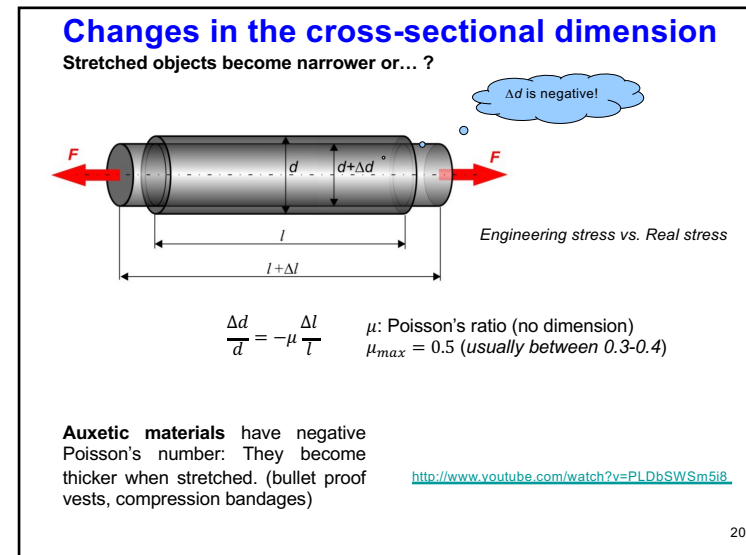
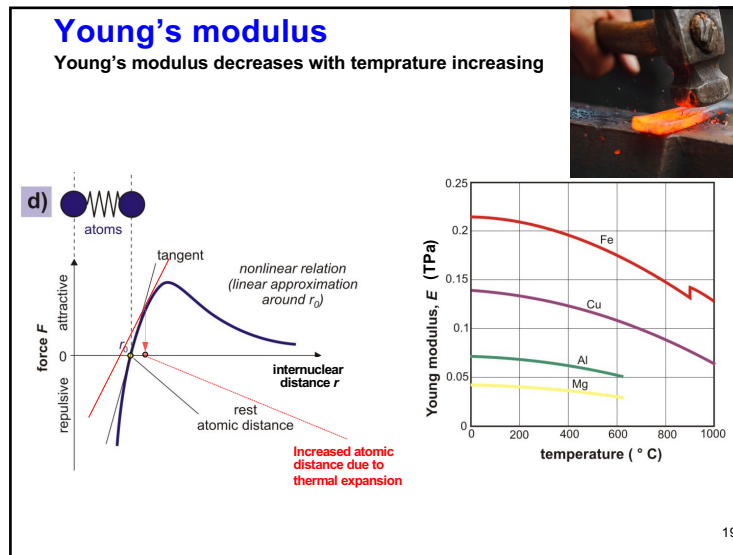
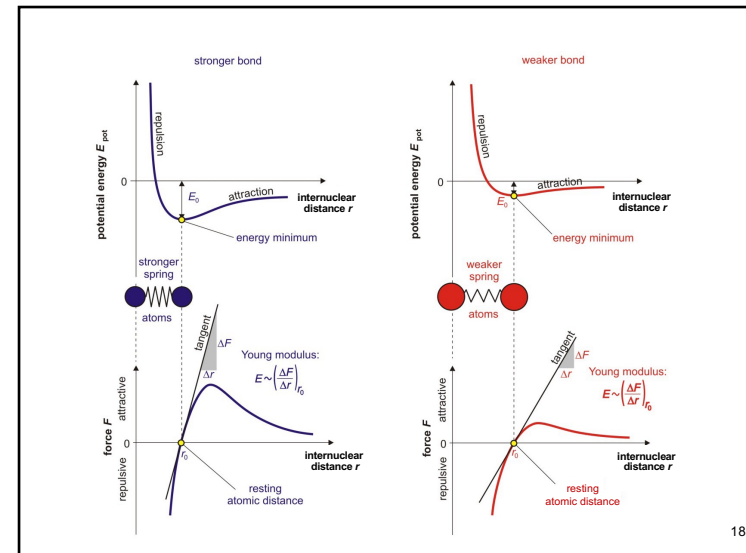
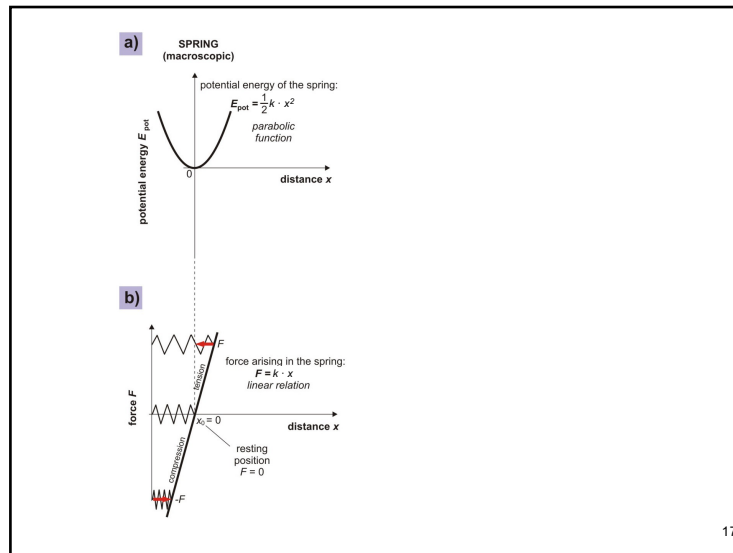
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Deformations in other directions

Compression

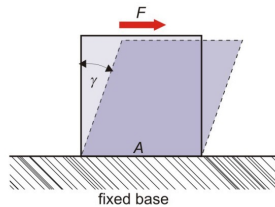
Same as stretch, but signs of stress and strain are opposite, Hooke's law is valid.

Shear

Force is parallel to the surface,

Shear stress: $\sigma_{\text{shear}} = \frac{F_{\text{shear}}}{A}$

Strain is characterized by the γ angle



$$\sigma_{\text{shear}} = G\gamma$$

G : Shear modulus
 γ : in radians!

$$G = \frac{E}{2(1 + \mu)}$$

Depends on Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio!

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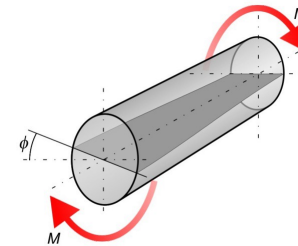
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Deformations in other directions

Torsion

Can be derived from shear. Torque (M) is applied on the object.

Angle of torsion (ϕ) is measured in radians!



$$M = G \frac{r^4 \pi}{2l} \phi$$

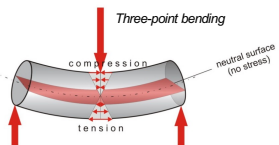
G : Shear modulus
(contains E and μ)

r : radius
 ϕ : angle of torsion
 l : length

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Deformations in other directions



Bending

Compression on the side of force applied, tension on the opposite side of object. Neutral surface at the middle – does not deform



Cantilever deflection

$$F = 3E \frac{\Theta}{l^3} s$$

G : Force
 E : Young's modulus
 Θ : secondary moment of area
 s : deflection
 l : length

Body stiffness in case of deflection

CROSS-SECTIONS SECONDARY MOMENT OF AREA



$$\Theta = \frac{\pi}{4} r^4$$



$$\Theta = \frac{\pi}{4} (r_2^4 - r_1^4)$$



$$\Theta = \frac{1}{12} a b^3$$

In case of bending the force required depends stronger on the shape!

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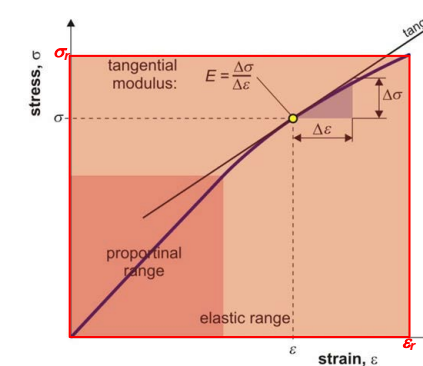
Elasticity beyond the proportional range

Elastic limit

End of the elastic range on the y-axis (σ_f) – maximum reversible strain

Elastic strain recovery

End of the elastic range on the y-axis (ϵ_f) – maximum reversible stress



Tangential Young's modulus

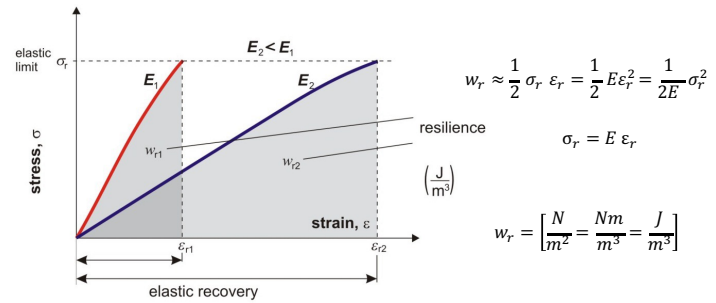
$$E = \frac{\Delta \sigma}{\Delta \epsilon}$$

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Resilience

Work done on the material per unit volume till the elastic limit.



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