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**Metallic materials — Tensile testing at  
high strain rates —**

**Part 1:  
Elastic-bar-type systems**

*Matériaux métalliques — Essai de traction à vitesses de déformation  
élevées —*

**iTeh STANDARD PREVIEW**  
*Partie 1: Systèmes de type à barre élastique*  
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## Foreword

ISO (the International Organization for Standardization) is a worldwide federation of national standards bodies (ISO member bodies). The work of preparing International Standards is normally carried out through ISO technical committees. Each member body interested in a subject for which a technical committee has been established has the right to be represented on that committee. International organizations, governmental and non-governmental, in liaison with ISO, also take part in the work. ISO collaborates closely with the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) on all matters of electrotechnical standardization.

The procedures used to develop this document and those intended for its further maintenance are described in the ISO/IEC Directives, Part 1. In particular the different approval criteria needed for the different types of ISO documents should be noted. This document was drafted in accordance with the editorial rules of the ISO/IEC Directives, Part 2 (see [www.iso.org/directives](http://www.iso.org/directives)).

Attention is drawn to the possibility that some of the elements of this document may be the subject of patent rights. ISO shall not be held responsible for identifying any or all such patent rights. Details of any patent rights identified during the development of the document will be in the Introduction and/or on the ISO list of patent declarations received (see [www.iso.org/patents](http://www.iso.org/patents)).

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This second edition cancels and replaces the first edition (ISO 26203-1:2010), of which it constitutes a minor revision.

The main changes compared to the previous edition are as follows:

- a note above 7.1 d) has been added.

A list of all parts in the ISO 26203 series can be found on the ISO website.

## Introduction

Tensile testing of metallic sheet materials at high strain rates is important to achieve a reliable analysis of vehicle crashworthiness. During a crash event, the maximum strain rate often reaches  $10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , at which the strength of the material can be significantly higher than that under quasi-static loading conditions. Thus, the reliability of crash simulation depends on the accuracy of the input data specifying the strain-rate sensitivity of the materials.

Although there are several methods for high-strain rate testing, solutions for three significant problems are required.

The first problem is the noise in the force measurement signal.

- The test force is generally detected at a measurement point on the force measurement device that is located some distance away from the test piece.
- Furthermore, the elastic wave which has already passed the measurement point returns there by reflection at the end of the force measurement device. If the testing time is comparable to the time for wave propagation through the force measurement device, the stress-strain curve may have large oscillations as a result of the superposition of the direct and indirect waves. In quasi-static testing, contrarily, the testing time is sufficiently long to have multiple round-trips of the elastic wave. Thus, the force reaches a saturated state and equilibrates at any point of the force measurement device.
- There are two opposing solutions for this problem.
  - The first solution is to use a short force measurement device which will reach the saturated state quickly. This approach is often adopted in the servo-hydraulic type system.
  - The second solution is to use a very long force measurement device which allows the completion of a test before the reflected wave returns to the measurement point. The elastic-bar-type system is based on the latter approach.

The second problem is the need for rapid and accurate measurements of displacement or test piece elongation.

- Conventional extensometers are unsuitable because of their large inertia. Non-contact type methods such as optical and laser devices should be adopted. It is also acceptable to measure displacements using the theory of elastic wave propagation in a suitably-designed apparatus, examples of which are discussed in this document.
- The displacement of the bar end can be simply calculated from the same data as force measurement, i.e. the strain history at a known position on the bar. Thus, no assessment of machine stiffness is required in the elastic-bar-type system.

The last problem is the inhomogeneous section force distributed along the test piece.

- In quasi-static testing, a test piece with a long parallel section and large fillets is recommended to achieve a homogeneous uniaxial-stress state in the gauge section. In order to achieve a valid test with force equilibrium during the dynamic test, the test piece is to be designed differently from the typically designed quasi-static test piece. Dynamic test pieces are intended to be generally smaller in the dimension parallel to the loading axis than the test pieces typically used for quasi-static testing.

The elastic-bar-type system can thus provide solutions for dynamic testing problems and is widely used to obtain accurate stress-strain curves at around  $10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The International Iron and Steel Institute developed the “Recommendations for Dynamic Tensile Testing of Sheet Steel” based on the interlaboratory test conducted by various laboratories. The interlaboratory test results show the high data quality obtained by the elastic-bar-type system. The developed knowledge on the elastic-bar-type system is summarized in this document; ISO 26203-2 covers servo-hydraulic and other test systems used for high-strain-rate tensile testing.

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# Metallic materials — Tensile testing at high strain rates —

## Part 1: Elastic-bar-type systems

### 1 Scope

This document specifies methods for testing metallic sheet materials to determine the stress-strain characteristics at high strain rates. This document covers the use of elastic-bar-type systems.

The strain-rate range between  $10^{-3}$  and  $10^3$  s<sup>-1</sup> is considered to be the most relevant to vehicle crash events based on experimental and numerical calculations such as the finite element analysis (FEA) work for crashworthiness.

In order to evaluate the crashworthiness of a vehicle with accuracy, reliable stress-strain characterization of metallic materials at strain rates higher than  $10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup> is essential.

This test method covers the strain-rate range above  $10^2$  s<sup>-1</sup>.

NOTE 1 At strain rates lower than  $10^{-1}$  s<sup>-1</sup>, a quasi-static tensile testing machine that is specified in ISO 7500-1 and ISO 6892-1 can be applied.

NOTE 2 This testing method is also applicable to tensile test-piece geometries other than the flat test pieces considered here.

### 2 Normative references

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There are no normative references in this document.

### 3 Terms and definitions

For the purposes of this document, the following terms and definitions apply.

ISO and IEC maintain terminological databases for use in standardization at the following addresses:

- ISO Online browsing platform: available at <https://www.iso.org/obp>
- IEC Electropedia: available at <http://www.electropedia.org/>

#### 3.1

##### elastic-bar-type system

measuring system in which the force-measuring device is lengthened in the axial direction to prevent force measurement from being affected by waves reflected from the ends of the apparatus

Note 1 to entry: The designation “elastic-bar-type system” comes from the fact that this type of system normally employs a long elastic bar as force-measuring device.

### 4 Principles

The stress-strain characteristics of metallic materials at high strain rates are evaluated.

At a strain rate higher than  $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , the signal of the loading force is greatly perturbed by multiple passages of waves reflected within the load cell that is used in the quasi-static test. Thus, special techniques are required for force measurement. This may be accomplished in two opposite ways:

- one is to lengthen the force measurement device in the loading direction, in order to finish the measurement before the elastic wave is reflected back from the other end (elastic-bar-type systems);
- another way is to shorten the force measurement device, thus reducing the time needed to attain dynamic equilibrium within the force measurement device and realizing its higher natural frequency (servo-hydraulic type systems).

Tests at low strain rates (under  $10^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) can be carried out using a quasi-static tensile testing machine. However, special considerations are required when this machine is used for tests at strain rates higher than conventional ones. It is necessary to use a test piece specified for high-strain-rate testing methods. [Annex A](#) provides details of the test procedure for this practice.

## 5 Symbols and designations

Symbols and their corresponding designations are given in [Table 1](#).

**Table 1 — Symbols and designations**

Symbol	Unit	Designation
<b>Test piece</b>		
$a_o$	mm	original thickness of a flat test piece
$b_o$	mm	original width of the parallel length of a flat test piece
$b_g$	mm	width(s) of the grip section of a test piece
$L_o$	mm	original gauge length [see <a href="#">7.1 e</a> ]
$L_c$	mm	parallel length
$L_{total}$	mm	total length that includes the parallel length and the shoulders
$L_u$	mm	final gauge length after fracture
$r$	mm	radius of the shoulder
$S_o$	mm <sup>2</sup>	original cross-sectional area of the parallel length
$S_b$	mm <sup>2</sup>	cross-sectional area of the elastic bar
<b>Time</b>		
$t$	s	time
<b>Elongation</b>		
$A$	%	percentage elongation after fracture NOTE With non-proportional test pieces, the symbol $A$ is supplemented with an index which shows the basic initial measured length in millimetres, e.g. $A_{20\text{mm}}$ = Percentage elongation after fracture with an original gauge length $L_o = 20 \text{ mm}$ .
$A_u$	%	specified upper limit of percentage elongation for mean strain rate
<b>Displacement</b>		
$u$	mm	displacement by the elastic wave
$u_1$	mm	displacement at the end of the original gauge length
$u_2$	mm	displacement at the end of the original gauge length
$u_B(t)$	mm	displacement of the end of the elastic bar at time $t$
<b>Strain</b>		
$e$	—	engineering strain
$e_s$	—	desired engineering strain before achieving equilibrium
$\epsilon$	—	elastic strain



Table 1 (continued)

Symbol	Unit	Designation
$\varepsilon_B$	—	elastic strain at the end of the elastic bar (see <a href="#">Annex B</a> )
$\varepsilon_g$	—	elastic strain at section C (see <a href="#">Annex B</a> )
<b>Strain rate</b>		
$\dot{\varepsilon}$	s <sup>-1</sup>	engineering strain rate
$\bar{\dot{\varepsilon}}$	s <sup>-1</sup>	mean engineering strain rate
<b>Force</b>		
$F$	N	force
$F_m$	N	maximum force
<b>Stress</b>		
$R$	MPa	engineering stress
$R_m$	MPa	tensile strength
$R_t$	MPa	proof strength, total extension
<b>Modulus of elasticity</b>		
$E$	MPa	modulus of elasticity
$E_b$	MPa	modulus of elasticity of the bar
<b>Wave velocity</b>		
$c_0$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	velocity of the wave propagation in the elastic bar
$c$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	elastic wave propagation velocity in the test piece
<b>Velocity</b>		
$v_A(t)$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	velocity of the impact block (see <a href="#">Annex B</a> )
$v$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	particle velocity at any point in the bar (see <a href="#">Annex C</a> )
$v_i$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	incident particle velocity (see <a href="#">Annex C</a> )
$v_r$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	reflected particle velocity (see <a href="#">Annex C</a> )
$v_t$	mm s <sup>-1</sup>	transmitted particle velocity (see <a href="#">Annex C</a> )

## 6 Apparatus

**6.1 Elastic bar.** By using a long elastic bar, the test should be finished before the elastic wave is reflected back from the other end of the bar that is on the opposite side of the test piece. Consequently, the force can be measured without being perturbed by the reflected waves. For this method, the one-bar testing machine and the split Hopkinson bar (SHB) testing machine are normally used (see [Annex B](#) and [Annex C](#)).

**6.2 Input device.** For the input method, open-loop-type loading is normally applied. The upper limit of the input speed is approximately 20 m s<sup>-1</sup>. For the SHB testing machine, a striker tube or striker bar is used. For the one-bar testing machine, a hammer is normally used.

**6.3 Clamping mechanism.** A proper clamping mechanism (a method for connecting a test piece and an elastic bar) is critical to data quality (see [Annex B](#) and [Annex C](#)).

The clamping fixtures for the SHB or one-bar testing machines are mounted directly on the elastic bars. The clamping fixtures should be of the same material and diameter as the elastic bars to ensure minimal impedance change when the stress wave propagates through the loading train. If a different material or size is used, proper consideration should be made in the evaluation of stress and strain.

**6.4 Force measurement device.** Force should be measured by strain gauges of a suitably short gauge length, typically 2 mm, attached to elastic bars that are directly connected with the test piece.

The location of the strain gauges should be in an area where the elastic wave is not influenced by end effects. In order to measure a one-dimensional elastic wave, the strain gauges shall be attached at a distance at least five times the diameter of the bars from the ends of the bars (see [Annex B](#) and [Annex C](#)).

NOTE The measurable strain-rate range by this method is  $10^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  or higher. It is impractical to construct a testing machine for strain rates below  $10^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  because bar lengths of several tens of metres in length would be required.

To ensure the validity of stress-strain curves, the straightness of the elastic bars is crucial. Proper supports or guides for the elastic bars are essential in achieving this.

**6.5 Displacement measurement device.** Strain in the tensile test is represented by the ratio between the relative displacement between two points in the gauge section, e.g. the initial and final gauge lengths of the test piece.

Generally, in quasi-static testing, an extensometer attached to the gauge section of the test piece is used and the measurement is accurate. However, at high strain rates, it is impossible to use this method due to the inertia effects of the extensometer. Thus, displacement or test piece elongation measurement at high strain rates shall use the non-contact type devices or strain gauges on elastic bars.

Measuring devices that can be utilized for measuring displacement in elastic-bar-type systems are described in [6.5.1](#) to [6.5.3](#). These devices are recommended for strain rates up to  $10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and measured displacements should be recorded for the duration of the test. These devices may be used in combination. For example, when devices [6.5.1](#) and [6.5.3](#) are used in combination, the displacement at one end of the original gauge length ( $L_0$ ) is measured by the non-contact type displacement gauge ([6.5.1](#)) and the other end is measured by the strain gauge ([6.5.3](#)) that is attached on the surface of the bar.

**6.5.1 Non-contact type displacement gauge.** The displacement at one end of the original gauge length ( $L_0$ ) is measured and recorded by laser, optical or similar devices.

By using two [6.5.1](#) type devices or one [6.5.1](#) type device and one [6.5.3](#) type device, the variation of  $L_{\text{total}}$  in [Figure 1](#) (type-A test piece in [Clause 7](#)) with time can be measured and the elongation can be calculated.

**6.5.2 Non-contact type extensometer.** High-speed cameras, Doppler or laser extensometers, or other non-contact systems can be applied for measuring the variation of  $L_c$  in [Figure 2](#) (type-B test piece in [Clause 7](#)).

**6.5.3 Strain gauge.** The variation of displacement of the end of the elastic bar with time should be calculated using [Formula \(1\)](#) which is based on the strain history measured by the strain gauge attached to the elastic bar.

$$u_B(t) = c_0 \int_0^t \varepsilon_B(t) dt \quad (1)$$

where

$u_B(t)$  is the displacement of the end of the elastic bar at time  $t$ ;

$\varepsilon_B$  is the elastic strain at the end of the elastic bar (see [Annex B](#));

$c_0$  is the velocity of the wave propagation in the elastic bar.

**6.6 Data acquisition instruments.** Amplifiers and data recorders such as oscilloscopes are used to assess stress-strain curves from raw signals. Each instrument should have a sufficiently high frequency response. The frequency response of all elements in the electronic measurement system shall be selected

to ensure that all recorded data are not negatively influenced by the frequency response of any individual component; typically, this requires minimum frequency response on the order of 500 kHz. For digital data recorders, the minimum resolution of measured data should be 10 bits.

## 7 Test piece

### 7.1 Test-piece shape, size and preparation

Test-piece geometry is determined by the following requirements.

- a) The required maximum strain rate determines the parallel length. A test piece of shorter length can achieve higher strain rates. In order to achieve force equilibrium in the test piece, the parallel length should be short enough at a given strain-rate range.
- b) In order to assure equilibrium of forces at the strain rates up to  $10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , the preferred parallel length is less than 20 mm.

Uniform deformation over the parallel length of the test piece requires that the force should be equilibrated at both ends of the test piece. Force propagates as an elastic wave. To achieve equilibrium, at least the following inequality [see [Formula \(2\)](#)] should be satisfied:

$$\frac{L_c}{c} \leq \frac{e_s}{\dot{\epsilon}} \quad (2)$$

where

$L_c$  is the parallel length of the test piece;

$c$  is the elastic wave propagation velocity in the test piece;

$e_s$  is the desired engineering strain before achieving equilibrium;

$\dot{\epsilon}$  is the testing strain rate.

- c) The width of the test piece should be determined to obtain uniaxial stress during the test. The following rule, shown in [Formulae \(3\)](#) and [\(4\)](#), should be applied:

$$\frac{L_o}{b_o} \geq 2 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{b_o}{a_o} \geq 2 \quad (4)$$

where

$a_o$  is the original thickness of a flat test piece;

$b_o$  is the original width of the parallel length of a flat test piece;

$L_o$  is the original gauge length.

NOTE Lower limit value of [Formula \(3\)](#),  $L_o/b_o = 2$ , can result in a highly non-uniform strain distribution when testing very high strength, low work-hardening materials such as Ti-6Al-4V and high strength steel.

- d) Generally, unless impractical or unnecessary, the thickness of the test piece should be the full thickness of the material as far as testing capacity permits.

- e) The radius at the shoulder of the type-A test piece (see [Figure 1](#)) should be small enough that  $L_{total}$  is considered as the original gauge length ( $L_0$ ). The radius at the shoulder of the type-B test piece (see [Figure 2](#)) should be large enough that  $L_c$  is considered as the original gauge length ( $L_0$ ).

For type-A and type-B test pieces, uncertainties exist in uniaxial tensile data calculated from bar displacement. These uncertainties result from the non-uniformity of axial strain within the original gauge length, used here as the reference gauge length for strain calculations. To assess the potential effects of strain non-uniformity, it is recommended that two sets of quasi-static true-stress versus true-strain data be compared, i.e.

- 1) one obtained from strain measurements based on bar displacements (i.e. the displacements at the bar-end positions on the test piece) and referenced to  $L_{total}$  or  $L_0$  for the selected high strain-rate test piece geometry, and
- 2) the other obtained from strain measurements with an extensometer mounted to the central part of the parallel reduced section of a conventional tensile test piece conforming to ISO 6892-1.

The result of this comparison should be incorporated in the test report to provide an assessment to potential users of high-strain-rate tensile data obtained with this document. If the difference is outside of a value agreed by the user and the tester, then strain measurements based on local strain measurements within the gauge length should be used.

- f) The grip should have a much larger cross-section than that of the parallel length of the test piece to ensure negligible deformation and definitely no plastic deformation at the grip zone. Usually, because the thicknesses of the grip and gauge length of the test piece are the same, the ratio of the grip and the gauge length width shall comply with the following rule shown in [Formula \(5\)](#):

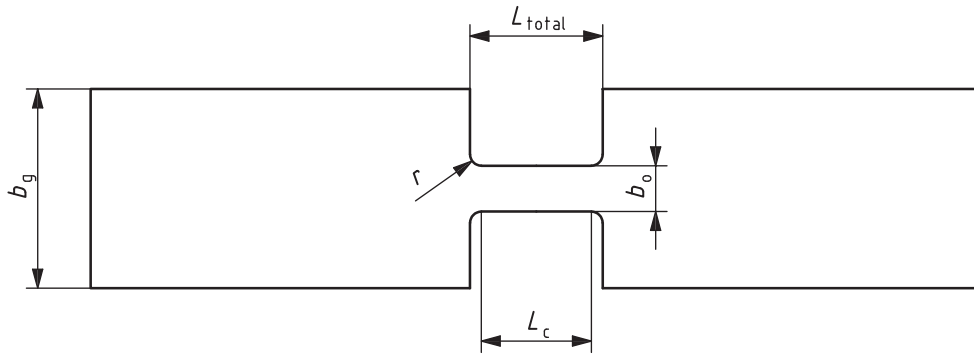
$$\frac{b_o}{b_g} < \frac{R_t}{R_m} \tag{5}$$

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where

- $b_o$  is the original width of the parallel length of a flat test piece;
- $b_g$  is the width of the grip section of a test piece;
- $R_m$  is the tensile strength;
- $R_t$  is the proof strength, total extension.

- g) Machined surface should be free of cold work, cracks, notches and other surface defects, which can cause stress concentration.

**Key**

- $b_o$  original width of the parallel length
- $b_g$  width of the grip section
- $L_c$  parallel length
- $L_{total}$  total length that includes the parallel length and the shoulders
- $r$  radius of the shoulder

**Figure 1 — Type-A test piece****Key**

- $b_o$  original width of the parallel length
- $b_g$  width of the grip section
- $L_c$  parallel length
- $r$  radius of the shoulder

**Figure 2 — Type-B test piece****7.2 Typical test piece**

Recommended dimensions of test pieces are shown in [Figures 3](#) and [4](#). The ratio between the widths of the grip and gauge section is normally above 2.

Based on the test methods and/or test purposes, other test piece configurations can be used.

The typical test pieces in [Figures 3](#) and [4](#) are appropriate when the maximum measured strain rate is up to  $10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and when the comparison of test results obtained at several strain rates is required. During uniform elongation, the size effect of a test piece would be small. However, because after uniform elongation, measured properties depend on the test-piece size, it is recommended that all test pieces used to obtain a single data set should have the same geometry and dimensions, even for the low-strain-rate tests.