COUPLED WAVE PROPAGATION IN A ROD WITH A DYNAMIC ABSORBER LAYER

by

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Submitted to the Department of Ocean Engineering on February, 1991 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

Abstract

This thesis experimentally tests the effect of a continuous longitudinal dynamic absorber layer on longitudinal wave propagation in a circular rod. Wavenumber-frequency solutions are derived analytically. The associated attenuation and phase velocity results are presented to show how their behavior depends on the loading treatment. Experimental results for the phase velocity are compared to a model developed by Dr. Dyer and Olivieri. A relaxation mechanism is developed to fully model the viscoelastic material. It is also shown that the interaction between longitudinal/flexural waves may lead to significant rates of transformation of the compressional wave energy into bending.

Thesis Supervisor: Title:

Professor Ira Dyer Weber-Shaughness Professor of Ocean Engineering, MIT

Dedication

I would like to express my gratitude to many people whose invaluable contribution made this thesis possible.

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A final note of thanks must go to my family. From them I derived the strength, determination and confidence to make it through and to continue moving forward.

I dedicate this thesis to the memory of Dad, Guozhong Meng and Hao Tang.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

This study investigates the effect of a continuous longitudinal dynamic absorber layer on longitudinal wave propagation in a circular rod. Previous studies [21,22,36,42] relating vibration control to a continuous dynamic absorber layer focused on the attenuation of flexural or longitudinal wave propagation. In this study, an apparatus for measuring phase velocity and flexural/longitudinal wave coupling energy ratio is designed. In addition, a relaxation mechanism is employed to simulate the behavior of the isolator/dynamic absorber.

One of the basic principles in engineering is to start analysis with simple cases. For that reason, modeling of the dynamic absorber in several simple combinations of vibratory elements is studied here.



Figure 1-1: Elements of a vibratory system

The mechanical response of viscoelastic bodies are poorly represented by either a spring or a dashpot, which obey Hooke's law and Newton's law, respectively. J.C. Maxwell suggested a series combination of the spring and dashpot elements, which is merely a linear combination of perfectly elastic behavior and perfectly viscous behavior. Another simple element which has been used frequently in connection with viscoelastic behavior is the so-called Kelvin or Voigt model, with a spring and a dashpot in parallel. Creep and stress relaxation studies[2,3,13,14,33,38,39,40,43] reveal that the response of either Maxwell model or Kelvin model to several kinds of deformation does not fully represent some real damping systems. Different combinations of vibratory elements continue to appear in their applications, as cited by S.H.Crandall in the foreword of [33]: vibration theory was essentially complete - except for a realistic treatment of damping.





When a spring is used as a vibration isolator and damped with a dashpot in parallel (right, the Kelvin or Voigt model) the conventional analysis accurately predicts force transmitted, deflection and damping loss. But when the elastic element is adhesive vinyl foam tape (also known as weatherstrip) with internal damping the conventional analysis may be in substantial error. For such a visco-elastic material, representation with a relaxation spring added in series with the dashpot (left, known as Zener model) more precisely simulates the behavior of the isolator. It is also regarded as possessing "one and one-half" degrees of freedom[23].



Figure 1-3: Mass-spring-damper model of the dynamic absorber

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Chapter 2

Analytical Model

2.1 Coupled Wave Equations

We first consider a infinite slender elastic rod with a continuously distributed layer of similar masses, springs and dashpots, transporting longitudinal waves (see Figure 2-1).



Figure 2-1: Semi-infinite rod with dynamic absorber

The equations of motion of this freely suspended rod with Kelvin coupling between u(x,t) and v(x,t) are:

$$m_2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} + K_i(u-v) + C \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(u-v) = 0$$

$$m_1 \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial t^2} + K_1(v-u) + C \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(v-u) = E_1 s_1 \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

where E_1 , m_1 , ρ_1 , s_1 are modulus of elasticity, unit length mass, density and cross sectional area, of the rod, m_2 , C, ρ_2 , K_1 are the unit length mass, resistance, density and stiffness, of the dynamic absorber layer. Finally, u and v are longitudinal displacements of the rod and absorber, and ω_0 which follows is the natural resonance frequency of the absorber:

$$\omega_0^2 = \frac{K_l}{m_2}$$

The damped resonance frequency is usually approximated as $\omega_o[7,43]$: $\omega_d^2 = \omega_0^2 (1-\zeta^2) \approx \omega_0^2$

with the viscoelastic damping factor typically small, where

$$\zeta^2 = \frac{C^2}{4Km}$$

Since u and v are both space and time dependent, we assume the solution is harmonic and substitute $-i\omega$ for the time derivatives

$$v = V \cdot e^{i \cdot (k \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$$

$$u = U \cdot e^{i \cdot (k \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$$

in the equation:

$$\frac{E_1}{\rho_1}\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial t^2} - \frac{K_1}{m_1}(v-u) - \frac{C}{m_1}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(v-u) = 0$$

which corresponds to,

$$K^{2}V - K_{1}^{2}V + \frac{K_{l}\rho_{1}}{m_{1}E_{1}}(V - U) - i\frac{C\omega\rho_{1}}{m_{1}E_{1}}(V - U) = 0$$

where

$$K_1^2 = \frac{\omega^2}{E_1}$$

We can normalize the above equation, with the following non-dimensional parameters:

$$\gamma = \frac{K}{K_1}$$
 ratio of wavenumber

$$\beta = \frac{m_2}{m_1} \quad mass \ ratio$$

$$K_1 = \omega_0^2 m_2$$
 stiffness

$$\eta = \frac{C}{\omega_0 m_2} \quad loss factor$$

$$\omega_n = \frac{\omega}{\omega_0}$$
 normalized frequency

Therefore the normalization yields the following equation:

$$\gamma^2 V - V + \frac{\beta}{\omega_n^2} (V - U) - i \frac{\beta \eta}{\omega_n} (V - U) = 0$$

The coupled equations can now be rewritten as:

$$\gamma^2 V - V + \frac{\beta}{\omega_n^2} (V - U) - i \frac{\beta \eta}{\omega_n} (V - U) = 0$$

$$-U + \frac{1}{\omega_n^2}(U-V) - i\frac{\eta}{\omega_n}(U-V) = 0$$

This is a set of two coupled homogeneous linear equations in U and V. For a nontrivial solution to exist, the determinant of the coefficients must vanish. This leads to the dispersion relation:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \gamma^2 - 1 + \beta Y & -\beta Y \\ -Y & -1 + Y \end{vmatrix}$$

= 0
with
$$Y = \frac{1}{\omega_n^2} - \frac{i\eta}{\omega_n}$$

$$(\gamma^2 - 1 + \beta Y) \cdot (-1 + Y) - \beta Y^2 = 0$$

$$\gamma^2(-1 + Y) + 1 - Y - \beta Y = 0$$

$$\gamma^2 = 1 + \frac{\beta}{1 - \frac{1}{Y}}$$

$$\gamma^2 = 1 + \frac{\beta}{1 - \frac{\omega_n^2}{1 - i\eta \omega_n}}$$

The roots of this equation in the wavenumber γ represent a right going wave and a left going wave. Therefore, there are two different natural modes that can propagate in this semi-infinite rod with an absorber layer. Each mode, of course, can be left going and right going.

2.2 Resonance Characteristic and Relaxation Mechanism

For realistic treatment of damping influence in the vibration isolation, when we look at the indirectly coupled viscous dampling Zener model[35], the complex ratio of stress or strain or, equally, the complex stiffness K^c of the three-element mounting may be written as

$$K^c = K + \frac{1}{(1/NK) + (1/i\eta\omega)}$$

It is readily shown that the stiffness approximately equals K at low frequency, $K + i\eta\omega$ near resonance, and K + NK at high frequency. Therefore this is consistent with the concept of the mass-control, damping-control and stiffness-control regions of a dynamic absorber[24].

$$\omega_0^2 = \frac{K^c}{m} \approx \frac{K + i\omega_0 C}{m} = \frac{K}{m} (1 + \frac{i\omega_0 C}{K})$$
$$\approx \frac{K}{m} (1 + \frac{i\omega_0 C}{2K})^2$$

In our light damping situation,

$$\frac{\omega C}{K}$$

is small near the resonance frequency. We shall therefore be able to approximate

$$\omega_0^2 \approx \frac{K}{m}$$

Following the analysis in the previous section, we can easily write down the wave equation for the three-element combination with Zener coupling as:

$$m_{1} \overset{\bullet\bullet}{x_{1}} + K(x_{1} - x_{2}) + NK(x_{1} - x_{3}) = E_{1} s_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} x_{1}}{\partial x^{2}}$$

$$m_{2} \overset{\bullet\bullet}{x_{2}} + K(x_{2} - x_{1}) + C(\overset{\bullet}{x_{2}} - \overset{\bullet}{x_{3}}) = 0$$

$$NK(x_{1} - x_{3}) + C(\overset{\bullet}{x_{2}} - \overset{\bullet}{x_{3}}) = 0$$

where x_1, x_2, x_3 are the displacements at points shown in Figure 2-2, N is the stiffness ratio of the relaxation spring over the main spring.



Figure 2-2: Three-element spring and dashpot combination

Again we assume a harmonic solution, substitute $-i\omega$ for the time derivatives, and normalize with the same non-dimensional parameters.

$$x_{1} = X_{1} \cdot e^{i \cdot (k \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$$

$$x_{2} = X_{2} \cdot e^{i \cdot (k \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$$

$$x_{3} = X_{3} \cdot e^{i \cdot (k \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$$

$$(\gamma^{2} - 1)X_{1} + \beta(X_{1} - X_{2})/\omega_{n}^{2} + N\beta(X_{1} - X_{3})/\omega_{n}^{2} = 0$$

$$-X_{2} + (X_{2} - X_{1})/\omega_{n}^{2} - i\eta(X_{2} - X_{3})/\omega_{n} = 0$$

$$N(X_{1} - X_{3})/\omega_{n}^{2} - i\eta(X_{2} - X_{3})/\omega_{n} = 0$$

The wavenumber-normalized frequency solution is thus obtained:

$$\gamma^2 = 1 + \frac{\beta}{1 - \frac{\omega_n^2}{1 + \frac{i\eta\omega_n N}{i\eta\omega_n - N}}}$$

2.3 Wavenumber Analysis

We introduce a complex wavenumber K_c describing propagation of a lightly exponentially decaying wave, $K_c = K_r + iK_i$. The imaginary part of the wavenumber representing the right traveling wave is separated to yield an exponentially decreasing amplitude envelope:

 $e^{i \cdot (k_c \cdot x - w \cdot t)} = e^{-k_i \cdot x} \cdot e^{i \cdot (k_r \cdot x - w \cdot t)}$

The attenuation per wavelength in $dB(dB/\lambda)$ is stated in terms of the wavenumber components as

Attn =
$$20 \cdot loge \cdot K \cdot \lambda$$

where λ is the wavelength at each frequency without coupling. We normalize this term to the corresponding wavenumber ratio

$$\gamma_i = K_i \cdot \frac{\lambda}{2 \cdot \pi}$$

as:

 $c = \frac{\omega}{K}$

and obtain:

Attn = $54.6\gamma_i(dB/\lambda)$

In such a dispersive wave propagation pattern, phase and group velocities are defined

and

$$c_g = \frac{\mathrm{d}\omega}{\mathrm{d}K}$$

respectively.

The velocities c and c_g can be determined from the dispersion relation. To avoid some complex algebraic manipulation, we write a computer program (enclosed in Appendix A) solving for both the imaginary component and the real component of the wavenumber from the above dispersion relation, for both the relaxation (Zener) and non-relaxation (Kelvin) cases.

The following figures, which depict a lightly damped system with different mass ratios, show that both the peak and bandwidth of attenuation increase dramatically with increasing β , for both relaxation and non-relaxation models. These figures also reveal that with increasing loss factor, the attenuation and the phase speed peak drops considerably, for the non-relaxation model, but the attenuation bandwidth widens.

Furthermore, by increasing loss factor, the relaxation model predicts the attenuation and phase speed drop in the low damping region, increase in the high damping region, and possesses a transition frequency, which is referred to as optimum (attenuation is a maximum at the optimum damping point).

Analytical results are also obtained when holding mass ratio and loss factor unchanged, increasing the stiffness ratio N factor, which causes the attenuation and phase speed to drop.

The analytical model is therefore consistent with the concept of a dynamic absorber.



Figure 2-3: Attenuation vs. normalized frequency ratio for β =3, η =0.1,0.3,1.0



Figure 2-4: Attenuation vs. normalized frequency ratio for $\eta=0.2$, $\beta=1,2,3$



Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Figure 2-5: Phase Speed vs. normalized frequency ratio for β =3, η =0.1,0.3,1.0



Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Figure 2-6: Phase Speed vs. normalized frequency ratio for $\eta=0.2$, $\beta=1,2,3$



Normalized Frequency, w/w0

Figure 2-7: Attenuation vs. ω_n for β =3, N=1, η =0.1,0.34,1.0



Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Figure 2-8: Attenuation vs. ω_n for $\eta=0.2$, N=1, $\beta=1,2,3$



Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Figure 2-9: Attenuation vs. ω_n for $\eta=0.2$, $\beta=3$, changing N factor



Normalized Frequency, w/w0

Figure 2-10: Phase speed vs. ω_n for $\beta=3$, N=1, $\eta=0.1, 0.34, 1.0$

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Normalized Frequency, w/w0

Figure 2-11: Phase speed vs. ω_n for $\eta=0.2$, N=1, $\beta=1,2,3$



Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Figure 2-12: Phase speed vs. ω_n for $\beta=3$, $\eta=0.2$, changing N factor

Chapter 3

The Experiment

3.1 Experiment Design

An experiment should be planned to bring into prominence those factors to be studied and to enable their effects to be assessed in relation to the unavoidable errors of experimentation.

The first object to undertake an experimental investigation of wave propagation is to build an apparatus that closely resembles the analytical model: a thin elastic rod with a continuously distributed layer of masses, springs and dashpots, transporting longitudinal waves. A Delrin rod is a solid material used in Olivieri's experiment, which has a very low modulus of elasticity, an average density for a crystalline plastic and one-third of the compressional wave speed that is in steel or aluminum. The use of the Delrin rods was considered fixed, due to the desirability shown in Olivieri's experiment.

To simulate one dimensional propagation of longitudinal waves in an infinite medium, we dampen the propagating waves at the end of the test rod with sand. Enough sand is placed around the end of the rod to reduce wave reflection.

The other end of the rod (not immersed in sand) is drilled and fitted with a bolt, then connected tightly perpendicular to a Wilcoxon Research F1 shaker with a matching Z-602 impedance head.

Input to the shaker was provided by a signal generator with gain provided by a McIntosh power amplifier. The frequency range of the signals, limited by the linearity of the shaker, power amplifier and signal generator, is considered to be low-bounded by 40 Hz.



Figure 3-1: Experiment apparatus

Accelerometers, which were implemented in previous experiments[21,22,36,42] to measure attenuation spectra, are considered poor choices in measuring phase velocity and

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wave coupling energy ratios, because of their phase lag and sensitivity axis difference, and high mass. Instead, strain gauges are used.

3.2 Signal Conditioning

In order to measure longitudinal and flexural waves separately, we need to investigate the strain gage balancing and amplifying circuits.

All commercial strain indicators employ some form of the following Wheatstone bridge circuit to detect the change of resistance in the gage with strain.



Figure 3-2: Resistance bridge with cancellation of flexural vibrations

In the above well-known Wheatstone circuit, v_s and v_0 are the source and output voltage of the balancing circuit, respectively; Rg1 and Rg2 are two matched gages connected as nonadjacent arms of the bridge circuit (with the same length leadwires, they maintained identical temperature-compensation); and R1, R2 are reference resistors on the two other arms. We find:

$$\frac{v_o}{v_s} = \frac{R_{g2}}{R_1 + R_{g2}} - \frac{R_2}{R_{g1} + R_2}$$

where

$$Rg2 = Ro + \Delta R_{l} - \Delta R_{f}$$
$$Rg1 = Ro + \Delta R_{l} + \Delta R_{f}$$
$$R1 = R2 = Ro$$

where ΔR_i and ΔR_f donate to the resistance changes in the two strain gages mounted on the opposite side of the rod at the same distance from the drive point, which reflects the changes in resistance according to the longitudinal and flexural wave propagation. Then:

$$\frac{v_o}{v_s} = \frac{\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f + Ro}{2Ro + \Delta R_l - \Delta R_f} - \frac{Ro}{2Ro + \Delta R_l + \Delta R_f}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1 + \frac{(\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f)}{Ro}}{1 + \frac{(\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f)}{2Ro}} - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{(\Delta R_l + \Delta R_f)}{2Ro}} \right]$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{2} \left[(1 + \frac{\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f}{Ro}) \cdot (1 - \frac{\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f}{2Ro}) - (1 - \frac{\Delta R_l + \Delta R_f}{2Ro}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f}{Ro} - \frac{\Delta R_l - \Delta R_f}{2Ro} - \frac{\Delta R_l + \Delta R_f}{Ro} + \frac{\Delta R_l + \Delta R_f}{2Ro} \right]$$
With the obvious assumption $\frac{\Delta R}{Ro} << 1$, we obtain
$$\frac{v_o}{v_s} = \frac{\Delta R_l}{2Ro}$$

The change of resistance in the strain gage due to longitudinal strain is proportional to the gage factor Fg and actual strain ε as $\Delta R_l = Fg \cdot Ro \cdot \varepsilon$ so the bridge circuit output voltage is $v_o = v_s \cdot \frac{Fg \varepsilon}{2}$.

Recall in this case that the measurement cancels out the flexural modes and only contains the longitudinal modes.

In order to investigate the amount of flexural wave energy coupled from longitudinal excitation, the following circuit configuration is used:



Figure 3-3: Resistance bridge with cancellation of longitudinal vibrations

where
$$\frac{v_o}{v_s} = \frac{\Delta R_f}{2R_o}$$
 with the $\frac{\Delta R}{R_o} << 1$ assumption.

In practice, a Wheatstone bridge is never precisely balanced as a result of the finite tolerances of the bridge resistors. Consequently, some method must be introduced to slightly change the resistance ratios of one side of the bridge. Thus, the pot and trim resistors are introduced as shown:



Figure 3-4: Decide the range of Rt under the most unfavorable combinations of resistors

Given that the resistors R1, R2, R3, R4 are $350.0\Omega \pm 0.3\%$ (for Micro-Measurement CEA series gages and carefully chosen reference resistors), the maximum value of Rt, for which the bridge can be balanced under the most unfavorable combination of resistors, is decided to be 8.7 k Ω . The 50 k Ω Rp resistor draws little current and acts simply to control the voltage on one side of Rt.

We now construct this bridge circuit on a proto-board. With a Tektronix ocilloscope and a regulated power supply, we are able to balance the bridge to v_o less than or equal to 25 μv .

Considering that the contact resistance at mechanical connections within the bridge circuit can lead to errors in the measurement of strain, a "wiggle" test is made on wires leading to the mechanical connections. The actual change in balance does occur, so we decided to wire-wrap and solder the bridge circuit on a Vector-board to insure that good connections have been made.

The following circuit layout diagram shows six channel balancing bridge circuits and their differential amplifers:



Figure 3-5: Six-channel circuit lay-out

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Speci- fication	Value	Un- it
Gain Max Error	±1.0	%
Gain Nonlinearity	±0.005	%
Input voltage range (Max Differ. Input Linear)	±10	v
Output rating	±10	v
Dynamic response (small signal -3dB)	25	kHz
Slew Rate	75	μs
Power supply range	Min ±5 Max ±18 Typ ±15	v

Table 3-I: AD624A specifications (@ $V_s = \pm 15v$, Gain = 100, $R_l = 2k\Omega$ and $T_A = 25 \ ^{o}C$

)

The operational amplifier we chose is a AD624 precision instrumentation amplifier. The AD624 amplifier is designed primarily for use with low level transducers (including strain gages), with low noise, high gain accuracy, and low temperature coefficient. For the adjustable pretrimmed gain of 1000, the linearity range of the dynamic response is DC to 25 KHz. The 5V/ μ s slew rate and 15 μ s settling time permit the use in our multiple channel, high sampling rate data acquisition applications.









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Too often in experiment designs, noise is considered to be one step down from the weather: hardly anyone even talks about it. Yet it is the noise level in a measurement circuit that ultimately limits the ability of that circuit to transmit faithfully the information carried by the signals being processed. To avoid a "noise-limited" statement that would likely appear in the "conclusion and discussion" chapter, we shall now incorporate into discussion the possible noise sources and their effects.



Figure 3-8: Noise interference problem, initial testing of the conditioning circuit

The interfering signals initially were dominated by the interference at 60 Hz and harmonics of 60 Hz, introduced at the Wheatstone bridge circuit. A test signal of a pure tone sine wave at 203 Hz is buried under the 60 Hz, and its harmonics (see Figure 3-9):



Figure 3-9: 60 Hz and its harmonic interfering noises, conditioning circuit with proper bala

By carefully studying the coupling between the power lines and the experiment apparatus, along with the use of power transformers and a regulated DC power supply, the interference is reduced by about 10 dB from Fig3-9 (as shown in Figure 3-9, Figure 3-10). With the battery supplied bridge circuits and DC transformer supplied operational amplifier, the signal to noise ratio is satisfactorily increased to larger than 30 dB.





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Figure 3-11: Response of pure tone excitation with SNR larger than 30 dB

The drifts in power supplies and amplifier offsets are controlled by the balancing adjustment in the circuit. The stray capacity fluctuations and electronic device noises are problems in data acquisition with the Concurrent Computer, as shown in Figure 3-12. With careful shielding, chase and signal grounding, wax-sealing the trimpot, and using the bandpass and low-pass filters, we finally achieve an excellent degree of noise isolation in the measurement apparatus.



3.3 Data Aquisition and Spectrum Analysis

The strain gage output is collected and digitized at the Acoustics and Vibration Lab using the Concurrent Computer.



Figure 3-13: Data aquisition diagram

The analog input from the resistance bridge is amplified by the AD624 operational amplifier. After passing through the Frequency Devices 9016 programmable low pass filter, it is sampled, digitized and displayed with proper triggering, anti-aliasing, synchronizing and clipping.

The AD12FA analog/digital converter, along with a SH16FA sample and hold module, are used to digitize the data. Two analog/digital channels (Channel 0 and Channel 5) contain amplified signals for flexural and longitudinal waves, respectively.



Figure 3-14: Clock connections on the CK10 and SH16FA modules



Figure 3-15: Sampling of a periodic timing signal

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Figure 3-16: LWB modules in the data flow diagram

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Figure 3-17: Synchronization virtual instrument

The data acquisition on the Concurrent Computer takes place inside the Lab Workbench (LWB) environment. The analog signal is demodulated using a demultiplexer module to separate channel 0 from channel 5 (and multi-channel demodulating, when applicable).

The channel 0 signal provides the input for a trigger module that controls the data flow in both channels. The synchronization enables us to measure phase speed in the time domain. The trigger threshold and intervals are adjustable. This is of importance for future experimental investigations of multi-mode wave propogation problems.

The power spectra, defined as the Fourier transform of the input time series, are calculated and displayed with time series for both channels. We can now measure the ratio of energy transformation as a result of flexural wave coupling with longitudinal excitation.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1 Resonance Frequency and Loss Factor

The quarter wavelength resonance frequency for a free rod of 3.10 m length, with a longitudinal nondispersive wave speed of 1161 m/s, is determined to be 93 Hz. Three tests are conducted to decide the resonance frequency for the Delrin rod with the attached dynamic absorber layer.

An impedance head is installed between the shaker and the contacting surface of the rod. The acceleration and force gage output from the impedance head are taken to the B & K spectrum analyzer.

The drive-point impedance (defined as force over velocity, which comes from integration of the acceleration) is obtained to decide the actual resonance frequency and loss factor.

The first actual resonance peak occurs at a much lower frequency than predicted and is considered to be caused by the resonance frequency of the shaker and sand termination problem, as addressed in Larry Olivieri's report[21].

In order to experimentally decide the loss factor, we conduct a test of the resonance frequency f_o and the half power bandwidth (-3dB down from both sides of f_o). The loss factor η is defined as

$$\eta = \frac{\Delta f_{3dB}}{f_o}$$

for a system consisting of a short rod with a single isolator located very closely to the drive point(mass ratio is 3.2).

Three measurements are conducted and reveal the following results (Plots are enclosed in Appendix B):

Measurement freq. span	f o (Hz)	f _{3dB low} (Hz)	f (Hz) 3dB high	η
800	135	111	157	.341
400	134.5	109.5	156.5	.349
200	134.75	107.75	155.25	.353
Hz	f _o =134.75		η =.348	

Table 4-I: Resonance frequency and loss factor

4.2 Phase Speed From Cross Spectrum Function

The Fourier transform of the cross-correlation function, which is the expected value of the product of two time series, is defined as the cross-spectral density function (Cross Spectrum).

$$R_{xy}(\tau) = E [y(t) x(t+\tau)]$$
$$S_{xy}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_{xy}(\tau) \cdot e^{-i \cdot 2\pi f \tau} d\tau$$

The phase speed of the wave propagation can be determined from the frequency and the phase lag, through phase function $\hat{\theta}_{xy}(f)$ of the cross spectrum

$$\hat{S}_{rv}(f) = |\hat{S}_{rv}(f)| e^{-i\theta_{xv}(f)}$$

Using the B&K 2032 dual channel signal analyzer to measure the frequency response

of a series of pure tone longitudinal excitations to the rod, the phase speed is obtained and compared to the analytical prediction, where the crosses represent the experimental value.



Normalized Frequency,w/w0



. من The experimental phase speed is dispersive, with shape as predicted, provided that N = 1.4. The good agreement in shape confirms the analytical model used and also that the attached mass system acts as a continuous longitudinal dynamic absorber. Although an independent measurement of N was not carried out, the Zener model seems to be a significant improvement over the Kelvin model.

4.3 Flexural-Longitudinal Wave Energy Ratio

Power densities referring to longitudinal and flexural wave energy are obtained from the output of two independent sets of stain gages, measuring simultaneously at the same distance away from the drive point. The ratio is presented in dB vs. normalized frequency, and the results reveal that the coupling from longitudinal excitation to a bending wave is much stronger at low frequency than at high frequency.

The estimated spectrum is calculated by Fourier transforming the auto-correlation function of the time series from a sample function, in conjunction with a "window" which is a weighting function applied to data to reduce the spectral leakage associated with the finite observation intervals.

By applying a Hamming window, the power spectra we calculated achieves -30dB down sidelobe level and good frequency resolution of .01 Hz, as shown in Appendix D and Appendix E.

In the symmetric loading case, the flexural wave is considered to be induced by the slight misalignment at the drive point, supporting fishing line, sand termination, and any other imperfections for longitudinal wave propagation.

The experiment results show that the longitudinal to flexural wave coupling is induced significantly by the asymmetric(disc mass adding through half circle weatherstrip to the rod) loading of the resiliently mounted masses. It is also shown in Figure 4-2 that both power spectra decrease linearly in logarithmic frequency scale.

Above resonance frequency, the flexural wave diminishes(-30dB per decade) in the symmetric loading case, while the longitudinal to flexural wave coupling grows (20dB per decade) throughout the investigated frequency span for the asymmetric loading case.



Flex./Long. Energy Ratio

frequency (Hz)	Symmetric loading (dB)	Asymmetric loading (dB)
19.531	9	18
39.063	2	13
58.594	-13	8
78.125	- 8	5
117.19	-24	- 3
156.25	- 4 0	- 8
195.31	-35	-25
410.16	- 4 4	-20
800.78	- 5 3	-15

 Table 4-II: Flexural/Longitudinal coupling wave energy ratio

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Normalized Frequency,w/w0

Power spectrum measurements for a series of pure tone longitudinal excitations to the Delrin rod with a dynamic absorber layer attached, where the crosses represent asymmetric loading and circles for symmetric.

Figure 4-2: Longitudinal to flexural coupling wave energy ratio

Chapter 5

Conclusions

For zero damping, a stop band exists for the range $1 < \omega/\omega_o < (1 + \beta)^{1/2}$, in which the wavenumber γ is pure imaginary. Realistic treatment of damping is applied and the effects of damping parameters to the longitudinal wave propagation through the dispersion relation is verified from the experiment. The results confirm the analytical model used and that the attached mass system acts as a dynamic absorber.

The three-element combination(Zener model) does stiffen by a small amount as the frequency increases and, by association, is said to possess a transition frequency. This model gives better prediction than the Kelvin model when the loss factor is not too small($\eta > 0.2$ in our case).

It is also shown that the interaction between longitudinal and flexural waves may lead to significant rates of transformation of the compressional wave energy into bending, as the coupling is much stronger in the asymmetric loading case than symmetric.

Future work may be suggested to have a continuous isolation layer, with consideration of wave propagation in the isolator layer. Also an investigation of multi-mode wave propagation within one layer would appear worthwhile.

1.20



Figure 5-1: With wave propagation in the dynamic absorber layer

In complex structure testing, e.g. fluid loaded cylindrical shell, use of rubber as a mounting material is generally expected. For this, it is important to fully model the viscoelatic behaviour. Experimental investingation of the stiffness ratio N-factor may thus be important.

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Appendix A: Computer Program for Wavenumber Analysis

```
for k=1:250;
 t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
 rl(k, l) = l+beta/(l-(tl(k)*tl(k))/(l+i*ata*tl(k)*N/(i*ata*tl(k)-N)));
 r(k,1) = sqrt(r1(k,1));
 att(k,1)=54.6*imag(r(k,1));
 c(k,1) = 1161/(real(r(k,1)));
 end;
  for k=1:250;
 t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
  r1(k,2)=1+beta/(1-(t1(k)*t1(k))/(1+i*ata*t1(k)*N/(i*ata*t1(k)-N)));
  r(k,2) = sqrt(r1(k,2));
  att(k,2)=54.6*imag(r(k,2));
  c(k,2)=1161/(real(r(k,2)));
  end:
   for k=1:250;
  t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
  rl(k,3)=1+beta/(1-(t1(k)*t1(k))/(1+i*ata*t1(k)*N/(i*ata*t1(k)-N)));
  r(k,3) = sqrt(r1(k,3));
  att(k,3)=54.6*imag(r(k,3));
  c(k,3) = 1161/(real(r(k,3)));
  end;
    text(2.2,2900,'N=0.1,eta=0.204,beta=3.23')
  >> axis([-1,1,0,3000])
  >> semilogx(t1,c)
  >> grid
  >> axis([-1,1,2,4])
  >> loglog(o,c)
  >> title('Phase Speed vs. Normalized Frequency')
  >> xlabel('Normalized Frequency,w/w0')
    text(2,1500,'Non-relaxation')
  >> text(2.2,2500,'Relaxation')
  >> ylabel('Phase speed (m/s)')
    text(1,40,'eta=0.204, beta=3.23')
     text(.3,0,'K1=.6 K2,eta=0.204,beta=3.23')
     text (2.2,2900, 'N=0.1')
     text(.2,50, 'Relaxation with N-factor, eta=0.204, beta=3.23')
  >> print('oe -h')
   text(.7,1800,'Non-relaxation')
   text(.3,2500,'Relaxation with N=1)
   text(1,40,'Loss factor 0.284, Mass ratio 3.23')
   text(.7,2800,'Relaxation with N=.3')
  text(.7,2200,'Relaxation with N=1.5')
   semilogx(t1,c)
    semilogx(t1, att)
   axis([-1,1,2,4])
    axis([-1,1,0,3000])
axis([-1,1,0,200])
```

N

```
text(.12,20, 'Relaxation with N-factor,eta=0.2 N=1')
>> clg
>> semilogx(t1,att)
>> title('Attenuation vs. Normalized Frequency')
>> xlabel('Normalized Frequency,w/w0')
>> ylabel('Attenuation (dB per wave length)')
>> text(.12,20, 'Relaxation with Mass-factor, eta=0.2 N=1')
>> text(1.2,150,'Beta=3')
>> title('Attenuation vs. Normalized Frequency')
>> xlabel('Normalized Frequency, w/w0')
>> ylabel('Attenuation (dB per wave length)')
>> grid
>> text(1.2,190,'eta=0.1,beta=3')
>> text(1.2,100,'eta=0.3,beta=3')
>> text(1.2,40,'eta=1.0,beta=3')
>> text(.1,20,'Non-relaxation')
>> axis([-1,1,0,200])
 axis([-1,1,0,3000])
 for k=1:250;
 t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
 rl(k, 1) = 1 + beta/(1-tl(k) + tl(k)/(1-i+ata+tl(k)));
 r(k,1) = sqrt(r1(k,1));
 c(k, 1) = 1161/(real(r(k, 1)));
 att(k, 1) = 54.6 \times imag(r(k, 1));
 end;
 for k=1:250;
 t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
 r1(k,2)=1+beta/(1-t1(k)*t1(k)/(1-i*ata*t1(k)));
 r(k,2) = sqrt(r1(k,2));
 c(k,2) = 1161/(real(r(k,2)));
 att(k,2)=54.6*imag(r(k,2));
 end;
 for k=1:250;
 t1(k) = (2*k+1)/50.0;
 rl(k,3) = 1 + beta/(1-t1(k)*t1(k)/(1-i*ata*t1(k)));
 r(k,3) = sqrt(r1(k,3));
 c(k,3)=1161/(real(r(k,3)));
 att(k, 3) = 54.6 \times imag(r(k, 3));
 end;
```

1

Appendix B: Drive Point Impedance Diagram

Measurement freq. span	f ₀ (Hz)	f _{3dB low} (Hz)	f (Hz) 3dB high	η
800	135	111	157	.341
400	134.5	109.5	156.5	.349
200	134.75	107.75	155.25	.353
Hz	f _o =134.75		η _{=.348}	

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Resonant frequency and loss factor measurement for a short rod with a single isolator located very closely to the drive point (frequency span 800Hz).



Resonant frequency and loss factor measurement for a short rodwith a single isolator located very closely to the drive point (frequency span 400Hz).

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Resonant frequency and loss factor measurement for a short rod with a single isolator located very closely to the drive point (frequency span 200Hz).

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Appendix C: Cross Spectrum Data

Cross spectrum data $\beta = 3.23$ n = 0.348 f $\alpha = 1.34.75$ Hz

$p = 3.23$, $\eta = 0.348$, $r_0 = 134.75$ Hz						
f/fo	f (Hz)	phase delay (degree/120.0cm)	λ (m)	phase speed (m/s)		
0.20	26.625	31.0	13.94	371.0		
0.31	41.687	34.4	12.56	523.5		
0.56	74.00	91.2	4.737	350.5		
0.63	84.00	79.0	5.468	459.3		
0.70	93.00	79.4	5.441	506.0		
0.73	97.00	88.4	4.887	474.0		
0.77	103.00	100.5	4.299	442.7		
0.84	112.00	104.5	4.134	463.0		
0.99	132.00	107.8	4.007	529.0		
1.27	168.25	77.1	5.603	942.7		
1.41	187.25	67.9	6.362	1191		
1.73	229.5	53.4	8.090	1857		
1.80	239.0	50.9	8.487	2028		
1.92	256.0	59.7	7.236	1852		
2.68	356.0	101.2	4.269	1520		
3.43	456.0	145.0	2.979	1359		
4.24	564.0	180.0	2.400	1354		
4.80	638.0	255.9	1.688	1077		
5.66	753.0	279.3	1.547	1165		



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-72-


-73-



-74-



-75-



-76-



-77-



-78-



-79-



-80-



-81-



-82-



-83-



-84-





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-87-



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Power Spectrum Data

Symmetric Toading				
frequency (Hz)	longitudinal (x10 ⁻⁵)	flexural (x10 ⁻⁵)	Energy ratio F/L (dB)	
19.531	3.5757	26.916	9	
39.531	1.6365	2.6093	2	
58.594	1.1876	5.9952 × 10 ⁻²	-13	
78.125	1.1569	4.4431 x10 ⁻²	- 8	
117.19	1.2238	5.3225 x10 ⁻³	-24	
156.25	0.88226	8.3782 x10 ⁻⁵	-40	
195.31	0.65999	2.1529 x10 ⁻⁴	-35	
410.16	0.69702	2.7302 x10 ⁻⁵	-44	
800.78	0.31303	1.5111 ×10 ⁻⁶	- 5 3	





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Longitudinal wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 19.531 Hz



Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 19.531 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 39.531 Hz



Longitudinal wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 39.531 Hz



Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 39.531 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 58.594 Hz

-94-









1.100



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 78.125 Hz

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Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 78.125 Hz











Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 117.19 Hz











Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 156.25 Hz





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Longitudinal wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 195.31 Hz



Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 195.31 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 410.16 Hz

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Longitudinal wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 410.16 Hz



Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 410.16 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 800.78 Hz

-106-







Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 800.78 Hz

-107-

Asymmetric loading				
frequency (Hz)	longitudinal (x10 ⁻⁵)	flexural (x10 ⁻⁵)	Energy ratio F/L (dB)	
19.531	2.0705	133.37	18	
39.063	1.9188	40.502	13	
58.594	1.1283	7.7021	8	
78.125	1.6532	4.7221	5	
117.19	1.6897	0.92276	- 3	
156.25	1.1827	0.20135	- 8	
195.31	0.83341	2.8741 x10 ⁻³	-25	
410.16	0.4790	4.7251 x10 ⁻³	- 20	
800.78	0.86933	2.8937 x10 ⁻²	-15	

Power Spectrum Data


Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 19.531 Hz

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Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 19.531 $\rm Hz$



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 39.531 Hz

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Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 39.531 Hz

1.55

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Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 58.594 Hz

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Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 58.594 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 78.125 Hz

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Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 117.19 Hz

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3. yr.-

-118-



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 156.25 Hz









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Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 195.31 Hz



Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 410.16 Hz

-123-







Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 410.16 Hz

1.00





Time series/frequency response of pure tone longitudinal excitation @ 800.78 Hz







Flexural wave power spectrum for pure tone excitation @ 800.78 Hz

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