Impulse Damping In Structural Materials

by

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at the

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David Jacob Gessel

Submitted to the Department of Physics on 11 May 1990 in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Science.

Abstract

An experiment was devised and conducted to provide relative data on the impulse damping rates for a variety of materials selected for their utility in machine construction. Further, conventional wisdom indicates that there are substances which, when introduced into the core of a machine or tool, improve that tool's vibration damping characteristics. This experiment provides conclusive evidence to support this wisdom but does not yield any clear, general rule for its application—rather the opposite in fact. Cast iron damps vibrations more quickly than steel, but titanium damps vibrations faster than any other material tested. Filling the core of a sample with oil generally improves it's damping characteristics, but with copper the opposite occurs.

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Thesis Supervisor: Professor Alexander H. Slocum

Title: Assistant Professor of Civil Engineering

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to Alex Slocum, who has believed in my abilities and stood behind me throughout my MIT career. It was his confidence and enthusiasm that kept me both enrolled in, and interested in, MIT. I extend thanks to Hewlett Packard, which lent me a very nice oscilloscope that made my measurements possible, and to the Department of Physics, especially Gene Di Salvatore, for the use of an essential band-pass filter. I will be eternally grateful to Jennifer Hyman for making it all worthwhile. But mostly I thank my parents, who never failed to give the constant monetary support, and occasional emotional support, that has made my education possible.

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Chapter 1

Introduction to Vibration Damping

The Danger of more or less perpetual vibration of significant magnitude is one of the bugbears of designers of accurate instruments, and research leading to some practical data on this subject for various types of members is urgently required.

-T.N. Whitehead, Instruments and Accurate Mechanism

1.1 Background

If one considers the problem of threading a needle while sitting in car travelling quickly over an uneven road, the limitations on accuracy imposed by vibration are made quite clear. In more significant applications, such as machine tools or robotics, vibrational problems manifest themselves in poor surface quality and limitations on achievable accuracy. Further, vibration (particularly when manifested as "tool chatter") is one of the primary causes of tool failure.

Sources of vibration may be clearly divided into two groups: environmentally sourced, and internally sourced. The control of the former source is most conveniently managed by isolation technology. Although the latter source might conceivably also be isolated from the point of interest, this is generally not possible; for example a cutting head cannot conceivably be isolated from the vibrations which it generates. It is, therefore, of primary concern to machine tool designers to maximize the dissipation of vibrational energy.

It has long been known that the addition of lead shot and or oil is an effective means to damp vibration. "Dead Blow" hammers use rubber coated brass ampules filled with lead shot and oil for their heads. The conventional wisdom behind such advances is that acoustically dead materials damp vibration well. It is also commonly believed that viscous fluids dissipate vibrational energy quickly (though this theory is somewhat undermined by the spring-like behavior of fresh "go-jo" hand cleaner).

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There is a tremendous amount of literature on the subject of vibration in general, and even a significant volume on the subject of material damping in particular. There is, however, almost no tabulated data on the behavior of materials with respect to their damping characteristics[†].

The data for the damping rates of materials which does exist [1] is of extremely limited scope and is further outdated by the fact that some of the few materials listed are no longer manufactured. Machine designers are given some limited theoretical basis for evaluating a given material's damping characteristics[‡] most of which is well out of the scope of the present treatment of the subject. Further, in the most interesting regime of large scale motion, there is no quantitative understanding [2]. No reference what-so-ever could be found treating the subject of metal-fluid boundaries as they effect vibrational energy dissipation.

1.2 Scope of Experiment

It was proposed that an experiment be devised to quantitatively measure the relative damping performance of various materials chosen for their pertinence to machine tool designers. This experiment was undertaken with the understanding of it being preliminary in nature to a more exhaustive set of measurements. This preliminary study was meant to provide some quantitative basis for evaluating the common wisdom of machine tool designers and to provide some basis for the preparation of future experiments.

It was believed at the outset that the addition of viscous materials would significantly improve the damping characteristics of most materials. It was also believed that the addition of lead shot in the core of a sample would significantly improve its damping characteristics. Fol-

[†] Most tabular data seems to have originated with *Energy Dissipation Mechanisms In Structures With Particular Reference To Material Damping* by B. Lazan. The paper was published in 1959 in the book <u>Structural Damping</u> edited by J. Ruzicka, © 1959, ASME.

[‡] See, for example, <u>Vibration Damping</u> by A. Nashif, D. Jones, and J. Henderson, © 1985, John Wiley & Sons. Chapter three is particularly pertinent, as is chapter fourteen of <u>Mechanical Behavior Of Materials</u> by F. McClintock and A. Argon, ©1966, Addison-Wesley.

lowing the most straight-forward of logic, it was predicted that lead shot *and* oil would provide exceptional damping.

Further, from experience with machine tools and with day-to-day experience with different metals, a certain ranking was predicted without any deeper evaluation. It was predicted that cast iron would damp vibrations very well, and that brass would not (most machine tool bases are cast iron; many bells are made of brass). As crude as these estimates are, they are not uncharacteristic of the way a designer might select materials for non-critical applications (one would hope that for critical applications more care would be taken).

Interestingly enough, not all of the common sense predications turned out to be true, or even close to the measured results.

Chapter 2

Theory

2.1 Material Damping

Most solid materials exhibit some level of hysteresis when deformed mechanically, even over a small range. This is due to the dissipation of a certain amount of the elastic energy as heat or as plastic deformation. There are a number of mechanisms by which materials dissipate vibrational energy.

2.2 Damping Mechanisms

There are a tremendous number of mechanisms postulated to provide a degree of damping in a vibrating member. Only those most pertinent to the experiment at hand will be explored.

The two dominant modes of energy loss in our experiment would be acoustic excitation of the surrounding air, and mechanical loss to the table itself, which was not rigidly fixed. These modes of energy dissipation are not the subject of our current study, but cannot be ignored in the analysis.

Internally, a whole host of interactions might be taking place, which can be divided into two categories—linear and non-linear (rate independent and rate dependant) [3] [4]. It is thought that non-linear effects are dominant in most structural materials [5].

Most of the vibrational energy lost to damping ends up as heat in the end. Materials which are compressed tend to heat up. In the case of dynamic stress, the heat is not created in a homogenous fashion, which results in thermal potentials, and so in thermal currents. These currents represent a significant mode of loss.

Also significant, especially in the ferrous materials, is Snoek Damping [6]. When inter-

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stitial atoms are in solution in a crystalline solid, their position is determined by energy minimization. When such a solid undergoes strain, the balance of energy is disturbed and the solute atoms tend to migrate. The considerations for this migration tend to be purely physical: the interstitial atoms distort the crystal; if the crystal is physically deformed then the interstitial atoms will tend to collect where their presence causes a minimum additional distortion to the crystal lattice. This migration takes time, and can only be accomplished efficiently at a certain frequency, at which there will be a peak in the damping of the material. The amplitude of the peak is proportional to the number of mobile atoms and available sites. In certain crystal structures this process will tend to be anisotropic.

In polycrystalline materials, there is the possibility of grain slip where the crystal structure rearranges itself, effectively suffering plastic deformation.

Finally, there is the creation of magnetic eddy currents in a moving conductor. These effectively damp motion by creating current loops, and therefore heat, and therefore dissipation of energy.

Chapter 3

Apparatus

3.1 Mechanical Structure

A large number of mechanical elements were designed and fabricated by the author to allow convenient and accurate measurements of the samples to be tested. In the interest of accuracy, the stiffness of the mounting assembly was of paramount importance. Due to the tremendous number of test samples (fifty four) it was also critical that the samples be changed easily and without compromising the accuracy of the test.

3.1.1 Test Specimen

There was little flexibility in the design of the test specimens because of the interest in including data for Al_2O_3 and granite samples of which had already been purchased (at great expense). The specimens measure three by three by sixteen inches (see figure 3-1). A table

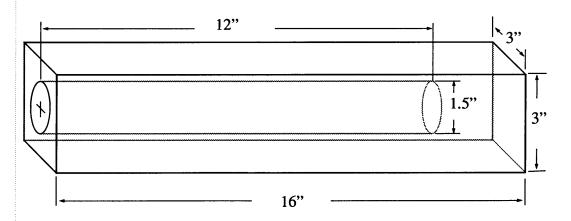


Figure 3-1: Test Specimen showing measurements. All tolerances were within approximately one sixteenth of an inch.

of the specimen costs and suppliers is provided in Appendix B.3. A table of the materials properties is given in Appendix B.2.

The specimens were designed as large as they are to more accurately simulate the condi-

tions that they might be used in as applied to machine tool manufacture. Unfortunately, the size of the samples prohibited providing a true "built in" clamp, as would be required to produce pure first mode oscillations. The hole was bored to provide a cavity which was filled with various substances expected to alter the damping rate of the sample, and selected on the basis of the practical merit. The criterion include low cost, ease of handling, and potential for actual use. Figure 3-2 shows the specimens and cores tested. The particular alloys were cho-

> **Specimen Materials Core Materials** Cast Iron, Class 40 Air Steel, 1018 Sand, White Play Sand Stainless Steel, 303 Lead Shot, #8 Titanium, 6Al4V Oil, 10W40 Aluminum. 6061 Sand And Oil Lead Shot And Oil Brass, C360 Copper, 101 Ceramic, 99.5% Al₂O₃ Granite. Grav

Figure 3-2: List of specimen and core materials tested.

sen for each specimen as being the most commonly used or most applicable to machine tool design.

3.1.2 Sample Vise

A standard machine vise was used to fixture the samples, but with certain modifications to improve its stiffness. The base of the vise, which originally allowed rotational adjustment, was removed. A pair of mounting holes with three-quarter-inch clearance were drilled in the front of the vise, and a set of four half-inch clearance holes were drilled through the back flange of the vise. The gib of the vise was reinforced with a one-inch square steel bar which bridged the gib and was bolted down to the table at either end. The most significant alteration was the replacement of the vise faces (the originals were only one-quarter of an inch thick) with more substantial plates shown in figure 3-3. These plates were designed to utilize the

original mounting holes drilled through the gib and base of the vise. The height of the faces

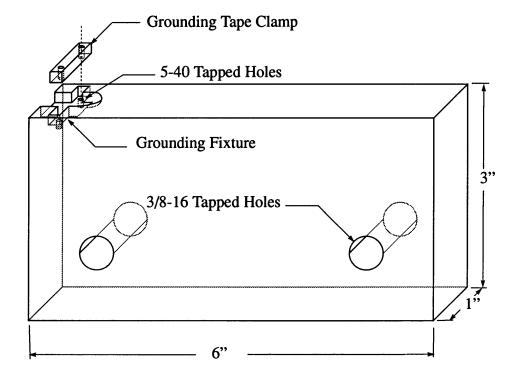


Figure 3-3: Vise Face, showing measurements and details. Two faces were manufactured; only one with a Grounding Fixture.

were raised from one inch to three inches to improve the stability of the mounting system (the specimens were three inches square at the base). The faces were cut as thick as possible, the limiting factor being how wide the vise could be opened (five and half inches without any faces).

3.1.3 Test Bed

We were fortunate enough to find a surplus cyclic fatigue testing machine to use as our test bed. This machine was built with a cast iron table top approximately three feet square, three inches thick, and weighing about one ton.

The table's original purpose was to shake apart fatigue samples, and was still fitted with

the necessary apparatus, consisting of a massive spring mounted motor assembly which protruded through the middle of the table. This assembly would freely oscillate at about ten hertz, and so it was fitted with an aluminum clamp to fix it to the table and then pre-loaded against the clamp to keep it steady.

The entire table assembly was suspended on springs yielding natural frequencies of approximately one hertz vertically and approximately five hertz horizontally. It was originally believed that the spring suspension of the table would isolate the experiment from environmental vibrations and thus improve the accuracy. In retrospect, environmental isolation was unnecessary. It is possible, moreover, that the effective stiffness of the mount could have been increased and the coupling between the sample and the probe mount reduced had the table been rigidly fixed.

A number of holes were drilled and tapped into the table to hold the vise. These consisted of two three-quarter inch by twelve pitch holes under the front of the vise and four one-half—thirteen pitch holes in the back. Helicoil[®] inserts were used for all threads to insure a good bite in the cast iron[†].

3.1.4 Probe Support Post

It was deemed critical that the probe be held steady for obvious reasons. To this end all of our pre-experimental wisdom was brought to bear on producing a post with great stiffness and a tremendously fast damping rate.

The body of the post was an eighteen inch long section of rectangular steel tubing, six inches by four inches, with three-eighths inch thick walls as shown in figure 3-4. To stiffen the tube, a quarter inch thick plate was welded across the bottom of the tube with a water-

[†] Threads cut into cast iron have a habit of stripping at the least provocation. Helicoil[®] manufactures stainless steel helical thread repair inserts. To use them, one must drill an oversized hole, tap it with their tap, and then screw in the insert. Once inserted, the stainless threads have a nearly indefinite life-time, which is particularly useful in softer materials (such as cast iron or even plastics) and when threads have been accidently stripped.

tight bead running around the entire perimeter. The top of the post was cross braced by welding three-sixteenth by one-half inch strips of steel across opposite corners.

In order to fixture the post to the table a pair of runners were welded to the bottom of the post along the six inch dimension. At one end both runners were drilled and tapped for one-half inch by thirteen pitch bolts. The bolts were used to adjust the verticality of the post. The

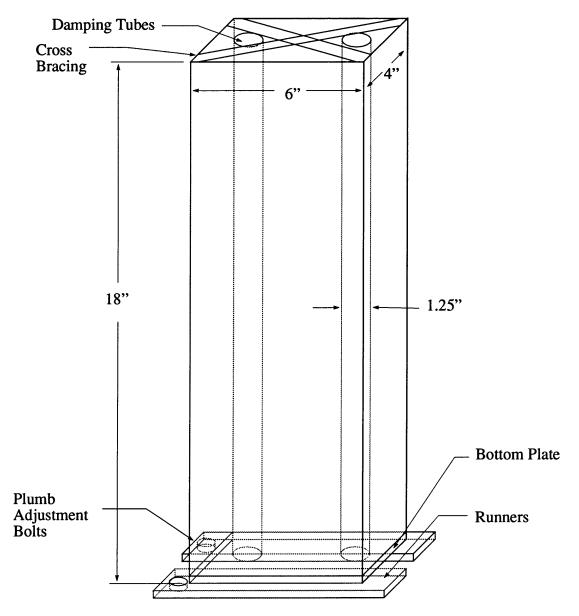


Figure 3-4: The Probe Support Post is made of heavy steel tubing with welded reinforcements. The post is filled with cast concrete and has two channels running the length filled with lead shot and oil to make the post "dead".

runners and bolts rode on inch thick precision ground parallels, which allowed three degrees of freedom to adjust the gap width and parallelize the face of the probe with the face of the sample.

In order to improve the stiffness yet further and to increase the damping capacity of the post, it was filled with concrete Before pouring the concrete, two steel pipes, one and a quarter inches in diameter, were greased and set into the post. Once the concrete hardened, the pipes were removed and the resulting channels were filled with lead shot and then oil to make the post "dead"—a construction technique used in optical bench posts. The result was very well damped, particularly at higher frequencies (above about 250 hertz).

3.1.5 Probe Clamp

The probe itself was held in a clamp (figure 3-5) made in two halves. with a half inch hole

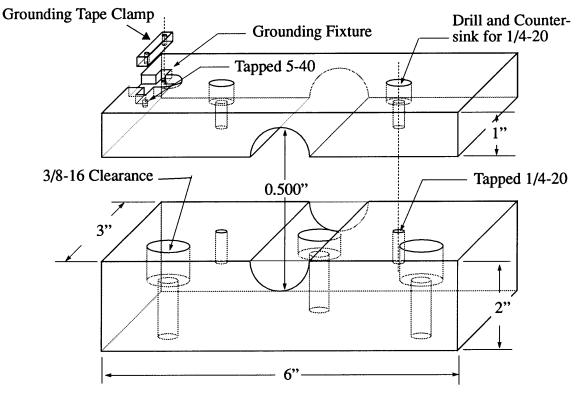


Figure 3-5: The Probe Clamp assembly. The 0.500" hole is bored to provide a slip fit with the probe.

reamed through the middle to fit the probe itself as closely as possible (in fact, a clearance of 0.002" was maintained). The clamp had machined into it a Grounding Fixture identical to the one in the Vise Face. Cast iron was selected for both the clamp and for an angle bracket used to mount the clamp to the Probe Support Post as it is known to have good dimensional stability and fairly good damping characteristics, as well as providing a stiff mounting point. All threads in both the clamp and the bracket were reinforced with Helicoil[®] inserts so that they could be reused if need be, and to allow higher bolt torque settings, which would have stripped cast iron threads.

The clamp was bolted to a cast iron angle bracket (figure 3-6) which was modified to allow

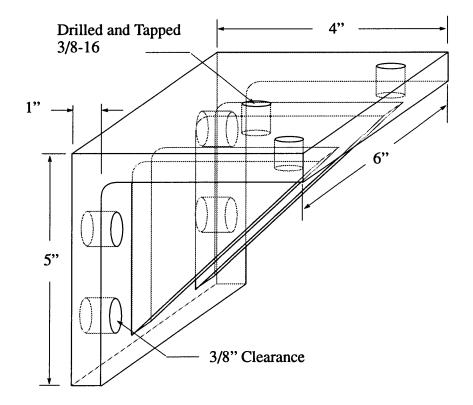


Figure 3-6: The Probe Clamp Mounting Bracket is an off-the-shelf flanged cast iron angle bracket with mounting holes drilled in it. The tapped holes are reinforced with Helicoil inserts.

it to be fixed to the post and to have the clamp bolted to it by drilling four holes through its

five inch flange, and by tapping three holes in the four inch flange (with Helicoil[®] inserts).

3.1.6 Excitation Source

The mode of excitation was chosen to be an impulse as this was considered to be the most economical and feasible. A steel ball, approximately one inch in diameter was used as the "hammer". It was modified by welding a small stainless steel loop to the "top" from which the ball was suspended by means of a thin steel wire. In order to soften the blow, the ball was dipped in Plasticote[®], thus enhancing the excitation of lower frequencies. The ball was hung from an aluminum frame shaped like an inverted "L" and bolted to the side of the test bed.

At the point where the arc of the ball's swing met the upright of the "L", an electromagnet made from a bolt and about twenty yards of magnet wire was mounted. The magnet was powered by 110 Volt AC wall current, rectified by a twelve amp bridge, and smoothed by a huge capacitor. The magnet was turned on by a momentary-on switch, and the ball was released when the magnet power was cut. The switch cut power before the variable transformer to reduce AC line noise during the measurement.

3.1.7 Assembly

Great care was taken during the assembly to insure that the entire structure was as stiff as possible and that there were no stray resonances which might throw off the measurement.

The vise and table were chemically cleaned and then epoxied together as well as being held by the six mounting bolts. Bolts in opposite corners of the vise were sequentially tightened to the maximum torque reasonably achieved with hand tools.

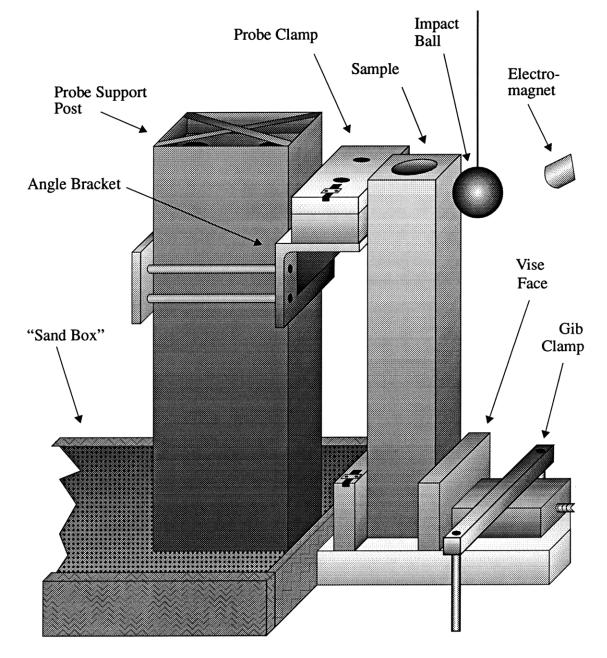
The Probe Support Post was set on a pair of ground parallels to allow forward and backward motion without disturbing the height and pitch adjustments. The angle bracket was bolted to the post by means of a pair of long three-eighths inch fixturing rods which connected the four through-holes in the bracket to a pair of steel "C" channels on the opposite side of the post. The bracket was held by nuts on either end of the four fixturing rods. The Probe Clamp was bolted to the bracket. Then the capacitance probe was laid into the bottom half of the clamp. It was adjusted to extend from the face of the clamp by a few hundredths of an inch. A drop of Duco Cement[®] was used to ensure that the probe would not drift in the clamp without risking damage when the time came to remove the probe. The top half of the clamp was bolted on.

Using the two plumb adjusting screws on the back of the post (and a lot of patient struggling), the probe face was made parallel to the surface of the sample. The post was then bolted to the table by means of fixturing clamps[†] for which a set of tapped holes was drilled in the table.

It was deduced that the table itself would be excited in resonance with the oscillating sample, so to minimize the energy of this oscillation transmitted to the post, a "sand box" was built around the post. Approximately one hundred pounds of sand was poured into a wooden box glued around the post. The edges of the box were sealed with caulking compound and five or six quarts of oil was poured over the sand to couple the table's vibrations through the entire mass of the sand.

In order to "settle in" the sample in the vise following each sample change, a long procedure was rigorously followed. First the sample was set into the vise and gib tightened to about ten foot pounds of torque. Then the sample was struck fifty times with a soft mallet. Then the gib was tightened to about twenty foot pounds of torque, and the clamping bar over the gib was tightened to about ten foot pounds, following which another fifty blows were struck. The procedure was repeated until a torque of about 50 foot pounds was reached on both the gib and the clamping bar.

[†] Fixturing clamps are blocks and threaded rods used to fixture parts for machining. They generally consists of a set of blocks with dozens of little steps cut into them, a set of bars with matching steps cut in them and a hole in the middle, and a set of threaded rods of various lengths which fit through the holes. Machine tools generally have "T" slots cut their ways, and "T" slot blocks are provided with threaded holes for the bottom ends of the rods. Nuts clamp down the bars, threaded onto the top ends of the rods.



This procedure, long as it might seem, was found to be necessary to prevent the sample

Figure 3-7: A stylized three dimensional view of the entire test assembly. Critical components are described carefully in the text.

from shifting closer to the probe after each blow (which the probe was sensitive to). The shift following an impact when the sample had simply been clamped into place was on the order

of 0.001 - 0.005". Since the entire range of the probe is only 0.004", this level of shift was unacceptable. Following the settling-in procedure the shift was generally inconsequential.

Figure 3-7 shows a somewhat simplified view of the test assembly where non-essential details have been left out for the sake of clarity, and perspective has been ignored by necessity. Each of the labelled parts is described in function and dimension in the preceding text.

3.2 Instrument Chain

The instrument chain was required to perform three important tasks for each test run: first, facilitate proper calibration of the standoff for the capacitance probe (0.005"); second, allow easy assessment of problems with the test process; and third, record the necessary data.

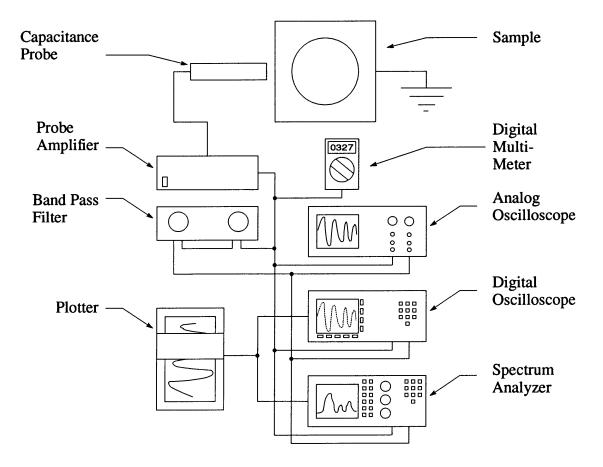


Figure 3-8: The instrument chain and wiring diagram.

3.2.1 Capacitance Probe

The transducer used in this experiment was a capacitance probe. The probe senses the slight variation in capacitance as a function of the distance between the probe face and a conductive surface. Our probe was manufactured by Pioneer Technology of San Jose, CA. The probe had an effective range of 0.003" - 0.007", which required fairly precise alignment between the probe and the sample.

Capacitance probes measure distance rather than velocity or acceleration, and so are fairly linear in their response from DC to their frequency limit of about five hundred hertz. Their limitations as transducers in vibration measurement come from the narrow gap in which they operate $(0.004")^{\dagger}$ which limits dynamic range, and from their narrow frequency response.

The probe itself works in conjunction with an amplifier also manufactured by Pioneer Technology. The amplifier sends an high frequency AC signal and generates an output signal proportional to the current flow to ground across the effective capacitor between the parallel planes of the probe and the sample face. The amplifier/probe combination has a cumulative noise floor of about five millivolts, and generates about five volts per thousandth of an inch change in the gap. The effective noise floor is therefore at approximately one millionth of an inch relative displacement, or one part in four thousand.

3.2.2 Filter Network

In order to clean up the incoming signal, it was passed through a band pass filter which was set to maximize response around the primary harmonic. The response of the filter is graphed in appendix D.2 for each of the settings used. For the metallic samples a high pass setting of 90 hertz and a low pass setting of 750 hertz was selected to allow maximum response around the 200 to 350 hertz primary harmonic. The non-metallic samples both had

[†] The granite sample actually struck the probe, breaking the glue which held it in place. In order to measure granite, the gap had to be adjusted to near the widest possible setting, which limited dynamic range severely.

primary harmonics centered at around half that figure, and so the filter settings were adjusted to approximately 15 hertz for the high pass, and 350 hertz for the low pass filters.

The filter was an analog type with two separate patches, each individually adjustable. Even with care taken insure that the minimum attenuation coincided with the primary harmonic, the signal still suffered a fifteen decibel loss passing though the filter.

3.2.4 Digital Oscilloscope

Hewlett Packard was nice enough to lend an HP 54110D Digitizing Oscilloscope with color display for this project. This oscilloscope is rated to one gigahertz, and claims an effective ten bits of resolution.

Two modes of capture and output were used. One allowed the capture of two channels simultaneously triggered, and then simultaneously displayed. This feature generated the paired time space graphs shown in appendix E. depicting filtered and un-filtered response for each sample. The second mode allowed the storage of four traces in memory, which were plotted overlaid. These also appear in appendix E., and generally indicate an absolutely incredible degree of repeatability.

Due to the magnification factor used to properly window the traces, the graphs only yield about seven bits of resolution. This limited the usefulness of the full time range of the data. The trace record length was chosen to be 250 milliseconds, but for all of the metallic samples only the first 100 milliseconds were significant.

3.2.5 Spectrum Analyzer

An Hewlett Packard HP 3562A Dynamic Signal Analyzer was used to analyze the power spectrum of the data. The spectrum analyzer was used in a mode similar to the dual trace mode of the oscilloscope, where two active channels grabbed the filtered and un-filtered signals at the same trigger. Both of these traces are plotted for each sample in appendix E., show-

ing the effect of the filter on the power spectrum, and providing information on the relative amplitudes of the various frequency modes.

The analyzer was set up to provide a linear measurement of the power spectrum from one hertz to 500 hertz. An Hanning window was used to minimize the generation of spurious harmonics. The input was AC coupled to minimize the effects of DC drift and movement. The input range was 5.02 Volts peak to peak, with the record being triggered by a 303 millivolt threshold.

3.2.6 Additional Components

In order to facilitate easy calibration and quick analysis of problems, a digital multi-meter and a Tektronix 2465A oscilloscope were connected to the signal train. Since the output of the capacitance probe system was proportional to distance, it was an easy matter to set the gap between the probe face and the sample to within a few millionths of an inch by watching the output voltage on the multimeter.

The final output from both the digital scope and the spectrum analyzer was recorded on an Hewlett Packard ColorPro Plotter.

Chapter 4

Procedure

4.1 Experimental Procedure

A rigorous procedure was developed during the testing process in order to quickly and accurately collect the data from fifty four individual samples. Over the course of several days of testing, some one hundred and sixty two data graphs were drawn (which appear in their grand entirety in appendix E.).

Each test began with settling-in the sample[†]. Once that was achieved, the probe had to be aligned with the sample face. Although each of the samples had been sanded to provide a good surface to measure from, each sample was a little different in shape. Probe alignment required the use of the digital multi-meter which, being hand-held, could be set in a convenient place to watch the display while adjusting the gap distance. Parallelism was adjusted by eye, and rarely needed readjustment.

Once the sample and the probe were aligned and clamped down, the test instruments were armed. Under certain conditions the AC line current fluctuation caused by switching the electromagnet on would trip the instruments: on alternate test runs, the release pulse would trip them. Putting the instruments on an UPS[‡] only worsened matters as the UPS circuit was tripped by the line pulse, which, as often as not, completely shut down the instruments. An impromptu treaty was reached by running an extension cord across the room to a special power line installed for a sensitive computer system. It seems somewhat inappropriate that \$55,000 worth of equipment would be incapacitated by a small line surge.

A trial run was recorded for each sample. The time space information (recorded by the digital oscilloscope) was used to determine proper scaling factors and to check how well set-

[†] The settling-in procedure is described in detail in chapter 3.1.7.

[‡] Uninterruptable Power Supply—with a high level of surge suppression.

tled-in the sample was. The frequency space information was used to confirm the filter settings, and to check for surprise resonances (which might indicate a loose bolt or fitting).

If all went well, a full record was taken on both the analyzer and the 'scope for both the filtered and un-filtered signals (which accounts for four of the five graphs for each sample). If the sample hadn't drifted too badly (which it generally didn't if the settling-in procedure was followed correctly), then four more records were captured in the memory of the 'scope. These four separate records are plotted superimposed on the remaining graph given for each sample. For most of the samples the four traces line up nearly perfectly, indicating an extraor-dinary level of phase cohesiveness and repeatability.

4.2 Data Reduction

Collecting the data was actually a very small part of the overall analysis. It was not possible to fully automate the data reduction process[†]. The oscilloscope that Hewlett Packard lent us could not be interfaced to any of the computers in our lab, and so the process of taking the data from the fifty six graphs and entering it into a computer for analysis was done entirely by hand.

It was decided to grid the peaks of the decaying oscillations as being representative of the decay envelope. A transparency with a grid printed on it was used to find the coordinates of the oscillation peaks, which were entered one by one into a computer.

The overall envelope is defined by some combination of exponentially decaying, linearly decaying, and periodic envelopes. Since the goal of this project was to generate a ranking of the various decay rates, it was decided to try to pull out only the exponential term (which corresponds to a viscous decay function). A simple least squares curve fit to an exponential (as implemented in Cricket Graph[®]) was overwhelmingly biased by the amplitude of the early periodic beats in the envelope. The result was a t = 0 intercept at about half the original am-

[†] See chapter 6, especially 6.1 for a description of what I would have liked to have done differently.

plitude.

A slightly modified version of the least squares fit algorithm was implemented as a Microsoft[®] BASIC program which clamped the amplitude at t = 0 at the amplitude of the first peak. This drastically improved the correspondence between the quantitative results and a qualitative comparison of the graphs, but was not fully satisfactory.

It was observed that the data had not been normalized (inconsequential) and had not been zeroed to the base line (quite significant). The curve fit program was modified to generate an error value as the absolute average of the differences between the curve fit and the original data. The linear displacement was then adjusted in small steps to minimize the error function. At the error minimum, the value of the exponent was returned. It was assumed that, since the variant term was linear, there would be no local minimums to confuse the program. The ranking as determined by the program is entirely in agreement with a qualitative visual assessment of the damping rates.

The program, named *Clamp Fit*, is listed in its entirety in appendix C. and was used to generate all final results. The process the author used to generate the data tables (not entirely recommended) was to enter the data into the Cricket Graph[®] which allowed easy visual inspection for erroneously entered datum, then to convert the data into a text file using Microsoft Word[®] where the proper format characters could be inserted. *Clamp Fit* then opened the text files and read the data.

.. 30 ..

Chapter 5

Results

5.1 Time-Space Interpretation

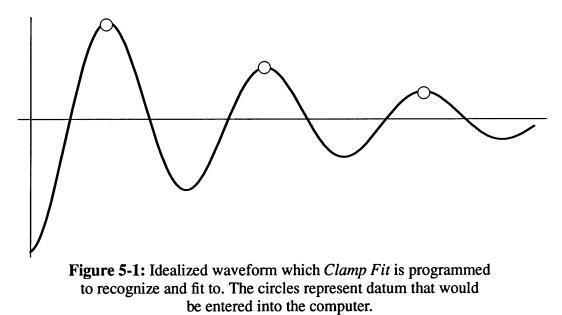
Clamp Fit used data entirely from the time domain. Unfortunately, the time domain is extremely chaotic due to the huge number of beating frequencies. This program implicitly assumed the equation of the envelope to be of the form

$$A(t) = A_0 \times e^{-\alpha t} + b , \qquad (5.1)$$

where the data fit to this curve is taken from the peaks of the decaying sinusoidal equation defined by

$$A(t) = A_0 \sin(\omega t + b_1) \times e^{-\alpha t} + b_2$$
 (5.2)

The result of this function (with arbitrary phase, frequency, amplitude and decay rate) is shown in figure 5-1. The circles in the figure represent the points that would have been en-



tered into the computer as datum. The top left point would have been entered as A_0 at a time t_0 . The remaining data would be normalized to fit these initial conditions. As one look at the

graphs in appendix E. will make apparent, the data entered shared little resemblance with this idealized version.

5.2 Calculated Relative Impulse Damping Rates

It is difficult to summarize fifty four data points in single graph and make it both intelligible and quantitatively useful. Numeric data are presented in appendix A. where the first column, in millihertz, is the exponent, α , from equation 5.1.

The data will be presented in two formats: a list of bar-graphs and a density plot. The bar graphs will probably be most useful for an engineer who is attempting to design a machine or tool. The density plot gives a quick qualitative overview of all the data collected.

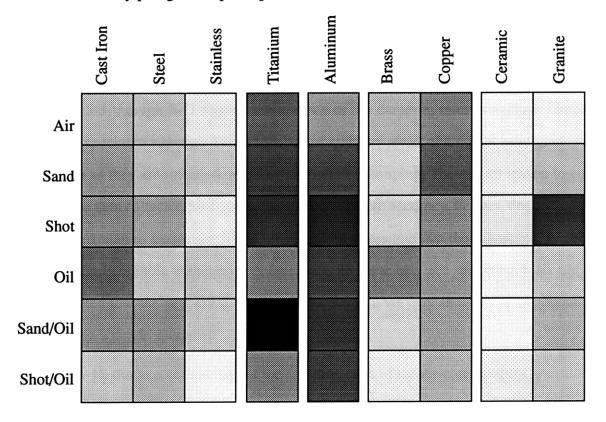


Figure 5-2: Density plot summary of data. Darker squares indicate faster damping rates. Blocks are grouped by material type.

It is clear from the density plot that no universal generalizations about the effects of core

materials are universally valid, which is not surprising considering the complexity of large scale dislocation and movement across boundaries and into inhomogenous materials.

It is important to note that the frequency of the primary harmonic of aluminum was at approximately 400 hertz, which is right near the upper limit of the frequency response of the probe. It is also curious that as the frequency of the primary harmonic decreases (444 Hz with air, 330 Hz with lead shot and oil), the initial displacement measured increases (310 mV with air, 390 mV with lead shot and oil), indicating that the aluminum-air sample oscillates at a rate above the functional ceiling of the test. It is also important to consider that since the damping coefficient that is being solved out of the equation is velocity dependant, that the damping rate would necessarily be faster for higher frequencies at the same range of displacement.

Titanium, notably, damps about twice as well as any other material measured.

Figures 5-3 through 5-11 show a comparison of the damping rates of various samples grouped by specimen material. The graphs are of arbitrary scale, and do not have graduated vertical axis as they are intended only to show relative damping. There is no reason to consider that the data collected is of any better than qualitative accuracy. Further, due to the differences in excitation frequency, it is not really valid to assume that the calculated damping rates are entirely reliable within a given specimen, let alone between specimen. It should be carefully noted that the primary excitation frequency can vary by as much as two hundred hertz—within a single specimen[†].

Figure 5-12 shows a comparison of the damping rates of the air-core samples, indicating the range of values between materials. The damping rate of the Probe Support Post is also included. It is interesting to note that the post, with all the effort expended in making it as dead as possible, is still only slightly better damped than an empty titanium bar, and not near-

[†] The granite-air sample's primary harmonic was measured at 70.8 Hz, while the granite-sand/oil sample oscillated primarily at 268 Hz, a difference of 197 Hz.

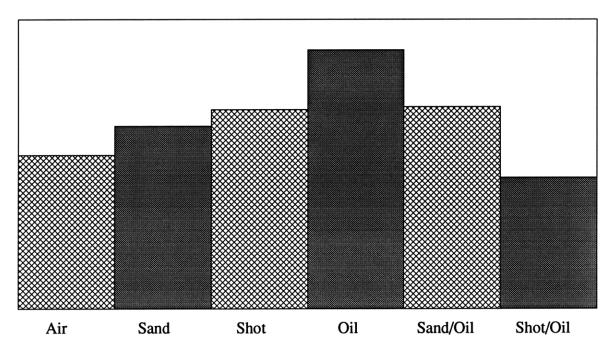


Figure 5-3: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for cast iron.

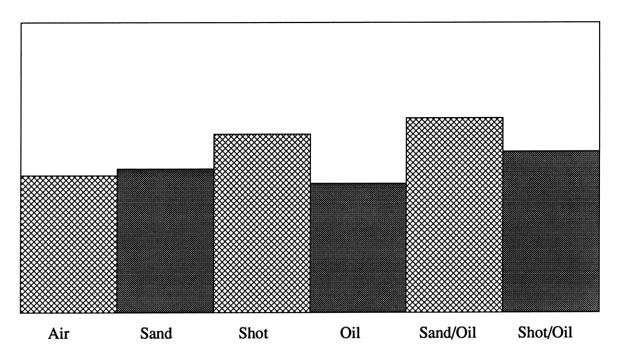


Figure 5-4: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for steel.

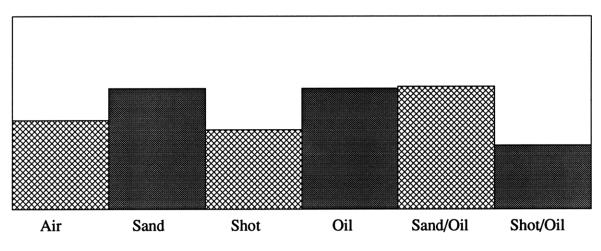


Figure 5-5: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for stainless steel.

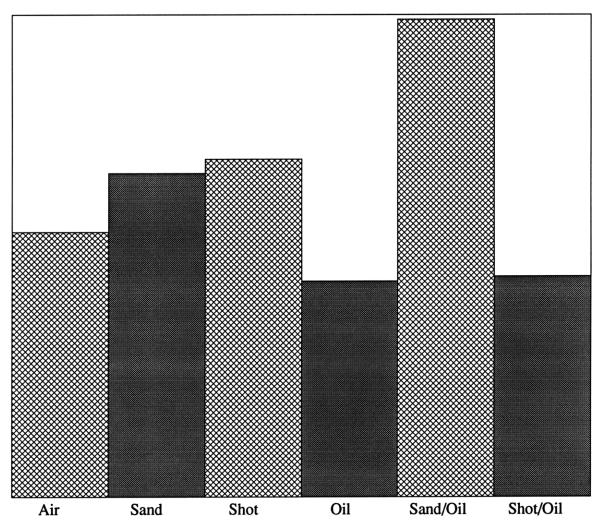


Figure 5-6: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for titanium.

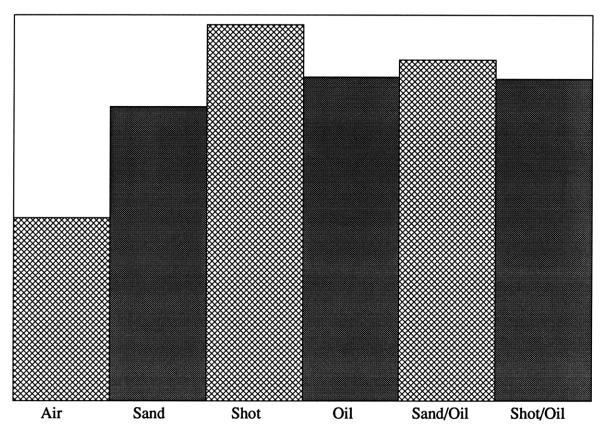


Figure 5-7: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for aluminum.

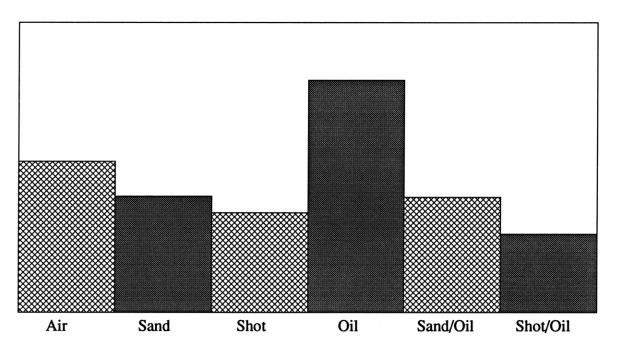


Figure 5-8: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for brass.

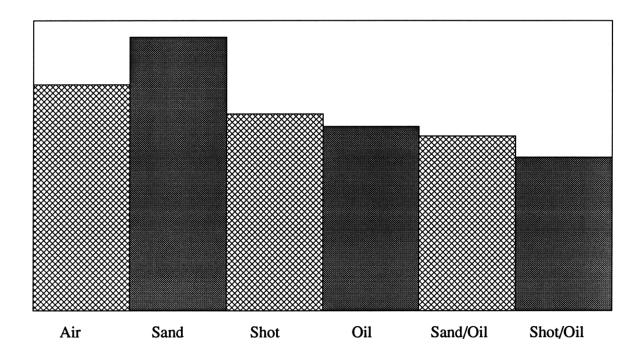


Figure 5-9: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for copper.

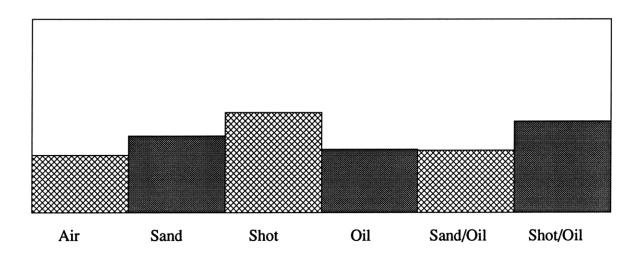


Figure 5-10: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for ceramic.

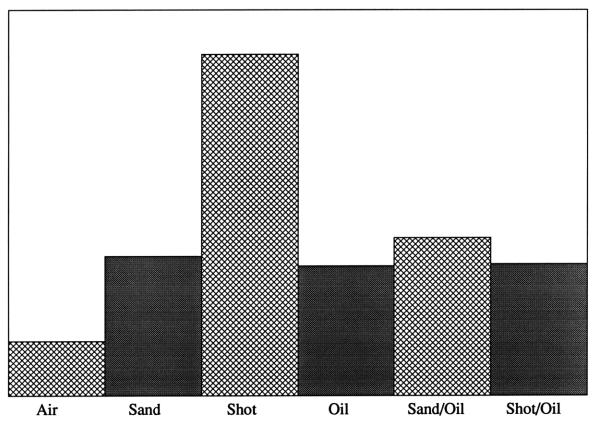


Figure 5-11: Bar graph comparison of the damping rates for granite.

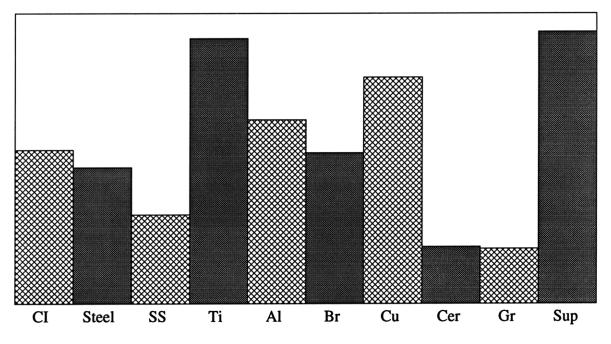


Figure 5-12: Comparison of damping rates of all samples with air cores and support.

ly so well damped as titanium and sand. On the other hand, the post is significantly better damped than any of the steel samples, even though its shape would tend to allow bell-like vibrations (as in tubular bells).

5.3 Frequency-Space Interpretation

A great deal of information about the damping characteristics of the samples was encrypted into the frequency-space graphs. Remembering that the frequency width of an impulse is proportional to the inverse of its lifetime, one can, with surprising success, measure directly from the frequency space graphs the lifetime, frequency, and amplitude of each excited resonance.

The exact relationship, assuming a gaussian distribution around the center frequency, is that the full width of the frequency-space peak at 1/e of its maximum is the inverse of the time it would take for the pulse to decay to 1/e of its initial amplitude in time-space. Unfortunately, there is a significant amount of noise in the frequency-space, which would preclude using this measurement system with any hope of significant accuracy. Another problem would be in determining a useful system of comparing the values so determined.

As a simple example, take the ceramic-air sample. At the beginning of the pulse the amplitude on the graph measures 3.3 centimeters[†] at 72 Hz. A measurement of the frequency width yields approximately 9.2 Hz[‡]. If we fit these numbers into equation 5.2, but rewritten as

$$A(t) = Hgt \times \cos(2\pi ft) \times e^{-width \times t} , \qquad (5.3)$$

where "Hgt" is the height of the pulse, "f" is the frequency and "width" is the width of the pulse in frequency space and graph A(t) we get Figure 5-13. Excitingly enough, though these numbers were actually measured right off the frequency space graph, the overall decay time of even this simple pulse is fairly close to the actual pulse decay in appendix E.

.. 38 ..

[†] We might as well use centimeters as millivolts since we are only interested in the relative amplitude.

[‡] For the frequency we will stick to exact units so our result will come out in seconds.

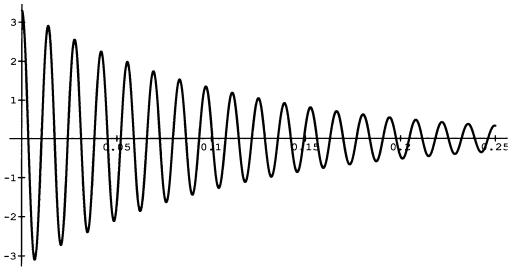


Figure 5-13: Plot of equation 5.3, representing the primary harmonic of the ceramic-air sample.

Clearly, looking at the frequency space graph, the primary harmonic is only slightly dominant over a tremendous number of frequencies all working together. If we fit the measured values of the biggest peaks into

A (t) =
$$\frac{H_1}{\omega_1^2} (\cos(\omega_1 t) e^{-W_1 t}) + \frac{H_2}{\omega_2^2} (\cos(\omega_2 t) e^{-W_2 t}) + et...,$$
 (5.4)

where H_1 and H_2 are the measured heights of the peaks, the ω 's are the center frequencies of the peaks, and the W's are the widths in hertz for, say, the six dominant peaks in the ceramicair sample, the plot would look like figure 5-14[†].

Figure 5-14 is especially interesting when one considers that the horizontal axis, the time axis, is scaled in seconds, and that the calculated wave form is surprisingly similar to the wave form of the real time-space graph in appendix E., even from an extremely limited six term equation. It was assumed that all phases are at a maximum at t = 0, which is not unreasonable.

[†] The graph in figure 5-14 (and 5-13) was generated using Mathematica®. The command line used was: Plot[(($3.3/453^2$) Cos[453 t] Exp[-11.5 t]) + (($2.2/758^2$) Cos[758 t] Exp[-4.6 t]) + (($1.4/937^2$) Cos[937 t] Exp[-2.3 t]) + (($2.2/1130^2$) Cos[1130 t] Exp[-3.46 t]) + ((2.1173^2) Cos[1173 t] Exp[-4.38 t]) + (($2.5/2471^2$) Cos[2471 t] Exp[-5.77 t]), {t, 0, 25}, PlotPoints -> 2400, PlotRange -> All]

Clearly there is a great deal of promise in the frequency space evaluation of the damping characteristics, in fact, frequency space is often the space of choice for certain evaluations of periodic and impulse related behavior [7].

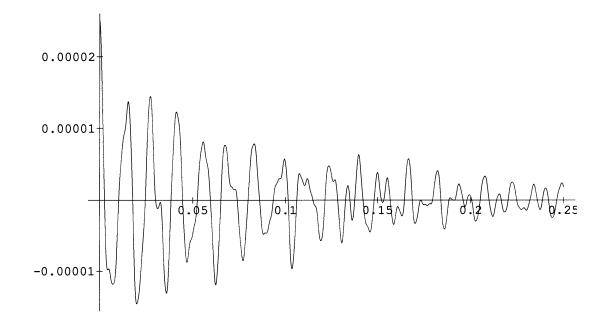


Figure 5-14: Superposition of the six dominant frequency terms from frequency space plot of ceramic-air sample.

Chapter 6

Lessons

This chapter is comprised of a collected list of improvements to the measurement process as determined by hard experience and clear hindsight.

6.1 Improved Data Collection

The primary alteration to the method of collecting the data would be to automate it. Once the data has been stored digitally, it should stay that way until it is fully reduced and readable. It is recommended that either a analog to digital interface be used with a personal computer right off, or a complete HPIB system or its equivalent be set up for numeric processing.

If this particular experiment is repeated, or another similar one, I would suggest that the data be rectified (or squared) and a large number of runs be averaged. An alternative is to break the record down into equal time length segments, then integrate the absolute value over the segment length, average a number of runs, and then fit the runs to a curve.

6.2 Improved Experimental Set Up

Of primary importance in measuring the oscillations of any sample is that the sample oscillate. Massive steel members tend not to move significantly and are therefore somewhat impractical for dynamic testing. Furthermore, it is next to impossible to devise a fixture strong enough to hold a three inch square bar of stainless steel steady whilst it whips around. Reducing the thickness of the samples by a factor of three, and replacing the one large cavity with a row of smaller cavities would result in large, more easily measurable deflections. Further, making the sample significantly rectangular would reduce inter-modal coupling.

The base of the system must be made as absolutely massive as possible to simplify the motion of the beam. In the same vein, the instrument post should be as stable as possible, even

to the point of mounting it on the floor if need be, to eliminate coupling between the sample and the post. Random vibrations from other equipment are not nearly so difficult to unravel as two pseudo-cantilever beams oscillating synchronously. It is almost certain that the coupling between the sample and the post was responsible for the overall sinusoidal envelope that made the data so difficult to fit to an exponential curve.

The capacitance probe was not optimal for vibration testing either. A voice coil would have worked quite well, or a microphone and acoustically coupled tube. Either of these would provide an extremely low noise floor (potentially), broad frequency response, and good dynamic range as well as being simpler and less expensive than the probe.

6.3 Improved Excitation Sources

There is significant merit to a simple impact test, especially when evaluating the rate at which a given object will damp out vibrations caused by an impact. The harmonic content of an impact test is controlled to a great degree by the geometry of the object, and the damping rate of the material is a function of frequency. It is therefore difficult to compare data generated in such an uncontrolled experiment.

A very elegant and expensive way to improve the control of the experiment is to use a high force voice coil to drive the sample. Using, say, the HP 3562A, one could set it to sweep a sine wave into a 10kw amplifier which could drive a large coil and flex the sample in an extremely controlled manner. Voice coils are manufactured with up to five hundred pounds of force continuous, and up to ten times that if actively cooled.

Far less expensive would be to couple an AC servo motor through a spring to the sample. The speed of the motor (and hence frequency of excitation) could be regulated by a control system easily. The only detraction would be that the driving force becomes irrevocably a function of frequency.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

7.1 Value Of This Experiment

The data collected in this experiment reveals some rather interesting trends, and reinforces a great deal that was believed without proof. Probably most pertinent is the rather gratifying data indicating that cast iron is significantly damped by the addition of oil, which could have an immediate effect on the design of machine tools. Most machine tools are manufactured from cast iron already, and generally have oil channels already designed into them for lubrication. It would be a fairly straight forward matter to enlarge some of the channels to provide an oil reservoir where vibrations are a problem.

It has been known for some time that certain alloys of titanium damp very well, and this study provides a bench mark for further exploration into "superalloys" such as Type 403 which might have twice the damping capacity of even titanium.

This experiment also provided a significant body of practical knowledge on how to conduct a test like this one.

7.2 Areas Of Future Research

The preliminary data generated in this study indicates just how much more needs to be learned. Damping is of significant concern to designers in fields ranging from precision machinery to aerospace. It is clear that more research needs to be done if a significantly useful body of data is to be built up.

Further, the process by which the damping itself is occurring need to be studied. There is, as of yet, no theory good enough to predict damping rates for materials under large scale oscillations. I would recommend that an experiment be set up using the practical knowledge gained in this experiment to test a much larger number of samples, with emphasis on measuring various alloys of the same basic material. I would also recommend that this experiment be set up to allow data to be gathered as a function of frequency which should yield interesting information about the dominant modes of loss in various materials.

Appendix A

Summary of Calculable Properties

Sample	Damping Rate	1/e·A ₀		Displacement	Sample Mass
Specimen - Core	(mHz)	(msec)	(Hz)	(mV)	(Kg)
Cast Iron - Air · · · · · ·					
Cast Iron - Sand · · · · ·					
Cast Iron - Shot · · · · ·					
Cast Iron - Oil · · · · · ·					
Cast Iron - Sand/Oil · · · · Cast Iron - Shot/Oil · · · ·					
Cast Iron - Shot/OII ····	••0.0150 ••	•/5.5 ••••	•252•••••	• 400 • • • • • • • • • •	• 10.04
Steel - Air · · · · · · · · ·	· ·0.0141 · ·	.70.9	•214 • • • • •	. 395	· 15.70
Steel - Sand					
Steel - Shot · · · · · · · ·					
Steel - Oil · · · · · · · ·					
Steel - Sand/Oil · · · · ·					
Steel - Shot/Oil·····	· ·0.0166 · ·	•60.2 • • • •	•194 • • • • • •	• 437 • • • • • • • • • •	• 17.97
Stainless - Air.	· ·0.00919 ·	.109	.202	• 375 • • • • • • • • •	· 15.68
Stainless - Sand	· ·0.0125 · ·	·80.0 · · · ·	$\cdot 202 \cdots \cdots$	• 390 • • • • • • • • • •	· 16.24
Stainless - Shot.					
Stainless - Oil · · · · · ·					
Stainless - Sand/Oil · · · ·					
Stainless - Shot/Oil ····	· ·0.00660 ·	$\cdot 152 \cdots$	·214 · · · · ·	• 400 • • • • • • • • • • •	• 17.95
Titanium - Air · · · · · ·	· ·0.0274 · ·	.36.5	•247 • • • • • •	• 430 • • • • • • • • • •	· 9.07
Titanium - Sand · · · · ·	· ·0.0335 · ·	.29.9	$\cdot 224 \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot$	• 410 • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• 9.63
Titanium - Shot · · · · ·	· ·0.0350 · ·	·28.6 ····	$\cdot 202 \cdots \cdots$	• 440 • • • • • • • • • •	· 11.18
Titanium - Oil······					
Titanium - Sand/Oil · · · ·					
Titanium - Shot/Oil · · · ·	· ·0.0228 · ·	•43.9 • • • •	•229 • • • • •	• 437 • • • • • • • • • •	• 11.34
Aluminum - Air · · · · ·					
Aluminum - Sand · · · · ·					
Aluminum - Shot · · · · ·					
Aluminum - Oil · · · · ·					
Aluminum - Sand/Oil···					
Aluminum - Shot/Oil · · ·	··0.0334 ··	·29.9 · · · ·	.330	• 390 • • • • • • • • •	• 7.84

Sample Specimen - Core	Damping Rate (mHz)	Time to 1/e·A ₀ (msec)	Primary Frequency (Hz)		Sample Mass (Kg)
Brass - Air · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·0.0156 · · ·0.0120 · · ·0.0103 · · ·0.0240 · · ·0.0119· · ·	·64.1 · · · · ·83.3 · · · · ·97.1 · · · · ·41.7 · · · · ·84.0 · · · ·	·202 · · · · · ·186 · · · · · ·202 · · · · · ·214 · · · · · ·206 · · · · ·	· 400 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	 16.90 17.46 19.01 17.31 17.61
Copper - Air · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·0.0283 · · ·0.0204 · · ·0.0191 · · ·0.0181 · ·	·35.3 ···· ·49.0 ···· ·52.4 ···· ·55.2 ····	·214 · · · · · · · · · 237 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· 400 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· 18.56 · 20.11 · 18.41 · 18.71
Ceramic - Air · · · · · · · · · · · Ceramic - Sand · · · · · · · · · · · Ceramic - Shot · · · · · · · · Ceramic - Oil · · · · · · · · Ceramic - Sand/Oil · · · · · Ceramic - Shot/Oil · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·0.00789 · ·0.0103 · · ·0.00650 · ·0.00635 ·	·126 · · · · ·97.1 · · · · ·154 · · · · ·157 · · · ·	·69.4 ····· ·67.8 ····· ·54.1 ····· ·97.6 ·····	· 330 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• 8.53 • 10.08 • 8.38 • 8.68
Granite - Air Granite - Sand Granite - Shot Granite - Oil Granite - Sand/Oil Granite - Shot/Oil	·0.0145 · · · ·0.0354 · · ·0.0135 · · ·0.0164 · ·	·69.0 ···· ·28.2 ···· ·74.1 ···· ·61.0 ····	·202 · · · · · ·188 · · · · · ·258 · · · · · ·268 · · · ·	· 225 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· 5.97 · 7.52 · 5.82 · 6.12
Probe Support · · · · · ·	·0.0281 ···	•35.6 • • • •	.90	· 235 ¹	

¹Non-calibrated impact.

Appendix B

Materials Data

B.1 Volumes and Masses of Components

Volume of Standard Test Specimen · · · · · · · ·	2.01 x	10-3	m^3
Volume of Test Specimen Bore	3.48 x	10 ⁻⁴	m ³

Mass of Sand Core 0.55	7 Kg
Mass of Lead Shot Core 2.11	Kg
Mass of Oil Core · · · · · · · · · 0.33	
Mass of Sand and Oil Core0.71	4 Kg
Mass of Lead Shot and Oil Core 2.27	Kg

B.2 Material Properties¹

Material		Poisson's Ratio v	Shear Modulus GN/m ²	Coefficient of Expansion $\alpha (10^{-6})^{\circ}C)$	
Cast Iron Steel Stainless Steel, 303 Titanium Aluminum, 6061 Brass Copper Ceramic Al ₂ O ₃ 99.5% Granite (Rock of Ages)	· 205 · · · · · 200 · · · · · 110 · · · · · 73 · · · · · 105 · · · · · 117 · · · · · 372 ⁴ · · ·	• 0.27 • • • • • 0.30 • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	.79 .73.1 .41.4 .26 .38 .64 .152 ⁴	$\begin{array}{c} \cdot 11.4 \cdots \\ \cdot 17.3 \\ ^{2} \cdots \\ \cdot 8.82 \cdots \\ \cdot 22 \cdots \\ \cdot 20.4 \cdots \\ \cdot 16.7 \cdots \\ \cdot 8.0 \\ ^{4} \cdots \end{array}$	• 7.79 • 7.80 • 4.51 • 2.77 • 8.43 • 8.95 • 3.89 ⁴
Sand (Play Sand, White, D Lead Shot (#8, aggregate d Oil (10w-40 Motor Oil)	ensity) · · ·		• • • • • • • • •	•••••	· 6.07 ⁵

¹ S. H. Crandall, N.C. Dahl, and T.J. Lardner, An Introduction to the Mechanics of Solids. McGraw-Hill Book Co., NY 1978 except as otherwise noted.

² Scientific, and Engineering Formulas, Tables, Functions, Graphs, Transforms, Research and Education Association, Piscataway NJ, 1984.

³ Phone Conversation, "John" of Rock of Ages Corp. (802) 476-3115, 3 May 1990.

⁴ Phone Conversation, "Cathy" of Coors Ceramics, (303) 277-4082; 20 March 1990.

⁵ Measured by Arnold H. Gessel, 19 March 1990.

⁶ Phone Conversation, "Jim" of Sommerville Lumber, (617) 623-2800; 19 March 1990.

B.3 Specimen Costs And Suppliers

Material	Price	Source
Class 40 Cast Iron rounded corner 1018 Steel, cold ground 303 Stainless Steel 6AL4V Titanium Aluminum, 6061-T6511 C360 Cartridge Brass Copper (oxy free) 101 Al ₂ O ₃ 99.5% pure Granite	$\begin{array}{c} \cdot \cdot \cdot 46.18 \\ \cdot \cdot 380.00 \\ \cdot \cdot 246.25 \\ \cdot \cdot \cdot 44.55 \\ \cdot \cdot 120.45 \\ \cdot \cdot 306.00 \\ \cdot \cdot 2500.00^1 \\ \cdot $	 Peterson Royce President Admiral Admiral Kelco Coors
Supplier	Location	Phone Number

Peterson MetalsWocster, MA(800) 325-3245Kelco MetalsRockland, MA(617) 773-5711President Steel and TitaniumHanson, MA(617) 294-0991Royce Aerospace MetalsNY(800) 645-9530
Coors Ceramics Division Golden, CO (303) 277-4082 Rock Of Ages Barre, VT (802) 476-3115

 $^1\mbox{The exact prices of the ceramic and granite samples are unknown due to circumstances beyond my control.$

Appendix C

Clamp Fit, A Recursive Error Minimization Program For The Macintosh Computer In Microsoft[®] Basic

This is a complete listing of the Microsoft[®] Basic program *Clamp Fit* which was written by the author to analyze the data. In the following listing explanatory comments are identified by a " \Rightarrow " character.

 \Rightarrow The following commands set up the Macintosh window environment and a pleasing text face, the basic operational instructions are then displayed.

CALL TEXTFONT(2)

CALL TEXTSIZE(12)

CALL MOVETO(10,15)

PRINT "This program will fit the data point by point to an exponential curve,"

CALL MOVETO(10,30)

PRINT "holding the first point fixed. The number the program outputs is the"

CALL MOVETO(10,45)

PRINT "average value of the resultant exponential amplitude."

CALL MOVETO(10,60)

PRINT "The data must be arranged 'time, amplitude'."

DIM tme(200),amp(200),tmeamp(200),tmesqr(200)

 \Rightarrow The following section calls up a standard window interface to the New File System which allows the user to interactively scroll through the file system tree.

start:

CALL MOVETO(10,75)

PRINT "You will be asked to select a data file. Press any key to continue"

dummy = INPUT\$(1)

CLS

flnme\$ = FILES\$(1,"")

 \Rightarrow Once the proper data file has been selected, the program opens it and fills an array with the data contained therein.

OPEN finme\$ FOR INPUT AS #1 x = 0: tmesum = 0 : tmeampsum = 0 : tmesqrsum = 0 WHILE NOT EOF(1) INPUT #1,tme(x),amp(x) IF tme(x) = 0! THEN x = x - 1 : GOTO 20 x = x + 1WEND

 \Rightarrow Following the initialization of the data array, the program initializes some variables that it will need reset for each pass of the recursion. The top of the recursion loop is labeled "20". The recursion attempts to minimize the error, labelled "epsilon" by adjusting the linear displacement "beta".

20 nmb = x beta = 0 delta = .0001 itr\$ = "one"

 \Rightarrow The time axis is zeroed for each element of the array.

FOR x = 0 TO nmb

tme(x) = tme(x)-tme(0)

NEXT x

 \Rightarrow The following loop, labelled "loop:", calculates the average value of the exponent, α , in the equation defining the amplitude of the decay envelope at any positive time:

$$A(t) = A_0 e^{-\alpha t} + \beta,$$

for each element of the array "amp(x)" by "tme(x)".

loop:

epsilon = 0

alpha = 0

FOR x = 1 TO nmb

tmpa = (LOG((amp(x) / (amp(0) - beta)) - beta) / tme(x))

alpha = alpha + tmpa

NEXT x

alpha = alpha / nmb

 \Rightarrow The following "FOR - NEXT" loop calculates the average error, "epsilon". The virtue of each recursion is measured by the minimization of epsilon by incrementing beta by an amount delta. The step size (delta) is fixed so that the variation in alpha between steps is less than 1‰.

FOR x = 0 TO nmb tmpd = amp(x) - ((amp(0) - beta) * EXP(alpha * tme(x)) + beta) epsilon = epsilon + ABS(tmpd) NEXT x epsilon = epsilon / (nmb + 1)

 \Rightarrow The following block provides a status report for the curious user.

CALL MOVETO(10,25)

PRINT "alpha: ";alpha

CALL MOVETO(10,40)

PRINT "beta: ";beta

CALL MOVETO(10,55)

PRINT "epsilon: ";epsilon

CALL MOVETO(10,70) : PRINT "previous epsilon: ";eps

 \Rightarrow The following block checks the improvement in epsilon. If the improvement is initially negative, delta is negated so that the direction of the search is reversed. If the improvement becomes negative at some later time, the value of alpha is called optimized and the program quits out of the recursion loop.

IF itr\$ = "one" THEN beta = delta : itr\$ = "two" : eps = epsilon : GOTO loop

IF itr\$ = "two" AND eps < epsilon THEN delta = -1 * delta : beta = delta : itr\$ = "more" : GOTO loop

itr\$ = "more"

IF eps < epsilon THEN GOTO done

eps = epsilon

beta = beta + delta

GOTO loop

 \Rightarrow Since the value of beta must be incremented one delta past it's optimum value, the displayed values of alpha and beta are recomputed at the value beta held one step earlier in the recursion.

done:

beta = beta - delta

epsilon = 0

alpha = 0

FOR x = 1 TO nmb

tmpa = (LOG((amp(x) / (amp(0) - beta)) - beta) / tme(x))

alpha = alpha + tmpa

NEXT x

alpha = alpha / nmb

FOR x = 0 TO nmb

tmpd = amp(x) - ((amp(0) - beta) * EXP(alpha * tme(x)) + beta)

epsilon = epsilon + ABS(tmpd)

NEXT x

epsilon = epsilon / (nmb + 1)

 \Rightarrow Finally, the optimized values are displayed, along with a message reminding the user just which file has been optimized.

CALL MOVETO(5,130)

PRINT "Data for file: ";finme\$

CALL TEXTFACE(1)

. . 54 .

CALL MOVETO(25,160)

PRINT "The calculated damping rate (alpha) is: ";alpha

CALL MOVETO(25,190)

PRINT "The linear displacement is: ";beta

CALL MOVETO(25,220)

PRINT "The average error is: "; epsilon

CLOSE

closingbits:

CALL MOVETO(20,260)

CALL TEXTFACE(0)

PRINT "Wanna do another (y or n)? ": overag\$ = INPUT\$(1)

IF overag\$ = "y" THEN CLS : GOTO start

IF overag\$ = "n" THEN END

BEEP : GOTO closingbits

Appendix D.

Apparatus Data

The following pages contain the original data as it was plotted. The graphs are, excepting the addition of an identifying legend, exactly photo-reproduced from the originals. It was impossible to alter the layout of the graphs to match the orientation of the thesis without losing significant data and/or clarity. In the interest of preserving the full value of the original data, no compromise was made to aesthetic unity.

Appendix D.1 Probe Support Post Behavior

Appendix D.1 shows graphs of the behavior of the probe support post as measured using the same instrumentation in the same configuration as for the measurement of the samples. The post was excited by a hammer blow, and so a comparison of the initial displacement amplitudes is meaningless.

Appendix D.2 Filter Response

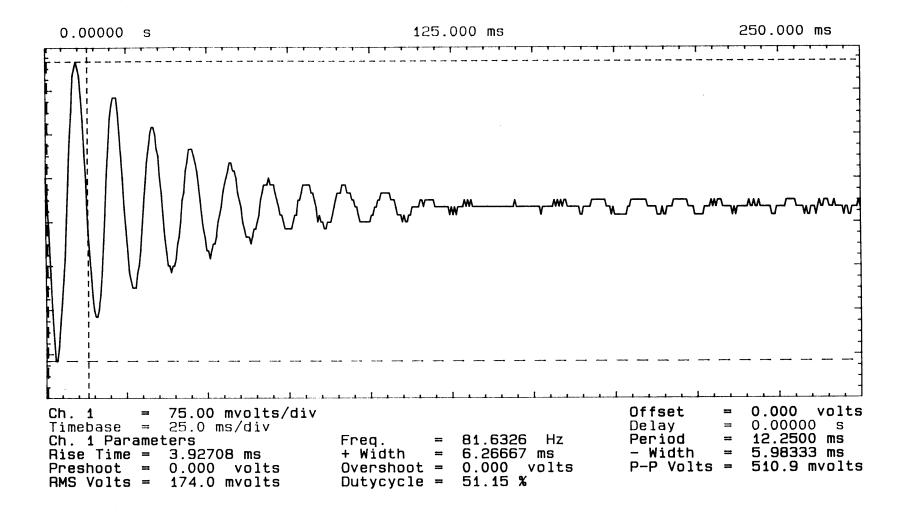
Appendix D.2 shows the response of the two band pass filter configurations used to improve the clarity of the data. The graphs were recorded using the Hewlett Packard spectrum analyzer's "swept sine" mode. The analyzer generates a sine wave output and sweeps it through a given frequency simultaneously measuring the filter's response to that frequency.

The first plot is of the filter response used with the metallic samples. The second plot shows the response of the filter configuration used with the non-metallic samples.

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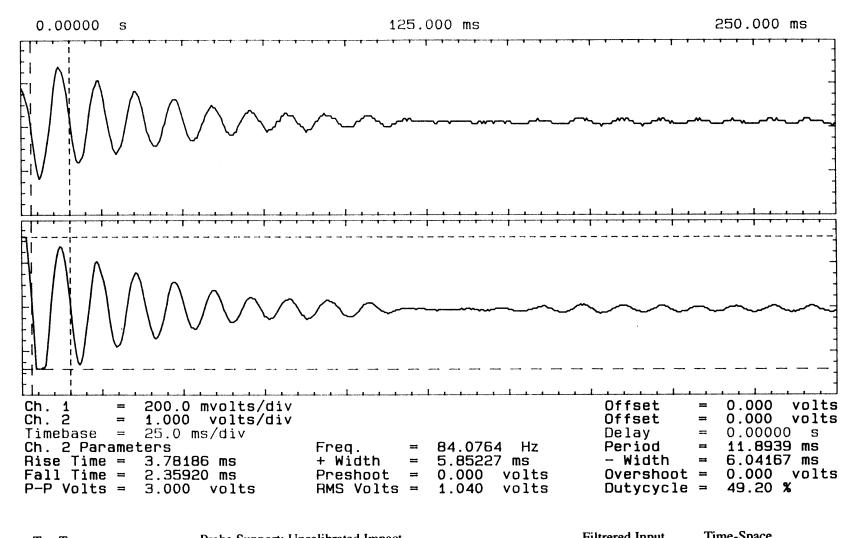


Trace:

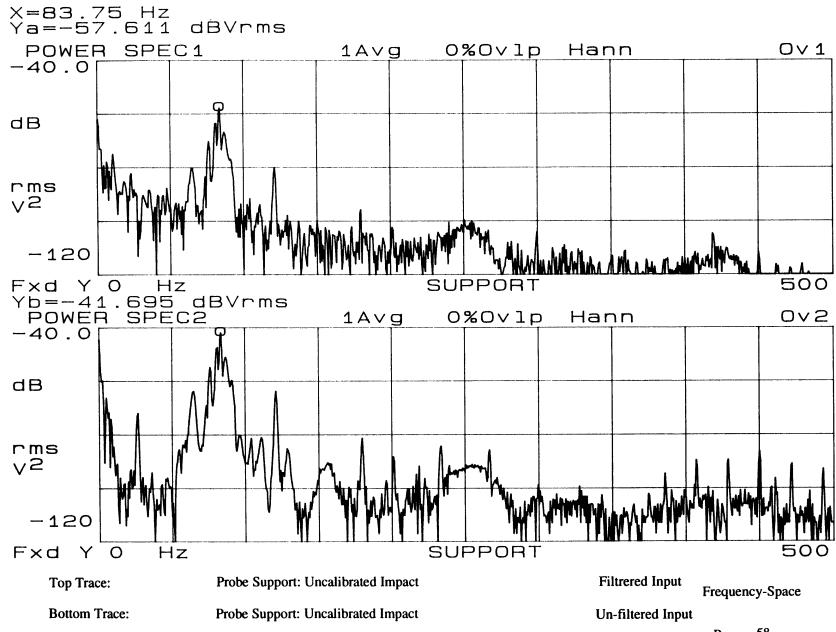
Probe Support: Uncalibrated Impact

Filtrered Input

Page: 56



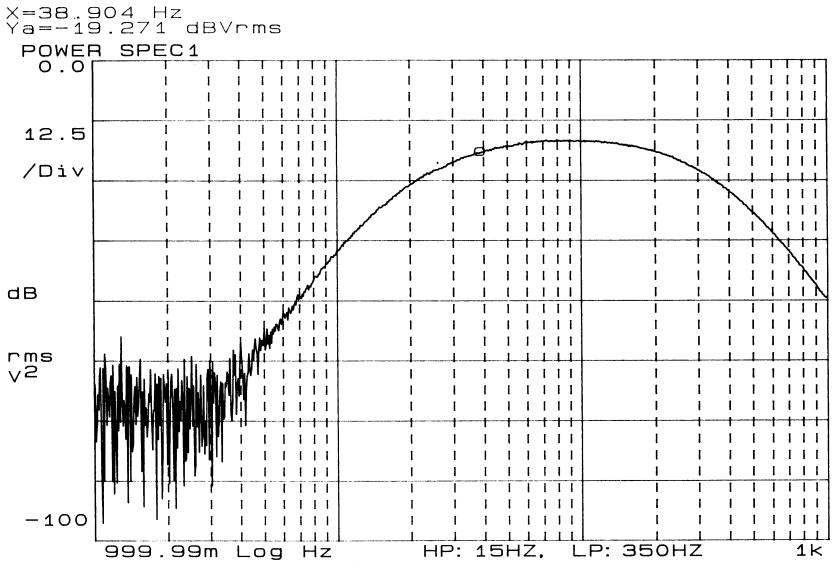
Top Trace:	Probe Support: Uncalibrated impact	Fillered input	Time-Space
Bottom Trace:	Probe Support: Uncalibrated Impact	Un-filtered Input	



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X=217.18 Hz Ya=-18.252 dBVrms SPEC1 POWER 0.0 T 1 1 1 1 1 11 1 | | | | | 1 | | | | 11 1 | | | 1 12.5 | | 1 11 1 1 1 1 | | | | 1 | | | | /Div 1 | | 1 - 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | | | | dB 1 1 1 1 | | 11 1 | | | 1 | | | | | | | 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 111 1 rms V2 1 1 1 1 1 1 | | | | 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | | | | 1 | | 1 1 1 1 | | | | | 1 1 1 1 11 11 11 1 | | | | -1001 1 1 1 1 111 Fxd Y 1.01 HI: 90HZ, LO: 750HZ 1.01k Log Ηz

Band Pass Filter Response: High Pass Cutoff: 90 Hz, Low Pass Cutoff: 750 Hz.



Band Pass Filter Response: High Pass Cutoff: 15 Hz, Low Pass Cutoff: 350 Hz

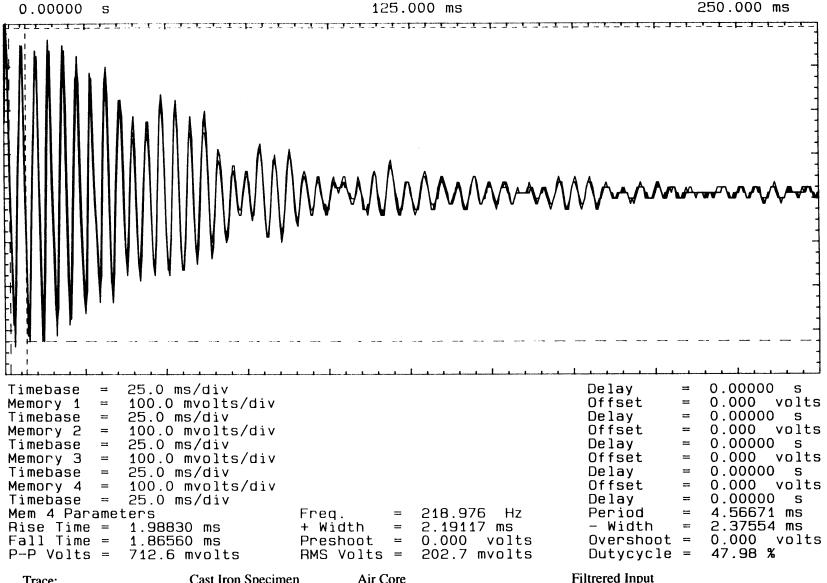
Аррениіх с.

Original Data

The following pages contain the original data as it was plotted. The graphs are, excepting the addition of an identifying legend, exactly photo-reproduced from the originals. It was impossible to alter the layout of the graphs to match the orientation of the thesis without losing significant data and/or clarity. In the interest of preserving the full value of the original data, no compromise was made to aesthetic unity.

In the following appendix, there are three pages devoted to each sample. The first page shows the four trace overlay from which data was taken and analyzed using *Curve Fit*. The second page shows a typical time-space record and a trace of the un-filtered time-space record. The third page shows the frequency-space record for each sample both filtered and un-filtered. All four graphs were recorded simultaneously. The temperature of the samples was between twenty one and twenty three degrees Celsius.

The graphs are presented in the same order as the list of samples in appendix A.

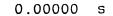


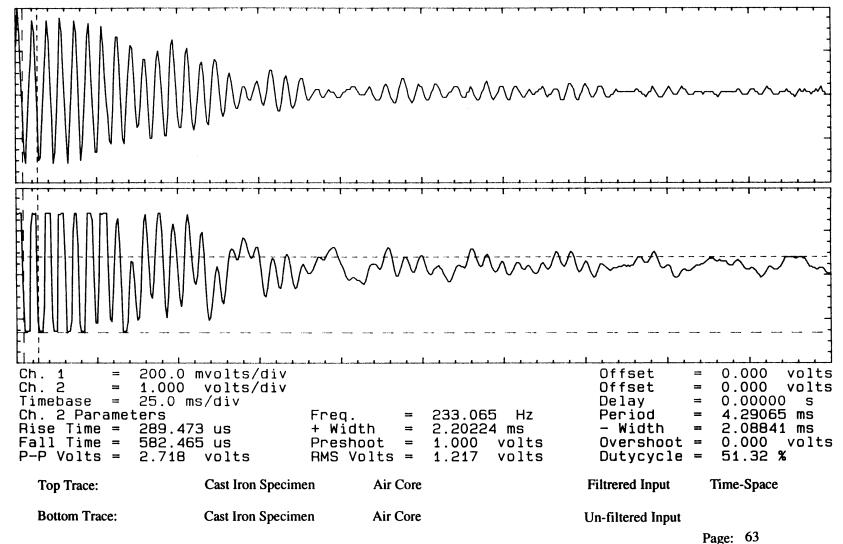
Trace:

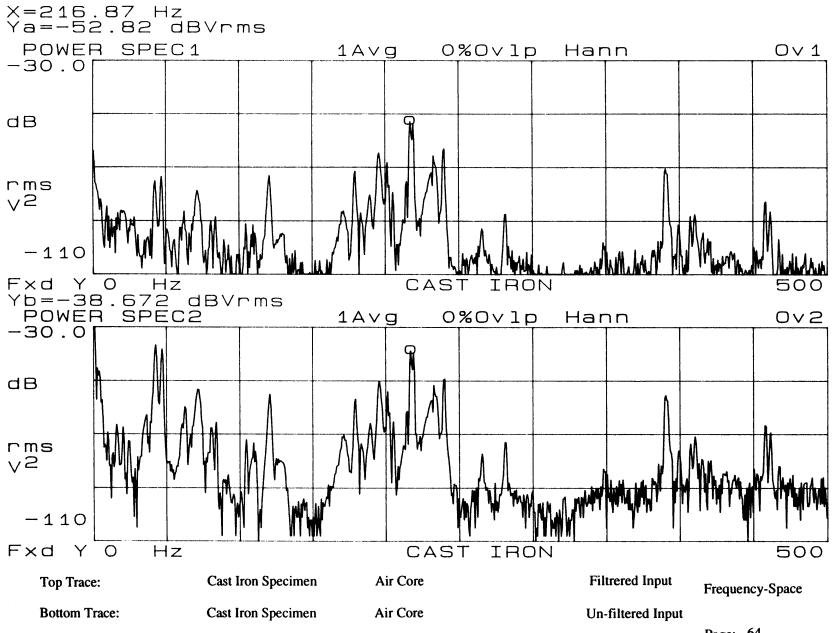
Cast Iron Specimen

Filtrered Input

Four Trace Overlay in Time-Space



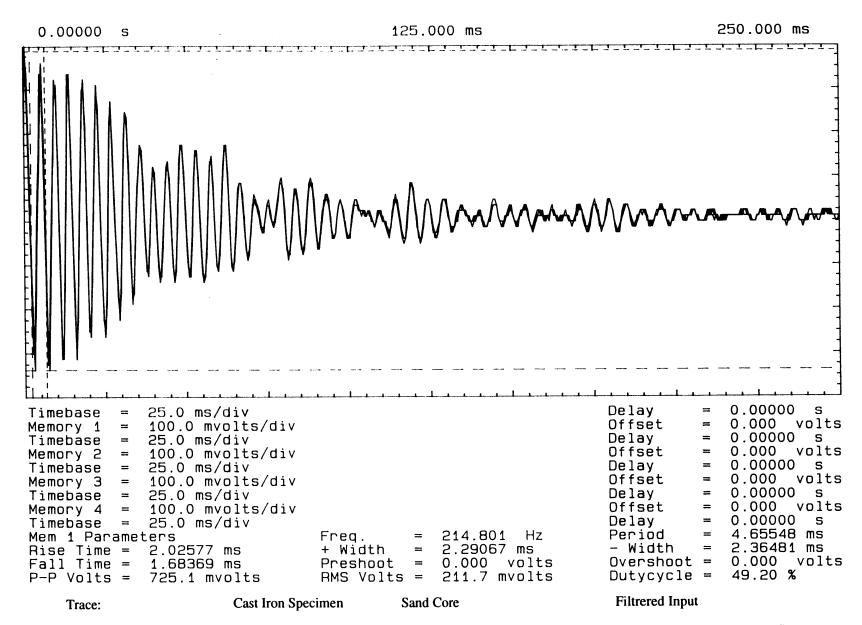




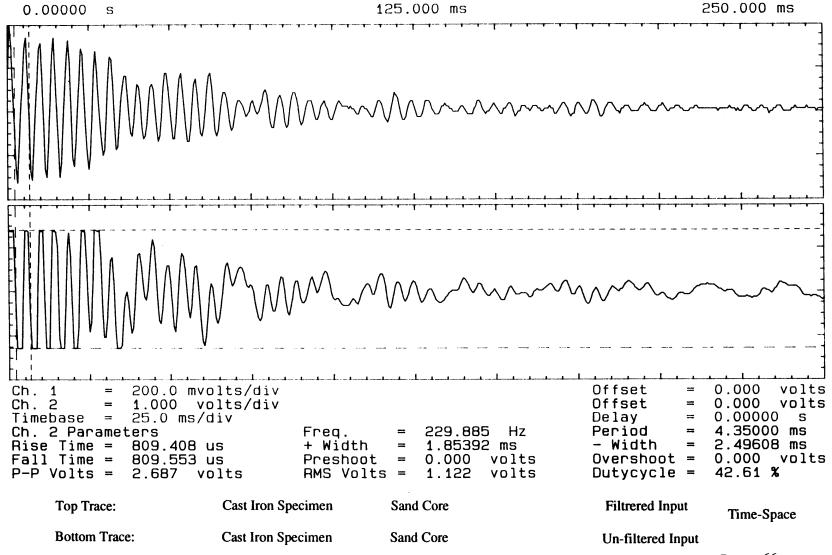
Page: 64

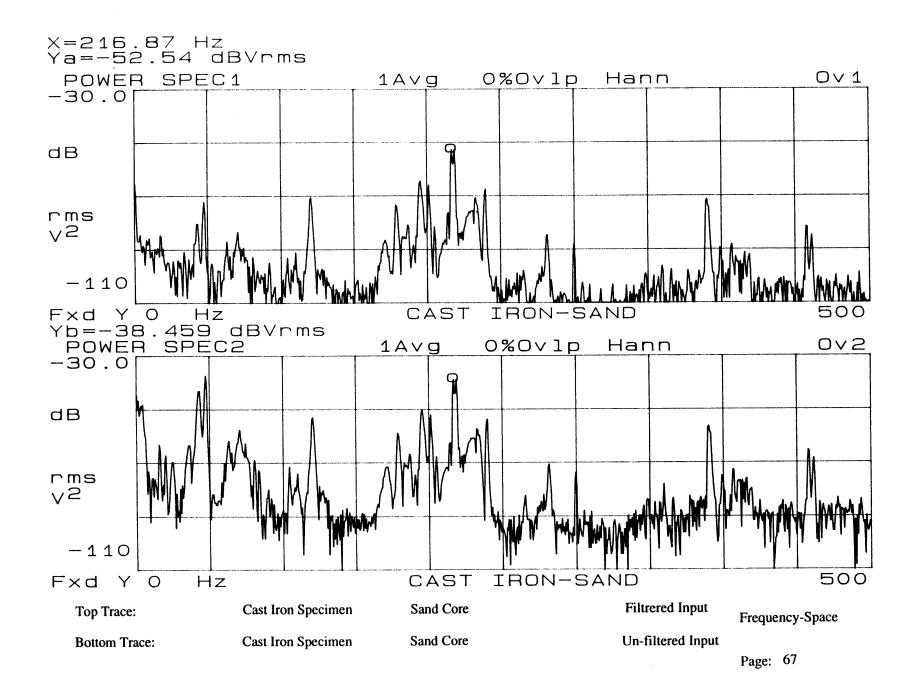
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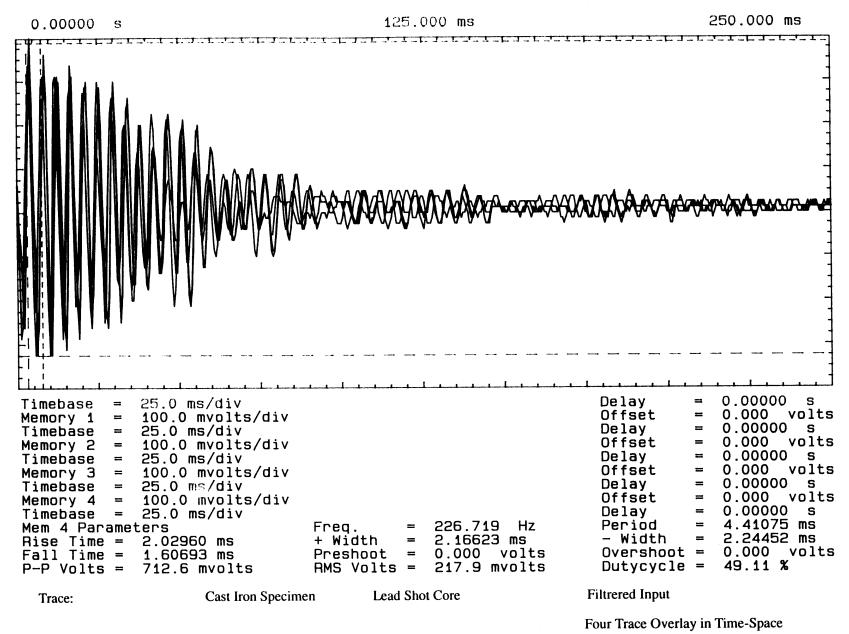
Four Trace Overlay in Time-Space

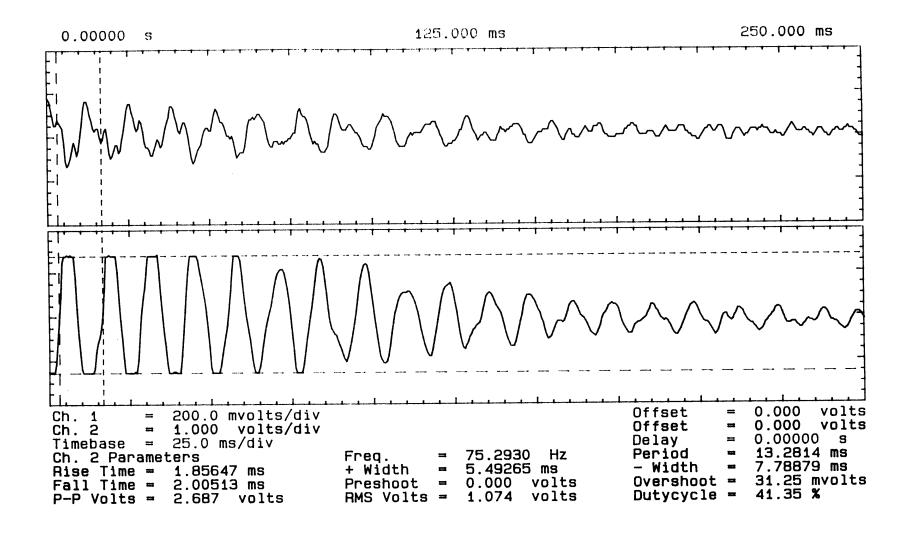




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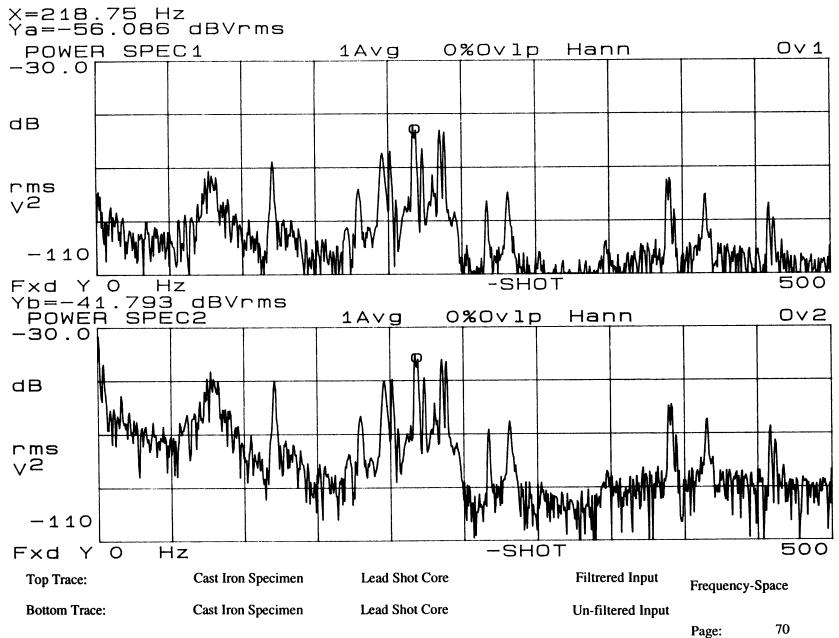
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Top Trace:	Cast Iron Specimen	Lead Shot Core	Filtrered Input	Time-Space	
Bottom Trace:	Cast Iron Specimen	Lead Shot Core	Un-filtered Input	Dage	69
				Page:	0)

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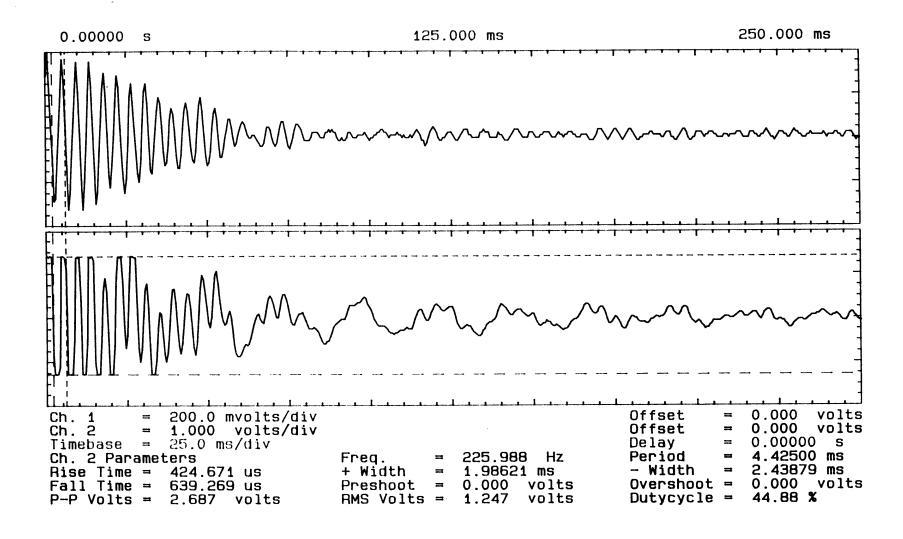


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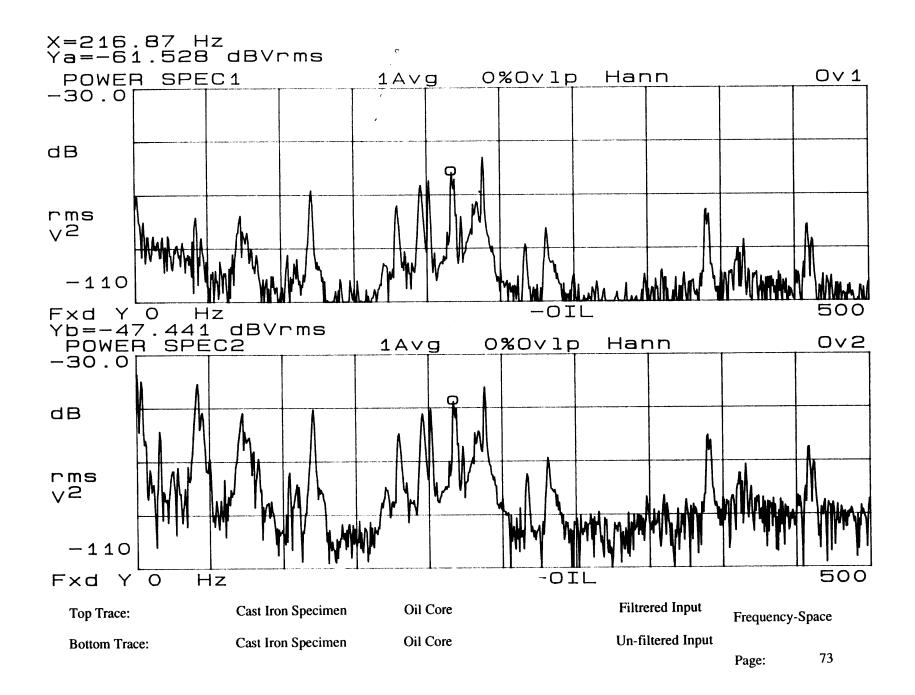
0.00000 s	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	125.0	00 ms		250.000 ms
Timebase = Memory 1 = Timebase = Memory 2 = Timebase = Memory 3 = Timebase = Memory 4 = Timebase = Mem 1 Parame Rise Time = Fall Time = P-P Volts =	1.69971 ms 1.48703 ms 687.6 mvolts	Freq. = + Width = Preshoot = RMS Volts =	220.127 Hz 2.23691 ms 0.000 volts 206.9 mvolts	Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Period = - Width = Overshoot = Dutycycle =	0.00000 s 0.000 volts 0.0000 s 0.000 volts 0.0000 s 0.000 volts 0.0000 s 0.000 volts 0.00000 s 4.54283 ms 2.30591 ms 0.000 volts 49.24 %
Trace:	Cast Iron Specime	en Oil Core		Filtrered Input	

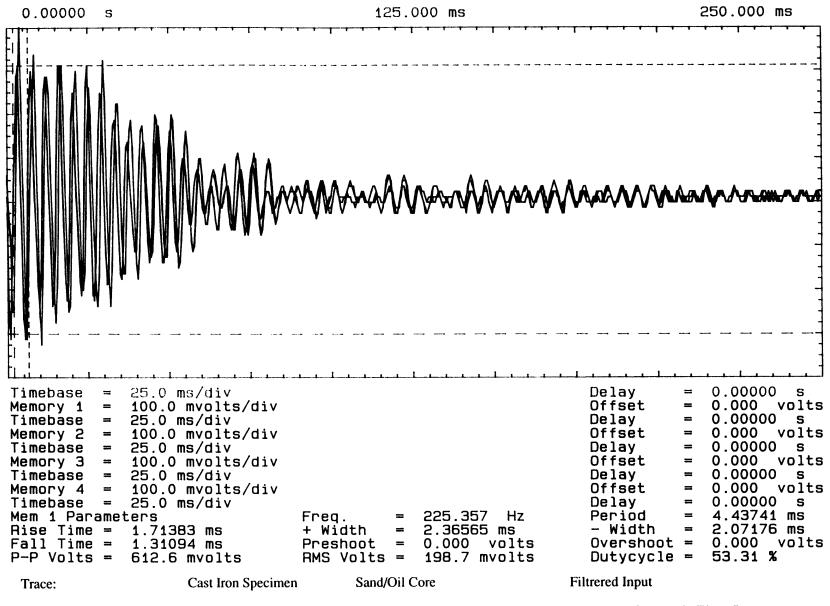
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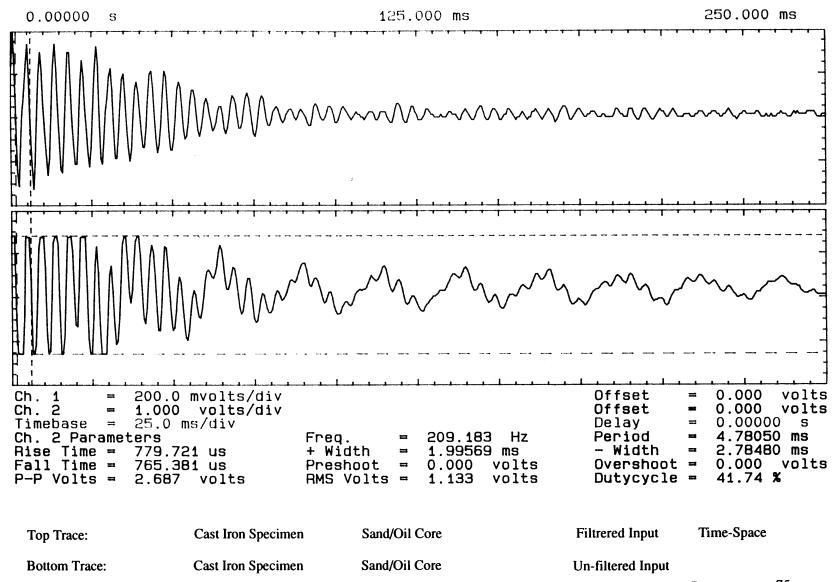
Four Trace Overlay in Time-Space

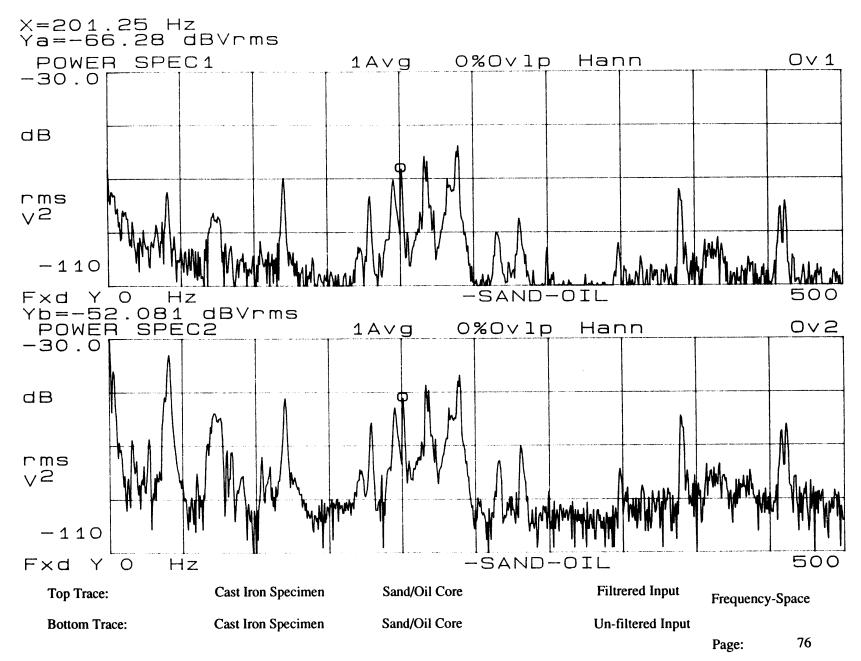


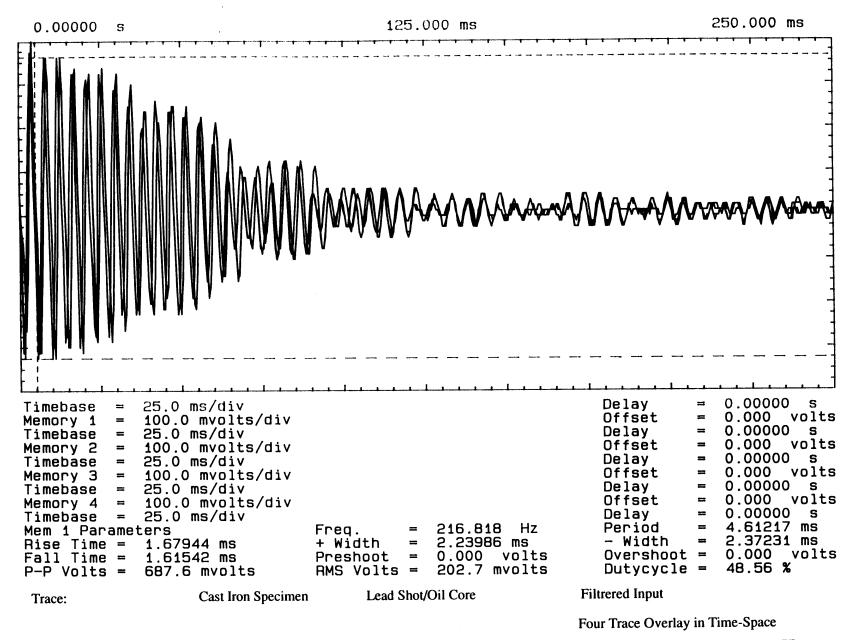
Top Trace:	Cast Iron Specimen	Oil Core	Filtrered Input	Time-Space	
Bottom Trace:	Cast Iron Specimen	Oil Core	Un-filtered Input		
				Page:	72

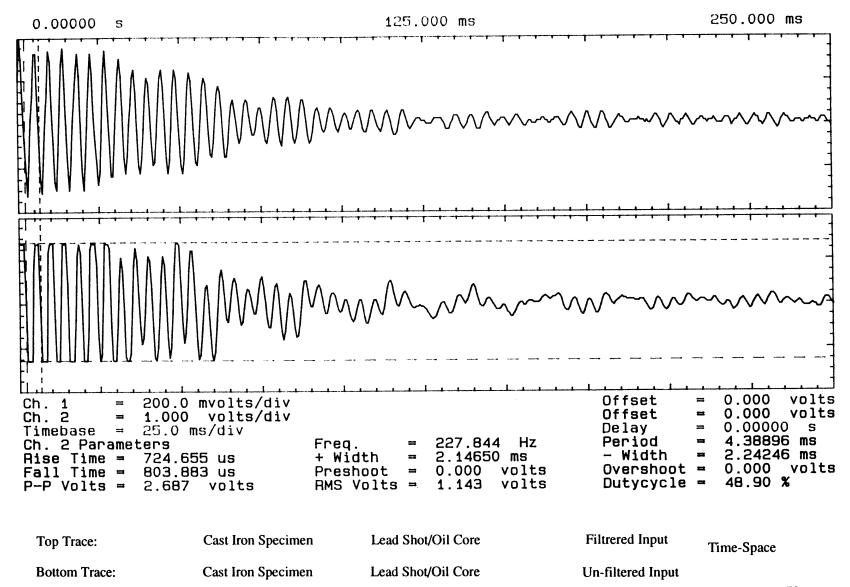


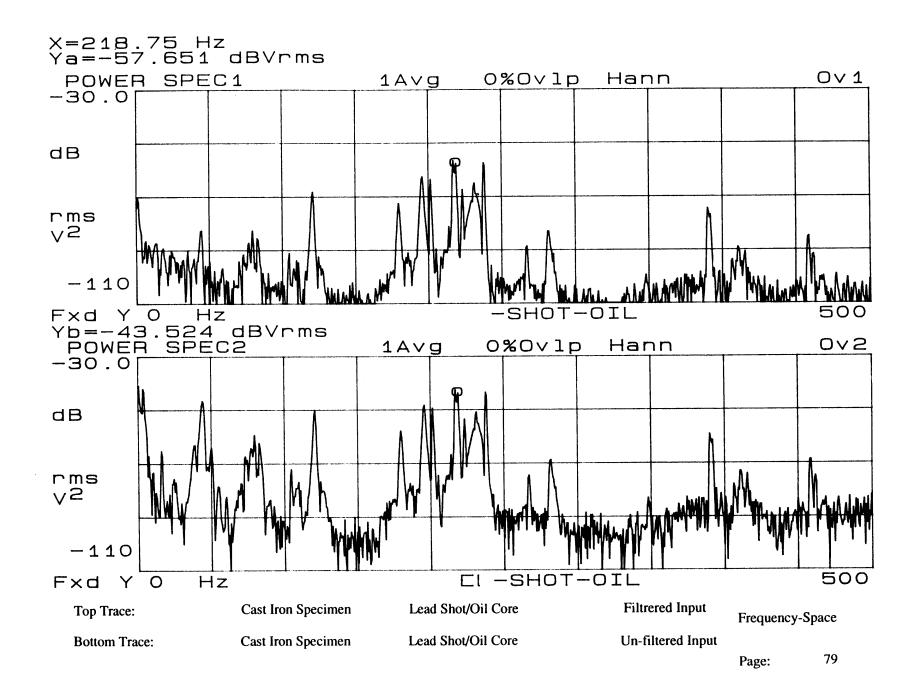


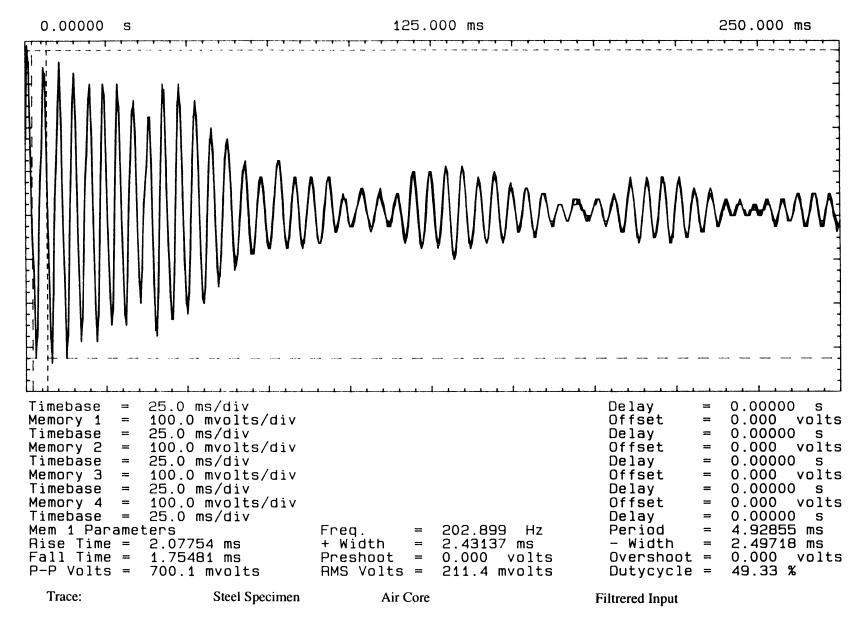


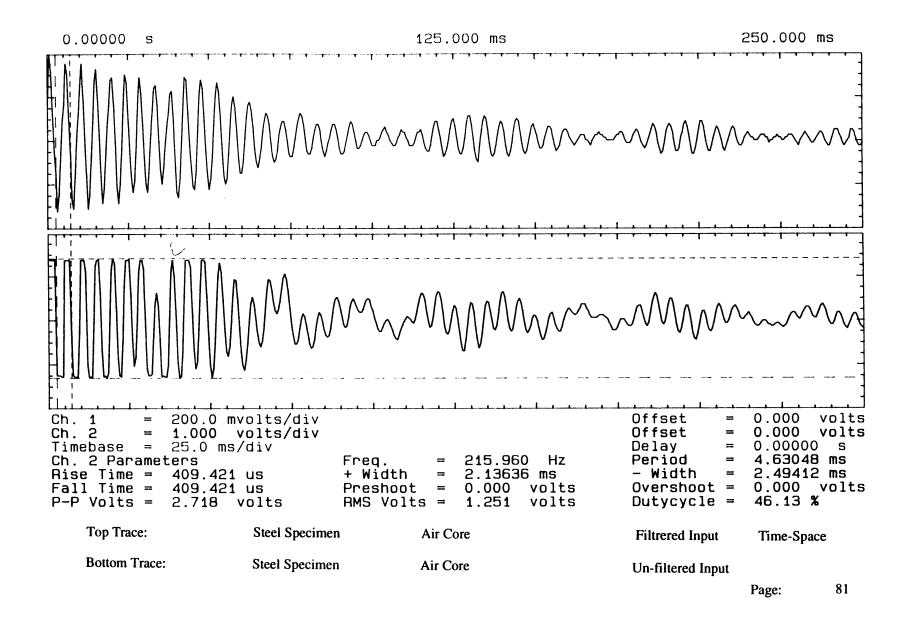


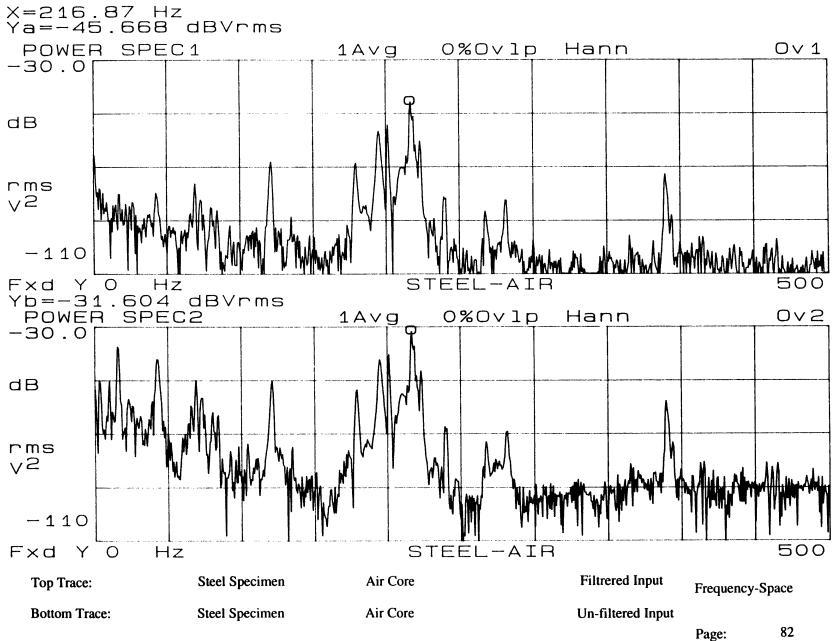




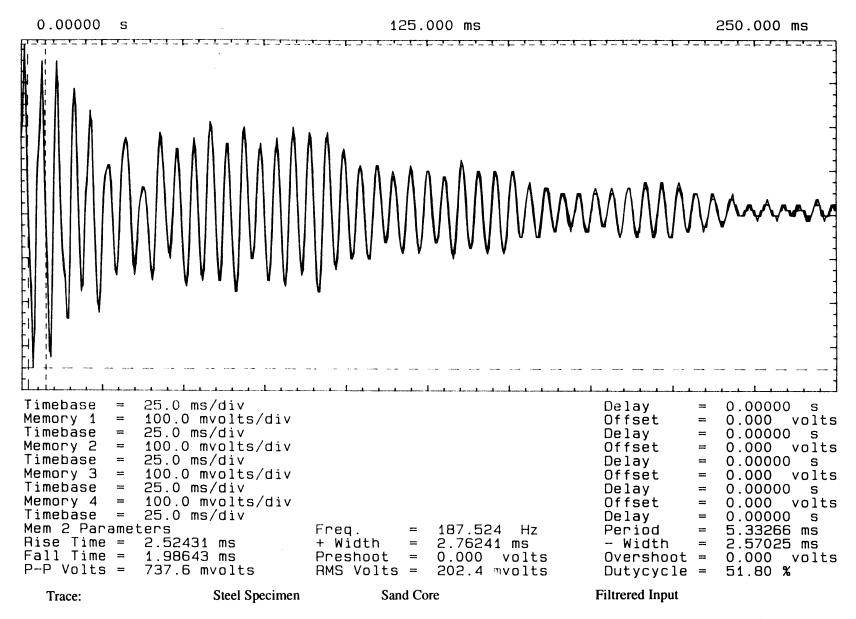


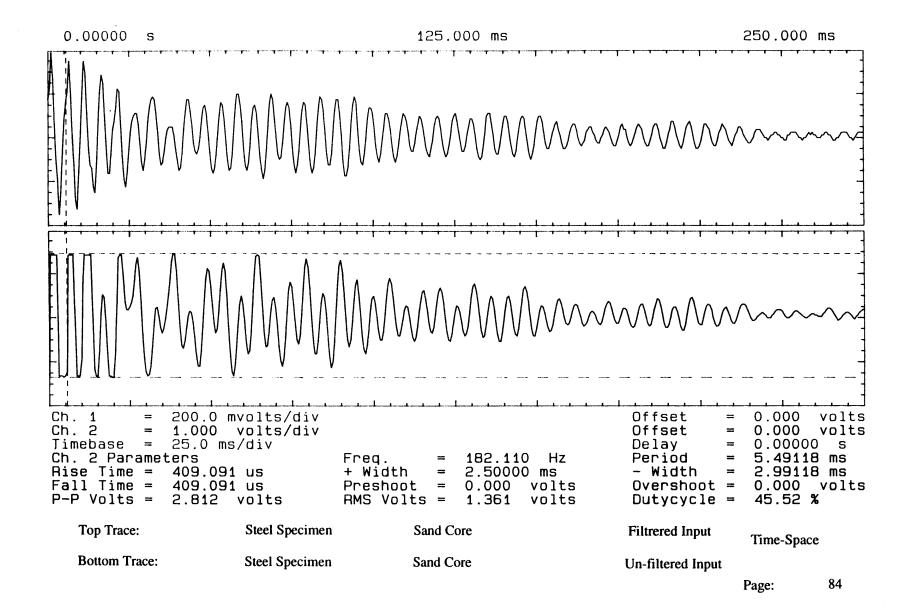


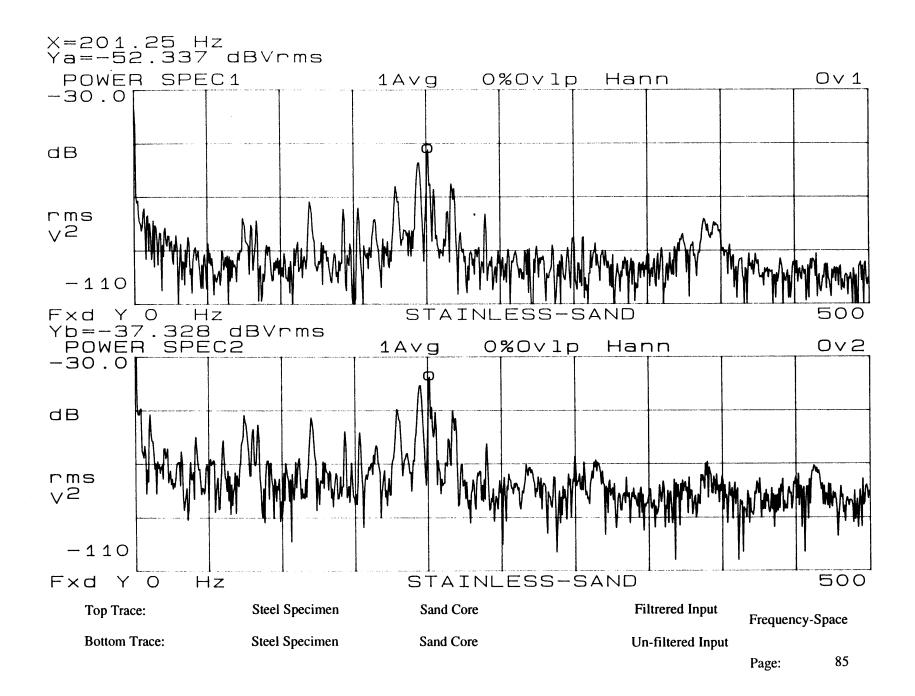




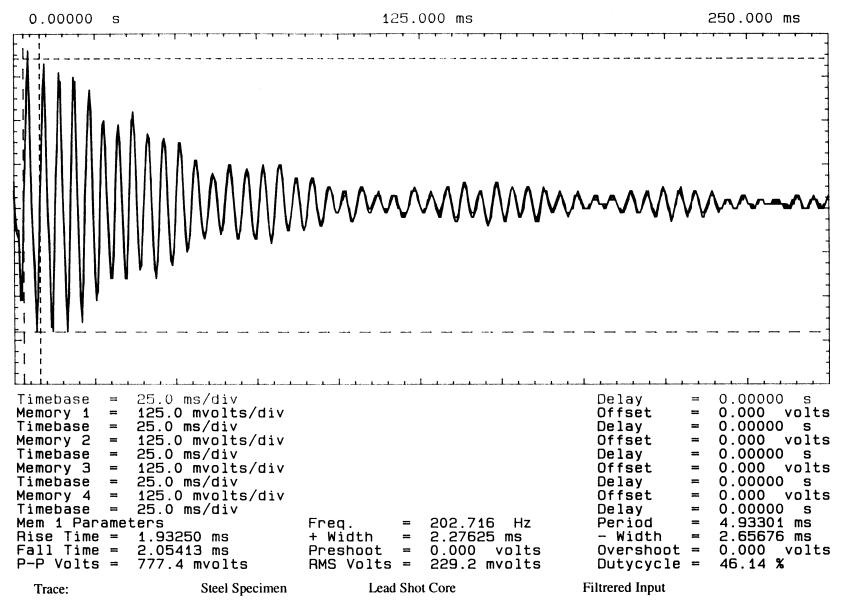
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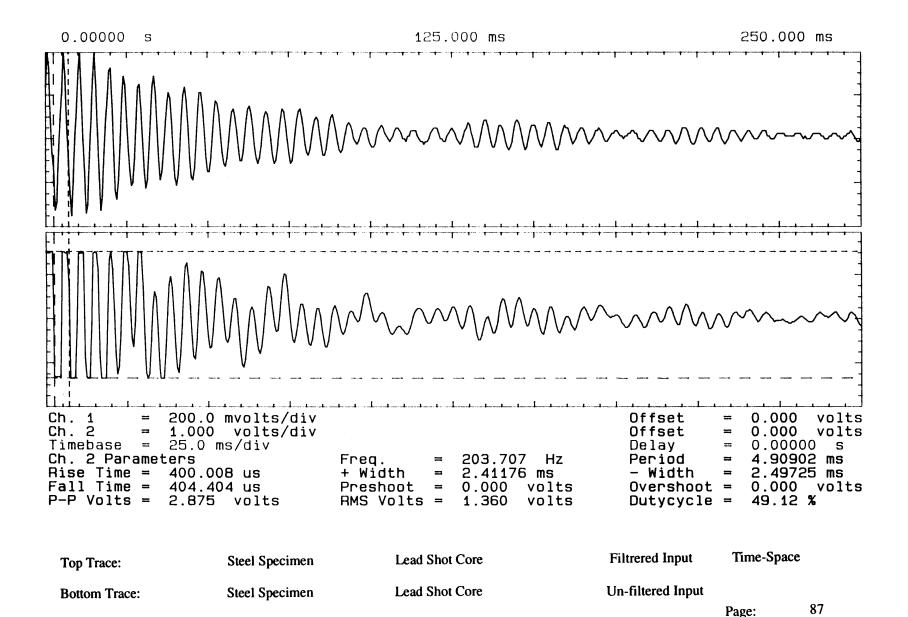


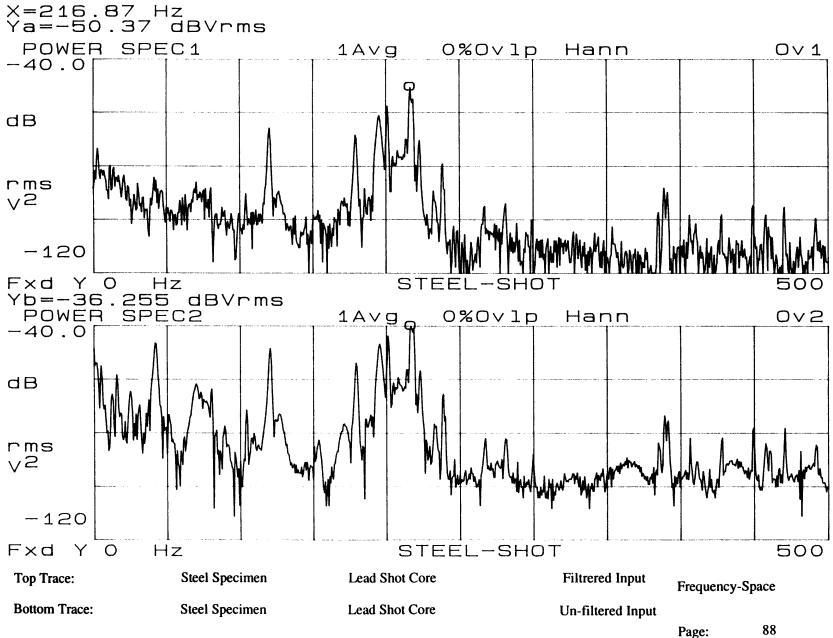


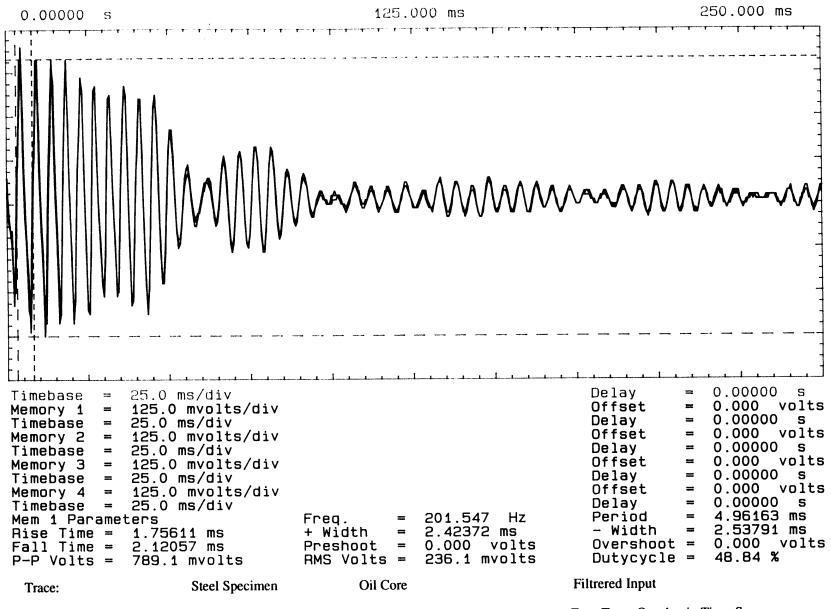


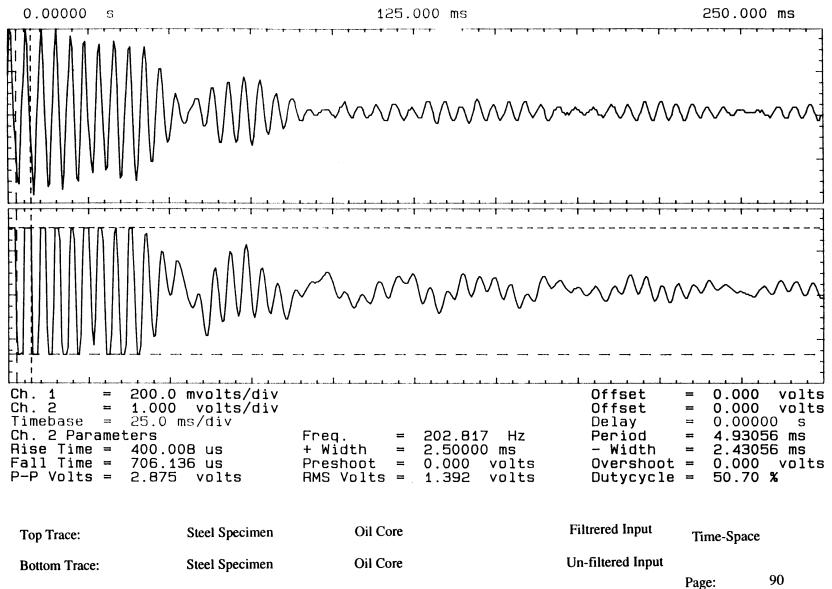
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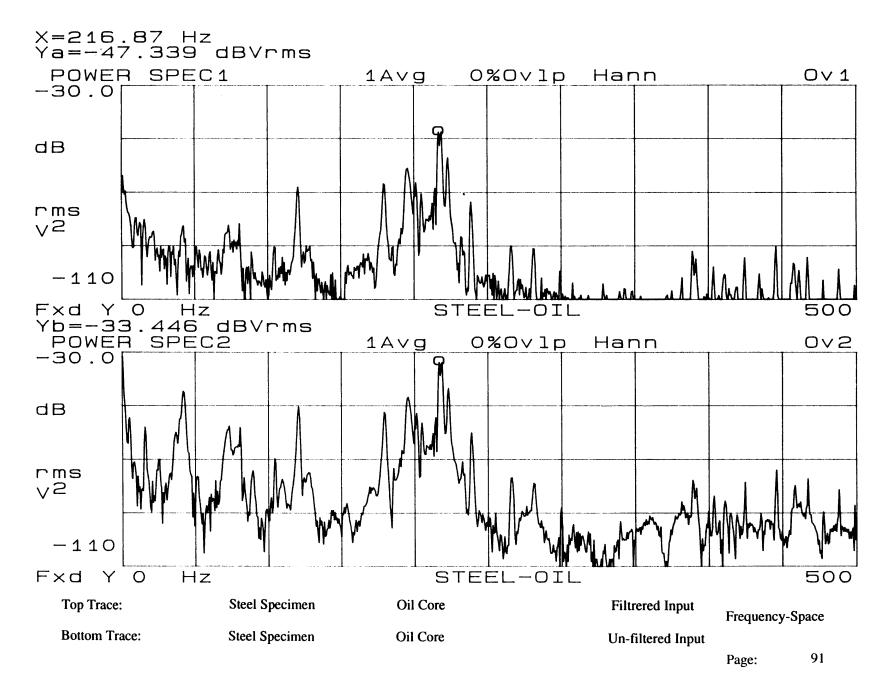


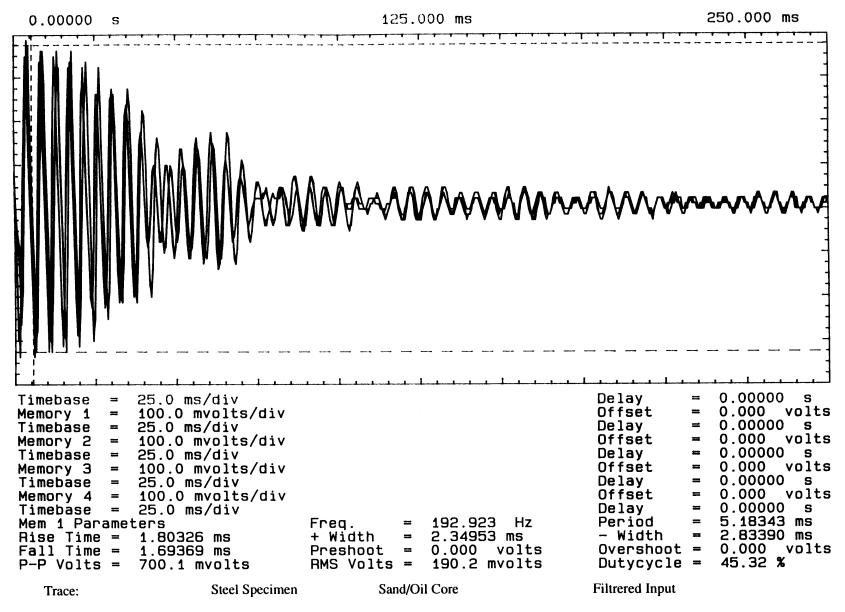


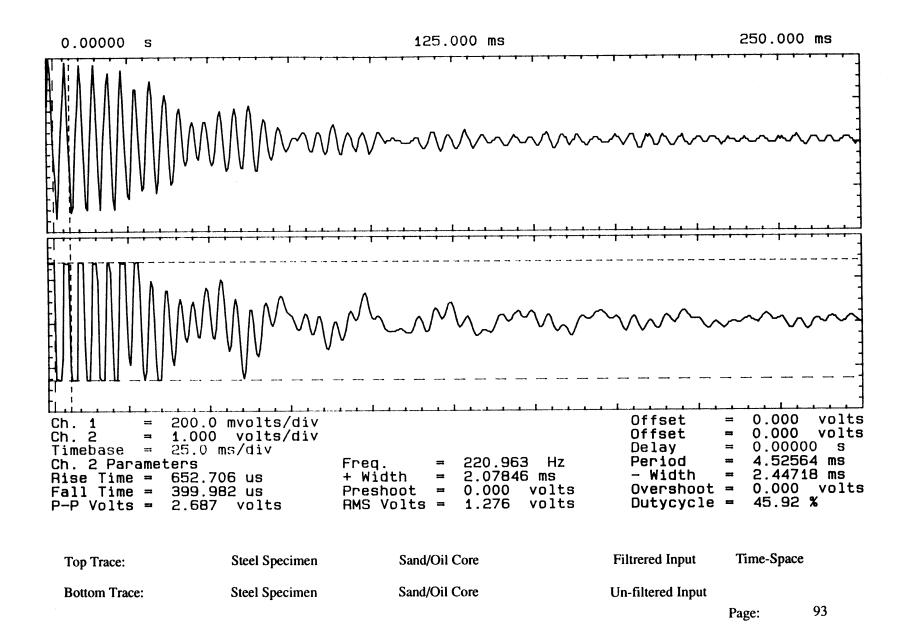


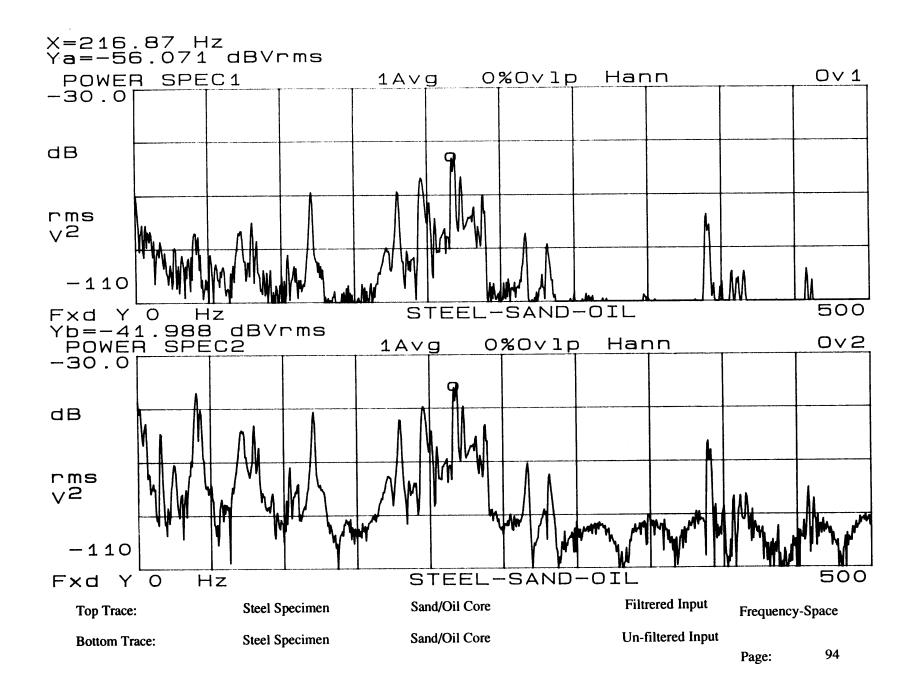


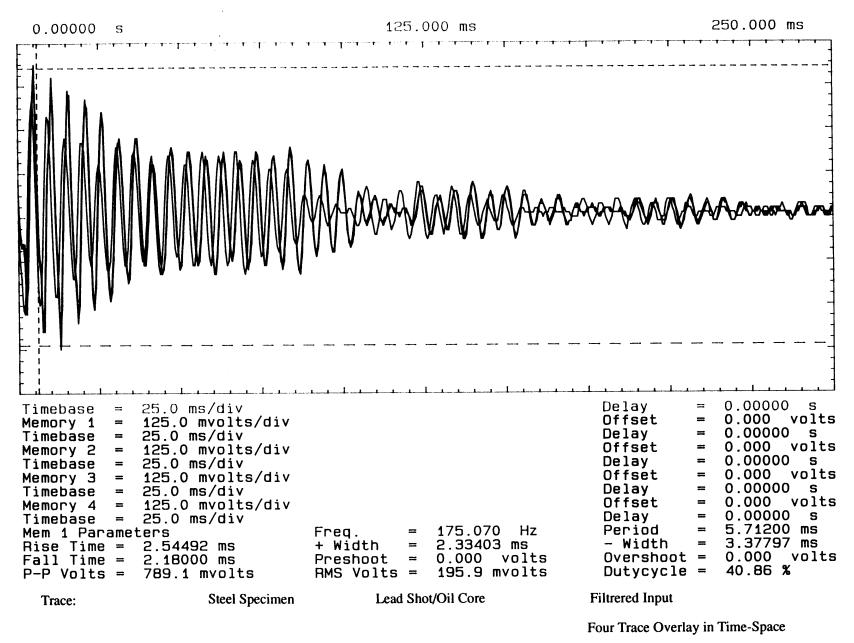


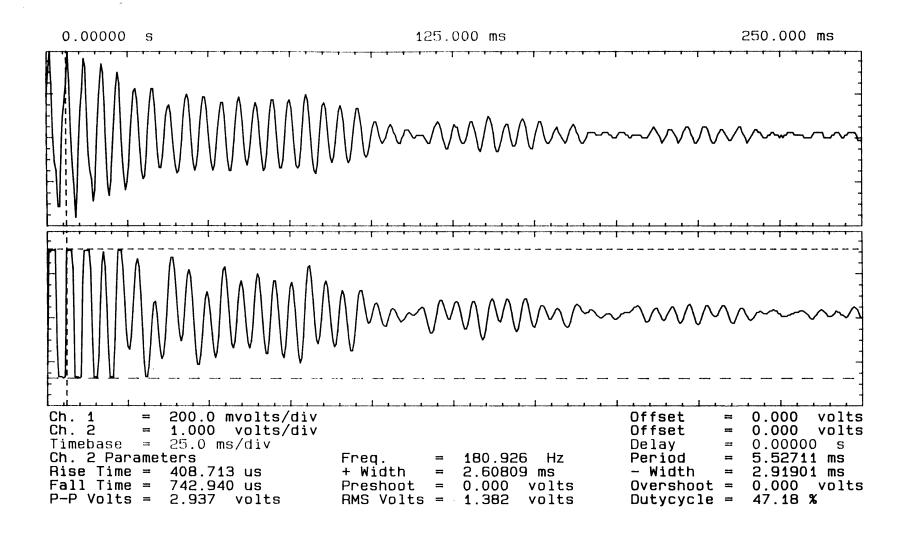




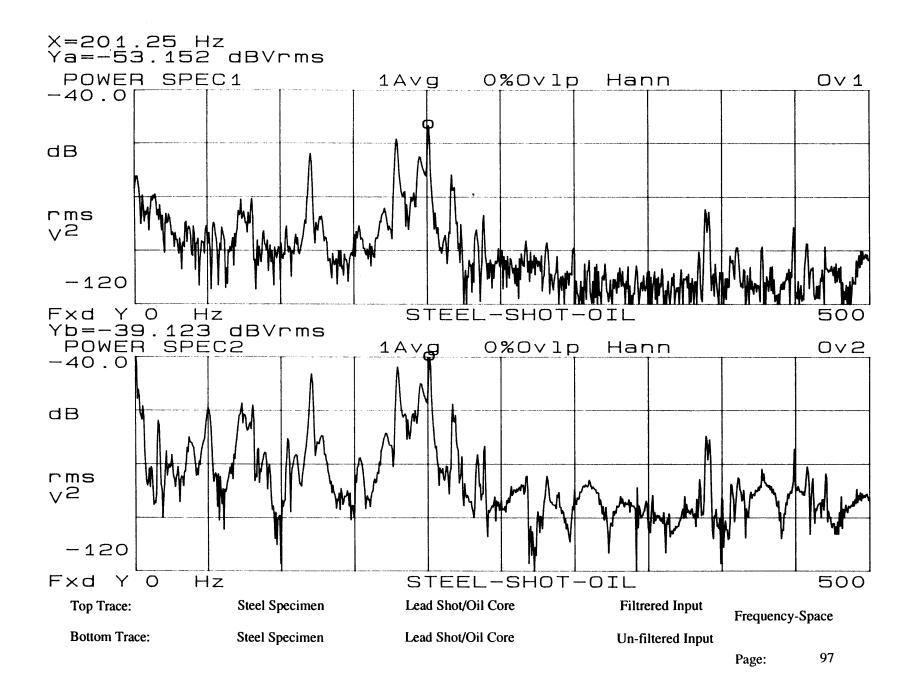




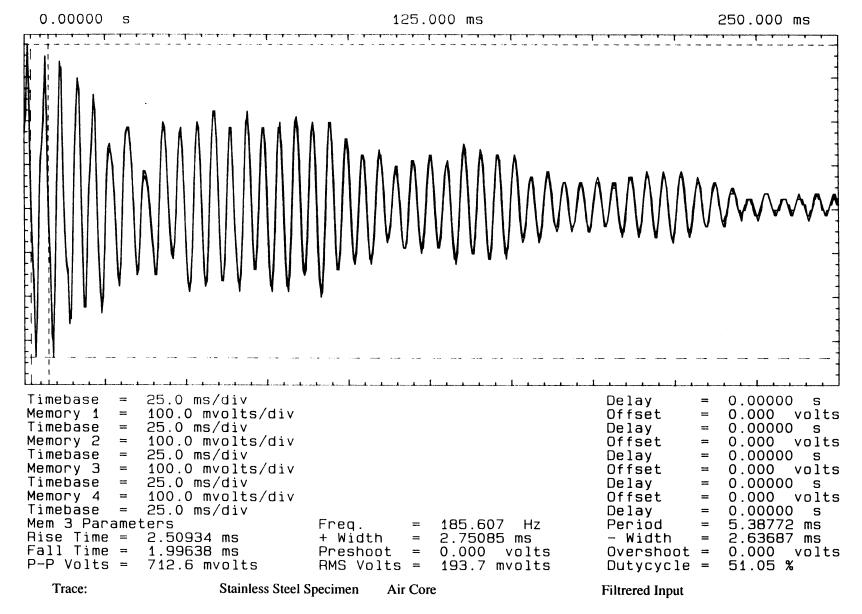


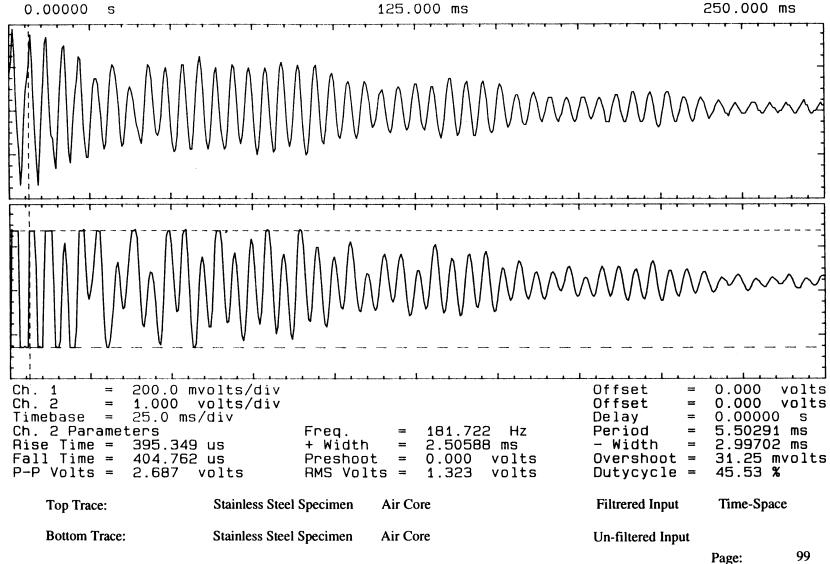


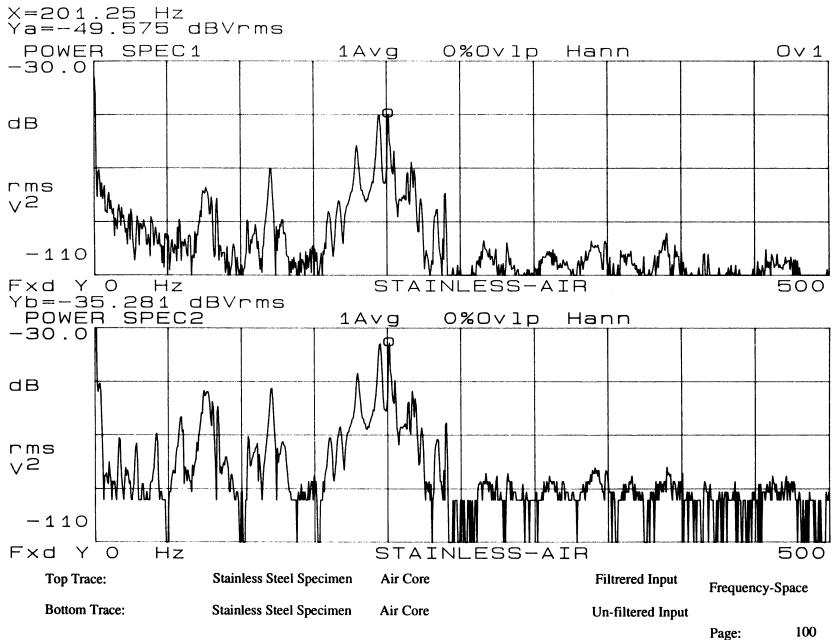
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Bottom Trace:	Steel Specimen	Lead Shot/Oil Core	Un-filtered Input		
				Page:	96

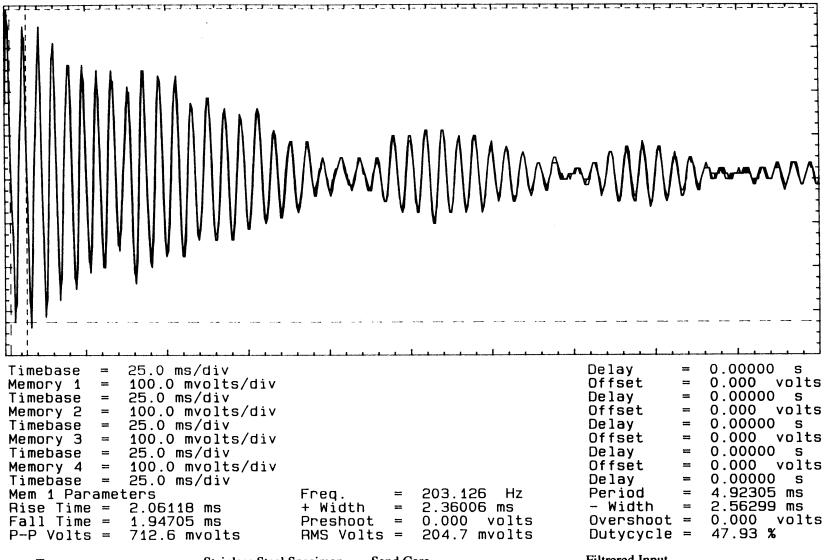


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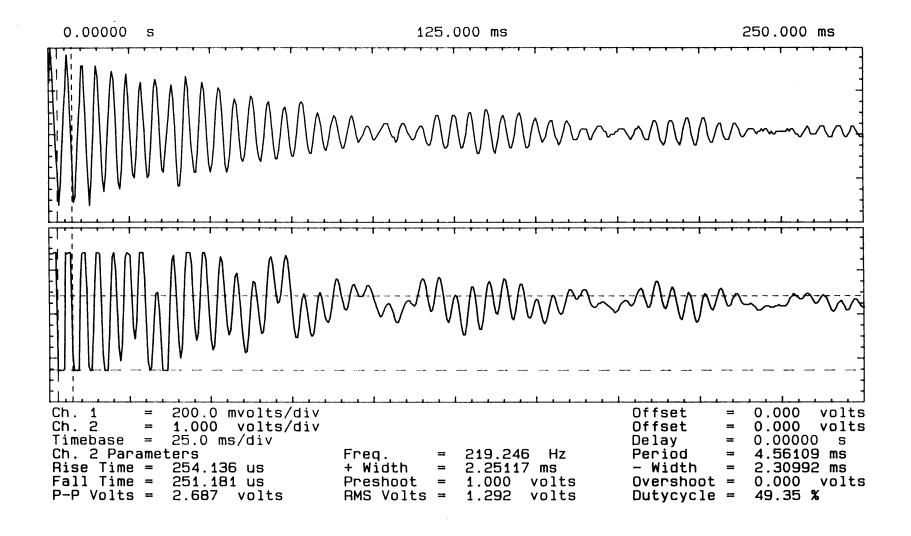


Trace:

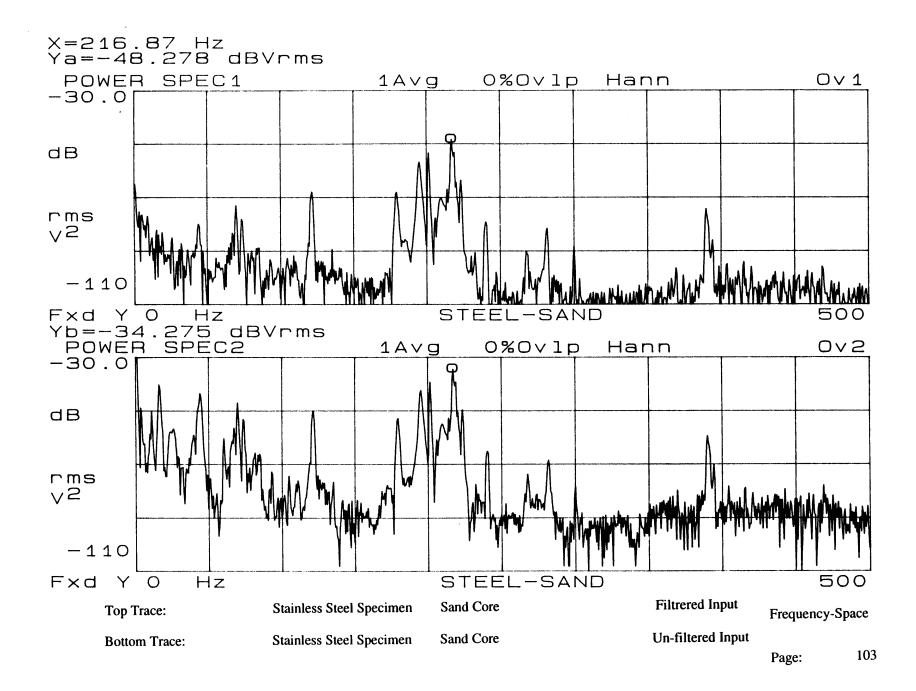
Stainless Steel Specimen Sand Core

Filtrered Input

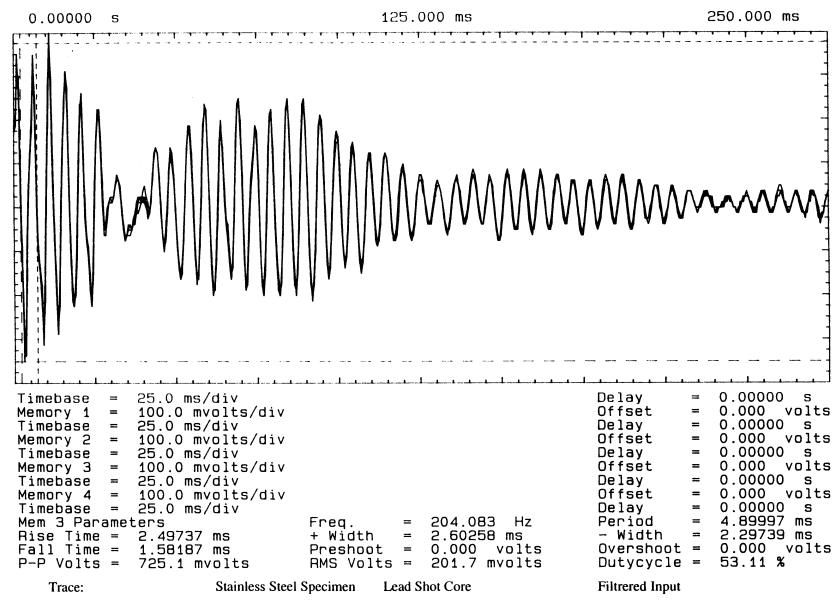
Four Trace Overlay in Time-Space

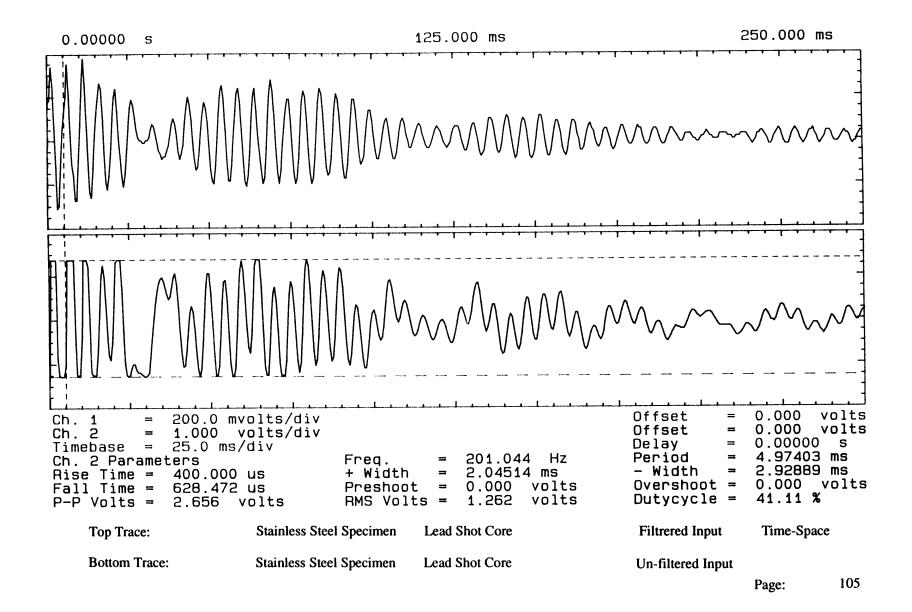


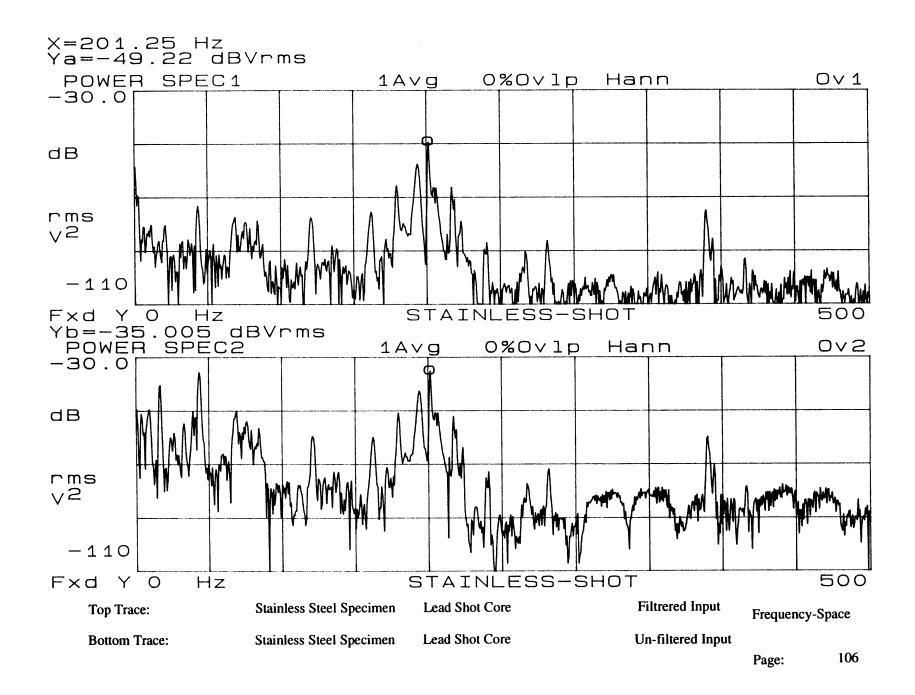
Top Trace:	Stainless Steel Specimen	Sand Core	Filtrered Input	Time-Space	e
Bottom Trace:	Stainless Steel Specimen	Sand Core	Un-filtered Input		
				Page:	102

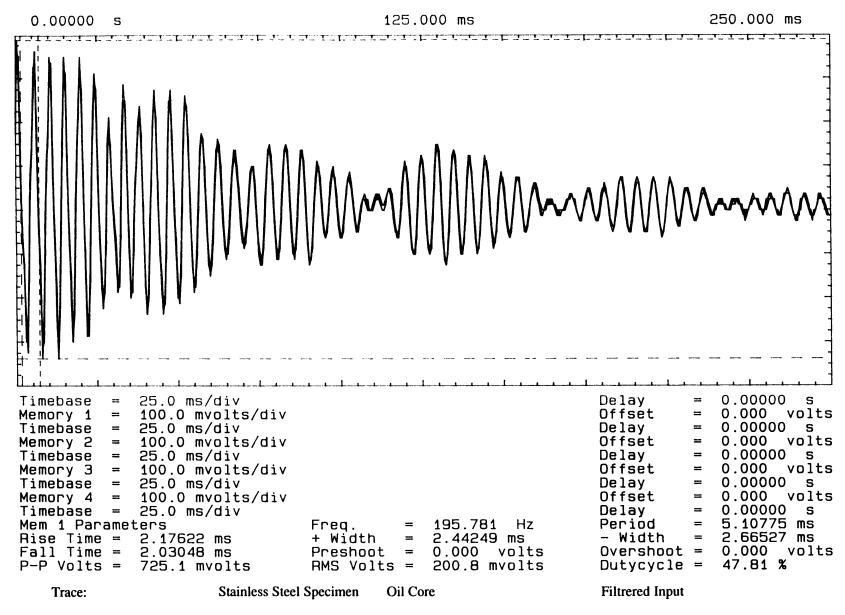


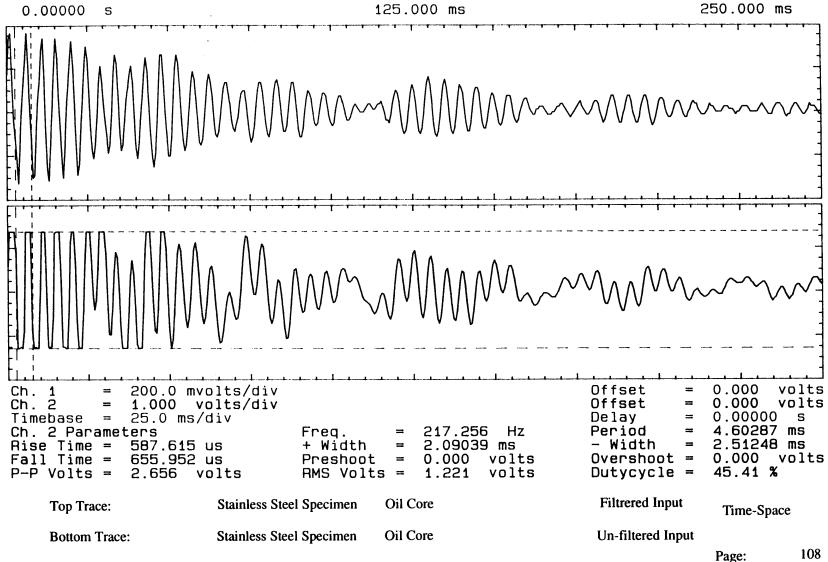
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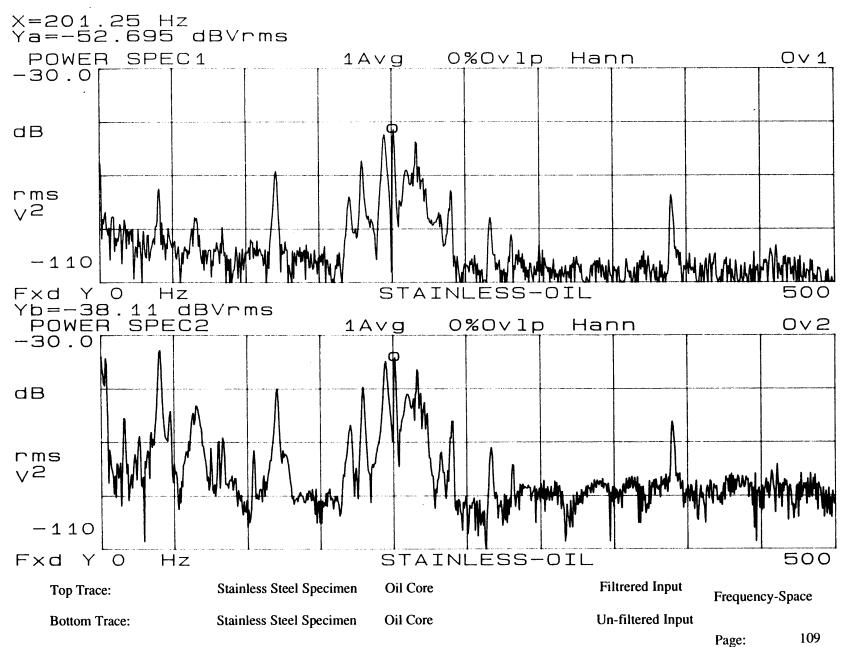


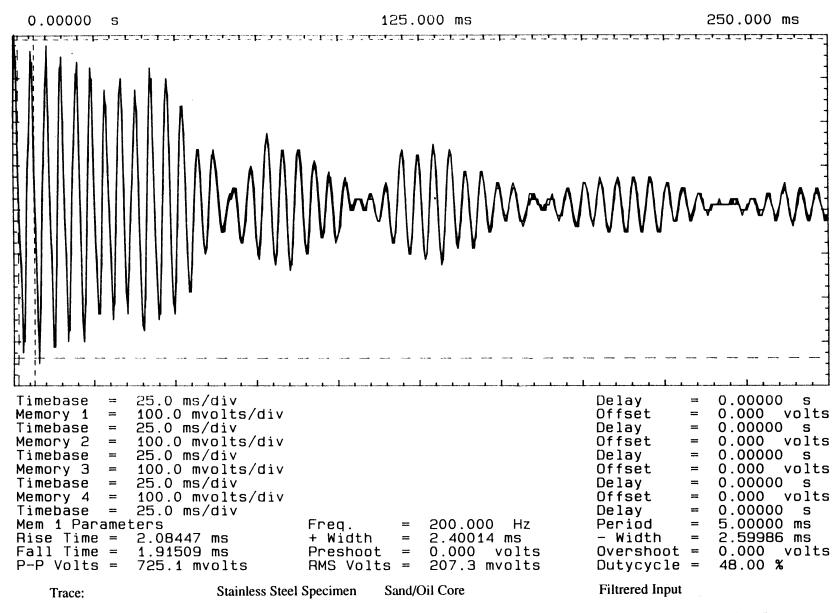


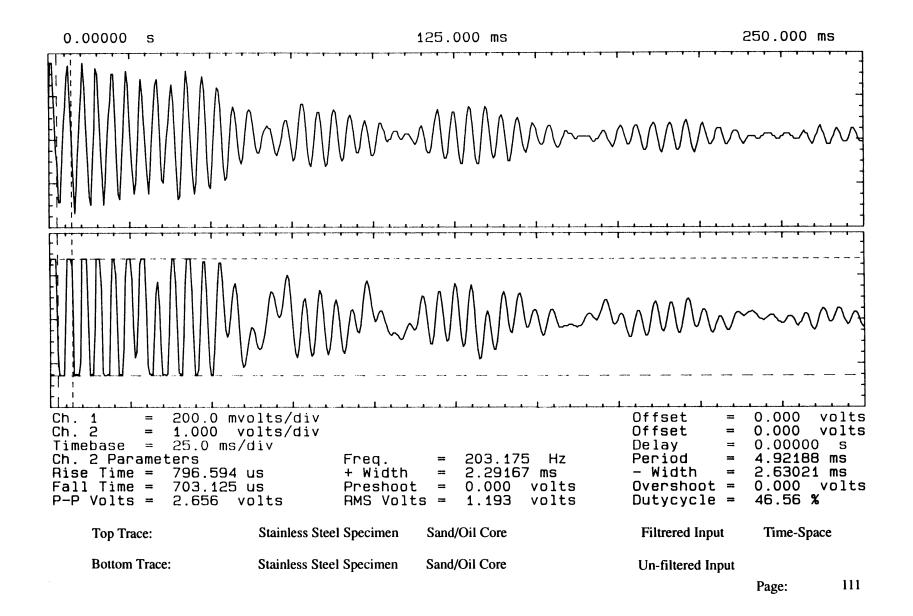


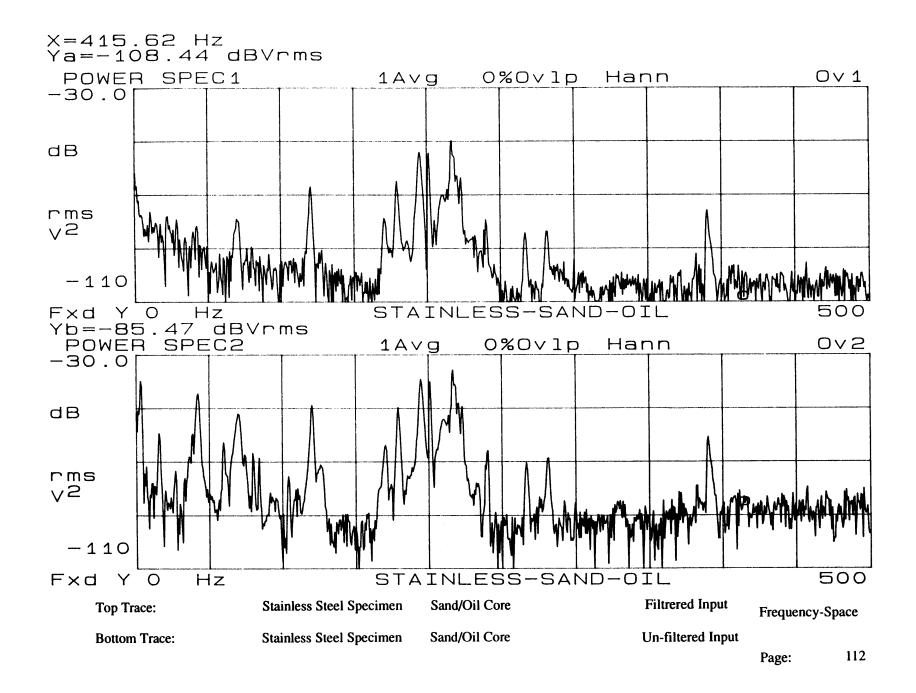


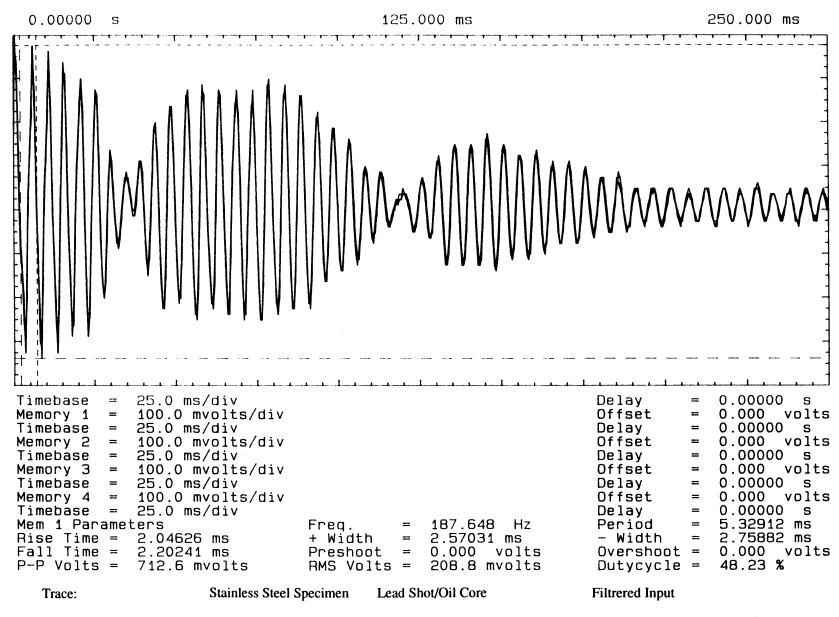


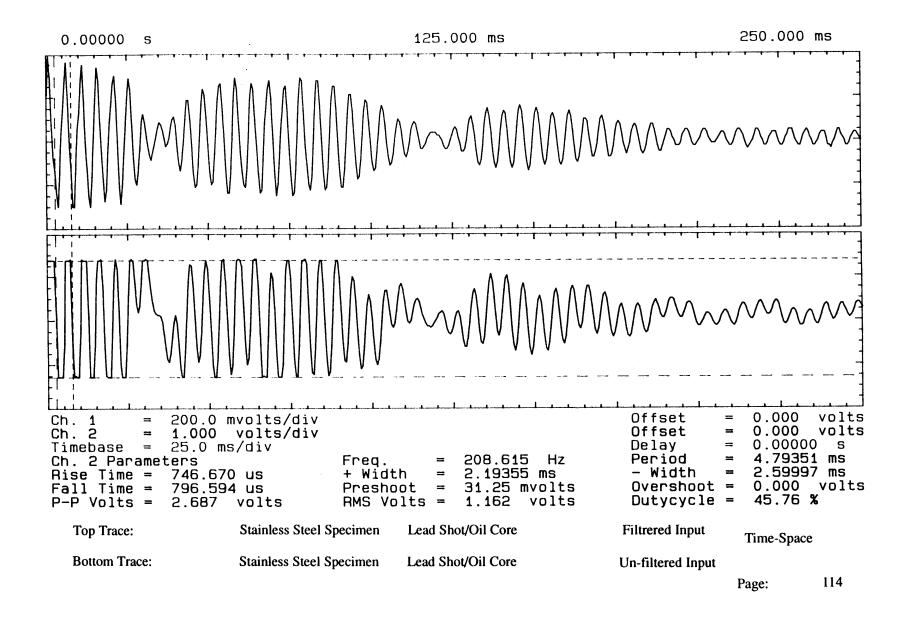


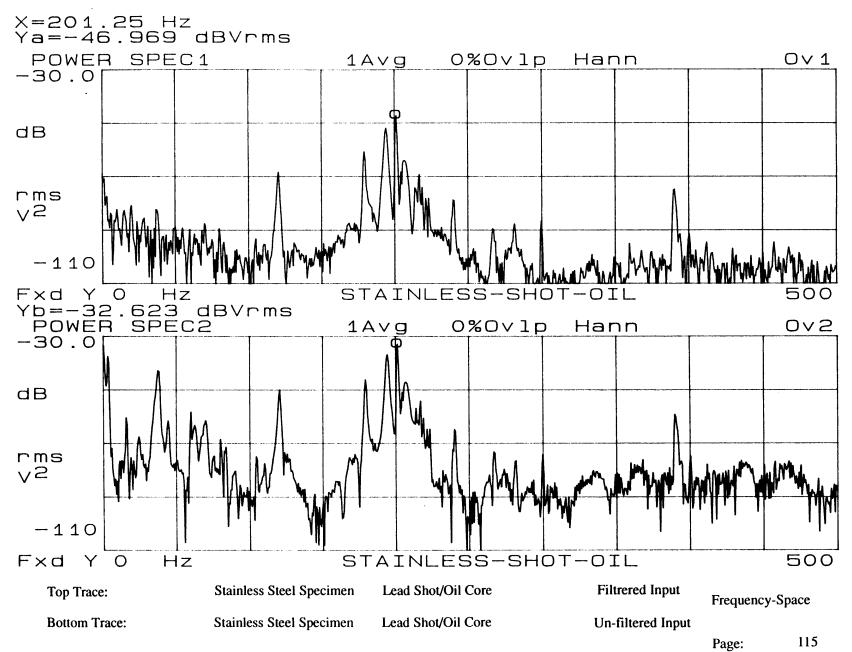


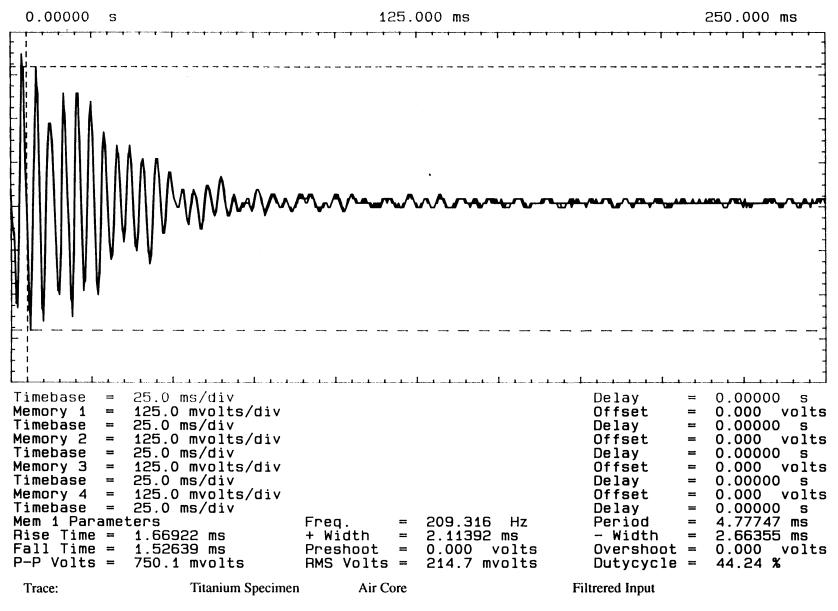


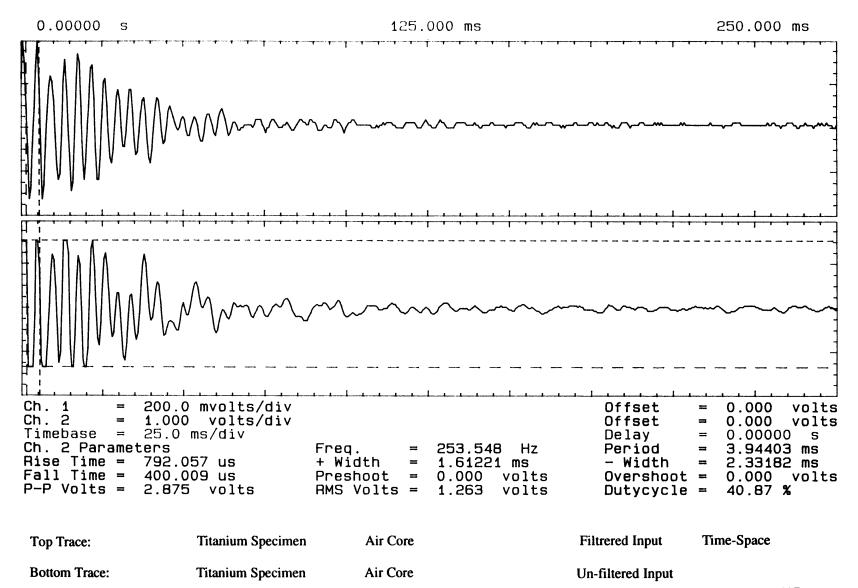


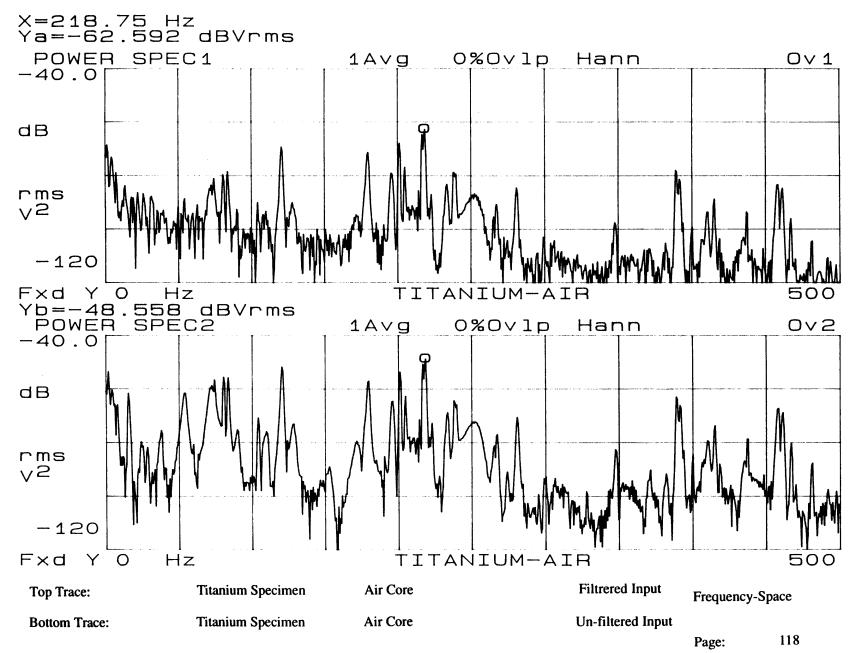




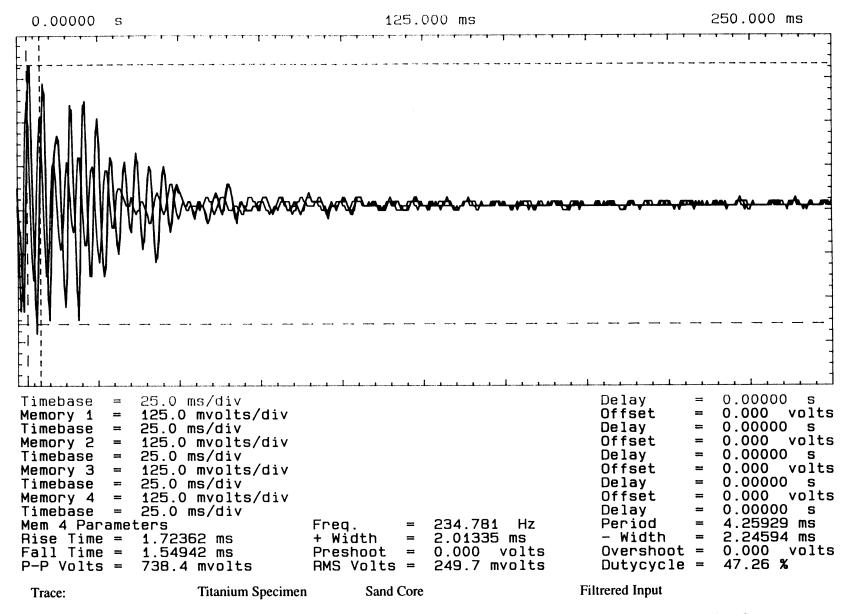


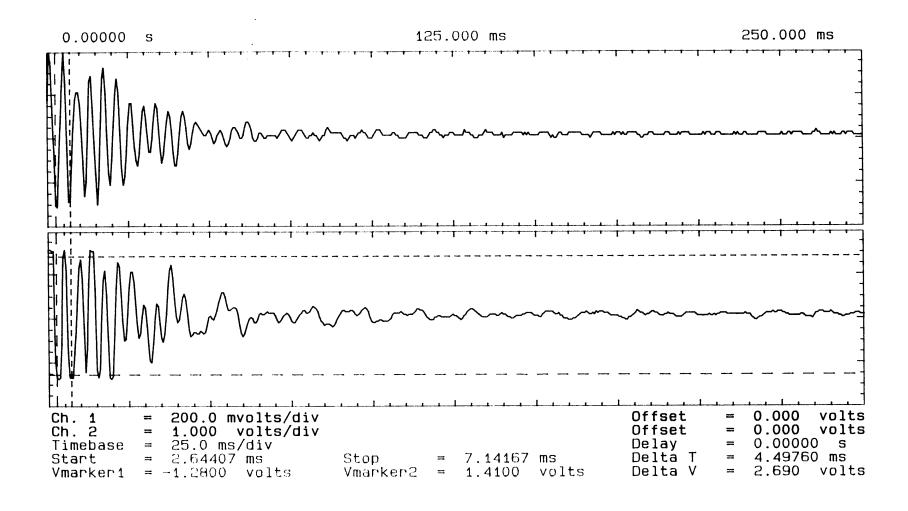




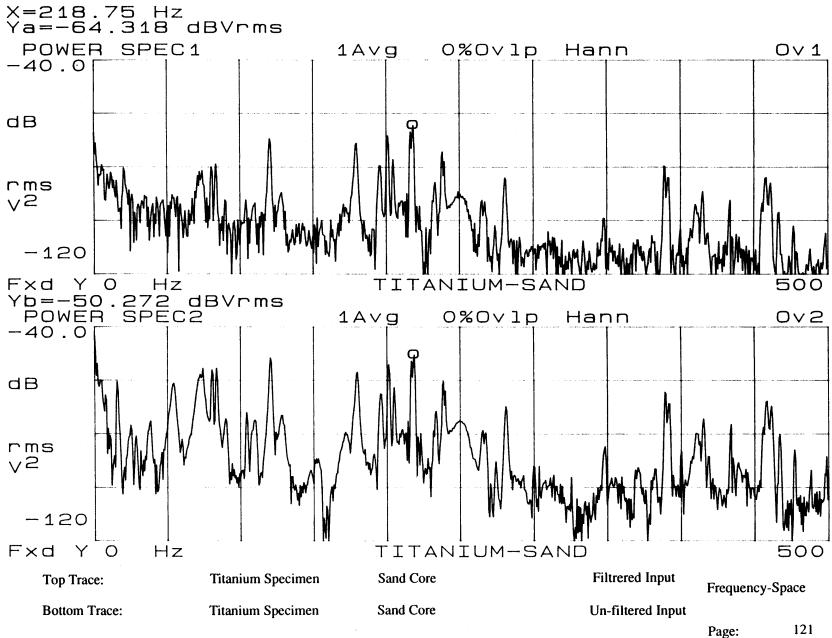


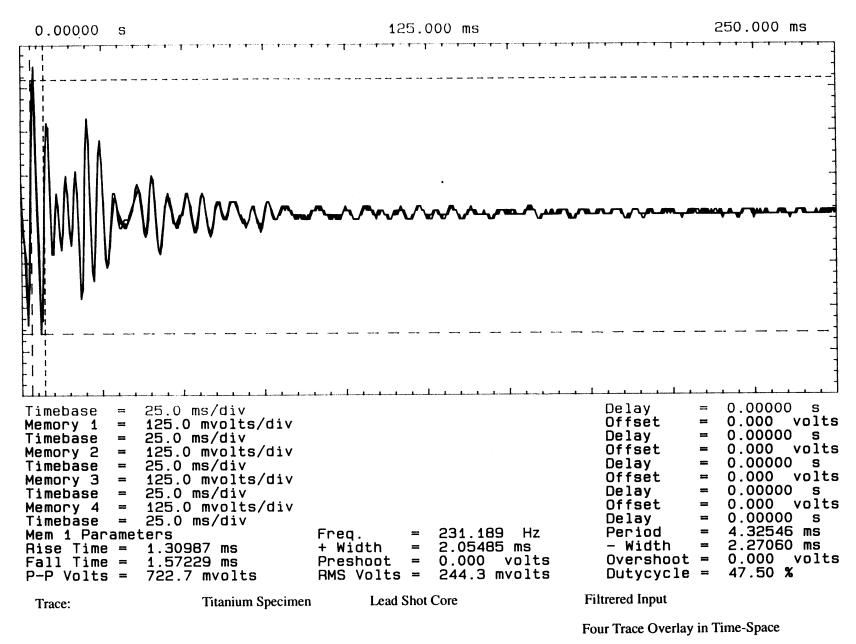
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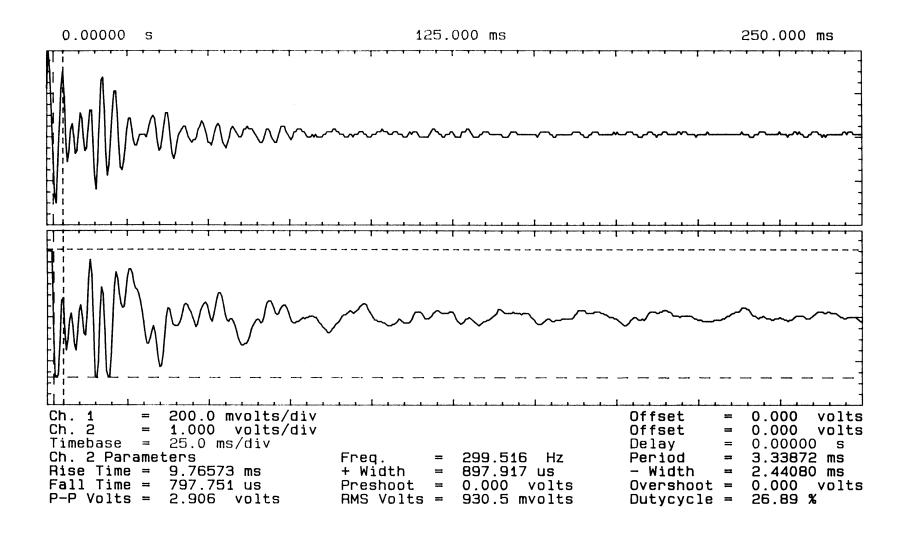




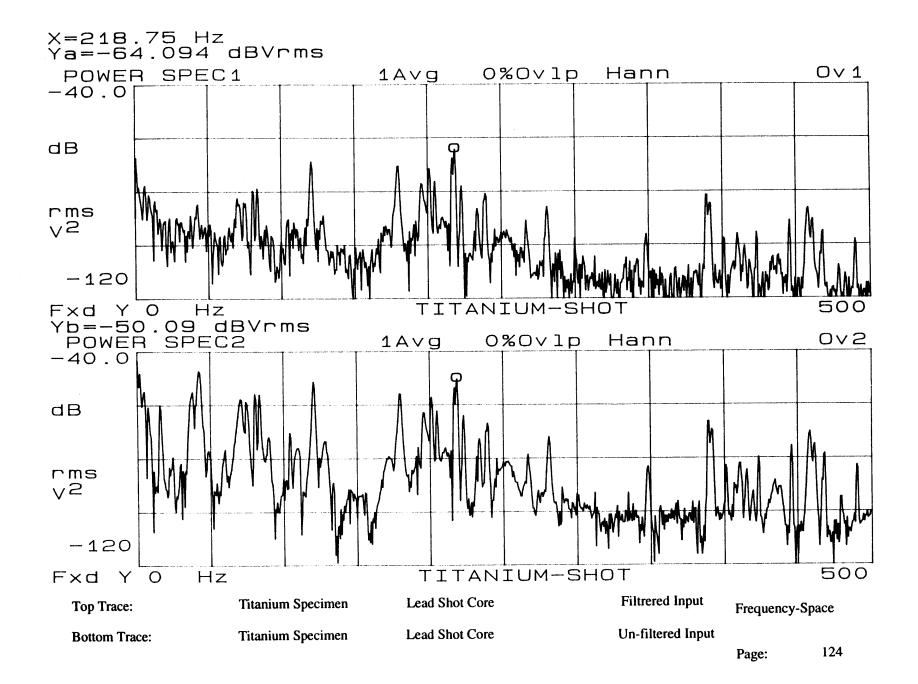
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Bottom Trace:	Titanium Specimen	Sand Core	Un-filtered Input		
				Page:	120

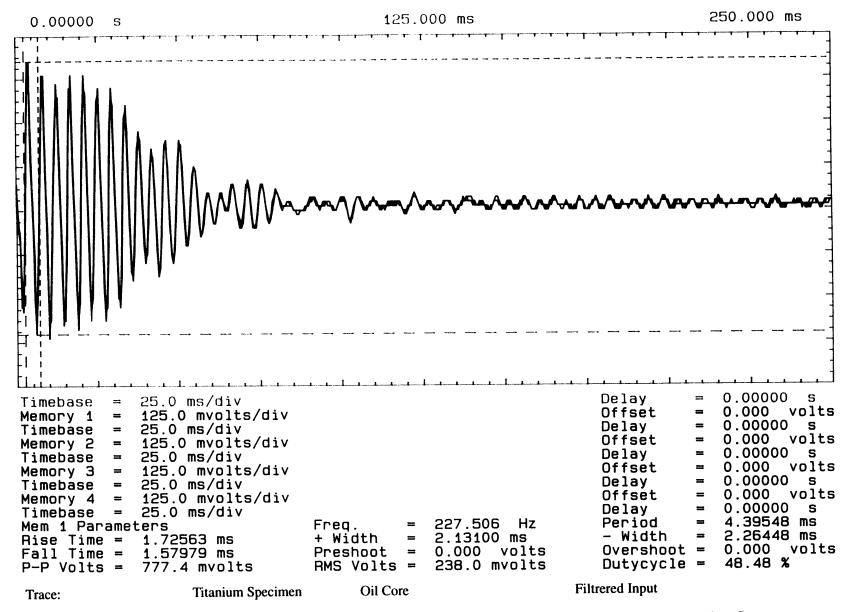


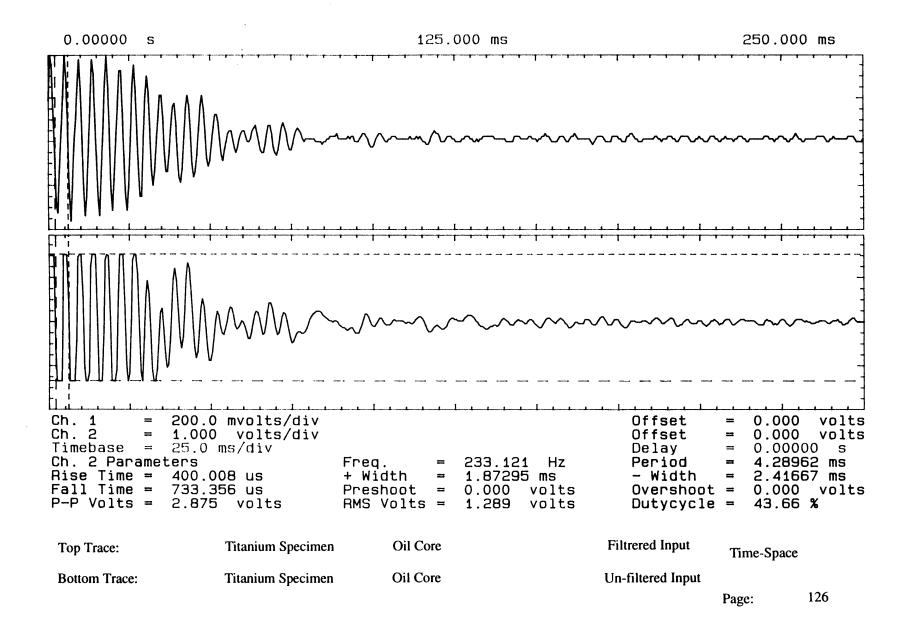


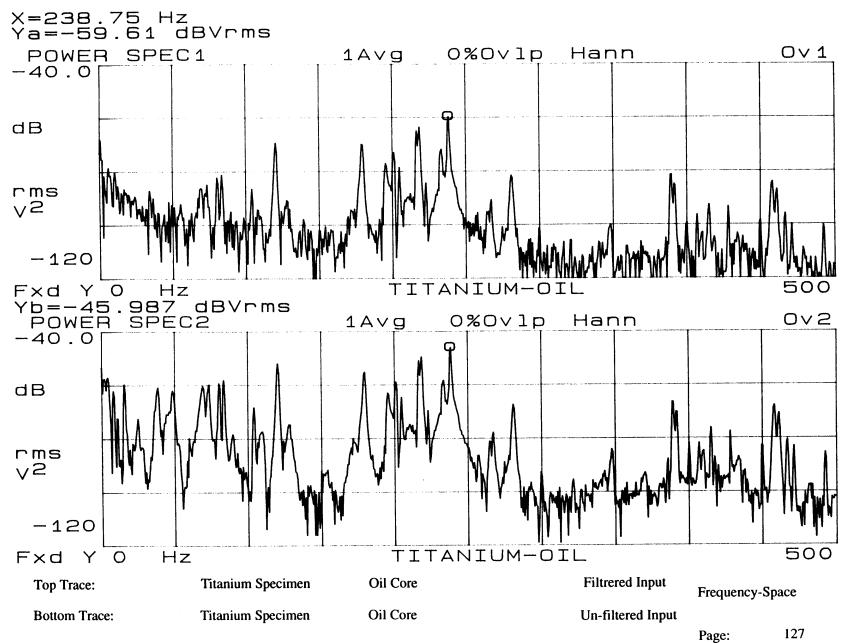


Top Trace:	Titanium Specimen	Lead Shot Core	Filtrered Input	Time-Space	
Bottom Trace:	Titanium Specimen	Lead Shot Core	Un-filtered Input	Page:	123

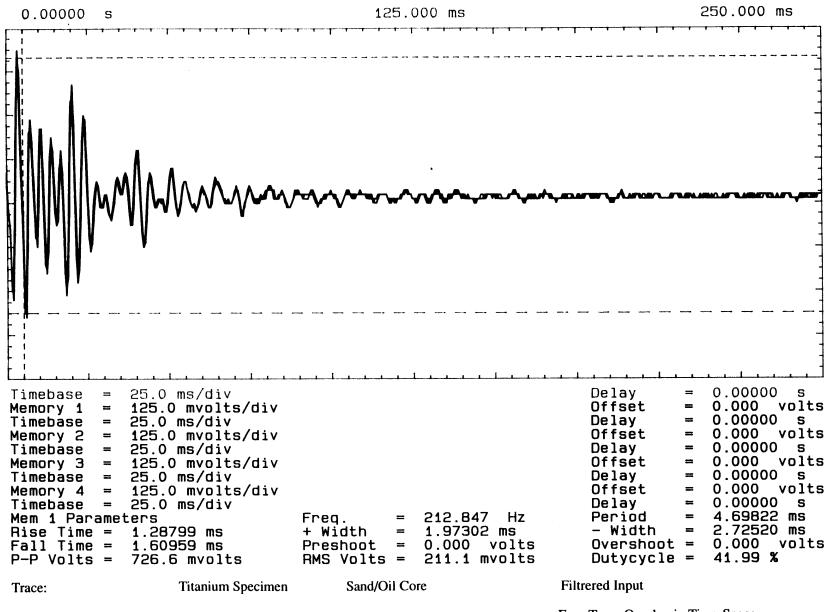


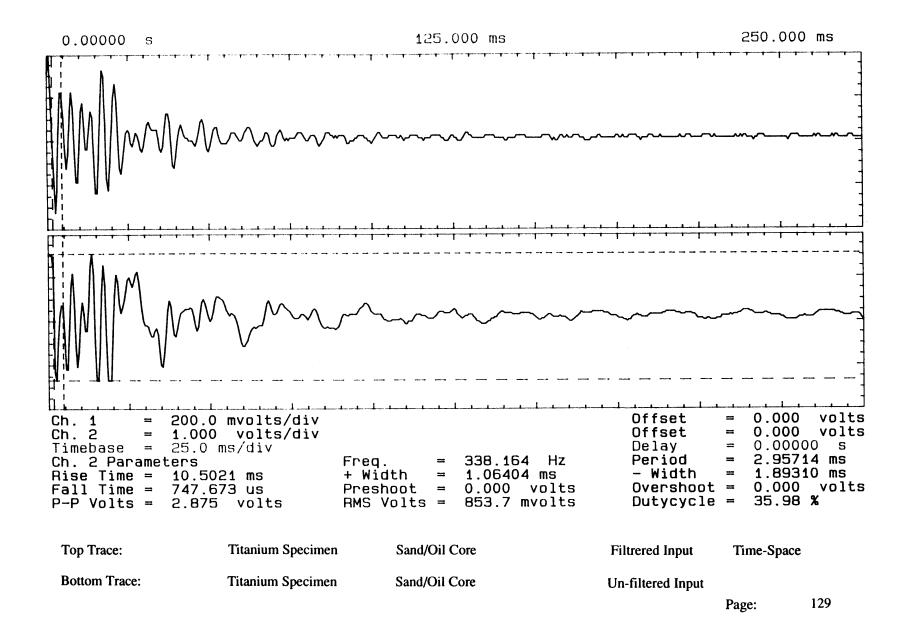


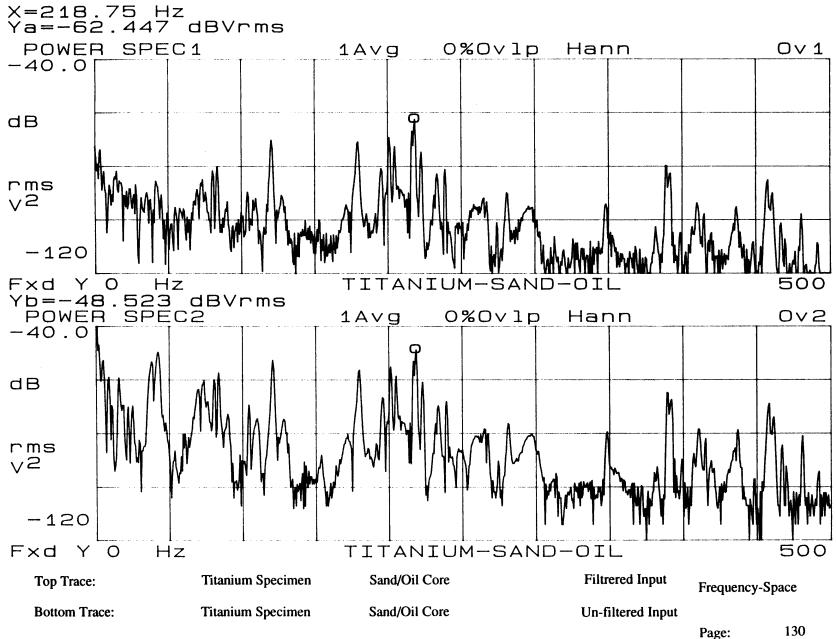


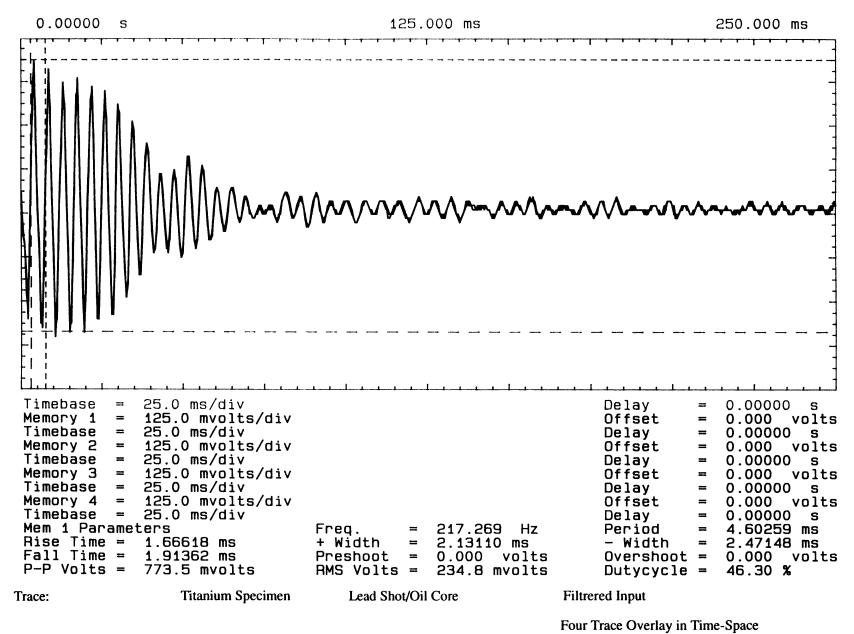


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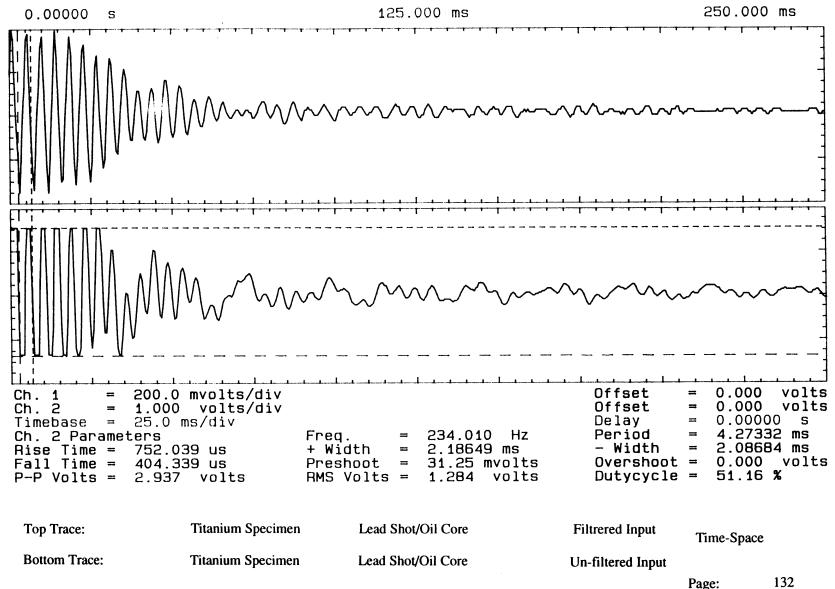


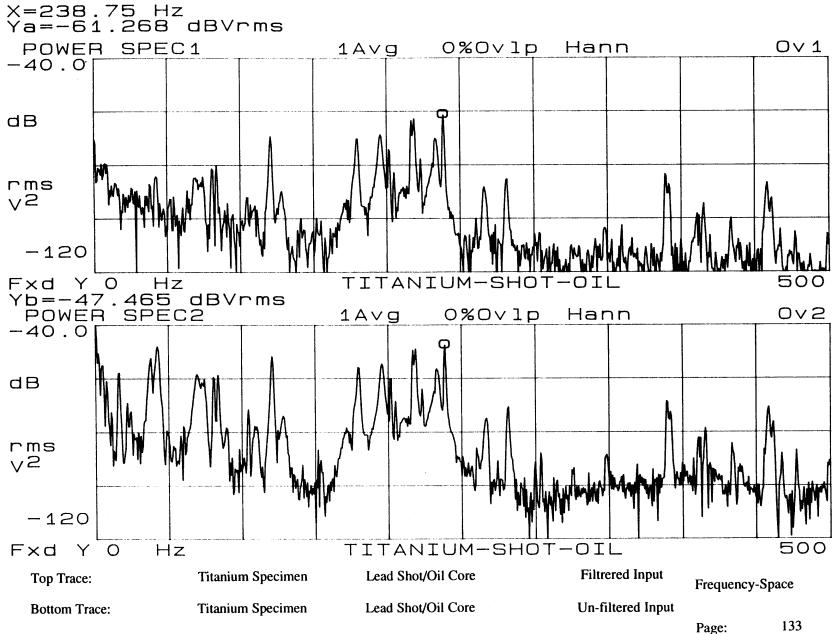


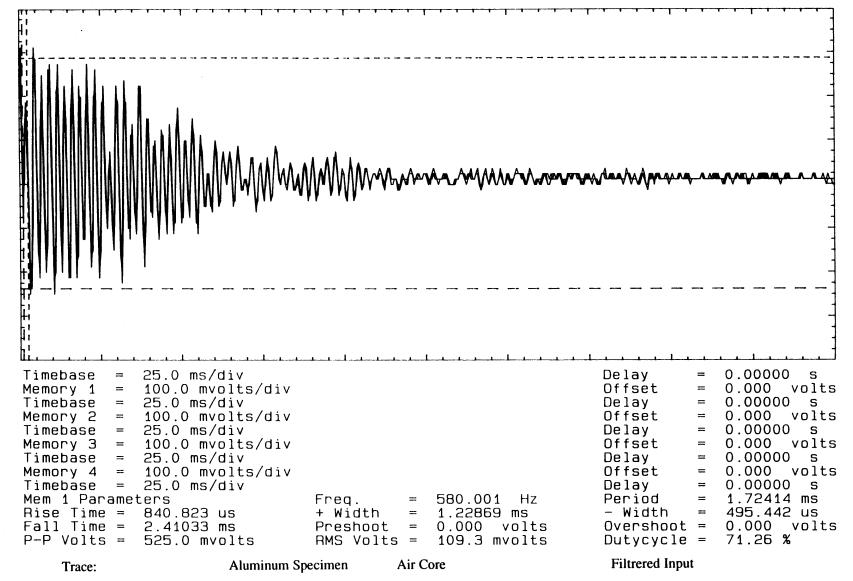


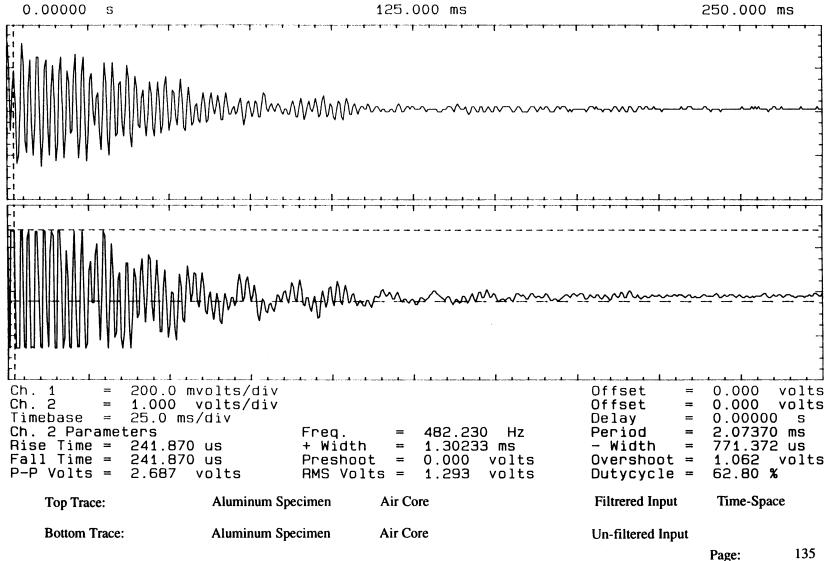
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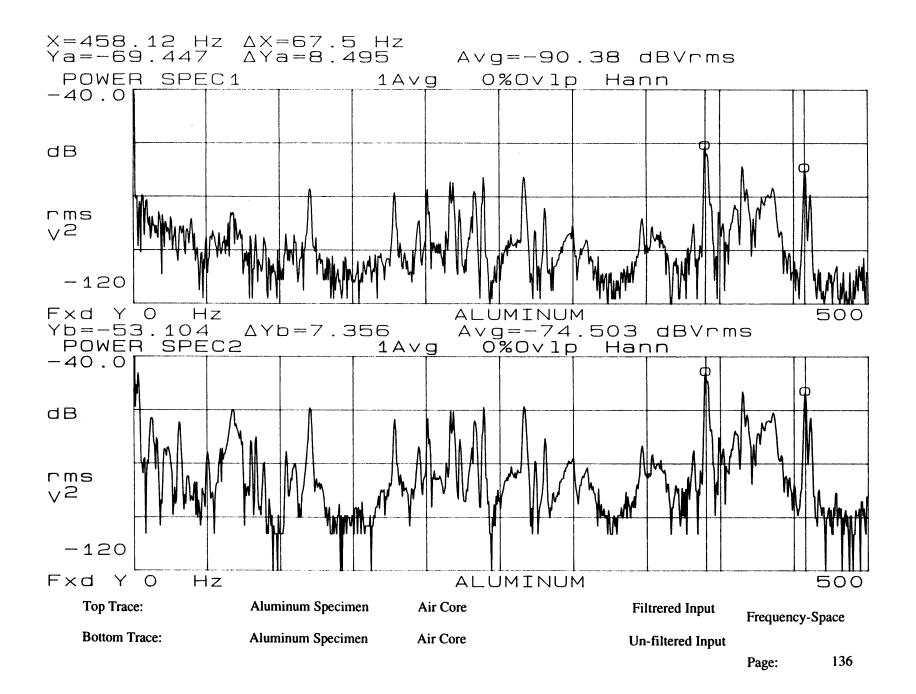
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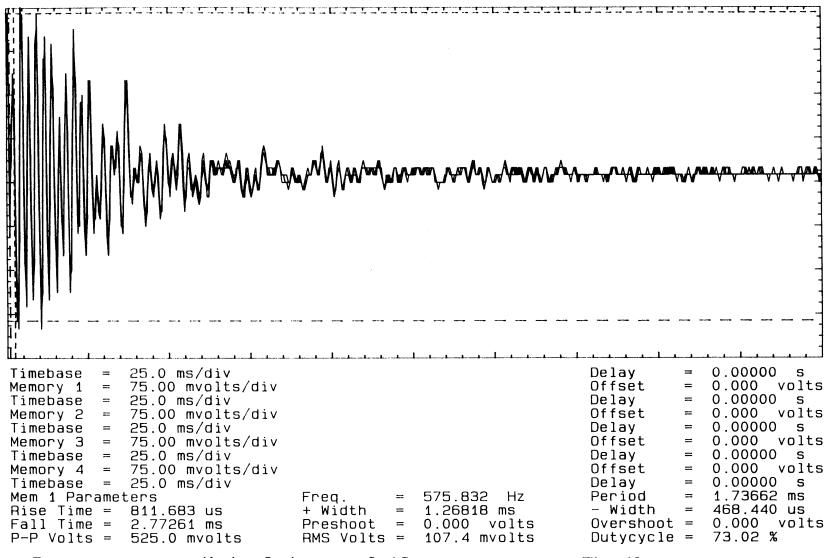








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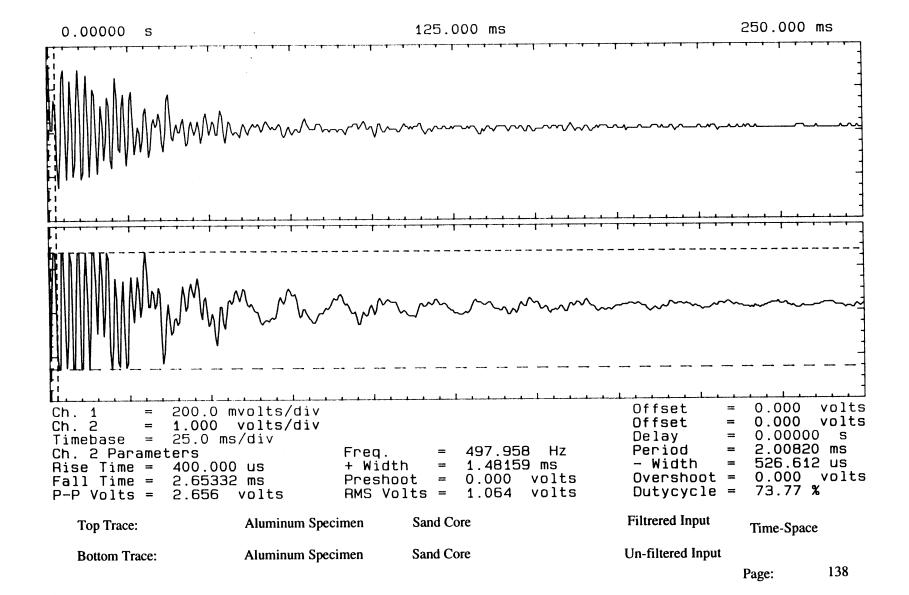


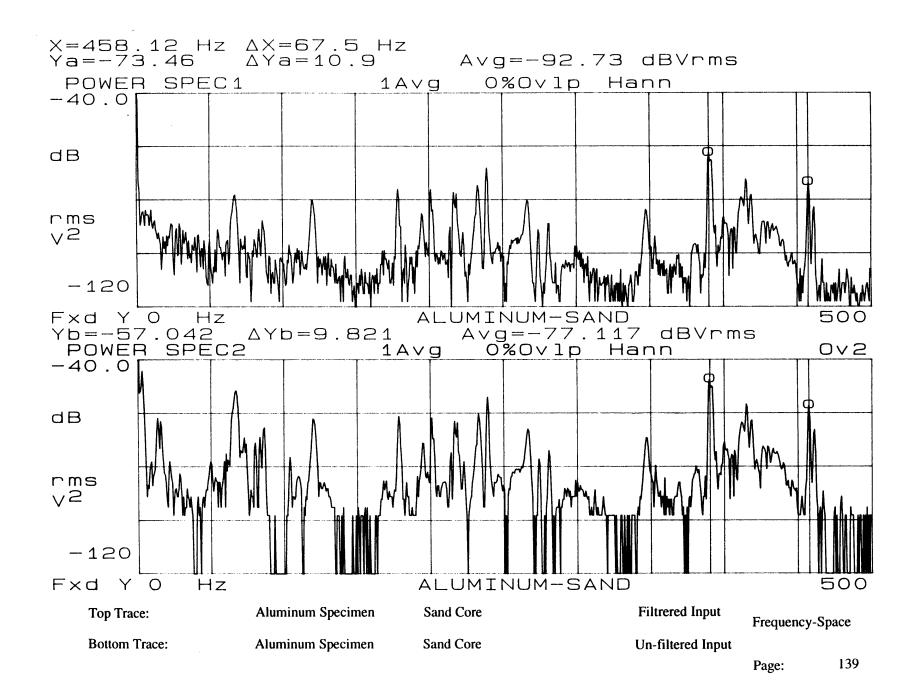
Trace:

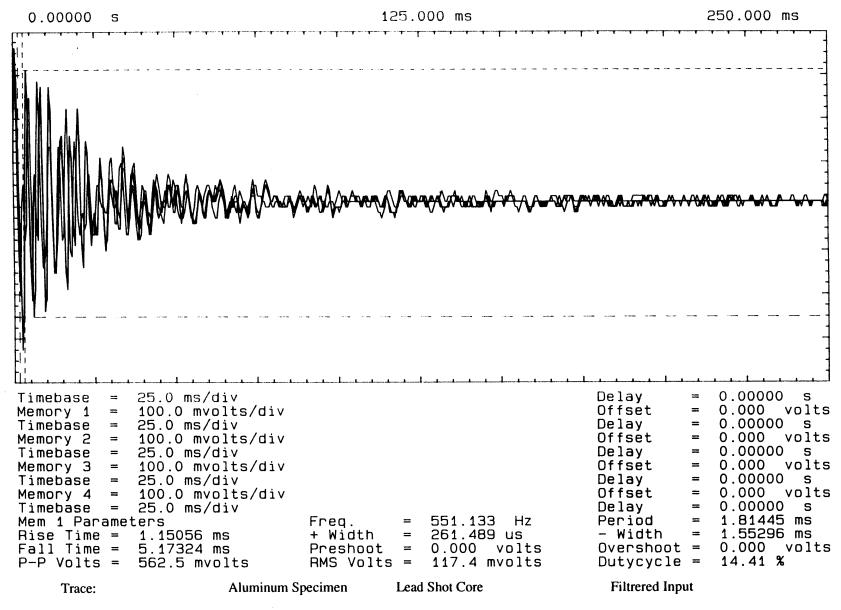
Aluminum Specimen Sand Core

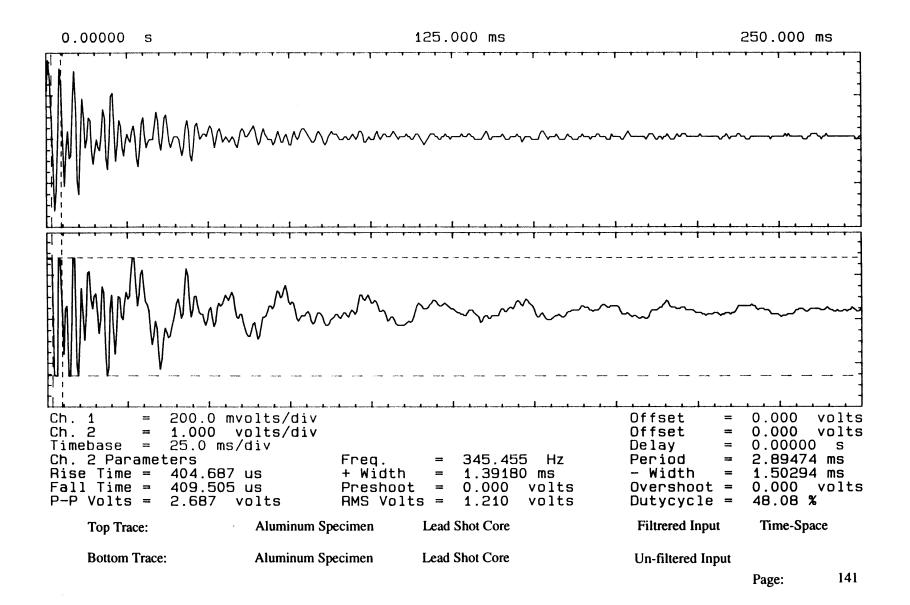
Filtrered Input

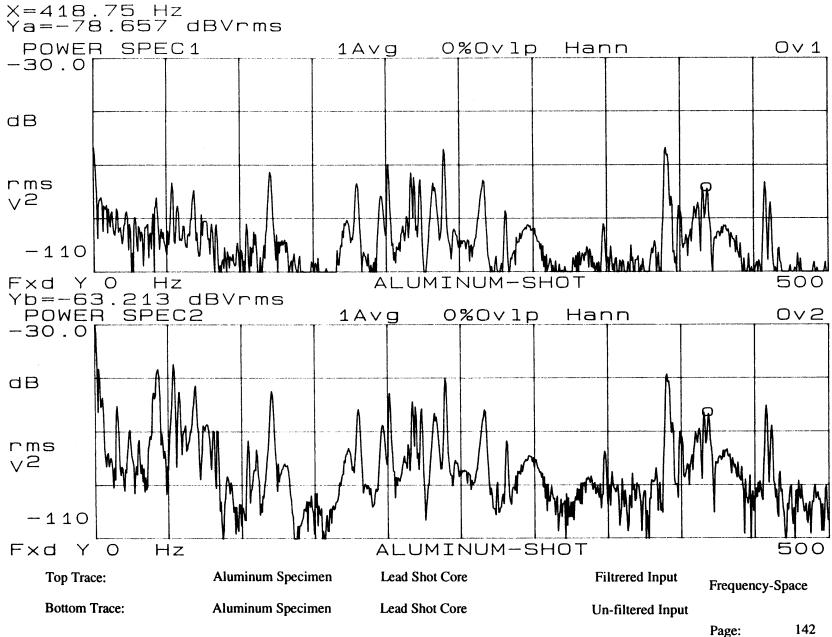
Four Trace Overlay in Time-Space

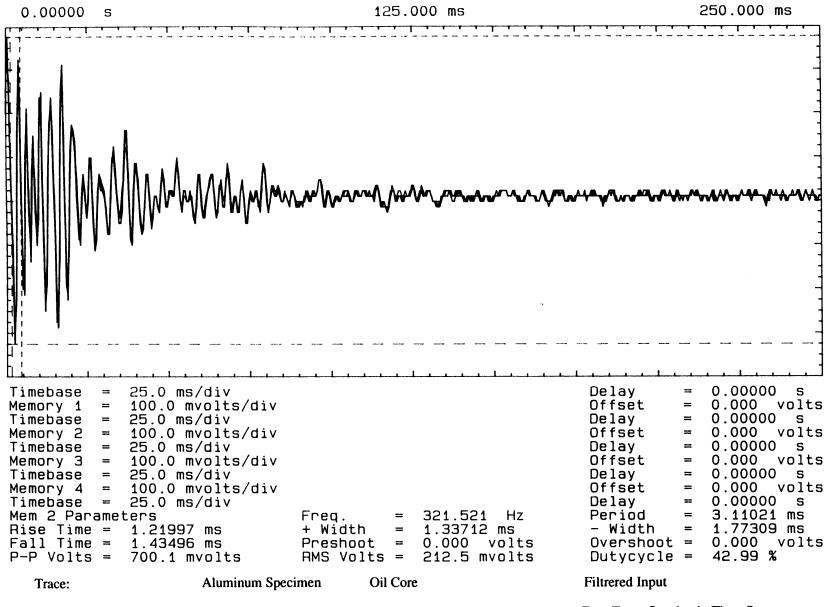


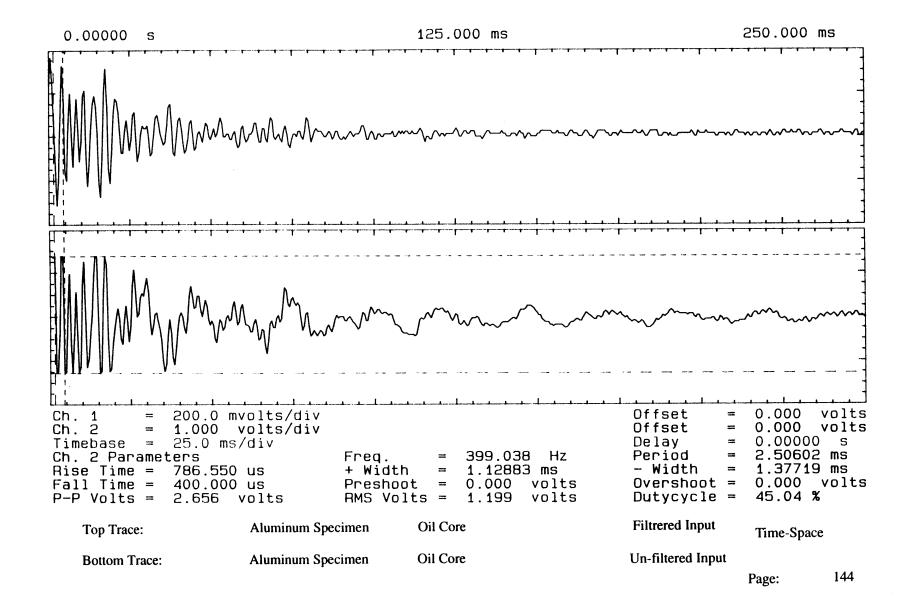


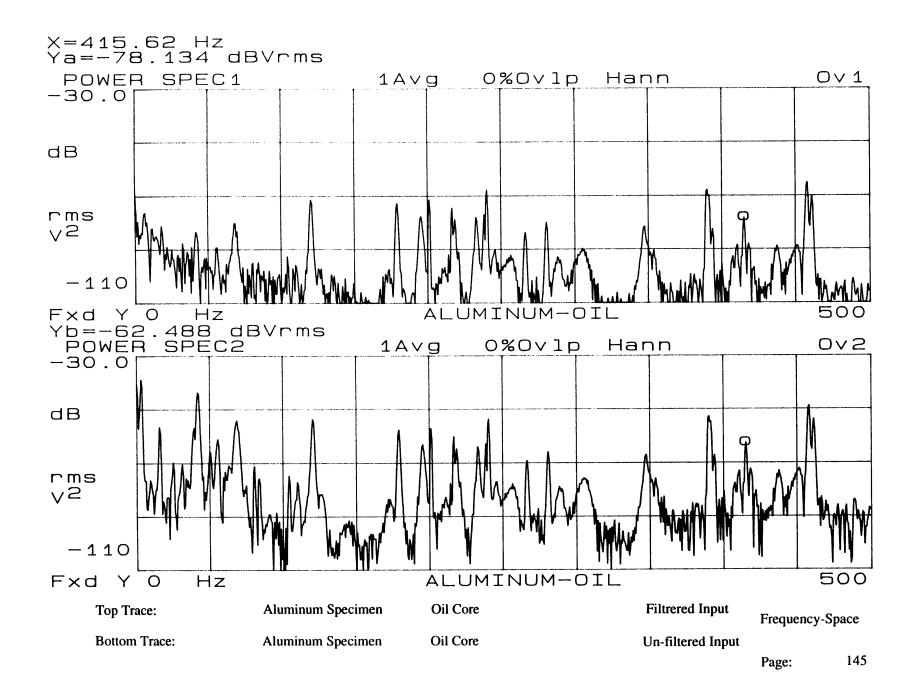


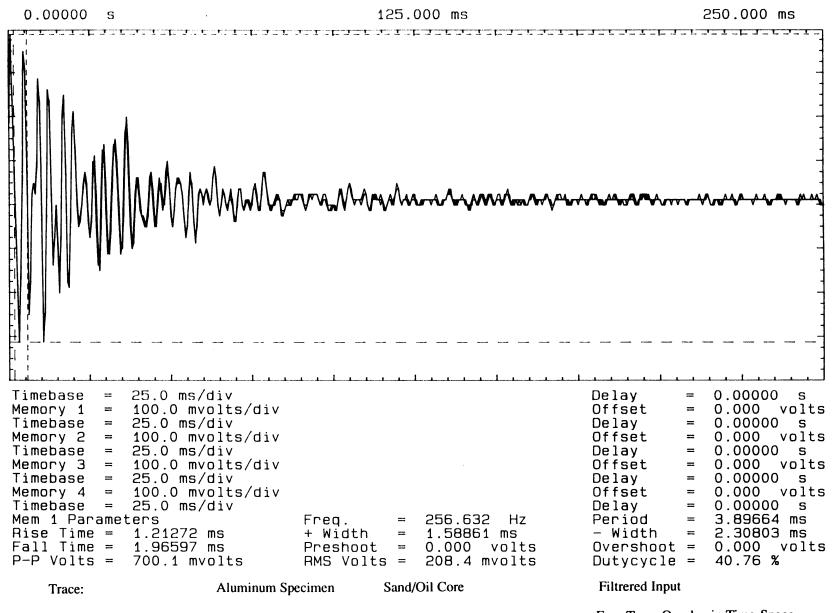


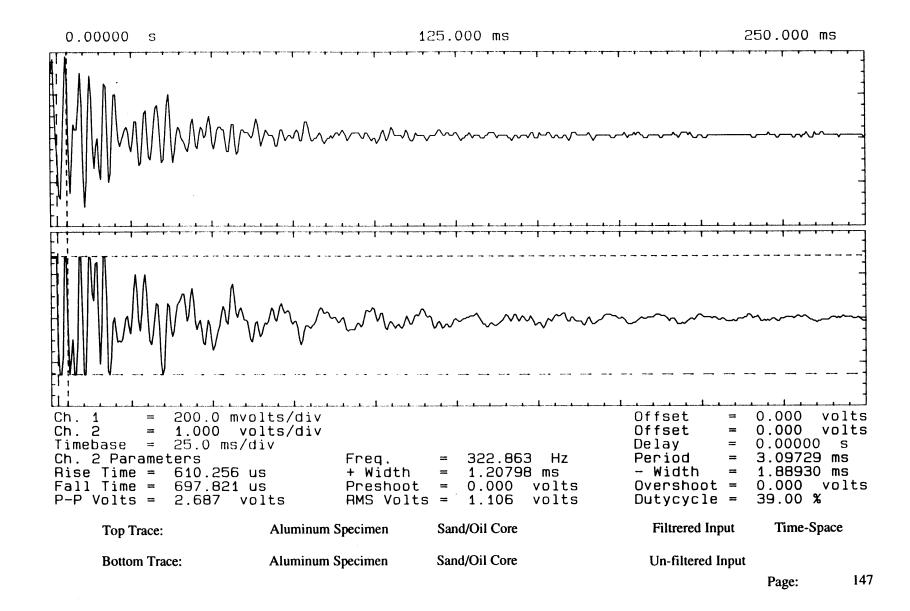


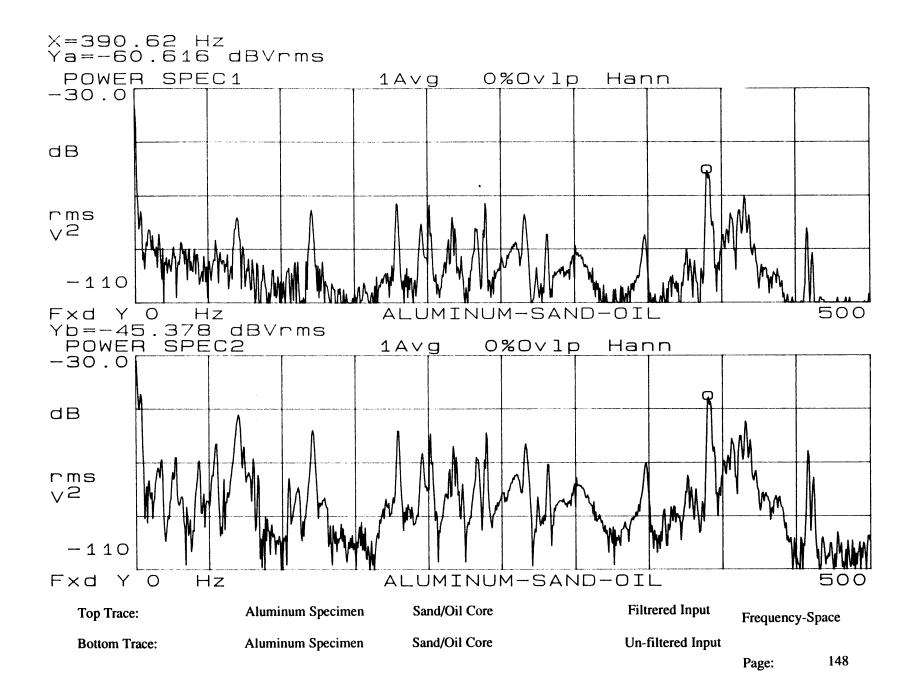




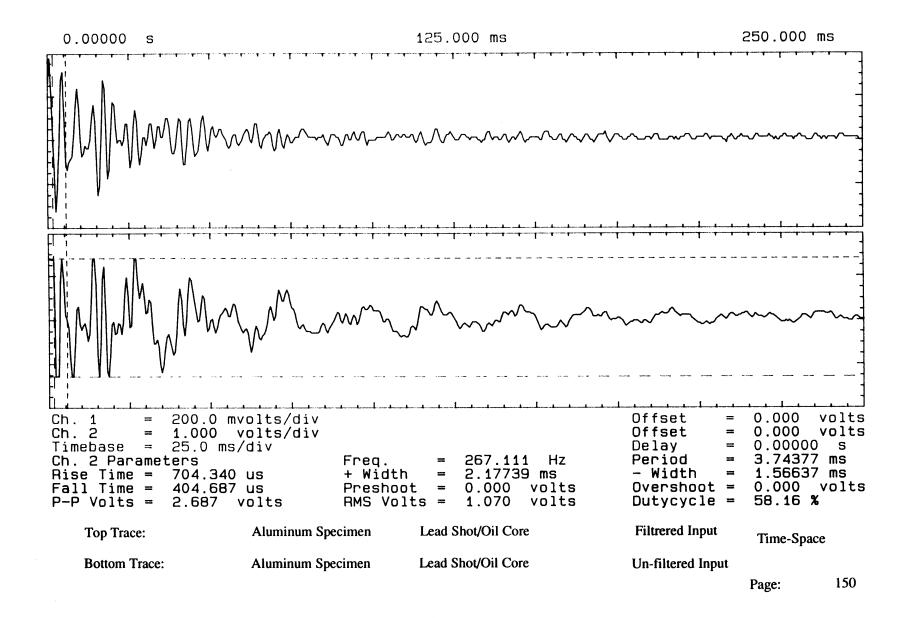


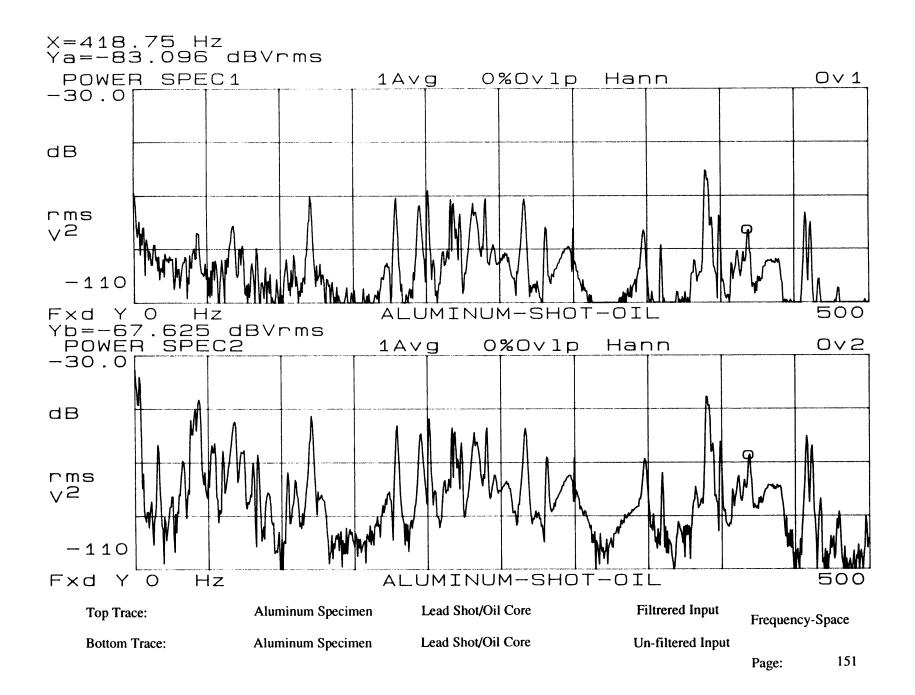


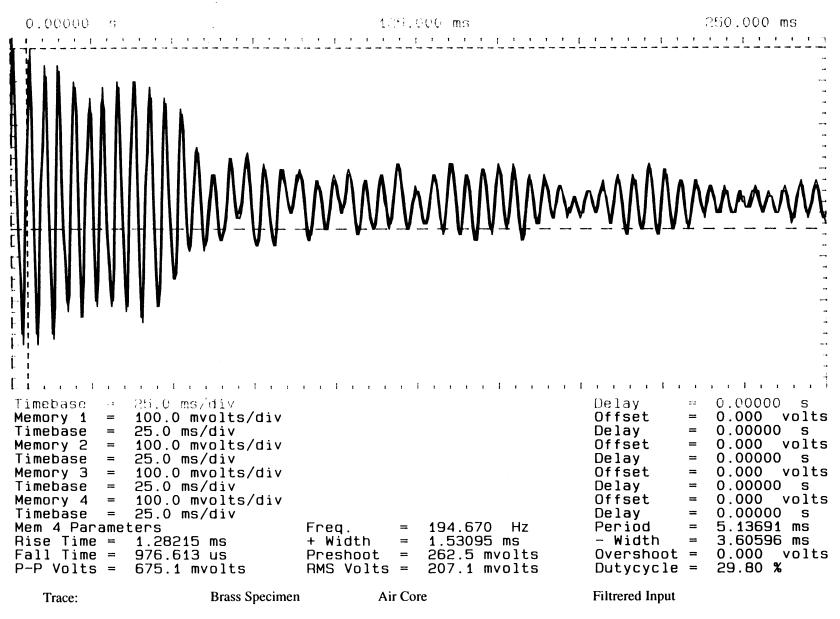


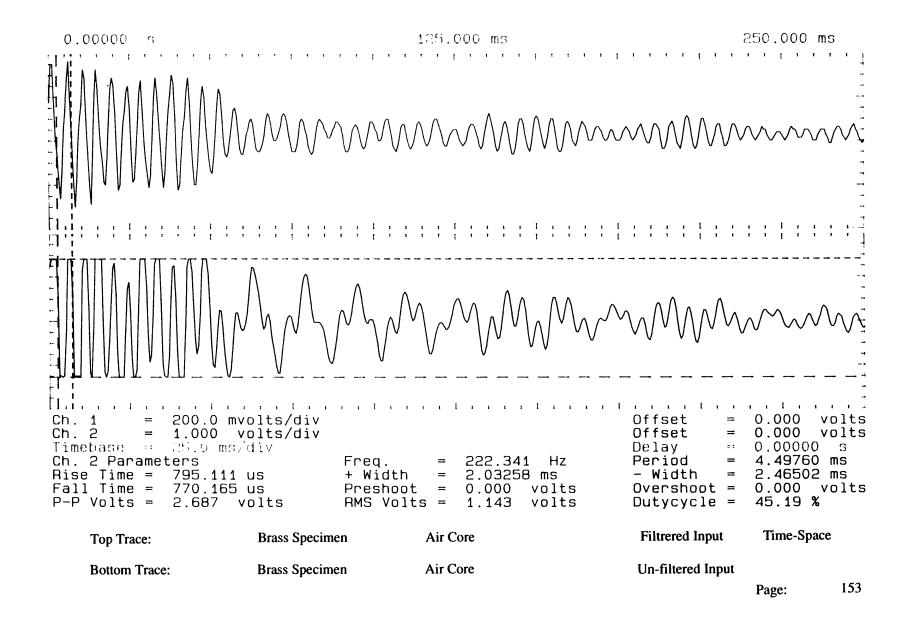


0.00000 s			000 ms	250.000 ms
Timebase = Memory 1 = Timebase = Memory 2 = Timebase = Memory 3 = Timebase = Memory 4 = Timebase = Mem 1 Parame Rise Time = Fall Time = P-P Volts =	25.0 ms/div 100.0 mvolts/div 25.0 ms/div 100.0 mvolts/div 25.0 ms/div 100.0 mvolts/div 25.0 ms/div 100.0 mvolts/div 25.0 ms/div ters 1.26700 ms 1.46324 ms 687.6 mvolts	Freq. = + Width = Preshoot = RMS Volts =	274.591 Hz 1.51339 ms 0.000 volts 206.1 mvolts	Delay = 0.00000 s Offset = 0.000 volts Delay = 0.0000 s Offset = 0.000 volts Delay = 0.00000 s Offset = 0.000 volts Delay = 0.00000 s Offset = 0.000 volts Delay = 0.00000 s Period = 3.64179 ms - Width = 2.12840 ms Overshoot = 0.000 volts Dutycycle = 41.55 %
Trace:	Aluminum Spec	eimen Lead Sl	not/Oil Core	Filtrered Input

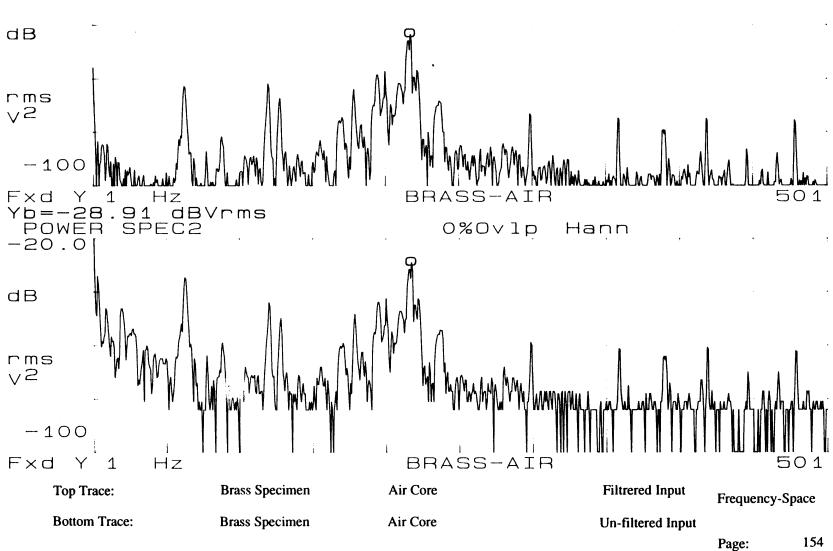




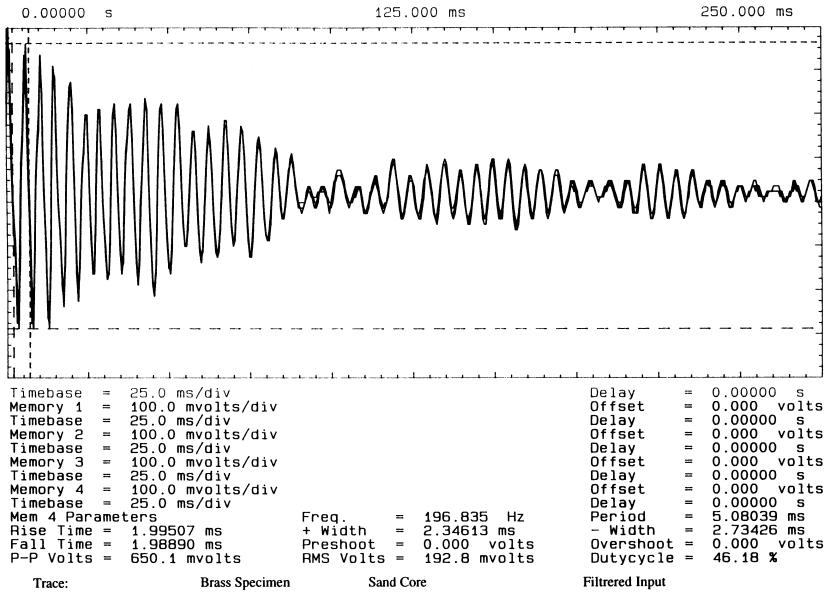


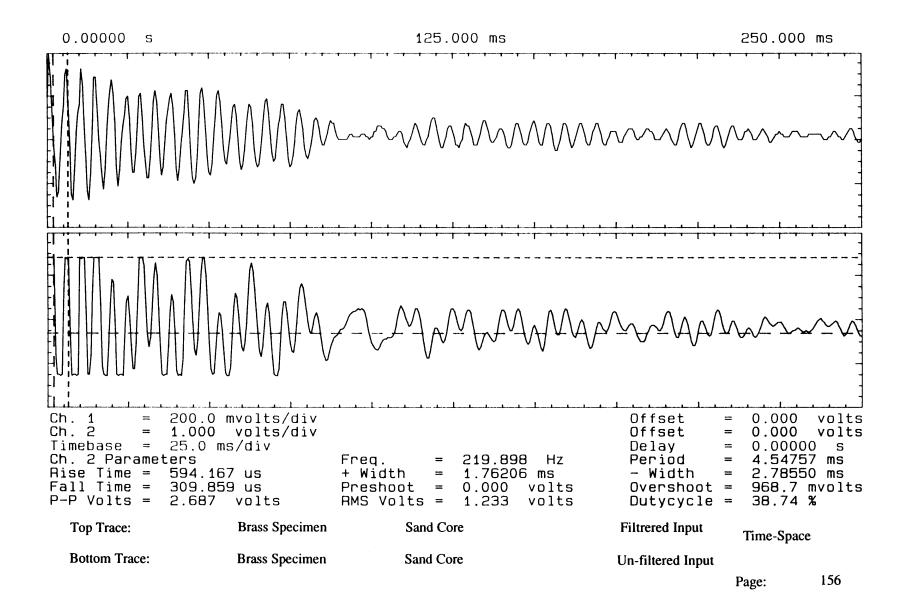


X=218.5 Hz Ya=-43.404 dBVrms POWER -20.0 0%0vlp SPEC1 Hann

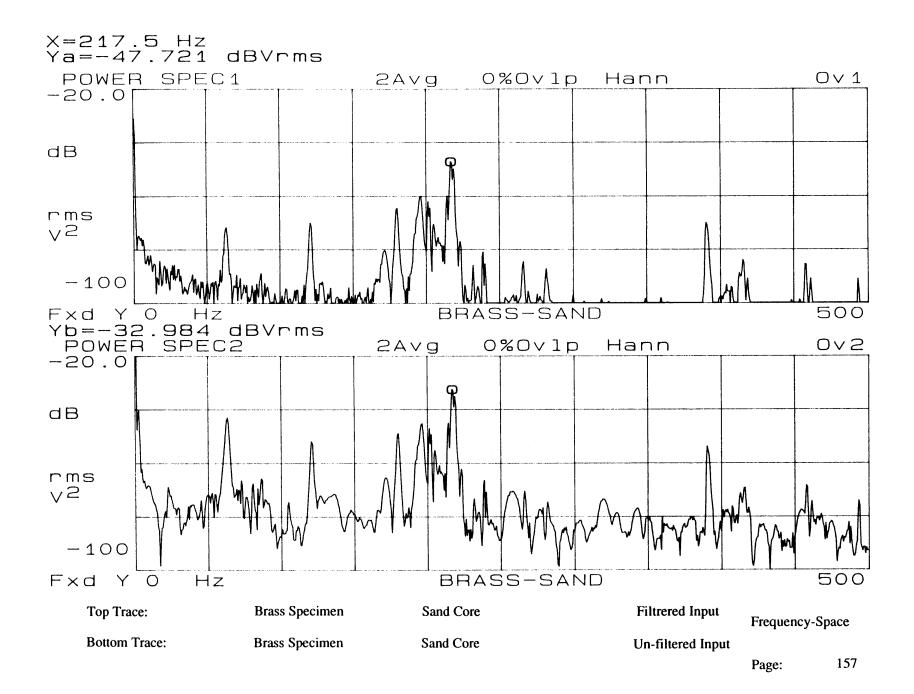


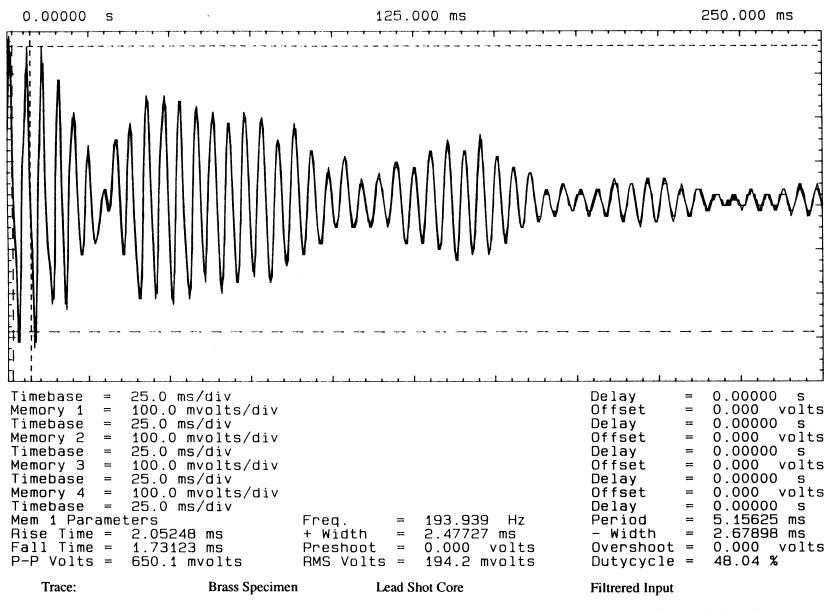
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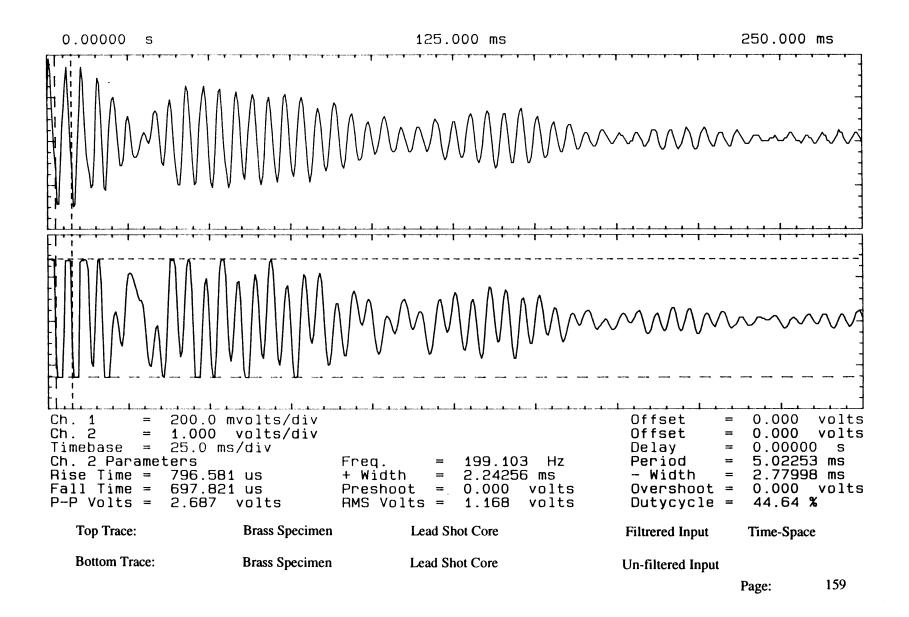


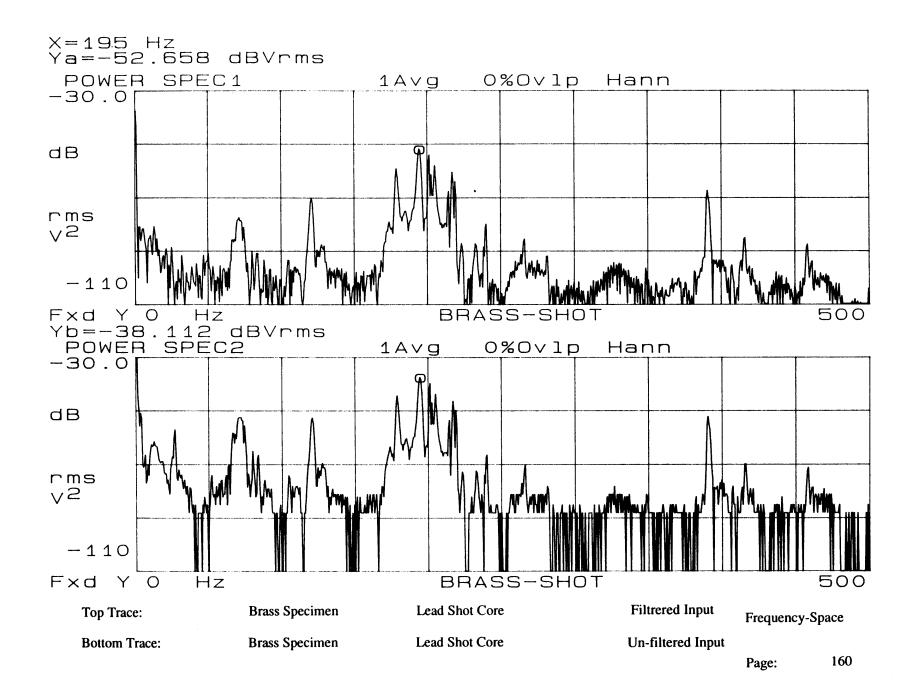


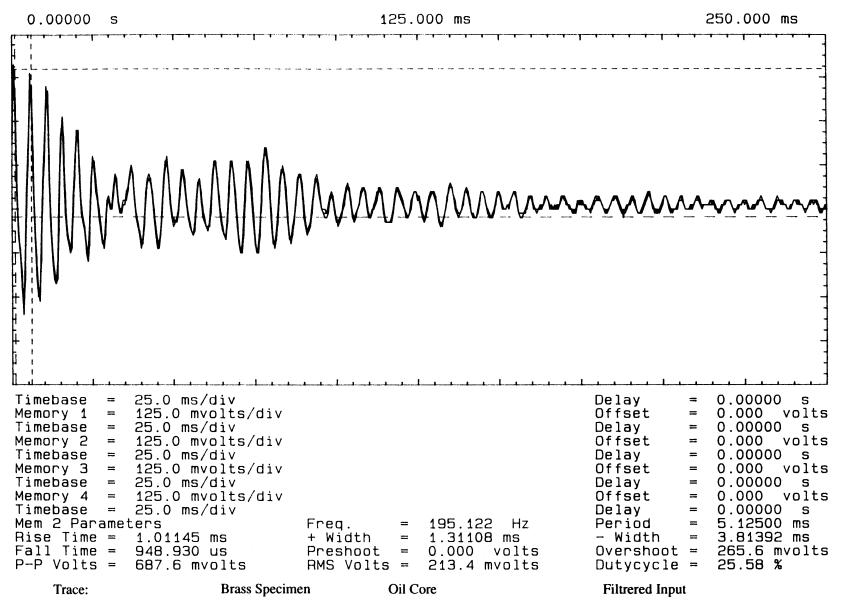
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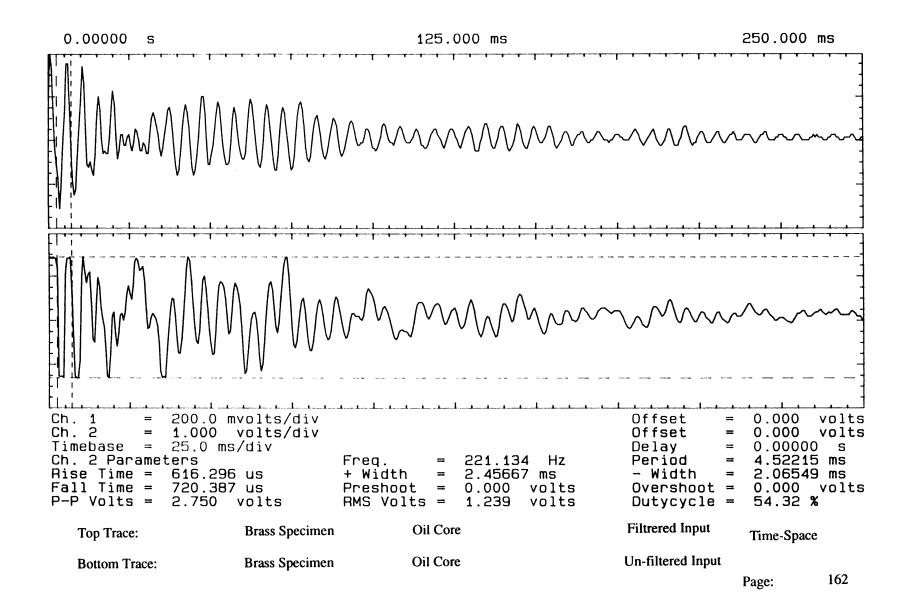


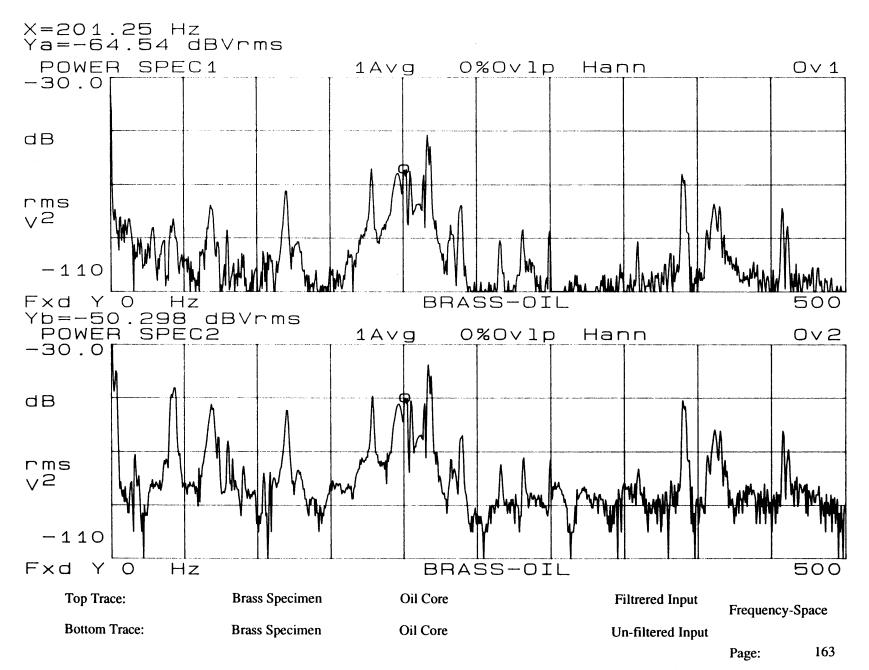


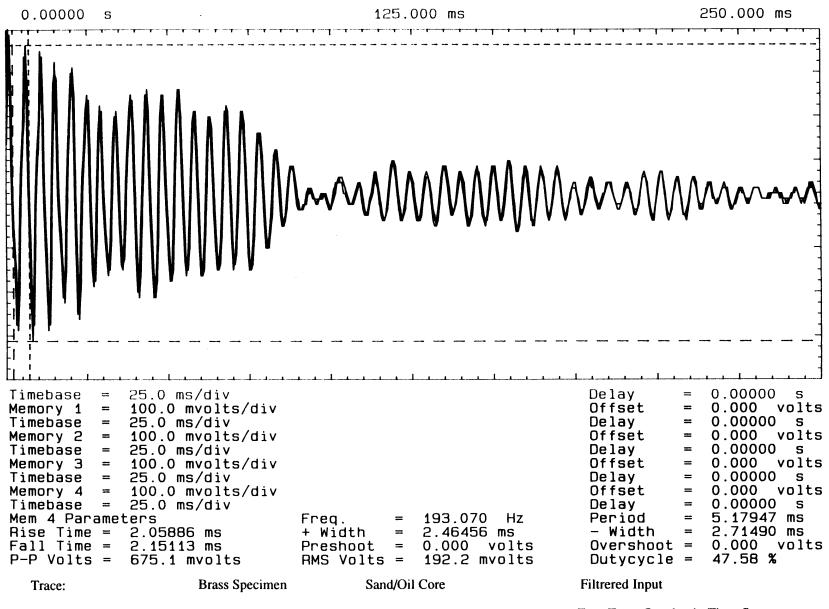


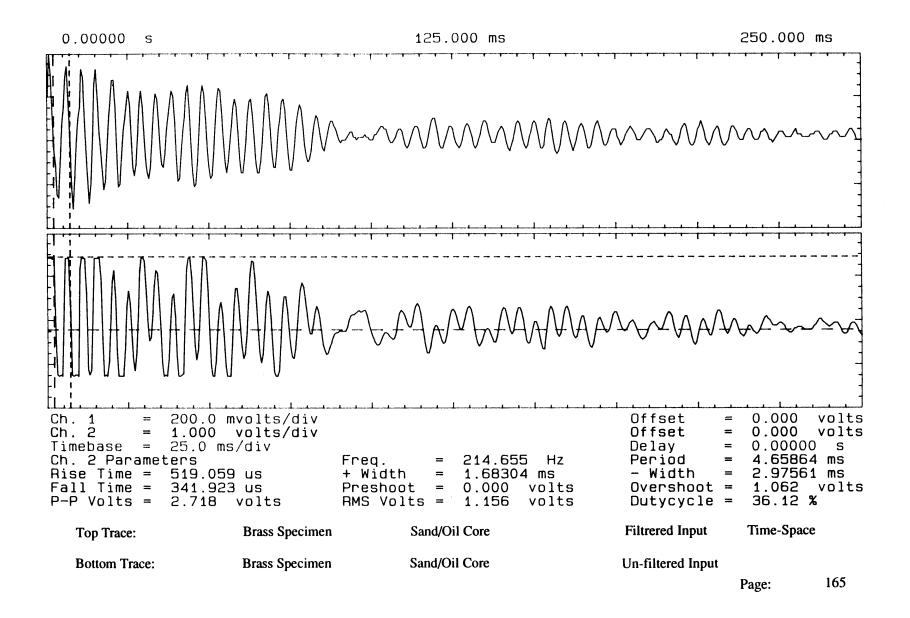


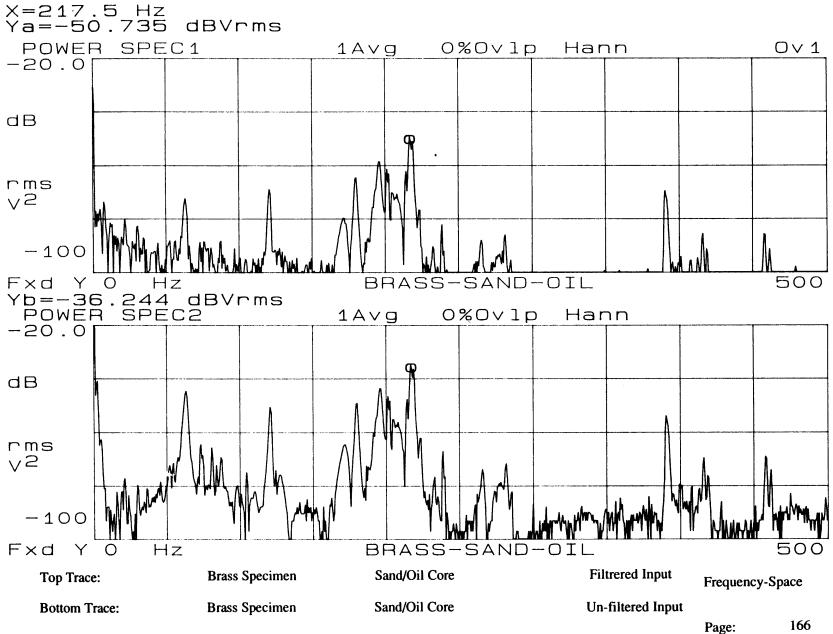


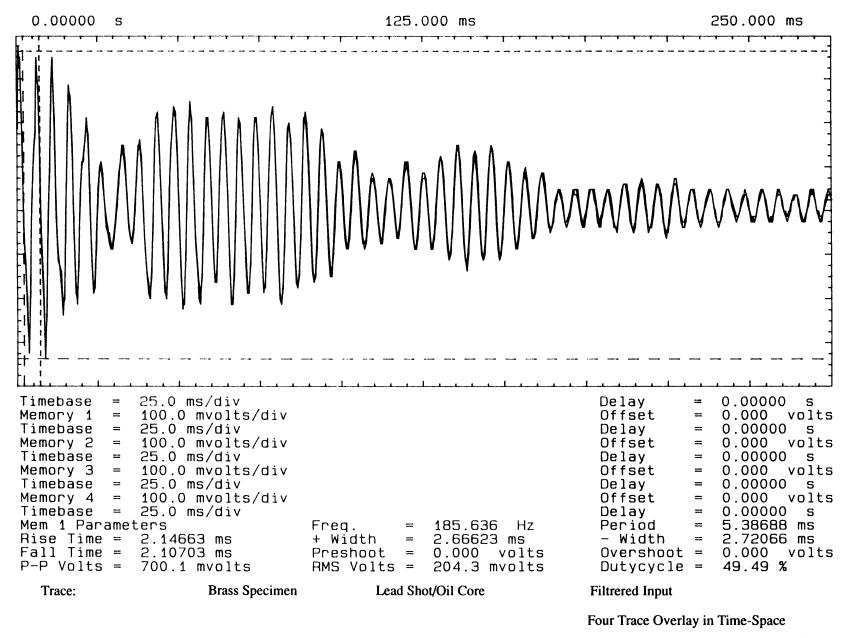


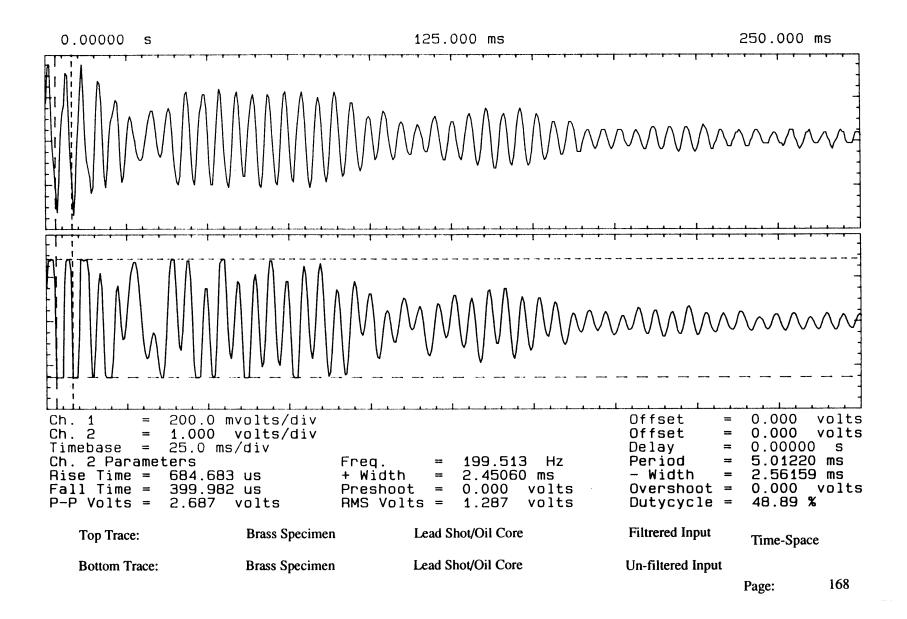


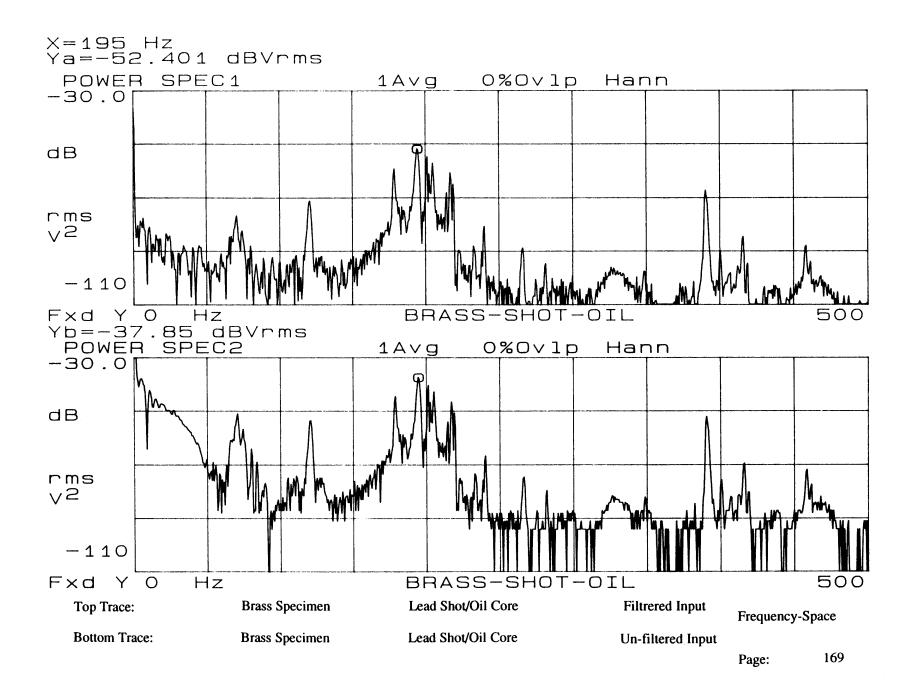


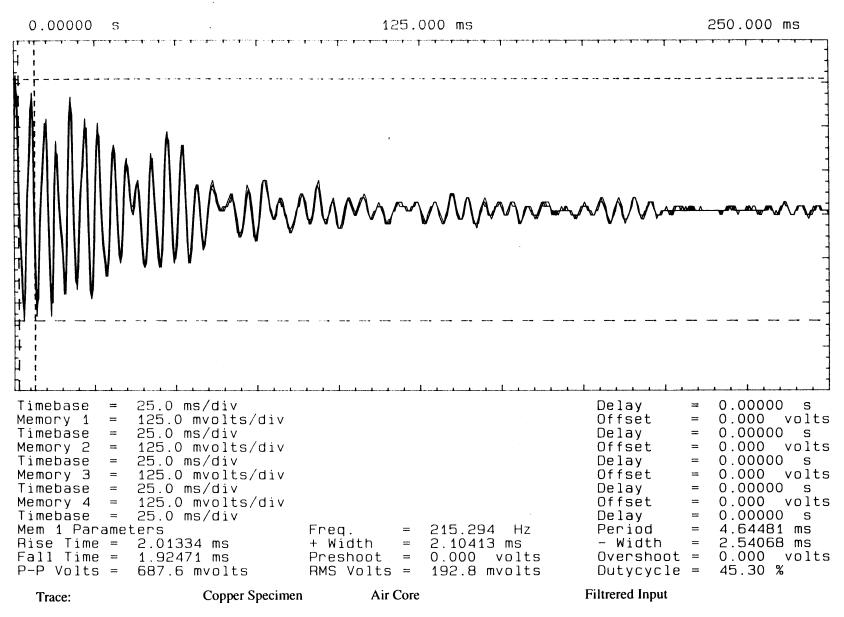


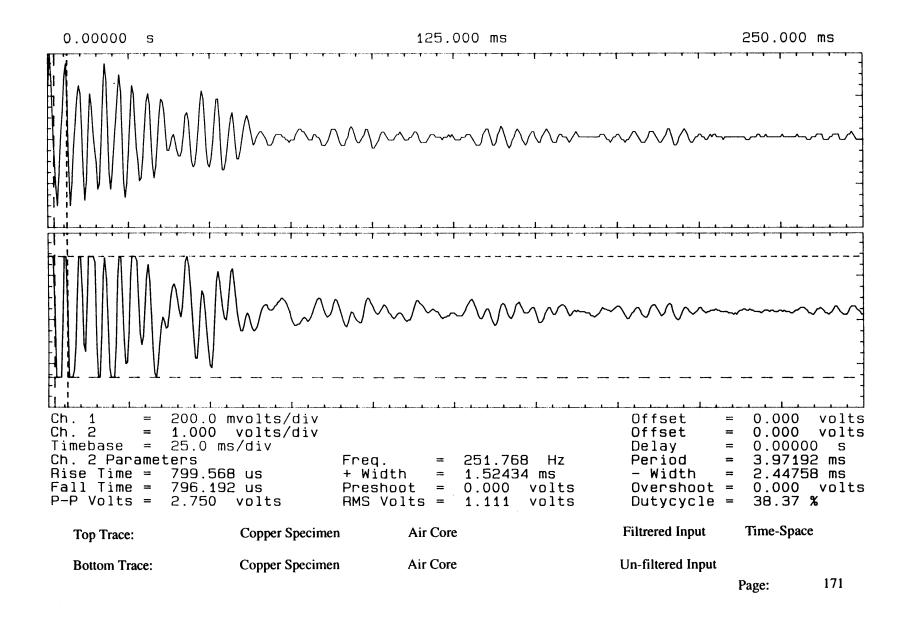


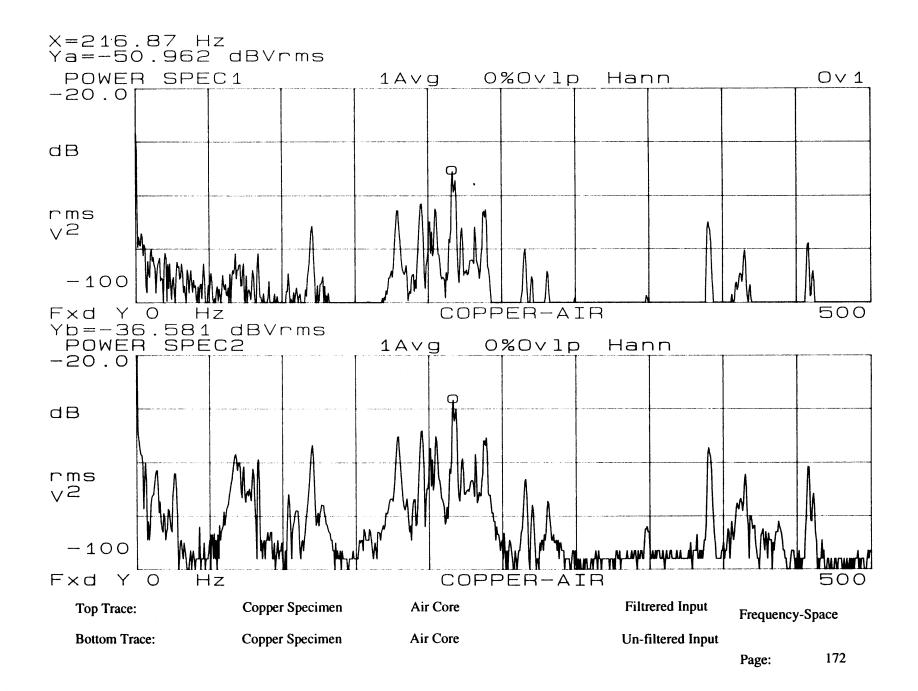


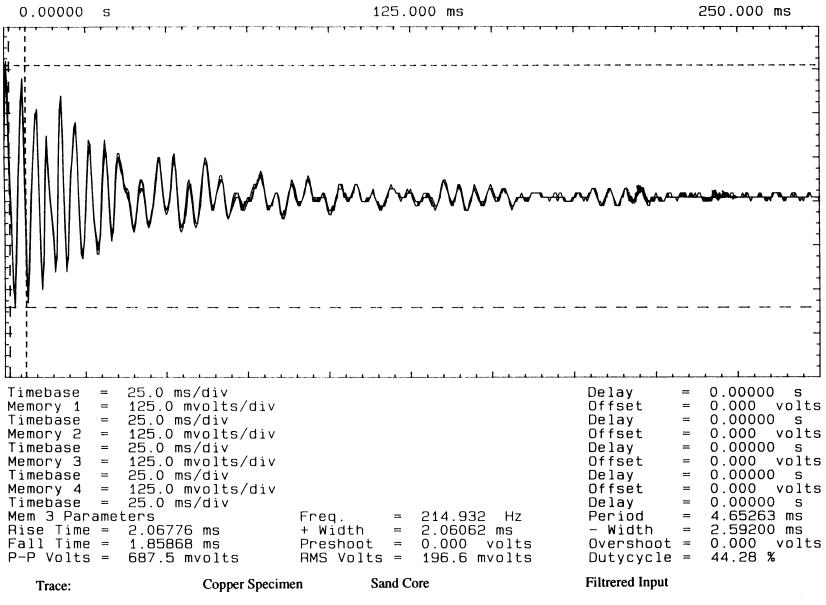


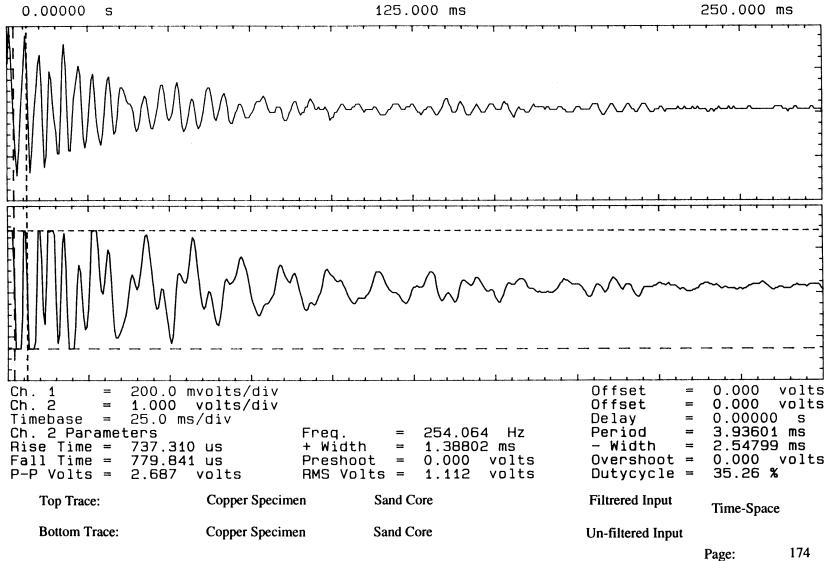


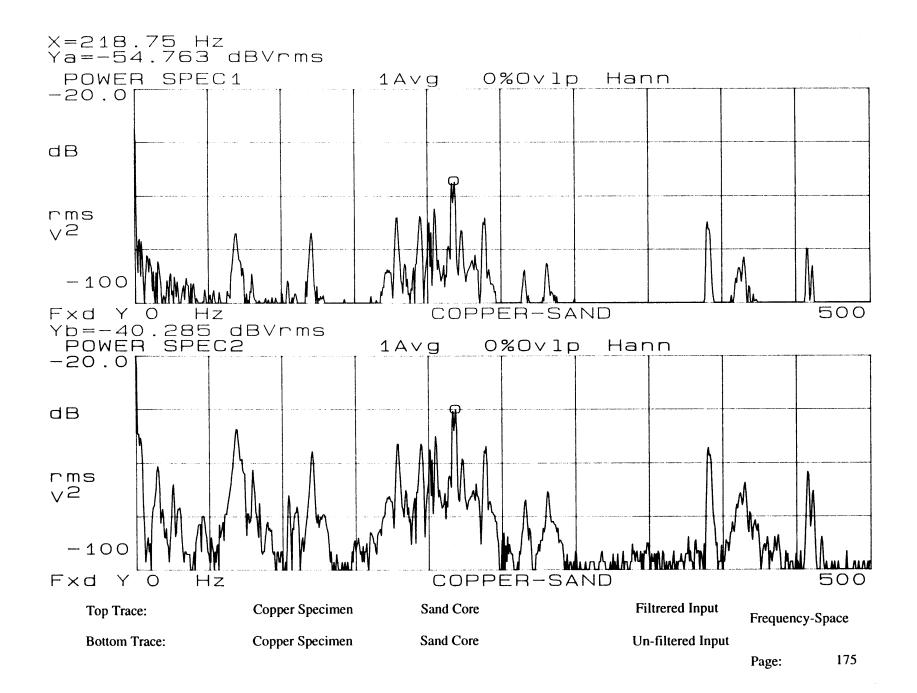


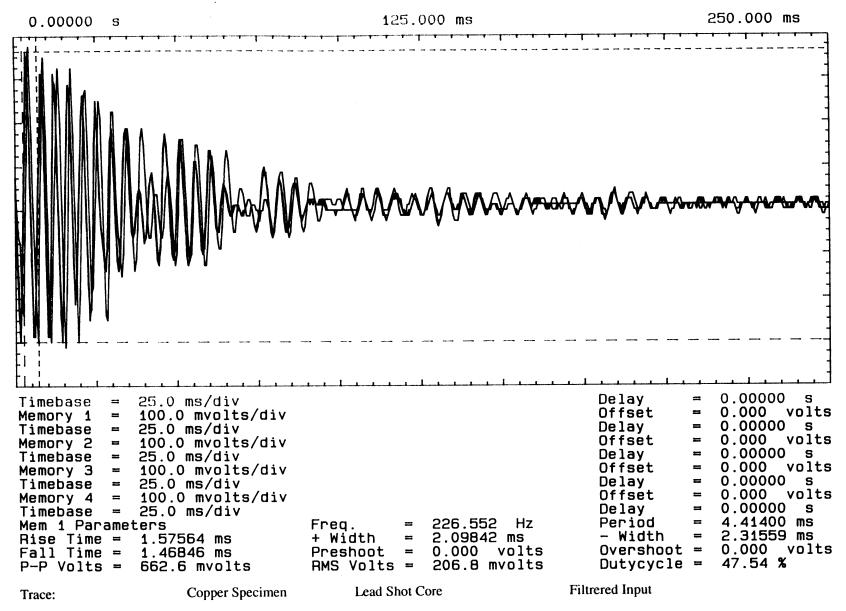


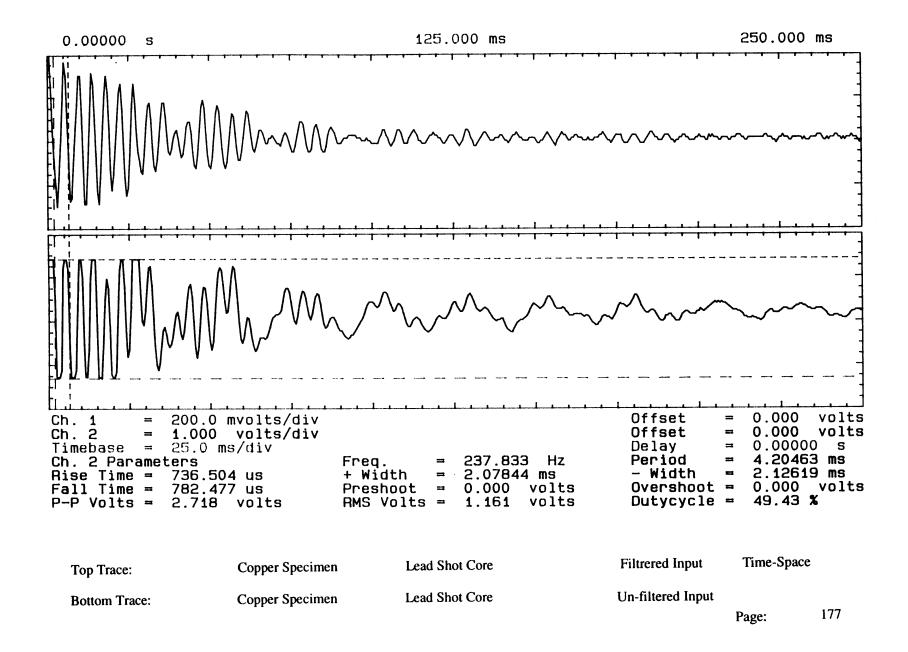


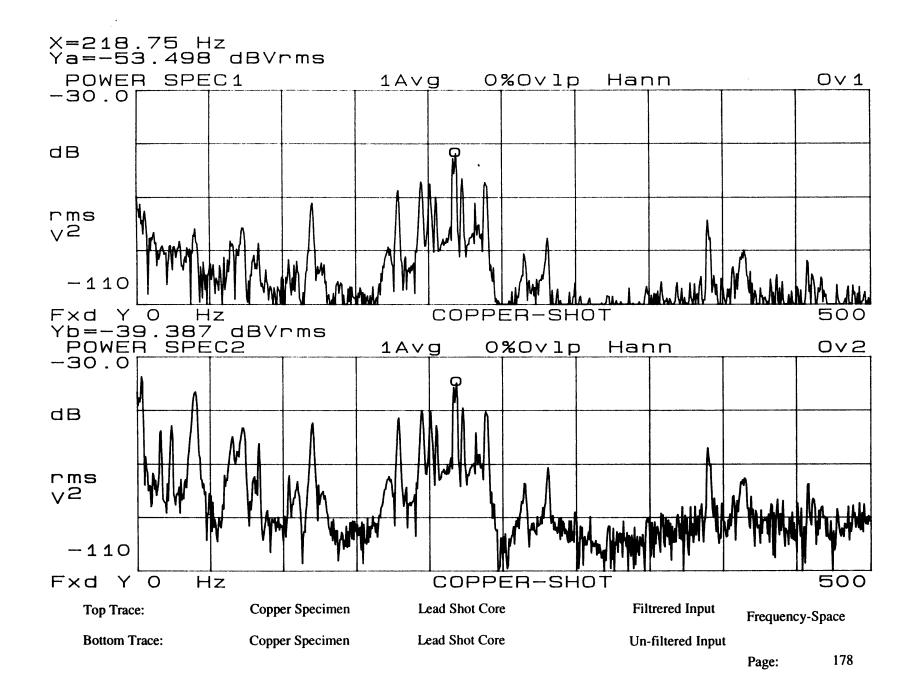


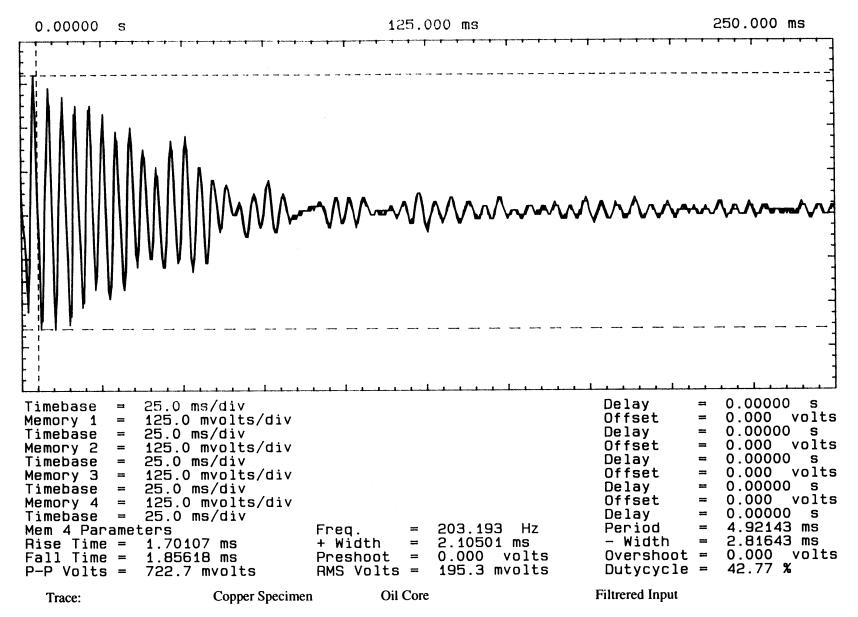


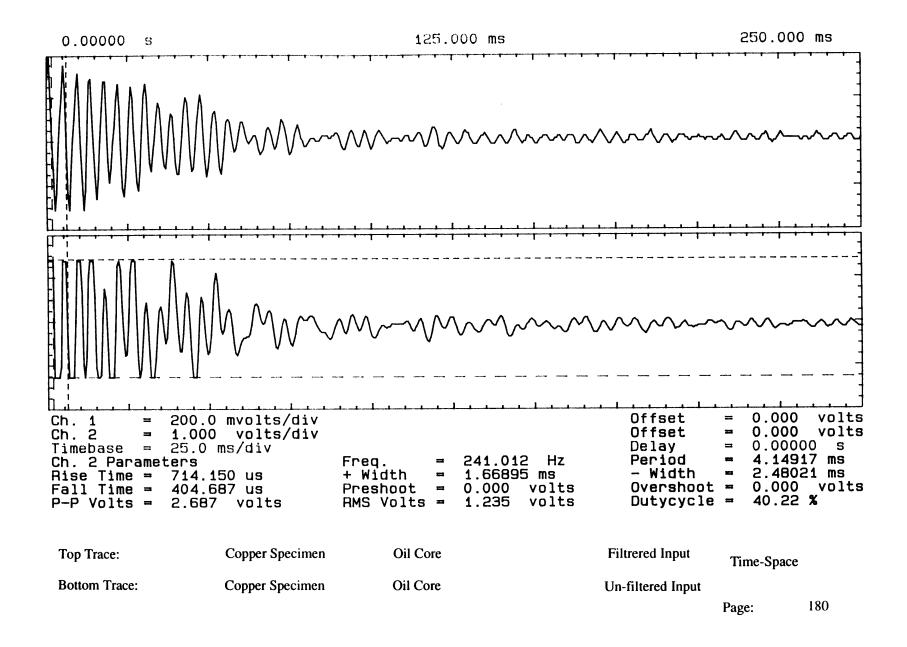


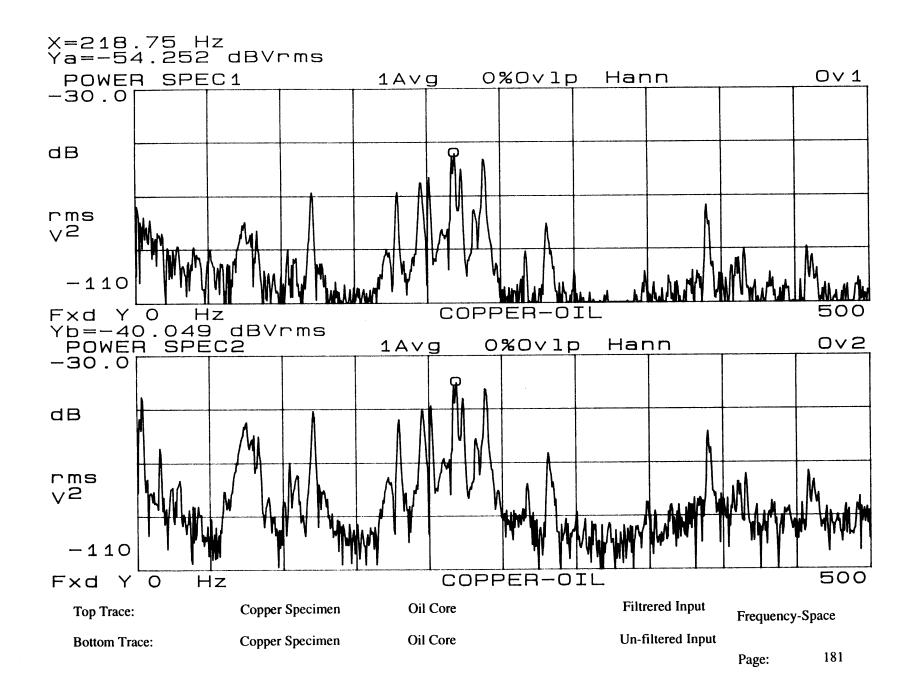


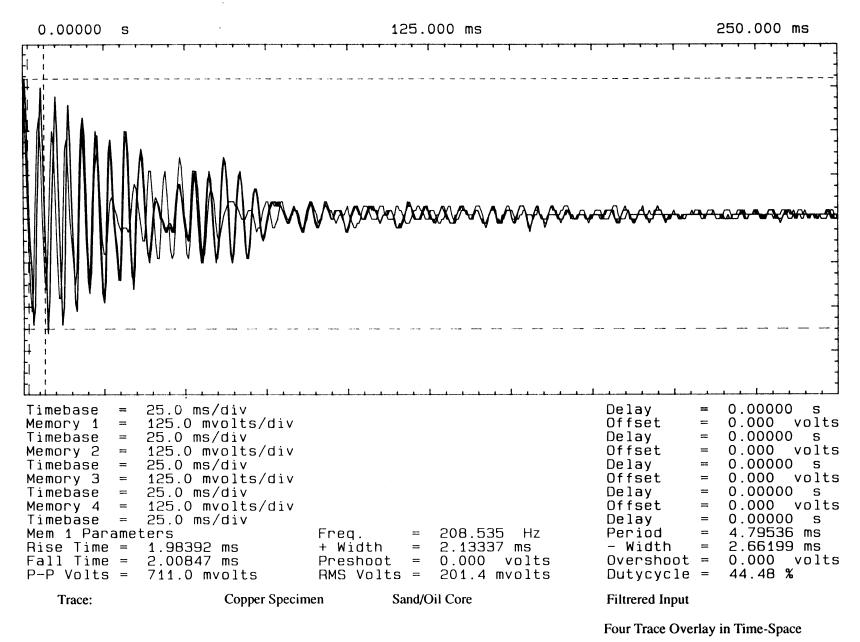


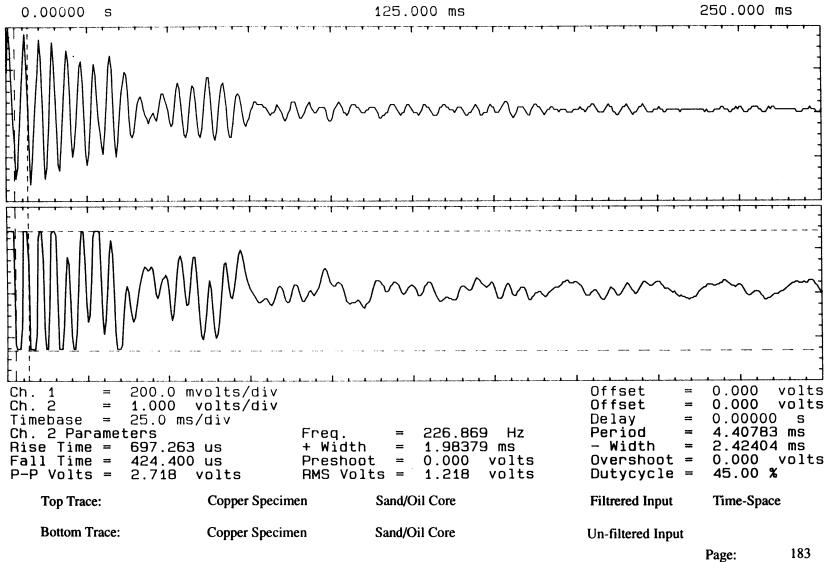


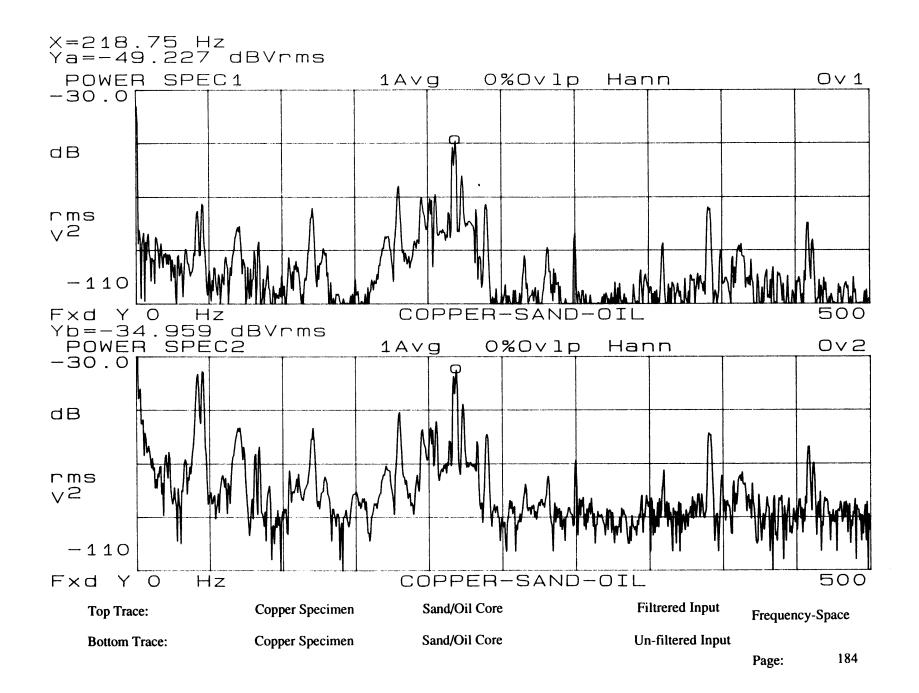


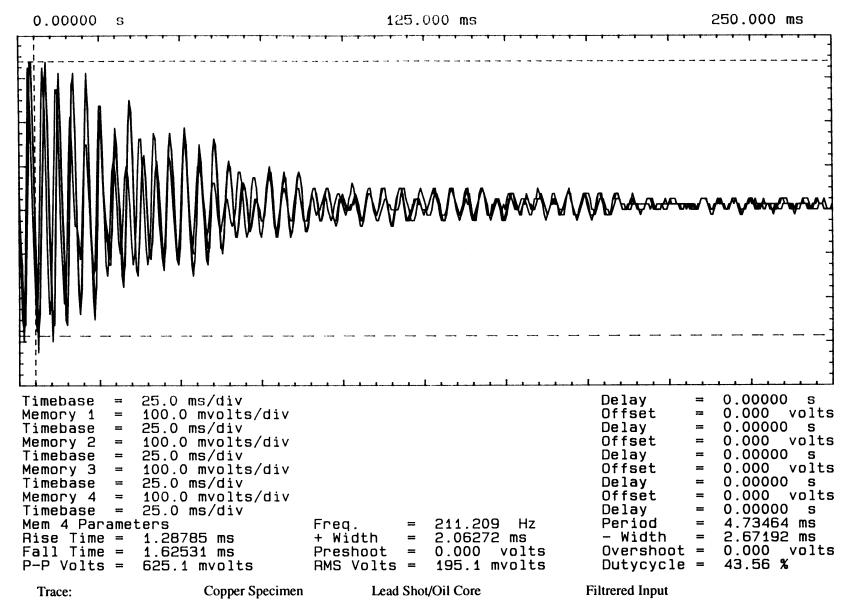


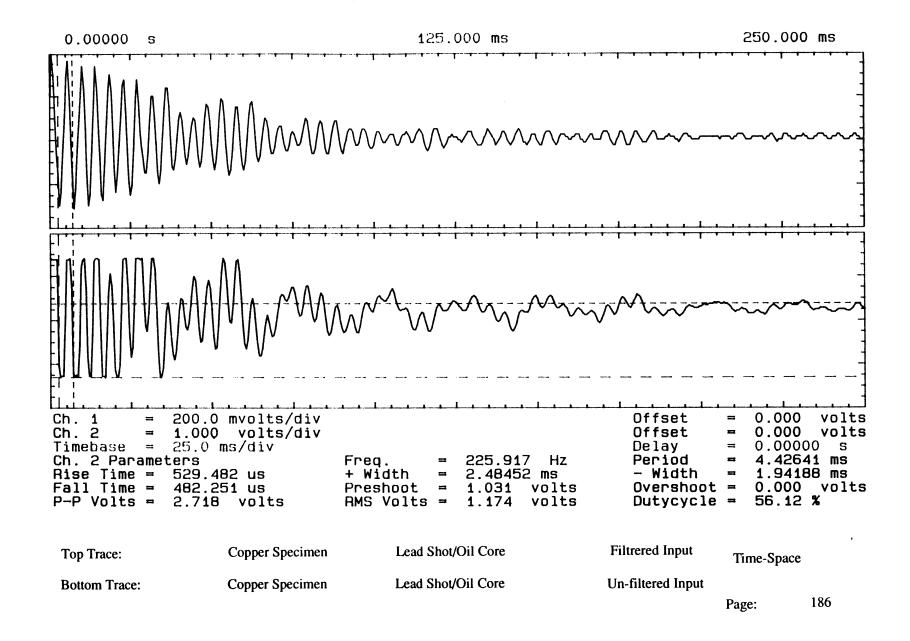


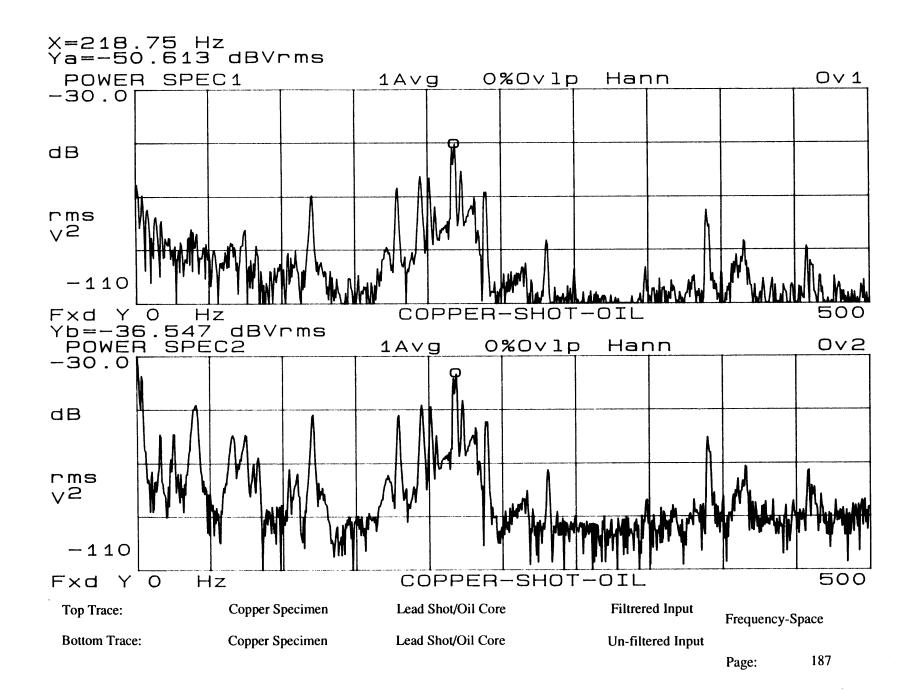


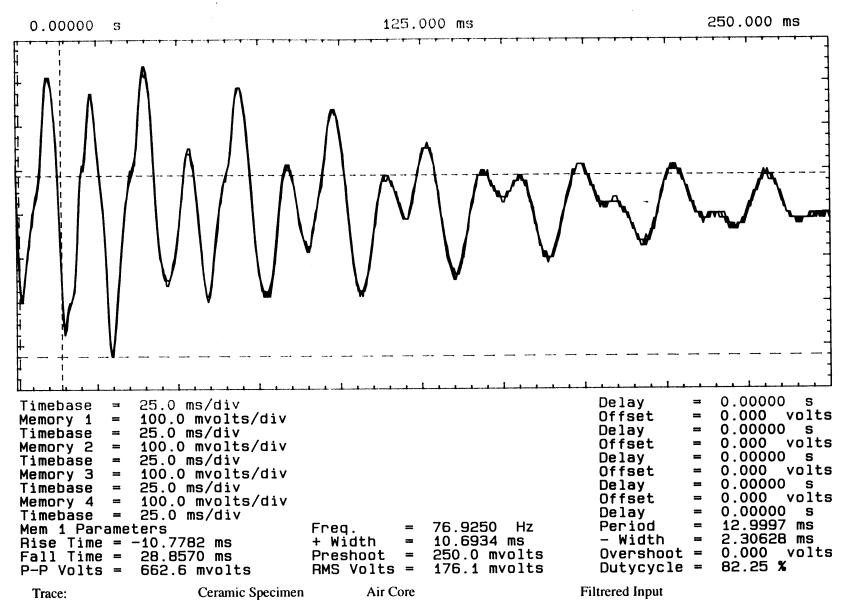


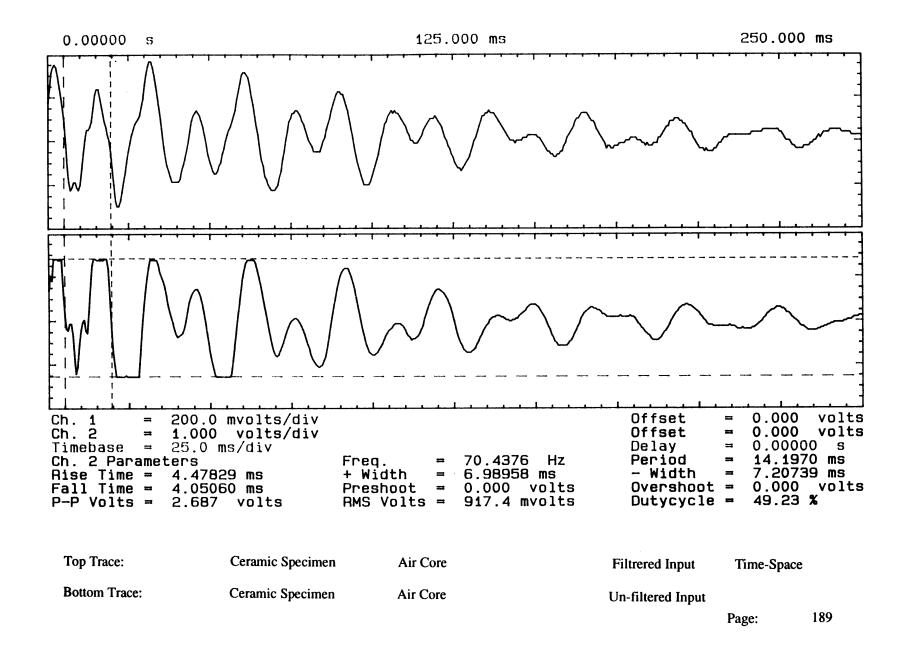


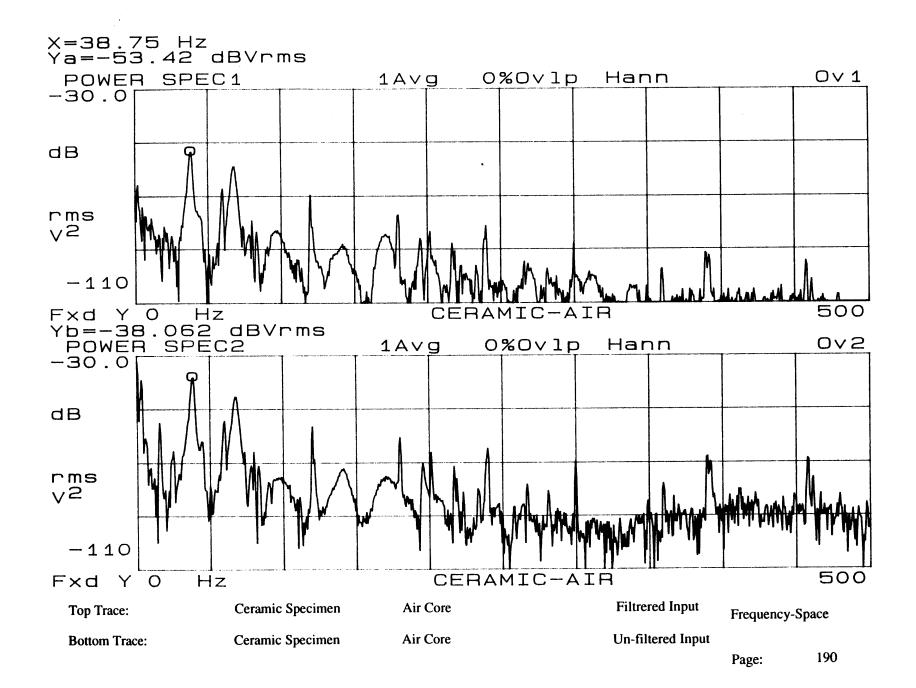


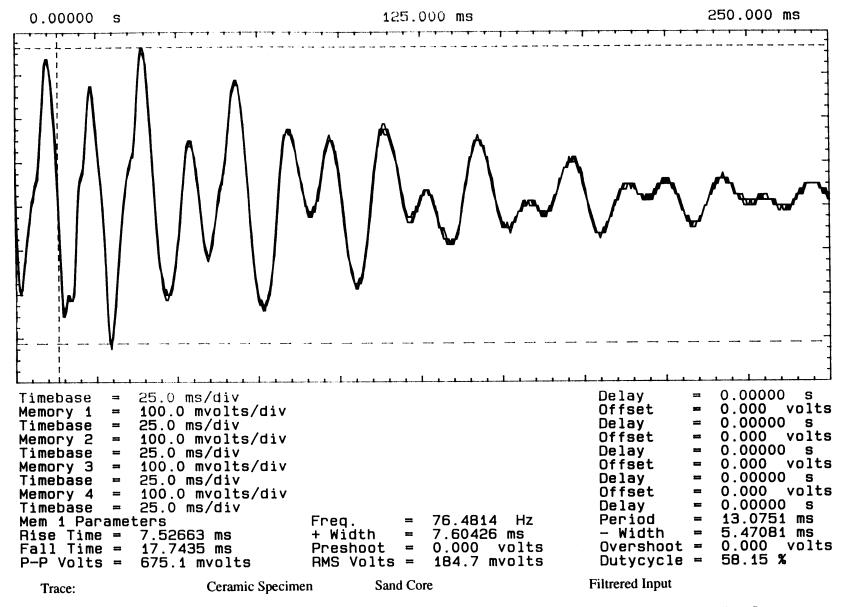


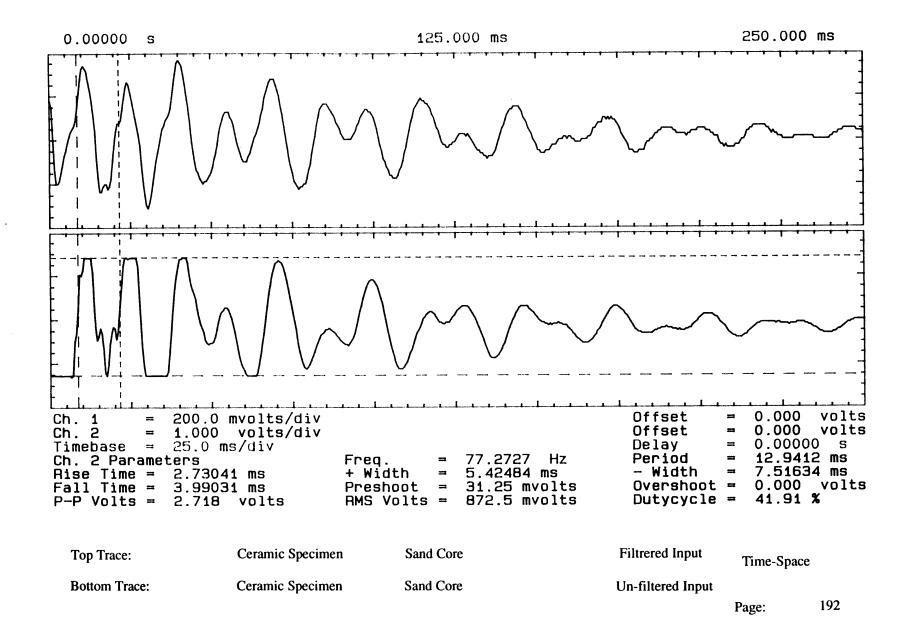


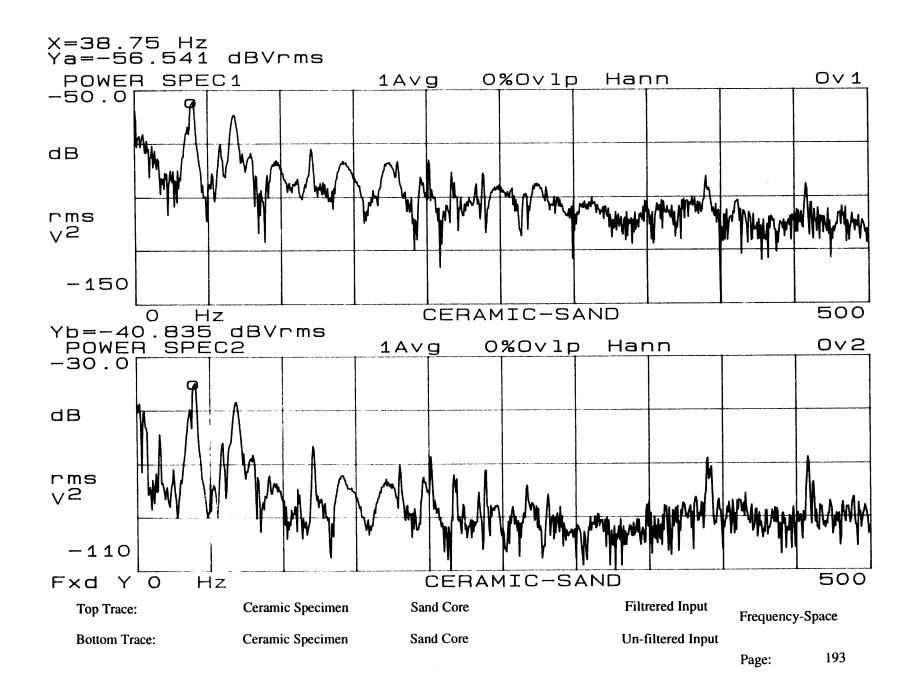


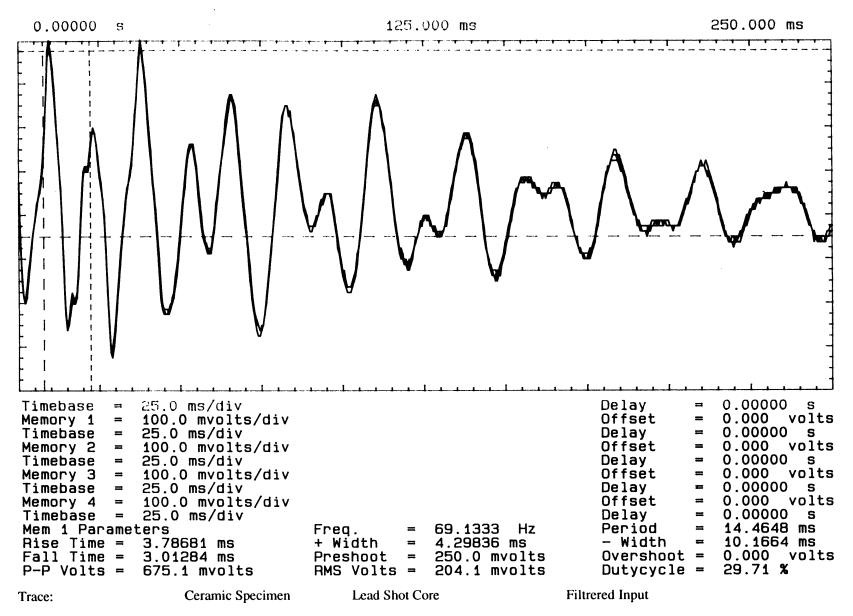


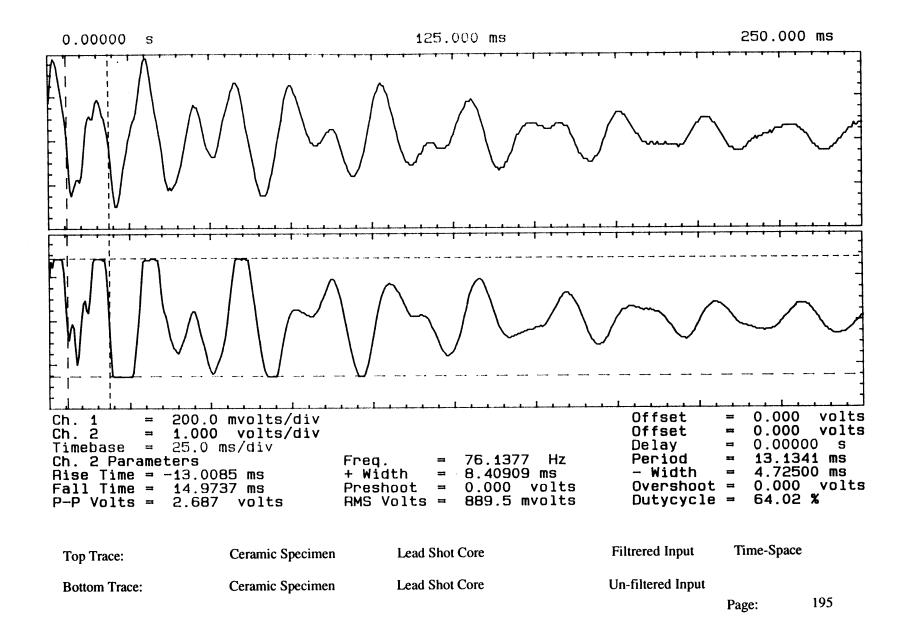


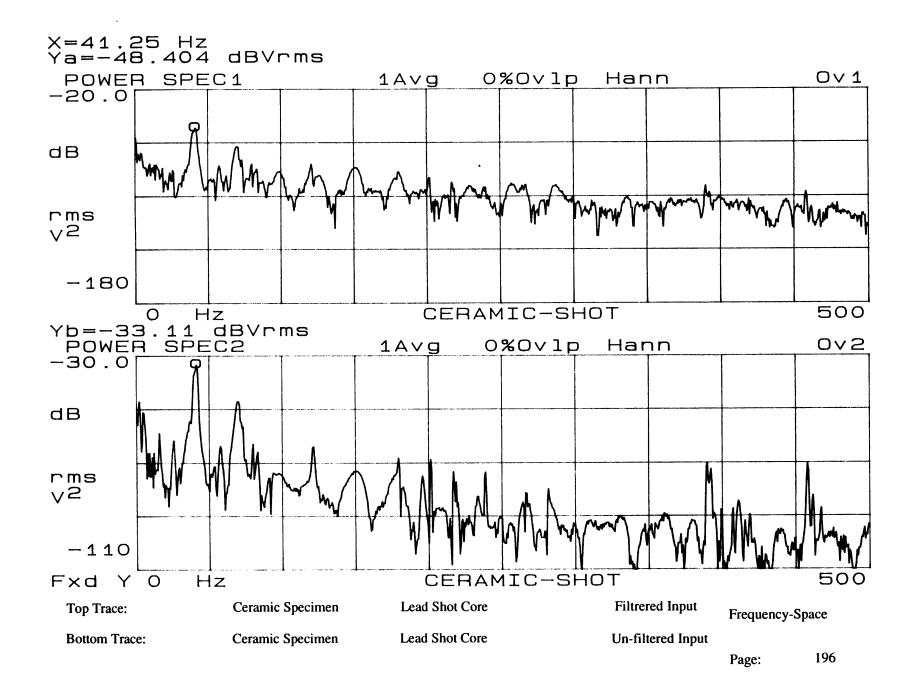


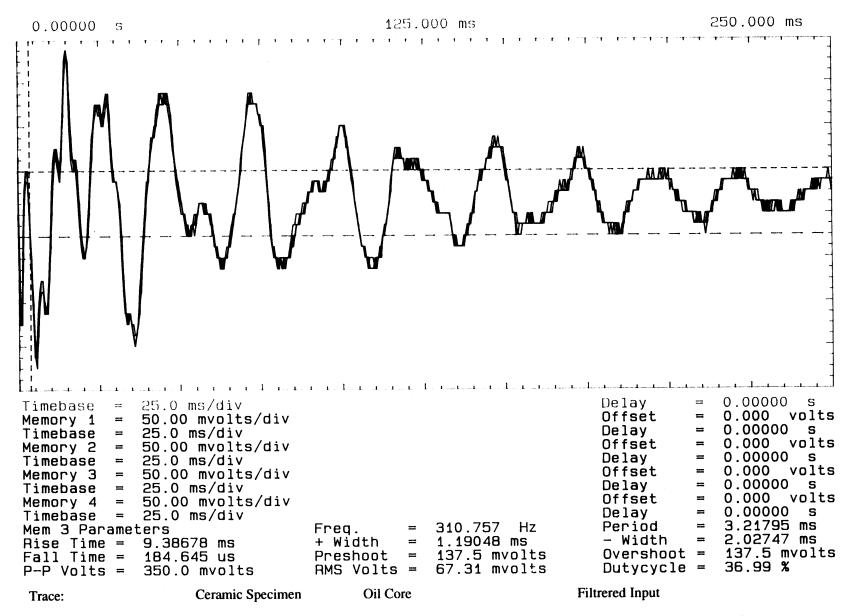


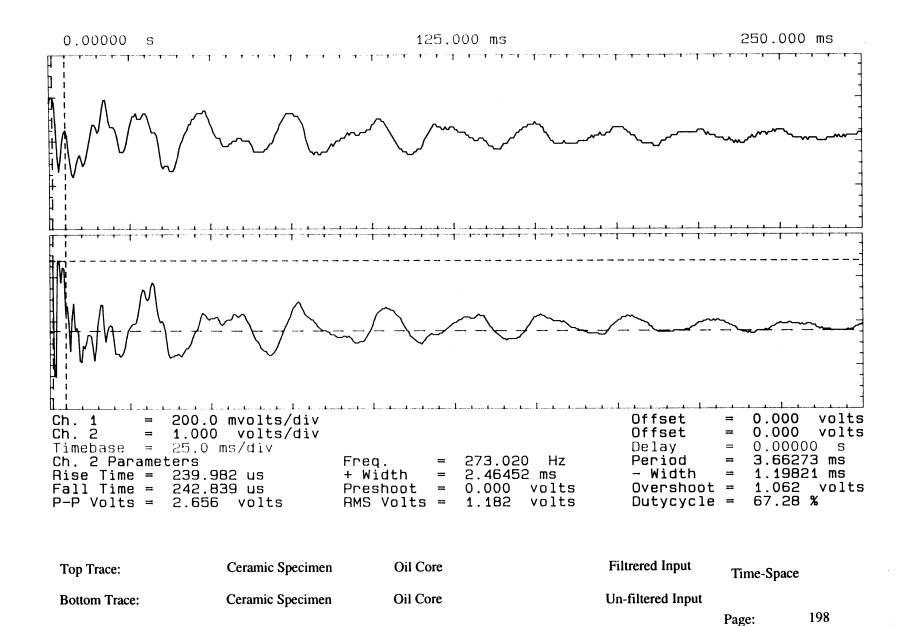


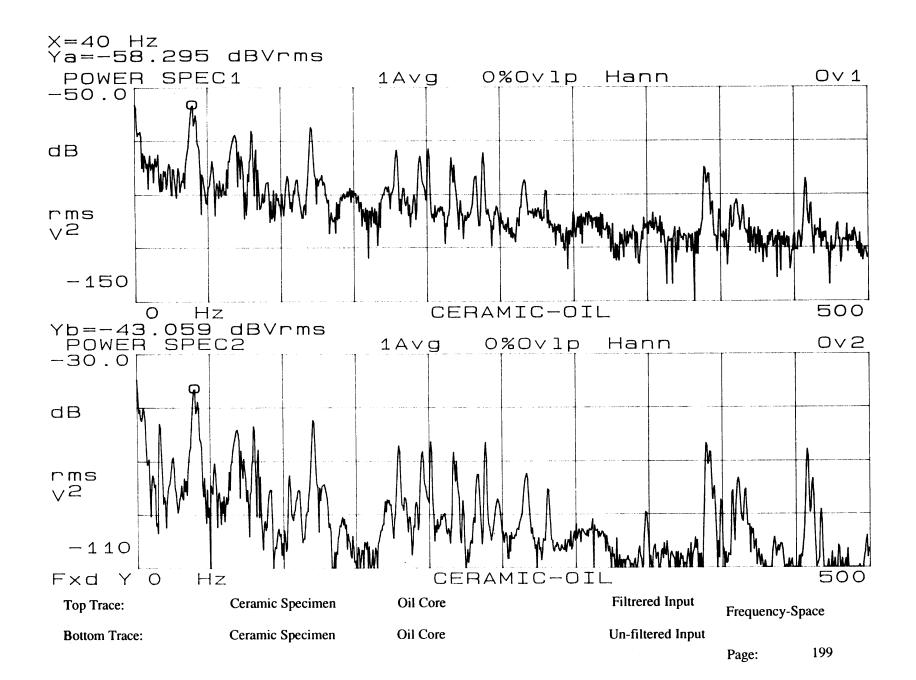


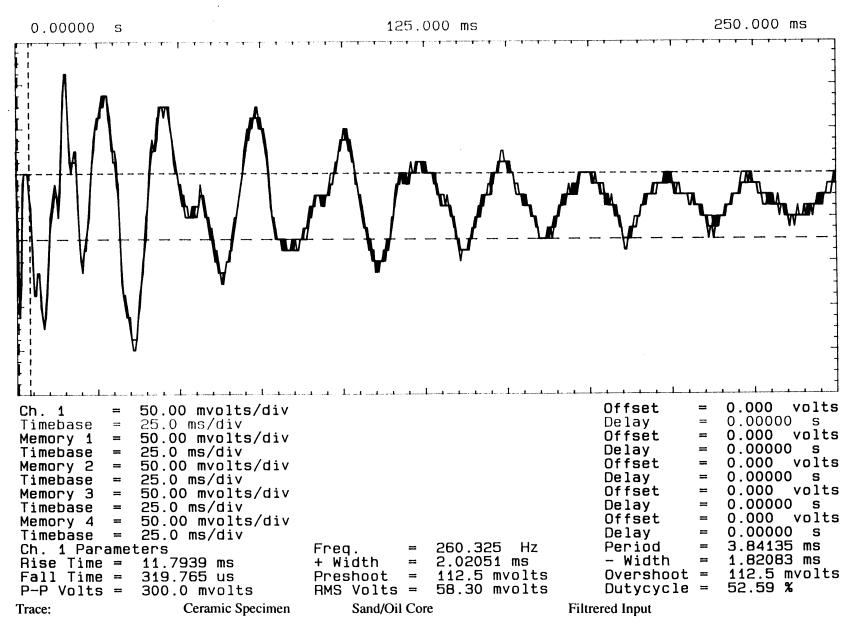


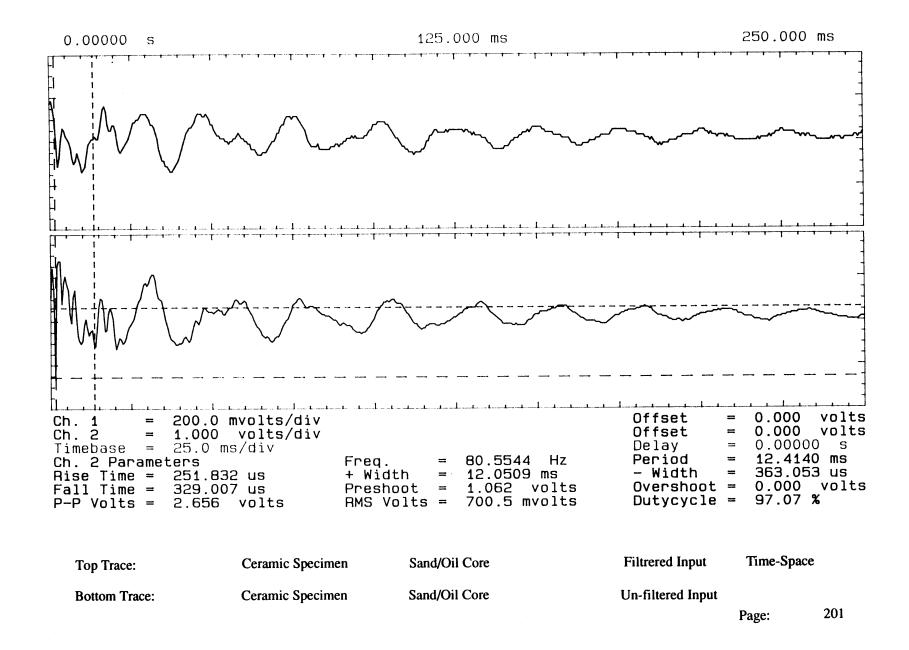


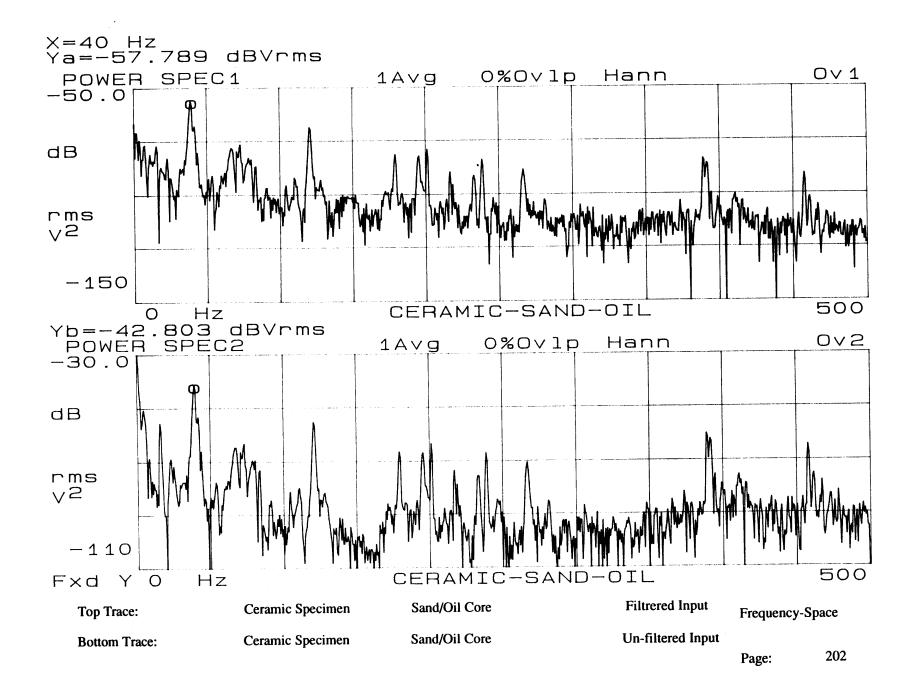


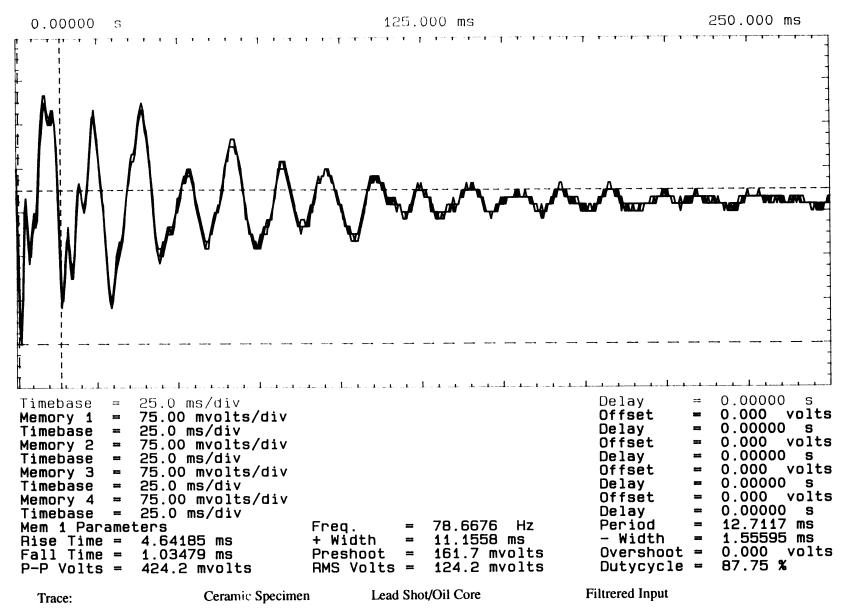


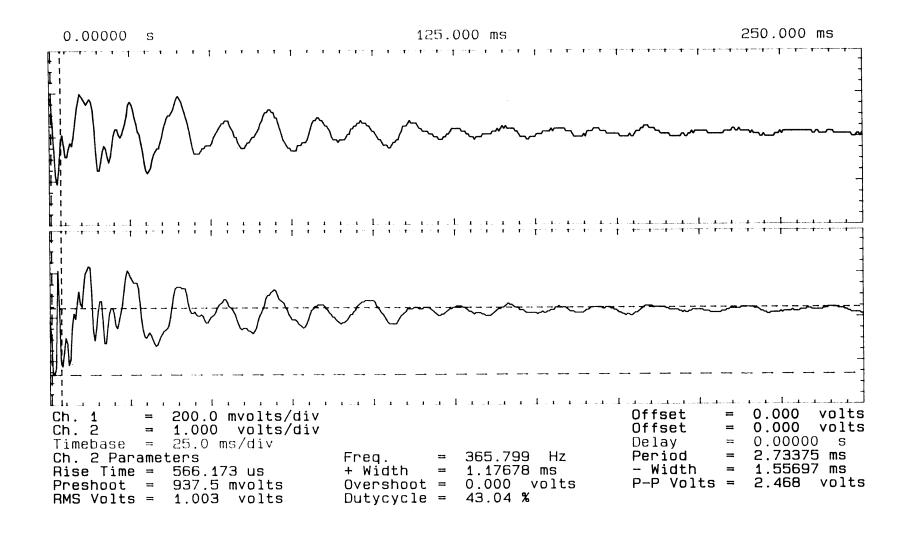






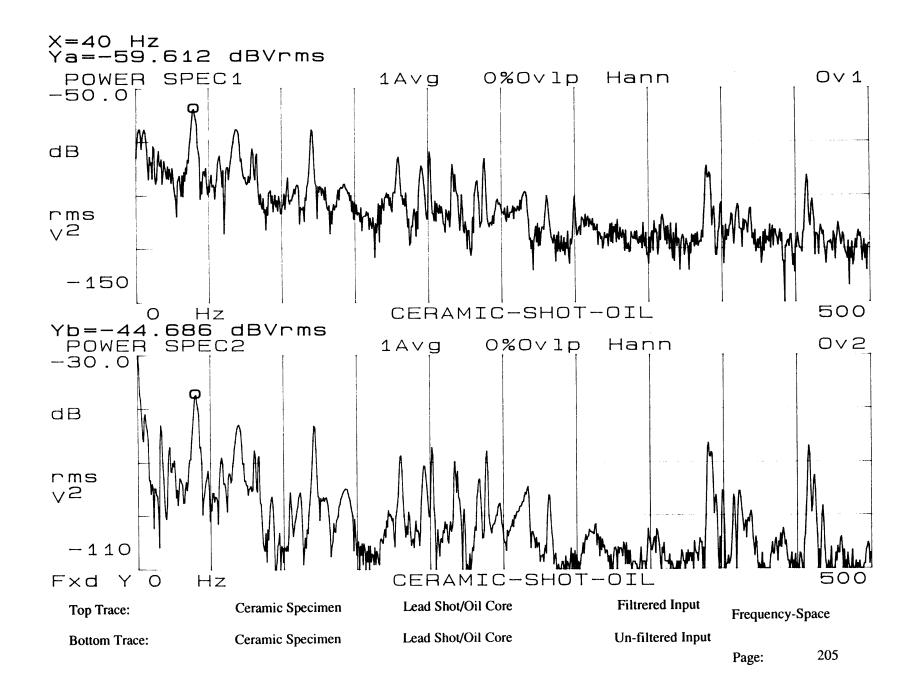


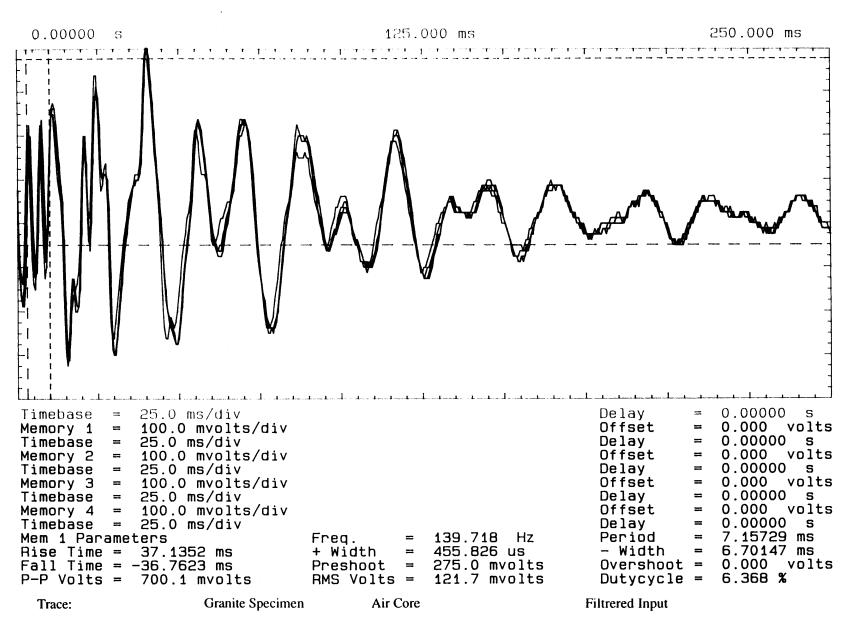


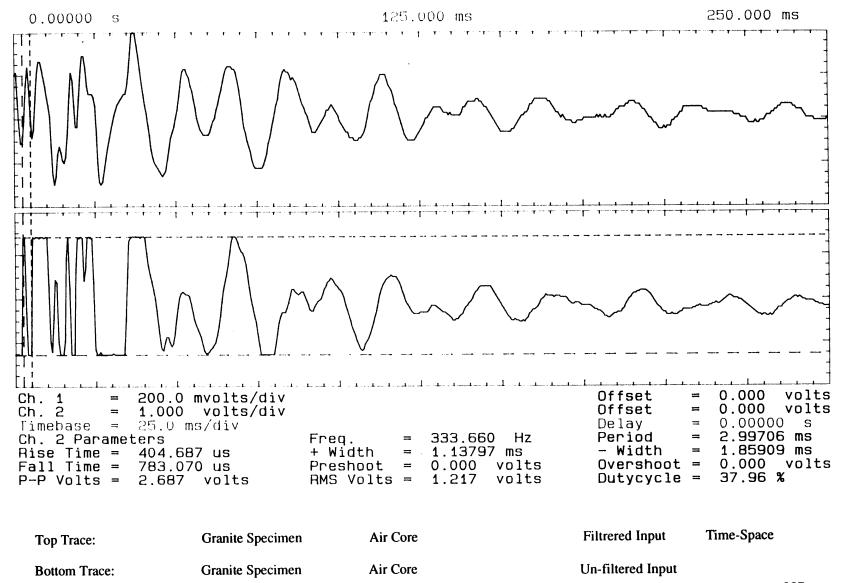


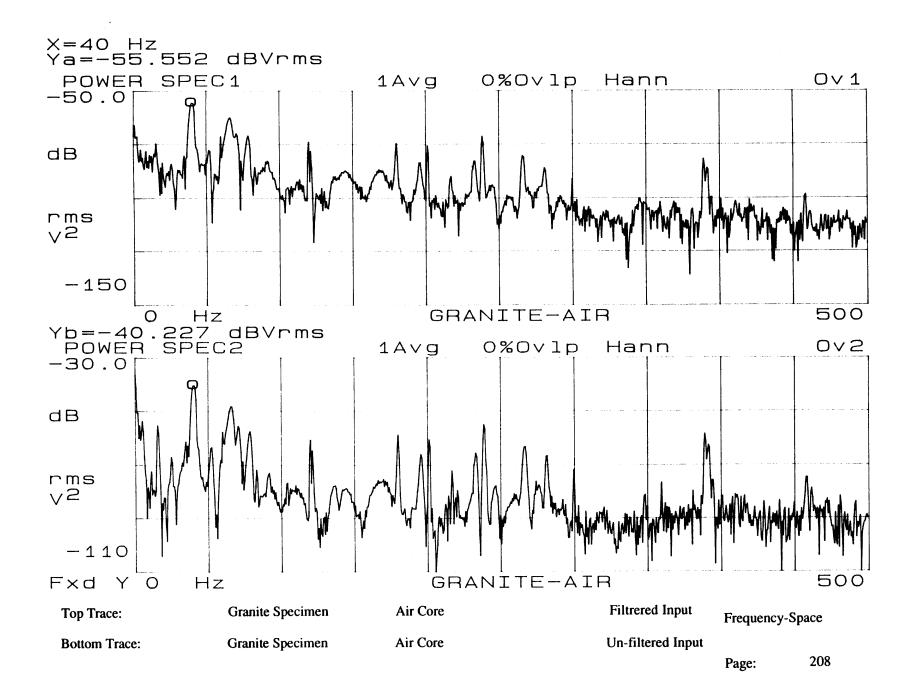
 Top Trace:
 Ceramic Specimen
 Lead Shot/Oil Core
 Filtrered Input
 Time-Space

 Bottom Trace:
 Ceramic Specimen
 Lead Shot/Oil Core
 Un-filtered Input
 Page: 204

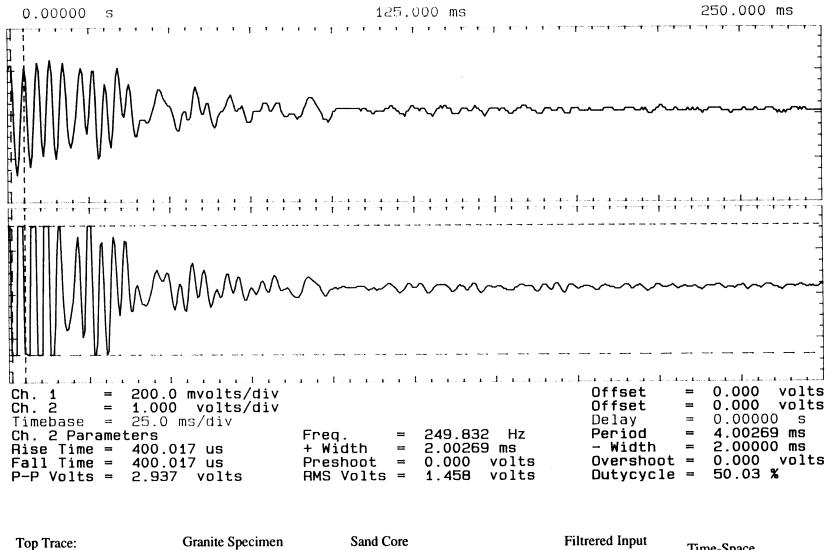






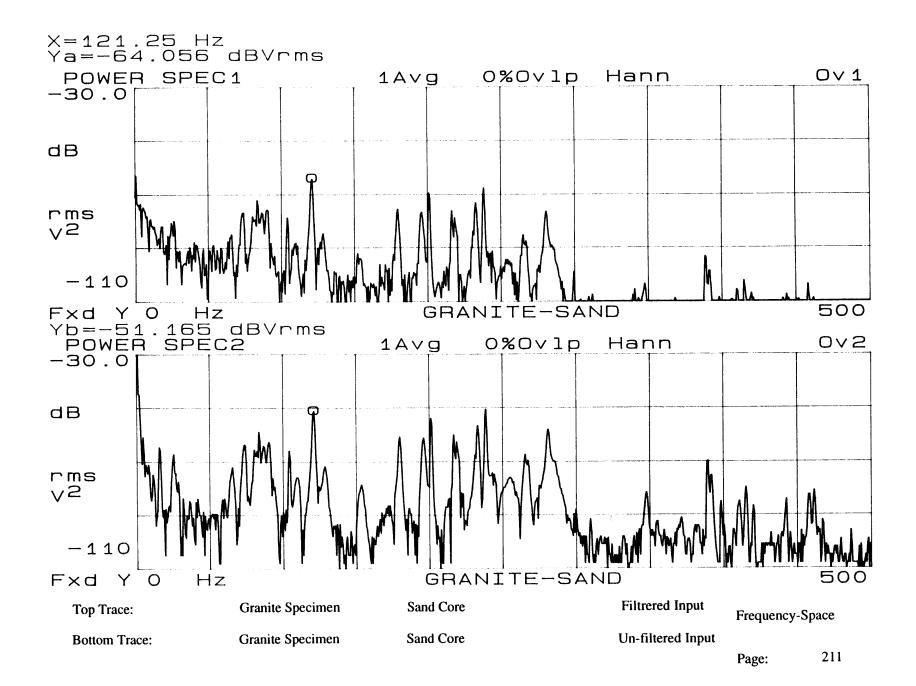


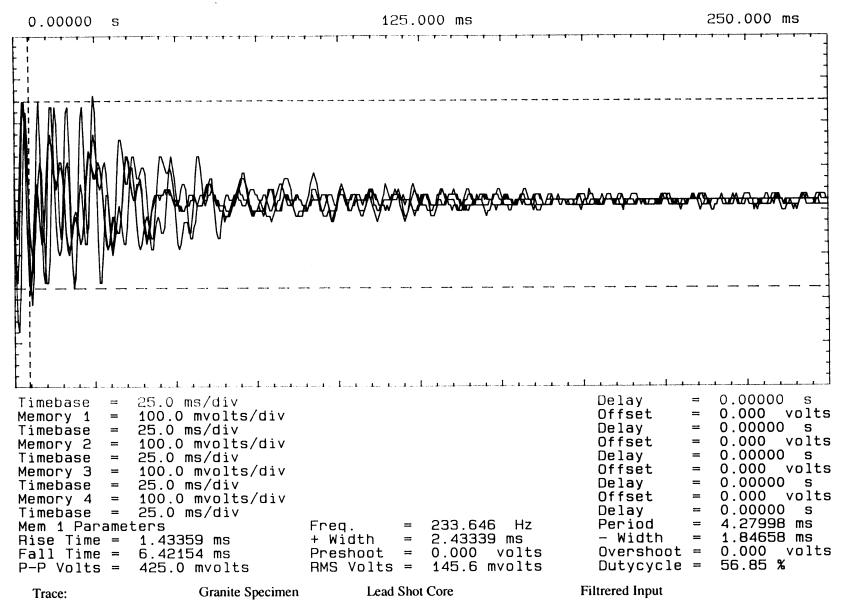
0.00000 s)00 ms		250.000 ms
Timebase = Memory 1 = Timebase = Memory 2 = Timebase = Memory 3 = Timebase = Memory 4 = Timebase = Mem 3 Paramet Rise Time = Fall Time = P-P Volts =	-2.86227 ms 4.99932 ms 425.0 mvolts	Freq. = + Width = Preshoot = RMS Volts =	179.370 Hz 2.44944 ms 0.000 volts 127.2 mvolts	Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Offset = Delay = Period = - Width = Overshoot = Dutycycle =	0.00000 s 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.000 volts 0.0000 s 5.57508 ms 3.12564 ms 0.000 volts 43.93 %
Trace:	Granite Specimen	Sand Core		Filtrered Input	

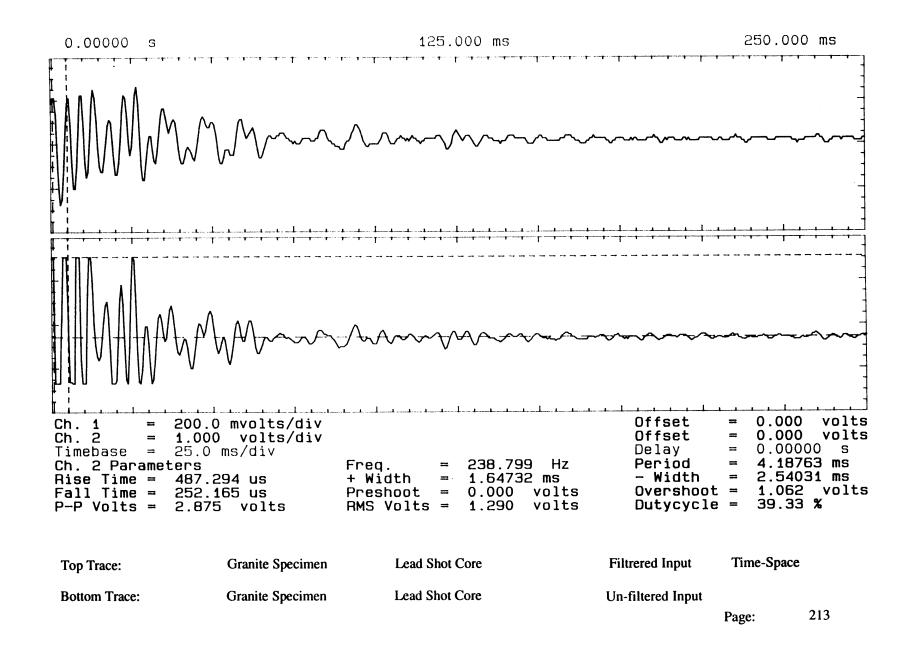


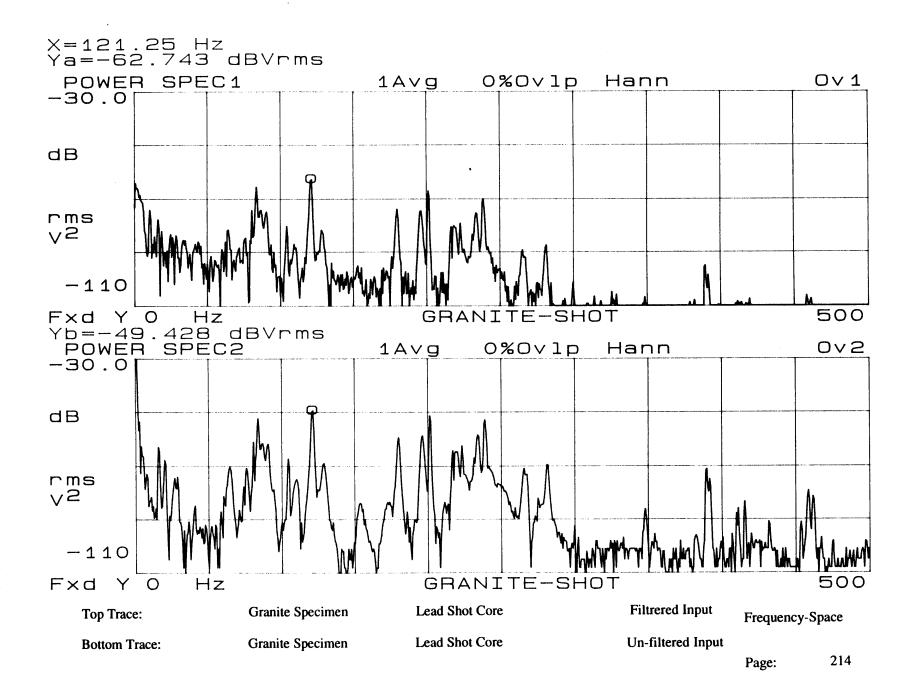
Top Trace:Granite SpecimenSand CoreFiltered liputTime-SpaceBottom Trace:Granite SpecimenSand CoreUn-filtered Input

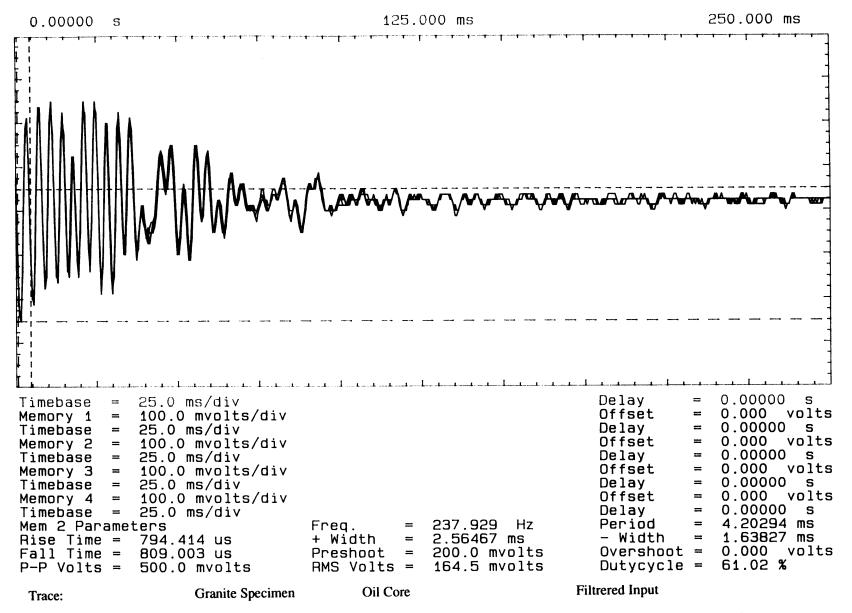
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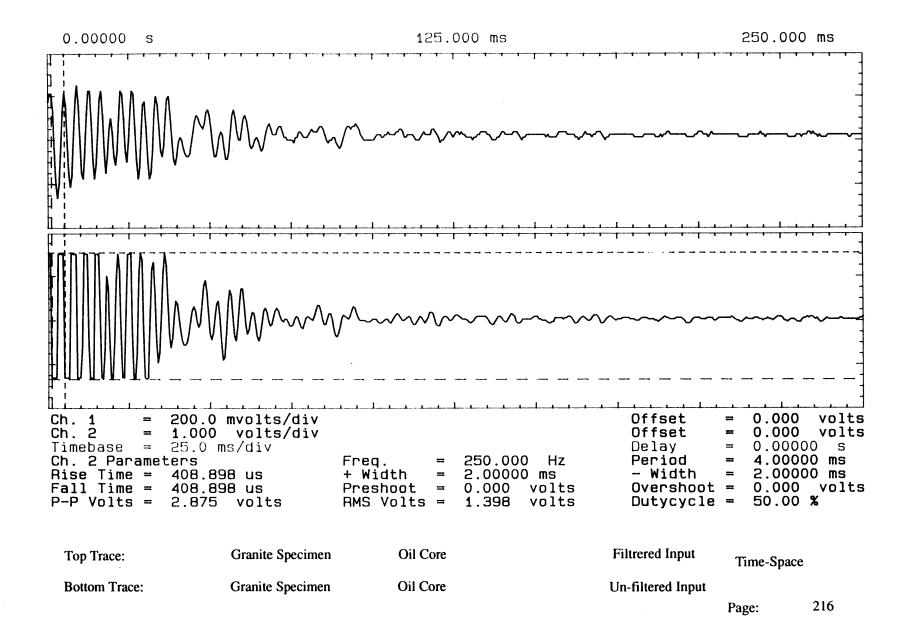


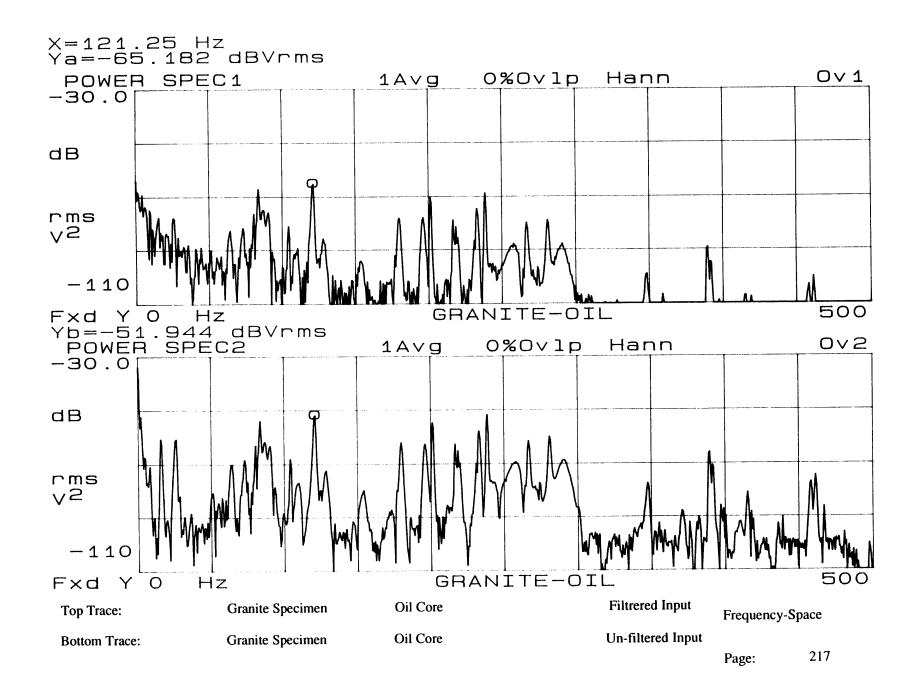


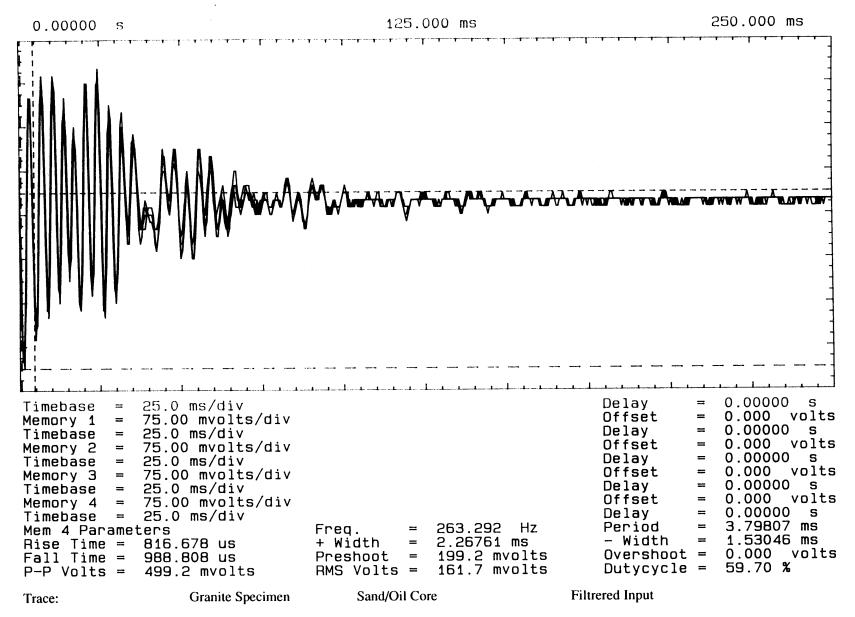


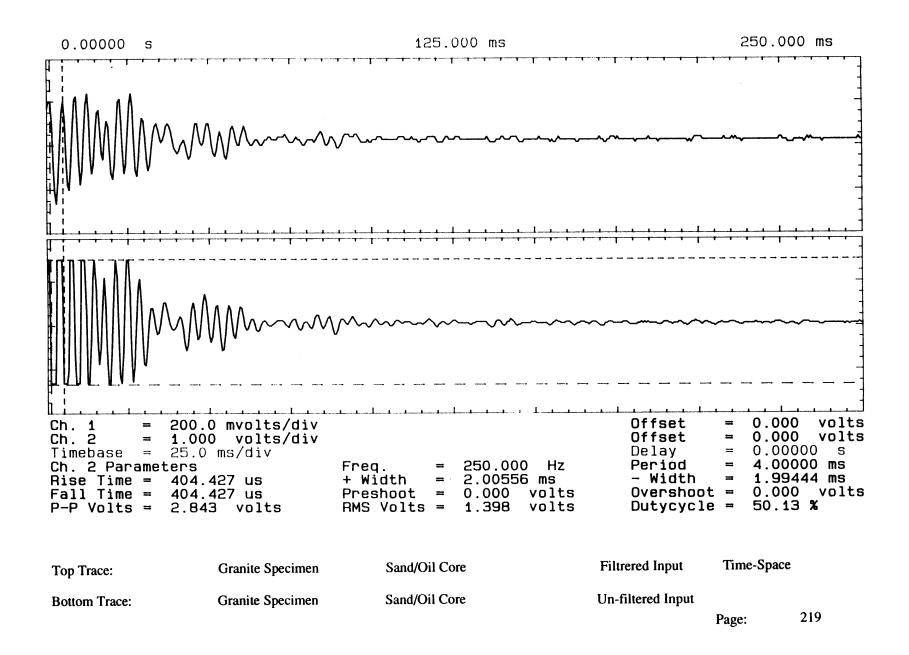


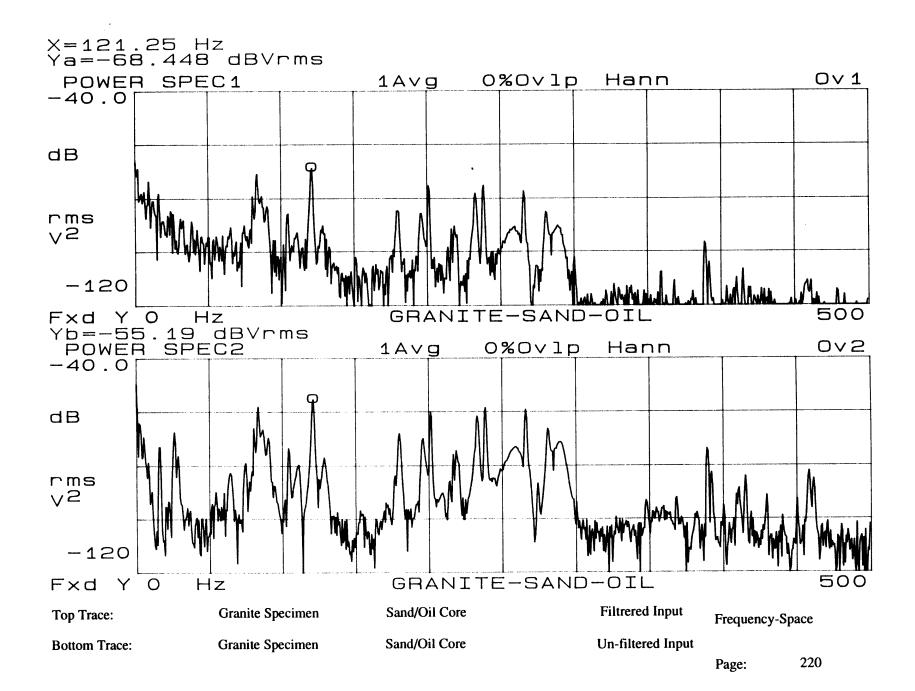


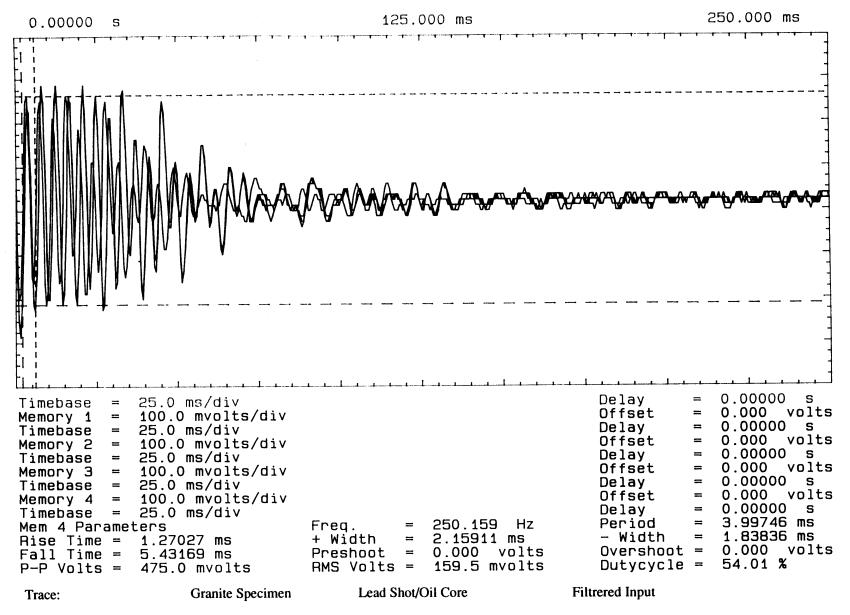


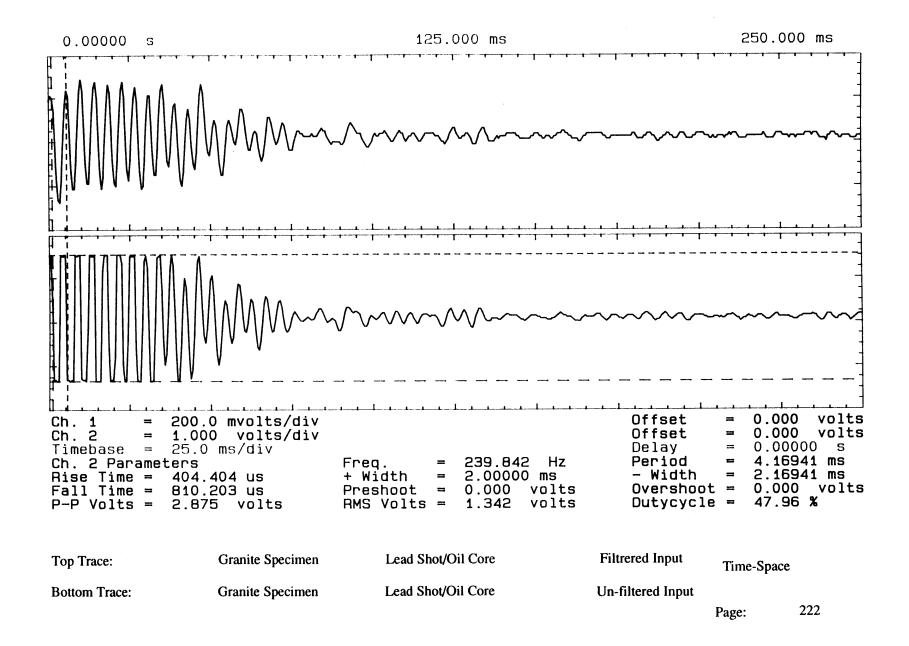


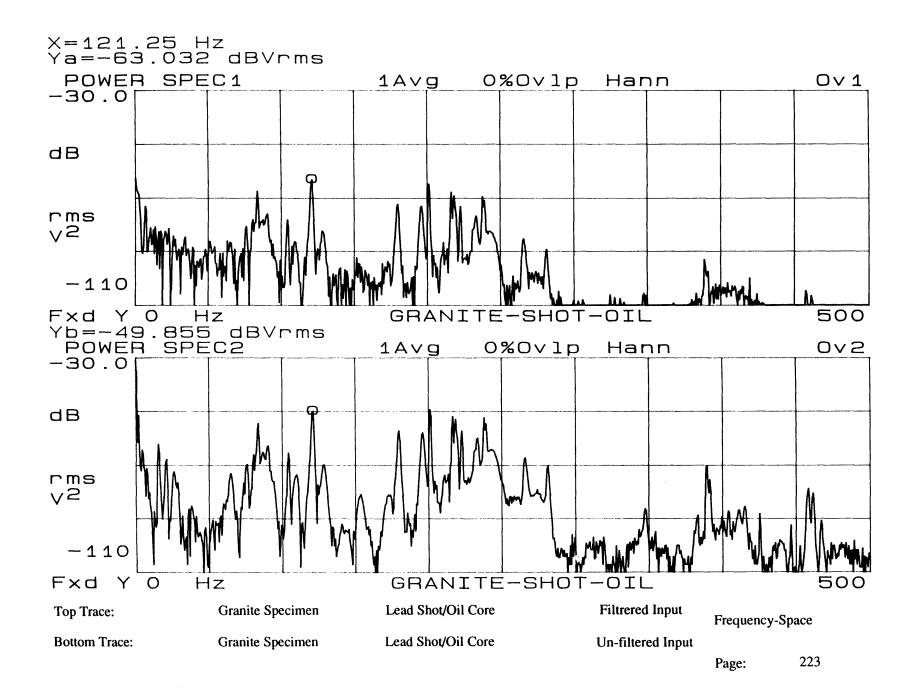












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