

## High bandwidth tunability in a smart vibration absorber

Alison B. Flatau,<sup>†</sup> Marcelo J. Dapino<sup>††</sup> and Frederick T. Calkins<sup>‡</sup>

<sup>†,††</sup>Aerospace Engr. & Engr. Mechanics, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011

<sup>‡</sup>Boeing Information, Space and Defense Systems, Phantom Works, Seattle WA 98124-2499

### ABSTRACT

The theory of an electrically tunable Terfenol-D vibration absorber is developed in this paper. An overview of magnetostriction including discussion of the  $\Delta E$  effect is presented. Experimental results showing agreement with prior art are included that demonstrate electrical control of a magnetostrictive actuator resonant frequency by varying the resonance between 1275 Hz and 1725 Hz. The tunability of the transducer resonant frequency is then implemented to achieve high bandwidth tunability in the performance of a Terfenol-D vibration absorber.

**Keywords:** vibration absorber, magnetostriction, magnetostrictive transducer

### 1. BACKGROUND

A passive tuned vibration absorber in its most basic design is a single degree of freedom spring-mass-damper oscillator [1]. The absorber's fixed-free resonant frequency is "tuned" to match that of the undesired vibrations it is to "absorb", and it is attached to the structure with excessive vibration characteristics. The frequency response of the structure to which the absorber is attached will exhibit an antiresonance at the fixed-free resonant frequency of the absorber. In other words, the structure to which the absorber is attached will exhibit a reduction in the vibration level per input force at the frequency to which the absorber has been tuned. A decrease in the absorber's damping increases vibration attenuation over the bandwidth of the antiresonant response. An increase in the absorber's mass increases the separation between this antiresonant frequency and the nearest system resonant frequencies.

Passive tuned vibration absorbers are typically used for narrow band attenuation of undesired vibrations centered at the resonant frequency of the absorber. Tuned vibration absorbers have been used to reduce undesirable vibrations for a variety of applications since the late 1800s [2]. Recent work [3-7] on design and application of adaptive or "tunable" vibration absorbers examines the use of more complex absorbers; absorbers that can be tuned to more than one resonant frequency and hence are capable of providing vibration absorption at multiple frequencies. Following this vein of research, a tunable vibration absorber employing highly magnetostrictive Terfenol-D has been developed [8].

The tunable vibration absorber considered here consists of a Terfenol-D core, a wound wire solenoid, magnetic circuit components, an adjustable mechanical prestress mechanism, and an application specific mass load. The magnetoelastic properties of Terfenol-D lead to changes in its elastic modulus with magnetic bias, known as the  $\Delta E$  effect, in which the modulus can vary by over 160% [9]. Control of the absorber core's elastic modulus is accomplished by varying the current into the solenoid, which varies the magnetic bias seen by the Terfenol-D core. A tunable Terfenol-D vibration absorber is a particularly attractive alternative to existing technologies due to the ease with which large variations in the absorber resonance can be achieved through easily implemented changes in the applied DC magnetic field.

### 2. MAGNETOSTRICTION AND TERFENOL-D

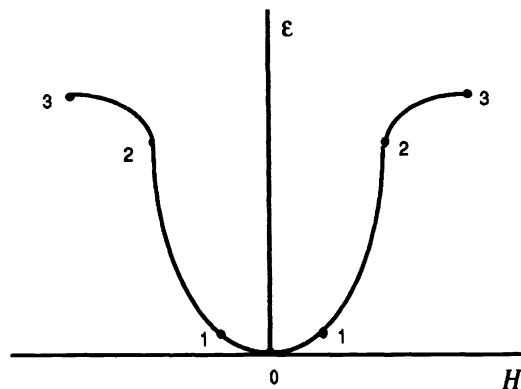
Magnetostriction is the change in a material's elastic state that accompanies a change in its magnetization. The change in magnetization can be caused by the application of an external magnetic field, mechanical stress, or temperature. The magnetostrictive effect is in fact reciprocal; changes in the magnetization state produce strains and hence stresses (direct or Joule effect), whereas application of stresses generates changes in the magnetization state of the material (inverse or Villari effect) [10]. For actuation purposes, a changing external magnetic field is used to alter the internal magnetic and magnetostrictive state, thus producing force and/or strain as mechanical system output. For the case of a vibration absorber, an external magnetic field is used to provide a modulus change in the magnetostrictive material, with little regard to its output strain or force. Although typically a negligible effect, note that motion of the absorber and any attached mass loads will apply a dynamic mechanical stress to the magnetostrictive core material and thereby has the potential to influence the magnetization of the material through the inverse effect cited above. This motion does provide a back emf or a voltage in the solenoid that provides a measure of the absorber motion.

In the early 1970s, the search for a material that exhibited large magnetostriction at room temperature grew out of the discovery of the extraordinary magnetic and magnetoelastic properties of rare earths. In particular, hexagonal terbium and dysprosium were found to have basal plane strains on the order of 1% at very low temperatures. Unfortunately their magnetostriction reduced significantly near room temperature. However, rare earth intermetallics of terbium or samarium containing iron were highly magnetostrictive above 180° K. Partial substitution of other rare earths, such as dysprosium, for terbium in the *Tb-Fe* compound resulted in improvements in magnetic and mechanical properties. The stoichiometry of *Tb-Dy-Fe* that became known as Terfenol-D (terbium: Ter, iron: Fe, Naval Ordnance Laboratory: NOL, dysprosium: D) is given by  $Tb_x Dy_{1-x} Fe_y$ , where  $x = 0.3$  and  $y = 2.0$  [11].

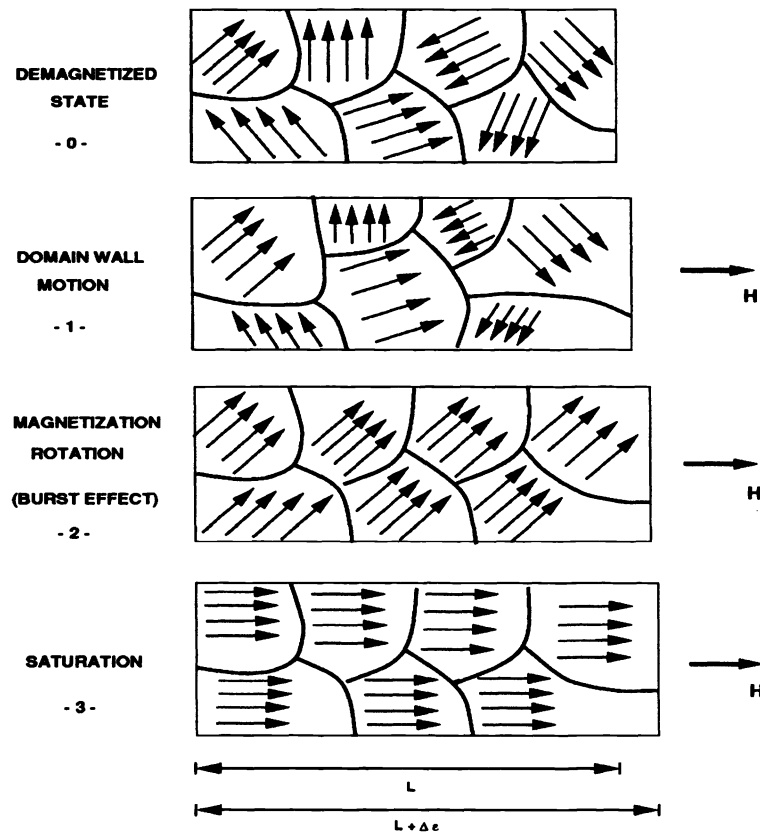
Terfenol-D provides a huge increase in strain capability, energy density, magnetomechanical damping, and sensitivity to stress over prior magnetostrictive materials such as nickel [12-16]. In addition, Terfenol-D offers a very rich performance space given the sensitivity of performance to operating conditions, as explored in [17]. This is particularly important for design of vibration absorbers, where the sensitivity of Young's modulus to the specific operating conditions and in particular to changes in magnetic bias are used for tuning the absorber to desired frequencies.

As with all ferromagnetic materials (i.e. nickel, iron, cobalt, etc), the application of an external magnetic field magnetizes the material by causing alignment of atomic magnetization vectors. This magnetization results in a form of strain known as field induced magnetostriction. A strain-applied field curve typical of Terfenol-D transducers field induced magnetostriction is shown in Figure 1, where for simplicity, hysteresis effects have been neglected. Three distinct magnetization regimes make up this curve [18]. In the low strain, low field regime (points 0-1), magnetic domain wall motion occurs. In the "burst" region, where the strain-field slope is maximum (points 1-2), magnetic domain rotation between magnetically easy axes occurs. In the saturation regime, as the strain response approaches its saturation limit (points 2-3), magnetic domain rotation away from magnetically easy axes into alignment with the applied field direction occurs.

A cartoon depicting the initial magnetization along with magnetization as a result of these three magnetization processes is given in Figures 2(a-d). The demagnetized state represented in Figure 2(a) shows that the material is composed of regions of permanently aligned magnetic moments, called domains, each one bearing a magnetization  $M_s$  (equal to what is called saturation magnetization) represented by the arrows. The magnetic domains are separated by thin transition regions called domain walls. In this configuration it is energetically favorable for the domain magnetizations to align randomly, thus causing the net magnetization in the material to be zero. When a small magnetic field is applied, the original energy balance is broken and the domain walls translate and bow to accommodate the new energy balance in the material, as shown in Figure 2(b). Domains that were initially oriented favorably with respect to the applied field grow at the expense of domains opposing the applied field. As the field is further increased into the burst region, the domain magnetizations lying along easy crystallographic axes nearly perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the rod "jump" to the easy axes nearly parallel to the field direction. This is depicted in Figure 2(c), where the magnetization vectors are parallel to one another but not quite oriented in the field direction. This configuration is achieved at values of the applied magnetic field known as critical field. In actuation devices, a magnetic bias nearly equal to the critical field is applied so as to center operation within the burst region. Finally, on application of a saturation field, the magnetization vectors are brought into complete alignment with the applied field direction as shown in Figure 2(d). The specific details on the domain processes taking place in each regime are also controlled by the crystal anisotropy, stress state, defects present in the material, and temperature as explained in detail in [10, 18-24].



**Figure 1.** Cartoon depicting typical strain-applied field relationship for magnetostrictive materials (neglecting hysteresis). Numbers 0-3 reflect strain at: no field, low field, critical field, and saturation field, respectively.



**Figure 2.** Magnetization processes in magnetostrictive materials. From top to bottom: (a) demagnetized state; (b) low strain region - domain wall motion; (c) burst region - domain rotation into easy axes closest to the applied field; (d) saturation magnetostriction region - domain rotation from easy axes into alignment with applied field.

### 3. YOUNG'S MODULUS AND THE $\Delta E$ EFFECT

The Young's modulus (or modulus of elasticity,  $E_Y$ ) is commonly used to quantify the stiffness of materials. Hooke's law defines the elastic modulus as the ratio between change in stress and change in strain in a material, with the modulus given in units of  $\text{N/m}^2$  (Pa) or psi ( $6.94 \text{ MPa} = 1 \text{ ksi}$ ). For conventional nonmagnetostrictive materials, the Hooke's law relationship provides a constant modulus in the elastic regime, i.e. in the linear portion of the stress-strain plot.

The definition of Young's modulus is however problematic for materials with actively induced strain such as Terfenol-D. The strain and stress states interact with each other in a classical or mechanical fashion, but their relationship is also coupled to the magnetization state of the material. The Young's modulus is consequently a function of the magnetic state of the material and hence it cannot be considered to be a constant.

The dual magnetostrictive process that relates the magnetic and mechanical states can be described with the two coupled linearized equations given by Eqns. 1(a,b). These equations of state for a magnetostrictive element are expressed in terms of mechanical parameters (strain  $\epsilon$ , stress  $\sigma$ , Young's modulus at constant applied magnetic field  $E_H$ ), magnetic parameters (applied magnetic field  $H$ , magnetic induction  $B$ , permeability at constant stress  $\mu^\sigma$ ), and two magnetomechanical coefficients (the strain coefficients  $d = (d\epsilon/dH)|_\sigma$  and  $d^* = (dB/d\sigma)|_H$ ).

$$\varepsilon = \sigma / E_Y^H + d H \quad 1(a)$$

$$B = d^* \sigma + \mu^0 H. \quad 1(b)$$

Note that when subject to a constant or negligible applied field  $H$ , Eqn. 1(a) yields the familiar linear Hooke's law relationship between stress and strain found in conventional nonmagnetostrictive materials. However, the uniquely large field-induced strain capability of Terfenol-D can produce strains of greater than 2000 microstrain, far more strain than can be produced through the application of tensile or compressive stresses. Thus, the effective modulus of the material, as change in strain for a given change in stress, is very sensitive to applied field. Furthermore, the strain coefficient,  $d$ , is dependent upon  $H$  to a first approximation. This situation gives the transducer/absorber designer extensive control of the system compliance by adjusting only one parameter, namely the applied magnetic field  $H$ .

For magnetostrictive materials, it is typical to reference two Young's moduli, one measured at constant applied magnetic field,  $E_Y^H$ , and one measured at constant magnetic induction,  $E_Y^B$ . In the first case, the modulus is measured while the magnetic field in the space of the material is held constant. This is usually accomplished by applying a DC magnetic field, generated with either a solenoid or a permanent magnet, while loading the rod with constant stress to avoid stress-induced magnetization effects. In the second case, the magnetic flux density inside the rod is held constant during testing, usually by means of feedback control of measured flux density. These two Young's moduli bracket the true operational value [14]. Although it is extremely difficult to maintain either of these two conditions during dynamic operation, the former case is close to the conditions under which the tuned absorber will operate.

Values of Young's modulus ranging from 20-60 MPa for  $E_Y^H$  have been reported by Butler [16] and Flatau et al. [17], using quasi-static and dynamic techniques respectively. The Young's modulus can also be calculated from speed of sound measurements upon knowledge of the density of the material (nominal density of Terfenol-D is 9250 kg/m<sup>3</sup> [16]). The large variation in the reported values of the Young's modulus can be explained in terms of the effective operating conditions applied to the magnetostrictive core, namely stress, magnetization, and temperature. These operating conditions are dependent upon the specific transducer design, but for the tuned absorber presented here the mechanical preload and temperature are fixed, leaving the magnetic bias as the only control parameter.

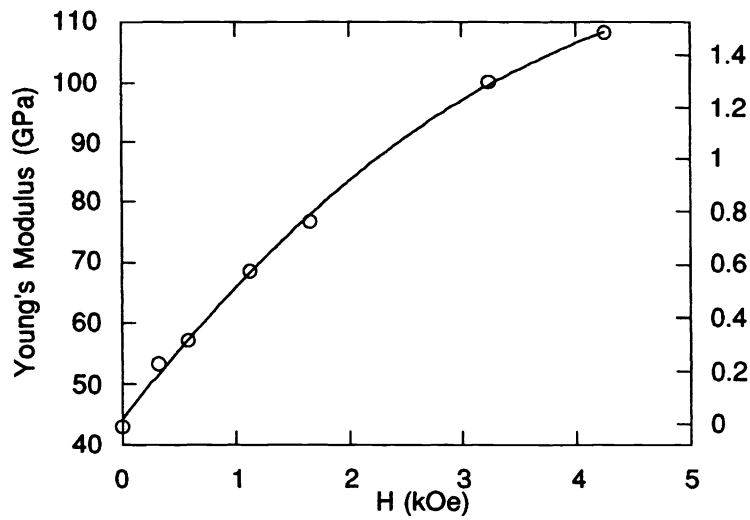
The change in Young's modulus with applied DC magnetic bias, or  $\Delta E$  effect, can be defined by

$$\Delta E \equiv \frac{E_H - E_0}{E_0}, \quad (2)$$

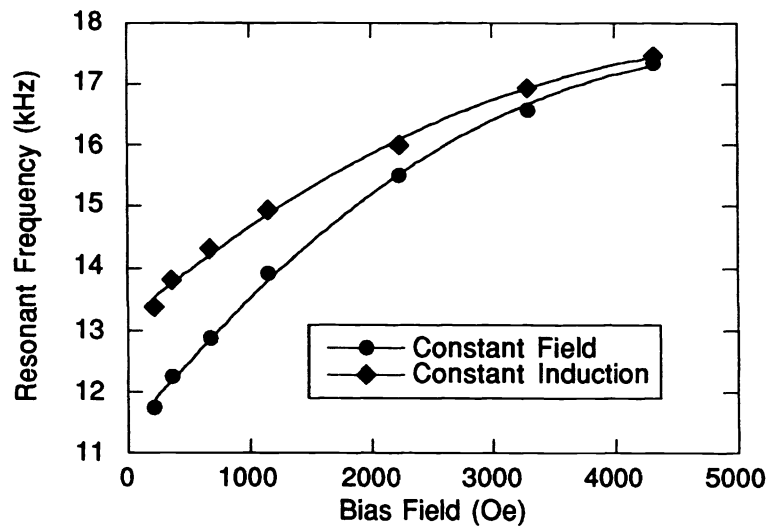
where  $E_H$  is the elastic modulus at magnetic field  $H$ , and  $E_0$  is the elastic modulus at zero magnetic field. The  $\Delta E$  effect is attributable to the magnetoelastic interactions in the material, which allow changes in magnetostriction beyond what would exist for purely mechanical operation. Since the modulus continues to change even above technical saturation, the field dependence of the elastic modulus cannot be explained with traditional domain motion considerations. According to Clark [18], the "unprecedented changes in modulus" arise from magnetoelastic interactions that produce an intrinsic softening of the crystal lattice due to local magnetoelastic atomic interactions as the field is reduced from the saturated value. Bozorth and others [10, 22, 23] discuss the  $\Delta E$  effect in great detail.

Results from two 1975 publications are drawn upon to emphasize some of the prior experimental results related to the  $\Delta E$  effect in Terfenol-D and to help motivate the current study on the application of Terfenol-D in a tunable vibration absorber. Clark and Savage [9] report changes in elastic modulus of 161% in samples subjected to saturation fields of 4.3 kOe. Data on the  $\Delta E$  effect in Tb<sub>3</sub>Dy<sub>7</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub> taken from [9] are shown in Figure 3. The Young's modulus is proportional to resonant frequency squared, hence the  $\Delta E$  effect mirrors the achievable changes in absorber resonant frequency. Subsequent work by Savage et al. [18] presents resonant frequencies at constant field and constant induction, obtained from measurements of electrical impedance and admittance functions, respectively, for a free-free long thin bar of Terfenol-D. The actual mechanical resonance of the system occurs at a frequency slightly higher than the resonance at constant field [14, 17], falling between the constant field and constant induction resonant frequencies. Data illustrating the variation in both resonant frequency at constant field and at constant induction due to the  $\Delta E$  effect taken from [19] are shown in Figure 4.

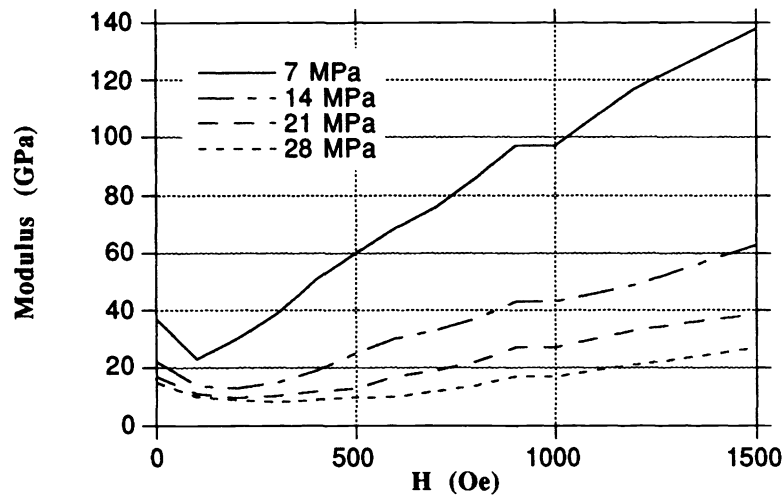
Experimental data by Butler [16] demonstrates the  $\Delta E$  effect from a somewhat different perspective, as shown in Figure 5. Trends in the modulus under varied DC magnetic fields are shown for four different prestress levels (7, 14, 21, and 28 MPa), illustrating the coupled relationship between mechanical and magnetic operating conditions. An initial decrease in the elastic modulus with applied magnetic bias is observed, possibly due to strain-induced softening. A minimum is reached near the so-called critical field value, where the change in strain is maximum for a given input magnetic field. Beyond this point, the magnetoelastic interactions dominate the material's behavior as explained by Clark [18], resulting in the material stiffening.



**Figure 3.** Young's modulus and the "ΔE effect" normalized to the no-field modulus for Terfenol-D versus DC magnetic field (from [9], reprinted with permission © IEEE, 1975).



**Figure 4.** The influence of the ΔE effect on system resonant frequencies (from [19], reprinted with permission © IEEE, 1975).



**Figure 5.** Young's modulus versus magnetic bias under four different prestresses: 7, 14, 21, and 28 MPa. Based on data from [16].

The results in Figure 4 from [19] show that magnetostrictive transducers are characterized by two resonant frequencies, one at constant magnetic field (magnetically free condition) and one at constant magnetic induction (magnetically blocked condition). This will be discussed briefly to clarify the distinction between the two elastic moduli associated with these two resonance states for a given operating condition and the variations in moduli associated with the  $\Delta E$  effect due to changes in operating conditions. This situation can be explained by analyzing the linear constitutive equations, 1(a,b), which are repeated here for convenience,

$$\varepsilon = \sigma / E_Y^H + d H \quad 1(a)$$

$$B = d^* \sigma + \mu^\sigma H. \quad 1(b)$$

Eliminating  $H$  from Eqn. 1(a) and  $\sigma$  from Eqn. 1(b) yields

$$\varepsilon = [(1 - dd^* E_Y^H / \mu^\sigma) / E_Y^H] \sigma + (d / \mu^\sigma) B \quad 3(a)$$

$$B = (d^* E_Y^H) \varepsilon + [\mu^\sigma (1 - dd^* E_Y^H / \mu^\sigma)] H. \quad 3(b)$$

For a transducer, the "stiffest" operating case is modeled by assuming boundary conditions in which both the strain  $\varepsilon$  and the induction  $B$  are not allowed to vary; this corresponds to imposing blocked boundary conditions on the magnetostrictive sample. In Eqns. 3 (a,b), the coefficients of  $\sigma$  and  $H$  (terms in square brackets) represent quantities associated with these stiff boundary conditions, namely Young's modulus at constant induction,  $E_Y^B$  and permeability at constant strain  $\mu^\varepsilon$ ,

$$E_Y^B = (1 - dd^* E_Y^H / \mu^\sigma) / E_Y^H \quad (4)$$

$$\mu^\varepsilon = (1 - dd^* E_Y^H / \mu^\sigma) \mu^\sigma. \quad (5)$$

For a given applied field  $H$  and applied stress  $\sigma$ ,  $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$  bound the "stiffest" and "softest" elastic states of the magnetostrictive material as energy is converted back and forth between the elastic and magnetic states. Equations 4 and 5 lead to the definition of the magnetomechanical coupling factor  $k$ . As shown by Clark [17], the magnetomechanical coupling quantifies the maximum fraction of magnetic or elastic energies that can be transformed in the transduction process, and thereby provides a figure of merit for the transducer. The coupling factor is defined as

$$k^2 = dd^* E_Y^H / \mu^\sigma. \quad (6)$$

From Eqn. 4, note that in the presence of increased energy conversion, the difference in the two Young's moduli ( $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$ ) increases. Hence, referring back to Figure 4, for the given operating conditions, lower DC

biases correspond to increased energy transduction and a wider range of elastic moduli. Citing Clark [17], this occurs because an increased portion of the system's total energy can be converted back and forth between magnetic and elastic energy.

The AC magnitude of the applied field  $H$  also influences the difference between  $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$ . Results in [16, 25] show that with increasing excitation level the efficiency of the transduction process increases and both  $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$  decrease, with  $E_Y^H$  decreasing more than  $E_Y^B$ . Thus, for a given DC bias or  $\Delta E$  effect, variations in the AC field magnitude will modify the material moduli.

The tunable vibration absorber discussed in the next section uses the variation in Young's moduli produced by the  $\Delta E$  effect, not the variation between moduli  $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$ . (Note that a number of references on piezoelectric materials use variable shunt resistances to operate between these moduli [26].) In Figure 4, the  $\Delta E$  effect is observed as variations in both  $E_Y^B$  and  $E_Y^H$  with applied DC field.

Summarizing this section, two elastic moduli are associated with a given set of operating conditions. These moduli provide a measure of the energy that can be transduced between the elastic and magnetic states of the material and bound the softest and stiffest elastic state of the material for a given AC and DC magnetic field. Larger variations in moduli are produced through the  $\Delta E$  effect, with minimum and maximum moduli bounding the stiffest and softest elastic states of the material over a range of magnetic fields.

#### 4. TUNABILITY OF MECHANICAL RESONANCE

The capability to actively control a transducer's mechanical resonant frequency is a powerful design tool. The  $\Delta E$  effect translates into a particularly easy to implement method for transducer mechanical resonance control. Again, these changes are initiated by varying the electrical signal to the transducer solenoid to produce a varying magnetic field. In addition, other transducer components such as prestress and mass load provide a means for tuning the nominal open circuit transducer mechanical resonance to a desired bandwidth. The result is a very rich frequency design space which provides unprecedented flexibility to the transducer designer and a simple electrical approach for adjusting the Terfenol-D absorber mechanical resonance.

The first axial mode mechanical resonance  $f_o$  of a Terfenol-D transducer (in Hz) is given by

$$f_o = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k_{T-D} + k_{mps}}{M_{eff}}} \quad (7)$$

where  $M_{eff}$  is the effective dynamic mass,  $k_{T-D}$  is the Terfenol-D core stiffness, and  $k_{mps}$  is the prestress mechanism stiffness. The effective mass  $M_{eff}$  is a combination of a portion of the mass of the rod, components in the prestress mechanism, the output connector, and any load to the transducer. For a long, thin Terfenol-D rod, the stiffness can be approximated by

$$k_{T-D} = \frac{E_Y A_{T-D}}{L_{T-D}} \quad (8)$$

with area  $A_{T-D}$  and length  $L_{T-D}$ . From these equations, it is clear that increasing  $E_Y$  increases  $f_o$ . The Young's modulus is dependent on the operating conditions, in particular magnetic bias, prestress, and magnetic drive level. The effect of the magnetic bias on the Young's modulus ( $\Delta E$  effect) is quite complicated, as indicated by Figure 5. For a given prestress, the Young's modulus decreases to a minimum (nominally near the critical field) and then increases again with increasing field.

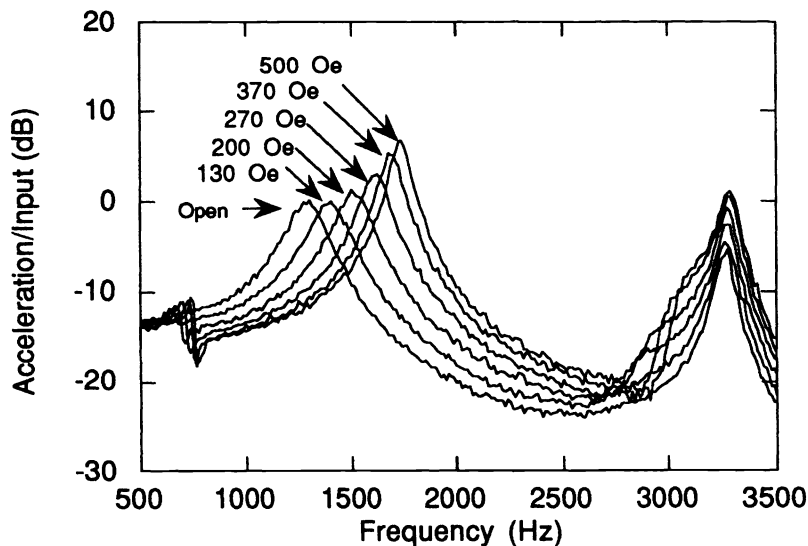
The transducer components, geometry, and other operating conditions will also effect the resonance. Since the prestress mechanism is generally in parallel with the Terfenol-D core, the effective stiffness of the system is the sum of the Terfenol-D core and the prestress mechanism. Therefore  $f_o$  increases with increasing stiffness of the prestress mechanism (Eqn. 7). The damping in the prestress mechanism will also effect the resonance, however this change will be slight relative to the effect of  $k_{mps}$  and  $M_{eff}$ . The Terfenol-D geometry will also effect the resonance. From Eqns. 7 and 8,  $k_{T-D}$  and hence  $f_o$  increase with increasing  $A_{T-D}$  and decreasing  $L_{T-D}$ . Note this simple analysis assumes no change in dynamic mass of the system, temperature, or prestress while the absorber is in use; i.e. the Young's modulus will vary in the fashion depicted by a simple modulus-DC field relationship for the appropriate system prestress, as depicted in Figure 5.

## 5. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

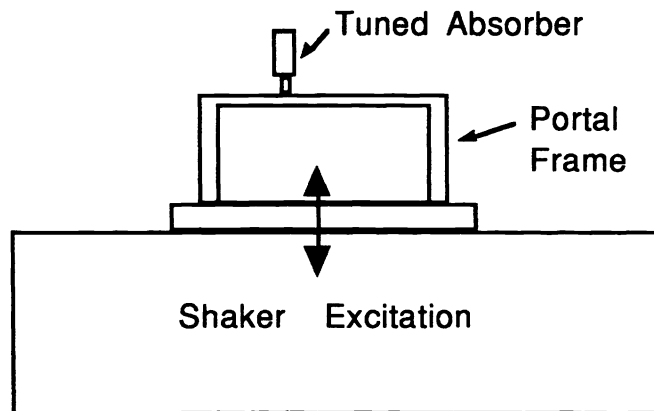
Proof of concept experiments for demonstration of a tunable magnetostrictive vibration absorber were undertaken using a standard lab transducer and a structure designed to resonate at frequencies overlapping the transducer's open circuit fundamental resonant mode. The tunable vibration absorber considered here consists of a 0.63-cm-diameter, 5.08-cm-long Terfenol-D core, a 7.0 ohm (DC resistance) wound wire solenoid, magnetic circuit components including a permanent magnet with a strength of 250 Oe, an adjustable mechanical prestress mechanism, and an effective dynamic mass of 337 grams. A simple two-legged portal frame (one horizontal and two vertical metal bars bolted together) was designed and built, and its resonant frequencies were measured using broadband excitation from an Unholtz-Dickie 2000 lb<sub>f</sub> mechanical shaker. Acceleration responses were measured using PCB model UA353 accelerometers.

The absorber prestress was adjusted in small increments in the neighborhood of 7.0 MPa until the absorber open circuit resonant frequency matched that of the portal frame second mode at 1375 Hz. The influence of the  $\Delta E$  effect was characterized by placing the absorber on the shaker and exciting it with 0-5kHz broadband random noise. The absorber mechanical resonant frequency was measured for the following magnetic (electrical) loads: open circuit and DC fields of 130, 200, 270, 370, and 500 Oe. (Note that these fields were in addition to the 250 Oe provided by the permanent magnet.) Scaled frequency response functions (FRFs) of the absorber acceleration per current input to the shaker are shown in Figure 6. A measure of the bandwidth over which the absorber can be tuned is evident in that the absorber mechanical resonance varies from 1400 Hz to over 2000 Hz using under 2.0 amps of DC current into the 7.0-ohm solenoid used to provide the applied magnetic field. The transducer used had an upper current limit of approximately 2.0 amperes (600 Oe) due to the solenoid design, hence the influence of the  $\Delta E$  effect at higher magnetic fields could not be observed.

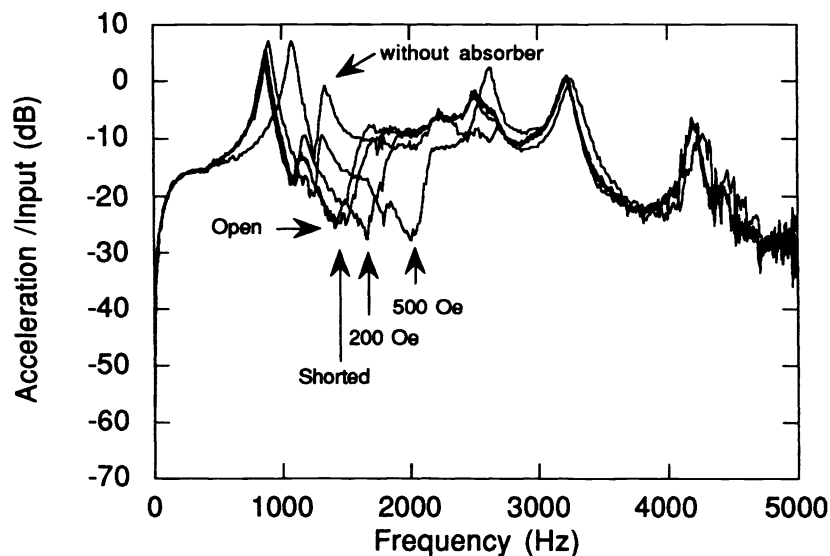
The absorber was attached to the horizontal member of the portal frame as shown in Figure 7. The structure was excited using 0-5 kHz broadband random noise. The vertical acceleration of the portal frame horizontal member was measured. Scaled FRFs of the structural acceleration per current input to the shaker are shown in Figure 8. The frequency of the system's antiresonance was varied from 1375 Hz to 2010 Hz by using the  $\Delta E$  effect. The upper frequency limit in these tests was constrained by this transducer's solenoid design, and was not due to having reached the upper limit of the  $\Delta E$  effect modulus change. Replacing the Terfenol-D core with a piece of steel produced results quite similar to the open circuit results shown in Figure 8.



**Figure 6.** Absorber acceleration per current input to the shaker FRFs demonstrating the  $\Delta E$  effect for shifting of the absorber mechanical resonant frequency.



**Figure 7.** Schematic of the vibration absorption test configuration.



**Figure 8.** Acceleration per current input to the shaker frequency response functions demonstrating the  $\Delta E$  effect for varying structural antiresonant frequencies.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

Issues related to design of a magnetostrictive Terfenol-D vibration absorber were discussed. Background on magnetostriction and the  $\Delta E$  effect were presented to explain the physical mechanisms behind the high bandwidth tunability of the Terfenol-D vibration absorber. Prior work demonstrating the  $\Delta E$  effect was reviewed and presented to motivate the design of a Terfenol-D vibration absorber. Two relatively simple experiments were

conducted to demonstrate proof of concept. These experimental results show use of the tunability of the Terfenol-D absorber for vibration control at frequencies from 1375 to 2010 Hz.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge funding from the NASA Graduate Student Research Program and the NSF CMS Division. Also, the assistance of Chris Metschke and Rick Kellogg in running tests and obtaining data for analysis in this project is greatly appreciated.

#### REFERENCES

1. M. L. James, G. M. Smith, J. C. Wolford and P. W. Whaley, *Vibration of Mechanical and Structural Systems*, Harper and Row, New York, 1989.
2. B. G. Korenev and L. M. Reznikov, *Dynamic Vibration Absorbers*, West Suffix, John Wiley and Sons Ltd, 1993.
3. A. H. von Flotow, A. Beard, and D. Bailey, "Adaptive tuned vibration absorbers: tuning laws, tracking agility, sizing, and physical implementations," Noisecon 94, Orlando, Florida, May 1994.
4. A. H. von Flotow, M. Mercadal, L. Maggi, and N. Adams, "Vibration and sound in aircraft cabins; a comparison of adaptive/passive and active control, preprint 1997.
5. M. R. Gibbs and C. Shearwood, "Piezomagnetic tuning of a micromachined resonator," IEEE Transactions on Magnetics, Vol. 32 (5), 1996.
6. C. L. Davis, "A tunable vibration absorber," Ph.D dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1997.
7. G. A. Lesieutre and C.L. Davis, "Solid-state tunable piezoelectric vibration absorber," SPIE paper #3327-15-32, Passive Damping and Isolation Proceedings, in print, 1998.
8. A. B. Flatau, F.T.Calkins, and M. J. Dapino, Patent disclosure, ISURF #02274I, Iowa State University, Ames, IA, 1997.
9. A. E. Clark and H. T. Savage, "Giant Magnetically Induced changes in the elastic moduli in Tb(.3)Dy(.7)Fe(2)," *IEEE Transactions on sonics and ultrasonics*, SU-22(1), pp. 50-2, 1975.
10. B. D. Cullity, *Introduction to Magnetic Materials*, Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, 1972.
11. A. E. Clark, "High power rare earth magnetostrictive materials," Recent Advances in Adaptive and Sensory Material and Their Applications, C.A. Rogers, editor, Technomic Publishing, Lancaster, PA, pp. 387-397, 1992.
12. K. B. Hathaway, "Magnetomechanical damping in giant magnetostriction alloys," *Metallurgical and Materials Transactions*, 26a (1995), pp. 2797-801, 1995.
13. J. P. Teter, K. B. Hathaway and A. E. Clark, "Zero Field Damping Capacity in (Tb<sub>x</sub>Dy<sub>1-x</sub>Fe<sub>y</sub>)," *J. Appl. Phys.*, 79(8), pp. 6213-5, 1996.
14. T. Cedell, *Magnetostrictive materials and selected applications, Magnetoelastically Induced Vibrations in Manufacturing Processes*, Dissertation, Lund University, Lund, Sweden, 1995.
15. R. C. Fenn and M. J. Gerver, "Passive damping and velocity sensing using magnetstrictive transduction," SatCon Technology Corp., preprint, 1995.
16. J. L. Butler, *Application manual for the design of Etrema Terfenol-D magnetostrictive transducers*, Etrema Products, Inc., Ames, IA, 1988.

17. A. B. Flatau, F. Calkins, M. Dapino, J. Pascual, *Terfenol-D dynamic material property study*, Iowa State University, Ames, IA, 1997.
18. A. E. Clark, "Magnetostrictive rare earth-Fe<sub>2</sub> compounds," in *Ferromagnetic Materials*, Volume 1, E. P. Wohlfarth, editor, North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam pp. 531-589, 1980.
19. H. T. Savage, A. E. Clark, J. H. Powers, "Magnetomechanical coupling and the  $\Delta E$  effect in highly magnetostrictive rare earth - Fe<sub>2</sub> compounds," *IEEE Transactions on Magnetics* Vol. Mag-11 (5), September 1975.
20. A. E. Clark, J. B. Restorff and M. Wun-Fogle, "Magnetoelastic coupling and deltaE effect in TbxDy1-x single crystals," *Journal of Applied Physics*, 73(15 May), pp. 6150-2, 1993.
21. D. C. Jiles, *Introduction to Magnetism and Magnetic Materials*, Chapman and Hall, London, 1991.
22. S. Chikazumi, *Physics of Magnetism*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1964.
23. R. M. Bozorth, *Ferromagnetism*, D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., New Jersey, 1951.
24. E. W. Lee, "Magnetostriction and magnetomechanical effects," *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 18, pp. 184-220, 1955.
25. F. T. Calkins, M. J. Dapino, and A. B. Flatau, "Effect of prestress on the dynamics performance of a Terfenol-D transducer," SPIE paper # 3041-23, Symposium on Smart Structures and Materials, 1997.
26. N. W. Hagood, A. von Flotow, "Damping of Structural Vibrations with Piezoelectric Materials and Passive Electrical Networks," *Journal of Sound and Vibration* 146 pp. 243-268 (1991).