Piezoelectric composite oscillator for measuring mechanical spectroscopy in small samples that non-match in half wavelength

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Received 11 September 2015, revised 7 December 2015  
Accepted for publication 9 December 2015  
Published 19 January 2016

Abstract

A novel piezoelectric device for measuring mechanical spectroscopy as a function of temperature and strain has been developed. The new equipment involves five oscillating elements, a crystal driver, two spacer bars, the sample and the crystal gauge. The spacer bars and the sample do not match in frequency. The device developed here results in an important solution for measuring mechanical spectroscopy in small samples, where the condition of match in frequency cannot be satisfied. Mechanical spectroscopy measurements were performed in free decay with the equipment working in an out of tune condition. The associated mathematical equations required for the measurement process have also been developed. In addition, the new equipment was successfully used for the measurement of different types of materials: metals, polymers and ferromagnetic shape memory alloys.

Keywords: mechanical spectroscopy, composite piezoelectric oscillator, short and brittle samples, unmatched samples, ferromagnetic shape memory alloys

(Some figures may appear in colour only in the online journal)

1. Introduction

Mechanical spectroscopy (MS), referred to as the internal friction method in the early literature, involves the simultaneous measurement of damping and the elastic modulus as a function of temperature, strain or frequency. This technique is very sensitive to the microstructural state of the sample and it has been widely applied for the characterization of materials. In fact, MS offers unique opportunities for studying interaction processes between defects in materials [1].

Amongst all the experimental techniques used for measuring MS, the piezoelectric method stands out, and is widely applied in physical acoustic and higher-order phase transition studies [1–3].
In the piezoelectric method, first introduced by Quimby [4], the specimen is cemented to a quartz crystal, and the application of a potential difference across the quartz crystal causes the two to vibrate as a single resonant body. The method was improved by Balamuth [5], who matched the fundamental frequency of the quartz to that of the specimen. In addition, Cooke [6] and Michener and Handloser [7] have discussed methods of evaluating data and experimental setups, respectively. A three-component piezoelectric resonator was introduced by Marx [8]. In this method, an additional quartz crystal (the gauge), which is also matched in frequency, is attached to the free end of the first crystal. This gives a signal that measures the vibrational strain amplitude of the specimen. The ratio of the driving e.m.f. to the gauge signal resonance is proportional to the damping value [9]. Robinson and Edgar [10] carried out a detailed study of a three-element piezoelectric oscillator by considering its equivalent electrical circuit. A different arrangement of crystals and sample was used by Harmouche and Wolfenden [11] and Povolo et al [12], who cemented the gauge between the driver and the sample. They included also a fourth element, the so-called spacer or dummy bar. The furnace and the sample were placed at the bottom of the experimental device, while the crystals were at the top. This configuration is the opposite to the one used by Marx and Sivertsen [13] for performing piezoelectric measurements as a function of temperature, in which crystals were placed at the bottom.

Devine et al [14], Robinson et al [15] and Devine and Robinson [16] introduced a specimen sandwiched between two fused quartz rods in order to form a new one-half wavelength component. In fact, this configuration involves a driver, a gauge, and a third component that consists of a sample sandwiched between fused quartz rods. The whole sandwich exhibits a multiple of a half wavelength. Thus, samples that do not fit into multiples of half wavelength can be measured at room temperature in a resonant tuned device.

In the present work, a novel piezoelectric equipment, and its related mathematical equations, for measuring MS in small samples that do not match in frequency are shown. The new device is a five-component oscillator, where three of the components are unmatched in frequency. The equipment allows us to perform measurements as a function of temperature and strain for low and high damping materials. In addition, the device does not measure during the tuning in frequency, but in free decaying oscillations.

It should be noted that the equipment developed here is an important solution for measuring small samples, often involved in the pilot development of new alloys, that cannot be matched in frequency. However, it is not restricted to this case only. In addition, the new device could also be an important solution for measuring mechanical spectroscopy in brittle samples.

MS measurements as a function of temperature and strain were performed using the new equipment in polycrystalline niobium to check that the equipment functioned well. In addition, the device was successfully used to determine the martensitic transition temperature in small and brittle samples of Ni–Mn–Sn ferromagnetic shape memory alloys [17–20].

2. Theoretical background

The Marx three-component piezoelectric resonator, figure 1, requires that the lengths of the components are frequency-matched to their half wavelengths. In this way, both the displacement and the strain waves exhibit continuous behaviour through the composite oscillator. The condition of zero strain and maximum displacement is satisfied at the end of each element. The half wavelength of the displacement wave matches exactly to the length of each element and then the strain wave, which is obtained from the derivative of the displacement, is shifted in $\pi/2$ [1, 2, 8]. In addition, from the equivalent electrical circuit of the Marx three-component oscillator, the well-known equations for frequency, $f$, and damping, $Q^{-1}$, can be obtained [1, 10, 21]

$$f^2_1 m_T = f^2_1 m_1 + f^2_2 m_2 + f^2_3 m_3 \quad (1)$$

$$Q_1^{-1} m_T = Q_1^{-1} m_1 + Q_2^{-1} m_2 + Q_3^{-1} m_3 \quad (2)$$

where, $m_T$, $f_T$ and $Q_T^{-1}$ are the total mass ($\Sigma m_i$), the oscillating frequency (resonant) and the damping of the whole oscillator, respectively. $m_i$, $f_i$ and $Q_i^{-1}$ are the mass, frequency and damping corresponding to the element ‘$i$’, respectively.
where $l_1$, $\lambda_1$ and $l_2$, $\lambda_2$ are the length and wavelength of elements 1 and 2, respectively, and $n$ is an integer number that, for this case, equals 1. Thus, by setting the frequency of the driver to the resonance, and knowing the speed of sound in one of the components, the wavelength of the other can be obtained.

On the other hand, the damping relationships for the oscillator arrangement shown in figure 2 can be obtained from the definition of damping as the ratio between the energy loss by irreversibility and the stored energy, that is [1, 16, 22]

$$Q_T^{-1} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\Delta W_T}{W_1} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\Delta W_1 + \Delta W_2}{W_1 + W_2} = Q_T^{-1}W_1 + Q_T^{-1}W_2$$

and then

$$Q_T^{-1}W_T = Q_T^{-1}W_1 + Q_T^{-1}W_2$$

where $\Delta W_T$, $\Delta W_1$, and $\Delta W_2$ are the loss energy by irreversibility for the whole oscillator, and the elements 1 and 2, respectively. $W_T$, $W_1$, and $W_2$ are the stored energy in the cycle (at the peak of the cycle) for the whole oscillator, and the elements 1 and 2, respectively [1, 9, 22, 23].

Obtaining the storage energies involves the product between the stress and strain, so, the following paragraphs are devoted to determining the spatial dependence of the oscillating strain in each element. The strain at any point in each element, $\varepsilon(x)$, with $i = 1, 2$ takes the form

$$\varepsilon(x) = \varepsilon_{mi} \sin \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} x - c_i\right)$$

where $x$ is the position of the element from the origin, and $\varepsilon_{mi}$, $\lambda_i$ and $c_i$ are the maximum oscillating strain, the wavelength and the phase angle, respectively, for the component element ‘i’, with $i = 1, 2$. Then, for the two-element composite oscillator from figure 2, the stored energies can be written as (with $i = 1, 2$)

$$W_i = \frac{1}{2} A_i E_{\varepsilon mi} \int_0^{l_i} \sin^2 \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i} x - c_i\right) dx$$

where $A_i$ and $E_i$ are the area and the elastic modulus for the element ‘i’, respectively. $l_0 = 0$, which results for the case where ‘i’ is used for the integration of the first interval.

For element number 1 in figure 2 $c_1 = 0$, then we can write

$$W_1 = \frac{1}{2} A_1 E_{\varepsilon mi} \left[ \frac{l_1}{2} - \frac{\lambda_1}{4\pi} \sin \left(\frac{4\pi}{\lambda_1} l_1\right) \right]$$

while, for element number 2 in figure 2, we have

$$W_2 = \frac{1}{2} A_2 E_{\varepsilon mi} \left[ \frac{l_2}{2} - \frac{\lambda_2}{4\pi} \sin \left(\frac{4\pi}{\lambda_2} (l_1 + l_2 - 2c_2)\right) \right]$$

where $c_2$ can be obtained from the boundary condition at the point $x = l_1 + l_2$. In fact, considering that $c_2$ is the initial out of phase in the element #2, it can be easily obtained that
Finally, in order to calculate equations (8) and (9), the values of strains $\varepsilon_{m1}$ and $\varepsilon_{m2}$ should be obtained. From the boundary condition of equilibrium of forces at the interface between elements number 1 and number 2, a relation between the maximum strains of each element can be derived, such that

$$\varepsilon_{m1} = \frac{E_A \varepsilon_1}{E_A \sin \frac{2\pi l_1}{\lambda_2}} \quad (11)$$

and from there, one of them can be easily obtained as a function of the other one.

3. Mathematical expressions governing the novel five-element composite oscillator with three unmatched components

Let us consider in this section a composite oscillator involving a thin-flat driver, two spacer bars, a sample and crystal gauge assembled as shown in figure 3. The spacer bars and sample are non-matched in half wavelength. The driver is a thin-flat piezoelectric quartz crystal. By contrast, the gauge is a typical quartz crystal cut at half wavelength. The length and mass of the driver are not significant in comparison to the other elements so they can be neglected. Therefore, the driver will be assumed to be an elastic membrane that generates a plane wave front. This assumption allows us to consider the displacement and strain, maximum and nil, respectively, at the interface.

As previously noted, the displacement, at the interface between elements in a composite oscillator involving frequency unmatched components, does not exhibit single sinusoidal behaviour, see figure 2. Thus, the strain wavelength will not be continuous throughout the composite oscillator. In addition, each element of the oscillator does not have the same resonance frequency. Nevertheless, the resonance frequency is given by equation (12). From a straightforward analysis, the modified form of equation (3) for the five-element composite oscillator can be written as

$$\frac{l_{sb1}}{\lambda_{sb1}/2} + \frac{l_s}{\lambda_s/2} + \frac{l_{sb2}}{\lambda_{sb2}/2} + \frac{l_{CG}}{\lambda_{CG}/2} = n$$

where the sub-indexes $s_i$ (with $i = 1, 2$) are related to the spacer bars, $S$ corresponds to the sample, CG is for the crystal gauge and $n$ is an integer, which for this case equals 7 (see
figure 3). Spacer bars 1 and 2 will be labelled, hereafter, to denote left and right in figure 3.

Thus, by assuming that the speed of sound in the spacer bars (for instance quartz or Pyrex) and the crystal gauge are known, the wavelength corresponding to the sample can be easily determined.

Regarding the calculus of the stored energy in the spacer bars and in the sample (see figure 3), we can obtain firstly the phase-constants, \( c_i \), and subsequently \( \varepsilon_{si} \).

However, for clarity, for the five-component composite oscillator, the phase constants will be obtained from the displacements expressions. Strain expressions can be deduced easily from the derivative of the corresponding displacement. Thus, by considering the origin of the coordinates system at the left end of the composite oscillator, the expressions for the displacement in each spacer bar and in the sample result in

\[
\xi_{sb1}(x) = \xi_{sb1\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} x \right)
\]

(13)

\[
\xi_g(x) = \xi_{g\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_g} x - \xi_2 \right)
\]

(14)

\[
\xi_{sb2}(x) = \xi_{sb2\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} x - \xi_3 \right)
\]

(15)

To obtain \( \xi_3 \), we consider that the displacement at the interface between spacer bar 2 and the crystal gauge is at a maximum. Then, from equation (15) evaluated at the interface with the crystal gauge, we can write

\[
\xi_{sb2}(l_{sb1} + l_S + l_{sb2}) = \xi_{sb2\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} (l_{sb1} + l_S + l_{sb2}) - \xi_3 \right)
\]

(16)

and \( \xi_3 \) is given by

\[
\xi_3 = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} (l_{sb1} + l_S + l_{sb2}).
\]

(17)

To obtain \( \xi_2 \), the boundary conditions for the displacement and the force at the interface between spacer bar 1 and the sample are considered. Indeed, both the displacement and the force, perpendicular to the cross section, must be the same in each element (see figure 3). Then, for the displacement it holds that

\[
\xi_{sb1}(l_{sb1}) = \xi_g(l_{sb1})
\]

(18)

thus

\[
\xi_{sb1\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} l_{sb1} \right) = \xi_{g\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} l_{sb1} - \xi_2 \right)
\]

(19)

while for the force,

\[
F_{sb1} = F_S
\]

(20)

and

\[
E_{sb}A_{sb} \varepsilon_{sb1}(l_{sb1}) = E_{g}A_{S} \varepsilon_{g}(l_{sb1})
\]

(21)

By working mathematically we obtain

\[
E_{sb}A_{sb} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} \xi_{sb1\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} l_{sb1} \right) = E_{g}A_{S} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} \xi_{g\text{Max}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} l_{sb1} - \xi_2 \right)
\]

(22)

from which \( \xi_2 \) takes the form,

\[
\xi_2 = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} l_{sb1} - \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{E_{sb}A_{sb} \lambda_S}{E_{g}A_{S} \lambda_{sb}} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} l_{sb1} \right)
\]

(23)

Let us now obtain the \( \varepsilon_{si} \) terms. As noted above, the displacement at the interface of the two adjacent elements of the composite oscillator must be the same. Then, we can write for spacer bar 1 and the sample

\[
\varepsilon_{sb1\text{Max}} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} l_{sb1} \right) = \varepsilon_{g\text{Max}} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} \cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} l_{sb1} - \xi_2 \right)
\]

(24)

A rearrangement of equation (26) leads to

\[
\frac{\varepsilon_{sb1\text{Max}}}{\varepsilon_{g\text{Max}}} = \frac{\lambda_S}{\lambda_{sb}} \frac{\cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} l_{sb1} - \xi_2 \right)}{\cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} l_{sb1} \right)}
\]

(25)

Similarly, for the interface between spacer bar 2 and the sample, we can obtain

\[
\frac{\varepsilon_{sb2\text{Max}}}{\varepsilon_{g\text{Max}}} = \frac{\lambda_S}{\lambda_{sb}} \frac{\cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{sb}} (l_{sb1} + l_S) - \xi_2 \right)}{\cos \left( \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_S} (l_{sb1} + l_S) \right)}
\]

(26)

Finally, the maximum strain in spacer bar 2 can be obtained from the continuity condition of the strains between the crystal gauge (CG) and the bar, that is

\[
\varepsilon_{sb2\text{Max}} = \varepsilon_{CG\text{Max}} \frac{\lambda_{CG}}{\lambda_{sb}}
\]

(27)

The maximum strain in the crystal gauge \( \varepsilon_{CG\text{Max}} \) is given by the well-known expression [8]

\[
\varepsilon_{CG\text{Max}} = \frac{V_e}{f_c} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m_f RF_c}} = \beta V_e
\]

(28)

where \( V_e \) is the excitation voltage, \( f_c \) is the resonant frequency, \( F_c \) is the damping of the oscillator and \( l_c, m_c \) and \( R \) are the length and mass of the crystal and the resistance of the equivalent circuit, respectively. However, the expression for the maximum strain reported in [10] can also be used, that is

\[
\varepsilon_{CG\text{Max}} = \frac{28.1}{\lambda_{CG}} C_m V_g
\]

(29)
where $C_m$ is an additional capacitance placed across the crystal gauge. By using equation (30) or (31) in the calculations, clear differences could not be found. Therefore, as equation (30) is widely known, it will be used in the present work.

By knowing $\varepsilon_{\text{CGMax}}$, the strain values of $\varepsilon_{\text{sb2Max}}$, $\varepsilon_{\text{Max}}$ and $\varepsilon_{\text{sb1Max}}$ can be obtained through equations (27)–(29). In addition, if the cross section, the modulus and the length of each component of the oscillator are known, the storage energies for the spacer bars ($W_{\text{sb1}}$, $W_{\text{sb2}}$), the sample ($W_S$) and the crystal gauge ($W_{\text{CG}}$) can be calculated from analogous integrals to equation (7).

Consequently, all the expressions needed to obtain the damping response of the sample from the general equation (5) have been developed. By working analogously to equation (5) we can write

$$Q^{-1}_T W_T = Q^{-1}_{\text{sb1}} W_{\text{sb1}} + Q^{-1}_S W_S + Q^{-1}_{\text{sb2}} W_{\text{sb2}} + Q^{-1}_{\text{CG}} W_{\text{CG}}$$

(32)

where $W_T$ is the storage energy of the whole oscillator, and $Q^{-1}_S$, $Q^{-1}_{\text{CG}}$, $Q^{-1}_{\text{sb1}}$ and $Q^{-1}_{\text{sb2}}$ are the loss factors of the sample, the crystal gauge, the spacer bars (sb1 and sb2) and the total for the whole oscillator, respectively. The method for obtaining $Q^{-1}$ for each component of the oscillator is described in section 5.1. Therefore, if the damping of each component is known, the damping of the sample from equation (32) can be calculated.

4. Experimental

4.1. Five-element composite oscillator device

Figure 4 shows the schematic representation of the experimental setup of the novel device. The oscillator hangs from the driver, $d$, which is supported (not clamped) by a rubber cantilever fixed to a beam, A, which is housed in a tower, B. The tower is fixed to a fused lead base, C, which is mechanically isolated by means of an air camera, D. The electrical furnace, E, and thermocouple of K-type, F, are fixed to the tower B, by means of variable screws, G, running inside guides, H. The surface, top and bottom of the furnace are thermally isolated by means of a ceramic blanket, EE, of 20 mm thickness. The thermocouple is positioned 1 mm from the sample and it has, at the hot juncture, a cup of copper, J, in order to measure the real temperature of the sample without distortion by the vacuum as was suggested in previous works [8, 11, 12]. The influence of the heat flow from the furnace to the crystal driver and gauge was carefully checked in order to obtain non-significant effects on their frequencies and voltages. The maximum admissible temperature of operation of the equipment is 800 K.

For low temperature measurements the electrical furnace is replaced by a copper rectangular parallelepiped cooler device, CD, which has cemented to it four Peltier plates, CDP. This cooler device allows us to perform measurements from 230 K up to room temperature (RT). Heating and cooling runs are controlled by means of a PID (Novus N480D) temperature controller. The chamber, K, allows the equipment to work under a protective atmosphere.

An ultrasonic wave is generated by a thin-flat power commercial piezoelectric quartz driver, produced by Apple Vista Technology Ltd (d in figure 4). It is excited by a synthesized waveform generator, Rigol DG 1022, plus a power amplifier of plane response with low harmonic distortion. The diameter, thickness and weight of the driver are 25 mm, 1 mm and 4.55 g, respectively.

The frequency response of the driver is shown in figure 5(a). The almost flat zone around 50 kHz is used to drive the system, so the driver is exciting the oscillator working outside of its resonance frequency. The frequency response of the driver was measured according to the circuit shown in the inset in figure 5(a).

The crystal gauge (CG in figure 4) is made of a quartz piezoelectric crystal of high quality factor with a parallelepiped shape of 5.00 x 5.00 x 56.10 mm and a weight of 4.10 g, with gold deposited faces and with a characteristic frequency of around 50 kHz. This crystal was provided by
Billey Electric Company. Once the mechanical excitation is switched off, the free decaying of oscillations from the gauge can be recorded. The behaviour of the frequency of the gauge is shown in figure 5(b). A typical decaying oscillation for the gauge is included in the inset.

In order to assess whether mechanical excitation can be produced by this kind of piezoelectric driver, working out of the resonance condition, the driver was cemented to a Billey’s quartz crystal. A clear mechanical oscillation was corroborated by the gauge in the frequency range 40–60 kHz.

The crystal gauge signal was amplified by a 150kHz amplifier with variable output, see the appendix. The decay was recorded by a high-speed digital storage oscilloscope, Rigol DS 1052 E. For data analysis the oscilloscope was connected to a personal computer.

4.2. Samples, cement and spacer bars

Samples used in this work were pure niobium and ferromagnetic shape memory alloys (FSMA).

The high-purity polycrystalline niobium samples were two rods of 2 mm diameter and lengths 48.84 mm and 5.1 mm, called Nb1 and Nb2 samples, respectively. Niobium samples were stress-relieved and their oxygen content was around 550 at ppm [24–26].

FSMA alloys of composition Ni50Mn37Sn13 and Ni50Mn37Sn11Ti2, called hereafter Ti1 and Ti2 samples, respectively, were in parallelepiped shape. The dimensions for Ti1 and Ti2 were 6.82 × 8.12 × 5.34 and 4.82 × 5.74 × 1.5 mm, respectively. It should be noted that the size of the samples is far from a match in frequency.

Polycrystalline FSMA ingots were prepared from high purity elements by arc melting under protective Ar atmosphere. The ingots were homogenized in vacuum quartz ampoules at 1273 K for 2h. After homogenization, samples were annealed at 1173 K in ampoules under Ar for 30 min, followed by quenching in iced water.

Samples were cemented to the oscillator components by using a mixture of sodium silicate and high alumina cement in a proportion of 25/75 in volume. After the cementing process, the entire composite oscillator was placed into the vacuum chamber in order to dry the cemented parts. The system was evacuated in a vacuum better than 90 mTorr for 72 h at RT. Otherwise, some contribution of the curing process can be recorded during the tests, which masks the true dynamical response of the material under study.

The spacer bars were cylinders of fused quartz of 6 mm diameter and 157 mm and 132 mm length for sb1 and sb2, respectively. Pyrex bars were also used.

During the cooling and heating runs, the driver frequency at each temperature was changed until the system vibrated at maximum amplitude (highest voltage at crystal gauge). Subsequently, the system was at maximum strain, the voltage of the driver was changed at will in order to obtain a voltage in the gauge that corresponded to the oscillating strain chosen for the sample during the measurement. As was shown in section 3, this was done using coupling equations (28)–(30). Then, at each temperature, when the driver was switched-off, the free decaying oscillation as a function of time was recorded by means of the digital oscilloscope.

The frequency during the free decay of oscillations of the composite oscillator, is calculated from the recorded decaying oscillation. In addition, the frequency f and wavelength λ for each one of the components satisfy the well-known relationship, fλ = v, v being the speed of sound in each component. Thus, as was shown in section 3.2, by knowing the speed of sound in the spacer bars and crystal gauge, the change in the wavelength for the sample can be obtained from equation (12). Subsequently, the elastic modulus, E, can be calculated for a sample from the usual equation involving the density, ρ, ρv^2 = E.

For the damping measurement the usual expression for calculating the damping from the slope of the straight line that results from the least squares fitting of the natural logarithm of the decaying areas versus time is used [1, 23]

\[ \ln(A_m) = \ln(A_0) - \pi Q T^1 m \]  \hspace{1cm} (33)

where Am is the area of the mth decaying oscillation, A0 is the initial area of the starting decay oscillation and m is the period number. For damping measurements the same initial and end values of the decay areas were used for eliminating some possible distortion due to the appearance of amplitude dependent damping effects [23]. Once Q_T^1 was measured, by coupling equations (13)–(32), the damping of the sample could be calculated. In addition, as a consequence of measuring in free decay mode, the amplitude dependent damping (ADD) behaviour promoted by the appearance of non-linear effects (the doubling of stress does not lead to the doubling of strain) can be easily measured. The damping as a function of the maximum strain on the sample, ε_0, was calculated from equation (34) [23, 27–29]

\[ Q_T^1(\varepsilon_0) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{d(\ln(A_m))}{dm}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (34)

The decays of the oscillations was carried out at constant temperature (T ± 0.5 K). Polynomials were fitted to the curve of the decaying areas of the longitudinal vibrations as a function of the period number by means of chi-square fitting. Subsequently equation (34) was applied. Polynomials of degree higher than 1 indicate that Q_T^1 is a function of ε_0, leading to the appearance of ADD effects, as can be inferred easily. This procedure allows us to obtain the damping as a function of the maximum strain (ε_0) from free decaying oscillations [23, 27–29]. By coupling equations (13)–(32), the damping of the sample can be obtained at each maximum strain for the whole temperature range of the test. In addition, the strength of ADD effects can be measured through the S parameter, such that [23, 27–29]

\[ S = \frac{\Delta Q_S^1}{\Delta \varepsilon_0}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (35)

5. Experimental results

5.1. Reference relaxation process

In order to check both the behaviour of the equipment and the mathematical work developed above, measurements using
the new equipment were performed using a widely explored relaxation process. Figure 6 shows the Snoek relaxation of oxygen in niobium measured in the kilohertz range using the new device, with fused quartz spacer bars, during heating at 1 K min$^{-1}$, for the Nb1 and Nb2 samples. Tests were performed in a pure argon protective atmosphere at normal pressure. The Snoek relaxation of oxygen in niobium is related to the stress-induced ordering phenomenon of interstitial atoms in the octahedral sites in the bcc lattice [1, 24–26].

The directly measured data, $Q_T^{-1}$, and the resulting spectrum after mathematical treatment of the Nb1 sample, $Q_{\text{Nb1}}^{-1}$, are plotted using full circles and full triangles, respectively. In addition, the directly measured data, $Q_T^{-1}$, for both Nb1 and Nb2 samples. Plotted values for damping after mathematical treatment were obtained by applying equation (32).

Also shown in figure 6 is the behaviour of the Young modulus for the Nb1 sample. The error in the Young modulus was estimated to be around 4%, where the main contribution comes from uncertainties both in the length and the weight of the components of the oscillator.

The damping, $Q_T^{-1}$, and storage energy, $W_T$, for the whole oscillator, and the values of damping, storage energy and elastic modulus for the spacer bars, crystal gauge and niobium samples, evaluated at RT and 650 K (peak temperature, see figure 6) are shown in table 1. The values of damping and elastic modulus for the crystal gauge were measured using the configuration shown in the inset in figure 5(b). In addition, the damping and elastic modulus for the spacer bars were measured using the configuration of a matched three-component oscillator, i.e. driver, spacer bar and crystal gauge.

As can be seen from figure 6, the peak heights are in reasonable agreement with the solute content of the samples (550 atppm) [24, 30, 31]. In addition, the peak temperature and the frequency at the peak temperature, for the spectra $Q_{\text{Nb1}}^{-1}$ and $Q_{\text{Nb2}}^{-1}$, are in good agreement with an Arrhenius plot for the Snoek relaxation of oxygen in niobium (activation energy, $H = 1.1$ eV, pre-exponential factor, $\tau_0 = 6 \times 10^{-15}$ s [24–26]).

The comparison of the spectra for the Nb1 and Nb2 samples allows us to determine qualitatively the error bandwidth of the experimental procedure both as a function of the length of the sample and the damping value. For small damping values, close to $5 \times 10^{-4}$, the error bandwidth is around 40%, see figure 6. By contrast, for damping values close to $2 \times 10^{-3}$, the error is decreased to around 15%. The main contribution to the error bandwidth is related to uncertainties in the phase angle ($\theta$) and, consequently, in the strains in each component of the oscillator (see equations (27) and (28)). Nevertheless, it should be stressed that the scatter of the calculated data during heating and cooling runs is around 2%.

In addition, as can be seen from figure 6, the shape of the spectra $Q_{\text{Nb1}}^{-1}$ and $Q_{\text{Nb2}}^{-1}$ do not differ appreciably from the directly measured ones. In addition, the peak temperature is the same for the directly measured curve and the spectrum for the Nb sample, $Q_{\text{Nb1}}^{-1}$.

By contrast, if Pyrex spacer bars are used, the real and raw spectra can differ appreciably above 373 K, due to the Pyrex bars making an appreciable contribution to the total damping of the equipment [13]. The directly measured damping values with Pyrex bars are around $1 \times 10^{-3}$.

On the other hand, the measured damping values in the whole temperature range resulted in amplitude independence, i.e. the value of the strength of the amplitude dependent effect, S, was nil within the whole temperature range, in agreement with the literature on Nb-O Snoek relaxation [1, 2, 24–27].

5.2. Determination of the martensitic transition in FSMA samples

Figure 7 shows the temperature dependence of the damping and frequency for a ferromagnetic shape memory alloy (NiMnSn), Ti = 0, around the martensitic transformation (MT). The damping peak and the square-frequency (proportional to elastic modulus) drop show that the MT is around 340 K. Another relaxation process seems to appear at around 365 K just above the MT. It is appropriate to mention here that the frequency shows only a trend, and not the real magnitude of frequency change related to the physical effect. In fact, in pilot alloys the speed of sound cannot be easily found as a function of temperature, so an estimation of the elastic modulus cannot be made. However, when the modulus changes as a consequence of the temperature increase, the speed of sound in the sample will change. Therefore, it is necessary to modify the frequency of excitation in order to keep the system oscillating to maximum amplitude. The frequency measurement of the composite oscillator, during heating or cooling, then allows us to describe the changes in the modulus related to the relaxation processes under study.

A similar sample but with a much smaller grain size has been obtained by adding 2 at.\% Ti to the NiMnSn alloy.
Table 1. Values of relevant parameters involved in the measurement procedure of the new device for the case of niobium samples at the Snoek peak temperature ($T_{\text{peak}}$) and RT.

| Nb sample | Temperature | $Q^{-1} \times 10^5 W_T$ ($\mu$J) | $Q_{\text{sb1}}^{-1} \times 10^5$ W$_{\text{sb1}}$ ($\mu$J) | $W_{\text{sb1}}$ ($\mu$J) | $E_{\text{sb}}$ (GPa) | $Q_{\text{CG}}^{-1} \times 10^5$ W$_{\text{CG}}$ ($\mu$J) | $E_{\text{CG}}$ (GPa) | $Q_{\text{Nb1}}^{-1} \times 10^4$ W$_{\text{Nb1}}$ ($\mu$J) | $E_{\text{Nb1}}$ (GPa) | $Q_{\text{Nb2}}^{-1} \times 10^4$ W$_{\text{Nb2}}$ ($\mu$J) | $E_{\text{Nb2}}$ (GPa) |
|-----------|-------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|----------------|
| Nb1       | RT          | 8.12                              | 38.84                            | 7.7            | 17.23         | 17.89                              | 71.7           | 5.5                               | 2.01           | 84.0                              | 1.98           | 1.71                              | 103.3          |
|           | $T_{\text{peak}}$ | 18.70                              | 38.84                            | 7.8            | 17.23         | 17.89                              | 73.4           | 5.5                               | 2.01           | 84.0 (RT)                          | 25.8           | 1.71                              | 102.6          |
| Nb2       | RT          | 7.84                              | 49.01                            | 7.7            | 22.48         | 24.09                              | 71.7           | 5.5                               | 1.99           | 84.0                              | 3.25           | 0.45                              | 103.6          |
|           | $T_{\text{peak}}$ | 9.66                              | 49.01                            | 7.8            | 22.48         | 24.09                              | 73.4           | 5.5                               | 1.99           | 84.0 (RT)                          | 22.1           | 0.45                              | 102.7          |

Note: $Q^{-1}$: damping; W: storage energy; $E$: the Young modulus. The sub-indexes sb1, sb2, CG, Nb1 and Nb2 correspond to spacer bar 1, spacer bar 2, crystal gauge, niobium sample 1 and niobium sample 2, respectively.

Figure 7. Damping and resonant frequency as a function of temperature for a ferromagnetic shape memory alloy (Ni–Mn–Sn), Ti = 0, around the martensitic transformation (MT).

Figure 8. Damping and resonant frequency as a function of temperature for a ferromagnetic shape memory alloy (Ni–Mn–Sn), Ti = 2, around the martensitic transformation (MT). The dashed line is a guide for the eye.

(Ti = 2 sample). Figure 8 shows the corresponding behaviour of damping and frequency. Again, the change in the damping peak and the square-frequency reveals that the martensitic transition is now around 345 K. In addition, different relaxation processes around the MT were also detected as a hump in the low temperature tail of the martensitic peak or by the two-stage modulus change. In both cases, the temperature of the martensitic transition agrees with differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements.

It is convenient to mention here that the error in damping values measured for FSMA samples ($10^{-2}$), even when their lengths are similar to Nb2, is smaller than 15%. Indeed, the storage energy in weighted equation (32) for FSMA samples, is one order of magnitude larger than for Nb2 sample, due to their larger sections.

6. Conclusions

A novel piezoelectric device for measuring mechanical spectroscopy as a function of temperature and strain in small samples with lengths that do not match in half wavelength has been demonstrated. It is composed of a thin-flat plate quartz crystal driver, two spacer bars, the sample and the quartz crystal gauge. The driver is working outside of its resonance frequency, the spacer bars and sample do not match in frequency, and the crystal gauge is cut in half wavelength. The equipment operates outside of the tuning condition and in free decaying oscillations.

The mathematical equations related to the new equipment and the procedure for measuring mechanical spectroscopy have been given.

Measurements were performed successfully in polycrystalline niobium, to check the good functioning of the equipment, and also in small and brittle samples of Ni–Mn–Sn ferromagnetic shape memory alloys in order to determine the martensitic transition temperature. Indeed, it should be emphasized that this equipment is an important solution for measuring small and brittle samples that cannot be matched in frequency.

Acknowledgments

This work has been carried out with the financial support of the CONICET-PIP 2098 and 0179, and the PID-UNR; ING 453 (2014–2017). The authors wish to acknowledge the Cooperation Agreement between the Universidad Pública de Navarra and the Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Res. 5789/2013, and Universidad del País Vasco and the Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Res. CS.788/89—1792/2003, UPV224.310–14553/02, Res. 3469/2007, Res. CS. 124/2010.
Figure A1. Electrical circuit for the high frequency amplifier with variable output.

Appendix

The amplifier is composed of a buffer, a second stage involving three operational amplifiers $\times 2$, $\times 5$ and $\times 10$, a third stage with an output $\times 10$ and a final stage being an active low pass filter with cut frequency at 50 Hz. Figure A1 shows the electrical circuit for the high frequency amplifier.

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