Extension of a Smart Piezoelectric Ceramic Rod

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Abstract—This paper presents an exact solution and a finite element method (FEM) for a Piezoceramic Rod under static load. The cylindrical rod is made from polarized ceramics (piezoceramics) with axial poling. The lateral surface of the rod is traction-free and is unelectroded. The two end faces are under a uniform normal traction. Electrically, the two end faces are electroded with a circuit between the electrodes, which can be switched on or off. Two cases of open and shorted electrodes (short circuit and open circuit) will be considered. Finally, a finite element model will be used to compare the results with an exact solution. The study uses ABAQUS (v.6.7) software to derive the finite element model of the ceramic rod.

Keywords—Finite element method; Ceramic rod; Axial poling; Normal traction; Short circuit; Open circuit.

I. INTRODUCTION

Piezoelectric materials are used widely in transducers such as ultrasonic transmitters and receivers, sonar for underwater applications, and as actuators for precision positioning devices. Piezoelectric materials exhibit Electromechanical Coupling, which is useful for the design of devices for sensing and actuation. The coupling is exhibited in the fact that piezoelectric materials produce an electrical displacement when a mechanical stress is applied and can produce mechanical strain under the application of an electric field. Due to the fact that the mechanical-to-electrical coupling was discovered first, this property is termed the direct piezoelectric effect, while the electrical-to-mechanical coupling is termed the converse piezoelectric effect [1]. The physical basis for piezoelectricity in solids is widely studied by physicists and materials scientists. Most piezoelectric materials belong to a class of crystalline solids. Crystals are solids in which the atoms are arranged in a single pattern repeated throughout the body. Crystalline materials are highly ordered, and an understanding of the bulk properties of the material can begin by understanding the properties of the crystals repeated throughout the solid. The individual crystals in a solid can be thought of as building blocks for the material. Joining crystals together produces a three-dimensional arrangement of the crystals called a unit cell. One of the most important properties of a unit cell in relation to piezoelectricity is the polarity of the unit cell structure. Crystallographers have studied the structure of unit cells and classified them into a set of 32 crystal classes or point groups. Each point group is characterized by a particular arrangement of the constituent atoms. Of these 32 point groups, 10 have been shown to exhibit a polar axis in which there is a net separation between positive charges in the crystal and their associated negative charges. This separation of charge produces an electric dipole, which can give rise to piezoelectricity [1,2].

Induced strain actuators like piezoelectric materials have been effectively used as integrated sensors and actuators for monitoring and further controlling the mechanical behavior of advanced structures [3,4]. Over the past decade, Finite Element Analysis (FEA) techniques have been employed to model the overall structural response involving the electromechanical coupling effects of the piezoelectric sensing/actuating elements [5]. Superior to analytical methods, the FEA technique provides greater geometric flexibility and allows use of more complex electrical and mechanical boundary conditions. Although much research effort has been devoted to finite element formulation for the electromechanical coupling effects of piezoelectric materials (Tzou and Tseng, 1990; Ha et al., 1991), fully electromechanical coupled piezoelectric elements have just recently become available in commercial FEA software [6].

Before the new piezoelectric capability was developed in commercial FEA codes, the induced strain actuation function of piezoelectric materials had been modeled using analogous thermal expansion/contraction characteristics of structural materials [7]. This method was helpful in the studies of the resulting stress distribution in actuators and host substructures and the overall deformation of integrated structures under static actuation. However, the intrinsic electromechanical coupling effects of piezoelectric materials cannot be modeled. Moreover, the dynamic actuation response of piezoelectric actuators on host substructures is difficult to implement by this method.

The new piezoelectric finite element capability in commercial FEA packages gives convenient access to perform both static and dynamic analysis for the fully coupled piezoelectric and structural response. In addition, since most commercialized FEA packages are generally equipped with well-developed pre and post-processors and user-friendly interactive graphics working environments, the time-consuming tasks of finite element model generation and solution extraction can be significantly reduced [7].

II. LINEAR PIEZOELECTRICITY FOR INFINITESIMAL FIELDS

Nonlinear theory of Electroelasticity is used for large deformations and strong electric fields. In linear theory like Piezoelectricity, we can specialize the nonlinear equations to the case of infinitesimal deformations and fields, which results in the linear theory of piezoelectricity. For Linearization, we reduce the nonlinear electroelastic equations in the nonlinear theory to the linear theory of piezoelectricity for infinitesimal deformations and fields. We consider small amplitude motions of an electroelastic body around its reference state due to small mechanical and electrical loads [8]. It is assumed that the displacement gradient is infinitesimal in the following sense that:

\[ \|u_{ij}\| \ll 1 \tag{1} \]

Under some norm, e.g., \[\|u_{ij}\| = \max |u_{ij}| \]. It is also assumed that the electric potential gradient \(\psi_k\) is infinitesimal.
For the finite strain tensor :
\[ \phi_K = \phi_J Y_{iJK} \]

Which implies that, to the first order of approximation, the displacement and potential gradients calculated from the material and spatial coordinates are numerically equal. Therefore, within the linear theory, there is no need to distinguish capital and lowercase indices. Only lowercase indices will be used in the linear theory. The material time derivative of an infinitesimal field variable \( f(\mathbf{y}, t) \) is simply the partial derivative with respect to \( t \) : 
\[
\frac{Df}{Dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x} \text{ fixed}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_i} \bigg|_{\mathbf{x} \text{ fixed}} \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \bigg|_{\mathbf{y} \text{ fixed}} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_i} \Delta y_i \quad (4)
\]

For the strain tensor :
\[ S_{KL} = \frac{1}{2} (u_{KL} + u_{LK} + u_{MK} u_{ML}) \]

In the linear theory, the infinitesimal strain tensor will be denoted by :
\[ S_{kl} = \frac{1}{2} (u_{kl} + u_{lk}) \quad (6) \]

The material electric field becomes :
\[ E_k = E_J Y_{iJK} \approx E_i \delta_{iK} \rightarrow E_k \quad (7) \]

Similarly,
\[ \sigma_{ij}^e \equiv 0, \sigma_{ij}^0 \equiv 0, \sigma_{ij} \equiv \sigma_{ij} \quad (8) \]
\[ M_{ij} \equiv 0, K_{ij} \equiv F_{ij} \approx \delta_{iK} \sigma_{ij}, T_{KL} \equiv \delta_{KL} \sigma_{ij} \quad (8) \]

Where :
\[ \sigma_{ij}^e = \text{Electrostatic stress tensor} \]
\[ \sigma_{ij}^0 = \text{Symmetric Maxwell stress tensor in spatial} \]
\[ \text{two point} \]
\[ \sigma_{ij}^s = \text{Cauchy stress tensor} \]
\[ \sigma_{ij}^0, F_{ij}, T_{KL} = \text{Symmetric stress tensor in spatial} \]
\[ \text{two point} \]
\[ \text{point, and material form} \]
\[ \tau_{ij}, K_{ij} = \text{Total stress tensor in spatial} \]
\[ \text{two point} \]
\[ \tau_{iK} = \text{Reference electric polarization vector} \]
\[ D_k = \text{Reference electric displacement vector} \]

Since the various stress tensors are either approximately zero (quadratic in the infinitesimal gradients) or about the same, we will use \( T_{ij} \) to denote the stress tensor that is linear in the infinitesimal gradients. This is according to the IEEE Standard on Piezoelectricity. The notation for the rest of the linear theory will also follow the IEEE Standard [9].

Then :
\[ \sigma_{ij} \equiv \sigma_{ij} \approx \tau_{ij} = T_{ij} \]
\[ K_{ij} \equiv F_{ij} \equiv \delta_{ii} \sigma_{ij} = T_{ij} \]
\[ T_{KL} \equiv \delta_{KL} \sigma_{ij} \rightarrow T_{kl} \quad (9) \]

For small fields the total free energy can be approximated by :
\[
\rho_0 \delta \Phi (S_{KL}, E_{K}) = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_0 E_{K} E_{K} \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{2} c_{22} \delta_{AB} S_{AB} - e_{BC} E_{A} S_{BC} - \frac{1}{2} \chi_{AB} E_{A} E_{B} \]
\[ - \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_0 E_{K} E_{K} \]
\[ = H (S_{KL}, E_{K}) \quad (10) \]

Where :
\[ \varepsilon_0 = \chi_{22} + \varepsilon_0 \delta_{ij} \quad (11) \]

The superscript \( E \) in \( c_{ijkl}^e \) indicates that the independent electric constitutive variable is the electric field \( E \). The superscript \( S \) in \( c_{ijkl}^S \) indicates that the mechanical constitutive variable is the strain tensor \( S \). We have also denoted the total free energy of the linear theory by \( H \) which is usually called the electric enthalpy. The electrical enthalpy \( (H) \) in a piezoelectric body is an energy quantity similar to strain energy in an elastic structure. The constitutive relations generated by \( H \) are :
\[
T_{ij} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial S_{ij}} = c_{ijkl}^e S_{jk} - e_{ij} \delta_{ik} E_{k} \quad (12) \]
\[ D_i = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial E_i} = e_{ik} S_{k} + \varepsilon_0 \delta_{ik} E_{k} \quad (13) \]

The material constants in Equation (12) have the following symmetries :
\[ c_{ijkl}^e = c_{jikl}^e = c_{ijkl}^e \]
\[ e_{ij} = e_{ij} \quad \varepsilon_0 = \delta_{ik} \]

We also assume that the elastic and dielectric material tensors are positive definite in the following sense :
\[ c_{ijkl}^e S_{ij} S_{kl} \geq 0 \forall S_{ij}, S_{kl} \quad (14) \]
\[ e_{ij}^S E_i E_i \geq 0 \forall E_i \]
\[ \varepsilon_0 \delta_{ik} E_i E_i = 0 \quad (15) \]

III. COMPACT MATRIX NOTATION

We now introduce a compact matrix notation. This notation consists of replacing pairs of indices \( ij \) or \( kl \) by single indices \( p \) or \( q \) where \( i, j, k \) and \( l \) take the values of 1, 2, and 3, and \( p \) and \( q \) take the values 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 according to [8] :
\[ p or q = 1 2 3 4 5 6 \quad (15) \]

Thus
\[ c_{ijkl} \rightarrow c_{pq}, e_{ijkl} \rightarrow e_{ip}, T_{ij} \rightarrow T_p \quad (16) \]

For the strain tensor, we introduce \( S_p \) such that :
\[ S_1 = S_{11}, S_2 = S_{22}, S_3 = S_{33} \]
\[ S_4 = 2S_{23}, S_5 = 2S_{31}, S_6 = 2S_{12} \quad (17) \]
The constitutive relations in Equation (12) can then be written as:

\[ T_{ij} = e_{ijk}S_{kl} - e_{klj}E_k \]

\[ D_i = e_{ijk}S_{kj} + e_{klj}E_k \]

In matrix form, Equation (18) becomes:

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
T_1 \\
\vdots \\
T_6
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{pmatrix}
e_{11} & e_{12} & e_{13} & e_{21} & e_{22} & e_{23} \\
e_{31} & e_{32} & e_{33} & e_{41} & e_{42} & e_{43} \\
e_{51} & e_{52} & e_{53} & e_{61} & e_{62} & e_{63}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
S_1 \\
\vdots \\
S_6
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[ (19) \]

In summary, the linear theory of piezoelectricity consists of the equations of motion and charge [8]:

\[ T_{ji} + \rho f_i = \rho u_i \quad D_{ij} = \rho e \]

Constitutive relations:

\[ T_{ij} = c_{ijkl}S_{kl} - e_{klj}E_k \]

\[ D_i = e_{ijk}S_{kj} + e_{klj}E_k \]

And the strain-displacement and electric field-potential relations:

\[ S_i = (u_i + u_j)/2 \quad E_i = -\phi_i \]

Where \( u \) is the mechanical displacement vector, \( T \) is the stress tensor, \( S \) is the strain tensor, \( E \) is the electric field, \( D \) is the electric displacement (electric flux density), \( \phi \) is the electric potential, \( \rho \) is the known reference mass density, \( \rho_e \) is the body free charge density, and \( f \) is the body force per unit mass. We have neglected the superscripts in the material constants. With successive substitutions from Equations (21) and (22), Equation (20) can be written as four equations for \( u \) and:

\[ c_{ijkl}u_{klj} + e_{klj}\phi_{kj} + \rho f_i = \rho u_i \]

\[ e_{ijkl}u_{klj} - e_{ijl}\phi_j = \rho e \]

\[ (23) \]

V. EXTENSION OF A CERAMIC ROD

Consider a cylindrical rod of length \( L \) made from polarized ceramics with axial poling. The cross-section of the rod can be arbitrary. The lateral surface of the rod is traction-free and is unelectroded. The two end faces are under a uniform normal traction \( p \), but there is no tangential traction. Electrically, the two end faces are electroded with a circuit between the electrodes, which can be switched on or off. Two cases of open and shorted electrodes (short circuit and open circuit) will be considered. This problem is an electrostatic case which is very formal in the piezoelectric problems. Figure 1 shows an axially poled ceramic rod.

![Fig. 1 An axially poled ceramic rod [8]](image)

A. Boundary Value Problem

The boundary value problem is:

\[ T_{ji} = 0 \quad D_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{in } V \]

\[ S_{ij} = s_{ijkl}T_{kl} + d_{klj}E_k \quad D_i = 0 \quad \text{on } S \]

\[ (24) \]

\[ \phi(x_3 = 0) = 0, L, \quad \text{if the end faces are shorted} \]

\[ \int D_3 \, dA = 0 \quad \text{if the end faces are open} \]

Where we have chosen the stress components and the electric displacement components as the primary unknowns. Many of these components are known on the lateral surface, and it is easy to guess what they are like inside the cylinder. Since many components of \( T \) will vanish, it is convenient to use constitutive relations with \( T \) as the independent constitutive variable. In this formulation the compatibility conditions on strains and the curl-free condition on the electric field have to be satisfied. As suggested by the boundary conditions on the lateral surface we consider the following \( T \) and \( D \) fields

\[ T_{33} = p, \quad \text{all other } T_{ij} = 0 \]

\[ D_3 = \text{constant}, \quad D_1 = D_2 = 0 \]

Which satisfy the equation of motion and the charge equation. Since the \( T \) and \( D \) fields are constants, the constitutive relations imply that the \( S \) and \( E \) fields are also constants. Therefore, the compatibility conditions on \( S \) and the curl-free condition on \( E \) are satisfied. (25) also satisfies the boundary conditions on the lateral surface and the mechanical boundary conditions on the end faces. From the constitutive relations

\[ S_{33} = S_{33} = S_{23} = 0 \]

\[ S_{33} = s_{33}^E p + d_{33}^E E_3, \quad S_{11} = S_{22} = s_{12}^E p + d_{12}^E E_3 \]

\[ (26) \]

Hence the electrical boundary conditions of \( E_3 = E_2 = 0 \) (constant electric potential on an electrode) on the end electrodes are also satisfied. We consider two cases as follows.
B. Shorted Electrodes

In this case, there is no potential difference between the end electrodes. Since \( E_3 \) is constant along the rod, we must have
\[
E_3 = 0
\]
Which implies that
\[
D_3 = d_{33}E_3, \quad S_3 = S_{33}E_3
\]
The mechanical work done to the rod per unit volume during the static extensional process is
\[
W_1 = \frac{1}{2} T_{33} S_{33} = \frac{1}{2} s_{33}E_3 p^2
\]
\[
W_2 = \frac{1}{2} T_{33} S_{33} = \frac{1}{2} s_{33}E_3 p^2
\]
\[
W_3 = \frac{1}{2} T_{33} S_{33} = \frac{1}{2} s_{33}E_3 p^2
\]
\[
W_4 = \frac{1}{2} T_{33} S_{33} = \frac{1}{2} s_{33}E_3 p^2
\]
C. Open Electrodes

In this case, there is no net charge on the end electrodes. Since \( D_3 \) is constant over a cross-section, we must have
\[
D_3 = 0
\]
Which implies that
\[
E_3 = -\frac{d_{33}}{\varepsilon_{33}} p
\]
\[
S_{33} = S_{33}E_3 = d_{33} \frac{d_{33}}{\varepsilon_{33}} p - d_{33} \frac{d_{33}}{\varepsilon_{33}} p
\]
\[
= s_{33} \left( 1 - \frac{d_{33}^2}{\varepsilon_{33} s_{33}} \right) p
\]
The mechanical work done to the rod per unit volume is
\[
W_1 = \frac{1}{2} T_{33} S_{33} = \frac{1}{2} s_{33} \left( 1 - \frac{d_{33}^2}{\varepsilon_{33} s_{33}} \right) p^2
\]
D. Electromechanical Coupling Factor

Since
\[
\frac{d_{33}^2}{\varepsilon_{33} s_{33}} > 0
\]
We have
\[
W_1 > W_2
\]
Therefore, the rod appears to be stiffer when the electrodes are open and an axial electric field is produced. This is called the piezoelectric stiffening effect. The following ratio is called the longitudinal electromechanical coupling factor for the extension of a ceramic rod with axial poling, and is denoted by
\[
(k_{33}^{'2})^2 = \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1} = \frac{d_{33}^2}{\varepsilon_{33} s_{33}}
\]
For PZT-5H, a common ceramic, from the following material constants [8]:
\[
s_{11} = 16.5, \quad s_{33} = 20.7, \quad s_{44} = 43.5
\]
\[
s_{12} = -4.78, \quad s_{13} = -8.45 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{N}
\]
\[
d_{31} = -274, \quad d_{15} = 741, \quad d_{33} = 593 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C/N}
\]
\[
\varepsilon_{33} = 3130 \varepsilon_0, \quad \varepsilon_{33} = 3400 \varepsilon_0
\]
\[
\varepsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}
\]
We have
\[
(k_{33}^{'2})^2 = \frac{(593 \times 10^{-12})^2}{(3400 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12})(20.7 \times 10^{-12})} = 0.56
\]
k_{33} = 0.75
Which is typical for ceramics. Graphically, \( W_1 \), \( W_2 \) and their difference are represented by area in the following figure. This figure confirms that a stiffer rod has less mechanical work, in other words, in short circuit case, the mechanical work done to the rod is more than open circuit case (\( W_1 > W_2 \)).

VI. FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

In this section, a finite element model of the ceramic rod will be studied. The geometrical configuration of the piezoceramic rod is shown in figure 3.

The loaded configuration of the piezoceramic rod is shown in figure 4.

The length of the ceramic rod is assumed to be 10 cm. The radius of the rod is 1.0 cm. The uniform normal traction is assumed to be 1 N/m². A typical finite element model of the ceramic rod is shown in figure 5. It should be noted that ceramic rod consists of 1872 elements for piezoceramic rod [10].

Figure 6 shows the longitudinal displacement of the piezoceramic rod obtained by finite element analysis.
Two cases of short circuit (S.C) and open circuit (O.C) as the electrical boundary conditions was investigated and an exact solution was presented for each case. It is shown that the results obtained by the finite element analysis matches very well with the exact solutions for each boundary condition. The results obtained by the finite element analysis and exact solution are presented in the following table I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>$D_{23}^{exact}$</th>
<th>$S_{23}^{exact}$</th>
<th>$E_{33}^{exact}$</th>
<th>$D_{23}^{EM}$</th>
<th>$S_{23}^{EM}$</th>
<th>$E_{33}^{EM}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S.C</td>
<td>5.93 x 10^{-12}</td>
<td>2.07 x 10^{-12}</td>
<td>5.94 x 10^{-12}</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O.C</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.11 x 10^{-12}</td>
<td>-1.97 x 10^{-2}</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td>-1.95 x 10^{-2}</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**VII. CONCLUSION**

The piezoelectric finite element capability recently made available in commercial FEA packages allows both static and dynamic analysis of fully coupled piezoelectric and structural responses. This paper reviewed the capability of the piezoelectric element provided by commercialized FEA codes, and discussed a simple case of static finite element analysis involving piezoelectric and structural coupling.

Two cases of short circuit and open circuit as the electrical boundary conditions was investigated and an exact solution was presented for each case. It was shown that the results obtained by the finite element analysis matches very well with the exact solutions for each boundary condition.

**REFERENCES**