

## **On the Use of Principal Component Analysis for Parameter Identification and Damage Detection in Structures**

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Principal component analysis is a multi-variate statistical method.

**Aim:** to obtain a compact representation of the data.

Principal Component Analysis = Proper Orthogonal Decomposition

PCA (or POD) is applied here for three purposes:

1. Damage detection
2. Structural health monitoring
3. Identification of nonlinear parameters

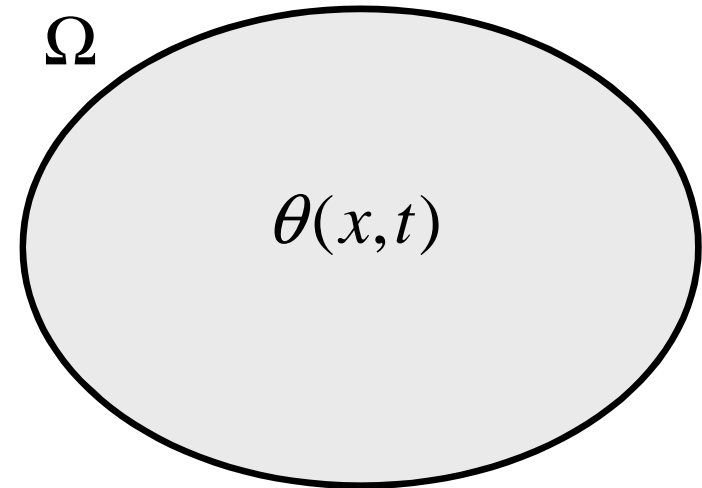
- **Principal Component Analysis**
- Damage detection
- Structural Health Monitoring
- Identification of nonlinear parameters
- Conclusion

## Mathematical formulation

Let  $\theta(x,t)$  be a random field on a domain  $\Omega$

$$\theta(x,t) = \mu(x) + \vartheta(x,t)$$

↑ mean  
↓ time varying part



At time  $t_k$ , the system displays a snapshot  $\vartheta^k(x) = \vartheta(x, t_k)$

# Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

The POD aims at obtaining the most characteristic structure  $\phi(x)$  of an ensemble of snapshots i.e.

$$\text{Maximize } \left\langle \left| \left( \vartheta^k, \phi \right) \right|^2 \right\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \|\phi\|^2 = 1$$

where  $(f, g) = \int_{\Omega} f(x) g(x) d\Omega$

$\langle \cdot \rangle$  denotes the averaging operation

$\|\cdot\|$  denotes the norm

It can be shown that the problem reduces to the following integral eigenvalue problem

$$\int_{\Omega} \left\langle \vartheta^k(x) \vartheta^k(x') \right\rangle \phi(x') dx' = \lambda \phi(x)$$

averaged auto-correlation function

# Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

Thus the solution of the optimization problem

$$\text{Maximize } \left\langle \left| (\mathcal{V}^k, \phi) \right|^2 \right\rangle \quad \text{with } \|\phi\|^2 = 1$$

is given by the orthogonal eigenfunctions  $\phi_i(x)$  of the integral equation

$$\int_{\Omega} \left\langle \mathcal{V}^k(x) \mathcal{V}^k(x') \right\rangle \phi(x') dx' = \lambda \phi(x)$$

$\phi_i(x)$  are called the proper orthogonal modes (POM)

$\lambda_i$  are called the proper orthogonal values (POV)

and we have

$$\mathcal{V}(x, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$

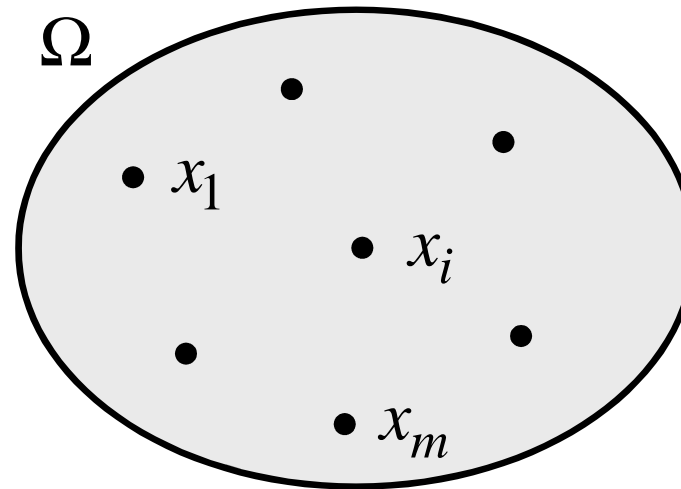
$$\text{where } a_i(t) = (\mathcal{V}(x, t), \phi_i(x))$$

→ uncorrelated coefficients

# Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

In practice, the data are discretized in space and time.

Instrumented structure



$N$  snapshots

Observation matrix:

$$\mathbf{X}_{m \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t_1) & \cdots & x_1(t_N) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m(t_1) & \cdots & x_m(t_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

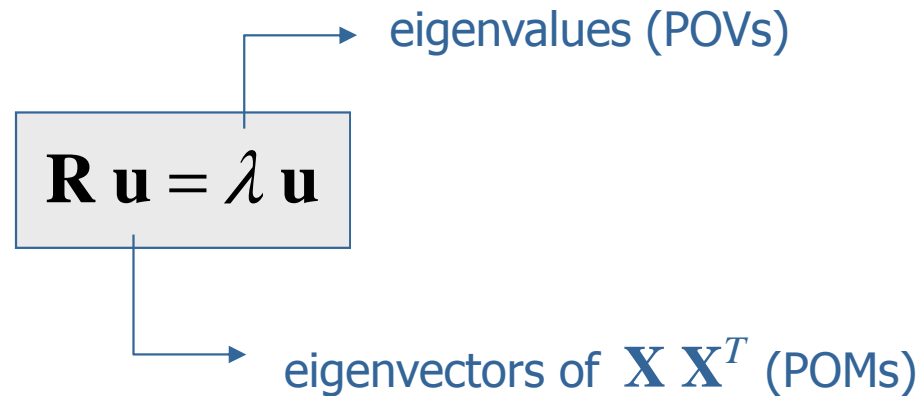
}  $m$   
 measurement  
 co-ordinates

# Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

The  $m \times m$  correlation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  is built

$$\mathbf{R} = \frac{1}{m} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T$$

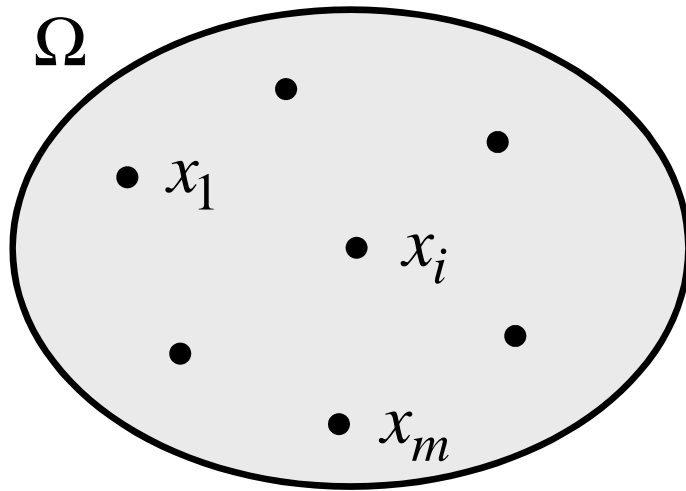
The eigenvalue problem is solved





# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Computation of the POMs using SVD



$m$  measurement co-ordinates

$N$  time samples

$$\mathbf{X}_{m \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t_1) & \cdots & x_1(t_N) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_m(t_1) & \cdots & x_m(t_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

Using SVD

$\text{diag}(\sqrt{\lambda_i})$  ( $\lambda_i \equiv \text{POV}$ )

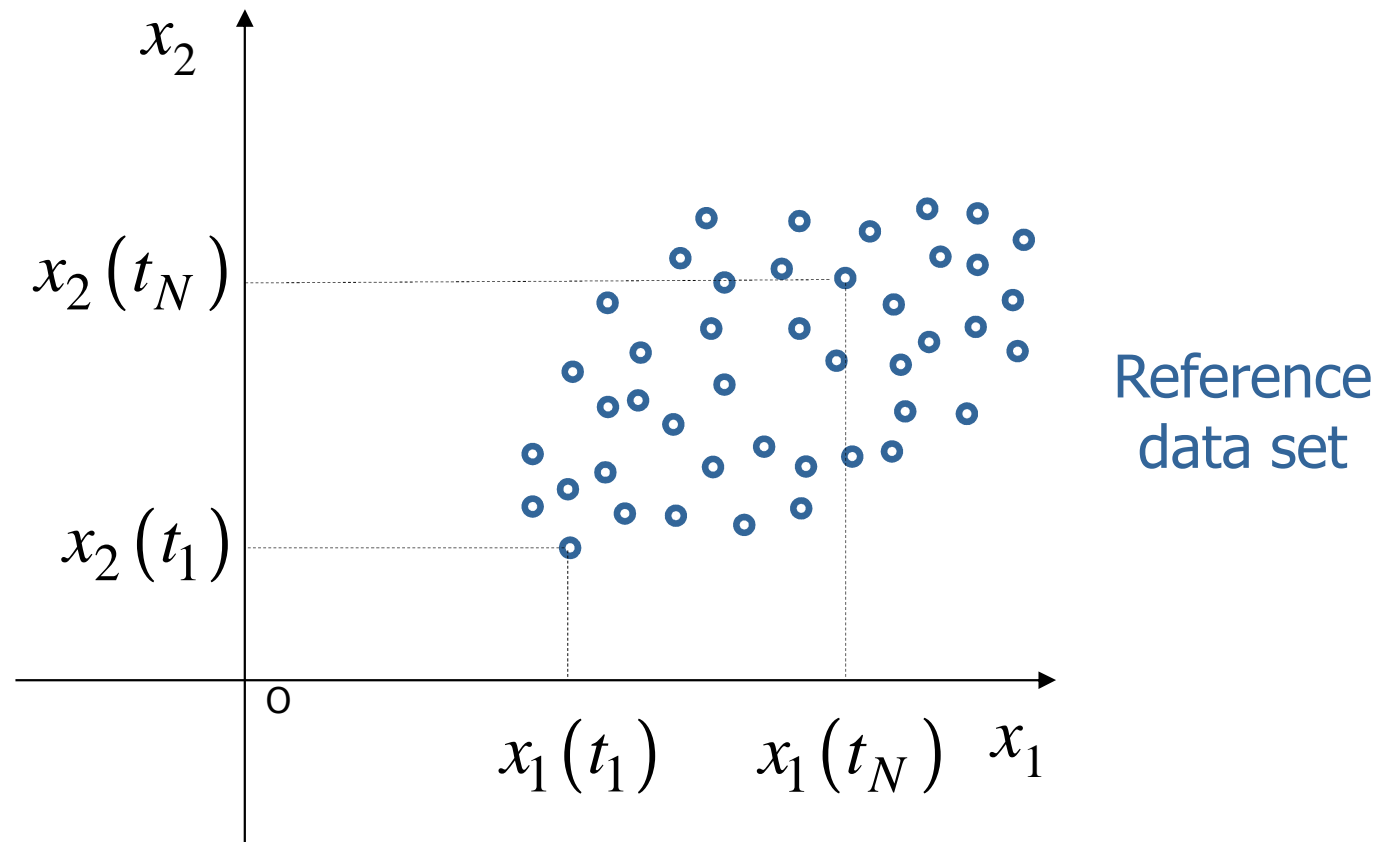
$$\mathbf{X}_{m \times N} = \mathbf{U}_{m \times m} \Sigma_{m \times N} \mathbf{V}_{N \times N}^T$$

eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T$  (POM)

## PCA in 2D-space

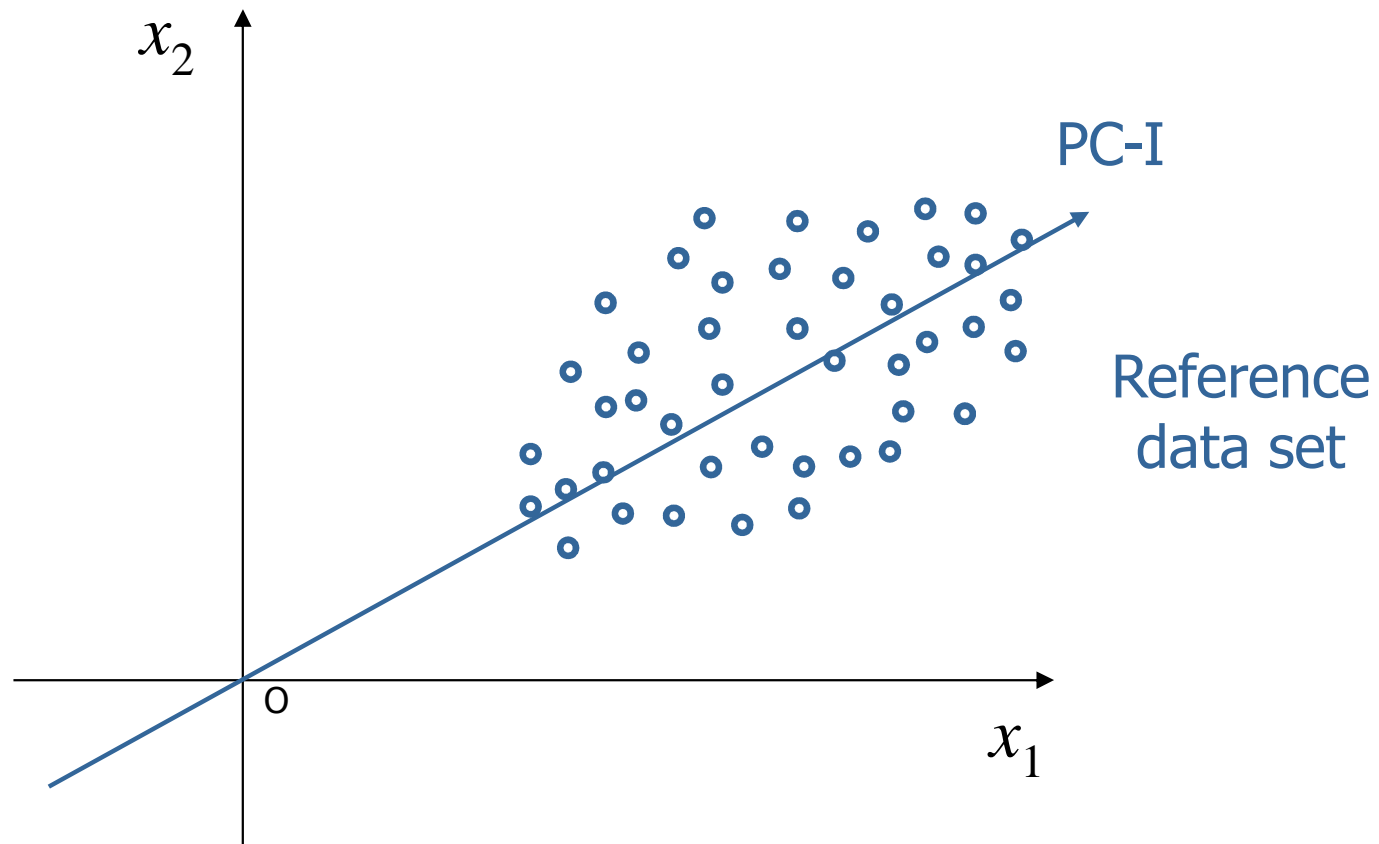
### Geometric interpretation

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t_1) & x_1(t_2) & \cdots & x_1(t_N) \\ x_2(t_1) & x_2(t_2) & \cdots & x_2(t_N) \end{bmatrix}$$



## Geometric interpretation

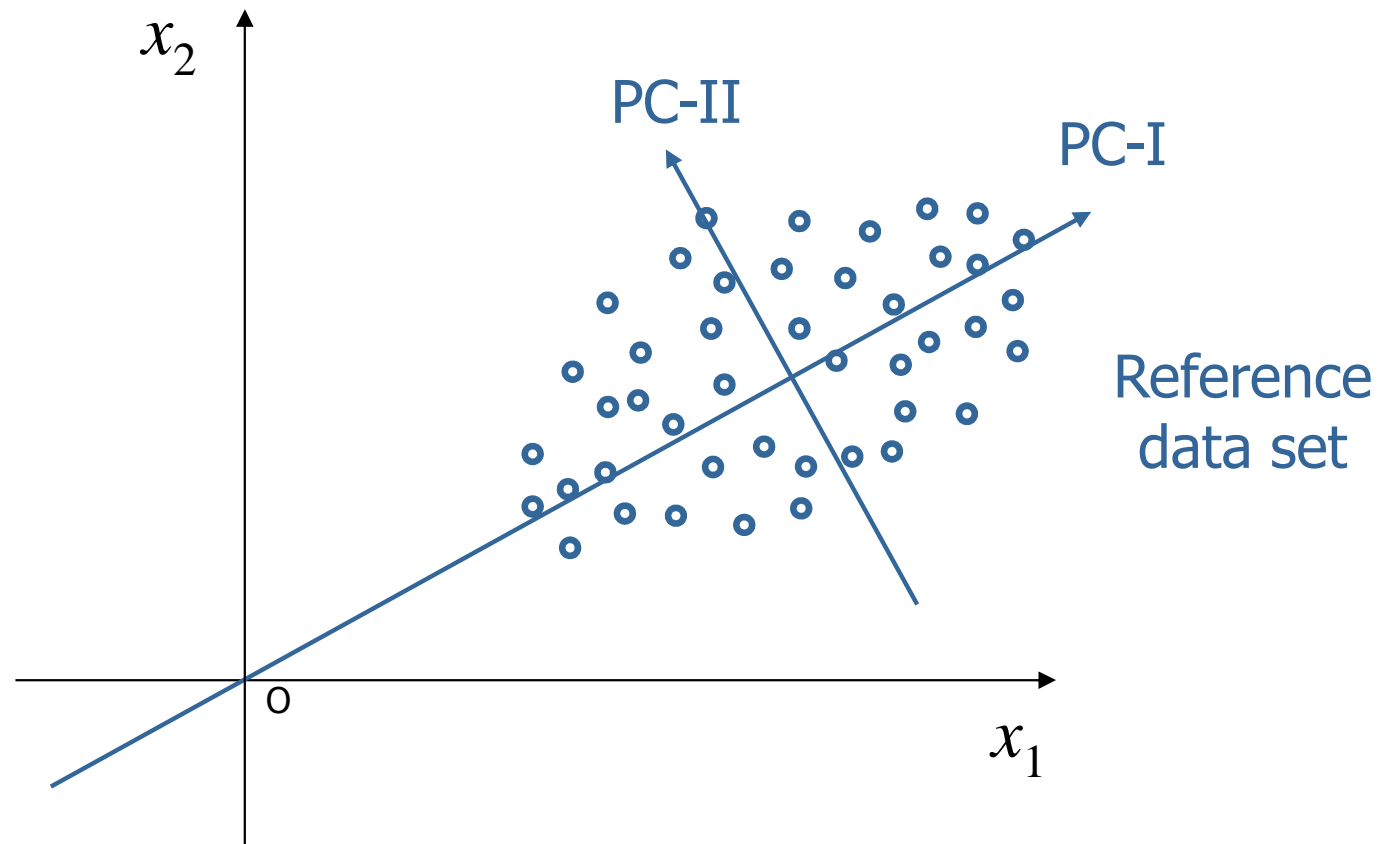
### PCA in 2D-space



# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

## Geometric interpretation

### PCA in 2D-space



- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- **Damage detection**
- Structural Health Monitoring
- Identification of nonlinear parameters
- Conclusion



# Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}(t)$$

## Modal Analysis

Deterministic approach

Eigenvalue problem:

$$(\mathbf{K} - \omega^2 \mathbf{M}) \Phi = \mathbf{0}$$

Response:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i(t) \Phi_{(i)}$$

**Spatial  
information**

where

$$\eta_i = A_i \cos(\omega_i t) + B_i \sin(\omega_i t)$$

**Natural frequencies**

## Principal Component Analysis

Statistical approach

Eigenvalue problem:

$$\mathbf{R} \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u}$$

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j(t) \mathbf{u}_{(j)}$$

**Spatial  
information**

**Time information**

**→ Instantaneous  
frequencies**

## Concept of subspace angle (Golub-Van Loan)

### Key idea

- Use PCA to extract the structural response subspace
- Use the concept of subspace angles to compare the hyperplanes associated with the **reference (undamaged)** state and with the **current (possibly damaged?)** state of the structure.

# Damage detection problem

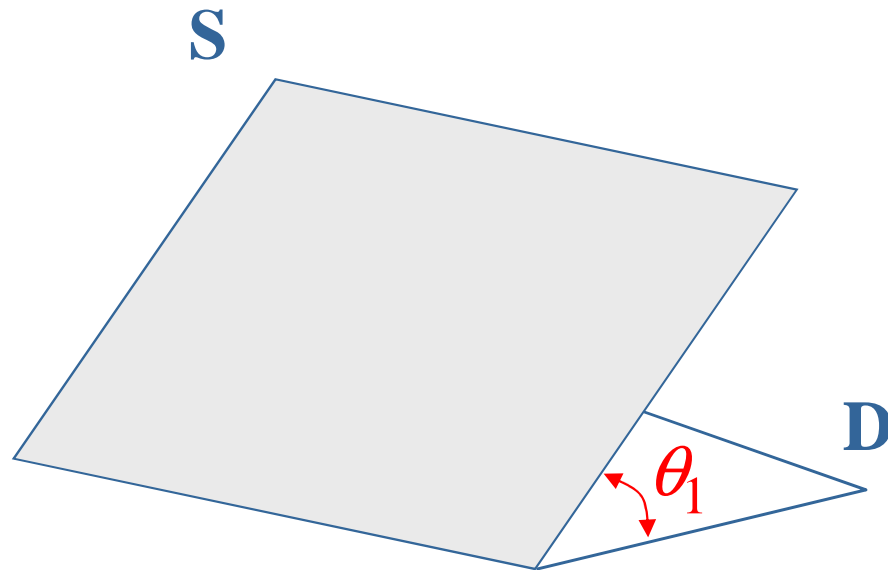
## Concept of subspace angle (Golub-Van Loan)

Given two subspaces  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times p}$  and  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times q}$  ( $p > q$ )

Carry out the QR-factorizations

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{Q}_S \mathbf{R}_S \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{Q}_D \mathbf{R}_D$$

define orthonormal bases



The angles  $\theta_i$  between subspaces **S** and **D** are defined through the singular values associated to

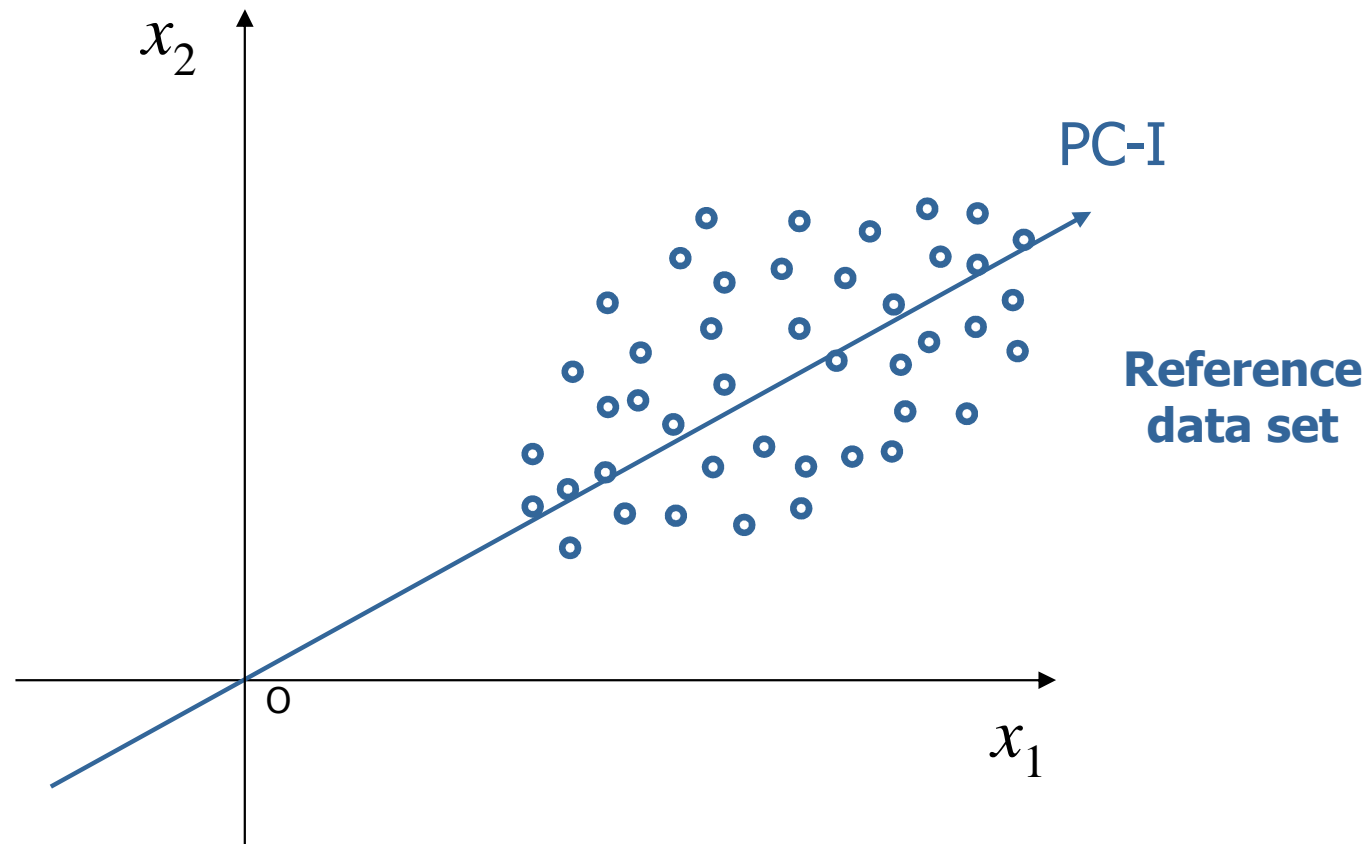
$$\mathbf{Q}_S^T \mathbf{Q}_D = \mathbf{U}_{SD} \mathbf{\Sigma}_{SD} \mathbf{V}_{SD}^T$$

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_{SD} = \text{diag}(\cos \theta_i) \quad (i = 1, \dots, q)$$



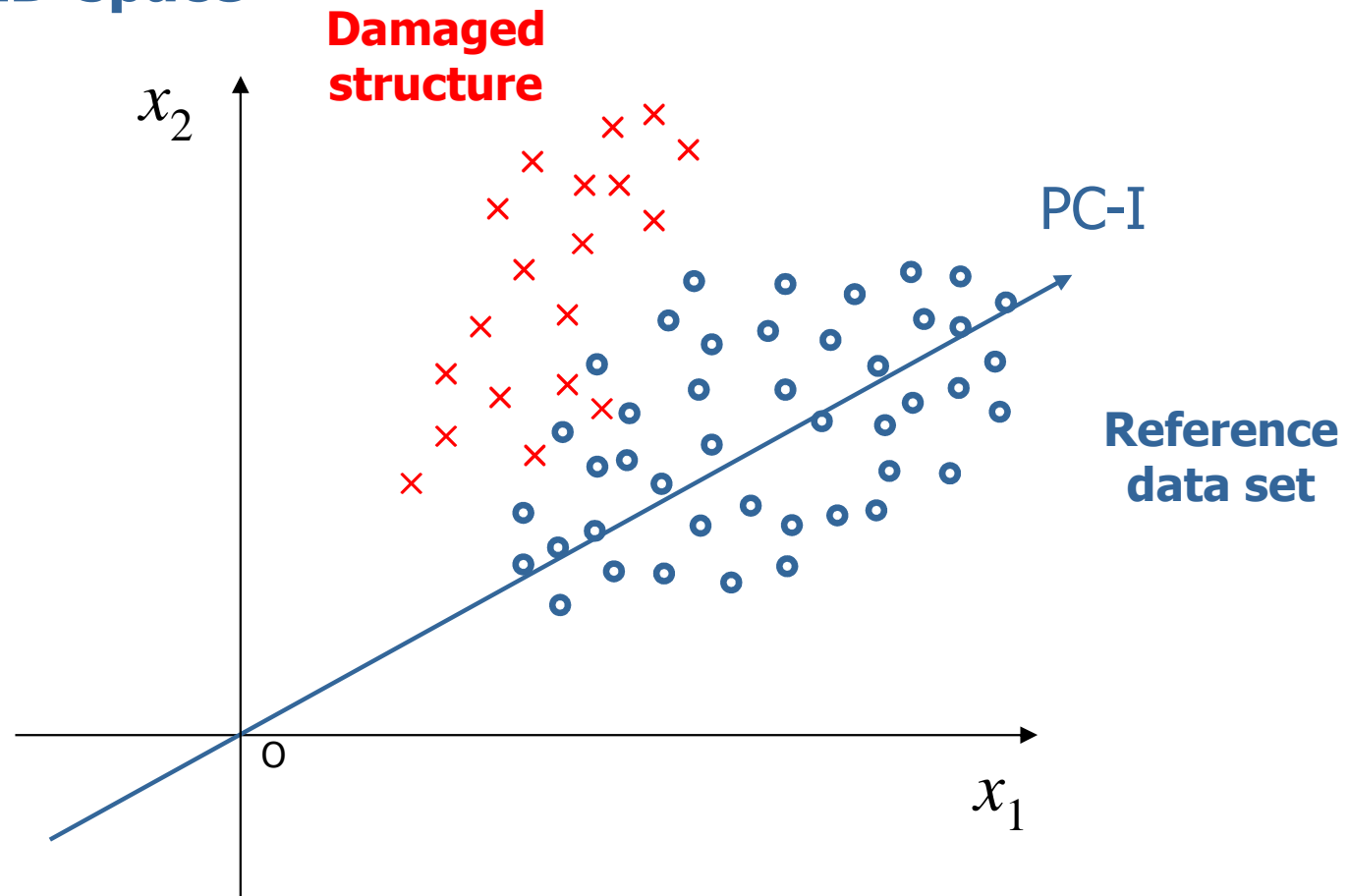
## Geometric interpretation

### PCA in 2D-space



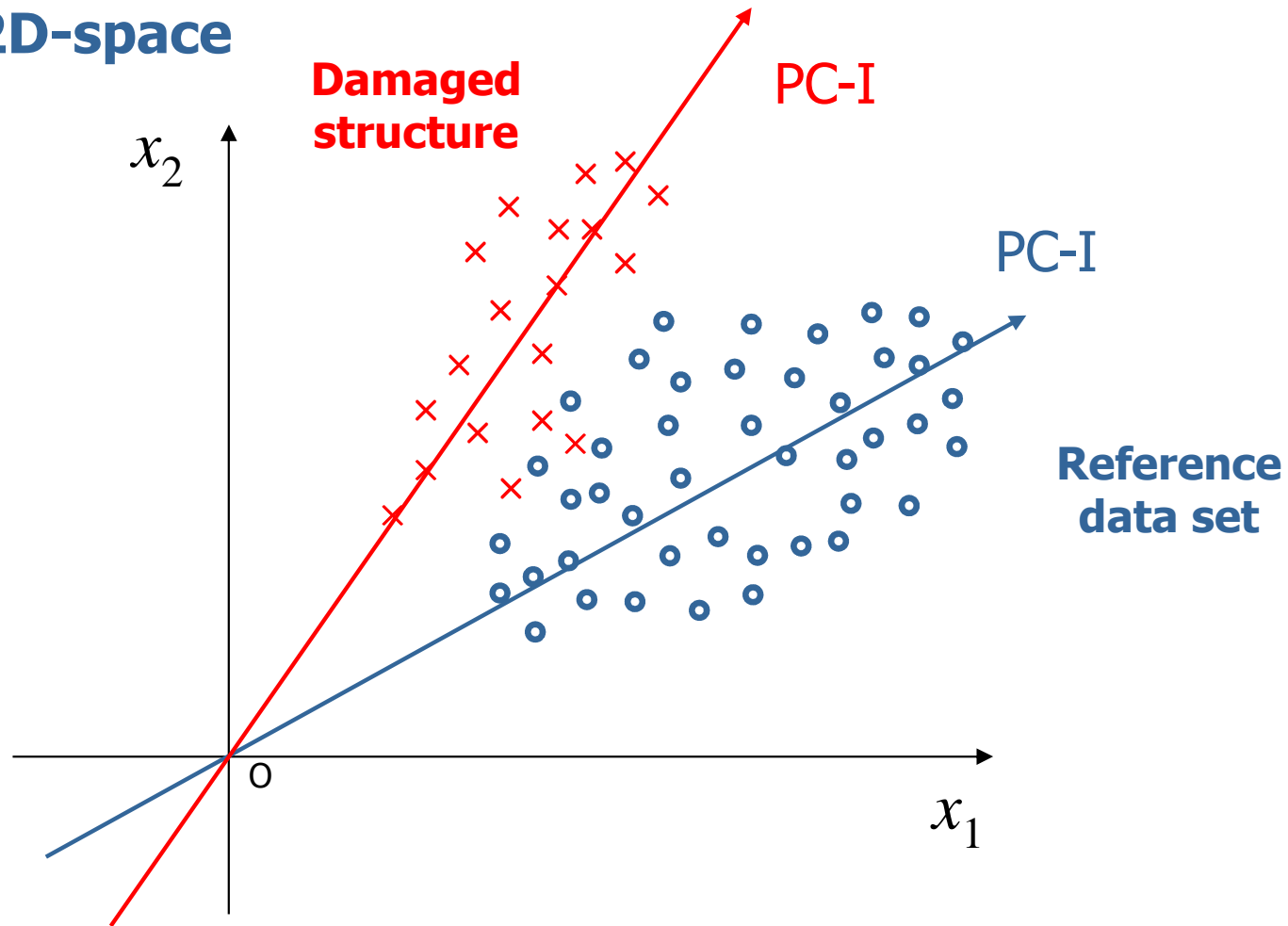
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## Geometric interpretation

### PCA in 2D-space

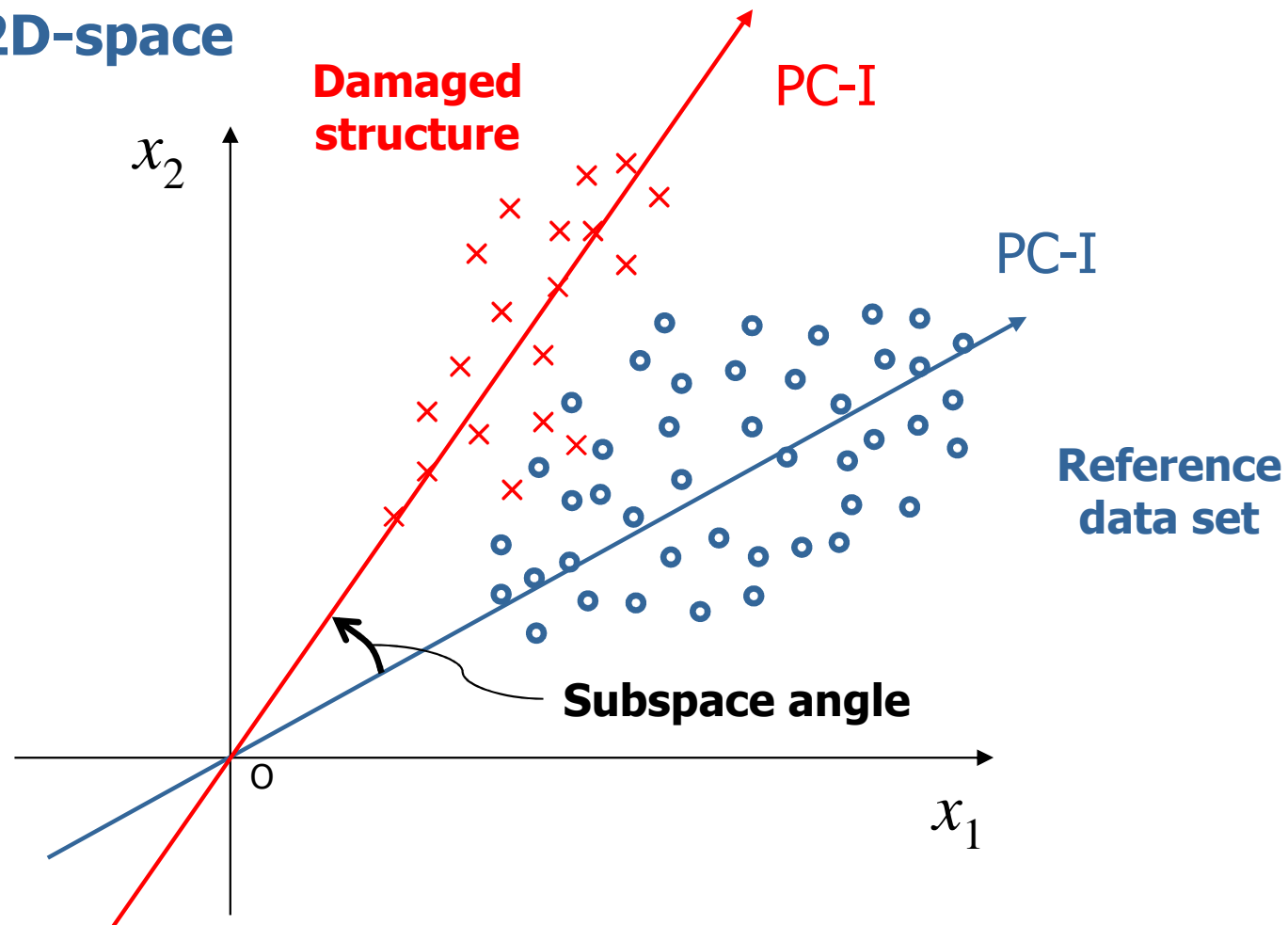




# Damage detection problem

## Geometric interpretation

### PCA in 2D-space



# Damage detection problem

**Novelty analysis** → the aim is to build a prediction model using the principal components of reference.

Consider the transformation matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  containing the  $p$  first eigenvectors associated with the largest eigenvalues.

PCA provides a linear mapping of the measured data from the original dimension  $m$  to a lower dimension  $p$

score matrix ← → loading matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  of dimension  $m \times p$

$$\mathbf{Y}_{p \times N} = \left[ \mathbf{u}_{(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_{(p)} \right]^T \mathbf{X}_{m \times N}$$

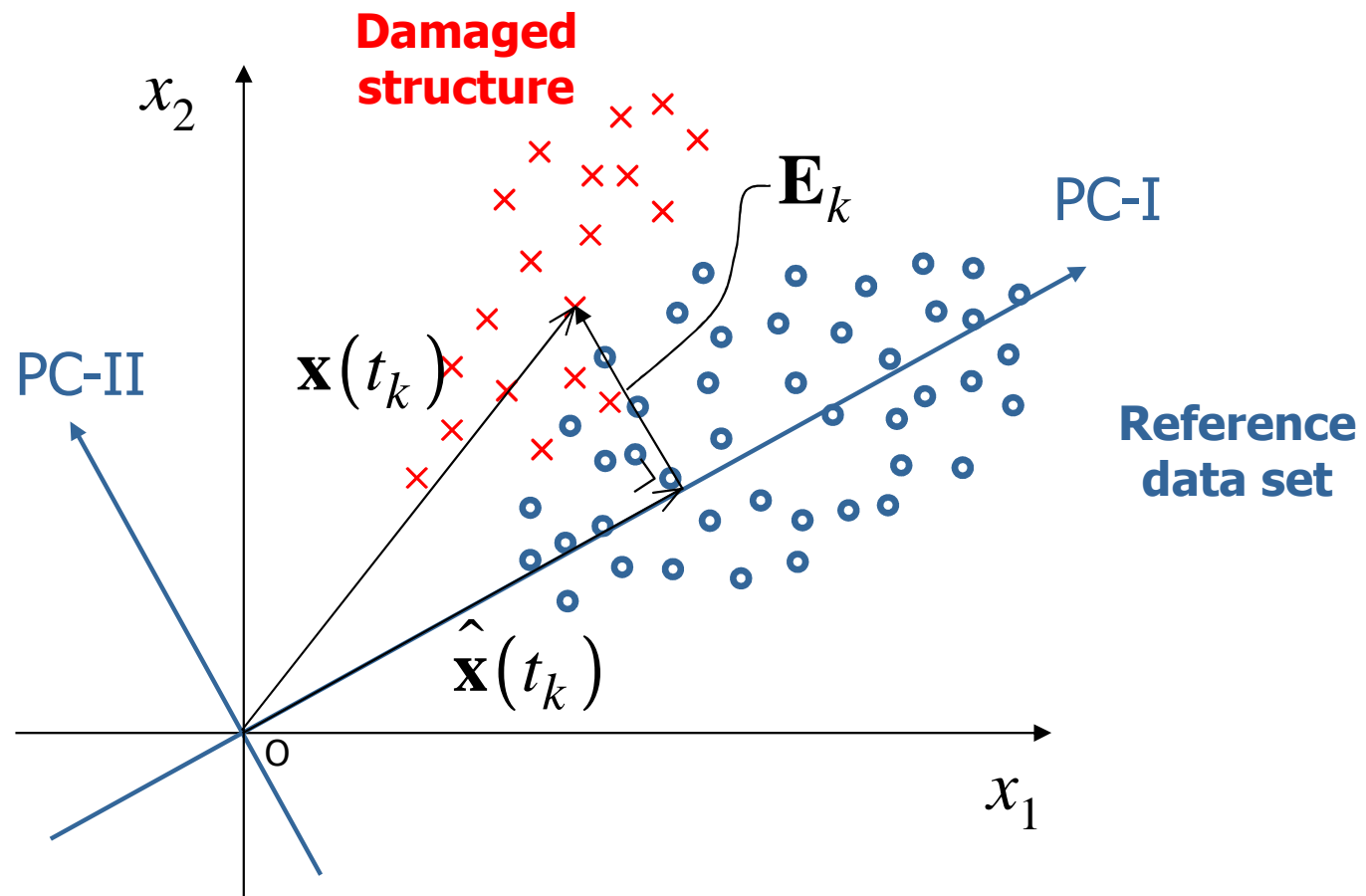
Re-mapping of the projected data back to the original subspace gives

estimated ←  $\hat{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{T} \mathbf{X}$

The residual error matrix is defined as:  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}$

# Damage detection problem

## Geometric interpretation



## Definition of the Novelty Index

Residual error matrix :

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{X} - \hat{\mathbf{X}}$$

Euclidean norm :

$$NI_k^E = \|\mathbf{E}_k\|$$

↳ prediction error vector at time  $t_k$

Mahalanobis norm :

$$NI_k^M = \sqrt{\mathbf{E}_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{E}_k}$$

↳  $\mathbf{R} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T$  (covariance matrix)



# Damage detection problem

The ratio  $\frac{NI_d}{NI_r}$  may be used as a quantitative indicator of damage level.

$NI_d$  → damaged state  
 $NI_r$  → reference state

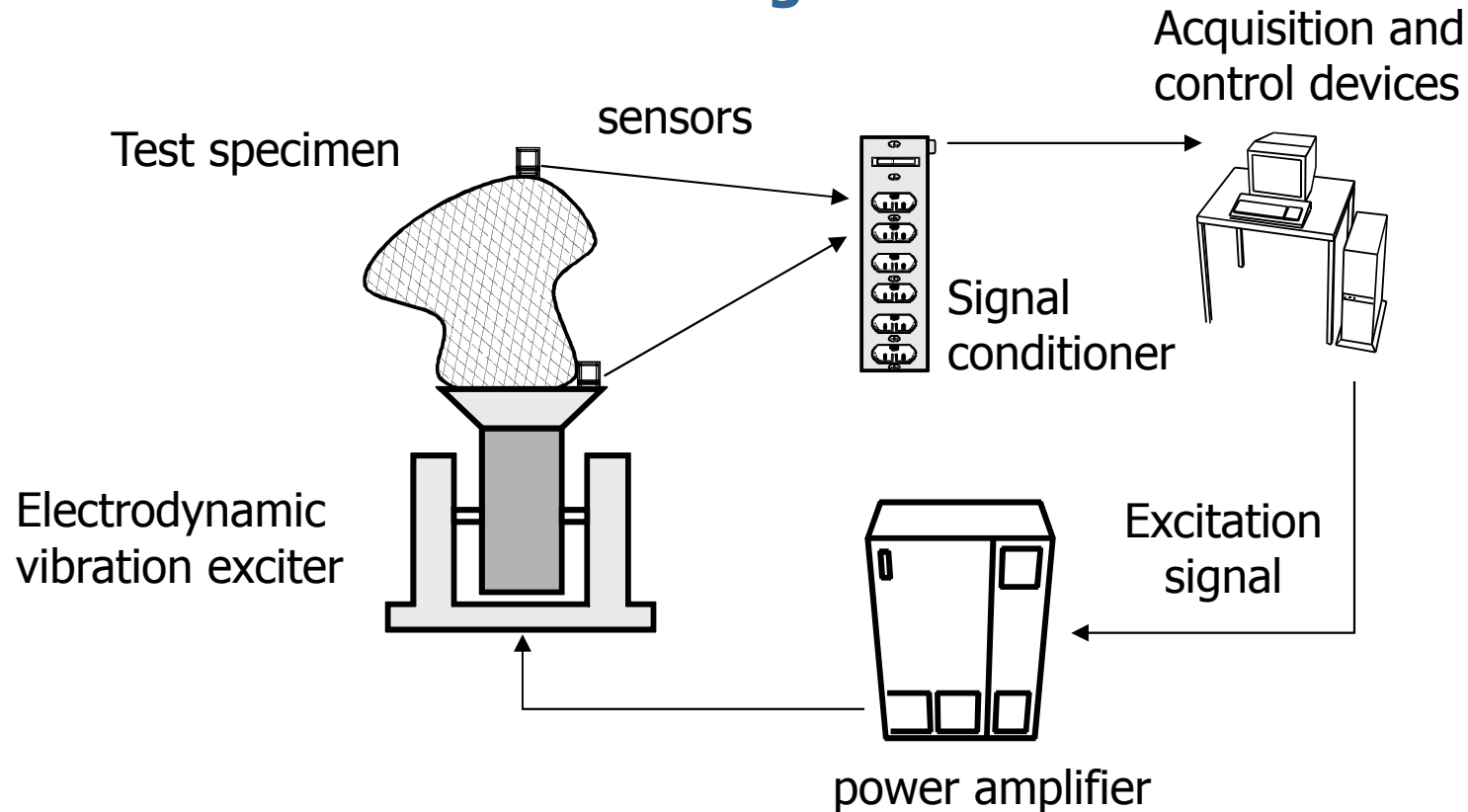
Statistical tool :  $CL = \overline{NI} + 3\sigma$  (Upper Control Limit at 99.7 % confidence interval)

$\overline{NI}$  → mean value  
 $\sigma$  → standard deviation



# Example of damage detection

## Environmental Vibration Testing



Detection of damages usually by visual inspection or by comparison of frequency spectra before and after the test.

Objective : to be able to detect damage as soon as it appears.

# Example of damage detection

## Fatigue testing of a street lighting device

### Control accelerometer



+ 10 measurement accelerometers

Total test duration: ~ 4 hours

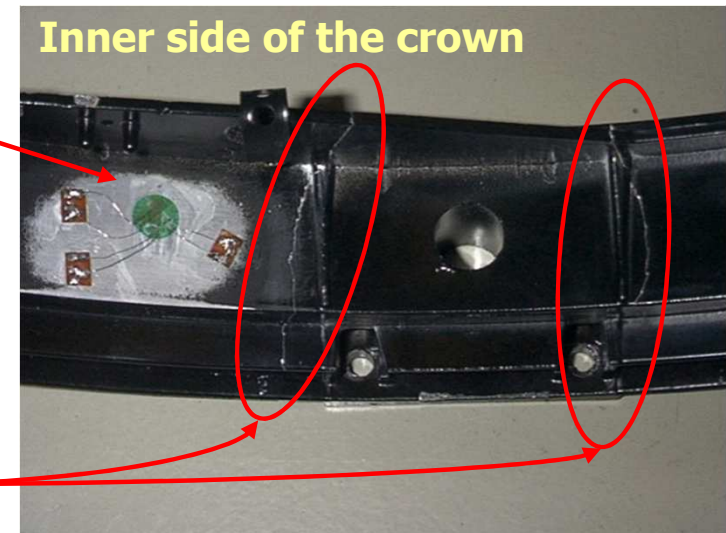
Mode of failure of the crown

Crack initiation and propagation

### Vibration specifications

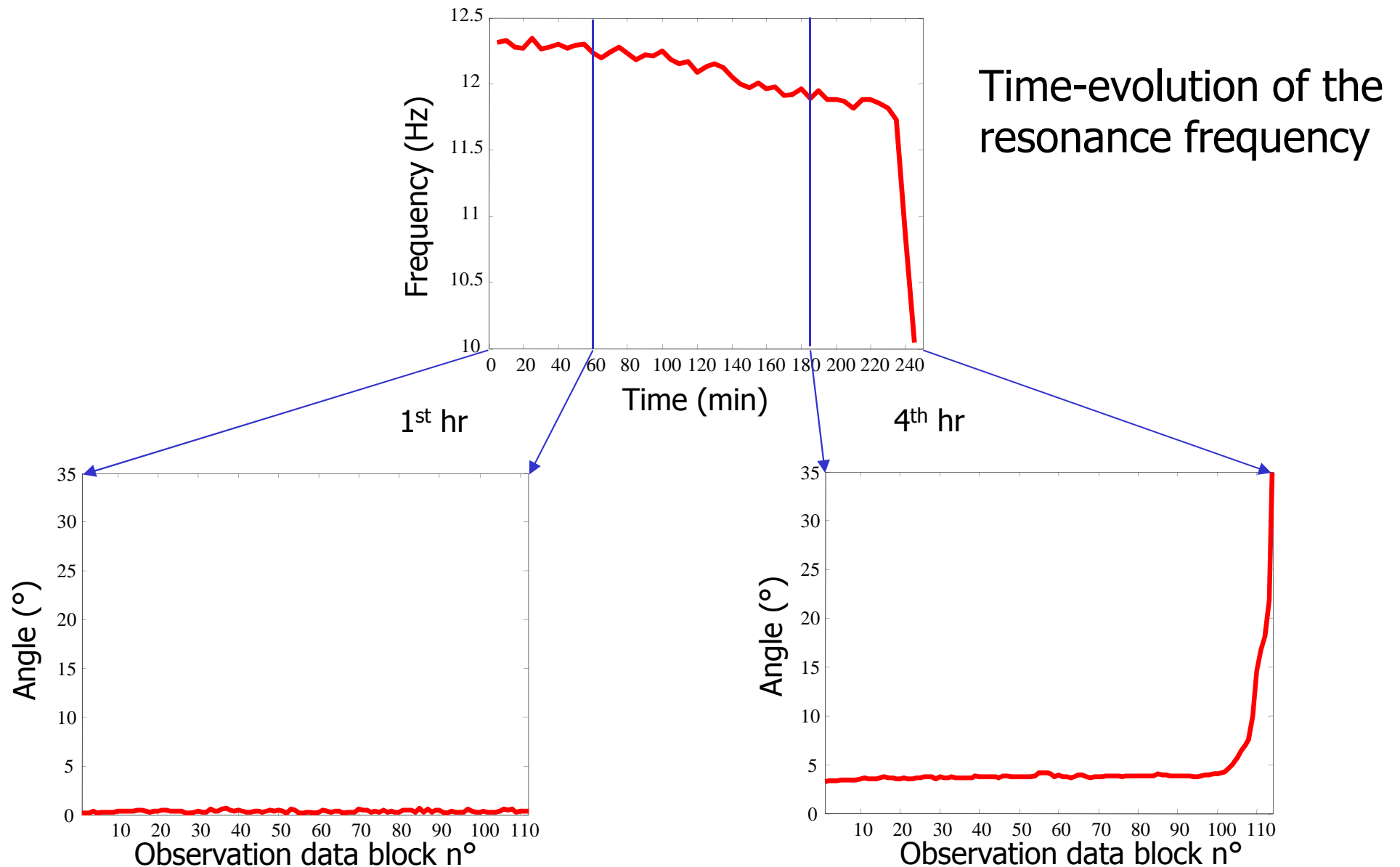
- Sine excitation at the first resonance frequency ( $\sim 12,4$  Hz) during 1 hour.
- Acceleration level of 0,5 g at the fixation.

### Strain gauges





# Damage detection (Results)



Time-evolution of the angle

## Limitation of the PCA-based method

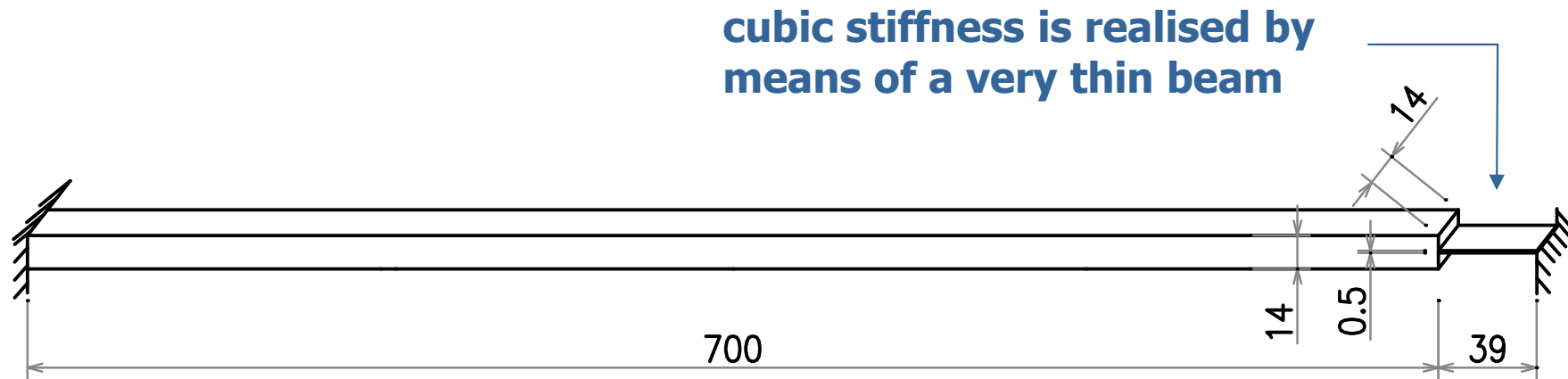
The number of sensors must be larger than the number of active modes → it can be solved using the concept of null-subspace of the Hankel matrices of responses.

## Null Subspace Analysis (NSA)

**Aim :** to replace the observation matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  by a “dynamic” response matrix (i.e. the Hankel matrix)

## Detection of nonlinearity onset

Example: beam with nonlinear stiffness used as benchmark in the framework of the European action COST F3.



For weak excitation, the system behaviour may be considered as linear. When the excitation level increases, the thin beam exhibits large displacements and a nonlinear geometric effect is activated resulting in a stiffening effect at the end of the main beam.

# Detection of nonlinearity onset

## Impact excitation

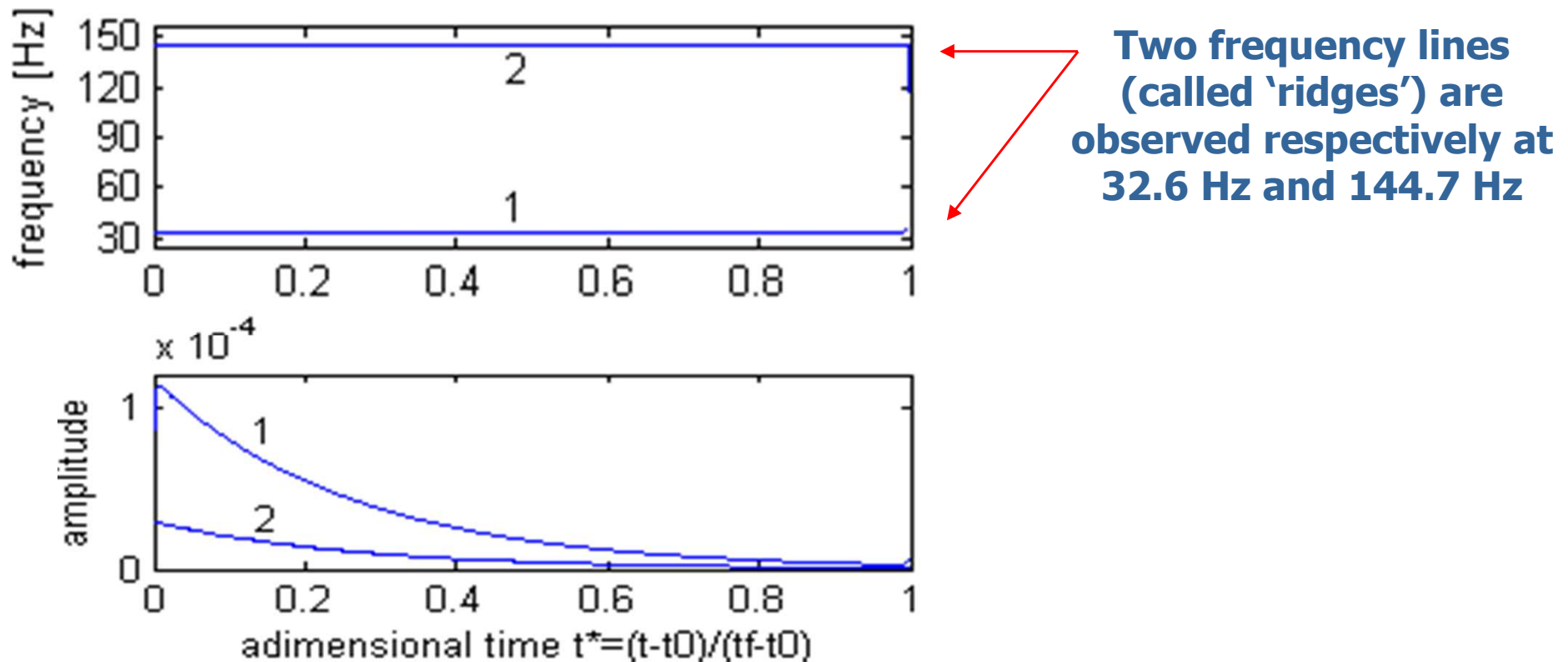
Test n°	1-7	8	9	10	11	12
Largest displacement ( <i>mm</i> )	< 0.04	0.48	0.72	0.93	1.20	1.37

The nonlinearity is activated

# Detection of nonlinearity onset

## Detection based on the Wavelet Transform (WT)

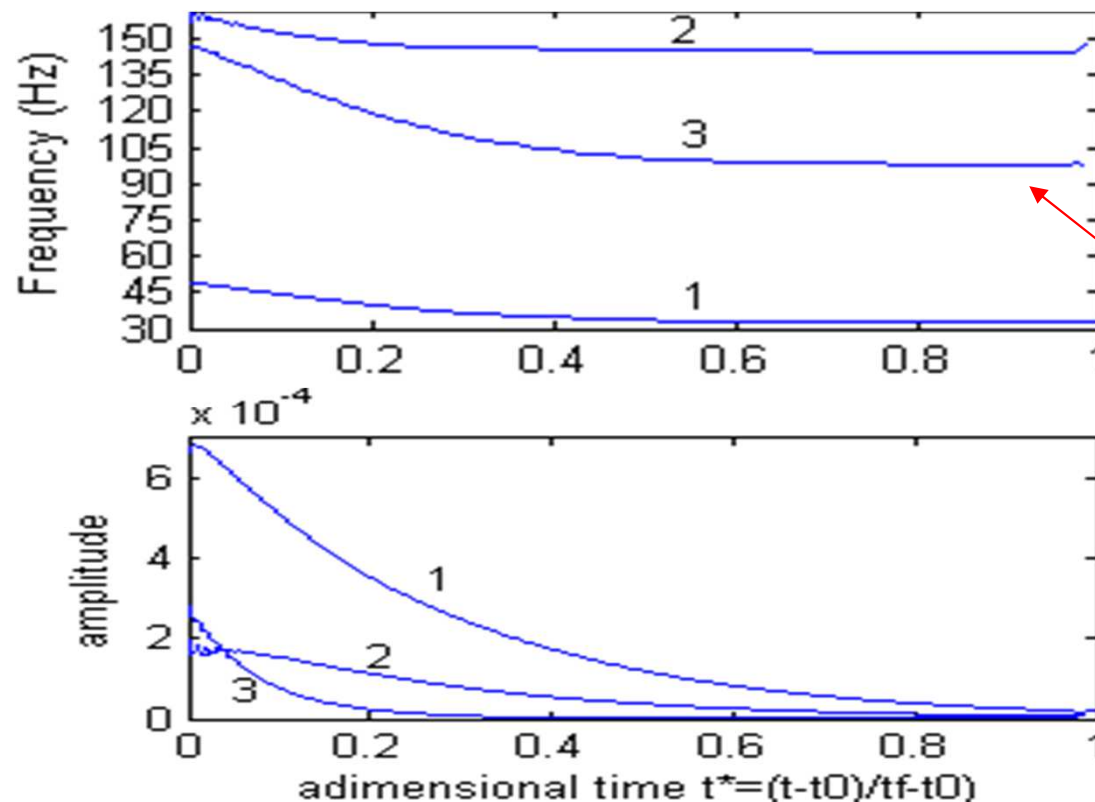
WT of the displacement at coordinate n° 7



→ at low excitation level (impact of 70N), the behaviour of the beam appears as linear (largest displacement lower than 0.15 mm).

## Detection based on the Wavelet Transform (WT)

WT of the displacement at coordinate n° 7



- drop-off of the frequencies down to the linear system values as the nonlinear effect vanishes progressively
- presence of a third order superharmonic of the first frequency (curve n° 3)

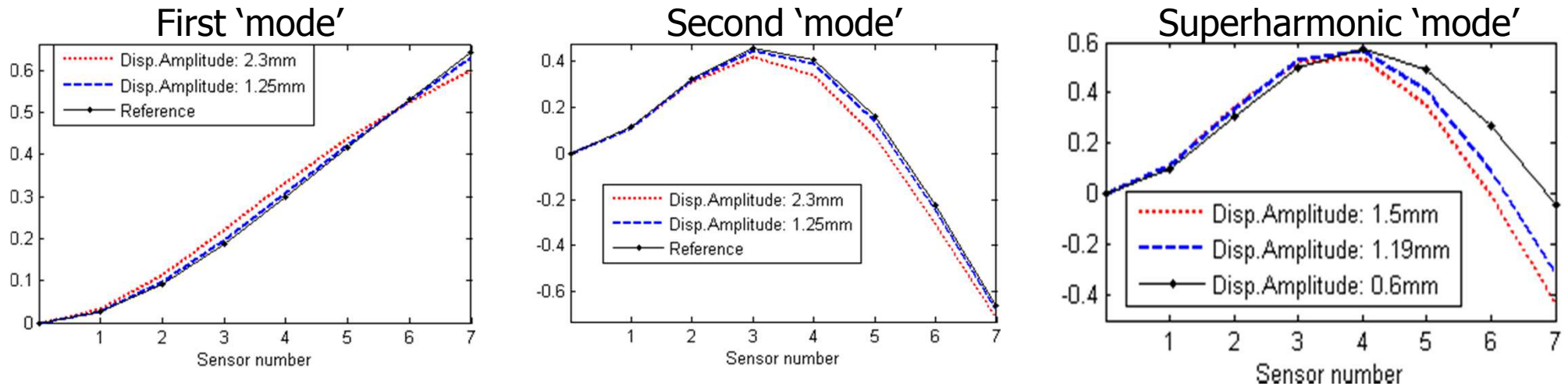
→ at high level of excitation (impact of 1500N), the behaviour is clearly nonlinear (maximum displacement at the right end of about 2.4 mm).





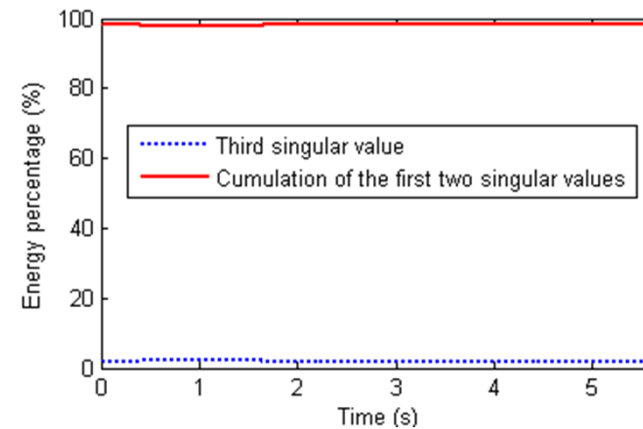
# Detection of nonlinearity onset

## Instantaneous deformation shapes



Defining an instantaneous deformation matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{M}_1 \ \mathbf{M}_2 \ \mathbf{M}_3]$ .

**The instantaneous singular values of the decomposition in terms of energy percentage reveals that the third singular value is negligible.**

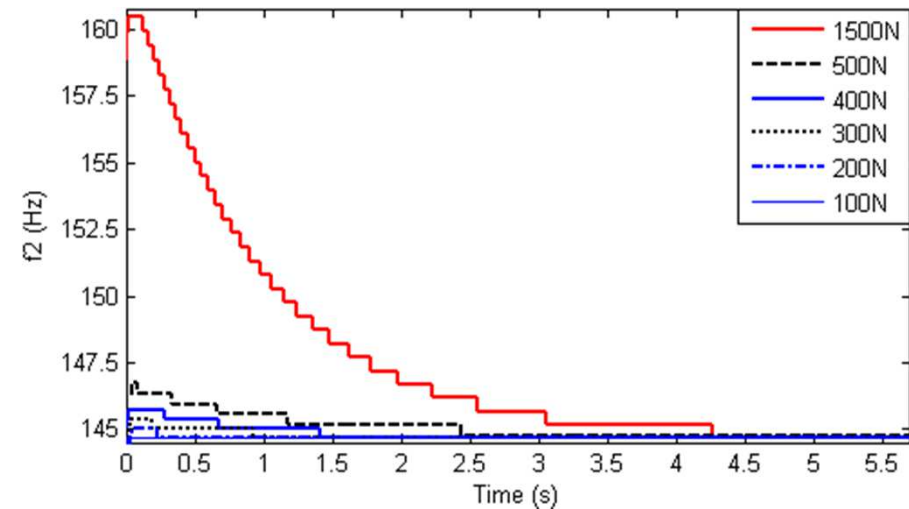
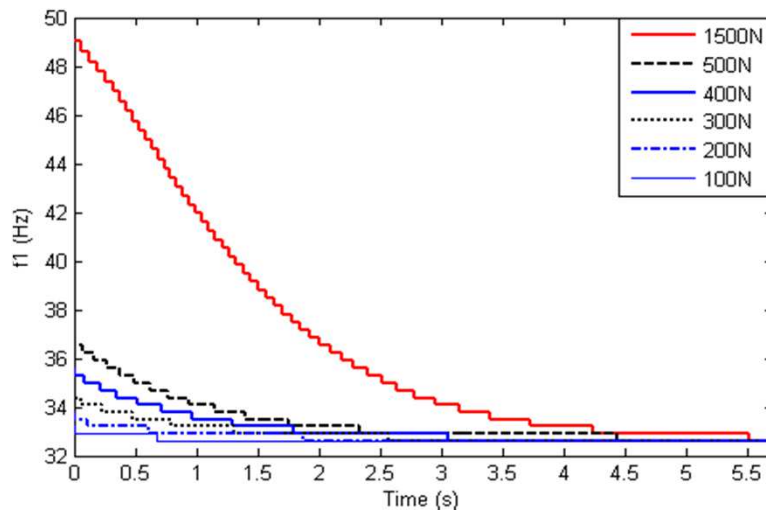


→ the third (superharmonic) deformation 'mode' ( $\mathbf{M}_3$ ) is actually a linear combination of the two other 'modes'.

# Detection of nonlinearity onset

Detection based on the concept of subspace angle

- the structure is now excited at increasing level of impact forces (amplitudes ranging from 100 N to 1500 N).

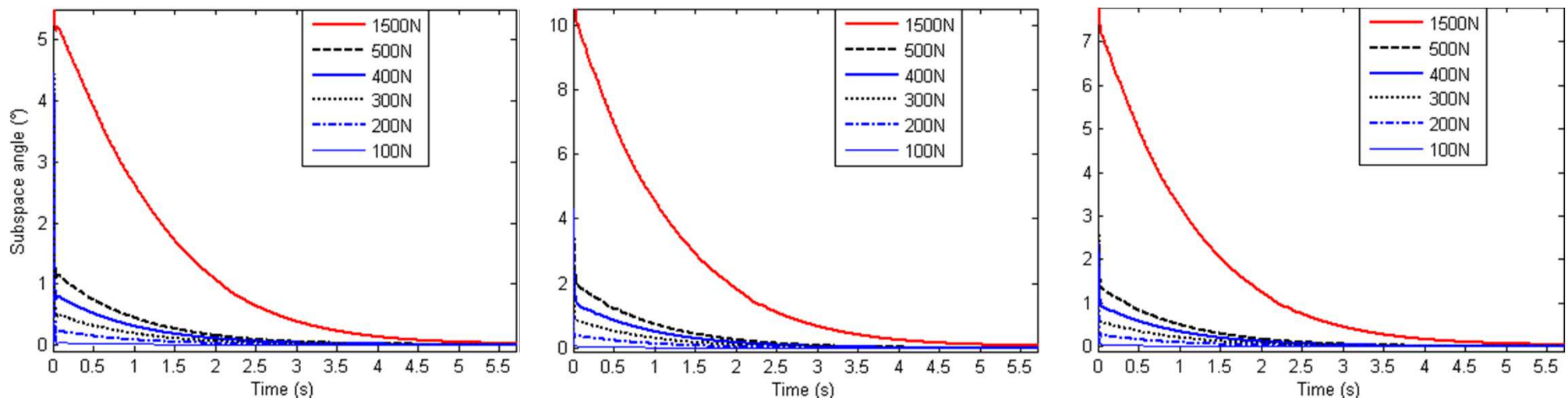


Evolution of the instantaneous frequencies

# Detection of nonlinearity onset

The instantaneous deformation shapes associated to the two frequencies may be considered as instantaneous active modes to define a subspace which characterises the dynamic state of the structure. The comparison of subspace angles between the reference state (defined by the linear normal modes) and current states at different excitation levels reveals the range of activation of the nonlinearity.

Time evolution of subspace angles for different excitation levels



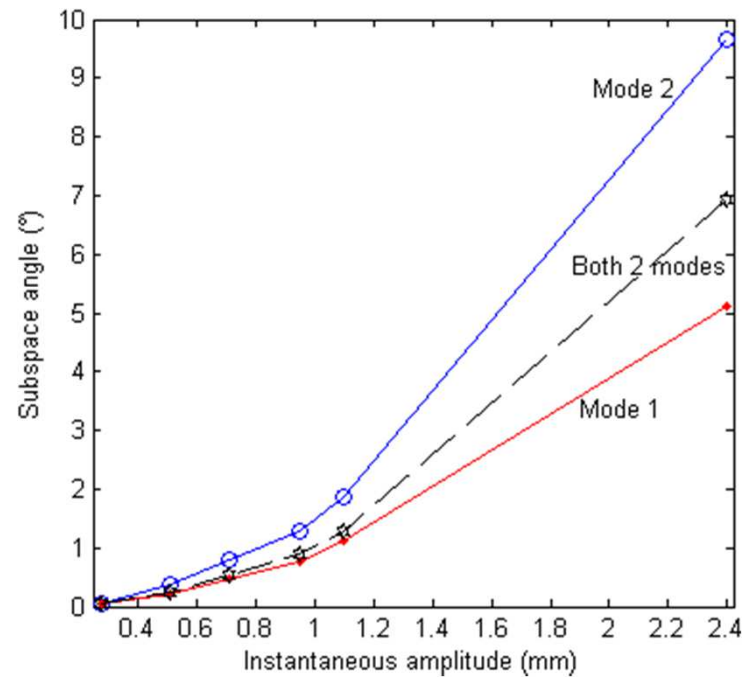
**a) Based on the 1<sup>st</sup> mode**

**b) Based on the 2<sup>nd</sup> mode**

**c) Based on both modes**

# Detection of nonlinearity onset

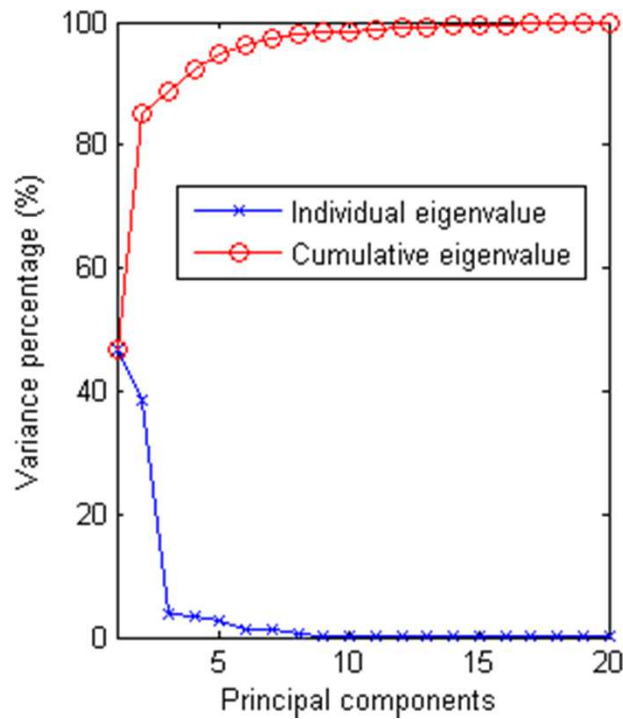
Angle–displacement amplitude at the end of the beam at  $t = 0.1 \text{ s}$



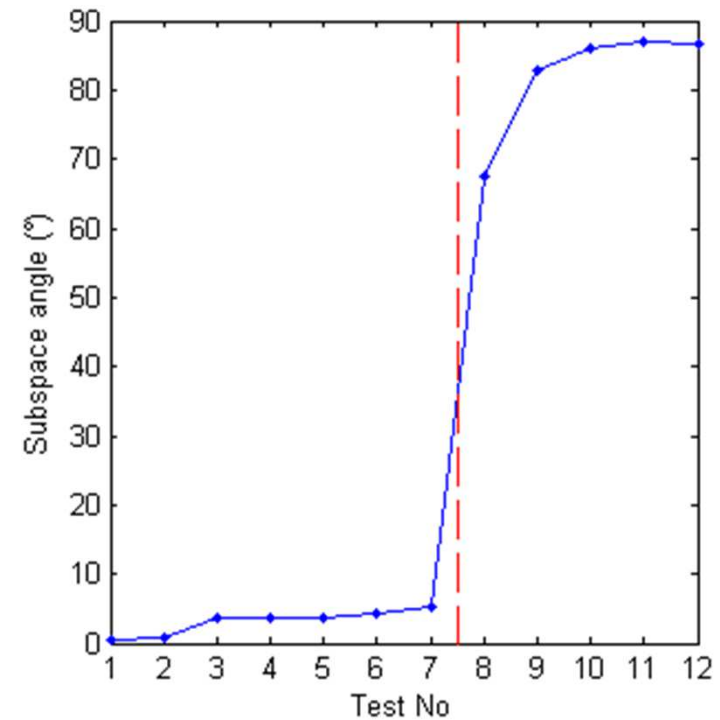
# Detection of nonlinearity onset

## EKPCA-based detection method

Eigenvalue diagram



EKPCA detection based on the subspace angle

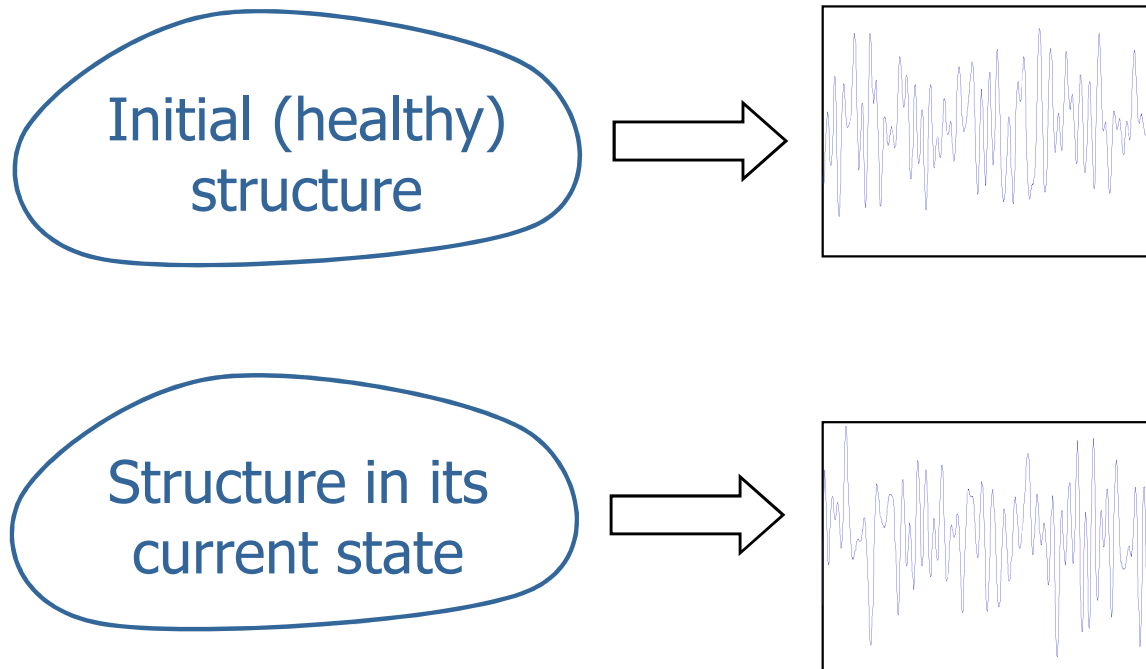


- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Damage detection
- **Structural Health Monitoring**
- Identification of nonlinear parameters
- Conclusion

# Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) process (1)

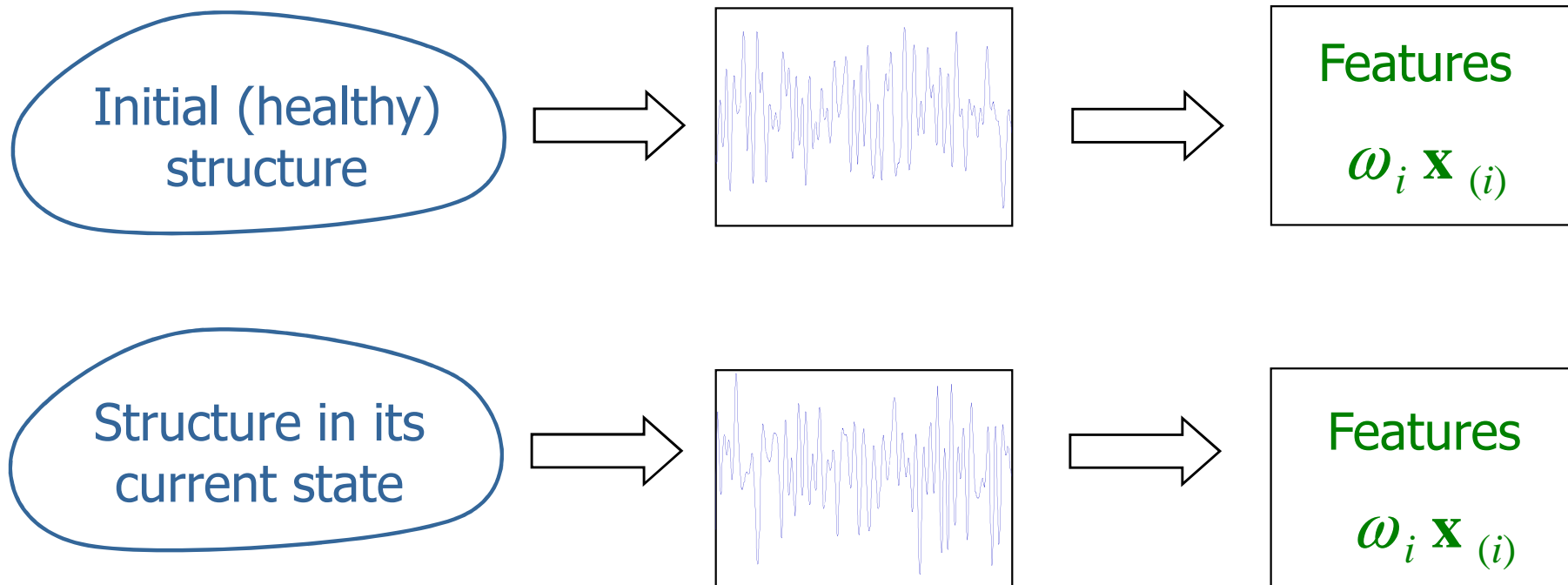
The SHM process involves three steps:

- 1) the observation of a system over time using periodically sampled dynamic measurements from an array of sensors,



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- 1) the observation of a system over time using periodically sampled dynamic measurements from an array of sensors,
- 2) the extraction of damage-sensitive features from these measurements,

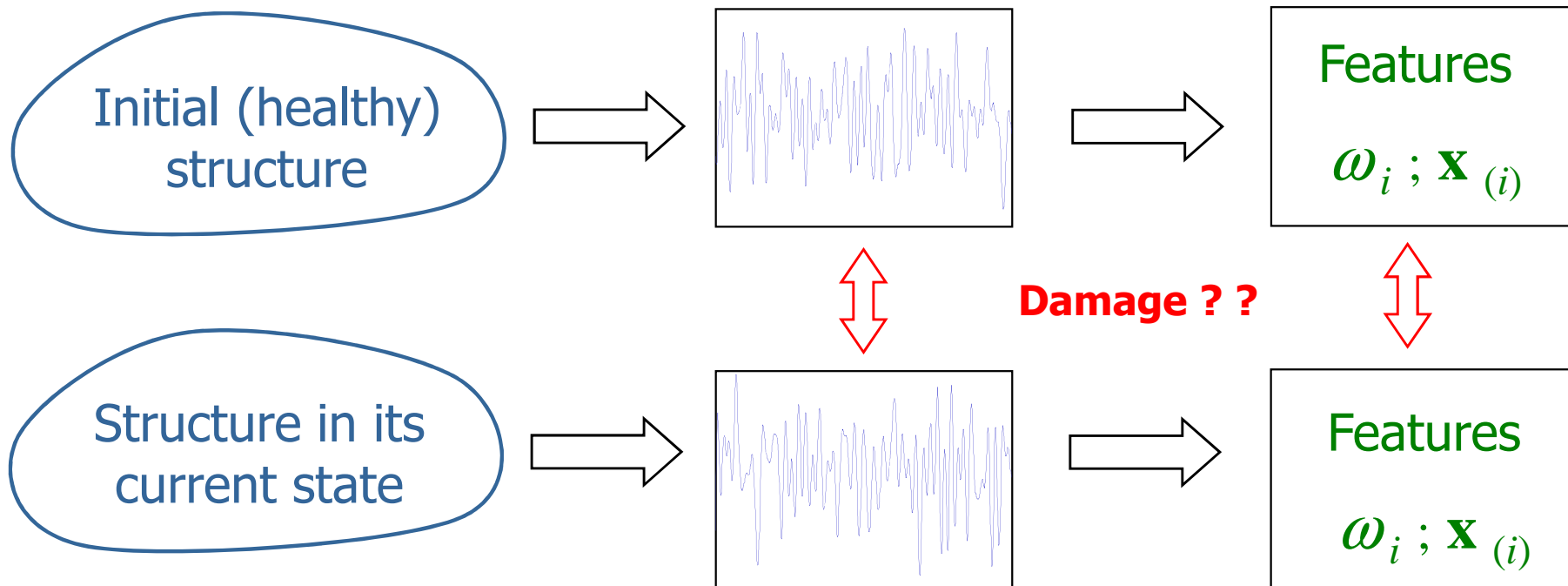




# Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) process (3)

The SHM process involves three steps:

- 1) the observation of a system over time using periodically sampled dynamic measurements from an array of sensors,
- 2) the extraction of damage-sensitive features from these measurements,
- 3) the statistical analysis of these features to determine if the structure is healthy or damaged.



The damage state of a system can be described as a five-step process (Rytter, 1993) to answer the following questions.

- Level 1: **Existence**. Is there damage in the system?
- Level 2: **Location**. Where is the damage in the system?
- Level 3: **Type**. What kind of damage is present?
- Level 4: **Extent**. How severe is the damage?
- Level 5: **Prognosis**. How much useful life remains?

## Categories of false indications of damage

- **False-positive** damage indication = indication of damage when none is present.
  - **False-negative** damage indication = no indication of damage when damage is present.
- Use of statistical procedures to increase robustness

## Influence of environmental conditions

- e.g. temperature variations in civil engineering structure

# The Champangshiehl bridge (1)

- Located in Luxembourg
- Two spans (102m total) concrete box girder bridge built in 1966
- 112 pre-stressed steel cables
- Destruction for territory development purpose



Views of the Champangshiehl bridge  
(Luxembourg)

## The Champangshiehl bridge (2)



Views of the Champangshiehl bridge  
(Luxembourg)

### Context

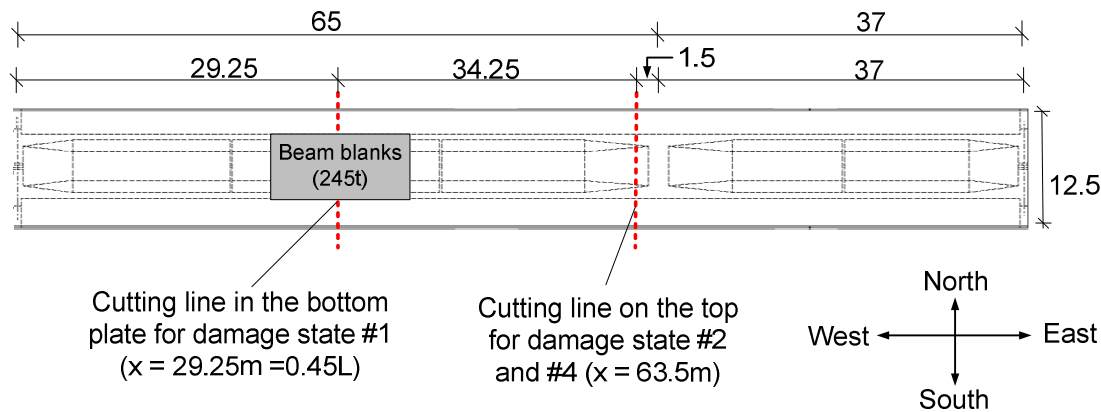
- Project: « Dynamic and Static evaluation of civil engineering structures » led by the University of Luxembourg
  - **Aim:** to assess the feasibility of non-destructive testing methods for condition monitoring of civil structures
  - **Mean:** introduce controlled damage in the Champangshiehl bridge
- Collaboration with the University of Liège to test damage detection techniques.

# The Champangshiehl bridge (3)

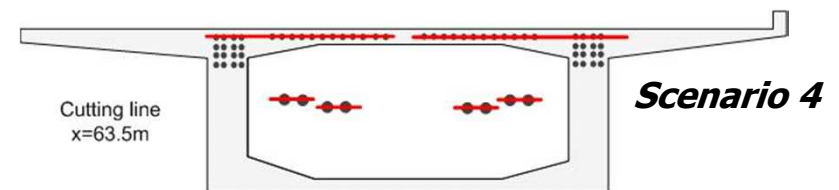
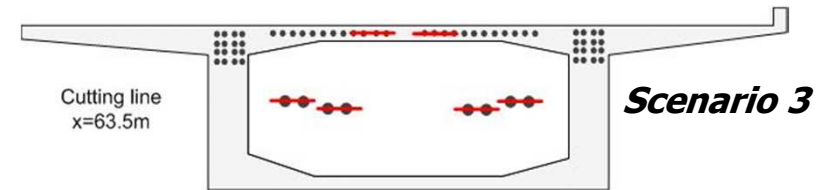
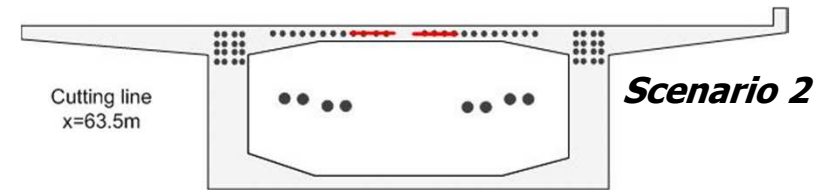
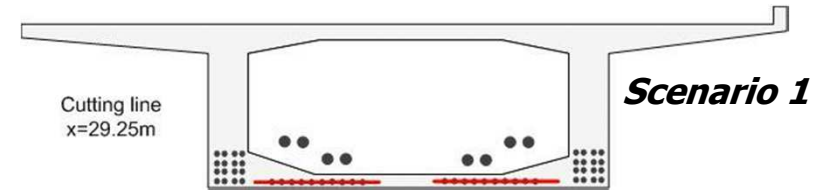
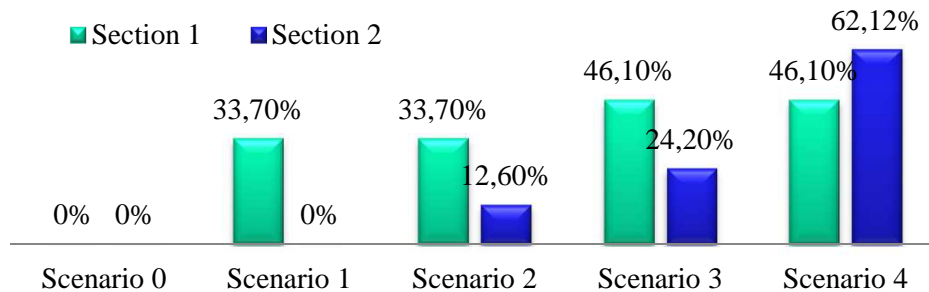
## Damage scenarios

4 damage cases

### Bridge top-view – cutting sections



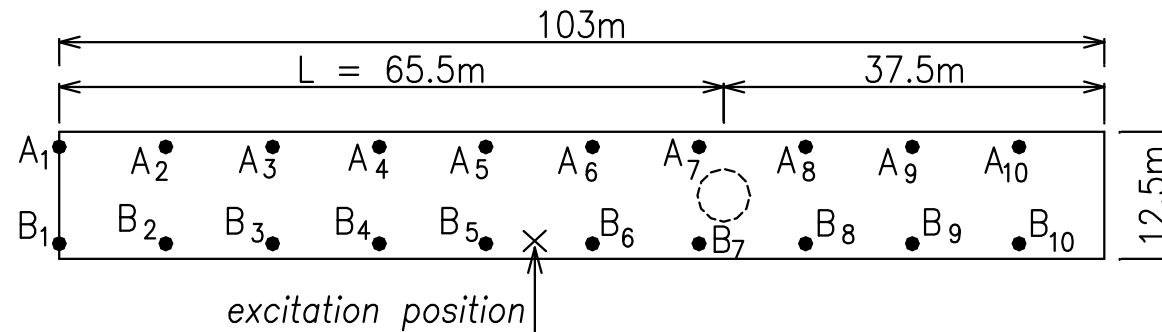
### Percentage of cut tendons in each section





# The Champangshiehl bridge (4)

## Measurement set-up



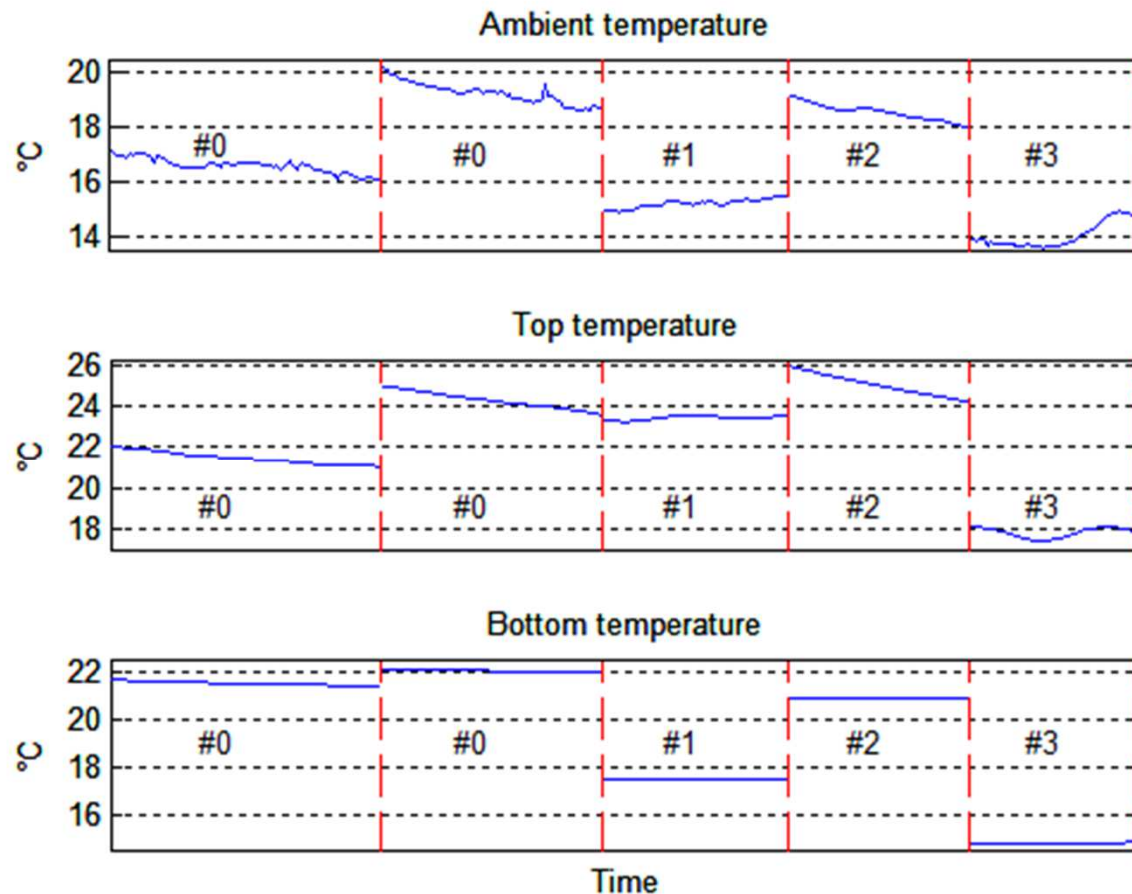
Location of the sensors on the bridge deck

- Dynamic measurements
  - Tri-axial accelerometers
  - 20 measurement points (A1-A10, B1-B10).
  
- Excitation
  - Impact excitation between B5 and B6
  - Swept sine excitation by a reaction-type vibration machine using two rotating unbalances

# The Champangshiehl bridge (4)

## Measurement set-up

Evolution of the temperatures recorded at different locations on the bridge

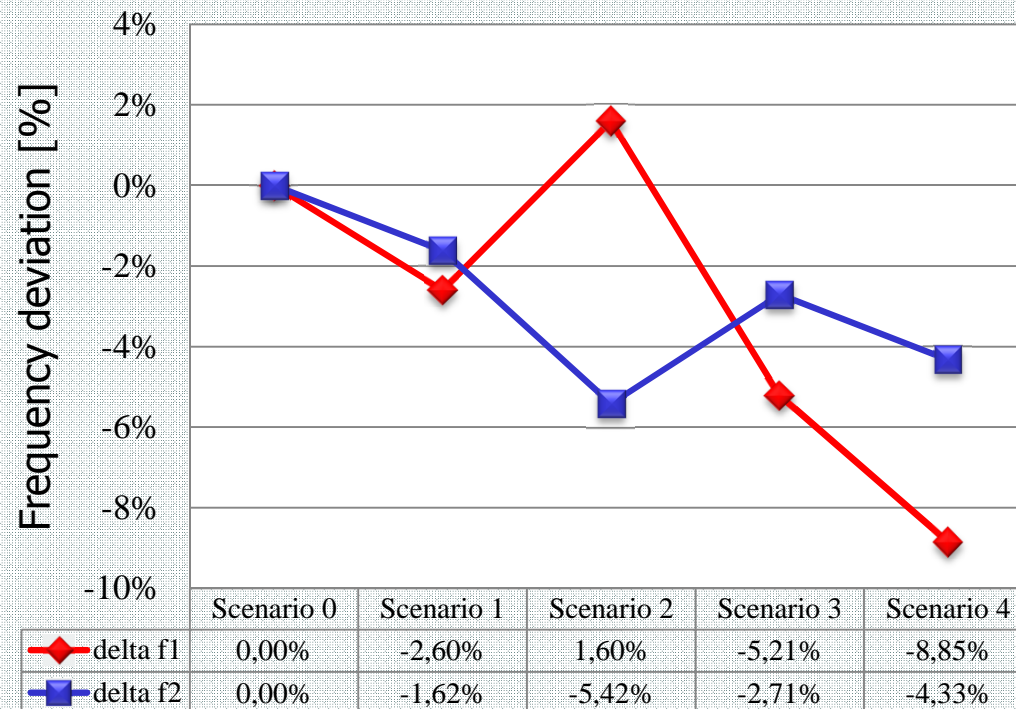




# The Champangshiehl bridge (5)

## Identification of natural frequencies using SSI

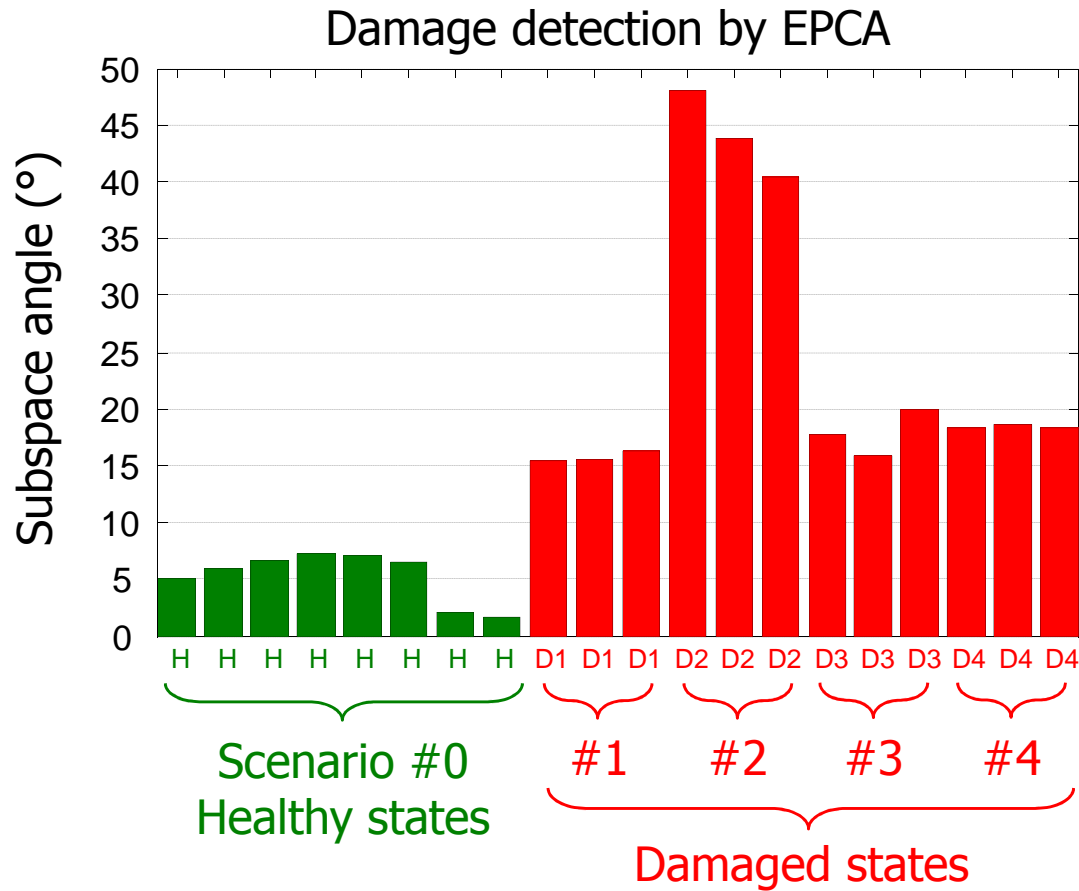
- Use of the free response after impact excitation
- Detection of the 2 first natural frequencies in all the scenarios
- In the healthy state (scenario #0):  $f_1 = 1.92 \text{ Hz}$ ,  $f_2 = 5.54 \text{ Hz}$



The natural frequencies decrease as more tendons are cut (except for  $f_1$  in damage scenario 2)

# The Champangshiehl bridge (6)

## Damage detection results



## Use of Principal Component Analysis (\*)

In the following method, measurement of environmental variables is not required but their effects are merely observed from the variation of measured features (i.e. natural frequencies in this case).

Let us denote by  $\mathbf{y}_k$  a vector of  $n$  vibration features identified at time  $t_k$  and let us collect all the samples ( $k=1, \dots, N$ ) in a  $(n \times N)$  matrix  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

Performing SVD of the covariance matrix gives

$$\mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}^T = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma}^2 \mathbf{U}^T \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

and

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Sigma}_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{\Sigma}_2 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{negligible (due to noise)}$$

## Eliminating environmental effects (2)

The first  $m$  columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  are taken to build matrix  $\mathbf{T}$  so that

score matrix ←      → loading matrix

$$\mathbf{X}_{m \times N} = \mathbf{T}_{m \times n} \mathbf{Y}_{n \times N}$$

The dimension  $m$  may be thought as the physical order of the system which corresponds to the number of combined environmental factors that affect the features.

The loss of information can be assessed by re-mapping the projected data back to the original space

estimated ←

$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{T} \mathbf{Y}$$

and the residual error matrix is defined as :

$$\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$$

## Definition of the Novelty Index

Residual error matrix :  $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{Y} - \hat{\mathbf{Y}}$

Euclidean norm :  $NI_k^E = \|\mathbf{E}_k\|$

prediction error vector at time  $t_k$

Mahalanobis norm :  $NI_k^M = \sqrt{\mathbf{E}_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{E}_k}$

$\mathbf{R} = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}^T$  (covariance matrix)

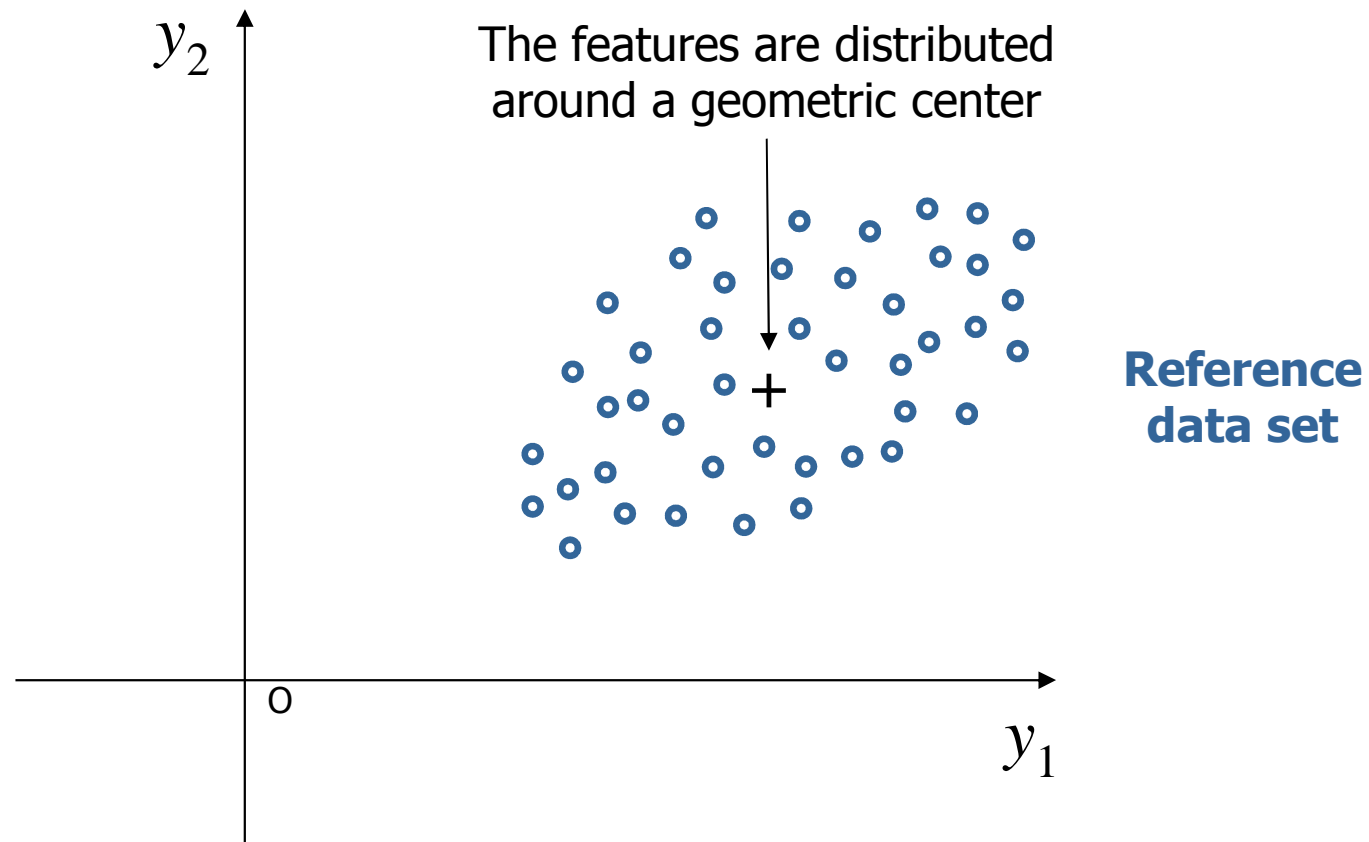
Statistical tool :  $CL = \overline{NI} + 3 \sigma$  (Upper Control Limit at 99.7 % confidence interval)

mean value

standard deviation

## Principal component analysis

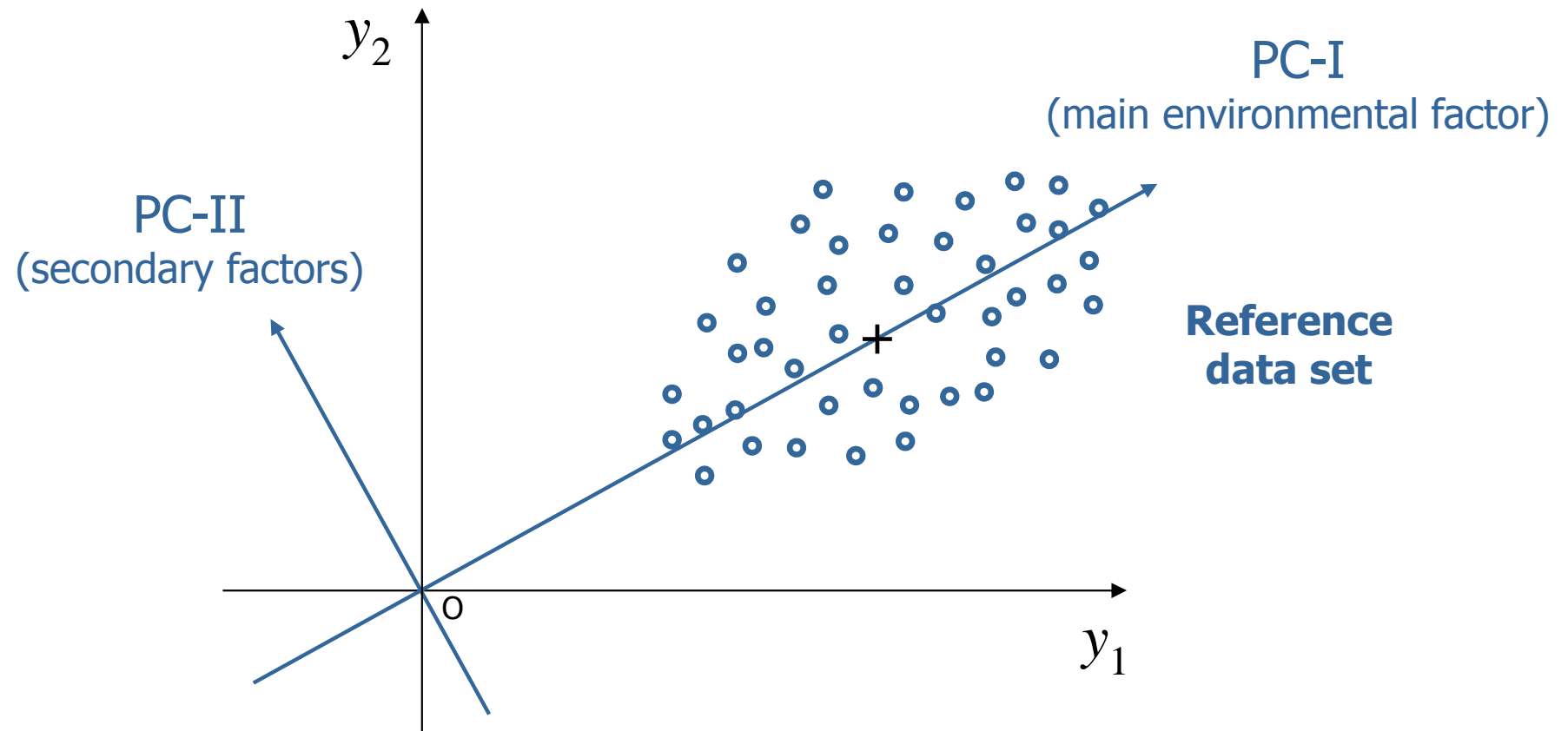
### In the 2D-space



Environmental variations are responsible for the dispersion

## Principal component analysis

### In the 2D-space

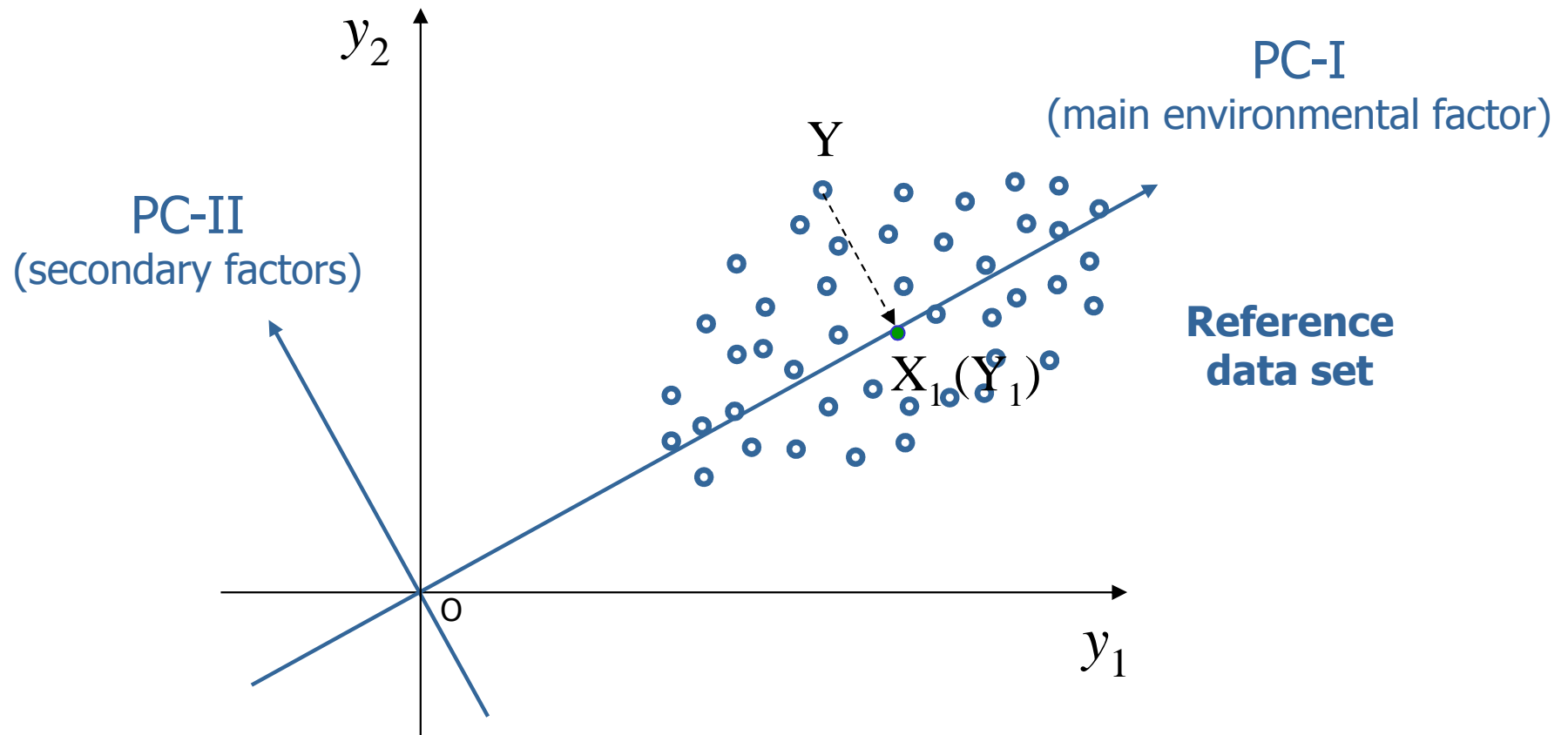




# Eliminating environmental effects (6)

## Principal component analysis

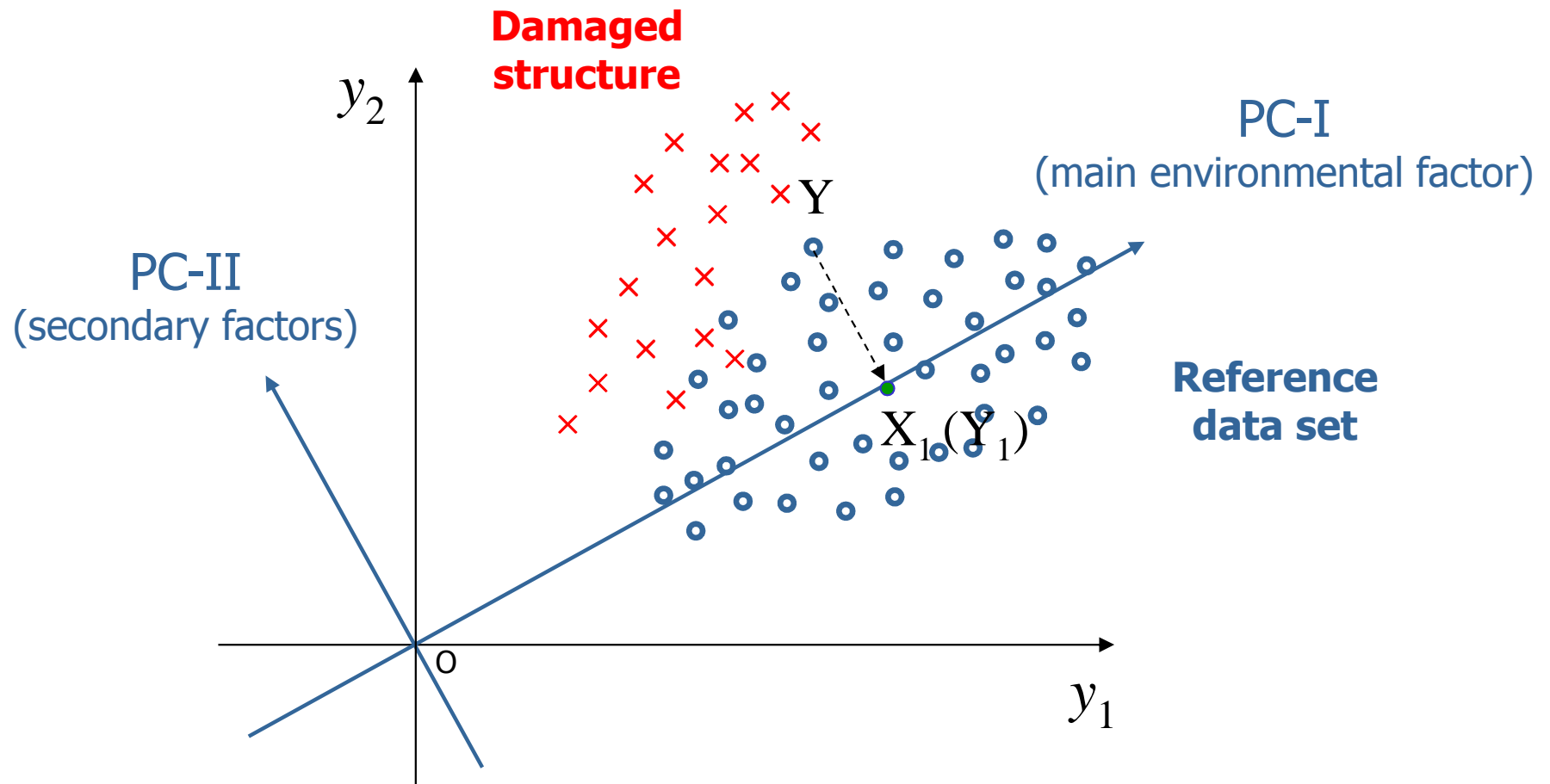
### In the 2D-space





## Principal component analysis

### In the 2D-space



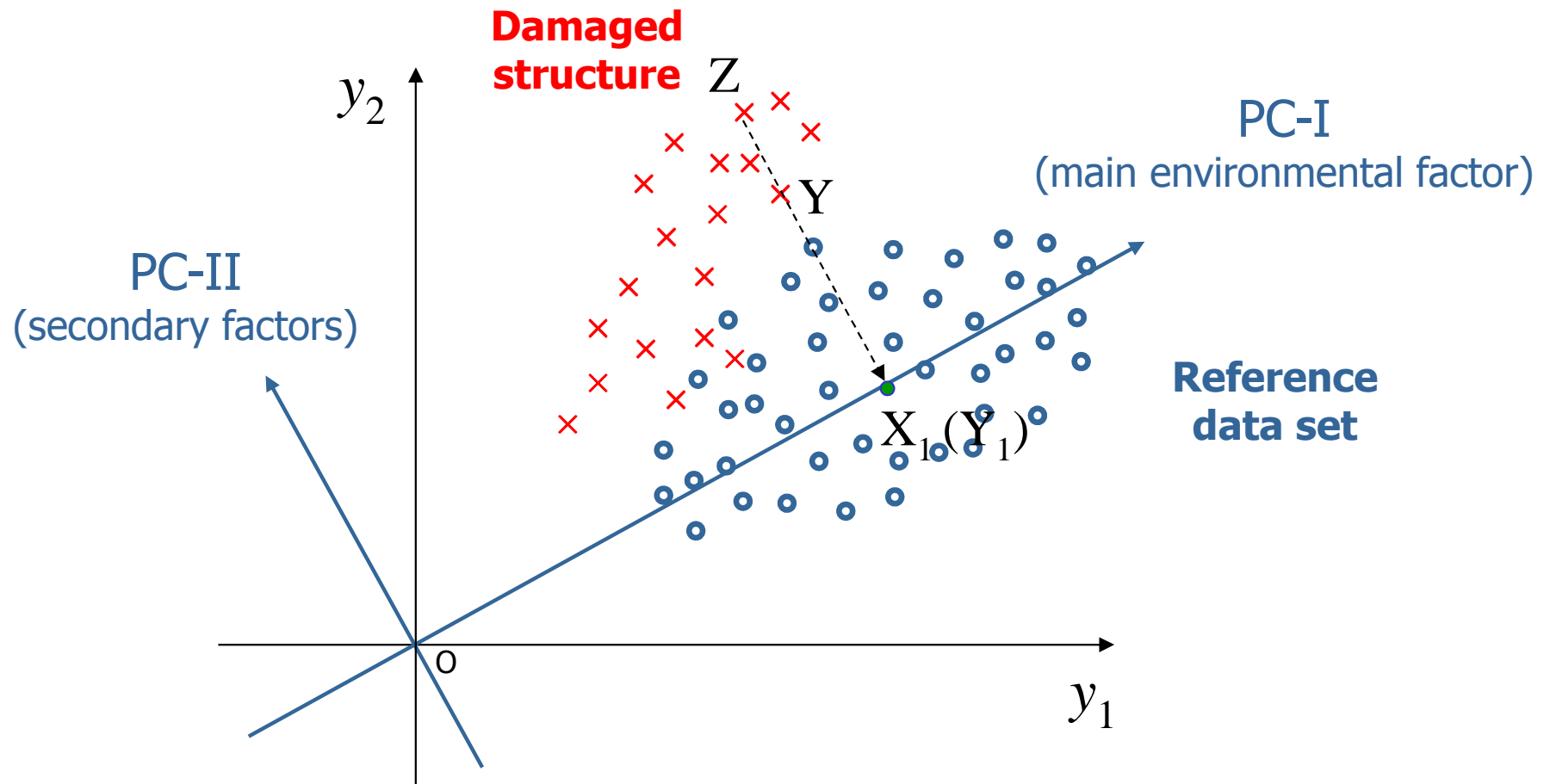
If the structure is damaged, the features depend in a different way on the environmental factors



# Eliminating environmental effects (8)

## Principal component analysis

### In the 2D-space

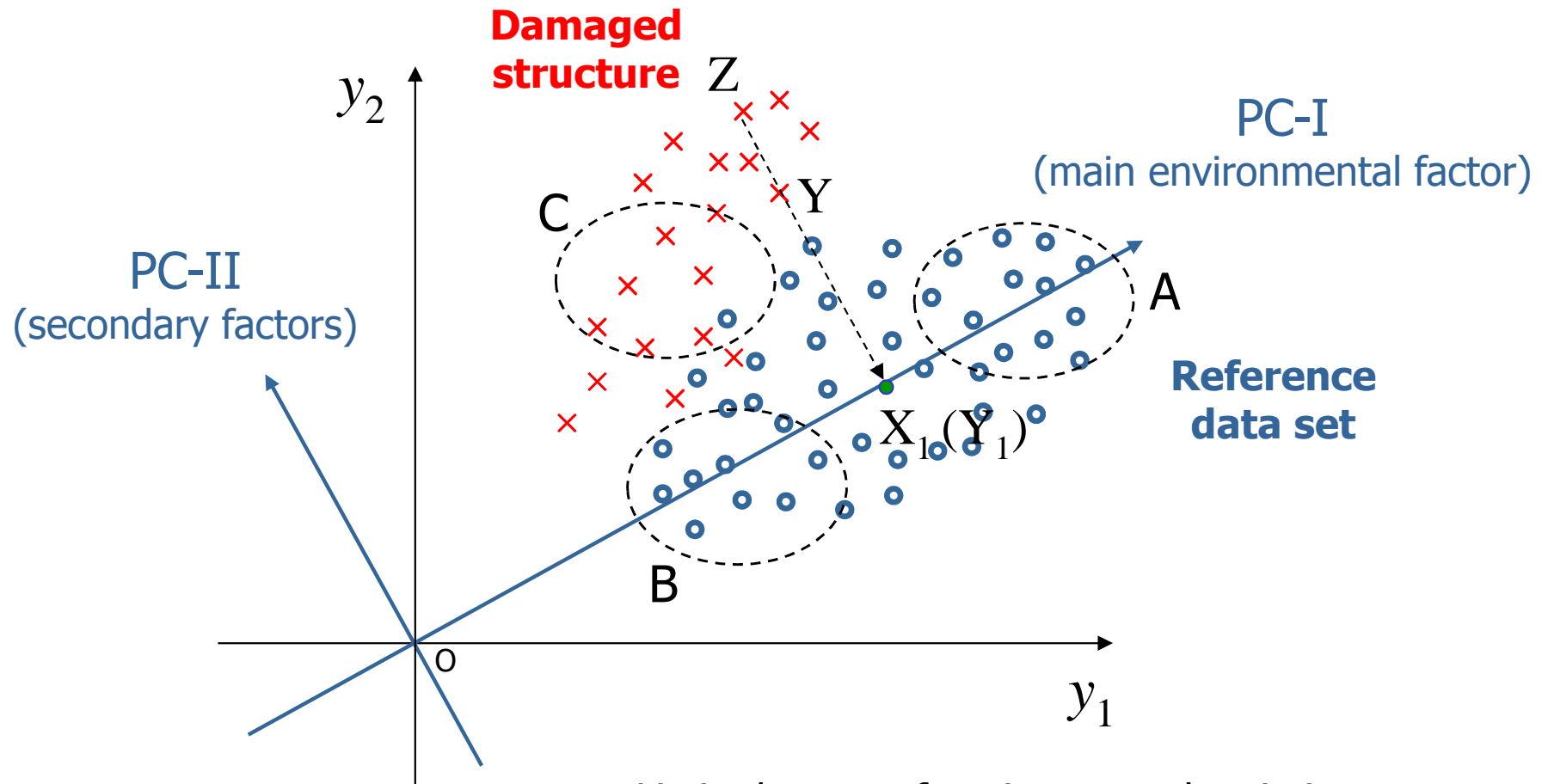


Remark: data normalization (zero-mean and unitary standard deviation) should be avoided in the present case !

# Eliminating environmental effects (9)

## Principal component analysis

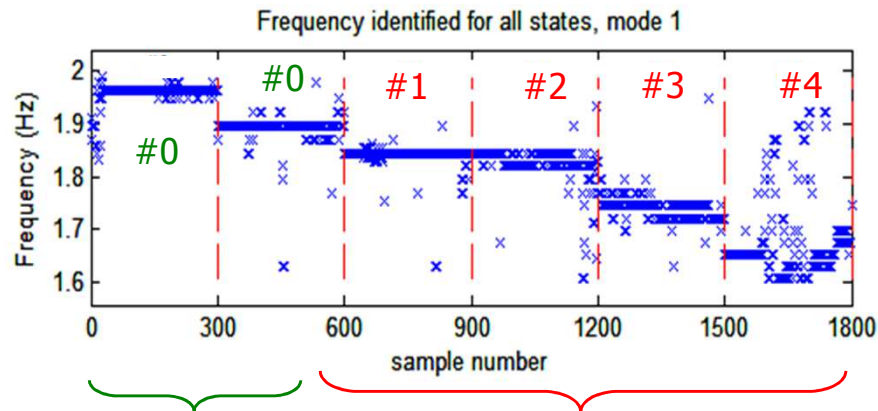
### In the 2D-space



Limited range of environmental variations:  
 PCA-I from data set A ~ PCA-I from data set B

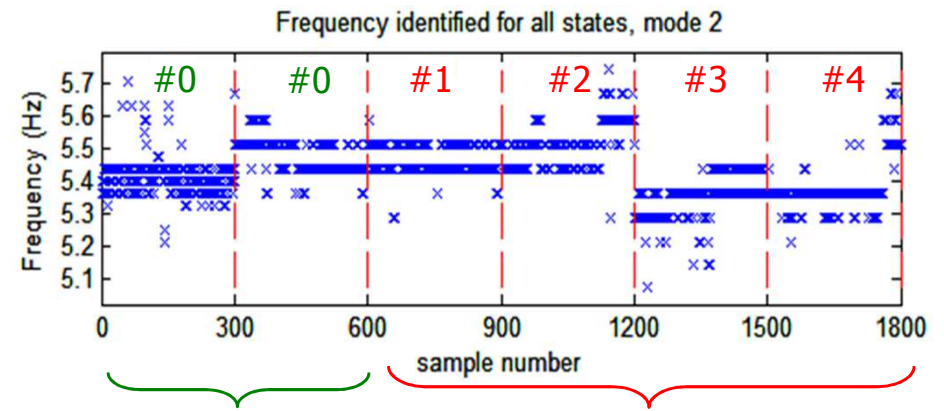
# The Champangshiehl bridge (7)

Natural frequencies are identified using of the Wavelet Transform and are chosen as system features



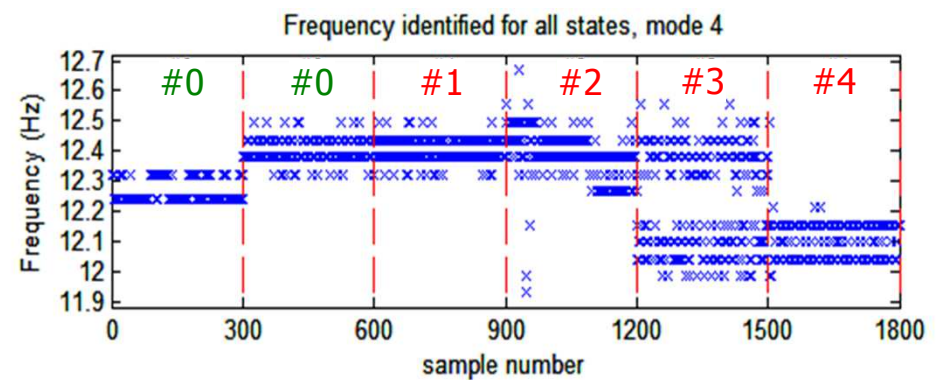
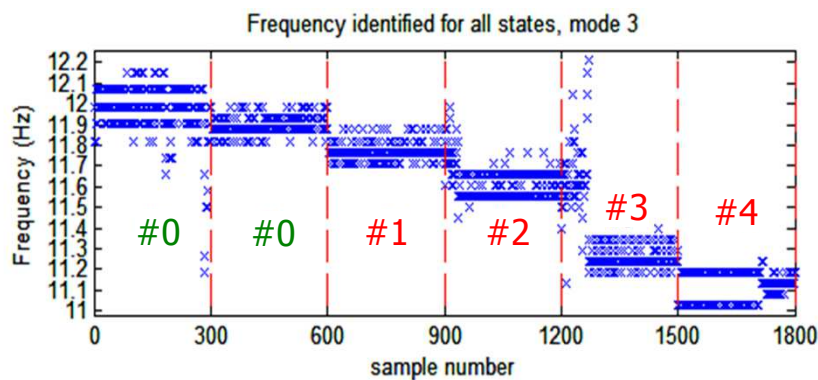
Healthy states

Damaged states



Healthy states

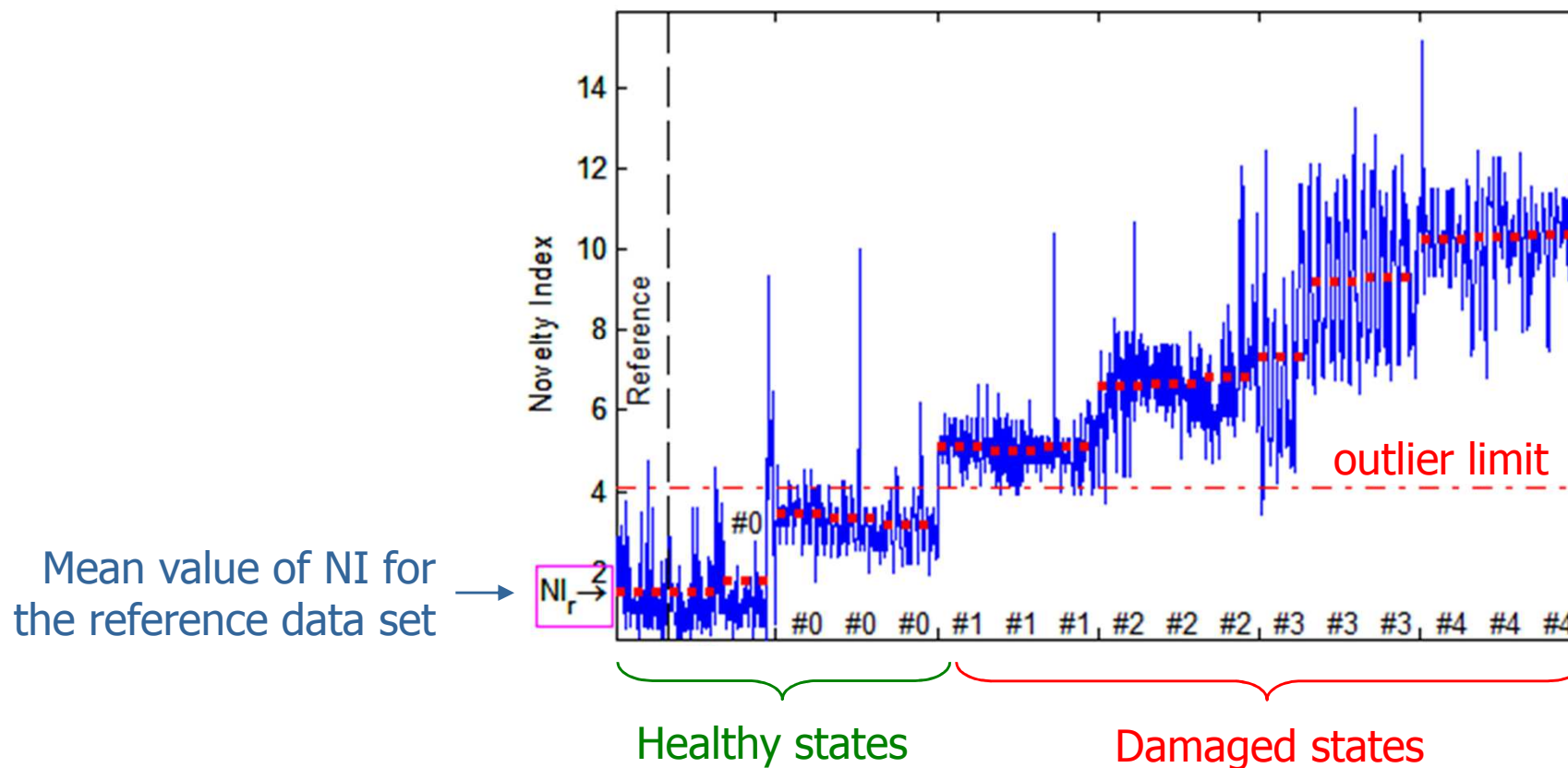
Damaged states



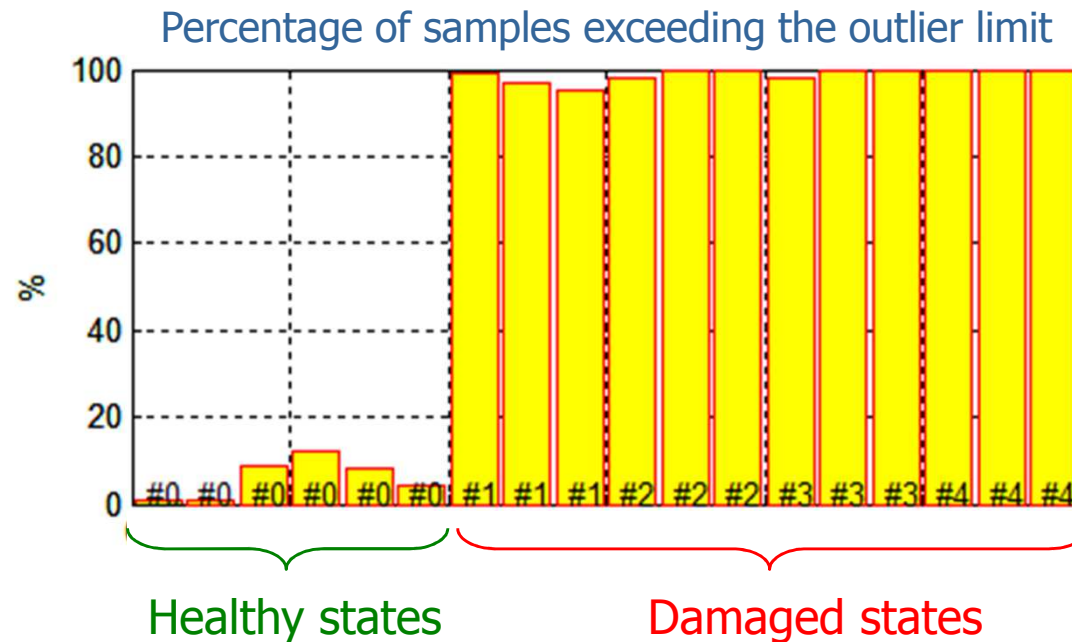
# The Champangshiehl bridge (8)

PCA procedure applied on the matrix of collected features → one single environmental factor has an influence (temperature)

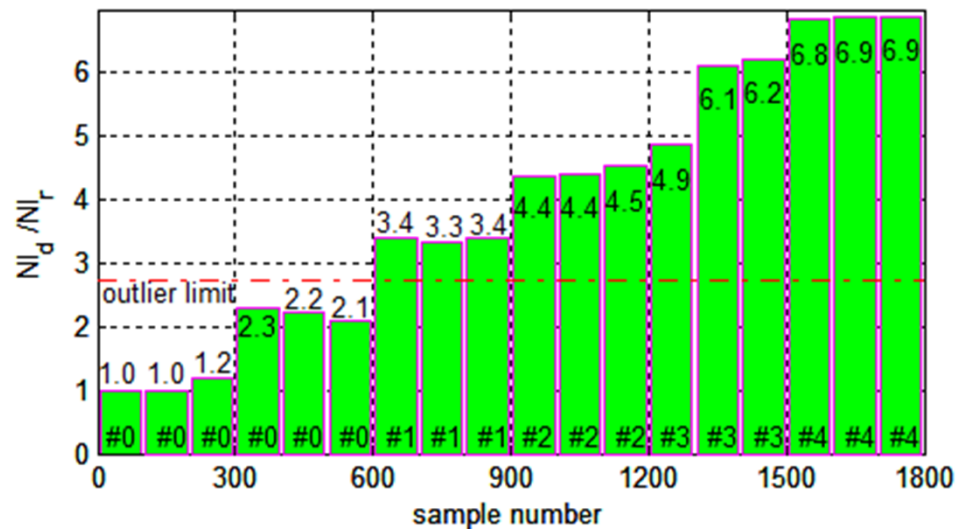
Evolution of the Novelty Index



# The Champangshiehl bridge (9)



Ratio  $N_{id}/N_{ir}$  between the damaged and the healthy states

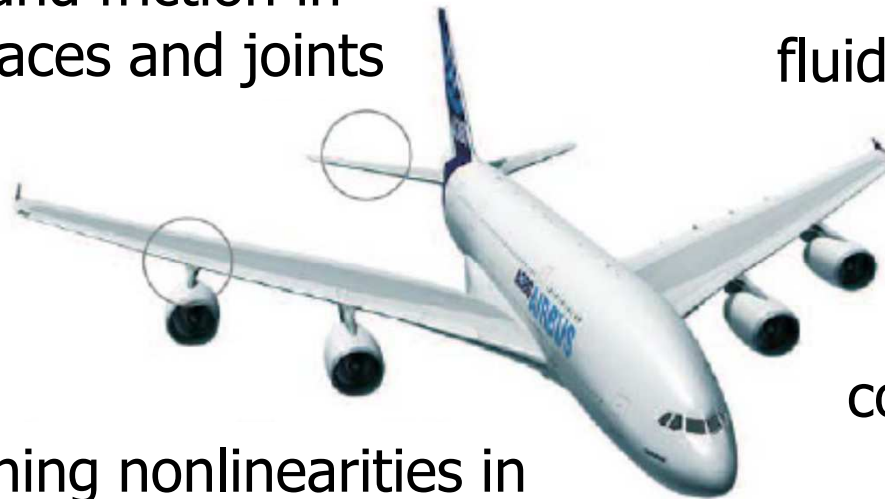


- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Damage detection
- Structural Health Monitoring
- **Identification of nonlinear parameters**
- Conclusion

# Nonlinearity in engineering applications

backlash and friction in  
control surfaces and joints

fluid-structure interaction



hardening nonlinearities in  
engine-to-eylon connections

composite materials

Many works are reported in the literature on dynamic testing and identification of nonlinear systems but very few address nonlinear phenomena during modal survey tests.



# Theoretical Modal Analysis

## Linear systems

Finite Element model

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

Eigenvalue problem

$$\mathbf{K} \Phi_j = \omega_j^2 \mathbf{M} \Phi_j$$

Natural frequencies ( $\omega_j^2$ )  
 Mode shapes ( $\Phi_j$ )

## Nonlinear systems

Finite Element model

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{f}_{NL}(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) = 0$$

NNM computation

NNM frequencies  
 NNM modal curves

# Experimental Modal Analysis (EMA)

## Theoretical approach

Finite Element model

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

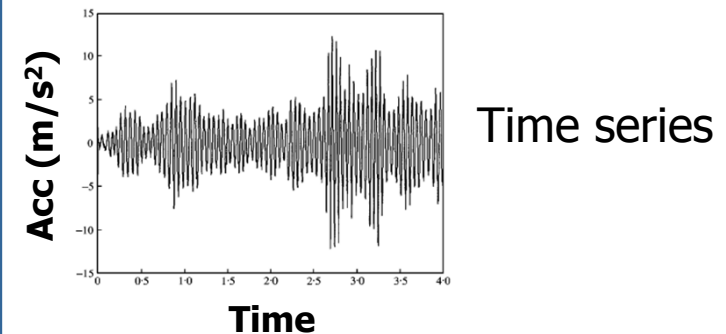
Eigenvalue problem

$$\mathbf{K} \Phi_j = \omega_j^2 \mathbf{M} \Phi_j$$

Natural frequencies ( $\omega_j^2$ )  
 Mode shapes ( $\Phi_j$ )

## Experimental approach

Response measurements



Identification methods

EMA for linear systems is now mature and widely used in structural engineering → well established techniques.

# Normal mode testing (Phase resonance method)

EMA for nonlinear systems is still a challenge.

## Theoretical approach

Finite Element model

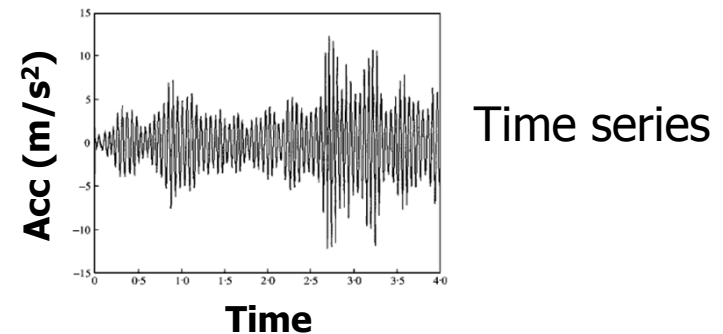
$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{f}_{NL}(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) = 0$$

Numerical NNM computation

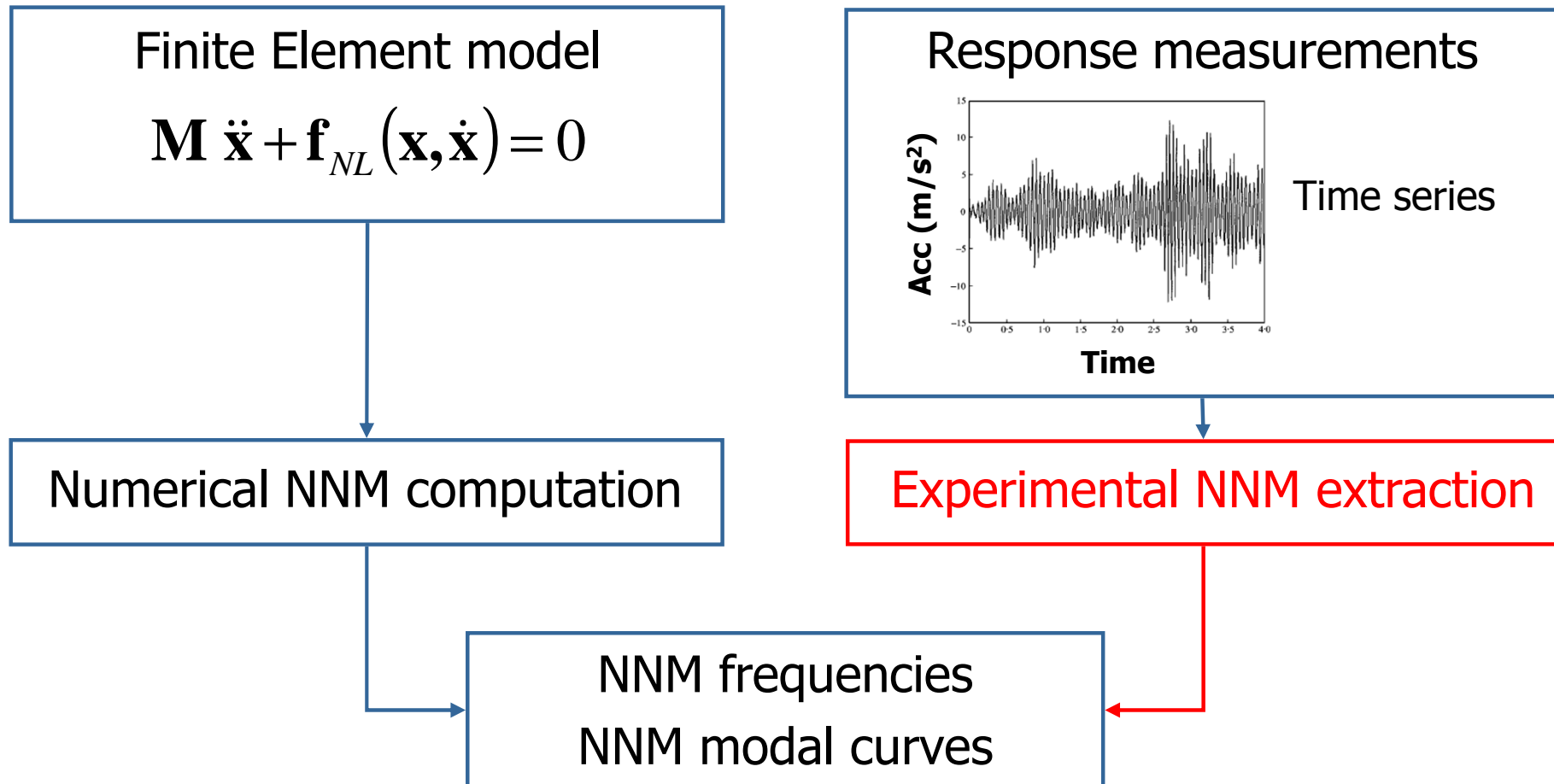
NNM frequencies  
 NNM modal curves

## Experimental approach

Response measurements



Experimental NNM extraction



There are two main techniques for EMA.

## 1. Phase resonance methods (Normal mode testing)

One of the normal mode at a time is excited using multi-point sine excitation at the corresponding natural frequency. The modes are identified one by one.

→ can be extended to nonlinear structures according to the invariance property of NNMs:

*« If the motion is initiated on one specific NNM, the remaining NNMs remain quiescent for all time. »*

### Remark

- Expensive and difficult.
- Extremely accurate mode shapes → a way to identify NNMs (but still a research topic).

## 2. Phase separation methods

Several modes are excited at once using either broadband excitation (e.g., hammer impact and random excitation) or swept-sine excitation in the frequency range of interest.

- in the nonlinear case, extraction of individual NNMs is not possible generally, because modal superposition is no longer valid.
- use of the proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) method to extract features from the time series .

### Remark

- All structures encountered in practice are nonlinear to some degree.
- If a nonlinear structure is excited with a broadband excitation signal (e.g. random force), then the results will appear linear → experimental modal analysis will lead to an updated linearized model !

# Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

## Linear systems

Finite Element model

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}(t)$$

Eigenvalue problem

$$\mathbf{K} \Phi_j = \omega_j^2 \mathbf{M} \Phi_j$$

normal modes

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j(t) \Phi_{(j)}$$

$$\eta_j = A_j \cos(\omega_j t) + B_j \sin(\omega_j t)$$

→ natural frequencies

## Nonlinear systems

Finite Element model

$$\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{f}_{NL}(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{p}(t)$$

POD of the response

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \Sigma \mathbf{V}^T$$

POM

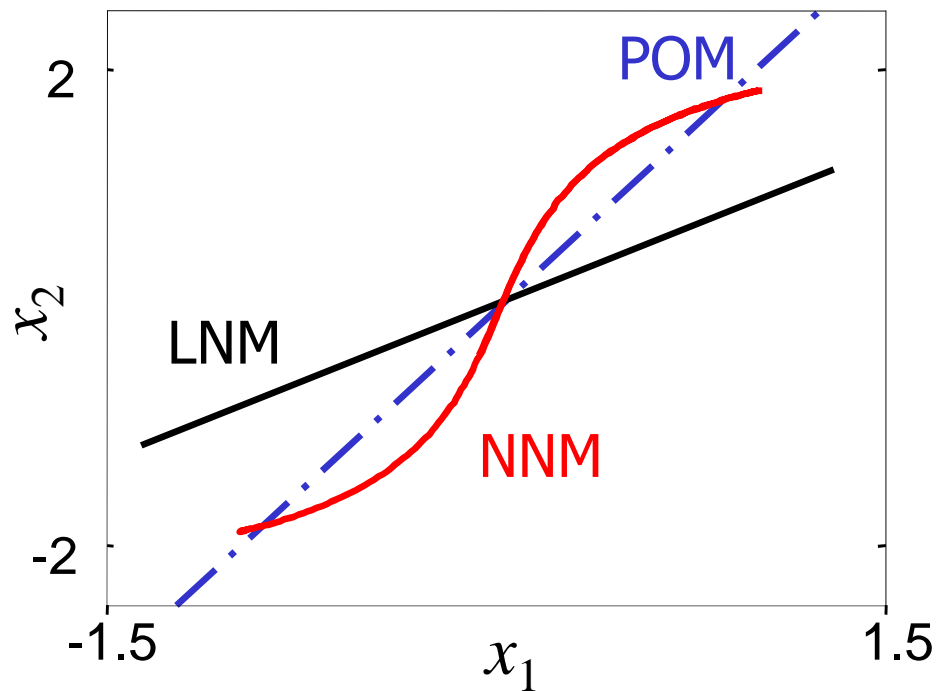
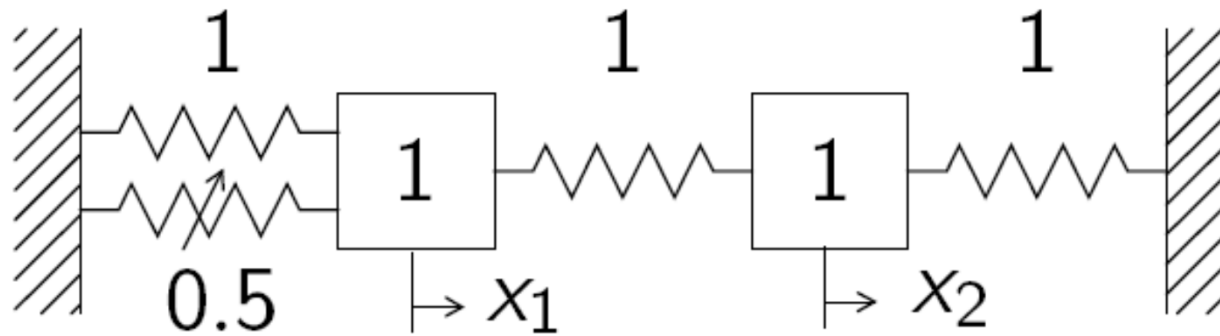
$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j(t) \mathbf{u}_{(j)}$$

Time information

→ instantaneous frequencies

# Geometric interpretation of the POMs

Comparison of LNM, NNM and POM on the 2 DOF example



First mode

The POM is the best linear representation of the nonlinear normal mode.

## Assumption

- The linear counterpart of the structure is known (updated).

## Methodology

- Estimation of nonlinear parameters only (which will be based on FE updating techniques).

## Parameters for model updating (Crucial step!)

The number of parameters :

- should be kept small to avoid problems of ill-conditioning,
- should be chosen with the aim of correcting recognised features in the model.

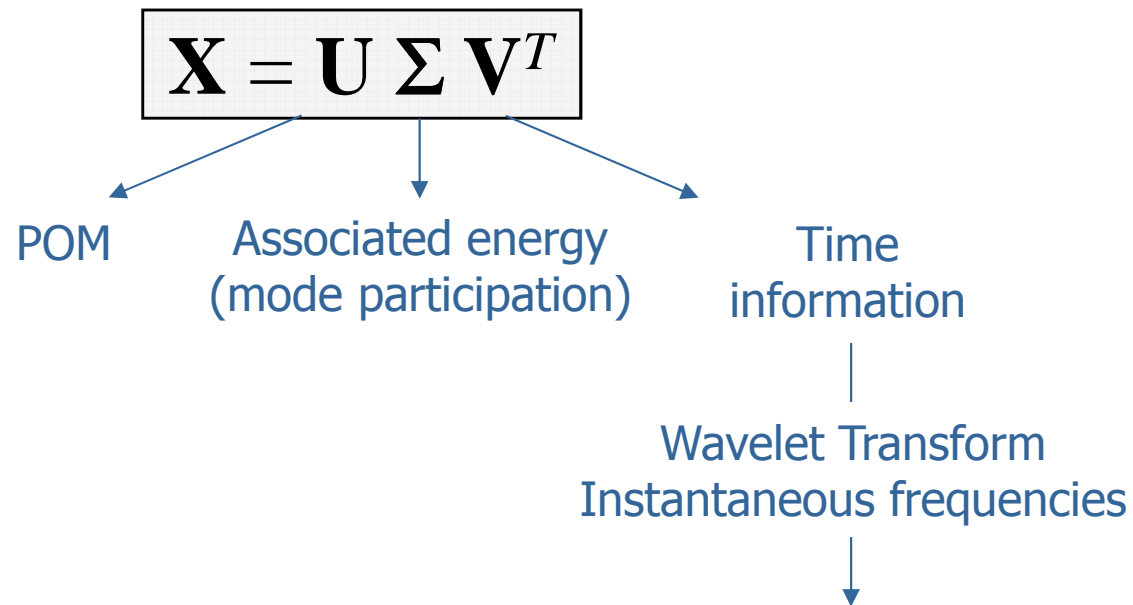
→ requires physical insight → leads to **knowledge-based** models.



# Parameter estimation using POD

## Principle of the method

Minimise the residuals between the bi-orthogonal decompositions of the measured and simulated data.



## Penalty function

$$J = \sum_i \sum_j (\Delta U_{ij})^2 + \sum_j (\Delta \Sigma_{jj})^2 + \sum_j \sum_k (\Delta V_{jk})^2$$

→ selection of the POMs with the highest POV

# Model parameter estimation techniques

Definition of a measurement vector  $\mathbf{v}$  containing the modal features.

- In the case of **linear** systems

$$\mathbf{v}^T = \left( \omega_1, \Phi_1^T, \dots, \omega_i, \Phi_i^T, \dots, \omega_r, \Phi_r^T \right)^T$$

$i^{\text{th}}$  mode shape vector

$i^{\text{th}}$  eigenvalue

- In the case of **nonlinear** systems

$$\mathbf{v}^T = \left( \omega_1, \mathbf{U}_1^T, \dots, \omega_i, \mathbf{U}_i^T, \dots, \omega_r, \mathbf{U}_r^T \right)^T$$

$i^{\text{th}}$  POM

$i^{\text{th}}$  set of instantaneous frequencies

The vector of modal features  $\mathbf{v}$  depends on parameters  $\mathbf{p}$

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{p})$$

A residual between analytical results and measured data is defined as

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \bar{\mathbf{v}} - \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{p})$$

Penalty function methods are based on the Taylor series expansion of the modal data in terms of the unknown parameters

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(p_0) + \left[ \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} \right]_{\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{p}_0} (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0) + O(\mathbf{p}^2)$$

sensitivity matrix

initial estimation  
 of the parameters

This expansion is often limited to the first two terms.

The weighted penalty function is defined as

$$J = \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \mathbf{W} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

weighting matrix

where  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \Delta \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{S} \Delta \mathbf{p}$  is the error in the predicted measurements.

$$\mathbf{S} = \left[ \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} \right]_{\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{p}_0}$$

is the sensitivity matrix.

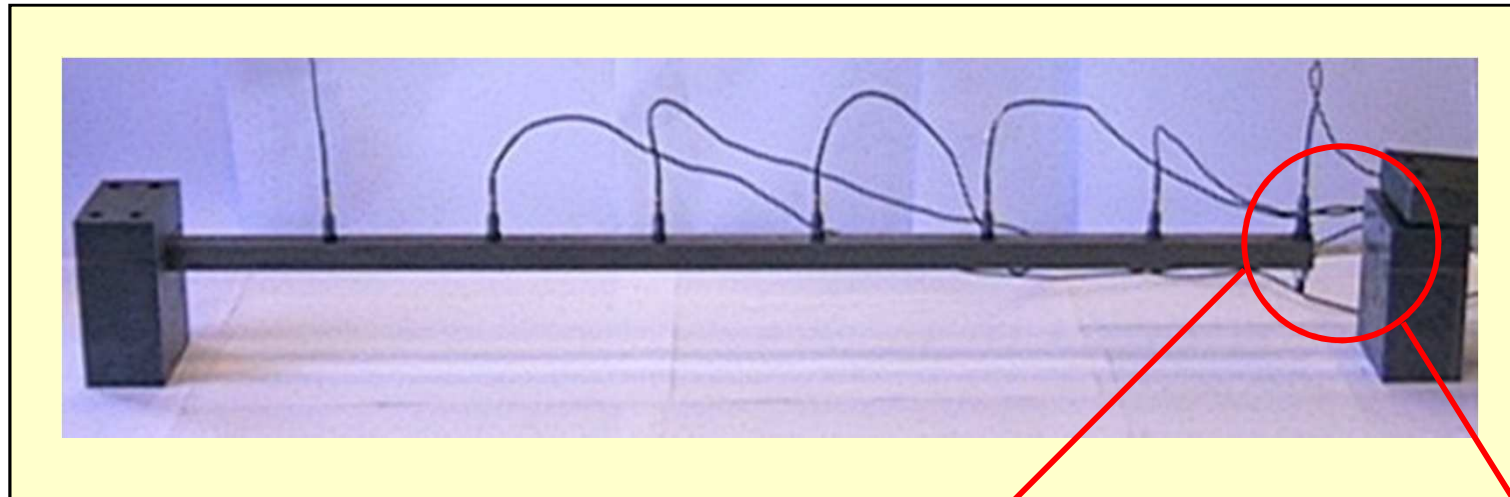
Minimising  $J$  with respect to  $\Delta \mathbf{p}$  leads to

$$\Delta \mathbf{p} = (\mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{S})^{-1} \mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{W} \Delta \mathbf{v}$$

With the assumption that the number of measurements is larger than the number of parameters, the matrix  $\mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{S}$  is square and hopefully full rank.

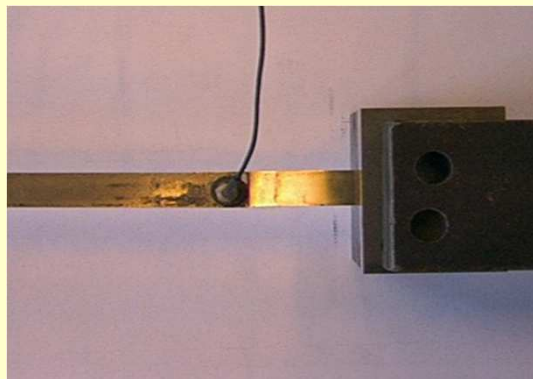
# Example of a nonlinear beam

Benchmark of the European COST Action F3 « Structural Dynamics »

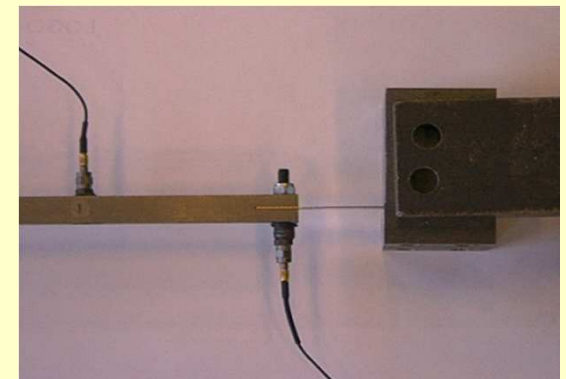


Experimental  
set-up

**Horizontal view**

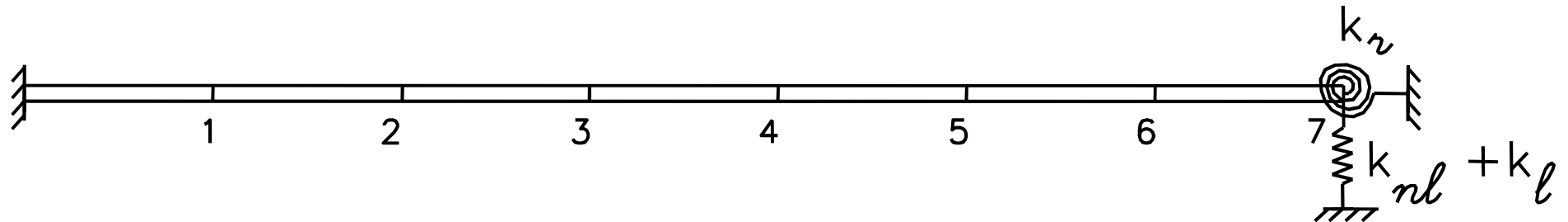


**Vertical view**



# Example of a nonlinear beam

## Finite Element model of the beam



The nonlinear stiffening effect of the thin beam is modelled by a nonlinear function in displacement of the form:

$$f_{nl} = A |x|^\alpha \text{sign}(x)$$

where  $A$  and  $\alpha$  are nonlinear parameters to be identified.

# Example of a nonlinear beam

---

## Simulated results

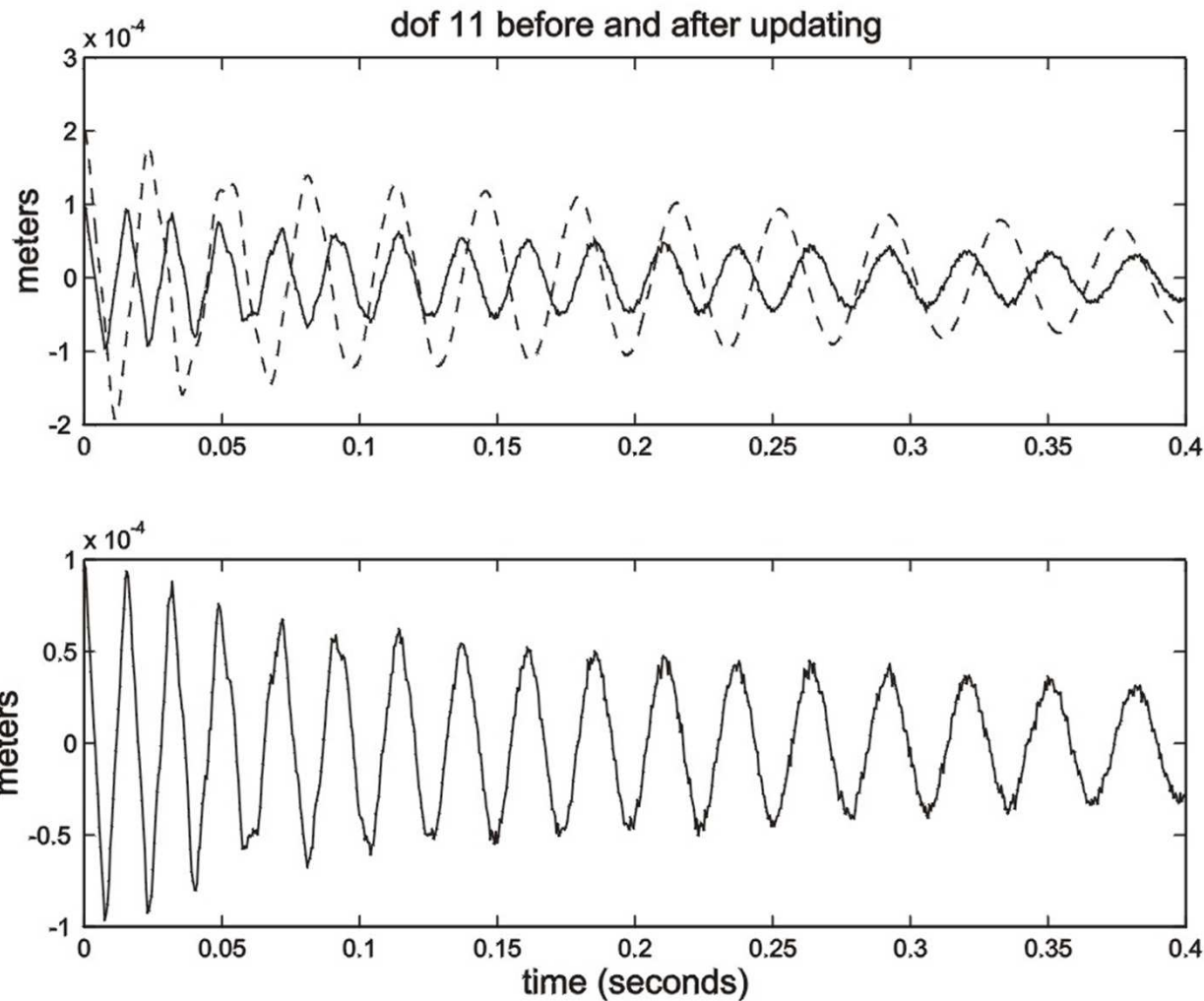
### Identification of linear and nonlinear parameters

- 2 parameters : nonlinear stiffness + Young's modulus
- Penalty function in terms of the first POM
- Simulation time = 0.4 sec
- Gaussian white noise of 1 %
- Nonlinear parameter correction < 10 %
- Linear parameter correction < 50 %

# Example of a nonlinear beam

## Simulated results

Comparison between the original (–) and the reconstructed (– –) signals



Before  
updating

After  
updating

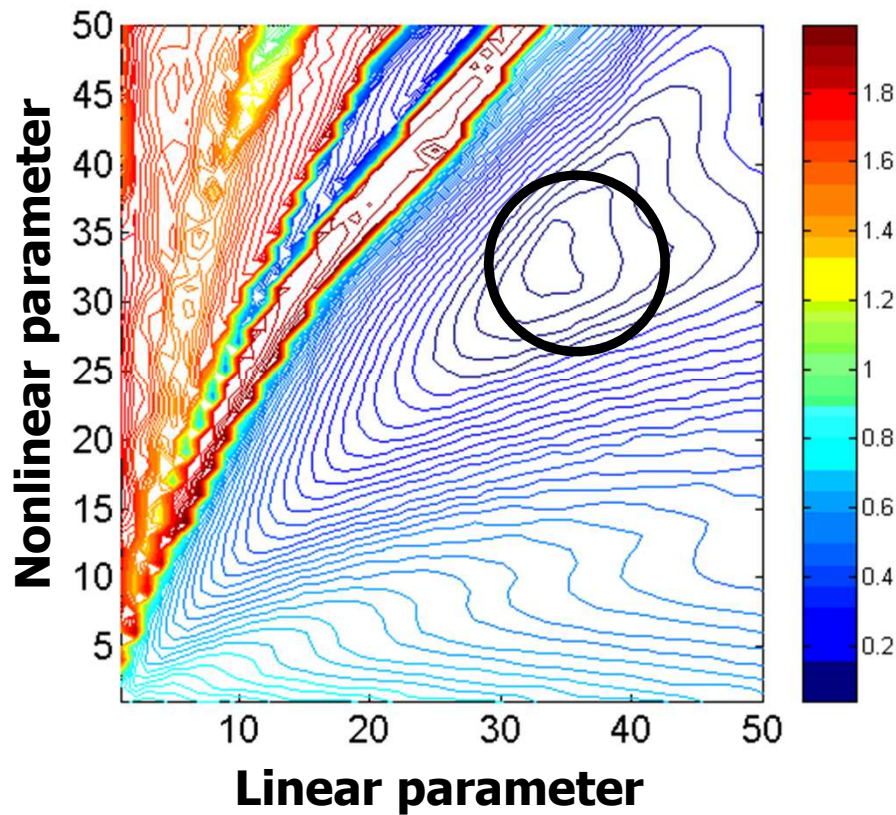


# Example of a nonlinear beam

## Simulated results

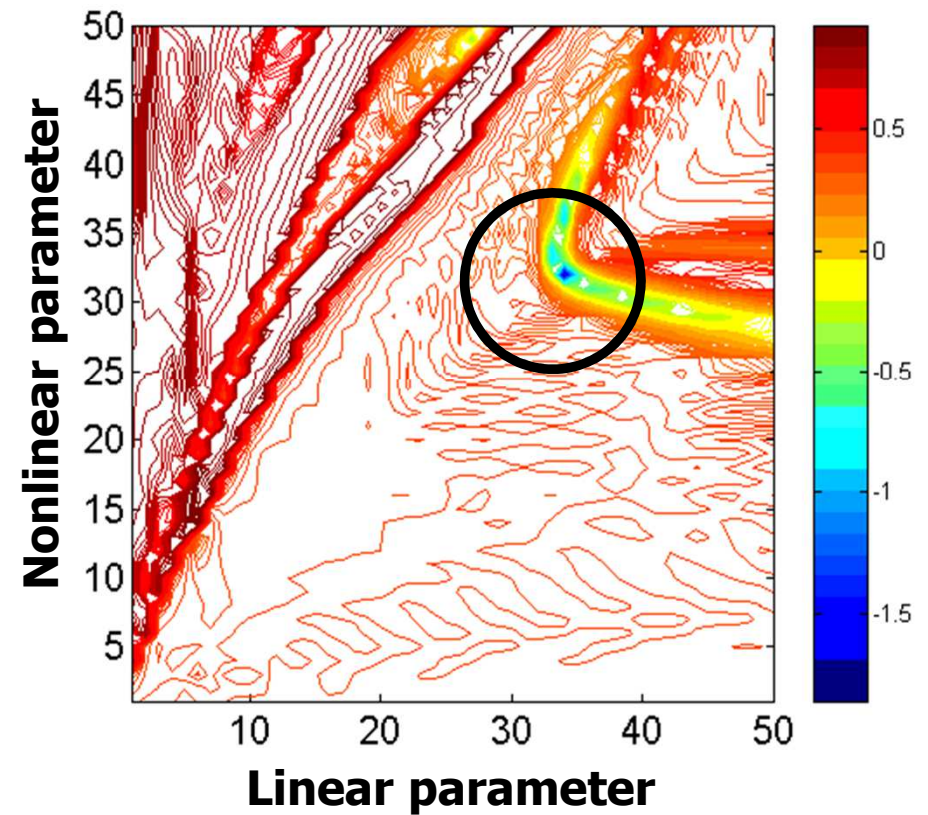
### Contour Plot

Penalty Function (use of WT)



**Well-conditioning**

Penalty Function (no WT)



**Ill-conditioning**



# Example of a nonlinear beam

## Experimental results (Vertical set-up)

Model of the nonlinear stiffness

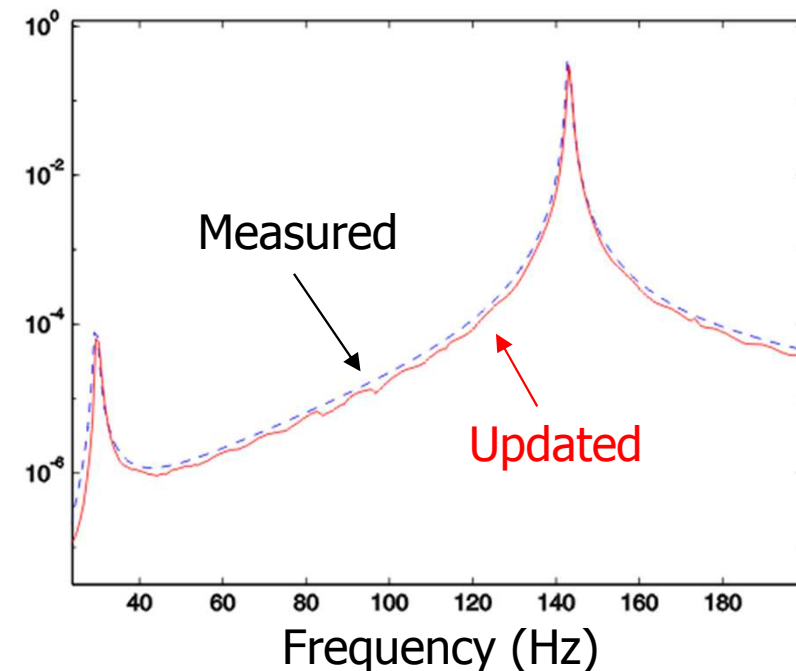
$$f_{nl}(x) = A|x|^{\alpha} \text{sign}(x)$$

Results of the identification of the nonlinear parameters based on the model updating method:

$$\alpha = 2.8$$

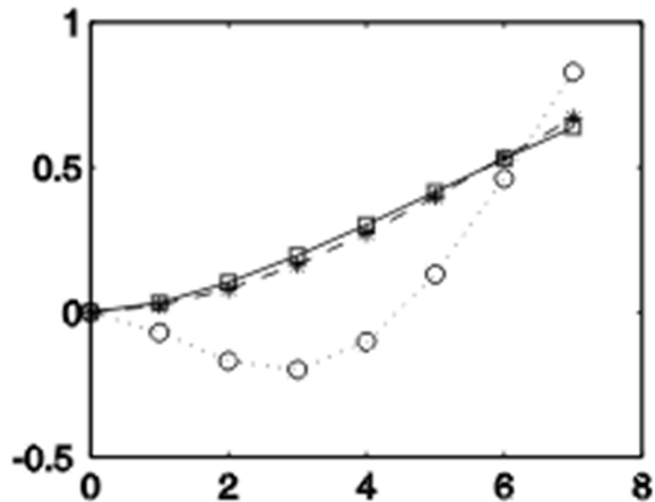
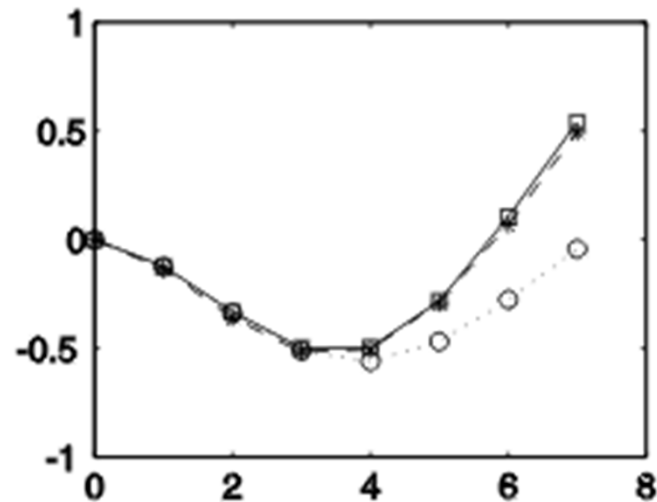
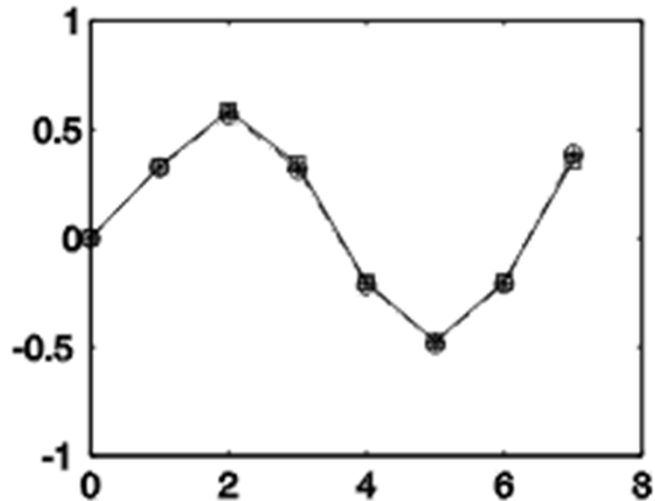
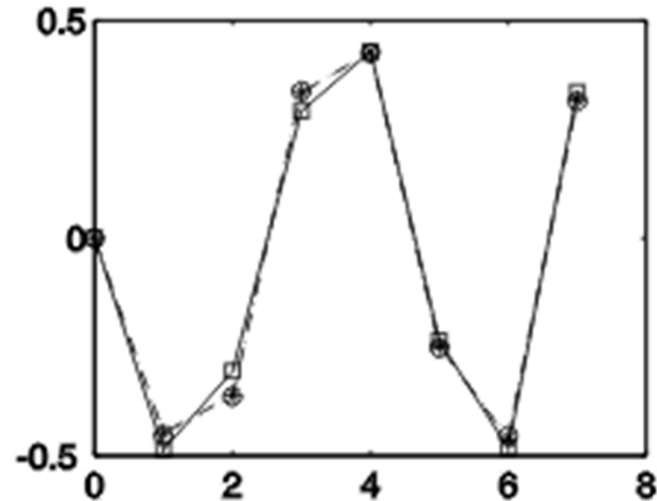
$$A = 1.65 \cdot 10^9 \text{ N/m}^{2.8}$$

PSD of the time evolution  
of the 1<sup>st</sup> POM



# Example of a nonlinear beam

## Experimental results (Vertical set-up)

1<sup>st</sup> POM2<sup>nd</sup> POM3<sup>rd</sup> POM4<sup>th</sup> POM

## Comparison of the POM

□ experimental

\* nonlinear model  
(after updating)

○ linear model  
(before updating)



## Conclusion

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- Use of PCA for 3 goals:
  - damage detection problem based on the concept of subspace angle;
  - elimination of environmental effects.
  - Identification of nonlinear parameters
- Good results obtained on an intentionally damaged bridge.
- Testing of the method on many other bridges is currently in progress.

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**Thank you for your attention.**