

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 Ω



At time t_k , the system displays a snapshot $\mathscr{G}^k(x) = \mathscr{G}(x, t_k)$



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

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

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

averaged auto-correlation function
$$\int_{\Omega} \left\langle \mathscr{G}^{k}(x) \, \mathscr{G}^{k}(x') \right\rangle \phi(x') \, dx' = \lambda \, \phi(x)$$



Thus the solution of the optimization problem

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

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

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

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

 λ_i are called the proper orthogonal values (POV)

and we have
$$\Re(x,t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i(t) \phi_i(x)$$
 where $a_i(t) = (\Re(x,t), \phi_i(x))$
uncorrelated coefficients

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





The $m \ge m$ correlation matrix **R** is built

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

The eigenvalue problem is solved

eigenvalues (POVs)

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

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



Computation of the POMs using SVD



Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

PCA in 2D-space

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





PCA in 2D-space





PCA in 2D-space





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

Modal Analysis Deterministic approach

Principal Component Analysis Statistical approach

Eigenvalue problem:

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

Eigenvalue problem:

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





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.



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



define orthonormal bases The angles θ_i between subspaces **S** and **D** are defined through the singular values associated to

$$\mathbf{Q}_{S}^{T} \mathbf{Q}_{D} = \mathbf{U}_{SD} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{SD} \mathbf{V}_{SD}^{T}$$

$$\Sigma_{SD} = diag(\cos \theta_i) \quad (i = 1, ..., q)$$



PCA in 2D-space

















Novelty analysis \rightarrow 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 \checkmark loading matrix \mathbf{T} of dimension $m \ge p$ $\mathbf{Y}_{p \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_{(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{u}_{(p)} \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{X}_{m \times N}$

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

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

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







Definition of the Novelty Index

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

Euclidean norm :

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

 \downarrow prediction error vector at time t_k

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

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









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.



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 (~ 12,4 Hz) during 1 hour.
- Acceleration level of 0,5 g at the fixation.





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 \rightarrow 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)



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.



Impact excitation

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

The nonlinearity is activated



Detection based on the Wavelet Transform (WT)

WT of the displacement at coordinate n° 7



 \rightarrow 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



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





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' (M_3) is actually a linear combination of the two other `modes'.



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



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





Angle–displacement amplitude at the end of the beam at t = 0.1 s




EKPCA-based detection method



EKPCA detection based on the subspace angle





- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Damage detection
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The SHM process involves three steps:

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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,
- 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.
- \rightarrow 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 nondestructive 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.



Damage scenarios

4 damage cases





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



Measurement set-up

Evolution of the temperatures recorded at different locations on the bridge





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): $f_1 = 1.92 Hz$, $f_2 = 5.54 Hz$





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, ..., N) in a ($n \times N$) matrix \mathbf{Y} .

Performing SVD of the covariance matrix gives

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

and
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{1} & \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{negligible (due to noise)}$$

(*) A.-M. Yan et al., Structural damage diagnosis under varying environmental conditions, MSSP 19 (2005) 847-864



The first m columns of U are taken to build matrix T so that



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

and the residual error matrix is defined as :

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



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



In the 2D-space



Environmental variations are responsible for the dispersion



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In the 2D-space
```





```
In the 2D-space
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Natural frequencies are identified using of the Wavelet Transform and are chosen as system features





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







Ratio Nid/Nir between the damaged and the healthy states





- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Damage detection
- Structural Health Monitoring
- Identification of nonlinear parameters
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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 approach Experimental approach Finite Element model Response measurements $\mathbf{M} \ddot{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{K} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ Acc (m/s^2) Time series Time Eigenvalue problem $\mathbf{K} \, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{j} = \omega_{j}^{2} \, \mathbf{M} \, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{j}$ Identification methods Natural frequencies (ω_i^2) Mode shapes (Φ_i)

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



EMA for nonlinear systems is still a challenge.





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.

 \rightarrow 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 !

LIÈGE université Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (POD)

Linear systems

Nonlinear systems





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.

LIÈGE Université Model parameter estimation using POD

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.
- \rightarrow requires physical insight \rightarrow leads to knowledge-based models.


Principle of the method

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



 \rightarrow selection of the POMs with the highest POV

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

• In the case of **linear** systems

 $\mathbf{v}^{T} = \left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{1}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{1}^{T}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{i}^{T}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{r}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{r}^{T}\right)^{T}$ $i^{\text{th}} \text{ eigenvalue}$

• In the case of **nonlinear** systems

$$\mathbf{v}^{T} = \left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{1}, \mathbf{U}_{1}^{T}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}, \mathbf{U}_{i}^{T}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{r}, \mathbf{U}_{r}^{T}\right)^{T}$$

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

LIEGE **Model parameter estimation techniques** université

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

Penalty function met ion of the modal data in te

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(p_0) + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_0} (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0) + O(\mathbf{p}^2)$$

initial estimation of the parameters

This expansion is often limited to the first two terms.

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \overline{\mathbf{v}} - \mathbf{v} \Big(\boldsymbol{p} \Big)$$

$$\mathbf{r} = \overline{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{n})$$

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

thods are based on the Taylor series expansion
erms of the unknown parameters
$$\mathbf{v}(p_0) + \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}\right] \quad (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0) + O(\mathbf{p}^2)$$

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

LIÈGE Université Model parameter estimation techniques

The weighted penalty function is defined as

$$J = \mathbf{\varepsilon}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{\varepsilon}$$
 weighting matrix

where $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \Delta \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{S} \Delta \mathbf{p}$ 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

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

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.



Benchmark of the European COST Action F3 « Structural Dynamics »







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

$$\int f_{nl} = A \left| x \right|^{\alpha} sign(x)$$

where A and α are nonlinear parameters to be identified.



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
- \bullet Gaussian white noise of 1 %
- Nonlinear parameter correction < 10 %
- Linear parameter correction < 50 %



Simulated results

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





Simulated results





Contour Plot



Experimental results (Vertical set-up)

Model of the nonlinear stiffness

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

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

 $\alpha = 2.8$

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





Experimental results (Vertical set-up)



Comparison of the POM

□ experimental

0

8

0

6

6

- nonlinear model (after updating)
- O linear model (before updating)



- 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.