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Nonlinear structural damage detection based on cascade of Hammerstein models

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Abstract

Structural damages can result in nonlinear dynamical signatures that can significantly enhance their detection. An original nonlinear damage detection approach is proposed that is based on a cascade of Hammerstein models modelisation of the structure. This model is estimated by means of the Exponential Sine Sweep Method from only one measurement. On the basis of this estimated model, the linear and nonlinear parts of the output are estimated, and two damage indexes (DIs) are proposed. The first DI is built as the ratio of the energy contained in the nonlinear part of an output versus the energy contained in its linear part. The second DI is the angle between the subspaces described by the nonlinear parts of two set of outputs after a principal component analysis. The sensitivity of the proposed DIs to the pres-

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ence of damages as well as their robustness to noise are assessed numerically on spring-mass-damper structures and experimentally on actual composite plates with surface-mounted PZT-elements. Results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed method to detect nonlinear damage in nonlinear structures and in the presence of noise.

Keywords:

Structural health monitoring, non-linear system identification, damage detection.

1. Introduction

The process of implementing a damage detection strategy for aerospace, civil, and mechanical engineering is referred to as structural health monitoring (SHM). In many cases, damages that appear on complex structures (such as cracks, impacts, or delaminations) can result in nonlinear dynamical responses that may be used for damage detection [1–4]. Furthermore, complex structures often exhibit a nonlinear behavior even in their healthy states. A robust and reliable SHM system must then be able to deal with nonlinear damages, and to distinguish between their effects and inherent nonlinearities in healthy structures. Several limitations of existing methods that are facing these issues have been recently identified in a report by Farrar *et al.* [1]. The first problem to be addressed is that “*nonlinear behavior does not generalize*”. This implies that the nonlinear models already in use are never general enough to encompass all the structure encountered in real life. The second problem is that “*nonlinear approaches are computationally cumbersome, expensive, and requires too many parameters to be defined*”. Currently

17 developed nonlinear models are thus not adequate for practical use of SHM
18 systems. The work presented here attempts to face these two problems on
19 the basis of a simple, but rather general, nonlinear model identified by means
20 of a simple signal processing procedure.

21 In order to build a damage index (DI) that is sensitive to nonlinearities
22 different approaches have already been proposed [1, 2]. Some DIs are based
23 on a physical modeling of the damaged structure whereas some are computed
24 without any physical assumption (black box models). Among these black-box
25 approaches, some assume a parametric underlying signal processing model,
26 whereas some are fully non-parametric. To feed these models, random inputs
27 as well as deterministic broadband or narrowband inputs are used. In this pa-
28 per, the focus is put on nonlinear damage detection approaches based on DIs
29 built using a non-parametric black box model estimated using a deterministic
30 broadband signal. There have been relatively few works in that direction. In
31 a linear framework, some authors [5, 6] have shown that a nonlinear damage
32 will impact the transmissibility functions (i.e. the frequency domain ratio
33 between two different outputs of the system) and they used such information
34 to detect and locate the damage. Extending the notion of transmissibility
35 functions to nonlinear systems that can be described by Volterra series, Lang
36 et. al [7, 8] were able to quantify the decrease of linearity generated by a
37 nonlinear damage and thus to effectively detect and locate it. However, as
38 such approaches are focusing on the loss of linearity, they do not seem to be
39 able to deal with systems that are nonlinear in their healthy states, a fact
40 that is quite common in real life. To overcome this drawback, several authors
41 attempted to fit a nonlinear model to the nonlinear structure under study

42 and to compare the actual and predicted outputs, or directly the model co-
 43 efficients, under different damage conditions [9–12]. By doing so, they were
 44 able to detect numerically and experimentally a nonlinear damage even in
 45 an initially nonlinear structure. However, the models they used where para-
 46 metric (mainly frequency domain ARX models) and thus were not easy to
 47 manipulate and neither able to model, without any *a priori* on it, a general
 48 nonlinear structure.

49 We propose here an original approach devoted to nonlinear damage de-
 50 tection in possibly nonlinear structures based on a simple, but rather general,
 51 nonlinear model estimated by means of standard signal processing tools. This
 52 approach is based on the assumption that the structure under study can be
 53 modeled as a cascade of Hammerstein models [13], made of N branches in
 54 parallel composed of an elevation to the n^{th} power followed by a linear fil-
 55 ter called the n^{th} order kernel, see Fig. 1(a). The Exponential Sine Sweep
 56 Method [14, 15], previously developed and validated by the authors for dif-
 57 ferent purposes, is then used to estimate the different kernels of the model.
 58 Exponential sine sweeps are a class of sine sweeps that allow estimating a sys-
 59 tem’s N first kernels in a wide frequency band from only one measurement.
 60 Two damage indexes are then build on the basis of this estimated model.
 61 The first one reflects the ratio of the energy contained in the nonlinear part
 62 of the output versus the energy contained in its linear part and is specially
 63 suited for single-input single-output (SISO) systems. The second one is the
 64 angle between the subspaces described by the nonlinear parts of two set of
 65 outputs after a principal component analysis. This one is specially suited for
 66 single-input multi-output (SIMO) systems. As a first step toward the use

of this method for SHM, the sensitivity of the proposed DIs to the presence of damages as well as their robustness to noise are assessed numerically on SISO and SIMO systems and experimentally on two actual composite plates with surface-mounted PZT-elements (one healthy and one damaged).

The cascade of Hammerstein models as well as the mathematics behind it are first described in Sec. 2. The two proposed DIs are then defined in Sec. 3. Their sensitivity to the presence of damages as well as their robustness to noise are assessed numerically in Sec 4 and experimentally in Sec. 5. A general conclusion is finally drawn in Sec. 6.

2. Cascade of Hammerstein models estimation using the exponential sine sweep method

2.1. Cascade of Hammerstein models

A possible approach to non-linear system identification is to assume that systems have a given block-structure. Following the “*sandwich*” approach [13], a non-linear system can be represented as N parallel branches composed of three elements in series: a static non-linear part sandwiched between two linear parts. Such systems are a subclass of Volterra systems and it can be shown that any continuous non-linear system can be approximated by such a model [16].

Cascade of Hammerstein models are a simplification of this “*sandwich*” approach. In a cascade of Hammerstein system [13], each branch is composed of one nonlinear static polynomial element followed by a linear one $h_n(t)$ as shown in Fig. 1(a). The relation between the input $e(t)$ and the output $s(t)$ of such a system is given by Eq. (1) where “ $(*)$ ” denotes the convolution

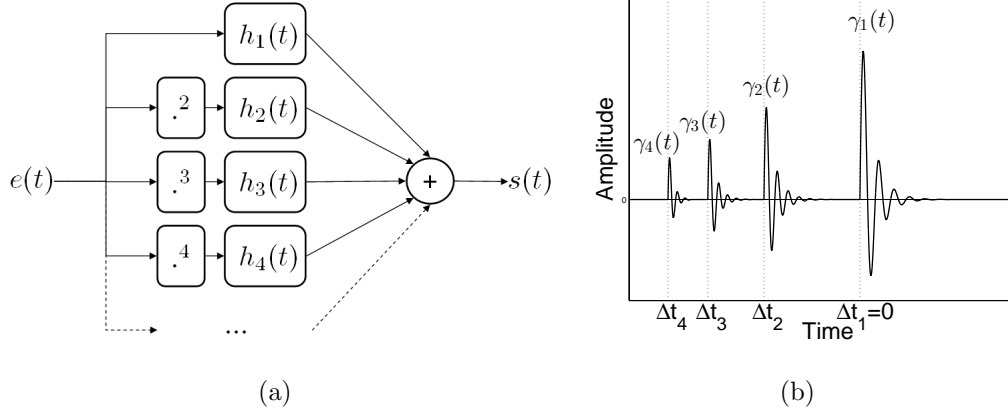


Figure 1: (a) Cascade of Hammerstein model and (b) temporal separation after deconvolution.

91 operator.

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N (h_n * e^n)(t) \quad (1)$$

92 It can easily be shown from Eq. (1) that cascades of Hammerstein mod-
 93 els correspond to Volterra models having diagonal Kernels in the temporal
 94 domain [15]. Thus, cascades of Hammerstein models represent a subclass
 95 of all the nonlinear “analytical” systems described by Volterra models, and
 96 are thus rather general nonlinear models. Furthermore, any cascade of Ham-
 97 merstein models is fully represented by its kernels $\{h_n(t)\}_{n \in \{1 \dots N\}}$, which are
 98 only a set of linear filters. This model is thus also quite simple to use and
 99 intuitive to understand.

100 2.2. Exponential sine sweeps

101 Estimating each kernel $h_n(t)$ of a cascade of Hammerstein models is not a
 102 straightforward task. An simple estimation method that has been proposed

103 previously by the authors [15] for this purpose and that is the basis of the
 104 damage detection procedure is briefly recalled here.

105 To experimentally cover the frequency range over which the system un-
 106 der study has to be identified, cosines with time-varying frequencies are
 107 commonly used. Indeed, if $e(t) = \cos[\phi(t)]$ is the input of the cascade of
 108 Hammerstein models, the output of the nonlinear block $e^n(t)$, see Fig. 1(a),
 109 can be rewritten using Chebyshev polynomials as in Eq. (2). Details of the
 110 computation of the Chebyshev matrix $C = \{c_{n,k}\}$ are provided in [15].

$$\forall n \in [1..N] \quad e^n(t) = \cos^n[\phi(t)] = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} \cos[k\phi(t)] \quad (2)$$

111 When the instantaneous frequency of $e(t)$ is increasing exponentially from
 112 f_1 to f_2 in a time interval T , this signal is called an “Exponential Sine Sweep”.
 113 It can be shown in [14, 15], that by choosing $T_m = (2m - \frac{1}{2}) \frac{\ln(f_2/f_1)}{2f_1}$ with
 114 $m \in \mathbb{N}^*$, one obtains:

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N}^* \quad \cos[k\phi(t)] = \cos[\phi(t + \Delta t_k)] \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta t_k = \frac{T_m \ln(k)}{\ln(f_2/f_1)} \quad (3)$$

115 Eq. (3) is another expression of the k^{th} term in the linearization presented
 116 in Eq. (2). In summary, for any exponential sine sweep of duration T_m ,
 117 multiplying the phase by a factor k yields to the same signal, advanced in
 118 time by Δt_k .

119 2.3. Kernel recovery in the temporal domain

120 If an exponential sine sweep is presented at the input of a cascade of Ham-
 121 merstein models, we obtain by combining Eq. (3) and Eq. (1) the following
 122 relation:

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N (\gamma_n * e)(t + \Delta t_n) \quad \text{with} \quad \gamma_n(t) = \sum_{k=1}^n C(k, n) h_k(t) \quad (4)$$

123 where $\gamma_n(t)$ corresponds to the contribution of the different kernels to the
124 n^{th} harmonic.

125 In order to separately identify each kernel $h_n(t)$ of the cascade of Ham-
126 merstein models, a signal $y(t)$ operating as the inverse of the input signal
127 $e(t)$ in the convolution sense, is needed. The Fourier transform $Y(f)$ of the
128 inverse filter $y(t)$ can be built by means of Eq. (5):

$$Y(f) = \frac{1}{E(f)} \simeq \frac{\overline{E}(f)}{|E(f)|^2 + \epsilon(f)} \quad (5)$$

129 where $E(f)$ and $\overline{E}(f)$ are respectively the Fourier transform of $e(t)$ and its
130 complex conjugate, and $\epsilon(f)$ is a frequency-dependent real parameter chosen
131 to be 0 in the bandwidth of interest and to have a large value outside, with
132 a continuous transition between the two domains, see [15].

133 After convolving the output of the cascade of Hammerstein models $s(t)$
134 given in Eq. (4) with $y(t)$, one obtains Eq. (6), also illustrated in Fig. 1(b):

$$(y * s)(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_n(t + \Delta t_n) \quad (6)$$

135 Because $\Delta t_n \propto \ln(n)$ and $f_2 > f_1$, the higher the order of non-linearity
136 n , the more advanced is the corresponding $\gamma_n(t)$, see Fig. 1(b). Thus, if T_m
137 is chosen long enough, the different $\gamma_n(t)$ do not overlap in time and can be
138 separated by simply windowing them in the time domain. Using Eq. (7), the
139 family $\{h_n(t)\}_{n \in [1, N]}$ of the kernels of the cascade of Hammerstein models
140 under study can then be fully extracted.

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ h_N(t) \end{pmatrix} = \tilde{C}^T \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_N(t) \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

141 In Eq. (7), C^T stands for the transpose of the Chebyshev matrix C , and
 142 \tilde{C} represents C , from which the first column and the first row have been
 143 removed.

144 It can be noticed here that the proposed method is not fully nonpara-
 145 metric. Indeed, one parameter, N the order of nonlinearity up to which the
 146 nonlinear model has to be estimated, is still to be chosen. Its choice mainly
 147 depends on the noise conditions and on the length of the input exponential
 148 sine sweep [15].

149 **3. Novelty damage indexes**

150 In the case of a structure with distributed actuators and sensors, we can
 151 consider several configurations to perform damage monitoring. As here an
 152 active SHM approach has been retained, measurements of one sensor can be
 153 used by defining a path over the structure that leads to a single-input single-
 154 output (SISO) system. However, the measurements of all sensors can also be
 155 used simultaneously, thus defining in that case a single-input multi-output
 156 (SIMO) system. The two novelty damage indexes proposed in the following
 157 correspond to these two configurations.

158 *3.1. Decomposition of the output signal into linear and nonlinear parts*

159 By rephrasing Eq. (1) which expresses the output of the cascade of Ham-
 160 merstein models $s(t)$ as a function of the input signal $e(t)$ and of the Ham-

merstein kernels $\{h_n(t)\}_{n \in [1, N]}$, it is possible to decompose the output of the cascade of Hammerstein models as follows:

$$s(t) = (h_1 * e)(t) + \sum_{n=2}^N (h_n * e^n)(t) = s^L(t) + s^{NL}(t) \quad (8)$$

where $s^L(t) = (h_1 * e)(t)$ stand for the linear and $s^{NL}(t) = \sum_{n=2}^N (h_n * e^n)(t)$ the nonlinear parts of the output signal $s(t)$.

As the input signal $e(t)$ is known and as the Hammerstein kernels $\{h_n(t)\}_{n \in [1, N]}$ have been estimated previously, those linear and nonlinear parts of the output signal are then easily evaluated and can be used to build damage indexes.

3.2. DI_1 : Ratio of the nonlinear energy to the linear energy

In the single-input, single-output case (SISO), there is only one input $e(t)$ and one output $s(t)$. Taking advantage of Eq. (8), we propose a damage index (DI) that is defined as the ratio of the energy contained in the nonlinear part of the output of the cascade of Hammerstein models versus the energy contained in the linear part of the output of the cascade of Hammerstein models. By denoting $S^L(f)$ and $S^{NL}(f)$ the Fourier transform of $s^L(t)$ and $s^{NL}(t)$, we propose a damage index defined as follow:

$$DI_1 = \frac{\int_{f_1}^{f_2} |S^{NL}(f)|^2 df}{\int_{f_1}^{f_2} |S^L(f)|^2 df} \quad (9)$$

where f_1 and f_2 have been defined earlier in Sec. 2.2.

In a given composite structure, as the nonlinear damage (impact, delamination, or crack) becomes more severe, it is expected to contribute more and more to the nonlinear part of the output $s^{NL}(t)$. As a consequence, DI_1 is

180 expected to be sensitive to the presence of the damage, but also to its ex-
 181 tent. This will be demonstrated numerically in Sec. 4.3 and experimentally
 182 in Sec. 5.

183 3.3. DI_2 : Angle between nonlinear subspaces

184 In the single-input, multiple-output framework (SIMO), there is still one
 185 input $e(t)$ but now J outputs $\{s_j(t)\}_{j \in [1..J]}$. Taking advantage of Eq. (8),
 186 it is still possible to decompose each output $s_j(t)$ into its linear $s_j^L(t)$ and
 187 nonlinear $s_j^{NL}(t)$ parts. Following previous work by the authors [17], the idea
 188 is then to monitor the subspaces spanned by the nonlinear parts of each
 189 outputs set.

190 In a discrete-time matrix form, let $\mathbf{s}^{NL} \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times J}$ be the nonlinear parts of
 191 the J output signals having each a length of U samples. Let $\mathbf{A}^{NL} \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times J}$
 192 be the separating matrix of \mathbf{s}^{NL} . This matrix is obtained from a principal
 193 component analysis technique [18] and is defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{A}^{NL} = \mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{s}^{NL}}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \times (\mathbf{P}^{NL})^T \quad (10)$$

194 where $\mathbf{P}^{NL} = [\underline{\mathbf{p}}_1^{NL}, \dots, \underline{\mathbf{p}}_J^{NL}]$ is the matrix of eigenvectors of \mathbf{s}^{NL} and
 195 $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{\mathbf{s}^{NL}}$ is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of \mathbf{s}^{NL} . If the reduction using
 196 singular value decomposition (SVD) is possible [19], the separating matrix
 197 can then be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{A}^{\text{NL}} &= \mathbf{I}_{J \times J} \times \mathbf{\Gamma}^{\text{NL}} \times (\mathbf{V}^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}} \\
&= [\mathbf{I}_{J \times J_p} \quad \mathbf{I}_{J \times (J-J_p)}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\Gamma}_1^{\text{NL}} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{\Gamma}_2^{\text{NL}} \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{V}_1^{\text{NL}} \quad \mathbf{V}_2^{\text{NL}}]^{\text{T}} \\
&= \mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}} + \mathbf{A}_2^{\text{NL}}
\end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where $\mathbf{\Gamma}_1^{\text{NL}} = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_{J_p})$, $\mathbf{V}_1^{\text{NL}} = [\mathbf{v}_{1_1}^{\text{NL}}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{1_{J_p}}^{\text{NL}}] \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times J_p}$ and $\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}} \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times J_p}$ are respectively the matrix of singular values, the matrix of right singular vectors, and the separating matrix associated to the principal subspace of \mathbf{s}^{NL} . $\mathbf{\Gamma}_2^{\text{NL}} = \text{diag}(\sigma_{J_p+1}, \dots, \sigma_J)$, $\mathbf{V}_2^{\text{NL}} = [\mathbf{v}_{1_{J_p+1}}^{\text{NL}}, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{1_J}^{\text{NL}}] \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times (J-J_p)}$ and $\mathbf{A}_2^{\text{NL}} \in \mathbb{R}^{U \times (J-J_p)}$ are respectively the matrix of singular values, the matrix of right singular vectors, and the separating matrix associated to the residual subspace of \mathbf{s}^{NL} .

Let \mathbf{A}_1^{NL} and $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}}$ be two matrices built as described previously from measurements in a healthy state and in an unknown state. Let's $R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}$ and $R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}$ be the range subspaces of matrices $(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}$ and $(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}$, and $\mathbf{P}_{R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}}$ and $\mathbf{P}_{R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}}$ the orthogonal projections on these range subspaces obtained through SVD (see [17] for details). We then denote $\underline{\phi} \left[R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}, R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\} \right]$ the principal angle vectors between the range subspaces $R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}$ and $R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}$. Using the SVD tool, the Euclidean norm of the sinus of this angle is defined as follow [20]:

$$\begin{aligned}
\| \sin \left(\underline{\phi} \left[R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}, R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\} \right] \right) \|_2 &= \| \mathbf{P}_{R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}^\perp} \times \mathbf{P}_{R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}} \|_2 \\
&= \| (\mathbf{I}_{J_p \times J_p} - \mathbf{P}_{R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}}) \times \mathbf{P}_{R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}} \|_2
\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

213 We then propose to define a damage index as:

$$\text{DI}_2 = \frac{\left\| \sin \left(\underline{\phi} \left[R\{(\mathbf{A}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\}, R\{(\tilde{\mathbf{A}}_1^{\text{NL}})^{\text{T}}\} \right] \right) \right\|_2}{J_p} \quad (13)$$

214 where J_p is the number of principal components retained in the principal
 215 subspaces. This damage index can be interpreted as the angle between the
 216 subspaces described by the nonlinear parts of the outputs in the healthy state
 217 and in the unknown state.

218 In a given composite structure, as the nonlinear damage becomes more
 219 severe, it is expected to contribute more and more to the nonlinear parts of
 220 the different outputs $\{s_j(t)\}_{j \in [1..J]}$ and then to increase the angle between
 221 the associated principal subspaces. As a consequence, DI_2 is expected to be
 222 sensitive to the presence of the damage, but also to its extent. This will be
 223 demonstrated numerically in Sec. 4.4 and experimentally in Sec. 5.

224 4. Simulation results

225 4.1. Simulated systems

226 In order to validate the proposed approach and the associated novelty
 227 damage indexes, numerical simulations have been carried out for single-input,
 228 single-output (SISO) and single-input, multi-output (SIMO) systems. The
 229 systems that have been chosen are simple one degree of freedom and five
 230 degrees of freedom spring-mass-damper (SMD) systems and are shown in
 231 Fig. 2.

232 The damage in those systems has been introduced by means of a bilinear
 233 stiffness $k[x(t)]$ as a very easy way to simulate a breathing crack. Such cracks

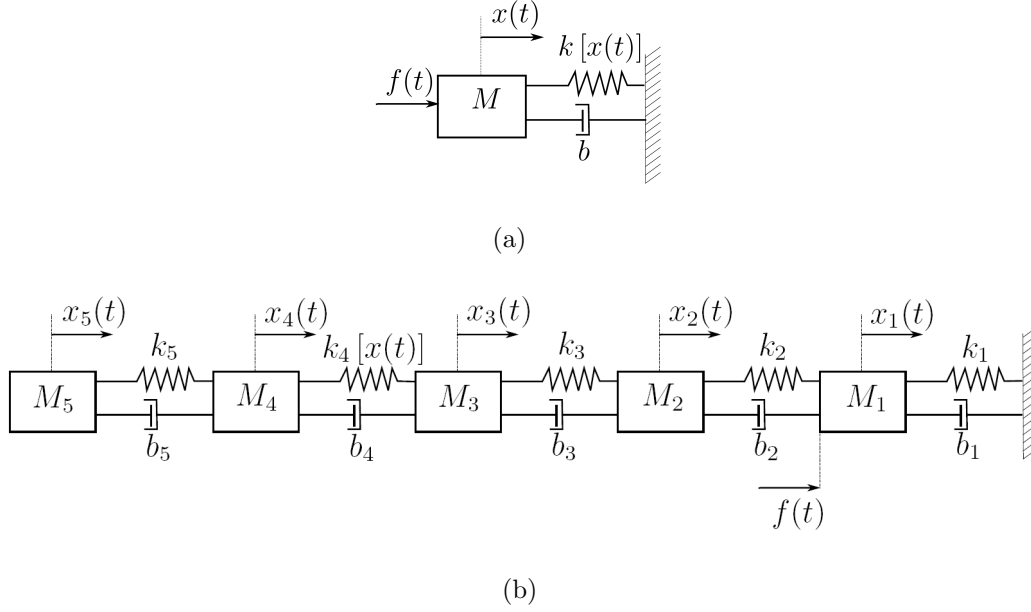


Figure 2: (a) Simulated single degree of freedom SISO system and (b) simulated five degrees of freedom SIMO system.

234 have a lower stiffness when the crack is open than when the crack is closed.
 235 Thus, the bilinear stiffness is defined as follows:

$$k[x(t)] = \begin{cases} k^I & \text{if } x(t) < 0 \\ (1 - \alpha)k^I & \text{if } x(t) > 0 \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

236 In this definition, k^I denotes the linear stiffness of the original undamaged
 237 system and the *damage-parameter* is the coefficient α . If $\alpha = 0$, the stiffness
 238 is fully linear and the system is healthy. If $\alpha = 1$, the stiffness when the
 239 crack is open is null and thus, the system is fully damaged.

240 The chosen SISO system is a SMD system where the input is the force
 241 $f(t)$ applied to the mass M and the output is the displacement $x(t)$ of the
 242 mass M , as shown in Fig. 2(a). For this system $M = 1$ kg, $b = 2$ Ns/m and

243 $k^I = 20000 \text{ N/m}$.

244 The chosen SIMO system is a serie of five SMD systems where the input is
245 the force $f(t)$ applied to the mass M_1 and the outputs are the displacements
246 $\{x_1(t), \dots, x_5(t)\}$ of the masses $\{M_1, \dots, M_5\}$ as shown in Fig. 2(b). The
247 damage is introduced by means of the bilinear stiffness $k_4[x(t)]$ as defined by
248 Eq. (14). For this system $M_1 = M_2 = M_3 = M_4 = M_5 = 1 \text{ kg}$, $b_1 = b_2 = b_3 =$
249 $b_4 = b_5 = 2 \text{ Ns/m}$, $k_1 = k_2 = k_3 = k_5 = 20000 \text{ N/m}$, and $k_4^I = 20000 \text{ N/m}$.

250 4.2. Input signal

251 In order to estimate the linear and nonlinear parts in the ouptut of this
252 system, an input signal has been designed as described in Sec. 2.2. The start
253 and stop frequencies have been chosen as $f_1 = 2.25 \text{ Hz}$ and $f_2 = 225 \text{ Hz}$,
254 knowing that $f_r = 25 \text{ Hz}$ is the resonance frequency of both undamaged
255 systems. The sweep duration has been chosen as $T = 8.86 \text{ seconds}$ for the
256 SISO system and $T = 88.6 \text{ seconds}$ for the SIMO system both with an input
257 amplitude of $E = 0.1 \text{ N}$. The response of this system to this input signal has
258 been simulated using *Simulink*TM with a fixed-step Runge-Kutta algorithm
259 running at $f_s = 563 \text{ Hz}$. A zero-mean Gaussian white noise has been added
260 to the input of the simulation in order to simulate environmental noise. It is
261 assumed that environmental noise is larger than measurement noise, and thus
262 no noise has been added to the output of the simulation. To illustrate the
263 robustness of the proposed DIs to noise, the noise variance has been chosen
264 as a function of the root-mean-square power of the input signal in order to
265 have a signal to noise ratio (SNR) of 60 or 30 dB (i.e. a noise with a standard
266 deviation of $6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ N}$ or $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N}$). Simulation have been carried out
267 for values of α ranging from 0 (healthy state) to 0.45 (half-damaged state)

by steps of 0.025. For each α value, the simulations have been repeated 30 times in order to compute the mean and standard deviation of both DIs when subjected to noise.

4.3. Damage detection using DI_1 for the SISO system

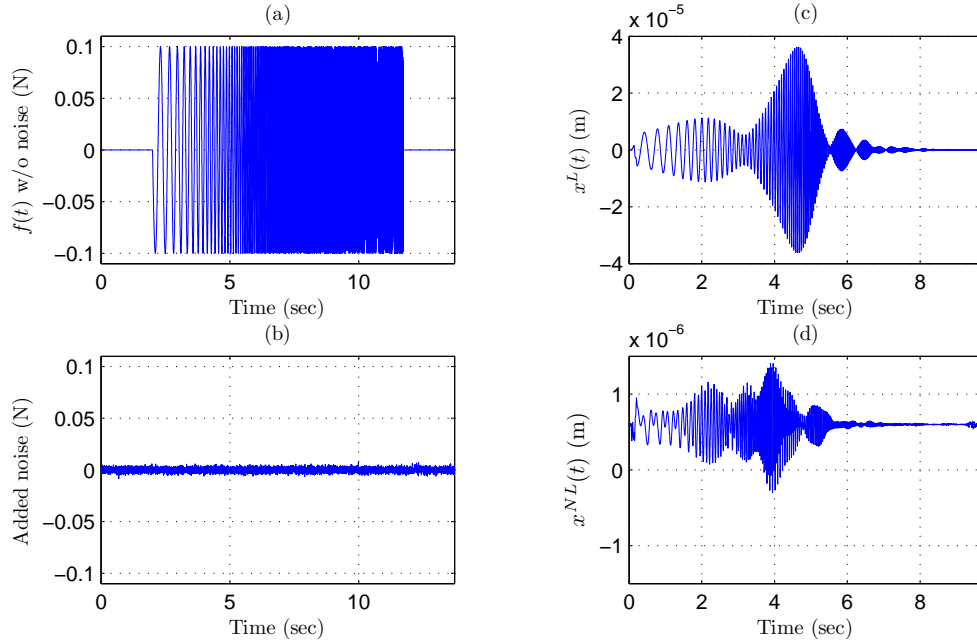


Figure 3: (a) Input sweep without noise and (b) added noise for a SNR of 30 dB. Estimated (c) linear and (d) nonlinear parts of the output signal $x(t)$.

The noise-free input signal, the added noise, and the estimated linear $x^L(t)$ and nonlinear $x^{NL}(t)$ parts of the output signal $x(t)$ of the system of Fig. 2(a) are shown on Fig. 3. From this figure, it can be seen that a SNR of 30 dB implies the addition of a relatively large amount of noise to the input signal. Furthermore, by analyzing the estimated linear part of the output

277 signal $x^L(t)$, it can be seen that, as expected, the chosen nonlinear system
 278 basically acts as a resonant filter. Finally, it can be seen that the system
 279 under study is effectively nonlinear as a non-null nonlinear part $x^{NL}(t)$ in
 280 the output signal is being estimated by the previously described procedure.

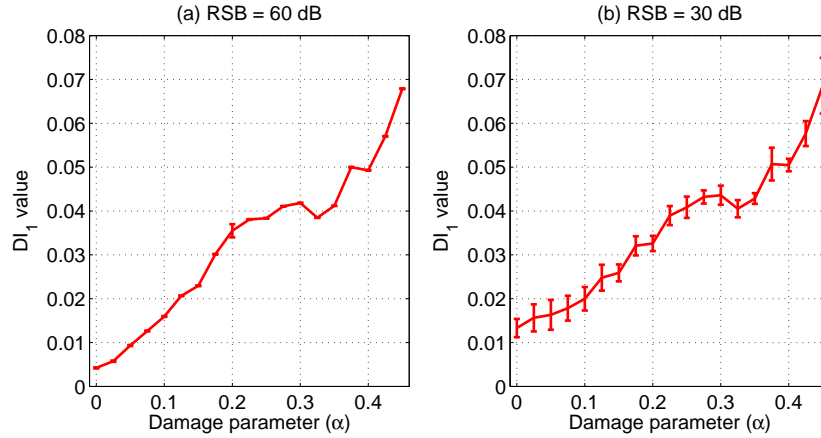


Figure 4: Average and standard deviation of the DI_1 values for different values of the damage parameter α with (a) SNR= 60 dB and (b) SNR= 30 dB.

281 In Fig. 4 the averages and standard deviations over the 30 trials of the
 282 DI_1 values for the different values of the damage parameter α and with
 283 SNR= 60 dB and SNR= 30 dB are shown. First of all, it can be seen
 284 that the damage index DI_1 increases in both cases almost monotonically with
 285 the damage parameter α . Moreover, even when the noise power is relatively
 286 large (see the curve for SNR= 30 dB) the standard deviations remain small
 287 around the average values. Finally, for a value of the damage parameter
 288 $\alpha = 0$ (*i.e.* in the linear case), the DI_1 value should be zero and is found dif-
 289 ferent from zero. This thus means that a part of the noise is here interpreted
 290 by the estimation process as a nonlinear part of the output. We can thus

conclude from that simulation that the damage index DI_1 is able to detect and to quantify the amount of damage in the nonlinear system with a high robustness to noise.

4.4. Damage detection using DI_2 for the SIMO system

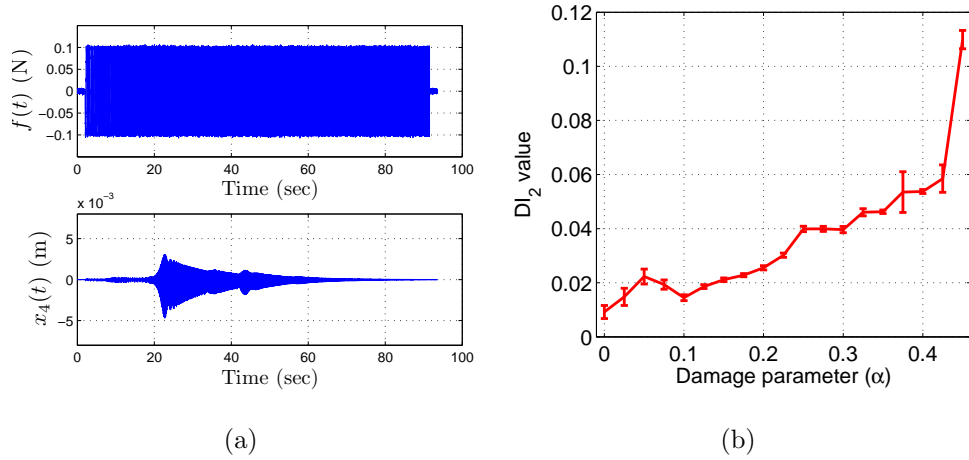


Figure 5: (a) Input signal $f(t)$ (top) and output signal $x_4(t)$ for $\alpha = 0.45$ (bottom). (b) Average and standard deviation of the DI_2 values for different values of the damage parameter α and for a SNR of 30 dB.

In Fig. 5(a) the noisy input signal $f(t)$ as well as one of the five output signals, $x_4(t)$, of the system of Fig. 2(b) are shown. It can be seen that as previously the nonlinear system of Fig. 2(b) filters the input signal and possesses a clear resonant frequency in the bandwidth under study. Furthermore, the fact that this system is nonlinear can be easily seen as the output signal is not symmetrical with respect to the horizontal axis. In Fig. 5(b) the averages and standard deviations over the 30 trials of the DI_2 values computed by retaining $J_p = 5$ principal components for the different values

of the damage parameter α and for a SNR of 30 dB are shown. First of all, it can be seen that again the damage index DI_2 increases almost monotonically with the damage parameter α . Moreover, even if the noise power is relatively large (SNR= 30 dB) the standard deviations still remain very small around the average values. The curves for a SNR of 60 dB are not shown here as they are very similar to the one for a SNR of 30 dB but with lower standard deviations. We can thus conclude from that simulation that the damage index DI_2 is here also able to detect and to quantify the amount of damage in the nonlinear system with a high robustness to noise.

5. Experimental results

5.1. Plate specimens

The two composite plates employed in this study consist of a piece of aircraft composite fuselage. The dimensions of these structures are $(400 \times 300 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3)$. They are both made up of 16 layers Carbone epoxy material. The layer sequences are: $(0^\circ, 45^\circ, -45^\circ, 90^\circ, 90^\circ, -45^\circ, 45^\circ, 0^\circ)$. An optimal placement of ten PZ29 piezoceramic patches with dimensions $(30 \times 20 \times 0.2 \text{ mm}^3)$ has been achieved on these two structures using the controllability and observability gramians [21]. The composite plate shown in Fig. 6(a) was used as the baseline for damage detection. Fig. 6(b) shows the second composite plate, manufactured from the same material and layer sequences, having the same dimensions and PZT number and placement as the first one. However, in this plate, an calibrated impact damage with a 5 mm diameter was produced by projecting on the center of the plate a steel ball at a high and controlled velocity. This composite plate will be used as a damaged plate

327 example.

328 5.2. Data acquisition and Hammerstein Kernels estimation

329 The input excitation and the data acquisition were performed using a
330 voltage amplifier (TREK MODEL 601C) and charge amplifiers (type 5011B).
331 This excitation was applied sequentially to nine PZT elements and consists of
332 an exponential sine sweep signal with $f_1 = 100$ Hz, $f_2 = 30$ kHz, $T = 3.2588$ s
333 and an amplitude of 10 V (see Sec. 2). Using a real time prototype system
334 dSPACE, temporal signals were acquired with a sampling frequency $f_s =$
335 100 kHz from nine channels: one corresponding to the excitation applied to a
336 given PZT actuator, and the eight others corresponding to the measurements
337 collected by the PZT sensors. Under those conditions, the SNR is found to
338 be approximately of 60 dB.

339 A first database has been built, by collecting 10 times in the healthy and
340 damaged states the signals for all the paths starting from the PZT element
341 number 7, located near the center of the plate, close to the damage. The
342 aim of this database is to quantify the environmental variability existing
343 for a given path by computing the damage index DI_1 mean and standard
344 deviation over the 10 trials and to infer a detection threshold for DI_2 defined
345 by Eq. (13). Another database has been built by collecting in each state
346 (healthy or damaged) the signals for the $9 \times 8 = 72$ paths existing between
347 all pairs of PZT elements. The objective of this database is to illustrate the
348 ability of both DIs to detect damages among the different paths and actuators
349 that are considered. For both databases, the Hammerstein Kernels have been
350 estimated using the method described in Sec. 2 up to an order of nonlinearity
351 $N = 8$. This choice has been done with respects to noise conditions and to

the length of the input exponential sine sweep [15].

5.3. Sensibility to environmental noise and to damage for one actuator

To assess the sensibility of the DI_1 defined in Eq.(9) to the presence of environmental noise, DI_1 values have been computed for all the repetitions for the healthy and damaged plates, as described in Sec. 5.2. In Fig. 7(a), the mean and standard deviation of the DI_1 values computed over the 10 repetitions for each path are shown for both states. From this figure, we can see that even in the healthy state, the DI_1 values are around 0.77. This means that there is a non-negligible part of the energy in the nonlinear part of the output and thus that the system under study is nonlinear in its healthy state. This illustrates the fact that the proposed method can handle systems that are nonlinear in their healthy state. From that figure, it can also be seen that the variations caused by environmental noise on DI_1 values remains relatively low and that the DI_1 values for the damaged case are well above the DI_1 values for the healthy state. As such, we can conclude that experimentally the proposed DI_1 is not much sensitive to environmental noise and is effectively sensitive to the presence of the damage.

The damage index DI_2 defined by Eq. (13) is comparing the nonlinear subspaces spanned by a reference state and by an unknown state. As so, this DI is relative by nature and a decision threshold needs to be defined in order to decide whether or not there is presence of a damage. To do so, we decided here to proceed experimentally by using the 10 repetitions for PZT 7 in the healthy state. The first repetition has been chosen as the reference state, and the nine others as unknown (but healthy) states. The DI_2 values obtained by comparing these unknown (but healthy) states to the reference

one are plotted on Fig. 7(b). It can be seen that the environmental noise
 does not cause large changes to these DI_2 values. On the basis of these
 values, a decision threshold has then been defined as ten times the maximum
 value obtained previously. The factor ten is arbitrarily chosen but is thought
 here to be sufficiently large for reasonable decision making. This decision
 threshold is also plotted on Fig. 7(b). Now, the impact of environmental
 noise in the damaged case can be assessed by comparing, for each trial the
 DI_2 value obtained by comparing the healthy and damaged states. As shown
 in Fig. 7(b), for each trial, the obtained DI_2 values are not so influenced by
 noise and are always above the decision threshold value. Thus, we can say
 that the DI_2 defined by Eq. (13) is not very sensitive to noise and appears
 to be sensitive to the presence of the damage for this actuator.

5.4. Sensibility to the presence of the damage for all the actuators

To assess the sensibility of the DI_1 defined in Eq. (9) to the presence
 of the damage for different actuators and paths over the plate, DI_1 values
 have been computed for each of the 72 paths measured on the healthy and
 damaged plates (as described in Sec. 5.2). For sake of brevity, DI_1 values
 are presented here in a synthetic manner actuator by actuator. Fig. 8(a)
 depicts the mean and standard deviation of the DI_1 values computed for all
 the paths starting from each of the nine PZT elements used as actuators for
 both the healthy and damaged states. From Fig. 8(a), it is clear that the
 damage introduced in the plate generates nonlinearities and that the DI_1 as
 defined in Eq. (9) is sensitive to the presence of this damage. Indeed, for all
 the actuators, the mean DI_1 values computed for all the paths starting from
 a given actuator are higher for the damaged state than for the healthy one.

402 To assess the sensibility of the DI_2 defined in Eq. (13) to the presence
403 of the damage for different actuators and paths over the plate, DI_2 values
404 have been computed for each of the 9 actuators using measurements from
405 the healthy and damaged plates (as described in Sec. 5.2). These damage
406 index values are compared in Fig. 8(b) to the detection threshold defined in
407 the previous section. From Fig. 8(b), it is clear that the damage introduced
408 in the plate generates nonlinearities and that the DI_2 as defined in Eq. (13)
409 is sensitive to the presence of this damage. Indeed, for all the actuators,
410 the obtained DI_2 values are higher for the damaged state than the chosen
411 decision threshold.

412 6. Conclusion

413 In many cases, damages that appear on complex structures (such as
414 cracks, impacts, or delaminations) can result in nonlinear dynamical re-
415 sponses that may be used for damage detection. Furthermore, complex
416 structures often exhibit a nonlinear behavior even in their healthy states.
417 A robust and reliable SHM system must then be able to deal with nonlinear
418 damages, and to distinguish between their effects and inherent nonlinearities
419 in healthy structures. The first problem to be addressed is that the nonlinear
420 models already in use are never general enough to encompass all the structure
421 encountered in real life. The second problem is that the currently developed
422 nonlinear models are not adequate for practical use of SHM systems. The
423 work presented here attempts to face these two problems on the basis of a
424 simple, but rather general, nonlinear model estimated by means of standard
425 signal processing tools. This approach is based on the assumption that the

426 structure under study can be modeled as a cascade of Hammerstein models.
427 The Exponential Sine Sweep Method, previously developed and validated
428 by the authors for different purposes, is then used to estimate the different
429 kernels of the model. Exponential sine sweeps are a class of sine sweeps that
430 allow estimating a model in a wide frequency band from only one measure-
431 ment. Two damage indexes are then build on the basis of this estimated
432 model. The first one reflects the ratio of the energy contained in the non-
433 linear part of the output versus the energy contained in its linear part and
434 is specially suited for single-input single-output (SISO) systems. The second
435 one is the angle between the subspaces described by the nonlinear parts of
436 two set of outputs after a principal component analysis. This one is spe-
437 cially suited for single-input multi-output (SIMO) systems. As a first step
438 toward the use of this method for SHM, the sensitivity of the proposed DIs
439 to the presence of damages as well as their robustness to noise are assessed
440 numerically on SISO and SIMO systems and experimentally on two actual
441 composite plates with surface-mounted PZT-elements (one healthy and one
442 damaged).

443 The work presented here is however only a first step toward a larger use of
444 this method in SHM. Indeed, it has be shown here that the proposed DIs are
445 effectively sensitive to the presence of a non-linear damage and that they can
446 potentially be helpful to quantify its extent. However, this approach can also
447 be cast in the context of a statistical pattern recognition problem. Then, the
448 DIs defined here, or other defined on the basis of the estimated model, can
449 be used to train expert systems that are able to distinguish between different
450 kind of damages [22].

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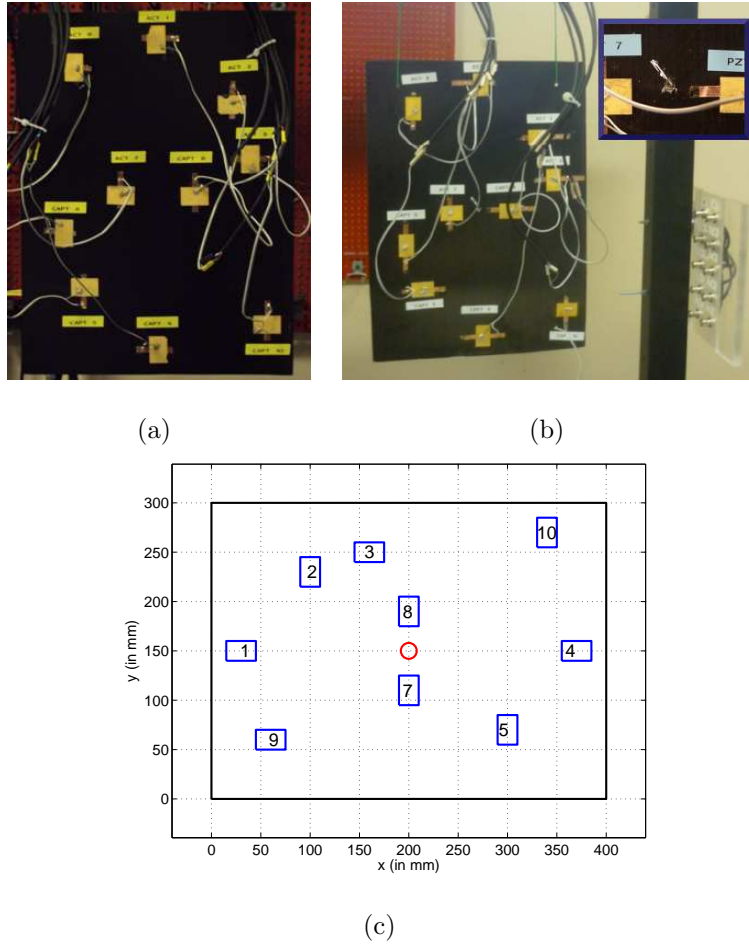
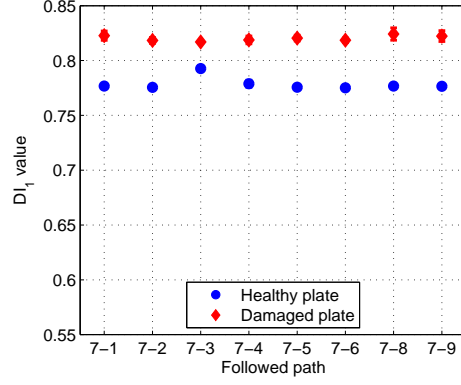
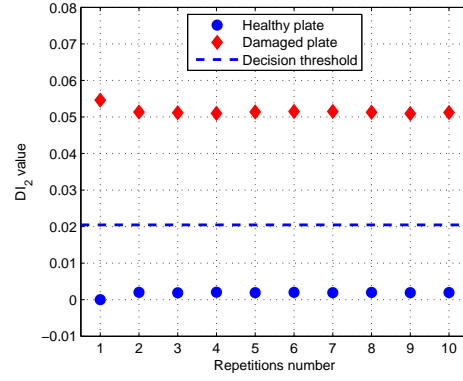


Figure 6: (a) Healthy and (b) damaged composite plates with a zoom on the impact damage. (c) Schematic representation of the plates under study (circle denotes damage position and rectangles stand for PZTs).

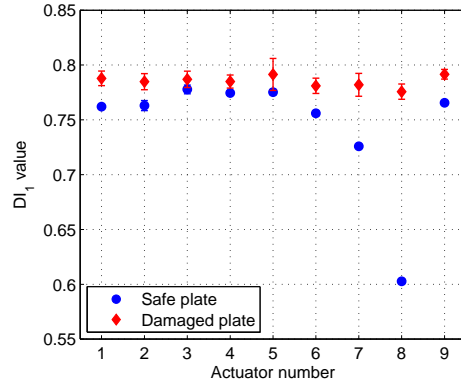


(a)

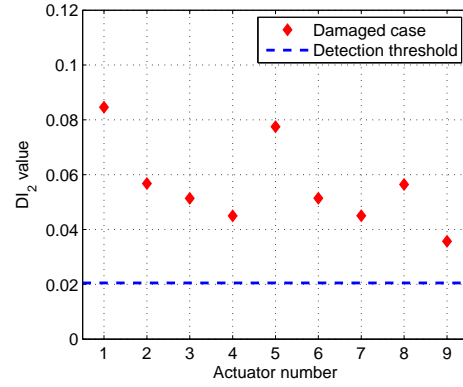


(b)

Figure 7: (a) Averages and standard deviations of DI_1 values for the different paths starting from actuator 7. (b) DI_2 values for the different repetitions for actuator 7 and definition of the detection threshold.



(a)



(b)

Figure 8: (a) Averages and standard deviations of DI_1 values for the different actuators. (b) DI_2 values for the different actuators in comparison to the detection threshold.