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25 Analysis of measurement and simulation errors in structural system identification

26 by observability techniques.

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Summary

During the process of structural system identification, it is unavoidable to introduce 28 29 errors in measurement and errors in the identification technique. This paper analyzes the 30 effects of these errors in structural system identification based on observability 31 techniques. To illustrate the symbolic approach of this method a simply supported beam is analyzed step-by-step. This analysis provides, for the very first time in the literature, 32 the parametric equations of the estimated parameters. The effects of several factors, 33 such as errors in a particular measurement or in the whole measurement set, load 34 35 location, location of the measurement or sign of the errors, on the accuracy of the identification results are also investigated. It is found that error in a particular 36 measurement increases the errors of individual estimations and this effect can be 37 significantly mitigated by introducing random errors in the whole measurement set. The 38 propagation of simulation errors when using observability techniques is illustrated by 39 40 two structures with different measurement sets and loading cases. A fluctuation of the observed parameters around the real values is proved to be a characteristic of this 41 42 method. Also, it is suggested that a sufficient combination of different load cases should be utilized to avoid the inaccurate estimation at the location of low curvature zones. 43

44 Keyword: structural system identification; stiffness method; observability technique;

45 measurement error; simulation error; observability flow

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1. Introduction

Structural System Identification (SSI) methods enable the estimation of stiffnesses and/or masses of actual structures from their monitored data. A wide number of SSI methods have been presented in the literature. In fact, the state of the art of these method have been reviewed in a number of works [1,2]. According to most of these works, system identification methods can be classified as parametric [3–6] and nonparametric (genetic algorithms [7–9], evolutionary strategy [10–13], neural networks [14,15] or least-squares estimation [16–18]).

The major difference between these two methods refers to the equations that link the input and output data, as only in the parametric methods those have a physical meaning. For this reason, parametric methods might be preferred over non-parametric ones.

A major concern for the structural system identification in actual structures refers to the 57 58 sensitivity of the SSI method to errors. Sanayei et al. [19] summarized the different errors that influence the accuracy of these methods as follows: (1) Measurement errors: 59 Independent of the measurement device, error free measurements cannot be obtained in 60 any actual nondestructive test. In this way, when these measurements are introduced 61 into the SSI technique, deviations in the estimates appear. These unbiased errors can be 62 reduced by technological developments but cannot be avoided. (2) Errors in the 63 parameter estimation technique: Every SSI method is characterized by its characteristic 64 65 simulation error. This error appears even when noise-free measurements are considered as it depends on the technique formulation. Examples of this error refer to the 66 hypotheses of iterative or optimization processes used in the identification method or 67 the loss of numerical accuracy in computer calculation. However, for the very first time 68 69 in the literature, the explicit analytical solutions of these estimated parameters can be derived from the observability method in a symbolic way. Hence, those errors in 70 71 parameter estimation might be avoided if noise-free data were used. (3) Modeling errors: These errors are due to uncertainties in the parameters of the simplified Finite 72 73 Element Model. Some examples of this error refer to the inaccuracy in material 74 properties, the existence of elements which stiffness was not accounted for, or errors in the boundary conditions. 75

76 Significant research has been carried out to study the impact of the different errors on parametric methods. Saneyei and Saletnik [20] proposed an error sensitivity analysis to 77 78 evaluate the effect of noise in measurements. Saneyei et al. [21] compared the results of different error functions to evaluate the errors in the parameter estimation technique in a 79 small scale model. Saneyei et al. [19] studied the effects of modeling errors in frame 80 structures with elastic supports. Yuen and Katafygiotis [22] studied the effects of noisy 81 measurements in structural system identification. Caddemi and Greco [23] studied the 82 83 influence of instrumental errors on the static identification of damage parameters for elastic beams. Zhang et al. [24] used intervals analyses to limit the values for the 84 identified parameters under the effect of modeling errors. Wang [25] studied the effects 85 of flexible joints and boundary conditions for model updating. Sanayei et al. [4] 86 presented an error sensitivity analysis to study each parameter based on the load cases 87 and measurement locations of the nondestructive tests. 88

Lozano-Galant et al. [26,27] proposed the observability method [28] for structural 89 system identification from static tests. This parametric technique analyzes the stiffness 90 matrix method as a monomial-ratio system of equations and enables the mathematical 91 identification of element stiffnesses of the whole structure or of a portion of it using a 92 subset of deflection and/or rotation measurements. In all these works, noise-free 93 measurements were considered. Nevertheless, this assumption is far from reality as the 94 data of actual nondestructive tests is always subjected to errors in measurement devices. 95 In order to fill this gap, this paper analyzes the effects of measurement errors in 96 97 structural identification by observability techniques. The simulation errors inherent to 98 this identification method are also studied in detail.

99 This article is organized as follows. In Section 2, the application of observability 100 techniques to structural system identification is presented. In Section 3, a simply 101 supported beam is analyzed to illustrate the different errors appearing in the 102 observability technique. In Section 4 the measurement error is analyzed in an illustrative 103 structure. Next, in Section 5 two structures are studied to illustrate the errors inherent to 104 the observability technique. Finally, some conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

105

2. Structural System Identification by observability techniques

Prior to the application of observability techniques, a FEM of the structure should be established based on the topology of the structure to be identified, which is a common preliminary step in many identification methods [29–31]. With this FEM and the stiffness matrix method, the equilibrium equations together with strength of materials theory might be written in terms of nodal displacements and nodal forces as presented in Equation 1.

$$[K] \cdot \{\delta\} = \{f\},\tag{1}$$

in which [K] is the stiffness matrix of the structure, $\{\delta\}$, is a vector of nodal displacements and $\{f\}$ is a vector of nodal forces. For 2D analysis, Matrix [K] includes the geometrical and mechanical properties of the beam elements of the structure, such as length, L_j, shear modulus, G_j, Young's modulus, E_j, area, A_j, inertia, I_j, and torsional stiffness, J_j, associated with the j-element.

When the SSI is introduced in the stiffness matrix method, the matrix [K] is partially
unknown. Usually, L_i is assumed known while the stiffnesses are traditionally assumed

as unknown. The determination of the unknown parameters in [K] leads to a nonlinear 119 120 problem as these parameters are multiplied by the displacements of the nodes (in 2D, horizontal and vertical deflection and rotation associated with the k-node u_k , v_k and w_k , 121 respectively). This implies that non-linear products of variables, such as E_jA_ju_k, E_jA_jv_k, 122 $E_j I_j u_k$, $E_j I_j v_k$ and $E_j I_j w_k$, might appear, leading to a polynomial system of equations. 123 124 Before further discussion, one thing should be kept in mind is that the major interest in 125 structural identification is to assess the structural behavior, e.g. axial stiffnesses, EA, or 126 flexural stiffnesses, EI. In order to reduce the number of parameter, these stiffnesses are, respectively, assimilated into areas, A, and inertias, I, by setting the modulus as a 127 assumed value, e.g. unity or typical values from handbooks. When the identification by 128 observability is completed, the axial stiffnesses and the flexural stiffnesses, respectively, 129 130 can be recovered by the multiplication of the predefined modulus and the estimated area, \hat{A} , and the estimated inertia, \hat{I} . This strategy is also followed in [32,33]. 131

132 To solve these equations in a linear-form, system (1) can be rewritten as:

$$[K^*] \cdot \{\delta^*\} = \{f\},\tag{2}$$

in which the products of variables are located in the modified vector of displacements $\{\delta^*\}$ and the modified stiffness matrix [K*] is a matrix of coefficients with different dimensions from the initial stiffness matrix [K]. Depending on the known information, the unknown variables of vector $\{\delta^*\}$ may be the non-linear products presented above, as well as other factors of single variables, such as E_jI_j , E_jA_j , E_j , A_j , I_j or node deflections.

139 Once the boundary conditions and the applied forces at the nodes during the 140 nondestructive test are introduced, it can be assumed that a subset of increments of 141 deflections δ_1^* of $\{\delta^*\}$ and a subset of forces in nodes f_1 of $\{f\}$ are known and the 142 remaining subset δ_0^* of $\{\delta^*\}$ and f_0 of $\{f\}$ are not. By the static condensation procedure, 143 the system in (2) can be partitioned as follows:

$$[K^*]\{\delta^*\} = \begin{pmatrix} K^*_{00} & K^*_{01} \\ K^*_{10} & K^*_{11} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta^*_0 \\ \delta^*_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} f_0 \\ f_1 \end{pmatrix} = \{f\},$$
(3)

where K_{00}^* , K_{01}^* , K_{10}^* and K_{11}^* are partitioned matrices of $[K^*]$ and δ_0^* , δ_1^* , f_0 and f_1 are partitioned vectors of $\{\delta^*\}$ and $\{f\}$. 146 In order to join the unknowns, system (3) can be written in the equivalent form, as:

$$[B]\{z\} = \begin{pmatrix} K_{10}^* & 0\\ K_{00}^* & -I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta_0^*\\ f_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 - K_{11}^* \times \delta_1^*\\ -K_{01}^* \times \delta_1^* \end{pmatrix} = \{D\},$$
(4)

147 where 0 and I are the null and the identity matrices, respectively. In this system the 148 vector of unknown variables, $\{z\}$, appears on the left-hand side and the vector of observations, {D}, on the right-hand side. Both vectors are related by a coefficient 149 matrix[B]. For the system (4) to have a solution, it is sufficient to calculate the null 150 space [V] of [B] and checking that $[V][D] = \{0\}$. Examination of matrix [V] and 151 152 identification of its null rows leads to identification of the observable variables (subset 153 of variables with a unique solution) of vector $\{z\}$. The number of required deflections 154 can be optimized by using a recursive process that takes advantage of the connectivity 155 of the beams in the stiffness matrix. This connectivity is included in partitioned matrices of $[K^*]$ and therefore, in system (4). In this way, when in the initial observability 156 analysis any deflection, force or structural parameter is observed, this information might 157 help to observe new parameters in the adjacent beam elements through a recursive 158 159 process. In this analysis, the observed information in the previous step is successively introduced as input data in the observability simulation. 160

161 A detailed step by step application of the observability techniques is presented in 162 [26,27]. The readers are recommended to refer to those papers for a more detailed 163 explanation of the peculiarities of the proposed methodology.

164 The symbolical SSI algorithm presented above fails to address the numerical estimation of the 165 observed parameters. To solve this problem, a numerical development of the observability 166 techniques was presented in [2]. This algorithm combines two approaches: a symbolical and a 167 numerical one. On the one hand, the symbolic approach is used for the observability analysis. 168 This analysis reduces the effects of the unavoidable numerical errors during the computation of 169 the null spaces of the system of equations. On the other hand, the second approach enables the 170 numerical estimation of the observed parameters. This mixed algorithm also includes a recursive process, in which the new observed parameters are successively introduced into the 171 analysis. One concern of this method is that a huge burden is expected in the 172 computation of the null space [V] when confronted with a problem involving a large 173 number of observable variables. However, this method has been applied to some large 174 175 structures, including a 13-storeys frame building [26] and a cable stayed bridge [27,32]. The main time cost of the algorithm is in the computation of the null space, [V], by 176

symbolical approach whereas the time cost by the numeric approach is negligible. 177 However, the computation of the null space by symbolical approach can be carried out 178 179 efficiently in Matlab subroutine. In the case of the 13-storeys building, it has been 180 checked that 396 seconds are needed, on a laptop with a 2.4 GHz i7 processor and a 16 GB memory, to get the null space of a matrix [B] with the dimension of 258×462. Note 181 that the number of rows in the matrix [B] is three times as the number of the nodes, 182 183 which is unchanging, while the number of columns in the matrix [B] equals the number 184 of unknowns. Moreover, the number of unknowns decreases with the recursive steps since part of the unknowns has been observed in preceding steps. Thus, the computation 185 of the null space of the matrix [B] will be accelerated during the recursive steps due to 186 the decrease of the scale of [B]. In addition, if a larger structure of more observable 187 188 parameters is provided, which could not be handled by this laptop, stronger machines, such as desktops or work stations can be employed. 189

190 With regard to the ability of this method, until now, it is only applied in 2D structures

simulated by 1D elements with 3 DOFs per node. Conceptually, as a mathematical tool,

the observability technique is expected to be able to apply in different formulations of

the FEM, including but not limited to 3D structures simulated by 1D elements with 6

194 DOFs per node or 2D structures simulated by 2D elements with 3DOFs per node [34].

195 However, more work associated with this part needs to be done in future.

196 To illustrate the application of this process, a simple structure is analyzed in the 197 following section. This example also serves to point out the errors of the observability 198 technique.

199

3. Identifying errors in observability techniques

200 To illustrate the mixed procedure presented above, the simply supported beam presented 201 in Figure 1.A is analyzed. This structure is modeled by a simplified Finite Element 202 Model (FEM) composed of 4 nodes and 3 beam elements. The Young's modulus of all 203 elements is assumed as unknown. Nevertheless, this is not the case of the inertias and the areas, as their values are considered different and unknown for the three different 204 205 beam elements. To estimate the three unknown flexural stiffnesses of the system (EI₁, EI_2 and EI_3), one rotation (w₁) and two vertical deflections (v₂ and v₃) are measured. In 206 this structure, the application of (4) leads to the following system of equations: 207

209

208

(5)

In this system, the unknown variables $\{z\}$ include the horizontal reaction, H_1 , and vertical reactions, V_1 and V_4 , at the boundary, the inertias, EI₁, EI₂ and EI₃, and nonlinear products of coupled areas and inertias, such as EA₁u₂, EA₂u₂, EA₂u₃, EA₃u₃, EA₃u₄, EI₂w₁, EI₂w₃, EI₃w₃ and EI₃w₄. With $\{p_1\}$, being a vector of coefficients, the general solution of system (5) can be expressed in terms of a particular solution $\{z_{p1}\}$ and the null space $[V_1]$ of the matrix of the preceding system as follows:

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The analysis of [V1] illustrates the importance of using a symbolic approach. Otherwise, numerical errors with values very close to zero might appear. This might result in reducing the observed parameters. Those variables whose associated rows of [V1] are null indicate that their value has a unique solution (that is to say, that is observable and the particular and general solutions are equal). The variables observed in

(6)

the first step (H1, EI1, EI1w2, V1 and V4) are highlighted in bold in $\{z_1\}$, (6). Obviously, when the value of EI1 is estimated, w2 can be deduced from EI1w2. The particular solution $\{z_{p1}\}$ of these parameters can be symbolically obtained from system (5) by the left divide, \, in Matlab [35]. Similar functions can be found in other commercial packages, e.g. solve function in both Maple [36] and Mathematica [37]. These functions can be used to provide solutions for symbolic systems of equations.

According to the authors' knowledge, such a type of parametric equations cannot be found in the literature for structural system identification. The obtained parametric equations of the estimates \widehat{El}_1 , \widehat{V}_1 and \widehat{V}_4 are as follows:

$$\widehat{EI_1} = \frac{-(L^2 \cdot (8 \cdot M_1 - M_2 - M_3 - M_4 + 2 \cdot L \cdot V_2 + L \cdot V_3)}{(18 \cdot (v_2 - L \cdot w_1))}$$
(7)
$$(M_1 + M_2 + M_3 + M_4 - 2 \cdot L \cdot V_4 - L \cdot V_3)$$
(8)

$$\hat{V}_{1} = \frac{(M_{1} + M_{2} + M_{3} + M_{4} - 2 \cdot L \cdot V_{4} - L \cdot V_{3})}{3 \cdot L}$$

$$\hat{V}_{4} = \frac{(M_{1} + M_{2} + M_{3} + M_{4} + L \cdot V_{4} + 2 \cdot L \cdot V_{3})}{3 \cdot L}$$
(9)

232 in which M_i and V_i are the bending Moments and the Vertical forces (external loads) applied at the *ith* node of the structure during the nondestructive test and L is the length 233 234 of the beam elements in the model. In these equations, the super index ^ indicates that the value of the estimate is obtained by observability techniques. Obviously, a different 235 236 equation would be obtained if either the measurement set or the geometry of the 237 structure were changed It should be noted that the parametric equation (7) might lead to unrealistic estimation if the denominator tends to zero or is negative when errors are 238 introduced. This is also discussed in detail in section 4. In order to fill this gap, the 239 240 researchers are working on an optimization of the measurements which it will be presented in the near future. 241

The analysis of Equation (5) shows that EI_1 depends on the nodal forces applied at the loading case (M₁ to M₄, V₂ and V₃), the length of the beam elements L, and the measured deflection v₂ and rotation w₁. Both v₂ and w₁ are only found in the denominator of the equation. As the structure is simply supported, V₁ and V₄ can be geometrically determined in terms of the geometry and the forces applied in the loading case. For this reason, these parameters do not depend on the measured deflections.

Once identified the observed parameters, their value can be numerically calculated. To illustrate the results of the method, let's consider a concrete beam of 0.3m height and 0.2m width. The inertia and the Young's modulus are $4.5e-4m^4$ and $3.5e7kN/m^2$, respectively. The total length $(3 \cdot L)$ of the beam is 3m. The loading case is assumed as a concentrated load of -55kN at node 2. This loading case is represented by the following nodal forces: $M_1=M_2=M_3=M_4=V_3=0$ and $V_2=-55kN$. Both the deflections and the rotations obtained throughout the beam for this loading case by FEM program are presented in Figure 1.B and 1.C, respectively for a loading location x=L. In this simulation the shear deformation is neglected.

The numeric values of the estimated \widehat{EI}_1 , \widehat{w}_2 , \widehat{V}_1 , \widehat{V}_4 obtained by parametric equations are summarized in the first recursive step of Table 1. This table also includes the ratio of deviation between estimated and actual values. As showed in this table, the maximum deviation 0.017% in \widehat{EI}_1 , which is due to the round-off error, is negligible.

After introducing the parameters observed in the first recursive step, the system (5) can be rearranged as presented in system (10). This analysis corresponds with the second recursive step. It is worth noticing that in this system the previously identified parameters (V_1 , V_4 , EI_1 and w_2) are moved from {z} to [B] and {D}.

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With $[V_2]$ being the null space of the matrix [B] in system (10), $\{p_2\}$ being a vector of coefficients, and $\{z_{p2}\}$ being the particular solution of the system, the general solution $\{z_2\}$ of the second recursive step can be expressed as follows:

$$269 \quad \{z_2\} = \{z_{p2}\} + [V_2] \cdot \{p_2\} = \begin{cases} EA_1u_2 \\ EA_2u_2 \\ EA_2u_3 \\ EA_3u_4 \\ EA_3u_4 \\ EI_2 \\ EI_2w_3 \\ EI_3w_4 \\ EI_3$$

The analysis of $[V_2]$ shows that the only observed parameters are EI₂ and EI₂w₃. From 270 this information the calculation of w_3 is a straightforward task. The observed parameters 271 are highlighted in bold in $\{z_2\}$, (11). The parametric equation of EI₂ is presented in 272 273 Equation (12). This equation shows how EI_2 depends on the values of EI_1 and w_2 estimated in the preceding recursive step. The numerical values of EI2 and w3 are 274 summarized in the second recursive step of Table 1. As showed in this table, the 275 276 deviation between the actual value of EI₂ and the estimated one \widehat{EI}_2 (-0.014%) is negligible. 277

278
$$\widehat{El}_{2} = \frac{-(L^{2} \cdot M_{3} - 2 \cdot L^{2} \cdot M_{2} - 12 \cdot I_{1} \cdot v_{2} + L^{2} \cdot M_{4} + L^{3} \cdot V_{4} + 4 \cdot I_{1} \cdot L \cdot w_{1} + 8 \cdot L \cdot w_{2})}{(6 \cdot (v_{2} - v_{3} + L \cdot w_{2}))}$$
(12)

Finally, in the third recursive step all the parameters observed by the first two steps (V_1 ,

280 V_4 , EI_1 , w_2 , EI_2 and w_3) are introduced, and the system of equations (10) is updated to:

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With $[V_3]$ being the null space of the matrix [B] in system (13), $\{p_3\}$ being a vector of coefficients, and $\{z_{p3}\}$ being the particular solution of the system, the general solution $\{z_3\}$ can be expressed as follows:

$$285 \quad \{z_3\} = \{z_{p3}\} + [V_3] \cdot \{p_3\} = \begin{cases} EA_1u_2 \\ AE_2u_2 \\ EA_2u_3 \\ EA_3u_4 \\ EI_3 \\ EI_3w_4 \end{cases} = \{z_{p3}\} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \{p_3\}$$
(14)

The analysis of matrix $[V_3]$ shows that in this step, EI_3 and EI_3w_4 are observed. From this information w_4 can be directly obtained. These parameters are highlighted in bold in Equation (14). The parametric equation of EI_3 obtained from the particular solution of system (13) is presented in Equation (14). As in the case of EI_2 , this equation depends on the values of parameters (such as \widehat{EI}_2 and \widehat{w}_3) estimated in preceding recursive steps and on measured deflections (v_2 and v_3). The numerical values of \widehat{EI}_3 and \widehat{w}_4 are presented in the third recursive step of Table 1. This table shows that the deviation between the actual EI₃ and the estimated $\widehat{EI}_3(0.02\%)$ is negligible.

294
$$\widehat{El}_{3} = \frac{-(30 \cdot I_{2} \cdot v_{2} - 30 \cdot I_{2} \cdot v_{3} - 3 \cdot L^{2} \cdot M_{3} + L^{3} \cdot V_{3} + 12 \cdot I_{2} \cdot L \cdot w_{2} + 18 \cdot I_{2} \cdot L \cdot w_{3})}{(6 \cdot (v_{3} + L \cdot w_{3}))}$$
(15)

Evidently, axial stiffness of the beam cannot be estimated due to the fact that the axial
resistant mechanism was not excited by the external load. However, this did not impede
the bending stiffness to be observable, and henceforth, to be estimated.

The analysis of the parametric equations of EI_1 , EI_2 and EI_3 shows their dependence to the measurements and therefore, to their errors (measurement errors). These equations also show that the nature of the recursive process tends to increase the errors throughout the analysis (error associated to the simulation method). The sensitivity of the observability techniques to these two kinds of errors is analyzed in the following sections.

304 Also, a flow chart of the mixed algorithm of structural identification by observability method is provided in Figure 2. All the procedures related with the symbolic approach 305 are enclosed by dashed line whereas the procedures related with the numeric approach 306 307 are enclosed by dotted line. In step 0, input the initial data containing the description of 308 the FEM (nodes, element connectivity, external loads and the unknown set of areas and 309 inertias) and the measurement set. In *substep 1* of step i, absorb the measurements in the 310 matrix $[K^*]$ and collect unknowns in the vector $[\delta^*]$ by static condensation. Next, move 311 the unknowns and the observation, respectively, to the left-hand side and the left-hand side of the system in *substep 2*, by which the system $[B] \cdot \{z\} = \{D\}$ is generated. Then, 312 313 in substep 3, the observability of the unknowns are determined by checking the null row 314 of the symbolic null space, [V], of the matrix [B]. The value of the observed parameters will be evaluated by numeric approach in substep 4. And, in substep 5, it will be 315 examined first whether the number of the observed parameters, N_i , is zero or the same 316 as the number of N_{i-1} from previous step. If so, the identification process is terminated 317 318 since no more parameter can be observed. Otherwise, the numeric value of the observed parameters from *substep 5* will be used to update the input and regarded as known 319 320 parameters to initiate the succeeding recursive step.

322

4. Measurement errors

This section deals with the role of measurement error in structural system identification by observability techniques. With this aim, two sensitivity analyses of the simply supported beam in Figure 1 are presented. The first simulation analyzes the effects of individual errors in each measurement (deflection or rotation). The deviation in the estimation of \hat{l}_1 is also analyzed by means of partial derivatives. Finally, the second sensitivity analysis studies the effect of random errors in all measurements.

329

- Analysis of errors in single measurement

This section analyzes the sensitivity of parametric equations of I_1 , I_2 and I_3 obtained from Equations (7), (12) and (15) to errors in one measurement

The measurement set used here is the same as before, one rotation (w_1) and two deflections $(v_2 \text{ and } v_3)$. The Young's modulus of the three beam elements is assumed as known (2.5e7kN/m²).

The ratio between each estimated inertia, \hat{I}_i , and the actual one, I, with errors from -5% 335 to 5% in v_2 , w_1 and v_3 are presented in Figure 3.A. This figure shows how the 336 337 sensitivity to errors in one of the measurements is increased throughout the recursive process. For example, the deviation between the estimated inertia and the actual one for 338 339 an error of -5% in v_2 changes from -16.7% in I₁ to 47.1% in I₂, and -45.5% in I₃. In this structure, the deviations in I_1 produced by errors in v_2 correspond with those in I_2 for 340 341 errors in w₁. Generally, the system is more sensitive to errors in deflections than in 342 rotations. This figure also illustrates the importance of the error sign. In fact, the 343 estimations based on the measured deflections are asymmetric. This asymmetry 344 increases throughout the recursive process and is especially significant in the 345 deflections, v.

In Figure 3.B, the effect of the errors in measurements on the deviation in the estimation throughout the recursive process is presented. This figure also shows that I_1 is not affected by errors in v_3 . This is because the parametric equations of these inertias do not depend on the deflection v_3 .

The effects of the location of two concentrated loads are analyzed in Figure 4.A and 4.B, respectively, to clarify the influence of the load case on the parametric equations of inertias. Load case one corresponds with a concentrated vertical load V=-55kN, located at an intermediate node (x=L or x=2L). The second load case corresponds with a concentrated bending moment, M=100kN·m, located at the beam edge (x=0 or x=3L). These figures present the deviation between the actual inertia, I, and the \hat{I}_1 calculated by parametric equation (7) for different errors in v₂ or w₁ and load locations. It should be highlighted that deviations beyond the range of [0,2] do not have physical meaning and thus they are rejected.

Figure 4 shows that the load case is influential in the accuracy of estimated parameters. 359 In Figure 4.A, the closer the load to the measurements, the smaller the effect of errors. 360 For example, for an error of -5% in v_2 , the deviation of \hat{l}_1 increases from -16.6% to -361 25.9% when V is moved from x=L to x=2L. For the same error level in w_1 , moving V 362 from x=L to x=2L increases the deviation of \hat{l}_1 from 33.3% to 66.7%. Similar 363 364 conclusion can be drawn when the effect of bending moment M is analyzed. In this case, for an error of -5% in v₂, the deviation in \hat{I}_1 increases from -5.8% to -28.6% when 365 M is moved from x=0 to x=3L. For the same error in w_1 , the increment is from 12.7% to 366 367 81.2%.

In addition, the parametric equations are affected by the location of the measurements. In the observability method, the accuracy of the estimations is highly related to the curvature of the elements where the measurements are performed. Estimates obtained from deflections measured at the low curvatures zone might be more sensitive to errors. For example, in a simply supported beam, the null curvature zones are those adjacent to the support. The influence of the curvature will be discussed in a more extensive way in the simulation error part.

To clarify the effects of curvatures in the accuracy of the estimates, six FEMs, FEM₂, FEM₃, FEM4, FEM₆, FEM₈ and FEM₁₂, with the same length, 3L, but different element numbers were analyzed. The number of elements in these FEMs is indicated by their subscript. In all these models, only the flexural stiffness of the first element, EI₁, is estimated.

In these models, two measurements are considered, the rotation w_1 at the left support and the deflection v_2 of node 2. Note that the location of the measurement v_2 is $\{x = \frac{3L}{2}, L, \frac{3L}{4}, \frac{3L}{8} \text{ and } \frac{L}{4}\}$ for FEM₂ FEM₃, FEM₄, FEM₆, FEM₈ and FEM₁₂. That is, the measurement v_2 will be located nearer to the null curvature zone in models of more elements.

To analyze the effect of the location of the measurements, the parametric equation of \widehat{El}_1 , (7), for FEM₃ is analyzed. Similar equations can be obtained for different FEMs by substituting the length of the different elements in each model. The effect of the errors ranging from -15% to 15% in w₁ and v₂ is obtained by these equations for each FEM is presented in Figure 5. It should be clarified that all these equations are presented as a fraction, in which the numerator indicates information of the load case while the Denominator, D, indicates information of the measurements.

392 As expected, Figure 5 shows that the denominator of the parametric equation of EI_1 , D, 393 depends linearly of the error in measurements w_1 and v_2 . In the graph, the closer to the 394 null curvature zone the measurement v_2 , the higher the inclination of the denominator 395 line. High inclinations of the lines might lead to estimations with no physical meaning 396 as the errors in measurements lead to denominators close to zero or even negative. It is 397 straightforward that the inertia obtained by this value of the denominator would tend to be infinite or negative. In FEM₂, the threshold error level for w_1 and v_2 to render the 398 399 denominator null is quite high. Nevertheless, the threshold becomes lower with the decrease of the distance between the support and node 2. Considering the error of w_1 , a 400 401 null denominator is obtained at the following error level: -16.1% (FEM₃), -8.7% (FEM₄), -5.2% (FEM₆), -2.3% (FEM₈) and -1.7% (FEM₁₂). It is suggested to take 402 403 measurements in the non-null curvature zones to avoid the detrimental effect of the 404 measurement errors on the accuracy of estimations.

405

Error by partial derivatives

In previous discussion, estimation of \widehat{EI}_1 in FEM₃ depends on errors in v₂ and w₁. With ε being the percentage error in the measurements, the error in \widehat{EI}_1 , e₁, due to these two parameters can be calculated by the following partial derivatives:

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$$e_1 = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial \hat{l}_1}{\partial v_2} \cdot \varepsilon v_2\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \hat{l}_1}{\partial w_1} \varepsilon w_1\right)^2} \tag{16}$$

410 , which can be used to get the deviation in \widehat{EI}_1 . Using equation (16), the deviation in \widehat{EI}_1 411 against error from -5% to 5% is summarized in Figure 6. It can be seen the estimation of 412 \widehat{EI}_1 is quite sensitive to errors in v_2 and w_1 . Deviation will be magnified if the signs of the error in v2 and w1 are opposite. And the maximum deviation, 54.3%, is obtained for an error of +5% in v_2 and -5% in w_1 .

415 - Analysis of random errors in all measurements

In practice, measurement errors are inevitable. Furthermore, the actual magnitude of 416 417 each error is unknown since it depends on a number of parameters including the 418 accuracy of the measurement device. The errors of each measurement are usually 419 assumed to follow a normal distribution. To illustrate the effects of the actual errors, an 420 additional analysis is performed on FEM₃ in Figure 1, in which the inertias of the three 421 elements are assumed as different and unknown. Three different measurement sets were analyzed here. The first of these sets (Set 1) is exclusively composed of nodal rotations, 422 423 w_1 , w_2 and w_3 . The second set (Set 2) corresponds with that used in preceding sections, one rotation (w_1) and two deflections $(v_2 \text{ and } v_3)$. Finally, the third set (Set 3) only 424 includes three deflections v_2 , v_3 and v_5 . As illustrated in Figure 7, the measurement of 425 426 (v_5) corresponds with the vertical deflection at one intermediate node located at the first 427 beam element.

428 Each measurement sets includes three error levels, $e = \{5\%, 10\% \text{ and } 20\%\}$, which 429 represent a percentage maximum deviation of the actual value of the measured variable. Equation (17) was used to introduce the errors in deflections. The noisy deflection at the 430 i^{th} node, ve_i , is calculated from the error-free deflections, v_i , and the percentage error, 431 432 e₀, which is the product of the assumed maximum magnitude of the error, e, and a 433 random number, r. The random number r varies between -1.0 and 1.0 according to a 434 truncated normal distribution of null mean and 0.5 standard deviation. A similar equation is used to introduce the errors into the measured rotations we_i. 435

 $ve_i = v_i + v_i \cdot e_0 = v_i + v_i \cdot r \cdot e \tag{17}$

Random errors in measurements might lead to estimations with no physical meaning 436 since these noisy measurements should satisfy some geometrical constraints. In FEM₃ 437 438 from Figure 1, random errors in measurements might result in deformed shapes where 439 the deflection of the node where the load is applied is not the maximum. In each of 440 these analyses, the physical meaning of the deformed shape is analyzed by checking 441 some geometrical restrictions. For this structure, the restrictions assumed are ve₂>ve₃ and we₁<we₂<we₃<we₄. The vertical deflection and rotation at the intermediate node ve₅ 442 and we₅ are limited by those of the adjacent nodes. If any of these restrictions is not 443

satisfied a new set of random measurements is obtained until the 200 admissibledeformed shapes are obtained.

The ratios between the estimated inertia, \hat{I}_i , of the *ith* beam and the actual one, *I*, for 446 different random errors in measurements are presented in Figure 7. As presented in the 447 448 preceding section, the errors in measurements might lead to estimations with no 449 physical meaning. This lack of meaning comes from those cases where the denominator of the parametric equation is close to zero. This problem can be avoided by adding some 450 physical restrictions to the solutions of the system of equations. For example, in a 451 452 damaged structure, the estimated inertias cannot be significantly higher than those of the 453 undamaged elements (that is, estimated inertia cannot be twice as big as the original 454 one). In addition, no negative inertias should be considered. In order to fulfill these 455 restrictions, the results in Figure 7 include the average of those analyses where the 456 estimations were bounded by: the 0 and 2 times the original inertia, 0.25 and 1.75 times the original inertia, 0.5 and 1.5 times the original inertia and 0.75 and 1.25 times the 457 458 original inertia. In this figure, the results are named by the ranges as follows: 0.0-2.0, 0.25-1.75, 0.5-1.5 and 0.75-1.75, respectively. The percentages of analyzed structures 459 460 satisfying these restrictions are presented in Figure 7.A (Set 1), 6.B (Set 2) and 6.C (Set 461 3).

From Figure 7, it is deduced that: 1) As expected, the higher the error in measurements, 462 463 the higher the deviations in estimated inertias. In Set 2, the maximum errors for an error 464 of 5% and a physical restriction of 0.0-2.0 are increased from 4.1% to 26.1% when the 465 maximum random error in measurements is increased to 20%. 2) It is plausible that the smaller the range of allowable estimated inertias, the more accurate the estimations are. 466 For example, in Set 2 with a random error of 20%, changing the allowed range of 467 estimations from 0.0-2.0 to 0.75-1.25 reduces the deviations from 26.1% to 2.2%. 3) 468 469 The structure is less sensitive to errors in rotations than in deflections. This is 470 appreciable when the results of the different measurement sets are compared. For example, considering a maximum random error of 5% and the physical restriction 0.0-471 472 2.0, the maximum errors when only rotations are considered (Set 1 with a deviation of -473 0.2% in I₃) is significantly lower than the one when w_2 and w_3 are substituted by v_2 and 474 v_3 (Set 2 with a deviation of 3.1% in I_3). These deviations are increased more when only 475 deflections are considered (Set 3 with a deviation of 16.5% in I₂). 4) Deviations in 476 estimations are not increased throughout the recursive process as they fluctuate with the

observability flow. In all analyzed sets described in Figure 7, the recursive process is initiated at the first beam element, \hat{I}_1 . This value is used to estimate \hat{I}_2 and then, this new inertia is used to estimate \hat{I}_3 . As illustrated in the Set 3 for an error of 5%, when \hat{I}_1 is underestimated, \hat{I}_2 is overestimated to compensate the effect of \hat{I}_1 into the system of equations. Conversely, the value of \hat{I}_3 is slightly underestimated. This fluctuation in the estimation of inertias is a peculiarity of the observability technique which will be analyzed in detail in the following section.

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5. Errors in Parameter Estimation

To clarify the effects of different simulation errors, two examples of increasing 485 complexity are analyzed in this section. On the one hand, the first example corresponds 486 487 with a cantilever beam. In this example, the errors produced throughout the recursive process are analyzed. To avoid the effect of the curvature, a load case with a uniform 488 489 curvature distribution is proposed. In addition, to show the effect of the measurement errors, two different measurement precisions are adopted. On the other hand, the second 490 491 example corresponds with a statically redundant beam. In this structure, the errors 492 produced by the recursive process for a load case that produces a uniform distribution of 493 curvatures are studied first. Finally, to illustrate the effect of the curvature, an additional 494 load case with a non-uniform curvature distribution is simulated.

495

- <u>Analysis of the recursive process</u>

Assume a cantilever beam with a concentrated bending moment, $M=100kN \cdot m$ at the free end. This load case induces uniform bending moments and curvatures as depicted in Figure 8.A. This curvature enables to focus the analysis on the errors produced by the recursive process. For this load case the maximum deflections (5.11mm) occurs at the beam edge.

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The mechanical properties of the structure correspond with those of the structure presented in [33]. The analyzed beam has a length of 30 m. The area and the inertia of the girder are 0.07 m² and 0.04 m⁴, respectively and Young's of modulus is E = 210GN/m². The simplified FEM of this beam is composed of 31 nodes as presented in Figure 8.A. This assumption leads to a number of 30 elements 1m long. As mentioned in section 2, the flexural stiffnesses can be absorbed in inertias by assuming the Young's modulus as known. Here, these inertias are assumed both different and unknown. As the beam is horizontal, the axial and the flexural mechanisms are
uncoupled and can be studied separately. However, only the analysis of the flexural
behavior is presented here.

512 The values of the unknown inertias are estimated by the observability method from two 513 alternative measurement sets derived by the observability trees [32]. The first set is composed of 30 deflections, from v_2 to v_{31} , while the second one includes 29 514 deflections, from v_3 to v_{31} , and one rotation w_{31} . Each of these measurement sets solves 515 the equations of the stiffness matrix system in a different sequence (or in other words, 516 517 by a different observability flow). In the first set the solution of the system of equations 518 starts at the clamped node and flows towards the beam edge in 30 steps. The opposite 519 observability flow is obtained by the second measurement set. The observability flows 520 are illustrated in Figures 8.B and 8.C by continuous and dotted arrows, respectively.

Figures 8.B and 8.C, respectively, include the percentage differences between the estimated inertia, \hat{I}_i , and the actual one, I, based on different error levels in measurement. Figure 8.B presents the results for error free measurements (with a precision of 1e-9m in v and 1e-9rad), while Figure 8.C presents the results with the measurement errors found in (precision of 1e-5m in v [38] and 1e-5rad in w [39]).

526 To solve the system of equations, the recursive process uses information from preceding steps. In this way, the value estimated of a certain rotation or inertia is used in the 527 528 subsequent steps. It must be emphasized that it is intuitive to think, in the recursive process, that errors will accumulate and propagate, and thus the parameters identified in 529 530 the final steps will contains significant error. Conversely, this is not the case in the 531 observability techniques. As depicted in Figure 8.B, it is shown that for the first set 532 (continuous blue line) the initial error of -0.01% is increased to 0.04% at the end of the 533 beam. A similar phenomenon can be observed for the second set (dotted red line), where 534 the initial deviation of -0.01% is increased to -0.02% at the proximities of the clamped node. In fact, when an estimated inertia is slightly higher than the actual one (i.e. 535 overestimation), the next estimated inertia tends to be slightly underestimated in order 536 to compensate the overestimation in preceding step. This effect leads to the fluctuation 537 of error. However, this fluctuation might produce even higher errors in some middle 538 539 steps of the recursive process than the one obtained at the final step. For example, in the 540 first flow, the maximum deviation (0.09% in element 26) is 2.14 times higher than the error obtained at the end of the recursive process. The same effect appears in Figure 541 542 8.C. Nevertheless, in this case, because of the error in measurements, higher fluctuations are obtained. For error free measurements, the maximum deviations are observed at I_7 for the first set (v_3 to v_{31} and w_{31}). The obtained estimation at this point represents the 0.55% of I. This value is 46.1% higher than the value obtained at the end of the recursive process (0.38%).

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- Analysis of the effects of the curvature

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The second structure corresponds with the two-span continuous beam presented in 550 551 Figure 9.A. This beam has a 60 m length and is evenly divided into 60 elements. The material and mechanical properties are the same as those used in the preceding section. 552 553 Again, the Young's modulus and the areas are assumed as known whereas the inertias 554 are assumed as different and unknown for each element. This structural system 555 identification problem was presented in [33]. Later, Nogal et al. [2] used this example to illustrate the different simulation errors that might appear in observability techniques. 556 557 The aim of this example is to extend that study, and to provide a better understanding of the nature and magnitude of the different simulation errors when observability 558 559 techniques are applied.

560 To estimate the 60 unknown inertias, two different load cases are studied. The first case 561 includes two concentrated bending moments, M=1000kN·m, at the beam edges and a settlement of 5.4mm at the inner support. This load case induces, as presented in Figure 562 563 9.B, a constant bending moments in the structure. The second load case corresponds with a concentrated vertical load V=-100kN applied at node 16 as presented in Figure 564 565 9.C, which produces a linear diagram of bending moments with a maximum (500kN·m) at node 16 and a minimum (-250kN·m) at node 31 and null values at the vicinity of 566 567 node 23.

568 The measurement set in both load cases is identical and includes 58 deflections (v1 to v_{30} and v_{32} to v_{60}) and 2 rotations (w_{29} and w_{30}). This measurement set initiates an 569 observability flow at the left hand side of the inner support that is propagated towards 570 571 both beam edges. The direction of this flow is indicated by the arrows in Figures 8.B and 8.C, respectively. In the first recursive step, three inertias $(\hat{I}_{28}, \hat{I}_{29} \text{ and } \hat{I}_{30})$ are 572 observed. The rest of the inertias are successively estimated after 30 steps. The 573 574 parameters estimated in the first recursive steps are highlighted in these figures by a 575 circle.

The deviations between the actual inertia, I, and the estimated one, \hat{I}_i , in each beam element *i* are summarized in Figures 8.B and 8.C. In these figures, the results obtained by the error free measurements (precision 1e-9m in v and 1-9rad in w) and the state of the art errors (1e-5m in v and 1e-5rad in w) are presented in different colors.

Figure 9.B shows that when a uniform curvature is applied, the errors of the estimations are not increased monotonically throughout the recursive steps. In effect, the deviations from the actual stiffnesses present similar fluctuations to those observed in the cantilever beam. For the error free measurements, the maximum deviation error in the first recursive step (-0.01% in I_{28}) is increased to 0.1% in I_{37} throughout the analysis. In the structures with measurement errors, the fluctuations are slightly more significant since the initial errors (-0.13% in I_{30}) are increased to 1.1% in I_{40} .

Figure 9.C illustrates the importance of the curvature in the identification by the 587 588 observability. In fact, the maximum errors are obtained in those areas with null curvatures (concretely at x=0, x=27 and x=60m). This effect can be explained by the 589 fact that the bending stiffness is calculated based on the curvature of the beam elements 590 591 imposed by the load case. As a result, higher errors appear at those locations with low 592 curvatures. As expected, the maximum deviation (1.52%) is found at x=27, which is 593 adjacent to the inflection point of the moment diagram. In this structure, the effects of 594 the magnitude of the curvature are slightly higher than those of the recursive process. 595 To avoid the detrimental effects of the low curvature, adequate load cases are advised 596 for structural system identification by observability techniques.

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6. Conclusions

599 This paper analyzes the effects of two unavoidable sources of errors upon the structural 600 system identification by observability techniques. The first of these sources refers to the 601 measurement errors. To simulate this error, the parametric equations of the estimated 602 inertias were analyzed in detail in a simply supported beam. The analysis of this 603 structure shows that: (1) Estimations in subsequent recursive steps depend on the values 604 estimated in preceding steps. As an academic example it is showed that considering an 605 error in single measurement increases the errors in the estimations throughout the 606 recursive process. This effect is significantly mitigated when errors in all measurements 607 are considered. (2) Parametric equations of the estimated parameters can be obtained. 608 These equations are very useful to study the sensitivity of the estimated parameter. In 609 order to make the estimations less sensitive to the errors, it is recommended to use

610 measurements closer to the load location. The numeric analysis shows that the rotations 611 are less sensitive to errors than the vertical deflections. This parametric approach enables the use of partial derivatives in the error analysis. (3) The loading case is of 612 613 primary importance. Usually the closer the load location of the concentrated load to the 614 inertia to be estimated the lower the sensitivity of the estimation to measurement errors. This also corresponds to the fact that, for the same loading case, the closer the location 615 of the measurement to the boundary condition, the lower the curvature. (4) The 616 denominator of the parametric equations of the estimated inertia depends, to a large 617 618 extent, on the measurement errors. Denominators with a value close to zero lead to solutions with no physical meaning. (5) Those estimations based on the measured 619 620 deflections are asymmetric. Furthermore, the asymmetry in estimates is increased 621 throughout the recursive process. On the other hand, the second analyzed source of error 622 refers to those simulation errors inherent in the observability analysis. To illustrate these 623 effects two structures of growing complexity were analyzed. The simulation of these 624 structures shows that: (1) Fluctuations in the inertias estimated are obtained because of 625 the recursive process. This can be explained by the fact that every time that a certain 626 inertia is underestimated, the next inertia that uses this information will tend to be 627 overestimated to compensate the effect of the preceding one in the system. (2) The 628 curvature of the beam plays an important role in the accuracy of the estimations. In fact, wrong estimations are obtained near points with null curvatures. The effect of the 629 curvature requires an adequate selection of the loading cases for structural system 630 631 identification by observability techniques.

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Table 1: Numerical estimations of the parameters during the recursive steps and the deviations with the actual values obtained from the parametric equations.

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
Parameter	Estimation	Deviation	Parameter	Estimation	Deviation	Parameter	Estimation	Deviation
\widehat{EI}_1	15753.5	0.017%	\widehat{EI}_2	15750.0	-0.014%	\widehat{EI}_3	15753.6	0.020%
(kN/m^2)			(kN/m^2)			(kN/m^2)		
$\widehat{w_2}$ (rad)	-1.1e-3	-0.002%	$\widehat{W_3}$ (rad)	1.3 (rad)	0.002%	$\widehat{w_4}$ (rad)	2.1 (rad)	-0.001%
\widehat{V}_1 (kN)	36.7	0.000%						
$\widehat{V}_{4}\left(\mathrm{kN} ight)$	18.3	0.000%						