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Estimation of local failure in tensegrity using Interacting Particle-Ensemble Kalman Filter

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6 Abstract

3

Tensegrities form a special case of truss, wherein compression members (struts/bars) float within a network of tension members (cables). Tensegrities are characterized by the presence of at least one infinitesimal mechanism stabilized with member pre-stress to ensure equilibrium. Over prolonged usage, the cables may lose their pre-stress while the bars may buckle, get damaged, or corrode, affecting the structural stiffness leading to change in the measured dynamic properties. Upon loading, a tensegrity structure may change its form through altering its member pre-stress affecting its global stiffness, even in the absence of damage. This can potentially mask the effect of damage leading to a false impression of tensegrity health. This poses the major challenge in tensegrity health monitoring especially when the load is stochastic and unknown.

Present study proposes an output-only time-domain method that makes use of tensegrity vibrational 15 responses within a Bayesian filtering-based approach to monitor the tensegrity health in the presence of 16 uncertainties due to ambient force, model inaccuracy, and measurement noise. For this, an interacting 17 strategy combining Particle Filter (PF) and Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) has been adopted (Interacting 18 particle-Ensemble Kalman Filter, IP-EnKF) in which the EnKF estimates the response states as ensembles 19 while running within a PF envelop that estimates a set of location-based health parameters as particles. 20 Furthermore, for a cheaper damage detection procedure, strain responses are used as measurements. The 21 efficiency of the proposed methodology in terms of accuracy, computational cost, and robustness against noise 22 contamination has been demonstrated using numerical experiments performed on two tensegrity modules: 23 a simplex tensegrity and an extended-octahedron tensegrity. 24

25 1. Introduction

Tensegrities form a special class of truss with dedicated tension and compression members, known as cables and struts, respectively, and/or bars which can take both tension and compression forces. Tensegrity structures derive their integrity from the pre-stress present in their members. Mention of this structure type

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finds its origin in the works of Ioganson (1920) and Snelson (1948) [54], where Ioganson's structure lacks 29 one of the essential criteria for tensegrity, i.e., equilibrium without any external force [57]. While tensegrity 30 was later formally introduced by Snelson as an architectural piece, its potential as a structure was promoted 31 by Buckminster Fuller. Ever since its introduction, tensegrities have found applications in various fields: 32 aerospace [68], bio-mechanics [34], robotics [44], etc. Although tensegrities demonstrate excellent utility for 33 being deployable as well as aesthetically appealing [53, 64], the typical perspective of being considered as a 34 light-weight structure has been debated in [26]. Nevertheless, the unique deployable attribute of tensegrities 35 has found much acceptance in the field of controllable structures [62, 63, 65], aerospace application [21, 41, 61] 36 and especially in robotics [6, 20, 35] wherein tension in the strings/cables are actively controlled by actuators 37 control the movement of the tensegrity robots. Accordingly, various methodologies have been developed to design [5, 67] and construct statically stable complex tensegrity structures [60, 72] that are easy to erect or 39 deploy. The success with non-load bearing structures has quickly been adapted by the structural engineers 40 as well and the tensegrity concept has been implemented for civil infrastructures in the form of roofs and 41 bridges. The motivation comes from the fact that tensegrities can provide large column-free spaces allowing 42 sufficient overhead clearance (advantageous for bridges to allow water vessels underneath) and unobstructed 43 view (beneficial for the stadium roofs) [2, 23, 25]: Olympic Gymnastics Arena roof (Seoul, South Korea), 44 Kurilpa bridge (Brisbane, Australia), etc. are some of the examples among many others. 45

Tensegrities are characterized by the presence of at least one infinitesimal mechanism [39] stiffened by the pre-stress present in the members due to their configuration. Of course, in the absence of these member 47 pre-stresses, there would be no structure, thereby delineating tensegrities from other pre-stressed structures. The stability of tensegrity is therefore pre-stress dependant and conditioned on a particular configuration, 49 known as self-stress configuration [69]. To accommodate a certain external load, tensegrity incur changes in 50 its initial stable configuration. Tensegrities can thus have multiple self-stressed stable configurations under 51 different external loading conditions [49, 69]. Modification in the shape, due to pre-stress levels as well 52 as external forces, eventually, changes the stiffness properties, thereby altering the frequencies even in its 53 undamaged condition. Moreover, tensegrities can have same shape with different stiffness and frequencies, 54 because of different pre-stress levels [3, 4]. Tensegrities thus may exhibit different stiffness, dynamical 55 properties, and spatial configurations even in its healthy state, which otherwise is anticipated only under 56 damaged conditions for traditional structures. It should therefore be noted that stiffness alteration due to 57 modification in member stress induced by force variability does not imply damage in a tensegrity. 58

As tensegrity does not belong to the category of traditional structures that are typically constructed with high levels of redundancy [25], the approach for monitoring its health is also not typical. Since tensegrities are substantially optimized [19, 56] from a design and construction point of view, a catastrophic failure may therefore occur if its health is not monitored rigorously. Moreover, their shape morphing attribute may lead to a false impression of damage when being dealt with traditional health monitoring techniques. Vibrational properties of tensegrities are contrastingly less explored [21, 38, 41, 42] than their static performance. Accordingly, studies related to vibration-based structural health monitoring (SHM) for tensegrities are also insufficient [4, 66]. Assessment of health from global parameters like modal information is not an option for tensegrity health monitoring since modal information keeps on changing even in its normal operational condition, discussed later in this article. Hence, to identify/monitor possible damages in tensegrity, it is important to have an SHM approach specific for tensegrity that takes into account its nature [49]. Yet literature available in this field is of an insignificant volume.

Three methods for tensegrity damage detection have been compared in [66], namely, frequency analysis, 71 error-domain model falsification (EDMF) using node position measurement, and moving-window principal 72 component analysis (MWPCA) using strain measurements. It has been observed that, for tensegrities, 73 natural frequencies and mode shapes can not be considered as features sensitive only to damage (further 74 demonstrated later in this article). The slacking scenario in the cables substantially impacts the first natural 75 frequency, which however differs from one scenario to another. Hence to detect this reduction in tension, 76 individual monitoring of damage induced frequency alterations has been suggested in [4]. Although it 77 has been perceived that for tensegrities with forces unknown, modal domain SHM is no longer an option. 78 Results obtained from EDMF [66] were observed to be sensitive to ambient uncertainty. Also, EDMF tends 79 to become costly when tracking positions at sub-millimeter resolution. MWPCA [66] has an advantage over 80 the other mentioned methods since it uses inexpensive strain gauges. It has been observed to be efficient with 81 low to moderate noise levels but has been reported to perform poorly for high levels of noise contamination. 82 Satisfactory performance for damage assessment using dynamic strain measurements has also been observed 83 by [11]. Electro-mechanical impedance (EMI) measures are also considered as measurements for this study, 84 which has been analysed for high frequency signatures (in kHz) as damage sensitive feature. The study 85 further compares the performances of EMI and dynamic strain as measurements and concludes that the 86 dynamic strain measurement-based approach is more cost-effective than the former. 87

Evidently, most of the works on tensegrity SHM have been cast in the deterministic domain. Nevertheless, 88 any typical model-based SHM approach for a real tensegrity needs to deal with uncertainties due to modeling 89 error, ambient forcing, and measurement noise. Yet these sources of uncertainties are mostly left unaccounted 90 for with deterministic SHM approaches. Force is an important aspect of tensegrity stiffness and should thus 91 be known for the deterministic tensegrity SHM approach to alienate a force-induced change in structural 92 response from a damaged induced anomaly. For tensegrities, subjected to ambient force, the problem gets 93 aggravated since an explicit knowledge of ambient forces is rarely available. Real-life tensegrities, therefore, 94 need a special SHM approach capable of dealing with the forcing uncertainties efficiently. 95

In this context, Bayesian filters have proved their merit in SHM research dealing with the mentioned uncertainties. With Bayesian filter-based SHM approaches, the uncertainties due to force and modeling inaccuracies are dealt with a probabilistic process model while a measurement model deals with the sensor ⁹⁹ noise uncertainties separately. Within the process model, the dynamics of the structure is defined in state¹⁰⁰ space with a set of internal unobserved variables, called states. The dynamics of the system are then
¹⁰¹ defined in terms of system state propagation in time following a Chapman-Kolmogorov formulation. These
¹⁰² unobserved variables are further observed through the measured responses (e.g. acceleration, strain, etc.)
¹⁰³ employing a measurement model/equation involving uncertainties due to sensor noise. Although, the system
¹⁰⁴ dynamics can be better defined in the continuous time domain, to facilitate estimation using discretely
¹⁰⁵ sampled sensor measurements, both physical models are transformed into discrete time domain.

Depending on the nature of the formulated process and/or measurement model, several filter types have 106 been proposed in the literature. For linear time invariant (LTI) systems (linear process and measurement 107 model), Kalman filter (KF) can be identified as the most employed approach. On the introduction of 108 non-linearity in either of the models (process and/or measurement) or time variability in the system, the 109 inability of KF redirects to the usage of non-linear filter variants like Extended (EKF) [28], Unscented 110 (UKF) [31, 37], Ensemble (EnKF) [22] KFs or Particle filter (PF) [24]. Non-linearity in the process model 111 may also be caused due to non-linearity in the system itself; tensegrities being one such example manifesting 112 geometric non-linearity. For linear/non-linear time variant (LTV/NLTV) systems, the system estimation is 113 proceeded with first parameterizing the system and subsequently estimating them alongside as additional 114 parameter states, θ_k . This, however, renders the assessed system to be non-linear due to the non-linear 115 mapping of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ to the corresponding measurements. 116

In the context of SHM, a set of location-based health indices (**HI**s) is employed for parameterizing the system health which are then estimated/monitored as the additional parameter states, θ_k . Estimation of the **HI**s can further be approached either jointly [36] or conditionally [17, 51] with respect to the real system states. The relative efficiency of the conditional over joint estimation approach has already been corroborated in several articles [13] and upon further introduction of interacting strategies by [32], the focus has strongly shifted to the use of individual filters for states or parameter estimation, like in Interacting Particle-Kalman filter (IPKF) [52, 71], Dual KF [9], Dual EKF (DEKF) [51], etc.

Within the context of tensegrity SHM, the self-stiffening property [49] can be accounted for by considering 124 geometric non-linearity in the tensegrity dynamics [33]. Eventually, with the non-linear tensegrity dynamics 125 defined through this process model, the model is axiomatically non-linear. With θ_k as additional states to 126 be observed through measurements, the measurement model is also non-linear. Hence a major challenge 127 in tensegrity SHM is to handle these non-linearities simultaneously and efficiently. PF has been successful 128 in dealing with highly non-linear systems [8, 12, 14], although at the expense of high computational cost. 129 To overcome the cost issue, IPKF was introduced [71] in which KF deals with the linear state estimation, 130 while PF is employed for non-linear parameter estimation. Nevertheless, the dynamic model pertaining to 131 tensegrity SHM is non-linear, invalidating the KF. The replacement can be chosen from the available filter 132 variants. Of them, EnKF has been proved to be efficient in the propagation of non-linear system states [27] 133

while allowing the entire health monitoring approach to be parallelized together with the PF. An Interacting
Particle Ensemble Kalman Filter (IP-EnKF) has therefore been employed to estimate tensegrity health.

The algorithm has been formulated to make use of only strain gauge response as the measured data to the proposed IP-EnKF, since strain gauges are cheaper than accelerometers while being reported as more sensitive towards the presence of damage [50]. Detailed discussion on the tensegrity modeling and simulating dynamic responses have been demonstrated in Section 2, with details of the state-space definition of the tensegrity dynamics (Section 2.2). The proposed IP-EnKF algorithm is further explained in Section 3 followed by a numerical validation study detailed in Section 4 that demonstrates the application of the proposed approach on a simplex tensegrity (ST) and an expanded-octahedron tensegrity (EOT) modules.

¹⁴³ 2. Tensegrity model and dynamic response

While modeling a tensegrity, suitable internal force inequalities should be added to the model to account 144 for the nature of the dedicated tension cables or compression struts or bars that can take up both tension and 145 compression forces, if present in the structure. This makes modeling of the tensegrities different from that 146 of the typical truss structures. The design and identification of self-stressed configuration for tensegrities is 147 a separate and much-explored field of research, not in the scope of this article. Yet for the sake of clarity, 148 this article details the form-finding algorithm (Algorithm 2) employed in this study to identify the initial 149 stable form of the tensegrity. Special measures are further taken to ensure that no local failure conditions 150 (bar buckling and/or cable slacking) occur while finding the initial stable configuration of the tensegrities 151 through constraining the member pre-stress levels. 152

To account for the large deformations of tensegrity members under external loading, geometric non-153 linearity is introduced in the model. It has been observed that tensegrity with low pre-stress levels, mani-154 fests stronger non-linearity compared to tensegrities with higher pre-stress levels [40]. Consequent to load 155 application and related changes in the configuration, the current strain-displacement relationship becomes 156 an implicit problem involving the ever-evolving tensegrity configuration. With the finite element modeling 157 (FEM) approach to discretize the spatial domain, the aspect of geometric non-linearity can be invoked 158 without much complexity. Nevertheless, the implicit nature of the problem needs substantial computation 159 within a recursive estimation approach which might render the involved SHM, although accurate, slow. 160 Since with the Bayesian approach, the model inaccuracy can be complemented with recursive inferencing 161 from the data, in this article an explicit representation of the strain-displacement relationship is adopted 162 powered by explicit Newmark-beta method [15, 43]. The modeling is detailed in the following. 163

¹⁶⁴ 2.1. Geometric non-linear finite element model

Modeling of tensegrity with a geometric non-linear FEM approach exists in literature [33]. Except for geometric non-linearity, this article does not consider any other source of non-linearity, like material or ¹⁶⁷ boundary non-linearity. The initial form (involving coordinate position and member pre-stress levels) of the ¹⁶⁸ tensegrity is required to be identified through the form-finding approach following Algorithm 2. Algorithm ¹⁶⁹ 2 presents a force-density based optimization approach for tensegrity form-finding that has been adopted ¹⁷⁰ to identify the initial coordinates and related pre-stress levels with constraints on the member pre-stress ¹⁷¹ ensuring no tension/compression member is slacking/buckling, respectively. The resulting stable form and ¹⁷² related data are presented in Figures 2 and 4 and Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

¹⁷³ Next, at any arbitrary time instant t, for each of the m^{th} member/element of the self-stressed tensegrity, ¹⁷⁴ the associated global coordinates (defined in the global coordinate system (GCS), xyz), $\mathbf{q}^m(t)_{6\times 1} \subset \mathbf{q}(t)$, ¹⁷⁵ are transformed to their counterparts, $\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)_{2\times 1}$, in the local coordinate system (LCS), $\bar{x}\bar{y}\bar{z}$ (cf. Figure ¹⁷⁶ (1)), with the help of member-specific transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}^m(t)$. Here $\mathbf{q}(t)$ denotes the entire global ¹⁷⁷ coordinate set of all the tensegrity nodes.

$$\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t) = \mathbf{T}^m(t)\mathbf{q}^m(t) \tag{1}$$

where, $\mathbf{T}^{m}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta_{x}^{m}(t) & \cos\theta_{y}^{m}(t) & \cos\theta_{z}^{m}(t) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos\theta_{x}^{m}(t) & \cos\theta_{y}^{m}(t) & \cos\theta_{z}^{m}(t) \end{bmatrix},$ $\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t) = \{q_{1}^{l}(t) \quad q_{2}^{l}(t)\}^{m^{T}} \text{ and } \mathbf{q}^{m}(t) = \{q_{1x}(t) \quad q_{1y}(t) \quad q_{1z}(t) \quad q_{2x}(t) \quad q_{2y}(t) \quad q_{2z}(t)\}^{m^{T}}.$ $\cos\theta_{x}^{m}(t), \cos\theta_{y}^{m}(t) \text{ and } \cos\theta_{z}^{m}(t) \text{ are time varying angular positions of the member } m \text{ with respect to GCS.}$ $\mathbf{A} \text{ schematic for the assumed element is demonstrated in Figure 1.}$

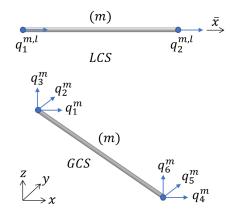


Figure 1: LCS and GCS for bar element type

The deformation, $\mathbf{u}^m(r,t)$, at any point within the element m can further be described using shape functions $(N_1(r) \text{ and } N_2(\mathbf{r}))$ and local nodal displacements $(\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t))$.

$$\mathbf{u}^{m}(r,t) = \begin{bmatrix} N_{1}(r) & N_{2}(r) \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)$$
(2)

where the shape functions are described in natural coordinate system, $N_1(r) = (1-r)/2$ and $N_2(r) = (1-r)/2$

(1 + r)/2, for the ease of integration. r being the natural variable defined within the range $-1 \le r \le 1$. To incorporate geometric non-linearity in strain, a second order relationship between Green's strain and displacement fields has been considered in this study (as per [33]),

$$\varepsilon^{m}(r,t) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}^{m}(r,t)}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}^{m}(r,t)}{\partial x}\right)^{2}$$
(3)

with $\mathbf{u}^{m}(r,t)$, as defined in Equation (2), the member strain field $\varepsilon^{m}(r,t)$ can further be expressed introducing linear (\mathbf{B}_{L}^{m}) and non-linear (\mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}) strain-displacement matrices with $\mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}(\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t))$ being a non-linear function of $\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)$. The functional representation of \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m} to demonstrate its dependence on the $\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)$ is although dropped from here on for the sake of compactness.

$$\varepsilon^{m}(r,t) = \mathbf{B}_{L}^{m}\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t) + \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)$$
(4)
where $\mathbf{B}_{L}^{m} = \left[\frac{\partial N_{1}(r)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial N_{2}(r)}{\partial x}\right]$ and $\mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)^{T} \begin{bmatrix} \partial N_{1}(r)/\partial x \\ \partial N_{2}(r)/\partial x \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial N_{1}(r)}{\partial x} \frac{\partial N_{2}(r)}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}.$

¹⁹³ The element tangent stiffness matrix can further be obtained by applying the principle of virtual work, i.e., ¹⁹⁴ minimizing the difference (i.e. virtual work, δW) between the work done by the internal forces (second ¹⁹⁵ Piola-Kirchhoff stress, $\sigma^m(r,t)$) undergoing incremental Green's strain $\delta \varepsilon^m(r,t)$ and the work done by the ¹⁹⁶ external forces undergoing virtual displacement $\delta \mathbf{q}^m(t)$ integrated over the entire volume, V^m [29]. The ¹⁹⁷ virtual work can therefore be defined as,

192

$$\delta W = \int_{V^m} \delta \varepsilon^m(r,t)^T \sigma^m(r,t) dV - \delta \mathbf{q}^m(t)^T \mathbf{F}(t)$$
(5)

where, $\sigma^m(r,t)$ is obtained from the constitutive relation, $\sigma^m(r,t) = \mathbf{E}^m \varepsilon^m(r,t)$ with \mathbf{E}^m being the constitutive matrix. The above equation is further expanded as follows,

$$\delta W = \int_{V^m} \delta \mathbf{q}^m(t)^T \mathbf{T}^{mT} \mathbf{B}^{mT} \mathbf{E}^m \mathbf{B}^m \mathbf{T}^m \mathbf{q}^m(t) dV - \delta \mathbf{q}^m(t)^T \mathbf{F}(t)$$
(6)

where, $\mathbf{B}^{m} = \mathbf{B}_{L}^{m} + \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}$, making \mathbf{B}^{m} a function of $\mathbf{q}^{m,l}(t)$ as well. Further, ignoring the trivial part of the solution (i,e, $\delta \mathbf{q}^{m}(t) \neq 0$), and taking derivative of the internal force with respect to $\mathbf{q}^{m}(t)$, element tangential stiffness matrix $\mathbf{K}^{m}(t)$ can be defined in compact form as,

$$\mathbf{K}^{m}(t) = \frac{A^{m}l^{m}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{\partial (\mathbf{B}^{mT} \sigma^{m}(r, t))}{\partial \mathbf{q}^{m}(t)} dr$$
(7)

assuming a uniform cross section A^m over the entire length l^m of element m. Numerical integration of the above integral can be obtained through Gauss-Quadrature method with one Gauss-point. The tangential stiffness matrix ($\mathbf{K}^m(t)$) can further be splitted into material ($\mathbf{K}^m_M(t)$), geometric ($\mathbf{K}^m_G(t)$) and initial displacement ($\mathbf{K}^m_U(t)$) stiffness matrices [29, 60]:

$$\mathbf{K}^{m}(t) = \mathbf{K}^{m}_{M}(t) + \mathbf{K}^{m}_{G}(t) + \mathbf{K}^{m}_{U}(t)$$
(8)

where, $\mathbf{K}_{M}^{m}(t)$, $\mathbf{K}_{G}^{m}(t)$ and $\mathbf{K}_{U}^{m}(t)$ are given by Equations (9), (10) and (11), respectively

$$\mathbf{K}_{M}^{m}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{E}^{m} A^{m} l^{m}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \mathbf{T}^{m^{T}} \mathbf{B}_{L}^{m^{T}} \mathbf{B}_{L}^{m} \mathbf{T}^{m} dr$$
(9)

$$\mathbf{K}_{G}^{m}(t) = \frac{A^{m}l^{m}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}}{\partial \mathbf{q}^{m}(t)} \sigma^{m}(r,t) dr$$
(10)

$$\mathbf{K}_{U}^{m}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{E}^{m}A^{m}l^{m}}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} \mathbf{T}^{mT} (\mathbf{B}_{L}^{mT}\mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m} + \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{mT}\mathbf{B}_{L}^{m} + \mathbf{B}_{NL}^{mT}\mathbf{B}_{NL}^{m}) \mathbf{T}^{m}dr$$
(11)

Further, global tangential stiffness matrix $\mathbf{K}(t)$ can be obtained by assembling the elemental stiffness matrices and applying natural boundary conditions. Similarly, the mass matrix \mathbf{M} can be obtained by following the consistent mass matrix assumption. The global tangent stiffness matrix $\mathbf{K}(t)$ is determined taking basis on updated Lagrange formulation that defines the stiffness at current time. For that, the initial displacement matrix has been recursively re-calibrated taking displacements from the last step.

209 2.2. State space formulation of tensegrity dynamics

Dynamics of typical truss structures can be defined with a linear second-order governing differential equation (gde). However, the embedded geometric non-linearity in the tensegrity model requires the dynamics to be defined using non-linear gde as,

$$\mathbf{M}\ddot{\mathbf{q}}(t) + \mathbf{C}(t)\dot{\mathbf{q}}(t) + \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{q}(t)) = \mathbf{F}(t)$$
(12)

Clearly, the inelastic resisting force, $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{q}(t))$, is non-linear and time-dependent due to the consideration of 213 non-linear geometry. Specific to the tensegrity SHM problems under consideration, time dependency in 214 $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{q}(t))$ is also due to the varying health condition of the tensegrity. Suitable damping model for tensegrity 215 is a well researched topic [58, 59] weighing the proportional and non-proportional damping models as op-216 tions. It has been perceived in general, that compared to non-proportional damping models, proportional 217 damping models are computationally inexpensive [1], although may lack accuracy sometimes [58]. The rel-218 ative modeling inaccuracies can however be complemented with recursive Bayesian estimation approach in 219 which the additional process noise can take care of this modeling uncertainty while benefiting the algorithm 220 with promptness. Rayleigh damping has therefore been assumed for this tensegrity simulation. This is a 221 classical viscous damping model assuming damping to be linearly proportional to mass and stiffness, as 222 $\mathbf{C}(t) = a_0(t)\mathbf{M} + a_1(t)\mathbf{K}(t)$ where $\mathbf{K}(t)$ is the locally linearized tangent stiffness matrix. Although classical 223 approach assumes the damping to be constant all through out, for non-linear systems with varying tangent 224 stiffness matrix, updated stiffness is suggested to be employed along with varying proportionality coefficients 225 (i.e. $a_0(t)$ and $a_1(t)$) instead of initial stiffness matrix [16, 30, 45]. Further assumptions are imposed on first 226 two modes being equally damped in order to estimate time varying coefficients $a_0(t)$ and $a_1(t)$. The details 227

of Rayleigh damping model can be found in [15]. Eventually, damping force being defined using Rayleigh's
damping model, is also time dependent. Nevertheless, any other damping model can also be used instead
[46].

The mass matrix is, however, considered to be time invariant. The structure is subjected to externally applied ambient forcing $\mathbf{F}(t)$ which is assumed to be not known explicitly, yet can be modeled as zero mean white Gaussian noise (WGN) of known stationary statistics \mathbf{Q} , as $\mathbf{v}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q})$.

The system dynamics can further be defined with displacement $(\mathbf{q}(t))$, velocity $(\dot{\mathbf{q}}(t))$ and acceleration $(\ddot{\mathbf{q}}(t))$ as system states observed through a set of strain measurements, $\{\varepsilon_k^m\}$, sampled in discrete time from the strain gauges patched on to the surface of the bars at their midpoints (r = 0.5). ε_k^m is the discrete counterpart corresponding to its continuous time entity, $\varepsilon^m(r, t)$, with k being the time instant at which the strain is sampled. To accommodate such discrete measurement, the non-linear state transition function has to be defined in discrete time state space formulation as,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k} = f(\mathbf{x}_{k-1}, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{K}_{k}, \mathbf{C}_{k}, dt, \mathbf{v}_{k}) , \text{ where } \mathbf{v}_{k} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q})$$
(13)

Here, $\mathbf{x}_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_{k} & \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k} \end{bmatrix}^{T}$, i.e. the discrete definition of the system states evolving over the non-linear state propagation function $f(\bullet)$. $\mathbf{q}_{k}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k}, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{K}_{k}, \mathbf{C}_{k}$ are the respective discrete quantities corresponding to their continuous definitions. dt is the time step for discretization. \mathbf{v}_{k} has additionally been incorporated to collectively account for the uncertainties originating from the unavoidable model inaccuracies and ambient WGN force, \mathbf{P}_{k} . This WGN model is assumed with constant covariance \mathbf{Q} , same as the variance of the ambient force. Subsequently, the measurement equation can be defined as,

$$\varepsilon_k = \mathbf{HB}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{w}_k$$
, where $\mathbf{w}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{R})$ (14)

where, $\mathbf{B}(\bullet)$ denotes the global non-linear strain-displacement relationship for all members with \mathbf{x}_k being its argument. $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}_k)$ is acting here as a non-linear measurement function to map the unobserved states \mathbf{x}_k to the measurement space. ε_k consists of all the recorded member strains i.e., $\varepsilon_k = \{\varepsilon_k^m, m \in m^o\}$, where m^o is the measured subset of \mathbf{m} , ($\mathbf{m} = \bigcup \{m^o; m^u\}$) that are instrumented with strain gauges at their midpoints. Naturally, m^u denotes the unobserved subset of \mathbf{m} . Accordingly, \mathbf{H} stands for the selection matrix that isolates the measured member strains from all of the predicted set. $\mathbf{w}_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{R})$ accounts for the sensor noise modeled as WGN process of constant covariance \mathbf{R} .

For system simulation, Newmark-beta method has been employed in its explicit formulation. The method is proven to have acceptable accuracy with non-linear dynamic simulations [10, 15, 43]. This approach takes its basis on an incremental equilibrium equation corresponding to the original dynamic equation (cf. Equation (12)) to solve for the discrete non-linear structural response variables, i.e., $\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_k$, $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_k$ and \mathbf{q}_k ,

$$\mathbf{M}\Delta\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_k + \mathbf{C}_k\Delta\dot{\mathbf{q}}_k + \mathbf{K}_k\Delta\mathbf{q}_k = \Delta\mathbf{F}_k \tag{15}$$

²⁵⁷ Operator Δ denotes the corresponding increment over each time step. Due to the non-linear geometry, ²⁵⁸ the incremental equation is by nature implicit, for which iterative approach has to be adopted for accurate ²⁵⁹ solution. Although, without compromising the accuracy by a substantial extent, Equation (15) can be solved ²⁶⁰ using explicit formulation of Newmark-beta algorithm, detailed in Appendix B. This in turn facilitates with ²⁶¹ improved promptness of the damage detection by reducing computation in state propagation. Further, the ²⁶² method shows an unconditional stability for average constant acceleration assumption with $\gamma = 0.5$ and ²⁶³ $\beta = 0.25$, as adopted in this article.

264 2.3. Non-linearity in tensegrity dynamics

In the following, the non-linearity of a tensegrity is investigated. For this, an EOT type tensegrity module has been selected (cf. Figure 2). The nodal positions, elemental connectivity and initial tension coefficients are presented in Table 1. For the simulation, the bars are assumed to act as compression as well as tension members, while cables take up only tension. The member connections are idealized as friction-less pin-joints. The assumptions made for the simulations are further presented here for lucid comprehension.

- 1. Members are connected by friction-less pin-joints.
- 271 2. Bars act as compression as well as tension members, while cables take up only tension.
- 3. Only geometric non-linearity is considered for the modeling.
- 4. In line with [70] the considered tensegrities are assumed to be constrained at certain nodes to a fixed
 base which minimizes the flexibility of bars due to Coriolis effect hence the Coriolis terms can be
 neglected in Equation (12).
- 5. Newmark-beta algorithm assumes average acceleration method which is known to be unconditionally stable.
- 6. Rayleigh's proportional damping model is used to model damping in tensegrity.

The tensegrity is excited with a sinusoidal force (= 750 sin(4t)N) at its 3^{rd} node in x-direction. The related hysteresis and phase plane diagram curves are plotted in Figure 3. The hysteresis plot proves the existence of the non-linear relationship between displacement (as output) and forces (as input). For the phase plane diagram, displacement and velocity response of third node at its x *dof* is plotted. It is evident from the figures 3a and 3b that the simulated tensegrity dynamics is demonstrating a non-linear behaviour. The phase plane diagram also establishes the dynamic stability of the assumed tensegrity under all assumed

²⁸⁵ specifications of the tensegrity simulation.

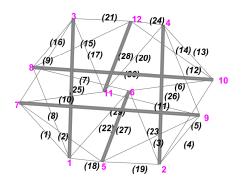


Figure 2: Expanded-octahedron tensegrity (EOT) configuration

Table 1: Nodal coordinates, elemental connectivity and initial tension coefficients of expanded-octahedron tensegrity (EOT) (with c:cable and b:bar)

	Node	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	X	0	0	0.548	0.548	-1.726	2	-0.658	1.205	-0.657	1.205	-1.452	2.274
EOT	Y	1	-1	0.999	-0.999	0	0	1.999	1.999	-1.999	-1.999	0	0
	Z	-2	-2	0.904	0.904	-1.548	-1	-0.685	-0.411	-0.685	-0.411	-0.096	0.45

	Element	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Node 1		5	5	2	2	6	6	1	3	7	9	4	4	10	8
	Node 2		7	9	9	10	10	8	8	7	11	11	9	10	12	12
	Type	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С
	Initial tension coeff. (N/m)	0.8782														
EOT		10														
		16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
	Node 1	3	$\frac{17}{3}$	18 1	19 2	20 4	21 3	22 1	23 2	24 4	25 1	26 2	27 5	28 11	29 7	30 8
	Node 1 Node 2	2	2	18 1 5	19 2 5		2	22 1 6	23 2 6	4	25 1 3	26 2 4		28 11 12	29 7 9	
		3	2	1	2		3	1	23 2 6 c	4	1	26 2 4 b	5	11	29 7 9 b	8

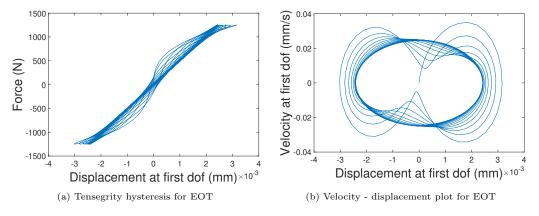


Figure 3: Non-linear behaviour of tensegrity system - EOT

286 3. Proposed approach

The system equation and simulation approaches for tensegrity structures have been demonstrated in Section 2. The approach for tensegrity SHM will further be detailed in this section. An IP-EnKF approach has been adopted for this in which the PF approaches the non-linear health parameter estimation while the EnKF estimates the non-linearly evolving system states \mathbf{x}_k (as per Equation (13)). IP-EnKF can therefore be considered as an improvisation of IPKF [52] wherein EnKF replaces KF to extend the reach of the ²⁹² algorithm to non-linear systems. It further facilitates with the option to parallelize the entire computation.
²⁹³ The major aspect of this approach is that with IP-EnKF, compute-intensive PF handles only the severely
²⁹⁴ non-linear parameter estimation problem while for the rest of the non-linear estimation, EnKF is employed.
²⁹⁵ The pertinent interacting strategy between these two filter types is demonstrated later in this section.

For quantifying the health of the tensegrity, a set of location-based health indices (**HI**s) are devised. These **HI**s track the health of each individual members by a value within the range of 1 and 0 with 1 denoting healthy and 0 signifying completely damaged conditions. These time varying **HI**s are estimated with a vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ parameterizing the process model.

Provided that the process model of the system is known (at least as a sufficiently accurate model), 300 error in the predicted output can be attributed to incorrect estimate of the model parameters θ_k . In the 301 context of system health estimation, reduction in model parameter estimates can in turn signify a change 302 in structural stiffness. Typically, structural stiffness is defined by its material (elasticity, cross-section, etc.) 303 and geometric (configuration, pre-stress, etc.) stiffnesses. With the proposed algorithm, geometric stiffness 304 of tensegrity is taken care of by introducing geometric non-linearity in the finite element model. Eventually, 305 the prediction error can be attributed to a possible change in the material stiffness. Hence, for modeling 306 purpose, damage in the members can be replicated through reduction in their initial elasticity, \mathbb{E}_0 , using 307 health indices, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ as: 308

$$\mathbb{S}_k(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) = <\mathbb{S}_0 \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta}_k > \tag{16}$$

where, $\mathbb{S}_0 = [(\mathbf{E}_0^1 A_0^1), \dots, (\mathbf{E}_0^m A_0^m)]$ is the vector encompassing the initial axial stiffness of all the tensegrity members, $[S_0^1, S_0^2, \dots, S_0^m]$. The reduced axial stiffness \mathbb{S}_k of all the members at time step k, is thus a function of the health parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$. $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$, therefore, traces the alteration in the material stiffness of all the members of tensegrity, thereby detecting damage.

At any arbitrary time step k, PF propagates a set of N_p parameter particles, $\Xi_k = [\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^1, \boldsymbol{\xi}_k^2, \cdots, \boldsymbol{\xi}_k^{N_p}]_{m_s \times N_p}$, in time as realizations of the random variable $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$. Each j^{th} particle, $\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j$, lists $m_s \times 1$ individual parameter realizations for **HI**s corresponding to m_s members being monitored. This numerical approximation helps avoiding an explicit analytical integration over the entire parameter space, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$. The adopted particle evolution in time is basically a Gaussian perturbation around the current estimate of the particle $\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^j$,

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{j} = \alpha \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^{j} + \mathcal{N}(\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}; \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{k}^{\boldsymbol{\xi}}) \tag{17}$$

where a Gaussian blurring is performed on $\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^{j}$ with a shift $\delta \boldsymbol{\xi}_{k} = (1-\alpha)\bar{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_{k-1}$ and a spread of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{k}^{\boldsymbol{\xi}}$. α is a hyper-parameter that controls the turbulence in the estimation. Upon prediction for the particle estimate in current time, the correction is performed according to the likelihood of the particle estimates against the measured data, detailed next.

Eventually, the evolution of the parameter particles is automated and conditioned on their likelihood 322 against measurement only, avoiding the requirement of any specific initial distribution for the particle space. 323 To estimate the likelihood, the propagated particles are further put through the nested EnKF for state 324 estimation. Within EnKF, N_e state ensembles are propagated through the system (cf. Equation (13)). For 325 this, current estimate for the stiffness matrix \mathbf{K}_k is required. As per the current tensegrity configuration, 326 extracted from the current estimates for the state ensembles, $\mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}$, the member lengths, l^m , and trans-327 formation matrices, \mathbf{T}^m , are updated. Next, with current parameter particles, $\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j$, and state ensembles, 328 $\mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}$, the current estimate for stiffness matrix, $\mathbf{K}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$, is calculated. $\mathbf{K}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$ is associated to i^{th} ensem-329 ble, $\mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}$, and j^{th} particle, $\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j$. Thus combining Equations (7) and (16), the current estimate for $\mathbf{K}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$ 330 331 can be obtained as,

$$\mathbf{K}_{k|k-1}^{i,j} = \mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j, \mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}) \tag{18}$$

where, $\mathcal{M}(\bullet)$ is the stiffness calibration function that takes basis on the current tensegrity configuration. The prior state ensembles $\mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}$ are further propagated to the next time step as propagated ensembles, $\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$, as per Equation (13). Subsequently, these propagated ensembles are observed as measurement predictions, $\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$, following Equation (14). The process and measurement equation for the system is presented in the following.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j} = f(\mathbf{x}_{k-1|k-1}^{i,j}, \mathbf{K}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}, \mathbf{M}, dt, \mathbf{v}_{k}^{i,j}) , \text{ where } \mathbf{v}_{k}^{i,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q})$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j} = \mathbf{HB}(\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}) + \mathbf{w}_{k}^{i,j}, \text{ where } \mathbf{w}_{k}^{i,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{R}) .$$
(19)

Next, the predicted measurement, $\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$, is compared with the actual measurement obtained from the sensors. Innovation $\epsilon_k^{i,j}$ can be obtained as the deviation of $\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$ from the corresponding actual measurements \mathbf{y}_k . The innovation statistics is further quantified with an ensemble innovation mean $\epsilon_k^j = \frac{1}{N_e} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e} \epsilon_k^{i,j}$. Next, the ensemble mean of propagated state estimates, $\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^j$, and predicted measurements, $\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^j$, are obtained as $\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^j = \frac{1}{N_e} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e} \mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$ and $\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^j = \frac{1}{N_e} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e} \mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}$, respectively. Crosscovariance between state and measurement prediction, $C_k^{j,xy}$, and the measurement prediction covariance, $C_k^{j,yy}$, can further be computed as per [18].

$$C_{k}^{j,\mathbf{xy}} = \frac{1}{N_{e}-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} (\mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{j} - \mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}) (\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{j} - \mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j})^{T}$$

$$C_{k}^{j,\mathbf{yy}} = \frac{1}{N_{e}-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} (\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{j} - \mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j}) (\mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{j} - \mathbf{y}_{k|k-1}^{i,j})^{T}$$
(20)

The innovation error covariance, \mathbf{S}_k^j , and EnKF gain, \mathbf{G}_k^j , are then obtained as $\mathbf{S}_k^j = C_k^{j,\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{R}$ and

 $_{345}$ $\mathbf{G}_k^j = C_k^{j,\mathbf{xy}} (\mathbf{S}_k^j)^{-1}$. With this gain, the state ensembles are updated as,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k|k}^{i,j} = \mathbf{x}_{k|k-1}^{i,j} + \mathbf{G}_k^j \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k^{i,j} \tag{21}$$

Finally, likelihood of each particle, i.e. $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j)$, is calculated based on the innovation mean, ϵ_k^j , and or co-variance, \mathbf{S}_k^j as,

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{j}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n} \sqrt{|\mathbf{S}_{k}^{j}|}} e^{-0.5\epsilon_{k}^{j^{T}} \mathbf{S}_{k}^{j^{-1}} \epsilon_{k}^{j}}$$
(22)

The normalized weight for each j^{th} particle is further obtained using corresponding likelihood,

$$w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{j}) = \frac{w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^{j})\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{j})}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^{j})\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k}^{j})}$$
(23)

349 The particle approximations for the states and parameters are then estimated as,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k|k} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_p} w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j) \mathbf{x}_{k|k}^j \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_{k|k} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_p} w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j) \boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j$$
(24)

For better understanding of the IP-EnKF algorithm used for tensegrity SHM, a pseudo code has been provided in Algorithm 1.

Algo	orithm 1 IP-EnKF algorithm for tensegrity SHM	
1: p	rocedure IP-ENKF $(\mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R})$	▷ Process and measurement noise covariances
2:	Initialize particles, $\{\boldsymbol{\xi}_0^j\}$, and state estimates, $\{\mathbf{x}_{0 0}^{i,j}\}$	\triangleright Initialization
3:	for <each <math="">k^{th} measurement $\mathbf{y}_k > \mathbf{do}$</each>	
4:	$\textbf{procedure IP-EnKF}(\{\boldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^{j}\}, \{\mathbf{x}_{k-1 k-1}^{i,j}\})$	
5:	for <each <math="" particle="">\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j > do</each>	
6:	Evolve $\{oldsymbol{\xi}_{k-1}^j\} ightarrow \{oldsymbol{\widetilde{\xi}}_k^j\}$	\triangleright Particle evolution, as per Equation (17)
7:	$\textbf{procedure } \text{EnKF}(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j, \{\mathbf{x}_{k-1 k-1}^{i,j}\}, \mathbf{y}_k, \mathbf{Q_k^P})$	\triangleright For j^{th} particle
8:	for <each <math="" ensemble="">\mathbf{x}_{k-1 k-1}^{i,j'}> do</each>	
9:	Define external force, $\mathbf{P}_{k}^{i,j}$ as $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q}_{k}^{P})^{1}$	
10:	Obtain current stiffness, $\mathbf{K}_{k k-1}^{i,j}$	\triangleright see Equation (18)
11:	Predict $\mathbf{x}_{k k-1}^{i,j}$ and $\mathbf{y}_{k k-1}^{i,j}$	\triangleright see Equation (19)
12:	end for	
13:	Calculate $\mathbf{x}_{k k-1}^j, \mathbf{Y}_{k k-1}^j, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{k k-1}^{i,j}, C_k^{j,xy}, C_k^{j,yy}$ a	nd $\epsilon^{j}_{k k-1}$ \triangleright as per Section 2.2
14:	Compute innovation error covariance (\mathbf{S}_k^j) and \mathbb{I}	EnKF gain (\mathbf{G}_k^j) \triangleright as per Section 2.2
15:	Obtain corrected predicted state estimate, $\mathbf{x}_{k k}^{i,j}$	\triangleright see Equation (21)
16:	end procedure	
17:	end for	
18:	procedure Particle re-sampling($\{\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j\}$)	
19:	Calculate $w(\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j)$ for each $\boldsymbol{\xi}_k^j$ and re-sample	\triangleright see Equation (23)
20:	Calculate, updated state estimate, $\mathbf{x}_{k k}$ and parame	eter estimate, $\bar{\boldsymbol{\xi}}_k$ \triangleright see Equation (24)
21:	end procedure	
22:	end procedure	
23:	end for	
24: e	nd procedure	

352 4. Numerical Experiment

Large scale tensegrity structures are typically designed or built as assemblage of several modular units as the basis of design and construction [47, 48]. These modular units are connected to each other by tension mechanism (cables). To check the efficacy of the proposed algorithm for tensegrity SHM, it has been numerically tested on two of the most common tensegrity modules: simplex tensegrity (ST) and expandedoctahedron tensegrity (EOT). These modules are first numerically simulated for strain responses under a WGN forcing. However, prior to the numerical simulation, their initial forms are estimated following the process detailed in Algorithm 2.

In the following, a dynamic simulation is performed and strain data is collected from all the members that are not fixed. The responses from strain gauges are sampled at a fixed sampling frequency of 100 Hz [15, 55] for 5 seconds. Although average acceleration technique is unconditionally stable for all dt values, the study used a dt value that is also consistent with the explicit central difference scheme ($\omega \Delta t \leq 2$). To mimic real-life sensor data, the computed strain data is contaminated by adding (1%/2%/5%/10%) SNR WGN. Henceforth, the contaminated strain data is used as the actual measured data, \mathbf{y}_k , for IP-EnKF algorithm that has been used for tensegrity SHM.

For both the aforementioned cases (ST and EOT), the effect of measurement noise level on damage detection accuracy along with the extent of damage that can be detected with precision, has been studied. The ability of the algorithm to detect multiple damages in a tensegrity has also been tested. The initial self-stressed configurations of tensegrity modules, ST (cf. Figure 4) and EOT (cf. Figure 2) have been obtained through force density-based form-finding algorithm (Appendix A) and are presented in Tables 2 and 1, respectively, in terms of self-stress coordinates, member connectivity and initial tension coefficients.

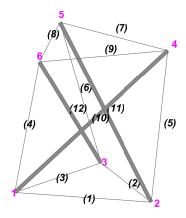


Figure 4: Simplex Tensegrity configuration

Adopted ST is a cylindrical tensegrity with 3 bars and 6 cables, whereas the EOT is a spherically symmetric tensegrity with 6 bars and 24 cables. The algorithm (Appendix A) to obtain initial statically

- stable coordinates has been verified with [7]. All the members, cables and bars, of both the tensegrities are assumed to be made of steel (*modulus of elasticity* = 200GPa). The diameters of bar and cable members
- are taken as 20mm and 5mm, respectively. For dynamic analysis, each of them is connected to a fixed base
- at three nodes: (1-3) for ST (cf. Figure 4) and (1,2,6) for EOT (cf. Figure 2). The stable form of the
- ³⁷⁹ tensegrities is further excited with an ambient Gaussian force (elaborated later for each case) applied to ST
- and EOT on the fourth and the third node, respectively, in x-direction.

Table 2: Nodal coordinates, elemental connectivity and initial tension coefficients of simplex tensegrity (ST) (with c:cable and b:bar)

	Node	1	2	3	4	5	6
	X	0.577	-0.244	-0.266	-0.452	0.0094	0.509
\mathbf{ST}	Y	0	0.5	-0.461	0.301	-0.542	0.279
	Z	0	0	0	0.919	0.919	0.919

	Element	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Node 1	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3
ST	Node 2	2	3	1	6	4	5	5	6	4	4	5	6
51	Туре	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	С	b	b	b
	Initial tension coeff. (N/m)	0.6834		1.1837		0.6835			-1.1838				

For both the tensegrity modules, damage is induced in their members 0.5s after the simulation starts. The initial distribution type for the parameter particles, θ_k (HIs) is set to be Gaussian, with their mean set as 1 assuming an undamaged condition and a standard deviation of 0.02, with α chosen as 0.90 (cf. Equation (17)). For consistency and understanding, the HIs of damaged members are compared to the HI (= 1) of undamaged member 10 for all the cases.

³⁸⁶ 4.1. Effect of external load on vibrational properties of undamaged tensegrity

As already discussed in the article, upon load application, the vibrational properties of a tensegrity 387 change due to a change in the tensegrity stiffness owing to the change in the pre-stress. This has been 388 demonstrated through an example case study on the ST subjected to an external WGN load of variance 389 $1.25\times 10^4 N^2$. In the case study, the WGN is applied on the fourth node along its x-direction (cf. Figure 390 4). No member is damaged and the system is simulated for 5 seconds. The responses are recorded at a 391 sampling frequency of 100 Hz. It is observed that under varying external load, natural frequencies of ST 392 change considerably even in the absence of any damage. Figure 5 demonstrates the relative change in first 393 three natural frequencies (ω_1, ω_2 and ω_3) in time under a time varying load in comparison to their values 394 $(\omega_1^0, \omega_2^0 \text{ and } \omega_3^0)$ corresponding to a stable form. Clearly, this establishes that modal comparison is not an 395 option for tensegrity SHM and establishes the necessity for time domain approaches. Further, since the 396 tensegrity stiffness is a function of force, a tensegrity with unknown force can not evidently be estimated 397 with a deterministic approach. This emphasizes the need for probabilistic approaches in which the system 398 health can be estimated with a probabilistic measure and thereby justifies the employment of the proposed 399 Bayesian filtering-based algorithm. 400

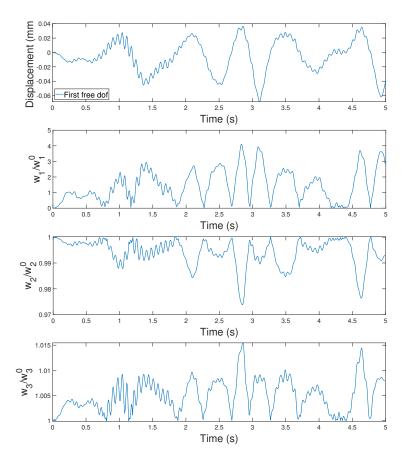


Figure 5: Variation in frequency $(1^{st}, 2^{nd} \& 3^{rd})$ of simplex (undamaged) under varying load

401 4.2. Calibration of particle and ensemble pool

A calibration study has been performed on ST to identify the minimum number of particles and ensembles that can be utilized to efficiently identify the damage induced. The details of tensegrity configuration, force statistics as well as simulation specification have been kept the same as specified in section 4.1. Further a 90% damage is induced in the 11th member of the simplex. A set of numerical experiments are further performed targeting evaluation of the optimal number of particles and ensembles to be utilized for the rest of the numerical experiments based on the algorithm's performance for accuracy and computational time.

Firstly, the number of particles are varied as 500, 1000, 2500 and 5000 for an ensemble pool size of 50 408 ensembles (cf. Figure 6a). It has been observed that, beyond a particle pool size of 2500, the accuracy is not 409 improving any further while only the computational expense is increasing substantially. Thus, a pool size of 410 2500 particles is chosen for PF. Next, optimal number of ensembles has been tested for EnKF with ensemble 411 pool sizes of 75 and 100 (cf. Figure 6). Again it has been observed that an ensemble pool of 100 ensembles 412 is sufficient to achieve desired accuracy while being within a manageable computational demand. A lower 413 value of ensemble number (here, 50) decreases the overall accuracy of the algorithm for all particle sizes 414 (500/1000/2500/5000). It should also be noted that increasing the particle size improves the promptness 415

⁴¹⁶ in detection for the algorithm while increasing the computational cost of the algorithm as well. Thus for ⁴¹⁷ estimation of the tensegrity health with proposed IP-EnKF, 2500 filter particles are selected for the PF ⁴¹⁸ while 100 ensembles are chosen for the EnKF.

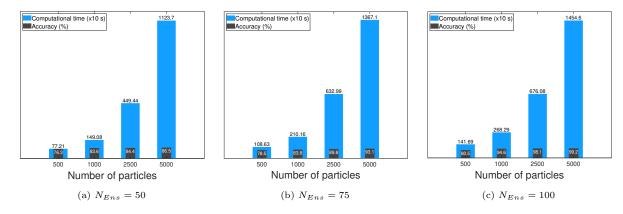


Figure 6: Effect of number of particles and ensembles (N_{Ens}) on accuracy and computational time of the algorithm

419 4.3. Simplex tensegrity (ST)

In the following, the proposed algorithm is tested on an ST module (cf. figure 4) while keeping the force statistics, application node, and other simulation specifications, the same as provided in section 4.1 for the sake of consistency. Again a damage is induced in its 11^{th} member (bar) by numerically reducing its stiffness by 90%, 0.5s after the start of simulation. Strain measurements are collected from all the unrestricted members of ST, i.e, members $\{4 - 12\}$, under various SNR levels.

The proposed algorithm is tested for its sensitivity against measurement noise contamination. Four SNR levels are selected for this comparison: 1%, 2%, 5% and 10%. Damages have been detected, localized and quantified for all noise levels (cf. Figure 7) with acceptable accuracy; although the promptness is not observed with noise of 10% SNR (cf. Figure 7). Clearly, this states that the proposed algorithm is sufficiently accurate with practical noise contamination levels.

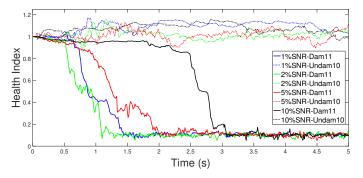


Figure 7: Measurement noise sensitivity of proposed approach - ST

 $_{430}$ To check the capability of the proposed approach to detect multiple damage in a tensegrity, a 90%

damage ($\mathbf{HI} = 0.1$) is introduced to 8^{th} and 11^{th} member of the ST (cable and bar, respectively). The damage is induced simultaneously after 0.5s of simulation. The simulated strain data is contaminated with 1% SNR WGN. The algorithm is capable to detect multiple damages, irrespective of the type of member (cable or bar), with equal promptness and precision (cf. Figure 8).

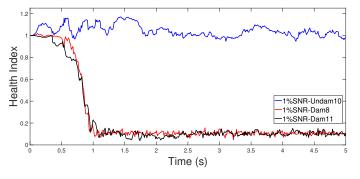


Figure 8: Multiple damage detection by the proposed approach - ST

Figure 9, shows the ability of the proposed approach to identify various damage levels (10%, 20%, 30%, 40% and 90%) with corresponding $HIs = \{0.9, 0.8, 0.7, 0.6 \text{ and } 0.1\}$. It has been observed that for the lower damage levels (10%), the algorithms output might confuse the investigator since the accuracy of the estimation may get masked within the estimation variation. However, for moderate or high levels of damage, demarcation of damaged state is quite straightforward with the proposed algorithm. It has been experienced that the proposed algorithm can effectively demarcate a damaged member having a damage level as small as 20% (HI = 0.8) without any confusion.

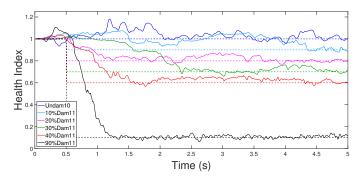


Figure 9: Detection of various damage levels by the proposed approach - ST

The minimum number of strain gauges required by the proposed approach to detect damage in ST, has been further investigated (cf. Figure 10). Following cases have been included, i) 9 strain gauges $\{4 - 12\}$, ii) 6 strain gauges $\{4 5 7 8 10 11\}$, iii) 3 strain gauges $\{5 8 11\}$, and iv) 1 strain gauge $\{11\}$. A 90% damage is induced in the 11^{th} member for all the above cases. It is observed that the algorithm is able to detect the damage with acceptable level of accuracy, even with a single strain gauge. Notably, the placement of sensor plays a major role in precision and promptness of the algorithm: sensors in the vicinity of the damages always alleviate the effort to detect them. This has been exhibited by the proposed approach as well. Nevertheless, with the increasing numbers of sensors, this problem is observed to attenuate. This aspect is however very much system specific. Accordingly, this case study can only give an idea about minimum sensors required and as such can not help to interpret the efficacy of the proposed algorithm.

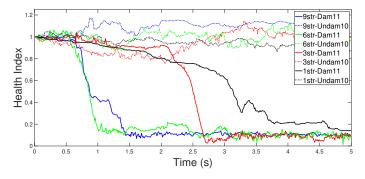


Figure 10: Performance of proposed approach under varying number of strain gauges - ST

452 4.4. Expanded-octahedron tensegrity (EOT)

Further, similar numerical experiments are performed on an EOT module, three times larger in dofs 453 than the ST tested before. The objective is to check the efficacy of the algorithm with larger systems. 454 An external WGN load of variance $1.25 \times 10^4 N^2$ has been applied on the third node along its x-direction 455 (cf. Figure 2). 0.5 s from the start of the simulation, a 90% damage level in the 11^{th} member (cable) of 456 EOT is simulated. The sizes of particle and ensemble pool were selected as 2500 and 100, respectively. 457 Strain measurements are collected from all the unrestricted members, i.e., members $\{1 - 21, 24 - 30\}$ of the 458 EOT, under various SNR (1%, 2%, 5% and 10%). As was observed for ST, the estimation is found to be 459 prompt and accurate till noise contamination level of 5% SNR WGN (cf. Figure 11), beyond which (10% 460 SNR) promptness is compromised while estimation still being accurate. It has further been realized that for 461 highly noisy systems, promptness can be regained by increasing the number of particles, ensembles or both, 462 which however comes at a higher computational cost. 463

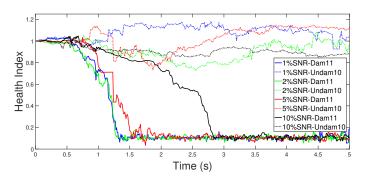


Figure 11: Measurement noise sensitivity of proposed approach - EOT

To investigate the efficacy of the algorithm for multiple damage cases in EOT, two cable members (11 and 24) are simultaneously damaged to 90% damage level. A noise of 1% SNR level is added to the strain data. It has been observed (cf. Figure 12) that the algorithm is able to detect damage with equal precision and promptness, even if same member types (cables in this case) are damaged.

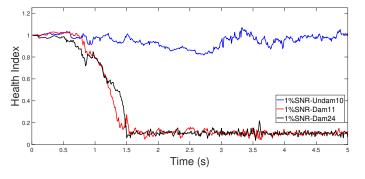


Figure 12: Multiple damage detection by the proposed approach - E0T

⁴⁶⁸ The algorithm is further tested to determine the extent of damage level that can be estimated for EOT

(cf. Figure 13). Five different damage levels: 10%, 20%, 30%, 40% and 90%, are tested in this endeavor.

 $_{470}$ The algorithm precisely detects a damage level of 20%, corresponding to an HI = 0.8.

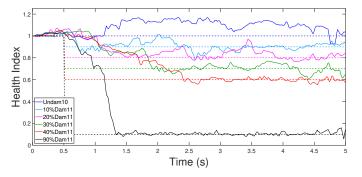


Figure 13: Detection of various damage levels by the proposed approach - EOT

As observed for ST, the proposed algorithm is able to accurately detect damage with strain gauge 471 number as low as one (cf. Figure 14). The observation has been made by applying a 90% damage in the 472 11^{th} member of EOT, for each of the following cases, i) 28 strain gauges $\{1 - 21, 24 - 30\}$, ii) 15 strain 473 gauges {1 3 4 6 7 10 11 14 17 19 20 25 26 28 29}, iii) 6 strain gauges {4 11 19 24 26 28}, and iv) 1 strain 474 gauge $\{11\}$. A decrease in the employed number of sensors is observed to affect the promptness of detection. 475 Further, a few false positives (for damages below 40%) have also been observed for lower sensor number. 476 This is although expected since compared to ST, EOT is defined with higher dofs and therefore needs more 477 478 sensors to get monitored.

Finally, it has been observed that for both the tensegrities, the poor detection performance of the algorithm, owing to higher noise contamination and/or weaker damage levels, can still be improved by employing

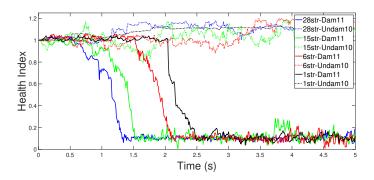


Figure 14: Performance of proposed approach under varying number of strain gauges - EOT

⁴⁸¹ bigger particle and/or ensemble pools. Two sets of experiments are performed on ST and EOT specifically ⁴⁸² for those cases for which the algorithm performed poorly (i.e. cases with 10% SNR noise contamination and ⁴⁸³ 10% damage). For both ST and EOT, the loss of promptness due to high level of noise contamination is ⁴⁸⁴ regained (cf. 15a and 16a) after enhancing the particle and ensemble pools to 5000 and 200 respectively. ⁴⁸⁵ The enhanced pool sizes also improved the precision and stability for the estimation of weak damages (cf. ⁴⁸⁶ Figures 15b and 16b). This in turn enables the algorithm to handle more complicated problems using ⁴⁸⁷ compute-intensive approaches.

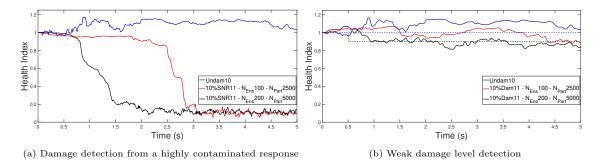


Figure 15: Effect of selecting a bigger particle and/or ensemble pools - ST

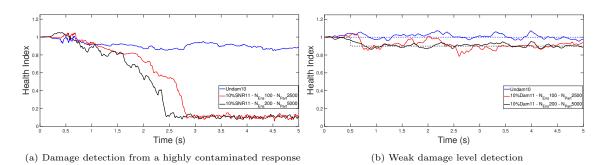


Figure 16: Effect of selecting a bigger particle and/or ensemble pools - EOT

488 5. Conclusion

A novel interacting filtering based damage detection approach has been proposed for tensegrity structures. 489 The approach successfully estimates the health parameters, through PF, along with the system states, 490 through EnKF nested inside the PF. Proposed probabilistic approach enables monitoring the tensegrity 491 health as long as a precise model of tensegrity dynamics is available and the input forcing statistics is known 492 to the investigator. No explicit knowledge of input time history is required for the estimation. The method 493 is found to be efficient in accurate detection and localization of the tensegrity damages and sufficiently 494 robust against practical levels of measurement noise. The algorithm is observed to perform even with sparse 495 instrumentation. Multiple damage cases were also detected without any confusion. Promptness and precision 496 is observed to be affected for the weak damage cases and/or highly contaminated signals. Nevertheless, it 497 has also been observed that the performance for such cases can be rectified by employing bigger particle 498 and/or ensemble pools at a higher computational cost. The algorithm however restricts itself for tensegrities 499 subjected to stationary Gaussian forcing only. Further research is required in order to develop tensegrity 500 SHM approaches that are robust against input forcing. 501 Funding: This study was funded by Science & Engineering Research Board (SERB), New Delhi, India, 502

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⁶⁵⁰ Appendix A. Form-finding of statically stable tensegrity

- To find the initial statically stable configuration of tensegrity, a Force Density Method based algorithm
- $_{652}$ is utilized that optimizes force density coefficients, **p**, of the member elements to obtain initial coordinates,
- \mathbf{X}_{est} , of the tensegrity. Along with the optimization of force density coefficients, global stability criteria
- ⁶⁵⁴ [72] (cf. lines 12-15, Algorithm 2) are also introduced to obtain a stable tensegrity configuration. While
- constructing a physical tensegrity it has been noticed that the bars tend to buckle under self-stress. To avoid
- such a situation, local stability criteria (cf. lines 18-19, Algorithm 2) of buckling failure ($\mathbf{p}_{bars} < \mathbf{p}_{critical}$)

as well as cable slackening ($\mathbf{p}_{cables} > 0$) have been added to the optimization. 657

Algorithm 2 Form-finding algorithm to obtain initial stable configuration of tensegrity

1: Define connectivity of members, coordinates of known fixed dofs, member type (bar/cable), material properties

- 2: Initialize force density coefficients, p
- 3: procedure STATICALLY STABLE FORM-FINDING (Optimizing with stability criteria)
- 4: procedure Optimize force density coefficients using fmincon (in-built MATLAB function) (\mathbf{p}_{est})
- 5: Find force density matrix, **D**
- Optimise **p** such that at least 4 eigen values of $\mathbf{D} = 0$ and \mathbf{D} is positive semi-definite, for a 3 dimensional 6: tensegrity \triangleright For details see [69]
- 7: end procedure
- Calculate force density matrix, \mathbf{D} from estimated \mathbf{p}_{est} 8:
- Calculate nodal coordinates of the unknown free dofs, \mathbf{X}_{est} from the null space of **D** by performing eigenvalue 9: decomposition \triangleright For details see [69] \triangleright For details see [69]

 \triangleright For details see [72]

- Calculate Equilibrium matrix, A and Geometric matrix G 10:
- Global stability checks: 11:
- 1. $rank(\mathbf{D}) \leq n (d+1)$; for 3-d tensegrity d = 312:
- 13: 2. $eig(\mathbf{D}) \geq 0$
- 14: 3. $rank(\mathbf{G}) = d(d+1)/2$; for 3-d tensegrity d = 3
- 15:4. $rank(\mathbf{A}) < total number of members present in tensegrity$
- Calculate $\mathbf{p}_{critical} = \frac{\pi^2 EI}{I_3}$ (pin-pin connections) to incorporate local buckling criteria for bars 16:
- Local stability checks: 17:
- 18: 5. $\mathbf{p}_{bars} < \mathbf{p}_{critical}$
- 19:6. $\mathbf{p}_{cables} > 0$
- 20:if All the above six criteria are met then break
- 21:else $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_{est}$; GO TO STEP 3
- end if 22:

23: end procedure

Appendix B. Explicit Newmark-beta method: incremental formulation 658

Algorithm 3 presents the pseudo-code for explicit Newmark-beta method [15] utilized in this study. 659

Algorithm 3 Explicit Newmark-beta method: incremental formulation 1: Average acceleration assumptions: $\beta = 0.25; \gamma = 0.5$ 2: for <for each time step k > doprocedure State Propagation $(\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{K}_{k-1}, dt, \mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{q}_{k-1}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1}, \ddot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1})$ 3: Re-calibrate \mathbf{K}_{k-1} as \mathbf{K}_k as a function of \mathbf{q}_{k-1} \triangleright See Section 2.1 4: Calculate \mathbf{C}_k as a function of \mathbf{K}_k and \mathbf{M} \triangleright as per Rayleigh damping model 5: Realize \mathbf{P}_k from the noise process $\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Q})$ 6: ▷ White Gaussian noise forcing $a_{1} = \frac{\mathbf{M}}{\beta dt^{2}} + \frac{\gamma \mathbf{C}_{k}}{\beta dt}$ $a_{2} = \frac{\mathbf{M}}{\beta dt} + (\frac{\gamma}{\beta} - 1)\mathbf{C}_{k}$ $a_{3} = (\frac{1}{2\beta} - 1)\mathbf{M} + dt\mathbf{C}_{k}(\frac{\gamma}{2\beta} - 1)$ 7: 8: 9: $\hat{\mathbf{K}}_k = \mathbf{K}_k + a_1$ 10: $\hat{\mathbf{P}}_k = \mathbf{P}_k + a_1 \mathbf{q}_{k-1} + a_2 \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1} + a_3 \ddot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1}$ 11: $\mathbf{q}_k = \hat{\mathbf{K}}_k^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{P}}_k$ 12: $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k} = \frac{\gamma}{\beta dt} (\mathbf{q}_{k} - \mathbf{q}_{k-1}) + (1 - \frac{\gamma}{\beta}) \dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1} + (1 - \frac{\gamma}{2\beta}) dt \ddot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1}$ 13: $\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_{k} = \frac{1}{\beta dt^{2}} (\mathbf{q}_{k} - \mathbf{q}_{k-1}) - \frac{\dot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1}}{\beta dt} + (\frac{1}{2\beta} - 1)\ddot{\mathbf{q}}_{k-1}$ 14:15: end procedure 16: end for