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Kalman-based estimation of loading conditions from ultrasonic guided

 $_{\circ}$ wave measurements

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10 Abstract

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Ultrasonic guided wave-based Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) of structures can 11 be perturbed by Environmental and Operations Conditions (EOCs) that alter wave 12 propagation. In this work, we present an estimation procedure to reconstruct an 13 EOC-free baseline of the structure suitable for SHM from the only available 14 Ultrasonic guided wave measurements. Our approach is model-based, *i.e.* we use a 15 precise modeling of the wave propagation altered by structure loading conditions. 16 This model is coupled with the acquired data through a data assimilation procedure 17 to estimate the deformation caused by the unknown loading conditions. From a 18 methodological point of view, our approach is original since we have proposed an 19 iterated Reduced-Order Unscented Kalman strategy, which we justify as an 20 alternative to a Levenberg-Marquardt strategy for minimizing the non quadratic 21 least-squares estimation criteria. Therefore, from a data assimilation perspective, we 22 provide a quasi-sequential strategy that can valuably replace more classical variational 23 approaches. Indeed, our resulting algorithm proves to be computationally very 24 effective, allowing us to successfully apply our strategy to realistic 3D industrial SHM 25 configurations. 26

28 1 Introduction

In various cutting-edge industrial fields, e.g. nuclear power generation, transportation, 29 or aeronautics, the safe and reliable use of critical parts of structures is of paramount 30 importance. To meet safety regulations in these areas, one must often be able to 31 assess the integrity of the materials or equipment that make up these critical parts. 32 To this end, numerous Non-Destructive Techniques (NDT) have been developed over 33 the years. They are means of examining the material in question and obtaining 34 quantitative information about its integrity without damaging it. Among them, 35 Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) is an approach that – compared to other NDT 36 techniques – generates a continuous stream of field data by incorporating actuators 37 and sensors in situ. In other words, SHM systems monitor structures as it is used. 38 One way to implement such systems is to rely on ultrasonic Guided Waves (GWs) [29, 39 41] because of their attractive properties, such as propagation over long distances to 40

⁴¹ study a large volume of material, or sensitivity to local thickness variations due to

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dispersion phenomena. Nevertheless, there are a number of challenges in the actual 42 implementation of GW-based SHM systems in realistic structures. To name just two of 43 them that drive the goals of our work, let us mention that the monitoring system should 44 be minimal to avoid overloading the structure of interest, and the Environmental and 45 Operations Conditions (EOCs) have a non-negligible impact on GW propagation [36]. 46 Typical EOCs that can affect wave propagation include temperature variations and 47 the mechanical loading sustained by the structure during its use. We focus on the 48 latter because it is more general in terms of mathematical formulation and can indeed 49 lead to a change in wave velocities or even induce anisotropy. These effects are often 50 referred to by the term "acoustoelastic" propagation [21, 22]. These acoustoelastic 51 effects can alter the data registered by ultrasonic sensors, potentially affecting the 52 precision of GW-based monitoring systems. In this context, the main objective of our 53 work is the following: using the available data – the ultrasonic measurements – we aim 54 to remove the bias caused by the mechanical loading conditions in order to reconstruct 55 an EOC-free baseline. This objective solves the above two problems since the influence 56 of mechanical loading is captured without additional sensors. This EOC-free baseline 57 can then be used to find evidence of potential defects or damage within the structure 58 in the ultrasonic signals – assuming here that the contributions of the defects and the 59 EOCs are separable in the time or frequency domain. 60 In essence, our goal is to reconstruct a pre-deformation of the structure using only 61 the GW measurements. From the wave propagation point of view, this is an inverse 62 problem that we solve as a minimization problem of a fidelity-to-data functional under 63 the condition that wave propagation dynamics is satisfied. An important feature 64

arising from our EOC context is that the propagation model is in fact the one obtained
by linearizing the nonlinear elastodynamics model around the sought pre-deformation,
as presented in details in previous works [38] and recalled later in this article.

Solving such a non-linear optimization problem can be carried out through different 68 approaches. A first one is to resort to gradient descent iterations or quasi-Newton 69 processes [14, 7]. At each iteration, the gradient of the cost function can be obtained 70 by solving the so-called forward and backward adjoint problems. This approach is 71 arguably the most common one to address this type of problem, it is referred to as the 72 variational approach (4D-Var) [5, 16] in the data assimilation community with now 73 extension to mechanical systems [42], while in the geophysics community, it has been 74 labeled as Full Waveform Inversion (FWI) [32] with adaptation to tomography [30]. 75 A strong advantage of FWI is its robustness w.r.t. the size of the parametric space. 76 *i.e.* the space in which lies the (discrete) solution of the minimization problem. In 77 fact, numerous successful applications of this method have led to the reconstruction of 78 wave velocity maps over large propagation domains. However, one significant difficulty 79 of this approach is managing the adjoint dynamics, which contains the tangent of 80 the propagation model around the forward trajectory. In the context of our work, 81 this tangent model is intricate. In particular, it entails the third derivative of the 82 hyperelastic potential ruling the constitutive behavior of the material. Also, storing 83 the forward trajectory to evaluate this tangent is prohibitive, since the state space 84 is very large in the context of high-frequency time-domain wave propagation. Note 85 that however, in the case of inviscid wave propagation, one can save storage space by 86 simply back-propagating the forward trajectory - a technique exploited in other wave 87 propagation inverse problems [18, 25]. However, this is done at the cost of yet another 88 call to the wave propagation solver. 80

A second approach is to resort to sequential methods and, in particular, to Kalman filtering approaches that can be developed in a stochastic or a deterministic context [1, 11]. The term sequential stems from the fact that the main building blocks of this

approach are (exclusively) forward problems, where the dynamics are modified by the 93 addition of a feedback loop. This feedback loop is proportional to the discrepancy 94 between the synthetic data generated from the model's current trajectory and the actual 95 measurements. The resulting modified dynamics is often referred to as a sequential 96 estimator (in the stochastic context) or an observer (in the deterministic context) of 97 the target trajectory. In Kalman-based filtering, the gain operator in the feedback 98 loop is computed from a covariance operator satisfying a Riccati equation [37]. For 90 Linear-Quadratic (LQ) problems, *i.e.* linear state dynamics with linear parameter-state 100 coupling and a quadratic misfit functional, the observer at the final time corresponds 101 exactly to the solution of the minimization problem [40]. Also, in the special case 102 where the uncertainty is limited exclusively to the parameter space, this method 103 leads to a specific application of the Reduced-Order Kalman Filter [15, 40]. This 104 method can be generalized to cases with non-linear parameter-state coupling, leading 105 to the so-called Reduced Order Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) or its gradient-free 106 version, the Reduced-Order Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF) [15, 19]. One of the main 107 advantages of these sequential estimators lies in their ability to provide a solution to 108 the minimization problem in one pass, consisting of embarrassingly parallel forward 109 problems. Moreover, thanks to their tangent-free alternative, e.g. UKF, they are 110 easy to interface with legacy code used in parallel as a black box propagating each 111 UKF sigma-point, also referred to as particle. Nevertheless, the usual computational 112 bottleneck of these sequential methods is to store and invert the (dense) covariance 113 matrix whose dimension corresponds to the size of the parameter space. This limits 114 the application of Kalman filters to relatively small parameter spaces compared to the 115 typical configurations handled by variational or FWI methods. Moreover, although 116 Kalman filters are exactly equivalent to the minimization problem LQ problems their 117 extension to nonlinear minimization problems is either prohibitively expensive [33, 40] 118 or approximate when relying on Extended or Unscented Kalman filters [15, 19, 40]. 119 In our work, we develop a new estimation procedure that combines elements of the 120 two approaches. Namely, we first apply a Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) algorithm [8, 24] 121

to derive from the initial minimization problem a set of LQ subproblems satisfied by 122 parameter increments. Each of these LQ subproblems is then solved using a Kalman 123 filter approach, a sequential strategy already studied for wave or elasticity problems 124 [15, 28, 39]. We then revisit the UKF approach, to obtain a tangent-free algorithm 125 with increasing convergence at each iteration of the outer loop of LM descent. Thus, 126 we avoid the differentiation of the acoustoelastic wave propagation model and provide 127 an estimation algorithm that can be easily interoperated with blackbox industrial 128 codes. To be compatible with the dimensionality constraints of Kalman filtering, the 129 parameter space is built from a modal decomposition of the pre-deformation, which 130 in practice leads to the estimation of tens to hundreds of components on a modal 131 basis. Moreover, the number of LM iterations to achieve convergence is rather small, 132 leading overall to an almost sequential estimation approach. To illustrate the power of 133 our approach, both in computation efficiency and parameter estimation, we provide 134 extensive 3D results with synthetic noisy data in configurations associated with realistic 135 SHM applications. 136

The structure of this article is as follows. In *section 2*, we provide details on the direct problem, *i.e.* the time-domain acoustoelasticy propagation model. This leads us to the definition of the inverse problem we consider. In particular, we give a precise definition of the observation operator that generates the GW measurements and the modal basis that forms the parameter space. In *section 3*, we develop our new method for identifying parameters using a combination of the LM algorithm and Kalman-based filtering. In a first step, we provide meaningful insights into this ¹⁴⁴ approach by considering continuous-time dynamics. In a second step, we give extensive ¹⁴⁵ details leading to the final fully discrete observer. Finally, in *section* 4, we give ¹⁴⁶ relevant numerical illustrations of the estimation of the 3D pre-deformation with our

¹⁴⁷ approach and noisy synthetic data in realistic industrial configurations.

¹⁴⁸ 2 Problem setting

¹⁴⁹ We here consider a deformable system classically modeled in continuum mechanics in

¹⁵⁰ a Lagrangian referential defined from an initial stress-free configuration. Defining by

¹⁵¹ Ω the reference domain with Lipschitz boundaries and the material position **x** in the ¹⁵² reference configuration, the dynamics principle reads

$$\begin{cases} \varrho_0 \partial_{tt}^2 \boldsymbol{u}_{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{T}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \varrho_0 \boldsymbol{f}_{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{x}, t) & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Omega \times (0, T), \\ \boldsymbol{u}_{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Gamma_D \times (0, T), \\ \boldsymbol{T} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0 & (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Gamma_N \times (0, T), \\ \boldsymbol{u}(\mathbf{x}, 0) = 0 & \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \end{cases}$$
(1)

where, for the sake of simplicity, we consider homogeneous boundary conditions defined in the reference configuration. Moreover, we scale the volume loading with the volume mass for consistency. In (1) the first Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor T is here defined from the derivative of an hyperelastic potential \mathscr{W} , with respect to the deformation gradient $F(\mathbf{x}, t) = \mathbf{Id} + \nabla \boldsymbol{u}_{tot}(\mathbf{x}, t)$, namely $T = D_F \mathscr{W}(\mathbf{x}, F)$.

As an alternative to the strong form, the system is defined using the weak form of the dynamics principle, also known as the principle of virtual work, by defining a space of admissible displacements, typically $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathcal{V} = \{ \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathrm{H}^1(\Omega)^3 \mid \boldsymbol{w}|_{\Gamma_D} = 0 \}$ such that

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \partial_{tt}^2 \boldsymbol{u}_{\text{tot}} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{T} : \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \boldsymbol{f}_{\text{tot}} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}.$$
(2)

In this general framework, we now consider that our system is inspected while being loaded by external unknown forces. These structural loading forces f_0 are considered to be volume distributed, for the sake of simplicity, and quasi-static – namely not depending on time – albeit of possibly strong amplitude, as opposed to the ultrasonic excitation f which is of high-frequency and low amplitude. In fact, the quasi-static assumption is considered with respect to the time scale of ultrasonic excitation so the total loading decomposes into

$$\boldsymbol{f}_{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{f}_0(\mathbf{x}) + \delta \boldsymbol{f}(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad (\mathbf{x}, t) \in \Omega \times (0, T), \tag{3}$$

where δ is a small parameter representing the fact that the amplitude of the ultrasonic excitation is small compared to the external loading. This allows us to separate scales and to consider that the resulting displacement is decomposed into

$$\boldsymbol{u}_{\text{tot}}(\mathbf{x},t) = \boldsymbol{u}_0(\mathbf{x}) + \delta \boldsymbol{u}(\mathbf{x},t) + O(\delta^2).$$
(4)

Injecting such anszatz into the principle of virtual work (2) and identifying the zero order terms w.r.t. δ , we formally showed in [38] that the displacement can be reconstructed from the solution $\boldsymbol{u}_0 \in \mathcal{K}$ of a large displacement static problem

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{T}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{F}_0) : \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \boldsymbol{f}_0 \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x}, \tag{5}$$

where $\mathbf{F}_0 = \mathbf{Id} + \nabla \mathbf{u}_0$ is the deformation gradient associated with \mathbf{u}_0 . Then, identifying the first order term in δ , we find that $\mathbf{u} \in \mathrm{L}^2((0,T);\mathcal{V})$ should be a solution of the wave-propagation problem given by

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \partial_{tt}^2 \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u} : \mathrm{D}_{\boldsymbol{F}}^2 \mathscr{W}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{F}_0) : \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \boldsymbol{f} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}. \tag{6}$$

From a mathematical viewpoint, the existence of a solution for the general problem formulation (1) is still an open problem. However, under suitable conditions, we can consider that problem (5) and (6) admits one and only one solution. For (5), this is typically the case when defining a hyperelastic law using a polyconvex potential [6], giving the existence of a displacement \boldsymbol{u}_0 in the space of admissible displacements $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathcal{V}$.

Then, moving to (6), this formulation can be recast into a general second-order in time weak formulation. Denoting by \mathcal{H} the space $L^2(\Omega)^3$ equipped with the scalar product

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w}) \in \mathcal{H}^2, \quad (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}} = \int_{\Omega} \varrho_0 \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x},$$

186 Moreover, we equip \mathcal{V} with the scalar product

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w}) \in \mathcal{V}^2, \quad (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{V}} = \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u} : \mathrm{D}_{\boldsymbol{F}}^2 \mathscr{W}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Id}) : \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} + (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

¹⁸⁷ Note that $D_F^2 \mathcal{W}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Id})$ actually corresponds to the standard Hooke's law in linear ¹⁸⁸ elasticity. We can identify \mathcal{H} with its dual so that we have the following Gelfand triple

$$\mathcal{V}\subset\mathcal{H}\equiv\mathcal{H}'\subset\mathcal{V}'$$

Then, introducing the linear operator $A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}')$ such that

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w}) \in \mathcal{V}^2, \langle A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V}} = \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u} : \mathrm{D}_{\boldsymbol{F}}^2 \mathscr{W}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{F}_0) : \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{w} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x},$$

¹⁹⁰ the weak formulation (6) can be written in the following form

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}^2}{\mathrm{d}t^2} (\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}} + \langle A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V}} = (\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}}.$$
(7)

¹⁹¹ We now make the following assumption: there exists $\lambda \geq 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ such that

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \langle A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0)\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V}} + \lambda \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \ge \alpha \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{\mathcal{V}}^2.$$
(8)

Such assumption is satisfied for u_0 small enough whereas for large displacement u_0 , it may be violated. This is however very dependent on the potential \mathcal{W} that describes the elastic behavior of the medium. Some choices tend to make the assumption above more restrictive than others – see *e.g.* the examples in [38]. Thanks to this assumption – see for instance [2] – there exists one, and only one, *variational* solution of (7), namely $u \in \mathcal{W}_T$ with

$$\mathcal{W}_T = \Big\{ \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathrm{L}^2((0,T); \mathcal{V}), \partial_t \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathrm{L}^2((0,T); \mathcal{H}), \partial_{tt}^2 \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathrm{L}^2((0,T); \mathcal{V}') \Big\}.$$

¹⁹⁸ Moreover, we can extend the operator $A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{V}')$ into an unbounded operator ¹⁹⁹ $(A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0), \mathcal{D}(A_0))$ by defining

$$\mathcal{D}(A_0) = \Big\{ \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{V} \text{ such that } \exists \boldsymbol{r} \in \mathcal{H} : \forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad \langle A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V}} = (\boldsymbol{r}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}} \Big\}.$$

200 and

 $\forall \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{D}(A_0), \quad \forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V}, \quad (A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0)\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w})_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0)\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{w} \rangle_{\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V}}.$

²⁰¹ Then, for a given $\boldsymbol{u}_0 \in \mathcal{K}$, by introducing the operator

$$A(\boldsymbol{u}_0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathrm{Id} \\ -A_0(\boldsymbol{u}_0) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } \mathcal{D}(A) = \mathcal{D}(A_0) \times \mathcal{V} \subset \mathcal{Z} := \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{H},$$

²⁰² we can rewrite the wave dynamics in the state-space form

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}z = A(\boldsymbol{u}_0)z + r, & \text{in } (0,T) \\ z(0) = 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{with } z = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u} \\ \boldsymbol{v} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } r = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \boldsymbol{f} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad (9)$$

and \boldsymbol{v} denotes the velocity unknown. In the sequel, we will denote $\dot{z} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}z$. This state-space form allows to define solutions using semi-group theory [12]. Namely for $r \in \mathrm{L}^2((0,T),\mathbb{Z})$ there exists one and only one mild solution of (9) in $\mathrm{C}^0((0,T),\mathbb{Z})$ which is also a variational solution in \mathcal{W}_T of (7). We here underline that the variational formalism is necessary to further justify finite element discretization of (7), whereas the mild solution formulation in the sense of semi-group will simplify the presentation of the estimation problem.

In this modeling context, we consider that we have at our disposal some recorded measurements on a subregion ω_i – of the boundary $\partial\Omega$ – from d sensors of the wave propagation of a target wave solution \check{u} . Typically we consider recordings $y = (y_i)_{1 \le i \le d}$ given by

$$[0,T] \ni t \mapsto \check{y}_i(t) = \frac{1}{|\omega_i|} \int_{\omega_i} \check{\boldsymbol{u}}(t, \mathbf{x}) \cdot \boldsymbol{d}_i \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}, \quad 1 \le i \le d,$$

²¹⁴ up to certain measurement errors and where the fields d_i represent the sensitivity ²¹⁵ of the sensors to a displacement field. In fact, we do not have at our disposal ²¹⁶ $[0,T] \ni t \mapsto \check{y}(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ but rather the perturbed measurement $y_{\gamma} \in L^2((0,T);\mathcal{Y})$ with ²¹⁷ $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}^d$ such that for a given noise level $\gamma > 0$,

$$\int_0^T \|\check{y}_i - y_{\gamma,i}\|_{\mathcal{Y}}^2 \,\mathrm{d}t \lesssim \gamma^2 T.$$

From a state-space point of view, this allows to define an observation operator $C \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{Y})$ by

$$C: z = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{u} \\ \boldsymbol{v} \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \left(\frac{1}{|\omega_i|} \int_{\omega_i} \boldsymbol{u}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \boldsymbol{d}_i \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \right)_{1 \le i \le d}.$$
 (10)

Remark 1. We would like to point out that in an alternative modeling approach, we could have considered that the measurements are recorded from the deformed configuration as the sensors are operating in this configuration. When rewriting the integrals with respect to the reference configuration, this should lead to the definition of an observation operator $C(\mathbf{u}_0)$ that depends on the deformation.

We can now introduce the inverse problem that we want to solve. We assume that \boldsymbol{u}_0 is unknown and we want to reconstruct it from the available measurements. More precisely, we would like to specify the true $\check{\boldsymbol{u}}_0$ from an *a priori* displacement $\hat{\boldsymbol{u}}_0$ assuming that the true displacement is a regular perturbation with respect to the a priori, typically there exists a constant M such that

$$\|\check{\boldsymbol{u}}_0 - \hat{\boldsymbol{u}}_0\|_{\mathcal{V}}^2 \leq M^2.$$

²³⁰ Moreover in practice, we propose to decompose any $\boldsymbol{u}_0 \in \mathcal{H}$ on the basis made of the ²³¹ eigenvectors $(\boldsymbol{\varphi}_j)_{j\geq 0}$ of the compact operator $\Lambda_0 = A_0(\mathbf{0})^{-1} \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{V})$. We recall that ²³² there exists $(\mu_j)_{j\geq 0} \in (\mathbb{R}^*_+)^{\mathbb{N}}$ such that

$$A_0(\mathbf{0})\boldsymbol{\varphi}_j = \mu_j \boldsymbol{\varphi}_j \text{ with } \|\boldsymbol{\varphi}_j\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 = 1$$
(11)

and $\lambda_j = \sqrt{\mu_j}^{-1}$ tends to 0 as j tends to infinity. Therefore, we can decompose

$$\boldsymbol{u}_0(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j\geq 0} \theta_j \boldsymbol{\varphi}_j(\mathbf{x}) \tag{12}$$

²³⁴ and we can enforce

$$oldsymbol{u}_0 \in \mathcal{V} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{j\geq 0} rac{ heta_j^2}{\lambda_j^2} < +\infty.$$

235 In practice, we may even want to consider that \boldsymbol{u}_0 belongs to a more regular space \mathcal{V}^m

leading to increased convergence rate of the sequence $(\theta_j)_{k>0}$ to 0, typically

$$\boldsymbol{u}_0 \in \mathcal{V}^m \Rightarrow \sum_{j \ge 0} \frac{\theta_j^2}{\lambda_j^{2m}} < +\infty.$$
(13)

However, as a first step, we remain with our choice of estimating $u_0 \in \mathcal{V}^m$ which is equivalent to estimating $\theta \in \mathcal{P} \subset \ell_2(\mathbb{R})$, equipped with a norm

$$\|\theta\|_{\mathcal{P}}^2 = (\theta, \Lambda_0^{-m}\theta)_{\ell_2}, \text{ with } (\Lambda_0)_{ij} = \lambda_j^{2m}\delta_{ij} \text{ and } \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } i=j\\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(14)

²³⁹ Moreover, when we need to discretize \boldsymbol{u}_0 , we will consider a finite-dimensional space ²⁴⁰ corresponding to a finite number N_p of modes, hence $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{N_p}$ and Λ_0 becomes typically ²⁴¹ a diagonal matrix.

To conclude our problem setting, our objective is, therefore, to estimate $\dot{\theta} \in \mathcal{P}$ from the available measurements, namely to invert the following operator

$$\Psi_T : \begin{cases} \mathcal{P} \to \mathrm{L}^2((0,T);\mathcal{Y}) \\ \theta \mapsto \left[t \mapsto \int_0^t C e^{A(\theta)(t-s)} r(s) \, \mathrm{d}s \right] \end{cases}$$

where we replace the \boldsymbol{u}_0 dependency by the θ dependency in the definition of the operator A_0 . In the following, this inversion is based on a least-squares minimization using Levenberg-Marquardt strategy.

²⁴⁷ **3** Identification method

3.1 From Levenberg-Marquardt minimization scheme to an iterated Extended Kalman strategy

Following [24], we approximate pseudo-inverse of Ψ_T with a Levenberg-Marquardt minimization scheme [8] which consists of the following iterative procedure.

$$\theta^{k+1} = \theta^k + \alpha^k$$
$$= \theta^k + \left[D\Psi_T(\theta^k)^* D\Psi_T(\theta^k) + \varepsilon \frac{\gamma^2}{M^2} \Lambda_0^{-m} \right]^{-1} D\Psi_T(\theta^k)^* (y_\gamma - \Psi_T(\theta^k)), \quad (15)$$

where the number of iterations of this scheme is finite, thus acting as a regularization, and typically controlled by classical Morozov-like criteria, as advised in [24]. The parameter $\frac{\gamma^2}{M^2}$ is a scaling parameter taking into account the prior over noise ratio, while ε will give us an additional degree of freedom for weighting the regularization in the LM algorithm, see below and in particular Remark 2. Then, we can see the increment as

$$\alpha^{k} = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon}{2M^{2}} \|\alpha\|_{\mathcal{P}}^{2} + \frac{1}{2\gamma^{2}} \|y_{\gamma} - \Psi_{T}(\theta^{k}) - \mathrm{D}\Psi_{T}(\theta^{k})\alpha\|_{\mathrm{L}^{2}((0,T);\mathcal{Y})}^{2} \right\},$$
(16)

Remark 2. Note again that by penalizing $\|\alpha\|_{\mathcal{P}}^2$ we penalize an incremental displacement $\|\tilde{\boldsymbol{u}}_0(\alpha)\|_{\mathcal{V}^m}^2$. Therefore, we can force the first increments of the seeking

- $_{252}$ displacement to belong to \mathcal{K} since a sufficiently smooth displacement with a sufficiently
- ²⁵³ small amplitude will necessarily be admissible. However, this may come at the price
- ²⁵⁴ of too much regularization, which can only be compensated by a higher number of
- 255 iterations of the LM algorithm. This is illustrated in the numerical section.
- Let us now specify the tangent operator

$$\forall \theta \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \mathrm{D}\Psi_T(\theta) : \begin{vmatrix} \mathcal{H} \to \mathrm{L}^2((0,T);\mathcal{Y}), \\ \alpha \mapsto y = C\zeta_{|\theta,\alpha} \end{vmatrix}$$

²⁵⁷ and $\zeta_{|\theta,\alpha}$ is a mild solution of

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\zeta}_{|\theta,\alpha}(t) = A(\theta)\zeta_{|\theta,\alpha}(t) + B(\theta, z_{|\theta}(t))\alpha, \quad t \in [0,T] \\ \zeta_{|\theta,\alpha}(0) = 0, \end{cases}$$

where we have introduced the linear operator representing the tangent of $A(\theta) w.r.t.$ the parameter θ

$$\forall \theta \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall z \in \mathcal{D}(A), \quad \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Z}) \ni B(\theta, z) : \mathcal{P} \ni \alpha \mapsto (\mathcal{D}_{\theta} A(\theta) \alpha) z \in \mathcal{Z}.$$

Therefore, we face a linear-quadratic optimal control problem, that can be minimized using the following Reduced-Order Kalman Filter (ROKF) sequential estimator reformulated from the initial design found in [15] – see also the more recent review [40]. To this end, let us first introduce the set of sensitivity operators $(L_{|\theta}(t))_{t\geq 0}$ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Z})$ defined for all time $t \geq 0$ by

$$L_{|\theta}(t) : \alpha \mapsto \zeta(t) \text{ the mild solution of} \begin{cases} \dot{\zeta}(s) = A(\theta)\zeta(s) + B(\theta, z_{|\theta}(s))\alpha, \quad s \in [0, t] \\ \zeta(0) = 0. \end{cases}$$
(17)

We easily verify that $L_{|\theta} \in C^0([0,T]; \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Z}))$ the space of continuous mapping from [0, T] to $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Z})$ endowed with the uniform convergence topology [12].

Then, we introduce the time-dependent Riccati operator $(\Lambda_{|\theta})_{t\geq 0}$ – which can be interpreted as a parameter-covariance operator [12] – solution in $C^0([0,T]; \mathcal{S}^*_+(\mathcal{P}))$ - with $\mathcal{S}^*_+(\mathcal{P})$ the space of symmetric positive definite bounded operators – of

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\Lambda}_{|\theta}(t) = -\frac{1}{\gamma^2} \Lambda_{|\theta}(t) L_{|\theta}(t)^* C^* C L_{|\theta}(t) \Lambda_{|\theta}(t), & t \in [0, T] \\ \Lambda_{|\theta}(0) = \frac{M^2}{\varepsilon} \Lambda_0^m \end{cases}$$
(18)

We would like to underline the fact that here the adjoint operator $L_{|\theta}(t)^*$ is here defined with respect to the ℓ^2 -norm as $\theta \in \mathcal{P} \subset \ell^2(\mathbb{R})$.

272 We then define the sequential estimator

. .

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\zeta}^{k}(t) = A(\theta^{k})\hat{\zeta}^{k}(t) + B(\theta^{k}, z_{|\theta^{k}}(t))\hat{\alpha}^{k}(t) + L_{|\theta^{k}}(t)\dot{\alpha}^{k}(t), & t \in [0, T] \\ \dot{\alpha}^{k}(t) = \frac{1}{\gamma^{2}}\Lambda_{|\theta^{k}}(t)L_{|\theta^{k}}(t)^{*}C^{*}(y_{\gamma}(t) - Cz_{|\theta^{k}}(t) - C\hat{\zeta}^{k}(t)), & t \in [0, T] \\ \hat{\zeta}^{k}(0) = 0 \\ \hat{\alpha}^{k}(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$
(19)

which, ultimately, sequentially solve the minimization problem (16) as recall in the next theorem justified in [40]. **Theorem 1.** At every iteration k, the mild solution $\hat{\alpha}^k \in C^0([0,T];\mathcal{P})$ and $\hat{\zeta}^k \in C^0([0,T];\mathcal{Z})$ of (19) satisfies

$$\hat{\alpha}^{k}(T) = \alpha^{k} \text{ and } \hat{\zeta}^{k}(T) = \zeta_{|\theta^{k},\alpha^{k}}(T).$$
(20)

In the previous theorem, we understand that we can sequentially compute $t \mapsto \hat{\alpha}^k$ but also $t \mapsto \hat{\zeta}^k$ which is interpreted as a sequential estimator of the associated trajectory $t \mapsto \zeta_{|\theta^k, \alpha^k}$. Note that this estimator can be computed together with $\hat{\alpha}^k$ in only one coupled forward dynamics.

In fact, instead of a parameter increment, we are more interested in reconstructing the parameter itself, namely $t \mapsto \bar{\theta}^k(t) = \theta^k + \hat{\alpha}^k(t)$, and its associated trajectory $t \mapsto \bar{z}^k(t) = z_{|\bar{\theta}^k(t)}(t)$. As $t \mapsto \hat{\alpha}^k(t)$ is a time-dependent trajectory, we have

$$\dot{\bar{z}}^{k} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \Big[z_{|\bar{\theta}^{k}(\cdot)} \Big] = \dot{z}_{|\bar{\theta}^{k}(\cdot)} + \mathrm{D}_{\theta(\cdot)} z_{|\theta(\cdot)} \Big|_{\theta(\cdot) = \bar{\theta}^{k}(\cdot)} \dot{\bar{\alpha}}^{k},$$

and the sensitivity operator $L_{|\bar{\theta}^{k}(\cdot)} = \mathcal{D}_{\theta(\cdot)} z_{|\theta(\cdot)} \Big|_{\theta(\cdot) = \bar{\theta}^{k}(\cdot)}$ is nothing else than, for all time $t \ge 0$,

 $L_{|\bar{\theta}^k(.)}(t): \alpha \mapsto \zeta(t)$ is a mild solution of

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\zeta}(s) = A(\bar{\theta}^k(s))\zeta(s) + B(\bar{\theta}^k(s), z_{|\bar{\theta}^k(t)}(s))\alpha, & s \in [0, t] \\ \zeta(0) = 0 \end{cases}$$
(21)

Here note that in the previous dynamics, $s \mapsto \overline{\theta}^k(s)$ is a function of time, implying a time-dependent operator $s \mapsto A(\overline{\theta}^k(s))$. The existence of a solution for such dynamics

is fundamentally based on the study of evolution equation operator in general [4,
Chapter 5].

As $\dot{\hat{\alpha}}^k = \dot{\bar{\theta}}^k$, and by approximating $z_{|\theta^k|} + \hat{\zeta}^k \simeq z_{|\theta^k|+\hat{\alpha}^k|} = \bar{z}^k$ we could compute the sequential estimator

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\bar{z}}^{k} = A(\bar{\theta}^{k})\bar{z}^{k} + r + L_{|\bar{\theta}^{k}}\dot{\bar{\theta}}^{k}, & t \in [0,T], \\ \dot{\bar{\theta}}^{k} = \frac{1}{\gamma^{2}}\Lambda_{|\theta^{k}}(t)L_{|\theta^{k}}(t)^{*}C^{*}(y_{\gamma} - C\bar{z}^{k}), & t \in [0,T], \\ \bar{z}^{k}(0) = 0 \\ \bar{\theta}^{k}(0) = \bar{\theta}^{k}, \end{cases}$$
(22)

such that at final time $\bar{\theta}^k(T) \simeq \bar{\theta}^{k+1}$.

One drawback in solving (22) is that it necessitates to propagate two sensitivity operators $L_{|\theta^k}$ and $L_{|\bar{\theta}^k}$. Moreover $L_{|\theta^k}$ necessitates to store the complete trajectory $z_{|\theta^k}$. To circumvent these drawbacks, one could imagine to instead solve

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\hat{z}}^{k} = A(\hat{\theta}^{k})\hat{z}^{k} + r + L^{k}\hat{\theta}^{k}, & t \in [0, T], \\ \dot{\hat{\theta}}^{k} = \frac{1}{\gamma^{2}}\Lambda^{k}(t)L^{k}(t)^{*}C^{*}(y_{\gamma} - C\hat{z}^{k}), & t \in [0, T], \\ \hat{z}^{k}(0) = 0 \\ \hat{\theta}^{k}(0) = \hat{\theta}^{k-1}(T) \end{cases}$$
(23)

where, from now on, we simply use the notation $L^{k} = L_{|\hat{\theta}^{k}}$ and $\Lambda^{k} = \Lambda_{|\hat{\theta}^{k}}$ and we see that the sensitivity and the covariance operator are updated through time. Indeed, Λ^{k} is an operator that should be seen as a *mild* solution of the dynamics

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\Lambda}^{k}(t) = -\frac{1}{\gamma^{2}} \Lambda^{k}(t) L^{k}(t)^{*} C^{*} C L_{|\theta}(t) \Lambda^{k}(t), & t \in [0, T] \\ \Lambda^{k}(0) = \frac{M^{2}}{\varepsilon} \Lambda_{0}^{m}, \end{cases}$$
(24)

while L^k can be seen from (21) as a mild solution in $C^0([0,T], \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Z}))$ of

$$\begin{cases} \dot{L}^{k}(t) = A(\hat{\theta}^{k})L^{k}(t) + B(\hat{\theta}^{k}(t), \hat{z}^{k}(t)) & t \in [0, T] \\ L^{k}(0) = 0. \end{cases}$$
(25)

We here recognize in (23) – combined with (24)-(25) – an iterated version of the 300 Reduced-Order-Extended-Kalman-Filter (ROEKF) estimator proposed in [15] for joint 301 state and parameter estimation for wave-like equations, here formally generalized to 302 infinite dimensional systems. One very strong advantage of such an estimator is that 303 it is fully sequential in the sense that it does not require storing any trajectory in 304 the iteration procedure. Note that the existence of a solution of (23) is much more 305 intricate and is based on justifying that L^k is well-defined even for time-dependent 306 parameter $\hat{\theta}^k$. This question is typically covered by the definition of stable families of 307 generators in evolution equation [4], see also [34] for similar questions when defining 308 the Extended Kalman Filter for infinite dimensional systems. 309

In this work, we call iROEKF the proposed iterated ROEKF. However, we must warn the reader that in our case the iteration k is to be considered as an outer loop of the LM descent. This iROEKF is therefore different from the classical iterated Extended Kalman Filter presented in the literature [26].

314 3.2 Space-time-discretized version of the iterated reduced-order Ex-315 tended Kalman Filter

Since we ultimately solve a discretized version of (23), we now present a discretiza-316 tion strategy based on a stable discretization of the Levenberg-Marquardt increment 317 estimator (19). Our discretization strategy is based on the fundamental principle 318 *discretize-then-optimize*, which means that we first discretize the direct problem and 319 then reapply the equivalence of Levenberg-Marquardt and dynamic programming at 320 the discretized level, as recommended in [40]. For (7), we consider a finite-element 321 discretization based on the Spectral Finite Element Method (SFEM) [10] leading to 322 the formulation 323

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h, \quad (\partial_{tt}^2 \boldsymbol{u}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h} + (A_{0h}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})\boldsymbol{u}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h} = (\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h}. \tag{26}$$

To construct the finite dimensional space \mathcal{V}_h we assume given a partition \mathcal{T}_h of quadrangles (in 2D) or hexahedra (in 3D) of the domain Ω , namely

$$\overline{\Omega} = \bigcup_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} K, \quad \forall (K, L) \in \mathcal{T}_h \times \mathcal{T}_h \quad \mathring{K} \cap \mathring{L} = \emptyset,$$

with maximum diameter given by h. Then $\mathcal{V}_h \subset \mathcal{V}$ is obtained using a \mathbb{Q}_k -Lagrangian basis on a set of nodes $\{\xi_i\}_{i=1}^{N_h}$,

$$\mathcal{V}_h = \left(\operatorname{span} \{ \varphi_i \}_{i=1}^{N_h} \right)^3, \quad \forall 1 \le i, j \le N_h, \quad \varphi_i(\xi_j) = \delta_{ij}, \quad \forall K \in \mathcal{T}_h, \ \varphi_{i|K} \circ F_K \in \mathbb{Q}_k.$$

where the mapping from the reference element to any element $K \in \mathcal{T}_h$ is denoted F_K 328 - see [10] for more details. The nodes $\{\xi_i\}$ are obtained using Gauss-Lobatto integration 329 points on a reference square (in 2D) or cube (in 3D). One fundamental aspect of the 330 efficiency of the SFEM is that \mathcal{V}_h is equipped with a scalar product that – using a 331 quadrature formula on the nodes $\{\xi_i\}$ – leads at the algebraic level to a diagonal mass 332 matrix. This is called a mass-lumping strategy and preserves a near-optimal accuracy 333 [17]. The mentioned quadrature formula is also employed to compute the operator 334 $A_h(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})$, thus given by 335

$$\forall (\boldsymbol{u}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h) \in \mathcal{V}_h^2, \quad (A_{0h}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})\boldsymbol{u}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h} = \oiint_{\Omega}^2 \nabla \boldsymbol{u}_h : \mathrm{D}_{\boldsymbol{F}}^2 \mathscr{W}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{F}_{0h}) : \nabla \boldsymbol{w}_h \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x},$$

where $\product stands$ for an integral computed from the quadrature formula, and $F_{0h} =$ $\mathbf{Id} + \nabla u_{h0}$ with u_{h0} an interpolation in \mathcal{V}_h of u_0 . Note that the operator inherits some properties of the operator $A(u_{h0})$, in particular it is self-adjoint. However it is not clear that it satisfies a positivity property of the form (8) for at least two reasons, the interpolation of u_{0h} and the use of the quadrature formula. Therefore we are led to the following assumption that is sufficient to have a well-posed discrete problem,

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h, \quad (A_{0h}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})\boldsymbol{w}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h} \geq 0.$$

The spatial discretization is then followed by an explicit time-discretization. Being given a time step Δt , the solution $\boldsymbol{u}_h(t)$ is approximated at time $t^n = n\Delta t$ by solving

$$\forall \boldsymbol{w}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h, \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{u}_h^{n+1} - 2\boldsymbol{u}_h^n + \boldsymbol{u}_h^{n-1}}{\Delta t^2}, \boldsymbol{w}_h\right)_{\mathcal{V}_h} + (A_{0h}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})\boldsymbol{u}_h^n, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h} = (\Pi_h \boldsymbol{f}(t^n), \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h}, (27)$$

where $\Pi_h \boldsymbol{f}$ is a projection of \boldsymbol{f} in \mathcal{V}_h . Thanks to the mass-lumping strategy the computation of \boldsymbol{u}_h^{n+1} involves – at the algebraic level – only the inversion of a diagonal mass matrix. This discretization is stable for small enough time step Δt , namely the time step must satisfy the CFL condition

$$\Delta t \le 2 \left(\sup_{\boldsymbol{w}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h} \frac{(A_{0h}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h0})\boldsymbol{w}_h, \boldsymbol{w}_h)_{\mathcal{V}_h}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_h\|_{\mathcal{V}_h}^2} \right)^{-1/2}.$$
(28)

The CFL condition depends on the mesh size h (in particular Δt behaves like O(h)) and on the mesh quality but also on the gradient of the displacement field \boldsymbol{u}_{h0} . We can finally rewrite the time-discretization (27) as

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{n+1} - \boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{n}}{\Delta t} = \boldsymbol{v}_{h}^{n+1} \\ \frac{\boldsymbol{v}_{h}^{n+1} - \boldsymbol{v}_{h}^{n}}{\Delta t} + A_{0h}(\theta_{h})\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{n} = \Pi_{h}\boldsymbol{f}(t^{n}) \end{cases}$$
(29)

where we replace the \boldsymbol{u}_{h0} dependency by the $\theta_h \in \mathcal{P}_h \simeq \mathbb{R}^{N_p}$ dependency such that

$$\boldsymbol{u}_{h0} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_p} \theta_{h,j} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{h,j}$$
 with $A_{0h}(0) \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{h,j} = \mu_{h,j} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{h,j}$

namely the $(\mu_{h,j}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{h,j})$ are the eigenelements of the discrete operators $A_{0h}(0)$ (ordered increasingly with respect to the eigenvalues). Then, by defining $z_h^n = (\boldsymbol{u}_h^n, \boldsymbol{v}_h^n)^{\mathsf{T}}$, we rewrite (29) in the following abstract state-space form

$$\begin{cases} z_h^{n+1} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_h) z_h^n + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} \\ z_h^0 = 0 \end{cases}$$
(30)

355 where

$$\Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_h): z_h \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \operatorname{Id}_{\mathcal{V}_h} - \Delta t^2 A_{0h}(\theta_h) & \Delta t \operatorname{Id}_{\mathcal{V}_h} \\ \Delta t A_{0h}(\theta_h) & \operatorname{Id}_{\mathcal{V}_h} \end{pmatrix} z_h \text{ and } r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta t^2 \Pi_h \boldsymbol{f}(t^n) \\ \Delta t \Pi_h \boldsymbol{f}(t^n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Using the time-discretized system (30), we propose to solve the Levenberg-Marquardt procedure

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_h^{k+1} &= \theta_h^k + \alpha_h^k \\ &= \theta_h^k + \left[\mathbf{D}\Psi_{h,N}(\theta^k)^* \mathbf{D}\Psi_{h,N}(\theta^k) + \varepsilon \frac{\gamma^2}{M^2} \Lambda_{0h}^{-m} \right]^{-1} \mathbf{D}\Psi_{h,N}(\theta_h^k)^* (y_\gamma - \Psi_{h,N}(\theta_h^k)), \end{aligned}$$

356 where

$$\Psi_{h,N}: \left\{ \begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}_h \to \ell^2((1:N);\mathcal{Y}) \\ \theta_h \mapsto \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n C_h \Phi_{h,\Delta t}^{n-j}(\theta_h) r_{h,\Delta t}^j \right\}_{n=1}^N \end{aligned} \right\}_{n=1}^N$$

³⁵⁷ which can be equivalently rewritten in the following form

$$\alpha_h^k = \arg\min_{\alpha_h \in \mathcal{P}} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon}{2M^2} \|\alpha_h\|_{\mathcal{P}}^2 + \frac{\Delta t}{2\gamma^2} \|y_\gamma - \Psi_{h,N}(\theta^k) - \mathrm{D}\Psi_{h,N}(\theta_h^k)\alpha_h\|_{\ell^2((1:N);\mathcal{Y})}^2 \right\}.$$
(31)

Then, we define the fully discrete sensitivity operator, for all $n \in [0:N]$, as

$$\begin{split} L_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n} &: \alpha_{h} \mapsto \zeta_{h}^{n} \text{ the solution of} \\ \begin{cases} \zeta_{h}^{j+1} = \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_{h}) z_{h}^{j} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_{h}, z_{h}^{j}) \alpha_{h}, \qquad j \in [0:n-1] \\ \zeta_{h}^{0} = 0 \end{split}$$

359 with

$$B_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_h, z_h)\alpha_h = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta t^2 \mathcal{D}_{\theta} A_{0h}(\theta_h)\alpha_h & 0\\ -\Delta t \mathcal{D}_{\theta} A_{0h}(\theta_h)\alpha_h & 0 \end{pmatrix} z_h$$

Moreover, we define the fully discrete covariance operator $\Lambda_{h|\theta_h}^{k,n}$ satisfying the dynamics

$$\begin{cases} (\Lambda_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1})^{-1} = (\Lambda_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n})^{-1} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} L_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1} C_{h}^{*} C_{h} L_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1}, \qquad n \in [0:N] \\ \Lambda_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,0} = \frac{M^{2}}{\varepsilon} \Lambda_{h0}^{m}. \end{cases}$$

If we now choose to solve from $\hat{\zeta}_h^{k,0} = 0$, and $\hat{\alpha}_h^{k,0} = 0$, for all $k \leq 0$ and $n \in [0: N-1]$

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_{h})\hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\theta_{h}^{k}, z_{h|\theta_{h}^{k}}^{n})\hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,n} \\ \hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}}\Lambda_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1}L_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1*}C_{h}^{*}(y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_{h}z_{h|\theta_{h}^{k}}^{n+1} - C_{h}\hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) \\ \hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + L_{h|\theta_{h}}^{k,n+1}(\hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,n+1} - \hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,n}) \end{cases}$$
(32)

where the "n-" and "n" exponents correspond to the two steps of a splitting timescheme for $\hat{\zeta}_h^{k,n}$ – where the "n-" step is often referred as the prediction (or forecast) step and the "n" step is referred as the correction (or analysis) step – we have at the discrete level the following equivalence proved in [40].

Theorem 2. At every iteration k of the Levenberg-Marquardt minimization, we have

$$\hat{\alpha}_{h}^{k,N} = \alpha_{h}^{k} \text{ and } \hat{\zeta}_{h}^{k,N} = \zeta_{h|\theta^{k},\alpha^{k}}^{N}$$
(33)

The last theorem helps to understand that we keep at the discrete-time level the 367 same equivalence between the least square minimization of a discretized criterion and 368 the sequential approach. Therefore pursuing the same strategy than for the continuous-369 time level leads us to defining the Discrete-Time iterated Reduced Order Extended 370 Kalman Filter (DT-iROEKF) as an approximation of the Levenberg-Marquardt min-371 imization strategy for discrete-time dynamics. The resulting joint state-parameter 372 sequential estimator based on this DT-iROEKF is initialized from $\hat{z}_h^k = 0, \hat{\theta}_h^{k,0} = \hat{\theta}_h^{k-1,N}$ if k > 1 and $\hat{\theta}_h^{1,0} = \hat{\theta}_{0h}$, while $L^{k,0} = 0, \Lambda^{k,0} = \varepsilon^{-1} M^2 \Lambda_{h0}^m$. Then the recursive dynamics reads for all $k \ge 1$ and for all $n \in [0:N-1]$ 373 374 375

— Prediction / Forecast:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1}, \\ L_{h}^{k,n+1} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})L_{h}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n},\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}). \end{cases}$$

— Correction / Analysis:

$$\begin{cases} (\Lambda_h^{k,n+1})^{-1} = (\Lambda_h^{k,n})^{-1} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} L_h^{k,n+1} C_h^* C_h L_h^{k,n+1}, \\ \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} \Lambda_h^{k,n+1} L_h^{k,n+1*} C_h^* (y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_h \hat{z}_h^{k,n+1-}), \\ \hat{z}_h^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_h^{k,n+1-} + L_h^{k,n+1} (\hat{\theta}_h^{k,n+1} - \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n}). \end{cases}$$

Here again, the approximation relies on the fact that the sensitivity and the covariances are computed sequentially from the current estimation $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}$.

378 3.3 From a square root to a tangent-free formulation

We are now ready to formulate a practical implementation of our DT-iROEKF. In this respect, we recast the DT-iROEKF formulation into a so-called square-root form as commonly done in data assimilation for the robust implementation of the Kalman approaches [11]. Then we show how we can replace, up to second-order terms, the tangent computations by finite difference scheme over wave solution, hence leading to an original tangent-free approach.

³⁸⁵ The SEEK algorithm for parameter identification.

In this section, we start by formulating a square-root approach of the reduced-order Extended Kalman filter that we are going to apply to our state-parameter decomposition. This strategy is an adaption to parameter estimation of the square root algorithm initially presented in [13]. Following their strategy, we choose to store not $L_h^{k,n}$ but $L_h^{k,n}D_h^{k,n}$ with $D_h^{k,n}$ a Cholesky factorization of $\Lambda_h^{k,n}$. More precisely, we define

$$D_h^{k,n} := \operatorname{chol}(\Lambda_h^{k,n}) \text{ namely } \Lambda_h^{k,n} = D_h^{k,n} D_h^{k,n*}$$
(34)

$$S_h^{k,n} := L_h^{k,n} D_h^{k,n} \tag{35}$$

$$S_h^{k,n+1-} := L_h^{k,n+1} D_h^{k,n} (36)$$

Note that $D_h^{k,n}$ can be equivalently represented as a collection of N_p members

$$\{D_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_p} \in \mathcal{P}_h$$

that can be seen as the "columns" of the matrix representations of the operator. Each member is comparable to a parameter increment around the observer trajectory $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}$, hence is associated with a reconstructed displacement

$$oldsymbol{u}_{0h} = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq \mathrm{N}_p} D_{h,ij}^{k,n} oldsymbol{arphi}_{h,ij} oldsymbol{arphi}_{h,ij}$$

with $\varphi_{h,i}$ the normalized eigenvectors of the operator A_{0h} . In the same manner $S_h^{k,n}$ and $S_h^{k,n+1-}$ can be equivalently represented as a collection of N_p members

$$\{S_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_p} \in \mathcal{Z}_h$$

Each member is comparable to the variation of a wave solution for the specific parameter increment $D_{h,j}^{k,n}$. We are going to prove the following recursive dynamics, defining again a splitting time-scheme with one prediction step followed by a correction step.

Theorem 3. For all $k \ge 1$ and for all $n \in [0: N - 1]$, we define the Gramian operator $G^{k,n}$ by

$$G^{k,n} = \mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{Y}} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} C_h S_h^{k,n-} S_h^{k,n-*} C_h^*$$

and we denote by $Q^{k,n}$ the Cholesky decomposition of $(G^{k,n})^{-1} = Q^{k,n}Q^{k,n*}$. With these notations, we obtain the following dynamics:

394 — Prediction / Forecast:

$$S_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_h^{k,n}) S_{h,j}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_h^{k,n}, \hat{z}_h^{k,n}) D_{h,j}^{k,n}, \quad \forall j \in [1:N_p].$$
(37)

395 — Correction / Analysis:

$$S_{h}^{k,n+1} = S_{h}^{k,n+1-}Q^{k,n+1}, \quad and \quad D_{h}^{k,n+1} = D_{h}^{k,n}Q^{k,n+1}.$$
(38)

Proof. We proceed by induction. This is true at n = 0 since $L_h^{k,0} = 0$. Let us now assume that (37) and (38) are valid at iteration n. For the prediction step, we have for all $j \in [1:N_p]$,

$$\begin{split} S_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= L_{h,j}^{k,n+1} D_{h,j}^{k,n} \\ &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) L_{h,j}^{k,n} D_{h,j}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) D_{h,j}^{k,n} \\ &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) S_{h,j}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) D_{h,j}^{k,n} \end{split}$$

so that (37) is satisfied at iteration n. From Woodbury inversion formula, we have that

$$(G^{k,n+1})^{-1} = \left(\mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{Y}} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} C_h S_h^{k,n+1-} S_h^{k,n+1-*} C_h^* \right)^{-1}$$

= $\mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{P}_h} - \Delta t \, S_h^{k,n+1-*} C_h^* [\gamma^2 \mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{Y}} + \Delta t \, C_h S_h^{k,n+1-} S_h^{k,n+1-*} C_h^*]^{-1} C_h S_h^{k,n+1-}$
= $Q^{k,n+1} Q^{k,n+1*}$

Therefore if we now define $D_h^{k,n+1} = D_h^{k,n}Q^{k,n+1}$ then

$$D_{h}^{k,n+1}D_{h}^{k,n+1*} = D_{h}^{k,n}Q^{k,n+1}Q^{k,n+1*}D_{h}^{k,n}$$

= $\Lambda_{h}^{k,n}$
- $\Delta t\Lambda_{h}^{k,n}L_{h}^{k,n+1*}C_{h}^{*}[\gamma^{2}\mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{Y}} + \Delta tC_{h}L_{h}^{k,n+1}\Lambda_{h}^{k,n}L_{h}^{k,n+1*}C_{h}^{*}]^{-1}C_{h}L_{h}^{k,n+1}$

which, with a second use of Woodbury inversion formula gives $D_h^{k,n+1}D_h^{k,n+1*} = \Lambda_h^{k,n+1}$. Finally, we have that

$$S_{h}^{k,n+1} = L_{h}^{k,n+1} D_{h}^{k,n+1} = L_{h}^{k,n+1} D_{h}^{k,n} Q^{k,n+1} = S_{h}^{k,n+1-} Q^{k,n+1},$$

³⁹⁶ which concludes the proof.

Note that in practice, one can use the component-wise expression of the Gramian matrix, namely

$$G_{ij}^{k,n} = \delta_{ij} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} (C_h S_{h,i}^{k,n-}, C_h S_{h,j}^{k,n-}) \mathcal{Y}, \quad \forall 1 \le i, j \le \mathcal{N}_p.$$

In the same fashion, we have

$$S_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le \mathcal{N}_p} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} S_{h,i}^{k,n+1-}, \quad \text{and} \quad D_{h,i}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le \mathcal{N}_p} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} D_{h,i}^{k,n}.$$

From the previous theorem, we then easily verify that the DT-iROEKF estimator can be computed using only $S_h^{k,n-}$, $S_h^{k,n}$ and $D_h^{k,n}$ with 399 — Prediction / Forecast:

$$\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1},$$
(39)

— Correction / Analysis:

$$\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} D_{h}^{k,n+1} S_{h}^{k,n+1*} C_{h}^{*} (y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_{h} \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}),$$
(40)

$$\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} S_{h}^{k,n+1} S_{h}^{k,n+1*} C_{h}^{*} (y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_{h} \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}).$$
(41)

And again in practice, solving (40) and (41) is performed by developing

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{p}} (C_{h} S_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_{h} \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) \mathcal{Y} D_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, \\ \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{p}} (C_{h} S_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C_{h} \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) \mathcal{Y} S_{h,j}^{k,n+1}. \end{cases}$$

⁴⁰⁰ A tangent-free alternative.

Ultimately, (37) can be seen as the tangent equation of

$$S_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})S_{h,j}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n})D_{h,j}^{k,n}$$

$$= \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})(\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + S_{h,j}^{k,n}) + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n})D_{h,j}^{k,n} - \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}$$

$$= \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + D_{h,j}^{k,n})(\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + S_{h,j}^{k,n}) - \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + O(||D_{h,j}^{k,n}||^{2})$$

$$= \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + D_{h,j}^{k,n})(\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + S_{h,j}^{k,n}) + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} - \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + O(||D_{h,j}^{k,n}||^{2}).$$
(42)

⁴⁰¹ Therefore, by computing the forecast of each member $S_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}$ by a finite difference ⁴⁰² between two wave equations, we do not need to compute the operator $B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_h^{k,n}, \hat{z}_h^{k,n+1})$. ⁴⁰³ This means that the forecast step can be performed by simply forecasting $\hat{z}_h^{k,n}$ and ⁴⁰⁴ each member $S_{h,j}^{k,n}$.

405 3.4 The Reduced-Order UKF alternative

In the DT-iROEKF approach, we have seen that we can propagate the estimator $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}$, $\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}$ and the increment set $\{S_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}\}_{j=1}^{N_p}$ and $\{D_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}\}_{j=1}^{N_p}$. These increments give the sensitivity direction around the estimator $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}$, $\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}$. Revisiting [9, 19], the 406 407 408 Reduced-Order Unscented Kalman alternative (ROUKF) to ROEKF, we are going to 400 replace the computation of the increment sets by sets of so-called sigma-points around 410 $\hat{\theta}_h^{\vec{k},n}$ and $\hat{z}_h^{k,n}$ so that the estimator is computed by an averaging formula like in a 411 finite difference stencil. In essence, while EKF propagates a point-estimator and N_p 412 directions around this point-estimator, UKF computes a stencil of sigma-points such 413 that the point-estimator is a resulting average of this point. In practice we will need 414 at least $N_s = N_p + 1$ sigma-points when using a simplex stencil, but more complex 415 stencils with $N_s \ge N_p + 1$ can also be proposed with additional trajectories to be 416 computed. Note that our presentation clarifies the generalization of ROUKF to general 417 complex stencil initially proposed in [19, 20]. This may be of particular interest since 418 increasing the number of sigma points results in a potentially more precise sampling 419 and rendering of the sensitivity directions around the estimator. 420

⁴²¹ Empirical mean and empirical covariance.

422 Let us introduce a set of strictly positive weights $\beta = \{\beta_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s} \in (\mathbb{R}^*_+)^{N_s}$ such that

$$\sum_{1 \le j \le \mathcal{N}_s} \beta_j = 1$$

From this set of weights, we introduce the following weight averaging operator defined, for all sample set $\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s} \in \mathcal{X}^{N_s}$ of elements of a Hilbert space \mathcal{X} (typically $\mathcal{Z}_h, \mathcal{P}_h$

424 for an sample set $\{s_j\}_{j=1} \in \mathcal{X}$ of elements of a finder space \mathcal{X} (typically $\mathcal{Z}_h, \mathcal{F}_h$ 425 or \mathcal{Y}), by

$$\mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}) = \sum_{1 \le j \le N_s} \beta_j s_j \in \mathcal{Z}.$$

This can be understood as an empirical mean of the $\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$. In the same fashion, we define the empirical covariance as the following linear operator

$$\mathbb{P}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_s}): \mathcal{X} \ni s \mapsto \sum_{1 \le j \le \mathcal{N}_s} \beta_j \left(s, s_j - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_s})\right)_{\mathcal{X}} \left(s_j - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_s})\right) \in \mathcal{X},$$

where $(\cdot, \cdot)_{\mathcal{X}}$ is the scalar product in \mathcal{X} . As soon as we are considering a finitedimensional Euclidian space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^{N_x}$, then

$$\mathbb{P}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}) = \sum_{1 \le j \le N_s} \beta_j(s_j - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}))(s_j - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{s_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}))^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

- ⁴³⁰ Sampling around the observer trajectory.
- Let us now introduce a scaling factor $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^*_+$ and define a particular finite sequence of sigma-points $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$ in the parameter space \mathcal{P}_h such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_s}) = 0 \text{ and } \mathbb{P}_{\beta}(\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_s}) = \frac{1}{\varrho^2} \mathrm{Id}_{\mathcal{P}_h}.$$

⁴³³ Note that by choosing $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$ such that $\|e_j\|_{\mathcal{P}}^2 = O(1)$ then $\varrho = O(N_p^{-\frac{1}{2}})$. Again, ⁴³⁴ defining $D_h^{k,n}$ such as $\Lambda_h^{k,n} = D_h^{k,n} D_h^{k,n*}$ – namely $D_h^{k,n}$ can be the square root of $\Lambda_h^{k,n}$ ⁴³⁵ or a Cholesky decomposition – and using $L_h^{k,n}$ at iteration n, we define the sampling ⁴³⁶ operation as constructing the following set of trajectories

$$\forall j \in [1:N_s], \quad \begin{cases} \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} = \hat{z}_h^{k,n} + \rho L_h^{k,n} D_h^{k,n} e_j, \\ \hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n} = \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n} + \rho D_h^{k,n} e_j, \end{cases}$$
(43)

437 such that, by construction,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{N_s}) = \hat{z}_h^{k,n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{N_s}) = \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n}$$

438 while

$$\mathbb{P}_{\beta}(\{\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_{s}}) = L_{h}^{k,n} \Lambda_{h}^{k,n} L_{h}^{k,n*} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}_{\beta}(\{\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_{s}}) = \Lambda_{h}^{k,n}$$

Different kinds of sigma-points can be used to perform this sampling operation – see for
instance [19]. In *Figure 1* we illustrate three different (albeit standard) sets of sigmapoints, and we compare it with the sampling strategy derived from the tangent-free
EKF approach presented in the previous section.



Figure 1. Definition of standard sigma-points for the simple case of $\mathcal{P} = \mathbb{R}^2$ and comparison with the state and sensitivity trajectories associated with the tangent-free EKF approach.

⁴⁴³ Prediction step of the reduced-order UKF.

The prediction step of the reduced-order UKF is simply obtained by propagating $\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n}$ using the discretized dynamics, namely

$$\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} = \Phi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1}$$

⁴⁴⁴ Using the empirical average operator, we can derive the state and parameter sensitivity

⁴⁴⁵ around the estimator trajectory, namely we define the predictions

$$\forall j \in [1:N_s], \quad \begin{cases} \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}\}_{j=1}^{N_s}), \\ \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n} &= \hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n})\}_{j=1}^{N_s}. \end{cases}$$
(44)

From its definition, and using the definition of the sampling operation (43), one can
easily verify that the parameter sensitivity satisfies

$$\Delta_{h,j}^{k,n} = \rho D_h^{k,n} e_j, \quad \forall j \in [1: \mathcal{N}_s].$$

$$\tag{45}$$

- ⁴⁴⁸ The next lemma gives us a similar result for the state sensitivity.
- **Lemma 4.** The predicted state sensitivity defined in (44) satisfies

$$\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} = \varrho L_h^{k,n+1} D_h^{k,n} e_j + O(\varrho^2).$$
(46)

Proof. On the one hand, the state prediction of each sigma-point satisfies for any $j \in [1:N_s]$,

$$\begin{split} \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n}) \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} \\ &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} + \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) (\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}) \\ &\quad + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}) (\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) + O(\varrho^{2}). \end{split}$$

450 On the other hand, we can introduce

$$\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} = \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}) = \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1}\}_{j=1}^{\mathcal{N}_{s}}),$$

⁴⁵¹ and a Taylor expansion gives

$$\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} = \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1} + O(\varrho^{2}).$$

Using the sampling operations defined in (43) we obtain

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} - \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} \\ &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})(\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}) + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n})(\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}) + O(\varrho^{2}) \\ &= \varrho(\varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n})L_{h}^{k,n} + B_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}, \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n}))D_{h}^{k,n}e_{j} + O(\varrho^{2}) \\ &= \varrho L_{h}^{k,n+1}D_{h}^{k,n}e_{j} + O(\varrho^{2}). \end{split}$$

452

⁴⁵³ Correction step of the reduced-order UKF.

From the relations (45) and (46) we see that – up to second order terms – storing $\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}$ and $\Delta_{h,j}^{k,n}$ is equivalent to the storing $S_h^{k,n+1-}$ and $D_h^{k,n}$ except that $N_s > N_p$. Then, following the definition of the correction (or analysis) step of the SEEK algorithm, namely (38), we propagate the state and parameter sensitivity through

$$\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le N_s} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} \Sigma_{h,i}^{k,n+1-} \text{ and } \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le N_s} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} \Delta_{h,i}^{k,n},$$

where for all $n, Q^{k,n} \in \mathbb{M}_{N_s}(\mathbb{R})$ is given by the Cholesky decomposition of $(G^{k,n})^{-1} = Q^{k,n}Q^{k,n*}$ a Gramian matrix defined by

$$G_{ij}^{k,n} = \delta_{ij} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} (C_h \Sigma_{h,i}^{k,n-}, C_h \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n-}) \mathcal{Y}, \quad \forall i, j \in [1:\mathbf{N}_s].$$

Using the same analogy, the corrected estimator can be rewritten in the form

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{s}} (C\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) \mathcal{Y} \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, \\ \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{s}} (C\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) \mathcal{Y} \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}. \end{cases}$$

Furthermore, with a proof very similar to the proof of *Theorem 3* (introducing in finite dimension the matrix $E = [e_1| \cdots |e_{N_s}]$ and concatenating in columns the sigma-points $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$), one can verify that for all $j \in [1:N_s]$,

$$\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \varrho L_h^{k,n+1} D_h^{k,n+1} e_j + O(\varrho^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \varrho D_h^{k,n+1} e_j + O(\varrho^2).$$
(47)

Hence, $\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}$ and $\Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1}$ are equivalent to $S_h^{k,n+1}$ and $D_h^{k,n+1}$, up to second order terms, as for the prediction step. Once again, the only – but fundamental – difference compared to the EKF version is the fact that the Gramian is defined in $\mathbb{M}_{N_s}(\mathbb{R})$ instead of $\mathbb{M}_{N_p}(\mathbb{R})$. Note that, one important aspect of the relations (47) is that it enables us to rewrite the sampling operation (43) exclusively in terms of the computed state and parameter sensitivities. Namely, we recreate the sample at n + 1 by discarding second-order terms in the following relations

$$\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1} + \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1} + O(\varrho^2), \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1} + O(\varrho^2).$$

We provide in *Figure 2* an illustration of its main steps, in order to fully apprehend the various unknowns appearing in the algorithm.

- ⁴⁶³ Final algorithm.
- ⁴⁶⁴ We can now summarize the complete algorithm used in this work.

The Discrete-Time iterated Reduced-Order Unscented Kalman Filter (DT-iROUKF)

- ▶ Choice of the UKF sigma-points {e_j}_{j=1}^{N_s} and the associated weights {β_j}_{j=1}^{N_s}.
 ▶ Initialization of the parameter prior from the modal decomposition

$$\hat{oldsymbol{u}}_0(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq \mathrm{N}_p} \hat{ heta}_{0h,j} oldsymbol{arphi}_j(\mathbf{x})$$

- ▶ For all $k \ge 1$ until convergence:
 - Initialization at n = 0:
 - \hookrightarrow Parameter initialization:

$$\hat{\theta}_h^{k,0} = \hat{\theta}_h^{k-1,N} \quad \text{if } k > 1, \quad \hat{\theta}_h^{1,0} = \hat{\theta}_{0h} \quad \text{otherwise}.$$

 \hookrightarrow Parameter and state particles initialization:

- For $0 \le n \le N$:
- \hookrightarrow Prediction step:

Æ

$$\forall j \in [1:\mathbf{N}_s], \quad \begin{cases} \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= \varPhi_{h,\Delta t}(\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n})\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n} + r_{h,\Delta t}^{n+1}, \\ \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} &= \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}\}_{j=1}^{\mathbf{N}_s}), \\ \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n} &= \hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n} - \mathbb{E}_{\beta}(\{\hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{\mathbf{N}_s}). \end{cases}$$

 \hookrightarrow Correction step:

- Compute Gramian matrix and Cholesky decomposition of its inverse:

$$\begin{cases} G^{k,n+1} = (\delta_{ij} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^2} (C_h \Sigma_{h,i}^{k,n+1-}, C_h \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1-}) \mathcal{Y})_{1 \le i,j \le N_s}, \\ Q^{k,n+1} = \operatorname{chol}((G^{k,n+1})^{-1}). \end{cases}$$

Compute corrected sensitivity matrices:

$$j \in [1:\mathbf{N}_{s}], \quad \begin{cases} \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le \mathbf{N}_{p}} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} \Sigma_{h,i}^{k,n+1-} \\ \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \sum_{1 \le i \le \mathbf{N}_{p}} Q_{ij}^{k,n+1} \Delta_{h,i}^{k,n}. \end{cases}$$

- Compute corrected state and parameter:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{s}} (C\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) y \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1} \\ \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-} + \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma^{2}} \sum_{1 \le j \le N_{s}} (C\Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, y_{\gamma}^{n+1} - C\hat{z}_{h}^{k,n+1-}) y \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1} \end{cases}$$

 \hookrightarrow Sampling step:

$$\forall j \in [1:\mathbf{N}_s], \quad \begin{cases} \hat{\theta}_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \hat{\theta}_h^{k,n+1} + \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n+1}, \\ \hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1} = \hat{z}^{k,n+1} + \Sigma_{h,j}^{k,n+1}. \end{cases}$$

Additionally, for output purposes, we can re-define up to second-order terms the

parameter covariance operator from the stored $\{\Delta_{h,j}^{k,n}\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$ and $\{\hat{z}_{h,j}^{n+1-}\}_{j=1}^{N_s}$:

$$\Lambda_h^{k,n}: \mathcal{P}_h \ni \theta \mapsto \sum_{1 \le j \le \mathcal{N}_s} \beta_j (\Delta_{h,j}^{k,n}, \theta)_{\mathcal{P}} \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n} \in \mathcal{P}_h.$$

In the same fashion, the parameter sensitivity operator reads

$$L_h^{k,n+1}: \mathcal{P}_h \ni \theta \mapsto \sum_{1 \le j \le \mathcal{N}_s} \beta_j((\Lambda_h^{k,n})^{-1}\theta, \Delta_{h,j}^{k,n})_{\mathcal{P}}(\hat{z}_{h,j}^{k,n+1-} - \hat{z}_h^{k,n+1-}) \in \mathcal{Z}_h.$$



Figure 2. Illustration of the main steps of the reduced-order UKF algorithm in the specific case of $\mathcal{P} = \mathbb{R}^2$ and focusing specifically on the state estimation part.



Figure 3. Parallel implementation of the DT-iROUKF in AKILLES.

Finally let us give some implementation details, see also Figure ??. We implemented the DT-iROUKF algorithm in a specific Python library called $AKILLES^1$ based on the message passing library $\oslash MQ^2$. The objective of this library is to couple the estimator library with any model, written in any language that can receive and send

¹https://gitlab.inria.fr/AKILLES/AKILLES ²https://zeromq.org

vector quantities through \oslash MQ. In AKILLES, the Gramian, Cholesky decomposition. 460 corrected states and parameters are computed by the main process of AKILLES called 470 Agamemnon who communicates through $\oslash MQ$ with Achilles' army of Murmidons – 471 here they represent wave solvers built upon the SFEM kernel of the commercial 472 software $CIVA^3$. The physical outputs are finally processed after the correction step by 473 the process Achilles, a specific Myrmidon wave solver in CIVA in charge of extra output 474 computations. Note that the non-linear mechanical deformation and the corresponding 475 modal decomposition are initially computed using the Finite Element Library MoReFEM⁴ 476

477 for solving large deformation mechanical problems.

478 4 Numerical results

In this section, we illustrate the use of the presented algorithm for estimating the 479 deformation caused by the mechanical loading in structures using GW measurements. 480 Three different cases are presented in increasing order of complexity. The first case is 481 a small-scale problem with the objective of testing the robustness and analyzing the 482 estimation results of the proposed strategies. The second case is an aluminum plate 483 under traction forces based on an experiment [23] done in the context of acoustoelasticity 484 to retrieve the material third-order elastic constants. The third case is a pipe subjected 485 to a 4-point bending test based on an experiment [31] related to the detection of 486 welding defects under operational conditions employing ultrasound. All the illustrated 487 cases are presented with the structure described below. 488

⁴⁸⁹ Noisy synthetic data generation.

First, let us describe the numerical experimental setup for generating noisy synthetic data, and comprising mechanical loading, ultrasonic excitation and signal aquisition. A quasi-static structural problem is defined to compute the structural deformation caused by mechanical loading. For all the cases, the constitutive behavior of the material is modeled by the Compressible Neo Hookean (CNH) hyperelastic law. With λ and μ being the Lamé parameters, its hyperelastic potential reads

$$\mathscr{W}^{\text{CNH}} = \frac{\lambda}{2}(\sqrt{I_3} - 1)^2 + \frac{\mu}{2}(I_1 - 3 - \log(I_3)),$$

with $I_1 = \operatorname{tr} C$ and $I_3 = \det C$ being invariants of the right Cauchy-Green deformation 490 tensor $C = F^{\mathsf{T}} F$. The mesh, type of forces and boundary conditions configuring the 491 quasi-static problem are given for every configurations considered in the following. 492 After defining the configuration for the structural deformation problem, we define the 493 configuration for the excitation, propagation and measurement of ultrasonic waves. A 494 force acting upon the outer surface generates a wavefield radially with respect to the 495 structure surface. It represents a force f defined in a sufficiently thin layer on the outer 496 surface. Its ring geometry has an inner radius of 10mm and an outer radius of 20mm. 497 The excitation signal is a 5-cycle cosine Hanning windowed at a specific frequency for 498 each case. We consider zero initial conditions for the wavefield. The observation data 499 are generated by using the operator in (10) with the domain ω_i defined upon the outer 500 surface as a sufficiently thin layer in which the wavefield does no vary in the thickness 501 direction. This amounts to modeling a point or surface probe with specific sensitivity. 502 One may note that during the estimation procedure, as the estimated deformation 503 changes while the wave propagation problem is running, the CFL condition (28) also 504 changes. However, the time step is computed once at the initialization and this changes 505

⁴https://gitlab.inria.fr/MoReFEM

³https://www.extende.com

⁵⁰⁶ may cause numerical instability. To avoid such an issue, the time step is computed to ⁵⁰⁷ satisfy the CFL condition for the expected deformation extrema.

To emulate signals obtained from an acquisition system in real scenarios, we generate synthetic observation data using the target deformation and the wave propagation solver. Gaussian noise is added to the simulated data to represent potential electronic and environmental noise. The Gaussian noise is added to the simulated measurements as

$$y_{\gamma,i}^n = \check{y}_i^n + \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\Delta t}} \|\check{y}_i\|_{\ell_2} \chi_i^n$$

where χ_i^n is a realization of a random variable with distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. The noise level is set by adjusting γ .

⁵¹⁰ Reducing the parametric space using mode decomposition.

To represent the parametric space on a reduced basis, we use the eigenmodes of the quasi-static problem as defined in (11). First, we compute a finite set of eigenmodes \mathcal{I} ordered in ascending eigenvalue order, *i.e.* from the lower to highest spatial frequency. A reduced parametric space for reconstructing the deformation is selected as a subset $\mathcal{I}^* \subset \mathcal{I}$. This selection is made by having a guess \boldsymbol{u}_0^* of the deformation decomposed in the eigenbasis of \mathcal{I} and selecting the smallest subset \mathcal{I}^* that satisfy a representation error criterion. More precisely, by decomposing \boldsymbol{u}_0^* in the eigenmodes of \mathcal{I} we select a set of modes associated with the components θ_i^* that have a minimum relative ℓ_2 -error τ^* defined as

$$\tau^{\star} = \frac{\|\boldsymbol{u}_{0}^{\star} - \sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}^{\star}} \theta_{j}^{\star} \boldsymbol{\varphi}_{j}\|}{\|\boldsymbol{u}_{0}^{\star}\|}.$$

To better visualize the relevance of the selected modes we plot the representation error for the first m modes in \mathcal{I} , namely $1 - \tau_m$, where

$$au_m = rac{\|oldsymbol{u}_0^\star - \sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}_m} \ heta_j^\star oldsymbol{arphi}_j\|}{\|oldsymbol{u}_0^\star\|}$$

and \mathcal{I}_m being the set of the *m* lowest frequency modes in \mathcal{I} .

⁵¹² Initializing the estimator.

To initialize the estimator, we must give an *a priori* parameter and its covariance. Even though one could use θ^* as an *a priori* parameter value, we set $\hat{\theta}_h^{1,0}$ to zero in order to test the robustness of our estimator with respect to the initial guess. Regarding the initial covariance, we consider that $\max_{i \in \mathcal{I}^*} \theta_i^*$ is a relevant estimation of the standard deviation of the lowest frequencies, assuming that the lowest frequency is the most relevant for reconstruction. Then, the initial covariance Λ_0 is computed as, based on (14),

$$(\Lambda_0)_{ij} = \frac{\lambda_i^2}{\lambda_{\min}^2} (\max_{i \in \mathcal{I}^\star} \theta_i^\star)^2 \delta_{ij}, \quad \forall i, j \in \mathcal{I}^\star,$$

where the subscript min is associated with the lowest-frequency component in \mathcal{I}^* . The constant M used to normalize the regularization term is computed as

$$M = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}^{\star}} \frac{\lambda_{\min}^2}{\lambda_i^2}.$$

Finally, the constant ε , which weights the regularization and misfit terms, is adjusted for each case. The parameter *m* appearing in the parametric space norm is set as m = 1.

⁵¹⁶ Presentation of the estimation results.

At each outer iteration k of our estimator, the last estimated parameter $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k-1,N}$ is used as an initial parameter for the next one $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,0}$ while the initial covariance restarts at Λ_0 . We plot for each case the evolution in $n \in [1:N]$ of the estimated parameters $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k,n}$ and a region representing an estimation of the associated standard deviation $\sqrt{(\Lambda^{k,n+1})_{ii}}$. Regarding the later, the initial covariance is propagated through the estimation process while retrieving information from the observations. It provides qualitative information about how the uncertainty evolves, although a quantitative interpretation of this uncertainty must be considered carefully.

525 Sensitivity analysis.

Instead of using the subset \mathcal{I}^* , the estimation could be done using a larger set of eigenmodes, \mathcal{I} for instance, eliminating the need for \boldsymbol{u}_0^* . However, the ill-posedness of the problem combined with the potential instability of the forward model, as the estimated pre-deformation varies in time, makes it unviable. To circumvent this difficulty, we assume to know a set \mathcal{I}^* of eigenmodes that best represents the target deformation. Nonetheless, one may like to gather \mathcal{I}^* directly from the measurements, instead of using \boldsymbol{u}_0^* . As an attempt to do so, we perform a sensitivity analysis using one Levenberg-Marquardt iteration of the proposed estimator and the set \mathcal{I} . As we run the estimator in the whole set \mathcal{I} , we must avoid instability by constraining the trajectory $\hat{\theta}_h^{1,n}$. This can be done by setting the covariance as

$$(\Lambda_0)_{ii} = \gamma^2 = 10^{-8}$$

with a parameter $\varepsilon = 1$, initially. Although at the end of the iteration the estimated $\hat{\theta}_h^{1,N}$ have no quantitative significance, it still retains qualitative information relating the parametric space to the observations. To visualize and assess this relation, we plot the normalized estimated parameters at the end of the estimation,

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_{h,i}^{1,N}}{\max_{i\in\mathcal{I}}\hat{\theta}_{h,i}^{1,N}}, \quad \forall i\in\mathcal{I},$$

as well as the estimated parameters $\hat{\theta}_{h,i}^{1,n}$ over time. Additionally to the estimated values, the covariance matrix is also an output of the estimation process and can be used for this purpose. We plot its normalized inverse,

$$(\Lambda_0^{-\frac{1}{2}})\left((\Lambda^{0,N})^{-1} - \Lambda_0^{-1}\right)(\Lambda_0^{-\frac{1}{2}}),$$

⁵²⁶ representing the normalized Gramian matrix, related to the system's observability [3].

527 4.1 Results and discussion

528 4.1.1 A test case on robustness to noise

To illustrate and test the estimator robustness to noise, we model an aluminum cube of dimensions $60 \times 60 \times 60 \text{ mm}^3$. The configuration for the quasi-static problem is shown in *Figure 4a*. The target deformation shown in *Figure 4b* is computed by solving the quasi-static problem for a body force of 50N/mm³ in the Y direction.

From zero initial conditions, the wave field is excited at one of its faces at 100kHz in a ring region as described previously. The configuration for the wave propagation model is depicted in *Figure 5a*, where the characteristic Gauss-Lobatto points of the SFEM discretization are represented. Examples of extracted signals are plotted in *Figure 5b*. In this case, the observations are point measurements at ten positions,





where the three components of the displacement field are obtained. Considering the definition of the observation operator (10), ω_i is a sufficiently small volume for which the displacement field is considered constant. The three components are taken as sensitivity d_i , resulting in d = 30, the number of measured signals. Each face, except the excited one, has two measurement points on the surface at a distance of 15 mm from the edges. We run the wave propagation solver up to 100μ s to generate the synthetic observation data. In *Figure 5b* we show the extracted field components for the point located at (15,15,0).



(a) Configuration of the wave propagation problem. An example of the wave field is illustrated.

545

(b) Example of measured signals (three components) at (15,15,0).

Figure 5. Configuration and examples of measured signals for the wave propagation problem. The measurement regions are represented in blue and the excited region in red.

To test the effect of noise in the estimation, different sets of observed data are constructed with different levels of noise $\gamma = [10^{-4}, 0.01, 0.1, 0.2]$. Examples of the different levels of added noise are shown in *Figure 6*.

The eigenmodes associated with the hundred lowest eigenvalues are computed, embodying \mathcal{I} . We decompose a guess of the deformation generated by an axial body



Figure 6. Example of different noise levels added to the synthetic data for the cube case.

force with low amplitude, $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}^{\star}$, in the basis associated with \mathcal{I} . Using this decomposition we plot $1 - \tau_m$ and the associated relevant modes in *Figure 7*. Then, the most relevant modes can be selected and are therefore highlighted, making, for $\tau^{\star} = 0.01$, $\mathcal{I}^{\star} =$ $\{3, 15, 19, 36, 39, 47, 90, 98\}$, meaning that with 8 selected modes we can reconstruct 99% of its deformation.



(b) Deformation associated with the relevant (a) Reconstruction error per number of modes. eigenmodes.



We run the estimation algorithm for the different noise levels γ . We first use $\varepsilon = 1$ as the regularization and misfit terms in function (16) are normalized. The iterative process is shown in *Figure 8* with the time evolution of the estimated parameters $\hat{\theta}_h^k$. To illustrate the evolution of the estimated deformation, we reconstruct it at given iterations and time and compare it with the target deformation in *Figure 9*, for the case with $\gamma = 0.2$.

562 Discussion.

At relatively low noise levels ($\gamma \leq 0.01$), the estimate converges in one iteration, and at each subsequent iteration, the estimate deviates slightly from the converged value and converges again. At higher noise levels ($\gamma \geq 0.1$), a few iterations may be required to converge with significant errors w.r.t. the target, although it presents a good estimation of the reconstructed deformation, as shown in *Figure 9*. In addition, the estimator updates the estimated parameter at a lower rate as γ increases, as we can see in the

case of $\gamma = 0.2$. This is due to the fact that γ weights the mismatch term, as can be 560 seen in (16), and gives less credibility to the observed data when noise increases. In 570 such a case, the parameter ε can be adjusted to increase the rate at which the estimator 571 updates the parameter based on the observed data. For example, we set $\varepsilon = 0.025$ and 572 show the corresponding estimate in *Figure 10*. We can see that when the update rate 573 is increased, the noise causes larger instabilities in the estimated parameter during an 574 iteration. The variable ε can be adjusted on a case-by-case basis. As discussed earlier. 575 the tangent stiffness operator in (6) can be ill-posed, *i.e.* the coercivity assumption 576 (8) for the forward problem is not guaranteed. Therefore, ε must be adjusted taking 577 into account the direct-problem stability issues due to strong oscillations during the 578 estimation. 579

As mentioned earlier, we can restrict the estimation to a reduced parametric space 580 without resorting to an initial deformation prior, but by retrieving information from 581 the observations. For this case, we evaluate the possibility of doing this through a 582 sensitivity analysis using a low noise level, $\gamma = 10^{-4}$, and $\varepsilon = 1$. The normalized 583 estimated parameters are shown in *Figure 11a* and the quantity \mathcal{I}^{\star} is highlighted. 584 Based on these results, the most important modes cannot be completely distinguished, 585 but one could empirically set a threshold to select them. At the risk of overlooking some 586 important modes, an iterative selection process can be proposed but it is not discussed 587 here. The evolution of these parameters during estimation is shown in *Figure 11b*. 588 with the \mathcal{I}^{\star} set highlighted. The main modes do not appear to exhibit any particular 589 dynamic behavior that could be used to distinguish them. Finally, *Figure 11c* plots 590 the Gramian for the 50 first modes in \mathcal{I} . The Gramian quantifies how observable and 591 distinguishable the different modes are from each other and information about the 592 overall observability of the inverse problem can be retrieved. High observability can 593 lead to overestimation, as in the case of the higher frequency modes, for example. 594 mode 47. Inversely, low observability can lead to underestimation, as in the case of 595 mode 3. The diagonal values quantifies the observability of the associated modes while 596 off-diagonal terms quantifies how indistinguishable the associated modes are from each 597 other. 598



Figure 8. Evolution in time for the estimation $\hat{\theta}_h^k$ for the cube case. The estimated modes components are plotted with a highlighted region corresponding to the standard deviation. The target values are represented as dashed lines. Different γ noise levels are tested with a regularization $\varepsilon = 1$.



Figure 9. Snapshots at given iterations k and time t of the estimated deformation compared with the target deformation (transparent) for a high level of noise, $\gamma = 0.2$. From left to right, top to bottom we have (k=0, t=0 μ s) (k=0, t=25 μ s) (k=0, t=35 μ s) (k=1, t=25 μ s) (k=2, t=75 μ s) and (k=3, t=100 μ s).



Figure 10. Evolution in time for the estimation $\hat{\theta}_h^k$ for the cube case. The estimated modes components are plotted with a highlighted region corresponding to the standard deviation. The target values are represented as dashed lines. A weak regularization, $\varepsilon = 0.0025$, and noise $\gamma = 0.2$ is used.



(a) Normalized estimated value for each parameter at the end of the sensitivity analysis.



(b) Evolution of $\hat{\theta}_h$ for every parameter in \mathcal{I} . (c) Normalized Gramian at the end of the analysis.

Figure 11. The estimation is done for the larger set \mathcal{I} to perform a sensitivity analysis in the cube illustration. Different outputs of the estimation procedure are plotted and the set \mathcal{I}^{\star} is highlighted.

- 4.1.2 Aluminum plate under traction 599
- We present here a case based on the experiment done in [23] to model guided wave 600
- propagation in axially loaded structures. The specimen is an aluminum plate of 601
- dimensions $610 \times 305 \times 6.35 \text{ mm}^3$ under traction forces. The configuration for the 602
- quasi-static problem is shown in *Figure 12a*. We compute the target deformation with 603
- an axial stress of 57.5 MPa, resulting in the deformation illustrated in Figure 12b. 604



(b) Deformation for an axial stress of 57.5MPa.

Figure 12. Quasi static problem configuration and target deformation for the plate illustration.

The ultrasonic excitation is done as previously described at the center of the 605 plate (upper surface) at 100kHz. The observation data are obtained by defining the 606 observation operator in twelve surface regions ω_i distributed in an ellipse as depicted 607 in *Figure 13a*. The mesh used in the wave propagation problem is also depicted. The 608 synthetic observed data are generated by running the simulation up to $200 \mu s$. An 609 example of the obtained signal is shown in *Figure 13b*. 610



(a) Wave propagation problem configuration, mesh, excitation and measurement regions.

(b) Example of measure signals.

Figure 13. Configuration and examples of measured signals for the wave propagation problem. The measurement regions are represented in blue and the excited region in red.

For the larger set of eigenmodes \mathcal{I} we compute those associated with the 120 611 lowest eigenvalues. As the experiment has no essential boundary conditions, rigid body 612 movements are penalized and the first 6 eigenmodes, associated to them, are removed. 613 From a guess of the deformation u_0^{\star} generated by the traction surface forces with lower 614 amplitude, we can select a smaller set of eigenmodes by analyzing its decomposition 615 on a parametric basis. In Figure 14 we plot $1 - \tau_m$ from which the most relevant 616 modes can be selected. For $\tau^* = 0.05$, we have $\mathcal{I}^* = \{39, 67, 75, 83, 107, 118\}$. 617



(a) Reconstruction error per number of modes. eig

(b) Deformation associated with the relevant eigenmodes.

Figure 14. Reconstruction of u^* using the lowest frequency modes from which the selection of the most relevant modes is done.

After acquiring the observed data from the simulated measurements on the target deformation, we add different levels of noise, $\gamma = [0.01, 0.1]$, as plotted in *Figure 15*.



Figure 15. Example of different noise levels for the aluminum plate illustration.

620 Discussion.

As in the previous case of the cube, a few specific modes are important to the 621 reconstruction of the deformation although the first relevant mode is of relatively high 622 frequency. This must be taken into account when computing \mathcal{I} as we risk not including 623 the relevant modes. The estimation shown in *Figure 16* required more iterations 624 to achieve apparent convergence, even with the lowest noise. As noise increases, the 625 differentiation between modes becomes more difficult although the most important 626 mode, 39, remains pronounced. For visualization purposes, the estimated deformation 627 is reconstructed at different times of the estimation and depicted in *Figure 17*. As 628 previously done, by adjusting ε we can achieve a faster response of the estimate by 629 reducing the number of iterations needed until apparent convergence, as shown in the 630 estimation for this adjusted case, *Figure 18*. 631

Regarding performance, the model for the quasi-static problem has 7750 degrees of freedom (DoFs) and the computation of the first 120 eigenmodes takes 9 minutes. Finite elements of order one is used for the quasi-static problem as numerical locking is negligible in pure extensional deformation. The wave propagation problem has



Figure 16. Evolution in time for the estimation $\hat{\theta}_{h}^{k}$ for the plate case. The estimated modes components are plotted with a highlighted region corresponding to the standard deviation. The target values are represented as dashed lines. Different γ noise levels are tested with a neutral regularization $\varepsilon = 1$.

420k DoFs and a total of 2223 time steps. One run of the wave propagation problem 636 to generate the observations takes less than a minute and requires 180MB of RAM. 637 During an estimation of 6 mode components, 7 wave propagation problems are run 638 in parallel and each iteration of the estimation procedure takes 12 minutes. The 639 computational cost of solving a wave propagation problem is higher during estimation 640 due to parameter change at each time step, requiring extra computations related to 641 the update of the tangent stiffness operator. We use a laptop computer equipped with 642 a Intel i9-9880H CPU and 32GB of RAM for computing the presented results. 643

Finally, the sensitivity analysis is done for a negligible noise $\gamma = 10^{-4}$ and $\varepsilon = 1$. The final estimated values for the sensitivity analysis are plotted in *Figure 19a*. In this case, the relevant modes are well distinguishable. The observability can be analyzed in the Gramian matrix, *Figure 19c*. Due to its sparsity, we conclude that there are only a few observable modes and the fact that the diagonal is not pronounced means that the modes are less indistinguishable from each other. This can be seen in



Figure 17. Snapshots at given iterations k and time t of the estimated deformation compared with the target deformation (transparent). Estimation for $\gamma = 0.1$. From left to right, top to bottom we have (k=0, t=60µs) (k=0, t=130µs) (k=0, t=180µs) and (k=1, t=200µs). Visualization is scaled 300x.



Figure 18. Evolution in time for the estimation $\hat{\theta}_h^k$ for the plate case. The estimated modes components are plotted with a highlighted region corresponding to the standard deviation. The target values are represented as dashed lines. A weaker regularization, $\varepsilon = 0.1$, is used.

the results with the reduced set of eigenmodes, where the estimation of less relevant modes are highly affected by noise. The high observability shown in *Figure 19a* is due to the fact that the deformation of the structure is of relatively high frequency, hence more observable according to the Gramian. Also, the relevant modes are not clustered around a certain frequency, which helps their spatial differentiation. The evolution of the parameters shown in *Figure 19b* can be analyzed and provide some insights into the process of estimation. Modes 67 and 87 present non-monotonic behavior since the deformation related to these modes is concentrated farther from the center where the waves were excited (see *Figure 14*), hence the wave takes longer to travel through these regions and its carried information to be considered.

Regarding performance of the sensitivity analysis, 115 wave propagation problems 660 had to be run in parallel, taking 5 hours to complete and requiring 271GB of RAM, 661 in total. The memory usage for each problem was significantly higher than when 662 estimating only 6 modes as each problem had to store the deformation gradient of all 663 114 modes. Other strategies for accessing such gradients can be proposed, leaving room 664 for improvement. A desktop workstation equipped with 2*Intel Xeon Platinum 8276 665 CPU and 512GB of RAM was used to run these problems. Note that, although we 666 use only one workstation, our implementation with $\oslash MQ$ allows parallelization through 667 workstations and clusters. 668



(a) Normalized estimated value for each parameter at the end of the sensitivity analysis.



(b) Evolution of $\hat{\theta}_h$ for every parameter in \mathcal{I} . (c) Normalized Gramian at the end of the analysis.

Figure 19. The estimation is done for the larger set \mathcal{I} to perform a sensitivity analysis in the plate illustration. Different outputs of the estimation procedure are plotted and the set \mathcal{I}^* is highlighted.

4.1.3 Experiment-based 4-point bending on a steel pipe

To increase complexity, we consider the experiment done in [31], where the authors use ultrasonic guided waves to detect weld damage in a steel pipe while it was subjected to a 4-point bending test. They assess the performance of traditional imaging techniques to detect the damage while the specimen is subjected to mechanical load. To overcome

the bias introduced by the mechanical load to the ultrasonic signal, they perform signal 674 acquisitions in pristine conditions for different loads and use them as baselines to, 675 through comparison, detect changes in the signal due to potential damage. The baseline 676 should be acquired for every expected load condition, which requires experimental 677 manipulation and reduces the robustness of a detection system. An alternative to 678 acquiring several baselines is to estimate the deformation of the structure using the 679 already available signals. For that purpose, we illustrate the use of our method in this 680 more complex and application-related configuration. The modeled pipe has a length 681 of 2.94 meters, a diameter of 0.1973m and is 8mm thick. The quasi-static problem is 682 depicted in *Figure 20a*. For a total applied force of 220kN, the target deformation is 683 depicted in Figure 20b. 684



Figure 20. Quasi static problem configuration and target deformation for the pipe illustration.

⁶⁸⁵ The excitation is done at the top outer-upper surface of the steel pipe at 30kHz, ⁶⁸⁶ the observations are obtained from applying the observation operator, as previously ⁶⁸⁷ described, with radial sensitivity in 48 regions distributed in 4 circular evenly distributed ⁶⁸⁸ sections as depicted in *Figure 21a*. Each section of transducers is rotated 15 degrees ⁶⁸⁹ with respect to each other. The synthetic observed data are obtained from simulating ⁶⁹⁰ the wave propagation problem up to $1000\mu s$. An example of the obtained signal is ⁶⁹¹ shown in *Figure 21b*.



(a) Wave propagation problem configuration, mesh, excitation and measurement regions.

(b) Example of measured signal.

Figure 21. Configuration and examples of measured signals for the wave propagation problem. The measurement regions are represented in blue and the excited region in red.

The set \mathcal{I} is embodied by the eigenmodes associated with the 60 lowest eigenvalues. From a guess of the deformation $\boldsymbol{u}_{0}^{\star}$ generated by the bending surface forces, we can analyze its decomposition in the eigenbasis. In *Figure 22* we plot $1 - \tau_m$ from which the most relevant modes can be selected and are therefore highlighted, making, for ⁶⁹⁶ $\tau^{\star} = 0.05, \mathcal{I}^{\star} = \{0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$. Differently from the previous cases, the relevant ⁶⁹⁷ modes are concentrated in the lowest frequencies and are poorly distributed.



Figure 22. Reconstruction error of u^* using the lowest frequency modes from which the selection of the most relevant modes is done.

⁶⁹⁸ Due to the stability issues associated with the potential non-coercivity of the ⁶⁹⁹ wave propagation problem, the estimation has to be adjusted with $\varepsilon = 10^4$, setting ⁷⁰⁰ a relatively low update rate for the estimation, hence avoiding instabilities during ⁷⁰¹ estimation. The evolution of the parameter can be seen in *Figure 23* for two different ⁷⁰² levels of noise, $\gamma = 10^{-4}$ and $\gamma = 0.1$. For both levels of noise, the estimation succeeds ⁷⁰³ in differentiating the modes. The estimated deformation are reconstructed at different ⁷⁰⁴ steps of the estimation procedure and is depicted in *Figure 24*.

705 Discussion.

Using high regularization and a large amount of observed data, the estimate is stable and shows good convergence to the target in a few iterations, even when noise increases. By comparison with the plate case, we believe that this is because sensors are well positioned and the acquisition time is long enough so that this case benefits from rather strong observability, allowing it to well distinguish the deformation modes. This illustrates the importance of a robust and well-designed acquisition configuration for a correct estimation.

Regarding performance of the estimation, The model for the quasi-static problem 713 had 148k DoFs and the computation of the first 60 eigenmodes takes 8 hours to 714 complete using a Intel(R) Xeon(R) W-3245 CPU. Finite elements of order two is 715 used for the quasi-static problem. The wave propagation problem has 2M DoFs and a 716 total of 4662 time steps. One run of the wave propagation problem to generate the 717 observations takes 5 minutes and requires 1GB of RAM. During an estimation of 8 718 mode components, 9 wave propagation problems are computed in parallel and each 719 iteration of the estimation procedure takes 2 hours. A workstation equipped with a 720 Intel i9-9880H CPU and 32GB of RAM is used for the estimation. 721

Note, however, that while we obtain satisfactory results when the estimation is 722 performed in a reduced set of modes, the sensitivity analysis performs poorly when it 723 comes to selecting the relevant modes from a larger set, as can be seen in *Figure 25a*. 724 The high-frequency modes are overestimated because they are more observable, as seen 725 in the Gramian (*Figure 25c*). This overestimation of the less relevant modes due to 726 observability is a cause of instability when trying to estimate the deformation using the 727 larger set of modes. The evolution of the sensitivity analysis in Figure 25b shows that 728 some irrelevant modes compensate for each other when trying to minimize the misfit 729



Figure 23. Evolution in time for the estimation $\hat{\theta}_h^k$ for the pipe case. The estimated modes components are plotted with a highlighted region corresponding to the standard deviation. The target values are represented as dashed lines. Different γ noise levels are tested with a strong regularization $\varepsilon = 10^4$.

because they are less distinguishable. Without the potential instability issue of the wave propagation problem, the Gramian diagonal indicates that the modes are readily observable. The Gramian diagonal can also be used to group the modes that conflict with each other in minimizing the mismatch, allowing selection of distinguishable modes



Figure 24. Snapshots at given iterations k and time t of the estimated deformation compared with the target deformation (transparent). Estimation for $\gamma = 0.01$. From left to right, top to bottom we have (k=0, t=60 μ s) (k=0, t=130 μ s) (k=0, t=180 μ s) and (k=1, t=200 μ s). Visualization is scaled 20x.

and adaptive estimation. This is typical of ill-posed inverse problems, where estimation
is efficient once we accept a regularization that here comes from a reconstruction in a
parameter space with a small dimension.

Regarding performance of the sensitivity analysis, 61 wave propagation problems are computed in parallel, taking 5 hours to complete and using 400GB of RAM, in total. A desktop workstation equipped with $2 \times Intel Xeon Platinum 8276$ and 512GB of RAM was used. The same remarks done for the plate case regarding performance are valid here.

742 **5** Conclusion and perspectives

In this paper, we show how to reconstruct in nondestructive tests a baseline free of 743 environmental loading conditions using available SHM measurements. Our model-744 based approach is inspired by Full-Wave Inversion (FWI) strategies, but here we take 745 advantage of dynamic programming principles to avoid multiple iterations of adjoint 746 minimization. In fact, we still rely on an iterative strategy, the Levenberg-Marquardt 747 algorithm, to transform the initial nonlinear inverse problem into successive linear-748 quadratic estimation problems. Each of these linear-quadratic estimation problems is 749 then solved using a Kalman-based approach. By relying on the Unscented-Kalman 750 filter, we also avoid the computation of the tangent operator required by the Levenberg-751 Marquardt algorithm. The final algorithm converges in a limited number of iterations 752 compared to standard FWI and is therefore mostly sequential and inherently parallel 753 with respect to the sigma-points covering the reconstruction space. As a result, our 754 algorithm efficiency remains comparable to solving the direct guided wave propagation 755



(a) Normalized estimated value for each parameter at the end of the sensitivity analysis.



(b) Evolution of $\hat{\theta}_h$ for every parameter in \mathcal{I} . (c) Normalized Gramian at the end of the analysis.

Figure 25. The estimation is done for the larger set \mathcal{I} to perform a sensitivity analysis in the pipe illustration. Different outputs of the estimation procedure are plotted and the set \mathcal{I}^* is highlighted.

problem. The main limitation of our approach is that, due to followed dynamic 756 programming point of view, we are limited to a low-dimensional representation of the 757 estimated deformation, i.e., only about a hundred modes can be estimated. Moreover, 758 and this will be the goal of future developments, our approach first considers the 759 reconstruction of the displacement field, while from the identification perspective, 760 it might be better suited to reconstruct a strain tensor, for instance, the Cauchy-761 Green strain or its invariants. In particular, we believe that this research direction 762 will help us to better control some deformation constraints related to a potentially 763 ill-posed wave propagation problem that limits the trust region neighborhood of our 764 current method. Moreover, our method now needs to be extended to more general 765 observational operators, some of which may depend on the estimated deformation, 766 making the presented approach more complex. Moreover, our approach suffers from the 767 same limitation as the classical FWI method in terms of the choice of the discrepancy 768 measure between the model and the data. Recently, [27, 35] has been shown that the 769 use of Wasserstein-based distances can overcome cycle-skipping effects in wave field 770 inversions. 771

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