



Corso Luigi Einaudi, 55 - Torino

Appunti universitari

Tesi di laurea

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Rilegature

NUMERO: 1880A -

ANNO: 2016

A P P U N T I

STUDENTE: Sagone Matteo

MATERIA: Vibration mechanics - prof. Fasana

Il presente lavoro nasce dall'impegno dell'autore ed è distribuito in accordo con il Centro Appunti.

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IL NOME DEL PROFESSORE, SERVE SOLO PER IDENTIFICARE IL CORSO.**

VIBRATION MECHANICS

29/09/2014

(1)

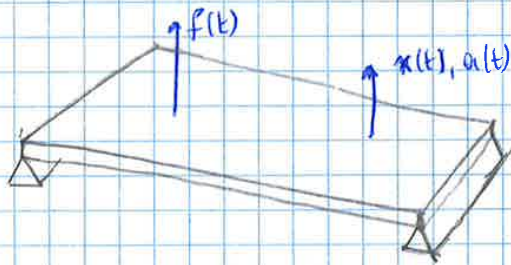
From Monday 6/10 → LAIB 3D (next 1.5 hours)

Lab meeting point → near the Infirmary.

INTRODUCTION TO MODAL ANALYSIS

A tool to describe a linear vibrating structure as a FUNCTION of:

natural frequencies (ω_n), damping ratios (ξ), mode shapes (ψ_i, ψ_j) → NATURAL CHARACTERISTICS

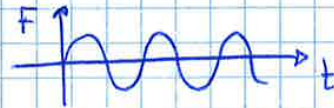


SIMPLY-SUPPORTED FREE PLATE

- a force is applied and we get a displacement

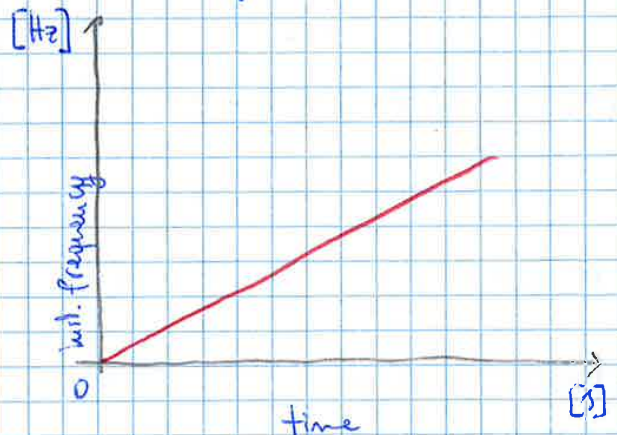
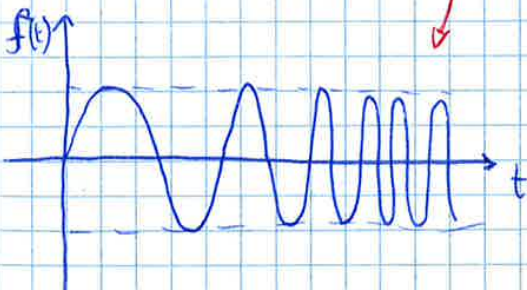
If the force varies with time (like sweep tone for example)

$$f(t) = F_0 \sin(\varphi(t))$$



and $\omega(t) = \frac{d\varphi}{dt}$ → frequency (increases linearly)

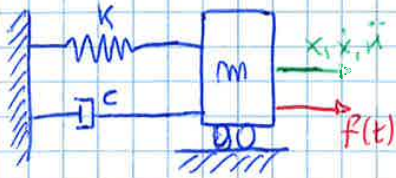
the amplitude remains the same, but the frequency increases with time



The amplitude of acceleration is not stable, but in certain times can ~~be~~ ^{get} larger.
 → The amplitude of the response increases very much → so does the displacement.

SDOF SYSTEMS *single degree of freedom*

They can always be assumed as this simple model:



A mass attached to a spring-damper system; the mass can only move in horizontal.

We assume a linear spring (even if it does not exist)

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} K \rightarrow \text{stiffness} \\ c \rightarrow \text{damping} \end{array} \right\}$

↓

$$\leftarrow F_{\text{Spring}} = Kx \rightarrow \text{LINEARITY}$$

Also the damper is proportional to the displacement $\leftarrow F_{\text{DAMPER}} = cx \rightarrow \text{viscous MODEL}$

The equation of motion is the following:

$$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = f(t) \quad \text{- SDOF MODEL EQUATION}$$

all the inertia is in the mass m, all the damping in c, all the stiffness in k.

The ^{complete} solution consists of FREE RESPONSE ($f(t)=0$) and PARTICULAR INTEGRAL ($f(t)$)

FREE RESPONSE ①

We do not have an external excitement $\rightarrow f(t) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = 0 \quad \text{HOMOGENEOUS EQ.}$$

and the solution is $x(t) = Ae^{st}$ with $A, s \in \mathbb{C}$ (are complex)

so we can put it in the equation and we get:

$$(ms^2 + cs + k)Ae^{st} = 0$$

we have two possibilities:

1) $A=0 \rightarrow$ TRIVIAL SOLUTION

2) $ms^2 + cs + k = 0 \rightarrow$ we moved ~~from~~ a differential to a polynomial II degree eq.

If we substitute s_1 and s_2 we obtain the displacement:

$$x(t) = (A \cos \omega_1 t + B \sin \omega_1 t) e^{-\zeta \omega_n t}$$

↳ HARMONIC FUNCTION

since sine and cosine have just the same freq. The amplitude goes down with t

$$A = x_0$$

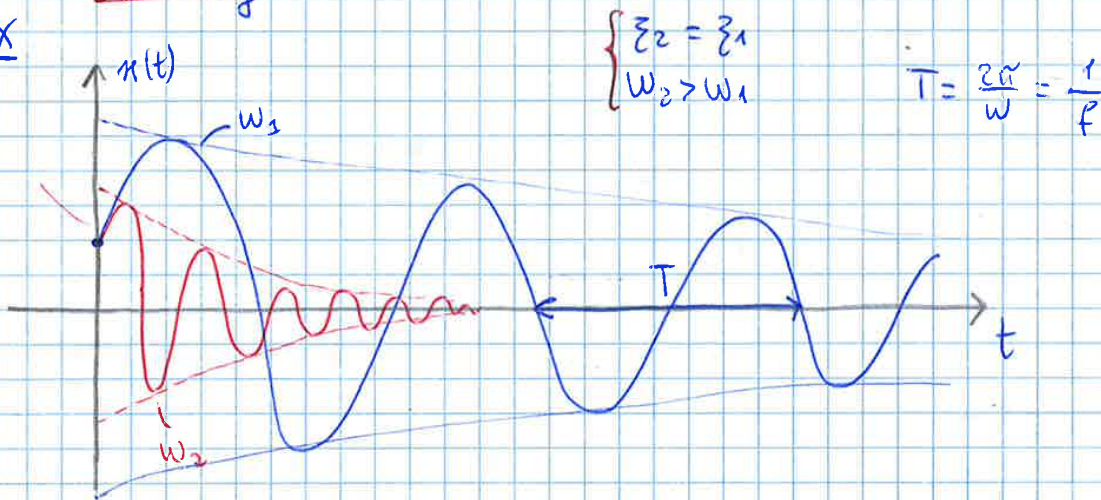
$$B = \frac{v_0 + \zeta \omega_n x_0}{\omega_d}$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A, B \text{ are real, so the solution is real, even} \\ \text{if } s_1, s_2 \text{ are complex} \end{array} \right.$

ζ → controls the amplitude when time passes; in a free response we will have always that → harmonic function with a exponential decreasing term.

ω_n → also the nat. freq. appears in the exponential → it leads the velocity of decreasing

EX



even if the two systems have the same damping factor, the ω controls the time to go to zero → the period is different, so the decay is different.

So, the solution of the homogeneous equation gives the FREE RESPONSE, the FREE DECAY, the TRANSIENT RESPONSE.

To get the COMPLETE EQUATION we have to look for the PARTICULAR INTEGRAL, called also the STEADY STATE SOLUTION.

By determining A_1 and A_2 we get the complete behaviour of the response, the COMPLETE RESPONSE of a forced m, k, c system.

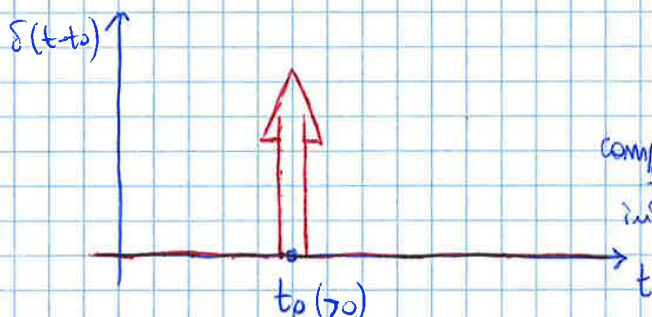
As the time passes, the transient part goes to zero and the $\frac{f_0}{k}$ only survives.

2) $f(t) \neq \text{constant}$ \rightarrow the general solution is based on what happens when the system is excited by an IMPULSE

IMPULSE

Impulse function / Dirac's delta \rightarrow

$$\begin{cases} \delta(t-t_0) \rightarrow \infty & t=t_0 \\ \delta(t-t_0) = 0 & \forall t \neq t_0 \end{cases}$$



computing the integral

$$\begin{cases} \delta(t-t_0) = 0 & \forall t \neq t_0 & 1) \\ \delta(t-t_0) \rightarrow \infty & t=t_0 & 2) \\ \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(t-t_0) dt = 1 & & 3) \end{cases}$$

\rightarrow INTENSITY

computing the integral we get 1. It is a dimensional 1.

3b) $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g(t) \delta(t-t_0) dt = g(t_0)$ \rightarrow taking any function the integral is the value of the function in t_0

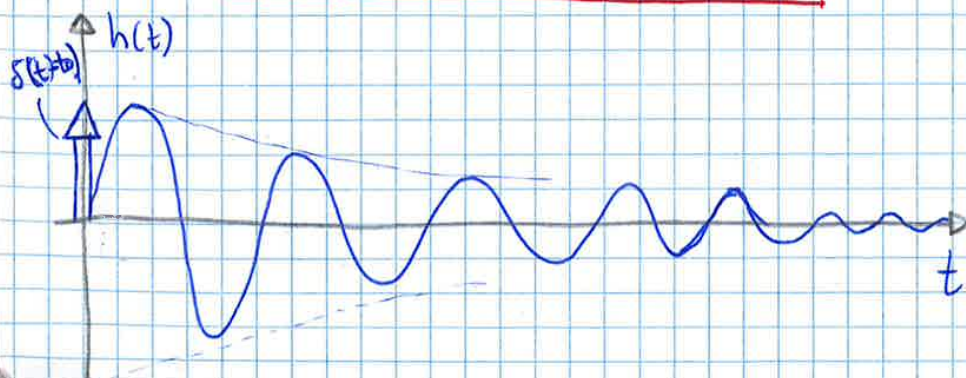
So if we apply an IMPULSE to an SDOF system, we get:

$$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = f(t) = \delta(t)$$

\Downarrow SOLUTION

$$x(t) = h(t) = \frac{1}{m\omega_d} e^{-\zeta\omega_n t} \sin\omega_d t \quad (\zeta < 1)$$

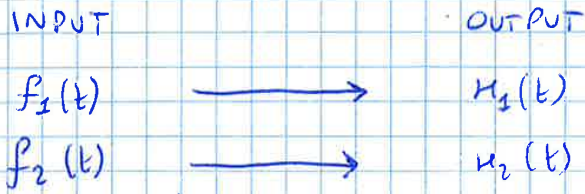
IMPULSE RESPONSE FUNCTION



any particular system has got his particular $h(t)$; by using this, we can compute any $f(t)$ -RESPONSE

03/10/2014 (2)

The convolution integral can be used anytime to obtain the FRF of a system. These systems we deal with are always linear.



given any I which generates an output and the system is LINEAR we get the following:

↳ LINEARITY ↳

$$f(t) = a f_1(t) + b f_2(t) \Rightarrow x(t) = a x_1(t) + b x_2(t)$$

→ a linear combination of INPUTS generates l.c. of the outputs

EX

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(t) = F_1 \cos \Omega_1 t &\Rightarrow x_1(t) = A_1 \cos(\Omega_1 t + \varphi_1) \\ f_2(t) = F_2 \sin \Omega_2 t &\Rightarrow x_2(t) = A_2 \sin(\Omega_2 t + \varphi_2) \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{assuming that} \end{array} \right.$$

if the system is linear I can sum these inputs and we get that we can CONCENTRATE ON A CONTRIBUTION AT TIME → before on Ω_1 and x_1 and then Ω_2 and $x_2 \Rightarrow$ SUPERPOSITION PRINCIPLE IS VALID

↳ we can split a periodic function in a sum of harmonic functions

$$g(t) = g(t + T_0) \quad , \quad T_0 = \text{PERIOD}$$

with FOURIER SERIES

$$g(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [a_k \cos(k \Omega_0 t) + b_k \sin(k \Omega_0 t)]$$

where $\Omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T_0}$ FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCY

So any periodic function can be written in that form, in the Fourier series form; if the function is not periodic, if the INPUT is not periodic, there is a trick:
 ⇒ the period $T_0 \rightarrow \infty$, goes to infinite, so we can imagine all the function to be periodic; we move ~~to~~ ^{from} Fourier series to Fourier transform.

This expression is usually rearranged to have $\omega_n^2 = k/m$, natural frequency, and $\zeta = \frac{c}{2m\omega_n}$, damping factor:

$$X(\Omega) = \frac{f_0/k}{1 - \frac{\Omega^2}{\omega_n^2} + i2\zeta\frac{\Omega}{\omega_n}}$$
 ; saying $r = \frac{\Omega}{\omega_n}$ we get:

Comes from outside
 property of the system

$$X(\Omega) = \frac{f_0/k}{1 - r^2 + i2\zeta r}$$

F
R
F

It is, as said, a complex function and we can think to write it as a modulus and a phase

$$X(\Omega) = |X| e^{i\varphi} = A e^{i\varphi}$$
 , where $\begin{cases} A = \text{MODULUS} \rightarrow \text{real} \\ \varphi = \text{PHASE} \end{cases}$

FRF

$$A = \frac{f_0/k}{\sqrt{(1-r^2)^2 + (2\zeta r)^2}}$$

$$\tan \varphi = \frac{\text{Im}[X]}{\text{Re}[X]} = \frac{-2\zeta r}{1-r^2}$$

So we can finally say that the output response is:

$$x(t) = A e^{i\varphi} \cdot e^{i\Omega t} = A e^{i(\Omega t + \varphi)}$$

so if the input is $\cos \Omega t$, the output will be the real part of this expression

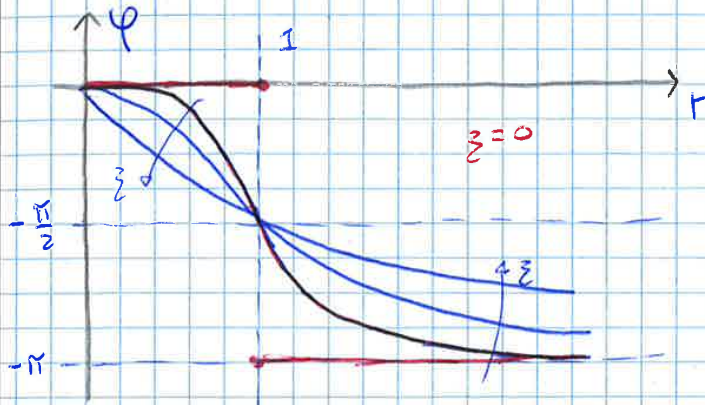
~~$f(t) = f_0 \cos \Omega t$~~ $\rightarrow x(t) = A \cos(\Omega t + \varphi)$

$f(t) = f_0 \sin \Omega t$ $\rightarrow x(t) = A \sin(\Omega t + \varphi)$

where amplitude A and phase φ are given by previous expressions.

So we want to move away faster from resonance frequency ^{zones}.

Plotting the PHASE



because the phase is negative, the response has got a delay respect the input force (s)

writing that $x(t) = A e^{i(\omega t + \varphi)} = A e^{i(\omega t - \varphi)}$ where $\varphi = -\varphi$

in this case the plotting is twisted into positive angles.

We said $X(\omega) = \text{FRF}$; but we may say $\text{FRF} = \frac{X}{f_0}$ → it's still an FRF
we can use both definitions:

$\text{FRF} = \frac{X}{f_0}$ is a RECEPTANCE

We can talk about velocity either:

$x(t) = X e^{i\omega t}$

$\dot{x} = i\omega X e^{i\omega t} = v_0 e^{i\omega t}$ where

$v_0 = \frac{i\omega X}{\text{FRF}}$
 I can move from displacement to velocity by multiplying for $i\omega$
 even v_0 is an FRF!
 HARMONIC FUNCTIONS ONLY

$\frac{v_0}{f_0} = \text{FRF}$ and we call it MOBILITY

$\ddot{x} = -\omega^2 X e^{i\omega t} = a_0 e^{i\omega t}$ where $a_0 = \frac{-\omega^2 X}{\text{FRF}}$
 I can move from displ. to acceleration by multiply for $-\omega^2$
 HARMONIC FUNCTIONS ONLY

[this works with harmonic forces or sum of harmonics → so pretty much works for everything.]

the equation of motion will be:

$$m\ddot{x} + c(\dot{x} - \dot{y}) + k(x - y) = 0$$

stating $z = x - y$ relative motion

$$\Rightarrow m(\ddot{y} + \ddot{z}) + c\dot{z} + kz = 0$$

$$m\ddot{z} + c\dot{z} + kz = -m\ddot{y}$$

\ddot{y} is the acceleration of the base, which is what I want to get; assuming the input is harmonic:

$$y = y_0 e^{i\Omega t} \rightarrow \ddot{y} = -\Omega^2 y_0 e^{i\Omega t}$$

$$\Rightarrow m\ddot{z} + c\dot{z} + kz = m y_0 \Omega^2 e^{i\Omega t}$$

" f_0 " \rightarrow this quantity is a sort of harmonic function

so the response has the same form of $X(\Omega)$:

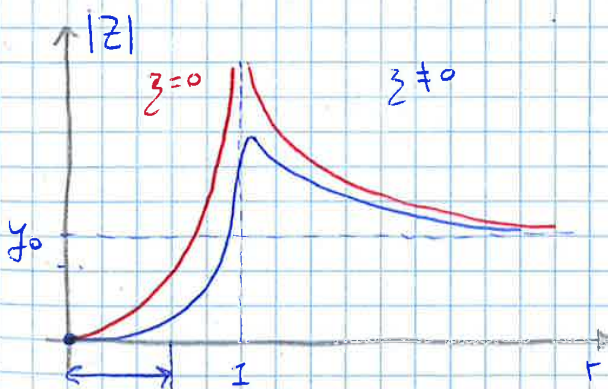
$$z = \frac{m y_0 \Omega^2 / k}{1 - r^2 + i 2\zeta r}$$

being $\frac{m}{k} = \frac{1}{\omega_n^2}$, we get:

$$Z(\Omega) = y_0 \frac{r^2}{1 - r^2 + i 2\zeta r}$$

and it can be plotted as modulus:

$$|Z| = y_0 \frac{r^2}{\sqrt{(1 - r^2)^2 + (2\zeta r)^2}}$$



- we are interested in what happens when $r^2 \ll 1$ ($r < \frac{1}{4}$). In this region of FRE the movement of the base is at a frequency much smaller than the nat. frequency of the accelerometer. $\rightarrow 2\zeta r$ is negligible and \rightarrow

$$1 - r^2 \approx 1 \Rightarrow |Z| \approx y_0 \frac{r^2}{1} = y_0 \frac{\Omega^2}{\omega_n^2} = \frac{1}{\omega_n^2} (y_0 \Omega^2)$$

\hookrightarrow ACCELERATION OF BASE

I want to define an EQUIVALENT VISCOUS DAMPER so that damper produces a work not depending on the frequency:

$$W_{dt} = W_{c} \epsilon a. \rightarrow \alpha A^2 = c_E A^2 \Omega \pi \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha \rightarrow \text{depends on the material} \\ \text{we're using} \end{array} \right.$$

we'll use it in the eq. of motion \leftarrow $c_E = \frac{a}{\pi \Omega}$ EQUIVALENT DAMPER

$$m \ddot{x} + c_E \dot{x} + kx = f_0 e^{i\Omega t} \rightarrow \begin{cases} x = X e^{i\Omega t} \\ \dot{x} = i\Omega X e^{i\Omega t} = i\Omega x(t) \end{cases}$$

$$m \ddot{x} + \frac{a}{\pi \Omega} i\Omega x + kx = f_0 e^{i\Omega t}$$

$$m \ddot{x} + kx + i \frac{a}{\pi} x = f_0 e^{i\Omega t} \rightarrow m \ddot{x} + kx \left(1 + \frac{a}{k\pi} i \right) = f_0 e^{i\Omega t}$$

\hookrightarrow LOSS FACTOR β or η

α depends on the material (small in steels, big in viscoelastic materials)
 k " " " " " " " " " " " "

So, finally we get:

$$\boxed{m \ddot{x} + k(1 + i\beta)x = f_0 e^{i\Omega t}} \rightarrow \text{hysteretical damping model}$$

it has got a "strange spring" formed by a normal spring and another which is responsible of dissipating energy

$$\boxed{k(1 + i\beta)} \rightarrow \text{COMPLEX STIFFNESS} \quad \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \text{the normal spring} \\ \searrow \text{Im dissipating spring} \end{array}$$

The response will be $x = X e^{i\Omega t}$ with

$$\boxed{X = \frac{f_0}{k - m\Omega^2 + i k\beta} = \frac{f_0/k}{1 - r^2 + i\beta}} \rightarrow \text{the imaginary part does not depend on frequency. And that's all.}$$

So the hysteretical damping has this model:

06/10/2014 (3)

$$m\ddot{x} + k(1 + i\eta)x = f_0 e^{i\Omega t}$$

with $\eta (= \beta) \rightarrow$ LOSS FACTOR

$$\eta = 2\zeta \frac{\Omega}{\omega_n} \Rightarrow \zeta = \frac{\eta \omega_n}{2\Omega}$$

[This model is only valid if the input is HARMONIC \rightarrow we ~~must~~ ^{must} have a cycle]

The response was:

$$x = X e^{i\Omega t}$$

$$X = \frac{f_0/k}{1 - r^2 + i\eta r}$$

\rightarrow it's one of the FRF of the system

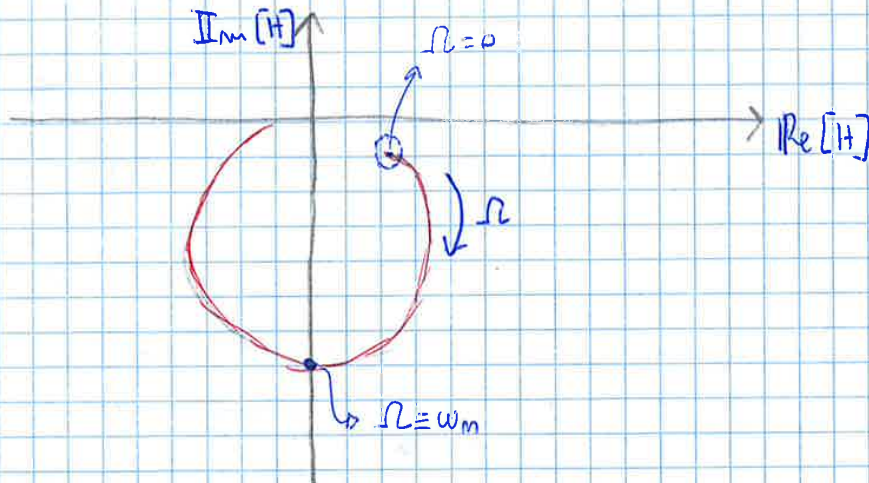
for example we can have as FRF:

$$\frac{X}{f_0/k} = \frac{1 - r^2 - i\eta r}{(1 - r^2)^2 + \eta^2 r^2} = \underline{H(\Omega)} \rightarrow \text{capital H indicates any FRF!}$$

$$\frac{1}{a+ib} = \frac{(a-ib)}{(a-ib)(a+ib)} = \frac{a-ib}{a^2+b^2}$$

STATIC DEFORMATION

We can plot the Re and Im parts of the FRF and we get NYQUIST PLOT



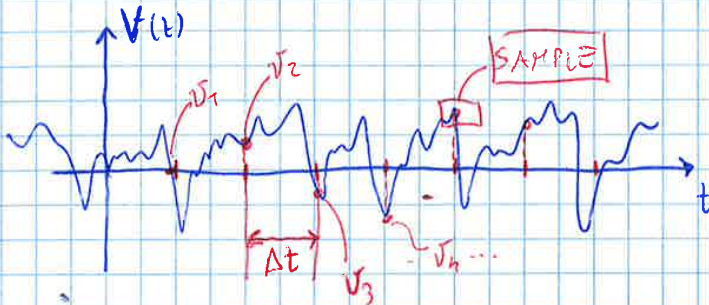
- with $r=0$, Re is +, Im is - \Rightarrow we start from that point, but ~~at~~ that point we don't have an hysteretical cycle \rightarrow we never get there.

- with $r=1 \Rightarrow \Omega = \omega_n$, resonance $\Rightarrow Re = 0$

\rightarrow we get a circle and we can prove it is a circle.

ANALOGUE TO DIGITAL CONVERSION - ADC

It happens when we move from measurement of the system (phenomena) to the value we get on the display. For example on an accelerometer \rightarrow we get a voltage from the accelerometer through the cable:



We have a continuous function on the cable \rightarrow but we're no more able or interested in elaborating a continuous function

we want to move to a list of numbers in a row, converting the analog signal to a digital one

\downarrow
in the CONVERTER we have a CLOCK, which is very accurate and divides the time axis in many short Δt elements \rightarrow SAMPLING PERIOD

we move from a continuous time to a sampled time, a discretized one.

The SAMPLING PERIOD is given in multiples of seconds \rightarrow can be short or long (1/1000 of a second or ^{just} minutes)

The SAMPLING FREQUENCY is

$$f_s = \frac{1}{\Delta t}$$

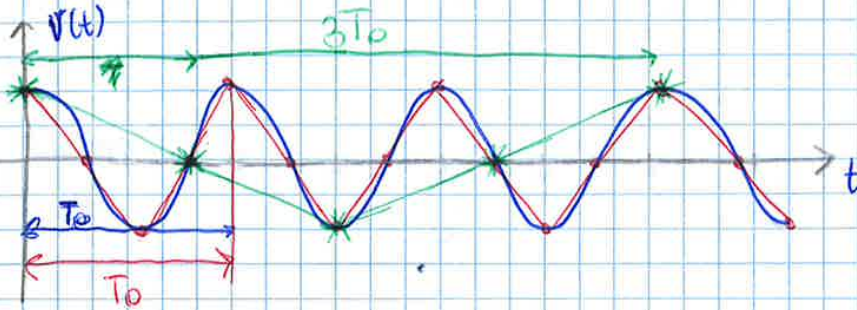
\rightarrow [Hz]

\rightarrow [SPS] (Samples per seconds)

Any ~~points~~ ^{values} of the function in the $k\Delta t$ ($k=1, \dots, n$) points t_k is a SAMPLE. We move from the continuous function to a digital one and we completely lose any information between consecutive samples

ALIASING

Considering an harmonic function; the voltage:



$$f_0 = 1/T_0 = f_{max} = 50 \text{ Hz}$$

I take 4 samples per wave, so I have

$$f_s = 4 f_0 \text{ by choice}$$

So the sampling period is $\Delta t = \frac{1}{f_s} = \frac{1}{4f_0} = \frac{1}{4} T_0$

the red dots are samples selected according to Shannon's theorem. If I can read both the amplitude and the frequency of my period... I can define, by linear interpolation a function (red) which gives to me frequency and amplitude. I just don't know the cosine function, but I can correctly measure the frequency, because $T_0 = T_0$

↳ I lose the real shape of the function, but I get ^{both} the freq. and ampl.

What happens if I choose an $f_s < 2 f_{max}$? I choose to have $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}$ of a wave as a sampling period.

⇒ we get a period $3T_0$ → three times a normal period → the digital green signal generated does not represent properly the real function

⇓
ALIASING!! → - I completely miss the frequency:
 $f_{max} = \frac{1}{3T_0} = \frac{f_0}{3}$

and so we are not able to read it.

^{USELESS}
- we only have an ~~empty~~ list of points with a completely wrong frequency

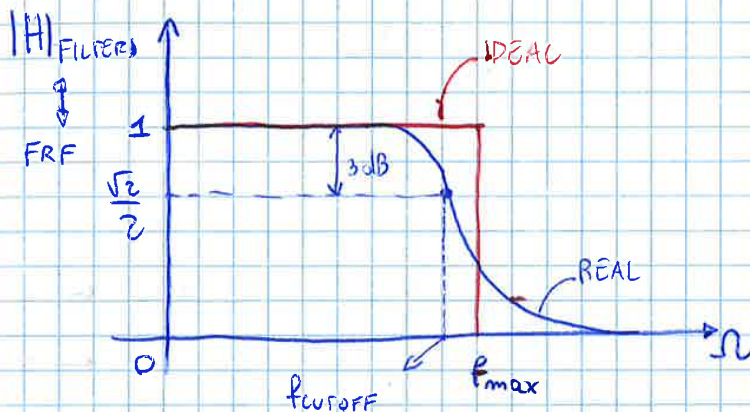
↳ AVOID ALIASING!

LOW-PASS FILTER

It allows the lower level frequencies to pass through without modification; "low" in the frequency domain. The upper f_s are theoretically erased

ANTI-ALIASING FILTERS

They cancel high frequencies, so they are analogue-low-pass filters



- so the FRF of an ideal filter, should be like ~~that~~ ^{the} red one;

- in practice we get the blue function

So we buy a filter with an appropriate f_{max} (1000 Hz) \rightarrow in reality we buy a filter with a smooth FRF, not sharped like the red one.

\Rightarrow to characterize the filter, we look at the frequency where FRF has decreased to

$$3\text{dB} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = 0,7 \quad \text{that's the maximum}$$

\downarrow
so we'll have a CUTOFF FREQUENCY f_{cutoff} in practice and not on f_{max} ; this implicates a correction in Shannon's Theorem:

$$f_s \geq 2,156 f_{cutoff}$$

\Rightarrow we set the sampling frequency f_s and the ADC automatically introduces a

filter so the $f_{cutoff} = \frac{f_s}{2,156}$

EX

$$f_s = 1024 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow f_{CT} = 400 \text{ Hz}$$

so we can p.e. read ~~the~~ frequencies lower than 400 Hz, automatically

\downarrow
not 1024 Hz, but 400 Hz!

E → amplitude extension of the signal ($\pm 10V$)

NBIT → number of bits, depends on the ADC, is an hardware parameter, fixed.

The most diffused value is $NBIT = 16$, but the best is $NBIT = 24$

E is usually fixed and depends on the hardware we are buying too; is quite common to have $E = \pm 10V \Rightarrow E = 20V$ → remember!

$$E = \pm 1V \Rightarrow E = 2V$$

$$E = \pm 5V \Rightarrow E = 10V$$

} most diffused
amplitude extension

f.e. → $E = \pm 10V$, $NBIT = 24 \Rightarrow \Delta x = \frac{20}{2^{24} - 1} = 1,19 \cdot 10^{-6} V = 0,001 \mu V$

↓
very high resolution

• IF $|x(t)| > X_{max}$

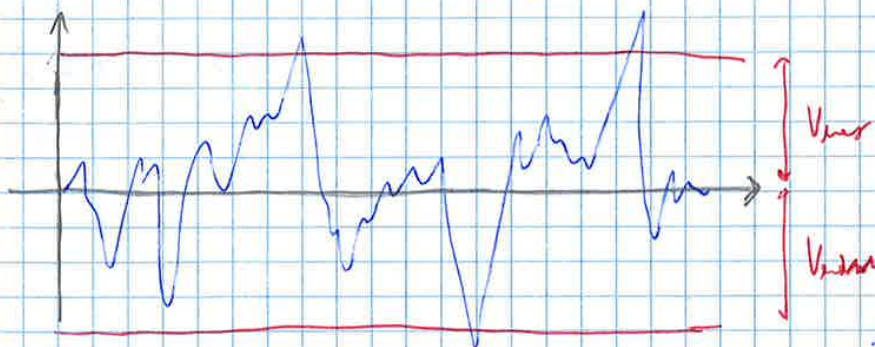
IF we have, at a certain time, a value which is over the E range → quite typically we see a RED LIGHT blinking; we get an error called CLIPPING or OVERLOAD

AVOID IT!

← in this case we must stop everything and start measurement again



↳ because the overloaded informations are false

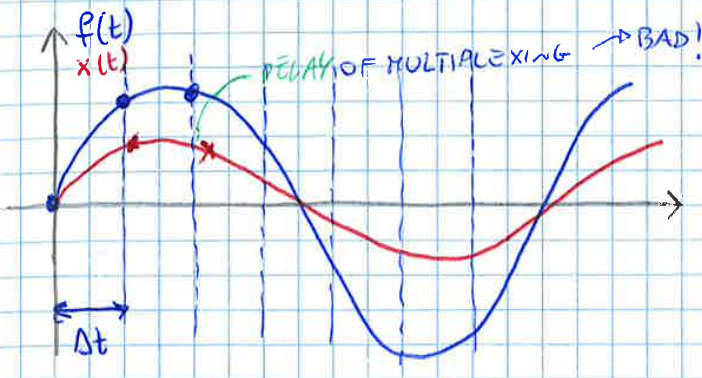


if I have a signal (random) how can I be sure I'll get values within the limit? I can not. I have to be sure to have large enough bits

• We just have to modify inputs to stand within the limits. Smarter ADC have a button to adjust the range of measurement

↓
VERY IMPORTANT

If we want to measure many signals at the same time, f.e.:



- 1 CHANNELS
- 2
- 4
- 8
- 16

We'll have systems with many channels of measuring; each channel is devoted to measure one of the signals on the field.

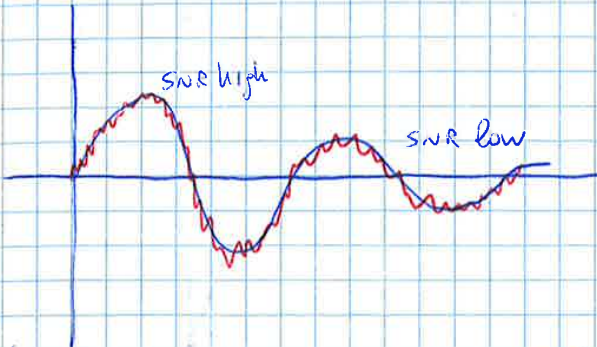
- We fix a sampling period Δt and we want to measure $f(t)$ and $x(t)$. If the system has got MULTIPLEXING function, it measures $f(t)$ and, ^{one} bit later $x(t)$, and so on \rightarrow we get ~~errors~~ DELAYS, so multiplexing is NOT good. Also, this delay varies between the channels, it's not constant



we loose info about phase \leftarrow MULTIPLEXING IS NOT GOOD FOR VIBRATIONS & ACOUSTIC

$$\varphi = \omega t$$

If we have some NOISE in the response we get something like this:



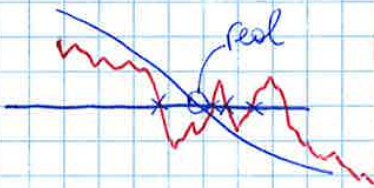
So we can define an SNR,

SIGNAL TO NOISE RATIO

- the real measurement is the red one

in our analysis we have to DELAY the second part, the last part of the signal, because there is an high NOISE, we have much errors there → bad analysis. It is better also to consider a very low ζ (damping ratio), because otherwise we have fast decay and we don't wait it (delay the 2nd part, remember, SNR low).

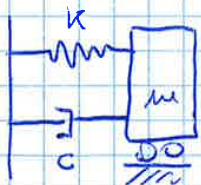
When we have a zero we are not sure where it is:



because of the noise we get many zeros at once

How to select the t_s point: It's better to select t_s on max (or min) because the influence of the noise is not so big (SNR high). If we select a point distant from max, the importance of the noise compared to the true signal is high there. → SELECT THE MAXIMUM TO APPLY THIS METHOD.

NUMERICAL EXAMPLE



$m = 100 \text{ kg}$

$T_d = 2 \text{ s}$

$X_2 = \frac{X_1}{16}$

} find k and c

We suppose to know the m ; we are only able to extract two of the 3 parameters, so we must have almost one.

We can write $I_0 = I_0 + mgl^2$ (Myers-Stellar theorem)

[for small oscillations we can assume $\sin \vartheta \approx \vartheta$]

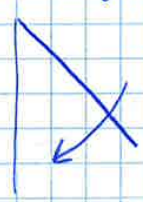
$\Rightarrow I_0 \ddot{\vartheta} + C_0 \sin \vartheta + mgl \vartheta = 0$

PIECEWISE LINEAR $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{lineare} \\ \text{a pezzi} \end{array} \right.$

in $\vartheta(0) = \vartheta_0 > 0 \rightarrow \dot{\vartheta}_0 = 0$

1) FIRST INTERVAL $0 < t < t_1 \rightarrow$ as long as $\dot{\vartheta} < 0$

here $C_0 \sin \vartheta = -C_0$



and we get $\Rightarrow I_0 \ddot{\vartheta} + mgl \vartheta = C_0$ in the first period we get a linear function

Response $\Rightarrow \vartheta(t) = \frac{C_0}{mgl} + a \cos \omega_m t + b \sin \omega_m t$ (only holds when $\dot{\vartheta} < 0$)

1) i.c. $\vartheta_0 = \frac{C_0}{mgl} + a \Rightarrow a = \vartheta_0 - \frac{C_0}{mgl}$

2) i.c. $\dot{\vartheta} = \omega_m (-a \sin \omega_m t + b \cos \omega_m t)$

$\dot{\vartheta}_0 = b \omega_m = 0 \Rightarrow b = 0$

$\Rightarrow \vartheta_I(t) = \frac{C_0}{mgl} + \left(\vartheta_0 - \frac{C_0}{mgl} \right) \cos \omega_m t$ first solution when $\dot{\vartheta}_0 = 0$ and $\dot{\vartheta} < 0$

in $t_1 \dot{\vartheta}_I = 0$ so we have to compute this value:

$\dot{\vartheta}_I(t_1) = -a \omega_m \sin \omega_m t_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_m t_1 = \pi \Rightarrow t_1 = \frac{\pi}{\omega_m} = \frac{T_m}{2}$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} t_1 \text{ is half} \\ \text{the natural} \\ \text{period} \end{array} \right.$

$\omega_m = \sqrt{\frac{mgl}{I_0}}$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Square root of zero order} \\ \text{derivative divided by second order derivative coefficient} \end{array} \right.$

In the viscous decay model \star was not linear but exponential; here is linear, in the Coulomb friction model the decay is linear.

We note at a point that the restoring force (due to ^{the} weight) cannot overcome the static force (Coulomb friction) and the motion stops abruptly in the \otimes zone.

The Coulomb Friction is very common in practice but difficult to describe because the equation is not linear.

There is a reduction of $-\frac{4C_0}{m\omega}$ PER CYCLE (we started with ϑ_0)

This response is for SMALL OSCILLATION. But we can compare also for LARGE OSCILLATION \rightarrow we'll have to integrate the eq. of motion, with some approximation methods (Runge-Kutta, ode45)

Γ ODE (Ordinary Differential Equation) second order:

$$I_0 \ddot{\vartheta} + C_0 \operatorname{sign} \dot{\vartheta} + mgl \sin \vartheta = 0$$

we can put $\sin \vartheta$ or ϑ so we have 2 ODEs. Using Runge-Kutta routine

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \vartheta & \dot{y}_1 &= f(y_1, y_2) = \dot{\vartheta} = y_2 & \rightarrow \dot{y}_1 &= y_2 & \rightarrow \text{passare da 1 eq del II al I} \\ y_2 &= \dot{\vartheta} & \dot{y}_2 &= g(y_1, y_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{y}_2 = \ddot{\vartheta} = -\frac{C_0}{I_0} \operatorname{sign} y_2 - \frac{mgl}{I_0} \sin y_1 = g(y_1, y_2)$$

So I have 2 eq. of the first order from one of the second order.

Here the logarithmic decrement method doesn't work \rightarrow only for viscous damping.

We have to use another method:



In conclusion we have 2 unknown coeffs. multiplied to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{I_0}{\mu_{pl}} & \frac{C_0}{\mu_{pl}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} B \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{so we can extract the first matrix}$$

$\begin{matrix} 1 \times 2 & 2 \times N & 1 \times N \end{matrix}$

with LEAST SQUARES SOLUTION by PSEUDOMVERSE $\boxed{\text{pinv}(A)}$

$$A \text{ pinv}(A) = I \quad ; \quad \text{so we post-multiply:}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{I_0}{\mu_{pl}} & \frac{C_0}{\mu_{pl}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} B \end{bmatrix} \text{ pinv}(A) \quad \text{and we get the first matrix}$$

Pseudoinverse is based on SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION (SVD)

to get displacement we'll have another trend $\rightarrow v(t) \rightarrow \gg \text{DECREASING} (*)$

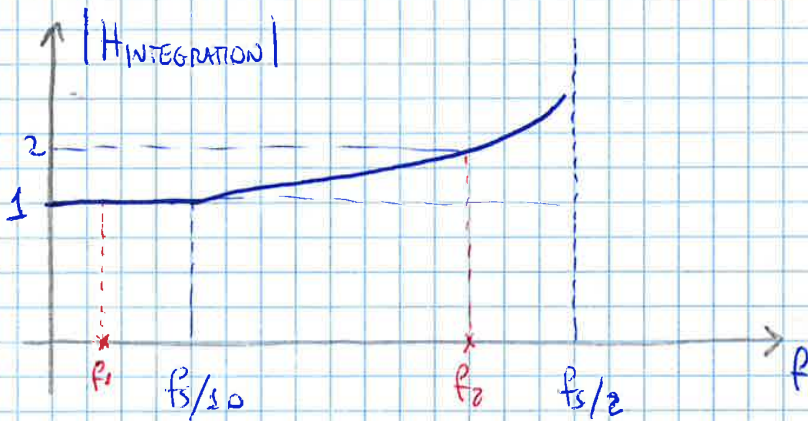
We get a digital series of values, not a continuous; so we have:

$$a(t) \Rightarrow a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad \text{SAMPLES}$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{1}{f_s} \quad \text{SAMPLING PERIOD}$$

SIMPSON'S RULE

To integrate a function which is not continuous we use this rule \rightarrow integrate a series of number:



- any integration rule has got an FRF; we would like to have a perfect integration for any frequency, up to $f_{max} = f_s/2$ (SHANNON)

\rightarrow we want an integrator which is capable to integrate in the same way at any f_i but what happens is that we have a "1" value and then an increasing

function:

[if we have $f < f_s/10$ all the ~~output~~ will have the same output; otherwise we have amplified values (for $f > f_s/10$)]

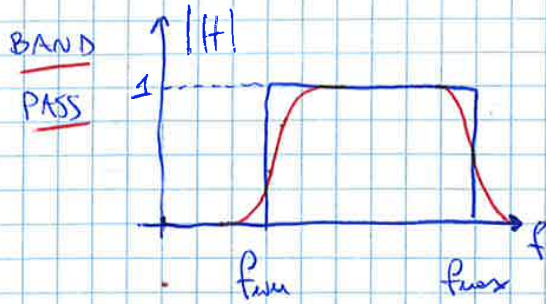
f.e. $\rightarrow a(f_1) = 10 \text{ m/s}^2 \Rightarrow v(f_1) = \frac{10 \text{ m/s}^2}{(\omega_1 - \omega_s)} \cdot 1$

$v(f_2) = \frac{10 \text{ m/s}^2}{\omega_2} \cdot 2$

because:

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{x} = -A\omega^2 \cos \omega t \\ \dot{x} = -A\omega \sin \omega t \\ x = A \cos \omega t \end{cases}$$

\hookrightarrow the output will be incorrectly amplified by the "2" factor of the Simp. Rule



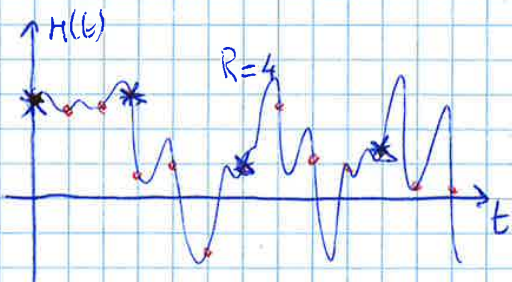
I give to the filter a signal $x(t)$ and I get an output which can be shaped with LP, HP, BP filters.

In matlab I can choose between ^{filters} just by setting f_{min} and f_{max} ! The only case we have to take is to choose the ORDER of the filter

↳ HIGH ORDER → almost theoretical shape but no-sense results if too high

We will also find in Matlab a command like this:

`>> DECIMATE (H, R);`



$R = n \rightarrow$ it will take 1 sample out of n .

$R = 10 \rightarrow$ u u u u u u u u u u

this is useful when Δt is too short and we

don't want to get too many samples. Doing this we increase Δt and so the new $f_s = \frac{1}{R\Delta t}$ will be $\frac{1}{R}$ the original f_s , so we may introduce ALIASING,

because it is decreasing! \Rightarrow decimate introduces also a LP filter, to be sure of not getting aliasing.

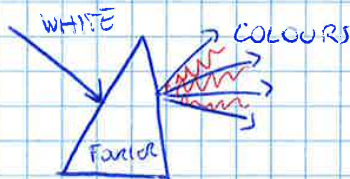
so with these three expressions we can build $f(t)$ FOURIER SERIES, which can be written also in this form:

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [c_k \sin(k\omega_0 t + \varphi_k)]$$

less used, but it shows that this is an harmonic, with AMPLITUDE c_k , $c_k = \sqrt{a_k^2 + b_k^2}$, and PHASE φ_k

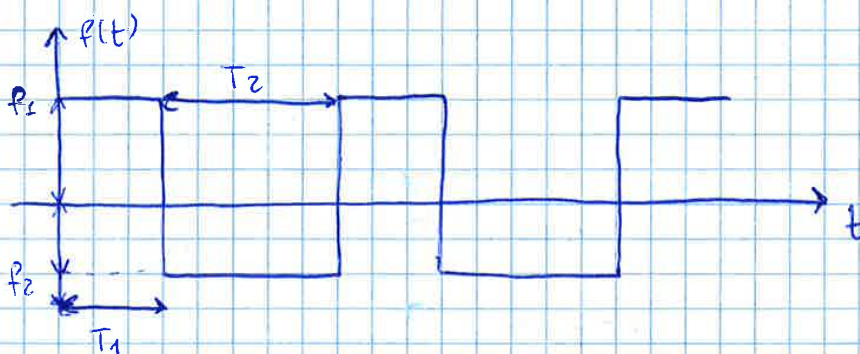
The c_k gives the WEIGHT of each harmonic within the signal: if we measure the AC current of Polsterwies, all the c_k are zero but the one of 50 Hz frequency.

LIKE IN A PRISM
(THE DARK SIDE OF THE MOON)



→ we have one function and Fourier Series decompose it in its harmonic components

Example



this function is periodic
 $T_0 = T_1 + T_2$

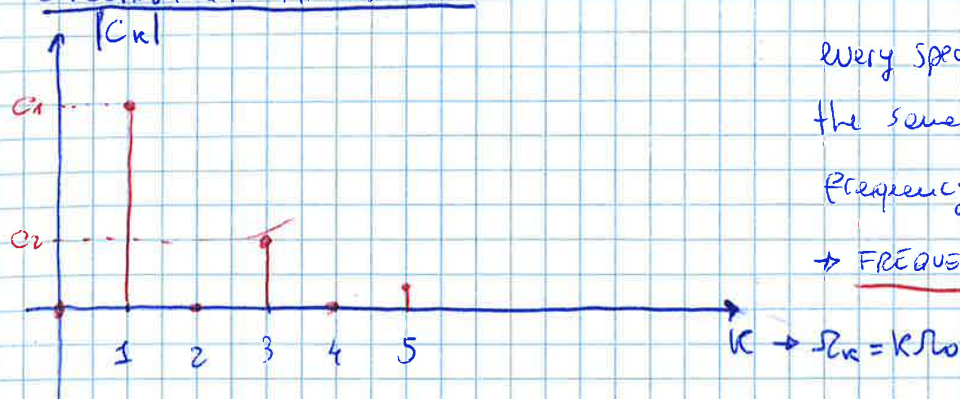
we want to decompose it:

(the Area)

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} f(t) dt = \frac{1}{T_0} (T_1 P_1 - T_2 P_2)$$

$$a_k = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} f(t) \cos(k\omega_0 t) dt = \frac{2}{T_0} \left[\int_0^{T_1} P_1 \cos(k\omega_0 t) dt - \int_{T_1}^{T_1+T_2} P_2 \cos(k\omega_0 t) dt \right] =$$

SPECTRUM OF THE SIGNAL



every spectral line is separated by the same distance, a certain frequency $\rightarrow 1 \cdot \Delta\Omega = \Delta\Omega = \underline{\Delta\Omega}$
 \rightarrow FREQUENCY RESOLUTION

in this case ^{square wave} we get $a_0 = c_0 = 0$, so the first value is null; c_1 ^{is} ~~also~~ $b_1 = \frac{4P_0}{\pi}$
 c_2 is zero, c_3 is three times smaller than $c_1 \Rightarrow c_3 = b_3 = \frac{4P_0}{3\pi}$;

We get a diagram called SPECTRUM, FREQUENCY REPRESENTATION, where each line is a SPECTRAL LINE.

In this case the spectral representation is infinite, we have infinite values of c_k . In reality we'll have spectra which stops at a certain point, a certain maximum frequency. We do not represent all the spectrum of the signal.

EXPONENTIAL REPRESENTATION

According to Euler's formula:
$$\begin{cases} e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x \\ e^{-ix} = \cos x - i \sin x \end{cases}$$

$$\cos x = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$$

$$\sin x = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i} = -i \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2}$$

with these two expressions, I modify the original one:

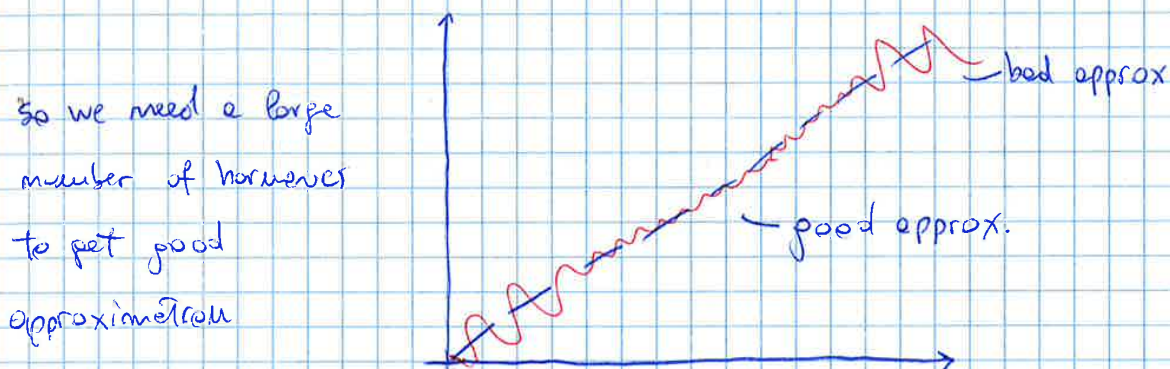
$$= a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[a_k \frac{e^{ik\Omega t} + e^{-ik\Omega t}}{2} - ib_k \frac{e^{ik\Omega t} - e^{-ik\Omega t}}{2} \right] =$$

$$= a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{a_k - ib_k}{2} e^{ik\Omega t} + \frac{a_k + ib_k}{2} e^{-ik\Omega t} \right]$$

At a specific k we get \rightarrow $\Omega_k \leftrightarrow f_k$ SPECTRAL LINE

This representation is the basis of numerical computation FFT - Fast Fourier Transform. We are interested in the SPECTRAL LINES

GIBBS'S PHENOMENON \rightarrow the approximation is good only in the middle; at the edges we get high oscillation around the real value:



Shannon's theorem does not guarantee the time domain, only the freq. one.

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f_k e^{ik\omega_0 t}$$

with $f_k = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} f(t) e^{-ik\omega_0 t} dt$

FOURIER TRANSFORM

The next step is to move from periodic to general functions. Fourier series works with CONTINUOUS FUNCTION.

• If the function given is not periodic, we can imagine that the period (T_0) GOES TO INFINITE

$T_0 \rightarrow \infty$

in this case f_k goes to zero, so we're not able to use last expression found. We have to rearrange it.

The Fourier Transform is sometimes written in a more compact form:

DIRECT.

$$F(\omega) = \mathcal{F}[f(t)]$$

$$f(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[F(\omega)]$$

INVERSE.

where \mathcal{F} is an OPERATOR which indicates we have to compute that integral.

→ we TRANSFORM THE DOMAIN

PROPERTIES

• Fourier Transform is a LINEAR OPERATOR, which is very useful;

Let's demonstrate that:

$$x_1(t) \Rightarrow X_1(\omega)$$

[capital letters are for ω -domain]

displ.

$$x_2(t) \Rightarrow X_2(\omega)$$

$$l.c. \rightarrow x(t) = a_1 x_1(t) + a_2 x_2(t) \Rightarrow X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2) e^{-i\omega t} dt =$$

$$= a_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_1 e^{-i\omega t} dt + a_2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_2 e^{-i\omega t} dt = a_1 X_1(\omega) + a_2 X_2(\omega) \quad c.v.d.$$

$$\mathcal{F}[x_1] = X_1(\omega) \quad \mathcal{F}[x_2] = X_2(\omega)$$

$f(t)$ is real → in t -domain we always measure real signals } $f(t) \in \mathbb{R}$
 $F(\omega)$ can be complex → in ω -domain we get complex signals often. } $F(\omega) \in \mathbb{C}$

EVEN RELATIONS

any real function $f(t)$ can be divided in two parts: even & odd;

$$\begin{aligned} f(t) &= e(t) + o(t) \\ f(t) &= e(t) - o(t) \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} 2e &= f(t) + f(-t) \rightarrow \text{sum} \\ 2o &= f(t) - f(-t) \rightarrow \text{difference} \end{aligned}$$

$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e+o) \underbrace{(\cos \omega t - i \sin \omega t)}_{e^{-i\omega t}} dt \rightarrow \text{we have this for definition of } F(\omega)$$

Example

$$x(t) = A \cos \Omega_0 t$$

$$\Omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$$

$$f_0 = 50 \text{ Hz}$$

Fourier Transform should tell us the function contains only f_0 ; but it does not respect the condition of existence:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)| dt = \infty \rightarrow \text{NP! We can't use F.T. for harmonics.}$$

IMPULSE

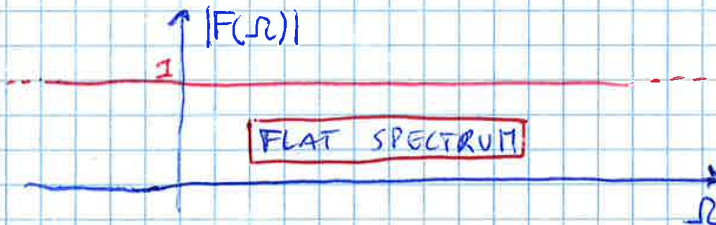
In these cases we can use IMPULSE:

$$\delta(t-t_0) \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow t_0} F(\Omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-t_0) e^{-i\Omega t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-t_0) e^{-i\Omega t_0} dt = e^{-i\Omega t_0}$$

because $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-t_0) dt = 1$

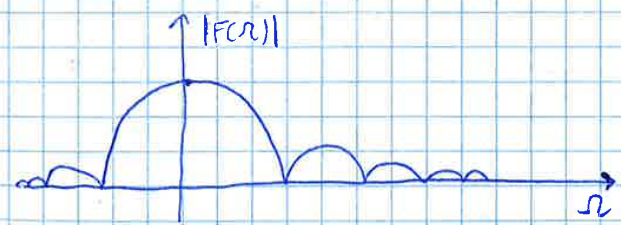
$$|F(\Omega)| = \cos^2 \Omega t_0 + \sin^2 \Omega t_0 = 1 \rightarrow \text{the modulus is equal to 1.}$$

If we plot the spectrum we get 1 everywhere!

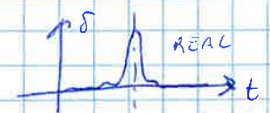


every frequency has the same importance

Of course this is not true; the real spectre will not have a flat behaviour but one like this:



Minor the duration of the input, plotter the spectrum



Now we come back to the time domain:

$$\delta(t-t_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{e^{-i\Omega t_0}}_{F(\Omega)} e^{i\Omega t} d\Omega$$

$$= -\frac{K_0}{\pi} i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[e^{-i(\Omega - \Omega_0)t} - e^{-i(\Omega + \Omega_0)t} \right] dt =$$

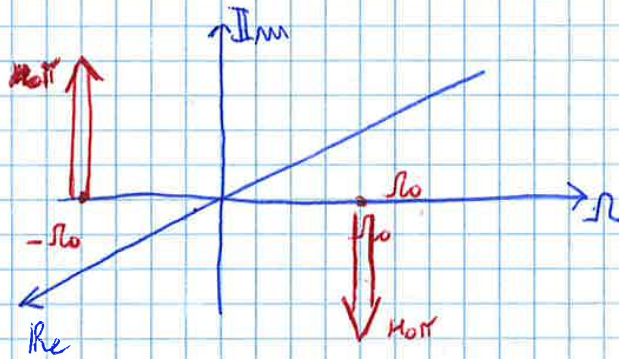
relying on the previous $\delta(t-t_0)$ expression and multiplying and dividing for π we get:

$$= -i K_0 \pi \delta(\Omega - \Omega_0) + i K_0 \pi \delta(\Omega + \Omega_0)$$

The starting function is a sine \rightarrow ODD function; the transform should be ODD and it is! It's imaginary and ODD.

$$X(\Omega) = -i K_0 \pi \delta(\Omega - \Omega_0) + i K_0 \pi \delta(\Omega + \Omega_0)$$

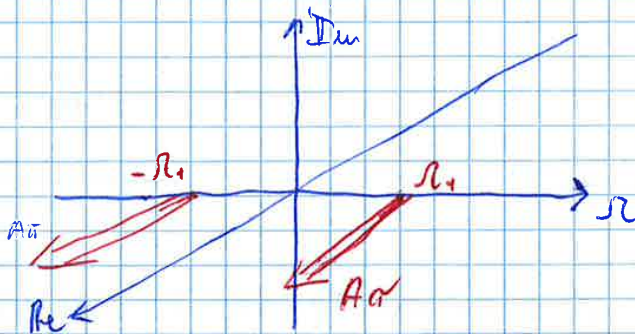
With F.T. tool we introduce NEGATIVE FREQUENCIES \rightarrow they're not real, but mathematically they are "real", ~~they~~ we can have some, they exist.



at (Ω_0) we have an impulse there, with negative $K_0 \pi$ amplitude

at $-\Omega_0$ viceverse and we're passing to a negative freq.

If we have $x(t) = A \cos \Omega_0 t$ we get two positive impulses at frequencies of the cosine function (even function)



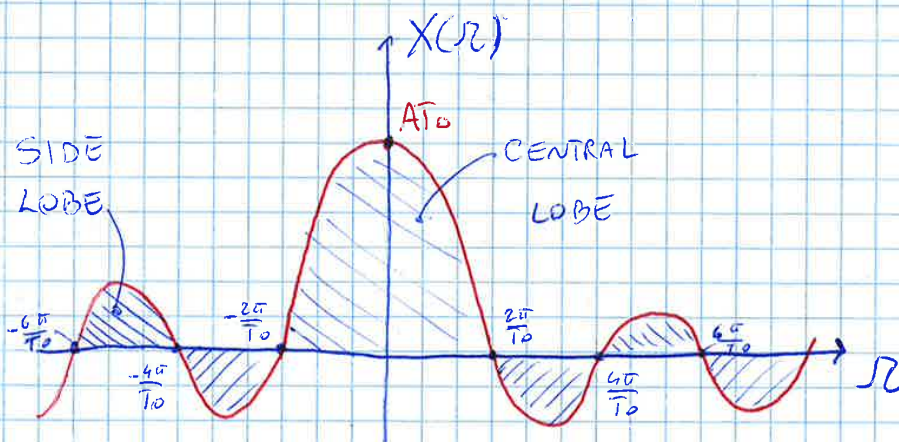
$$\int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} \sin \Omega t dt = 0 \rightarrow \text{because sine is ODD!}$$

$$\Rightarrow X(\Omega) = A \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} \cos \Omega t dt = A \frac{1}{\Omega} \sin \Omega t \Big|_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2}$$

$$X(\Omega) = \frac{A}{\Omega} \left[\sin\left(\frac{\Omega T_0}{2}\right) - \sin\left(-\frac{\Omega T_0}{2}\right) \right] = \frac{A}{\Omega} 2 \sin\left(\frac{\Omega T_0}{2}\right) \rightarrow \text{because } \sin(a) = -\sin(-a)$$

$$X(\Omega) = \frac{2A}{\Omega T_0} \sin\left(\frac{\Omega T_0}{2}\right) \Rightarrow \boxed{X(\Omega) = A T_0 \frac{\sin(\Omega T_0/2)}{(\Omega T_0/2)}}$$

The frequency domain representation is this one:



the starting function is even and also the $X(\Omega)$ because ratio of 2 odd functions

- When $\Omega = 0$, with De L'Hospital, I get $X(\Omega) = AT_0$

- the zeros are where $\sin(\Omega T_0/2) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\Omega T_0}{2} = \pm k\pi \Rightarrow \Omega = \pm \frac{2k\pi}{T_0}$

In theory the frequency spectrum is unlimited; but the ^{main} contribution comes from CENTRAL LOBE and ~~SOME~~ SIDE LOBES; but they're not negligible

- If T_0 is very very long, $T_0 \rightarrow \infty$ what we get? \rightarrow A constant function!

The LOBES shrink to zero, we zip everything there \rightarrow SIDE ones make zero, central one sum up and make an impulse in zero \rightarrow $R(\Omega)$ of a const. value.

IT'S A CHECK! ω

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(\omega) \cdot \left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h e^{-i\omega t} dt \right]^* d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(\omega) \cdot X^*(\omega) d\omega$$

↳ it's the modulus squared

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h^2(t) dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

PARSEVAL'S THEOREM

energy in the
time domain

energy in the frequency
domain

Being $\omega = 2\pi f$ we can write:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h^2(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(2\pi f)|^2 df$$

Parseval's Theorem is useful. Often softwares don't respect Parseval's Theorem (up to Matlab 2010)

↳ ^{it's} a way to check if the Fourier Transform computed is OK.

F(Ω) OF CONVOLUTION INTEGRAL

$$a(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} b(\tau) c(t-\tau) d\tau \rightarrow \text{generic form where}$$

↳ → impulse response
↳ → force on the system

but in this case a, b, c are generic functions

MATLAB

» $a = \text{conv}(b, c)$; → the solution is not obtained by numerical methods:

Matlab does not compute the integral, but it moves b and c to freq domain, obtaining $B(\omega)$ and $C(\omega)$ and then does $B(\omega) \cdot C(\omega)$. And then does \mathcal{F}^{-1} and gets $a(t)$.

FRF is F.T. OF AN IMPULSE RESP. FUNCTION

29/10/2014 (9)

We said that FRF (Ω) is the ratio between output and input, depending both on the frequency:

$FRF(\Omega) = \frac{O(\Omega)}{I(\Omega)}$	in fact	}	$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = f_0 e^{i\Omega t}$ $x = X e^{i\Omega t}$ $\Rightarrow FRF = \frac{X(\Omega)}{f_0} \equiv \frac{X(\Omega)}{f(\Omega)}$	the FRF explains how the output depends on the freq.
---	---------	---	--	--

In this definition, THE INPUT HAS TO BE HARMONIC \rightarrow so has to be the output.

we said for the convolution integral:

$$H(t) = \int_0^t f(\tau) h(t-\tau) d\tau$$
where
 $f(\tau)$ \rightarrow FORCE (input)
 $h(t-\tau)$ \rightarrow IMPULSE RESPONSE FUNCTION

\downarrow
OUTPUT

Now let's apply the Fourier Transform to the conv. integral:

$$X(\Omega) = F(\Omega) \cdot H(\Omega) \rightarrow$$
 because all we said previously;

$$H(\Omega) = \mathcal{F}[h(t)] = \frac{X(\Omega)}{F(\Omega)} \equiv FRF(\Omega)$$

\Rightarrow so the capital H is given by the ratio of ^a F.T. output over the F.T. of an input \Rightarrow [the F.T. of the impulse response function is exactly the FRF]

\Rightarrow
$$\mathcal{F}[h(t)] \equiv FRF(\Omega)$$
 } in fact we often indicate as FRF with H

So if I am in the position to measure FRF, I can get the Fourier Transform of that function I am measuring. If I apply the inverse F.T. on FRF, I get $h(t)$:

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}[FRF] = h(t)$$

$F_k = F(k\Omega_0) \rightarrow$ SPECTRAL LINE, gives the weight of each harmonic

$$\Omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T} = \frac{2\pi}{N\Delta t}$$

the generic time will be $t = m\Delta t$, with $0 \leq m \leq N \rightarrow 0, 1, 2, \dots, m, \dots, N$

the variation of time dt will be Δt :

$$F_k = \frac{1}{N\Delta t} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-ik \frac{2\pi}{N\Delta t} m\Delta t} \Delta t, \text{ because } f(t) = f_m = f(m\Delta t)$$

Simplifying, we get:

\Rightarrow

(DFT)

$$F_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-ik \frac{2\pi m}{N}}$$

PRACTICAL DEFINITION OF THE FOURIER SERIES

DISCRETE FOURIER TRANSFORM

The frequency is hidden in the k , because $\Omega_k = k\Omega_0 = k \frac{2\pi}{T}$ and this is where the time appears \rightarrow is not written in the definition

$k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \rightarrow$ theoretically goes to $\pm\infty$; but we have a limited T .



• let's compute the element $F_{k'}$, where $k' = k + N$



what happens if we increase k by a number larger than N :

$$F_{k'} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-i2\pi(k+N)m/N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-i2\pi k \frac{m}{N}} \cdot e^{-i2\pi \frac{Nm}{N}}$$

the last exponential function $\rightarrow e^{-i2\pi m} = \cos 2\pi m - i \sin 2\pi m = \textcircled{1}$

$$\Rightarrow F_{k'} = F_{k+N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} f_m e^{-i2\pi km/N} = \underline{F_k}$$

it is useless to compute many F_k than the samples we have, because they repeat themselves

We write, for the FOURIER SERIES:

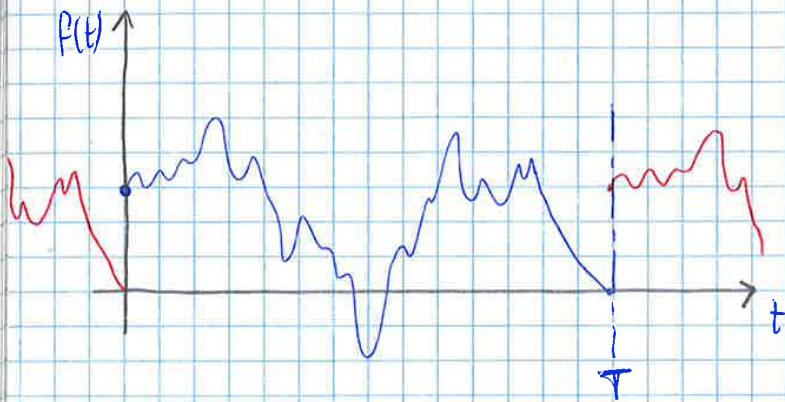
$$f(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} F_k e^{ik\omega_0 t}$$

$$F_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(t) e^{-ik\omega_0 t} dt$$

↳ DFT/FFT

LEAKAGE

This is applicable only for periodic signals; but in labs is quite unlikely to have that kind of function. So how can we apply this tool on non-periodic signals? We introduce an error in the computation:



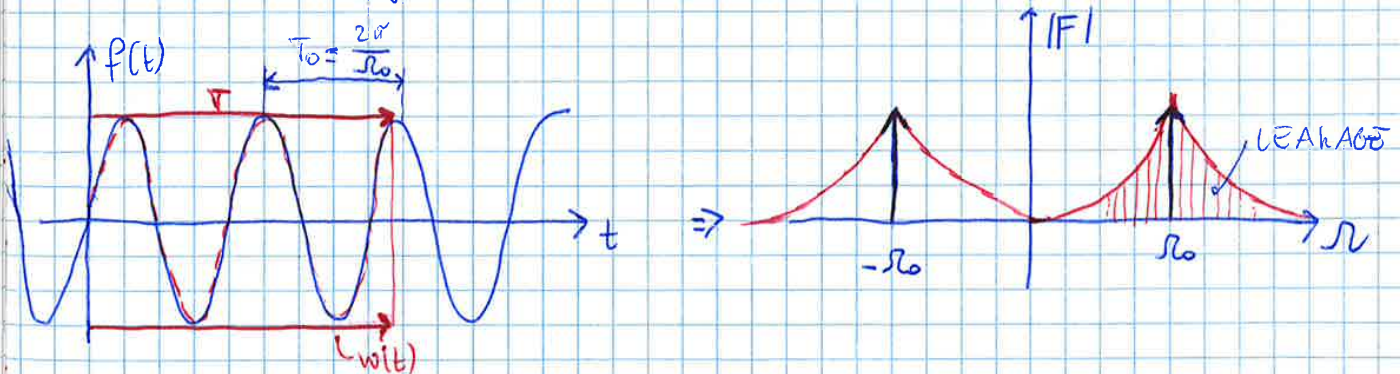
We suppose f(t) replication after a period T. On the border we don't bother, because of sampling period Δt .



INTRODUCING AN ERROR, because of this supposition

This error is called LEAKAGE, introduced by passing from time to freq. domain.

It is visible considering an harmonic function:



We already know that F.T. of an harmonic contains only two impulses at ω_0 and $-\omega_0$. But if we limit the time duration of the measurement by T , we get a function which is not zero in the proximity of the impulse in ω -domain \Rightarrow we don't get a simple spectral lines (red trend). \rightarrow LEAKAGE \rightarrow this error creates

In this way the DFT can elaborate the signal and we can limit leakage; but we have to modify the beginning and the final part of the measurement. There are many specific windows that can be used:

HANNING, HANN, BLACKMAN, FLAT-TOP, ... → we can find in Matlab

↳ they have many different shapes, almost the same as the previous one.

⇒ we don't want leakage and we accept to modify the data



We said that in the DFT computation we have $F_{k+n} = F_k$ and $F_{N-k} = F_k^*$

$$\Omega_k = k \Omega_0 \Rightarrow \Omega_{\frac{N}{2}} = \frac{N}{2} \Omega_0 = \frac{N}{2} \frac{2\pi}{T} = \frac{N}{2} \frac{2\pi}{N \Delta t} = 2\pi \frac{1}{2} f_s = (2\pi f_s) \frac{1}{2}$$

and it's what Shannon's theorem says → we can describe frequencies which are half of the sampling frequency.

⇒ $F = \text{FFT}(f)$; → Matlab does not ask us for introducing a window; it's up to us. If our f is not periodic, we ~~will~~ ^{will} get leakage.

$$f = [0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \dots]$$

The m, c, k matrixes are symmetric, so we can write:

$$[m] = [m]^T \quad [c] = [c]^T \quad [k] = [k]^T$$

and they are real, $\in \mathbb{R}$. Moreover $[m]$ and $[k]$ are POSITIVE DEFINITE, which means:

$$\{v\}^T [m] \{v\} > 0 \rightarrow \text{given any vector } \{v\}$$

$$\{v\}^T [k] \{v\} \geq 0 \rightarrow \text{SEMI DEFINITE POSITIVE, the product can give zero}$$

To get this result we have to use two different methods, based on the damping:

PROPORTIONAL DAMPING

the matrix of damping can be written in this way:

$$[c] = \alpha [m] + \beta [k]$$

it is a special case of damping

MODAL ANALYSIS

we can move to ^{an} ~~the~~ uncoupled system of diff. equation. The first step is forgetting about the damping:

$$[m] \{\ddot{u}\} + [k] \{u\} = \{0\} \rightarrow \text{HOMOGENEOUS PROBLEM}$$

the solution can be written in this form $\rightarrow \left\{ u(t) \right\} = \underbrace{\{A\}}_{m \times 1} \cos(\omega t + \varphi)$

vector $\{A\}$ doesn't depend on time; time variation depends only on the harmonic, $\{A\}$ is constant.

m = number of dof

$\Rightarrow \{\ddot{u}\} = -\omega^2 \{A\} \cos(\omega t + \varphi)$ and we can introduce it into the eq. of motion \rightarrow

Eigen vectors are usually ordered into a matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \{\psi_1\} \\ \{\psi_2\} \\ \dots \\ \{\psi_m\} \end{bmatrix} = [\Psi] \quad \text{MODAL MATRIX}$$

(it's square, real)

it is square matrix, ~~square~~ ^{real} but it is not symmetric! $[\Psi] \neq [\Psi]^T$ di solito

1) compute EIGVAL w_r^2 and EIGVECT $\{\psi_r\}$

03/11/2024 (10)

So it's difficult to compute eigenvectors and eigenvalues: it's the most difficult part.

$$[m]\{\ddot{x}\} + [c]\{\dot{x}\} + [k]\{x\} = \{F(t)\}$$

having $\{x_0\}, \{\dot{x}_0\} \Rightarrow \{x(t)\} = ?$

- $[c] = \alpha[m] + \beta[k] \rightarrow$ Proportional damping is the basic assumption for modal analysis

$$[m]\{\ddot{x}\} + [k]\{x\} = \{0\} \Rightarrow \{x(t)\} = \{A\} \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{solution of the} \\ \text{homogeneous problem} \end{array}$$

\rightarrow This set of equation is formed by coupled equations \rightarrow we can't solve it
 \rightarrow We need to use MODAL ANALYSIS

We have to assume some hypothesis:

- 1) Damping proportional to mass and stiffness

From the expression of $\{x(t)\}$ we get the Eigenvalue Problem:

$$([k] - w^2[m])\{A\} = \{0\} \Rightarrow w_r^2, \{\psi_r\}$$

$m \times 1$

$w_1 = 0$ \rightarrow means that the displacement of the structure, described by $\{\psi_1\}$ doesn't vary with time \Rightarrow it's a RIGID BODY MOTION

ORTHOGONALITY

After solving the EVP, we take two particular eigenvectors the r th and the s th

$$\begin{aligned} [k] \{\psi_r\} &= \omega_r^2 [m] \{\psi_r\} \rightarrow \textcircled{1} \{\psi_s\}^T [k] \{\psi_r\} = \omega_r^2 \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\} \\ [k] \{\psi_s\} &= \omega_s^2 [m] \{\psi_s\} \rightarrow \textcircled{2} \{\psi_r\}^T [k] \{\psi_s\} = \omega_s^2 \{\psi_r\}^T [m] \{\psi_s\} \end{aligned}$$

Transpose one of the two equations \rightarrow we choose the second

$$\textcircled{2} \{\psi_s\}^T [k] \{\psi_r\} = \omega_r^2 \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\}$$

$$\textcircled{2}^T \Rightarrow \{\psi_s\}^T [k]^T \{\psi_r\} = \omega_s^2 \{\psi_s\}^T [m]^T \{\psi_r\}$$

Matrices $[k]$ and $[m]$ are real and symmetric so $[k]^T = [k]$ and $[m]^T = [m]$
we can apply this procedure only if matrices $[m]$, $[k]$ are symmetric and if damping is proportional

$$\text{Now we do } \textcircled{1} - \textcircled{2}^T \rightarrow 0 = (\omega_r^2 - \omega_s^2) \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\}$$

IF $r \neq s$

$$\omega_r^2 - \omega_s^2 \neq 0, \text{ so } \underline{\{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\} = 0} \quad \text{M-ORTHOGONALITY}$$

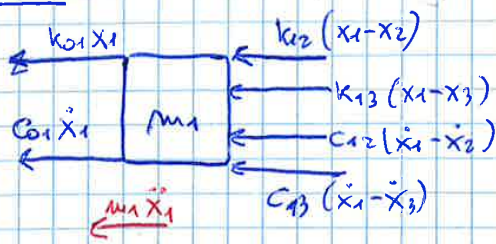
IF $r = s$

$$\omega_r^2 - \omega_s^2 = 0, \text{ so } \underline{\{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_s\} = M_r > 0} \quad \text{not zero!}$$

because $[m]$ is positive definite, multiplying it by the same vector on the left and on the right, we obtain a positive, non zero, scalar value:

$M_r = \text{MODAL MASS}$ depending on the starting matrix $[m]$ and on the particular eigenvector $\{\psi_r\}$ chosen

MASS m_1

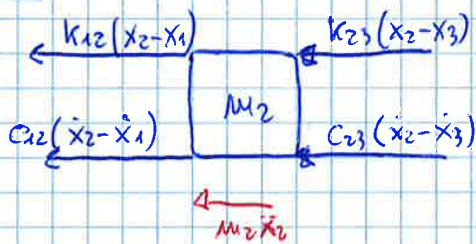


When m_1 is moving to the right, mass m_2 the same as well. What would happen if x_3 would be directed to the left?

↳ we would get $k_{13}(x_1+x_3)$ and $c_{13}(x_1+x_3)$

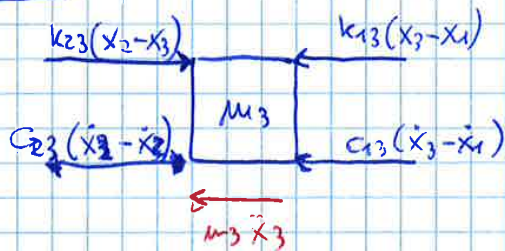
→ the sign changes depending on signs we decide for displacements

MASS m_2



The arrow for $k_{12}(x_2-x_1)$ is the same, we changed the sign for action reaction principle → NEVER CHANGE BOTH ARROWS AND SIGNS!

MASS m_3



for $k_{23}(x_2-x_3)$ we changed the arrow direction, not the expression!

2) Write down the equations of motion & we choose the right-direction as positive

$$m_1 \ddot{x}_1 + (c_{10} + c_{12} + c_{13}) \dot{x}_1 - c_{12} \dot{x}_2 - c_{13} \dot{x}_3 + (k_{10} + k_{12} + k_{13}) x_1 - k_{12} x_2 - k_{13} x_3 = 0$$

$$m_2 \ddot{x}_2 - c_{12} \dot{x}_1 + (c_{12} + c_{23}) \dot{x}_2 - c_{23} \dot{x}_3 - k_{12} x_1 + (k_{12} + k_{23}) x_2 - k_{23} x_3 = 0$$

$$m_3 \ddot{x}_3 - c_{13} \dot{x}_1 - c_{23} \dot{x}_2 + (c_{13} + c_{23}) \dot{x}_3 - k_{13} x_1 - k_{23} x_2 + (k_{13} + k_{23}) x_3 = 0$$

in matrix notation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & m_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \ddot{x}_1 \\ \ddot{x}_2 \\ \ddot{x}_3 \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c_{10} + c_{12} + c_{13} & -c_{12} & -c_{13} \\ -c_{12} & c_{12} + c_{23} & -c_{23} \\ -c_{13} & -c_{23} & c_{13} + c_{23} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \\ \dot{x}_3 \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} k_{10} + k_{12} + k_{13} & -k_{12} & -k_{13} \\ -k_{12} & k_{12} + k_{23} & -k_{23} \\ -k_{13} & -k_{23} & k_{13} + k_{23} \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}$$

same coeffs as [c] matrix. Both of [k] and [c] symm.

$$\begin{bmatrix} k & -k & 0 \\ -k & 2k & -k \\ 0 & -k & k \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \psi_{11} \\ \psi_{21} \\ \psi_{31} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix} \quad \psi_{21} \rightarrow \text{indicates the displacement of mass 2 in the eigenvector } \{\psi_{21}\}$$

$$\begin{cases} k\psi_{11} - k\psi_{21} = 0 \\ -k\psi_{11} + 2k\psi_{21} - k\psi_{31} = 0 \\ -k\psi_{21} + k\psi_{31} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \psi_{11} = \psi_{21} \\ -\psi_{11} + 2\psi_{21} - \psi_{31} = 0 \\ \psi_{31} = \psi_{21} \end{cases}$$

substituting the first and the third expression into the second we get:

$$\begin{cases} \psi_{11} = \psi_{21} \\ 0 = 0 \\ \psi_{31} = \psi_{11} \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{we can't decide the amplitude} \rightarrow \text{we use to assume that} \\ \text{the 1st element of the eigenvector is equal to one} \\ \text{There's no way to find which is exactly the amplitude} \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{\psi_{21}\} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} -\pi \\ -\pi \\ -\pi \end{Bmatrix} \quad \text{we can choose } 1 \text{ or } -\pi \rightarrow \text{there's no way to define eigenvectors}$$

⇒ Eigenvectors are defined unless a constant value

$$\{\psi_{21}\} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{Bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{[all the masses move with the same amplitude]}$$

↳ Rigid Motion $w_i = 0$

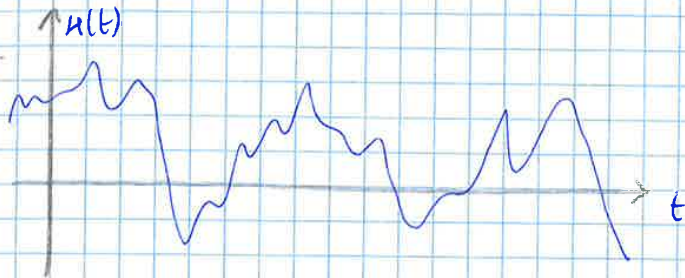
$w = w_2$

$$([k] - w_2^2 [m]) \{\psi_{22}\} = \{0\} \rightarrow w_2^2 = \frac{k}{m} \quad \text{so we'll get:}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} k - \frac{k}{m}m & -k & 0 \\ -k & 2k - \frac{k}{m}m & -k \\ 0 & -k & k - \frac{k}{m}m \end{bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \psi_{12} \\ \psi_{22} \\ \psi_{32} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}$$

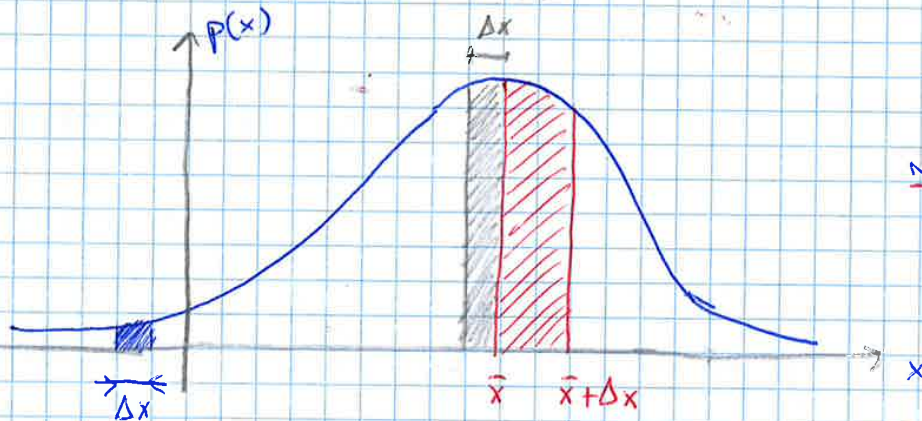
RANDOM/CASUAL/STOCHASTIC/NON DETERMINISTIC DATA

Data that can't be predicted



A random sequence of data is a sequence that, even with a long measurement, does not allow us to predict the ~~exp~~ following value
 → Ex.: wind force

To describe this kind of data we have to use the PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION



GAUSSIAN OR NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

Fixed two values \bar{x} and $\bar{x} + \Delta x$ the red area tells us what is the probability that our random function is limited between that two values

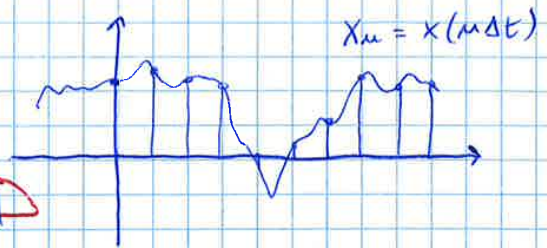
$\bar{x} < x(t) \leq \bar{x} + \Delta x$ → it tells us what is the chance to find a random value between defined limits

Given the same Δx → it's better to have a value in the ^{gray} ~~blue~~ area than in the blue one

Gaussian Distribution is defined by → $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x) dx = 1$

We would like to know what is the possible evolution of functions only using simple parameters

$$\Rightarrow \mu_x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1}^N x_m = E[x]$$



The precise N can't be infinite, but it should be as large as possible

$$\sigma_x^2 = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{m=1}^N (x_m - \mu_x)^2 = E[(x - \mu_x)^2]$$

these are the real quantities that are computed

$$\text{SKEWNESS} = \frac{E[(x - \mu_x)^3]}{\sigma_x^3}$$

$$\text{KURTOSIS} = \frac{E[(x - \mu_x)^4]}{\sigma_x^4} - 3$$

They are often used to identify any defects in structures; the -3 depends on the fact that kurtosis (Gauss) $\neq 0$

so we have to add -3 in order to have a kurtosis - Gaussian equal to zero.

with $\omega^2 = \omega_r^2$ we can find the $\{x_0\} = \{\psi_r\}$, eigenvectors

[So, for every eigenvalue ω_r^2 there is an eigenvector $\{\psi_r\}$]

$$\bullet \{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{\psi\}_r = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s \neq r \\ m_r & \text{if } s = r \end{cases} \quad \begin{matrix} r = 1, \dots, N \\ s = 1, \dots, N \end{matrix}$$

$$\bullet \{\psi\}_s^T [k] \{\psi\}_r = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s \neq r \\ k_r & \text{if } s = r \end{cases}$$

and we can write $\omega_r^2 m_r = k_r \Rightarrow \omega_r^2 = \frac{k_r}{m_r}$ natural (modal) frequency

So we have a set of possible moving equations:

$$\{x\} = \{x_0\} \cos(\omega t + \varphi) = \{\psi_0\}_r \cos(\omega_r t + \varphi_r) \quad r = 1, \dots, N$$

So we can write it: $\{x\} = \sum_{r=1}^N a_r \{\psi\}_r \cos(\omega_r t + \varphi_r)$ as a linear combination

for every eigen vector we'll have a SCALING FACTOR a_r , and we must calculate it.

The phase angle φ_r depends on every eigenvector.

NORMALIZATION OF EIGENVECTORS

In Maths we have:

$$\bar{y} = A \bar{x} \quad \text{with } \bar{x}, \bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N \quad \text{and } A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$$

$$\begin{matrix} \lambda = \lambda_r \\ \bar{x} = \bar{x}_r \\ \uparrow \end{matrix}$$

$$\bar{y} = \lambda \bar{x} \Rightarrow \lambda \bar{x} = A \bar{x} \Rightarrow A \bar{x} - \lambda \bar{x} = \bar{0} \Rightarrow [A - \lambda I] \bar{x} = \bar{0} \Rightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0$$

so I have r different equations $\rightarrow A \bar{x}_r = \lambda_r \bar{x}_r$

I can multiply for a scalar quantity $d \in \mathbb{R}, d \neq 0$:

of these vectors

$$\bullet d(A \bar{x}_r) = d(\lambda_r \bar{x}_r) \Rightarrow A(\underbrace{d \bar{x}_r}_{\bar{v}_r}) = \lambda_r(\underbrace{d \bar{x}_r}_{\bar{v}_r})$$

these are, again, eigenvectors but SCALED \rightarrow we have CHANGED AMPLITUDE, MODULUS

MODAL EXPANSION THEOREM (vedi Dimensione quadrata)

If we have a generic vector $\{v\}$, we can write it as a linear combination of eigenvectors:

$$\{v\} = \sum_{r=1}^N c_r \{\psi\}_r, \quad \{v\} \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

Let's multiply on the left side by the $[m]$ matrix:

$$[m] \{v\} = [m] \sum_{r=1}^N c_r \{\psi\}_r$$

and again by $\{\psi\}_s^T$, a generic eigenvector (we don't know if $s=r$, $s \neq r$)

$$\{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{v\} = \{\psi\}_s^T [m] \sum_{r=1}^N c_r \{\psi\}_r, \quad \text{the } \{\psi\}_r^T \text{ is not a function of } r \text{ ;}$$

neither the $[m]$ matrix

$$\{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{v\} = \sum_{r=1}^N c_r \{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{\psi\}_r$$

s is independent from r , we can choose it; for all the value $r \neq s$ the product is equal to zero; if $s=r$ it's different from zero and equal to the modal mass m_s :

$$\{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{v\} = c_s m_s \Rightarrow c_s = \frac{\{\psi\}_s^T [m] \{v\}}{m_s}$$

if we calculate all this with normalized set of vectors, we get:

$$c_s = \frac{\{\phi\}_s^T [m] \{v\}}{1} \Rightarrow \{v\} = \sum_{s=1}^N c_s \{\phi\}_s$$

~~with the unnormalized~~

c_r → modal participation factor

Don't mix the two equations and sets of coefficients

dividing by m_r we obtain \rightarrow $\ddot{\eta}_r + \omega_r^2 \eta_r = 0$ HARMONIC EQUATION

We can calculate initial conditions in two ways:

↓
Synchronous solution

$$1) \begin{cases} \{x(t=t_0)\} = \{x_0\} = [\Psi] \{ \eta_{0r} \} \\ \{\dot{x}_0\} = \{\dot{v}_0\} = [\Psi] \{ \dot{\eta}_{0r} \} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \{ \eta_{0r} \} = [\Psi]^{-1} \{ x_0 \} \\ \{ \dot{\eta}_{0r} \} = [\Psi]^{-1} \{ \dot{v}_0 \} \end{cases}$$

but the calculation of $[\Psi]^{-1}$ is long and boring \rightarrow not a good idea

2) the other approach allows to not calculate $[\Psi]^{-1}$:

FREE RESPONSE OF UNDAMPED SYSTEM

$$\eta_{lr}(t) = A_r \cos \omega_r t + B_r \sin \omega_r t = D_r \sin(\omega_r t - \varphi_r) \text{ is the solution for}$$

any r equation out of N , because they're all HARMONIC.

$$\Rightarrow \{x(t)\} = \sum_{r=1}^N \underbrace{(A_r \cos \omega_r t + B_r \sin \omega_r t)}_{\eta_{lr}(t)} \cdot \{\Psi\}_r \rightarrow \text{how can I get } A_r, B_r ?$$

$$\{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{x(t)\} = \{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \sum_{r=1}^N (A_r \cos \omega_r t + B_r \sin \omega_r t) \{\Psi\}_r \rightarrow \text{multiplications}$$

\hookrightarrow constant respect to the sum \rightarrow can go inside it

$$\{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{x(t)\} = \sum_{r=1}^N (A_r \cos \omega_r t + B_r \sin \omega_r t) \{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{\Psi\}_r$$

all the products will be equal to zero but when $r=s$:

$$\{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{x(t)\} = (A_s \cos \omega_s t + B_s \sin \omega_s t) m_s \quad \underline{r=s}$$

$t=t_0=0$

$$\{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{x_0\} = A_s m_s \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{unknown} \\ \rightarrow \end{array} \right\} A_s = \frac{\{\Psi\}_s^T [m] \{x_0\}}{m_s} \quad \text{BT:T}$$

$$a [m]^{-1} [k] \{\psi\}_2 = a \omega_2^2 \{\psi\}_2 = a \omega_1^2 \{\psi\}_2 \quad \text{now we sum (I) and (II)}$$

$$[m]^{-1} [k] \underbrace{\{\psi\}_1 + a \{\psi\}_2}_{\{v\}} = \omega_1^2 \underbrace{\{\psi\}_1 + a \{\psi\}_2}_{\{v\}}$$

$$[m]^{-1} [k] \{v\} = \omega_1^2 \{v\}$$

so if we have repeated eigenvalues and apparently different evecs related to this one, any linear combination of evecs is again a valid eigenvector, whatever I scale the 2 eigenvectors.

30/33/2014 (11)

We said for the MODAL TRANSFORMATION:

$$\{x\} = \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \eta_r = [\Psi] \{\eta\} \quad \text{we can write it in these two forms}$$

FREE RESPONSE OF A DAMPED SYSTEM

We suppose initial conditions $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \{x(t=0)\} = \{x_0\} \\ \{\dot{x}(t=0)\} = \{\dot{x}_0\} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \{x(t)\} = ?$

I move from the original system to an equivalent set of uncoupled equations:

$$m_r \ddot{\eta}_r + c_r \dot{\eta}_r + k_r \eta_r = 0 \quad r = 1, \dots, n$$

$$\eta_r(t) = (A_r \cos \omega_{dr} t + B_r \sin \omega_{dr} t) e^{-\zeta_r \omega_n t} \quad \text{for underdamping } \underline{\zeta_r < 1}$$

$$\text{and } \omega_{dr} = \omega_r \sqrt{1 - \zeta_r^2}$$

to compute A_r & B_r we have to use modal transformation, as seen:

$$\{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{x\} = \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \eta_r \quad \text{and so on ...}$$

we have that $\{x_0\} = [k_0]^{-1} \{f_0\} = [\alpha(\omega)] \{f_0\}$

the inverse of $[k_0]$ is named RECEPTANCE $\rightarrow [k_0]^{-1} = [\alpha(\omega)]$

we have to find an easy way to define the elements of this matrix;
let's transform the equation of motion in modal coordinates:

$$\{x(t)\} = \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \eta_r(t) \rightarrow \{x\} = \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \eta_r \quad (x \text{ and } \eta_r \text{ are } t\text{-dependent})$$

$$\Rightarrow [m] \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \ddot{\eta}_r + [c] \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \dot{\eta}_r + [k] \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \eta_r = \{f_0\} e^{i\omega t}$$

relaying to the orthogonality of eigenvectors respect to $[m]$ and $[k]$:

$$\{\psi_s\}^T [m] \sum_{r=1}^n \{\psi_r\} \ddot{\eta}_r + \dots = \{\psi_s\}^T \{f_0\} e^{i\omega t}$$

every product is zero unless ^{when} $r = s \rightarrow$ in this case we get modal matrixes:

$$m_r \ddot{\eta}_r + c_r \dot{\eta}_r + k_r \eta_r = \{\psi_r\}^T \{f_0\} e^{i\omega t} \quad r=1, \dots, n$$

\hookrightarrow it's like a SDOF system forced by MODAL FORCE

So, we already know the solution for this:

$$\eta_r(t) = \eta_{ro} e^{i\omega t}$$

STEADY STATE

$r=1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\{\psi_r\}^T \{f_0\}$$

derivating and substituting I get:

$$\eta_{ro} = \frac{\{\psi_r\}^T \{f_0\}}{k_r - \omega^2 m_r + i\omega c_r}$$

which is almost the same expression of $x_0 = \dots$

\hookrightarrow STEADY STATE AMPLITUDE for modal mass m_r

Remember that all the forces are equal to zero except in point q ;

$$\frac{X_{p0}}{f_{q0}} = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{\Psi_{pr} \Psi_{qr}}{K_r - \Omega^2 + i\Omega \zeta_r} = \text{FRF} = \text{RECEPTANCE} = \alpha_{pq}(\Omega)$$

all the elements of this expression are simply defined: we just have to compute multiplications!

but how α_{pq} is defined? It gives the amplitude of the response when all the forces are zero except in one point:

$$\alpha_{pq}(\Omega) = \frac{X_{p0}}{f_{q0}} \quad , \quad f_{kr} = 0, \quad \forall k \neq q$$

$\{X_p\} = [d] \{f_p\}$ → let's take one element of this expression:

$$X_{p0} = [d_{p1} \ d_{p2} \ \dots \ d_{pn}] \begin{Bmatrix} f_{10} \\ f_{20} \\ \vdots \\ f_{n0} \end{Bmatrix} \quad \text{so if all the elements are zero except } f_{q0} \text{ we'll get:}$$

$$X_{p0} = \alpha_{pq} f_{q0} \quad , \quad f_{k0} = 0, \quad \forall k \neq q$$

⇒ so receptance doesn't have to be computed by inverting $[k_0]$ matrix!

We can also write down this:

$$\alpha_{pq} = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{\Psi_{pr} \Psi_{qr}}{K_r - \Omega^2 + i\Omega \zeta_r}$$

we're making clear the presence of eigenvalues here

sometimes we also find, with NORMALIZED eigenvectors: $\{\Psi_r\} / \sqrt{m_r} = \{\Phi_r\}$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{pq} = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{\Phi_{pr} \Phi_{qr}}{\omega_r^2 - \Omega^2 + i\Omega \zeta_r}$$

$$\Phi_{pr} \Phi_{qr} \rightarrow \text{MODAL CONSTANT (RESIDUAL)}$$

the two expressions are equal

RECEPTANCE - PROP. DAMPING SYSTEMS

12/11/2014 (12)

GIORGIO

$\omega = \Omega$

$d_{ij}(\omega) = \frac{X_{0i}}{F_{0j}}$

$F(t) = \{F_0\} e^{i\omega t}$

we have one angular frequency for all the forcing functions $\rightarrow \omega (= \Omega \text{ pasiva})$

$$d_{ij}(\omega) = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{\psi_{ir} \psi_{jr}}{m_r (\omega_r^2 - \omega^2) + j \zeta_r \omega_r \omega}$$

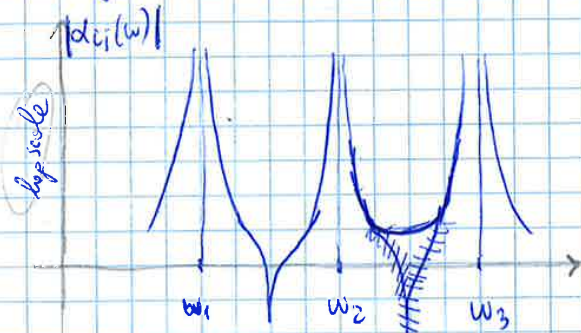
as seen, we can also normalize this expression with $\{\psi_r\} = \frac{1}{\omega_r} \{\Psi_r\}$

$$\Rightarrow d_{ij}(\omega) = \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{\phi_{ir} \phi_{jr}}{\omega_r^2 - \omega^2 + j \zeta_r \omega_r \omega}$$

\rightarrow the numerator is not function of omega. This happens because the proportional damping

$\phi_{ir} \phi_{jr}$ \rightarrow numerator is constant respect to omega and real \rightarrow RESIDUAL

Plotting the receptance ^{modulus} for 3 DOF ($\zeta_r = 0$):



$$d_{ij}(\omega) = \frac{\phi_{i1} \phi_{j1}}{\omega_1^2 - \omega^2} + \frac{\phi_{i2} \phi_{j2}}{\omega_2^2 - \omega^2} + \frac{\phi_{i3} \phi_{j3}}{\omega_3^2 - \omega^2}$$

if $\omega_1 \leq \omega \leq \omega_2$ we have, if both numerator are positive: $\omega < \omega_3$
 ($\phi_{i1} \phi_{j1} > 0$ and $\phi_{i2} \phi_{j2} > 0$)

the first term is negative, the second is positive, the 3rd is negligible;

\Rightarrow there's a point where $|d_{ij}(\omega)| \approx 0$

in a log scale we will have minima \rightarrow if $\phi_{i3} \phi_{j3} < 0 \rightarrow$ the second minimum is greater than zero

The minimum is not perfectly in the middle

The zeros of the function are called ANTIRESONANCES

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{in a log scale the} \\ \text{zeros are peaks} \\ \text{towards the bottom} \end{array} \right.$

If $j=i$

we are calculating the response in the same point where the force is applied

if damping is zero we get:

$$\Rightarrow \left| s^2[m] + s[c] + [k] \right| = 0 \rightarrow \text{we'll have } \underline{\text{2m solutions}}$$

because s_r for $r=1, \dots, m$!

$$\text{If } s=s_r \Rightarrow \left[s_r^2[m] + s_r[c] + [k] \right] \{x_0\} = \{0\} \rightarrow \text{it's a singular matrix in homogeneous system}$$

$$\Rightarrow \{x_0\} = \{\psi_r\} \quad r=1, \dots, m \quad \hookrightarrow \text{non-trivial solution}$$

but if we use s_r eigenvalues and $\{\psi_r\}$ eigenvectors, we'll see that this is not correct :

$$r \Rightarrow \left[s_r^2[m] + s_r[c] + [k] \right] \{\psi_r\} = \{0\}$$

$$s \Rightarrow \left[s_s^2[m] + s_s[c] + [k] \right] \{\psi_s\} = \{0\} \rightarrow \text{using another eigenvalue and eigenvector}$$

now I multiply on the left side by the other eigenvalue transposed:

$$a) \{\psi_s\}^T s_r^2[m] \{\psi_r\} + \{\psi_s\}^T s_r[c] \{\psi_r\} + \{\psi_s\}^T [k] \{\psi_r\} = \{\psi_s\}^T \{0\} = 0$$

$$b) \{\psi_r\}^T s_s^2[m] \{\psi_s\} + \{\psi_r\}^T s_s[c] \{\psi_s\} + \{\psi_r\}^T [k] \{\psi_s\} = \{\psi_r\}^T \{0\} = 0$$

now I transpose the second equation, remembering $[A] \cdot [B]^T = [B] [A]^T$:

$$b^T) s_s^2 \{\psi_s\}^T [m]^T \{\psi_r\} + s_s \{\psi_s\}^T [c]^T \{\psi_r\} + \{\psi_s\}^T [k]^T \{\psi_r\} = \{0\}$$

Now I ^{compute} the difference $a) - b^T) = c) : [m]^T = [m]$ and c, k

$$c) (s_r^2 - s_s^2) \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\} + (s_r - s_s) \{\psi_s\}^T [c] \{\psi_r\} + 0 = 0$$

$$(s_r - s_s) \left((s_r + s_s) \{\psi_s\}^T [m] \{\psi_r\} + \{\psi_s\}^T [c] \{\psi_r\} \right) = 0$$

if