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PHYSICS INFORMED NEURAL NETWORKS TO IDENTIFY UNBALANCE PARAMETERS IN ROTATING SYSTEM

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Abstract. *The improvement of computational resources and a large amount of data produced by different areas of science have made the neural network very relevant among researchers, exploiting their ability to deal with complex problems. However, some applications have difficulty in collecting data for neural network training, either due to the inability to obtain them or the high cost associated with their acquisition. Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINN) use the information from the model that describes the physics behavior of the analyzed system to reduce the need for large amounts of data for network training. In this work, a rotating system was modeled, in order to obtain the dynamic behavior in frequency domain response. These responses and the equation of motion are then used in the PINN to identify the unbalance fault parameters applied to the rotating system.*

Keywords: *Rotordynamics, Unbalance Parameters, Neural Networks, PINN.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Rotating system applications in industry are massive. They are present in the automotive, aerospace, power generation and other industries. The unbalanced force of the rotor mass is an inherent force in rotating systems that can generate excessive vibrations and cause catastrophic failures. Rotor unbalance is a condition of unequal mass distribution in the radial direction that does not coincide with the axis of rotation (Muszynska, 2005).

There are many works published about the rotor unbalance. Muszynska (2005) explores the unbalance response in several rotor systems such as supported by hydrodynamic bearings, anisotropic and isotropic rotor and supports, rubbing contact among others. Some authors focused on identifying unbalance parameters (Vázquez *et al.*, 2001; Lee and Ha, 2005; Gohari and Eydi, 2020), while others investigated diagnosis techniques (Jalan and Mohanty, 2009; Ahamed *et al.*, 2010; Rahman and Uddin, 2017).

Recent researches are using artificial neural network (ANN) to solve unbalance problems. Walker *et al.* (2014) use ANN in subsynchronous nonlinear features in the frequency domain to identified unbalance faults. The authors included rub and misalignment faults in their research and they showed that ANN achieved a high level of accuracy to prediction unbalance faults. Singh and Kumar (2015) compared ANN with support vector machine in unbalanced and misalignment rotors. Both techniques proved fast and reliable detection for rotor faults. Gohari and Kord (2019) simulated a rotary system with four disks and used ANN to identify unbalance force of the rotor. In their study the ANN shows an accuracy between 94 to 96% to quantify the unbalance and its location.

Machine learning has been grown rapidly likewise innovations on this field. Raissi *et al.* (2017a) and Raissi *et al.* (2017b) developed a new class of ANN that use law of physics for its training. Named physics informed neural networks (PINN) this new neural network solves problems using nonlinear partial differential equations (PDEs) in its structure. One of the authors' purposes is to reduce the amount of input data for training. In all benchmarks considered in their work, the total number of training data was relatively small. The researchers showed that even with a reduced amount of data it is possible to obtain good results using PINN. Raissi (2018) kept the previous work and improved using deep learning and nonlinear PDEs from scattered and potentially noisy observations in space and time. Despite the first work with PINN uses PDEs, Misyris *et al.* (2020), Ji *et al.* (2020) and Antonelo *et al.* (2021) demonstrated great results whit ordinary differential equations (ODEs). Some researchers have achieved remarkable results when using PINN in the design of meta-materials, fluid mechanics and chemical kinetics problems (Fang and Zhan, 2020; Sun *et al.*, 2020; Ji *et al.*, 2020). Others authors focused to increase the robustness of PINN and created its variation (Jagtap *et al.*, 2020; Meng *et al.*, 2020; Antonelo *et al.*, 2021; Kharazmi *et al.*, 2021).

In the present work, finite element method (FEM) was used to model a rotor with two disks and the PINN to prediction rotor unbalance parameters like unbalancing mass and unbalance phase between the two disks. This approach advantage is the fast parameters identification, which is an improvement when compared with model-based identification methods that require a significant amount of computational resource.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Rotor machine model

In general rotating machinery is modeling by applying FEM. This is a widespread modeling and has already shown reliable results by several researchers (Archer, 1965; Zorzi and Nelson, 1977; Lalanne and Ferraris, 1998). By applying the FEM each rotor elements are modeled according to its own characteristics. In this study we take into account inertia and gyroscopic effect on the disks but we neglected the flexibility in disk elements. However the inertia, gyroscopic effect and flexibility are considered for the beam elements (Nelson and McVaugh, 1976; Zorzi and Nelson, 1977). The differential equation of motion is given by

$$\mathbf{M}_g \ddot{\mathbf{q}} + (\mathbf{C}_g + \omega \mathbf{G}_g) \dot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{K}_g \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{F}, \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{M}_g , \mathbf{C}_g , \mathbf{G}_g and \mathbf{K}_g are the mass, damping, gyroscopic and stiffness matrices, respectively, ω is the shaft rotational speed and the subscript g indicates the global matrix of the system; $\mathbf{q} = \{y_1, z_1, \varphi_{y1}, \varphi_{z1}, \dots, y_n, z_n, \varphi_{yn}, \varphi_{zn}\}$ are the generalized coordinates of the system which consider all degrees of freedom and the displacement of the rotor in n finite-element discretization nodes; $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}\omega^2 - \mathbf{W}$ where $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}$ is the product between unbalance mass and its eccentricity, ω is the shaft rotational speed and \mathbf{W} is the rotor weight. The force is applied just in the degrees of freedom of the disks and is null for the others. The global matrices of damping \mathbf{C}_g and stiffness \mathbf{K}_g take in to account the damping \mathbf{C}_b and the stiffness \mathbf{K}_b matrices of the oil film in the journal bearing,

$$\mathbf{C}_b = \begin{bmatrix} c_{xx} & c_{xy} \\ c_{yx} & c_{yy} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbf{K}_b = \begin{bmatrix} k_{xx} & k_{xy} \\ k_{yx} & k_{yy} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

A short journal bearing was considered to modeling \mathbf{C}_b and \mathbf{K}_b , in this case the ratio between the bearing length l and diameter d has to be less than or equal 0.5 (Ocvirk, 1952; Lund and Sternlicht, 1962; Krämer, 1993). The scheme of a hydrodynamic bearing is shown in Fig. 1. Due to the fact that the shaft is subjected to some load, the bearing center O_b and the shaft center O_s are not coincident. This behavior leads to a journal eccentricity e_j and an attitude angle α , which is the angle from y axis to $\overline{O_b O_s}$. If we define $0 \geq \theta \geq \pi$ along the $\overline{O_b O_s}$, the minimum distance of the shaft from the bearing is obtained by

$$h(\theta) = h_o + e_j \cos(\theta), \quad (4)$$

where h_o represents the bearing clearance.

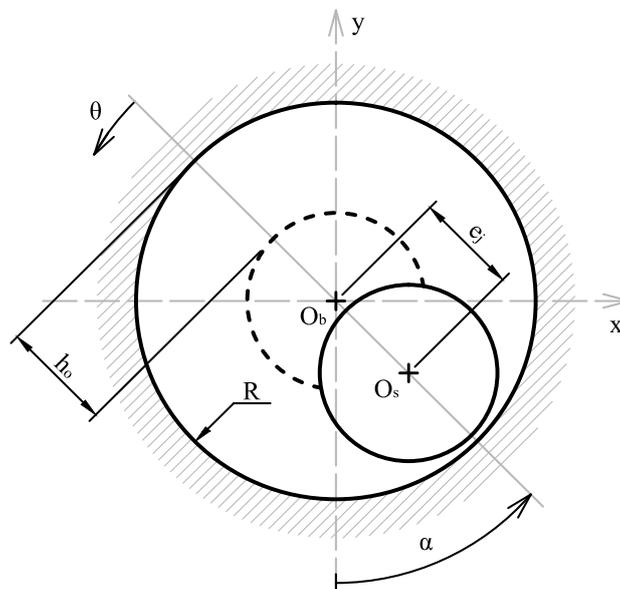


Figure 1. Scheme of journal bearing. Adapted from Krämer (1993)

According with Krämer (1993), the *Reynolds' Equation* for short bearings is given by

$$\frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(h^3 \frac{\partial p}{\partial \theta} \right) + h^3 \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial z^2} = 6\eta \left[\omega \frac{\partial h_o}{\partial \theta} + e_j (\omega - 2\dot{\alpha}) \sin(\theta) - 2\dot{e}_j \cos(\theta) \right], \quad (5)$$

here R represents the bearing radius, p is the oil film pressure and η is the oil viscosity.

According to Ocvirk (1952) and Krämer (1993), by assuming short journal bearing the pressure gradient on the circumferential direction can be considered null ($\partial p / \partial \theta = 0$) in comparison to the gradient pressure on the axial direction z . In the case of $z = 0$, $\partial p / \partial z = 0$ and for $z = \pm l/2$, $p = 0$, therefor the analytical expression for the oil film pressure is

$$p(\theta, z, t) = \frac{3\eta}{h^3} [e_j (\omega - 2\dot{\alpha}) \sin(\theta) - 2\dot{e}_j \cos(\theta)] \left(z^2 - \frac{l^2}{4} \right). \quad (6)$$

Krämer (1993) demonstrated that by integration over z axis, from $-l/2$ to $l/2$, gives the oil film force per unit length in the circumferential direction. The horizontal and vertical forces on the shaft are calculated by integrating the oil film force over circumferential direction θ , from 0 to π (development of these equations are described by Ocvirk (1952) and Krämer (1993)),

$$F_x = F_\eta f_x(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) \cos(\alpha) - F_\eta f_y(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) \sin(\alpha), \quad (7)$$

$$F_y = F_\eta f_y(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) \cos(\alpha) + F_\eta f_x(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) \sin(\alpha), \quad (8)$$

in which

$$\epsilon = \frac{e_j}{h_o}, \quad (9)$$

$$F_\eta = \frac{\eta l^3 \omega R}{2h_o}, \quad (10)$$

$$f_x(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) = \left(1 - \frac{2\dot{\alpha}}{\omega} \right) \frac{2\epsilon^2}{(1 - \epsilon^2)^2} + \pi \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\omega} \frac{1 + 2\epsilon^2}{(1 - \epsilon^2)^{5/2}}, \quad (11)$$

and

$$f_y(\epsilon, \dot{\epsilon}, \dot{\alpha}) = -\frac{\pi}{2} \left(1 - \frac{2\dot{\alpha}}{\omega} \right) \frac{\epsilon}{(1 - \epsilon^2)^{3/2}} - \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\omega} \frac{4\epsilon}{(1 - \epsilon^2)^2}. \quad (12)$$

In the case of a horizontal rotor Eq. 7 is zero and Eq. 8 is the vertical static force on the bearing $-F_o$.

The stiffness and damping coefficients of the oil film are obtained by differentiating the forces F_x and F_y by displacements and velocities at x and y axis, thus

$$k_{xx} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x}, \quad k_{xy} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y}, \quad k_{yx} = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x}, \quad k_{yy} = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y}, \quad (13)$$

and

$$c_{xx} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial \dot{x}}, \quad c_{xy} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial \dot{y}}, \quad c_{yx} = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial \dot{x}}, \quad c_{yy} = \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial \dot{y}}. \quad (14)$$

2.2 Physics informed neural networks

Neural networks are universal function approximators and between their input and output matrices of weights \mathbf{w} and biases \mathbf{b} is applied, the size of these matrices depends on the arrangement of the inputs, outputs and hidden layers in the neural networks. The training process of a neural networks consists of optimizing weights and bias to minimize a loss function. According to Raissi *et al.* (2017a) and Raissi *et al.* (2017b), physics informed neural networks (PINNs) are a class of neural networks constructed to incorporate any law of physics. In its structure the loss function receives the residual values of a mathematical model as a constraint to guarantee that the neural network output satisfies the mathematical model. In a conventional neural networks to achieve good results, a large volume of input data is required. However the PINNs showed good results with reduced amounts of training data.

A wide range of physical problems can be described by parameterized and nonlinear partial differential equations which in general form

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = -\mathcal{N}[u; \lambda], \quad x \in \Psi, \quad t \in [0, T], \quad (15)$$

where $u(t, x)$ represent the underlying solution, $\mathcal{N}[\cdot; \lambda]$ is a nonlinear operator parametrized by λ , and Ψ is a subset of \mathbb{R}^D . To impose the physical laws we define the physics informed neural network as

$$f(t, x) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \mathcal{N}[u; \lambda]. \quad (16)$$

The nonlinear operator $\mathcal{N}[u; \lambda]$ can be simplified to $\mathcal{N}[u]$ if the parameter λ are known. To determine the physics informed neural network $f(t, x)$ it is necessary proceed by approximating $u(t; x)$ by a neural network. As a result the $f(t, x)$ will have the same parameters as $u(t, x)$ and these parameters will be optimized by minimizing the loss function

$$MSE = MSE_u + MSE_f, \quad (17)$$

in which

$$MSE_u = \frac{1}{N_u} \sum_{N_u}^{i=1} |u(t_u^i, x_u^i) - u^i|^2, \quad (18)$$

and

$$MSE_f = \frac{1}{N_f} \sum_{N_f}^{i=1} |f(t_u^i, x_u^i)|^2, \quad (19)$$

where MSE represents the mean squared error loss. The loss MSE_u corresponds to the training data on $u(t; x)$ while MSE_f enforces the law of physics by Eq. 16. N_u is the training data and N_f is the collocation points.

2.3 Physics informed neural networks for rotating system

In Section 2.1 we present the general form of differential equation of motion Eq. 1 in the time domain. This equation generates a large set of displacement data. Therefore, for a wide range of unbalanced mass, this equation would take a lot of computational time to generate all the data needed for training the neural network. Nevertheless, the Eq. 1 can be manipulated to operate in the frequency domain

$$[-\omega^2 \mathbf{M}_g + \omega(\mathbf{C}_g + \omega \mathbf{G}_g)j + \mathbf{K}_g] \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{F} e^{\phi}, \quad (20)$$

where ϕ denotes the phase angle. In this new equation of motion the displacement \mathbf{Q} and force \mathbf{F} can be represented by a set of complex conjugated values. In this way the amount of training data in a neural network is dramatically reduced. With the Equation 20 we can define physics-informed neural network as in Eq. 16:

$$f(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{F}) = [-\omega^2 \mathbf{M}_g + \omega(\mathbf{C}_g + \omega \mathbf{G}_g)j + \mathbf{K}_g] \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{F} e^{\phi}, \quad (21)$$

and proceed by approximating the displacements \mathbf{Q} and force \mathbf{F} by a neural network according Eq. 18,

$$MSE_Q = \frac{1}{N_Q} \sum_{N_Q}^{i=1} |Q(y_n^i, z_n^i, \varphi_{yn}^i, \varphi_{zn}^i) - Q^i|^2 + \frac{1}{N_Q} \sum_{N_Q}^{i=1} |F(f_{yn}^i, f_{zn}^i, f_{\varphi_{yn}}^i, f_{\varphi_{zn}}^i) - F^i|^2, \quad (22)$$

where n represent each single node of FEM and N_Q is the number of training data. The Equation 23 is used to enforce the structure imposed by Eq. 21,

$$MSE_f = \frac{1}{N_f} \sum_{N_f}^{i=1} |f(\mathbf{Q}^i, \mathbf{F}^i)|^2, \quad (23)$$

in that N_f is a finite set of collocation points. In this case, the loss function is calculated by $MSE = MSE_Q + MSE_f$.

The rotating system was modeled by FEM with 4 nodes where 2 of them are for the disks that contain the unbalance forces and the other 2 are for the journal bearings (Figure 2). The length between the nodes is $L = 0.30\text{ m}$, the both discs have the same diameter $d_1 = d_2 = 0.08\text{ m}$ and thickness $e_1 = e_2 = 0.02\text{ m}$ and the shaft diameter is 0.015 m .

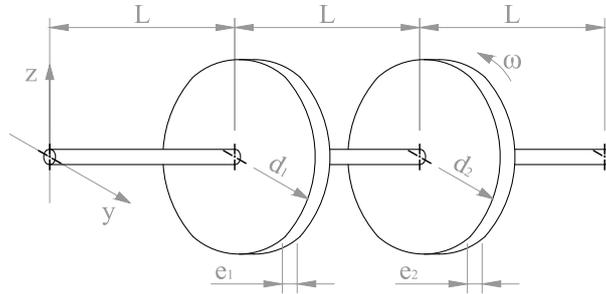


Figure 2. Scheme of rotating system considered for the analysis.

The unbalance moment $m\mathbf{e}$ are in range $[1 \times 10^{-5}, 1 \times 10^{-4}] \text{ kg.m}$ resulting in 5 unbalance moments for each disk. The phase angle ϕ varies within $[-\pi, \pi]$ rads with a angle step of $\frac{\pi}{6}$, resulting in 13 phase angle for each disk. The rotation speed ω is constant and its value is 20 rad/s . As a result, the entire data-set consists of 4, 225 samples for each degree of freedom of the FEM nodes.

3. SIMULATIONS AND RESULTS

In the field, data is usually extracted from the rotor bearings due to the difficulty of measuring at other points of the rotor. For this reason the input data for neural network training are the displacement Q of the journal bearings in the y and z axis. In this case we have 4 inputs and the neural network returns the response of all degrees of freedom of Q and F . As the result we can calculate the unbalance moment by isolating $m\mathbf{e}$ in $F = m\mathbf{e}\omega^2 e^{i\phi}$ and extract the absolute error between real and calculated unbalance force. For all analyses, we use absolute error because it shows the difference between real and calculated values for all simulated rotors. The absolute error returns its values in percentage and can be calculated using the general form $(|x_{real} - x_{calculated}|/x_{real}) \times 100$.

For all degrees of freedom, we have a set of 4, 225 simulated data and we use $N_Q = 200$ for the training data and $N_f = 3000$ for collocation points. Both training data and collocation points are extracted randomly from the simulated data. After several investigations, we determined the parameters of the neural network that presented good results for the calculation of the unbalance forces. We use 1 hidden layer with 10 neurons and Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) as activation function. The training and testing neural networks was performed using TensorFlow in Python.

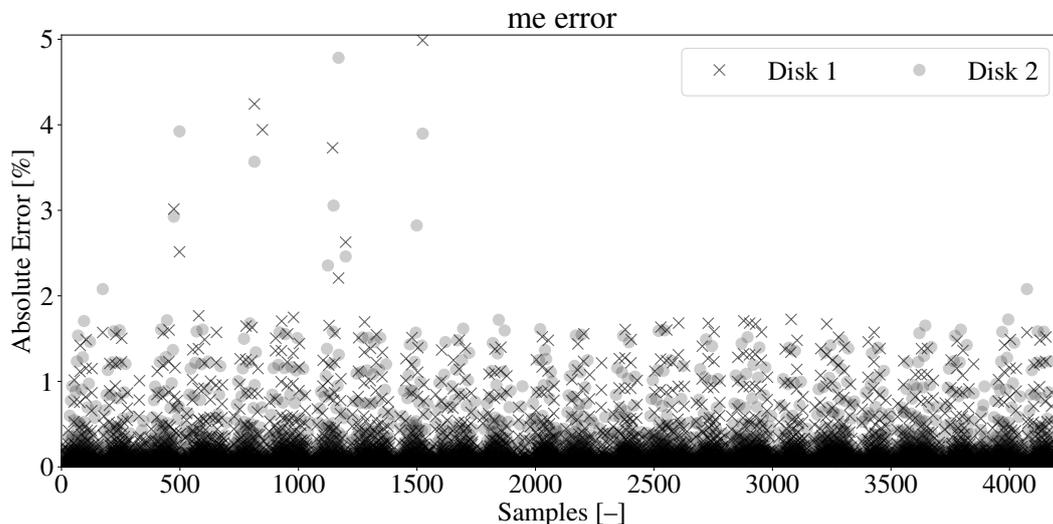


Figure 3. Unbalance moment error for all samples.

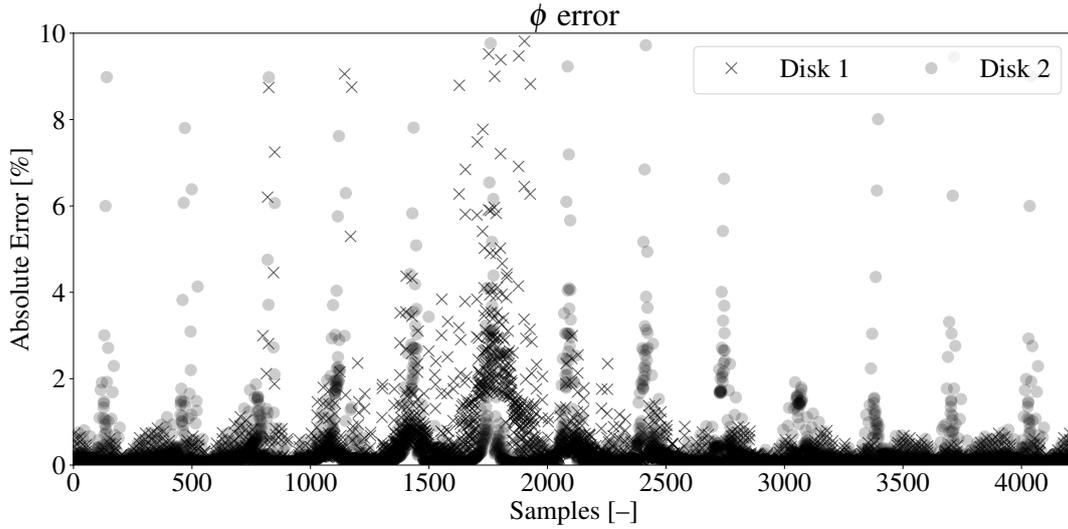


Figure 4. Unbalance phase error for all samples.

Table 1. Mean error in percentage between the predicted and the exact solution of unbalance moment m_e for different number of training data N_Q and collocation points N_f .

$N_Q \backslash N_f$	1000		3000		5000	
	disk1	disk2	disk1	disk2	disk1	disk2
100	0.7516	0.7282	0.3778	0.3751	0.2838	0.2899
200	0.3059	0.3214	0.2499	0.2903	0.2588	0.2336
300	0.3047	0.3132	0.2926	0.2728	0.3019	0.2917
400	0.2175	0.2153	0.2002	0.2081	0.1997	0.1996

Table 2. Mean error in percentage between the predicted and the exact solution of unbalance phase ϕ for different number of training data N_Q and collocation points N_f .

$N_Q \backslash N_f$	1000		3000		5000	
	disk1	disk2	disk1	disk2	disk1	disk2
100	0.8793	0.8563	0.4189	0.4923	0.5321	0.4033
200	0.4564	0.4971	0.4032	0.4527	0.3977	0.4038
300	0.4216	0.4848	0.4341	0.4401	0.4171	0.4147
400	0.4122	0.4281	0.3879	0.3801	0.3821	0.3786

The Figure 3 show the absolute error for unbalance mass while Fig. 4 show the absolute error for unbalance phase on the two disks for all simulated examples. In both figures, some samples have an error a little greater than 1% but the vast majority of errors are below 1%. The Table 1 and Table 2 report the mean error in percentage of all simulated data. In these tables, we analyze how the mean error varies when we vary the numbers of training data N_Q and collocation points N_f . The results show that when we increase the amount of neural network training data, the average errors decrease.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In this work we analyze how PINN can predict rotor unbalance problems. For this, a rotor with two disks was simulated in which we used different values of the unbalanced mass and phase angle between the two disks. Neural network training was performed with just a few samples of all our data and after training we tested the neural network prediction with all samples. It was possible to notice for a small amount of samples the neural network does not return satisfactory results, however most of the errors remain smaller than 1%. Our results demonstrate the potential for the application of PINN in rotor unbalance problems. Future works will focus on validating analytical results with a real system.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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