### **Nonlinear Vibrations of Aerospace Structures**

University of Liège, Belgium

L01b	1DOF oscillators
	Free vibration: exact solutions



#### The spring-mass-damper oscillator



 $m\ddot{y}(t) + c\dot{y}(t) + ky(t) = F(t), \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ 

Important dynamical quantities

$$m\ddot{y}(t) + c\dot{y}(t) + ky(t) = F(t), \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$$



Divide by m

$$\ddot{y}(t) + 2\xi\omega_0\dot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2y(t) = f(t), \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$$

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}, \quad \xi = \frac{c}{2\sqrt{km}}, \quad f(t) = \frac{F(t)}{m}$$
Natural Damping ratio Mass-normalized forcing

#### $\ddot{y}(t) + 2\xi\omega_0\dot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2y(t) = 0, \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ LINEAR

 $\ddot{y}(t) + f(y(t), \dot{y}(t)) = 0, \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ 

**NONLINEAR** 

#### Nonlinear functions for mechanical systems



Leonhard Euler (1707–1783) was the first person to write down the equation of motion of a harmonically forced, undamped linear oscillator.

Euler formally introduced the nondimensional driving frequency  $\Omega$  and noted that the response becomes infinite when  $\Omega=1$ . He was the first person to explain the phenomenon of resonance.

More than 100 years later, Helmholtz (1821–1894) was the first person to add a nonlinear stiffness term to Euler's equation of motion. He postulated that the eardrum behaved as an asymmetric oscillator, such that the restoring force was  $f = kx + k_2x^2$ .

Rayleigh investigated a symmetrical force–deflection characteristic given by  $f = kx + k_3 x^3$  (Duffing systems)

#### Exact solutions of undamped, unforced oscillators

1. The linear (harmonic) oscillator:

Motivation Exact solution Key findings

2. The Duffing oscillator

Motivation Exact solution Key findings

3. The Helmholtz oscillator

Motivation Exact solution Key findings







#### Colored boxes

# Important take-away message

I need your opinion

# 1. The linear (harmonic) oscillator

 $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) = 0$ 

#### Motivation for linear systems

## 2

## Undamped Vibrations of n-Degree-of-Freedom Systems



From the theory and examples discussed in Chapter 1 one should remember that the description of the dynamics of a mechanical system as obtained from Hamilton's principle, from the Lagrange equations or from the principle of virtual work generally leads to a set of nonlinear equations. Solving such nonlinear equations usually requires applying time-integration techniques as those described later in Chapter 7. Nevertheless, for many practical applications, dynamical behaviour manifests itself only as time-varying perturbation around a static solution. Indeed systems can often be described as being in an statical equilibrium configuration, around which they undergo only small dynamic motion, namely vibrations.

In that case, the description of the system can be significantly simplified and a linearization around an equilibrium position of the generally nonlinear dynamic equations is possible.

#### Small displacements and rotations

$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial u_m}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial u_m}{\partial x_j} \right)$$

#### Green's strain tensor

#### A particular case: linear deformation

The geometric linearity assumption may be split into two parts:

1. The extension strains remain infinitesimal:

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \ll 1 \qquad \qquad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{4.4}$$

2. The rotations have small amplitudes:

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \ll 1 \qquad \qquad i \neq j \tag{4.5}$$

This leads to the linear expression of the infinitesimal strain tensor

$$\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$$
(4.6)

#### Linear material: steel, aluminum, titanium

A material has linear elastic properties when the stress state remains strictly proportional to the strain state. Owing to the symmetry of the tensors  $\sigma_{ij}$  and  $\varepsilon_{kl}$ , such a material is characterized in the general case by 21 distinct coefficients  $C_{ijkl}$  so that:

$$\sigma_{ij} = C_{ijkl} \ \epsilon_{kl} \tag{4.14}$$



#### How to find the exact solution ?

 $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) = 0$ ,  $\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$ ,  $y(0) = y_0$ 



#### Équations exactes. 2.2.1

Dans certains cas, l'équation différentielle dont on cherche la solution, sans être de la pans come (2.6), peut néanmoins être résolue ou simplifiée par une simple intégration. Ainsi, forme (2.6), peut néanmoins être résolue ou simplifiée par une simple intégration. Ainsi, forme (2007) provide a simple antegration. Ainsi, une équation différentielle (linéaire ou non) d'ordre n est dite exacte si elle est simplement une equation différentielle d'ordre n-1. Dans ce cas, on peut intégrer d'une autre équation différentielle pour retrouver l'équation d'ordre n-1. Dans ce cas, on peut intégrer la derivée de la derivée. Le résultat de cette opération est alors appelé intégrale première de l'équation de départ.

 $v(t) = v_0 + gt$ 

resultance de l'ordre un possède une intégrale première, celle-ci définit la solution y(x) de façon implicite.

Une intégrale première contient une constante d'intégration et exprime généralement Ja conservation d'une grandeur caractéristique du système représenté par l'équation différentielle.

EXEMPLE 2.5 Soit l'équation non linéaire

 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{2xy} \left( y^2 + \frac{2}{x} \right)$ 

En réarrangeant les termes, on obtient

soit

 $2xy\frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 + \frac{2}{x} = 0$  on peut intégre

 $\frac{d}{dx}\left(xy^2+2\ln|x|\right)=0$ 

On a donc l'intégrale première

 $xv^2 + 2\ln|x| = C$ 

qui définit implicitement la fonction y(x) recherchée.

Parfois, il est nécessaire de multiplier les deux membres de l'équation par un facteur approprié afin de rendre celle-ci exacte et d'en permettre l'intégration. Un tel facteur est appelé facteur intégrant.



## Exact solution by integration

Multiply by velocity & integrate

#### Exact solution by integration

$$\omega_0 t = \pm \int_{y_0}^y \frac{dy}{\sqrt{a^2 - y^2}}$$

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3.3.44  $\int \frac{dx}{(a^2-x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a}$ 

Edited by Milton Abramowitz and Irene A. Stegun

https://personal.math.ubc.ca/~cbm/aands/abramowitz\_and\_stegun.pdf

#### The exact solution of the linear oscillator

$$\omega_0 t = \pm \int_{y_0}^y \frac{dy}{\sqrt{a^2 - y^2}}$$
$$a^2 = y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\int \frac{dx}{(a^2 - x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a}$$

$$\omega_{0}t = \pm \left[ \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{y}{\sqrt{y_{0}^{2} + \frac{\dot{y_{0}^{2}}}{\omega_{0}^{2}}}} \right) - \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{y_{0}}{\sqrt{y_{0}^{2} + \frac{\dot{y_{0}^{2}}}{\omega_{0}^{2}}}} \right) \right]$$
$$\sin^{-1}(x) = \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^{2}}}$$
$$\omega_{0}t = \pm \left[ \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{y}{\sqrt{y_{0}^{2} + \frac{\dot{y_{0}^{2}}}{\omega_{0}^{2}}}} \right) - \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega_{0}y_{0}}{\dot{y_{0}}} \right]$$
$$y(t) = \sqrt{y_{0}^{2} + \frac{\dot{y_{0}^{2}}}{\omega_{0}^{2}}} \sin \left( \omega_{0}t + \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega_{0}y_{0}}{\dot{y_{0}}} \right)$$

**EXACT SOLUTION** 

#### Newmark's method for linear systems



## Newmark integration scheme for linear systems



#### Verification using numerical simulation (Newmark)

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#### First important findings

$$y(t) = \sqrt{y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}} \sin\left(\omega_0 t + \tan^{-1}\frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0}\right) \qquad \qquad \omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}$$
  
Amplitude Frequency Phase

The response of a linear oscillator takes the form of harmonic motion at the natural frequency  $\omega_0$ 

The natural frequency  $\omega_0$  does not depend on the initial conditions but depends only on k and m.

#### Second important finding

Response to  $y_0$  and  $\dot{y}_0$  $y(t) = \sqrt{y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}} \sin\left(\omega_0 t + \tan^{-1}\frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0}\right)$  $= \sqrt{y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}} \left( \sin \omega_0 t \cos \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0} \right) + \cos \omega_0 t \sin \left( \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0} \right) \right)$  $=\sqrt{y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}} \left( \sin \omega_0 t \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\omega_0^2 y_0^2}{\dot{y}_0^2}}} + \cos \omega_0 t \frac{\frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\omega_0^2 y_0^2}{\dot{y}_0^2}}} \right)$  $=\frac{y_0}{\omega_0}\sin\omega_0t+y_0\cos\omega_0t$  $\cos(\operatorname{Arctan}(\mathbf{x})) = \sqrt{1+}$ Response to Response to <u>y</u><sub>0</sub> only <u>y</u>0 only sin(Arctan(x)) =

The principle of superposition is the cornerstone of linear theory:

The response caused by two or more inputs is the sum of the responses that would have been caused by each input individually.



#### Response to different initial displacements ( $\omega_0 = 1$ )



Key findings for a linear oscillator

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) = 0, \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \quad y(0) = y_0$$
$$y(t) = \sqrt{y_0^2 + \frac{\dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^2}} \sin\left(\omega_0 t + \tan^{-1}\frac{\omega_0 y_0}{\dot{y}_0}\right)$$

The response of a linear oscillator takes the form of harmonic motion at the natural frequency  $\omega_0 = \sqrt{k/m}$ .

The natural frequency depends only on k and m.

The principle of superposition is the cornerstone of linear theory.

# 2. Undamped, unforced cubic oscillator

 $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_3 y^3(t) = 0$ 

#### The so-called Duffing oscillator



Editors Ivana Kovacic and Michael J Brennan

# Why focus on cubic stiffness ?

#### Motivation for cubic nonlinearity (positive coefficient)

To illustrate the concept of nonlinear effects, let us consider the one-dimensional system consisting of a central mass particle fixed to a cable (Figure 4.7). If the cable is not stretched, we will see that the transverse motion is conditioned only by nonlinear effects.

To analyze the transverse motion of the mass particle M in the (x, y) plane, let us assume that the cable is massless so that it remains straight on both sides of the mass. The cable is subjected to no initial stress and the diameter of the mass is negligible compared to the cable length  $\ell$ . We may thus write:

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{2v_M}{\ell} \qquad \text{when} \quad 0 < x < \frac{\ell}{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{-2v_M}{\ell} \qquad \text{when} \quad \frac{\ell}{2} < x < \ell$$
(E4.2.a)



Figure 4.7 Cable with central mass particle.

where  $v_M$ , the transverse displacement of mass M, is the only independent variable of the problem. If the analysis is limited to the transverse motion, the axial strain can be expressed by:

$$\epsilon_x = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^2 \tag{E4.2.b}$$

The kinetic and potential energies take the form:

$$\mathcal{T} = \frac{1}{2}M\dot{v}_{M}^{2}$$

$$\mathcal{V}_{int} = \frac{1}{2}\int_{0}^{\ell}EA\varepsilon_{x}^{2} dx$$
(E4.2.c)

Let us now apply Hamilton's principle to obtain the equation of motion in the absence of external forces:

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left\{ M \dot{v}_M \delta \dot{v}_M + \int_0^\ell E A \varepsilon_x \delta \varepsilon_x \, dx \right\} \, dt = 0$$

and next, by making use of Equation (E4.2.b),

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left\{ M \dot{v}_M \delta \dot{v}_M + \int_0^\ell \frac{EA}{2} \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)^3 \delta \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \, dx \right\} \, dt = 0$$

Taking account of the application rules of the principle, integrating by parts the first term and making use of relationships (E4.2.a) yields:

$$M \ddot{v}_M \delta v_M + \int_0^{\frac{\ell}{2}} \frac{EA}{2} \left(\frac{2v_M}{\ell}\right)^3 \frac{2}{\ell} \delta v_M \ dx + \int_{\frac{\ell}{2}}^{\ell} \frac{EA}{2} \left(\frac{2v_M}{\ell}\right)^3 \frac{2}{\ell} \delta v_M \ dx = 0$$

and thus:

$$\left\{ M \ddot{v}_M + \ell \frac{EA}{\ell} \left( \frac{2 v_M}{\ell} \right)^3 \right\} \, \delta v_M = 0$$

Since  $\delta v_M$  is arbitrary, the equation governing the free transverse motion takes the final form:

$$M\ddot{v}_M + EA\left(\frac{2v_M}{\ell}\right)^3 = 0$$
 (E4.2.d)

The relationship above expresses equilibrium of mass M when the restoring force is due to non-linear effects only. In other words, when the mass particle M moves in the perpendicular direction to x, the cable is stretched. This is commonly called the cable effect. Let us notice the nonlinear form of the restoring force versus  $v_M$ .



#### Motivation for cubic nonlinearity (positive coefficient)



Clamped-clamped beam (length: 46cm, width: 2cm, thickness: 0.08cm)

#### Motivation for cubic nonlinearity (positive coefficient)



Force = 
$$2F_x = 2Fsin\alpha = 2k(l_1 - l_0)\frac{x}{l_1} = 2kx\left(1 - \frac{l_0}{l_1}\right) = 2kx\left(1 - \frac{l_0}{\sqrt{x^2 + l_0^2}}\right)$$
  
$$\frac{l_0}{\sqrt{x^2 + l_0^2}} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2{l_0}^2} + \frac{3x^4}{8{l_0}^4} + O(x^6)$$

Force 
$$\approx 2kx\left(1-1+\frac{x^2}{2{l_0}^2}\right) \approx \frac{kx^3}{{l_0}^2}$$
 Hardening

#### Motivation for cubic nonlinearity (negative coefficient)

#### Springs with positive/negative stiffness



#### Spring stiffness: df/dy



#### Small vs. large displacements





x=1mm,  $F_{NL}$ =2.4 N ~  $F_{LIN}$  =11 N x=1 $\mu$ m,  $F_{NL}$  =2.4e-9 N <<<  $F_{LIN}$  =1.1e-2 N Exact solution by integration

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_3 y^3(t) = 0 \qquad \dot{y}(0) = 0 , \ y(0) = y_0$$

$$Multiply by the velocity and integrate$$

$$\frac{\dot{y}^2(t)}{2} + \frac{\omega_0^2 y^2(t)}{2} + \frac{\alpha_3 y^4(t)}{4} = \frac{\omega_0^2 y_0^2(t)}{2} + \frac{\alpha_3 y_0^4(t)}{4}$$

$$\mathbf{v}$$
Next two pages
$$t = \int_{y_0}^{y} \frac{-dy}{\sqrt{(y_0^2 - y^2)(\omega_0^2 + \frac{\alpha_3}{2}(y_0^2 + y^2)))}}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = y_0 \cos \phi$$

$$\Omega t = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi'}{\sqrt{1 - m \sin^2 \phi'}}$$

$$\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \alpha_3 y_0^2}$$

$$m = \alpha_3 y_0^2 / 2\Omega^2$$

### Details of the proof

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 = \omega_0^2 y_0^2 - \omega_0^2 y^2 + \frac{\alpha_3}{2} y_0^4 - \frac{\alpha_3}{2} y^4 \quad \rightarrow \ dt = \sqrt{\frac{dy^2}{\omega_0^2 \left(y_0^2 - y^2\right) + \frac{\alpha_3}{2} \left(y_0^2 - y^2\right) \left(y_0^2 + y^2\right)}}$$

$$t = \int_{y_0}^{y} \frac{-dy}{\sqrt{(y_0^2 - y^2)(\omega_0^2 + \frac{\alpha_3}{2}(y_0^2 + y^2))}} \qquad \qquad y = y_0 \cos\phi$$

$$t = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{y_0 \sin \phi}{\sqrt{y_0^2 \sin^2 \phi \left(\omega_0^2 + \frac{\alpha_3}{2} \left(y_0^2 + y_0^2 \cos^2 \phi\right)\right)}}$$

$$t = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{\omega_0^2 + rac{lpha_3}{2} \left(y_0^2 + y_0^2 \cos^2 \phi\right)}}$$

Details of the proof

$$\omega_0^2 + \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2} + \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2} + \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2} \left( \cos^2 \phi - 1 \right) = \Omega^2 - \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2} \sin^2 \phi = \Omega^2 \left( 1 - \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2\Omega^2} \sin^2 \phi \right)$$

 $\rightarrow$ 

$$t = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \frac{\alpha_3}{2} (y_0^2 + y_0^2 \cos^2 \phi)}} \quad \to \quad t = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi}{\Omega \sqrt{1 - \frac{y_0^2 \alpha_3}{2} \sin^2 \phi}}$$

$$\Omega t = \int_0^\phi \frac{d\phi}{\sqrt{1 - m\sin^2\phi}}$$

$$\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \alpha_3 y_0^2}$$
$$m = \alpha_3 y_0^2 / 2\Omega^2$$

Let's compare the linear and nonlinear cases

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_3 y^3(t) = 0$$
  $\dot{y}(0) = 0$ ,  $y(0) = y_0$ 



What can you conclude ? Compare  $\omega_0$  and  $\Omega$
## The solution is expressed as an elliptic cosine

$$u = F(\phi|m) = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi'}{\sqrt{1 - m\sin^2 \phi'}}$$
$$= \Omega t$$

 $\operatorname{cn}(u|m) = \cos\phi$ 

 $y = y_0 \cos \phi$ 

 $y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn}\left(\Omega t | m\right)$ 

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The Jacobian elliptic functions can also be defined with respect to certain integrals. Thus if

16.1.3 
$$u = \int_0^{\varphi} \frac{d\theta}{(1 - m \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2}},$$

the angle  $\varphi$  is called the *amplitude* 

16.1.4  $\varphi = \operatorname{am} u$ 

and we define

16.1.5

 $\sin u = \sin \varphi$ ,  $\operatorname{cn} u = \cos \varphi$ ,

See Appendix A

## The exact solution of the Duffing oscillator

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_3 y^3(t) = 0$$
  $\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ 

$$y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn} (\Omega t | m)$$
 with  $\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \alpha_3 y_0^2}$ 

#### **EXACT SOLUTION**

The response does not take the form of a harmonic function.

The frequency depends on k and m but also on the initial displacement and nonlinear coefficient.

## Newmark's method for nonlinear systems



## Verification using numerical simulation

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Function ellipj.m



## Let's compare the linear and nonlinear cases



What do you observe ?

## The period depends on the nonlinear coefficient



## The period depends on the initial displacement



What can you conclude ?

Failure of superposition principle

The period is equal to 4 times the time to move from the initial position to the equilibrium position. The corresponding variation of  $\phi$  is between 0 and  $\pi/2$ .

$$u = F(\phi|m) = \int_0^{\phi} \frac{d\phi'}{\sqrt{1 - m\sin^2 \phi'}}$$
$$= \Omega t$$

$$T = \frac{4F\left(\frac{\pi}{2}|m\right)}{\Omega} = \frac{4K(m)}{\Omega}$$

**EXACT EXPRESSION** 

#### 17.3. Complete Elliptic Integrals of the First and Second Kinds

Referred to the canonical forms of 17.2, the elliptic integrals are said to be *complete* when the amplitude is  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  and so x=1. These complete integrals are designated as follows

17.3.1  

$$[K(m)] = K = \int_0^1 [(1-t^2)(1-mt^2)]^{-1/2} dt$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} (1-m\sin^2\theta)^{-1/2} d\theta$$
17.3.2  $K = F(\frac{1}{2}\pi \mid m) = F(\frac{1}{2}\pi \setminus \alpha)$ 

Function ellipke.m

## The natural frequency of the Duffing oscillator



## The natural frequency of the Duffing oscillator



## Let's compare the linear and nonlinear cases



What do you observe ?

## Does the elliptic cosine look like a pure cosine ?

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16.23. Series Expansions in Terms of the Nome  $q=e^{-\pi K'/K}$  and the Argument  $v=\pi u/(2K)$ 16.23.1  $\operatorname{sn}(u|m)=\frac{2\pi}{m^{1/2}K}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{q^{n+1/2}}{1-q^{2n+1}}\sin((2n+1)v)$ 16.23.2  $\operatorname{cn}(u|m)=\frac{2\pi}{m^{1/2}K}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{q^{n+1/2}}{1+q^{2n+1}}\cos((2n+1)v)$ 

Infinite number of harmonics to represent an elliptic cosine/sine.

## Harmonics more visible in the acceleration signal

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	LINEAR	NONLINEAR
$y(0) = y_0$	$y(t) = y_0 \cos\left(\omega_0 t\right)$	$y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn}(\Omega t   m)$
$\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$	$y(t) = rac{\dot{y}_0}{\omega_0} \sin{(\omega_0 t)}$	$y(t) = \frac{\dot{y}_0}{\Omega} \operatorname{sn}\left(\Omega t   m\right)$

### 1. The response is no longer purely harmonic

	LINEAR	NONLINEAR
$y(0) = y_0$	$y(t) = y_0 \cos\left(\omega_0 t\right)$	$y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn} (\Omega t   m)$ $\operatorname{cn} (u m) = \frac{2\pi}{m^{1/2}K} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^{n+1/2}}{1+q^{2n+1}} \cos (2n+1)v$
$\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$	$y(t) = rac{\dot{y}_0}{\omega_0} \sin(\omega_0 t)$	$y(t) = \frac{\dot{y}_0}{\Omega} \operatorname{sn} \left(\Omega t   m\right)$ $\operatorname{sn} \left(u m\right) = \frac{2\pi}{m^{1/2}K} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^{n+1/2}}{1-q^{2n+1}} \sin (2n+1)v$

#### 2. Nonlinear systems generate harmonics

	LINEAR	NONLINEAR
$y(0) = y_0$	$y(t) = y_0 \cos\left(\omega_0 t\right)$	$y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn} \left( \frac{\Omega t}{m} \right)$ $\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \alpha_3 y_0^2}$
$\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$	$y(t) = rac{\dot{y}_0}{\omega_0} \sin{(\omega_0 t)}$	$y(t) = \frac{\dot{y}_0}{\Omega} \operatorname{sn} \left(\Omega t   m\right)$ $\Omega = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0^2 + \sqrt{\omega_0^4 + 2\alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2}}{2}}$

3. No superposition principle

	LINEAR	NONLINEAR
$y(0) = y_0$	$y(t) = y_0 \cos\left(\omega_0 t\right)$	$y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn} \left(\Omega t   m\right)$ $\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + \alpha_3 y_0^2}$
$\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$	$y(t) = rac{\dot{y}_0}{\omega_0} \sin{(\omega_0 t)}$	$y(t) = \frac{\dot{y}_0}{\Omega} \operatorname{sn} \left(\Omega t   m\right)$ $\Omega = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0^2 + \sqrt{\omega_0^4 + 2\alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2}}{2}}$

4. Frequency-amplitude dependence: backbone curve

## Appendix A: elliptic functions

We recall that trigonometric functions can be defined in terms of the functional inverse of specific integrals. For example,

$$\theta = \int_0^y \frac{dy'}{\sqrt{1 - y'^2}} = \arcsin y \quad \to \sin \theta = y \tag{3.63}$$

Similarly, Jacobi elliptic functions result from the inversion of the elliptic integral of the first kind. For instance,

$$u = \int_0^y \frac{dy'}{\sqrt{(1 - y'^2)(1 - k^2 y'^2)}} \to \operatorname{sn}(u, k) = y \qquad (3.64)$$

or, if  $y = \sin \phi$ ,

$$F(\phi,k) = \int_0^\phi \frac{d\phi'}{\sqrt{1 - k^2 \sin^2 \phi'}} \to \operatorname{sn}(u,k) = \sin\phi \qquad (3.65)$$

While trigonometric functions are defined with reference to a circle, the previous section has shown that the Jacobi elliptic functions refer to the ellipse. But their geometrical interpretation is similar:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}, \ \sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$
(3.66)  
$$\operatorname{cn}(u,k) = \frac{x}{r}, \ \operatorname{sn}(u,k) = \frac{y}{r}$$
(3.67)

with r = 1 on the unit circle whereas r varies along the unit ellipse.

Finally, Jacobi elliptic functions include trigonometric and hyperbolic functions as special cases

$$k = 0$$
 :  $\operatorname{sn}(u, 0) = \operatorname{sin}(u), \ \operatorname{cn}(u, 0) = \cos(u)$  (3.68)

$$k = 1$$
 :  $sn(u, 1) = tanh(u), cn(u, 1) = sech(u)$  (3.69)

and

$$cn(0,k) = 1$$
,  $sn(0,k) = 0$  (3.70)

$$cn^{2}(u,k) + sn^{2}(u,k) = 1$$
 (3.71)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}u}\mathrm{cn} = -\mathrm{sn}\,\mathrm{dn}, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}u}\mathrm{sn} = \mathrm{cn}\,\mathrm{dn}, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}u}\mathrm{dn} = -k\,\mathrm{cn}\,\mathrm{sn} \qquad (3.72)$$

## Appendix B: Analytical expression of the acceleration

$$\frac{d}{du}cn = -sn dn, \quad \frac{d}{du}sn = cn dn, \quad \frac{d}{du}dn = -k cn sn$$

 $y(t) = y_0 \operatorname{cn}\left(\Omega t | m\right)$ 

$$\ddot{y}(t) = y_0 \Omega^2 \operatorname{cn}\left(\Omega t | m\right) \left[ m \operatorname{sn}^2\left(\Omega t | m\right) - \operatorname{dn}^2\left(\Omega t | m\right) \right]$$

Appendix C: response to an initial velocity

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_3 y^3(t) = 0 \qquad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = 0$$
$$y(t) = \frac{\dot{y}_0}{\Omega} \operatorname{sn} \left(\Omega t | m\right)$$

$$\Omega = \sqrt{\frac{\omega_0^2 + \sqrt{\omega_0^4 + 2\alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2}}{2}}$$
$$m = \frac{-\alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2}{\omega_0^4 + \alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2 + \omega_0^2 \sqrt{\omega_0^4 + 2\alpha_3 \dot{y}_0^2}}$$

## Appendix C: response to an initial velocity



Failure of superposition principle

## Appendix D: beneficial/detrimental effect of nonlinearity



# 3. Undamped, unforced Helmholtz oscillator

 $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_2 y^2(t) = 0$ 

When we apply Taylor series to an odd function, it has nonzero coefficients only for odd degree terms. The first nonlinear term is a cubic term (see the pendulum example).

When we apply Taylor series to a function which is not odd, the first term is a quadratic term.

A function which is not odd: absence of symmetry

## Motivation for quadratic nonlinearity

Helmholtz postulated that the eardrum (prestressed membrane) behaved as an asymmetric oscillator, with  $f = kx + k_2x^2$ .

symmetric beam. The two other examples, as shown in Fig. 8b and c, are arches: the first one is shallow, while the third one is non-shallow. Adding curvature has two important effects. First, flexural and in-plane modes are no longer linearly uncoupled. Second, the curvature renders the restoring force asymmetric and an important quadratic nonlinearity appears between the bending modes. This example illustrates the fact





## Motivation for quadratic nonlinearity



$$\ddot{X}_1 + \omega_1^2 X_1 + \frac{\omega_1^2}{2} (3X_1^2 + X_2^2) + \omega_2^2 X_1 X_2 + \frac{\omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2}{2} X_1 (X_1^2 + X_2^2) = 0,$$
  
$$\ddot{X}_2 + \omega_2^2 X_2 + \frac{\omega_2^2}{2} (3X_2^2 + X_1^2) + \omega_1^2 X_1 X_2 + \frac{\omega_1^2 + \omega_2^2}{2} X_2 (X_1^2 + X_2^2) = 0,$$

## Closed-form solutions for the quadratic mixed-parity nonlinear oscillator

A Beléndez<sup>1,2</sup>\* , A Hernández<sup>1,2</sup>, T Beléndez<sup>1,2</sup>, E Arribas<sup>3</sup> and M L Álvarez<sup>1,2</sup>

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x}{\mathrm{d}t^2} + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 = 0,$$

with initial conditions

$$x(0) = x_0, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t}(0) = 0.$$

Main steps of the proof

$$dt = \pm \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a_1(x_0^2 - x^2) + \frac{2}{3}a_2(x_0^3 - x^3)}},$$

$$t(x) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2a_2}} \int_x^{x_0} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\sqrt{(x_0 - x)(x - x_1)(x - x_2)}}.$$

$$\int_{x}^{a} \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\sqrt{(a-u)(u-b)(u-c)}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{a-c}} F(\lambda, p) \qquad F(\varphi, m) = \int_{0}^{\varphi} \frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\sqrt{1-m\sin^{2}\theta}}.$$
  
F is the incomplete elliptic integral of the first kind  $\lambda = \arcsin\left(\sqrt{\frac{a-x}{a-b}}\right),$   
 $p = \frac{a-b}{a-c}.$ 

The exact solution of the Helmholtz oscillator

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_2 y^2(t) = 0$$
  $\dot{y}(0) = 0$ ,  $y(0) = y_0$ 

$$y(t) = y_0 - a \operatorname{sn}^2(\Omega t | m)$$

**EXACT SOLUTION** 

$$a = \frac{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 - \phi}{4\alpha_2}$$
$$\phi = \sqrt{3}\sqrt{3\omega_0^2 - 4\omega_0 \alpha_2 y_0 - 4\alpha_2^2 y_0^2}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{\sqrt{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 + \phi}}{2\sqrt{6}}$$

$$m = \frac{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 - \phi}{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 + \phi}$$

## Verification using numerical simulation

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## Asymmetry of the time series



## The stiffness decreases for negative displacements



A greater initial displacement

$$\ddot{y}(t) + y(t) + y^2(t) = 0$$
  $y(0)=0.6$ 



WHY?

## Mathematical explanation

$$a = \frac{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 - \phi}{4\alpha_2}$$
  

$$\phi = \sqrt{3}\sqrt{3\omega_0^2 - 4\omega_0 \alpha_2 y_0 - 4\alpha_2^2 y_0^2}$$
  

$$\Omega = \frac{\sqrt{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 + \phi}}{2\sqrt{6}}$$
  

$$m = \frac{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 - \phi}{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 + \phi}$$

Existence condition for the square root:

$$3\omega_0^2 - 4\omega_0\alpha_2 y_0 - 4\alpha_2^2 y_0^2 > 0$$


#### Physical explanation: potential energy



When  $y_0 > 0.5$  or  $y_0 < -1$ , unbounded motion

When  $y_0 = 1$ , equilibrium position

#### Potential energy and associated phase space



#### The stiffness is negative when y(t) < -0.5m



#### The period can be calculated explicitly

$$T = \frac{4\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{3\omega_0^2 + 6\alpha_2 y_0 + \phi}} K(m)$$

Complete elliptic integral of the first kind



#### Frequency content

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## Zero, first, second, third harmonics generated



# Key findings

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \alpha_2 y^2(t) = 0 \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0 , \ y(0) = y_0$$
$$\mathbf{y}(t) = y_0 - a \operatorname{sn}^2(\Omega t | m)$$

A nonlinear system can possess multiple equilibrium positions.

From a theoretical perspective, a nonlinear system can exhibit unbounded motion.

Quadratic nonlinearity gives rise to even and odd harmonics whereas cubic nonlinearity gives rise to odd harmonics.

# Exact solutions of damped, unforced oscillators

4. The linear damped oscillator:

Motivation Exact solution Key findings

5. Coulomb friction

Motivation Exact solution Key findings





# 4. The linear damped oscillator

 $\ddot{y}(t) + 2\xi\omega_0\dot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2y(t) = 0$ 

### Motivation for linear damping



**Figure 1.8** A schematic of a dashpot that produces a damping force  $f_c(t) = c\dot{x}(t)$ , where x(t) is the motion of the case relative to the piston.

A simple way to construct a damping matrix C that guarantees diagonal modal damping consists of making a weighted sum of the mass and stiffness matrices:

$$C = a\mathbf{K} + b\mathbf{M} \tag{3.19}$$

This matrix is commonly known as a *proportional damping* (or *Rayleigh damping*) matrix and results in a diagonal modal damping matrix with coefficients:

$$\beta_r = a\gamma_r + b\mu_r$$

and the associated modal damping ratios are:

$$\epsilon_r = \frac{1}{2} \left( a\omega_{0r} + \frac{b}{\omega_{0r}} \right)$$



## Exact solution by integration

$$\ddot{y}(t) + 2\xi\omega_0\dot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2y(t) = 0, \quad \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$$

$$\tan^{-1} \frac{\frac{\dot{y}}{y} + \xi \omega_0}{\omega_d} + \omega_d t = \phi$$
  

$$\omega_d = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 - \xi^2}$$
  

$$y(t) = Y e^{-\xi \omega_0 t} \cos(\omega_d t - \phi)$$
  

$$y(t) = \sqrt{y_0^2 + \left(\frac{\dot{y}_0 + \xi \omega_0 y_0}{\omega_d}\right)^2} e^{-\xi \omega_0 t} \sin\left(\omega_d t + \tan^{-1} \frac{y_0 \omega_d}{\dot{y}_0 + \xi \omega_0 y_0}\right)$$
  
EXACT  
SOLUTION

The response of a damped linear oscillator is an exponentially-damped sine wave

#### Details of the proof

As for the undamped case, the exact analytical solution can be derived by finding a constant of motion, i.e., without assuming a trial solution. Posing  $u = \frac{\dot{y}}{y}$ , we have  $\ddot{y} = \dot{u}y + \dot{y}u$ , and Equation (2.6) is transformed into

$$\dot{u} + u^2 + 2\xi\omega_0 u + \omega_0^2 = 0 \tag{2.22}$$

or equivalently into

$$\frac{du}{u^2 + 2\xi\omega_0 u + \omega_0^2} = -dt$$
(2.23)

Upon integration<sup>4</sup> and provided that  $\xi < 1$ , the following conservation law is obtained:

$$\tan^{-1}\frac{u+\xi\omega_0}{\omega_d}+\omega_d t=\phi \tag{2.24}$$

where  $\omega_d = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 - \xi^2}$  is the *damped natural frequency*, and  $\phi$  is an integration constant. The cases  $\xi > 1$  and  $\xi = 1$  correspond to aperiodic motions; they can also be tackled <sup>5</sup>, but they are of less practical interest and are not detailed herein.

#### Details of the proof

Recalling that  $u = \dot{y}/y$ , we have

$$\frac{dy}{y} = \left[-\xi\omega_0 - \omega_d \tan\left(\omega_d t - \phi\right)\right] dt \tag{2.25}$$

Equation (2.25) can be further integrated to provide the general solution to Equation (2.6)

$$y(t) = Y e^{-\xi \omega_0 t} \cos\left(\omega_d t - \phi\right) \tag{2.26}$$

where *Y* is the second integration constant. Both *Y* and  $\phi$  can be determined from the knowledge of the initial conditions  $y_0$  and  $\dot{y}_0$ . Equation (2.26) expresses that the free response of a viscously-damped oscillator takes the form of harmonic motion of frequency  $\omega_d$  with exponentially decaying amplitude which can be seen as a damped sine wave.

## Exponentially-damped sine wave

$$y(t) = \sqrt{y_0^2 + \left(\frac{\dot{y}_0 + \xi\omega_0 y_0}{\omega_d}\right)^2} e^{-\xi\omega_0 t} \sin\left(\omega_d t + \tan^{-1}\frac{y_0\omega_d}{\dot{y}_0 + \xi\omega_0 y_0}\right)$$



$$\ddot{y} + 0.1\dot{y} + y = 0$$
,  $y(0) = 2, \dot{y}(0) = 0$   
 $\xi = 0.05, \omega_0 = 1 \, rad/s, \omega_d = 0.999 \, rad/s$ ,

# 5. Coulomb friction $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \mu g \operatorname{sign}(\dot{y}(t)) = 0$

# Motivation for Coulomb friction: interfacial damping





Connection with the wing



Velocity

#### System with Coulomb friction



 $m\ddot{y}(t) + ky(t) + \mu mg \operatorname{sign}(\dot{y}(t)) = 0$   $\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ 



$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \mu g \operatorname{sign}(\dot{y}(t)) = 0$$

#### System with Coulomb friction



 $m\ddot{y}(t) + ky(t) + \mu mg \operatorname{sign}(\dot{y}(t)) = 0$   $\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$ 



$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \mu g \operatorname{sign}(\dot{y}(t)) = 0$$

# Exact solution

$$\dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0, \ y(0) = y_0$$

$$\dot{y} < 0$$

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) - \mu g = 0$$
Superposition principle
$$y(t) = A \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$

$$y(t) = \left(y_0 - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}\right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
Valid until
$$\dot{y}(t) = -\omega_0 \left(y_0 - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}\right) \sin \omega_0 t = 0 \text{ when } t = \frac{\pi}{\omega_0}$$

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Exact solution

When 
$$t = \frac{\pi}{\omega_0}$$
,  $y = -y_0 + \frac{2\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$  and  $\dot{y} = 0$   
 $\dot{y} > 0$   
 $\ddot{y}(t) + \omega_0^2 y(t) + \mu g = 0$   
 $y(t) = A\cos\omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$   
 $y(t) = \left(y_0 - \frac{3\mu g}{\omega_0^2}\right)\cos\omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$  Valid until  
 $\dot{y} > 0$   
 $\dot{y}(t) = -\omega_0 \left(y_0 - \frac{3\mu g}{\omega_0^2}\right)\sin\omega_0 t = 0$  when  $t = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}$ 

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#### In summary

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0, \frac{\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{3\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{5\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{4\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{7\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$

This procedure is repeated until the motion stops, i.e., when the velocity is zero and the spring force is insufficient to overcome the frictional force.

The motion can thus stop at a potentially different equilibrium position than the rest position. There are thus multiple equilibrium positions !

# Verification using numerical simulation

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What is the period of the motion ?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0, \frac{\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{3\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{5\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{4\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{7\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$

One half of a cycle every  $\pi/\omega_0$ ; the full period is  $2\pi/\omega_0$ .

Linear frequency

# Linear decay of the amplitude

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0, \frac{\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{3\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{5\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t + \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{3\pi}{\omega_0}, \frac{4\pi}{\omega_0} \end{bmatrix} \qquad y(t) = \left( y_0 - \frac{7\mu g}{\omega_0^2} \right) \cos \omega_0 t - \frac{\mu g}{\omega_0^2}$$

Every cycle, the decrease in amplitude is  $4\mu g/\omega_0^2$ .

Contrast with the exponential decay of the linear oscillator.

#### In summary

Unbounded motion Multiple equilibria

Even/odd harmonics Elliptic functions

Hardening/softening

Backbone curve (frequency-amplitude dependence)

Decay rate change

#### References



# Closed-form solutions for the quadratic mixed-parity nonlinear oscillator

A Beléndez<sup>1,2</sup>\* (D), A Hernández<sup>1,2</sup>, T Beléndez<sup>1,2</sup>, E Arribas<sup>3</sup> (D) and M L Álvarez<sup>1,2</sup> (D)

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