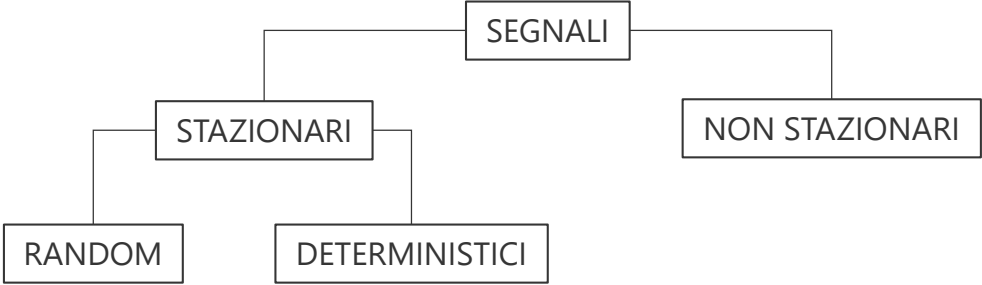
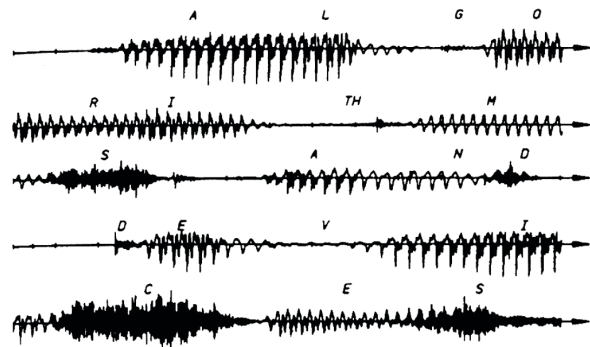


# Analisi dei dati per la diagnostica delle macchine rotanti

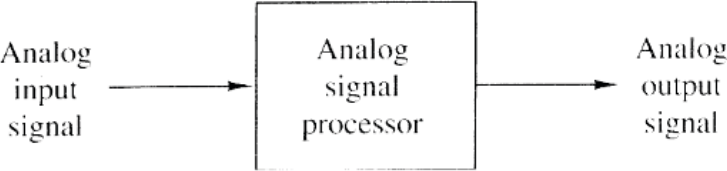
Gianluca D'Elia

[gianluca.delia@unife.it](mailto:gianluca.delia@unife.it)

Un segnale è definito come una qualsiasi quantità fisica che varia nel tempo, spazio o con qualsiasi altra variabile indipendente

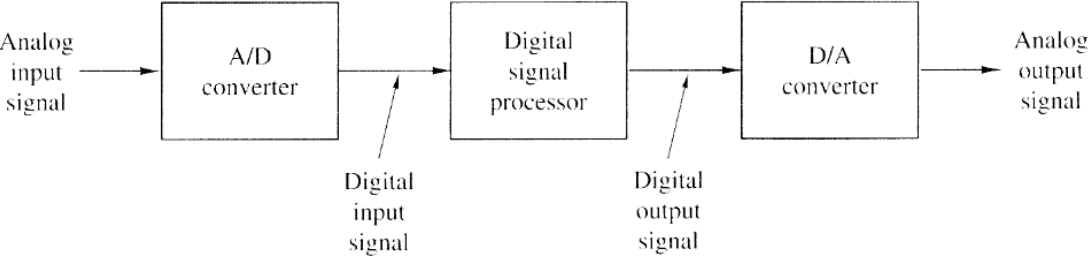


I segnali possono essere anche classificati in funzione delle caratteristiche della variabile indipendente



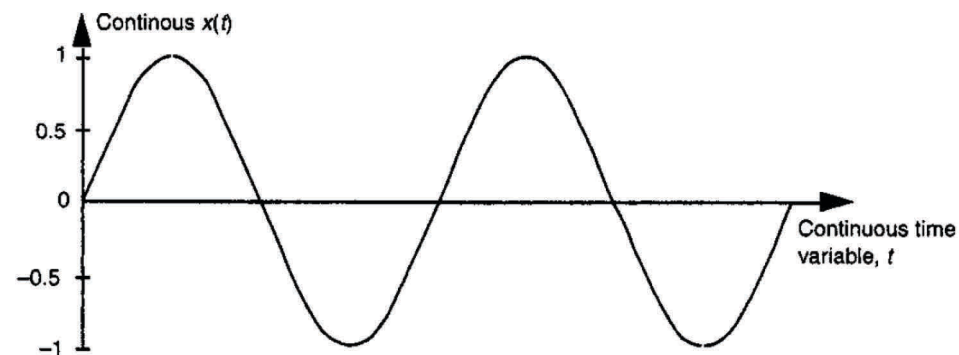
Tempo continui  
&  
Ampiezza continua >> Segnali Analogici

Tempo discreti  
&  
Ampiezza discreta >> Segnali Digitali



I segnali tempo continui sono tutti quei segnali in cui la variabile indipendente è continua

$$x(t) = \sin(2\pi ft) \quad -\infty < t < +\infty$$

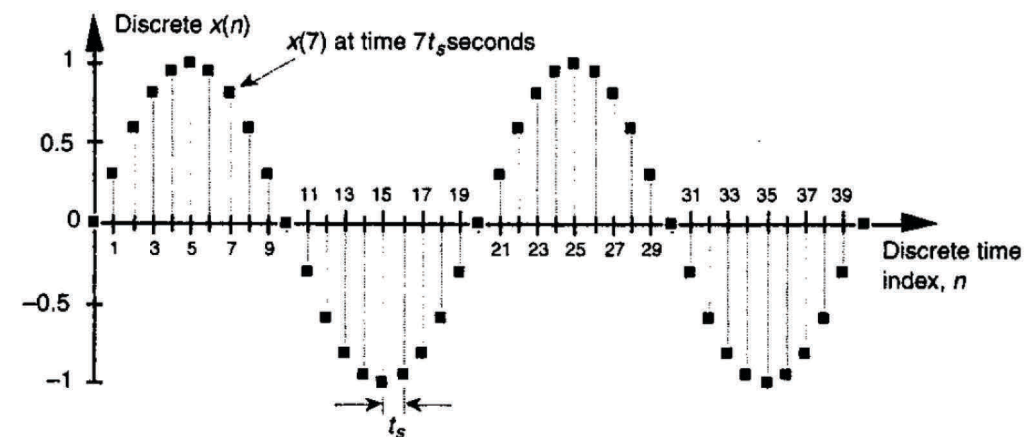


I segnali tempo discreti sono tutti quei segnali in cui la variabile indipendente è discreta

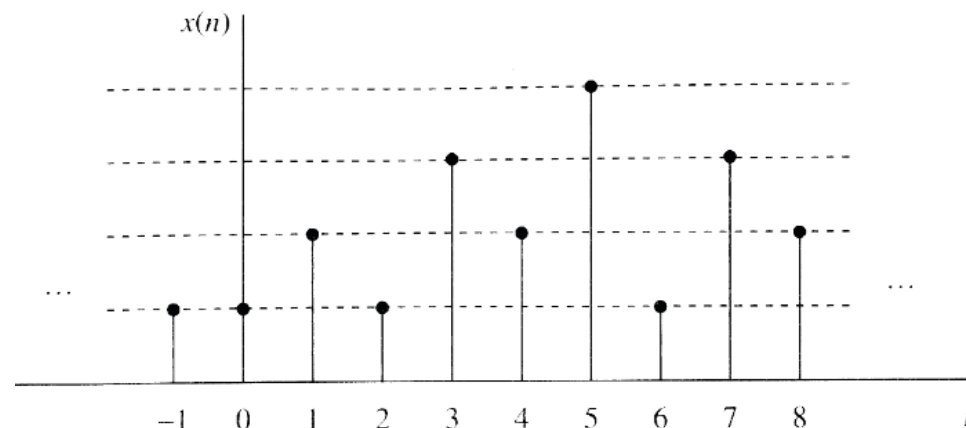
$$x(t) \rightarrow x(n) \quad t_n = n\Delta t$$

$$x(n\Delta t)$$

$$x(n) = \sin(2\pi fn) \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$



L'ampiezza di un segnale tempo continuo o tempo discreto può essere essa stessa continua o discreta



Segnale tempo discreto ad ampiezza discreta

Per un segnale tempo continuo

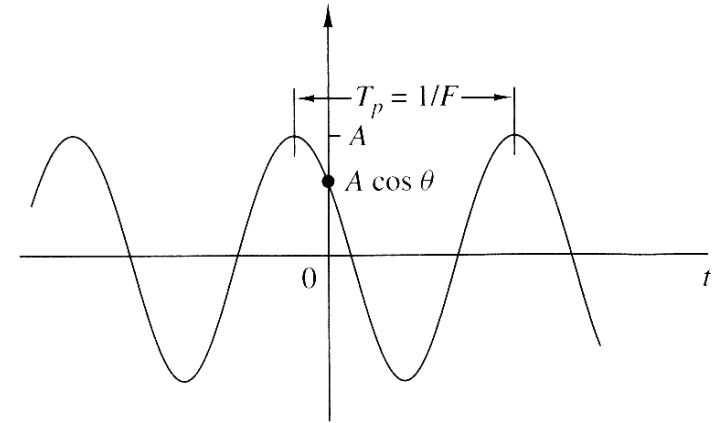
$$x_a(t) = A \cos(2\pi F t + \theta) \quad -\infty < t < +\infty$$

Amplitude

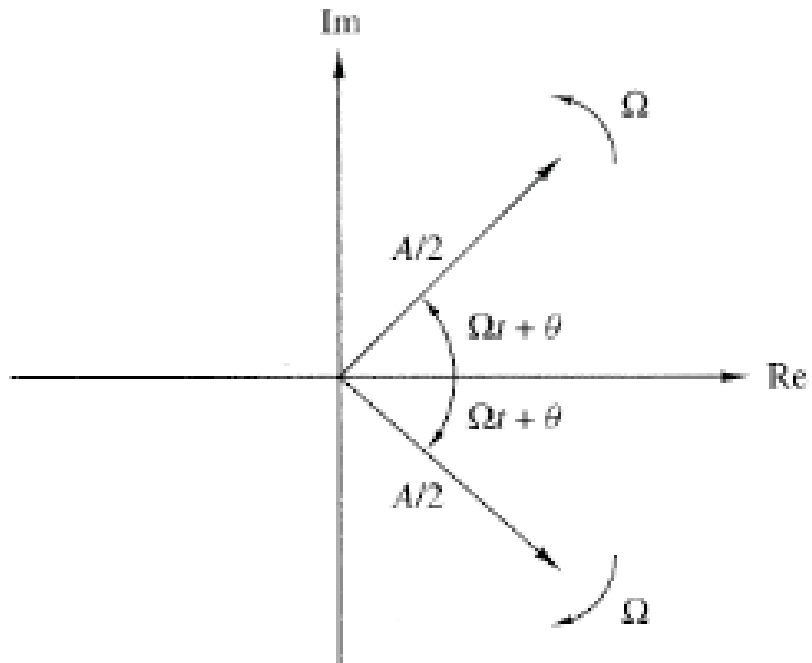
Frequency [Hz]  $F = \frac{\Omega}{2\pi}$

Phase [rad]

$$x_a(t + T) = x_a(t)$$



Aumentando la frequenza aumentano il numero di oscillazioni al secondo

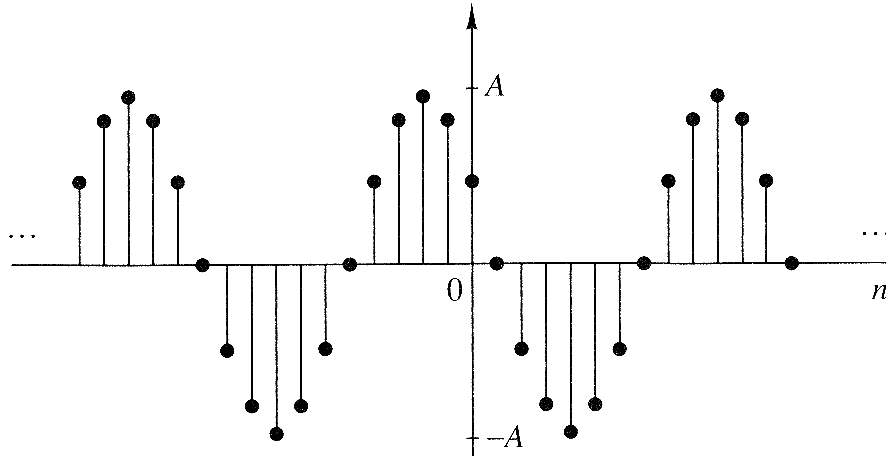


$$x_a(t) = A \cos(\Omega t + \theta) = \frac{A}{2} e^{j(\Omega t + \theta)} + \frac{A}{2} e^{-j(\Omega t + \theta)}$$

Frequenza negativa

Per un segnale tempo discreto

$$t \rightarrow n \longrightarrow x(n) = A \cos(2\pi f n + \theta) \quad -\infty < n < \infty \quad f = \left[ \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{sample}} \right]$$



Un segnale tempo discreto è periodico se

$$x(n + N) = x(n)$$

Quindi

$$2\pi f N = 2k\pi \longrightarrow f = \frac{k}{N}$$

Esempio aumento di frequenza:

$$\cos(2\pi(f_0 + 2\pi)n + \theta) = \cos(2\pi f_0 n + 4\pi n + \theta) = \cos(2\pi f_0 n + \theta) \quad \text{Creazione di Alias}$$

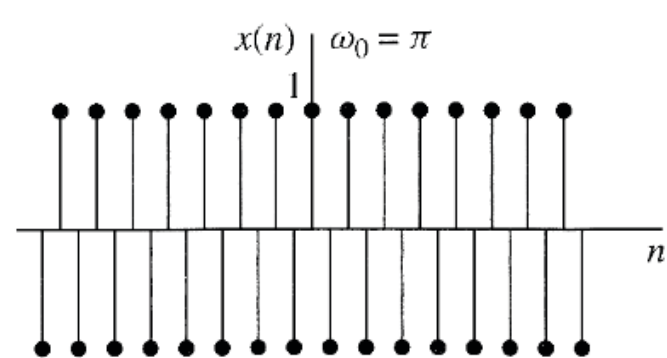
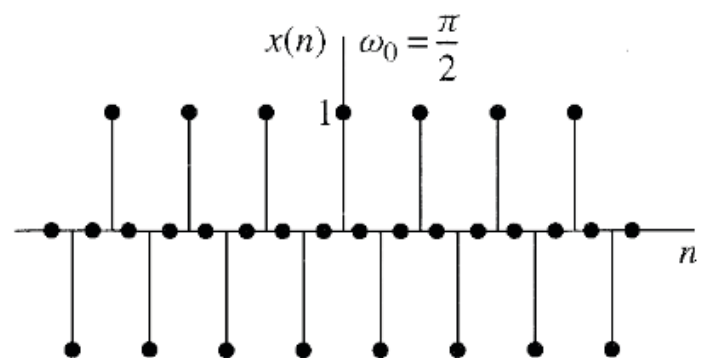
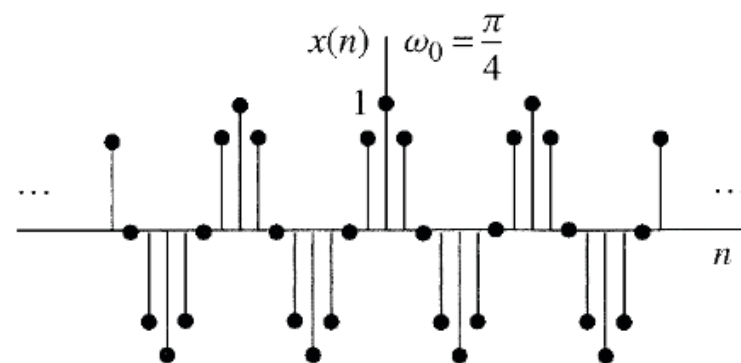
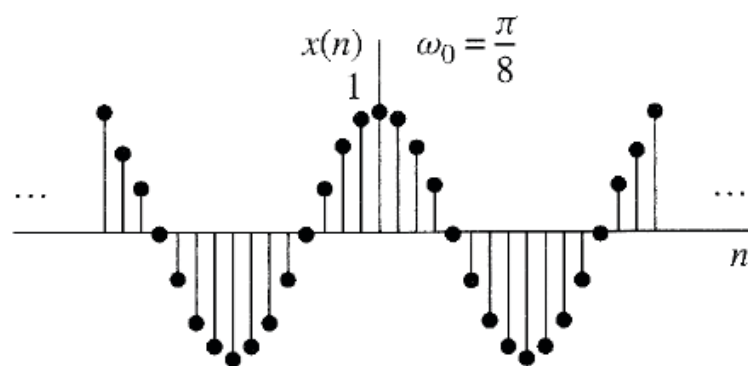
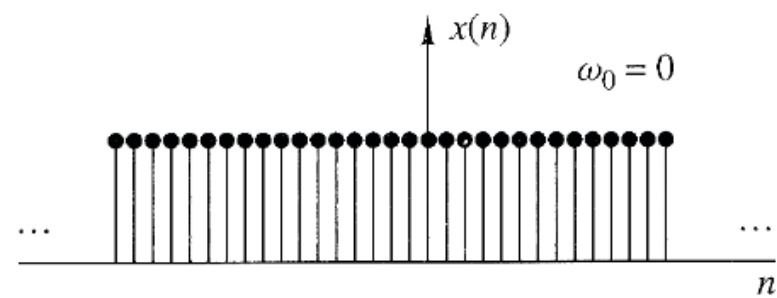
Le funzioni sinusoidali con frequenze

$$2\pi k f = 2\pi f_0 + 2\pi k$$

Sono indistinguibili

In un segnale tempo discreto la frequenza è limitata da

$$-\frac{1}{2} \leq f \leq +\frac{1}{2}$$





1) Campionamento

Tempo continuo  $\longrightarrow$  Tempo discreto

2) Quantizzazione

Ampiezza continua  $\longrightarrow$  Ampiezza discreta

1) Campionamento uniforme

$$x(n) = x_a(n\Delta t) \quad -\infty < n < +\infty$$

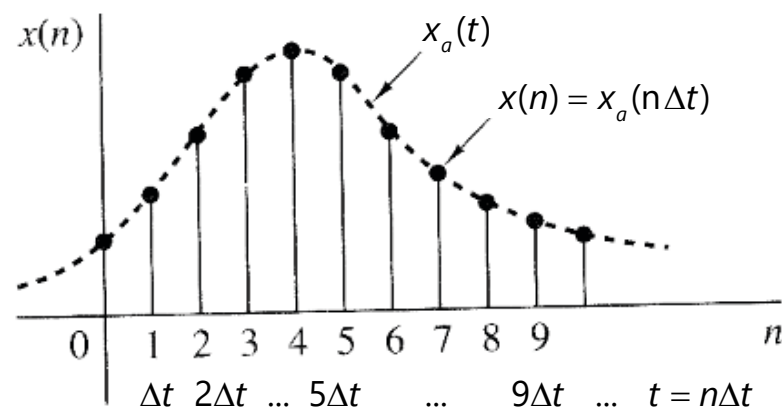
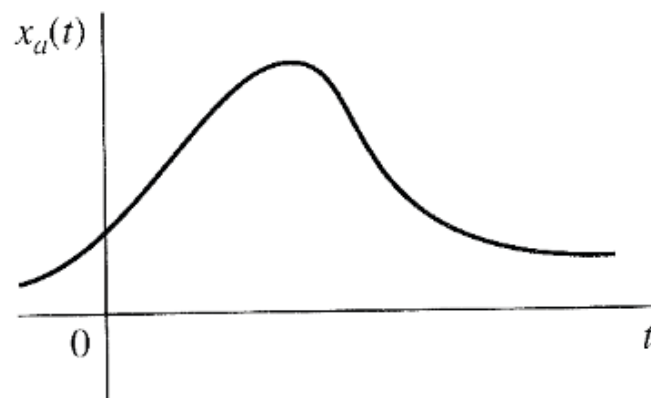
Tempo di campionamento [s]  $\Delta t$

Frequenza di campionamento [Hz]  $F_s = \frac{1}{\Delta t}$

$$\longrightarrow t = n\Delta t = \frac{n}{F_s}$$

$$x_a(t) = A\cos(2\pi Ft + \theta) \longrightarrow F_s = \frac{1}{\Delta t}$$

$$x_a(n\Delta t) = x(n) = A\cos(2\pi Fn\Delta t + \theta) = A\cos\left(2\pi \frac{F}{F_s} n + \theta\right)$$



$$f = \frac{F}{F_s} \longrightarrow -\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{F}{F_s} \leq +\frac{1}{2}$$

Il campionamento uniforme stabilisce una relazione anche tra le frequenze

$$-\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{F}{F_s} \leq +\frac{1}{2} \rightarrow -\frac{F_s}{2} \leq F \leq +\frac{F_s}{2}$$

Il campionamento uniforme di un segnale implica mappare le infinite frequenze di un segnale tempo continuo in un range finito di frequenze di un segnale tempo discreto

Teorema del campionamento (Shannon):

Per poter rappresentare tutte le frequenze all'interno di un segnale analogico senza ambiguità si deve avere

$$F_s \geq 2F_{max}$$

$\frac{F_s}{2}$  Frequenza di Nyquist o folding frequency

E.g.

$$x_1(t) = \cos(2\pi 10t)$$

$$x_2(t) = \cos(2\pi 50t)$$

Frequenza di campionamento

$$F_s = 40\text{Hz}$$



$$x_1(n) = \cos\left(2\pi \frac{10}{40}n\right) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}n\right)$$

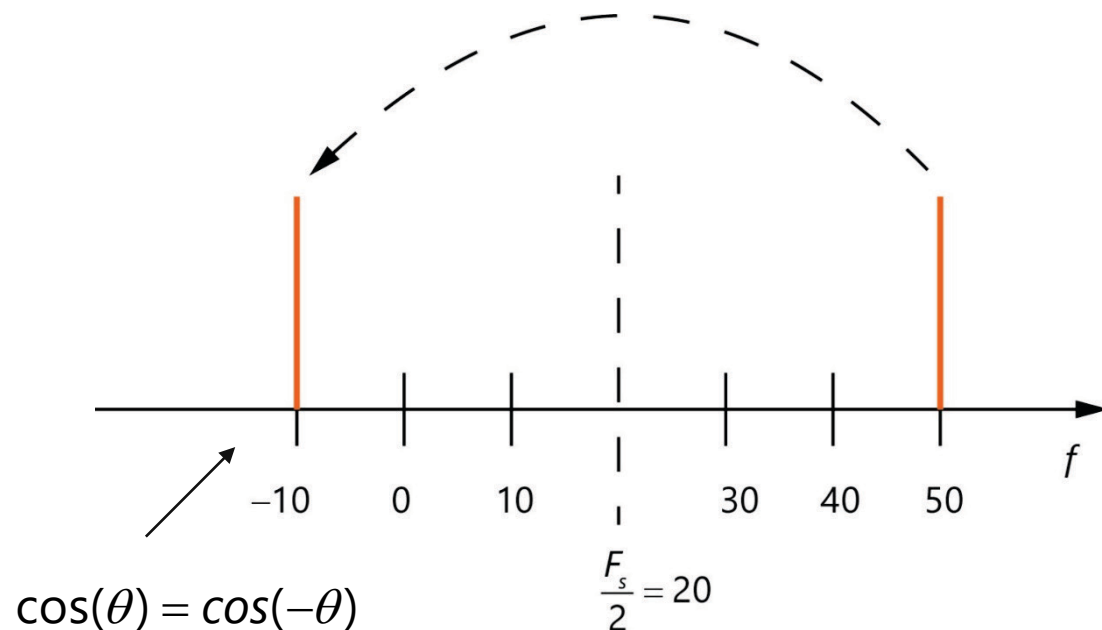
$$x_2(n) = \cos\left(2\pi \frac{50}{40}n\right)$$

$$= \cos\left(\pi \frac{5}{2}n\right)$$

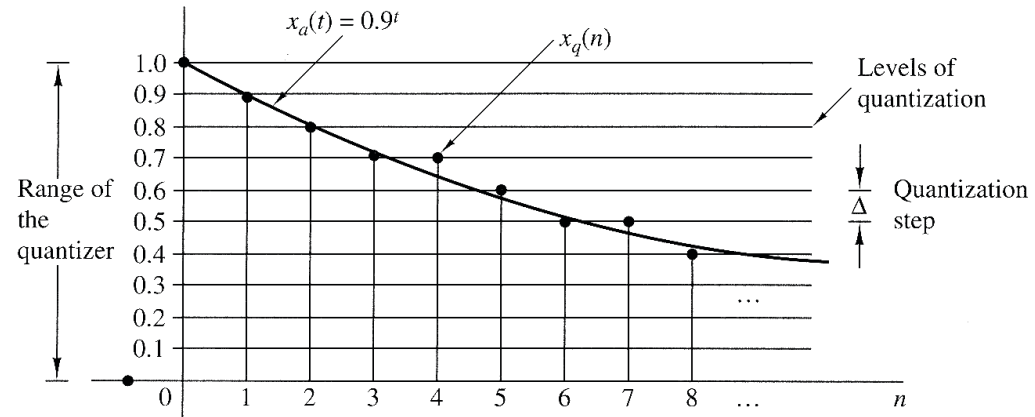
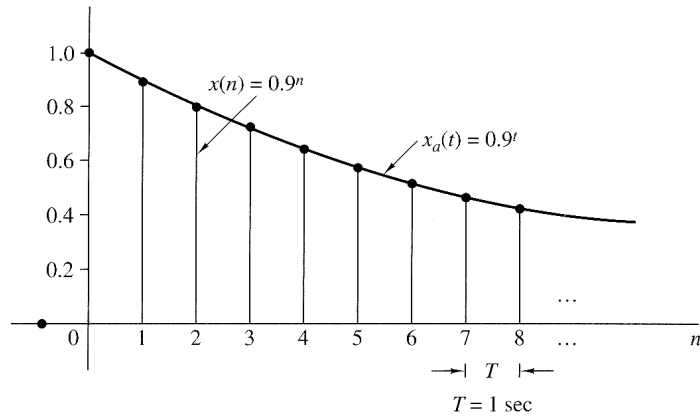
$$= \cos\left(2\pi n + \frac{\pi}{2}n\right)$$

$$= \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}n\right)$$

↑  
Alias



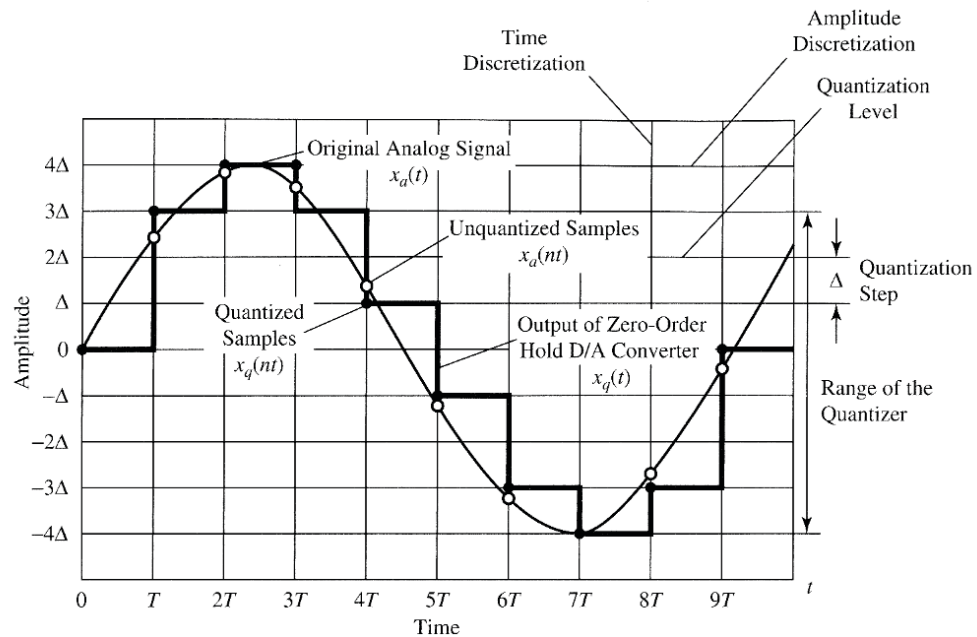
## 2) Quantizzazione



Errore di quantizzazione

$$e_q(n) = x_q(n) - x(n)$$

$$-\frac{\Delta}{2} \leq e_q(n) \leq +\frac{\Delta}{2}$$



$$\Delta = \frac{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}{L - 1}$$

Massimo valore all'interno del segnale

Minimo valore all'interno del segnale

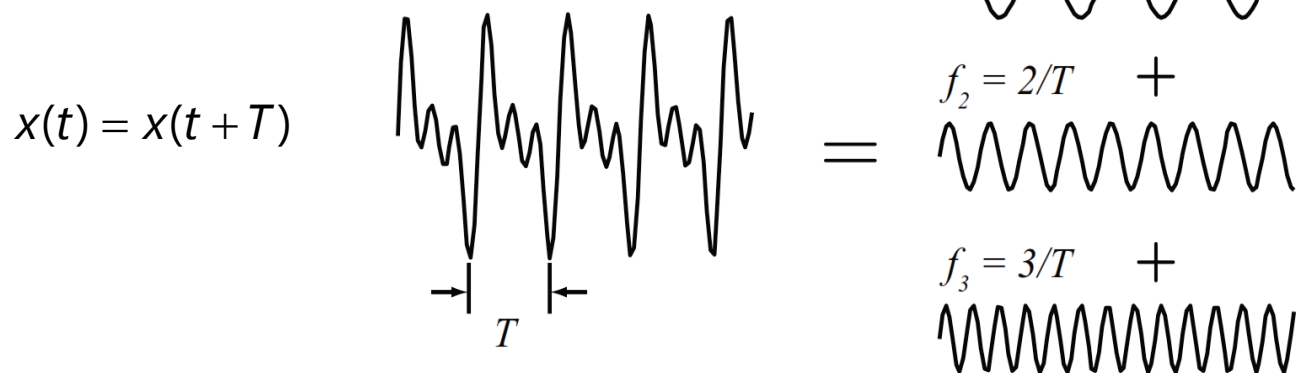
Numero di livelli

$$L = 2^b$$

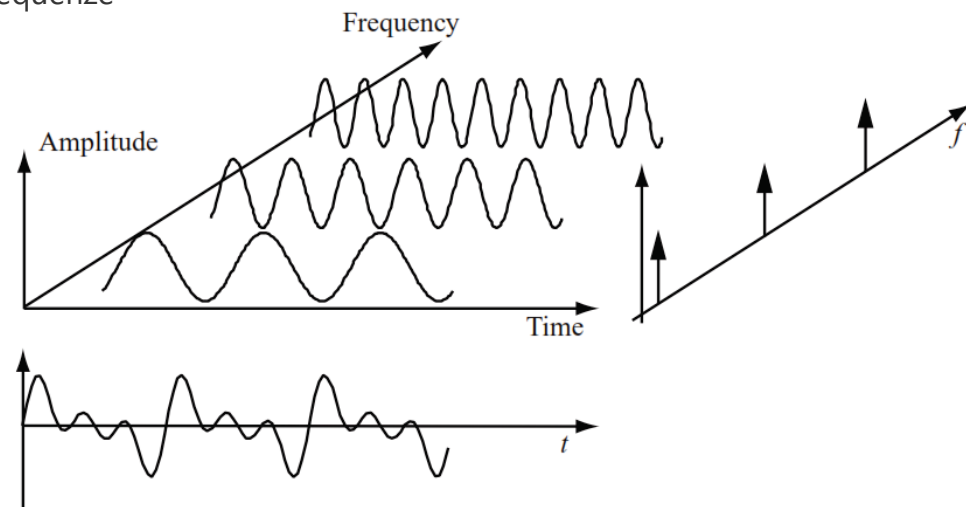
$b$  è il numero di bit del convertitore analogico digitale

Con 24 bit  $L = 16777216$

Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier dimostrò che ogni segnale periodico può essere scritto come una somma di sinusoidi a frequenze multiple di una fondamentale.



Un segnale periodico del dominio del tempo è discreto nel dominio delle frequenze

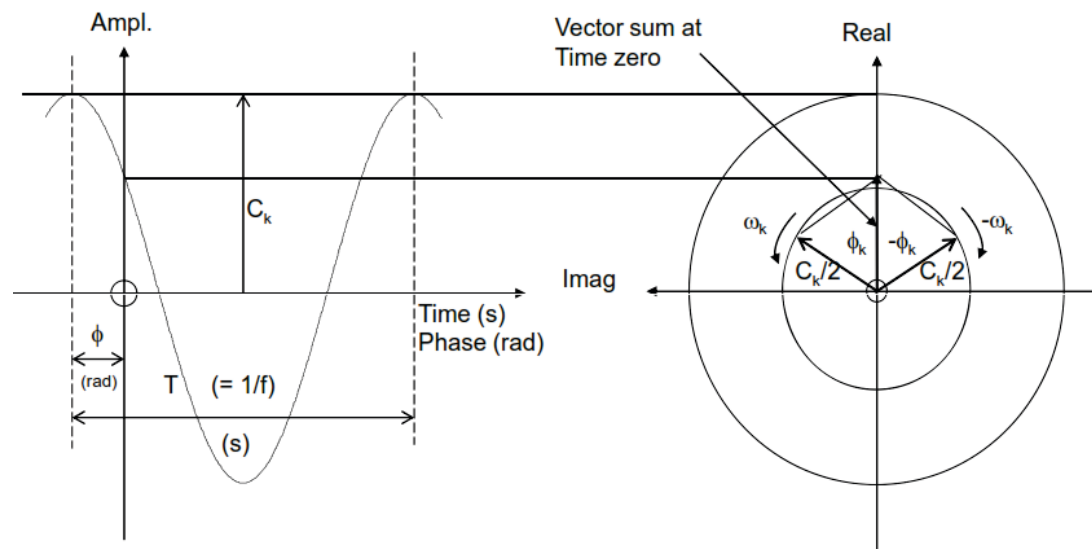


Serie di Fourier a coefficienti complessi

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} X(f_k) e^{j2\pi f_k t} \quad f_k = \frac{k}{T}$$

Dove

$$X(f_k) = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) e^{-j2\pi f_k t} dt \quad \leftarrow \text{Spettro}$$



Una funzione non periodica può essere vista come periodica di periodo infinito. Per T che tende ad infinito la frequenza tende a diventare una funzione continua

$$f = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k}{T}$$

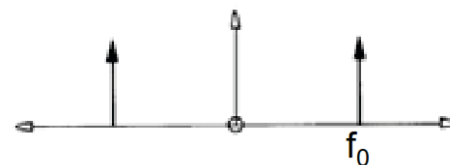
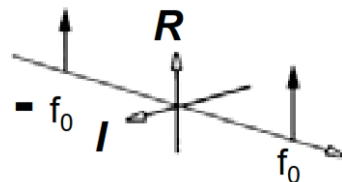
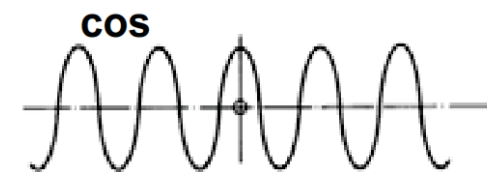
Trasformata di Fourier

$$X(f) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} TX(f_k) \longrightarrow X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt \quad \text{Trasformata integrale di Fourier}$$

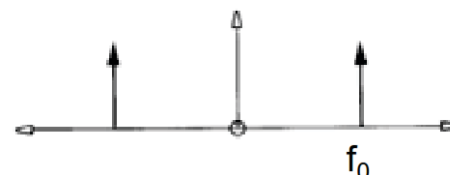
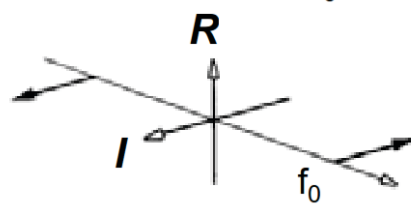
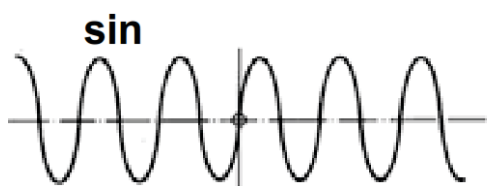
L'Impulso di Dirac è un impulso di ampiezza tendente ad infinito, durata tendente a zero ed area unitaria

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)\delta(t-t_0)dt = x(t_0) \longrightarrow F^{-1}[\delta(f-f_0) + \delta(f+f_0)] = e^{j2\pi f_0 t} + e^{-j2\pi f_0 t} = 2\cos(2\pi f_0 t)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{j2\pi ft}\delta(f-f_0)df = e^{j2\pi f_0 t}$$



$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \cos(2\pi f_0 t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \frac{\delta(f-f_0) + \delta(f+f_0)}{2}$$

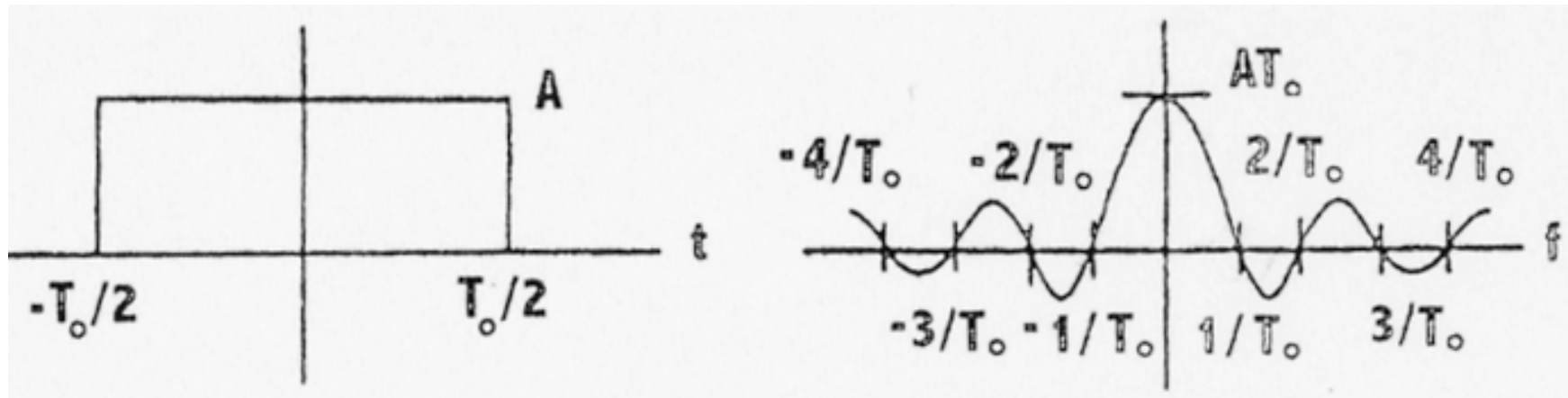


$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \sin(2\pi f_0 t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \frac{\delta(f-f_0) - \delta(f+f_0)}{2j}$$

Trasformata di Fourier di una funzione rettangolare

$$\int_{-T_0/2}^{+T_0/2} A e^{-j2\pi f t} dt = \frac{A}{-j2\pi f} \left( e^{-j2\pi f \frac{T_0}{2}} - e^{j2\pi f \frac{T_0}{2}} \right) = A \frac{\sin(\pi f T_0)}{\pi f} = A T_0 \operatorname{sinc}(f T_0)$$

$$\operatorname{sinc}(f T_0) = \frac{\sin(\pi f T_0)}{\pi f T_0}$$



Proprietà fondamentali della trasformata di Fourier

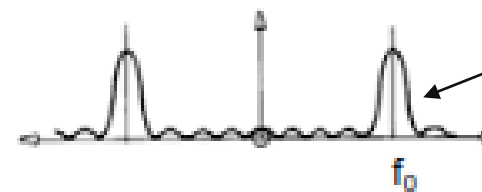
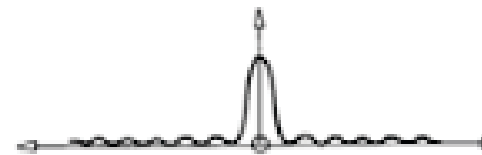
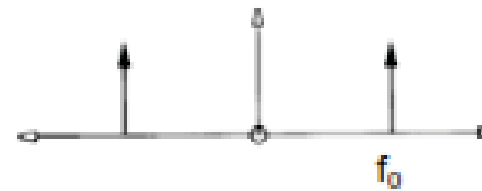
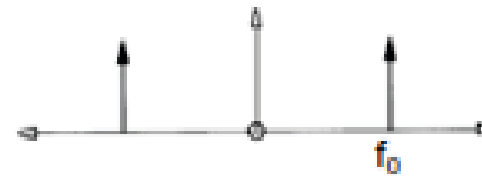
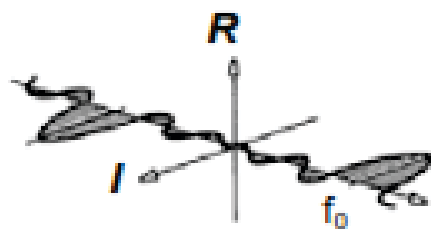
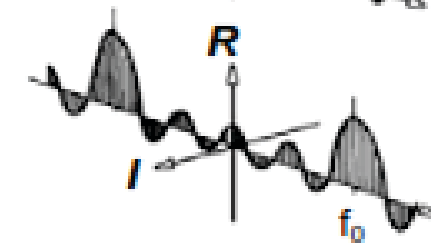
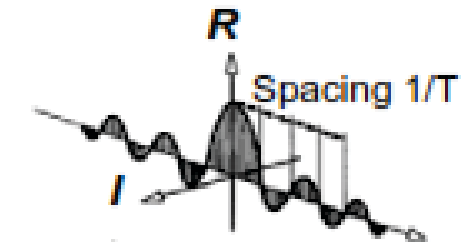
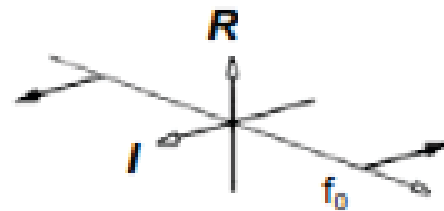
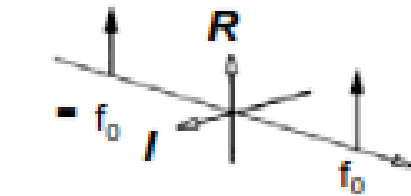
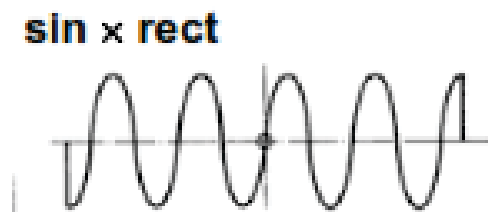
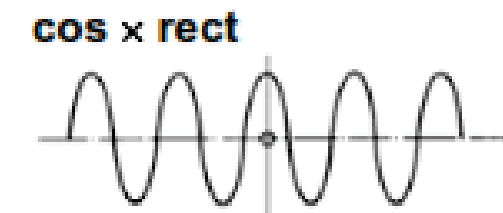
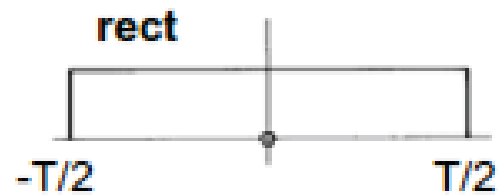
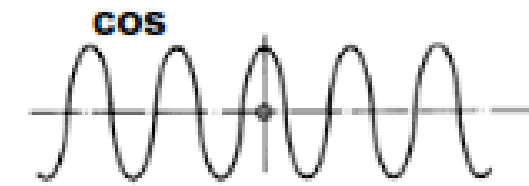
$$F[x(t) * y(t)] = X(f) Y(f)$$

$$F[x(t) y(t)] = X(f) * Y(f)$$

Convoluzione

$$x(t) * y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(u) y(t-u) du$$

## Effetto del troncamento temporale di un segnale



Leakage (dispersion della potenza)

Il troncamento temporale del segnale determina il fenomeno del Leakage, tale fenomeno non può essere rimosso, ma solo diminuito

Dato un segnale  $x(t)$  si definisce Potenza Istantanea  $p(t) = x(t)x^*(t) = |x(t)|^2$

Energia temporale media del segnale

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Potenza temporale media del segnale

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Si introduce una rappresentazione «energetica» dei segnali nel dominio delle frequenze. Questa rappresentazione si aggiunge per i segnali ad energia finita alla TF, mentre spesso è l'unica possibile per i segnali a potenza finita. Relazione di Parseval:

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

L'energia di un segnale può quindi essere scritta

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \longrightarrow E = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(f)|^2 df$$

Autospettro

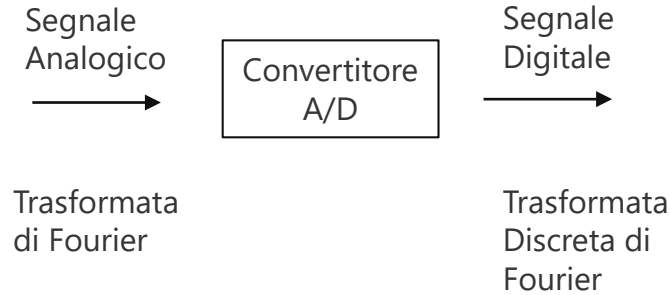
$$|X(f)|^2 = X(f)X^*(f) \quad [EU^2s^2] = \left[ \frac{EU^2s}{Hz} \right] = \frac{\text{potenza} \cdot \text{tempo}}{Hz}$$

Di conseguenza la potenza

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{+T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt \longrightarrow P = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{|X(f)|^2}{T} df$$

PSD

$$\frac{|X(f)|^2}{T} \quad \left[ \frac{EU^2s^2}{s} \right] = [EU^2s] = \left[ \frac{EU^2}{Hz} \right] = \frac{\text{potenza}}{Hz}$$



Spettro

$$X(f_k) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) e^{-j2\pi f_k t} dt \quad f_k = \frac{k}{T}$$

Associamo:  $t \rightarrow n\Delta t$   $dt \rightarrow \Delta t$

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(n) \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (N-1)$$

Trasformata discreta di Fourier (DFT):

$$\begin{aligned} X(k) &= \frac{1}{N\Delta t} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N\Delta t} n\Delta t} \Delta t \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1 \end{aligned}$$

I valori di frequenza corrispondono a:

$$\begin{aligned} f &= \frac{k}{T} = \frac{k}{N\Delta t} = k\Delta f \quad \Delta f = \frac{1}{N\Delta t} = \frac{F_s}{N} \\ k = \frac{N}{2} &\rightarrow f = \frac{k}{T} = \frac{N}{2N\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2\Delta t} = \frac{F_s}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Una frequenza negativa

$$\begin{aligned} X(-k) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{(-k)}{N} n} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{(-k)}{N} n} e^{-j2\pi \frac{N}{N} n} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{n}{N} (N-k)} = X(N-k) \end{aligned}$$

E.g.

$$x(t) = \sin(2\pi Ft)$$

$$F = 1[\text{Hz}]$$

$$T = 1[\text{s}]$$

$$F_s = 10[\text{Hz}]$$

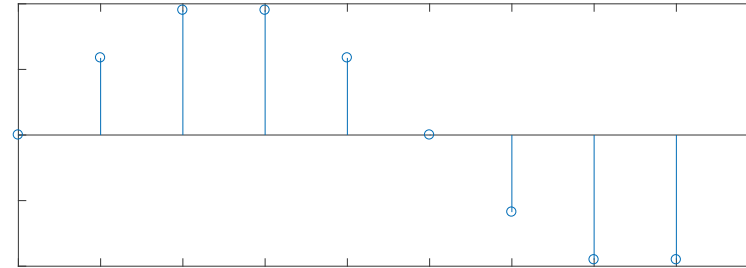
$$x(n) = \sin\left(2\pi \frac{1}{10}n\right)$$

$$N = 10$$

$$n = 0, 1, \dots, 9$$

$$f = \frac{k}{T} = \frac{k}{N\Delta t} = k\Delta f$$

$$\Delta f = \frac{1}{N\Delta t} = \frac{F_s}{N}$$



$$X(k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N}n} \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$$

Matlab  $\text{fft}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N}n}$

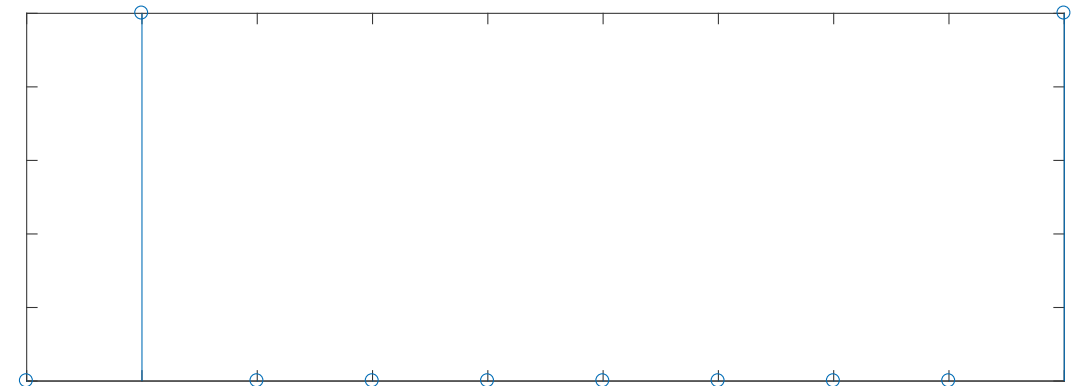
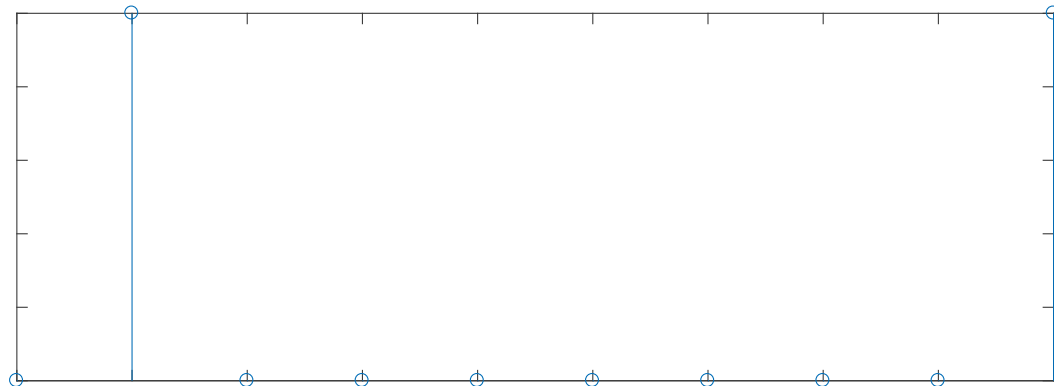
```
clear
clc
```

```
N = 10;
fs = 10;
```

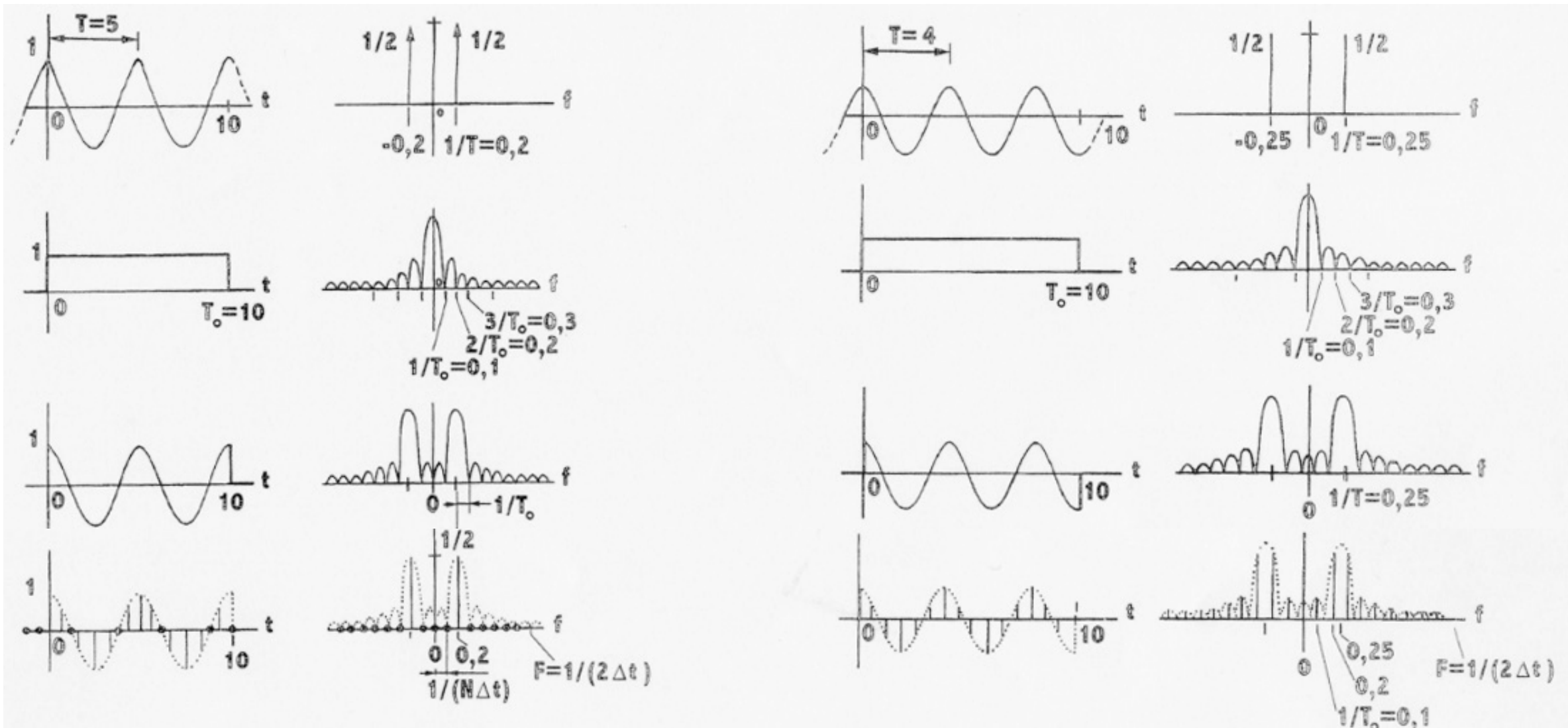
```
fSig = 1;
t = (0:N-1)/fs;
x = sin(2*pi*fSig*t);
```

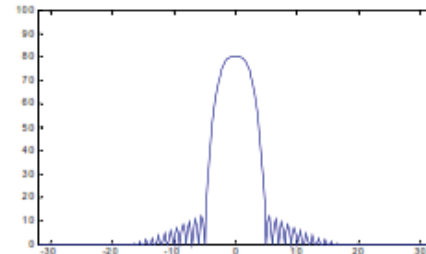
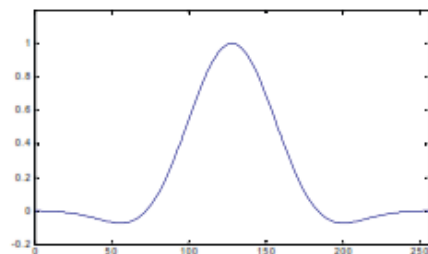
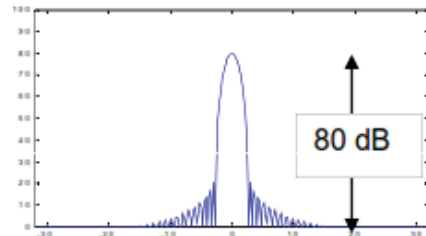
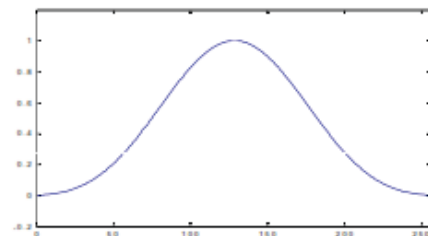
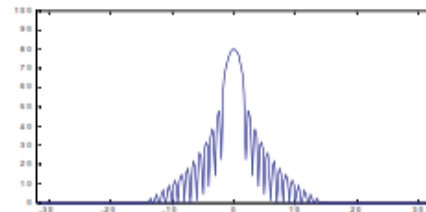
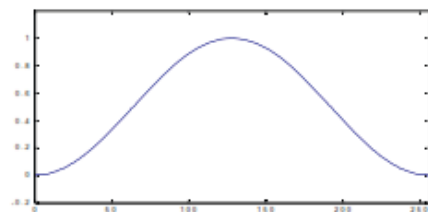
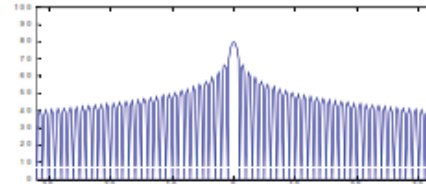
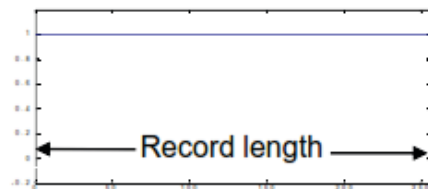
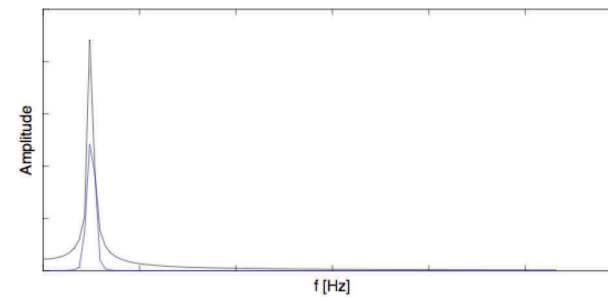
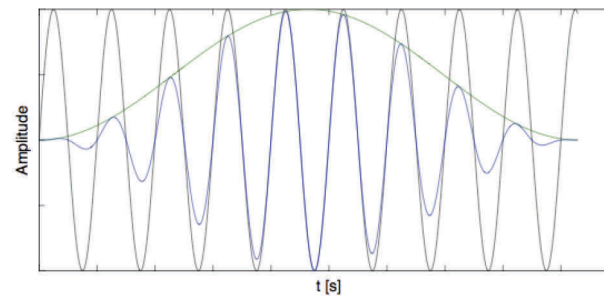
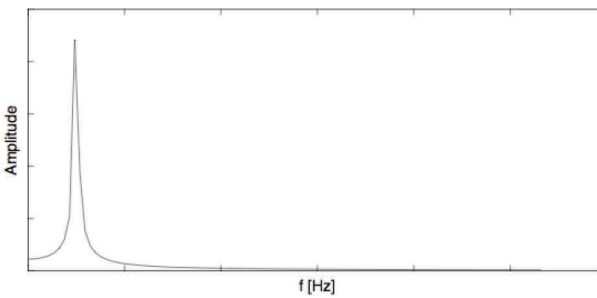
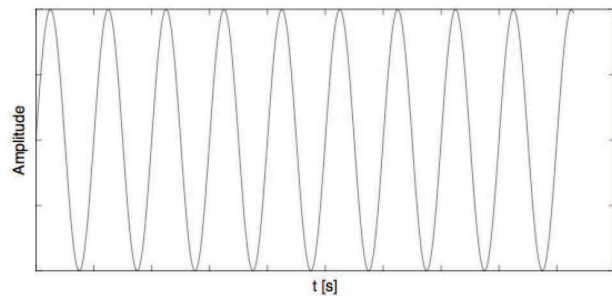
```
X = 1/N * fft(x);
f = (0:N-1)*fs/N;
```

```
figure,
plot(f,abs(X(fIndex)))
```



## Riduzione del Leakage





**Rectangular –  
ie do nothing**

**Hanning – good general  
purpose window**

**Kaiser-Bessel – gives  
best separation of  
adjacent components**

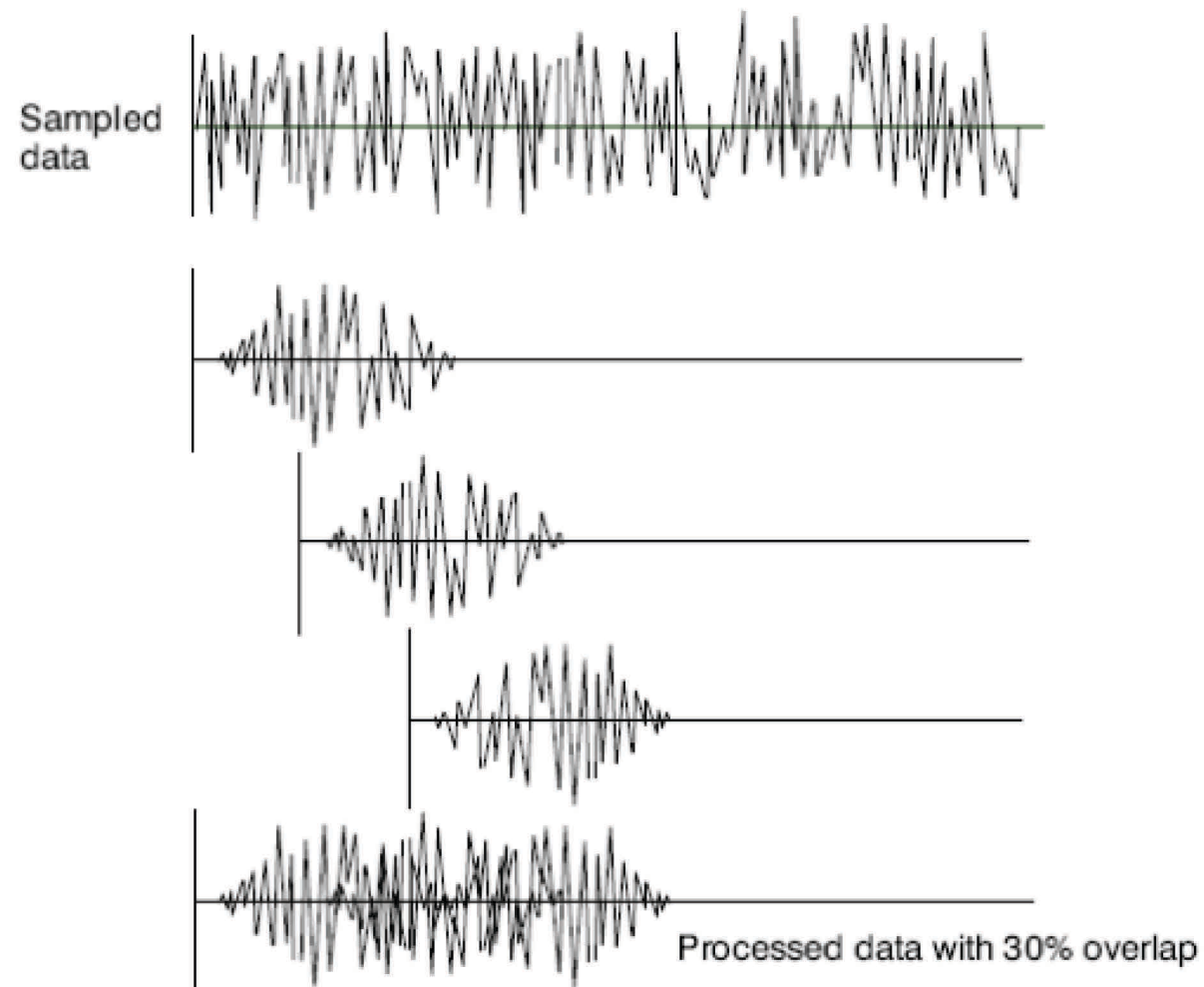
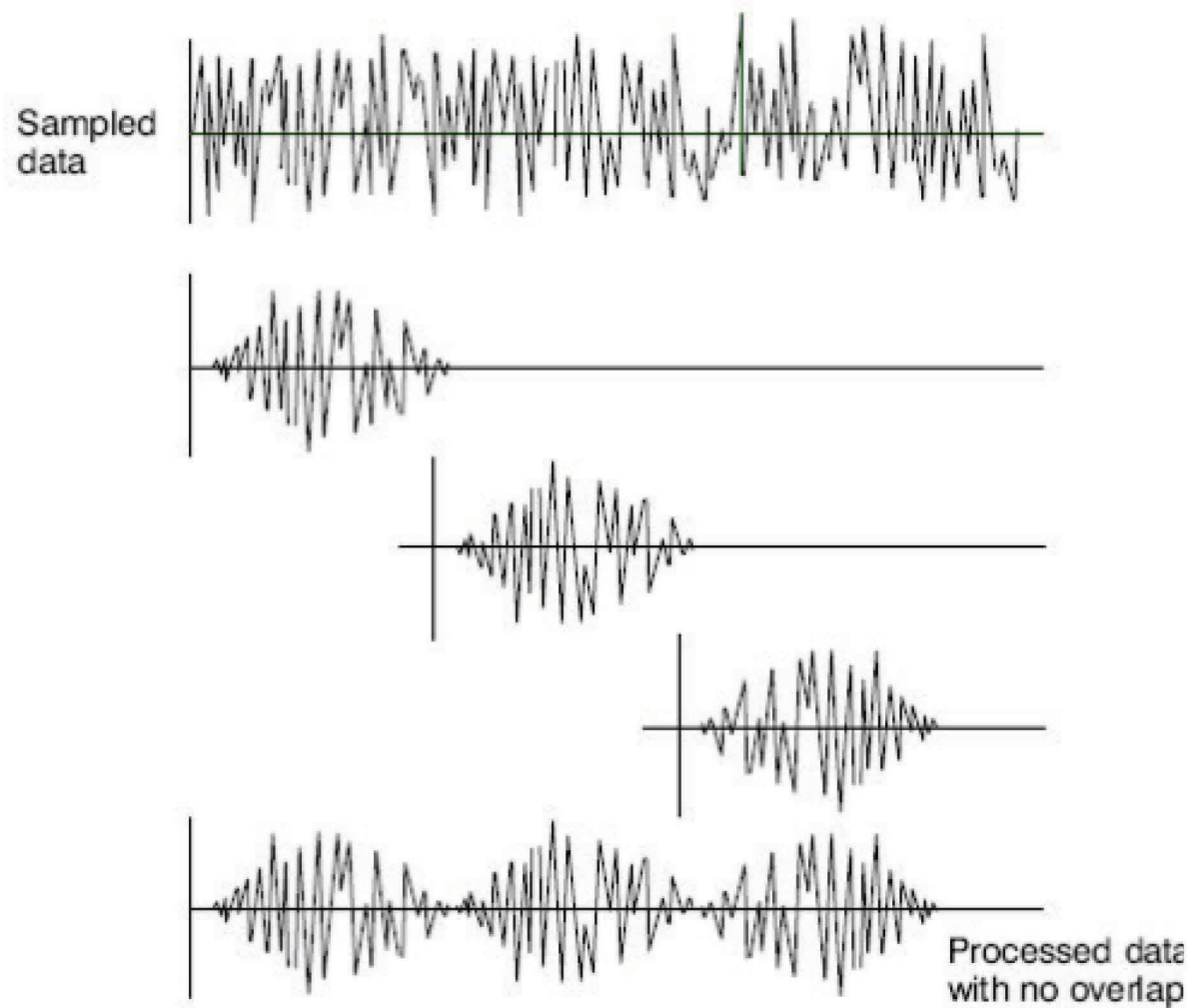
**Flat top – zero picket  
fence correction – good  
for calibration and  
sinusoidal components**

Correzione di ampiezza

$$X_w(k) = \frac{A_w}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)w(n)e^{-j2\pi kn/N}$$

$$A_w = \frac{N}{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} w(n)}$$

Per diminuire il rumore si possono fare delle medie con o senza overlap



L'Autospettro e la PSD sono state definite a partire dalla trasformata integrale di Fourier

$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

Andando a calcolarla per un segnale tempo discreto

$$X(k \Delta f) = \Delta t \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n}$$

Autospettro

$$|X(k \Delta f)|^2 = \left| \Delta t \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \right|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} PSD &= \frac{|X(f)|^2}{T} = \frac{\left| \Delta t \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \right|^2}{N \Delta t} \\ &= \frac{\Delta t}{N} \left| \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \right|^2 \end{aligned}$$

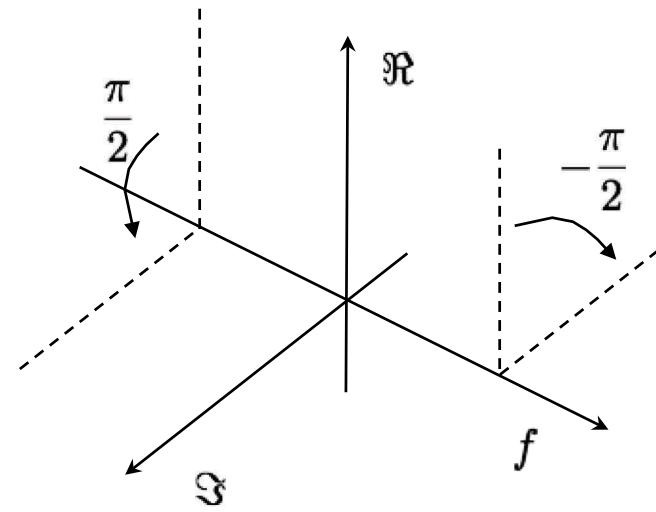
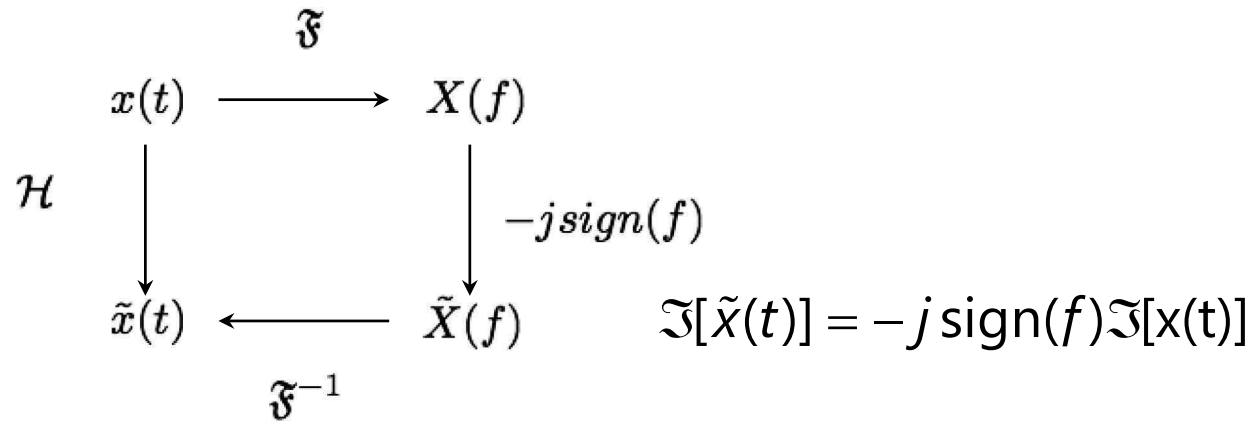
Lo stesso risultato può essere ottenuto partendo dallo spettro definito dalla serie di Fourier

$$\begin{aligned} PSD &= \frac{1}{\Delta f} \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{\Delta t}{N} \left| \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n} \right|^2 \end{aligned}$$

La PSD viene calcolata mediante diversi stimatori, il più comune è il metodo di Welch

Trasformata di Hilbert

$$H[x(t)] = \tilde{x}(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} x(t) \otimes \frac{1}{t} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(\tau) \frac{1}{t - \tau} d\tau$$



Segnale analitico

$$x_a(t) = x(t) + j\tilde{x}(t) = |x_a(t)| e^{j\theta(t)}$$

L'involuppo del segnale è il modulo del segnale analitico e permette di estrarre la modulazione di ampiezza

Involuppo:  $|x_a(t)| = \sqrt{x^2(t) + \tilde{x}^2(t)}$

La fase del segnale analitico permette di ottenere le modulazioni di fase del segnale

$$\theta(t) = \tan^{-1} \frac{\tilde{x}(t)}{x(t)}$$

