

An enhanced identification procedure to determine the rational functions and aerodynamic derivatives of bridge decks

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Abstract

Development of time-efficient and reliable methods for estimating the aeroelastic properties of bridge decks is of major importance for bridge engineers to make wind tunnel testing more productive and less expensive. This paper presents an enhanced and more efficient procedure to identify rational functions and aerodynamic derivatives from wind tunnel tests of section models. The accuracy of the proposed method was investigated for a wedged shaped box section, a rectangular section with B/D 1:10 aspect ratio and a twin deck section. In comparison with the data from standard forced vibration tests, the proposed procedure obtained nearly identical results for the eight most influential aerodynamic derivatives. In the case of the twin deck section, the experimental results show that the aerodynamic derivatives are very sensitive to the motion applied and that a linear model therefore cannot uniquely define the self-excited forces for the particular twin deck section tested. The identified results were used to predict the self-excited forces induced under various motion and wind conditions to verify the accuracy of the identified models. Some comments are also given regarding the observed nonlinear effects in the recorded self-excited forces.

Keywords: Rational Functions; Forced Vibration Method; Aerodynamic Derivatives; Random Motion; Wind Tunnel Testing

1 Introduction

Self-excited forces are some of the most important environmental loads for slender, long-span bridges and must be treated carefully to ensure a safe design. Self-excited forces, or aeroelastic forces, are wind-induced, motion-dependent forces that can significantly modify the stiffness and damping properties of the combined structure and flow system. This may lead to the occurrence of destructive aeroelastic phenomena, such as flutter or galloping, that can be responsible for the collapse of a bridge (Fuller et al., 2000). The self-excited forces are commonly described in the frequency domain by aerodynamic derivatives that are functions of reduced velocity and depend on the geometry of the bridge deck (Scanlan and Tomko, 1971).

31 The aerodynamic derivatives can be identified by means of wind tunnel tests of section models of bridge decks. Compared to
32 the full (Wardlaw, 1980) and taut strip (Scanlan et al., 1997) testing techniques, section model tests has advantages in terms
33 of the scale of the model (Matsuda et al., 2001; Zasso et al., 2014), which implies that the tests can be conducted in wind
34 tunnels of a reasonable size and with lower costs. Therefore, the section model testing technique is an ideal tool for early
35 design. However, the standard methods for estimating aerodynamic derivatives with a use of forced or free vibration setups
36 require testing the section model under several configurations. Each of the state-of-the-art tests provide experimental results
37 for a single reduced velocity, and since it is important to obtain data at a wide range of reduced velocities, several tests at
38 different motion frequencies and velocities are necessary. Moreover, in the past, P_i^* derivatives describing the self-excited
39 drag, lift and pitching moment due to lateral bridge deck motion were often approximated by applying quasi-steady theory
40 (Boonyapiny et al., 1999; Chen and Kareem, 2003; Jain et al., 1996; Katsuchi et al., 1999; Øiseth et al., 2010). In contrast, the
41 current trend is to also identify these aerodynamic derivatives, since they can play an important role in the estimation of the
42 flutter speed for some cross sections, as shown in several studies (Sarkar et al., 2004; Singh et al. 1996; Zhang and
43 Brownjohn, 2005). At present, section models are commonly tested with three degrees-of-freedom (DoFs), at several motion
44 frequencies and wind velocities. Furthermore, many experiments need to be performed to obtain the full set of aerodynamic
45 derivatives, increasing the overall time spent in the wind tunnel. This is contradictory to the idea that the section model
46 testing technique should be fast and easy to perform, to investigate several possible bridge deck designs. Therefore, the
47 development of time-efficient and reliable methods for estimating the aerodynamic derivatives and of more productive and
48 less expensive wind tunnel tests for section models is of high interest.

49 Currently, assessment of bridge deck aerodynamics can be examined in a relatively short time using free vibration setups that
50 allow the overall performance of the section model and its critical velocity to be directly observed in the wind tunnel.
51 Although it is difficult to consider more than two vibration modes with free vibration setups, this method usually provides
52 realistic estimates of the complex flutter phenomenon. However, it is sometimes challenging to define the wind speed at
53 which a bridge deck becomes unstable (Andersen et al., 2016). Moreover, aerodynamic derivatives are not extracted from
54 these tests, precluding the possibility to perform more complex multimode flutter or buffeting analyses. Standard forced
55 vibration tests can usually be performed faster, since the frequency of motion can be altered with use of a control system
56 (Diana et al., 2004), while in the free vibration setup, the frequency of motion must be modified manually by changing the
57 mass or stiffness of the section model (Andersen et al., 2015). Moreover, it is known that the forced vibration technique
58 performs more accurately at higher reduced velocities, higher motion amplitudes, increased turbulence intensities, and for
59 cross sections sensitive to vortex shedding (Cao and Sarkar, 2012; Sarkar et al., 2009). Due to repeatability and

60 straightforward identification procedures, the forced vibration method is also considered to provide more reliable data (Diana,
61 et al., 2015).

62 In 2005, Chowdhury and Sarkar (2005) introduced the methodology for experimental identification of rational function
63 coefficients from free vibration tests. Seven years later, Cao and Sarkar (2012) presented an algorithm that can be applied
64 when using data from forced vibration experiments. The rational functions are usually indirectly obtained by curve fitting of
65 the real and the imaginary parts of the transfer function expressed in terms of the rational functions to the experimental data
66 of aerodynamic derivatives (Neuhaus et al., 2009). Compared to the more common approach, the methodology proposed by
67 Chowdhury and Sarkar and Cao and Sarkar has the clear advantage that it is not necessary to identify the aerodynamic
68 derivatives before obtaining the rational functions. This is because the methodology directly use the measured time series of
69 the decaying motion when considering free vibration or time series of the measured self-excited forces during forced
70 vibration tests. These identification techniques thus require testing of the section model at fewer wind speeds. However, that
71 methodology still relies on data from rather simple tests with nearly harmonic oscillations. Therefore, the accuracy of the
72 obtained rational functions increases with the number of performed tests.

73 This paper presents an enhanced identification procedure, based on the work by Chowdhury and Sarkar (2005) and Cao and
74 Sarkar (2012). In the proposed enhanced procedure a more general motion of the section model is used, while the rational
75 functions coefficients are obtained by solving differential equation. The motion applied is a more general three degrees of
76 freedom random motion generated from a rectangular auto-spectral density. This motion makes it possible to study the self-
77 excited forces for a wider range of reduced velocities and thus in principle, to obtain the full set of rational function
78 coefficients by testing a single motion history at only one wind velocity. It is however important to use validation data to
79 verify the identified coefficients. The procedure will anyway further reduce the number of wind tunnel experiments required.
80 The efficacy and accuracy of the proposed identification technique was studied considering three different section models:
81 wedge, rectangular and twin deck. The range of tested reduced frequencies and nondimensional time for these 3 sections were
82 equal to respectively 1.7-14.5 and 2732 for wedge, 1.0-8.5 and 1600 for rectangular, 1.4-11.6 and 2185 for twin deck section
83 models. The identified rational functions are transformed into aerodynamic derivatives and compared with experimental
84 results from the standard forced vibration procedure (Siedziako et al., 2017a). Furthermore, the identified rational functions
85 are used to reproduce the measured aeroelastic loads induced under random motions at several wind velocities to examine the
86 accuracy of the proposed identification method.

87 2 Identification procedure

88 The load model proposed by Scanlan and Tomko (1971) is still the most commonly applied method to define aeroelastic
89 forces in bridge aerodynamics

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_{se,x} &= \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 B \left(KP_1^* \frac{\dot{r}_x}{V} + KP_2^* \frac{B\dot{r}_\theta}{V} + K^2 P_3^* r_\theta + K^2 P_4^* \frac{r_x}{B} + KP_5^* \frac{\dot{r}_z}{V} + K^2 P_6^* \frac{r_z}{B} \right) \\
 q_{se,z} &= \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 B \left(KH_1^* \frac{\dot{r}_z}{V} + KH_2^* \frac{B\dot{r}_\theta}{V} + K^2 H_3^* r_\theta + K^2 H_4^* \frac{r_z}{B} + KH_5^* \frac{\dot{r}_x}{V} + K^2 H_6^* \frac{r_x}{B} \right) \\
 q_{se,\theta} &= \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 B^2 \left(KA_1^* \frac{\dot{r}_z}{V} + KA_2^* \frac{B\dot{r}_\theta}{V} + K^2 A_3^* r_\theta + K^2 A_4^* \frac{r_z}{B} + KA_5^* \frac{\dot{r}_x}{V} + K^2 A_6^* \frac{r_x}{B} \right)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

91 Here, V is the mean wind velocity, ρ represents the air density, B denotes the width of the cross section, $K=B\omega/V$ is the
92 reduced frequency of motion, and r_x , r_z , and r_θ are the horizontal, vertical and torsional displacements, respectively. The
93 dimensionless aerodynamic derivatives are depicted by P_n^* , H_n^* , and A_n^* , where $n \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$. The positive directions of the
94 displacements and forces are displayed in Fig. 2.

95

96 To describe the self-excited forces in the time domain, the aerodynamic derivatives that are known only at discrete reduced
97 frequencies must be replaced with continuous functions that are suitable for inverse Fourier transforming (Øiseth et al.,
98 2012). In this study, the rational function approximation that originates from the field of aeronautics is used (Karpel, 1981;
99 Roger, 1977). Eq (2) shows the transfer function for the self-excited forces expressed by means of the rational functions with
100 one lag term to calculate the self-excited forces. One lag term is considered in this study, since is considered to be sufficient
101 for many cross sections, see for instance (Chowdhury and Sarkar, 2005; Neuhaus et al., 2009; Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017).
102 Using more lag terms makes the expression more flexible. However, it increases also a risk that the obtained results perform
103 poor outside the tested range of reduced velocities. It is therefore recommended to use as few lag terms as possible to avoid
104 overfitting. One lag term is often sufficient (Chowdhury and Sarkar, 2005; Neuhaus et al., 2009; Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017)
105 and adding more terms does not improve the results presented in this paper significantly either. It is however, worth to
106 mention that more lag terms can be necessary if one needs to cover a wider reduced velocity range. For the sake of
107 simplicity, this derivation concerns only the lift force; however, similar formulas can be analogously derived for the drag
108 force and pitching moment. The transfer function of the lift force due to vertical motion reads.

$$\mathbf{F}_z(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \left[\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2 \frac{i\omega B}{V} + \mathbf{a}_3 \left(\frac{i\omega B}{V} \right)^2 + \frac{\mathbf{a}_4 i\omega B / V}{i\omega B / V + d_z} \right] \tag{2}$$

110 Here, the one by three vectors \mathbf{a}_k $k \in \{1 \dots 4\}$ contain rational function coefficient, while d_z comprises the lag coefficient
 111 related to the lift force. The matrix \mathbf{a}_3 is associated with the aerodynamic mass that is commonly neglected in bridge
 112 aerodynamics and therefore not considered further. By taking the inverse Fourier transform of the transfer function given by
 113 Eq. (2), the following time domain expressions for the self-excited lift force can be obtained:

$$114 \quad q_{Se,z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \left(\mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + \mathbf{a}_4 \left(\mathbf{r}(t) - \frac{d_z V}{B} \int_0^t e^{-d_z V/B(t-\tau)} \mathbf{r}(\tau) d\tau \right) \right) \quad (3)$$

115 It can be seen that the time domain representation of self-excited drag contains convolution integrals and it is convenient to
 116 define the following variable $\mathbf{Z}(t)$:

$$117 \quad \mathbf{Z}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t) - \frac{d_z V}{B} \int_0^t e^{-d_z V/B(t-\tau)} \mathbf{r}(\tau) d\tau \quad (4)$$

118 This variable can be evaluated with first-order differential equations, obtained by taking the derivative of Eq. (4) as shown by
 119 several authors (Chen et al., 2000b; Høgsberg et. al., 2000; Mishra et. al., 2008; Øiseth et al. 2012):

$$120 \quad \dot{\mathbf{Z}}(t) = \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) - \frac{d_z V}{B} \mathbf{Z}(t) \quad (5)$$

121 The Eq. (3) can be simplified by introducing $\mathbf{Z}(t)$:

$$122 \quad q_{Se,z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \left(\mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + \mathbf{a}_4 \mathbf{Z}(t) \right) \quad (6)$$

123 Then, by differentiating Eq. (6) and replacing $\dot{\mathbf{Z}}(t)$ term with Eq. (5), the following expression can be obtained:

$$124 \quad \dot{q}_{Se,z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \left((\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_4) \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \ddot{\mathbf{r}}(t) - \mathbf{a}_4 \frac{d_z V}{B} \mathbf{Z}(t) \right) \quad (7)$$

125 Rewriting Eq. (6), the variable $\mathbf{Z}(t)$ can be expressed as:

$$126 \quad \mathbf{a}_4 \mathbf{Z}(t) = -\mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{r}(t) - \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + q_{Se,z}(t) \frac{2}{\rho V^2} \quad (8)$$

127 Inserting Eq. (8) into Eq. (7) yields an expression that can be used to fit rational function coefficients to experimental data.

$$128 \quad \dot{q}_{Se,z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \rho V^2 \left((\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_4) \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \ddot{\mathbf{r}}(t) + \frac{d_z V}{B} \left(\mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{B}{V} \mathbf{a}_2 \dot{\mathbf{r}}(t) \right) \right) - \frac{d_z V}{B} q_{Se,z}(t) \quad (9)$$

129 The same expression has been obtained by Cao and Sarkar (2012) who determined the rational function coefficients by using
 130 linear regression. The regression problem was expressed as

131
$$\dot{\mathbf{q}}_z = \boldsymbol{\Psi}\mathbf{X} \quad (10)$$

132 Here the vector $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_z$ contains the observed values of the derivative of vertical self-excited force; the matrix \mathbf{X} contains the
 133 values of the independent variables, namely scaled displacements, velocities and accelerations of the section model. The time
 134 histories of the latter ones were obtained with a finite difference method. The vector $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ contains the unknown coefficients.

135
$$\boldsymbol{\Psi} = [d_z \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_4 + d_z \mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_2, d_z] \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\rho V^3}{2B} \mathbf{r} \\ \frac{\rho V^2}{2} \dot{\mathbf{r}} \\ \frac{\rho BV}{2} \ddot{\mathbf{r}} \\ -\frac{V}{B} \mathbf{q}_z \end{bmatrix} \quad (11)$$

136 Then to find vector $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ an algorithm that minimizes the sum of squares between measured and predicted values of $\dot{\mathbf{q}}_z$ was
 137 applied.

138
$$\boldsymbol{\Psi} = (\dot{\mathbf{q}}_z \mathbf{X}^T) (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T)^T \quad (12)$$

139 The methodology outlined above has been applied successfully for harmonic motions by Cao and Sarkar (2012). However,
 140 we encountered some challenges for the cases we considered, because measurement noise and higher order effects are
 141 amplified when taking the derivative of the measured self-excited forces. Filtering the time series after taking the derivative
 142 solves this problem when considering single harmonic motion, but it is more challenging to deal with when considering a
 143 more general motion. The main reason for the problems observed is the fact that Eq.(9) does not fully hold when the
 144 measured self-excited forces depends on the independent variables in a way that cannot be explained by the applied model. In
 145 other words the vector \mathbf{q}_z in matrix \mathbf{X} , used as an input should contain the values of predicted (based on obtained $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ vector)
 146 lift force rather than values measured during experiments. This creates a problem since the predictions are unknown prior to
 147 applying Eq. (12) The least squares method applied in Eq. (12) yields therefore accurate results only, when corresponding
 148 values of $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ reproduce measured during wind tunnel tests values of the lift force exactly, which is not the case in this study.
 149 We suggest therefore to slightly improving this identification technique by making sure that the input lift force correspond to
 150 predicted values of this force component. To ensure this Eq. (9) can be modelled as an ordinary differential equation or
 151 rewritten into state space form. Then $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ vector can be obtained by fitting coefficients to first order differential equation or
 152 through identification of the state space model. Those are demanding computational tasks that are subjects of extensive
 153 studies resulting in sophisticated methods for parameter estimation of dynamic systems; see for example (Keesma, 2011; Lim

154 and Longman, 1998; Ljung, 1987; Schön et. al., 2011). In this study a differential equation solver implemented in MATLAB
155 as one of its built-in functions was used to identify state space model following example given in (“Estimation, Represent
156 Nonlinear Dynamics Using MATLAB File for Grey-Box,” 2017). As an initial estimate of ψ the results from the linear
157 regression applying were used. More on identification state space model for the purpose of bridge aerodynamics can be found
158 in (Øiseth, 2015).

159 Having final estimate of ψ the rational function coefficients can be estimated solving simple system of equations based on
160 Eq. (11). To validate the identification procedure described above, the identified rational functions were converted to
161 aerodynamic derivatives based on transfer function in Eq. (2). The aerodynamic derivatives defining the lift force can be
162 expressed as:

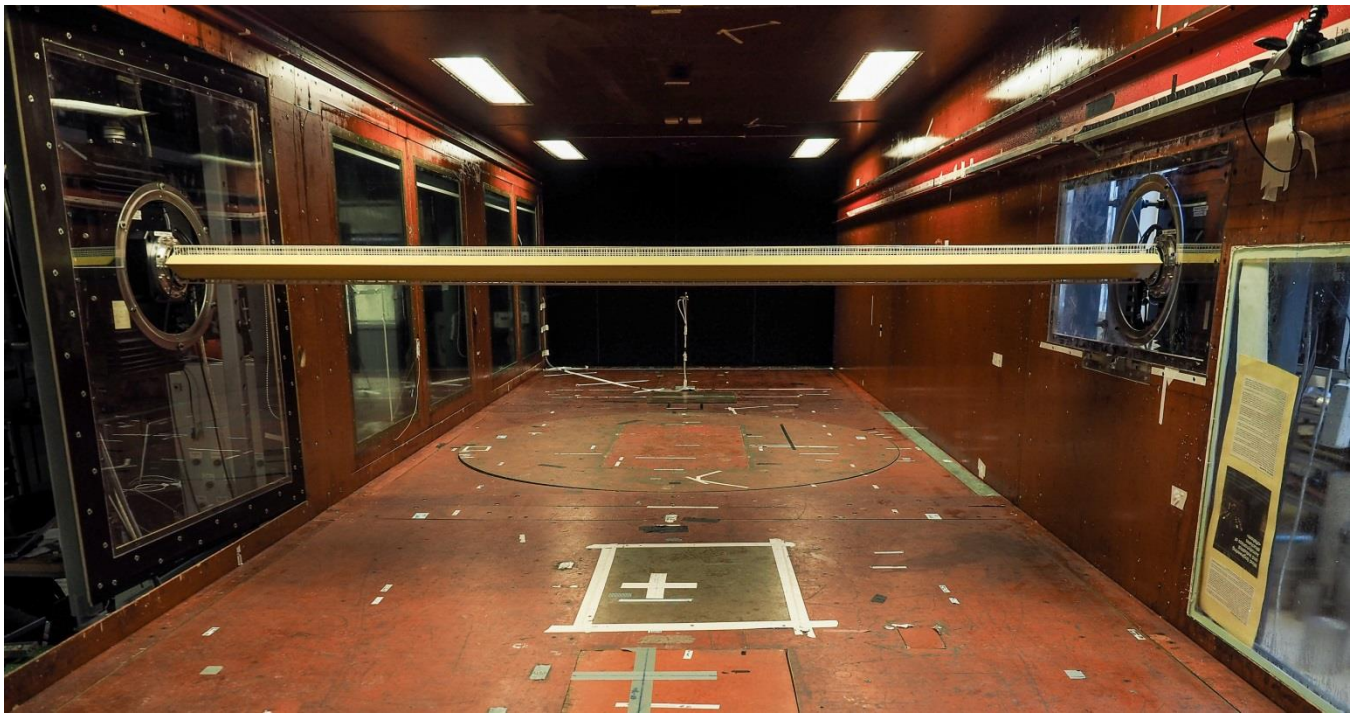
$$\begin{aligned} H_6^* &= \text{real}(\mathbf{F}_{z,1}) / K^2, & H_4^* &= \text{real}(\mathbf{F}_{z,2}) / K^2, & H_3^* &= \text{real}(\mathbf{F}_{z,3}) / K^2 \\ H_5^* &= \text{imag}(\mathbf{F}_{z,1}) / K^2, & H_1^* &= \text{imag}(\mathbf{F}_{z,2}) / K^2, & H_2^* &= \text{imag}(\mathbf{F}_{z,3}) / K^2 \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

164 The framework presented above was first validated by performing numerical wind tunnel tests of sections with known
165 aerodynamic derivatives and rational function coefficients. Random motion histories was first generated from assumed
166 spectral densities and the self-excited forces was calculated using the known rational functions. The results showed that it
167 was possible to identify the rational coefficients from the simulated time series if the frequency content of the applied motion
168 covered the reduced frequency range and thus the reduced velocity range of interest.

169 3 Experimental procedure

170 3.1 Forced vibration mechanism

171 A recently developed forced vibration setup (Siedziako et al., 2017a) that is simultaneously capable of measuring the self-
172 excited forces and moving the section model arbitrarily in heaving, swaying and torsional directions is used in this study. The
173 forced vibration rig is situated in the wind tunnel located in the Fluid Mechanics Laboratory at Norwegian University of
174 Science and Technology. It is the largest wind tunnel in Norway, with an 11 m long, 2 m high, 2.7 m wide test section. Fig. 1
175 shows a picture from the inside of the wind tunnel during testing.



176

177 **Fig. 1.** Experimental setup at NTNU (Siedziako et al., 2017a). The Hardanger Bridge section model mounted between two
178 actuators (photograph by NTNU/K.A. Kvåle).

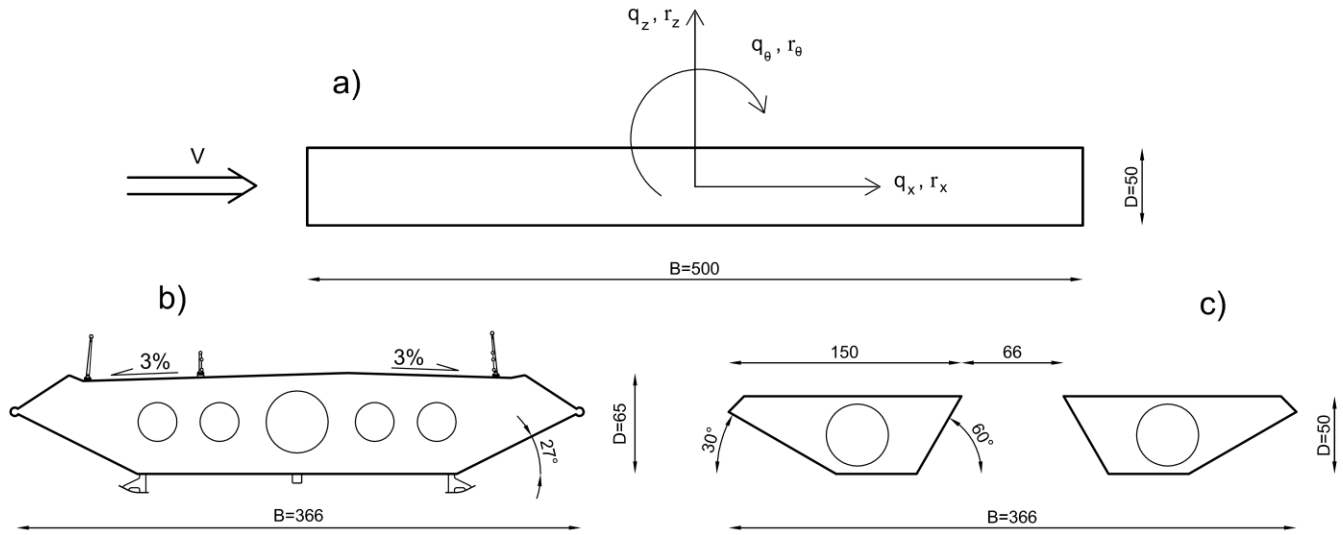
179 Two 3-DoFs actuators are the key components of the forced vibration rig. They support the section model at both ends and
180 are mounted on a steel frame outside the wind. The internally connected actuators can to reproduce any uploaded motion of
181 the bridge deck section model in the range ± 10 cm for vertical and horizontal vibrations and $\pm 90^\circ$ for rotation. As seen from
182 Fig. 1, the section model is the only component inside the wind tunnel during the experiments.

183 3.2 Displacement, wind speed and force measurements

184 The horizontal, vertical and torsional positions of the section model during the experiments are acquired from the encoders on
185 the servomotors. The two 6-DoF's Gamma (by ATI Industrial Automation) load cells measure the forces acting on the bridge
186 deck section models during the wind tunnel experiments. The load cells are located at each side of the wind tunnel and
187 support the section model. Therefore, to find the self-excited forces, the inertia and static contributions need to be separated
188 from the total recorded loads by repeating each test in still-air conditions (Siedziako et al., 2017a). A pitot-static probe placed
189 at the inlet of the wind tunnel was used to measure the mean wind velocity. In this study, all the experiments were conducted
190 in a smooth air flow (Adaramola and Krogstad, 2009). Additionally, recordings from the thermometer inside the wind tunnel
191 allowed the monitoring of the air density due to the change in the temperature during the tests. The sampling rate for the
192 acquired voltage signals was set to 2 kHz, downsampled to 250 Hz when storing the data. More details on the data acquisition
193 and control systems can be found in (Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017b; Siedziako et al., 2017a).

194 3.3 Section models

195 Three cross-sectional geometries shown in Fig. 2 were examined in the series of wind tunnel tests with random motion.



196

197 **Fig. 2.** Cross-sectional dimensions of the bridge deck section model section models used in this study: a) B/D=10 rectangular
 198 section, b) detailed Hardanger Bridge section, and c) twin deck section.

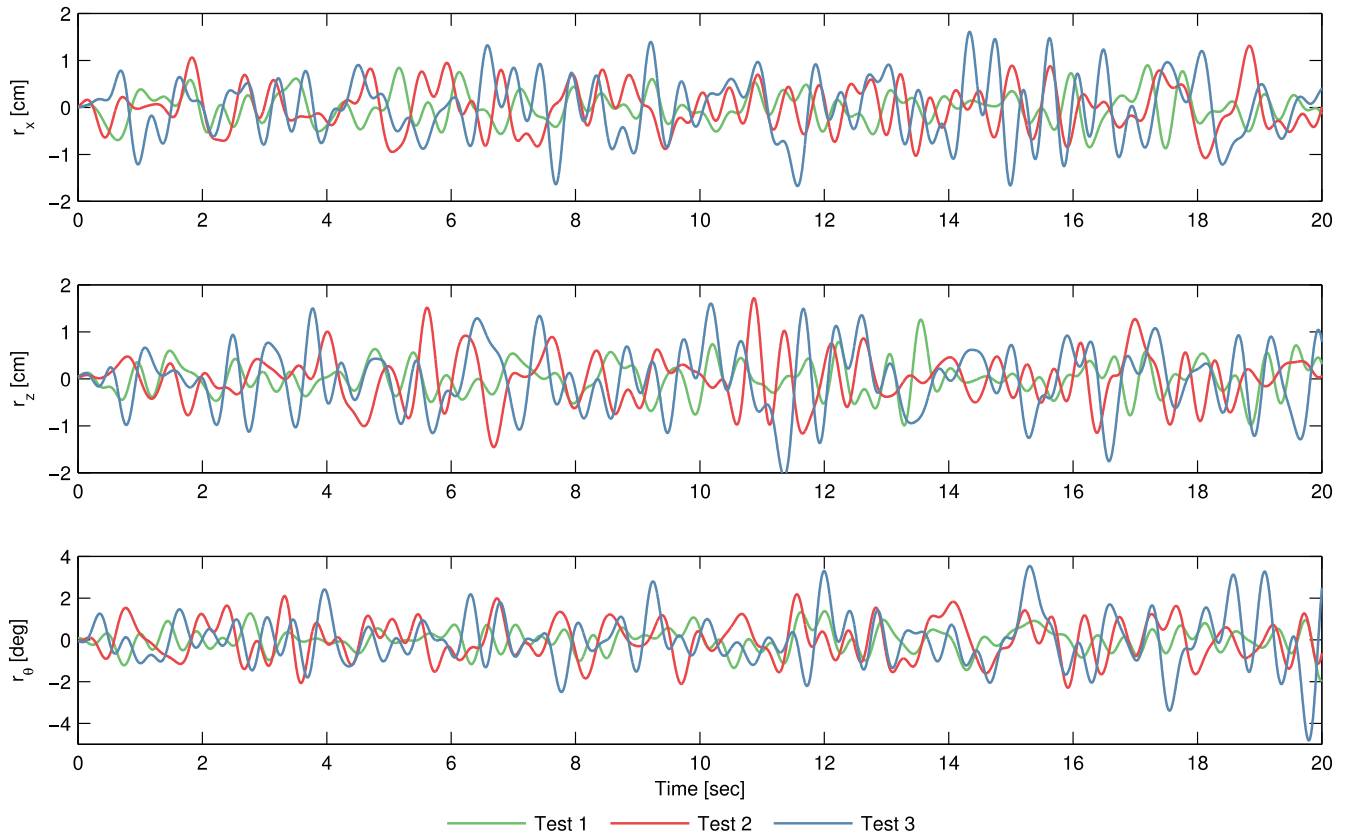
199 A simple rectangular section model with a ratio of B/D=10, a Hardanger Bridge (Fenerci and Øiseth, 2015, 2017; Fenerci et
 200 al., 2017) section model with railings and guide vanes, and a model of a twin box girder were used in this study. An increase
 201 in research on twin box girders in recent years motivated the authors of this paper to include this model in the testing
 202 program. Although the twin deck section is known to be more resistant to flutter (Andersen et al., 2015, 2016; Yang et al.,
 203 2015), the flow pattern around it is somewhat more complex than that of the bluff or streamlined sections. Moreover, a recent
 204 study by Skyvulstad et al. (2017) showed that the concept of motion-independent aerodynamic derivatives, which assumes
 205 that they are functions of reduced velocity only, might be invalid for some twin deck type geometries. Therefore, it was
 206 interesting to examine whether this study would confirm that the aerodynamic derivatives of the chosen twin deck section are
 207 sensitive to the motion applied. The aeroelastic properties of the Hardanger Bridge, the longest suspension bridge in Norway,
 208 and the twin deck section model used herein had already been evaluated in previous studies conducted at NTNU in
 209 (Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017b) and (Skyvulstad et al., 2017), respectively. In this study, in the case of the rectangular section,
 210 the aerodynamic derivatives were first identified in the series of single-DoF harmonic forced vibration tests, and then were
 211 later compared with the obtained rational functions. The experimental procedure used in this study to extract the aerodynamic
 212 derivatives from the standard forced vibration tests can be found in (Siedziako et al., 2017a; Siedziako et al., 2016).

213 3.4 Bridge deck motions

214 The time histories used in this study were generated by Monte Carlo simulations, as described in (Siedziako et al., 2017a).
 215 Herein, the designed spectra of the horizontal, vertical and torsional vibrations are rectangular, starting at 0.3 Hz and ending
 216 at 2.5 Hz. This ensures that the self-excited forces can be obtained over a wide range of reduced velocities, which is of crucial
 217 importance since results obtained outside the covered range might be unreliable. Since the amplitude of the vibrations might
 218 have an influence on the identified aerodynamic derivatives, as shown by Chen et al. (2005), three different response
 219 magnitudes were considered in this study. The standard deviations of the vertical, horizontal and torsional displacements
 220 considered in these tests are shown in Table 1. The length of the time series was 100 seconds, and Fig. 3 shows the first 20
 221 seconds of them.

Test number	Standard deviation of the vibrations		
	r_x [cm]	r_z [cm]	r_θ [°]
1	0.510	0.483	0.938
2	0.350	0.332	0.570
3	0.659	0.639	1.396

222 **Table 1.** Standard deviations of the horizontal, vertical and torsional vibrations considered in the wind tunnel tests.



223 **Fig. 3.** Part of the time series forced on the section models and used in the identification process.
 224

225 4 Experimental results and discussion

226 In order to show the influence of suggested herein enhancement to identification procedure proposed by Cao and Sarkar
 227 (2012), standard – Eq. (12) and enhanced identification procedures were used to obtain rational function coefficients. Table 2
 228 compares the fits between measured and predicted self-excited forces, when using linear regression and differential equation
 229 solver to find vector ψ containing rational function coefficients. The self-excited forces for this example were recorded,
 230 when the twin deck section model was subjected to random vibrations (Test 2) at the mean wind velocity of 4 m/s. It can be
 231 seen that predictions of all three self-excited force components have been improved when using suggested herein approach to
 232 find rational function coefficients. A distinct increase in the prediction accuracy is observed for the self-excited drag, while
 233 only a minor one in case of lift and pitch components. This was expected, since the drag force is usually influenced to a
 234 larger extend by the noise due to its low magnitude as well as nonlinear contributions (Chen et al., 2005; Siedziako and
 235 Øiseth, 2017b; Xu et al., 2016) that cannot be predicted with a use of applied herein load model. This example demonstrates
 236 the efficacy of proposed enhanced identification procedure, although it must be noticed that the improvements in force
 237 predictions were less distinct than showed herein in most cases.

Identification method	Drag		Lift		Pitch	
	ρ_{xy}	R^2	ρ_{xy}	R^2	ρ_{xy}	R^2
Least squares – Eq. (12)	0.789	0.489	0.962	0.971	0.919	0.846
Differential equation solver	0.875	0.765	0.980	0.985	0.931	0.868

238 **Table 2.** Correlation coefficient (ρ_{xy}) and coefficient of determination (R^2) between measured and predicted self-excited
 239 forces, calculated using rational functions obtained applying different identification techniques.

240

241 The correlation coefficient and coefficient of determination between the measured (x_i) and predicted (y_i) n -long signals were
 242 calculated using Eq. (14) and (15)

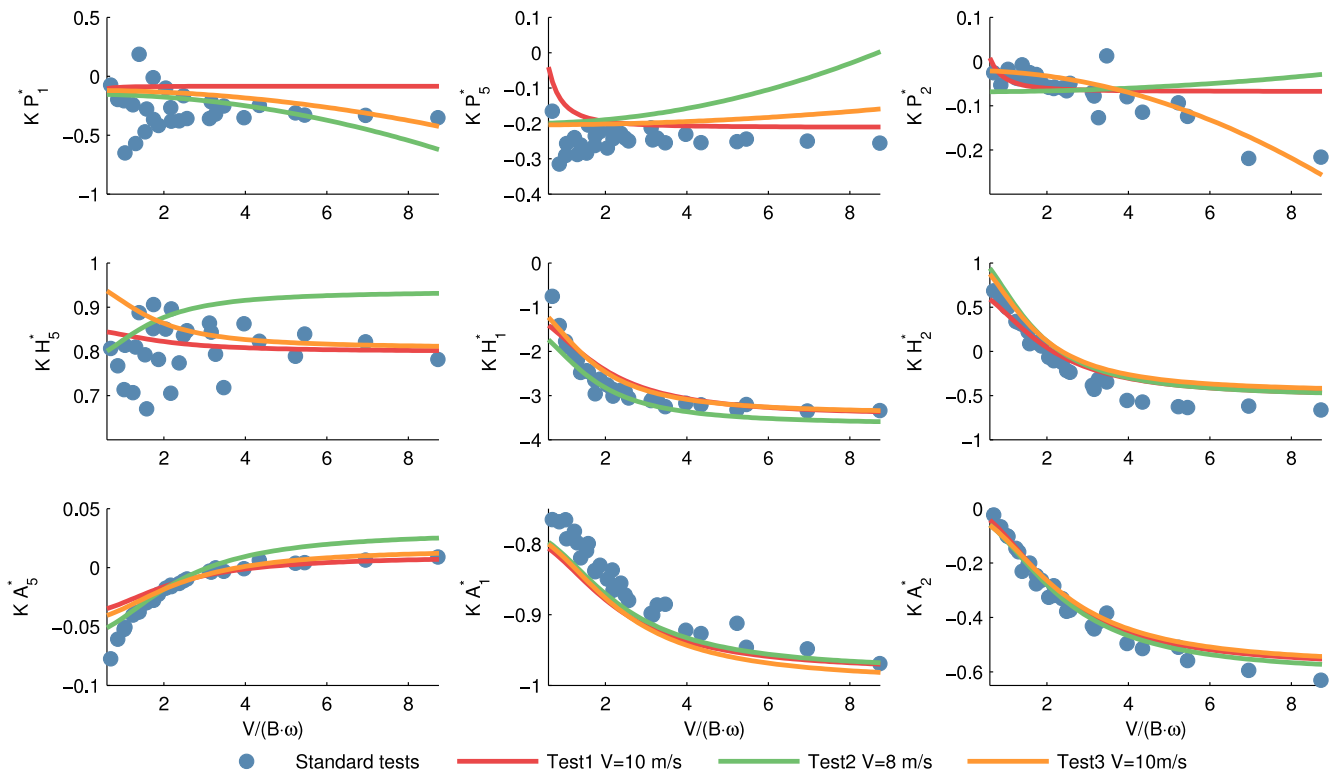
$$243 \quad \rho_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sigma_x \sigma_y n} \quad (14)$$

$$244 \quad R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} \quad (15)$$

245 4.1 Aerodynamic derivatives

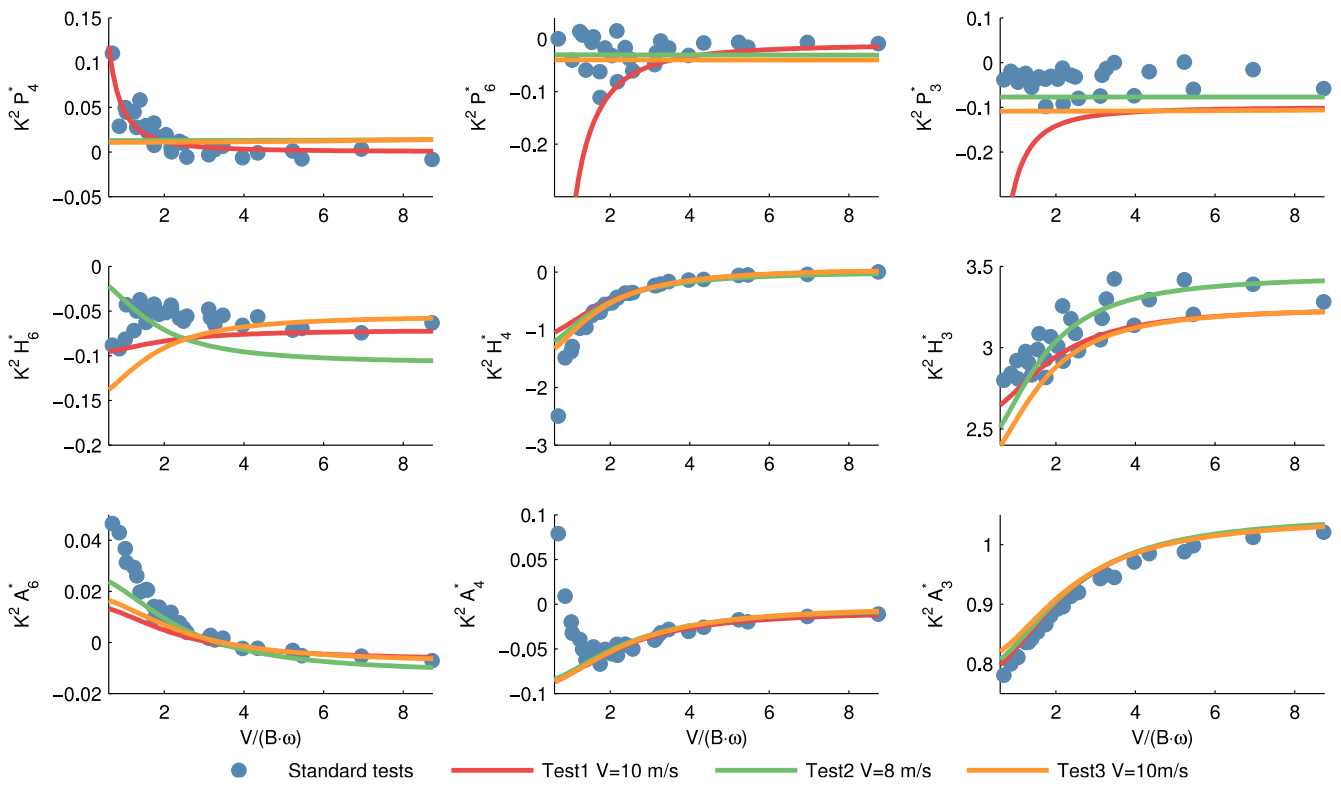
246 The results presented in this paper have been obtained from the wind tunnel tests at 8 and 10 m/s since we consider these tests
 247 to be of highest quality because the self-excited forces are large compared to inertia forces. The velocities are perhaps a bit

248 large if one is interested in the self-excited forces at low mean wind velocities in full scale. The natural frequencies of the
 249 first vertical and torsional modes of the Hardanger Bridge are 1 and 2.2 rad/s respectively while the reduced critical flutter
 250 velocity is 2.6. The wind tunnel test thus cover the range relevant for buffeting response and flutter analysis in strong winds
 251 where the self-excited forces are most relevant. The aerodynamic derivatives obtained using Eq. (13) for the Hardanger
 252 Bridge and BD10 section models are presented in Fig. 4 to Fig. 7. The convention proposed by Zasso (1996), where the
 253 aerodynamic derivatives related to the velocities and displacements are multiplied by the reduced frequency and reduced
 254 frequency squared, respectively is used since it allows a quantitative evaluation of the performance of the proposed
 255 identification method.



256

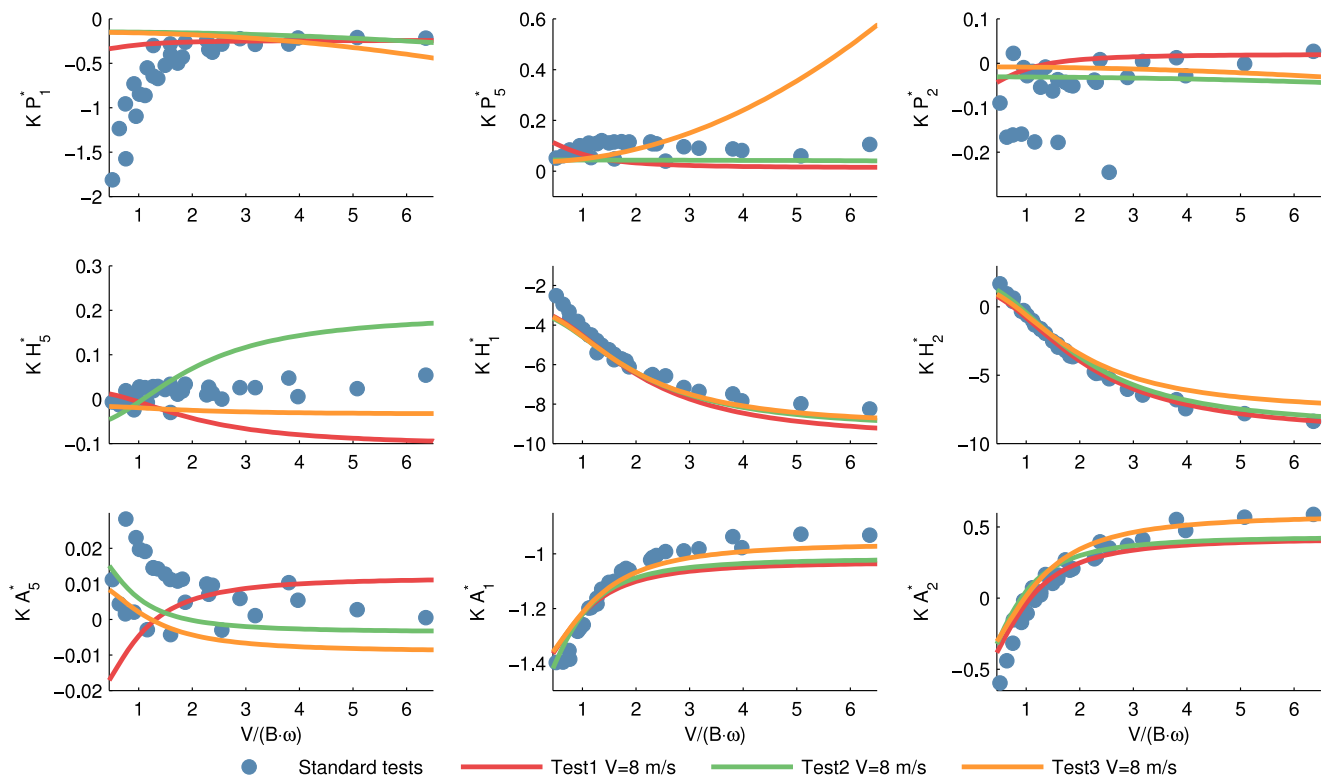
257 **Fig. 4.** Aerodynamic derivatives, of the Hardanger Bridge section model, related to the velocities or angular velocities.



258

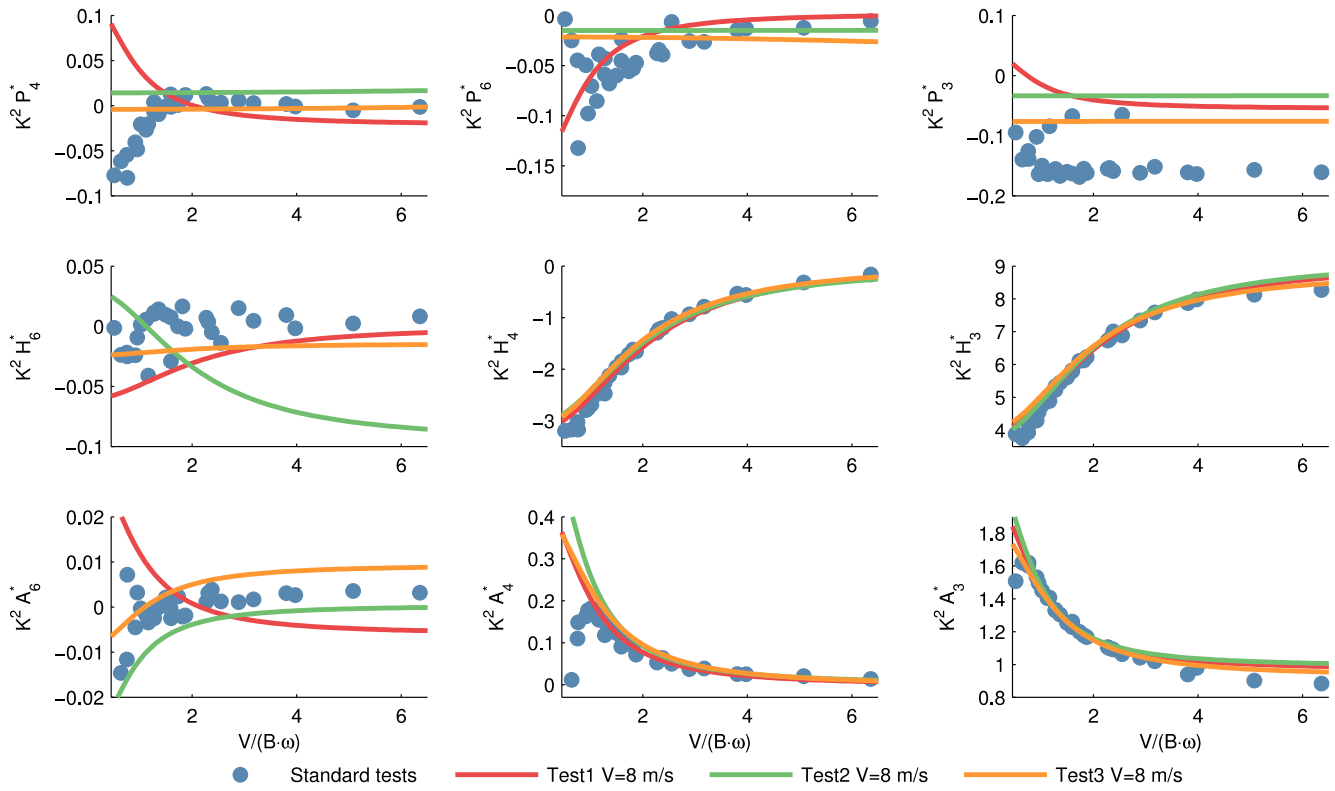
259

Fig. 5. Aerodynamic derivatives, of the Hardanger Bridge section model, related to the displacements and rotation.



260

261 **Fig. 6.** Aerodynamic derivatives, of the rectangular BD10 section model, related to the velocities or angular velocities.



262
 263 **Fig. 7.** Aerodynamic derivatives, of the rectangular BD10 section model, related to the displacements and rotation.

264 For the Hardanger and the rectangular BD10 section models, the obtained aerodynamic derivatives show a very good match
 265 with the data obtained in the standard forced vibration tests. Especially for the 8 aerodynamic derivatives considered to be the
 266 most influential, namely, $A_1^* - A_4^*$ and $H_1^* - H_4^*$, the identified results are consistent and nearly identical to the results from the
 267 standard tests with 1-DoF harmonic oscillations, represented by the blue dots in Fig. 4 to Fig. 7. Generally, greater
 268 discrepancies between the standard forced vibration data and the identified results are observed at higher reduced velocities.
 269 This can be attributed to the design of the spectra, uniformly distributed along the frequencies ranging from 0.3 to 2.5 Hz,
 270 used to generate the motion histories; this design emphasizes the importance of the self-excited forces induced at the lower
 271 reduced velocities, since reduced velocity is inversely proportional to frequency. It is also interesting to study the results in
 272 the reduced velocity range not directly covered by the frequency range of the applied motions, which are below 1.45 and
 273 below 0.85 for the Hardanger and BD10 sections respectively. The results show that the identified models performs well for
 274 the most important aerodynamic derivatives also in this range. This can partly be attributed to the fact that only one lag term
 275 is used such that abrupt changes in the curves outside the range covered by the applied motion do not occur. The difficulties
 276 in finding the aerodynamic derivatives that define the self-excited drag has already been emphasized in a previous study that
 277 used the same experimental setup as herein (Siedziako et al., 2017a). Considering the low value of the self-excited drag force

278 and highly nonlinear behavior of this force component, the results presented here are considered acceptable. Nevertheless, as
 279 in the previous studies (Siedziako et al., 2017a; Xu et al., 2016), the results strongly indicate that the load model based on the
 280 aerodynamic derivatives is not able to reproduce this force component. P_2^* , P_3^* , P_5^* , and P_6^* , that define the self-excited pitch
 281 and lift induced by horizontal motion are also more scattered. However, the forces induced by this motion component are
 282 smaller than those generated by the heave or rotation by roughly an order of magnitude, and therefore, are of minor
 283 importance.

284 The aerodynamic derivatives identified for the twin deck section are displayed in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9. Although the results are
 285 mostly within range of the results obtained through the standard forced vibration tests, different trends and a large scatter
 286 between the separate tests are observed, especially in comparison with the results presented in Fig. 4 to Fig. 7. It is also
 287 observed that the results from the standard forced vibration tests do not form consistent trends indicating that a linear model
 288 for the self-excited forces is insufficient. The static force coefficients displayed in Fig 10 supports this statement since
 289 significant nonlinearities are clearly present.

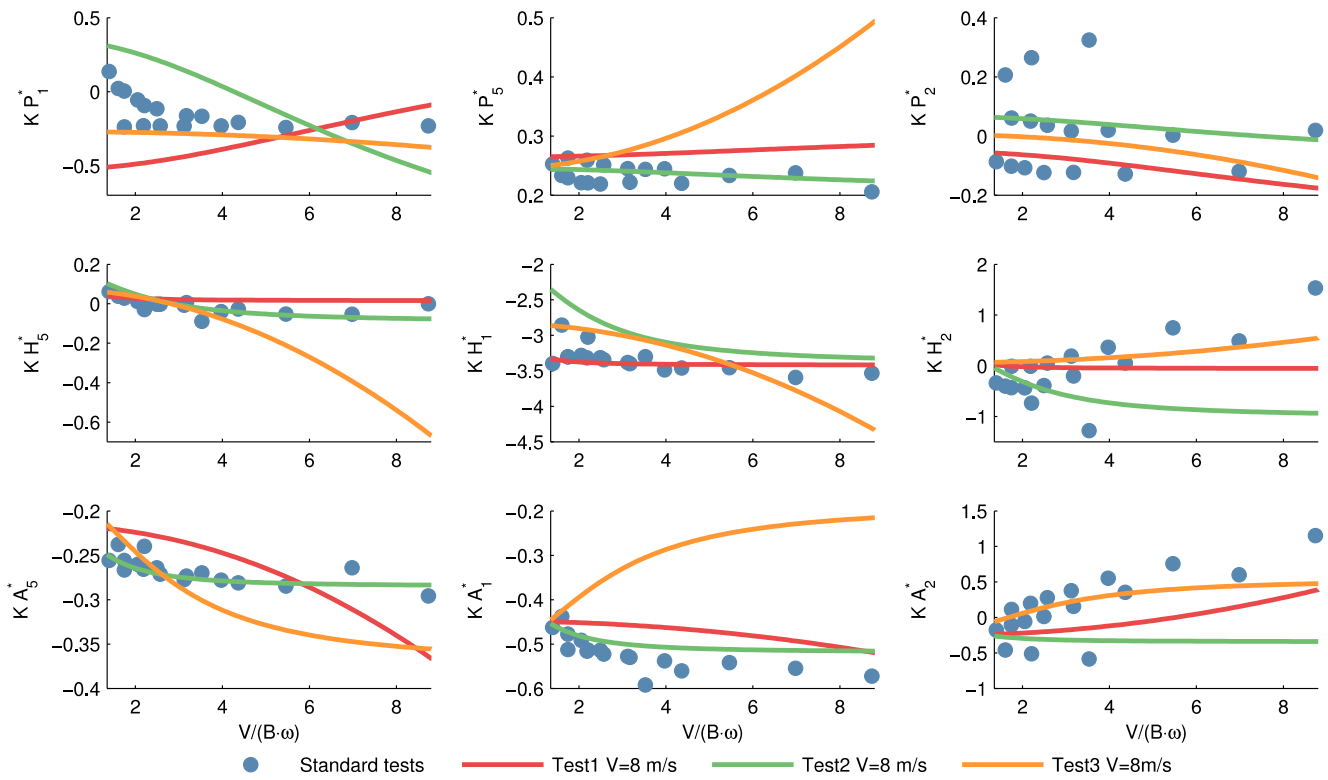
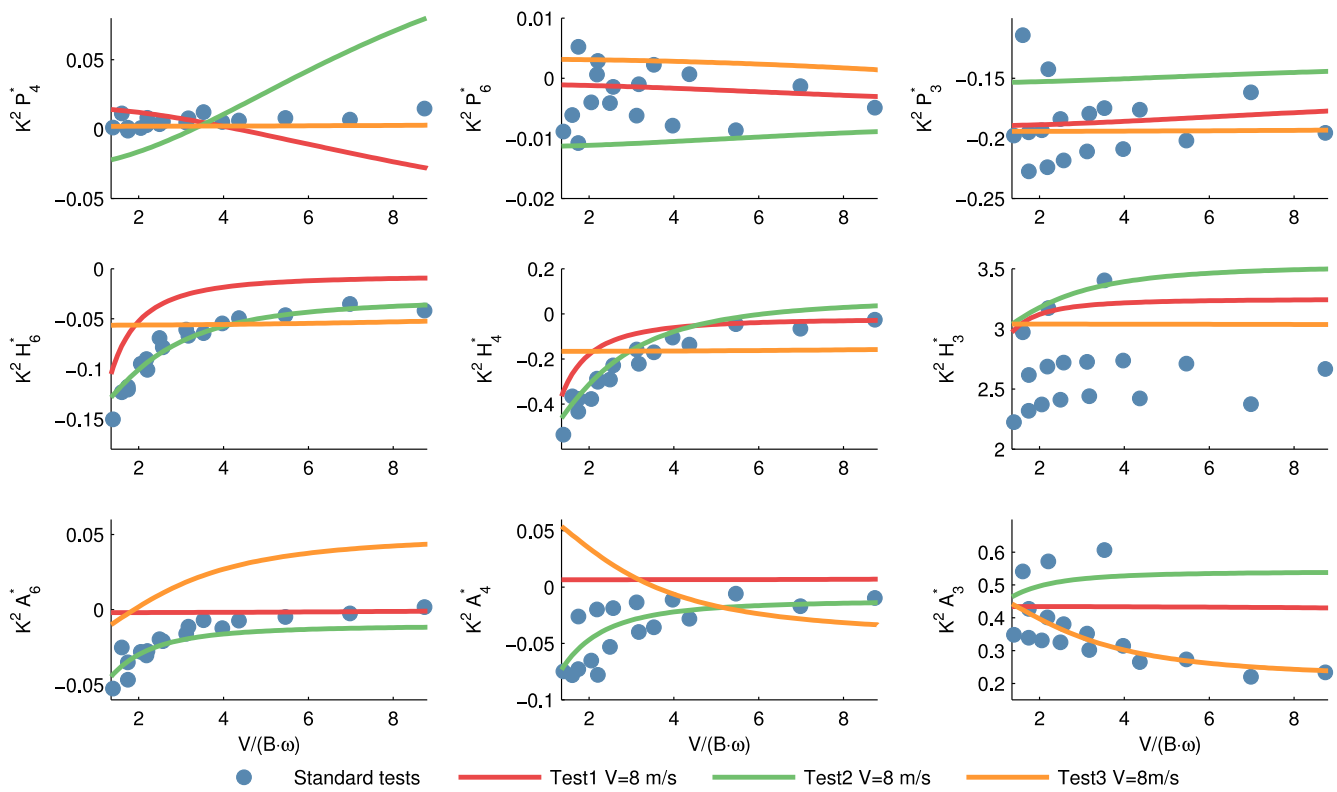


Fig. 8. Aerodynamic derivatives, of the twin deck section model, related to the velocities or angular velocities.



292

293 **Fig. 9.** Aerodynamic derivatives, of the twin deck section model, related to the displacements and rotation.

294 It is therefore important to emphasize that the differences in the obtained rational function coefficients, and consequently the
 295 aerodynamic derivatives, do not result from errors in the identification algorithm described in this paper but it rather indicates
 296 that more advanced nonlinear models needs to be applied. There exists several nonlinear models that it is worth to consider,
 297 for instance (Diana et. al., 2008; Wu and Kareem, 2014), but this is considered to be out of the scope of this paper and the
 298 twin deck section is therefore not discussed further in this paper.

299

300

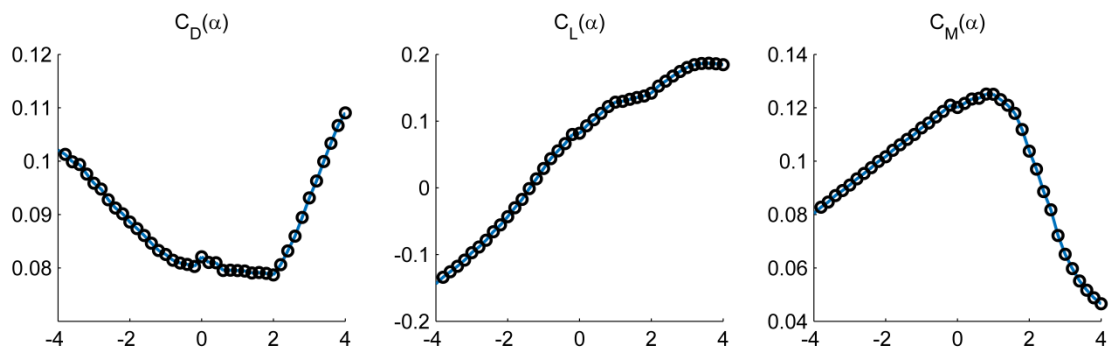


Fig 10. Static load coefficients of the twin deck section model.

301 4.2 Validation of the rational function coefficients

302 It is important to ensure that the identified model describes the self-excited forces well for all of the time series and not just
 303 the particular time series used to identify the coefficients. It is therefore necessary to validate the model using validation data
 304 that have not been used to determine the coefficients. New sets of motion histories, Test 1*, Test 2*, and Test 3*, were
 305 therefore obtained assuming the same spectra as in Tests 1, 2 and 3, respectively. The measured aeroelastic forces induced on
 306 the Hardanger Bridge and rectangular BD10 section models were compared with the predicted aeroelastic forces, calculated
 307 using the identified rational function coefficients, shown in Table 3 and Table 4. Fig. 11 and Fig. 12 display selected time
 308 series of the measured and predicted self-excited forces induced during execution of the random motion series for the chosen
 309 tests, corresponding to the tabularized data with bold font in Table 3 and Table 4. The self-excited forces were calculated by
 310 constructing a state space model from the rational function coefficients and utilizing Eq. (5), for example, similarly to (Bera
 311 and Chandiramani, 2016; Chen et al., 2000a, 2000c; Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017a; Øiseth et al., 2012).

Test	V [m/s]	Drag		Lift		Pitch	
		ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y	ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y	ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y
Test 1	10	0.769	0.835	0.997	1.003	1.00	1.006
Test 2	8	0.588	0.639	0.994	1.001	0.999	1.007
Test 3	10	0.788	0.793	0.997	1.003	0.999	1.007
Test 1*	10	0.654 (0.811)	0.701 (0.817)	0.994 (0.995)	1.001 (0.996)	0.999 (0.999)	1.004 (1.004)
Test 3*	10	0.663 (0.807)	0.586 (0.804)	0.991 (0.996)	0.985 (0.997)	0.999 (0.999)	1.007 (1.005)
Test 1*	8	0.542 (0.615)	0.998 (0.614)	0.997 (0.997)	0.976 (0.997)	1.00 (1.00)	1.004 (1.003)
Test 3*	8	0.586 (0.886)	0.510 (0.899)	0.995 (0.997)	0.953 (1.002)	0.999 (1.00)	1.008 (1.007)
Test 1*	4	0.165 (0.444)	0.622 (0.449)	0.916 (0.929)	0.830 (0.925)	0.981 (0.991)	1.016 (0.992)
Test 3*	4	0.287 (0.352)	0.319 (0.355)	0.922 (0.926)	0.819 (0.923)	0.996 (0.996)	1.034 (0.999)

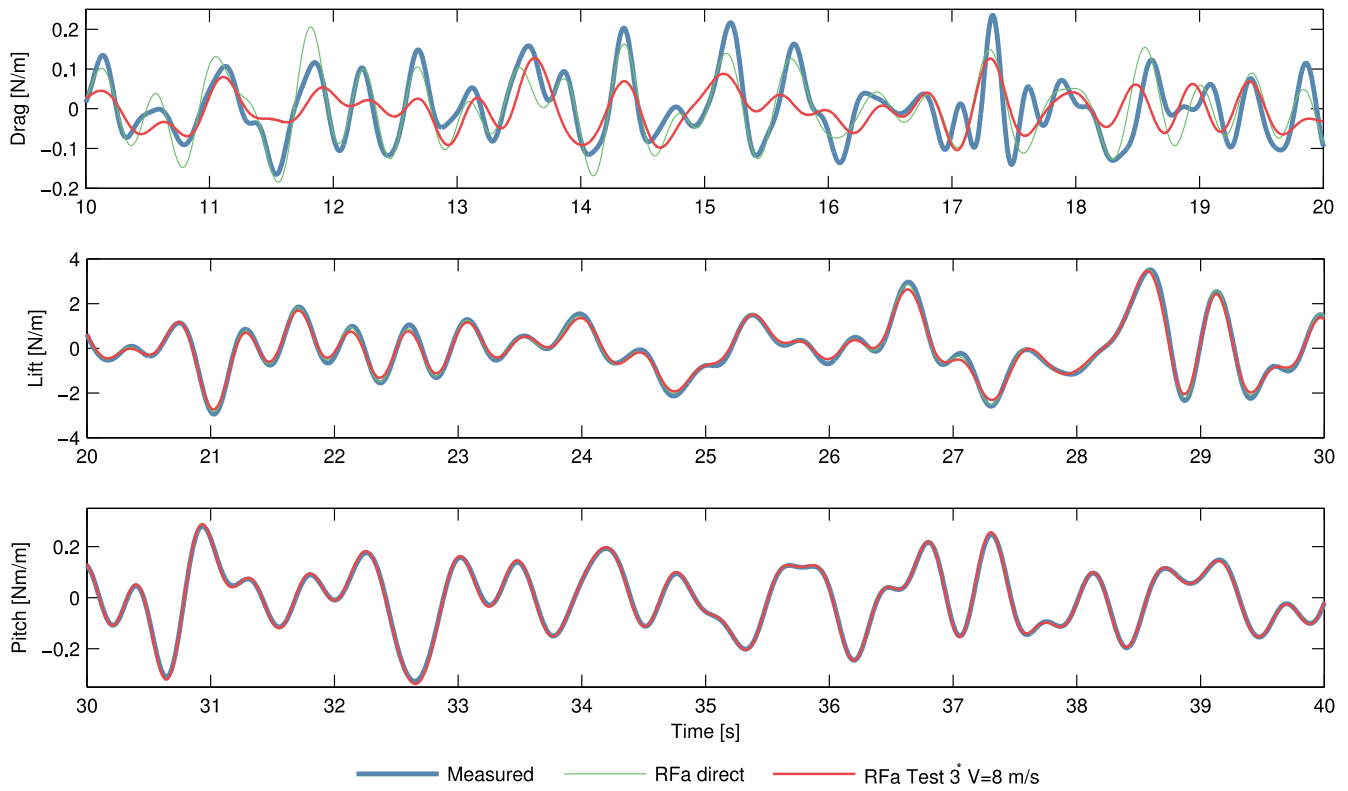
312 **Table 3.** Correlation coefficient and standard deviation ratio between the measured self-excited forces induced on the
 313 Hardanger Bridge section model and those predicted with the identified rational function coefficients. The values in the
 314 brackets show the possible best fit obtained, when applying the identification algorithm directly to the considered time series.

315

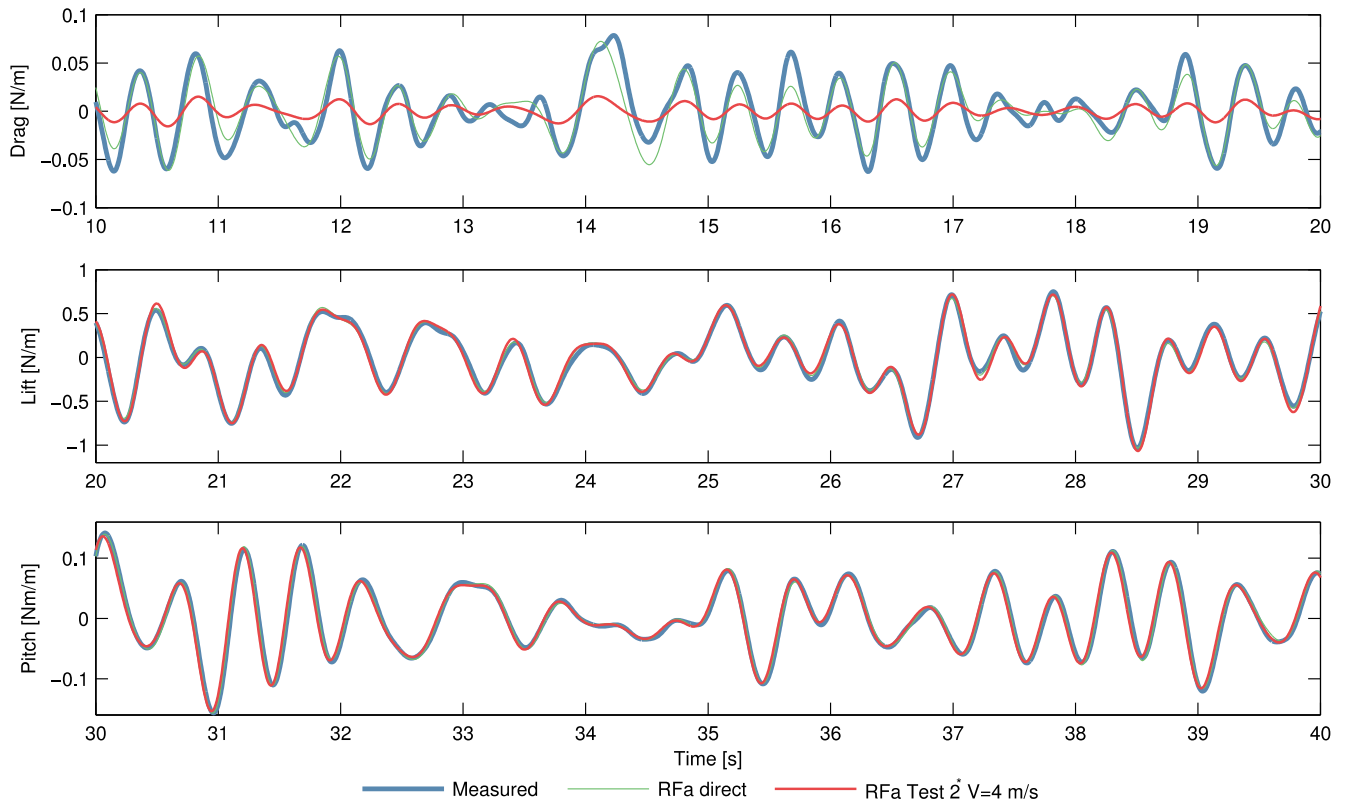
Test	V [m/s]	Drag		Lift		Pitch	
		ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y	ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y	ρ_{xy}	σ_x / σ_y
Test 1	8	0.490	0.508	0.999	1.004	0.999	1.010
Test 2	8	0.419	0.423	0.998	1.005	0.999	1.011
Test 3	8	0.356	0.353	0.999	1.005	0.999	1.010
Test 1*	10	0.530 (0.540)	0.378 (0.538)	0.999 (0.999)	1.001 (1.008)	0.999 (0.999)	1.016 (0.996)
Test 2*	10	0.136	0.363	0.999	1.009	0.999	1.018

		(0.343)	(0.344)	(0.999)	(1.009)	(0.999)	(0.995)
Test 3*	10	0.132	0.603	0.998	1.001	0.998	1.016
		(0.179)	(0.178)	(0.998)	(1.007)	(0.998)	(0.994)
Test 1*	4	0.844	0.578	0.987	1.007	0.993	0.978
		(0.899)	(0.894)	(0.995)	(0.989)	(0.997)	(1.001)
Test 2*	4	0.902	0.231	0.992	1.025	0.984	0.988
		(0.936)	(0.935)	(0.997)	(1.004)	(0.997)	(1.005)
Test 3*	4	-0.350	0.304	0.984	1.068	0.995	0.993
		(0.772)	(0.765)	(0.996)	(0.991)	(0.998)	(1.001)

316 **Table 4.** Correlation coefficient and standard deviation ratio between the measured self-excited forces induced on the
317 rectangular BD10 section model and those predicted with the identified rational function coefficients. The values given in the
318 brackets show the possible best fit obtained, when applying the identification algorithm directly to the considered time series
319



320
321 **Fig. 11.** Comparison of the measured and predicted self-excited forces for Test 3* of the Hardanger Bridge section model,
322 with velocity $V=8$ m/s. Forces were predicted with the rational function coefficient identified based on Test 3 with velocity
323 10 m/s (red) and obtained by applying the identification procedure to the data measured in this test (green).



324

325 **Fig. 12.** Comparison of the measured and predicted self-excited forces for Test 2* of the rectangular BD10 section model,

326 with velocity $V=4$ m/s. Forces were predicted with a use of the rational function coefficient identified based on Test 2 with

327 velocity 8 m/s (red) and obtained by applying the identification procedure to the data measured in this test (green).

328

329 The data presented in Table 3 and Table 4, show that the self-excited lift and pitch can be closely reproduced using the

330 identified rational function coefficients by applying random motions, when considering different motion histories and

331 different wind conditions. In all performed tests, the correlation coefficient between the measured and predicted aeroelastic

332 lift and pitch is greater than 0.91 and 0.97 for the Hardanger Bridge and rectangular section models, respectively, proving that

333 the identification results are accurate. Achieving so high accuracy for the test at 4 m/s illustrate that the identified models are

334 very robust since this reduced velocity range was not covered by the applied motion and the mean wind velocities in the tests

335 used to determine the coefficients. For the self-excited drag, however, the predictions do not closely match the measurements

336 in most of the performed tests. This can be attributed, in part, to the presence of nonlinear effects, which can dominate the

337 signal, as shown in (Siedziako and Øiseth, 2017b; Xu et al., 2016), especially when considering the large motion amplitudes

338 such as those forced in Test 3 and Test 3*. Moreover, the aeroelastic properties that determine the magnitude of the self-

339 excited drag are motion-dependent for both the Hardanger Bridge and rectangular section models. It has been shown that by

340 applying the identification algorithm directly on the considered time series, the predictions of the drag force can drastically
341 improve. This improvement is especially clear during the tests at higher wind speeds in the case of the Hardanger Bridge
342 section model (Fig. 11) and lower wind speeds in the case of the rectangular BD10 section (Fig. 12), when the self-excited
343 drag behaves mostly linear. However, the self-excited drag is often considered to be of low importance. The aerodynamic
344 derivatives defining this force component are rarely obtained through the wind tunnel tests and are more frequently
345 determined by applying the quasi-steady theory and static load coefficients. Therefore, it is difficult to assess how the
346 nonlinearities of the drag force observed in this study influence the overall behavior of the bridge.

347 5 Conclusion

348 A new approach for the identification of rational functions and aerodynamic derivatives of bridge deck section models have
349 been presented in this paper. It has been shown that a full set of aerodynamic derivatives, covered in a wide range of reduced
350 velocities, can be extracted by only a few wind tunnel tests in which the section model is subjected to random vibrations. The
351 proposed method has been applied to 3 different section models: a section corresponding to Hardanger Bridge, a rectangular
352 and a twin box girder. The induced self-excited forces were measured during a series of wind tunnel tests, where all the
353 models were forced into 3-DoF's random motions, considering different vibration amplitudes and wind velocities. The
354 identified aerodynamic derivatives were compared with the data obtained by performing standard forced vibration tests. The
355 following conclusions were deduced from the results:

- 356 • It has been shown that the identification procedure described in this paper provides very accurate results, if the
357 aerodynamic derivatives of the tested section model can be considered functions of reduced velocity only. For the 8 most
358 influential aerodynamic derivatives for the Hardanger Bridge rectangular section models, nearly an exact match with the
359 data obtained by applying the standard forced vibration tests is observed.
- 360 • The approach presented in this study leads to a substantial reduction of the time, resources and in turn costs associated
361 with extracting aerodynamic derivatives and rational functions from wind tunnel test on section models. It should
362 however be noted that an advanced forced vibration setup is required.
- 363 • The identified rational function coefficients were successfully used to predict the self-excited lift and pitch induced during
364 random motions at different wind speeds. However, the self-excited drag was underestimated due to its nonlinear
365 behavior and motion dependency.
- 366 • Nonlinearities in the recorded self-excited forces were observed for all of the examined section models. The drag
367 component experiences significant higher-order contributions that become stronger at lower and higher wind velocities in

368 the case of the Hardanger Bridge and rectangular sections, respectively. For the twin box girder, not only the drag but also
369 the pitch is prone to nonlinear effects.

370 • In this study, the aerodynamic derivatives related to the horizontal motion were captured with lower accuracy, since the
371 forces induced by the horizontal motion herein were of 1 to 2 orders of magnitude smaller than the forces induced by the
372 vertical or torsional vibrations, and therefore their importance was marginal. It is expected, however, that choosing a
373 proper scaling between the horizontal, vertical and torsional vibrations or that testing each of the DoF's separately will
374 provide a significant improvement in the estimation of the aerodynamic derivatives related to horizontal motion.

375 • The assumptions that aerodynamic derivatives are functions of only the reduced velocity and uniquely define the
376 aeroelastic properties of the section model is not valid for the twin deck type geometry tested here, since the aerodynamic
377 derivatives identified for the twin deck section model are clearly motion-dependent.

378

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