

Multi-sensor fusion-based time-frequency imaging and transfer learning for spherical tank crack diagnosis under variable pressure conditions.

HASAN, M.J., ISLAM, M.M.M. and KIM, J.-M.

2021

© 2020 Elsevier Ltd.

1 **Multi-Sensor Fusion-based Time-Frequency Imaging and**
2 **Transfer Learning for Spherical Tank Crack Diagnosis Under**
3 **Variable Pressure Conditions**

4 Md Junayed Hasan^{1*}, M M Manjurul Islam^{2*}, and Jong-Myon Kim^{3*}

7 **Affiliation:**

8 *School of Electrical, Electronics and Computer Engineering, University of Ulsan, Ulsan (44610), South
9 Korea

11 **Address:**

12 *Building No. 7, Room 308, 93 Daehak-ro, Nam-gu, Ulsan (44610), South Korea

14 **Email:**

15 ¹junhasan@gmail.com

16 ²m.m.manjurul@gmail.com

17 ³jmkim07@ulsan.ac.kr

19 **Corresponding Author:**

20 Jong-Myon Kim,

21 School of Electrical, Electronics and Computer Engineering, University of Ulsan, Ulsan (44610), South
22 Korea.

23 Email: jmkim07@ulsan.ac.kr

24 Tel: +82-52-259-2217

25 Fax: +82-52-259-1687

26

27 **Abstract**

28 Due to their structurally efficient shape, spherical tanks are widely used in various industries to store
29 massive amounts of compressed gas or fluid at high pressure. Cracks in such tanks can cause significant
30 financial losses and human casualties. To diagnose the state of spherical tanks at an early stage, existing
31 diagnostic frameworks include manual feature analysis from time, frequency, or time-frequency domains.
32 However, these types of analyses require extensive domain expertise and the statistical feature extraction
33 models are very sensitive to variable operating conditions. To address these issues, several deep learning-
34 based approaches where the feature analyses can be performed automatically have been introduced.
35 Nevertheless, construction of these algorithms requires a substantial amount of prior knowledge and time
36 to establish an optimal diagnostic model. To solve these problems, a crack diagnosis framework is proposed
37 that combines a new signal-to-imaging technique and transfer learning-aided deep learning framework to
38 automate the diagnostic process. The objective of the signal-to-imaging technique is to convert one-
39 dimensional (1D) acoustic emission (AE) signals from multiple sensors into a two-dimensional (2D) image
40 to capture information under variable operating conditions. In this process, a short-time Fourier transform
41 (STFT) is first applied to the AE signal of each sensor, and the STFT results from the different sensors are
42 then fused to obtain a condition-invariant 2D image of cracks; this scheme is denoted as Multi-Sensors
43 Fusion-based Time-Frequency Imaging (MSFTFI). The MSFTFI images are subsequently fed to the fine-
44 tuned transfer learning (FTL) model built on a convolutional neural network (CNN) framework for
45 diagnosing crack types. The proposed diagnostic scheme (MSFTFI+FTL) is tested with a standard AE
46 dataset collected from a self-designed spherical tank to validate the performance under variable pressure
47 conditions. The results suggest that the proposed strategy significantly outperformed existing methods with
48 average performance improvements of 5.39 - 10.82%.

49

50 **Keywords:** Acoustic emissions, convolutional neural network, fault diagnosis, multi-sensors,
51 transfer learning, spherical tank

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Spherical tanks are commonly used in refineries, nuclear plants, and chemical industries to store massive
54 amounts of gas or fluid at high pressure due to their structurally efficient shape [1]. A small accident in a
55 spherical tank may result in the loss of millions of dollars and interruptions in operations, while a large
56 accident can lead to the devaluation of a company's stock price and bankruptcy [1,2]. The prevention of
57 such hazardous incidents is of utmost concern since spherical tanks are mostly installed in environments
58 with coarse operating conditions. Failures in these environments can occur due to stress, corrosion, fatigue
59 cracks, leakage, lightning, and open flames [3–5]. Fatigue cracks are one of the leading causes of spherical
60 tank failure, and such an incident can lead to the spillage of enclosed substances [6–8]. Therefore, in this
61 paper, a data-driven framework is proposed that combines a new signal-to-imaging technique for feature
62 representation and deep learning to automate feature extraction and the crack classification process.

63 Acoustic emission (AE) is a popular non-destructive test (NDT) for monitoring the structural health of
64 spherical tanks since it can capture a very low-energy signal with information regarding a crack [9,10].
65 Existing crack diagnosis methods consist of three main steps: (1) handicraft feature extraction by analyzing
66 acquired signals with information regarding structural health, (2) feature subset selection to determine the
67 best set of features, and (3) detection and diagnosis of health states using shallow machine learning
68 algorithms [9,10]. These approaches are mostly built upon the manual feature extraction process and
69 traditional machine learning approaches that require an expert level of domain knowledge [9,10]. In [11],
70 Morofuji *et al.* developed an AE-based technique to identify corrosion in a tank by analyzing the
71 fundamental characteristics of AE waves. In [2], Sohaib *et al.* analyzed the statistical properties of time-
72 and frequency-domain AE signals to extract crack features with information on storage tank health
73 conditions; the extracted features were further applied to a support vector machine (SVM) to diagnose crack
74 types. In previous studies, the authors improved the formation of health indicators for cracks based on a
75 statistical analysis of AE signals in the time and frequency domains [12,13]. However, these approaches
76 have two main limitations: (1) handicraft features are sensitive to variable operating conditions (e.g.,
77 different pressures, temperatures, etc.) and (2) the use of shallow machine learning techniques is restricted
78 to the automation of a general diagnostic framework such as in the case of spherical tanks operating in an
79 industrial setting.

80 To address the first issue mentioned above, a new signal-to-imaging technique is developed that transforms
81 a one-dimensional (1D) AE time-domain signal into a two-dimensional (2D) image based on a short-time
82 Fourier transform (STFT). STFT is an effective time-frequency analysis method that can capture sensitive
83 information changes in the AE signal of spherical tank health due to variable operating conditions [14]. To
84 summarize the proposed signal-to-imaging technique, collected multi-sensor AE signals are first
85 decomposed based on STFT to obtain time vs. frequency information. Next, the time vs. frequency

86 information for each sensor is converted into a gray-scale image. Finally, all gray-scale images for the
87 multi-sensors are fused to form a 2D image about the invariant crack health condition; this process is
88 denoted as Multi-Sensor Fusion-based Time-Frequency Imaging (MSFTFI). MSFTFI produces a 2D image
89 that contains information from different sensors and enables generalization to identify crack types under
90 different pressure conditions.

91 To address the second issue mentioned above, developed MSFTFI images are fed to a deep learning
92 framework for diagnosing crack types under variable pressure conditions. A popular deep learning
93 framework such as a convolution neural network (CNN) automates the feature extractor and/or diagnostic
94 framework to accommodate the diverse nature of input data [15,16]. However, the CNN often requires that
95 a new optimal network model be established for the classification task under variable operating conditions.
96 Therefore, the CNN requires substantial time to establish an optimal architecture because deciding on the
97 proper structures and training parameters is a complex process that is mostly dependent on prior human
98 experience [17]. Fortunately, transfer learning (TL)-based approaches can inherit improvements from other
99 pre-trained models using developed structures or learning parameters, which can mitigate the need for prior
100 knowledge and save a significant amount of time [18–20]. In this paper, fine-tuned transfer learning (FTL)
101 built on the CNN architecture is applied to automate the final diagnostic process. To build the FTL model,
102 the MSFTFI images from one pressure condition of a collected AE dataset are first used for training; this
103 is defined as a source task. Once the training is complete and the performance of the task is satisfactory,
104 the acquired knowledge is passed to the target task. In the target task, the MSFTFI images for different
105 pressure conditions are fed to the learned CNN in the FTL framework. The proposed diagnostic framework
106 (MSFTFI +FTL) was tested on an AE dataset collected from multiple sensors of a spherical tank to validate
107 performance. The contributions of the proposed scheme can be briefly summarized as follows:

- 108 (1) A new signal-to-imaging technique that applies a short-time Fourier transform on 1D AE signals
109 and combines the results of the STFT from multiple sensors to obtain a condition-invariant 2D
110 crack image (i.e., MSFTFI).
- 111 (2) The 2D MSFTFI images are further applied with transfer learning built on a convolutional neural
112 network architecture to automate the feature extraction and classification processes.
- 113 (3) A fine-tuned transfer learning (FTL) model to enhance the classification performance under
114 variable pressure conditions. FTL transfers learned parameters among the CNN models to obtain
115 a fine-tuned model through a knowledge sharing process. The FTL diminishes the need for
116 adjusting CNN architectures with different parameters for various working conditions.

117 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides background knowledge of the
118 STFT, CNN, and FTL that is relevant to the proposed diagnostic framework. The overall scheme of the

119 proposed approach and the self-designed experimental test setup are described in Section 3. Experimental
120 results are discussed in Section 4, and conclusions are presented in Section 5.

121 **2. Preliminaries**

122 This section highlights technical information regarding the short-time Fourier transform, convolutional
123 neural network, and the fundamentals of transfer learning.

124 **2.1 Short-Time Fourier Transform**

125 Time-domain or frequency-domain analysis is frequently utilized to observe the health state of different
126 industrial equipment. However, neither of these methods can portray signal variations in the association
127 between time and frequency domains. In practical cases, most signals acquired from equipment (e.g.,
128 spherical tanks) are non-stationary in nature. Therefore, time-frequency analysis meets the challenges of
129 evaluating such signals in the shape of an image [17]. Furthermore, the features of an image directly impact
130 the final detection accuracy of deep learning-based algorithms. Hence, it is of immense significance to
131 investigate methods for time-frequency based analysis.

132 STFT is a time-frequency-based decomposition technique that is effective for analyzing non-stationary
133 time-varying signals. Such an analysis allows 1D health condition signals to be transformed into 2D matrices.
134 Thus, STFT contributes to the processing of deep learning-based algorithms by providing 2D matrices [14].
135 The key concept of STFT is to utilize a static-length window function to capture the total time-varying
136 signals in a smaller time, t , and process each of the captured parts with a Fourier transform to obtain a local
137 spectrum. This way, the feature spectrum of the STFT contains information from the time and frequency
138 domains. The basic formula of the 2D STFT function can be expressed as follows:

$$STFT \{x(t)\}(t, w) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(fr) F(fr-t) e^{-jw t} ds \quad (1)$$

139 where $x(t)$ is the signal from the time domain, t and fr indicate time, w is the frequency, and
140 $F(fr-t)$ is the window function. Here, $F(fr-t)$ regulates the time and frequency resolution of the
141 calculated spectrum. A longer window length describes the spectrum with a higher frequency and lower
142 time resolution after calculating the Fourier transform. Thus, the window size must be carefully chosen for
143 a better analysis [14].

144 **2.2 Convolutional Neural Network Architecture**

145 CNN is a deep neural network primarily constructed with an input layer, several convolution layers, pooling
146 layers, a few fully connected layers, and one final classification layer [19,21]. One of benefits of CNN is
147 the sparse number of attributes, which decreases the number of learning parameters (i.e., weights and biases)
148 when compared to conventional artificial neural networks (ANN) [21]. Several optimization constraints,

149 including dropout, batch normalization (BN), and rectified linear units (ReLUs), are also utilized for
 150 incorporation into the main architecture of the basic CNN to improve classification performance [22–24].

151 **2.2.1 Convolution Layers**

152 Several convolution strategies have been presented in the literature. All types of convolution operations
 153 were primarily utilized for feature mapping to extract the attributes of an input image to the network through
 154 their shared weight properties. A valid convolution, which is a convolution operation without any kind of
 155 padding on the provided input to the network, is frequently preferred in CNN architectures [17].

156 Padding is known as the preprocessing step before the convolution operation. For example, if the network
 157 has an input A of an $m \times m$ image and there is convolution filter F with a size of $f \times f$, the output matrix
 158 of the valid convolution can be calculated as:

$$(A * F) = \left[\frac{n-f}{s} \right] + 1 \times \left[\frac{n-f}{s} \right] + 1 \quad (2)$$

159 where s is the number of vertical and horizontal steps that the filter F takes over the provided input image
 160 A , and the $(*)$ operator represents the convolution operation. Finally, the Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)
 161 activation function is adopted to finalize the output of the CNN. The overall process of this convolution
 162 operation can be expressed as:

$$Y_{cn} = f(X * W_{cn} + B_{cn}) \quad (3)$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{when } (x \geq 0) \\ 0, & \text{when } (x \leq 0) \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

163 Here, $X \in R^{A \times B}$ refers to the input of the convolution layer, where the dimension of the input image is
 164 $A \times B$; W_{cn} and B_{cn} are the weight matrix and bias, respectively, and f is the ReLU activation function.

165 Thus, the cn th feature map output Y_{cn} is obtained.

166 **2.2.2 Pooling Layers**

167 A down-sampling layer, known as a pooling layer, generally supports each convolutional layer. The
 168 objective of the pooling architecture is to decrease both the number of spatial factors and the computational
 169 load. Therefore, it is useful to lessen the over-fitting probability. In this study, max pooling [25], which can
 170 yield a maximum value of the convolutional output Y_{cn} , is adopted as follows:

$$PL_{cn} = \max(Y_{cn}) \quad (5)$$

171 The CNN usually incorporates numerous sequences of convolution and pooling layers. Consequently, many
 172 fully connected layers proceed layer by layer, which transforms the matrix in a filter to a column or row.

173 Lastly, a SoftMax [26] function is applied to approximate the probability of every target in the final output
174 layer.

175 **2.2.3 Objective Function**

176 The main objective of the CNN is to reduce the training error. That is to say, the difference between the
177 actual output Y_k and predicted output Y_{Ak} must be minimized by the network. To minimize error, the
178 following cost function is adopted:

$$E(p) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^m (Y_k^p - Y_{Ak}^p)^2 \quad (6)$$

179 where m is the quantity of neurons, and p denotes the p -th iterative steps. The objective of the CNN is
180 to lessen the cost function $E(n)$ via backpropagation and stochastic gradient descent (GD) [27].

181 **2.3 Transfer Learning with CNN**

182 The main goal of transfer learning is to transfer the knowledge acquired from a specific source task to
183 another new (different but relatively similar) target task in order to improve the performance of the target
184 task [18,20]. Fine-tuning-based transfer learning (FTL) is one of the key factors in this process [17]. In the
185 FTL approach, the parameters, weights, and network structure of one specific task are transferred to the
186 related task. For example, in the source task, the final output of the CNN after completion of the training
187 with source data can be attained as follows:

$$CNN_s = f_s(I_s, E_s) \quad (7)$$

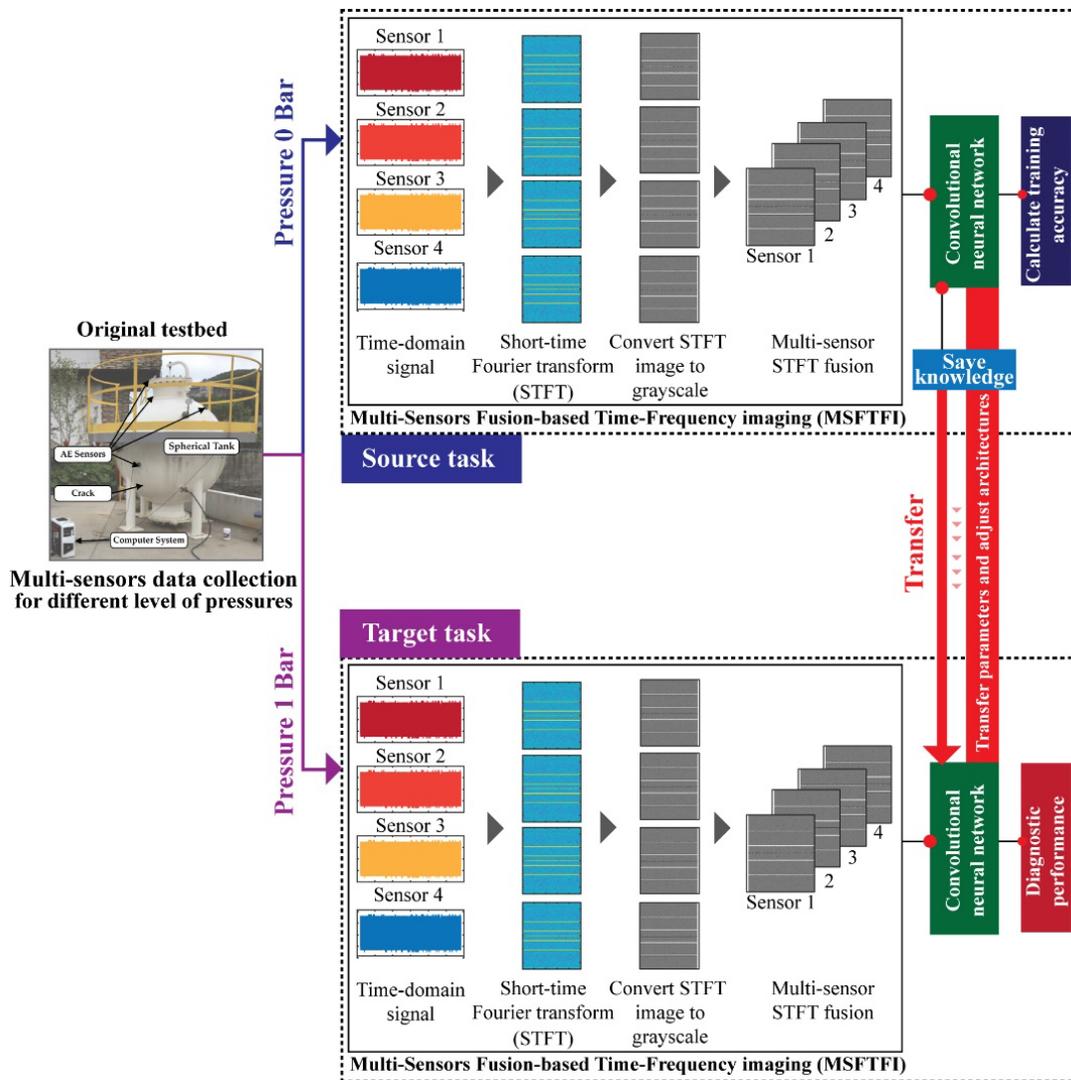
188 where I_s refers to the input source data, E_s is the objective function, and f_s is the mapping function of the
189 source task. Similarly, the output of the target domain can be obtained as follows:

$$CNN_T = f_T(I_T, E_T) \quad (8)$$

190 where I_T refers to the input source data, E_T is the objective function, and f_T is the mapping function of
191 the source task. In this approach, the network learns the correlated properties in the source task by first
192 attaining the mapping function f_s . It then transfers f_s to the target domain and obtains f_T . Hence, the
193 main objective of FTL is to improve the learning process of the target domain by utilizing the acquired
194 knowledge of the source domain.

195 **3. Proposed Methodology**

196 The main purpose of this study is to diagnose crack types in spherical tanks under variable pressure
197 conditions based on a new signal-to-imaging technique and a fine-tuned transfer learning algorithm. Figure
198 1 presents a block diagram of the proposed methodology.



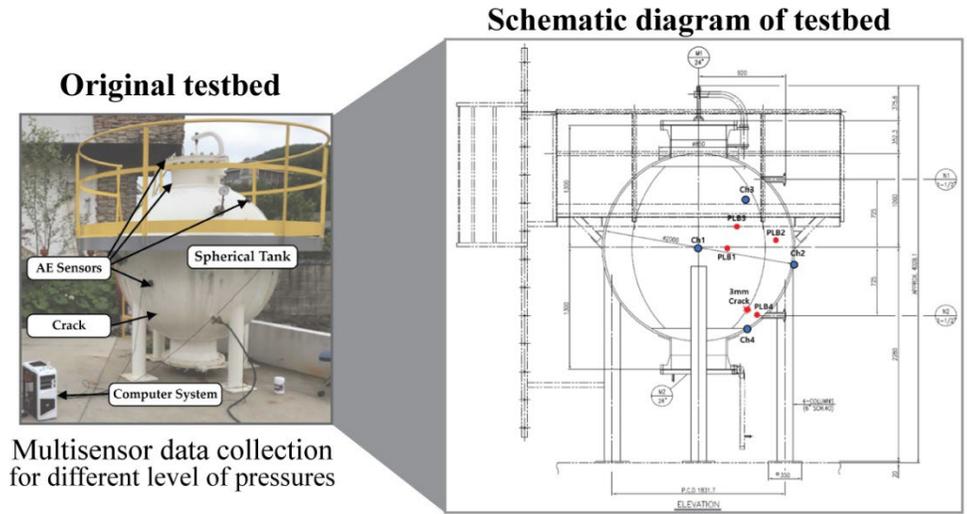
199
200 **Figure 1:** The proposed diagnostic framework for a spherical tank based on transfer learning.

201 As depicted visually in the figure, the proposed method is composed of three main steps:

- 202 (1) Source task: From the original testbed of the spherical tank, data for a pressure of zero (0) bar are
203 collected. The collected 1D acoustic emission signals from multiple sensors are transformed into a
204 2D image (MSFTFI). MSFTFI allows for visualization of the health conditions of the spherical
205 tank, which are later passed on to the CNN in the FTL framework for optimization of network
206 parameters.
- 207 (2) Transfer block: The knowledge assembled from the source task mainly passes to the target network
208 for boosting the performance of the target task by optimizing the parameters of the target network.
- 209 (3) Target task: From the testbed, the AE signals for 1 bar of pressure are converted into an MSFTFI
210 image for testing the final model used for classifying different health states.

211 **3.1 Self-Designed Testbed for AE Data**

212 An experiment is performed on a self-designed test bed to collect AE signals from multiple sensors of a
213 spherical tank. The data acquisition (DAQ) system is developed according to industrial standards offered
214 in the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME) Boiler & Pressure Vessel Code (BPVC) –
215 version 2015. A carbon steel (model A283, grade C) spherical tank is utilized to collect AE signals. Here,
216 4 WDI-AST [28] sensors with -25 dB peak sensitivity are attached to the carbon steel tank. The location of
217 a 3 mm pinhole crack and locations of the AE sensors are presented in Figure 2.



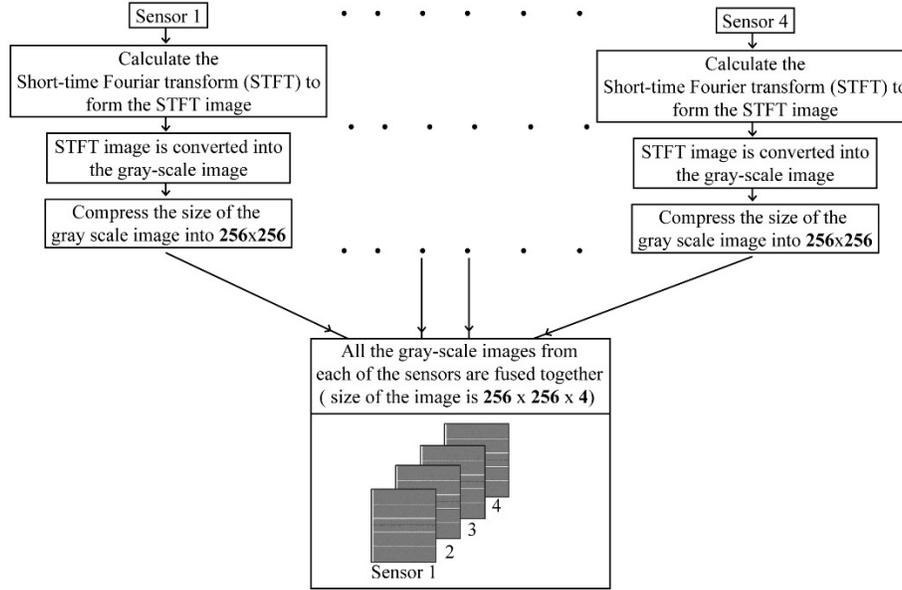
218
219 **Figure 2:** Schematic diagram of the self-designed test rig of a spherical tank.

220 For collecting data through multiple channels (AE sensors) at two different pressures (0 and 1 bar), a pencil
221 lead test was conducted to produce a guided wave through the structure of the steel tank. A peripheral
222 component interconnect bus (PCI-2) based DAQ device [29] was attached to the AE sensors to record the
223 AE signals for further analysis. Data were collected with a sampling frequency of 1 MHz

224 **3.2 Multi-Sensor Fusion-Based Time-Frequency Imaging (MSFTFI)**

225 Data preprocessing plays an important role in the neural network-based data-driven diagnostic framework
226 [30–32]. Here, MSFTFI is proposed for the preprocessing of AE signals from multiple sensors. In the
227 MSFTFI framework, raw time-domain AE signals from four separate sensors are first decomposed via
228 STFT. Thus, information from both the time and frequency domains are present in the STFT images of
229 each sensor. The resulting matrices of the STFT images are then converted into gray-scale images. These
230 gray-scale images must be compressed to meet the input size constraint of the proposed CNN architecture
231 [17]. Therefore, each gray-scale image from the four separate sensors are compressed into 256×256
232 dimensions. Finally, the compressed gray-scale images are fused according to sensor to form the final
233 MSFTFI image with a dimension of $256 \times 256 \times 4$. The overall MSFTFI process is displayed in Figure 3.

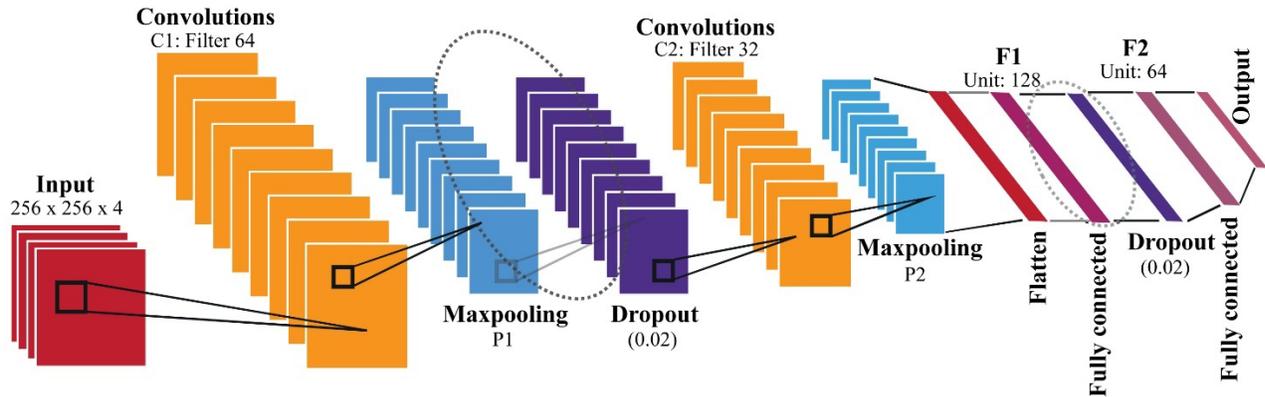
234



235
 236 **Figure 3:** Flowchart of the multi-sensor fusion-based time-frequency imaging process using short-time Fourier
 237 transform analysis.

238 **3.3 Convolutional Neural Network Architecture**

239 The prepared MSFTFI images are used as inputs in the proposed CNN architecture. While carrying out the
 240 source task (Figure 1), input data are fed to the network to optimize network parameters by minimizing the
 241 objective function (Equation 6). The proposed CNN architecture is illustrated in Figure 4.



242
 243 **Figure 4:** Proposed architecture of the convolutional neural network.

244 As shown in Figure 4, the proposed architecture has 10 layers: 1 input layer, 2 convolution layers, 2 pooling
 245 layers, 2 dropout layers, 2 fully connected layers, and 1 final output layer. The size of the input layer is
 246 $256 \times 256 \times 4$ (the size of MSFTFI image), while the size of the convolution kernel is 3×3 to improve
 247 model training efficiency by reducing the number of parameters. The C1 and C2 convolution layers have
 248 64 and 32 filters, respectively. The size of the C1 layer is down sampled by pooling layer P1. Similarly, the
 249 size of the C2 layers is down sampled by layer P2. The fully connected layer F1 combines all feature maps

250 of the C2 layer into a 1D form. Another fully connected layer F2 helps the output layer classify the input
 251 data into desired categories. The valid convolution technique utilized in this study allows the size of the
 252 feature maps to remain unchanged. Furthermore, the 2 dropout layers allow the network to generalize data
 253 for reducing the over-fitting problem [22,24].

254 3.4 Fine-Tuned Transfer Learning Framework

255 FTL built on CNN is adopted for measuring diagnostic performance. As described in Figure 1, the proposed
 256 CNN architecture is designed and fine-tuned by minimizing the objective function for the source task. Next,
 257 the fine-tuned model with learned parameters and optimized weights are transferred to the target task.
 258 Finally, in the target domain the model is adjusted and fine-tuned with the dataset of the target task. This
 259 way, the fine-tuned target neural model can attain better diagnostic performance [33]. It is important to
 260 mention that both sets of data (data from the source and target domains) are acquired from the same
 261 experimental testbed with similar acquisition approaches by varying the pressure conditions. The
 262 components of the proposed CNN with specifics regarding the transferrable layers are presented in Table
 263 1.

264 **Table 1.** Elements of the proposed CNN with transfer measurements for the target network.

Layers	Parameters	Observations	Height	Width	Depth	Parameters Trainable	Transfer
Input		Preprocessed Signals	256	256	4		
Convolution 1	Kernel Size	Filter	3	3		Yes	Yes
	Padding	Zero					
	Depth	Filter number			64		
	Output		256	256	64		
Pool 1	Kernel Size	Filter	3	3		No	Yes
	Padding	Zero					
	Output		85	85	64		
Dropout	Output		85	85	64	No	Yes
Convolution 2	Kernel Size	Filter	3	3		Yes	Yes
	Padding	Zero					
	Depth	Filter number			32		
	Output		85	85	32		
Pool 2	Kernel Size	Filter	3	3		No	Yes
	Padding	Zero					
	Output		28	28	32		
Dropout	Output		28	28	32	No	Yes
FC 1	Nodes	Flatten into 1D	128			Yes	No
FC 2	Nodes	Flatten into 1D	64			Yes	No

SoftMax	Nodes	Flatten into 1D	2			Classify	No
---------	-------	-----------------	---	--	--	----------	----

265 4. Experimental Verification and Discussion

266 In this section, the proposed diagnostic framework (MSFTFI+FTL) is validated using data collected from
 267 a real-world spherical tank.

268 4.1 Dataset Description

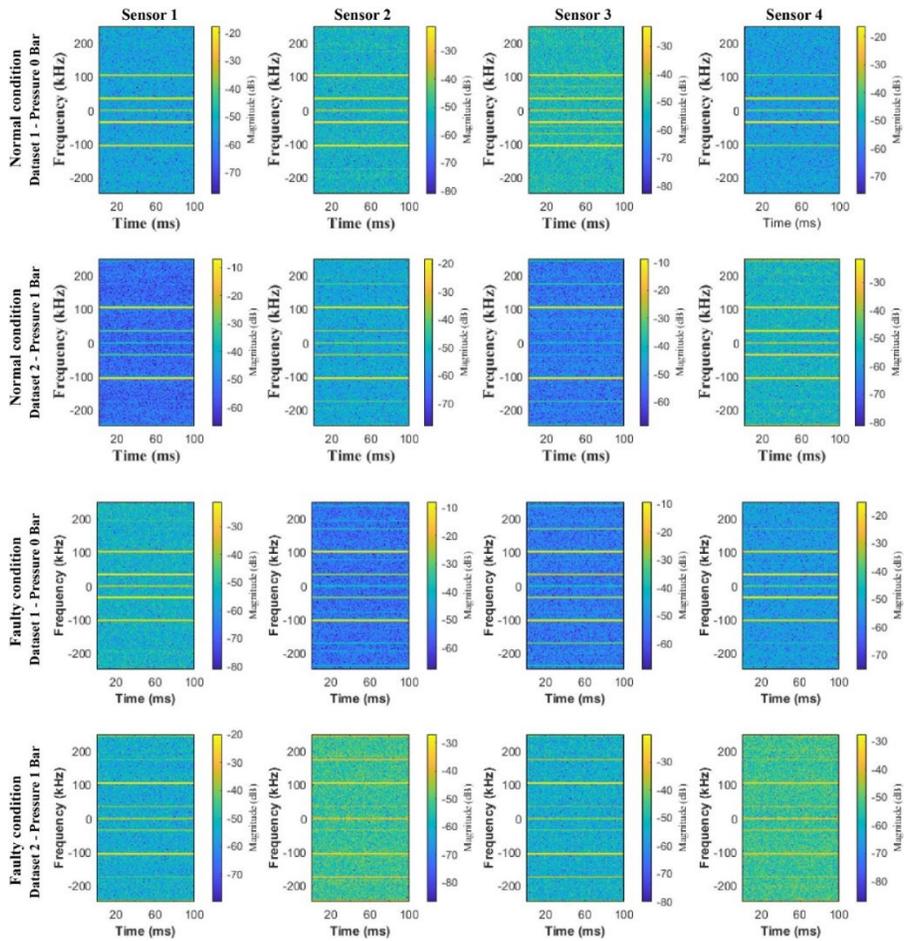
269 The standard multi-sensor AE dataset of a spherical tank is utilized to conduct the experimental test. A 0.1
 270 second signal with a 1 MHz sampling frequency is considered [12]. Two different pressure conditions (0
 271 and 1 bar) are employed to record 1000 signals from each health condition (i.e., normal, and faulty).
 272 Descriptions of the datasets are provided in Table 2.

273 **Table 2.** Specifics of the datasets for the spherical tank.

	Health Type	Crack Size (mm)			Sensors	Pressure (Bar)	Number of Samples
		Length (mm)	Width (mm)	Depth (mm)			
Dataset 1	Normal Condition (NC)	N/A	N/A	N/A	4	0	1000
	Faulty Condition (FC)	3	0.5	0.4	4	0	1000
Dataset 2	Normal Condition (NC)	N/A	N/A	N/A	4	1	1000
	Faulty Condition (FC)	3	0.5	0.4	4	1	1000

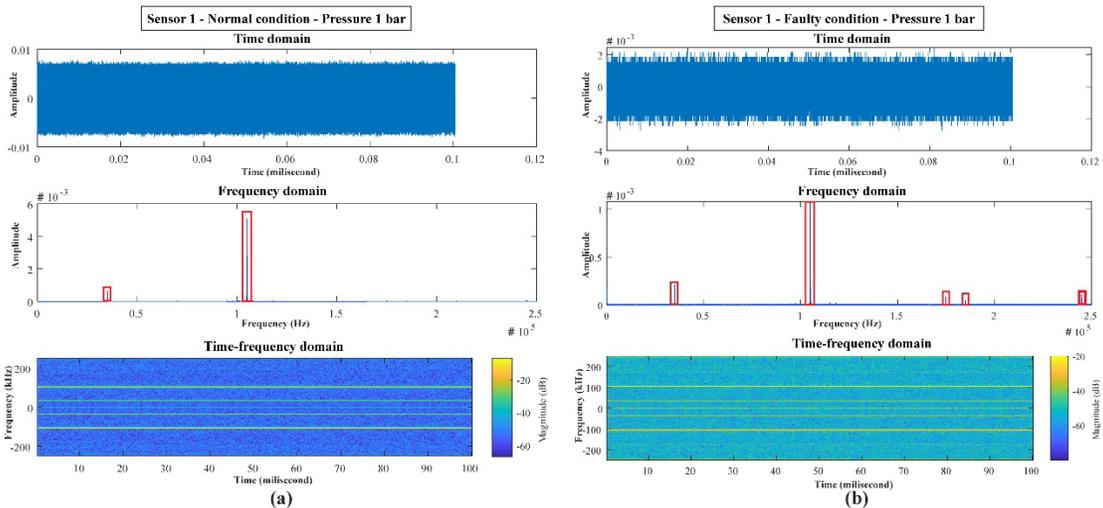
274 4.2 MSFTFI-Based Performance Visualization of Cracks

275 In Figure 5, the results of the STFT analysis for two datasets with different health conditions are presented.
 276 According to the results in the figure, it is observed that in the normal condition (NC) for both datasets, the
 277 highest distributions of energy are concentrated into very similar frequency bands for all sensors. Similarly,
 278 when a fault occurs in both datasets, a few more significant energies bands are observed in certain frequency
 279 ranges. As depicted in Figure 5 for the NC, a strong energy distribution can be observed within a similar
 280 range for all sensors under all pressure conditions. Similarly, for the faulty condition (FC) the energy
 281 distribution is quite comparable for all sensors. A sample signal from the NC (sensor 1, pressure of 1 bar)
 282 is shown in Figure 6(a) to better illustrate the time, frequency, and attained time-frequency domains by
 283 STFT. In the frequency domain, two frequencies contain higher energies than the others. Therefore, in the
 284 STFT analysis, a strong energy distribution on those specific frequencies is observed with respect to time.
 285 As shown in Figure 6(b), a sample from the FC (sensor 1, pressure of 1 bar) has also been considered. From
 286 the attained frequency domain of this sample, it is observed that, when compared to the NC, few other
 287 frequency bands contain a higher energy distribution with respect to time.



288

289 **Figure 5:** Short-time Fourier transform (STFT) images of different sensors at various health conditions.



290

291 **Figure 6:** (a) Time, frequency, and time-frequency domain analysis of the sample considered from the normal
 292 condition (sensor 1, 1 bar of pressure) and (b) time, frequency, and time-frequency domain analysis of the sample
 293 considered from the faulty condition (sensor 1, 1 bar of pressure).

294 The extracted STFT images from all sensors (depicted into Figure 5) are fused together channel-wise
 295 (details are described into Section 3.2) to form the final MSFTFI image. Finally, the MSFTFI images are
 296 supplied to the proposed FTL-embedded CNN architecture for a final diagnosis.

297 **4.3 FTL-Based Diagnostic Performance Analysis**

298 The proposed MSFTFI framework is very useful for visualizing the state of the spherical tank. To further
 299 utilize the full benefits of MSFTFI images, FTL is proposed to diagnosis cracks in the spherical tanks under
 300 variable pressure conditions. To validate the proposed MSFTFI+FTL method, the dataset is divided into
 301 training and testing categories. Two scenarios were employed in this experiment. In scenario 1, dataset 1 is
 302 used for training the improved CNN architecture to gather knowledge as the source task. For this case, 70%
 303 of the data is utilized for training, 20% is employed for validation, and 10% is used for testing network
 304 performance before sharing the acquired knowledge with the target task. Next, dataset 2 is fed to the target
 305 task for final diagnosis using the shared knowledge learned from the source task. From dataset 2, 20% of
 306 the data is first used for adjusting the target network with shared knowledge from the source task.
 307 Consequently, the remaining 80% of the data is passed to the network for diagnostic purposes. Similarly,
 308 for scenario 2, dataset 2 is employed for the source task and dataset 1 is considered for the target task. To
 309 train, test, and validate all cases, 10-fold cross validation is used to remove bias from the diagnosis result
 310 [19]. For measuring diagnostic performance, the sensitivity score (SN) and average class sensitivity (avcSN)
 311 are calculated. The SN is calculated as follows [19]:

$$SN = \frac{true_positive}{true_positive + false_negative} \times 100\% \quad (9)$$

312 where the term “true positive” refers to correctly classified samples from the provided test data to the
 313 network at every iteration, while the term “false negative” refers to the number of samples from a class that
 314 are wrongly classified. The avcSN can be obtained as follows:

$$avcSN = \frac{\sum SN}{total_classes} \quad (10)$$

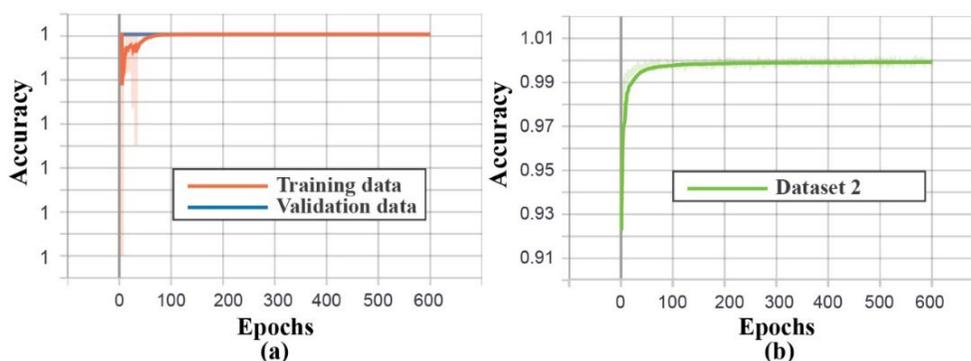
315 where $\sum SN$ is a summation of the class-wise accuracy for the target dataset. To clarify the pressure
 316 variation situation, 2 scenarios are considered to measure diagnostic performance. In scenario 1, dataset 1
 317 is considered as the source task and dataset 2 as the target task. The improved CNN is first trained and
 318 validated with dataset 1. After attaining 100% accuracy for both the training and validation data considered
 319 from dataset 1, the acquired knowledge is transferred to the target task. The performance of this training
 320 stage is illustrated in Figure 7(a), while the performance of the target task with dataset 2 is demonstrated in
 321 Figure 7(b) over 600 epochs. In a similar way, for scenario 2, dataset 2 is first considered as the source task
 322 to train and validate the network architecture, and the network parameters and architecture are subsequently
 323 used in the target domain to verify the diagnostic performance with dataset 1. The diagnostic performances

324 of the proposed framework are listed in Table 3. According to the results in Table 3, the diagnostic
 325 performances are 100% both scenarios.

326 **Table 3.** Diagnostic performance of the proposed framework.

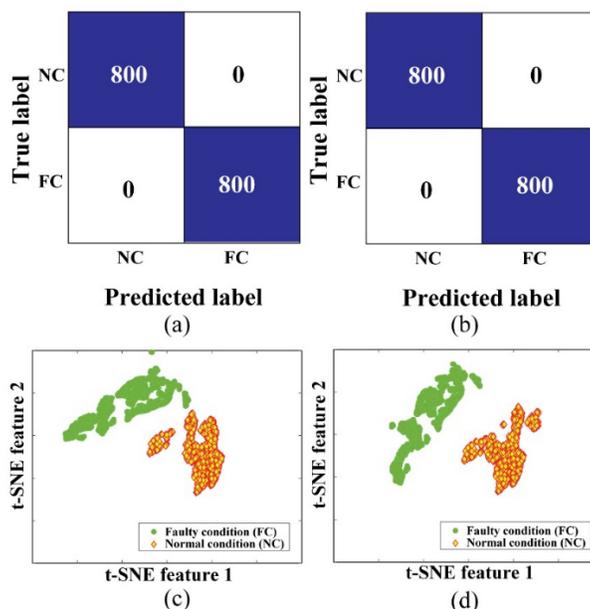
Scenario	Target Domain	Source Domain	Sensitivity (SN) %		Average Class Sensitivity (avcSN) %
			NC	FC	
1	Dataset 1	Dataset 2	100	100	100
2	Dataset 2	Dataset 1	100	100	100
Average (%)			100	100	100

327



328

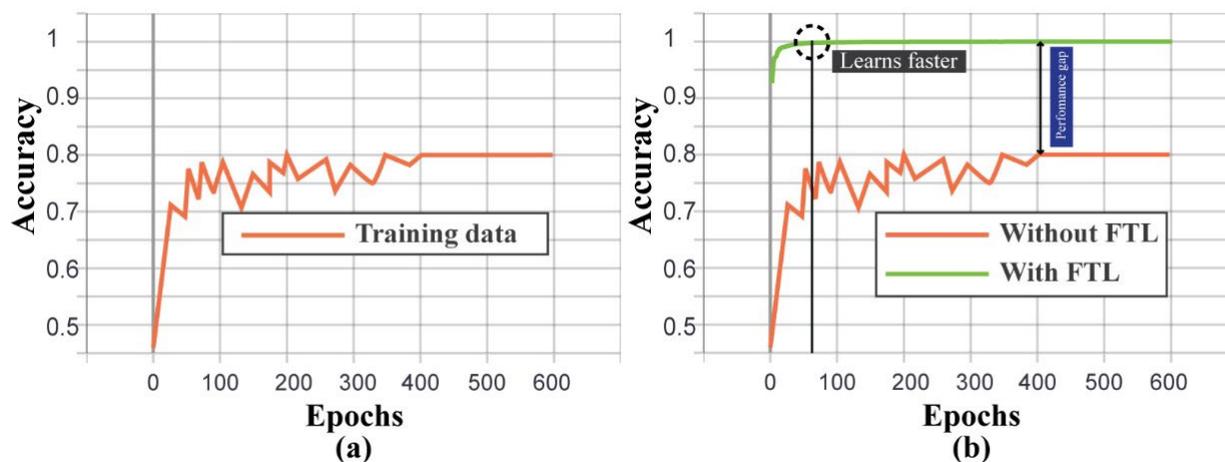
329 **Figure 7: (a)** Training vs. validation accuracy for the source domain (scenario 1: dataset 1) and **(b)** testing accuracy
 330 with transfer learning for the target domain (scenario 1: dataset 2).



331

332 **Figure 8: (a)** Confusion matrix of scenario 1 (target task 1: dataset 2), **(b)** confusion matrix of scenario 2 (target task
 333 2: dataset 1), **(c)** learned feature space of the proposed network in the target task (target task 1: dataset 2), and **(d)**
 334 learned feature space of the proposed network in the target task (target task 2: dataset 1).

335 To further validate the maximum diagnostic performance, the results of the confusion matrix [34] and
 336 feature space (visualized by t-stochastic neighbor embedding, t-SNE) final layer of FTL for the target
 337 domain in both scenarios are provided. The confusion matrix depicts the classification performance in the
 338 form of actual verse-predicted deviation. According to the results in Figure 8, the confusion matrix perfectly
 339 classifies all fault types with no error. Furthermore, the t-SNE-based feature distribution for both crack
 340 classes (NC, FC) are clearly separable, which also ensures better diagnostic performance. Besides, to
 341 confirm the efficiency of the proposed framework, several experiments are carried out. A diagnostic
 342 comparison between the FTL-embedded CNN and the CNN without FTL is performed. For this experiment,
 343 the CNN is trained with 20% of dataset 2 for scenario 1; the remaining data are used for testing performance.
 344 The train vs. test ratio has been kept constant to facilitate a comparison of diagnostic performance on a
 345 similar scale. From Figure 9(a), it is shown that the improved CNN without FTL does not perform as well
 346 (80.2% accuracy) as the proposed framework in the training phase. As displayed in Figure 9(b), the FTL-
 347 embedded CNN (proposed framework) can learn faster during the training phase.



348
 349 **Figure 9:** (a) The training accuracy typically achieved with dataset 2 (without TL, where train: test = 20:80) and (b)
 350 comparison of training accuracy for the two approaches (with and without FTL).

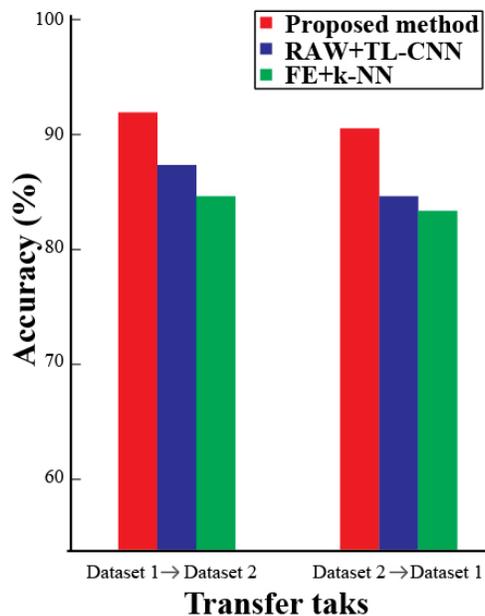
351 To demonstrate the robustness of the devised framework, the performance of the proposed method is
 352 compared to that achieved with two state-of-art approaches, namely (1) RAW+TL-CNN: a TL-based
 353 method where a raw 1D signal from a single sensor is fed to the network for measuring diagnostic
 354 performance [33] and (2) FE+k-NN: a traditional feature extraction-based approach where statistical
 355 features are first extracted from single-sensor data and a k-nearest neighborhood (k-NN) algorithm is used
 356 for the final diagnosis after reducing the features by principal component analysis (PCA) [35]. Details
 357 regarding the comparison results are presented in Table 4.

358 **Table 4.** Diagnostic performance comparison

	Sensitivity (SN) %	

Scenario	Method	NC	FC	Average Class Sensitivity (avcSN) %	Improvement (%)
1	Proposed	100	100	100	-
	RAW+TL-CNN [33]	93.82	94.91	94.37	5.64
	FE+k-NN [35]	89.21	90.23	89.72	10.82
2	Proposed	100	100	100	-
	RAW+TL-CNN [33]	93.62	95.61	94.62	5.39
	FE+k-NN [35]	90.57	91.21	90.89	9.11

359 The comparison findings show that the proposed framework (MSFTFI+FTL) clearly outperformed two
360 state-of-the-art methods, yielding average performance improvements of 5.64 -10.82% and 5.39 - 9.11%
361 for scenarios 1 and 2, respectively. The impact of noisy data on the diagnostic performance was also
362 explored. Gaussian white noise with a signal to noise ratio (SNR) of 10 dB is added into test samples of the
363 target task to simulate data with supplementary background noise. All comparable methods and the
364 proposed scheme were first trained on original AE data in the source task. This was followed by testing and
365 validation on noisy data created for the target task. The diagnostic performances of the proposed and
366 comparable methods are listed in Figure 10.



367
368

Figure 10: Impact of noisy data on classification performance.

369 From Figure 10, it can be stated that the diagnostic performance of all methods degrades due to the noisy
370 dataset. However, the performance of the proposed framework is still better than that of the other two
371 approaches considered for comparison.

372 **5. Conclusion**

373 This paper introduced a multi-sensor fusion-based imaging technique combined with fine-tuned transfer
374 learning (FTL) built on a convolutional neural network (CNN) framework that augments a new diagnostic
375 approach for spherical tank structural health monitoring. By incorporating a deep learning-based
376 architecture with short-time Fourier transform (STFT) analysis, the proposed method makes full use of the
377 capability of STFT to process non-stationary multi-sensory acoustic emission (AE) signals and enable an
378 end-to-end diagnosis without handcrafted feature analysis. Data collected from a self-designed test rig are
379 utilized to validate the diagnostic performance of the proposed approach. Experimental findings imply that
380 the proposed approach can significantly enhance diagnostic performance and enable more rapid converging
381 when compared to basic CNN-based models. The experimental results also indicate that the proposed
382 framework (MSFTFI+FTL) clearly outperformed two state-of-the-art methods, yielding significant
383 performance improvements.

384 At present, the proposed approach is confined to the fixed time-frequency resolution of STFTs. MSFTFI
385 images with adaptive time-frequency resolution will be considered as inputs in future work. While the
386 current framework belongs to the supervised learning paradigm, meaning that health states must be labeled
387 in advance, the unsupervised learning paradigm could be a fascinating direction for future studies. Lastly,
388 an assessment of the usefulness of the developed diagnostic framework will be performed for relevant
389 applications such as boiler tubes, cylindrical pumps, and pipeline fault diagnosis.

390 **Acknowledgment**

391 This work was supported by the Technology Infrastructure Program funded by the Ministry of SMEs and
392 Startups (MSS), Korea.

393 **References**

- 394 [1] J.I. Chang, C.-C. Lin, A study of storage tank accidents, *J. Loss Prev. Process Ind.* 19 (2006) 51–59.
395 [2] M. Sohaib, M. Islam, J. Kim, D.-C. Jeon, J.-M. Kim, Leakage Detection of a Spherical Water Storage Tank
396 in a Chemical Industry Using Acoustic Emissions, *Appl. Sci.* 9 (2019) 196.
397 [3] C. Ennaceur, A. Laksimi, C. Herve, M. Cherfaoui, Monitoring crack growth in pressure vessel steels by the
398 acoustic emission technique and the method of potential difference, *Int. J. Press. Vessel. Pip.* 83 (2006) 197–
399 204.
400 [4] C.R. Farrar, K. Worden, An introduction to structural health monitoring, *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. A Math. Phys.*
401 *Eng. Sci.* 365 (2007) 303–315.
402 [5] G. Qian, V.F. González-Albuixech, M. Niffenegger, Effects of embedded cracks and residual stresses on the
403 integrity of a reactor pressure vessel, *Eng. Fail. Anal.* 90 (2018) 451–462.
404 [6] P. Rizzo, I. Bartoli, A. Marzani, F. Lanza di Scalea, Defect classification in pipes by neural networks using

- 405 multiple guided ultrasonic wave features extracted after wavelet processing, (2005).
- 406 [7] P. Dong, Length scale of secondary stresses in fracture and fatigue, *Int. J. Press. Vessel. Pip.* 85 (2008) 128–
407 143.
- 408 [8] M. Islam, M. Sohaib, J. Kim, J.-M. Kim, Crack Classification of a Pressure Vessel Using Feature Selection
409 and Deep Learning Methods, *Sensors*. 18 (2018) 4379.
- 410 [9] K.A. Korkmaz, A. Sari, A.I. Carhoglu, Seismic risk assessment of storage tanks in Turkish industrial facilities,
411 *J. Loss Prev. Process Ind.* 24 (2011) 314–320.
- 412 [10] S.A. Niknam, V. Songmene, Y.H.J. Au, The use of acoustic emission information to distinguish between dry
413 and lubricated rolling element bearings in low-speed rotating machines, *Int. J. Adv. Manuf. Technol.* 69 (2013)
414 2679–2689.
- 415 [11] K. Morofuji, N. Tsui, M. Yamada, A. Maie, S. Yuyama, Z.W. Li, Quantitative Study of Acoustic Emission
416 Due To Leaks From Water Tanks, *Group*. 21 (2003) 213–222.
- 417 [12] M.J. Hasan, J.M. Kim, Fault detection of a spherical tank using a genetic algorithm-based hybrid feature pool
418 and k-nearest neighbor algorithm, *Energies*. 12 (2019).
- 419 [13] M.J. Hasan, J. Kim, C.H. Kim, J.-M. Kim, Health State Classification of a Spherical Tank Using a Hybrid
420 Bag of Features and K-Nearest Neighbor, *Appl. Sci.* 10 (2020) 2525.
- 421 [14] H. Tao, P. Wang, Y. Chen, V. Stojanovic, H. Yang, An unsupervised fault diagnosis method for rolling bearing
422 using STFT and generative neural networks, *J. Franklin Inst.* (2020).
- 423 [15] M. M. Manjurul Islam and Jong-Myon Kim, *Motor Bearing Fault Diagnosis Using Deep Convolutional Neural
424 Networks with 2D Analysis of Vibration Sign*, Springer International Publishing, 2018.
- 425 [16] M. Sohaib, C.-H. Kim, J.-M. Kim, A Hybrid Feature Model and Deep-Learning-Based Bearing Fault
426 Diagnosis, *Sensors*. 17 (2017) 2876.
- 427 [17] J. Wang, Z. Mo, H. Zhang, Q. Miao, A deep learning method for bearing fault diagnosis based on time-
428 frequency image, *IEEE Access*. 7 (2019) 42373–42383.
- 429 [18] M.J. Hasan, J.-M. Kim, Bearing Fault Diagnosis under Variable Rotational Speeds Using Stockwell
430 Transform-Based Vibration Imaging and Transfer Learning, *Appl. Sci.* 8 (2018) 2357.
- 431 [19] M.J. Hasan, M.M.M. Islam, J.M. Kim, Acoustic spectral imaging and transfer learning for reliable bearing
432 fault diagnosis under variable speed conditions, *Meas. J. Int. Meas. Confed.* 138 (2019) 620–631.
- 433 [20] M.J. Hasan, M. Sohaib, J.-M. Kim, 1D CNN-Based Transfer Learning Model for Bearing Fault Diagnosis
434 Under Variable Working Conditions, in: *Adv. Intell. Syst. Comput.*, 2019: pp. 13–23.
- 435 [21] Y. LeCun, L.D. Jackel, L. Bottou, C. Cortes, J.S. Denker, H. Drucker, I. Guyon, U.A. Muller, E. Sackinger,
436 P. Simard, Learning algorithms for classification: A comparison on handwritten digit recognition, *Neural
437 Networks Stat. Mech. Perspect.* 261 (1995) 276.
- 438 [22] N. Srivastava, G. Hinton, A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, R. Salakhutdinov, Dropout: a simple way to prevent
439 neural networks from overfitting, *J. Mach. Learn. Res.* 15 (2014) 1929–1958.
- 440 [23] S. Ioffe, C. Szegedy, Batch normalization: Accelerating deep network training by reducing internal covariate
441 shift, *ArXiv Prepr. ArXiv1502.03167*. (2015).

- 442 [24] G.E. Dahl, T.N. Sainath, G.E. Hinton, Improving deep neural networks for LVCSR using rectified linear units
443 and dropout, in: 2013 IEEE Int. Conf. Acoust. Speech Signal Process., IEEE, 2013: pp. 8609–8613.
- 444 [25] L. Jing, M. Zhao, P. Li, X. Xu, A convolutional neural network based feature learning and fault diagnosis
445 method for the condition monitoring of gearbox, *Measurement*. 111 (2017) 1–10.
- 446 [26] J. Ma, F. Wu, J. Zhu, D. Xu, D. Kong, A pre-trained convolutional neural network based method for thyroid
447 nodule diagnosis, *Ultrasonics*. 73 (2017) 221–230.
- 448 [27] N. Qian, On the momentum term in gradient descent learning algorithms, *Neural Networks*. 12 (1999) 145–
449 151.
- 450 [28] physicalacoustics - sensors, (n.d.). [https://www.physicalacoustics.com/by-product/sensors/WDI-AST-100-
451 900-kHz-Wideband-Differential-AE-Sensor](https://www.physicalacoustics.com/by-product/sensors/WDI-AST-100-900-kHz-Wideband-Differential-AE-Sensor) (accessed January 25, 2020).
- 452 [29] physicalacoustics - pci 2, (n.d.). <https://www.physicalacoustics.com/by-product/pci-2/> (accessed January 25,
453 2020).
- 454 [30] D.-T. Hoang, H.-J. Kang, Rolling element bearing fault diagnosis using convolutional neural network and
455 vibration image, *Cogn. Syst. Res.* 53 (2019) 42–50.
- 456 [31] M. Sohaib, J.-M. Kim, A robust deep learning based fault diagnosis of rotary machine bearings, *Adv. Sci. Lett.*
457 23 (2017) 12797–12801.
- 458 [32] M. Zhao, M. Kang, B. Tang, M. Pecht, Deep Residual Networks with Dynamically Weighted Wavelet
459 Coefficients for Fault Diagnosis of Planetary Gearboxes, *IEEE Trans. Ind. Electron.* 65 (2018) 4290–4300.
- 460 [33] R. Zhang, H. Tao, L. Wu, Y. Guan, Transfer Learning with Neural Networks for Bearing Fault Diagnosis in
461 Changing Working Conditions, *IEEE Access*. 5 (2017) 14347–14357.
- 462 [34] A. Luque, A. Carrasco, A. Martín, A. de las Heras, The impact of class imbalance in classification performance
463 metrics based on the binary confusion matrix, *Pattern Recognit.* 91 (2019) 216–231.
- 464 [35] M. Kang, M.R. Islam, J. Kim, J.M. Kim, M. Pecht, A Hybrid Feature Selection Scheme for Reducing
465 Diagnostic Performance Deterioration Caused by Outliers in Data-Driven Diagnostics, *IEEE Trans. Ind.
466 Electron.* 63 (2016) 3299–3310.
- 467