



Minimum compliance with obstacle constraints: an active set approach

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Abstract

We present a new approach to optimal design with state constraints based on active set optimization theory and implement it using a phase-field model. Our primary focus is on compliance minimization subject to inner and outer obstacles. We compare our approach to a classical penalization method and study the influence of initial guess, penalization parameters, and discretization.

Keywords Topology optimization · Phase-field method · Active set method · Penalization method · State constraints · Obstacle

1 Introduction

Topology optimization (see Bendsøe and Sigmund (2003), for a general survey) is traditionally concerned with finding the distribution of one or several materials and void optimizing some cost function subject to some constraint on admissible designs.

The typical problem structure consists of finding a partition $\mathbf{D} := (D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n)$, often referred to as the *design variable*, of a ground domain Ω minimizing an objective function \mathcal{J} depending on \mathbf{D} and a set of *state variables* $\mathbf{u} := (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m)$ satisfying state equations. For the classical minimum compliance problem, the objective function \mathcal{J} is the compliance of a design where each D_i corresponds to the region of Ω occupied by specific material (or void) and the state variable is the equilibrium displacement given as the solution of the static elasticity equations associated with the design \mathbf{D} and a set of given loadings.

Unconstrained optimal design problems typically lead to trivial solutions, so one typically considers additional

restrictions on the design or state variable. The most common class of constraints applies to the design variable, for instance, inclusions (*i.e.*, prescribing the material occupying specific regions of the domain), bounds on the volume fraction of each material, geometric features accounting for limitations of classical or additive manufacturing techniques. Constraints on the state variables include bounds on the maximum pointwise stress in the minimum compliance problem (Duysinx and Bendsøe 1998; Allaire et al. 2004; Lipton and Stuebner 2006; Allaire and Jouve 2008), or material non-linearities such as plasticity (Maute et al. 1998; Maury et al. 2018), fatigue Desmorat and Desmorat (2008), or fracture (Hsueh and Bhattacharya 2018; Li et al. 2021) for instance.

This article is concerned with the specific case where the state equations can be reformulated as a constrained optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{D} \in \mathbf{K}} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{u}) \quad (1a)$$

subject to

$$\mathbf{u} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{V}} \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{v}), \quad (1b)$$

where \mathbf{K} denotes the set of admissible designs and \mathbf{V} the state of admissible states, \mathcal{J} is the objective function and \mathcal{E} is an energy from which the state equations can be derived.

When \mathbf{V} is a subset of the natural space for the state variable, this class of problems is often referred to as Minimization Problems with Equilibrium Constraints (MPEC) (Luo

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et al. 1996; Kočvara Outrata 1995; Outrata 1994; Outrata and Zowe 1995; Baumrucker et al. 2008; Maury et al. 2018). In this case, the first-order optimality conditions for (1b) take the form of the system of Karush–Kuhn–Tucker (KKT) conditions which can be written as variational inequalities of the first kind (Kinderlehrer and Stampacchia 2000), and the classical adjoint approach for PDE-constrained optimization cannot be applied directly. Instead, some authors have proposed to derive optimality conditions for MPEC problems in the sense of weak directional differentiability (Mignot and Puel 1984; Sokolowski and Zolesio 1992) for instance. Regularization and penalization methods are also often used (Drabla et al. 1998; Fukushima and Pang 1999; Scholtes 2001; Hu and Ralph 2004; Chouly 2013; Maury 2016; Maury et al. 2017, 2018). One drawback of these approaches is that enforcing the constraints typically requires very large penalty factors which can lead to numerical issues.

In this article, we introduce an active set approach for MPEC problems, which allows us to leverage standard adjoint methods without regularizing or penalizing the state constraint. We focus on a simple problem of compliance optimization under an obstacle problem similar to that studied in Haslinger and Klarbring (1993), but we believe that our approach is applicable to a wide range of situations where the state equations can be formulated as a minimization problem under inequality constraint, noticing that many problems in defect mechanics can be formulated this way, including damage (Francfort and Marigo 1993), brittle fracture (Francfort and Marigo 1998; Bourdin et al. 2008), or plasticity (Dal Maso et al. 2006; Babadjian et al. 2012).

Section 2 introduces the problem settings and our active set approach, after recalling some essential properties. Section 3 is devoted to a critical study of the performance and robustness of our approach, and comparison to classical penalization methods. Finally, Sect. 4 includes conclusions and perspectives.

2 A phase-field approach to optimal design with obstacle constraints

Consider the well-known minimum compliance problem with perimeter penalization, written in variational form (Ambrosio and Buttazzo 1993; Haber et al. 1996, see [for instance]):

$$\inf_{D \in \mathbf{K}} \left\{ \mathcal{J}(D, \mathbf{u}) := \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} \, dS + \eta |D| + \kappa H^{n-1}(\partial D \cap \bar{\Omega}) \right\} \quad (2a)$$

subject to

$$\mathbf{u} := \arg \min_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{V}} \left\{ \mathcal{E}(D, \mathbf{v}) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{2} \varphi(D) \mathbf{A} e(\mathbf{v}) : e(\mathbf{v}) \, dx - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS \right\}. \quad (2b)$$

Here $D \subset \Omega$ denotes the design, *i.e.*, a region of a background domain $\bar{\Omega}$ occupied by a material with Hooke's law \mathbf{A} , where \mathbf{A} is a symmetric tensor. $\mathbf{K} := \{\Omega_0 \subset D \subset \bar{\Omega}\}$, and Ω_0 denotes a region of Ω which must be contained in all designs. \mathbf{u} is the elastic equilibrium displacement, $\varphi(D) = (1 - \delta)\chi_D + \delta$, with $0 < \delta \ll 1$ a small regularization parameter, and η and κ two positive constants. The prescribed boundary force \mathbf{g} acting on a part Γ_N of the boundary of Ω is assumed regular enough, and $H^{n-1}(\partial D \cap \bar{\Omega})$ is the $n - 1$ dimensional measure of ∂D , *i.e.*, the perimeter of the design in 2D and its surface area in 3D. The natural space for admissible displacements is $\{\mathbf{u} \in H^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n); \mathbf{u} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D\}$, with $\Gamma_D = \partial\Omega \setminus \Gamma_N$.

We add an additional obstacle constraint by further restricting the admissible displacements:

$$\mathbf{V} := \{\mathbf{u} \in H^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n); \mathbf{u} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D, \tilde{\Omega}_i \subset \Omega + \mathbf{u}(\Omega) \subset \tilde{\Omega}_e\}, \quad (3)$$

where $\tilde{\Omega}_i$ and $\tilde{\Omega}_e$ are given obstacles (see Fig. 1). Note that owing to the injectivity of the displacement field, it is sufficient to enforce that $\partial\Omega + \mathbf{u}(\partial\Omega) \subset \tilde{\Omega}_e$. Furthermore, in the setting of small deformations, (3) can be reformulated as

$$\mathbf{V} := \{\mathbf{u} \in H^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n); \mathbf{u} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D, u_i \leq \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} \leq u_e \text{ on } \Gamma_N\}, \quad (4)$$

where u_i and u_e are given scalar functions and \mathbf{n} is the outer normal to Ω .

Following the phase-field approach devised in Bourdin and Chambolle (2003, 2006), we introduce a small regularization variable ℓ and a smooth function α taking its values

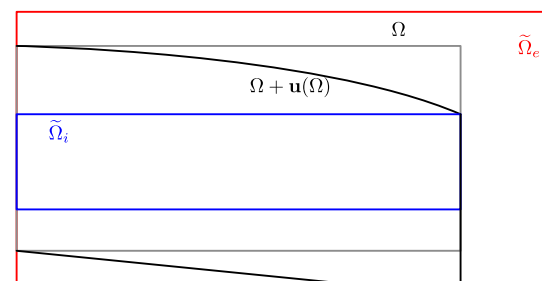


Fig. 1 Obstacle problem. The background domain in the reference configuration is shown in gray and its deformed configuration is in black. The inner and outer obstacles $\tilde{\Omega}_i$ and $\tilde{\Omega}_e$ are shown in blue and red, respectively

in $[0, 1]$ representing the domain D . The elastic energy becomes

$$\mathcal{E}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) := \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{2} \Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\mathbf{u}) \, dx - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} \, dS, \quad (5)$$

where Φ is a continuous differentiable monotonically increasing function with $\Phi(0) = \delta$ and $\Phi(1) = 1$. A typical choice is

$$\Phi(\alpha) = (1 - \delta)\alpha^p + \delta, \quad (6)$$

where $p \geq 1$ is a given parameter. The perimeter penalty term $H^{n-1}(\partial D \cap \bar{\Omega})$ is approximated in the sense of Γ -convergence by

$$\mathcal{P}_\ell(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2c_W} \int_{\Omega} \frac{W(\alpha)}{\ell} + \ell |\nabla \alpha|^2 \, dx, \quad (7)$$

where W is a non-negative function vanishing only at 0 and 1, and $c_W := \int_0^1 \sqrt{W(t)} \, dt$ is a normalization parameter (Braides 1998; Alberti 2000). Finally, the volume fraction of the design is approximated by $\int_{\Omega} \alpha^q \, dx$, where $q \geq 1$ is a given parameter, so that the objective function becomes

$$\mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) := \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} \, dS + \eta \int_{\Omega} \alpha^q \, dx + \kappa \mathcal{P}_\ell(\alpha). \quad (8)$$

The minimum compliance with obstacle constraints can therefore be reformulated as

$$\inf_{\alpha \in \mathbf{K}_\ell} \{ \mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) \} \quad (9a)$$

subject to

$$\mathbf{u} := \arg \min_{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{V}} \{ \mathcal{E}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{v}) \}, \quad (9b)$$

where

$$\mathbf{K}_\ell := \{ \rho \in H^1(\Omega; [0, 1]); \rho(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \text{ a.e. in } \Omega_0 \}. \quad (10)$$

2.1 State equations in strong form

Given an admissible design $\alpha \in \mathbf{K}_\ell$, let $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbf{V}$ be the solution of the state equations. We define

$$\Gamma_i := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_N; \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = u_i(\mathbf{x}) \}, \quad (11)$$

and

$$\Gamma_e := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_N; \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = u_e(\mathbf{x}) \}. \quad (12)$$

Consider $\mathbf{v} \in H^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $\mathbf{v} = 0$ on Γ_D , $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} \geq 0$ on Γ_i , and $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} \leq 0$ on Γ_e . For any $t \geq 0$, $\mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v}$ is an admissible field for the state equations and

$$\mathcal{E}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v}) - \mathcal{E}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) \geq 0.$$

Sending t to 0, we get that

$$\int_{\Omega} \Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\mathbf{v}) \, dx - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS \geq 0,$$

and using Green's formula that

$$\begin{aligned} & - \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})] \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dx \\ & + \int_{\Gamma_N} \Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Considering first an arbitrary function \mathbf{v} vanishing on Γ_N , and noticing that $-\mathbf{v}$ is also admissible, we quickly recover that $\operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})] = 0$ in Ω , so that (13) becomes

$$\int_{\Gamma_N} \Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS - \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS \geq 0.$$

Choosing then an arbitrary test function \mathbf{v} vanishing on Γ_i and Γ_e , and repeating the same derivation procedure, we get that

$$\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g} \text{ on } \Gamma_N \setminus (\Gamma_i \cup \Gamma_e).$$

Finally, consider a test function \mathbf{v} and decompose its trace $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}$ on $\partial\Omega$ as $\tilde{\mathbf{v}} = (\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} + (\tilde{\mathbf{v}} - (\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n})$. Using \mathbf{v} and an extension of $(\tilde{\mathbf{v}} - (\tilde{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n})$ as test functions in (13), we obtain that

$$(\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \geq 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_i,$$

and

$$(\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \leq 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_e.$$

Putting everything together, we obtain the following first-order optimality conditions for the state equations:

$$\operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})] = 0 \text{ in } \Omega, \quad (14a)$$

$$(\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \geq 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_i, \quad (14b)$$

$$\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g} \text{ on } \Gamma_N \setminus (\Gamma_i \cup \Gamma_e), \quad (14c)$$

$$(\Phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \leq 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_e, \quad (14d)$$

$$\mathbf{u} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D. \quad (14e)$$

2.2 Sensitivity analysis

In order to use a gradient or higher order method, one needs to compute the sensitivity of the objective function

with respect to design changes. Direct application of a the chain rule requires the sensitivity of the state variable with respect to the design variable. Because of the inequality constraints (14b) and (14d) on the state variable, the well-known adjoint method cannot be applied directly in our case. Instead, we define the following active sets:

$$\mathcal{I}_i := \{\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_N; \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = u_i(\mathbf{x}), \\ (\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \geq 0\}, \quad (15)$$

$$\mathcal{I}_e := \{\mathbf{x} \in \Gamma_N; \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = u_e(\mathbf{x}), \\ (\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \leq 0\}, \quad (16)$$

and

$$\mathcal{I} := \mathcal{I}_i \cup \mathcal{I}_e. \quad (17)$$

Assuming that these active sets are known, the minimum compliance problem (9a–9b) can be rewritten as

$$\inf_{\alpha \in \mathbf{K}_\ell} \{ \mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) \}$$

subject to

$$\operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})] = 0 \text{ in } \Omega, \quad (18a)$$

$$\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g} \text{ on } \Gamma_N \setminus \mathcal{I}, \quad (18b)$$

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \bar{u} \text{ on } \mathcal{I}, \quad (18c)$$

$$\mathbf{u} = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma_D, \quad (18d)$$

with

$$\bar{u} = \begin{cases} u_i & \text{on } \mathcal{I}_i, \\ u_e & \text{on } \mathcal{I}_e. \end{cases}$$

As all inequality constraints have been replaced with equality constraints (again, assuming the knowledge of the active sets \mathcal{I}_i and \mathcal{I}_e), we can follow the classical adjoint approach to the computation of the sensitivity of the objective function. Let $\lambda \in H^1(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^n)$ such that $\lambda = 0$ on $\Gamma_D \cup \mathcal{I}$ be the Lagrange multiplier associated to the constraints (18a–18d). We introduce the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda) = \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{u} \, dS + \eta \int_{\Omega} \alpha^q \, d\mathbf{x} + \kappa \mathcal{P}_\ell(\alpha) \\ - \int_{\Omega} \lambda \cdot \operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u})] \, d\mathbf{x}. \quad (19)$$

Using Green's formula, we get that

$$\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda) = \int_{\Gamma_N} \mathbf{g} \cdot (\mathbf{u} - \lambda) \, dS + \eta \int_{\Omega} \alpha^q \, d\mathbf{x} + \kappa \mathcal{P}_\ell(\alpha) \\ + \int_{\Omega} \Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\lambda) \, d\mathbf{x}. \quad (20)$$

Note that if \mathbf{u} satisfies the state equations (18a–18d), then $\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda) = \mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u})$, so that computing the Fréchet derivative of \mathcal{J}_ℓ associated with a design change γ is equivalent to computing that of \mathcal{L} :

$$\mathcal{D}\mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u})(\gamma) = \mathcal{D}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)(\gamma) \quad (21)$$

$$= \left\langle \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)}{\partial \alpha}, \gamma \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)}{\partial \mathbf{u}}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \alpha} \gamma \right\rangle \\ + \left\langle \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)}{\partial \lambda}, \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial \alpha} \gamma \right\rangle. \quad (22)$$

As a result of choosing Lagrange multiplier λ , the last term in Equation (22) disappears. In addition, computing $\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \alpha}$ is typically difficult. Instead, we search for λ such that for any $\mathbf{v} \in H^1(\Omega)$ with $\mathbf{v} = 0$ on $\Gamma_D \cup \mathcal{I}$,

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)(\gamma)}{\partial \mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{v} \right\rangle = \int_{\Gamma_N \setminus \mathcal{I}} [\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\lambda)\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{g}] \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dS \\ - \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\lambda)] \cdot \mathbf{v} \, d\mathbf{x} = 0. \quad (23)$$

Equation (23) is usually referred to as the adjoint equation associated with the constraints, and given any solution λ , then obtain

$$\mathcal{D}\mathcal{J}_\ell(\alpha, \mathbf{u})(\gamma) = \left\langle \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \lambda)}{\partial \alpha}, \gamma \right\rangle \\ = \eta q \int_{\Omega} \alpha^{q-1} \gamma \, d\mathbf{x} + \frac{\kappa}{2c_W} \int_{\Omega} \frac{W'(\alpha)}{\ell} \gamma + 2\ell \nabla \alpha \cdot \nabla \gamma \, d\mathbf{x} \\ + \int_{\Omega} \Phi'(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\lambda) \gamma \, d\mathbf{x}. \quad (24)$$

Remark 1 Note that (23) can be written in strong form as

$$\begin{cases} -\operatorname{div}[\Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\lambda)] = 0 & \text{in } \Omega, \\ \Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{A}e(\lambda)\mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{g} & \text{on } \Gamma_N \setminus \mathcal{I}, \\ \lambda = 0 & \text{on } \Gamma_D \cup \mathcal{I}. \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

so that if neither of the obstacle constraints are active, i.e., when $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{I}_i = \mathcal{I}_e = \emptyset$, we recover the classical result $\lambda = -\mathbf{u}$.

2.2.1 Numerical implementation

Our numerical implementation uses FEniCS, a collection of open-source projects for the solution of partial differential equations using a high-level description of the variational forms involved (Alnæs et al. 2014, 2015; Alnæs 2012; Alnæs et al. 2009, 2012; Kirby 2004, 2012), (Kirby and Logg 2006; Logg et al. 2012, 2012b; Logg and Wells 2010; Logg et al. 2012c; Mitusch et al. 2019; Ølgaard and Wells 2010), and the TAO optimization package, now part of PETSc (Balay et al. 1997, 2021b, a). In all that follows, all fields are discretized using linear and quadratic Lagrange simplicial finite elements. We limited our implementation to rectangular domain so that the obstacle constraints become simple box constraints on the state variable, and use the BLMVM (bound limited-memory, variable-metric) algorithm of TAO, which requires the objective function and its gradient only.

Note that (24) assume that the active sets are known *a priori*, which is of course not the case. Instead, we use PETSc's variational inequality solvers (SNESVI) to solve the state equations every time we need to evaluate the objective function, and update the active sets. A classical approach is to introduce a large number $c \gg 0$, typically $c = 10^8$, and define

$$g_i := \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}_\ell}{\partial \mathbf{u}}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{n} + c(u_i - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \quad (26)$$

and

$$g_e := \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}_\ell}{\partial \mathbf{u}}(\alpha, \mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{n} + c(u_e - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n}), \quad (27)$$

$\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}_\ell}{\partial \mathbf{u}}$ denoting the Fréchet derivative of the elastic energy \mathcal{E}_ℓ with respect to \mathbf{u} . If $g_i(\mathbf{x})$ is strictly positive for some \mathbf{x} on Γ_N , then \mathbf{x} belongs to the active set \mathcal{I}_i associated to the lower bound. Similarly, a point \mathbf{x} on Γ_N at which $g_e(\mathbf{x})$ is strictly negative belongs to the active set \mathcal{I}_e associated to the upper bound. An alternative is to derive \mathcal{I} from the Jacobian of the state equations, if available in the solvers used. In practice, we found it sufficient to determine the active sets as the degree of freedom at which the displacement reaches obstacles and ignore the sign of the reaction force (the second terms in (15–16)).

Remark 2 Given a design α , evaluating the objective function requires recomputing the state and adjoint variables, which is computationally intensive, while the computation of its gradient is simple in comparison. In the context of an optimization algorithm, this means that the computational cost of a line search can be high. The BLMVM algorithm uses a line search (Moré and Thunten 1994) which typically converges in a few iterations. We have not tried to optimize

this part of the algorithm, or studied the impact of the accuracy of the line search on the overall computational efficiency of our approach.

3 Numerical results

We present a series of numerical simulations illustrating the strengths of our approach. In all that follows, we consider a two-dimensional rectangular domain Ω with width $L_x = 1$ and height $L_y = 0.3$ in plane stress conditions. We use the double-well function $W(s) := s(1 - s)$ in (7), hence $c_W = \int_0^1 \sqrt{W(t)} dt = \pi/8$. The structural material is assumed isotropic with Young's modulus $E = 10^3$ Pa and Poisson ratio $\nu = 0.3$. We set $p = 2$, $q = 1$, and $\delta = 10^{-3}$ in (6) and (8). All computations were performed on 8 cores of a dual socket Intel Xeon X5677 at 3.47 GHz workstation.

3.1 Compliance optimization without obstacles

We start with the simplest case of an optimal design without obstacles described in Fig. 2.

A uniformly distributed traction force $\mathbf{g} = (0, -1)$ is applied on a part of the boundary Γ_{N_T} of the domain Ω , where $(x, y) \in \Omega$ and $5/6 \leq x \leq 1$ and $y = L_y$. On the boundary Γ_{N_R} , the displacement \mathbf{u} in the x -direction is fixed. In addition, the left boundary Γ_D is clamped in both x -direction and y -direction (see Fig. 2). The inner and outer obstacles are set respectively to a very small and very large value so that they are not active.

The domain is discretized with a structured mesh with cell size $h = 0.005$, consisting of 48,000 triangular finite elements. The regularization parameter is $\ell = 0.025$, the perimeter penalization parameter is $\kappa = \frac{5\pi}{8} \times 10^{-5}$, and the volume penalization parameter $\eta = 0.08$. The initial density field was chosen constant with value 1. The tolerance on the gradient of the objective function was set to 5×10^{-8} in both approaches.

Note that as highlighted in Remark 1, in this case, the minimum compliance problem becomes self-adjoint. We

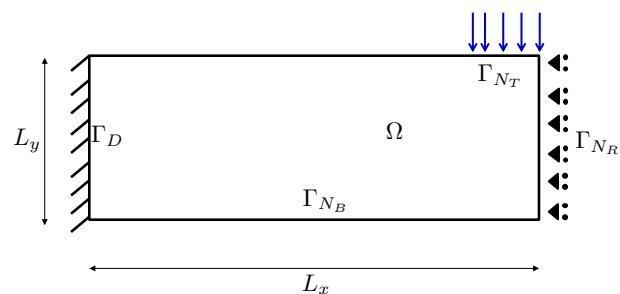


Fig. 2 An optimization problem without obstacles

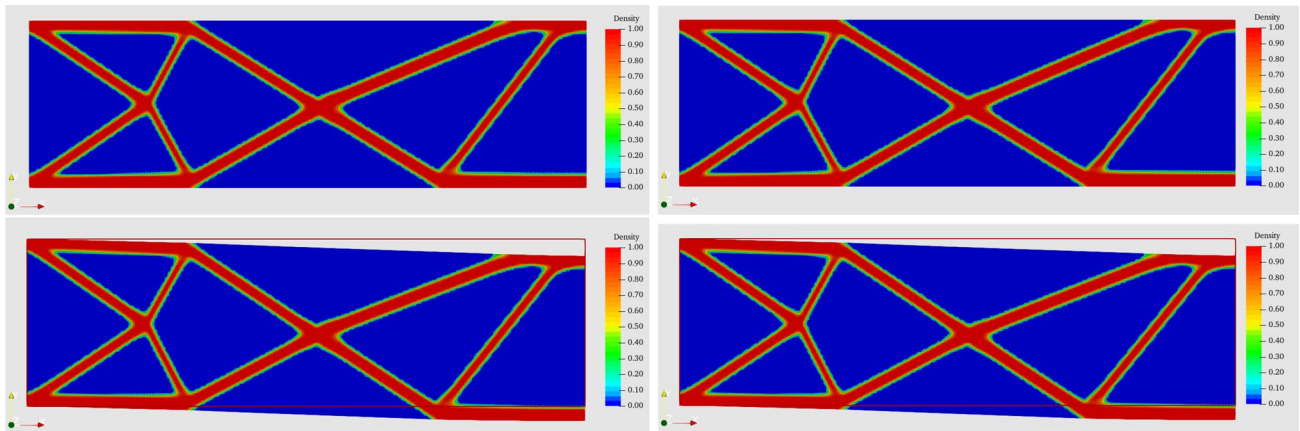


Fig. 3 Optimal design without obstacle. Designs produced by the proposed approach (left column) and a penalization approach (right column) in the reference (top row) and deformed (bottom row)

did not modify our algorithm to account for the fact that the computation of the adjoint state is technically not necessary. Because solving the state and adjoint equations is the most computationally intensive part of the algorithm, the times reported below could therefore be significantly reduced.

For this problem, our algorithm attained the desired tolerance in 986 iterations (leading to 1,375 evaluations of the objective function) and 92 minutes. We compared our result to that obtained with the penalization approach implemented in the open-source code *dolfin-adjoint* (Farrell et al. 2013; Mitusch et al. 2019), described in Appendix A. This approach differs from ours in that the constraints on the state variables are enforced through a penalty term, adjusted during iterations. The penalization approach converged in 1019 iterations, with 1039 evaluations of the objective function, and 74 min. Note that a one-to-one comparison of the number of iterations of both methods is not directly significant as the penalization approach gradually solves the direct and adjoint problems for decreasing values of the penalty factor, ϵ , from 10^{-4} to 6.25×10^{-6} . Despite the lack of uniqueness caused but the non-convexity of the cost function, both approaches lead to essentially identical designs (see Fig. 3). In the active set method the objective function decreased from 2.51948×10^{-2} to $1.03486392 \times 10^{-2}$ vs. 2.51948×10^{-2} to $1.03491319 \times 10^{-2}$ in the penalization approach.

3.2 Compliance optimization with a single obstacle

In a second example, we apply a uniform distributed traction force, $\mathbf{g} = (0, -1)$ and prescribe the value of the density function to 1 on part of the boundary Γ_{N_T} . Again the displacement \mathbf{u} in the x -direction is fixed on the boundary Γ_{N_R} , and the left boundary Γ_D is clamped in both

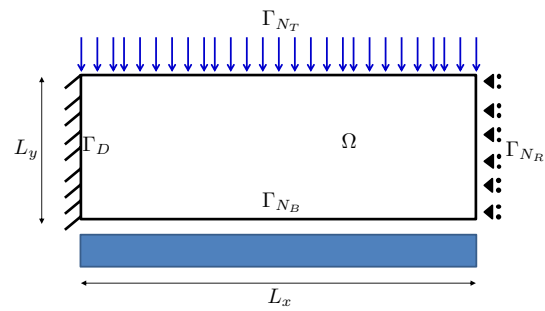


Fig. 4 A problem with one obstacle

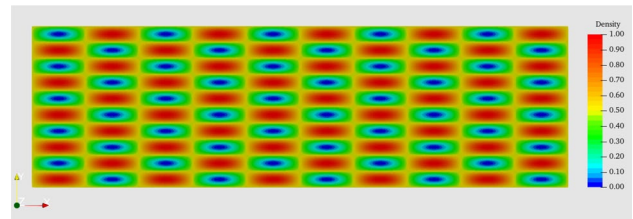


Fig. 5 Initial guess $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{10\pi x}{L_x}\right) \sin\left(\frac{10\pi y}{L_y}\right)$

x -direction and y -direction. The upper bound is set to be very large $u_{e1}(\mathbf{x}) = \infty$ and the lower bound on Γ_{N_B} is $u_{e2}(\mathbf{x}) = -0.02 - y$.

In Fig. 4, the obstacle is shown as a blue box, and the blue arrows represent the traction force. The initial design, shown in Fig. 5, is

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{10\pi x}{L_x}\right) \sin\left(\frac{10\pi y}{L_y}\right).$$

Using the same values of ε as above, the penalization method converged in 383.88 minutes after 3,028 iterations with 3,436 evaluations of the objective function while our approach converged in only 72.31 minutes and 886 iterations which required solving the state and adjoint equations 1,010 times. Results are shown in the reference and deformed configuration in Fig. 6. The obstacle is represented by a black line in the deformed configuration. The displacement field in the y -direction along the line $y = 0$ obtained by the active set and penalization method are

shown as the red and black lines in Fig. 7, respectively. We observe that obstacle constraints on the displacement are satisfied exactly by the solution generated by the active set approach, from around $x = 0.6$ to $x = 1$ on Γ_{N_B} but not by that of the penalization approach. Even though the constraint is satisfied exactly in our approach, so that the set of admissible designs is smaller, the final value of the objective function is smaller ($2.04956574 \times 10^{-2}$ in our approach vs. $2.57722763 \times 10^{-2}$ with the penalization approach).

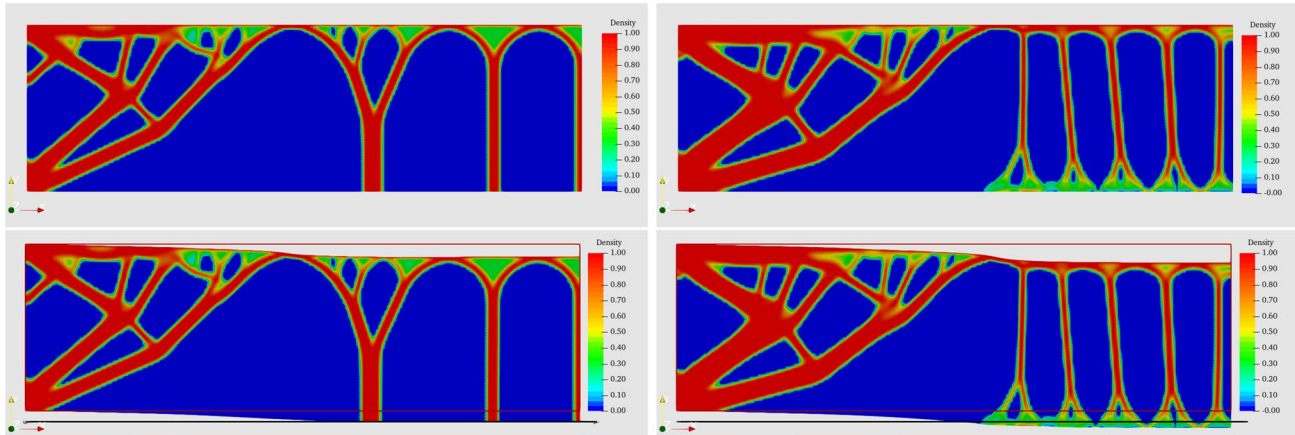


Fig. 6 Optimal designs with one obstacle. Designs produced by the proposed approach (left column) and a penalization approach (right column) in the reference (top row) and deformed (bottom row) con-

figurations. Note that the penalization approach produces a design that does not satisfy the obstacle constraint (represented by a black line)

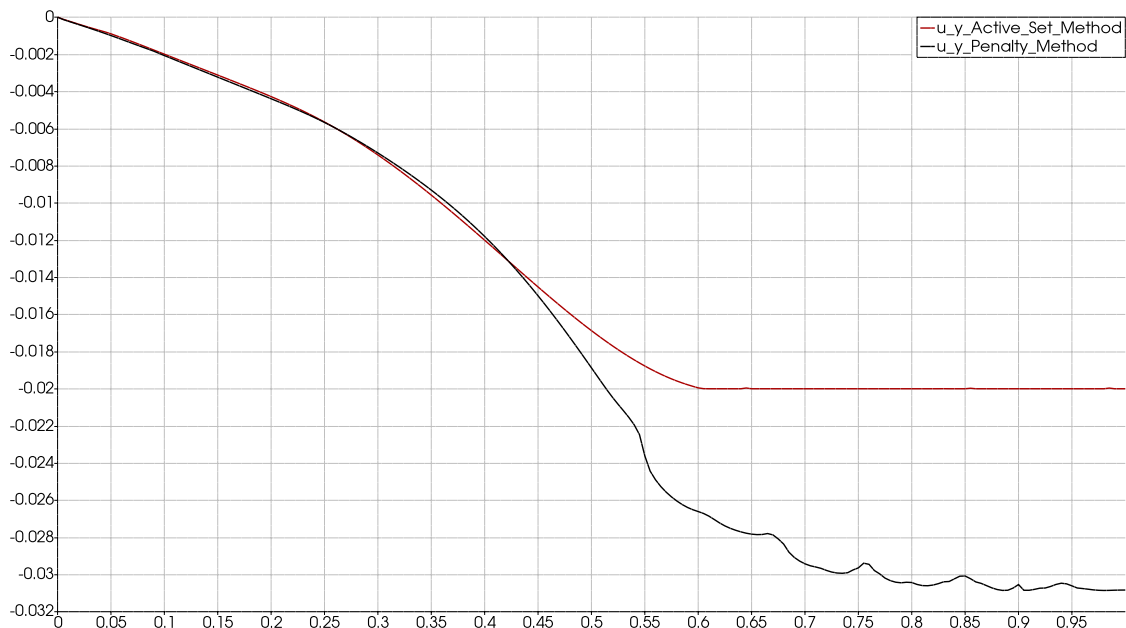


Fig. 7 Vertical displacement of along the boundary Γ_{N_B} . The active set approach (shown in red) produces a design that satisfies the obstacle constraint exactly whereas the penalization approach (the black line) does not

3.2.1 Robustness of the active set approach

While filtering techniques (Bourdin 2001) or perimeter penalization (Ambrosio and Buttazzo 1993) can be used to ensure the well-posedness of optimal design problems, mesh independency is hard to achieve, owing in particular to the non-convexity of the optimization problems.

In order to demonstrate the robustness of our approach, we conducted series of computations on structured and unstructured meshes with decreasing element size. The unstructured meshes will be generated automatically by the FEniCS component mshr, based on CGAL and Tetgen (Si 2015), while the structured meshes were built by subdividing each cell of a Cartesian grid into four triangles as shown in Fig. 8.

The initial design was set to $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{n\pi x}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{n\pi y}{L_y})$, and the tolerance on the gradient of the objective function was set to 5×10^{-8} . Figure 9 shows the value of the objective function upon convergence for as a function of the mesh size varying varies from 4.33×10^{-3} to 6.31×10^{-3} for $n = 2, 8, 10$, and Fig. 10 shows some of the associated designs. We observe that structured meshes typically lead to smaller values of the objective function at convergence, and that while different initial guesses may lead to different designs, the actual values of the objective function are very close (see the range of y -values in Fig. 9).

Fig. 11 shows the final designs for structured meshes with $h_{\min} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ and different initial guesses of the form $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{n\pi x}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{n\pi y}{L_y})$ with $n = 2, n = 4$, and $n = 8$. The values of the objective function are $2.04855932 \times 10^{-2}$, $2.05590338 \times 10^{-2}$, and $2.04849720 \times 10^{-2}$, respectively. Again, despite some minor differences in the actual designs, the variations of the objective function are only approximately 0.36%.

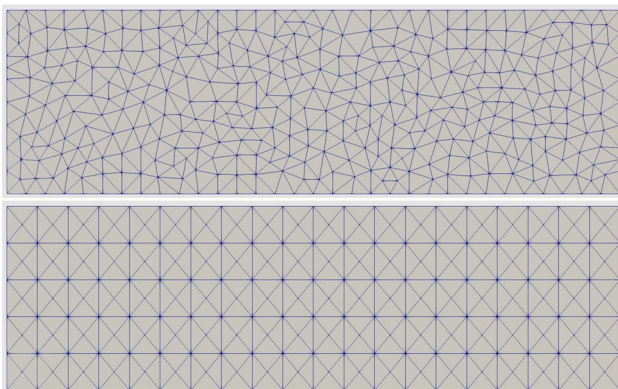


Fig. 8 Typical unstructured and structured meshes

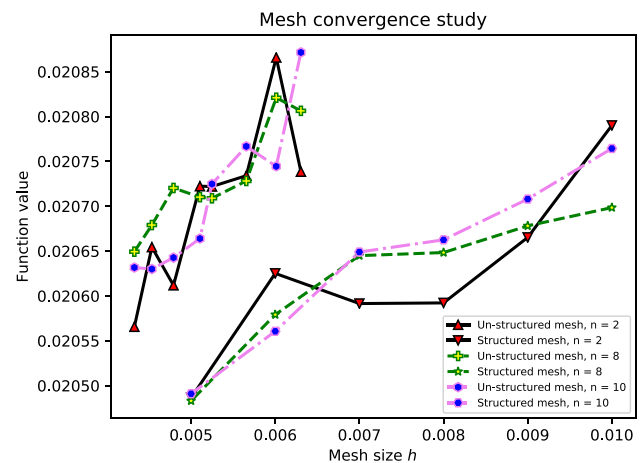


Fig. 9 Convergence plot by the active set method with different mesh types and sizes

3.2.2 Sensitivity upon the perimeter penalty term κ

Since un-penalized problems are ill-posed, it is natural to expect that the penalty term on the perimeter κ has a more significant impact on the designs. Figure 13 shows designs obtained with extreme values $\kappa = \pi \times 10^{-4}$ and $\kappa = \frac{\pi}{8} \times 10^{-15}$. All other parameters are kept as in the previous examples. As expected, a large weight on the perimeter leads to a very simple design whose complexity increases as κ decreases. Figure 12 shows the evolution of the whole objective function, the compliance, and the perimeter penalty as a function of κ . Surprisingly, one observes that values of κ as small as $\frac{\pi}{8} \times 10^{-15}$ produced well-defined designs exempt of large areas with intermediate density or checkerboard patterns.

3.3 Compliance optimization with two obstacles

Consider a problem involving two obstacles $u_1(\mathbf{x}) = -0.035 - y$ on $\Gamma_{N_B} := (0.4, 0.6) \times \{0\}$ and $u_2(\mathbf{x}) = 0.25 - y$ on $\Gamma_{N_T} := (0.1, 0.3) \times \{L_y\}$, and a downward force $\mathbf{g} := (0, -10)$ on $\Gamma_{N_R} := \{L_x\} \times (\frac{L_y}{3}, \frac{2L_y}{3})$ while the horizontal displacement on the right edge is blocked (see Fig. 14 for a schematic representation of the load and obstacles). The first obstacle infringes upon the reference configuration and is therefore expected to be active. All of the materials, solvers, and model parameters are kept as in the previous examples with the exception of the volume penalization parameter η , which is set to 0.3. The initial guess for the density field is $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{2\pi x}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{2\pi y}{L_y})$ (see Fig. 15).

The design produced by our active set algorithm is shown in Fig. 16 in the reference and deformed configuration. Convergence was attained in 1,532 iterations

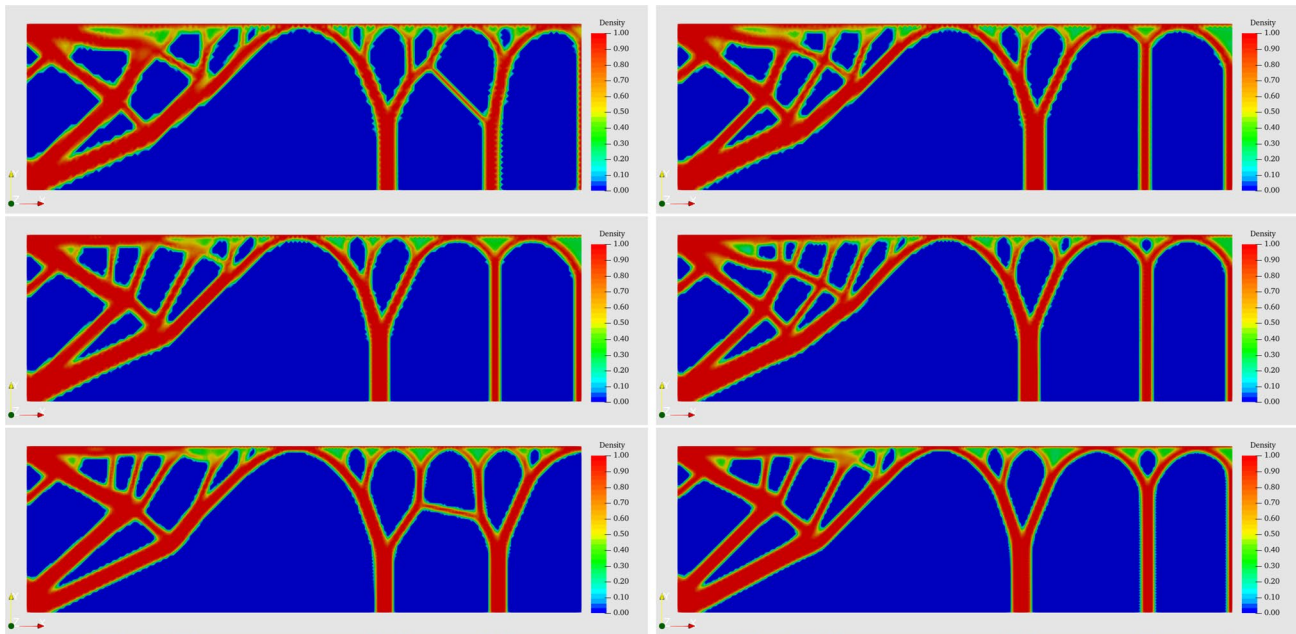


Fig. 10 Structured mesh results with different minimum mesh size, $h_{\min} = 10^{-2}$, 9×10^{-3} , 8×10^{-3} , 7×10^{-3} , 6×10^{-3} , and 5×10^{-3} , and $n = 2$

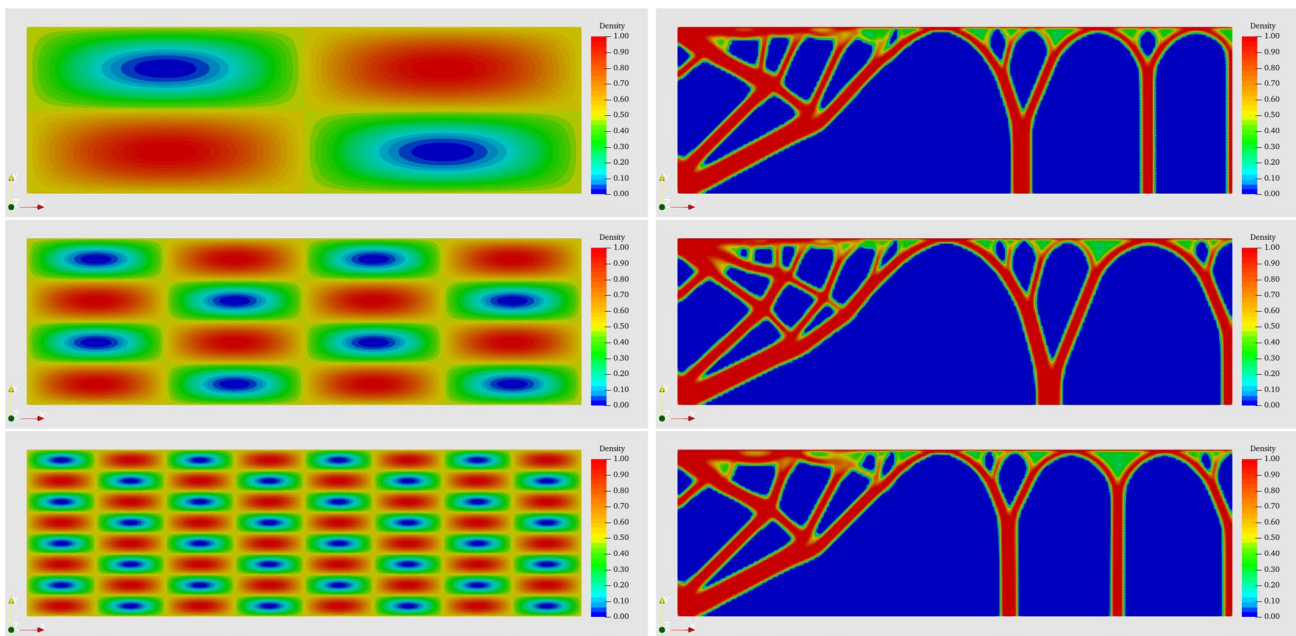


Fig. 11 Initial guesses and the corresponding designs for $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{2\pi}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{2\pi}{L_y})$ (first row), $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{4\pi}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{4\pi}{L_y})$ (second row), and $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\frac{8\pi}{L_x}) \sin(\frac{8\pi}{L_y})$ (third row)

and 124 minutes, with 1,828 evaluations of the state and adjoint equations. The objective function decreased smoothly from 15.0867×10^{-2} to $1.98317590 \times 10^{-2}$. Our design is reminiscent of a compliant mechanism using the

obstacles to provide mechanical advantage. The penalization approach converged to a tolerance of 5×10^{-8} in 566 iterations and 175 minutes to a design that does not satisfy the upper obstacle constraint, shown in Fig. 16 (bottom row).

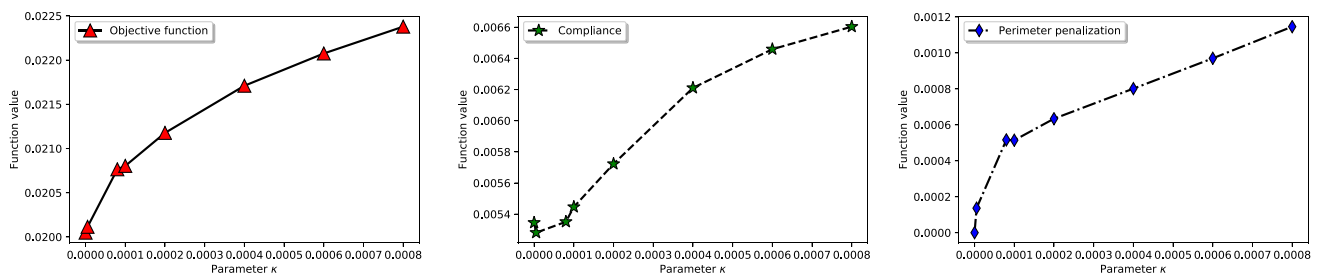


Fig. 12 Influence the parameter κ . (left): objective function. (center): compliance. (right): perimeter penalization

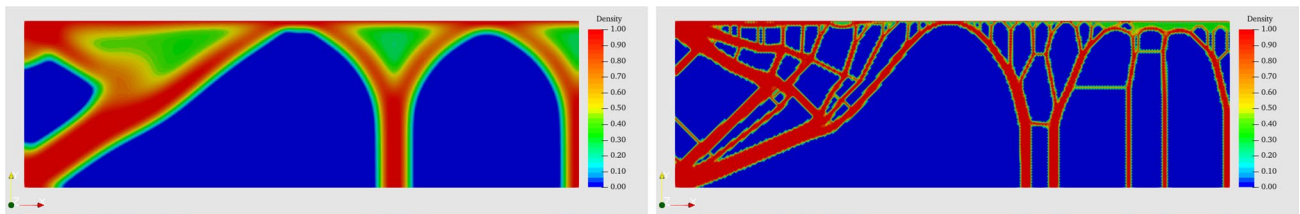


Fig. 13 Influence of the parameter κ . (left): $\kappa = 8 \times 10^{-4}$. (right): $\kappa = 10^{-15}$

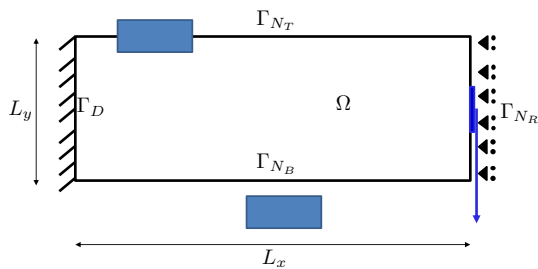


Fig. 14 A problem with two obstacles

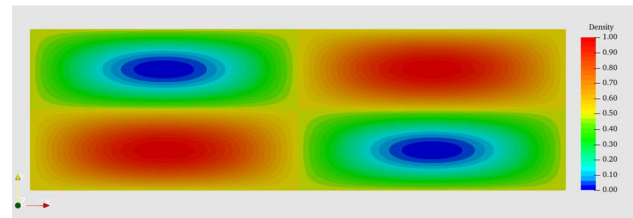


Fig. 15 Initial guess $\alpha_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{L_x}\right) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi y}{L_y}\right)$

As expected, increasing the weight penalty factor η leads to lighter designs shown in Fig. 17. Our active set method converges again toward a design that satisfies both constraints. It uses the obstacles to provide mechanical

advantage, but the additional penalty on the weight term leads to a design that does not make contact with the left edge of the domain. Here again, the penalization method fails to provide a design satisfying both constraints.

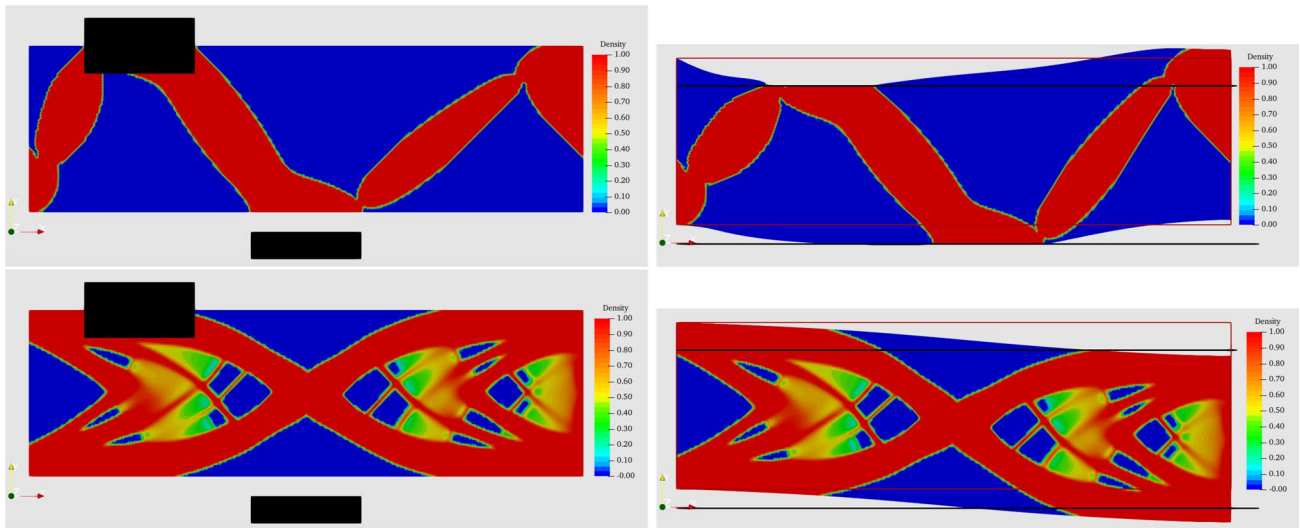


Fig. 16 Optimal designs of a cantilever beam with two obstacles in the reference and deformed configurations, $\eta = 0.3$. Top row: active set method, bottom row: penalization method

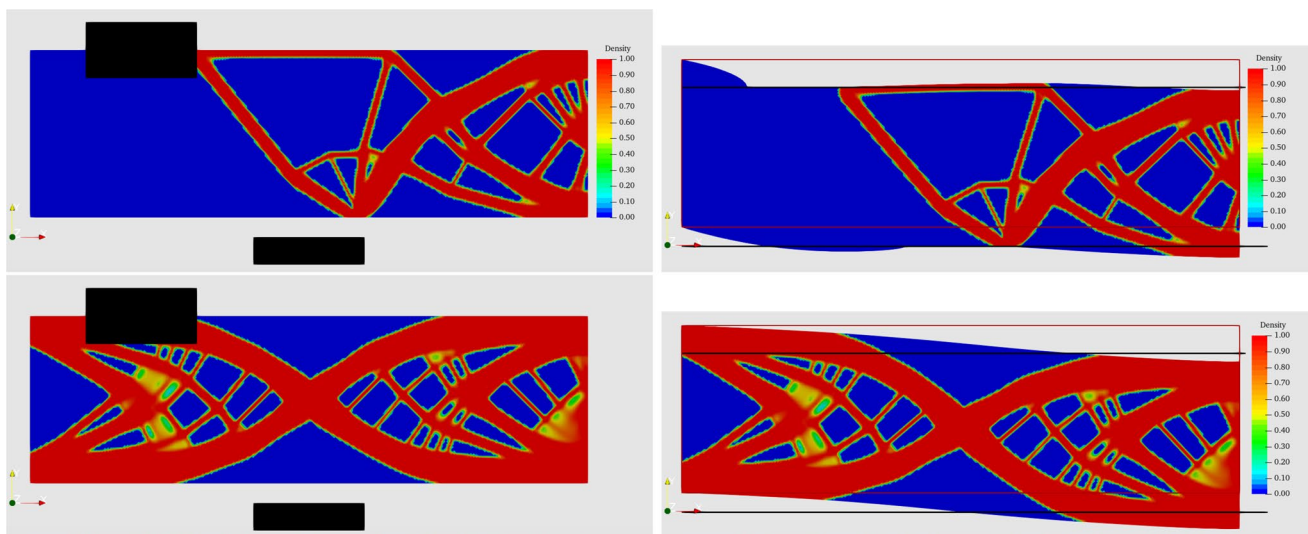


Fig. 17 Optimal designs of a cantilever beam with two obstacles in the reference and deformed configurations, $\eta = 0.35$. Top row: active set method, bottom row: penalization method

4 Discussion and conclusion

The proposed active set method performed similarly to a classical penalization method for nonlinear optimization without obstacles. In the general case, however, our active set method is faster and more robust than the penalization approach and produces designs with smaller objective values. Furthermore, in the active set approach, the obstacle constraints are always satisfied, whereas penalization

methods require a careful adjustment of the penalty terms and may not always lead to design satisfying the constraints on the state variable.

In addition, our approach exhibits good robustness properties upon mesh refinement or changes of initial design. In all fairness, it can produce slightly different designs for different initial designs, which is common in non-convex optimization problems, but the objective value of the computed designs are very close.

Appendix: The penalization method

In order to use an adjoint-based method to compute the sensitivity of the objective function subject to the variational inequality (14a–14e), one can approximate the variational inequality by a family of nonlinear boundary value problems. For the sake of simplicity, we restrict the exposition to a lower bound on each component of the state variable $u_i \geq 0$ on Ω , $i = 1, 2$.

Following the work of (Hintermüller and Kopacka 2011), let π be the component-wise max operator

$$\pi(\mathbf{u}_\epsilon) : -\max(0, -\mathbf{u}_\epsilon), \quad \forall \mathbf{u}_\epsilon \in \mathbf{K}. \quad (28)$$

For any given $\alpha \in \mathbf{K}$ and for $\epsilon > 0$, consider the problem

(Q_ϵ) : Find $\mathbf{u}_\epsilon \in \mathbf{K}$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\mathbf{v}) \, d\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \langle \pi(\mathbf{u}_\epsilon), \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle T, \mathbf{v} \rangle, \quad (29)$$

for any appropriate test function \mathbf{v} . While, it is reasonable to expect that the solution of (Q_ϵ) converge to the state equations as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, the analysis of the implementation of (Q_ϵ) is rendered difficult by the lack of smoothness of the max function. Instead, one can replace π by the smooth-max operator

$$\max_{\epsilon}(0, x) : \begin{cases} x - \frac{\epsilon}{2} & \text{if } x \geq \epsilon, \\ \frac{x^2}{2\epsilon} & \text{if } 0 < x < \epsilon, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0, \end{cases} \quad (30)$$

and define (Q'_ϵ) : Find $\mathbf{u}_\epsilon \in \mathbf{K}$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \phi(\alpha) \mathbf{A}e(\mathbf{u}) \cdot e(\mathbf{v}) \, d\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \langle \max_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{u}_\epsilon), \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle T, \mathbf{v} \rangle, \quad (31)$$

for any appropriate test function \mathbf{v} .

Figure 18 shows the max and smooth-max functions with $\epsilon = 0.05$. Because $\pi_{\epsilon} : \mathbf{V} \rightarrow \mathbf{V}^*$ is continuous and monotone and the penalized problem (Q'_ϵ) admits

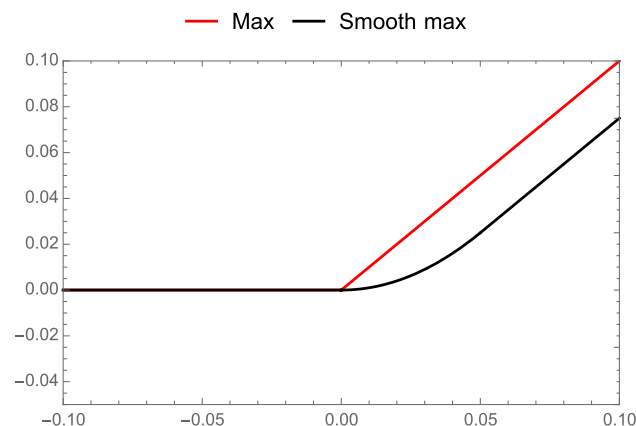


Fig. 18 Max and smooth-max functions

a unique solution. As $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, $\pi(\mathbf{u}_\epsilon) \rightarrow 0$, and the solution of (Q'_ϵ) , converges to the solution of the variational inequality (14a–14e). This approach is implemented in the open-source code dolfin-adjoint (Farrell et al. 2013; Mitusch et al. 2019), which we used as our reference implementation.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Replication of results The source code (Tran 2021) for the numerical simulations, as well as instructions required to reproduce all examples, is available at https://github.com/NhaVanTran/Optimal_Design_Active_Set_Approach.

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