Implementation of Generalized Optimality Criteria in a Multidisciplinary Environment

R. A. Canfield* and V. B. Venkayya†
Wright Research and Development Center,
Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio 45433

Generalized optimality criteria methods can alleviate the computational burden of designing for many hundreds or thousands of design variables. The implementation in an Automated Structural Optimization System (ASTROS) for preliminary design of aerospace structures is described. A dual mathematical programming method is used in conjuction with a compound scaling technique. Both are applied together to minimize structural weight in example problems, including a wing model with constraints on its structural behavior and aerodynamic performance.

Introduction

THE aerospace industry has begun to incorporate optimization methods into their design procedures in recent years. The Automated Structural Optimization System (ASTROS)¹ is an example of an automated multidisciplinary tool to assist in the preliminary design or modification of aircraft and spacecraft structures. The Air Force has distributed ASTROS to more than 90 organizations in the aerospace community in the last 18 months. The philosophy behind this system is to integrate proven and reliable analysis methods with numerical optimization using modern executive system and database management concepts (Fig. 1). The engineering disciplines include structural analysis, aerodynamic loads, aeroelasticity, control response, and structural optimization.

The structural analysis, based on and highly compatible with NASTRAN,² uses the finite element method to calculate the following: deflections and stresses from static, thermal, or gravity loads; normal modes; and transient or frequency response due to time-dependent loads including gust loads. The air loads module, an advanced paneling method based on USSAERO-C,³ calculates flexible loads and determines a trimmed configuration. The aeroelastic module employs the doublet lattice method⁴ for subsonic unsteady aerodynamics and the constant pressure method⁵ for the supersonic regime. Flutter solutions are found using the PK method. When response quantities in any of these disciplines are constrained, the sensitivity analysis calculates analytic derivatives for each active constraint. These derivatives are fed to the optimization module which employs the Automated Design Synthesis program⁶ to minimize structural weight. The final design's dynamic response in the presence of a given control system can be simulated by the control response module. The ability to simultaneously consider multiple boundry conditions, flight conditions, store loadings, and disciplines uniquely qualifies ASTROS for structural design in a production environment.

The structural optimization methodology in ASTROS utilizes design variable linking and approximation concepts⁷ to efficiently handle large problems. Even so, the maximum number of design variables that can be handled effectively is

no more than a few hundred. In the past the aircraft industry has handled thousands of variables by using optimality criterion methods, e.g., the stress ratio method; however, their application in industry has been limited to considering a single discipline at a time, i.e., stresses, or displacements, or flutter alone. Fleury and Schmit demonstrated the equivalence of optimality criterion and mathematical programming methods, and more recently Venkayya formulated a generalized optimality criteria approach for general mathematical functions. Present efforts meld Fleury and Schmit's dual solution method and Venkayya's compound scaling algorithm in ASTROS to handle multidisciplinary structural design with thousands of variables.

Mathematical Statement of the Design Problem

The objective is to minimize the weight (or equivalently, mass)

$$\min W(v) \tag{1}$$

subject to m normalized constraints

$$g_i(v) \le 0;$$
 $j = 1,...,m$ (2)

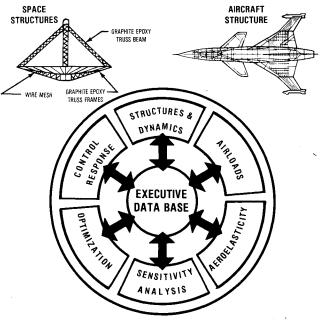


Fig. 1 Automated Structural Optimization System.

Received Oct. 11, 1989; revision received March 9, 1990; accepted for publication April 18, 1990. This paper is declared a work of the U.S. Government and is not subject to copyright protection in the United States.

^{*}Aerospace Engineer, Air Force Institute of Technology. Member AIAA.

[†]Aerospace Engineer. Member AIAA.

and side constraints on the n design variables v

$$\nu_i^L \le \nu_i \le \nu_i^u; \qquad i = 1, ..., n \tag{3}$$

The constraint functions are formed by normalizing the response quantities $z_i(v)$ by their allowable values z_{bi} :

$$g_j = \pm \left(\frac{z(v) - z_{bj}}{|z_{bj}|}\right) \tag{4}$$

The finite element cross-sectional properties (areas of rods and thicknesses of membranes) d, are controlled by the design variables ν through a linking matrix T:

$$d = Tv (5)$$

The approximation concepts develop first-order Taylor series for the constraint functions in the reciprocal design variable space.

$$x_i = 1/\nu_i \tag{6}$$

When a row of the linking matrix T in Eq. (5) has only one nonzero element, a single design variable controls one or more finite elements. This physical linking can accommodate the use of the reciprocal variables defined in Eq. (6). When a row of T has more than one nonzero element, the design variables can be interpreted as coefficients that scale some shape function defined by a column of the linking matrix. Because this shape function design variable may be zero, reciprocal variables cannot be used, in which case $x_i = v_i$.

After each complete analysis of the structure, an approximate subproblem is formed using a first-order Taylor series to represent the constraint functions. For the finite elements used in ASTROS, the objective function is a nonlinear but explicit function of the reciprocal variables:

min
$$W(x) = x_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{W_i}{x_i}$$
 (7)

The approximate constraints are linear in the reciprocal variables,

$$\bar{\mathbf{g}} = \bar{\mathbf{g}}_0 + N^T \mathbf{x} \tag{8}$$

where $N_{ij} = \partial g_i / \partial x_i$ is the gradient matrix and $\bar{g}_{0j} = g_{0j} + N_j^T x_0$. To stay within the region of validity for the Taylor series, move limits are applied to the design variables:

$$x_i/f \le x_i \le fx_i \tag{9}$$

where the move limit factor f is set to two as a default in ASTROS.

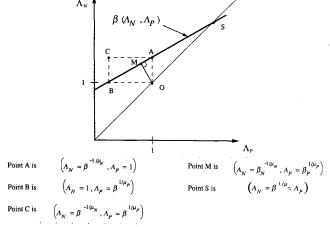


Fig. 2 Approximate target response scaling line.

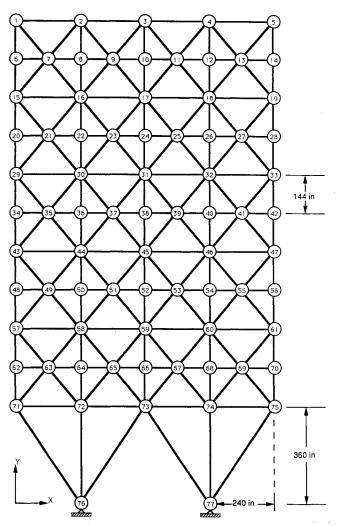


Fig. 3 200-member plane frame model.

The Dual Problem

Optimality criterion methods are derived using the Lagrangian function, which augments the objective function with a summation of terms that weigh each constraint by a Lagrange multiplier (later referred to as a dual variable):

$$L(x,\lambda) = W(x) + \lambda^T g(x)$$
 (10)

Application of the well-known Kuhn-Tucker conditions to this convex and separable approximate subproblem results in a min-max optimization problem. The solution of this dual problem also defines the global optimum of the original primal problem⁸:

$$\max_{\lambda} L(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \min_{x} \left[W_i / x_i + \lambda^T \bar{g}(x) \right]$$
 (11)

where x is found explicitly from the condition that $\partial L/\partial x_i = 0$ for any given λ as

$$x_i = \sqrt{\frac{x_i}{N_i \lambda}} \tag{12}$$

for all free x_i , i.e., those not at their lower or upper bounds. This dual problem is an unconstrained maximization problem. The approximate constraints are derivatives of the objective (Lagrangian) function:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \lambda_j} = \bar{g}_j \tag{13}$$

The advantage of solving Eq. (11) in place of Eq. (7) is that the dimensionality of the problem is reduced from n design vari-

ables to m_a dual variables corresponding to only the strictly active constraints. By definition, the Lagrange multipliers are zero for inactive constraints and positive for active constraints (g = 0). Whenever the number of positive dual variables (active constraints) is fewer than the number of primal (design) variables, the dual problem is more efficient to solve. One of the numeric difficulties, however, is the problem of terminating the optimization only when Eq. (13) is zero. Other termination criteria (e.g., relative change in the objective) are often satisfied before the approximate constraints are within a tolerance acceptable for the primal problem. Fleury and Schmit accounted for this potential pitfall in two ways. First, their dual solver "does not seek the maximum of the dual function along the [search] direction S, rather it is designed to assure that either: a) a regular Newton unit step is taken without any change in the set of free primal variables; or b) the move distance is selected so that the value of the dual function increases." Second, they offer the option of reducing the size of the dual space by using zero-order approximations-side constraints on the primal variables based on the element's stress ratio—for some stress constraints.8 Numeric difficulties occur less often when there are fewer dual variables.

Another approach would be to solve the dual problem as a constrained optimization problem in order to explicitly require the objective's derivatives not be greater than zero. The required derivatives of the approximate constraints with respect to dual variables were derived in Ref. 8.

Compound Scaling Algorithm

The approach used here for preventing constraint violations is different: a compound scaling algorithm¹⁰ to guarantee the approximate constraints are satisfied. In formulating a generalized optimality criteria, Venkayya defines the target response ratio as

$$\beta_i \equiv z_{bi}/z_i \tag{14}$$

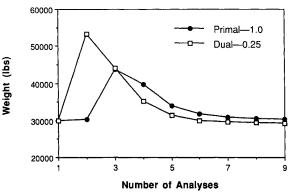


Fig. 4 200-member frame iteration history.

and a sensitivity parameter

$$\mu_{ij} \equiv N_{ij} \, x_i / z_j \tag{15}$$

For each constraint the design vector is partitioned into groups based on the sign of the constraint derivative. A sensitivity parameter for each partition can be found:

$$\mu_j^N = -\sum_{i=1}^n \min \left[0, \mu_{ij} \right], \qquad \mu_j^P = \sum_{i=1}^n \max \left[0, \mu_{ij} \right]$$
 (16)

Each partition of the design vector can be scaled by a factor Λ to be determined:

$$x^{N} = \Lambda_{i}^{N} x_{0}^{N}, \qquad x^{P} = \Lambda_{i}^{P} x_{0}^{P}$$
 (17)

Substituting these definitions into Eq. (8) yields an approximation of the target response ratio as a function of the two scale factors:

$$\beta_i(\Lambda_i^N, \Lambda_i^P) \approx 1 - \mu_i^N(\Lambda_i^N - 1) + \mu_i^P(\Lambda_i^P - 1) \tag{18}$$

Contours of the approximate target response ratio can be plotted as a function of the two scale factors. The desired target response lies on the contour line for $\beta = 1$ shown in Fig. 2. Selecting a unique pair of scale factors requires a second equation in addition to Eq. (18). For reference, point S in Fig. 2 represents simple scaling where the entire design vector is scaled by a single factor. The original derivation of the scale factors in Ref. 10, represented by points A and B, assumed that scaling either partition alone would achieve the target response. The current approach is to select the point M on the scaling line that minimizes the distance to the current design at point O. This is the point closest to the small region about point O where the Taylor series approximation is accurate. The solution for the scale factors is

$$\Lambda_j^N = \left(\beta_j^N\right)^{-1/\mu_j^N}, \qquad \Lambda_j^P = \left(\beta_j^P\right)^{1/\mu_j^P} \tag{19}$$

where the partial target response ratios are defined as

$$\beta_j^N = 1 + \frac{\mu_j^N}{\mu_j^N + \mu_j^P} (\beta_j - 1), \qquad \beta_j^P = 1 + \frac{\mu_j^P}{\mu_j^N + \mu_j^P} (\beta_j - 1)$$
 (20)

Two tables are used to select scale factors for multiple constraints. The scale factor table is simply formed using the scale factor for the corresponding partition of the design vector:

$$\Lambda_{ij} = \begin{cases} \Lambda_{j}^{N} & \text{if } \mu_{ij} < 0 \\ \Lambda_{j}^{P} & \text{if } \mu_{ij} > 0 \\ 1.0 & \text{if } \mu_{ij} = 0 \end{cases}$$
 (21)

No. of Nodes
88
39 Rods
55 Shear Panels
62 Quadrilateral Membranes
2 Triangular Membranes
158 Total

No. of DoF's
294 Constrained
234 Unconsctrained
528 Total

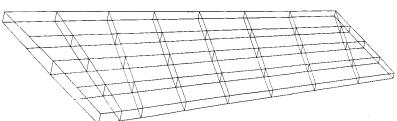


Fig. 5 Intermediate complexity wing model.

The scale factor assignment table is formed from the sensitivity factors. In contrast to Ref. 10, the total differential term is normalized by the allowable value instead of the response value:

$$t_{ij} = \left| \frac{N_{ij} x_i}{z_{bj}} \right| = |\mu_{ij} \beta_j|$$
 (22)

A scale factor is selected for each design variable according to the following three cases:

Case 1
$$\prod_{j}^{\text{all }} N_{ij} \leq 0$$
, $\Lambda_i = \prod_{j,N_{ij} \neq 0}^{\max} (\Lambda_{ij})$
Case 2 $\prod_{j}^{\text{all }} N_{ij} \geq 0$, $\Lambda_i = \prod_{j,N_{ij} \neq 0}^{\min} (\Lambda_{ij})$
Case 3 $\prod_{j}^{\max} t_{ij}$, $\Lambda_i = \Lambda_{ij} \begin{cases} \text{if } W_i(\Lambda_{ij} - 1) < 0 \\ \text{or } z_j > z_{bj} \end{cases}$

These three cases replace the rules presented in Ref. 10 and simplify the scale factor selection procedure by avoiding the special cases of simple scaling and compound scaling with a single constraint. Also, starting from a uniform design is unnecessary.

Each design cycle in ASTROS consists of a complete multidisciplinary analysis followed by redesign based on the approximate problem. The new generalized optimality criterion algorithm begins with a dual solution scheme to find the Lagrange multipliers and corresponding primal variables, followed by iterative compound scaling until approximate constraint violations are tolerable.

Results

Three design problems with 200 to 1527 design variables were solved to compare primal and dual solution methods for large optimization problems. All problems were designed without linking design variables to demonstrate the computational potential. Of course, group linking could be used according to Eq. (5); however, the dual method is not available for shape function linking. Although only the second problem is multidisciplinary, the approach is the same for all problems regardless of the disciplines considered. Thus, nothing prevents the designer from constraining other response quantities in ASTROS, such as natural frequencies, lift and aileron effectiveness, and strain. Iteration history plots are shown for each example. The label "Primal" refers to the current algorithm in ASTROS that solves the approximate subproblem directly. The label "Dual" refers to the current generalized optimality criteria being tested. Normalized CPU times (for a VAX 8650) for the entire execution (analyses, sensitivity, and

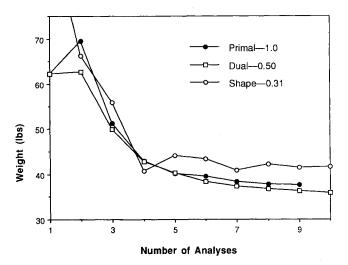


Fig. 6 Intermediate complexity wing iteration history.

Table 1 200-member plane truss design conditions

Material, steel		
Modulus of elasticity	$E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$	
Weight density	0.283 lb/in. ³	
Stress limits	30,000 psi	
Lower limit on rod areas	0.1 in. ²	
Displacement limits on all nodes (horizontal and vertical directions)	0.5 in.	
Number of loading conditions	5	
Loading condition 1	1000 lb acting in +X direction at nodes 1, 6, 15, 20, 29, 34, 43, 48, 57, 62, 71	
Loading condition 2	1000 lb acting in $-X$ direction at nodes 5, 14, 19, 20, 28, 33, 42, 47, 56, 61, 70, 75	
Loading condition 3	10,000 lb acting in - Y direction at nodes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 24,, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75	
Loading condition 4	Loading conditions 1 and 2 together	
Loading condition 5	Loading conditions 2 and 3 together	

Table 2 Intermediate complexity wing design conditions

Isotropic	material, aluminum
Modulus of elasticity	$E = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$
Poisson's ratio	0.30
Weight density	0.10 lb/in.^3
Tensile stress limit	55,000 psi
Compressive stress limit	55,000 psi
Shear stress limit	45,000 psi
Lower limit on thickness	0.04 in.
Orthotropic 1	material, graphite epoxy
Modulus of elasticity	$E_1 = 18.5 \times 10^6$, $G_{12} = 0.65 \times 10^6$
	$E_2 = 1.6 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$
Poisson's ratio	0.25
Weight density	0.055 lb/in.^3
Stress limits	115,000 psi
Lower limit on plies	0.00525 in.
Beha	vior constraints
Limit on transverse tip	
displacements	10.0 in.
Flutter speed limit	925 knots

redesign for all iterations) are shown as a factor next to each label in the legend of each plot.

200-Member Plane Truss

A 72-node plane truss made of 200 steel elements subject to five loading conditions¹¹ (Fig. 3 and Table 1) was used to demonstrate the efficiency of a generalized optimality criterion approach for statics. Stress and displacement limits together accounted for 2500 applied constraints. The dual method required one-fourth the computational effort as compared to the primal method (Fig. 4).

Intermediate Complexity Wing

The next example considered was an intermediate complexity wing. 12 The structural model has 158 elements and 234 degrees of freedom (Fig. 5). The composite cover skins are made of graphite epoxy with the properties given in Table 2. Stress constraints were imposed on all membrane elements, and displacement constraints were imposed at the tip of the wing in the transverse direction for two independent static loading conditions. A flutter speed limit of 925 knots corresponding to a flight condition of a 0.8 Mach number at sea

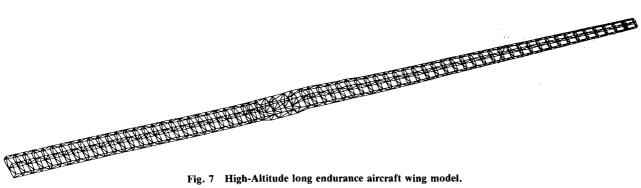


Fig. 7 High-Altitude long endurance aircraft wing model.

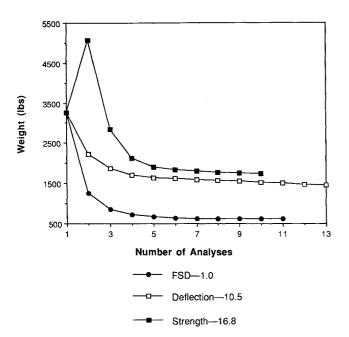


Fig. 8 High-Altitude long endurance iteration history.

level was also applied, resulting in 722 constraints and 350 design variables. For comparison, the results from Ref. 12 using 22 shape function variables and two physical design variables are shown as well (Fig. 6). The slightly higher weight for this case demonstrates the penalty for constraining the skin thicknesses to vary quadratically with the span and the spar web thicknesses to vary linearly with the span. The shape function solution was more efficient since 60 constraints were active at the optimum of the dual problem. Nevertheless, even with an additional iteration, the dual method is twice as efficient as the primal method when all 350 variables are considered. The improvement is less dramatic than for the previous example because the multidisciplinary analysis (statics, modes, and flutter) is more costly relative to the optimization.

High-Altitude Long Endurance Aircraft

The finite element model for the right wing of a high-altitude long endurance (HALE) aircraft (Fig. 7) is made of a truss substructure and metallic cover skins. The mission of this 270-ft span airplane is to patrol for several days at 150-250 knots at an altitude of 65,000 ft. Since the ASTROS steady and unsteady aerodynamics models were not yet complete, three static loads were applied to an aluminum version of this wing. Stresses and wing-tip deflections were constrained, producing a total of 6124 constraints (Table 3). All 1527 elements were designed independently. The primal method could not be solved within the memory available to ASTROS, so a fullystressed design (FSD) method was used as the basis for comparison (Fig. 8). A design with deflection constraints alone

Table 3 High-Altitude long endurance design conditions

Material, aluminum		
Modulus of elasticity	$E = 10.5 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$	
Weight density	0.10 lb/in.^3	
Poisson's ratio	0.30	
Stress limits	60,000 psi	
Lower limit on thicknesses	0.021 in.	
Lower limit on rod areas	0.10 in. ²	
Behavio	or constraints	
Limits on transverse tip		
displacements	200.0 in.	
Number of loading conditions	4	

was one order of magnitude more costly than the FSD due to the sensitivity analysis (optimization was negligible). A weight penalty was incurred, of course, when designing for the stress constraints as well.

Conclusions

A generalized optimality criterion method consisting of a dual problem solver combined with a compound scaling algorithm has been implemented in the multidisciplinary design tool ASTROS. This method enables, for the first time in a production design tool, the determination of a minimum weight design using thousands of independent structural design variables while simultaneously considering constraints on response quantities in several disciplines. The examples considered stress, displacement, and flutter constraints, although the formulation is suited to any constraint approximated by a Taylor series in the reciprocal design space when the objective is linear. Even for moderately large examples, the computational efficiency was improved significantly relative to the conventional approach.

References

¹Neill, D. J., Johnson, E. H., and Canfield, R. A., "ASTROS - A Multidisciplinary Automated Structural Design Tool," AIAA Paper 87-0713, April 1987, pp. 44-53.

²MacNeal, R. H., "The NASTRAN User's Manual," NASA SP-222(08), June 1986.

³Woodward, F. A., "An Improved Method for the Aerodynamic Analysis of Wing-Body-Tail Configurations in Subsonic and Supersonic Flow, Part I - Theory and Applications," NASA CR-2228, May 1973.

⁴Albano, E., and Rodden, W. P., "A Doublet-Lattice Method for Calculating Lift Distributions on Oscillating Surfaces in Subsonic Flows," AIAA Journal, Vol. 7, No. 11, 1969, p. 2192.

⁵Appa, K., "Constant Pressure Panel Method for Supersonic Unsteady Airloads Analysis," Journal of Aircraft, Vol. 24, Oct. 1987, pp. 696-702.

⁶Vanderplaats, G. N., "An Efficient Feasible Directions Algorithm for Design Synthesis," AIAA Journal, Vol. 22, No. 11, 1984, pp. 1633-1640.

⁷Schmit, L. A., and Miura, H., "Approximation Concepts for Efficient Structural Synthesis," NASA CR-2552, 1976.

⁸Fleury, C., and Schmit, L. A., Jr., "Dual Methods and Approximation Concepts in Structural Analysis," NASA CR-3226, Dec. 1980.

⁹Venkayya, V. B., "Optimality Criteria: A Basis for Multidisciplinary Design Optimization," Computational Mechanics, Vol. 5. No. 1, 1989, pp. 1-21.

¹⁰Venkayya, V. B., and Tischler, V. A., "A Compound Scaling Algorithm for Mathematical Optimization," Wright Research and Development Center, Wright-Patterson AFB, OH, WRDC-TR-893040. Feb. 1989.

11 Venkayya, V. B., Khot, N. S., and Reddy, S., "Optimization of Structures Based on the Study of Energy Distribution," Proceedings of the Second Conference on Matrix Methods in Structural Mechanics. Air Force Flight Dynamics Lab., Wright-Patterson AFB, OH, AFFDL-TR-68-150, Dec. 1969, pp. 111-153.

12Johnson, E. H., and Neill, D. J., "Automated Structural Optimization System (ASTROS), Vol. III—Applications Manual," Air Force Wright Aeronautical Labs., Wright-Patterson AFB, OH, AFWAL-TR-88-3028, Dec. 1988.

Recommended Reading from the AIAA Progress in Astronautics and Aeronautics Series . . . **GALA**



Spacecraft Dielectric Material Properties and Spacecraft Charging

Arthur R. Frederickson, David B. Cotts, James A. Wall and Frank L. Bouquet, editors

This book treats a confluence of the disciplines of spacecraft charging, polymer chemistry, and radiation effects to help satellite designers choose dielectrics, especially polymers, that avoid charging problems. It proposes promising conductive polymer candidates, and indicates by example and by reference to the literature how the conductivity and radiation hardness of dielectrics in general can be tested. The field of semi-insulating polymers is beginning to blossom and provides most of the current information. The book surveys a great deal of literature on existing and potential polymers proposed for noncharging spacecraft applications. Some of the difficulties of accelerated testing are discussed, and suggestions for their resolution are made. The discussion includes extensive reference to the literature on conductivity measurements.

TO ORDER: Write, Phone or FAX: AIAA c/o TASCO, 9 Jay Gould Ct., P.O. Box 753, Waldorf, MD 20604 Phone (301) 645-5643, Dept. 415 FAX (301) 843-0159

Sales Tax: CA residents, 7%; DC, 6%. For shipping and handling add \$4.75 for 1-4 books (call for rates for higher quanties). Orders under \$50.00 must be prepaid. Foreign orders must be prepaid. Please allow 4 weeks for delivery. Prices are subject to change without notice. Returns will be accepted within 15 days.

1986 96 pp., illus. Hardback ISBN 0-930403-17-7 AIAA Members \$29.95 Nonmembers \$37.95 Order Number V-107