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On-the-fly model reduction for large-scale structural topology optimization using Principal Components Analysis

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Abstract

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Despite a solid theoretical foundation and straightforward application to structural design problems, 3D topology optimization still suffers from a prohibitively high computational effort that hinders its widespread use in industrial design. One major contributor to this problem is the cost of solving the Finite Element equations during each iteration of the optimization loop. To alleviate this cost in large-scale topology optimization, the authors propose a projection-based Reduced Order Modeling approach using Proper Orthogonal Decomposition for the construction of a reduced basis for the FE solution during the optimization, using a small number of previously obtained and stored solutions. This basis is then adaptively enriched and updated *on the fly* according to an error residual, until convergence of the main optimization loop. The Method of Moving Asymptotes is used for the optimization. The techniques are validated using established 3D benchmark problems. The numerical results demonstrate the advantages and the improved performance of our proposed approach.

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9 *Keywords:* POD, meta-modeling, design, high performance computing,
10 additive manufacturing, 3D printing.
11

12 13 14 **1. Introduction**

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16 Topology optimization, first introduced by [1] has matured over the last few
17 decades [2, 3] and has had a significant influence on design optimization re-
18 search.
19

20
21 The classical topology optimization problem consists of optimizing material dis-
22 tribution in two or three dimensions so as to minimize the structural compliance,
23 i.e. finding the density distribution over a voxel grid for a chosen volume fraction
24 under a prescribed set of external loads and boundary conditions. Density-based
25 methods are today the most widely used by engineers along with level-set meth-
26 ods [4], topological derivative procedures [5, 6], phase field techniques [7], etc
27 [8]. A comprehensive review of developments in topology optimization post 2000
28 may be found in [9].
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33 With the modern-day mastery of additive manufacturing techniques, topology
34 optimization is increasingly being applied in the design of engineered materials
35 for aerospace applications [10]. However, it is surprisingly far from attaining
36 mainstream popularity among structural engineers, despite nearly two decades
37 of research that have been devoted to the subject. One of the key challenges
38 in topology optimization has been dealing with large-scale or high-dimensional
39 design problems that could involve millions or even billions of degrees of free-
40 dom [11]. During each iteration of the optimization process, we need to solve
41 the equilibrium equations for the computation-intensive numerical/finite ele-
42 ment (FE) model characterizing the discretized structure. This central and still
43 unresolved issue of prohibitively high computational effort casts an ever-present
44 pall on its large-scale application to industrial design.
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52 High-performance computing approaches have been proposed in the literature
53 surveyed to deal with this problem and are expectedly successful [11–14], but
54 most, if not all, require an increase in computing resources to realize their full
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9 potential in reducing the computational time.

10 Reanalysis methods have been used in topology optimization since the seminal
11 paper of Kirsch and Papalambros [15] in 2001, where they proposed a unified
12 approach for structural reanalysis in topology optimization. Wang et al [16]
13 and Amir et al [17] proposed methods based on the use of Krylov subspaces. In
14 a different paper, Amir et al [18] proposed the construction of a reduced basis
15 using the combined approximations method. Reanalysis methods were also used
16 in [19–21]. Yoon [22] used eigenmodes and Ritz vectors for the reduced basis in
17 topology optimization for vibration response. Gogu [23] extended the approach
18 of [15] and used Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization to construct a reduced basis
19 *on the fly* based on the violation of an error residual. A survey of the available
20 literature reveals a recent resurgence of interest in reanalysis in topology opti-
21 mization [24–26].

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29 Reduced order modeling (ROM), in particular, supervised manifold learning has
30 become a popular approach in a variety of fields today including computational
31 mechanics and structural optimization [27]. The basic premise of projection-
32 based reduced order modeling [28] involves mapping the higher dimensional
33 physics onto a lower dimensional space through an appropriate reduced basis
34 calculated using various methods depending on the nature of the problem at
35 hand. While the field is still in its infancy (given the magnitude of potential
36 improvements), the results obtained thus far have been more than promising.
37 Principal Components Analysis (PCA) ([28, 29]), Proper Generalized Decom-
38 position (PGD) ([30]), hyper-reduction [31] and Reduced Basis methods ([32])
39 are the three prominent schools of this field today. Of these, PCA, also called
40 Proper Orthogonal Decomposition or POD [33–42], is an *a posteriori* statistical
41 method that learns the covariance structure of complex multivariate data.

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50 With the very recent exceptions of [8, 43, 44], to the knowledge of the au-
51 thors, virtually no work has been done on coupling topology optimization with
52 POD. The work of [8] involves applying POD to the density map and yields a
53 very efficient numerical scheme which loses precision depending on the number
54 of modes. Since their ROM was not computed 'on-the-fly' i.e. with constant
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9 monitoring using the full-field model, could have resulted in the dependence of
10 their obtained optimized topology density map on basis size. In addition, [44]
11 presented a novel approach to ROM-supplemented topology optimization us-
12 ing inexact linear solutions by incremental SVD during the initial stages of the
13 optimization (when the accuracy is not expected to be as strict), and Krylov
14 subspace methods with ROM recycling closer to convergence, where greater ac-
15 curacy is expected.
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20 In this work, inspired by [15, 23], we improve the computational efficiency
21 by mapping displacement field quantities of the large-scale problem to a low-
22 dimensional space through an appropriate basis, that we calculate using POD.
23 To render the method more accessible on a workstation, we use an iterative
24 solver for the full-field solution. The Method of Moving Asymptotes (MMA) is
25 used for the optimization as an alternative to the classical Optimality Criteria
26 (OC) method, based on a dedicated version of sensitivity analysis.
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29
30 The remainder of the paper is organized in the following manner: in section
31 2, the theoretical formulation is formally presented beginning with classical
32 topology optimization, followed by the reduced-order basis construction and
33 sensitivity analysis. In section 3, we summarize the algorithm for *on-the-fly* ba-
34 sis construction using POD. Section 4 details the numerical investigations using
35 benchmark 3D compliance minimization problems followed by a discussion. The
36 paper closes with concluding comments and recommendations for future work.
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9 **2. Theoretical formulation**

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11 The mathematical formulation of the discrete material distribution problem
12 may be expressed as follows:
13

$$\begin{aligned}
 14 \quad & \min_{\rho} c(\rho) = F^T U = U^T K U \\
 15 \quad & \sum_{e=1}^N v_e \rho_e = v_{frac} V < V \\
 16 \quad & 0 \leq \rho_e \leq 1, \quad e = 1, \dots, N \\
 17 \quad & K U = F
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

18
19 where c is the compliance of the structure, ρ is the vector of design variables
20 consisting of the individual element (e) densities ρ_e , F is the external forces
21 vector, U is the FE displacement vector, K is the global stiffness matrix of the
22 structure, v_e the volume of an element e and V the maximum prescribed volume
23 for the entire structure. The number of elements in the 2D/3D grid is N .

24
25 Using a modified solid isotropic material with penalization model [18], the den-
26 sity of an element can be expressed as follows
27

$$E_e(\rho_e) = E_{min} + \rho_e^p (E_{nominal} - E_{min}) \tag{2}$$

28
29 For topology optimization of large-scale structures, the bulk of the computa-
30 tional cost expectedly stems from the requirement to compute the numerical
31 solution of the equilibrium equations at each iteration:
32

$$K U = F \tag{3}$$

33
34 Computing this full-field solution for large-scale topology optimization problems
35 involves the inversion of a very large system of equations that can consist of up
36 to millions or billions [11] of degrees of freedom. To improve the scalability of
37 the approach to allow for implementation on parallel computing systems even-
38 tually (not treated in this particular paper), the FEA for the full field solution
39 is performed using a preconditioned conjugate solver for improved scalability,
40 similar to [12] except using an incomplete Cholesky decomposition of K as the
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9 preconditioner.

10 The authors must point out that the PCG with incomplete Cholesky is no longer
11 the state of the art solver, and computation times using multi-grid preconditioning [45],
12 the current gold standard according to the literature, may well be
13 different from those listed in this work.
14
15

16 The basic operations are given in Algorithm 1, which is a standard procedure
17
18

19 **Algorithm 1** Solution of $KU = F$ using iterative solver (PCG)

20 1: **procedure** PCG-FEA
21
22 2: $L \leftarrow$ *Incomplete* Cholesky decomposition of K
23
24 3: Preconditioner $\tilde{K} = LL^T$
25
26 4: $R_0 = F - KU_0$
27
28 5: $Z_0 = \tilde{K}^{-1}R_0$
29
30 6: $P_0 = Z_0$
31
32 7: $i = 0$
33
34 8: **while** $\|R_0\| > tol$ **do**
35
36 9: $\alpha_i = \frac{R_i^T Z_i}{P_i^T K P_i}$
37
38 10: $U_{i+1} = U_i + \alpha_i P_i$
39
40 11: $R_{i+1} = R_i - \alpha_i K P_i$
41
42 12: $Z_{i+1} = \tilde{K}^{-1}R_{i+1}$
43
44 13: $\beta_i = \frac{Z_{i+1}^T R_{i+1}}{Z_i^T R_i}$
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46 14: $P_{i+1} = Z_{i+1} + \beta_i P_i$
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48 15: $i = i + 1$
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that may be found in any textbook on numerical methods. However, the iterative solution is still computationally expensive since it involves a large number of degrees of freedom, but also because of the preconditioning phase due to the poorly conditioned matrix K (large variations between nearly void E_{min} and solid E_{max}). To alleviate this issue, we propose a reduced-order modeling (ROM) procedure in the following subsections.

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9 *2.1. Projection-based reduced order modeling*

10 To reduce the computational effort during an iteration of the optimizer loop,
11 we map the displacement field quantity (i.e. U) of the above large-scale prob-
12 lem (3) to a low-dimensional space through an appropriate *orthonormal* basis Φ
13 (i.e. $\Phi^T \Phi = \mathbf{I}$) calculated *on-the-fly* using solution snapshots from the previous
14 iterations.
15

16 The basis $\Phi = [\phi_1 \dots \phi_{N_b}]$ is obtained using an effective set of N_b "snap-
17 shots" of the displacement field $\mathbf{U}_{temp} = [U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{N_b}]$ each obtained by
18 solving (3) *during* the main optimization, centered around the mean snapshot
19 $\bar{u} = (\sum_{k=1}^{N_b} U_k)/N_b$ (Later on, we will show that Φ may be calculated by singular
20 value decomposition (svd) of \mathbf{U}_{temp}).
21

22 The problem projected onto the reduced basis transforms into the reduced sys-
23 tem:
24

$$25 \Phi^T K U_{rb} = \Phi^T F \quad (4)$$

26 where U_{rb} is the approximate solution to the higher dimensional displacement
27 vector, obtained by a linear combination of the projection coefficients (α):
28

$$29 U_{rb} = \Phi \alpha + \bar{u} \quad (5)$$

30 Equation (4) thus becomes:
31

$$32 \Phi^T K (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) = \Phi^T F \quad (6)$$

33 The main consequence is that any of the displacement vector snapshots U_i may
34 be expressed as a finite basis linear combination:
35

$$36 U_i \approx U_{rb}^i = \bar{u} + \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k^i \phi_k = \bar{u} + \Phi \alpha^i \quad (7)$$

37 where the α^i depend on the choice of the basis Φ . The error residual is given
38 by:
39

$$40 \epsilon_{rb}^2 = \frac{\| K U_{rb} - F \|^2}{\| F \|^2} = \frac{\| K (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) - F \|^2}{\| F \|^2} \quad (8)$$

41 corresponding to the relative error between the **internal** forces stemming from
42 the approximate reduced basis solution and the actually applied forces. If the
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9 approximate solution U_{rb} were exact, the residual would be zero because the
10 exact solution would satisfy the equilibrium equations $KU = F$.

11
12 The goal then is to use U_{rb} in place of U for the optimization depending on the
13 error threshold ϵ_{rb} . If this error is unreasonable, we then run the full field FE
14 i.e. equation (3) at that particular loop iteration to get a fresh displacement
15 vector that will then be used to refine the basis. Note that in order to retain
16 generality as far as possible, we will hold off on presenting the exact method of
17 calculating the basis until the end of this section, the reason being that much of
18 this section is relevant regardless of the choice of Φ . The exact basis update
19 scheme is described in the next subsection
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27 2.2. Sensitivity analysis

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29 When the reduced order model i.e. U_{rb} is used in place of the FE solution,
30 the original objective function (compliance) may be expressed as:
31

$$32 \quad c(\rho_e) = U_{rb}^T K(\rho_e) U_{rb} = (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u})^T K(\rho_e) (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u}) \quad (9)$$

33
34 The use of this expression, however, entails the verification of some additional
35 constraints. The first constraint represents the Galerkin *projected* i.e. reduced
36 system of equations (replacing the original FE):
37
38

$$39 \quad K_{rb} U_{rb} = F_{rb} \text{ or} \\ 40 \quad \Phi^T K U_{rb} = \Phi^T K (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u}) = \Phi^T F \quad (10)$$

41
42 The second constraint must be on the snapshots $U_1 \dots U_{N_b}$ used for generating
43 the orthogonal basis vectors, having each (by definition) been obtained through
44 the solution of the full equilibrium equation during *the particular iteration* that
45 they were added to the set of snapshots:
46
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$$50 \quad K_i U_i = F \text{ where } i = 1, 2 \dots N_b \quad (11)$$

51
52 where K_i is simply the stiffness matrix for which the snapshot vector U_i was
53 obtained. In the completely general case, the sensitivity of the compliance calcu-
54 lated using the reduced order model is potentially different from the sensitivity
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58

for the original problem.

Following [15, 23], the conventional way to calculate the modified sensitivity is by using the adjoint equation, using Lagrange multipliers $\mu_i, \lambda_i, i = 1 \dots N_b$ for the two constraints in (10) and (11).

The modified objective function may then be represented as:

$$c(\rho_e) = (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u})^T K (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u}) - 2\mu^T [\Phi^T K (\Phi\alpha + \bar{u}) - \Phi^T F] - \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T (K_i U_i - F) \quad (12)$$

This expression may be simplified as:

$$c(\rho_e) = [\alpha^T \Phi^T K \Phi \alpha - 2\mu^T (\Phi^T K \Phi \alpha - \Phi^T F)] + [2\bar{u}^T K \Phi \alpha + \bar{u}^T K \bar{u} - 2\mu^T \Phi^T K \bar{u}] - \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i^T (K_i U_i - F) \right] = c_1(\rho_e) + c_2(\rho_e) + c_3(\rho_e) \quad (13)$$

where c_1, c_2 and c_3 are the terms within the square brackets.

Each of the three terms may then be individually evaluated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial c_1}{\partial \rho_e} &= 2(\alpha - 2\mu)^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \Phi \alpha + 2(\alpha - \mu)^T \Phi^T K \Phi \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \rho_e} \\ &\quad + (\alpha - 2\mu)^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi \alpha + 2\mu^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} F \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial c_2}{\partial \rho_e} &= 2(\alpha - \mu)^T \Phi^T K \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \rho_e} + 2(\alpha - \mu)^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \bar{u} + \bar{u}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \bar{u} \\ &\quad + 2(\alpha - \mu)^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \bar{u} + 2 \frac{\partial \alpha^T}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi^T K \bar{u} + 2 \frac{\partial \bar{u}^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \bar{u} \\ &= 2[(\alpha - \mu)^T \Phi^T + \bar{u}] K \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \rho_e} + [2(\alpha - \mu)^T \Phi^T + \bar{u}] \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \bar{u} \\ &\quad + 2 \frac{\partial \alpha^T}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi^T K \bar{u} + 2(\alpha - \mu)^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \bar{u} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

and the last term:

$$\frac{\partial c_3}{\partial \rho_e} = - \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T \frac{\partial K_i}{\partial \rho_e} U_i - \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T K_i \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial \rho_e} \quad (16)$$

In order to solve the adjoint equation, we remember that we are free to choose the Lagrange multipliers as we see fit. A useful substitution is $\mu = (\alpha + \Phi^T \bar{u})$

giving:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial c_1}{\partial \rho_e} &= -2(\alpha + 2\Phi^T \bar{u})^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \Phi \alpha - 2\bar{u}^T K \Phi \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \rho_e} \\ &\quad - (\alpha + 2\Phi^T \bar{u})^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi \alpha + 2(\alpha + \Phi^T \bar{u})^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} F \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial c_2}{\partial \rho_e} = 2 \frac{\partial \alpha^T}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi^T K \bar{u} - 2\bar{u}^T \Phi \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \bar{u} - \bar{u}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \bar{u} \quad (18)$$

From the above we end up with:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e} &= -2(\alpha + 2\Phi^T \bar{u})^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \Phi \alpha - (\alpha + 2\Phi^T \bar{u})^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \Phi \alpha \\ &\quad + 2(\alpha + \Phi^T \bar{u})^T \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} F - 2\bar{u}^T \Phi \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} K \bar{u} \\ &\quad - \bar{u}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} \bar{u} - \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T \frac{\partial K_i}{\partial \rho_e} U_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T K_i \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial \rho_e} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

which may further be simplified to the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e} &= -U_{rb}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} U_{rb} + 2U_{rb}^T \Phi \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} (F - K U_{rb}) \\ &\quad - \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T \frac{\partial K_i}{\partial \rho_e} U_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T K_i \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial \rho_e} \right] \\ &= -U_{rb}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} U_{rb} + 2U_{rb}^T \Phi \frac{\partial \Phi^T}{\partial \rho_e} \Delta F - \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T \frac{\partial K_i}{\partial \rho_e} U_i + \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T K_i \frac{\partial U_i}{\partial \rho_e} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The above equation is a generalized version of the expression obtained by [23], in the context of an orthonormal basis Φ and including the effect of the mean snapshot \bar{u} , and is valid for any reduced approach in the Galerkin family. (Note that if the mean \bar{u} were assumed to be $= 0$ (centered snapshots) the second set of terms within parentheses would vanish yielding the same exact expression as in [23]).

To go further and obtain a final expression, we present the updation strategy in the next sub-section.

2.3. On-the-fly reduced basis construction and updation strategy

In the last equation of the previous subsection, we still need to determine $\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{N_b}$ and $\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \rho_e}$ so as to obtain $\frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e}$, and these will depend on the particular

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9 update strategy, which is explained in detail in this subsection.

10 After $i \geq N_b$ iterations of a classical topology optimization procedure, we ex-
11 pect to have already calculated N_b displacement vectors ($U_1 \dots U_{N_b}$) by the
12 usual process of inverting the full equilibrium equations in (3). As hinted ear-
13 lier, the subspace generated by these N_b previously calculated vectors can be
14 used to calculate a reduced basis Φ that could be used to estimate the displace-
15 ment vector for the next iteration ($i + 1$).
16

17 This means that the corresponding (approximate) displacement vector is ob-
18 tained using the reduced order model in equation (5), which calculates the
19 reduced state variables at the current iteration ($i + 1$) (and, thus, an approx-
20 imation of U) by solving the equilibrium equations projected on the subspace
21 generated by the N_b displacement vector snapshots.
22

23 At iteration ($i + 2$), a new approximation of the displacement vector can still
24 be calculated using the reduced order model with the same subspace generated
25 by the first N_b displacement vectors. This process may be applied until the
26 approximate solution using the reduced order model is no longer sufficiently
27 accurate, based, for example, on a threshold on the value of the residual ϵ_{rb} in
28 equation (8), at which point we use (3) to get a *fresh* snapshot vector to replace
29 the *oldest* stored vector and thus refine the basis Φ .
30

31 So whenever the reduced order model is used, we have N_b basis vectors that
32 are only updated as and when the residual exceeds our pre-specified tolerance,
33 by re-running (3) and replacing the *oldest* snapshot vector². When the residual
34 is below the tolerance, we use U_{rb} instead.
35

36 This means that we do not use a *continuously evolving* basis Φ in this work past
37 the *first* N_b iterations (that are used to determine the initial basis), rather our
38 basis is only updated using a fresh FE solution to modify U_{temp} when the error
39 residual ϵ_{rb} in equation (8) is unacceptably high. If the residual is within the
40 tolerance, we re-use the existing Φ .
41

42 ²Refining the basis by discarding the older less relevant information in favor of more recent
43 information is a fairly standard strategy, also used by [23]
44

Algorithm 2 Topology optimization with *on-the-fly* ROM construction

```
1: procedure TOPOPT-ROM
2:   System Initialization (volume fraction, filter, etc)
3:   Pre FEM operations (mesh parameters, load definitions, etc)
4:   while  $iteration \leq N_b$  do
5:      $\mathbf{U}_{temp} \leftarrow$  solution of  $KU = F$ 
6:     if  $iteration = N_b$  then
7:        $\Phi \leftarrow$  calculated from  $\mathbf{U}_{temp}$ 
8:     else
9:        $\mathbf{U}_{rb} \leftarrow$  = solution of  $\Phi^T K \mathbf{U}_{rb} = \Phi^T F$ 
10:       $\epsilon_{rb} \leftarrow \frac{\|\mathbf{K} \mathbf{U}_{rb} - F\|}{\|F\|}$ 
11:      if  $\epsilon_{rb} > \epsilon$  then
12:        Remove oldest snapshot from  $\mathbf{U}_{temp}$ 
13:         $\mathbf{U}_{temp} \leftarrow$  solution of  $KU = F$ 
14:         $\Phi \leftarrow$  calculated from  $\mathbf{U}_{temp}$ 
15:      else
16:         $U \leftarrow U_{rb}$ 
17:      Calculate sensitivities ( $\frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e}$ )
18:      Apply density filtering to calculated sensitivities
19:      update element densities ( $\rho_e$ ).
20:       $iteration = iteration + 1$ 
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9 The basic approach is given in Algorithm 2.

10 In addition, when the reduced basis Φ is used to get U_{rb} , $K_1 \dots K_{N_b}$ and
11 $U_1 \dots U_{N_b}$ are not *continuous* functions of the *current* density ρ_e (having been
12 previously obtained during the basis-changing iterations). This in turn applies
13 to the basis Φ (obtained from the snapshots U_i). So most of the terms in the
14 previously obtained expression will vanish.

15 This ultimately means that we recover the classical expression for the sensitivity
16 for our particular approach.i.e.

$$21 \quad \frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e} = -U_{rb}^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} U_{rb} \quad (21)$$

22 In the next subsection we complete this section by describing the procedure of
23 constructing Φ from the FE solutions $U_1 \dots U_{N_b}$ using PCA.

24 2.4. Construction of ROM (Φ and U_{rb}) using PCA

25 As explained earlier, we map the displacement field quantity of the above
26 large-scale problem (i.e. U) to a low-dimensional space through an appropriate
27 *orthonormal* basis Φ . The higher dimensional data may then be reconstructed
28 by linear combination of the projection coefficients α using (5), thus leading to
29 the reconstruction error in (8). The PCA approach in this paper uses singular
30 value decomposition to calculate Φ using the matrix of the M displacement
31 vector snapshots to minimize this reconstruction error.

32 The basic idea behind 'economical' singular value decomposition (SVD) of a
33 real matrix $\mathbf{D}_{N \times M}$ where $N > M$ is expressing it as under:

$$34 \quad \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T \quad (22)$$

35 where $\mathbf{\Psi}_{N \times M}$ and $\mathbf{V}_{M \times M}$ are both *unitary/orthogonal* matrices and $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{M \times M}$ is
36 a diagonal matrix (i.e. $\Sigma_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$). It can be easily shown that $\mathbf{\Psi}$ is the matrix
37 of eigenvectors of the square covariance matrix $\mathbf{C}^v = \mathbf{D} \mathbf{D}^T$ while the elements
38 along the 'diagonal' of $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ squared are its eigenvalues.

39 Constructing the *centered* snapshot matrix \mathbf{D} using M stored FE solutions
40 centered around the mean snapshot \bar{u} :

$$41 \quad \mathbf{D} = [U_1 - \bar{u} \dots U_M - \bar{u}] \quad (23)$$

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9 gives the reduced basis Φ composed of the first N_b columns of Ψ , where the
10 number of modes N_b is selected according to the energy criterion:
11

$$\epsilon_{PCA} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_b} s_i}{\sum_{j=1}^M s_j} \quad (24)$$

12
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15 Note here that since the actual calculation process here involves a relatively
16 small N_b (total number of snapshots) in the first place, compared to the number
17 of degrees of freedom in the full-field model, we can use all the N_b modes without
18 truncation i.e. $N_b = M$.
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22 Algorithm 2 is then completed with details about the construction of Φ and
23 therefore U_{rb} as shown below in algorithm 3.
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28 **3. Benchmark tests**

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31 To demonstrate the effectiveness of the approach presented in this paper, we
32 first compare the PCA-based approach with an ROM based on Gram-Schmidt
33 orthonormalization [23] for a 2D benchmark compliance minimization problem.
34 Next we use two benchmark 3D tests and minimize the structural compliance
35 with the classical SIMP (Single Isotropic Material with Penalization) assump-
36 tion. The elastic parameters: maximum and minimum (dimensionless) Young's
37 moduli $E_{nominal} = 1$ and $E_{min} = 10^{-9}$, Poisson's ratio $\nu=0.3$. The penalty
38 factor $p=3$ and a density filter radius of 1.5 has been applied in both cases.
39

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42 As an alternative to the frequently used Optimality Criteria approach [46–48]
43 we have used the Method of Moving Asymptotes [49, 50] for the optimization
44 loop in this work. This method is based on a convex representation of the
45 objective function and is conveniently adapted to the problem of topology opti-
46 mization due to its ease of use. The method has already been demonstrated to
47 work very well on a vast variety of topology optimization problems [13, 51], and
48 lends itself to increased scalability due to the separable nature of the convex
49 approximation.
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Algorithm 3 Topology optimization with iterative (PCG) solver and *on-the-fly* reduced basis construction using PCA

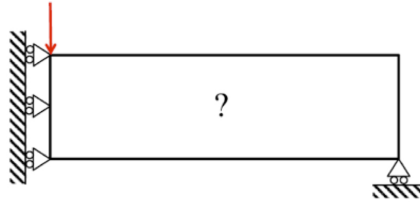
```

1: procedure TOPOPT-PCA
2:   System Initialization (volume fraction, filter, etc)
3:   Pre FEM operations (mesh parameters, load definitions, etc)
4:   while  $iteration \leq N_b$  do
5:      $\mathbf{U}_{temp} \leftarrow$  solution of  $KU = F$ 
6:     if  $iteration = N_b$  then
7:        $\bar{u} \leftarrow$  mean  $(\mathbf{U}_{temp})$ 
8:        $\Phi \leftarrow$   $svd(\mathbf{U}_{temp} - \bar{u})$ 
9:     else
10:       $\alpha \leftarrow$  = solution of  $\Phi^T K \Phi \alpha = \Phi^T F - \Phi^T K \bar{u}$ 
11:       $\epsilon_{rb} \leftarrow \frac{\|K(\Phi\alpha + \bar{u}) - F\|}{\|F\|}$ 
12:      if  $\epsilon_{rb} > \varepsilon$  then
13:        Remove oldest snapshot from  $\mathbf{U}_{temp}$ 
14:         $\mathbf{U}_{temp} \leftarrow$  solution of  $KU = F$ 
15:         $\bar{u} \leftarrow$  mean  $\mathbf{U}_{temp}$ 
16:         $\Phi \leftarrow$   $SVD(\mathbf{U}_{temp} - \bar{U})$ 
17:      else
18:         $U_{rb} \leftarrow \Phi\alpha + \bar{u}$ 
19:        Calculate sensitivities  $(\frac{\partial c}{\partial \rho_e})$ 
20:        Apply filtering to calculated sensitivities
21:        update element densities  $(\rho_e)$ .
22:       $iteration = iteration + 1$ 

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9 *3.1. 2D case : ROM comparison between Gram-Schmidt and PCA*

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11 As has been mentioned in the introductory section, a ROM approach for
12 topology optimization using Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization was proposed
13 in [23]. To compare our proposed approach. i.e. PCA-based on the fly reduced
14 order model, we use the same classical benchmark 2D Messerschmitt-Bolkow-
15 Blohm (MBB) problem (figure 1) to assess computational effort, time and ac-
16 curacy.
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31 Figure 1: 2D Messerschmitt-Bolkow-Blohm (MBB) benchmark problem

32
33 The problem parameters have been set as follows: 150×50 and 600×200
34 (voxel) FE mesh/grid, nominal and minimum (dimensionless) Young's moduli
35 $E_{nominal} = 1$ and $E_{min} = 10^{-9}$, Poisson's ratio=0.3, a maximum allowable vol-
36 ume fraction ν_f of 0.5, a penalization factor $p=3$ and a density filter radius of
37 1.5, with the optimization iterations stopped when the density variation within
38 any of the elements is less than 1%.
39
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42

43 In order to ensure the convergence of each result of every test, we may set a
44 larger value for the maximum number of iterations: here we set 6000, just to be
45 on the safer side. For both reduced order models, the number of PCA modes
46 N_b is selected as 4, residual threshold ϵ_{rb} is selected as 0.01. All these param-
47 eters are fixed, allowing us to change the filter size r_{min} on both convergence
48 speed and accuracy of the objective function. The optimized topology and cor-
49 responding computing results are summarized in the following discussion.
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53 Figure 2 gives the optimal topologies obtained using the reference routine (i.e.
54 without any ROM), the PCA-based reduced order model as well as the Gram-
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Schmidt approach, on a FE mesh of grid resolution 150×50 (resolution given in voxels). From the figure, we can see that the three topologies are visually indistinguishable, which means both ROMs yield almost identical design results to that obtained with the reference full order model in the 2D case.

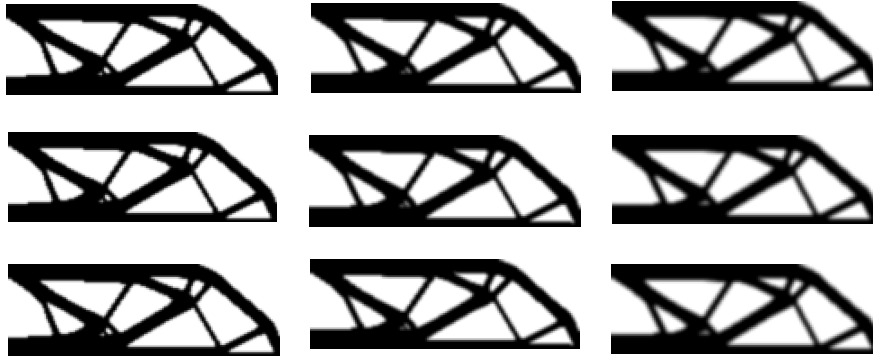


Figure 2: Optimal topologies generated using the Gram-Schmidt with $r_{min} =$ (a) 1.5 (b) 2.0 (c) 2.5, PCA with $r_{min} =$ (d) 1.5 (e) 2.0 (f) 2.5 and reference routine with $r_{min} =$ (g) 1.5 (h) 2.0 (i) 2.5 for 150×50 2D grid

The corresponding results are summarized in Table 1 and figure 3. One can see from Table 1 that various minuscule features (like a tiny hole that appears in the "optimal" topology) fade away before our naked eyes with a slight increase of filter size from 1.5 to 3 for each computation method in each column. However, the boundary of optimal topology for all models gets smoother but fuzzier as we increase the filter size, which may lead to the illusion of the hole getting smaller or even disappearing. We may also draw a conclusion from the table that less optimization time is needed if we use a larger value of filter size (within the adequate range) for any method (reference, PCA and Gram-Schmidt), but larger values of filter size lead to a poorer optimal compliance. It is noteworthy that when using filter size $r_{min}=3$, the performance shows a downtick which indicates us there is an optimal filter size.

Moreover, by comparing the PCA approach and Gram-Schmidt routines, we find

| Method | Filter r_{min} | itrns | Relative error (c) | density variation | Full FE solutions | optimal compliance |
|------------------|---------------------|-------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Reference | 1.5 | 412 | 0 | 0.010 | 412 | 198.0312 |
| | 2.0 | 391 | 0 | 0.010 | 391 | 200.8855 |
| | 2.5 | 224 | 0 | 0.009 | 224 | 208.2528 |
| | 3.0 | 322 | 0 | 0.010 | 322 | 212.4484 |
| PCA | 1.5 | 408 | 0.00191 | 0.009 | 175 | 198.0274 |
| | 2.0 | 394 | 0.0004 | 0.007 | 162 | 200.8847 |
| | 2.5 | 227 | 0.00149 | 0.009 | 89 | 208.2497 |
| | 3.0 | 395 | 0.01483 | 0.010 | 101 | 212.4169 |
| Gram- Schmidt | 1.5 | 402 | 0 | 0.009 | 265 | 198.0312 |
| | 2.0 | 388 | 0.000060 | 0.010 | 246 | 200.8867 |
| | 2.5 | 224 | 0.00173 | 0.008 | 131 | 208.2492 |
| | 3.0 | 643 | 0.04749 | 0.006 | 190 | 212.3475 |

Table 1: Comparison of performance for 150×50 2D grid resolution

that the PCA method requires less optimization time and a remarkably fewer number of full solutions (but more iterations) than the Gram-Schmidt method for the same filter size. This validates the PCA ROM as more efficient than the Gram-Schmidt at each iteration step. As far as accuracy of the final objective function is concerned, PCA and Gram-Schmidt methods are basically similar. If we investigate in detail, the former has a slightly higher precision than the latter. To explain the advantage of the PCA approach over Gram-Schmidt in accuracy, it is instructive to analyze the evolution of the residual throughout the whole iteration process. From figure 3 we can very clearly see that PCA method has a clearly lower residual than the Gram-Schmidt method when solving for intermediate displacement vectors during the entire optimization process.

Under the same control precision of design density (1%, here), PCA approach always converges earlier and has a higher convergence accuracy compared to the Gram-Schmidt method for a given r_{min} , a clear improvement in both effi-

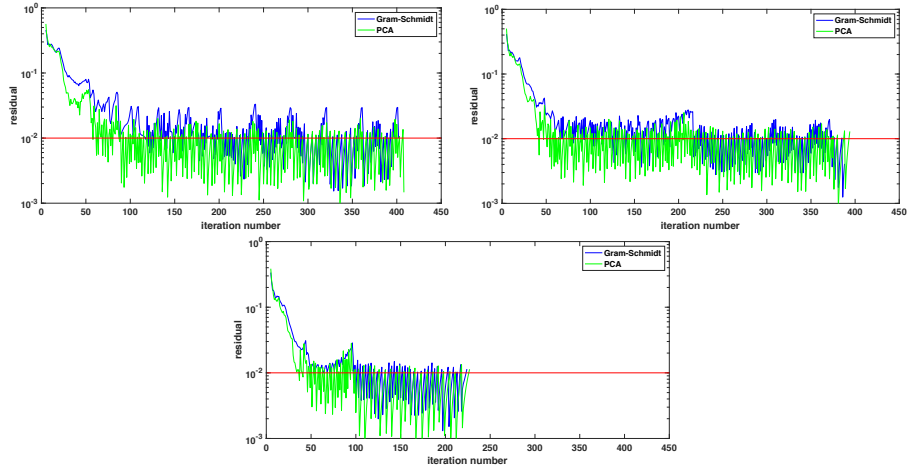


Figure 3: Residual comparison between Gram-Schmidt and PCA with (a) $\epsilon_{rb}=0.1$ $N_b=4$ and (b) $\epsilon_{rb}=0.1$ $N_b=10$ (c) $N_b=40$ $\epsilon_{rb}=0.1$ (d) $N_b=4$ $\epsilon_{rb}=0.05$ and (e) $\epsilon_{rb}=0.05$ $N_b=10$ (f) $\epsilon_{rb}=0.01$ $N_b=4$

ciency and accuracy in this 2D case. We may therefore conclude that the PCA method outperforms the Gram-Schmidt method, at least for this particular 2D benchmark problem.

It is important to note that none of this is counter-intuitive, since the Gram-Schmidt is basically an approximation to the POD with the modes directly obtained from the snapshots by orthonormalization rather than going through the procedure of finding the optimal modes through SVD.

3.2. 3D Case 1 : Simply supported beam

This test-case is a 3D variant of the MBB benchmark problem (figure 4) - a simply supported beam under flexion in 3D.

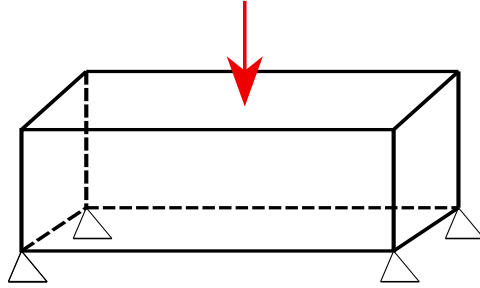


Figure 4: First 3D test-case and boundary conditions.

The optimization iterations have been stopped when the density variation within any of the elements is less than 1% (or when 100 iterations have been completed).

We focus on the influence of varying the ROM error threshold ϵ_{rb} and the number of snapshots N_b used to construct the basis Φ , as well as the scalability of the approach with grid resolution.

3.2.1. Scalability of performance with grid resolution

Four different grids were considered here in increasing order of resolution: a coarse $96 \times 24 \times 64$ grid, a finer $108 \times 27 \times 72$ grid, an even finer grid ($132 \times 33 \times 88$) and a high resolution $156 \times 39 \times 104$. The 3D topology results are shown in figure 5(a) - (d).

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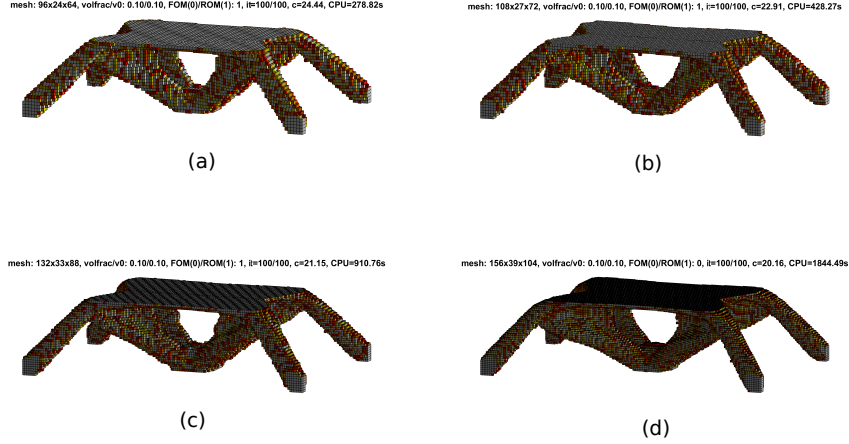


Figure 5: Optimized 3D topologies for the MBB beam problem, using four different grids with increasing resolution (a) $96 \times 24 \times 64$ grid, (b) finer $108 \times 27 \times 72$ grid (c) finer grid ($132 \times 33 \times 88$) and (d) $156 \times 39 \times 104$ obtained using PCA

Figures 6 (a) and (b) compare the traditional (without ROM) topology optimization performance with the PCA-coupled approach, for 100 iterations, and the scalability of the savings, respectively. The break point represents the transition where more calls have been made to the ROM rather than the full-field model. It is immediately evident that the number of function calls to the full-field FEM drops off and stabilizes as the number of calls to the significantly less computationally intensive PCA routine increases gradually (after the first N_b iterations and progressively stabilizes). This leads to a dramatic reduction in computational time and effort as seen from the CPU times required for each case.

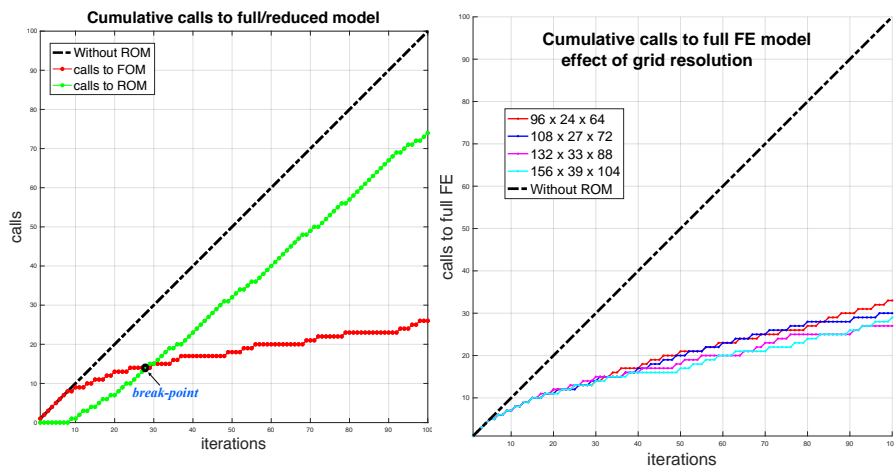


Figure 6: (a) Typical $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grid comparison of computational effort between traditional and PCA approach (b) Scalability of ROM performance with grid size using four different grid resolutions - comparison of computational effort with and without ROM

It is thus clear that coupling the ROM using the on-the-fly calculated PCA basis significantly improves the computational efficiency of the overall optimization routine. This improvement scales up with the grid resolution. Next, we will attempt to identify some "best practices" for choosing appropriate N_b and ϵ_{rb} .

3.2.2. Performance of ROM with varying N_b and ϵ_{rb}

For this parametric study, we have used all the snapshots without truncation of the basis ($N_b = M$). In the first part, we vary N_b (number of modes/snapshots) from 2 to 20, so as to compare the number of calls to the ROM with calls to the full field solution, as earlier. The threshold is fixed at $\epsilon_{rb} = 0.1$. The results are shown in figures 7 (a) and (b) for two different grid resolutions and 8.

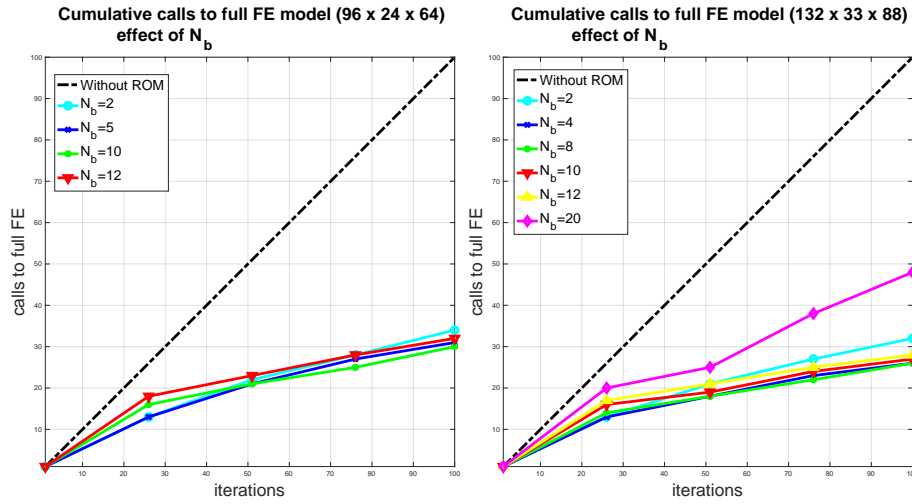


Figure 7: $96 \times 24 \times 64$ and $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grids - comparison of PCA computational effort for different N_b (no truncation) and $\epsilon_{r,b}=0.05$

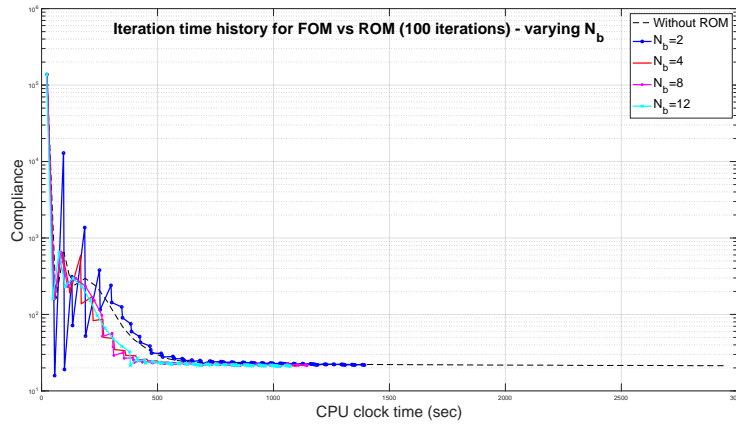


Figure 8: $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grids - Semilog plot comparison of PCA computational effort for different N_b (no truncation) and $\epsilon_{r,b}=0.05$

These results are summarized in table 2. It is interesting that there is no monotonic relationship between N_b and the number of full-field calls, and 10 modes being the ideal basis size for this particular problem.

Figures 9 and 10 show the influence of varying the error threshold $\epsilon_{r,b}$ from 0.01 to 0.2 on the performance of the ROM-coupled topology optimization, when the

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| N_b (modes) | calls to FEM | Calls to ROM | Break point | CPU time (sec) | Compliance |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|------------|
| 2 | 29 | 71 | 24 | 1930.1 | 20.846 |
| 4 | 24 | 76 | 22 | 1748.4 | 20.333 |
| 6 | 22 | 78 | 24 | 1641.1 | 19.72 |
| 8 | 23 | 77 | 28 | 1590.3 | 19.553 |
| 10 | 10 | 90 | 20 | 864.29 | 14.902 |
| 14 | 14 | 86 | 28 | 1064.9 | 15.188 |
| 18 | 36 | 74 | 36 | 2252.5 | 24.678 |
| 20 | 42 | 58 | 40 | 2515.0 | 31.331 |

Table 2: Performance comparison for various N_b over 100 iterations for the first 3D test case (using a $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grid)

number of snapshots/modes N_b is fixed at 5. There is an 'expectedly' monotonic trend in the number of full-field calls with reducing ϵ_{rb} .

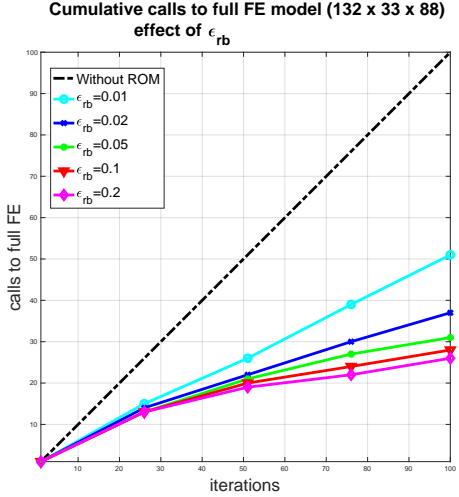


Figure 9: $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grid comparison of PCA computational effort for $N_b = 5$ modes and varying ϵ_{rb} (no truncation)

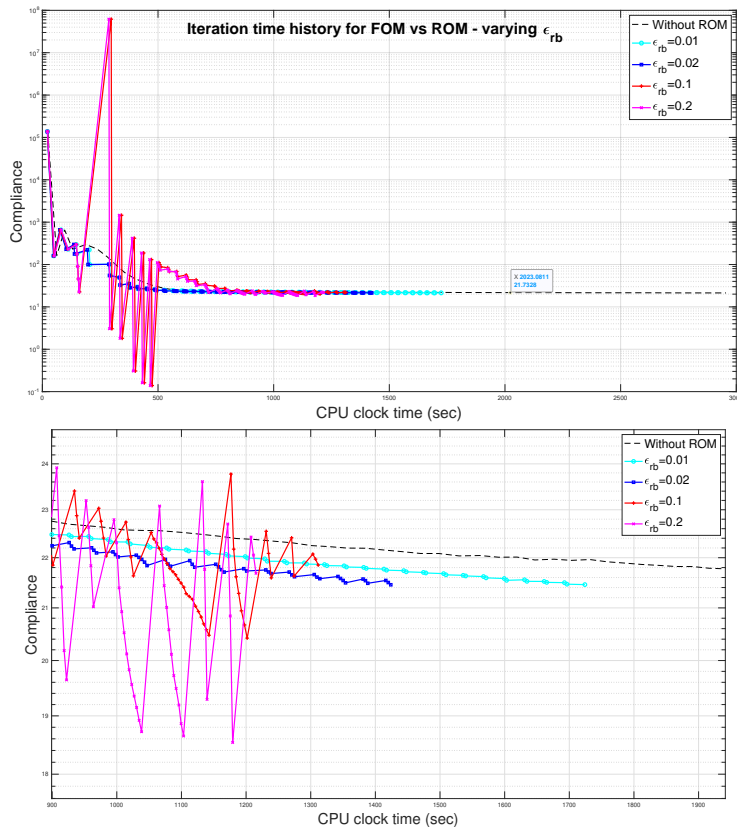


Figure 10: $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grid - Semilog plot comparison of PCA computational effort for different ϵ_{rb} (no truncation) and $N_b=5$ (below) zoomed in to the marked region

The above results are summarized in table 3.

While calls to the ROM/full-field model are a crucial performance indicator, it is important to distinguish between a reduction in full-field calls and a reduction in CPU time. if a full-field call is followed by a single ROM call before we require another full-field call, we have gained nothing from the ROM. The CPU time reduction is therefore the final litmus test for the ROM.

Summing up, the error threshold determines the position of the "break/transition point" where the optimizer makes more calls to the ROM compared to the full field FE solution, since raising ϵ_{rb} increases the admissibility of the ROM solution U_{rb} , thus increasing the number of calls to the ROM while reducing the calls

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| ϵ_{rb} | calls to FEM | Calls to ROM | Break point | CPU time (sec) | Compliance |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|----------------|------------|
| 0.01 | 48 | 52 | 62 | 2506.5 | 20.156 |
| 0.02 | 32 | 68 | 28 | 1931.0 | 20.098 |
| 0.05 | 29 | 71 | 24 | 1815.0 | 20.158 |
| 0.1 | 24 | 76 | 12 | 2018.9 | 20.422 |

Table 3: Performance comparison for various ϵ_{rb} over 100 iterations for the first 3D test case (using a $132 \times 33 \times 88$ grid)

to the full field FEM. However, there is a tradeoff since increasing the threshold beyond a certain point reduces the precision of the solution thus potentially reducing the performance of the procedure. For this particular problem, 0.05 appears to be a reasonably good choice.

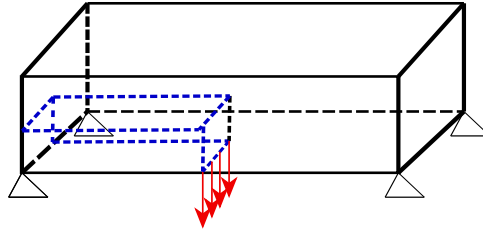
One would expect increasing N_b to improve the ROM but this is not necessarily the case. By increasing N_b we increase the amount of information in the ROM but also the number of less relevant modes, leading to a loss of efficacy. The number of modes to be retained for this particular problem appears to be around 10 where both computational efficiency and precision are both simultaneously maximized. Too few (or too many) modes retained will reduce the performance of the ROM, at least for this case.

3.3. 3D Case 2 : MBB beam

We next consider another classical 3D benchmark topology optimization test-case: the original Messerschmitt-Bolkow-Blohm/MBB problem in 3D. The boundary conditions of the beam are given in Figure 11. Just like in the previous test-case, we study the effect of N_b , ϵ_{rb} and grid resolution (for scalability). The elastic parameters are the same as before, i.e. Young’s moduli (maximum and minimum), Poisson’s ratio. v_{frac} is chosen as 0.1, the penalization = 3, and the density filter radius is 0.5.

In addition, three different maximum allowable volume fractions v_{frac} have been

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9 considered: 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3.
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25 Figure 11: Boundary conditions for the second test-case: 3D MBB beam problem.
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28 As in the previous test-case, we will focus on the influence of different v_{frac}
29 $((\sum_1^N v_e)/V)$, ROM error threshold ϵ_{rb} and the number of snapshots N_b used
30 to construct the basis Φ , as well as the scalability with grid resolution.
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33 34 35 *3.3.1. Performance and scalability of ROM* 36

37 Three different grid resolutions (in voxels) were considered in this work: a
38 fairly coarse $12 \times 12 \times 72$ grid, a finer $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid and (c) very fine grid
39 $48 \times 48 \times 288$.
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41 The volume fraction $v_{frac}=0.1$ here.
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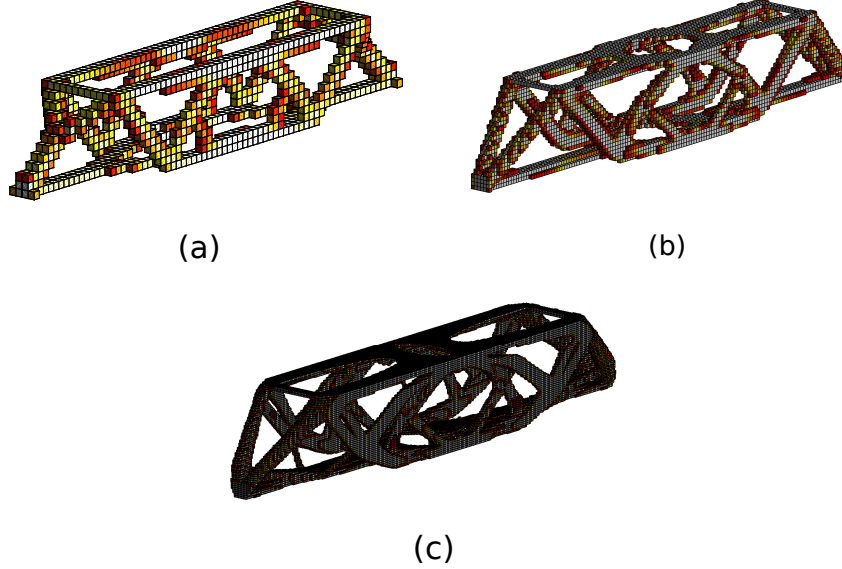


Figure 12: Comparing optimized 3D topologies for the MBB beam problem, using three different grids with increasing resolution (a) coarse $12 \times 12 \times 72$ grid, (b) finer $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid) and (c) very fine grid ($48 \times 48 \times 288$) obtained using PCA

Figure 12 shows the optimized topologies generated by the TopOpt-PCA algorithm, which are, as expected, visually indistinguishable from those obtained without using the ROM. The results are shown in Figure 13.

3.3.2. Performance of ROM with varying N_b and ϵ_{rb}

In the first part, we have used all the snapshots without truncation of the basis, and varied N_b (number of modes/snapshots) from 2 to 20, and compared the number of calls to the ROM with calls to the full field solution, with the threshold $\epsilon_{rb} = 0.1$ (fixed). In the second part, we show the influence of varying the error threshold ϵ_{rb} from 0.02 to 0.1 on the performance of the ROM-coupled topology optimization routine. The number of snapshots/modes N_b here is fixed at 8.

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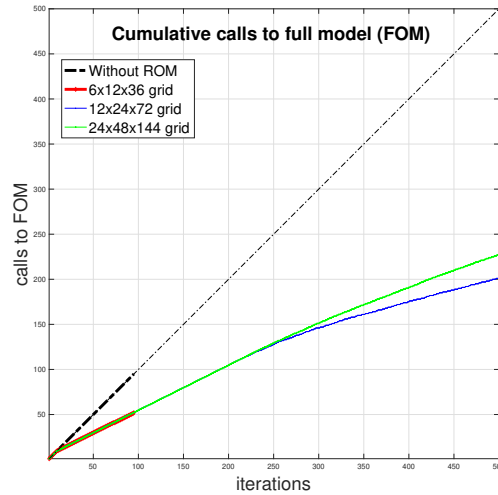


Figure 13: Comparing number of function calls to FE solver vs PCA using $N_b = 4$ modes (10 total snapshots) and $\epsilon_{rb} = 0.1$ for three grids with increasing resolution)

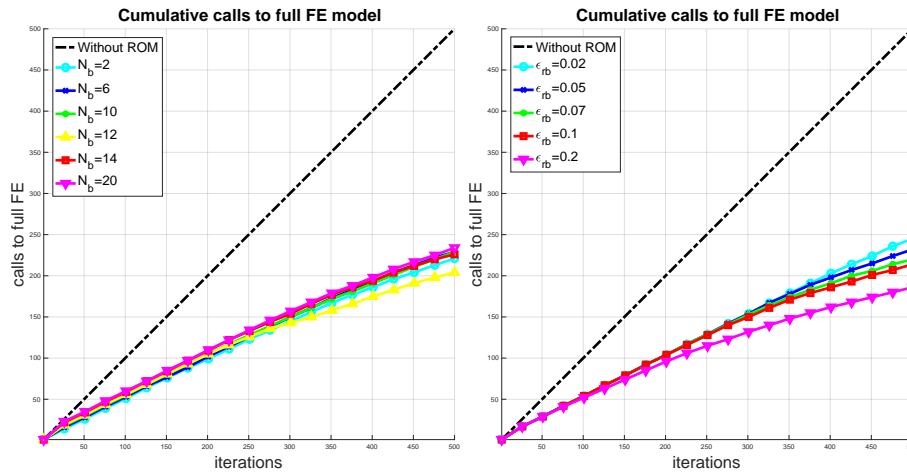


Figure 14: Performance of PCA varying (a) N_b (without truncation and $\epsilon_{rb} = 0.01$) and (b) ϵ_{rb} (using $N_b = 8$ modes) on a $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid

The results are shown in figures 14. with a summary given in tables 4 and 5. From the above results, it is clear that N_b and ϵ_{rb} are vital parameters, that are unfortunately problem and grid resolution dependent.

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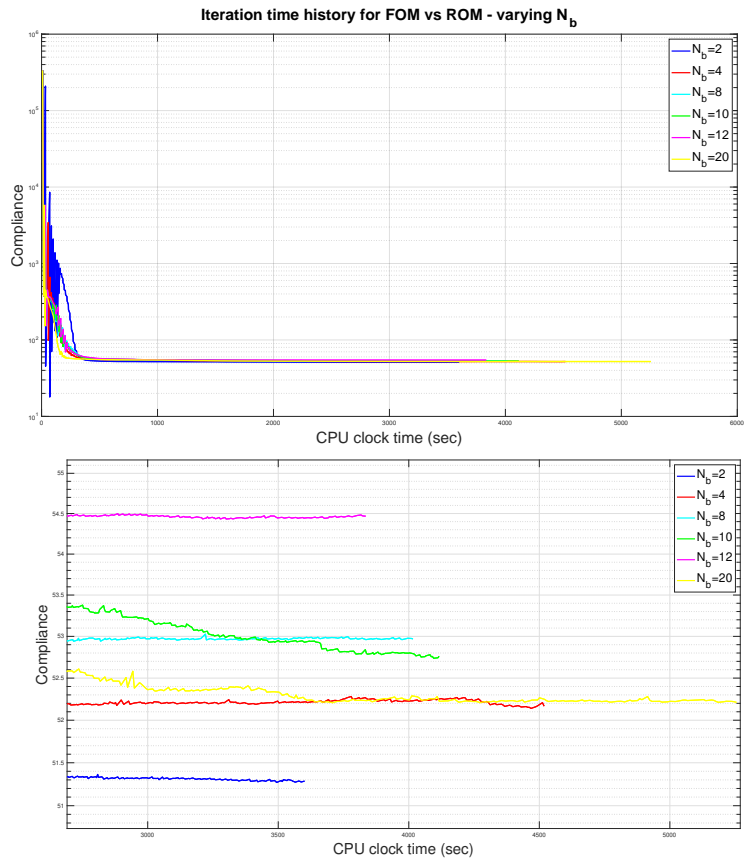


Figure 15: $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid - Semilog plot comparison of PCA computational effort for different N_b (no truncation) and $\epsilon_{rb}=0.01$

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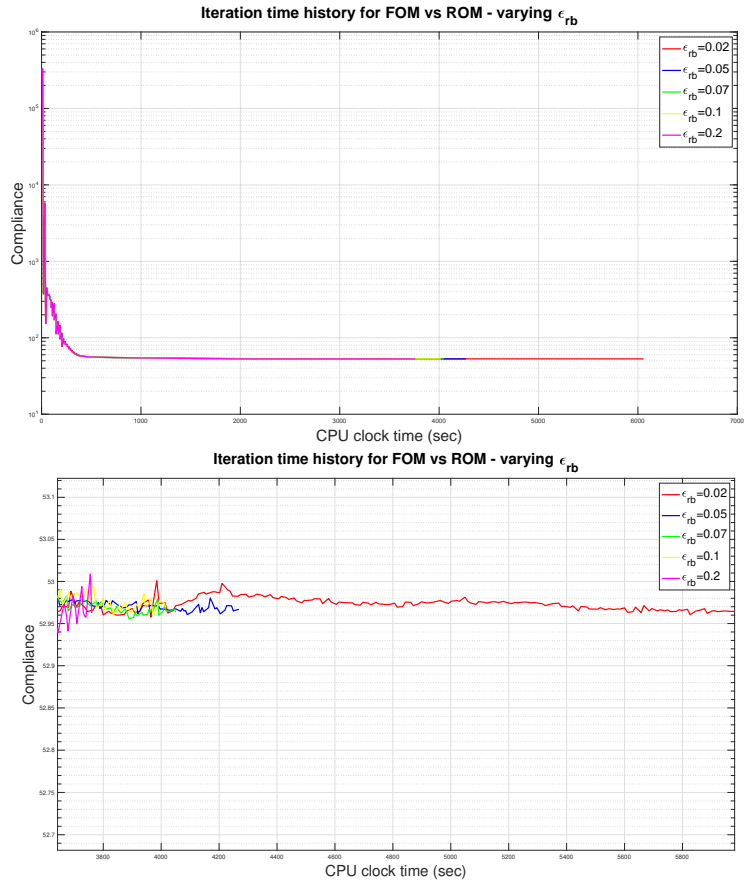


Figure 16: $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid - Semilog plot comparison of PCA computational effort for different ϵ_{rb} and $N_b=8$ modes

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| N_b (modes) | calls to FEM | Calls to ROM | Break point | CPU time (sec) | Compliance |
|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|------------|
| 2 | 279 | 221 | 144 | 3591.6 | 51.286 |
| 4 | 285 | 215 | 254 | 4509.6 | 52.166 |
| 6 | 271 | 229 | 236 | 4002.0 | 52.963 |
| 8 | 286 | 214 | 292 | 4006.2 | 52.969 |
| 10 | 271 | 229 | 292 | 4107.3 | 52.761 |
| 14 | 277 | 223 | 272 | 4317.7 | 52.130 |
| 18 | 274 | 226 | 356 | 4348.7 | 52.186 |
| 20 | 266 | 234 | 374 | 5246.6 | 52.211 |

Table 4: Performance comparison for various N_b for 500 iterations for the second 3D test case (using a $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid)

3.3.3. Effect of material volume fraction

Finally, we consider three different $v_{frac}=0.1, 0.2$ and 0.3 in order to study the evolution of the computational savings with increasing material volume fraction. The results are shown in figure 17 below:

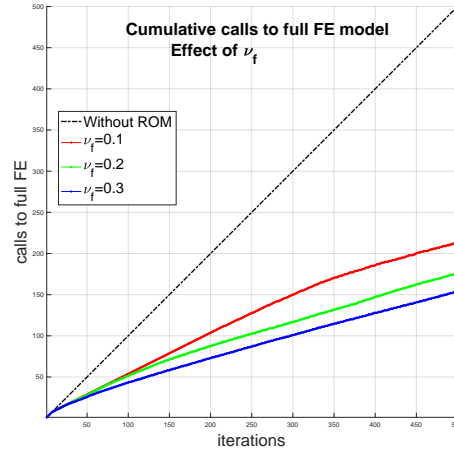


Figure 17: ROM (PCA using $N_b = 8$ modes without truncation and $\epsilon_{r,b} = 0.1$) performance for three different volume fractions (v_{frac}) 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 on a $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid

The corresponding optimized topologies are shown below in figure 18:

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| ϵ_{rb} | calls to FEM | Calls to ROM | Break point | CPU time (sec) | Compliance |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|----------------|------------|
| 0.02 | 245 | 255 | 434 | 6047.5 | 52.969 |
| 0.05 | 232 | 268 | 378 | 4258.3 | 52.967 |
| 0.07 | 220 | 280 | 336 | 4040.7 | 52.964 |
| 0.1 | 214 | 276 | 292 | 4006.2 | 52.969 |
| 0.2 | 186 | 314 | 124 | 3750.4 | 52.962 |

Table 5: Performance comparison for various ϵ_{rb} for 500 iterations for the second 3D test case (using a $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid)

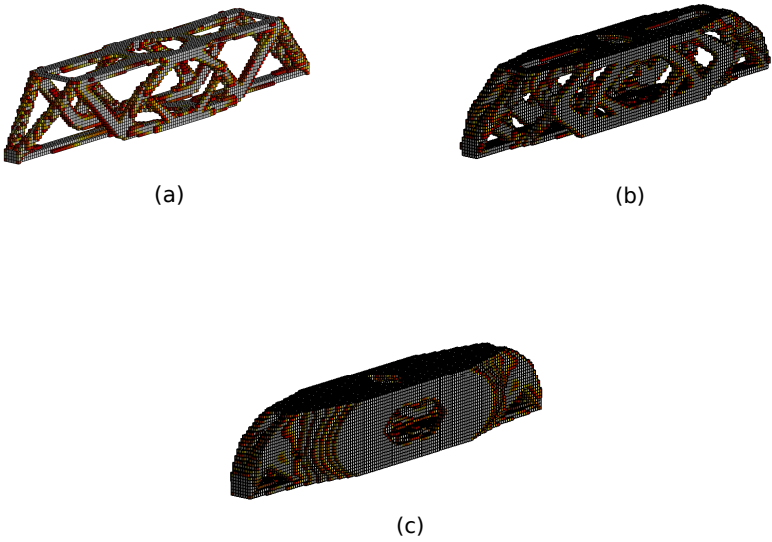


Figure 18: 3D topologies for the three volume fractions (a) 0.1, (b) 0.2 and (c) 0.3 on a $24 \times 24 \times 144$ grid

It is interesting to note that the material volume fraction has a striking influence on the ROM performance. As we increase material volume fraction, the proportion of calls to the ROM increases. In [51], it is noted that for low

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9 v_{frac} (i.e. below 10%) the convergence of the topology optimization routine
10 becomes more tedious due to oscillations. The benefit of using the ROM is in
11 being able to avoid unnecessary full-field calculations by extracting the most
12 relevant modes (of the density map).
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15 16 *3.4. Discussion* 17

18 The PCA algorithm significantly enhances the performance of the topology
19 optimization routine with a significant reduction in computational effort and
20 CPU time in all test-cases investigated. We note that the improvement in
21 performance scales up with the grid resolution. It is also clear that there is an
22 improvement in the reduction in computational effort as we increase the volume
23 fraction - though this may simply be because the higher volume fraction problem
24 would be expected to converge faster .
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27 A conceivably less obvious advantage of the 'on-the-fly' ROM, applied to the
28 displacement vector, with constant monitoring for precision using the full-field
29 model as a stand-by, very likely allows for a basis size (N_b)-independence of
30 the optimized density map. It stands to reason that if ϵ_{rb} were inflated to an
31 unreasonable level, we would lose this benefit.
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39 **4. Perspectives: Extension of approach to non self-adjoint problems** 40

41 We have, in this paper, focussed on developing an ROM approach for self-
42 adjoint problems, with a primary focus on the popular compliance minimization.
43 Consider now a typical compliant mechanism design problem (shown in figure
44 19) The input end A is subjected to a horizontal concentrated load $F_{in}= 100$
45 towards the right. Our objective is to maximize the displacement u_{out} of output
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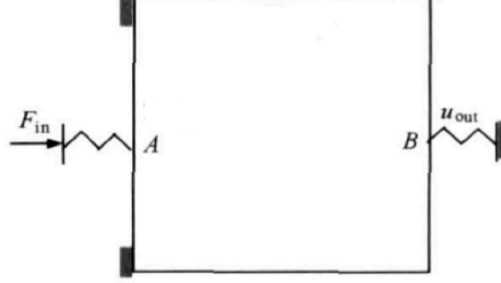


Figure 19: Displacement-inverter topology optimization problem

NOTE: Here, we consider the simplest possible type of compliant mechanism in which the displacement (U_{out}) is prescribed at a given node or set of nodes using the sparse vector \tilde{L} .

The optimization problem may then be posed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\max_{\rho} U_{out}(\rho) &= \tilde{L}^T U = \tilde{L}^T (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) \\
\text{such that } &\Phi^T K (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) = F \\
&\sum_{e=1}^N v_e \rho_e = v_{frac} V < V \\
&\rho_e \in [0, 1], \quad e = 1, \dots, N
\end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

Following subsections 2.2 and 2.3:

$$\mathcal{L}(\rho, \mu, \lambda) = \tilde{L}^T K (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) - \mu^T \Phi^T [K (\Phi \alpha + \bar{u}) - F] - \sum_{i=1}^{N_b} \lambda_i^T (K_i U_i - F) \tag{26}$$

Using the same reasoning in subsection 2.3, for the on-the-fly updation strategy the basis Φ is not a continuously evolving function of ρ_e , we state that $\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \rho}$, $\frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \rho}$ as well as the last two terms in the derivative vanish giving:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \rho_e} = (\tilde{L}^T \Phi - \mu^T \Phi^T K \Phi) \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial \rho_e} - \mu^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} U_{rb} \tag{27}$$

We choose μ such that:

$$(\Phi^T K \Phi) \mu = K_{rb} \mu = \Phi^T \tilde{L} \tag{28}$$

where K_{rb} is the reduced stiffness matrix from (10), allowing for inexpensive inversion, this giving us the simple expression for the reduced sensitivity :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \rho_e} = -\mu^T \Phi^T \frac{\partial K}{\partial \rho_e} U_{rb} \quad (29)$$

The solution of (28) is then used to calculate the reduced sensitivity from (29). But the system in (28) has reduced dimensionality compared to (3), indicating that we now have a single reduced-order system with two load cases to solve.

We now apply both the above modified “on-the-fly” POD ROM as well as the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization [23] and investigate the influence of the type of ROM, N_b and ϵ_{rb} on the results obtained for a displacement inverter. v_{frac} is set as 0.3 and the MMA algorithm is used for the optimization. Material elastic modulus is 1, the minimum (void) elastic modulus is 10^{-9} and Poisson ratio is 0.3. The SIMP penalty factor is 3, the filter radius is 1.5 (using sensitivity filtering). Optimization terminates when the maximum elemental density variation $< 0.1\%$ or 400 iterations have been completed.

In the design domain shown, the upper and lower ends on the left are simply supported, middle nodes of the left and right boundaries are input (load) end and output end (displacement) respectively. The structure is discretized by 100×100 square elements of unit volume. Linear springs simulate the structural stiffness of the input end and output end ($k_{in} = k_{out} = 1$). Figure 20 shows the optimal topologies of the reference model, POD and Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization (simply referred to as G-S) ROMs for $N_b=5$, $\epsilon_{rb}=0.01$.

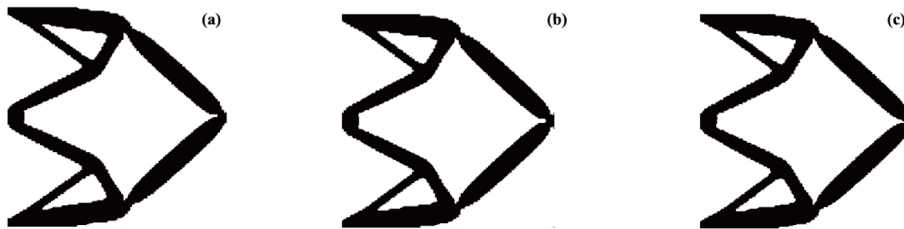


Figure 20: Optimal topologies obtained (a) without ROM (b) G-S and (c) POD

The optimal topology obtained using the POD model is almost the same as that of G-S model as well as the reference model, by visual inspection, satisfying the property of vertical symmetry and the requirements of mechanical properties as well as actual processing and manufacturing, indicating that the proposed method can meet the requirements of high-accuracy design.

Table 6 compares the results of the two ROMs (POD and G-S) by varying ϵ_{rb}

| Method | ϵ_{rb} | N_b | calls to ROM | calls to full FE | CPU time (s) | speedup | relative error (c) |
|-----------|-----------------|-------|--------------|------------------|--------------|---------|--------------------|
| Reference | - | - | 0 | 400 | 132.43 | 1 | 0 |
| G-S | 0.01 | 5 | 337 | 63 | 96.48 | 1.37 | 0.35 |
| | | 10 | 330 | 70 | 106.18 | 1.25 | 0.23 |
| | | 40 | 315 | 85 | 116.77 | 1.13 | 0.20 |
| | 0.001 | 5 | 228 | 172 | 105.03 | 1.26 | 0.12 |
| | | 10 | 156 | 244 | 120.78 | 1.10 | 0.05 |
| | | 40 | 181 | 219 | 127.49 | 1.04 | 0.11 |
| PCA | 0.01 | 5 | 351 | 49 | 90.3 | 1.47 | 0.27 |
| | | 10 | 346 | 54 | 103.63 | 1.28 | 0.09 |
| | | 40 | 326 | 74 | 115.59 | 1.15 | 0.06 |
| | 0.001 | 5 | 279 | 121 | 102.73 | 1.29 | 0.18 |
| | | 10 | 263 | 137 | 108.74 | 1.22 | 0.07 |
| | | 40 | 259 | 141 | 134.57 | 0.98 | 0.02 |

Table 6: Performance comparison of G-S ROM and POD ROM (with reference)

and N_b . From table 6, we see that for the same ROM parameters (N_b and ϵ_{rb}), there are significantly more calls to the POD ROM than the G-S, particularly for smaller values of ϵ_{rb} , not to mention the ROM is used far more frequently than the full field solution. We again note that CPU time is not necessarily proportional to the number of full FE calls, since oversampling could potentially increase the cost of updating the reduced basis, and any reduction in full FE calls can no longer make up for the time gap. The top speed-up for the POD

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9 ROM is 1.47 (corresponding to 1.37 for the G-S), and time saving is about 32%
10 (against 27% for the G-S) and for low N_b and high ϵ_{rb} , the optimization effi-
11 ciency is higher.
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15 16 17 **Conclusions**

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19 In this paper we have presented an approach for efficient large scale topology
20 optimization based on coupling of topology optimization with reduced order
21 modeling by Principal Components Analysis, using on-the-fly construction of
22 the reduced basis with a database of previously calculated solutions of the FE
23 equations.
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26 Topology optimization coupled with on-the-fly PCA calculated basis is seen to
27 significantly outperform the classical approach. It is important to note that we
28 avoid storage of the "temporary" stiffness matrices and basis vectors during the
29 "basis changing" iterations, which means that the storage requirement is signif-
30 icantly reduced compared to previous methods. The PCA approach showed a
31 significant reduction in computational effort over the traditional full field solu-
32 tion approach. The improvement in performance scales well with the size of the
33 problem.
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36 While we have focused on the compliance minimization problem, the current
37 method should be applicable to virtually any self-adjoint topology optimization
38 problem, regardless of the particular physics involved.
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41 Another obvious area of immediate work is using high performance computing
42 and non-intrusive asynchronous PCA to obtain additional improvement in the
43 computational time and effort needed.
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46 Finally, a formal extension of the approach to general non-self adjoint problems
47 is a key area of future research.
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9 **Conflict of Interest**

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11 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no
12 conflict of interest.
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15 **Replication of results**

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17 The source codes in this work are an evolution of the 88-line Matlab code,
18 according to the proposed methodology, along with the definition of test cases,
19 which allow to reproduce the numerical results presented in this paper. These
20 codes could be made available on request by emailing the corresponding author.
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