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On the influence of optimization algorithm and initial design on wing aerodynamic shape optimization

Yin Yu, Zhoujie Lyu, Zelu Xu, Joaquim R.R.A. Martins*

University of Michigan, Department of Aerospace Engineering, United States

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: Aerodynamic shape optimization Wing design Computational fluid dynamics Aerodynamic shape optimization is a useful tool in wing design, but the impact of the choice of optimization algorithm and the multimodality of the design space in wing design optimization is still poorly understood. To address this, we benchmark both gradient-based and gradient-free optimization algorithms for computational fluid dynamics based aerodynamic shape optimization problems based on the Common Research Model wing geometry. The aerodynamic model solves the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes equations with a Spalart-Allmaras turbulence model. The drag coefficient is minimized subject to lift, pitching moment, and geometry constraints, with up to 720 shape variables and 11 twist variables for two mesh sizes. We benchmark six gradient-based and three gradient-free algorithms by comparing both the accuracy of the optima and the computational cost. Most of the optimizers reach similar optima, but the gradient-based methods converge to more accurate solutions at a much lower computational cost. Since multimodality and nonsmoothness of the design space are common arguments for the use of gradient-free methods, we investigate these issues by solving the same optimization problem starting from a series of randomly generated initial geometries, as well as a wing based on the NACA 0012 airfoil with zero twist and constant thickness-to-chord ratio. All the optimizations consistently converge to practically identical results, where the differences in drag are within 0.05%, and the shapes and pressure distributions are very similar. Our overall conclusion is that the design space for wing design optimization with a fixed planform is largely convex, with a very small flat region that is multimodal because of numerical errors. However, this region is so small, and the differences in drag so minor, that the design space can be considered unimodal for all practical purposes.

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1. Introduction

The aerodynamic shape optimization of transonic aircraft wings has long been a difficult and expensive task. Small changes in shape can have a large impact on aerodynamic performance, and therefore the optimization requires hundreds of design variables [1]. Thus, aerodynamic shape optimization based on computational fluid dynamics (CFD) can be costly.

Aerodynamic shape optimization problems can be solved with gradient-based or gradient-free methods. Gradient-based methods are preferable when an efficient gradient evaluation is available [2]. The application of gradient-based optimization to this problem was pioneered in the 1970s, with gradients computed using finitedifference approximations [3]. As the number of design variables increases, the cost of this computation becomes prohibitive. Adjoint methods were developed to address this issue; they provide

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: jrram@umich.edu (J.R.R.A. Martins).

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a way to evaluate the gradients with a cost that is independent of the number of design variables. Peter and Dwight [4] reviewed these and other methods for computing aerodynamic shape derivatives. Martins and Hwang [5] generalized the adjoint method and discussed its connection to other derivative evaluation methods.

Pironneau pioneered the use of adjoint-based gradient calculation in airfoil profile optimization by deriving the adjoint for the Stokes equations [6] and for the incompressible Euler equations [7]. Jameson [8] then made the adjoint method useful in the design of transonic airfoils by developing an adjoint for inviscid compressible flow. The aerodynamic design of transonic wings requires a model that can represent the shock-wave boundary layer interaction, since there is a strong nonlinear coupling between airfoil shape, wave drag, and viscous effects. Therefore, transonic wing optimization based on the Euler equation performs poorly when analyzed in turbulent flow [9,10].

The adjoint method was later extended to the compressible Navier–Stokes equations with turbulence models, making it possible to solve practical aerodynamic design problems. Jameson et al. [11] optimized a wing-body configuration modeled with the

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Y. Yu et al. / Aerospace Science and Technology ••• (••••) •••-•••

compressible Navier–Stokes equations using a continuous adjoint approach. They used a 590k-cell mesh and achieved a shock-free solution at Mach 0.86. Anderson and Venkatakrishnan [12] optimized airfoil shapes using a discrete adjoint that included the linearization of the Spalart–Allmaras turbulence model. Nielsen and Anderson [13] further extended the approach to the threedimensional Reynolds-averaged Navier–Stokes (RANS) equations. They achieved an 8% drag reduction for the ONERA M6 wing with thickness and camber design variables at two chordwise locations. Dwight and Brezillon [14] and [15] optimized the DLR-F6 wingbody configuration using a RANS solver and a discrete adjoint, achieving a 10-count drag reduction by varying 96 design variables.

14 Lyu et al. [9] developed a discrete adjoint for the RANS equa-15 tions and Spalart-Allmaras turbulence model using automatic dif-16 ferentiation to construct the required derivative terms. They used 17 this adjoint implementation to perform aerodynamic shape opti-18 mizations of the ONERA M6 wing with 192 design variables for 19 both the Euler and RANS models. They observed significant dif-20 ferences between the optimal shapes obtained with Euler and 21 RANS, which emphasized the importance of including the viscous 22 compressible effects in transonic aerodynamic shape design. The 23 framework developed by Lyu et al. [9] has since been used in a 24 variety of applications and studies [16–20]. Telidetzki et al. [21] 25 performed a series of high-fidelity aerodynamic shape optimiza-26 tions using a parallel Newton-Krylov-Schur method based on the 27 Euler or RANS equations. They demonstrated the effectiveness of 28 the gradient-based aerodynamic shape optimization methodology, 29 obtaining significant drag reductions in all their cases. Chen et al. 30 [18] performed RANS-based aerodynamic shape optimization on a 31 common research model (CRM) wing-body-tail configuration. El-32 ham [22] presented a quasi-three-dimensional method for wing 33 aerodynamic analysis and drag prediction. They used a combina-34 tion of the adjoint method, the chain rule for differentiation, and 35 automatic differentiation to compute the gradients. Drela [23,24] 36 performed a constrained shape optimization on two-dimensional 37 airfoils, using the Newton-based direct method to generate sensi-38 tivity information from inviscid Euler equations.

39 The gradient-free methods are generally easier to implement 40 and use, and several of them are geared toward finding global op-41 tima. However, they incur a higher computational cost compared 42 with gradient-based methods, especially when costly high-fidelity 43 simulations are involved. Genetic algorithms (GA) and their deriva-44 tives are among the most widely used gradient-free methods to-45 day [25,26]. GAs are particularly suitable for problems with discon-46 tinuous objective functions, discrete design variables, or multiple 47 local optima, i.e., multimodal functions. He and Agarwal [27] per-48 formed aerodynamic shape optimization of a wind turbine blade 49 airfoil using a multiobjective GA.

50 There have been a few studies of the performance of different 51 optimizers for aerodynamic shape optimization. Zingg et al. [28] 52 compared gradient-based methods and a GA in aerodynamic air-53 foil optimization. They found that the GA used 5 to 200 times 54 more function evaluations than the gradient-based method to find 55 the optimum design. They suggested that GAs are better suited for 56 low-fidelity preliminary design, while gradient-based methods are 57 preferable for high-fidelity detailed design. Obayashi and Tsukahara 58 [29] compared a gradient-based method with simulated annealing 59 and a GA on an airfoil lift maximization problem. The GA required 60 the highest number of function evaluations but achieved the best 61 design.

Gradient-based methods can converge to a local minimum when the objective or constraint functions involved are multimodal. Holst and Pulliam [30] and Sasaki et al. [31] both used GAs for airfoil and wing optimization cases, and they found no evidence of multimodality. Chernukhin and Zingg [32] compared

67 the performance of a gradient-based method, a GA, and a hybrid approach on a two-dimensional airfoil shape optimization and 68 69 three-dimensional wing optimizations based on the Euler equations. While they concluded that the airfoil design problem was 70 unimodal, they found multiple local optima for the wing case. In 71 72 addition to twist and airfoil shape variables, the wing optimization cases included planform variables (chord variation, sweep, and di-73 74 hedral). The physical significance of these multiple local optima is 75 compromised by the fact that no viscous effects were considered. 76 Therefore, variations in surface area and local chord do not affect 77 drag as they would in the real design problem, leading to a de-78 sign space that is completely different from the true physical one. 79 Furthermore, dihedral has a weak influence on the aerodynamic 80 forces, and letting dihedral vary without a penalty on the viscous 81 drag leads to designs that are not realistic. A more recent study by 82 Bons et al. [33] has started to address multimodality with respect 83 to planform variables as well.

84 Lyu et al. [10] solved the AIAA Aerodynamic Design Optimiza-85 tion Discussion Group (ADODG) CRM wing using a gradient-based RANS solver.¹ This problem involves a lift-constrained drag mini-86 87 mization, where the design variables are the spanwise twist distribution and airfoil shapes. They achieved a 8.5% drag reduction 88 89 using a multilevel optimization approach, and they addressed mul-90 timodality concerns by starting the same optimization problem 91 from randomly generated initial geometries. They observed multiple local optima around a small region, but these were close 92 together and exhibited similar drag values. Other researchers have 93 94 also tackled this problem. Dumont and Méheut [34] analyzed the optimal geometries obtained by Lyu et al. [10] with their solver 95 96 and independently verified the performance of this design, adding further insight using their drag decomposition tool. Lee et al. [35] 97 98 obtained similar results and did not report multiple local minima 99 for this problem. Shi-Dong et al. [36] also solved the ADODG CRM 100 wing and concluded that all the results point to a unimodal design 101 space for the CRM wing. Finally, Koo and Zingg [37] performed an-102 other study of the ADODG CRM case, and they concluded that it 103 does not have multiple local optima.

Motivated by the work cited above, our goals are twofold: we compare various gradient-based and gradient-free optimizers, and we examine the issue of multiple local minima more closely. We focus on the ADODG CRM design optimization mentioned above, which does not include planform design variables [10]. Once the planform is allowed to vary, many other issues arise, and it is difficult to obtain a meaningful design optimization problem without considering other aircraft design aspects, such as structural weight and stability. We benchmark several optimization algorithms using a wing twist optimization problem and a wing shape problem. Six of the optimizers are gradient-based and three are gradient-free.

To examine the issue of multiple local minima, we perform various optimizations starting from several random initial points. We also use an initial geometry that has the planform of a CRM wing but with zero initial twist and a NACA 0012 airfoil. We go beyond the study of Lyu et al. [10] by trying different variations in the design variable set. We also look more closely at the cluster of close local minima by using even smaller convergence tolerances and by performing a grid refinement.

2. Numerical tools

We now describe the numerical methods and tools that are used for this study. These tools are a subset of the multidisciplinary design optimization (MDO) framework of aircraft configurations with high fidelity (MACH) [38]. MACH can perform the si120

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¹ https://info.aiaa.org/tac/ASG/APATC/AeroDesignOpt-DG.

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