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# A new interpolation technique to deal with fluid-porous media interfaces for topology optimization of heat transfer

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### Abstract

This paper proposes a new interpolation technique based on density approach to solve topology optimization problems for heat transfer. Problems are modeled under the assumptions of steady-state laminar flow using the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations coupled to the convection-diffusion equation through the Boussinesq approximation. The governing equations are discretized using finite volume elements and topology optimization is performed using adjoint sensitivity analysis. Material distribution and effective conductivity are interpolated by two sigmoid functions respectively  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  and  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$  in order to provide a continuous transition between the solid and the fluid domains. Comparison with standard interpolation function of the literature (RAMP function) shows a smaller transition zone between the fluid and the solid thereby, avoiding some regularization techniques. In order to validate the new method, numerical applications are investigated on some cases from the literature, namely the single pipe and the bend pipe. Lastly, as

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two new parameters are introduced thanks to the interpolation functions, we study their impact on results of the optimization problem. The study shows that the proposed technique is a viable approach for designing geometries and fluid-porous media interfaces are well-defined.

*Keywords:* Topology optimization, Heat transfer, Interpolation function, Sigmoid function, Continuous adjoint method, Finite volume method

# 1 1. Introduction

Since its introduction by Bendsoe and Sigmund [1] for solid mechanics problems, topology optimization has become a powerful and increasingly popular tool for designers and engineers for design process. Topology optimization is a material distribution method for finding the optimal structure, for a given problem subject to design constraints. Contrarily to shape optimization where the topology (i.e. the number of boundaries and connectivity) is predetermined, topology optimization allows introduction of new boundaries during the design process.

Topology optimization was pioneered for Stokes flow by Borrvall and Petersson [4]. They introduced a friction term yielding the generalized Stokes equations. Gersborg-Hansen [9] and Olesen et al. [8] extended topology optimization for fluid flow problems to the Navier-Stokes equations.

In topology optimization, the material distribution is parametrized by defining a design variable  $\alpha \in \{0; 1\}$ . This variable is discrete and should either represent solid material ( $\alpha = 1$ ) or fluid ( $\alpha = 0$ ). A common approach to solve the topology optimization problem with this discrete value as optimization parameter, is to change it into a continuous one by introducing a

porous media with a continuous permeability variable for each element. This 19 method, known as the Brinkman penalization, leads to a problem where flow 20 and (almost) non-flow regions are developed by allowing interpolation be-21 tween the lower and upper value of permeability. Generally, authors used 22 the density interpolation function proposed by Borrvall and Petersson [4] 23 or a reformulated version of their convex and q-parametrized interpolation 24 function. The parameter q > 0 is a penalty parameter that is used to con-25 trol the level of 'gray' in the optimal design. However, authors had also 26 experienced problems with locally optimal solutions. Therefore, they con-27 sidered a two-steps solution procedure where the problem was first solved 28 with a small penalty value of q = 0.01 for example and then the result is 29 used as initial case for the problem with a penalty value of q = 0.1 [4, 8] 30 or q = 1 [15]. The mathematical foundation of the interpolation of  $\alpha$  was 31 further investigated by Evgrafov [14] where the limiting cases of pure fluid 32 and solid were included. Brinkman approach has since been used for several 33 problems as transport problem [28], reactive [32] and transient flows [33, 3], 34 fluid-structure interaction [36] and also flows driven by body forces [37]. 35

A variation of the approach is presented by Guest and Prevost [2]. They 36 proposed to regularize the solid-fluid structure by treating the material phase 37 as a porous medium where fluid flow is governed by Darcy's law. In their 38 approach, flows through voids are governed by Stokes flow and, when the 39 solid phase is impermeable, discrete no-slip condition is simulated by assign-40 ing a low permeability to the solid phase. There exists other alternatives 41 to Brinkman penalization in the literature. The level set approach to topol-42 ogy optimization has been applied to fluid flows problems [34, 46, 41], and 43

recently the level set approach was combined with the extended finite element method (XFEM) by Kreissl and Maute [5] and by Jenkins et al. [40].
The main drawback of the level set appraoch is the constraint of remeshing
throughout the optimization process.

The second difficulty in topology optimization is to deal with the differ-48 ence in thermal conductivity in the solid and fluid domains. Most publica-49 tions interpolate the conductivity using the SIMP method (Solid Isotropic 50 Material with penalization). This method allows to deal with the discrete 51 nature of conductivity material distribution. So, authors [6, 15, 30, 36] con-52 sidered a continuous local thermal conductivity controlled by the design pa-53 rameter  $\alpha$  ranging from 0 to 1. Thanks to this function, the optimization al-54 gorithm is able to reallocate thermal conductivity material, or creating holes 55 in its structure to reach the objective function. Moreover, the convex and 56 *p*-parametrized function interpolation is similar to the density interpolation 57 function of Borrvall and Petersson [4] or the RAMP (Rational Approxima-58 tion of Material Properties)-style function as introduced by Stolpe [16, 30, 7]. 50 Other methods have also been investigated. Matsumori et al. [19] presented 60 results with a linear-interpolated design-dependent volumetric heat genera-61 tion. Dede [20] used a linear interpolation for thermal conductivity. Thus, 62 the main issue is to deal with intermediate design variables and nonphysical 63 flow solutions. 64

There are three main categories of algorithms to solve topology optimization problems : gradient-free, gradient-based and hessian-based algorithms. In topology optimization problems with large number of design variables, gradient-based algorithms are used to find accurate solutions efficiently. One

of the advantages of the interpolation functions described above is the possi-69 bility of using gradient-based continuous optimization methods. These meth-70 ods are based on derivatives in order to find extrema, and are the so-called 71 sensitivity analysis. It aims at evaluating the derivative of objective function 72 with respect of  $\alpha$ . Gradient-based algorithm is widely used by several au-73 thors [27, 21, 30, 35, 47]. Moreover, since most of the topology optimization 74 problems involve a huge number of design variable, specific gradient-based 75 optimization algorithms must be chosen to handle this difficulty. A famous 76 algorithm from the literature is the MMA (Method of Moving Asymptotes) 77 developed initially by Svanberg [43]. In order to reduce the computational 78 costs, adjoint approach consisting to calculate the sensitivities of the objec-79 tive function by an adjoint state has been adopted. Other methods have 80 been explored to reduce the computation cost: the multigrid preconditioned 81 conjugate gradients (MGCC) by Amir et al. [22], multi-resolution multi-scale 82 topology optimization technique by Kim et al. [23], the technique of using 83 adaptive design variable fields by Guest et al. [26]. 84

Moreover, various regularization techniques based on filtering of either 85 the design variable  $\alpha$  or the sensitivity  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha}$  [1, 10, 15, 30, 48] exist to ensure 86 well-posed topology optimization problems. The regularization works by 87 defining a certain length scale  $r_0$  below which any features in  $\alpha$  or  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha}$  are 88 smeared out by the filter; that results in optimized structures with a minimal 89 feature size  $r_0$  independent of the mesh refinement. As mentioned by some 90 authors [15, 29], these regularization techniques allow to avoid checkerboard 91 problems. 92

93

This paper proposes a new interpolation technique in order to solve a

heat transfer topology optimization problem. Design material and effective 94 conductivity are interpolated respectively by a function  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  and another 95 function  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$  in order to provide a continuous transition between the solid 96 and the fluid domains. These interpolation functions avoid the use of some 97 regularization techniques because the problem can be solved in one-step with-98 out a new value of the convexity parameter. Moreover, these interpolation 99 functions allow a smaller transition zone between the fluid and solid regions. 100 To prove this claim and get more qualitative results, the size of these tran-101 sition zones is explicitly computed and comparison with standard RAMP 102 interpolation is lead. In order to validate the new method, some numerical 103 applications are investigated on the single pipe and the bend pipe cases of the 104 literature. Lastly, as two new parameters are introduced thanks to the in-105 terpolation functions, we study their impact on the results of a optimization 106 problem. 107

#### <sup>108</sup> 2. Governing equation

112

The main goal of this paper is to solve topology optimization problems for heat transfer in fluid flow. The latter can be written in the general form below:

Minimize 
$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) = \int_{\Omega} \mathcal{J}_{\Omega}(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) d\Omega + \int_{\Gamma} \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) d\Gamma$$
  
Subject to Governing equation for  $(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta)$ , (1)  
Boundary conditions on  $\Gamma$ 

where  $\mathbf{u}$ , p and  $\theta$  are respectively the dimensionless velocity, pressure and temperature,  $\Omega$  is a bounded open set of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , d = 2, 3, with boundary  $\Gamma =$  $\partial \Omega$ . The function  $\mathcal{J}_{\Omega}$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}$  are some cost functional modeling a physical effect one wish to minimize. We assume that  $\Gamma$  can be decomposed as  $\Gamma = \Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2 \cup \Gamma_{in} \cup \Gamma_{out}$  where  $\Gamma_{in}$  is the inlet,  $\Gamma_{out}$  the outlet and  $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2$  are going to be considered as walls.

For the governing equation, the flows considered in this study are assumed Newtonian and incompressible, steady and laminar. The inverse permeability field is introduced in the steady-state Navier-Stokes equations as a source term  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)\mathbf{u}$  yielding a Brinkman model with a convection term. The set of dimensionless equations governing the conservation of momentum, mass and energy for incompressible steady-state fluid flow are the following:

$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{u} = -\nabla p + Re^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u} - h_{\tau}(\alpha) \mathbf{u} + Ri \ \theta \ \overrightarrow{e_y} \quad \text{in } \Omega,$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \qquad \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \qquad (2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \ \theta) = \operatorname{div} (Re^{-1} \ Pr^{-1} \ k_{\tau}(\alpha) \ \nabla \theta) \qquad \qquad \text{in } \Omega.$$

125

The reduced dimensionless temperature is  $\theta = (T - T_0)/\Delta T$  and the uni-126 form heat flux  $\Phi = \partial_n \theta$  on some part of  $\Gamma_1$  is equal to  $\lambda_f \Delta T/l$ , with  $\lambda_f$ 127 the thermal conductivity of the fluid. Parameters governing the flow are the 128 Reynolds number defined as  $Re = U_0 l/\nu$ , with U the reference velocity (i.e 129 mean velocity here) and l is the hydraulic diameter, the Richardson number 130  $Ri = Gr/Re^2$  where Gr is the Grashof number defined as  $Gr = g \beta \Delta T l^3/\nu^2$ . 131  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  corresponds to the ratio between a kinematic viscosity and a perme-132 ability and  $\alpha$  is the spatially varying design variable field determined by the 133 optimization algorithm. Regions with low permeability can be considered as 134 solid regions since (at least formally) the velocity of the fluid vanishes in such 135 region, and those with very high permeability regions are interpreted as pure 136 fluid. The interpolation function for the adimensional thermal conductivity 137 is given by  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$ . 138

<sup>139</sup> We consider the following set of boundary conditions:

$$\mathbf{u} = 0, \qquad \partial_n \theta = -1 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_1,$$
$$\mathbf{u} = 0, \qquad \partial_n \theta = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_2,$$
$$\mathbf{u}_n = 1, \ \mathbf{u}_t = 0 \quad \theta = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_{in},$$
$$\partial_n \mathbf{u} = 0, \qquad \partial_n \theta = 0, \quad p = 0 \quad \text{on } \Gamma_{out},$$
$$(3)$$

140

where  $\mathbf{u}_n$  and  $\mathbf{u}_t$  are the normal and tangential components of primal veloc-141 ities, respectively. To summarize, we require a constant horizontal velocity 142 and a constant temperature  $\theta_0$  at the inlet, vanishing gradient for both ve-143 locity and temperature of fluid at the outlet. Homogeneous Dirichlet for the 144 velocity and Neumann boundary condition are prescribed for the tempera-145 ture on the walls. It is worth noting that boundary conditions on the outlet 146 have been considered in [39] and ensure that the fluid does not re-enter in 147 the domain. 148

#### <sup>149</sup> 3. Interpolation

The goal of topology optimization is to end up with binary designs, i.e. 150 avoid that the design variables take other value than those representing the 151 fluid or the solid. The most important thing is to be sure that the inter-152 mediate regions (the transition zones) are unattractive with respect to the 153 optimization problem. This is usually carried out by penalizing the inter-154 mediate densities with respect to the material parameters, such as inverse 155 permeability and effective conductivity. A standard approach is to use some 156 convex interpolation (RAMP) function [4, 30, 15]. In this section, we propose 157 to use another interpolation function hence interpolate the inverse permeabil-158 ity and the effective conductivity using sigmoid functions. After giving the 159

definition of our interpolation function, we show that the transition zones of the sigmoid are much smaller than those of the standard RAMP function therefore motivating the use of such method in topology optimization.

# <sup>163</sup> 3.1. Interpolation of porosity using a sigmoid function

<sup>164</sup> Inverse permeability is interpolated with a sigmoid function

165 
$$h_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_0) = \alpha_{\max} \left( \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\tau(\alpha - \alpha_0)\right)} - \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\tau\alpha_0\right)} \right)$$
(4)

where  $\alpha \in [0, \alpha_{\max}]$  with  $\alpha_{\max}$  being the maximal value  $h_{\tau}$  can reach. Direct computations show that  $h_{\tau}(0, \alpha_0) = 0$  and that the following point-wise convergence holds

$$\lim_{\tau \to +\infty} h_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_0) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha < \alpha_0, \\ \alpha_0/2 & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_0, \\ \alpha_{\max} & \text{if } \alpha > \alpha_0. \end{cases}$$
(5)

This shows that  $h_{\tau}$  is a smooth regularization of a Heaviside step function. From (5), one can see that  $\alpha_0$  can be tuned to control the size of the fluid part in the computational domain. Finally, note that the definition of our interpolation function has to be changed when  $\alpha_0 = 0$  since we require  $\alpha \ge 0$ and (4) would lead to a regularization of a step function satisfying  $h_{\tau}(0,0) = 0$ and, for any  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $h_{\tau}(\alpha,0) \to \alpha_{\max}/2$  as  $\tau \to +\infty$ . In order to cover this case, one can use the following interpolation function

$$h_{\tau}(\alpha, 0) = \tilde{h}_{\tau}(\alpha) = 2 \, \alpha_{\max}\left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\tau\alpha\right)} - \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

which satisfies  $\tilde{h}_{\tau}(0) = 0$  and, if  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\tilde{h}_{\tau}(\alpha) \to \alpha_{\max}$  as  $\tau \to +\infty$ .

#### 179 3.2. Comparison with standard RAMP interpolation function

<sup>180</sup> The RAMP function has been introduced in [4] and is defined as follows:

$$h_{q,R}(s) = \alpha_{\max} + (\alpha_{\min} - \alpha_{\max})(1-s)\frac{1+q}{1-s+q},$$
(6)

where  $s \in [0, 1]$  is the design parameter and  $\alpha_{\min}, \alpha_{\max}$  are respectively the 182 minimal and maximal value the RAMP function can take. Again, some 183 direct computations show that  $h_{q,R}$  is a smooth and convex regularization 184 of a Heaviside step function since  $h_{q,R}(0) = \alpha_{\min}$  and, for any s > 0, 185  $\lim_{q\to 0} h_{q,R}(s) = \alpha_{\max}$ . In the sequel, we use  $\alpha_{\min} = 0$  since this does not 186 add any difficulties nor plus to the discussion. We now compare the perfor-187 mances of our sigmoid (4) with the standard RAMP function (6) by focusing 188 on the size of their so-called transition zones. First, note that they are both 189 defined on  $\Omega$  but the transition zone only depends on the value of the design 190 parameter s(x) for  $x \in \Omega$ . As a result, we are going to consider that both 191 functions have real domain and act on the interval [0, 1]. Also, to compare 192 functions having the same domain and being both smooth regularization of 193 step function as  $q \to 0$ , we rescale the sigmoids (4) thanks to the formula 194

<sup>195</sup> 
$$h_{q,S}(s,\alpha_0) = h_{1/q}(\alpha_{\max}s,\alpha_0), \ h_{q,S,0}(s) = \tilde{h}_{1/q}(s\alpha_{\max}), \ s \in [0,1].$$

<sup>196</sup> By definition, the transition zones are the undesirable values of the design <sup>197</sup> variable  $s \in [0, 1]$  for which the velocity of the speed is not enough penalized <sup>198</sup> to vanish or the value of the interpolation function is not small enough for <sup>199</sup> considering these zones as fluid. As one can see from Figure 1, the sigmoid <sup>200</sup> function has much smaller transition zone than the RAMP function.

To prove this claim and get more qualitative results we are going to compute explicitly the size of these transition zones. For a given small enough

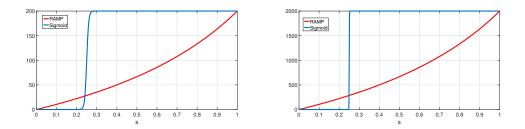


Figure 1: Interpolation functions with q = 1 and  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_{\text{max}}/4$ . Left:  $\alpha_{\text{max}} = 200$ . Right:  $\alpha_{\text{max}} = 2000$ .

 $_{203}~~\varepsilon>0$  and a large enough M>0, the latter are defined by

204 
$$\mathcal{T}(f,\varepsilon,M) = \{s \in [0,1] \mid \varepsilon \le f(s) \le M\}, f \in \{h_{q,\mathrm{R}}, h_{q,\mathrm{S}}, h_{q,\mathrm{S},0}\}$$

Since both interpolation function are increasing, they admit an inverse function  $f^{-1}$  and the transition zone is thus given by the interval  $\mathcal{T}(f,\varepsilon,M) = [f^{-1}(\varepsilon), f^{-1}(M)]$  from which we infer that

$$|\mathcal{T}(f,\varepsilon,M)| = f^{-1}(M) - f^{-1}(\varepsilon).$$
(7)

It then only remains to compute the inverse of the sigmoid and RAMP functions. This is actually achieved by solving f(s) = y for a given  $y \in [0, \alpha_{\max}]$ . These equations can be solved analytically using only direct computations <sup>212</sup> and give

213 
$$s = (h_{q,R})^{-1}(y) = 1 - q \frac{y - \alpha_{\max}}{\alpha_{\max} - y + (1+q)(\alpha_{\min} - \alpha_{\max})} = y \frac{1+q}{\alpha_{\max}q + y}$$
214 (8)

The constraint on s in the definition of the inverse of  $h_{q,S}$  comes from the fact that we have to solve an equation of the form  $\exp((\alpha_0 - s\alpha_{\max})/q) = g(y)$ for a positive function g. Using (7) and (8), the size of the transition zones are finally

$$|\mathcal{T}(h_{q,\mathrm{R}},\varepsilon,M)| := \mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{R}} = q\alpha_{\max}\frac{(1+q)}{(\alpha_{\max}q+M)(\alpha_{\max}q+\varepsilon)}(M-\varepsilon),$$

$$|\mathcal{T}(h_{q,S},\varepsilon,M)| := \mathcal{T}_{S} = \frac{q}{\alpha_{\max}} \log\left(\frac{\alpha_{\max} - M(1 + \exp(-\alpha_{0}/q))}{\alpha_{\max}\exp(-\alpha_{0}/q) + M(1 + \exp(-\alpha_{0}/q))}\right)$$

$$+ \frac{q}{\alpha_{\max}} \log\left(\frac{\alpha_{\max} - \varepsilon(1 + \exp(-\alpha_{0}/q))}{\alpha_{\max}\exp(-\alpha_{0}/q) + \varepsilon(1 + \exp(-\alpha_{0}/q))}\right),$$

$$|\mathcal{T}(h_{q,S,0},\varepsilon,M)| := \mathcal{T}_{S,0} = \frac{q}{\alpha_{\max}} \log\left(\frac{(\alpha_{\max} - M)(\alpha_{\max} + \varepsilon)}{(\alpha_{\max} + M)(\alpha_{\max} - \varepsilon)}\right)$$

For  $\alpha_0 = 0$ , one can clearly see that  $\mathcal{T}_{S,0} < \mathcal{T}_R$ . To deal with the case  $\alpha_0 > 0$ , note that the parameter q is small since we wish the interpolation function to be close to an ideal step function. Also, we emphasize that  $\alpha_0 > 0$  is going to depend on  $\alpha_{\text{max}}$  in order to control the percentage of fluid in  $\Omega$ . Since  $\alpha_{\text{max}}$ has to be large enough, one gets that  $z = \exp(-\alpha_0/q)$  is a small parameter 231 and we can thus expand  $\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{S}}$  as  $z \to 0$ . This gives

232 
$$\mathcal{T}_{\rm S} = \frac{q}{\alpha_{\rm max}} \log\left(\frac{(\alpha_{\rm max} - M)(\alpha_{\rm max} - \varepsilon)}{M\varepsilon}\right) + O(\exp(-\alpha_0/q)),$$

from which one can see that  $\mathcal{T}_{\rm S} < \mathcal{T}_{\rm R}$ . Thanks to the factor  $q/\alpha_{\rm max}$ , we can see that the intermediate zones of the sigmoid are in fact much smaller than those of the RAMP function. Some numerical calculation of the size of transition

	$\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{R}}$	$\mathcal{T}_{ m S}$	$\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{S},0}$
q = 1	0.6657	0.0380	0.0055
$q = 10^{-4}$	0.1665	$3.8002 \times 10^{-6}$	$5.4881 \times 10^{-7}$
$q = 10^{-5}$	0.0196	$3.8002\times10^{-7}$	$5.4881\times 10^{-8}$

Table 1: Size of the transition zones for  $\alpha_{\text{max}} = 200$ ,  $M = \alpha_{\text{max}}/2$ ,  $\varepsilon = 0.1$  and  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_{\text{max}}/4$ .

	$\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{R}}$	$\mathcal{T}_{ m S}$	$\mathcal{T}_{\mathrm{S},0}$
q = 1	0.6666	0.0050	$5.4926 \times 10^{-4}$
$q = 10^{-4}$	0.6665	$4.9517\times10^{-7}$	$5.4926 \times 10^{-8}$
$q = 10^{-5}$	0.1666	$4.9517\times10^{-8}$	$5.4926 \times 10^{-9}$

Table 2: Size of the transition zones for  $\alpha_{\text{max}} = 2000$ ,  $M = \alpha_{\text{max}}/2$ ,  $\varepsilon = 0.1$  and  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_{\text{max}}/4$ .

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236 zone confirming this fact can be found in Table 1,2 for  $\alpha_{\text{max}} \in \{200, 2000\}$ 237 and  $q \in \{1, 10^{-4}, 10^{-5}\}$ .

#### 238 3.3. Interpolation of the thermal conductivity

The effective conductivity is interpolated using a sigmoid function similar to (4):

$$_{241} \qquad k_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_0) = (k_s - k_f) \left( \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\tau(\alpha - \alpha_0)\right)} - \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\tau\alpha_0\right)} \right) + k_f \quad (9)$$

where  $\alpha \in [0, \alpha_{\text{max}}]$  is the design parameter,  $k_s$  and  $k_f$  are respectively the adimensional thermal diffusivity of the solid and of the fluid. Interpolation function (9) is again a smooth regularization of a Heaviside step function that satisfies  $k_{\tau}(0, \alpha_0) = k_f$  together with the point-wise convergence

$$\lim_{\tau \to +\infty} k_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_0) = \begin{cases} k_f & \text{if } \alpha < \alpha_0, \\ (k_f + k_s)/2 & \text{if } \alpha = \alpha_0, \\ k_s & \text{if } \alpha > \alpha_0. \end{cases}$$

Similarly to  $h_{\tau}$ , the case  $\alpha_0 = 0$  needs the following slight modification to still have, when  $\tau \to +\infty$ , a fluid-solid step function

249 
$$k_{\tau}(\alpha, 0) = \tilde{k}_{\tau}(\alpha) = 2(k_s - k_f) \left(\frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\tau\alpha)} - \frac{1}{2}\right) + k_f$$

The previous function then satisfies  $\tilde{k}_{\tau}(0) = 0$  and, for any  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\tilde{k}_{\tau}(\alpha) \rightarrow k_s$ as  $\tau \rightarrow +\infty$ . A RAMP-like interpolation function is also usually used for the thermal conductivity [30, 15]. Computations similar to those of Section 3.2 can be done to prove that the transition zone of the sigmoid (9) are much smaller than those of the RAMP function hence motivating using such technique in topology optimization.

# <sup>256</sup> 4. Gradient computation with the adjoint model

<sup>257</sup> We chose to solve the optimization problem (1) with gradient-based op-<sup>258</sup> timization algorithm. The latter requires the computation of the gradient <sup>259</sup> of the cost functional with respect to the design variable which needs the <sup>260</sup> sensitivities of the solution to the state equation with respect to  $\alpha$ . To do <sup>261</sup> this, we are going to use the adjoint method (see e.g. [24, 12, 45]) since it <sup>262</sup> allows to compute the gradient of  $\mathcal{J}$  efficiently, only by solving the so-called <sup>263</sup> direct problem (the governing equation) and the adjoint model.

We adopt here the *differentiate then discretize* approach [25] which means that we need to compute the continuous adjoint model associated to (1) as done in [17, 18]. The Lagrangian associated to the optimization problem (1) can then be defined as follows

$$\mathcal{L}((\mathbf{u},\theta,p),(\mathbf{u}^{*},\theta^{*},p^{*}),\alpha) := \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{u},\theta,p) - \int_{\Omega} p^{*} \operatorname{div} \mathbf{u} \, d\Omega$$
  

$$-\int_{\Omega} \mathbf{u}^{*} \cdot \left[ (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \, \mathbf{u} + \nabla p - Re^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u} + h_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0}) \, \mathbf{u} - Ri \, \theta \stackrel{\rightarrow}{e_{y}} \right] \, d\Omega$$
  

$$-\int_{\Omega} \theta^{*} \cdot \left[ \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \, \theta) - \operatorname{div}(Re^{-1}Pr^{-1} \, k_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0})\nabla\theta) \right] \, d\Omega$$
  

$$-\int_{\Gamma_{1}} \left( \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{1} + (\partial_{n}\theta - 1)\psi_{1} \right) d\Gamma - \int_{\Gamma_{2}} \left( \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{2} + \partial_{n}\theta\psi_{2} \right) d\Gamma$$
  

$$-\int_{\Gamma_{\mathrm{in}}} \left( (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}_{\mathrm{in}}) \cdot \Phi_{\mathrm{in}} + \theta\psi_{\mathrm{in}} \right) d\Gamma - \int_{\Gamma_{\mathrm{out}}} \left( \partial_{n}\mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{\mathrm{out}} + pq_{\mathrm{out}} + \partial_{n}\theta\psi_{\mathrm{out}} \right) d\Gamma$$
(10)

268

where  $(\mathbf{u}^*, \theta^*, p^*, \Phi_l, \psi_l, q_{\text{out}})$ , for  $l \in \{1, 2, \text{in, out}\}$ , can be seen as Lagrange multiplier (or adjoint variables). We emphasize that the variables  $(\Phi_t, \psi_t, q_{\text{out}})$ are here to enforce the boundary conditions (3).

The adjoint model is defined thanks to the critical point of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to the state variables  $(\mathbf{u}, \theta, p)$ . We use below the following notation for the derivative of an application  $\mathcal{F} : x \in \mathbf{E} \mapsto \mathcal{F}(x) \in \mathbf{F}$ , where  $\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}$  are normed 275 spaces

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$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}}{\partial x}[\delta x] := \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathcal{F}(x + \varepsilon \delta x) - \mathcal{F}(x)}{\varepsilon}.$$
 (11)

First, since  $\mathcal{L}$  is linear with respect to the adjoint variables, it is worth noting that we recover the state equation (2)-(3) if, for  $l \in \{1, 2, in, out\}$ , we solve

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\mathbf{u}^*, \theta^*, p^*, \Phi_l, \psi_l, q_{\text{out}})} \left[ \delta \mathbf{u}^*, \delta \theta^*, \delta p^*, \delta \Phi_l, \delta \psi_l, \delta q_{\text{out}} \right] = 0.$$

Using now (11) to differentiate the Lagrangian (10) with respect to the state variables, and integrating by parts to have no terms involving derivative of  $(\delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p)$ , we end up with

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\mathbf{u},\theta,p)} \left[ \delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p \right] = \int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Omega}}{\partial(\mathbf{u},\theta,p)} \left[ \delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p \right] d\Omega + \int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial(\mathbf{u},\theta,p)} \left[ \delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p \right] d\Gamma + \int_{\Omega} \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \left( \nabla p^{*} - h_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0}) \mathbf{u}^{*} - (\nabla \mathbf{u})^{T} \mathbf{u}^{*} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^{*} \mathbf{u} + \theta \nabla \theta^{*} + Re^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}^{*} \right) d\Omega \\
+ \int_{\Omega} \delta \theta \left( \operatorname{div}(Re^{-1}Pr^{-1}k_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0})\nabla\theta^{*}) + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla\theta^{*} + Ri \, \mathbf{u}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{y}} \right) d\Omega \\
+ \int_{\Omega} \delta p \operatorname{div} \mathbf{u}^{*} d\Omega - \int_{\Gamma} \delta p \left( \mathbf{u}^{*} \cdot n \right) d\Gamma \\
+ \int_{\Gamma} \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \left( -n \, p^{*} - n \, \theta \, \theta^{*} + Re^{-1} \partial_{n} \mathbf{u}^{*} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot n) \mathbf{u}^{*} \right) d\Gamma - \int_{\Gamma} Re^{-1} \partial_{n} \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^{*} \, d\Gamma \\
+ \int_{\Gamma} \delta \theta \left( \left( -\mathbf{u} \cdot n \right) \, \theta^{*} - Re^{-1} Pr^{-1} k_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0}) \, \partial_{n} \theta^{*} \right) d\Gamma + \int_{\Gamma} \theta^{*} Re^{-1} Pr^{-1} k_{\tau}(\alpha,\alpha_{0}) \partial_{n} \delta \theta \, d\Gamma \\
- \int_{\Gamma_{1}} \left( \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{1} + \partial_{n} \delta \theta \psi_{1} \right) d\Gamma - \int_{\Gamma_{2}} \left( \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{2} + \partial_{n} \delta \theta \psi_{2} \right) d\Gamma \\
- \int_{\Gamma_{1}} \left( \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{\mathrm{in}} + \delta \theta \psi_{\mathrm{in}} \right) d\Gamma - \int_{\Gamma_{\mathrm{out}}} \left( \partial_{n} \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \Phi_{\mathrm{out}} + \delta p q_{\mathrm{out}} + \partial_{n} \delta \theta \psi_{\mathrm{out}} \right) d\Gamma$$
(12)

Assuming that  $(\delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p, \Phi_l, \psi_l, q_{\text{out}}) = 0$  for  $l \in \{1, 2, \text{in, out}\}$ , that the first derivatives of  $\delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta$  vanish on  $\Gamma$  and solving  $(\partial \mathcal{L}/\partial(\mathbf{u}, \theta, p)) [\delta \mathbf{u}, \delta \theta, \delta p] = 0$  <sup>287</sup> yield the adjoint problem:

$$\nabla p^* - h_\tau(\alpha) \mathbf{u}^* + \theta \nabla \theta^* + Re^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{u}^* + \nabla \mathbf{u}^* \mathbf{u} - (\nabla \mathbf{u})^T \mathbf{u}^* = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_\Omega}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \quad \text{in } \Omega$$

div 
$$\mathbf{u}^* = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Omega}}{\partial p}$$
 in  $\Omega$ 

$$Ri \mathbf{u}^* \cdot \overrightarrow{e_y} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \theta^* + \operatorname{div} \left( Re^{-1} Pr^{-1} k_\tau(\alpha) \nabla \theta^* \right) = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_\Omega}{\partial \theta} \quad \text{in } \Omega$$
(13)

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For the adjoint boundary condition, we are going to show how to obtain them on  $\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2$  since the other part of  $\Gamma$  can be done in the same spirit. On both walls, the primal velocity is fixed to zero (no-slip condition on the walls) and the heat flux either vanishes or is constant. Since div  $\mathbf{u} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  is prescribed or null value, there will be  $\delta \mathbf{u} = 0$ , div  $\delta \mathbf{u} = 0$  and  $\partial_n \delta \theta = 0$ . We recall a formula from [11, Lemma 7] that holds for any vector fields  $\mathbf{w}$ and reads

$$\partial_n \mathbf{w} \cdot n = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{w}|_{\Gamma} - \operatorname{div}_{\Gamma} \mathbf{w}_t - \kappa \mathbf{w} \cdot n, \tag{14}$$

where  $\kappa = \operatorname{div} n$  is the curvature of  $\Gamma$  and  $\operatorname{div}_{\Gamma}$  is the surface divergence operator. Since  $\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^* = (\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u})_n \cdot u_n^* + (\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u})_t \cdot u_t^*$  and  $\delta \mathbf{u} = 0$  and div  $\delta \mathbf{u} = 0$ , formula (14) gives that

$$\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^* = (\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u})_t \ u_t^*$$

The boundary conditions on  $\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2$  are then obtained from (12) by considering, for l = 1, 2, the following vanishing terms

$$\int_{\Gamma_l} Re^{-1} \partial_n \delta \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^* \, d\Gamma = \int_{\Gamma} Re^{-1} (\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u})_t \cdot u_t^* \, d\Gamma = 0,$$

$$\int_{\Gamma_l} \delta p \, \left( \mathbf{u}^* \cdot n - \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial p} \right) d\Gamma = 0,$$

$$\int_{\Gamma_l} \delta \theta \, \left( (-\mathbf{u} \cdot n) \, \theta^* - Re^{-1} Pr^{-1} k_\tau(\alpha, \alpha_0) \, \partial_n \theta^* + \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial \theta} \right) d\Gamma = 0.$$
(15)

The adjoint boundary conditions on  $\Gamma_{in}$  are obtained as above by taking  $\delta\theta = 0$ . For the outlet, we use  $\partial_n \delta\theta = 0$ ,  $\partial_n \delta \mathbf{u} = 0$  and  $\delta p = 0$ . Finally, we end up with the adjoint boundary condition

On 
$$\Gamma_{1} \cup \Gamma_{2}$$
:  $u_{t}^{*} = 0$ ,  $u_{n}\theta^{*} + Re^{-1}Pr^{-1}k_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_{0}) \partial_{n}\theta^{*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Omega}}{\partial \theta}, u_{n}^{*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Omega}}{\partial p}$ ,  
On  $\Gamma_{in}$ :  $u_{n}^{*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial p} u_{t}^{*} = 0$ ,  $\theta^{*} = 0$ ,  
On  $\Gamma_{out}$ :  $u_{n} \theta^{*} + Re^{-1}Pr^{-1}k_{\tau}(\alpha, \alpha_{0}) \partial_{n}\theta^{*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial \theta}$ ,  
 $n p^{*} + n \theta \theta^{*} + Re^{-1}\partial_{n}u^{*} + u_{n} \mathbf{u}^{*} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial \mathbf{u}}$ . (16)

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Now solving  $(\partial \mathcal{L}/\partial \alpha) [\delta \alpha] = 0$  for all  $\delta \alpha$  yields

$$\frac{\partial h_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^* + Re^{-1}Pr^{-1}\frac{\partial k_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \nabla \theta \cdot \nabla \theta^* = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega$$

$$\frac{\partial k_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \theta^* = 0 \quad \text{on } \Gamma_1,$$
(17)

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which is the optimality condition. Finally, according to the adjoint method (see e.g. [24, 12, 25]), the gradient of the cost functional  $\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{u}, \theta, p)$  at some  $\alpha$  is given by

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \alpha}(\alpha) = \frac{\partial h_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^* + Re^{-1}Pr^{-1}\frac{\partial k_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \nabla \theta \cdot \nabla \theta^*, \quad \text{in } \Omega,$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial \alpha}(\alpha) = \frac{\partial k_{\tau,\alpha_0}}{\partial \alpha} \theta^* \qquad \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_1,$$
(18)

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where  $(\mathbf{u}, \theta, p)$  satisfy (2-3) and  $(\mathbf{u}^*, \theta^*, p^*)$  satisfy the adjoint problem (13-14 16).

**Remark 1.** The adjoint variables  $(\Phi_l, \psi_l, p_{out})$  used to enforce the boundary conditions (3) of the primal problem are not needed to solve the adjoint problem. Nevertheless, they can be determined using (13,15) which cancel many  $_{318}$  terms in (12) and gives

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$$\Phi_l = -n \ p^* - n \ \theta \ \theta^* + Re^{-1}\partial_n \mathbf{u}^* - (\mathbf{u} \cdot n)\mathbf{u}^* + \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \text{ on } \Gamma_l$$

$$\psi_l = \theta^* R e^{-1} P r^{-1} k_\tau(\alpha, \alpha_0) + \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_\Gamma}{\partial \theta} \text{ on } \Gamma_l, \ l \in \{1, 2, \text{in}\},$$

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 $\Phi_{\text{out}} = -Re^{-1}\mathbf{u}^*, \ \psi_{\text{out}} = \theta^* Re^{-1} Pr^{-1} k_\tau(\alpha, \alpha_0), \ q_{\text{out}} = -u_n^* - \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}}{\partial p}.$ 

Note finally that these adjoint variables are also not needed to compute the gradient of the cost functional with respect to the design variable since they does not appear in (18).

# 325 5. Numerical example

This section aims to validate the new interpolation technique. To do so, we investigate two objective functions. First objective function is related to the power dissipated by the fluid through the domain  $\Omega$  and can be evaluated on the basis of total pressure losses as follows:

$$\mathcal{J}_1(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) = -\int_{\Gamma} p_t \, \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\Gamma \quad \text{where } p_t = p + \frac{1}{2} \, \mathbf{u}^2 \tag{19}$$

The second cost function is related to the maximization of the recoverable thermal power from the domain  $\Omega$  and is given by

$$\mathcal{J}_2(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) = \int_{\Gamma} \theta \, \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\Gamma$$
(20)

<sup>334</sup> We finally consider the following objective functional

minimize: 
$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) = \mathcal{J}_1(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) - \mathcal{J}_2(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta),$$
  
$$= -\int_{\Gamma} (p_t + \theta) \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\Gamma$$
(21)

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subject to: Governing equation (2),

Boundary conditions (3).

We notice that the objective function  $\mathcal{J}$  is a linear combination of both 336 objective functions described above. It's taking place at the inlet and outlet 337 flow boundary conditions and the combination involves the opposite of  $\mathcal{J}_2$ 338 since the optimization problem aims at minimizing the combinatory function 339  $\mathcal{J}$ . Using the notation from the general optimization problem (1), we have 340  $\mathcal{J}_{\Omega} = 0$  and  $\mathcal{J}_{\Gamma}(\mathbf{u}, p, \theta) = (p + \theta) \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ . The adjoint model is then given by 341 (13)-(16) where all the partial derivative of  $\mathcal{J}_{\Omega}$  are zero and the following 342 boundary conditions hold 343

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$$\mathbf{u}^{*} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \partial_{n}\theta^{*} = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_{1} \cup \Gamma_{2},$$

$$u_{t}^{*} = 0, \quad \theta^{*} = 0, \quad u_{n}^{*} = -u_{n} \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_{in},$$

$$\theta^{*} u_{n} + Re^{-1}Pr^{-1} k_{\tau}(\alpha) \quad \partial_{n}\theta^{*} = -u_{n} \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_{out},$$

$$p^{*} + \theta^{*} \quad \theta + Re^{-1} \nabla_{n}\mathbf{u}^{*} \cdot n + u_{n}^{*} u_{n} = -(\theta + p) \qquad \text{on } \Gamma_{out}.$$

$$(22)$$

As said in section 4, we propose to solve the topology optimization problem 345 with a steepest descent algorithm where the gradient is computed thanks to 346 the adjoint method. The main flow of the algorithm for the topology opti-347 mization is described in Table 3. The forward problem and the optimization

Step 0. Initialization: set all the constants Re, Ri, Pr

Solve the forward problem (2),(3) problem with the Finite Volume Method Step 1.

Step 2. Compute objective and constraint values

 $\mathbf{u}^* = \mathbf{0}, \quad \partial_n \theta^* = 0$ 

- Step 3. Compute sensitivities by adjoint method
- Evaluate the optimality condition. If a stopping criterion is met, terminate the calculation Step 4.

Update design variables  $\alpha$  with  $\alpha_{k+1} = -\nabla \mathcal{J}_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1}^{PR} \alpha_k$  and return to step 1 Step 5.

#### Table 3: Algorithm of topology optimization

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processes are implemented using OpenFOAM [44]. In Step 5, the design 349

variables are evaluated by using the conjugated-gradient descent direction method associated to Polack-Ribiere method  $\beta_{k+1}^{PR} = \frac{\nabla \mathcal{J}_{k+1}^T (\nabla \mathcal{J}_{k+1} - \nabla \mathcal{J}_k)}{\nabla \mathcal{J}_k^T \nabla \mathcal{J}_k}.$ 

After optimization process, several results are compared as optimized de-352 signs, velocity magnitude distribution, temperature distribution, and lastly, 353 we focus on fluid-solid interfaces. We also presents the objective function 354 values for each simulation case. Finally, we investigate to vary the slope 355 abscissa and the curve of sigmoid functions in order to evaluate their impact 356 on the optimization problem. That corresponds to consider different values 357 of  $\alpha_0$  and  $\tau$ . In our study,  $\alpha_0$  will vary in  $\{25, 50, 100\}$  which correspond re-358 spectively to  $\{\alpha_{max}/8, \alpha_{max}/4, \alpha_{max}/2\}$  and  $\tau$  will vary in  $\{0.3, 0.7, 1.0\}$ . In 359 order to perform topology optimization, the  $\alpha$  term may take a finite value 360 between 0 and  $\alpha_{max} = 200$ . 361

# 362 5.1. Studied Cases

Two representative cases of topology optimization in fluid dynamics are investigated : the single pipe case and the bend pipe case. Figure 2 shows schematic illustrations of the two studied cases.

### <sup>366</sup> 5.1.1. Design of a single pipe.

We present here a benchmark numerical example used recently by Marck [15] to illustrate the viability and efficiency of the methodology presented in this paper. The design domain consists in a cavity of side L. The computational domain is discretized using  $100 \times 100$  elements. The inlet flow is located in the center of the west edge for a length of L/5. The outlet flow is lining up with it on the east edge. The rest of west and east edges are assumed to be adiabatic and will be called  $\Gamma_2$ , whereas the whole north and

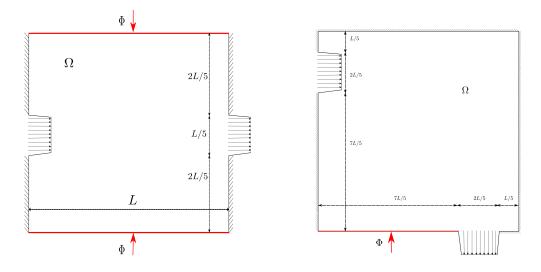


Figure 2: Single pipe and Bend pipe

south walls are subjected to a constant flux of temperature, called thereafter  $\Gamma_1$ .

# 376 5.1.2. Design of a bend pipe.

The second example has been studied by several authors as [4] and [15]. 377 The computational domain is also square-shaped, with a adimensional side 378 L = 1, and the design grid is made of  $100 \times 100$  elements. The inlet flow 379 is located at L/5 of the west edge. The outlet flow is located on the south 380 edge, at L/5 from the east edge. The length of both flow boundary conditions 381 is set to 2L/5. The part of the south edge located on the left of the outlet is 382 subjected to a constant flux of temperature and will be called  $\Gamma_1$ . The rest 383 of the edges are assumed to be adiabatic and will be designated as  $\Gamma_2$ . 384

#### 385 5.1.3. Physical parameters.

For the two representative cases studied in this section, the inlet flow is prescribed with a constant horizontal velocity equal to  $U_0 = 0.04 \ m.s^{-1}$ 

used in Reynolds number. The inlet temperature is fixed to  $\theta = 0$ . The 388 outflow temperature condition is fixed to a zero gradient, as well as the 389 velocity gradient. Hot walls are subject to a constant flux of temperature 390  $\partial_n \theta = -1$ . The Reynolds number based on the characteristic dimension of 391 the inlet length and the average inlet velocity is Re = 500. The Rayleigh 392 number is fixed to  $Ra = 5 \times 10^5$ . Prandtl number is set to 0.71. Grashof 393 number has the following expression Gr = Ra/Pr. Adimensional thermal 394 parameters are the following:  $k_s = (9.88 \times 10^{-5} m^2 . s^{-1})/(2.25 \times 10^{-5} m^2 . s^{-1})$ 395 [(Aluminum/Air) Diffusivities],  $k_f = 1$ . 396

#### 397 5.2. Results

The aim of the problems defined above is to determine the optimal design that connects the inlet to the outlet of the cavity and that minimizes the objective function  $\mathcal{J}$  subjected to the constraints (2) and (3).

First of all, we compute  $\mathcal{J}$  without optimization for the two studied 401 cases and we obtained respectively for the single pipe  $J = 9.07 \ 10^{-3}$  and for 402 the bend pipe  $J = 6.38 \ 10^{-3}$ . Compared to values issued from optimization 403 process and referenced in Figure 8 and 11, they are reduced between 23% and 404 42% for the single pipe case, and between 18% and 19% for the bend pipe. 405 So, the new method investigated here allows to both minimize the power 406 dissipated by the fluid through the domain  $\Omega$  and maximize the recoverable 407 thermal power from the domain to the fluid. 408

Secondly, we plot velocity magnitude for various  $\alpha_0$  and  $\tau$  values. After optimization of  $\mathcal{J}$  in the single pipe, we obtain an optimized design in which fluid is transported through the single pipe in a straight pipe (see Figure 3). It is quite closed to the optimized design obtained by [15] when the mechanical

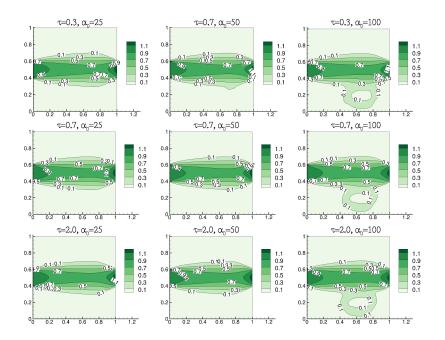


Figure 3: Velocity magnitude distribution in the single pipe

<sup>413</sup> power and thermal power are considered with the same weighting coefficient.
<sup>414</sup> Similarly, fluid circulation forms a half circle whose center would be the left
<sup>415</sup> bottom corner of the square domain in the optimized bend pipe (see Figure
<sup>416</sup> 4). Contrary to the literature in fluid mechanics, the optimized path obtained
<sup>417</sup> for the flow is not as straight as possible. It can be explained by the fact that
<sup>418</sup> we consider here a heat transfer problem. So, the optimized pipe is larger
<sup>419</sup> and form a real bend because the fluid flow moves away from hot regions.

Thereafter, we compared distribution of the parameter  $\alpha$  in the domain for the two studied cases (see Figures 6 and 9). We recall that values less than  $\alpha_0$  are considered as fluid regions. We can notice that this method based on  $\alpha_0$  affected some values of  $\alpha$  to the fluid regions, which would not be possible with other methods of the literature. Indeed, generally with the

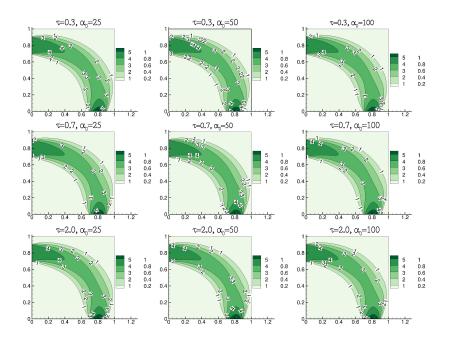


Figure 4: Velocity magnitude distribution in the bend pipe

function (6), only value of  $\alpha$  equal to zero is considered as fluid element. As can be seen on these figures, intermediate values for the fluid region exist. For example, we have different values of  $\alpha$  between 0 and  $\alpha_0$  at right-top corner in Figure 9, or below the straight pipe for  $\alpha_0 = 25$  in Figure 6.

As expected, the interpolation function  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  suppresses these intermedi-429 ate values noticed previously and affects these volume elements to pure fluid 430 volume elements. Indeed, Figures 7 and 10 show the optimized designs for 431 various  $\alpha_0$  and  $\tau$  numbers. Compared to  $\alpha$  distribution (Figures 6 and 9), 432 they demonstrate that the interpolation function  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  suppresses interme-433 diate values corresponding neither to pure fluid nor to pure solid regions by 434 affecting them to solid regions or fluid regions. However, in the bend pipe, a 435 porous domain still exists near hot regions. Although fluid does not circulate 436

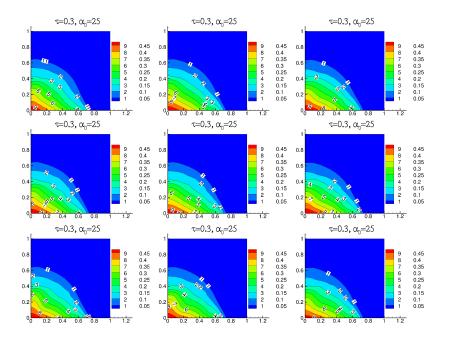


Figure 5: Temperature distribution in the bend pipe

<sup>437</sup> in this porous domain, its existence contributes to increasing thermal power
<sup>438</sup> recovered by the fluid. That is illustrated in Figure 5.

At last, it can be seen that thermal conductivity is well distributed, con-439 tinuously, between fluid and solid regions. Figure 8 represents the distri-440 bution of material conductivity after the optimization process in the single 441 pipe case. Compared to Figure 7, we observe that frontier between the two 442 regions, fluid and solid, is well-established. For the bend pipe case, although 443 intermediate regions exist,  $k_{\tau}$  interpolation function allows to affect to this 444 porous domain a conductivity closed to the fluid diffusivity (see Figure 11). 445 Therefore, the function  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$  provides a continuous transition between the 446 solid and the fluid domains. 447

# 448 5.2.1. Influence of $\alpha_0$ .

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It can clearly be seen from Figures 7 and 10 that different designs are obtained for the different values of  $\alpha_0$ . As detailed in section 3,  $\alpha_0$  is depending of  $\alpha_{max}$  in order to control the percentage of fluid in  $\Omega$ . This parameter has a significant impact on the quantity of material adding in the domain and that can be illustrated by computing the proportion  $Q_t$  of material added in the domain  $\Omega$  as follows :

$$Q_t = \frac{\int_{\Omega} h_{\tau}(\alpha) \ d\Omega}{\alpha_{max} \ V_{tot}} \text{ where } V_{tot} \text{ is the total volume of } \Omega$$
(23)

Calculation results are referenced in Figures 7 and 10. In the single pipe, 456 when  $\alpha_0$  increases, quantity of material diminishes between 27.5% and 28%. 457 That means fluid domain is more important and that contributes to the 458 increase of  $\mathcal{J}_2$ . So, that will influence the value of  $\mathcal{J}$ . In the bend pipe, 459 when  $\alpha_0$  increases, quantity of material also diminishes between 3.6% and 460 16%. So, fluid domain is relatively more important than solid domain but 461 not enough to significantly impact on the value of  $\mathcal{J}$ , hence, the small effect 462 on values of  $\mathcal{J}$  (see Figure 11). So, parameter  $\alpha_0$  has a significant incidence 463 on the proportion of fluid domain relatively to solid domain and therefore, 464 can influence the value of the functional objective. 465

Futhermore, we observe a recirculation zone for  $\alpha_0 = 100$  in the example of the optimized single pipe (see Figure 3). That can also be explained by the value of  $\alpha_0$ . Indeed, larger  $\alpha_0$  means that the proportion of fluid elements compared to  $\alpha_{max}$  is bigger and thus fluid regions are more important. When  $\alpha_0 = 100$ , that means  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_{max}/2$ , the algorithm affects some value of  $\alpha \in [0, 100]$  corresponding to fluid domain and so impacts on the size of fluid regions relatively to the solid regions in the domain.

# 473 5.2.2. Influence of $\tau$ .

It can clearly be seen from Figures 7 and 10 that different designs are 474 obtained for the different values of  $\tau$ . The parameter  $\tau$  in the interpolation 475 functions  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  and  $k_{\tau}$  indicates the stiffness of the curve of the functions. It 476 does not seem to impact significantly the optimization results. However, we 477 can observe in Figure 11 that the frontier between the fluid and the solid is 478 sharper when  $\tau = 2.0$ . In Figure 8, for  $\tau = 0.3$ ,  $\tau = 0.7$ , we can notice residual 479 material in fluid domain while they do not exist anymore when  $\tau = 2.0$ . As 480 the same, the porous region identified in the bend pipe case between the 481 main flow and the hot plate is defined mostly with the fluid diffusivity by the 482 interpolation function. This impact does not influence significantly the result 483 of the optimization computation when we compared their value in Figure 11 484 but it improves the thermal transition between fluid and solid regions. So, 485 parameter  $\tau$  seems to improve the thermal conductivity distribution during 486 the process optimization. 487

#### 488 6. Conclusion

This study shows that the new interpolation technique based on sigmoid 489 function is a viable method. Design material is well interpolated since inter-490 mediate regions between solid and fluid are suppressed hence giving a frontier 491 between the two regions which is well-defined. Besides, the size of transition 492 zones between fluid and solid regions is explicitly computed. The result is 493 that the new interpolation functions reduce their size comparatively to the 494 RAMP interpolation function. Therefore, the transition between fluid and 495 solid is improving thanks to this sigmoid function for the effective conduc-496

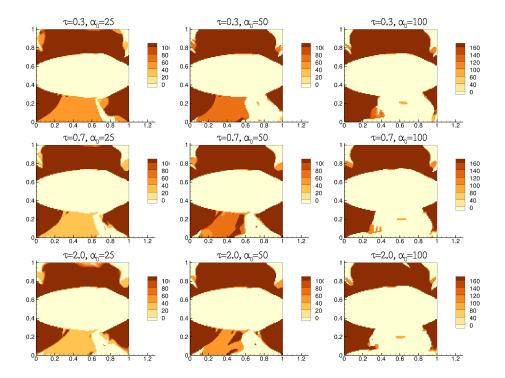


Figure 6:  $\alpha$  distribution in the single pipe

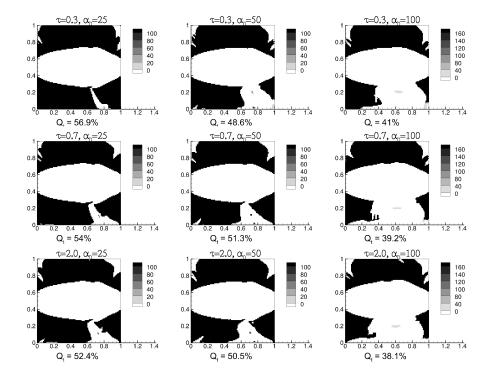


Figure 7:  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  distribution in the single pipe and proportion of material  $Q_t$  added in the domain after optimization

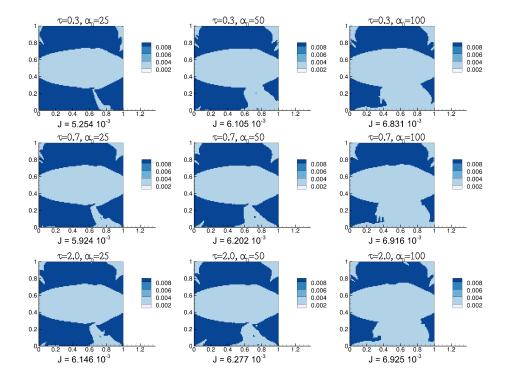


Figure 8:  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$  distribution in the single pipe for different values of  $\tau$  and  $\alpha_0$  and value of functional objectif  $\mathcal{J}$  after optimization

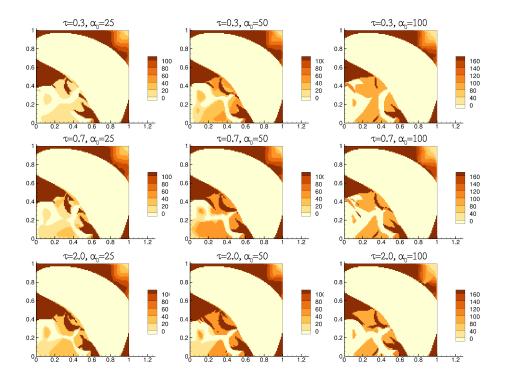


Figure 9:  $\alpha$  distribution in the bend pipe

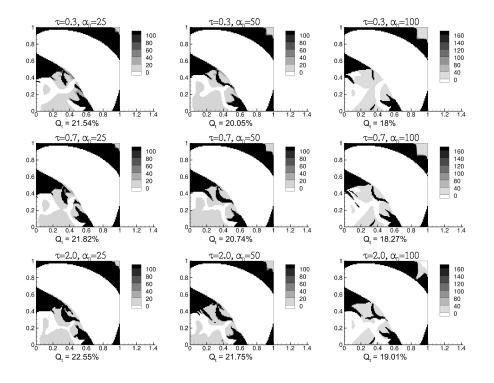


Figure 10:  $h_{\tau}(\alpha)$  distribution in the bend pipe and proportion of material  $Q_t$  added in the domain after optimization

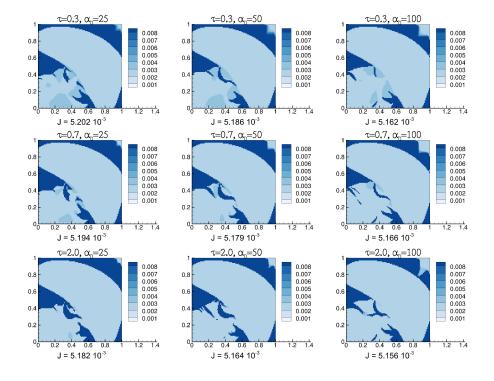


Figure 11:  $k_{\tau}(\alpha)$  distribution in the bend pipe and value of functional objectif  $\mathcal{J}$  after optimization

tivity. Computation of the size of transition zones could also be applied to 497 other interpolation functions in order to evaluate the well-definition of the 498 frontier between fluid and solid regions. This new interpolation technique do 499 not require any regularization techniques since no checkerboards have been 500 identified for the two studied cases. Two new parameters have been intro-501 duced : the abscissa slope of the sigmoid function  $\alpha_0$  and the curve of the 502 sigmoid function  $\tau$ . Their impact has been also investigated.  $\alpha_0$  has a sig-503 nificant impact on the quantity of material added in the domain during the 504 optimization process. The larger  $\alpha_0$  is the bigger will be the fluid domain. 505 The parameter  $\tau$  has a small impact on the results of optimization. For the 506 studied cases, the impact was seen after interpolation of thermal conduc-507 tivity. Elements of porous domain have been affected to fluid diffusivity or 508 solid conductivity, and therefore, the thermal transition between material is 509 improved. So, this study has examined a new interpolation technique to deal 510 with fluid-porous media interfaces for topology optimization of heat transfer 511 problems. Further research might explore several type of flow regimes in 512 optimization problems using these interpolation functions. Another possible 513 area of future research would be to investigate new cost functions. 514

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