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CONCURRENT SHAPE OPTIMIZATION OF THE PART AND SCANNING PATH FOR POWDER BED FUSION ADDITIVE MANUFACTURING

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Abstract: This paper investigates the concurrent path planning optimization and the built part structural optimization for powder bed fusion additive manufacturing processes. The state of the art studies rely on existing patterns for trajectories for a fixed built shape. The shape is often optimized for its mechanical performance but rarely in a combined way with its path planning building process. In this work a steady state model of the process is first proposed. Then a systematic path optimization approach, free from a priori restrictions, is coupled to a structural optimization tool, both of them based on shape optimization theory. This multiphysics optimization leads to innovative and promising results. First, they confirm that it is essential to take into account the part shape in the scanning path optimization. Second, they also give hints to some design recipes: the material and the source parameters must be related to the thickness of the bars that compose the structure. Indeed, the thickness of a bar is a key ingredient which determines the type of path pattern to scan it: straight line, Omega-pattern and Wave-pattern.

Keywords. Path planning and control, additive manufacturing, metallic powder bed fusion, structural optimization.

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1 Introduction

Among the several existing additive manufacturing (AM) processes [1], this work focuses on powder bed fusion (PBF) [2, 3, 4, 5]. This method consists in building metallic parts layer by layer: for each layer, metallic powder is regularly distributed on top of the already built part. A heat source (laser or electron beam) is then travelled along a prescribed path, melting the powder in specific areas. Finally, the part solidifies while cooling down and a new layer of powder is coated to repeat the process. This technology features several advantages [1, 6] as reducing traditional building constraints and thus allowing to manufacture complex parts (like the ones produced by topology optimization softwares), etc.

Despite its promises, there are still some issues in additive manufacturing which require technological improvements. A first issue is the appearance of quality defects such as porosities, residual stresses, rough surfaces or anisotropy [2, 3, 7]. They are the result of an intricate multi-physics process, involving several phenomena (mechanical, metallurgical, thermal). These defects can partly be accommodated by post treatments

[2, 3] but avoiding them is nevertheless crucial. A high-fidelity numerical prediction of these defects must involve four metal states (powder, solid, fluid, gas) and thus nonlinear equations making the computations very expensive [2, 8, 9]. Simplified models have thus been set [10] and specific parameters identified to increase the final structure's quality [7, 11]. A second issue is the building time. Additive manufacturing is known to be a slow process: optimizing the scanning path is one way of reducing the manufacturing time.

In automated production, improving the path is a classical issue, already considered for traditional machining such as milling or welding [12, 13, 14, 15]. For powder bed fusion technologies the path directly impacts the heat distribution and thus both the scanning time [16, 17] and the creation of quality defects [18, 19, 20]. Departing from the literature (see [21] for a review of the existing strategies), where paths are based upon fixed strategies, it is chosen here to consider a systematic optimization approach, as initiated in [22] (see also the PhD thesis of the first author [23]). In this approach, the path is optimized without a priori given strategy and its pattern is thus expected to be varying when applied to different part shapes. The path is optimized in order to have a precise control of the temperature during the building process. On the other hand, the shape is optimized both for temperature control and for its final mechanical performance. This allows for the development of path optimization algorithms under a steady state assumption. This type of systematic optimization of the scanning path is recent with only a limited literature: the works [24, 25] give theoretical results on an optimal control approach of the problem; the works, initiated by [26] on anisotropy and further developed in [27, 28], model the scanning path connected components as the level sets of a function controlling the residual stresses using an inherent strain method, under a steady state assumption.

The originality of this article is to go beyond the sole path optimization, as in the just cited references, and to develop a concurrent optimization algorithm aimed at determining both the scanning path and the part shape and topology. To do so, two design variables are considered: the path Γ and the part shape Ω . Building on earlier works concerning support optimization in additive manufacturing [29, 30, 31], we include in the shape and topology optimization algorithm for the part shape Ω some constraints about the scanning path Γ , which yield a compromise between the mechanical performance of the part structure and the efficiency of the building process.

In Section 2, the model elaborated for this study is presented. This problem is multiphysics: a mechanical problem of compliance minimization under fixed volume constraint is set concerning the final use of the part, and a thermal problem, modeled under a steady state assumption, is defined for the scanning path efficiency. The scanning path being included in each layer plane, the model is limited to a single layer in two space dimensions. The optimization objectives and constraints resulting from each physics are precisely defined for the concurrent optimization problem.

For efficiency reasons, gradient-based descent algorithms are used. They require the determination of gradients related to the optimization problem, thanks to an adjoint method. In both cases, path and shape optimization, we rely on the Hadamard method of geometrical sensitivity [32, 33, 34]. Section 3 is concerned with the computation of these derivatives with respect to the path and to the shape.

Section 4 explains our numerical implementation. The path is parametrized by a collection of nodes, connected by straight lines. The shape is represented by a level set function. An augmented Lagrangian algorithm for optimization is presented.

Finally, Section 5 is devoted to numerical results for assessing our optimization approach. Two mechanical test cases (a small and a large cantilever) and two physical test cases (with the metal considered being successively aluminium and titanium) are considered for several strategies of coupled optimization. This leads to several observations from which we draw some conclusions.

2 Modelling and optimization problem

In this work, both the part to build and the associated scanning path are simultaneously optimized in the powder bed fusion context. In this section, a model of this process is proposed and an optimization problem is defined. The focus here is on a single layer and thus on a two dimensional problem. In this layer, the part shape is actually a two dimensional section of the 3-d part to build and the path is chosen to melt this part shape, a subset of the the layer (see Figure 1). The working or computational domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is the cross-section of the build chamber containing this layer, thus a rectangle in practice. The mechanical problem, related to the part optimization, is first described. Then, a model for the building process is given, featuring the path of the heat source.

2.1 Mechanical model governing the part optimization

Before being manufactured, the part to build is designed for a specific use. Typically, for a linearized elasticity model, the part compliance is minimized under a volume constraint.

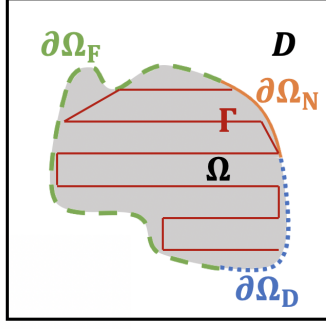


Figure 1: Layer plane: Ω part to build and Γ scanning path in the build chamber D

Let \mathcal{U}_Ω be the space of admissible shapes $\Omega \subset D$ which are open bounded sets with smooth boundary, $\partial\Omega$, composed of three disjoint parts (see Figure 1): $\partial\Omega_N$ on which a load $h \in L^2(\partial\Omega_N)^2$ is applied (Neumann boundary condition), $\partial\Omega_D$ on which the elastic displacement is prescribed (Dirichlet boundary condition) and $\partial\Omega_F$ which is traction-free. Only the boundary $\partial\Omega_F$ is optimized and the boundary $\partial\Omega_D$ is assumed to be not empty. The normal of the boundary pointing outward the set Ω is denoted n_Ω . The shape Ω is filled by an elastic material with a Hooke's tensor A , relating the elastic stress and strain tensors, defined, for any symmetric matrix ξ , by

$$A\xi = \left(\frac{E}{1+\nu} \right) \xi + \left(\frac{E\nu}{(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)} \right) \text{Tr}(\xi)I_2, \quad (1)$$

with E the Young modulus and ν the Poisson ratio. The elastic displacement u is the solution of the linear elasticity system

$$\begin{cases} -\text{div}(A\varepsilon(u)) = 0 & \text{in } \Omega, \\ A\varepsilon(u).n_\Omega = h & \text{on } \partial\Omega_N, \\ A\varepsilon(u).n_\Omega = 0 & \text{on } \partial\Omega_F, \\ u = 0 & \text{on } \partial\Omega_D, \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

with the strain tensor $\varepsilon(u) = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla u + \nabla u^T)$. Setting

$$H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2) = \{v \in H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2), \text{ such that } v = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega_D\}, \quad (3)$$

the set of functions in $H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$ vanishing on $\partial\Omega_D$, the variational formulation of (2) is to find $u \in H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$ such that

$$\int_\Omega A\varepsilon(u) : \varepsilon(\varphi) dx - \int_{\partial\Omega_N} h \cdot \varphi ds = 0, \quad \forall \varphi \in H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2). \quad (4)$$

The optimization problem consists in minimizing the compliance

$$\min_{\Omega \in \mathcal{U}_\Omega} C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega) = \int_\Omega A\varepsilon(u) : \varepsilon(u) dx$$

under a given volume constraint $V = \int_\Omega dx = V^{\text{target}}$.

2.2 Thermal model governing the path feasibility

Here, we rely on a simplified model to simulate the building process. Indeed, an accurate description of the process (taking into account all phase changes, metallurgical and mechanical aspects) would require a too complicated and CPU expensive model for optimization purposes. Therefore, the focus is rather on a simplified macro-scale model [2, 8] that involves a thermal problem only. In this context, the control on the fabrication of the part, as well as on the appearance of residual stresses [35], is performed solely through the temperature. Adding the hypothesis of an infinite scanning speed, the model is further simplified by getting rid of the time dependence of the problem. Note that some of the heat sources used in the powder bed fusion context (and especially electron beams) can move very fast along the path: if the steady state property of our model is obviously a restrictive assumption, the results can nevertheless be physically interpreted. For further information on how to derive such a model, on its advantages and on its limits, the interested reader is referred to [22, 23].

Let \mathcal{U}_Γ be the space of admissible paths Γ which are \mathcal{C}^2 oriented curves such that $\Gamma \subset D$, with tangent τ_Γ , starting at some point A and ending at point B (depending on Γ). The normal n_Γ is defined such that, $\forall x \in \Gamma$, $(\tau_\Gamma(x), n_\Gamma(x))$ is a direct orthonormal basis. The (mean) curvature is given at each point by $\kappa_\Gamma(x) = \text{div}(n_\Gamma(x))$ where the normal has been extended to a neighborhood of Γ . Note that this curvature is well defined since the curves $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma$ are \mathcal{C}^2 . In the following, it is assumed that the path is switched on at once leading to the following heat equation:

$$\begin{cases} -\nabla(\lambda \nabla y) + \beta(y - y_{\text{ini}}) = P\chi_\Gamma & \text{in } D, \\ \lambda \partial_n y = 0 & \text{on } \partial D. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

with λ the conductivity, P the constant source power, Γ the scanning path and $\chi_\Gamma(x)$ the Dirac function supported by the path. This heat equation models the conduction effects in the layer plane as well as in the building direction, through the introduction of a temperature loss term with coefficient β . The variational formulation of (5) consists in finding $y \in H^1(D)$ such that

$$\int_D (\lambda \nabla y \cdot \nabla \phi + \beta(y - y_{\text{ini}})\phi) dx = \int_\Gamma P\phi ds, \quad \forall \phi \in H^1(D). \quad (6)$$

Controlling the feasibility of the part with respect to the path Γ is monitored by three different constraints which should vanish:

- Control of the solid region. The part $\Omega \subset D$ must solidify (Figure 1). Thus, at each point $x \in \Omega$, the temperature, y , must be above a change of state temperature y_ϕ , namely $y(x) \geq y_\phi$. Therefore, with $(\cdot)^+ = \max(\cdot, 0)$, this pointwise constraint can be translated into only one constraint, referred to as "phase constraint" in the following,

$$C_\phi = \int_\Omega [(y_\phi - y(x))^+]^2 dx. \quad (7)$$

- Control of the powder region. The part $D \setminus \Omega$ must remain powder. Thus, at each point $x \in D \setminus \Omega$, the temperature, y , must remain under a maximum temperature $y_{M,D \setminus \Omega} \leq y_\phi$, namely $y(x) \leq y_{M,D \setminus \Omega}$. A constraint, referred to as "maximum temperature constraint out of the part" in the following, can then be introduced

$$C_{M,D \setminus \Omega} = \int_{D \setminus \Omega} [(y(x) - y_{M,D \setminus \Omega})^+]^2 dx. \quad (8)$$

- Control of the defects. To avoid the appearance of defects in the part during its building (especially residual stresses and deformations), the maximum temperature is required to stay below a fixed threshold. Thus, at each point $x \in \Omega$, the temperature y must remain below a maximum temperature $y_{M,\Omega}$, namely $y(x) \leq y_{M,\Omega}$. The choice of the maximal temperature $y_{M,\Omega}$ is somehow arbitrary and obviously impacts the optimization results. For further details, the reader can refer to [23] and especially to Chapter 6. The "maximum temperature constraint in the part" is defined by

$$C_{M,\Omega} = \int_\Omega [(y(x) - y_{M,\Omega})^+]^2 dx. \quad (9)$$

The optimization problem is to minimize the path length

$$\min_{\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma} L_\Gamma = \int_\Gamma ds,$$

under the constraints that $C_\phi = 0$, $C_{M,D \setminus \Omega} = 0$, $C_{M,\Omega} = 0$.

2.3 Concurrent optimization problem

The concurrent or simultaneous optimization problem gathers both optimization problems of Subsections 2.1 and 2.2. It is a multiphysic problem with two state equations (one mechanical for the final use of the part, one thermal for the building process of the part). It reads

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\Omega \in \mathcal{U}_\Omega, \Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma} J(\Omega, \Gamma) &= l_{\text{cply}} C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega) + l_L L_\Gamma(\Gamma), \\ \text{such that } \begin{cases} V(\Omega) &= V^{\text{target}}, \\ C(\Omega, \Gamma) &= C_\phi(\Omega, \Gamma) + l C_{M,\Omega}(\Omega, \Gamma) + C_{M,D \setminus \Omega}(\Omega, \Gamma) = 0, \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where the various objectives and constraints are computed with the states $u \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$, solution of the elasticity equation (2), $y \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$, solution of the heat equation (5), and $l_{\text{cply}}, l_L \in \mathbb{R}$ are some weighting coefficients.

Remark 1. Note that in this work, the path Γ and the shape Ω are independent. This is a modelling choice. To make the problem more complex and more realistic, the shape could be considered dependent on the path Γ . One could also decide to model the shape by the melted zone and thus optimize the path only, the part's shape being completely determined by the path.

Remark 2. Note that the constraint C corresponds to the sum of the constraints related to the control of the solid region, to the control of the powder region and to the control of the defects. Each of them is considered with equal importance. Yet, it is possible to choose differently the constraint C , especially by introducing weights in the sum.

3 Gradient with respect to the path Γ and the shape Ω

The optimization method is based on a gradient descent algorithm. It thus requires the computation of the gradient of each objective and constraint functions with respect to the path Γ and shape Ω . In this work, the shape optimization method (also called Hadamard method) is chosen and the gradients are computed using the Lagrangian method of C ea [36]. The proofs of the propositions are simply sketched and the interested reader is referred to [32, 33, 34, 37] for more mathematical details.

3.1 Differentiation with respect to the shape Ω

Proposition 1 details the differentiation with respect to the shape Ω .

Proposition 1. Let $\Omega \in \mathcal{U}_\Omega$ and $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma$. Then, C_{ply} , L_Γ , V and C are differentiable at Ω and for any perturbation $\theta_\Omega \in C^2(\bar{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $\forall x \in \partial\Omega_N \cup \partial\Omega_D$, $\theta_\Omega(x) = 0$, their derivatives are

$$D_\Omega C_{ply}(\Omega)(\theta_\Omega) = \int_{\partial\Omega_F} (-A\varepsilon(u) : \varepsilon(u)) \theta_\Omega(s) \cdot n_\Omega(s) ds, \quad (11)$$

$$D_\Omega L_\Gamma(\Gamma)(\theta_\Omega) = 0, \quad (12)$$

$$D_\Omega V(\Omega)(\theta_\Omega) = \int_{\partial\Omega_F} \theta_\Omega(s) \cdot n_\Omega(s) ds, \quad (13)$$

and

$$D_\Omega C(\Omega, \Gamma)(\theta_\Omega) = \int_{\partial\Omega_F} \left(\left[(y_\phi - y)^+ \right]^2 + \left[(y - y_{M, \Omega})^+ \right]^2 - \left[(y - y_{M, D \setminus \Omega})^+ \right]^2 \right) \theta_\Omega(s) \cdot n_\Omega(s) ds. \quad (14)$$

Remark 3. Note that, following the Hadamard structure theorem [32, 33, 34], for all the considered functions (denoted $G \in \{C_{ply}, L_\Gamma, V, C\}$ in the following), the derivative can be written, with $g_\Omega \in C^0(\bar{D}, \mathbb{R})$.

$$D_\Omega G(\Omega)(\theta_\Omega) = \int_{\partial\Omega_F} g_\Omega \theta_\Omega \cdot n_\Omega ds. \quad (15)$$

For the proof of Proposition 1 we need the following classical result [32, 33, 34] which is recalled for the sake of completeness.

Lemma 1. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be a smooth open bounded set. Let $f \in C^1(D, \mathbb{R})$. The function $J(\Omega) = \int_\Omega f(x) dx$ is differentiable at Ω and $\forall \theta \in C^2(\bar{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$,

$$D_\Omega J(\Omega)(\theta) = \int_{\partial\Omega} f(s) \theta(s) \cdot n_\Omega(s) ds. \quad (16)$$

Proof. First of all, the path does not depend on the shape Ω (see Remark 1) which gives (12). Lemma 1 is then used to compute the derivatives of the compliance, volume and temperature constraint.

Lemma 1 can apply directly for the volume. Since the integrand of the temperature constraint only depends on the temperature and thus on the path and not on the shape, Lemma 1 also apply. Finally, recalling that only the part of boundary $\partial\Omega_F$ is optimizable, the derivatives given by (13) and (14) are finally found.

As for the compliance, the integrand actually depends on the elastic displacement which itself depends on the shape Ω . A differentiation of this displacement with respect to Ω would then be required. To avoid such computations, the method of C ea [36] is here applied and an extended functional is introduced (recall that $H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$ is defined by (3))

$$\mathcal{G} : \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}_\Omega \times H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2) \times H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2) & \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (\Omega, p, q) & \mapsto \int_\Omega A\varepsilon(p) : \varepsilon(p) + \int_\Omega A\varepsilon(p) : \varepsilon(q) dx - \int_{\partial\Omega_N} h \cdot p ds. \end{cases}$$

Then, $\forall q \in H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$, $\mathcal{G}(\Omega, u, q) = C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)$. Differentiating with respect to the shape Ω then leads to

$$D_{\Omega}C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)(\theta) = \partial_{\Omega}\mathcal{G}(\Omega, u, q)(\theta) + \partial_u\mathcal{G}(\Omega, u, q)(\partial_{\Omega}u(\Omega)(\theta)).$$

Choosing $q = u_{\text{adj}}$ such that $\forall \phi \in H_D^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$, $\partial_u\mathcal{G}(\Omega, u, u_{\text{adj}})(\phi) = 0$ leads to choosing $u_{\text{adj}} \in H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$ solution of

$$\begin{cases} - (A\varepsilon(u_{\text{adj}})) = 0 & \text{in } \Omega \\ A\varepsilon(u) \cdot n_{\Omega} = -2h & \text{on } \partial\Omega_N \\ A\varepsilon(u) \cdot n_{\Omega} = 0 & \text{on } \partial\Omega_F \\ u = 0 & \text{on } \partial\Omega_D. \end{cases}$$

This is equivalent to choosing $u_{\text{adj}} = -2u$. This leads to

$$D_{\Omega}C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)(\theta) = \partial_{\Omega}\mathcal{G}(\Omega, u, -2u)(\theta),$$

and Lemma 1 concludes the proof. \square

3.2 Differentiation with respect to the path Γ

Proposition 2 details the differentiation with respect to the path Γ . To compute the derivative, an adjoint function $y_{\text{adj}} \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$ is introduced as

$$\begin{cases} -\nabla(\lambda\nabla y_{\text{adj}}) + \beta y_{\text{adj}} = 2 \left[(y_{\phi} - y)^+ \mathbb{1}_{\Omega_0} - (y - y_{M, \Omega})^+ \mathbb{1}_{\Omega_0} - (y - y_{M, D \setminus \Omega})^+ \mathbb{1}_{D \setminus \Omega_0} \right] & \text{in } D, \\ \lambda \partial_n y_{\text{adj}} = 0 & \text{on } \partial D. \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

Proposition 2. *Let $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_{\Gamma}$ and $\Omega_0 \in \mathcal{U}_{\Omega}$. Then, C_{ply} , L_{Γ} , V and C are differentiable at Γ and, for any perturbation $\theta_{\Gamma} \in C^2(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$, their derivatives are as follow:*

$$D_{\Gamma}C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)(\theta_{\Gamma}) = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$D_{\Gamma}L_{\Gamma}(\Gamma)(\theta_{\Gamma}) = \int_{\Gamma} \kappa_{\Gamma}(s)\theta_{\Gamma}(s) \cdot n_{\Gamma}(s) ds + \theta_{\Gamma}(B) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(B) - \theta_{\Gamma}(A) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(A), \quad (19)$$

$$D_{\Gamma}V(\Omega)(\theta_{\Gamma}) = 0, \quad (20)$$

and

$$D_{\Gamma}C(\Omega_0, \Gamma)(\theta_{\Gamma}) = \int_{\Gamma} (-P [\partial_n y_{\text{adj}}(s) + \kappa_{\Gamma}(s)y_{\text{adj}}(s)] \theta_{\Gamma}(s) \cdot n_{\Gamma}(s)) ds - P y_{\text{adj}}(B) \theta_{\Gamma}(B) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(B) + P y_{\text{adj}}(A) \theta_{\Gamma}(A) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(A), \quad (21)$$

where $y_{\text{adj}} \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$ is defined by (17).

Remark 4. *Note that, for both the path length and the constraint (denoted $F \in \{C_{\text{ply}}, L_{\Gamma}, V, C\}$), following Hadamard structure theorem [32, 33, 34], the derivative can be written*

$$D_{\Gamma}F(\Gamma)(\theta_{\Gamma}) = \int_{\Gamma} f_{n_{\Gamma}} \theta_{\Gamma} \cdot n_{\Gamma} ds + f_{\tau_{\Gamma}}(B) \theta_{\Gamma}(B) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(B) - f_{\tau_{\Gamma}}(A) \theta_{\Gamma}(A) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(A), \quad (22)$$

with $f_{n_{\Gamma}}, f_{\tau_{\Gamma}} \in C^0(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R})$.

For the proof of Proposition 2 we need the following classical result [32, 33, 34] which is recalled for the sake of completeness.

Lemma 2. *Let $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_{\Gamma}$, $g \in W^{2,1}(D, \mathbb{R})$. The function $J(\Gamma) = \int_{\Gamma} g(s) ds$ is differentiable at Γ and $\forall \theta \in C^2(\overline{D}, \mathbb{R}^2)$,*

$$D_{\Gamma}J(\Gamma)(\theta) = \int_{\Gamma} (\kappa_{\Gamma}(s)g(s) + \partial_{n_{\Gamma}}g(s)) \theta(s) \cdot n_{\Gamma}(s) ds + g(B)\theta(B) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(B) - g(A)\theta(A) \cdot \tau_{\Gamma}(A). \quad (23)$$

Proof. First of all, the compliance and volume do not depend on the shape Ω (see Remark 1) which give (18) and (20). Lemma 2 is then used to compute the derivatives of the length and temperature constraint.

Lemma 2 can apply directly for the length. As for the temperature constraint, it does not depend explicitly on the path. The dependence is in the temperature, requiring, as for Proposition 1, the use of the method of C ea. The extended functional is

$$\mathcal{G} : \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}_\Gamma \times H^1(D, \mathbb{R}) \times H^1(D, \mathbb{R}) & \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ (\Gamma, w, z) & \mapsto \int_{\Omega} \left[(y_\phi - w)^+ \right]^2 + \left[(w - y_{M, \Omega})^+ \right]^2 dx + \int_{D \setminus \Omega} \left[(w - y_{M, D \setminus \Omega})^+ \right]^2 \\ & + \int_D \lambda \nabla w \cdot \nabla z dx - \int_{\Gamma} P z ds. \end{cases}$$

Then, $\forall z \in H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)$, $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma, y, z) = C(\Gamma)$. Differentiating with respect to the shape Ω then leads to

$$D_\Gamma C(\Gamma)(\theta) = \partial_\Gamma \mathcal{G}(\Gamma, y, z)(\theta) + \partial_y \mathcal{G}(\Gamma, y, z)(\partial_\Gamma y(\Gamma)(\theta)).$$

Choosing $z = y_{\text{adj}}$ such that $\forall \phi \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$, $\partial_y \mathcal{G}(\Gamma, y, y_{\text{adj}})(\phi) = 0$ leads to define $y_{\text{adj}} \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$ as the solution of (17). This leads to

$$D_\Gamma C(\Gamma)(\theta) = \partial_\Gamma \mathcal{G}(\Gamma, y, y_{\text{adj}})(\theta),$$

and Lemma 2 concludes the proof. \square

3.3 Transformation of the derivative into gradients: regularization-extension process

In order to apply a gradient descent algorithm, a gradient must be deduced from the derivatives given by Propositions 1 and 2. For $X = \Omega$ or $X = \Gamma$, a Hilbert space H_X is chosen together with its scalar product $(\cdot, \cdot)_X$ and the gradient J'_X of a function J corresponds to the Riesz representative of the derivative (which is a linear form) in the Hilbert space.

$$D_X J(X)(\theta) = (J'_X, \theta)_X. \quad (24)$$

This gradient determination process is classical and can be used as a regularization or regularization-extension process (extension of the shape gradient away from the boundary) [32, 38, 39, 40]. Note that the direction $\theta = -J'_X$ is then a descent direction. Indeed, this leads to $D_X J(X)(\theta) = -\|J'_X\|_X^2 \leq 0$.

The gradient with respect to the shape is first considered choosing the gradient of each function $G \in \{C_{\text{ply}}, L_\Gamma, V, C\}$ as the Riesz representative of the derivative in the Hilbert space $H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$ which amounts to compute $G' = G'_{n_\Omega} n_\Omega \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $\forall Q \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$,

$$\int_D (v_\Omega^2 \nabla G'_{n_\Omega} \cdot \nabla Q + G'_{n_\Omega} Q) dx = \int_{\partial \Omega_F} g_\Omega Q ds. \quad (25)$$

The coefficient $v_\Omega > 0$ is a regularization coefficient in this "regularization-extension" process.

The Hilbert space $H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$ cannot be used to regularize the gradient with respect to a curve $\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma$ (with two end points A and B), since any function in $H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$ is not necessarily defined at points A and B . Thus, the gradient with respect to the path of each function $F \in \{C_{\text{ply}}, L_\Gamma, V, C\}$ is the Riesz representative of the derivative in $H^1(\Gamma, \mathbb{R}^2)$ (Laplace-Beltrami choice) which amounts to compute $F' = F'_{\tau_\Gamma} \tau_\Gamma + F'_{n_\Gamma} n_\Gamma \in H^1(\Gamma, \mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $\forall W = W_{\tau_\Gamma} \tau_\Gamma + W_{n_\Gamma} n_\Gamma$, $W_{\tau_\Gamma}, W_{n_\Gamma} \in H^1(\Gamma, \mathbb{R})$,

$$\begin{aligned} D_\Gamma F(\Gamma)(W) &= \int_\Gamma (f_{n_\Gamma} W_{n_\Gamma}) ds + f_{\tau_\Gamma}(B) W_{\tau_\Gamma}(B) - f_{\tau_\Gamma}(A) W_{\tau_\Gamma}(A), \\ &= \int_\Gamma [v_\Gamma^2 (\nabla_{\tau_\Gamma} F'_{\tau_\Gamma} \cdot \nabla_{\tau_\Gamma} W_{\tau_\Gamma} + \nabla_{\tau_\Gamma} F'_{n_\Gamma} \cdot \nabla_{\tau_\Gamma} W_{n_\Gamma}) + F'_{\tau_\Gamma} W_{\tau_\Gamma} + F'_{n_\Gamma} W_{n_\Gamma}] ds. \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

This regularization process is controlled by the coefficient $v_\Gamma > 0$.

4 Numerical algorithm

The optimization method chosen is a double loop algorithm. The outer loop is related to the part shape Ω whereas the inner loop focuses on the path Γ , both of them corresponding to gradient descent algorithms. The number of iterations in each loop determines the balance between the optimization of both variables. The following subsections detail the differentiation process, the discretization and the algorithm related to each loop.

4.1 Inner loop: path optimization

The inner loop focuses on path optimization. Let D be the working domain and Ω_0 a fixed shape that the optimized path must build. The optimization problem related to the inner loop is then

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma} L_\Gamma(\Gamma), \\ \text{such that } C = C_\emptyset(\Omega_0, \Gamma) + C_{M, \Omega}(\Omega_0, \Gamma) + C_{M, D \setminus \Omega}(\Omega_0, \Gamma) = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

where $y \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$ solution to the heat equation (5). To numerically solve this optimization problem, the strategy is the following: first define a discretization of the problem; and then, choose an optimization algorithm and determine the corresponding numerical gradient from the gradients computed in Subsection 3.2.

4.1.1 Discretization of the optimization problem

Along the inner loop iterations, the path Γ is modified leading to re-evaluations of the temperature y . The numerical representation of each object is crucial since impacting both the computational time and accuracy. Among the several works related to interface representation [41, 42, 43, 44], we follow [45] and choose a front tracking approach. The working domain is discretized with a "(physical) mesh" fixed along the iterations. On this mesh, the finite element functions are defined and the temperature computed. The path is also discretized as a broken line defined by its nodal points $(x_i)_{i \in \llbracket 1, N_x \rrbracket}$, N_x the number of points. This discretized path (and especially its nodal points) is modified at each iteration (Figure 2). The resulting line is re-discretized to ensure each segment length to be in the range $[d_{\text{lower}}, d_{\text{upper}}]$ such that $d_{\text{upper}} = 2d_{\text{lower}} = 0.7\Delta x$, with Δx the characteristic physical mesh size. The broken line representation of the path implies the definition of discrete tangent $(\tau_{\Gamma i})_{i \in \llbracket 1, N_x-1 \rrbracket}$, normal $(n_{\Gamma i})_{i \in \llbracket 1, N_x-1 \rrbracket}$ and curvature $(\kappa_{\Gamma i})_{i \in \llbracket 1, N_x-1 \rrbracket}$. Their definitions follow [23] Chapter 5, in which all the details of the discretization process can be found. Finally, all the algorithmic details related to the information mapping from the line to the physical mesh (heat source definition on the physical mesh for example) can be found in [23] Chapter 5.

This representation is very convenient because it keeps the mesh fixed, thereby considerably reducing the computational costs. Moreover, the discretized path allows for a full control of the line topology (no uncontrolled changes in the number of connected components). In this work, only one connected component of the path is allowed (the path topology is fixed). An optimization to modify the path topology has been proposed in [23].

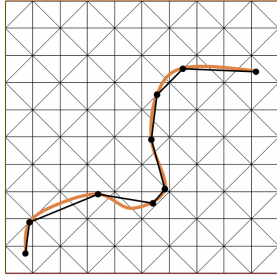


Figure 2: Front-tracking approach: fixed physical mesh and moving broken line path discretization

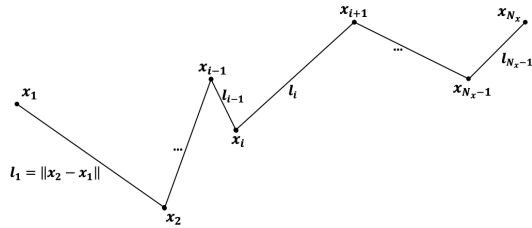


Figure 3: Path description as a broken line

The gradients of the path length and constraint are the solutions of (26) in their continuous version. To get them in a discretized version, compatible with the numerical problem, the gradient equation is discretized. Let F be the function to which the numerical gradient must be computed. Then, $\forall i \in \llbracket 1, N_x \rrbracket$, its numerical gradient at point x_i , $F'_i = F'_{\tau_{\Gamma, i}} \tau_{\Gamma i} + F'_{n_{\Gamma, i}} n_{\Gamma i}$ is such that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_x-1} l_i \left[v_\Gamma^2 \left(\frac{F'_{\tau_{\Gamma, i+1}} - F'_{\tau_{\Gamma, i}}}{l_i} \frac{W_{i+1} - W_i}{l_i} \right) + \frac{F'_{\tau_{\Gamma, i+1}} W_{i+1} + F'_{\tau_{\Gamma, i}} W_i}{2} \right] - f_{\tau_{\Gamma, N_x}} W_{N_x} + f_{\tau_{\Gamma, 1}} W_1 \right) = 0, \\ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_x-1} l_i \left[v_\Gamma^2 \left(\frac{F'_{n_{\Gamma, i+1}} - F'_{n_{\Gamma, i}}}{l_i} \frac{W_{i+1} - W_i}{l_i} \right) + \frac{F'_{n_{\Gamma, i+1}} W_{i+1} + F'_{n_{\Gamma, i}} W_i}{2} - \frac{f_{n_{\Gamma, i+1}} W_{i+1} + f_{n_{\Gamma, i}} W_i}{2} \right] \right) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

4.1.2 Inner loop optimization algorithm

In order to include the constraint C into the optimization algorithm, an augmented Lagrangian method is chosen [46, 23]. The optimization problem (27) is modified into

$$\max_{l_{C,\Gamma} \in \mathbb{R}} \min_{\Gamma \in \mathcal{U}_\Gamma} \mathcal{L}_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma, l_{C,\Gamma}; c_{C,\Gamma}) = \frac{L_\Gamma(\Gamma)}{L_\Gamma^0} + l_{C,\Gamma} \frac{C(\Omega_0, \Gamma)}{C^0} + \frac{c_{C,\Gamma}}{2} \left(\frac{C(\Omega_0, \Gamma)}{C^0} \right)^2, \quad (29)$$

with $L_\Gamma^0 = \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^0$ the initial path length and $C^0 = C(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^0)$ the initial constraint. An iterative algorithm is set. At each iteration $k > 0$, the Lagrange multiplier $l_{C,\Gamma}$ and the path nodal points $(x_i)_{i \in \llbracket 1, N_x \rrbracket}$ are updated reading

$$\begin{cases} l_{C,\Gamma}^{k+1} = l_{C,\Gamma}^k + c_{C,\Gamma} C(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k+1}), \\ \forall i \in \llbracket 1, N_x \rrbracket, x_i^{k+1} = x_i^k - s_\Gamma^k \mathcal{L}'_{\Gamma,i}(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^k, l_{C,\Gamma}^k; c_{C,\Gamma}), \end{cases} \quad (30)$$

with $\mathcal{L}'_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma, l_{C,\Gamma}; c_{C,\Gamma}) = \frac{L'_\Gamma}{L_\Gamma^0} + \left(\frac{l_{C,\Gamma}}{C^0} + \frac{c_{C,\Gamma}}{(C^0)^2} C(\Omega_0, \Gamma) \right) C'_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma)$. The step s_Γ^k is given by:

$$s_\Gamma^k = \frac{\text{Coef}_\Gamma^k \Delta x}{\max_i (\|\mathcal{L}'_{\Gamma,i}(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^k, l_{C,\Gamma}^k; c_{C,\Gamma})\|)},$$

with Δx the characteristic physical mesh size. The coefficient Coef_Γ^k is initialized to 1 and updated at each iteration so that (line search strategy),

$$\begin{cases} \min(1.2 \text{Coef}_\Gamma^k, 1), & \mathcal{L}_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k+1}, l_{C,\Gamma}^k; c_{C,\Gamma}) < \text{tol}_\Gamma^k * \mathcal{L}_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^k, l_{C,\Gamma}^k; c_{C,\Gamma}), \\ 0.6 \text{Coef}_\Gamma^k, & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (31)$$

The tolerance is set to $\text{tol}_\Gamma^0 = 1$ in the inner loop.

Finally, if some points are outside the domain D , they are orthogonally projected back to D making the algorithm a projected Augmented Lagrangian detailed by Algorithm 1.

```

1 the part shape is fixed to  $\Omega_0$ 
2  $k_\Gamma = 0$ , initialization of the path  $\Gamma_{\Omega_0}^0$  and multiplier  $l_{C,\Gamma}^0$ 
3 resolution of the heat equation and computation of the objective function and constraints
4 computation of the derivatives
5 while  $\text{Coef}_\Gamma^{k_\Gamma} \geq 10^{-8}$  and  $k_\Gamma \leq \mathbf{do}$ 
6   update of the tolerance
7   path variation such that  $\Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma+1} = \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma} - s_\Gamma^{k_\Gamma} \mathcal{L}'_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma}, l_{C,\Gamma}^{k_\Gamma}; c_{C,\Gamma})$ 
8   re-discretization of the path  $\Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma+1}$ 
9   resolution of the heat equation, computation of the objective function and constraint
10  if  $\mathcal{L}_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma+1}, l_{C,\Gamma}^{k_\Gamma}; c_{C,\Gamma}) < \mathcal{L}_\Gamma(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma}, l_{C,\Gamma}^{k_\Gamma}; c_{C,\Gamma}) * \text{tol}_\Gamma^{k_\Gamma}$  then
11    iteration accepted
12    Lagrange multiplier  $l_{C,\Gamma}$  updated:  $l_{C,\Gamma}^{k_\Gamma+1} = l_{C,\Gamma}^{k_\Gamma} + c_{C,\Gamma} C^{k_\Gamma+1}(\Omega_0, \Gamma_{\Omega_0}^{k_\Gamma+1})$ 
13    step increased
14    update of the variables
15    computation of the derivatives
16  end
17  else
18    iteration rejected
19    step decreased
20  end
21 end

```

Algorithm 1: Inner loop algorithm

Remark 5. The augmented Lagrangian method is one approach to deal with the constraints, in which their satisfaction is ensured at convergence only. This final convergence may not be reached in a finite (reasonable)

number of iterations. In the numerical results, the algorithm has been stopped after a finite number of iterations and the constraint' final value are thus not exactly zero. Improving this constraint's issue is part of the perspectives. Among the different possibilities, a first idea would be to change the chosen algorithm to deal with the constraints. For example, the algorithm developed in [47] could be adapted.

Remark 6. Note that each the phase and the maximal temperature constraints are weighted to 1 in the constraint C . This choice aimed at simplifying the numerical tests but could be modified: different weights could be chosen or each constraint could be dealt with separately. This could especially be interesting to favour the respect of the part shape in the building. From an industrial point of view, the main objective is to build the part shape and only then to minimize the residual stresses arising.

4.2 Outer loop: part optimization

The outer loop focuses on part optimization. A descent gradient is set in which at each iteration, the part is first modified before the inner loop algorithm to update the path is applied. The optimization problem corresponding to this outer loop is

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\Omega \in \mathcal{U}_\Omega} J(\Omega, \Gamma) &= l_{\text{ply}} C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega) + L_\Gamma(\Gamma), \\ \text{such that } \begin{cases} V(\Omega) = V^{\text{target}}, \\ C(\Omega, \Gamma) = C_\phi(\Omega, \Gamma) + C_{M,\Omega}(\Omega, \Gamma) + C_{M,D \setminus \Omega}(\Omega, \Gamma) = 0, \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

where $y \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R})$ solution to the heat equation (5) and $u \in H^1(D, \mathbb{R}^2)$ solution to the elasticity equation (2). The strategy to solve this problem is the same than for the path: define a discretization of the problem and then choose an optimization algorithm and determine the corresponding numerical gradients.

4.2.1 Discretization of the optimization problem

The shape is numerically represented by the level set of a function ψ defined on the whole working domain D [37, 48] such that

$$\begin{cases} \psi(x) < 0 & x \in \Omega, \\ \psi(x) = 0 & x \in \partial\Omega \cup D, \\ \psi(x) > 0 & x \in D \setminus \bar{\Omega}. \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

In this context, the update of the level set is given by the Hamilton Jacobi equation, with t representing the evolution with respect to the iterations and $d_\Omega^{n\Omega}(t, x)$ the update direction on the normal,

$$\partial_t \psi(t, x) + d_\Omega^{n\Omega}(t, x) |\nabla \psi(t, x)| = 0, \quad \forall t, \forall x \in D. \quad (34)$$

In numerical applications, the processes described in [49, 50, 51] are used. Along the iterations, the advection equation tends to flatten the level set function values thus "blurring" the results. A re-distanciation algorithm is thus applied based on the signed distance equation [32, 37, 52]. In numerical applications, this function is provided by Freefem++ [53].

4.2.2 Outer loop optimization algorithm

To deal with both the volume and temperature constraints, an augmented Lagrangian method is used, coupled with a dichotomy algorithm on the volume Lagrange multiplier to better satisfy the volume constraint. Introducing the multipliers l_V and l_C , the penalizers c_V and c_C , the effective objective function is then

$$\mathcal{L}_\Omega(\Omega, \Gamma, l_V, l_C; c_V, c_C) = \mathcal{L}_{\Omega,A}(\Omega, \Gamma, l_C; c_V, c_C) + l_V \mathcal{L}_{\Omega,B}(\Omega, \Gamma, l_C; c_V, c_C), \quad (35)$$

with

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{L}_{\Omega,A}(\Omega, \Gamma, l_C; c_V, c_C) = \frac{C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)}{C_{\text{ply}}^0} + \frac{L_\Gamma(\Gamma)}{L_\Gamma^0} + \frac{c_V}{2} \left(\frac{V(\Omega) - V^{\text{target}}}{V^0} \right)^2 + l_C \frac{C(\Omega, \Gamma)}{C^0} + \frac{c_C}{2} \left(\frac{C(\Omega, \Gamma)}{C^0} \right)^2, \\ \mathcal{L}_{\Omega,B}(\Omega) = \frac{V(\Omega) - V^{\text{target}}}{V^0} \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

where $\overline{C}_{\text{ply}}^0 = C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega^0)$, $\overline{L}_\Gamma^0 = L_\Gamma(\Gamma^0)$, $\overline{V}^0 = V(\Omega^0)$ and $\overline{C}^0 = C(\Omega^0, \Gamma^0)$. The gradient to this effective objective function is then computed as $\mathcal{L}'_\Omega = \mathcal{L}'_{\Omega,A} + l_V \mathcal{L}'_{\Omega,B}$, with

$$\begin{cases} \mathcal{L}'_{\Omega,A}(\Omega, \Gamma, l_C; c_V, c_C) = \frac{C'_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)}{\overline{C}_{\text{ply}}^0} + \frac{c_V}{(\overline{V}^0)^2} V'(\Omega) + \left(\frac{l_C}{\overline{C}^0} + \frac{c_C}{(\overline{C}^0)^2} C(\Omega, \Gamma) \right) C'(\Omega, \Gamma), \\ \mathcal{L}'_{\Omega,B}(\Omega) = \frac{V'(\Omega)}{\overline{V}^0} \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

The descent direction $d_\Omega^{i\Omega}$ involved in the Hamilton Jacobi equation (34) is related to this gradient and the following advection step (see Algorithm 2):

$$s_\Omega^k = \text{Coef}_\Omega^k \frac{\Delta x}{\|d_\Omega^{i\Omega}\|_{L^\infty}}, \quad (38)$$

with Coef_Ω^k initialized to 5 and updated so that

$$\begin{cases} \min(1.2 \text{Coef}_\Omega^k, 1), & \mathcal{L}_\Omega(\Omega^{k+1}, \Gamma^{k+1}, l_V^k, l_C^k; c_V, c_C) \leq \text{tol}_\Omega^k * \mathcal{L}_\Omega(\Omega^k, \Gamma^k, l_V^k, l_C^k; c_V, c_C), \\ 0.6 \text{Coef}_\Omega^k, & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

The tolerance tol_Ω is initialized to 1.6 and multiplied by 0.9 every 50 iterations. The final algorithm is given by Algorithm 2 with further details in [23] Chapter 9.

```

1 initialize the shape and path  $\Omega^0, \Gamma^{-1}, c_V = 1, l_C^0 = 1, c_C = 1$ ,
2 compute the optimal path  $\Gamma^0$  (application of Algorithm 1 initialized by  $\Gamma^{-1}$  with  $N_\Gamma^0$ ),
3 initialize of  $l_V$ ,
4 for  $i\Omega \in \llbracket 0, N_\Omega \rrbracket$  do
5     determine by a dichotomy  $l_V^{\text{test}}$  such that  $|V(\Omega^{\text{test}}) - V^{\text{target}}| \leq \varepsilon_{\text{dicho}}$ ,
6     compute the new compliance  $C_{\text{ply}}(\Omega)$  and volume  $V(\Omega)$ ,
7     determination of the optimal  $\Gamma$  (application of Algorithm 1 initialized by  $\Gamma^{i\Omega}$  with  $N_\Gamma^{i\Omega}$ ),  $L_\Gamma(\Gamma)$ ,
       $C(\Omega, \Gamma)$ ,
8     if  $\mathcal{L}_\Omega(\Omega, \Gamma, l_V^{i\Omega}, l_C^{i\Omega}; c_V, c_C) \leq \text{tol}_\Omega \mathcal{L}_\Omega(\Omega^{i\Omega}, \Gamma^{i\Omega}, l_V^{i\Omega}, l_C^{i\Omega}; c_V, c_C)$  then
9         iteration accepted:  $\Omega^{i\Omega+1} = \Omega, \Gamma^{i\Omega+1} = \Gamma$ ,
10        update the Lagrange multiplier  $l_V^{i\Omega+1} = l_V^{\text{test}} + c_V V^{i\Omega+1}$ ,
11        update the Lagrange multiplier  $l_C^{i\Omega+1} = l_C^{i\Omega} + c_C C^{i\Omega+1}$ ,
12        compute the new objective function and gradients,
13        increase the step coefficient related to the shape:  $\text{Coef}_\Omega = \min(1.2 \text{Coef}_\Omega, 5)$ 
14    end
15    else
16        iteration rejected (shape and path rejected),
17        decrease the step coefficient related to the shape:  $\text{Coef}_\Omega = 0.6 \text{Coef}_\Omega$ .
18    end
19 end

```

Algorithm 2: Iterative double loop algorithm to optimize the shape and the path.

The coefficient $\varepsilon_{\text{dicho}}$ is initialized to 0.05 and multiplied by 0.95 at each iteration during the 120 first ones. The volume tolerance is then fixed to $\varepsilon_{\text{dicho}} = 1.1 \cdot 10^{-4}$.

Remark 7. *In this outer loop, the augmented Lagrangian algorithm is supplemented by a dichotomy on the volume Lagrange multiplier. Indeed, as stated in Remark 5, the augmented Lagrangian ensures the fulfilment of the constraints at convergence only. However, we cannot make sure here that the volume constraint is satisfied which explains why adding this second method. Note that if this method can be very easily adapted to the volume, it could not be implemented at such a cheap cost for the temperature constraint. Indeed, modifying the volume does not involve any partial differential equation whereas the temperature constraint not only involves a heat equation but also the resolution of an inner loop, drastically increasing the computational costs of a dichotomy on its coefficients.*

5 Numerical results

An initialization state INI is defined with a shape Ω^{INI} and a path Γ^{INI} (subfigure (a) in each Figure). From Algorithm 2, different tests are run, summed up in Figure 4:

- **SONLY: shape optimized - path fixed**, without any consideration of the temperature constraints ($l_C = 0$ and $c_C = 0$). This test is initialized with $\Omega^0 = \Omega^{\text{INI}}$.
- **STEMP: shape optimized - path fixed**, taking into consideration the temperature constraints ($l_C^0 = 1$, $c_C = 1$, $\forall it_\Omega \in \llbracket 0, N_\Omega \rrbracket$, $N_\Gamma^{it_\Omega} = 0$). This test is initialized with $\Omega^0 = \Omega^{\text{INI}}$ and the fixed path used for the temperature computations is Γ^{INI} .
- **SP-fromINI: shape optimized - path optimized**. This test optimizes both variables taking into account temperature constraints ($l_C^0 = 1$, $c_C = 1$). The number of inner loop iterations follows Table 1. Recall that the inner loop is also broken when the inner loop step coefficient is smaller than 10^{-8} . This test is initialized with $\Omega^0 = \Omega^{\text{INI}}$ and $\Gamma^0 = \Gamma^{\text{INI}}$.

it_Ω	$\llbracket 0, 24 \rrbracket$	25	$\llbracket 26, 44 \rrbracket$	45	$\llbracket 46, 49 \rrbracket$	50	$\llbracket 51, 54 \rrbracket$	55	56	57	58	59	$\llbracket 60, 300 \rrbracket$
$N_\Gamma^{it_\Omega}$	0	50	0	45	0	40	0	35	30	25	20	15	10

Table 1: Number of iterations N_Γ in the inner loop depending on the outer loop iteration it_Ω .

- **PONLY: shape fixed - path optimized**. This test is initialized by $\Gamma^0 = \Gamma^{\text{INI}}$ and the fixed shape to build is Ω^{SONLY} resulting from the optimization test SONLY. This test only involves the inner loop and in this case only, the tolerance of the inner loop is initialized to 2 and multiplied by 0.9 every 50 iterations.
- **SP-fromPONLY: shape optimized - path optimized**. This test optimizes both variables taking into account temperature constraints ($l_C^0 = 1$, $c_C = 1$). The number of inner loop iterations follows Table 1. Recall that if the inner loop is also broken when the inner loop step coefficient is smaller than 10^{-8} . This test is initialized with the shape $\Omega^0 = \Omega^{\text{SONLY}}$ resulting from the optimization test SONLY and with the path $\Gamma^0 = \Gamma^{\text{PONLY}}$ resulting from the optimization test PONLY.

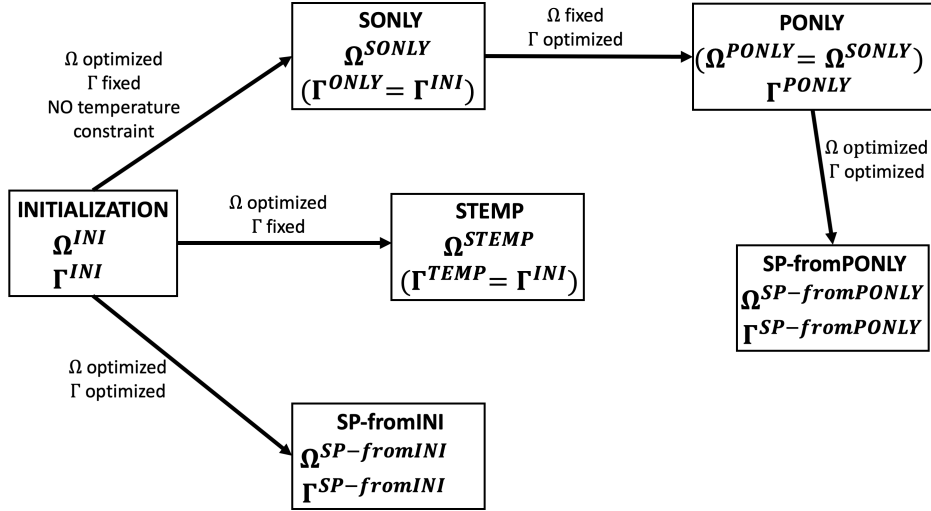


Figure 4: Recap scheme of the different tests

For all these tests, the regularization coefficients are $v_\Omega = 5\Delta x$ and $v_\Gamma = 15d_{\text{lower}}$. For each of these tests, the final shape, path and temperature are given. A table sums up the final compliance, volume, path length and adimensionalized temperature constraints defined by:

$$\overline{C_\phi} = \frac{C_\phi}{|\Omega|y_\phi^2}, \quad \overline{C_{M,\Omega}} = \frac{C_{M,\Omega}}{|\Omega|y_{M,\Omega}^2}, \quad \overline{C_{M,D\setminus\Omega}} = \frac{C_{M,D\setminus\Omega}}{|D\setminus\overline{\Omega}|y_{M,D\setminus\Omega}^2}. \quad (40)$$

A final radar chart sums up the quantitative results. Note that in these graphs, for each of the functions represented (compliance and temperature constraints), the axes are reversed so that the best solutions correspond to the curve with the biggest area.

5.1 Cantilever test case

The first test case is a cantilever. A symmetry condition is applied and the working domain is $D = [-1.4, 1.4] \times [0, 0.7]$ given in mm (full domain corresponding to $[-1.4, 1.4] \times [-0.7, 0.7]$). This working domain is meshed with 12800 triangular elements. As only half of the working domain is considered for symmetry reasons, the point of the path initially belonging to the (Ox) -axis is constrained to remain on this axis. This constraint comes from the will, in this work, to focus on a path composed of only one connected component. Allowing this feature to be modified would impact the numerical results and is part of the perspectives.

Two different physical cases are considered in the following: the aluminium and the titanium. In both cases, the Poisson ratio is set to $\nu = 0.3$, the Young coefficient to $E = 1kgm^{-1}s^{-2}$ and the loading to $h = (0, -2)$ in $kgms^{-2}$. These values do not correspond to real values but, because there exists a linear relation between the displacement and the Young coefficient, they could easily be modified. As for the parameters involved in the heat equation, they are summed up in Table 2. The power P and the coefficient β are determined using a calibration process detailed in [23] Chapter 4. In both cases, the initial temperature is fixed to $y_{ini} = 773K$.

Metal	$\lambda (Wm^{-1}K^{-1})$	$P (Ws^{-1}m^{-1})$	$\beta (WK^{-1}m^{-3})$	$y_\phi (K)$	$y_{M,\Omega} (K)$	$y_{M,D \setminus \Omega} (K)$
Aluminium	130	$400 * 5.45 * 10^6$	$\frac{\lambda}{2.21 * 10^{-9}}$	870	1670	870
Titanium	15	$300 * 5.45 * 10^6$	$\frac{\lambda}{2.21 * 10^{-9}}$	1900	3400	1800

Table 2: Numerical values chosen in the aluminium and titanium test cases.

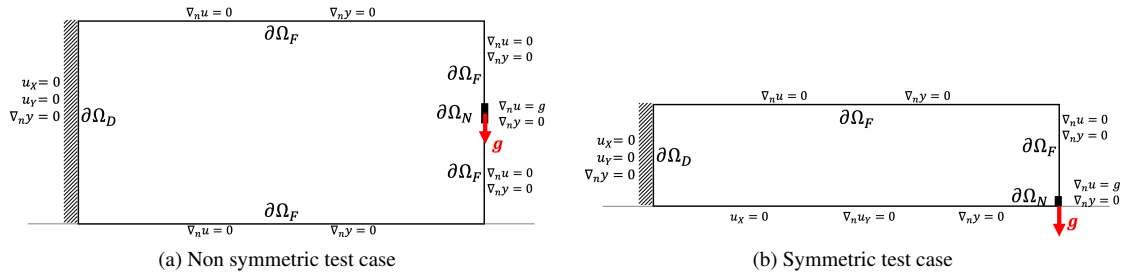


Figure 5: Cantilever test case with the symmetry conditions for the mechanical and heat problems

For each of the aluminium and titanium test cases, two different volume ratios are tested: $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ and $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$ with $V^0 = 1.157e - 06m^2$.

In most of the following Figures, only half of the cantilever is shown. Indeed, for symmetry reasons, the optimization is run on half the working domain only. To get the full result, the Figures should be symmetrized with respect to the horizontal lower axis.

5.1.1 Aluminium test case

For the aluminium, the results of the five tests for each volume ratio are respectively presented in Figures 6 and 7 as well as Table 3 for $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ and Figures 8 and 9 as well as Table 4 for $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$.

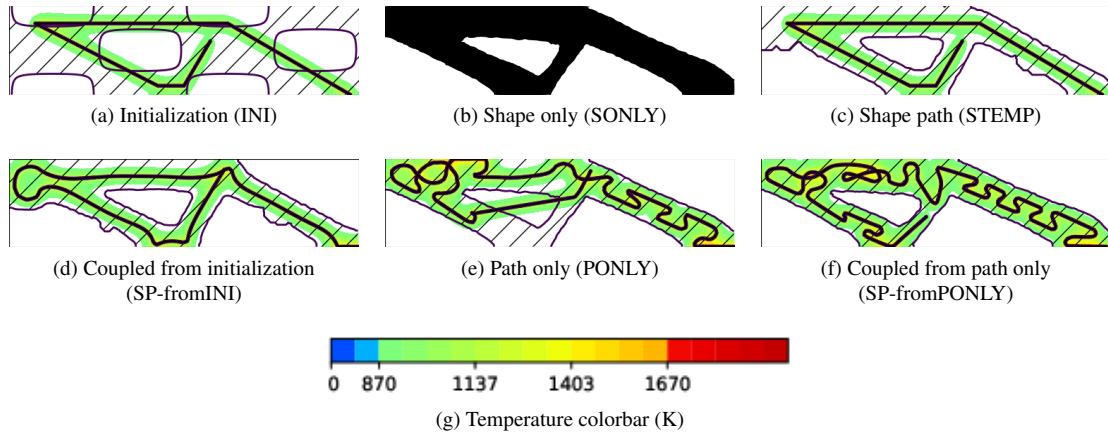


Figure 6: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\bar{C}_{ϕ}	$\bar{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\bar{C}_{M,D \setminus \Omega}$
INI	1.00	$5.67e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$4.88e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$7.30e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$2.25e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.70e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$1.47e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$2.35e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.27e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$1.22e-07$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$2.38e-06$	$5.40e-03$	$4.93e-04$	$0.00e+00$	$3.70e-07$
PONLY	0.90	$2.25e-06$	$7.35e-03$	$1.29e-03$	$9.91e-10$	$2.82e-03$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$2.26e-06$	$8.32e-03$	$1.90e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$2.72e-05$

Table 3: Quantitative results for the different tests, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

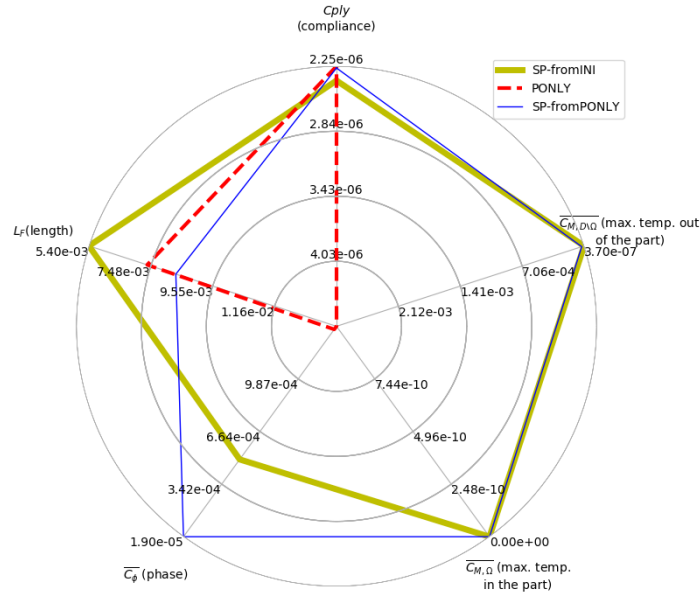


Figure 7: Radar chart of the values given in Table 3, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

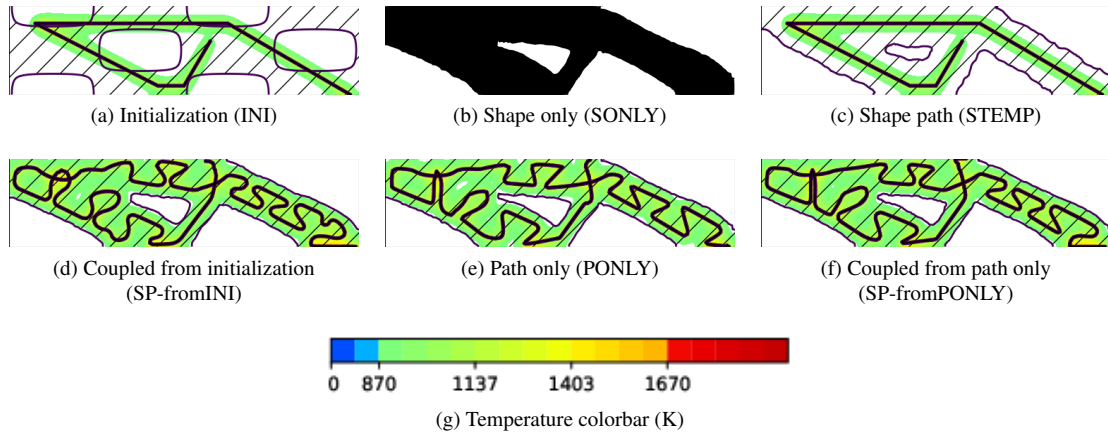


Figure 8: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$5.67e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$4.88e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$7.30e-03$
SONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$2.47e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$1.40e-05$
STEMP	1.10	$2.00e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$2.22e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$9.57e-03$	$9.98e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$1.39e-05$
PONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$8.85e-03$	$1.66e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.99e-05$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$9.34e-03$	$1.10e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.48e-05$

Table 4: Quantitative results for the different tests, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

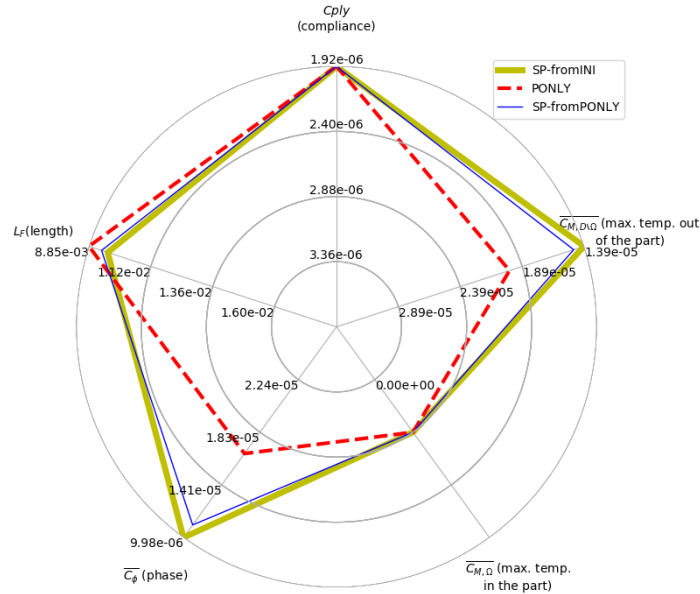


Figure 9: Radar chart of the values given in Table 4, aluminium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

The results coming from both volume constraints ($V = 0.9V^0$ and $V = 1.1V^0$) lead to the same kind of observations. First of all, it is clear that introducing temperature constraints impacts the part's shape. Indeed, in both Figures 6 and 8, the shape presented in (b) is different than in (c) whereas in both tests the path is maintained unmodified and the only difference is the inclusion of temperature constraints in (c). In (c), the lower right bar is thickened to reduce the maximum temperature constraint out of the shape whereas the other bars (upper right in Figure 6 and lower left in 8) are made thinner. Figures (c) also make really clear how fixing the volume impacts the optimization: the shape cannot exactly adapt to the path and reduce the phase constraint since this would require decreasing the volume which is prevented by the dichotomy (see Table 3 and 4).

The optimization of the path only (shape fixed to the result from SONLY, Figures (b)) presented by Figures 6 (e) and 8 (e) is also very informative. In Figure 6 (e), this optimization fails: the phase constraint is not

satisfied and the path crosses a zone out of the shape to build. Indeed, it seems complicated for the path to build the right lower bar: the conductivity is high and the path cannot cross this bar without violating the maximum temperature constraint out of the domain. Struggling to remedy to this problem, the optimization ends up by being stuck into a local minimum that does not satisfy the temperature constraints. On the contrary in Figure 8 (e), the bar is thicker and the path optimization satisfies well the constraints. Note that besides the correct respect of the constraints, the path shown on Figure 8 (e) presents a cross-over. Preventing these auto-intersections could come from a better formulation of the maximum temperature constraint within the part Ω but remain part of the perspectives. Note also that both path optimizations could give different results if more than one path connected component were allowed. If some methods allowing this feature in path optimization have been developed (see [23] Chapter 8), including them in concurrent path and part optimization remains part of the perspectives.

Finally, coupled optimizations are run in each case starting from two different initializations: from Figure (a) to Figure (d) and from Figure (e) to Figure (f). In Figure 6, the strategies are different from one initialization to another. Starting from (a) to (d), the result looks like a simple adaptation of (c): the path is slightly adapted to increase the volume built thus fitting the volume constraint required on the shape whereas the shape's boundary really adapts to the melted zones (upper left corner for example). Starting from (e), the bars thickness are not modified much. The modifications simply allow the path to get out of the local minimum and ends the optimization process. In Figure 8, both initializations lead to similar results. One can especially notice the Omega-patterns chosen by the path to correctly build the different bars. This pattern was already used in Figure 6 (f).

From these first results, two main points are pointed out. First, the importance of the initialization: corroborating the results detail in [23, 22], it seems that the several local minima related to path optimization impact the concurrent optimization results. This initialization should then be chosen with care depending on the optimization context.

Then, if the results cannot lead to design optimization constraints yet, it is very clear that the bars thickness are crucial. Indeed, in each concurrent optimization test, the thin bars have been thickened until they almost correspond to the thickness of the melted powder domain generated by the source. Moreover, not only does the bars thickness determine the ability for path optimization to satisfy the constraints but it also impacts the pattern used by this very optimal path: a too thin bar (with respect to conductivity and power) cannot be built, a thin bar is dealt with by a straight line path, a thicker bar involves Omega-shape patterns. A first design optimization criterion could thus be the thickness of the bars to build and an interesting perspective would be to compare the results obtained for design under thickness constraints (see [52]) to the concurrent design of shape and scanning path.

The optimization on the whole working domain is finally run to evaluate the impact of the symmetry. For $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$, the results are shown in Figure 10 and Table 5.

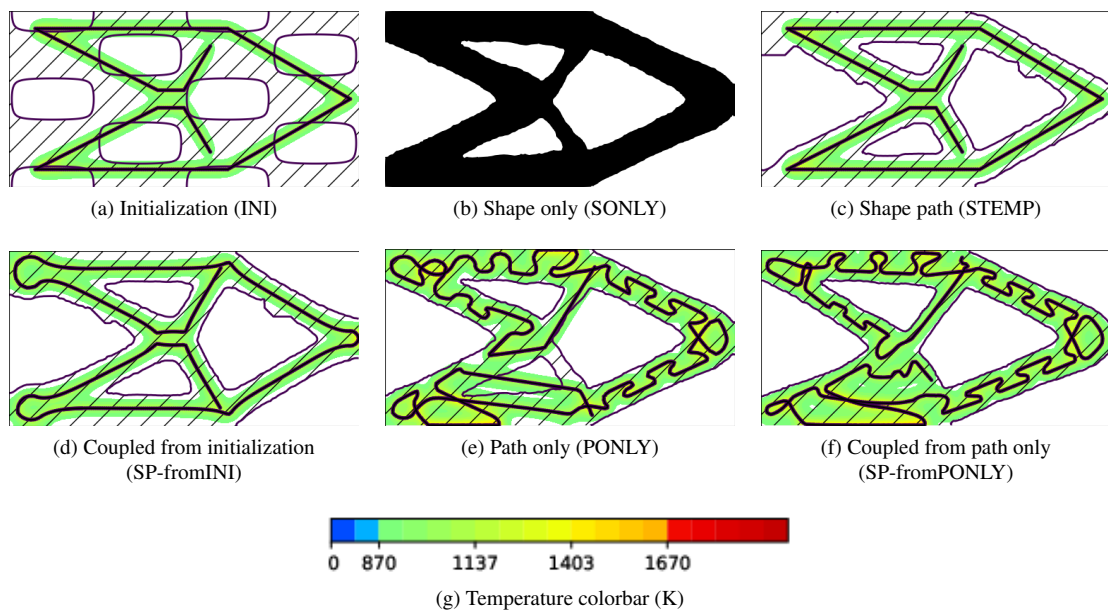


Figure 10: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, aluminium, full cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	C_{ply}	L_Γ	$\overline{C_\phi}$	$\overline{C_{M,\Omega}}$	$\overline{C_{M,D\setminus\Omega}}$
INI	1.00	$1.13e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$4.88e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$7.30e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$4.49e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$1.63e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$1.11e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$4.72e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$1.16e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$4.45e-08$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$4.67e-06$	$1.02e-02$	$5.22e-04$	$0.00e+00$	$3.77e-08$
PONLY	0.90	$4.49e-06$	$1.59e-02$	$1.44e-04$	$0.00e+00$	$1.85e-03$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$4.56e-06$	$1.60e-02$	$1.77e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$3.05e-05$

Table 5: Quantitative results for the different tests, aluminium, full cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

If the results from Figure 10 (a-b-c-d) are very similar to Figure 6 (a-b-c-d), it seems in the optimization of the path only (e) that the path symmetry has been broken. In Figure 6 (e), the path has already difficulties to cross the right lower bar. In Figure 10 (e), it manages to cross it yet encroaching on the lower half of the Figure thus preventing the same method for the symmetric to this right lower bar. Note also that on the right and middle of the Figure (junction location in Figure 6 (e)), the path is not horizontal anymore but introduces an intersection. As for Figure 10 (f), it cannot be symmetric because starting from a non symmetric initialization, and induces the loss of the lower hole. Yet, the shape evolution allows for a correct satisfaction of the constraints.

5.1.2 Titanium test case

For the titanium, the results of the five tests for each volume ratio are presented by Figure 11 and 12 as well as Table 6 for $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ and Figure 13 and 14 as well as Table 7 for $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$.

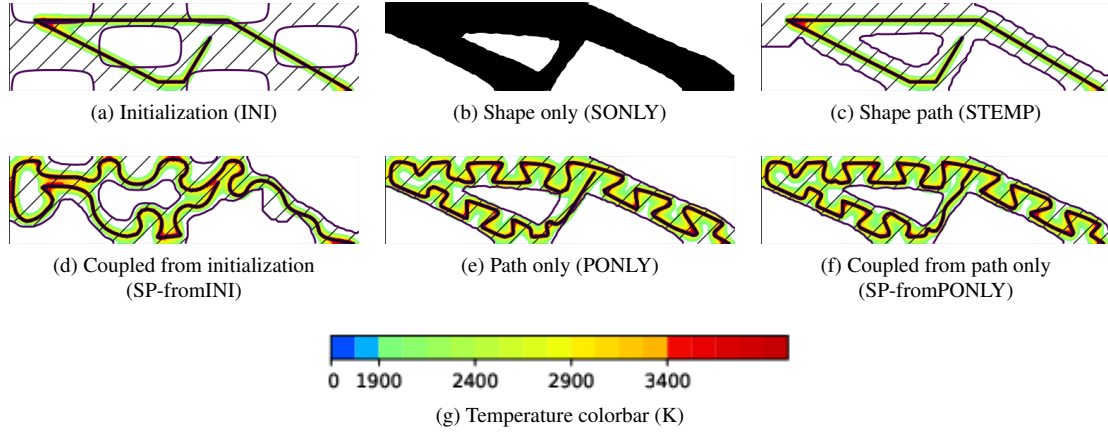


Figure 11: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_\Gamma (m)$	$\overline{C_\phi}$	$\overline{C_{M,\Omega}}$	$\overline{C_{M,D\setminus\Omega}}$
INI	1.00	$5.67e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.69e-01$	$2.79e-05$	$2.29e-02$
SONLY	0.90	$2.25e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$8.91e-02$	$1.55e-04$	$3.93e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$2.36e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$7.56e-02$	$1.55e-04$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$3.37e-06$	$7.40e-03$	$1.91e-02$	$3.78e-04$	$1.34e-04$
PONLY	0.90	$2.25e-06$	$8.63e-03$	$2.14e-03$	$1.10e-04$	$2.25e-04$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$2.25e-06$	$8.63e-03$	$1.66e-03$	$1.24e-04$	$1.45e-04$

Table 6: Quantitative results for the different tests, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

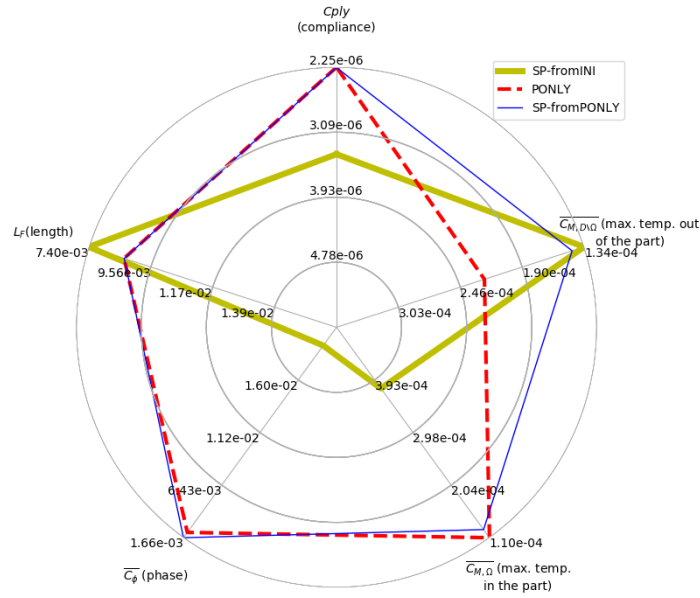


Figure 12: Radar chart of the values given in Table 6, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

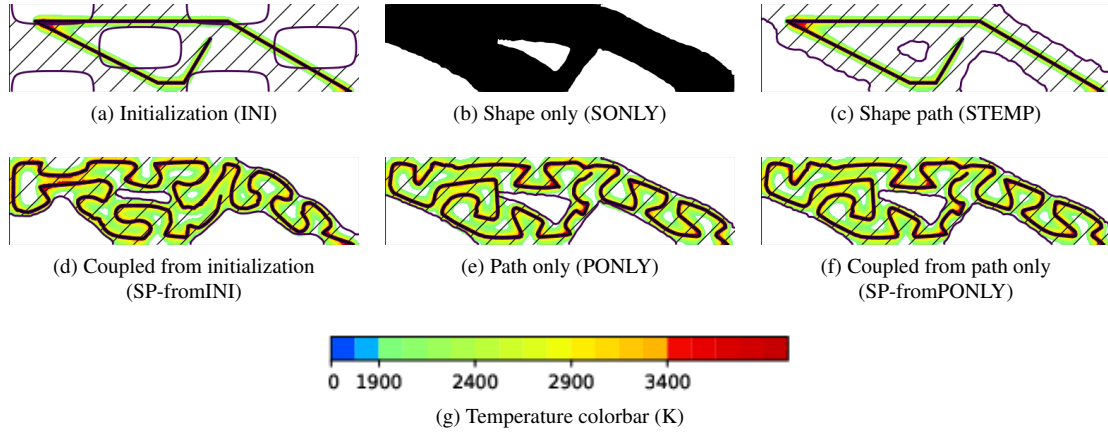


Figure 13: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_\Gamma (m)$	\overline{C}_ϕ	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$5.67e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.69e-01$	$2.79e-05$	$2.29e-02$
SONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.13e-01$	$1.26e-04$	$0.00e+00$
STEMP	1.10	$2.12e-06$	$4.38e-03$	$1.08e-01$	$1.26e-04$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$2.14e-06$	$1.02e-02$	$3.05e-03$	$1.41e-04$	$6.08e-05$
PONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$1.00e-02$	$1.39e-03$	$9.73e-05$	$3.67e-04$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$1.92e-06$	$1.00e-02$	$1.20e-03$	$9.74e-05$	$5.01e-05$

Table 7: Quantitative results for the different tests, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

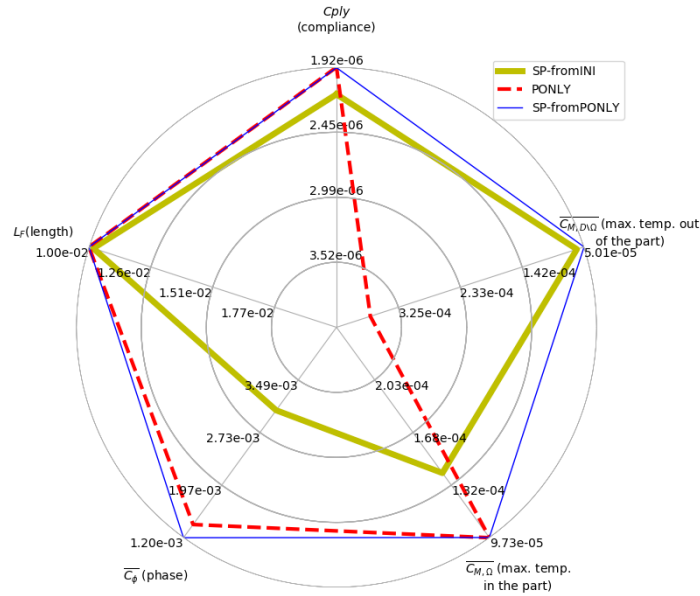


Figure 14: Radar chart of the values given in Table 7, titanium, half cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

First of all, the results obtained corroborate the observations coming from the aluminium test case. The initialization matters, even more in the titanium case because of this metal's low conductivity. In both Figures 11 and 13, the results from concurrent optimization given in (d) (initialized by (a)) and given in (f) (initialized by (e)) are different: because the titanium conductivity is small, the shape is highly modified in concurrent optimization starting from (c): the phase constraint is far from being fulfilled at initialization. On the contrary, the shape slightly adapts when starting from PONLY (e) since the phase constraint is well satisfied. The path and shape are only adapted to fit the zones that remain unmelted. Then, the bars thickness is important. The conductivity of the titanium is lower than the aluminium's. If this makes easier for the path to cross thin lines, it complicates the filling of thick ones. This leads to more complex structures with oscillations of the part's boundary to fit the melted zones (Figure 11). This also impacts the patterns used to design the path, with once again straight line and Omega-shape patterns.

Remark 8. *It is recalled that the Young modulus for the aluminium and for the titanium have been both chosen equal to $E = 1k_g m^{-1} s^{-2}$. This does not correspond to the real Young modulus for each metal but does not change the theory nor the type of results obtained yet facilitating the numerical tests. For the titanium though, the bars could be thinner than obtained in this article.*

The optimization on the whole working domain is finally run to evaluate the impact of the symmetry. For $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$, the results are shown in Figure 15 and Table 8.

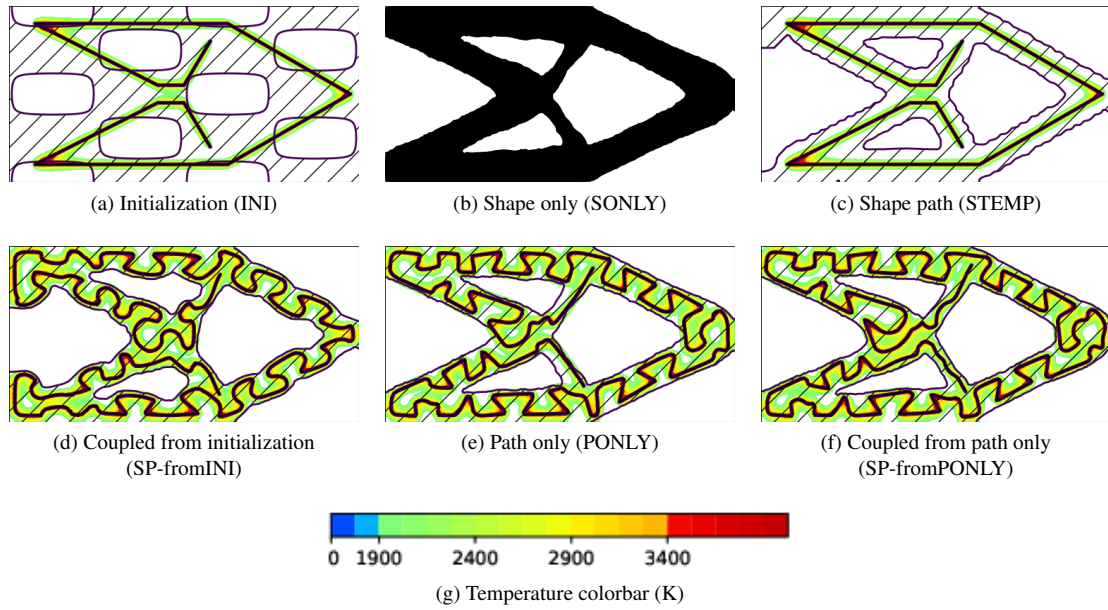


Figure 15: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, titanium, full cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D \setminus \Omega}$
INI	1.00	$1.13e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$1.69e-01$	$2.79e-05$	$2.29e-02$
SONLY	0.90	$4.49e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$8.70e-02$	$1.55e-04$	$2.77e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$4.96e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$7.29e-02$	$1.55e-04$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$4.92e-06$	$1.76e-02$	$1.92e-03$	$1.46e-04$	$6.76e-05$
PONLY	0.90	$4.49e-06$	$1.73e-02$	$2.68e-03$	$1.12e-04$	$8.20e-04$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$4.50e-06$	$1.74e-02$	$2.02e-03$	$1.61e-04$	$1.45e-04$

Table 8: Quantitative results for the different tests, titanium, full cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

As for the aluminium, dealing with the entire geometry induces slight unsymmetries especially to correctly melt the middle zone. Yet, the results remain quite similar with the use of the Omega-pattern and the boundary adaptations to the temperature constraints.

5.2 Large cantilever test case

The first test case points out that shape and path are related through the thickness of the bars composing the shape (combined to the conductivity and source power). In this second test case, the working domain size is increased: the final shape is supposed to be bigger and thus thicker than previously. The objective is to confirm, in these new conditions, the results already obtained.

The second test case features the same cantilever but in a larger working domain which, with the symmetry condition, amounts to $D = [-2.8, 2.8] \times [0, 1.4]$ given in mm . Because the physical parameters are kept unchanged in the heat equation, the problem is not scale-invariant. To keep the same accuracy in the source description and the temperature computation, the mesh of this new working domain should be as thin as the previous mesh and thus be composed of 51200 triangular elements. However, with such a number of elements, the computational costs coming from the resolution of the mechanical problem at each outer loop iteration would be far too high. In the inner loop however, the rigidity matrix related to the heat equation remains the same during the whole optimization process and must be inverted only once. Two different meshes are used: the outer loop and the mechanical computations are run using a mesh with 12800 elements, the inner loop is run with the thin mesh. Then, to allow for the computation of the shape derivatives, the temperature computed on the thin mesh is interpolated (classic interpolation in FreeFem++ [53]) on the outer loop mesh. The mechanical settings remain the same (see Figure 5): for both the titanium and aluminium, the Poisson ratio is fixed to $\nu_e = 0.3$, the Young coefficient is $E_e = 1$ and the loading $h = (0, -2)$ and the heat equation coefficients follow Table 2. For both the aluminium and the titanium test cases, two path initializations are tested. In both cases, the initial volume is $V^0 = 4.629e-06m^2$.

5.2.1 Aluminium test case

The results for the volume constraint $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ are given by Figure 16, Table 9 and Figure 17 for the first initialization and Figure 18, Table 10 and Figure 19 for the second.

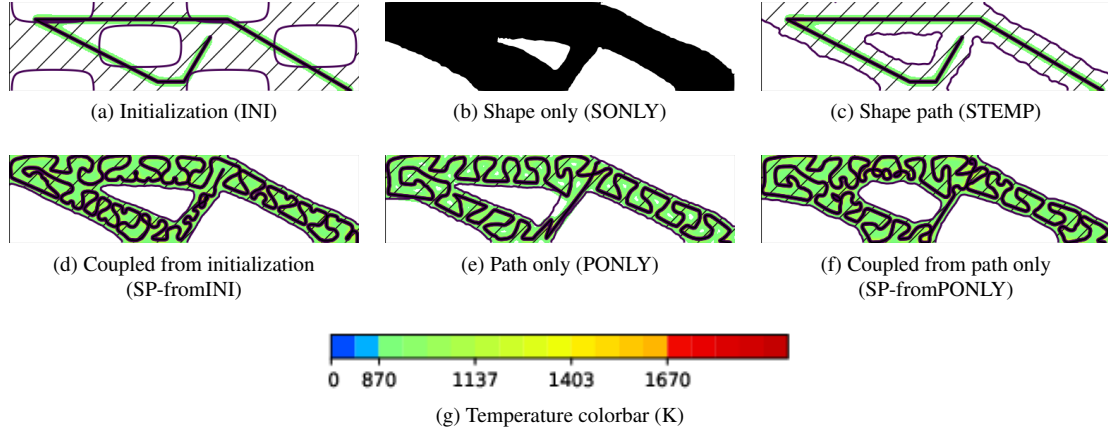


Figure 16: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (k_g ms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$8.07e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$3.54e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$9.052e-06$	$8.765e-03$	$6.014e-03$	$0.000e+00$	$9.194e-04$
STEMP	0.90	$9.44e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$5.45e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$9.01e-06$	$2.99e-02$	$7.07e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$1.20e-05$
PONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$2.63e-02$	$6.02e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.28e-04$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$9.37e-06$	$2.98e-02$	$5.56e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$7.55e-06$

Table 9: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

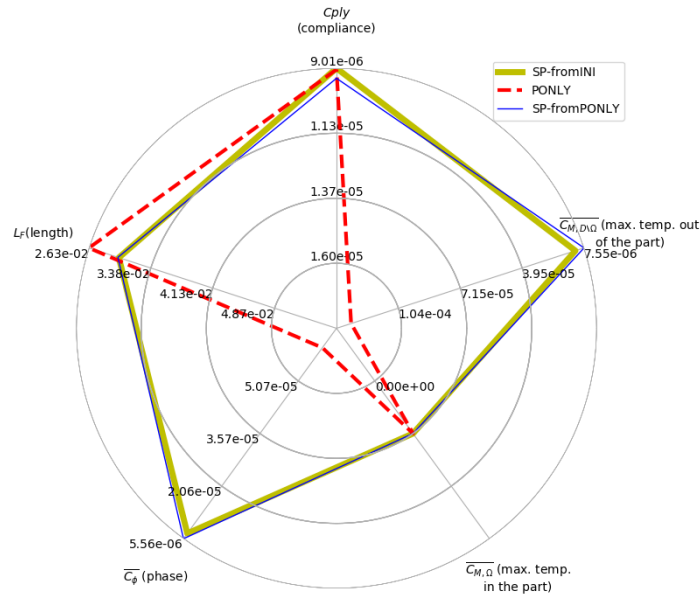


Figure 17: Radar chart of the values given in Table 9, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

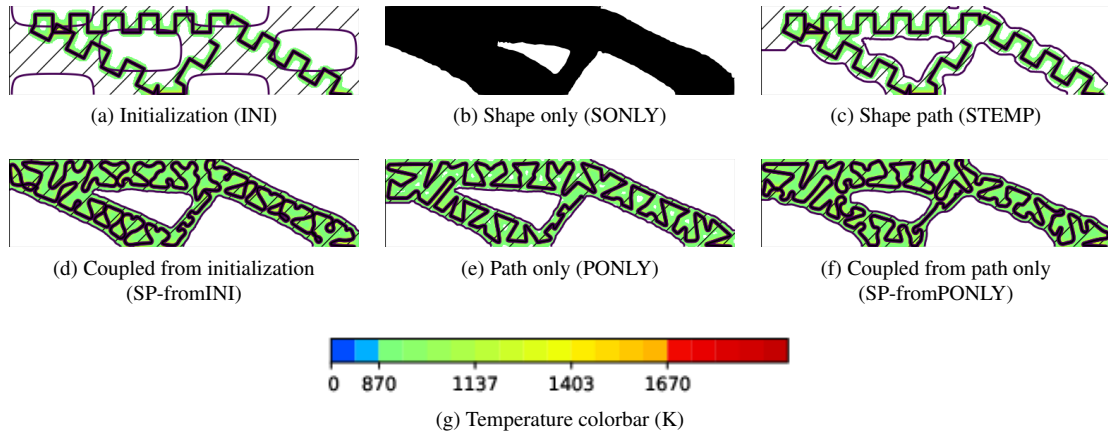


Figure 18: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$1.68e-02$	$5.97e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.49e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$2.92e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$2.72e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$9.90e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$2.03e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.50e-07$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$8.99e-06$	$3.02e-02$	$8.43e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$1.04e-05$
PONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$2.59e-02$	$2.66e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.81e-05$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$9.31e-06$	$2.91e-02$	$6.10e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$7.89e-06$

Table 10: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

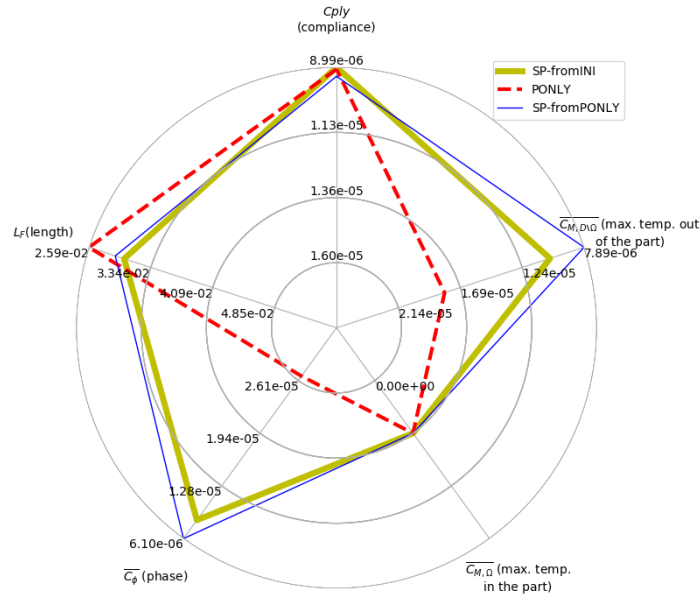


Figure 19: Radar chart of the values given in Table 10, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

Increasing the size of the working domain can be intuitively understood as a decrease of the conductivity. Indeed, compared to the working domain, the zone melted by the initialization in Figure 16 is thinner than in Figure 6. The path and shape must further adapt. The results obtained for $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ lead to similar conclusions than for the results for the titanium in a small working domain (Figures 11 and 13). The bars thickness is once again very important and to cover thick bars, specific patterns appear. In Figure 16, the initialization of the path is composed of straight lines. Yet, it seems that once again Omega-patterns are designed (especially in Figure 16 (d)). The paths resulting from PONLY (Figure 16 (e)) and concurrent optimization starting from the

result of PONLY (Figure 16 (f)) still present the Omega-pattern especially in the left lower bar. They also seem to introduce a second pattern referred to as Wave-pattern in the following. The second initialization (Figure 18 (a)) is chosen to widen the melted zone at the initial state. It clearly impacts the results by preventing the creation of these Wave-patterns but still deforming the initial path to introduce once again Omega-patterns. In both cases, it is very clear that the algorithm seems to naturally introduce repetitive patterns which is very interesting for industrial applications and should be further studied. A final observation, a lot clearer in this large domain context than in the classic one, is that adapting the shape improves the results. Completely straightforward in Figure 18 (c) but also in the different concurrent optimizations and especially Figures 16 (f) and 18 (f), the shape boundary fits the melted domain introducing slight oscillations. The damages on the compliance remaining small, this observation confirms the importance of introducing shape constraints to facilitate path designs.

As for $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$, the results are given by Figure 20, Table 11 and Figure 21 for the first initialization and Figure 22, Table 12 and Figure 23 for the second.

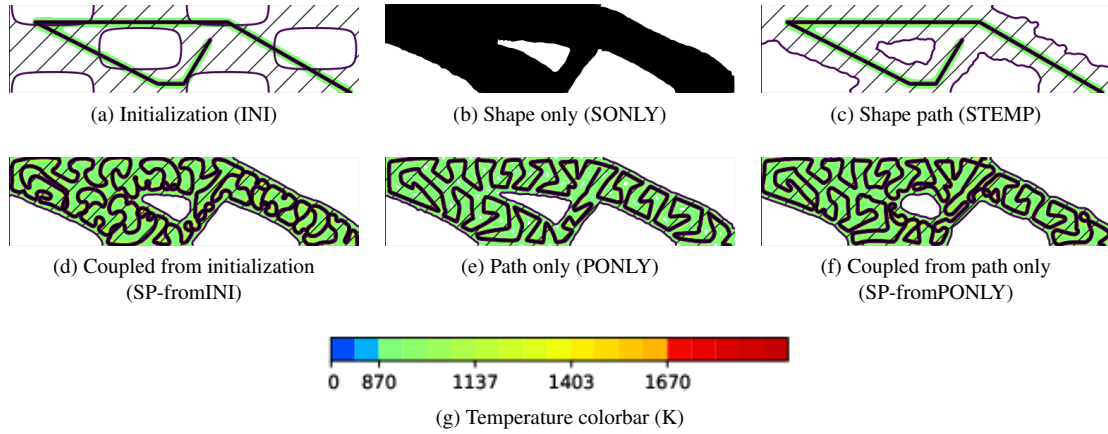


Figure 20: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{\text{ply}} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$8.07e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$3.54e-03$
SONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$6.74e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
STEMP	1.10	$8.03e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$6.68e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$7.69e-06$	$3.84e-02$	$4.41e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$5.16e-06$
PONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.11e-02$	$1.38e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.10e-05$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$7.77e-06$	$3.52e-02$	$4.31e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$4.43e-06$

Table 11: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

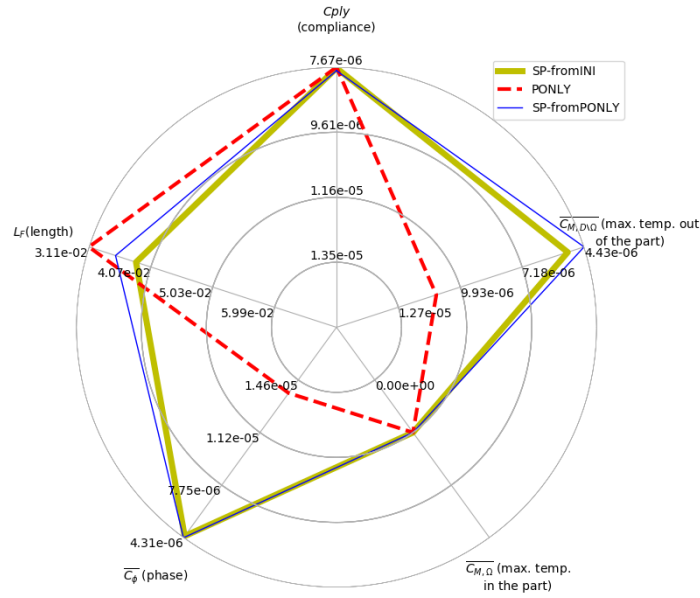


Figure 21: Radar chart of the values given in Table 11, initialization 1, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

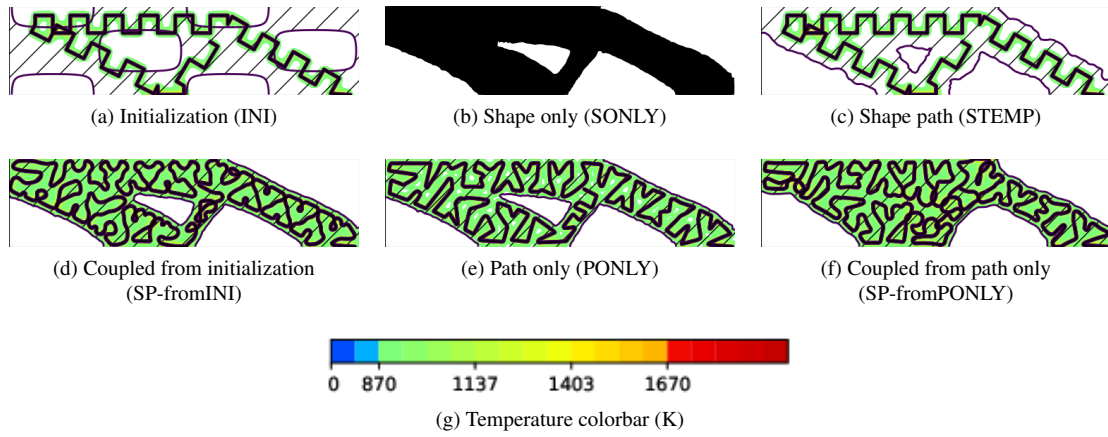


Figure 22: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_\Gamma (m)$	\overline{C}_ϕ	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$1.68e-02$	$5.97e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.49e-03$
SONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$3.64e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$2.90e-04$
STEMP	1.10	$8.05e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$3.42e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.56e-02$	$4.71e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$5.74e-06$
PONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.09e-02$	$2.35e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$6.29e-06$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$8.04e-06$	$3.65e-02$	$2.99e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$3.53e-06$

Table 12: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

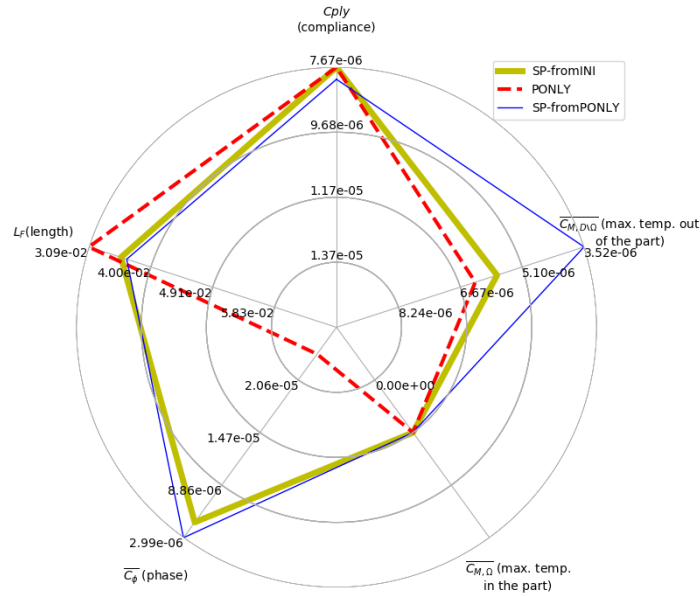


Figure 23: Radar chart of the values given in Table 12, initialization 2, aluminium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$

With $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$, the conclusions are quite similar. Since the bars to melt are larger, the patterns are now closer to the Wave-pattern in Figure 20 (d-e-f). In Figure 22 (d-e-f), the patterns are closer to Omega-pattern, the path initialization chosen impacting strongly these results. It is once again very clear that the shape adapt to the melted zones with the modification of the inner hole size in Figures 20 and 22 (d) and (f) (the hole even disappears in Figure 22 (f) and with stronger oscillations in the boundary, especially when running concurrent optimization starting from PONLY (Figures 20 and 22 (f)).

5.2.2 Titanium test case

To further complicate the optimization, these tests with a larger domain are now run with the titanium. The Figures presenting the results for $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$ are given by Figure 24, Table 13 and Figure 25 for the first initialization and Figure 26, Table 14 and Figure 27 for the second initialization. As for the tests for $V^{\text{target}} = 1.1V^0$, they are given by Figure 28, Table 15 and Figure 29 for the first initialization and Figure 30, Table 16 and Figure 31 for the second initialization.

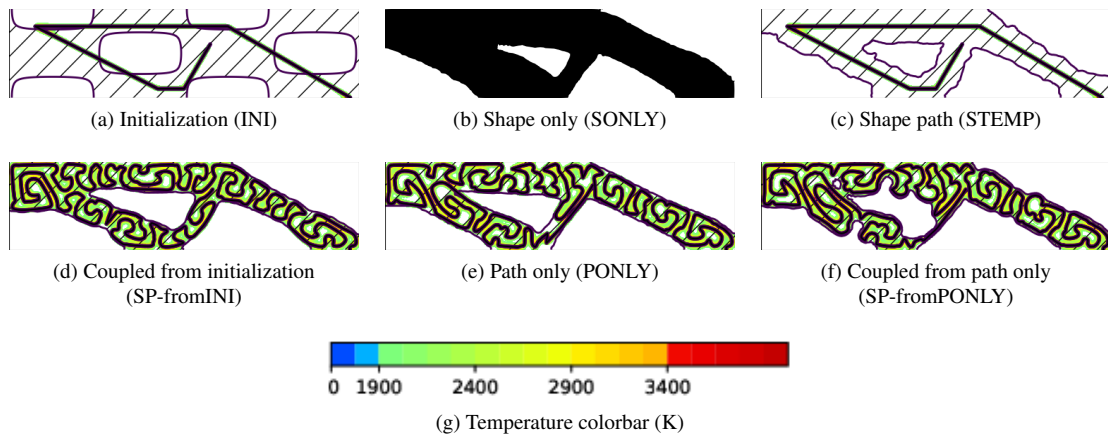


Figure 24: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V^{\text{target}} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$8.07e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$3.54e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$6.01e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$9.19e-04$
STEMP	0.90	$9.44e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$5.45e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$9.01e-06$	$2.99e-02$	$7.07e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$1.20e-05$
PONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$2.63e-02$	$6.02e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.28e-04$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$9.37e-06$	$2.98e-02$	$5.56e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$7.55e-06$

Table 13: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 0.9V^0$

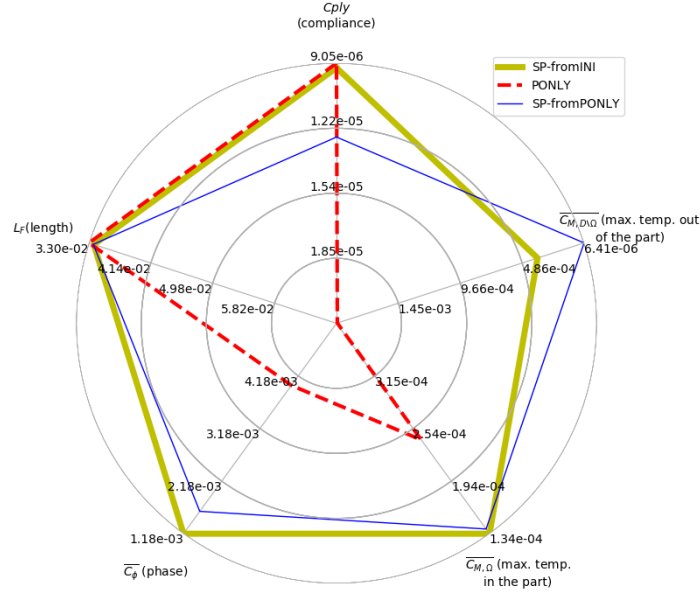


Figure 25: Radar chart of the values given in Table 13, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 0.9V^0$

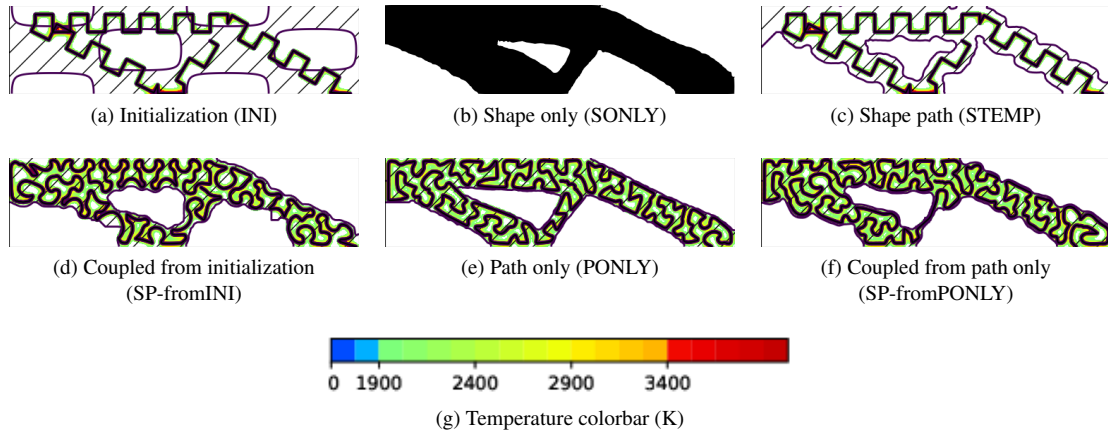


Figure 26: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 0.9V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V^0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$1.68e-02$	$5.97e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.49e-03$
SONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$2.92e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$2.72e-03$
STEMP	0.90	$9.90e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$2.03e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.50e-07$
SP-fromINI	0.90	$8.99e-06$	$3.02e-02$	$8.43e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$1.04e-05$
PONLY	0.90	$9.05e-06$	$2.59e-02$	$2.66e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.81e-05$
SP-fromPONLY	0.90	$9.31e-06$	$2.91e-02$	$6.10e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$7.89e-06$

Table 14: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 0.9V^0$

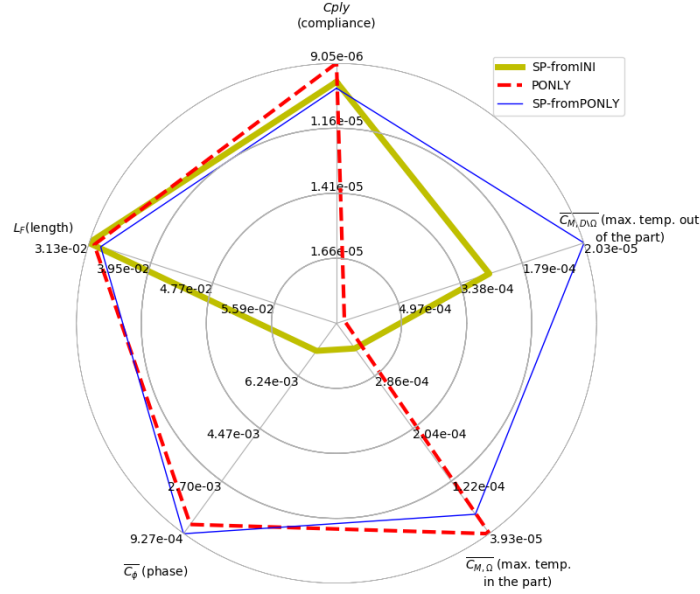


Figure 27: Radar chart of the values given in Table 14, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 0.9V^0$

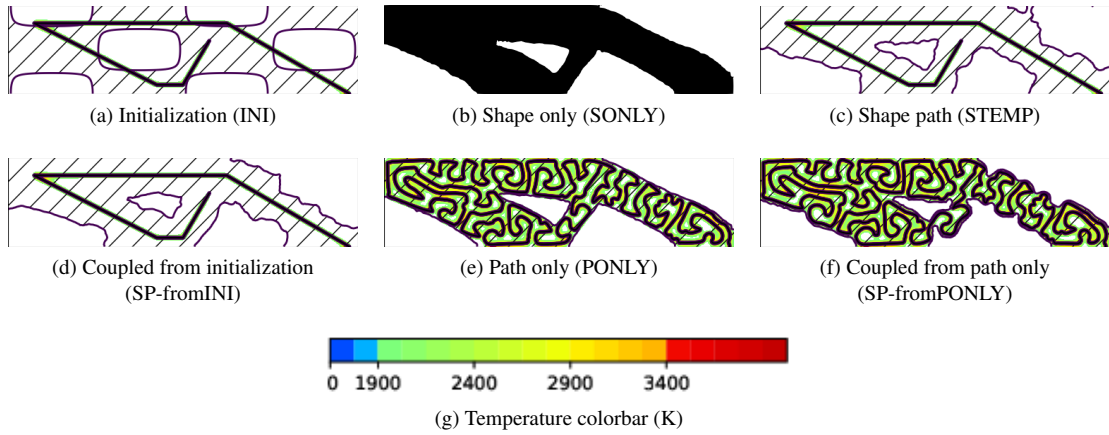


Figure 28: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V_0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_\Gamma (m)$	\overline{C}_ϕ	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$8.77e-03$	$8.07e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$3.54e-03$
SONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$6.74e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
STEMP	1.10	$8.03e-06$	$8.77e-03$	$6.68e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$7.69e-06$	$3.84e-02$	$4.41e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$5.16e-06$
PONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.11e-02$	$1.38e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$1.10e-05$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$7.77e-06$	$3.52e-02$	$4.31e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$4.43e-06$

Table 15: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

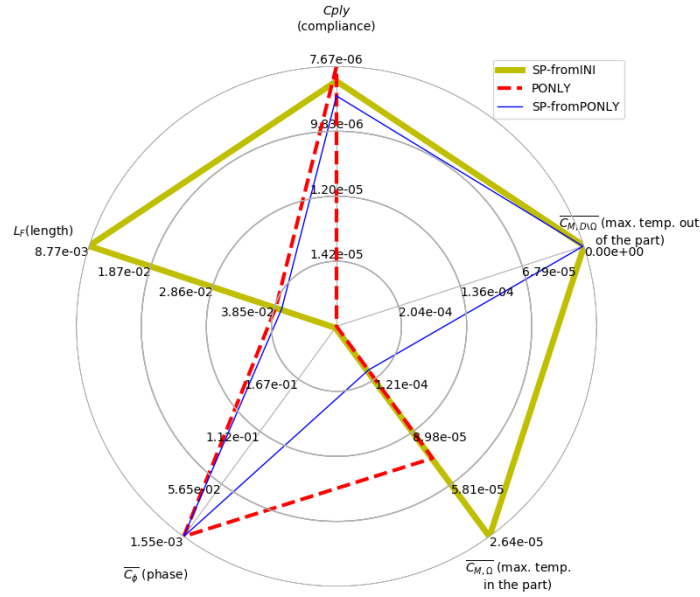


Figure 29: Radar chart of the values given in Table 15, initialization 1, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

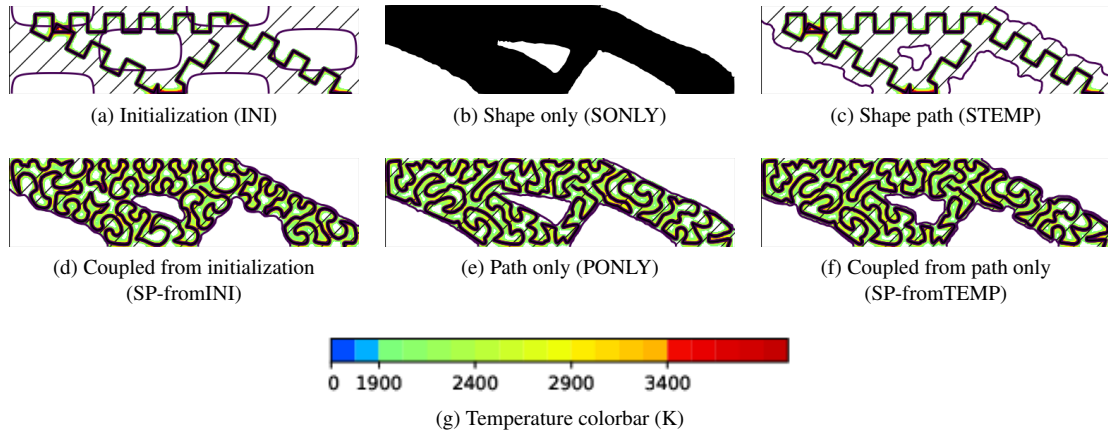


Figure 30: Initialization and shape optimization for different tests, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

case	$\frac{V}{V_0}$	$C_{ply} (kgms^{-2})$	$L_{\Gamma} (m)$	\overline{C}_{ϕ}	$\overline{C}_{M,\Omega}$	$\overline{C}_{M,D\setminus\Omega}$
INI	1.00	$2.27e-05$	$1.68e-02$	$5.97e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$8.49e-03$
SONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$3.64e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$2.90e-04$
STEMP	1.10	$8.05e-06$	$1.68e-02$	$3.42e-03$	$0.00e+00$	$0.00e+00$
SP-fromINI	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.56e-02$	$4.71e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$5.74e-06$
PONLY	1.10	$7.67e-06$	$3.09e-02$	$2.35e-05$	$0.00e+00$	$6.29e-06$
SP-fromPONLY	1.10	$8.04e-06$	$3.65e-02$	$2.99e-06$	$0.00e+00$	$3.53e-06$

Table 16: Quantitative results for the different tests, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

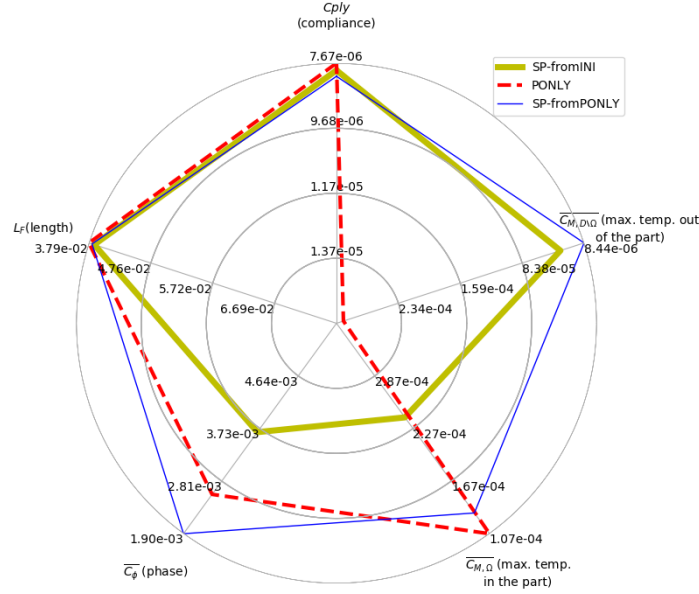


Figure 31: Radar chart of the values given in Table 16, initialization 2, titanium, half large cantilever, $V_{target} = 1.1V^0$

In this new test case, filling this higher volume is very hard for the path. The results keep hinting towards a relation between the filling pattern and the thickness of the bar. In Figure 24 (d-e), it seems that thin bars are filled in with a Omega-pattern whereas thicker bars at the upper left corner are filled in with a strong Wave-pattern. On Figure 24 (f), it also seems that the algorithm can take advantage of the low conductivity to build bars that only require a straight line to be melted. Very thin, they still maintain a correct compliance. These observations can be spread to Figures 28. As for zigzag initializations, they lead to slightly different patterns corresponding to a mix between Omega- and Wave-patterns. Yet, the relation between thickness and pattern happens in these tests too with the presence of Wave-patterns especially in the top left corners of Figures 26 (d-e-f) and 30 (d-e-f). As in the small working domain, the low conductivity of the titanium emphasizes the adaptation of the shape to the temperature. At the cost of compliance, this is very well illustrated by Figure 24 (f) in which the inner hole corresponds to a non intuitive shape fitting the path. If this is less explicit in the other results, the algorithm still created boundary oscillations.

6 Conclusion and perspectives

In this work, the path optimization algorithm developed in [23, 22] has been adapted to handle concurrent optimization of the path and the part's shape and topology in the steady state case. The concurrent algorithm relies on alternate optimization of the shape and topology and the path at each iteration. Despite its simplicity, it has interesting features and yields promising results. The first feature is the importance of the initialization. The scanning path optimization problem is full of good local minima. In concurrent optimization the initialization also influences the part shape. Finding an efficient initialization strategy is the topic of further work. The second and most important feature is the clear relation between scanning path and part's shape and topology: the shape really adapts to the temperature constraints coming from path optimization and it is often crucial in their satisfaction. This is well illustrated by the relation between thickness, material properties and scanning

parameters: too thin, the bar cannot be accurately built; thicker, it induces an Omega-pattern strategy of the path; even thicker, Wave-pattern arises.

These promising results open up perspectives. First of all, an in-depth study of the impact of the thickness on the scanning path has to be conducted. For this purpose, more tests are required, mostly for different mechanical loadings but also for different metals. Then, as mentioned in Section 5, the scanning path optimization itself should be further developed, to allow for path splitting or prevent auto-intersections for example. The model could also be expanded by a mechanical analysis of the residual stresses (inherent strain method for example [27, 28]) and by including constraints representing the kinematics of the problem (curvature control for example). To further involve the kinematics, a time dependent model, such as the one developed in [23], could also be adapted to the present algorithm. In this unsteady setting it would also be possible to take into account three dimensional effects, at least by taking into account the previous layers in the optimization of anew layer. Finally, our results, and especially the Omega-pattern and Wave-pattern, will be tested on real machines to get experimental information on their relevance and efficiency.

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