PHYSICAL SYSTEM DESIGN USING HAMILTONIAN MONTE CARLO OVER LEARNED MANIFOLDS

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ABSTRACT

The design of complex physical systems entails satisfying several competing performance objectives. In practice, some design requirements are often implicit in the intuition and knowledge of designers who have many years of experience working with similar designs. Designers use this experience to sample a few promising candidates in the design space and evaluate or simulate them using detailed, typically slow multiphysics models. The goal in design is usually to generate a diverse set of high-performing design configurations that allow trade-offs across different objectives and avoid early concretization. In this paper, we develop a machine learning approach to automate physical system design. We use deep generative models to learn a manifold of the valid design space, followed by Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) with simulated annealing to explore and optimize design over the learned manifold, producing a diverse set of optimal designs. Our approach is akin to partial simulated annealing restricted to the learned design manifold, where the annealing schedule is varied to trade-off different objectives. To prevent our approach from traversing off the design manifold and proposing unreliable designs, we leverage Monte Carlo dropout as a way to detect and avoid design configurations where the learned model cannot be trusted. We demonstrate the efficacy of our proposed approach using several case studies that include the design of an SAE race vehicle, propeller, and air vehicle. Across these case studies, we successfully show how our method generates high-performing and diverse designs.

1 INTRODUCTION

The automated design of systems is a long-standing goal of artificial intelligence (AI), and computeraided design has been successfully used across a wide spectrum of applications, ranging from microprocessors to programs [\(Fujita, 2019;](#page-9-0) [Solar-Lezama, 2008\)](#page-10-0). But this success is limited to domains where the design intent can be captured using complete and unambiguous specifications. We focus on the design of physical systems, which presents unique challenges beyond the scope of traditional design automation techniques. First, the design process lacks a complete formal characterization and relies on human intuition and domain expertise. The space of designs is large, but the designers have access to several examples of valid designs created for different performance objectives or functional goals. Designers use this knowledge and experience to identify a promising space of candidate designs and conduct manual design space exploration. Second, the design space exploration uses complex multiphysics models [\(Rider, 2013;](#page-10-1) [Stolarski et al., 2018\)](#page-10-2) spanning across several dimensions such as mechanical, electrical, and fluid-dynamics, and are non-differentiable, blackbox and proprietary. This renders a direct use of combinatorial search or gradient-based methods for design inapplicable, and necessitates minimizing the number of evaluated candidate designs during exploration. Finally, the design process is often incremental and requires optimizing over multiple objectives [\(Schaltz & Soylu, 2011\)](#page-10-3). Hence, it is not sufficient to view design as just an optimization process to find one optimal design; instead, designers create multiple diverse high-performing designs that trade-off different design objectives. This avoids early concretization and enables freedom to select designs for downstream integration and optimization when new objectives are added.

This paper aims to address these challenges and develop a machine learning approach to aid the physical design process, reducing the dependency on human intuition and experience, accelerating the discovery of new designs, and improving the performance and diversity of generated designs.

Our primary contribution is the formulation of a two-staged approach, DeLPhy for design using learning focussed on physical system. DeLPhy uses examples of designs to learn a design manifold and simultaneously explores and optimizes designs meeting the specified objectives. We jointly train a variational autoencoder to generate design examples with a specification network to predict design objectives. The following novel contributions in DeLPhy makes it an effective approach to physical design:

- We use Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) with a novel temperature scaling in the latent space of a variational autoencoder to implement a partial simulated annealing approach, whereby we optimize for the specified designs objectives.
- We use Monte Carlo Dropout to make the prediction of performance objectives uncertainty-aware, and detect new unreliable design configurations. This avoids exploration in unreliable parts of the design manifold.
- Our sampling approach leads to the generation of a diverse set of designs that trade-off multiple design objectives. This is critical to designing physical systems, which necessitates diversity to increase adaptation to downstream design.

In Section [2,](#page-1-0) we describe the problem of physical system design and use an example to illustrate the key aspects of the problem. We also identify the desiderata of a machine learning approach to physical design and present DeLPhy in Section [3](#page-2-0) that meets these desiderata. We present three case studies to demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach in Section [4](#page-5-0) and discuss related work in Section [5.](#page-8-0) We conclude in Section [6](#page-8-1) by summarizing our key findings.

2 PHYSICAL SYSTEM DESIGN

The design freedom for a specific application can be parameterized to define a *design space* that needs to be explored. We expect multiple competing *design objectives* that need to be achieved simultaneously. The evaluation of these objectives requires the evaluation of *domain models,* which are typically slow and computationally expensive multiphysics models. Each point in the design space is called a *design configuration*. We are given a set of *exemplar designs* that are valid design configurations but do not address the design objectives under consideration. The goal is to use these exemplar designs to learn a manifold in the design space over which we can explore and identify a diverse set of optimal design configurations that trade off different design objectives.

Figure 1: Physical Design Problem for the Formula SAE racing vehicle [\(Soria Zurita et al., 2018\)](#page-10-4)

Figure [1](#page-1-1) illustrates the physical design problem using the example of the Formula SAE racing vehicle from systems engineering literature [\(Soria Zurita et al., 2018\)](#page-10-4). The design of a Formula SAE racing vehicle comprises 11 subsystems such as the tires, suspensions, engine, cabin, impact attenuator and wings. Each subsystem is described using multiple parameters listed above. For example, the tire components have radius, pressure, x position and mass as parameters. There are 39 parameters that describe the vehicle's *design space*. A more detailed design could consider higher dimensional description, such as the 3D shape of the wings, to better estimate wind-drag. The *design objectives*

capture the designer's underlying preferences for the system. The 11 objectives listed above can be a mixture of target performance such as the preferred height of the center of gravity, and optimization metrics such as maximizing acceleration and minimizing drag. While some of these objectives could be analytical *domain models*, the accurate computation of quantities such as drag requires slow blackbox proprietary software [\(Rider, 2013\)](#page-10-1). The slow physics domain models need to be approximated by faster surrogate specification models that can allow more efficient exploration and optimization. Further, a possible spread of performance over the objectives of the *exemplar vehicle designs* is illustrated in the radar plot in the top right corner in blue. The performance of a target vehicle *design configuration* is shown in red. The target requires us to have much higher velocity and acceleration while reducing drag, height of center of gravity and crash force. Designs must also be adaptable, that is, new metrics might be added later and hence, it is critical to generate not just one optimal design but a number of diverse designs that trade off different design objectives and enable future adaptation to new metrics. We identify the following desiderata that need to be satisfied by an effective machine learning approach for the design of physical systems.

- The exemplar designs are likely to be far from optimal design objectives, but help identify the design space constraints. This implicit design space must be learned from the example designs.
- Since the target performance objectives can be very different from those of the exemplar designs, the learned models need to be uncertainty-aware and detect when its predictions on new configurations cannot be trusted to avoid exploration of configurations that are likely to be unrealizable.
- A diverse set of optimal designs need to be identified to trade off different objectives, and enable future adaptation to additional objectives. We need an exploration approach that can sample diverse designs that meet the design objectives in addition to optimization.

3 PHYSICAL SYSTEM DESIGN USING MACHINE LEARNING

In this paper, we develop a two-stage approach DeLPhy (illustrated in Figure [2\)](#page-2-1) for design using learning focussed on physical system that satisfies the desiderata identified in the previous section.

Figure 2: DeLPhy uses exemplar designs to learn a variational encoder (VAE) where the decoder is trained with dropout. The latent space represents the learned design manifold. The specification network predicts the design objectives from the latent space. The VAE and the specification network are jointly trained on the exemplar designs and their evaluation on physics models. In the design exploration stage, we condition on the new target design objectives and use temperature annealed HMC to sample the latent space, moving towards optimal designs exploiting the gradient information. Further, Monte Carlo dropout in the decoder leads to multiple design samples for a sampled latent design, which are then passed through the encoder and the specification network to determine a distribution over the design objectives. High variance/uncertainty implies off-manifold designs that may not be unrealizable. DeLPhy finds multiple diverse optimal design configurations.

We denote the design space by X with candidate designs $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and the specification of the design objectives by s which is a vector of competing multidimensional objectives s_i expressing the performance of the target design. In the first stage, we use exemplar designs to learn a generative model

in the form of a variational autoencoder (VAE) [\(Kingma & Welling, 2013;](#page-10-5) [Rezende et al., 2014\)](#page-10-6) over the design space, along with a specification network that predicts the values of the different design objectives from the latent representation. The latent design space is denoted by $z \in \mathcal{Z}$. The encoder network μ , log $\sigma^2 = E_{\theta}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathbf{z} = \mu + \epsilon \sigma$ with parameters θ maps a design to latent space and $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ is the VAE reparameterized noise. The decoder of the VAE is represented by $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = D_{\phi}(\mathbf{z})$, where ϕ are the parameters of the decoder. The specification network $\mathbf{s} = S_{\mu}(\mathbf{z})$ with model parameters μ predicts the design objectives as a function of the latent design z.

Training Model. Training the VAE and the specification network models can be done offline without a full knowledge of the target design objectives, and can be reused for different design problems. Since the exemplar designs only need to be valid but not address design objectives, we can generate them by sampling configurations from a simple distribution and evaluating the valid configurations using the physics models. The learned generative model along with the specification network interpolates the design objectives over the configurations and thus, also serves as a differentiable surrogate model minimizing the evaluation of the slow physics models. We train the generative model with Monte Carlo dropout [\(Gal & Ghahramani, 2016\)](#page-9-1) over the decoder network to make the model uncertainty-aware and enable us to compute the confidence on our predicted design performance. The encoder, decoder, and the specification network are jointly trained using the following loss function where we use a variant of the standard VAE evidence lower bound (ELBO) loss called the generalized ELBO with constrained optimization [\(Rezende & Viola, 2018\)](#page-10-7).

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \mathbb{E}_{\rho(\mathbf{x})} [D_{\mathrm{KL}}(E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})||\pi(\mathbf{z}))] + \lambda^T (\mathbb{E}_{\rho(\mathbf{x})E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} [\text{MSE}(\mathbf{x}, D_{\boldsymbol{\phi}}(\mathbf{z})) + \text{MSE}(\mathbf{s}, S_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}(\mathbf{z}))])
$$

This variant allows directly controlling the balance between compression (KL minimization) and the other constraints we wish to enforce in our model (reconstruction error and the accuracy of the specification network). We use a mixture of Gaussian prior $\pi(z)$ and the MSE loss, but MSE can be replaced with any other error characterization. The loss $\mathcal{L}_\lambda(\theta, \phi, \mu)$, with λ as the Lagrange multiplier, is computed using a sampling distribution $\rho(\mathbf{x})$ and it is minimized to obtain the network parameters θ , ϕ , μ using the standard method of Lagrange multipliers [\(Bertsekas, 2014\)](#page-9-2).

Temperature annealed HMC exploration. This offline first stage in DeLPhy is followed by the second stage of exploration over the design configurations and optimization of the specific target objectives. We use Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) [\(Duane et al., 1987;](#page-9-3) [Neal et al., 2011\)](#page-10-8) with a novel temperature scaling in the latent space of the VAE to implement a partial simulated annealing approach, whereby we optimize for certain objectives while conditioning on a baseline performance with respect to other objectives. HMC is a gradient-based MCMC approach that is well-suited to the exploration of high dimensional distributions. It is especially suited to our problem, as the specification network can be differentiated with respect to the latent space. This enables exploration of the Pareto frontier of the multiobjective design optimization problem and yields a diverse set of design configurations. Formally, for a target performance s, we aim to explore and find optimal designs by sampling from $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})$ following by decoding to a design $\overline{\mathbf{x}} = D_{\phi}(\mathbf{z})$.

In order to formulate a temperature annealed HMC, we first define a potential energy function $U(\mathbf{z})$ to characterize the negative log-likelihood of the latent design given a target objective.

$$
\log p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s}) \propto \sum_{i} \log p(s_i|\mathbf{z}) + \log p(\mathbf{z}) = -U(\mathbf{z})
$$

We augment our system to include a vector, p, of the momentum and introduce a kinetic energy term in the usual form $K(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{p}^T\mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{p}$. This form of $K(\mathbf{p})$ corresponds to the negative log probability of the zero mean Gaussian distribution with covariance matrix (symmetric, positive definite) M. We can choose other forms of kinetic energy which would lead to different exploration pattern. Through the introduction of the kinetic energy term, we have built a Hamiltonian system from which we can sample using Hamiltonian dynamics according to HMC [\(Duane et al., 1987;](#page-9-3) [Neal et al., 2011\)](#page-10-8). Our canonical distribution can be written as:

$$
p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\frac{-U(\mathbf{z})}{T}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-K(\mathbf{p})}{T}\right)
$$

where Z is the normalizing constant and T is the temperature. The total energy $H(z, p) = U(z) +$ $K(\mathbf{p})$. In HMC, we sample new values for momentum p using Gaussian distribution dependent on M. This is followed by a Metropolis update using Hamiltonian dynamics to propose a new state. We simulate the Hamiltonian dynamics using the Leapfrog method [\(Leimkuhler & Reich, 2005\)](#page-10-9) and the computed proposed state is accepted as the next state (z', p') of the Markov chain with probability:

$$
a(\mathbf{z}'|\mathbf{z}) = \min\left(1, \exp\left\{\frac{-H(\mathbf{z}', \mathbf{p}') + H(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p})}{T}\right\}\right)
$$

We use a new approach of partial simulated annealing where each objective has its own annealing schedule. For each annealing schedule, the temperature at step k is $T(k) = T_0 e^{-\lambda k}$ where T_0 is the initial temperature and λ is the annealing rate. At high temperatures $T > 1$, the energy gap between the subsequent proposals is reduced, which results in a higher chance of the Metropolis-Hastings step accepting moves to the regions of the space with lower probability. This favors more exploration and enables us to traverse low probability regions. As T increases, we encourage accepting samples in the regions of high probability. Given a set of multiple objectives, we can treat these asymmetrically during exploration by using a different temperature annealing schedule for each of the objectives, favoring conditioning on some target values while trying to optimize over the others. This makes the approach partial annealing since some objectives are optimized via annealing while the remaining continue to be sampled conditioned on the target objective performances. The corresponding acceptance probability is:

$$
a(\mathbf{z}'|\mathbf{z}) = \min\left(1, \exp\left\{\sum_{i}^{|\mathbf{s}|}\frac{1}{T_i} \left[\log p(s_i|\mathbf{z}') - \log p(s_i|\mathbf{z}) + \frac{-K(\mathbf{p}') + K(\mathbf{p})}{|\mathbf{s}| + 1}\right] + \frac{1}{T}\left[\log p(\mathbf{z}') - \log p(\mathbf{z}) + \frac{-K(\mathbf{p}') + K(\mathbf{p})}{|\mathbf{s}| + 1}\right]\right\}\right)
$$

For the objectives which are not optimized, we have a fixed T_i and for the objectives being optimized, we select different annealing schedules $T_i(k) = T_0 e^{-\lambda_i k}$ to drive the optimization towards diverse designs with different trade-offs over the design objectives (more details in Appendix [1\)](#page-12-0).

Uncertainty quantification in **DeLPhy**. Since we are optimizing over a surrogate model, optimization can drive the model out of its training distribution and the predicted values of the design objective on some apparent promising configurations will not match their real values. We can run the slow physics models to detect such errors, but we would like to minimize such a possibility by making our generative model and the specification network uncertainty-aware. We accomplish this without hurting the scalability of our method using Monte Carlo dropout [\(Gal & Ghahramani,](#page-9-1) [2016\)](#page-9-1) over the decoder network of the generative model, which allows us to quantify uncertainty in the predicted values of the design objectives. The MC dropout in the decoder is used to sample reconstructions that are passed through the specification network to compute the uncertainty:

 $\text{Uncertainty}(\mathbf{z}) = \text{Variance}(\{\mathbf{s} = S_{\mu}(E_{\theta}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})) \mid \overline{\mathbf{x}} \in \text{MCDrowth}(D_{\phi}(\mathbf{z}))\})$

Therefore, rather than deciding on whether a design proposed by the generative model is likely in the design space, we use the specification network to determine the reliability of the design. By focussing on the regions where the objectives can be predicted with low uncertainty, DeLPhy is able to avoid high uncertainty regions of the manifold and find diverse designs which have high confidence of retaining optimal performance when evaluated against slow but more accurate models.

Illustration of **DeLPhy**. Before demonstrating the effectiveness of DeLPhy in physical design, we use the simple MNIST dataset [\(LeCun et al.,](#page-10-10) [1998\)](#page-10-10) to provide readers with the intuition on the key aspects of DeLPhy. Figure [3](#page-4-0) demonstrates diversity-preserving sampling in DeLPhy conditioned on the digit being '2' while us-

ing partial annealing HMC to reduce the thikness of the digit.

Figure 3: Variance in the predicted thickness while annealing. After sample ID 4000, the variance rapidly rises, indicating unreliability - IDs 4500 and 6000 are unrecognizable as digits.

The variance in the thickness specification of the MNIST digit sharply rises at sample 4000 and the generated images (IDs 4500 and 6000) are unrecognizable as digits. The digits with IDs greater than 4000 could be misinterpreted as valid digits with low thickness; however, the uncertainty quantification in DeLPhy prevents such errors.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We demonstrate how DeLPhy can be used to generate physical designs using three case studies: propeller design, SAE race vehicle design, and an air vehicle design. In our case studies, we examine the following research questions: (1) Can $D \in LPhy$ find valid design configurations for given design objectives? (2) Can uncertainty quantification in DeLPhy detect when the generated designs are unreliable? (3) Do designs generated by DeLPhy exhibit high diversity?

4.1 PROPELLER DESIGN

Propellers are key components in a range of vehicle classes including aircraft, ships, and underwater vehicles. A propeller design configuration is defined by its geometric properties such as the number of blades, diameter of the propeller, shape and pitch of the blades, and hub diameter. The performance metrics of a propeller include thrust, rotation speed, required torque, and efficiency. In this design problem, we look to trade off velocity and efficiency, whereby the challenge is to design an efficient propeller that operates at low velocities. To build and evaluate the performance of our proposed designs, we use OpenProp [\(DMS, 2021;](#page-9-4) [Epps et al., 2009\)](#page-9-5) an open-source tool that is widely used in academia and industry and implements relevant physics models. Further experimental details are described in Appendix [B](#page-12-1) and [C.](#page-14-0) Figure [4](#page-5-1) compares the distribution of the two competing objectives - velocity and the propeller efficiency when sampled using a Gaussian prior in the latent space, and those generated

Figure 4: DeLPhy can find propellers with high efficiency at relatively low speed.

using DeLPhy. The designs from DeLPhy have high efficiency even at low velocity.

(a) Increased deviation of objective functions from OpenProp physics model is detected by DeLPhy.

(b) High true error or physics model failure corresponds to high uncertainty predicted by DeLPhy.

Figure 5: Uncertainty quantification detects unreliable designs during exploration.

Figure [5a,](#page-5-2) shows the sample trajectories of the velocity and the propeller efficiency, as well as the corresponding variance on the objectives. Around sample ID 9000, we see high velocities with high efficiency, but the corresponding variance is high, suggesting these are unreliable designs. Figure [5b](#page-5-2) shows that our predicted high uncertainty area align with high deviation from the detailed model (true error) and we are also able to identify cases (black points) when the OpenProp physics model actually failed to produce a valid output. Physics models also have implicit assumptions

on their inputs to converge to a valid output. Thus, we are able to avoid unreliable designs using uncertainty quantification in DeLPhy. Figure [6](#page-6-0) shows a few diverse propeller designs produced by DeLPhy with the same objective of efficiency higher than 75% and velocity lower than 4.5 m/s. The propellers have a different number of blades, shape and pitch of the blades, and hub diameter.

Figure 6: DeLPhy generates diverse designs with different numbers of blades, shape of blades, and hub diameter for similar velocity and efficiency objective. More details in Appendix [C](#page-14-0) and [E.](#page-23-0)

4.2 SAE RACE VEHICLE DESIGN

600 $\begin{array}{c} \bigcirc \limits_{200} \ \times \end{array}$ الافاران יוני וזיי 2000 Predicted Vehicle Mass *** Design Choice True Vehicle Mass 0+ 20.0 $\sum_{i=1}^{10}$ (S)
Unit 15

Velocity 10

Velocity 10 $15.0 +$ $12.5 +$ Predicted Corner Velocity Design Choice True Corner Velocity $10.0 +$ 6 | Specification Variance Variance 4 | 2+ 0 L 0 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 6000 Sample Number

(a) DeLPhy generates designs that meet the mass and corner velocity objectives.

(b) DeLPhy detects when the sampling is offmanifold and generates designs that are not reliable.

Figure 7: DeLPhy can reliably generate SAE race vehicle designs satisfying the design objective.

The second case study is the SAE race vehicle [\(Stolarski](#page-10-2) [et al., 2018\)](#page-10-2) described in Section [2](#page-1-0) and Figure [1.](#page-1-1) The design objective is to build a vehicle of 4,000 Kg, with a cornering velocity of 17.3 m/s which is challenging as maximum cornering velocity decreases with the mass of the vehicle. Further experimental and case study details are described in Appendix [B.](#page-12-1) Figure [7a](#page-6-1) shows that DeLPhy samples designs that converge around the design objectives even though the training data and the prior distribution are far from it. Figure [7b](#page-6-1) shows that DeLPhy is able to detect when the sampling trajectory goes offmanifold and generates unreliable designs. The deviation of the predicted objectives diverges from the true value after sample 4, 000 in the illustrated sampling strategy but DeLPhy can detect this as the variance of the specifica-

Figure 8: DeLPhy generates vehicles with different engines, tires and brakes (color denotes the third dimension).

tion output also rapidly increases after 4, 000. Figure [8](#page-6-2) shows that the race vehicle designs created by DeLPhy exhibits significant diversity in the choice of key components - engine, tires and brakes.

4.3 AIR VEHICLE DESIGN

Air vehicles with rotors are capable of vertical takeoff and long-duration hovering, but they exhibit relatively shorter maximum distance of flight compared to fixed wing crafts. One important trade off in the design of such vehicles is to simultaneously meet the objectives of high hovering time and long distance of flight. We focus on battery-operated air vehicles with the main components being propellers, motor, electronic speed controllers and battery. We consider 414 possible APC propellers widely used in the rotorcraft community [\(APC, 2021\)](#page-9-6). These propellers range across a large variety - thin electric, multi-rotor, slow flyer, reversible, wide chord, narrow chord, pusher and carbon propellers. We consider 83 possible motors and the corresponding speed controllers [\(TMo](#page-11-0)[tors, 2021\)](#page-11-0), and 40 Nickel Cadmium (Ni-cad) batteries and Lithium-ion(Li-ion) batteries [\(Turnigy,](#page-11-1) [2021\)](#page-11-1). There are several parameters of the design such as propeller diameter, pitch and mass, battery capacity, max-current and voltage, and motor voltage, max-current, Kt, Km and Kv. For a detailed physics model, we use a proprietary flight simulator model that provides flight diagnostics such as maximum flight distance, maximum hover time, and efficiency. Simpler but less accurate flight models are also available publicly for evaluation of individual designs [\(RCPlane, 2021;](#page-10-11) [Cameron](#page-9-7) [Dowd, 2021\)](#page-9-7). We set the design targets for flight distance and hover time to be 15,000 m and 700 s respectively. More details on the case study is described in Appendix [B](#page-12-1) and Appendix [D.](#page-15-0)

(a) DeLPhy generates designs that meet the hovertime and flight distance objectives.

(b) DeLPhy detects when the generates designs cannot be trusted using the specification variance.

Figure 9: DeLPhy can reliably generate air vehicle designs satisfying the design objective.

Figure [9a](#page-7-0) shows that DeLPhy samples design that converge around the specified design objectives for the maximum fight distance and hover-time. Figure [9b](#page-7-0) shows a sample trajectory of designs generated by DeLPhy. As the maximum flight distance objective is annealed, we see that the proposed designs increasingly focus around a maximum flight distance of 15,000 m, as indicated by the dashed red line. As we keep the temperature of the predicted maximum hover time fixed at 1.0, its relative importance decreases and actually climbs well above the design choice, likely influenced by the focus on flight distance. The bottom plot in Figure [9b](#page-7-0) shows the variance across the dropout samples, when passed through the specification network. We can clearly see that at around sample 7,000, there is a jump in the variance of the proposed designs. In fact, when running every $1,000$ th sample through the high-fidelity

Figure 10: DeLPhy generates air vehicles with different key parameters.

physics model as the physics model is too slow to run many configurations, we actually see that the jump in variance has correctly indicated the true drop in actual performance, where the UAV is no longer able to take off. In fact at samples 8,000 and 9,000, the physics model fails to converge to any solution at all, signifying invalid designs. Figure [10](#page-7-1) shows a few examples of the diverse air vehicle designs created by DeLPhy with significant diversity in the key design parameters.

5 RELATED WORK

The use of deep generative modelling for computer aided design is a relatively recent research frontier [\(Seff et al., 2021;](#page-10-12) [Xu et al., 2021;](#page-11-2) [Zhao et al., 2020\)](#page-11-3). These approaches target certain aspects of design such as geometry while we focus on system-level design. Some recent work [\(Tripp et al.,](#page-11-4) [2020;](#page-11-4) [Sanchez-Lengeling & Aspuru-Guzik, 2018\)](#page-10-13) combine the latent space representation of generative models as part of their Bayesian optimization [\(Shahriari et al., 2015\)](#page-10-14) algorithms. One particular approach relevant to our work is by [Notin et al.](#page-10-15) [\(2021\)](#page-10-15), where they derive an importance sampling estimator of the mutual information to indicate uncertainty in the latent space for discrete data. In our work, DeLPhy samples over the latent space to simultaneously explore and optimize to ensure diversity. Further, we develop an uncertainty quantification approach that takes into account the variance of the specification network predicting the design objectives. This ensures DeLPhy can avoid exploring design configurations where the predicted performance cannot be trusted. Machine learning methods have also been used for drug discovery and molecule design [\(Brookes &](#page-9-8) [Listgarten, 2018;](#page-9-8) [Brookes et al., 2019\)](#page-9-9). These approaches have impressive results on solving complex combinatorial optimization problems. In our work, we are focused on the design of diverse physical systems with both continuous and discrete components, and with multiple design objectives which have to be satisfied simultaneously. Surrogate-based optimization is widely explored in design optimization, where the goal is to learn a surrogate function to replace often expensive black-box simulators e.g., computational fluid dynamics simulators [\(Koziel et al., 2011;](#page-10-16) [Han et al.,](#page-9-10) [2012;](#page-9-10) [Viquerat et al., 2021\)](#page-11-5). The surrogate function aims to capture the physical properties of the design environment and reliably evaluate design samples. These approaches tend to be more scalable compared to the black-box optimization approaches [\(Greenhill et al., 2020;](#page-9-11) [Belakaria et al., 2020;](#page-9-12) [Deshwal et al., 2021\)](#page-9-13) by avoiding the expensive black-box evaluation during optimization. Further, if the surrogate function is differentiable e.g., a neural network, the gradients are also available to the optimizer to perform an end-to-end optimization [Grabocka et al.](#page-9-14) [\(2019\)](#page-9-14); [Liu et al.](#page-10-17) [\(2020\)](#page-10-17); [Sun](#page-10-18) [et al.](#page-10-18) [\(2021\)](#page-10-18). Our proposed method can leverage advances in better surrogate modeling for more efficient exploration. In contrast to existing methods, the design for physical systems needs to find a diverse set of designs that trade off different objectives and allow further downstream adaptation to new design objectives.

6 CONCLUSION

Design of a physical system for a given set of design objectives requires domain expertise and creativity. System designers use their experience and knowledge about previous designs to propose new solutions. The challenge of using machine learning for physical design requires a combination of uncertainty-aware extrapolation from existing designs to new design configurations, and efficient exploration and optimization to identify diverse optimal designs. DeLPhy presented in this paper addresses these challenges. DeLPhy comprises two stages. The first is an offline stage of learning the design manifold using a variational autoencoder which is trained to be uncertainty-aware using Monte Carlo dropout in the decoder network. We also jointly learn a specification network to predict the design objectives from the latent space, which helps replace slow domain models with faster differentiable neural network surrogates. The second stage uses partial simulated annealing with HMC over the latent space of the autoencoder to explore the design manifold and optimize the design objectives, generating a diverse set of optimal designs. DeLPhy was demonstrated on three case studies involving the design of an SAE race vehicle, a propeller, and an air vehicle. First, DeLPhy is shown to be able to sample designs with objectives which are very different from the original exemplar designs used in learning. Second, DeLPhy uses uncertainty awareness to detect when the predictions of the surrogate model cannot be trusted and thus, enables it to avoid designs that are not realistic. Finally, DeLPhy finds a diverse set of optimal designs in each of the three case studies. This work is a first step towards leveraging deep learning to aid the design of physical systems.

Ethics Statement: In this paper, we have developed a machine learning approach to aid the design of physical systems. Design automation can possibly reduce the need for human workforce skilled in solving this problem manually. We expect this concern to be offset by the need for a new workforce that is trained at using AI assistants for design and that can help build better AI co-designers. We expect the creative process of design to eventually be a joint endeavor that combines human ingenuity with learning-based extrapolation.

Reproducibility Statement: The implementation details are described in Section [4](#page-5-0) with additional details provided in Appendix [B,](#page-12-1) Appendix [C,](#page-14-0) Appendix [D](#page-15-0) and Appendix [E.](#page-23-0) We have also provided Python notebooks in the supplementary material.

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A DELPHY PARTIAL SIMULATED ANNEALING ALGORITHM

In this section we include the partial simulated annealing algorithmic component of DeLPhy. Part of the input to this stage are the three pre-trained networks, $S_{\mu}(z), D_{\phi}(z), E_{\theta}(x)$, and the HMC parameters of step size, ϵ , and trajectory length, L. One must also set an initial z, design targets s, and number of samples to collect, N. The temperature annealing schedule for the individual objectives, $T_i(n)$, and prior $T(n)$ must also be passed as inputs. In Algorithm [1,](#page-12-0) the Leapfrog function on line 8 runs the leapfrog integration scheme (e.g. see [Neal et al.](#page-10-8) [\(2011\)](#page-10-8)) from initial momentum and latent space parameters to proposed momentum and latent space parameters. Note that in our work, we have not annealed the prior temperature, where we set $T(n) = 1$.

Algorithm 1 DeLPhy: partial simulated annealing

Inputs: $z, \epsilon, L, S_{\mu}(z), D_{\phi}(z), E_{\theta}(x), N, s, T_{i}(n), T_{0}(n)$ 1: for n in $1, \ldots, N$ do 2: # *Sample Momentum* 3: $\mathbf{p} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$ 4: # *Calculate the individual components of the Hamiltonian before the leapfrog step.* 5: $u_i = -\log p(s_i|\mathbf{z})$ 6: $u_{\text{prior}} = -\log p(\mathbf{z})$
7: $k = K(\mathbf{p})/(|\mathbf{s}|+1)$ $k = K(p)/(|s| + 1)$ 8: $\mathbf{z}', \mathbf{p}' = \text{Leapfrog}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p}, \epsilon, L)$ 9: # *Calculate the individual components of the Hamiltonian after the leapfrog step.* $10:$ $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{y}'_i = -\log p(s_i|\mathbf{z}')\\ \mathbf{y}'_i = -\log p(\mathbf{z}') \end{array}$ $11:$ $12:$ $\hat{U} = K(\mathbf{p}')/(|\mathbf{s}|+1)$ 13: # *Metropolis–Hastings correction* 14: $u \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$ 15: $\alpha = \sum_{i}^{|s|} \frac{1}{T_i(n)} \left[u_i - u'_i + \frac{k-k'}{|s|+1} \right] + \frac{1}{T(n)} \left[u_{\text{prior}} - u'_{\text{prior}} + \frac{k-k'}{|s|+1} \right]$ 16: if $\log u > \min(0, \alpha)$ then 17: $\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p} \leftarrow \mathbf{z}', \mathbf{p}'$ 18: end if 19: end for

B EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Computational Infrastructure. For the partial simulated annealing component of $DeLPhy$, we adapt the python package *hamiltorch* [\(Cobb & Jalaian, 2020\)](#page-9-15) and run with PyTorch version 1.9.1+cu111. We use Python 3.7.10. All experiments are run using NVIDIA's GeForce RTX 2080 Ti Graphics Card.

Propeller. We train a VAE with five layers of [600, 500, 400, 300, 200] for the encoder, with the reverse ordering for the decoder. For the specification network, we us the layer structure of [128, 64, 32]. We use a latent space of size 100. For the specification network, we learn to regress the two objectives of ship velocity and efficiency. We use a data set of size $226,610$ and train on 85 % and validate on the final 15 % to ensure the model is adequately trained. All input features are normalised using the training data means and standard deviations. We use PyTorch's Adam [Kingma](#page-10-19) [& Ba](#page-10-19) [\(2014\)](#page-10-19) optimizer with a step size of 10^{-4} and momentum 0.9. We train for 200 epochs with a batch size of 1024. We anneal the temperature of the efficiency component following $10e^{-6\times10^{-4}k}$, and collect 12,000 samples with a step size of 0.1 and trajectory length of 1. In the decoder we set dropout to 0.05 at training time and collect 100 Monte Carlo dropout samples at test time. The acceptance rate for the partial simulated annealing was 0.6.

SAE Race Vehicle. To learn the latent space vehicle design we train a VAE with two layers of [512, 256] for all of the components including the specification network. We use a latent space of size 32. The design input space is expanded to be 59 dimensional (from 39) to include the properties of each component (e.g. rather than selecting from a discrete choice of motors, we include power,

torque, etc. in the input space). The full feature and objective space is given by either Figure [1](#page-1-1) in Section [2](#page-1-0) or by Table 1 in [Soria Zurita et al.](#page-10-4) [\(2018\)](#page-10-4). For training, we use the PyTorch's Adam [Kingma & Ba](#page-10-19) [\(2014\)](#page-10-19) optimizer with a step size of 10^{-3} and its default parameters. We train the VAE for 1000 epochs with a batch size of 1028, and a learning rate schedule that decreased the learning rate by a factor of 10 at epochs 400 and 800. For the specification network, we learn to regress all 11 objectives. We use a data set of size 300,000 and train on 80 % and validate on the final 20 % to ensure the model is adequately trained. For the decoder we train with a dropout of 0.05 and collect 100 Monte Carlo dropout samples at test time. We anneal the temperature of the mass design objective following $10e^{-6 \times 10^{-3}k}$, and collect 6,000 samples with a step size of 0.1 and trajectory length of 1. The acceptance rate for the partial simulated annealing was 0.73 .

Air Vehicle Design. To learn the latent space of design of vehicles we train a VAE with two layers of [512, 256] for all the components including the specification network. Our VAE model is trained over 52,202 designs and validated over 13,051 with a latent space of 8 dimensions. The training data is collected on a lower fidelity simulator than the test simulator which leads to the expectation that results will be slightly worse on the higher fidelity simulator compared to the validation data performance. For training, we use the PyTorch's Adam [Kingma & Ba](#page-10-19) [\(2014\)](#page-10-19) optimizer with a step size of 10^{-3} and its default parameters. We train the VAE for 1000 epochs with a batch size of 1028, and a learning rate schedule that decreased the learning rate by a factor of 10 at epochs 300 and 400. For the decoder we train with a dropout of 0.05 and collect 100 Monte Carlo dropout samples at test time. We anneal the temperature of the flight distance objective following $10e^{\times 10^{-3}k}$, and collect 10,000 samples with a step size of 0.002 and an HMC trajectory length of 10. The acceptance rate for the partial simulated annealing was 0.79.

C PROPELLER DESIGN

In this section, we illustrate key geometric properties of a propeller, 3D geometry of propellers, and diversity of propeller designs generated by DeLPhy. Figure [11](#page-14-1) shows the key geometric properties of a propeller such as number of blades, radius of the propeller, hub of the propeller, chord length and pitch angle of the blade along the length of the blade. Figure [12](#page-14-2) shows the 3D shape of the propeller from views. Finally, Figure [13](#page-15-1) and [14](#page-16-0) show the diversity of propeller designs in terms of number of blades, shape of blades, pitch angles, and hub diameter for the same objective of efficiency higher than 75% and velocity lower than 4.5 m/s.

Figure 11: Key geometric properties of a propeller. The front surface is colored in red and the back surface is colored in green. The grid denotes lengthwise and chordwise discretization for the numerical computation.

Figure 12: We show three views to illustrate the 3D shape of the propeller - 1) frontal view, 2) view at a 45 degree angle, and 3) side view. The front surface is colored in red and the back surface is colored in green. The grid denotes lengthwise and chordwise discretization for the numerical computation.

Figure 13: DeLPhy generates diverse designs (with different numbers of blades, shape of blades, pitch angles, and hub diameter) for similar velocity and efficiency objective.

Figure 14: DeLPhy generates diverse designs (with different numbers of blades, shape of blades, pitch angles, and hub diameter) for similar velocity and efficiency objective.

D AIR VEHICLE DESIGN

In this section we include the list of the batteries, propellers, and motors in Tables [1,](#page-16-1) [2,](#page-17-0) [3](#page-22-0) respectively.

Name	Cost [S]	$\n Mass [g]\n$	Voltage ^[V]	Capacity [mAh]	Cont. Discharge Rate [C]
Turnigy Graphene 800mAh 2S 20C	8.36	58	7.4	800	20
Turnigy Graphene 1000mAh 2S 75C	9.54	84	7.4	1000	75
Turnigy Graphene 1000mAh 3S 75C	16.88	116	11.1	1000	75
Turnigy Graphene 1300mAh 3S 75C	16.96	137	11.1	1300	75
Turnigy Graphene 1500mAh 3S 75C	22.62	162	11.1	1500	75
Turnigy Graphene 1000mAh 4S 75C	23.65	148	14.8	1000	75
Turnigy Graphene 1300mAh 4S 75C	23.99	173	14.8	1300	75
Turnigy Graphene 1400mAh 3S 75C	24.00	156	11.1	1400	75
Turnigy Graphene 1600mAh 4S 75C Square	24.99	212	14.8	1600	75
Turnigy Graphene 1500mAh 4S 75C	26.49	202	14.8	1500	75
Turnigy Graphene 1000mAh 6S 75C	26.79	212	22.2	1000	75
Turnigy Graphene 1400mAh 4S 75C	27.87	196	14.8	1400	75
Turnigy Graphene 1200mAh 6S 75C	27.99	232	22.2	1200	75
Turnigy Graphene 1600mAh 4S 75C	30.00	212	14.8	1600	75
Turnigy Graphene 2200mAh 3S 75C	32.73	230	11.1	2200	75
Turnigy Graphene 3000mAh 3S 75C	42.54	320	11.1	3000	75
Turnigy Graphene 2200mAh 4S 75C	42.63	295	14.8	2200	75
Turnigy Graphene 4000mAh 3S 75C	55.05	412	11.1	4000	75
Turnigy Graphene 3000mAh 4S 75C	56.77	405	14.8	3000	75
Turnigy Graphene 5000mAh 3S 75C	65.48	490	11.1	5000	75
Turnigy Graphene 4000mAh 4S 75C	70.83	526	14.8	4000	75
Turnigy Graphene 6000mAh 3S 75C	75.16	630	11.1	6000	75
Turnigy Graphene 5000mAh 4S 75C	81.70	630	14.8	5000	75
Turnigy Graphene 3000mAh 6S 75C	82.57	598	22.2	3000	75
Turnigy Graphene 6000mAh 4S 75C	99.80	800	14.8	6000	75
Turnigy Graphene 4000mAh 6S 75C	104.34	760	22.2	4000	75
Turnigy Graphene 5000mAh 6S 75C	116.32	920	22.2	5000	75
Turnigy Graphene 6000mAh 6S 75C	129.99	1140	22.2	6000	75
Turnigy Receiver 1500mAh 4.8V	6.24	95	4.8	1500	10
Turnigy Receiver 1500mAh 6.0V	7.72	120	6.0	1500	10
Turnigy nano-tech 2000mAh 20~40C	14.73	109	6.6	2000	20
Turnigy nano-tech 1700mAh 20~40C	12.33	97	6.6	1700	20
Turnigy nano-tech 3000mAh 20~40C	21.13	167	6.6	3000	20
Turnigy nano-tech 1450mAh 20~40C	11.49	85	6.6	1450	20

Table 1: Battery properties for Air Vehicle Design

Table 2: Propeller properties for Air Vehicle Design

Propeller Type	Diameter [mm]	Pitch [mm]	Mass [g]
10.5x6	266.700	152.40	34.881071
10x10	254.000	254.00	36.015046
10x10E	254.000	254.00	20.003319
10x3	254.000	76.20	26.081425
10x4	254.000	101.60	30.073017
10x4.5MR	254.000	114.30	15.013829
10x4.5MRP	254.000	114.30	15.013829
10x5	254.000	127.00	28.077221
10x5.5MR	254.000	139.70	15.013829
10x5.5MRP	254.000	139.70	15.013829
10x5E	254.000	127.00	20.003319
10x5EP	254.000	127.00	20.003319
10x6	254.000	152.40	28.939042
10x6E	254.000	152.40	20.003319
10x6EP	254.000	152.40	20.003319
10x7	254.000	177.80	30.889479
10x7E	254.000	177.80	20.003319
10x7EP	254.000	177.80	20.003319
10x8	254.000	203.20	28.939042
10x8E	254.000	203.20	20.003319
10x9	254.000	228.60	32.885275
11.5x4	292.100	101.60	41.095254
11.5x6	292.100	152.40	45.086846
11x10	279.400	254.00	41.957075
11x10E	279.400	254.00	22.997013
11x11	279.400	279.40	41.957075
11x12	279.400	304.80	41.957075
11x12E	279.400	304.80	25.990707
11x12W	279.400	304.80	43.091050
11x13	279.400	330.20	41.095254
11x14	279.400	355.60	39.144817
11x3	279.400	76.20	39.144817
11x4	279.400	101.60	39.144817
11x4.5EP	279.400	114.30	24.947450
11x4.5MR	279.400	114.30	17.009625
11x4.5MRP	279.400	114.30	17.009625
11x5	279.400	127.00	39.144817
11x5.5E	279.400	139.70	22.997013
11x5.5EP	279.400	139.70	22.997013
11x5.5MR	279.400	139.70	17.009625
11x5.5MRP	279.400	139.70	17.009625
11x6	279.400	152.40	39.961279
11x7	279.400	177.80	39.961279
11x7E	279.400	177.80	22.997013
11x8	279.400	203.20	41.095254
11x8.5E	279.400	215.90	23.994911
11x8E	279.400	203.20	22.997013
11x8EP	279.400	203.20	22.997013

14x4.7SFP 355.600 119.38 24.947450

Table 3: Motor properties for Air Vehicle Design

E COMPARISON WITH DIRECT OPTIMIZATION

In this section, we compare DeLPhy with a commonly used direct optimization approach covariance matrix adaptation evolution strategy (CMA-ES) [\(Hansen, 2006\)](#page-10-20) in terms of design diversity. As shown in Figure [15,](#page-23-1) our approach can generate a more diverse set of designs that match the design objective compared to the CMA-ES. Here, our design objective is to generate efficient propellers at a low velocity (efficiency higher than 75% and velocity lower than 4.5 m/s). Note that DeLPhy generates diverse designs in terms number of blades, the shape of blades, pitch angles, and hub diameter. CMA-ES generates designs with a slight variation of numbers of blades, whereas the other geometric properties are quite similar.

Figure 15: DeLPhy generates a more diverse set of designs, with a different numbers of blades, the shape of blades, pitch angles, and hub diameter, compared to CMA-ES [\(Hansen, 2006\)](#page-10-20) which is a direct optimization approach.