

# An active-set trust-region method for derivative-free bound-constrained optimization.

ANKE TRÖLTZSCH [CERFACS]

JOINT WORK WITH:

SERGE GRATTON [INPT/IRIT]  
PHILIPPE L. TOINT [FUNDP, NAMUR, BELGIUM]

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Interpolation models and poisedness
- 3 Geometry control in DFO trust region methods
- 4 Extension to bounds
- 5 Numerical experiments
- 6 Conclusions and Perspectives

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# Why using derivative-free optimization?

## Some reasons to apply Derivative-Free Optimization (DFO):

- Derivatives are not available
  - Function evaluations are costly and/or noisy - Accurate approximation of derivatives by finite differences is prohibitive
  - Source code not available or owned by a company - Automatic differentiation impossible to apply
- Growing sophistication of computer hardware and mathematical algorithms and software (opens new possibilities for optimization)

## Applications:

- Tuning of algorithmic parameters,
- Medical image registration,
- Engineering design optimization, ...

# Problem formulation

We consider the bound-constrained minimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad xl(i) \leq x(i) \leq xu(i), i = 1, \dots, n$$

where the first derivatives of the objective function are assumed to exist and be Lipschitz continuous, although explicit evaluation of these derivatives is assumed to be impossible.

We consider a **model-based trust-region algorithm** for computing local solutions of the minimization problem.

The method iteratively uses a **local interpolation model** of the objective function  $f(x)$  to define a descent step, and adaptively adjusts the region in which this model is trusted.

# Bibliography on developments in model-based DFO

## Numerical optimization using local models:

- Powell, "A direct search optimization method that models the objective function by quadratic interpolation", 1994
- Conn, Scheinberg, and Toint, "On the convergence of derivative-free methods for unconstrained optimization", 1996
- Powell, "The NEWUOA software for unconstrained optimization without derivatives", 2004
- Conn, Scheinberg, and Vicente, "Introduction to Derivative-free Optimization", 2008
- Fasano, Nocedal, and Morales, "On the geometry phase in model-based algorithms for derivative-free optimization", 2009
- Scheinberg and Toint, "Self-correcting geometry in model-based algorithms for derivative-free unconstrained optimization", 2009

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# Polynomial interpolation

Consider  $\mathcal{P}_n^d$ , the **space of polynomials** of degree  $\leq d$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

A **polynomial basis**  $\phi = \{\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_p(x)\}$  of  $\mathcal{P}_n^d$  is a set of  $p$  polynomials of degree  $\leq d$  that span  $\mathcal{P}_n^d$ .

For any basis  $\phi$ , any polynomial  $m(x) \in \mathcal{P}_n^d$  can be written as

$$m(x) = \sum_{j=1}^p \alpha_j \phi_j(x),$$

where  $\alpha_j$  are real coefficients.



# Polynomial interpolation

Given a **sample set**  $Y = \{y^1, y^2, \dots, y^p\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and a polynomial  $m(x)$  of degree  $d$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that interpolates  $f(x)$  at the points  $Y$ , the coefficients  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p$  **can be determined** by solving the linear system

$$M(\phi, Y)\alpha_\phi = f(Y),$$

where

$$M(\phi, Y) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(y^1) & \phi_2(y^1) & \cdots & \phi_p(y^1) \\ \phi_1(y^2) & \phi_2(y^2) & \cdots & \phi_p(y^2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \phi_1(y^p) & \phi_2(y^p) & \cdots & \phi_p(y^p) \end{bmatrix}, \quad f(Y) = \begin{bmatrix} f(y^1) \\ f(y^2) \\ \vdots \\ f(y^p) \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Poisedness

If the coefficient matrix  $M(\phi, Y)$  of the system is **nonsingular**, the set of points  $Y$  is called **poised** for polynomial interpolation in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , otherwise the set  $Y$  is called non-poised.

As poisedness alone doesn't define the distance from singularity, there exists a measure of **well-poisedness**.

The most commonly used measure of **well-poisedness** in the polynomial interpolation literature is based on **Lagrange polynomials** [Powell, 1994].

# Lagrange polynomials

If the sample set  $Y$  is **poised**, the basis of Lagrange polynomials **exists** and is **uniquely defined** (and vice versa).

The unique polynomial  $m(x)$  that **interpolates**  $f(x)$  on  $Y$  using the basis of Lagrange polynomials for  $Y$  can be expressed as

$$m(x) = \sum_{i=1}^p f(y^i) \ell_i(x),$$

where

$$\ell_j(y^i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

is the basis of **Lagrange polynomials**.

# Lagrange polynomials - Illustration

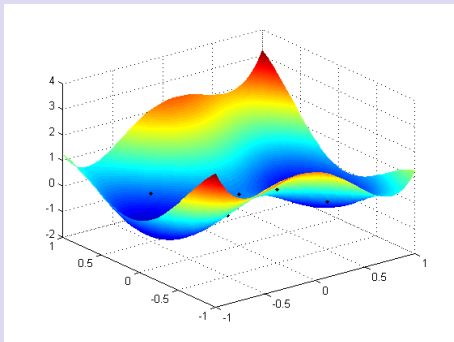


Figure: Six-hump camel back function with sample points

# Lagrange polynomials - Illustration

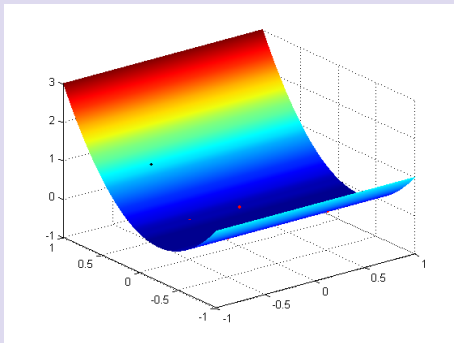


Figure: Lagrange polynomial associated with the 3. point

# Lagrange polynomials - Illustration

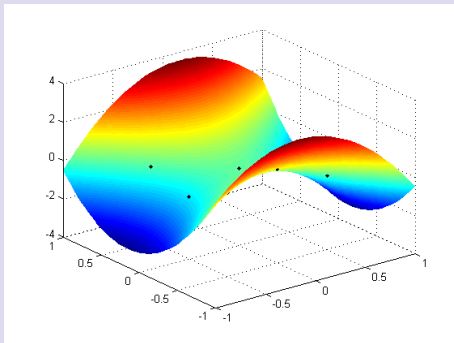


Figure: The resulting interpolation polynomial

# Well poisedness

Very useful feature of Lagrange polynomials:

The upper bound on their absolute value in a region  $\mathcal{B}$  is a **classical measure of well-poisedness** of the interpolation set  $Y$  in the ball  $\mathcal{B}$ .

A poised set  $Y$  is said to be  **$\Lambda$ -poised in  $\mathcal{B}$**  if one has that

$$\max_{1 \leq i \leq p} \max_{x \in \mathcal{B}} |\ell_i(x)| \leq \Lambda.$$

The **smaller  $\Lambda$** , the better the **quality of the geometry** of the interpolation set.

# Error bounds on model value and model gradient value

Given a ball  $\mathcal{B}(x, \Delta)$ , a poised interpolation set  $Y \in \mathcal{B}(x, \Delta)$  and its associated basis of Lagrange polynomials  $\ell_i(x), i = 0, \dots, p$ , there exists constants  $\kappa_{ef} > 0$  and  $\kappa_{eg} > 0$  such that, for any interpolation polynomial  $m(x)$  of degree one or higher and any given point  $y \in \mathcal{B}(x, \Delta)$ ,

$$\|f(x) - m(x)\| \leq \kappa_{ef} \sum_{i=1}^p \|y_i - x\|^2 |\ell_i(x)|$$

and

$$\|\nabla_x f(x) - \nabla_x m(x)\| \leq \kappa_{eg} \Lambda \Delta,$$

where  $\Lambda = \max_{i=1, \dots, p} \max_{x \in \mathcal{B}(x, \Delta)} |\ell_i(x)|$ .

[Ciarlet and Raviart, 1972]



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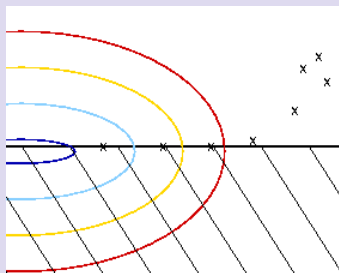
# Geometry control

- Fasano, Nocedal, and Morales [2009] observed that an algorithm which simply **ignores any geometry considerations** may in fact perform quite well in practice.
- But it may **lose** the property of **provable global convergence** to first-order critical points [Scheinberg and Toint, 2009].
- Shows that we cannot afford to do without maintaining quality of the geometry of the interpolation set.
- Improvement is usually carried out at special **"geometry improving" steps** → expensive!
- We know: **failure** of current iteration might be due to a too large trust region or a **bad quality** of the interpolation model.
- Suitable choice of interpolation points yields a **self-correcting geometry**

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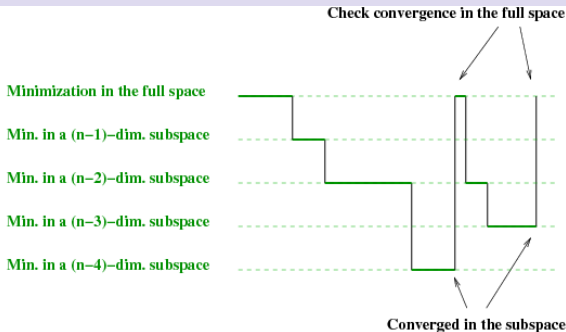
## Extension to bounds



- **Situation:** algorithm converges towards a minimum
- **Problem:** iterates get aligned along the bound
- Results in a **degenerate set of points** due to the bounds!
- $\Lambda$ -poisedness **no suitable measure** anymore, because maximum of Lagrange polynomials lies outside of the bounds
- Thus, self correcting property **not working**

## Solution: an active-set method

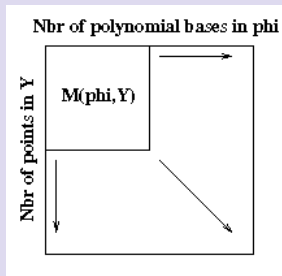
### Continue minimization in a smaller dimensional subspace



- If encounter an active bound, **reduce dimension** of the problem
- If converged in the subspace, going back to **check convergence** in the full-space

# Features of the algorithm

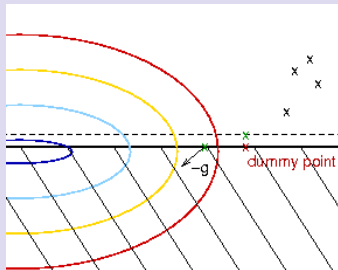
## Variable size models



- Applying **determined interpolation**,  $p = q$ , number of points equals number of elements of the polynomial basis
- Degree of **initial interpolation model** user-defined: linear, diagonal, quadratic (Default: linear)
- Fill up the diagonal of the Hessian first and then its subdiagonals consecutively
- **Geometry** is **monitored** using the condition number of the shifted and scaled system matrix  $M(\bar{\phi}, \hat{Y})$

# Features of the algorithm

## Attempt to save function evaluations by creating dummy points



- New active bound: need to build a model in the subspace
- Consider points lying **close** to the active bound(s), create **dummy points** by projecting onto the subspace
- **Compute the model values** at the dummy points
- Consider real points and dummy points lying in the subspace to **build the model**
- Dummy points are then **replaced** by the new iterates

# Features of the algorithm

## Stopping criterion using the model gradient

- We have that

$$\begin{aligned} & \|P_F(x_k - \nabla f_k(x_k)) - x_k\|_\infty \\ & \leq \|P_F(x_k - \nabla m_k(x_k)) - x_k\|_\infty + \|\nabla m_k(x_k) - \nabla f(x_k)\|_2 \end{aligned}$$

- Check convergence to a first-order critical point by verifying

$$\|P_F(x_k - \nabla m_k(x_k)) - x_k\|_\infty \leq \epsilon$$

and checking the bound on the gradient error

$$\|\nabla m_k(x_k) - \nabla f(x_k)\|_2 \leq \kappa_{eg} \Lambda \Delta \leq \epsilon$$

for some user-defined constant  $\kappa_{eg}$



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# Methodology

## CUTEr testing environment

- 53 bound-constrained test cases from CUTEr test environment
- Nbr. of variables varies from 1 to 30 dimensions

## Competitor: BOBYQA

- Developed by M.J.D. Powell [2009]
- State-of-the-art code for bound-constrained minimization without derivatives

## Stopping criteria are different

- Using optimal objective function value computed by TRON (using first and second derivatives) as a reference
- We terminate when a defined number of correct significant figures in  $f$  were attained

# Numerical results

Performance profile in terms of nbr. of function eval.

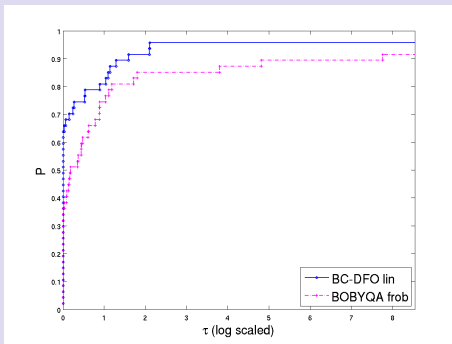


Figure: require 6 correct significant figures attained in f

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# Conclusions and Perspectives

## Summary

- Presented a new model-based trust-region DFO algorithm with a self-correcting geometry property
- Extended the algorithm to handle bounds
- Implemented a robust version of the algorithm: BC-DFO
- Compared BC-DFO to BOBYQA with quite satisfying results

## Perspectives

- Consider further enhancements on model Hessian update to improve performance
- Test the algorithm on real-life application (aerodynamic functions provided by Airbus)
- Implement the use of an inexact gradient

Thank you for your attention!

# Condition number as a measure of well poisedness

In general, the **condition number of the matrix**  $M(\phi, Y)$  of the interpolation conditions is a bad measure of poisedness of  $Y$  since it can be made arbitrarily large by changing the basis  $\phi$  and scaling the interpolation set  $Y$ .

Considering the **basis of monomials**  $\bar{\phi}$  and  $\hat{Y}$ , a **shifted and scaled** version of  $Y$ , so that  $\hat{Y} \in \mathcal{B}(0, 1)$ . Then a relation between the condition number of  $M(\bar{\phi}, \hat{Y})$  and the measure of  $\Lambda$ -poisedness can be established. [Conn, Scheinberg, and Vicente, 2008]

Using the matrix  $M(\bar{\phi}, \hat{Y})$  directly in a DFO algorithm enables to use  $\kappa(M(\bar{\phi}, \hat{Y}))$  to **monitor poisedness** of the interpolation set without computing Lagrange polynomial bases and  $\Lambda$ .

# Self-correcting geometry

Design and convergence properties of new algorithm depend on a **self-correction mechanism** combining trust-region mechanism with polynomial interpolation setting.

Self-correcting property:

If iteration  $k$  is unsuccessful, the interpolation set is included in the trust region and  $\Delta_k \leq \kappa_\Lambda \|\nabla m_k\|$ , then there exists an interpolation point  $j$  which can be replaced with  $\ell_{k,j}(x_k^+) > \Lambda$ .

And so, every unsuccessful iteration must result in an improvement of the interpolation set geometry. [Scheinberg and Toint, 2009]