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A Current Assessment of Interval Techniques in Global Optimization

R. Baker Kearfott

Department of Mathematics
University of Louisiana at Lafayette

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The General Global Optimization Problem

Mathematical Description

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \\ & \text{subject to } \mathbf{c}_i(\mathbf{x}) = 0, i = 1, \dots, m_1, \\ & \quad \mathbf{g}_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, i = 1, \dots, m_2, \\ & \text{where } \varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \mathbf{c}_i, \mathbf{g}_i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$

- We refer to the region defined by the constraints as \mathbf{D} .
- Often bounds on the search region are given by $\mathbf{x} = ([\underline{x}_1, \bar{x}_1], \dots, [\underline{x}_n, \bar{x}_n])$.



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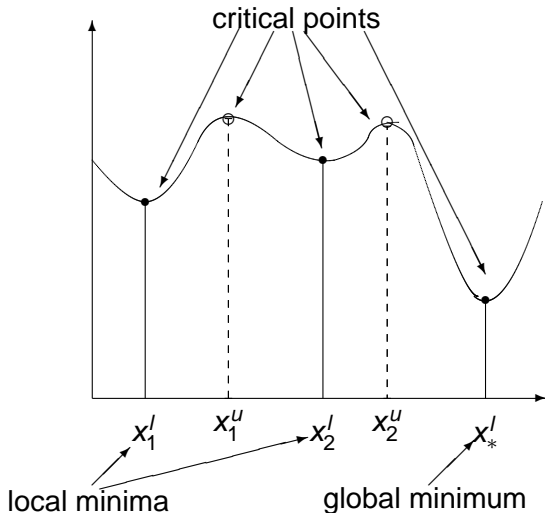
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Local Optimization

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- The model is steepest descent and locally convergent methods (such as Newton's method) with univariate line searches (for monotone decrease of the objective function). (Start a ball on a hill and let it roll to the bottom of the nearest valley.)
- Algorithm developers speak of “globalization,” but mean only the design of algorithm variants that increase the domain of convergence. (See J. E. Dennis and R. B. Schnabel, *Numerical Methods for Unconstrained Optimization and Nonlinear Least Squares*, Prentice–Hall, 1983.)
- Algorithms contain many heuristics, and do not always work. However, many useful implementations exist.



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Do We Want Local or Global Optima?

Examples

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- φ is the cost of running a (nominally) \$50,000,000 per month plant:

The plant manager would like the smallest possible operating cost, but would be happy with a 5% lower cost than before.

- φ represents the potential energy of a particular conformation of a molecule:

The globally lowest value for φ gives the most information, but local minima give some information, and finding the global minimum may not be practical.

- A mathematician has reduced a proof to showing that $\varphi \geq 1$ everywhere:

The global minimum must not only be found, but also must be rigorously proven to be so.



Do We Want Local or Global Optima?

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Local Versus Global Optimization

Global Algorithms

- Global optimization is NP hard, meaning that no general algorithm is known that solves all large problems efficiently.
- Thus, barring monumental discoveries, any *general* algorithm will fail for some high-dimensional problems.
- Some low-dimensional problems are also difficult, but many can be solved.
- Successes have occurred for large problems of practical interest by taking advantage of structure.
- Useful results have also been obtained by replacing guarantees by heuristics.
- Advances in computer speed and algorithm construction allow ever more practical problems to be solved.

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Classes of Global Optimization Algorithms

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- There are two types of algorithms: stochastic and deterministic.
- Deterministic algorithms can be either rigorous or heuristic.



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Stochastic Algorithms

Monte-Carlo search: Random points are generated in the search space. The point with lowest objective value is taken to be the global optimum.

Simulated annealing: is similar to a local optimization method, although larger objective values are accepted with a probability that decreases as the algorithm progresses.

Genetic algorithms: Attributes, such as values of a particular coordinate, correspond to particular “genes.” “Chromosomes” of these genes are recombined randomly, and only the best results are kept. Random “mutations” are introduced.

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Deterministic Algorithms

- These either
 - involve using problem-specific structure to be assured that computed points are global optimizers, or else
 - involve some kind of systematic global search over the domain, generally *branch and bound* processes.
- The various branch and bound algorithms rely on estimates of ranges of the objective and constraints over subdomains.
- The estimates on the range can be either mathematically exact or heuristic.
- The mathematically exact estimates can be either rigorous (taking account of roundoff error) or non-rigorous (using floating point arithmetic and other approximation algorithms without taking account of numerical errors).



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The Abstract Algorithm

Initialization: Establish an upper bound $\bar{\varphi}$ on the global optimum over the feasible set.

Branching: Subdivide the initial region \mathbf{D} into two or more subregions $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$. (*branching* step, where we branch into subregions.)

Bounding: Bound the range of φ below over each $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$, to obtain

$$\underline{\varphi}(\tilde{\mathbf{D}}) \leq \left\{ \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{x} \in \tilde{\mathbf{D}}, c(\mathbf{x}) = 0, g(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0. \right\}.$$

Fathoming: *IF* $\underline{\varphi} > \bar{\varphi}$ *THEN* discard $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$,
ELSE IF the diameter of $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ is smaller than a specified tolerance *THEN* put $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ onto a list of boxes containing possible global optimizers,
ELSE Put $\tilde{\mathbf{D}}$ is put onto a list for further branching and bounding.
END IF



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Obtaining $\underline{\varphi}$

- Some algorithms rely on Lipschitz constants to obtain $\underline{\varphi}$. These constants can be determined rigorously or heuristically.
- $\underline{\varphi}$ may also be obtained with outwardly rounded interval arithmetic or non-rigorous interval arithmetic, explained below.
- Recent algorithms (especially during the past decade) involve *relaxations* of the global optimization problem to obtain $\underline{\varphi}$. For example, the relaxation can be a linear program, solvable by commercial technology.

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Obtaining φ

One of János Pintér's Techniques

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- For a general algorithm, János uses a statistical model to estimate approximations to local Lipschitz constants.
- This is used in the structure of a deterministic algorithm, but is only heuristic.
- The technique nonetheless leads to success at obtaining useful results for many very large practical problems, in the successful GAMS / LGO software.
- It may be possible to make this process rigorous or more efficient for particular problems by taking advantage of structure.



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Obtaining $\bar{\varphi}$

- In principle, $\bar{\varphi}$ can be set to the smallest value of $\varphi(x)$ found, where x is any feasible point.
- Appropriate x can be found by running a constrained local optimizer.
- In practice, this is a difficult part of the algorithm to make rigorous:
 - It must be proven that x is feasible, not possible if equality constraints or active inequality constraints are present.
 - $\bar{\varphi}$ may be rigorously obtained by first proving a feasible point exists within small bounds \tilde{x} centered at x , then computing a rigorous upper bound on φ over \tilde{x} .



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Acceleration Procedures

Various other procedures are used (and indeed are necessary in many cases to make the algorithm practical) to reduce the size of the region D and to possibly reject D before the branching step. To a large extent, this is what makes branch and bound codes unique, and determines overall efficiency. Some such procedures include

- various forms of constraint propagation;
- interval Newton methods;
- proofs of infeasibility of linear programs in combination with linear relaxations (to be briefly explained).

The practicality of a particular code depends on implementation details of these acceleration procedures.

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Bounding Ranges with Interval Arithmetic

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- Each basic interval operation $\odot \in \{+, -, \times, \div, \text{etc.}\}$ is defined by

$$\mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{y} = \{\mathbf{x} \odot \mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{x} \text{ and } \mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{y}\}.$$

- This definition can be made operational; for example, for $\mathbf{x} = [\underline{x}, \bar{x}]$ and $\mathbf{y} = [\underline{y}, \bar{y}]$, $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = [\underline{x} + \underline{y}, \bar{x} + \bar{y}]$; similarly, ranges of functions such as \sin , \exp can be computed.
- Evaluation of an expression with this interval arithmetic gives *bounds* on the range of the expression.
- With *directed rounding* (e.g. using IEEE standard arithmetic), the computer can give mathematically rigorous bounds on ranges.

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Bounding Ranges with Interval Arithmetic

A Pitfall: Dependency and Overestimation

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- The interval values contain the actual ranges, but are possibly significantly larger. For example, if $f(x) = (x + 1)(x - 1)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}f([-2, 2]) &= ([-2, 2] + 1)([-2, 2] - 1) \\ &= [-1, 3][-3, 1] = [-9, 3],\end{aligned}$$

whereas the exact range is $[-1, 3]$.

- However, if we write f equivalently as $f(x) = x^2 - 1$, and we suppose we compute the range of x^2 exactly, we obtain

$$f([-2, 2]) = [-2, 2]^2 - 1 = [0, 4] - 1 = [-1, 3],$$

the exact range.



Bounding Ranges with Interval Arithmetic

A Pitfall: Dependency and Overestimation

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- The range overestimation above is caused by the arithmetic not taking account of the fact that, when $x = 2$ in $(x + 1)$, x must also equal 2 in $(x - 1)$.
- This phenomenon is at the root of many failures of interval arithmetic.
- For this reason, interval arithmetic should be used with skill, only in appropriate places.
- However, there are some notable successes.



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Proving Existence and Uniqueness

Interval Newton Methods

Let $f(x) = 0$, $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ represent a system of nonlinear equations. Think of an interval Newton method as an operator sending \mathbf{x} to $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}) = \check{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{v}, \quad \text{where } \Sigma(\mathbf{A}, -f(\check{\mathbf{x}})) \subset \mathbf{v},$$

where \mathbf{A} is a Lipschitz matrix for f over \mathbf{x} and $\Sigma(\mathbf{A}, -f(\check{\mathbf{x}}))$ is that set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ such that there exists an $A \in \mathbf{A}$ with $A\mathbf{x} = -f(\check{\mathbf{x}})$.

Theorem

Suppose $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is the image of \mathbf{x} under an interval Newton method. If $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \subseteq \mathbf{x}$, it follows that there exists a unique solution of $f(x) = 0$ within \mathbf{x} .

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Interval Newton Methods

A Practical Summary

- $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}})$ can be computed similarly to a classical point multivariate Newton step, but with interval arithmetic.
- Any solutions of $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ in \mathbf{x} must be in $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}})$. (Hence, an interval Newton can be used to reduce the volume of \mathbf{x} , an acceleration procedure.)
- $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}) \subset \mathbf{x}$ implies there is a unique solution to $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ in $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}})$, and hence in \mathbf{x} .
- Another consequence: $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}}) \cap \mathbf{x} = \emptyset$ implies \mathbf{x} is fathomed, and \mathbf{x} may be discarded.
- Interval Newton methods are locally quadratically convergent.

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Interval Newton Methods

Pitfalls

- For a given width of \mathbf{x} , the width of $\mathbf{N}(f; \mathbf{x}, \check{\mathbf{x}})$ is proportional to the condition number of the Jacobi matrix of f .
- For large widths of \mathbf{x} , overestimation in evaluation of the Jacobi matrix may cause the interval extension of the Jacobi matrix to contain singular matrices.
- Hence, existence / uniqueness verification is sometimes problematical unless a good approximation to an optimum is known; even then, it may not be possible to eliminate a large region.
- Nonetheless, interval Newton methods can sometimes be coaxed to narrow some coordinates, even in the presence of singularities and \mathbf{x} large.

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Constraint Propagation

In simple terms, constraint propagation is based on

- 1 solving a relation for a selected variable in terms of the other variables;
- 2 using the bounds on the other variables (e.g. by evaluating the expression with interval arithmetic) to determine new bounds for the selected variable;
- 3 iterating the process (in some order and with some stopping criteria) to narrow bounds on as many variables as is practical.

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Relaxations

- A *relaxation* to a global minimization problem is a related problem whose global minimum is less than or equal to the global minimum of the original problem.
- Relaxations can be formed by
 - replacing the objective φ by a simpler function that is less than or equal to φ on the feasible set;
 - replacing each function g_i corresponding to an inequality constraint by a simpler function that is less than or equal to g_i on the feasible set;
 - replacing each equality constraint by two inequality constraints, then handling these.
- Several successful commercial global optimization packages use *linear relaxations* (i.e. the relaxation is a linear program).



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Relaxations

Non-Verified versus Verified

- Commercial packages have used approximate solutions to linear relaxations, so, although deterministic, are not rigorous.
- In 2002, Neumaier and Scherbina showed how, given an approximate solution to a linear program, a mathematically rigorous lower bound on the solution can be computed by a technique involving the duality gap.
- Similarly, Neumaier and Scherbina presented a simple computation to rigorously show that a linear program is infeasible. (If a relaxation is infeasible, then the original problem must also be infeasible.)
- This enables several successful techniques for non-verified (non-interval) algorithms to be incorporated into rigorous algorithms.



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BARON

The *Branch And Reduce Optimization Navigator*, due to Nick Sahinidis et al, is highly competitive and commercial (available through GAMS, with a version on NEOS).

BARON:

- uses interval arithmetic in selected places to compute ranges;
- is effective at using linear relaxations, constraint propagation, and associated techniques, but in a non-rigorous fashion;
- is successful apparently partly due to the astute combination of various basic techniques, and partly due to state-of-the-art components (such as a good linear program solver);
- is non-rigorous overall, but possibly can be made rigorous without undue loss of efficiency;
- has some limitations.



ICOS

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The *Interval CO*nstraints *S*olver, from Yahia Lebbah et al at INRIA Sophia Antipolis, is a fully mathematically rigorous constrained optimizer. ICOS:

- is built upon decades of research in constraint propagation languages;
- uses linear relaxations in conjunction with the commercial ILOG CPLEX solver;
- is totally mathematically rigorous;
- is pointing the way to how mathematically rigorous solvers might be made overall competitive.



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GlobSol

GlobSol is our own Fortran-90 based research code for global optimization. GlobSol:

- is self-contained and totally mathematically rigorous;
- grew out of a 1980's code (INTBIS) for rigorous solution of nonlinear systems of equations;
- it heavily-based on interval Newton technology, but also includes a version of constraint propagation;
- has linear relaxations and other experimental techniques in a non-released version.
- can possibly be made more competitive with restructuring and rewriting;
- can possibly benefit from partnerships that supply commercial components (such as a commercial LP solver).

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GlobSol

Some History and Successes

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- GlobSol was put into its present form with a SunSoft Cooperative Research contract.
- During the term of that contract, collaborations with various persons, especially through George Corliss, led to some notable successes.
- The best successes concerned portfolio analysis, and led one of the graduate students involved to form a consulting firm based on the technology.



GAMS / LGO

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- As mentioned, GAMS / LGO utilizes a hybrid combination of branch and bound and statistical techniques.
- János Pintér should best be able to address
 - the practical aspects of LGO and
 - the relationship of LGO to rigorous computations.



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Other Packages

There are numerous other packages we have not mentioned.

- We have only mentioned the packages we have perceived to presently be major players in real-world applications. For a slightly more complete listing, see Arnold Neumaier's page at http://www.mat.univie.ac.at/~neum/glopt/software_g.html
- We have not attempted to discuss purely stochastically-based packages (simulated annealing, genetic algorithms, etc.)
- For a listing of general interval-based software, see <http://www.cs.utep.edu/interval-comp/intsoft.html>.

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- Continued study of successful non-rigorous techniques, of their interaction in specific implementations, and of how they can be made rigorous will lead to more competitive totally rigorous codes.
- Emerging theoretical developments (such as newly proposed necessary and sufficient conditions for global optima) may be useful in mathematically rigorous algorithms.
- There is much evidence that successful codes are built upon successful local optimizers and successful linear program solvers. This includes mathematically rigorous codes.



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Prospects for Rigorous Software

Possible Limitations

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- There is strong evidence that the most practical (or the only practical) codes for challenging applications will be designed specifically for those applications.
- Perhaps total mathematical rigor is out of reach for certain problems (for which heuristics or stochastic elements must be used).



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