Analysis of Critical Points in Smooth Optimization Benchmark Problems

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Abstract

The problem of locating and characterizing the critical points of a smooth objective function is fundametal to the design and analysis of optimization schemes using curvature information. We locate stationary points and analyze their local convexity properties for a set of benchmark problems in smooth, unconstrained optimization. For each problem, we review its origin, present the analytic form of the objective $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and the standard starting point x_0 . We introduce a sampling-based procedure to classify the critical-point structure and verify the positive definiteness of the Hessian in a neighborhood of a strict local minimizer. Numerical experiments confirm that while some test functions exhibit strong local convexity, others contain narrow regions of non-convexity that can slow down standard schemes, e.g. (TODO: add "tacking" ref. here and complete results statement) **Keywords:** benchmarking, numerical optimization, stationary points, saddle points,

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1 Intro

A bootlekneck of non-convex smooth optimization scheme is encountering plateaus in pursuit of a minimizer. A plateau is an almost "flat" region in some direction(s), leading to a critical point where the objective's gradient vanishes. We present theory and an algorithm to lacate and characterize the critical points of objective f. Each function f is chosen from CUTEst [2], the latest evolution of the Constrained and Unconstrained Testing Environment CUTE [1] which first appeared 30-years ago.

Strong local convexity near the objective's minimizer often guarantees rapid convergence for first-order schemes. In contrast, the presence of narrow plateau's can lead first-order schemes to tack within the plateau. Under very mild regularity conditions on the objective, saddle points have little effect on the asymptotic behavior of first-order methods [5]. However, in practice such methods exhibit slow convergence and possible convergence to a saddle point.

We analyze the objective of each problem to reveal long, narrow valleys of weak/zero curvature surrounding strict minimizers. Additinally, we analyze the spectral pattern of the Hessian of f at critical points obtained from seeding standard schemes from randomly sampled starting locations surrounding each problems initial iterate. Moreover, we replicate the findings of Kok et al. for the generalized Rosenbrock problem [4] and extend their analysis to a larger set of benchmark problems.

Our contributions are:

- sampling-based classification algorithm for characterizing the curvature within a neighborhood of ϵ -first-order stationary points.
- systematically compares the local convexity profiles of standard benchmark problems in continuous optimization. (ref artificial article)
- supplemental material containing analytical expressions f, and the accepted initial iterate x_0 , as well as a discussion of each problem's provenance and known properties from the literature.

Introduction overview:

- 1.1 establishes the notation adopted throughout the manuscript.
- 1.2 formulates the smooth unconstrained optimization problem.
- 1.3 formulates minimization problem as the search for stationary equilibrium solutions to the gradient-flow dynamical system.
- 1.4 relates phase-space analysis of the dynamical system to Morse theory, yeilding thoeretical tools to classify the local convexity of critical points of f.
- 1.5 formalizes a constructive definition for an *optimization scheme* for solving our unconstrained optimization problem, accompanied by illustrative examples that recover classical results for gradient descent.
- 1.6 enumerates the benchmark test functions considered in this study.

Organization of paper:.

- Section 2 details our problem selection criteria and introduces the benchmark problems under study.
- Section 3, we present numerical experiments for each problem, describe our methodology for determining strict local minimizers x^* , and outline our sampling-based convexity classification algorithm
- Section 4 summarizes our findings, offers practical recommendations, and discusses directions for future work.
- Appendix 5 contains supplementary material, including code listing and analytical expressions for each problem's objective function f and the initial iterate x_0 .

1.1 Preliminaries

We fix our notation as declared in Appendix 5 as used by Nocedal and Wright [7], and we assume the following standing assumptions hold throughout the manuscript.

Assumption 1.1 (Standing Assumptions).

- **Domain.** $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is path-connected, bounded, and open, and its boundary $\partial \Omega$ is a C^k $(k \geq 1)$ embedded hypersurface.
- Manifold structure. The closure $\overline{\Omega} = \Omega \cup \partial \Omega$ is compact and carries the structure of a C^k manifold with boundary $\partial \Omega$.
- Objective function. The objective satisfies $f \in C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ with $k \geq 2$, i.e., f and it's derivatives extend continuously to $\partial \Omega$.

TODO - Add ρ -Hessian Lipschitz and ℓ -smooth assumptions? - Critical Point Non-Degeneracy? - Path-Connectedness of Ω ? Allows us to assume that f is convex of on sublevel sets... needed for morse theory and further results in dynamical systems, e.g., gradient flow retracts sub-level sets onto unstable manifolds..

1.2 Motivation

Consider the general form of a smooth unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\boldsymbol{x}),\tag{1}$$

cite

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denotes the optimization variable and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ denotes the objective function. An optimization scheme seeks an *optimal value* and *optimal solution*

$$x^* \in \arg\min_{x \in \overline{\Omega}} f(x)$$
 and $f^* = \min_{x \in \overline{\Omega}} f(x)$.

over some compact closed subset $\overline{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ from some initial starting point $x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$. Finding an optimal value and solution for a nonconvex objective function over a continuous high-dimensional domain $\overline{\Omega}$ is a core problem to engineering and scienctific computing. When $\overline{\Omega} = \mathbb{R}^n$, as in 1, finding f^* and x^* for arbitary f is known to be NP-hard, as it is a search problem with an infinite state space. So, even in one-dimensional cases, there exist $f \in \mathbb{C}^k(\mathbb{R};\mathbb{R})$ where f^* and x^* cannot be determined in finite time.

We choose Ω in accordance to our standing assumptions 1.1; namely, Ω is a bounded and open subset of \mathbb{R}^n so the Heine-Borel theorem asserts that the closure $\overline{\Omega} = \Omega \cup \partial \Omega$ is compact. By the extreme-value theorem, the objective f attains its maximum and minimum values on $\overline{\Omega}$, so there must exist a global optimal value on $\overline{\Omega}$. Note that we specify Ω based on the context, e.g., it may be a neighborhood about a stationary point or the sublevel set containing all the iterates of an optimization scheme, i.e., $\Omega = L_{f(x_0)}^-$.

A point where the gradient vanishes, (i.e., where $\nabla f = \mathbf{0}$) satisfies the first-order optimality condition and we refer to such points as *critical points*. Within a neighborhood surrounding such critical points, it is either a maximizer, minimizer, or a saddle point. From Nocedal and Wright [7], we fromally define minimizers of f:

• A local minimizer if there exists a neighborhood N of x^* such that $f(x^*) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in N$.

- A strict local minimizer if there exists a neighborhood N of x^* such that $f(x^*) < f(x)$ for all $x \in N \setminus \{x^*\}$.
- An isolated local minimizer if there exists a neighborhood N of x^* such that x^* is the unique local minimizer in N.
- A global minimizer if $f(x^*) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

The necessary condition for x^* to be a local minimizer of f is that x^* satisfies the first-order and second-order optimality conditions. The *second-order* optimality condition states that the Hessian of f is positive semidefinite at x^* . If the Hessian is strictly positive definite at x^* , it is both a necessary and a sufficient condition that x^* is a strict local minimizer. Moreover, a strict local minimizer is isolated minimizer.

1.3 Continuous Model

In this section, we establish a link between the minimization problem (1) and the trajectories of a dynamical system by studying the gradient flow associated with the objective f.

Definition 1. The gradient-flow dynamical system associated with the objective function f is defined by the autonomous ordinary differential equation (ODE)

$$\gamma'(t) = -\nabla f(\gamma(t))$$
 subject to $\gamma(0) = x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$ (GF)

An integral solution $\gamma(t)$ to the gradient-flow ODE (GF) with initial condition $\gamma(0) = x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$ is called a gradient flow-line, or simply a trajectory.

Critical points of the objective function f correspond precisely to equilibrium solutions of the gradient-flow ODE. Indeed, a point \mathbf{x}_0 is a critical point if and only if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{0}$, which implies that $\gamma(t) = \mathbf{x}_0$ is a stationary solution of (GF). Next, we address the existence, uniqueness, and global well-posedness of trajectories emanating from any initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$.

theorem (Well-Posedness of Gradient Flow). Given $f \in C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ and the compactness of $\overline{\Omega}$, the gradient-flow ODE (GF) admits a unique trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ defined for all $t \geq 0$ for each initial condition $x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$.

Proof. Since f is continuous on compact $\overline{\Omega}$, it is globally Lipschitz on $\overline{\Omega}$ Since f is continuously differentiable on compact $\overline{\Omega}$, ∇f is globally Lipschitz on $\overline{\Omega}$. Therefore, the Picard-Lindelöf theorem ensures global existence and uniqueness of the solution trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$

For any $x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$, the trajectory γ_{x_0} is driven by the steepest descent direction of the objective function f. But f is bounded below by f^* on the compact set $\overline{\Omega}$, so we expect the trajectory γ_{x_0} cannot escape $\overline{\Omega}$ in finite time. Indeed, we aim to show that the trajectory γ_{x_0} converges to a critical point of f in $\overline{\Omega}$ as $t \to \infty$. We start by characterizing the monotonicity of f along the trajectory γ_{x_0} in the following lemma.

Lemma A. Along any gradient-flow trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ one has

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dt}(f \circ \pmb{\gamma_{x_0}}(t)) &= \nabla f(\pmb{\gamma_{x_0}}(t)) \cdot (-\nabla f(\pmb{\gamma_{x_0}}(t))) \\ &= -\|\nabla f(\pmb{\gamma_{x_0}}(t))\|^2 \leq 0, \end{split}$$

Hence $f \circ \gamma_{x_0}$ is nonincreasing in t and strictly decreasing whenever $\nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \neq 0$.

Proof. Using the chain rule to differentiate $f \circ \gamma_{x_0}$ w.r.t. t yields

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) = \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \cdot \frac{d}{dt}\gamma_{x_0}(t)
= \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \cdot x'_{x_0}(t)
= \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \cdot (-\nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)))
= \langle \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)), -\nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \rangle
= -\langle \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)), \nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \rangle
= -\|\nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t))\|^2
< 0.$$

A direct consequence of the positive-definiteness property of a norm is that the final inequality is strict for all points $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ that aren't critical.

The monotone descent of f along trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ ensures that the Lyapunov function $V(x) := f(x) - f^*$ is monotone on $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$. As shown in the proof of Lemma A (and since f^* is constant), differentiating V along any trajectory yields

$$\dot{V}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\boldsymbol{x}_0}(t)) = -\|\nabla f(\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\boldsymbol{x}_0}(t))\|^2 \le 0.$$

Hence, V is strictly decreasing until the trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ reaches a critical point. The following Lemma demonstrates convergence by showing that trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ remains in $\overline{\Omega}$ for all $t \geq 0$, by the campactness of $\overline{\Omega}$

Lemma B. For any gradient-flow trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$, there exists at least one accumulation point $x^{\infty} \in \overline{\Omega}$ where

$$x_{\infty} := \lim_{t \to \infty} \gamma_{x_0}(t),$$

such that $\mathbf{x}^{\infty} \in \operatorname{crit}(f)(\overline{\Omega}) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega} \mid \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}\}.$

Proof. Since $\overline{\Omega}$ is compact and the trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ remains within $\overline{\Omega}$ for all $t \geq 0$, the trajectory is bounded. By the Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem, the trajectory has at least one accumulation point $x^{\infty} \in \overline{\Omega}$. From Lemma A, we have that $\frac{d}{dt}f(x_{x_0}(t)) = -\|\nabla f(\gamma_{x_0}(t))\|^2 \leq 0$, implying that $f(\gamma_{x_0}(t))$ is non-increasing and bounded below by f^* . Therefore, the limit $\lim_{t\to\infty} f(\gamma_{x_0}(t))$ exists. Suppose the contrary that $\nabla f(x^{\infty}) \neq 0$. Since ∇f is continuous, there exists a neighborhood around x^{∞} where $|\nabla f(x)| \geq \delta > 0$. This would imply that $\frac{d}{dt}f(x_{x_0}(t)) \leq -\delta^2$ in this neighborhood, leading to $f(\gamma_{x_0}(t)) \to -\infty$ as $t \to \infty$, which contradicts the boundedness of f. Hence, $\nabla f(x^{\infty}) = 0$, and x^{∞} is a critical point.

In the above lemma, we demonstrated that $\overline{\Omega}$ is *positively invariant* which means that if a trajectory starts in $\overline{\Omega}$, it remains $\overline{\Omega}$ for all future times. Next, we characterize the accumulation points as an invariant subset of the set of critical points of f on $\overline{\Omega}$.

theorem (LaSalle's Invariance Principle). Any gradient-flow trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ converges to the largest invariant set within the critical points of f on $\overline{\Omega}$.

Proof. Define the Lyapunov function $V(\mathbf{x}) := f(\mathbf{x}) - f^*$. From previous results, we have $\dot{V}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{x}0}(t)) = -|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{0}}(t))|^2 \le 0$, indicating that V is non-increasing along trajectories. Let

$$S := \mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega} \mid \dot{V}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$
$$= \mathbf{x} \in \overline{\Omega} \mid \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0},$$

the set of critical points. By LaSalle's Invariance Principle, the trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ approaches the largest invariant set contained in S as $t \to \infty$. Therefore, the trajectory converges to an invariant subset of the critical points of f on $\overline{\Omega}$.

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The following corollary asserts a condition when $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ converges to a single critical point, rather than, a set of accumulation points.

Corollary C. Suppose all critical points of f are isolated. Then each trajectory $\gamma_{x_0}(t)$ converges to a unique critical point, asymptotically approaching a strict local minimizer of f.

Proof. From the previous theorem, the trajectory converges to an invariant subset of the set of critical points. If all critical points are isolated, the only invariant subsets are the individual critical points themselves. So, the trajectory must converge to a single critical point. Such limit point must be a local minimizer, since f decreases along the trajectory until it reachs such critical point. And such critical point must be a strict local minimizer by our assumption that all critical points of f are isolated.

Each critical point attracts a certain region of initial conditions (its stable manifold).

Definition 2. Given any critical point $x^* \in \text{crit}(f)$ we define the stable stable manifold W^s and unstable manifold W^u of x^* as

$$egin{aligned} W^S(oldsymbol{x^*}) &:= \{oldsymbol{x} \in \overline{\Omega} : \lim_{t o \infty} oldsymbol{x_x}(t) = oldsymbol{x^*} \}, \ W^u(oldsymbol{x^*}) &:= \{oldsymbol{x} \in \overline{\Omega} : \lim_{t o -\infty} oldsymbol{x_x}(t) = oldsymbol{x^*} \}. \end{aligned}$$

The stable manifold of x^* is the set of initial conditions that converge to x^* , where as the unstable manifold of x^* is the set of initial conditions that asymptotically depart x^* as t increases.

A critical point x^* is degenerate if $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is singular. Otherwise, we say x^* is non-degenerate, and it holds that $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is invertible. Equivalently, non-degeneracy means all eigenvalues of $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ are nonzero.

Definition 3. The **index** of a non-degenerate critical point, denoted index(x^*), is the dimension of the negative eigenspace of $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$.

Intuitively, the index of a non-degenerate critical point equals the number of linearly independent descent directions.

theorem (Equilibria Classification and Stability). Let x^* be a non-degenerate critical point of f on $\overline{\Omega}$, then:

- if $index(x^*) = 0$, x^* is a strict minimizer and an asymptotically stable equilibrium.
- if $0 < \text{index}(x^*) < n$, x^* is a saddlepoint of f and unstable in some directions.
- $\dim W^u(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \operatorname{index}(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ and $\dim W^s(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = n \operatorname{index}(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$.

where $n = \dim \overline{\Omega}$.

Proof. At a non-degenerate critical point x^* , the Hessian matrix $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is invertible. The eigenvalues of the Hessian determine the nature of the critical point. If all eigenvalues are positive, x^* is a strict local minimum and the gradient flow is asymptotically stable in all directions. If some eigenvalues are negative, x^* is a saddle point, and the flow is unstable in the directions corresponding to the negative eigenvalues. The index index (x^*) counts the number of negative eigenvalues, which corresponds to the dimension of the unstable manifold $W^u(x^*)$. The remaining $n - \text{index}(x^*)$ directions correspond to the stable manifold $W^s(x^*)$.

In summary, $\gamma(t)$ is well-defined for $t \geq 0$, remains in $\overline{\Omega}$, and f(x(t)) decreases monotonically to a limit point. Such point is unique when the critical points of f are isolated. Otherwise, analysis indicates that the dynamical system partitions $\overline{\Omega}$ into invariant sets associated with critical points. Morse theory formalizes this connection: critical points yield topological decompositions, where each nondegenerate critical point contributes to the manifold structure via its stable and unstable manifolds. We turn next to a detailed topological classification of these invariant sets using Morse theory, before considering optimization schemes that approximate the continuous dynamics.

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1.4 Morse Theory

In this section, we apply the stability theory gradient-flow dynamical system to results in Morse theory. For a modern introduction to Morse theory, see Hall [3].

Assumption 1.2. Suppose
$$f \in C^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega}; \mathbb{R})$$
 is analytic on $\overline{\Omega}$

The assumption that f is analytic implies that the Taylor series expansion of f converges to f in a neighborhood of every point in $\overline{\Omega}$. As we aim to show, assumption 1.2 leads to the strict saddle point condition that all critical points of f are isolated. This is a key property of Morse theory, which allows us to classify the critical points of f

Recall, by 1.1, $\overline{\Omega}$ is a compact Manifold. Proceeding we impose that the objective f is real-analytic on $\overline{\Omega}$, i.e., assumption 1.2 holds. Then analytic f implies the gradient-flow trajectory γ_{x_0} emanating from a point x_0 converges to a single critical point x^* at $t \to \infty$. Since trajectory γ_{x_0} has only one limit point, such point is isolated and a strict local minimizer of f on some neighborhood in $\overline{\Omega}$ (by theorem C). Consequently, x^* satisfies the second-order optimality condition that $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is positive definite, so eigenvalues have nonzero real parts greater than zero. Thus, $\det \nabla^2 f(x^*) \neq 0$ implying that $\nabla^2 f$ is invertible at x^* . Equivalently, x^* is non-degenerate strict local minimizer. So each critical point of real-anlytic function f on $\overline{\Omega}$ is non-degenerate, so, f is Morse on $\overline{\Omega}$.

Definition 4. A smooth function $f: \overline{\Omega} \to \mathbb{R}$ is Morse if all critical points of f are non-degenerate.

General Morse theory was developed from the realization that the critical points of f are constrained by the topology of f's pre-image. In 1939 by A.P. Morse demonstrated a particular are "rare" in the sense that they aren't a dense subset of the manifold $\overline{\Omega}$. Consequently, selecting a point in $\overline{\Omega}$ at random will almost never yield a critical point of f.

theorem (Sard's theorem). Let f be a Morse function on $\overline{\Omega}$, then the image $f(\operatorname{crit}(f))$ has Lebesque measure zero in \mathbb{R} .

The property that $x^* \in \overline{\Omega}$ being a *critical point* of a Morse function f is not dependent of the metric of $\overline{\Omega} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ (and consequently, the norm induced by the metric) despite the fact that our analysis is based on the usual Euclidean norm, induced by the inner product.

theorem. For a Morse function f on $\overline{\Omega}$, the gradient of f is either zero or orthogonal to the tangent space of the level set L_c at $\boldsymbol{x} \in L_c$.

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theorem. Let f be a Morse function on Ω , then the Euler characteristic of Ω is given by

$$\chi(\Omega) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^{i} c_{i}$$

where c_i is the number of critical points of index i.

Remark. The Euler characteristic $\chi(\Omega)$ is a topological invariant of the manifold Ω and is independent of the choice of Morse function f. The Euler characteristic is a measure of the "shape" of the manifold and can be used to distinguish between different topological spaces. The Euler characteristic may be defined by the alternating sum of the Betti numbers b_i of the manifold Ω

$$\chi(\Omega) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} (-1)^{i} b_{i}$$

where b_i is the *i*-th Betti number of the manifold Ω .

The above theorem implies that at a stationary point x^* , a level set L_{x^*} is reduced to a single point when x^* is a local minimum or maximum. Otherwise, the level set may have a singularity such as a self-intersection or a cusp.

1.5 Optimization Schemes

We introduce a scheme for solving a unconstrained optimization problem based on the gradient flow dynamical system 1.

Definition 5. An **optimization scheme** is a one-parameter family of iteration operators $T_h : \overline{\Omega} \to \overline{\Omega}$, indexed by a step size $h \in (0, h_0]$ where h_0 is constant, that generates an iterative sequence using the rule

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = T_h(\mathbf{x}_k) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (2)

starting from an initial point $x_0 \in \overline{\Omega}$. The scheme is well-defined such that the triplet (x_0, h, T_h) satisfy:

• Consistency: T_h is consistent of order $p \ge 1$ with the flow (GF) if

$$||T_h(\boldsymbol{x}) - \boldsymbol{x} + h \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x})|| = \mathcal{O}(h^{p+1})$$
 as $h \to 0$, $\forall \boldsymbol{x} \in \overline{\Omega}$.

A consistent scheme approximates the continuous gradient flow w/ a local error of $\mathcal{O}(h^{p+1})$ committed at each step k; where p is the global order. Consistent schemes reproduce the exact optimality condition in the limit as $h \to 0$.

• Stability: Let $x^* \in \text{crit}(f)$ be a *strict* local minimizer. The family $\{T_h\}$ is *stable* at x^* if

$$\exists c > 0, \ h_{\text{max}} > 0, \ \forall h \in (0, h_{\text{max}}]: \qquad \rho(DT_h(\boldsymbol{x}^*)) \le 1 - ch,$$

where $\rho(\cdot)$ denotes the spectral radius. Equivalently,

$$||T_h(x) - T_h(y)|| \le (1 - ch)||x - y||$$

for all x, y in some neighborhood of x^* . A stable scheme is contractive in a neighborhood of x^* , meaning that the distance between iterates shrinks by at least a factor of 1 - ch at each step k.

If a scheme is order-p consistent and locally contractive at a strict minimizer x^* , then for any fixed $h \in (0, h_{\text{max}}]$ the iterates satisfy

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}_k - \boldsymbol{x}^*\| \le (1 - ch)^k \|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}^*\|,$$

and hence $x_k \to x^*$ as $k \to \infty$.

Table 1.5 summarises four standard choices for T_h , stating their consistency order and the conditions under which local contractivity holds; see, e.g., Nocedal-Wright [7] for detailed discussions of these schemes.

Scheme	Iteration operator $T_h(x)$	Order p	Stability near x^*
Gradient descent (GD)	$oldsymbol{x} - h abla f(oldsymbol{x})$	1	$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x^*}) \succeq \mu I \succ 0, \ 0 < h \le 1/\ell$
Newton (NM)	$\boldsymbol{x} - h \nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x})$	2	$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x^*}) \succ 0, \ 0 < h \le 1$
Quasi–Newton (QN)	$\boldsymbol{x} - h B_k \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}) (B_k \to \nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)^{-1})$	1	Same as NM once $B_k \succ 0$ and $ B_k $ is bounded
Trust region (TR)	$oldsymbol{x} + rg \min_{\ oldsymbol{ au}\ \leq \Delta} m_{oldsymbol{x}}(oldsymbol{ au})$	2	Same as NM for sufficiently small Δ

Analysis of Gradient Descent (GD)

theorem. Assume f is ℓ -smooth and α -strongly convex and that $\epsilon > 0$. If we iterate the gradient descent *scheme* with $h = h_0 = \frac{1}{\ell}$ held fixed, i.e.,

$$T_h(oldsymbol{x}_k) = oldsymbol{x}_k - rac{1}{\ell}
abla f(oldsymbol{x}_k),$$

then $d(x_k, x^*) \leq \epsilon$ for all k > K where K is chosen to satisfy

$$\frac{2\ell}{\alpha} \cdot \log\left(\frac{d(x_0, x^*)}{\epsilon}\right) \le K.$$

Remark. Under ℓ -smoothness and α -strong convexity assumptions in a neighborhood Ω about x^* , it may be shown directly from the above theorem above that the GD scheme converges linearly to the optimal solution x^* at a rate of

$$\frac{d(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}^*)}{d(\boldsymbol{x}_{k-1}, \boldsymbol{x}^*)} \le 1 - \frac{\alpha}{\ell}$$

where $d(\boldsymbol{x}_k, \boldsymbol{x}^*)$ is the distance between the current iterate \boldsymbol{x}_k and the optimal solution \boldsymbol{x}^* . The convergence rate is linear in the sense that the distance between the current iterate and the optimal solution decreases by a factor of $1 - \frac{\alpha}{\ell}$ at each iteration. (Ref: TODO)

Remark. Convergence to a first-order stationary point trivially implies convergence to a ϵ -first-order stationary point. Similarly, convergence to a second-order stationary point trivially implies convergence to a ϵ -second-order stationary point.

theorem. Assume f is ℓ -smooth, then for any $\epsilon > 0$, if we iterate the GD scheme with $h = h_0 = \frac{1}{\ell}$ held fixed starting from $\boldsymbol{x_0} \in \Omega$ where Ω is a neighborhood of $\boldsymbol{x^*}$, then the number of iterations K required to achieve the stopping condition $\|\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x_k})\| \leq \epsilon$ is at most

$$\left\lceil \frac{\ell}{\epsilon^2} \left(f(\boldsymbol{x_0}) - f(\boldsymbol{x^*}) \right) \right\rceil$$

Remark. TODO and Questions

- State how we use theorems in when performing analysis from the results of our experiments.
- What is the relationship between ℓ and α ?
- In practice do we know how to compute ℓ and α ?
- What is the relationship between ℓ and ρ ?
- In practice do we know how to compute ℓ and ρ ?

1.6 Benchmark Problems

We select a subset of the OptimizationProblems.jl [6] Julia package that support automatic differentiation (AD) natively through operator overloading. (TODO: Cite ForwardDiff.jl, Flux.jl, etc.) Each problem is implemented as ADNLPModel instance, which is a wrapper around the NLPModel interface whose backend AD engine is configurable to support forward-mode or reverse-mode.

todo: - ref overleaf document and introduction section - enumerate the problems

2 Problem Selection Criterion and Software Stack

3 Numerical Experiments

An uniformed sampling of the problem space Ω is performed in Code Listings 1.

4 Conclusion

(reference introduction section.

5 Apendix

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Notation

We assume the following notation throughout

• $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the usual ℓ_2 norm for vectors \boldsymbol{x} in \mathbb{R}^n and p=2 norm for matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{n\times m}$. i.e.,

$$||x|| := \left(\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

 $||A|| := (\lambda_{\max}(A^{\top}A))^{1/2} = \max(\sigma(A))$

- $\sigma(A) := \{\text{singular values of } A\}.$
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \implies \sigma(A) = \{\text{eigenvalues of } A \text{ (i.e. spectrum)}\}$
- $\sigma_{\max}(A) := \max(\sigma(A))$ and $\sigma_{\min}(A) := \min(\sigma(A))$.
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \implies \lambda_{\max}(A) := \sigma_{\max}(A) \text{ and } \lambda_{\min}(A) = \sigma_{\min}(A)$
- $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the usual inner product on \mathbb{R}^n , i.e.,

$$\langle oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y}
angle := oldsymbol{x}^ op oldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n oldsymbol{x}_i oldsymbol{y}_i = \|oldsymbol{x}\| \|oldsymbol{y}\| \cos(heta)$$

where θ is the angle between \boldsymbol{x} and \boldsymbol{y} .

- $\mathcal{B}_r(x) := \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||y x|| < r \}$ is the open ball of radius r centered at $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $\operatorname{crit}(f) = \{ \boldsymbol{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n : \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0 \}$ is the set of critical points of f.

5.1 Definitions

TODO: integrated into article as needed. At a minimum labled and references

Definition 6. f is L-Lipschitz if $\forall x_1, x_2$

$$\exists L \geq 0 : ||f(x_1) - f(x_2)|| \leq L||x_1 - x_2||$$

Definition 7. f has ℓ -Lipschitz gradient, or, f is ℓ -smooth if $\forall x_1, x_2$

$$\exists \ \ell \geq 0 : \|\nabla f(x_1) - \nabla f(x_2)\| \leq \ell \|x_1 - x_2\|$$

Definition 8. f has ρ -Lipschitz Hessian if $\forall x_1, x_2$

$$\exists \rho \geq 0 : \|\nabla^2 f(x_1) - \nabla^2 f(x_2)\| \leq \rho \|x_1 - x_2\|$$

Definition 9. f is convex if $\forall x_1, x_2$

$$f(x_2) \ge f(x_1) + \langle x_2 - x_1, \nabla f(x_1) \rangle$$
$$= f(x_1) + \nabla f(x_1)^T (x_2 - x_1)$$

Definition 10. f is strictly convex if

$$\exists \ \mu > 0 \ : \nabla^2 f \succeq \mu I$$

$$\iff \lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f) \ge \mu > 0$$

Definition 11. f is α -strongly convex if $\forall x_1, x_2 \exists \alpha > 0$ s.t.

$$f(x_2) \ge f(x_1) + \langle \nabla f(x_1), x_2 - x_1 \rangle + \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x_2 - x_1||^2$$

$$\iff \lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x)) \ge -\alpha.$$

Definition 12. x^* is a first-order stationary point if $\|\nabla f(x^*)\| = 0$.

Definition 13. x^* is an ϵ -first-order stationary point if $\|\nabla f(x^*)\| \leq \epsilon$.

Definition 14. $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a second-order stationary point if $\|\nabla f(x^*)\| = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(x^*) \succeq 0$.

Definition 15. if f has ρ -Lipschitz Hessian, $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a ϵ -second-order stationary point if

$$\|\nabla f(x^*)\| \le \epsilon \text{ and } \nabla^2 f(x^*) \succeq -\sqrt{\rho\epsilon}$$

Remark. Note that the Hessian is not required to be positive definite, but it is required to have a small eigenvalue.

Definition 16. A point $x^* \in \Omega$ is a **critical point** of f if the differentiable map $df_p : T_p\Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is zero. (Here $T_p\Omega$ is a tangent space of the Manifold M at p.) The set of critical points of f is denoted by $\operatorname{crit}(f)$.

Definition 17. A point $x^* \in \Omega$ is a non-degenerate critical point of f if the Hessian $H_p f$ is non-singular.

Definition 18. The **index** of a non-degenerate critical point x^* is defined to be the dimension of the negative eigenspace of the Hessian $H_p f$.

- local minima at x^* have index 0.
- local maxima at x^* have index n.

• saddle points at x^* have index k where 0 < k < n.

We reserve the integers $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_i, \dots, c_n$ to denote the number of critical points of index i.

Remark. For each objective function f we are interested in determining the critical points of f

Remark. The Morse function is a smooth function $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ such that all critical points of f are non-degenerate.

5.2 Test Problems

1. Extended Trigonometric function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left((n - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \cos(x_j)) + i (1 - \cos(x_i)) - \sin(x_i) \right)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [0.2, 0.2, \dots, 0.2].$$

2. Generalized Rosenbrock function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(c(x_{i+1} - x_i^2)^2 + (1 - x_i)^2 \right),$$

$$x_0 = [-1.2, 1, -1.2, 1, \dots, -1.2, 1], \quad c = 100.$$

3. Extended Penalty function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i - 1)^2 + \left(\sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 - 0.25\right)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [1, 2, \dots, n].$$

4. Perturbed Quadratic function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} ix_i^2 + \frac{1}{100} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right)^2$$
$$x_0 = [0.5, 0.5, \dots, 0.5].$$

5. Generalized Tridiagonal 1 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i + x_{i+1} - 3)^2 + (x_i - x_{i+1} + 1)^4,$$
$$x_0 = [2, 2, \dots, 2].$$

6. Generalized White & Holst function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c(x_{i+1} - x_i^3)^2 + (1 - x_i)^2, \quad c = 100,$$
$$x_0 = [-1.2, 1, -1.2, 1, \dots, -1.2, 1].$$

7. Generalized PSC1 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i^2 + x_{i+1}^2 + x_i x_{i+1})^2 + \sin^2(x_i) + \cos^2(x_i),$$
$$x_0 = [3, 0.1, \dots, 3, 0.1].$$

8. Full Hessian FH1 function:

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 3)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left(x_1 - 3 - 2 \left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} x_j \right)^2 \right)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [0.01, 0.01, \dots, 0.01].$$

9. Full Hessian FH2 function:

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 5)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} x_j - 1\right)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [0.01, 0.01, \dots, 0.01].$$

10. Perturbed Quadratic Diagonal function:

$$f(x) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{100} x_i^2,$$

$$x_0 = [0.5, 0.5, \dots, 0.5].$$

11. Quadratic QF1 function:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} ix_i^2 - x_n,$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$$

12. Extended quadratic penalty QP1 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i^2 - 2)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i^2 - 0.5)^2$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$$

13. Extended quadratic penalty QP2 function:

$$f(x) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 - 100\right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(x_i^2 - \sin x_i\right)^2$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$$

14. Quadratic QF2 function:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} i (x_i^2 - 1)^2 - x_n$$

$$x_0 = [0.5, 0.5, 0.5, \dots, 0.5]$$

15. Extended Tridiagonal 2 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i x_{i+1} - 1)^2 + c(x_i + 1)(x_{i+1} + 1)$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1], \quad c = 0.1$$

16. FLETCBV3 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}p(x_1^2 + x_n^2) + \frac{p}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(x_i - x_{i+1})^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{p(h^2 + 2)}{h^2}x_i + \frac{cp}{h^2}\cos(x_i)\right),$$

where:

$$p = \frac{1}{10^8}, \quad h = \frac{1}{n+1}, \quad c = 1,$$

$$x_0 = [h, 2h, \dots, nh].$$

17. FLETCHCR function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c(x_{i+1} - x_i + 1 - x_i^2)^2$$
$$x_0 = [0, 0, 0, \dots, 0], \quad c = 100$$

18. BDQRTIC function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-4} (-4x_i + 3)^2 + (x_i^2 + 2x_{i+1}^2 + 3x_{i+2}^2 + 4x_{i+3}^2 + 5x_n^2)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

19. TRIDIA function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \gamma (\delta x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} i (\alpha x_i - \beta x_{i-1})^2$$

where:

$$\alpha=2, \quad \beta=1, \quad \gamma=1, \quad \delta=1$$

$$x_0=[1,1,1,\ldots,1]$$

20. ARWHEAD function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-4x_i + 3) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i^2 + x_n^2)^2$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$$

21. NONDIA function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} 100 (x_1 - x_{i-1}^2)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [-1, -1, -1, \dots, -1]$$

22. NONDQUAR function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - x_2)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} (x_i + x_{i+1} + x_n)^4 + (x_{n+1} + x_n)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [1, -1, \dots, 1, -1]$$

23. EG2 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sin(x_1 + x_i^2 - 1) + \frac{1}{2} \sin(x_n^2)$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]$$

24. CURLY20 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (q_i^4 - 20q_i - 0.1q_i)$$

where:

$$q_{i} = \begin{cases} x_{i} + x_{i+1} + x_{i+2} + \dots + x_{i+k}, & \text{if } i \leq n - k \\ x_{i} + x_{i+1} + x_{i+2} + \dots + x_{n}, & \text{if } i > n - k \end{cases}$$
$$k = 20, \quad x_{0} = \left[\frac{0.001}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{0.001}{n+1}\right].$$

25. Partially Perturbed Quadratic function:

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ix_i^2 + \frac{1}{100} \left(\sum_{j=1}^i x_j \right)^2 \right],$$

$$x_0 = [0.5, 0.5, \dots, 0.5].$$

26. Broyden Tridiagonal function:

$$f(x) = \left(3x_1 - 2x_1^2\right)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} \left(3x_i - 2x_i^2 - x_{i-1} - 2x_{i+1} + 1\right)^2 + \left(3x_n - 2x_n^2 - x_{n-1} + 1\right)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [-1, -1, \dots, -1].$$

27. Perturbed Tridiagonal Quadratic function:

$$f(x) = x_1^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} ix_i^2 + (x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1})^2,$$
$$x_0 = [0.5, 0.5, \dots, 0.5].$$

28. Staircase 1 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} x_j \right)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

29. Staircase 2 function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} x_j \right) - i \right]^2,$$
$$x_0 = [0, 0, \dots, 0].$$

30. ENGVAL1 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i^2 + x_{i+1}^2)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (-4x_i + 3),$$
$$x_0 = [2, 2, \dots, 2].$$

31. EDENSCH function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = 16 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left[(x_i - 2)^4 + (x_i x_{i+1} - 2x_{i+1})^2 + (x_{i+1} + 1)^2 \right]$$
$$x_0 = [0, 0, \dots, 0].$$

32. INDEF function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} \cos(2x_i - x_n - x_1) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i,$$
$$x_0 = \left[\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{2}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{n}{n+1}\right].$$

33. CUBE function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} 100 (x_i - x_{i-1}^3)^2,$$

$$x_0 = [-1.2, 1, -1.2, 1, \dots].$$

34. EXPLIN1 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(0.1x_i x_{i+1}) - 10 \sum_{i=1}^{n} i x_i,$$
$$x_0 = [0, 0, \dots, 0].$$

35. BDEXP function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} (x_i + x_{i+1}) \exp(-x_{i+2}(x_i + x_{i+1}))$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

36. HARKERP2 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i + \frac{1}{2}x_i^2) + 2\sum_{i=2}^{n} \left(\sum_{i=j}^{n} x_i\right)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [1, 2, ..., n].$$

37. GENHUMPS function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(\sin(2x_i)^2 \sin(2x_{i+1})^2 + 0.05(x_i^2 + x_{i+1}^2) \right),$$
$$x_0 = [-506, 506.2, \dots, 506.2].$$

38. MCCORMCK function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(-1.5x_i + 2.5x_{i+1} + 1 + (x_i - x_{i+1})^2 + \sin(x_i + x_{i+1}) \right)$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots].$$

39. NONSCOMP function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} 4(x_i - x_{i-1}^2)^2$$
$$x_0 = [3, 3, \dots].$$

40. SINQUAD function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^4 + \sum_{i=2}^{n-1} \left(\sin(x_i - x_n) - x_1^2 + x_i^2 \right)^2 + (x_n^2 - x_1^2)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [0.1, 0.1, \dots].$$

41. LIARWHD function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 4(x_i^2 - x_1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - 1)^2$$
$$x_0 = [4, 4, 4, \dots, 4]$$

42. DIXON3DQ function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_i - x_{i+1})^2 + (x_n - 1)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [-1, -1, \dots, -1].$$

43. COSINE function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \cos(-0.5x_{i+1} + x_i^2),$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

44. SINE function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sin(-0.5x_{i+1} + x_i^2),$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

45. BIGGSB1 function (CUTE):

$$f(x) = (x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_i)^2 + (1 - x_n)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [0, 0, \dots].$$

46. Generalized Quartic function:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i^2 + (x_{i+1} + x_i^2)^2,$$
$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots].$$

47. Full Hessian FH3 function:

$$f(x) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i \exp(x_i) - 2x_i - x_i^2),$$

$$x_0 = [1, 1, \dots, 1].$$

5.3 Code Listings

The following code is available in the source code repository https://github.com/danphenderson/numerical-optimization/blob/main/ju

Code 1: Algorithm 16.5

```
1
   using CSV, DataFrames, OptimizationProblems, ADNLPModels, NLPModels
    using Random, Arpack, Optim, LineSearches
    using LinearAlgebra, Statistics, Distributions
 3
 4
 5
   Random.seed! (1234)
 6
 7
 8
   function get_test_set(n::Int=40)
 9
        11 11 11
10
        {\tt List~of~unconstrained~scalable~ADNLPModels~within~Optimization Problems.jl}
11
        11 11 11
12
        # meta = OptimizationProblems.meta
        # names_pb_vars = meta[
13
        # (meta.variable_nvar .== true) .& (meta.ncon .== 0) .& (5 .<= meta.nvar .<= 100),
14
15
              [:nvar, :name]
        # ]
16
17
        # test_set_generator = (
        #
              eval(Meta.parse("ADNLPProblems.$(pb[:name])(n=$n)")) for pb in eachrow(names_pb_vars)
18
19
        # )
20
        # return [p for p in test_set_generator]
21
        return [
22
            "genrose",
23
            "arglina",
24
            "freuroth",
25
            "eg2",
26
            "cosine",
27
            "arglinb",
28
            "arglinc",
29
            "argtrig",
30
            "arwhead",
31
            "bdqrtic",
            "brownal",
32
            "broyden3d",
33
34
            "chnrosnb_mod",
            "cragglvy",
35
36
            "cragglvy2",
37
            "curly10",
            "curly10",
38
39
            "curly20",
40
            "curly30",
            "dixon3dq",
41
42
            "dqdrtic",
            "dqrtic",
43
            "edensch",
44
45
            "engval1",
46
            "errinros_mod",
            "extrosnb",
47
48
            "fletcbv2",
            "fletcbv3_mod",
49
50
            "fletchcr",
51
            "genhumps",
52
            "genrose_nash",
53
            "indef_mod",
54
            "integreq",
```

```
"liarwhd",
55
56
             "morebv",
57
             "noncvxu2",
58
             "noncvxun",
59
             "nondia",
             "nondquar",
60
61
             "penalty1",
62
             "penalty2",
63
             "penalty3",
64
             "power",
65
             "quartc",
             "sbrybnd",
66
67
             "schmvett",
68
             "scosine",
69
             "sinquad",
70
             "tointgss",
71
             "tquartic",
72
             "tridia",
73
             "vardim"];
74
    end
75
76
    function get_problem(name::String, n::Int=40)
77
78
         Get a problem by name
79
80
         return eval(Meta.parse("ADNLPProblems.$(name)(n=$n)"))
81
    end
82
83
    function get_optim_options()
84
85
         Using really stict conditions in low dimensions.
86
 87
         Tacking earlier in routine may be obpuscated by extra
         iterations to obtain terminal convergence.
 88
 89
90
         return Optim.Options(
             iterations = 10000000,
91
             g_abstol = eps(),
92
93
             store_trace = false, # Trace has a lot of useful stuff...
94
             show_trace = false,
95
             extended_trace = false,
96
         )
97
    end
98
99
    function build_sample_box(problem::ADNLPModel)
100
101
         Box centered around the minimizer
102
103
         x0 = problem.meta.x0
104
         scale\_vector = 2 .* abs.(x0)
         scale_vector[scale_vector .<= 1.0] .= 1.0</pre>
105
106
         return scale_vector
107
    end
108
    function pull_sample(problem, box::Vector)
109
110
111
         Pulls a sample uniformly from the box box surrounding x0
112
113
         return rand.(Uniform.(-box, box))
114
115
```

```
116 function bfgs_linesearch()
117
118
         Define the algorithm for the optimization
119
         return BFGS(;
120
             alphaguess = LineSearches.InitialStatic(),
121
122
             linesearch = LineSearches.HagerZhang(),
123
             initial_invH = x -> Matrix{eltype(x)}(I, length(x), length(x)),
124
             manifold = Flat(),
125
         )
126
    end
127
128
     function gradiant_descent_linesearch()
129
130
         Defines the Quasi-Newton algorithm for the optimization.
131
         P is our H. Currently P = \hat{1}(x) = I and we fallback
132
133
         to gradient descent.
134
135
         TODO: Accept P as an argument.
136
137
         GradientDescent(;
138
             alphaguess = LineSearches.InitialHagerZhang(),
             linesearch = LineSearches.HagerZhang(),
139
140
             P = nothing,
141
             precondprep = (P, x) \rightarrow nothing
         )
142
143
     end
144
145
    function newton_trust_region()
146
147
         Defines the Newton Trust Region algorithm for the optimization.
148
149
         return NewtonTrustRegion(; initial_delta = 1.0,
150
             delta_hat = 100.0,
             eta = 0.1,
151
152
             rho_lower = 0.25,
153
             rho\_upper = 0.75)
154
155
156
     function eigs_hess(problem::ADNLPModel, x_cp::Vector)
157
         H = hess(problem, x_cp)
         \lambda, _ = eigs(H, nev=problem.meta.nvar - 1, maxiter=10000, which=:LM)
158
159
         \lambdamin, _ = eigs(H, nev=1, maxiter=10000, which=:SR)
160
         push!(\lambda, pop!(\lambdamin))
161
         \mathtt{return}\ \lambda
162
    end
163
     function run_sample(problem::ADNLPModel, sample::Vector)
164
165
166
         Run the optimization algorithm on the problem
167
168
         # Define objective and in-place gradient aligning with optim's interface.
169
         x0 = sample
         f(x) = obj(problem, x)
170
         g!(G, x) = grad!(problem, x, G)
171
172
         h!(H, x) = hess!(problem, x, H)
173
174
         # Run the optimization
175
         res = Optim.optimize(
176
             f,
```

```
177
             g!,
178
             хO,
179
             bfgs_linesearch(),
180
             get_optim_options()
181
182
183
         # Reset problem counters.
184
         NLPModels.reset!(problem)
185
         return res
186 end
187
188
     function run(problem)
         box = build_sample_box(problem)
189
190
         df = DataFrame(
             "initial_objective" => Vector{Float64}(),
191
192
             "final_objective" => Vector{Float64}(),
             "g_residual" => Vector{Float64}(),
193
             "is_saddle" => Vector{Bool}(),
194
             "pos_curvature_directions" => Vector{Int}(),
195
196
             "neg_curvature_directions" => Vector{Int}(),
197
             "zero_curvature_directions" => Vector{Int}(),
198
             "max_lambda" => Vector{Float64}(),
             "min_lambda" => Vector{Float64}(),
199
             "median_lambda" => Vector{Float64}(),
200
201
             "iterations" => Vector{Int}(),
202
             "critical_point" => Vector{Vector{Float64}}(),
203
         for _ in 1:1000
204
205
             sample = pull_sample(problem, box)
206
             fx0 = obj(problem, sample)
207
208
                 res = run_sample(problem, sample)
209
                 if !res.f_converged
210
                      continue
211
                 end
212
                 \lambda = eigs_hess(problem, res.minimizer)
                 push!(df, (
213
214
                      initial_objective = fx0,
215
                      final_objective = res.minimum,
216
                      g_residual = res.g_residual,
217
                      is_saddle = \lambda[end] < 0,
218
                      pos_curvature_directions = sum(\lambda .> 0),
                      neg\_curvature\_directions = sum(\lambda .< 0),
219
                      zero_curvature_directions = sum(abs.(\lambda) .< 1e-12),
220
221
                      \max_{\lambda} = \max_{\lambda} (\lambda),
222
                      min_lambda = minimum(\lambda),
223
                      median_lambda = median(\lambda),
224
                      iterations = res.iterations,
225
                      critical_point = res.minimizer,
226
                 ))
227
             catch
228
                 continue
229
             end
230
231
         return df
232
233
234
    function unique_critical_points(df::DataFrame)
235
236
         Compares the critical points locations to determine
237
         the number of unique critical points.
```

```
238
         critical_points = df.critical_point
239
         critical_points = [round.(x, digits=4, base=2) for x in critical_points] # HACK d
240
         return length(unique(critical_points))
241
242 end
243
244 function run_all()
245
        test_set = get_test_set()
         mkpath("public/saddles/dim-40")
246
247
         for pb in test_set
248
             problem = get_problem(pb, 40)
249
             df = run(problem)
250
             CSV.write("public/saddles/dim-40/$(pb).csv", df)
251
             println("$(pb) has $(unique_critical_points(df)) unique critical points.")
252
             println(" $(pb) total saddles $(sum(df.is_saddle))")
253
         \quad \text{end} \quad
254 end
```