Derivative-free and Simulation-based Optimization

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The Plan

Motivation

Black-box Optimization

- Random Search
- Direct Search Methods
- Model-Based Methods
- Some Global Optimization

Simulation-Based Optimization and Structure

- Nonlinear Least Squares
- Least Squares and Partials
- Constraints
- Nonsmoothness

Computational Noise

- Estimating Computational Noise
- Noisy Finite Differences

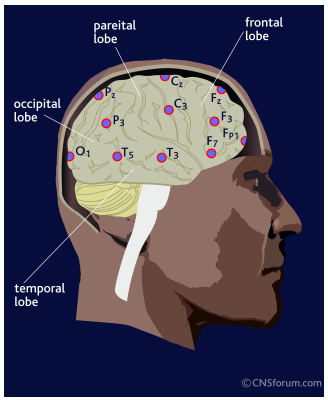
Simulation-Based Optimization

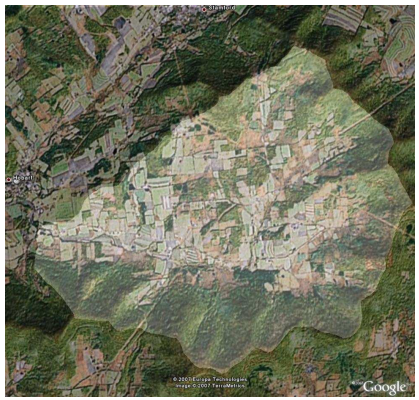
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{f(x) = F[S(x)] : c(S(x)) \leq 0\}$$

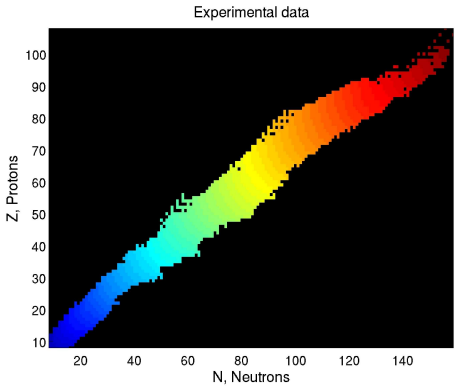
- S (numerical) simulation output, often "noisy" (even when deterministic)
- Derivatives $\nabla_x S$ often unavailable or prohibitively expensive to obtain/approximate directly
- S can contribute to objective and/or constraints
- Single evaluation of S could take seconds/minutes/hours/days

Evaluation is a bottleneck for optimization

Functions of complex numerical simulations arise everywhere







Computing is Responsible for Pervasiveness of Simulations in Sci&Eng

Argonne's Blue Gene/P (2008: 163,840 cores)

Currently 67th fastest in the world

Argonne's Blue Gene/Q (2012: 786,432 cores)

Currently 5th fastest in the world

- Parallel/multi-core environments increasingly common
  - Small clusters/multi-core desktops/multi-core laptops pervasive
  - Leadership class machines increasingly parallel
- Simulations (the "forward problem") become faster/more realistic/more complex

Improvements from Algorithms Can Trump Those From Hardware

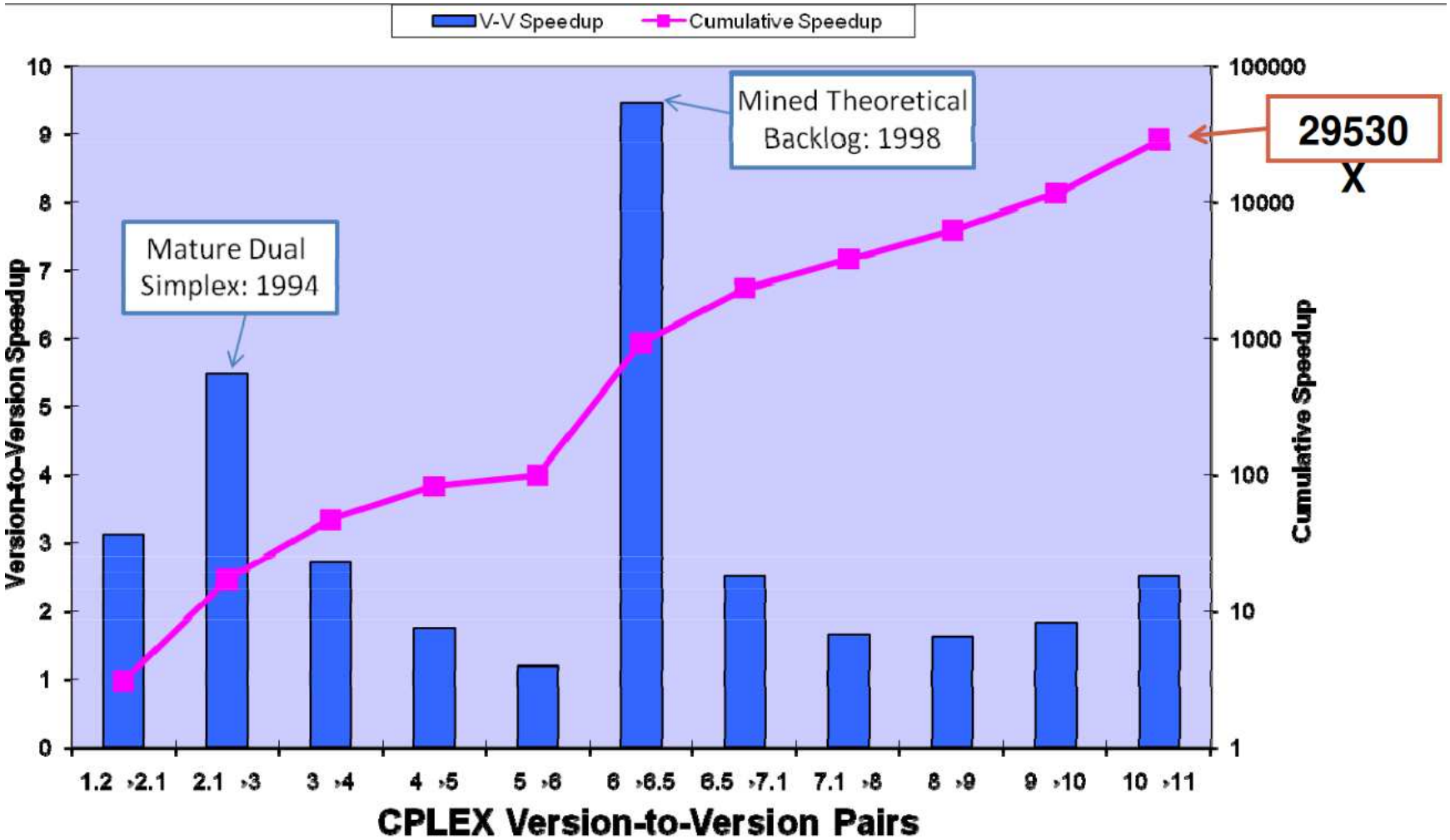
Martin Grötschel's production planning benchmark problem (a MIP):

1988 solve time using current computers and LP algorithms: 82 years

2003 solve time using current computers and LP algorithms: 1 minute

- Speed up of 43,000,000X
  10^3X from processor improvements
  10^4X additional from algorithmic improvements

Improvements from Algorithms Can Trump Those From Hardware



1991 (v1.2) to 2007 (v11.0): Moore's Law transistor speedup: ≈ 256X

[Slide from Bixby (CPLEX/GUROBI)]: Solves 1,852 MIPs

Derivative-Free Optimization

"Some derivatives are unavailable for optimization purposes"

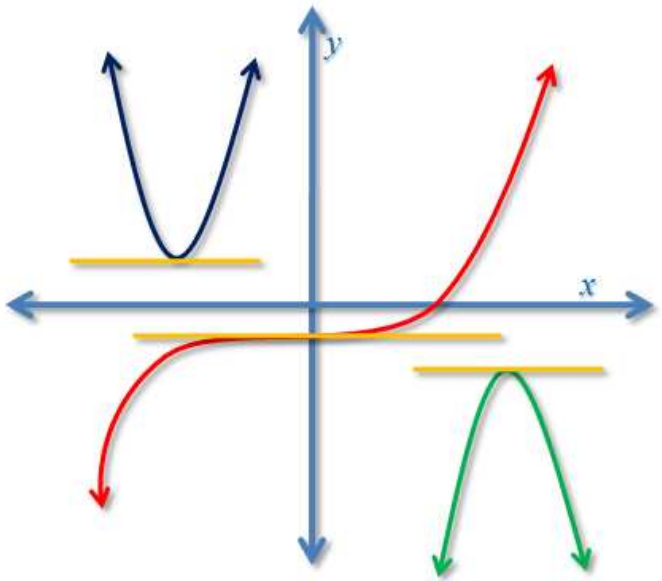
Derivative-Free Optimization

"Some derivatives are unavailable for optimization purposes"

The Challenge: Optimization is tightly coupled with derivatives

Typical optimality (no noise, smooth functions)

$$\nabla_x f(x_*) + \lambda^T \nabla_x c_E(x_*) = 0, c_E(x_*) = 0$$



(sub)gradients $\nabla_x f$, $\nabla_x c$ enable:

- Faster feasibility
- Faster convergence
  - Guaranteed descent
  - Approximation of nonlinearities
- Better termination
  - Measure of criticality
    $\|\nabla_x f\|$ or $\|\mathcal{P}_\Omega(\nabla_x f)\|$
- Sensitivity analysis
  - Correlations, standard errors, UQ, ...

Ways to Get Derivatives

(assuming they exist)

Handcoding (HC)

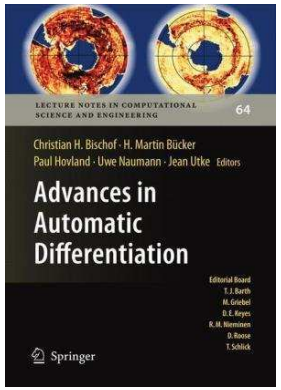
"Army of students/programmers"

- ? Prone to errors/conditioning
- ? Intractable as number of ops increases

Algorithmic/Automatic Differentiation (AD)

"Exact* derivatives!"

- ? No black boxes allowed
- ? Not always automatic/cheap/well-conditioned



Finite Differences (FD)

"Nonintrusive"

- ? Sensitive to stepsize choice/noise
- ? Expense grows with n

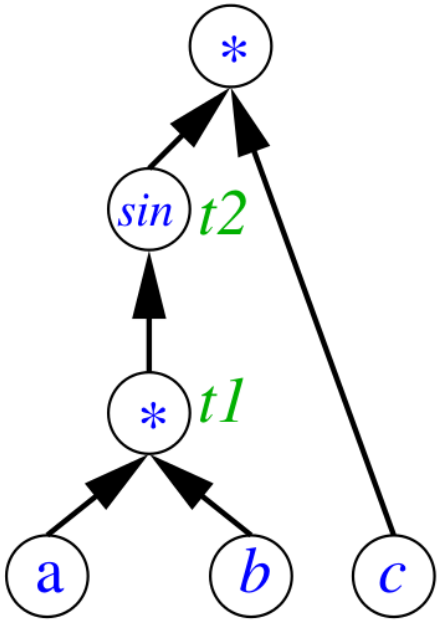
. . . then apply derivative-based method (that handles inexact derivatives)

Algorithmic Differentiation

Computational Graph

- $y = sin(a * b) * c$
- Forward and reverse modes
- AD tool provides code for your derivatives

You should write codes and formulate problems with AD in mind!



Many tools (see `www.autodiff.org`):

F/C	`Tapenade`, `Rapsodia`
C/C++	`ADOL-C`, `ADIC`
Matlab	`ADiMat`, `INTLAB`

Also done in `AMPL` and `GAMS`!

Caveats

You will pay a price for not having derivatives

We will focus primarily on:

- **Minimization** (sorry, economists, you'll need to stand on your head)
- **Continuous** domains
- **Unconstrained** problems
  - Simulation-based constraints bring additional challenges
- Underlying **smooth** behavior (whatever that means)
- **Deterministic** objective (or function of psuedorandom number generators)
- Algorithms with convergence guarantees to **local** minima
  - GAs and other heuristics often require far too many evaluations

$\rightarrow$ Can address these in detail during lunch, dinner, TA/office hours

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Please: Interrupt, Ask Questions

Global Optimization, $\min_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$

Careful:

- Global convergence: Convergence (to a local solution/stationary point) from anywhere in Ω
- Convergence to a global minimizer: Obtain x_* with $f(x_*) \leq f(x) \, \forall x \in \Omega$

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Anyone selling you global solutions when derivatives are unavailable:

either assumes more about your problem (e.g., convex f)

or expects you to wait forever

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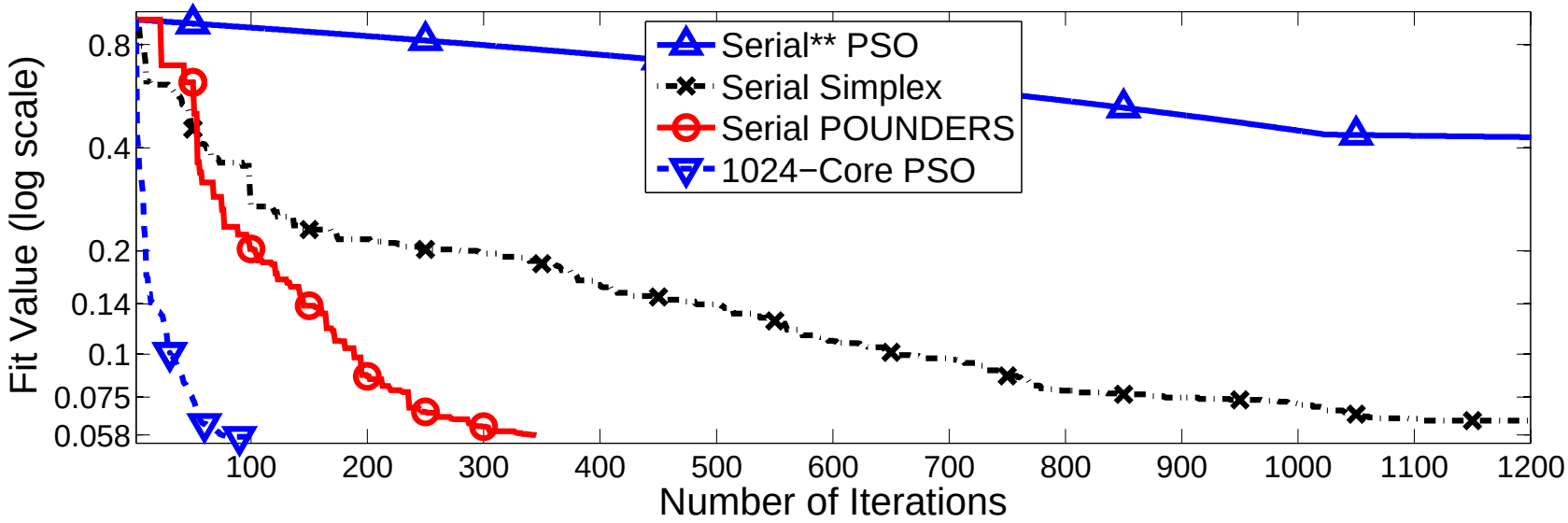
Instead:

- Rapidly find good local solutions and/or be robust to poor solutions
- Consider multistart approaches and/or structure of multimodality

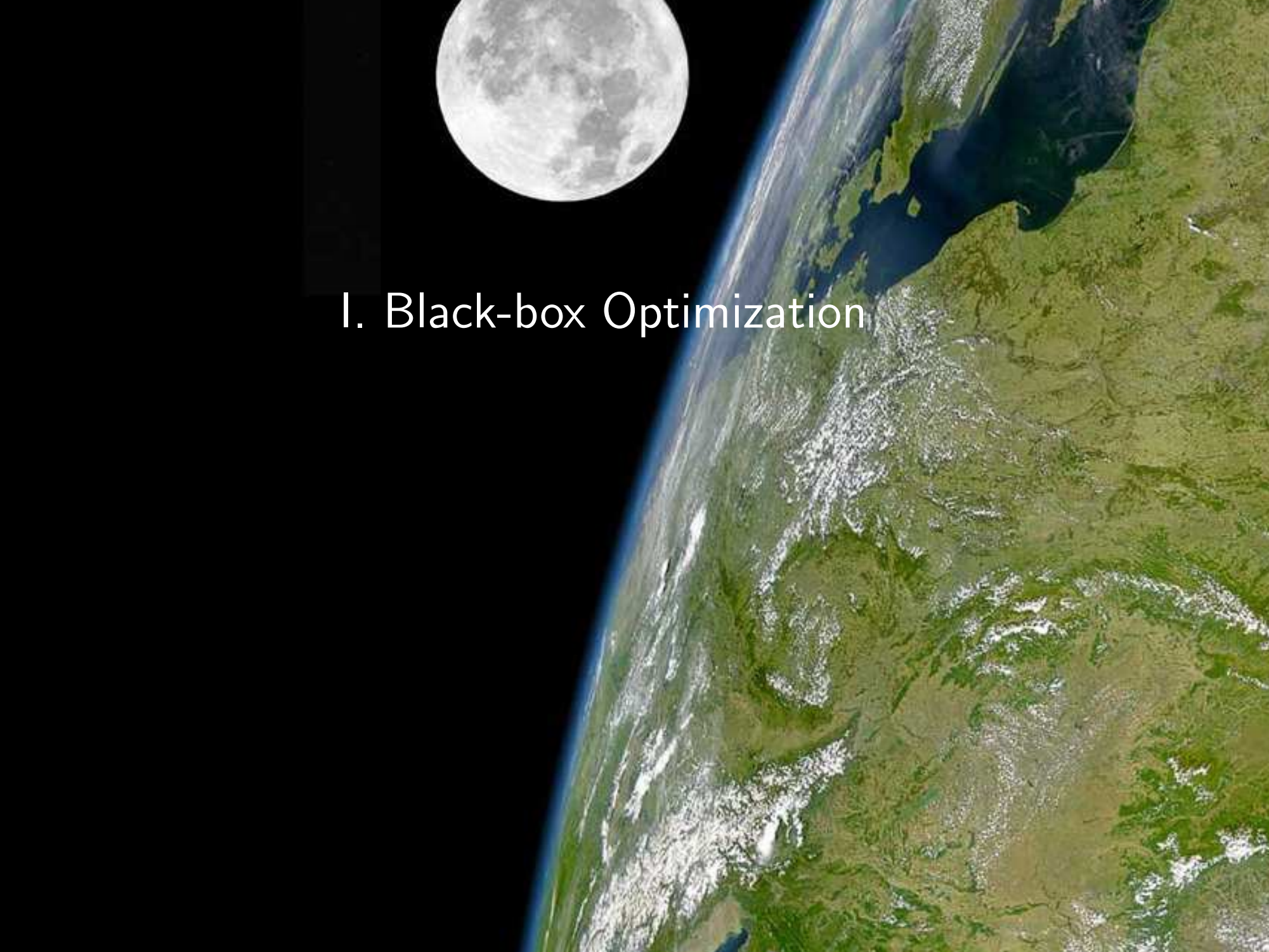
(One Reason) Why We Won't Be Talking About Heuristics



- Heuristics often "embarrassingly/naturally parallel"; `PSO`= particle swarm method
  - Typically through stochastic sampling/evolution
  - 1024 function evaluations per iteration
- `Simplex` is Nelder-Mead; `POUNDERS` is model-based trust-region algorithm
  - one function evaluation per iteration

→ Is this an effective use of resources?

→ How many cores would have sufficed?

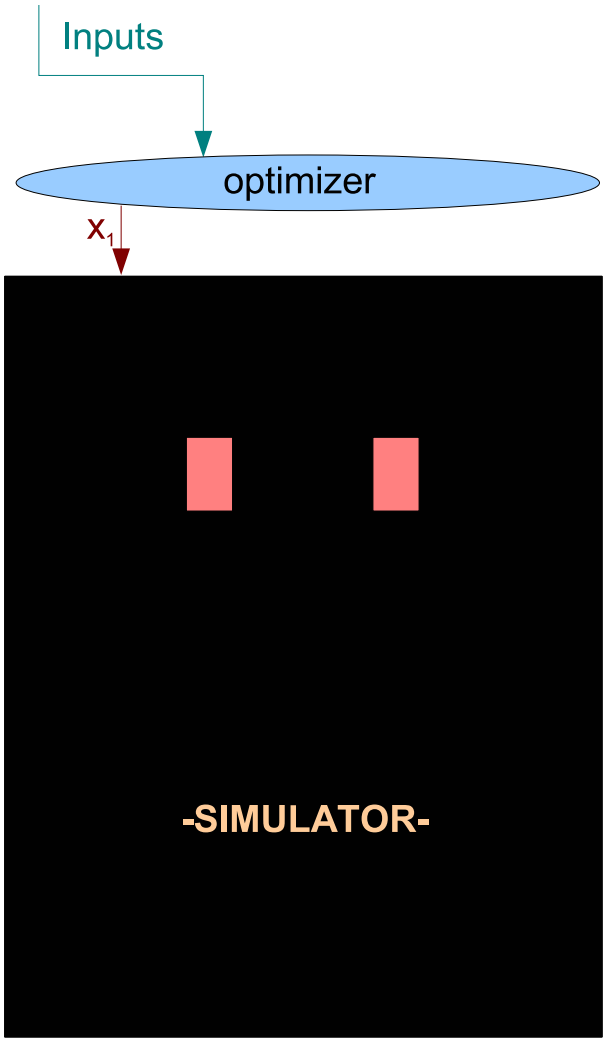


I. Black-box Optimization

Black-box Optimization Problems

NB- My “black box” is different from Ken’s “black box”

Black-box Optimization Problems



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Only knowledge about f is obtained by sampling

- $f = S$ a black box (running some executable-only code or performing an experiment in the lab)
- Only give a single output (no derivatives $\nabla_x S(x)$)

Good solutions guaranteed in the limit, but:

- Usually have computational budget (due to scheduling, finances, deadlines)
- Limited number of evaluations

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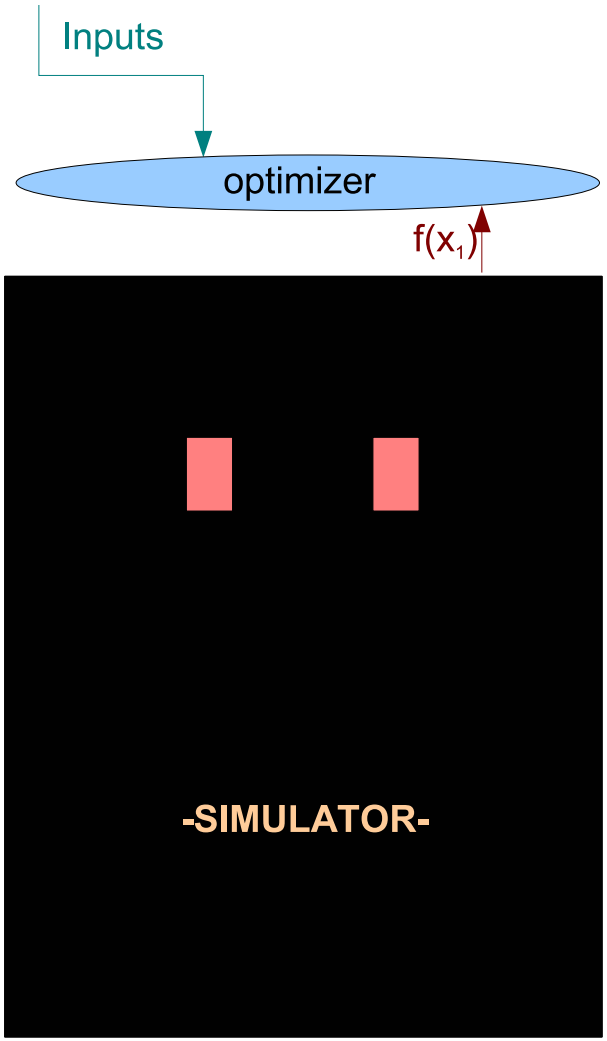

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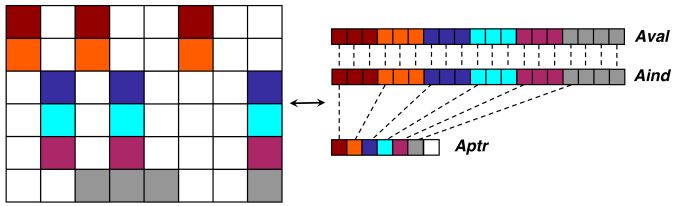
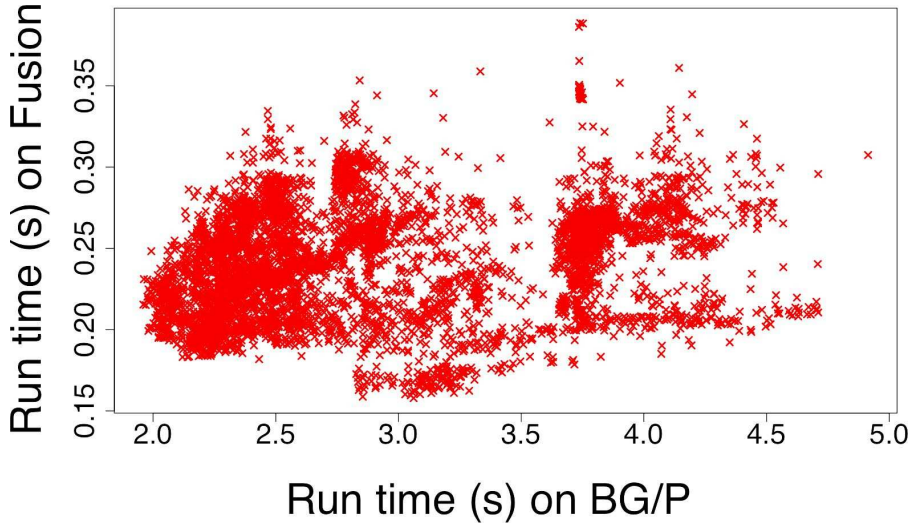
A Black Box: Automating Empirical Performance Tuning

Given semantically equivalent codes $\mathcal{C}_1, \mathcal{C}_2, \ldots$, minimize run time subject to energy consumption



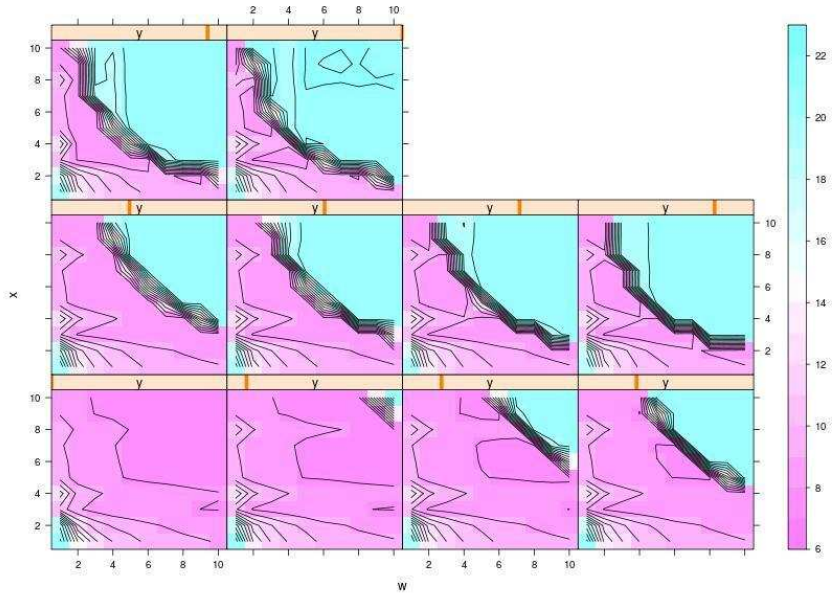


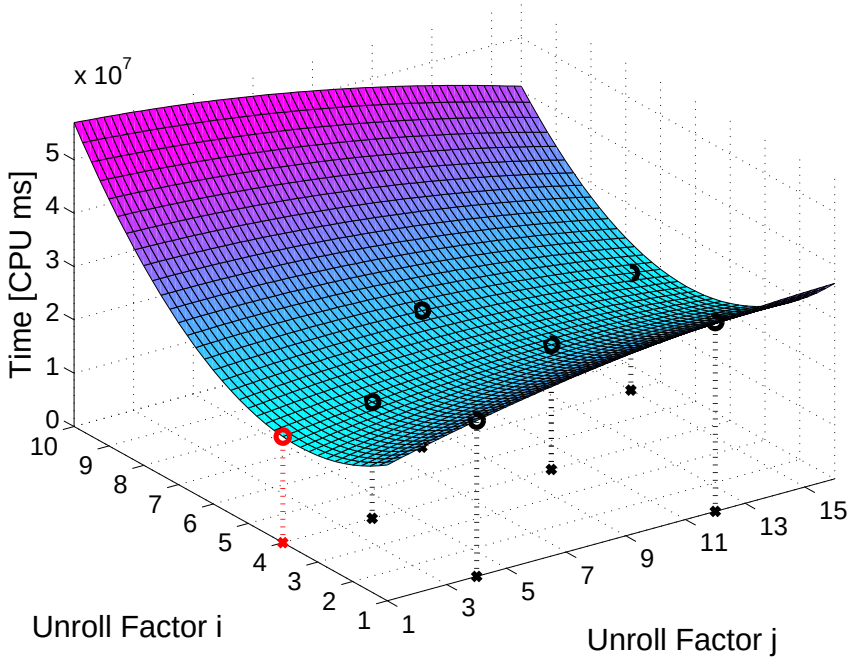
$$\min \{ f(x) : (x_{\mathcal{C}}, x_{\mathcal{I}}, x_{\mathcal{B}}) \in \Omega_{\mathcal{C}} \times \Omega_{\mathcal{I}} \times \Omega_{\mathcal{B}} \}$$

- x multidimensional parameterization (internal tolerances, unroll/tiling factors, compiler flags, compiler type, ...)
- Ω search domain (feasible transformation, no errors)
- f quantifiable performance objective (requires a run)

Optimization for Automatic Tuning of HPC Codes

Evaluation of f requires:
transforming source, compilation, (repeated?) execution, checking for correctness





Challenges:

- Evaluating $f(\Omega)$ prohibitively expensive (e.g., 10^{19} discrete decisions)
- f noisy
- Discrete x unrelaxable
- $\nabla_x f$ unavailable/nonexistent
- Many distinct/local solutions

Black-box Algorithms

Solve general problems $\min\{f(x) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$:

- Only require function values (no $\nabla f(x)$)
- Don't rely on finite-difference approximations to $\nabla f(x)$
- Seek greedy and rapid decrease of function value
- Have asymptotic convergence guarantees
- Assume parallel resources are used within function evaluation

Main styles of DFO algorithms

- Random search methods
- Direct search methods (pattern search, Nelder-Mead, ...)
- Model-based methods (quadratics, radial basis functions, ...)

Random Search Methods

General iteration

1. Generate direction d_k
2. Evaluate gradient-free oracle $g(x_k; h_k) = \frac{f(x_k + h_k\, d_k) - f(x_k)}{h_k} d_k$
3. Compute $x_{k+1} = x_k - \delta_k g(x_k; h_k)$, evaluate $f(x_{k+1})$

Ex.- Nesterov's Random Gradient method

- d_k Gaussian
- $h_k = h \leq \frac{5}{3(n+4)} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{2L_1(f)}}$ to get accuracy ϵ $\qquad (= 10^{-5})$
- $\delta_k = \delta = \frac{1}{4(n+4)L_1(f)}$

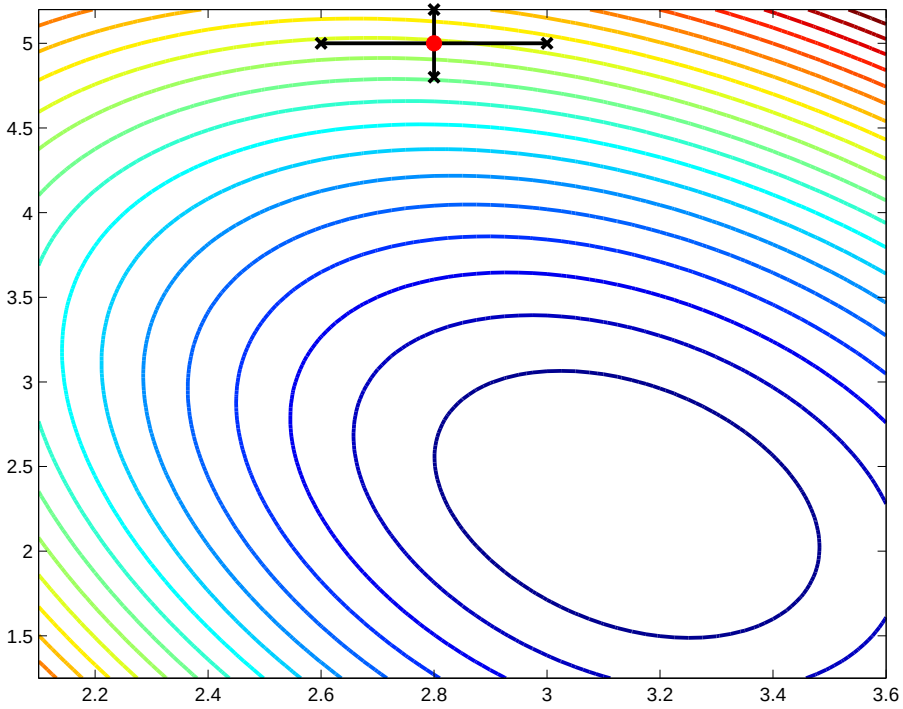
\- Requires Lipschitz constant $L_1(f)$

\+ Probabilistic guarantees in several cases (convex f, smooth f, ...)

Pattern Search Methods

Choose a set of directions (pattern or mesh) $\mathcal{D}_k$

Ex.- $\pm$ coordinate directions ($2n$ directions)



Basic iteration ($k \geq 0$):

- Evaluate $f(x_k + \Delta_k d_j)$, $j = 1, \ldots, |\mathcal{D}_k|$
- If $[f(x_k + \Delta_k d_j) < f(x_k)]$,
  move to $x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta_k d_j$

  Otherwise shrink Δ_k
- Update $\mathcal{D}_k$

This is an indicator function, does not say anything about the magnitude of f values, just the ordering

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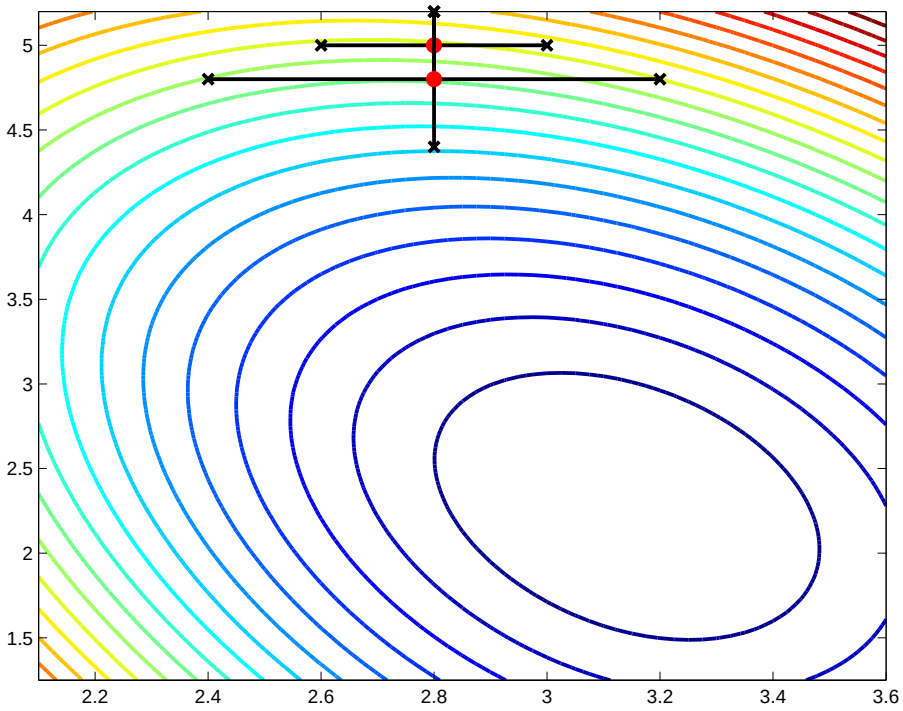

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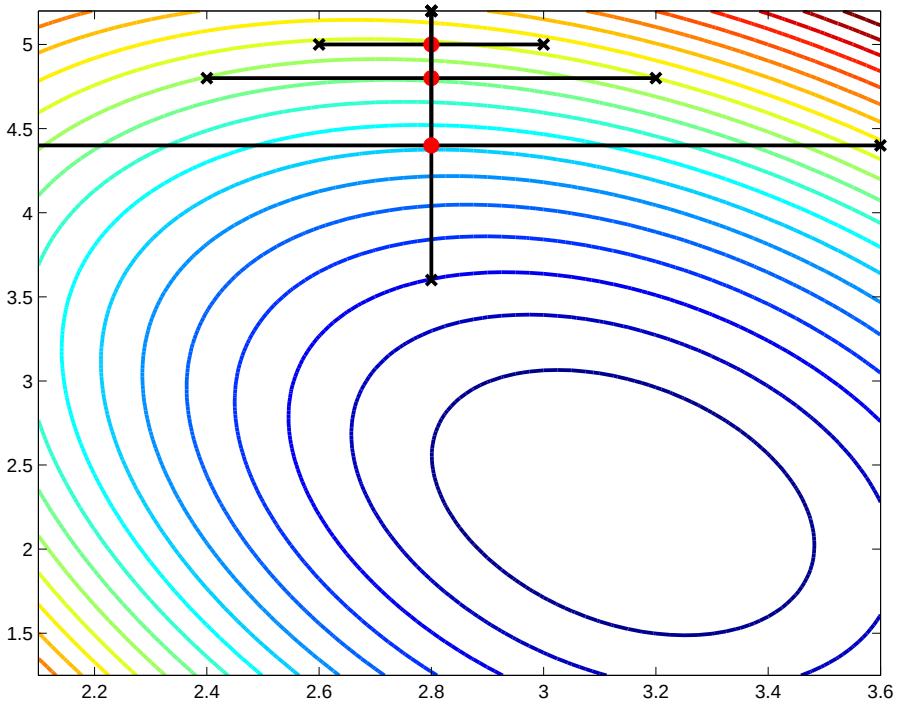

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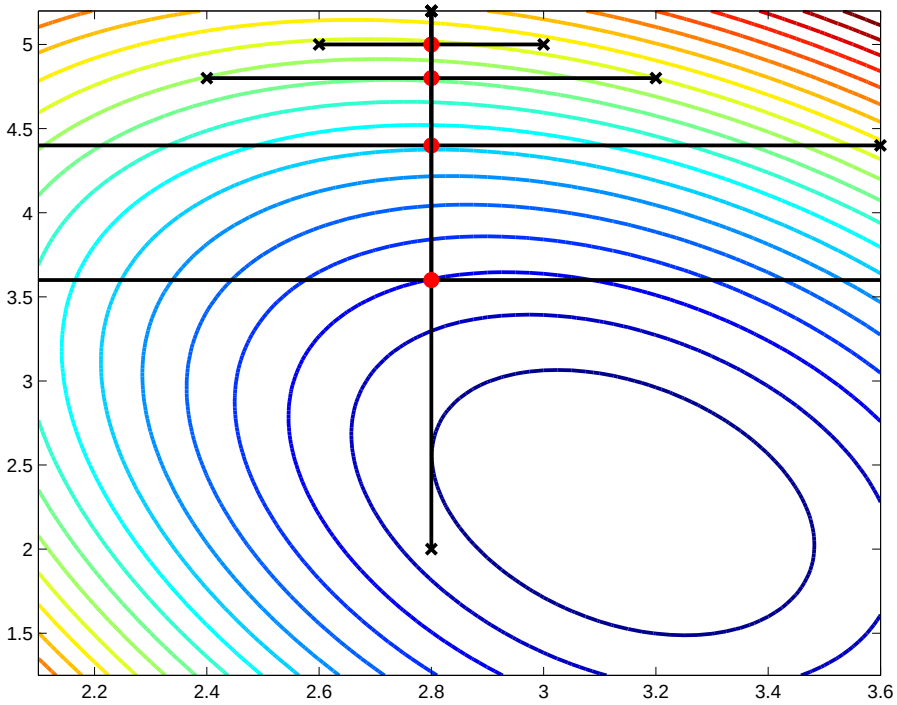

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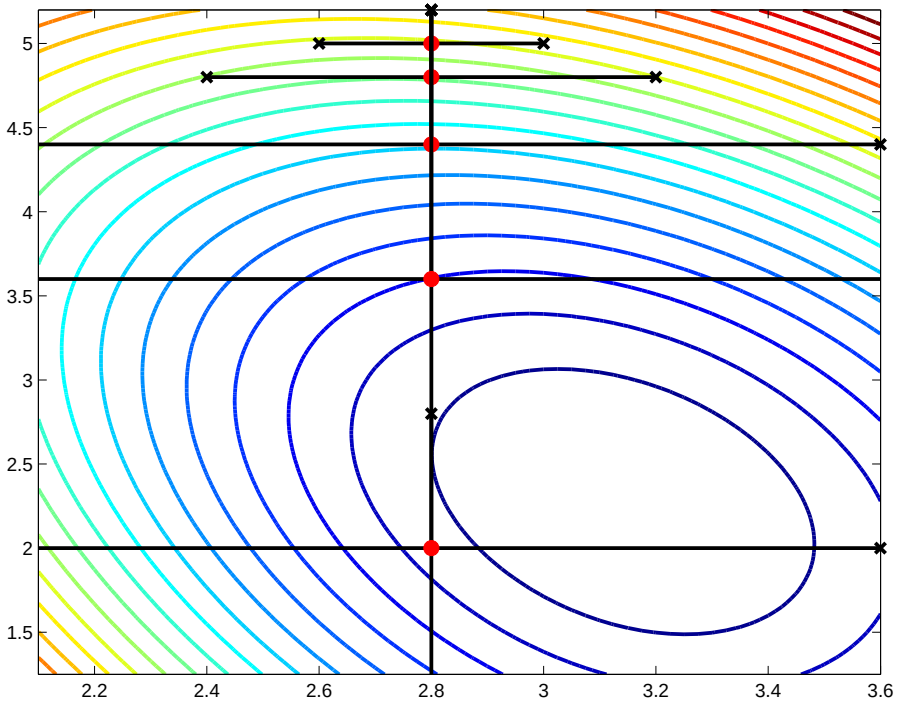

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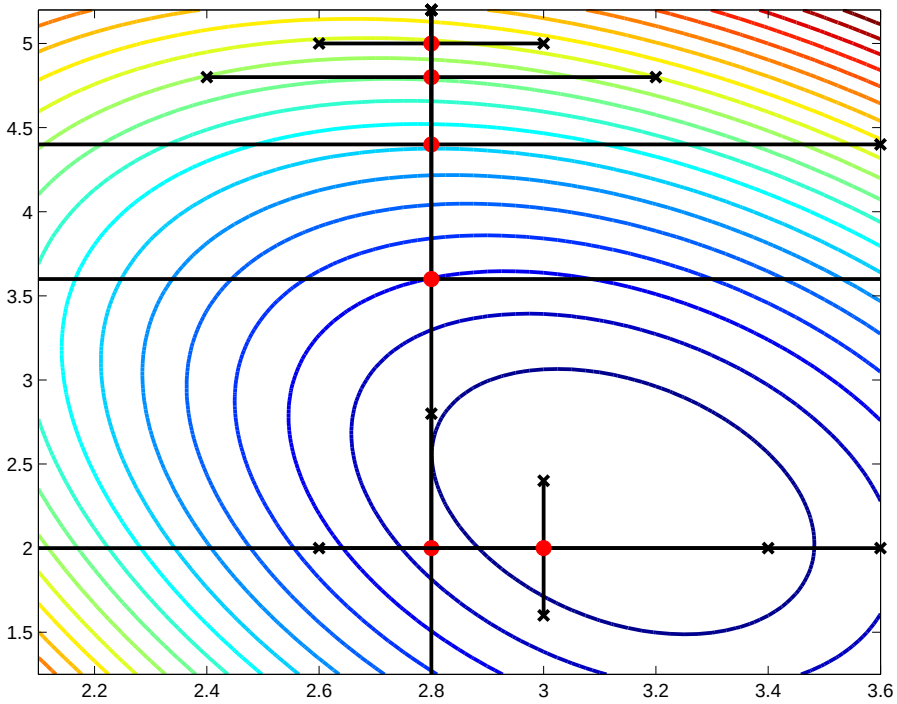

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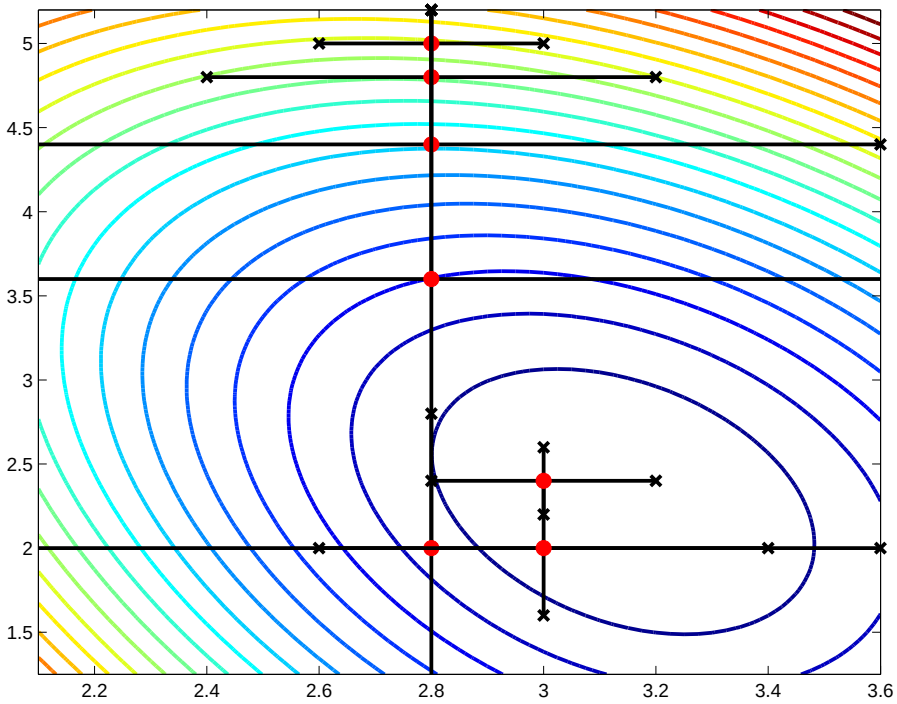

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$\rightarrow$ Lends itself well to doing concurrent function evaluations

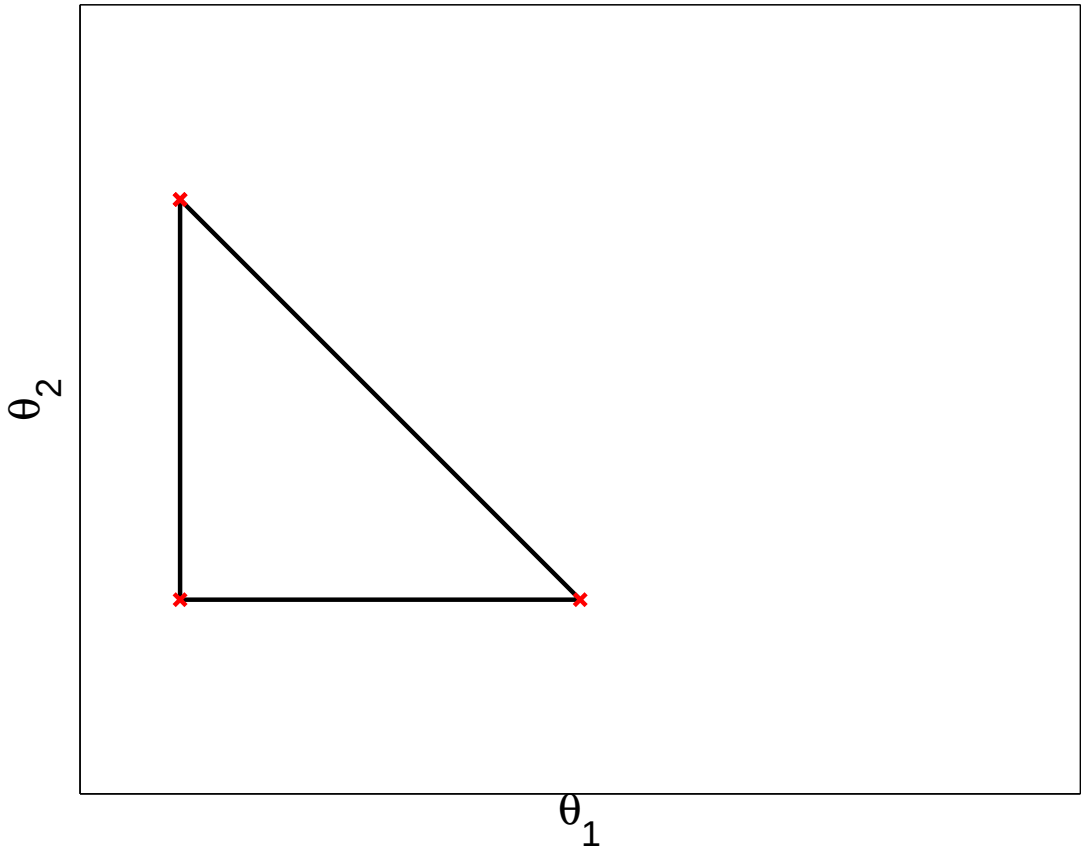
$\rightarrow$ See also mesh-adaptive direct search methods (e.g., NOMAD)

$\rightarrow$ Can establish convergence for nonsmooth f

The Nelder-Mead Method [1965]

Basic iteration ($k \geq 0$):

- Evaluate f on the $n+1$ vertices of the simplex $x_k + \Delta_k \mathcal{S}^{(k)}$
- Reflect worst vertex about the best face
- Shrink, contract, or expand $\Delta_k \mathcal{S}^{(k)}$



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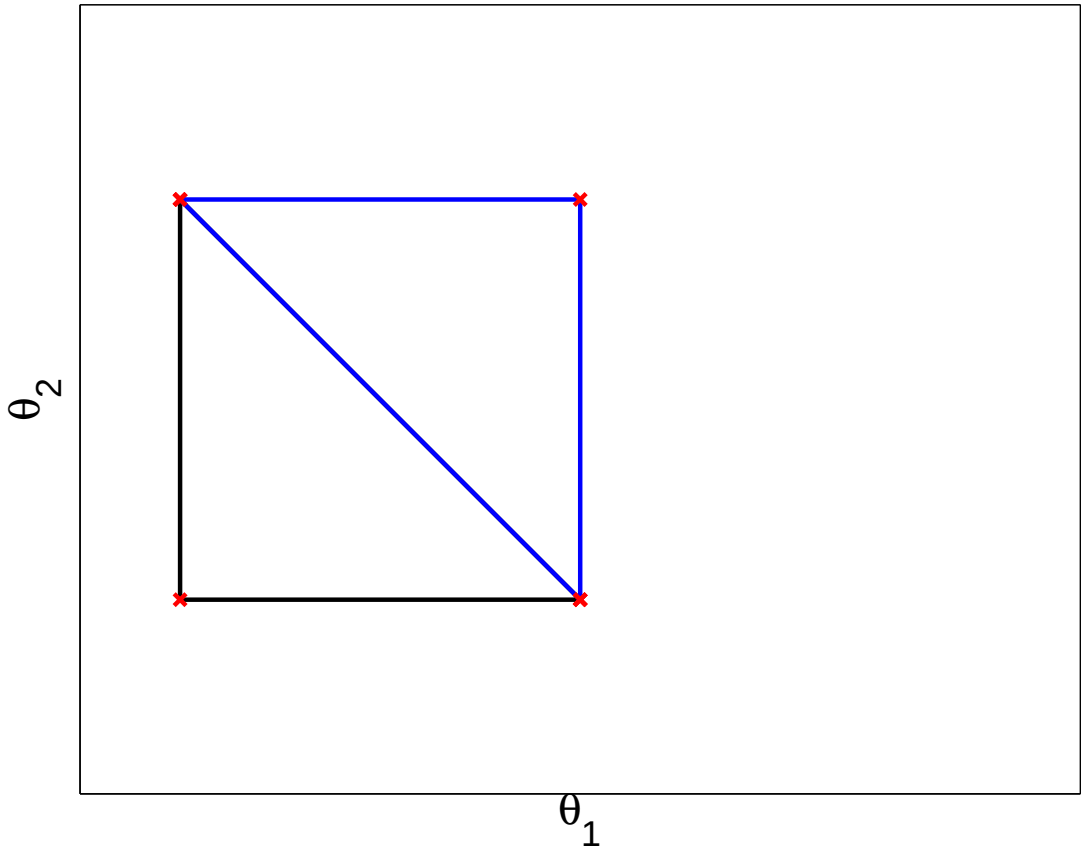

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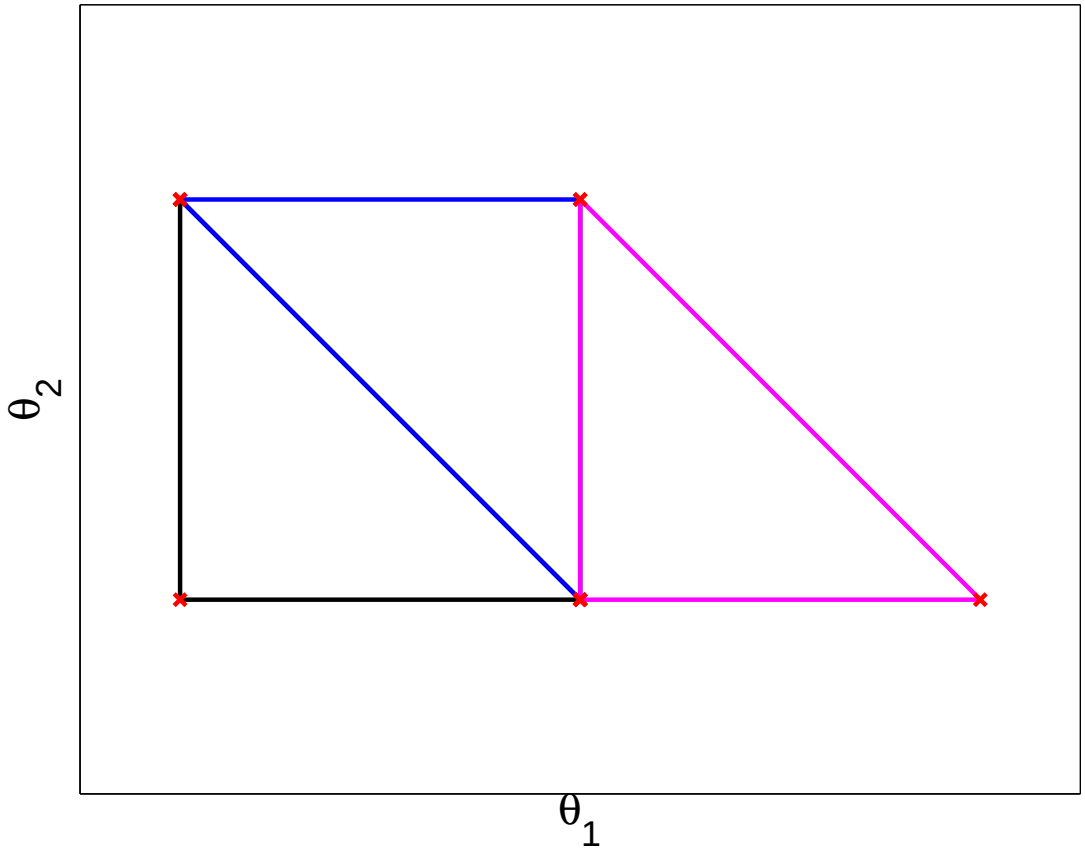

The Nelder-Mead Method [1965]

Basic iteration ($k \geq 0$):

- Evaluate f on the $n+1$ vertices of the simplex $x_k + \Delta_k \mathcal{S}^{(k)}$
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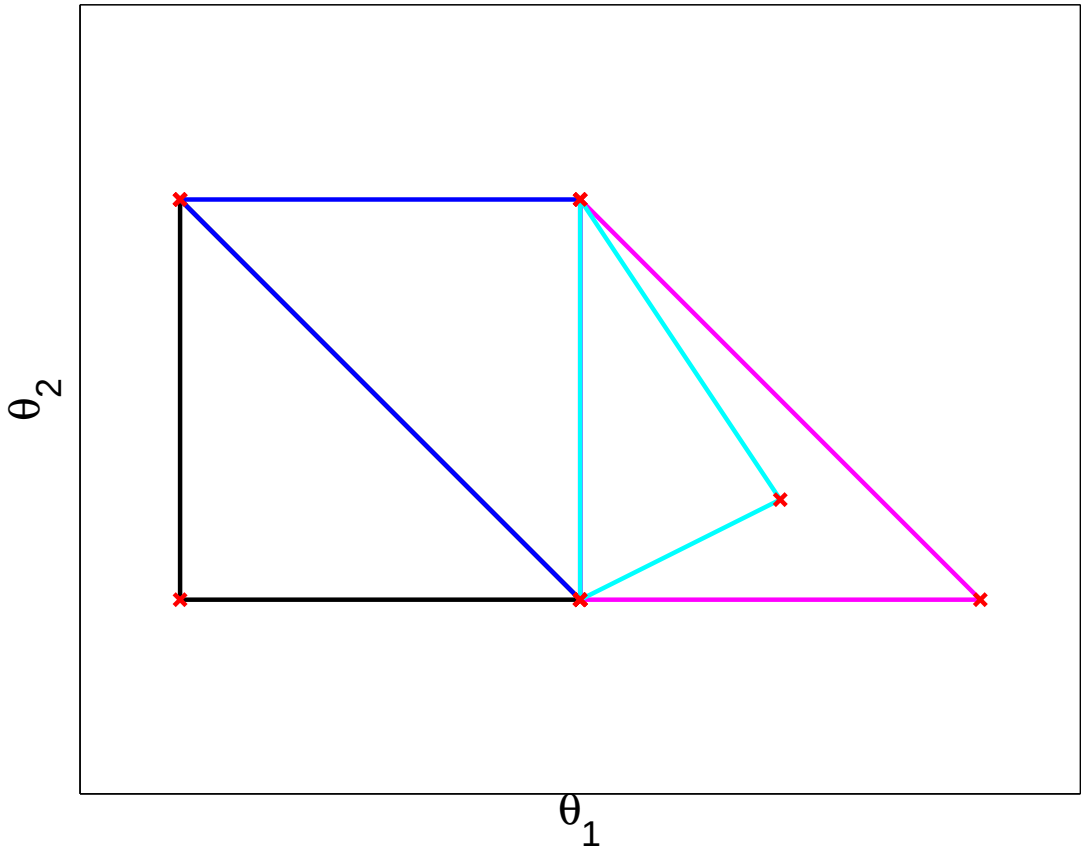

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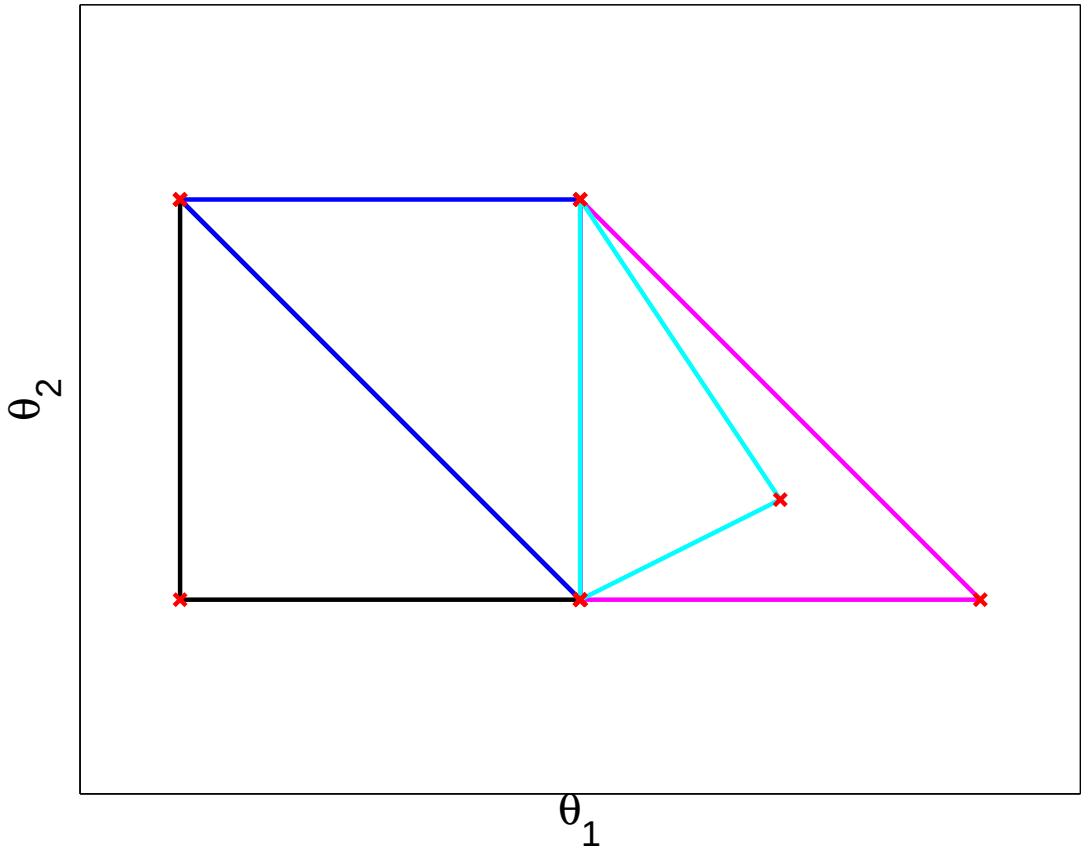

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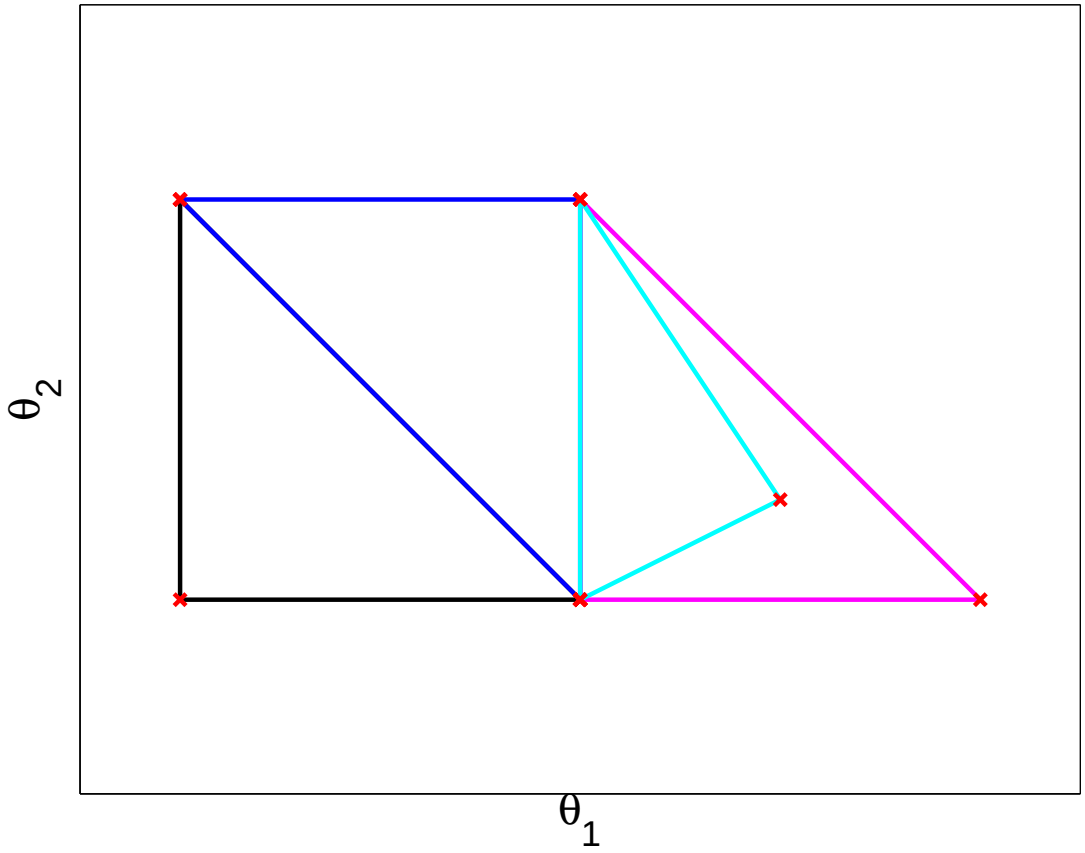

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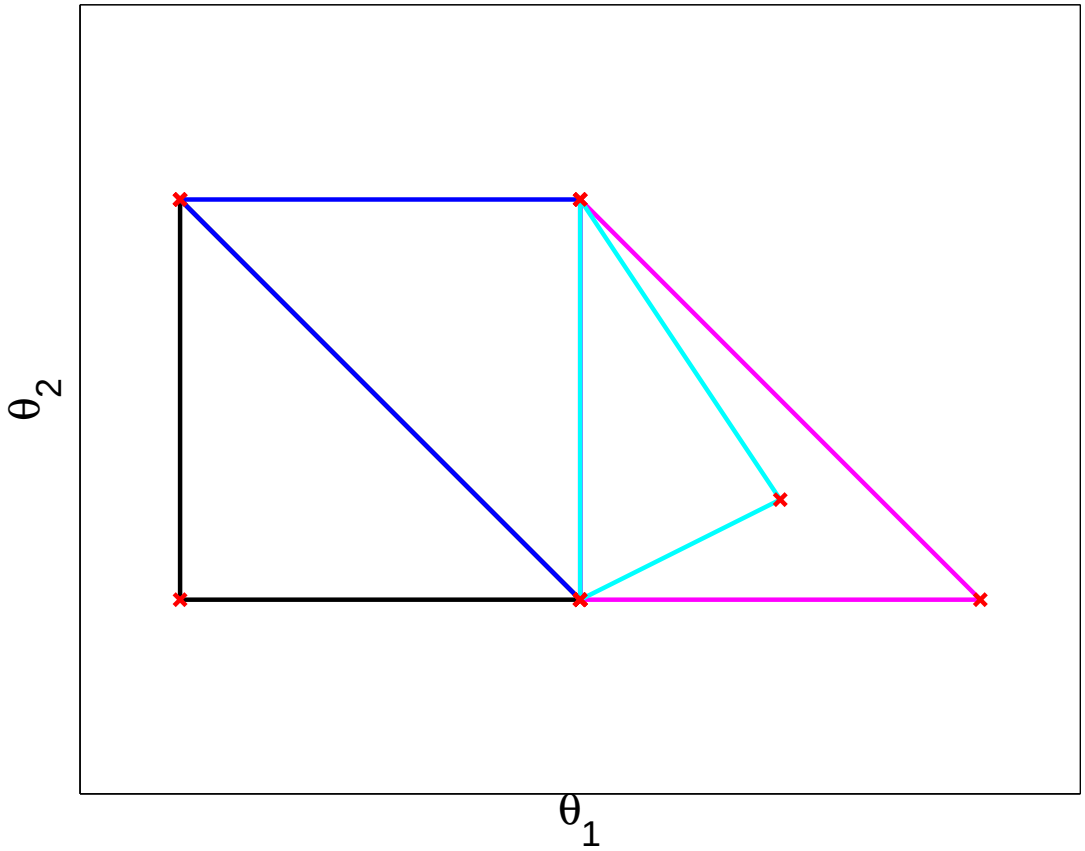


Only the order of the function values matter:
$f(\hat{x}) = 1$, $f(\tilde{x}) = 1.0001$ is the same as $f(\hat{x}) = 1$, $f(\tilde{x}) = 10000$.

$\rightarrow$ A very popular (due to "Numerical Recipes"), robust first choice

What Are We Missing?

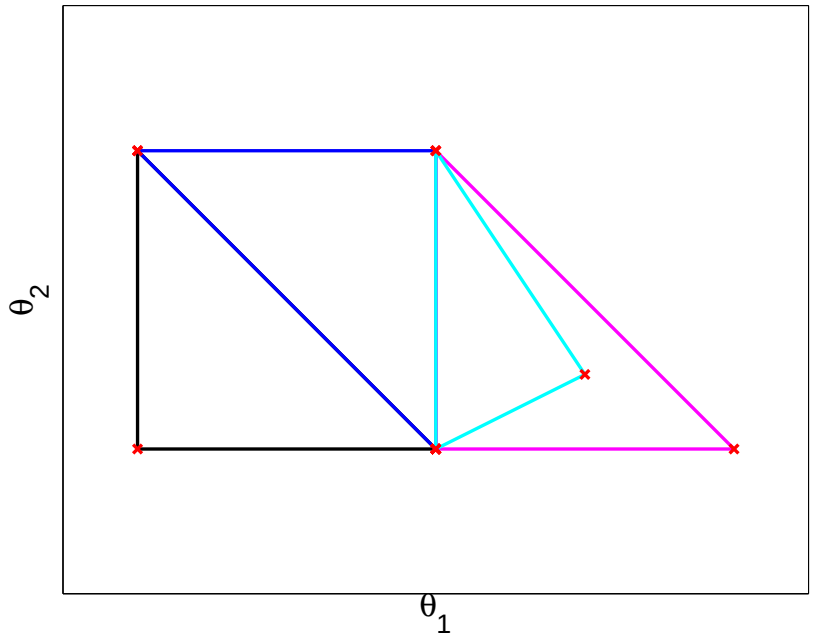
These methods will (eventually) find a local solution

Overview: → [Kolda, Lewis, Torczon, SIREV 2003]

Each evaluation of f is expensive (valuable)

N-M:

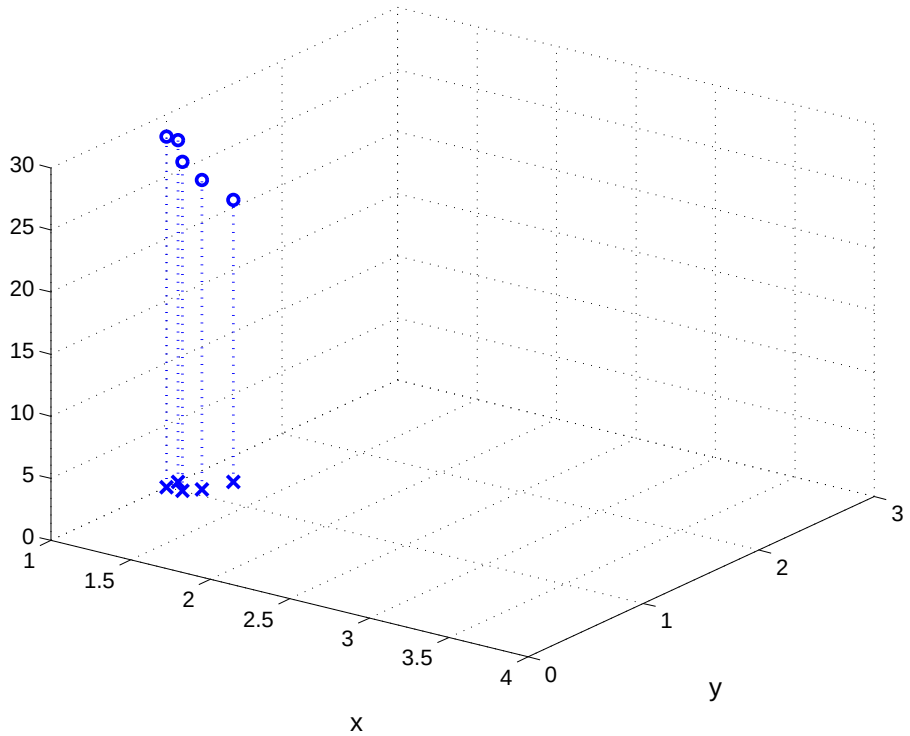
1. Only remembers the last $n+1$ evaluations
2. Neglects the magnitudes of the function values (order only)
3. Doesn't take into account the special (LS) problem structure



→ This is the reason many direct search methods use a search phase on top of the usual poll phase

Making the Most of Little Information on f

- f is expensive $\Rightarrow$ can afford to make better use of points
- Overhead of the optimization routine is negligible relative to the cost of evaluating the simulation.



Bank of data, $\{x_i, f(x_i)\}_{i=1}^{k}$:

= Points (& function values) evaluated so far

= Everything known about f

Goal:

- Make use of growing Bank as optimization progresses

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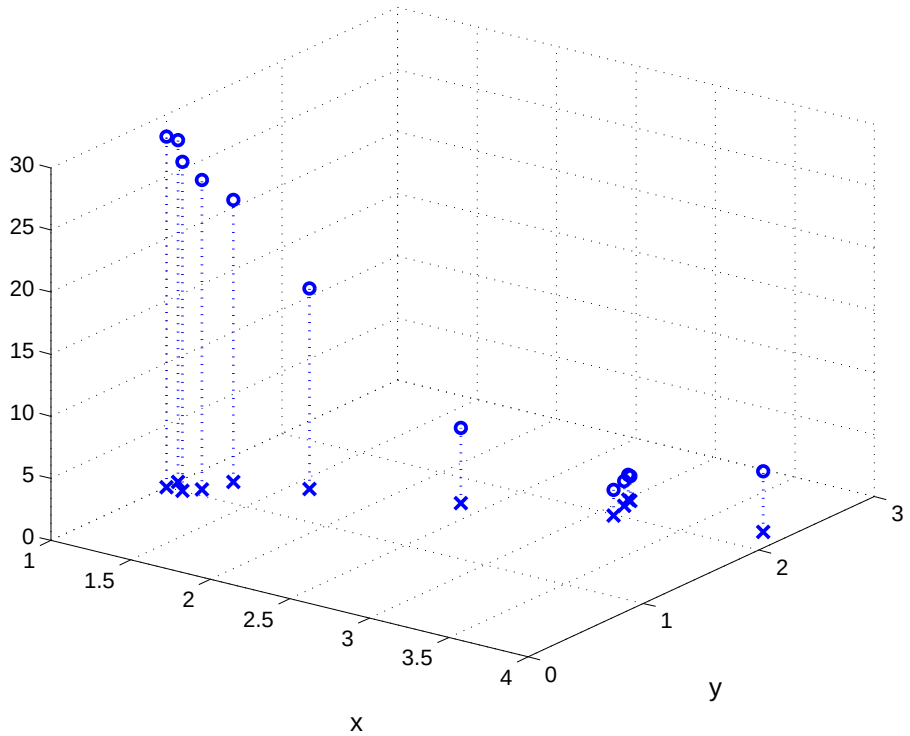

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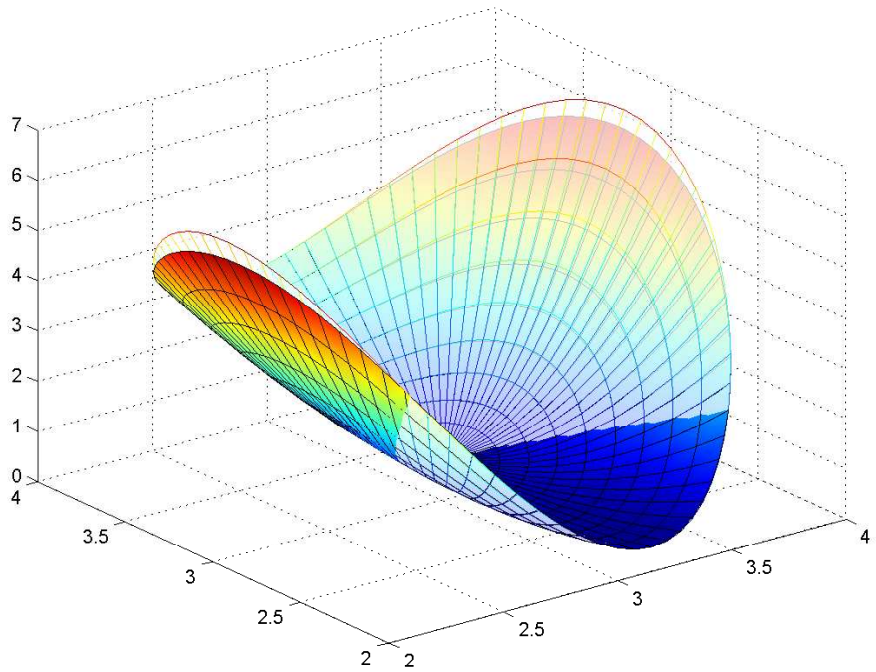
Trust-Region Methods Use Models Instead of f

To reduce the number of expensive f evaluations
$\rightarrow$ Replace difficult optimization problem $\min f(x)$
with a much simpler one $\min \{m(x) : x \in \mathcal{B}\}$

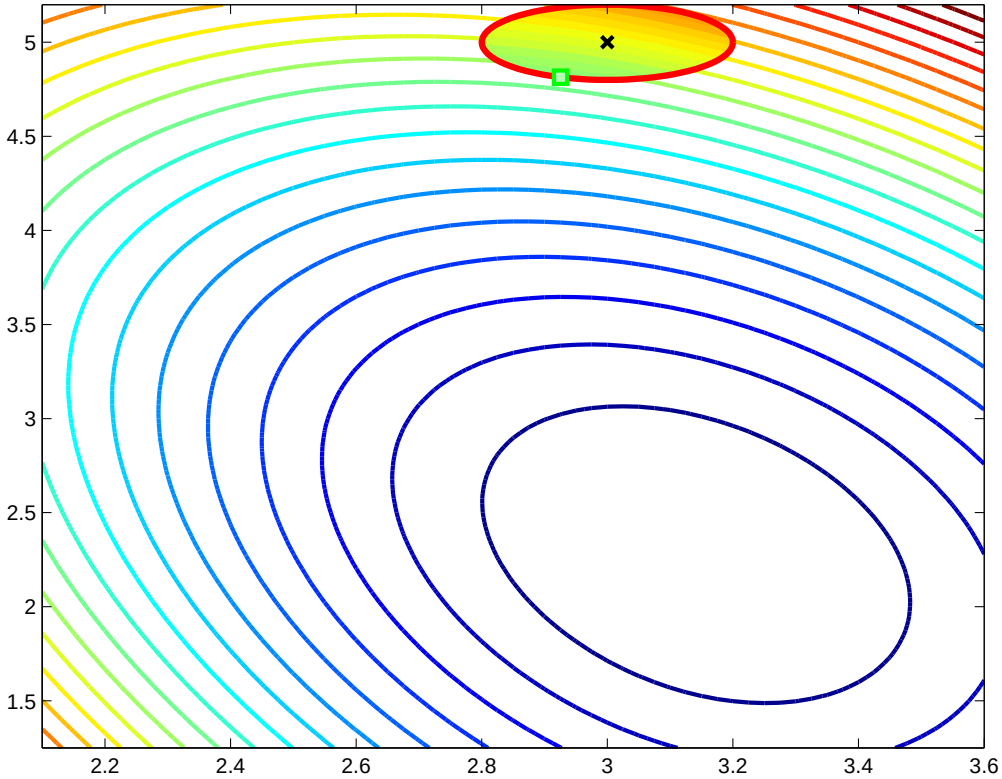


Classic NLP Technique:

- f Original function: computationally expensive, no derivatives
- m Surrogate model: computationally attractive, analytic derivatives

Basic Trust-Region Idea

Use a surrogate $m(x)$ in place of the unwieldy $f(x)$



Optimize over m to avoid expense of f:

- Trust m to approximate f within $\mathcal{B} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_k\| \leq \Delta_k\}$,
- Obtain next point from $\min\{m(x) : x \in \mathcal{B}\}$,
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[Trust-Region Methods; Conn, Gould, Toint; SIAM, 2000]

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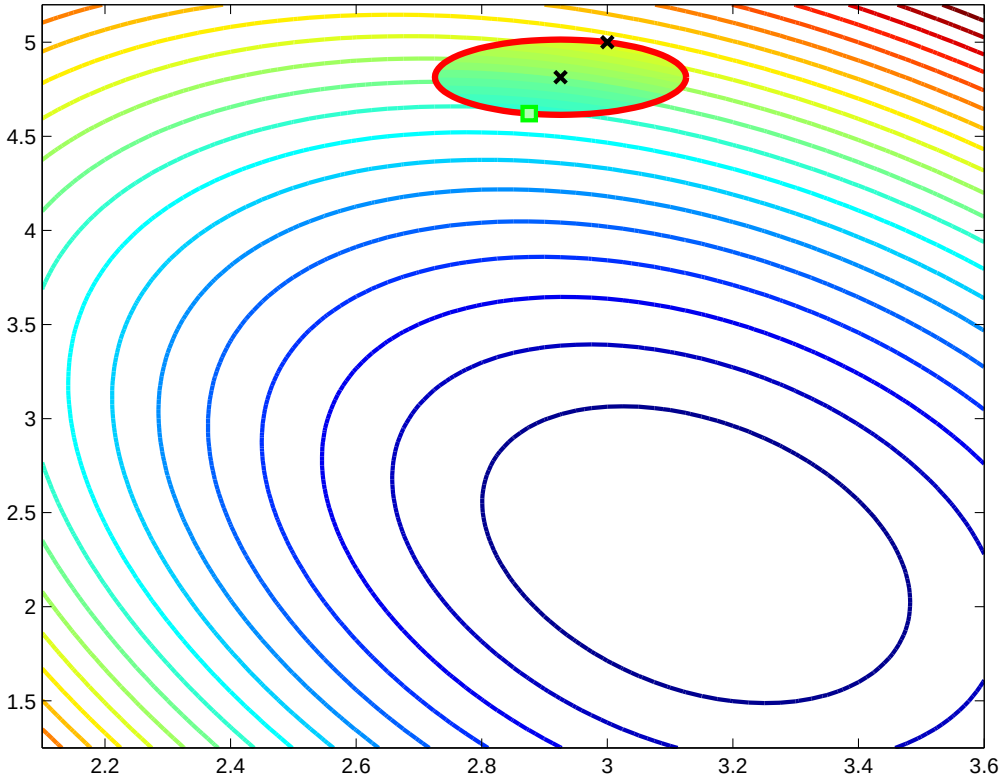

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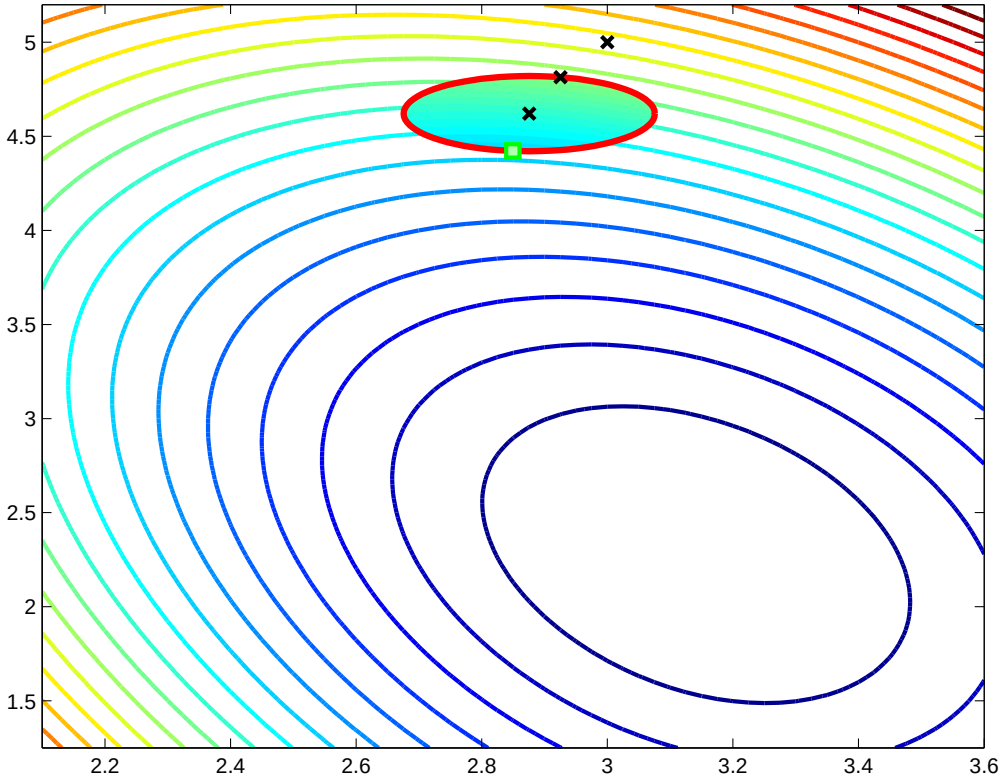

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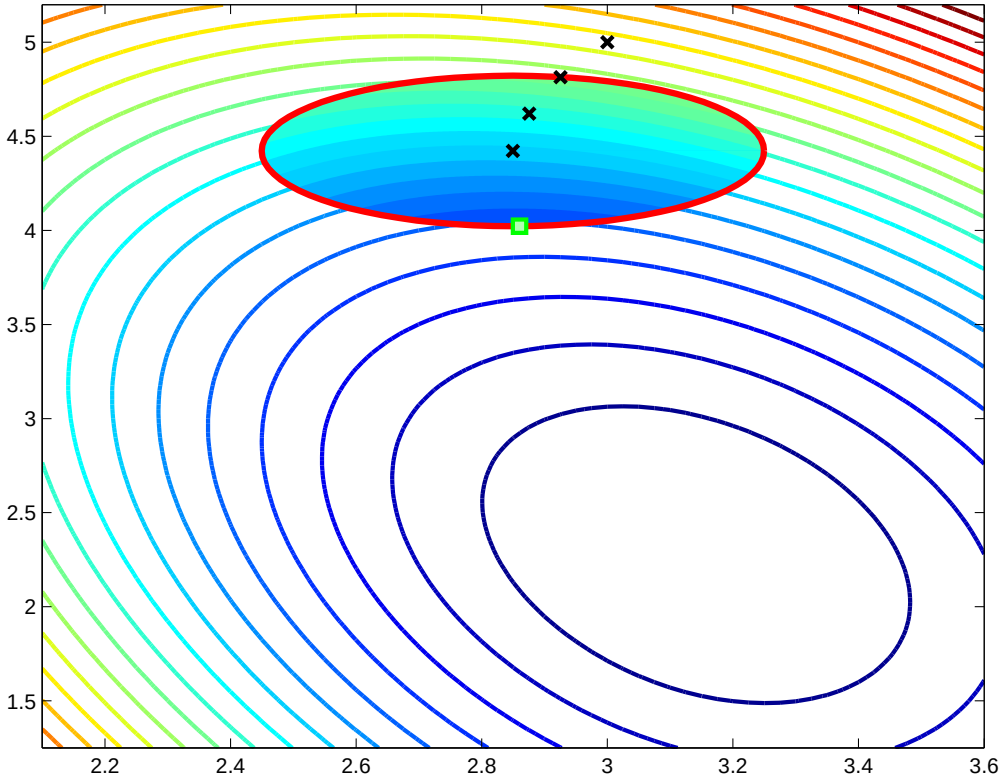

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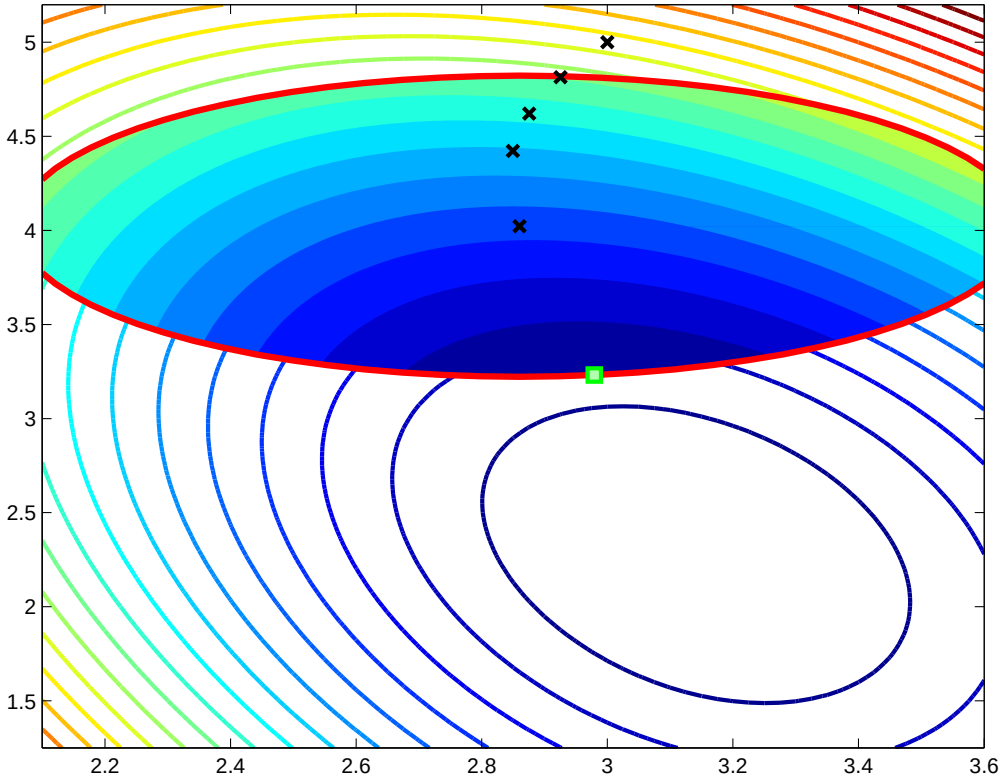

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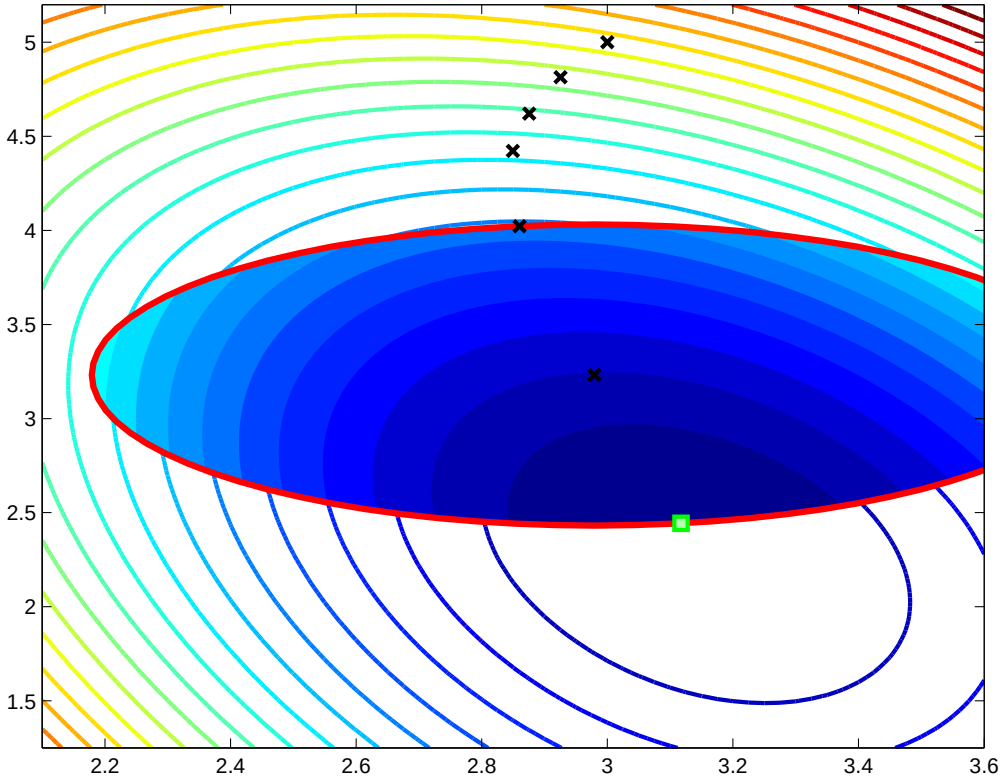

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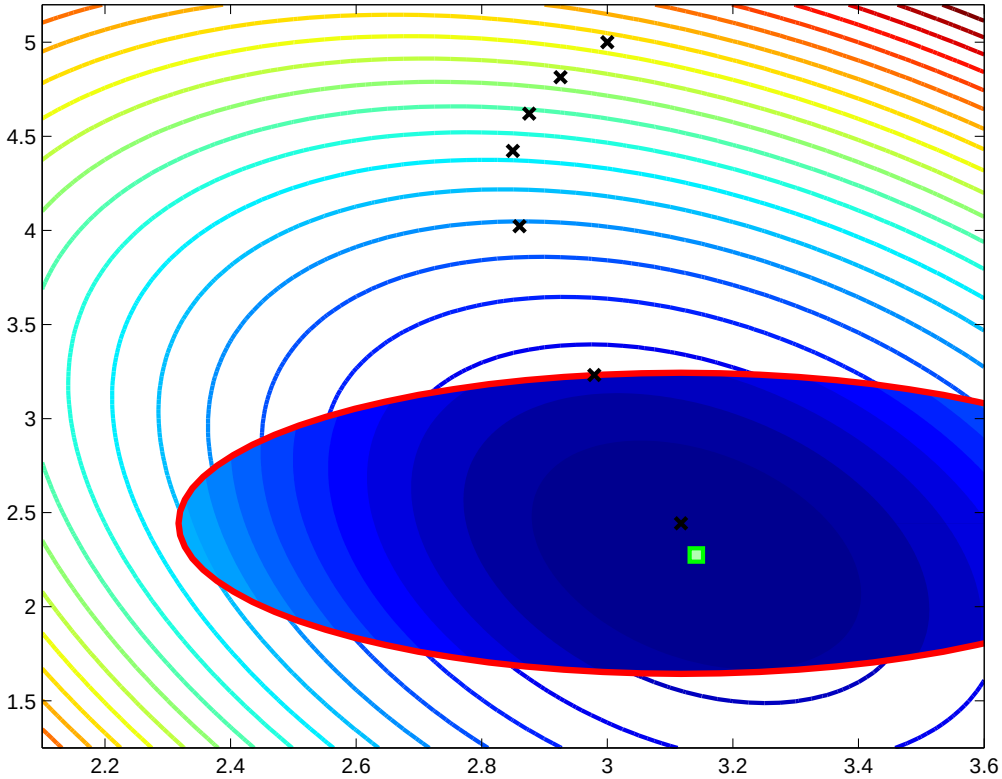

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Where Does the Model Come From?

When derivatives are available:

Taylor-based model $m(x_k + s) = c + g_k^T s + \frac{1}{2} s^T H_k s$

- $g_k = \nabla_x f(x_k)$
- $H_k \approx \nabla^2_{x,x} f(x_k)$

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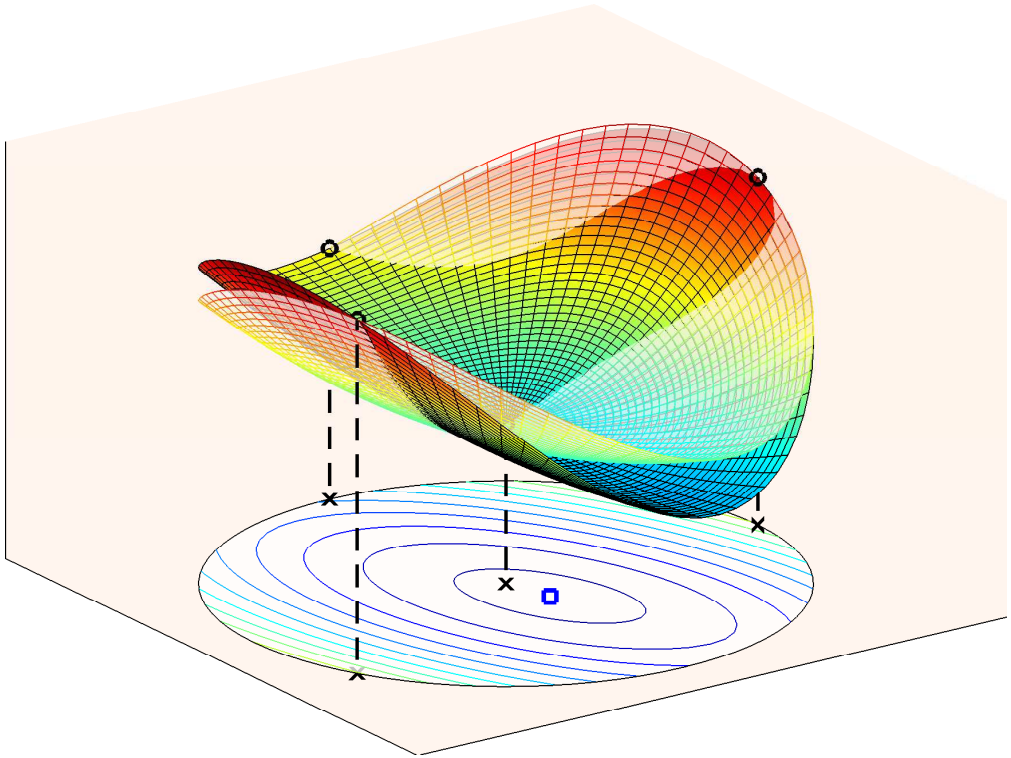
Without derivatives

- Interpolation-based models
- Regression-based models
- Stochastic/randomized models

Interpolation-Based Quadratic Models



An interpolating quadratic in $\mathbb{R}^2$

$m(x_k + s) = c + g^T s + \frac{1}{2} s^T H s$:

Get the model parameters $c, g, H = H^T$ by demanding interpolation:

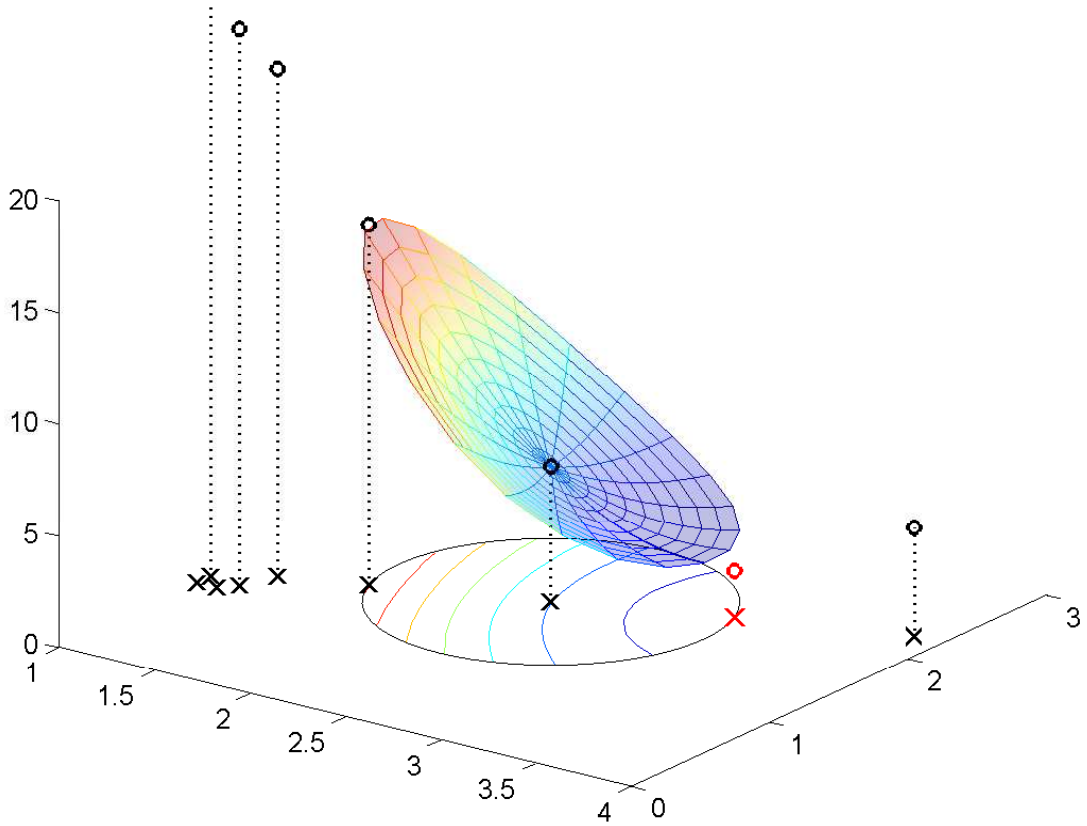
$$m(x_k + y_i) = f(x_k + y_i)$$

for all $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ =interpolation set

Main difficulty is $\mathcal{Y}$:

- Use prior function evaluations,
- m well-defined and approximates f locally.

Interpolation-Based Trust-Region Methods



Iteration k:

- Build a model m_k interpolating f on $\mathcal{Y}$
- Trust m_k within region $\mathcal{B}_k$
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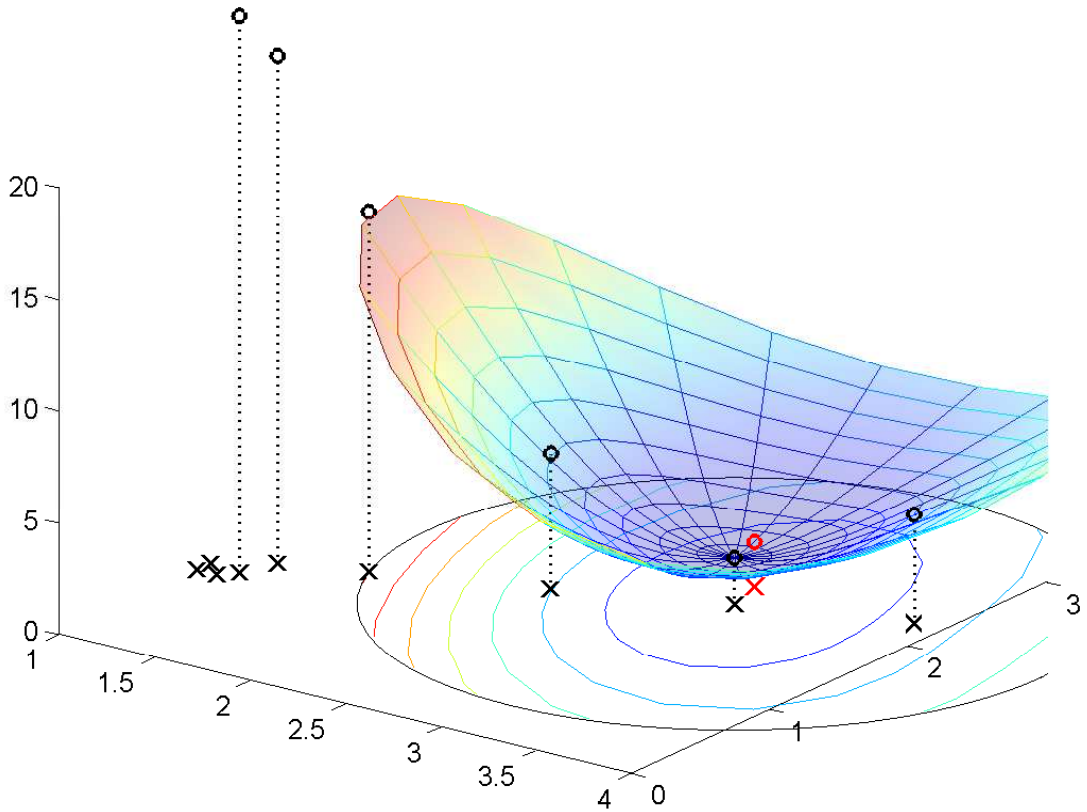

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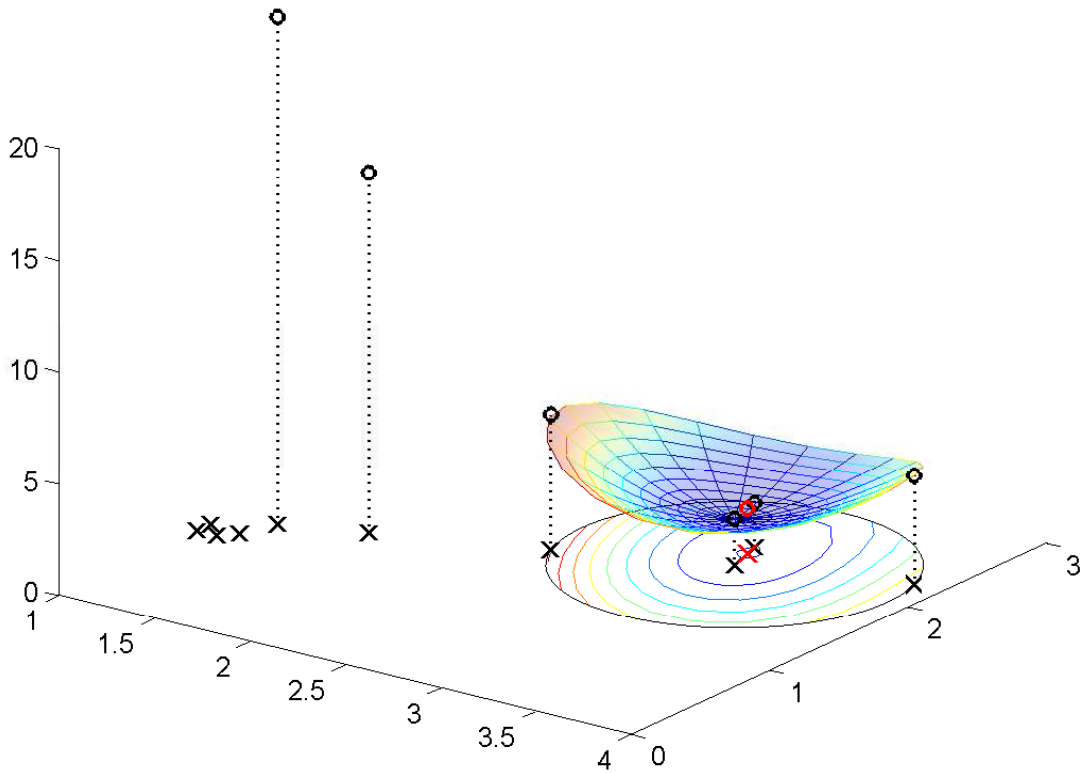

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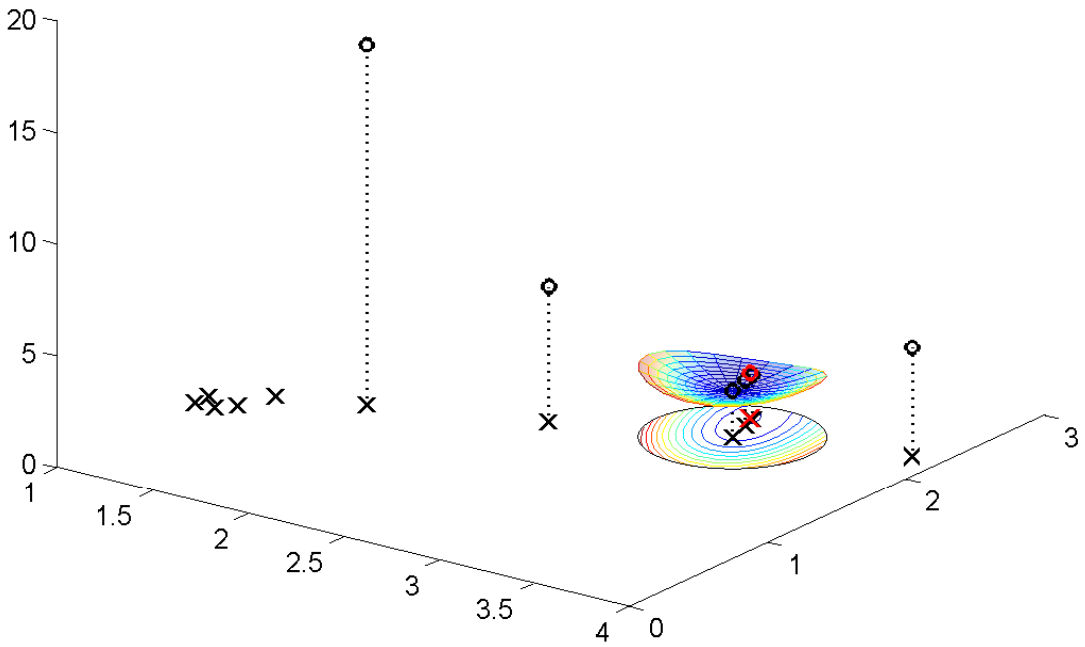

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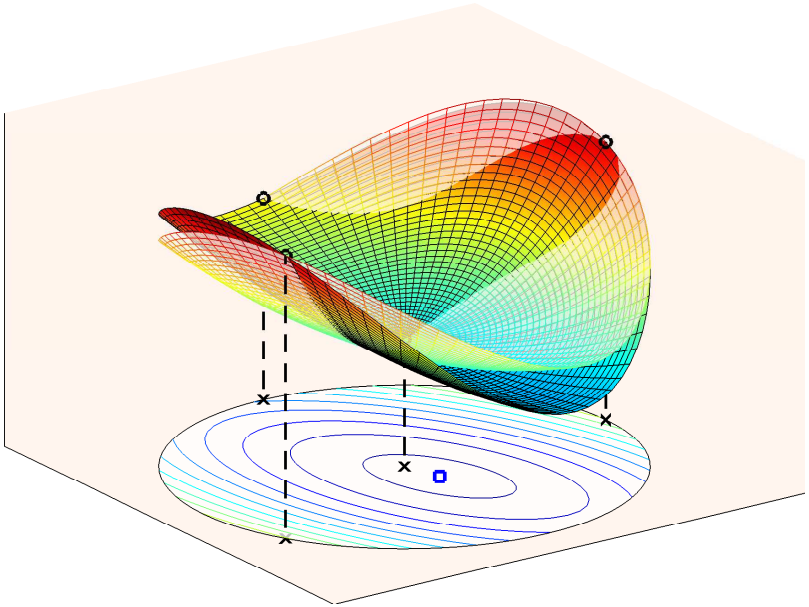
Building Models Without Derivatives

Given $(\mathcal{Y}_k, f(\mathcal{Y}_k))$, "solve"

$$\Phi(\mathcal{Y}_k)z = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_c & \Phi_g & \Phi_H \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_c \\ z_g \\ z_H \end{bmatrix} = \underline{\mathrm{f}} = f(\mathcal{Y}_k)$$



$n = 2, |\mathcal{Y}_k| = 4$

Full quadratics, $|\mathcal{Y}_k| = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$

- Geometric conditions on points in $\mathcal{Y}_k$

Undetermined interpolation, $|\mathcal{Y}_k| < \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$

- Use (Powell) Hessian updates

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{g_k, H_k} \quad & \|H_k - H_{k-1}\|_F^2 \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & q_k = \underline{\mathrm{f}} \text{ on } \mathcal{Y}_k \end{aligned}$$

Regression, $|\mathcal{Y}_k| > \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$

- Solve $\min_z \|\Phi z - \underline{\mathrm{f}}\|$

Multivariate Interpolation is a Different Kind of Animal

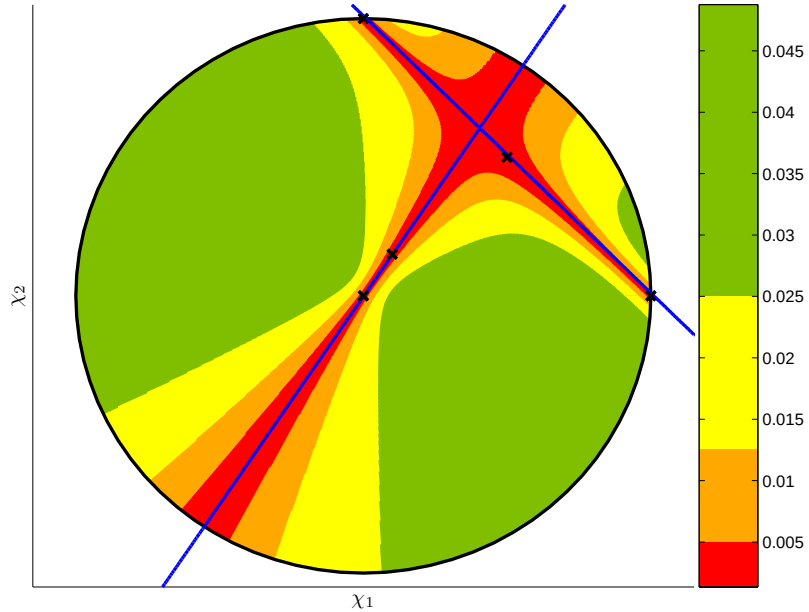
$$m(x_k + y_i) = f(x_k + y_i) \qquad \forall y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$$

$n = 1$ Given p distinct points, can find a unique degree $p-1$ polynomial m

$n > 1$ Not true! (see Mairhuber-Curtis Theorem)

For quadratic models in $\mathbb{R}^n$:

- $\frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$ coefficients
- Unique interpolant may not exist, even when $|\mathcal{Y}| = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$
- Locations of the points in $\mathcal{Y}$ must satisfy additional geometric conditions (has nothing to do with f values)



→ [Scattered Data Approximation; Wendland; Cambridge University Press, 2010]

Notions of Model Quality

"Taylor-like" Error Bounds

1. Assuming underlying f is sufficiently smooth
   $=$ derivatives of f exist but are unavailable
2. A model m_k is locally fully linear if:
   For all $x \in \mathcal{B}_k = \{x \in \Omega : \|x - x_k\| \leq \Delta_k\}$
   - $|m_k(x) - f(x)| \leq \kappa_1 \Delta_k^2$
   - $\|\nabla m_k(x) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq \kappa_2 \Delta_k$

   for constants κ_i independent of x and Δ_k.

$\rightarrow$[Intro. to DFO; Conn, Scheinberg, Vicente; SIAM 2009]

Notions of Model Quality

"Taylor-like" Error Bounds

1. Assuming underlying f is sufficiently smooth
2. A model m_k is locally fully quadratic if:

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   - $\|\nabla m_k(x) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq \kappa_2 \Delta_k^2$
   - $\|\nabla^2 m_k(x) - \nabla^2 f(x)\| \leq \kappa_3 \Delta_k$

   for constants κ_i independent of x and Δ_k.

→[Intro. to DFO; Conn, Scheinberg, Vicente; SIAM 2009]

Ingredients for Convergence to Stationary Points

Assuming underlying f is sufficiently smooth and regular (e.g., has bounded level sets)

$\lim_{k\to\infty} \nabla f(x_k) = 0$ provided:

1. Control $\mathcal{B}_k$ based on model quality
2. (Occasional) approximation within $\mathcal{B}_k$
   Our quadratics satisfy
   - $|q_k(x) - f(x)| \leq \kappa_1(\gamma_f + \|H_k\|)\Delta_k^2, \qquad x \in \mathcal{B}_k$
   - $\|g_k + H_k(x - x_k) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq \kappa_2(\gamma_f + \|H_k\|)\Delta_k, \qquad x \in \mathcal{B}_k$
3. Sufficient decrease

At least model gradient should be good

Radial Basis Function (RBF) models also fit in this framework

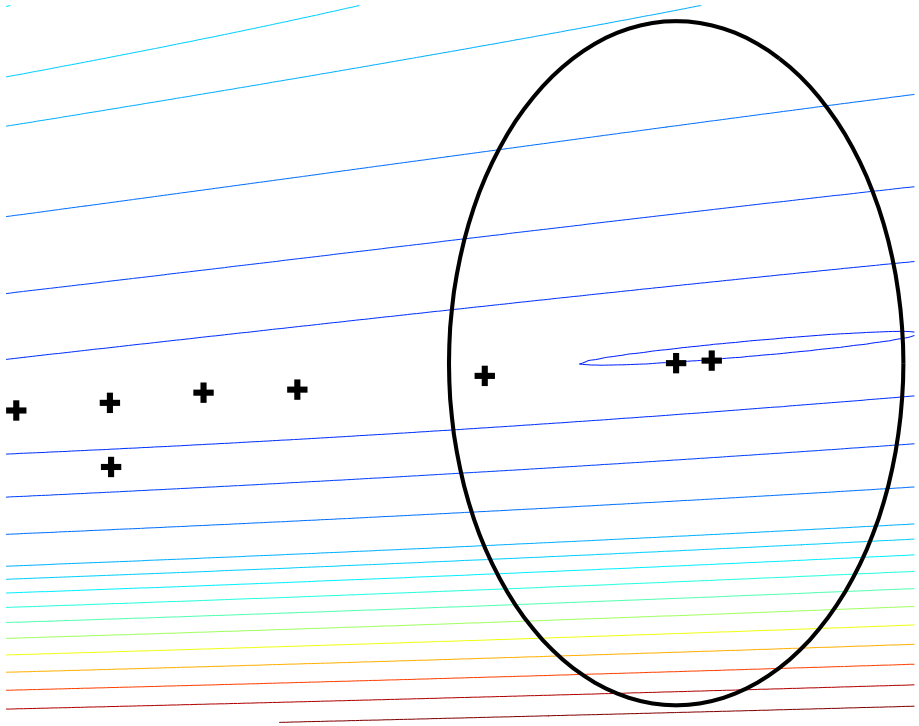
→ [W. & Shoemaker, SIREV 2013]

General introduction → [Intro. to DFO; Conn, Scheinberg, Vicente; SIAM 2009]

Greed. Alone. Can. Hurt.

Model-improvement may be needed when:

- ◇ Nearby points line up
- ◇ May not have enough points to ensure model quality in all directions

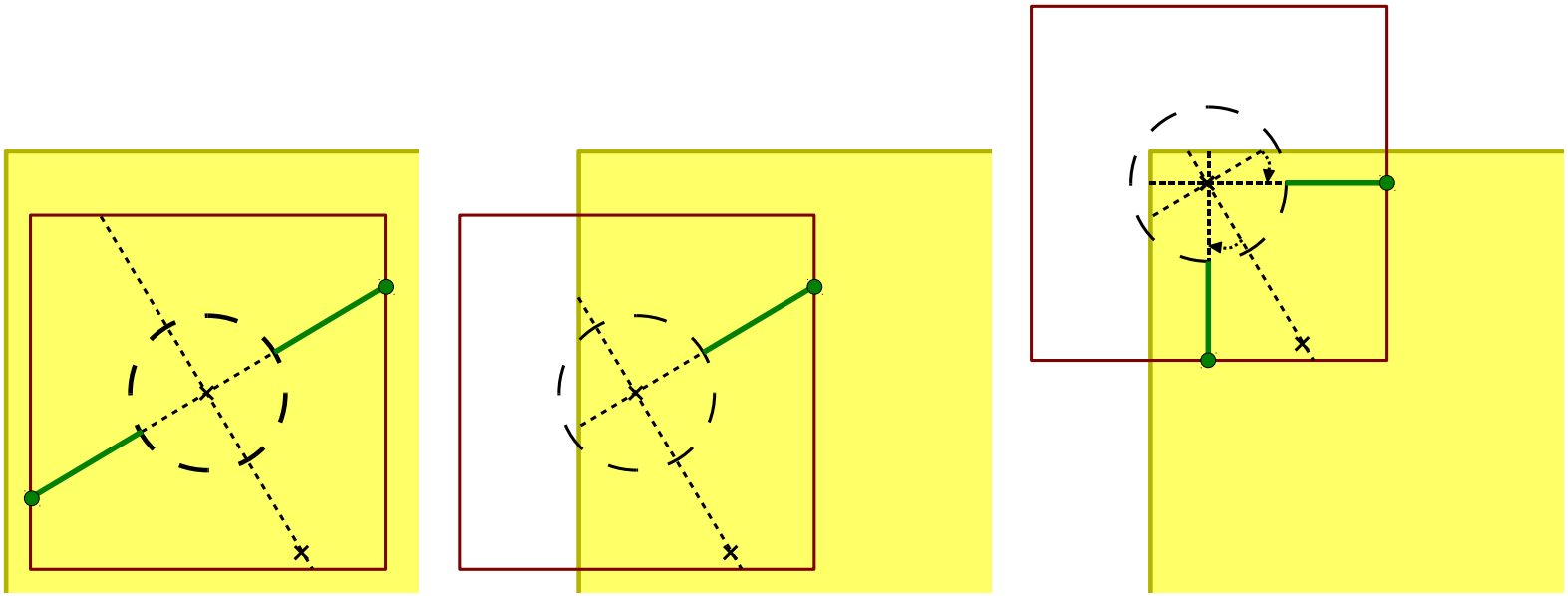


→ May need n additional evaluations

Constraints and Model Quality

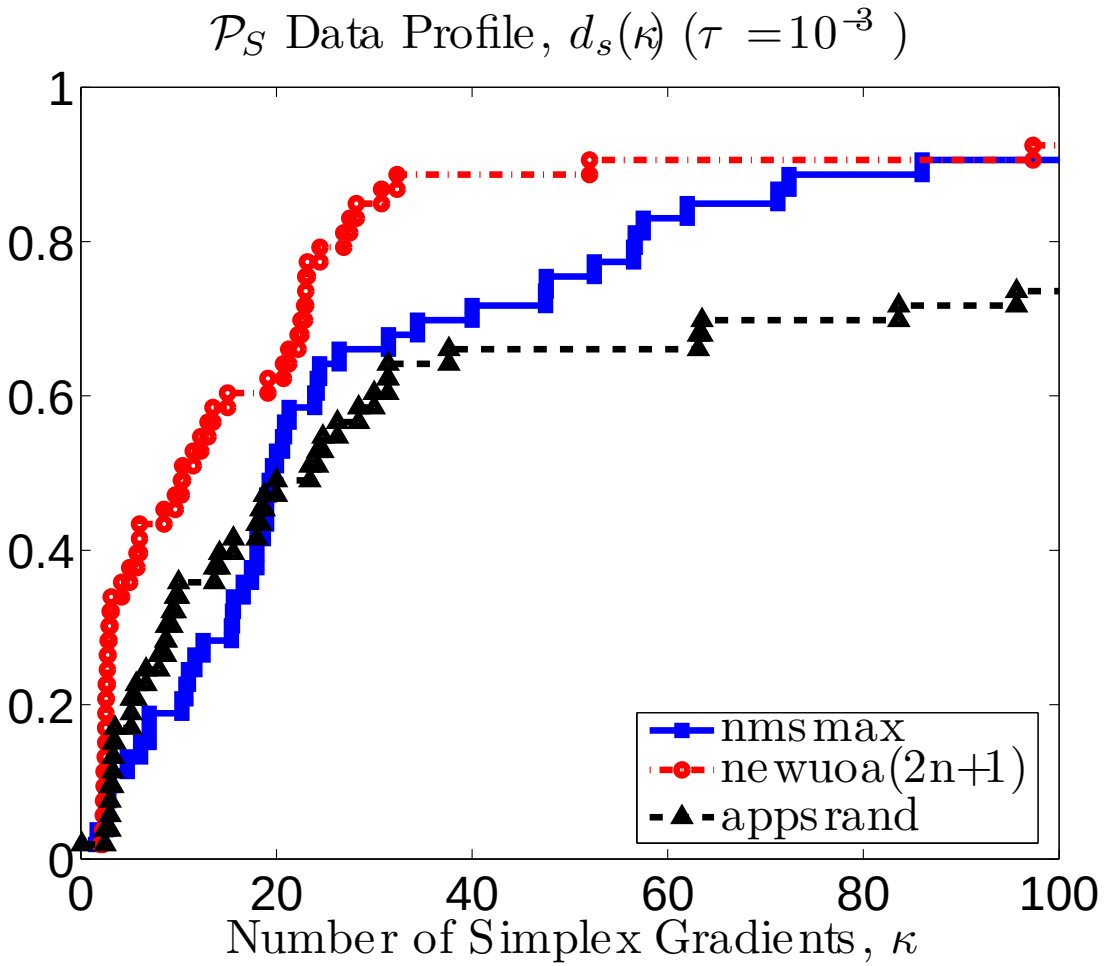
Constraints complicate matters

. . . if one does not allow evaluation of infeasible points



→ May need directions normal to nearby constraints

Performance Comparisons on Test Functions

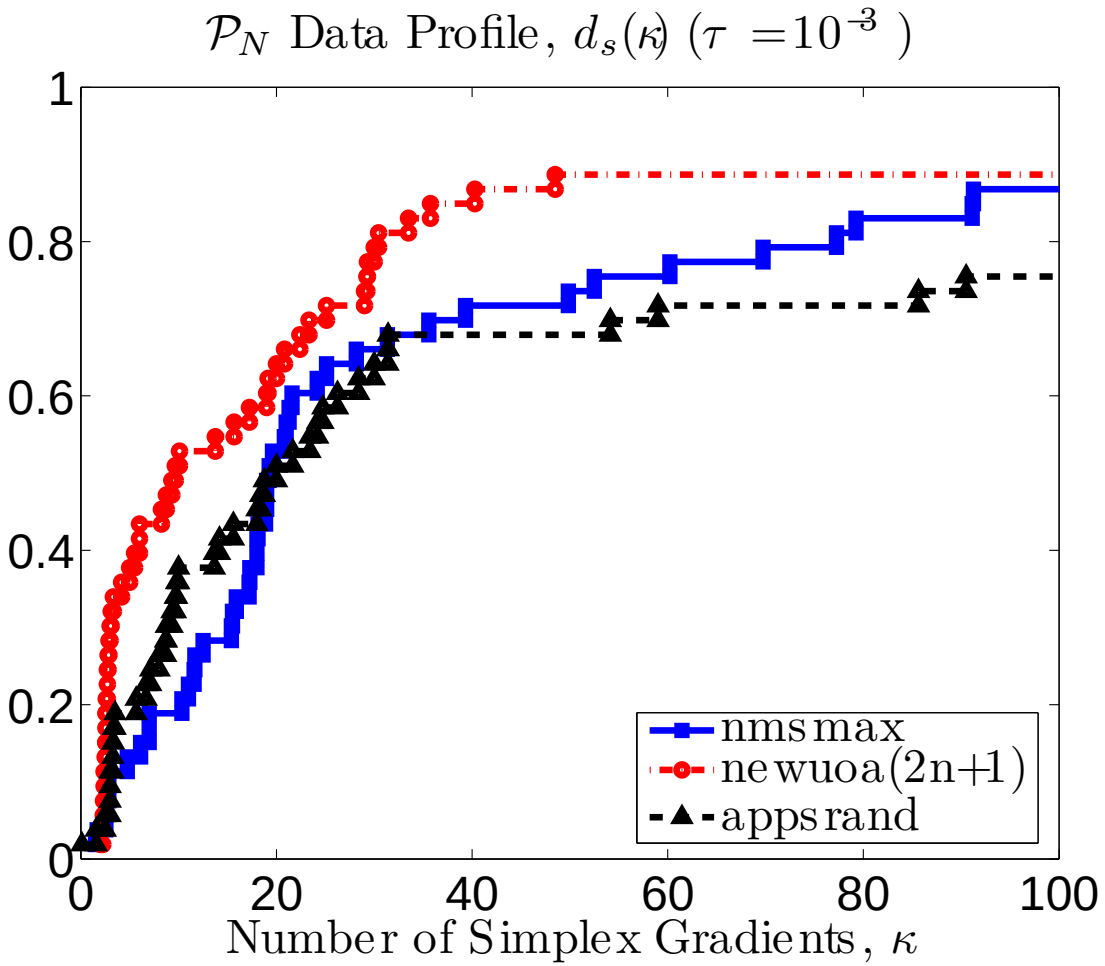


Smooth problems

- When evaluations are sequential, model-based methods (NEWUOA) regularly outperform direct search methods without a search phase (nmsmax,**apprsand**)

→ [Moré & W., SIOPT 2009]

Performance Comparisons on Test Functions



Noisy problems

- When evaluations are sequential, model-based methods (NEWUOA) regularly outperform direct search methods without a search phase (nmsmax,**apprsand**)

→ [Moré & W., SIOPT 2009]

Many Practical Details In Implementations

- Choice of interpolation points $\mathcal{Y}_k$
- Updating of trust region $\mathcal{B}_k$
- Improvement of models

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- Updating of trust region $\mathcal{B}_k$
- Improvement of models

`BOBYQA` [Powell], `DFO` [Scheinberg], `POUNDer` [W.]

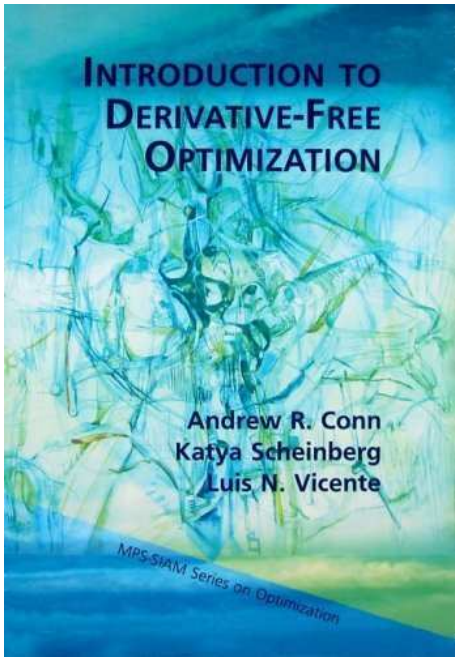
Initialization $p = |\mathcal{Y}_k|$ structured evaluations
Based on input, $\approx 2n + 1$
Based on input, no more than $n + 1$

Interpolation Set $p = |\mathcal{Y}_k|, \forall k$
Bootstrap to $|\mathcal{Y}_k| = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$, then fixed
Varies in $\{n + 1, \cdots, \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}\}$ based on available points

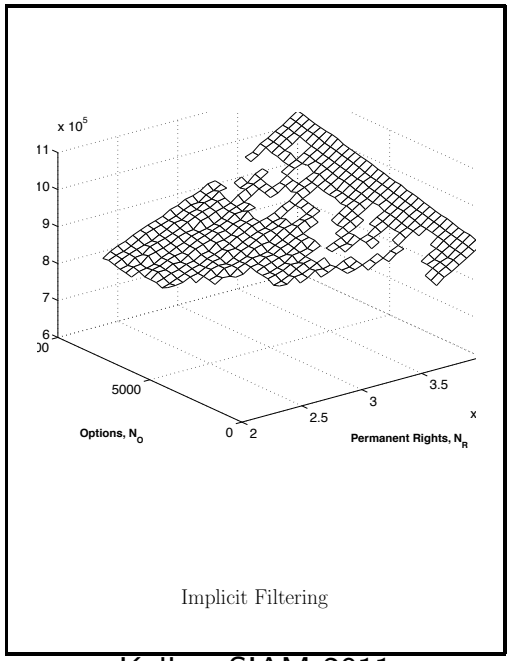
Linear Algebra If $p = \mathcal{O}(n)$, model formation costs only $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$
Expensive
Expensive

Growing Body of Tools and Resources for Local DFO

? What to use on problems with characteristics X, Y, and Z ?



Conn, Scheinberg, Vicente; SIAM 2009



Kelley; SIAM 2011

Many solvers

Sample considered by Rios & Sahinidis, 2010:

ASA,	BOBYQA,
CMA-ES,	DFO,
DAKOTA/*,	TOMLAB/*,
FMINSEARCH,	GLOBAL,
HOPSPACK,	IMFIL,
MCS,	NEWUOA,
NOMAD,	PSWARM,
SID-PSM,	SNOBFIT

Toward Global Optimization

A quick sketch of a multistart methods and some practical details

- ◇ useful in derivative-based and derivative-free cases
- ◇ obtain a list of distinct minimizers (for post-processing, etc.)
- ◇ simple to get started
- ! simple to abuse/misuse ("I found all minimizers")

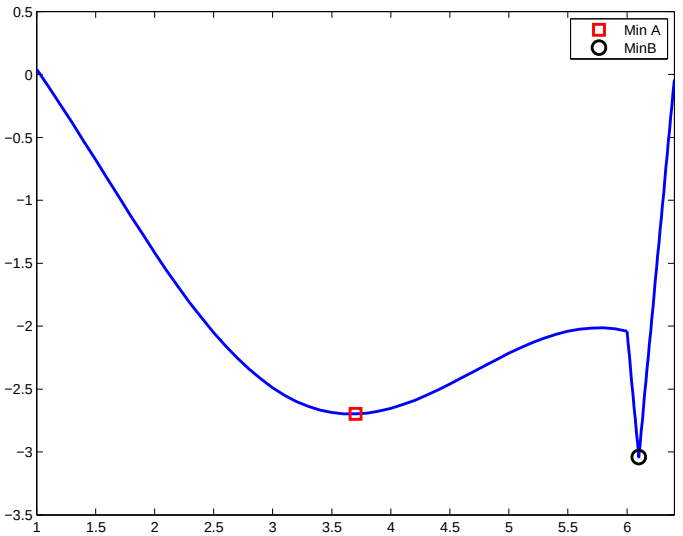
Why Multistart?

Multiple local minima are often of interest in practice:

Design: Multiple objectives (or even constraints) might later be of interest

Simulation Errors: Could have spurious local minima from anomalies in the simulator

Uncertainty: Some minima are more sensitive to perturbations than others (gentle valleys versus steep cliffs)



Two phase iterative method

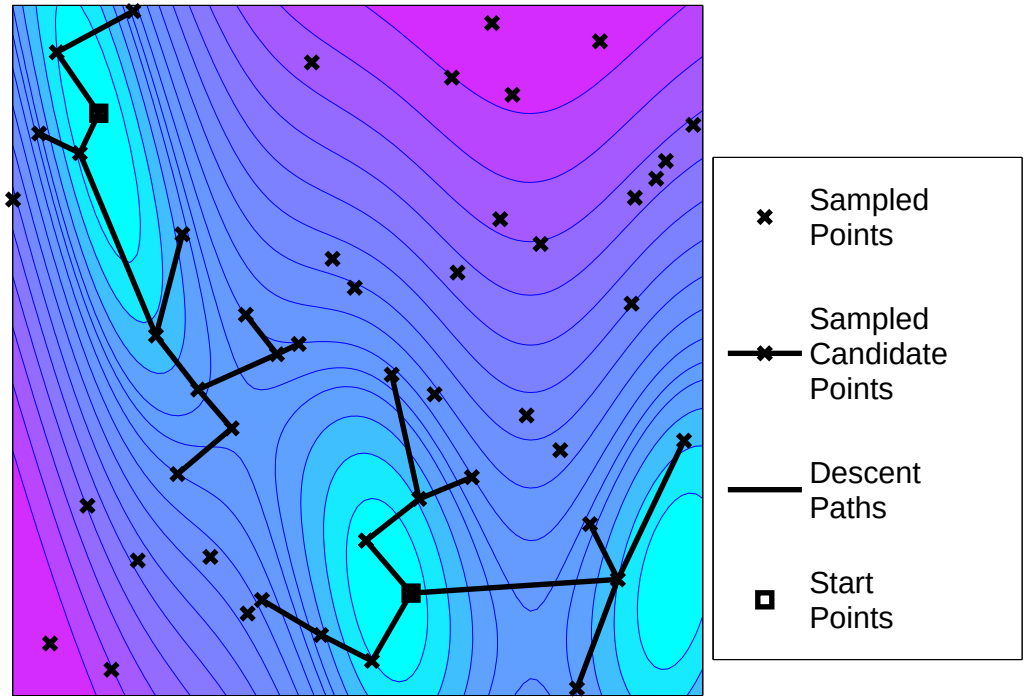
Global Exploration: Sample N points in $\mathcal{D}$. $\leftarrow$ Guarantees convergence

Local Refinement: Start a local minimization algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ from some promising subset of the sample points.

Want to find many (good) local minima while avoiding repeatedly finding the same local minima.

Multi Level Single Linkage (MLSL) Clustering Procedure

Where to start $\mathcal{A}$ in kth iteration [Rinnooy Kan & Timmer, Math. Programming 1987]



Ex.: It. 1 Exploration

Start $\mathcal{A}$ at each sample point x_i provided:

- $\mathcal{A}$ has not been started from x_i, and
- no other sample point x_j with $f(x_j) < f(x_i)$ is within a distance

$$r_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sqrt[n]{\mathrm{vol}(\mathcal{D}) \frac{5\Gamma\left(1+\frac{n}{2}\right)\log(kN)}{kN}},$$

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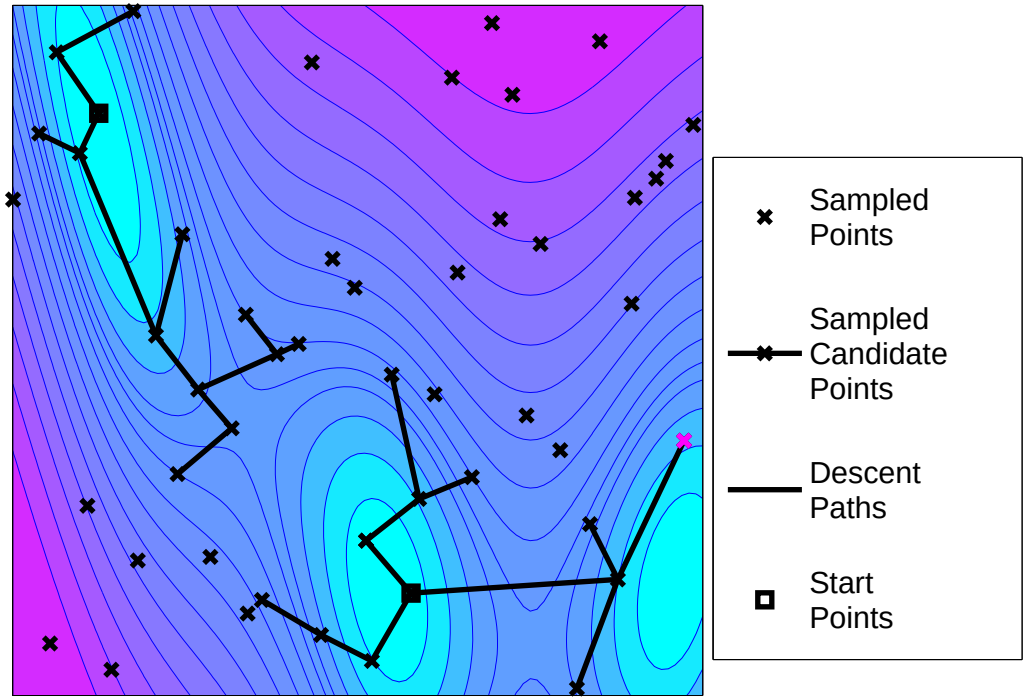

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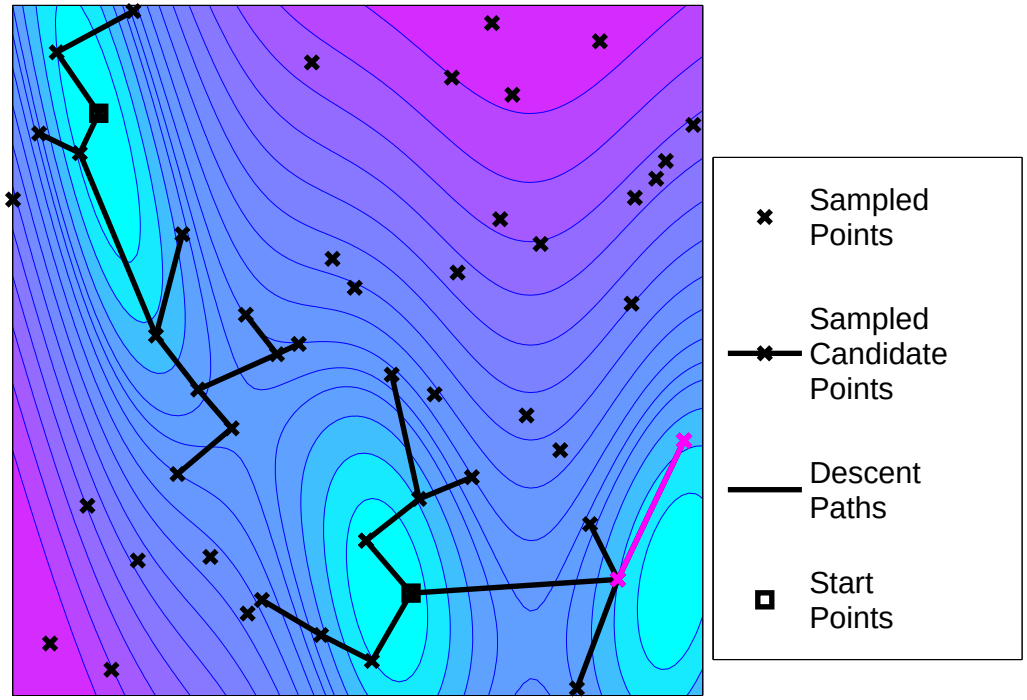

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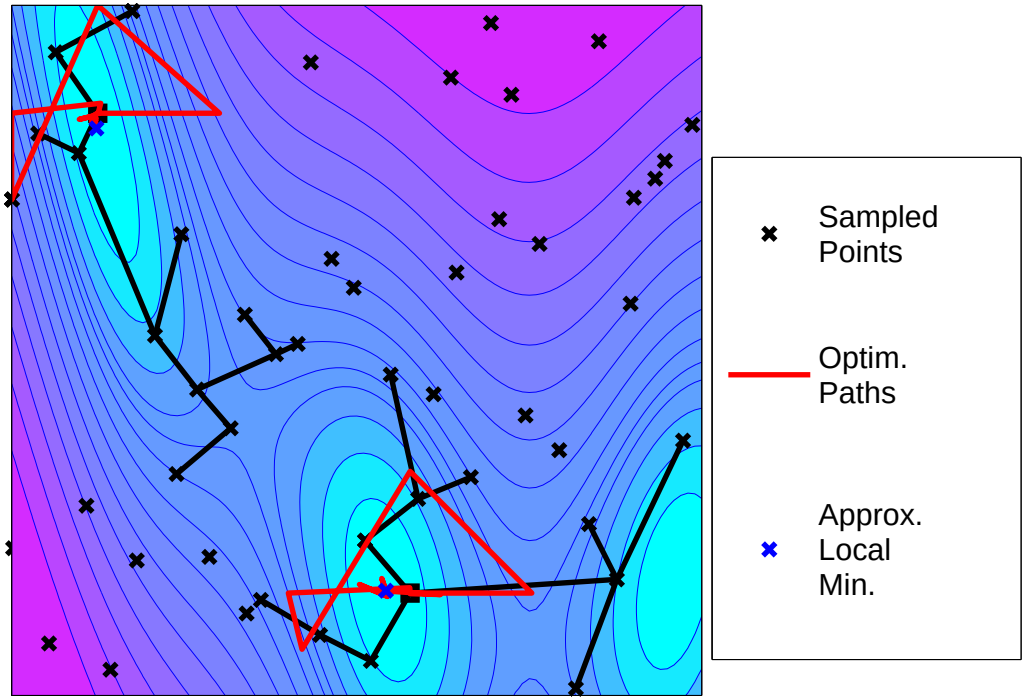

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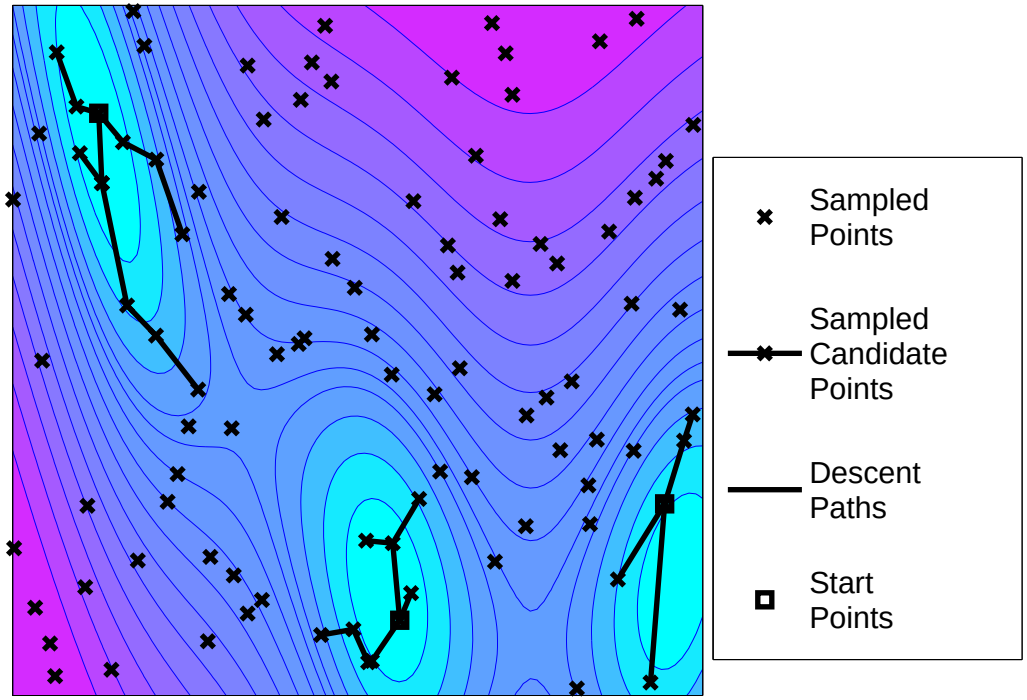

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Ex.: It. 2 Exploration

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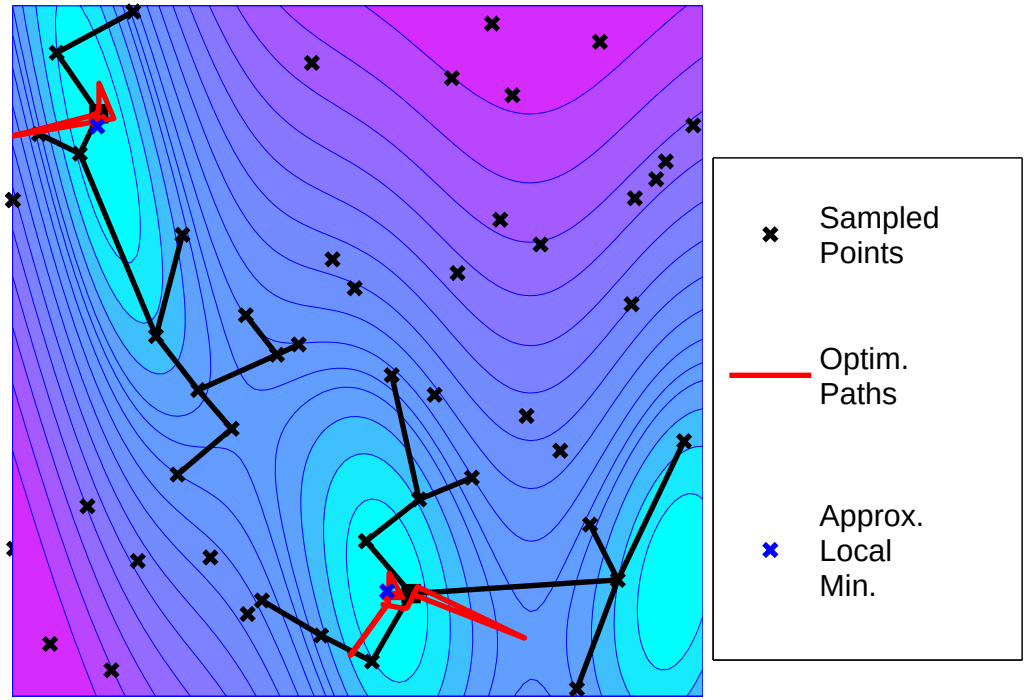
How To Do Even Better

MIPE: Maximum Information from Previous Evaluations:
Take advantage of the information gained from running $\mathcal{A}$



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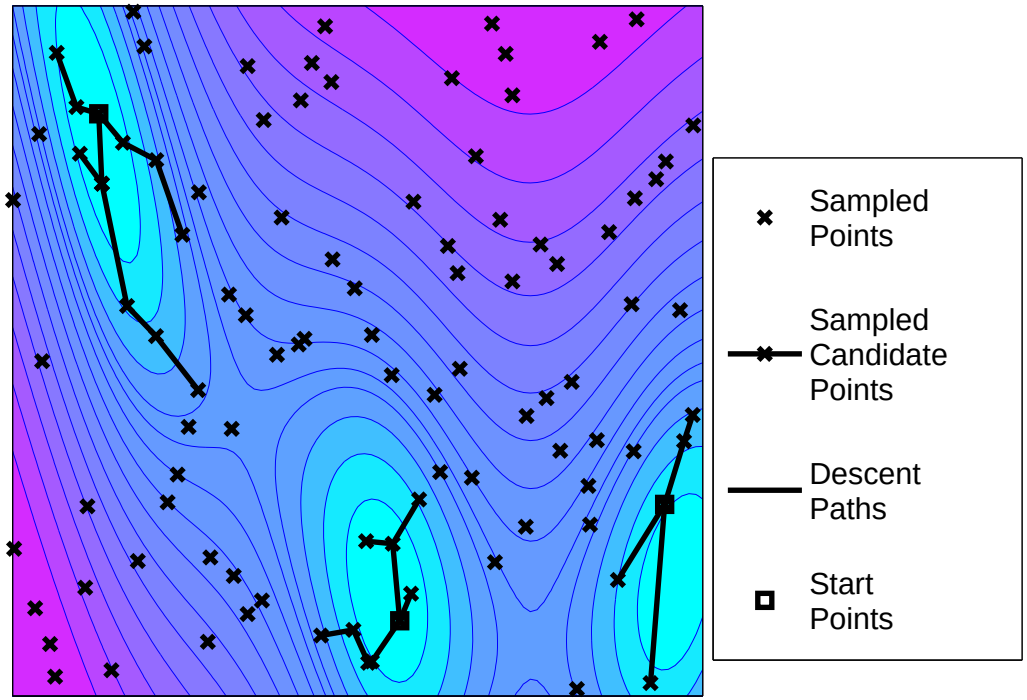

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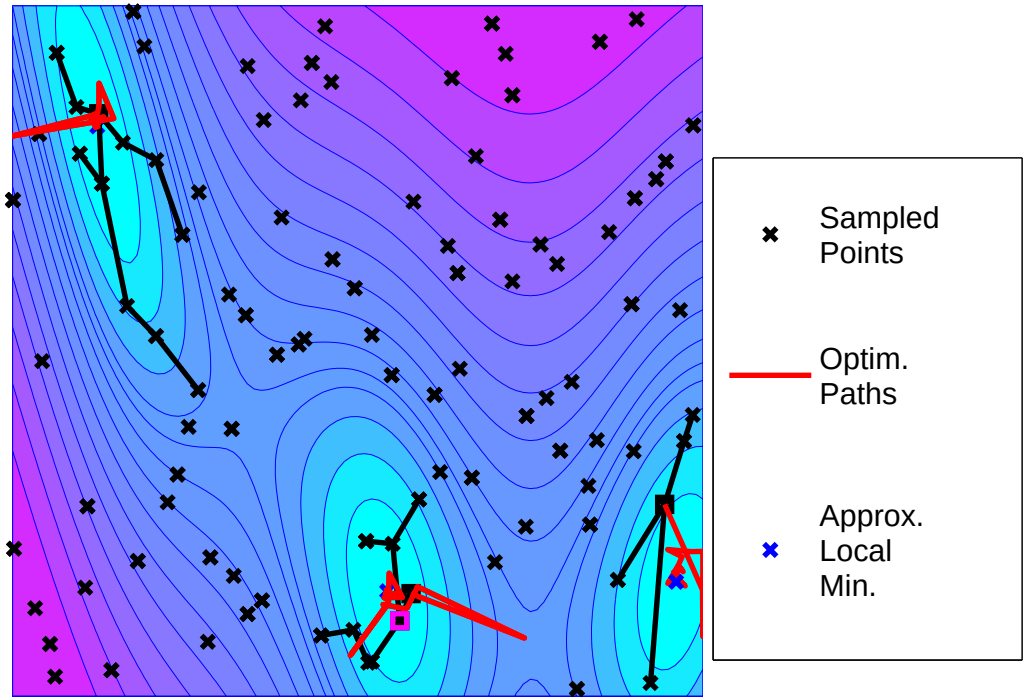

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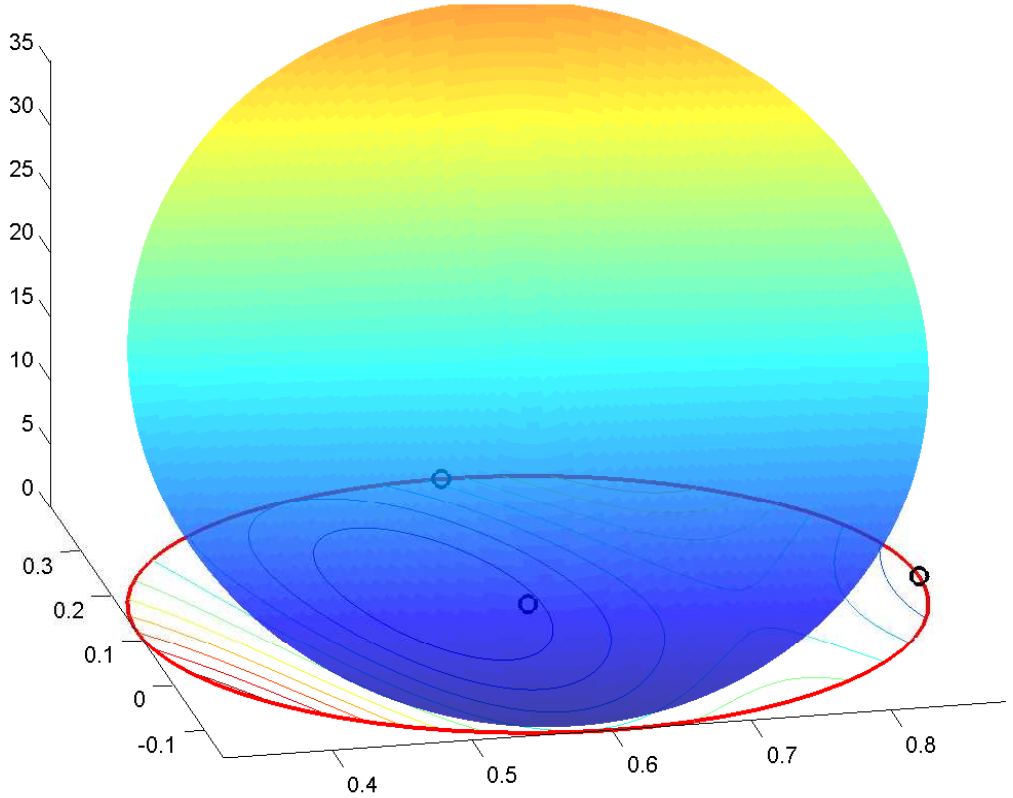
Using External Points To Form Better Local Models

Initial model interpolating $n + 1 = 3$ points



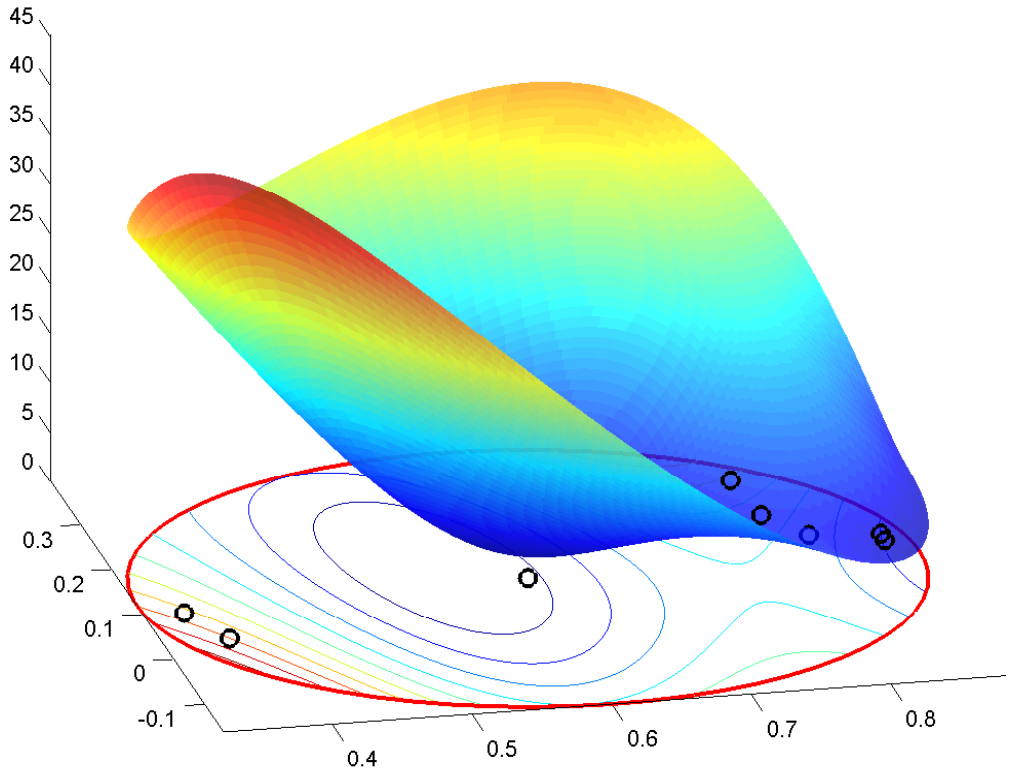
Take advantage of global history:

- from current minimization,
- from previous minimizations, and
- from the global sampling.

More information means rapider progress.

Using External Points To Form Better Local Models

Initial model interpolating 8 sample points



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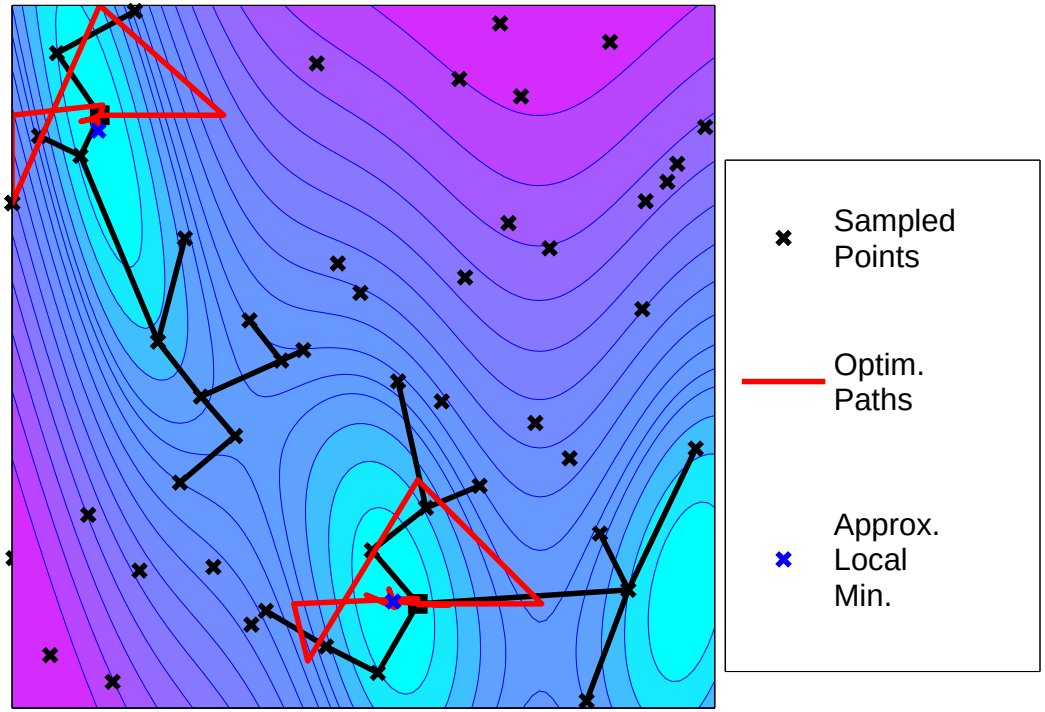
Optimization paths without external points



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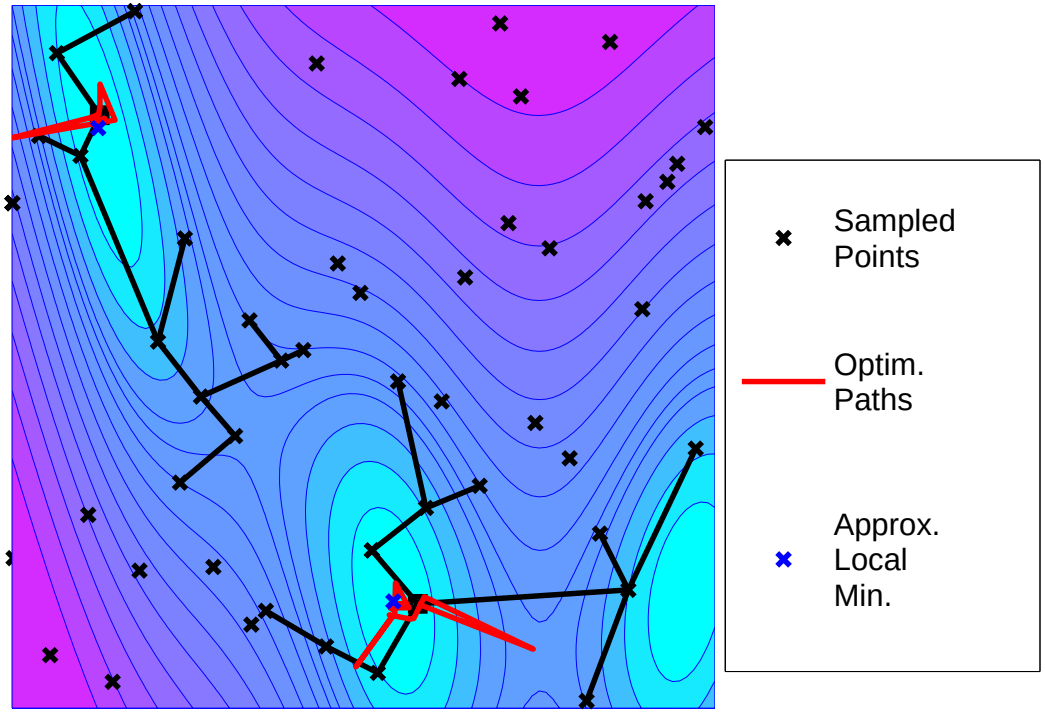

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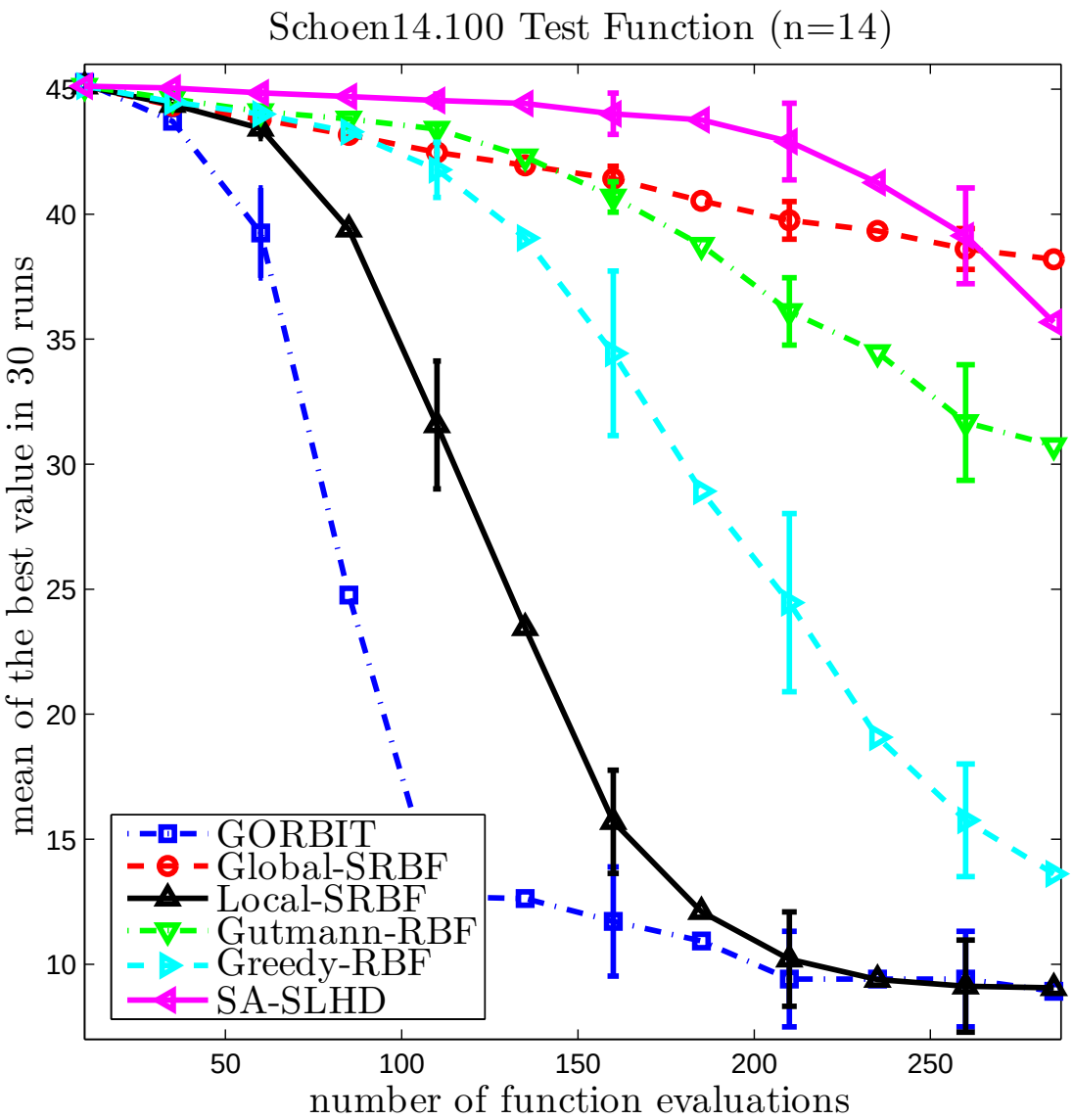
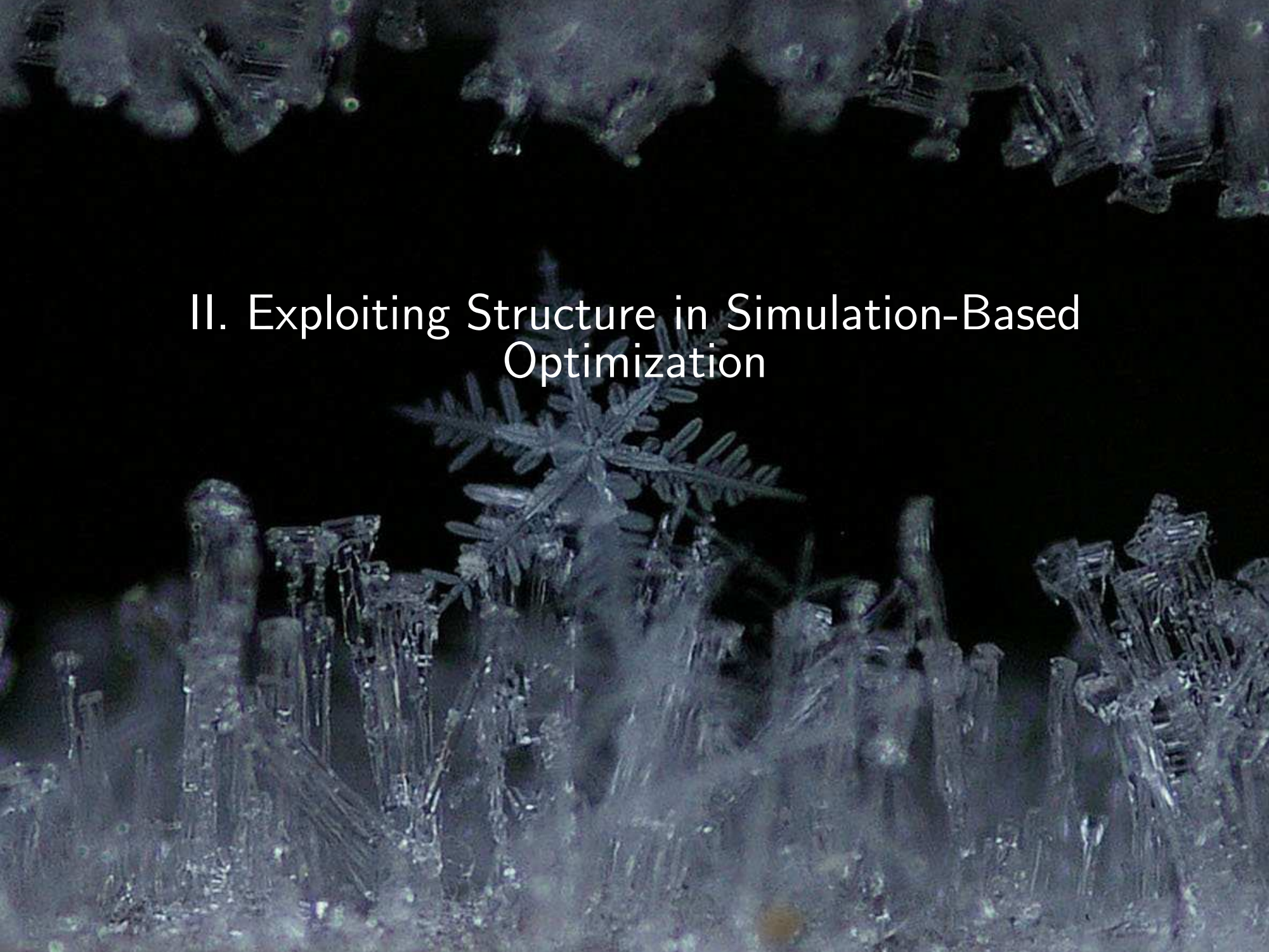
Performance Comparisons on Test Functions



- GORBIT is multistart with RBF model-based method
- SA-SLHD is a heuristic (simulated annealing with a symmetric Latin hypercube design as initialization)

→ [W., Cornell University, 2009]



II. Exploiting Structure in Simulation-Based Optimization

Beyond the Black Box

$$\min f(x) = F[S(x)]$$

So far, $f = S$

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Your problems are not black-box problems

Beyond the Black Box

$$\min f(x) = F[S(x)]$$

So far, $f = S$

Your problems are not black-box problems

You formulated the problem

$\Rightarrow$ You know more than nothing

Structure in Simulation-Based Optimization, $\min f(x) = F[S(x)]$

f is often not a black box S

- Nonlinear least squares

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (S_i(x) - d_i)^2$$

- Not all variables enter simulation

$$f(x) = g(x_I, x_J) + h(S(x_J))$$

- Only some constraints depend on simulation

$$\min\{f(x) : c_1(x) = 0, c_S(x) = 0\}$$

- Slack variables

$$\Omega_S = \{(x_I, x_J) : S(x_J) + x_I = 0, x_I \geq 0\}$$

Model-based methods can be a great way to exploit this structure

Ex. 1- Least Squares $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_i F_i(x)^2$

Obtain a vector of output $F_1(x), \ldots, F_p(x)$

- Model each F_i

$$F_i(x) \approx q_k^{(i)}(x) = F_i(x_k) + (x - x_k)^\top g_k^{(i)} + \frac{1}{2}(x - x_k)^\top H_k^{(i)}(x - x_k)$$

- Approximate:

$$\begin{aligned}
\nabla f(x) &= \sum_i \nabla \mathbf{F_i(x)} F_i(x) \qquad \to \sum_i \nabla q_k^{(i)}(x) F_i(x) \\
\nabla^2 f(x) &= \sum_i \nabla \mathbf{F_i(x)} \nabla \mathbf{F_i(x)}^T + \sum_i F_i(x) \nabla^{\mathbf{2}} \mathbf{F_i(x)} \\
&\to \sum_i \nabla q_k^{(i)}(x) \nabla q_k^{(i)}(x)^T + \sum_i F_i(x) \nabla^2 q_k^{(i)}(x)
\end{aligned}$$

- Model f via Gauss-Newton or similar

$\to$ [DFLS; Zhang, Conn, Scheinberg] regularized Hessians

$\to$ [POUNDERS; W., Moré] uses full Newton

Ex. 1- Consequences for $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_i F_i(x)^2$

- Save linear algebra using interpolation set $\mathcal{Y}_k$ common to all models
  - Single system solve, multiple right hand sides

$$\Phi(\mathcal{Y}_k)\left[\begin{array}{ccc} z^{(1)} & \cdots & z^{(p)} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{\mathsf{F}}_1 & \cdots & \underline{\mathsf{F}}_p \end{array}\right]$$

  - fully linear $q^{(0)} \Rightarrow$ all $q^{(i)}$ fully linear
- (nearly) exact gradients for F_i (nearly) linear
- No longer interpolate function at data points

$$\begin{aligned} m(x_k+\delta) = \quad & f(x_k) + \delta^T \textstyle\sum_i g_k^{(i)} F_i(x_k) \\ & + \tfrac{1}{2}\delta^T \textstyle\sum_i \left(g_k^{(i)} (g_k^{(i)})^T + F_i(x_k) H_k^{(i)} \right) \delta \\ & + \text{missing h.o. terms} \end{aligned}$$

Ex. 1- Calibrating Energy Density Functionals

$$\min_x \left\{ f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left(\frac{s_i(x) - d_i}{w_i} \right)^2 \right\}$$

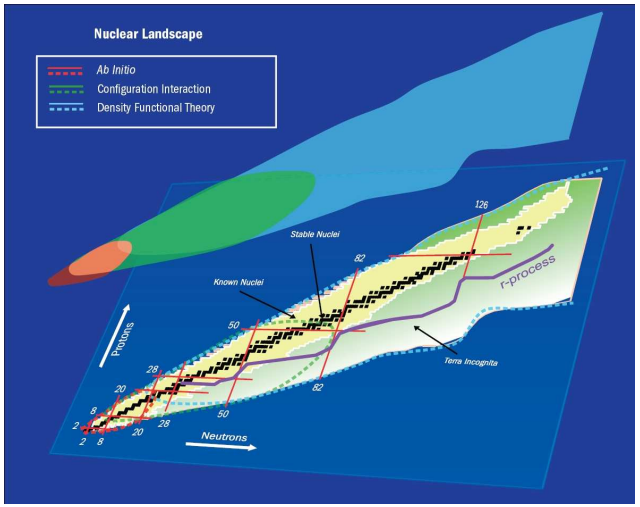
$s_i(x)$ Simulated (DFT) nucleus property

d_i Nucleus i experimental data

w_i Weight for data type i

p Parallel simulations

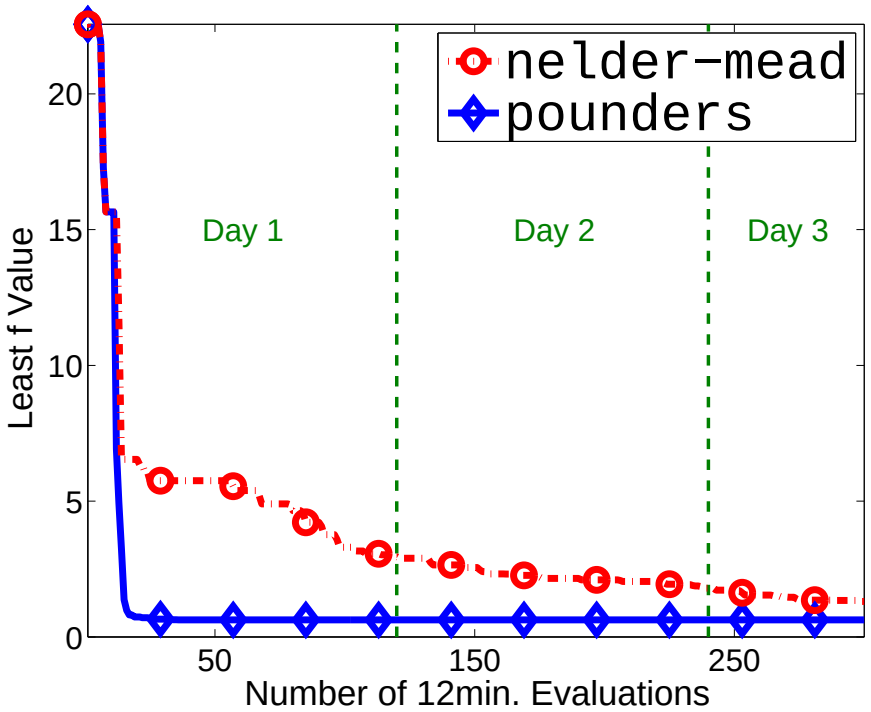
- Engineering starting point x_0
- Bound constraints scaled to unit cube
- 12 CPU minutes per evaluation



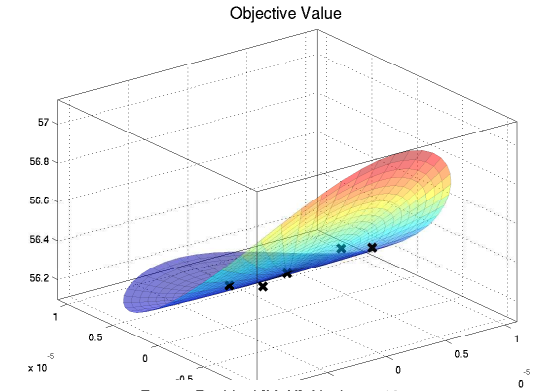
SciDAC physics project UNEDF

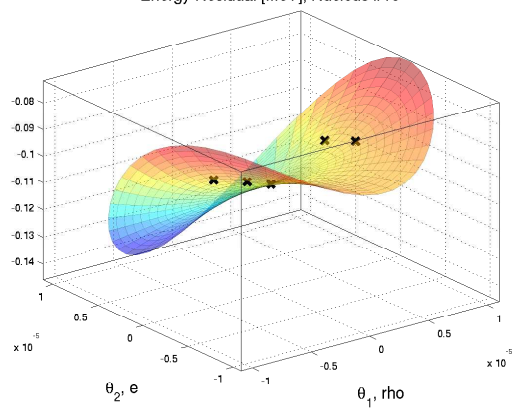
Ex. 1- POUNDERS in Practice

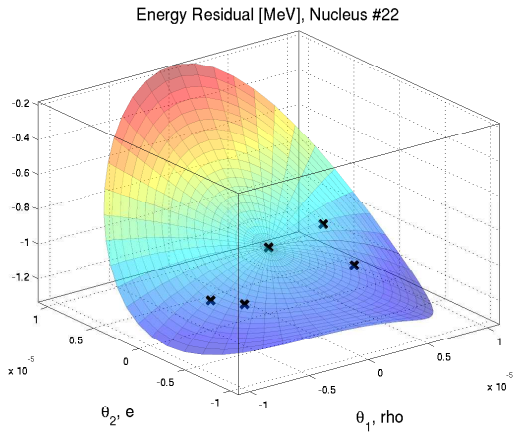
- Models for each residual $\frac{d_i - s_{t,i}(x)}{\sigma_i}$. $\{m^i(x)\}_{i=1}^{90}$
- Further reduces # of expensive evaluations



→ [Kortelainen et al., PhysRevC '10]







Ex. 2- Some Known Partials

$x = (x_I, x_J)$; have $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_I}$ but not $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_J}$

"Solve"

$$\Phi z = \underline{\mathrm{f}}$$

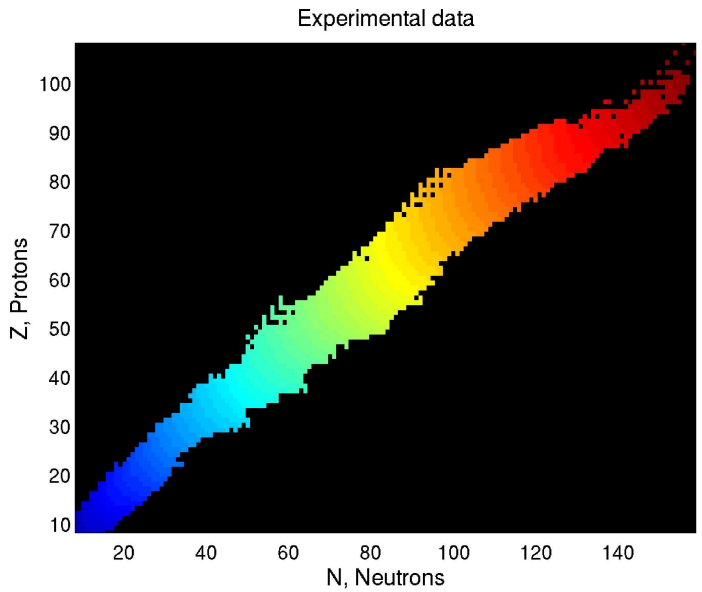
with known $z_{g,I}, z_{H,I}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Phi_c & \Phi_{g,J} & \Phi_{H,J} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_c \\ z_{g,J} \\ z_{H,J} \end{bmatrix} = \underline{\mathrm{f}} - \Phi_{g,I} z_{g,I} - \Phi_{H,I} z_{H,I}$$

- Effectively lowers dimension to $|J| = n - |I|$ for
  - approximation
  - model-improving evaluations
  - linear algebra
- Still have interpolation where required

Ex. 2- Multi-level Optimization Structure

$$\min_x \left\{ f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left(s_i(x) - d_i\right)^2 \right\}$$



[Bertolli, Papenbrock, W., PhysRevC '12]

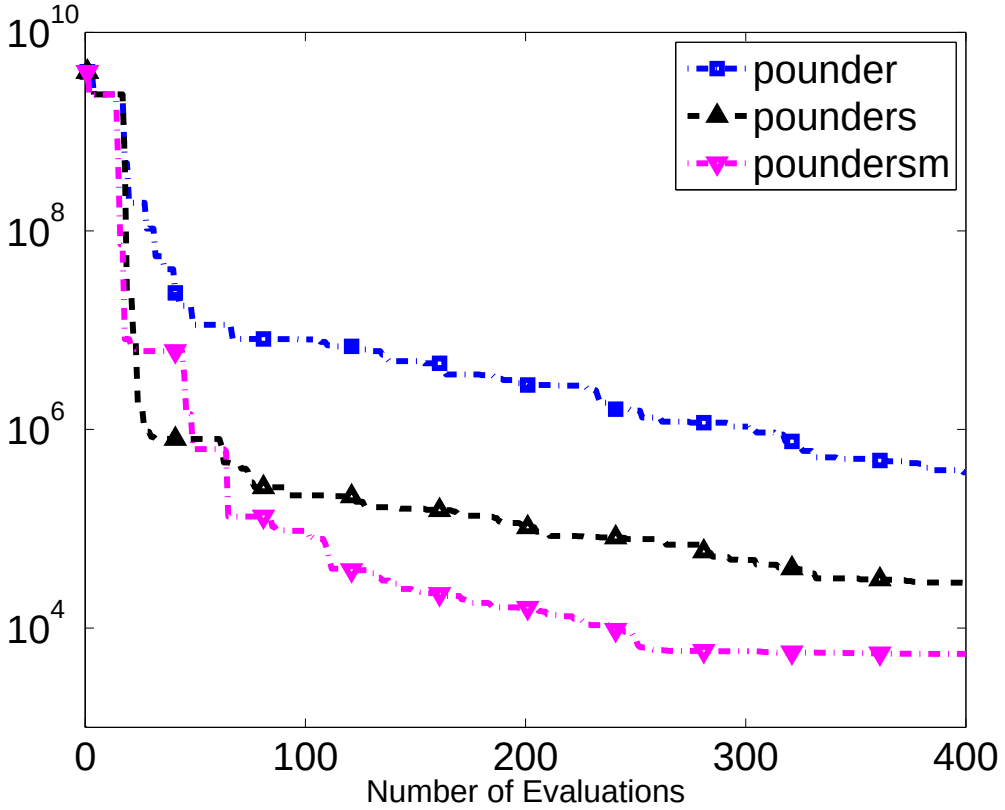
$s_i(x)$ solution to lower level problem

$$\begin{aligned} s_i(x) &= \tilde{g}_i(x) + \min_y \{h_i(x_J; y) : y \in \mathcal{D}_i\} \\ &= \tilde{g}_i(x) + h_i(x_J; y_{i,*}[x_J]) \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{x_J}} \mathbf{s_i(x)} &\approx \nabla_{x_J} \tilde{g}_i(x) + \nabla_{x_J} q^{(i)}(x_J) \end{aligned}$$

For $x = (x_I, x_J)$

- $\nabla_{x_I} s_i(x_I, x_J)$ available
- $s_i(x)$ continuous and smooth in x_I
- $\tilde{g}_i(x)$ cheap to compute!
- No noise/errors introduced in $\tilde{g}_i(x)$

Ex. 2- Numerical Results With Some Partials



- s exploit least squares
- m use ∇_{x_I} derivatives

- $n = 16$, $|I| = 3$
- 5-10 seconds/evaluation on 8 cores

"Same algorithmic framework",
performance advantages from exploiting structure

Ex. 2- Convergence With Known Partials ∇_{x_I}

$\lim_{k\to\infty} \nabla f(x_k) = 0$ as before

Approximation bounds

- $|q_k(x) - f(x)| \leq \kappa_1(\gamma_f + \|H_k\|)\Delta_k^2, \qquad x \in \mathcal{B}_k$
- $\|g_k + H_k(x - x_k) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq \kappa_2(\gamma_f + \|H_k\|)\Delta_k, \qquad x \in \mathcal{B}_k$

with most constants now a function of $n - |I|$.

Guaranteed

- strict descent
- optimality

in some directions.

Ex. 3- General Constraints

$$\min\{f(x) : c_1(x) = 0, c_S(x) = 0\}$$

- Approximate Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla L &= \nabla f + \lambda_1^T \nabla c_1 + \lambda_2^T \nabla \mathbf{c_S} \\ &\to \nabla f + \lambda_1^T \nabla c_1 + \lambda_2^T \nabla m \end{aligned}$$

- Use favorite method: filters, augmented Lagrangian, ...
- Slack variables
  - Do not increase effective dimension
  - Subproblems can treat separately
  - Know derivatives

$\to$[Diniz-Ehrhardt, Martínez, Pedroso, C&A Math. 2011]: modified AL methods

Ex. 3- What Constraint Derivatives Buy You

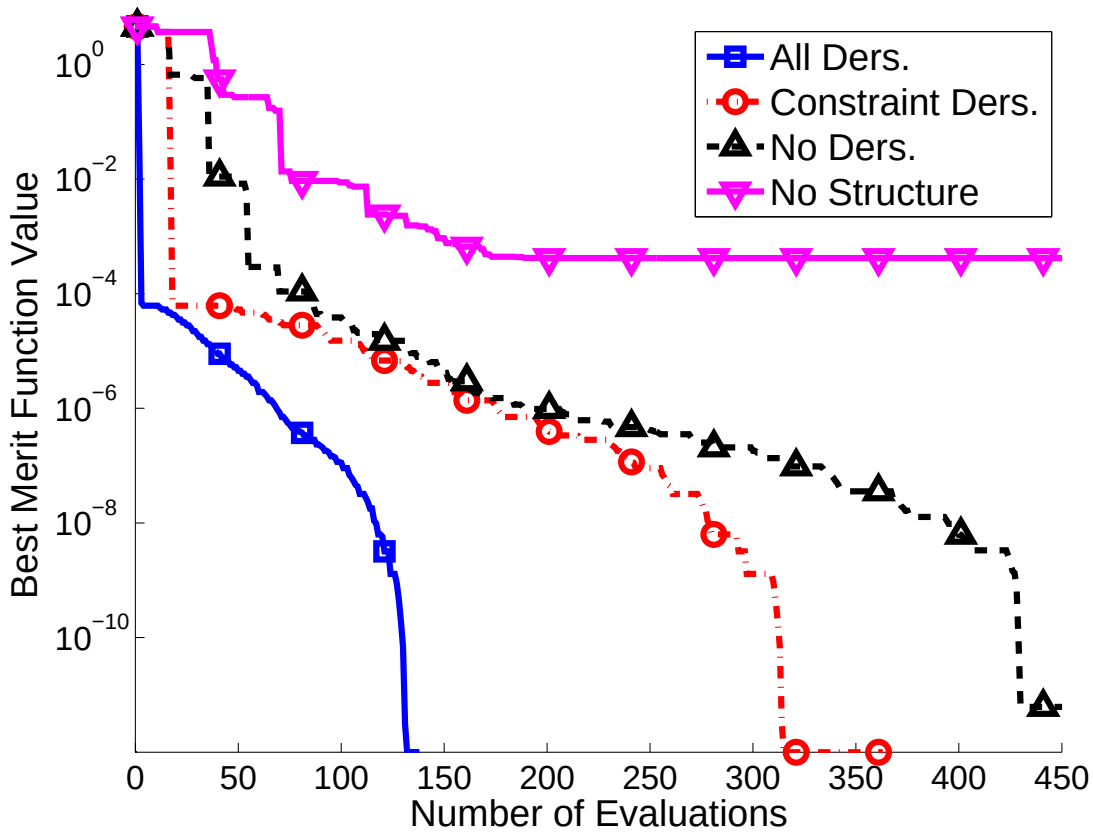
Augmented Lagrangian methods, $L_A(x, \lambda; \mu) = f(x) - \lambda^T c(x) + \frac{1}{\mu}\|c(x)\|^2$

$\min_x \{f(x) : c(x) = 0\}$

Four choices:

1. Penalize constraints
2. Treat c and f both as (separate) black boxes
3. Work with f and $\nabla_x c$
4. Have both $\nabla_x f$ and $\nabla_x c$

→ *With Slava Kungurtsev (UCSD)*



$n = 15$, 11 constraints

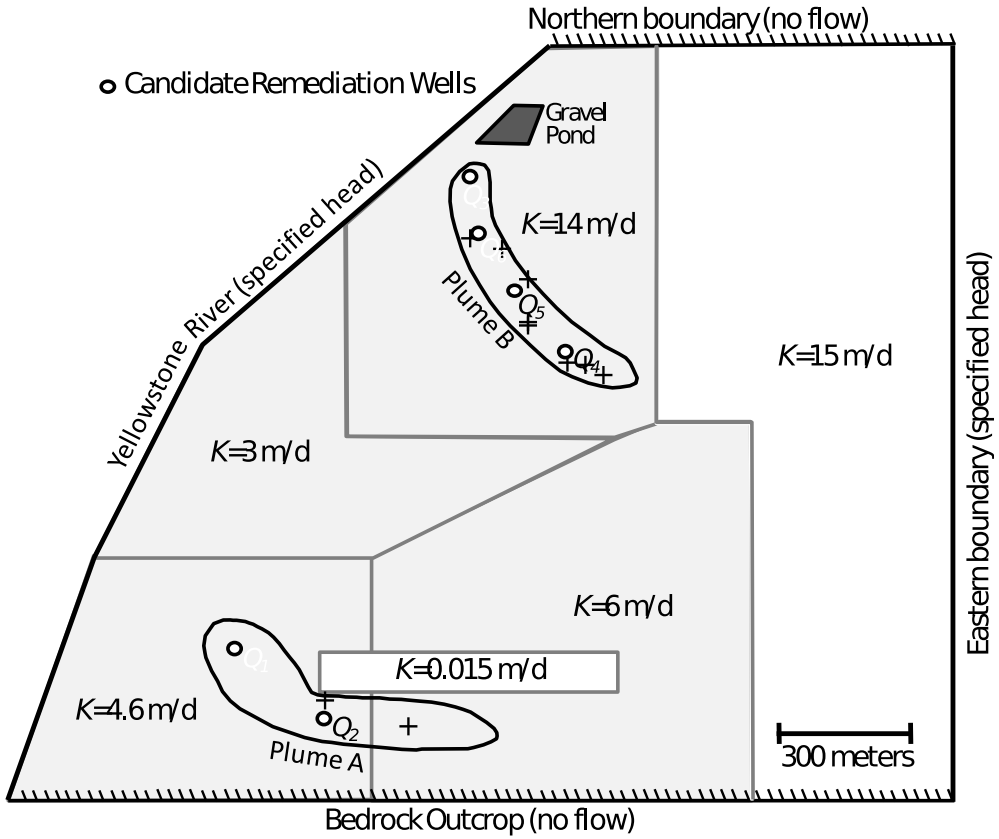
Ex. 4- Remediation of Chlorinated Solvents

Determine extraction rates for 6 installed wells

Structure

- Minimize operating cost (linear)
- Plume flux constraints (expensive simulation)

$$c_P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} |S_{P,i}(x)|$$



Lockwood Solvent Ground Water Plume Site (LSGPS)

Ex. 4- Exploiting Nonsmoothness

What if derivatives of $f(x)$ do not always exist?

$$f(x) = g(x, S(x))$$

- g Nonsmooth, known
- S Smooth, black-box

  Examples:
  - $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i[S(x)]|$
  - $f(x) = \max(S_1(x), S_2(x))$

→ *With Aswin Kannan*

Ex. 4- Targeting Nonsmoothness in $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i(x)|$

Model-based Approaches:

pounder Ignore structure, model f as usual

pounders-sqrt $f = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sqrt{|F_i|}^2$,
model $\sqrt{|F_i|}$ by Q_i
subproblem $\min \sum_{i=1}^{p} \tilde{Q}_i(x)^2$

poundera-abs $f = \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i|$,
model $|F_i|$ by Q_i
subproblem $\min \sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_i(x)$

poundera-nsm $f = \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i|$,
model F_i by Q_i
subproblem $\min \sum_{i=1}^{p} |Q_i(x)|$

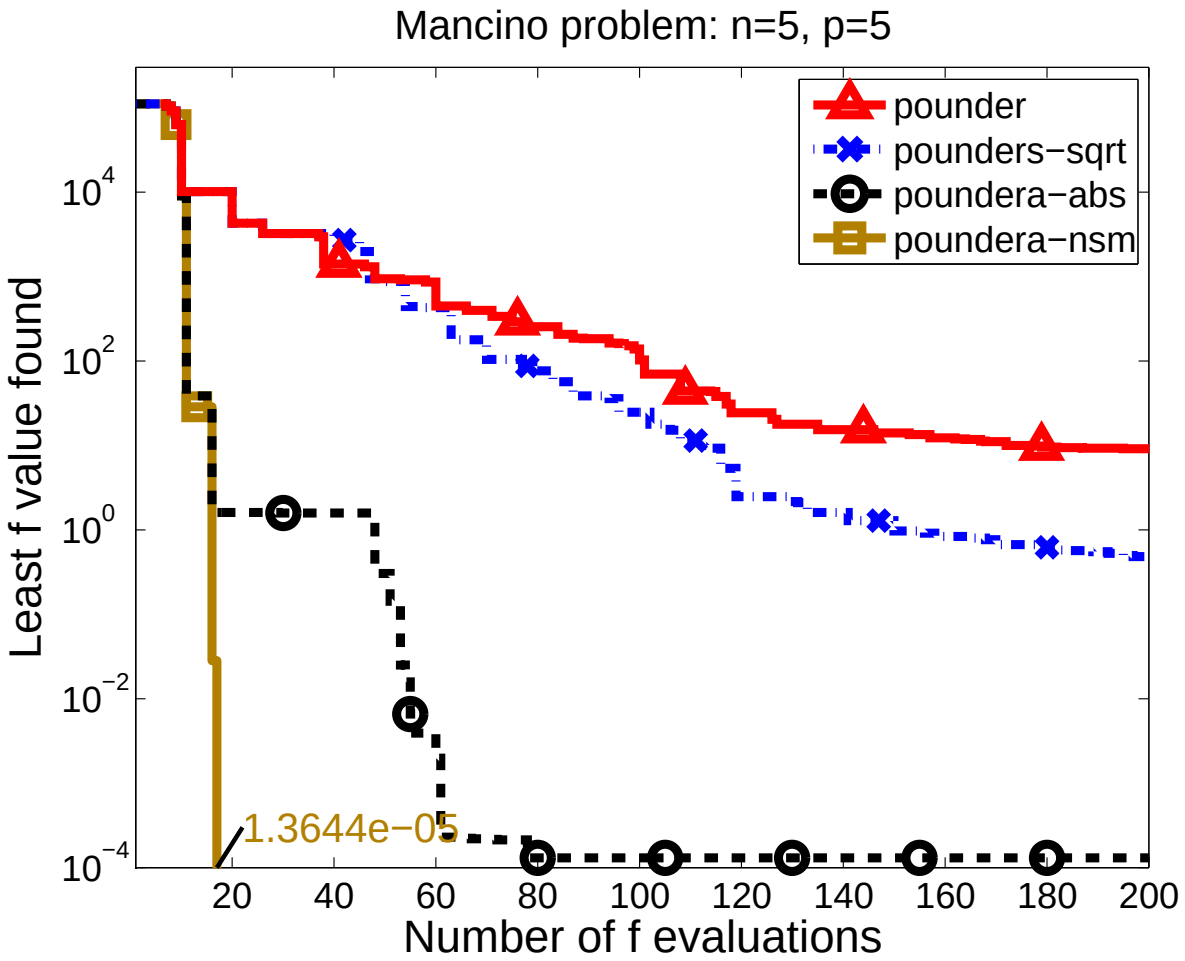
Ex. 4- Preliminary Results, $\min \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i(x)|$

pounder black-box

pounders-sqrt $\sum_{i=1}^{p} \tilde{Q}_i(x)^2$

poundera-abs $\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_i(x)$

poundera-nsm $\sum_{i=1}^{p} |Q_i(x)|$



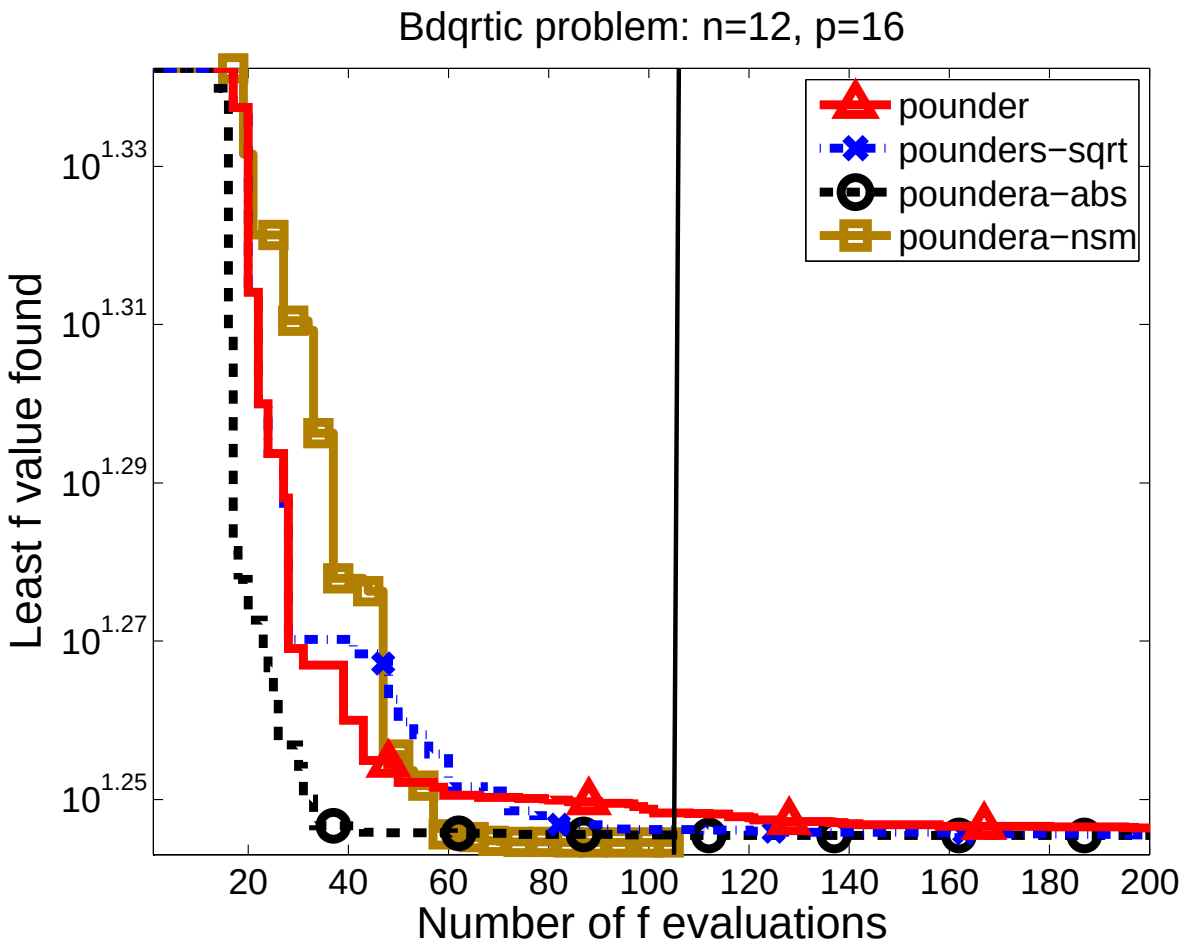
Ex. 4- Preliminary Results, $\min \sum_{i=1}^{p} |F_i(x)|$

pounder black-box

pounders-sqrt $\sum_{i=1}^{p} \tilde{Q}_i(x)^2$

poundera-abs $\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_i(x)$

poundera-nsm $\sum_{i=1}^{p} |Q_i(x)|$



So You Want To Solve A Hard Optimization Problem?

Mathematically unwrap problems to expose the deepest black boxes!

- It is easy to get started with derivative-free methods
- You should strive to obtain derivatives & apply methods from Todd's talk

- Model-based methods can make use of expensive function values
- Structure is everywhere, even in "black-box" / legacy code-driven optimization problems
- By exploiting structure, optimization can solve grand-challenge problems in ⟨`insert your field here`⟩:
  - Model residuals $\{r_i(x)\}_i$, not $\|r(x)\|$
  - Model constraints $\{c_i(x)\}_i$, not a penalty $P(c(x))$
  - Explicitly handle nonsmoothness (and noise)


III. Computational Noise
LASONIC
TRC-931

III. Computational Noise

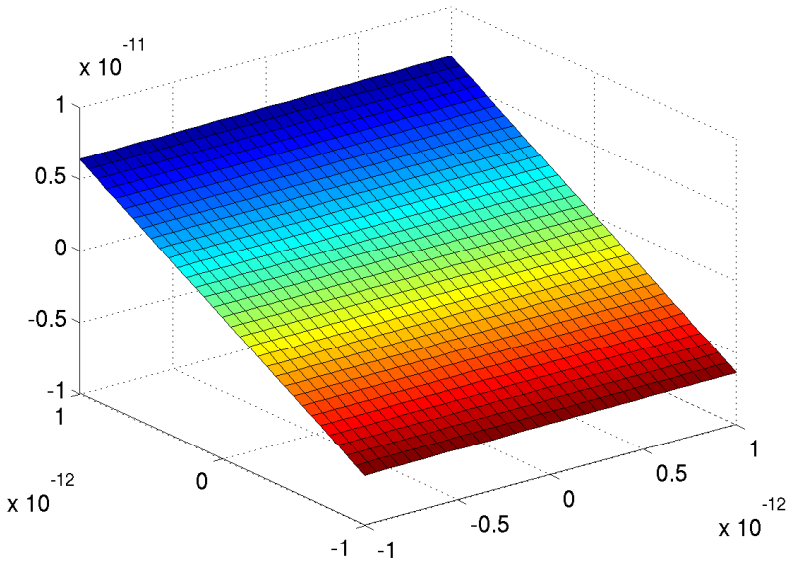
- What is computational noise?
- How can noise be estimated efficiently?
- How does noise affect numerical differentiation?
- How accurate are near-optimal finite-difference estimates?

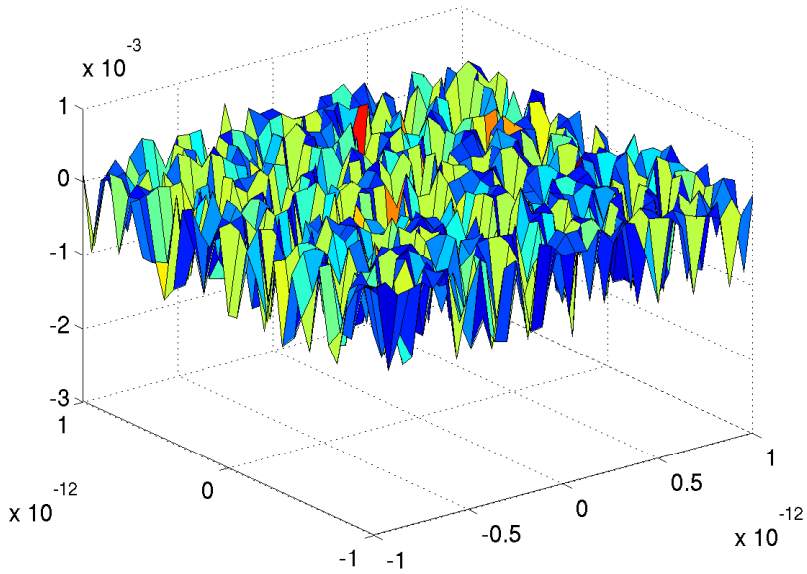
Two Questions To Ask Yourself

1. Do you know how accurate your derivatives are?
2. What do you do with this information?

Noise May Hurt You, Or It May Not

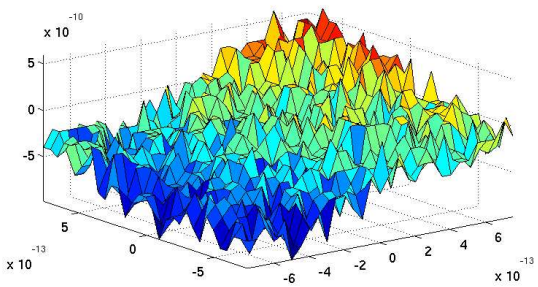
These are the same problem:

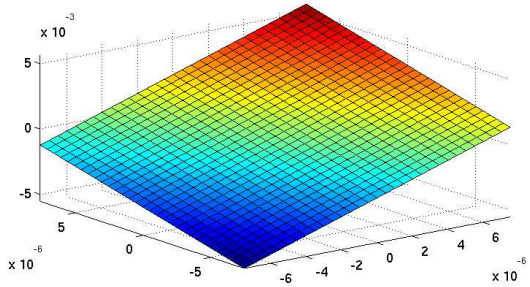


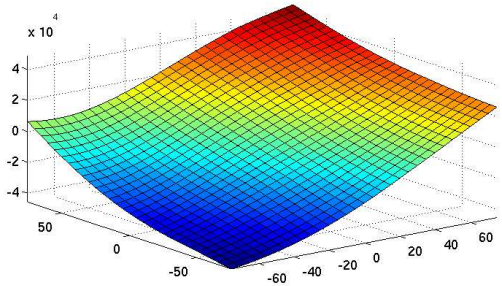


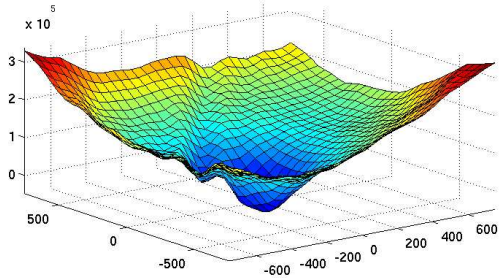
Noise May Hurt You, Or It May Not

So are these:



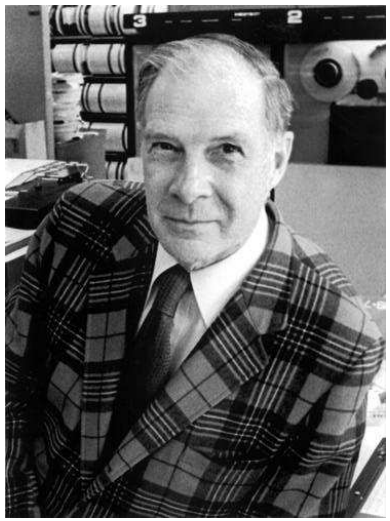






Computational Noise is not a Newcomer

From Hamming's 1971 Introduction to Numerical Analysis:



Where does this noise come from? *. . . infinite processes in mathematics which of necessity must be approximated by finite processes.*

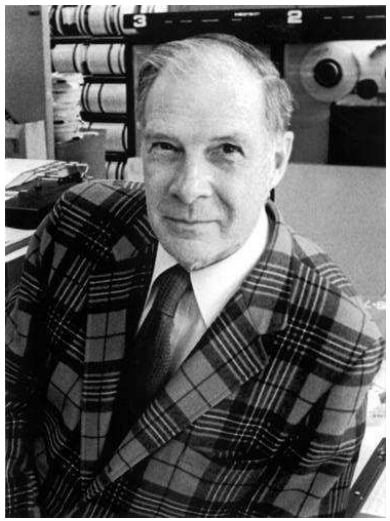
Truncation vs. roundoff *Finite number length leads to roundoff. Finite processes lead to truncation.*

Competing errors *Smaller steps usually reduce truncation error and may increase roundoff error.*

Deterministic *In practice, the same input, barring machine failures, gives the same result.*

Computational Noise is not a Newcomer

From Hamming's 1971 Introduction to Numerical Analysis:



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Competing errors *Smaller steps usually reduce truncation error and may increase roundoff error.*

Deterministic *In practice, the same input, barring machine failures, gives the same result.* ← changing!

Floating Point Arithmetic

Commutative:

$$A + B = B + A \qquad \text{and} \qquad A * B = B * A$$

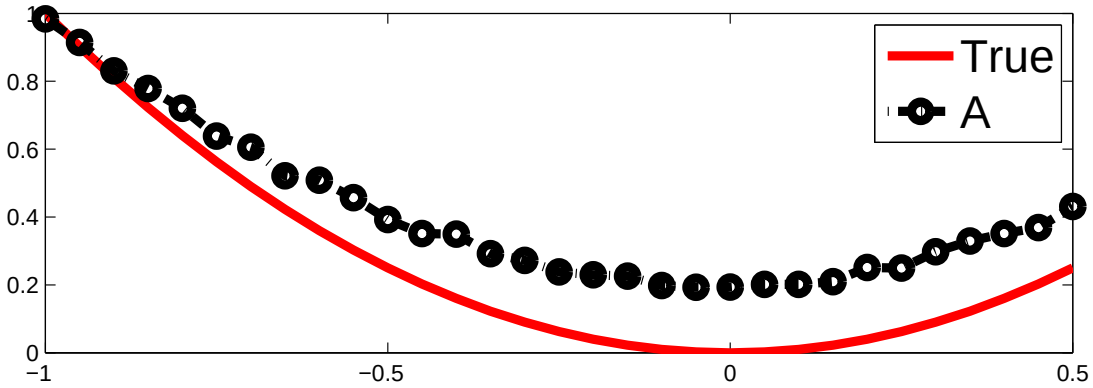
Non-associative:

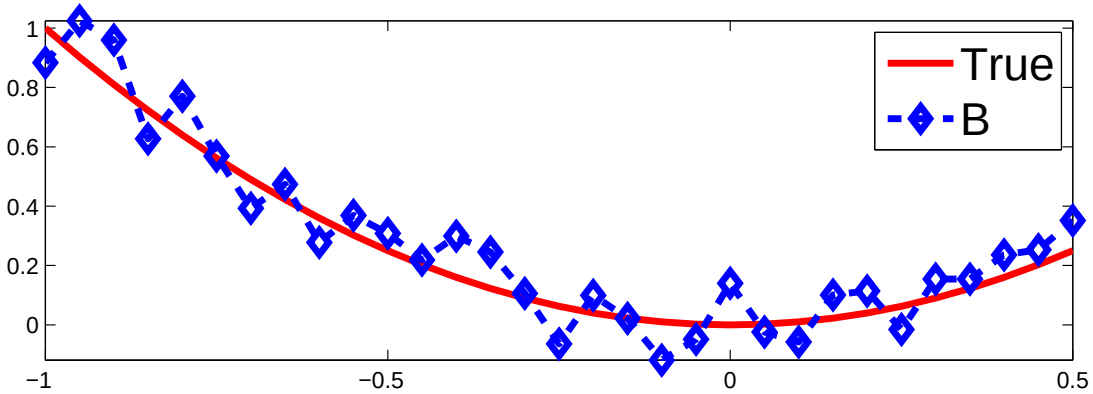
$$A + \big(B + C\big) \neq \big(A + B\big) + C$$

- This is likely to affect the reproducibility of your calculations in the future (for performance reasons)

Many details → [What Every Computer Scientist Should Know About Floating-Point Arithmetic, Goldberg, 1991]

The Effects of Computational Noise





Noise is not truncation error

$$R_{m+1}(x) = f_a(x) - \sum_{i=0}^{m} P_i(x)$$

and is not roundoff error

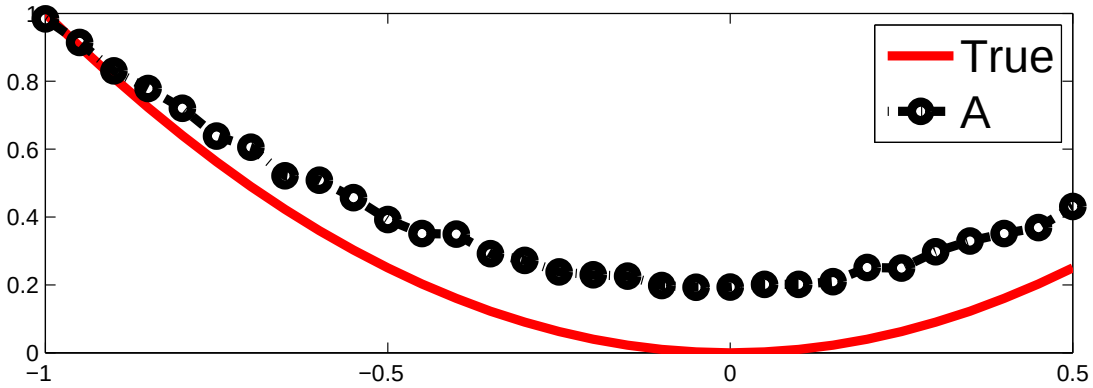
$$f_\infty(x) - f(x)$$

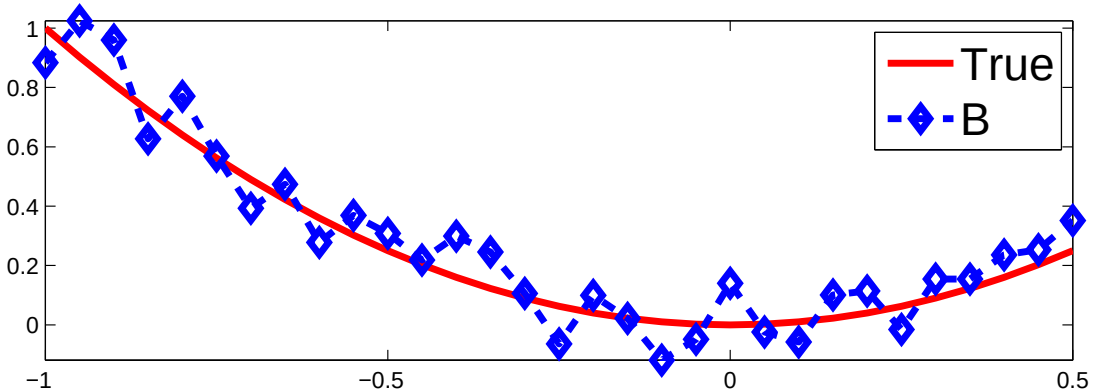
Which do you prefer?

A less noise, more error

B less error, more noise

The Effects of Computational Noise





It matters how noisy your simulation is!

Noise is not truncation error

$$R_{m+1}(x) = f_a(x) - \sum_{i=0}^{m} P_i(x)$$

and is not roundoff error

$$f_\infty(x) - f(x)$$

Which do you prefer?

A less noise, more error
→ Optimization
→ Sensitivity Analysis

B less error, more noise
→ Physics

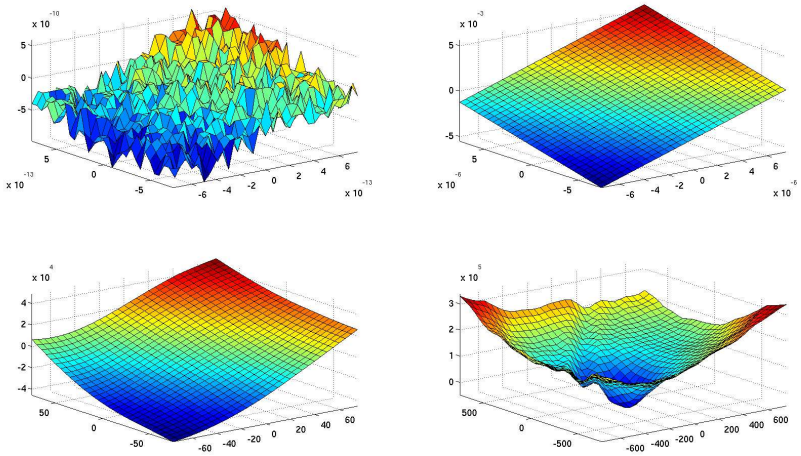
Computational Noise in Deterministic Simulations

Difference $|f(x) - f(x + Z\omega)|$,

Finite precision + finite processes

- Iteratively solving systems of PDEs or estimating eigenvalues
- Adaptively computing integrals
- Discretizations/meshes

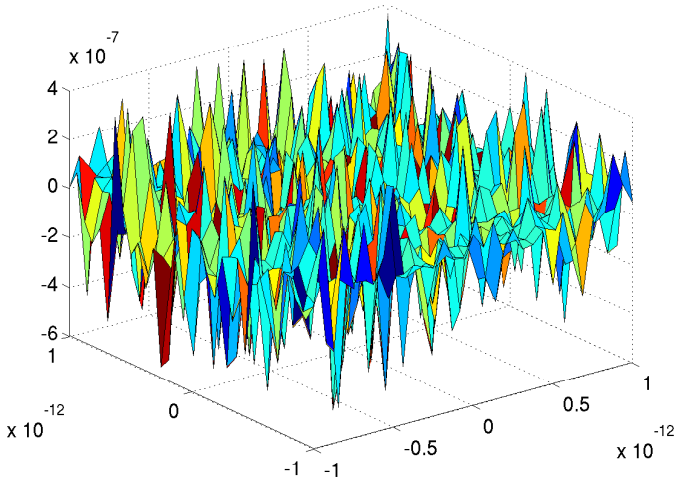
destroy underlying smoothness



X-ray microscopy simulation

Goal: estimate the "variation" in $f(\mathbf{x})$

- a few f evaluations
- deterministic and stochastic noise

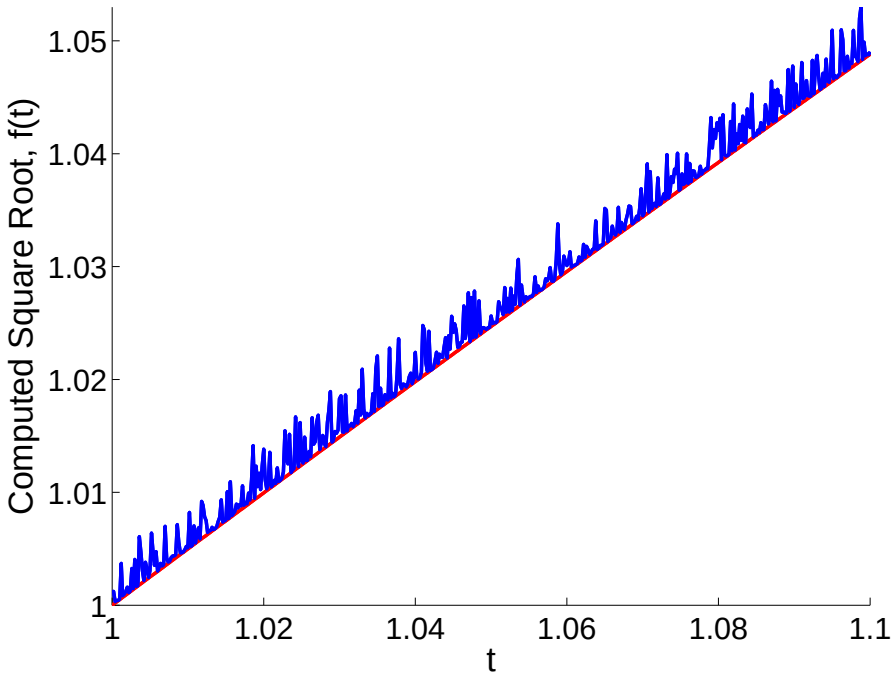


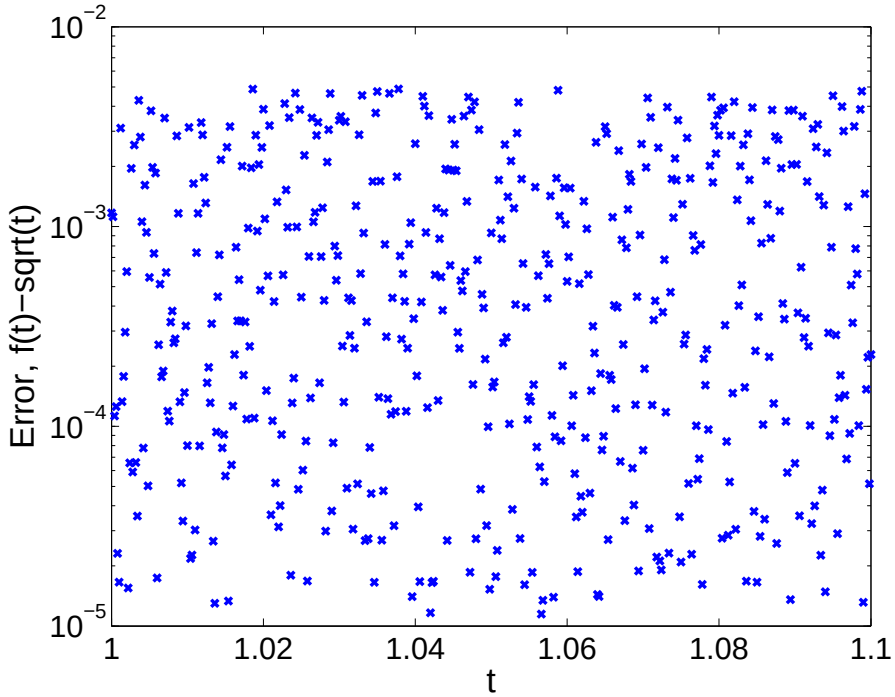
Sparse linear large-scale system

Ex.- Square Roots with Newton's Method

Compute $f(t) = \sqrt{t}$ near $t = 1$

- Random starting point in [0,1]
- Stop when $|f(t)^2 - t| \leq \tau = 10^{-2}$





Higher Dimensional Example: Eigenvalues

Partial trace problem

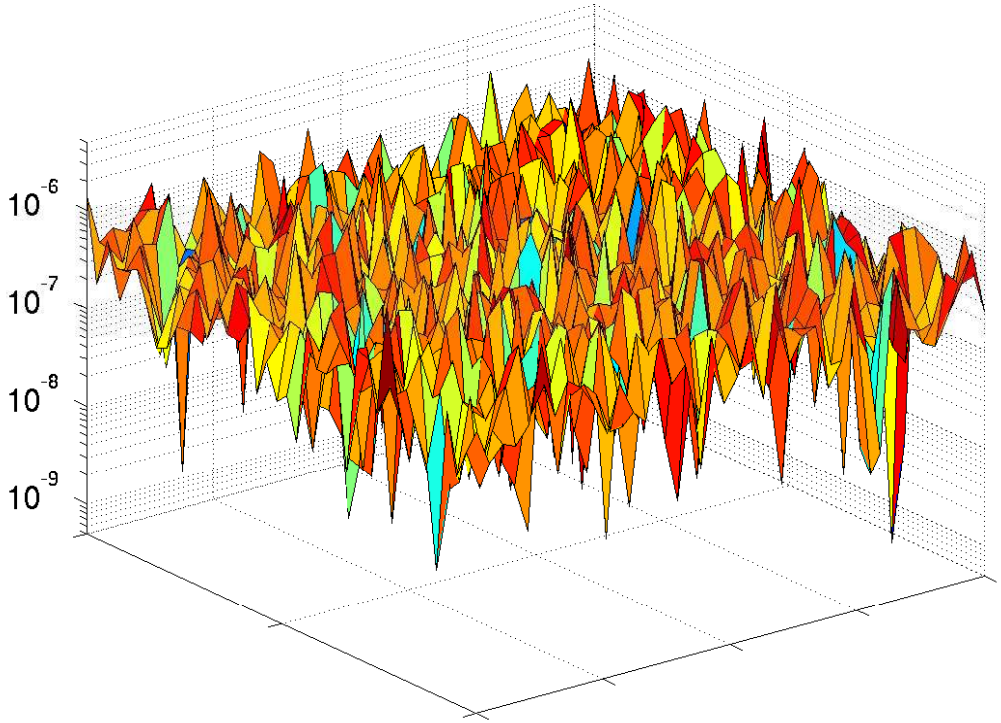
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i(A + \mathrm{diag}(x))$$

A `=delsq(numgrid('L',20))`
243×243 symmetric matrix
$\kappa(A) \approx 10^2$ well-conditioned

$\lambda(\cdot)$ sorted eigenvalues
compute with `eigs`, $\tau = 10^{-3}$

k $= 5$

x `= rand(n,1)`



Difference $|f(x) - f(x + Z\omega)|$,
Z a 2d random slice, $\|\omega\|_\infty \leq 10^{-12}$

The Noise Level ϵ_f

Simple model for the noise

$$f(t) = f_s(t) + \varepsilon(t), \quad t \in \mathcal{I}$$

- f the computed function
- f_s a smooth, deterministic function
- ε is the noise with $\{\varepsilon(t) : t \in \mathcal{I}\}$ iid $\leftarrow$ only assumption

The noise level of f is $\varepsilon_f = \left(\mathrm{Var}\left\{\varepsilon(t)\right\}\right)^{1/2}$

(independent of t)

The k-th Order Difference $\Delta^k f(t)$

$$\Delta^{k+1} f(t) = \Delta^k f(t+h) - \Delta^k f(t), \qquad \Delta^0 f(t) = f(t)$$

$$\Delta^k f(t) = \Delta^k f_s(t) + \Delta^k \varepsilon(t)$$

1. Differences of smooth f_s tend to zero rapidly
2. Differences of noise are bounded away from zero
   - If h is sufficiently small,
     $$\Delta^k f(t) \approx \Delta^k \varepsilon(t)$$
   - If f_s is k-times differentiable,
     $$\Delta^k f(t) = f_s^{(k)}(\xi_k) h^k + \Delta^k \varepsilon(t), \qquad \xi_k \in (t, t+kh)$$

Goal: make h small enough to remove smooth component

Theory Underlying the ECNoise Algorithm

For $\{\varepsilon(t+ih) : i = 0, \ldots, m\}$ iid and $k \leq m$:

1. $\mathrm{E}\left\{\Delta^k \varepsilon(t)\right\} = 0$
2. $\gamma_k \mathrm{E}\left\{[\Delta^k \varepsilon(t)]^2\right\} = \varepsilon_f^2 \qquad \gamma_k = \frac{(k!)^2}{(2k)!}$
3. If f_s is continuous at t, then
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \gamma_k \mathrm{E}\left\{\left[\Delta^k f(t)\right]^2\right\} = \varepsilon_f^2$$
4. If f_s is k-times continuously differentiable at t, then
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\gamma_k \mathrm{E}\left\{[\Delta^k f(t)]^2\right\} - \varepsilon_f^2}{h^{2k}} = \gamma_k \left[f_s^{(k)}(t)\right]^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon_f^2 \approx \gamma_k \mathrm{E}\left\{[\Delta^k f(t)]^2\right\},$$
when the sampling distance h is sufficiently small

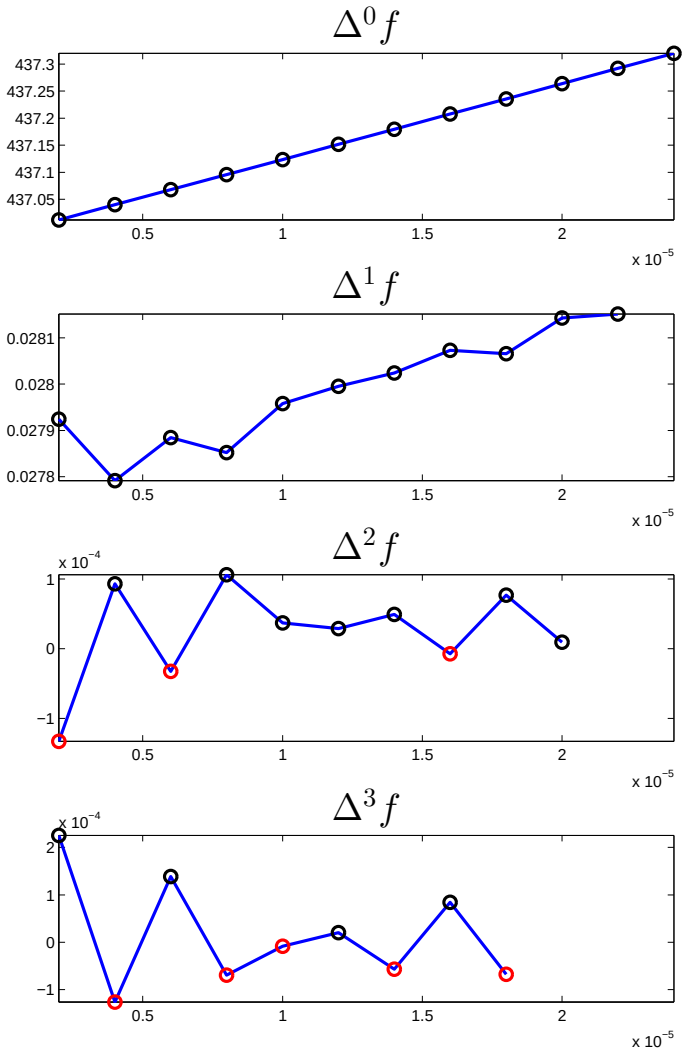
The ECNoise Algorithm

Uses $\sigma_k = \left(\frac{\gamma_k}{m+1-k} \sum_{i=0}^{m-k} [\Delta^k f(t+ih)]^2 \right)^{1/2}$

1. Chooses k
2. Verifies h is small enough

   ◇ Works for deterministic f

[Estimating Computational Noise. Moré & W., SISC 2011]



ECNoise Estimator $\sigma_k = \left(\frac{\gamma_k}{m+1-k} \sum_{i=0}^{m-k} [\Delta^k f(t_i)]^2 \right)^{1/2}$

For $f(t) = \cos(t) + \sin(t) + 10^{-3} U_{[0,2\sqrt{3}]}$ $\left(m = 6, t_i = \frac{i}{100}\right)$

$f(t_i)$	$\Delta f(t_i)$	$\Delta^2 f(t_i)$	$\Delta^3 f(t_i)$	$\Delta^4 f(t_i)$	$\Delta^5 f(t_i)$	$\Delta^6 f(t_i)$
1.003	7.54e-3	2.15e-3	1.87e-4	-5.87e-3	1.46e-2	-2.49e-2
1.011	9.69e-3	2.33e-3	-5.68e-3	8.73e-3	-1.03e-2	
1.021	1.20e-2	-3.35e-3	3.05e-3	-1.61e-3		
1.033	8.67e-3	-2.96e-4	1.44e-3			
1.041	8.38e-3	1.14e-3				
1.050	9.52e-3					
1.059						
σ_k	6.78e-3	8.96e-4	9.02e-4	9.93e-4	1.10e-3	1.14e-3

Extension to Multivariate $g : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

Given base point $x_b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, unit direction $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, consider

$$f_p(t) = g(x_b + tp), \quad t \geq 0$$

Apply univariate theory

- Directional differences, directional derivatives
- ε_f may now depend on a direction $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- `ECnoise` uses $T_{i,0} = f(x_b + ihp)$ with random unit direction $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Computational Experience with Stochastic Noise

Validate `ECnoise` and empirical properties of

$$\sigma_k^2 = \frac{\gamma_k}{m+1-k} \sum_{i=0}^{m-k} T_{i,k}^2$$

under known conditions:

- Known noise level ε_f
- Theory directly applies

Target: every estimate within a factor $\eta = 4$ of the mean

Noisy Quadratic, $f(x) = (x^T x)(1 + R), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{10}$

Estimate relative noise $\frac{\sigma_k}{f(x_b)} \approx \sqrt{\mathrm{Var}\{R\}} = 10^{-3}$

- x_b random base point
- p 10000 random unit directions
- m evaluations

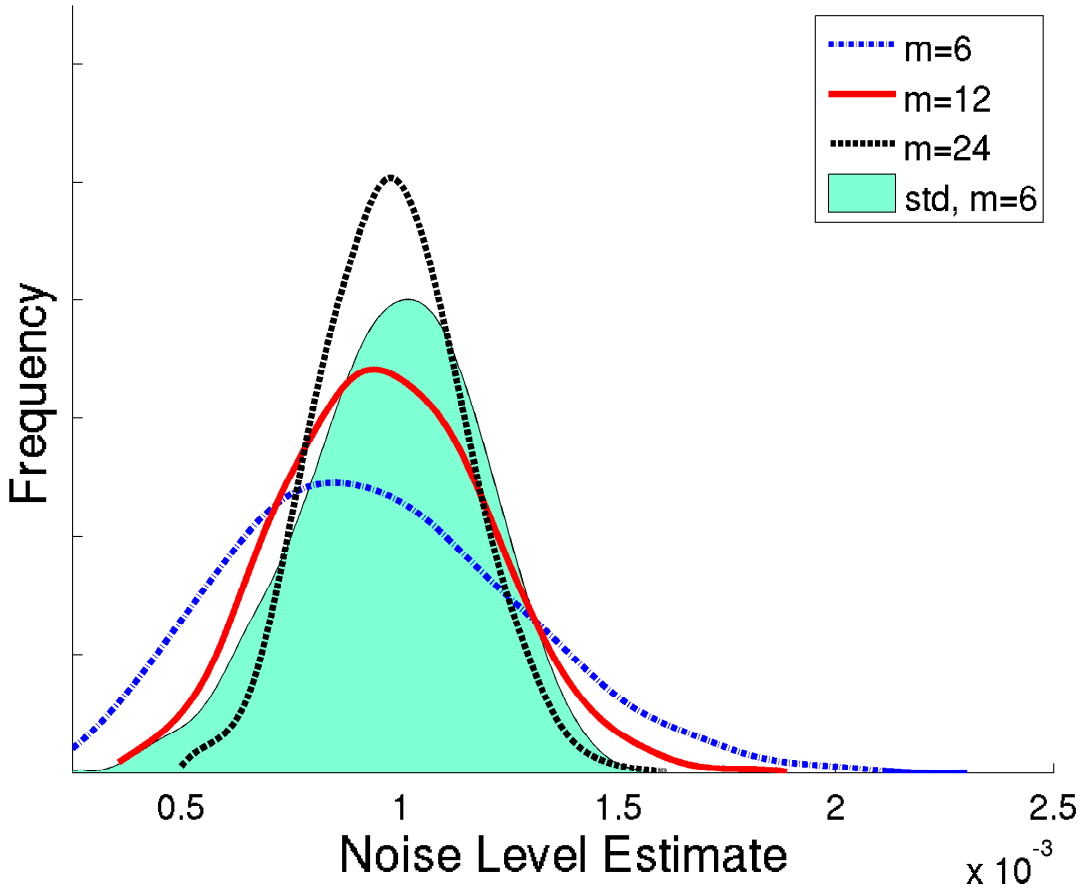
Noisy Quadratic, $f(x) = (x^T x)(1 + R), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{10}$

$$R \sim \text{Uniform}\left[-\sqrt{3} \cdot 10^{-3}, \sqrt{3} \cdot 10^{-3}\right]$$

Estimate relative noise $\frac{\sigma_k}{f(x_b)} \approx \sqrt{\text{Var}\{R\}} = 10^{-3}$

- x_b random base point
- p 10000 random unit directions
- m evaluations

99.2% within a factor $\eta = 4$ for $m = 6$



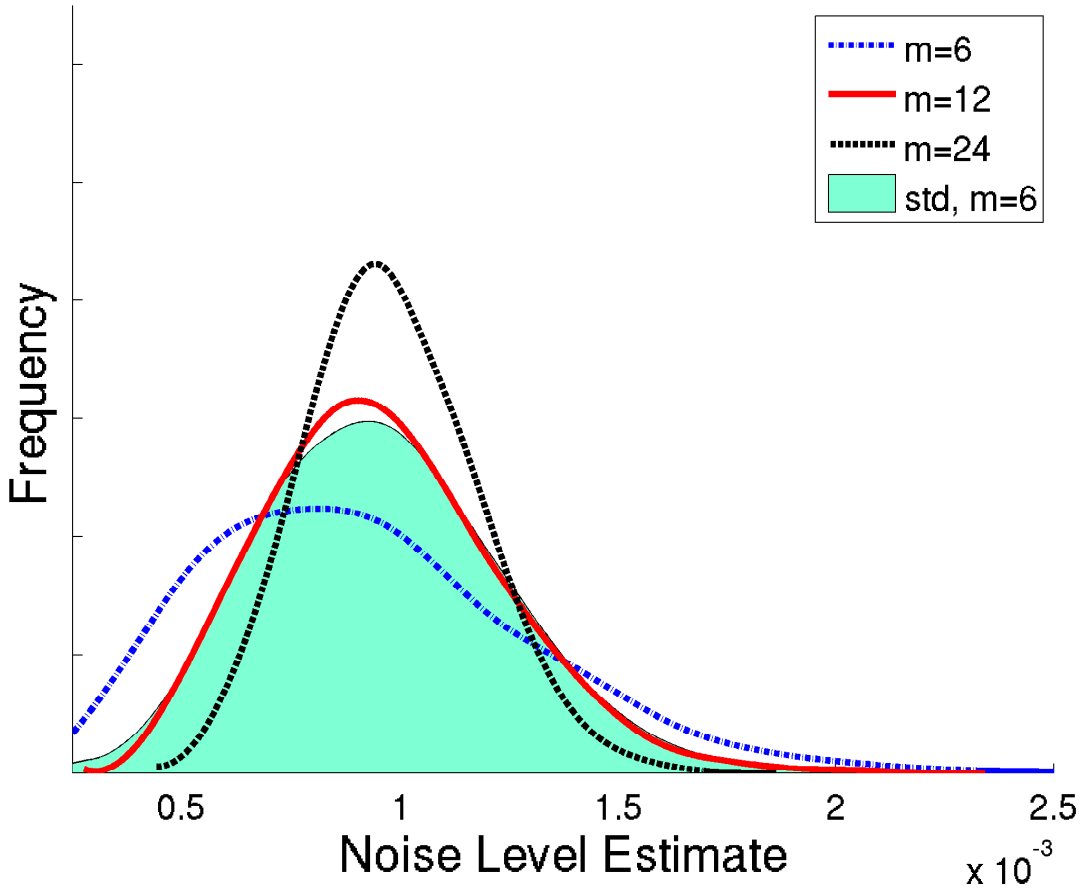
Noisy Quadratic, $f(x) = (x^T x)(1 + R), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{10}$

$R \sim \text{Normal}\left(0, 10^{-6}\right)$

Estimate relative noise
$\frac{\sigma_k}{f(x_b)} \approx \sqrt{\text{Var}\{R\}} = 10^{-3}$

- x_b random base point
- p 10000 random unit directions
- m evaluations

98.9% within a factor $\eta = 4$ for $m = 6$



MC Finance Example with Higher Order Derivatives

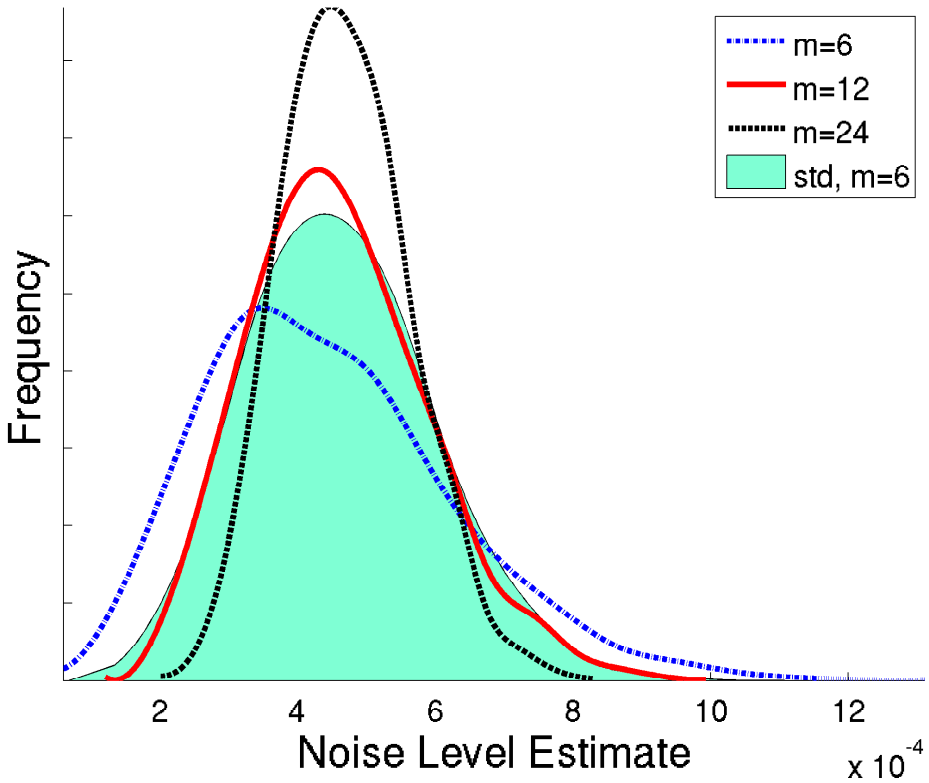
Today's value of a \$1 payment n years from now rates [Caflisch]:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \prod_{i=0}^{n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|u\|^2}{2}}}{1+r_i(u,x)} du, \qquad r_i(u,x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{10} & i=0 \\ r_{i-1}(u,x) e^{x_i u_i - x_i^2/2} & i \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

10000 MC integrations (directions p) with

- $n = 3$ years, $x_b = [.1, .1, .1]$
- $tol = 5000$ standard normal random variables
- no variance reduction

99.6% within a factor 4 for $m = 6$



Statistical Consistency of the Estimator σ_k^2 (with J. Góez)

Entries in the difference table $T_{i,k}, T_{j,k}$ are dependent!

Further assume $f_s^{(k)}$ bounded and $\mathrm{E}\left\{\varepsilon(t)^4\right\} < \infty$

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} \mathrm{Var}\left\{\sigma_k^2\right\} = 0$$

$\rightarrow$ Can estimate stochastic noise without having to repeatedly sample at a single x

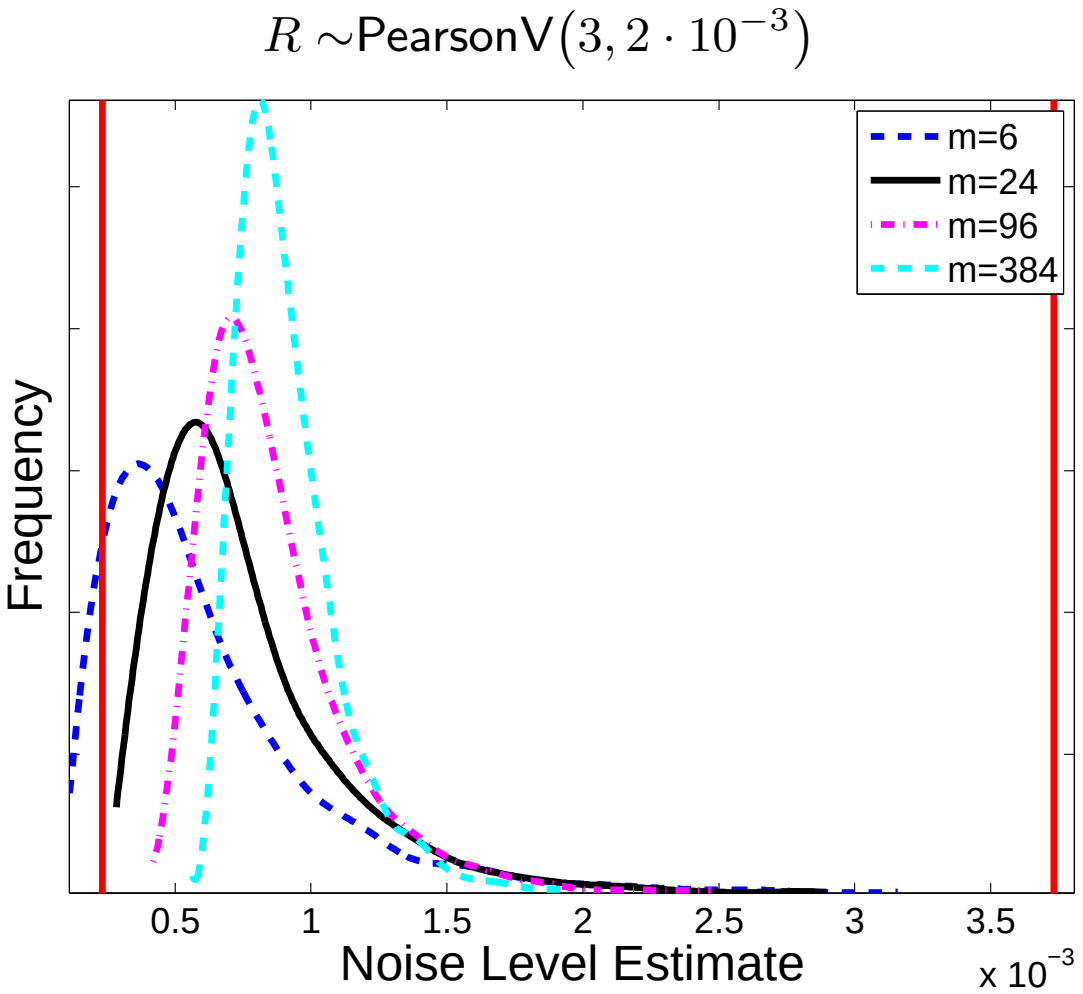
- Choose k and h to control the bias, $\mathrm{E}\left\{\sigma_k^2 - \varepsilon_f^2\right\} = \gamma_k h^{2k} f_s^{(k)}(\xi_m)^2$
- Choose $m \geq k$ to control the variance and ensure noise captured

Noisy Quadratic, $f(x) = (x^T x)(1 + R), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{10}$

Estimate relative noise
$\frac{\sigma_k}{f(x_b)} \approx \sqrt{\mathrm{Var}\{R\}} = 10^{-3}$

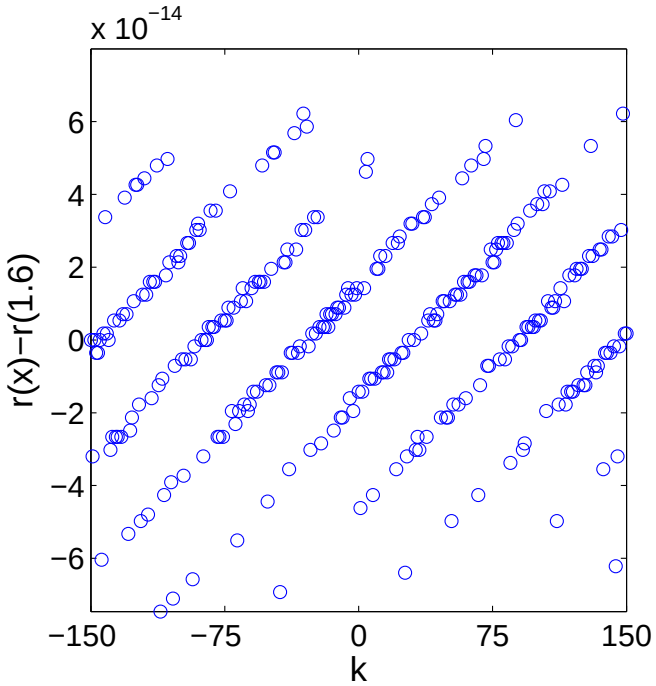
- x_b base point
- p 10000 random unit directions $\mathcal{B}_1$
- m evaluations

89.3% (99.3%) within a factor $\eta = 4$ for $m = 6$ ($m = 24$)

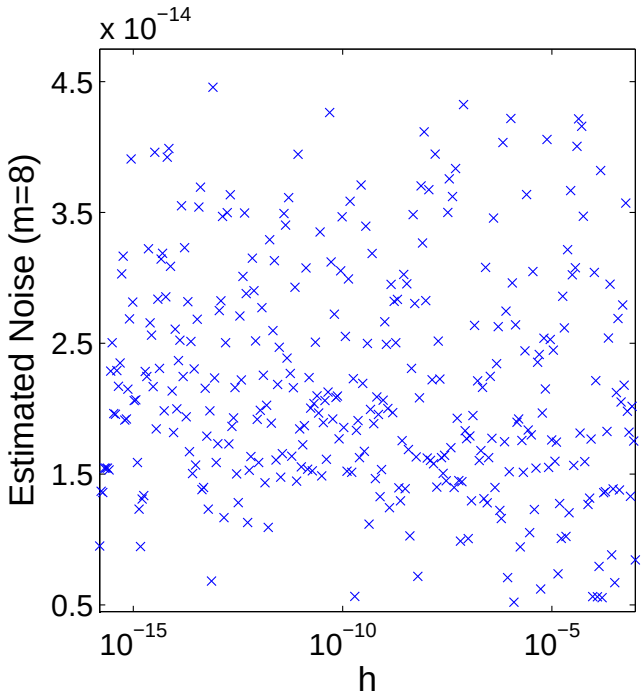


Transition to Non-IID & Deterministic Noise

Kahan's $r(x) = \frac{622-x(751-x(324-x(59-4x)))}{112-x(151-x(72-x(14-x)))}$ violates iid assumption



Kahan's r at $x = 1.6 + 2^{-52}k$



Noise estimates for $r(1.6)$

- All noise estimates within factor 4 of $2 \cdot 10^{-14}$
- (Unlikely) $m+1$ points solely on one line $\Rightarrow \epsilon_f \approx 2 \cdot 10^{-15}$

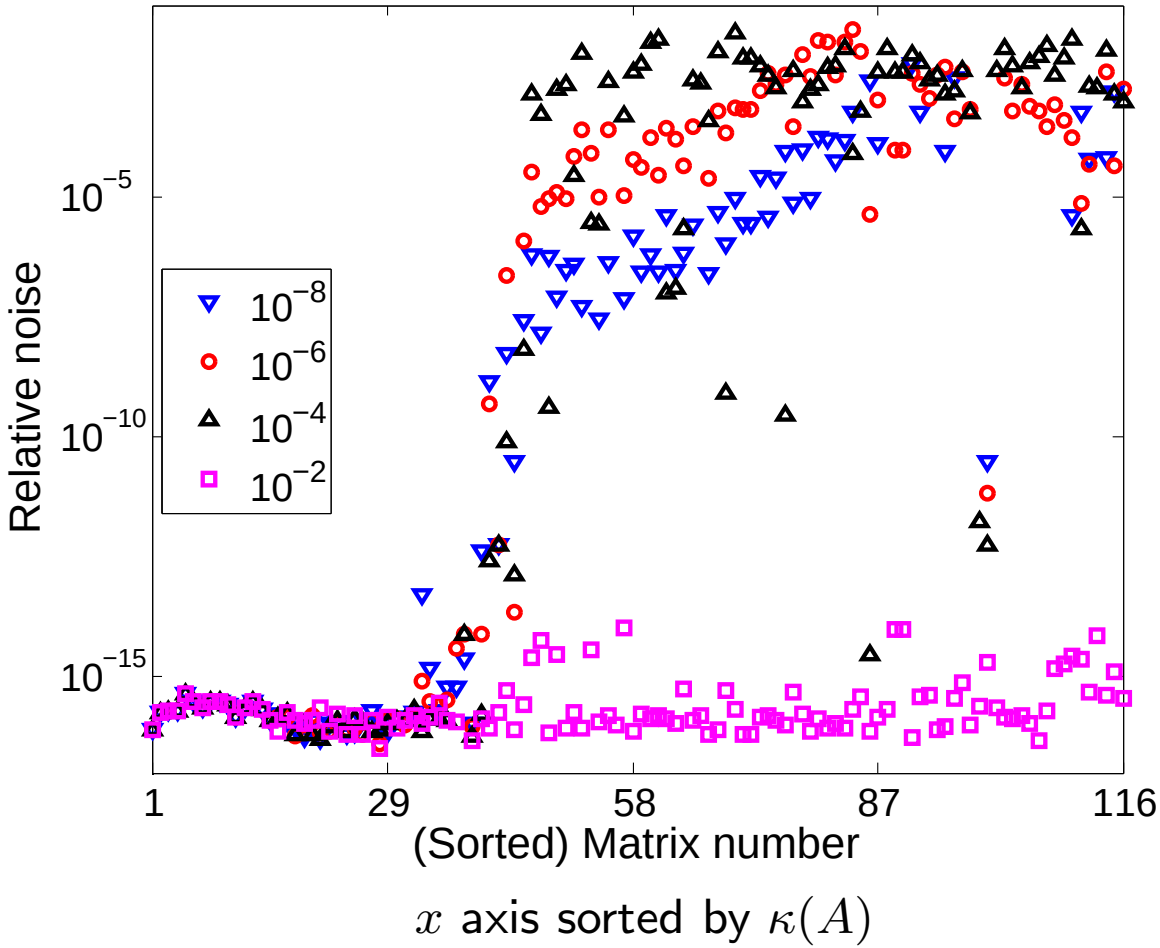
Deterministic Test Problems: UF Matrices

$$f_\tau(t) = \|y_\tau(x_b + tp)\|_2^2,$$

y_τ from iterative solver for $Ay_\tau(x) = x$
with tolerance $\tau > 0$

- $A =$ 116 spd UF matrices ($n < 10^4$), scaled by diagonal
- 28 with $\kappa(A) \leq 10$, 10 with $\kappa(A) \geq 10^{10}$
- random direction $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- variety of tolerances τ in $[10^{-8}, 10^{-2}]$
- only $m = 8$ additional evaluations
- tested `bicgstab`, `gmres`, `idr(s)`, `pcg`, `minres`, `minresqlp`, `symmlq`

ECNoise on `bicgstab` Functions f_τ

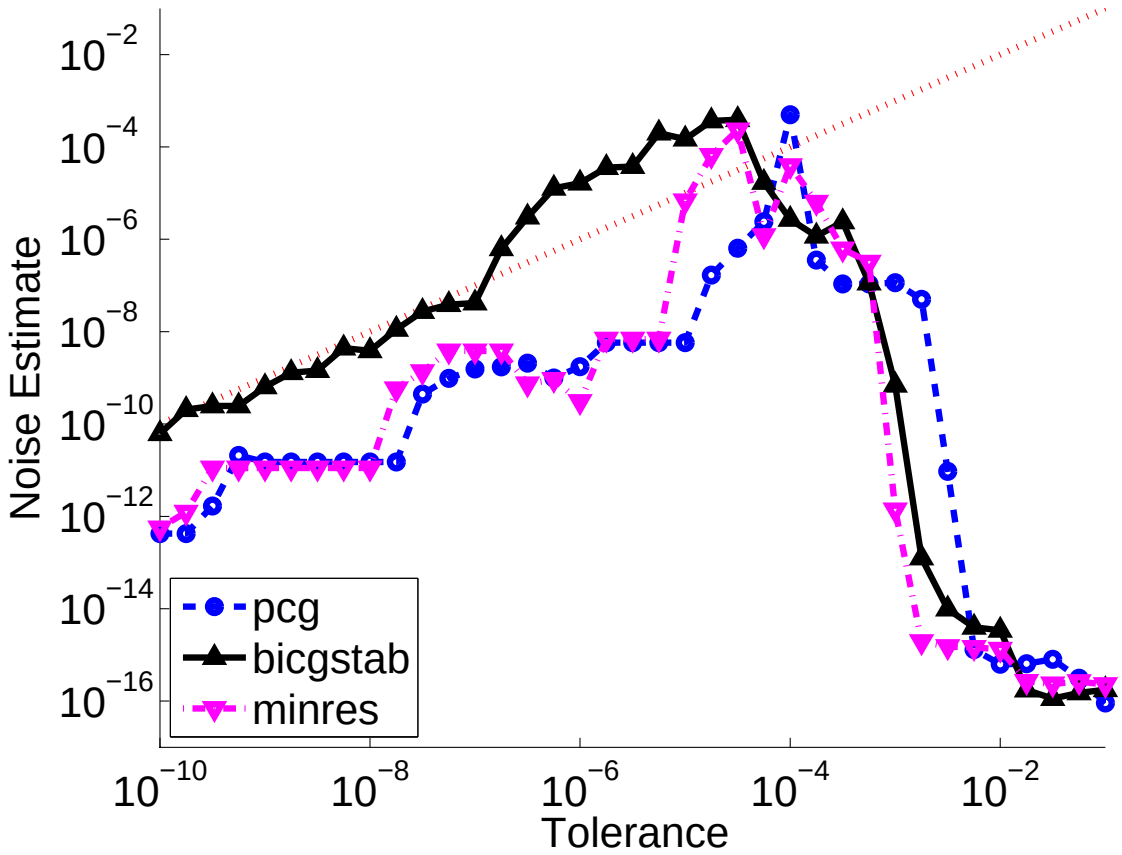


Effect of the Tolerance τ for $Ay_\tau(x) = x$

$$f_\tau(t) = \|y_\tau(x_b + tp)\|_2^2,$$

y_τ from iterative solver for $Ay_\tau(x) = x$ with tolerance $\tau > 0$

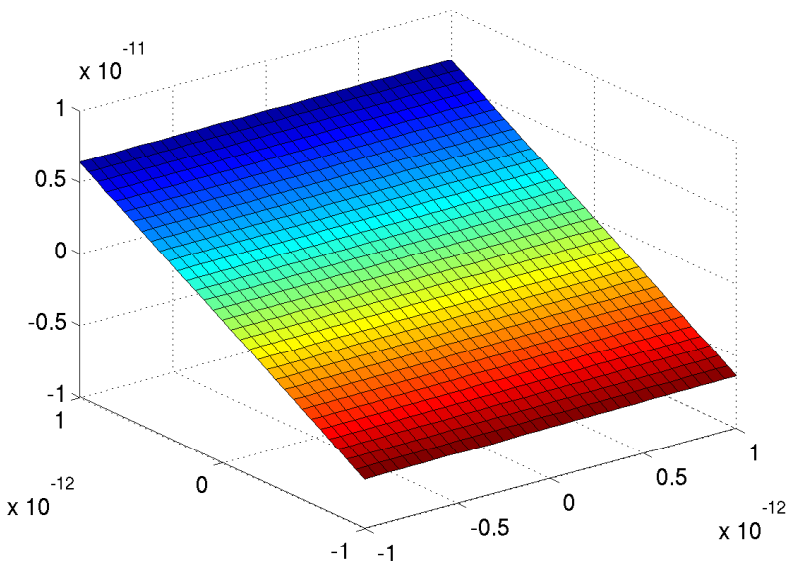
- Reliable estimates, $m = 8$ additional evaluations
- Non-monotone relationship between the relative noise and tolerance τ
- random direction p
- spd UF matrix A



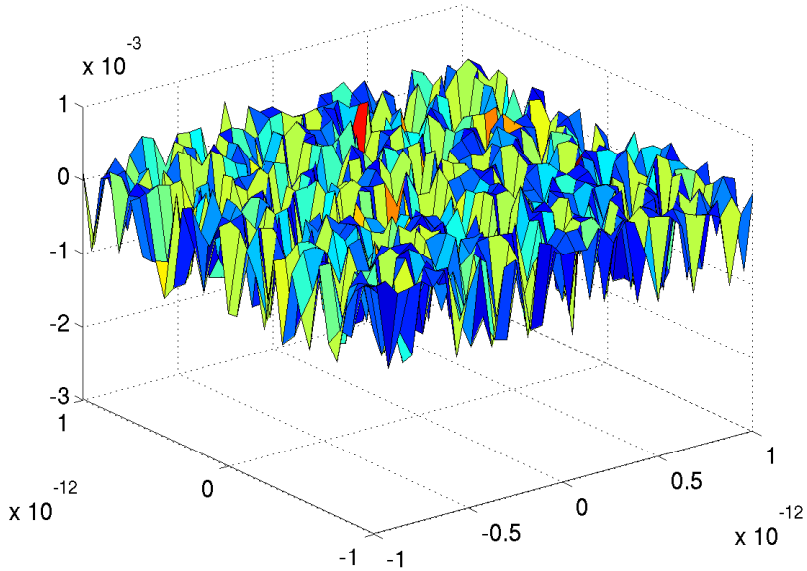
How does bcsstk02 Noise Change with the Tolerance?

2d slice of f for bcsstk02 $(n = 66, \kappa(A) = 1833)$

bicgstab



$\tau = 10^{-2}$, std=3.86e-12

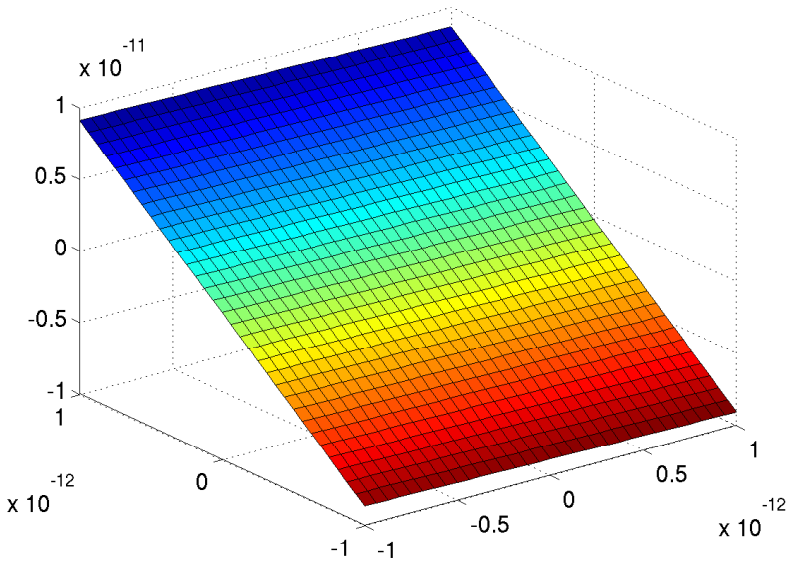


$\tau = 10^{-5}$, std=4.98e-04

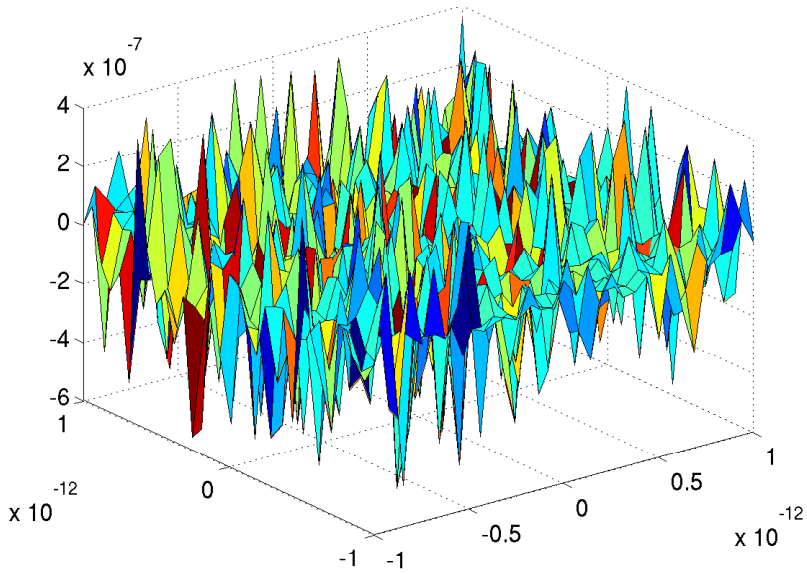
How does bcsstk02 Noise Change with the Tolerance?

2d slice of f for bcsstk02 $(n = 66, \kappa(A) = 1833)$

pcg

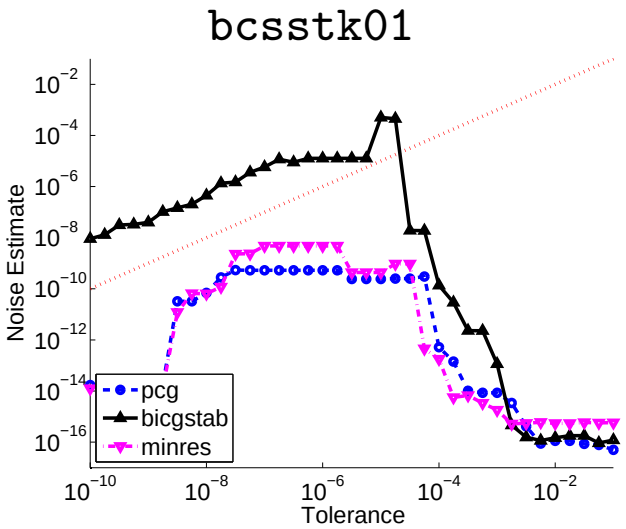


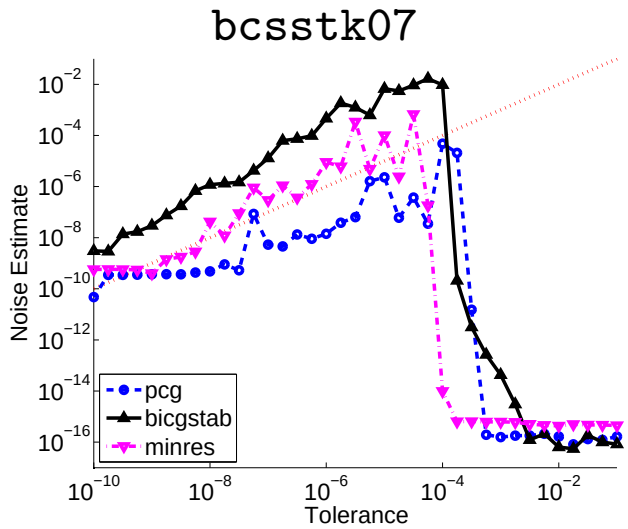
$\tau = 10^{-2}$, std=5.29e-12

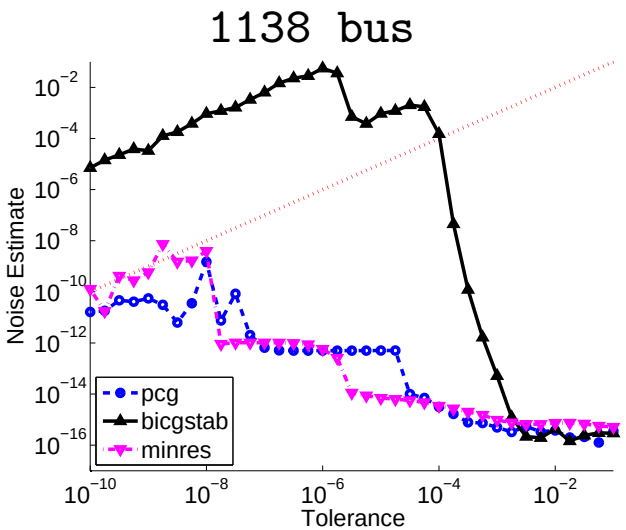


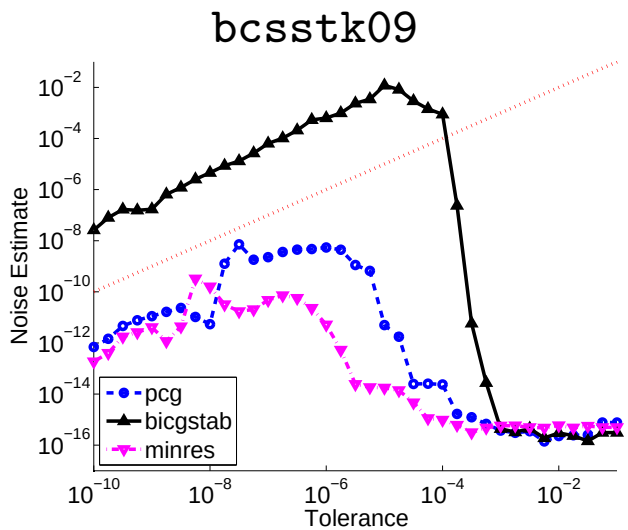
$\tau = 10^{-5}$, std=1.90e-07

Noise Estimates for Different Tolerances



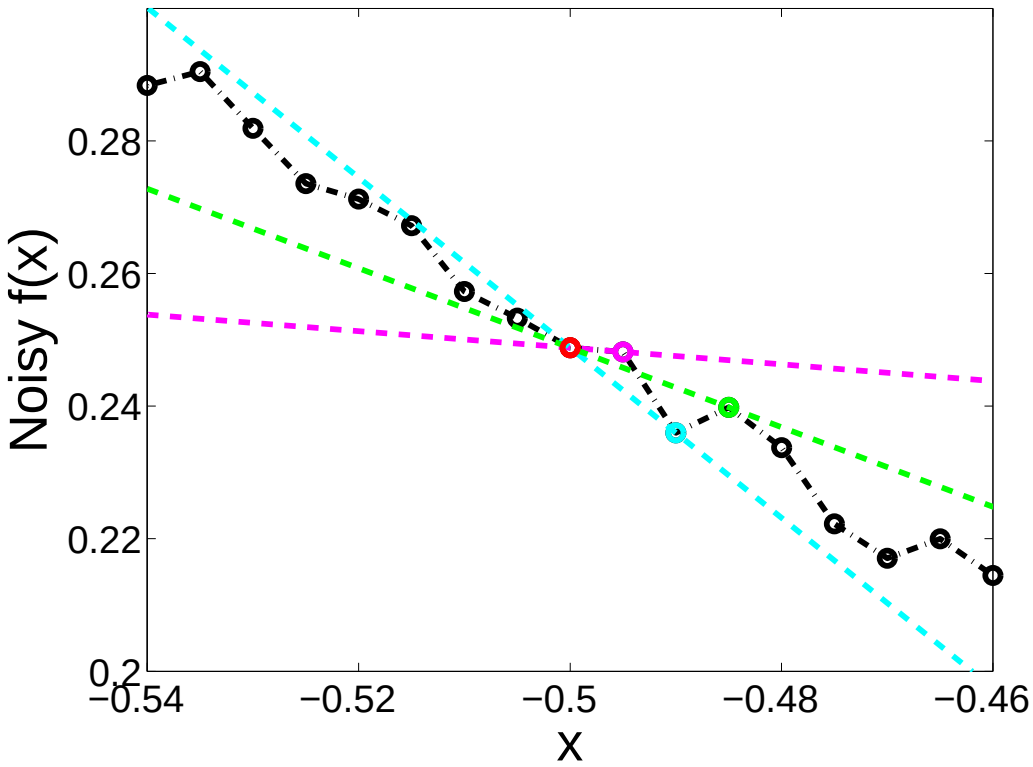






Finite Differences Sensitive to Choice of h

$$\frac{f(t_0+h)-f(t_0)}{h} \approx f_s'(t_0)$$



Noisy Forward Differences

Minimize $\quad \mathrm{E}\{\mathcal{E}(h)\} = \mathrm{E}\left\{\left(\frac{f(t_0+h)-f(t_0)}{h} - f_s'(t_0)\right)^2\right\}$

Our h will depend on

- Loose estimate of noise
- Loose estimate of $|f''|$!
- Stochastic theory:
  1. $f(t) = f_s(t) + \epsilon$ on $I = \{t_0 + h : 0 \leq h \leq h_0\}$
  2. f_s twice differentiable
  3. $\mu_L \leq |f_s''| \leq \mu_M$ on I

[Estimating Noisy Derivatives. Moré & W., TOMS 2012]]

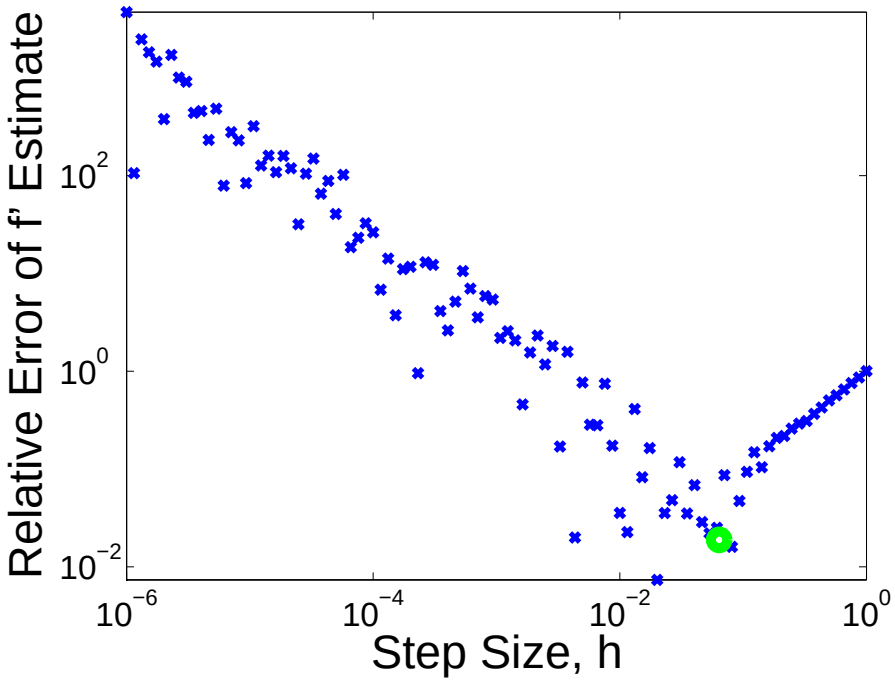
Optimal Forward Difference Parameter h

$$\frac{1}{4}\mu_L^2 h^2 + 2\frac{\varepsilon_f^2}{h^2} \leq \mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h)\right\} \leq \frac{1}{4}\mu_M^2 h^2 + 2\frac{\varepsilon_f^2}{h^2}$$

- $h \downarrow$ Variance (noise) dominates
- $h \uparrow$ Bias (f'') dominates

For h_0 sufficiently large

1. Upper bound minimized by
   $h_M = 8^{1/4}\left(\frac{\varepsilon_f}{\mu_M}\right)^{1/2}$
2. When $\mu_L > 0$, h_M is near-optimal:



$$\mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h_M)\right\} = \sqrt{2}\mu_M\varepsilon_f \leq \left(\frac{\mu_M}{\mu_L}\right) \min_{0\leq h\leq h_0} \mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h)\right\}.$$

Alternative FD Step Sizes

[Gill, Murray, Saunders, Wright; 1983]

Given uniform bound on roundoff error,

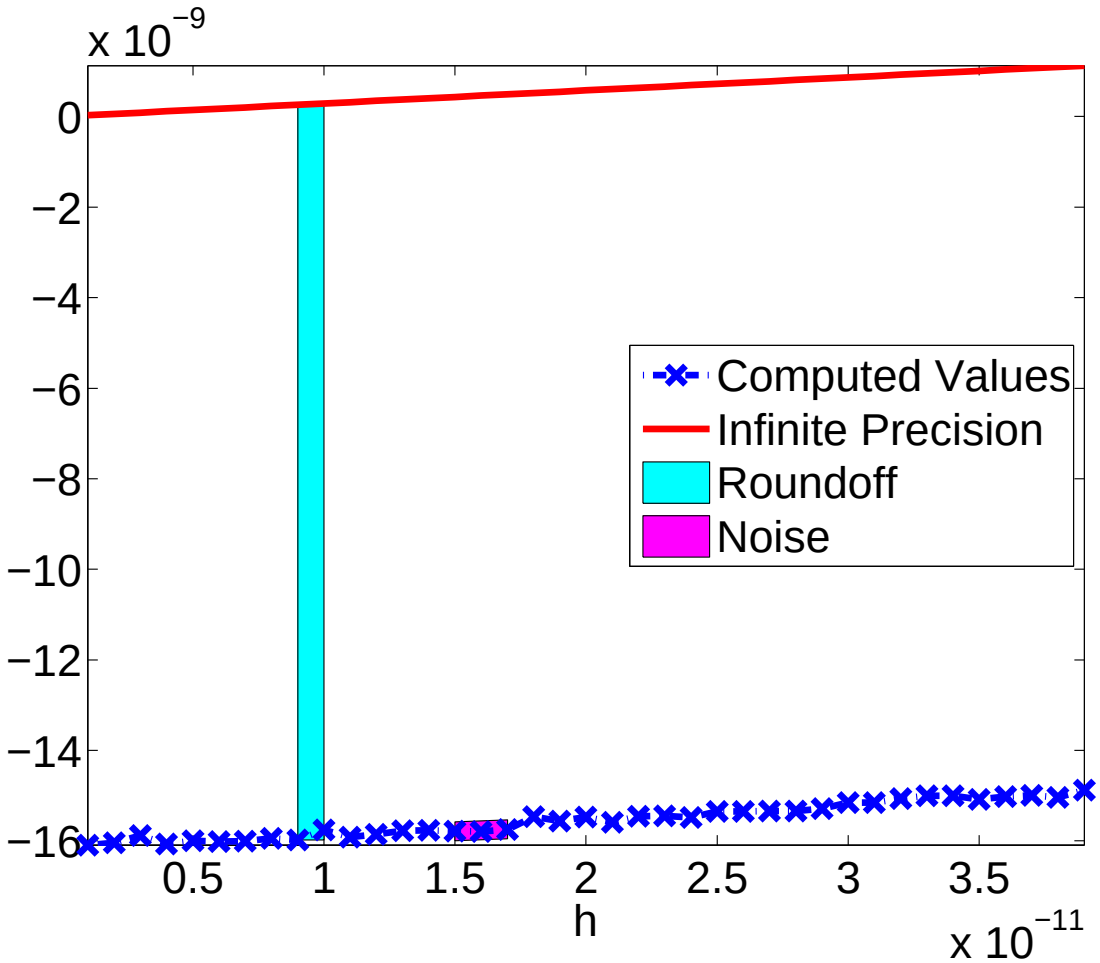
$$|f(t) - f_\infty(t)| \leq \varepsilon_A \qquad t \in I,$$

Minimizer of (upper bound on) l_1 error is

$$h_A = 2\left(\frac{\varepsilon_A}{\mu_M}\right)^{1/2}$$

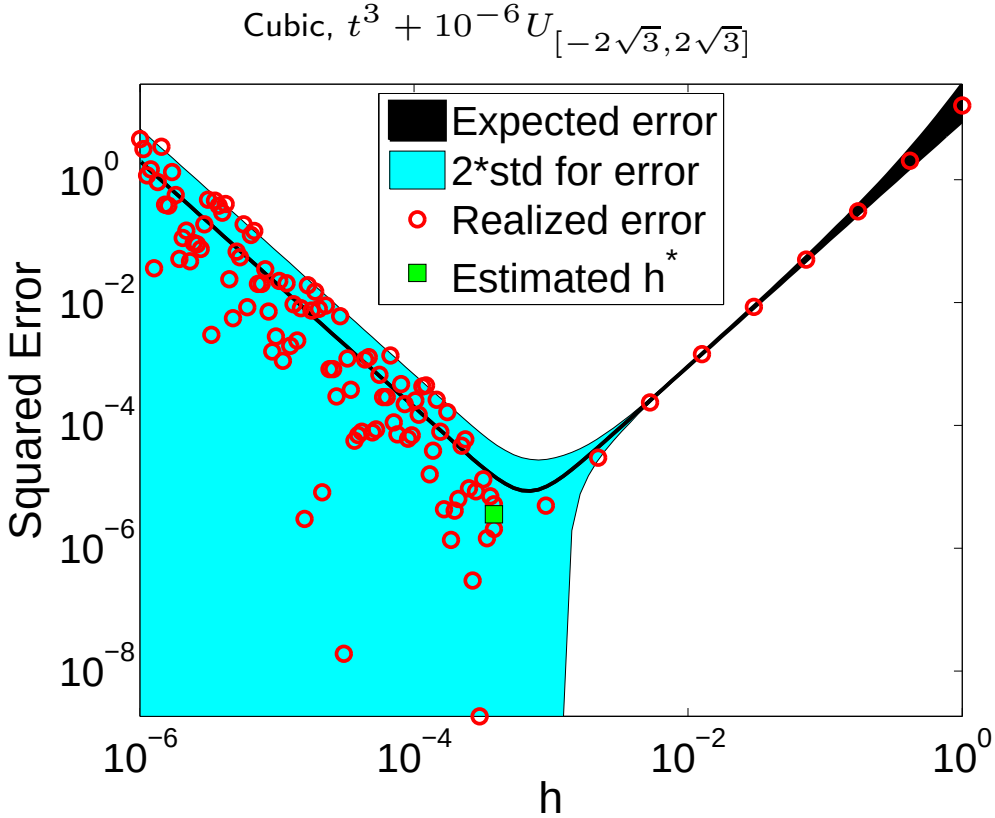
Assumes:

- $h_A \leq h_0$
- Estimate of ε_A available



Stochastic Examples

Estimate $f_s'(t) = E\{f(t)\}'$ at $t = 1$ $(\varepsilon_f = 10^{-6})$



Log-log realizations of $\mathcal{E}(h) = \mathrm{E}\left\{\left(\frac{f(t_0+h)-f(t_0)}{h} - f_s'(t_0)\right)^2\right\}$

Expected error and uncertainty regions predicted by the theory

Extension: Central Differences

First derivatives, $\frac{f(t_0+h)-f(t_0-h)}{2h}$

- $|h_M| = \gamma_5 \left(\frac{\varepsilon_f}{\mu_M}\right)^{1/3}, \qquad \gamma_5 = 3^{1/3} \approx 1.44$
- $\mu_L \leq |f_s^{(3)}| \leq \mu_M$
- $\mathrm{E}\{\mathcal{E}_c(h_M)\} \leq \left(\frac{\mu_M}{\mu_L}\right)^{2/3} \min_{|h|\leq h_0} \mathrm{E}\{\mathcal{E}_c(h)\}$

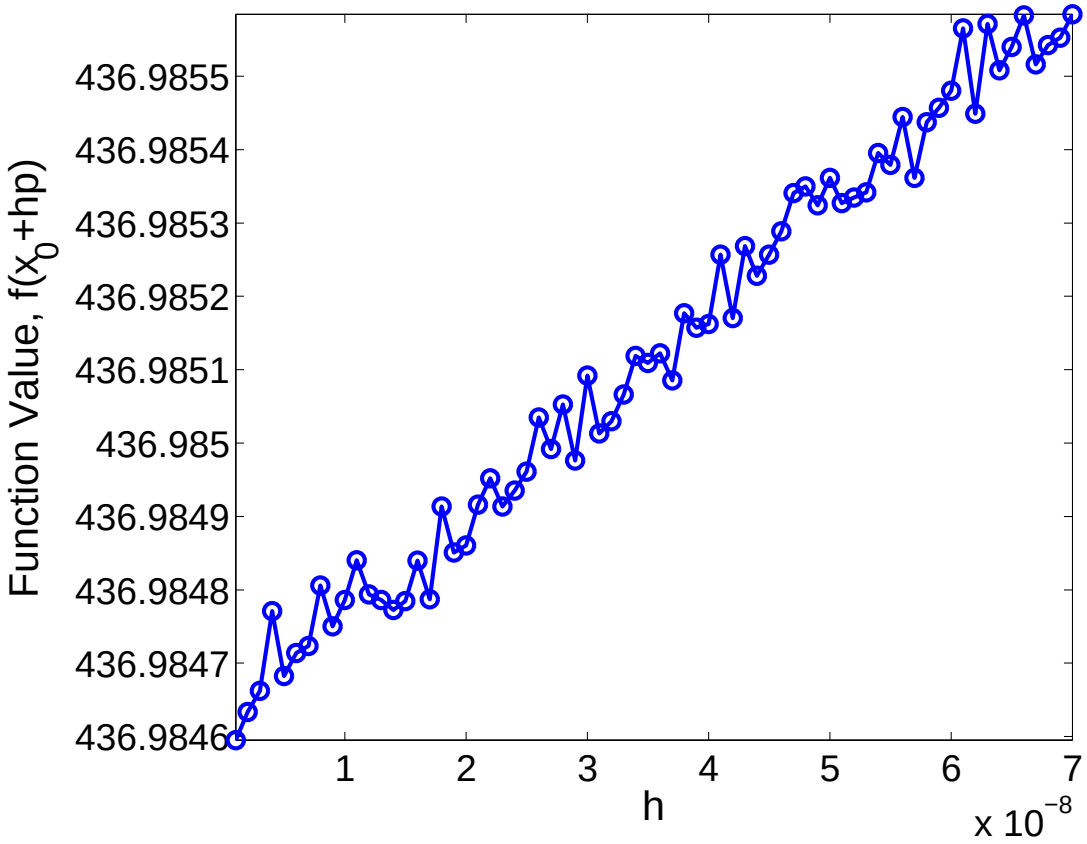
Second derivatives, $\frac{f(t_0+h)-2f(t_0)+f(t_0-h)}{h^2}$

- $|h_M| = \gamma_7 \left(\frac{\varepsilon_f}{\mu_M}\right)^{1/4}, \qquad \gamma_7 = 2^{5/8}\, 3^{1/8} \approx 2.33$
- $\mu_L \leq |f_s^{(4)}| \leq \mu_M$
- $\mathrm{E}\{\mathcal{E}_2(h_M)\} \leq \left(\frac{\mu_M}{\mu_L}\right) \min_{|h|\leq h_0} \mathrm{E}\{\mathcal{E}_2(h)\}$
  - use to obtain rough estimate of $|f_s''|$ for forward-difference h

Ex.- Noisy Deterministic Functions (`bicgstab`, $\tau = 10^{-3}$)

Subset of 100 UF matrices

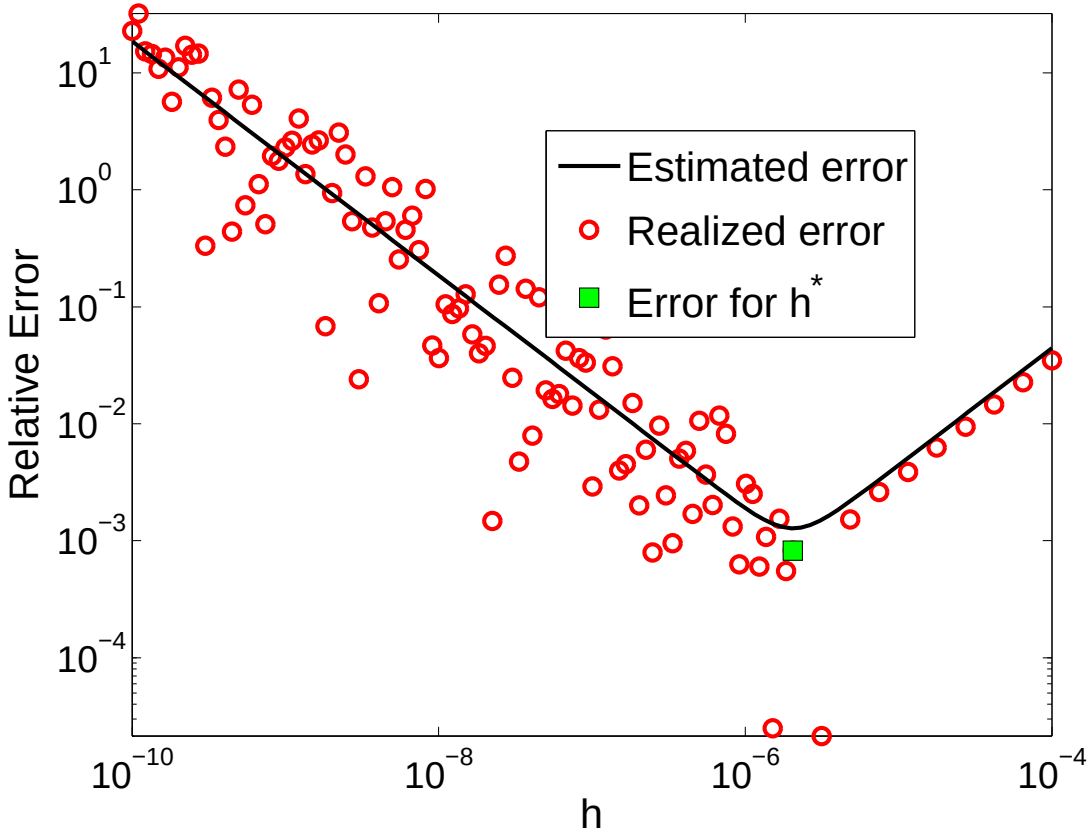
- FD sensitive to noise



Ex.- Noisy Deterministic Functions (`bicgstab`, $\tau = 10^{-3}$)

Subset of 100 UF matrices

- FD sensitive to noise
- Exhibits behavior similar to stochastic FD

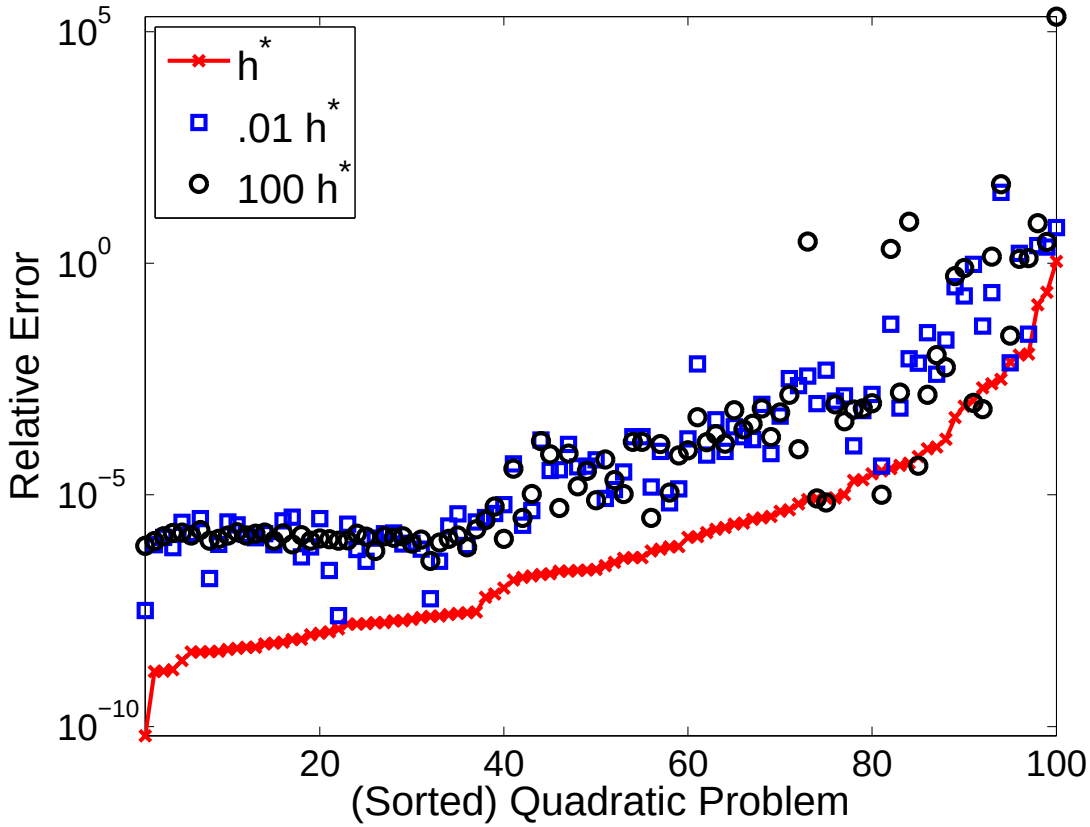


Compared with AD (INTLAB) derivative

Ex.- Noisy Deterministic Functions (`bicgstab`, $\tau = 10^{-3}$)

Subset of 100 UF matrices

- FD sensitive to noise
- Exhibits behavior similar to stochastic FD
- h_M obtains 2 more correct digits than $10^{\pm 2} h_M$
- h_M significantly better than $\sqrt{\epsilon_{\text{mach}}}$

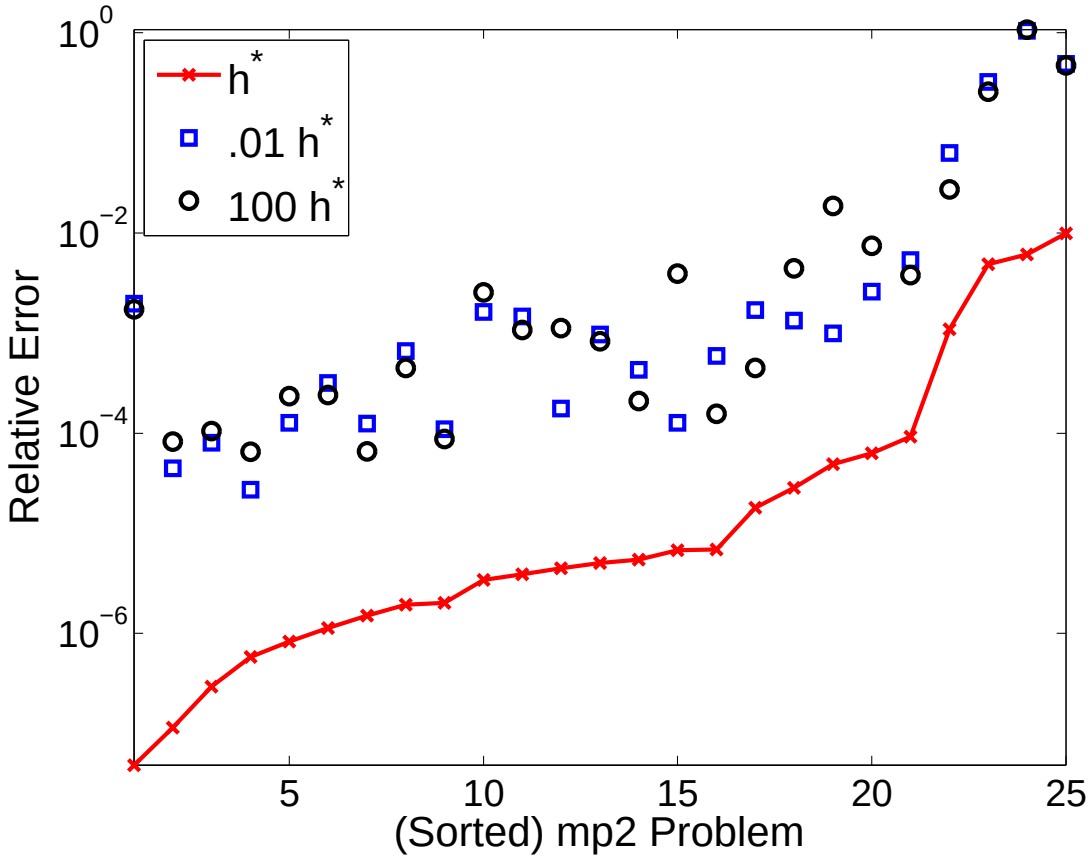


Compared with AD (INTLAB) derivative

Ex.- Highly Nonlinear MINPACK-2 Problems

25 problems, $n \leq 64 \cdot 10^4$

- Accurate estimates obtained even when f'' not constant



Compared with hand-coded derivative

Sensitivity to ε_f and μ_M Estimates

If $h^* = \alpha h_M$, then

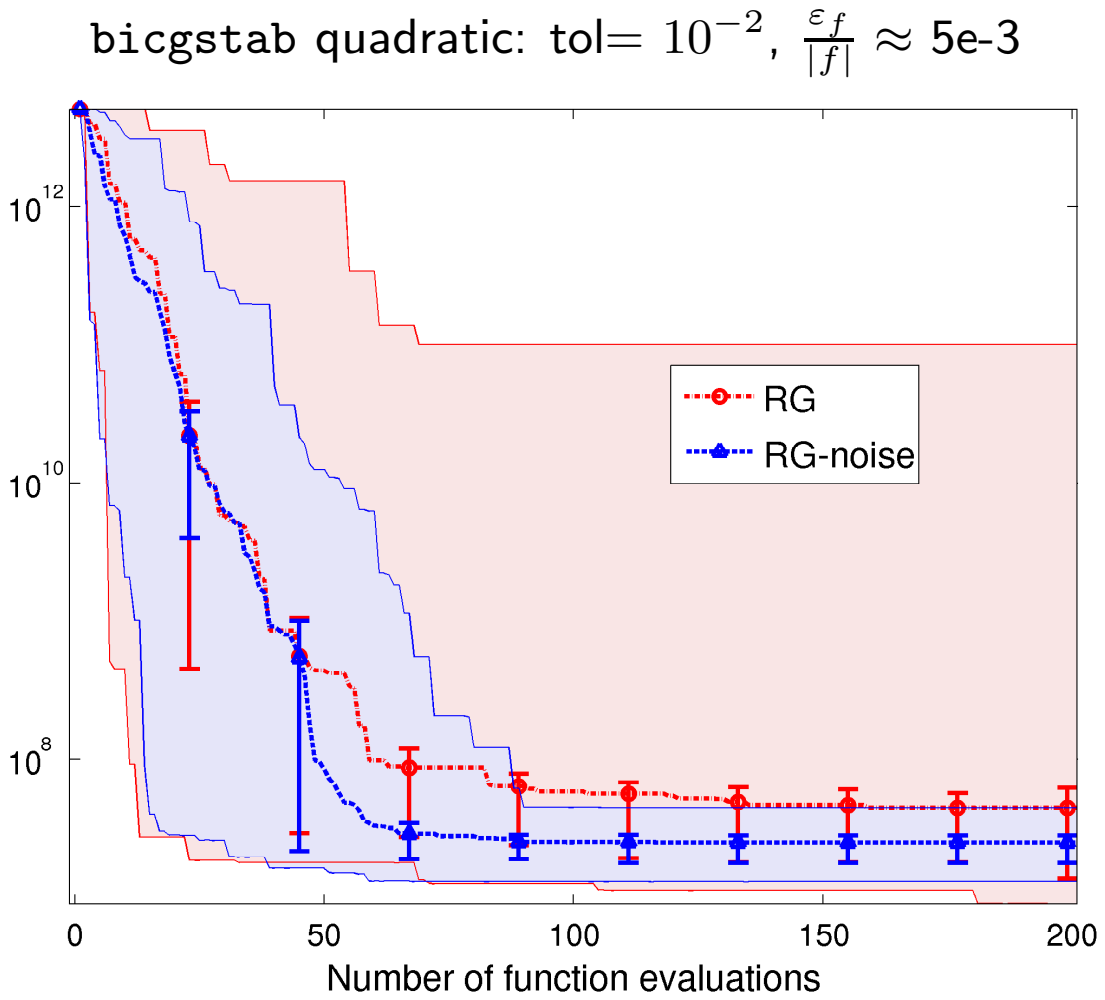
$$\mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h^*)\right\}^{1/2} \leq \left(\frac{1}{\alpha} + \alpha\right) \mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h_M)\right\}^{1/2}$$

- mis-estimating ε_f/μ_M by factor 10^d $\left(\alpha = 10^{\pm d/2}\right)$ gives $\mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h^*)\right\}^{1/2} \leq 10^{d/2}\mathrm{E}\left\{\mathcal{E}(h_M)\right\}^{1/2}$
- rms error grows slowly with ratio $\alpha = h^*/h_M$

Using the Noise in Nesterov's Random Gradient Method

General RG iteration

1. Generate direction d_k
2. Evaluate gradient-free oracle $g(x_k; h_k) = \frac{f(x_k + h_k\, d_k) - f(x_k)}{h} d_k$
3. Compute $x_{k+1} = x_k - \delta_k g(x_k; h_k)$, evaluate $f(x_{k+1})$



Summary: How Loud Are Your Simulations?

- Computational noise complicates analysis of simulation-based functions, worst-case bounds overly pessimistic (see Baudoui talk)
- With a few (6-8) additional evaluations, ECNoise reliably estimates the noise
- Stochastic theory for near-optimal difference parameters
- Coarse estimates of $|f''|$ (2-4 evaluations) yield more accurate directional derivatives
- Both work on deterministic functions in practice

Some refs `http://mcs.anl.gov/∼wild`:
[*Estimating Computation Noise*, SISC 2011]
[*Estimating Derivatives of Noisy Simulations*, TOMS 2012]
[*Do You Trust Derivatives or Differences?* Preprint, 2013]
[*Obtaining Quadratic Models of Noisy Functions*, Preprint, 2013]

Computing `http://mcs.anl.gov/∼wild/cnoise`

Merci!