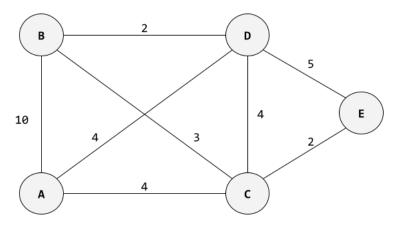
1 Simulated Annealing (Section 11.6)

This is typically an algorithm for a discrete search. This particular algorithm does not use derivatives, either.

(Example: Traveling Salesperson.) The problem statement is as follows: Suppose we have a network of different cities. Our goal is to find the minimum cost to visit each city once (and only once).



For large networks, multiple local minima may exists.

1.1 A Brute Force Approach

Suppose $F(x): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ represents the cost of traveling a particular route. The simulated annealing also uses random components. At iteration k, given $F(x^{(k)})$ and m, we want to generate candidates $u_1, u_2, u_3, \ldots, u_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$. This is typically done by random process: in the traveling salesperson problem, we consider the different edges we could take. By evaluating the function at each candidate point, we can find *one* of them that has the least cost; that is,

$$u_j = \min_{1 \le i \le m} F(u_i).$$

If $F(u_i) \leq F(x^{(k)})$, then we can update the iterate,

$$x^{(k+1)} = u_i.$$

Otherwise, we can do the following:

• Compute the probability for each u_i ,

$$\tilde{p}_i = e^{\alpha(F(x^{(k)}) - F(u_i))}$$
 $q \le i \le m, \quad \alpha > 0, \quad \tilde{p}_i \in \mathbb{R}.$

• Rescale (normalize) the probability,

$$\tilde{p}_i = \frac{\tilde{p}_i}{\sum_{k=1}^m \tilde{p}_k}.$$

• For a random uniformly distributed variable $\rho \in [0,1]$, we want to find the index ℓ such that

$$\tilde{p}_1 + \tilde{p}_2 + \ldots + \tilde{p}_{\ell-1} \le \rho \le \tilde{p}_1 + \tilde{p}_2 + \ldots + \tilde{p}_{\ell-1} + \tilde{p}_{\ell}.$$

Based on the index, we have

$$x^{(k+1)} = u_{\ell}.$$

Coordinate Descent & Pattern Search 1.2

This method is somewhat similar to the Nelder-Mead method. It also does not use derivatives. Coordinate descent aims to minimize one variable at a time, when $F:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$. The idea is to cycle through the m

coordinate directions, corresponding to e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n . Recall that $e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, with the 1 being in the ith position. We want to line-search along each coordinate direction. The iteration

$$\alpha_k = \min_{\alpha} F(x^{(k)} + \alpha e_k).$$

From there,

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha_k e_k \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

When k = 1, we count forward. When k = m, we count backwards. So, we would do something like

$$e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{n-1}, e_n, e_{n-1}, e_{n-2}, \dots, e_2, e_1, e_2, \dots$$

One modification we can do to this process is to search along a line after a few iterations of the method. However, this modification converges pretty slowly.

Pattern Search 1.3

We can incorporate pattern-search methods to generalize coordinate descent. Suppose there is a set of directions, $p_k \in D_k$. Here, D_k is called the direction set, and p_k is an $n \times 1$ vector representing a direction. The pattern-search methods are not only dependent on the direction vector, but also a fixed step size α_k .

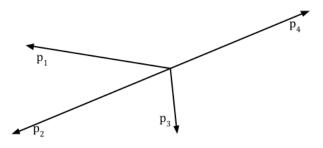
To update α_k , we'll consider a frame of all directions. We'll update the current value by considering every direction. The frame is defined by

$$x^{(k)} + \alpha_k p_k, \qquad p_k \in D_k.$$

(Example.) Suppose our direction set is defined by

$$D_k = \{p_i : 1 \le i \le n\} \cup \{p_{n+1}\},\$$

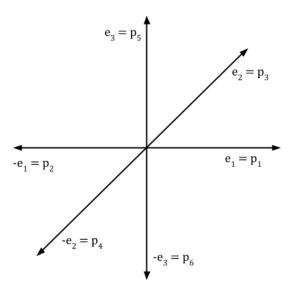
with $p_i = \frac{1}{2m}e - e_i$; and, $p_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2m}e$. This is known as the simplex direction set, and its frame looks



(Example.) In \mathbb{R}^3 , suppose our direction set is

$$D_k = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, -e_1, -e_2, -e_3\}.$$

Then, our frame is defined by



The corresponding algorithm takes the following arguments

- $\epsilon > 0$, the tolerance,
- $1 > \beta > 0$, the contraction,
- $\alpha > \epsilon$,
- $\gamma \geq 1$, the expansion
- D_0 , the initial direction set,
- $M \ge 0$, the reduction measure.

Algorithm 1 Pattern Search Method

```
1: function PatternSearch(\epsilon, \beta, \alpha, \gamma, D_0, M)
2:
           for k \leftarrow 1 to \infty do
                if \alpha \leq \epsilon then
 3:
                      break
 4:
                end if
 5:
                if F(x^{(k)} + \alpha) < F(x^{(k)}) - M\alpha^3 then
 6:
                      p_k \in D_kx^{(k+1)} \leftarrow x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k
 7:
                                                                                                                                               \triangleright For some such p_k
 8:
                      \alpha \leftarrow \gamma \alpha
9:
10:
                else
                      x^{(k+1)} \leftarrow x^{(k)}
11:
                      \alpha \leftarrow \beta \alpha
12:
                end if
13:
           end for
14:
15: end function
```

1.4 Line Search

Recall that the line search was used for selecting the step length. In this context, we'll say that the updates of solution estimates are of the form

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha_k p_k,$$

where α_k is a scalar representing the step length and p_k is a vector representing the direction. To determine a step length, typically a 1D search is done. Given a direction p_k and $F(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$, we have

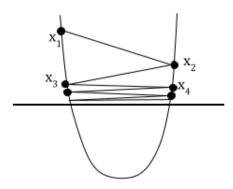
$$\phi(\alpha) = F(x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k)$$

$$\phi'(\alpha) = p_k^T \nabla F(x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k).$$

Note that p_k should be a descent direction; that is, $p_k^T \nabla F(x_k) \leq 0$. Now, to minimize ϕ (i.e., to approximate $\min_{\alpha>0} \phi(\alpha)$), a set of conditions are used:

• Condition 1: "Sufficient" decrease.

(Example.) Note that $F(x^{(k+1)}) < F(x^{(k)})$ alone isn't enough for this condition. To see why, consider $F(x) = x^2 - 1$. Suppose we have a sequence $\{x_k\}$ so that $F(x_k) = 4/k$.



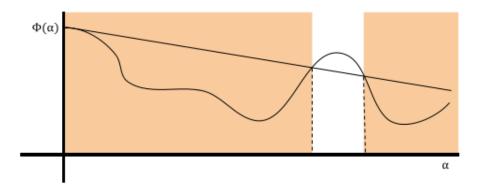
Notice that $F(x_{k+1}) < F(x_k)$, but the result does not converge to the minimum.

With this example in mind, a sufficient decrease is one that satisfies

$$\phi(\alpha_k) \le \phi(0) + \alpha_k c_1 \phi'(0)$$

$$F(x^{(k)} + \alpha_k p_k) \le F(x^{(k)}) + \alpha_k c_1 \nabla F^T(x^{(k)}) p_k.$$

Here, $c_1 \in (0,1)$ is some parameter, with the most common value being $c_1 = 10^{-4}$; this means that the line often looks flat. Visually, this looks like



The orange region denotes a sufficient decrease (where ϕ is less than or equal to the value of the line). The line can be defined by $\ell(\alpha) = \phi(0) + \alpha c_1 \phi'(0)$. Note that the step α may be very small.

• Condition 2: Curvature condition. In particular, we have

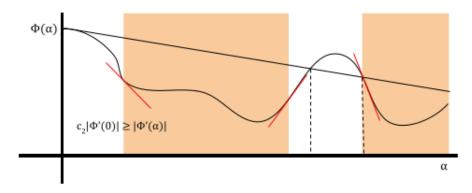
$$|\phi'(\alpha_k) \le c_2 |\phi'(0)|, \qquad c_2 \in (c_1, 1).$$

With this in mind, we'll introduce the **Wolfe-Conditions**, which is essentially a combination of the above two conditions. For step lengths, we have

$$F(x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k) \le F(x^{(k)}) + c_1 \alpha \nabla F(x^{(k)})^T p_k,$$

$$|\nabla F(x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k)^T p_k| \le c_2 |\nabla F(x^{(k)})^T p_k|.$$

Visually, we want to add tangent lines to the points corresponding to $c_2|\phi'(0)| \geq |\phi'(\alpha)|$.



Here, the orange region denotes the region satisfied by the Wolfe-Condition. Wolfe line search is effective in practice, but generally difficult to implement.

1.4.1 Armijo Line Search

A generally effective simple line search method is the Armijo Search, also known as a backtracking line search. This is for a sufficient decrease, where the step size is not too small. In particular, for $\alpha = 1 > 0$, $c_1 = 10^{-4}$, and $\rho = \frac{1}{2}$, we have

Algorithm 2 Armijo Line Search

- 1: while $F(x^{(k)} + \alpha p_k) > F(x^{(k)}) + c_1 \alpha \nabla F(x^{(k)})^T p_k$ do
- 2: $\alpha \leftarrow \rho \alpha$
- 3: end while

1.4.2 Wolfe Line Search

The Wolfe Line Search algorithm has the following arguments:

- $\alpha_0 = 0$
- $\alpha_{\text{max}} > 0 \text{ (e.g., } 100)$
- $\alpha_1 \in (0, \alpha_{\text{max}})$ (e.g., 1)
- $c_1 = 0.9$
- $c_2 = 10^{-4}$

Algorithm 3 Wolfe Line Search

```
1: function Wolfe (\alpha_i, \alpha_{\max}, c_1, c_2)
            i \leftarrow 0
 2:
 3:
            \mathbf{while} \ \mathrm{true} \ \mathbf{do}
                   if \phi(\alpha_i) > \phi(0) + c_1 \alpha_i \phi'(0) or \phi(\alpha_i) \ge \phi(\alpha_{i-1}) and i > 1 then
 4:
                         \alpha^* \leftarrow \text{zoom}(\alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_i)
 5:
                         break
 6:
 7:
                   end if
                   if \phi'(\alpha_i) \geq 0 then
 8:
                         \alpha^* = \text{zoom}(\alpha_i, \alpha_{i-1})
 9:
                         break
10:
                   end if
11:
12:
                   \alpha_{i+1} \leftarrow 2\alpha_i
13:
                   i \leftarrow i+1
             end while
14:
            zoom(\alpha_{low}, \alpha_{high})
15:
             while true do
16:
                   \alpha_j = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_{\text{low}} + \alpha_{\text{high}})
17:
                   if \phi(\alpha_j) > \phi(0) + c_1 \alpha_j \phi'(0) or \phi(\alpha_j) \ge \phi(\alpha_{\text{low}}) then
18:
19:
                         \alpha_{\text{high}} \leftarrow \alpha_j
20:
                   else
                         if \phi'(\alpha_j)| \leq -c_2\phi'(0) then
21:
                               \alpha^* \leftarrow \alpha_j
22:
                               break
23:
24:
                         end if
                         if \phi'(\alpha_j) - (\alpha_{\text{high}} - \alpha_{\text{low}}) \ge 0 then
25:
26:
                               \alpha_{\text{high}} \leftarrow \alpha_{\text{low}}
                         end if
27:
28:
                         \alpha_{\text{low}} \leftarrow \alpha_j
                   end if
29:
30:
             end while
31: end function
```