

**Application of MatLab and Python Optimizers to Two Case-Studies
Involving Groundwater Flow and Contaminant Transport Modeling**

L. Shawn Matott^{a,*}, Kenny Leung^b, and Junyoung Sim^b

^a Assistant Professor, ^b Undergraduate Research Intern

Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Waterloo, 200
University Avenue West, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, N2L 3G1

* Correspondent. Lsmatott@uwaterloo.ca, ph.: 519-888-4567 ext. 38807, fax: 519-888-4349

Abstract

One approach for utilizing geoscience models for management or policy-analysis is via a simulation-based optimization framework – where an underlying model is linked with an optimization search algorithm. In this regard, MATLAB and Python are high-level programming languages that implement numerous optimization routines, including gradient-based, heuristic, and direct-search optimizers. The ever-expanding number of available algorithms makes it challenging for practitioners to identify optimizers that deliver good performance when applied to problems of interest. Thus, the primary contribution of this paper is to present a series of numerical experiments that investigated the performance of various MATLAB and Python optimizers. The experiments considered two simulation-based optimization case-studies involving groundwater flow and contaminant transport. One case-study examined the design of a pump-and-treat system for groundwater remediation, while the other considered least-squares calibration of a model of strontium (Sr) transport. Using these case-studies, the performance of twelve different MATLAB and Python optimizers was compared.

Overall, the Hooke-Jeeves direct search algorithm yielded the best performance in terms of identifying least-cost and best-fit solutions to the design and calibration problems, respectively. The IFFCO (Implicit Filtering for Constrained Optimization)

29 direct search algorithm and the dynamically dimensioned search (DDS) heuristic
30 algorithm also consistently yielded good performance and were up to 80% more efficient
31 than Hooke-Jeeves when applied to the pump-and-treat problem. These results provide
32 empirical evidence that, relative to gradient- and population-based alternatives, direct
33 search algorithms and heuristic variants, such as DDS, are good choices for application to
34 simulation-based optimization problems involving groundwater management.

35 **Keywords:** reactive transport; pump-and-treat; simulation-based optimization; model
36 calibration; MatLab; Python

37 1. Introduction

38 A common approach for utilizing geoscience models in a management or policy-
39 analysis context is to incorporate them into a simulation-based optimization framework –
40 where an underlying process-based geoscience model is linked with an optimization
41 search algorithm (Banta *et al.*, 2008; Freeze and Gorelick, 1999). During optimization, a
42 given search algorithm iteratively adjusts various model inputs (i.e. parameters or design
43 variables) in order to minimize an application-specific cost function computed on the
44 basis of model outputs (i.e. response variables). The fundamental output of an
45 optimization algorithm is an ‘optimal’ configuration of design variables along with the
46 corresponding value of the cost function.

47 Numerous optimization search algorithms have been developed and may be
48 classified according to a variety of alternative taxonomies (e.g. Dréo *et al.*, 2006; Talbi,
49 2002). For this paper, it is convenient to informally divide the spectrum of optimizers into
50 four categories: (1) gradient-based algorithms that use derivative information to guide the
51 search; (2) heuristic algorithms that do not utilize derivative information but instead

follow empirical guidelines and incorporate elements of structured randomness; (3) direct search algorithms that are derivative-free but utilize deterministic stencil-based procedures; and (4) hybrid methods that combine aspects of the previous three categories.

Example applications of simulation-based optimization in a geoscience context include the design of: pump-and-treat systems (McKinney and Lin, 1996), groundwater supply systems (Chu and Chang, 2010), landfill liners (Bartelt-Hunt *et al.*, 2006), agricultural operations (Gitau *et al.*, 2006), waste load allocation strategies (Burn and Yulianti, 2001), and geothermal reservoirs (Akin *et al.*, 2010). In addition, calibration of geoscience models is typically formulated as a simulation-based optimization problem – where uncertain model parameters are adjusted to minimize differences between simulated outputs and corresponding observational data (Massoudieh *et al.*, 2008).

For a given application, researchers have generally used optimization routines that are embedded within the code of the underlying geoscience model (e.g. Akin *et al.*, 2010; Lim *et al.*, 2010). However, various efforts by commercial entities, research labs, academics, and independent enthusiasts have led to the development of numerous general-purpose optimization libraries using the MATLAB and Python programming languages (Dahl and Vandenberghe, 2008; Hart, 2009; Kelley, 1999; Venkataraman, 2009). These libraries can potentially eliminate the need to implement embedded optimization codes if the associated external optimizers are sufficiently robust and deliver good performance when applied to problems of interest.

1.1. Research Objectives

To assist practitioners with identifying “best-in-class” MATLAB and Python optimizers for a given simulation-based optimization problem, a series of numerical

75 experiments were performed involving two case-studies relevant to the geosciences
76 community and a suite of twelve MATLAB and Python optimizers. The case studies
77 consider optimization from two distinctly different contexts – a pump-and-treat case-
78 study emphasizes least-cost remedial system design, while a subsurface strontium
79 transport application considers the best-fit calibration of model parameters.

80 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the
81 selected case-study simulation-based optimization problems; Section 3 describes the
82 optimizers that were selected for consideration in this study along with the associated
83 numerical experiments; Section 4 presents the results of the numerical experiments and
84 compares the performance of the selected optimizers; and Section 5 provides some
85 concluding remarks.

86 **2. Case-Study Simulation-based Optimization Problems**

87 To evaluate the usefulness of MATLAB and Python optimizers in a geosciences
88 context, selected algorithms were applied to two case-study simulation-based
89 optimization problems involving groundwater flow and contaminant transport. The first
90 case-study (i.e. “the calibration problem”) considers the calibration of a subsurface
91 reactive transport model where the primary solute of interest is strontium. The second
92 case-study (i.e. “the pump-and-treat problem”) involves the design of a pump-and-treat
93 containment system for a site containing contaminated groundwater. Additional case-
94 study details are given below.

95 *2.1. The Calibration Problem*

96 The calibration benchmark problem is motivated by the use of a natural zeolite
97 permeable reactive barrier (PRB) to remediate groundwater contaminated with strontium

90 at the West Valley Demonstration Project site in western New York State (Rabideau *et al.*, 2005). To assess the effectiveness of the PRB, a one-dimensional reactive transport model was developed using the MOUSER (MOderately USEr-friendly Reactive transport model) software (Rabideau, 2003). MOUSER is a multi-purpose finite-element reactive transport model which uses an operator splitting algorithm in which the nodal reaction equations are solved sequentially over each time step. In addition to simulating advective-dispersive transport, MOUSER incorporates competitive cation exchange reaction processes; wherein the Gaines-Thomas convention is used for sorbed phase activity (Gaines and Thomas, 1953). Data from laboratory column experiments served as observations for a calibration exercise in which the values of four species selectivity coefficients (C_k , C_{Mg} , C_{Ca} , and C_{Sr}) were estimated by minimizing the weighted sum of squared residuals (WSSR) between observed data and corresponding MOUSER-generated outputs. In the WSSR formulation, data uncertainty may be accommodated via an appropriate assignment of residual weights (Poeter and Hill, 1999). As shown in Figure 1, sampling of the column effluent yielded multiple observations of Na (the reference ion exchange species), K, Mg, Ca, and Sr.

[Figure 1 goes about here]

2.2. The Pump-and-Treat Problem

The pump-and-treat benchmark problem involves a hypothetical groundwater contamination scenario based on the Lockwood Solvent Groundwater Plume Site (LSGPS) located near Billings, Montana (Tetra Tech Inc., 2003). At the site, industrial practices have resulted in the development of two separate plumes containing chlorinated solvents. As illustrated in Figure 2, the plumes (i.e. Plume A in the south and Plume B in

the north) are migrating toward Yellowstone River and six pump-and-treat wells (2 for Plume A and 4 for Plume B) have been proposed to prevent further expansion. Therefore, optimization objectives are to successfully contain both plumes using the minimum amount of pumping.

[Figure 2 goes about here]

Alternative configurations of the proposed pump-and-treat system were modeled using the Bluebird (Craig and Matott, 2005) engine, which uses a high-order implementation (Jankovic and Barnes, 1999) of the analytic element method (AEM) (Hunt, 2006) and assumes two-dimensional steady-state flow in a single-layer aquifer. Unlike finite difference and finite element approaches, AEM groundwater models incorporate hydrologic features as distinct model elements rather than distributed over a spatial grid or mesh. Plume containment goals were evaluated using Bluebird's zone budget feature, which measures the simulated amount of groundwater flux exiting each plume boundary. Following Matott *et al.* (2006), the exit flux was required to be identically zero or else a penalty was assessed and incorporated into the cost function using the additive penalty method (APM) (Hilton and Culver, 2000).

3. Numerical Experiments

A software code known as PIGEON (Program for Interfacing Geoscience models with External Optimization routines) was developed to link the selected Python and MATLAB optimizers with the selected case-study models (i.e. MOUSER and Bluebird, for the calibration pump-and-treat problems, respectively). PIGEON provides users with a human-readable text file interface for configuring the necessary communication between a given combination of geoscience model and external optimizer. The PIGEON

software and user-manual is freely available for download from the following web-site:
www.civil.uwaterloo.ca/lsmatott/Pigeon/Pigeon.html. Incorporation of PIGEON into
other geoscience toolkits, such as HYDROMAD (Hydrological Model Assessment and
Development) (Andrews, 2010) and OpenDA (Open-source Data Assimilation) (Verlaan
et al., 2010), would increase the choice of optimizers available to users of these packages.

The numerical experiments considered a total of twelve optimization routines,
corresponding to 6 MATLAB and 6 Python optimizers. The chosen algorithms are
briefly described in the following sub-sections. Consisting of four gradient-based
optimizers, four direct search optimizers, and four heuristic global optimizers, the
selected algorithms represent a manageable cross-section of different approaches.

3.1. Gradient-based Optimizers (GBO)

Two gradient-based optimizers from the MATLAB optimization toolbox were
evaluated: *fminunc* and *fminimax*. Both of these routines are highly flexible and will
select from a variety of optimization procedures depending on problem characteristics
and the settings of various algorithm options. In this regard, the *fminunc* routine was
configured to use the Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) (Broyden, 1970;
Fletcher, 1970; Goldfarb, 1970; Shanno, 1970) algorithm, while the *fminimax* procedure
defaulted to using Newton's method (Polyak, 2007) for the selected problems. Both
algorithms were instructed to approximate gradients using finite differences.

Two gradient-based optimizers from the Python *scipy.optimize* library were also
evaluated: namely *fmin_cg* and *fmin_tnc*. The *fmin_cg* routine is an implementation of
the Polak-Ribiere Conjugate Gradient (PRCG) algorithm (Grippo and Lucidi, 1997),
while the *fmin_tnc* routine implements a Truncated Newton Code (TNC) (Dixon and

Price, 1988) – an approach that is similar to Newton’s method but uses coarser estimates of the optimal search direction to improve efficiency. As with the MATLAB gradient-based optimizers, both *fmin_cg* and *fmin_tnc* were instructed to approximate gradients using finite differences.

3.2. Direct Search Optimizers (DSO)

Two MATLAB routines implementing alternative derivative-free direct search procedures were evaluated: namely, *imfil* (Kelley, 2009) and *fminsearch*. Along with many other optimizers, the *imfil* routine is provided as a companion to Kelley (1999) – the routine is an implementation of Implicit Filtering for Constrained Optimization (IFFCO), a robust stencil-based approach that is designed to tolerate noise (e.g. from numerical errors (Kavetski, 2006)) in the optimization cost function. The *fminsearch* routine is provided with the MATLAB optimization toolbox and is an implementation of the classic Nelder-Mead downhill simplex algorithm (Nelder and Mead, 1965).

Two direct search routines implemented in Python were evaluated, namely *fmin_powell* and *HookeJeeves*. The *fmin_powell* routine implements Powell’s classic method of conjugate directions (Powell, 1977) and is provided with the *scipy.optimize* library. The *HookeJeeves* routine is a Python implementation of the Hooke-Jeeves pattern search algorithm (Hooke and Jeeves, 1961) – the Python code was directly translated from a freely available C-language implementation (Amit Saha, personal comm.).

3.3. Heuristic Global Optimizers (HGO)

Two MATLAB heuristic optimization routines were included in the comparison experiments, namely *DDSmincon* and *TurboGA*. The *DDSmincon* routine implements

dynamically dimensioned search (DDS) (Tolson and Shoemaker, 2007), an algorithm that focuses on finding “good-enough” global solutions within a specified maximum computational budget. Designed to mimic the trial-and-error approach commonly employed by practitioners, DDS may be viewed as a kind of stochastic direct search procedure (Tolson, personal communication). The algorithm requires no tuning and the search dimension is dynamically refined as optimization proceeds. The *TurboGA* routine is an implementation of the recently developed ‘turbo’ Genetic Algorithm (TGA) (Burjorjee, 2010). As a variant of the classic genetic algorithm, TGA emulates the evolutionary processes of gene encoding, natural selection, mutation and crossover while incorporating new procedures that allow for speedier convergence. The DDS and TGA MATLAB codes utilized in this work are freely available from the original developers of these algorithms (i.e. Bryan Tolson for DDS and Keki Burjorjee for TGA).

Two heuristic optimization routines implemented in Python were evaluated, namely *anneal* and *DiffEvolution*. The *anneal* routine is part of the *scipy.optimize* library and is an implementation of Simulated Annealing (SA) (Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 1983) – an algorithm that emulates the process of physical annealing, where a solid is heated to a high energy state and slowly cooled to drive the material to its lowest energy state. The *DiffEvolution* routine is an enthusiasts’ (i.e. Amit Saha) freely available implementation of Differential Evolution (DE) (Storn and Price, 1997) – a population-based algorithm that perturbs parameter values using a combination of vector differences and evolutionary operators (i.e. mutation, selection and crossover).

3.4. Numerical Experiments

212 All 12 of the selected optimizers were applied to each of the benchmark problems.
213 Because heuristic optimizers are stochastic, multiple (i.e. 9) trials of these algorithms
214 were evaluated in order to determine the central tendency of each approach, expressed in
215 terms of the median trial. For each problem, and as summarized in Table 1, the various
216 optimizers were provided with the same initial iterate and, where required, the same
217 lower and upper bounds for design variables.

218 **[Table 1 goes about here]**

219 Most algorithm parameters were allowed to default to the internal settings of the
220 associated Python or MATLAB implementation. Notable exceptions are as follows: (1)
221 DDS, Powell and SA were configured to use budgets of 1000 and 500 evaluations for the
222 pump-and-treat and MOUSER calibration problems, respectively; (2) PRCG was
223 configured to use a maximum of 100 iterations; (3) DE was configured to use population
224 sizes of 20 and 15 and maximum generations of 50 and 33 for the pump-and-treat and
225 MOUSER calibration problems, respectively; (4) initial step-size vectors for the Hooke-
226 Jeeves algorithm were $[5000, 5000, 5000, 5000, 5000, 5000]^T$ and $[50, 500, 500, 5000]^T$ for
227 the pump-and-treat and MOUSER calibration problems, respectively; (5) for the SA
228 algorithm, a value of 10 was used for the *dwell* parameter and initial temperatures of
229 5×10^4 and 1×10^6 were used for the pump-and-treat and MOUSER calibration problems,
230 respectively; and (6) the TGA was configured to use a binary gene encoding of 15 bits
231 per parameter, population sizes of 50 and 24, and maximum generations of 19 and 20 for
232 the pump-and-treat and MOUSER calibration problems, respectively. Native MATLAB
233 and Python command-lined interfaces were utilized to assign the aforementioned
234 algorithm settings.

6. Results and Discussion

The performance of the selected algorithms, as applied to the MOUSER calibration problem, is summarized in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the top 5 optimizers (i.e. Hooke-Jeeves, TNC, IFFCO, DE, and DDS) delivered comparable results (i.e. within 1% of each other) in terms of minimizing the weighted sum of squared residuals (WSSR) cost function. Of these algorithms, the two direct search optimizers (i.e. Hooke-Jeeves and IFFCO) were the most efficient in terms of computational costs (i.e. lowest required number of model evaluations). Although it yielded a low-WSSR solution, the gradient-based truncated Newton code (TNC) was by far the least efficient – requiring between 150% and 350% more evaluations, relative to the other algorithms. Interestingly, the other 3 gradient-based optimizers (PRCG, Newton and BFGS) performed poorly and yielded the highest optimized WSSR values.

[Table 2 goes about here]

Figure 3 plots the convergence history of the various algorithms, as applied to the MOUSER calibration problem and where WSSR values have been converted to equivalent root mean squared error (RMSE) values. The convergence behavior of most of the algorithms is characterized by an initial fast reduction in the cost function over the course of the first 10-20 model evaluations, followed by much more gradual refinements. For example, within the first 10 model evaluations the Hooke-Jeeves algorithm identifies a solution that is only 20% greater than the WSSR value at convergence.

[Figure 3 goes about here]

With respect to the pump-and-treat problem, the results generated by the chosen algorithms are given in Table 3, sorted according to optimized cost values. For this problem, the top 3 algorithms (i.e. Hooke-Jeeves, SA, and DDS) yielded optimized cost

values that are within 7.5% of each other, and the optimized costs of the top 6 algorithms (i.e. Hooke-Jeeves, SA, DDS, DE, IFFCO, and Newton) are within 15% of each other. The Hooke-Jeeves direct search algorithm yielded the least-cost solution, followed by three of the four heuristic optimizers (i.e. simulated annealing, dynamically dimensioned search and differential evolution). Of the top 6 algorithms, the IFFCO, Newton and DDS algorithms are notably more efficient and required between 200 and 700 fewer model evaluations. Unlike the MOUSER calibration problem, where it yielded the second-lowest optimized WSSR value, the truncated Newton code yielded the highest optimized cost when applied to the pump-and-treat problem.

Examination of the optimized pumping rates reported by each algorithm (see Table 3) suggests the presence of multiple nearly equally optimal pumping strategies. However, these strategies are fairly consistent with respect to the required pumping rates for specific wells. For Plume A, the optimal configurations set Q_1 at a low rate and Q_2 at a high rate; and for Plume B, Q_3 is high-rate, Q_4 is medium-rate, and Q_5 and Q_6 are low-rate.

[Table 3 goes about here]

Figure 4 illustrates the convergence behavior of the chosen algorithms, as applied to the pump-and-treat problem. Four of the selected algorithms (i.e. DDS, Hooke-Jeeves, IFFCO and Newton) are characterized by an initial rapid reduction in the cost function, followed by more gradual refinements. Conversely, three of the four heuristic algorithms (i.e. differential evolution, simulated annealing, and Turbo GA) yielded reductions in the cost function that were more evenly distributed over the entire course of the optimization.

The TNC and Nelder-Mead algorithms appear to quickly “stall”, possibly becoming entrapped in local minima.

[Figure 4 goes about here]

7. Conclusions

Overall, the results from the two benchmark problems indicate that the Hooke-Jeeves algorithm yielded the best performance in terms of identifying least-cost solutions. For the MOUSER calibration problem the Hooke-Jeeves algorithm was also highly efficient and required only 300 model evaluations. For the pump-and-treat problem, the Hooke-Jeeves algorithm was not as efficient and required 993 model evaluations before converging on a solution. If trading off optimized cost for computational efficiency was acceptable, alternative algorithms such as IFFCO (requiring 79% fewer model evaluations, but yielding a solution that is only 14% more expensive than Hooke-Jeeves) or DDS (requiring 23% fewer evaluations and yielding only a 7% more expensive solution) might be considered as practical alternatives. Both of these algorithms also delivered good performance when applied to the MOUSER calibration problem.

MATLAB and Python have become popular delivery mechanisms for both classical (e.g. Hooke-Jeeves, BFGS, and Simulated Annealing) and up-and-coming (e.g. DDS, IFFCO and the Turbo GA) optimization routines. This paper represents an initial exploration of the suitability of such optimizers for use within the geosciences community. The results lay the groundwork for consideration of additional case-studies extending beyond problems involving subsurface flow and contaminant transport.

From a practical perspective, simulation-based optimization is usually employed within a broader context that seeks to utilize geoscience models in support of policy

analysis and decision making. Thus, although this study focused on identifying “best in class” optimization routines, there are a number of additional considerations that need to be addressed to ensure that a given simulation-based optimization effort is appropriate for its intended purpose. For example, sources of uncertainty and variability must be carefully considered using robust methods. Further, calibration efforts must guard against the possibility of over-fitting – where adjusted model parameters yield excellent fits to historical data but nonetheless generate poor predictions.

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420 **List of Figure and Table Captions**

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429 Figure 4: Convergence Behavior of the Selected Algorithms (as applied to the Pump-and-
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Figures

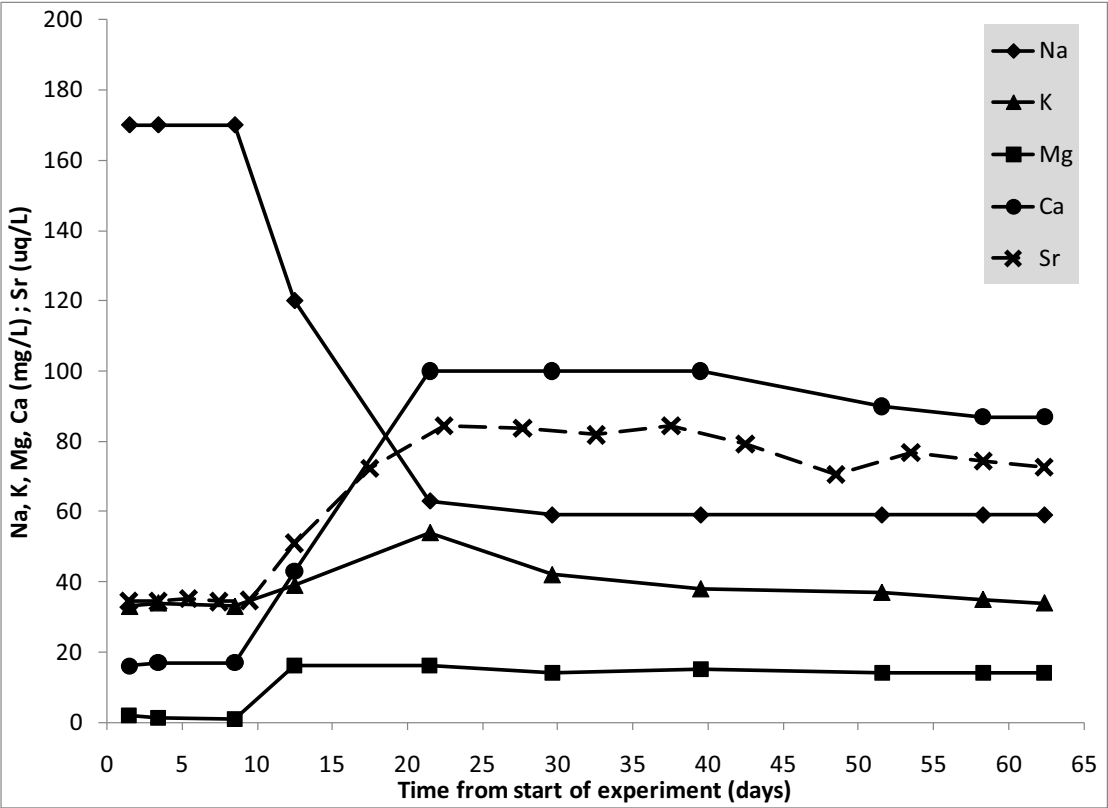


Figure 1: Measured Column Effluent for the MOUSER Calibration Problem
[adapted from Rabideau *et al.* (2005)]

Figures (continued)

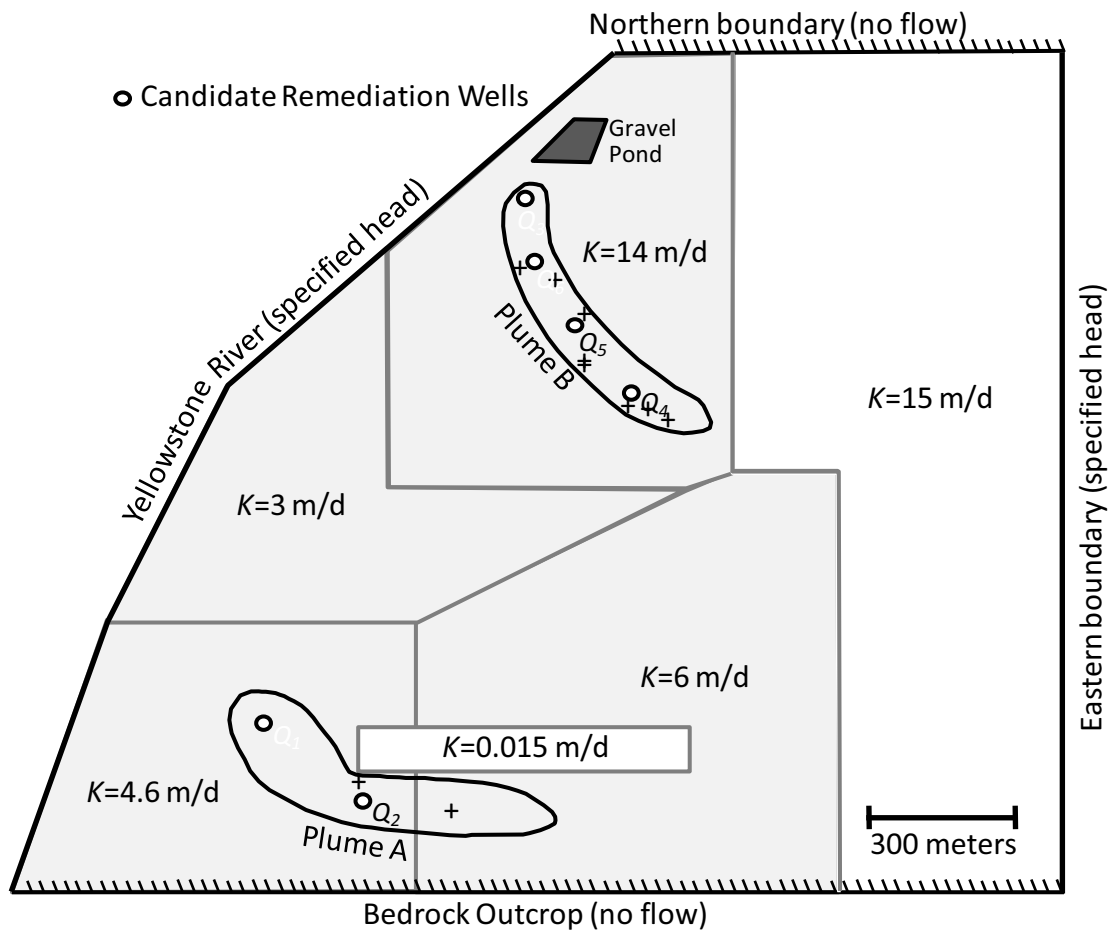


Figure 2: Pump-and-Treat Problem Setup
(K values are hydraulic conductivities of various zones of heterogeneity)

Figures (continued)

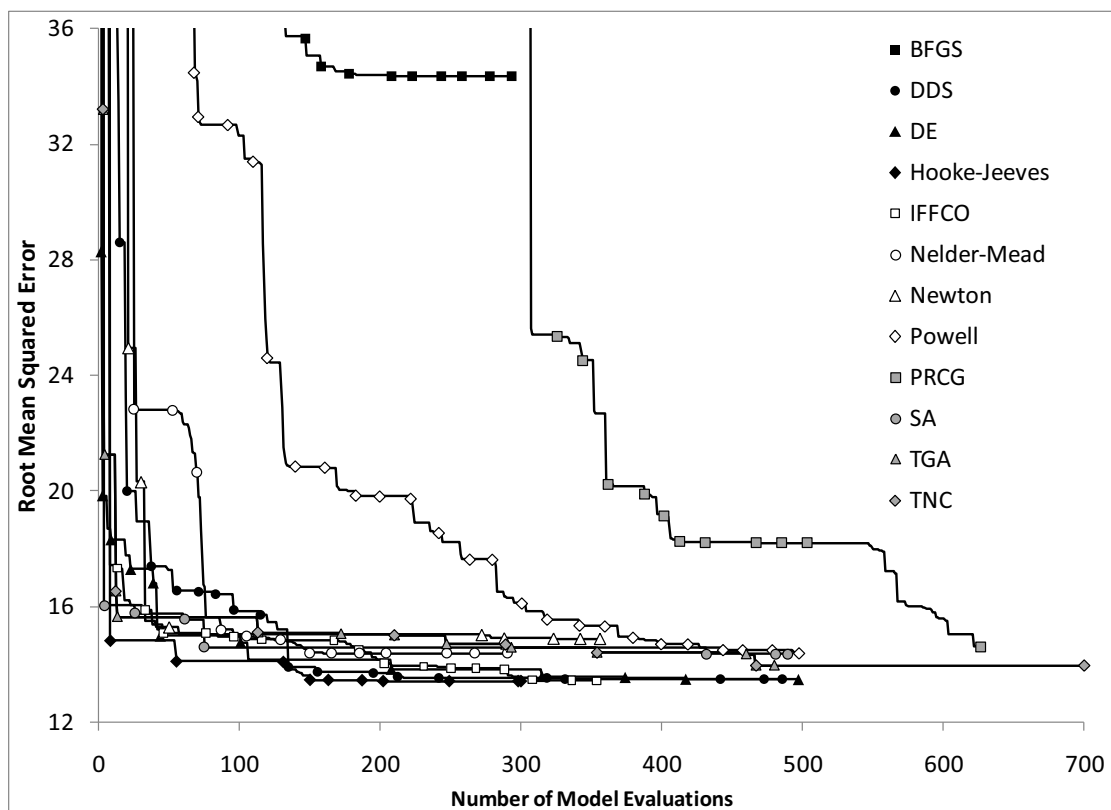


Figure 3: Convergence Behavior of the Selected Algorithms
(as applied to the MOUSER calibration problem)

Figures (continued)

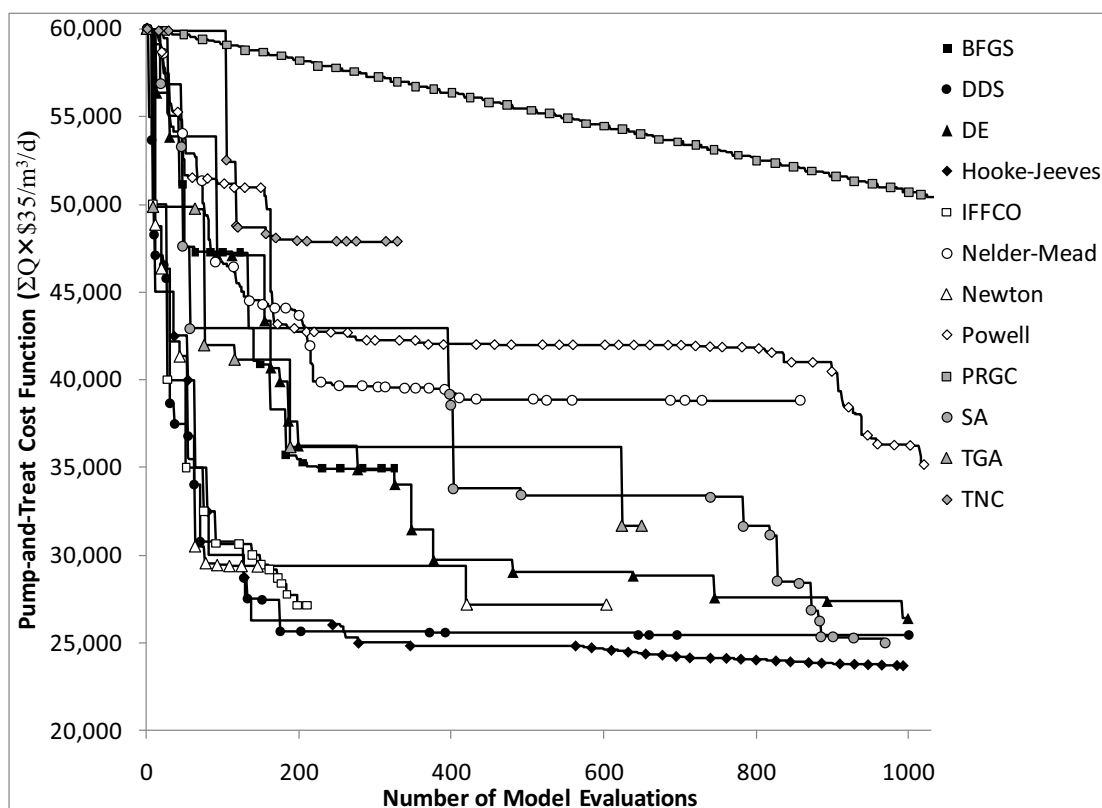


Figure 4: Convergence Behavior of the Selected Algorithms
(as applied to the Pump-and-Treat problem)

Tables

Table 1: Parameter Bounds, Initial Values, and Objective Functions for the Benchmark Problems
(_{sim} and _{obs} subscripts denote simulated and observed concentrations, respectively; $Q_{out,A}$ and $Q_{out,B}$ are the simulated fluxes exiting the boundaries of Plume A and B, respectively)

(a) MOUSER Calibration Problem				
Parameter	Initial Value	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	units
C_K	80	1	100	n/a
C_{Mg}	950	100	1000	
C_{Ca}	880	100	1000	
C_{Sr}	1290	1000	10000	
$WSSR = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{10} \left[\left(K_{i,obs} - K_{i,sim} \right)^2 + \left(Mg_{i,obs} - Mg_{i,sim} \right)^2 + \left(Ca_{i,obs} - Ca_{i,sim} \right)^2 \right] + \sum_{j=1}^{16} 0.001 \times \left(Sr_{j,obs} - Sr_{j,sim} \right)^2 \right)$				

(b) Pump-and-Treat Problem				
Design Variable	Initial Value	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	units
Q_1	283	0.00	566	m ³ /day
Q_2	283	0.00	566	
Q_3	283	0.00	566	
Q_4	283	0.00	566	
Q_5	283	0.00	566	
Q_6	283	0.00	566	
$Cost = \left(\$35 \times \sum_{i=1}^6 Q_i \right) + \underbrace{\left[\$100000 \times (Q_{out,A} + Q_{out,B}) \right]}_{\text{penalty function}}$				

Tables (continued)

Table 2: Optimization Results for the MOUSER Calibration Problem

Algorithm ^a	Optimal WSSR	Computational Cost ^c	Optimal Parameters				Engine (routine)	Type ^b
			C_K	C_{Mg}	C_{ca}	C_{sr}		
Hooke-Jeeves	9364	300	28	299	348	4698	Python (HookeJeeves)	DSO
TNC	9366	990	28	302	347	4704	Python (fmin_tnc)	GBO
IFFCO	9366	354	28	294	343	4643	MatLab (imfil)	DSO
DE	9445	497	29	259	355	4655	Python (DiffEvolution)	HGO
DDS	9468	486	30	329	394	5274	MatLab (ddsmincon)	HGO
TGA	10120	480	30	488	475	6173	MatLab (tga)	HGO
SA	10712	481	22	476	348	4717	Python (anneal)	HGO
Nelder-Mead	10758	284	26	898	333	4707	MatLab (fminsearch)	DSO
Powell	10775	498	23	200	220	3098	Python (fmin_powell)	DSO
PRCG	11113	627	25	860	270	3935	Python (fmin_cg)	GBO
Newton	11517	356	37	551	656	8685	MatLab (fminimax)	GBO
BFGS	61304	293	5	939	100	1984	MatLab (fminunc)	GBO

^a – BFGS: Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno, DDS: Dynamically Dimensioned Seach, DE: Differential Evolution, IFFCO: Implicit Filtering for Constrained Optimization, PRCG: Polak-Robiere Conjugate Gradient, SA: Simulated Annealing, TGA: Turbo Genetic Algorithm, TNC: Truncated Newton Code

^b – DSO: Direct Search Optimizer, GBO: Gradient-based Optimizer, HGO: Heuristic Global Optimizer

^c – Number of required model evaluations before convergence on the reported optimal parameter set

Tables (continued)

Table 3: Optimization Results for the Pump-and-Treat Problem

Algorithm	Optimal Cost $\sum_{i=1}^6 Q_i \times \$35 / (\text{m}^3 / \text{d})$	Computational Cost ^c	Optimal Pumping Rates (m ³ /day)						Engine (routine)	Type
			Plume A		Plume B					
			Q_1	Q_2	Q_3	Q_4	Q_5	Q_6		
Hooke-Jeeves	23714	993	10	170	383	70	22	17	Python (HookeJeeves)	DSO
SA	25018	969	9	196	384	84	17	18	Python (anneal)	HGO
DDS	25441	768	16	169	348	52	23	113	MatLab (ddsmincon)	HGO
DE	26392	992	7	174	369	132	45	21	Python (DiffEvolution)	HGO
IFFCO	27137	210	0	178	317	61	0	213	MatLab (imfil)	DSO
Newton	27193	603	6	155	354	52	70	133	MatLab (fminimax)	GBO
TGA	31705	650	83	176	300	40	100	199	MatLab (tga)	HGO
BFGS	34943	325	10	143	308	79	106	157	MatLab (fminunc)	GBO
Powell	35176	1021	3	158	199	46	177	410	Python (fmin_powell)	DSO
Nelder-Mead	38805	858	258	243	338	27	232	0	MatLab (fminsearch)	DSO
PRCG	47277	1393	223	223	223	223	223	223	Python (fmin_cg)	GBO
TNC	47886	317	272	269	272	272	0	272	Python (fmin_tnc)	GBO

^a – BFGS: Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno, DDS: Dynamically Dimensioned Search, DE: Differential Evolution, IFFCO: Implicit Filtering for Constrained Optimization, PRCG: Polak-Robiere Conjugate Gradient, SA: Simulated Annealing, TGA: Turbo Genetic Algorithm, TNC: Truncated Newton Code

^b – DFO: Direct Search Optimizer, GBO: Gradient-based Optimizer, HGO: Heuristic Global Optimizer

^c – Number of required model evaluations before convergence on the reported optimal parameter set

Computer Code

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