1 Overview of BB

"BB" is a package intended for two purposes: (1) for solving a nonlinear system of equations, and (2) for finding a local optimum (can be minimum or maximum) of a scalar, objective function. An attractive feature of the package is that it has minimum memory requirements. Therefore, it is particularly well suited to solving high-dimensional problems with tens of thousands of parameters. However, BB can also be used to solve a single nonlinear equation or optimize a function with just one variable. The functions in this package are made available with:

> library("BB")

You can look at the basic information on the package, including all the available functions with

> help(package=BB)

The three basic functions are: spg, dfsane, and sane. You should spg for optimization, and either dfsane or sane for solving a nonlinear system of equations. We prefer dfsane, since it tends to perform slightly better than sane. There are also 3 higher level functions: BBoptim, BBsolve, and multiStart. BBoptim is a wrapper for spg in the sense that it calls spg repeatedly with different algorithmic options. It can be used when spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg. Similarly, spg solve is a wrapper for spg in the sense that it calls spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used when spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg. The spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg. The spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used in place of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used for explanation of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used for explanation of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used for explanation of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used for explanation of spg fails to find a local optimum, or it can be used for explanation of spg fails to find a local optimum of spg fails

The package setRNG is not necessary, but if you want to exactly reproduce the examples in this guide then do this:

```
> require("setRNG")
> test.rng <- list(kind="Wichmann-Hill", normal.kind="Box-Muller", seed=1236)
> setRNG(test.rng)
```

after which the example need to be run in the order here (or at least the parts that generate random numbers).

2 How to solve a nonlinear system of equations with BB?

The first two examples are from La Cruz and Raydan, Optim Methods and Software 2003, 18 (583-599).

```
> expo3 <- function(p) {</pre>
  # From La Cruz and Raydan, Optim Methods and Software 2003, 18 (583-599)
 n <- length(p)</pre>
  f \leftarrow rep(NA, n)
  onm1 <- 1:(n-1)
  f[onm1] \leftarrow onm1/10 * (1 - p[onm1]^2 - exp(-p[onm1]^2))
  f[n] \leftarrow n/10 * (1 - exp(-p[n]^2))
  f
> p0 <- runif(10)
> ans <- dfsane(par=p0, fn=expo3)</pre>
Iteration: 0 ||F(x0)||: 0.2024112
iteration: 10 ||F(xn)|| = 0.07536174
iteration: 20 ||F(xn)|| =
                              0.08777425
iteration: 30 ||F(xn)|| =
                              0.005029196
iteration: 40 ||F(xn)|| =
                              0.001517709
iteration: 50 ||F(xn)|| = 0.001769548
iteration: 60 ||F(xn)|| =
                              0.007896929
iteration: 70 ||F(xn)|| =
                              0.0001410588
iteration: 80 ||F(xn)|| =
                              2.002796e-06
> ans
$par
 [1] 3.819663e-02 3.031250e-02 2.647897e-02 2.404688e-02 2.233208e-02
 [6] 2.101498e-02 1.996221e-02 1.909301e-02 1.835779e-02 -7.493381e-06
$residual
[1] 6.645152e-08
$fn.reduction
[1] 0.6400804
$feval
[1] 96
$iter
[1] 85
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
```

Let us look at the output from *dfsane*. It is a list with 7 components. The most important components to focus on are the two named "par" and "conver-

gence". ans\$par provides the solution from dfsane, but this is a root if and only if ans\$convergence is equal to θ , i.e. ans\$message should say "Successful convergence". Otherwise, the algorithm has failed.

Now, we show an example demonstrating the ability of BB to solve a large system of equations, N = 10000.

```
> trigexp <- function(x) {</pre>
  n \leftarrow length(x)
  F \leftarrow rep(NA, n)
  F[1] \leftarrow 3*x[1]^2 + 2*x[2] - 5 + \sin(x[1] - x[2]) * \sin(x[1] + x[2])
  tn1 <- 2:(n-1)
  F[tn1] \leftarrow -x[tn1-1] * exp(x[tn1-1] - x[tn1]) + x[tn1] * (4 + 3*x[tn1]^2) +
           2 * x[tn1 + 1] + sin(x[tn1] - x[tn1 + 1]) * sin(x[tn1] + x[tn1 + 1]) - 8
  F[n] \leftarrow -x[n-1] * exp(x[n-1] - x[n]) + 4*x[n] - 3
  F
  }
> n <- 10000
> p0 <- runif(n)
> ans <- dfsane(par=p0, fn=trigexp, control=list(trace=FALSE))
> ans$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
> ans$resid
[1] 5.725351e-08
   The next example is from Freudenstein and Roth function (Broyden, Math-
ematics of Computation 1965, p. 577-593).
> froth <- function(p){</pre>
  f <- rep(NA,length(p))</pre>
  f[1] \leftarrow -13 + p[1] + (p[2]*(5 - p[2]) - 2) * p[2]
  f[2] \leftarrow -29 + p[1] + (p[2]*(1 + p[2]) - 14) * p[2]
```

Now, we introduce the function *BBsolve*. For the first starting value, both *dfsane* and *BBsolve* find the zero of the system.

```
> p0 <- c(3,2)
> BBsolve(par=p0, fn=froth)

Successful convergence.
$par
[1] 5 4
```

}

\$residual

```
[1] 3.659749e-10
$fn.reduction
[1] 0.001827326
$feval
[1] 100
$iter
[1] 10
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
$cpar
                  NM
method
            М
           50
                   1
> dfsane(par=p0, fn=froth, control=list(trace=FALSE))
$par
[1] -9.822061 -1.875381
$residual
[1] 11.63811
$fn.reduction
[1] 25.58882
$feval
[1] 137
$iter
[1] 114
$convergence
[1] 5
$message
[1] "Lack of improvement in objective function"
```

For the next starting value, BBsolve finds the zero of the system, but dfsane (with defaults) fails.

```
> p0 <- c(1,1)
> BBsolve(par=p0, fn=froth)
  Successful convergence.
$par
[1] 5 4
$residual
[1] 9.579439e-08
$fn.reduction
[1] 6.998875
$feval
[1] 1165
$iter
[1] 247
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
$cpar
method
           Μ
                  NM
    1
           50
                   1
> dfsane(par=p0, fn=froth, control=list(trace=FALSE))
$par
[1] -9.674222 -1.984882
$residual
[1] 12.15994
$fn.reduction
[1] 24.03431
$feval
[1] 138
$iter
[1] 109
$convergence
```

[1] 5

\$message

[1] "Lack of improvement in objective function"

Try random starting values. Run the following set of code many times. This shows that *BBsolve* is quite robust in finding the zero, whereas *dfsane* (with defaults) is sensitive to starting values. Admittedly, these are poor starting values, but still it would be nice to have a strategy that has a high likelihood of finding a zero of the nonlinear system.

> p0 <- rpois(2,10) # two values generated independently from a poisson distribution with me > BBsolve(par=p0, fn=froth) Successful convergence. \$par [1] 5 4 \$residual [1] 7.330654e-08 \$fn.reduction [1] 0.07273382 \$feval [1] 91 \$iter [1] 41 \$convergence [1] 0 \$message [1] "Successful convergence" \$cpar method М NM 50 1 > dfsane(par=p0, fn=froth, control=list(trace=FALSE)) \$par [1] 5 4 \$residual [1] 5.472171e-08

```
$fn.reduction
[1] 490.618

$feval
[1] 32

$iter
[1] 31

$convergence
[1] 0

$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
```

Now, we introduce the function *multiStart*. This accepts a matrix of starting values, where each row is a single starting value. *multiStart* calls *BBsolve* for each starting value. Here is a system of 3 non-linear equations, where each equation is a high-degree polynomial. This system has 12 real-valued roots and 126 complex-valued roots. Here we will demonstrate how to identify all the 12 real roots using *multiStart*. Note that we specify the 'action' argument in the following call to *multiStart* only to highlight that *multiStart* can be used for both solving a system of equations and for optimization. The default is 'action = "solve", so it is really not needed in this call.

```
> # Example
> # A high-degree polynomial system (R.B. Kearfoot, ACM 1987)
> # There are 12 real roots (and 126 complex roots to this system!)
> #
> hdp <- function(x) {
    f <- rep(NA, length(x))
    f[1] <- 5 * x[1]^9 - 6 * x[1]^5 * x[2]^2 + x[1] * x[2]^4 + 2 * x[1] * x[3]
    f[2] <- -2 * x[1]^6 * x[2] + 2 * x[1]^2 * x[2]^3 + 2 * x[2] * x[3]
    f[3] <- x[1]^2 + x[2]^2 - 0.265625
    f
    }</pre>
```

We generate 200 randomly generated starting values, each a vector of length equal to 3.

```
> set.seed(123)
> p0 <- matrix(runif(600), 200, 3)  # 200 starting values, each of length 3
> ans <- multiStart(par=p0, fn=hdp, action="solve")
> sum(ans$conv)  # number of successful runs = 190
> pmat <- ans$par[ans$conv, ] # selecting only converged solutions</pre>
```

Now, we display the 12 unique real solutions.

```
> ans <- round(pmat, 4)</pre>
> ans[!duplicated(ans), ]
                 [,2]
                          [,3]
         [,1]
      0.2799 0.4328 -0.0142
       0.2799 -0.4328 -0.0142
 [2,]
 [3,]
      0.4670 -0.2181
                      0.0000
 [4,]
      0.4670
              0.2181
                       0.0000
 [5,]
      0.0000
               0.5154 0.0000
 [6,]
      0.5154
               0.0000 -0.0124
 [7,] -0.2799
              0.4328 -0.0142
 [8,] -0.2799 -0.4328 -0.0142
 [9,] -0.5154 0.0000 -0.0124
```

We can also visualize these 12 solutions beautifully using a 'biplot' based on the first 2 principal components of the converged parameter matrix.

0.0000

0.0000

0.0000

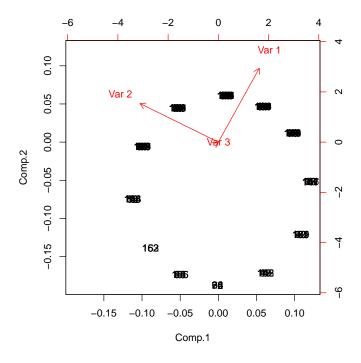
> pc <- princomp(pmat)</pre>

[10,] -0.4670 -0.2181

[11,] 0.0000 -0.5154

[12,] -0.4670 0.2181

> biplot(pc) # you can see all 12 solutions beautifully like on a clock!



3 How to optimize a nonlinear objective function with BB?

The basic function for optimization is spg. It can solve smooth, nonlinear optimization problems with box-constraints, and also other types of constraints using projection. We would like to direct the user to the help page for many examples of how to use spg. Here we discuss an example involving estimation of parameters maximizing a log-likelihood function for a binary Poisson mixture distribution.

```
> poissmix.loglik <- function(p,y) {</pre>
  # Log-likelihood for a binary Poisson mixture distribution
  i \leftarrow 0: (length(y)-1)
  loglik \leftarrow y * log(p[1] * exp(-p[2]) * p[2]^i / exp(lgamma(i+1)) +
           (1 - p[1]) * exp(-p[3]) * p[3]^i / exp(lgamma(i+1)))
  return (sum(loglik) )
> # Data from Hasselblad (JASA 1969)
> poissmix.dat <- data.frame(death=0:9, freq=c(162,267,271,185,111,61,27,8,3,1))
   There are 3 model parameters, which have restricted domains. So, we define
these constraints as follows:
> 1o <- c(0,0,0) # lower limits for parameters
> hi <- c(1, Inf, Inf) # upper limits for parameters
   Now, we maximize the log-likelihood function using both spq and BBoptim,
with a randomly generated starting value for the 3 parameters:
> p0 < runif(3,c(0.2,1,1),c(0.8,5,8)) # a randomly generated vector of length 3
> y \leftarrow c(162,267,271,185,111,61,27,8,3,1)
> ans1 <- spg(par=p0, fn=poissmix.loglik, y=y, lower=lo, upper=hi,
             control=list(maximize=TRUE, trace=FALSE))
> ans1
$par
[1] 0.3598829 1.2560909 2.6634013
$value
[1] -1989.946
$gradient
[1] 2.273737e-06
$fn.reduction
```

[1] -929.1606

```
$iter
[1] 69
$feval
[1] 78
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
> ans2 <- BBoptim(par=p0, fn=poissmix.loglik, y=y, lower=lo, upper=hi,
            control=list(maximize=TRUE))
  Successful convergence.
> ans2
$par
[1] 0.3598832 1.2560913 2.6634016
$value
[1] -1989.946
$gradient
[1] 2.273737e-06
$fn.reduction
[1] -929.1606
$iter
[1] 55
$feval
[1] 57
$convergence
[1] 0
$message
[1] "Successful convergence"
$cpar
method
           M
```

2

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Note that we had to specify the 'maximize' option inside the control list to let the algorithm know that we are maximizing the objective function, since the default is to minimize the objective function. Also note how we pass the data vector 'y' to the log-likelihood function, possmix.loglik.

Now, we illustrate how to compute the Hessian of the log-likelihood at the MLE, and then how to use the Hessian to compute the standard errors for the parameters. To compute the Hessian we require the package "numDeriv."

Now, we explore the use of multiple starting values to see if we can identify multiple local maxima. We have to make sure that we specify 'action = "optimize", because the default option in multiStart is "solve".

This seemingly identifies many solutions. However, except for two solutions, the rest are degenerate (i.e. the mixing proportion, which is the first parameter, is either 0 or 1). The two non-degenerate solutions are actually the same, except that the labels for the first and second components are switched.