# Unconstrained Optimization with MINTOOLKIT for GNU Octave 

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#### Abstract

The paper documents MINTOOLKIT for GNU Octave. MINTOOLKIT provides functions for minimization and numeric differentiation. The main algorithms are BFGS, LBFGS, and simulated annealing. Examples are given.


## 1 Introduction

Unconstrained optimization is a basic tool in many disciplines, and there is no need to discuss its importance. This paper discusses how unconstrained optimization may be done using GNU Octave (Eaton, www.octave.org) using the package MINTOOLKIT (Creel, http:/ / pareto.uab.es/mcreel/MINTOOLKIT). If you would just like to see some examples of how to use the algorithms, skip to section 4. Otherwise, here's some introductory information that explains how algorithms we selected for inclusion into MINTOOLKIT.

### 1.1 Types of problems

We first briefly discuss types of optimization problems, in order to identify the cases where GNU Octave will be a good platform for analysis, and which of the algorithms in MINTOOLKIT will likely work well for given cases.

### 1.1.1 Large/small

What is the number of parameters to be minimized? Let $k$ be the number of parameters. Memory usage of an algorithm will be some function $f(k)$. If this

[^0]function is growing rapidly for a certain algorithm, that algorithm will cease to be useful for "large" problems, since memory will be exhausted. Of course, "large" is a relative term that increases over time as memory becomes cheaper. For "small" problems, the speed of convergence of the algorithm will be of primary importance, since memory resources will not be a bottleneck.

### 1.1.2 Continuous/discontinuous

Gradient-based methods such as Newton's algorithm or quasi-Newton methods rely on the function being differentiable. This will not hold if the function is not continuous. Search-type algorithms will be appropriate here.

### 1.1.3 Convex/nonconvex

A convex objective function will have a single global minimizer, whereas nonconvex functions may have additional local minima. Quasi-Newton methods only use local information in their updates, so they may well converge to a non-global minimum, depending upon starting values. A possible solution is to try a number of starting values. This is likely to work well if the nonconvexity problem is not too severe. When there are many local minima, a search-type algorithm may become more efficient, since the problem of local minima is dealt with automatically and doesn't require the analysts' intervention. After all, who's time is more important, yours, or your computer's?

### 1.1.4 Costly/cheap

Can the objective function be evaluated quickly, or is it time-consuming? Octave is an interpreted language, and is in general slower than FORTRAN, C, or similar. So expensive objective functions are best not implemented in pure Octave. One might go to a different environment for analysis, but in fact it is relatively easy to convert objective functions written in Octave to C++, and call them dynamically from Octave scripts. In this way, the expensive calculations are done using a fast language, while the user deals with the convenient, friendly Octave environment. In fact, C++ functions may make use of the Octave classes, so converting an Octave function to $\mathrm{C}++$ is not very difficult. The algorithms in MINTOOLKIT serve as examples of how this may be done.

## 2 Algorithms

The algorithms in MINTOOLKIT were chosen based upon many sources of information, two of which are Nocedal (1992), for continuous, convex problems, and Mittelmann for global minimization. The goal of MINTOOLKIT is to be able to solve well-posed problems quickly and robustly, using the smallest set of algorithms possible. "Well-posed" is an important adjective here MINTOOLKIT is not meant to be able to solve poorly conditioned problems or problems that can easily fall into numeric precision traps. Please pay attention to how your data is scaled, try to "bullet-proof" your objective function to avoid divisions by zero, etc. Nevertheless, if you find bugs, or have suggestions or comments, please contact the author.

### 2.1 BFGSMIN

The BFGS algorithm is probably the most widely-used quasi-Newton method for moderately-sized continuous problems that are not extremely nonconvex. It is more robust than other quasi-Newton methods such as DFP (Nocedal, 1992), and it is faster than Newton's method, since the Hessian matrix need not be calculated. One could easily create a Newton algorithm using the source code for bfgsmin.

### 2.2 LBFGSMIN

For large problems, the BFGS algorithm may not be feasible, since it requires storing a $k \times k$ matrix. The LBFGS ("L" is for "limited memory") method is able to store all information for updates in vectors, which substantially reduced memory requirements. It may also be faster than the BFGS algorithm in some circumstances, since it may use fewer floating point operations per iteration, depending upon the size of the problem. While it will usually require more iterations that BFGS, it may be faster if each iteration is faster. Liu and Nocecal 1989 is a reference.

### 2.3 SAMIN

When problems are mildly nonconvex, the quasi-Newton methods above, combined with a number of trial start values, may be the fastest way to find the global minimum. This solution is implemented in battery.m. But when the problem becomes less smooth, with many local minima, this solution may fail. Simulated annealing is one of the algorithms that works well in this case. The
implementation by Goffe has been used widely, and is the basis for the version included in MINTOOLKIT. An additional reference is Goffe (1996).
samin differs from the Goffe code in two important ways:

1. The "temperature" is determined automatically. In a first stage, the temperature is increased until the active search region covers the entire parameter space defined as the $k$-dimensional rectangle $\times{ }_{j=1}^{k}\left(l b_{j}, u b_{j}\right)$ where $l b_{j}$ and $u b_{j}$ are the $j$ th elements of the LB and UB vectors that are the lower and upper bounds for the parameters (these are user-specified arguments to samin. Once this is achieved, the temperature decreases as usual.
2. Convergence is defined as two conditions holding simultaneously.
(a) The last NEPS best function values cannot differ by more than FUNCTOL. This is as in Goffe's code.
(b) The width of the search interval must be less than PARAMTOL for each parameter. This allows to avoid accepting points on a flat plateau.

## 3 Obtaining the code

- MINTOOLKIT is available directly from the author, at http:/ / pareto.uab.es/mcreel/MINTOOLK If you get it this way, uncompress the file where you like, change to the MINTOOLKIT directory, and compile by typing "make all" (this supposes that you have Octave installed already). Make sure that Octave knows where the MINTOOLKIT directory is. This option guarantees that you have the most recent version.
- Otherwise, you can obtain MINTOOLKIT as part of the octave-forge package.
- If you happen to be running Debian Linux, you can install a pre-compiled version of octave-forge and all required files by typing "apt-get install octave-forge". This is the easiest (and recommended) option.


## 4 Examples

MINTOOLKIT contains some functions for use by users, and some other functions that users can ignore. The functions for users are

| Function | Purpose |
| :---: | :---: |
| bfgsmin | Ordinary BFGS algorithm |
| battery | Calls bfgsmin with a set of starting values |
| lbfgsmin | Limited-memory BFGS, for large problems |
| samin | Simulated annealing, for global minimization |
| numgradient | numeric first derivative of vector-valued function |
| numhessian | numeric second derivative matrix |

This section gives some very simple examples of the use of the algorithms and functions in MINTOOLKIT. The first examples are intended to clearly illustrate how to use the algorithms. Realism is not important. Then some more difficult problems are considered.

The functions in MINTOOLKIT allow minimization or differentiation with respect to any of the arguments of a function, holding the other arguments fixed. The other arguments can include data or fixed parameters of the function, for example. The argument with respect to which minimization or differentiation is done is denoted by minarg, which by default is equal to 1 . Any function to be minimized or differentiated by algorithms in MINTOOLKIT must follow one of the forms

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { value } & =f\left(\arg _{1}, \arg _{2}, \ldots, \arg _{p}\right) \\
{[\text { value, return }} & \left.1, \ldots, \text { return }_{n}\right]
\end{aligned}=f\left(\arg _{1}, \arg _{2}, \ldots, \arg _{p}\right) .
$$

Special case: If the second form is used and return $_{2}$ is a $k \times 1$ vector, where $k$ is the dimension of minarg, then is assumed to be the gradient of $f$ with respect to minarg, if the algorithm called uses the gradient. Otherwise, it (and any other returns from $f$ ) are ignored by MINTOOLKIT.

### 4.1 Minimization

### 4.1.1 bfgsmin

bfgsmin is called as

$$
[\text { theta, value, convergence }]=\operatorname{bfgsmin}\left(" f^{\prime \prime},\{\text { args }\},\{\text { control }\}\right)
$$

The first argument " $f$ " is a string variable that holds the name of the function to be minimized. The second argument, args, is a cell array that hold the arguments of $f$. The third argument control is an optional cell array of 4 elements. The elements of control are described in Table 1. The outputs of bfgsmin are

Table 1: Controls for bfgsmin

| Element | Purpose | Default Value | Other possible values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | maxiters | -1 (infinity) | any positive integer |
| 2 | verbosity | 0 | 1: summary every iteration; $2:$ only final summary |
| 3 | criterion | 1: strict convergence (f, $\mathrm{g}, \Delta p$ ) | 2: weak convergence (only f) |
| 4 | minarg | 1: first argument | int: $1 \leq$ minarg $\leq k, k=\# a r g s$ |

obvious, except the code values that convergence can take on. These are - 1 for no convergence, maxiters exceeded; 1: convergence according to the specified strong or weak criterion; 2 : no convergence due to failure of the algorithm (e.g., the gradient calculation fails, or a stepsize cannot be found).

Consider a simple example - minimizing a quadratic function. The program bfgsmin-example.m follows:

1;
\# This shows how to call bfgsmin.m
\# example obj. fn
function obj_value = objective1(x, y)
obj_value = $x^{\prime *} x+y^{\prime *} y ;$
endfunction
\# example obj. fn.: with gradient
function [obj_value, gradient] = objective2(x, y)
obj_value $=x^{\prime *} x+y^{\prime *} y ;$
gradient $=2 * x$;
endfunction
\# Check bfgsmin, illustrating variations
printf("EXAMPLE 1: Numeric gradient");
$\mathrm{x} 0=$ ones $(2,1)$;
$\mathrm{y} 0=2 *$ ones $(2,1)$;
control = \{20,2,1,1\}; \# maxiters, verbosity, conv. reg., arg_to_min
[theta, obj_value, convergence] = bfgsmin("objective1", \{x0, y0\}, control);
printf("\n");
printf("EXAMPLE 2: Analytic gradient");
control $=\{20,2,1,1\} ; \#$ maxiters, verbosity, conv. reg., arg_to_min

```
[theta, obj_value, convergence] = bfgsmin("objective2", {x0, y0}, control);
printf("\n");
printf("EXAMPLE 3: Funny case - min wrt 2nd arg.");
control = {20,2,1,2}; # maxiters, verbosity, conv. reg., arg_to_min
[theta, obj_value, convergence] = bfgsmin("objective1", {x0, y0}, control);
```

- The first example uses numeric derivatives, and minimizes with respect to $x$, the first argument of the objective function. The second argument, $y$, is treated as fixed.
- The second example uses analytic derivatives, since it calls objective2, and minimizes with respect to $x$, the first argument of the objective function. The second argument, $y$, is treated as fixed.
- The third example uses numeric derivatives, and minimizes with respect to $y$, the second argument of the objective function, since the 4 th element of control, minarg, is 2 . The first argument, $x$, is treated as fixed.

The output of running this example is

EXAMPLE: Numeric gradient

BFGSMIN final results
STRONG CONVERGENCE
Used numeric gradient


EXAMPLE: Analytic gradient

BFGSMIN final results
STRONG CONVERGENCE

```
Used analytic gradient
Obj. fn. value 8.000000 Iteration 1
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
    param gradient change
    0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000
    0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000
EXAMPLE: Funny case - min wrt 2nd arg.
BFGSMIN final results
STRONG CONVERGENCE
Used numeric gradient
Obj. fn. value 2.000000 Iteration 1
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
    param gradient change
    0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000
    -0.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
```

Notice that analytic gradients lead to faster convergence that do numeric gradients. Also note in the third example, where minarg=2, that minimization can be with respect to any of the arguments of the objective function.

### 4.1.2 lbfgsmin

When the problem is very large, a limited-memory bfgs algorithm may be needed, if bfgsmin is not feasible due to memory limitations. lbfgsmin is called as

$$
[\text { theta, value, convergence }]=\operatorname{lbfgsmin}\left(" f^{\prime \prime},\{\text { args }\},\{\text { control }\}\right)
$$

The first argument " $f$ " is a string variable that holds the name of the function to be minimized. The second argument, args, is a cell array that hold the arguments of $f$. The third argument control is an optional cell array of 5 ele-

Table 2: Controls for lbfgsmin

| Element | Purpose | Default Value | Other possible values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | maxiters | -1 (infinity) | any positive integer |
| 2 | verbosity | 0 | $1:$ summary every iteration; 2: only final summary |
| 3 | criterion | 1: strict convergence $(\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \Delta p)$ | 2: weak convergence (only f$)$ |
| 4 | minarg | $1:$ first argument | int: $1 \leq$ minarg $\leq k, k=\# a r g s$ |
| 5 | memory | 5 | any positive integer |

ments. The elements of control are the same as for bfgsmin, except that there is one more element that controls how many iterations are used to form the quasi-Hessian matrix (this is the memory of the method). The control vector is fully described in Table 3. You can easily modify the above example to use the lbfgsmin method.

It is possible that lbfgsmin can outperform bfgsmin even when memory is not an issue. Remember that both of these algorithms are approximating the Hessian matrix using previous gradient evaluations. If the true Hessian is changing rapidly, then a limited memory approximation may be better than a long memory approximation. The Rosenbrock function is such a case. The program lbfgsmin-example.m minimizes a 200-dimensional Rosenbrock function using both algorithms. The output

EXAMPLE: LBFGSMIN

LBFGSMIN final results
STRONG CONVERGENCE
Used analytic gradient

```
Obj. fn. value 0.000000 Iteration 1117
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
```

| param | gradient | change |
| :--- | ---: | :---: |
| 1.0000 | -0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 1.0000 | 0.0000 | -0.0000 |
| 1.0000 | -0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 1.0000 | 0.0000 | -0.0000 |
| $<196$ | similar lines snipped $>$ |  |


If it converged to true minimizer, print a 1, else a 0: 1

```
Elapsed time = 6.240052
```

EXAMPLE: BFGSMIN

```
BFGSMIN final results
STRONG CONVERGENCE
Used analytic gradient
Obj. fn. value 0.000000 Iteration 876
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
    param gradient change
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 0.0000 -0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    < 197 similar lines snipped>
===================================================
Elapsed time = 25.066189
```

shows that the limited memory algorithm uses significantly more iterations that the ordinary BFGS algorithm, but it is almost 4 times as fast. In general, though, the ordinary BFGS algorithm is recommended when memory limitations are not a problem.

### 4.1.3 samin

For discontinuous and/or seriously nonconvex problems, the quasi-Newton methods are not likely to work well. samin is called as

$$
[\text { theta, value, convergence }]=\operatorname{samin}(" f ", \text { args, control })
$$

The controls for samin are summarized in Table The example program sa-example.m is listed here:

Table 3: Controls for samin

| Element | Name | Purpose | Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | lb | lower bounds | vector of lower bounds for parameters |
| 2 | ub | upper bounds | vector of upper bounds for parameters |
| 3 | nt | control looping | loops per temp. reduction, e.g., nt=20 |
| 4 | ns | control looping | loops per stepsize adjustment, e.g., ns=5 |
| 5 | rt | reduce temp. | $0<\mathrm{rt}<1$, e.g., rt=0.75 |
| 6 | maxevals | limit evaluations | usually, a large number, unless just exploratory, e.g., 1e10 |
| 7 | neps | convergence | positive integer. Higher is stricter criterion, e.g., neps=5 |
| 8 | functol | convergence | last neps function values must be this close to eachother |
| 9 | paramtol | convergence | width of search interval must be less than this value |
| 10 | verbosity | output | $0:$ no outout; 1 : intermediate; $2:$ only final |
| 11 | minarg | arg. for min. | which arg to min. w.r.t., usually = 1 |

```
1;
# This shows how to call samin
#
# remember that }\operatorname{cos}(0)=1, s
# "a" minimizes at 0
# "b" makes the function value 0 at min
# "c" adds some curvature to make the min
# at (0,0,\ldots,0) global.
#
# the closer is "curvature" to zero the more alike are
# the local mins
function f = obj(theta, curvature);
a = sum(exp(-cos(theta)));
b = - exp (-1);
c = sum(curvature*theta.^ 2);
f}=a+b+c
endfunction
k = 5; # dimensionality
theta = rand (k,1)*40-20; # random start value
# if you set "curvature" very small,
# you will need to increase nt, ns, and rt
# to minimize sucessfully
curvature = 0.01;
```

```
# SA controls
ub = 20*ones(rows(theta),1);
lb = -ub;
nt = 20;
ns = 10;
rt = 0.75;
maxevals = 1e10;
neps = 5;
functol = 1e-10;
paramtol = 1e-3;
verbosity = 1;
minarg = 1;
control = { lb, ub, nt, ns, rt, maxevals, neps, functol, paramtol, verbosit
# do sa
t=cputime();
[theta, obj_value, convergence] = samin("obj", {theta, curvature}, control)
t = cputime() - t;
printf("Elapsed time = %f\n\n\n",t);
```

The objective function is the sum of $k$ exponentiated cosine waves, each shifted down so the minimum is zero, with some curvature added in to create a global minimum of $f(x)=0$ at $x=(0,0, \ldots, 0)$. The (edited to shorten) output of the example is here:

GNU Octave, version 2.1 .57 (i386-pc-linux-gnu).
Copyright (C) 2004 John W. Eaton.
This is free software; see the source code for copying conditions. There is ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY; not even for MERCHANTIBILITY or FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. For details, type 'warranty'.

Additional information about Octave is available at http://www.octave.org.

Please contribute if you find this software useful.
For more information, visit http://www.octave.org/help-wanted.html

Report bugs to [bug-octave@bevo.che.wisc.edu](mailto:bug-octave@bevo.che.wisc.edu) (but first, please read

```
http://www.octave.org/bugs.html to learn how to write a helpful report).
First stage: Increasing temperature to cover parameter space
Temperature 1.000000e+03
min function value so far 5.634444
total evaluations so far 1000
total moves since temp change 1000
downhill 503
accepted uphill 497
rejected uphill 0
out of bounds trials }52
new minima this temperature 7
\begin{tabular}{rr} 
parameter & search width \\
-5.132048 & 40.000000 \\
-7.670134 & 40.000000 \\
7.081823 & 40.000000 \\
13.180230 & 40.000000 \\
0.712756 & 40.000000
\end{tabular}
<chopped a bunch of intermediate results>
SAMIN final results
NORMAL CONVERGENCE
Func. tol. \(1.000000 \mathrm{e}-10\)
Param. tol. \(1.000000 \mathrm{e}-03\)
Obj. fn. value 1.471518
\begin{tabular}{rr} 
parameter & search width \\
-0.000002 & 0.000021 \\
0.000002 & 0.000022 \\
-0.000001 & 0.000021 \\
0.000000 & 0.000014 \\
-0.000000 & 0.000024 \\
\(=====================================\)
\end{tabular}
Elapsed time \(=17.320367\)
```

You can see that the minimum was found correctly.

### 4.1.4 A more difficult problem

The Moré-Garbow-Hillstrom test suite contains some relatively difficult minimization problems. bfgsmin by itself can solve some of these problems, but not all of them, since some have multiple local minima, or completely flat regions where a gradient-based method will not be able to find a decreasing direction of search. The "Biggs EXP6" problem \#18 is one for which bfgsmin fails to find the global minimum. This program shows how the global minimum may be found by combining an initial search that uses samin to find good starting values with refinement using bfgsmin to sharpen up the final results. The samin results from running this program, which use a fast temperature reduction and a fairly low limit on function evaluations are:

```
NO CONVERGENCE: MAXEVALS exceeded
Stage 2, decreasing temperature
Obj. fn. value 0.000006
parameter search width
9.844228 0.000000
4.294696 0.000000
-5.231675 0.000000
-3.114330 0.000000
1.076916 0.000000
1.118343 0.000000
```

Then come the BFGS iterations to sharpen up the results. The final BFGS results are:

```
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 33
Stepsize 0.0000000
Using analytic gradient
Objective function value 0.0000000000
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
params gradient change
10.0000 0.0000 0.0000
4.0000-0.0000-0.0000
-5.0000 0.0000 0.0000
-3.0000-0.0000 0.0000
1.0000-0.0000 0.0000
1.0000 0.0000 0.0000
```

- The minimum is found, but note that the solution values are in a different order than those given on the SolvOpt web page, with some negative
signs. This problem suffers from a lack of identification - there are multiple values that give exactly the same value of zero.

An alternative which will often be faster, but is less sure to find the global minimum, is to call bf gsmin with many random starting values and a limited number of iterations. This is implemented in battery.m. You can see an example in This program. This leads to the results

```
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 130
Stepsize 0.0000000
Using analytic gradient
Objective function value 0.0000000000
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
params gradient change
4.0000-0.0000 0.0000
10.0000 0.0000-0.0000
3.0000 0.0000 0.0000
5.0000-0.0000 0.0000
1.0000-0.0000 0.0000
1.0000 0.0000 0.0000
```

The minimum is found correctly, and you can see that the problem is not identified.

### 4.1.5 Tips for successful minimization

Scaling Scaling the data and other constant parameters of the objective function so that the elements of the gradient are of approximately the same order of magnitude will help improve accuracy of the Hessian approximation. This can help a lot in obtaining convergence, and the results will have higher accuracy. This program illustrates. The output is

```
IMPROPERLY SCALED DATA
```

```
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 0
Stepsize 0.0000130
Using numeric gradient
Objective function value 1482250000.0000000000
Function conv 0 Param conv 0 Gradient conv 0
    params gradient change
    0.0000-1540000.0425 19.9958
    0.0000-3080000.0063 39.9916
    0.0000-4619999.9700 59.9874
    0.0000-6160000.0125 79.9831
```

```
    0.0000-7699999.9763 99.9789
    0.0000 -9240000.0188 119.9747
    0.0000-10779999.9825 139.9705
    0.0000-12319999.9463 159.9663
    0.0000-13859999.9888 179.9621
    0.0000-15399999.9526 199.9578
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 67
Stepsize 0.0000000
Using numeric gradient
Objective function value 0.0000000006
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
    params gradient change
    9.9989 -0.0000 0.0000
    20.0013 0.0000 0.0000
    30.0011 0.0000 -0.0000
    39.9991-0.0000 0.0000
    49.9974 -0.0000 0.0000
    60.0010 0.0000 -0.0000
    69.9972 -0.0000 -0.0000
    80.0018 0.0000 0.0000
    90.0004 0.0000 0.0000
    99.9988-0.0000 0.0000
```


## PROPERLY SCALED DATA

```
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 0
Stepsize 0.0083444
Using numeric gradient
Objective function value 100.0000000000
Function conv 0 Param conv 0 Gradient conv 0
params gradient change
\(0.0000-40.00000 .3338\)
\(0.0000-40.0000 \quad 0.3338\)
\(0.0000-40.0000 \quad 0.3338\)
\(0.0000-40.0000 \quad 0.3338\)
\(0.0000-40.0000 \quad 0.3338\)
```

| $0.0000-40.0000$ | 0.3338 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0.0000-40.0000$ | 0.3338 |
| $0.0000-40.0000$ | 0.3338 |
| $0.0000-40.0000$ | 0.3338 |
| $0.0000-40.0000$ | 0.3338 |

```
BFGSMIN intermediate results: Iteration 25
Stepsize 0.0000000
Using numeric gradient
Objective function value 0.0000000000
Function conv 1 Param conv 1 Gradient conv 1
    params gradient change
    1.0000-0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
    1.0000 -0.0000 0.0000
```

You can see that the scaled data gives a more accurate solution, using less than half the iterations.

Bullet-proofing Writing your objective function so that it cannot return NaN or otherwise crash can save a lot of grief. Insert something like if (( (abs (obj_value)

```
== Inf)) || (isnan(obj_value)))
    obj_value = realmax;
endif
```

at the end of the objective function, and then return obj_value. This way, parameter values that lead to crashes are penalized, and will be avoided automatically.

### 4.2 Numeric differentiation

numgradient and numhessian can be used for numeric differentiation. numgradient returns the derivative of an $n \times 1$ vector-valued function with respect to a $k \times 1$ vector in a $n \times k$ matrix. numhessian returns the derivative of a real-valued function with respect to a $k \times 1$ vector in a $k \times k$ matrix. Both functions are quite accurate. numderivatives.m, which follows, shows how it can be done.

```
function obj_value = vectorvalued(x)
obj_value = sin(x);
endfunction
function obj_value = realvalued(x)
obj_value = sum(sin(x));
endfunction
function obj_value = twoargs(x,y)
obj_value = x'*x + y'*y;
endfunction
x = [0;pi/2; pi; 3*pi/2; 2*pi];
printf("gradient of vector-valued f_i = sin(x_i)\n");
g = numgradient("vectorvalued", {x});
g
H = numhessian("realvalued", {x});
H
x = 1:3;
x = x';
y = 4:6;
y = y';
printf("gradient of function of two args\n");
g = numgradient("twoargs", {x,y}, 1);
g
g = numgradient("twoargs", {x,y}, 2);
g
```

The results are:

```
gradient of vector-valued f_i = sin(x_i)
```

$9=$

```
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr}
1.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & -1.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 1.00000
\end{tabular}
H =
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr}
-0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & -1.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & -0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 1.00000 & 0.00000 \\
0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000 & 0.00000
\end{tabular}
gradient of function of two args
g =
    2.0000 4.0000 6.0000
g =
    8.0000 10.0000 12.0000
```


## 5 Testing the code

The program mgh-test.m allows testing the algorithms using the Moré-GarbowHillstrom test suite, obtained from the SolvOpt source code. You can compare the output with these results, if you like. Note that simply applying BFGS with a single start value will sometimes lead to a failure of convergence, or convergence to a non-global minimum. This is expected, considering the nature of the problems. See section 4.1.4 for an appropriate means of proceeding with these problems.

If you find any bugs in the code, please contact me.

## References

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