
Black-box optimization benchmarking of the GLOBAL method

László Pál

Faculty of Business and Humanities, Sapientia – Hungarian University of Transylvania, Miercurea-Ciuc, Romania

pallaszlo@sapientia.siculorum.ro

Tibor Csendes

Institute of Informatics, University of Szeged, Hungary

csendes@inf.u-szeged.hu

Mihály Csaba Markót

Faculty of Mathematics, University of Wien, Austria

Mihaly.Markot@univie.ac.at

Arnold Neumaier

Faculty of Mathematics, University of Wien, Austria

Arnold.Neumaier@univie.ac.at

Abstract

GLOBAL is a multistart type stochastic method for bound constrained global optimization problems. Its goal is to find the best local minima that are potentially global. For this reason it involves a combination of sampling, clustering, and local search. The role of clustering is to reduce the number of local searches by forming groups of points around the local minimizers from a uniform sampled domain and to start few local searches in each of those groups. We evaluate the performance of the GLOBAL algorithm on the BBOB 2009 noiseless testbed, containing problems which reflect the typical difficulties arising in real-world applications. The results show that up to a small function evaluation budget, GLOBAL performs well. We improved the parametrization of it and compared the performance with the MATLAB R2010a GlobalSearch algorithm using the BBOB 2010 test environment. According to the results the studied methods perform similar.

Keywords

Global optimization, stochastic search, clustering, multistart method, benchmarking.

1 Introduction

In this paper, global optimization problems subject to variable bound constraints are considered:

$$\min_{x \in X} f(x), \quad X \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (1)$$

where $f(x)$ is the objective function, X is the set of feasibility, a rectangular domain defined by bounds on the variables and n is the dimension of the search space. In general we assume that the objective function is twice continuously differentiable, although this is not necessary for the global optimization framework procedure – with a proper local search algorithm also nondifferentiable problems can be solved.

Several stochastic strategies have been developed recently in the past in order to solve problem (1). Usually they consist of two phases: the global one and the local phase. During the global phase, random points are drawn from the search space X

according to a certain, often uniform, distribution. Then, the objective function is evaluated in these points. During the local phase the sample points are manipulated by means of local search to yield a candidate global minimum. We assume that a proper local search method LS is available. It can be started from an arbitrary point $x_0 \in X$ and then this algorithm generates the sequence of points in X which converges to some $x^* := LS(x_0) \in X$, that is the local minimizer related to the starting point x_0 .

These methods are also called *Multistart* techniques, because they apply local searches to each point in a random sample drawn from the feasible region (Boender et al., 1982b; Rinnooy Kan and Timmer, 1987a,b). However, the Multistart method is inefficient when it performs local searches starting from all sample points. That is, in such cases some local minimizer points will be found several times. Since local search is the most time consuming part of the method, it should ideally be invoked no more than once in every region of attraction.

Various improvements were proposed by diverse authors in order to reduce the number of local searches, see e.g. (Törn, 1978; Rinnooy Kan and Timmer, 1987a; Guss et al., 1995). The two most important methods which are aimed at reducing the number of performed local searches are: the *clustering* methods and the *Multi Level Single Linkage (MLSL)* algorithms.

The basic idea behind clustering methods is to form groups (clusters) around the local minimizers from a uniformly sampled domain and to start as low number of local searches as possible in each of those groups. In other words, the procedure tries to identify the *regions of attraction* of the given function.

MLSL methods have been derived from clustering methods (Rinnooy Kan and Timmer, 1987b). In this algorithm the local search procedure is applied to every sample point, except if there is another sample point within some critical distance which has a lower function value.

Random Linkage (RL) multistart algorithms introduced by Locatelli and Schoen (Locatelli and Schoen, 1999) retain the good convergence properties of MLSL. Uniformly distributed points are generated one by one, and LS is started from each point with a probability given by a nondecreasing function $\phi(d)$, where d is the distance from the current sample point to the closest of the previous sample points with a better function value.

The multistart clustering global optimization method called GLOBAL (Csendes, 1988) has been introduced in the 80s for bound constrained global optimization problems with black-box type objective functions. The algorithm is based on Boender's algorithm (Boender et al., 1982b), and its goal is to find the best local minimizer points that are potentially global. The local search procedure used by GLOBAL was originally either a quasi-Newton procedure with the Davidon–Fletcher–Powell (DFP) update formula (Davidon, 1959) or a random walk type direct search method called UNIRANDI (for details see (Järvi, 1973)). The main idea behind quasi-Newton methods is the construction of a sequence of matrices providing improved approximation of the Hessian matrix (or its inverse) by applying rank-one (or rank-two) update formula in order to avoid the direct and costly calculations. The DFP formula was the earliest scheme for constructing the inverse Hessian and it has theoretical properties that guarantee superlinear (fast) convergence rate and global convergence under certain conditions. GLOBAL was originally coded in the Fortran and C languages. In several recent comparative studies (e.g. (Mongeau et al., 2000), (Moles et al., 2003)), this method performed quite well in terms of both efficiency and robustness, obtaining the best results in many cases.

Based on the old GLOBAL method, we introduced a new version (Csendes et al., 2008) coded in MATLAB. The algorithm was carefully analyzed and it was modified in some places to achieve better reliability and efficiency while allowing higher dimensional problems to be solved. In the new version we use the quasi-Newton local search method with the Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) update instead of the earlier DFP. Numerical experiments (Powell, 1986) have shown that BFGS formula’s performance is superior over DFP formula. All three versions (Fortran, C, MATLAB) of the algorithm are freely available for academic and nonprofit purposes at

www.inf.u-szeged.hu/~csendes/Reg/regform.php

(after registration and limited for low dimensional problems).

The aim of the present work is to benchmark the GLOBAL algorithm and compare the performance with the MATLAB GlobalSearch solver on a testbed which reflects the typical difficulties arising in real-world applications. The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: The GLOBAL method is presented in Section 2 and the test environment in Section 3. The benchmarking on the BBOB 2009 noiseless testbed (Finck et al., 2009a; Hansen et al., 2009b) is done in Section 4. During this section, we also describe the parameters and its settings in the test. The CPU timing experiment is presented in Section 4.2, while the discussion of the results are done in Section 4.3.

In Section 5, we compare GLOBAL with the MATLAB GlobalSearch method using the BBOB 2010 test environment. The new parameter settings of the GLOBAL method are presented in Section 5.1, while the GlobalSearch method overview in Section 5.2. Section 5.3 contains discussion of the comparison results.

2 The GLOBAL algorithm presentation

The GLOBAL method has two phases: a global and a local one. The global phase consists of sampling and clustering, while the local phase is based on local searches. The local minimizer points are found by means of a local search procedure, starting from appropriately chosen points from the sample drawn uniformly within the set of feasibility. In an effort to identify the region of attraction of a local minimizer, the procedure invokes a clustering procedure. The role of clustering is to reduce the number of local searches by forming groups of points around the local minimizers from a uniformly sampled domain and start local searches as few times as possible in each of those groups. Clusters are formed stepwise, starting from a seed point, which may be an unclustered point with the lowest function value or the local minimum found by applying local search to this point. New points are attached to the cluster according to clustering rules.

GLOBAL uses the Single Linkage clustering rule (Boender et al., 1982b; Rinnooy Kan and Timmer, 1987a), which is constructed in such a way that the probability that a local method will not be applied to a point that would lead to an undiscovered local minimizer diminishes to zero when the size of the sample grows. In this method the clusters are formed sequentially and each of them is initiated by a seed point. The distance between two points x and x' in the neighborhood of the local minimum x^* is defined as

$$d(x, x') = ((x - x')^\top H(x^*)(x - x'))^{1/2},$$

where $H(x^*)$ is the Hessian of the objective function at the local minimum x^* . Let $C(x_s)$ denote the cluster initiated by the seed point x_s . After a cluster $C(x_s)$ is initiated, we find an unclustered point x such that $d(x, C(x_s)) = \min_{y \in C(x_s)} \|x - y\|$ is minimal. This point is then added to $C(x_s)$, after which the procedure is repeated until d exceeds

Algorithm 1: The GLOBAL algorithm

```

1. function GLOBAL( $f, X$ )
2.    $k \leftarrow 0; X^* \leftarrow \emptyset; X^{(1)} \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
3.   repeat
4.      $k \leftarrow k + 1$ 
5.     Generate  $N$  points  $x_{(k-1)N+1}, \dots, x_{kN}$  with uniform distribution on  $X$ .
6.     Determine the reduced sample consisting of the  $\gamma k N$  best points from
       the cumulated sample (entire history)  $x_1, \dots, x_{kN}$ .
7.     Apply clustering to the reduced sample using the points of  $X^*$  and
        $X^{(1)}$  as seed points.
8.     while Not all points from the reduced sample have been clustered do
9.       Let  $\bar{x}$  be the best unclustered point from the reduced sample.
10.       $x^* \leftarrow LS(\bar{x})$ 
11.       $C(x^*) \leftarrow C(x^*) \cup \{\bar{x}\}$ 
12.      if  $x^* \notin X^*$  then
13.         $X^* \leftarrow X^* \cup \{x^*\}$ 
14.         $x_s \leftarrow x^*$ 
15.      else
16.         $X^{(1)} \leftarrow X^{(1)} \cup \{\bar{x}\}$ 
17.         $x_s \leftarrow \bar{x}$ 
18.      end
19.      Apply clustering to the unclustered points using  $x_s$  as seed point.
20.    end
21.  until Some global stopping rule is satisfied.
22.  return The smallest local minimum value found.

```

some critical value r_k . The applied critical distance in our algorithm is based on the one used in (Boender et al., 1982a) which is

$$r_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{n}{2}\right) \cdot |H(x_s)|^{1/2} \cdot m(X) \cdot (1 - \alpha^{1/(kN-1)}) \right)^{1/n},$$

where Γ is the gamma function, $|H(x^*)|$ denotes the determinant of $H(x^*)$, $m(X)$ is the Lebesgue measure of the set X , and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is a parameter of the clustering procedure. If x_s is a local minimizer then a good approximation of $H(x_s)$ can be obtained by using the BFGS method, otherwise $H(x_s)$ can be replaced by the identity matrix. The main steps of GLOBAL are summarized in Algorithm 1.

In line 2, the X^* and $X^{(1)}$ sets are initialized, where X^* is a set containing the local minimizer that were found so far, while $X^{(1)}$ is a set containing sample points to which the local search procedure has been applied unsuccessfully in the sense that already know local minimizer was found again. Moreover, the set $X^{(1)}$ has the role to further reduce the number of local searches by applying clustering using the elements of it as seed points. The number of new drawings is denoted by k that initial value is 0. The algorithm contains a main iteration loop and the steps from line 4 to line 20 will be repeated until some global stopping rule is satisfied. In line 5, N points are generated uniformly on X . In line 6, a reduced sample is constructed by taking those $\gamma k N$ points of the cumulated sample that have the lowest function values. A clustering procedure is then applied to the reduced sample (line 7). The elements of X^* are first

chosen as seed points, followed by the elements of $X^{(1)}$. In case of a seed point x_s , we add all unclustered reduced sample points which are within the critical distance r_k to the cluster initiated by x_s . In the first iteration, X^* and $X^{(1)}$ are empty and thus no clustering takes place.

Between lines 8 and 20 we iterate over the unclustered points from the reduced sample and apply a local search procedure to them to find a local minimizer point x^* . The point \bar{x} is then added to the $C(x^*)$ cluster (line 11). If x^* is a new local minimizer point, then we add it to X^* (line 13) and choose it as the next seed point (line 14), otherwise we add \bar{x} to $X^{(1)}$ (line 16) and choose it as the next seed point (line 17). In line 19, we apply again the clustering procedure to the unclustered reduced sample points which are within a critical distance from the cluster initiated by the seed point x_s . In line 22, the smallest local minimum value is returned.

One of the questions in applying a stochastic method is when to stop it. Several approaches based on different assumptions about the properties of possible objective functions f and using some stochastic techniques have been proposed to design a proper stopping rule.

A Bayesian stopping rule for the Multistart algorithm has been introduced by (Zieliński, 1981) and further developed by (Boender and Zieliński, 1982; Boender and Rinnooy Kan, 1987, 1991; Betrò and Schoen, 1992) and others.

Most Bayesian stopping rules for multistart techniques are based on the collected knowledge about the size of the sample and the number of local minimizers detected. In our GLOBAL algorithm we stop the search when it has not found any new local minimizer point in the actual iteration step.

3 The test environment description

In this paper, the numerical experiments are conducted on a testbed comprising twenty-four noiseless test functions (Finck et al., 2009a; Hansen et al., 2009b). These functions have been constructed so that they reflect the real-world application difficulties and are split into several groups like separable functions, functions with low or moderate conditioning, functions with bad conditioning and unimodal, multi-modal with adequate global structure, multi-modal with weak global structure. All functions are scalable with the dimension, thus in our tests we used 2, 3, 5, 10 and 20 as dimensions. Additionally, all functions are defined over \mathbb{R}^n , while the actual search domain is $[-5; 5]^n$. Each of the functions have an artificially chosen optimal function value. Consequently, for each function different instances can be generated. Each function is tested over five different instances and the experiments will be repeated three times for each instance. The algorithm performance is evaluated over all 15 trials. The success criterion of a run is to reach the $f_t = f_{opt} + \Delta f_t$ target value, where f_{opt} is the optimal function value, and Δf_t is the precision to reach.

In order to quantify the search cost of an algorithm, a performance measure should be provided. The main performance measure adopted in this paper (Hansen et al., 2009a; Price, 1997) is the runtime ERT, Expected Running Time. The ERT number depends on a given target function value, and is computed over all relevant trials as the number of function evaluations used during the trials while the best function value did not reach f_t , summed over all trials and divided by the number of trials that actually reached f_t . Formally

$$ERT(f_t) = \frac{p_S \cdot RT_S + (1 - p_S) \cdot RT_{US}}{p_S},$$

where p_S is the probability of success, the ratio of the number of successful runs over the total number of runs, RT_S and RT_{US} denote the average number of function evaluations for successful and unsuccessful trials, respectively.

The results are also presented using the Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (ECDF) of the distribution of ERT divided by n to reach a given target function value. It shows the empirical cumulated probability of success on the problems considered depending on the allocated budget. For a more detailed environment and experimental description see (Hansen et al., 2009a, 2010a).

4 Benchmarking GLOBAL on the BBOB 2009 noiseless testbed

4.1 Parameter tuning and setup

GLOBAL has six parameters to set: the number of sample points to be generated within an iteration step, the number of best points to be selected for the reduced sample, the stopping criterion parameter for the local search, the maximum number of function evaluations allowed for local search, the maximum number of local minima to be found, and the type of local method to be used. All these parameters have a default value and usually it is enough to change only the first three of them.

In all dimensions and for all functions we used 300 sample points, and the two best points were kept for the reduced sample. In 2, 3, and 5 dimensions we used the Nelder-Mead simplex method (Nelder and Mead, 1965) implemented by (Kelley, 1999) as a local search with 10^{-8} as termination tolerance parameter value and with 5,000 as the maximum number of function evaluations. In 10 and 20 dimensions with the f_3 , f_4 , f_7 , f_{16} , f_{23} functions we used the previous settings with a local search tolerance of 10^{-9} . Finally, in the case of the remaining functions we used the MATLAB `fminunc` function as the local search method using the BFGS update formula with 10,000 as the maximum number of function evaluations and with 10^{-9} as the termination tolerance parameter value.

As it can be observed, during the parameter tuning we used two different settings. In lower dimensions we used the Nelder-Mead method while in higher dimensions the BFGS local search was applied to all functions except for five of them. Although this kind of a priori parameter settings are not suggested, the two important parameters of GLOBAL (the number of sample points, the number of best points selected) were the same on the entire testbed. The different settings may be characterized with the entropy measure crafting effort (Price, 1997; Hoos and Stützle, 1998) for each dimensionality in the following way:

$$\text{CrE} = - \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{n_k}{n} \ln \left(\frac{n_k}{n} \right),$$

where $n = \sum_{k=1}^K n_k$ is the number of functions in the testbed and n_k is the number of functions, where the parameter setting with index k was used for $k = 1, \dots, K$, K is the number of different parameter settings. The crafting effort $\text{CrE} = 0$ for dimensions 2, 3, and 5, while for $D = 10, 20$ it can be calculated as $\text{CrE}_{10} = \text{CrE}_{20} = -\left(\frac{5}{24} \ln \frac{5}{24} + \frac{19}{24} \ln \frac{19}{24}\right) = 0.5117$.

4.2 CPU timing experiment

For the timing experiment the GLOBAL algorithm was run on the test function f_8 , and restarted until at least 30 seconds had passed (according to Figure 2 in (Hansen et al., 2009a)). These experiments have been conducted with an Intel Core 2 Duo 2.00

GHz processor computer under Windows XP using the MATLAB 7.6.0.324 version. We have completed two experiments using the BFGS and the simplex local search methods. The other algorithm parameters were the same. In the first case (BFGS) the results were $(2.8, 2.9, 3.0, 3.0, 3.2, 3.2) \cdot 10^{-4}$ seconds, while in the second case (Nelder-Mead simplex) they were $(2.6, 2.9, 3.4, 4.6, 7.5, 21.0) \cdot 10^{-4}$ seconds per function evaluation in dimensions 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, and 40, respectively. The CPU time of a function evaluation of the BFGS search grows sub-linearly with the dimension. The slow increase in the CPU time is due to the initializing process. On the other hand in lower dimensions there will be more restarts (before surpassing the 30 seconds) which means that there will be more initializations. We assume the CPU time per function evaluation would increase given that the dimensionality is large enough. For the Nelder-Mead simplex method, the CPU time increases with the dimension linearly up to 20 dimensional problems, while for 40 dimensional functions a rapid increase can be observed.

4.3 Results and discussion

The GLOBAL method has been tested in a black-box scenario on 24 noiseless benchmark functions. Results from experiments according to (Hansen et al., 2009a) on the benchmark functions given in (Finck et al., 2009a; Hansen et al., 2009b) are presented in the Figure 1 and Tables 2 and 3.

Tables 2 and 3 give the Expected Running Time (ERT) for targets $10^{1, -1, -3, -5, -7}$ divided by the best ERT obtained during BBOB 2009, together with its standard deviation (smaller values in parentheses), for $D = 5$ and $D = 20$. The median number of conducted function evaluations is additionally given in *italics*, if $\text{ERT}(10^{-7}) = \infty$. #succ is the number of trials that reached the final target $f_{\text{opt}} + 10^{-8}$. The ERT values can also be followed in the Figure 1. Numbers above ERT-symbols indicate the number of successful trials. The thick line with diamonds shows the single best results from BBOB 2009 for $\Delta f = 10^{-8}$. Additional grid lines show linear and quadratic scaling.

For low search space dimensions the algorithm shows good results on many functions. The number of solved functions amounts to 18, 16, 11, 8, 5 out of 24 functions for dimensions 2, 3, 5, 10, 20. We can notice that GLOBAL obtains the highest number of successful trials in separable, moderate, illconditioned and weak structure noiseless functions, specifically for $f_1, f_2, f_5, f_6, f_8, f_9, f_{10}, f_{11}, f_{12}, f_{21}$ and f_{22} in dimensions 2, 3, and 5. For f_1, f_2, f_5, f_8 and f_9 , the method obtained successful trials for all dimensions.

The scaling of the expected number of function evaluations with the problem dimension is closely linear for f_8, f_9 and is approximately quadratic for f_2 . For f_1 and f_5 we can observe a decreasing tendency (see Figure 1). These results are due to the stochastic nature of the method, usually the ERT grows sub-linearly on these functions. The running times to reach the final target function value in case of the solved problems in 20 dimension range between $25n$ and $2,500n$.

Considering the different function subgroups, the best behavior of the GLOBAL algorithm can be observed on the separable (except f_3 and f_4), moderate (except f_7) and ill-conditioned functions. The good performance on these subgroups are due to the unimodal property of the objective functions. On the other hand, most of these functions have a quite large region of attraction of the global optimum (i.e. f_8 and f_9), hence there is a high chance to sample in this ones. In case of the f_6 (Attractive sector) and f_{11} (Discuss) functions in dimension 20 up to the target precision 10^{-1} , all the 15 trials were successful, but the method fails to reach $\Delta f = 10^{-3}$. The results on the attractive sector function can be improved by increasing the function evaluation limit of the BFGS method, while for the Discuss function f_{11} one cannot find a better target

precision value than 10^{-1} in 20-D due to a problem of the BFGS local search. In this case the local search method stops too early because it cannot decrease the objective function along the current search direction. Finding the final target function values for f_8 and f_9 are mainly due to the BFGS local search and partly to the property of these functions presented previously. GLOBAL performs also well on Gallagher's multimodal functions f_{21} and f_{22} with weak global structure. Compared to the best algorithm from BBOB 2009, the GLOBAL method can improve the ERT in dimensions 5 and 20 on the latter functions.

The hardest problems for which the method did not reach the solution in higher dimensions are the multimodal Rastrigin functions f_3, f_4, f_{15}, f_{24} . In case of the last one even in 2-D we cannot find a better target precision value than 10^{-2} , while in the case of the functions f_3, f_4 , and f_{15} the Δf_{best} value is not better than 10 in 5-D and 10^2 in 20-D, respectively. The common feature of these functions is that they have more than 10^n local optima. Therefore the algorithm cannot discover the overall function structure. Moreover, the size of the basin of attraction of the global optimum is small for this problems, and hence the algorithm fails to satisfactorily sample in these regions. GLOBAL also fail to reach a target value below 1 on the multimodal functions f_{17} and f_{19} with adequate global structure in 5-D and 10 in 20-D. The reason is the same as presented above.

Considering the individual maximum number of function evaluations, GLOBAL performs well on ill-conditioned functions and on the multimodal weakly structured functions for a budget smaller than a thousand times n . A similar conclusion has been reached in (Hansen et al., 2010b), where 31 algorithms were compared on a testbed of functions in dimensions up to 40. GLOBAL was ranked together with NEWUOA (Powell, 2006) and MCS (Huyer and Neumaier, 1999) best for a function evaluation budget of up to $500n$ function values, but was no longer competitive when the budget was significantly larger.

5 Comparing GLOBAL with the MATLAB GlobalSearch solver using the BBOB 2010 framework

5.1 Improved parameter settings in GLOBAL

The most important parameters used in GLOBAL are the number of sample points to be drawn uniformly in one iteration cycle, the number of best points selected from the actual sample, and the maximal number of function evaluations allowed for a local search. In our previous works (Csendes et al., 2008; Pál et al., 2009), we tuned this parameters empirically and individually for a set of problems without directly including information like the dimension of the problem or the maximal function evaluation budget.

Although, GLOBAL has its own stopping criteria, we introduced a new parameter (`maxfunevals`) with which we control the total number of function evaluations. This parameter is also used in setting the default value of the sample number and the maximal number of function evaluations for local search in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number_of_sample_points} &= \min(50 * n, \text{maxfunevals} * 1\%), \\ \text{func_eval_nr_in_local_search} &= \text{maxfunevals} * 10\%, \end{aligned}$$

where n is the dimension of the problem. In our tests, the function evaluation budget is equal to $\text{maxfunevals} = 5 * 10^3 * n$, hence the upper limit of the function evaluations in 20 dimension is 10^5 . On the whole testbed we use the MATLAB `fmincon` local search

method with the interior-point algorithm and with $TolFun = 10^{-12}$ termination tolerance parameter value. The number of the selected best points is 2. The corresponding crafting-effort is equal to $CrE = 0$.

5.2 Overview of the MATLAB GlobalSearch solver

GlobalSearch is a solver designed to find global optima of smooth constrained non-linear problems. The solver was introduced in the MATLAB R2010a version and is available in the new Global Optimization Toolbox. It is a multistart type method which runs a local search from a variety of starting points in order to find a global minimum, or multiple local minima. The solver uses a scatter-search mechanism for generating start points. It analyzes them and rejects those that are unlikely to improve the best local minimum found so far. Essentially, GlobalSearch accepts a start point only when it determines that the point has a good chance of obtaining a global minimum.

The method uses the MATLAB `fmincon` function as the local search method. It is an interior-point algorithm which aim is to find the local minimum of a constrained nonlinear multivariable function. Nevertheless, it can be applied to bound constrained problems.

The GlobalSearch solver is similar to the commercial optimization software TOMLAB/OQNLP and both of them are based on the paper (Ugray et al., 2007). Although GlobalSolver is not considered a state of art algorithm, based on some recent comparative studies (Rios and Sahinidis, 2010) on bound constrained problems, its commercial counterpart belongs to the best derivative free optimization algorithms. The main reason of choosing the GlobalSolver for comparisons was that this method is very similar to the GLOBAL procedure, involving cluster formation by identifying the regions of attraction and avoiding local searches from every trial point. On the other hand, as we used GLOBAL with `fmincon`, our aim was to compare the two methods based on the different global phases used by them. The main steps of the GlobalSearch method are summarized in Algorithm 2.

The most important parameters of the GlobalSearch solver are the number of trial points (`NumTrialPoints`) with a default value of 1,000, and the number of points used in Stage 1 (`NumStageOnePoints`) with a default value of 200. We do not have any possibility to control the total function evaluation budget, but we can impose a running time limit using the `MaxTime` parameter. The starting point (used in line 2, Algorithm 2) chosen by us is the center of the search domain $[-5; 5]^n$, but it can also randomly be selected. In the conducted experiments we used the default parameters of the method. For more parameters and settings see the "Using GlobalSearch and MultiStart" explanation in the Global Optimization Toolbox Users Guide for the MATLAB R2010a version.

5.3 Results

In this section we show the comparison results obtained for the GLOBAL and GlobalSearch algorithms. The conducted experiment results according to (Hansen et al., 2010a) on the benchmark functions given in (Finck et al., 2009b; Hansen et al., 2009c) are presented in the Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 and Tables 4 and 5.

In Tables 4 and 5 we can follow the running time in terms of the number of function evaluations for dimension 5 and 20 in comparison with the respective best algorithm of BBOB 2009 and 2010. These tables also presents the **statistical significance** of the difference between the two methods, which is tested with the rank-sum test for a given target Δf_t using, for each trial, either the number of needed function evaluations to

Algorithm 2: The GlobalSearch solver steps

-
1. **function** GlobalSearch(f, X, x_0)
 2. Run `fmincon` from x_0 .
 3. Generate N_1 trial points using the scatter-search mechanism on X .
 4. Stage 1: Start a local search from the best trial point among the first N_2 points.
 5. Initialize the regions of attraction, counters, threshold, based on the point find in Stage 1 and in the first step of the algorithm.
 6. **repeat**
 7. Stage 2: Examine the a remaining trial points and run a local search from a point x , if x is not in any existing basin and $f(x) < threshold$.
 8. **until** Reaching *MaxTime* seconds or running out of trial points
 9. **return** The smallest local minimum value found.
-

reach Δf_t , or, if the target was not reached, the best Δf -value achieved, measured only up to the smallest number of overall function evaluations for any unsuccessful trial under consideration if available. Bold entries are statistically significantly better (according to the rank-sum test) compared to the other algorithm, with $p = 0.05$ or $p = 10^{-k}$ where $k > 1$ is the number following the \star symbol, with Bonferroni correction of 48.

Both algorithms perform very similar considering the number of solved problems in 5 and 20-D. The GlobalSearch method solves 9 and 5 out of 24 functions in 5 and 20-D, while GLOBAL solves the same problems and in addition to that the f_{22} function in 20-D. Compared to the best algorithm from BBOB 2009 and 2010, the GlobalSearch method can improve the ERT in dimensions 5 and 20 on $f_9, f_{10}, f_{11}, f_{13}$, and f_{14} , while GLOBAL performs better on f_{10}, f_{11} and f_{22} . These improvements can be observed in the case of a few target values.

Considering the ERT numbers, the GlobalSearch solver is significantly better than GLOBAL on $f_1, f_2, f_5, f_6, f_9, f_{10}, f_{11}, f_{13}, f_{14}$ and f_{19} in dimension 5 as well as in dimension 20. These improvements can be observed usually on unimodal functions and are due to the started local search in line 2 of the Algorithm 2. In contrast to that, the GLOBAL starts the first local search after evaluating all the sample points drawn. On the rest of the functions we can observe similar efficiency values, except those (f_{21}, f_{22}), where GLOBAL performs better. Usually these results appear not statistically significant.

Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the empirical cumulative distributions of the runtime in number of function evaluations and of the runtime ratio between the two algorithms in dimensions 5 and 10. The x -values in the figures show a given budget (a given number of function evaluations, divided by dimension), while the y -value gives the proportion of problems where the Δf_t -value was reached within the given budget. As it can be observed, the runtime is shorter for GlobalSearch on separable, moderate and ill-conditioned functions for the reason given previously. A shorter runtime can be observed for GLOBAL on multi-modal functions. The latter fact is due to the way of cluster formation of the two methods. The GLOBAL algorithm uses the Single Linkage method which approximates the level sets more accurately, while GlobalSearch makes the assumption that basins of attraction are spherical. In this case again is true that both of the algorithms work best in the beginning of the search up to a budget of $1,000n$.

The timing experiment results for the two algorithms can be found in Table 1.

Algorithm	2-D	3-D	5-D	10-D	20-D	40-D	80-D
GLOBAL	6.8 (215)	6.1 (147)	5.3 (87)	4.3 (43)	3.8 (17)	3.5 (5)	3.6 (2)
GlobalSearch	9.8 (7)	9.5 (8)	7.9 (7)	5.8 (5)	4.6 (2)	3.8 (1)	4.1 (1)

Table 1: CPU time per function evaluation in seconds* 10^{-4} and the corresponding restarts numbers

It contains the CPU time per function evaluation and the corresponding number of restarts. As it can be observed, for both algorithms the necessary CPU time decreases with increasing dimension up to 40-D. In the case of the GLOBAL method, this is most likely due to a larger number of initialization procedures for the required multiple runs of the algorithm until thirty seconds have passed, while in the case of the GlobalSearch method there is no dependency to be recognized between the number of restarts and CPU time decrease. The relative small number of restarts are due to the lack of a proper termination criteria.

Using the new parameter settings, GLOBAL is more adaptive to the problem dimension and the found results are similar to the ones obtained on the BBOB 2009 testbed. Despite the fact that the GlobalSearch uses a more sophisticated sampling phase we could not discover important differences between the two methods. However, the GlobalSearch solver is faster than GLOBAL in the initial stage of the optimization due to the local search started before the sampling phase.

6 Summary and conclusion

We have benchmarked the GLOBAL algorithm on the BBOB 2009 noiseless testbed. As a result of the evaluation, we can state that the investigated method performs well on ill-conditioned and multimodal, weakly structured functions up to a small budget, but on multimodal functions the results are usually poorer. We have tried new parameters for the GLOBAL method and compared it with the MATLAB GlobalSearch solver using the BBOB 2010 framework. The two methods performed similar except the runtime measured in number of function evaluations. In these cases the GlobalSearch is better on a few problems. The GLOBAL with the new parameters are more adaptive to the dimension of the problem. Based on the comparison we can conclude that in the early stages of the optimization the speed of GLOBAL can be improved by incorporating a local search before the global phase while in the later stages a more sophisticated sampling phase is needed in order to take advantage of the more function evaluations.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the grant TÁMOP-4.2.2/08/1/2008-0008 of the Hungarian National Development Agency.

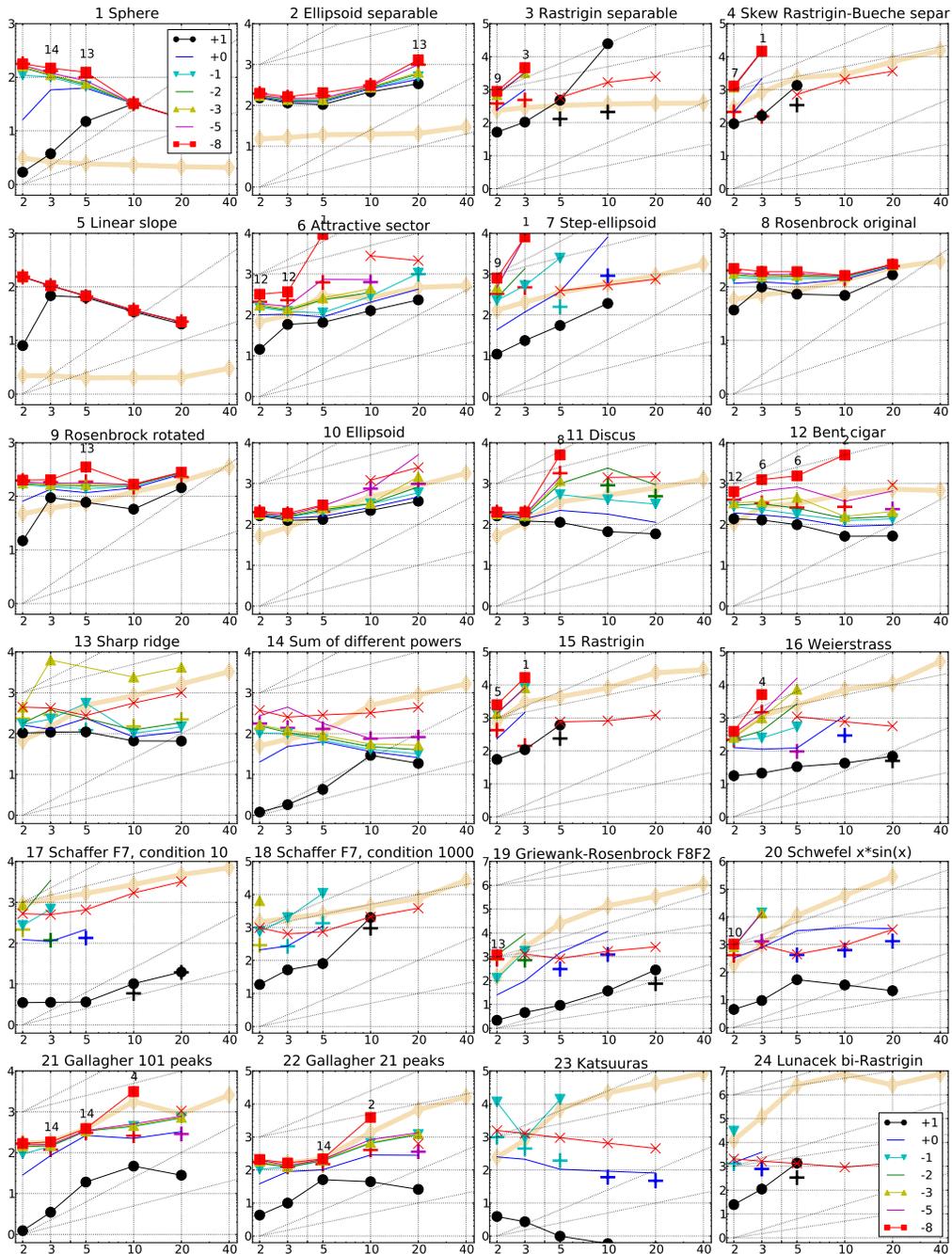


Figure 1: Expected running time (ERT) divided by dimension versus dimension in log-log presentation. Shown are different target values $f_{opt} + \Delta f$, where $\Delta f = 10^{\{+1,0,-1,-2,-3,-5,-8\}}$ and the exponent is given in the legend of f_1 and f_{24} . Plus symbols (+) show the median number of f -evaluations for the best reached target value. Crosses (x) indicate the total number of f -evaluations ($\#FEs(-\infty)$) divided by the number of trials. Numbers above ERT-symbols indicate the number of successful trials. Y-axis annotations are decimal logarithms.

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f_1	11	12	12	12	12	12	15/15
	6.8 _(9.4)	26 _(0.61)	28 _(0.74)	32 _(1.2)	35 _(1.0)	39 _(1.4)	13/15
f_2	83	87	88	90	92	94	15/15
	6.3 _(1.9)	6.9 _(1.9)	7.3 _(1.8)	7.8 _(1.5)	8.2 _(1.4)	8.5 _(1.4)	15/15
f_3	716	1622	1637	1646	1650	1654	15/15
	3.3 _(3.7)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 2600	0/15
f_4	809	1633	1688	1817	1886	1903	15/15
	8.3 _(9.2)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 3200	0/15
f_5	10	10	10	10	10	10	15/15
	32 _(1.3)	33 _(2.6)	34 _(2.4)	34 _(2.4)	34 _(2.4)	34 _(2.4)	15/15
f_6	114	214	281	580	1038	1332	15/15
	2.9 _(0.21)	2.1 _(0.60)	2.0 _(0.50)	2.2 _(1.6)	3.6 _(3.9)	35 ₍₃₇₎	1/15
f_7	24	324	1171	1572	1572	1597	15/15
	12 _(6.7)	5.7 _(5.8)	10 ₍₁₁₎	∞	∞	∞ 1900	0/15
f_8	73	273	336	391	410	422	15/15
	5.0 _(0.34)	2.1 _(1.3)	2.1 _(1.1)	2.1 _(0.86)	2.1 _(0.86)	2.2 _(0.81)	15/15
f_9	35	127	214	300	335	369	15/15
	11 _(2.2)	4.6 _(1.3)	3.2 _(0.80)	2.8 _(0.74)	2.7 _(0.60)	2.7 _(1.2)	13/15
f_{10}	349	500	574	626	829	880	15/15
	1.9 _(0.70)	1.6 _(0.49)	1.8 _(0.71)	2.0 _(1.5)	1.7 _(1.1)	1.7 _(1.1)	15/15
f_{11}	143	202	763	1177	1467	1673	15/15
	4.0 _(1.5)	5.5 _(2.6)	3.5 _(3.2)	5.0 _(6.2)	5.0 _(6.5)	8.5 _(8.3)	8/15
f_{12}	108	268	371	461	1303	1494	15/15
	4.6 _(1.2)	2.7 _(0.61)	2.4 _(0.82)	5.0 _(6.0)	3.1 _(4.0)	3.4 _(3.9)	6/15
f_{13}	132	195	250	1310	1752	2255	15/15
	4.2 _(2.5)	6.1 _(4.9)	11 ₍₁₁₎	∞	∞	∞ 1300	0/15
f_{14}	10	41	58	139	251	476	15/15
	2.2 _(1.9)	7.7 _(0.22)	5.9 _(0.28)	3.3 _(0.40)	3.6 _(2.1)	∞ 1300	0/15
f_{15}	511	9310	19369	20073	20769	21359	14/15
	6.0 _(6.9)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 2700	0/15
f_{16}	120	612	2663	10449	11644	12095	15/15
	1.4 _(1.3)	1 _(0.53)	1 _(1.2)	3.5 _(4.2)	6.8 _(8.0)	6.6 _(7.7)	0/15
f_{17}	5.2	215	899	3669	6351	7934	15/15
	3.5 _(3.1)	5.0 _(4.0)	∞	∞	∞	∞ 3100	0/15
f_{18}	103	378	3968	9280	10905	12469	15/15
	3.9 _(1.7)	15 ₍₁₅₎	14 ₍₁₄₎	∞	∞	∞ 2600	0/15
f_{19}	1	1	242	1.20e5	1.21e5	1.22e5	15/15
	46 ₍₄₄₎	7329 ₍₈₀₇₇₎	∞	∞	∞	∞ 4300	0/15
f_{20}	16	851	38111	54470	54861	55313	14/15
	17 _(4.9)	18 ₍₁₉₎	∞	∞	∞	∞ 2300	0/15
f_{21}	41	1157	1674	1705	1729	1757	14/15
	2.3 _(2.2)	1.1 _(0.87)	1 _(0.85)	1 _(0.83)	1 _(0.82)	1 _(0.81)	14/15
f_{22}	71	386	938	1008	1040	1068	14/15
	3.6 _(1.7)	1.3 _(0.90)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(1.0)	14/15
f_{23}	3.0	518	14249	31654	33030	34256	15/15
	1.6 _(2.0)	1.0 _(0.48)	4.8 _(5.6)	∞	∞	∞ 4900	0/15
f_{24}	1622	2.16e5	6.36e6	9.62e6	1.28e7	1.28e7	3/15
	4.2 _(4.7)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 6400	0/15

Table 2: Expected running time (ERT) and half-interquartile range (90% – 10%) in number of function evaluations divided by the best ERT measured during BBOB 2009 (given in the respective first row) for different Δf values for functions f_1 – f_{24} in 5-D.

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f_1	43	43	43	43	43	43	15/15
	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	15/15
f_2	385	386	387	390	391	393	15/15
	18 _(3.7)	23 _(3.0)	26 _(1.3)	33 _(1.4)	51 _(4.0)	63 _(6.5)	13/15
f_3	5066	7626	7635	7643	7646	7651	15/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 5.0e4	0/15
f_4	4722	7628	7666	7700	7758	1.41e5	9/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 7.8e4	0/15
f_5	41	41	41	41	41	41	15/15
	10 _(0.52)	11 _(0.78)	15/15				
f_6	1296	2343	3413	5220	6728	8409	15/15
	3.6 _(1.00)	3.6 _(0.74)	6.1 _(3.0)	∞	∞	∞ 4.1e4	0/15
f_7	1351	4274	9503	16524	16524	16969	15/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 1.4e4	0/15
f_8	2039	3871	4040	4219	4371	4484	15/15
	1.6 _(0.32)	1.2 _(0.16)	1.2 _(0.16)	1.2 _(0.15)	1.2 _(0.14)	1.2 _(0.14)	15/15
f_9	1716	3102	3277	3455	3594	3727	15/15
	1.7 _(0.28)	1.7 _(0.89)	1.6 _(0.84)	1.6 _(0.79)	1.6 _(0.77)	1.5 _(0.74)	15/15
f_{10}	7413	8661	10735	14920	17073	17476	15/15
	1 _(0.22)	1.1 _(0.15)	1.1 _(0.53)	2.0 _(1.7)	5.9 _(6.8)	∞ 4.1e4	0/15
f_{11}	1002	2228	6278	9762	12285	14831	15/15
	1.2 _(0.42)	1.0 _(0.60)	1 _(0.84)	∞	∞	∞ 2.7e4	0/15
f_{12}	1042	1938	2740	4140	12407	13827	15/15
	1 _(0.85)	1 _(0.88)	1 _(0.70)	1 _(0.49)	1.1 _(1.1)	3.4 _(3.4)	0/15
f_{13}	652	2021	2751	18749	24455	30201	15/15
	2.0 _(0.34)	1.1 _(0.08)	1.1 _(0.04)	4.5 _(5.4)	∞	∞ 1.9e4	0/15
f_{14}	75	239	304	932	1648	15661	15/15
	5.0 _(0.28)	2.2 _(0.22)	2.1 _(0.21)	1.1 _(0.08)	1 _(0.04)	∞ 8500	0/15
f_{15}	30378	1.47e5	3.12e5	3.20e5	4.49e5	4.59e5	15/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 2.4e4	0/15
f_{16}	1384	27265	77015	1.88e5	1.98e5	2.20e5	15/15
	1 _(0.72)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 1.2e4	0/15
f_{17}	63	1030	4005	30677	56288	80472	15/15
	6.2 _(1.2)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 6.9e4	0/15
f_{18}	621	3972	19561	67569	1.31e5	1.47e5	15/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 7.5e4	0/15
f_{19}	1	1	3.43e5	6.22e6	6.69e6	6.74e6	15/15
	5601 ₍₃₅₃₁₎	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 5.3e4	0/15
f_{20}	82	46150	3.10e6	5.54e6	5.59e6	5.64e6	14/15
	5.2 _(0.38)	1.6 _(1.7)	∞	∞	∞	∞ 7.8e4	0/15
f_{21}	561	6541	14103	14643	15567	17589	15/15
	1 _(0.26)	1 _(1.3)	1 _(1.2)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(1.1)	2.1 _(2.3)	0/15
f_{22}	467	5580	23491	24948	26847	1.35e5	12/15
	1.1 _(0.54)	1 _(1.5)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(1.1)	1 _(0.95)	1.3 _(1.5)	0/15
f_{23}	3.2	1614	67457	4.89e5	8.11e5	8.38e5	15/15
	2.8 _(2.7)	1 _(0.93)	∞	∞	∞	∞ 9300	0/15
f_{24}	1.34e6	7.48e6	5.19e7	5.20e7	5.20e7	5.20e7	3/15
	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞ 2.8e4	0/15

Table 3: Expected running time (ERT) and half-interquartile range (90% – 10%) in number of function evaluations divided by the best ERT measured during BBOB 2009 (given in the respective first row) for different Δf values for functions f_1 – f_{24} in 20-D.

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f_1	11	12	12	12	12	12	15/15
0: myd	1.2^{*2}	$2.0(0.49)^{*3}$	2.5^{*3}	$3.2(0.25)^{*3}$	$3.9(0.25)^{*3}$	$4.5(0.49)^{*3}$	15/15
1: myd	6.4(5.0)	22	22(0.49)	23(0.74)	24(0.98)	24(0.98)	15/15
f_2	83	87	88	90	92	94	15/15
0: myd	$1.5(0.69)^{*3}$	$1.6(0.62)^{*3}$	$1.7(0.65)^{*3}$	$1.8(0.65)^{*3}$	$2.3(0.65)^{*3}$	$3.0(0.72)^{*3}$	15/15
1: myd	4.2(0.56)	4.1(0.57)	4.2(0.60)	4.4(0.66)	5.0(0.70)	5.8(1.0)	15/15
f_3	716	1622	1637	1646	1650	1654	15/15
0: myd	11(11)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 6100$	0/15
1: myd	$3.6(3.2)^{*2}$	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1700$	0/15
f_4	809	1633	1688	1817	1886	1903	12/15
0: myd	22(23)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 5200$	0/15
1: myd	7.5(8.7)	27(29)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 2800$	0/15
f_5	10	10	10	10	10	10	15/15
0: myd	3.1^{*3}	4.9^{*3}	6.1^{*3}	6.7^{*3}	7.3^{*3}	86(64)	13/15
1: myd	26(0.30)	27(0.60)	29(0.75)	30(0.60)	30(0.80)	32(3.6)	6/15
f_6	114	214	281	525	723	919	15/15
0: myd	$1.3(0.45)^{*2}$	$1.1(0.29)^{*3}$	$1.0(0.15)^{*3}$	1.1(0.27)	1.1(0.25)	1.1(0.30)	15/15
1: myd	2.6(0.27)	1.8(0.34)	1.6(0.40)	1.1(0.21)	1.1(0.36)	1.2(0.28)	14/15
f_7	24	283	824	1081	1081	1121	15/15
0: myd	40(55)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 2300$	0/15
1: myd	50(52)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1600$	0/15
f_8	73	273	336	391	410	422	15/15
0: myd	$1.1(0.14)^{*3}$	1.9(2.6)	1.7(2.1)	1.5(1.8)	1.5(1.8)	1.5(1.7)	15/15
1: myd	4.3(0.27)	2.0(1.2)	1.8(1.00)	1.6(0.85)	1.6(0.84)	1.6(0.80)	14/15
f_9	35	127	214	300	335	369	15/15
0: myd	$1.2(0.13)^{*3}$	$0.71(0.07)^{*3\downarrow 3}$	$0.64(0.04)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.58(0.03)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.57(0.02)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.55(0.03)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	15/15
1: myd	9.3(0.84)	3.5(1.2)	2.3(0.81)	1.8(0.57)	1.6(0.52)	1.5(0.47)	15/15
f_{10}	349	500	574	626	829	880	15/15
0: myd	$0.28(0.04)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.22(0.04)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.23(0.05)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.24(0.05)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	3.7(6.8)	42(52)	0/15
1: myd	0.96(0.07)	0.70(0.05) $\downarrow 2$	0.62(0.04) $\downarrow 2$	0.64(0.10) $\downarrow 2$	2.1(2.9)	16(18)	0/15
f_{11}	143	202	763	1177	1397	1535	15/15
0: myd	$0.28(0.07)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.25(0.05)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.07(0.01)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	$0.22(0.26)^{\downarrow 4}$	39(48)	$\infty 7.2e4$	0/15
1: myd	2.0(0.11)	1.5(0.12)	0.42(0.04) $\downarrow 4$	0.43(0.30) $\downarrow 2$	19(23)	$\infty 8300$	0/15
f_{12}	108	268	371	461	1303	1494	15/15
0: myd	$1.3(0.28)^{*3}$	$0.94(0.46)^*$	0.81(0.48)	0.79(0.58)	2.3(2.4)	28(31)	1/15
1: myd	3.3(0.33)	1.5(0.41)	1.3(0.35)	1.3(0.39)	1.4(1.4)	2.6(2.7)	3/15
f_{13}	132	195	250	1310	1752	2255	15/15
0: myd	$0.74(0.09)^{*3\downarrow}$	$0.76(0.07)^{*3\downarrow 3}$	$0.81(0.06)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	0.66(1.1)	60(56)	$\infty 7200$	0/15
1: myd	2.6(0.15)	2.0(0.09)	1.7(0.08)	0.78(0.56)	6.3(6.5)	$\infty 1400$	0/15
f_{14}	8.1	41	58	139	251	476	15/15
0: myd	1.3(1.5)	$0.62(0.28)^{*3\downarrow 2}$	$0.71(0.26)^{*3\downarrow}$	$0.64(0.24)^{*3\downarrow 2}$	$0.75(0.15)^{*3}$	$\infty 8500$	0/15
1: myd	2.0(2.4)	6.4(0.16)	4.8(0.11)	2.4(0.09)	1.6(0.14)	$\infty 1200$	0/15
f_{15}	511	8295	15816	16520	17216	17805	14/15
0: myd	15(16)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 4700$	0/15
1: myd	$5.3(5.8)^{*3}$	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1700$	0/15
f_{16}	120	612	2663	8585	9704	9990	15/15
0: myd	6.8(2.9)	212(260)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1.8e4$	0/15
1: myd	$2.2(1.1)^{*2}$	37(41)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1.7e4$	0/15
f_{17}	5.2	153	475	2493	5172	7934	15/15
0: myd	47(53)	343(401)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 2.7e4$	0/15
1: myd	1.5(1.3)	198(190)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 7200$	0/15
f_{18}	103	378	1635	6176	8749	10418	15/15
0: myd	24(3.7)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 2.1e4$	0/15
1: myd	13(17)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 7500$	0/15
f_{19}	1	1	242	1.14e5	1.16e5	1.17e5	15/15
0: myd	1^{*3}	1^{*3}	$0.21(0.04)^{*3\downarrow 4}$	∞	∞	$\infty 3.6e4$	0/15
1: myd	37(51)	4499(5482)	261(317)	∞	∞	$\infty 2.0e4$	0/15
f_{20}	16	851	16445	22406	23232	24043	10/15
0: myd	1.8^*	5.8(5.0)	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 3200$	0/15
1: myd	11(8.1)	$4.6(5.5)^{*2}$	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 1100$	0/15
f_{21}	41	1157	1571	1601	1625	1653	14/15
0: myd	2.1(4.4)	1.5(1.7)	2.6(3.9)	2.7(3.4)	2.7(3.8)	2.7(3.7)	9/15
1: myd	3.2(3.1)	0.45(0.45)	0.66(0.97)	0.67(0.94)	0.70(0.93)	0.78(0.94)	11/15
f_{22}	71	386	850	921	953	980	14/15
0: myd	4.6(5.1)	5.8(7.0)	4.4(4.0)	4.1(3.6)	4.0(3.6)	4.1(3.4)	12/15
1: myd	2.4(1.7)	$1.0(0.67)^{*3}$	$0.75(0.59)^{*3}$	$0.74(0.55)^{*3}$	$0.84(0.53)^{*3}$	$0.98(0.56)^{*3}$	9/15
f_{23}	3.0	518	14249	31654	33030	34256	15/15
0: myd	10(11)	3.7(4.5)	1.3(1.3)	11(11)	∞	$\infty 2.4e4$	0/15
1: myd	3.0(3.0)	2.0(2.5)	1.4(1.7)	∞	∞	$\infty 2.5e4$	0/15
f_{24}	1622	74856	95339	1.47e5	1.48e5	1.49e5	4/15
0: myd	2.6(2.1)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 5300$	0/15
1: myd	5.1(5.4)	∞	∞	∞	∞	$\infty 3600$	0/15

Table 4: ERT and half-interquartile range (90% – 10%) divided by the best ERT measured during BBOB 2009 and 2010 for different Δf values for functions f_1 – f_{24} in 5-D where 0: myd is GlobalSearch and 1: myd is GLOBAL

Δf	1e+1	1e+0	1e-1	1e-3	1e-5	1e-7	#succ
f₁	43	43	43	43	43	43	15/15
0: myd	1.2(0.24)* ³	2.3(0.49)* ³	2.5* ³	3.4* ³	4.4(0.49)* ³	5.3(0.49)* ³	15/15
1: myd	24(0.24)	25(0.73)	25(0.24)	27(0.49)	27(0.24)	28(0.49)	15/15
f₂	385	386	387	390	391	393	15/15
0: myd	4.6(1.4)	5.2(1.1)*	5.6(1.1)	6.4(1.2)	8.6(1.7)	12(7.3)	12/15
1: myd	8.7(2.8)	9.1(2.9)	11(14)	12(14)	14(15)	17(16)	12/15
f₃	5066	7626	7635	7643	7646	7651	15/15
0: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞6.3e4	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞6.3e4	0/15
f₄	4722	7628	7666	7700	7758	12953	9/15
0: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞6.9e4	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞7.0e4	0/15
f₅	41	41	41	41	41	41	15/15
0: myd	4.2* ³	5.7* ³	6.2* ³	7.3* ³	7.8* ³	380(374)	0/15
1: myd	28(0.52)	30(0.79)	31(0.79)	32(0.79)	32(0.53)	238(249)	0/15
f₆	1293	1744	2456	3679	4955	6172	15/15
0: myd	1.4(0.39)* ³	1.7(0.39)	1.9(0.45)	2.4(0.32)	70(73)	∞5.3e5	0/15
1: myd	2.2(0.50)	2.2(0.61)	2.1(0.65)	3.5(1.8)	41(48)	∞4.2e4	0/15
f₇	1351	4274	9503	16321	16321	16969	15/15
0: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞3000	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞1.8e4	0/15
f₈	1959	3745	4040	4219	4371	4447	15/15
0: myd	0.92(0.31)* ³	0.99(0.75)	0.96(0.70)	0.96(0.67)	0.95(0.64)	0.94(0.63)	15/15
1: myd	1.5(0.28)	1.1(0.41)	1.1(0.38)	1.1(0.36)	1.0(0.36)	1.0(0.36)	15/15
f₉	1716	3102	3277	3455	3594	3727	15/15
0: myd	0.19(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.34(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.38(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.40(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.40(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.40(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	15/15
1: myd	1.7(0.20)	1.4(0.45)	1.3(0.42)	1.3(0.41)	1.3(0.39)	1.2(0.38)	15/15
f₁₀	7413	8661	10735	11907	12487	13082	15/15
0: myd	0.20(0.17)↓ ⁴	0.19(0.17)↓ ⁴	0.16(0.14)↓ ⁴	0.17(0.16)↓ ⁴	29(43)	∞3.0e5	0/15
1: myd	0.30(0.04)↓ ⁴	0.27(0.04)↓ ⁴	0.23(0.04)↓ ⁴	0.22(0.04)↓ ⁴	3.5(5.0)	∞4.2e4	0/15
f₁₁	1002	2228	5478	6201	6868	7445	15/15
0: myd	0.16(0.05)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.10(0.02)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.05(0.01)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.43(0.77)	150(159)	∞3.0e5	0/15
1: myd	1.2(0.06)	0.57(0.03)	0.24(0.01)↓ ⁴	0.77(0.94)	85(91)	∞4.2e4	0/15
f₁₂	1042	1938	2740	4140	12407	13827	15/15
0: myd	0.57(0.14)* ³	0.75(0.45)*	0.71(0.42)*	0.66(0.17)* ²	1.0(1.2)	6.0(7.3)	0/15
1: myd	2.1(1.1)	1.6(0.83)	1.4(0.58)	1.1(0.38)	0.85(0.61)	3.4(3.5)	0/15
f₁₃	652	2021	2751	15081	24455	30201	15/15
0: myd	1.2(0.19)* ³	0.47(0.07)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.46(0.17)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.44(0.43)↓	∞	∞8.5e4	0/15
1: myd	2.6(0.22)	1.0(0.15)	1.1(0.49)	0.74(0.64)	∞	∞1.1e4	0/15
f₁₄	75	239	304	932	1648	10447	15/15
0: myd	0.92(0.14)* ³	0.54(0.09)* ³ ↓ ³	0.73(0.14)* ³ ↓	0.66(0.06)* ³ ↓ ⁴	0.68(0.14)* ³ ↓ ⁴	∞4.8e4	0/15
1: myd	14(0.14)	4.7(0.09)	3.9(0.11)	1.7(0.07)	1.3(0.07)	∞8600	0/15
f₁₅	24927	1.47e5	2.15e5	2.24e5	2.33e5	2.42e5	15/15
0: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞4.9e4	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞8.0e4	0/15
f₁₆	1384	7325	38236	1.50e5	1.62e5	1.68e5	15/15
0: myd	314(343)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞2.3e5	0/15
1: myd	176(185)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞1.0e5	0/15
f₁₇	63	912	2012	23262	46594	70330	15/15
0: myd	75(140)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞2.2e5	0/15
1: myd	13(7.9)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞1.0e5	0/15
f₁₈	621	3024	14625	61478	1.02e5	1.21e5	15/15
0: myd	2111(2453)	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞1.8e5	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞1.0e5	0/15
f₁₉	1	1	2.15e5	2.35e6	2.74e6	2.79e6	15/15
0: myd	1* ³	1* ³	0.00* ³ ↓ ⁴	∞	∞	∞7.1e4	0/15
1: myd	2063(2050)	4.02e5(4.67e5)	∞	∞	∞	∞1.0e5	0/15
f₂₀	82	5372	2.41e5	3.22e5	3.60e5	4.15e5	15/15
0: myd	1.7* ³	57(61)	∞	∞	∞	∞1.8e4	0/15
1: myd	15(1.4)	24(25)	∞	∞	∞	∞2.6e4	0/15
f₂₁	561	6541	14103	14643	15567	17589	15/15
0: myd	3.8(3.0)	6.0(6.0)	6.7(7.8)	6.5(7.4)	6.1(7.0)	5.5(6.0)	3/15
1: myd	2.6(0.93)	1.2(1.5)	0.79(0.87)	0.78(0.90)	0.76(0.78)	0.74(0.74)	7/15
f₂₂	467	5580	23491	24948	26847	1.35e5	12/15
0: myd	0.28(0.24)* ³	7.1(9.2)	8.7(9.0)	8.2(8.5)	7.7(7.9)	1.6(1.7)	0/15
1: myd	4.7(5.4)	0.85(1.1)	1.1(1.1)	1.0(1.0)	0.98(0.99)	0.30(0.29)	1/15
f₂₃	3.2	1614	67457	4.89e5	8.11e5	8.38e5	15/15
0: myd	13(14)	3.4(3.0)	15(17)	∞	∞	∞3.6e5	0/15
1: myd	2.8(3.9)	1.9(1.4)	∞	∞	∞	∞1.0e5	0/15
f₂₄	1.34e6	4.87e6	3.11e7	3.12e7	3.12e7	3.12e7	3/15
0: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞5.2e4	0/15
1: myd	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞3.6e4	0/15

Table 5: ERT and half-interquartile range (90% – 10%) divided by the best ERT measured during BBOB 2009 and 2010 for different Δf values for functions f_1 – f_{24} in 20-D where 0: myd is GlobalSearch and 1: myd is GLOBAL

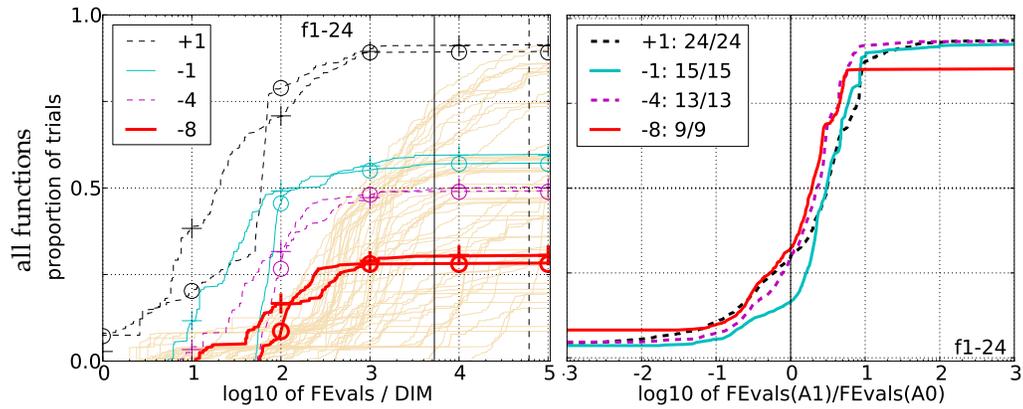


Figure 2: Noiseless functions 5-D. Left: Empirical Cumulative Distribution Function (ECDF) of the running time (number of function evaluations) for GLOBAL (\circ) and GlobalSearch ($+$), divided by search space dimension D , to fall below $f_{\text{opt}} + \Delta f$ with $\Delta f = 10^k$ where k is the value in the legend. The vertical black lines indicate the maximum number of function evaluations. Light brown lines in the background show ECDFs for target value 10^{-8} of all algorithms benchmarked during BBOB 2009 and 2010. Right subplots: ECDF of ERT of GLOBAL over ERT of GlobalSearch for different Δf

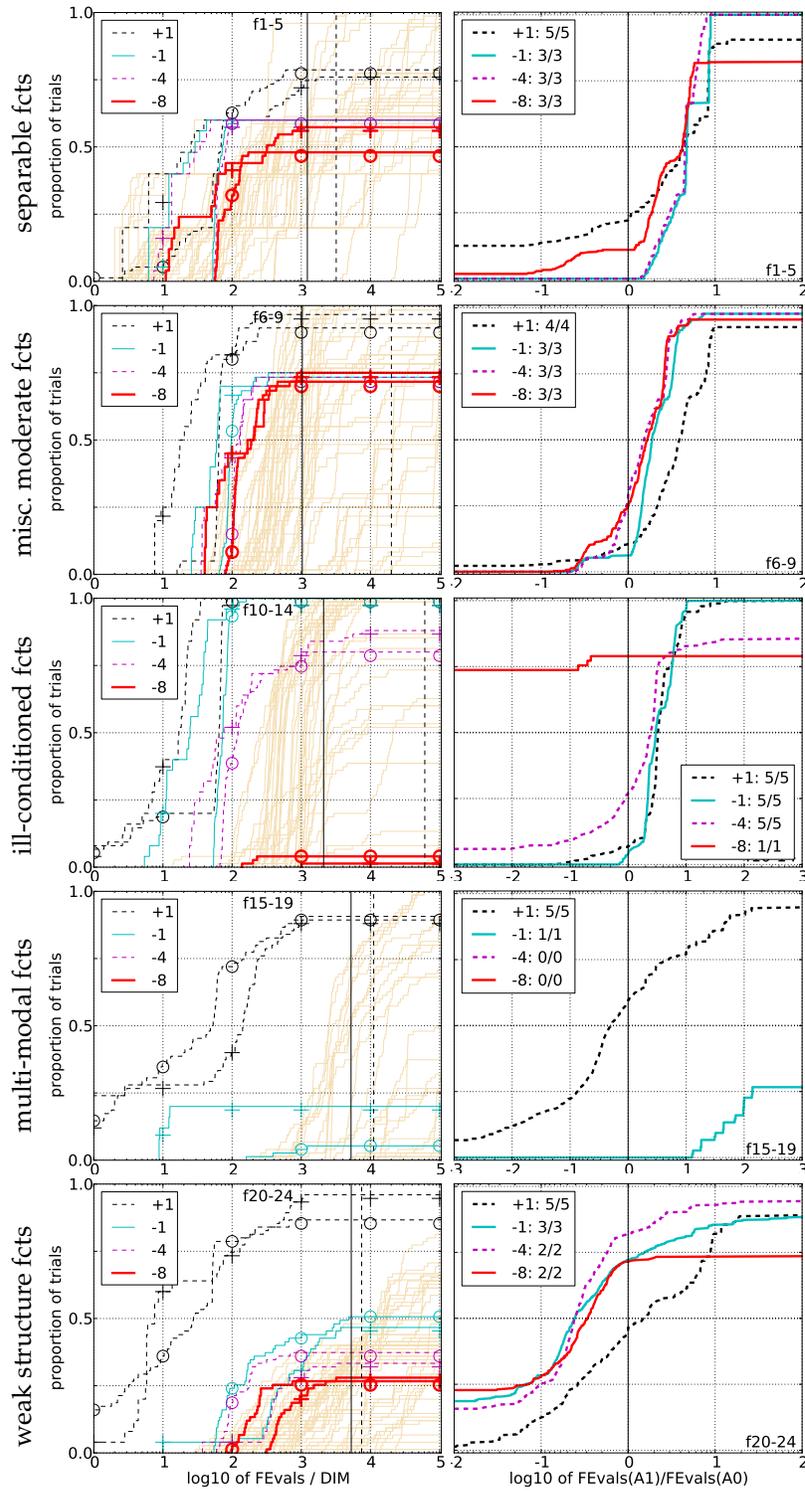


Figure 3: Subgroups of functions 5-D. See caption of Figure 2

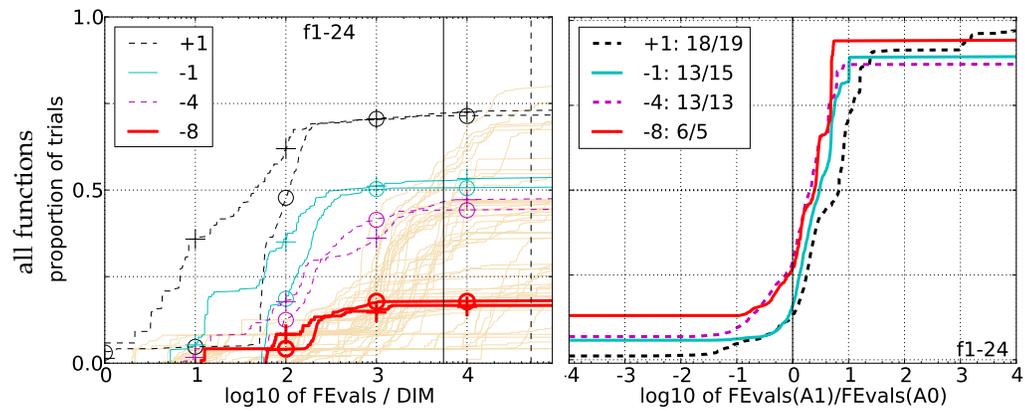


Figure 4: Noiseless functions 20-D. See caption of Figure 2

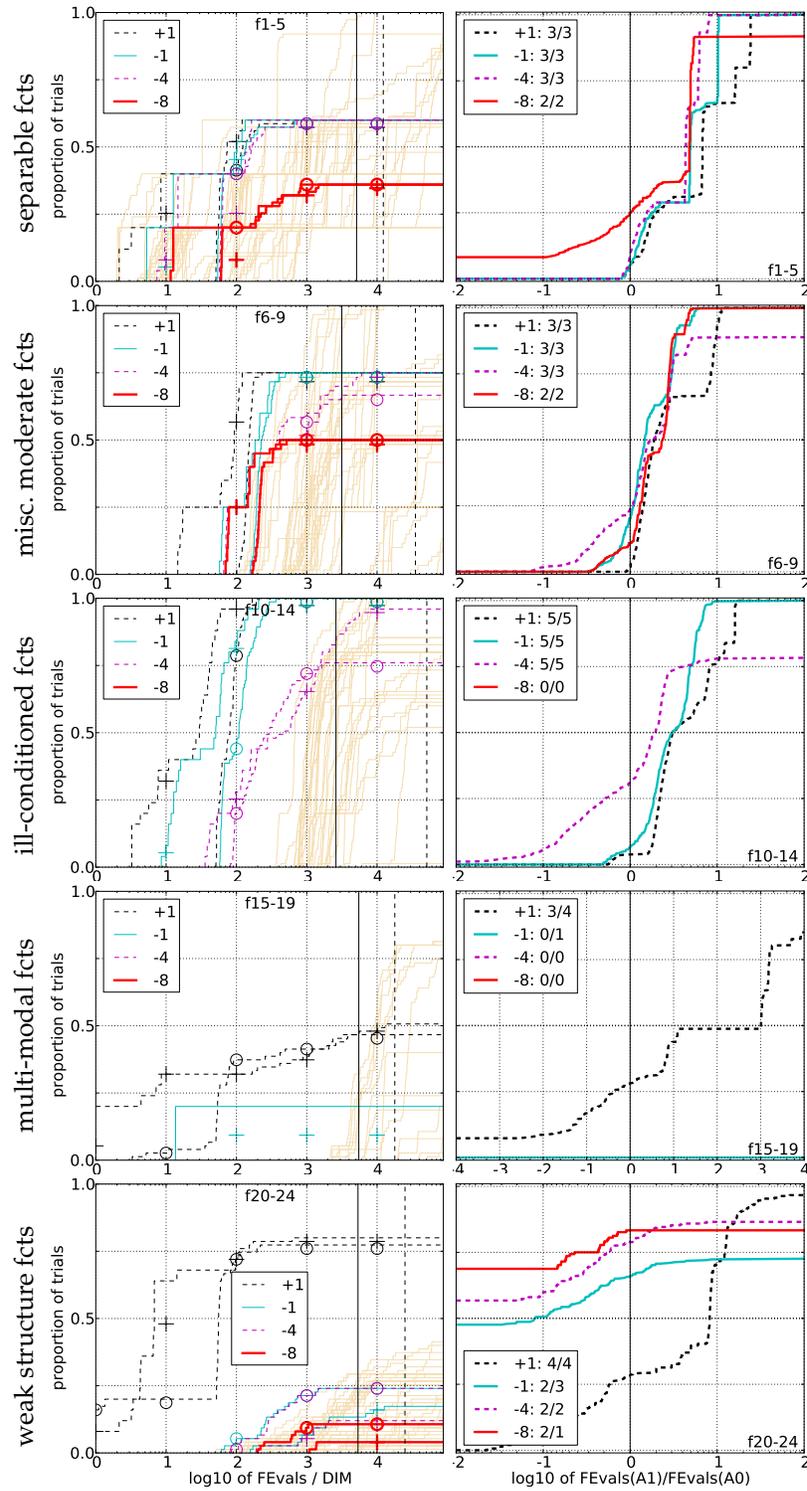


Figure 5: Subgroups of functions 20-D. See caption of Figure 2

References

- Betrò, B. and Schoen, F. (1992). Optimal and sub-optimal stopping rules for the multistart algorithm in global optimization. *Mathematical Programming*, 57:445–458.
- Boender, C., Rinnooy Kan, A., Timmer, G., and Stougie, L. (1982a). A stochastic method for global optimization. *Mathematical Programming*, 22:125–140.
- Boender, C. G. E. and Rinnooy Kan, A. H. G. (1987). Bayesian stopping rules for multistart global optimization methods. *Mathematical Programming*, 37:59–80.
- Boender, C. G. E. and Rinnooy Kan, A. H. G. (1991). On when to stop sampling for the maximum. *Journal of Global Optimization*, 1:331–340.
- Boender, C. G. E., Rinnooy Kan, A. H. G., Timmer, G. T., and Stougie, L. (1982b). A stochastic method for global optimization. *Mathematical Programming*, 22:125–140.
- Boender, C. G. E. and Zieliński, R. (1982). A sequential bayesian approach to estimating the dimension of a multinomial distribution. In *Sequential Methods in Statistics. Banach Center Publications*, volume 16. PWN–Polish Scientific Publisher, Warsaw.
- Csendes, T. (1988). Nonlinear parameter estimation by global optimization—efficiency and reliability. *Acta Cybernetica*, 8(4):361–370.
- Csendes, T., Pál, L., Sendin, J. O. H., and Banga, J. R. (2008). The GLOBAL Optimization Method Revisited. *Optimization Letters*, 2:445–454.
- Davidon, W. (1959). Variable metric method for minimization. Technical Report ANL5990 (revised), Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL.
- Finck, S., Hansen, N., Ros, R., and Auger, A. (2009a). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2009: Presentation of the noiseless functions. Technical Report 2009/20, Research Center PPE.
- Finck, S., Hansen, N., Ros, R., and Auger, A. (2009b). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2009: Presentation of the noiseless functions. Technical Report 2009/20, Research Center PPE. Updated February 2010.
- Guss, C., Boender, C. G. E., and Romeijn, H. E. (1995). Stochastic methods. In Horst, R. and Pardalos, P., editors, *Handbook of Global Optimization*, pages 829–869. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Hansen, N., Auger, A., Finck, S., and Ros, R. (2009a). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2009: Experimental setup. Technical Report RR-6828, INRIA.
- Hansen, N., Auger, A., Finck, S., and Ros, R. (2010a). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2010: Experimental setup. Technical Report RR-7215, INRIA.
- Hansen, N., Auger, A., Ros, R., Finck, S., and Pošík, P. (2010b). Comparing results of 31 algorithms from the black-box optimization benchmarking bbob-2009. In *GECCO '10: Proceedings of the 12th annual conference comp on Genetic and evolutionary computation*, pages 1689–1696, New York, NY, USA. ACM.
- Hansen, N., Finck, S., Ros, R., and Auger, A. (2009b). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2009: Noiseless functions definitions. Technical Report RR-6829, INRIA.
- Hansen, N., Finck, S., Ros, R., and Auger, A. (2009c). Real-parameter black-box optimization benchmarking 2009: Noiseless functions definitions. Technical Report RR-6829, INRIA. Updated February 2010.
- Hoos, H. H. and Stützle, T. (1998). Evaluating Las Vegas algorithms—pitfalls and remedies. In *Proceedings of the Fourteenth Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence (UAI-98)*, pages 238–245.

- Huyer, W. and Neumaier, A. (1999). Global optimization by multilevel coordinate search. *J. of Global Optimization*, 14(4):331–355.
- Järvi, T. (1973). A random search optimizer with an application to a max-min problem. *Publications of the Institute for Applied Mathematics*, (3). University of Turku, Finland.
- Kelley, C. T. (1999). *Iterative Methods for Optimization*. SIAM in Philadelphia.
- Locatelli, M. and Schoen, F. (1999). Random linkage: a family of acceptance/rejection algorithms for global optimization. *Mathematical Programming*, 2:379–396.
- Moles, C., Gutierrez, G., Alonso, A., and Banga, J. (2003). Integrated Process Design and Control Via Global Optimization – A Wastewater Treatment Plant Case Study. *Chemical Engineering Research and Design*, 81:507–517.
- Mongeau, M., Karsenty, H., Rouzé, V., and Hiriart-Urruty, J. (2000). Comparison of public-domain software for black box global optimization. *Optimization Methods and Software*, 13:203–226.
- Nelder, J. and Mead, R. (1965). The downhill simplex method. *Computer Journal*, 7:308–313.
- Pál, L., Csendes, T., Markót, M. C., and Neumaier, A. (2009). BBO-benchmarking of the GLOBAL method for the noiseless function testbed. <http://www.mat.univie.ac.at/~neum/papers.html>. P. 986.
- Powell, M. (1986). How bad are the BFGS and DFP methods when the objective function is quadratic? *Mathematical Programming*, 34:34–47.
- Powell, M. J. D. (2006). The NEWUOA software for unconstrained optimization without derivatives. *Large Scale Nonlinear Optimization*, pages 255–297.
- Price, K. (1997). Differential evolution vs. the functions of the second ICEO. In *Proceedings of the IEEE International Congress on Evolutionary Computation*, pages 153–157.
- Rinnooy Kan, A. H. G. and Timmer, G. T. (1987a). Stochastic global optimization methods Part I: Clustering methods. *Mathematical Programming*, 39:27–56.
- Rinnooy Kan, A. H. G. and Timmer, G. T. (1987b). Stochastic global optimization methods Part I: Clustering methods. *Mathematical Programming*, 39:57–78.
- Rios, L. M. and Sahinidis, N. V. (2010). Derivative-free optimization: a review of algorithms and comparison of software implementations. Technical report, Department of Chemical Engineering, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA. <http://thales.cheme.cmu.edu/dfo>.
- Törn, A. A. (1978). A search clustering approach to global optimization. In Dixon, L. and Szegő, G., editors, *Towards Global Optimization 2*. North-Holland, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- Ugray, Z., Lasdon, L., Plummer, J., Glover, R., Kelly, J., and Marti, R. (2007). Scatter search and local nlp solvers: A multistart framework for global optimization. *INFORMS Journal on Computing*, 19(3):328–340.
- Zieliński, R. (1981). A stochastic estimate of the structure of multi-extremal problems. *Mathematical Programming*, 21:348–356.