## Lecture 11: Black-Box Optimization

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# Outline

- Introduction to black-box optimization
- Discretization-based search
- Optimistic optimization
- Optimizing over a trained neural network

#### Non-Convex Optimization

- Many problems in practice involve non-convex loss functions.
- Loss functions that arise in real-world applications can be as complex as the example in Figure 1.



Figure: Rastrigin Function in 2D

## Non-Convex Optimization

- Various algorithms exist for non-convex optimization.
- For example, gradient descent with Hessian steps, the cubic regularization method, and perturbed gradient descent.
- These algorithms are designed to find second-order stationary points or local minima under appropriate assumptions on the loss function.
- There indeed exist many applications where it is difficult to analyze the gradient and Hessian of the underlying loss function.

# Black-Box Optimization

#### **Application Scenarios**

- Engineering Design: Optimizing the design of complex systems and structures (e.g., aerodynamics of aircraft, structural design of bridges) where simulations are used to evaluate performance.
- Machine Learning and Hyperparameter Tuning: Tuning hyperparameters of machine learning models, such as neural networks, support vector machines, and random forests, to achieve better performance on training and validation data.
- **Robotics:** Optimizing control parameters and policies for robotic systems where the dynamics are complex and non-linear.
- Gaming and Al: Developing and tuning artificial intelligence for games, including the optimization of strategies and behaviors in complex environments.

## Black-Box Optimization

#### **Application Scenarios**

- **Finance and Trading:** Developing and optimizing trading algorithms and strategies, as well as portfolio optimization, where the financial models are often noisy and non-differentiable.
- Energy Systems: Optimizing the operation and design of energy systems, such as power grids, renewable energy installations, and energy storage systems, to improve efficiency and stability.
- Material Science: Discovering new materials with desirable properties (e.g., strength, conductivity) by optimizing the composition and processing parameters.
- Healthcare and Medicine: Personalizing treatment plans and drug formulations by optimizing the dosage and combination of therapies for individual patients.
- Chemistry and Biochemistry: Optimizing chemical reactions and biological processes for higher yield, efficiency, and reduced side products in chemical engineering and biotechnology.

## Black-Box Optimization

- In these application settings, the associated loss function is ofen complex, non-differentiable, noisy, or not explicitly known.
- As a result, we cannot hope for computing the gradient nor the Hessian of the underlying loss function.
- Thereore, we need to consider **non-convex optimization with bandit feedback**.
- This problem is often referred to as **black-box optimization**.

Let us consider

 $\min_{x\in C} f(x)$ 

where C is the domain and f is the loss function.

- For black-box optimization, we make minimal assumptions on the loss function *f*.
- That said, we consider the general setting where the loss function can be non-convex and non-differentiable.
- On the other hand, in some applications, the underlying loss function is continuous.
- The example in Figure 1 is indeed continuous, even though its structure is highly complex.

- Motivated by this, we consider the setting where the loss function is Lipschitz continuous.
- Throughout this section, we assume that f is L-Lipschitz continuous in a norm || · ||, i.e.,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L ||x - y||.$$

• The goal is to find a near-optimal solution  $x_{\epsilon}$  for a given  $\epsilon > 0$  such that

$$f(x_{\epsilon}) \leq \min_{x \in C} f(x) + \epsilon.$$

 As the loss function f is Lipschitz continuous, our approach is to find a point that is close to an optimal solution.

- Then, how do we find such a point?
- The most naïve way is to discretize the solution space and search over the discrete set of points.
- To be more precise, we consider the following two steps.
  - **1** First, discretize the domain C to obtain a finite subset  $C_{\epsilon} \subseteq C$  containing an  $\epsilon$ -optimal solution.
  - **2** Next, enumerate all points in  $C_{\epsilon}$ .
- Hence, as long as the discretization  $C_{\epsilon}$  contains an  $\epsilon$ -optimal solution  $x_{\epsilon}$ , the search procedure will find one.
- The iteration complexity of this algorithm is the number of points in  $C_{\epsilon}$ .
- Therefore, the part of constructing a discretization  $C_{\epsilon}$  is crucial.

To simplify our presentation, we assume that

- the domain is given by  $C = [0, 1]^d$ ,
- we use the  $\ell_\infty\text{-norm, i.e., }\|\cdot\|=\|\cdot\|_\infty\text{, and}$
- 1/Le is an integer.

Based on these assumptions, we partition the domain  $C = [0,1]^d$  into

 $\left(1/L\epsilon\right)^d$ 

boxes by decomposing each coordinate interval [0,1] into

$$[0, \epsilon/L], \quad [\epsilon/L, 2\epsilon/L], \quad \ldots, \quad [1 - \epsilon/L, 1].$$

• Then a box has the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\underline{i_1 - 1})\epsilon \\ L \end{bmatrix}, \underline{i_1 \epsilon} \\ L \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} (\underline{i_2 - 1})\epsilon \\ L \end{bmatrix}, \underline{i_2 \epsilon} \\ L \end{bmatrix} \times \dots \times \begin{bmatrix} (\underline{i_d - 1})\epsilon \\ L \end{bmatrix}, \underline{i_d \epsilon} \\ L \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \begin{array}{c} (\underline{i_j - 1})\epsilon \\ L \end{bmatrix} \le x_j \le \frac{i_j \epsilon}{L} \quad \forall j \in [d] \right\}.$$

For a given box, we take the center point given by

$$\left(\frac{\left(i_{1}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\epsilon}{L}, \quad \frac{\left(i_{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\epsilon}{L}, \quad \dots, \frac{\left(i_{d}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\epsilon}{L}\right).$$

• Note that there are  $(1/L\epsilon)^d$  center points from the  $(1/L\epsilon)^d$  boxes.

- Basically, the set of center points gives rise to a desired discretization  $C_{\epsilon}$ .
- The algorithm is to enumerate all center points and return the one achieving the minimum loss value.

- How do we establish the correctness of this approach?
- Note that any two points x, y in a piece satisfies

$$\|x-y\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon/L,$$

which implies that

$$|f(x)-f(y)| \leq L||x-y||_{\infty} \leq \epsilon.$$

- Let  $c^*$  be the center point of the box containing an optimal solution.
- Then it follows that

$$f(c^*) \leq \min_{x \in C} f(x) + \epsilon.$$

- Let  $\bar{c}$  be the center point returned by the algorithm.

$$f(\bar{c}) \leq f(c^*) \leq \min_{x \in C} f(x) + \epsilon,$$

as required.

#### Issues with the Discretization-Based Search

- The algorithm is based on a fixed discretization.
- As a result, the algorithm always takes  $(1/L\epsilon)^d$  steps to finish search over all points in the discretization.
- Another issue is that we require knowledge of the Lipschitz constant *L*.
- Furthermore, the most critical issue with the method is that we need the assumption that the loss function is Lipschitz continuous over the entire domain.

- We cover a framework of Munos [Mun11], referred to as simultaneous optimistic optimization (SOO).
- The SOO framework works under the following weaker assumption than the global Lipschitz continuity assumption.

#### Assumption

There exists some L > 0 such that for any  $x \in C$ ,

$$f(x) - f(x^*) \le L ||x - x^*||$$

where  $x^*$  is an optimal solution to  $\min_{x \in C} f(x)$ .

• Hence, we assume Lipschitz continuity around an optimal solution, which is essentially a local Lipschitz continuity assumption.

- Another favorable aspect of SOO is that it does not need to know the Lipschitz constant *L*.
- How is this possible?
- Recall that the previous approach needs to know *L* because it prepares a fixed discretization based on the parameter *L*.
- In contrast, instead of one fixed discretization, the SOO framework starts with a rough partition of the domain, and it gradually refines it.
- To be more specific, SOO works with the idea of hierarchical partitioning.
- First, the domain *C* is partitioned into *K* subsets. Here, one may represent the *K* subsets as *K* children of paraent *C*.
- Then, we may choose one of the K subsets and partition it into K subsets.



Figure: Partitioning of the domain

- We may continue partitioning pieces.
- From the second partition of Figure 2, we can choose one of the two large subsets or one of the three smaller subsets.
- Figure 3 shows a sequence of more refined partitions of the domain C.



Figure: Refined partitions

• The hierarchical partitioning structure naturally gives rise to a tree representation as in Figure 4.



Figure: Tree representation of a partition

- Note that hierarchical partitioning can be done without knowledge of the Lipschitz constant *L*.
- The main idea behind the SOO framework is to choose subsets that are expected to contain an optimal solution and refine them gradually.
- As the algorithm from the previous section, SOO takes a center point of each subset.
- Then the quality of the subset is measured by the loss value of its center point.

- Another important component of SOO is the idea of optimistic search.
- At each iteration, we need to choose which subset to be partitioned.
- The choice is made based on two criteria.
- On one hand, it makes sense to focus on subsets whose center points have low loss values.
- On the other hand, a large subset is not explored enough yet, so its unexplored region may contain a good solution.
- This is similar in spirit to the exploration-exploitation tradeoff.

- To be more specific, we use notation (h, j) to denote the *j*th subset at depth *h*.
- Here, (0,0) refers to the original domain C.
- Then we denote by  $x_{h,j}$  the center point of (h,j).
- Then the quality of subset (h, j) is measured by  $f(x_{h,j})$ .
- Then, the next question is about how to choose a subset that is unexplored?
- We may select a subset at a high level in the tree representation.

#### Algorithm 1 Simultaneous Optimistic Optimization

```
Input: the maximum depth function h_{max} : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}.
Initialize T_1 = \{(0,0)\} and t = 1.
while True do
     Set v_{\min} = \infty.
    for h = 0 to min{depth(\mathcal{T}_t), h_{max}(t)} do
          Among all leaves (h, j) \in \mathcal{L}_t of depth h, select
                                  (h, i) \in \operatorname{argmin}_{(h, i) \in \mathcal{L}_t} f(x_{h, j})
          if f(x_{h,i}) \leq v_{\min} then
               Partition the subset (h, i) into K subsets (h+1, i_1), \ldots, (h+1, i_K).
               Add them to \mathcal{T}_t.
               Evaluate f(x_{h+1,i_1}), \ldots, f(x_{h+1,i_{\nu}}).
               Set v_{\min} = f(x_{h,i}).
               if t = T then
                    Return \operatorname{argmax}_{(h,i)\in\mathcal{T}_{T}}f(x_{h,i})
               end if
          end if
    end for
end while
```

#### Black-Box Optimization via Supervised Learning

- Black-box optimization framework applies to settings where the objective function is not known to the decision-maker.
- Basically, we consider

$$\min_{x\in C} \quad f(x)$$

where the decision-maker has access to none of the gradient  $\nabla f(x)$  and the Hessian  $\nabla^2 f(x)$ .

- We find a solution based on bandit feedback which exhibits the value f(x) of a chosen solution x.
- We learned optimistic optimization methods, which explore the solution space based on continuity of the objective function.
- The main idea behind the optimistic optimization methods is that we provide a hierarchical partitioning of the search space.
- Based on the partitioning, we optimistically explore subsets of the search space.

## Black-Box Optimization via Supervised Learning

- The optimistic optimization algorithms are widely used in practice because they rely on minimal structural assumptions on the objective function.
- On the other hand, they often fall into inferior performance than instance-specific methods that are implemented with some knowledge of the problem environment.
- That is because they do not exploit any underlying structures of the objective function.
- This motivates the question of how to explore and exploit the underlying structure of the function.

## Black-Box Optimization via Supervised Learning

- In this lecture, we discuss some supervised learning methods to learn and approximate the unknown objective function.
- More importantly, based on the learned model and function, we are interested in finding a good solution that guarantees a small loss value.
- Basically, we are given *n* data points

$$(x_1, f(x_1)), \ldots, (x_n, f(x_n)),$$

from which we infer the underlying function f.

- One of the most practical supervised learning is to use a neural network to learn the underlying model.
- Based on a data set of *n* points  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$  with  $y_i = f(x_i)$  for  $i \in [n]$ , one may train a neural network by considering

$$\min_{\theta} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f_{\theta}(x_i), y_i).$$

- Here, the trained neural network  $f_{\theta}$  provides an approximation of the objective function f.
- Then, we may find a solution that achieves a small f value by considering

$$\min_{x\in C} f_{\theta}(x).$$

- Feed-forward neural networks with ReLU activations functions are commonly used for approximating the unknown objective function in practice [PTA<sup>+</sup>22].
- We discuss how to find an input solution that optimizes the output value of a trained feed-forward neural network with ReLU activation.
- In particular, we explain the basic formulation due to Fischetti and Jo [FJ18] and Serra et al. [STR18].

- Let us discuss the case of a neural network with a single hidden layer.
- Let x ∈ ℝ<sup>d</sup> be the input, prepared by d input neurons. There are m neurons in the single hidden layer.
- Let the input of the *i*th neuron in the hidden layer be given by w<sub>i</sub><sup>⊤</sup>x + b<sub>i</sub>. Then the output of the neuron is

$$\operatorname{ReLU}(w_i^{\top}x+b_i).$$

- Let *a<sub>i</sub>* denote the weight between the *i*th neuron in the hidden layer and the output node.
- Then the output of the neural network is given by

$$f_{\theta}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot \operatorname{ReLU}(w_i^{\top}x + b_i).$$

• Then the problem boils down to solving

$$\min_{x \in C} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i t_i$$
s.t.  $t_i = \operatorname{ReLU}(w_i^\top x + b_i), \quad i \in [n].$ 

$$(1)$$

Recall that

$$\operatorname{ReLU}(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x > 0, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let ℓ<sub>i</sub> and u<sub>i</sub> denote the lower and upper bounds of w<sub>i</sub><sup>T</sup>x + b<sub>i</sub> over C given by

$$\ell_i = \inf_{x \in C} \left\{ w_i^\top x + b_i \right\}, \quad u_i = \sup_{x \in C} \left\{ w_i^\top x + b_i \right\}.$$

• Then, we can argue that  $t_i = \operatorname{ReLU}(w_i^\top x + b_i)$  holds if and only if  $t_i$  satisfies

$$egin{aligned} t_i &\geq 0, \ t_i &\geq w_i^{ op} x + b_i, \ t_i &\leq u_i^{ op} z_i, \ t_i &\leq w_i^{ op} x + b_i - \ell_i (1-z_i), \end{aligned}$$

for some  $z_i \in \{0, 1\}$ .

• Therefore, (1) can be formulated as

$$\min_{x \in C} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} t_{i}$$
s.t.  $t_{i} \geq 0, \quad i \in [n]$ 
 $t_{i} \geq w_{i}^{\top} x + b_{i}, \quad i \in [n]$ 
 $t_{i} \leq u_{i}^{\top} z_{i}, \quad i \in [n]$ 
 $t_{i} \leq w_{i}^{\top} x + b_{i} - \ell_{i}(1 - z_{i}), \quad i \in [n]$ 
 $z_{i} \in \{0, 1\}, \quad i \in [n].$ 

$$(2)$$

• The formulation simply extends to the case of multiple hidden layers.

 More recently, Anderson et al. [AHM<sup>+</sup>20] and Tsay et al. [TKTM21] developed computationally improved formulations for optimizing a trained feed-forward neural network with ReLU activation.

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