

Sequential Detection of Convexity from Noisy Function Evaluations

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ENT

Problem Statement

- Consider a function $g: S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ that can only be evaluated with the presence of noise at r points $\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \boldsymbol{x}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_r) \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Let the true values of the function g at \boldsymbol{x} be denoted $\boldsymbol{g} = (g(\boldsymbol{x}_1), g(\boldsymbol{x}_2), \dots, g(\boldsymbol{x}_r))^T$.
- We wish to determine the convexity/non-convexity of g with some probabilistic guarantee, using only estimates of its values obtained through simulation at the points x.
- $\blacklozenge \ g \text{ is convex if a convex function exists that coincides with } g \\ \text{ at those points.}$

2 Algorithm

- **3** Subroutine Alternatives
- **4** Numerical Experiments
- **5** Conclusion

• Learning about black-box functions



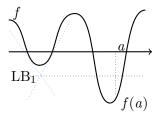
"Sorry, it's curiosity"

• Learning about black-box functions

• Stopping rule for global (stochastic) optimization algorithms



"Sorry, it's curiosity"



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Previous research: One-shot frequentist hypothesis test, with the number of samples predetermined.

Dim	Distance	Regression parameters
1	Juditsky and Nemirovski [2002]	Baraud et al. [2005]
		Diack and Thomas-Agnan [1998]
		Meyer [2012]
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Our Goal: A sequential algorithm in the Bayesian setting with indefinite number of samples and can be stopped at any time.



2 Algorithm

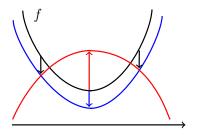
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Assumptions

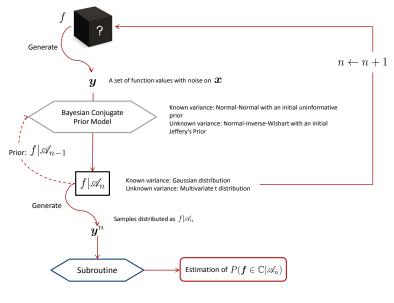
- 1. We obtain realizations of a random vector $\boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{f} + \boldsymbol{\xi}$, where $\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim N(\boldsymbol{0}, \Gamma) \in \mathbb{R}^r$, and Γ positive-definite if known.
- 2. Conditional on f, the samples $(y_n : n = 1, 2, ...)$ in each iteration consists of i.i.d. random

vectors.

Note that Γ is not necessarily diagonal because using Common Random Numbers can maintain the function structural properties (e.g. Chen et al. [2012]).



Main Idea



Convergence

Theorem

Let $p_n = P(\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{C} | \mathscr{A}_n)$ be the *n*-iteration posterior probability that \mathbf{f} is convex. As $n \to \infty$, $p_n - \mathbb{1}{\{\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{C}\}} \to 0$ a.s.

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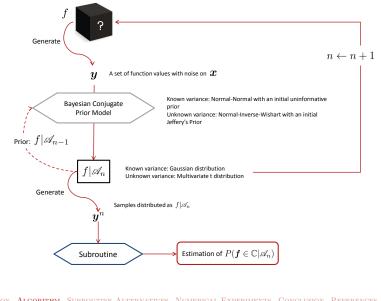
Proof sketch (assume Γ known):

- **1.** $P(f \in \partial \mathbb{C}) = 0$ leaves cases $f \notin \mathbb{C}$ and $f \in \mathbb{C}^{\circ}$.
- **2.** $\mu_n \boldsymbol{f} \to 0$ in probability and $\Lambda_n \sim \Gamma/n \to \boldsymbol{0}$ as $n \to \infty$.
- **3.** When $f \notin \mathbb{C}$, define $D_f = \min_{h \in \mathbb{C}} ||f h||$, then $p_n - \mathbb{1} \{ f \in \mathbb{C} \} = P(\mu_n + \Lambda_n^{1/2} Z \in \mathbb{C} | \mathscr{A}_n) \leq P(||\mu_n + \Lambda_n^{1/2} Z - f|| \geq D_f | \mathscr{A}_n) \leq P(||\mu_n - f|| \geq D_f / 2 | \mathscr{A}_n) + P(||\Lambda_n^{1/2} Z|| \geq D_f / 2 | \mathscr{A}_n) \to 0$ in probability by Markov's Inequality. A lower bound of 0 can be given when $f \in \mathbb{C}^\circ$ similarly.
- 4. $(p_n : n \ge 0)$ is a uniformly integrable martingale, so the convergence is almost surely.

For the unknown Γ case, a similar proof can be constructed by conditioning on $\Gamma.$

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Main Idea



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2 Algorithm

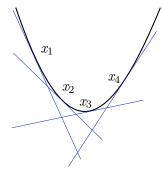
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Convexity



 $oldsymbol{g} \in \mathbb{C}$ if and only if each of the following $\mathrm{LS}(i), i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$

$$\boldsymbol{a}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + b_i = g(\boldsymbol{x}_i) \\ \boldsymbol{a}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_j + b_i \leq g(\boldsymbol{x}_j), \ \forall j \in \{1, \dots, r\} \setminus \{i\}.$$

is feasible in the variables $\boldsymbol{a}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $b_i \in \mathbb{R}_{(\text{Murty [1988]})}$.

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Vanilla Monte Carlo Method

In each iteration of the main algorithm, after updating the hyper-parameters of the posterior distribution,

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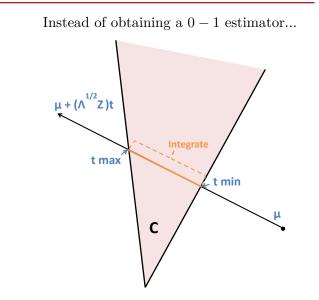
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- **3.** Output the estimator $\hat{p}_n = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m \mathbb{1} \{ \boldsymbol{y}_k^n \in \mathbb{C} \}$ as the average of all indicators.

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Conditional Monte Carlo Method



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Why would this work?

 $P(\boldsymbol{f} \in \mathbb{C}|\mathscr{A}_n)$

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Why would this work?

$$P(\boldsymbol{f} \in \mathbb{C} | \mathscr{A}_n) = E_n \left(\mathbb{1} \left\{ \Lambda_n^{1/2} X + \mu_n \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \right), \text{ for } X \sim N(0, I) \text{ or } t_{\nu_n}(0, I)$$

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Known variance: $F_{T|Z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \operatorname{sign}(t)F_{\chi_r^2}(t^2)$. Unknown variance: $F_{T|Z}(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \operatorname{sign}(t)F_{F(r,\nu_n)}(t^2/r)$.

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- **4.** Calculate $F_{T|Z}(t_{\max}(z_k)) F_{T|Z}(t_{\min}(z_k))$.
- 5. Output the estimator $\hat{p_n}$ as a sample average of such integrations obtained from *m* samples.

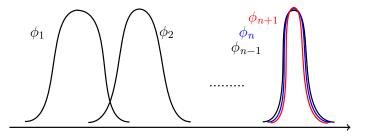
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This method achieves variance reduction compared to the vanilla Monte Carlo estimator.



As *n* grows large, we would expect $\frac{\phi_{n+1}}{\phi_n}$ to become close to 1, where ϕ_n is the density of $\boldsymbol{f}|\mathscr{A}_n$. Thus p_{n+1} may be estimated by $\boldsymbol{y}_k^n, k = 1, \ldots, m$, for which $\mathbb{1} \{ \boldsymbol{y}_k^n \in \mathbb{C} \}$ has been calculated in iteration *n*.

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At iteration n, calculate \hat{p}_n using the vanilla Monte Carlo method with samples $\boldsymbol{y}_k^n, k = 1, \ldots, m$. In iteration $n + \ell$,

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Change of Measure: Reuse all the samples \boldsymbol{y}_k^n in the *n*-th iteration. Output $\hat{p}_{n+\ell} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m \mathbb{1} \{ \boldsymbol{y}_k^n \in \mathbb{C} \} \frac{\phi_{n+\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}_k^n)}{\phi_n(\boldsymbol{y}_k^n)}$.

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Generalized Acceptance/Rejection: Reuse part of the samples by accepting \boldsymbol{y}_k^n with probability $\frac{\phi_{n+\ell}(\boldsymbol{y}_k^n)}{c\phi_n(\boldsymbol{y}_k^n)}$, then generate new samples as needed:

$$\hat{p_{n+\ell}} = \frac{1}{m} \left(\sum_{k \in S} \mathbb{1} \left\{ \boldsymbol{y}_k^n \in \mathbb{C} \right\} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-|S|} \mathbb{1} \left\{ \boldsymbol{y}_k^{n+\ell} \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \right)$$

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Reusing Samples

At iteration n, calculate \hat{p}_n using the vanilla Monte Carlo method with samples $\boldsymbol{y}_k^n, k = 1, \ldots, m$. In iteration $n + \ell$,

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By utilizing the samples and results in an earlier iteration, this method saves computational time.

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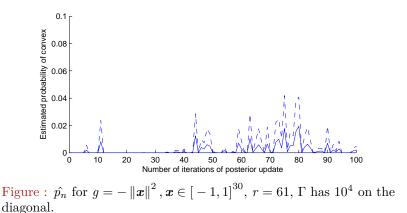
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Inverted Bowl



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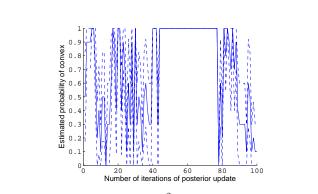


Figure : \hat{p}_n for $g = 0, \boldsymbol{x} \in [-1, 1]^2$, r = 5, Γ has 1 on the diagonal.

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Where to sample?

An interesting example for $g = \|\boldsymbol{x}\|^2$, $\boldsymbol{x} \in [-1, 1]^{30}$, r = 60, and Γ has 10^4 on the diagonal.

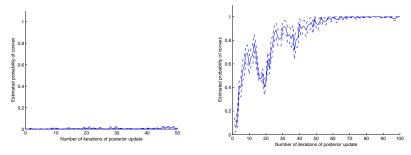


Figure : Sampling the 60 points uniformly at random in space.

Figure : Sampling along 20 random lines with 3 points on each.

What happened?

For easiness of illustration, consider a 2-dimensional function with the following level sets:

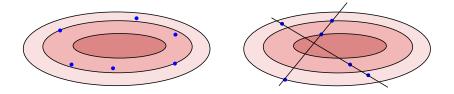


Figure : Sampling uniformly vs. Sampling along random lines.

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Ambulances in a Square

A "real" example from SimOpt.org: What does the long run average response time behave like as a function of the ambulance base location?

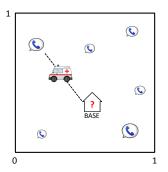


Figure : Problem illustration.

One Base, Two Bases

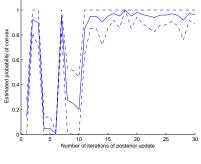
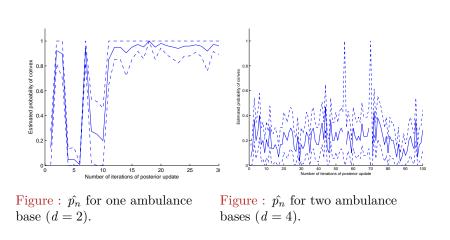


Figure : $\hat{p_n}$ for one ambulance base (d = 2).

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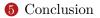
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Conclusion

We suggested

- a sequential method for detecting convexity/non-convexity of noisy functions
- a Monte Carlo method for estimating probability of convex
- three alternatives for efficiency improvement

Next steps:

- the number and locations of sampled points
- uneven sample size at each sampled point

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