

# On the minimization of possibly discontinuous functions by means of pointwise approximations\*

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## Abstract

A general approach for the solution of possibly discontinuous optimization problems by means of pointwise (perhaps smooth) approximations will be proposed. It will be proved that sequences generated by pointwise approximation techniques eventually satisfy well justified stopping criteria. Numerical examples will be given.

**Key words:** discontinuous functions, pointwise approximations, smoothing, minimization.

## 1 Introduction

Many Engineering problems involve the minimization of discontinuous functions. For example, process models with discontinuous investment costs and fixed charges [17], continuous review (s,q) inventory systems with constant demand and batch arrivals [10], design of flow sheets for systems that satisfy fixed demands of steam, electricity, and mechanical power [12], models for expansion of capacity of telecommunications networks [16], capacity and flow assignment problems [11], and optimal plastic design [15]. Different techniques have been considered for solving these seproblems, like integer programming [11], decomposition [16], simulated annealing [12], among others.

The problem considered in this paper is

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) \text{ subject to } x \in \Omega, \tag{1}$$

where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $\emptyset \neq \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . (Note that  $f(x) < \infty$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .) We will consider problem (1) with no assumptions on the continuity of the objective function. The idea is to

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replace the objective function with (possibly smooth) approximations with which it is easier to deal numerically. We will derive conditions under which optima of the approximating functions are suitable approximations for the original problem.

Many times, practical methods related with this approach rely on smoothing ideas. Smoothing methods for minimizing non-differentiable continuous function have been extensively considered in the optimization literature (see [9] and the references therein) whereas the case in which the objective function is discontinuous is rarely encountered [13, 20]. Direct search methods and methods for discontinuous bounded factorable functions have been introduced recently in [18] and [19], respectively.

Uniform convergence of a sequence of continuous functions implies continuity of the limit function  $f$ . So, in order to exploit the approximation of a discontinuous function by continuous ones we must rely in pointwise approximation. In this work we deal with the problem of minimizing a (possible discontinuous) function  $f$  with constraints. The goal is to investigate the minimization properties of pointwise approximations of  $f$ .

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we assume that finding almost global minimizers of the approximating functions is possible and we investigate the properties of an algorithm that proceeds by almost-minimization of such approximations with respect to the global minimization of the objective function. In Section 3 we address the most frequent situation in which smooth global minimization is not affordable. Assuming smoothness of the constraints, an algorithm is defined that, at each iteration, finds an Approximate KKT point of the a smooth approximation of  $f$ . We prove that the points so far obtained are interesting candidates to approximate a solution of the original problem since they obey a theoretical property that is shared by local minimizers. In Section 4 we provide some numerical examples of the approach described in the previous sections. Some conclusions are drawn in the last section.

**Notation.**  $\mathbb{N}$  denotes the set of natural numbers  $\{1, 2, \dots\}$ .  $\|\cdot\|$  denotes an arbitrary norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 2 Global results

Let  $\{f_k\}$  be a sequence of functions such that  $f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Assumption A1 below states that this sequence converges pointwise to  $f$ .

**Assumption A1** For all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x) = f(x) \text{ for all } x \in \Omega.$$

For an arbitrary nonempty set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  we say that  $s \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$  is the infimum of  $A$  if  $s$  is the biggest lower bound of  $A$ . In Theorem 2.1 we will prove that, under Assumption A1, the infimum of  $f_k$  is, asymptotically, not greater than the infimum of  $f$  onto  $\Omega$ .

**Theorem 2.1** *If Assumption A1 holds, we have that*

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x). \quad (2)$$

*Proof:* Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that

$$a > \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x).$$

Therefore, there exists  $z \in \Omega$  such that  $f(z) < a$ . Then, by Assumption A1, for all  $k$  large enough we have that  $f_k(z) < a$ . Therefore, for all  $k$  large enough,

$$\inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) < a.$$

This implies that

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) \leq a.$$

Thus, since  $a > \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$  was arbitrary,

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x),$$

as we wanted to prove.  $\square$

The usefulness of the sequence of functions  $\{f_k\}$  for solving (1) relies on the possibility that minimizing  $f_k$  could be much easier than minimizing  $f$ . For example, if the functions  $f_k$  have enough structure, one can use structure-oriented global optimization methods for their minimization [5]. The following algorithm describes a simple way to use the pointwise approximation sequence  $f_k$  with the purpose of minimizing  $f$ .

**Algorithm 2.1.** Let  $\tau \in (0, 1)$  and a sequence  $\{f_k\}$  satisfying Assumption A1 be given. Initialize  $k \leftarrow 1$  and  $\varepsilon_1 > 0$ .

**Step 1.** Employing some global optimization method, suitable for functions with the structure of  $f_k$ , find  $x^k \in \Omega$  such that

$$f_k(x^k) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) + \varepsilon_k. \quad (3)$$

**Step 2.** Set  $\varepsilon_{k+1} = \tau\varepsilon_k$ ,  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ , and go to Step 1.

The property (3) is usually guaranteed by global optimization solvers. Theorem 2.2 provides the elements to prove the main property of Algorithm 2.1, without using the specific structures of the function  $f$  or the pointwise approximations  $f_k$ .

**Theorem 2.2** *If Assumption A1 holds and the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is generated by Algorithm 2.1, we have that*

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} f_k(x^k) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x). \quad (4)$$

*Proof:* Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $a > \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$ . Therefore, there exists  $z \in \Omega$  such that  $f(z) < a$ . Define  $\eta = (a - f(z))/2 > 0$ . Since  $f_k(z) \rightarrow f(z)$ , there exists  $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f_k(z) \leq f(z) + \eta$  for all  $k \geq k_0$ . Therefore, for all  $k \geq k_0$ ,

$$\inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) \leq f_k(z) \leq f(z) + \eta.$$

Then, by (3),

$$f_k(x^k) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) + \varepsilon_k \leq f(z) + \eta + \varepsilon_k$$

for all  $k \geq k_0$ . But, since  $\eta < a - f(z)$ , this implies that

$$f_k(x^k) \leq a + \varepsilon_k \text{ for all } k \geq k_0.$$

Since this inequality holds for all  $a > \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$ , we have that

$$f_k(x^k) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x) + \varepsilon_k \text{ for all } k \geq k_0.$$

Since  $\varepsilon_k$  tends to zero, this implies the desired result.  $\square$

Observe that the inequality (2) cannot be converted into an equality. In fact, assume that  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f_k(x) = 0$  for all  $x \neq 1/k$ , and  $f_k(1/k) = -1$ . The sequence  $f_k(x)$  converges to 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and the right-hand side of (2) is 0. However, the left-hand side is  $-1$ . In Theorem 2.3 the equality is obtained through the assumption that  $f_k(x)$  over-estimates  $f(x)$ . This assumption is stated below.

**Assumption A2** For all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is such that

$$f_k(x) \geq f(x) \text{ for all } x \in \Omega.$$

**Theorem 2.3** If Assumptions A1 and A2 hold, we have that

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) = \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x).$$

*Proof:* Since  $f_k(x) \geq f(x)$  we have that

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) \geq \liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x) = \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x).$$

Therefore, the thesis follows from Theorem 2.1.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.4** If Assumptions A1 and A2 hold and the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is generated by Algorithm 2.1, we have that

$$\liminf_{k \in \mathbb{N}} f_k(x^k) = \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x).$$

*Proof:* It follows from  $f_k(x^k) \leq \inf_{x \in \Omega} f_k(x) + \varepsilon_k$  and the fact that  $\varepsilon_k$  tends to zero.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.1** In addition to the hypotheses of Theorem 2.4, assume that  $x^*$  is a global minimizer of  $f(x)$  onto  $\Omega$ . Then, there exists  $\mathbb{K}$ , an infinite subsequence of  $\mathbb{N}$ , such that

$$\lim_{k \in \mathbb{K}} f_k(x^k) = f(x^*).$$

*Proof:* Firstly, note that, by the hypothesis,  $f(x^*) = \inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$ . The rest of the proof comes from the manipulation of the concepts of infimum and limit.  $\square$

**Remarks.** The simple results presented here use neither continuity of  $f$  or its approximations  $f_k$ . Moreover, convergence of  $f_k$  to  $f$  does not need to be uniform and  $\Omega$  is an arbitrary set. The main application of these results corresponds to the case in which the functions  $f_k$  are more smooth than  $f$ . For example, when  $f$  is not continuous while the approximations  $f_k$  have continuous derivatives, one can use smooth standard algorithms for minimizing  $f_k$  in order to obtain approximations of the minimum of  $f$ .

### 3 Affordable algorithm and stopping criterion

In this section we will assume that a sequence  $\{f_k\}$  that satisfies Assumption A1 is available and that the set  $\Omega$  has the form given in Assumption A3 below.

**Assumption A3** *The domain  $\Omega$  is the set of  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that*

$$h(x) = 0 \text{ and } g(x) \leq 0, \quad (5)$$

where  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  admit continuous first derivatives for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Moreover, we will use the following assumption.

**Assumption A4** *The functions  $f_k$  admit continuous first derivatives for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .*

Whereas Algorithm 2.1 assumes that we are able to find (almost) global minimizers of  $f_k(x)$  subject to  $x \in \Omega$ , the algorithm defined in this section is less ambitious. We will only assume that it is possible to find almost stationary points of  $f_k(x)$  onto  $\Omega$ . Well established algorithms that are successful for that purpose will be called Standard Algorithms here. The main convergence property of Standard Algorithms is given below.

**Property P1** *Assume that  $\{z^\ell\}$  is a sequence generated by a Standard Algorithm applied to the minimization of  $f_k(z)$  subject to  $h(z) = 0$  and  $g(z) \leq 0$ , where  $f_k$  satisfies Assumption A4 and  $h$  and  $g$  are as in Assumption A3. Assume, moreover, that  $\{z^\ell\}$  admits a limit point  $z^{\text{lim}}$ . Then, at least one of the following two possibilities hold:*

1. *For all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an iterate  $z^\ell$  such that*

$$\begin{aligned} \|\nabla f_k(z^\ell) + \nabla h(z^\ell)\lambda^\ell + \nabla g(z^\ell)\mu^\ell\| &\leq \varepsilon, \\ \|h(z^\ell)\| &\leq \varepsilon, \\ \|g(z^\ell)_+\| &\leq \varepsilon, \\ \min\{\mu_i^\ell, -g_i(z^\ell)\} &\leq \varepsilon \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

for some  $\lambda^\ell \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mu^\ell \in \mathbb{R}_+^p$ , and the distance between  $z^\ell$  and  $z^{\text{lim}}$  is smaller than  $\varepsilon$ .

2. *The limit point  $z^{\text{lim}}$  is infeasible and stationary for the infeasibility measure. This means that*

$$\|h(z^{\text{lim}})\| + \|g(z^{\text{lim}})_+\| > 0 \text{ and } \nabla \left[ \|h(z^{\text{lim}})\|_2^2 + \|g(z^{\text{lim}})_+\|_2^2 \right] = 0. \quad (7)$$

Property P1 is satisfied by many well established smooth optimization algorithms, for example the Augmented Lagrangian method Algencon, described in [2, 7]. Essentially, Property P1 means that Standard Algorithms applied to the minimization of  $f_k(z)$  subject to  $h(z) = 0$  and  $g(z) \leq 0$ , under Assumptions A3 and A4, converges to AKKT (Approximate KKT) points [3, 7, 14]. Note that, for the fulfillment of Property P1, no constraint qualifications are necessary at all. The fulfillment of Property P1 by existent methods when applied to the problems that consists on minimizing  $f_k(z)$  onto  $\Omega$  allows us to define the following algorithm.

**Algorithm 3.1.** Let  $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\tau \in (0, 1)$ , a sequence  $\{f_k\}$  satisfying Assumptions A1 and A4,  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and  $k_{\text{big}} \in \mathbb{N}$  be given. Initialize  $k \leftarrow 1$  and  $\varepsilon_1 \geq \varepsilon$ .

**Step 1.** Employing some Standard Algorithm for minimizing  $f_k(z)$  subject to  $x \in \Omega$  (possibly starting from  $x^{k-1}$ ), find  $x^k$  that satisfies (6) with  $\varepsilon$  substituted by  $\varepsilon_k$ .

**Step 2.** If  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and  $\varepsilon_k \leq \varepsilon$ , stop.

**Step 3.** Set  $\varepsilon_{k+1} = \max\{\varepsilon, \tau\varepsilon_k\}$ ,  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ , and go to Step 1.

Due to the definitions given, the proof of the following theorem is straightforward.

**Theorem 3.1** *Let Assumptions A1, A3, and A4 hold. Assume that the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is generated by Algorithm 3.1. Assume, further, that, for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sequence potentially generated by the Standard Algorithm for minimizing  $f_k(z)$  subject to  $z \in \Omega$  is bounded and that any limit point of such sequence belongs to  $\Omega$ . Then, Algorithm 3.1 is well-defined and stops satisfying  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6).*

*Proof:* By the hypothesis, for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , the sequence generated by the Standard Algorithm for minimizing  $f_k(z)$  subject to  $z \in \Omega$  is bounded and, so, it admits a limit point. Also by the hypothesis, such limit point is feasible. Therefore it does not satisfy (7). This means that, by Property P1, there exists  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$  such that (6) holds. Therefore, Algorithm 3.1 is well defined for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Taking  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  we obtain the desired result.  $\square$

Algorithm 3.1 is well defined under the assumptions that the sequences generated by the Standard Algorithm are bounded and that limit points of those sequences are feasible. Boundedness is generally guaranteed by assumptions on the constraints, for example, when some of these constraints define a box  $\ell \leq x \leq u$ . The non-existence of infeasible limit points is implied by the non-existence of infeasible stationary points of the constraints. This property depends only on the smooth constraints  $h(x) = 0$  and  $g(x) \leq 0$  and it is not possible to guarantee that such points do not exist, except in particular cases. For this reason, in practice, we must include a stopping criterion that detects that, possibly, the Standard Algorithm iteration is close to a limit point that fulfills (7).

In the case that the assumptions of Theorem 3.1 hold, even if the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  converges to a point at which  $f$  is not differentiable, the gradient  $\nabla f_k(x^k)$  tend to be a linear combination of the gradients of the constraints, as stated in (6). In particular, if there are no constraints at all, the gradient  $\nabla f_k(x^k)$  tends to zero.

We have presented an algorithm that, under reasonable conditions, stops at a point that satisfies  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6). The question that naturally arises is: Is the stopping criterion based on  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6) reasonable? In other words, do these properties tell us something about the optimality of the solution found by Algorithm 3.1?

Let us give an example: Imagine, for a moment that we deal with smooth unconstrained minimization. Why we believe that the approximate annihilation of the gradient of the objective function is a suitable stopping criterion for related algorithms? The answer, of course, is that at local minimizers that gradient is null. Therefore, although we cannot be sure that we stop at local minimizers, at least we stop at points that verify a property that is satisfied by local minimizers.

In the same sense, we will prove now that, roughly speaking, if  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f(x)$  subject to  $x \in \Omega$ , the stopping conditions  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6) hold at  $\bar{x}$ . Note that the formulation of the stopping conditions  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6) is based on a sequence of approximating functions that satisfy Assumptions A1 and A4, but not necessarily A2. In order to guarantee that those conditions hold at a local minimizer we need to assume A2. The condition A2 plays, with respect to the stopping criterion based on  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$  and (6), the same role that constraint qualifications (for example, linear independence of active constraints) play with respect to KKT conditions in nonlinear programming: Constraint qualifications guarantee that local minimizers satisfy KKT conditions, but one considers that the fulfillment of KKT is a good symptom of optimality, independently of the satisfaction of the constraint qualification. (This observation should not be confused with the notion of AKKT conditions for smooth constrained optimization, which do not employ constraint qualifications at all.)

**Theorem 3.2** *Assume that  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f(x)$  subject to  $x \in \Omega$  and that  $\Omega$  and  $\{f_k\}$  fulfill Assumptions A1, A2, and A4. Then, there exists a sequence  $\{x^k\}$  that converges to  $\bar{x}$  and such that, for all  $k_{\text{big}} \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $k \geq k_{\text{big}}$ ,  $\lambda^k \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $\mu^k \in \mathbb{R}_+^p$  satisfying (6).*

*Proof:* Define

$$\bar{f}(x) = f(x) + \|x - \bar{x}\|_2^2$$

and

$$\bar{f}_k(x) = f_k(x) + \|x - \bar{x}\|_2^2$$

for all  $x \in \Omega$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . By Assumption A1,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \bar{f}_k(x) = \bar{f}(x) \text{ for all } x \in \Omega. \quad (8)$$

Moreover, as  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f$  onto  $\Omega$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that, for all  $x \in \Omega$  with  $0 < \|x - \bar{x}\|_2 \leq \delta$ , one has that  $\bar{f}(x) > \bar{f}(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x})$ . Thus,  $\bar{x}$  is a strict local minimizer of  $\bar{f}(x)$  onto  $\Omega$ .

For all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $B_k$  be the closed Euclidean ball with center  $\bar{x}$  and radius  $\delta/k$ , and let  $S_k$  be the boundary of this ball. Since  $\Omega$  is closed,  $\Omega \cap B_k$  and  $\Omega \cap S_k$  are compact. Therefore, by continuity,  $\bar{f}_k(x)$  admits a global minimizer onto  $\Omega \cap B_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Since  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer on  $B_k$  we have that, for all  $x \in S_k$ ,

$$f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x).$$

Therefore,

$$f(\bar{x}) < f(x) + \frac{\|x - \bar{x}\|^2}{2}.$$

This implies that

$$f(\bar{x}) < f(x) + \|x - \bar{x}\|^2 - \frac{\|x - \bar{x}\|^2}{2}.$$

So, by the definition of  $\bar{f}$ ,

$$f(\bar{x}) < \bar{f}(x) - \frac{\|x - \bar{x}\|^2}{2} = \bar{f}(x) - (\delta/k)^2/2. \quad (9)$$

By Assumption A1 there exists  $j_k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $j_k > j_{k-1}$  if  $k > 1$  and

$$f_{j_k}(\bar{x}) < f(\bar{x}) + (\delta/k)^2/4.$$

Then, by (9),

$$\bar{f}_{j_k}(\bar{x}) < \bar{f}(x) - (\delta/k)^2/4.$$

Then, by Assumption A2,

$$\bar{f}_{j_k}(\bar{x}) < \bar{f}_{j_k}(x) - (\delta/k)^2/4.$$

Since this inequality holds for all  $x \in S_k$  it turns out that the global minimizer of  $\bar{f}_{j_k}(x)$  subject to  $x \in B_k \cap \Omega$  does not belong to  $S_k$ .

Let  $z^k$  be the global minimizer of  $\bar{f}_{j_k}(x)$  subject to  $x \in B_k \cap \Omega$ . We proved above that  $\|z^k - \bar{x}\| < \delta/k$ . Therefore  $z^k$  is a local minimizer of  $f_{j_k}(x)$  subject to  $h(x) = 0$  and  $g(x) \leq 0$ . Then, by the AKKT property of local minimizers of smooth functions [3, 7], we have that there exist  $x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\lambda^k \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mu^k \in \mathbb{R}_+^p$  such that  $\|x^k - z^k\| < \delta/(2k)$ , and, in addition, (6) holds. Moreover, since  $j_k > j_{k-1}$  for  $k > 1$  it turns out that, eventually,  $j_k \geq k_{\text{big}}$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

## 4 Numerical Examples

In this section we present illustrative examples on the application of Algorithm 3.1.

### 4.1 Avoiding the greediness phenomenon in penalty methods for nonlinear programming

In this section, we present an application of a smoothing process to the solution of optimization problems of the form

$$\text{Min } \varphi(x) \text{ subject to } g(x) \leq 0, \quad (10)$$

where  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are continuously differentiable. Let  $\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid g(x) \leq 0\}$  be the feasible region and let  $\varphi^{\text{ub}} \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $\varphi(x) \leq \varphi^{\text{ub}}$  for all  $x \in \Omega$ , assumed to be known. It is easy to see that solving problem (10) is equivalent to solving the discontinuous unconstrained optimization problem given by

$$\text{Min } f(x),$$



where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \varphi(x), & \text{if } x \in \Omega, \\ \varphi^{\text{ub}} + \Phi(x), & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \max\{0, g_i(x)\}^2.$$

Let  $\{\omega_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\omega_k \rightarrow 0$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\{\kappa_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$  such that  $\kappa_k \rightarrow \infty$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$  be given sequences of positive numbers. We define

$$\Omega_k = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid g(x) \leq -\omega_k\} \subseteq \Omega \text{ and } \bar{\Omega}_k = \Omega \setminus \Omega_k,$$

and we also define  $\varphi_k(x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as

$$\varphi_k(x) = \begin{cases} \varphi(x), & \text{if } x \in \Omega_k, \\ \varphi(x) [1 - H_k(x)] + (\varphi^{\text{ub}} + \Phi(x)) [H_k(x)], & \text{if } x \in \bar{\Omega}_k, \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

where

$$H_k(x) = \frac{\kappa_k \Phi_k(x)}{1 + \kappa_k \Phi_k(x)}$$

and

$$\Phi_k(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \max\{0, g_i(x) + \omega_k\}^2.$$

Note that (11) is equivalent to:

$$\varphi_k(x) = \varphi(x) [1 - H_k(x)] + (\varphi^{\text{ub}} + \Phi(x)) [H_k(x)] \text{ for all } x \in \Omega.$$

We now define the sequence of continuously differentiable functions  $f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by

$$f_k(x) = \begin{cases} \varphi_k(x), & \text{if } x \in \Omega, \\ \varphi^{\text{ub}} + \Phi(x), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Clearly,  $f_k(x) \geq f(x)$  for all  $k$  and all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , since, by definition,  $\varphi_k(x) \geq \varphi(x)$  for all  $k$  and all  $x \in \Omega$ . Moreover, it is also easy to see that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_k(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Thus, Assumptions A1, A2, and A4 are fulfilled by the sequence  $\{f_k\}$ .

Summing up, in the application being described, the original nonlinear programming problem (10) is modeled as an equivalent discontinuous unconstrained minimization problem, which is tackled by solving a sequence of smooth unconstrained problems of the form

$$\text{Min } f_k(x)$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . The smooth functions  $f_k(x)$  were constructed in such a way that the original objective function  $\varphi(x)$  in (10) plays no role whenever  $x \notin \Omega$ . This was done with the purpose of avoiding an inconvenience of penalty methods known as greediness, which is the tendency of being attracted by spurious infeasible points at which the objective function goes to minus

infinity (see [4, 8] for details).

**Example 4.1.1:**

$$\text{Min } \prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i \text{ subject to } 0.25 \leq \|x\|_2^2 \leq 1.$$

We consider a random initial guess  $x^0 = 0.75 \bar{x}^0 / \|\bar{x}^0\|_2$ , where  $\bar{x}^0$  is such that its components  $\bar{x}_i^0$  are random values with uniform distribution in the interval  $[-1, 1]$ . It is worth noting that when a classical optimization method based on penalization is applied to this problem, the sequence of iterates  $x^k$  diverges very quickly and  $\prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i^k \rightarrow -\infty$  when  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . This is what happens when, for example, the Augmented Lagrangian method Algencan [2, 7] is applied to this problem.

We now describe the application of Algorithm 3.1. Since, for each  $k$ , the subproblem of minimizing  $f_k$  at Step 1 of Algorithm 3.1 is an unconstrained smooth problem, the method proposed in [6], named Gencan, was used as the ‘‘Standard Algorithm’’ required to tackle the subproblems. We considered  $\varepsilon_1 = 10^{-4}$ . In the definition of  $f_k$ , we set  $\omega_1 = 10^{-4}$  and  $\kappa_1 = 10$  and, for  $k > 1$ ,  $\omega_k = \omega_{k-1}/10$  and  $\kappa_k = 10\kappa_{k-1}$ . Table 1 shows the results. For each  $k \in \{1, \dots, 5\}$  the table displays the values of  $\omega_k$  and  $\kappa_k$  that define  $f_k$ , the tolerance  $\varepsilon_k$  used to stop the process of minimizing  $f_k$  at a point  $x^k$  such that  $\|\nabla f_k(x^k)\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon_k$ , the number of iterations ‘#it’ required to achieve this stopping criterion, the values of  $\|x^k\|_2$  (from which feasibility can be observed), and the objective functional value  $\prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i^k$ . In the five calls, Gencan successfully solved the subproblems. In the first two subproblems, the initial guess satisfies the stopping criterion, meaning that  $x^2 = x^1 = x^0$ . The main work is done minimizing  $f_3$  to obtain  $x^3$  that already is a reasonable approximation to the solution. The last two optimizations (of  $f_4$  and  $f_5$ ) are very quick and simple increase the number of correct digits in the solution. At the end, we have, as expected,  $x_i^5 \approx 1/\sqrt{10}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 10$ .

$k$	$\varepsilon_k$	$\omega_k$	$\kappa_k$	# it	$\ x^k\ _2$	$\prod_{i=1}^{10} x_i^k$
1	$10^{-4}$	$10^{-4}$	10	0	5.6250000D-01	7.3735355D-08
2	$10^{-5}$	$10^{-5}$	$10^2$	0	5.6250000D-01	7.3735355D-08
3	$10^{-6}$	$10^{-6}$	$10^3$	215	9.9999903D-01	-9.9999512D-06
4	$10^{-7}$	$10^{-7}$	$10^4$	5	9.9999990D-01	-9.9999950D-06
5	$10^{-8}$	$10^{-8}$	$10^5$	5	9.9999999D-01	-9.9999994D-06

Table 1: Results of applying Algorithm 3.1 to Example 4.1.1.

## 4.2 Additional illustrative problems

In this section we show the performance of the introduced method when applied to the four problems considered in [18], where direct search methods for minimizing discontinuous functions were introduced. The four problems are two-dimensional bound-constrained problems of the form

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) \text{ subject to } x \in \Omega \equiv [-1, 1]^2,$$

where function  $f$  is discontinuous and is given by one of the four functions defined below:

**Example 4.2.1:**

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_1 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1/2 \leq x_2 \leq 2x_1\}, \\ f_2(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 10, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_2 \equiv \Omega \setminus \Omega_1. \end{cases}$$

**Example 4.2.2:**

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x) \equiv 10x_1^2 + x_2^2, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_1 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1 \geq 0\}, \\ f_2(x) \equiv 10x_1^2 + 10x_2^2, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_2 \equiv \Omega \setminus \Omega_1. \end{cases}$$

**Example 4.2.3:**

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_1 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_2 = 2x_1\}, \\ f_2(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 10, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_2 \equiv \Omega \setminus \Omega_1. \end{cases}$$

**Example 4.2.4:**

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_1 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1/2 \leq x_2 \leq 2x_1\}, \\ f_2(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 5, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_2 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1 \leq 0 \text{ and } x_2 \leq 0\} \setminus \Omega_1, \\ f_3(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 10, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_3 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_2 \leq x_1/2 \text{ and } x_1 \geq 0\} \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2), \\ f_4(x) \equiv x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 15, & \text{if } x \in \Omega_4 \equiv \Omega \setminus (\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2 \cup \Omega_3). \end{cases}$$

These problems were tackled by solving a sequence of bound-constrained smooth problems given by

$$\text{Minimize } f_k(x) \text{ subject to } x \in \Omega \equiv [-1, 1]^2, \quad (12)$$

for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ . Note that, by definition, the feasible set  $\Omega$  satisfies Assumption A3. In Examples 4.2.1–4.2.3, we have that

$$f_k(x) = \left(1 - H_k^1(x)\right) f_1(x) + H_k^1(x) f_2(x),$$

$$H_k^1(x) = \frac{\kappa_k \omega_1(x)}{1 + \kappa_k \omega_1(x)},$$

and  $\omega_1(x)$  is the squared infeasibility measure associated with  $\Omega_1$ . This means that if we assume that  $\Omega_1$  is defined as  $\Omega_1 \equiv \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid h(x) = 0 \text{ and } g(x) \leq 0\}$ , where  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  are smooth functions (as it is in fact the case in the considered examples) then  $\omega_1(x)$  is given by  $\|h(x)\|_2^2 + \|g(x)_+\|_2^2$ . The sequence  $\{\kappa_k\}$  is a sequence of positive numbers that goes to infinity when  $k$  goes to infinity. In the numerical experiments, we considered  $\kappa_k = 10^k$ . In Example 4.2.4, we define the squared infeasibility measures  $\omega_i$  associated with the sets  $\Omega_i$  and the corresponding  $H_k^i$  functions for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ . In this case,  $f_k$  is given by

$$f_k(x) = \left(1 - H_k^1(x)\right) f_1(x) + H_k^1(x) \left\{ \left(1 - H_k^2(x)\right) f_2(x) + H_k^2(x) \left[ \left(1 - H_k^3(x)\right) f_3(x) + H_k^3(x) f_4(x) \right] \right\}.$$

In the four cases, the sequence  $\{f_k\}$  satisfies Assumptions A1 and A4 although, in general, does not satisfy Assumption A2.

We now describe the application of Algorithm 3.1. This time, for each  $k$ , the subproblem that is solved at Step 1 of Algorithm 3.1 is the bound-constrained smooth problem (12). Once again, the subproblems were solved using the bound-constrained solver Gencan. We considered  $\varepsilon_1 = 10^{-4}$  and  $\kappa_1 = 10$  and, for  $k > 1$ ,  $\varepsilon_k = \varepsilon_{k-1}/10$  and  $\kappa_k = 10\kappa_{k-1}$ . Table 2 shows the results. For each  $k \in \{1, \dots, 5\}$ , the table displays the value of  $\kappa_k$  that defines  $f_k$ , the tolerance  $\varepsilon_k$  used to stop the process of minimizing  $f_k$  at a point  $x^k$  such that  $\|P_\Omega(x^k - \nabla f_k(x^k)) - x^k\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon_k$  (that, for convex-constrained minimization is a stopping criterion equivalent to (6)), the number of iterations, functional evaluations, and gradient evaluations ( $\#it$ ,  $\#fcnt$ , and  $\#gcnt$ , respectively) required to achieve this stopping criterion for the  $k$ th subproblem, the value of  $f_k(x^k)$ , and the point  $x^k$  itself. The initial point was always a random initial point  $x^0 \in [-1, 1]^2$ .

As it can be seen in Table 2, when Algorithm 3.1 is applied to Example 4.2.1, almost all the work is done when  $k = 1$ . The point  $x^1$  is also a solution for the subproblem corresponding to  $k = 2$  and this is the reason why nothing is done at the second iteration of the algorithm. Then, a single iteration of the bound-constrained solver Gencan is done when minimizing  $f_3$  starting from  $x_2 = x_1$  to obtain  $x_3$  that is almost identical to the previously obtained points. The process continues with  $x_3 = x_4 = x_5$ . The performance is analogous in the other three examples and the method found a good approximation to the known solution  $x^* = (0, 0)^T$  in all cases using a reduced number of functional evaluations. On the one hand, if these results are compared to the ones reported in [18], it can be concluded that Algorithm 3.1 is very effective and efficient (the method proposed in [18] fails, as supported by the underlying theory, when applied to Example 4.2.3 because  $\Omega_1$  has an empty interior). The method proposed in the present work also performs a very reduced number of functional evaluations when compared to the one introduced in [18]; although in the present context a single evaluation of  $f_k$  means evaluating all parts of the piecewise defined functions  $f$  and  $\nabla f_k(\cdot)$  is also evaluated. On the other hand, building  $f_k$  requires to have access to the piecewise definition of  $f$ ; while the method proposed in [18] may be applied to black-box discontinuous functions.

Example 4.2.1

$k$	$\varepsilon_k$	$\kappa_k$	#it	#fcnt	#gcnt	$f_k(x^k)$	$x^k$
1	$10^{-4}$	10	5	28	14	$4.3\text{e-}24$	( $1.7\text{e-}12, 8.8\text{e-}13$ )
2	$10^{-5}$	$10^2$	0	1	2	$8.1\text{e-}24$	( $1.7\text{e-}12, 8.8\text{e-}13$ )
3	$10^{-6}$	$10^3$	1	2	4	$3.9\text{e-}24$	( $1.7\text{e-}12, 8.8\text{e-}13$ )
4	$10^{-7}$	$10^4$	0	1	2	$3.9\text{e-}24$	( $1.7\text{e-}12, 8.8\text{e-}13$ )
5	$10^{-8}$	$10^5$	0	1	2	$3.9\text{e-}24$	( $1.7\text{e-}12, 8.8\text{e-}13$ )

Example 4.2.2

$k$	$\varepsilon_k$	$\kappa_k$	#it	#fcnt	#gcnt	$f_k(x^k)$	$x^k$
1	$10^{-4}$	10	1	2	6	$1.7\text{e-}16$	( $4.2\text{e-}9, 7.5\text{e-}10$ )
2	$10^{-5}$	$10^2$	0	1	2	$1.7\text{e-}16$	( $4.2\text{e-}9, 7.5\text{e-}10$ )
3	$10^{-6}$	$10^3$	0	1	2	$1.7\text{e-}16$	( $4.2\text{e-}9, 7.5\text{e-}10$ )
4	$10^{-7}$	$10^4$	0	1	2	$1.7\text{e-}16$	( $4.2\text{e-}9, 7.5\text{e-}10$ )
5	$10^{-8}$	$10^5$	1	2	4	$4.6\text{e-}19$	( $-1.2\text{e-}12, 6.8\text{e-}10$ )

Example 4.2.3

$k$	$\varepsilon_k$	$\kappa_k$	#it	#fcnt	#gcnt	$f_k(x^k)$	$x^k$
1	$10^{-4}$	10	3	25	10	$1.3\text{e-}17$	( $1.6\text{e-}9, 3.2\text{e-}9$ )
2	$10^{-5}$	$10^2$	0	1	2	$1.3\text{e-}17$	( $1.6\text{e-}9, 3.2\text{e-}9$ )
3	$10^{-6}$	$10^3$	1	2	4	$1.3\text{e-}17$	( $1.6\text{e-}9, 3.2\text{e-}9$ )
4	$10^{-7}$	$10^4$	0	1	2	$1.3\text{e-}17$	( $1.6\text{e-}9, 3.2\text{e-}9$ )
5	$10^{-8}$	$10^5$	0	1	2	$1.3\text{e-}17$	( $1.6\text{e-}9, 3.2\text{e-}9$ )

Example 4.2.4

$k$	$\varepsilon_k$	$\kappa_k$	#it	#fcnt	#gcnt	$f_k(x^k)$	$x^k$
1	$10^{-4}$	10	3	25	11	$5.7\text{e-}14$	( $2.1\text{e-}7, 1.0\text{e-}7$ )
2	$10^{-5}$	$10^2$	0	1	2	$5.7\text{e-}14$	( $2.1\text{e-}7, 1.0\text{e-}7$ )
3	$10^{-6}$	$10^3$	0	1	2	$5.7\text{e-}14$	( $2.1\text{e-}7, 1.0\text{e-}7$ )
4	$10^{-7}$	$10^4$	1	2	4	$3.3\text{e-}33$	( $5.9\text{e-}17, 2.5\text{e-}17$ )
5	$10^{-8}$	$10^5$	0	1	2	$3.3\text{e-}33$	( $5.9\text{e-}17, 2.5\text{e-}17$ )

Table 2: Results of applying Algorithm 3.1 to Examples 4.2.1–4.2.4.

## 5 Conclusions

The theoretical results presented in this paper showed that, under very mild conditions, assuming global minimization of subproblems, global minimizers of the original discontinuous problem are obtained. Moreover, if we only assume that the subproblems solver finds asymptotically stationary points, the sequence generated by the algorithm converges to points that satisfy a sequential optimality condition. Obviously, it is not possible to claim universal robustness or efficiency of smoothing methods that obey the assumptions given here. However, illustrative numerical experiments showed that this approach can be useful to solve interesting problems. For example, applications to smoothed quantile regression [1] seems to be attractive and will deserve to be considered in the near future.

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