

# Computing useful sparse Hessian approximations satisfying componentwise secant equations I: using a known sparsity pattern

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## 1 Introduction

Suppose that we are given a differentiable function  $f(x)$  of  $n$  variables  $x$ , whose gradient  $g(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_x f(x)$  is known. Our aim is to build estimates  $B_k$  of its Hessian matrix  $H(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_{xx} f(x)$  at a sequence of given points  $x_k$ . Such a requirement lies at the heart of many Newton-like methods for minimizing  $f$  or methods that try to assess the stability of its gradient. We shall be particularly interested in the case for which

**A1**  $H(x)$  is sparse and its sparsity pattern is known;  
the *sparsity pattern* of  $H(x)$ ,  $\mathcal{S}(H) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(i, j) : H_{ij}(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x\}$ , and we shall say that the Hessian has an *entry* in row  $i$  and column  $j$  if  $H_{ij}(x) \neq 0$  for some  $x$ .

If we are extremely fortunate, we might have an analytic expression for  $H$  or we might be able to obtain  $H$  by automatic differentiation [14]. If not, we might resort to a finite-difference approximation in which we obtain one column of  $B_k$  at a time from, for instance

$$B_k e_i \approx \delta_i^{-1} [g(x_k + \delta_i e_i) - g(x_k)],$$

where  $e_i$  is the  $i$ -th unit vector and  $\delta_i$  is an appropriate small scalar [9]; more expensive but accurate central differences might also be used [6, §5.6]. Note that as it stands,  $n + 1$  gradient evaluations will be required to find  $B_k$ . If, however,  $H(x)$  satisfies A1, it is often possible to partition  $\mathcal{N} = \{1, \dots, n\}$  so that  $\mathcal{N} = \bigcup_{j=1}^m \mathcal{I}_j$ , where  $\mathcal{I}_i \cap \mathcal{I}_j = \emptyset$  for  $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ , the rows indexed in each set  $\mathcal{I}_j$  are orthogonal, and  $m \ll n$ . In this case

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_j} B_k e_i \approx \delta_i^{-1} [g(x_k + \delta_i \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}_j} e_i) - g(x_k)],$$

and only  $m + 1$  gradients are required; taking account of symmetry may reduce this count further [2, 18].

The other common way to approximate  $H(x_k)$  is to use previous gradients  $g(x_j)$ ,  $j < k$  and to require that  $B_k$  satisfies the secant equation

$$B_k(x_k - x_{k-1}) = g_k - g_{k-1}.$$

where  $g_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g(x_k)$ . Traditionally,  $B_k$  is obtained from the previous estimate  $B_{k-1}$  by imposing the secant equation as well as the requirement that  $B_k - B_{k-1}$  be of low rank [6, 17]—usually rank one or two—rather than sparse. Thus there is little reason to believe that  $B_k$  will be sparse even if its predecessor was. Although there have been attempts to derive sparse updates [7, 21, 22], there are good reasons to be concerned about their stability [20].

Such secant methods start from an initial Hessian estimate  $B_0$  and build up the approximation as new points are added. Thus, after  $k$  steps, a rank  $k$  or  $2k$  update will have been applied to  $B_0$ . A related limited-memory approach is to use dense low-rank updates, but rather than applying them all to  $B_0$ , apply the last  $m$  updates as if they had been applied to an re-initialized  $B_{k-m}$ . Indeed, rather than computing  $B_k$  from  $B_{k-1}$  directly, the sequence of previous  $m$  steps  $s_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x_j - x_{j-1}$  and gradient differences  $y_j \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g_j - g_{j-1}$  are recorded and the effect (product with, solve with) of using the relevant  $B_k$  computed when necessary [15, 16]. But as before, no attempt is made to enforce the structure  $\mathcal{S}(H)$  on  $B_k$ .

At the other extreme, if  $f$  is partially separable [13], i.e., if

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^l f_i(x),$$

where each “element”  $f_i(x)$  has a large invariant subspace, it is then possible to obtain the approximation

$$B_k = \sum_{i=1}^l B_{ik}$$

where each element Hessian estimate  $B_{ik}$  satisfies its own secant equation

$$B_{ik}(x_k - x_{k-1}) = g_i(x_k) - g_i(x_{k-1})$$

and where  $g_i(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_x f_i(x)$ . The invariant subspace assumption implies that  $g_i$  and  $B_{ik}$  are structured. In particular, any differentiable  $f$  with a sparse Hessian is partially separable [12], and in this case, the element secant equations each only involves a few variables, leading to an excellent sparse approximation. This and its generalization to group-partial separability [3], forms the basis of the approximations used in **LANCELOT** [4], but does not appear otherwise to have been widely adopted, primarily because users seem unable or unwilling to provide the necessary separability structure.

From the user’s perspective, a more appealing approach, and the one we advocate in this paper, is to use the accumulated data  $\{s_l\}_{l=k-m+1}^k$  and  $\{y_l\}_{l=k-m+1}^k$  and the sparsity of  $H$  to estimate  $B_k$  directly. The only development we are aware of in this direction is that due to Fletcher, Grothey and Leyffer [8]. Their idea is to build an approximation  $B_k$  that satisfies as best as possible the multiple secant conditions

$$B_k s_l = y_l \quad \text{for } l = k - m + 1, \dots, k \tag{1.1}$$

the symmetry condition

$$B_k = B_k^T$$

and the sparsity condition

$$\mathcal{S}(B_k) = \mathcal{S}(H).$$

Since (1.1) may be inconsistent, a reasonable compromise is to solve instead the convex quadratic program

$$B_k = \arg \min_B \sum_{l=k-m+1}^k \|B_k s_l - y_l\|_2^2 \text{ subject to } B = B^T \text{ and } \mathcal{S}(B) = \mathcal{S}(H).$$

This solution may be found by solving a linear system of order,  $n_e$ , the number of entries in the upper triangle of  $H(x)$ . Since  $n_e$  may in general be large, estimates of the solution  $B_k$  may better be found using an iterative scheme such as conjugate gradients [8].

## 2 Estimation

The approach we advocate is somewhat different. Rather than imposing the full secant conditions (1.1) for the previous  $m$  steps, we aim to satisfy as many *componentwise* equations

$$e_i^T B_k s_l = e_i^T y_l \quad (2.1)$$

or equivalently

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}_i} (B_k)_{ij} s_{jl} = y_{il}, \text{ where } \mathcal{I}_i = \{j : H_{ij} \neq 0\} \quad (2.2)$$

for  $l = k, k-1, \dots$  as are necessary to define the  $i$ th row of  $B_k$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Naively (and neglecting any inconsistencies or redundancies in dependencies), for row  $i$ , we need as many equations (2.2) as there are entries in row  $i$ , and the entries may be calculated in any order (and in parallel) as follows:

**Algorithm 2.1: Sparse Hessian approximation (unsymmetric version)**

For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

Compute the unknown entries in the row using (2.2) for  $l = k - |\mathcal{I}_i| + 1, \dots, k$ .

Note that any off diagonal entry will be estimated twice in Algorithm 2.1; if we are relying on a symmetric approximation, we may replace both by a suitable weighted average. Alternatively, we may simply take the off-diagonal values in the order they are calculated, overwriting the first estimate by the second; in practice in this case we access the rows in order of decreasing row counts, since rows with smaller counts require fewer differences and may therefore be more accurate.

But of course this does not truly account for symmetry. In particular (2.2) may be rewritten as

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}_i^-} (B_k)_{ij} s_{jl} = y_{il} - \sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}_i^+} (B_k)_{ij} s_{jl} \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$\mathcal{I}_i^+ = \{j : j \in \mathcal{I}_i \text{ and } (B_k)_{ji} \text{ is already known}\} \text{ and } \mathcal{I}_i^- = \mathcal{I}_i \setminus \mathcal{I}_i^+.$$

Thus for row  $i$  (and again ignoring inconsistencies and the like), the data from  $|\mathcal{I}_i^+|$  previous steps is required.

It is clear from the above that the order in which the rows are addressed is crucial. For example, consider two Hessian matrices with arrow-head structures

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & & * \\ & * & * \\ & . & : \\ & & * * \\ * & * & \dots & * & * \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} * & * & \dots & * & * \\ * & * & & & \\ \vdots & & . & & \\ * & & & * & \\ * & & & & * \end{pmatrix}$$

For the former, the first  $n - 1$  rows each require that two entries—those on the diagonal and those in column  $n$ —be computed. The last row requires  $n$  entries, but by symmetry, all of the off-diagonal entries have already been computed. Thus in this row, only the diagonal entry is unknown, and hence all of the data may be computed using two data pairs  $(s_k, y_k)$  and  $(s_{k-1}, y_{k-1})$ . Contrast this with the second example, where the first row contains  $n$  (at this stage) unknown entries that must be computed, and thus  $n$  data pairs  $(s_l, y_l), l = k - n + 1, \dots, k$  will be required. Of course the two examples are structurally symmetric permutations of one another.

Our algorithm is based on the connectivity graph  $\mathcal{C}$  of  $H(x)$ . Recall, this is a graph with  $n$  vertices for which there is an edge between vertices  $i$  and  $j$  if and only if  $H_{ij}(x) \neq 0$  for some  $x$ . The number of entries in row  $i$  is the degree of vertex  $i$  plus one. Our ordering and approximation strategy is as follows:

**Algorithm 2.2: Sparse Hessian approximation (symmetric version)**

Compute the connectivity graph  $\mathcal{C}$  of  $H(x)$ , and record the degrees of each vertex.

For  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

Find a vertex of minimum degree, and assign the corresponding row as row  $i$ .

Compute the remaining unknown entries in the row using (2.3) for  $l = k - |\mathcal{I}_i^+| + 1, \dots, k$ .

Remove the chosen vertex, and update the remaining degrees.

The aim of the algorithm is clearly to keep the number of required data pairs per step small.

At each step, a vertex of smallest degree is required. The vertices can be initially ordered using a counting [19, §2.4.6] or bucket [5] sort in  $O(n)$  operations and storage locations.

Thereafter, since at each stage each degree can decrease by at most one, the degrees and their order may be updated in  $O(n_e)$  operations. The cost of finding the unknown entries in the  $i$ th ordered row is  $O(|\mathcal{I}_i^+|^3)$  floating-point operations using Gaussian elimination.

While Algorithm 2.2 will almost always require fewer floating-point operations than its predecessor, it has two, related, disadvantages. The first is that the steps in Algorithm 2.1 may be performed in parallel (aside from any value averaging for symmetry), while Algorithm 2.2 is to a large degree sequential—in practice, vertices  $i$  and  $j$  of minimum degree with  $\mathcal{I}_i^+ \cap \mathcal{I}_j^+ = \emptyset$  may be processed in parallel. The second, and more serious, defect is that inaccurate estimates from earlier steps in Algorithm 2.2 can be magnified when solving (2.3), leading to error growth even for constant Hessians ( $H(x) = H$ ); this is similar in effect to that when attempting Gaussian elimination without pivoting. Algorithm 2.1, by contrast, is immune since each row's values are computed independently. Observed error growth is usually gradual but relentless; the more times an inaccurate early value occurs in later rows, the worse the effect, and this is particularly pernicious for large matrices.

An obvious way around this predicament is to combine the two (unsymmetric and symmetric) approaches. To do so, we presume that the vast majority of the rows of the Hessian we seek to estimate are very sparse, while the remaining few are relatively dense. Thus, we may estimate the entries in the sparse rows independently and (presumably) accurately leaving a few to estimate using the symmetric scheme. That is, after an implicit symmetric permutation, we estimate the Hessian

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{12}^T & H_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

by obtaining the entries  $(H_{11} \ H_{12})$  independently row-by-row, and then finding the unknowns  $H_{22}$  in the few remaining rows by applying Algorithm 2.2 to  $H_{22}$ . Formally,

**Algorithm 2.3: Sparse Hessian approximation (combined version)**

For sparse rows  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

Compute the unknown entries in the row using (2.2) for  $l = k - |\mathcal{I}_i| + 1, \dots, k$ .

Compute the connectivity graph  $\mathcal{C}$  of the remaining  $H_{22}(x)$ , and record the degrees of each vertex.

For remaining dense rows  $i = 1, \dots, n$ :

Find a vertex of minimum degree, and assign the corresponding row as row  $i$ .

Compute the remaining unknown entries in the row using (2.3) for  $l = k - |\mathcal{I}_i^+| + 1, \dots, k$ .

Remove the chosen vertex, and update the remaining degrees.

In principal it is possible to apply Algorithm 2.3 recursively to the block  $H_{22}$  in (2.4), but this may also lead to large error growth if the recursion is too deep. In our experience, fortunately, recursion is unnecessary (see §4).

An alternative is to order the vertices using Algorithm 2.2, but only to use (2.3) to compute the unknown entries in row  $i$  if  $|\mathcal{I}_i|$  is deemed too large to use (2.2) to compute all the entries in the row afresh. We shall refer to this approach as Algorithm 2.2/3 (and use 50 entries as our default switch threshold).

Advantages and disadvantages c.f. [8] -

- More susceptible to bad early values
- possibly few entire secant equations
- much cheaper to obtain

### 3 Enhancements

The  $i$ th componentwise secant equation (2.1) may be written compactly as

$$S_i^T b_i = y_i^R, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $b_i$  are the  $|\mathcal{I}_i|$  entries in the  $i$ th row of  $B$ ,  $S_i$  is the matrix made up of the components of the rows indexed by  $\mathcal{I}_i$  of the data vectors  $\{s_j\}$ ,  $j = k, k-1, \dots$ , and  $y_i^R$  is the (transpose of the)  $i$ th row of the matrix whose columns are the vectors  $\{y_j\}$ ,  $j = k, k-1, \dots$ . The corresponding equation (2.3) may be expressed similarly as

$$(S_i^-)^T b_i^- = y_i^R - (S_i^+)^T b_i^+, \quad (3.2)$$

where the  $+$  and  $-$  indicate the known and unknown components of  $b_i$  and the corresponding sub-matrices of  $S_i$ . Thus generically, for each row we need to satisfy equations

$$S^T b = y, \quad (3.3)$$

to determine the  $\ell$  components of  $b$  as best as possible. Notice that we have not yet specified how many (or which) data vectors  $\{(s_j, y_j)\}$ ,  $j = k, \dots, 1$  are required.

Ideally we would have sufficient data that  $k \geq l$  and the square matrix  $S$  made up from the  $\ell$  most recent  $s_j$  is non singular. But clearly this may not be the case. Firstly, in the early stages of estimation, there may simply not be enough data; this will certainly be the case if  $k < l$ . Secondly,  $S$  formed as above may be singular (or close to singular) and in this case either again there will not be enough data to determine  $b$  uniquely or the data  $y$  may be inconsistent (if  $f$  is not quadratic). One may of course choose to substitute existing inconsistent data with that obtained from earlier iterations.

When there is insufficient data, one option is simply to assign certain components of  $b$  to zero, and solve for the remainder. One might, for example, remove elements far from the

diagonal. However, since this seems relatively arbitrary, our preferred strategy is instead to find the smallest  $b$  consistent with the data by solving the constrained least-squares problem

$$\underset{b \in \mathbb{R}^l}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|b\|_2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad S^T b = y$$

using, for example, a singular-value decomposition of  $S$ . When the latest data is inconsistent, rather than trying to find earlier data to exchange, one might instead put additional earlier data into  $B$  and  $y$  and to solve the weighted least-squares problem

$$\underset{b \in \mathbb{R}^k}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|W(S^T b - y)\|_2$$

where the diagonal weights  $W$  favour the latest data. Once again, a singular-value decomposition of  $W S^T$  is suitable. Our preference is however simply to find the least-squares solution to  $S^T b = y$  of minimum  $\ell_2$ -norm from the singular-value decomposition of  $S^T$ .

To be specific, in both the under- and over-determined cases, we compute the “compact” singular-value decomposition  $S^T = U\Sigma V^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m_s \times n_s}$ , where the columns of  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m_s \times r_s}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n_s \times r_s}$  are orthogonal,  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{r_s \times r_s}$  is non-singular and diagonal, and  $r_s$  is the rank of  $S^T$ . We then find the required solution  $b = V\Sigma^{-1}U^T y$  using, for example, `gelss` or `gelsd` from LAPACK [1]. Optionally we also provide a faster but potentially less stable variant based on a QR factorization of  $S^T$  with interchanges using LAPACK’s `gelsy`, as well as a faster-still LU-based approach using `getrf/s` when  $S$  is square and non-singular.

## 4 Numerical experiments

We now consider how the methods we have suggested perform in practice. To do so, we consider Hessian matrices for all of the sparse examples from the CUTER [10] collection whose dimensions either exceed 999 or are variable (in which case the default dimension is used). This leads to 447 problems in total, 127 of which are unconstrained.

Our experiments are performed on a single processor of a system comprising 16 Intel Xeon E5620 CPUs clocked at 2.4GHz, with 23.5 GiB of RAM, running the 64-bit Ubuntu 12.04.2 LTS (precise) operating system. The algorithms from § 2 have been implemented in the fortran 2003 package `SHA` as part of the `GALAHAD` library [11]. All codes are compiled in double precision using gfortran 4.6 with -O3 optimization.

In our first set of experiments, we simply wish to investigate the accuracy attained by the algorithms we have proposed under ideal circumstances. In particular, we evaluate the Hessian  $H(x)$  of each of our problems at a “typical” value<sup>1</sup>, we generate pseudo random vectors  $s_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , with entries in  $[-1, 1]$ , and we evaluate  $y_i = H(x)s_i$ . We then use our algorithms to see how well we can reproduce  $H(x)$  from the given data pairs  $(s_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ; at most  $m = 100$  pairs are permitted. The full results of our experiments are given in Table A.1 in Appendix A.

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<sup>1</sup>for constrained problems, we evaluate the Hessian of the Lagrangian function with “typical” Lagrange multipliers.

Close scrutiny of Table A.1 reveals the following trends. When the maximum number of entries per row is reasonable, Algorithm 2.1 finds their values fast and accurately. However, there are a significant number of examples in the test set that have one or more relatively dense rows, and for these the unsophisticated approach is inappropriate. Algorithm 2.2 generally produces unknown entry counts that are better than those for its predecessor, often markedly so, and as a consequence often runs faster. In some cases, the accuracy is good, but in many cases the error growth through using existing estimates when computing new ones is large, often catastrophically so. Thus, we really cannot recommend this approach. The combined versions fare better. Algorithm 2.2/3 generally limits the growth very well, only in a few cases are rows consistently too full to prohibit independent evaluation, and for these there is rarely fatal growth; large growth occurred for JIMACK, MSQRTA, MSQRTB, ORTHREGE, SCURLY30, SPARSINE, SPARSQUR, STC/NQP1/2 and TWIRIMD1, while there were insufficient data pairs to evaluate FERRISDC and TWIRIBG1. Algorithm 2.3 is even more successful. Only ORTHREGE, exhibited significant growth, although again FERRISDC, TWIRIBG1 and additionally TWIRIMD1 needed more data than was available. In most cases, the actual number of data pairs required is extremely modest, and this leads us to believe that Algorithm 2.3 has high potential for sparse estimation.

## 5 Conclusions

We have presented a number of new methods for computing Hessian approximations when the sparsity structure is known in advance. The methods are promising in many cases, but numerical issues with stability of the approximated Hessian entries gives some cause for concern. We view this as similar to those that may happen in Gaussian Elimination when solving linear systems, and anticipate that more complicated pivoting strategies will be needed to overcome this deficiency. This is the subject of ongoing research.

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## Appendix A

In Table A.1, we report the complete results when applying Algorithms 2.1, 2.2 and the two variants of 2.3 on the sparse examples from the CUTEr [10] test set. For each problem, we categorise its type (ty) as Unconstrained or Constrained, its dimension  $n$ , and the maximum number of entries in any row of its Hessian (deg). For each algorithm we record the maximum dimension of any linear system that needs to be solved (sys),  $\log_{10}$  of the

relative componentwise error

$$\max_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{S}(H)} \frac{|H_{ij}^{\text{EST}} - H_{ij}^{\text{EXACT}}|}{\max(1, |H_{ij}^{\text{EXACT}}|)}$$

of the computed approximation  $H^{\text{EST}}$  of the exact Hessian  $H^{\text{EXACT}}$  (err, with -inf meaning the error is zero and inf indicating overflow) and the total CPU time taken to compute the approximation in seconds. We allowed a maximum linear-system dimension of 100, and any algorithm that required more than this is classified as a failure (indicated by a - ).











Table A.1: Reproducing Hessians for quadratic examples: Complete results (continued)

name	ty	n	deg	Algorithm 2.1			Algorithm 2.2			Algorithm 2.2/3			Algorithm 2.3		
				sys	err	time	sys	err	time	sys	err	time	sys	err	time
STEENBRG	C	540	15	15	-12	0.004	15	-9	0.003	15	-12	0.004	15	-12	0.004
STEERING	C	2006	1204	1204	-	-	2	-11	0.003	2	-11	0.003	2	-11	0.003
STNQP1	C	8193	121	121	-	-	43	144	0.052	49	136	0.059	75	-10	0.169
STNQP2	C	8193	121	121	-	-	43	144	0.052	49	136	0.057	75	-10	0.168
SVANBERG	C	5000	1	1	-15	0.007	1	-15	0.005	1	-15	0.004	1	-15	0.003
TESTQUAD	U	5000	1	1	-16	0.003	1	-16	0.003	1	-16	0.005	1	-16	0.003
TOINTGSS	U	5000	5	5	-12	0.009	3	-10	0.007	5	-12	0.008	5	-12	0.009
TORSION1	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.010	3	18	0.007	5	-12	0.009	5	-12	0.010
TORSION2	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.010	3	18	0.007	5	-12	0.010	5	-12	0.009
TORSION3	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.009	3	18	0.007	5	-12	0.009	5	-12	0.009
TORSION4	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.010	3	18	0.007	5	-12	0.010	5	-12	0.009
TORSION5	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.009	3	18	0.007	5	-12	0.010	5	-12	0.010
TORSION6	U	5476	5	5	-12	0.013	3	18	0.008	5	-12	0.009	5	-12	0.009
TORSIONA	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.010	3	18	0.008	5	-13	0.010	5	-12	0.008
TORSIONB	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.010	3	18	0.008	5	-13	0.010	5	-12	0.009
TORSIONC	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.010	3	18	0.008	5	-13	0.010	5	-12	0.008
TORSIOND	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.009	3	18	0.007	5	-13	0.010	5	-12	0.009
TORSIONE	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.010	3	18	0.008	5	-13	0.010	5	-12	0.010
TORSIONF	U	5476	5	5	-13	0.010	3	18	0.007	5	-13	0.009	5	-12	0.009
TQUARTIC	U	5000	5000	-	-	-	2	-13	0.008	2	-13	0.009	2	-13	0.008
TRAINF	C	4008	2	2	-16	0.002	2	-17	0.002	2	-16	0.002	2	-16	0.002
TRAINH	C	4008	2	2	-16	0.004	2	-16	0.003	2	-16	0.002	2	-16	0.004
TRIDIA	U	5000	3	3	-12	0.006	2	-10	0.006	3	-12	0.006	3	-12	0.007
TWIRIBG1	C	3127	1886	1886	-	-	105	-	-	105	-	-	1885	-	-
TWIRIMD1	C	1247	660	660	-	-	63	24	0.077	63	24	0.076	652	-	-
UBH1	C	9009	1	1	-inf	0.003	1	-inf	0.003	1	-inf	0.003	1	-inf	0.003
UBH5	C	5010	1	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.001
WALL10	U	1461	42	42	-10	0.016	12	23	0.007	42	-10	0.016	42	-10	0.016
WALL100	U	149624	42	42	-8	1.947	12	inf	0.811	42	-8	1.950	42	-7	1.743
WALL20	U	5924	42	42	-9	0.068	12	61	0.027	42	-9	0.068	42	-8	0.066
WALL50	U	37311	42	42	-8	0.456	12	144	0.176	42	-8	0.459	42	-8	0.433
WOODSNE	C	4000	1	1	-16	0.002	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.002	1	-16	0.002
YAO	C	2002	1	1	-inf	0.002	1	-inf	0.001	1	-inf	0.002	1	-inf	0.002
YATP1SQ	C	123200	352	352	-	-	3	-9	0.141	3	-9	0.140	3	-10	0.140
YATP2SQ	C	123200	352	352	-	-	3	-11	0.147	3	-11	0.154	3	-11	0.147
ZAMB2	C	3966	5	5	-14	0.004	3	-13	0.003	5	-14	0.004	5	-14	0.004
ZIGZAG	C	3004	1	1	-16	0.000	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.001	1	-16	0.001

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