

Lecture 22— Newton's Method and Interior Point Algorithms

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In the previous lecture, in order to find $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$, assuming that $f(x)$ has continuous first and second derivatives, we used Taylor approximation.

$$f(x + \delta) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \delta + \delta^T \nabla^2 f(y) \delta \quad \text{where } y \in [x, x + \delta]$$

We assumed that we have query access to $f(x)$ and $\nabla f(x)$. We also considered the following bound assumptions on $\nabla^2 f$:

1. $\delta^T \nabla^2 f(y) \delta \leq \beta \|\delta\|^2$ or, equivalently, $\lambda_{\max}(\nabla^2) \leq \beta$, which implies that the progress is at least $\frac{1}{2\beta} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$ at every step;
2. f is convex, which means that $\delta^T \nabla^2 f(y) \delta \geq 0$ and that if $\nabla f = 0$ we have reached optimality;
3. $\delta^T \nabla^2 f(y) \delta \geq \alpha \|\delta\|^2$

Convergence occurs in $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} \log \frac{f(x^0) - f(x^*)}{\epsilon}\right)$ where β is the biggest eigenvalue and α is the smallest eigenvalue of $\nabla^2 f$, and x^* is the optimal solution. We are looking for x^T such that:

$$f(x^T) - f(x^*) \leq \epsilon$$

Define the *condition number* $k = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}$.

1 Newton's Method

Define $Q = \delta^T \nabla^2 f(y) \delta$. Using linear changes of variables, we have:

$z := Ax$ where A is a full rank $n \times n$ matrix

$$\Delta := A\delta \implies \delta = A^{-1}\Delta$$

$$Q = \Delta^T (A^{-1})^T \nabla^2 f(y) A^{-1} \Delta$$

We want to set A such that:

$$(A^{-1})^T \nabla^2 f(y) A^{-1} = I$$

since then $\frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}} = 1$. Therefore,

$$\nabla^2 f(y) = A^T A \implies A = (\nabla^2 f(y))^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Now, fix A . We look for a step which is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \arg \min_{\delta: \Delta=A\delta, \|\Delta\|=\epsilon} \nabla f(x)^T \delta + \frac{1}{2} \|\Delta\|^2 \\
 &= \arg \min_{\delta: \Delta=A\delta, \|\Delta\|=\epsilon} \nabla f(x)^T A^{-1} \Delta \\
 &= -\eta A^{-1} (A^{-1})^T \nabla f(x) \\
 &= -\eta (\nabla^2 f(y))^{-1} \nabla f(x)
 \end{aligned}$$

Because the minimum is achieved for $\Delta \propto -(\nabla f(x)^T A^{-1})^T = -(A^{-1})^T \nabla f(x)$. Therefore, the minimization occurs at step $\delta = -\eta (\nabla^2 f(y))^{-1} \nabla f(x)$.

Note 1. We need query access to $\nabla^2 f(y)$, which is why this is called a *second-order* method.

Note 2. We need to invert a matrix, or equivalently a linear system of equations: $\nabla^2 f(y) \delta = -\eta \nabla f(x)$.

Note 3. We don't have y , which is why Newton's method uses $\delta = -\eta (\nabla^2 f(x))^{-1} \nabla f(x)$. But in general, $\nabla^2 f(x) \neq \nabla^2 f(y)$.

Note 4. Assuming that $\nabla^2 f(x) = \nabla^2 f(y)$, convergence takes $\mathcal{O}(\log \frac{f(x^0) - f(x^*)}{\epsilon})$.

1.1 Alternative view on Newton's method

$$f(x + \delta) = \underbrace{f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \delta + \delta^T \nabla^2 f(x) \delta}_{\delta \text{ is minimizer of}} + \mathcal{O}(\|\delta\|^3)$$

Theorem 1. Suppose there exists $r > 0$ such that for all x, y at distance $\leq r$ from x^* we have:

1. $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x)) \geq \mu$
2. $\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\| \leq L \|x - y\|$

Then $\|x^1 - x^*\| \leq \frac{L}{2\mu} \|x^0 - x^*\|^2$, where x^0 is at distance $\leq r$ from x^* and x^1 is x^0 plus a Newton's step.

The norm we use for matrices is the spectral norm, i.e., $\|X\| = \lambda_{\max}(X)$.

Intuition: under the right conditions, it converges in $\mathcal{O}(\log \log \frac{\|x^0 - x^*\|}{\epsilon})$.

2 Back to linear programming

2.1 The interior point method

Consider a linear programming problem of the following form:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \min c^T x \\
 & \text{s.t. } Ax \leq b
 \end{aligned}$$

on n coordinates with m constraints. Call K the feasible region, i.e., $K = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax \leq b\}$.

We have already seen one way to turn this into an unconstrained problem, by replacing the objective function with one that evaluates to $c^T x$ for $x \in K$ and to $+\infty$ otherwise. But such a function isn't

continuous and doesn't work well with the gradient descent method or Newton's method. We need a smoother function.

We will instead replace the objective function with $f_\eta(x) = \eta c^T x + F(x)$, for $\eta \geq 0$, where $F(x)$ is called a *barrier function* and has the following properties:

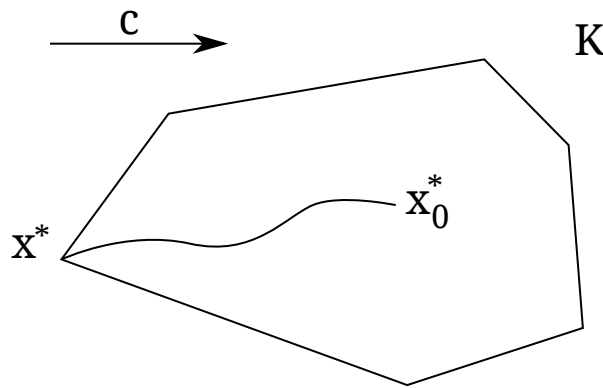
$$F(x) < +\infty \text{ for } x \in K$$

$$F(x) \rightarrow +\infty \text{ for } x \rightarrow \partial K$$

One possible barrier function is:

$$F(x) = \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{b_i - A_i x} \right) = - \sum_{i=1}^m \log(b_i - A_i x)$$

Call $x_\eta^* = \arg \min \eta c^T x + F(x)$. It is a continuous function of η . When $\eta = 0$ we have that x_0^* is independent of c , and this point is called *analytic center*.



In the above drawing we see the polytope K with c pointing from left to right. The optimal point x^* is therefore the leftmost vertex of K . The point x_0^* is the analytic center. The path connecting the two is the *central path*, i.e., $\{x_\eta^*, \eta \geq 0\}$. This means that x^* is $\lim_{\eta \rightarrow +\infty} x_\eta^*$.

This reformulation of linear programming leads to a few algorithm ideas:

Idea 1

- start from a point x^0 ;
- compute x_η^* for a “very large” η using Newton's method or gradient descent starting at x^0 .

The problem with gradient descent is that it depends on the condition number, which depends on $F(x)$ and may be very large, whereas Newton's method requires x^0 to be “close” to x_η^* in order for the theorem we saw earlier to apply.

Let s_i be $b_i - A_i x$, and call these slack variables. We can use them to express $\nabla f_\eta(x)$ and $\nabla^2 f_\eta(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f_\eta(x) &= \eta c + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{A_i}{s_i(x)} \\ \nabla^2 f_\eta(x) &= \nabla^2 F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{A_i A_i^T}{s_i^2(x)}\end{aligned}$$

This means that close to the boundary of K the coefficients of the Hessian of the barrier function will increase rapidly and this may affect negatively the condition number.

Remark: we assume K has > 0 volume.

Idea 2

- start at $x^0 = x_{\eta_0}^*$ for some $\eta_0 > 0$;
- “walk the central path”, meaning that at time $t + 1$:
 - increase η : $\eta_{t+1} = \eta_t(1 + \alpha)$ (we will decide the value of α later);
 - run Newton’s method to find $x_{\eta_{t+1}}^*$ starting at $x_{\eta_t}^*$ (which works correctly and efficiently as long as $x_{\eta_{t+1}}^*$ is “close” to $x_{\eta_t}^*$).

Idea 3 This idea is just a performance improvement of idea 2, based on the observation that when running Newton’s method to find $x_{\eta_{t+1}}^*$ we don’t need to run it until it reaches optimality, we can stop it early. In particular stopping it after just one iteration yields the following algorithm:

Algorithm

- start at $x_0 \approx x_{\eta_0}^*$ for some $\eta_0 > 0$;
- at step $t + 1$ define η_{t+1} as $\eta_t(1 + \alpha)$ and find x_{t+1} by performing one step of Newton’s method for $f_{\eta_{t+1}}$ starting at x_t ;
- once at time $t = T$ such that η_T is “large enough” run Newton’s method to optimality and obtain $x_{\eta_T}^*$;
- output $x_{\eta_T}^*$.

Lemma 2. For all η we have $c^T x_\eta^* - c^T x^* \leq m/\eta$, which implies that η_T has to be larger than m/ϵ if we want $c^T x_{\eta_T}^* - c^T x^* \leq \epsilon$. This means that the number of steps is

$$T = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\alpha} \log \frac{m/\epsilon}{\eta_0}\right) = \mathcal{O}\left(\log_{1+\alpha} \frac{m/\epsilon}{\eta_0}\right)$$