

A short tutorial on interior point methods

log-barrier method

Consider the following constrained minimization problem

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \min_{\mathbf{x}} f_0(\mathbf{x}) \\
 & \text{subject to} \\
 & f_1(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0 \\
 & \vdots \\
 & f_m(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \\
 & \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $f_0 : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called objective function $f_k : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $k = 1, \dots, m$, are called constraint functions. We assume that \mathbf{A} is a $l \times p$ matrix of full rank. Both the objective function and the constraint functions are assumed to be convex functions of \mathbf{x} , i.e. we consider the minimization of a convex function over a convex set. If $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ satisfies all constraints induced by the functions $\{f_k\}_{k=1}^m$ and the matrix \mathbf{A} , it is said to be feasible. If all constraints are satisfied with strict inequality, \mathbf{x} is said to be strictly feasible. The idea of the log-barrier method is to solve above minimization problem by solving a sequence of unconstrained convex problems. For $t > 0$, these minimization problems are of the form

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f_0(\mathbf{x}) - \underbrace{\frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=1}^m \log(-f_k(\mathbf{x}))}_{\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x})} + \boldsymbol{\nu}^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}). \tag{2}$$

where t is increased when switching from one problem to the next. The term $\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x})$ is called log-barrier. Let $\{\mathbf{x}^*(t), t > 0\}$ the set of all minimizers of all problem instances indexed by the parameter t . Then the $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ are strictly feasible, and each of the $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ yields a dual feasible point, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*(t) = (\lambda_k^*(t))_{k=1}^m$, say, and hence a lower bound for the optimal function value p^* of the optimization problem (1). To see this, the optimality condition of the log-barrier of the problem (2) is obtained by setting the gradient w.r.t. \mathbf{x} equal to zero read

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \nabla f_0(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \frac{1}{t} \nabla \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \mathbf{A}^\top \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t) = \mathbf{0} \\
 & \Leftrightarrow \nabla f_0(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) - \frac{1}{t} \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\nabla f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t))}{f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t))} + \mathbf{A}^\top \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t) = \mathbf{0} \\
 & \Leftrightarrow \nabla f_0(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k^*(t) \nabla f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \mathbf{A}^\top \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t) = \mathbf{0},
 \end{aligned}$$

by setting $\lambda_k^*(t) = -\frac{1}{t f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t))}$, $k = 1, \dots, m$, which are all strictly positive since $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ is strictly feasible. The last equation has the typical form of the KKT optimality condition. To be more precise, consider the primal Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = f_0(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k f_k(\mathbf{x}) + \boldsymbol{\nu}^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}).$$

Then $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ minimizes the Lagrangian for $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*(t)$ and $\boldsymbol{\nu} = \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t)$. Since the pair $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*(t), \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t))$ is dual feasible, the dual Lagrangian is finite, and

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}^*(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*(t), \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t)) &= f_0(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k^*(t) f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) + \boldsymbol{\nu}^*(t)(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^*(t) - \mathbf{b}) \\ &= f_0(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) - m/t,\end{aligned}$$

concluding that the duality gap is no more than m/t , i.e. $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ is at most m/t suboptimal. The suboptimality also becomes obvious when considering the complementarity slackness condition

$$-\sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k^*(t) f_k(\mathbf{x}^*(t)) = 1/t.$$

All in all, these considerations prompt the following algorithm.

1. Initialize t . Find a strictly primal feasible solution.
2. Solve the log-barrier problem for the parameter t using e.g. the Newton method. This yields an intermediate solution $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$.
3. Increase the parameter t by a factor $\mu > 0$ and go back to 2., using the current $\mathbf{x}^*(t)$ as starting value.
4. Stop when t exceeds a pre-specified tolerance.

The algorithm is subject to the following drawbacks: i) it is in general unclear how exact the solution of in 2. has to be, and ii) the number of outer iterations (= number of log-barrier problems) is fixed in advance. These two problems are circumevented in the approach described in the following.

primal-dual interior point method

The following approach is somewhat more direct than the log-barrier method, to which it is closely related (see Boyd and Vandenberghe (2004) for a discussion). In particular, both have in common that they work well in combination with the Newton method. As starting point, let us consider the following m/t -‘approximate version’ ($t > 0$) of the KKT optimality conditions.

$$\mathbf{r}_t(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \mathbf{0},$$

where

$$\mathbf{r}_t(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_0(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\lambda} + \mathbf{A}^\top \boldsymbol{\nu} \\ -\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) - \frac{m}{t} \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}, \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_{\text{dual}} \\ \mathbf{r}_{\text{cent}} \\ \mathbf{r}_{\text{primal}} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_k(\mathbf{x}))^\top,$$

$$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(\mathbf{x})^\top \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_k(\mathbf{x})^\top \end{bmatrix}.$$

In order to solve the nonlinear equation $r_t(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \mathbf{0}$, we apply a Taylor expansion. Denoting the current point by $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{x}^\top, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\top, \boldsymbol{\nu}^\top)^\top$ and the Newton step direction by $\Delta \mathbf{y} = (\Delta \mathbf{x}^\top, \Delta \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\top, \Delta \boldsymbol{\nu}^\top)$, we expand

$$\begin{aligned} r_t(\mathbf{y} + \Delta \mathbf{y}) &\approx r_t(\mathbf{y}) + D r_t(\mathbf{y}) \Delta \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \\ \Leftrightarrow \Delta \mathbf{y} &= -D r_t(\mathbf{y})^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

where $D r_t(\mathbf{y})$ is given by the block partitioned matrix

$$D r_t(\mathbf{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^2 f_0(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k \nabla^2 f_k(\mathbf{x}) & D \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^\top & \mathbf{A}^\top \\ -\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m) D \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) & -\text{diag}(f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Solving the Newton equation gives a step direction $(\Delta \mathbf{x}^\top, \Delta \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\top, \Delta \boldsymbol{\nu}^\top)$. The stepsize is determined using a line search which takes care of all inequalities (see Boyd and Vandenberghe (2004) for a detailed description).

We see that – as opposed to the log barrier method – both the primal and dual problem are dealt with simultaneously. Similiarly to the log-barrier method, the quality of approximation is improved in each step by incrementing the parameter t appropriately.

In some applications, it is possible and useful to solve for $\Delta \mathbf{x}, \Delta \boldsymbol{\nu}$ first and then resolve for $\Delta \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ (cf. example below). We have

$$\begin{aligned} -\text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m) D \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \Delta \mathbf{x} - \text{diag}(f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_m(\mathbf{x})) \Delta \boldsymbol{\lambda} &= -\mathbf{r}_{\text{cent}} \\ \Leftrightarrow \Delta \boldsymbol{\lambda} &= \text{diag}(1/f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, 1/f_m(\mathbf{x})) (\mathbf{r}_{\text{cent}} - \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m) D \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \Delta \mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

Substituting this result back yields the block-partioned linear system

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{A}^\top \\ \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{x} \\ \Delta \boldsymbol{\nu} \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_{\text{dual}} + D \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^\top \text{diag}(1/f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, 1/f_m(\mathbf{x})) \mathbf{r}_{\text{cent}} \\ \mathbf{r}_{\text{pri}} \end{bmatrix},$$

with \mathbf{H} given by

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla^2 f_0(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{k=1}^m \lambda_k \nabla^2 f_k(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\lambda_k}{-f_k(\mathbf{x})} \nabla f_k(\mathbf{x}) \nabla f_k(\mathbf{x})^\top.$$

With these preparations, we can write down the structure of the primal-dual interior point algorithm.

1. Initialize with a strictly feasible triple $(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$.
2. Beginning of each iteration: compute the so-called surrogate duality gap $\eta = -\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\lambda}$, which is used to set $t = \mu m / \eta$, for some $\mu > 0$.
3. Perform the Newton step outlined above.
4. Stop if the duality gap and the size of the residuals \mathbf{r}_{pri} and \mathbf{r}_{dual} as measured by their norms drop below a prespecified tolerance.