

**Mathematical Programming I,
Sheets for the course, version: 04-04-2012
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Material:

- **Script Nr. 527**
- **Sheets of the course (on internet)**

Use it as a rough guide; for motivation, geometric illustration, and proofs join the courses.

Chapter 1: Real vector spaces *linear spaces, inner products, differentiable functions.* By **“Self-instruction”**

Chapter 2: Linear equations, - inequalities

Gaussian elimination, least square approximation, Fourier-Motzkin algorithm, Farkas lemma

Chapter 3: Linear programs

primal-dual linear programs, optimality conditions, matrix games

Chapter 4: Convex analysis

separating hyperplanes, convex sets, convex functions, differential theory

Chapter 5: Unconstrained optimization

optimality conditions, minimizing convex functions, descent methods, conjugate direction method, line search, Newton's method, Gauss-Newton method, Quasi-Newton methods, minimization of nondifferentiable functions

Ch.2 Linear equations, inequalities

We start with some definitions:

Definitions in matrix theory

- $M = (m_{ij})$ is said to be
lower triangular: if $m_{ij} = 0$ for $i < j$,
upper triangular: if $m_{ij} = 0$ for $i > j$.
- $P = (p_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is a **permutation matrix**
if $p_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$ and each row and each column of P
contains exactly one coefficient 1.

Note that $P^T P = I$, implying
 $P^{-1} = P^T$ for the inverse P^{-1} of P .

- $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, Q symmetric, is called **positive semi-definite** (not. $Q \geq 0$) if:

$$\mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

positive definite (not. $Q > 0$) if:

$$\mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x} > 0 \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}.$$

2.1 Gauss-elimination (for solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$)

Motivation: We show by a simple example that “successive elimination” is equivalent with Gauss-algorithm.

General Idea: To eliminate $x_1, x_2 \dots$ is equivalent with transforming $Ax = b$ or $(A \mid b)$ to “triangular” normal form $(\tilde{A} \mid \tilde{b})$ (with same solution set). Then solve $\tilde{A}x = \tilde{b}$, recursively:

$$\begin{array}{cccc|c} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{array}$$

Transformation into form $(\tilde{A} \mid \tilde{b})$:

$$\begin{array}{cccc|c} \underline{\tilde{a}_{1j_1}} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{1j_2} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{1j_{r-1}} x_{j_{r-1}} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{1j_r} & \dots & \tilde{b}_1 \\ & & \underline{\tilde{a}_{2j_2}} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{2j_{r-1}} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{2j_r} & \dots & \tilde{b}_2 \\ & & & \dots & & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & \underline{\tilde{a}_{r-1j_{r-1}}} & \dots & \tilde{a}_{r-1j_r} & \dots & \tilde{b}_{r-1} \\ & & & & & & \underline{\tilde{a}_{rj_r}} & \dots & \tilde{b}_r \\ & & & & & & & & \vdots \\ & & & & & & & & \tilde{b}_m \end{array}$$

This “Gauss elimination” uses 2 types of row operations:

(G1) (i, j) -pivot: for $k > i$,

add $\lambda \times$ row i to row k ; with $\lambda = -\frac{a_{kj}}{a_{ij}}$

(G2) interchange row i with row k

The “matrix form” of these operations are:

Ex.2.3 The matrix form of (G1): $(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b}) \rightarrow (\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \mid \tilde{\mathbf{b}})$

is given by $(\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \mid \tilde{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{M} (\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$

with a nonsingular lower triangular $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$

Ex.2.4 The matrix form of (G2): $(\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b}) \rightarrow (\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \mid \tilde{\mathbf{b}})$

is given by $(\tilde{\mathbf{A}} \mid \tilde{\mathbf{b}}) = \mathbf{P} (\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{b})$

with a permutation matrix $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$

Implications of the Gauss algorithm:

Th. 2.1 For every $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, there exists an $(m \times m)$ -permutation matrix P and an invertible lower triangular matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ such that

$$U = MPA \text{ is upper triangular.}$$

Cor. 2.1 [LU -factorization]

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, there exists an $(m \times m)$ -permutation matrix P , an invertible, lower triang. $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ and an upper triang. $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that $LU = PA$.

Rem.: Solve $Ax = b$ by using the decomposition $PA = LU!$
(How?)

Cor. 2.2 [Gale's Theorem]

Exactly one of the following statements is true:

- (a) The system $Ax = b$ has a solution x .
- (b) There exists $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that: $y^T A = 0^T$ and $y^T b \neq 0$.

Remark: In “normal form” $A \rightarrow \tilde{A}$, the number r gives dimension of the space spanned by the rows of A .

This equals the dimension of the space spanned by the columns of A .

2.1.3 “Gauss-Algorithm” for symmetric **A**

Note: “Gauss row operations” destroy symmetry. So we modify “Gauss” in order to maintain symmetry.

Perform row and “same” column-operations:

- use (G1’): $A \rightarrow MAM^T$

- instead of (G2) use (G2’):

if $a_{ji} = 0$, $a_{kk} \neq 0$, $k > i$:

interchange row i and row k

interchange col. i and col. k

if $a_{ji} = 0$, $a_{kk} = 0 \forall k > i$, $a_{ki} \neq 0$, $k > i$:

add row k to row i and

add col. k to col. i

G2’ transforms: $A \rightarrow BAB^T$ (B nonsingular)

Note: By “symmetric Gauss” the solution set of $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ is destroyed!!! But it is useful to get the following results.

Implications of the symmetric Gauss algorithm

Th. 2.2. $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric. Then with some nonsingular $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\mathbf{QAQ}^T = \mathbf{D} = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$$

Recall: A symmetric $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called *positive semi-definite* (not. $\mathbf{Q} \geq 0$) if:

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Cor. 2.3. Let A be symmetric, Q nonsingular such that $QAQ^T = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$. Then

(a) $A \geq 0 \iff d_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, n$

(b) $A > 0 \iff d_i > 0, i = 1, \dots, n$

Implication: The check $A \geq 0$ (positive semidefinite) can be done by the Gauss-algorithm (polynomial).

Cor. 2.4. Let $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric. Then

(a) $S \geq 0 \iff S = AA^T$ with some $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

(b) $S > 0 \iff S = AA^T$ with some nonsingular A

Complexity of Gauss algorithm

For a , the number of “ $\pm, \cdot, /$ flop’s” (floating point operations) needed to solve $Ax = b$ with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$:

$$a \leq n^3$$

2.2. Orthogonal projection, Least Square

Assumption: V is a linear vectorspace over \mathbb{R} with inner product $\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \rangle$ and (induced) norm $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{x} \rangle}$.

Minimization Problem: Given $\mathbf{x} \in V$, subspace $W \subset V$ find $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in W$ such that:

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\| = \min_{\mathbf{y} \in W} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| \quad (2.13)$$

The vector $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is called the *projection of \mathbf{x} onto W* .

L 2.1. (sufficient condition) Assume $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in W$ is such that

$$\langle \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \in W.$$

Then $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is unique solution of (2.13).

To solve (2.13) we “construct” a solution via L.2.1:

We construct a solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in W$ satisfying

$\langle \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \in W$ as follows (assuming that W has a basis $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m$, i.e., $W = \text{span} \{ \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m \}$): Write

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} := \sum_{i=1}^m z_i \mathbf{a}_i$$

Then $\langle \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}} | \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{w} \in W$ is equivalent with

$$\langle \mathbf{x} - \sum_{i=1}^m z_i \mathbf{a}_i | \mathbf{a}_j \rangle = 0, \quad j = 1, \dots, m$$

$$\text{or} \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \langle \mathbf{a}_i | \mathbf{a}_j \rangle z_i = \langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{a}_j \rangle, \quad j = 1, \dots, m$$

Defining the *Gram-matrix* $G := (\langle \mathbf{a}_i | \mathbf{a}_j \rangle)$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $b_j = \langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{a}_j \rangle$ this leads to the linear equation (for z)

$$(2.16) \quad Gz = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{with solution } \hat{z} = G^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Ex. The Gram-matrix is positive definite, thus non-singular (under our assumption) *Proof!*

Special case 1: $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\langle x|y \rangle = x^T y$ and $W = \text{span} \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$. Then with $A := [a_1, \dots, a_m]$ the projection of x onto W is given by

$$\hat{x} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T x$$

Special case 2: $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\langle x|y \rangle = x^T y$, $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ lin. independent and $W' = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a_i^T w = 0, i = 1, \dots, m\}$. Then the projection of x onto W' is given by

$$\hat{x}' = x - A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T x$$

Special case 3: $W = \text{span} \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ with $\{a_i\}$, an orthonormal basis, i.e., $\langle a_i|a_j \rangle = 0, i \neq j; = 1, i = j$). Then the projection of x onto W is given by

$$\hat{x} = \sum_{j=1}^m z_j a_j \quad \text{with } z_j = \langle a_j|x \rangle \quad \forall j \quad \text{“Fouriercoefficients”}.$$

2.2.2 Gram-Schmidt

Problem: Given $W = \text{span} \{ \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m \}$, find an orthogonal basis $W = \text{span} \{ \mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_m \}$ (i.e., $\langle \mathbf{b}_i | \mathbf{b}_j \rangle = 0, i \neq j (> 0, i = j)$).

Recall the Gram-Schmidt algorithm for solving this

Problem: start with $\mathbf{b}_1 := \mathbf{a}_1$ and iterate

$$\text{step } k-1 \rightarrow k: \quad \mathbf{b}_k = \mathbf{a}_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\langle \mathbf{b}_i, \mathbf{a}_k \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{b}_i, \mathbf{b}_i \rangle} \mathbf{b}_i$$

Gram-Schmidt in matrix form: With $W \subset V := \mathbb{R}^n$. Put

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1^T \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{a}_m^T \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1^T \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{b}_m^T \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then the Gram-Schmidt-steps are equivalent with:

- add multiple of row $j < k$ to row k
- multiply row k by scalar (in case of normalisation)

Matrix form of “Gram-Schmidt”: Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, there is a decomposition

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{A}$$

with lower triangular nonsingular matrix \mathbf{L} ($l_{ii} = 1$) and the rows \mathbf{b}_j of \mathbf{B} are orthogonal, i.e. $\langle \mathbf{b}_i | \mathbf{b}_j \rangle = 0$, $i \neq j$.

A corollary of this fact:

Prop. 2.1 (*Hadamard's inequality*) Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rows \mathbf{a}_i^T . Then

$$0 \leq \det(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T) \leq \prod_{i=1}^m \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{a}_i$$

Definition. $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ if there is an (eigenvector) $0 \neq x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ with $Ax = \lambda x$.

The results above (together with the Theorem of Weierstrass) allow a proof of:

Th. 2.3 (*Spectral theorem for symmetric matrices*)

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric. Then there exists an orthogonal matrix Q ($Q^T Q = I$) and eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$Q^T A Q = D = \text{diag} (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

2.3 Integer Solutions of Linear Equations ($x_j \in \mathbb{Z}$)

Example The equation $3x_1 - 2x_2 = 1$ has a solution $\mathbf{x} = (1, 1) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$. But the equation $6x_1 - 2x_2 = 1$ does not allow an entire solution \mathbf{x} .

Key remark: Let $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = b$ have a solution $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $b = \lambda c$ with $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}$, $c = \gcd(a_1, a_2)$

Here: $\gcd(a_1, a_2)$ denotes the greatest common divisor of a_1, a_2 .

Lem.2.2 [Euclid's Algorithm] Let $c = \gcd(a_1, a_2)$. Then

$$L(a_1, a_2) := \{a_1\lambda_1 + a_2\lambda_2 \mid \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{c\lambda \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}\} =: L(c).$$

(The proof of) this result allows to

“solve $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = b$ (in \mathbb{Z})”.

Algorithm to solve, $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = b$ (in \mathbb{Z})

- Compute $c = \gcd(a_1, a_2)$. If $\lambda := b/c \notin \mathbb{Z}$, no entire solution exists.
- If $\lambda := b/c \in \mathbb{Z}$, compute solutions $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ of $\lambda_1 a_1 + \lambda_2 a_2 = c$. Then

$$(\lambda_1 \lambda) a_1 + (\lambda_2 \lambda) a_2 = b.$$

General problem: Given $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{Z}^m$, find $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that

$$(\star) \quad \mathbf{a}_1 x_1 + \mathbf{a}_2 x_2 + \dots + \mathbf{a}_n x_n = \mathbf{b} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

where $\mathbf{A} := [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n]$.

Def. We introduce the *lattice* generated by $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$,

$$L = L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n) = \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{a}_j \lambda_j \mid \lambda_j \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m.$$

Assumption 1: $\text{rank } \mathbf{A} = m$ ($m \leq n$); wlog., $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m$ are linearly independent.

To solve the problem: Find $\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{c}_1 \dots \mathbf{c}_m] \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ such that

$$(\star\star) \quad L(\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m) = L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n).$$

Then (\star) has a solution $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ iff $\lambda := \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$

Bad news: As in the case of one equation: in general

$$L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m) \neq L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n).$$

Lem.2.3 Let $\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m \in L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n)$. Then $L(\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m) = L(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n)$ iff for all $j = 1, \dots, n$, the system

$$\mathbf{C}\lambda = \mathbf{a}_j \quad \text{has an integral solution.}$$

Last step: Find such \mathbf{c}_i 's

Main Result: The algorithm

Lattice Basis

INIT: $\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m] = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m]$;

ITER: Compute \mathbf{C}^{-1} ;

If $\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{a}_j \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$, then STOP;

If $\lambda = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{a}_j \notin \mathbb{Z}^m$ for some j , then

Let $\mathbf{a}_j = \mathbf{C}\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \mathbf{c}_i$ and compute

$\mathbf{c} = \sum_{i=1}^m (\lambda_i - [\lambda_i]) \mathbf{c}_i = \mathbf{a}_j - \sum_{i=1}^m [\lambda_i] \mathbf{c}_i$;

Let k be the largest index i such that $\lambda_i \notin \mathbb{Z}$;

Update \mathbf{C} by replacing \mathbf{c}_k with \mathbf{c} in column k ;

NEXT ITERATION

stops after at most $K = \log_2(\det[\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m])$ steps with a matrix \mathbf{C} satisfying (**).

Th. 2.4 Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ be given. Then exactly one of the following statements is true:

- (a) There exists some $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that $Ax = b$.
- (b) There exists some $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $y^T A \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $y^T b \notin \mathbb{Z}$.

2.4 Linear Inequalities $\mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}$

Fourier-Motzkin algorithm for solving $\mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}$. **Eliminate** x_1 :

$$\underline{a_{r1}}x_1 + \sum_{j=2}^n a_{rj}x_j \leq b_r \quad r = 1, \dots, k$$

$$\underline{a_{s1}}x_1 + \sum_{j=2}^n a_{sj}x_j \leq b_s \quad s = k + 1, \dots, \ell$$

$$\sum_{j=2}^n a_{tj}x_j \leq b_t \quad t = \ell + 1, \dots, m$$

with $\underline{a_{r1}} > 0$, $\underline{a_{s1}} < 0$. **Divide by** a_{r1} , $|a_{s1}|$, **giving** (for r and s)

$$x_1 + \sum_{j=2}^n a'_{rj}x_j \leq b'_r \quad r = 1, \dots, k$$

$$-x_1 + \sum_{j=2}^n a'_{sj}x_j \leq b'_s \quad s = k + 1, \dots, \ell$$

So $Ax \leq b$ has a solution $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ if and only if there is a solution $x' = (x_2, \dots, x_n)$ of

$$\sum_{j=2}^n (a'_{sj} + a'_{rj})x_j \leq b'_r + b'_s \quad r = 1, \dots, k; \quad s = k + 1, \dots, \ell$$
$$\sum_{j=2}^n a_{tj}x_j \leq b_t \quad t = \ell + 1, \dots, m.$$

In matrix form: $Ax \leq b$ has a solution $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ if and only if there is a solution of the transformed system:

$$A'x' \leq b' \quad \text{or} \quad (0 \ A')x \leq b'$$

Remark: Any row of $(0 \ A'|b')$ is a positive combination of rows of $(A|b)$:

any row is of the form $y^T(A|b)$, $y \geq 0$

By eliminating x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n in this way we finally obtain an “equivalent” system

$$\tilde{\mathbf{A}}^{(n)} \mathbf{x} \leq \tilde{\mathbf{b}} \quad \text{where} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{A}}^{(n)} = \mathbf{0}$$

which is (recursively) solvable iff $0 \leq \tilde{b}_i, \forall i$.

Th.2.5 [Projection Theorem] Let $P = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$. Then all for $k = 1, \dots, n$, the projection

$$P^{(k)} = \{(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \mid (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \in P \\ \text{for suitable } \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

is the solution set of a linear system

$$\mathbf{A}^{(k)} \mathbf{x}^{(k)} \leq \mathbf{b}^{(k)}$$

in $n - k$ variables $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = (x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n)$.

In principle: Linear inequalities can be solved by FM.
However this might be inefficient! (*Why?*)

2.4.1. Solvability of linear systems

We consider so-called Farkas lemmata. *They are the basis of optimality and duality results in LP.*

Th. 2.6 [Lemma of Farkas] **Exactly one of the following statements is true:**

- (I) $Ax \leq b$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- (II) There exists $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that

$$y^T A = 0^T, \quad y^T b < 0 \quad \text{and} \quad y \geq 0.$$

Ex. 2.24 (more general) **Let** $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $c \in \mathbb{R}^k$. **Then precisely one of the alternatives is valid.**

- (I) **There is a solution x of: $Ax \leq b$, $Cx = c$**
- (II) **There is a solution $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mu \geq 0$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^k$ of :**

$$\begin{pmatrix} A^T \\ b^T \end{pmatrix} \mu + \begin{pmatrix} C^T \\ c^T \end{pmatrix} \lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Cor.2.5 [Gordan] Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, exactly one of the following alternatives is true:

- (I) $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ has a solution $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
- (II) $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{A} < \mathbf{0}^T$ has a solution \mathbf{y} .

Remark: As we shall see in Chapter 3, the Farkas Lemma in the following form is the strong duality of LP in disguise.

Cor.2.6 [Farkas, implied inequalities] Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n, z \in \mathbb{R}$. Assume that $\mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}$ is feasible. Then the following are equivalent:

- (a) $\mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \leq z$
- (b) $\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{c}^T, \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{b} \leq z, \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}$ has a solution \mathbf{y} .

Application: Markov chains (*Existence of a steady state*)

Def. A vector $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_n)$ with $\pi_i \geq 0$, $\sum_i \pi_i = 1$ is called a *probability distribution* on $\{1, \dots, n\}$.

A matrix $P = (p_{ij})$ where each row P_i is a probability distribution is called a *stochastic matrix*.

In a stochastic process:

- π_i % of population is in state i
- p_{ij} is probability of transition from state $i \rightarrow j$
- So the transition step $k \rightarrow k + 1$ is: $\pi^{(k+1)} = P^T \pi^{(k)}$

Probability distribution π is called *steady state* if $\pi = P^T \pi$

As a corollary of Gordan's result:

Each stochastic matrix P has a steady state π .

3. Linear Programs

Given $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$\text{LP}_p : \quad \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \quad \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}$$

$$\text{LP}_d : \quad \min_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \quad \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0},$$

is the pair of primal and dual programs.

Notation.

- $F_p = \{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$ feasible set of LP_p
- $F_d = \{\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}\}$ feas.set of LP_d
- $z_p^* := \max_{\mathbf{x} \in F_p} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$ max. value of LP_p
- $z_d^* := \min_{\mathbf{y} \in F_d} \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y}$ min. value of LP_d
- $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \in F_p$ is optimal (maximizer of LP_p) if $\mathbf{c}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}} = z_p^*$.

Weak duality is easy to prove:

L.3.1 (Weak Duality) Let $Ax \leq b$, $A^T y = c$, $y \geq 0$. Then,

$$c^T x \leq b^T y \quad \text{and thus} \quad z_p^* \leq z_d^*$$

If we have $c^T x = b^T y$, then x , y are optimal solutions of LP_p , LP_d resp.

Strong duality is a direct consequence of Farkas' lemma:

Th.3.1 (Strong Duality)

If either LP_p or LP_d is feasible then:

$$z_p^* = z_d^*$$

If both are feasible, then optimal solutions x and y of LP_p and LP_d exists (satisfying $c^T x = b^T y$).

Th.3.1 implies: x and y are optimal solutions of LP_p and LP_d , resp., if and only if they solve the system (of *lin.* =, \leq)

$$(\star) \quad \begin{array}{rcl} Ax & \leq & b \\ & A^T y & = c \\ c^T x - b^T y & = & 0 \\ & y & \geq 0. \end{array}$$

Note that: for x, y satisfying (\star) we have

$$b^T y - c^T x = y^T (b - Ax) = 0$$

The relation

$$y^T (b - Ax) = 0$$

is called complementarity condition.

Cor. : *(Optimality conditions)*

• **Let $x \in F_p$: then x solves $LP_p \iff$**

there ex. $y \in F_d$ such that $y^T(b - Ax) = 0$

• **Let $y \in F_d$: Then y solves $LP_d \iff$**

there ex. $x \in F_p$ such that $y^T(b - Ax) = 0$

3.1.2 Equivalent LP's

LP's in other forms can be transformed into the given "standard forms" For example: The program:

$$\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} c^T x \quad \text{s.t.} \quad Ax \leq b, \quad x \geq 0$$

has the dual:

$$\min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} b^T y \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A^T y \geq c, \quad y \geq 0$$

Rules for primal dual pairs:

Primal Problem	Dual Problem
max free variable non-negative variable equality constraint \leq constraint	min equality constraint \geq constraint free variable non-negative variable

3.1.3. Shadow prices

Production model: (n products, m resources)

c_j prices per unit for product j $\rightarrow \mathbf{c}$

b_i bounds for resource R_i $\rightarrow \mathbf{b}$

a_{ij} units of resource R_i needed
for unit of product j $\rightarrow \mathbf{A}$

x_j production of product j $\rightarrow \mathbf{x}$

primal program: (*max profit* $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$)

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}, \quad \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$$

optimal solution: $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ \rightarrow profit $\bar{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{c}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}}$

dual: $\min_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{c}, \quad \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}$

optimal solution: $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$ \rightarrow value $\bar{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{b}^T \bar{\mathbf{y}}$

Question: Can we obtain a higher profit if we buy additional amount of resource b_{i_0} ?

If we change: $b_{i_0} \rightarrow \tilde{b}_{i_0} := b_{i_0} + t, (t > 0)$ then $\tilde{z} \rightarrow \bar{z} + ??$

We find:

$$\tilde{z} \leq \bar{z} + t \cdot \bar{y}_{i_0}$$

(\bar{y}_{i_0} is shadow price)

Answer: Yes, if the price per unit for R_{i_0} is smaller than \bar{y}_{i_0} (*shadow price*).

3.1.4 Matrix games:

MG is an example of a non-cooperative game with 2 players (using a pure or a mixed strategy).

Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and row-players R and (column)-player C

Game with pure strategy

- **R chooses row i :** if $a_{ij} > 0$ **R wins** a_{ij}
- **C chooses col. j :** if $a_{ij} < 0$ **C wins** $|a_{ij}|$

For this pure strategy game a so-called Nash equilibrium need not exist.

Game with mixed strategies: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- R chooses row i with probability x_i ; $x_i \geq 0, \sum_i x_i = 1$
- C chooses col. j with probability y_j ; $y_j \geq 0, \sum_j y_j = 1$.

The expected gain for R (loss for C):

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} = \sum_i x_i \left(\sum_j a_{ij} y_j \right) = \sum_j y_j \left(\sum_i a_{ij} x_i \right)$$

Strategies:

- given $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$: R plays $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ as solution of:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \bar{\mathbf{y}} = \max_i \sum_j a_{ij} \bar{y}_j$$

- given $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$: C plays $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$ as solution of:

$$\min_{\mathbf{y}} \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{y} = \min_j \sum_i a_{ij} \bar{x}_i$$

Best strategy against best of opponent:

$$\text{for R: } \max_x \min_y x^T A y = \max_x \min_j \sum_i a_{ij} x_i$$

$$\text{for C: } \min_y \max_x x^T A y = \min_y \max_i \sum_j a_{ij} y_j$$

Th.3.2 [*minmax-theorem*] There exist feasible \bar{x}, \bar{y} such that

$$\min_y \bar{x}^T A y = \max_x x^T A \bar{y}$$

This implies:

$$\max_x \min_y x^T A y = \min_y \max_x x^T A y = \bar{x}^T A \bar{y}$$

\bar{x}, \bar{y} represent a Nash equilibrium of the mixed strategy matrix game.

Def. A game is fair if $\bar{z} = \bar{w} = \bar{x}^T A \bar{y} = 0$ holds.

Methods for linear programs

1. Simplex method

$$\text{LP}_p: \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

proceeds 'from vertex to vertex' of the feasible set F_p until we have found a vertex x such that (with suitable y) the sufficient optimality condition holds:

$$A^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{c}, \quad \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{y}^T (\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}) = 0$$

2. Interior point method: Consider the system of equations

$$P(t) : \begin{aligned} Ax + s &= b \\ A^T y &= c \\ y_i(b - Ax)_i &= \underline{t} > 0 \quad \forall i \end{aligned}$$

with $y, (b - Ax) > 0$. Here $t > 0$ is a parameter.

Idea: Compute (by 'Newton') solutions $x(t), y(t), s(t), t > 0$ of $P(t)$. Then for $t \downarrow 0$ (hopefully)

$$x(t), y(t), s(t) \longrightarrow x, y, s$$

With solutions x, y of the primal-dual pair of LP's

Remark: *The "worst case behavior" of the Simplex algorithm is not "polynomial".*

The interior point method can be implemented as a "polynomial" algorithm for solving LP.