

Review of Basic Results on Linear Programming

1 Linear Programming

Linear programming (**LP**) is about solving optimization problems where the objective function and the constraints are linear. The optimization problem can be finding a maximum or a minimum and the constraints can be given by equalities and/or inequalities. In what follows most inequalities will be vector inequalities, that is, the inequalities hold componentwise. All (**LP**) problems can be written in the following standard form

Primal Problem (P)

$$\begin{aligned} \max J(x) &= \max c^T x \\ \text{subject to } Ax &\leq b, \\ x &\geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}^n, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

We will use the following notation:

- **Objective function:** It is the function J to be optimized. In this case the linear function $J(x) = c^T x$.
- **Feasible set/solution:** $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a feasible solution if satisfies the constraints, i.e., $Ax \leq b, x \geq 0$. The feasible set F_P is the convex set defined by all feasible solutions, i.e.,

$$F_P := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax \leq b, x \geq 0\}.$$

- **Optimal solution:** $\hat{x} \in F_P$ such that

$$J(\hat{x}) = c^T \hat{x} = \max \{c^T x : Ax \leq b, x \geq 0\}.$$

- **Optimal value:** It is the value (finite) of the objective function at an optimal solution, i.e., $J(\hat{x})$.

There are three different cases regarding the problem (P):

1. There exists an optimal solution (or many) and only one optimal value.
2. $F_P = \emptyset$, then the optimal value is set to $-\infty$. We say that the problem is not feasible.
3. The problem is unbounded. There exists a sequence $\{x_k\}_{k \geq 1} \subseteq F_P$ such that $J(x_k) \rightarrow_{k \rightarrow \infty} \infty$.

2 Reduction to the standard form

We have the following rules:

- “min” \rightarrow “max”: $\min J(x) = -\max J(-x)$.
- “ \geq ” \rightarrow “ \leq ”: Multiply the equation by -1 .
- “=” \rightarrow “ \leq ”: Write as two inequalities using “ \leq ” and “ \geq ”. Then apply the previous point to the inequality with “ \geq ”.
- “Free variables” \rightarrow “Restricted variables”: Write $x = x^+ - x^-$, where $x^+ = \max(0, x) \geq 0$ and $x^- = -\min(0, x) \geq 0$ and rewrite the other constraints and the objective function in terms of x^+ and x^- .

A general (iterative) method to solve LP problems is the simplex method (Dantzig, 1947). In the simplex method the constraints must be in equality form. We can go from “ \leq ” to “=” by introducing the so called slack variables $w := b - Ax$, then the problem (P) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} & \max J(x) \\ & \text{subject to } w = b - Ax, \\ & w \geq 0, \\ & x \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Example 1. Consider the (LP) problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \max J(x) = 3x_1 + 2x_2 \\ & \text{subject to } -x_1 + 3x_2 \leq 12, \\ & x_1 + x_2 \leq 10, \\ & 2x_1 - x_2 \leq 10 \\ & x_1 \geq 0, \quad x_2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Here, $c = (3, 2)^T$, $b = (12, 8, 10)^T$, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Moreover, one can prove that

the optimal solution is $\hat{x} = (6, 2)^T$ and the optimal value is $\hat{J} = J(\hat{x}) = 22$. Any point in F_P is a lower bound for \hat{J} . To find an upper bound we can try conic linear combinations (i.e., linear combinations with non-negative scalars) of the constraints. In this way the inequalities are not reversed. For example, consider

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \cdot (-x_1 + 3x_2) &\leq 2 \cdot 12, \\ 1 \cdot (x_1 + x_2) &\leq 1 \cdot 8, \\ 3 \cdot (2x_1 - x_2) &\leq 3 \cdot 1, \end{aligned}$$

which added give

$$5x_1 + 4x_2 \leq 62.$$

Since

$$J(x) = 3x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 5x_1 + 4x_2 \leq 62,$$

we obtain the upper bound $J(\hat{x}) \leq 62$. We can use this procedure to get the best upper bound. Take $y_1, y_2, y_3 \geq 0$ and compute

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 \cdot (-x_1 + 3x_2) &\leq y_1 \cdot 12, \\ y_2 \cdot (x_1 + x_2) &\leq y_2 \cdot 8, \\ y_3 \cdot (2x_1 - x_2) &\leq y_3 \cdot 1, \end{aligned}$$

which added yield

$$(-y_1 + y_2 + y_3)x_1 + (3y_1 + y_2 - y_3)x_2 \leq 12y_1 + 8y_2 + y_3.$$

Since $J(x) = 3x_1 + 2x_2$, we take y_1, y_2 and y_3 such that

$$-y_1 + y_2 + 2y_3 \geq 3 \quad \text{and} \quad 3y_1 + y_2 - y_3 \geq 2.$$

Then,

$$J(x) = 3x_1 + 2x_2 \leq (-y_1 + y_2 + y_3)x_1 + (3y_1 + y_2 - y_3)x_2 \leq 12y_1 + 8y_2 + y_3.$$

Finally, to get the best upper bound we can solve the followin (**LP**) problem

$\begin{aligned} \min J(x) &= 12y_1 + 8y_2 + y_3 \\ \text{subject to } &-y_1 + y_2 + 2y_3 \geq 3, \\ &3y_1 + y_2 - y_3 \geq 2, \\ &y_1 \geq 0, \quad y_2 \geq 0, \quad y_3 \geq 0. \end{aligned}$

3 Duality

The previous example justifies the introduction of the dual problem of a **(LP)**.

Definition 2. Given the **(LP)** problem **(P)** we define its dual **(D)** as

<p>Dual Problem (D)</p> $\begin{aligned} \min J(y) &= \min b^T y \\ \text{subject to } A^T y &\geq c, \\ y &\geq 0, \end{aligned}$ <p>where $y \in \mathbb{R}^m, b \in \mathbb{R}^m, A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.</p>
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Remark 3. We have that

- The dual problem of a **(LP)** problem is also a **(LP)** problem.
- The dual problem provides upper bounds for the optimal value of the primal problem.
- **(D)** is sometimes easier to solve than **(P)**.
- Good implementations of the simplex algorithm solve simultaneously **(P)** and **(D)**.

Lemma 4. *The dual of **(D)** is **(P)**.*

Proof. We can write

$$\min \{b^T y : A^T y \geq c, y \geq 0\} = -\max \{(-b)^T y : -A^T y \leq -c\}.$$

The problem on the right hand side of the previous equation is in standard form, so we can take its dual to get

$$-\min \{(-c)^T x : (A^T)^T x \geq b, x \geq 0\},$$

which written in standard form is

$$\max = \{c^T x : Ax \leq b, x \geq 0\}.$$

□

Sometimes it is convenient to find the dual of a **(LP)** problem without finding first its standard form. We assume that we have a **(LP)** problem in the form of a generalised primal problem **(P_g)** (this means that we have a primal problem with some constraints that are equalities and only R variables are restricted), i.e.,

Generalized Primal Problem ($\mathbf{P_g}$)

$$\begin{aligned} \max J(x) &= \max c^T x \\ \text{subject to } \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j &\leq b_i, \quad i \in I, \\ \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j &= b_i, \quad i \in E, \\ x_j &\geq 0, \quad j \in R \end{aligned}$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}^n, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$,
 $R \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}, I, E \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\}$ and

$$I \cap E = \emptyset, \quad I \cup E = \{1, \dots, m\}.$$

Using the following primal-dual correspondence

	In ($\mathbf{P_g}$)	In ($\mathbf{D_g}$)	
I	Inequality constraints	Restricted variables	R
E	Equality constraints	Free variables	F
R	Restricted variables	Inequality constraints	I
F	Free variables	Equality constraints	E

we can find its associated generalised dual problem ($\mathbf{D_g}$) (this means a dual problem with some constraints that are equalities and only some variables which are restricted), i.e,

Generalized Dual Problem ($\mathbf{D_g}$)

$$\begin{aligned} \min J(y) &= \min b^T y \\ \text{subject to } \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} y_i &\geq c_j, \quad j \in R, \\ \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} y_i &= c_j, \quad i \in F, \\ y_i &\geq 0, \quad i \in I \end{aligned}$$

where $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}^n, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$,

where $R, F \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ are such that
and

$$R \cap F = \emptyset, \quad R \cup F = \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

Theorem 5 (Duality). *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.*

1. (Weak duality) If x is feasible for (\mathbf{P}) and y is feasible for (\mathbf{D}) , then

$$c^T x \leq (A^T y)^T x = y^T A x = \left((x A)^T y \right)^T = (x A)^T y \leq b^T y.$$

Moreover:

- (a) If (\mathbf{P}) is unbounded $\implies (\mathbf{D})$ is not feasible.
 - (b) If (\mathbf{D}) is unbounded $\implies (\mathbf{P})$ is not feasible.
 - (c) If $c^T \hat{x} = b^T \hat{y}$ with \hat{x} feasible for (\mathbf{P}) and \hat{y} feasible for (\mathbf{D}) , then \hat{x} must solve (\mathbf{P}) and \hat{y} must solve (\mathbf{D}) .
2. (Strong duality) If either (\mathbf{P}) or (\mathbf{D}) has a finite optimal value, then so does the other, the optimal values coincide, and optimal solutions for both (\mathbf{P}) and (\mathbf{D}) exist.

4 Convex analysis

Definition 6. A set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if one has that $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda) y \in A$, for all $x, y \in A$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.

Definition 7. An hyperplane with normal vector $a \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and level α is the set

$$H_{a,\alpha} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x = \alpha\}.$$

Every hyperplane $H_{a,\alpha}$ is the intersection of the halfspaces

$$\begin{aligned} H_{a,\alpha}^- &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \leq \alpha\}, \\ H_{a,\alpha}^+ &= \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \geq \alpha\}. \end{aligned}$$

Definition 8. Let S and T be two sets in \mathbb{R}^n . We say that $H_{a,\alpha}$ strongly separates S and T if there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $S \subseteq H_{a,\alpha-\varepsilon}^-$ and $T \subseteq H_{a,\alpha+\varepsilon}^+$ or viceversa.

Theorem 9 (Separating Hyperplane Theorem). *Let S and T be two disjoint, non-empty, closed, convex sets in \mathbb{R}^n and one of them is compact. Then, there exists an hyperplane $H_{a,\alpha}$ that strongly separates S and T .*

Corollary 10. *Let S be a non-empty, closed, convex set in \mathbb{R}^n and such that $0 \notin S$. Then, there exist $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$ such that*

$$a^T x \geq \alpha > 0, \quad x \in S.$$

Corollary 11. *Let V be a linear subspace of \mathbb{R}^n and let K be a non-empty, compact, convex set in \mathbb{R}^n , such that $K \cap V = \emptyset$. Then, there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$ such that*

$$\begin{aligned} a^T x &= 0, & x \in V, \\ a^T y &\geq \alpha > 0, & y \in K. \end{aligned}$$

5 Linear algebra

Definition 12. Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we can consider the following fundamental linear subspaces:

- $\text{col}(A)$: The *column space* of A , it contains all linear combinations of the columns of A .
- $\text{null}(A)$: The *null space* of A , it contains all solutions to the system $Ax = 0$.
- $\text{col}(A^T)$: The *row space* of A , it contains all linear combinations of the rows of A , (or columns of A^T).
- $\text{null}(A^T)$: The *left null space* of A^T , it contains all solutions to the system $A^T y = 0$.

Definition 13. The *rank* of A is the dimension of $\text{col}(A)$ or $\text{col}(A^T)$, i.e.,

$$\text{rank}(A) = \dim(\text{col}(A)) = \dim(\text{col}(A^T)).$$

Definition 14. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. We define S^\perp , the *orthogonal complement* of S , as the set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n which are orthogonal to S , that is,

$$S^\perp := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x^T y = 0, \quad y \in S\}.$$

It is easy to check that S^\perp is a linear subspace, regardless of S being a subspace or not. If S is a linear subspace, then $S \cap S^\perp = \{0\}$.

Proposition 15 (Orthogonal projection). *Let $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a linear subspace. Then there exist unique $x \in S$ and $y \in S^\perp$ such that*

$$v = x + y.$$

We write $\mathbb{R}^n = S \oplus S^\perp$, and we say that \mathbb{R}^n is the direct sum of S and S^\perp .

Theorem 16 (Fundamental theorem of linear algebra). *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. Then $\text{col}(A)$ is orthogonal to $\text{null}(A^T)$, and*

$$\mathbb{R}^m = \text{col}(A) \oplus \text{null}(A^T).$$

Moreover, $\text{col}(A^T)$ is orthogonal to $\text{null}(A)$ and

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \text{col}(A^T) \oplus \text{null}(A).$$

Proof. Follows from Proposition 15 and the following equalities

$$\begin{aligned} \text{col}(A)^\perp &= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y^T Ax = 0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \\ &= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : x^T (A^T y) = 0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \\ &= \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : A^T y = 0\} \\ &= \text{null}(A^T). \end{aligned}$$

□

Proposition 17 (Fredholm's alternative). *For every matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, **exactly one** of the following statements is true:*

1. $Ax = b$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
2. There exists $0 \neq y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $A^T y = 0$ and $y^T b \neq 0$.

Proof. Suppose $Ax = b$ has a solution. This is equivalent to $b \in \text{col}(A)$. Let $y = y_c + y_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $y_c \in \text{col}(A)$, $y_n \in \text{null}(A^T)$. Note that

$$A^T y = A^T y_c + A^T y_n = A^T y_c$$

and

$$y^T b = y_c^T b + y_n^T b = y_c^T b.$$

But then, if $A^T y = 0$ we have that

$$A^T y_c = 0 \Leftrightarrow y_c = 0 \Leftrightarrow y_c^T = 0 \implies y_c^T b = 0,$$

which also implies that $y^T b = 0$. Therefore, 2. is not true.

Suppose that $Ax = b$ does not have a solution. Note that, in this case, $b \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$, because for $b = 0$ we always have the solution $x = 0$. Moreover, this is equivalent to $b \notin \text{col}(A)$ (i.e., $b \in \text{null}(A^T)$). Then, $A^T b = 0$ and $b^T b = \|b\|^2 \neq 0$. Hence, we can take $y = b$ and we have that 2. is true. \square