Cheat Sheet

Professor Marcus

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This document is a compilation of all of the definitions and major results that we have talked about in class. The purpose is to make it easier to find things (without having to look them up in the book or the notes). If there is anything that you would like to add (or corrections!), please suggest it on the Piazza page with the cheat_sheet_additions tag.

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1 Basic definitions

Given an optimization problem $\max\{f(\mathbf{x}): \mathbf{x} \in S\}$ for some $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, we will use the terms

solution

• solution: any vector in \mathbb{R}^n

feasible solution

 \bullet feasible solution: any vector in S

optimal solution

• optimal solution: a feasible solution y such that $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{y})$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in S$.

linear program (LP)

A linear program (LP) is an optimization problem of the form

 $\begin{aligned} &\min / \max \ \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ &\text{subject to} \\ &\mathbf{A}_i \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b_i & i \in I \\ &\mathbf{A}_j \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq b_j & j \in J \\ &\mathbf{A}_k \cdot \mathbf{x} = b_k & k \in K \\ &x_\ell \geq 0 & \ell \in L \\ &x_m \leq 0 & m \in M \\ &x_n \text{ free} & n \in N \end{aligned}$

equality standard An LP is in equality standard form if it has the form form

$$\min / \max \ \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$
s.t.
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x} > \mathbf{0}$$

inequality standard and inequality standard form if it has the form form

$$\begin{aligned} \min / \max & \ \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \text{s.t.} & \ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b} \end{aligned}$$

equivalent LPs Linear programs \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{P}' are called **equivalent LPs** if there is a way to turn every feasible solution for \mathcal{P} into a feasible solution for \mathcal{P}' with the same cost, and there is a way to turn every feasible solution in \mathcal{P}' into a feasible solution for \mathcal{P} with the same $cost^1$.

Theorem 1. Every linear program P can be turned into an equivalent LP P'

- in equality standard form problem, or
- in inequality standard form problem

by a sequence of reversible transformations.

$\mathbf{2}$ Polyhedra

Given a nonzero vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and scalar t,

affine hyperplane

• an affine hyperplane is a set of the form $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{x} = t\}$

halfspace

• A halfspace is a set of the form $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{x} \ge t\}$

polyhedron

A **polyhedron** is an intersection of a finite number of half spaces. That is, it is a set of the form

$$\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} > \mathbf{b}\}\$$

convex where **A** is an $m \times n$ matrix. A set S is called **convex** if for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$ and for any $\lambda \in [0, 1], \lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in S$.

Given a collection of points, $X = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, a point y is called a **convex** convex combination combination of the vectors in X if there exist $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k \geq 0$ such that

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{i} \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i$$
 and $\sum_{i} \lambda_i = 1$

The **convex hull** of a collection of points is the set of all convex combinations of convex hull the points.

Theorem 2. The following are convex:

- An intersection of convex sets
- halfspaces (and therefore polyhedra)
- the convex hull of a finite collection of points

An inequality $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq c$ is called **active** or binding (or tight) at a point \mathbf{y} if $f(\mathbf{y}) = c$.

Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a polyhedron.

¹This means they each have the same maximum and minimum value. However, they will not in general have the same polytope.

vertex

1. A point $\mathbf{x} \in P$ is called a **vertex** if there exists a linear program for which \mathbf{x} is a unique solution. That is, there exists a vector \mathbf{c} such that $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x} > \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ for all $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{x} \in P$.

extreme point

2. A point $\mathbf{y} \in P$ is called an **extreme point** if it is not the convex combination of any two other points in P. That is, the equation $\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{y} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{z}$ has no solution satisfying $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{x}$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.

basic solution

3. A point $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a **basic solution** if all equality constraints of P are active at \mathbf{z} and a total of n linearly independent (equality or inequality) constraints are active at \mathbf{z} . If, in addition, $\mathbf{z} \in P$, then it is called a **basic feasible solution (BFS)**.

basic feasible solution (BFS)

Theorem 3. If P is a polyhedron and $\mathbf{x} \in P$, then the following are equivalent:

- 1. x is a vertex
- 2. x is an extreme point
- 3. **x** is a basic feasible solution

contains a line

A polyhedron P contains a line if there exists a vector \mathbf{x} and a nonzero vector \mathbf{d} such that $\mathbf{x} + \lambda \mathbf{d} \in P$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 4. Let $P = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \}$ be a nonempty polyhedron. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. P has at least one extreme point
- 2. A has rank n
- 3. P does not contain a line

Theorem 5. If the feasible set of an LP has at least one extreme point and the LP has a finite optimum, then there exists an extreme point which achieves the optimal value.

adjacent

degenerate non-degenerate

Two basic solutions $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called **adjacent** if there exists a set of n-1 linearly independent constraints which are active at both \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} . A basic solution $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called **degenerate** if more than n constraints are active at \mathbf{x} . A basic solution with exactly n constraints is called **non-degenerate**.

Lemma 6 (Degeneracy for equality standard form). If A is an $m \times n$ matrix with full row rank, and P is the polyhedron

$$P = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x} > \mathbf{0} \}$$

then a basic solution $\mathbf{x} \in P$ is degenerate if and only if $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and more than n - m of the variables x_i are 0.

3 Simplex

feasible direction

Let \mathcal{P} be a linear program and \mathbf{x} a feasible solution for P. A vector \mathbf{d} is called a **feasible direction** if there exists $\theta > 0$ for which $\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{d} \in \text{feas}(\mathcal{P})$. If \mathcal{P} is in equality standard form and β is a feasible basis, then

$$\overline{\mathbf{c}}^{\intercal} = \mathbf{c}^{\intercal} - \mathbf{c}_{\beta}^{\intercal} \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}$$

reduced costs are

are the **reduced costs** for β .

Theorem 7. Let P be a minimization problem in equality standard form with feasible solution \mathbf{x} .

- ullet If all reduced costs are nonnegative, then ${f x}$ is optimal
- ullet If ${f x}$ is optimal and nondegenerate, then all reduced costs are nonnegative

3.1 Simplex step

A single step of the simplex method for

- ullet a generic linear programming problem where you have a polyhedron P and a linear objective function f
 - 1. Start at a vertex/BFS/extreme point v of P
 - 2. For each edge touching v in the polyhedron, see what happens to f when you move down that edge.
 - (a) If none of the edges cause f to improve, stop (\mathbf{x} is optimal)
 - (b) Otherwise pick* an edge e_j that, if you were to go down that edge, you would cause f to improve
 - 3. Go down that edge until you hit the first new BFS
 - (a) If you see you will never hit a new BFS, stop (the problem is unbounded)
 - (b) Otherwise, move to this new vertex/BFS/extreme point v'
 - 4. Iterate.

simplex step =

• a minimization problem in equality standard form:

$$min \ \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$
s.t. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

$$\mathbf{x} \ge \mathbf{0}$$

with **A** short and fat.

- 1. Start with a (column) basis β corresponding to basis matrix B the associated BFS is $\mathbf{x}_{\beta} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ with all nonbasis entries of \mathbf{x} set to 0.
- 2. Compute the reduced costs $\bar{\mathbf{c}} = \mathbf{c}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{c}_{\beta}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}$.
 - (a) If all reduced costs are nonnegative, stop (\mathbf{x} is optimal)
 - (b) Otherwise pick* j for which $\overline{c}_j < 0$.
- 3. Compute $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \operatorname{col}_i(\mathbf{A})$
 - (a) If $\mathbf{u} \leq 0$, stop (the problem is unbounded)
 - (b) Otherwise set $\ell = \arg\min_{k:u_k>0} \frac{x_{\beta(k)}}{u_k}$ (if there is a tie, then pick* one).
- 4. Form a new basis matrix by replacing column $\beta(\ell)$ with column j and iterate.

Note: generic versions of pick* may cause issues with degeneracies. In particular, cycling poor choices of pick* can result in **cycling** — a situation where simplex can consider the same bases over and over again.

Bland's Rule: Any time you pick*, pick the one with the smallest subscript.

Theorem 8. Bland's Rule avoids cycling.

3.2 Finding an initial BFS

auxiliary LP Given a linear program \mathcal{P} , an **auxiliary LP** is a new linear program \mathcal{P}' that you build in order to find an initial BFS for \mathcal{P} .

initial BFS =

- For \mathcal{P} in equality standard form:
 - 1. Multiply rows by -1 when necessary to get $\mathbf{b} \geq \mathbf{0}$.
 - 2. Add cheating variables w, and solve

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}' = & \min \quad \mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{w} \\ & \mathrm{s.t.} \ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} {+} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{b} \\ & \mathbf{x}, \ \mathbf{w} \geq \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

using simplex with initial BFS $(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{0})$.

- (a) If optimal solution has value > 0 stop (original problem is infeasible)
- (b) Otherwise, continue to do simplex steps until only \mathbf{x} in the basis
- 3. Use optimal basis for \mathcal{P}' as initial basis in original problem

4 Duality

duality chart

minimize $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$	$\text{maximize } \boldsymbol{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{b}$
$row_i(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{x} \ge b_i$	$\lambda_i \ge 0$
$row_i(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{x} \le b_i$	$\lambda_i \le 0$
$row_i(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = b_i$	λ_i free
$x_j \ge 0$	$\operatorname{col}_j(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda} \leq c_j$
$x_j \le 0$	$\operatorname{col}_j(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda} \geq c_j$
x_j free	$\operatorname{col}_j(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda} = c_j$

Figure 1: The translation between primal and dual for general LP's.

Important example:

$$\mathcal{P} = \min \ \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$
 and $\mathcal{D} = \max \ \mathbf{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ s.t. $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{b}$ s.t. $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{c}$ $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \geq \mathbf{0}$

are duals of each other.

duality chart 2

	Finite Optimum	Unbounded	Infeasible
Finite Optimum	YES	NO	NO
Unbounded	NO	NO	YES
Infeasible	NO	YES	YES

Figure 2: Which combinations are possible between Primal and Dual?

Theorem 9. The duality map is an involution. That is, if P is a minimization LP and we

- 1. Find \mathcal{D} , the (maximization) dual of \mathcal{P} .
- 2. Turn \mathcal{D} into a minimization LP \mathcal{D}' by multiplying the cost function by -1.
- 3. Find Q the (maximization) dual of \mathcal{D}' .
- 4. Turn Q into a minimization LP Q' by multiplying the cost function by -1.

Then Q' = P.

weak duality Theorem 10 (Weak duality). Let \mathcal{P} be a minimization LP and \mathcal{D} its (maximization) dual. If $\mathbf{x} \in \text{feas}(\mathcal{P})$ and $\lambda \in \text{feas}(\mathcal{D})$ then

$$\mathcal{D}(\lambda) \leq \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x})$$

Corollary 11. Let \mathcal{P} be a minimization LP and \mathcal{D} its (maximization) dual.

- If \mathcal{P} is unbounded, then \mathcal{D} must be infeasible.
- If \mathcal{D} is unbounded, then P must be infeasible.
- If $\mathbf{x} \in \text{feas}(\mathcal{P})$ and $\lambda \in \text{feas}(\mathcal{D})$ and $\mathcal{D}(\lambda) = \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x})$, then \mathbf{x}, λ are optimal

associated to β Every basis β determines a pair of solutions **associated to** β .

• A primal solution **x**:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\beta} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{b}_{\beta}$$
 and $x_i = 0$ for all other rows

• A dual solution λ :

$$\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\beta}^{\intercal} = \mathbf{c}_{\beta}^{\intercal} \mathbf{B}^{-1}$$
 and $\lambda_i = 0$ for all other columns

Note: it is possible for \mathbf{x} to be feasible (or not) in the primal and also possible for $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ to be feasible (or not) in the dual.

Corollary 12. If \mathbf{x} and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ are the primal/dual solutions associated to a basis β and \mathbf{x} is primal feasible and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is dual feasible, then \mathbf{x} and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ are optimal

strong duality **Theorem 13** (Strong duality). If a linear program P has a finite optimal solution \mathbf{x} , then its dual \mathcal{D} has a finite optimal solution $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, and $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x})$.

complementary Theorem 14 (Complementary Slackness). If \mathbf{x} is primal feasible and λ is dual slackness feasible

- $\lambda_i(\text{row}_i(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{x} b_i) \ge 0$ for all i
- $x_i(c_i \operatorname{col}_i(\mathbf{A}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\lambda}) \geq 0$ for all j
- \mathbf{x} and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ are optimal if and only if each inequality holds with equality

<u>Remark:</u> Weak/strong duality and complementary slackness hold for *all* pairs of optimal solutions — not just ones associated to the same (or any) basis.

4.1 Things equivalent to LP duality

Farkas Lemmas

Farkas Lemmas: A statement using quantifiers that can be proved using optimization techniques (usually duality). Example:

Lemma 15 (Farkas). For every $m \times n$ matrix **A** and vector $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, exactly one of the following is true:

- 1. There exists $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$
- 2. There exists λ such that $A^{\dagger}\lambda \geq 0$ and $b \cdot \lambda < 0$

theorem of This type of statement is called a **theorem of alternatives** (exactly one must be alternatives true).

separating hyperplane

Lemma 16 (separating hyperplane). Let S be a non-empty, closed, convex set and let \mathbf{x} be a point not in S. Then there exists a vector \mathbf{c} and scalar t such that

$$\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{x} \ge t$$
 and $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{y} < t$

for all points $\mathbf{y} \in S$.

4.2 Game Theory

For any function f(x, y), we play a game: player X picks a value of x and Y picks a value of y and then a (possibly negative) amount of f(x, y) clams is transferred from X to Y. So X wants big numbers and Y wants small.

Two natural quantities associated to such games are:

maximin

• the maximin value: (if X plays first, Y gets to see it, this is best X can do)²

$$\underline{f} = \max_{x \in X} \ \min_{y \in Y} f(x, y)$$

minimax

• the minimax value: (if Y plays first, X gets to see it, this is best Y can do)

$$\overline{f} = \min_{y \in Y} \ \max_{x \in X} f(x, y)$$

Lemma 17. For any function $f, \underline{f} \leq \overline{f}$.

optimal strategy A move x_* is an **optimal strategy** for X if

$$\underline{f} = \min_{y \in Y} \ f(x_*, y)$$

and y_* is an optimal strategy for Y if

$$\overline{f} = \max_{x \in X} f(x, y_*).$$

mixed strategy game

A mixed strategy game consists of players X and Y picking probability distributions over all possible moves. That is, if X has m possible moves and Y has n possible moves, then X picks $\mathbf{x} \in \Delta_m$, and Y picks $\mathbf{y} \in \Delta_n$ where

$$\Delta_k = \left\{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k : \sum_i x_i = 1, \mathbf{x} \ge 0 \right\}.$$

The payout of a mixed strategy game is $f_{\mathbf{M}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} M \mathbf{y}$ where M is the **payout** payout matrix **matrix**.

²Remember we read these as if the players are playing from left to right.

Theorem 18 (Von Neumann). Mixed strategy games have optimal strategies for both players. That is, for any $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{M}

$$\underline{f_{\mathbf{M}}} = \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \Delta_m} \min_{\mathbf{y} \in \Delta_n} \ \mathbf{x}^\intercal \mathbf{M} \mathbf{y} = \min_{\mathbf{y} \in \Delta_n} \ \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \Delta_m} \ \mathbf{x}^\intercal \mathbf{M} \mathbf{y} = \overline{f_{\mathbf{M}}}$$

optimal mixed strategies

The **optimal mixed strategies** for X and Y are the solutions to the LPs:

$$\frac{f_{\mathbf{M}}}{\text{s.t.}} = \max \ s \qquad \text{and} \qquad \overline{f_{\mathbf{M}}} = \min \ t$$

$$\text{s.t.} -s\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{M}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} \ge \mathbf{0} \qquad \text{s.t.} -t\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{M}\mathbf{y} \le \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 1 \qquad \mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 1$$

$$\mathbf{x} \ge \mathbf{0} \qquad \mathbf{y} \ge \mathbf{0}$$

Remark: These are almost duals (see the Class Notes)

- if (λ^*, u^*) is an optimal solution to the dual of $\overline{f_{\mathbf{M}}}$ then $(-\lambda^*, u^*)$ will be an optimal solution to $f_{\mathbf{M}}$.
- if (λ^*, u^*) is an optimal solution to the dual of $\underline{f_{\mathbf{M}}}$ then $(\lambda^*, -u^*)$ will be an optimal solution to $\overline{f_{\mathbf{M}}}$.

This can be used to build a solution of one from the other (using complementary slackness).

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