

LP

May 25, 2023

1 STAT 207: Advanced Optimization Topics

1.1 Linear Programming

- A general linear program takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \\ & && \mathbf{Gx} \preceq \mathbf{h}. \end{aligned}$$

A linear program is a convex optimization problem, why?

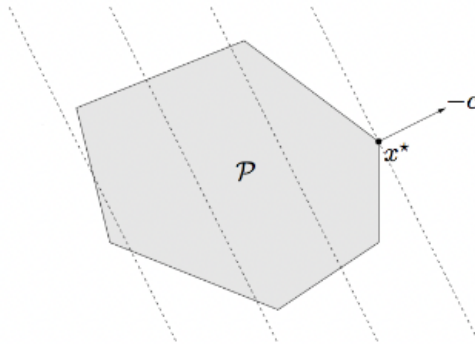


Figure 4.4 Geometric interpretation of an LP. The feasible set \mathcal{P} , which is a polyhedron, is shaded. The objective $\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}$ is linear, so its level curves are hyperplanes orthogonal to \mathbf{c} (shown as dashed lines). The point \mathbf{x}^* is optimal; it is the point in \mathcal{P} as far as possible in the direction $-\mathbf{c}$.

- The **standard form** of a linear program (LP) is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \\ & && \mathbf{x} \succeq \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

To transform a general linear program into the standard form, we introduce *slack variables* $\mathbf{s} \succeq \mathbf{0}$ such that $\mathbf{Gx} + \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{h}$. Then we write $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^+ - \mathbf{x}^-$, where $\mathbf{x}^+ \succeq \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{x}^- \succeq \mathbf{0}$. This yields the problem:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{minimize} && \mathbf{c}^\top (\mathbf{x}^+ - \mathbf{x}^-) \\
& \text{subject to} && \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}^+ - \mathbf{x}^-) = \mathbf{b} \\
& && \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}^+ - \mathbf{x}^-) + \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{h} \\
& && \mathbf{x}^+ \succeq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{x}^- \succeq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{s} \succeq \mathbf{0}
\end{aligned}$$

The slack variables are often used to transform complicated inequality constraints into simpler non-negativity constraints.

- The **inequality form** of a linear program (LP) is:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{minimize} && \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} \\
& \text{subject to} && \mathbf{G}\mathbf{x} \preceq \mathbf{h}
\end{aligned}$$

```

scipy.optimize.linprog(c, A_ub=None, b_ub=None, A_eq=None, b_eq=None,
                        bounds=None, method='highs', callback=None,
                        options=None, x0=None, integrality=None)

```

1.1.1 Examples

- A piecewise-linear minimization problem can be transformed to an LP. The original problem:

$$\text{minimize} \quad \max_{i=1, \dots, m} (\mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b_i)$$

can be transformed to the following LP:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{minimize} && \mathbf{t} \\
& \text{subject to} && \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b_i \leq \mathbf{t}, \quad i = 1, \dots, m,
\end{aligned}$$

in \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{t} .

Apparently, the following LP formulations:

$$\text{minimize} \quad \max_{i=1, \dots, m} |\mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b_i|$$

and

$$\text{minimize} \quad \max_{i=1, \dots, m} (\mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} + b_i)^+$$

are also LP.

- Any convex optimization problem, defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{minimize} && f_0(\mathbf{x}) \\
& \text{subject to} && f_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \\
& && \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} = b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, p,
\end{aligned}$$

where f_0, \dots, f_m are convex functions, can be transformed to the *epigraph* form:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } t \\ & \text{subject to } f_0(\mathbf{x}) - t \leq 0, \\ & \quad f_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m, \\ & \quad \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} = b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned}$$

in variables \mathbf{x} and t . That is why people often say linear programming is universal.

- The linear fractional programming problem, defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } \frac{\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} + d}{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{x} + f} \\ & \text{subject to } \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}, \\ & \quad \mathbf{Gx} \preceq \mathbf{h} \\ & \quad \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{x} + f > 0, \end{aligned}$$

can be transformed to an LP (linear programming) problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{y} + dz \\ & \text{subject to } \mathbf{Gy} - z\mathbf{h} \preceq \mathbf{0}, \\ & \quad \mathbf{Ay} - z\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}, \\ & \quad \mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{y} + fz = 1, \\ & \quad z \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

in variables \mathbf{y} and z , via the transformation of variables:

$$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{x} + f}, \quad z = \frac{1}{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{x} + f}.$$

Refer to Section 4.3.2 of Boyd and Vandenberghe (2004) for a proof.

```
[2]: import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# random seed
np.random.seed(23)

# Size of signal
n = 1024

# Sparsity (# nonzeros) in the signal
s = 20

# Number of samples (undersample by a factor of 8)
m = 128
```

```

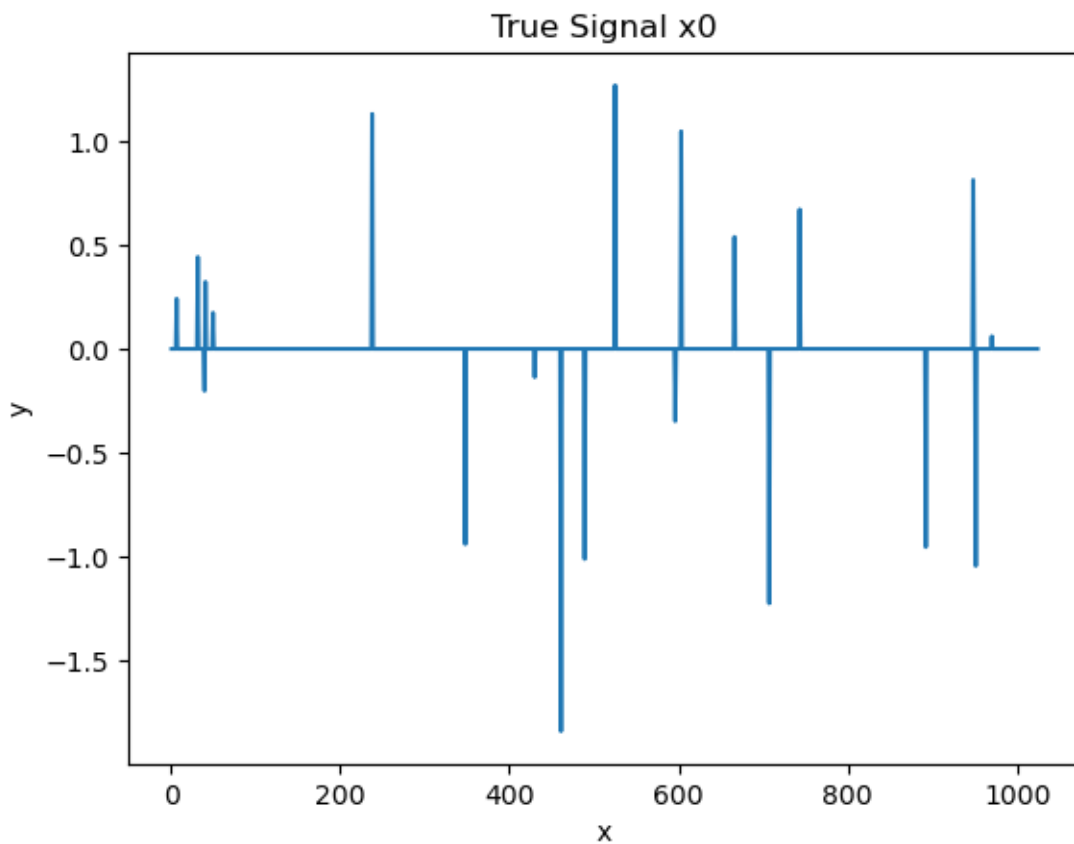
# Generate and display the signal
x0 = np.zeros(n)
nonzero_indices = np.random.choice(np.arange(n), s)
x0[nonzero_indices] = np.random.randn(s)

# Generate the random sampling matrix
A = np.random.randn(m, n) / m

# Subsample by multiplexing
y = A.dot(x0)

# Plot the true signal
plt.figure()
plt.title("True Signal x0")
plt.xlabel("x")
plt.ylabel("y")
plt.plot(np.arange(1, n+1), x0)
plt.show()

```



```
[3]: from scipy.optimize import linprog

    ## Method 1

    vF = np.ones(2 * n)

    mAeq = np.hstack((A, -A))
    vBeq = y

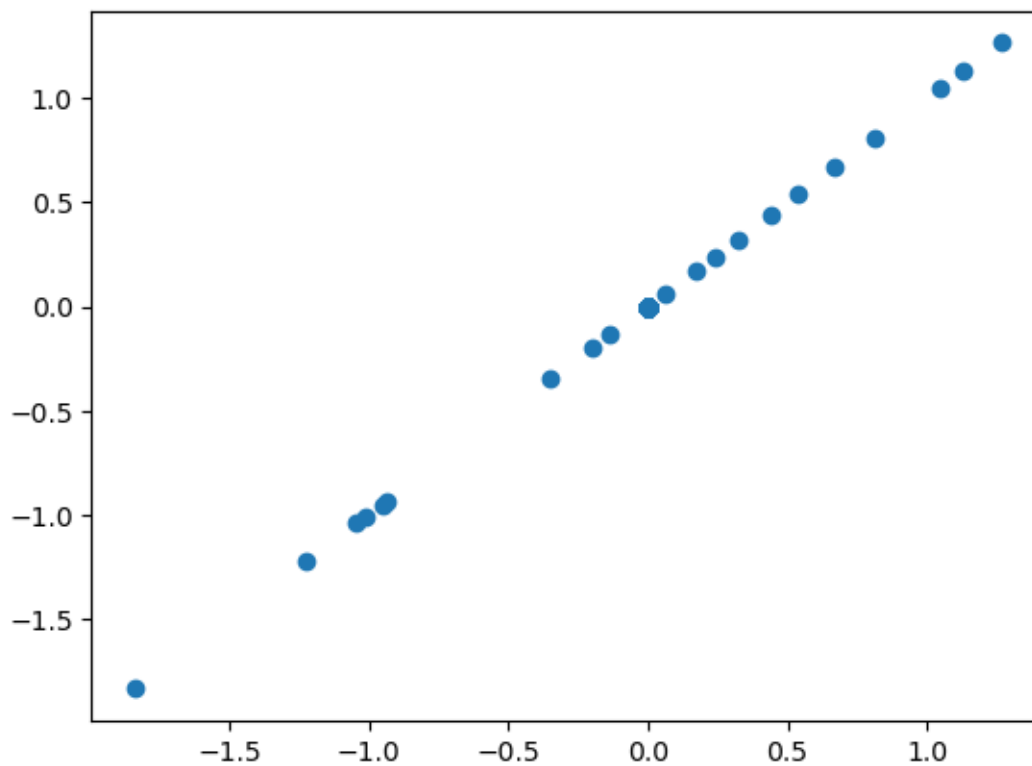
    vLowerBound = np.zeros(2 * n)
    vUpperBound = np.inf * np.ones(2 * n)

    res = linprog(vF, A_eq=mAeq, b_eq=vBeq, bounds=list(zip(vLowerBound,
    ↪vUpperBound)))

    vX = res.x[:n] - res.x[n:]

    plt.scatter(x0, vX)
    plt.show
```

```
[3]: <function matplotlib.pyplot.show(close=None, block=None)>
```



```

[4]: ## Method 2

c = np.block([np.zeros(n), np.ones(n)])
print(len(c))

A_eq = np.block([A, np.zeros((m,n))])
print(A_eq.shape)
b_eq = y

I = np.eye(n)
A_ub = np.block([[I, -I],
                  [-I, -I]])

b_ub = np.zeros(2*n)
print(len(b_ub))

lp = linprog(c, A_ub = A_ub, b_ub = b_ub, A_eq=A_eq, b_eq=b_eq, method = '
    ↪ 'highs-ipm')

print("Optimization status:", lp.message)
x_sol = lp.x[:n]
t_sol = lp.x[n:]

# Scatter plot 1
fig, axs = plt.subplots(1, 2, figsize=(10, 4)) # Create a figure with two
    ↪ subplots
ax1, ax2 = axs # Assign the axes to variables

ax1.scatter(x_sol, t_sol)
ax1.set_title("Scatter Plot 1")

# Scatter plot 2
ax2.scatter(x0, x_sol)
ax2.set_title("Scatter Plot 2")

plt.show()

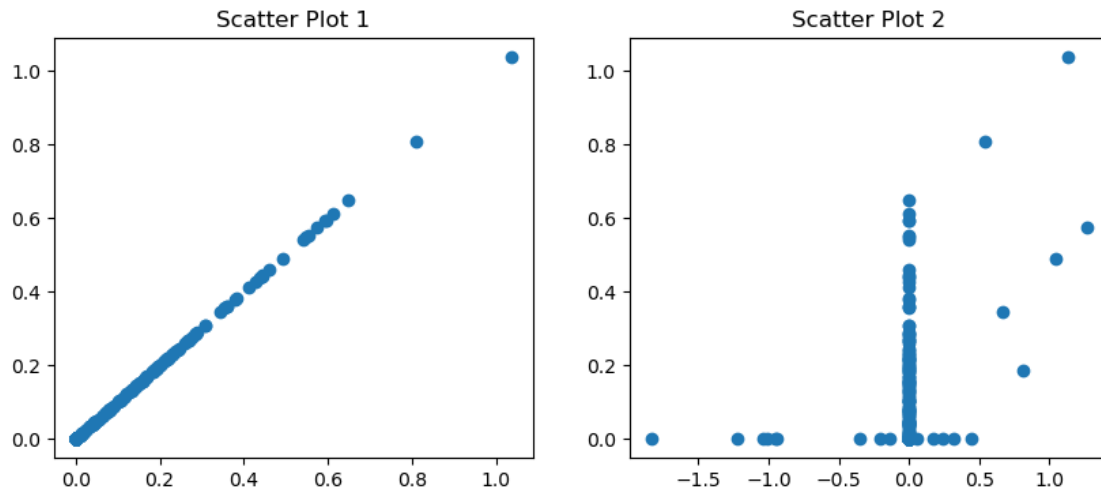
```

2048

(128, 2048)

2048

Optimization status: Optimization terminated successfully. (HiGHS Status 7: Optimal)



```
[5]: import cvxpy as cp
import numpy as np

x = cp.Variable(n)

# Create the optimization problem
objective = cp.Minimize(cp.norm(x, 1))
constraints = [A @ x == y]
problem = cp.Problem(objective, constraints)

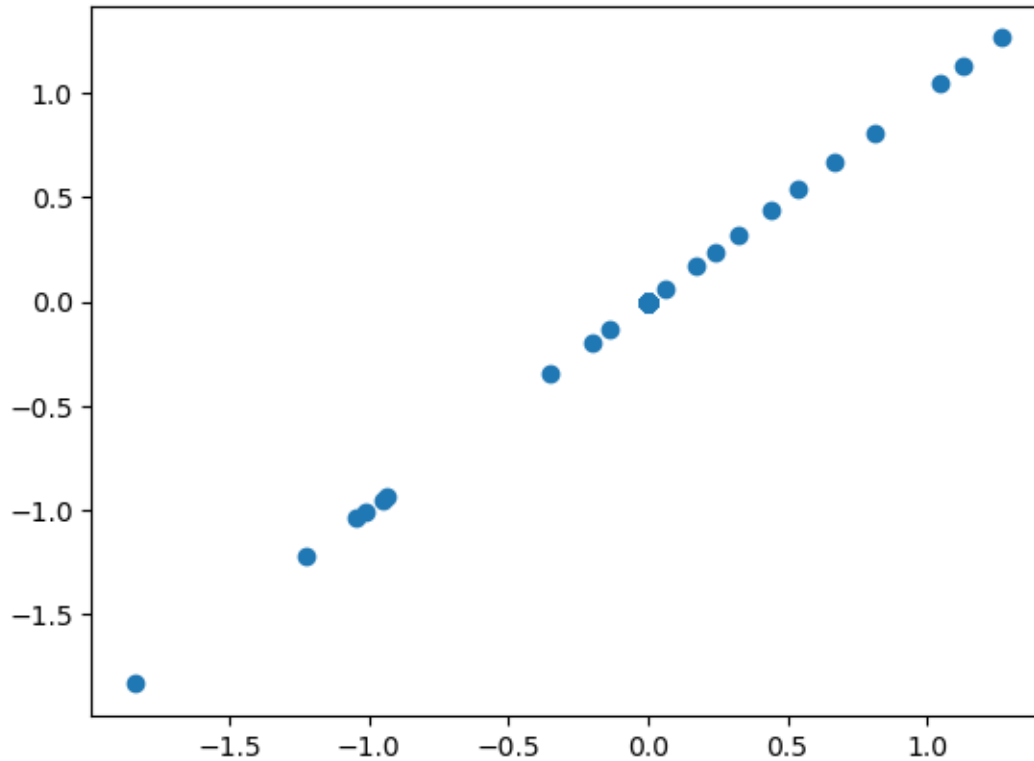
# Solve the problem
problem.solve()

# Retrieve the solution
x_sol = x.value

print("obj val=", problem.solve())

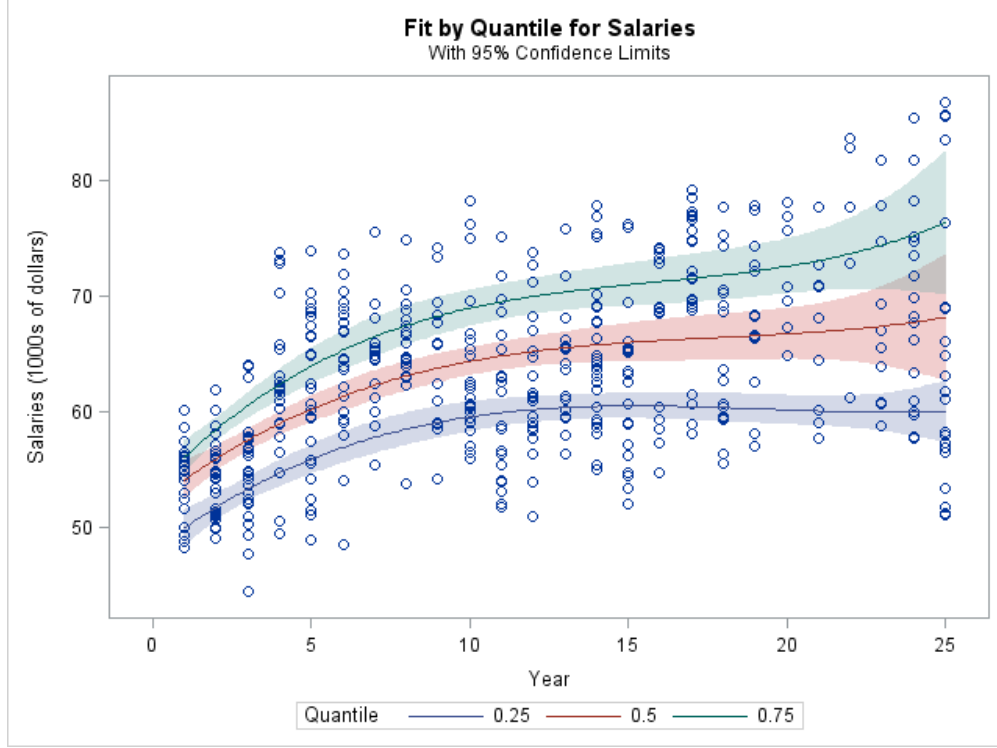
plt.scatter(x0, x_sol)
plt.show()
```

obj val= 14.392566762494843



1.1.2 Quantile regression

- Linear regression models the mean of the response.
- However, in certain cases, the error variance may not be constant, the distribution of the response variable may exhibit asymmetry, or we may be interested in capturing specific quantiles of the response variable.
- In such situations, quantile regression provides a more suitable modeling approach.



- In a τ -quantile regression, we minimize the loss function

$$f(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_{\tau}(y_i - x_i^T \beta),$$

where $\rho_{\tau}(z) = z(\tau - 1_{\{z < 0\}})$. Writing $y - X\beta = r^+ - r^-$, this is equivalent to the LP

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad \tau^T 1^T r^+ + (1 - \tau)^T 1^T r^- \\ & \text{subject to} \quad r^+ - r^- = y - X\beta \\ & \quad \quad \quad r^+ \succeq 0, r^- \succeq 0 \end{aligned}$$

in r^+ , r^- , and β .

1.1.3 ℓ_1 Regression

A popular method in robust statistics is the median absolute deviation (MAD) regression that minimizes the ℓ_1 norm of the residual vector $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|_1$. This apparently is equivalent to the LP

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} \quad 1^T(\mathbf{r}^+ + \mathbf{r}^-) \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{r}^+ - \mathbf{r}^- = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta \\ & \quad \quad \quad \mathbf{r}^+ \succeq 0, \quad \mathbf{r}^- \succeq 0 \end{aligned}$$

in \mathbf{r}^+ , \mathbf{r}^- , and β .

ℓ_1 regression = MAD = median-quantile regression.

1.1.4 Dantzig selector

- [Candes and Tao 2007](#) Propose a variable selection method called the Dantzig selector that solves:

$$\text{minimize } \|X^T(y - X\beta)\|_\infty \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \leq t,$$

which can be transformed to an LP.

- The method is named after George Dantzig, who invented the simplex method for efficiently solving LPs in the 1950s.

1.2 Quadratic Programming

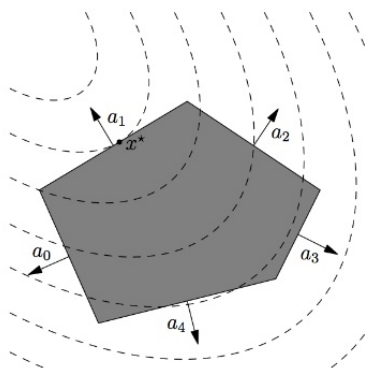


Figure 5.1: Geometric interpretation of quadratic optimization. At the optimal point x^* the hyperplane $\{x \mid a_1^T x = b\}$ is tangential to an ellipsoidal level curve.

- A quadratic program (QP) has a quadratic objective function and affine constraint functions:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{r} \\ &\text{subject to } \mathbf{G} \mathbf{x} \preceq \mathbf{h} \\ &\quad \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}, \end{aligned}$$

where we require $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{S}_+^n$ (why?). Apparently, linear programming (LP) is a special case of QP with $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{0}_{n \times n}$.

1.2.1 Examples

- Least squares with linear constraints. For example, nonnegative least squares (NNLS)

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \\ &\text{subject to } \mathbf{x} \succeq \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

- Lasso ([Tibshirani 1996](#)) minimizes the least squares loss with the ℓ_1 (lasso) penalty

$$\text{minimize } \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \beta_0 \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|_1,$$

where $\lambda > 0$ is the tuning parameter.

- Write $\beta = \beta^+ - \beta^-$, the equivalent QP is

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \frac{1}{2}(\beta^+ - \beta^-)^T X^T (I - \frac{1}{n} 11^T) X (\beta^+ - \beta^-) + \\ & && y^T (I - \frac{1}{n} 11^T) X (\beta^+ - \beta^-) + \lambda 1^T (\beta^+ + \beta^-) \\ & \text{subject to} && \beta^+ \succeq 0, \quad \beta^- \succeq 0 \end{aligned}$$

in β^+, β^- .

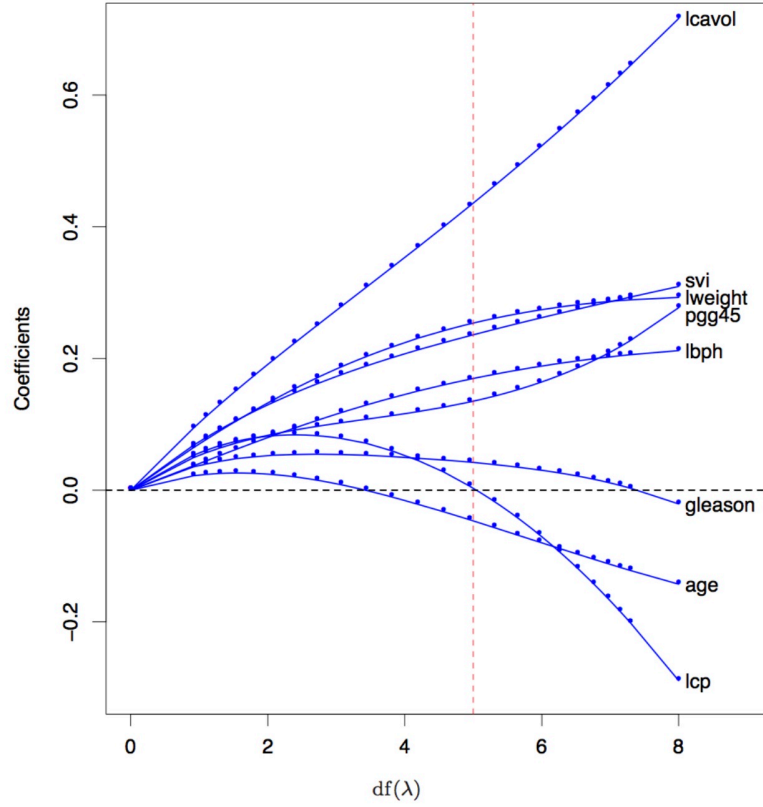


FIGURE 3.8. Profiles of ridge coefficients for the prostate cancer example, as the tuning parameter λ is varied. Coefficients are plotted versus $\text{df}(\lambda)$, the effective degrees of freedom. A vertical line is drawn at $\text{df} = 5.0$, the value chosen by cross-validation.

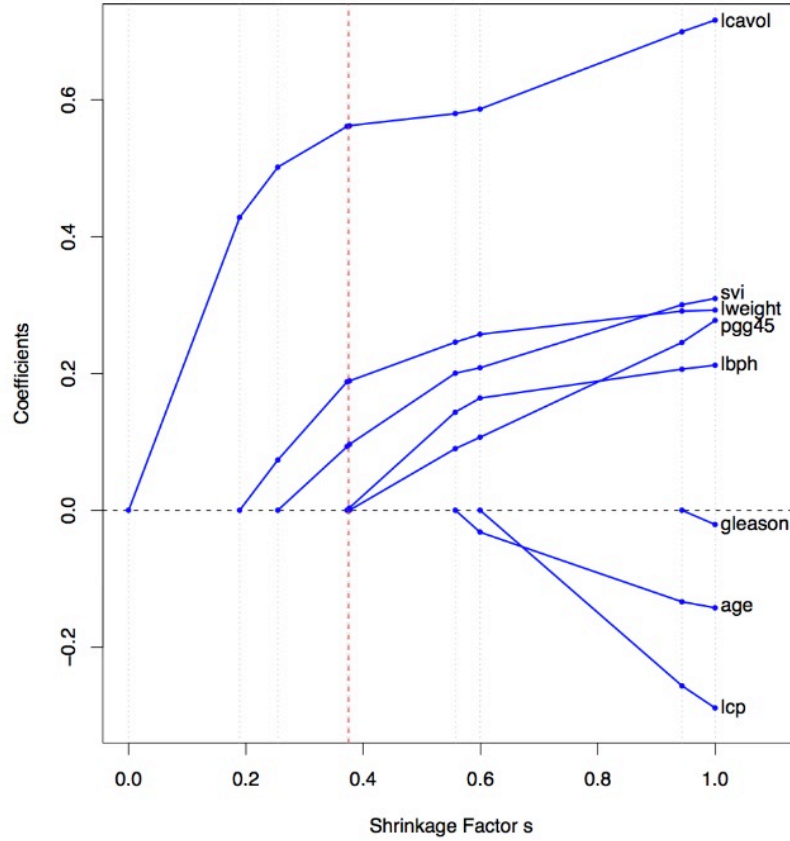


FIGURE 3.10. Profiles of lasso coefficients, as the tuning parameter t is varied. Coefficients are plotted versus $s = t / \sum_1^p |\hat{\beta}_j|$. A vertical line is drawn at $s = 0.36$, the value chosen by cross-validation. Compare Figure 3.8 on page 65; the lasso profiles hit zero, while those for ridge do not. The profiles are piece-wise linear, and so are computed only at the points displayed; see Section 3.4.4 for details.

- Elastic Net [Zou and Hastie \(2005\)](#):

$$\text{minimize } \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \beta_0 \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{X} \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda (\alpha \|\beta\|_1 + (1 - \alpha) \|\beta\|_2^2),$$



- Image denoising by the total variation (TV) penalty or the anisotropic penalty

$$\frac{1}{2}\|y - x\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{i,j} \sqrt{(x_{i+1,j} - x_{i,j})^2 + (x_{i,j+1} - x_{i,j})^2}.$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\|y - x\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{i,j} (|x_{i+1,j} - x_{i,j}| + |x_{i,j+1} - x_{i,j}|).$$

- The Huber loss

$$\phi(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{r^2}{2} & \text{if } |r| \leq M \\ r^2 - 2M|r| + M^2 & \text{if } |r| > M \end{cases}$$

is commonly used in robust statistics. The robust regression problem

$$\text{minimize } \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(y_i - \beta_0 - x_i^T \beta)$$

can be transformed to a QP

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize} && u^T u + 2M1^T v - u^T v \\ &\text{subject to} && u - v \preceq y - X\beta \preceq u + v \\ &&& 0 \preceq u \preceq M1, \quad v \succeq 0 \end{aligned}$$

in $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$. Hint: write $|r_i| = (|r_i| \wedge M) + (|r_i| - M) = u_i + v_i$.

- Support Vector Machines (SVM) In two-class classification problems, we are given training data $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$, where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are feature vectors and $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ are class labels. The SVM solves the optimization problem:

$$\text{minimize } \sum_{i=1}^n \left[1 - y_i(\beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij}\beta_j) \right]_+ + \lambda \|\beta\|_2^2,$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ is a tuning parameter. This is a quadratic programming problem.