# **Linear & Nonlinear Programming**

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## Exercise 2.6 (Caratheodory's theorem)

(a)  $\forall y \in C$ , let us consider  $\Lambda = \left\{ (\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n) \in \mathfrak{R}^n \middle| \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{A}_i = y, \lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n \geq 0 \right\}$ , and mark  $A = (A_1, A_2, ..., A_n)$ ,  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n)^{\mathrm{T}}$ . Then  $\Lambda = \{\lambda \in \mathfrak{R}^n \middle| A\lambda = y, \lambda \geq 0\}$ .  $\therefore$  we require  $y \in C$  at begin, then there exists a solution to  $A\lambda = y$ , from **theorem 2.5**, we can conclude :  $\exists \tilde{A}, \tilde{y} \ s.t. \ \tilde{A}\lambda = \tilde{y}$  and rows of  $\tilde{A}$  are linear independent. Now we assume  $\tilde{A}$  has  $\bar{m}$  row,  $\bar{m} \leq m$ ,  $\therefore$  from **theorem 2.4** one of basic feasible solution of  $\Lambda$  has at most  $\bar{m}$  non-zero  $\lambda_i$ , where  $\bar{m} \leq m$ .

(b)  $\forall y \in P$ , let us consider  $\Lambda = \{(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n) \in \mathfrak{R}^n | \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i A_i = y, \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1, \lambda_i \geq 0, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ , use the same notation as before, and mark  $B = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $\mathbf{1}$  is a  $1 \times n$  vector with all element being 1. Then  $\Lambda = \left\{\lambda \in \mathfrak{R}^n | B\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda \geq 0\right\} :: B\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  has solution, from **theorem 2.5**,  $\exists \ \bar{B}.\bar{y} \text{ s.t. } \bar{B}\lambda = \bar{y}$ , and rows of  $\tilde{B}$  are linear independent, and assume it has m' rows,  $m' \leq m+1$ ,  $\Lambda = \left\{\lambda \in \mathfrak{R}^n | \bar{B}\lambda = \bar{y}, \lambda \geq 0\right\}$ , from **theorem 2.4** : one of basic feasible solution of  $\Lambda$  has at most m' non-zero  $\lambda_i$  where  $m' \leq m+1$ .

### Exercise 2.10

- (a) True, according to our basic linear algebra knowledge, solution to Ax = b can be represented as  $x = x_0 + \lambda \eta$ , where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \eta \in \mathbb{R}^n, \because n = m+1$ , the freedom of  $\eta$  is one, it implies x is a linear (dimision = 1) in space (you can assume n = 2, 3 to help understand), notice theorem 2.3 basic feasible solution is extreme point and vertex, and two points determine one line.
- (b) False, min constant,  $x \ge 0$
- (c) False, use example from (b)
- (d) True, because we consider linear optimization, objective function is linear, it is a convex problem, let  $x_1, x_2$  be the optimal solution, then any convex combination of  $x_1, x_2$  will be optimal.

(e) False.

only (1,0) is basic feasible optimal solutions

(f) False,

min max 
$$\{x_1, 1 - x_1\}$$
  
s.t.  $x_1 + x_2 = 1$   
 $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$ 

the optimal point is (1/2,1/2) which is not extreme point

#### Exercise 2.12

True, this can be easily inferred by Corollary 2.2: every nonempty bounded polyhedron and every nonempty polyhedron in standard form has at least one basic feasible solution. we can transform (replace) every  $x_i \leq 0$  to  $\bar{x}_i = -x_i \geq 0$ , and reformulate our problem into standard one, then use Corollary 2.2.

Or, by theorem 2.6, we need to prove The polyhedron P does not contain a line. Statement: for each  $x_i$  we have either the constraint  $x_i \ge 0$  or constraint  $x_i \le 0$  we know it is impossible to contain a line.

#### Exercise 2.16

- 1. This can **not** be feasible set in standard form in  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. This can be feasible set in standard form in higher dimension. Because we can introduce a slack variable,  $x_{n+1}$

and require  $x_n + x_{n+1} = 1, x_{n+1} \ge 0$  then

$$\left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} | \begin{bmatrix} I_{n-1} & & \\ & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x = [0 \dots 0 \ 1]^{\mathrm{T}}, x \ge 0 \right\}$$

## **Separating Hyperplane Theorem**

**Theorem 1** Suppose C and D are nonempty dis-joint convex sets, i.e.,  $C \cap D = \emptyset$ . Then there exist  $a \neq 0$  and b such that  $a^T x \leq b$  for all  $x \in C$  and  $a^T x \geq b$  for all  $x \in D$ . In other words, the affine function  $a^T x - b$  is non-positive on C and non-negative on D. The hyperplane  $\{x | a^T x = b\}$  is called a separating hyperplane for the sets C and D, or is said to separate the sets C and D. (This theorem is copying from convex optimization Stephen Boyd)

**Theorem 2** Let  $C \subset \mathcal{E}$ , where  $\mathcal{E}$  is either  $\mathcal{R}_n$  or  $\mathcal{M}_n$ , be a closed convex set and let b be a point exterior to C. Then there is a vector  $a \subset \mathcal{E}$  such that

$$a^T b > \sup_{x \in C} a^T x, \quad x \subset C$$

where a is the norm direction of the hyperplane.

#### **Proof**

In this part, firstly, we prove **theorem 1** and, use it to prove **theorem 2**.

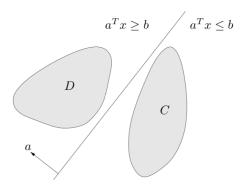


Figure 1: The hyperplane  $\{x|a^Tx=b\}$  separates the disjoint convex sets C and D. The affine function  $a^Tx-b$  is nonpositive on C and nonnegative on D

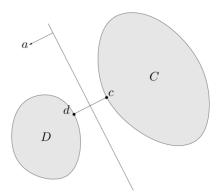


Figure 2: Construction of a separating hyperplane between two convex sets. The points  $c \in C$  and  $d \in D$  are the pair of points in the two sets that are closest to each other. The separating hyperplane is orthogonal to, and bisects, the line segment between c and d.

Here we assume the distance between C and D, defined as

$$\mathbf{dist}(C,D) = \inf \left\{ \left\| u - v \right\|_2 | u \in C, v \in D \right\},\,$$

is positive, and that there exist points  $c \in C$  and  $d \in D$  that achieve the minimum distance, i.e.,  $||c - d||_2 = \mathbf{dist}(C, D)$ . (These conditions are satisfied, for example, when C and D are closed and one set is bounded.)

define

$$a = d - c, \quad b = \frac{\|d\|_2^2 - \|c\|_2^2}{2}$$

We will show that the affine function

$$f(x) = a^{T}x - b = (d - c)^{T}(x - (1/2)(d + c))$$

is nonpositive on C and nonnegative on D, i.e., that the hyperplane  $\{x|a^Tx=b\}$  separates C and D. This hyperplane is perpendicular to the line segment between c and d, and passes through its midpoint, as shown in figure 2.

we first show that f is nonnegative on D, The proof that f is nonpositive on C is similar (or follows by swapping C and D and considering -f). Suppose there were a point  $u \in D$  for which

$$f(u) = (d-c)^{T}(u - (1/2)(d+c)) < 0$$

We can express f(u) as

$$f(u) = (d-c)^{T}(u-d+(1/2)(d-c)) = (d-c)^{T}(u-d)+1/2 \|\cdot c\|_{2}^{2}$$

We see that implies  $(d-c)^T(u-d) < 0$ . Now we observe that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \|d + t(u - d) - c\|_{2}^{2} \bigg|_{t=0} = 2(d - c)^{T} (u - d) < 0,$$

so for some small t > 0, with  $t \le 1$ , we have

$$||d + t(u - d) - c||_2 < ||d - c||_2$$

i.e., the point d + t(u - d) is closer to c than d is. Since D is convex and contain d and u, we have  $d + t(u - d) \in D$ . But t this is impossible, since d is assumed to be the point in D that is closest to C.

Until now, Theorem 1 is proven. Now let us focus on theorem 2. Because point b is exterior to C, we can find a small ball with radius  $\epsilon$ (small enough), centering at b that isn't intersect with C, let us denote this small ball as  $B(b, \epsilon)$ .

$$B(b,\epsilon) \cap C = \emptyset$$

By theorem 1, we can find a separating hyperplane  $\{x \mid a^Tx = d\}$  for C and  $B(b, \epsilon)$ , we can assume  $\forall x \in B(b, \epsilon), a^Tx - d > 0$  and  $\forall x \in C, a^Tx - d < 0$ , (otherwise, we can use -a to replace a)  $\therefore \sup_{x \in C} a^Tx < d$ ,  $\therefore$  point  $b \in B(b, \epsilon), \therefore a^Tb > d > \sup_{x \in C} a^Tx$