# Introduction to Mathematical Programming IE406

Lecture 3

Dr. Ted Ralphs

# **Reading for This Lecture**

• Bertsimas 2.1-2.2

#### From Last Time

• Recall the Two Crude Petroleum example.

- In the example, the optimal solution was a "corner point."
- We saw that the following are possible outcomes of solving an optimization problem:

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- In fact, we will see that these are the only possibilities.
- We will also see that when there is an optimal solution and at least one "corner point," there is an optimal solution that is a "corner point."

#### **Some Definitions**

**Definition 1.** A polyhedron is a set of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \geq b\}$ , where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Definition 2.** A set  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is bounded if there exists a constant K such that  $|x_i| < K \ \forall x \in S, \forall i \in [1, n]$ .

**Definition 3.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  be given.

- The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | a^\top x = b\}$  is called a hyperplane.
- The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | a^\top x \ge b\}$  is called a half-space.

#### Notes:

#### **Convex Sets**

**Definition 4.** A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if  $\forall x, y \in S$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ , we have  $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in S$ .

**Definition 5.** Let  $x^1, \ldots, x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^k$  be given such that  $\lambda^{\top} \mathbf{1} = 1$ .

- The vector  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x^i$  is said to be a convex combination of  $x^1, \ldots, x^k$ .
- The convex hull of  $x^1, \ldots, x^k$  is the set of all convex combinations of these vectors.

#### Notes:

# **Properties of Convex Sets**

The following properties can be derived from the definitions:

- The intersection of convex sets is convex.
- Every polyhedron is a convex set.
- The convex combination of a finite number of elements of a convex set also belongs to the set.
- The convex hull of a finite number of vectors is a convex set.

How do we prove each of these?

#### **Aside: Mathematical Proofs**

- A mathematical proof shows the correctness of a given statement based on known definitions, axioms, and previously proven statements.
- Most proofs are for statements of the form  $A \Rightarrow B$  where A and B are both statements.
- Example: "If x>2 is a real number, then there exists a real number y<0 such that  $x=\frac{2y}{1+y}$ ".
- Proof:

What are A and B in this example?

# Mathematical Proofs: Quantifying Variables

- Quantifying is specifying from which set and for which values of a variable a statement is true.
- Example: "For all real numbers x and y,  $(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$ ."
- ullet This specifies that x and y can have any real value.
- Example: "For all real numbers  $x \ge 0$ , x = |x|."
- $\bullet$  This specifies that the statement is true for nonnegative values of x.

# Mathematical Proofs: Types of Quantifiers

- Universal Quantifiers
  - Statements that include "for all" or "for every."

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- Example: "For all real numbers x,  $cos^2x + sin^2x = 1$ ."
- Existential Quantifiers
  - Statements that include "there exists" or "there is."

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- Example: "For every real number  $0 \le x \le 1$ , there exists a real number  $0 \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$  such that sin(y) = x."
- Notation: ∀ means "for all" and ∃ means "there exists".
- Example: " $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 \le x \le 1$ ,  $\exists y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $0 \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$  and sin(y) = x."

### Mathematical Proofs: Proofs with Universal Quantifiers

- To prove something about a universally quantified statement, first let an arbitrary set element *be given*.
- Example: "If  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $det(C) \neq 0$ , then  $\exists C^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $CC^{-1} = I$ ."
- Start of Proof: "Let an arbitrary matrix  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be given such that  $det(C) \neq 0...$ "
- Now prove that statement is true for the given element.
- Since the element was arbitrary, this proves the original statement.

### Mathematical Proofs: Proofs with Existential Quantifiers

- If you are trying to prove something about an existentially quantified variable, the proof is often *constructive*.
- The proof gives a technique for constructing an element of the set with the given property.
- Example: "If  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $det(C) \neq 0$ , then  $\exists C^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  such that  $CC^{-1} = I$ ."
- Proof Technique: Construct  $C^{-1}$ .

# Mathematical Proofs: Choosing an Element

- If you know from a previous theorem that an element of a set with a particular property exists, then you may "choose" it.
- Example: "Let r, a positive rational number be given. Then we may choose natural numbers p and q such that  $r = \frac{p}{q}$ ."
- This can be especially useful in constructive proofs.

# **Mathematical Proofs: Proof Techniques**

- Prove the contrapositive.
- Proof by contradiction.
- Proof by induction.
- Proof by cases.
- Other types of proofs
  - Uniqueness proofs.
  - Either/or proofs.
  - If and only if proofs.

# **Back to Our Story**

Let's prove the following:

**Proposition 1.** The intersection of convex sets is convex.

Proof:

**Proposition 2.** Every polyhedron is convex.

Proof:

#### **Extreme Points and Vertices**

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

**Definition 6.** A vector  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  is an extreme point of  $\mathcal{P}$  if  $\not\exists y, z \in \mathcal{P}, \lambda \in (0,1)$  such that  $x = \lambda y + (1-\lambda)z$ .

**Definition 7.** A vector  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  is a vertex of  $\mathcal{P}$  if  $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $c^{\top}x < c^{\top}y \ \forall y \in \mathcal{P}, x \neq y$ .

#### Notes:

# A Little Linear Algebra Review

**Definition 8.** A finite collection of vectors  $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is linearly independent if the unique solution to  $\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x^i = 0$  is  $\lambda_i = 0, i = 1, \ldots, k$ . Otherwise, the vectors are linearly dependent.

Let A be a square matrix. Then, the following statements are equivalent:

- The matrix A is invertible.
- The matrix  $A^{\top}$  is invertible.
- The determinant of A is nonzero.
- The rows of *A* are linearly independent.
- The columns of A are linearly independent.
- For every vector b, the system Ax = b has a unique solution.
- There exists some vector b for which the system Ax = b has a unique solution.

# A Little More Linear Algebra Review

**Definition 9.** A nonempty subset  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a subspace if  $\alpha x + \gamma y \in S \ \forall x, y \in S \ \text{and} \ \forall \alpha, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 10.** A linear combination of a collection of vectors  $x^1, \ldots, x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is any vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $y = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x^i$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^k$ .

**Definition 11.** The span of a collection of vectors  $x^1, \ldots, x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all linear combinations of those vectors.

**Definition 12.** Given a subspace  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , a collection of linearly independent vectors whose span is S is called a basis of S. The number of vectors in the basis is the dimension of the subspace.

# **Subspaces and Bases**

- A given subspace has an infinite number of bases.
- Each basis has the same number of vectors in it.
- If S and T are subspaces such that  $S \subset T \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , then a basis of S can be extended to a basis of T.
- The span of the columns of a matrix A is a subspace called the *column* space or the range, denoted range(A).
- The span of the rows of a matrix A is a subspace called the row space.
- The dimensions of the column space and row space are always equal. We call this number rank(A).
- Clearly,  $rank(A) \leq \min\{m, n\}$ . If  $rank(A) = \min\{m, n\}$ , then A is said have *full rank*.
- The set  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax = 0\}$  is called the *null space* of A (denoted null(A)) and has dimension n rank(A).

#### **Some Conventions**

If not otherwise stated, the following conventions will be followed for lecture slides during the course:

- $\mathcal{P}$  will denote a polyhedron contained in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- A will denote a matrix of dimension m by n.
- b will denote a vector of dimension m.
- x will denote a vector of dimension n.
- c will denote a vector of dimension n.
- $\mathcal{P}$  will either be defined in *standard form* ( $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ ) or *inequality form* ( $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \geq b\}$ ).
- We will usually be minimizing.