

4. Review of Linear Programming

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Linear Programming

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

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

- **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 $J(x_k) \rightarrow_{k \rightarrow \infty} \infty$.

Reduction to the Standard Form

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^- .

Reduction to the standard form

- 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 \mathbf{P} can be written as

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

Reduction to the standard form

Example 1

- Consider the LP problem

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

- This example is discussed on the smartboard.

Duality

Dual problem

- 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

Dual Problem (D)

$$\begin{aligned} \min J(y) &= \min b^T y \\ \text{subject to } A^T y &\geq c, \\ y &\geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

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

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**.

Dual problem

Lemma 4

The dual of \mathbf{D} is \mathbf{P} .

Proof.

We can write

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \left\{ b^T y : A^T y \geq c, y \geq 0 \right\} \\ & = - \max \left\{ (-b)^T y : -A^T y \leq -c, y \geq 0 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

which 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.

- That is,

Generalized Primal Problem (P_g)

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

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

Dual problem

- Using the following primal-dual correspondence

	(P_g)	(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** (D_g)

Dual problem

- That is a dual problem with some equality constraints and only some variables which are restricted

Generalized Dual Problem (D_g)

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

where $y \in \mathbb{R}^m, c \in \mathbb{R}^n, A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, b \in \mathbb{R}^m, R, F \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}, R \cap F = \emptyset, R \cup F = \{1, \dots, n\}$.

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 (P) and y is feasible for (D), then

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

Moreover:

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

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 $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is the set

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

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

$$H_{a,\alpha}^- = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \leq \alpha \right\},$$

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

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 (Strong 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

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

Proof.

Smartboard.



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

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

Proof.

Smartboard.



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 , it contains all solutions to the system $A^T y = 0$.

Definition 13

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

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,

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

- 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

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



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. does not hold true.

Proof.

- 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. holds true.

