## Math 407A: Linear Optimization

#### Lecture 12: The Geometry of Linear Programming

Math Dept, University of Washington

#### 1 The Geometry of Linear Programming

- Hyperplanes
- Convex Polyhedra
- Vertices

2 The Geometry of Degeneracy

The Geometry of Duality

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# Hyperplanes

Definition: A hyperplane in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is any set of the form

$$H(a,\beta) = \{x : a^T x = \beta\}$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Hyperplanes

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where  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Fact:  $H \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is a hyperplane if and only if the set

$$H - x_0 = \{x - x_0 : x \in H\}$$

where  $x_0 \in H$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  of dimension (n-1).

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What are the hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?

Translates of (n-1) dimensional subspaces.

Every hyperplane divides the space in half.

$$H(a,\beta) = \{x : a^T x = \beta\}$$

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$$H_+(a,\beta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \ge \beta\}$$

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$$H_+(a,eta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \ge eta\}$$

and

$$H_{-}(a,\beta) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^T x \leq \beta\}.$$

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Consider the constraint region to an LP

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$$H_j = \{x : e_j^T x \ge 0\}$$
 for  $j = 1, ..., n$ 

and

$$H_{n+i} = \{x : a_i^T x \le b_i\} \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m,$$

where  $a_i$  is the *i*th row of A.

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$$\Omega = \bigcap_{k=1}^{n+m} H_k \; .$$

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That is, the constraint region of an LP is the intersection of finitely many closed half-spaces.

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where  $\ell, u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\ell \leq u$ , then it is called a **convex polytope**.

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A linear program is simply the problem of either maximizing or minimizing a linear function over a convex polyhedron.

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We now develop the geometry of convex polyhedra.

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**Fact:** Given any two points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , say x and y, the line segment connecting them is given by

$$[x,y] = \{(1-\lambda)x + \lambda y : 0 \le \lambda \le 1\}.$$

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Fact: A convex polyhedron is a convex set.

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## Example

**C**3



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## Example



The vertices are  $v_1 = (\frac{8}{7}, \frac{6}{7})$ ,  $v_2 = (0, 2)$ , and  $v_3 = (\frac{24}{5}, \frac{18}{5})$ .

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**Definition:** Let C be a convex polyhedron. We say that  $x \in C$  is a vertex of C if whenever  $x \in [u, v]$  for some  $u, v \in C$ , it must be the case that either x = u or x = v.

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#### The Fundamental Representation Theorem for Vertices

Let  $T = (t_{ij})_{m \times n}$ ,  $g \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , and consider the convex polyhedron  $C := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Tx \leq g\}$ . A point  $x \in C$  is a vertex of C if and only if there exist an index set  $\mathcal{I} \subset \{1, \ldots, m\}$  such that x is the unique solution to the system of equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^n t_{ij} x_j = g_i \quad i \in \mathcal{I}.$$

Moreover, if x is a vertex, then one can take  $|\mathcal{I}| = n$ , where  $|\mathcal{I}|$  denotes the number of elements in  $\mathcal{I}$ .

#### Observations

When does the system of equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^n t_{ij} x_j = g_i \quad i \in \mathcal{I}$$

have a unique solution?

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 $|\mathcal{I}| \geq n$ ; otherwise, one solution implies infinitely many solutions.

If  $|\mathcal{I}| > n$ , we can select a subset  $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathcal{I}$  of the rows  $T_{i}$  of T so that the set of vectors  $\{T_{i} \mid i \in \mathcal{R}\}$  form a basis of the row space of T. Then  $|\mathcal{R}| = n$  and x is the unique solution to

$$\sum_{j=1}^n t_{ij} x_j = g_i \quad i \in \mathcal{R}.$$

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Corollary: A point x in the convex polyhedron described by the system of inequalities

$$Ax \leq b$$
 and  $0 \leq x$ ,

where  $A = (a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ , is a vertex of this polyhedron if and only if there exist index sets  $\mathcal{I} \subset \{1, \ldots, m\}$  and  $\mathcal{J} \subset \{1, \ldots, n\}$  with  $|\mathcal{I}| + |\mathcal{J}| = n$  such that x is the unique solution to the system of equations

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j = b_i$$
  $i \in \mathcal{I},$  and  $x_j = 0$   $j \in \mathcal{J}.$
# Example

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} c_1 & : & -x_1 - x_2 \leq -2 \\ c_2 & : & 3x_1 - 4x_2 \leq 0 \\ c_3 & : & -x_1 + 3x_2 \leq 6 \end{array}$$

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(a)The vertex  $v_1 = (\frac{8}{7}, \frac{6}{7})$  is given as the solution to the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl} -x_1 - x_2 & = & -2 \\ 3x_1 - 4x_2 & = & 0, \end{array}$$

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(b)The vertex  $v_2 = (0, 2)$  is given as the solution to the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl} -x_1 - x_2 &=& -2 \\ -x_1 + 3x_2 &=& 6, \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{rrrr} c_1 & : & -x_1 - x_2 \leq -2 \\ c_2 & : & 3x_1 - 4x_2 \leq 0 \\ c_3 & : & -x_1 + 3x_2 \leq 6 \end{array}$$

(c)The vertex  $v_3 = \left(\frac{24}{5}, \frac{18}{5}\right)$  is given as the solution to the system

$$3x_1 - 4x_2 = 0$$
  
-x\_1 + 3x\_2 = 6.

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#### Application to LPs in Standard Form

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j \leq b_i \qquad i = 1, \dots, m$$
$$0 \leq x_j \qquad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

The associated slack variables:

$$x_{n+i} = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \qquad i = 1, \ldots, m. \quad \clubsuit$$

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Let  $\bar{x} = (\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_{n+m})$  be any solution to the system  $\clubsuit$ .  $\mathcal{J} = \{ j \in \subset \{1, \dots, n\} \mid \bar{x}_j = 0 \} \qquad \mathcal{I} = \{ j \in \{1, \dots, m\} \mid \bar{x}_{n+i} = 0 \} \}$ 

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For each  $j \in \mathcal{J} \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ ,  $ar{x}_j = 0$ , consequently the hyperplane

$$H_j = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : e_j^T x = 0\}$$

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is active at  $\hat{x}$ , i.e.,  $\hat{x} \in H_j$ .

Similarly, for each  $i \in \mathcal{I} \subset \{1,2,\ldots,m\}$ ,  $\bar{x}_{n+i}=$  0, and so the hyperplane

$$H_{n+i} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j = b_i\}$$

is active at  $\hat{x}$ , i.e.,  $\hat{x} \in H_{n+i}$ .

What are the vertices of the system

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j \leq b_i \qquad i = 1, \dots, m$$
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 $\widehat{x} = (\overline{x}_1, \dots, \overline{x}_n)$  is a vertex of this polyhedron if and only if there exist index sets  $\mathcal{I} \subset \{1, \dots, m\}$  and  $\mathcal{J} \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  with  $|\mathcal{I}| + |\mathcal{J}| = n$  such that  $\widehat{x}$  is the unique solution to the system of equations

$$\sum_{j=1} \mathsf{a}_{ij} \mathsf{x}_j = \mathsf{b}_i \quad i \in \mathcal{I}, \quad ext{and} \quad \mathsf{x}_j = \mathsf{0} \quad j \in \mathcal{J}.$$

What are the vertices of the system

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$$\sum_{j=1} \mathsf{a}_{ij} \mathsf{x}_j = \mathsf{b}_i \quad i \in \mathcal{I}, \quad ext{and} \quad \mathsf{x}_j = \mathsf{0} \quad j \in \mathcal{J}.$$

In this case  $\bar{x}_{m+i} = 0$  for  $i \in \mathcal{I}$  (slack variables).

That is,  $\hat{x}$  is a vertex of the polyhedral constraints to an LP in standard form if and only if a total of *n* of the variables  $\{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \ldots, \bar{x}_{n+m}\}$  take the value zero, while the value of the remaining *m* variables are uniquely determined by setting these *n* variables to the value zero.

That is,  $\hat{x}$  is a vertex of the polyhedral constraints to an LP in standard form if and only if a total of *n* of the variables  $\{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \ldots, \bar{x}_{n+m}\}$  take the value zero, while the value of the remaining *m* variables are uniquely determined by setting these *n* variables to the value zero.

### But then, $\hat{x}$ is a vertex if and only if it is a BFS!

That is,  $\hat{x}$  is a vertex of the polyhedral constraints to an LP in standard form if and only if a total of *n* of the variables  $\{\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, \ldots, \bar{x}_{n+m}\}$  take the value zero, while the value of the remaining *m* variables are uniquely determined by setting these *n* variables to the value zero.

### But then, $\hat{x}$ is a vertex if and only if it is a BFS!

Therefore, one can geometrically interpret the simplex algorithm as a procedure moving from one vertex of the constraint polyhedron to another with higher objective value until the optimal solution exists.

The simplex algorithm terminates finitely since every vertex is connected to every other vertex by a path of adjacent vertices on the surface of the polyhedron.

### Example



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						I		0	1	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
-2	1	1	0	0	0	2	vertex	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	V <sub>3</sub>
2	-1	0	1	0	0	4	<i>V</i> 1	0	0	1	Ο	1	1	С	$(1 \ 1)$
1	0	0	0	1	0	3	(0,0)	0	0	2	0	1	2	2	(1, +)
0	1	0	0	0	1	4		1	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	
3	4	0	0	0	0	0	_	0	0	$\frac{3}{2}$	0	0	$\frac{-11}{2}$	-19	
-2	1	1	0	0	0	2	vertex								
0	0	1	1	0	0	6	<b>V</b> 2	0	1	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
1	0	0	0	1	0	2	(0, 0)	Ο	Δ	0	1	2	1	2	V4
-	0	0	0	1	0	3	(0, 2)	0	0	0	T	-2	Т	2	
$\overline{2}$	0	-1	0	1	0 1	3	(0,2)	0	0	1	0	-2	-1	4	(3,4)
2	0	-1	0	0	0 1 0	3	(0,2)	0 1	0 0 0	0 1 0	0	-2 2 1	-1 0	4 3	(3,4)

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The BSFs in the simplex algorithm are vertices, and every vertex of the polyhedral constraint region is a BFS.

Phase I of the simplex algorithm is a procedure for finding a vertex of the constraint region, while Phase II is a procedure for moving between adjacent vertices successively increasing the value of the objective function.

Let  $\Omega = \{x : Ax \le b, 0 \le x\}$  be the constraint region for an LP in standard form.

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 for  $j = 1, ..., n$ 

and

$$\mathcal{H}_{n+i} = \{x: \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j \le b_i\}$$
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and

$$H_{n+i} = \{x: \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \le b_i\}$$
 for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ 

A basic feasible solution (vertex) is said to be degenerate if one or more of the basic variables is assigned the value zero. This implies that more than n of the hyperplanes  $H_k$ , k = 1, 2, ..., n + m are active at this vertex.

maximize subject to

$$3x_1 + 4x_2$$
  

$$-2x_1 + x_2 \le 2$$
  

$$2x_1 - x_2 \le 4$$
  

$$-x_1 + x_2 \le 3$$
  

$$x_1 + x_2 \le 7$$
  

$$0 \le x_1 \le 3,$$
  

$$0 \le x_2 \le 4.$$

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# Example



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vertex  $V_1 = (0,0)$ 

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-2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	ve
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	$V_2$
$(\mathbb{I})$	0	-1	0	1	0	0	0	1	
3	0	-1	0	0	1	0	0	5	
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	
2	0	-1	0	0	0	0	1	2	
11	0	-4	0	0	0	0	0	-8	

vertex  $V_2 = (0, 2)$ 

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-2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	vertex
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	$V_2 = (0, 2)$
$(\mathbb{I})$	0	-1	0	1	0	0	0	1	
3	0	-1	0	0	1	0	0	5	
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	
2	0	-1	0	0	0	0	1	2	
11	0	-4	0	0	0	0	0	-8	
0	1	-1	0	2	0	0	0	4	vertex
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	-1	0	1	0	0	0	1	
0	0	2	0	-3	1	0	0	2	
0	0	1	0	-1	0	1	0	2	
0	0	$(\mathbb{D})$	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
-									

0	1	-1	0	2	0	0	0	4	vertex
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	-1	0	1	0	0	0	1	
0	0	2	0	-3	1	0	0	2	
0	0	1	0	-1	0	1	0	2	
0	0	(1)	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
0	0	7	0	-11	0	0	0	-19	

0	1	-1	0	2	0	0	0	4	vertex
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	-1	0	1	0	0	0	1	
0	0	2	0	-3	1	0	0	2	
0	0	1	0	-1	0	1	0	2	
0	0	1	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
0	0	7	0	-11	0	0	0	-19	
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	1	1	
0	0	0	0	$(\mathbb{I})$	1	0	-2	2	
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	-1	2	
0	0	1	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
0	0	0	0	3	0	0	-7	-19	

# Example

0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	1	1	
0	0	0	0	$(\mathbb{D})$	1	0	-2	2	
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	-1	2	
0	0	1	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
0	0	0	0	3	0	0	-7	-19	

# Example

0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
0	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	6	$V_3 = (1, 4)$
1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	1	1	
0	0	0	0	$(\mathbb{D})$	1	0	-2	2	
0	0	0	0	1	0	1	-1	2	
0	0	1	0	-2	0	0	1	0	degenerate
0	0	0	0	3	0	0	-7	-19	
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	vertex
0	0	0	1	0	-2	0	5	2	$V_4 = (3, 4)$
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	-1	3	
0	0	0	0	1	1	0	-2	2	optimal
0	0	0	0	0	-1	1	1	0	degenerate
0	0	1	0	0	2	0	-3	4	
0	0	0	0	0	-3	0	-1	-25	

## Degeneracy = Multiple Representations of a Vertex

A degenerate tableau occurs when the associated BFS (or vertex) can be represented as the intersection point of more than one subsets of n active hyperplanes.

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A degenerate pivot occurs when we move between two different representations of a vertex as the intersection of n hyperplanes.

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A degenerate pivot occurs when we move between two different representations of a vertex as the intersection of n hyperplanes.

Cycling implies that we are cycling between different representations of the same vertex.

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### Degeneracy = Multiple Representations of a Vertex

In the previous example, the third tableau represents the vertex  $V_3 = (1,4)$  as the intersection of the hyperplanes

$$\begin{array}{ll} -2x_1 + x_2 = 2 & (\text{since } x_3 = 0) \\ -x_1 + x_2 = 3. & (\text{since } x_5 = 0) & \text{and} \end{array}$$
In the previous example, the third tableau represents the vertex  $V_3 = (1,4)$  as the intersection of the hyperplanes

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The third pivot brings us to the 4th tableau where the vertex  $V_3 = (1,4)$  is represented as the intersection of the hyperplanes

$$-x_1 + x_2 = 3$$
 (since  $x_5 = 0$ )  
 $x_2 = 4$  (since  $x_8 = 0$ ). and

# Multiple Dual Optimal Solutions and Degeneracy



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# Multiple Dual Optimal Solutions and Degeneracy

	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	primal solution
	0	0	0	1	0	-2	0	5	2	$v_4 = (3, 4)$
	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	-1	3	
	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	-2	2	dual
	0	0	0	0	0	(-1)	1	1	0	solution
	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	-3	4	(0,0,0,3,0,1)
	0	0	0	0	0	-3	0	-1	-25	
	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	primal solution
	0	0	0	1	0	0	-2	3	2	v4 = (3, 4)
	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	
	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	-1	2	dual
	0	0	0	0	0	1	-1	-1	0	solution
	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	-1	4	(0,0,0,0,3,4)
	0	0	0	0	0	0	-3	-4	-25	
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**Primal degeneracy** in an optimal tableau indicates multiple optimal solutions to the dual which can be obtained with dual simplex pivots.

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**Dual degeneracy** in an optimal tableau indicates multiple optimal primal solutions that can be obtained with primal simplex pivots.

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**Dual degeneracy** in an optimal tableau indicates multiple optimal primal solutions that can be obtained with primal simplex pivots.

A tableau is said to be dual degenerate if there is a non-basic variable whose objective row coefficient is zero.

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50	0	0	100	0	1	-10	5	500	
2.5	1	0	2	0	0	1	.15	15	primal
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	05	15	solution
-1	0	1	-1	0	0	.1	1	10	(0, 15, 10, 0)
-100	0	0	0	0	0	-10	-10	-11000	
.5	0	0	1	0	.01	1	.05	5	
1.5	1	0	0	0	02	.1	.05	5	primal
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	05	15	solution
5	0	1	0	0	.01	0	05	15	(0, 5, 15, 5)
-100	0	0	0	0	0	-10	-10	-11000	

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The objective normal

c = (3, 1)

can be written as a non-negative linear combination of the active constraint normals

$$n_1 = (-1,2)$$
 and  $n_2 = (3,-1)$ .

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The objective normal

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$$n_1 = (-1,2)$$
 and  $n_2 = (3,-1)$ .

$$c=y_1n_1+y_2n_2,$$

Equivalently

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = y_1 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + y_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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-1	3	3	
2	-1	1	
1	-3	-3	
0	5	7	
1	-3	-3	
0	1	$\frac{7}{5}$	
1 0	0 1	6 57 5	

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-1	3	3	
2	-1	1	
1	-3	-3	
0	5	7	
1	-3	-3	
0	1	<u>7</u> 5	
1	0	6	
1	0	5	
0	1	$\frac{7}{5}$	

$$y_1 = \frac{6}{5}$$
$$y_2 = \frac{7}{5}$$

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We claim that  $y = (\frac{6}{5}, \frac{7}{5})$  is the optimal solution to the dual!

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$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{P} & \\ \max & 3x_1 + x_2 & \\ \text{s.t.} & -x_1 + 2x_2 & \leq 4 \\ & 3x_1 - x_2 & \leq 3 \\ & 0 \leq x_1, & x_2. \end{array}$$

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Primal Solution (2,3)

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(2,3)

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(6/5, 7/5)

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$\mathcal{P}$			$\mathcal{D}$		
max	$3x_1 + x_2$		min	$4y_1 + 3y_2$	
s.t.	$-x_1 + 2x_2$	$\leq$ 4	s.t.	$-y_1 + 3y_2$	$\geq$ 3
	$3x_1 - x_2$	$\leq$ 3		$2y_1 - y_2$	$\geq 1$
	$0 \leq x_1,$	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub> .		$0 \leq y_1,$	<i>y</i> <sub>2</sub> .
Pr	rimal Solutio (2,3)	n	 I	Dual Solutior (6/5, 7/5)	ı

Optimal Value = 9

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#### Geometric Duality Theorem

Consider the LP  $(\mathcal{P})$  max{ $c^T x | Ax \leq b, 0 \leq x$ }, where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . Given a vector  $\bar{x}$  that is feasible for  $\mathcal{P}$ , define

$$\mathcal{Z}(\bar{x}) = \{j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : \bar{x}_j = 0\}, \ \mathcal{E}(\bar{x}) = \{i \in \{1, \dots, m\} : \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}\bar{x}_j = b_i\}.$$

The indices  $\mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$  and  $\mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  are the *active* indices at  $\bar{x}$  and correspond to the active hyperplanes at  $\bar{x}$ . Then  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$  if and only if there exist non-negative numbers  $r_j$ ,  $j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$  and  $\bar{y}_i$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  such that

$$c = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i \bullet}$$

where for each  $i = 1, ..., m, a_{i\bullet} = (a_{i1}, a_{i2}, ..., a_{in})^T$  is the *i*th column of the matrix  $A^T$ , and, for each j = 1, ..., n,  $e_j$  is the *j*th unit coordinate vector. In addition, if  $\bar{x}$  is the solution to  $\mathcal{P}$ , then the vector  $\bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  given by  $\bar{y}_i = \begin{cases} \bar{y}_i & \text{for } i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x}) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ , solves the dual problem.

First suppose that  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$ , and let  $\bar{y}$  solve  $\mathcal{D}$ .

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First suppose that  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$ , and let  $\bar{y}$  solve  $\mathcal{D}$ . The Complementary Slackness Theorem implies that

$$\begin{array}{ll} (I) \quad \bar{y}_i = 0 \ \text{for} \ i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \setminus \mathcal{E}(\bar{x}) \quad \left(\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_j < b_i\right) \\ (II) \quad \sum_{i=1}^m \bar{y}_i a_{ij} = c_j \ \text{for} \ j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x}) \quad (0 < \bar{x}_j). \end{array}$$

and

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First suppose that  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$ , and let  $\bar{y}$  solve  $\mathcal{D}$ . The Complementary Slackness Theorem implies that

and  
(1) 
$$\bar{y}_i = 0$$
 for  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\} \setminus \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$   $(\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}\bar{x}_j < b_i)$   
(11)  $\sum_{i=1}^m \bar{y}_i a_{ij} = c_j$  for  $j \in \{1, ..., n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$   $(0 < \bar{x}_j)$ .  
Define  $r = A^T \bar{y} - c \ge 0$ .

and

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and

(11) 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \bar{y}_i a_{ij} = c_j \text{ for } j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x}) \quad (0 < \bar{x}_j).$$

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(1) 
$$\bar{y}_i = 0$$
 for  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \setminus \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$   $(\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}\bar{x}_j < b_i)$ 

and

(*II*) 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \bar{y}_i a_{ij} = c_j \text{ for } j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x}) \quad (0 < \bar{x}_j).$$

Define  $r = A^T \bar{y} - c \ge 0$ . By (II),  $r_j = 0$  for  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$ , while

(III) 
$$c_j = -r_j + \sum_{i=1}^m \bar{y}_i a_{ij}$$
 for  $j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$ .

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First suppose that  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$ , and let  $\bar{y}$  solve  $\mathcal{D}$ . The Complementary Slackness Theorem implies that

(1) 
$$\overline{y}_i = 0$$
 for  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \setminus \mathcal{E}(\overline{x})$   $(\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}\overline{x}_j < b_i)$ 

and

(11) 
$$\sum_{i=1}^m \bar{y}_i a_{ij} = c_j \text{ for } j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x}) \quad (0 < \bar{x}_j).$$

Define  $r = A^T \bar{y} - c \ge 0$ . By (II),  $r_j = 0$  for  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$ , while

(III) 
$$c_j = -r_j + \sum_{i=1}^m \bar{y}_i a_{ij}$$
 for  $j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$ .

(I), (II), and (III) gives

$$c = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + A^T \bar{y} = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i \bullet}.$$

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Conversely, suppose  $\bar{x}$  is feasible for  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $0 \leq r_j, \ j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$  and  $0 \leq \bar{y}_i, \ i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  satisfy

$$c = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + A^T \bar{y} = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i \bullet}$$

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Set  $\bar{y}_i = 0 \notin \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  to obtain  $\bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

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$$c = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + A^T \bar{y} = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i\bullet}$$

Set  $\bar{y}_i = 0 \notin \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  to obtain  $\bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$A^{\mathsf{T}}\bar{y} = \sum_{i\in\mathcal{E}(\bar{x})}\bar{y}_ia_{i\bullet} \ge -\sum_{j\in\mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})}r_je_j + \sum_{i\in\mathcal{E}(\bar{x})}\bar{y}_ia_{i\bullet} = c,$$

so that  $\bar{y}$  is feasible for  $\mathcal{D}$ .

Conversely, suppose  $\bar{x}$  is feasible for  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $0 \leq r_j, \ j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})$  and  $0 \leq \bar{y}_i, \ i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  satisfy

$$c = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + A^T \bar{y} = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i\bullet}$$

Set  $\bar{y}_i = 0 \notin \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})$  to obtain  $\bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Then

$$A^{\mathsf{T}}\bar{y} = \sum_{i\in\mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i\bullet} \geq -\sum_{j\in\mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j + \sum_{i\in\mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i\bullet} = c,$$

so that  $\bar{y}$  is feasible for  $\mathcal{D}$ . Moreover,

$$c^T \bar{x} = -\sum_{j \in \mathcal{Z}(\bar{x})} r_j e_j^T \bar{x} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i \bullet}^T \bar{x} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{E}(\bar{x})} \bar{y}_i a_{i \bullet}^T \bar{x} = \bar{y}^T A \bar{x} = \bar{y}^T b,$$

so  $\bar{x}$  solves  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\bar{y}$  solves  $\mathcal{D}$  by the Weak Duality Theorem.

Does the vector  $ar{x} = (1,0,2,0)^{\mathcal{T}}$  solve the LP

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## Example

Which constraints are active at  $\bar{x} = (1, 0, 2, 0)^T$ ?

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## Example

Which constraints are active at  $\bar{x} = (1, 0, 2, 0)^T$ ?

The 1st and 3rd constraints are active.

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Knowing  $y_2 = y_4 = 0$  solve for  $y_1$  and  $y_3$  by writing the objective normal as a non-negative linear combination of the constraint outer normals.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_3 \\ r_2 \\ r_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

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Row reducing, we get

Therefore,  $y_1 = 1 y_3 = 1$ ,  $r_2 = 1$ , and  $r_4 = 1$ . Hence,  $\bar{x} = (1, 0, 2, 0)^T$  sopves the pimal and  $\bar{y} = (1, 0, 1, 0)^T$  solves the dual. We now double check to see if the vector  $\bar{y} = (1, 0, 1, 0)$  does indeed solve the dual.

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Check that  $\bar{y} = (1, 0, 1, 0)$  solves the dual problem.

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Check that  $\bar{y} = (1, 0, 1, 0)$  solves the dual problem.

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Does  $x = (3, 1, 0)^T$  solve  $\mathcal{P}$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 & -2 \\ 1 & -4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Does  $x = (1, 2, 1, 0)^T$  solve  $\mathcal{P}$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\ -3 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 3 & 0 \\ -3 & 2 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad c = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad b = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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