#### 1 Linear Programming Definitions (based on Karloff's book).

A linear program in general form is the problem of minimizing a linear function subject to a finite number of equality and inequality constraints. Where  $x, c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , A is a  $k \times n$  matrix,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , A' is  $l \times n$ , and  $b' \in \mathbb{R}^l$ , the following is a general linear program with n variables, k equality constraints, and l inequality constraints. The redundant notation  $x_j \leq 0$  means that variable  $x_j$  is not sign-constrained. Either k or l can be 0.

subject to  $\begin{array}{l} \min c^T x\\ Ax = b\\ A'x \ge b'\\ x_1 \ge 0 \quad x_2 \ge 0 \quad \cdots \quad x_r \ge 0 \quad x_{r+1} \le 0 \quad \cdots \quad x_n \le 0\\ \text{Let us look at three special classes of linear programs.} \end{array}$ 

Standard form:  $\min c^T x$ , in which every variable is sign-constrained and only equality cons.t. Ax = b $x \ge 0$ 

$$\frac{x}{\geq}$$

straints are allowed, and

Canonical form: min  $c^T x$ , a form which allows only inequality constraints and in which all s.t.  $Ax \ge b$  $x \ge 0$ 

variables are sign-constrained. If all entries in the arrays c, A, and b are non-negative we have a covering linear program.

Pseudo-packing form :  $\max c^T x$ , a maximization version in which only inequality constraints s.t.  $Ax \le b$ 

are allowed. If in addition every variable is sign-constrained (this can be written as  $-x_i \leq 0$ ), and all entries in the arrays c, A, and b are non-negative we have a **packing linear program**.

All four forms are equivalent in that any one can easily and quickly be converted to any other. Clearly, a linear program in standard, canonical form, or pseudo-packing form is already in general form, so to prove equivalence it suffices to show that general-form linear programs can be converted to standard, canonical, and pseudo-packing forms.

# 2 Linear Algebra and Geometry Refresher

**Conventions.** In this class, all vectors will be column vectors, unless explicitly defined to be row vectors. Sometimes  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$  will denote the components of *n*-vector *v*, sometimes *n* distinct vectors. Whenever we mean the latter we will say so explicitly. The *j*th column of an array *A* (as a column vector) will be denoted  $A_j$ ; its *i*th row, *as a row vector*, will be denoted  $A^i$ .

A vector space or linear space S (in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) is a nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication. Vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_r$  are *linearly independent* if and only if whenever  $\sum c_i v_i = 0$  and  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $c_i = 0$  for all i. Vectors that are not linearly independent are *linearly dependent*. A vector v is a *linear combination* of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_r$  if there exists  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

 $v = \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_i v_i$ . Alternatively, a set of vectors is linearly independent if none is a linear combination of the others. The dimension dim(S) of a linear space S is the maximum number of linearly independent vectors in S.

An *affine space* (in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) is the translate of a linear space. Formally,  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is an affine space if and only if  $A = \{t + y \mid y \in S\}$  for a fixed *n*-vector *t* and linear space *S*. The dimension of *A* is defined to be dim(*S*). By extension, if *B* is an arbitrary subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , dim(*B*) is defined to be the smallest dimension of any affine space containing *B*. For example, if  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k$  are arbitrary *n*-vectors, because

$$\{v_1,\ldots,v_k\} \subseteq \{v_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k \alpha_i (v_i - v_1) \mid \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}\},\$$

the dimension of  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$  is at most k - 1.

If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix, we define

$$column \ space(A) = \{Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\},\$$

and

$$rank(A) = \dim(\text{column space}(A)).$$

We say that A has *full rank* if rank(A) is its smaller dimension. *Nullspace*(A) is the vector space  $\{x \mid Ax = 0\}$  and the *nullity* of A is the dimension of nullspace(A).

The first several theorems are standard in the theory of linear algebra.

**Theorem 2.1** Rank(A) is simultaneously the maximum number of linearly independent rows in A and the maximum number of linearly independent columns in A.

**Theorem 2.2** Nullity(A) + rank(A) = n, if A is  $m \times n$ .

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix and suppose At = b. The set of all solutions to the linear system Ax = b is

$$\{x \mid Ax = b\} = \{t + y \mid Ay = 0\} = \{t + y \mid y \in \text{nullspace} (A)\};\$$

all solutions can be found by adding one particular solution to the nullspace. Using Gaussian Elimination, we can solve a linear system, transform a matrix to upper echelon form, compute its rank and determinant, find its inverse if it's nonsingular, and so on. Gaussian Elimination runs in  $O(n^3)$ steps on our exact-arithmetic model. (On a RAM, Gaussian Elimination *can* be implemented so as to run in polynomial time).

The *length* of a vector x is  $||x|| = \sqrt{x^T x}$ .

**Definition.** A *hyperplane* in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$H = \{x \mid a_1 x_1 + \dots + a_n x_n = b\},\$$

where not all  $a_i = 0$ . (It is easy to see that  $\dim(H) = n - 1$ , since if, say,  $a_1 \neq 0$ , H can be written as  $[b/a_1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots \ 0]^T$  plus the nullspace of  $1 \times n$  matrix  $[a_1 \ a_2 \ \cdots \ a_n]$ .) A halfspace is the set  $\{x \mid a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n \geq b\}$  where not all  $a_i = 0$ .

We say a set  $T \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is *bounded* if there is a real r such that  $||x|| \leq r$  for all  $x \in T$ .

**Definition.** A *polyhedron* is the intersection of finitely many halfspaces. A bounded nonempty polyhedron is called a *polytope*.

**Example.** The set  $\{x \mid Ax \leq b, \}$  is the intersection of finitely many halfspaces, as is  $\{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ . If they are nonempty and bounded, they're polytopes.

We say a sequence of equality or inequality constraints is *linearly independent* if the sequence of coefficient vectors is linearly independent. The right-hand sides and whether the constraints are equalities or inequalities are ignored.

**Definition.** If  $x, y, p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $p = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$ ,  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ , then p is the *convex combination* of x and y. More generally, p is the *convex combination* of points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r$  if  $p = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i x_i$ ,  $\lambda_i \ge 0$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i = 1$ . Point p is the *strict convex combination* of points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_r$  if  $p = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i x_i$ ,  $\lambda_i > 0$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i = 1$ .

**Definition.**  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is *convex* if whenever  $x, y \in S$ ,  $\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y \in S$  for all  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ . That is, the line segment between x and y lies in S.

**Definition.** Given a set of vectors S, the *convex hull* of S is the set of all convex combinations of vectors of S.

It is easy to see that (a) the intersection of arbitrarily many convex sets is convex, (b) a convex combination of points in a convex set is itself in the set, and (c) halfspaces are convex sets.

## **3** Vertices

**Definition.** If P is a polyhedron,  $v \in P$  is an *extreme point* or *vertex* if v cannot be written as the strict convex combination of two distinct points  $x, y \in P$ .

If v is extreme, one can't "slide" along any line through v and stay within P. Not even a 1-dimensional ball around v lies entirely in P.

A constraint is *tight* if it is satisfied with equality.

**Lemma 3.1** Suppose  $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \leq b\}$  is a polyhedron. Then v is an extreme point of P if and only if there are n linearly independent constraints among the constraints  $Ax \leq b$  that are tight at v.

Since an equality is a pair of inequalities, the same result holds even if P is defined by both inequalities and equalities.

Say a minimization problem is *unbounded* if for each real *B*, there is a feasible point of cost less than *B*. We define unbounded maximization problems similarly.

**Theorem 3.2** In a pseudo-packing LP with A of rank n, suppose that  $p \in F$ , where  $F = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \leq b\}$  is the set of feasible solutions. Then either the pseudo-packing LP, instance is unbounded or there is a vertex v of F satisfying  $c^T v \geq c^T p$ .

**Corollary 3.3** If in a pseudo-packing LP with A of rank  $n, F := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \le b\}$  satisfies  $F \ne \emptyset$ , and there is a B with  $c^T x \le B$  for all  $x \in F$ , then there is an optimal vertex. Provided that the cost is bounded, linear programming is a finite problem!

Note that this proof yields a polynomial-time algorithm to find a vertex v such that  $c^T v \ge c^T p$ .

**Theorem 3.4** If  $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \le b\}$  is a polytope, with A of rank n, then every  $x \in P$  can be written as a convex combination of at most n + 1 vertices.

In other words, a polytope is the convex hull of its vertices. There is a reverse to this statement.

**Theorem 3.5** Let S be a finite set of vectors. Then its convex hull is a polytope.

**Theorem 3.6** Let  $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \leq b\}$  be a polytope, with A of rank n, and v be a vertex of P. Then there exists  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that the linear program  $\max c^T x$ , s.t.  $Ax \leq b$  has v as its unique optimum solution.

# **4** Standard Form LPs: Basic Solutions

**Definition.** If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank m, any m linearly independent columns are a *basis*. (They form a basis of A's column space,  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ). Sometimes we will use the columns as the basis, sometimes just their indices.

**Definition.** Consider the linear program  $\min c^T x$  where A is of rank m and is  $m \times n$ . If columns Ax = b $x \ge 0$ 

$$j_1 < j_2 < \cdots < j_m$$
 are a basis, the corresponding *basic solution*  $x$  is defined as follows and ignores  $c$ . Let  $B$  be the nonsingular matrix consisting of columns  $j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_m$  of  $A$ . Any variable  $x_l$  where  $l \notin \{j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_m\}$  is set to 0 and is called *nonbasic*. For  $k = 1, \ldots, m$ ,  $x_{j_k}$  is set to the kth component of  $B^{-1}b$  and is known as *basic*; the basic variables may or may not be 0. (The basic solution  $x$  is the unique vector satisfying  $Ax = b$  subject to the condition that  $x_l = 0$  for  $l \notin \{j_1, \ldots, j_m\}$ .) If  $x$  satisfies the sign constraints  $x \ge 0$ ,  $x$  is a *basic feasible solution* or *bfs*.

BASIC SOLUTIONS ARE VERY IMPORTANT! - see Theorem 4.1 below.

If  $m \times n$  matrix A has rank m, then Ax = b always has a basic solution. If the feasible region  $x \ge 0$ 

is nonempty, we will see that it must have a bfs as well.

Notation. Let us use *LPS* to denote

"min  $c^T x$ , where A is an  $m \times n$  matrix of rank m." s.t. Ax = bx > 0

We use F to denote the feasible set  $\{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$ . Throughout, i will generally denote a row index, running from 1 to m, and j will generally denote a column index, running from 1 to n.

**Theorem 4.1** In LPS, suppose that  $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then w is a vertex of the feasible set F if and only if w is a basic feasible solution of the LPS instance.

Corollary 4.2 There are only finitely many vertices.

**Proof.** Each is a bfs, which is determined by an *m*-element subset of the columns. The number of bfs's is therefore at most  $\binom{n}{m}$ .

**Definition.** A bfs is *degenerate* if it has more than n - m zeroes.

**Theorem 4.3** If two different bases correspond to a single bfs v, then v is degenerate.

(The converse is false.)

**Theorem 4.4** In LPS, suppose that  $p \in F$ . Then either the LPS instance is unbounded or there is a vertex v of F satisfying  $c^T v \leq c^T p$ .

**Corollary 4.5** If in LPS  $F \neq \emptyset$  and  $c^T x \ge B$  for all  $x \in F$ , then there is an optimal vertex. Provided that the cost is bounded below, linear programming is a finite problem!

## **5** Definitions for the ellipsoid algorithm

A set of *n*-vectors  $u_1, u_2, ..., u_m$  is *orthonormal* if each has unit length and distinct vectors have 0 dot product. Alternatively,  $u_1, u_2, ..., u_m$  are orthonormal if and only if  $u_k^T u_l = 0$  if  $k \neq l$ , and  $u_k^T u_k = 1$ for all k. A real square matrix U is iorthogonal if  $UU^T = I$ , i.e., its rows (and hence columns) are orthonormal.

A complex number  $\lambda$  is an *eigenvalue* of A if  $Ax = \lambda x$  for some nonzero complex vector x. The vector x is known as the *eigenvector corresponding to*  $\lambda$ .

#### **Theorem 5.1** (*The* **Spectral Theorem**)

If A is a real symmetric matrix, all of A's eigenvalues are real. Furthermore, if A's eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n$ , then

$$A = U\Lambda U^{-1},$$

where

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and U is an orthogonal matrix whose ith column is the eigenvector of A corresponding to  $\lambda_i$ , normalized to have length one.

If A is a real symmetric matrix, we say A is *positive definite* if

$$x^T A x > 0$$

for all nonzero, real n-vectors x.

**Theorem 5.2** Let A be real symmetric. The following are equivalent.

- (a) A is positive definite.
- (b) All eigenvalues of A are positive.
- (c)  $A = QQ^T$  for a nonsingular  $n \times n$  real matrix Q.

The size of a  $m \times n$  matrix A with rational entries  $A_{ij} = p_{ij}/q_{ij}$ , with p's and q's integers, is defined as  $size(A) = mn \log mn + \sum_i \sum_j \lceil \lg(|p_{ij}| + 1) \rceil + \lceil \lg(|q_{ij}| + 1) \rceil$ . The size of an LP program is obtained by adding the sizes of A, b, and c.