

Linear Programming: Canonical Form

- *Canonical form* of linear programming:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x_1, \dots, x_n} \quad & \sum_{j=1}^n c_j x_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_i a_{ij} x_j \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m; \\ & x_j \geq 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Linear Programming: Canonical Form

- *Canonical form* of linear programming:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{x_1, \dots, x_n} \quad & \sum_{j=1}^n c_j x_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_i a_{ij} x_j \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m; \\ & x_j \geq 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

- Written in matrix form:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \quad & \mathbf{c}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}, \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}; \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, and \leq means coordinate-wise less than or equal to, and \geq similarly.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).
- The feasible region of an LP is a polytope.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).
- The feasible region of an LP is a polytope.
- A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is *convex* if $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1], \lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in S$.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^\top \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).
- The feasible region of an LP is a polytope.
- A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is *convex* if $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1], \lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in S$.
- Example: a half-space is convex.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).
- The feasible region of an LP is a polytope.
- A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is *convex* if $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1], \lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in S$.
- Example: a half-space is convex.
- The intersection of convex sets is still convex.

The Geometry of LP

- A (*closed*) *half-space* in \mathbb{R}^n is a set $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{a}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \leq b\}$.
- The intersection of finitely many half-spaces is a *convex polytope* (henceforth just polytope).
- The feasible region of an LP is a polytope.
- A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is *convex* if $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1], \lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in S$.
- Example: a half-space is convex.
- The intersection of convex sets is still convex.
- Example: a polytope is convex.

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} is a *convex combination* of $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, \dots, \mathbf{y}^k$ if there exists $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \geq 0$, such that $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i \mathbf{y}^i = \mathbf{x}$.

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} is a *convex combination* of $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, \dots, \mathbf{y}^k$ if there exists $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \geq 0$, such that $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i \mathbf{y}^i = \mathbf{x}$.

Definition

The *convex hull* of a set X of points is the set of all convex combinations of the points in X .

Basic convex geometry

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} is a *convex combination* of $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, \dots, \mathbf{y}^k$ if there exists $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \geq 0$, such that $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i \mathbf{y}^i = \mathbf{x}$.

Definition

The *convex hull* of a set X of points is the set of all convex combinations of the points in X .

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} in a convex set S is an *extreme point* of S if there exist no $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in S$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ such that $\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{y} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{z}$.

Basic convex geometry

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} is a *convex combination* of $\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, \dots, \mathbf{y}^k$ if there exists $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k \geq 0$, such that $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i \mathbf{y}^i = \mathbf{x}$.

Definition

The *convex hull* of a set X of points is the set of all convex combinations of the points in X .

Definition

A point \mathbf{x} in a convex set S is an *extreme point* of S if there exist no $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in S$ and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ such that $\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{y} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{z}$.

- The extreme points of a polytope are called *vertices*.

Lemma

A bounded polytope is the convex hull of its vertices.

Corollary

On a bounded polytope, the maximum value of a linear function can always be attained on a vertex.

- In a linear programming the optimal solution that is a vertex is called a *basic feasible solution*.

Corollary

On a bounded polytope, the maximum value of a linear function can always be attained on a vertex.

- In a linear programming the optimal solution that is a vertex is called a *basic feasible solution*.

Lemma (Characterizing vertices)

A point \mathbf{v} in a polytope $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$ is a vertex if and only if

- 1 $\mathbf{Av} \leq \mathbf{b}$;
- 2 If i_1, \dots, i_k index the constraints that are tight at \mathbf{v} , then $\mathbf{A}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{A}_{i_k}$ has full rank, where \mathbf{A}_i denotes the i -th row of \mathbf{A} .

The Simplex Algorithm

- The simplex algorithm (Dantzig, 1940's): Start from a vertex of the polytope; repeat until failure: find a neighboring vertex with strictly larger objective value, and move to that vertex; or find an adjacent edge along which the objective function gets unbounded.

The Simplex Algorithm

- The simplex algorithm (Dantzig, 1940's): Start from a vertex of the polytope; repeat until failure: find a neighboring vertex with strictly larger objective value, and move to that vertex; or find an adjacent edge along which the objective function gets unbounded.
- Moving from a vertex to an adjacent one is called a *pivot operation*.

The Simplex Algorithm

- The simplex algorithm (Dantzig, 1940's): Start from a vertex of the polytope; repeat until failure: find a neighboring vertex with strictly larger objective value, and move to that vertex; or find an adjacent edge along which the objective function gets unbounded.
- Moving from a vertex to an adjacent one is called a *pivot operation*.

Theorem

The Simplex algorithm terminates in a finite number of steps. When it does, it finds an optimal solution to the linear program.

The Simplex Algorithm

- The simplex algorithm (Dantzig, 1940's): Start from a vertex of the polytope; repeat until failure: find a neighboring vertex with strictly larger objective value, and move to that vertex; or find an adjacent edge along which the objective function gets unbounded.
- Moving from a vertex to an adjacent one is called a *pivot operation*.

Theorem

The Simplex algorithm terminates in a finite number of steps. When it does, it finds an optimal solution to the linear program.

- The running time of the Simplex: exponential time in the worst case, and close to linear time “in practice”.

The Simplex Algorithm

- The simplex algorithm (Dantzig, 1940's): Start from a vertex of the polytope; repeat until failure: find a neighboring vertex with strictly larger objective value, and move to that vertex; or find an adjacent edge along which the objective function gets unbounded.
- Moving from a vertex to an adjacent one is called a *pivot operation*.

Theorem

The Simplex algorithm terminates in a finite number of steps. When it does, it finds an optimal solution to the linear program.

- The running time of the Simplex: exponential time in the worst case, and close to linear time “in practice”.
- Polynomial time algorithms are known for linear programs:
 - Ellipsoid method (Khachiyan, first polytime algorithm);
 - Interior point method (e.g. Karmarkar's algorithm, runtime $\tilde{O}(n^{3.5}L)$).

Duality

Given a linear program,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \quad & \mathbf{c}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}, \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq 0; \end{aligned}$$

is there a way to obtain upper bounds on the objective?

Duality

Given a linear program,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \quad & \mathbf{c}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}, \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq 0; \end{aligned}$$

is there a way to obtain upper bounds on the objective?

The dual program of the linear program above is

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{y}} \quad & \mathbf{b}^T \cdot \mathbf{y} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{c}, \\ & \mathbf{y} \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Duality

Given a linear program,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{x}} \quad & \mathbf{c}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}, \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq 0; \end{aligned}$$

is there a way to obtain upper bounds on the objective?

The dual program of the linear program above is

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{y}} \quad & \mathbf{b}^T \cdot \mathbf{y} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{c}, \\ & \mathbf{y} \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Strong Duality Theorem)

If both the primal and the dual programs are feasible, the two have the same optimal value.

Example: Kőnig-Egerváry Theorem: In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum vertex cover.

Example: Kőnig-Egerváry Theorem: In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum vertex cover.
Integer Programming is NP-hard!

Example: Kőnig-Egerváry Theorem: In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum vertex cover.
Integer Programming is NP-hard!

Corollary (Complementary Slackness)

Let \mathbf{y}^* be an optimal solution to the dual program. Then

- If $y_i > 0$, then the i -th constraint is tight in any optimal solution to the primal program.
- If there is an optimal solution to the primal program for which the i -th constraint is not tight, then the $y_i = 0$.

Example: Kőnig-Egerváry Theorem: In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum vertex cover.
Integer Programming is NP-hard!

Corollary (Complementary Slackness)

Let \mathbf{y}^* be an optimal solution to the dual program. Then

- If $y_i > 0$, then the i -th constraint is tight in any optimal solution to the primal program.
- If there is an optimal solution to the primal program for which the i -th constraint is not tight, then the $y_i = 0$.

The dual of the dual program is the primal program.

Example: Kőnig-Egerváry Theorem: In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum vertex cover.
Integer Programming is NP-hard!

Corollary (Complementary Slackness)

Let \mathbf{y}^* be an optimal solution to the dual program. Then

- If $y_i > 0$, then the i -th constraint is tight in any optimal solution to the primal program.
- If there is an optimal solution to the primal program for which the i -th constraint is not tight, then the $y_i = 0$.

The dual of the dual program is the primal program.

Corollary

If \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are feasible solutions to a linear program and its dual, respectively, and if \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} satisfy the two complementary slackness conditions to each other, then both are optimal solutions.

Definition

A two-player normal form game is specified by a pair of $m \times n$ *payoff matrices*, (\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}) , where m is the number of actions available to the *row* player and n the number of actions available to the *column* player. That is, $R_{i,j}$ and $C_{i,j}$ are the payoffs for the row player and the column player, respectively, if the row player plays action i and the column player plays action j .

Definition

A two-player normal form game is specified by a pair of $m \times n$ *payoff matrices*, (\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}) , where m is the number of actions available to the *row* player and n the number of actions available to the *column* player. That is, $R_{i,j}$ and $C_{i,j}$ are the payoffs for the row player and the column player, respectively, if the row player plays action i and the column player plays action j .

Definition

A *pure Nash equilibrium* is an action pair (i, j) so that both players are best responding to each other, i.e., $R_{i,j} = \max_{i'} R_{i',j}$ and $C_{i,j} = \max_{j'} C_{i,j'}$.

Definition

A two-player normal form game is specified by a pair of $m \times n$ *payoff matrices*, $(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{C}$, where m is the number of actions available to the *row* player and n the number of actions available to the *column* player. That is, $R_{i,j}$ and $C_{i,j}$ are the payoffs for the row player and the column player, respectively, if the row player plays action i and the column player plays action j .

Definition

A *pure Nash equilibrium* is an action pair (i, j) so that both players are best responding to each other, i.e., $R_{i,j} = \max_{i'} R_{i',j}$ and $C_{i,j} = \max_{j'} C_{i,j'}$.

Example

Prisoner's Dilemma.

Example

Battle of the Sexes.

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Example

Battle of the Sexes.

Example

Matching pennies.

Example

Battle of the Sexes.

Example

Matching pennies.

- We need to allow players to play *mixed strategies*, i.e., probability distributions over the actions. For the row player, the set of mixed strategies is represented by $\Delta_m := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^m \mid \sum_i x_i = 1\}$. Similarly, Δ_n is the set of mixed strategies for the column player.

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Example

Battle of the Sexes.

Example

Matching pennies.

- We need to allow players to play *mixed strategies*, i.e., probability distributions over the actions. For the row player, the set of mixed strategies is represented by $\Delta_m := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^m \mid \sum_i x_i = 1\}$. Similarly, Δ_n is the set of mixed strategies for the column player.
- The *expected* payoff for the row player when she plays $\mathbf{x} \in \Delta_m$ and her opponent plays $\mathbf{y} \in \Delta_n$ is $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{y}$. Similarly, the column player's expected payoff is $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{y}$.

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Definition

A pair of strategy $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \Delta_m \times \Delta_n$ is a *Nash equilibrium* if

$$\mathbf{x}R\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{x}'R\mathbf{y}, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}' \in \Delta_m;$$

$$\mathbf{x}C\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{x}C\mathbf{y}', \quad \forall \mathbf{y}' \in \Delta_n.$$

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Definition

A pair of strategy $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \Delta_m \times \Delta_n$ is a *Nash equilibrium* if

$$\mathbf{xRy} \geq \mathbf{x'Ry}, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}' \in \Delta_m;$$

$$\mathbf{xCy} \geq \mathbf{xCy'}, \quad \forall \mathbf{y}' \in \Delta_n.$$

Definition

A two player game is *zero sum* if $\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{C} = 0$.

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Definition

A pair of strategy $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \Delta_m \times \Delta_n$ is a *Nash equilibrium* if

$$\mathbf{xRy} \geq \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{Ry}, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}' \in \Delta_m;$$

$$\mathbf{xCy} \geq \mathbf{xCy}', \quad \forall \mathbf{y}' \in \Delta_n.$$

Definition

A two player game is *zero sum* if $\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{C} = 0$.

Theorem (von Neumann)

Any two-player zero sum game has a Nash equilibrium.

Basic Game Theory (continued)

Definition

A pair of strategy $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \Delta_m \times \Delta_n$ is a *Nash equilibrium* if

$$\mathbf{xRy} \geq \mathbf{x'Ry}, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}' \in \Delta_m;$$

$$\mathbf{xCy} \geq \mathbf{xCy'}, \quad \forall \mathbf{y}' \in \Delta_n.$$

Definition

A two player game is *zero sum* if $\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{C} = 0$.

Theorem (von Neumann)

Any two-player zero sum game has a Nash equilibrium.

Theorem (Nash)

Any n -player finite game has a Nash equilibrium.

Proof of von Neumann's min-max theorem

A linear program that computes a lower bound on the row player's payoff:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max P \\ \text{s.t. } & \sum_j R_{ij}x_j \geq P, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n; \\ & \sum_j x_j = 1; \\ & x_j \geq 0, j = 1, 2, \dots, m. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of von Neumann's min-max theorem (continued)

Another linear program gives an upper bound on the row player's payoff (by a similar argument on the column player):

$$\begin{aligned} & \min Q \\ \text{s.t. } & \sum_i R_{ij} y_i \leq Q, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m; \\ & \sum_i y_i = 1; \\ & y_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of von Neumann's min-max theorem (continued)

Another linear program gives an upper bound on the row player's payoff (by a similar argument on the column player):

$$\begin{aligned} & \min Q \\ \text{s.t. } & \sum_i R_{ij} y_i \leq Q, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m; \\ & \sum_i y_i = 1; \\ & y_i \geq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \end{aligned}$$

The two programs are dual for each other. By Strong Duality Theorem, the upper bound and the lower bound are equal, and therefore the optimal solutions \mathbf{x}^* and \mathbf{y}^* are best responses to each other, i.e., they constitute a Nash equilibrium.