

ORF 522

Linear Programming and Convex Analysis

**Canonical & Standard Programs,
Linear Equations in an LP Context**

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Today

- A typology for linear programs.
- Linear equations reminders,
- Basic solutions, the kind of solutions we will be interested in,
- Hyperplanes, or how to visualize linear objectives/constraints.
- A few grams of topology to define halfspaces.

Typology of Linear Programs

Remember...

- the general form of linear programs:

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{max or min} \quad z = \mathbf{c}_1x_1 + \mathbf{c}_2x_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{c}_nx_n, \\
 \text{subject to} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{a}_{11}x_1 + \mathbf{a}_{12}x_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{a}_{1n}x_n \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{m1}x_1 + \mathbf{a}_{m2}x_2 + \cdots + \mathbf{a}_{mn}x_n \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{ <, > \} \\ = \\ \{ \leq, \geq \} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{b}_1, \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_m, \end{array} \\
 \text{where} \quad x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n \geq \mathbf{0}.
 \end{array}$$

- This form is however too vague to be easily usable.
- First step: get rid of the strict inequalities: do not bring much and would only add numerical noise.
- Second step: use matrix and vectorial notations to alleviate.

Notations

Unless explicitly stated otherwise,

- A, B etc... are matrices whose size is clear from context.
- $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}$ are vectors. $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_k$ are members of a vector family.
- $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ with vector coordinates x_i in \mathbf{R} .
- $\mathbf{x} \geq 0$ is meant coordinate-wise, that is $x_i \geq 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$
- $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ means that \mathbf{x} is not the zero vector, i.e. there exists at least one index i such that $x_i \neq 0$.
- \mathbf{x}^T is the transpose $[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ of \mathbf{x} .

Linear Program

Common representation for all these programs?

- Would help in developing both theory & algorithms.
- Also helps when developing software, solvers, etc

The answer is yes. . .

- There are 2: **standard form** and **canonical form**

Terminology

- A linear program in **canonical** form is the program

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{max or min} & \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}, \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}. \end{array}$$

$\mathbf{b} \geq 0 \Rightarrow$ **feasible canonical form** (just a convention)

- A linear program in **standard** form is the program

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{max or min} & \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} & (1) \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}, & (2) \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}. & (3) \end{array}$$

Linear Programs: a look at the canonical form

Canonical form linear program

- **Maximize** the objective
- Only **inequality** constraints
- All variables should be **positive**

Example:

$$\begin{array}{llllllll} \text{maximize} & 5x_1 & + & 4x_2 & + & 3x_3 & & \\ \text{subject to} & 2x_1 & + & 3x_2 & + & x_3 & \leq & 5 \\ & 4x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 2x_3 & \leq & 11 \\ & 3x_1 & + & 4x_2 & + & 2x_3 & \leq & 8 \\ & & & & & x_1, x_2, x_3 & \geq & 0. \end{array}$$

Linear Programs: canonical form

Although more intuitive than the standard form, the canonical is not the most useful,

- We will formulate the simplex method on problems with **equality constraints**, that is **standard forms**.
- Solvers do not all agree on this input format. MATLAB for example uses:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize} && \sum_i c_i x_i \\ &\text{subject to} && \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m_1 \\ &&& \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij} x_j = d_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m_2 \\ &&& l_i \leq x_i \leq u_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$$

- Ultimately: this is a **non-issue**, we can easily switch from one form to the other. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

equalities \Rightarrow inequalities

- What if the original problem has equality constraints?
- Replace equality constraints by two inequality constraints.
- The inequality

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 5,$$

is equivalent to

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 \leq 5 \quad \text{and} \quad 2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 \geq 5$$

- The new problem is **equivalent** to the previous one. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

inequalities \Rightarrow equalities

- The opposite direction works too. . .
- Turn inequality constraints into equality constraints by **adding variables**.

- The inequality

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 \leq 5,$$

is equivalent to

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 + w_1 = 5 \quad \text{and} \quad w_1 \geq 0,$$

- The new variable is called a **slack** variable (one for each inequality in the program). . .
- The new problem is **equivalent** to the previous one. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

free variable \Rightarrow positive variables

- What about free variables?
- A free variable is simply the difference of its positive and negative parts. Again the solution is again **adding variables**.
- If the variable y is free, we can write it

$$y_1 = y_2 - y_3 \quad \text{and} \quad y_2, y_3 \geq 0,$$

- We add two positive variables for each free variable in the program.
- Again, the new problem is **equivalent** to the previous one.

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

minimizing \Rightarrow maximizing

- What happens when the objective is to minimize? We can use the fact that

$$\min_x f(x) = - \max_x -f(x)$$

- In a linear program this means

$$\text{minimize } 6x_1 - 3x_2 + 5x_3$$

becomes:

$$- \text{maximize } -6x_1 + 3x_2 - 5x_3$$

That's all we need to convert all linear programs in standard form. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

Example. . .

$$\begin{array}{llllllll} \text{minimize} & 2x_1 & - & 4x_2 & + & x_3 & & \\ \text{subject to} & 2x_1 & + & 7x_2 & + & x_3 & = & 5 \\ & 4x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 9x_3 & \leq & 11 \\ & 3x_1 & + & 4x_2 & + & 2x_3 & = & 8 \\ & & & & & & & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$$

This program has one free variable (x_3) and one inequality constraint. It's a minimization problem. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

We first turn it into a **maximization** . . .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{-- maximize} & -2x_1 + 4x_2 - x_3 \\ \text{subject to} & \begin{array}{l} 2x_1 + 7x_2 + x_3 = 5 \\ 4x_1 + x_2 + 9x_3 \leq 11 \\ 3x_1 + 4x_2 + 2x_3 = 8 \\ x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array} \end{array}$$

Just switch the signs in the objective. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

We then turn the inequality into an **equality** constraint by adding a slack variable. . .

$$\begin{array}{rcllclclclcl} \text{-- maximize} & -2x_1 & + & 4x_2 & - & x_3 & & & & & \\ \text{subject to} & 2x_1 & + & 7x_2 & + & x_3 & & & = & 5 & \\ & 4x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 9x_3 & + & w_1 & = & 11 & \\ & 3x_1 & + & 4x_2 & + & 2x_3 & & & = & 8 & \\ & & & & & & & & & & x_1, x_2 & \geq & 0. \end{array}$$

Now, we only need to get rid of the free variable. . .

Linear Programs: standard & canonical form

We replace the free variable by a difference of two **positive** ones:

$$\begin{aligned} & - \text{maximize} && -2x_1 & + & 4x_2 & - & (x_4 - x_5) \\ & \text{subject to} && 2x_1 & + & 7x_2 & + & x_4 - x_5 & = & 5 \\ & && 4x_1 & + & x_2 & + & 9x_4 - 9x_5 & + & w_1 & = & 11 \\ & && 3x_1 & + & 4x_2 & + & 2x_4 - 2x_5 & & & = & 8 \\ & && && && x_1, x_2, x_4, x_5 && & \geq & 0. \end{aligned}$$

- That's it, we've reached a standard form.
- The simplex algorithm is easier to write with this form.

To sum up...

- A linear program in **standard** form is the program

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} && \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \\ & \text{subject to} && \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}, \\ & && \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}. \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where

- $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ – the objective,
 - $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbf{R}^m$ – the equality constraints,
 - $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ means that for $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $x_i \geq 0$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.
- From now on we focus on
 - **linear constraints** $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$,
 - **objective function** $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$,separately.
 - $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ will reappear when we study convexity.

Linear Equations

Linear Equations

The usual linear equations we know, $m = n$

- In the usual linear algebra setting, A is square of size n and invertible.
- Straightforward: $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\}$ is a singleton, $\{A^{-1}\mathbf{b}\}$.
- Focus: find **efficiently** that **unique** solution. Many methods (Gaussian pivot etc.)

In classic statistics, most often $m \gg n$

- A few explicative variables, a lot of observations.
- Generally $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\} = \emptyset$ so we need to tweak the problem
- Least-squares regression: select $\mathbf{x}_0 \mid \mathbf{x}_0 = \operatorname{argmin} \|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|^2$
- More advanced, penalized LS regression: $\mathbf{x}_0 = \operatorname{argmin} (\|A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|)$

Linear Equations

On the other hand, in an LP setting where usually $m < n$

- $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\}$ is a wider set of candidates, a convex set.
- In LP, a linear criterion is used to choose one of them.
- In other fields, such as **compressed sensing**, other criteria are used.
- Today we start studying some simple properties of the set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}\}$.

Linear Equations

- **Linear Equation:** $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, m equations.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} a_{11}x_1 & + & a_{12}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{1n}x_n & = & b_1, \\ \vdots & & & & & & & & \vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 & + & a_{m2}x_2 & + & \cdots & + & a_{mn}x_n & = & b_m. \end{array}$$

- Writing $A = [\mathbf{a}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{a}_n]$ we have n columns $\in \mathbf{R}^m$.
- Add now \mathbf{b} : $A_b = [A, b] \in \mathbf{R}_{m \times n+1}$.
- remember: a solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is a vector \mathbf{x} such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mathbf{a}_i = \mathbf{b},$$

that is the \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{a} 's should be **linearly dependent** (l.d.) for everything to work.

Linear Equations

Two cases (note that $\mathbf{Rank}(A)$ cannot be $> \mathbf{Rank}(A_b)$)

- (i) $\mathbf{Rank}(A) < \mathbf{Rank}(A_b)$; \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{a} 's are **linearly independent** (l.i.). *no solution*.
- (ii) $\mathbf{Rank}(A) = \mathbf{Rank}(A_b) = k$; every column of A_b , \mathbf{b} in particular, can be expressed as a linear combination of k other columns of the matrix $\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_k}$. Namely, $\exists \mathbf{x}$ such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^k x_{i_j} \mathbf{a}_{i_j} = \mathbf{b}.$$

In practice

- if $m = n = k$, then there is a unique solution: $\mathbf{x} = A^{-1}\mathbf{b}$;
- Usually $\mathbf{Rank}(A) = k \leq m < n$ and we have a plenty of solutions;
- We assume from now on that $\mathbf{Rank}(A) = \mathbf{Rank}(A_b) = m$.

Linear Equation Solutions

- if \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 are two different solutions, then $\forall \lambda \in \mathbf{R}, \lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{x}_2$ is a solution.
- $\mathbf{Rank}(A) = m$. There are m independent columns. Suppose we reorder them so that $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m$ are linearly independent.
- Then

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} & a_{1m+1} & a_{1m+2} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2m} & a_{2m+1} & a_{2m+2} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mm} & a_{mm+1} & a_{mm+2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{array} \right] = [B, R]$$

- B is $m \times m$ square, R is $m \times (n - m)$ rectangular.

Linear Equation Solutions

- suppose we divide $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_B \\ \mathbf{x}_\beta \end{bmatrix}$ where $\mathbf{x}_B \in \mathbf{R}^m$ and $\mathbf{x}_\beta \in \mathbf{R}^{m-n}$
- If $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ then $B\mathbf{x}_B + R\mathbf{x}_\beta = \mathbf{b}$. Since B is non-singular, we have

$$\mathbf{x}_B = B^{-1}(\mathbf{b} - R\mathbf{x}_\beta),$$

which shows that we can assign **arbitrary** values to \mathbf{x}_β and obtain different points \mathbf{x} such that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

- Solutions are parameterized by \mathbf{x}_β ... a bit problematic since R is the “discarded” part.
- We choose $\mathbf{x}_\beta = \mathbf{0}$ and focus on the choice of B .

Basic Solutions

Basic Solutions

Definition 1. Consider $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and suppose $\mathbf{Rank}(A) = m < n$. Let $\mathbf{I} = (i_1, \dots, i_m)$ be a list of indexes corresponding to m **linearly independent** columns taken among the n columns of A .

- We call the m variables $\mathbf{x}_{i_1}, \mathbf{x}_{i_2}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{i_m}$ of \mathbf{x} its **basic variables**,
- the other variables are called **non-basic**.

If \mathbf{x} is a vector such that $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and all **its non-basic variables are equal to 0** then \mathbf{x} is a basic solution.

Basic Solutions

- When reordering variables as in the previous slide, and defining $B = [\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}]$ we can set $\mathbf{x}_\beta = \mathbf{0}$. Then $\mathbf{x}_B = B^{-1}\mathbf{b}$ and

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_B \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix},$$

and we have a **basic solution**.

- Sidenote: a **basic feasible solution** to an LP Equation (4) is such that \mathbf{x} is basic **and** $\mathbf{x} \geq 0$.

Basic Solutions

- More generally, let

$$B_{\mathbf{I}} = [\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}],$$

$$R_{\mathbf{O}} = [\mathbf{a}_{o_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{o_{m-n}}],$$

where $\mathbf{O} = \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \mathbf{I} = (o_1, \dots, o_{m-n})$ is the complementary of \mathbf{I} in $\{1, \dots, n\}$ in increasing order.

- \mathbf{I} contains the indexes of vectors **in** the basis, \mathbf{O} contains the indexes of vectors **outside** the basis.

- Equivalently set $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i_1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{i_m} \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{O}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{o_1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{o_{n-m}} \end{bmatrix}$.

- $A\mathbf{x} = B_{\mathbf{I}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{I}} + R_{\mathbf{O}}\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{O}}$

Basic Solutions

The two things to remember so far:

- A list I of m independent columns \leftrightarrow One basic solution x , with $x_I = B_I^{-1}b$ and $x_O = 0$
- We are **not** interested in **all** basic solutions, only a subset: **basic feasible solutions**.

Basic Solutions: Degeneracy

Definition 2. A **basic** solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is **degenerate** if one or more of the m **basic** variables is equal to zero.

- For a **basic solution**, \mathbf{x}_O is always $\mathbf{0}$. On the other hand, we do not expect elements of \mathbf{x}_I to be zero.
- This is **degeneracy** which appears whenever there is one or more components of \mathbf{x}_I which are zero.

Basic Solutions: Example

- Consider $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We start by choosing \mathbf{I} :

- $\mathbf{I} = (1, 2)$. $B_{\mathbf{I}} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is **basic**.
- $\mathbf{I} = (1, 4)$. $B_{\mathbf{I}} = [\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_4] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is **basic**.
- $\mathbf{I} = (2, 5)$. $B_{\mathbf{I}} = [\mathbf{a}_2, \mathbf{a}_5] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{I}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$; $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$ is **degenerate basic**

note that \mathbf{a}_5 and \mathbf{b} are colinear...

Non-degeneracy

Theorem 1. *A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence and non-degeneracy of all basic solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ is the **linear independence of every set of m columns of A_b** , the augmented matrix.*

Proof. • **Proof strategy:** \Rightarrow the existence of all possible basic solutions is already a good sign: all families of m columns of A are l.i. What we need is show that $m - 1$ columns of A plus \mathbf{b} are also l.i.

- \Leftarrow if all m columns choices are independent, basic solutions exist, and are non-degenerate because \mathbf{b} is l.i. with any combination of $m - 1$ columns.

■

Non-degeneracy

Proof. • \Rightarrow : Let $I = (i_1, \dots, i_m)$ a family of indexes.

- The basic solution associated with I exists and is non-degenerate. $\mathbf{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$
- Hence by definition $\{\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}\}$ is l.i. and $\mathbf{b} = \sum_{k=1}^m x_k \mathbf{a}_{i_k}$.
- For a given r , suppose $\{\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r-1}}, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r+1}}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}, \mathbf{b}\}$ is l.d.
- Then $\exists(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{r-1}, \alpha_{r+1}, \alpha_m)$ and β such that

$$\beta \mathbf{b} + \sum_{k=1, k \neq r}^m \alpha_k \mathbf{a}_{i_k} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Note that necessarily $\beta \neq 0$ (otherwise $\{\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r-1}}, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r+1}}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}\}$ is l.d)

- Contradiction: degenerate solution for I , $(-\frac{\alpha_1}{\beta}, \dots, -\frac{\alpha_{r-1}}{\beta}, 0, -\frac{\alpha_{r+1}}{\beta}, -\frac{\alpha_m}{\beta})$
- \Leftarrow : Let $I = (i_1, \dots, i_m)$ a family of indexes.
 - A basic solution exists, $\sum_{k=1}^m x_k \mathbf{a}_{i_k} = \mathbf{b}$
 - Suppose it is degenerate, i.e. $x_r = 0$. Then $\sum_{k=1, k \neq r}^m x_k \mathbf{a}_{i_k} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$
 - Contradiction: $\{\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r-1}}, \mathbf{a}_{i_{r+1}}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}, \mathbf{b}\}$, of size m , is l.d.

■

Non-degeneracy

Corollary 1. *Given a basic solution to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with basic variables x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_m} , a necessary and sufficient condition for the solution to be non-degenerate is the l.i. of \mathbf{b} with every subset of $m - 1$ columns of $\{\mathbf{a}_{i_1}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_{i_m}\}$*

- In our previous example,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, m = 2.$$

- Hence if $\mathbf{I} = (2, 5)$, $[\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}_2]$ and $[\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}_5]$ should be of rank 2 for the solution not to be degenerate. Yet $[\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a}_5] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is clearly of rank 1.

Hyperplanes

Hyperplane

Definition 3. A hyperplane in \mathbf{R}^m is defined by a vector $\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{R}^m$ and a scalar $z \in \mathbf{R}$ as the set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^m \mid \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} = z\}$.

$z = 0$,

- A hyperplane $H_{\mathbf{c},z}$ contains $\mathbf{0}$ iff $z = 0$.
- In that case $H_{\mathbf{c},0}$ is a **vector subspace** and $\dim(H_{\mathbf{c},0}) = m - 1$

$z \neq 0$,

- For $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ easy to check that $\mathbf{c}^T(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$. In other words \mathbf{c} is orthogonal to vectors lying in the hyperplane.
- \mathbf{c} is called the **normal** of the hyperplane

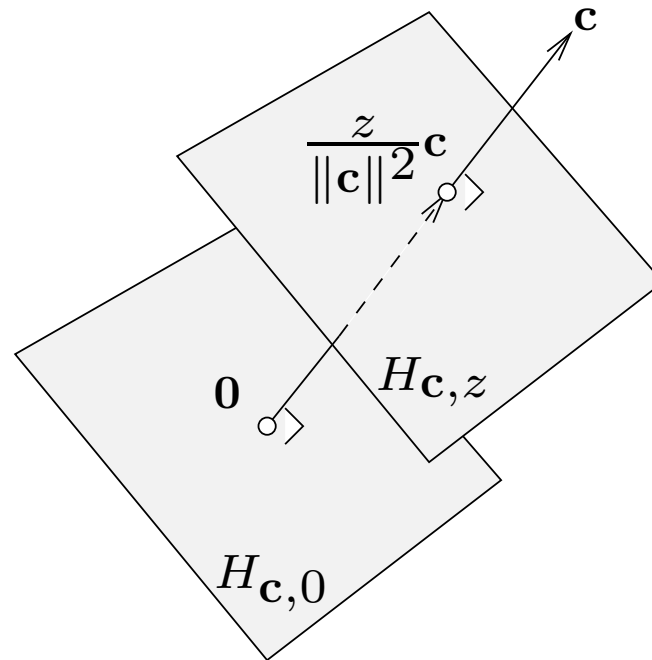
Affine Subspace

Definition 4. Let V be a vector space and let L be a vector subspace of V . Then given $\mathbf{x} \in V$, the translation $T = L + \mathbf{x} = \{\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \in L\}$ is called an affine subspace of V .

- the **dimension** of T is the dimension of L .
- T is **parallel** to L .

Affine Hyperplane

- For $\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{0}$, $H_{\mathbf{c},0}$ is a Vector subspace of \mathbf{R}^m of dimension $n - 1$.
- When $z \neq 0$, $H_{\mathbf{c},z}$ is an affine **hyperplane**: it's easy to see that $H_{\mathbf{c},z} = H_{\mathbf{c},0} + \frac{z}{\|\mathbf{c}\|^2}\mathbf{c}$



Some grams of Topology and Halfspaces

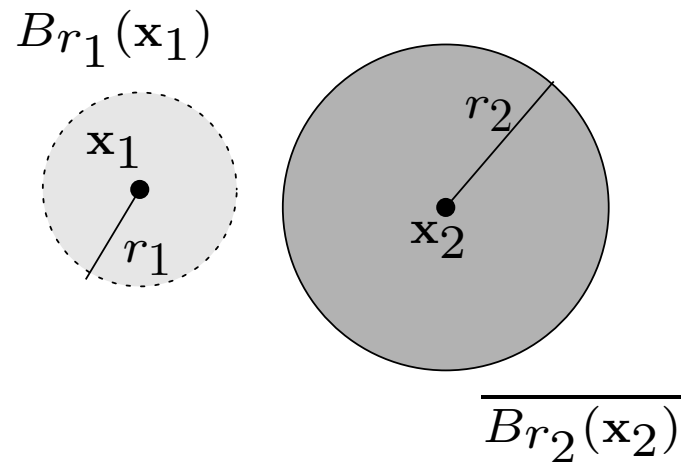
A bit of topology: open and closed balls

- The n dimensional open ball centered at \mathbf{x}_0 with radius r is defined as

$$B_r(\mathbf{x}_0) = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \text{ s.t. } |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| < r\},$$

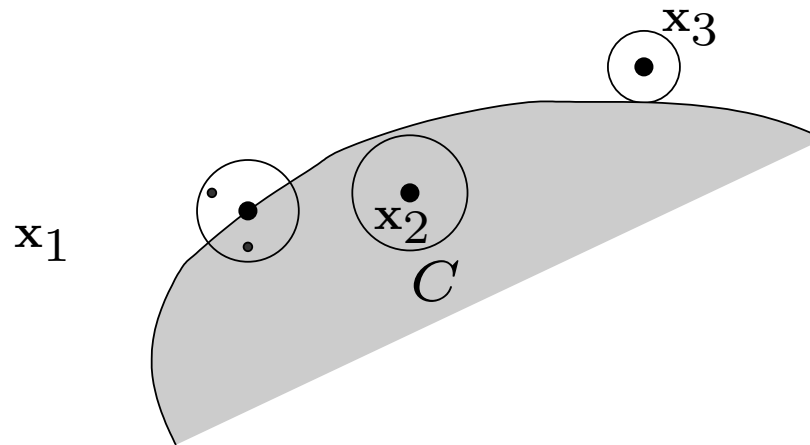
- its closure

$$\overline{B_r(\mathbf{x}_0)} = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \text{ s.t. } |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0| \leq r\},$$



A bit of topology: boundary

- Let $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$. A point x is a **boundary point** of S if every open ball centered at x contains both a point in S and a point in $\mathbf{R}^n \setminus S$.
- A boundary point can either be in S or not in S .



- x_1 is a boundary point, x_2 and x_3 are not.

A bit of topology: open and closed sets

- The set of all boundary points of S is the **boundary** ∂S of S .
- A set is **closed** if $\partial S \subset S$. A set is *open* if $\mathbf{R}^n \setminus S$ is closed.
- Note that there are sets that are **neither** open nor close.
- The **closure** \overline{S} of a set S is $S \cup \partial S$
- The **interior** S° of a set S is $S \setminus \partial S$
- A set S is *closed* iff $S = \overline{S}$ and *open* iff $S = S^\circ$.

Halfspaces

- For a hyperplane H , its complement in \mathbf{R}^n is the union of two sets called **open halfspaces**;

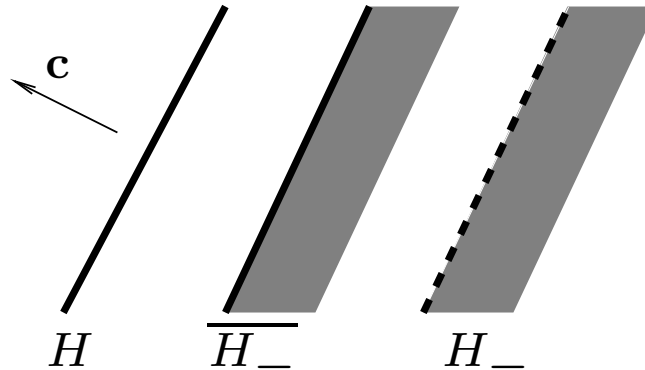
$$\mathbf{R}^n \setminus H = H_+ \cup H_-$$

where

$$H_+ = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^m \mid \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} > z\}$$

$$H_- = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^m \mid \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} < z\}$$

- $\overline{H_+} = H_+ \cup H$ and $\overline{H_-} = H_- \cup H$ are **closed halfspaces**.



Coming Next

- some basic convexity,
- important interplay between convex sets and hyperplanes,
- starting with some nice results, Caratheodory theorem,
- laying out theoretical foundations to attack the simplex.