

Lecture 17: Duality and Conic Programming

Lemma. Let $K \subseteq V$ be a closed convex cone.
Then $(K^*)^* = K$.

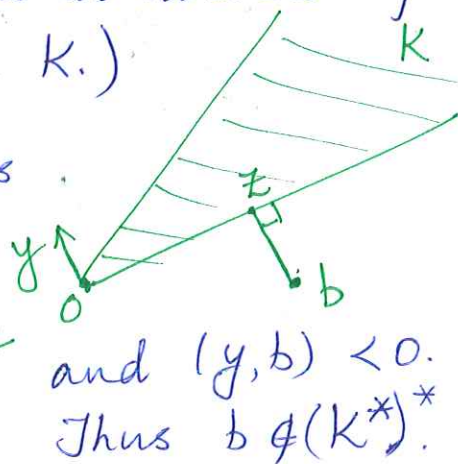
Proof. It is easy to see that $K \subseteq (K^*)^*$. For the other direction, we need the following separation theorem.

Theorem. Let $K \subseteq V$ be a closed convex cone and let $b \in V \setminus K$. Then $\exists y \in V$ such that
 $(y, x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in K$ and $(y, b) < 0$.

(Thus the hyperplane with y as its normal separates the point b from the cone K .)

Observe that the theorem implies the above lemma. Suppose $b \notin K$.

Then $\exists y \in V$ s.t. $(y, x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in K$
so $y \in K^*$



and $(y, b) < 0$.
Thus $b \notin (K^*)^*$.

So $(K^*)^* \subseteq K$.

Let us prove the above separation theorem now.

Let z be the point of K closest to b (the z - b distance $\|z-b\| = \sqrt{(z-b, z-b)}$). We will show that $y = z-b$ is the desired vector.

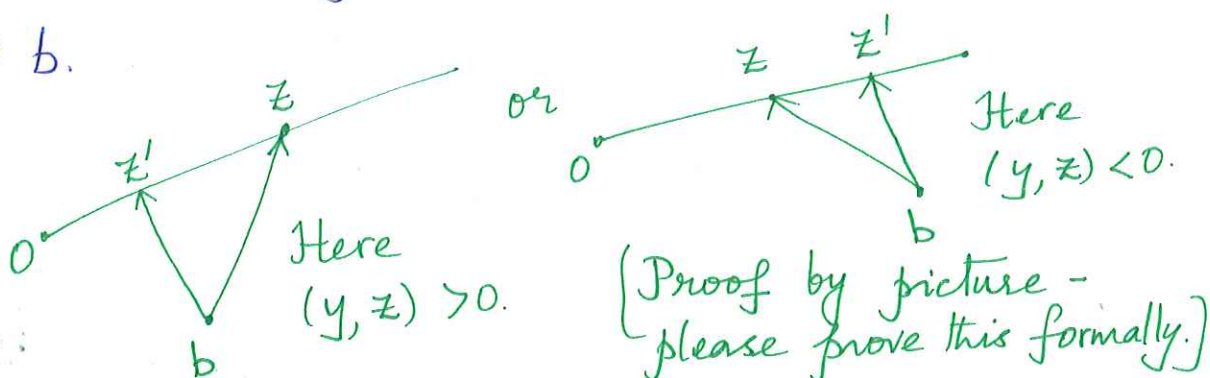
Note that the existence of a "nearest point" z follows from the general theory: if C is a nonempty closed and convex set in a finite-dimensional vector space V and $b \in V$ is arbitrary, then there exists a unique $z \in C$ nearest to b among all points of C .

So $z \in K$ is the nearest point of K to b . (2)

Let $y = z - b$. Let us show that $(y, z) = 0$.

this is so if $z = 0$.

So let us assume $z \neq 0$. Then by slightly moving along the ray $\{tz : t \geq 0\}$ either towards 0 (if $(y, z) > 0$) or away from 0 (if $(y, z) < 0$), we will get a point $z' \in K$ that is closer to b than z , contradicting z being the nearest point of K to b .



Thus $(y, z) = 0$. Let us now show that $(y, b) < 0$.

Observe that $y \neq 0$ (since $b \notin K$) and $b = z - y$.

$$\text{Thus } (y, b) = (y, z - y) = \underbrace{(y, z)}_{=0} - \underbrace{(y, y)}_{>0} < 0.$$

What is left to show is that $(y, x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in K$. The angle $\angle bzx$ has to be at least 90° - otherwise points on the segment zx sufficiently close to z would be nearer to b than z (an analogous argument to why $(y, z) = 0$), a contradiction. Thus $(b - z, x - z) \leq 0$.

$$\text{So } 0 \geq (b - z, x - z) = (-y, x - z) = -(y, x) + \underbrace{(y, z)}_{=0} = -(y, x).$$

Thus $(y, x) \geq 0$. \square

The Farkas Lemma

③

Let us recall the Farkas lemma from linear programming.

Lemma. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be an $m \times n$ matrix and

let $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then

- Either the system $Ax = b, x \geq 0$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - Or the system $A^T y \geq 0, b^T y < 0$ has a solution $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- but not both.

Interestingly, the Farkas lemma is a special case of the separation theorem that we just proved. To see this, let $V = \mathbb{R}^m$ and $K = \{Ax : x \in \mathbb{R}_+^n\} \subseteq V$.

Thus K consists of all nonnegative linear combinations of columns of A . This is a finitely generated cone. Such cones are closed and convex, hence the separation theorem applies.

The system $Ax = b, x \geq 0$ having no solution means that $b \notin K$. By the separation theorem, there exists $y \in V = \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $y^T Ax \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ and $y^T b < 0$.

This means that $A^T y \in (\mathbb{R}_+^n)^* = \mathbb{R}_+^n$.

So there is indeed a solution to the second system $A^T y \geq 0, b^T y < 0$. What is left to show is that both the systems are not simultaneously satisfiable.

This is easy to check: if there exists $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ s.t. $Ax = b$ and there exists $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ s.t. $A^T y \geq 0$ and $b^T y < 0$

then $x^T A^T y \geq 0$, i.e., $b^T y \geq 0$, a contradiction to $b^T y < 0$.

Now we want to generalize the Farkas lemma (4)
 to deal with systems of the form $A(x) = b$, $x \in K$,
 where $K \subseteq V$ is some closed convex cone, and A is
 a linear operator from V to W .

The "standard" Farkas lemma deals with the case
 $K = \mathbb{R}_+^n$, $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, and $W = \mathbb{R}^m$. Here a linear
 operator is represented by a matrix. In SDP, we need
 to consider the case $K = \text{PSD}_n \subseteq V = \text{SYM}_n$ and $W = \mathbb{R}^m$.

What A^T is for a matrix needs to be generalized
 for a general linear operator A . When A is a matrix,

$$(y, Ax) = y^T Ax = (A^T y)^T x = (A^T y, x).$$

So let us define A^T for a linear operator A
 exactly as given above.

Definition. Let $A: V \rightarrow W$ be a linear operator.
 A linear operator $A^T: W \rightarrow V$ is called an adjoint
 of A if $(y, Ax) = (A^T y, x) \forall x \in V$ and $y \in W$.

In SDP, we have $V = \text{SYM}_n$ and $W = \mathbb{R}^m$. The
 adjoint is easy to determine here.

Claim. Let $V = \text{SYM}_n$ and $W = \mathbb{R}^m$. Let $A: V \rightarrow W$
 be defined as $A(x) = (A_1 \circ x, A_2 \circ x, \dots, A_m \circ x)$.

$$\text{Then } A^T(y) = \sum_{i=1}^m y_i A_i.$$

Reference

1. Approximation Algorithms and SDP (Chapter 4)
 (B. Gästner and J. Matoušek)