

3. Structure of Polyhedra

Daisuke Oyama

Mathematical Economics

This version: June 26, 2023

Extreme Points, Vertices

Definition 3.1

For $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $\bar{x} \in S$ is an *extreme point* of S if

$$\bar{x} = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)z, \quad y, z \in S, \quad \lambda \in (0, 1) \implies y = z = \bar{x}.$$

Definition 3.2

For $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, $\bar{x} \in S$ is a *vertex* of S if there exists $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\arg \max\{cx \mid x \in S\} = \{\bar{x}\}$.

Proposition 3.1

For any $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, if $\bar{x} \in S$ is a vertex of S , then it is an extreme point of S .

Proof

- ▶ Suppose that $\arg \max\{cx \mid x \in S\} = \{\bar{x}\}$, and suppose that $\bar{x} = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)z$, $y, z \in S$, $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.
- ▶ Then $\lambda cy \leq \lambda c\bar{x}$ and $(1 - \lambda)cz \leq (1 - \lambda)c\bar{x}$, and therefore $c\bar{x} = \lambda cy + (1 - \lambda)cz \leq c\bar{x}$.
- ▶ Hence, $cy = c\bar{x}$ and $cz = c\bar{x}$, and therefore $y = z = \bar{x}$.
- ▶ The converse does not hold *in general*.

Basic Feasible Solutions of Polyhedra

- ▶ For $A = [a^1 \ \cdots \ a^m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, consider the polyhedron

$$P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A^T x \leq b\}.$$

Definition 3.3

For $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A^T x \leq b\}$, $\bar{x} \in P$ is a *basic feasible solution* of P if there exists a subset B of A with $\text{rank}(B) = n$ such that $B^T \bar{x} = b^B$ (where $b^B = (b_j)_{j \in B}$).

Proposition 3.2

For $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A^T x \leq b\}$, the following statements are equivalent:

1. $\bar{x} \in P$ is a vertex of P .
2. $\bar{x} \in P$ is an extreme point of P .
3. $\bar{x} \in P$ is a basic feasible solution of P .

Proof

- ▶ $1 \Rightarrow 2$: By Proposition 3.1.
- ▶ $2 \Rightarrow 3$ (not $3 \Rightarrow$ not 2):
Suppose that $\bar{x} \in P$ is not a basic feasible solution of P .
- ▶ Let $B = \{a^j \in A \mid a^j \bar{x} = b_j\}$.
By assumption, $\text{rank}(B) < n$.
- ▶ Take any $w \in \ker(B)$, $w \neq 0$ (where $\ker(B) \neq \{0\}$ since $\text{rank}(\ker(B)) = n - \text{rank}(B) > 0$).
- ▶ Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be such that $a^j(\bar{x} \pm \varepsilon w) < b_j$ for all $j \in A \setminus B$, and let $y = \bar{x} + \varepsilon w$ and $z = \bar{x} - \varepsilon w$.
- ▶ Then, $y \neq \bar{x}$, $z \neq \bar{x}$, $y, z \in P$, and $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2}y + \frac{1}{2}z$,
which means that \bar{x} is not an extreme point of P .

▶ $3 \Rightarrow 1$:

Let $\bar{x} \in P$ be a basic feasible solution of P , and let $B \subset A$ be such that $B^T \bar{x} = b^B$ and $\text{rank}(B) = n$.

▶ Let $c = \sum_{j \in B} a^j$.

▶ Then we have $c\bar{x} = \sum_{j \in B} a^j \bar{x} = \sum_{j \in B} b_j$, and

if $Ax \leq b$, then $cx = \sum_{j \in B} a^j x \leq \sum_{j \in B} b_j = c\bar{x}$.

▶ If $cx = c\bar{x}$, then $a^j x = b_j$ for all $j \in B$,

but since $\text{rank}(B) = n$, this implies that $x = \bar{x}$.

▶ Hence, \bar{x} is a vertex of P .

Linear Programs

- ▶ Standard form:

$$\begin{aligned} (*) \quad & \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \quad cx \\ & \text{s. t.} \quad Ax = b \\ & \quad \quad x \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- ▶ Any linear program can be converted into the standard form:
 - ▶ If x_j is unrestricted, then substitute $x_j = x_j^+ - x_j^-$ with $x_j^+, x_j^- \geq 0$.
 - ▶ If a constraint is $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \leq b_i$, then add a slack variable $s_i \geq 0$ so that $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j + s_i = b_i$.
 - ▶ If the objective is $\min cx$, then replace it with $\max(-c)x$.

- ▶ x^* is a *feasible solution* of (*) if $x^* \in \{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$.
- ▶ x^* is an *optimal solution* of (*) if it is a feasible solution of (*) such that $cx^* = \max\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$.
- ▶ (*) is *feasible* (resp. *infeasible*) if $\{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\} \neq \emptyset$ (resp. $= \emptyset$).
- ▶ (*) is *unbounded* if $\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ is unbounded above.

Basic Solutions

- ▶ Consider the linear program $(*)$ ($A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$).
- ▶ We assume throughout that $\text{rank}(A) = m$ (and thus $m \leq n$).
(If $\text{rank}(A) < m$, remove redundant rows.)

Definition 3.4

Any set B of m LI columns of A (also considered as an $m \times m$ matrix) is called a *basis* of A .

Definition 3.5

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *basic solution* of $(*)$ if it is a solution to $Ax = b$ such that there exists a basis B of A such that $x_j \neq 0$ only if $j \in B$.

Definition 3.6

$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *basic feasible solution* of $(*)$ if it is a basic solution such that $x \geq 0$.

Proposition 3.3

\bar{x} is a basic feasible solution of $(*)$ if and only if it is a basic feasible solution of $\{x \mid Ax \leq b, -Ax \leq -b, -Ix \leq 0\}$.

► Therefore, by Proposition 3.2 we have the following.

Proposition 3.4

Denote $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$. The following statements are equivalent:

1. $\bar{x} \in P$ is a vertex of P .
2. $\bar{x} \in P$ is an extreme point of P .
3. $\bar{x} \in P$ is a basic feasible solution of $(*)$.

Proposition 3.5

If $\{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\} \neq \emptyset$, then there exists a basic feasible solution, hence an extreme point.

- ▶ By Proposition 2.6, part 1 (cone version of Carathéodory's Theorem), and Proposition 3.4.

Fundamental Theorem of Linear Programming

Proposition 3.6

If $\max\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ has an optimal solution, then there exists an optimal solution that is an extreme point of $\{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$.

Proof

▶ Denote $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ ($\neq \emptyset$).

▶ Let $v^* = \max\{cx \mid x \in P\}$ and

$$P^* = \left\{ x \mid \begin{bmatrix} A \\ c^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ v^* \end{bmatrix}, x \geq 0 \right\} (\neq \emptyset),$$

where $\text{rank} \left(\begin{bmatrix} A \\ c^T \end{bmatrix} \right) = m$ or $m + 1$.

▶ If $\text{rank} \left(\begin{bmatrix} A \\ c^T \end{bmatrix} \right) = m$, then $P^* = P$.

Then by Proposition 3.5 applied to P ,
 P has an extreme point, which is an optimal solution.

- ▶ If $\text{rank} \left(\begin{bmatrix} A \\ c^T \end{bmatrix} \right) = m + 1,$

by Proposition 3.5 applied to P^* ,
 P^* has an extreme point.

- ▶ Let $x^* \in P^*$ be an extreme point of P^* .

We want to show that it is an extreme point of P .

- ▶ Let $x^* = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)z$, $y, z \in P$, $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.

- ▶ Then $v^* = cx^* = \lambda cy + (1 - \lambda)cz$ while $cy \leq v^*$ and $cz \leq v^*$.

Thus we must have $cy = cz = v^*$, i.e., $y, z \in P^*$.

- ▶ But since x^* is an extreme point of P^* , we must have
 $y = z = x^*$.

Duality

- ▶ Given the linear program

$$\begin{array}{ll}\max & cx \\ \text{s. t.} & Ax = b \\ & x \geq 0,\end{array}$$

multiply both sides of $Ax = b$ by y from the left:

$$yAx = yb.$$

- ▶ If y satisfies $c \leq yA$, then, since $x \geq 0$, we have

$$cx \leq yAx = yb.$$

- ▶ Thus, for any y such that $c \leq yA$, yb is an upper bound of $\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$.

► Primal problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(P)} \quad & \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \quad cx \\ & \text{s. t.} \quad Ax = b \\ & \quad \quad x \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

► Dual problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(D)} \quad & \min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^m} \quad yb \\ & \text{s. t.} \quad yA \geq c \\ & \quad \quad (y : \text{unrestricted}) \end{aligned}$$

Weak Duality

Proposition 3.7

If x and y are feasible solutions of (P) and (D), respectively, then $cx \leq yb$.

- ▶ Therefore, if feasible solutions x^* and y^* satisfy $cx^* = y^*b$, then they are optimal solutions of (P) and (D), respectively.

Strong Duality

Proposition 3.8

*If (P) and (D) are feasible,
then both (P) and (D) have optimal solutions, and*

$$\max\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\} = \min\{yb \mid yA \geq c\}.$$

Proof

- ▶ (P) and (D) have optimal solutions if and only if there exist x and y such that $Ax = b$, $x \geq 0$, $yA \geq c$, $cx \geq yb$, i.e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & -A^T \\ -c^T & b^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} = \\ \leq \\ \leq \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x \geq 0.$$

- ▶ The alternative is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & \mu & \eta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & -A^T \\ -c^T & b^T \end{bmatrix} \geq = [0 \quad 0],$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & \mu & \eta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} < 0, \quad \mu \geq 0, \eta \geq 0.$$

- ▶ We want to show that, whenever (P) and (D) are feasible,

$$\lambda A - \eta c \geq 0, \quad -\mu A^T + \eta b^T = 0, \quad \mu \geq 0, \quad \eta \geq 0 \quad (1)$$

implies

$$\lambda b - \mu c \geq 0. \quad (2)$$

- ▶ For $\eta > 0$, (1) implies that μ/η and λ/η are feasible solutions, and hence by weak duality, $(\mu/\eta)c \leq (\lambda/\eta)b$, or $\mu c \leq \lambda b$.
- ▶ For $\eta = 0$, let x and y be feasible solution.

Then from (1) we have $\lambda b - \mu c \geq \lambda Ax - \mu A^T y \geq 0$.

Infeasibility and unboundedness

Lemma 3.9

1. *If (P) is infeasible, then (D) is either infeasible or unbounded.*
2. *If (P) is unbounded, then (D) is infeasible.*

- ▶ Thus, if (D) is feasible and bounded, then so is (P).
- ▶ The same results hold with (P) and (D) interchanged.

Proof

► Part 1:

If (P) is infeasible, then by Farkas' Lemma, there exists \hat{y} such that $\hat{y}A \geq 0$ and $\hat{y}b < 0$.

- If (D) is feasible, i.e., there exists y^0 such that $y^0A \geq c$, then for $t > 0$, $y^0 + t\hat{y}$ is feasible (since $(y^0 + t\hat{y})A \geq c$), and $(y^0 + t\hat{y})b = y^0b + t(\hat{y}b) \rightarrow -\infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- Part 2: By weak duality.

Strong Duality

Proposition 3.10

If either (P) or (D) has an optimal solution, then the other also has an optimal solution, and

$$\max\{cx \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\} = \min\{yb \mid yA \geq c\}.$$

Proof

- ▶ If either (P) or (D) has an optimal solution, then the other is feasible by Lemma 3.9(1).
- ▶ Then by Proposition 3.8, it also has an optimal solution.

Complementary Slackness

Proposition 3.11

If x^ and y^* are optimal solutions of (P) or (D), respectively, then $(y^*A - c)x^* = 0$.*

Proof

► Since $cx^* = y^*b$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}(y^*A - c)x^* &= y^*Ax^* - cx^* \\ &= y^*b - cx^* = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Primal and Dual Problems in Various Forms

▶ $\max cx$ s.t. $Ax \leq b, x \geq 0$

▶ $\rightarrow \max cx + 0s$ s.t. $Ax + s = b, x \geq 0, s \geq 0$

▶ Dual:

$$\min yb \text{ s.t. } y[A \quad I] \geq [c \quad 0]$$

$$\iff yA \geq c, y \geq 0$$

▶ $\max cx$ s.t. $Ax = b$

▶ $\rightarrow \max c(x^+ - x^-)$ s.t. $A(x^+ - x^-) = b, x^+ \geq 0, x^- \geq 0$

▶ Dual:

$$\min yb \text{ s.t. } y[A \quad -A] \geq [c \quad -c]$$

$$\iff yA = c$$

► $\max cx$ s.t. $Ax \leq b$

► $\rightarrow \max c(x^+ - x^-) + 0s$ s.t. $A(x^+ - x^-) + s = b$,
 $x^+ \geq 0, x^- \geq 0, s \geq 0$

► Dual:

$$\min yb \text{ s.t. } y [A \quad -A \quad I] \geq [c \quad -c \quad 0]$$

$$\iff yA = c, y \geq 0$$

| Primal | Dual |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| $\max cx$ | $\min yb$ |
| $Ax = b$ | y : unrestricted |
| $Ax \leq b$ | $y \geq 0$ |
| $x \geq 0$ | $yA \geq c$ |
| x : unrestricted | $yA = c$ |

Farkas' Lemma from Duality Theorem

- ▶ Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.
- ▶ Suppose that $yA \geq 0$, $yb < 0$ has no solution, i.e.,

$$yA \geq 0 \implies yb \geq 0. \quad (*)$$

We want to show that $Ax = b$, $x \geq 0$ has a solution.

- ▶ Consider the linear program: $\max 0x$ s.t. $Ax = b$, $x \geq 0$.
- ▶ Its dual problem is: $\min yb$ s.t. $yA \geq 0$.
- ▶ By (*), $y = 0$ is an optimal solution of the dual problem.
- ▶ Therefore, by Proposition 3.10, the primal problem has a feasible solution.

Application: Zero-Sum Games

Definition 3.7

A *zero-sum game* is given by an $m \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, where when Row player plays strategy $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ and Column player plays strategy $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, Row's payoff is a_{ij} and Column's payoff is $-a_{ij}$.

- ▶ The set of mixed strategies for Row:

$$\Delta^m = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid x \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^m x_i = 1\}.$$

- ▶ The set of mixed strategies for Column:

$$\Delta^n = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid y \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^n y_j = 1\}.$$

- ▶ Min-max value for Row:

$$\min_{y \in \Delta^n} \max_i (Ay)_i \quad (= \min_{y \in \Delta^n} \max_{x \in \Delta^m} xAy)$$

- ▶ Max-min value for Column:

$$\max_{x \in \Delta^m} \min_j (xA)_j \quad (= \max_{x \in \Delta^m} \min_{y \in \Delta^n} xAy)$$

- ▶ Consider the following linear programs:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(LP-R)} \quad & \min_{y,R} R \\ & \text{s. t. } Ay - \mathbf{1}R \leq 0 \\ & \mathbf{1}y = 1, y \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(LP-C)} \quad & \max_{x,C} C \\ & \text{s. t. } xA - C\mathbf{1} \geq 0 \\ & x\mathbf{1} = 1, x \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ (LP-R) and (LP-C) are duals to each other.

Both are feasible, and therefore by strong duality (Proposition 3.8), these have optimal solutions (x^*, R^*) and (y^*, C^*) , and $R^* = C^*$.

Minimax Theorem

Proposition 3.12

$$\min_{y \in \Delta^n} \max_{x \in \Delta^m} xAy = \max_{x \in \Delta^m} \min_{y \in \Delta^n} xAy.$$

Proof

- ▶ Clearly, $\text{LHS} \geq \text{RHS}$.

We want to show $\text{LHS} \leq \text{RHS}$.

- ▶ Let (y^*, R^*) and (x^*, C^*) be optimal solutions of (LP-R) and (LP-C), respectively, where $R^* = C^*$.

Then we have $Ay^* \leq \mathbf{1}R^*$, and hence $xAy^* \leq R^*$ for all $x \in \Delta^m$, i.e., $\max_x xAy^* \leq R^*$.

Hence $\min_y \max_x xAy \leq R^*$.

- ▶ Similarly, we have $\max_x \min_y xAy \geq C^*$.
- ▶ Since $R^* = C^*$, we have $\text{LHS} \leq \text{RHS}$.

- ▶ (The argument above in fact shows that

$$x^*Ay^* \leq \max_x xAy^* \leq R^* = C^* \leq \min_y x^*Ay \leq x^*Ay^*,$$

which holds as equality.)

Definition 3.8

A profile $(x^*, y^*) \in \Delta^m \times \Delta^n$ is a *Nash equilibrium* of the zero-sum game A if

$$\begin{aligned}x^*Ay^* &\geq xAy^* && \text{for all } x \in \Delta^m, \\x^*Ay^* &\leq x^*Ay && \text{for all } y \in \Delta^n.\end{aligned}$$

Proposition 3.13

(x^*, y^*) is a Nash equilibrium of A and $x^*Ay^* = R^* = C^*$ if and only if (x^*, R^*) and (y^*, C^*) are optimal solutions of (LP-R) and (LP-C), respectively.

Proof

- ▶ “If”: By the Minimax Theorem.
- ▶ “Only if”: $(y, R) = (y^*, x^* Ay^*)$ and $(x, C) = (x^*, x^* Ay^*)$ are feasible solutions of (LP-R) and (LP-C) and give the same value $(x^* Ay^*)$, hence they are optimal solutions.

Integrality

- ▶ We discuss sufficient conditions under which
 - ▶ all extreme points of a polyhedron are integral (integer valued); and
 - ▶ a linear program has an integral optimal solution.

Unimodular Matrices

- ▶ A square integer matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ is called *unimodular* if $\det A = 1$ or -1 .

Proposition 3.14

For $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$, A^{-1} exists and is an integer matrix if and only if it is unimodular.

- ▶ Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a unimodular matrix ($\det A = -1$).
 $\rightarrow A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

Proof

- ▶ If A^{-1} exists and is an integer matrix, then $(\det A) \times (\det A^{-1}) = \det I = 1$.

Then by the integrality of A and A^{-1} , we must have $(\det A, \det A^{-1}) = (1, 1)$ or $(-1, -1)$.

- ▶ If A is unimodular, then $A^{-1} = A^*/(\det A) = A^* \times 1$ or (-1) for some A^* called the adjoint of A , which is constructed with $+$, $-$, and \times of the entries of A , so is an integer matrix.

Totally Unimodular Matrices

Definition 3.9

$A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$ is *totally unimodular* (TUM) if $\det B = 1, -1,$ or 0 for every square submatrix B of A .

▶ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$: not TUM

▶ $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$: TUM

Integral Extreme Points

Proposition 3.15

Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$, and assume that $\text{rank } A = m$.

If A is TUM, then every extreme point of $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ is integral.

Proof

- ▶ By Proposition 3.4, every extreme point w of $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = b, x \geq 0\}$ is a basic feasible solution, i.e., there exists a basis B of A such that $w^B = B^{-1}b$ (where $w = [w^B \mid 0]$).
- ▶ Since A is TUM, any such B is unimodular.
- ▶ Therefore, by Proposition 3.14, B^{-1} is integral, and so is w .

A Sufficient Condition for TUM

Proposition 3.16

Suppose that $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$ satisfies the following property:

1. each entry is 0, 1, or -1 ;
2. each column contains at most two non-zero entries; and
3. if a column contains two non-zero entries, then they are of opposite sign (i.e., 1 and -1).

Then A is TUM.

Proof

- ▶ It suffices to show that for any $B \in \mathbb{Z}^{k \times k}$, if B satisfies the property in the proposition, then $\det B = 1, -1$, or 0 .
- ▶ Prove by induction.
The claim obviously holds for $k = 1$.
- ▶ Suppose that the claim holds for $k - 1$.
Let $B \in \mathbb{Z}^{k \times k}$ satisfy the property in the proposition.

► There are three cases:

1. There is a column whose entries are all zero.

In this case, $\det B = 0$.

2. There is a column that has exactly one non-zero entry (which is 1 or -1).

In this case, suppose that j is such a column and $b_{ij} = 1$ or -1 .

Let $C \in \mathbb{R}^{(k-1) \times (k-1)}$ be the submatrix of B obtained by removing row i and column j .

Then

$\det B = (\det C) \times b_{ij} = (\det C) \times 1$ or $(-1) = 1, -1,$ or 0 by the induction hypothesis.

3. All columns have two non-zero entries (which are 1 and -1).

In this case, the sum of all the row vectors is the zero vector, and hence $\det B = 0$.

Application: Doubly Stochastic Matrices

- ▶ $A = (x_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a *doubly stochastic matrix* if

$$\sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, n,$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for all } j = 1, \dots, n,$$
$$x_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

- ▶ Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.8 \\ 0.3 & 0.5 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ A doubly stochastic matrix that consists only of 0 and 1 is called a *permutation matrix*.
- ▶ A convex combination of doubly stochastic matrices is a doubly stochastic matrix.

Proposition 3.17 (Birkhoff-von Neumann Theorem)

Any doubly stochastic matrix is written as a convex combination of permutation matrices.

► Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.2 & 0.8 \\ 0.3 & 0.5 & 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \\ = 0.2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + 0.3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0.5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof

- ▶ The set D of doubly stochastic matrices is the polyhedron defined by

$$\sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, n,$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n (-x_{ij}) = -1 \quad \text{for all } j = 1, \dots, n - 1,$$
$$x_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i, j = 1, \dots, n.$$

(One equation is implied by the others.)

- ▶ $D \neq \emptyset$ has an extreme point (Proposition 3.5).

- ▶ Written in a matrix form $Ax = b$, $x \geq 0$, A is TUM:
 - ▶ The column for x_{ij} , $j \neq n$, has exactly one 1 and exactly one -1 ; and
 - ▶ The column for x_{in} has exactly one 1.
- ▶ Therefore, by Proposition 3.15, all the extreme points of D are integral, and hence are permutation matrices.
- ▶ Thus, by the Krein-Milman Theorem, every doubly stochastic matrix (i.e., element of D) is written as a convex combination of permutation matrices (i.e., extreme points of D).

Application: Efficient Assignment of Indivisible Goods

- ▶ Indivisible objects $i \in M$
- ▶ Agents $j \in N$
- ▶ $v_{ij} \geq 0$: monetary value of one unit of object i for agent j
- ▶ Each agent consumes at most one object.
- ▶ Assume $|M| \geq |N|$.
- ▶ Assignment: $(x_{ij})_{i \in M, j \in N}$ where $x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$
 $x_{ij} = 1 \iff i$ is consumed by j .

- ▶ Efficient assignment problem:

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{P}^*) \quad & \max \quad \sum_{i \in M, j \in N} v_{ij} x_{ij} \\ & \text{s. t.} \quad \sum_{j \in N} x_{ij} \leq 1 \quad \text{for all } i \in M \\ & \quad \quad \sum_{i \in M} x_{ij} \leq 1 \quad \text{for all } j \in N \\ & \quad \quad x_{ij} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \text{for all } i \in M, j \in N \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Since there are finitely many feasible solutions, (P^*) has an optimal solution (x_{ij}^*) .
- ▶ Is there a price vector p^* that “supports” the assignment (x_{ij}^*) (i.e., agents optimize against p^* and demand and supply balance)?

- ▶ Consider the relaxed problem where the 0-1 constraint is removed (converted into the standard form):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(P)} \quad & \max \quad \sum_{i \in M, j \in N} v_{ij} x_{ij} \\ & \text{s. t.} \quad \sum_{j \in N} x_{ij} + s_i = 1 \quad \text{for all } i \in M \\ & \quad \quad \sum_{i \in M} (-x_{ij}) - t_j = -1 \quad \text{for all } j \in N \\ & \quad \quad x_{ij} \geq 0, s_i \geq 0, t_j \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i \in M, j \in N \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Written in a matrix form, the constraint matrix is TUM:
 - ▶ The column for x_{ij} has exactly one 1 and exactly one -1 ;
 - ▶ The column for s_i has exactly one 1; and
 - ▶ The column for t_j has exactly one -1 .

- ▶ Since the feasible region is nonempty, it has extreme points, which are all integral by Proposition 3.15.
- ▶ Since there is an optimal solution that is an extreme point by Proposition 3.6, (P) has an integral optimal solution (x_{ij}^*, s_i^*, t_j^*) .
- ▶ Clearly, (x_{ij}^*) is an optimal solution of (P^*) .

- ▶ Now consider the dual problem of (P):

$$(D) \quad \min \quad \sum_{i \in M} p_i + \sum_{j \in N} \lambda_j$$

$$\text{s. t.} \quad p_i + \lambda_j \geq v_{ij} \quad \text{for all } i \in M, j \in N$$

$$p_i \geq 0, \lambda_j \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i \in M, j \in N$$

- ▶ Let (p_i^*, λ_j^*) be an optimal solution of (D).

- ▶ Then (p_i^*) supports (x_{ij}^*) :

- ▶ By optimality, $\lambda_j^* = \max_{i \in M} (v_{ij} - p_i^*)$.

- ▶ By complementary slackness, $(p_i^* + \lambda_j^* - v_{ij})x_{ij}^* = 0$.

- ▶ Therefore, if $x_{ij}^* = 1$, then

$$v_{ij} - p_i^* = \lambda_j^* = \max_{h \in M} (v_{hj} - p_h^*),$$

i.e., i maximizes $v_{hj} - p_h^*$, $h \in M$.