### Duality and Complexity Issues in Global Optimization

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#### **Duality in Nonlinear Programming (NLP)**

- Duality theory plays a central role in mathematical programming. This theory is closely related to the theory of so-called minimax problems and saddlepoints.
- Let f, g, F be real-valued functions defined on  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m, Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $X \times Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n$ , respectively.
- Assume that the global minima and maxima which we address below do exist in all cases.

Suppose that f(x) ≤ g(y) for all (x, y) ∈ X × Y. Then it is clear that

$$\max_{x \in X} f(x) \le \min_{y \in Y} g(y).$$

Under certain conditions the above inequality can be satisfied as an equality

$$\max_{x \in X} f(x) = \min_{y \in Y} g(y).$$

Each result of this kind is called a duality theorem.

It is easy to prove that the following inequality holds:

$$\max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} F(x, y) \le \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y).$$

Under certain conditions we can prove that

$$\max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} F(x, y) = \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y).$$

Each result of this type is called a minimax theorem.

■ The point  $(x^*, y^*) \in X \times Y$  is a **saddlepoint** of *F* (with respect to maximizing in *Y* and minimizing in *X*) if

 $F(x^*, y) \leq F(x^*, y^*) \leq F(x, y^*)$  for every  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ .

● **Theorem.** The point  $(x^*, y^*) \in X \times Y$  is a saddlepoint of *F* iff

$$F(x^*, y^*) = \max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} F(x, y) = \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y).$$

Proof.

● Let  $(x^*, y^*)$  be a saddlepoint of *F*.

$$F(x^*, y^*) \leq \min_{x \in X} F(x, y^*) \leq \max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} F(x, y)$$
  
$$\leq \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y) \leq \max_{y \in Y} F(x^*, y)$$
  
$$\leq F(x^*, y^*).$$

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$$F(x^*, y^*) = \max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} F(x, y) = \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y),$$

then we have

$$\min_{x \in X} F(x, y^*) = F(x^*, y^*) = \max_{y \in Y} F(x^*, y),$$

i.e.  $(x^*, y^*)$  is a saddlepoint.

 Consider now the optimization problem (primal)
 min f(x)
 s.t. g(x) ≤ 0, x ∈ X
 (P)
 s.t. g<sup>n</sup> → ℝ<sup>p</sup> and X ⊆ ℝ<sup>n</sup>.
 The Lagrangian of (P) is

$$L(x,\lambda) = f(x) + \lambda^T g(x), \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^p_+$$

Note that

$$\sup_{\lambda \ge 0} \{f(x) + \lambda^T g(x)\} = \begin{cases} f(x) \text{ if } g(x) \le 0 \\ +\infty \text{ otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and Problem (P) can be restated in the form

 $\min_{x \in X} \max_{\lambda \ge 0} L(x, \lambda).$ 

• For  $\lambda \ge 0$  define the function

$$d(\lambda) = \min_{x \in X} L(x, \lambda)$$

which is concave (independently of the convexity of f or g). Then the **dual** problem of (P) is defined to be the following optimization problem:

$$\max_{\lambda \ge 0} d(\lambda) = \max_{\lambda \ge 0} \min_{x \in X} L(x, \lambda).$$
 (D)

• The objective function  $d(\lambda)$  of (D) is often called dual function.

• Theorem. (Weak Duality Theorem) Let  $x^*$  be a global minimum point of the primal problem. Then for every  $\lambda \ge 0$ 

$$d(\lambda) \le d(\lambda^*) \le f(x^*)$$

where  $\lambda^*$  is a global maximum point of the dual.

**Proof.** Since  $\lambda \ge 0$  and  $g(x^*) \le 0$  it follows that  $\lambda^T g(x^*) \le 0$ . On the other hand, for any  $\lambda \ge 0$  and  $x^* \in X$ ,  $d(\lambda) \le f(x^*) + \lambda^T g(x^*)$ , and hence  $d(\lambda) \le \max_{\lambda \ge 0} d(\lambda) = d(\lambda^*) \le f(x^*)$ .

- If  $d(\lambda^*) < f(x^*)$ , then the difference  $f(x^*) d(\lambda^*)$  is called the "duality gap".
- The following result is then an immediate consequence of last theorem.
- Theorem. A point  $(x^*, \lambda^*) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^p_+$  is a saddlepoint of the Lagrangian  $L(x, \lambda)$  iff  $x^*$  is a global minimum point of the primal Problem (P),  $\lambda^*$  is a global maximum point of the dual (D), and the optimal values  $f(x^*)$  of (P) and  $d(\lambda^*)$  of (D) coincide.

- The next theorems provide a set of necessary and sufficient conditions for  $(x^*, \lambda^*)$  to be a saddlepoint of  $L(x, \lambda)$  and hence for the equivalent duality theorem above.
- Theorem. A point  $(x^*, \lambda^*) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^p_+$  is a saddlepoint of the Lagrangian  $L(x, \lambda)$  iff the following conditions hold:

(i) 
$$L(x^*, \lambda^*) = \min\{L(x, \lambda^*) : x \in X\}.$$

(ii)  $g(x^*) \le 0$ .

(iii) 
$$\lambda^{*T}g(x^*) = 0.$$

Example. Consider the quadratic programming problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & f(x) = c^T x + \frac{1}{2} x^T Q x \\ \text{s.t.} & Ax \leq b, \end{array}$$

where the  $(n \times n)$ -matrix Q is symmetric positive definite,  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The corresponding Lagrangian function is

 $L(x,\lambda) = c^T x + \frac{1}{2}x^T Q x + \lambda^T (Ax - b) =$  $= (c + A^T \lambda)^T x + \frac{1}{2}x^T Q x - b^T \lambda.$ 

The minimum of  $L(x, \lambda)$  with respect to x occurs at the point  $x^*$  where  $\nabla L(x^*, \lambda) = 0$ , i.e.,

$$x^* = -Q^{-1}(c + A^T \lambda).$$

Substituting in *L* we obtain the dual function

$$d(\lambda) = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda^T A Q^{-1} A^T \lambda - \lambda^T (b + A Q^{-1} c) - \frac{1}{2} c^T Q^{-1} c.$$

Hence the dual problem is given by

$$\max_{\lambda \ge 0} d(\lambda) = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda^T M \lambda + d^T \lambda,$$

where  $M = AQ^{-1}A^{T}$  and  $d = -(b + AQ^{-1}c)$ .

If  $\lambda^*$  is the solution of the dual problem, then  $x^* = -Q^{-1}(c + A^T \lambda^*)$  is the solution of the original primal problem.

So, we see that in the convex quadratic case the duality gap is zero.

- The worst case time complexity.
- We call an algorithm for a problem  $\pi$  polynomial if its running time on a computer in terms of the number of required elementary operations (such as arithmetic operations, comparisons, branching instructions, ...) is, in the worst case, bounded from above by a polynomial of degree p in the size L of the input data.
- We say that the algorithm runs in  $O(L^p)$  time.

#### Example:

- The standard simplex algorithm for LP requires, in the worst case, a number of steps which is exponential in the size of the input data (e.g., Klee–Minty example).
- Kachiyan's ellipsoid algorithm (or Karmarkar's interior point algorithm) requires only a polynomial number of steps, and each step in these algorithms consists of a polynomial number of elementary operations.

- In complexity theory, the collection of problems that can be solved in polynomial time (i.e., by a polynomial algorithm) is denoted by P.
- Another important complexity class is NP, the set of all problems solvable by a "nondeterministic algorithm" in polynomial time. That is, NP is the class of problems for which the correctness of a claimed solution (that may have been computed by a tedious procedure) can be verified in polynomial time.

- Clearly P is a subset of NP, and it appears natural that  $P \neq NP$ .
- However, despite enormous research efforts, it remains one of the most famous unsolved problems in theoretical computer science whether the two classes P and NP are different or not.

- We say that a problem  $\pi_1$  is polynomially transformable to a problem  $\pi_2$  if a polynomial algorithm for  $\pi_2$  would imply a polynomial algorithm for  $\pi_1$ .
- A problem π is NP-complete if π ∈ NP and if every other problem in NP can be polynomially transformed to it.
- Every NP–complete problem has the following property: if it can be solved in polynomial time, then all problems in NP can be solved in polynomial time. In other words, if  $\pi$  is NP–complete and if  $\pi \in \mathbf{P}$  then P=NP.



- Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be a set of Boolean variables whose value is either true or false, and let  $\overline{x}_i$  denote the negation of  $x_i$ .
- A literal is either a variable or its negation.
- A Boolean formula is an expression that can be constructed using literals, and the operations "and" ( or •) and "or" (∨ or +).
- A Boolean formula which can be made true by assigning some values to its variables is said to be satisfiable.

- The SATISFIABILITY problem is to check whether a Boolean formula of the (conjunctive normal) form  $F = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} (\bigvee_{j=1}^{n_i} \ell_{ij}), \text{ where } \ell_{ij} \text{ denotes a literal, is satisfiable.}$
- Cook's Theorem (1971). SATISFIABILITY is NP-complete.

- Soon after the appearance of Cook's proof, the list of NP–complete problems was substantially enriched. Another "classical" NP–complete problem is, for example, to check whether a single linear constraint ∑<sup>n</sup> a<sub>i</sub>x<sub>i</sub> = b, a<sub>i</sub>, b integers, has a solution in x<sub>i</sub> ∈ {0,1} (i = 1,...,n) (knapsack problem).
- Other well-known examples include the traveling salesman problem, the maximum clique problem, and many classes of nonconvex quadratic optimization problems.

- How can we prove that some problem is NP-complete?
- The following obvious consequence of the definition of NP-completeness is often used:

If a problem  $\pi_1$  is **NP**–complete and  $\pi_1$  is polynomially transformable to a problem  $\pi_2 \in \mathbf{NP}$ , then  $\pi_2$  is **NP**–complete.

Note, however, that one cannot conclude NP-completeness of  $\pi_2$  by transforming it polynomially to another NP-complete problem  $\pi_1$ .

- A problem π is called NP–hard if there is an NP–complete problem which can be polynomially transformed to π.
- Thus, an NP-hard problem shares with NP-complete problems the basic property of being at least as difficult as any other problem in NP-complete, but it may not belong to NP.

Consider the following quadratic problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & f(x) = c^T x + \frac{1}{2} x^T Q x \\ \text{s.t.} & x \ge 0 \end{array}$$

where Q is an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix, and  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & f(x) = c^T x + \frac{1}{2} x^T Q x \\ \text{s.t.} & x \geq 0 \end{array}$$

• The KKT conditions for this problem become the following so-called linear complementarity problem (denoted by LCP(Q, c)): Find  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (or prove that no such an x exists) such that

 $Qx + c \ge 0, \ x \ge 0$  $x^T(Qx + c) = 0.$ 

- Hence, the complexity of finding (or proving existence of) KKT points for the above quadratic problem is reduced to the complexity of solving the corresponding (symmetric) LCP.
- **Theorem.** The Problem LCP (Q, c) is **NP**-hard.

Proof: Consider the following LCP (Q, c) problem in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+3}$  defined by

$$Q_{(n+3)\times(n+3)} = \begin{bmatrix} -I_n & e_n & -e_n & 0_n \\ e_n^T & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -e_n^T & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0_n^T & -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$c_{n+3}^T = (a_1, \dots, a_n, -b, b, 0),$$

where  $a_i$ , i = 1, ..., n, and b are positive integers,  $I_n$  is the  $(n \times n)$ -unit matrix and  $e_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $0_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are the vectors of all ones and zeros, respectively.

Define the following knapsack problem. Find a feasible solution to the system

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i = b, \ x_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad (i = 1, \dots, n).$$

- This problem is known to be NP-complete. Next we show that the LCP(Q, c) is solvable iff the associated knapsack problem is solvable.
- If x solves the knapsack problem, then  $y = (a_1x_1, \dots, a_nx_n, 0, 0, 0)^T$  solves LCP(Q, c).

Conversely, assume the point y solves the LCP(Q, c) given above.

• Since 
$$Qy + c \ge 0$$
,  $y \ge 0$  we obtain  
 $y_{n+1} = y_{n+2} = y_{n+3} = 0$ . This in turn implies that  
 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i = b$  and  $0 \le y_i \le a_i$ .

 Finally, if  $y_i < a_i$ , then  $y^T(Qy + c) = 0$  enforces  $y_i = 0$ . Hence,  $x = \left(\frac{y_1}{a_1}, \ldots, \frac{y_n}{a_n}\right)$  solves the knapsack problem.
 □

- Therefore, in quadratic programming, the problem of deciding whether a Kuhn–Tucker point exists is NP–hard.
- Next we investigate the complexity of finding locally optimal solutions to nonlinear optimization problems.

- Computing locally optimal solutions is presumably easier than finding globally optimal solutions.
- However, from the complexity point of view we will show that the problem of checking local optimality for a feasible point and the problem of checking whether a local minimum is strict, are NP—hard even for problems with a simple structure in the constraints and the objective.

We focus our investigation on problems that have nonconvex quadratic objective and linear constraints, that is, problems of the form:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \min \ f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad Ax \geq b, \ x \geq 0 \end{array}$ 

where f(x) is an indefinite quadratic function.

Consider now the 3-satisfiability (3-SAT) problem: Given a set of Boolean variables x<sub>1</sub>,..., x<sub>n</sub> and given a Boolean expression S (in conjunctive normal form) with exactly 3 literals per clause,

 $S = (\ell_{11} + \ell_{12} + \ell_{13})(\ell_{21} + \ell_{22} + \ell_{23})\dots(\ell_{m1} + \ell_{m2} + \ell_{m3})$ 

where each literal  $\ell_{ij}$  is either some variable  $x_k$  or its negations  $\bar{x}_k$ , is there a truth assignment for the variables  $x_i$  which makes S true?

Cook: 3–SAT is NP–complete.

For each instance of 3–satisfiability we construct an instance of an optimization problem in the real variables  $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n$ .

Clause in  $S \iff$  a linear inequality  $\ell_{ij} = x_k \qquad \qquad x_k$   $\ell_{ij} = \overline{x}_k \qquad \qquad 1 - x_k$  $\dots + x_0 \ge \frac{3}{2}.$ 

• Example: for the clause  $x_1 + x_2 + \bar{x}_3$  we have  $x_1 + x_2 + (1 - x_3) + x_0 \ge \frac{3}{2}$ .

• Thus, we associate to S a system of linear inequalities

$$A_S x \ge \left(\frac{3}{2} + c\right)$$

where  $A_s$  is a (sparse) matrix with entries in  $\{0, 1, -1\}$ and  $x^T = (x_0, \dots, x_n)$ .

• Let us consider the set  $D(S) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  of feasible points satisfying the following linear constraints

$$A_S x \ge \left(\frac{3}{2} + c\right)$$

$$1/2 - x_0 \le x_i \le 1/2 + x_0, \ x_i \ge 0, \ i = 1, \dots, n$$

With a given instance S of the 3-satisfiability problem we associate the following indefinite quadratic problem:

$$\min_{x \in D(S)} f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - (1/2 - x_0))(x_i - (1/2 + x_0)).$$

• Note that  $f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - 1/2)^2 + nx_0^2$ , i.e., the objective

function is a separable indefinite quadratic function with one convex and n concave terms.

- In addition, we have the following:
  - a)  $f(x) \ge 0$  for all feasible points x. Therefore, the feasible point  $x^* = (0, 1/2, \dots, 1/2)^T$  is a local (global) minimum of f(x) since  $f(x^*) = 0$ .
  - b) f(x) = 0 if and only if  $x_i \in \{1/2 x_0, 1/2 + x_0\}$ , for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- Recall that a strict local minimum for the above quadratic problem is a feasible point  $x^*$  for which there exists an  $\epsilon > 0$  such that

 $f(x^*) < f(x)$  for all  $x \in D(S) \cap \{x : 0 < ||x - x^*|| \le \epsilon\}$ .

- The following theorem implies that checking strict local optimality is NP–hard. Therefore, we cannot expect to find a polynomial time algorithm for this problem (assuming P ≠ NP).
- **Theorem.** S is satisfiable iff  $x^* = (0, 1/2, ..., 1/2)^T$  is not a strict minimum.
- **Proof:** Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be a truth assignment satisfying *S*. For any  $x_0$  and  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  consider

$$x_i^0 = \begin{cases} 1/2 - x_0 \text{ if } x_i = 0\\ 1/2 + x_0 \text{ if } x_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

For  $x^0 = (x_0, x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0)^T$  we have  $f(x^0) = 0$ . Since  $x_0$  can be chosen to be arbitrarily close to zero,  $x^*$  is not a strict local minimum.

Suppose now that  $x^* = (0, 1/2, ..., 1/2)^T$  is not a strict local minimum, that is, there exists  $y \neq x^*$  such that  $f(y) = f(x^*) = 0$ ; therefore,  $y_i \in \{1/2 - y_0, 1/2 + y_0\}$ , i = 1, ..., n. Then the variables  $x_i, i = 1, ..., n$  defined by

$$x_i(y) = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } y_i = 1/2 - y_0 \\ 1 \text{ if } y_i = 1/2 + y_0 \end{cases}$$

satisfy S.

- If we fix  $x_0 = 1/2$  in the above indefinite quadratic problem, then the objective function f(x) is concave with  $x^*$  as the global minimum. Therefore, the problem of checking if a given point is a strict global minimum of a concave minimization problem is **NP**-hard.
- Consider now the problem of checking local optimality.
   We prove that this problem is NP-hard.

Given the 3-satisfiability problem, consider the following indefinite quadratic program:

$$\min_{x \in D(S)} \phi(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( x_i - (1/2 - x_0) \right) \left( x_i - (1/2 + x_0) \right) -$$

$$-\frac{1}{2n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-1/2)^2.$$

• **Theorem.** S is satisfiable iff  $x^* = (0, 1/2, ..., 1/2)$  is not a local minimum.

Proof: Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be a truth assignment satisfying S. Given any  $x_0$  arbitrary close to zero, define for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ 

$$x_i^0 = \begin{cases} 1/2 - x_0 \text{ if } x_i = 0\\ 1/2 + x_0 \text{ if } x_i = 1. \end{cases}$$

Then we can easily see that  $x^0 = (x_0, x_1^0, \dots, x_n^0)$  is feasible and

$$\phi(x^0) = -\frac{x_0^2}{2} < 0 = \phi(x^*).$$

Hence,  $x^*$  is not a local minimum.

Suppose now that  $x^*$  is not a local minimum. Then there exists a point  $x = (x_0, \ldots, x_n)^T$  such that  $\phi(x) < 0$ . We will now show, by contradiction, that we can find in each clause of *S* one literal of value > 1/2. This would imply that *S* is satisfiable with

$$\bar{x}_i = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } x_i \le 1/2\\ 1 \text{ if } x_i > 1/2. \end{cases}$$

For contradiction, assume that the value of each literal in some clause is  $\leq 1/2$ . For instance, consider a constraint (clause) of the form

$$x_1 + x_2 + \bar{x}_3 + x_0 \ge 3/2.$$

For this inequality to hold, we must have a value  $\geq \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x_0}{3}$  for at least one literal *l*. Consider the case  $l = x_1$  (the other cases follow by an analogous argument).

By assumption we have that  $x_1 \leq 1/2$ , so

$$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{x_0}{3} \le x_1 \le \frac{1}{2} \implies -\frac{x_0}{3} \le x_1 - \frac{1}{2} \le 0.$$

Hence,

$$(x_1 - 1/2)^2 \le \frac{x_0^2}{9}.$$

Let

$$p(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - (1/2 - x_0))(x_i - (1/2 + x_0))$$
$$= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} ((x_i - 1/2)^2 - x_0^2)$$

be the "penalty term" in the objective function.

Then, since  $(x_1 - 1/2)^2 \le \frac{x_0^2}{9}$ ,

$$p(x) \ge -(x_1 - 1/2)^2 + x_0^2 \ge \frac{8}{9}x_0^2$$

On the other hand, for the "payoff term"

$$q(x) = -\frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - 1/2)^2$$
 we obtain  $q(x) \ge -x_0^2/2$ .

Hence  $\phi(x) \ge \frac{8}{9}x_0^2 - \frac{1}{2}x_0^2 > 0$ , a contradiction.

- Complexity analysis is fundamental in order to understand the inherent difficulty of nonconvex problems and has been a motivation to develop new algorithms.
- It is not clear whether nonconvexity is the only source of complexity, since some classes of nonconvex problems can be solved by polynomial time algorithms.
- Furthermore, there is no easy way to check if a given complicated function is convex or not (even in the case of multivariable polynomials).

# **Basic References**



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