problems:

$$p^*=f(x)+g(Ax)
ightarrow \min_{x\in E\cap A^{-1}(G)} \ d^*=f^*(-A^*\lambda)+g^*(\lambda)
ightarrow \min_{\lambda\in G_*\cap (-A^*)^{-1}(E_*)},$$

Then we have weak duality: $p^* \ge d^*$. Furthermore, if the functions f and g are convex and $A(\mathbf{relint}(E)) \cap \mathbf{relint}(G) \ne \emptyset$, then we have strong duality: $p^* = d^*$. While points $x^* \in E \cap A^{-1}(G)$ and $\lambda^* \in G_* \cap (-A^*)^{-1}(E_*)$ are optimal values for primal and dual problem if and only if:

$$egin{aligned} -A^*\lambda^* \in \partial f(x^*) \ \lambda^* \in \partial g(Ax^*) \end{aligned}$$

Convex case is especially important since if we have Fenchel - Rockafellar problem with parameters (f, g, A), than the dual problem has the form $(f^*, g^*, -A^*)$.

5.2 Sensitivity analysis



Note, that we still have the only variable $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, while treating $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $v \in \mathbb{R}^p$ as parameters. It is obvious, that $Per(u, v) \to P$ if u = 0, v = 0. We will denote the optimal value of Per as $p^*(u, v)$, while the optimal value of the original problem P is just p^* . One can immediately say, that $p^*(u, v) = p^*$.

Speaking of the value of some i-th constraint we can say, that

- $u_i = 0$ leaves the original problem
- $u_i > 0$ means that we have relaxed the inequality
- $u_i < 0$ means that we have tightened the constraint

 $f_i(x) \leq u_i$ $h_i(x) = V_i$

One can even show, that when ${
m P}$ is convex optimization problem, $p^*(u,v)$ is a convex function.

Suppose, that strong duality holds for the orriginal problem and suppose, that x is any feasible point for the perturbed problem:

$$egin{aligned} p^*(0,0) &= p^* = egin{aligned} d^* = g(\lambda^*,
u^*) \ &\leq L(x,\lambda^*,
u^*) = \ &= f_0(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* f_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^p
u_i^* h_i(x) \leq \ &\leq f_0(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* u_i + \sum_{i=1}^p
u_i^* v_i \ &lacklewedge \end{aligned}$$

Which means

$$f_0(x) \geq p^*(0,0) - {\lambda^*}^T u - {
u^*}^T v$$

And taking the optimal x for the perturbed problem, we have:

$$p^*(u,v) \ge p^*(0,0) - \lambda^{*T} u - \nu^{*T} v \qquad (5)$$

In scenarios where strong duality holds, we can draw several insights about the sensitivity of optimal solutions in relation to the Lagrange multipliers. These insights are derived from the inequality expressed in equation above: $\lambda_i > 0$ yxuen sagarky Ui20

1. Impact of Tightening a Constraint (Large λ_i^\star):

When the ith constraint's Lagrange multiplier, λ_i^\star , holds a substantial value, and if this constraint is tightened (choosing $u_i < 0$), there is a guarantee that the optimal value, denoted by $p^{\star}(u, v)$, will significantly increase.

2. Effect of Adjusting Constraints with Large Positive or Negative ν_i^{\star} :

- If u_i^{\star} is large and positive and $v_i < 0$ is chosen, or \leftarrow
- If u_i^{\star} is large and negative and $v_i > 0$ is selected, \leftarrow or P.
- then in either scenario, the optimal value $p^{\star}(u,v)$ is expected to increase greatly.

3. Consequences of Loosening a Constraint (Small λ_i^{\star}):

If the Lagrange multiplier λ_i^{\star} for the *i*th constraint is relatively small, and the constraint is loosened (choosing $u_i > 0$), it is anticipated that the optimal value $p^{\star}(u, v)$ will not significantly decrease.

4. Outcomes of Tiny Adjustments in Constraints with Small ν_i^{\star} :

- When u_i^\star is small and positive, and $v_i > 0$ is chosen, or
- When u_i^{\star} is small and negative, and $v_i < 0$ is opted for,
- in both cases, the optimal value $p^{\star}(u, v)$ will not significantly decrease.

These interpretations provide a framework for understanding how changes in constraints, reflected through their corresponding Lagrange multipliers, impact the optimal solution in problems where strong duality holds.

5.3 Local sensitivity

Suppose now that $p^*(u, v)$ is differentiable at u = 0, v = 0.

$$\lambda_i^* = -\frac{\partial p^*(0,0)}{\partial u_i} \quad \nu_i^* = -\frac{\partial p^*(0,0)}{\partial v_i} \tag{5}$$

To show this result we consider the directional derivative of $p^*(u, v)$ along the direction of some *i*-th basis vector e_i :

For the negati

From the ineq

$$rac{p^*(te_i,0)-p^*}{t}\leq -\lambda_i^*
ightarrow rac{\partial p^*(0,0)}{\partial u_i}\leq -\lambda_i^*$$

The same idea can be used to establish the fact about v_i .

The local sensitivity result Equation 5 provides a way to understand the impact of constraints on the optimal solution x^* of an optimization problem. If a constraint $f_i(x^*)$ is negative at x^* , it's not affecting the optimal solution, meaning small changes to this constraint won't alter the optimal value. In this case, the corresponding optimal Lagrange multiplier will be zero, as per the principle of complementary slackness.

However, if $f_i(x^*) = 0$, meaning the constraint is precisely met at the optimum, then the situation is different. The value of the *i*-th optimal Lagrange multiplier, λ_i^* , gives us insight into how 'sensitive' or 'active' this constraint is. A small λ_i^* indicates that slight adjustments to the constraint won't significantly affect the optimal value. Conversely, a large λ_i^* implies that even minor changes to the constraint can have a significant impact on the optimal solution.





Weak duality implies that the cost in this flexible scenario (where the firm can trade constraint violations) is always less than or equal to the cost in the strict original scenario. This is because any optimal operation x^* from the original scenario will cost less in the flexible scenario, as the firm can earn from underused constraints.

If strong duality holds and the dual optimum is reached, the optimal λ^* represents prices where the firm gains no extra advantage from trading constraint violations. These optimal λ^* values are often termed 'shadow prices' for the original problem, indicating the hypothetical cost of constraint flexibility.





In zero-sum matrix games, players 1 and 2 choose actions from sets $\{1, ..., n\}$ and $\{1, ..., m\}$, respectively. The outcome is a payment from player 1 to player 2, determined by a payoff matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. Each player aims to use mixed strategies, choosing actions according to a probability distribution: player 1 uses probabilities u_k for each action i, and player 2 uses v_l .



Assuming player 2 knows player 1's strategy u, player 2 will choose v to maximize $u^T P v$. The worst-case expected payoff is thus:





5.5.2 Player 2's Perspective

Conversely, if player 1 knows player 2's strategy v, the goal is to minimize $u^T P v$. This leads to:

$$\min_{\substack{\boldsymbol{v} \geq 0, 1^{T} u = 1}} u^{T} P v = \min_{i=1,\dots,n} (Pv)_{i}$$

Player 2 then maximizes this to get the largest guaranteed payoff, solving the optimization problem:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \max\min_{i=1,\dots,n} (Pv)_i \\ \text{s.t. } v \geq 0 \\ 1^T v = 1 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{PALL}. \\ \mathsf{etPAT}. \\ \mathsf{vo NSHO} \end{array}$$

PTUSt.1

The optimal value here is p_2^* .

5.5.3 Duality and Equivalence

It's generally advantageous to know the opponent's strategy, but surprisingly, in mixed strategy matrix games, this advantage disappears. The key lies in duality: the problems above are Lagrange duals. By formulating player 1's problem as a linear program and introducing Lagrange multipliers, we find that the dual problem matches player 2's problem. Due to strong duality in feasible linear programs, $p_1^* = p_2^*$, showing no advantage in knowing the opponent's strategy.

5.5.4 Formulating and Solving the Lagrange Dual

We approach problem Equation 6 by setting it up as a linear programming (LP) problem. The goal is to minimize a variable *t*, subject to certain constraints:

- 1. $u\geq 0$,
- 2. The sum of elements in u equals 1 ($1^T u = 1$),
- 3. $P^T u$ is less than or equal to t times a vector of ones ($P^T u \leq t \mathbf{1}$).

Here, t is an additional variable in the real numbers ($t \in \mathbb{R}$).

5.5.5 Constructing the Lagrangian

We introduce multipliers for the constraints: λ for $P^T u \leq t \mathbf{1} \mu$ for $u \geq 0$, and ν for $1^T u = 1$. The Lagrangian is then formed as:

$$L = t + \lambda^T (P^T u - t \mathbf{1}) - \mu^T u +
u (1 - 1^T u) =
u + (1 - 1^T \lambda)t + (P\lambda -
u \mathbf{1} - \mu)^T u$$

 $\max(p^{i} \mathcal{U}) = t$

5.5.6 Defining the Dual Function

The dual function $g(\lambda,\mu,
u)$ is defined as:

$$g(\lambda,\mu,
u) = egin{cases}
u & ext{if } 1^T\lambda = 1 ext{ and } P\lambda -
u \mathbf{1} = \mu \ -\infty & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

5.5.7 Solving the Dual Problem

The dual problem seeks to maximize u under the following conditions:

- 1. $\lambda \geq 0$,
- 2. The sum of elements in λ equals 1 ($1^T\lambda=1$),
- 3. $\mu \geq 0$,
- 4. $P\lambda \nu \mathbf{1} = \mu$.

Upon eliminating μ , we obtain the Lagrange dual of Equation 6:

$$P_1^* = P_2^*$$

/

$$egin{array}{c} \max
u \ ext{s.t.} \ \lambda \geq 0 \ 1 \ \lambda \geq 1 \ P \lambda \geq
u 1 \end{array}$$

5.5.8 Conclusion

This formulation shows that the Lagrange dual problem is equivalent to problem Equation 7. Given the feasibility of these linear programs, strong duality holds, meaning the optimal values of Equation 6 and Equation 7 are equal.

6 References

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