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A Sub-Additive DC Approach to the Complementarity Problem

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Abstract

In this article, we propose a new merit function based on sub-additive functions for solving a general complementarity problem. This leads to consider an optimization problem that is equivalent to the NCP. In the case of a concave NCP this optimization problem is a Difference of Convex (DC) program and we can therefore use DC Algorithm to locally solve it. We prove that in the case of a monotone NCP, it is sufficient to compute a stationary point of the optimization problem to get a solution of the complementarity problems. In the case of a general NCP, assuming that a DC decomposition of the complementarity problem is known, we propose a penalization technique to reformulate the optimization problem as a DC program. Numerical results on linear complementarity problems and absolute value equations show that our method is promising.

Keywords: complementarity problem - difference of convex - merit function - dc algorithm

AMS Subject Classification: 90C59 – 90C30 – 90C33 – 65K05 – 49M20

1 Introduction

We are interested in finding a solution of the non-linear complementarity problem, which consists in finding $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying

$$x \geq 0, F(x) \geq 0, x^T F(x) = 0, \quad (\text{NCP})$$

where $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. In the special case where F is an affine map, (NCP) is reduced to the linear complementarity problem (LCP). Unless explicitly specified no smoothness assumption on F is made unless continuity. The (NCP) is a feasibility and not an optimization problem. However, it is well-known that it is closely related with optimization problems. Indeed, optimality conditions of many optimization problems may be casted as an (NCP). Besides, many applications in economy, physics, chemistry consider equilibrium problems that are formulated as a complementarity problem see [5, 7] and references therein.

The family of methods to solve this problem can be divided in two: equation reformulation methods and merit function methods. In the former, the complementarity problem (NCP) is reformulated as an unconstrained (non-smooth) equation solved by a Newton-kind method or an unconstrained minimization problem depending on the assumptions on F , see [3, 4, 6, 13, 14, 20]. In the latter, the complementarity is ensured through a merit function reformulating (NCP) as an optimization problem, see [8, 9, 11, 16]. An extensive treatment of these methods and their extensions can be found in [7]. In the sequel, we focus on the merit function approach that is the most tractable option if we do not make any strong assumption on the problem.

A generic formulation of a complementarity problem reformulated as an optimization problem is given by

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \Theta(x) \text{ s.t. } x \geq 0, F(x) \geq 0, \quad (1)$$

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where $\Theta : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a merit function if it satisfies the following property: x solves (NCP) if and only if x is the global minimizer of the previous problem. In this sense, we say that the optimization problem is equivalent to the complementarity problem. If the set of solution of (NCP) is empty, then either the global optimal value of the objective function is positive or there is no global minima. It is to be noted that even so $F(x) = Mx + q$ the merit function is not convex in general. Thus, it is fundamental to consider merit functions with properties depending on the context and study the numerical methods used to solve the optimization problem (1). Due to the non-convexity, solving means finding a local minimum or at least a stationary point of (1).

Our aim in this article is to use the very efficient local theory designed for difference of convex (DC) functions by considering a new merit function that can be expressed as a sum of convex and concave functions. Local optimization approach for DC optimization and DC Algorithm (DCA) were introduced by Pham Dinh Tao in a preliminary form in the 80's [23] and extensively developed since then, see [21] for a review on this method. This approach has been widely used by many researchers, see a list of references on <http://www.lita.univ-lorraine.fr/lethi/index.php/dca.html>. This work is motivated by the fact that DCA have been successfully applied to many (smooth or non-smooth) large-scale non-convex programs in various domains of applied sciences. In a recent article [16], the authors present four formulations of the LCP as a DC optimization problem and show promising numerical results.

Motivated by the recent development of DC approaches to solve the complementarity problems, we propose a new merit function based on a family of smooth sub-additive functions that has been used in the literature in the context of sparse optimization [19] and absolute value equation [1], whose latter can be reformulated as an LCP.

One of our main result considering this new merit function is that it is sufficient to consider stationary points of the related optimization problem instead of global minima to recover the solution of a monotone NCP. In particular, this proves that our approach is not more difficult than equation based approach in advantageous cases.

Besides, we prove that the optimization problem (1) with our new merit function is a DC program if F is concave. This property permits us to use the local theory to solve DC program and in particular DCA. In the case of general NCP, where a DC composition of F is known, the optimization problem with our new merit function can be reformulated as a DC program through penalizations. We prove equivalence between local minimum of this penalized DC program and the solution of the NCP. Numerical results on linear complementarity problem and absolute value equation shows that the new method proposed here is promising compared to existing methods in the literature.

In Section 2, we introduce the new merit function that is proved to be theoretically sound for monotone NCP in Section 3. In Section 4, we show that this new formulation leads to a DC program that can be solved using DCA as explained in the Section 5. Finally, in Section 6, we give several numerical experiments to show the validity of our method compared to existing methods in the literature.

2 A New Merit Function for Complementarity Problems

In this section, we present a new reformulation of the complementarity problem by introducing a new merit function. Let us consider the merit function $\Theta : \mathbb{R}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$\Theta(x, F(x)) := \sum_{i=1}^n \theta(x_i) + \theta(F_i(x)) - \theta(x_i + F_i(x)), \quad (2)$$

where functions $\theta : \mathbb{R}_+^n \rightarrow [0, 1[$ are non-decreasing concave continuously differentiable functions such that $\theta(0) = 0$. Examples of these functions for $r > 0$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} (\theta^1) : \quad & \theta(x) = \frac{x}{x+r}, \\ (\theta^{w_1}) : \quad & \theta(x) = (1 - e^{-\frac{x}{r}})^k, \text{ for } k \leq 1, \\ (\theta^{\log}) : \quad & \theta(x) = \frac{\log(1+x)}{\log(1+x+r)}. \end{aligned}$$

For r sufficiently small, the functions θ approximate a step function. This observation already leads to interesting results in sparse optimization in [19] and applied in the context of complementarity problems in [1, 13].

We use the map Θ to reformulate the (NCP) as follows

$$\Theta(x, F(x)) = 0, \quad x \geq 0, \quad F(x) \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

The following lemma shows that the functions θ are sub-additive.

Lemma 2.1. $\forall x \geq 0, F(x) \geq 0$ we have

$$\theta(x) + \theta(F(x)) \geq \theta(x + F(x)).$$

Proof. Since θ is concave we obtain

$$\forall x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}, \forall t \in (0, 1), \quad t\theta(x) + (1-t)\theta(y) \leq \theta(tx + (1-t)y),$$

with equality if $t = 0$ or 1 and if $x = y$. For $y = 0$ and $\theta(0) = 0$ yields

$$\theta(tx) = \theta(tx + (1-t)0) \geq t\theta(x), \quad \forall t \in (0, 1),$$

with equality if $t = 0, 1$ or $x = 0$. Take $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and suppose that $x_i + F_i(x) \neq 0$ (the case $x_i = F_i(x) = 0$ stay true)

$$\begin{aligned} \theta(x_i) + \theta(F_i(x)) &= \theta\left((x_i + F_i(x)) \frac{x_i}{x_i + F_i(x)}\right) + \theta\left((x_i + F_i(x)) \frac{F_i(x)}{x_i + F_i(x)}\right), \\ &\geq \frac{x_i}{x_i + F_i(x)} \theta((x_i + F_i(x))) + \frac{F_i(x)}{x_i + F_i(x)} \theta((x_i + F_i(x))), \\ &= \theta(x_i + F_i(x)), \end{aligned}$$

with equality if and only if $x_i = 0$ or $F_i(x) = 0$. □ □

It is now straightforward to conclude that finding a global minimum of (3) is equivalent to solving (NCP).

Theorem 2.1. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^n, F(x) : \mathbb{R}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^n$. It holds that $\Theta(x, F(x)) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x^T F(x) = 0$.

Proof. By Lemma 2.1, Θ is a sum of non-negative terms, therefore Θ is equal to 0 if and only if all terms are zero. In addition, for a component i there is equality if and only if $x_i = 0$ or $F_i(x) = 0$. □ □

Using (2) to define a sub-additive merit function, we consider the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \inf_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \quad & \Theta(x, F(x)) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x \geq 0, F(x) \geq 0, \end{aligned} \quad (\text{P})$$

where \mathcal{X} is a bounded convex subset of \mathbb{R}^n . A box is a typical choice of \mathcal{X} . We denote \mathcal{F} the feasible set of (P) defined as

$$\mathcal{F} := \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid x \geq 0, F(x) \geq 0\}.$$

It is to be noted that the feasible set of (P) could be non-convex, unless the function F is assumed concave. The following result that is given without proof sum up the possible situations that may arise by solving (P) and their consequences to our initial aim that is solving (NCP).

Theorem 2.2. *Assume that $F : \mathbb{R}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a continuous function and that \mathcal{F} is non-empty. Then, (P) attains its extrema and exactly one of the following cases arises:*

- *The global optimal value of (P) is zero and the corresponding point is a solution of (NCP);*
- *The global optimal value of (P) is positive and (NCP) has no solution.*

3 Sub-Additive Reformulation for Monotone NCP

In this section, we prove that for a popular class of (NCP) finding a stationary point of (P) is actually sufficient to solve the initial problem. First, let us introduce the monotone NCP.

3.1 Monotone Complementarity Problems

We focus in this section on the (NCP) that are said monotone. We give classical definitions and characterization of this family of complementarity problems.

Definition 3.1. [7] *The function $F : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be a P_0 function iff*

$$\max_{i: x_i \neq y_i} (x - y)_i (F_i(x) - F_i(y)) \geq 0 \quad \forall x \neq y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

If this inequality is strict, F is said a P -function.

Assuming differentiability of the map F this definition reduces to a condition on the jacobian matrix. We extend the definition of a P_0 (resp. P) function to a P_0 (resp. P) matrix.

Definition 3.2. [7] *A matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is said to be a:*

- *P_0 matrix if all of its principal minors are nonnegative (the principal minor is the determinant of M_{ii} where $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$);*
- *P matrix if all of its principal minors are positive;*
- *positive semidefinite if $x^T M x \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and positive definite if $x^T M x > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n (x \neq 0)$ (with M is symmetric).*

P -matrix is a generalization of positive definite matrix, while P_0 -matrix is a generalization of positive semi-definite matrix. In the case of a smooth function F , then Proposition 3.5.10 of [7] gives the following characterization.

Proposition 3.1. *For a continuously differentiable function F , if its transpose jacobian $\nabla F(x)^T$ is a P -matrix then F is a P -function, whereas the transpose jacobian $\nabla F(x)^T$ is a P_0 -matrix if and only if F is a P_0 -function.*

Those family of NCP are particularly useful since they characterize the set of solution of the NCP. The following proposition is a sum up of results given in [7].

Proposition 3.2. *If F is a P -function, NCP has at most a solution.*

Among other interesting properties, we will show in Lemma 3.1 that some regularity may be obtained for the set \mathcal{F} for these family of (NCP).

3.2 Sufficient Optimality Condition for Montone NCP

We assume here that the function F is a continuously differentiable function. About non-linear optimization problems, a classical approach is to study stationary points of (P) using the classical Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions. Let $x^* \in \mathcal{F}$ be a stationary point of (P) if there exists $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}_+^n \times \mathbb{R}_+^n$ that satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla\Theta(x^*, F(x^*)) - \nabla F(x^*)^T \lambda - \mu &= 0, \\ \lambda^T F(x^*) &= 0, F(x^*) \geq 0, \lambda \geq 0, \\ x^{*,T} \mu &= 0, x^* \geq 0, \mu \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

It holds from non-linear programming theory that a local minimum of (P) that satisfies a constraint qualification is a stationary point of (P). Let us now give two examples of classical constraint qualification (CQ).

Definition 3.3. *We say that $x^* \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies*

- *Linear Independence CQ (LICQ) if the gradients*

$$\{\nabla F_i(x^*) \forall i \in \{i | F_i(x^*) = 0\}\} \cup \{\nabla x_i^* \forall i \in \{i | x_i^* = 0\}\}$$

are linearly independent.

- *Mangasarian-Fromowitz CQ (MFCQ) if the only solution to the equation*

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i \nabla x_i^* + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla F_i(x^*),$$

with for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ $\min(\lambda_i, F_i(x^)) = 0$ and $\min(\mu_i, x_i^*) = 0$ is the trivial solution. We say in this case that the gradients*

$$\{\nabla F_i(x^*) \forall i \in \{i | F_i(x^*) = 0\}\} \cup \{\nabla x_i^* \forall i \in \{i | x_i^* = 0\}\}$$

are positively linearly independent.

In the special case of a monotone NCP, that is an (NCP) with F a P-function, some constraint qualification holds for the set \mathcal{F} .

Lemma 3.1. *Let F be a continuously differentiable map from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n . Assume F is P-function. Then, MFCQ holds at any point $x^* \in \mathcal{F}$. Furthermore, if x^* satisfies $x^* + F(x^*) > 0$, then LICQ holds at any point $x^* \in \mathcal{F}$.*

The assumption that $x^* + F(x^*) > 0$ is also well-known in the literature of complementarity problems under the name of strict complementarity.

Proof. By definition, MFCQ holds at a point x^* if the gradients of the active constraints are positively-linearly independent and LICQ holds at a point x^* if the gradients of the constraints are linearly independent. First, let us prove that given $x^* \in \mathcal{F}$ if x^* satisfies $x^* + F(x^*) > 0$, then LICQ holds at x^* . Let $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ be such that

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^m \mu_i \nabla x_i^* + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \nabla F_i(x^*), \quad (4)$$

where $\mu_i = 0$ for $i \in I := \{i \in \{1, \dots, n\} | x_i^* > 0\}$, $\lambda_i = 0$ for $i \in J := \{i \in \{1, \dots, n\} | F_i(x^*) > 0\}$. Since x^* satisfies $x^* + F(x^*) > 0$, then (4) is combination of m gradients. We arrange the components of x and $F(x)$ such that $x_i F_i(x) = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $x_i > 0, F_i(x) > 0$ for $i = m + 1, \dots, n$, so we can rewrite (4) as

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_J & \nabla F_{J \times I}(x^*)^T \\ 0 & \nabla F_{I \times I}(x^*)^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_J \\ \lambda_I \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

By continuity of F it holds that the jacobian matrix of F is a P-matrix by Proposition 3.1 and in particular all its principal minor are non-singular matrices. By computing the Schur complement on the left-hand side it holds that the matrix is non-singular and so $\mu_J = \lambda_I = 0$. So, LICQ holds at x^* .

Consider the case where there exists an index i such that $x_i^* + F_i(x^*) = 0$. Obviously (4) may be a combination of at least $n + 1$ gradients and so, LICQ can not hold. However, we prove that MFCQ holds at x^* .

Let $SC := \{i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \mid x_i^* = F_i(x^*) = 0\}$ and assume that $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}_+^{2n}$. We can rewrite (4) as

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_{J \setminus SC} & \nabla F_{J \setminus SC \times SC}(x^*)^T & \nabla F_{J \setminus SC \times I \setminus SC}(x^*)^T \\ 0 & \nabla F_{SC \times SC}(x^*)^T & \nabla F_{SC \times I \setminus SC}(x^*)^T \\ 0 & \nabla F_{I \setminus SC \times SC}(x^*)^T & \nabla F_{I \setminus SC \times I \setminus SC}(x^*)^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{J \setminus SC} \\ \mu_{SC} + \lambda_{SC} \\ \lambda_{I \setminus SC} \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

The left-hand side is obviously non-singular since $\nabla F_{I+SC \times I+SC}(x^*)^T$ is non-singular. So, it follows that $\mu_{J \setminus SC} = \mu_{SC} + \lambda_{SC} = \lambda_{I \setminus SC} = 0$, which leads to $\mu_J = \lambda_I = 0$ by non-negativity of μ and λ . Thus, the gradients

$$\{\nabla F_i(x^*) \mid i \in \{i \mid F_i(x^*) = 0\}\} \cup \{\nabla x_i^* \mid i \in \{i \mid x_i^* = 0\}\}$$

are positively linearly independent and the result follows. \square \square

The previous lemma guarantees that any local minimum of (P) is a stationary point. The following theorem guarantees that computing a stationary point of (P) may be sufficient to solve (NCP).

Theorem 3.1. *Let F be a continuously differentiable P function. Assume that a solution of (NCP) exists. Then, any KKT point of (P) that satisfies the strict complementarity condition is a solution of (NCP).*

Proof. Let $x \in \mathcal{F}$ be a stationary point of (P). Thus, there exists $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \theta'(x) + \nabla F(x)^T \theta'(F(x)) - \theta'(x + F(x)) - \nabla F(x)^T \theta'(x + F(x)) - \nabla F(x)^T \lambda - \mu &= 0, \\ \lambda^T F(x) = 0, F(x) \geq 0, \lambda \geq 0, \\ x^T \mu = 0, x \geq 0, \mu \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

We show the result by contradiction. Assume that x is not a solution for (NCP) then there exists a set of indices J non-empty such that for all $i \in J$ it holds that $x_i > 0$ and $F_i(x) > 0$. Denote the sets $I_1 = \{j = 1, \dots, n \mid x_j = 0, F_j(x) > 0\}$, $I_2 = \{k = 1, \dots, n \mid x_k > 0, F_k(x) = 0\}$. By the strict complementarity assumption, it always holds that $I_1 \cup J \cup I_2 = \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Rewriting the previous equation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 0_{I_1} \\ 0_J \\ 0_{I_2} \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \theta'(0) \\ \theta'(x_J) \\ \theta'(x_{I_2}) \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \theta'(F_{I_1}(x)) \\ \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)) \\ \theta'(x_{I_2}) \end{pmatrix} + \nabla F(x)^T \begin{pmatrix} \theta'(F_{I_1}(x)) \\ \theta'(F_J(x)) \\ \theta'(0) \end{pmatrix} - \nabla F(x)^T \begin{pmatrix} \theta'(F_{I_1}(x)) \\ \theta'(F_J(x) + x_J) \\ \theta'(x_{I_2}) \end{pmatrix} \\ &\quad - \nabla F(x)^T \begin{pmatrix} 0_{I_1} \\ 0_J \\ \lambda_{I_2} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{I_1} \\ 0_J \\ 0_{I_2} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \theta'(0) - \theta'(F_{I_1}(x)) \\ \theta'(x_J) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \nabla F(x)^T \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)) \\ \theta'(0) - \theta'(x_{I_2}) - \lambda_{I_2} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{I_1} \\ 0_J \\ 0_{I_2} \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The equation on I_2 gives

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)(\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))) + \nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T(\theta'(0) - \theta'(x_{I_2}) - \lambda_{I_2}), \\ \nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T \lambda_{I_2} &= \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)^T(\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))) + \nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T(\theta'(0) - \theta'(x_{I_2})), \\ \lambda_{I_2} &= (\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T)^{-1} \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)^T(\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))) + \theta'(0) - \theta'(x_{I_2}). \end{aligned}$$

Existence of the inverse of the matrix $\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T$ is given by the jacobian matrix of F being a P-matrix.

The equation on J and replacing λ_{I_2} yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \theta'(x_J) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)) + \nabla F_{J \times J}(x)^T (\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))) \\ &+ \nabla F_{J \times I_2}(x)^T (\theta'(0) - \theta'(x_{I_2}) - \lambda_{I_2}) \\ 0 &= \theta'(x_J) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)), \\ &+ (\nabla F_{J \times J}(x) - \nabla F_{J \times I_2}(x)^T (\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T)^{-1} \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)^T) (\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))). \end{aligned}$$

The matrix $\nabla F_{J \times J}(x)^T - \nabla F_{J \times I_2}(x)^T (\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T)^{-1} \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)^T$ correspond of the Schur complement of the matrix $\nabla F_{I_2+J \times I_2+J}^T$, whose determinant is positive by the P-function assumption. Since the determinant of $\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T$ is also positive, it holds that the Schur complement is also a P-matrix. It follows that $(\nabla F_{J \times J}(x)^T - \nabla F_{J \times I_2}(x)^T (\nabla F_{I_2 \times I_2}(x)^T)^{-1} \nabla F_{I_2 \times J}(x)^T) (\theta'(F_J(x)) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x)))$ is positive.

Furthermore by concavity of θ it holds that $\theta'(x_J) - \theta'(x_J + F_J(x))$ is also positive. Thus, the last equation can not hold. This is a contradiction with the existence of the set J . So, the result follows. $\square \square$

We present here a counter-example to show that we can not reduce the P-function assumption to P_0 .

Example 3.1. Let $F(x) = Mx + q$ such that

$$q = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$a = -b \frac{\theta'(1) - \theta'(2)}{\theta'(2) - \theta'(3)} \text{ and } b = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\theta'(1) - \theta'(2)}{\theta'(2) - \theta'(3)}}.$$

Then, $x^* = (1, 1, 1)^T$ is a stationary point of (P). However, it is not a solution of the (NCP).

We now present another example where the matrix is not a P-matrix but a symmetric negative definite.

Example 3.2. Let $F(x) = Mx + q$ such that

$$q = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In this case, we have

$$\Theta(x, F(x)) = \theta(x_1) + \theta(x_2) + \theta(-x_1 + 2) + \theta(-x_2 + 2) - \theta(2) - \theta(2).$$

Computing the gradient of the objective function equal to zero yields

$$\begin{aligned} \theta'(x_1) - \theta'(-x_1 + 2) &= 0, \\ \theta'(x_2) - \theta'(-x_2 + 2) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The point $x^* = (1, 1)^T$ satisfies $\nabla \Theta(x^*, F(x^*)) = 0$ and therefore is a stationary point of (P). However, this point is not a solution of (NCP).

An open question to this fundamental result is the possibility to remove the strict complementarity assumption. We left this question to future research.

4 A DC Formulation of the Sub-Additive Merit Function for the NCP

A function f is called a DC (difference of convex) function if it can be expressed as a difference of convex functions $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ so that

$$f = g - h.$$

The definition remains true if g and h are concave functions. A so-called DC program is that of minimizing a DC function over a convex set. A DC function has infinitely many decomposition g, h but the numerical resolution may be sensitive to this choice.

We split this section in two parts. First, we consider the formulation (P) in the case where F is a concave function. Second, we focus on the general case where we only assume that a DC decomposition of the function F is known.

4.1 Concave NCP

In this section, we show that if F is a concave function the sub-additive function (2) is a DC function and the optimization problem (P) is a DC program. First, let us prove a simple lemma that shows that the composition of concave functions does not alter the concavity.

Lemma 4.1. *Let f be a concave function on \mathbb{R}^n , and let ϕ be a concave function on \mathbb{R}^n , which is non-decreasing. Then, $h(x) = \phi(f(x))$ is a concave function.*

Proof. For x and y in \mathbb{R}^n and $0 < \lambda < 1$, we have

$$f((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) \geq (1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y).$$

Applying ϕ to both side of the inequality, we get

$$h((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) \geq \phi((1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y)).$$

By concavity of the function ϕ it follows

$$h((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) \geq \phi((1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y)) \geq (1 - \lambda)h(x) + \lambda h(y).$$

Thus, h is concave. □

We now prove that the objective function of (P) is a DC function.

Theorem 4.1. *Let F be a concave function on \mathbb{R}_+^n . Then, (P) is a DC programming problem.*

Proof. It is clear by concavity hypothesis on F that the set of constraints of (P) is a convex set. Now, let us verify that the function $\Theta(x, F(x))$ is a DC function with

$$g(x) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \theta(x_i + F_i(x)) \text{ and } h(x) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \theta(x_i) + \theta(F_i(x)).$$

Since, F is a concave function and θ is a non-decreasing concave function we can apply Lemma 4.1 to conclude that g and h are both convex. □

It is to be noted that the hypothesis to take F concave is not so restrictive since it includes the large family of LCPs.

4.2 General NCP

In the special case where a DC decomposition of the function F is known we can reformulate (P) as a DC program. Given two convex functions $g, h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$F(x) = g(x) - h(x),$$

we can reformulate (P) as

$$\begin{aligned} & \inf_{x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \Theta(x, y) \\ & \text{s.t. } x \geq 0, y \in [0, \sup\{F(x) : x \geq 0\}], \\ & \quad y = F(x). \end{aligned}$$

Using the fact that a DC decomposition of F is known the previous problem becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \inf_{x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \Theta(x, y) \\ & \text{s.t. } x \geq 0, y \in [0, \sup\{F(x) : x \geq 0\}], \\ & \quad y = g(x) - h(x). \end{aligned}$$

Even so we use a DC decomposition of F and the objective function is a DC function, the set of constraints in the previous formulation remains non-convex. To tackle this problem, we try to isolate the non-convexity using slack variables and then penalize the remaining non-convex constraints. Therefore, we consider the following penalized problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \inf_{x, y, t \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x, y, t) := \Theta(x, y) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T(t - y - h(x)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T(t - g(x)) \\ & \text{s.t. } (x, y, t) \in C, \\ & \quad t \geq g(x), t - h(x) \geq y, \end{aligned} \tag{Pen}$$

where $C := \mathbb{R}_+^n \times \mathbb{R}_+^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$. The link between the initial problem (P) and the penalized problem (Pen) will be studied in Theorem 4.3 and 4.4. First, it is straightforward to see that the penalized problem is a DC program.

Theorem 4.2. *Given convex functions $g, h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, (Pen) is a DC program.*

Proof. We already showed in Theorem 4.1 that the function $\Theta(x, F(x))$ is a DC function if F is a concave function. However, it is to be noted here that we consider $\Theta(x, y)$, which is therefore a DC function.

Besides by convexity of the functions g and h it follows that the penalty terms in the objective function are concave. Thus, the objective function of (Pen) is a DC function.

A similar argument gives that the constraints of (Pen) are convex constraints. This completes the proof. \square \square

We now consider the link between the penalized DC program (Pen) and the original problem (P).

Lemma 4.2. *Assume that \mathcal{F} is non-empty. Let (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) be a solution of (Pen) and \bar{x} be a feasible point of (P), i.e. $\bar{x} \in \mathcal{F}$. Then, for all non-negative τ it holds that*

$$0 \leq \Psi(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau) \leq \Theta(\bar{x}, F(\bar{x})).$$

Proof. Since $\bar{x} \in \mathcal{F}$, it holds that $(\bar{x}, F(\bar{x}), g(\bar{x}))$ is a feasible point for (Pen). Thus, by definition of the triple (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) we have

$$\Psi(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau) \leq \Theta(\bar{x}, F(\bar{x})) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T(g(\bar{x}) - F(\bar{x}) - h(\bar{x})) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T(g(\bar{x}) - g(\bar{x})),$$

and since $F(\bar{x}) = g(\bar{x}) - h(\bar{x})$ we get

$$\Psi(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau) \leq \Theta(\bar{x}, F(\bar{x})).$$

The non-negativity of the left hand-side is a consequence of Lemma 2.1 and that (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) is feasible for (Pen). This completes the proof. \square

A direct consequence of this lemma is equivalence of global minimum between the penalized DC program (Pen) and the original problem (P).

Theorem 4.3. *Assume that (NCP) has a bounded solution. Then, x^* is a global solution (P) if and only x^* is global solution of (Pen).*

Proof. Let x^* be a solution of (P). Such solution exists, since we assume that (NCP) has at least one bounded solution. Then, the triple $(x^*, F(x^*), g(x^*))$ is feasible for (Pen) and satisfies

$$\Theta(x^*, F(x^*)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (g(x^*) - F(x^*) - h(x^*)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (g(x^*) - g(x^*)) = 0,$$

by Theorem 2.1. This proves one side of the equivalence.

Now, let x_τ be a global solution (Pen). Then, by Lemma 4.2 we have

$$0 \leq \Theta(x_\tau, y_\tau) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - y_\tau - h(x_\tau)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - g(x_\tau)) \leq \Theta(\bar{x}, F(\bar{x})),$$

for all $\bar{x} \in \mathcal{F}$. In particular, consider \bar{x} to be solution of (NCP), then $\bar{x} \in \mathcal{F}$ and by Theorem 2.1 we get

$$0 = \Theta(x_\tau, y_\tau) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - y_\tau - h(x_\tau)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - g(x_\tau)).$$

Noticing that the right hand-side is sum of positive terms yields $0 = \Theta(x_\tau, y_\tau), y_\tau = F(x_\tau)$ and $t_\tau = g(x_\tau)$. By Theorem 2.1 it follows that x_τ is a solution of (NCP) and also a solution of (P). This completes the proof. \square

We now focus on local minimum of the penalized formulation. We notice, as proved in the following lemma, that the function Φ is non-increasing with respect to the second variable.

Lemma 4.3. *Let $\tau > \theta'(0)$ and $x \geq 0$. Then, the function $y \in \mathbb{R} \mapsto \theta(y) - \theta(x+y) + \tau y$ is a non-increasing function.*

Proof. Computing the derivative with respect to y of the function $y \in \mathbb{R}_+ \mapsto \theta(y) - \theta(x+y) + \tau y$ gives

$$\theta'(y) - \theta'(x+y) - \tau.$$

However, this expression is negative since the functions θ are non-increasing and by concavity $\theta'(y) \leq \theta'(0) < \tau$. \square

The following result consider the case of local optimality and show that computing a local minimum of the penalized formulation is sufficient to find a local minimum of the initial formulation.

Theorem 4.4. *Let $\tau > \theta'(0)$. Any local minimum of (Pen) is a local minimum of (P).*

Proof. Let (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) be a local minimum of (Pen), i.e. there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all (x, y, t) in the ball of radius δ centered in (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) , denoted $\mathcal{B}_\delta(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau)$, it holds that

$$\Psi(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau) \leq \Psi(x, y, t).$$

By construction, it is clear that any feasible point of the problem (Pen) is also feasible for the problem (P). Thus, it follows that if (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) satisfies

$$t_\tau = g(x_\tau) \text{ and } y_\tau = g(x_\tau) - h(x_\tau), \tag{5}$$

then it is also a local minimum of (P).

Assume by contradiction that expression in (5) is wrong. In other words there exists sets $T_t \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $T_y \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$ such that for all $i \in T_t$ and all $j \in T_y$ we have

$$t_{\tau,i} > g_i(x_\tau) \text{ and } y_{\tau,j} < t_{\tau,j} - h_j(x_\tau). \quad (6)$$

Let us consider a point $(x_\tau, \bar{y}, \bar{t})$ such that

$$\bar{t} := \begin{cases} t_{\tau,i} - \bar{\delta}/2, & \text{if } i \in T_t, \\ t_{\tau,i}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and

$$\bar{y} := \begin{cases} y_{\tau,j} + \bar{\delta}/2, & \text{if } j \in T_y, \\ y_{\tau,j}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\bar{\delta}$ is chosen such that (6) still holds at $(x_\tau, \bar{y}, \bar{t})$.

Obviously, this new point satisfies $(x_\tau, \bar{y}, \bar{t}) \in \mathcal{B}_\delta(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau)$ and so the local optimality of (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x_\tau, y_\tau, t_\tau) &\leq \Psi(x_\tau, \bar{y}, \bar{t}), \\ \Theta(x_\tau, y_\tau) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - y_\tau - h(x_\tau)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - g(x_\tau)) &\leq \Theta(x_\tau, \bar{y}) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (\bar{t} - \bar{y} - h(x_\tau)) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (\bar{t} - g(x_\tau)), \\ \Theta(x_\tau, y_\tau) - \Theta(x_\tau, \bar{y}) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T (t_\tau - y_\tau) - \tau \mathbf{e}^T (\bar{t} - \bar{y}) + \tau \mathbf{e}^T t_\tau - \tau \mathbf{e}^T \bar{t} &\leq 0, \\ \sum_{j \in T_j} \theta(y_{\tau,j}) - \theta(\bar{y}_j) - \theta(x_{\tau,j} + y_{\tau,j}) + \theta(x_{\tau,j} + \bar{y}_j) + \tau(\bar{y}_j - y_{\tau,j}) + 2\tau \sum_{i \in T_t} t_{\tau,i} - \bar{t}_i &\leq 0, \\ \sum_{j \in T_j} \theta(y_{\tau,j}) - \theta(\bar{y}_j) - \theta(x_{\tau,j} + y_{\tau,j}) + \theta(x_{\tau,j} + \bar{y}_j) + \tau(\bar{y}_j - y_{\tau,j}) + 2\tau \sum_{i \in T_t} \tau \bar{\delta}/2 &\leq 0. \end{aligned}$$

This however leads to a contradiction since $\tau, \delta > 0$ and that for all $j \in T_j$

$$\theta(y_{\tau,j}) - \theta(\bar{y}_j) - \theta(x_{\tau,j} + y_{\tau,j}) + \theta(x_{\tau,j} + \bar{y}_j) + \tau(\bar{y}_j - y_{\tau,j}) > 0,$$

since the function $y \mapsto \theta(y) - \theta(x+y) + \tau y$ is non-increasing for all $x, y \geq 0$ and $\tau > \theta'(0)$ by Lemma 4.3. It follows that $T_t = \emptyset$ and $T_y = \emptyset$. Thus, (x_τ, y_τ, t_τ) satisfies (5) and so it is a local minimum of (P). $\square \square$

5 Difference of Convex Programming

In this section, we introduce some fundamental properties of a DC program and an algorithm to tackle this problem so-called DCA. For a complete study on this subject, the readers are referred to [2, 21, 22] and references herein.

5.1 DC Algorithm

Let us remind the definition of a DC program. Given two proper lower semi-continuous convex functions \bar{g}, h , a DC program consists in finding $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} g(x) - h(x). \quad (7)$$

In general this unconstrained formulation encompasses convex constraints by considering $g(x) = g_0(x) + \mathcal{X}_C(x)$, where g_0 is a proper lower semi-continuous convex function, C a closed convex set and $\mathcal{X}_C(x)$ is the convex indicator function $\mathcal{X}_C(x) = \{0 \text{ if } x \in C, +\infty \text{ if } x \notin C\}$.

Recall that for a lower semi-continuous convex function ψ on \mathbb{R}^n and $\bar{x} \in \text{dom}(\psi) := \{x \mid \psi(x) < \infty\}$, the subdifferential of ψ at \bar{x} is given by

$$\partial\psi(\bar{x}) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \psi(x) \geq \psi(\bar{x}) + (x - \bar{x})^T y, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

In the special case, where ψ is differentiable function, the subdifferential is reduced to a singleton and $\partial\psi(\bar{x}) = \nabla\psi(\bar{x})$. As an example the subdifferential of the convex indicator function for $x \in C$ is given as

$$\begin{aligned} \partial\mathcal{X}_C(x) &= \begin{cases} \{0\}, & \forall x \in \text{int}(C), \\ \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d^T x \leq 0\}, & \text{if } x \in \text{bd}(C) \end{cases} \\ &= \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d^T s \leq 0, \forall s \in C\} := \mathcal{N}_C(x). \end{aligned}$$

The notation $\mathcal{N}_C(x)$ stands for the normal cone of the set C at x .

The necessary local optimality condition for a DC program is

$$\partial h(x^*) \subset \partial g(x^*).$$

We say that x^* satisfies the generalized Kuhn-Tucker condition, if it satisfies

$$\partial h(x^*) \cap \partial g(x^*) \neq \emptyset.$$

We also call such a point a critical point.

DCA is an algorithm that is based on a primal-dual formulation of (7). Let the conjugate function of g be defined as

$$g^*(y) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} x^T y - g(x).$$

Then, the dual of (7) is defined as

$$\inf_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} h^*(y) - g^*(y). \quad (8)$$

There is no duality gap as proven in [2]. Furthermore, the following result holds true from [2, 21, 22] gives a characterisation of the solutions of both problems. Let P_{dc} (resp. D_{dc}) denotes the set of solution of the primal DC program (7) (resp. the dual DC program (8))

Proposition 5.1. *Given g, h two proper lower semi-continuous convex functions. It holds true that*

$$[\cup_{y^* \in D_{dc}} \partial g^*(y^*)] \subset P_{dc}$$

and

$$[\cup_{x^* \in P_{dc}} \partial h(x^*)] \subset D_{dc}.$$

Based on local optimality conditions and duality in DCA, the idea of DCA is quite simple: each iteration k of DCA approximates the concave part $-h$ by its affine majorization (that corresponds to taking $y^k \in \partial h(x^k)$) and minimizes the resulting convex function (that is equivalent to compute $x^{k+1} \in \partial g^*(y^k)$). The algorithm is stated explicitly in Algorithm 1.

```

1  $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  an initial point;
2  $k := 0$  ;
3 while  $k=0$  or  $\|x^k - x^{k-1}\|_\infty > \epsilon$  do
4    $y^k \in \partial h(x^k)$  ;
5    $x^{k+1} \in \arg \min\{g(x) - h(x^k) - (x - x^k)^T y^k : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$  ;
6    $k := k + 1$ ;

```

Algorithm 1: Generic DCA

Convergence properties and its theoretical basis has been analysed in [2, 21, 22]. We remind here the fundamental facts. DCA is a descent method without line search, thus the sequence $\{g(x^k) - h(x^k)\}$ is a decreasing sequence. So, if the optimal value of (7) is finite, then the sequence $\{x^k\}$ converges. If $g(x^k) - h(x^k) = g(x^{k+1}) - h(x^{k+1})$ or equivalently $x^k = x^{k+1}$ then x^k is a critical point of $g - h$ and the algorithm terminate at iteration k .

5.2 DCA For Concave NCP

We now make the link between DCA and Theorem 3.1. We remind that this theorem proves that a stationary point of (P) with F a concave differentiable P-function is the solution of the (NCP) assuming such a solution exists. The following sequence of results states that under classical assumptions DCA converges to a stationary point of (P).

Lemma 5.1. *Let x^* be a critical point of (7), where we assume that $\bar{g}(x) = g(x) + \xi_C$ with g, h are differentiable lower semi-continuous convex functions and C is a closed convex set. It holds true that*

$$0 \in \nabla g(x^*) + \mathcal{N}_C(x^*) - \nabla h(x^*),$$

where \mathcal{N} is the normal cone of C at x^* .

Proof. x^* is assumed to be a critical point of (7), i.e.

$$0 \in \partial \bar{g}(x^*) - \partial h(x^*).$$

Now, by construction of \bar{g} we have

$$0 \in \partial g(x^*) + \mathcal{N}_C(x^*) - \partial h(x^*).$$

The result follows by differentiability assumption on g and h . □ □

Lemma 5.2. *Let x^* be a critical point of (7), where we assume that $\bar{g}(x) = g(x) + \xi_C$ with g, h are differentiable lower semi-continuous convex functions and C is a closed convex set. Furthermore, assume that*

$$\mathcal{N}_C(x^*) = \mathcal{L}^\circ(x^*), \tag{9}$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}^\circ(x^*) := \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid d = -\nabla F(x^*)^T \lambda - \mu \text{ with } \min(F(x^*), \lambda) = 0, \min(x^*, \mu) = 0\}.$$

Then, x^* is stationary point of (P).

The cone $\mathcal{L}^\circ(x^*)$ is sometimes called the polar cone of the linearised cone in the literature related to Karush-Kuhn Tucker conditions, while the condition (9) refers to the Guignard constraint qualification that is known to be the weakest constraint qualification in non-linear programming.

Proof. In Theorem 3.1, we define a stationary point of (P) as a point \bar{x} such that there exists Lagrange multipliers $(\lambda, \mu) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ that satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla g(x^*) - \nabla h(x^*) - \nabla F(x^*)^T \lambda - \mu &= 0 \\ \lambda^T F(x^*) = 0, F(x^*) \geq 0, \lambda \geq 0 \\ (x^*)^T \mu = 0, x^* \geq 0, \mu \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

This can be equivalently written as

$$0 \in \nabla g(x^*) - \nabla h(x^*) + \mathcal{L}^\circ(x^*).$$

Now, using assumption (9) we get

$$0 \in \nabla g(x^*) - \nabla h(x^*) + \mathcal{N}_C(x^*).$$

However, this condition is satisfied by any critical point x^* according to Lemma 5.1. □ □

We can now conclude by the following strong result for DC algorithm applied to P, which has been shown to be a DC program in Theorem 4.1.

Theorem 5.1. *Let F be a continuously differentiable concave P-function. Assume that a solution of (NCP) exists. Let $\{x^k\}$ be a sequence generated by Algorithm 1 on P. Then, any limit point, up to a subsequence, of $\{x^k\}$ that satisfies the strict complementarity condition is a solution of (NCP).*

Proof. Assuming that F is a P-function and that there exists a solution to (NCP) yields that this solution is unique. Thus, P attains its minimum, whose optimal value is 0.

The optimal value is bounded and the sequence $\{g(x^k) - h(x^k)\}$ is a decreasing sequence, so Algorithm 1 converges to a critical point. Applying Lemma 5.2, we get that the limit point is also a stationary point of P. Indeed, we have proved in Lemma 3.1 that some constraint qualification holds at any feasible point of the problem, which is known to imply (9).

The result follows by applying Theorem 3.1. □ □

6 Numerics

Through this article, we studied two DC approaches to tackle the NCP. In this section, we present three different experiments applying DCA on the DC formulations that have been introduced in the previous sections, equation (P) for concave NCP and the penalized formulation (Pen) for general NCP.

First, we present a comparison on a list of LCP problems with other DC approaches that have been suggested recently in [16]. Then, we study an adaptation of our approach to the absolute value equation and present a comparison of existing methods as in [1]. These two family of problems belong to the class of concave NCP. Finally, we give an example of the penalization technique from Section 4.2 on a non-concave NCP.

The algorithms are coded in *Matlab 2014b* on a standard laptop. The convex sub-problems of DCA, Algorithm 1, are solved using *CVX* [12].

6.1 Comparisons with DC Methods for LCP

We compare our method denoted TDC with other DC approaches developed in [16] denoted as in the paper DCA1, DCA2, DCA3 and DCA4 with respective initial points $x = 0$ for DCA1 and DCA2, and $x = (0, b)$ for DCA3 and DCA4. DCA1 and DCA4 are iterative methods with quadratic convex sub-problems that we solve using *CVX*. DCA2 is an iterative method with linear sub-problems that we solve using *linprog*. DCA3 is an iterative method with standard operations. The initial point for TDC is set here at $x = 0$. We use the function $\theta^1 = t/(t + 1)$ to define the merit function in TDC.

We run our comparison on a set of 25 problems that are described in Appendix A. This set includes the original problems presented in [16] and some given in [10]. Instances LCP10 to LCP14 are studied for dimensions 300, 500 and 1000. The precision is set as $\epsilon = 10^{-5}$.

The comparative results are given in Table 1 and Table 2. We are interested in the following aspects: the residuals, computed as $\max(x^T(Mx + q), \|\min(x, 0)\|_\infty, \|\min(Mx + q, 0)\|_\infty)$, the number of iterations and the time. No attempt has been made to optimize the performance of the algorithm, since our aim is to validate our approach and run a preliminary comparison with other methods. Thus, our main concern is focus on the residuals and in particular on the number of solved problems.

Table 1 shows that the method TDC is the only one to solve all the problems. Although, DCA1 and DCA4 only fail on respectively 2 (LCP2, LCP3) and 5 problems (LCP6, LCP8, LCP14), although LCP6 is almost solved using DCA4. These experiments already confirm the validity of our approach.

In Table 2, we expect DCA1 and DCA4 to be faster than TDC, since they only solved convex quadratic sub-problems compared to convex problems. This is confirmed by the results. However, for a large part of the problems, TDC remains in the same order of time than the others methods. For 4 instances (LCP6 and the three LCP10), TDC spend significantly less time than DCA4.

Pb.	TDC	DCA1	DCA2	DCA3	DCA4
LCP0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
LCP1	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.010928	0.000000
LCP2	0.000000	3.000000	1.191969	0.183023	0.000000
LCP3	0.000000	2.000000	14056.152537	1.000000	0.000000
LCP4	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
LCP5	0.000000	0.000000	30.422537	0.005219	0.000000
LCP6	0.000000	0.000000	453.572844	0.205609	0.000014
LCP7	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
LCP8	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000173
LCP9	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
LCP10	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.996569	0.000000
LCP10	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.997942	0.000000
LCP10	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.998971	0.000004
LCP11	0.000000	0.000000	2136417.272448	0.000655	0.000000
LCP11	0.000000	0.000001	3567004.210504	0.000489	0.000000
LCP11	0.000000	0.000000	7143507.495324	0.000339	0.000000
LCP12	0.000000	0.000000	3620054.331657	0.001033	0.000000
LCP12	0.000000	0.000000	6014566.787304	0.000791	0.000000
LCP12	0.000000	0.000000	12000859.009675	0.000571	0.000000
LCP13	0.000000	0.000000	41406.616317	0.742913	0.000000
LCP13	0.000000	0.000000	51818.790221	0.857770	0.000000
LCP13	0.000000	0.000000	53590.477924	0.938882	0.000002
LCP14	0.000000	0.000000	3457018.895431	0.997783	0.007906
LCP14	0.000000	0.000009	5431724.049730	0.999193	0.012113
LCP14	0.000000	0.000004	11314010.430384	0.999793	0.017590

Table 1: Comparison on the residuals $\max(x^T(Mx + q), \|\min(x, 0)\|_\infty, \|\min(Mx + q, 0)\|_\infty)$ of five DC methods.

Besides, it is interesting to note that for most of the instances (22/25), TDC requires only one iteration. The three remaining problems seem to be difficult, since it is LCP2 and LCP3, the two failures of DCA1, and LCP6, which is only approximately solved by DCA4 with 24 iterations.

All in all, these preliminary results are very encouraging. Further research should explore time optimization and instances with very large dimension.

6.2 Application to Absolute Value Equation and Comparison

In [1], the authors propose a smoothing technique based on a complementarity reformulation of the absolute value equation, defined as

$$Ax - |x| = b \quad (10)$$

with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

In particular, their motivation was to solve the absolute value equation without any assumption on the data except existence of at least one solution. This is the same motivation as in this article. Using the same technique as in [1], (10) can be casted as the following complementarity problem

$$A(x^+ - x^-) - (x^+ + x^-) = b, \quad 0 \leq x^- \perp x^+ \geq 0. \quad (11)$$

Now, applying the technique proposed in this article yields to consider the following sub-additive regularized

Pb.	TDC	DCA1	DCA2	DCA3	DCA4
LCP0	1 (4.310494)	0 (0.000636)	1 (2.255981)	1 (0.000052)	1 (0.655963)
LCP1	1 (0.087655)	1 (0.077509)	1 (0.016695)	116 (0.001562)	1 (0.071924)
LCP2	9 (0.981270)	2 (0.150380)	2 (0.009943)	1057 (0.012527)	4 (0.366921)
LCP3	18 (1.828030)	2 (0.162421)	2 (0.010436)	1002 (0.012531)	11 (1.041105)
LCP4	1 (0.104623)	0 (0.000037)	1 (0.012372)	1 (0.000063)	1 (0.093485)
LCP5	1 (0.098558)	1 (0.090425)	2 (0.073538)	46 (0.000611)	1 (0.076413)
LCP6	2 (0.188896)	1 (0.079031)	2 (0.010363)	18498 (0.223561)	24 (2.416563)
LCP7	1 (0.129127)	0 (0.000028)	1 (0.006391)	1 (0.000036)	1 (0.142373)
LCP8	1 (0.098097)	0 (0.000024)	1 (0.005906)	1 (0.000038)	3 (0.375995)
LCP9	1 (0.118442)	0 (0.000027)	1 (0.008533)	1 (0.000061)	1 (0.121109)
LCP10	1 (2.032424)	1 (0.782662)	1 (0.658506)	3 (0.000803)	1 (6.102593)
LCP10	1 (6.511099)	1 (1.754187)	1 (2.801324)	3 (0.004826)	1 (31.286924)
LCP10	1 (49.815355)	1 (8.815220)	1 (24.645624)	3 (0.020579)	1 (426.055509)
LCP11	1 (0.127772)	1 (0.151737)	2 (0.036948)	101 (0.024243)	1 (0.121978)
LCP11	1 (0.150208)	1 (0.109892)	2 (0.064879)	105 (0.158833)	1 (0.140689)
LCP11	1 (0.216863)	1 (0.162223)	2 (1.620359)	110 (0.721783)	1 (0.222982)
LCP12	1 (0.125809)	1 (0.104318)	2 (0.026417)	232 (0.042913)	1 (0.119623)
LCP12	1 (0.130139)	1 (0.117876)	2 (0.061030)	241 (0.396976)	1 (0.128972)
LCP12	1 (0.202222)	1 (0.158284)	2 (1.618803)	252 (1.711475)	1 (0.209815)
LCP13	1 (2.881841)	1 (0.249691)	2 (0.489375)	12456 (2.689871)	1 (1.258522)
LCP13	1 (15.979708)	1 (0.744162)	2 (2.049274)	8376 (12.453357)	1 (7.303410)
LCP13	1 (211.015326)	1 (3.918635)	2 (5.199419)	5346 (34.129436)	1 (74.023011)
LCP14	1 (0.137329)	1 (0.136163)	2 (0.028150)	20000 (5.148445)	3 (0.471519)
LCP14	1 (0.192593)	1 (0.150660)	2 (0.092064)	20000 (32.703992)	3 (0.583343)
LCP14	1 (0.235936)	1 (0.217084)	2 (1.619427)	20000 (126.621461)	3 (0.889027)

Table 2: Comparison on the number of iterations and time (in parenthesis) in seconds of five DC methods.

formulation

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min_{(x^-, x^+) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} \Theta(x^-, x^+) \\
& \text{s.t. } A(x^+ - x^-) - (x^+ + x^-) = b, \\
& \quad (x^-, x^+) \geq 0.
\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Then, we can solve (10) using DC approach discussed earlier on the problem (12).

The following heuristic mentioned in [1] can be rather useful to accelerate convergence and assure a good precision when we are close to the solution. After finding the current point x^k we solve if possible the linear system

$$(A - \text{diag}(\delta(x^k)))z = b. \tag{13}$$

If x solves (10), then we solved (10) with the same precision as we solved the linear system. However, if x does not solve (10), we continue the iteration in r with x^k . This idea is similar to compute a Newton iteration.

We generate for several n and several values of the parameters one hundred instances of the problem following [17]:

”Choose a random A from a uniform distribution on $[-10, 10]$, then choose a random x from a uniform distribution on $[-1, 1]$ and set $b = Ax - |x|$.”

The difficulty here relies on the fact that the problem may not be uniquely solvable and thus quite hard to solve. The precision is set as 10^{-6} . We compare 4 methods tailored for general absolute value equations:

- TDC-AVE, which is the DCA on (12) with $\theta(t) = t/(t + 0.1)$;
- TAVE method from [1];
- concave minimization method CMM from [17];
- successive linear programming method LPM from [18].

The initial point used for TDC-AVE is obtained by solving the following linear program:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{(x^+, x^-) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n} \quad & x^+ + x^- \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x^+ \geq 0, x^- \geq 0, A(x^+ - x^-) - (x^+ + x^-) = b. \end{aligned}$$

This initial point was already proposed in [1].

Due to the potential difficulty of the equation, we focus on the number of unsolved problems. We do not include any Newton-kind method in our comparison, since they are not applicable without assumptions on A .

n	TDC-AVE	TAVE	CMM	LPM (LAVE)
32	0	0	9	7
64	0	3	8	13
128	1	8	10	13
256	0	8	11	11
512	0	11	8	10
1024	0	16	7	9

Table 3: Comparison on the number of unsolved problem for 100 hundreds randomly generated AVE of size n .

n	TDC-AVE ite.(time)	TAVE ite.(time)	CMM ite.(time)	LPM ite.(time)
32	204 (36.9269)	306(0.5783)	485(1.8362)	248 (0.7955)
64	134(32.9252)	491(2.7602)	458(2.9125)	342(2.5223)
128	207 (108.1083)	841(20.9437)	568(19.0521)	409 (17.0269)
256	143 (358.7079)	1129 (361.3884)	595 (182.7998)	445 (182.0419)
512	127 (2025.1)	1469 (3712.2)	499 (1462.6)	400 (1214.2)
1024	111 (18587)	1993 (37356)	479 (11513)	452 (13565)

Table 4: Comparison on the number of iterations and time in seconds for 100 hundreds randomly generated AVE of size n .

This confirms the validity of our algorithm, since TDC-AVE solves most of the problem in each case (1 failure over 600 instances) and improves significantly the existing methods.

For now, the obvious drawback of this approach is that it is more computationally difficult, since we solve at each step a convex program instead of a linear program. However, it is to be noted that when the dimension grows the gap is reduced. Although, it was not our main goal in this article and we left this for further research.

6.3 A Numerical Example of DC-Penalization on a General NCP

In this section, we use the theoretical analysis derived in Section 4.2 to solve the NCP. Let $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

We proposed in Theorem 4.2 a DC program, which can be interpreted as a penalization of the formulation of the NCP using the sub-additive merit function, (P). The technique used here is to apply DC Algorithm presented in the previous section to the problem (Pen). This approach is only a heuristic, although Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 4.4 tend to give the intuition that it should be a good one.

In order to validate our approach, we report the result of this approach to an example from [10] and initial proposed in [15], which consider the NCP with

$$F(x) = \begin{pmatrix} 3x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2 + x_3 + 3x_4 - 6 \\ 2x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_1 + 10x_3 + 2x_4 - 2 \\ 3x_1^2 + x_1x_2 + 2x_2^2 + 2x_3 + 9x_4 - 9 \\ x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 + 2x_3 + 3x_4 - 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Two solutions are known: $x^* = (\sqrt{6}/2, 0, 0, 0.5)$ and $\bar{x} = (1, 0, 3, 0)$. The difficulty in solving this problem arises when a Newton-type method is used, since the LCP formed by linearizing F around $x = 0$ has no solution.

Note that all the components of F are convex functions, and so a trivial DC decomposition of F is given by

$$F(x) = g(x) - h(x), \text{ with } g(x) = F(x) \text{ and } h(x) = 0.$$

In a similar way as in the previous numerical tests, the convex problems are solved using CVX in Matlab. We choose five random initial points x_0 from a uniform distribution on $[-1, 1]$, we take $\tau_0 = \tau_1 = 1/(r + 1)$, $r = 0.1$ and the precision $\epsilon = 1e - 5$. Results are given in Table 5, where we reported the complementarity ($x^T F(x)$), the solution obtained (sol), the smallest component of F at the solution, the number of iterations (nb-iter), the distance between y and $F(x)$ and the distance between t and $g(x)$.

x^0	$(x^k)^T (g(x^k) - h(x^k))$	sol	$\min_i F_i(x)$	nb-iter	$\ y - F(Sol)\ $	$\ t - g(Sol)\ $
(0.4039;0.0965; 0.1320 ;0.9421)	0	x^*	0	36	0	0
(0.3532;0.8212;0.0154;0.0430)	0	x^*	0	98	0	0
(0.0497;0.9027;0.9448;0.4909)	0	\bar{x}	0	734	0	0
(0.4893;0.3377;0.9001;0.3692)	0	x^*	0	90	0	0
(0.6256;0.7802;0.0811;0.9294)	0	x^*	0	61	0	0

Table 5: Numerics on Non-Linear Complementarity Problems for five tests

In this five tests, we have a convergence to one of the two solutions x^* and \bar{x} of the problem. It is interesting to notice that as expected by the theoretical study, when the problem is solved $t = g(x)$ and $y = F(x)$. The results obtained validate the theoretical part and confirms our approach.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we have proposed a new formulation based on concave functions for solving nonlinear complementarity problems (NCP). We have proved that the problem is DC program when F is a concave or a DC function, in this case, we used a penalization function to solve the problem. We also proved for solving the NCP with the assumption of monotony, it suffices to computing a stationary point for our problem. Numerical experiments on several LCP problems and a comparison with other DC approaches proves the efficiency of our study. We have presented an application of absolute value equation and shows that our method proposed is promising. We also give some numerical results for a example when F is nonlinear to validate our approach.

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A Description of LCP Test Problems from Section 6.1

In this appendix, we describe the datas of the LCP used in the numerical tests in Section 6.1.

LCP0

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (1 \ 1)^T.$$

LCP1

$$M \text{ as in LCP0 and } q = (-1 \ -1)^T.$$

LCP2

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (3 \ -6 \ 1)^T.$$

LCP3

$$M \text{ as in LCP2 and } q = (-3 \ 6 \ -1)^T.$$

LCP4

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 10 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 30 & 15 \\ 10 & 20 & 0 & 0 \\ 30 & 15 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1)^T.$$

LCP5

$$M \text{ as in LCP4 and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ -1 \ -1)^T.$$

LCP6

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 0 & 10 & -1 \\ 0 & 11 & 10 & -1 \\ 10 & 10 & 21 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (50 \ 50 \ 23 \ -6)^T.$$

LCP7

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (0 \ 0 \ 1)^T.$$

LCP8

$$M \text{ as in LCP6 and } q = (50 \ 50 \ 1 \ 6)^T.$$

LCP9

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (0 \ 0 \ 1)^T.$$

LCP10

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & \dots & 2 \\ 2 & 5 & 6 & \dots & 6 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 2 & 6 & 10 & \dots & 4n-3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1)^T.$$

LCP11

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & -2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 4 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1)^T.$$

LCP12

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 4 & -1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1).$$

LCP13

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & \dots & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & \dots & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1).$$

LCP14

$$M = \text{diag}(1/n, 2/n, \dots, 1) \text{ and } q = (-1 \ -1 \ \dots \ -1)^T$$