The Slater Conundrum: Duality and Pricing in Infinite Dimensional Optimization

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Abstract

Duality theory is pervasive in finite dimensional optimization. There is growing interest in solving infinite-dimensional optimization problems and hence a corresponding interest in duality theory in infinite dimensions. Unfortunately, many of the intuitions and interpretations common to finite dimensions do not extend to infinite dimensions. In finite dimensions, a dual solution is represented by a vector of “dual prices” that index the primal constraints and have a natural economic interpretation. In infinite dimensions, we show that this simple dual structure, and its associated economic interpretation, may fail to hold for a broad class of problems with constraint vector spaces that are \(\sigma\)-order complete Riesz spaces (ordered vector spaces with a lattice structure). In these spaces we show that the existence of interior points required by common constraint qualifications for zero duality gap (such as Slater’s condition) imply the existence of singular dual solutions that are difficult to find and interpret. We call this phenomenon the Slater conundrum: interior points ensure zero duality gap (a desirable property), but interior points also imply the existence of singular dual solutions (an undesirable property). A Riesz space is the most parsimonious vector-space structure sufficient to characterize the Slater conundrum. Topological vector spaces common to the vast majority of infinite dimensional optimization literature are not necessary.

Keywords: Infinite dimensional optimization, duality theory, Riesz spaces

1 Introduction

Duality is one of the most useful tools for modeling and solving optimization problems. Properties of the dual problem are used to characterize the structure of optimal solutions and design algorithms. The dual may be easier to solve than the primal and there exist well-known sufficient conditions, such as Slater’s constraint qualification, that imply zero duality gap between the optimal values of the primal and dual.
There is increasing interest in using duality to analyze infinite dimensional problems. Many real world applications are naturally modeled in infinite dimensions, with examples in revenue management (Gallego and van Rzyin, [23]), procurement (Manelli and Vincent, [34]) inventory management (Adelman and Klabian [1]), territory division and transportation (Carlsson [15] and Carlsson and Devulapalli [16]), hospice management (Ata et al. [7]), and radiation therapy (Chan et al. [17]). In each case, the authors apply properties of the dual to simplify the problem and develop structure for optimal solutions.

The focus of our research is on the connection in infinite dimensional convex optimization between constraint qualifications for zero duality gap and the existence of optimal dual solutions that are easily characterized and have a meaningful economic interpretation. A precise overview of our main results is found in Section 1.2.

To motivate our results, we begin with concrete examples. These examples illustrate how the intuitions and interpretations common in finite dimensions do not necessarily hold in infinite dimensions. Duality concepts that do extend to infinite dimensional problems are more subtle and difficult to apply in practice. This development is meant to be accessible to readers with little or no background in functional analytic approaches to convex optimization.

1.1 Motivation

In finite-dimensional convex optimization, conditions for zero duality gap (such as Slater’s constraint qualification) are well understood. Moreover, there is a standard form and economic interpretation of the dual. Researchers in operations research and economics typically define a vector of dual prices that index the (finitely many) constraints. Each price is interpreted as the marginal value of the constraining resource of the corresponding constraint. A real vector of dual prices in finite dimensional convex optimization is a convenient representation of a linear functional defined over the constraint space, termed a dual functional. It is this notion of dual functionals, possibly no longer representable as a real vector, that extends to infinite dimensional problems and allows us to build a duality theory for convex optimization problems over arbitrary ordered vector spaces. In the economics literature these dual functionals are called prices (see, for instance [20]). This is valid terminology since dual functionals “price” constraints by mapping vectors in the constraint space to the real numbers. When there is a zero duality gap between an optimization problem and its Lagrangian dual, this pricing interpretation gives significant insight into the structure of the primal optimization problem. However, in infinite dimensions the connection between conditions for zero duality gap and interpretations of the dual are more complex. The following examples illustrate this complexity.
Example 1.1. Consider the finite dimensional linear program

\[
\begin{align*}
\min x_1 \\
x_1 &\geq -1, \\
-x_2 &\geq 0, \\
x_1 - \frac{1}{i} x_2 &\geq 0, \quad i = 3, 4, \ldots, 10.
\end{align*}
\]

(1.1)

The vector spaces involved in this finite-dimensional problem are straightforward and easily characterized. The primal variable space \(X = \mathbb{R}^2\) contains the feasible region of (1.1) and the constraint space \(Y = \mathbb{R}^{10}\) is a vector space that contains the problem data for the primal constraints and is ordered by the positive cone \(\mathbb{R}^{10}_+ = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^{10} : y_i \geq 0, i = 1, \ldots, 10\}\).

The dual feasible region is a subset of the vector space of linear functionals that map the constraint space to the real line (see Luenberger [31]). The vector space of all linear functionals \(\psi : Y \to \mathbb{R}\) is called the algebraic dual of \(Y\) and is denoted \(Y'\). An element of \(Y'\) is called a dual functional. The dual constraints of (1.1) are

\[
\begin{align*}
\psi((1, 0, 1, \ldots, 1)) &= 1, \\
\psi((0, -1, -1/3, \ldots, -1/10)) &= 0, \\
\psi &\in (\mathbb{R}^{10})'_+. 
\end{align*}
\]

(1.2, 1.3, 1.4)

Consider the dual constraint (1.2) and let \(e_i \in \mathbb{R}^{10}\) be the vector that equals 1 in the \(i\)th component and 0 otherwise. Since every dual functional \(\psi\) is linear, we write (1.2) as

\[
\psi((1, 0, 1, \ldots, 1)) = \psi(1 \cdot e_1 + 0 \cdot e_2 + \cdots + 1 \cdot e_{10}) = \psi(1 \cdot e_1) + \psi(0 \cdot e_2) + \cdots + \psi(1 \cdot e_{10}) = 1 \cdot \psi(e_1) + 0 \cdot \psi(e_2) + \cdots + 1 \cdot \psi(e_{10}).
\]

Therefore, \(\psi\) can be represented by a real vector \(\psi_i := \psi(e_i)\) for \(i = 1, \ldots, 10\). Using this notation, the dual of (1.1) is

\[
\begin{align*}
\max \ -\psi_1 \\
\psi_1 + \psi_3 + \psi_4 + \cdots + \psi_{10} &= 1, \\
-\psi_2 - (\psi_3/3) - (\psi_4/4) - \cdots - (\psi_{10}/10) &= 0, \\
\psi_i &\geq 0 \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, 10.
\end{align*}
\]

(1.5)

Representing the dual functional \(\psi\) as the real vector \((\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_{10})\) is standard practice in finite dimensional optimization. Problem (1.5) is again a finite dimensional linear program with a simple structure: the constraint matrix of the dual program is the transpose of the constraint matrix of the primal. This property may not hold in infinite dimensional problems, as seen in Example 1.2 below.

If the primal is feasible and bounded, then there is an optimal primal and dual solution with zero duality gap. An optimal primal solution is \((x_1^*, x_2^*) = (-1, -10)\) and an optimal
dual solution is \((\psi_1^*, \ldots, \psi_{10}^*) = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)\), each with an objective value of \(-1\). In nonlinear optimization, additional structure is required to guarantee zero duality gap. There exist interior point conditions, such as Slater’s constraint qualification, sufficient to imply there is no gap for a large class of convex problems.

The representation of the dual functional \(\psi\) as the real vector \((\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_{10})\) is convenient for interpreting the dual. The optimal value of \(\psi_i\) is the increase in the primal objective value resulting from one unit increase in the right-hand side of the \(i^{th}\) primal constraint. Therefore, when the value of the primal and dual are equal, optimal dual prices are the marginal prices a decision maker is willing to pay to relax each primal constraint. This relationship between dual functionals and the pricing of constraints is a key modeling feature behind the success of duality theory of finite dimensional optimization.

The next example demonstrates that many of the nice properties of finite dimensional optimization demonstrated in Example 1.1 may fail to hold in infinite dimensions.

**Example 1.2** (Karney). Consider the extension of Example 1.1 to infinitely many constraints but still finitely many variables.

\[
\inf x_1 \\
\quad x_1 \geq -1, \\
\quad -x_2 \geq 0, \\
\quad x_1 - \frac{1}{i} x_2 \geq 0, \quad i = 3, 4, \ldots
\]

(1.6)

The left-hand-side column vectors \((1, 0, 1, \ldots)\) and \((0, -1, -1/3, -1/4, \ldots)\) and right-hand-side vector \((-1, 0, \ldots)\) may belong to several possible constraint spaces. This is typical in infinite dimensions where multiple nonisomorphic vector spaces are consistent with the constraint data. By contrast, in finite dimensions all finite dimensional vector spaces of dimension \(m\) are isomorphic to \(\mathbb{R}^m\).

A natural choice for the constraint space of (1.6) is the vector space \(\mathbb{R}^N\) of all real sequences. A naive approach to formulating the dual of (1.6) when the constraint space is \(\mathbb{R}^N\) is to mimic the logic of Example 1.1: assign a real number \(\psi_i\) to each constraint \(i = 1, 2, \ldots\), and then take the transpose of the primal constraint matrix. Assuming this representation is valid, define a dual functional \(\psi\) on the constraint space of (1.6) by a nonnegative infinite sequence \(\{\psi_i\}_{i=1}^\infty\) where \(\psi_i = \psi(e_i)\) with \(e_i\), again having 1 in the \(i^{th}\) component and 0 elsewhere. However, this representation of an arbitrary dual functional \(\psi\) is not valid unless the following condition (1.7) holds. Let \(\{a_i\}_{i=1}^\infty\) be an arbitrary vector in the constraint space. We say a dual functional \(\psi\) is *countably additive* if

\[
\psi \left( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^\infty \right) = \psi \left( \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i e_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \psi (a_i e_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i \psi (e_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i \psi_i.
\]

(1.7)

Fortunately, when the constraint space vector space is \(\mathbb{R}^N\), all positive dual functionals are countably additive. Indeed, Basu, Martin and Ryan [9] prove that positive dual functionals
in the algebraic dual of \( \mathbb{R}^N \) can be expressed as positive sequences with finite support; that is, \( \psi_i > 0 \) for only finitely many \( i \in \mathbb{N} \). Clearly such dual functionals are countably additive. Then the resulting dual program is derived by taking the transpose of the constraint matrix in (1.6):

\[
\begin{align*}
\sup -\psi_1 \\
\psi_1 + \psi_3 + \psi_4 + \cdots &= 1, \\
-\psi_2 - (\psi_3/3) - (\psi_4/4) - \cdots &= 0,
\end{align*}
\]

(1.8)

Notice that (1.8) closely resembles its finite dimensional analogue (1.5). The justification for this dual formulation is based on countable additivity and is formalized in Section 3.1 (see (3.6)). Unlike the finite case, a duality gap exists between (1.6) and (1.8). The optimal solution to the primal program (1.6) is \((x^*_1, x^*_2) = (0, 0)\) with a value of 0. Since every feasible solution to the dual program (1.8) is nonnegative, the \( \psi_i \) must be zero for all \( i \in \{2, 3, \ldots\} \) in light of the second constraint. Therefore, the optimal dual solution is \((1, 0, 0, \ldots)\) with a value of -1.

The existence of a duality gap may be surprising to readers familiar with Slater’s constraint qualification in finite dimensions. Slater’s result states that if there exists a primal solution \( x \) such that each constraint is strictly satisfied, then there is a zero duality gap. There are feasible points of (1.6), such as \( \bar{x} = (1, -1) \), that strictly satisfy each constraint, and the existence of a duality gap appears to contradict Slater’s constraint qualification. How can this be? In infinite dimensions, feasible points that strictly satisfy each constraint may not map into the interior of the positive cone of the constraint space, the condition required by infinite dimensional versions of Slater’s result (see Theorem 2.1). The positive cone of the vector space \( \mathbb{R}^N \) has an empty interior under every linear topology (Aliprantis and Border [2]).

Alternatively, choose the constraint space of (1.6) to be the vector space \( \ell_\infty \) of bounded sequences. This is a valid constraint space because the columns and the right-hand side of (1.6) lie in \( \ell_\infty \). The resulting dual program is

\[
\begin{align*}
\sup \psi(\{-1, 0, \ldots\}) \\
\psi(\{1, 0, 1, 1, \ldots\}) &= 1, \\
\psi(\{0, -1, -1/3, -1/4, \ldots\}) &= 0,
\end{align*}
\]

(1.9)

When the vector space \( \ell_\infty \) is equipped with its norm topology, its positive cone has a non-empty interior (for example the vector \((1, 1, \ldots, )\)). The infinite dimensional version of Slater’s constraint qualification (Theorem 2.1) applies to (1.9) and there is zero duality gap with the primal program. However, dual functionals feasible to (1.9) may no longer be countably additive. Let \( \tilde{\psi} \) be a dual functional over \( \ell_\infty \) that satisfies \( \tilde{\psi}(\{a_i\}_{i=1}^\infty) := \lim_{i \to \infty} a_i \)
for every convergent sequence \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \). Such a dual functional is guaranteed to exist (for details, see Lemmas 16.29 and 16.30 in Aliprantis and Border [2]). Observe also that \( \tilde{\psi} \) is feasible to (1.9) and its dual objective value, \( \tilde{\psi}(\{-1,0,0,\ldots\}) = 0 \), is equal to the optimal value of the primal. Thus, \( \tilde{\psi} \) is an optimal dual functional and there is zero duality gap. The optimality of \( \tilde{\psi} \) highlights three serious issues that are not present in finite dimensions.

First, \( \tilde{\psi} \) is difficult to characterize precisely. The only structure we have specified is that it is linear and acts like a “limit evaluator” on elements of \( \ell_\infty \) that converge. Outside of the subspace of convergent sequences, little is known about how \( \tilde{\psi} \) operates.

Second, \( \tilde{\psi} \) fails countable additivity. Consider the sequence \((1,1,\ldots)\) and observe that

\[
1 = \tilde{\psi}((1,1,\ldots)) \neq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1 \cdot \tilde{\psi}(e_i) = 0.
\] (1.10)

This implies that we lose the familiar interpretation from finite dimensions that there exists a dual price \( \tilde{\psi}(e_i) = \tilde{\psi}_i \) on the \( i \)th constraint so that if each constraint \( i \) is perturbed by sufficiently small \( \epsilon_i \), then the change in objective is \( \sum_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \tilde{\psi}_i \epsilon_i \). Indeed, (1.10) demonstrates that no such \( \tilde{\psi}_i \) exist.

Third, the dual (1.9) is not analogous to the finite linear programming dual. The constraints are not defined using the “transpose” of the original constraint matrix and instead are expressed in terms of dual functionals that are not necessarily countably additive.

Example 1.2 illustrates how the choice of the vector space for the primal constraint space affects the structure and interpretation of the dual. The dual price vectors for (1.8) are easily characterized – they are finite support vectors. However, the interior of the positive cone of the constraint space is empty and there is a duality gap. Alternatively, choosing a constraint space with a positive cone that has a nonempty interior generates the dual program (1.9) with zero duality gap. However, the resulting structure of the dual problem and the structure of the optimal dual functionals are “undesirable.”

In the finite case, dual functionals can always be interpreted as a price on each constraint; however Example 1.2 demonstrates this does not generalize to infinite dimensions. If countable additivity holds then this nice interpretation does carry over. In the general setting of Riesz spaces such “undesirable” dual functionals fail to satisfy the key property of \( \sigma \)-order continuity, which is equivalent to a generalized notion of countable additivity. In a Riesz space every dual functional can be written as the sum of a countably additive dual functional and what is termed a singular dual functional. If no singular dual functionals exist in a dual space all dual functionals are countably additive. See Section 3.1 for more detail.

### 1.2 Our Contributions

Our main results show that the interplay between the existence of interior points and singular dual functionals observed in Example 1.2 is not an accident. Our results apply to constraint spaces that are infinite dimensional Riesz spaces. We make no topological assumptions and work with the algebraic notion of core points (defined in Section 2) rather than interior...
points. We show that if the positive cone of the constraint space has a core point then there is zero duality gap with the algebraic dual. Moreover, in a broad class of spaces – \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz spaces – if the positive cone of the constraint space has a core point then singular dual functionals exist. We call this phenomenon the Slater conundrum. On the one hand, the existence of a core point ensures a zero duality gap (a desirable property), but on the other hand, existence of a core point implies the existence of singular dual functionals (an undesirable property).

This approach borrows concepts from geometric functional analysis (see for instance, Holmes [29]) and connects them to concepts in Riesz space theory (see for instance, Aliprantis and Border [2]). Proposition 2.5 unites the concept of a core point from geometric functional analysis to the concept of an order unit in Riesz spaces. This provides a bridge between two streams of literature that, to the authors’ knowledge, produces a novel approach to the study of infinite dimensional optimization problems.

Corollary 2.2 provides a constraint qualification that relies on the existence of a core point in the positive cone of the constraint space. We call this an algebraic constraint qualification because the concept of core can be defined in any ordered vector space. The use of core points for constraint qualifications was first introduced by Rockafellar [43] and refined by Robinson [42]. However, their conditions were applied to optimization problems over Banach spaces and their Fenchel duals. Our algebraic constraint qualification can be seen as an extension of their condition to include general ordered vector spaces.

An advantage of the algebraic constraint qualification is that every interior point in a locally convex, topological vector space is also a core point. See Holmes [29]. Therefore, if the algebraic constraint qualification is not satisfied, then Slater’s constraint qualification in any locally convex topology is not satisfied. This property allows us to investigate which ordered vector spaces have interior points in their positive cones and determine the structure of the dual functionals on these spaces.

A main result is Theorem 3.8, where we construct a singular dual functional from an order unit and a sequence of vectors that order converge to that order unit. This result is used to establish the existence of singular dual functionals in general Riesz spaces that need not possess any further topological or completeness properties required by other known results (including our own Theorem 3.13 and Theorem D.7 (see also Wnuk [48])).

Next, we show (Theorem 3.13) that the general class of \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz spaces with order units always have a dual space that contains singular dual functionals. This class of spaces generalizes the most common spaces used in applications.

Riesz spaces are ordered vector spaces equipped with a lattice structure (see more details see Section 2.2). We focus on Riesz spaces and not other classes of vector spaces for four reasons. First, an ordered vector space is necessary for constrained optimization. The common notion of being “constrained” is based on the concept of ordering. For instance, in finite-dimensional linear programming, the standard inequality constraint \( Ax \geq b \) and nonnegativity constraint \( x \geq 0 \) are built on the standard ordering of finite-dimensional Euclidean space.

Second, the order and lattice assumptions endow an infinite dimensional vector space
with just enough structure for familiar properties in $\mathbb{R}^n$ to have meaningful analogues. On a Riesz space we can define absolute value and order convergence. Also, the concept of disjointness (Section 2.2), generalizes the idea that a nonzero vector can have both zero and nonzero “components.”

Third, the order dual of a Riesz space is the most general dual space that needs to be considered in optimization when the constraint space $Y$ is an ordered vector space. Given vector space $Y$, the largest dual space is the algebraic dual $Y'$. However, when $Y$ is a Riesz space, the order dual $Y\sim$ consisting of dual functionals that are order-bounded is natural since it contains the positive linear functionals. By Proposition 2.4 the optimal value of the Lagrangian dual defined over $Y'$ and the optimal value of the Lagrangian dual defined over $Y\sim$ are equal. This implies that the order-dual structure of $Y\sim$ can be used without loss of optimality when $Y$ is a Riesz space.

Fourth, Riesz spaces provide the lattice structure which is needed to precisely classify which dual functionals are easy to characterize and interpret, and those that are not (i.e., those that are not countably additive) through the concept of order continuity. In an ordered vector space, the underlying algebraic structure is insufficient to separate countably additive dual functionals from those that are not countably additive.

An alternative to imposing a lattice structure on an ordered vector space is to endow it with a topology. This topological vector space approach is far more common in the optimization literature than the Riesz space approach. However, we show in Remark 3.4 that it is necessary to impose a lattice structure in order to distinguish the desirable from the undesirable dual functionals. However, because topological thinking is so pervasive, many researchers add the norm topology in addition to the lattice structure to work with Banach lattices (for example, Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Wnuk [48], and Zaanen [50]). A key contribution of this paper is to show that the additional topological structure is not necessary for establishing fundamental results in optimization. Riesz spaces have the minimum structure necessary to characterize the Slater conundrum and establish the conundrum as a fundamental problem endemic to convex optimization. We adhere to the dictum expressed by Duffin and Karlovitz [22] of “the desirability of omitting topological considerations” from a position of both enhanced clarity and enhanced generality. Indeed, one of our key results, Theorem 3.13, is more general than similar results obtained for Banach lattices. See Remark 3.14 and Theorem D.7 in Appendix D.

An additional benefit of this paper is that it provides the researcher not familiar with Riesz spaces a new and fundamental tool for understanding essential properties of infinite dimensional optimization problems.

1.3 Literature Review

Our work is related to several streams of literature in economics and optimization. We briefly outline them here.

The Slater conundrum has been explored by others in specifics contexts. Rockafeller and Wets [43, 44, 45] and Ponstein [39, 40] observe that $L_\infty$ is the only $L_p$ space with an interior point in its positive cone. They further point out that algebraic dual of contains dual
functionals that are not countably additive, citing the classic result of Yosida and Hewitt [49]. They conclude that the only $L_p$ space where Slater’s constraint qualification can be applied has dual functionals that are difficult to characterize and interpret.

Our development avoids elaborate topological and measure-theoretic arguments (as used in the $L_\infty$ case) and works in greater generality by focusing on primitive algebraic and order properties. This level of abstraction demonstrates that the Slater conundrum is endemic to infinite dimensional optimization at its very foundation.

In the stochastic programming literature, Rockafellar and Wets [45] emphasize the central role played by singular dual functionals in a complete duality theory for convex stochastic programs. Previously, authors ignored such dual functionals and worked only with countably additive dual functionals. This meant they had to accept the possibility of duality gaps. Although researchers begrudgingly accept that general optimality conditions involve singular dual functionals in an essential way, they are considered to be “unmanageable” from a practical perspective and fastidiously avoided; see for example, Rockafellar and Wets [44]. There has also been a substantial amount of research devoted to finding problem structures that do not have optimal singular dual functionals (see Dempster [21] for a summary). In [39], Ponstein makes a careful study of singular dual functionals in general convex optimization problems with constraint spaces in $L_\infty$. He gives conditions that justify ignoring singular dual functionals without loss of optimality, generalizing some well-known conditions in the stochastic programming literature. Ponstein emphasizes the computational intractability of singular dual functionals.

Other authors have also pursued an order-algebraic approach to optimization while eschewing premature introduction of topological concepts. Holmes’s classic monograph [29] on geometric functional analysis sets the stage for order-algebraic approaches by dedicating a large initial part of his monograph to an investigation of functional analysis without reference to topology. Similarly, Anderson and Nash [6] ground their duality theory with a study of algebraic duality, before introducing topological notions. In this context they establish weak duality and complementary slackness, as well as lay the algebraic foundation for an extension of the well-known simplex method to infinite dimensional linear programs. Following a similar approach, Shapiro [47] considers conditions that imply zero duality gap for the algebraic dual of infinite conic programs and only later introduces topologies. Basu, Martin and Ryan [10] provide an algebraic condition for zero duality gap by extending Fourier-Motzkin elimination to semi-infinite linear programming. Other work involving the order-algebraic approach includes Barvinok [8], Nash [37] and Pintér [38].

Our work, in some ways, parallels developments in theoretical economics on pricing and equilibria in infinite dimensional commodity spaces (see for instance, Aliprantis and Brown [3] and Mas-Colell [35]). These studies feature Riesz spaces arguments that are akin to ours. While the literature on Riesz spaces is quite extensive, with many quality texts ranging from the introductory level to the advanced (see Aliprantis and Border [2], Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Luxemburg and Zaanen [33] and Zaanen [50, 51]), Riesz spaces are rarely mentioned in optimization theory. A key to our approach is to develop novel results for Riesz spaces and apply these results to infinite dimensional optimization.
The Slater conundrum is driven by constraint qualifications for zero duality gap that require the existence of interior points in the positive cone in the constraint space. Such interior point constraint qualifications are not the only approaches to establishing zero duality gap results in infinite dimensional optimization. Researchers have long been aware of the limitations of interior point conditions in the $L_p$ spaces. This awareness has motivated several alternate approaches that are worth briefly mentioning here.

First, some researchers have looked to “generalized” notions of the interior of a set. A powerful notion in this direction, the quasi-relative interior, was introduced by Borwein and Lewis [11]. Interior points are contained in the quasi-relative interior, as are core points [11]. As an example, while the positive cone \( \{ x \in L_p[0,1] : x(t) \geq 0 \text{ a.a. } t \in [0,1] \} \) in $L_p[0,1]$ for $1 \leq p < \infty$ has no interior in its norm topology, the quasi-relative interior is \( \{ x \in L_p[0,1] : x(t) > 0 \text{ a.a. } t \in [0,1] \} \) [11]. Unfortunately, the direct extension of Slater’s constraint qualification using the expanded set of quasi-relative interior points does not hold. The existence of a feasible point mapping to a quasi-relative interior point in a positive cone is not sufficient to establish zero duality gap without additional assumptions (see Appendix B for a concrete example). For instance, the constraint qualification presented in Borwein and Lewis [11] requires that the constraint space be finite dimensional. A variety of constraint qualifications based on the quasi-relative interior were later introduced (see for example, Boţ [13], Csetnek [18], Gowda and Teboulle [26] and Grad [27]). By considering the structure of the positive cone, rather than the topological structure of a vector space, our approach avoids the need for additional assumptions by focusing attention on vector spaces where core points exist.

Second, many researchers have focused on topological notions such as closeness, boundedness and compactness to drive duality results, rather than interior points [6, 13, 28, 36]. This approach is particularly useful when interior points are known not to exist. The drawback is that these conditions are generally thought to be difficult to verify in practice, despite their theoretical elegance.

Finally, others have established zero duality gap results using limiting arguments and finite approximations in combination with the basic duality results for finite dimensional linear programming. These include papers on separated continuous linear programs (Luo and Bertsimas [32] and Pullan [41]) and countably infinite linear programs (Ghate and Smith [25] and Romeijn et al. [46]). These studies avoid certain topological arguments by leveraging duality results from finite dimensional linear programming and careful reasoning about limiting behavior. However, our approach is quite different. We consider general inequality-constrained convex programs (not just linear programs) and do not derive our results from duality results in the finite dimensional setting.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2.1 we give a constraint qualification that is sufficient for a zero duality gap between the primal and the algebraic dual in any ordered vector space. Section 2.2 is a very brief tutorial on Riesz spaces and provides the necessary background material. In Section 2.3 we show that the algebraic dual and order dual (a Riesz space concept) are equivalent on the positive cone and that a core point corresponds to an order unit (a Riesz space concept). The main results of the paper
are in Section 3 where we show that Slater points lead to bad (singular) dual functionals in the most general setting possible. Section 4 outlines opportunities for future work.

We also provide several appendices to supplement our results. Appendix A provides a proof of the results in Section 2.1. Appendix B discusses the differences between our algebraic constraint qualification and the constraint qualifications based on the quasi-relative interior. Appendix C includes definitions and results in Riesz space theory that are required in the proofs of some of our results. Appendix D examines the Slater conundrum from the viewpoint of Banach lattices.

2 Optimization in Ordered Vector Spaces

2.1 Lagrangian Duality

We begin by reviewing some of the notation, definitions, and concepts of convex optimization and Lagrangian duality. An ordered vector space $Y$ contains a pointed, convex cone $P \subseteq Y$. The cone $P$, called the positive cone, defines the vector space ordering $\geq_P$, with $y \geq_P \bar{y}$ iff $y - \bar{y} \in P$. The notation $y \succ_P \bar{y}$ indicates that $y - \bar{y} \in P$ and $y \neq \bar{y}$. Other authors have used $y \succ_P \theta_Y$ to mean that $y$ lies in the interior of the cone $P$. We avoid this usage in favor of explicitly stating when a vector lies in the interior of a set.

Consider the following inequality constrained convex program,

$$\inf_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$$

s.t. $G(x) \geq_P \theta_Y$

$x \in \Omega$,

(\text{CP})

where $\Omega$ is a convex set contained in a vector space $X$, $f : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is a convex functional with domain $\Omega$ and $G : \Omega \to Y$ is a $P$-convex map from $\Omega$ into the ordered vector space $Y$ and $\theta_Y$ represents the zero element of $Y$.

Let $\psi \in Y'$. The evaluation $\psi(y)$ of $\psi$ at $y \in Y$ is alternatively denoted by $\langle y, \psi \rangle$; that is, $\langle y, \psi \rangle = \psi(y)$. We use the evaluation notation ($\psi(y)$) and the dual pairing notation ($\langle y, \psi \rangle$) interchangeably and favor the notation that lends the greatest clarity to a given expression.

The algebraic dual cone of $P$ is $P' := \{ \psi \in Y' : \langle y, \psi \rangle \geq 0, \forall y \in P \}$ and the elements of $P'$ are called positive dual functionals on $Y$. The restriction of the dual cone $P'$ to a subspace $W$ of $Y'$, is denoted by $Q_W = P' \cap W$ and is called the positive dual cone with respect to $W$.

The Lagrangian function, $L : Y' \to \mathbb{R}$ for (CP) is $L(\psi) := \inf_{x \in \Omega} [f(x) + \langle G(x), \psi \rangle]$. Using this definition of $L(\psi)$, a family of dual programs for (CP) is derived as follows. Let $W$ be a subspace of the algebraic dual $Y'$. The Lagrangian dual program ($D_W$) of (CP) with respect to $W$ is

$$\sup L(\psi)$$

s.t. $\psi \in Q_W$.

($D_W$)
The optimal value of an optimization problem (·) is denoted \( v(\cdot) \). Weak duality holds when the value of the primal program is greater than or equal to the value of the dual. If \( v(CP) = v(D_W) \), then the primal and dual programs have zero duality gap. As is well-known (see for instance [6]) weak duality always holds for the Lagrangian dual program \( D_W \) regardless of the choice of \( W \).

Slater’s constraint qualification is perhaps the most well-known sufficient condition for zero duality gap between the primal program \( CP \) and its topological dual program \( D_Y^* \). When the constraint space \( Y \) is a locally convex topological vector space, its topological dual \( Y^* \) is the set of dual functionals that are continuous in the topology on \( Y \). Slater’s constraint qualification states that there is zero duality gap when \(-G : \Omega \to Y \) maps a point in \( \Omega \) to an interior point (in the topology that defines \( Y^* \)) of the positive cone \( P \).

**Theorem 2.1** (Slater’s Constraint Qualification, Ponstein [40], Theorem 3.11.2). Let \( Y \) be a locally convex topological vector space with positive cone \( P \) and topological dual \( Y^* \). If there exists an \( \bar{x} \in \Omega \) such that \(-G(\bar{x}) \in \text{int}(P)\), then there is an optimal dual solution \( \bar{\psi} \in Y^* \) and \( v(CP) = v(D_Y^*) \).

The set of interior points, \( \text{int}(P) \), obviously depends upon the selection of the locally convex topology. The proof of Theorem 2.1 uses the existence of an interior point to construct separating hyperplanes that are continuous in the topology on \( Y \). Therefore, one would like select a locally convex topology on \( Y \) such that: 1) every linear functional defined on \( Y \) is continuous so that the set of dual functionals is large for the purposes of closing the duality gap (and thus the topological and algebraic dual are the same, \( Y' = Y^* \)) and 2) the set \( \text{int}(P) \) is the largest possible set of interior points. These two goals are achieved by using a locally convex topology defined by core points.

Given a vector space \( Y \) and a subset \( A \subseteq Y \), a point \( a \in A \) is a core point of \( A \) if for every \( y \in Y \), there exists an \( \epsilon > 0 \) such that \( a + \lambda y \in A \) for all \( 0 \leq \lambda \leq \epsilon \).

The set of core points of \( A \), denoted \( \text{cor}(A) \), is called the algebraic interior of \( A \). A subset \( A \) of \( Y \) is algebraically open if \( \text{cor}(A) = A \). Let \( \mathcal{B} \) denote the set of all algebraically open convex sets that contain \( \theta_Y \). The set \( \mathcal{B} \) forms the neighborhood basis of \( \theta_Y \) for the topology \( \tau(\mathcal{B}) \). See Appendix A for proofs that \((Y, \tau(\mathcal{B}))\) is a locally convex topological vector space and that for this topology \( Y^* = Y' \).

**Corollary 2.2** (Algebraic Constraint Qualification). Let \( Y \) be a vector space with positive cone \( P \) and algebraic dual \( Y' \). If there exists an \( \bar{x} \in \Omega \) such that \(-G(\bar{x}) \in \text{cor}(P)\), then there is an optimal dual solution \( \bar{\psi} \in Y' \) and \( v(CP) = v(D_{Y'}) \).

Corollary 2.2 follows immediately from Theorem 2.1 and the fact that \((Y, \tau(\mathcal{B}))\) is a locally convex topological vector space. A core point is a purely geometric concept and the beauty of Corollary 2.2 is that it applies to any ordered vector space and a topology is not required. This is in keeping with the philosophy of this paper which is to present our results in the most general setting possible. Furthermore, the interior points in any locally convex topological vector space are core points; that is, for all subsets \( A \subseteq Y \), \( \text{int}(A) \subseteq \text{cor}(A) \) (see Holmes [29]). If \( P \) does not have a core point, then \( P \) does not have an interior point in any...
locally convex topology. This implies that the existence of a core point in the interior of $P$ is the most general Slater condition possible.

Remark 2.3. Recently, authors have introduced constraint qualifications using quasi-relative interior points and other topological alternatives [11, 12, 13, 18, 26, 27]. Constraint qualifications based on a quasi-relative interior point require additional structure in order to prove that there is zero duality gap. In Appendix B we show that the existence of a quasi-relative interior point is not sufficient to guarantee a zero duality gap with the Lagrangian dual. See Example 21.1 in Boţ [13] and Boţ et. al [14] for examples that the existence of a quasi-relative interior point is not sufficient to guarantee a zero duality gap with the Fenchel dual.

2.2 Riesz Spaces

We explore the effect that the existence of a core point in the positive cone has on the structure and interpretation of the dual functionals. Riesz spaces provide a natural setting for this exploration.

A primary analytical advantage of working in Riesz spaces is that the structure given to the ordering is minimal but has useful properties reminiscent of the standard order on $\mathbb{R}$. For instance, the common notions of continuity and the convergence of infinite sequences all have intuitive analogues using the properties of the positive cone and the lattice structure.

We begin with a few basic definitions and concepts from Riesz space theory. Additional properties used in proofs, but not needed to understand the statements of our results, are found in Appendix C. For those interested in more details, Chapters 8 and 9 of Aliprantis and Border [2] provide a thorough introduction.

An ordered vector space $E$ is a Riesz space if the vector space is also a lattice; that is, each pair of vectors $x, y \in E$ has a supremum denoted $x \vee y$ and an infimum denoted $x \wedge y$. The following are examples of Riesz spaces (taken from Example 8.1 in Aliprantis and Border [2]):

1. $\mathbb{R}^T$, all real-valued functions on a set $T$;
2. $C(T)$ all continuous functions on a topological space $(T, \tau)$ where $\tau$ is the collection of open sets;
3. $L_\infty(T, \Sigma, \mu)$, all essentially bounded $\mu$-measurable functions on measure space $(T, \Sigma, \mu)$;
4. $\ell_\infty$, all bounded real sequences;
5. $L_p(T, \Sigma, \mu)$ $(0 < p < \infty)$, all $\mu$-measurable functions on a measure space $(T, \Sigma, \mu)$ such that $\int_T |f(t)|^p d\mu < \infty$ for all $f \in L_p(T, \Sigma, \mu)$;
6. $\ell_p$ $(0 < p < \infty)$, all sequences $(x_1, x_2, \ldots)$ with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|^p < \infty$.

Let $E$ be a Riesz space ordered by the positive cone $E^+$. Let $\theta_E$ denote the zero vector of $E$. For each vector $x \in E$, the positive part $x^+$, the negative part $x^-$ and the absolute
value $|x|$ are

$$x^+ := x \lor \theta_E, \quad x^- := x \land \theta_E, \quad |x| := x \lor (-x).$$

Two vectors $x, y \in E$ are disjoint, denoted $x \perp y$, whenever $|x| \land |y| = \theta_E$. A set of vectors are pairwise disjoint if each pair of distinct vectors are disjoint. Given a subset of a Riesz space $S \subseteq E$, its disjoint complement $S^d := \{y \in E : x \perp y \text{ for all } x \in S\}$.

A set $S$ is order bounded from above if there exists an upper bound $u \in E$, such that $x \leq u$ for all $x \in S$. Similarly, a set is order bounded from below if there exists a lower bound and is order bounded if the set is order bounded both from above and below. A set $S$ is solid when $|y| \leq |x|$ and $x \in S$ imply that $y \in S$.

A vector subspace of a Riesz space $E$ is a Riesz subspace if it is closed under the lattice operations of $E$. A solid Riesz subspace is called an ideal. A principal ideal $E_x \subseteq E$ is an ideal generated by a vector $x \in E$ and is defined as

$$E_x := \{y \in E : \exists \lambda > 0 \text{ s.t. } |y| \leq \lambda |x|\}.$$  

A Riesz space $E$ is order complete (sometimes called Dedekind complete) if every non-empty subset of $E$ that is order bounded from above has a supremum. Similarly, a Riesz space is $\sigma$-order complete if every countable subset with an upper bound has a supremum. The $L_p$ spaces for $1 \leq p < \infty$ are $\sigma$-order complete. One of our main results (Theorem 3.13) assumes the Riesz space of interest is $\sigma$-order complete.

Let $\{x_\alpha\}$ be a net of vectors in $E$ and let $\{x_n\}$ represent a sequence. The notation $x_\alpha \uparrow x$ means that $\{x_\alpha\}$ is order bounded from above by $x$. When $\sup x_\alpha = x$, we write $x_\alpha \uparrow x$. Define $x_\alpha \downarrow x$ similarly. A net $\{x_\alpha\}$ in a Riesz space $E$ converges in order to $x$ denoted as $x_\alpha \to x$ if and only if there exists a net $\{y_\alpha\}$ with the same directed set such that $|x_\alpha - x| \leq y_\alpha$ for each $\alpha$ and $y_\alpha \downarrow \theta_E$. Note that the notion of order convergence involves the absolute value, and thus cannot be defined in an ordered vector space without a lattice structure.

A dual functional $\psi : E \to \mathbb{R}$ is order bounded if it maps order bounded sets in $E$ to order bounded sets in $\mathbb{R}$. The set of all order bounded dual functionals on a Riesz space $E$ is called the order dual of $E$ and is denoted $E^\sim$. A dual functional $\psi \in E^\sim$ on a Riesz space $E$ is order continuous if $\psi(x_\alpha) \to 0$ for all nets $\{x_\alpha\}$ that order converge to $\theta_E$. A dual functional $\psi \in E^\sim$ on a Riesz space $E$ is $\sigma$-order continuous if $\psi(x_n) \to 0$ for all sequences $\{x_n\}$ that order converge to $\theta_E$. The set of dual functionals that are $\sigma$-order continuous $E_c^\sim$ form a subspace of the order dual called the $\sigma$-order continuous dual. The order dual can be expressed as the direct sum of $E_c^\sim$ and its complementary disjoint subspace $E_s^\sim := (E_c^\sim)^d$; that is, $E_c^\sim \oplus E_s^\sim = E^\sim$ (see Appendix C). The dual functionals $\psi \in E_s^\sim$ are called singular dual functionals.

### 2.3 An Order-Algebraic Approach

Consider the convex, inequality constrained program (CP) where the constraint space $Y$ is an ordered vector space. When $Y$ is also a Riesz space, then its order dual $Y^\sim$ generates the
Lagrangian dual program \((D_{Y^-})\). The added structure of the order dual allows us to further characterize and interpret dual functionals. Corollary 2.2 applies only to the algebraic dual program. In this section, we show this result also applies to the order dual program. The resulting order-algebraic approach connects the theory developed in general ordered vector spaces to the structure and interpretations available in Riesz spaces.

By definition, the order dual of a Riesz space \(Y\) contains only order bounded dual functionals and is a subset of the algebraic dual. The feasible region of the algebraic dual program \((D_{Y^*})\) consists of positive dual functionals. The following proposition shows that the order dual program and algebraic dual program have the same feasible region and are therefore equivalent.

**Proposition 2.4.** For the convex program \((CP)\), the value of the algebraic dual equals the value of the order dual; that is, \(v(D_{Y^*}) = v(D_{Y^-})\).

**Proof.** It suffices to show that the feasible regions of \((D_{Y^*})\) and \((D_{Y^-})\) are equal; that is, \(P' = Q_{Y^-} = P' \cap Y^-\). Clearly \(Q_{Y^-} \subseteq P'\) so it suffices to show \(Q_{Y^-} \supseteq P'\). Let \(\psi \in P'\), that is \(\psi\) is a positive dual functional over \(Y\). Let \(x, y, z \in Y\) and \(x \preceq y \preceq z\). Then, \(\psi(y - x) \geq 0\) and \(\psi(z - y) \geq 0\). This implies \(\psi(x) \leq \psi(y) \leq \psi(z)\) and the dual functional \(\psi\) is order bounded. That is, \(\psi \in Y^-\). This implies \(\psi \in P' \cap Y^- = Q_{Y^-}\). We conclude \(P' = Q_{Y^-}\). \(\square\)

Proposition 2.4 provides a crucial link between the algebraic constraint qualification and the order dual. Restricting the space of all dual functionals to the order dual does not create a duality gap with the primal. Therefore, if a core point satisfies the algebraic constraint qualification then \(v(CP) = v(D_{Y^*})\) and Proposition 2.4 implies zero duality gap between the primal and the order dual.

Core points of the positive cone relate to a fundamental concept in the theory of Riesz spaces called order units. An element \(e > \theta_E\) in a Riesz space \(E\) is an order unit if for each \(x \in E\) there exists a \(\lambda > 0\) such that \(|x| \leq \lambda e\). The equivalence between order units and core points is given below. This result was also known by Aliprantis and Tourky [5]. However, Aliprantis and Tourky do not use this result within the context of optimality conditions or countable additivity. We provide a proof for the sake of completeness.

**Proposition 2.5.** If \(E\) is a Riesz space and \(e > \theta_E\), then \(e\) is an order unit of \(E\) if and only if \(e\) is a core point of the positive cone \(E^+\).

**Proof.** Assume that \(e\) is an order unit and let \(z\) be an arbitrary element of \(E\). We show there exists an \(\lambda > 0\) such that \(e + \lambda z \in E^+\) for all \(\lambda \in [0, e]\). If \(e\) is an order unit then by definition there exists an \(\alpha > 0\), such that \(|z| \leq \alpha e\). Let \(\epsilon = 1/\alpha\). Then \(|z| \leq \epsilon e\) for all \(\lambda \in [0, \epsilon]\). This implies \(-\lambda z \leq e\) and therefore \(\theta_E \leq e + \lambda z\). Therefore, \(e + \lambda z \in E^+\) for all \(\lambda \in [0, \epsilon]\) and by definition, \(e\) is a core point of \(E^+\).

Next, assume \(e\) is a core point of \(E^+\) and let \(z\) be any element in \(E\). Then there exists a \(\epsilon_+ > 0\) such that \(e + \lambda z \in E^+\) for all \(\lambda_+ \in [0, \epsilon_+]\). If \(e + \lambda_+ z \in E^+\), then \(e + \lambda_+ z \geq \theta_E\) and therefore \(-z \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_+} e\). Applying the same logic to \(-z\) there exists a \(\lambda_-\) that gives \(z \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_-} e\).
Take $\lambda = \min\{\lambda_+, \lambda_-\}$. Then $-z \preceq \frac{1}{\lambda}e$ and $z \preceq \frac{1}{\lambda}e$ implies $-z \lor z \preceq \frac{1}{\lambda}e$. By definition $|z| = z \lor -z$ so $|z| \preceq \frac{1}{\lambda}e$ and $e$ is an order unit of $E$.

Proposition 2.4 and Proposition 2.5 provide the foundations for our order-algebraic approach. Since the value of the order dual and the algebraic dual are equal, the algebraic constraint qualification provides a sufficient condition for zero duality gap between the primal program and the order dual. In Riesz spaces, core points of the positive cone are order units. Therefore, only Riesz spaces that contain order units can satisfy Corollary 2.2.

3 The Slater Conundrum

This section contains the main results of the paper. We show for a broad class of Riesz spaces ($\sigma$-order complete spaces) that if the positive cone has a core point, then it is necessary to either show that the optimal dual functional does not have a singular component, or somehow characterize the singular components. To our knowledge, this has never been shown in the broad contexts of Theorems 3.8, 3.12, and 3.13.

3.1 Duality and Countable Additivity

In this subsection we expand a theme in Example 1.2 regarding the undesirability of dual functionals that are not countably additive. Countable additivity (defined in (1.7) for sequence spaces) extends the familiar interpretations of dual functionals to infinite dimensional Riesz spaces. In fact, the $\sigma$-order continuous dual functionals introduced in Section 2.2 are countably additive. We now make precise the concept of countable additivity for arbitrary Riesz spaces.

Given any sequence $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n$ of real numbers, we write the limit of partial sums $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ as $\sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i$ whenever the limit of partial sums exists. Loosely speaking, the reason a lattice structure is added to an ordered vector space is so that the corresponding Riesz space has properties that mimic the real numbers as closely as possible. Given a lattice structure, order convergence can be defined, and it is similar to convergence of real numbers. Now assume that the $a_i$ are vectors in an arbitrary Riesz space $E$. If $x_n \text{ } \overset{o}{\rightarrow} \bar{x}$ where $x_n$ is the partial sum $x_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ we follow the common practice used for real numbers and write $\bar{x} := \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i$.

Let $\psi$ be a $\sigma$-order continuous dual functional defined on $E$. If $x_n \overset{o}{\rightarrow} \bar{x}$, then $(x_n - \bar{x}) \overset{o}{\rightarrow} \theta_E$ and it follows from the definition of $\sigma$-order continuity that

$$
\psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i\right) = \psi(\bar{x}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \psi(a_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \psi(a_i)
$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that the sequence of partial sums of real numbers, $\sum_{i=1}^n \psi(a_i)$, converges to a real number $\psi(\bar{x})$. Since

$$
\psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty \psi(a_i)
$$
we say that \( \psi \) is \emph{countably additive}.

Likewise, if a dual functional is countably additive it is \( \sigma \)-order continuous. Assume \( \psi \) is a countably additive dual functional on a Riesz space \( E \) and \( \{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) is a sequence in \( E \) such that \( x_n \xrightarrow{\sigma} \theta_E \). Define a new sequence \( \{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \) from \( \{x_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty} \) by \( a_1 = x_1 \) and \( a_i = x_i - x_{i-1} \) for \( i \geq 2 \). Then \( x_n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \) and \( x_n \xrightarrow{\sigma} \theta_E \) implies that the sequence of partial sums \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \) order converges to \( \theta_E \). Since \( \psi \) is countably additive,

\[
\psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \psi(a_i) = \psi(\theta_E)
\]

and this implies

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(x_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i\right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi(a_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \psi(a_i) = \psi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i\right) = \psi(\theta_E).
\]

Then \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(x_n) = \psi(\theta_E) \) and \( \psi \) is \( \sigma \)-order continuous. Therefore countable additivity and \( \sigma \)-order continuity are equivalent and we have shown:

**Proposition 3.1.** If \( \psi \) is a dual functional on \( E \), then \( \psi \) is \( \sigma \)-order continuous if and only if it is countably additive.

The next result shows all the dual functionals in the order dual \( E^\sim \) are countably additive if and only if the order dual does not contain any nonzero singular dual functionals. Recall from Section 2.2 (with details in Appendix C) that a dual functional \( \psi \) in the order dual \( E^\sim \) of Riesz space \( E \) can be written as the sum of a \( \sigma \)-order continuous dual functional \( \psi_c \in E^\sim_c \) and a singular dual functional \( \psi_s \in E^\sim_s \); that is, \( \psi = \psi_c + \psi_s \) where \( \psi_c \) and \( \psi_s \) are unique.

**Theorem 3.2.** Let \( E \) be a Riesz space. Then, \( E^\sim \) contains a dual functional that is not countably additive if and only if \( E^\sim \) contains a nonzero singular dual functional; that is, \( E^\sim_s \neq \{\theta_{E'}\} \).

**Proof.** (\( \Leftarrow \)) Suppose \( E^\sim \) contains a nonzero singular dual functional \( \psi \in E^\sim_s \). Since \( E^\sim_s \) and \( E^\sim_c \) are orthogonal, \( E^\sim_c \cap E^\sim_s = \{\theta_{E'}\} \) and so \( \psi \notin E^\sim_c \). Then by Proposition 3.1 \( \psi \) is not countably additive.

(\( \Rightarrow \)) Suppose \( E^\sim \) contains a dual functional \( \psi \) that is not countably additive. By Corollary C.11, \( \psi = \psi_c + \psi_s \) for \( \psi_c \in E^\sim_c \) and \( \psi_s \in E^\sim_s \). Then \( \psi \notin E^\sim_c \) implies \( \psi_s \neq \theta_{E'} \) and \( E^\sim_s \) contains a nonzero element. 

By Theorem 3.2 singular dual functionals are clearly a problem because their existence implies that there are dual functionals in the order dual that are not countably additive. We show in Section 3.2 a tight connection between Riesz spaces \( E \) with order units and the order duals \( E^\sim \) that have singular dual functionals.

Countable additivity allows us, in many cases, to write an infinite dimensional dual that is analogous to the finite dimensional dual. Consider the special case of linear programs.
In linear programs with infinite dimensional constraint spaces, \( \sigma \)-order continuity plays an important role in expressing the dual in a familiar way. Consider the linear program

\[
\inf_{x \in X} \varphi(x) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A(x) \succeq_P b
\]

where \( X \) is a vector space, \( b \in Y \) where \( Y \) is an ordered vector space with positive cone \( P \), \( A : X \to Y \) is a linear map, and \( \varphi \) is a linear functional on \( X \). The algebraic dual (see for instance [6] for details) of (3.1) is

\[
\sup_{\psi \in Y'} \psi(b) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A'(\psi) = \varphi \quad \psi \in P',
\]

where \( A' : Y' \to X' \) is the algebraic adjoint of \( A \), defined by

\[
\langle x, A'(\psi) \rangle = \langle A(x), \psi \rangle.
\]

Thus the adjoint operator corresponds to the usual matrix transpose, i.e. \( \langle x, A'(\psi) \rangle = A^T \psi(x) \).

The above analysis depends on two fundamental properties: (i) that the dual functional \( \psi \) over \( \mathbb{R}^m \) is expressed as a real vector \( \psi \) in \( \mathbb{R}^m \); and (ii) that it is permissible to swap the finite sums in (3.4).

Now consider \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^N \) as in Example 1.2 where countable additivity is

\[
\psi (\{a_i\}_{i=1}^\infty) = \psi \left( \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i e_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i \varphi(e_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty a_i \psi(e_i).
\]
Combining countable additivity of $\psi$ with the fact $X$ is a n-dimensional vector space gives

$$\langle A(x), \psi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} A(x)_i \psi_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j \right) \psi_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} \psi_i \right) x_j = \langle x, A'(\psi) \rangle$$ (3.6)

and once again, even though $A$ has an infinite number of rows, we can write the adjoint as $A' = A^\top$. This phenomenon was demonstrated in Example 1.2 where the dual program (1.8) is characterized in the familiar way based on the “transpose” of the primal constraints. It is the absence of singular functionals in $Y^\sim$ that allows one to write a dual with this convenient dual representation. However, in (1.9) the dual program did not have a nice characterization because $\hat{\psi}$ was not countably additive.

When both $X$ and $Y$ are infinite dimensional sequence spaces countable additivity is not sufficient to justify writing the adjoint as the transpose matrix. Additional properties on the linear map $A$ are required to apply Fubini’s theorem and change the order of summation, as was done in (3.4). Identifying such additional conditions in the case of countably infinite linear programs, where $X$ and $Y$ are both sequence spaces, has been the focus of several studies including Ponstein [39], Romeijn, Smith, and Bean [46] and Ghate [24].

Even in many function spaces countable additivity provides a structure for dual functionals that is analogous to the finite dimensional case. Consider an arbitrary $\sigma$—finite measure space $(T, \Sigma, \mu)$. The set of all real $\mu$—measurable functions is the Riesz space $L_0(T, \Sigma, \mu)$. Recall that an ideal of a Riesz space $E$ is a solid Riesz subspace of $E$. The following theorem shows that for any ideal of $L_0(T, \Sigma, \mu)$, a dual functional that is $\sigma$-order continuous has an appealing structure.

**Theorem 3.3** (Zaanen [50], Theorem 86.3). For any $\sigma$-order continuous dual functional $\psi$ on an ideal $F$ of $L_0(T, \Sigma, \mu)$, there exists a $\mu$-measurable function $p$ on $T$ such that

$$\psi(y) = \int_{t \in T} p(t)y(t)d\mu$$

holds for all $y \in F$. Furthermore, $p$ is $\mu$—almost everywhere uniquely determined.

Among the ideals of $L_0(T, \Sigma, \mu)$ are the associated $L_p(T, \Sigma, \mu)$ spaces for $1 \leq p \leq \infty$. Theorem 3.3 provides a large class of Riesz spaces where dual functionals that are $\sigma$-order continuous can be characterized by a measurable function $p$. This function is analogous to the vector $(\psi_i : i \in \mathbb{N})$ in Example 1.2. It assigns a value $p(t)$ to every element $t \in T$, which can be interpreted analogously to a shadow price or marginal value. Furthermore, the integral structure in Theorem 3.3 is a convenient representation of the dual functional $\psi$ and aids in expressing the adjoint in linear problems provided additional properties allow for an appeal to Fubini’s theorem (see, for instance, Chapter 7 of [6]).
Remark 3.4. One might consider adding a topology to an ordered vector space rather than a lattice. However, by Proposition 3.1 countable additivity and order continuity are equivalent and a lattice structure is necessary to define order continuity and therefore distinguish the countable dual functionals from those that are not. The continuous dual functionals defined by a topology are **insufficient to distinguish countable additivity**. For example, by Theorem D.3, when $E$ is a Banach lattice – a Riesz space with a complete norm that is compatible with the lattice structure – the set of norm-continuous dual functionals is the order dual $E^\sim$. However, not every element of $E^\sim$ is $\sigma$-order continuous as we have seen, for example, in the case of $\ell_\infty$.

### 3.2 Order units and the existence of singular dual functionals

In the analysis that follows, we connect the theory of order units and singular dual functionals in Riesz spaces. A simple conjecture is that in an arbitrary Riesz space, the existence of an order unit implies the existence of a singular dual functional in the order dual. The following examples demonstrates that this is not the case.

**Example 3.5** (Zaanen [50], Example 103.5). Consider the Riesz space $E$ of all real functions $f$ on an uncountable set $X$ for which there exists a finite number $f(\infty)$ such that, given any $\epsilon > 0$, we have $|f(x) - f(\infty)| > \epsilon$ for at most finitely many $x \in X$. The function $e(x) = 1$ for all $x \in X$ is an order unit of $E$. However, Zaanen [50] shows that all dual functionals in the order dual of $E$ are $\sigma$-order continuous.

This example demonstrates the need for additional structure to guarantee the existence of a singular functional. The next example provides insight into some useful structure leveraged in our proofs.

**Example 3.6.** The space of bounded sequences $\ell_\infty$ has the order unit $e = (1, 1, 1, \ldots)$. Let $e_i \in \ell_\infty$ have 1 in component $i$ and zero otherwise. Furthermore, define $x_n := \sum_{i=1}^ne_i$. Clearly, $x_n \xrightarrow{\tau} e$. Furthermore, consider the positive dual functional $\bar{\psi}$ defined in Example 1.2. Then $\bar{\psi}(x_n) = 0$ for all $n$ and $\bar{\psi}(e) = 1$. Thus $\bar{\psi}(e)$ is not $\sigma$-order continuous and $\bar{\psi} = \bar{\psi}_c + \bar{\psi}_s$ where $\bar{\psi}_s$ is a nonzero singular dual functional in $\ell_\infty$.

This example guides our approach to constructing singular dual functionals from order units. The idea is to find a sequence of vectors $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ where none of the $x_n$ are order units, but $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ order converges to an order unit $e \succ \theta_E$. The following result on extending dual functionals is used in the argument.

**Theorem 3.7** (Krein-Rutman Theorem, Holmes [29], Theorem 6B). Let $X$ be an ordered vector space with positive cone $P$ and let $M$ be a subspace of $X$. Assume that $P \cap M$ contains a core point of $P$. Then any positive linear dual functional $\psi$ on $M$ admits a positive extension to all of $X$.

**Theorem 3.8.** Let $E$ be an infinite dimensional Riesz space with order unit $e \succ \theta_E$. If there exists an increasing sequence $\{x_n\}$ of non-order units such that $x_n \xrightarrow{\tau} e$ then there exists a positive, nonzero, singular dual functional on $E$. 

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Proof. Without loss, assume that \( x_n \geq \theta_E \) for all \( n \). Otherwise, replace \( x_n \) with the sequence \( x_n^+ = x_n \vee \theta_E \). None of the \( x_n^+ \) are order units and by Proposition C.1(ii), \( x_n^+ \nrightarrow e \).

Let \( M \) be a subspace of \( E \) defined by \( M := \text{span} \{\{e\} \cup \{x_n\}\} \). Then every \( y \in M \) is represented by a finite set of scalars \( \{\lambda_n\}_{n=0}^N \) such that \( y = \lambda_0e + \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n x_n \). For shorthand, let \( y_x \) denote \( \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n x_n \).

**Claim 1.** For every \( y = \lambda_0e + \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n x_n \) in \( M \) the value of \( \lambda_0 \) in its representation is uniquely determined.

**Proof of Claim 1:** We show that the order unit \( e \) cannot be represented as a linear combination of the \( \{x_n\} \). Assume the opposite; that is, there exists a finite set of scalers \( \{\mu_n\}_{n=1}^N \) such that \( \sum_{n=1}^N \mu_n x_n = e \). Let \( \overline{\mu} = \max\{|\mu_1|,|\mu_2|,\ldots,|\mu_N|\} \). Since \( \{x_n\} \) is an increasing, nonnegative sequence, \( \overline{\mu} N x_N \geq \sum_{n=1}^N \mu_n x_n = e \). Next, consider an arbitrary \( z \in E \). Since \( e \) is an order unit, there exists an \( \alpha > 0 \) such that \( |z| \leq \alpha e \leq \alpha \overline{\mu} N x_N \). By definition, this implies that \( x_N \) is an order unit, arriving at a contradiction. Therefore, the value of \( \lambda_0 \) in the decomposition of \( y \) is uniquely determined. \( \dagger \)

Define the functional \( \psi_M : M \to \mathbb{R} \) by

\[
\psi_M(y) = \psi_M(\lambda_0e + y_x) := \lambda_0, \quad \forall y \in M.
\]

This functional is well-defined by Claim 1. The following claim establishes the properties on \( \psi_M \) needed to apply the Krein-Rutman Theorem.

**Claim 2.** The functional \( \psi_M \) is a positive linear functional on \( M \).

**Proof of Claim 2:** Let \( y = \lambda_0 e + y_x \) and \( z = \lambda_0 z + z_x \) be vectors in \( M \) and let \( \alpha,\beta \in \mathbb{R} \).

Then \( \psi_M(\alpha y + \beta z) = \psi_M((\alpha \lambda_0 \alpha + \beta \lambda_0 \beta)e + \alpha y_x + \beta z_x) = \alpha \lambda_0 y + \beta \lambda_0 z = \alpha \psi_M(y) + \beta \psi_M(z) \).

Hence, \( \psi_M \) is a linear functional on \( M \).

Next show that \( \psi_M \) is a positive functional. Assume otherwise. Then there exists a \( y \in E \) such that \( y = \lambda_0 e + \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n x_n \) where \( y \geq \theta_E \) and \( \lambda_0 < 0 \). Without loss, scale \( y \) such that \( \lambda_0 = -1 \). Then, \( \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n x_n \geq e \). As in the proof of Claim 1, let \( \overline{\lambda} = \max\{|\lambda_1|,|\lambda_2|,\ldots,|\lambda_N|\} \). Then, since \( \{x_n\} \) is an increasing, nonnegative sequence, \( \overline{\lambda} N x_N \geq e \). However, this implies that \( x_N \) is an order unit and yields a contradiction. \( \dagger \)

Since \( e \in E^+ \cap M \) is an order unit of \( E \), it is a core point of \( E^+ \) by Proposition 2.5. Furthermore, Claim 2 states that \( \psi_M \) is a positive linear functional on \( M \). Therefore, by the Krein-Rutman Theorem, \( \psi_M \) on \( M \) extends to a positive dual functional \( \psi \) on \( E \). Notice that \( \psi \) is not \( \sigma \)-order continuous, since \( x_n \nrightarrow e \), \( \psi(x_n) \to 0 \) since \( \psi(x_n) = \psi_M(x_n) = 0 \), and \( \psi(e) = 1 \). Therefore, \( \psi = \psi_c + \psi_s \) with \( \psi_s \neq \theta_E \), since \( E^\sim = E_c^\sim \oplus E_s^\sim \). It then follows by Proposition C.12 that \( \psi_s \) is a positive, singular dual functional on \( E \). This satisfies the requirements of the theorem. \hfill \( \square \)

Theorem 3.8 is constructive and applies to arbitrary infinite dimensional Riesz spaces. To leverage this result, additional structure is added to a Riesz space to guarantee the existence of an order convergent sequence that satisfies the premise of Theorem 3.8. Below, in Theorem 3.13, we prove that all infinite dimensional, \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz spaces with
order units have sufficient additional structure to meet this criterion. In Appendix D, we use topological methods to prove a similar result for infinite dimensional, \( \sigma \)-order complete Banach spaces. However, neither of these additional structures are necessary for the existence of singular dual functionals. As the following example demonstrates, Riesz spaces that are not \( \sigma \)-order complete may still contain singular dual functionals in their order duals.

**Example 3.9** (Luxemburg and Zaanen [33], page 139). The Riesz space \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \) is the space of all sequences that are constant except for a finite number of components. For example, the sequence \((2, 0, 3, 1, 1, 1, \ldots)\) is an element of \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \).

Let \( e = (1, 1, \ldots) \) be the vector of all ones. Then the set \( \{e_i : i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots\} \cup \{e\} \) forms a Hamel basis of \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \) and every dual functional can be characterized by assigning values to each vector in the set. The dual functionals on \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \) that are not \( \sigma \)-order continuous are those that assign a value of zero to all \( e_i \) and a nonzero value to \( e \). Let \( \psi \) be such a dual functional. Then \( e_i \overset{\psi}{\to} e \) but \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \psi(e_i) = 0 \neq \psi(e) \) and so \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \) contains a singular dual functional. However, \( \ell^0_\infty(N) \) is not \( \sigma \)-order complete. Consider the sequence

\[
x_1 = (1, 0, 0, \ldots), \quad x_2 = (1, 1/2, 0, 0, \ldots), \quad x_3 = (1, 1/2, 1/3, 0, 0, \ldots), \ldots
\]

This sequence \( \{x_n\} \) order converges to \( x = (1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \ldots) \) but \( x \notin \ell^0_\infty(N) \).

The proof of Theorem 3.12 shows how to construct, in any \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz space, an increasing sequence \( \{x_n\} \) of non-order units such that \( x_n \overset{\sigma}{\to} e \). Constructing \( \{x_n\} \) requires the following lemma, due to Luxemburg and Zaanen [33], used to generate an initial sequence from which we construct \( \{x_n\} \).

**Lemma 3.10** (Luxemburg and Zaanen [33], Proposition 26.10). Every infinite dimensional \( \sigma \)-order complete vector lattice \( E \) contains an infinite set of pairwise disjoint elements.

Example 3.11 uses \( \ell_\infty \) to motivate the steps of the proof of our key result Theorem 3.12.

**Example 3.11.** Let \( E \) be the space of bounded sequences \( \ell_\infty \) with the order unit \( e = (1, 1, 1, \ldots) \). Assume Lemma 3.10 generates a sequence of vectors \( \{u_n\} \) where for vector \( u_n \), component \( 2n - 1 \) is \((1/2)^n\) and the other components are zero. The first three vectors in \( \{u_n\} \) are

\[
u_1 = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \ldots) , \quad u_2 = (0, 0, \frac{1}{4}, 0, \ldots), \quad u_3 = (0, 0, 0, 0, \frac{1}{8}, 0, \ldots), \ldots \]

Using \( u_n \), construct the sequence \( z_n := \sum_{j=1}^{n} u_j \). Then

\[
z_1 = (1/2, 0, \ldots), \quad z_2 = (1/2, 0, 1/4, 0, \ldots), \quad z_3 = (1/2, 0, 1/4, 0, 1/8, 0, \ldots), \ldots \]

has the desirable property that it is increasing and that it is bounded above by the order unit \( e \). However, this sequence order converges to \( \bar{z} = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{4}, 0, \frac{1}{8}, 0, \frac{1}{16}, \ldots) \) which is not an order unit. At this point, one might be tempted to simply define \( u_0 = e - \bar{z} \) and then redefine \( \hat{z}_n := u_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{n} u_j \). This gives

\[
\hat{z}_1 = (1, 1, \frac{3}{4}, 1, \frac{7}{8}, \ldots), \quad \hat{z}_2 = (1, 1, 1, 1, \frac{7}{8}, \ldots), \ldots
\]
and \( z_n \xrightarrow{o} e \). Unfortunately, each \( z_n \) is an order unit since \( u_0 = (\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{4}, 1, \frac{7}{8}, \ldots) \) is an order unit and thus the sequence \( \{z_n\} \) fails the premise of Theorem 3.8. More care is necessary.

Constructing the appropriate sequence of non-order units requires two additional steps. First, project \( e - z_n \) for each \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) onto the ideal generated by \( z_n \) and define

\[
w_n := P_{z_n}(e - z_n) = \sup\{ (e - z_n) \wedge mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N} \}.
\]

The positive components of \( w_n \) are the complements (with respect to 1) of the positive components of \( z_n \) so

\[w_1 = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \ldots), \quad w_2 = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{3}{4}, 0, \ldots), \quad w_3 = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{3}{4}, 0, \frac{7}{8}, 0, \ldots), \ldots\]

and \( z_n + w_n \xrightarrow{o} \bar{z} + \bar{w} = (1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \ldots) \). Second, construct the vector \( u_0 = e - P_{\bar{z}}(e) = (0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \ldots) \). Note that \( u_0 \) is also not an order unit. Now redefine \( \hat{z}_n := u_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{n} u_j \).

This time generating the \( \hat{w}_n := P_{z_n}(e - \hat{z}_n) \) gives

\[
\hat{z}_1 + \hat{w}_1 = (1, 1, 0, 1, 0, \ldots), \quad \hat{z}_2 + \hat{w}_2 = (1, 1, 1, 1, 0, \ldots), \quad \hat{z}_3 + \hat{w}_3 = (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, \ldots), \ldots
\]

and \( \{\hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n\} \) is an increasing sequence of non-order units such that \( \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n \xrightarrow{o} e \).

**Theorem 3.12.** If \( E \) is an infinite dimensional \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz space that contains an order unit \( e \succ \theta_E \), then \( E \) contains an increasing sequence \( x_n \xrightarrow{o} e \) where the \( x_n \) are not order units.

**Proof.** Since \( E \) is infinite dimensional, \( E \) contains an infinite set \( \{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) of pairwise disjoint elements by Lemma 3.10. By the definition of disjoint, we can assume that this sequence is positive.

**Claim 1.** None of the vectors in \( \{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) are order units, nor can a linear combination of any of them produce an order unit.

**Proof of Claim 1:** Since the \( u_n \) for \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) are nonzero disjoint vectors, it follows from Lemma C.7 that the \( u_n \) are not order units.

Next let \( \overline{u} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n u_n \) be an arbitrary linear combination of the elements of \( \{u_n\} \). Then Propositions C.4(i) and C.4(ii) imply that \( \overline{u} \perp u_{N+1} \). However, if \( \overline{u} \) were an order unit then there exists a \( \lambda > 0 \) such that \( u_{N+1} \preceq \lambda \overline{u} \). Thus, \( \lambda \overline{u} \) and \( u_{N+1} \) are not disjoint and by Proposition C.4(i), \( \overline{u} \) and \( u_{N+1} \) are not disjoint, yielding another contradiction. Since \( \overline{u} \) was an arbitrary linear combination of the elements of \( \{u_n\} \), no linear combination of the elements of the \( u_n \) is an order unit. \( \dagger \)

Since \( e \) is an order unit, for each \( n \) there exists a \( \lambda_n > 0 \) such that \( u_n \preceq \lambda_n e \). Define a new sequence \( \{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) from \( \{u_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) by

\[
y_n := \frac{u_n}{\lambda_n}.
\]

(3.7)
Since all of the \( \lambda_n \) are positive, the definition of \( y_n \) in (3.7) implies that \( y_n \preceq e \) for all \( n \). Furthermore, by Proposition C.4(i), the sequence \( \{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) is still a disjoint sequence of positive vectors. Next, define
\[
  z_n := \sum_{k=1}^{n} y_k. \tag{3.8}
\]

**Claim 2.** None of the \( \{z_n\} \) are order units and \( z_n \uparrow \preceq e \).

**Proof of Claim 2:** By (3.7) and (3.8), \( z_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{u_k}{\lambda_k} \). Therefore, each element of \( \{z_n\} \) is a linear combination of the elements of \( \{u_n\} \). By Claim 1, this implies that none of the \( \{z_n\} \) are order units.

Since the \( \{y_n\} \) are positive and pairwise disjoint, applying Proposition C.3(iii) gives
\[
  z_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} y_k = \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} y_k \right| = \sup\{|y_1|, |y_2|, \ldots, |y_n|\} \preceq e.
\]

Therefore, \( z_n \uparrow \preceq e \). \( \dagger \)

By hypothesis \( E \) is \( \sigma \)-order complete so there exists a \( \bar{z} \preceq e \) such that \( \{z_n\} \uparrow \bar{z} \). If \( \bar{z} \) is an order unit then let \( e' := \bar{z} \) and repeat the steps of this proof for \( e' \) in place of \( e \) and the proof is complete. However, if \( \bar{z} \) is not an order unit, we show how to use \( \{z_n\} \) to construct a new increasing sequence \( \{x_n\} \) of non-order units that order converges to the order unit \( e \).

Define the sequence \( \{w_n\} \) by \( w_n := P_{z_n}(e - z_n) \) where \( P_{z_n} \) is the projection operator onto the band \( B_{z_n} \). This projection operator is well-defined since \( z_n \) is a projection vector by Proposition C.14. Furthermore, by Proposition C.15, \( P_{z_n}(e - z_n) = \sup\{(e - z_n) \land mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \). The following two claims relate the sequence \( \{w_n + z_n\} \) to the projection of the order unit \( e \) onto the principal band \( B_{z_n} \).

**Claim 3.** \( w_n + z_n = P_{z_n}(e) \). Furthermore, none of the elements of \( \{P_{z_n}(e)\} \) are order units.

**Proof of Claim 3:** For each \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( w_n + z_n = \sup\{(e - z_n) \land mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} + z_n \). Move the \( z_n \) term into the supremum and apply Proposition C.2(ii),
\[
  w_n + z_n = \sup\{(e - z_n) \land mz_n + z_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\}, \tag{Prop. C.2(ii)}
\]
\[
  = \sup\{((e - z_n) + z_n) \land (mz_n + z_n) : m \in \mathbb{N}\}, \\
  = \sup\{e \land (m + 1)z_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\}.
\]

Therefore, by Proposition C.15,
\[
  w_n + z_n = \sup\{e \land (m + 1)z_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = \sup\{e \land mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = P_{z_n}(e).
\]

Now show that none of the elements of \( \{P_{z_n}(e)\} \) are order units. Since \( \{y_n\} \) is a sequence of disjoint vectors, \( z_n \land y_{n+k} = \theta_E \) for all \( k \geq 1 \). Then by Proposition C.16, \( P_{z_n}(e) \) is not an order unit for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \).
Claim 4. \( \sup\{P_{z_n}(e) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = P_\Xi(e) \); that is, \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow P_\Xi(e) \).

Proof of Claim 4: Since \( z_{n+1} \geq z_n, (e \wedge mz_{n+1}) \geq (e \wedge mz_n) \) for all \( m \in \mathbb{N} \), which gives
\[ P_{z_{n+1}}(e) = \sup\{e \wedge mz_{n+1} : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \geq \sup\{e \wedge mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = P_{z_n}(e). \]
Furthermore, \( \bar{z} \geq z_n \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and therefore \( P_\Xi(e) \) is an upper bound of the sequence \( \{P_{z_n}(e)\} \). This implies \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow \leq P_\Xi(e) \). Next, show that \( P_\Xi(e) \) is also its supremum. Since \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow \leq P_\Xi(e) \) and \( E \) is \( \sigma \)-order complete, there exists a \( q \preceq P_\Xi(e) \) such that \( \{P_{z_n}(e)\} \searrow q \).
It remains to show that \( q = P_\Xi(e) \). We show that \( q \preceq P_\Xi(e) \) implies that \( q \) is not the supremum of \( \{P_{z_n}(e) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \) and therefore \( q = P_\Xi(e) \).

By Proposition C.15, if
\[ q \preceq P_\Xi(e) = \sup\{e \wedge m\bar{z} : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \]
then there exists an \( M \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( e \wedge M\bar{z} \not\preceq q \). However, by Proposition C.1(iv), if \( z_n \searrow \bar{z} \) then \( e \wedge Mz_n \searrow e \wedge M\bar{z} \). Therefore, by Proposition C.5(i),
\[ \sup\{e \wedge Mz_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = e \wedge M\bar{z} \not\preceq q, \]
which implies that there exists \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( e \wedge Mz_N \not\preceq q \). However, since \( e \wedge Mz_N \) is an increasing sequence in \( m \), \( \sup\{e \wedge mz_N : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \not\preceq q \) and therefore
\[ \sup\{P_{z_n}(e) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \sup\{\sup\{e \wedge mz_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \not\preceq q. \]
Thus, \( q \) is not the supremum of \( \{P_{z_n}(e) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \). Therefore, \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow P_\Xi(e) \).

By Claims 3 and 4 there exists a sequence \( \{w_n\} \) such that \( w_n + z_n = P_{z_n}(e) \) and \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow P_\Xi(e) \). If \( e = P_\Xi(e) \), we are done since \( \{w_n + z_n\} = P_{z_n}(e) \) is an increasing sequence and the \( P_{z_n}(e) \) are not order units. Assume \( e \neq P_\Xi(e) \). Since \( P_\Xi(e) \preceq e \) it must be the case that \( P_\Xi(e) \prec e \), or equivalently \( e - P_\Xi(e) \succ \theta_E \). Let \( u_0 = e - P_\Xi(e) \).

By Theorem C.10, \( u_0 \) is in \( B^2_\Xi \) and by definition of \( B_\Xi, \bar{z} \in B_\Xi \). Therefore, \( u_0 \) and \( \bar{z} \) are disjoint, i.e. \( u_0 \wedge \bar{z} = \theta_E \). Then \( z_n \preceq \bar{z} \) implies \( \theta_E \preceq u_0 \wedge z_n \preceq u_0 \wedge \bar{z} = \theta_E \). Therefore, \( u_0 \) is disjoint from each of the \( z_n \) and Propositions C.4(i) and C.4(ii) imply that \( \hat{z}_n := u_0 + z_n = \sum_{k=0}^n u_k \) is an increasing sequence of non-order units. Define as before \( \hat{w}_n := P_{\hat{z}_n}(e - \hat{z}_n) \). By Claims 3 and 4, \( w_n + z_n = P_{z_n}(e) \) and \( P_{z_n}(e) \uparrow P_\Xi(e) \) which implies \( \{u_0 + z_n + w_n\} = \{u_0 + P_{z_n}(e)\} \uparrow e \).

Claim 5. Show \( u_0 + z_n + w_n \preceq \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n \preceq e \) for all \( n \in \mathbb{N} \). We showed in Claim 3 that \( z_n + w_n = \sup\{e \wedge (m+1)z_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \).

Since \( u_0 \preceq \theta_E \), this implies
\[ z_n + w_n = \sup\{e \wedge (m+1)z_n : m \in \mathbb{N}\} \preceq \sup\{e \wedge (m+1)(z_n + u_0) : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = \sup\{e \wedge (m+1)(\hat{z}_n) : m \in \mathbb{N}\} = \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n. \]

By construction \( \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n \preceq e \).
Since \( \{u_0 + z_n + w_n\} \uparrow e \), Claim 5 implies \( \{\hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n\} \uparrow e \). Let \( x_n = \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n \). Then \( x_n \xrightarrow{\sigma} e \). By Claim 3, \( \hat{z}_n + \hat{w}_n = P_{z_n}(e) \) and the \( x_n \) are not order units. Thus, \( \{x_n\} \) is an increasing sequence and none of the \( \{x_n\} \) are order units and so the theorem is proved. \( \square \)

**Theorem 3.13.** All \( \sigma \)-order complete infinite dimensional Riesz Spaces with order units have non-zero, positive, singular dual functionals.

**Proof.** Let \( E \) be an infinite dimensional \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz Space with order unit \( e \succ \theta_E \). By Theorem 3.12 there exists an increasing sequence \( \{x_n\} \) of non-order units such that \( x_n \xrightarrow{\sigma} e \). Then by Theorem 3.8 there exists a non-zero, positive, singular dual functional on \( E \). \( \square \)

**Remark 3.14.** Theorem 3.13 uses an order-algebraic approach to show that a large class of infinite dimensional Riesz spaces satisfy Theorem 3.8 and therefore have singular functionals in their order duals. A similar, but less general result, using topological methods is provided in Appendix D. We show in Theorem D.7 that if \( E \) is a \( \sigma \)-order complete Banach lattice with an order unit then \( E \) contains singular functionals in the algebraic, order and topological duals. However, this result requires the additional structure of being a Banach lattice. This is not required in Theorem 3.13. By Theorem D.1, any order complete Riesz space \( E \) can be equipped with a norm that defines a Banach lattice and hence Theorem D.7 applies. However, unlike Theorem 3.13, this requires order completeness as opposed to \( \sigma \)-order completeness. We reiterate that Theorem 3.8 applies to all infinite dimensional Riesz spaces, providing a general condition for the existence of singular dual functionals.

4 Future Work: Resolving the Slater Conundrum

Connecting our algebraic constraint qualification based on core points to the existence of singular dual functionals reveals a significant modeling issue in infinite dimensional programming. We show the tradeoff between the sufficiency of interior point conditions for zero duality gap and the difficulties of working with singular dual functionals.

Singular dual functionals are known to exist in the order dual of \( L_\infty \) spaces and several authors have proposed conditions that guarantee an optimal dual functional exists that is not singular. Rockafellar and Wets [44] give conditions for two-stage stochastic programs and Dempster [21] provides a review of various extensions of their conditions to general dynamic stochastic programs. Ponstein [39] focuses specifically on the issue of singular dual functionals for general inequality constrained problems in \( L_\infty \) and the special case of \( \ell_\infty \). An opportunity for future work is to extend this investigation to infinite dimensional Riesz spaces using the same order-algebraic methods developed in this paper.

References


A The Convex Core Topology

We show that Corollary 2.2 follows from Theorem 2.1 under a special topology that captures the inherent algebraic structure of the vector space.

Let $Y$ be a vector space. A subset $A$ of $Y$ is algebraically open if $\text{cor}(A) = A$. Let $B$ denote the set of all algebraically open convex sets that contain the origin $\theta_X$. The set $B$ forms the neighborhood basis of the origin for the topology $\tau(B)$ where

$$ U \in \tau(B) \text{ if and only if } \forall y \in U, \exists B \in B \text{ s.t. } y + B \subseteq U. \quad (A.1) $$

Following Day [19] we call $\tau(B)$ the convex core topology of $Y$. It has also been called the natural topology by Klee [30]. The following result shows that the convex core topology is a locally convex topological vector space. Recall (see Definition 5.71 in [2]) that a locally convex topological vector space is a topological vector space where every neighborhood of the origin contains a convex neighborhood of the origin.

**Proposition A.1.** Let $Y$ be an arbitrary vector space. Then $(Y, \tau(B))$ is a locally convex topological vector space.

**Proof.** By construction, $\tau(B)$ is clearly a topology and every neighborhood of the origin contains a convex neighborhood of the origin. Hence, it suffices to show that $\tau(B)$ is linear. There are two things to prove:

(i) vector addition is continuous, and

(ii) scalar multiplication is continuous.

We establish (i). The proof of (ii) is similar to the proof of (i) and thus omitted.

By definition of continuity of vector addition we must show that if $y_1, y_2 \in Y$ and $V$ is a neighborhood of $y_1 + y_2$ there exist neighborhoods $V_1$ and $V_2$ of $y_1$ and $y_2$ respectively such that $V_1 + V_2 \subseteq V$.

By construction of $\tau(B)$, it suffices to show this for $V$ that are algebraically open and convex. Define $V = y_1 + y_2 + B$ where $B$ is a convex algebraically open subset of the origin. Since $B$ is algebraically open, this implies $\frac{1}{2}B$ is algebraically open. Define $V_i = y_i + \frac{1}{2}B$ for $i = 1, 2$. Then observe:

$$ V_1 + V_2 = (y_1 + \frac{1}{2}B) + (y_2 + \frac{1}{2}B) $$

$$ = (y_1 + y_2) + (\frac{1}{2}B + \frac{1}{2}B) $$

$$ \subseteq y_1 + y_2 + B $$

This establishes continuity of vector addition.

Since $(Y, \tau(B))$ is a locally convex topological vector space we can apply Theorem 2.1 to a problem with $(Y, \tau(B))$ as a constraint space. Corollary 2.2 is then a direct consequence of the following proposition.
Proposition A.2. Let $Y$ be a vector space with positive cone $P$ and $\tau(\mathcal{B})$ the natural topology on $Y$. Then

(i) $\text{int}(P) = \text{cor}(P)$.

(ii) the topological dual $Y^*$ under the natural topology is the algebraic dual $Y'$.

Proof. Property (i) follows by definition of the natural topology. To establish (ii), first note that $Y^* \subseteq Y'$. Next, we show every linear functional $\psi \in Y'$ is continuous in the convex core topology (and hence in $Y^*$). Let $(a, b)$ with $a < b$ be an arbitrary open interval in $\mathbb{R}$. It suffices to show

$$\psi^{-1}(a, b) = \{y \in Y : a < \psi(y) < b\}.$$

is open in the natural topology. The two sets $A = \{y \in Y : \psi(y) > a\}$ and $B = \{y \in Y : \psi(y) < b\}$ are clearly translates of convex algebraically open sets that contain the origin. Thus both sets lie in $\tau(\mathcal{B})$ and since $\tau(\mathcal{B})$ is a topology, $\psi^{-1}(a, b) = A \cap B \in \tau(\mathcal{B})$. Thus, $\psi$ is continuous in the natural topology and so $\psi \in Y^*$. \hfill \Box

B Comparison with quasi-relative interior

Borwein and Lewis [11, 12] propose the quasi-relative interior as a useful generalization of the notion of interior for constraint qualifications of convex programs. Let $X$ be a topological vector space with topological dual $X^*$ and let $A \subseteq X$ be a convex set. The quasi-relative interior of a set $A$ is $\text{qri}(A) := \{x \in A : \text{cl}(\text{cone}(A - x)) \text{ is a linear subspace of } X\}$.

By Corollary 2.2 (CP) has zero duality gap with its Lagrangian dual if there exists an $x \in X$ such that $-G(x) \in \text{cor}(P)$. Example B.1 below shows that when the condition $-G(x) \in \text{cor}(P)$ is replaced with $-G(x) \in \text{qri}(P)$, then there may be a positive duality gap. Thus Corollary 2.2 is not immediately subsumed by results in the literature on constraint qualifications involving the quasi-relative interior. See Example 21.1 in Bot [13] and Bot et al [14] for examples that the existence of a quasi-relative interior point is not sufficient to guarantee a zero duality gap with the Fenchel dual.

Example B.1. Consider the semi-infinite linear program

$$\min x_1$$
$$-(1/n)x_1 - (1/n)^2 x_2 + (1/n) \leq 0, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$$

with constraint space $\ell_2(\mathbb{N})$. An optimal primal solution is $(x_1^*, x_2^*) = (1, 0)$ for an optimal primal value of 1. A feasible dual solution is a positive dual functional $\psi$ which satisfies

$$\psi \left( \left\{ -1/n \right\}^\infty_{n=1} \right) = 1$$

$$\psi \left( \left\{ -(1/n)^2 \right\}^\infty_{n=1} \right) = 0.$$
We claim that the algebraic dual is infeasible. By Theorem 2.4 and Theorem D.3 every positive dual functional \( \psi \) corresponds to an element \( \{\psi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \) in \( \ell_2(\mathbb{N}) \) with \( \psi_n \geq 0 \) for all \( n \). Thus, (B.2) and (B.3) amount to
\[
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{n}\psi_n = 1 \\
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{n^2}\psi_n = 0
\]
The above inequalities cannot be satisfied by any \( \psi \). The first equality requires at least one of the \( \psi_n \) to be strictly positive, which violates the second inequality. We conclude that the algebraic dual of (B.1) is infeasible.

Since the primal is feasible and dual is infeasible, (B.1) has an infinite duality gap. However, there exists an \( \bar{x} \) such that \(-G(\bar{x}) \in \text{qri}(P)\) where \( G \) is the linear map defining the constraints of (B.1) and \( P = (\ell_2(\mathbb{N}))^+ \). Let \( \bar{x} = (2, 0) \). Then \( \bar{y} = -G(\bar{x}) \) is the sequence \( \{1/n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \). Example 3.11(i) of Borwein and Lewis [11] shows that \( \text{qri}(P) = \{y \in \ell_2(\mathbb{N}) : y_n > 0 \text{ for all } n\} \). Hence \( \bar{y} \in \text{qri}(P) \).

C Properties of Riesz Spaces

C.1 Disjointness and Order Continuity

**Proposition C.1** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Lemma 8.15). Let \( \{x_\alpha\} \) and \( \{y_\beta\} \) be nets in a Riesz space \( E \). If \( x_\alpha \xrightarrow{\circ} x \) and \( y_\beta \xrightarrow{\circ} y \), then:

i. \( x_\alpha + y_\beta \xrightarrow{\circ} x + y \)

ii. \( x_\alpha^+ \xrightarrow{\circ} x^+ \), \( x_\alpha^- \xrightarrow{\circ} x^- \) and \( |x_\alpha| \xrightarrow{\circ} |x| \)

iii. \( \lambda x_\alpha \xrightarrow{\circ} \lambda x \) for each \( \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \)

iv. \( x_\alpha \vee y_\beta \xrightarrow{\circ} x \vee y \) and \( x_\alpha \wedge y_\beta \xrightarrow{\circ} x \wedge y \)

v. If \( x_\alpha \preceq y_\alpha \) for all \( \alpha \succeq \alpha_0 \), then \( x \preceq y \)

**Proposition C.2** (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Theorem 1.3(2)-(3)). Assume \( x, y \) are elements of a Riesz space \( E \).

i. \( x + y = x \wedge y + x \vee y \),

ii. \( x + (y \wedge z) = (x + y) \wedge (x + z) \) and \( x + (y \vee z) = (x + y) \vee (x + z) \),

**Proposition C.3** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Theorem 8.12). If \( E \) is a Riesz space and \( x, y \in E \), then the following are equivalent
Proposition C.4 (Zaanen [51], Theorem 8.1(ii)-(iii)). If \( E \) is a Riesz space and \( x, y, z \in E \), then

i. if \( x \perp y \) and \( \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \) then \( \alpha x \perp y \),

ii. if \( x \perp z \) and \( y \perp z \) then \( (x + y) \perp z \).

Proposition C.5 (Luxemburg and Zaanen [33], Theorem 16.1). Let \( \{x_n\} \) be a sequence in a Riesz space \( E \).

i. If \( \{x_n\} \uparrow x \) or \( \{x_n\} \downarrow x \) then \( \{x_n\} \overset{\circ}{\to} x \).

ii. If \( \{x_n\} \uparrow \) or \( \{x_n\} \downarrow \) and \( \{x_n\} \overset{\circ}{\to} x \) then \( \{x_n\} \uparrow x \) or \( \{x_n\} \downarrow x \) respectively.

Proposition C.6. Assume \( E \) is Riesz space with positive cone \( E^+ \). If \( x, y, z \in E^+ \), then

\[
x \perp (y + z) \Rightarrow x \perp y \text{ and } x \perp z
\]

Proof. By definition \( x \perp (y + z) \) implies that \( |x| \wedge |y + z| = \theta_E \). Then \( x, y, z \in E^+ \) implies that \( \theta_E = |x| \wedge |y + z| = x \wedge (y + z) \). Therefore,

\[
\theta_E = x \wedge (y + z) \succeq x \wedge y \succeq \theta_E,
\]

\[
\theta_E = x \wedge (y + z) \succeq x \wedge z \succeq \theta_E,
\]

which implies that \( x \perp y \) and \( x \perp z \). \( \square \)

We make use of the following simple lemma.

Lemma C.7. Let \( x \) and \( y \) be elements of the Riesz space \( E \). If \( y \neq \theta_E \) and \( x \wedge y = \theta_E \), then \( x \) is not an order unit.

Proof. Prove the contrapositive and assume \( x \) is an order unit. Then there exists a \( \lambda > 0 \) such that \( y \preceq \lambda x \). Then \( \lambda x \wedge y = y \) and \( y \neq \theta_E \) by hypothesis. By Proposition C.4(i), this implies that \( x \wedge y = \theta_E \), i.e. \( x \) and \( y \) are not disjoint. \( \square \)

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C.2 The Order Dual

**Theorem C.8** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Theorem 8.24). The order dual $E^\sim$ of any Riesz space is an order complete Riesz space.

**Definition.** A subset $S$ of a Riesz space is order closed if $\{x_\alpha\} \subseteq S$ and $x_\alpha \uparrow x$ imply $x \in S$. An order closed ideal is called a band.

**Definition.** Let $E$ be a Riesz space. A band generated by a set $S \subseteq E$ is the intersection of all bands in $E$ that contain $S$. The band $B_x$ generated by a singleton set $\{x\}$ is called a principal band.

**Definition.** The set of all $\sigma$-order continuous linear functionals on a Riesz space $E$ is a vector subspace of $E^\sim$, denoted $E^\sim_c$. It is called the $\sigma$-order continuous dual of $E$.

**Theorem C.9** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Theorem 8.28). The $\sigma$-order continuous dual of a Riesz space is a band in its order dual.

**Theorem C.10** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Theorem 8.20). Every band $B$ in an order complete Riesz space $E$ satisfies

$$E = B \oplus B^d.$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.1)

Bands that satisfy (C.1) are called projection bands.

Theorems C.8 to C.10 imply the following corollary.

**Corollary C.11.** $E^\sim = E^\sim_c \oplus E^\sim_s$, where $E^\sim_s$ denotes $(E^\sim_c)^d$. The elements of $E^\sim_s$ are called singular dual functionals.

C.3 Projection

**Definition.** Let $B$ be a projection band in a Riesz space $E$. Since $E = B \oplus B^d$, for every $x \in E$ there exists an $x_1 \in B$ and an $x_2 \in B^d$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. Let $P_B : E \to B$ be defined as $P_B(x) := x_1$. The operator $P_B$ is called an order projection.

**Proposition C.12** (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Theorem 1.43). If $B$ is a projection band of a Riesz space $E$, then $P_B(x) = \sup\{y \in B : 0 \leq y \leq x\}$ holds for all $x \in E^+$.

**Remark C.13.** The projection operator $P_B$ is a positive operator. Apply Proposition C.12 for $x \in E_+$ and observe $\sup(B \cap [\theta, x]) \geq \theta$.

**Definition.** A vector $x$ in a Riesz space $E$ is a projection vector if the principal band $B_x$ generated by $x$ is a projection band. If every vector in the Riesz space $E$ is a projection vector, then $E$ has the principal projection property.

**Proposition C.14** (Zaanen [51], Theorem 12.3). Every $\sigma$-order complete Riesz space has the principal projection property.
Proposition C.15 (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Theorem 1.47). A vector \( x \) in a Riesz space is a projection vector if and only if \( \sup\{ z \wedge n|x| : n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) exists for all \( z \in E^+ \). In this case \( P(x) = \sup\{ z \wedge n|x| : n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) holds for all \( z \in E^+ \).

Proposition C.16 below provides a sufficient condition so that the projection of an order unit \( e \) on \( z \), \( P_z(e) \), is not an order unit. The key idea is to give a sufficient condition for \( \sup\{ e \wedge n|z| : n \in \mathbb{N} \} \) to be a non-order unit. The intuition for making this work comes from \( \mathbb{R}^n \). If a “component” of the vector \( e \wedge n|z| \) is zero for every \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), then the supremum cannot be an order unit. In an arbitrary Riesz space, the “zero component” condition is achieved by guaranteeing the existence of a nonzero vector \( y \) such that \( z \wedge y = \theta_E \).

**Proposition C.16.** Let \( E \) be a \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz space with order unit \( e \succ \theta_E \). Assume there exists nonzero, nonnegative \( z,y \in E \) such that \( z \wedge y = \theta_E \). Then \( P_z(e) \), the order projection of \( e \) onto the principal projection band \( B_z \), is not an order unit.

**Proof.** Since \( E \) be a \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz space, by the principal projection property, \( z \) is a projection vector and by Proposition C.15

\[
P_z(e) = \sup\{ e \wedge n|z| : n \in \mathbb{N} \} = \sup\{ e \wedge nz : n \in \mathbb{N} \}
\]

since \( z \succeq \theta_E \) by hypothesis. Also by hypothesis, \( z \wedge y = \theta_E \) which implies \( nz \wedge y = \theta_E \) by Proposition C.4 part i. Then

\[
\theta_E \preceq (e \wedge nz) \wedge y \preceq nz \wedge y = \theta_E.
\]

Clearly \( y \to y \) and by definition of \( P_z(e) \), \( (e \wedge nz) \to P_z(e) \). Then by Proposition C.1 part iv

\[
\theta_E = (e \wedge nz) \wedge y \to P_z(e) \wedge y.
\]

Since \( P_z(e) \wedge y = \theta_E \), and \( y \neq \theta_E \), \( P_z(e) \) cannot be an order unit by Lemma C.7. \qed

**D Banach Lattices**

Theorem 3.13 uses an order-algebraic approach to prove that infinite dimensional, \( \sigma \)-order complete Riesz spaces with order units have order duals that contain singular dual functionals. Alternatively, similar, but weaker results can be proved using topological methods. First some definitions.

**Definition** (Banach lattice). Let \( E \) be a Riesz space with norm \( || \cdot || \). We say \( || \cdot || \) is a lattice norm if for \( x,y \in E \) with \( |x| \leq |y| \), then \( ||x|| \leq ||y|| \). A Riesz space equipped with a lattice norm is called a normed Riesz space. If the lattice norm is norm-complete (that is, Cauchy sequences converge in norm) then \( E \) is a Banach lattice.

**Definition** (AM-space). A lattice norm on a Riesz space \( E \) is an \( M \)-norm if \( x,y \succeq \theta_E \) implies \( ||x \vee y|| = \max\{||x||,||y||\} \). A Banach lattice with an \( M \)-norm is an AM-space.
Definition (Order Continuous Norm). The lattice norm $\| \cdot \|$ is an order continuous norm if $x_\alpha \downarrow \theta_E$ implies $\|x_\alpha\| \downarrow 0$.

Definition ($\sigma$-Order Continuous Norm). The lattice norm $\| \cdot \|$ is a $\sigma$-order continuous norm if $x_n \downarrow \theta_E$ implies $\|x_n\| \downarrow 0$.

**Theorem D.1** (Aliprantis and Border [2], Theorem 9.28). If $E$ is either a Banach lattice or an order complete Riesz space, then for each $x \in E$ the principal ideal $E_x$, equipped with the norm
\[
||y||_\infty = \inf \{ \lambda > 0 : |y| \preceq \lambda |x| \} = \min \{ \lambda \geq 0 : |y| \preceq \lambda x \},
\]
is an AM-space, with order unit $|x|$.

If $E$ is an order complete Riesz space with an order unit $e \succ \theta_E$, then the principal ideal $E_e$ is all of $E$. Therefore, Theorem D.1 implies that every order complete Riesz space with order unit is a Banach lattice, indeed an AM-space when equipped with norm topology $|| \cdot ||_\infty$.

**Theorem D.2** (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Corollary 4.4). All lattice norms that make a Riesz space a Banach lattice are equivalent.

**Theorem D.3** (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Corollary 4.5). If $E$ is a Banach lattice then $E^* = E^\sim$ where $E^*$ is the norm dual and $E^\sim$ is the order dual.

**Theorem D.4** (Aliprantis and Burkinshaw [4], Theorem 4.51; or Wnuk [48], Theorem 1.1). For an arbitrary $\sigma$-order complete Banach lattice $E$ the following statements are equivalent

(i) $E$ does not have order continuous norm.

(ii) There exists an order bounded disjoint sequence of $E^+$ that does not converge in norm to zero.

**Theorem D.5** (Zaanen [50], Theorem 103.9). A Banach lattice $E$ has an order continuous norm if and only if $E$ is $\sigma$-order complete and $E$ has a $\sigma$-order continuous norm.

**Theorem D.6** (Zaanen [50], Theorem 102.8). A Banach lattice $E$ has a $\sigma$-order continuous norm if and only if $E^* = E^\sim_c$.

The logic for Theorem D.7 given below follows from page 48 of Wnuk [48].

**Theorem D.7.** If an infinite dimensional vector space $E$ is either a $\sigma$-order complete Banach lattice or an order complete Riesz space and $E$ contains an order unit $e \succ \theta_E$, then there exists a nonzero singular functional in the algebraic dual $E'$, the order dual $E^\sim$ and the norm dual $E^*$. 

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Proof. By Theorem D.1, \((E, \|\cdot\|_\infty)\) is an AM-space with an order unit where \(\|\cdot\|_\infty\) is defined as
\[
\|x\|_\infty := \inf\{\lambda > 0 : |x| \leq \lambda e\}. \tag{D.1}
\]
By Theorem D.2 all lattice norms that make \(E\) a Banach lattice are equivalent, and so without loss, take \(E\) to be the Banach lattice \(E = (E, \|\cdot\|_\infty)\).

By hypothesis, \(E\) is infinite dimensional. Then by Lemma 3.10, \(E\) contains an infinite sequence \(\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty\) of pairwise disjoint elements. By definition of disjointness, we can assume this sequence is positive. By Proposition C.4(i) the sequence defined as
\[
y_n := \frac{x_n}{\|x_n\|_\infty} \tag{D.2}
\]
is still positive pairwise disjoint. By the definition of \(y_n\) in (D.2), \(\|y_n\|_\infty = 1\) which implies by definition of the \(\|\cdot\|_\infty\) in (D.1) that \(|y_n| \leq e\). Thus the sequence \(\{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty\) is order bounded by \(e\). Hence \(\{y_n\}_{n=1}^\infty\) is an order bounded sequence of positive pairwise disjoint elements that norm converges to 1. Therefore condition (ii) of Theorem D.4 holds and this implies that \(E\) does not have an order continuous norm.

Since \(E\) is \(\sigma\)-order complete and does not have an order continuous norm, Theorem D.5 implies that \(E\) does not have a \(\sigma\)-continuous norm. Therefore, Theorem D.6 implies that \(E^* \neq E_{c}\) and there exists a nonzero singular dual functional in the norm dual of \(E\). Since \(E^* = E_{c} \subseteq E'\), the norm dual, the order dual and the algebraic dual of \(E\) contain a nonzero singular dual functional. 

\[\square\]