Operations Research (Master's Degree Course)

3. Linear Programming

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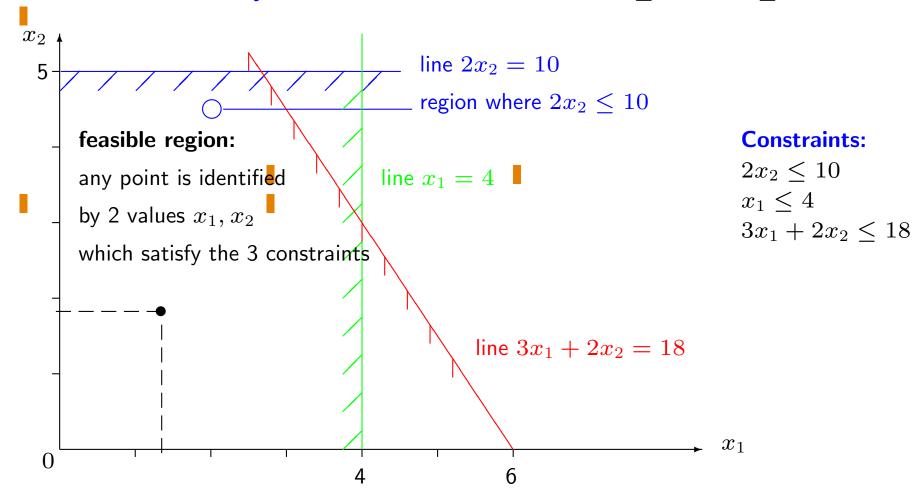
Based on a work at http://www.editrice-esculapio.com

Graphical solution in \mathbb{R}^2

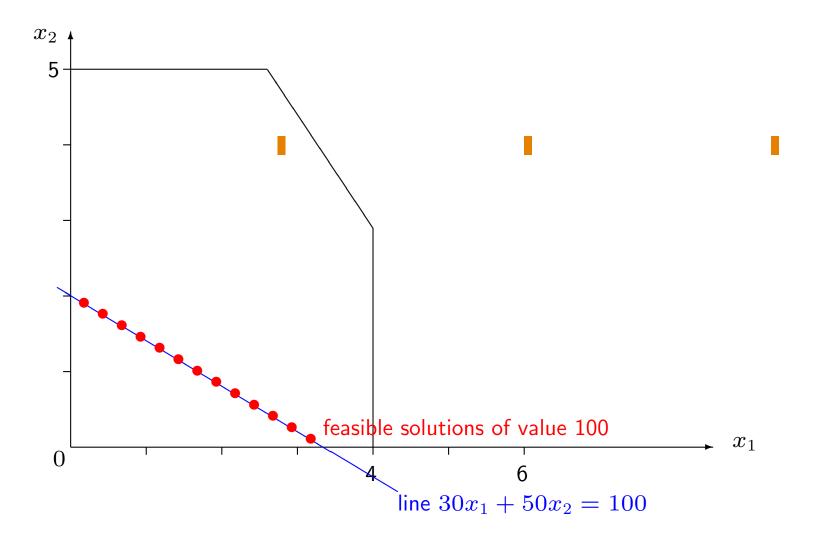
- Let's go back to the Production Planning example seen in the Introduction.
- Mathematical model:

- When a linear programming problem involves only two variables, it can be solved through a geometric approach (graphical solution).
- The **graphical solution** allows to understand some fundamental aspects of linear programming.

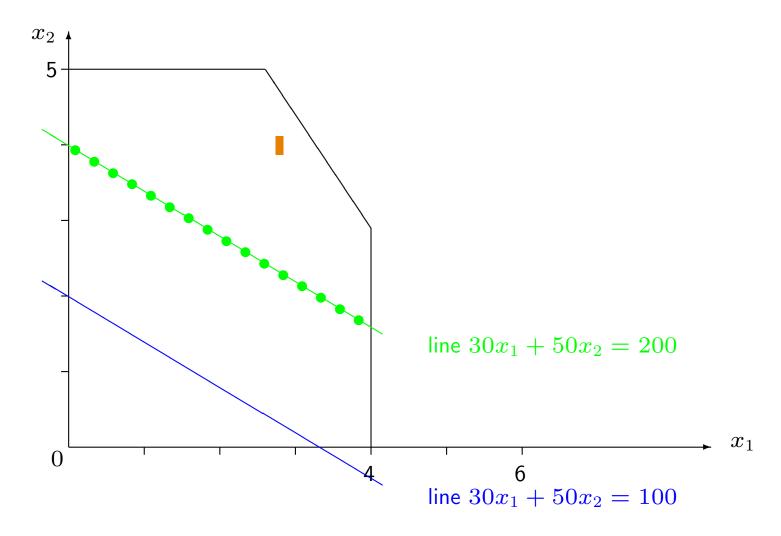
Cartesian coordinate system of variables x_1 and x_2 , with $x_1 \geq 0$ and $x_2 \geq 0$:



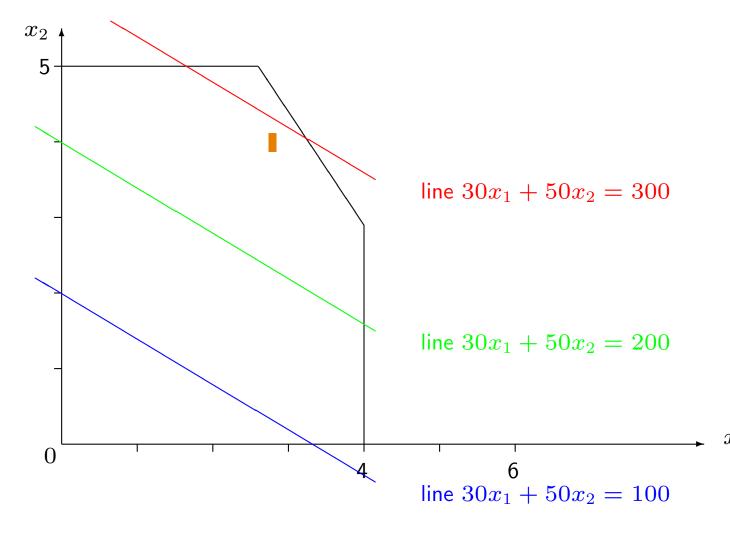
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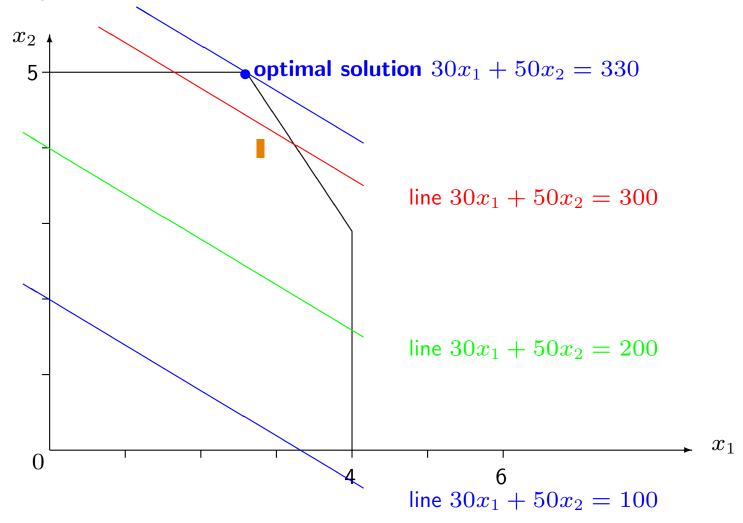
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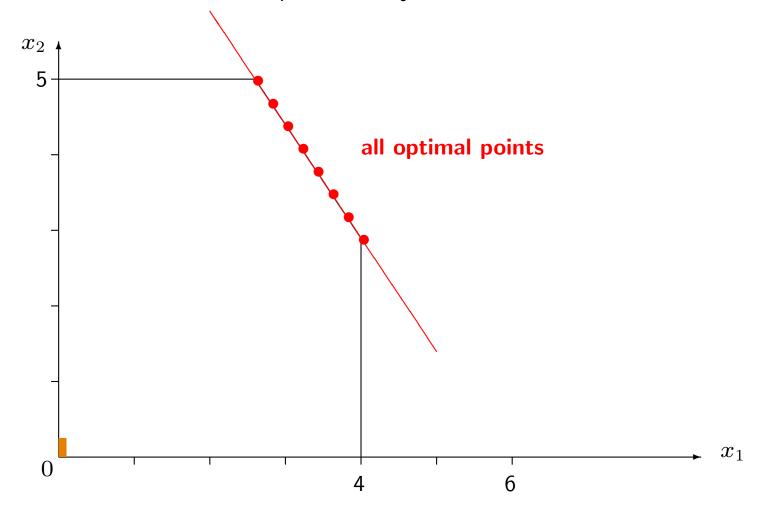
Bundle of parallel lines: the solution value increases in the direction of the **gradient**

$$x_1$$
 gradient = $(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_2})$ = $(30, 50)$

Objective function: $\max z = 30x_1 + 50x_2$, with z unknown:



- Question: Does this mean that only vertices can provide the optimal solution?
- Answer: No! For example, if the objective function is $\max z = 3x_1 + 2x_2$:



Conclusion: No, but it is enough to consider the vertices to find an optimal solution!

Forms of Linear Programming

General form:

 $A = \text{integer } m \times n \text{ matrix};$ b =integer vector of m elements; integer vector of n elements; c =

> $\min c'x$ $\begin{array}{lll} a_i'x & = & b_i & i \in \underline{M} \\ a_i'x & \geq & b_i & i \in \overline{M} \\ x_j & \geq & 0 & j \in \underline{N} \\ x_j & \stackrel{>}{<} & 0 & j \in \overline{N} \end{array} \hspace{0.5cm} (\textbf{Note: } \geq \Leftrightarrow >, < \text{ or } =) \end{array}$

• Example:

min x_1 +

m = 2, n = 3; $M = \{1\}$, $\overline{M} = \{2\}$; $N = \{1,2\}$, $\overline{N} = \{3\}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} , b = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} , c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} .$$

A notable application: The diet problem

A cattle-breeder wants to find the best food mixture to buy in order to conveniently feed cattle.

Input data:

- − n available foods ;
- m nutrients in each food;
- $-a_{ij}=$ quantity of the ith nutrient in 1 unit of the jth food $(i=1,\ldots,m;\,j=1,\ldots,n)$;
- r_i = requirement (in a week, month, . . .) of the ith nutrient $(i=1,\ldots,m)$;
- $-c_j = \text{cost of 1 unit of the } j \text{th food } (j=1,\ldots,n).$

Objective:

- buy quantities of the various foods to guarantee the requirement of each nutrient
- by minimizing the overall cost.

A notable application: The diet problem (cont'd)

Numerical example:

	Foods (content g/Kg)			
Nutrients	Meat	Milk	Soy	Requirement(g)
Proteins	500	300	300	800
Fat	300	300	100	400
Carbohydrate	0	100	200	2000
Cost (€/Kg)	5	1.5	0.8	

• Problem:

- By multiplying or dividing constraints/objective function by a positive constant the problem is unchanged (but remind to congruently divide/multiply the solution).
- Model: n variables x_j (= quantity of the jth food to buy) $(j = 1, \ldots, n)$ $\min \ c'x$

$$Ax \geq r$$

All '≥' constraints, all non negative variables: LP in canonical form.

Forms of Linear Programming (cont'd)

LP in canonical form:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\min c' x \\
Ax & \geq b \\
x & \geq 0
\end{array}$$

• LP in standard form:

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\min c'x \\
Ax &=& b \\
x &\geq& 0
\end{array}$$

- ullet The simplex algorithm solves problems in <u>standard form</u> with m < n. lacksquare
- Hence we need to ensure that there is no loss of generality, i.e., that:
 - the case $m \geq n$ has no interest;
 - the 3 forms are equivalent.
- By assuming that A is of rank m,
 - -m > n cannot occur (no solution);
 - if m=n \exists only one solution to Ax=b (i.e., $x=A^{-1}b$);
 - if $m < n \; \exists \; \infty$ solutions to Ax = b (the system has n-m degrees of freedom); (the value of n-m variables can be arbitrarily decided)
 - the simplex algorithm finds the optimal solution among the feasible ones $(\Leftrightarrow x \geq 0)$, if any.

The three forms are equivalent

1. general form \longrightarrow canonical form:

$$\alpha) \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j = b_i \longrightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_j & \geq b_i \\ \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-a_{ij}) x_j & \geq -b_i \end{cases}$$

$$\beta) \quad x_j \gtrsim 0 \qquad \longrightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_j = x_j^+ - x_j^- \\ x_j^+ \geq 0, \ x_j^- \geq 0 \end{array} \right.$$

2. general form \longrightarrow standard form:

$$\alpha) \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} \ge b_{i} \longrightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} - s_{i} = b_{i} \\ s_{i} \ge 0 \text{ (surplus variable)} \end{cases}$$

ullet (1.lpha) increases m; (1.eta) and (2.lpha) increase (n.ullet)

3. if the constraint is $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \le b_i \longrightarrow \left\{\begin{array}{l} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j + s_i = b_i \\ s_i \ge 0 \text{ (slack variable)} \end{array}\right.$

The three forms are equivalent (cont'd)

• **Example:** general form

• Equivalent canonical form:

• Equivalent standard form:

Linear Independence (recall)

- ullet A set of m columns (vectors) may or may not be Linearly independent.
- It is **NOT** if a column can be expressed as a linear combination of the others. For example,

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 9 \\ -1 & 0 & -3 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- Hence a linear combination of the columns, with **non-zero coefficients** can produce **0**:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} - 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix};$$

- $\det(\mathbf{B}) = 0$; the matrix is **not invertible (singular)**.
- If instead the columns **ARE** linearly independent, e.g., $B=\begin{bmatrix}3&0&0\\0&-2&0\\0&0&4\end{bmatrix}$;
 - no column can be expressed as a linear combination of the others;
 - the only linear combination of the columns that can produce $\underline{0}$ has all null coefficients:

$$r_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + r_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + r_3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \iff r_1 = r_2 = r_3 = 0;$$

 $- \det(\mathbf{B}) \neq \mathbf{0}$; the matrix is invertible (non-singular).

Basic solutions

- **Assumption 1:** A contains m linearly independent columns $A_j \iff A$ is of rank m). **Important:** the algorithm must detect violated assumptions, if any.
- **Basis** of A = collection of m linearly independent columns:

$$\mathcal{B} = \{A_{\beta(1)}, \ldots, A_{\beta(m)}\}$$

• \mathcal{B} corresponds to an $m \times m$ non singular matrix:

$$B = [A_{\beta(i)}]$$

Basic solution x corresponding to \mathcal{B} :

$$x_j = 0$$
 for $A_j \notin \mathcal{B}$ (non basic variables); $x_{\beta(k)} = k$ th component of $B^{-1}b$ $(k = 1, ..., m)$ (basic variables):

$$B$$
 A

 $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\$

Basic solutions (cont'd)

• Example: min

- $\mathcal{B} = \{A_4, \ A_5, \ A_6, \ A_7 \} \Rightarrow B = I.$ Basic solution: x = (0, 0, 0, 4, 2, 3, 6) feasible.

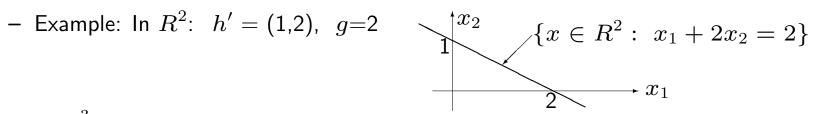
$$- \mathcal{B} = \{A_2, A_5, A_6, A_7\} \Rightarrow B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \\ -3 & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Basic solution: x = (0, 4, 0, 0, 2, 3, -6) unfeasible.

- $F = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax = b, x \ge 0\}.$
- Basic Feasible Solution (BFS) = basic solution $\in F \ (\Leftrightarrow x \ge 0)$.
- Assumption 2: $F \neq \emptyset$.
- Assumption 3: in F, the objective function c'x is bounded from below (its value does not tend to $-\infty$), i.e., F is bounded in the direction in which c'x decreases.

Convex polytopes

- Given a space R^d , a vector $h \neq 0$ and a scalar g: Hyperplane $= \{x \in R^d : h'x = g\}$

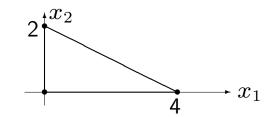


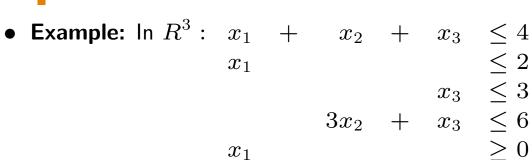
- In \mathbb{R}^3 : a plane.
- A hyperplane defines 2 Halfspaces:

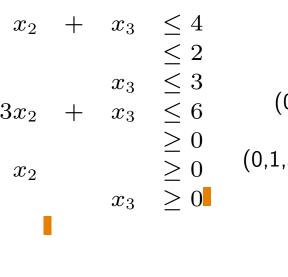
$$\begin{cases}
 x \in R^d : h'x \ge g \\
 x \in R^d : h'x \le g \end{cases}
 \qquad x_1 + 2x_2 \le 2$$

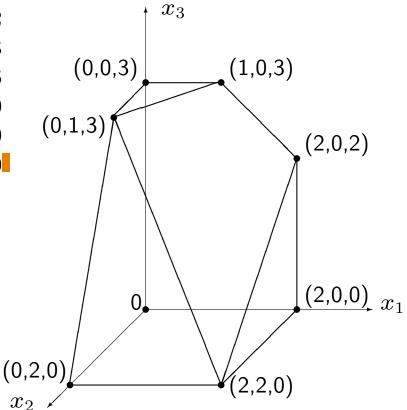
$$x_1 + 2x_2 \le 2$$

- A halfspace S is a convex set $(\forall 2 \text{ points} \in S)$, the line segment joining the $\in S$).
- \Rightarrow The intersection of halfspaces is convex.
- **Polytope** (Convex Polytope) = intersection of a finite number of halfspaces, if bounded and not empty.
- The constraints of an LP (in canonical form) define an intersection of halfspaces, hence a polytope.





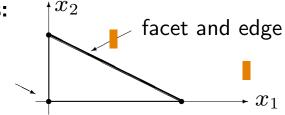


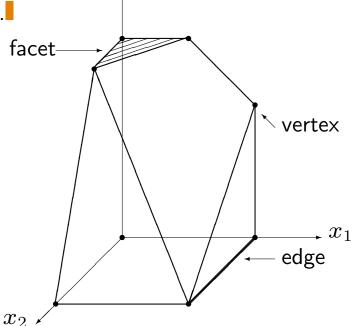


- P = polytope;
- $\cdot H = \text{hyperplane};$
- \cdot HS = halfspace defined by H;
- $\cdot f = P \cap HS;$
- · if $\emptyset \neq f \subseteq H$, f is called a **face** of P.
- If d =dimension of the polytope (=minimum dimension of a space that contains it):
 - facet = face of dimension d-1;
 - vertex = face of dimension 0 (a point);
 - edge = face of dimension 1 (a line segment).

• Examples:

vertex

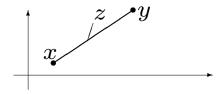




 x_3

• Convex combination of 2 points $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n = \text{point } z \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$$
 (with $0 \le \lambda \le 1$).



By varying λ , z describes all points of line segment [x, y].

• Convex combination of p points $x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(p)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$z=\sum_{i=1}^p lpha_i x^{(i)}$$
 (with $\sum_{i=1}^p lpha_i=1$, $lpha_i\geq 0$ $orall i$).

$$x^{(2)} = (0, 0)$$

$$x^{(3)} = (4, 0)$$

$$x^{(3)} = (4, 0)$$

- $\alpha = (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2})$: $z = \frac{1}{2}(0, 2) + 0(0, 0) + \frac{1}{2}(4, 0) = (2, 1)$;
- $\alpha = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$: $z = \frac{1}{2}(0, 2) + \frac{1}{4}(0, 0) + \frac{1}{4}(4, 0) = (1, 1)$.

- **Property** Every point of a polytope is a convex combination of the vertices and conversely. (**Proof** (complicated) omitted).
- **Property** A vertex is not a **strict** convex combination (i.e., with $0 < \lambda < 1$) of two distinct points of the polytope.

Proof (sufficiency) Let P be a polytope, $v \in P$ a vertex and suppose there are two other points $y, w \in P$ such that

$$v = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)w;$$

 $v \text{ vertex} \Rightarrow \exists \text{ halfspace } HS = \{x: h'x \leq g\}: HS \cap P = v$

$$\Rightarrow y, w \not\in HS \Rightarrow h'y > g \text{ and } h'w > g$$

$$\Rightarrow h'v = h'(\lambda y + (1-\lambda)w) > g \Rightarrow v \not\in HS$$
, absurd. \square

(**Proof (necessity)** omitted).

Polytopes and Linear Programming

• **Property** The constraints of an LP define a polytope.

Proof Immediate by considering the canonical form:

$$\widehat{F} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^q : \widehat{A}x \ge b, x \ge 0\} \quad \widehat{A}(m \times q)$$

is an intersection of halfspaces, bounded (\Leftarrow Assumption 3) and $\neq \emptyset$ (Assumption 2). \square

- $\widehat{F} \subseteq R^q$ has dimension $d \leq q$.
- $\bullet\,$ By Adding m surplus variables, we get the standard form

$$Ax = b$$
 with $A = (\widehat{A} \mid -I)$, so A is an $m \times n$ matrix;

 \Rightarrow the polytope has dimension $d \leq n - m$.

• Fundamental relationship between vertices and basic solutions:

Theorem Given the polytope P defined by the constraints of an LP, a necessary and sufficient condition for a point to be a vertex is that the corresponding vector x be a BFS.

Proof We will separately proof sufficiency and necessity.

- Sufficiency BFS $x_{\beta}=(x_{\beta(1)},\ldots,x_{\beta(m)})$ for a base $\mathcal{B}=\{A_{\beta(1)},\ldots,A_{\beta(m)}\}\Rightarrow$ $\sum_{A_{j}\in\mathcal{B}}x_{j}A_{j}=b.$
- We will show that x is a vertex, i.e., it is not a strict convex combination of two other distinct points $y, w \in P$.
- Assume it is, i.e., $x = \lambda y + (1 \lambda)w$ with $0 < \lambda < 1$.
- $y, w \in P \Longrightarrow y_j, w_j \ge 0 \ \forall j.$ $\Rightarrow y_j = w_j = 0 \ \forall A_j \notin \mathcal{B} \ (\Leftarrow x_j = 0) \Rightarrow \blacksquare$
- $ullet \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} y_j A_j = b; \ \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} w_j A_j = b \Rightarrow lacksquare$
- $\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} (x_j y_j) A_j = 0;$ $\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} (x_j w_j) A_j = 0.$
- $A_{\beta(1)},\ldots,A_{\beta(m)}$ are linearly independent $\Rightarrow x_j y_j = x_j w_j = 0 \ \forall \ A_j \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow x \equiv y \equiv w$. \square

- Necessity $x \in F$ vector corresponding to the vertex. $\mathbb{C} = \{A_j : x_j > 0\}$.
- ullet We will show that $A_j \in \mathcal{C}$ are linearly independent.
- Suppose they are not: this implies that $\exists d_i$ not all zero s.t.
- $\bullet \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{C}} d_j A_j = 0; \qquad (\alpha)$
- $x \in F \Rightarrow \sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{C}} x_j A_j = b, \ x_j \ge 0 \ \forall j; \ (\beta)$
- now multiply (α) by a scalar ϑ , and add/subtract from (β) : $\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{C}} (x_j \pm \vartheta d_j) A_j = b$
- $x_j > 0 \ \forall A_j \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \exists \ \vartheta$ (sufficiently small) s.t. $x_j \pm \vartheta d_j \geq 0 \ \forall A_j \in \mathcal{C}$
- $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ two points, defined by:

$$\begin{cases} x_j^{(1)} = x_j + \vartheta d_j, \ x_j^{(2)} = x_j - \vartheta d_j & \text{if } A_j \in \mathcal{C}, \\ x_j^{(1)} = x_j^{(2)} = 0, & \text{if } A_j \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases}$$

- s.t. $x^{(1)},x^{(2)}\in F$, and $x=\frac{1}{2}x^{(1)}+\frac{1}{2}x^{(2)}$ (\Leftrightarrow the point is not a vertex).
- Hence $A_j \in \mathcal{C}$ are linearly independent $\Rightarrow |\mathcal{C}| \leq m$;
- since A is of rank m, if $|\mathcal{C}| < m$ we can add columns to obtain \mathcal{C}' linearly independent with $|\mathcal{C}'| = m \Rightarrow x$ is a BFS. \square

• Example

• Standard form: $\min c'x$

BFSs:

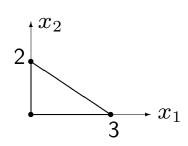
$$\mathcal{B} = \{A_1\}: x_2 = x_3 = 0, x_1 = 3;$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \{A_2\}: x_1 = x_3 = 0, x_2 = 2;$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \{A_3\}: x_1 = x_2 = 0, x_3 = 6.$$

• Canonical form:

$$\min c'x$$



• Theorem For any LP there exists an optimal vertex (i.e., an optimal basis)

Proof c= cost vector; $x^{(0)}=$ optimal solution; $x^{(1)},\ldots,x^{(p)}=$ vertices of P.

$$x^{(0)} \in P \Rightarrow x^{(0)} = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i x^{(i)} \qquad \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i = 1, \ \alpha_i \ge 0 \ \forall i\right);$$

let $x^{(j)}$ be s.t. $c'x^{(j)} = \min_{1 \le i \le p} \{c'x^{(i)}\};$

$$c'x^{(0)} = c'\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i x^{(i)} \ge c'x^{(j)}\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i = c'x^{(j)} \Rightarrow c'x^{(j)} = c'x^{(0)}.$$

• Corollary Any convex combination of optimal vertices is optimal.

Proof $x^{(1)}$, . . . , $x^{(q)} =$ optimal vertices;

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i x^{(i)} \implies c' x = \sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i c' x^{(i)} = c' x^{(1)} \sum_{i=1}^{q} \alpha_i = c' x^{(1)}. \quad \Box$$

- Hence an LP can be solved in a finite number of steps by examining
 - · all vertices of P, i.e.,
 - · all BFSs of Ax = b, i.e.,
 - · all combinations of m columns of A, and testing feasibility.
- Simplex algorithm: method to only explore a small subset of the vertices of P.

- Degenerate Bases
- A base $\mathcal B$ uniquely determines a BFS, so $(\mathsf{BFS}' \neq \mathsf{BFS}'') \ \Rightarrow \ (\mathcal B' \neq \mathcal B'')$.
- Instead $(\mathcal{B}' \neq \mathcal{B}'') \implies (\mathsf{BFS}' \neq \mathsf{BFS}'')$. Indeed

$$\bullet \ \, \textbf{Example} \ A = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right], \qquad b = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 6 \\ 5 \end{array} \right]. \boxed{ } .$$

$$\mathcal{B}' = \{A_1, A_4, A_5\} : (B')^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x' = (0, 0, 0, 6, 5);$$

$$\mathcal{B}'' = \{A_3, A_4, A_5\} : (B'')^{-1} = I, \qquad x'' = (0, 0, 0, 6, 5)$$

$$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$$

more than n-m zeroes.

- A BFS is called **degenerate** if it contains more than n-m zeroes.
- Theorem If two distinct bases \mathcal{B}' and \mathcal{B}'' correspond to the same BFS x, then x is degenerate. Proof x has n-m zeroes in those columns that are not in \mathcal{B}' and additional zeroes in the columns of $\mathcal{B}' \setminus \mathcal{B}'' (\neq \emptyset)$.