

Operations Research (Master's Degree Course)

3. Linear Programming

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Graphical solution in R^2

- Let's go back to the **Production Planning** example seen in the **Introduction**.

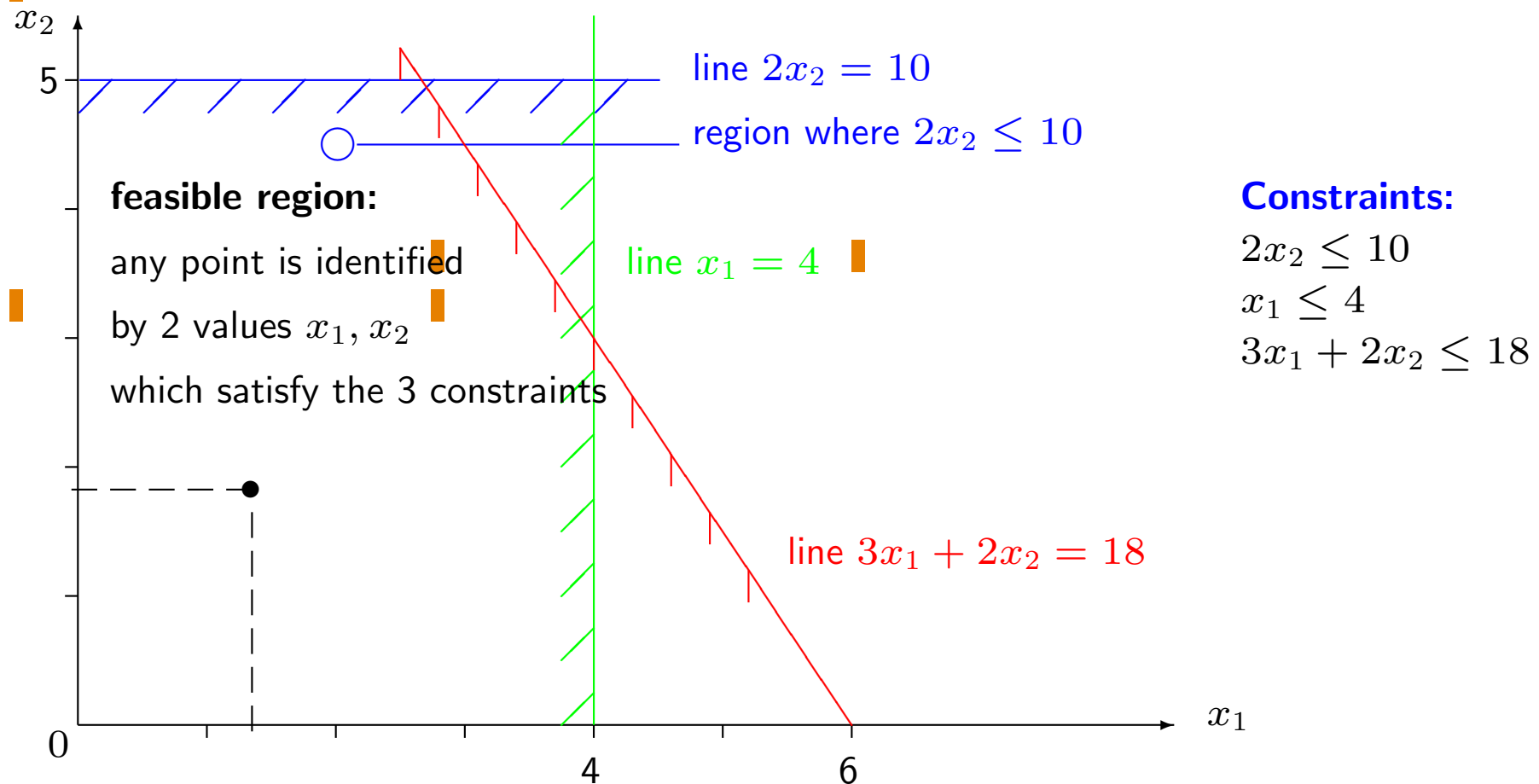
- Mathematical model:**

$$\begin{aligned}\max z = & 30 x_1 + 50 x_2 \\ & x_1 \leq 4 \\ & 2 x_2 \leq 10 \\ 3 x_1 + 2 x_2 & \leq 18 \\ x_1, x_2 & \geq 0\end{aligned}$$

- 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.

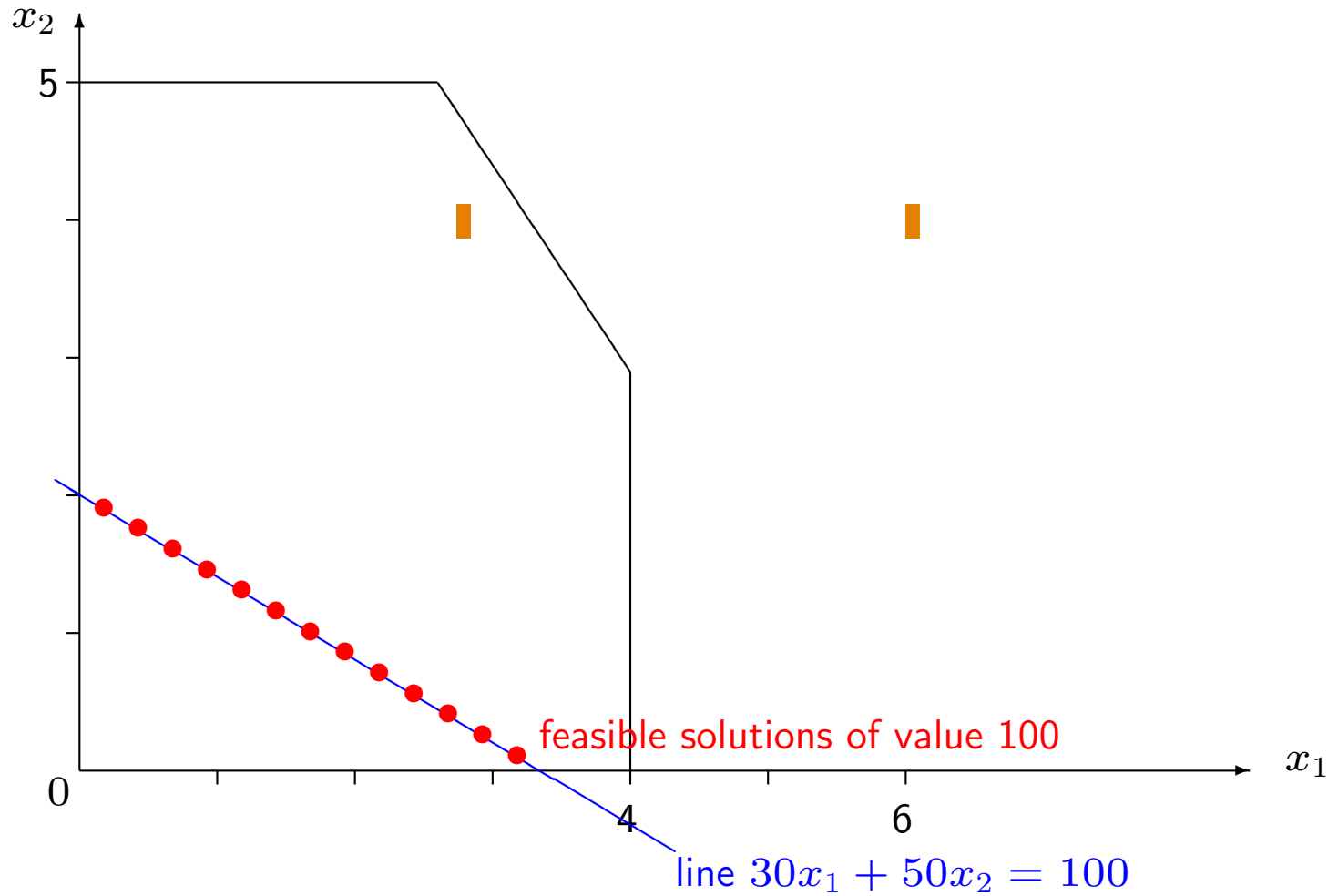
Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

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



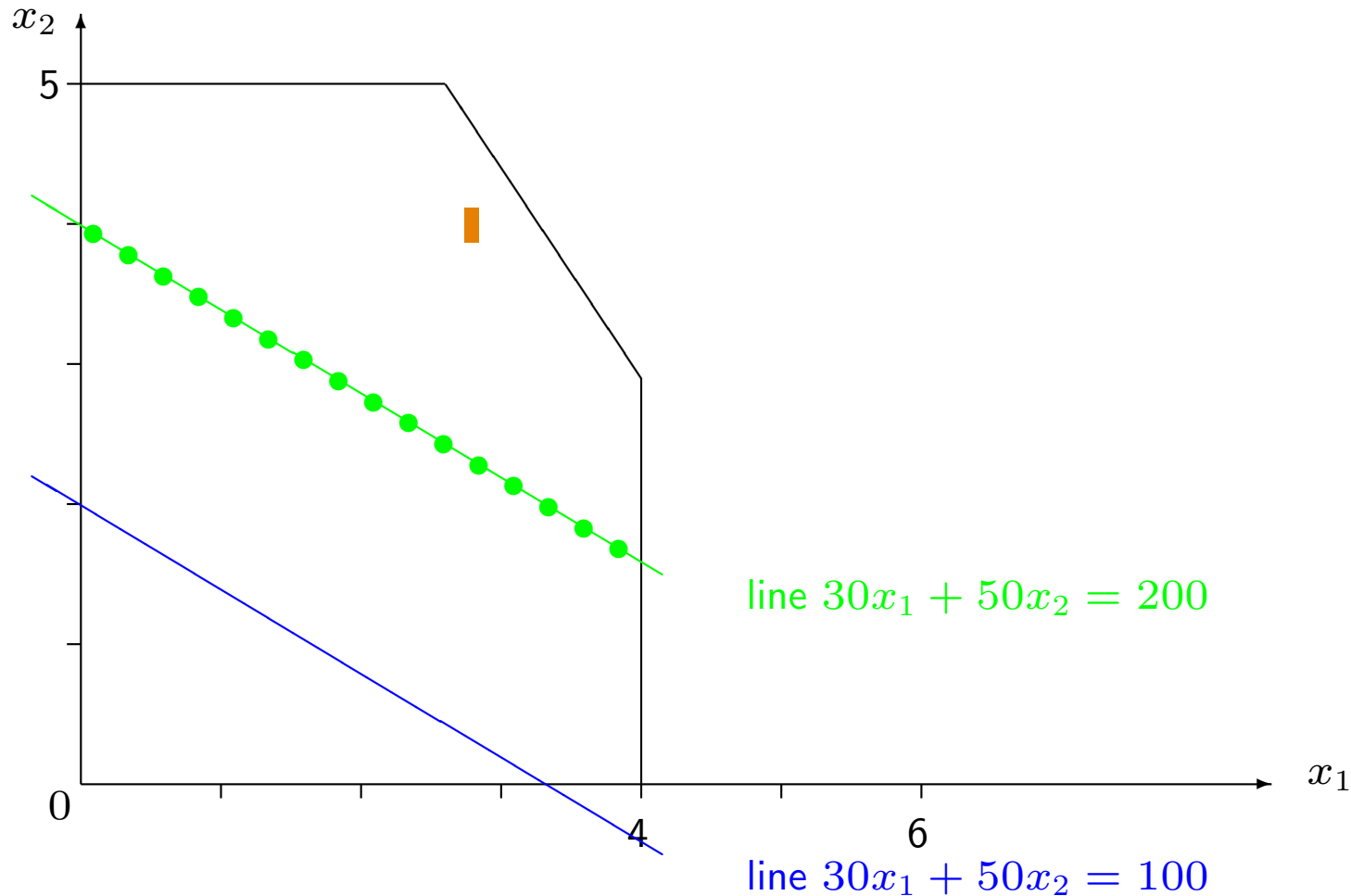
Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

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



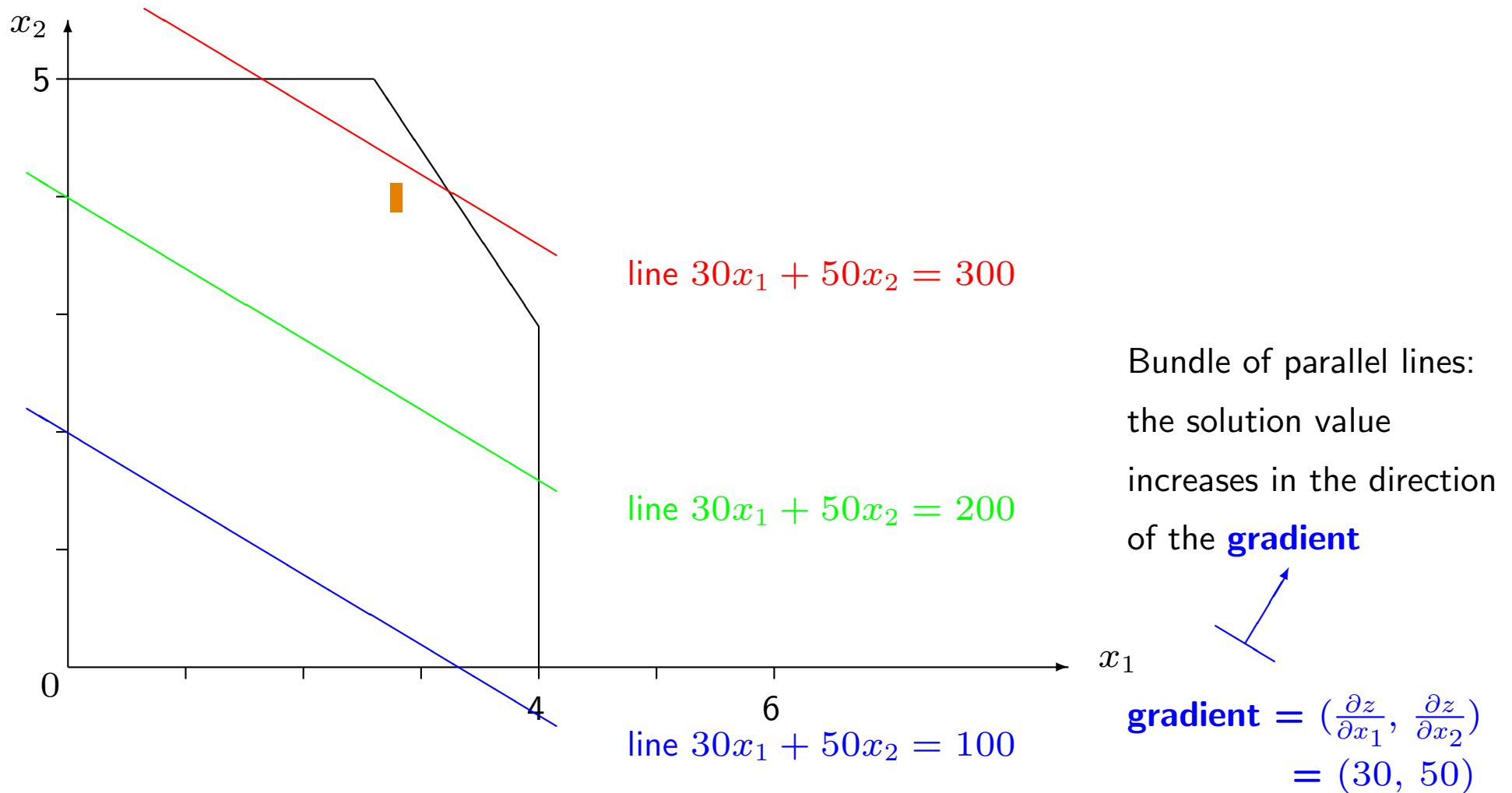
Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

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



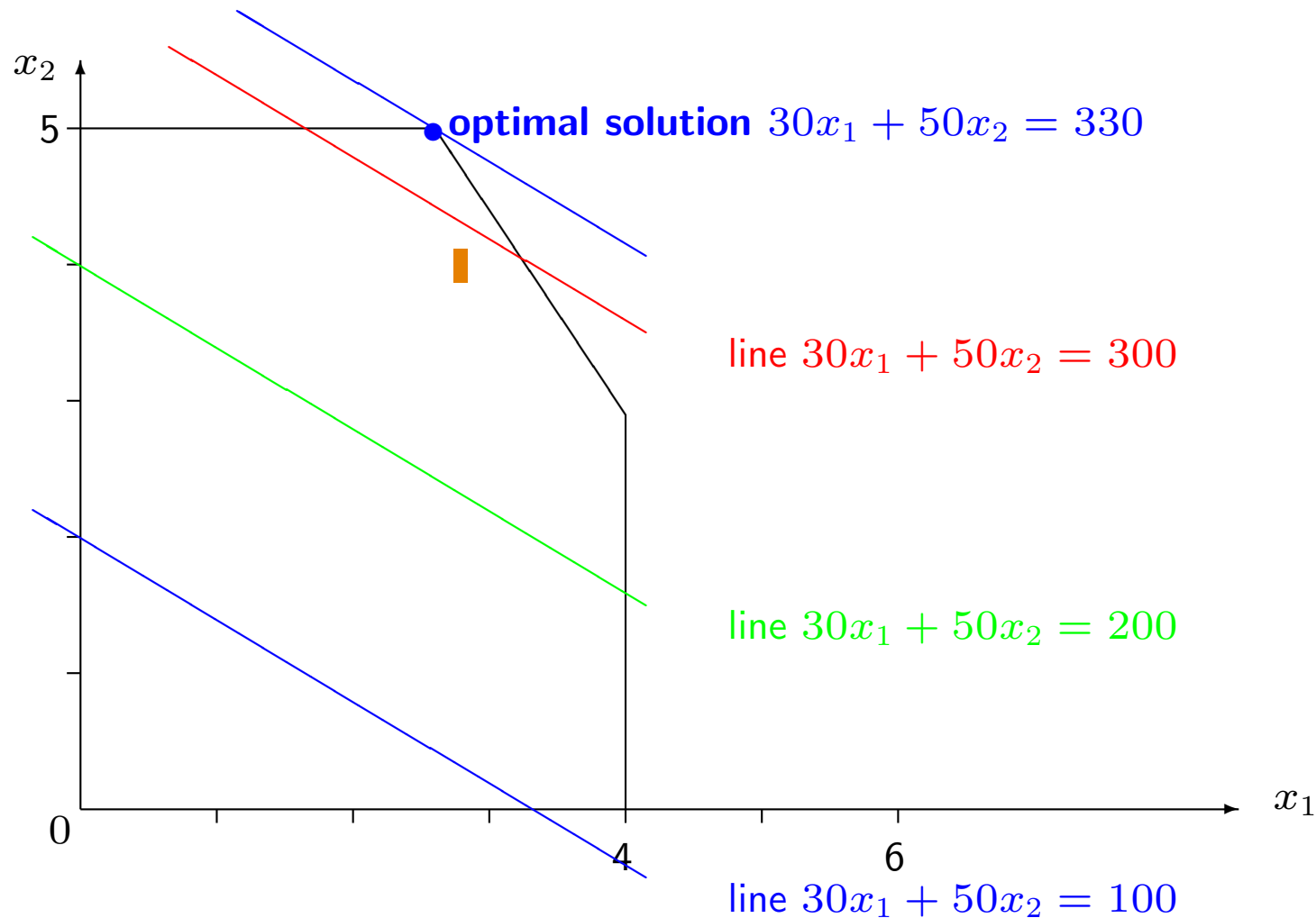
Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

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



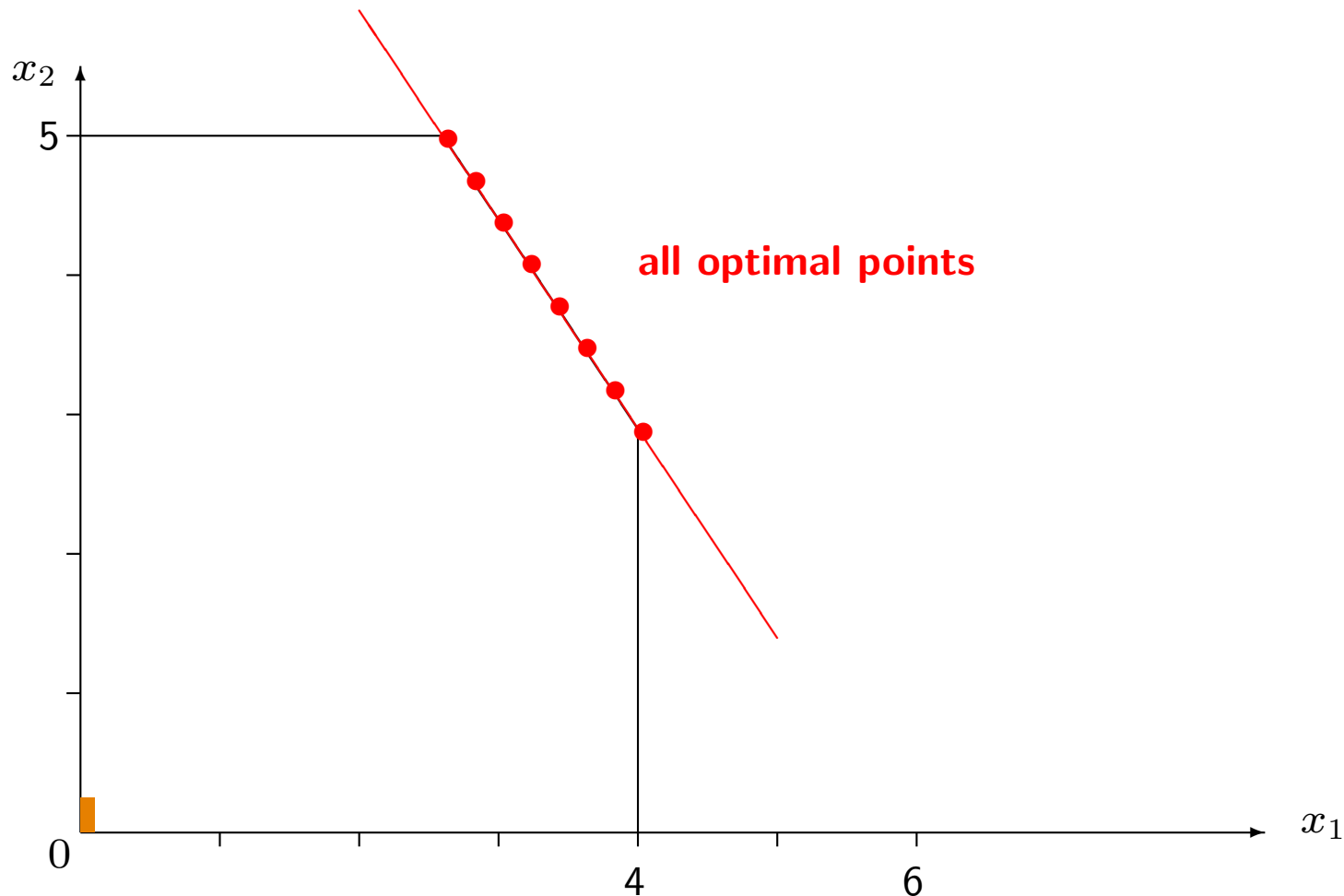
Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

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



Graphical solution in R^2 (cont'd)

- **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:

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

$\min c'x$

$$a'_i x = b_i \quad i \in M$$

$$a'_i x \geq b_i \quad i \in \overline{M}$$

$$x_j \geq 0 \quad j \in N$$

$$x_j \leq 0 \quad j \in \overline{N}$$

(Note: $\geq \Leftrightarrow >, < \text{ or } =$)

- Example:

$$\begin{array}{rclcl}
 \min & x_1 & & + & x_3 \\
 & & x_2 & - & 2x_3 & = & 4 \\
 & x_1 & + & x_2 & & \geq & 3 \\
 & x_1 & , & x_2 & & \geq & 0 \\
 & & & & x_3 & \leq & 0
 \end{array}$$

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

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

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 i th nutrient in 1 unit of the j th food ($i = 1, \dots, m; j = 1, \dots, n$);
 - r_i = requirement (in a week, month, ...) of the i th nutrient ($i = 1, \dots, m$);
 - c_j = cost of 1 unit of the j th food ($j = 1, \dots, n$).
- **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:

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

- Problem:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \min z = & 50 x_1 + 15 x_2 + 8 x_3 && \text{(better to use integer values)} \\
 \text{s.t.} & 5 x_1 + 3 x_2 + 3 x_3 \geq 8 \\
 & 3 x_1 + 3 x_2 + x_3 \geq 4 \\
 & x_2 + 2 x_3 \geq 20 \\
 & x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

- 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 j th food to buy) ($j = 1, \dots, n$)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \min \quad & c'x \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & Ax \geq r \\
 & x \geq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

- All ' \geq ' constraints, all non negative variables: LP in **canonical form**.

Forms of Linear Programming (cont'd)

- LP in **canonical form**:

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

- LP in **standard form**:

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

- The simplex algorithm solves problems in standard form with $m < n$.**
- 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:

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

$$\beta) x_j \geq 0 \longrightarrow \begin{cases} x_j = x_j^+ - x_j^- \\ x_j^+ \geq 0, x_j^- \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

2. general form \longrightarrow standard form:

$$\alpha) \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \geq b_i \longrightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j - s_i = b_i \\ s_i \geq 0 \text{ (surplus variable)} \end{cases}$$

- 1. α) increases m ; 1. β) and 2. α) increase n .

3. if the constraint is

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \leq b_i \longrightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j + s_i = b_i \\ s_i \geq 0 \text{ (slack variable)} \end{cases}$$

The three forms are equivalent (cont'd)

- **Example:** general form

$$\begin{array}{rcllcl}
 \min & x_1 & & + & x_3 & \\
 & & x_2 & - & 2x_3 & = 4 \\
 & x_1 & + & x_2 & & \geq 3 \\
 & x_1 & , & x_2 & & \geq 0 \\
 & & & & x_3 & \leq 0
 \end{array}$$

- Equivalent canonical form:

$$\begin{array}{rcllcl}
 \min & x_1 & & + & x_3^+ & - & x_3^- & \\
 & & x_2 & - & 2x_3^+ & + & 2x_3^- & \geq 4 \\
 & & - & x_2 & + & 2x_3^+ & - & 2x_3^- & \geq -4 \\
 & x_1 & + & x_2 & & & & \geq 3 \\
 & x_1 & , & x_2 & , & x_3^+ & , & x_3^- & \geq 0
 \end{array}$$

- Equivalent standard form:

$$\begin{array}{rcllcl}
 \min & x_1 & & + & x_3^+ & - & x_3^- & \\
 & & x_2 & - & 2x_3^+ & + & 2x_3^- & = 4 \\
 & x_1 & + & x_2 & & & - & s_2 & = 3 \\
 & x_1 & , & x_2 & , & x_3^+ & , & x_3^- & , & s_2 & \geq 0
 \end{array}$$

Linear Independence (recall)

- 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**:

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

- **$\det(B) = 0$** ; 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 **0** has all null coefficients:

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

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

100

- **Important:** the algorithm must detect violated assumptions, if any.
- **Basis** of A = collection of m linearly independent columns:

- **Basis** of A = collection of m linearly independent columns:

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

- **Basic solution** x corresponding to \mathcal{B} :

$$x_{\beta(k)} = k\text{th component of } B^{-1}b \ (k = 1, \dots, m) \text{ (basic variables):}$$

the unique solution $x_\beta = B^{-1}b$ ($x_j = 0 \ \forall A_j \notin \mathcal{B}$)

- satisfies $Ax = b$;
- does not necessarily satisfy $x \geq 0$. ■

Basic solutions (cont'd)

● Example: min $2x_2 + x_4 + 5x_7$

$$\begin{array}{rcll}
 x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 & = & 4 \\
 x_1 + x_5 & = & 2 \\
 x_3 + x_6 & = & 3 \\
 3x_2 + x_3 + x_7 & = & 6 \\
 x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7 & \geq & 0
 \end{array}$$

– $\mathcal{B} = \{A_4, A_5, A_6, A_7\} \Rightarrow B = I.$

Basic solution: $x = (0, 0, 0, 4, 2, 3, 6)$ feasible.

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

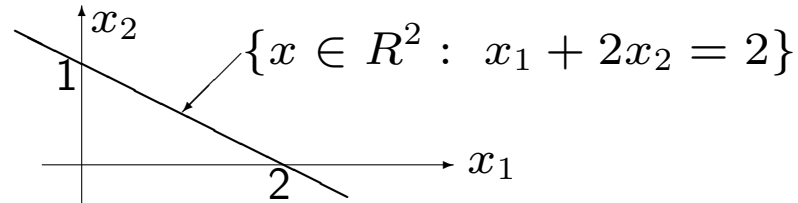
Basic solution: $x = (0, 4, 0, 0, 2, 3, -6)$ unfeasible.

- $F = \{x \in R^n : Ax = b, x \geq 0\}.$
- **Basic Feasible Solution (BFS)** = basic solution $\in F$ ($\Leftrightarrow x \geq 0$).
- **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

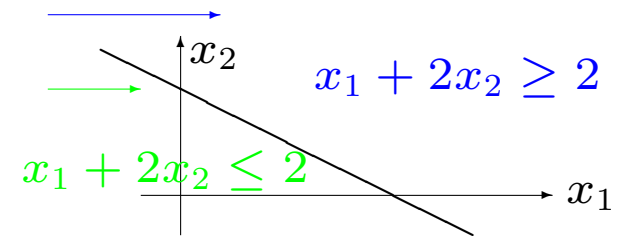
- Given a space R^d , a vector $h \neq 0$ and a scalar g : **Hyperplane** = $\{x \in R^d : h'x = g\}$

– Example: In R^2 : $h' = (1,2)$, $g=2$



– In R^3 : a plane.

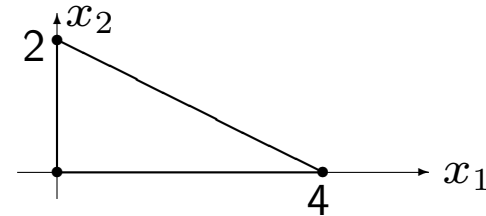
- A hyperplane defines 2 **Halfspaces**:
 $\{x \in R^d : h'x \geq g\}$
 $\{x \in R^d : h'x \leq g\}$



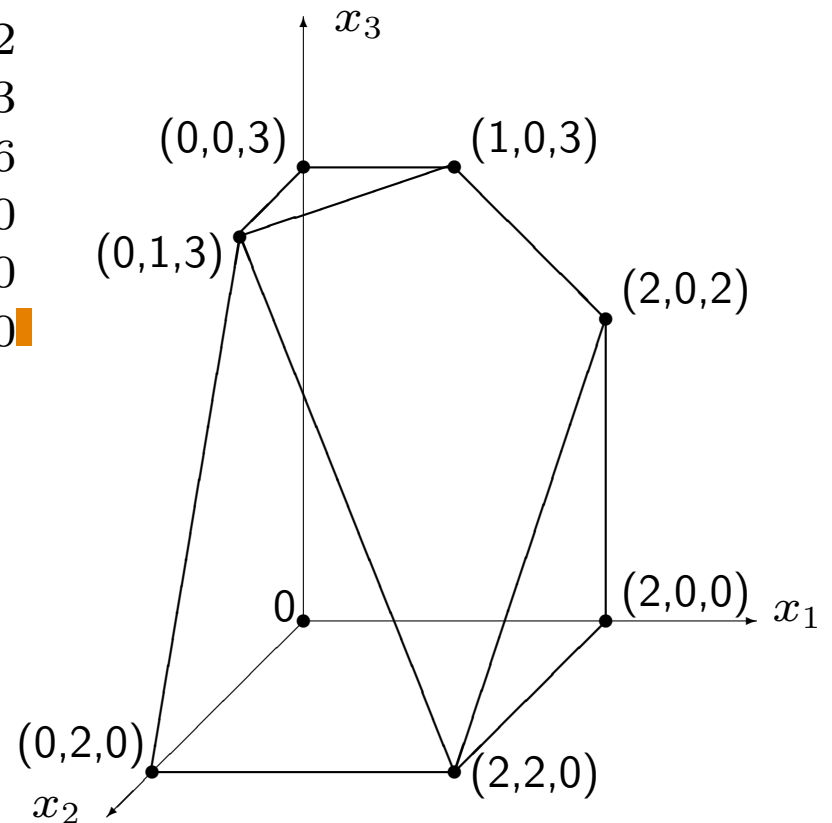
- A halfspace S is a convex set (\forall 2 points $\in S$, the line segment joining the $\in S$).
- \Rightarrow The intersection of halfspaces is convex.
- Polytope (Convex Polytope)** = intersection of a finite number of halfspaces, if bounded and not empty.
- The constraints of an LP (in canonical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

Convex polytopes (cont'd)

- **Example:** In R^2 : $x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 4$
 $x_1 \geq 0$
 $x_2 \geq 0$



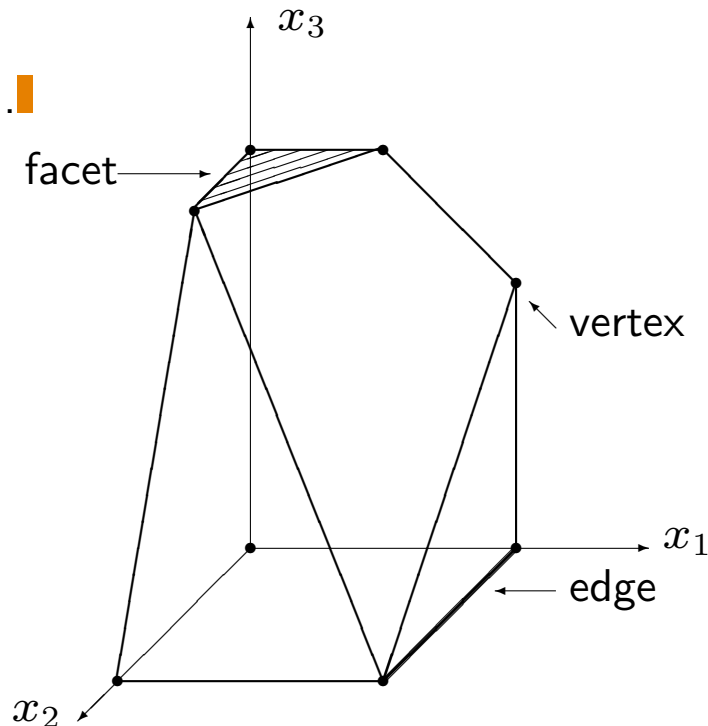
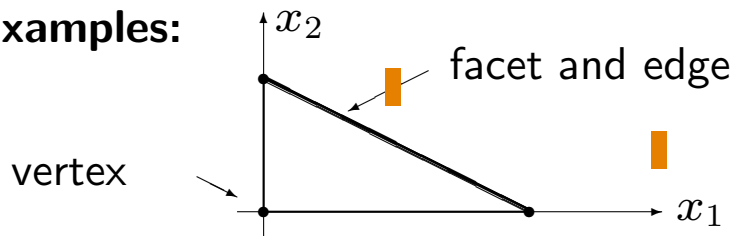
- **Example:** In R^3 : $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \leq 4$
 $x_1 \leq 2$
 $x_3 \leq 3$
 $3x_2 + x_3 \leq 6$
 $x_1 \geq 0$
 $x_2 \geq 0$
 $x_3 \geq 0$



Convex polytopes (cont'd)

- P = polytope;
 - H = hyperplane;
 - HS = halfspace defined by H ;
 - $f = P \cap HS$;
 - 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).

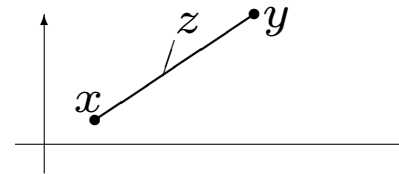
- **Examples:**



Convex polytopes (cont'd)

- **Convex combination of 2 points** $x, y \in R^n$ = point $z \in R^n$:

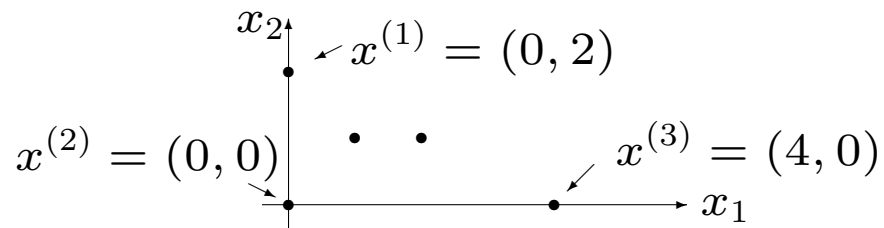
$$z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \quad (\text{with } 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1).$$



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

- **Convex combination of p points** $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(p)} \in R^n$:

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i x^{(i)} \quad (\text{with } \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i = 1, \alpha_i \geq 0 \forall i).$$



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

Convex polytopes (cont'd)

- **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

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

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

$\Rightarrow y, w \notin HS \Rightarrow h'y > g$ and $h'w > g$ ■

$\Rightarrow h'v = h'(\lambda y + (1 - \lambda)w) > g \Rightarrow v \notin HS$, 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:

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

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

- $\widehat{F} \subseteq R^q$ has dimension $d \leq q$.
- 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.

Polytopes and Linear Programming (cont'd)

- **Sufficiency** BFS $x_\beta = (x_{\beta(1)}, \dots, x_{\beta(m)})$ for a base $\mathcal{B} = \{A_{\beta(1)}, \dots, A_{\beta(m)}\} \Rightarrow$

$$\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} x_j A_j = b. \blacksquare$$
- We will show that x is a vertex, i.e., it is not a strict convex combination of two other distinct points $y, w \in P. \blacksquare$
- Assume it is, i.e., $x = \lambda y + (1 - \lambda)w$ with $0 < \lambda < 1. \blacksquare$
- $y, w \in P \Rightarrow y_j, w_j \geq 0 \forall j. \blacksquare$
 $\Rightarrow y_j = w_j = 0 \forall A_j \notin \mathcal{B} \ (\Leftarrow x_j = 0) \Rightarrow \blacksquare$
- $$\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} y_j A_j = b;$$

$$\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} w_j A_j = b \Rightarrow \blacksquare$$
- $$\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} (x_j - y_j) A_j = 0;$$

$$\sum_{A_j \in \mathcal{B}} (x_j - w_j) A_j = 0. \blacksquare$$
- $A_{\beta(1)}, \dots, A_{\beta(m)}$ are linearly independent $\Rightarrow x_j - y_j = x_j - w_j = 0 \forall A_j \in \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow$
 $x \equiv y \equiv w. \square \blacksquare$

Polytopes and Linear Programming (cont'd)

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

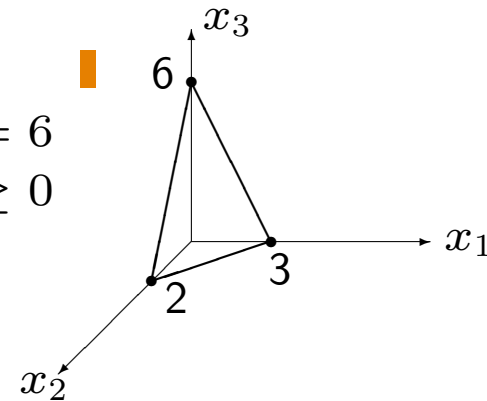
$$\begin{cases} x_j^{(1)} = x_j + \vartheta d_j, & x_j^{(2)} = x_j - \vartheta d_j & \text{if } A_j \in \mathcal{B}, \\ x_j^{(1)} = x_j^{(2)} = 0, & & \text{if } A_j \notin \mathcal{B} \end{cases}$$
- s.t. $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)} \in F$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}x^{(1)} + \frac{1}{2}x^{(2)}$ (\Leftrightarrow the point is not a vertex).
- Hence $A_j \in \mathcal{B}$ are linearly independent $\Rightarrow |\mathcal{B}| \leq m$;
- since A is of rank m , if $|\mathcal{B}| < m$ we can add columns to obtain \mathcal{B}' linearly independent with $|\mathcal{B}'| = m \Rightarrow x$ is a BFS. \square

Polytopes and Linear Programming (cont'd)

- **Example**

- **Standard form:** $\min c'x$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 2x_1 & + & 3x_2 & + & x_3 & = & 6 \\ x_1 & , & x_2 & , & x_3 & \geq & 0 \end{array}$$



BFSs:

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

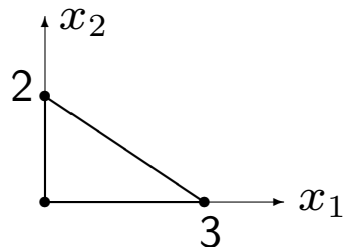
$$\mathcal{B} = \{A_2\} : x_1 = x_3 = 0, \quad x_2 = 2;$$

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

- **Canonical form:**

$$\min c'x$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} -2x_1 & - & 3x_2 & \geq & -6 \\ x_1 & , & x_2 & \geq & 0 \end{array} \} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 2x_1 + 3x_2 + s_1 = 6 \\ s_1 \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Polytopes and Linear Programming (cont'd)

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

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

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

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

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

- **Corollary** *Any convex combination of optimal vertices is optimal.*

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

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

- **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 .

Polytopes and Linear Programming (cont'd)

- **Degenerate Bases**

- A base \mathcal{B} uniquely determines a BFS, so $(\text{BFS}' \neq \text{BFS}'') \Rightarrow (\mathcal{B}' \neq \mathcal{B}'')$.

- Instead $(\mathcal{B}' \neq \mathcal{B}'') \not\Rightarrow (\text{BFS}' \neq \text{BFS}'')$. Indeed

- **Example** $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 6 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

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

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

↑ ↑ ↑

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 $\mathcal{B}' \setminus \mathcal{B}'' (\neq \emptyset)$. \square