

Computational Optimization

ISE 407

Lecture 25

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Reading for This Lecture

- Bertsimas 3.2-3.4
- S. Chandrasekaran and I. Ipsen, “Perturbation Theory for the Solution of Systems of Linear Equations.”

Linear Programming

- We consider solution of a *linear program* in standard form:

$$\begin{array}{ll}\min & c^\top x \\ \text{s.t.} & Ax = b \\ & x \geq 0\end{array}$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

- The most commonly used algorithm for solving this problem is the *simplex algorithm*.

Implementing the Simplex Method

“Naive” Implementation

1. Start with a basic feasible solution \hat{x} with indices $B(1), \dots, B(m)$ corresponding to the current basic variables.
2. Form the basis matrix B and compute $p^\top = c_B^\top B^{-1}$ by solving $p^\top B = c_B^\top$.
3. Compute the reduced costs by the formula $\bar{c}_j = c_j - p^\top A_j$. If $\bar{c} \geq 0$, then \hat{x} is **optimal**.
4. Select the **entering variable** j and obtain $u = B^{-1}A_j$ by solving the system $Bu = A_j$. If $u \leq 0$, the LP is **unbounded**.
5. Determine the step size $\theta^* = \min_{\{i|u_i>0\}} \frac{\hat{x}_{B(i)}}{u_i}$.
6. Determine the new solution and the **leaving variable** i .
7. Replace i with j in the list of basic variables.
8. Go to Step 1.

Calculating the Basis Inverse

- Note that most of the effort in each iteration of the Simplex algorithm is spent solving the systems

$$\begin{aligned} p^\top B &= c_B^\top \\ Bu &= A_j \end{aligned}$$

- If we knew B^{-1} , we could solve both of these systems.
- Calculating B^{-1} quickly and accurately is the biggest challenge of implementing the simplex algorithm.
- The full details of how to do this are beyond the scope of this course.
- We will take a cursory look at these issues in the rest of the chapter.

Efficiency of the Simplex Method

- To judge efficiency, we calculate the number of arithmetic operations it takes to perform the algorithm.
- To solve a system of m equations and m unknowns, it takes $O(m^3)$ operations.
- To take the inner product of two n -dimensional vectors takes $O(n)$ operations (n multiplications and n additions).
- Hence, each iteration of the naive implementation of the Simplex method takes $O(m^3 + mn)$ operations.
- We'll try to improve upon this.

Improving the Efficiency of Simplex

- Again, the matrix B^{-1} plays a central role in the simplex method.
- If we had B^{-1} available at the beginning of each iteration, we could easily compute everything we need.
- Recall that B changes in only one column during each iteration.
- How does B^{-1} change?
- It may change a lot, but we can update it instead of recomputing it.

Updating the Basis Inverse

- We have $B^{-1}B = I$, so that $B^{-1}A_{B(i)}$ is the i th unit vector e_i .
- If B is the old basis and \bar{B} is the new one, then

$$B^{-1}\bar{B} = [e_1 \cdots e_{l-1} \ u \ e_{l+1} \cdots e_m]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & u_1 & & \\ & \ddots & & \vdots & & \\ & & & u_l & & \\ & & & \vdots & \ddots & \\ & & & u_m & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We want to turn this matrix into I using elementary row operations.
- If we apply these same row operations to B^{-1} , we will turn it into \bar{B}^{-1} .

Representing Elementary Row Operations

- Performing an elementary row operation is the same as left-multiplying by a specially constructed matrix.
- To multiply the j th row by β and add it to the i th row, take I and change the (i, j) th entry to β .
- A sequence of row operations can similarly be represented as a matrix.
- Hence, we can change B^{-1} into \bar{B}^{-1} by left-multiplying by a matrix Q which looks like

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & -\frac{u_1}{u_l} & & \\ & \ddots & \vdots & & \\ & & \frac{1}{u_l} & & \\ & & \vdots & \ddots & \\ & & -\frac{u_m}{u_l} & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The Revised Simplex Method

A typical iteration of the revised simplex method:

1. Start with a specified BFS \hat{x} and the associated basis inverse B^{-1} .
2. Compute $p^\top = c_B^\top B^{-1}$ and the reduced costs $\bar{c}_j = c_j - p^\top A_j$.
3. If $\bar{c} \geq 0$, then the current solution is **optimal**.
4. Select the **entering variable** j and compute $u = B^{-1}A_j$.
5. If $u \leq 0$, then the LP is **unbounded**.
6. Determine the step size $\theta^* = \min_{\{i|u_i>0\}} \frac{\hat{x}_{B(i)}}{u_i}$.
7. Determine the new solution and the **leaving variable** i .
8. Update B^{-1} .
9. Go to Step 1.

Some Notes on the Simplex Method

- One key element not described above is how to construct an initial feasible basis.
- If we start with a feasible basis, each iteration of the simplex methods ends with a new basic feasible solution (assuming nondegeneracy).
- This is all we need to prove the following result:

Theorem 1. *Consider a linear program over a **nonempty** polyhedron \mathcal{P} and assume every basic feasible solution is **nondegenerate**. Then the simplex method terminates after a finite number of iterations in one of the following two conditions:*

- *We obtain an **optimal** basis and a corresponding optimal basic feasible solution.*
- *We obtain a vector $d \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $Ad = 0$, $d \geq 0$, and $c^\top d < 0$, and the LP is **unbounded**.*

Pivot Selection

- The process of removing one variable and replacing from the basis and replacing it with another is called *pivoting*.
- We have the freedom to choose the entering variable from among a list of candidates.
- How do we make this choice?
- The reduced cost tells us the cost in the objective function for each unit of change in the given variable.
- Intuitively, c_j is the cost for the change in the variable itself and $-c_B^\top B^{-1} A_j$ is the cost of the compensating change in the other variables.
- This leads to the following possible rules:
 - Choose the column with the most negative reduced cost.
 - Choose the column for which $\theta^* |\bar{c}_j|$ is largest.

Other Pivoting Rules

- In practice, sophisticated pivoting rules are used.
- Most try to estimate the change in the objective function resulting from a particular choice of pivot.
- For large problems, we may not want to compute all the reduced costs.
- Remember that all we require is *some* variable with negative reduced cost.
- It is not necessary to calculate all of them.
- There are schemes that calculate only a small subset of the reduced costs each iteration.

Simplex for Degenerate Problems

- If the current BFS is *degenerate*, then the step size might be limited to zero (why?).
 - This means that the next feasible solution is the same as the last.
 - We can still form a new basis, however, as before.
- Even if the step-size is positive, we might end up with one or more basic variables at level zero.
 - In this case, we have to decide arbitrarily which variable to remove from the basis.
 - The new solution will be degenerate.
- Degeneracy can cause *cycling*, a condition in which the same feasible solution is reached more than once.
- If the algorithm doesn't terminate, then it must cycle.

Anticycling and Bland's Rule

- Bland's pivoting rule:
 - The entering variable is the one with the **smallest subscript** among those whose reduced costs are negative.
 - The leaving variable is the one with the **smallest subscript** among those that are eligible to leave the basis.
- Bland's rule guarantees that **cycling cannot occur**.
- We also don't need to compute all the reduced costs.

Numerical Considerations

- In the simplex algorithm, we are solving a sequence of closely related systems of equations.
- The factorization we are using to solve each of these systems is updated and round-off error accumulates.
- In practice, it is common to periodically discard the basis factorization and re-compute it from scratch to combat this problem.
- What factors affect the accuracy of solving just one of these systems from scratch?
- Naturally, the condition number of the current basis is important.
- Can we interpret the condition number of the basis in geometric terms?

The Geometry of Conditioning

- Consider again the geometric interpretation of condition number of a matrix A .
- Roughly speaking, it is the ratio of the largest to smallest axes of the ellipsoid we get by pre-multiplying the points on a unit ball by A :

$$\{Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, \|x\| = 1\}$$

- Question: What affects the geometry of this ellipsoid?

The Geometry of Conditioning

- Factors affecting the shape of the set $\{Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}, \|x\| = 1\}$.
 - The (relative) magnitude of the norms of the rows of A .
 - The “angles” between the rows.
- This is essentially because

$$|x^\top y| = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \beta$$

where β is the angle between x and y .

- Note that condition number is just the “worst case.”
- Using the formula, we can say something about how individual components of the solution to a system are affected by perturbation.

The Geometry of Conditioning

- Let r_i be the i^{th} row of A^{-1} .
- Then it is straightforward to see that if $Ax = b$, we have

$$x_i = r_i^\top b = \|r_i\| \|b\| \cos \beta_i$$

where β_i is the angle between r_i and b .

- Let \tilde{x} be the solution to $Ax = b + f$ for a given perturbation f .
- If ψ_i is the angle between r_i and f , then we have

$$\tilde{x}_i = x_i + r_i^\top f = x_i + \|r_i\| \|f\| \cos \psi_i$$

- Further, if $x_i \neq 0$ and $\epsilon_b = \|f\|/\|b\|$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\tilde{x}_i - x_i}{x_i} &= \frac{1}{\cos \beta_i} \epsilon_b \cos \psi_i \\ &= \frac{\|b\|}{\|A\| \|x\|} \frac{\|x\|}{x_i} \|A\| \|r_i\| \epsilon_b \cos \psi_i \end{aligned}$$

The Geometry of Conditioning

- The results on the previous slide tell us how to assess the conditioning of the problem of finding individual components of the solution.
- Note that just because a matrix A is ill-conditioned does not mean that the problem of finding each individual component of the solution is ill-conditioned.
 - The condition number of the matrix is a worst-case measure over all the component-wise problems.
 - There is always one component that exhibits this worst-case behavior.
- The formula on the previous slide tells us that the relative condition of the problem for component i is affected by
 - the angle between r_i and f
 - the angle between r_i and b

The Geometry of Conditioning

