

Information concerning the course

Lecture:
Monday, 2:15 pm - 3:45 pm in M12.25
Thursday, 2:15 pm - 3:45 pm in M12.25
Start: October 11th, 2018

Lecturer: Prof. Dr. Stefan Bock
Office: M12.02
Office hour: Monday, 4:00 pm - 6:00 pm (registration is mandatory (email to iwuester@winfor.de))
Secretary office: M12.01

E-mail: sbock@winfor.de

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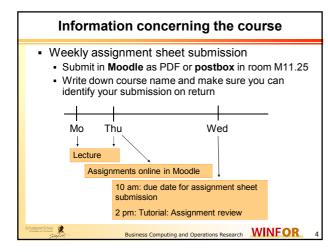
Information concerning the course

Tutorial:

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- Wednesday, 2:00 pm 4:00 pm in M.15.09
- Start: October 17th, 2018
- · First assignment sheet is already available
- Supervisor: Anna Katharina Janiszczak
 - Office: M12.33
 - Office hour: Wednesday, 4:00 pm-6:00 pm (after agreement (per email))
 - E-mail: kjaniszczak@winfor.de
 - Coordinates the Tutorial





Preliminary Agenda 1. Linear programming Applications The Simplex Algorithm Geometry of the solution space How fast is the Simplex Method? Working with tableaus Duality Motivation and the dual problem The Dual Simplex Algorithm The possible cases Interpreting the dual solution Farkas' Lemma

Preliminary Agenda

- 3. Computational considerations
 - 1. The Revised Simplex Algorithm
 - 2. Analyzing the complexity of the Revised Simplex Algorithm
 - 3. Solving the Max Flow Problem by the Revised Simplex Algorithm
 - 4. The Dantzig-Wolfe Decomposition
- 4. The Hitchcock Transportation Problem
 - 1. Using the standardized Simplex Algorithm
 - 2. The MODI Algorithm
- 5. The Primal-Dual Simplex Algorithm

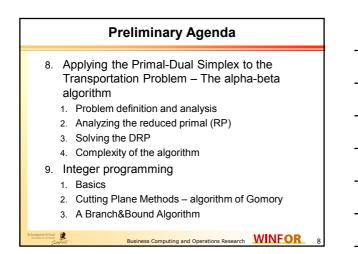
Preliminary Agenda

- 6. Optimally solving the Shortest Path Problem
 - 1. Deriving the Dijkstra algorithm
 - 2. Bellman-Ford algorithm
 - 3. The Floyd-Warshall algorithm
- 7. Max-Flow and Min Cut Problems
 - 1. Max-Flow Problems

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- 2. Min-Cut Problems
- 3. A Primal-Dual algorithm
- 4. The Ford-Fulkerson algorithm
- 5. Analyzing the Ford-Fulkerson algorithm
- 6. An efficient algorithm for the Max-Flow Problem

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Preliminary Agenda 10. Matrix Games 1. Introducing examples 2. Basic definitions

3. Games and Linear Programming

Selected basic Literature

- Brucker, P.; Knust, S. (2012): Complex Scheduling. 2. ed., Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York. .
- Domschke, W.; Drexl, A.; Klein, R.; Scholl, A.; Voß, S.
 (2015): Übungen und Fallbeispiele zum Operations Research. 8. Aufl., Springer Gabler, 2015.
 Domschke, W.; Drexl, A. (2015): Einführung in Operations Research. 9. Aufl., Springer Gabler.
 Mverson, P. B. (1997): Game Theory. Analysis of Conflict
- Myerson, R.B. (1997): Game Theory. Analysis of Conflict. Havard University Press.
- Nemhauser, G.L., &Wolsey, L.A. (1988). Integer and combinatorial optimization. JohnWiley&Sons, New York.
- Papadimitriou, C.H.; Steiglitz, K. (1982, 1988): Combinatorial Optimization. Algorithms and Complexity. Prentice-Hall, 1982 and Dover unabridged edition 1998.

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Selected basic Literature

- Suhl, L.; Mellouli, T. (2013): Optimierungssysteme. 3. Aufl., Springer Gabler.

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- Aun., Springer Gabler. Taha, H.A. (2010): Operations Research. An Introduction. 9th ed, Pearson Education. Chvátal, V. (2002): Linear Programming. 16th print. W.H. Freeman and Company, New York. Wolsey, L.A. (1998): Integer Programming. John Wiley&Sons.

And thousands of other good books dealing with Optimization, Linear Programming, or Combinatorial Optimization (references to further papers will be given in the respective sections)

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Simplex calculators

Excel Solver

- Can be activated under Extras→Add-Ins (2003) Version), File--->Options--->Add-Ins (2010 Version)
- Subsequently, you may use the Solver by Extras--->Solver (2003 Version), Data--->Solver (2010 Version)
- It is not powerful but nice to play around with our simple examples
- Online Simplex calculator:

http://www.zweigmedia.com/RealWorld/simplex.html

1 Linear Programming

- We deal with a large class of problems in this first section
- These problems can be mapped as Linear Programs, i.e.,
 - · We define continuous variables
 - We define linear constraints to be fulfilled by the values of the variables
 - We define an objective function that provides an evaluation of each solution found
 - We want to find optimal solutions, i.e., solutions that fulfill all restrictions (then we denote them as feasible) and maximize or minimize the objective function value

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Linear Program – Main attributes

continuous decision variables

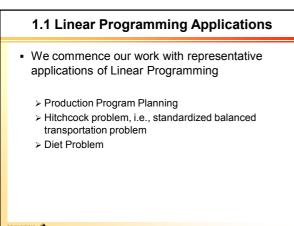
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- Inear constraints that must be fulfilled by the values of the decision variables
- objective function that provides an evaluation of each solution found
- \rightarrow Finding an optimal solution

Solution:vector of decision variablesFeasible solution:solution that fulfills all constraintsOptimal solution:feasible solution with maximal or
minimal objective function value

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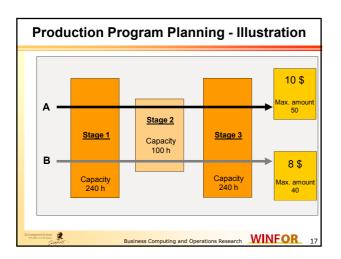


Application 1 – Production Program Planning

- The production management of a plant of an orange juice producer plans the production program
- There are two types of orange juices that are pressed and mixed in this plant
- For simplicity reasons, let us denote them as A and B
- Both are produced on 3 stages in a predetermined sequence, i.e., 1 – 2 – 3 is the production sequence for both product types
- This is illustrated by the following figure

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... and just the values

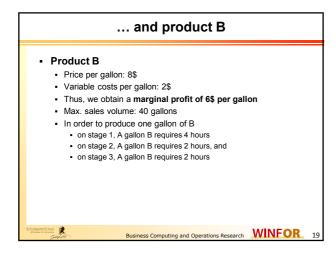
- All types are produced on all stages
- Capacity on stages 1 and 3 are 240 h,
- Capacity on stage 2 is 100 h

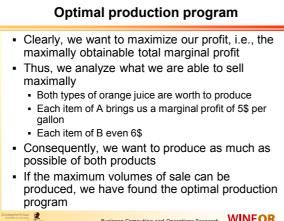
Product A

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- Price per gallon: 10\$
- Variable costs per gallon: 5\$
- Thus, we obtain a marginal profit of 5\$ per gallon
- Max. sales volume: 50 gallons
- In order to produce one gallon of A
 - on stage 1, we need 2 hours,
 - on stage 2, 1 hour,and on stage 3, 4 hours

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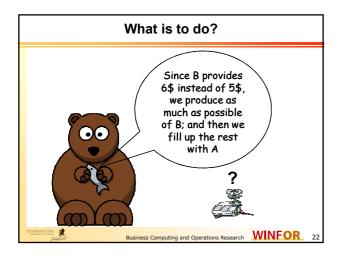
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We calculate the maximum demand

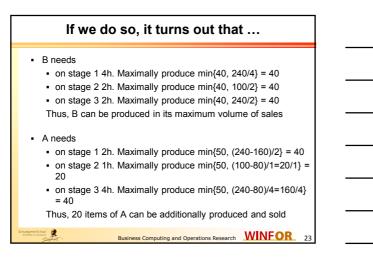
- We have the following demand levels

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- Stage 1: 50 2+40 4=260>240
 - Thus, since demand is larger than capacity, we have a bottleneck !
- Stage 2: 50 1+40 2=130>100 Thus, since demand is larger than capacity, we have a bottleneck !
- Stage 3: 50 4+40 2=280>240 Thus, since demand is larger than capacity, we have a bottleneck !







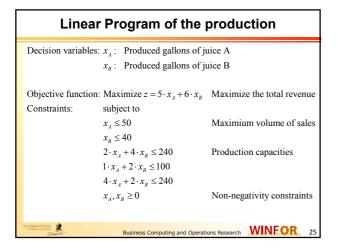
Results in

a total profit of

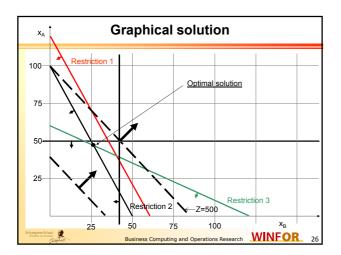
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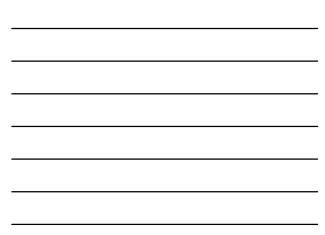
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20·5$ + 40·6$ = 100$ + 240$ = 340$
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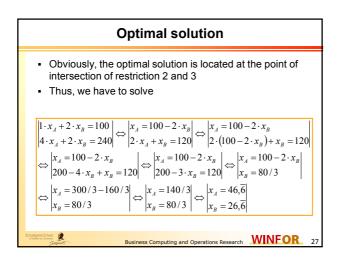
However, in order to analyze the problem more in detail, we want to formalize it



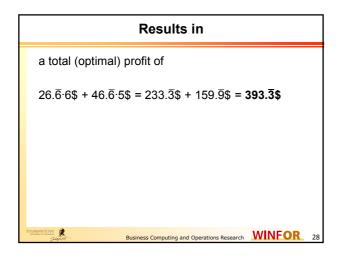


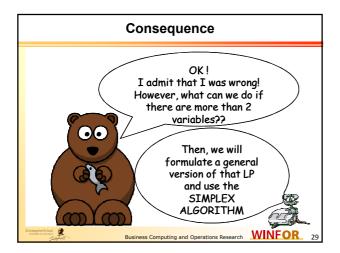




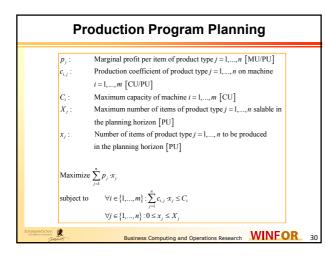










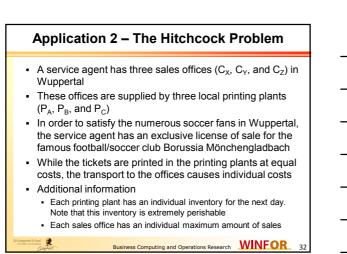






- The program Excel comprises a standard solver for Linear Programs
- It is neither really high-performance nor convenient to use but available and sufficient for our exemplary problem constellations
- Activate the Solver by Extras→Add-Ins (2003 Version), File→Options→Add-Ins (2010 Version)
- Subsequently, you may use the Solver by Extras--->Solver (2003 Version), Data-->Solver (2010 Version)





 Sales Office X

 Sales Office X

 Demart: 2 palles

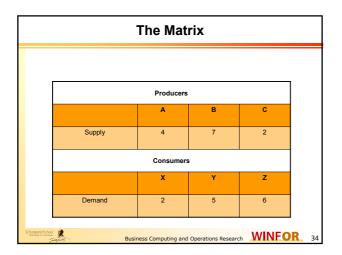
 Demart: 2 palles

 Printing

 Printing
 Printing

 Printing







Transportation Distances					
	Distance	x	Y	z	
	A	2	3	4	
	В	4	6	8	
	с	5	2	7	
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What is the objective?

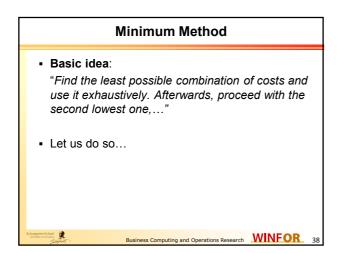
- Obviously, we have to decide about the quantities to be transported along each relation between a printing plant and a ticket office
- Specifically, we determine the precise number of product units that are transported along each relation
- Since quality is assumed to be negligible, a transportation cost minimization is appropriate to compare generated assignments
- > Thus, a solution is solely rated by the incurred transportation costs

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Let's solve the problem

- When you try something out, you usually provide a heuristic solution
- Heuristic solutions do not always guarantee a certain quality
- Usually, their performance is empirically validated or roughly anticipated for worst case scenarios
- In the following, we want to obtain some insights into the problem structure by applying some well-known simple heuristics

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Min	imum Me	ethod	Minimum Method			
Distance	X D:2	Y D:5	Z D:6			
A S:4	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 0			
B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0			
C S:2	(5) 0	(2) 0	(7) 0			
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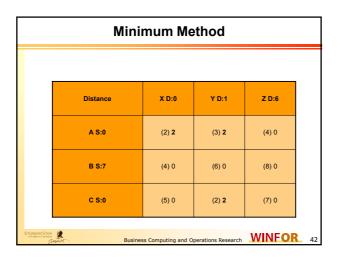


Minimum Method				
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:5	Z D:6
	A S:2	(2) 2	(3) 0	(4) 0
	B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
	C S:2	(5) 0	(2) 0	(7) 0
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Minimum Method				
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:3	Z D:6
	A S:2	(2) 2	(3) 0	(4) 0
	B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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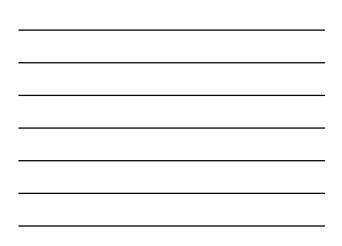
Minimum Method				
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:1	Z D:6
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0
	B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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Minimum Method					
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:1	Z D:6	
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0	
	B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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	Minimum Method			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:1	Z D:6
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0
	B S:7	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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Minimum Method				
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:6
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0
	B S:6	(4) 0	(6) 1	(8) 0
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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	Minimum Method			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:6
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0
	B S:6	(4) 0	(6) 1	(8) 0
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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Minimum Method					
	Total costs = 68				
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:0	
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0	
	B S:0	(4) 0	(6) 1	(8) 6	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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Basic Idea:

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"Avoid larger deteriorations by identifying critical relations"

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- Specifically, calculate the differences between the best and the second best relation for all producers and all consumers
- Select the best relation for the one with the largest difference
- Proceed until a complete solution is found

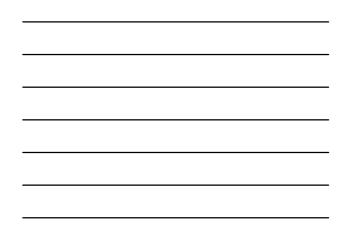
	Vogel's Approximation Method				
	Distance	X D:2 Diff: 2	Y D:5 Diff: 1	Z D:6 Diff: 3	
	A S:4 Diff: 1	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 0	
	B S:7 Diff: 2	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0	
	C S:2 Diff: 3	(5) 0	(2) 0	(7) 0	
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Vogel's	s Арр	oroxima	tion Met	hod
Distance		X D:2 Diff: 1	Y D:5 Diff: 4	Z D:2 Diff: 1
A S:0 Diff: 0		(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4
B S:7 Diff: 2		(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
C S:2 Diff: 3		(5) 0	(2) 0	(7) 0
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	Vogel's Ap	proxima	tion Met	hod
	Distance	X D:2 Diff: 0	Y D:3 Diff: 0	Z D:2 Diff: 0
	A S:0 Diff: 0	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4
	B S:7 Diff: 2	(4) 0	(6) 0	(8) 0
	C S:0 Diff: 0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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	Vogel's App	oroxima	tion Met	hod	
	Distance	X D:0 Diff: 0	Y D:3 Diff: 0	Z D:2 Diff: 0	
	A S:0 Diff: 0	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4	
	B S:5 Diff: 2	(4) 2	(6) 0	(8) 0	
	C S:0 Diff: 0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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	Vogel's App	oroxima	tion Met	hod	
	Distance	X D:0 Diff: 0	Y D:0 Diff: 0	Z D:2 Diff: 0	
	A S:0 Diff: 0	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4	
	B S:2 Diff: 2	(4) 2	(6) 3	(8) 0	
	C S:0 Diff: 0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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Vogel's Ap	proxima	tion Met	hod
Total costs = 6	2		
Distance	X D:0 Diff: 0	Y D:0 Diff: 0	Z D:0 Diff: 0
A S:0 Diff: 0	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4
B S:0 Diff: 2	(4) 2	(6) 3	(8) 2
C S:0 Diff: 0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0
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Local Improvement Operations

- We may improve an existing solution by applying specific transformation moves, i.e., we slightly modify a current solution in a way that
 - feasibility is maintained, and
 - solution quality is improved
- A simple example is the pairwise shift
- Specifically, we select two consumer-producer relations (P₁&C₁, P₂&C₂) and ask for the change in costs by...
 - transporting one unit from P_1 to C_2 rather than from P_1 to C_1
 - For P₂, we simultaneously consider the same
 - Note that feasibility is ensured by the simultaneous
 - consideration of both constellations
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	Ра	irwise s	hift		
	Total Costs = 68	3			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:0	
	A S:0	(2) 2	(3) 2	(4) 0	
	B S:0	(4) 0	(6) 1	(8) 6	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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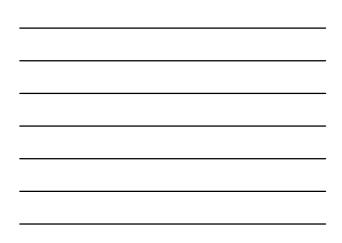
	Pa	irwise sl	hift		
	Total Costs are	68-4=64			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:0	
	A S:0	(2) 0	(3) 2	(4) 2	
	B S:0	(4) 2	(6) 1	(8) 4	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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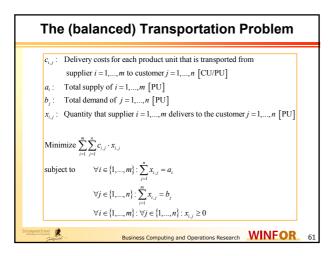


	Ра	irwise s	hift		
	Total Costs = 64	ļ.			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:0	
	A S:0	(2) 0	(3) 2	(4) 2	
	B S:0	(4) 2	(6) 1	(8) 4	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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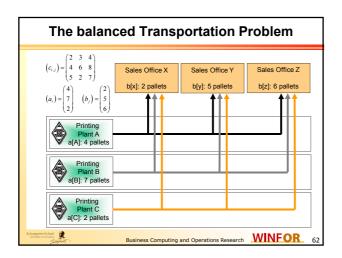


	Ра	irwise s	hift		
	Total Costs are	64-2=62			
	Distance	X D:0	Y D:0	Z D:0	
	A S:0	(2) 0	(3) 0	(4) 4	
	B S:0	(4) 2	(6) 3	(8) 2	
	C S:0	(5) 0	(2) 2	(7) 0	
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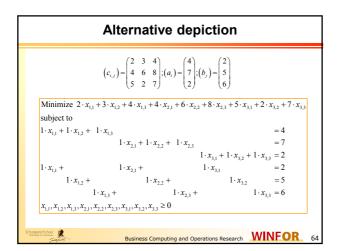




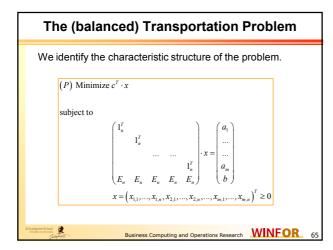


The (balanced) Transportation Problem
With the previously defined parameters our problem is as follows: $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 8 \\ 5 & 2 & 7 \end{pmatrix}; (a_i) = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}; (b_j) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$
Minimize $2 \cdot x_{1,1} + 3 \cdot x_{1,2} + 4 \cdot x_{1,3} + 4 \cdot x_{2,1} + 6 \cdot x_{2,2} + 8 \cdot x_{2,3} + 5 \cdot x_{3,1} + 2 \cdot x_{3,2} + 7 \cdot x_{3,3}$ subject to
$1 \cdot x_{1,1} + 1 \cdot x_{1,2} + 1 \cdot x_{1,3} + 0 \cdot x_{2,1} + 0 \cdot x_{2,2} + 0 \cdot x_{2,3} + 0 \cdot x_{3,1} + 0 \cdot x_{3,2} + 0 \cdot x_{3,3} = 4$
$0 \cdot x_{1,1} + 0 \cdot x_{1,2} + 0 \cdot x_{1,3} + 1 \cdot x_{2,1} + 1 \cdot x_{2,2} + 1 \cdot x_{2,3} + 0 \cdot x_{3,1} + 0 \cdot x_{3,2} + 0 \cdot x_{3,3} = 7$
$0 \cdot x_{1,1} + 0 \cdot x_{1,2} + 0 \cdot x_{1,3} + 0 \cdot x_{2,1} + 0 \cdot x_{2,2} + 0 \cdot x_{2,3} + 1 \cdot x_{3,1} + 1 \cdot x_{3,2} + 1 \cdot x_{3,3} = 2$
$1 \cdot x_{1,1} + 0 \cdot x_{1,2} + 0 \cdot x_{1,3} + 1 \cdot x_{2,1} + 0 \cdot x_{2,2} + 0 \cdot x_{2,3} + 1 \cdot x_{3,1} + 0 \cdot x_{3,2} + 0 \cdot x_{3,3} = 2$
$0 \cdot x_{1,1} + 1 \cdot x_{1,2} + 0 \cdot x_{1,3} + 0 \cdot x_{2,1} + 1 \cdot x_{2,2} + 0 \cdot x_{2,3} + 0 \cdot x_{3,1} + 1 \cdot x_{3,2} + 0 \cdot x_{3,3} = 5$
$0 \cdot x_{1,1} + 0 \cdot x_{1,2} + 1 \cdot x_{1,3} + 0 \cdot x_{2,1} + 0 \cdot x_{2,2} + 1 \cdot x_{2,3} + 0 \cdot x_{3,1} + 0 \cdot x_{3,2} + 1 \cdot x_{3,3} = 6$
$x_{1,1}, x_{1,2}, x_{1,3}, x_{2,1}, x_{2,2}, x_{2,3}, x_{3,1}, x_{3,2}, x_{3,3} \ge 0$
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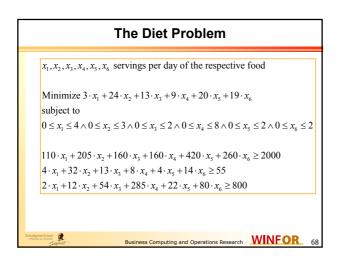


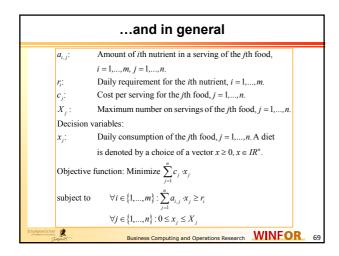


Application 3 – The Diet Problem							
 Susan wonders how much money she has to spend on food in order to get the energy that brings her through the day Now, she thinks it is time to analyze Altogether, she chooses six foods that seem to be cheap sources of the nutrients her body needs 							
Food	Size per serving	Energy (kcal)	Protein (g)	Calcium (mg)	Price (\$ Cents)		
Oatmeal	28 g	110	4	2	3		
Chicken	100 g	205	32	12	24		
Eggs	2 large	160	13	54	13		
Whole milk	237 cc	160	8	285	9		
Cherry pie	170 g	420	4	22	20		
Pork with beans	260 g	260	14	80	19		
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	Additional information
	Susan needs per day • 2,000 kcal • 55 g protein • 800 mg calcium • Iron and vitamins are satisfied by pills Consequently, 10 servings of pork and beans are sufficient per day • Imagine, 10 times pork and beans per day • This is disgusting OkWe need to impose servings-per-day limits • Oatmeal: at most 4 servings per day • Chicken: at most 3 servings per day • Eggs: at most 2 servings per day • Milk: at most 8 servings per day • Cherry pie: at most 2 servings per day • Pork with beans: at most 2 servings per day
Schumpeter	Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 67







Consequence

- All applications are completely different, but their mathematical definitions are somehow strongly related
- All LPs have in common that...
 - ...the variables are continuous
 - ...the objective function is linear
 - ...the restrictions are linear
 - ...the objective function is either a maximization or minimization
 - ...restrictions require the fulfillment of a minimum or maximum bound

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70

71

LP in general

- In what follows, we introduce general forms in order to define what a Linear Program (LP) is
- In Literature, different forms of LPs are distinguished.
 Specifically, it can be found for instance
 - LP in general form

2

- LP in canonical form
- LP in standard form

2

- The Reader should be warned that this classification is far away from being unambiguous
- Moreover, what we will denote as a Linear Program in standard form is frequently introduced as the LP in canonical form

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General Form

Let $A \in IR^{m \times a}$ with $A = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 \\ ... \\ a''_m \end{vmatrix} \land a'_i \in IR^n, i \in \{1, ..., m\}$, and $b \in IR^m$. Furthermore, let M be the set of row indices corresponding to equality

constraints, and let \overline{M} be the set of row indices corresponding to equality constraints, and let \overline{M} be the set of row indices corresponding to inequality constraints. Additionally, let N be the set of column indices corresponding to constrained variables, and let \overline{N} be the set of column indices corresponding to unrestricted variables. Then, the feasible solution space P is $P = \{x \in IR^n \mid \forall j \in N : x_j \ge 0 \land \forall i \in M : a_i^{T} \cdot x = b_i \land \forall i \in \overline{M} : a_i^{T} \cdot x \le b_i\}$. Furthermore, for $c \in IR^n$, we pursue the maximization of $z(x) = c^T \cdot x$.

Note that M and \overline{M} form a partition of $\{1, ..., m\}$. Moreover, N and \overline{N} are a partition of $\{1, ..., n\}$.

Canonical Form

Let $A \in IR^{m \times n}$ and $b \in IR^m$: Then, the set of feasible solutions is defined as follows: $P = \left\{ x \in IR^n \mid x \ge 0 \text{ and } A \cdot x \le b \right\}$ Solutions that belong to P are denoted as feasible.

In order to evaluate a solution x that is found, we introduce an additional vector. Hence, let $c \in IR^n : z(x) = c^T \cdot x$.

In the following, we pursue the maximization of z under the constraints $x \ge 0$ and $A \cdot x \le b$.

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73

Standard Form

Let $A \in IR^{m \times n}$ and $b \in IR^m$: Then, the set of feasible solutions is defined as follows: $P = \{x \in IR^n \mid x \ge 0 \text{ and } A \cdot x = b\}$ Solutions that belong to P are denoted as feasible.

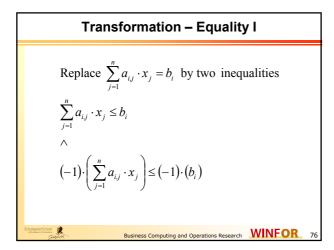
In order to evaluate solution that is found, we introduce an additional vector. Hence, let $c \in IR^n$: $z(x) = c^T \cdot x$.

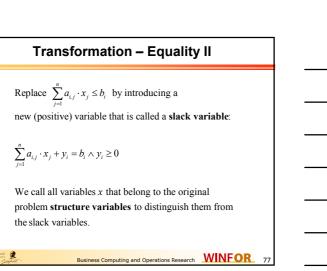
In the following, we pursue the minimization or maximization of z under the constraints $x \ge 0$ and $A \cdot x = b$.

Problem transformations

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- In order to prove that it is sufficient to consider LPs in standard form only, we have to think about problem transformations
- Obviously, in particular, the diet problem does not correspond to our class
- · In addition, what about equalities?
- And what about unrestricted variables, i.e., variables that may become negative?
- This is briefly considered in the following







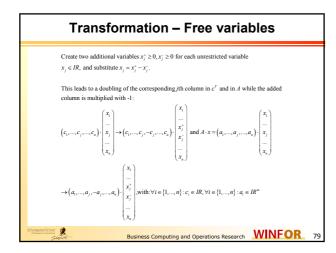
Just replace the original objective function

Minimize
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_j \cdot x_j$$

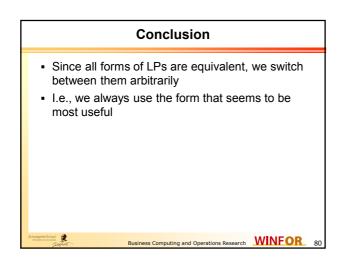
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by the modified equivalent objective function

Maximize
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1) \cdot c_j \cdot x_j$$





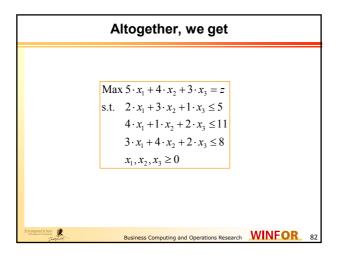




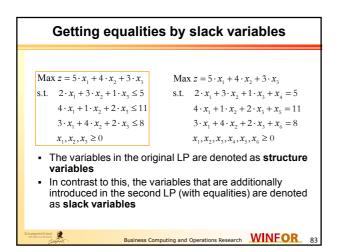
- Coming back to the Production Program Planning, we consider now the following problem constellation
- This time, a producer has to decide about 3 product types (1,2, and 3) to be produced on 3 stages
 - Product 1
 - Marginal Profit: 5
 - Production Coefficients: 2, 4, and 3
 - Product 2
 - Marginal Profit: 4
 Production Coefficients: 3, 1, and 4
 - Product 3

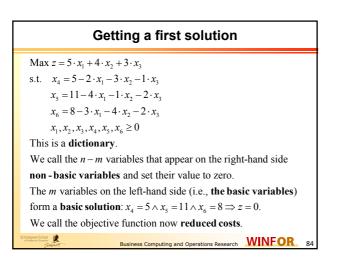
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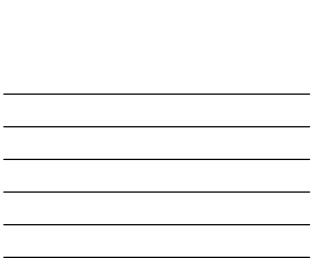
- Marginal Profit: 3
- Production Coefficients: 1, 2, and 2

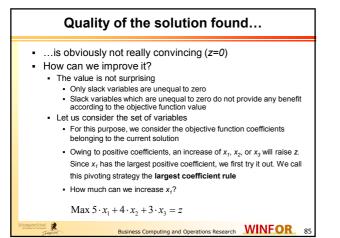


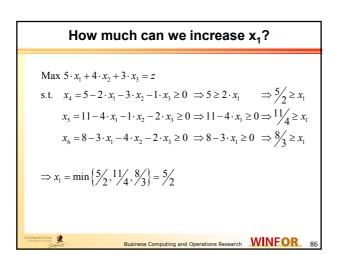


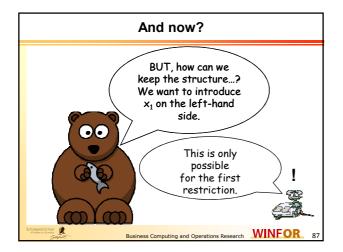




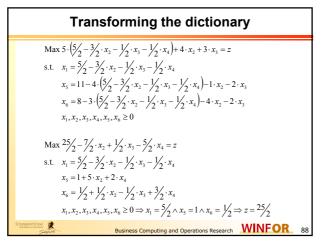




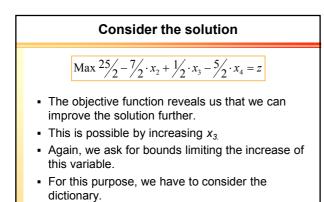




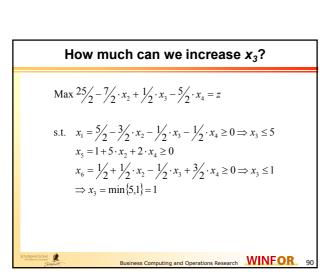


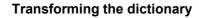




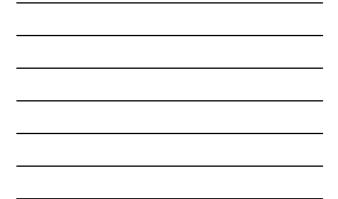


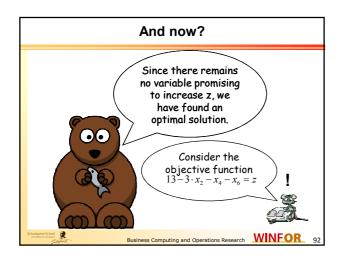
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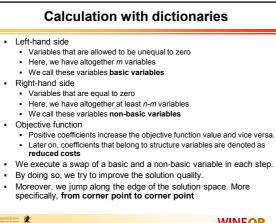


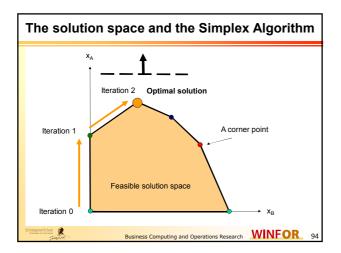


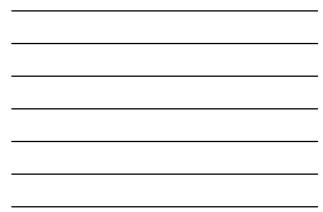
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Max \frac{25}{2} - \frac{7}{2} \cdot x_2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 + x_2 + 3 \cdot x_4 - 2 \cdot x_6) - \frac{5}{2} \cdot x_4 = z
s.t. x_1 = \frac{5}{2} - \frac{3}{2} \cdot x_2 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 + x_2 + 3 \cdot x_4 - 2 \cdot x_6) - \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_4
        x_5 = 1 + 5 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_4
         2 \cdot x_6 = 1 + 1 \cdot x_2 - 1 \cdot x_3 + 3 \cdot x_4 \Longrightarrow x_3 = 1 + x_2 + 3 \cdot x_4 - 2 \cdot x_6
Max 13 - 3 \cdot x_2 - x_4 - x_6 = z
s.t. x_1 = 2 - 2 \cdot x_2 - 2 \cdot x_4 + x_6
         x_5 = 1 + 5 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_4
         x_3 = 1 + x_2 + 3 \cdot x_4 - 2 \cdot x_6
         x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0 \Longrightarrow x_1 = 2 \land x_3 = 1 \land x_5 = 1 \Longrightarrow z = 13
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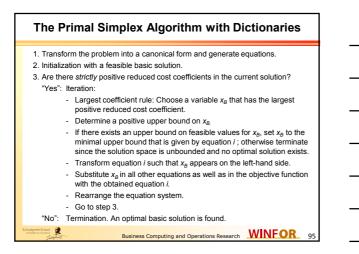














- The presented calculation went pretty smoothly
- The danger that may occur was not pointed out
- · Three kinds of pitfalls have to be considered
 - Initialization
 - · Obviously, we need an initial solution
 - Are there constellations thinkable where this is not possible? Iteration

 - Is there a danger of getting stuck throughout the calculation? Is it always possible to swap from one basic solution to the next one?
 - Termination

2

- Is the calculation always finite?
- Are cyclical computations possible?

Initialization

- For what follows, we need at first a feasible solution to the LP. Fortunately, this is quite simple to provide
- If b is positive, we may just make use of the introduction of slack variables; i.e., all structure variables are set to zero and slack variables equal the right-hand side b
- Otherwise, we apply the simple procedure that is depicted on the following slides

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Pitfall: Initialization with a feasible solution
If b≥0, take the trivial solution: all structure variables are set to zero and all slack variables equal the right-hand side b
If there is an i with b/c0, apply the Two-Phase Method
Maximize z = -x₀ subject to A ⋅ x - 1_m ⋅ x₀ ≤ b x₀ ≥ 0
Initial solution to the auxiliary LP: x^{inil} = (x₁^{inil},...,x_m^{inil}, x₀^{inil})^T with x₁^{inil} = ... = x_m^{inil} = 0 ∧ x₀^{inil} = -min {b₁ | b₁ < 0 ∧ i ∈ {1,...,m}} Since i ∈ {1,...,m} exists with b₁ < 0, x^{inil} is feasible
Solve the auxiliary LP and get its optimal solution xⁱ
If z>0, terminate (this procedure) because the original LP is not solvable
Initial feasible solution to the original LP: xⁱ = (x₁<sup>i...,x_n^{inil})^T
</sup>

Two-Phase Method – Conclusions I

1.2.1 Observation: Since the objective function value is lower bounded by zero, the auxiliary LP is solvable

1.2.2 Lemma: If and only if the optimal solution to the auxiliary problem has the objective function value zero, the original LP is solvable

Proof: " \Rightarrow ": Since *z*=0 holds $x_0=0$ follows. The optimal auxiliary LP solution yields a feasible solution to the original LP " \Leftarrow ": If the original problem is solvable, we have $x_0=0$ and, therefore, *z*=0

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Two-Phase Method – Conclusions II

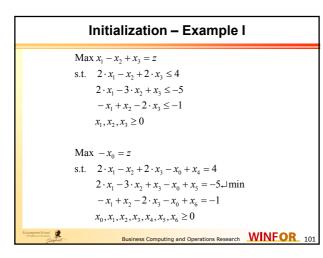
Optimal auxiliary LP solution:

 x₀>0 is basic: The original LP is not solvable because at least one constraint is violated
 x₀ is non-basic or x₀=0 is basic: Erase x₀ and switch to the original LP with the feasible solution just generated

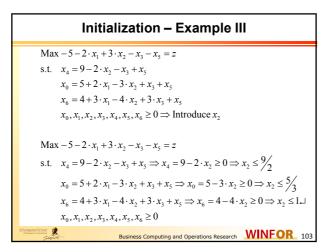
Special case here:

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 $x_0=0$ is basic: Consider the next-to-last step where the objective function becomes zero. Here, x_0 was decreased to zero. Consequently, in this step x_0 was a candidate for being erased. Hence, we can adjust this step accordingly



Initialization – Example II
$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Max} - (5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_5) &= z \\ \text{s.t.} 2 \cdot x_1 - x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 - (5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_5) + x_4 &= 4 \\ x_0 &= 5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_5 \\ - x_1 + x_2 - 2 \cdot x_3 - (5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_5) + x_6 &= -1 \\ x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 &\ge 0 \end{aligned}$
Max $-5-2 \cdot x_1 + 3 \cdot x_2 - x_3 - x_5 = z$ s.t. $2 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_4 - x_5 = 9$ $x_0 = 5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot x_2 + x_3 + x_5$ $-3 \cdot x_1 + 4 \cdot x_2 - 3 \cdot x_3 - x_5 + x_6 = 4$ $x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0$
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Initialization – Example IV
$Max - 5 - 2 \cdot x_1 + 3 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_6\right) - x_3 - x_5 = z$
s.t. $x_4 = 9 - 2 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_6\right) - x_3 + x_5 \ge 0$
$x_0 = 5 + 2 \cdot x_1 - 3 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_6\right) + x_3 + x_5$
$x_2 = 1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_6$
$x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0$
$Max - 2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{5}{4} \cdot x_3 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_6 = z$
s.t. $x_4 = 7 - \frac{3}{2} \cdot x_1 - \frac{5}{2} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_5 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_6$
$x_0 = 2 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_1 - \frac{5}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_6$
$x_2 = 1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_3 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_5 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_6$
$x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0 \Longrightarrow$ Introduce x_3
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Initialization – Example V

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Max} - 2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{1} + \frac{5}{4} \cdot x_{3} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{5} - \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_{6} &= z \\ \text{s.t.} \quad x_{4} &= 7 - \frac{3}{2} \cdot x_{1} - \frac{5}{2} \cdot x_{3} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_{5} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_{6} &\geq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{5}{2} \cdot x_{3} &\leq 7 \Rightarrow x_{3} &\leq 1\frac{4}{5} \\ x_{0} &= 2 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{1} - \frac{5}{4} \cdot x_{3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{5} + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_{6} &\geq 0 \Rightarrow x_{3} &\leq \frac{8}{5} \\ x_{2} &= 1 + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_{1} + \frac{3}{4} \cdot x_{3} + \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{5} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot x_{6} &\geq 0 \Rightarrow x_{3} &\geq -\frac{4}{3} \\ x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Max} 0 - x_{0} &= z \\ \text{s.t.} \quad x_{4} &= 3 - x_{1} + 2 \cdot x_{0} - x_{6} \\ x_{3} &= \frac{8}{5} - \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_{1} - \frac{4}{5} \cdot x_{0} + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_{5} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_{6} \\ x_{2} &= 1\frac{1}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_{1} - \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_{0} + \frac{2}{5} \cdot x_{5} + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_{6} \\ x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} &\geq 0 \Rightarrow x_{1} = 0, x_{2} = \frac{11}{5}, x_{3} &= \frac{8}{5} \text{ is a feasible solution} \end{aligned}$$

Initialization – Example VI

Consequently, we resume with the Simplex applied to the following dictionary in order to solve the original problem $\begin{aligned} \text{Max } x_1 - x_2 + x_3 &= \text{Max } x_1 - \binom{11}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_1 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot x_5 + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_6 + \binom{8}{5} - \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_1 + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_5 + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_6 \end{aligned}$ $= \text{Max } - \frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_1 - \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_5 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot x_6 = z$ s.t. $x_4 = 3 - x_1 - x_6$ $x_3 = \frac{8}{5} - \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_1 + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_5 + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_6$ $x_2 = \frac{11}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \cdot x_1 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot x_5 + \frac{1}{5} \cdot x_6$ $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0$

Cases to be distinguished

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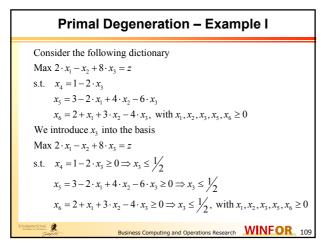
- Altogether, we have to deal with the following cases after solving the auxiliary problem
 - 1. x_0 is non-basic, i.e., we have the simple case where we can directly switch to the original problem with the feasible solution justly generated. x_0 is erased
 - x₀>0 is basic, i.e., the original problem is not solvable at all because at least one constraint is violated
 x₀=0 is basic, i.e., this variable can be erased from
 - the basis without affecting the solution quality. In order to make this obvious, consider the next-to-last step where the objective function becomes zero. Here, x_0 was decreased to zero. Consequently, in this step x_0 was a candidate for being erased. Hence, we can adjust this step accordingly

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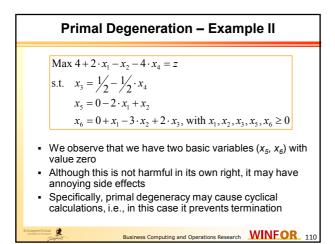
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Pitfall: Iteration and Termination

- In each iteration, we erase one variable from the basis and replace it by another variable with a positive contribution to the objective function value
- However, this choice is ambiguous
 - There may be more than one non-basic candidate for entering the basis
 - Thus, we may choose the one with the largest improvement factor
 If there is no conditions of all the surrent colution is activated (this
 - If there is no candidate at all, the current solution is optimal (this point will be addressed thoroughly in Section 1.3)
- In addition, the choice of the leaving variable is ambiguous as well
 - If there is no candidate, the solution is unbounded, i.e., we can improve the solution arbitrarily
 - Otherwise, if there are several equal bounds, we have alternative choices. But, here we obtain a degenerate solution







Termination

- Termination may be prevented by cyclical calculations
- Note that cycling is only a rare phenomenon. Specifically, such kind of instances are hard to generate
- But, how does cycling become possible?
 - Primal degeneration may cause non-improving moves
 - Specifically, a basic variable with value zero leaves the basis and is replaced by a non-basic one
 - Note that a calculation that only comprises improving moves cannot cycle

Smallest subscript rule (rule of Bland)

- The rule proposed by Bland (Bland (1976)) is a relatively late development in the history of linear programming.
- It is a very simple rule that allows for proving the termination of the simplex calculation · It bases on the so-called smallest subscript rule
- · Pivoting strategy (smallest subscript rule): Choose the non-basic variable with the smallest index that has positive reduced costs to become a basic variable
- Choose the basic variable with the smallest index to become a non-basic variable from all equations that provides the minimal upper bound on the new basic variable

Termination of the Simplex algorithm

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1.2.3 Theorem:

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The Simplex Method terminates as long as the entering and leaving variables are selected by the smallest subscript rule

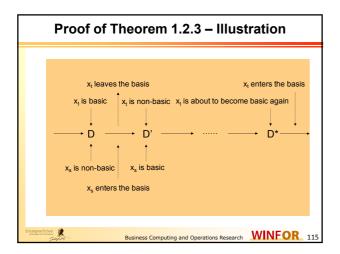
Proof by contradiction:

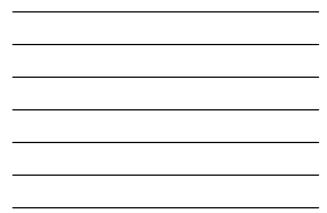
Assume that the opposite holds (i.e., there is a cycle with the smallest subscript rule applied) and show that this leads to a logical contradiction

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Proof of Theorem 1.2.3 – Basics

- · Let us assume that we have a cycle of dictionaries $D_0 - D_1 - \dots - D_k$, with $D_0 = D_k$
- · A variable is denoted as volatile if this variable is basic as well as non-basic throughout these dictionaries
 - Let x_t be the volatile variable with the largest subscript
 - D is the dictionary where x_t is basic and becomes nonbasic in the next dictionary
 - x_s is non-basic in D and becomes basic in the next dictionary
 - Further along in the sequence, there is a dictionary D* where x_t becomes basic again





Consider the calculation from *D* to D^* . Since we have a cycle, all these dictionaries are degenerate and the objective function value is kept unchanged. Hence, we obtain for the dictionary D^* the objective function $z = v + \sum_{j \in B^*} c_j^* \cdot x_j$, with B^* as the basis of D^* .

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Dictionaries D and D*

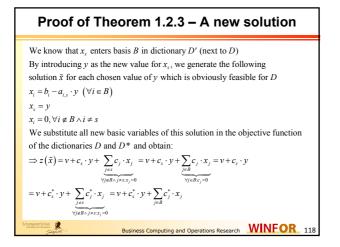
$$z = v + \sum_{j} c_{j}^{*} \cdot x_{j}, \text{ with } c_{j}^{*} = 0, \forall j \in B^{*}$$

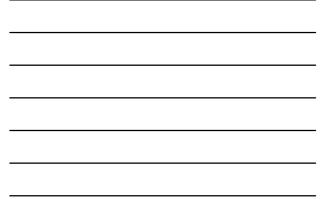
This dictionary D^* is generated by algebraic manipulations out of D. Therefore, each feasible solution of D is feasible for D^* and thus for each feasible solution of D it holds:

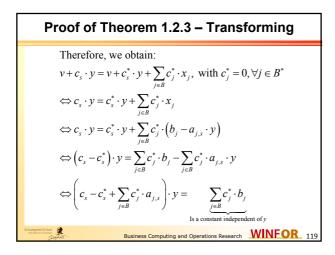
 $z = v + \sum_{i} c_{j}^{*} \cdot x_{j}$

2

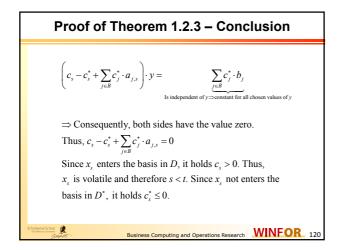
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Proof of Theorem 1.2.3 – Conclusion

Since $c_s - c_s^* + \sum_{j \in B} c_j^* \cdot a_{j,s} = 0 \land c_s > 0 \land c_s^* \le 0$ $\Rightarrow c_s - c_s^* > 0 \Rightarrow \exists r \in B : c_r^* \cdot a_{r,s} < 0 \Rightarrow c_r^* \ne 0$ Since $r \in B$, x_r is basic in *D*. Since $c_r^* \ne 0$, we know that $r \notin B^* \Rightarrow x_r$ is volatile. Note that $r \ne t$. Since *t* enters in D^* , we have $c_t^* > 0$. In addition, *t* is leaving in *D* and thus, we conduct the following transformation

$$x_{t} = b_{t} - a_{t,s} \cdot x_{s} + \sum_{j \notin B \land j \neq s} a_{t,j} \cdot x_{j} \Leftrightarrow x_{s} = \frac{b_{t}}{a_{t,s}} - \frac{x_{t}}{a_{t,s}} + \sum_{j \notin B \land j \neq s} \frac{a_{t,j}}{a_{t,s}} \cdot x_{j}$$
$$\Rightarrow a_{t,s} > 0 \Rightarrow c_{r}^{*} \cdot a_{r,s} < 0 \Rightarrow c_{r}^{*} \cdot a_{r,s} < 0 \Rightarrow t \neq r$$

Consequently, r < t, but x_r has not entered in D^* . Although x_r is not basic in D^* , x_t has entered in D^* . $\Rightarrow c_r^* \le 0$, actually, $c_r^* < 0$ since $c_r^* \cdot a_{r,s} < 0 \Rightarrow a_{r,s} > 0$ Since all solutions between D and D^* are degenerate, and x_r and x_t are volatile, we have in all solutions $x_r = x_t = 0$. $\Rightarrow b_r = 0 \land b_t = 0$ in dictionary D and both $(x_t \text{ and } x_r)$ were candidates

 $\Rightarrow b_r = 0 \land b_t = 0$ in dictionary *D* and both $(x_t \text{ and } x_r)$ were candidates for leaving the basis *B*.

But, we choose x_i although t > r. This violates the Smallest Subscript rule and is therefore a contradiction.

This completes the proof.

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Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 122

What we know so far...

- We have learned how to solve general LPs by applying the Simplex procedure that explores a sequence of basic solutions
- We have seen that under certain circumstances (i.e., if we make use of a specific subscript rule) this algorithm always terminates
- We have learned to deal with problems where an initial solution is not directly available
 - In order to do this, we have generated the Two-Phase Method
 - It terminates either with an initial solution or with the cognition that the problem is not solvable at all
- In what follows, we will show why it is sufficient to concentrate the search process to basic solutions

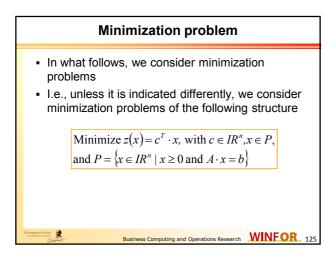
1.3 The Geometry of the solution space

- In what follows, we have to do a little bit mathematics
- By doing so, we get (hopefully!) some insights into the problem structure
 - · First of all, we focus on convexity

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- Then, we learn about the solution space that it is sufficient to focus
 our search on the corner points
- Therefore, let the solution space *P* be given as defined above in the standard form
- Convexity is a very convenient attribute of solution spaces. Note that it causes – among other advantages – that each local optimum is also a global optimum

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 124

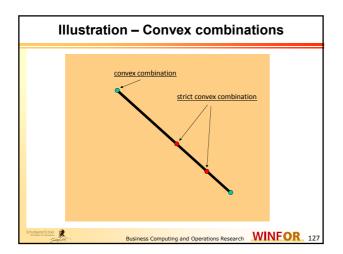


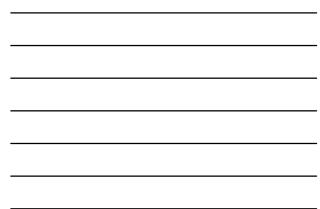
Convex combinations

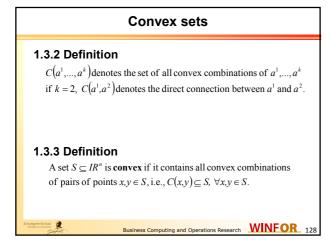
1.3.1 Definition

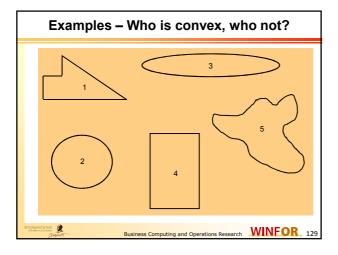
(Convex combination)

Let $a^1, ..., a^k \in IR^*$ and $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k \in IR, \alpha_i \ge 0$. Then, $\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \cdot a^i$ is denoted as a non-negative linear combination and as a convex combination if additionally $\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = 1$. If $\forall i \in \{1, ..., n\} : \alpha_i > 0$, then $\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \cdot a^i$ is a strict convex combination.





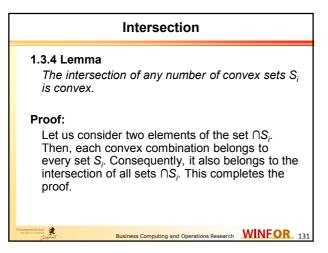


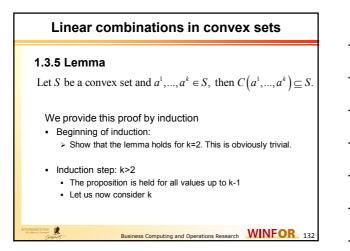


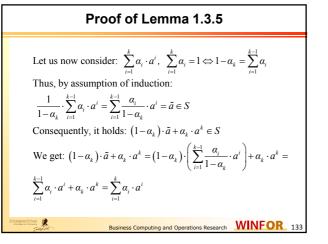


Solution space of LPs is convex

Consider two elements $y, z \in P = \{x \mid x \in IR^n \land x \ge 0 \land A \cdot x \le b\}$. Then, consider λ with $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ and $\lambda \cdot y + (1 - \lambda) \cdot z = \tilde{x}$. Obviously, $\tilde{x} \ge 0$. $A \cdot \tilde{x} = A \cdot (\lambda \cdot y + (1 - \lambda) \cdot z) = \lambda \cdot (A \cdot y) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot (A \cdot z)$ $\le \lambda \cdot b + (1 - \lambda) \cdot b = b$ $\Rightarrow \tilde{x} \in P = \{x \mid x \in IR^n \land x \ge 0 \land A \cdot x \le b\}$. Additionally, since $0 \le \lambda \le 1$ and $y, z \ge 0$, it holds $\lambda \cdot y + (1 - \lambda) \cdot z \ge 0$.









Let $a \in IR^n \setminus \{0\}$ and $\alpha \in IR$. Then, $H = \{x \in IR^n \mid a^T \cdot x = \alpha\}$ is denoted as a hyperplane. Hyperplanes are obviously convex. This can be easily shown: Let $x^1, x^2 \in H, 0 \le \lambda \le 1$. Let us now consider: $a^T \cdot (\lambda \cdot x^1 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot x^2) = \lambda \cdot a^T \cdot x^1 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot a^T \cdot x^2$ $= \lambda \cdot \alpha + (1 - \lambda) \cdot \alpha = \alpha$.

Half spaces

Let $a \in IR^n \setminus \{0\}$ and $\alpha \in IR$. Then, $H^{\geq} = \{x \in IR^n \mid a^T \cdot x \geq \alpha\}$ is denoted as a half space.

Half spaces are obviously convex. This can be easily shown as follows:

Let $x^1, x^2 \in H^{\geq}, 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$. Let us consider: $a^T \cdot (\lambda \cdot x^1 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot x^2) = \lambda \cdot a^T \cdot x^1 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot a^T \cdot x^2$ $\geq \lambda \cdot \alpha + (1 - \lambda) \cdot \alpha = \alpha$. Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 135

Observation

- A hyperplane in an n-dimensional space has the dimension n-1
- A hyperplane defines two separated half spaces, i.e., it divides the space into two parts

In the *IR*^{*n*}, the hyperplane $H = \{x \in IR^n | a^T \cdot x = \alpha\}$ determines the two half spaces $H_1^{\geq} = \{x \in IR^n | a^T \cdot x \geq \alpha\}$ and $H_2^{\geq} = \{x \in IR^n | -a^T \cdot x \geq -\alpha\}$

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 136

Convex hull

1.3.6 Definition $CH(M) = \bigcup \{ C(a^1, ..., a^k) | a^1, ..., a^k \in M, k \in IN \}$

is denoted as the convex hull to $M \subseteq IR^n$.

The set CH(M) is convex since a convex combination of two convex combinations of elements of set M is again a convex combination of elements of set M

1.3.7 Observation

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It holds: $CH(M) = \bigcap \{K \mid M \subseteq K \land K \text{ convex}\}, \text{ i.e.,}$ CH(M) is the smallest convex set that contains M. Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 137

Proof of Observation 1.3.7

Let SCH(M) be the smallest convex set that contains M1. $SCH(M) \subseteq CH(M)$: This is correct since SCH(M) is the smallest convex set that contains

M, CH(M) is convex, and it holds that $M \subseteq CH(M)$.

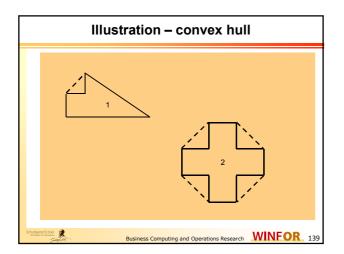
2. $CH(M) \subseteq SCH(M)$:

Consider $x \in CH(M)$. Then, we know $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i \cdot a^i$, with $a^1, \dots, a^k \in M$

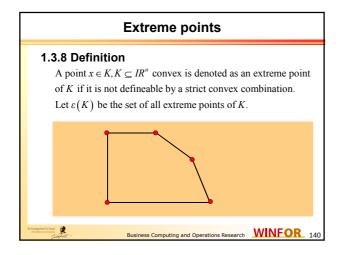
and $M \subseteq SCH(M)$.

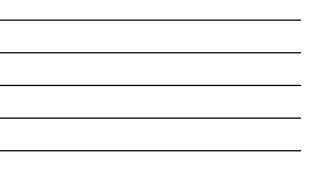
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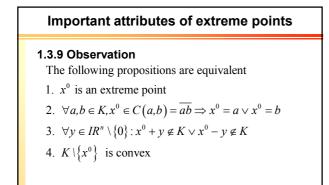
By applying Lemma 1.3.5 and the convexity of set SCH(M), we obtain $x \in SCH(M)$.









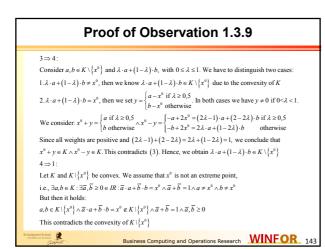


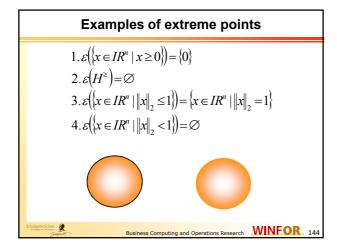
Proof of Observation 1.3.9

$1 \Rightarrow 2$:

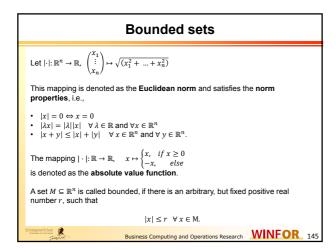
trivial, since if $x^0 \in C(a,b)$, i.e., if $x^0 = \overline{a} \cdot a + \overline{b} \cdot b, \overline{a}, \overline{b} \in IR$, we can conclude that this convex combination is not strict. Thus, $\overline{a} = 0 \lor \overline{b} = 0$. $2 \Rightarrow 3$: Let us assume(2) holds and $x^0 - y \in K \land x^0 + y \in K, y \in IR^n \setminus \{0\}$. Consider $\lambda \cdot (x^0 - y) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot (x^0 + y), 0 \le \lambda \le 1$ $\lambda \cdot x^0 - \lambda \cdot y + x^0 + y - \lambda \cdot x^0 - \lambda \cdot y = x^0 + y - 2 \cdot \lambda \cdot y$ $= x^0 + (1 - 2 \cdot \lambda) \cdot y$. Let $\lambda = 0.5 \land a = x^0 - y \land b = x^0 + y \Rightarrow x^0 = 0.5 \cdot a + 0.5 \cdot b$ This contradicts(2)

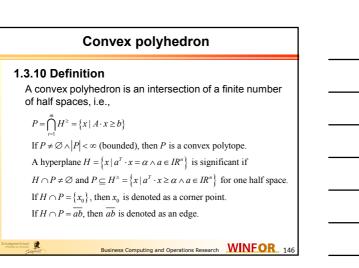


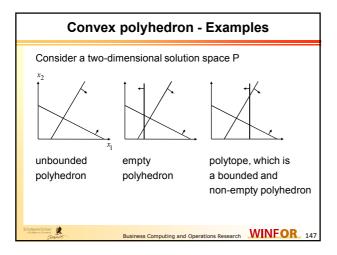


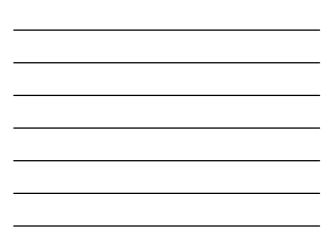


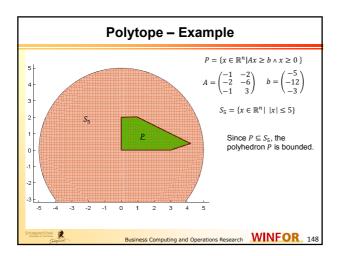




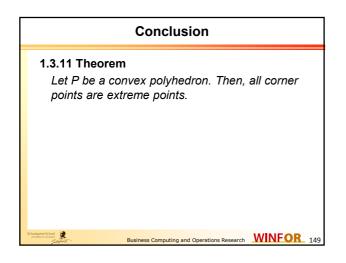












Proof of Theorem 1.3.11

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Let x^0 be a corner point of P. In addition, let

H = \{x \in IR^n \mid a^T \cdot x = \alpha\} a significant hyperplane with P \cap H = \{x^0\}.

We now make use of Observation 1.3.9 and consider y \in IR^n

with x^0 + y \in P \land x^0 - y \in P \Rightarrow x^0 + y \in H^2 \land x^0 - y \in H^2

Thus, it holds:

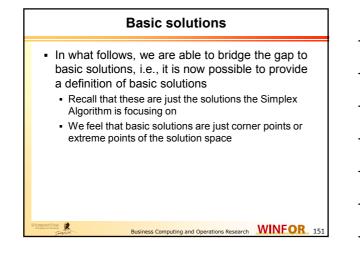
a^T \cdot (x^0 + y) = a^T \cdot x^0 + a^T \cdot y \ge \alpha \land a^T \cdot (x^0 - y) = a^T \cdot x^0 - a^T \cdot y \ge \alpha

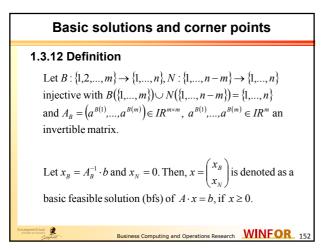
and since P \cap H = \{x^0\}

\alpha = a^T \cdot x^0 \Rightarrow a^T \cdot y = 0

Therefore, it holds: a^T \cdot (x^0 + y) = a^T \cdot x^0 + a^T \cdot y = \alpha

\Rightarrow x^0 + y \in H \land x^0 + y \in P \Rightarrow x^0 + y \in P \cap H = \{x^0\} \Rightarrow y = 0
```





Observations

Obviously, it holds :
1.
$$A \cdot x = (A_B, A_N) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_B \\ x_N \end{pmatrix} = A_B \cdot x_B + A_N \cdot x_N$$

 $= A_B \cdot (A_B^{-1} \cdot b) + A_N \cdot x_N$
 $= (A_B \cdot A_B^{-1}) \cdot b + A_N \cdot x_N = b + 0 = b$
2. A_B is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \{a^{B(1)}, ..., a^{B(m)}\}$ is a base of IR^m
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Conc	usions

1.3.13 Theorem

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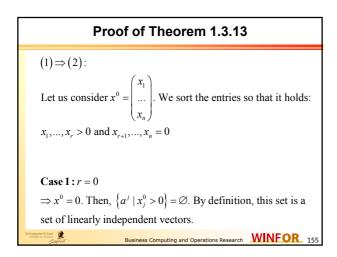
Let $A \in IR^{m \times n}$ with $rank(A) = m \le n$ and let $b \in IR^m$. Furthermore, let $P = \{x \in IR^n \mid x \ge 0 \text{ and } A \cdot x = b\}$, for $x^0 \in P$. The following propositions are equivalent:

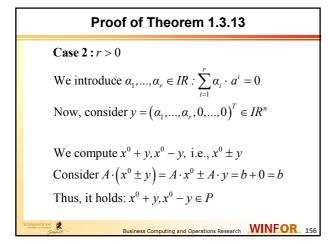
1. x^0 is an extreme point of P

2. $\{a^{j} | x_{j}^{0} > 0\}$ are linearly independent

3. x^0 is a basic feasible solution (bfs)

4. x^0 is a corner point of *P*





Proof of Theorem 1.3.13

Thus, it holds: $x^0 + y, x^0 - y \in P$ Since x^0 is an extreme point and we are making use of Observation 1.3.9, we can conclude that $y = 0 \Rightarrow a^1, ..., a^r$ are linearly independent.

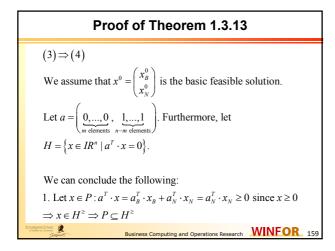
Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 157

Proof of Theorem 1.3.13

(2)⇒(3)

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We assume that $a^1,...,a^r$ are linearly independent. If r < m since rank(A) = m, we altogether have m linearly independent columns in A. Let li(A) be this set. Then, w.l.o.g., we can assume $a^1,...,a^r \in li(A)$. We define B and N accordingly. If r = m, we define $li(A) = \{a^1,...,a^r\}$. Then, it holds: $A_B \in IR^{m \times m}$ is invertible and it holds: $A_B^{-1} \cdot b = A_B^{-1} \cdot A \cdot x^0 = A_B^{-1} \cdot A_B \cdot x_B^0 + A_N \cdot x_N^0 = x_B^0$ Since $x^0 \in P$, we know $x^0 \ge 0$ and, therefore, x^0 is the basic feasible solution. **EXERCISE: EXERCISE: EXERCISE:**

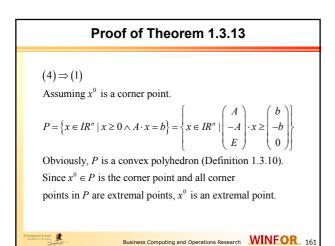


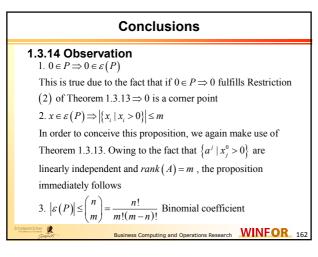
Proof of Theorem 1.3.13

2. Consider $a^T \cdot x^0 = a_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + a_N^T \cdot x_N^0 = 0 \Rightarrow x^0 \in H$ Thus, $x^0 \in H \cap P$ 3. We consider $y = \begin{pmatrix} y_B \\ y_N \end{pmatrix} \in H \cap P \Rightarrow a_N^T \cdot y_N = 0$. Since $y \ge 0$, it holds $y_N = 0$ Additionally, it holds: $b = A \cdot y = A_B \cdot y_B + A_N \cdot y_N = A_B \cdot y_B \Leftrightarrow y_B = A_B^{-1} \cdot b = x_B^0$ $\Rightarrow y = x^0 \Rightarrow H \cap P = \{x^0\}$

Consequently, x⁰ is a corner point

 Business Computing and Operations Research
 WINEOR
 160





Degeneration

1.3.15 Definition

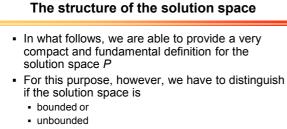
A basic feasible solution $x \in \varepsilon(P)$ is denoted as degenerated if $|\{x_i | x_i > 0\}| < m$.

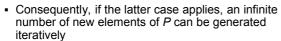
1.3.16 Observation

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The respective set of base vectors is unambiguously defined for each non-degenerate basic feasible solution $x \in \varepsilon(P)$.

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 163





Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 164

Preliminary Definitions

In what follows, we consider an LP with a solution space $P = \left\{ x \in IR^n \mid x \ge 0 \land A \cdot x = b \right\}$

1.3.17 Definition

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Let $D(P) = \{ y \in IR^n \mid \forall x \in P : \forall \lambda > 0 : x + \lambda \cdot y \in P \}$, for $P \neq \emptyset$.

1.3.18 Lemma

 $D(P) = \left\{ y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0 \right\}$

Proof of Lemma 1.3.18

1. $D(P) \subseteq \{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0\}$ Let $\tilde{y} \in D(P) = \{y \in IR^n \mid \forall x \in P : \forall \lambda > 0 : x + \lambda \cdot y \in P\}$, for $P \ne \emptyset$. Then, it holds: $\forall x \in P : \forall \lambda > 0 : x + \lambda \cdot \tilde{y} \in P$ $\Rightarrow \forall x \in P : \forall \lambda > 0$. $A \cdot (x + \lambda \cdot \tilde{y}) = A \cdot x + \lambda \cdot A \cdot \tilde{y} = b + \lambda \cdot A \cdot \tilde{y} = b \Leftrightarrow \lambda \cdot A \cdot \tilde{y} = 0$ $\Leftrightarrow A \cdot \tilde{y} = 0$. In addition, we know that $\forall x \in P : \forall \lambda > 0 : x + \lambda \cdot \tilde{y} \ge 0$ $\Rightarrow \tilde{y} \ge 0 \Rightarrow \tilde{y} \in \{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0\}$ $\Rightarrow D(P) \subseteq \{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0\}$ Business Computing and Operations Research WINEOR 166

Proof of Lemma 1.3.18

2. $\{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0\} \subseteq D(P)$ Let $\tilde{y} \in \{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y = 0\}.$

Consider $x + \lambda \cdot \tilde{y}, x \in P \land \lambda > 0$. Then, it holds: $A \cdot (x + \lambda \cdot \tilde{y}) = A \cdot x + \lambda \cdot A \cdot \tilde{y} = b + \lambda \cdot 0 = b$ $\land x + \lambda \cdot y \ge 0$ since $x \ge 0 \land \lambda \cdot y \ge 0 \Rightarrow \tilde{y} \in D(P)$.

Business Computing and Operations Research

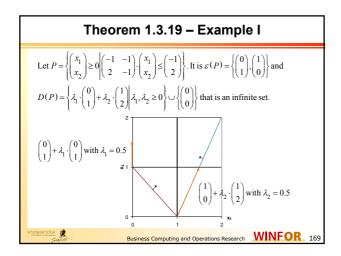
Final result – The solution space

1.3.19 Theorem

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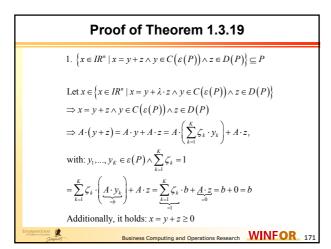
$$P = \left\{ x \in IR^{n} \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P) \right\}$$

A non - empty polyhedron *P* is represented by a convex combination *y* of its **extreme (corner) points** $\varepsilon(P)$ and by $z \in D(P)$. If $z \neq 0$, then *z* is called a **ray**.





Theorem 1.3.19 – Example II Since $A \cdot x \le b$ in P, Lemma 1.3.18 becomes $D(P) = \{y \in IR^n \mid y \ge 0 \land A \cdot y \le 0\}$. Note that this is satisfied by all $y \in D(P)$. Theorem 1.3.19 states that $P = \{x \in IR^n \mid x = \alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda_1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda_2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \land \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \ge 0\}$ Note that $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in D(P)$ is omitted in the representation of P because it is neutral to x.



Proof of Theorem 1.3.19

2. $P \subseteq \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + \lambda \cdot z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$ The proof is conducted by induction by $n_x = |\{j \mid x_j > 0\}|$ We show : $\forall l \in IN: \forall x \in P: l = n_x: \exists \lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k (\geq 0) \in IR:$ $x = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \cdot x^i + y \land \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i = 1 \land x^1, ..., x^k \in \varepsilon(P) \land y \in D(P)$

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 172

Proof of Theorem 1.3.19

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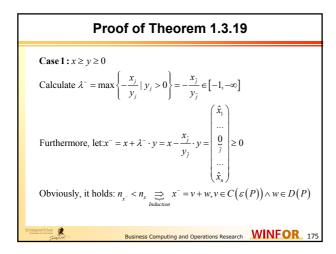
We commence with $n_x = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0 \Rightarrow x \in \varepsilon(P) \Rightarrow x \in \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$

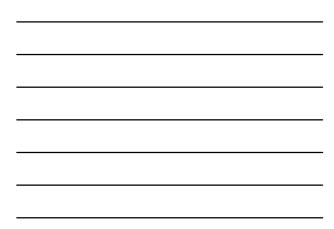
Now, we assume that the proposition holds for all $x \in P$ with $n_x < l$. Consider $x \in P$ with $n_x = l$. Obviously, if $x \in \varepsilon(P)$, the proposition immediately follows.

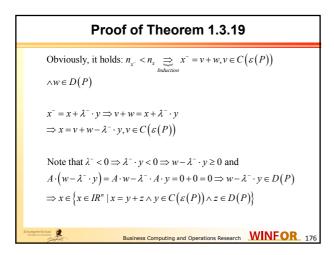
Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 173

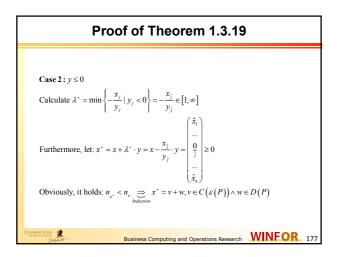
Proof of Theorem 1.3.19

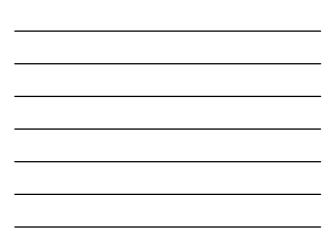
Consequently, we assume $x \notin \varepsilon(P)$. Since $x \notin \varepsilon(P)$, it holds: $\exists y (\neq 0) \in IR^n : x + y \in P$ $\land x - y \in P \Rightarrow$ Therefore, we can assume $|y_j| \leq x_j, \forall j$ We compute $A \cdot y = A \cdot y + A \cdot x - A \cdot x = A \cdot (x + y) - A \cdot x$ = b - b = 0 $A \cdot (x + \lambda \cdot y) = A \cdot x + \lambda \cdot A \cdot y = b + 0 = b, \forall \lambda \in IR$ Thus, it holds: $x + \lambda \cdot y \in P \Leftrightarrow x + \lambda \cdot y \ge 0$













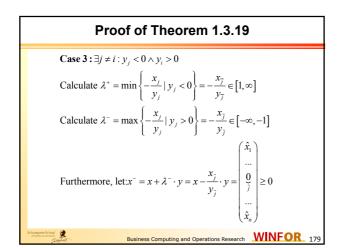
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Obviously, it holds: n_{x^+} < n_x

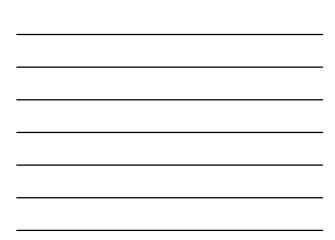
\underset{\text{Induction}}{\Longrightarrow} x^+ = v + w, v \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land w \in D(P)
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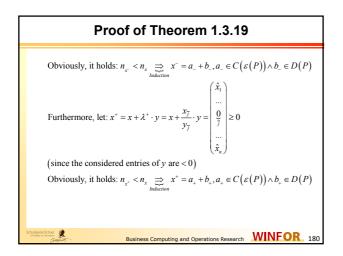
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 $x^{+} = x + \lambda^{+} \cdot y \Longrightarrow v + w = x + \lambda^{+} \cdot y \Longrightarrow x = v + w - \lambda^{+} \cdot y, v \in C(\varepsilon(P))$

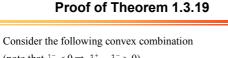
Note that $\lambda^{+} > 0 \Rightarrow w - \lambda^{+} \cdot y \ge 0$ (since $y \le 0$) and $A \cdot (w + \lambda^{+} \cdot y) = A \cdot w + \lambda^{+} \cdot A \cdot y = 0 + 0 = 0 \Rightarrow w + \lambda^{+} \cdot y \in D(P)$ $\Rightarrow x \in \{x \in IR^{n} \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$











(note that
$$\lambda^{-} < 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-} > 0$$
)

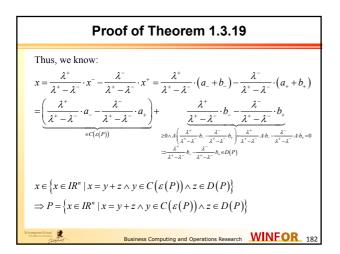
$$\frac{\lambda^{+}}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} \cdot x^{-} - \frac{\lambda^{-}}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} \cdot x^{+} = \frac{\lambda^{+}}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} \cdot (x + \lambda^{-} \cdot y)$$

$$- \frac{\lambda^{-}}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} \cdot (x + \lambda^{+} \cdot y)$$

$$= \frac{\lambda^{+} \cdot x + \lambda^{+} \cdot \lambda^{-} \cdot y}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} - \frac{\lambda^{-} \cdot x + \lambda^{-} \cdot \lambda^{+} \cdot y}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}}$$

$$= \frac{(\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}) \cdot x + \lambda^{+} \cdot \lambda^{-} \cdot y - \lambda^{-} \cdot \lambda^{+} \cdot y}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} = \frac{(\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}) \cdot x}{\lambda^{+} - \lambda^{-}} = x.$$













1.3.20 Observation

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1. $P \neq \emptyset \Longrightarrow \varepsilon(P) \neq \emptyset$

2. If there is an optimal solution in *P*, there exists a corner point with identical optimal costs, i.e., there is also an optimal corner point

3. If $P \neq \emptyset$ and if there is no optimal solution in P $\Rightarrow \exists y \in D(P) : c^T \cdot y > 0$

4.
$$P \neq \emptyset \land P$$
 bounded $\Rightarrow P = C(\varepsilon(P))$

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 184

Proof of Observation 1.3.20

 $1. P \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow \exists x \in \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$ $\Rightarrow x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)$ Case 1: $0 \in \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$ $\Rightarrow 0 \in \varepsilon(P)$ Case 2: $0 \notin \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$ $\Rightarrow \exists x(\neq 0) \in \{x \in IR^n \mid x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)\}$ $\Rightarrow x = y + z > 0 \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)$ Since it holds that $A \cdot z = 0$, we conclude $y \in P \land y = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \cdot a^i, a^i \in \varepsilon(P) \Rightarrow \varepsilon(P) \neq \emptyset$ Since it holds that $A \cdot z = 0$, we conclude $y \in P \land y = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i \cdot a^i, a^i \in \varepsilon(P) \Rightarrow \varepsilon(P) \neq \emptyset$ 185

Proof of Observation 1.3.20

2+3. Let $\{x^1, ..., x^k\} = \varepsilon(P)$. We introduce x^j as the corner point that possesses maximal objective function value, i.e., $c^T \cdot x^j = \max \{c^T \cdot x^i \mid x^i \in \varepsilon(P)\}$

Consider now $x \in P \Rightarrow x = y + z \land y \in C(\varepsilon(P)) \land z \in D(P)$ Calculate

$$c^{T} \cdot x = c^{T} \cdot (y + z) = c^{T} \cdot y + c^{T} \cdot z = c^{T} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} \cdot x^{i}\right) + c^{T} \cdot z,$$

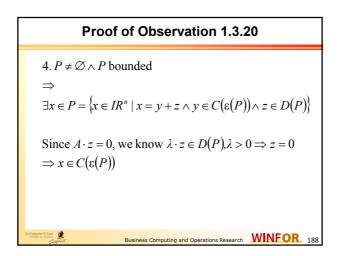
with $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} = 1 \implies c^{T} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} \cdot x^{i}\right) + c^{T} \cdot z \le c^{T} \cdot x^{\overline{j}} + c^{T} \cdot z$

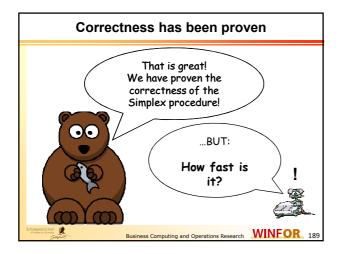
Proof of Observation 1.3.20

We know $A \cdot z = 0 \Rightarrow x + \zeta \cdot z \in P$ Thus, we have to distinguish

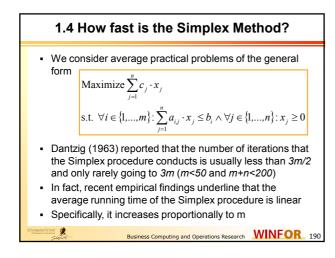
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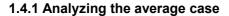
Case 1: $c^T \cdot z \le 0 \Rightarrow$ There are optimal solutions in *P*. Specifically, $x^{\overline{j}} \in \varepsilon(P)$ is one of them. Case 2: $c^T \cdot z > 0 \Rightarrow$ There is no optimal solution in *P*.





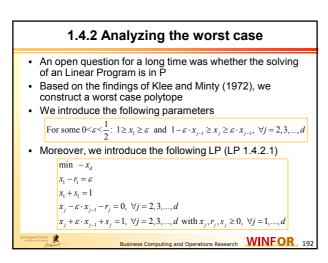






- Some investigations reveal that for fixed *m* the average total number of iterations to be conducted is upper bounded by *log(n)*
- Thus, if each iteration is executed efficiently, modern computers are able to solve problems with about 100 constraints and variables in a few seconds
- Even cases with n and m of size 1,000 can be solved efficiently
- However, as a prerequisite, this requires an efficient implementation of each iteration, i.e., each basis changes
- For this purpose, two attributes are decisive...
 - an appropriate pivot strategy
 - an efficient update handling

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Business Computing and Operations Research WINEOR 191
```





The basic feasible solutions (bfs)

1.4.2.1 Lemma

2

2

The set of feasible bases of the LP (1.4.2.1) is the set of subsets of $\{x_1,...,x_d,r_1,...,r_d,s_1,...,s_d\}$ containing all x-variables and exactly one of s_j,r_j for each j = 1,...,d. Furthermore, all these bases are nondegenerate.

Proof of Lemma 1.4.2.1:

Because $x_1 \ge \varepsilon$ and $x_{j+1} \ge \varepsilon \cdot x_j$, $\forall j = 1, ..., d - 1$, we conclude that in each feasible solution we have $x_j \ge \varepsilon' > 0$. Hence, all feasible bases must contain all *d* columns corresponding to the *x*-variables.

Moreover, assume that $\exists j \in \{1, ..., d\}$: $r_j = s_j = 0$.

Case 1: $j = 1 \Rightarrow$ Since $x_1 - r_1 = \varepsilon$, it holds that $x_1 = \varepsilon$ and through $x_1 - s_1 = 1$, it holds that $x_1 = 1$. However, this implies $x_1 = \varepsilon = 1$ and contradicts the assumed parameter setting of ε .

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 193

Proof of Lemma 1.4.2.1

Case 2: $j > 1 \Rightarrow$ Since $x_j - \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} - r_j = 0 \land x_j + \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} + s_j = 1$, it holds that $x_j = \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1}$ and $x_j = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} \Rightarrow \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} \Rightarrow 2 \cdot \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} = 1$. Since $x_1 + s_1 = 1$ and $x_j + \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} + s_j = x_j + \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} = 1$, $\forall j = 2, 3, ..., d$, we have $x_j \le 1, \forall j = 1, 2, 3, ..., d$. Due to $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$, we have a contradiction to $2 \cdot \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} = 1$. This results from $2 \cdot \varepsilon \cdot x_{j-1} \le 2 \cdot \varepsilon < 1$.

Therefore, each feasible basis must contain one of the columns corresponding to s_j and r_j for every $j \in \{1,...,d\}$. However, there are already 2d = m elements in the basis. Moreover, since all these variables are non-zero, these solutions are nondegenerate.

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The set of basic feasible solutions

- In what follows, we write a bfs of the LP (1.4.2.1) as x(S) with S giving a subset of set {1,...,d} that indicates the nonzero r's in x(S)
- The value of the x_j-variable in x(S) is abbreviated by x_j(S)
- Based on these abbreviations, we formulate the following Lemma

Comparing the objective values

1.4.2.2 Lemma

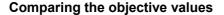
Suppose that $d \in S$ but $d \notin S'$; then $x_d(S) > x_d(S')$. Moreover, if **Proof:** additionally $S' = S - \{d\}$, we have $x_d(S') = 1 - x_d(S)$.

Since $d \in S$, we have $s_d = 0 \Rightarrow$ Due to $x_d(S) + \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S) + s_d = x_d(S) + \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S) = 1$, it holds that $x_d(S) = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S)$. Since $x_j, r_j, s_j \ge 0$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $x_{d-1}(S) \le 1$. By $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ and $x_d(S) = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S)$, we conclude that $x_d(S) = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S) > 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot x_{d-1}(S) \ge \frac{1}{2}$. Moreover, since $d \notin S'$, we have $r_d = 0$. And by $x_d(S') - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S') - r_d = 0$, we have $x_d(S') - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S') = 0 \Rightarrow x_d(S') = \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S') < \frac{1}{2}$. Consequently, we have $x_d(S') < x_d(S)$. If $S' = S - \{d\}$, we have $x_{d-1}(S) = x_{d-1}(S')$ and it holds that $x_d(S') = \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S') = 1 - (1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S)) = 1 - x_d(S)$, with $x_d(S) > \frac{1}{2}$.

 $x_{d}(S) = \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S) = 1 - (1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S)) = 1 - (1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_{d-1}(S)) = 1 - x_{d}(S), \text{ with } x_{d-1}(S) = 1 - x_{d}(S) = 1 - x$

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1.4.2.3 Lemma

We assume that the subsets of set $\{1,...,d\}$ are enumerated in such a way that $x_d(S_1) \le x_d(S_2) \le ... \le x_d(S_{2^d})$. Then, the inequalities are strict, and the basic feasible solutions $x(S_j)$ and $x(S_{j+1})$ are adjacent for $j = 1, 2, ..., 2^d - 1$.

Proof:

2

We give the proof by induction:

d = 1: In this case there are two basic feasible solutions, namely $(x_1, r_i, s_1) \in \{(\varepsilon, 0, 1 - \varepsilon), (1, 1 - \varepsilon, 0)\}$ since we have $x_1 - r_1 = \varepsilon$ and $x_1 + s_1 = 1$. Clearly, the solutions have unequal nonzero x_1 -values and are adjacent since exactly two columns are exchanged.

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Proof of Lemma 1.4.2.3

d > 1: We assume that the proposition holds for d. Therefore, there $is the appropriate enumeration <math>S_1, ..., S_{2^d}$ of subsets of set $\{1, ..., d\}$. Clearly, these are also subsets of set $\{1, ..., d, d+1\}$. Due to $r_{d+1} = 0$ in the corresponding solutions and $x_{d+1}(S_j) - \varepsilon \cdot x_d(S_j) - r_d = 0$, we have $x_{d+1}(S_j) = \varepsilon \cdot x_d(S_j)$. \Rightarrow By applying the induction hypothesis, we conclude that $x_{d+1}(S_1) < x_{d+1}(S_2) < ... < x_{d+1}(S_{2^d})$. Furthermore, we consider the remaining subsets of set $\{1, ..., d, d+1\}$, namely, $S'_j = S_j \cup \{d+1\}$, i.e., with $s_{d+1} = 0$. By applying $x_{d+1}(S'_j) + \varepsilon \cdot x_d(S'_j) + s_{d+1} = 1$, we obtain $x_{d+1}(S'_j) = 1 - \varepsilon \cdot x_d(S'_j)$. By Lemma 1.4.2.3, we have $x_{d+1}(S'_j) > x_{d+1}(S_{2^d})$ and $x_{d+1}(S'_j) = 1 - x_{d+1}(S_j)$ with $x_{d+1}(S_j) < \frac{1}{2}$. Thus, we have $x_{d+1}(S_1) < x_{d+1}(S_2) < ... < x_{d+1}(S_{2^d}) < x_{d+1}(S'_{2^d}) < x_{d+1}(S'_{2^d}) < ... < x_{d+1}(S'_i)$. WINFEOR_ 198

Proof of Lemma 1.4.2.3

By induction hypothesis, we know that $x(S_j)$ and $x(S_{j+1})$ are adjacent for $j = 1, ..., 2^d - 1$. Also $x(S'_j)$ and $x(S'_{j+1})$ are adjacent for $j = 1, ..., 2^d - 1$ since, again by induction hypothesis, $x(S_j)$ and $x(S_{j+1})$ are adjacent. Moreover, $x(S_{2^d})$ and $x(S'_{2^d})$ are adjacent since r_{d+1} is added to the basis while s_{d+1} leaves the basis. This completes the proof.

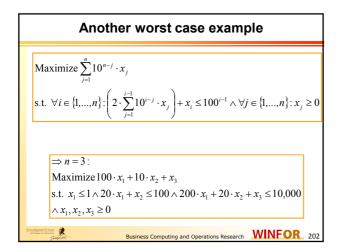
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Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 199

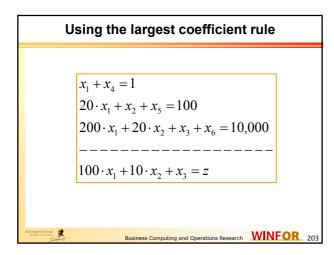
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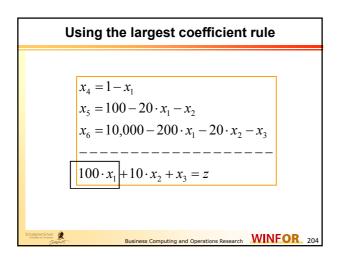
Consequences

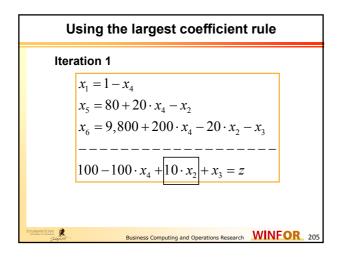
 Results similar to Theorem 1.4.2.4 are known for all variations of simplex algorithms, including several heuristic pivoting rules



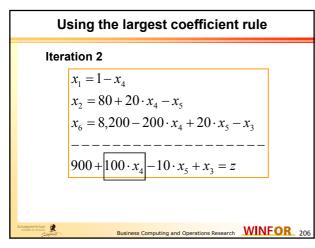




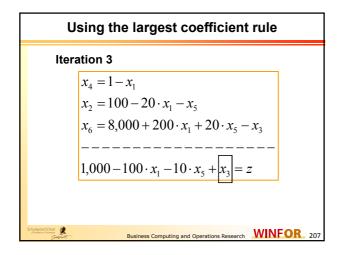


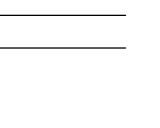


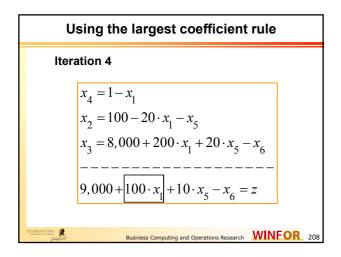




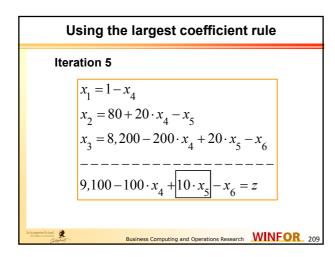


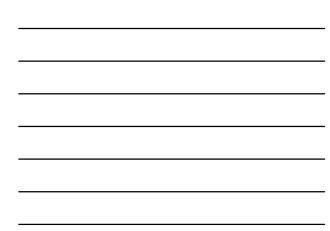


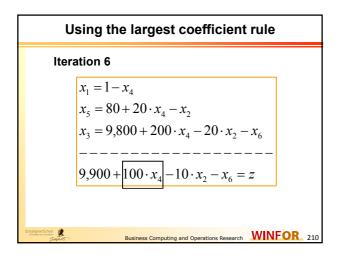




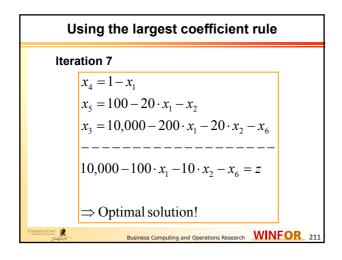




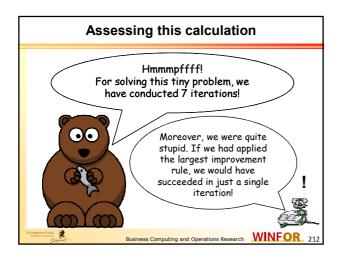


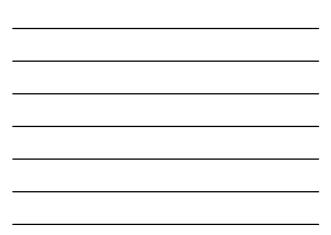


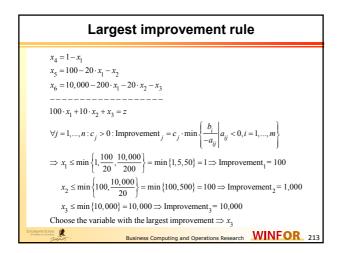




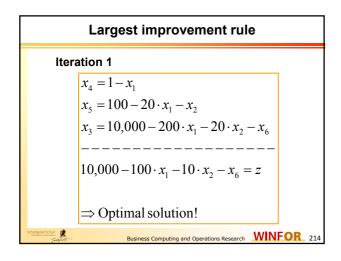














Alternative pivoting rules

- Two efficiency aspects to be considered for assessing pivoting rules
 - Number of iterations that are induced by the application of the rule
 Effort of each iteration
- Generally, it can be stated that the number of iterations required by the largest improvement rule is usually smaller than the number of iterations caused by the largest coefficient rule
- This was underlined empirically

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- However, the costs caused by each iteration are increased by the largest improvement rule
- Nevertheless, in a direct comparison the reduced number of iterations prevails and therefore the largest improvement rule outperforms the largest coefficient rule

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 215

Attention

- However, as already mentioned, each rule has its own specific worst case scenario
- Thus, according to worst case considerations, there is no real distinction between different pivoting rules
- In modern software packages, pivoting rules are chosen according to the handling of large sized problems on a computer
- However, it can be shown that LP is polynomially solvable. But this is done by using a different solution strategy

Complexity of Linear Programming

- Until 1979, the open question whether there can be any polynomial-time algorithm for LP was a most perplexing question (Papadimitriou and Steiglitz (1982,1988), p.170)
- Specifically, there was conflicting evidence about the possible answer

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- On the one hand, LP was certainly one of the problems (together with the TSP and many others) which seemed to defy all reasonable attempts at the development of a polynomial-time algorithm.
- However, on the other hand, LP had two positive features that made it completely different from the other classical hard problems
 - First, LP has a strong duality theory, which is conspicuously lacking for all the other hard combinatorial problems
 - Secondly, LP has an algorithm, the simplex method, which although exponential in its worst case – certainly works empirically on instances of seemingly unlimited size.
 - Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 217

Complexity of Linear Programming

- In the spring of 1979 the Soviet mathematician L.G. Khachian proposed an exact polynomial-time solution algorithm for LP (see the paper of Khachian, L. G. (1979)), the so-called ellipsoid algorithm
- Therefore, it was proven that LP is well solvable (in the language of the Complexity Theory), i.e., LP ∈ P
- This important work was assessed, evaluated and further extended by the papers of Aspvall and Stone (1980), Dantzig, G.B. (1979), and Goldfarb, D., Todd, M.J. (1980)

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 218

Performance of the ellipsoid algorithm

- Despite the great theoretical value of the ellipsoid algorithm (for worst case scenarios), this algorithm seems to be not very useful in practice
 - The most obvious among many obstacles is the large precision that is required by the conducted computations
 - Hence, average running times are not competitive, i.e., it is outperformed by the Simplex algorithm for realworld problems

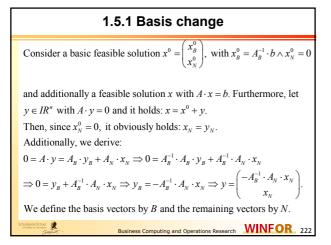
Interior point methods

- In 1984, however, Karmarkar, N. (1984) proposes a further polynomial exact solution algorithm for Linear Programming
- In contrast to the Simplex algorithm that moves from edge point to edge point, this procedure finds an optimal solution by iteratively moving through the interior of the solution space until optimality was proven
- Interior methods are also very efficient in practice and are competitive with the Simplex algorithm
 - · This applies in particular to LP with sparsely populated matrices
 - However, the Simplex algorithm is superior if a series of problems has to be solved (e.g., applied as a subroutine within a Branch&Bound algorithm for integer problems)

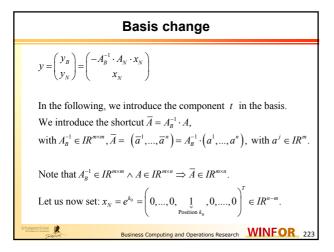
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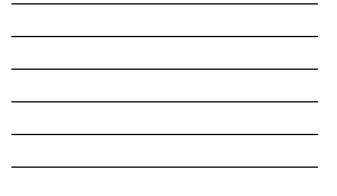
1.5 How to work with tableaus

- In order to provide a direct understanding of the Simplex procedure, we have illustrated its calculations on the basis of dictionaries
- However, in what follows, we make use of tableaus
- Tableaus are directly derived from the use of matrices in order to solve Linear Programs
- By making use of them, we are able to illustrate several aspects of the matrix transformations executed during the conduction of the Simplex procedure
- Moreover, matrix operations play a crucial role for implementing the Simplex Method as efficiently as possible
- · This is done by the so called Revised Simplex Method
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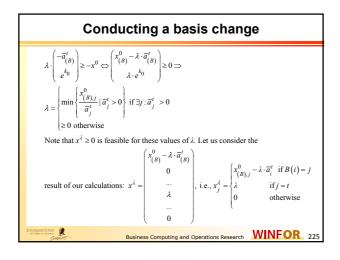
Basis change

Furthermore, we assume $t = N(k_0)$ I.e., the *t*th column in the original matrix represents the k_0 th non - basic column. Thus, it follows in this case : $y_B = -A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N \cdot x_N = -\overline{a}^t \Rightarrow y = \begin{pmatrix} y_B \\ y_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\overline{a}_{(B)}^t \\ e^{k_0} \end{pmatrix}$ Let $x^{\lambda} = x^0 + \lambda \cdot y \Rightarrow A \cdot (x^0 + \lambda \cdot y) = A \cdot x^0 + A \cdot \lambda \cdot y = b + 0 = b$ $x^0 + \lambda \cdot y \ge 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda \cdot y \ge -x^0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -\overline{a}_{(B)}^t \\ e^{k_0} \end{pmatrix} \ge -x^0$

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 224

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Observation

By setting λ to a maximal feasible value, we erase the corresponding variable out of the basis and introduce the *t*th entry instead
In the following, we examine a simple example

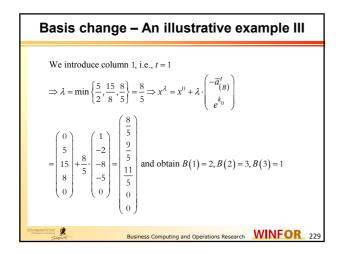
Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 226

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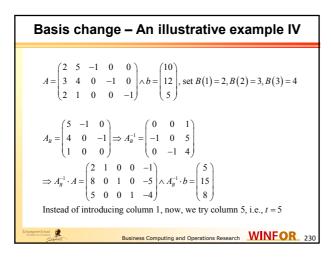
Basis change – An illustrative example I
$\begin{vmatrix} 100 \cdot a + 250 \cdot b \ge 500 \\ 150 \cdot a + 200 \cdot b \ge 600 \\ 100 \cdot a + 50 \cdot b \ge 250 \end{vmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 2 \cdot a + 5 \cdot b \ge 10 \\ 3 \cdot a + 4 \cdot b \ge 12 \\ 2 \cdot a + 1 \cdot b \ge 5 \end{vmatrix}$
We have $m = 3 \land n = 2 + 3 = 5$ Min $f(a,b) = 20 \cdot a + 30 \cdot b$
$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \land b = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 12 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ set } B(1) = 2, B(2) = 3, B(3) = 4$
Business Computing and Operations Research WINEOR 227

Basis change – An illustrative example II
$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \land b = \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 12 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ set } B(1) = 2, B(2) = 3, B(3) = 4$
$A_{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A_{B}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ $\Rightarrow A_{B}^{-1} \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 8 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -5 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \land A_{B}^{-1} \cdot b = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 15 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$
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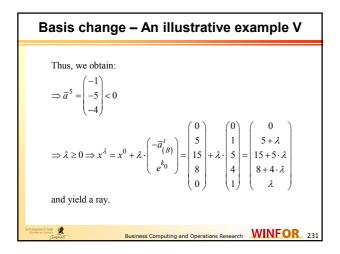


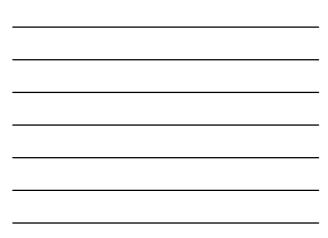


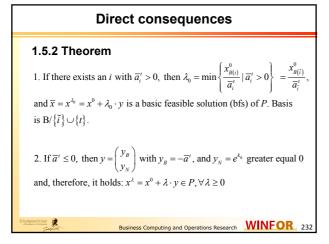


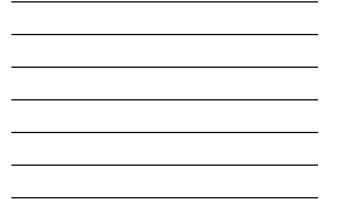




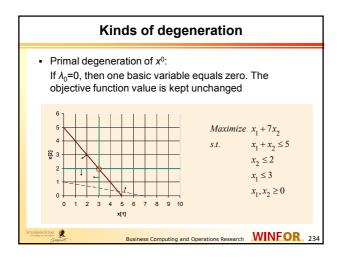








Proof of Theorem 1.5.2				
	1. Define \overline{N} by $\overline{N}(i) = \begin{cases} N(i) & \text{if } i \neq \tilde{i} \\ B(\tilde{i}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $\Rightarrow \overline{x} = x^0 + \lambda_0 \cdot y \Rightarrow \forall j \in \overline{N}(\{1,, n - m\}):$			
	$\overline{x}_{j} = 0 \Longrightarrow \overline{x}_{(\overline{x})} = 0$ Since $a_{i}^{t} > 0 \Longrightarrow a^{t} = A_{B} \cdot \overline{a}^{t}, \overline{a}^{t} = A_{B}^{-1} \cdot a^{t}$. We replace $B(\tilde{i})$ by t in the basis. Thus, \overline{B} $A \cdot \overline{x} = b$.	arises.		
Schumpeter School 🐲	 ⇒ x̄ is basic feasible solution for <i>P</i>. 2. trivial 	WINFOR		



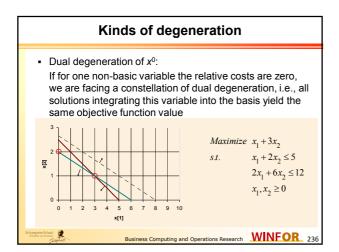


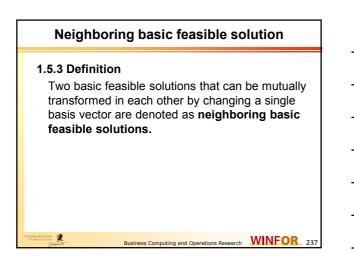
Observation

Consider the example

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- We have five variables altogether (two structure variables and three slack variables)
- Since m=3, we have always three basic variables
- Clearly, one slack variable becomes zero in the optimal solution
- · Note that this is not restricted to optimal solutions





Basis change and objective function value
Let
$$x^0 = \begin{pmatrix} x_B^0 \\ x_N^0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, with $x_B^0 = A_B^{-1} \cdot b, x_N^0 = 0$ a basic feasible solution.
Assuming it holds: $x = \begin{pmatrix} x_B \\ x_N \end{pmatrix} = x^0 + \begin{pmatrix} y_B \\ y_N \end{pmatrix}$, $y_B = -A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N \cdot x_N \land y_N = x_N$ for x with $A \cdot x = b$.
We calculate: $c^T \cdot x = c^T \cdot x^0 + c_B^T \cdot y_B + c_N^T \cdot y_N$
 $= c^T \cdot x^0 - c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N \cdot x_N + c_N^T \cdot y_N$
 $= c^T \cdot x^0 - c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N \cdot x_N + c_N^T \cdot x_N$
 $= c^T \cdot x^0 + (c_N^T - c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N) \cdot x_N$

Substitution

We introduce $\pi^T = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1}$ and $z^T = \pi^T \cdot A$

 $\Rightarrow c^{T} \cdot x^{0} + (c_{N}^{T} - c_{B}^{T} \cdot A_{B}^{-1} \cdot A_{N}) \cdot x_{N}$ $= c^{T} \cdot x^{0} + (c_{N}^{T} - z_{N}^{T}) \cdot x_{N}$

 $\wedge z_N^T = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N$

 $\Rightarrow z_B^T = \left(c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A\right)_B = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_B = c_B^T$

Substitution

 We introduce
$$\pi^T = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1}$$
 and $z^T = \pi^T \cdot A$
 $\Rightarrow c^T \cdot x^0 + (c_N^T - c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N) \cdot x_N$
 $= c^T \cdot x^0 + (c_N^T - z_N^T) \cdot x_N$
 $\Rightarrow z_B^T = (c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A)_B = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_B = c_B^T$
 $\wedge z_N^T = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A_N$
WIERCE 239

Relative cost change

Altogether, we get $c^T \cdot x = c^T \cdot x^0 + (c^T_N - z^T_N) \cdot x_N = c^T \cdot x^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x.$

Thus, $\overline{c}^{T} = c^{T} - z^{T}$ defines the **relative costs** change (or reduced costs/prices) when x^0 is transformed into x. Specifically, it holds: $c^T \cdot x = c^T \cdot x^0 + \overline{c}^T \cdot x$. 2 Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 240

Optimality criterion

1.5.4 Theorem

2

1. By moving between neighboring basic feasible solutions as introduced above, the objective function value is modified by $\overline{c}_t \cdot \lambda_0$.

2. If $\overline{c} \ge 0$, then x^0 is an optimal solution for a minimization problem.

Note that $\overline{c} \le 0$ is the optimality criterion for maximization problems.

Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 241

Proof of Theorem 1.5.4

1. Calculate $c^T \cdot \overline{x} = c^T \cdot x^0 + (c_N^T - z_N^T) \cdot \overline{x}_N = c^T \cdot x^0 + \overline{c}_t \cdot \lambda_0$, since $\overline{x}_N = \lambda_0 \cdot e^k$, N(k) = t2. Consider an arbitrary solution $x \in P$ and a minimization problem $\Rightarrow A \cdot x = b \land x \ge 0 \Rightarrow c^T \cdot x = c^T \cdot x + z^T \cdot x - z^T \cdot x$ (We assume $\overline{c} \ge 0 \Rightarrow c^T \cdot x - z^T \cdot x \ge 0$) $\ge z^T \cdot x = c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A \cdot x = \pi^T \cdot A \cdot x = \pi^T \cdot b$ $= \pi^T \cdot A \cdot x^0 = z^T \cdot x^0 = z_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + z_N^T \cdot x_N^0$ $= z_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + 0 = c_B^T \cdot x_B^0 = c^T \cdot x^0$ $\Rightarrow \overline{c} \ge 0 \Rightarrow \forall x \in P : c^T \cdot x \ge c^T \cdot x^0 \Rightarrow x^0$ is optimal **EXERCISE 1 EXERCISE 1 EXER**

Summary

Assuming an LP Problem is given in standard form, i.e., minimize $c^T \cdot x$ with respect to $x \ge 0 \land A \cdot x = b$. Furthermore, we assume rank(A) = m and that x^0 is a basic feasible solution (bfs). We are transforming the problem by A_B^{-1} . Denote E_m as an $m \times m$ elementary matrix. We introduce $\overline{A} = A_B^{-1} \cdot A = (\overline{A}_B, \overline{A}_N) = (E_m, \overline{A}_N)$, $\overline{b} = A_B^{-1} \cdot b = x_B \ge 0$, and $\overline{c}^T = c^T - \pi^T \cdot A$.

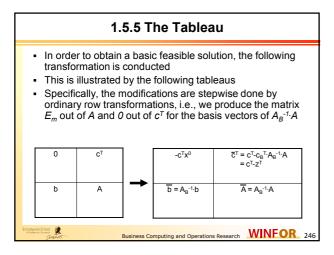
Summary

By multiplying A_B^{-1} , we get the following equivalent problem: Minimize $c^T \cdot x$, s.t. $A_B^{-1} \cdot A \cdot x = A_B^{-1} \cdot b \Leftrightarrow \overline{A} \cdot x = \overline{b}$ $c^T \cdot x = c^T \cdot x + z^T \cdot x - z^T \cdot x = (c^T - z^T) \cdot x + z^T \cdot x$ $= (c^T - z^T) \cdot x + c_B^T \cdot A_B^{-1} \cdot A \cdot x = \pi^T \cdot b + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x$ $= \pi^T \cdot A \cdot x^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x = z^T \cdot x^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x$ $= z_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + z_N^T \cdot x_N^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x = z_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + 0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x$ $= c_B^T \cdot x_B^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x = c^T \cdot x^0 + (c^T - z^T) \cdot x = c^T \cdot x^0 + \overline{c}^T \cdot x$ Business Computing and Operations Research WINEOR 244

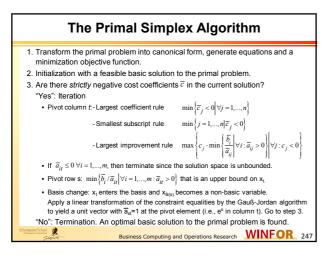


3 Cases may occur

1. $\overline{c} \ge 0 \Rightarrow x^0$ is an optimal solution to *P* 2. $\exists t : \overline{c_t} < 0 \land \overline{a}^t \le 0 \Rightarrow$ The objective function is not bounded against ∞ 3. $\exists t : \exists j : \overline{c_t} < 0 \land \overline{a_j} > 0 \Rightarrow \exists x^1 \in \varepsilon(P) : c^T \cdot x^1 \le c^T \cdot x^0$. If $\lambda_0 > 0$ it holds $c^T \cdot x^1 < c^T \cdot x^0$ Note that there are constellations possible where cases 2 and 3 apply, simultaneously. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that all results are directly derived from Theorem 1.5.4.

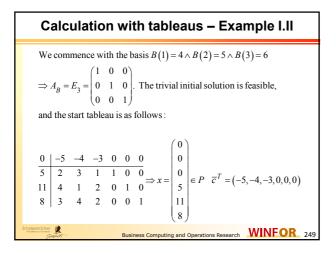




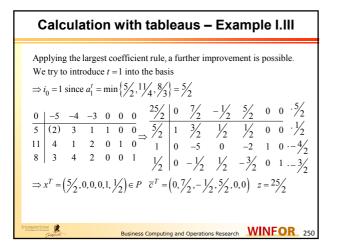




Calculation with tableaus – Example I.I
Consider the example from the calculation with dictionaries.
$\operatorname{Max} 5 \cdot x_1 + 4 \cdot x_2 + 3 \cdot x_3 = z$
s.t. $2 \cdot x_1 + 3 \cdot x_2 + 1 \cdot x_3 \le 5$
$4 \cdot x_1 + 1 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 \le 11$
$3 \cdot x_1 + 4 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 \le 8$
$x_1, x_2, x_3 \ge 0$
Introducing the slack variables x_4, x_5, x_6 , we transform the problem.
$Min - 5 \cdot x_1 - 4 \cdot x_2 - 3 \cdot x_3 + 0 \cdot x_4 + 0 \cdot x_5 + 0 \cdot x_6 = -z$
s.t. $2 \cdot x_1 + 3 \cdot x_2 + 1 \cdot x_3 + 1 \cdot x_4 + 0 \cdot x_5 + 0 \cdot x_6 = 5$
$4 \cdot x_1 + 1 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 + 0 \cdot x_4 + 1 \cdot x_5 + 0 \cdot x_6 = 11$
$3 \cdot x_1 + 4 \cdot x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 + 0 \cdot x_4 + 0 \cdot x_5 + 1 \cdot x_6 = 8$
$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6 \ge 0$
Strangest Cool State Strangest Cool



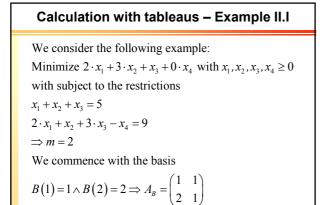






Calculation with tableaus – Example I.IV					
Further improvement is possible. We try to introduce $t = 3$ into the basis $\Rightarrow i_0 = 3 \text{ since } a'_3 = \min\{5,1\} = 1$ $\frac{25'_2}{5'_2} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 7'_2 & -1'_2 & 5'_2 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 5'_2 & 1 & 3'_2 & 1'_2 & 1'_2 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & -5 & 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & -5 & 0 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 1'_2 & 0 & -1'_2 & (1'_2) & -3'_2 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & -1 & 1 & -3 & 0 & 2 & -2 \\ \Rightarrow x^T = (2,0,1,0,1,0) \in P \overline{c}^T = (0,3,0,1,0,1) z = 13$ $\Rightarrow \text{Since } \overline{c} \ge 0, \text{ the solution is optimal and the total costs are } z = c^T \cdot x = 13.$ Furthermore, $(\overline{c}_4, \overline{c}_5, \overline{c}_6) = (0,0,0) - \pi^T \cdot E_3 = \pi^T = (1,0,1).$					
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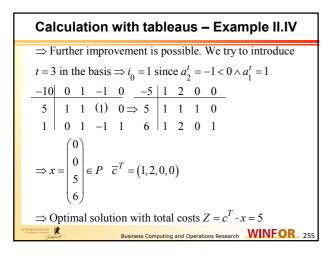


Calculation with tableaus – Example II.II		
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		
$ \Rightarrow \frac{-11 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ -1}{1 \ 0 \ 1 \ -1 \ 1} \Rightarrow x = \begin{pmatrix} 4\\1\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix} \in P $		
Business Computing and Operations Research WINFOR 253		



Calculation with tableaus – Example II.III	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
\Rightarrow Further improvement is possible	
We try to introduce $t = 4$ in the basis $\Rightarrow i_0 = 2$ since $a_1^t = -1 < 0 \land a_2^t = 1$	
$\frac{-11}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & -1 \Rightarrow 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{-10} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 5 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ \Rightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \end{bmatrix} \in P \overline{c}^T = (0, 1, -1, 0)$	
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