16.410/413 Principles of Autonomy and Decision Making Lecture 17: The Simplex Method

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November 10, 2010

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Lecture 17: The Simplex Method

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Assignments

Readings

• [IOR] Chapter 4.

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Outline

- Geometric Interpretation
 Geometric Interpretation
 - 2 Algebraic Procedure
 - Intro to interior point methods

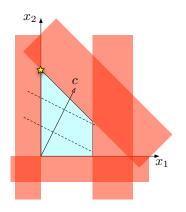
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Geometric Interpretation

• Consider the following simple LP:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \max & z = x_1 + 2x_2 = (1,2) \cdot (x_1,x_2), \\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1 \leq 3, \\ & x_1 + x_2 \leq 5, \\ & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$$

- Each inequality constraint defines a hyperplane, and a feasible half-space.
- The intersection of all feasible half spaces is called the feasible region.
- The feasible region is a (possibly unbounded) polyhedron.
- The feasible region could be the empty set: in such case the problem is said **unfeasible**.

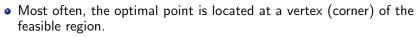


Geometric Interpretation (2)

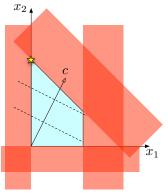
• Consider the following simple LP:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \max & z = x_1 + 2x_2 = (1,2) \cdot (x_1,x_2), \\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1 \leq 3, \\ & x_1 + x_2 \leq 5, \\ & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$$

- The "c" vector defines the gradient of the cost.
- Constant-cost loci are planes normal to c.



- If there is a single optimum, it must be a corner of the feasible region.
- If there are more than one, two of them must be adjacent corners.
- If a corner does not have any adjacent corner that provides a better solution, then that corner is in fact the optimum.



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A naïve algorithm (1)

• Recall the standard form:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & z = c^T x \\ \text{s.t.:} & Ax = b, \\ & x \ge 0. \end{array}$$

• Corners of the feasible regions (also called **basic feasible solutions**) are solutions of Ax = b (*m* equations in *n* unknowns, n > m), obtained setting n - m variables to zero, and solving for the others (basic variables), ensuring that all variables are non-negative.

A naïve algorithm (1)

• Recall the standard form:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & z = c^T x \\ \text{s.t.:} & Ax = b, \\ & x \ge 0. \end{array} \left(\begin{array}{ll} \min & z = c_y^T y + c_s^T s \\ \text{or, really: s.t.:} & A_y y + ls = b, \\ & y, s \ge 0. \end{array} \right)$$

- Corners of the feasible regions (also called **basic feasible solutions**) are solutions of Ax = b (*m* equations in *n* unknowns, n > m), obtained setting n m variables to zero, and solving for the others (basic variables), ensuring that all variables are non-negative.
- This amounts to:
 - picking n_y inequality constraints, (notice that $n = n_y + n_s = n_y + m$).
 - making them active (or binding),
 - finding the (unique) point where all these hyperplanes meet.
 - If all the variables are non-negative, this point is in fact a vertex of the feasible region.

- One could possibly generate all basic feasible solutions, and then check the value of the cost function, finding the optimum by enumeration.
- Problem: how many candidates?

$$\binom{n}{n-m} = \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!}.$$

- for a "small" problem with n = 10, m = 3, we get 120 candidates.
- this number grows very quickly, the typical size of realistic LPs is such that *n*,*m* are often in the range of several hundreds, or even thousands.

Duality polyhedra—graphs

- Each vertex has at least *n* neighbors.
- One can draw a graph of neighboring vertices.
- Ideally, one could search this graph for the vertex that maximizes the objective.
- Remember that if a corner does not have any adjacent corner that provides a better solution, then that corner is in fact the optimum.
- Use an informed ("greedy") algorithm to search for the max.

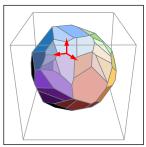
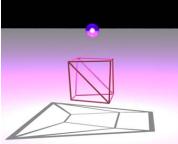


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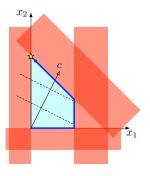


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Idea of the Simplex algorithm

- Start at a corner of the feasible region, e.g., the origin.
- While there is an adjacent corner that is a better solution, move to that corner.
- For "most" instances, the algorithm terminates (in a finite number of steps) at an optimal solution.



Finding adjacent vertices

 A vertex is identified by n - m variables set to zero. The other variables can be computed uniquely; these are called basic variables.

• Two vertices are adjacent if they share all their (non-)basic variables, except one.

• So: in order to find neighbors to a vertex, remove one of the (non-)basic variables and add another one.

Finding adjacent vertices

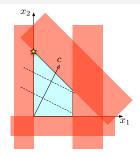
- A vertex is identified by n m variables set to zero. The other variables can be computed uniquely; these are called basic variables.
- Non-basic variables correspond to the *n_y* inequality constraints chosen to be active.
- Two vertices are adjacent if they share all their (non-)basic variables, except one.
- Two vertices are adjacent if they activate the same constraints, except one.
- So: in order to find neighbors to a vertex, remove one of the (non-)basic variables and add another one.
- Make one of the active constraints inactive, and activate a formerly inactive one.

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A simple example

• Consider the usual simple LP, in standard form:

max $z = x_1 + 2x_2 = (1, 2) \cdot (x_1, x_2),$ s.t.: $x_1 + x_3 = 3$, $x_1 + x_2 + x_4 = 5$ $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 > 0.$



 Choose the origin as the initial corner/vertex. The basic variables coincide with the slack variables.

$$x_1 = x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_3 = 3, x_4 = 5 \Rightarrow z = 0.$$

- We have two choose a neighbor:
 - Shall we make x₁ or x₂ basic? The cost depends more heavily on x_2 , so let's choose this one.
 - Shall we make x₃ or x₄ non-basic? lf

we increase
$$x_2$$
, x_4 will get to zero first (in fact, x_3 will not change at all), so choose x_4 .

$$x_1 = x_4 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 5, x_3 = 3 \Rightarrow z = 10.$$

Outline

1 Geometric Interpretation

Algebraic Procedure

- The tableau
- Algorithm
- Degeneracy
- Finding a feasible initial solution
- Analysis
- 3 Intro to interior point methods

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The simplex method: tableau

Consider the LP

 $\begin{array}{ll} \max & z = 3x_1 + 5x_2 \\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1 \leq 4 \\ & 2x_2 \leq 12 \\ & 3x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 18 \\ & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$

In standard form:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \max z, & z-3x_1-5x_2=0\\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1+x_3=4\\ & 2x_2+x_4=12\\ & 3x_1+2x_2+x_5=18\\ & x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4,x_5\geq 0. \end{array}$

In tableau form:

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> ₃	<i>x</i> ₄	<i>X</i> 5	b
Ζ	-3	-5				0
r_1	1		1			4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1		12
<i>r</i> ₃	3	2			1	18

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Simplex method by example

- As a first corner, lets choose the origin for the original variables, and compute the corresponding values for the slack variables.
- We get easily that $x_3 = 4$, $x_4 = 12$, and $x_5 = 18$.
- What is the "best next corner"? (we need to set to zero one of the non-zero—or basic—variables, and release one of the variables previously set to zero)
- In order to figure out which variable should enter the basis:
 - Look at the objective function: max $z, z 3x_1 5x_2 = 0$.
 - Increasing x_2 is likely to increase z faster... let's go with that.
- To figure out which variable should leave the basis:
 - Release the constraints that limits the increase in x_2 the most.
 - Constraint 2 limits x₂ to 12/2=6, constraint 3 limits x₂ to 18/2=9: eliminate Constraint 2 (i.e., the slack variable x₄)

Simplex method by example

• Recalling the tableau form:

- choose the column with the "most negative" entry in row zero (z).
- choose the row that limits the most the increase in the corresponding variable. (smallest positive ratio test.)
- Then **PIVOT** on the intersection, that is, clear everything in the yellow-shaded column, leaving only a 1 in the orange-shaded cell, by manipulating the matrix (without changing the solution of the equation!)

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>x</i> 5	b
Ζ	-3	-5				0
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1			4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1		12
<i>r</i> ₃	3	2			1	18

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>X</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	b
Ζ	-3	0		5/2		30
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1			4
<i>r</i> ₂		1		1/2		6
<i>r</i> 3	3	0		-1	1	6

Simplex method by example (2)

- Now pick the x₁ column, and the r₃ row, and pivot...
- Note that now we cannot further increase z, since x₄ and x₅ must be non-negative. We have the optimal solution: just read it off the tableau (remember x₄ = x₅ = 0), we get: x₁ = 2, x₂ = 6, and x₃ = 2.
- The positive slack x₃ indicates that the first constraint is not active.

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	b
Z	-3	0		5/2		30
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1			4
<i>r</i> ₂		1		1/2		6
<i>r</i> ₃	3	0		-1	1	6

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> ₃	<i>x</i> ₄	<i>X</i> 5	b
Z	0	0		3/2	1	36
<i>r</i> ₁	0		1	1/3	-1/3	2
<i>r</i> ₂		1		1/2		6
<i>r</i> ₃	1	0		-1/3	1/3	2

Simplex method: degeneracy

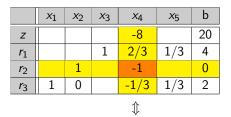
- Question: Do the above steps always result in a finite termination?
- Answer: Almost always yes, and terminate at the optimal solution.
- In some cases, (very rare in practice), the simplex algorithm as stated may result in infinite cycling. (two or more neighboring corners have the same cost)

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	b			
Z				-8		20			
<i>r</i> ₁			1	2/3	1/3	4			
<i>r</i> ₂		1		-1		0			
<i>r</i> ₃	1	0		-1/3	1/3	2			
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	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>X</i> 3	<i>x</i> ₄	<i>X</i> 5	b
Ζ		-8				20
<i>r</i> ₁		-2/3	1	0	1/3	4
<i>r</i> ₂		-1		1		0
r ₃	1	-1/3		0	1/3	2

Simplex method: degeneracy

- Question: Do the above steps always result in a finite termination?
- Answer: Almost always yes, and terminate at the optimal solution.
- In some cases, (very rare in practice), the simplex algorithm as stated may result in infinite cycling. (two or more neighboring corners have the same cost)



	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> ₄	<i>X</i> 5	b
Ζ		-8				20
r_1		-2/3	1	0	1/3	4
<i>r</i> ₂		-1		1		0
<i>r</i> ₃	1	-1/3		0	1/3	2

Degeneracy elimination methods

Charnes method: perturb the *b* vector $b \to b + [\varepsilon, \varepsilon^2, ...]^T$.

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Simplex method: finding a feasible initial solution

- The simplex method as presented previously assumed that the origin is a feasible solution (i.e., it satisfies all constraints).
- What if the origin is not feasible? We need to find a feasible solution.
- One possible ("big M") approach is to
 - Introduce new artificial "constraint violation" variables to the constraints that are not satisfied at the origin.
 - Assign a very large penalty to such artificial variables.
 - Initialize the tableau to make the artificial variable basic (non-zero).
 - Solve the problem as usual.

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Example: finding an initial feasible solution

• Consider the following LP:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & z = 3x_1 + 5x_2 \\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1 \leq 4 \\ & 2x_2 \leq 12 \\ & 3x_1 + 2x_2 \geq 1 \\ & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$$

• In standard/tableau form:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \max z, & z+3x_1+5x_2=0\\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1+x_3=4\\ & 2x_2+x_4=12\\ & 3x_1+2x_2-x_5=1\\ & x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4,x_5\geq 0. \end{array}$

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>x</i> 5	b
Ζ	3	5				0
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1			4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1		12
<i>r</i> ₃	3	2			-1	1

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Example, cont'd

- Clearly, $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$ is not a feasible solution $(x_5 \text{ would be } -1)$.
- So, modify the problem in this way (*M* stands for "very large number"):

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & z = 3x_1 + 5x_2 + Mx_6\\ \text{s.t.:} & x_1 \leq 4\\ & 2x_2 \leq 12\\ & 3x_1 + 2x_2 + x_6 \geq 1\\ & x_1, x_2 \geq 0. \end{array}$$

• In standard/tableau form:

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Example, cont'd

• Since we want the artificial variable(s) to be non-zero—to ensure feasibility—we initialize the tableau to get 0's in the artificial variable columns in the objective function:

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	<i>x</i> 6	b
Ζ	3 -3M	5-2M			Μ		-M
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1				4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1			12
<i>r</i> ₃	3	2			-1	1	1

• Now proceed in the usual way—remembering that *M* stands for "very large number"

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>X</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	<i>x</i> 6	b
Ζ	3 -3M	5-2M			М		-M
<i>r</i> ₁	1		1				4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1			12
r ₃	3	2			-1	1	1

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Proceeding...

	<i>x</i> ₁	<i>x</i> ₂	<i>x</i> 3	<i>x</i> 4	<i>X</i> 5	<i>x</i> ₆	b
Ζ	0	3			1	-1+M	-1
<i>r</i> ₁	0	-2/3	1		1/3	-1/3	4
<i>r</i> ₂		2		1			12
<i>r</i> 3	1	2/3			-1/3	1/3	1/3

 We now have all positive elements in the objective row, and can read the solution:

$$x_1 = 1/3, \quad x_2 = 0, \quad x_3 = 4, \quad x_4 = 12, \quad x_5 = 0, \quad x_6 = 0$$

• The objective value is z = -1 (which corresponds to z = 1 in the original minimization problem).

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Simplex method: summary

- Convert to standard form
- Pivot
 - choose most negative reduced cost (identifies new basic variable)
 - choose lowest positive ratio in ratio test
 - eliminate new basic variable from objective and all rows except lowest positive ratio in ratio test row
- Stop if optimal and read solution. Otherwise, pivot again.
- In some (degenerate) cases, the pivot step may not result in a strictly better solution, even though the solution is not optimal. In such cases (almost never occurring in practice) the simplex algorithm may not terminate.

There are methods to avoid infinite cycles.

- In the worst case, the simplex method might require visiting all feasible corners (exponential in n). In practice however, the method works very well.
- Recent advances (interior point methods) can solve LPs in polynomial time.

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- If there are no degenerate bases (true in random instances of LP), then it is impossible to return to a basis that has already been visited, because the objective function must decrease at every step.
- If there are degenerate bases, it is possible to cycle, which would mean that the same series of bases repeats as you pivot, so one could pivot forever.
- Smart rules about disambiguating ties in the lowest cost coefficient test and minimum positive ratio test can rule out possibility of infinite cycling
- Number of pivot steps \leq Number of corner point solutions

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- With *n* variables, each bounded in [0,1], there are 2*n* corner point feasible solutions
- Pathological examples force examination of all of these
- Each pivot (Gaussian elimination) takes O(mn) time
- Simplex algorithm is exponential in worst-case analysis, yet is remarkably successful in practice
- In fact, linear programming can be solved in polynomial time by interior point methods.
- Recently these have become competitive in practice with simplex.

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Outline

- Geometric Interpretation
- **Algebraic Procedure**
- Intro to interior point methods

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Introduction to Interior Point methods

• Interior point methods solve convex problems of the form

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & f_0(x) \\ \text{s.t.:} & f_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ & Ax = b, \end{array}$$

where the scalar functions f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_m are convex and twice differentiable.

 A scalar function f : ℝ → ℝ is convex if the line between any two points on the graph of the function lies above (or on) the graph, or more formally if

$$\lambda f(x_1) + (1-\lambda)f(x_2) \ge f(\lambda x_1 + (1-\lambda)x_2)$$

for any $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.

The barrier interior-point method: main idea

• Convert the problem into an minimization with equality constraints by adding barrier functions in the following way:

min
$$f_0(x) - \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \log(-f_i(x))$$

s.t.: $Ax = b$, (*)

- Notice that the objective is only defined within the feasible set defined by the (strict) inequalities f_i(x) < 0.
- As t → +∞, the objective function is very close to f₀, but diverges very steeply at the boundary of the feasible set.
- Idea: solve the problem iteratively, for $t = \mu^k t_0$, with $t_0 > 0$, $\mu > 1$.

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The barrier interior-point method: physical interpretation

- Assume for simplicity that there are no equality constraints (or, alternatively, work directly in the subspace such that Ax = b).
- Imagine that each constraints generate an electrical field with potential $-\log(-f_i(x))$;
- A unit charge at position x will be subject to the (repulsive) forces

$$F_i(x) = \frac{1}{f_i(x)} \nabla f_i(x), \qquad i = 1, \dots, m$$

• In addition to the repulsive forces from the constraints, the unit charge is "pushed" by an additional force

$$F_0(x) = -t\nabla f_0(x)$$

- For each *t*, the charge will come to rest at some point in the feasible region.
- As $t \to +\infty$, the charge will be pushed toward the optimal point.

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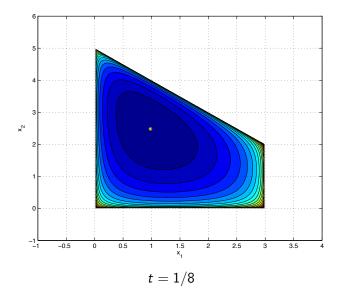
The barrier interior-point method

Input: x strictly feasible (i.e., $f_i(x) < 0$, i = 1, ..., m); t > 0; $\mu > 1$; $\epsilon > 0$.

repeat

 $\begin{array}{c|c} t \leftarrow \mu t; \\ \text{Let } x^* \text{ be the solution of } (\star), \text{ computed using } x \text{ as initial guess}; \\ // \text{ e.g., use a gradient descent or Newton method}) \\ x \leftarrow x^*; \\ \text{until } t > m/\epsilon; \end{array}$

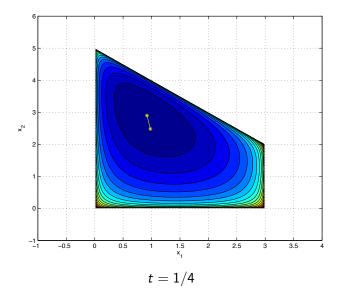
- The sequence of intermediate optimal solutions (i.e., the x*'s) forms what is known as the central path, which is always contained in the interior of the feasible set.
- This algorithm terminates within $O(\sqrt{m})$ time, yielding a solution that is at most ϵ -suboptimal.



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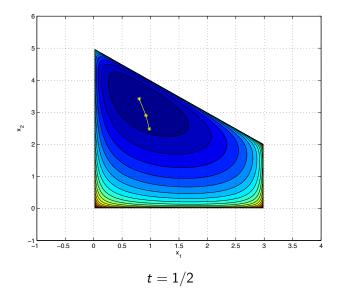
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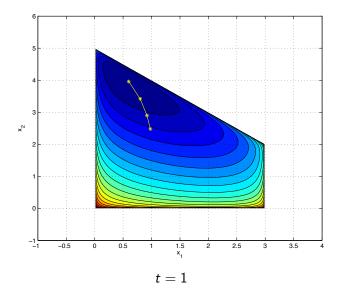


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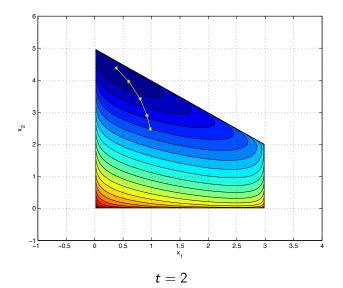
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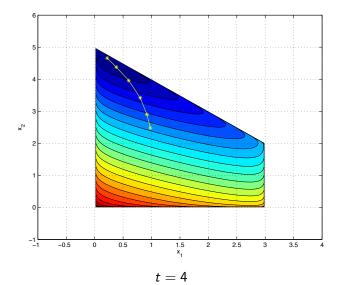


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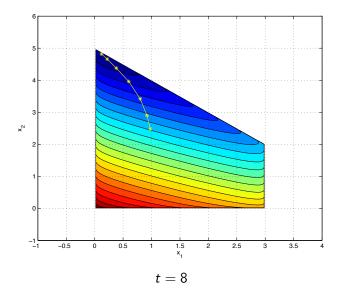


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Summary

 Interior point methods are widely applicable to convex optimization problems
 (linear approximation are just on example)

(linear programs are just an example)

- (Well-implemented) interior point methods converge in polynomial time
 (in the number of constraints *m*, and in the tolerance ε)
- Convex problems are in general very easy to solve numerically
- Open-source software for convex optimization:
 - SeDuMi: Primal-dual interior-point method http://sedumi.ie.lehigh.edu/
 - Yalmip: User-friendly MATLAB interface http://control.ee.ethz.ch/~joloef/wiki/pmwiki.php
- Non-convex optimization is a different story... stay tuned.

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