# Combinatorial Optimization in Computer Vision 

## Chapter 3: Linear Programming

WS 2011/12
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## Plan for Today

1. Standard Form of Linear Programs
2. Convex Polyhedra and Their Vertices
3. The Simplex Algorithm
4. Duality

## Definition Linear Program

Definition: A linear program is an optimization problem of the form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & f(x) \\
\text { s.t. } & g_{i}(x)=b_{i}, \\
& h_{j}(x) \leq c_{j}
\end{array}
$$

$(1 \leq \mathrm{i} \leq \mathrm{m}, 1 \leq \mathrm{j} \leq \mathrm{I})$ where all functions $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{i}}$ and $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{j}}$ are linear.

Example:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{3}} & 2 x_{1}+3 x_{2} \\
\text { s.t. } & x_{1}+x_{2}=0 \\
& x_{1}-5 x_{2} \leq 3
\end{array}
$$

## Towards the Standard Form I

## Linear Optimization Function

$$
f(x)=p^{\top} \cdot x \text { for } p \in \mathbb{R}^{n}
$$

Linear Equality Constraints

$$
\left(\begin{array}{c}
g_{1}(x) \\
\vdots \\
g_{m}(x)
\end{array}\right)=A \cdot x \text { for } A \in \mathbb{R}^{m n} \rightsquigarrow A x=b .
$$

Linear Inequality Constraints

$$
\left(\begin{array}{c}
h_{1}(x) \\
\vdots \\
h_{l}(x)
\end{array}\right)=B \cdot x \text { for } B \in \mathbb{R}^{l n} \quad \rightsquigarrow B x \leq c
$$

## Towards the Standard Form II

Aim: Introduction of slack variables in order to get constraints of the standard form

$$
\begin{aligned}
A x & =b \\
x & \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Towards the Standard Form III

Introduce slack variables $\mathrm{y}_{1} \geq 0, \ldots, \mathrm{y}_{1} \geq 0$ to reformulate the inequality constraint $\mathrm{Bx} \leq \mathrm{c}$ as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
B & \mathbb{1}
\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{x}{y}=c .
$$

$$
\begin{array}{|ll|}
\hline \min _{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+l}} & \binom{p}{\mathbf{0}}^{\top} \cdot\binom{x}{y} \\
\text { s.t. } & \left(\begin{array}{ll}
A & \mathbf{0} \\
B & \mathbb{1}
\end{array}\right) \cdot\binom{x}{y}=\binom{b}{c}, \\
& y \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

## Towards the Standard Form IV

Decompose x in $\mathrm{x}^{+}+\mathrm{x}^{-}$with

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{i}^{+}=\max \left(0, x_{i}\right) \geq 0 \\
& x_{i}^{-}=\max \left(0,-x_{i}\right) \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

|  | $\min _{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+l}}\left(\begin{array}{c}p \\ -p \\ \mathbf{0}\end{array}\right)^{\top} \cdot\left(\begin{array}{l}x^{+} \\ x^{-} \\ y\end{array}\right)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| s.t. | $\left(\begin{array}{ccc}A & -A & \mathbf{0} \\ B & -B & \mathbb{1}\end{array}\right) \cdot\left(\begin{array}{c}x^{+} \\ x^{-} \\ y\end{array}\right)=\binom{b}{c}$, |
|  | $\left(\begin{array}{c}x^{+} \\ x^{-} \\ y\end{array}\right) \geq \mathbf{0}$. |

## Standard Form of LP

Proposition: Any linear program is equivalent to a linear program in standard form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} \cdot x \\
\text { s.t. } & A x=b \\
& x \geq \mathbf{0}
\end{array}
$$

Remark:

- standard form useful for studying LPs
- In practice slack variables can be expensive and are often avoided.


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## Feasible Set of LPs

## Plan

- feasible set of LP = polyhedron
- vertices of polyhedra
- If an LP has a minimum, then it is attained at a vertex.


## Polyhedra

## Feasible set of LP is a polyhedron:

$$
M=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \mid A x=b, x \geq \mathbf{0}\right\} .
$$



## Vertices

Definition: Let $M \subset \mathbf{R}^{n}$ be a convex set. A point $x \in M$ is a vertex if it does not lie on a line segment in $M$, that is

$$
(x=\lambda y+(1-\lambda) z \text { for } y, z \in M, y \neq z \text { and } \lambda \in[0,1]) \Longrightarrow(\lambda=0 \text { or } \lambda=1) .
$$



## Characterization of Vertices I

Let $x \in M$. Let $I \_x$ be the set of indices of non-zero entries of $x$

$$
I_{x}:=\left\{i \in\{1, \ldots, n\} \mid x_{i} \neq 0\right\} .
$$

Example:

$$
x=(0,4,3,0,4,6,0) \in \mathbb{R}^{7}
$$

$$
I_{x}=\{2,3,5,6\} \subset\{1, \ldots, 7\}
$$

## Characterization of Vertices II

Denote by $A^{i}$ the $i-t h$ column of $A$. Then


## Characterization of Vertices III

Notation: Let $x \in M$, let $I=\left|I_{x}\right|$.

- For a $(m \times n)$-matrix $A$, we denote by $A_{x}$ the $(m \times I)$ matrix consisting of the columns with indices in $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}}$

$$
A_{x}=\left(A^{j}\right)_{j \in I_{x}}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
A^{j_{1}} & \cdots & A^{j_{l}}
\end{array}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m l} .
$$

- For a vector $y \in R^{n}$ we denote by $y_{x} \in R^{\prime}$ the vector consisting of the entries with indices in $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}}$

$$
y_{x}=\left(y_{j}\right)_{j \in I_{x}}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
y_{j_{1}} \\
\vdots \\
y_{j_{l}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Characterization of Vertices IV

Proposition: The following are equivalent
a) $x$ is a vertex of $M$
b) $\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{i} 1}, \ldots, \mathrm{~A}^{\mathrm{il}}$ are linearly independent
c) $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{x}}$ has full rank: $\operatorname{rk}\left(A_{x}\right)=l$.

## Proof I

- Items b) and c) are equivalent by definition.
- To prove $b) \Rightarrow$ a) we prove $(\neg a)) \Rightarrow(\neg b)$ ).

Assume that $x$ is not a vertex of $M$. Then there exist $\mathrm{y} \neq \mathrm{z} \in \mathrm{M}$ and $\lambda \in(0,1)$ with $\mathrm{x}=\lambda \mathrm{y}+(1-\lambda) \mathrm{z}$.

Then $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{y}-\mathrm{z}} \subset \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}}$, because $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{j}}=0 \Rightarrow \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{j}}=0$ and $\mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{j}}=0$ (use that $y, z \geq 0$ ). Since $(y-x) \neq 0$, we get $(y-z)_{x} \neq 0$.
But then $0=b-b=A(y-z)=A_{x}(y-z)_{x}$. With $(y-z)_{x} \neq 0$, this implies that the columns of $A_{x}$ are linearly dependent.

## Proof II

To prove $a) \Rightarrow$ b) we prove $(\neg \mathrm{b})) \Rightarrow(\neg \mathrm{a})$ ).
Assume that the columns of $A_{x}$ are linearly dependent. Let $y^{\prime} \in \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}}$ non-zero with $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{y}^{\mathrm{f}}=0$.

Let $\mathrm{y} \in \mathbf{R}^{\mathrm{n}}$ with $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{y}} \subset \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}}$ and $\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{x}}=\mathrm{y}^{\prime}$. Then $\mathrm{Ay}=0$. Let $\epsilon>0$ be small. Let $\mathrm{X}_{\epsilon}^{+}=\mathrm{x}+\epsilon \mathrm{y}$ and $\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon}^{-}=\mathrm{x}-\epsilon \mathrm{y}$.

Then $\mathrm{Ax}_{\epsilon}{ }^{+}=\mathrm{b}$ and $\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon}{ }^{+} \geq 0$ for $\epsilon$ sufficiently small. $\Rightarrow x_{\epsilon}^{+} \in \mathrm{M}$. Similarly $\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon}^{-} \in \mathrm{M}$.

But $x=1 / 2 x_{\epsilon}^{+}+1 / 2 x_{\epsilon}^{-}$, which implies that $x$ is not a vertex.


## Consequences I

Corollary 1: The polyhedron $M$ has at most finitely many vertices.

Proof: Let $x$ be a vertex of $M$. Then $A_{x}$ has maximal rank and consequently $x_{x}$ is the uniquely determined solution of $A_{x} x_{x}=b$. Thus, $I_{x}$ determines $x$ uniquely.

The corollary follows from the fact that there are only finitely many subsets $I \subset\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

## Consequences II

Corollary 2: If $M$ is non-empty, then $M$ has a vertex.

Proof: Let $x \in M$ with $\left|l_{x}\right|$ minimal. We will show that $x$ is a vertex. If $x=\lambda y+(1-\lambda) z$ for $y \neq z \in M$, then $I_{y}, I_{z} \subset I_{x}$.
W.I.o.g. assume that $(y-z)_{x}$ has a positive entry.

Define $x_{\epsilon}=x+\epsilon(y-z) \in M$.

Choose $\epsilon$ in such a way that one entry of $\left(\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon}\right)_{\mathrm{x}}$ is 0 .

Then $\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon} \in \mathrm{M}$ and $\left|\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}_{\epsilon}}\right|<\| \mathrm{x} \mid$. Contradiction.


## Consequences III

Corollary 3: If $f(x)=p^{\top} x$ attains a minimum on $M$, then it attains the minimum at a vertex of $M$.

Proof: Let $m=\min _{x \in M} p^{\top} x$. Choose $u \in M$ with $p^{\top} u=m$ such that $\|_{u} \mid$ is minimal, i.e.

$$
\left|\|_{u}\right|=\min \left\{\| \|_{v} \mid: v \in M, p^{\top} v=m\right\} .
$$

If $u$ was not a vertex of $M$, we could construct as above $v \neq w \in$ M and $\lambda \in(0,1)$ with $u=\lambda v+(1-\lambda) w$ and $\left|\left\|_{v}\left|<\left|\|_{u}\right|\right.\right.\right.$

But then $f(u)=\lambda f(v)+(1-\lambda) f(w)$. By minimality of $f(u)$, we get $f(u)$ $=f(v)=f(w)$.

Contradiction to the minimality of $\|_{u} \mid$.

## Summary on Polyhedra

Alltogether, we have proved

## Theorem:

- If the polyhedron M is non-empty, then it has at least one vertex. There are only finitely many vertices.
- If the linear program admits a minimum over $M$, then this minimum is attained at a vertex of M .

Solution strategy: Search the vertices of $M$

## Polyhedra as Simplices

One can prove even more.

Theorem: Let $\mathrm{M} \subset \mathbf{R}^{\mathrm{n}}$ be a polyhedron. Assume that M is bounded. Let $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}$ be the vertices of $M$. Then $M$ is the convex hull of ist vertices

$$
M=\operatorname{conv}\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right) .
$$

In this case the linear program takes a minimum on $M$.

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## Basic Idea

Input: LP in standard form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} \cdot x \\
\text { s.t. } & A x=b \\
& x \geq \mathbf{0}
\end{array}
$$

Idea: walk through the vertices of the polyhedron $M=\left\{x \in R^{n} \mid A x=b, x \geq 0\right\}$. Decrease the value of the objective function in each step.

Phase I: Find a starting vertex x of M .
Phase II: Determine an edge e connecting x with a neighbor vertex such that the objective function decreases along e. Repeat this step until convergence.

## Phase I

To find a starting vertex, we solve an auxiliary LP. If $b \geq 0$, we use

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{(x, z)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}} & \sum_{i} z_{i} \\
\text { s.t. } & A x+z=b \\
& \binom{x}{z} \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

If some $b_{j} \leq 0$, we multiply the corresponding line in $A$ with -1 and change $b_{j}$ into $-b_{j}$.

## Phase I (continued)

- A starting vertex for the auxiliary LP (ALP)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{(x, z)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}} & \sum_{i} z_{i} \\
\text { s.t. } & A x+z=b \\
& \binom{x}{z} \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

is $\left(x_{0}, z_{0}\right)=(0, b)$.

- We solve (ALP) by stepping to Phase II with this starting vertex.
- A basic solution (i.e. a solution which is a vertex) of (ALP) is a starting vertex for the original LP.
- If (ALP) is not solvable, then the orginal LP is not solvable.


## Phase II

In Phase II we have to walk along edges through the vertices of $M=\left\{x \in \mathbf{R}^{n} \mid A x=b, x \geq 0\right\}$ and to successively decrease the value of the objective function.

To do so, we use the characterization of vertices $x$ by their index set $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{x}}$.

Recall that the columns of $A_{x}$ are linearly independent if $x$ is a vertex.

## Phase II (continued)

- For each vertex $x$, choose a maximal set $I \subset\{1, \ldots n\}$ such that
- the columns of $A_{l}$ are linearly independent and
$-I_{x} \subset I$.
(Note that |I| = rk(A).)
- Conversely, given $I \subset\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with $\|=r k(A)$ such that the columns of $A_{1}$ are linearly independent, consider the linear equation $A_{1} y=b$. If there is a solution $y^{\prime}$ of this system with $y^{\prime} \geq 0$, then $y^{\prime}$ can be extended by zeros to a vertex $y$ of $M$ with $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{y}} \subset \mathrm{I}$.
- If a vertex $x$ satisfies $|I \quad x|=r k(A)$, then the basis set $I$ is uniquely defined. Such a vertex is called non-degenerate. If $|1 \quad x|<\operatorname{rk}(A)$, there could be several basis sets I. Such vertices are called degenerate. In the simplex algorithm one has to take care to avoid cycling caused by degenerate vertices.


## Phase II (continued)

Assume we are at vertex $x$ and we have chosen a basis set I. To pass to a neighboring vertex y two choices have to be made:

- incoming index: choose $j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with $j \notin I$.
- outgoing index: choose $\mathrm{k} \in \mathrm{I}$.

Then replace k by $\mathrm{j}: \mathrm{I}^{\mathrm{f}}=(\mathrm{I} \backslash\{\mathrm{k}\}) \cup\{j\}$.

## Phase II (continued)

- Algorithmically, this comes down to solving the equation $A_{j} y=b$. This can be done with a warm start, using that the equation $A_{1} x=b$ has been solved before.
- In practice, the linear program is written down in a so-called tableau. Solving the equation $A_{\jmath} y=b$ is then achieved by performing elementary Gauss elimination steps.
- The choice of j and k is guided by two principles
- decrease the objective function
- ensure that y is feasible, i.e. that $\mathrm{y} \geq 0$


## Some Facts

- If an appropriate strategy for the choice of $j$ and $k$ is chosen, the simplex algorithm terminates. This means that it either finds a solution of the LP after finitely many steps or it detects that the LP is unfeasible or unbounded.
- The worst case of the algorithm is exponential in the problem size.
- In practice, the simplex algorithm is very performant and it is frequently used.
- The ellipsoid method, proposed in 1976/77, was the first polynomial time algorithm for Linear Programming.


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## Duality

- For every LP there is an associated dual LP.
- Solving the LP is equivalent to solving the dual LP.
- We will first see duality for LPs in standard inequality form.
- Then in a second step we derive duality for LPs in standard equality form (i.e. in standard form as we have seen in 1.).


## Symmetric Duality for LPs in Standard Inequality Form

Consider the following LP in standard inequality form:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} x \\
\text { s.t. } & A x \geq b \\
& x \geq 0 .
\end{array}
$$

The associated dual LP is

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\max _{y \in \mathbb{R}^{m}} & b^{\top} y \\
\text { s.t. } & A^{\top} y \leq p \\
& y \geq 0
\end{array}
$$

## Weak Duality

Theorem: Let $x \in \mathbf{R}^{n}$ be feasible for the primal LP, let $y \in \mathbf{R}^{m}$ be feasible for the dual LP. Then

$$
b^{\top} y \leq p^{\top} x .
$$

Proof: By primal feasibility of $x$, we have $b \leq A x$, by dual feasibility of $y$, we have $p \geq A^{\top} y$. Using $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$, this implies

$$
b^{\top} y \leq x^{\top} A^{\top} y \leq x^{\top} p
$$

## Strong Duality

Theorem: If a standard inequality LP is bounded and feasible, then so is its dual. Denote by $x^{*}$ and $y^{*}$ the solutions of the primal resp. the dual problem. Then

$$
b^{\top} y^{*}=p^{\top} x^{*} .
$$

## Duality for LPs in Standard Equality Form I

Consider now a LP in standard equality form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} \cdot x \\
\text { s.t. } & A x=b \\
& x \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

This can easily be transformed to a LP in standard inequality form

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} \cdot x \\
\text { s.t. } & \binom{A}{-A} x \geq\binom{ b}{-b} \\
& x \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

## Duality for LPs in Standard Equality Form II

The dual LP of

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}} & p^{\top} \cdot x \\
\text { s.t. } & \binom{A}{-A} x \geq\binom{ b}{-b} \\
& x \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

is given by

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\max _{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m}} & b^{\top} \cdot y_{1}-b^{\top} \cdot y_{2} \\
\text { s.t. } & A^{\top} y_{1}-A^{\top} y_{2} \leq p \\
& y_{1} \geq \mathbf{0}, y_{2} \geq \mathbf{0} .
\end{array}
$$

## Duality for LPs in Standard Equality Form III

This last problem

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\max _{\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m}} & b^{\top} \cdot y_{1}-b^{\top} \cdot y_{2} \\
\text { s.t. } & A^{\top} y_{1}-A^{\top} y_{2} \leq p \\
& y_{1} \geq \mathbf{0}, y_{2} \geq \mathbf{0}
\end{array}
$$

can be simplified by introducing $z=y_{1}-y_{2}$. The resulting LP is

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\max _{z \in \mathbb{R}^{m}} & b^{\top} z \\
\text { s.t. } & A^{\top} z \leq p
\end{array}
$$

## Summary

- We have seen that any LP can be written in standard form.
- The feasible set of an LP is a convex polyhedron. Such a polyhedron can be empty, bounded or unbounded.
- If the LP has a solution, the it has a solution which lies on a vertex of the polyhedron.
- The simplex algorithm searches the vertices of a polyhedron for the optimal solution.
- The dual LP associated with an LP is equivalent by the Strong Duality Theorem.

