

ON THE EXACT SOLUTION OF A SYSTEM OF LINEAR HOMOGENEOUS EQUATIONS *via* A PROJECTIVE ALGORITHM

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In a recent paper De Ghellinck and Vial [1] proposed a projective algorithm to solve a system of linear homogeneous equations: find $x \in \mathcal{R}^n$ satisfying:

$$(P1) \quad \begin{aligned} Ax &= 0 \\ ex &= n \\ x &\geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where $A \in \mathcal{R}^{m \times n}$, $x \in \mathcal{R}^n$ and e is the row vector of ones. Let L be the length of the input as defined in [2]. Their main algorithm, which is a variant of the projective algorithm [3] and will be called \mathcal{A}_1 , takes $\epsilon > 0$ as part of the input and delivers in time polynomial in m , n , L , and $\log 1/\epsilon$, one of the following:

- (i) an exact solution of $P1$,
- (ii) a proof that $P1$ has no solution,
- (iii) an ϵ -approximate solution, *i.e.*, an x satisfying

$$|a_i x| < \epsilon \quad \forall i \quad (1)$$

$$ex = n \quad (2)$$

$$x \geq 0. \quad (3)$$

Their algorithm is based on the perturbation lemma of Gács–Lovász [4].

Lemma: For $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small, the system

$$a_i x \leq b_i, \quad \forall i \quad (4)$$

has a solution if and only if the system

$$a_i x < b_i + \epsilon, \quad \forall i \quad (5)$$

has a solution.

In order to determine an exact solution, more precisely a basic feasible solution (bfs), of $P1$, they call the algorithm \mathcal{A}_1 n times. At each iteration they attempt to fix a variable x_j to zero.

It is interesting to note that the De Ghellinck–Vial algorithm for finding an exact solution to a system of linear homogeneous equations is exactly Hachiyān’s algorithm [2, 5] for finding an exact solution to a system of linear inequalities. Recall that Hachiyān solved the decision problem (Is $S = \{x : Ax \leq b\} \neq \emptyset$, a yes or no question), in proving $LP \in \mathcal{P}$. Since Hachiyān did not have Gács–Lovász’s Perturbation Lemma, he used the ellipsoidal algorithm as a subroutine to find an exact solution of a system of linear equations. Similarly, De Ghellinck–Vial used their main algorithm to find an exact solution of a system of homogeneous linear equations.

Earlier, we presented [6] an interpretation of the perturbation lemma within the simplex algorithm framework. Given \bar{x} satisfying $\{x : a_i x \leq b_i + \epsilon \quad \forall i\}$, one finds a bfs \hat{x} of it in at most n simplex pivots (see also [7]). Basis or hyperplanes defining \bar{x} will give a bfs \hat{x} of the unperturbed system (4). Actually, this idea is first used by Maurras *et al.* [8], to find an exact solution from an ϵ -approximate solution for totally unimodular systems.

As usual we assume that A is an integral matrix. Consequently there exists a positive integer $q = O(2^L)$ satisfying:

(i) For every basis B of $\left[\begin{array}{c} A \\ e \end{array} \right]$

we have

$$|(B^{-1})_{i,j}| \leq q, \quad |\det B| \leq q \quad (6)$$

and

$$(B^{-1})_{i,j} \neq 0 \Rightarrow |(B^{-1})_{i,j}| \geq 1/q . \quad (7)$$

(ii) For any basic solution \bar{x} of

$$Ax = 0 , \quad ex = n ,$$

we have

$$|\bar{x}_j| \leq q \text{ and } \bar{x}_j \neq 0 \Rightarrow |\bar{x}_j| \geq 1/q . \quad (8)$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying (1-3), let us transform (1-3) to

$$a_i x + u_i = \varepsilon \quad i = 1 \dots m \quad (9)$$

$$-a_i x + v_i = \varepsilon \quad i = 1 \dots m \quad (10)$$

$$ex = n \quad (11)$$

$$z = (x, u, v) \geq 0 . \quad (12)$$

Let us rewrite (9-12) compactly as

$$\tilde{A}z = \tilde{b}, \quad z \geq 0 \quad (13)$$

with $\tilde{b}^T = (\varepsilon \bar{e}, \varepsilon \bar{e}, n) \in \mathbb{R}^{2m+1}$ and \bar{e} is an m -vector of ones. Clearly, $\exists \bar{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \bar{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ such that $\bar{z} = (\bar{x}, \bar{u}, \bar{v})$ is a solution of (13).

Lemma: Given a solution \bar{z} of (13) there exists a polynomial algorithm, say \mathcal{A}_2 , which finds a basis \tilde{B} of \tilde{A} and a basic feasible solution \hat{z} such that $\hat{z}_{\tilde{B}} = (\hat{x}, \hat{u}, \hat{v})_{\tilde{B}} = (\tilde{B})^{-1} \tilde{b}$.

This result is, in fact, a constructive proof of the fundamental theorem of linear programming and goes back to Dantzig [9]. The algorithm \mathcal{A}_2 can be viewed as a simplex-type algorithm or a projection algorithm. For a formal proof of this result see reference [7]. \mathcal{A}_2 requires, in general, $\dim z = 2m + n$ pivots. However, for ε sufficiently small it requires n pivots.

Let $b^T = (0, 0, n)$ and define a basic solution of $\tilde{A}z = b$ by

$$\hat{z} = (\hat{x}, \hat{u}, \hat{v}) = (\tilde{B})^{-1} \tilde{b}, \quad (14)$$

and, of course, $\hat{z}_{\tilde{N}} = 0$, where \tilde{N} is the set of all non-basic variables. Then we have:

Theorem: For $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2mq}$,

\hat{z} is a basic feasible solution of $P1$.

Proof: It suffices to show that \hat{z} is a basic feasible solution of $\tilde{A}z = b$ and $\hat{u} = \hat{v} = 0$. It is easy to see that \hat{x} or \hat{z} satisfies the equation $ex = n$. Clearly for j non-basic $\hat{z}_j = \hat{z}_j = 0$. For j basic, it suffices to show that

$$|\hat{z}_j - \bar{z}_j| < 1/q_0, \quad (15)$$

where q_0 is $|\det B|$. This follows since if $\hat{z}_j < 0$, then $\hat{z}_j \leq -1/q_0$, by integrality of \hat{A} , b and definition of q_0 . But, this contradicts (15) since $\bar{z}_j \geq 0$. Let $B_j^\#$ denote the matrix obtained from B by replacing j 'th column with $\tilde{b} - b$. By Cramer's rule,

$$\alpha_j \equiv (\det B)(\bar{z}_j - \hat{z}_j) = \det B_j^\# . \quad (16)$$

Then, by expanding $B_j^\#$ along j th column, and using (6) we have

$$|\alpha_j| \leq 2m \varepsilon q < 1 \quad (17)$$

by definition of ε . Clearly (17) implies (15) via (6). Thus \hat{z} is a basic feasible solution of $\tilde{A}z = b$.

We need to show that for basic u_i (similarly for v_j) $\hat{u}_i = 0$. Since \hat{z} is a basic feasible solution of $\tilde{A}z = b$, we have $u_j \geq 0, \hat{v}_j \geq 0$. But, in every solution of $\tilde{A}z = b, u_j + v_j = 0$, (by adding (9) and (10)), which implies $\hat{u}_j = \hat{v}_j = 0$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Thus it suffices to call \mathcal{A}_1 once with $\varepsilon < 1/2mq$, followed by a call to \mathcal{A}_2 , to obtain an exact solution of $P1$.

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