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Representation for Multiple Right-Hand Sides

*Charles Blair*

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Representation for Multiple Right-Hand Sides

Charles Blair, Professor  
Department of Business Administration



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## Representation for Multiple Right-Hand Sides

CHARLES BLAIR

*Business Administration Dept., University of Illinois,  
1206 S. Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820*

We are given finitely many polyhedra defined by linear constraints, using the same constraint matrix and different right-hand sides. We consider a simple constraint system and give necessary and sufficient conditions for this system to define the union of the polyhedra.

*Key words:* formulation, linear inequalities, representation

*Running title:* Multiple Right-hand Sides

Let  $A$  be a  $m \times n$  matrix of rank  $n$ . For any  $b \in R^m$ ,  $\{x | Ax \geq b\}$  is a polyhedron. Suppose we have several right-hand-sides  $b^{(1)}, \dots, b^{(t)}$ . These give  $t$  polyhedra:

$$P^{(h)} = \{x | Ax \geq b^{(h)}\} \quad 1 \leq h \leq t$$

Define:

$$Q = \text{conv}\left(\bigcup_{h=1}^t P^{(h)}\right)$$

$$T = \{x | Ax \geq \sum \lambda_h b^{(h)}, \text{ for some } \lambda \text{ with } \sum \lambda_h = 1, \lambda_h \geq 0\}$$

Jeroslow [1] raises the question of when  $Q = T$ . The motivation is that  $T$  is defined using linear constraints with the auxillary variables  $\lambda_h$ . Thus, when  $Q = T$ , the problem of maximizing a linear objective over the union of  $P_h$  can be done by solving a linear program of modest size. In particular, it is not necessary to make one copy of  $A$  for each  $h$ .

[1] gives a sufficient condition (Theorem 1 below) for  $Q = T$ . In this note we give a modification which is simpler and includes more cases (Theorem 2). Then we give a weaker sufficient condition (Theorem 3). If we make a nondegeneracy assumption, this condition is necessary (Theorem 4). The condition of Theorems 3-4 is not easy to verify. We show (Theorem 5) that the problem of deciding whether  $Q = T$  for given  $A, b^{(h)}$  is NP-Hard, which suggests that no easily verifiable necessary and sufficient condition exists.

**Definitions.** For  $I$  a subset of the rows of  $A$ ,  $1 \leq h \leq t$ , we define

$$E_{I,h} = \{x | (Ax)_i = b_i^{(h)} \text{ for all } i \in I\}$$

$$F_{I,h} = \{x | (Ax)_i \geq b_i^{(h)} \text{ for all } i \in I\}$$

When  $E_{I,h}$  consists of a single vector, we define  $x_{I,h}$  to be that vector. For  $h$  fixed, those  $x_{I,h}$  which are in  $P^{(h)}$  are the extreme points of  $P^{(h)}$ .

THEOREM 1 [1, THEOREM 2.2].  $Q = T$  if, for all  $x_{I,h}$ ,  $x_{I,h} \notin P^{(h)}$  implies that for some  $1 \leq j \leq m$ ,  $(Ax_{I,k})_j < b_j^{(k)}$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq t$ .

Example 1. We let  $n = t = 2$ ,  $m = 4$  and take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \\ 10 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to see that for both right-hand sides, the inequalities from the last two rows are redundant and that  $Q = T = \{x | x_i \geq 4\}$ . However, Theorem 1 cannot be used. When  $I$  consists of the bottom two rows of  $A$ ,  $x_{I,1} = (5, 0) \notin P^{(1)}$  because row 2 of  $A$  is violated, and this is the only violated row. However,  $x_{I,2} = (0, 5)$  satisfies row 2 so the conditions of Theorem 1 are not satisfied.

This example suggests that the important thing is that when  $x_{I,h} \notin P^{(h)}$  for some  $h$ , there must be a reason why  $x_{I,k} \notin P^{(k)}$  for all  $k$ , but the reason (i. e., the violated row) may be different for different  $k$ . In our example,  $x_{I,2}$  violates row 1 instead of row 2.

THEOREM 2.  $Q = T$  if, for all  $x_{I,h}$ ,  $x_{I,h} \notin P^{(h)}$  implies  $x_{I,k} \notin P^{(k)}$  for all  $1 \leq k \leq t$ .

Another way to interpret Theorem 2 is that for all  $h$ , the set of  $I$  which give extreme points of  $P^{(h)}$  must be the same—the  $P^{(h)}$  must all have the same shape. Since Theorem 2 follows easily from Theorem 3, we do not give a separate proof.

To develop a necessary and sufficient condition for  $Q = T$ , it helps to consider two examples in which the condition of Theorem 2 does not hold, with  $Q = T$  in one case,  $Q \neq T$  in the other.

Example 2. We let  $n = t = 2$ ,  $m = 3$  and take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 14 \\ 10 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 18 \\ 11 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example 3. Same as Example 2, except

$$b^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 15 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

In both examples, when we let  $I$  be the first and third rows of  $A$ ,  $x_{I,1} = (6, 8) \notin P^{(1)}$ , but  $x_{I,2} \in P^{(2)}$ , so Theorem 2 cannot be used. However, it is easy to show in Example 2 that  $Q = T = P^{(1)}$ , but that in Example 3,  $(6, 8.5) \in T \setminus Q$ . (to see that  $(6, 8.5) \in T$ , let  $\lambda = (.5, .5)$ )

The crucial distinction between the two examples is that in Example 3, the “problem vector”  $x_{I,2} = (6, 9)$  was an extreme point of  $Q$ , while in Example 2 it was not.

**THEOREM 3.** *If  $Q \neq T$ , there is  $c \in R^n$ ,  $I, h, j$  with (i)  $x_{I,h} \in P^{(h)}$ , (ii)  $cx_{I,h} = M$ , (iii)  $cx_{I,j} > M$ , where  $M = \max\{cx|x \in Q\}$ .*

Note that (ii) and (iii) imply  $x_{I,j} \notin Q$ , hence  $x_{I,j} \notin P^{(j)}$ .

**PROOF:** Let  $y \in T \setminus Q$ . There is  $c \in R^n$  with  $cy > \max\{cx|x \in Q\} = M$ . The maximum of  $cx$  over  $Q$  is obtained by finding, for each  $h$ , the maximum of  $cx$  over  $P^{(h)}$ . Standard linear programming results (with the assumption that  $A$  is of rank  $n$ ) imply that there is  $I$  (consisting of  $n$  rows),  $h$  such that  $cx_{I,h} = M = \max\{cx|x \in F_{I,h}\}$ . For any  $j$ ,  $\max\{cx|x \in P^{(j)}\} \leq \max\{cx|x \in F_{I,j}\} = cx_{I,j}$ . Since  $y \in T$ , there is  $\lambda$  with  $Ay \geq \sum \lambda_j b^{(j)}$ . For those  $\lambda_j > 0$ , let  $y^{(j)}$  be the solution to:

$$(Ay^{(j)})_i = b_i^{(j)} + \frac{1}{\lambda_j} \left( Ay - \sum_{j=1}^t \lambda_j b^{(j)} \right)_i \quad \text{for all } i \in I$$

By considering  $(Ay)_i$ , it can be shown that  $y = \sum \lambda_j y^{(j)}$ . Since  $cy > M$ ,  $cy^{(j)} > M$  for some  $j$ . Since  $y^{(j)} \in F_{I,j}$ ,  $cx_{I,j} > M$ . Q. E. D.

Thus the nonexistence of  $c, I, h, j$  satisfying (i)–(iii) is a sufficient condition for  $Q = T$ . It is not necessary in some special cases.

**Example 4.** We let  $n = t = 2$ ,  $m = 3$  and take

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad b^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is easy to see that  $Q = T = P^{(1)} = P^{(2)}$ , but if  $I$  is the second and third rows of  $A$ ,  $x_{I,1} = (4, 4)$ ,  $x_{I,2} = (3, 4)$  can be used to satisfy conditions (i)–(iii) of Theorem 3. To avoid this type of pathology we make a nondegeneracy assumption.

**THEOREM 4.** *Assume that, whenever  $x_{I,h}, x_{J,h}$  are both defined, that they are equal only if  $I = J$ . Then the existence of  $I, c, h, j$  satisfying (i)–(iii) of Theorem 3 implies  $Q \neq T$ .*

**PROOF:** Our assumption implies that the system  $Ax_{I,h} \geq b^{(h)}$  has all rows other than those corresponding to  $I$  as strict inequalities. This implies that the solution to the system

$$(Ax)_i = \left( (1 - \epsilon)b^{(h)} + \epsilon b^{(j)} \right)_i \quad \text{for all } i \in I$$

will be a member of  $T$  for small positive  $\epsilon$ . But such solutions will have  $cx > M$ , hence not be members of  $Q$ . Q. E. D.

**THEOREM 5.** *The problem of deciding whether  $Q = T$  is NP-Hard.*

**PROOF:** Given natural numbers  $n_i, N$  we construct  $A, b^{(h)}$  so that  $Q \neq T$  if and only if there is some subset of the  $n_i$  which adds up to exactly  $N$  (this is the knapsack problem,

which is NP-Hard). Our problem will have  $t = 2$  and one  $x_i$  for each  $n_i$ . The inequalities defining  $P^{(1)}$ ,  $P^{(2)}$  are:

$$\begin{array}{ll} -\sum n_i x_i \geq -N & -\sum n_i x_i \geq -N + \epsilon \\ -x_i \geq -1 + \epsilon^2 & -x_i \geq -1 - \epsilon \\ x_i \geq 0 & x_i \geq 0 \end{array}$$

where  $\epsilon > 0$  is chosen so that  $\epsilon(1 + \sum n_i) < 1$ .

If there is no subset  $S$  which adds up to exactly  $N$  then for any  $S$

$$\sum_{i \in S} n_i (1 - \epsilon^2) \leq N \text{ iff } \sum_{i \in S} n_i \leq N - 1 \text{ iff } \sum_{i \in S} n_i (1 + \epsilon) \leq (N - 1) + (1 - \epsilon)$$

Thus the extreme points of  $P^{(1)}$ ,  $P^{(2)}$  are the same and Theorem 2 implies that  $Q = T$ .

If there is  $S$  whose members add up to  $N$ , then by letting  $\lambda = (1 - .5\epsilon, .5\epsilon)$ , we can show that  $y \in T$ , where  $y_i = 1 - .5\epsilon^2$  for all  $i \in S$ , all other components 0. Since

$$\sum_{i \in S} n_i x_i \leq (1 - \epsilon^2)N \text{ for } x \in P^{(1)}, \sum_{i \in S} n_i x_i \leq N - \epsilon \text{ for } x \in P^{(2)}, \sum_{i \in S} n_i y_i = (1 - .5\epsilon^2)N$$

$y \notin Q$ , hence  $Q \neq T$ .

Q. E. D.

### References

1. R. Jeroslow, "A simplification for some disjunctive formulations," *European Journal of Operations Research*, to appear.







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