COMPUTING KARMARKAR'S PROJECTIONS QUICKLY USING MATRIX FACTORIZATION

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Abstract

In this paper we compute Karmarkar's projections quickly using Moore-Penrose g-inverse and matrix factorization. So computation work of $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ is decreased.

Keywords: Linear Programming, Karmarkar's Algorithm, Karmarkar's Projection, Moore-Penrose G-inverse, Matrix Factorization.

1 Introduction

In 1984, Karmarkar [1] proposed a new polynomial time algorithm for linear programming based on repeated projective transformation. This algorithm creates a series of interior points converging to the optimal solution. His work has sparked tremendous interest and inspired other to modify his algorithm or to investigate similar methods for linear programming. A lot of variations of Karmarkar's algorithm have been made.

In all variations of Karmarkar's algorithm, the major work is repeated computation of $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ or solution of system of linear equations

$$A^T D^2 A y = b.$$

Since D changes at each iteration. To decrease computation work of Karmarkar's algorithm computing $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ quickly is needed. Many papers do their best to compute $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ quickly

using rank-one update, approximate scaling matrix, updated Cholesky factorization and so on [1] [2] [3] [4]. [5] [6] have given efficient solution for block-angular linear programming, especially for two-stage stochastic linear programming.

In this paper we decrease the work of computing $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ using Moore-Penrose g-inverse and matrix factorization.

In section 2, we review some characters of the Moore-Prenrose g-inverse. Karmarkar's algorithm is formulated in section 3. In section 4, we give method for computation of $(A^TD^2A)^{-1}$ using Moore-Penrose g-inverse and matrix factorization. The complexity of the algorithm is analysed in section 6.

2 Moore-Penrose g-inverse

In this section, we review some characters of the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse (g-inverse) [7] [8] which are useful in following sections.

We consider real $m \times n$ matrix A. Let A^+ be the Moore-Penrose g-inverse of A.

Character 1 a) $A^+AA^T = A^TAA^+ = A^T$.

b)
$$AA^{T}(A^{T})^{+} = (A^{T})^{+}A^{T}A = A$$
.

c)
$$(A^T A)^+ = A^+ (A^T)^+$$
.

d)
$$(AA^T)^+ = (A^T)^+A^+$$
.

Character 2 a) If rank(A) = n, then

$$A^+ = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T.$$

b) If rank(A) = m, then

$$A^+ = A^T (AA^T)^{-1}.$$

Character 3 Let A = BC, where A, B and C be $m \times n$, $m \times r$ and $r \times n$ matrices respectively, and

$$rank(A) = rank(B) = rank(C) = r$$
, then

$$A^+ = C^+ B^+.$$

3 Karmarkar's algorithm

For the purpose of discussion, we consider linear programming problem without generality

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\max & c^T x \\
\text{s.t.} & Ax \le b
\end{array} \tag{1}$$

where c and x are n-vectors, b is an m-vector and A is a full rank $m \times n$ matrix, where $m \ge n$ and $c \ne 0$. Problem (1) has an interior feasible solution x° .

We focus on a variation of Karmarkar's algorithm which is generally called the dual affine scaling method [2].

Algorithm 1 $(A,b,c,x^{\circ},stopping\ criterion,0<\gamma<1)$

- 1. k=0.
- 2. stop if optimality criterion is satisfied.
- 3. $\nu^k = b Ax^k$.

4.
$$D^k = diag\{1/\nu_1^k, \dots, 1/\nu_m^k\}.$$

5.
$$h_x = (A^T (D^k)^2 A)^{-1} c$$
.

6.
$$h_{\nu} = -Ah_{x}$$

7.
$$\alpha = \gamma \times \min\{-\nu_i^k/(h_{\nu})_i | (h_{\nu})_i < 0, i = 1, ..., m\}.$$

8.
$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha h_x.$$

9.
$$k = k + 1$$
, goto 2.

The major computation work of the algorithm is computing $(A^T(D^k)^2A)^{-1}$. Since D^k is $m \times m$ full rank diagonal matrix, then $rank(D^kA) = n$, and

$$(D^{k}A)^{+} = ((D^{k}A)^{T}D^{k}A)^{-1}(D^{k}A)^{T},$$

$$(D^{k}A)^{+}((D^{k}A)^{+})^{T} = (A^{T}(D^{k})^{2}A)^{-1}(D^{k}A)^{T}D^{k}A(((D^{k}A)^{T}D^{k}A)^{T})^{-1}$$

$$= (A^{T}(D^{k})^{2}A)^{-1}.$$

Thus step 5 of algorithm 1 can be written as

$$h_x = (D^k A)^+ ((D^k A)^+)^T c.$$

In following section we will discuss computing $(D^kA)^+$ quickly. For simplicity, we write D^k as D. In general we let $rank(A) = r \le n$.

4 Matrix factorization

Proposition 1 Let D be a full rank diagonal matrix, A be a $m \times n$ matrix, and A = BC, where B is a full rank $m \times r$ matrix, C is a full rank $r \times n$ matrix, then

$$(DA)^+ = C^+(DB)^+$$

= $C^T(CC^T)^{-1}(B^TD^2B)^{-1}B^TD$.

proof. Since D is a full rank square matrix, so rank(DA) = r and rank(B) = r. According Character 3 and Character 2, We get needed result. This completes the proof of the proposition.

Using Gauss elimination method, we factorize A into A = LU, where L is a $m \times r$ unit lower trapezoidal matrix, U is a $r \times n$ full rank upper trapezoidal matrix. Thus

$$(DA)^+ = U^T(UU^T)^{-1}(L^TD^2L)^{-1}L^TD.$$

 $(UU^T)^{-1}$ does not change at each iteration. If $r=n,\,U$ is full rank upper triangular matrix, we have

$$(DA)^+ = V^{-1}(L^T D^2 L)^{-1} L^T D.$$

So major work of computing $(DA)^+$ is the computation of $(L^TD^2L)^{-1}$.

We partition L into

$$L = \left(\begin{array}{c} L_1 \\ L_2 \end{array}\right)$$

where L_1 is a $r \times r$ unit lower triangular matrix, L_2 is a $(m-r) \times r$ matrix. Correspondingly we partition D into

$$D = \left(\begin{array}{cc} D_1 & 0 \\ 0 & D_2 \end{array}\right)$$

where D_1 is $r \times r$ full rank diagonal matrix, D_2 is $(m-r) \times (m-r)$ diagonal matrix. Thus

$$L^{T}D^{2}L = \left(L_{1}^{T}D_{1}, L_{2}^{T}D_{2}\right) \begin{pmatrix} D_{1}L_{1} \\ D_{2}L_{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= L_{1}^{T}D_{1}^{2}L_{1} + L_{2}^{T}D_{2}^{2}L_{2}$$

$$= L_{1}^{T}D_{1}^{2}L_{1} + \sum_{i=1}^{m-r} d_{r+i}^{2}l_{i}l_{i}^{T}, \qquad (2)$$

where

$$D_2 = \text{diag } \{d_{r+1}, \dots, d_m\},$$
 $L_2^T = (l_1, \dots, l_{m-n}).$

 $L_1^T D_1^2 L_1$ is already Cholesky factorization form. A Cholesky factorization of $L^T D L$ can be computed using a series of rank-one updates by (2).

To compute a Cholesky factorization of L^TDL , m-r rank-one updates are needed. But m rank-one updates have to be done to compute a Cholesky factorization of A^TD^2A in general Karmarkar's algorithm [3]. So computation work is decreased. As in [3], rank-one update can be done by Fletcher and Powell [9].

5 Complexity of algorithm

Proposition 2 If computation of $(A^T(D^k)^2A)^{-1}$ is done by LU factorization, then Algorithm 1 solves Problem (1) in no more than

$$mn^2 + O(m^{2.5}(m-n)R)$$

arithmetic operations, where R is a measure of the problem's size.

proof. The major operation work of the algorithm is:

LU factorization needs

$$mn^2 - (m+n)n^2/2 + n^3/3 = O(mn^2)$$

arithmetic operations [11].

Algorithm 1 finds an optimal solution to problem (1) in $O(\sqrt{n}R)$ iterations [12] [13].

(m-n) rank-one updates need $O(m^2(m-n)R)$ arithmetic operations.

So algorithm 1 solves problem (1) at most $mn^2 + O(n^{2.5}(m-n)R)$ arithmetic operations. This completes the proof of the proposition.

In general, R is very large. So

$$O(m^3R) >> m^2n + O(m^2(m-n)R),$$

especially, when m-n is small.

Using approximation x^k , ν^k , the complexity of algorithm 1 can be reduced [12] [13].

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