

subfaculteit der econometrie

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AN ALGORITHM FOR THE LINEAR COMPLEMENTARITY PROBLEM WITH UPPER AND LOWER BOUNDS G. VAN DER LAAN¹⁾ AND A.J.J. TALMAN²⁾ DECEMBER 1985

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This research is part of the VF-program "Equilibrium and Disequilibrium in Demand and Supply", which has been approved by the Netherlands Ministry of Education. AN ALGORITHM FOR THE LINEAR COMPLEMENTARITY PROBLEM WITH UPPER AND LOWER BOUNDS

by

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Abstract.

In this paper the so-called octahedral algorithm for solving systems of nonlinear equations is adapted to solve the linear complementarity problem with upper and lower bounds. The proposed algorithm generates a piecewise linear path from an arbitrarily chosen point z^0 to a solution point. This path is followed by linear programming pivot steps in a system of n linear equations where n is the size of the problem. The starting point z^0 is left in the direction of one of the 2^n vertices of the feasible region, depending on the sign pattern of the function value at z^0 . The sign pattern of the linear function and the location of the points in comparison with z^0 completely govern the path of the algorithm. We show that, at least for n=2, the proposed algorithm performs in general better than the generalized Lemke's algorithm. An algorithm for the linear complementarity problem with upper and lower bounds.

1. Introduction.

The Linear Complementarity Problem (LCP) consists in finding two vectors s and z in R^n such that for given n×n matrix M and n-vector q

(i) s = Mz+q(ii) $s,z \ge 0$ (iii) $s^{T}z = 0$.

The LCP is an important problem in mathematical programming (see e.g. Garcia and Gould [2]). Lemke [6] first presented a solution for this problem. Lemke's algorithm is inftialized at z=0 and traces from this point a piecewise linear path of points until a solution is obtained or a ray is encountered. Talman and Van der Heyden [9] proposed an algorithm which allows for an arbitrary starting point in the non-negative orthant. When taking the starting point in the interior of this orthant there are 2n different directions to leave this point. Along which direction the starting point is left depends on the component of s having the largest absolute value. In case z=0 is chosen to be the starting point the algorithm reduces to Lemke's algorithm.

The feature of allowing arbitrarily chosen starting points has obvious practical merit in such applications as parametric studies or solving a nonlinear complementarity problem through a sequence of approximating LCP's (see e.g. [4] and [7]). In Everts [1] the algorithm of Talman and Van der Heyden was generalized in order to solve the LCP with upper and lower bounds. This Generalized Linear Complementarity Problem (GLCP) consists of finding vectors s and z in \mathbb{R}^n such that for given matrix M, n-vector q and n-vectors a and b with $a_i < b_i$, $j=1,\ldots,n$,

(i)
$$s = Mz+q$$

(ii) $a \le z \le b$
(iii) $z_j = a_j \rightarrow s_j \le 0$
 $a_j < z_j < b_j \rightarrow s_j = 0$ $j=1,\ldots,n$
 $z_j = b_j \rightarrow s_j \ge 0$.

When the path of the algorithm hits a boundary face of the feasible region

 $\mathbf{C}^{n} = \{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{R}^{n} | \mathbf{a} \leq \mathbf{z} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$

the algorithm continues by tracing a path in this face. To each a solution point in a k-face of C^n , $1 \le k \le n$, from an interior point of C^n , the algorithm needs at least 2n-k (pivot) steps and 2n-1 if k=0, i.e. when one of the vertices of C^n is found as a solution point.

In this paper we propose a pivoting algorithm having 2ⁿ rays, each of them leading to a vertex of C. The ray along which the algorithm leaves the starting point depends on the sign pattern of the s-value at this point. More generally, the piecewise linear path of the algorithm is determined by the sign pattern of s=Mz+q and the location of z with respect to the starting point. The algorithm is such that a solution point is found as soon as the path of the algorithm hits a face of Cⁿ not containing the starting point. From this we can conclude that if on the starting ray the sign pattern of s does not change the corresponding vertex of C^{II} solves the GLCP and is found in just one step. In general, if $0 \le k \le n-1$, a solution on a k-face of C^n could be found in k+1 pivot steps, which is considerably less than for the algorithm with 2n rays when k is small with respect to n. This motivates the presentation of the new algorithm. We notice that the algorithm with 2n rays is an adaption of the so-called cubical algorithm for solving a system of nonlinear equations presented in [5], see also [8]. The new algorithm with 2ⁿ rays is a similar adaption of the octahedral algorithm introduced in Wright [10].

The paper is organized as follows. In section 2 a detailed description of the piecewise linear path followed by the algorithm is given. The steps of the algorithm are presented in section 3. Finally, in section 4 the algorithm is compared with the generalized Lemke's algorithm. Furthermore we present an adaption of the algorithm to solve the classical LCP. 2. Movements of the algorithm.

We consider points (s,z) in $\mathbb{R}^{n} \times \tilde{C}^{n}$ satisfying

$$s = Mz + q$$
 (2.1)

where $C^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | a_i \leq z_i \leq b_i, i=1,...,n\}$ with $-\infty < a_i < b_i < \infty$ for all i. The case that some of the numbers b_i (a_i) are infinite (minus infinite) is discussed in section 4. Starting at an arbitrary point z^0 , the algorithm adjusts z by increasing z_i if $s_i > 0$ (and $z_i^0 < b_i$) and by decreasing z_i if $s_i < 0$ (and $z_i^0 > a_i$). More precisely, for each sign vector t in $\{-1,+1\}^n$ a direction $d(t)=v(t)-z^0$ is defined with v(t) the vertex of C^n given by $v_i(t)=b_i$ if $t_i=+1$ and $v_i(t)=a_i$ if $t_i=-1$. Assuming that $s_i^0 \neq 0$ for all i, the algorithm leaves z^0 in the direction $d(t^0)$ towards the vertex $v(t^0)$ of C^n with $t^0=\operatorname{sgn} s^0$. So, the direction in which z^0 is left is the direction associated with sgn (s^0) . The algorithm leaves this ray as soon as s_i becomes equal to zero for some i, say at the point \overline{z} . So for each point z between z^0 and \overline{z} we have that $t = \operatorname{sgn} s = t^0$. Since z lies between \overline{z} and z^0 , there is a λ , $0 < \lambda \leq 1$ such that

$$z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0})$$
 for all j with $t_{j} = +1$
$$z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0})$$
 for all j with $t_{j} = -1$.

The algorithm maintains this property between z_j and t_j as long as $t_j \neq 0$. However, when s_j becomes equal to zero and the associated point z does not solve the problem, then the algorithm continues by decreasing z_j away from $z_j^{0} + \lambda (b_j - z_j^{0})$ if t_j was +1 and increasing z_j away from $z_j^{0} + \lambda (a_j - z_j^{0})$ if t_j was +1 and increasing z_j away from $z_j^{0} + \lambda (a_j - z_j^{0})$ if t_j was -1, while s_j is kept equal to zero. In general, the algorithm generates a path of points z such that for some λ , $0 < \lambda \leq 1$,

$$z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \quad \text{for all } j \text{ with } t_{j} = +1$$

$$z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \quad \text{for all } j \text{ with } t_{j} = -1 \qquad (2.2)$$

$$z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \leq z_{j} \leq z_{j}^{0} + \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \quad \text{for all } j \text{ with } t_{j} = 0$$

where t = sgn s. These complementarity properties between z and s govern the algorithm and define a piecewise linear path of points in c^n connecting z^0 with a solution to the problem. A solution point is reached as soon as $t_j=0$ for all j with $z_j \neq z_j^0$ or $\lambda=1$. In the first case we have that $s_j=0$ if $z_j \neq z_j^0$ while (2.2) implies that $z_j=z_j^0$ iff either $z_j^0=b_j$ and $t_j=+1$ or $z_j=a_j$ and $t_j=-1$. If $\lambda=1$ then $z_j=b_j$ if $t_j=+1$, $z_j=a_j$ if $t_j=-1$ and $t_j=0$ if $a_j < z_j < b_j$. In particular we may have that s does not change along the ray $d(t^0)$ when leaving z^0 . Then λ becomes 1 at $z=v(t^0)$ and $v(t^0)$ is a solution point. In such a case a solution is found in just one step.

We will prove now that the points (s,z) in $R^n \times C^n$ satisfying (2.2) indeed induce a sequence of adjacent line segments in C^n connecting z^0 and a solution point. Let T be the set of sign vectors in R^n , i.e.

$$T = \{t \in \mathbb{R}^{n} | t_{i} \in \{-1, 0, +1\}, i=1, ..., n\}.$$

Furthermore, let z^0 be an arbitrary point in C^n which will be the starting point of the algorithm. Then for $t \in T$ we define the convex polyhedral set A(t) by

$$A(t) = \emptyset \quad \text{if } z_i^0 = b_i \quad \text{for all i with } t_i = +1 \text{ and}$$
$$z_i^0 = a_i \quad \text{for all i with } t_i = -1,$$

and, otherwise

$$A(t) = \{z \in C^{n} | z_{j} = \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) + z_{j}^{0} \text{ if } t_{j} = +1 \\ z_{j} = \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) + z_{j}^{0} \text{ if } t_{j} = -1 \\ \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \leq z_{j} - z_{j}^{0} \leq \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \text{ if } t_{j} = 0 \\ \text{with } 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1 \}.$$
(2.3)

For teT, let $I^{(t)} = \{i \in I_n | t_i = -1\}, I^{(t)} = \{i \in I_n | t_i = 0\}$ and let $I^{(t)} = \{i \in I_n | t_i = +1\}.$ Then dim A(t) = $|I^{(t)}(t)| + 1$ if A(t) is nonempty. If $t \in \{-1,1\}^n$ then dim A(t)=1(unless $z^0 = v(t)$) and A(t) is the line segment connecting z^0 with v(t), i.e. A(t) is the ray along which the direction $d(t) = v(t) - z^0$ points at z^0 . So, if z^0 is not a vertex of C^n , there are 2^n directions along one of which z^0 is left. When z^0 is a vertex of C^n , there are 2^{n-1} directions. The algorithm leaves z^0 along the ray A(t^0) for which $t^0 = \text{sgn} (s^0)$. Observe that z^0 solves the problem if $z^0 = v(t^0)$. In general, the algorithm generates points z in C^n such that for some t in T both z lies in A(t) and t=sgn s. For $t \in T$, let C(t) be defined by

 $C(t) = Cl\{z \in C^n | sgn(Mz+q) = t\}$

and let $B(t) = C(t) \cap A(t)$. A point z satisfies (2.2) if and only if z lies in B(t) for some $t \in T$. We now introduce basic and nonbasic variables. Notice that z lies in B(sgn s).

Definition 2.1. For some $z_{\epsilon}C^n$, $z \neq z^0$, let $A(\bar{t})$ be the smallest set A(t) containing z in its interior. Then the variable z_j , $j \in I_n$ is said to be nonbasic if $\bar{t}_j \neq 0$. With s=Mz+q, the variable s_j is said to be nonbasic if $s_j=0$. Furthermore, let λ be defined as in 2.2 with $t=\bar{t}$. Then λ is said to be nonbasic if $\lambda=1$. Finally, for $z=z^0$, λ is defined to be equal to zero and all variables z_j , $j \in I_n$ and λ are said to be nonbasic. When not nonbasic, a variable is said to be basic.

Definition 2.2. A pair (s,z) is called complementary if for each $j \in I_n$, either or both z_j and s_j are nonbasic.

Nondegeneracy assumption 2.1. For each z in B(t), t ϵ T, holds that among the 2n+1 variables (z,s, λ) with s=Mz+q and λ as defined in (2.2)(λ =0 if $z=z^{0}$) at most n+1 variables are nonbasic.

This assumption does not cause a loss of generality, since if degeneracy occurs a slight perturbation of the data (M,q) will restore the assumption.

By definition, the pair (s^0, z^0) is complementary because at z^0 all variables z_j are defined to be nonbasic. Since also λ is nonbasic at z^0 assumption 2.1 implies that $s_j^{\downarrow} \neq 0$ for all j. Hence, z^0 lies in $B(t^{0})$, t^{0} = sgn s⁰ and in no other set B(t), $t \neq t^{0}$. The set $B(t^{0})$ is obtained by increasing λ from 0 at z^0 . Doing so a line segment of points z in $A(t^{U})$ is generated while complementarity between z and s is maintained. This movement is pursued until one -and just one, because of assumption 2.1- basic variable becomes nonbasic. At such a point z either λ becomes equal to one or $s_i = 0$ for just one $j \in I_n$. In the first case a solution has been reached, as has been shown before. In the latter case the corresponding variable z, becomes basic and the algorithm moves into the associated region A(t), t = sgn s, tracing a line segment of points z sign-complementary to t. Clearly this line segment is B(t). Under assumption 2.1 each nonempty B(t) is a line segment in A(t) having two endpoints. We now want to show that an endpoint of a line segment B(t) is either z^0 , or a solution point, or an endpoint of a line segment B(t') with t' differing from t in just one component. An endpoint is characterized by the fact that n+1 variables are nonbasic. More precisely, at an endpoint z of B(t) either λ is equal to 0 or 1 and for all j either z_i or s_j is nonbasic, or λ is basic and for exactly one index h both z_h and s_h are nonbasic. If λ is equal to 0 then $z=z^0$ and z is an endpoint of the unique line segment $B(t^0)$ with $t^0 = sgn(Mz^0+q)$.

In the following lemmas we consider the endpoints of line segments in case λ is not equal to 0.

Lemma 2.1. Let z be an endpoint of a line segment B(t). If λ is equal to 1, then z is a solution point.

Proof. Since $z \in A(t)$ and $\lambda = 1$ we have that

$$z_{j} = b_{j} \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = +1$$
$$z_{j} = a_{j} \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = -1$$
$$a_{j} \le z_{j} \le b_{j} \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = 0$$

and

Moreover, t=sgn(Mz+q) since z also lies in C(t) and because of assumption 2.1. Hence z is a solution point.

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In the next lemma, let $z^b\,(z^a)$ be the set of indices j for which $z^0_{\ j}{=}b_{\ j}\,\,(z^0_{\ j}{=}a_{\ j})$.

Lemma 2.2. Let z be an endpoint of a line segment B(t) and let s=Mz+q. If at the point z, s_h becomes nonbasic, then z is a solution point if $I^+(t) \setminus \{h\} \subset z^b$ and $I^-(t) \setminus \{h\} \subset z^a$.

<u>Proof</u>. The conditions of the lemma imply that $z_j^0 = b_j$ for all $j \in I^+(t)$ and $z_j^0 = a_j$ for all $j \in I^-(t)$, $j \neq h$. Furthermore $t_j = sgn s_j$ for all $j \neq h$ and $s_h^0 = 0$. Therefore $j \in I^+(t)$ implies $s_j > 0$ and $z_j = \lambda (b_j - z_j^0) + z_j^0 = b_j$, and $j \in I^-(t)$ implies $s_j < 0$ and $z_j = \lambda (a_j - z_j^0) + z_j^0 = a_j$. Moreover, for all other indices j we have $s_j = 0$ and $a_j \le z_j \le b_j$.

Lemma 2.3. Let z be an endpoint of a line segment B(t) and let s=Mz+q. If at z, s_h becomes nonbasic and I⁺(t) \{h} contains at least one index j, j≠h, not in z^b or I⁻(t) \{h} contains at least one index j, j≠h, not in z^a , then z is also an endpoint of B(t') with t_h'=0 and t_i'=t_i for all j≠h.

Proof. The conditions of the lemma imply that there is an index j, $j \neq h$, with $t_j'=+1$ and $z_j^{0} < b_j$ or an index k, $k \neq h$, with $t_k'=-1$ and $z_k^{0} > a_k$. Hence A(t') is not empty. Moreover, since $t_j'=t_j$, $j \neq h$, $t_h'=0$ and $t_h \in \{-1,1\}$, A(t') contains A(t) as a boundary facet and therefore z is in the boundary of A(t'). Finally, since t_j =sgn s_j , $j \neq h$, and $s_h=0$ we have that t'=sgn s. Consequently z lies in C(t') and is an endpoint of B(t').

Lemma 2.4. Let z be an endpoint of a line segment B(t) and let s=Mz+q. If at z, z_h becomes nonbasic then z is also an endpoint of B(t') with $t_j'=t_j$, $j\neq h$ and t_h' equal to either +1 or -1.

<u>Proof.</u> At z the variable z_h becomes nonbasic, i.e. for the λ defined in (2.2) holds

$$\lambda (a_h - z_h^0) \leq z_h - z_h^0 \leq \lambda (b_h - z_h^0)$$

with just one equality. If $z_h = z_h^{0+\lambda}(a_h - z_h^{0})$ then $z_{\epsilon}A(t')$ with $t_h' = -1$ and $t_j' = t_j$, $j \neq h$. On the other hand, if $z_h = z_h^{0+\lambda}(b_h - z_h^{0})$ then z lies in A(t') with $t_h' = +1$ and $t_j' = t_j$ for all $j \neq h$. Finally, since t=sgn s while $s_h = 0$ we have that $z \in Cl\{\overline{z} \mid \text{sgn } \overline{s} = t'\} = C(t')$. Hence z is an endpoint of B(t').

The lemma's 2.3 and 2.4 say that if \overline{z} is an endpoint of the line segment B(t) and \overline{z} is not a solution point, then \overline{z} is an endpoint of the line segment B(t'). The nondegeneracy assumption guarantees that at \overline{z} just one basic variable becomes nonbasic. This implies that t' is uniquely determined. So, linking the line segments B(t) for various t ϵT together, the set B = U B(t) contains a piecewise linear path having the starting $t \epsilon T$ point z^0 as an endpoint. Since T consists of a finite number of elements t and since each B(t) is either empty or a single line segment, the path in B originating at z^0 consists of a finite number of linear pieces and ends at a solution point \overline{z} . This path is generated by the algorithm and can be followed by a sequence of linear programming steps in a system of n linear equations.

3. Performance of the algorithm.

We consider now a point z on the path traced by the algorithm. For such a point we have that $z \in A(t) \cap C(t)$ for some sign vector $t \in T$. So, with t = sgn s = sgn Mz+q we have that

$$z_{j} = \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) + z_{j}^{0} \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = +1$$

$$z_{j} = \lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) + z_{j}^{0} \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = -1$$

$$\lambda (a_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \le z_{j} - z_{j}^{0} \le \lambda (b_{j} - z_{j}^{0}) \qquad \text{if } t_{j} = 0$$

with $0 \le \lambda \le 1$. Let t' $\in \{-1, 1\}^n$ be a sign vector such that t'=t_i if t_i \neq 0. Then we can rewrite z as

$$z = (1-\lambda) z^{0} + \lambda v(t') - \Sigma \int_{h \in I^{0}(t)} \delta_{h} t_{h}^{\prime e}(h)$$
(3.1)

for certain δ_h , $0{\le}\delta_h{\le}\lambda\,(b_h{-}a_h)$, where e(h) is the h-th unit vector, h=1,...,n. From (3.1) we obtain

$$s = Mz+q = (1-\lambda)Mz^{0} + \lambda Mv(t') - \Sigma \delta_{h}t_{h}^{\dagger}Me(h) + q.$$
(3.2)
$$h \in I^{0}(t)$$

With $Mz^{0}+q=q^{0}$ and $Me(h)=M_{h}$ this reduces to

$$s+\lambda M[z^{0}-v(t')] + \sum_{h \in I^{0}(t)} \delta_{h} t'M_{h} = q^{0}.$$
(3.3)

Since t=sgn s, s is equal to Σ $\mu_h t_h e(h)$ with $\mu_h = t_h s_h \ge 0$. All together we obtain that $z \in A(t) \cap C(t)$ if and only if

$$\lambda M[z^{0}-v(t')] + \delta_{h} t'M_{h} + \Sigma \mu_{h} te(h) = q^{0}$$

$$h \in I^{0}(t) \qquad h \notin I^{0}(t)$$
(3.4)

for certain $0 \le \lambda \le 1$, $0 \le \delta_h \le \lambda (b_h - a_h)$ and $\mu_h \ge 0$. It will follow that t' is generated uniquely by the algorithm. The nondegeneracy assumption implies that any solution to the system (3.4) of n linear equations has at most one of the n+1 variables $(\lambda, \delta_h, \mu_h)$ equal to its upper or lower bound. Hence, the linear path of points B(t), $t \in T$, can be followed by making a linear programming pivot step in the system (3.4). The performance of the algorithm to follow the piecewise linear path from z^0 to a solution of (2.1) can therefore be described in the next procedure, where z^0 is the initial point and $s^0 = Mz^0 + q$.

<u>Step 0 (Initialisation</u>). Set $t'=t=t^{0}=sgn (Mz^{0}+q)$. If $z^{0}=v(t^{0})$ then (s^{0}, z^{0}) solves the problem. Otherwise, set $I^{0}(t)=I^{0}(t^{0})=\emptyset$ and make a l.p. pivot step with the vector $M[z^{0}-v(t^{0})]$ into the system

$$\sum_{\substack{h \neq I \\ h \neq I}} \mu_h t_h e(h) = Mz^0 + q = q^0.$$

If μ_i becomes zero for some i, goto step 1. Otherwise the variable λ associated to $M[z^0 - v(t^0)]$ becomes equal to 1 and the vertex $v(t^0)$ is a solution point (lemma 2.1).

Step 1. (lemma 2.3.). Set $t_i = 0$, $K^0(t) = I^0(t) \cup \{i\}$ and make a l.p. pivot step with t_i^M , into the system

$$\lambda M[z^{O} - v(t')] + \sum_{h \in I^{O}(t)} \delta_{h} t_{h}^{*} h_{h} + \sum_{h \notin K^{O}(t)} \mu_{h} t_{h} e(h) = q^{O},$$

If λ becomes equal to 1, a solution is found (lemma 2.1.). Otherwise goto step 2.

<u>Step 2</u>. Set $I^{0}(t) = K^{0}(t)$. If δ_{i} becomes 0 for some $i \in K^{0}(t)$ goto step 3. If δ_{i} becomes $\lambda(b_{i}-a_{i})$ for some $i \in K^{0}(t)$, set t'_{i} equal to $-t'_{i}$, adapt the column $M[z^{0}-v(t')]$ accordingly and make δ_{i} equal to 0 and goto step 3. If μ_{i} becomes 0 for some $i \notin K^{0}(t)$ and if for all other $h \notin K^{0}(t)$, $z_{h}^{0} = b_{h}$ if $t_{h} = +1$ and $z_{h}^{0} = a_{h}$ if $t_{h} = -1$, then a solution is found (lemma 2.2). Otherwise, return to step 1.

Step 3. (lemma 2.4.). Set $t_i = t'_i$, $K^0(t) = I^0(t) \setminus \{i\}$ and make a l.p. pivot step with $t_i = (i)$ in

$$\lambda M[z^{0}-v(t')] + \sum_{h \in K^{0}(t)} \delta_{h} t'M_{h} + \sum_{h \notin I^{0}(t)} \mu_{h} t_{h} e(h) = q^{0}.$$

If λ becomes equal to 1, a solution is found (lemma 2.1). Otherwise goto step 2.

4. Some examples.

In this section we compare the 2n-ray or cubical algorithm initiated by Talman and Van der Heyden with the 2ⁿ-ray or octahedral algorithm described in this paper. Remember that the cubical algorithm reduces to Lemkes algorithm when $z^0=0$ (and there are no upper bounds). If the solution point is on the interior of Cⁿ both algorithms may solve the problem in n pivot steps (best cases). However, if a vertex of Cⁿ is found as a solution point, the octahedral algorithm may solve the problem in only one step, while the cubical algorithm needs at least 2n-1 l.p. pivot steps. This difference is shown in the next example for n=2. In Talman and Van der Heyden a measure $t_0(z)$ is defined, called the "leading infeasibility". With some adaptions and for z^0 being an interior point, this measure is defined by $t_0(z) = \max(\max\{s_j^+(z) | z_j < b_j\}, \max\{s_j^-(z) | z_j > a_j\})$. A point \overline{z} is a solution if and only if $t_0(\overline{z}) \neq 0$. Now consider figure 1 in which the sign structure of problem 1 is given. The problem has three solution points namely the vertex $v = v((-1,+1)^T)$ and the points x^* and x^1 . The starting



Figure 1.

point is z^0 in which $-s_1^0 > s_2^0 > 0$ where $s^0 = Mz^0 + q$. Clearly $t_0(z^0) = -s_1^0$ and the cubical algorithm decreases z_1 by making a l.p. pivot step, until the point a is reached. For all points z on the line segment $[z^0, a)$, $t_0(z) = -s_1$. However, at the point a we have $t_0(a) = s_2(a)$, causing a discontinuity in t_0 . To overcome this, an additional l.p. pivot step is made at a to decrease t_0 from $-s_1(a)$ to $s_2(a)$. After this z_2 is increased until the solution point v is reached, at which point t_0 is decreased from s_2 to 0 by making another l.p. pivot step. Since the last step is redundant, the algorithm needs 2n-1=3 l.p. steps. On the other hand, the octahedral algorithm reaches the solution point v in just one l.p. step, because the sign pattern does not change on the line segment between z^0 and this vertex. In figure 2 the solution points are x^* , x^1 and x^2 . Now the cubical algorithm goes from z^0 to the point a, then makes a l.p. step to decrease t_0 from $-s_1(a)$ to $s_2(a)$ and finally goes from a to x^2 , so that again 3 l.p. steps are needed to find a solution. The octahedral algorithm goes from z^0 to b and follows then the line $s_2=0$ until x^2 is



reached, implying that 2 steps are needed. In figure 3 both algorithms find the unique solution point x^* in just two steps. At z^0 we have that $s_1^0 > s_2^0 > 0$. The cubical algorithm follows the path $z_{\rightarrow a \rightarrow x}^0 x^*$, and the octahedral algorithm follows the path $z_{\rightarrow b \rightarrow x}^0 x^*$.



Figure 3.

In general, let k be the dimension of the face of C^n containing the solution found by the algorithm in its interior. Then the minimum number of steps (best cases) to find the solution point is 2n-k for the cubical algorithm (2n-1 if k=0) and k+1 for the octahedral algorithm (n if k=n). In particular if k is small compared to n, the best case for the cubical algorithm (or generalized Lemke's algorithm) is considerably worse than the best case for the octahedral algorithm. Of course, for both algorithms the minimum number decreases if the starting point is on the boundary of C^n . For instance, if in figure 2 z^0 is chosen to be a, both algorithms need only 1 step.

We now consider the worst cases for n=2. This is done in the figures 4 and 5. In figure 4 we show the maximum number of 1.p. pivot steps to find a solution for the cubical algorithm and in figure 5 we show this number for the octahedral algorithm. The cubical algorithm traces the path z^0 , a, b, c, d, e, f, g, v, the latter point being the unique solution point. So, the algorithm initially increases z, until a is reached. Then z_2 is increased until $s_1 = s_2$. The latter line is followed as long as $z_1 > z_1^0$. As soon as $z_1 = z_1^0$, the algorithm continues by increasing z_2 until $z_2 = b_2$, then z_1 is decreased until



Figure 4: The worst case for the cubical algorithm, n=2.

 $s_1 = -s_2$. Finally this line is followed until $z_2 = z_2^0$, then z_1 is decreased until $z_1 = a_1$ and then z_2 is increased until the solution point v is reached. Including the additional l.p. steps to overcome the discontinuity of $t_0(z)$ at the points a, d and g, this takes 11 1.p. steps. We now consider the worst case for the octahedral algorithm. This is shown in figure 5. In this figure there are 3 solution points, namely x^* , x^1 and v. The algorithm traces the path z^0 , a, b, c, d, v, which takes 5 l.p. steps. At z^0 we have that $s_1^0 > 0$ and $s_2^0 < 0$, implying a search in the direction $d((+1, -1)^T)$. Then $s_2=0$ is followed until the ray $A((+1,+1)^T)$ is reached. This ray is followed until c is found where $s_1=0$. The line $s_1=0$ is followed until point d and finally $A((-1,+1)^T)$ is followed until the solution point v is found. The examples above show the superiority of the octahedral algorithm above the cubical algorithm for n=2. It is our conjecture that the differences in the number of l.p. steps will increase dramatically if the dimension of the problem growths.



Figure 5: The worst case for the octahedral algorithm, n=2. $A(+,-) \mbox{ denotes } A(t) \mbox{ with } t=(+1,-1) \mbox{ , etc.}$

The algorithm described in this paper can easily be adapted for the case that some of the a_i 's or b_i 's are not finite. For simplicity, let us consider the classical LCP where $a_i=0$ and $b_i=+\infty$ for all i. Then we redefine the sets A(t), teT, by

$$A(t) = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}_{+} | z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} + \lambda \text{ if } t_{j} = +1, \ z_{j}^{0} \le z_{j}^{0} \le z_{j}^{0} + \lambda \text{ if } t_{j} = 0,$$

and $z_{j} = z_{j}^{0} \text{ if } t_{j} = -1, \lambda \ge 0\}$

if t_i=+1 for at least one index j, by

$$A(t) = \{ z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}_{+} | z_{j} = (1-\lambda) z_{j}^{0} \text{ if } t_{j} = 0, \text{ and } z_{j} = (1-\lambda) z_{j}^{0} \text{ if } t_{j} = -1, 0 \le \lambda \le 1 \}$$

if $t \le 0$ and $t_j = -1$ for at least one index j for which $z_j^0 > 0$, and $A(t) = \emptyset$ otherwise. Again let $B(t) = A(t) \cap C(t)$ with C(t) as before, then the set $B = \bigcup_t B(t)$ contains a piecewise linear path from z^0 which can be followed by subsequent linear programming pivot steps in a system of linear equations similar to (3.4). The piecewise linear path originating at z^0 leads within a finite number of steps either to a solution point or terminates with a half-line to infinity. It can easily be shown that Evers'condition is sufficient for convergence of the algorithm if a solution exists (see Jones [3]). The case n=2 is illustrated in figure 6.



Figure 6: The sets A(t) if $C^{n}=R_{\perp}^{n}$, n=2.

In case $z^0=0$ the algorithm differs from Lemke's original algorithm. The new algorithm leaves $z^0=0$ by increasing all the z_j 's for which q_j is positive whereas Lemke's algorithm increases only the z_i for which q_i is maximal. The latter algorithm therefore can leave the starting point $z^0=0$ in n directions and the algorithm described in this paper in 2^n-1 directions. In the case that $z^0=0$ and all the b_i 's are plus infinite the worst case of the cubical algorithm needs one step less than the worst case of the octahedral algorithm (n=2). In all other cases the new algorithm performs better. References.

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