# The simplex algorithm and the Hirsch conjecture: Lecture 1 

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MADALGO \& CTIC Summer School

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## maDaLGO -_-ュ -ュ CENTER FOR MASSIVE DATA ALGORITHMICS

## Overview

- Lecture 1:
- Introduction to linear programming and the simplex algorithm.
- Pivoting rules.
- The RandomFacet pivoting rule.
- Lecture 2:
- The Hirsch conjecture.
- Introduction to Markov decision processes (MDPs).
- Upper bound for the LargestCoefficient pivoting rule for MDPs.
- Lecture 3 :
- Lower bounds for pivoting rules utilizing MDPs. Example: Bland's rule.
- Lower bound for the RandomEdge pivoting rule.
- Abstractions and related problems.


## The simplex algorithm, Dantzig (1947)



## Convex polytopes

- A convex polytope (or polyhedron) $P$ in dimension $d$ is a set of points

$$
P=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \mid A x \leq b\right\}
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where $A$ is an $n \times d$ matrix and $b$ is a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.


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- I.e., $P$ is the intersection of $n$ halfspaces $a_{i}^{T} x \leq b_{i}$, where $a_{i}^{T}$ is the $i$ 'th row of $A$.

- $P$ is bounded if there exists a constant $K$ such that for all $x \in P$, the absolute value of every component $x_{i}$ is at most $K$. Otherwise $P$ is unbounded.


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 $y \in P$, if $y \neq x$ then $c^{T} x>c^{T} y$.


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- Every basic feasible solution $x$ is a vertex of $P$.



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- If $P$ is bounded, $P$ can be equivalently defined as the convex hull of its vertices.
- A $k$-face is a $k$ dimensional polytope defined by a set of vertices that satisfy the same $d-k$ constraints with equality.
- A 0 -face is a vertex.
- A 1-face is an edge.
- A $(d-1)$-face is a facet.



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- A 0 -face is a vertex.
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- A $(d-1)$-face is a facet.
- Alternatively, a $k$-face is the polytope obtained by eliminating $d-k$ variables using the $d-k$ constraints that are satisfied with equality.



## Linear programming

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```
maximize }\mp@subsup{c}{}{\top}
s.t. }Ax\leq
```

- For simplicity, we generally assume that a linear program is in canonical form:

- Every linear program has an equivalent canonical form.


## Linear programming

- A constraint $a_{i}^{T} x \leq b_{i}$ can be expressed equivalently as $\left(a_{i}^{T} x\right)+s_{i}=b_{i}$, where $s_{i} \geq 0$ is a non-negative slack variable.


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- A canonical form linear program can be transformed to equational form (or standard form) by introducing $n$ slack variables:

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\operatorname{maximize} & c^{\top} x & & \text { maximize } & c^{T} x \\
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The resulting linear program has $m=d+n$ non-negative variables.

- Note that an inequality from the original linear program is satisfied with equality if the corresponding (slack) variable is zero in the equational form.


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$$
A x=b \quad \text { and } \quad \forall i \notin B: x_{i}=0
$$

- Every basic solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is defined by at least one basis. If $x$ is defined by more than one basis, $x$ is a degenerate basic solution.


## Linear programming

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- If $x_{B}$ is a basic feasible solution, then the non-basic variables correspond to facets defining the vertex.
- The operation of exchanging a single basic variable in $B$ with a non-basic variable, producing a new basis $B^{\prime}$, is called pivoting.
- Geometrically, if $x_{B}$ and $x_{B^{\prime}}$ are different basic feasible solutions, pivoting corresponds to moving from $x_{B}$ to $x_{B^{\prime}}$ along an edge of the polytope.


## The simplex algorithm

The simplex algorithm, Dantzig (1947):

- Start with some basis $B$ corresponding to a basic feasible solution $x_{B}$.
- Repeatedly perform pivots leading to new bases $B^{\prime}$ corresponding to basic feasible solutions $x_{B^{\prime}}$ with better values, $c^{T} x_{B^{\prime}} \geq c^{T} x_{B}$.
- Stop when no pivot can increase the value further.


## Example: The tableau method

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
\max \quad 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3} \\
\text { s.t. } \quad \frac{1}{3} x_{1}-\frac{2}{3} x_{2}-\frac{2}{3} x_{3} & \leq 1 \\
& x_{2}+x_{3} \leq 2 \\
& x_{3} \leq 1 \\
& x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}
\end{array}
$$



- Transform a linear program in canonical form to equational form by introducing slack variables.


## Example: The tableau method

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max \quad 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3} \\
& \text { s.t. } \quad \frac{1}{3} x_{1}-\frac{2}{3} x_{2}-\frac{2}{3} x_{3}+x_{4}=1 \\
& x_{2}+x_{3}+x_{5}=2 \\
& x_{3}+x_{6}=1 \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$



- Transform a linear program in canonical form to equational form by introducing slack variables.


## Example: The tableau method

$\max 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3}$
s.t. $x_{4}=1-\frac{1}{3} x_{1}+\frac{2}{3} x_{2}+\frac{2}{3} x_{3}$
$x_{5}=2-x_{2}-x_{3}$
$x_{6}=1-x_{3}$
$x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0$


- Transform a linear program in canonical form to equational form by introducing slack variables.
- Pick a basis, in this case $\{4,5,6\}$, and express the basic variables and the objective function in terms of non-basic variables. This representation is called a tableau.


## Example: The tableau method

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\begin{array}{ll}
\max & 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3} \\
\text { s.t. } & x_{4}=1-\frac{1}{3} x_{1}+\frac{2}{3} x_{2}+\frac{2}{3} x_{3} \\
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& x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0
\end{array}
$$

$$
x^{T}=(0,0,0,1,2,1)
$$

- Transform a linear program in canonical form to equational form by introducing slack variables.
- Pick a basis, in this case $\{4,5,6\}$, and express the basic variables and the objective function in terms of non-basic variables. This representation is called a tableau.
- The corresponding basic solution and its value can be read by setting the non-basic variables to zero.


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$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\max & 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3} \\
\text { s.t. } & x_{4}=1-\frac{1}{3} x_{1}+\frac{2}{3} x_{2}+\frac{2}{3} x_{3} \\
& x_{5}=2-x_{2}-x_{3} \\
& x_{6}=1-x_{3} \\
& x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0
\end{array}
$$



- If the coefficient of a non-basic variable $x_{i}$ in the objective function is positive, increasing $x_{i}$ will improve the value.


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\max & 2 x_{1}-2 x_{2}-x_{3} \\
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- If the coefficient of a non-basic variable $x_{i}$ in the objective function is positive, increasing $x_{i}$ will improve the value.
- $x_{i}$ can be increased until another basic variable $x_{j}$ becomes zero, which completes the pivot. The basis is then updated by exchanging $i$ and $j$. If no variable becomes zero the value is unbounded.


## Example: The tableau method

$\max 6+2 x_{2}+3 x_{3}-6 x_{4}$
s.t. $x_{1}=3+2 x_{2}+2 x_{3}-3 x_{4}$
$x_{5}=2-x_{2}-x_{3}$
$x_{6}=1-x_{3}$
$x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0$


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## Example: The tableau method

$\max 10+x_{3}-6 x_{4}-2 x_{5}$
s.t. $x_{1}=7-3 x_{4}-2 x_{5}$
$x_{2}=2-x_{3}-x_{5}$
$x_{6}=1-x_{3}$
$x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0$


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## Example: The tableau method

$\max 11-6 x_{4}-2 x_{5}-x_{6}$
s.t. $x_{1}=7-3 x_{4}-2 x_{5}$
$x_{2}=1-x_{5}+x_{6}$
$x_{3}=1-x_{6}$
$x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6} \geq 0$

$$
x^{T}=(7,1,1,0,0,0)
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- If the coefficient of a non-basic variable $x_{i}$ in the objective function is positive, increasing $x_{i}$ will improve the value.
- $x_{i}$ can be increased until another basic variable $x_{j}$ becomes zero, which completes the pivot. The basis is then updated by exchanging $i$ and $j$. If no variable becomes zero the value is unbounded.
- When all coefficients are negative, the solution is optimal.
- Let $B$ be a basis, and let $A=\left[A_{B} \mid A_{\bar{B}}\right]$ and $x^{T}=\left[x_{B}^{T} \mid x_{\bar{B}}^{T}\right]$. I.e., $A_{B}$ is the matrix of basic columns and $A_{\bar{B}}$ is the matrix of non-basic columns, and similar for $x$.
- The tableau method rewrites the linear program:

where $\bar{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is the vector of reduced costs:

$$
\bar{c}=c-\left(A_{B}^{-1} A\right)^{T} c_{B}
$$

## Pivoting rules

- Two choices must be made when pivoting:
(1) Which non-basic variable with positive coefficient enters the basis?
(2) Which basic variable leaves the basis, in case of a tie?

These choices are specified by a pivoting rule.

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- The non-basic variable with largest coefficient enters the basis.


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- LargestIncrease
- The non-basic variable that gives the largest increase enters the basis.


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- LargestCoefficient, Dantzig (1947)
- The non-basic variable with largest coefficient enters the basis.
- LargestIncrease
- The non-basic variable that gives the largest increase enters the basis.
- SteepestEdge
- The non-basic variable whose pivot corresponds to the edge with direction closest to $c$ enters the basis.


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- Bland's Rule, Bland (1977)
- Always pick the available variable with the smallest index, both for entering and leaving the basis.
- If the current basic feasible solution is degenerate, it is possible that the value does not increase when pivoting.
- Such situations may lead to cycling. The following two pivoting rules do not cycle, however.
- Bland's Rule, Bland (1977)
- Always pick the available variable with the smallest index, both for entering and leaving the basis.
- Lexicographic rule, Dantzig, Orden and Wolfe (1955)
- Pick any variable $x_{i}$ with positive coefficient for entering the basis.
- Pick $x_{j}$ for leaving the basis such that the right-hand-side coefficients in the tableau are lexicographically smallest when divided by the coefficient of $x_{i}$ in that row.
- This corresponds to a small pertubation of the $b$ vector.


## Pivoting rules

- ShadowVertex
- Let $x_{0}$ be some initial basic feasible solution, and let $c_{0}$ be a vector for which $c_{0}^{T} x_{0}$ is optimal. Define:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\max & (1-\lambda) c_{0}^{T} x+\lambda c^{T} x \\
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\begin{gathered}
\max \\
\text { s.t. } \\
\quad A x=\lambda) c_{0}^{T} x+\lambda c^{T} x \\
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- Vertices and edges of the projection correspond to vertices and edges of the original polytope.


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- This corresponds to moving along edges of a 2-dimensional projection of the polytope (a "shadow").
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- Spielman and Teng (2004) gave a smoothed analysis of the ShadowVertex pivoting rule, showing that it is polynomial under certain pertubations of the linear program.


## Lower bounds

All the previous pivoting rules are known to require exponentially many steps in the worst case:

- LargestCoefficient: Klee and Minty (1972), the Klee-Minty cube ${ }^{1}$.
- LargestIncrease: Jeroslow (1973).
- SteepestEdge: Goldfarb and Sit (1979).
- Bland's Rule: Avis and Chvátal (1978).
- ShadowVertex: Murty (1980), Goldfarb (1983).
- Amenta and Ziegler (1996) gave a unified view of all these lower bounds.

${ }^{1}$ Picture from Gärtner, Henk and Ziegler (1998)


## More pivoting rules

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- RandomFacet, Kalai (1992) and Matoušek, Sharir and Welzl (1992)
- Pick a uniformly random facet that contains the current vertex, and recursively find an optimal solution within that facet. If possible, make an improving pivot leaving the facet and repeat.


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- Randomized Bland's Rule
- Reorder the indices of the variables according to a random permutation and use Bland's rule.


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- This randomized pivoting rule finds an optimal solution in an expected subexponential, $2^{O(\sqrt{(n-d) \log n)}}$, number of steps.
- Randomized Bland's Rule
- Reorder the indices of the variables according to a random permutation and use Bland's Rule.
- LeastEntered, Zadeh (1980)
- Pick the non-basic variable that has previously entered the basis the fewest number of times.


## New lower bounds

- Friedmann, Hansen and Zwick (2011) proved lower bounds of subexponential form $\left(2^{\Omega\left(d^{\alpha}\right)}\right.$, for $\left.\alpha<1\right)$ for the worst-case expected number of steps of the pivoting rules:
- RandomEdge
- RandomFacet
- Randomized Bland's rule
- Friedmann (2011) proved a subexponential lower bound for the worst-case number of steps required for the LeastEntered pivoting rule.
- These lower bounds are based on a tight connection between Markov decision processes and linear programs.


## Solving linear programs

- Linear programs can be solved in polynomial time:
- Khachiyan (1979): The ellipsoid method
- Karmarkar (1984): The interior point method
- Best complexity results - Renegar (1988), Gonzaga (1989), Roos and Vial (1990): $O\left(n^{3} L\right)$ arithmetic operations, where $L$ is the bit complexity. Based on the interior point method.


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- Let $T(d, n)$ and $T_{R}(d, n)$ be the maximum (expected) number of arithmetic operations required for deterministic and randomized algorithms, respectively, for solving any linear program in $d$-space with $n$ constraints.


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- A polynomially bounded pivoting rule that performs each step in polynomial time would give such a bound.


## The RandomFacet pivoting rule

- RandomFacet, Kalai (1992):
(1) Pick a uniformly random facet $f$ that contains the current basic feasible solution $x$.
(2) Recursively find the optimal solution $x^{\prime}$ within the picked facet $f$.
(3) If possible, make an improving pivot from $x^{\prime}$, leaving the facet $f$, and repeat from (1). Otherwise return $x^{\prime}$.


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- A dual variant of the RandomFacet pivoting rule was discovered independently by Matoušek, Sharir and Welzl (1992).


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- Note that if the facets $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{d}$ containing $x$ are ordered according to their optimal value, then from $x^{\prime \prime}$ we never visit $f_{1}, \ldots, f_{i}$ again.


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- The number of pivoting steps for a linear program with $d$ variables and $n$ constraints, including non-negativity constraints, is at most:

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f(d, n) \leq f(d-1, n-1)+1+\frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} f(d, n-i)
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- Solving the corresponding recurrence gives:

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f(d, n) \leq 2^{O(\sqrt{(n-d) \log n})}
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- The RandomFacet pivoting rule can also be applied to the dual LP, which has $n-d$ free variables and $n$ inequality constraints. It follows that:

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T_{R}(d, n)=\min \left\{2^{O(\sqrt{(n-d) \log n})}, 2^{O(\sqrt{d \log n})}\right\}
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- This is the best known bound for $T_{R}(d, n)$. I.e., the best bound independent of the bit complexity.


## RandomFacet: Non-recursive version

- The recursion of the RandomFacet pivoting rule can be unrolled, and the algorithm can be equivalently stated as:
(1) Start with a random permutation $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}$ of the non-basic variables.
(2) Let $x_{i}$ be the first variable with positive coefficient according to the permutation. Make a pivot exchanging $x_{i}$ with some other variable $x$ in the basis.
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- The procedure resembles the Randomized Bland's Rule, but the expected number of steps is different.
- Open problem: Is there a subexponential upper bound on the expected number of pivoting steps performed by the Randomized Bland's Rule?


## Duality

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\begin{array}{lrl}
\operatorname{maximize} & c^{\top} x \\
\text { s.t. } & A x & =b \\
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- The problem of finding the best such upper bound can be formulated as a dual linear program ( $D$ ). The original linear program $(P)$ is referred to as primal.
- By the strong duality theorem, $(P)$ and $(D)$ have the same value, assuming that $(P)$ is feasible and has a maximal value.


## RandomFacet: Dual view



- Consider a primal linear program $(P)$ and its dual $(D)$.


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- Recall that the non-basic variables for some basis $B$ correspond to facets that contain the basic feasible solution $x_{B}$.
- Staying within a facet $f_{i}$ means that the variable $x_{i}$ stays non-basic.
- I.e., $x_{i}$ is fixed to 0 , which is like removing the $i$ 'th column of $A$, or for the dual like removing the $i$ 'th constraint.


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- A constraint $h$ is violated by $B$ if $z_{B}<z_{B \cup\{h\}}$.
- If $h$ is violated by a basis $B$, then $z_{B}$ is not optimal for the corresponding primal LP, and adding $h$ to the basis must be an improving pivot.


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- RandomFacet, dual view, Matoušek, Sharir and Welzl (1992):
(1) Remove a uniformly random constraint $h \in H$ that is not in the current basis $B$.
(2) Recursively find an optimal basis $B^{\prime}$ for $H \backslash\{h\}$.
(3) If $B^{\prime}$ violates $h$ repeat from the beginning, starting with the optimal basis $B^{\prime \prime}$ for $B^{\prime} \cup\{h\}$. Otherwise return $B^{\prime}$.


## Repeating the analysis

- Order constraints $h \in H \backslash B$ such that:

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z_{H \backslash\left\{h_{1}\right\}} \leq z_{H \backslash\left\{h_{2}\right\}} \leq \cdots \leq z_{H \backslash\left\{h_{i}\right\}} \leq \cdots \leq z_{H \backslash\left\{h_{m-n}\right\}}
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- The number of steps is bounded by:

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f_{D}(k, m)=f_{D}(k, m-1)+1+\frac{1}{m-n} \sum_{i=1}^{m-n} f_{D}(k-i, m)
$$

where $k$ is the number of unfixed constraints (the "hidden dimension" $)$, and $f_{D}(m, k)=0$ for $m \leq k$ or $k \leq 0$.

- Again, $f_{D}(k, m) \leq 2^{O(\sqrt{k \log m})}$.


## LP-type problems

An LP-type problem, $(H, \omega)$, is defined as follows:

- $H=\{1, \ldots, m\}$ is a finite set.
- $\omega: 2^{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ is a function that maps subsets of $H$ to a linearly ordered set $(\mathcal{W}, \leq)$ with minimal value $-\infty$, such that:
(1) Monotonicity: For all $F \subseteq G \subseteq H, \omega(F) \leq \omega(G)$.
(2) Locality: For all $F \subseteq G \subseteq H$ with $-\infty<\omega(F)=\omega(G)$, and any $h \in H$ :

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The dual RandomFacet algorithm can be applied to any LP-type problem.

## Overview

- Lecture 1:
- Introduction to linear programming and the simplex algorithm.
- Pivoting rules.
- The RandomFacet pivoting rule.
- Lecture 2:
- The Hirsch conjecture.
- Introduction to Markov decision processes (MDPs).
- Upper bound for the LargestCoefficient pivoting rule for MDPs.
- Lecture 3 :
- Lower bounds for pivoting rules utilizing MDPs. Example: Bland's rule.
- Lower bound for the RandomEdge pivoting rule.
- Abstractions and related problems.

