

EULER'S FORMULA VIA POTENTIAL FUNCTIONS

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Abstract A new proof of Euler's formula for polytopes is presented via an approach using potential functions. In particular, a connection between Euler's formula and the Morse relation from differential topology is established.

1 Introduction

Karmarkar's approach in linear programming using potential functions (cf. [6]) has been very seminal. In this paper, we'll use such a potential function approach in order to give a new proof of the famous Euler formula for polytopes. The main point consists in establishing a connection between Euler's formula and the Morse relation from differential topology.

Let $P \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be an n -dimensional polytope, and let $f_i(P)$ denote the number of i -dimensional faces of P , $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$. Then, Euler's formula is the following (cf. [2]):

$$(1.1) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i f_i(P) = 1 + (-1)^{n-1}.$$

In Morse theory, relations are established between the various critical points of a real valued function on a manifold M on one hand, and the topology of M on the other hand (cf. [9]). In nonlinear optimization, the concept of Karush-Kuhn-Tucker point (KKT-point, for short) plays the role of that of a critical point. A Morse theory in this context (also for certain types of nondifferentiable functions) was established in [5]. However, the nondegeneracy concept used in [5] can be relaxed considerably in order to obtain Morse relations. On one hand, under the Mangasarian-Fromovitz constraint qualification, Morse theory was developed in [4], where the KKT-points are assumed to be strongly stable in the sense of Kojima (cf. [7]). On the other hand, in feasible sets which allow a certain regular decomposition into manifolds (so-called Whitney stratification, cf. [3]), another approach with wide applicability has been established by M. Goresky and R. MacPherson in [3]. It is not difficult to see that the decomposition of a polytope into the set of relative interiors of its faces is such a regular decomposition. We note that the nondegeneracy concepts in [4] ("strong stability") and [3] ("nondepravedness") are not the same (cf. also the subsequent Example 1.3). In [1], a nondegeneracy concept of a KKT-point is introduced which is subsumed in the corresponding one in [3]. For the purpose of this paper the nondegeneracy concept in [1] turns out to be very appropriate.

Let the n -dimensional polytope P be described by means of a system of linear inequalities:

$$(1.2) \quad P = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} - b_j \geq 0, j \in J\}.$$

The set $J_0(\mathbf{x}) = \{j \in J \mid \mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} - b_j = 0\}$ denotes the set of active inequality constraints

at \mathbf{x} . The tangent space $T_{\mathbf{x}}P$ of P at $\mathbf{x} \in P$ is defined as follows:

$$(1.3) \quad T_{\mathbf{x}}P = \{\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{a}_j^\top \boldsymbol{\xi} = 0, j \in J_0(\mathbf{x})\}.$$

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a twice continuously differentiable function. A point $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \in P$ is called a Karush-Kuhn-Tucker point for $f|_P$ if we have:

$$(1.4) \quad D^\top f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) = \sum_{j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}})} \lambda_j \mathbf{a}_j, \text{ and } \lambda_j \geq 0, j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}}),$$

where Df stands for the row vector of the first partial derivatives. Note that (1.4) means $D^\top f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) \in C(\mathbf{a}_j, j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}}))$, where $C(\mathbf{a}_j, j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}}))$ denotes the nonnegative cone generated by the vectors $\mathbf{a}_j, j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}})$. Following [1] we define:

Definition 1.1. A KKT-point $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \in P$ for $f|_P$ is said to be nondegenerate if

(1) $D^\top f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) \in \text{rel.int.}C(\mathbf{a}_j, j \in J_0(\bar{\mathbf{x}}))$, where $(\text{rel.})\text{int.}C$ denotes the (relative) interior of C .

(2) $V^\top D^2 f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) V$ is nonsingular, where V is a matrix whose columns form a basis for the tangent space $T_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}}P$, where $D^2 f$ stands for the Hessian matrix of f .

The number of negative eigenvalues of $V^\top D^2 f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) V$ is called the index of the KKT-point $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$.

Remark 1.2. Note that the numbers of negative eigenvalues of $V^\top D^2 f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}) V$ is independent of the choice of the matrix V . The linearity of the constraints describing the polytope P implies that the Hessian of f coincides with the Hessian of any associated Lagrange function.

Example 1.3. Consider the polytope $P = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid -1 \leq x_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq x_2 \leq 1\}$ and the functions $f_1(\mathbf{x}) = -x_1^2 + x_2, f_2(\mathbf{x}) = -x_1^2 - x_2^2$. The origin $(0, 0)$ is a KKT-point for $f_j|_P, j = 1, 2$, and condition (2) in Definition 1.1 is fulfilled. However, condition (1) is only fulfilled in case of f_1 (therefore, for $f_1|_P$, the origin is a nondegenerate KKT-point). Consider the lower level sets $P^\alpha(f_j) = \{\mathbf{x} \in P \mid f_j(\mathbf{x}) \leq \alpha\}$ as α increases and passes zero (the value of f_j at the KKT-point $0 \in P$). In case of f_1 , the lower level set changes from being disconnected to connected, whereas in case f_2 , the connectedness does not change. We remark that the origin is a strongly stable KKT-point for $f_1|_P$, but not for $f_2|_P$. But the concept of the strong stability depends on the defining system of the polytope P , whereas the condition (1) in Definition 1.1 does not. In fact, if we use a system $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid -1 \leq x_1 \leq 1, 0 \leq x_2 \leq 1, 0 \leq x_2\}$ as a defining system for P (remark that the constraint $0 \leq x_2$ is redundant), then the origin is not strongly stable. These two facts underline the importance of the condition (1) in Definition 1.1.

Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is twice continuously differentiable and that all KKT-points of $f|_P$ are nondegenerate. Let $c_i(f|_P)$ denote the number of KKT-points of index i . Let $b_j(P)$ denote the Betti-number of the polytope P (roughly speaking, $b_j(P)$ counts the number of $(j + 1)$ -dimensional ‘‘holes’’). Then, the Morse relation is valid (cf. [1]):

$$(1.5) \quad \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i c_i(f|_P) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i b_i(P)$$

which relates the various KKT-points of $f|_P$ with the topology of P . Since a polytope is obviously contractible, its Betti-numbers coincide with those of a one-point space, i.e., $b_0(P) = 1, b_i(P) = 0$ for $i > 0$. Hence, (1.5) reduces to:

$$(1.6) \quad \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i c_i(f|_P) = 1.$$

In the next section, we prove Formula (1.1) by means of (1.6) by using a potential function. In addition, it will be shown that an approach via a quadratic function is in general not appropriate. Another way of proving Euler’s formula via potential functions might be done with the aid of a dynamical system (this was communicated to us by M. Shub [10]). In fact, one might use as underlying vector fields those which are discussed in [8].

2 The Proof of Euler’s Formula

Let our n -dimensional polytope $P \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ again be described as in (1.2). Without loss of generality we assume that $0 \in \text{Int}(P)$. Define the potential function f :

$$(2.1) \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j \in J} \ln(\mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} - b_j).$$

It is well-known that f is strictly concave in $\text{Int}(P)$. In fact, the Hessian $D^2 f(\mathbf{x}) (= \sum_{j \in J} -\mathbf{a}_j \mathbf{a}_j^\top / (\mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} - b_j)^2)$ is negative definite, since the compactness of P implies that the vectors $\mathbf{a}_j, j \in J$ span \mathbb{R}^n . Unfortunately, the function f becomes singular at the boundary of P . Therefore, we make a “desingularization step” by slightly shrinking the polytope P .

For $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ we define $P(\varepsilon) = (1 - \varepsilon)P$. Note that there is one-to-one correspondence ρ between the i -dimensional faces of P and $P(\varepsilon)$. In particular, if σ is an i -dimensional face of P , then $\rho(\sigma) := (1 - \varepsilon)\sigma$ is an i -dimensional face of $P(\varepsilon)$. For some $I \subset J$, the face σ can be described as follows:

$$(2.2) \quad \sigma = \{\mathbf{x} \in P \mid \mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} = b_j, j \in I\}.$$

The potential function f in $\rho(\sigma)$ then takes the form:

$$(2.3) \quad f(\mathbf{x})|_{\rho(\sigma)} = \sum_{j \in J \setminus I} \ln(\mathbf{a}_j^\top \mathbf{x} - b_j) + c(\varepsilon),$$

where $c(\varepsilon)$ is some constant (only depending on ε and σ). A moment of reflection now shows that, for ε sufficiently small, each face of $P(\varepsilon)$ contains precisely one KKT-point for $f|_{P(\varepsilon)}$ in its relative interior. Moreover, it is easy to check that every KKT-point is nondegenerate in the sense of Definition 1.1, and the index equals the dimension of the corresponding face. So, we can apply formula (1.6) for $f|_{P(\varepsilon)}$. Noting that $c_i(f|_{P(\varepsilon)}) = f_i(P(\varepsilon)) = f_i(P)$, and the fact that the analytic center (cf. [11]) of P is the only KKT-point for $f|_{P(\varepsilon)}$ of index n , formula (1.1) follows immediately.

Remark 2.1. *In the above proof we used the fact that every face of $P(\varepsilon)$ contains precisely one (nondegenerated) KKT-point for $f|_{P(\varepsilon)}$ in its relative interior. This can in general not be accomplished by means of a quadratic function $g(\mathbf{x}) = -(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)^\top \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)$, \mathbf{A} symmetric and positive definite. To see this, consider the following example. Put $P = C(\mathbf{p}_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$, where $\mathbf{p}_1 = (0, 10/3), \mathbf{p}_2 = (-\sqrt{3}/3, 3), \mathbf{p}_3 = (-5\sqrt{3}/3, -1), \mathbf{p}_4 = (-5\sqrt{3}/3, -5/3), \mathbf{p}_5 = (-4\sqrt{3}/3, -2), \mathbf{p}_6 = (4\sqrt{3}/3, -2), \mathbf{p}_7 = (5\sqrt{3}/3, -5/3), \mathbf{p}_8 = (5\sqrt{3}/3, -1), \mathbf{p}_9 = (\sqrt{3}/3, 3)$, cf. Figure 1. The very construction implies that $\mathbf{p}_1\mathbf{p}_2 // \mathbf{p}_7\mathbf{p}_6, \mathbf{p}_3\mathbf{p}_4 // \mathbf{p}_8\mathbf{p}_7, \mathbf{p}_4\mathbf{p}_5 // \mathbf{p}_1\mathbf{p}_9$, where the symbol $//$ stands for “parallel”. Now, suppose that a quadratic function g as above would work, say $\mathbf{x}^* \in \text{int}.P$. Then, from the relation of points of tangency between the parallel lines and the family of similar ellipsoids with the same center and the same axis, the center \mathbf{x}^* must be in the intersection of the trapezia $\mathbf{p}_1\mathbf{p}_2\mathbf{p}_6\mathbf{p}_7, \mathbf{p}_1\mathbf{p}_4\mathbf{p}_5\mathbf{p}_9, \mathbf{p}_3\mathbf{p}_4\mathbf{p}_7\mathbf{p}_8$. However, the latter intersection is empty!*

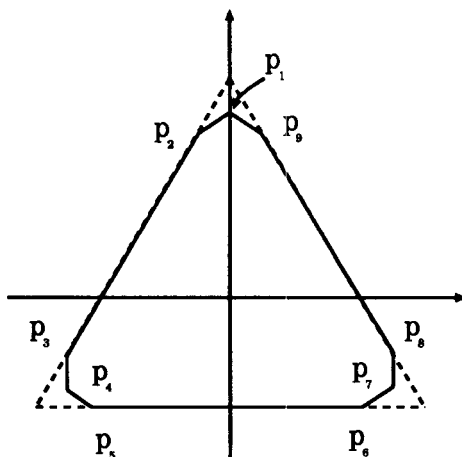


Figure 1:

Acknowledgment:

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