

MARTIN GRÖTSCHEL AND GEORGE L. NEMHAUSER

**George Dantzig's contributions to integer
programming**

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Martin Grötschel
Konrad-Zuse-Zentrum für Informationstechnik
Berlin (ZIB), MATHEON, and TU Berlin,
Germany
groetschel@zib.de

George L. Nemhauser
School of Industrial and Systems Engineering
Georgia Institute of Technology
USA
george.nemhauser@isye.gatech.edu

Abstract

This paper reviews George Dantzig's contribution to integer programming, especially his seminal work with Fulkerson and Johnson on the traveling salesman problem.

1 Introduction

George Dantzig wrote only a few papers on integer programming, including two on integer programming modeling [4, 5]; specifically, how a variety of nonlinear and nonconvex optimization problems could be formulated as mixed-integer programs with 0-1 variables. For example, he presented the use of 0-1 variables to model fixed charges and variable upper bound constraints, semi-continuous variables, and nonconvex piecewise linear functions.

In [5] he also proposed a very simple cutting plane for separating a fractional basic optimal solution from the convex hull of integer solutions in a pure integer program with nonnegative variables. The cut simply says that at least one of the nonbasic variables must be a positive integer, i.e., the sum of the nonbasic variables is at least one. While this is not a very strong cut, since it does not yield a finitely convergent algorithm [10], a slightly tightened version of it does yield a finite cutting plane algorithm [2].

However, Dantzig's impact on integer programming is huge. His work in the 1950s with D. Ray Fulkerson and Selmer Johnson [6, 7, 8] on the traveling salesman problem was the precursor of the branch-and-cut algorithms that form the basis of modern mixed-integer computational systems that are widely used in practice to solve optimization models in supply chains, telecommunications, manufacturing, transportation, and many other areas.

The NP-hard traveling salesman problem (TSP) has provided a remarkable source of ideas for solving hard combinatorial optimization problems including cutting planes, branch-and-bound, and Lagrangian duality. Dantzig, Fulkerson, and Johnson (DFJ from now on) pioneered the idea of employing linear programming relaxation and valid inequalities to solve integer programs by solving (including a proof of optimality) a 49-city TSP. Their paper also has ideas about implicit enumeration. Moreover, the DFJ paper constitutes one of the first serious computational studies of a hard combinatorial optimization problem. It is absolutely astonishing that the three authors were able to find an optimal solution of such a large TSP instance and to prove its optimality by manual computation.

Although DFJ's seminal contribution of more than 50 years ago is acknowledged in books and survey papers on integer programming and combinatorial optimization, it has not been presented with any detail in recent literature except in a very recent book [1]. Therefore it seems appropriate in this issue devoted to the contributions of George Dantzig to review the work of DFJ, and to honor Ray Fulkerson (1924 - 1976) and Selmer Johnson as well. DFJ all were at the Rand corporation through the 1950s as part of what may have been the most remarkable group of mathematicians working on optimization ever assembled.

2 The TSP and Linear Programming

Given a set of n cities and the $n(n-1)/2$ distances $d(ij)$ between all unordered pairs i, j of cities, the (symmetric) TSP is to find a shortest tour for a salesman starting from his home city, then visiting all of the other cities, and finally returning to the home city. In graph theory terms, we are given a complete undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, where the node set V corresponds to the set of cities, the edge set E corresponds to all pairs of cities, and where the edge $e = ij$ has length $d(e)$ which is a number representing the "distance" (measured in minutes, miles, or whatever is appropriate for the particular instance) between the nodes i and j . The problem is to find a cycle C that contains all n nodes (i.e., a Hamiltonian cycle) and whose total distance is minimum. It is well known that the TSP is NP-hard although, of course, DFJ were unlikely to be thinking about complexity then.

DFJ studied an instance consisting of the road distances between 49 cities, the then 48 state capitals in the U.S. and Washington D.C. The data DFJ used came from a distance table that was prepared by the Rand Corporation. Table 1 shows a copy of the table of distances between the cities, hand written by Ray Fulkerson (we are indebted to Bob Bland for making the original available). If d'_{ij} denotes the original distance between the cities i and j in miles then the entry d_{ij} of the DFJ table was obtained by $d_{ij} := \lceil \frac{1}{17}(d'_{ij} - 11) \rceil$, where the brackets $\lceil \cdot \rceil$ denote rounding to the next integer. This looks somewhat strange. The authors remark that they wanted to obtain distances smaller than 256 to permit compact storage in binary representation. However, it turned out that they made no use of it. DFJ's formulation of the TSP contains the variables $x(e) = 1$ or 0 to indicate whether edge e is in

the tour or not and the obvious constraints that each node has degree 2 in a cycle. They realized, of course, that this was not enough because the resulting solution might contain subtours, i.e., cycles on subsets $S \subset V$. However, DFJ knew that subtours could be removed by the *subtour elimination constraints*, which they stated in the following two forms

$$\sum_{e \in E(S)} x(e) \leq |S| - 1, \quad \sum_{e \in \delta(S)} x(e) \geq 2,$$

where $E(S)$ denotes the set of edges in G with both ends in the node set S , and $\delta(S)$ denotes the set of edges with one end in S . DFJ observed the two versions of the subtour elimination constraints are equivalent because they can be transformed into each other utilizing the degree constraints.

Still, this would not be enough for solving TSPs by linear programming for any but the smallest values of n . There are two reasons for this observation:

1. The number of subtour elimination constraints grows exponentially with n , and therefore, all of them could not be considered explicitly.
2. Even if a linear programming formulation of the form

$$\min \sum_{e \in E} d(e)x(e) \tag{1}$$

$$x(e) \geq 0 \quad e \in E \tag{2}$$

$$x(e) \leq 1 \quad e \in E \tag{3}$$

$$\sum_{e \in \delta(v)} x(e) = 2, \quad v \in V \tag{4}$$

$$\sum_{e \in \delta(S)} x(e) \geq 2 \quad S \subset V, \quad 2 \leq |S| \leq |V| - 2 \tag{5}$$

could be solved, the solution would not necessarily correspond to a tour since the LP solution might be fractional.

Despite these difficulties, DFJ demonstrated that a linear programming approach to the TSP was viable, and in the process gave the first steps towards a theory that we now call *polyhedral combinatorics* that provides one of the main ingredients of successful modern integer programming software.

Given a tour T of an n -city TSP, $n \geq 3$, let us define the vector $X^T \in \mathfrak{R}^{|E|}$ by setting $x^T(e) = 1$, if $e \in T$, and $x^T(e) = 0$, if $e \notin T$. Call X^T the *incidence vector* of tour T . The convex hull of the incidence vectors of all tours, i.e.,

$$Q_T^n := \text{conv}\{x^T \in \mathfrak{R}^{|E|} | T \text{ a } n\text{-city tour}\}$$

is called the (symmetric) *traveling salesman polytope*. The study of Q_T^n (and its asymmetric companion) began in the mid-fifties and is still thriving today, see [1, 17].

In a Rand preprint [6] to the published paper [7], DFJ indicate that although Heller [14] had shown that the constraints (2)-(5) are sufficient to describe Q_T^5 completely, the polytope they define has fractional extreme point solutions for $n \geq 6$. Just to formulate the TSP as an integer program requires an exponential number of inequalities, and it was clear from the work of Heller [14] and Kuhn [16] that a huge number of linear inequalities is needed to characterize Q_T^n for even modest values of n . The tremendous sizes of the LPs that may have to be solved might lead one to give up on the linear programming approach to the TSP.

But rather than giving up, at this point DFJ made some key observations that have had a big impact on the development of modern integer programming.

- To solve an LP with a huge number of constraints, you don't need to begin with all of them. It suffices to start with a relatively small subset as long as you have a way of telling whether the solution to the relaxed problem satisfies all of the omitted constraints, and if not, to find one that is violated by the current solution. Of course, for the TSP, if the current LP solution is a tour, by definition it satisfies all of the unknown inequalities that define Q_T^n and therefore is an optimal solution to the TSP. Hence the stopping rule for this approach to solving the TSP is obvious. Terminate with an optimal tour if and only if the LP solution represents a tour. Otherwise tighten the LP by adding another constraint that cuts off the current solution.

This observation is probably the earliest appearance of what we now call *separation* or *cutting plane recognition*. Given a polyhedron P and a point y in \mathfrak{R}^n , decide whether $y \in P$, and if not, find a hyperplane separating y from P . About twenty-five years later [12] it was discovered that “separation” and “optimization” are equivalent with respect to polynomial time solvability. More precisely, one can solve linear programs over a class of polyhedra (such as the traveling salesman polytopes Q_T^n) in polynomial time if and only if the separation problem for this class of polyhedra can be solved in polynomial time. Specifically, because the TSP is known to be NP-hard, finding an inequality that is satisfied by all incidence vectors of tours but not by a given point outside Q_T^n is also NP-hard. We can assume that

DFJ didn't understand all of the formalities of separation, but they used their ingenuity to take advantage of some properties of the TSP.

- For the TSP all the incidence vectors of tours are extreme points of a relaxation that contains the nonnegativity constraints (2) and the degree constraints (4), and they give a polytope all of whose extreme points correspond to tours, subtours, or isolated edges of value 2. So if we begin with only constraints (2) and (4), it is trivial to recognize if the optimal LP solution contains subtours or isolated edges, and it is also simple to find an inequality (3) or (5) that separates the solution from Q_T^n . Moreover, since there is only a small number of upper bound constraints (3), we could add all of them to begin with. DFJ didn't do that, but remember that all of their computations were done by hand. Once we begin to add subtour elimination constraints or upper bound constraints, the polytope is no longer integral. Since any fractional extreme point solution cannot be in Q_T^n , whenever an optimal LP solution is fractional or is integral and contains subtours, we know that we have to continue adding constraints. But how do we find the right ones?

Before exploring DFJ's use of valid inequalities further, we present some of their other innovations that have become important in computational integer programming. DFJ used what is now called *warm start*. That is, since the incidence vector of a tour is an extreme point of the initial LP relaxation, it is possible to begin the simplex algorithm with a basic solution corresponding to a good tour. For the given U.S. instance, DFJ simply guessed what they thought might be an optimal tour and then, setting the constraints $x(e) \leq 1$ to equality for all edges in the tour to form a basis, obtained a basic solution corresponding to that tour.

For a TSP on a complete graph with Euclidean distances, many long edges can be excluded from an optimal tour in a straightforward way. For example in the 49-city instance, one can easily argue by bounds that it would not be optimal to go directly from an east coast state capital to a west coast state capital, and therefore, such edges can be eliminated from the instance. However, much more fixing of this type can be done using linear programming in a more advanced manner. DFJ introduced the idea of what is now called *reduced cost fixing*. Suppose we have solved an LP relaxation and an edge is currently nonbasic at value zero with reduced cost $r(e)$. Let $z(LP)$ be the value of the LP solution and $z(T)$ be the value of the best known tour. Then if

$$z(LP) + r(e) > z(T), \tag{6}$$

edge e is not in any optimal tour. Similarly, for a nonbasic edge at value 1, if (6) holds, then edge e is in every optimal tour. DFJ observed that reduced cost fixing is a powerful tool for reducing the size of a TSP and when the problem became small enough in the number of remaining edges, they could use "combinatorial arguments" to establish an optimal

solution. They were not very specific on how this was done, but it wouldn't be surprising if their combinatorial arguments were a type of tree search enumeration suggestive of implicit enumeration or *branch-and-bound*. Finally, DFJ began the solution of the 49-city instance by reducing it to a 42-city instance by observing that the shortest path between Washington and Boston passed through 7 other state capitals, and therefore, these 7 cities could be eliminated and replaced by a single edge. (That is why Table 1 shows only 42 cities.) Here they were using a form of what we now call *preprocessing*.

DFJ do not give all of the iterative details on their solution to the 42-city capitals instance. They luckily guessed the optimal solution at the outset. This tour provided their initial basis for the LP relaxation. To solve the LP relaxation to obtain the provably optimal tour as a basic feasible solution, they needed nonnegativity, the 42 degree constraints, 16 upper bound constraints, 7 subtour elimination constraints and 2 other valid inequalities.

We mentioned that solving the separation problem for Q_T^n is hard. However, that does not exclude that, for some subclasses of the class of all facets of Q_T^n , polynomial time separation routines exist. Finding such algorithms is still an active research area, and the progress in this respect is, to a large extent, responsible for the enormous success of the cutting plane approach to the TSP, see [1]. The fact that one can solve the separation problem for subtour elimination constraints by viewing it as a min-cut problem [11] was first observed in [15] and [18]. DFJ did not know that, of course, and finding violated subtour elimination constraints for fractional solutions by hand is not as straightforward as it may look nowadays. Finally, the remaining two constraints, whose validity was proved using neat combinatorial arguments given to DFJ by I. Glicksberg, a colleague at Rand, are essentially what is known today as *comb inequalities* [3, 13]. See [1] for a detailed discussion of these two inequalities.

3 Conclusions

Although DFJ were not the first to develop a connection between linear programming and combinatorial optimization, see, e.g., the work of Heller and Kuhn cited earlier, they were the first to demonstrate that linear programming could be used to attack large-scale combinatorial optimization problems by actually solving such an instance. Let us recall from the discussion above the concepts (in modern terminology) that were employed by DFJ in their 1954 study:

- preprocessing
- warm start
- variable fixing
- reduced cost exploitation

- cutting plane recognition
- elements of branch and bound.

The authors were certainly not aware of the full power of their contribution. They close their paper with the following remark:

“It is clear that we have left unanswered practically any question one might pose of a theoretical nature concerning the traveling-salesman problem; however, we hope that the feasibility of attacking problems involving a moderate number of points has been successfully demonstrated, and that perhaps some of the ideas can be used in problems of similar nature.”

which – compared to the marketing jargon one often reads today, even in the scientific literature – appears to be a very modest self-assessment of their own work. Nevertheless, the DFJ paper caught the interest of the public press. *Newsweek Magazine* published an article on this “ingenious application of linear programming” on July 26, 1954.

Reviewing the development of integer programming in the last fifty years, the DFJ paper of 1954 was a really remarkable contribution that considerably extended, among other things, the “computational IP tool box.” It is even more remarkable that this has been done without the help of computers. It seems that DFJ’s ideas were too advanced for their contemporaries since, five years later, see [8], they were asked by the editor of *Operations Research* to revisit their 1954 paper and explain its findings again, which they did in a somewhat simplified form on a 10-city example. This was in the days when Ralph Gomory’s pioneering work [9] showed how linear programming could be used in a finite algorithm to solve any pure integer program. But in a certain sense, the work of DFJ is closer to the current branch-and-cut systems.

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