VALIDATION OF SUBGRADIENT OPTIMIZATION

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The "relaxation" procedure introduced by Held and Karp for approximately solving a large linear programming problem related to the traveling-salesman problem is refined and studied experimentally on several classes of specially structured large-scale linear programming problems, and results on the use of the procedure for obtaining exact solutions are given. It is concluded that the method shows promise for large-scale linear programming

1. Introduction

A wide variety of mathematical programming problems can be given the form

maximize
$$w(\pi), \ \pi \in S$$
, (1.1)

where

$$w(\pi) = \min\{c_k + \pi \cdot v_k : k = 1, ..., K\}, \qquad (1.2)$$

 c_k is a scalar, $v_k = (v_{k1}, ..., v_{kn})$ is a real *n*-vector for all k, and S is a closed convex subset of E^n . $(\pi \cdot v_k)$ above denotes the inner product.) If K is finite and S is a polyhedron, then the problem is alinear programming problem; otherwise it is the general problem of maximizing a concave function over S, for any concave function has such a representation [22, p. 102]. This paper reports some experiments testing an unusual and surprisingly successful procedure for the numerical solution

of certain problems of this kind. We call this procedure a *subgradient* method.

If the constraint set S can be specified by a simple set of linear inequalities (as it is in the problems we consider) and K is small, then our problem is just an ordinary linear programming problem, and we think it is best solved by the simplex method for linear programming. In the problems we are concerned with, however, K is vast-finite, but easily of the order of n! with n around 100. We therefore make no effort to write out the data c_k , v_k explicitly for all k, but rather suppose them so defined that, given π , the task of then finding c_k , v_k for which the minimum of (1.2) is assumed is reasonably convenient. That task, called "column generation", is central to most schemes for the solution of very large linear programming problems (a good account of which is given by Lasdon [15, Chapter 4]). As we have discussed elsewhere [24], all problems amenable to treatment by the Dantzig-Wolfe decomposition procedure can be cast in the form (1.1), (1.2).

A first encounter with the kind of method reported here was described by Held and Karp [11] in their work on the traveling-salesman problem, for which they devised a function w of the type (1.2)constituting a kind of "pseudo-dual" for that problem; its maximum value provided excellent bounds for their branch-and-bound algorithm. Having tried both a steepest-ascent procedure and a simplex method using column generation for maximizing w, and finding them dishearteningly slow, they invented a "subgradient" method which turned out to be highly effective. Subsequently, A.J. Hoffman pointed out that their procedure could be viewed as an application of a method discussed by Agmon [2] and Motzkin and Schoenberg [17] for the solution of linear inequality systems, and Held and Karp presented the procedure from that point of view. We have recently found a sizable body of Russian literature dealing with the theory of subgradient methods, which apparently originated with Shor [23], and has perhaps been best expounded by Poljak [20, 21]; we recommend his work for a discussion of the algorithm in more general spaces and for theoretical results on the rate of convergence.

Despite the mathematical interest of the Agmon-Motzkin-Schoenberg work and that of the Russians, there appears to be little computational experience with the method beyond that reported by Held and Karp. References in the Soviet literature to computational experience are at best cryptic. For example, quoting in full one of the two such references we have found [21]: "The effectiveness of the methods

described here has also been confirmed by practical experience in their application".

In the next section we present the subgradient method as we have been using it. The next three sections give the formulations and computational results for the three types of problems we have tried: the assignment problem, the "noninteger" traveling salesman problem, and a multicommodity network flow problem. In each case the method proved to be effective: convergence seemed fairly rapid. We have not tried to compare it with other methods for overall efficiency as measured, say, by operation counts or running time. Our aim was simply to determine whether subgradient optimization would work at all on some readily accessible problems.

For all of the problems we were able, in one way or another, to establish the provably optimal solutions. In Section 6 we show how this was done, and give some general results connecting the approximate solutions the subgradient procedure obtains with the exact solutions. The last section presents what we think our computational experience adds up to, and what we hope it portends for other kinds of important mathematical programming problems.

2. The subgradient method

Let us first take $S = E^n$, so the problem (1.1) is just

$$\max w(\pi) , \qquad (2.1)$$

where, as before,

$$w(\pi) = \min\{c_k + \pi \cdot v_k : k = 1, ..., K\}.$$
 (2.2)

Throughout this paper we suppose w to be bounded above. Since it is piecewise linear, there then exists at least one point π^* such that $w(\pi^*) = w^* = \max w$.

For any π , the minimum of (2.2) is assumed for at least one value of the index k. Denote by $V(\pi)$ the set of all n-vectors v_k such that the minimum is assumed for the index k:

$$V(\pi) = \{ v_k : c_k + \pi \cdot v_k = w(\pi), k = 1, ..., K \}.$$
 (2.3)

 $V(\pi)$ will usually be a singleton; when it is, the function w is differ-

entiable at π , and the single member of $V(\pi)$ is the gradient $\nabla w(\pi)$. If $V(\pi)$ is not a singleton, then w is not differentiable at π ; but the notion of differentiability has been extended to give us what we need. (The material of the next paragraph is taken from [22, Section 23], with the appropriate changes made for concave, rather than convex, functions.)

The *n*-vector u is a subgradient at $x \in \mathbb{E}^n$ of the concave function f on \mathbb{E}^n if

$$f(y) - f(x) \le u \cdot (y - x) \tag{2.4}$$

for all $y \in E^n$. The set of all subgradients at x is the compact, convex set $\partial f(x)$ called the *subdifferential*. The function f has the directional derivative

$$f'(x; d) = \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{f(x+td) - f(x)}{t}$$

for any $x, d \in E^n$, and

$$f'(x;d) = \min\{d \cdot u : u \in \partial f(x)\} .$$

A necessary and sufficient condition that x maximize f is that $f'(x; d) \le 0$ for all d, or equivalently that $0 \in \partial f(x)$. For the concave function w of (2.2), $\partial w(\pi)$ is the convex hull of $V(\pi)$, and

$$w'(\pi;d) = \min\{d \cdot v \colon v \in V(\pi)\} = \min\{d \cdot v_k \colon c_k + \pi \cdot v_k = w(\pi)\} \ .$$

Fig. 1 sketches contours of the function

$$w(\pi) = \min\{-\pi_1, \pi_1 - 2\pi_2, \pi_1 + 2\pi_2\} .$$

At the point $(2, 1\frac{1}{4})$, $V(\pi)$ is the singleton $\{(-1, 0)\}$; at any point on the ray $\pi_1 < 0$, $\pi_2 = 0$ it is the doubleton $\{(1, 2), (1, -2)\}$; at the origin, which maximizes w, it has three members. The function fails to be differentiable only on three rays issuing from the origin — but that is just where we want to be, so we cannot escape the lack of differentiability.

It is certainly possible to use ∂w to define a direction of steepest ascent for any point which does not solve the problem, and develop a close analogue of the method of steepest ascent for our problem; several such proposals have been made [3, 5, 8, 9]. We take the view, however, that finding the entire set $V(\pi)$ in order to get a locally "best" direction

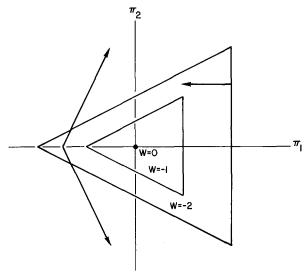


Fig. 1.

is too heavy a computational requirement for the problems of interest to us, and we suppose that, for any π , we obtain only a unique

$$v(\pi) = v_k \in V(\pi) \tag{2.5}$$

as a result of the evaluation (2.2) of $w(\pi)$. This restriction has the result that at a point like $\pi = (1, 1)$ in the above example we cannot obtain a direction of ascent; $w'(\pi; d) < 0$ for each $d \in V(\pi)$. We will, courageously, use the direction $v(\pi)$ nevertheless.

Another respect in which the algorithm below differs from the usual steepest ascent prescription is in making no effort to maximize w in the chosen direction. First, because that would entail a very heavy computational burden; secondly, because the method of choice of direction hardly makes that advisable. Our choice of step length depends only very modestly on the behavior of the function.

The subgradient algorithm

Given $\pi^0 \in \mathbb{E}^n$ and the sequence $\{t_j\}$ of positive scalars, called *step sizes*, define the sequence $\{\pi^j\}$ by

$$\pi^{j+1} = \pi^j + t_j v(\pi^j)$$
 for $j = 0, 1, \dots$ (2.6)

Some theoretical results relating to an appropriate choice of step size for the algorithm have been given. The most general result [20] is that $w(\pi^{j})$ will converge to its maximum w^{*} under merely the conditions

$$t^j \to 0, \quad \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} t_j = \infty \ . \tag{2.7}$$

Alternatively, using the choice

$$t_j = \lambda_j \frac{\hat{w} - w(\pi^j)}{|v(\pi^j)|^2} \tag{2.8}$$

(where $|\cdot|$ denotes the Euclidean norm) with $\hat{w} < \max w(\pi)$, and for each $j, \epsilon < \lambda_j \le 2$ for some fixed $\epsilon > 0$, the sequence $w(\pi^j)$ either converges to \hat{w} , or a point π^j is obtained such that $w(\pi^j) \ge \hat{w}$ (cf. [11, 21]). This choice is almost a direct application of the Agmon-Motzkin-Schoenberg procedure for the determination of a point π such that $w(\pi) \ge \hat{w}$, that is, a point satisfying the inequalities

$$\pi \cdot v_k \ge \hat{w} - c_k$$
, $k = 1, ..., K$ (2.9)

The main idea of the proofs of convergence is this: Let π^* be any point in the optimal set, i.e., $w(\pi^*) = w^*$. Since $v(\pi^j) \in \partial w(\pi^j)$, relation (2.4) says

$$w^* - w(\pi^j) \le v(\pi^j) \cdot (\pi^* - \pi^j)$$
, (2.10)

so that if π^j is not optimal, then the direction $v(\pi^j)$ makes an acute angle with the ray from π^j through π^* . Consequently, if t_j were sufficiently small, the point π^{j+1} would be closer to π^* than was π^j . Thus the sequence approaches the optimal set, although the objective values $w(\pi^j)$ are not monotonic.

There seems to have been no theoretical study of the rate of convergence of the general algorithm determined by (2.7), but Agmon [2] has shown linear convergence of his procedure to a solution of the inequalities (2.9). Poljak [21] has shown that if (2.8) is used with the underestimate \hat{w} replaced by w^* , the (unknown) maximum value of w, then geometric convergence obtains. Oettli [19] has shown geometric convergence of an iterative method based upon subgradient directions for simultaneously approximating both the primal and dual solutions by solving a system of inequalities.

Our practical work has been guided by (2.8); however, an overestimate \overline{w} of the maximum of w was used instead of the recommended underestimate \hat{w} , which would be hard to find. We observed that the results did not seem to depend critically on the exact value of \overline{w} . Of course, it is necessary that $t_j \to 0$, but (2.8) will not accomplish this if used with an overestimate \overline{w} unless we choose a sequence λ_j which tends toward zero. We have tried a number of ways to choose such a sequence and the results are reported on in Sections 3, 4 and 5. Generally (but not always) a good rule is to set $\lambda = 2$ for 2n iterations (where n is a measure of the problem size), and then successively halve both the value of λ and the number of iterations until the number of iterations reaches some threshold value z; λ is then halved every z iterations until the resulting t_j is sufficiently small. We note that this procedure violates the condition $\Sigma t_j = \infty$. It is thus possible to converge to a point not in the optimal set, although in our work that almost never happened. We would particularly point out choice of step size as an area which is imperfectly understood.

In many cases we found that the algorithm terminated in a *finite* number of iterations with an optimum solution (cf. Sections 3 and 5). This seems to occur whenever the optimal set $\{\pi: w(\pi) = w^*\}$ is of full dimension. Since π^j approaches the optimal set and does not stop moving until $v(\pi^j) = 0$, and $v(\pi) = 0$ is the unique subgradient in the interior of the optimal set finite termination is then quite likely; to avoid it you would have to be unlucky enough to hit the boundary of the optimal set infinitely often!

When the constraint set S is a proper subset of E^n , the step (2.6) should be modified to

$$\pi^{j+1} = P_S(\pi^j + t_j v(\pi^j)) \; , \tag{2.11}$$

where P_S is the operator projecting E^n onto S, that is, for any $x \in E^n$, the point $P_S(x)$ is the unique point of S nearest x. Using the convexity of S it is easy to show that when the point π^{j+1} given by (2.6) is closer to a solution π^* than is π^j , the same is true of the point given by (2.11), and that the convergence results given above hold equally well here. The problem studied in Section 5 requires such a projection. Note that here, as is obvious for the unconstrained problem, if $\pi^{j+1} = \pi^j$, then π^j is optimal, for if $v(\pi^j) \neq 0$, then the hyperplane $c_j + v(\pi^j) \cdot \pi = w(\pi^j)$ separates S from the set $\{\pi: w(\pi) \geq w(\pi^j)\}$, and those sets meet at π_j .

3. The assignment problem

Given n jobs, n men, and the n-by-n matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\}$ giving the cost for which man i will do job j, the assignment problem is that of finding a one-to-one assignment of men to jobs that will minimize the total cost. A solution is evidently that set of integers x_{ij} achieving

$$\min \left\{ \sum_{i,r} a_{ir} x_{ir} \colon \sum_{i} x_{ir} = 1, \ \sum_{r} x_{ir} = 1, \ \text{all } x_{ir} \ge 0 \right\}. \tag{3.1}$$

It is well known [18] that among the solutions to the above linear programming problem without the integer requirement will be found one that is integral, so the optimal value sought is also that of the dual of the linear program, namely

$$\max\left\{\sum_{i} \pi_{i} + \sum_{r} \rho_{r} \colon \pi_{i} + \rho_{r} \le a_{ir}\right\} \text{ for all } i, r.$$
 (3.2)

Given π , the ρ which maximizes the dual objective is evidently given by $\rho_r = \min_s [a_{sr} - \pi_s]$, so the dual objective may be written

$$w(\pi) = \sum_{i} \pi_{i} + \sum_{r} \min_{s} \left[a_{sr} - \pi_{s} \right] , \qquad (3.3)$$

a piecewise linear concave function. In order to exhibit w in the form (2.2), define an assignment as a function from 1, ..., n to 1, ..., n: A(r) is the man assigned to job r (at this point we do not require that each job be assigned to a different man). Enumerating all possible assignments $A_1, A_2, ..., A_K$ $(K = n^n)$, set the cost of an assignment

$$c_k = \sum_{r=1}^n a_{A_k(r)r} ,$$

and

$$(v_k)_i = 1 - [\text{number of indices } r \text{ for which } A_k(r) = i].$$
 (3.4)

Then (2.2) holds.

The iterative step (2.6) from π to $\pi + t v(\pi)$ has this description: Given π , assign each job r to a man i who will do it cheapest, as measured by the modified costs $a_{ir} - \pi_i$. Then $1 - v_i(\pi)$ is the number of jobs to which man i has been assigned. If he has been assigned to no job, then π_i is increased; if he has been assigned to more than one job, then π_i is decreased. If $v(\pi^j) = 0$, then A_k assigns exactly one man to each

job. A_k then solves the assignment problem, π^j solves its dual, and the iteration terminates.

In our first experiments, using problems of order $n \le 30$ and randomly generated a_{ij} (uniformly distributed over 1, 2, ..., 200), we were startled to find that the procedure usually terminated in $v(\pi^j) = 0$. The explanation lay in the fact that such problems usually have a unique optimal assignment. The theorem below shows that then the set of optimal π is of full dimension, so that, as argued in Section 2, termination is nearly certain.

Theorem 3.1. If an optimal assignment problem of order n has a unique solution, then the optimal set for its associated problem (3.3) is of dimension n.

Proof. By the strict complementary slackness theorem, there exist \bar{x} optimal for (3.1) and \bar{x} , $\bar{\rho}$ optimal for (3.2) such that $\bar{x}_{ir} = 0$ implies $\bar{\pi}_i + \bar{\rho}_r < a_{ir}$ for all i, r. If the assignment problem has the unique optimal assignment A, then (3.1) has the unique solution $\bar{x}_{ir} = \delta_{i,A(r)}$, so that

for each
$$r$$
, $\min_{s} [a_{sr} - \bar{\pi}_{s}]$ is assumed uniquely at $s = A(r)$.

(3.5)

Let Π be the set of all π such that

$$a_{ir} - \pi_i > a_{A(r), r} - \pi_{A(r)}$$
 for all $r, i \neq r$. (3.6)

By (3.4), $v(\pi) = 0$ for $\pi \in \Pi$. Π is clearly convex and open, and a subset of the optimal set (indeed, it is easy to show that it is precisely the interior of the optimal set). Since (3.5) shows Π to be nonempty, the theorem is proven.

On the other hand, suppose that the optimal assignment is not unique. To simplify a rather complicated discussion, suppose that there are just two optimal assignments, assigning men 1 and 2 indifferently to jobs 1 and 2, so that $a_{11} + a_{22} = a_{21} + a_{12}$. When π is sufficiently close to the optimal set, $\min[a_{sr} - \pi_s]$ will be assumed for s = 1 or 2 when r = 1 or 2. Indeed, for both r = 1 and r = 2, the minimum is assumed for s = 1 if $\pi_2 - \pi_1 < a_{21} - a_{11} = \Delta$, and for s = 2 if $\pi_2 - \pi_1 > \Delta$. Thus $v(\pi)$ has either the form (-1, 1, ...) or (1, -1, ...) in these cases, and also when $\pi_2 - \pi_1 = \Delta$ if ties are settled in the same way for r = 1 as for r = 2.

The procedure drives the sequence π^j toward approximate satisfaction of $\pi_2 - \pi_1 = \Delta$, but $v(\pi^j) = 0$ never happens. The examples reported below do not have unique optimal assignments, and $v(\pi^j) = 0$ was never encountered.

There are many ways to perturb the data of an assignment problem so that the perturbed problem has a unique solution which is an optimal assignment for the unperturbed problem, but even if there were no better way to solve an assignment problem (and we think there is [7, Chapter III]), we would not recommend that approach to ensure termination. The general approach to determining optimality given in Section 6 has worked quite well in our tests and, we think, terminates the algorithm in fewer iterations.

We tested the subgradient method on three large symmetric assignment problems. These problems were obtained by treating certain traveling-salesman problems, the data for which is in the literature, as assignment problems. Problem A42 was derived from the 42-city problem of Dantzig, Fulkerson and Johnson [4]; problem A48 from the 48-city problem of Held and Karp [12]; and problem A57 from the 57-city problem of Karp and Thompson [13]. (The only alteration consisted in changing the diagonal entries from zero to a number so large that no diagonal entry appeared in an assignment.)

The results are summarized in Table 1. There \overline{w} is the upper estimate used in (2.8) to compute the step size, and w^* , as before, is the optimal value. Figs. 3.1 and 3.2 plot, every ten iterations, the least (symbol \square) and greatest (symbol \bullet) value found during the previous ten iterations of the quantities $w(\pi^j)$, $\log_{10}(w^*-w(\pi^j))$, for the problem A42. The last plot clearly shows the linear convergence of $w(\pi^j)$ to w^* . It should be noted that linear convergence is virtually assured by our step-size choices, provided convergence happens at all.

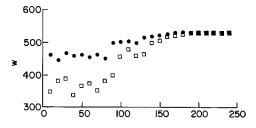
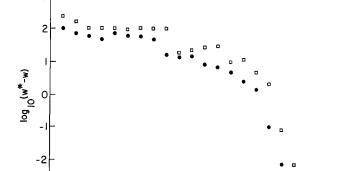


Fig. 3.1. (Problem A42).

Table 1 Assignment problems

	λ	iterations	best w
Problem A42	2	84	454.00
$\bar{w} = 692$	1	42	470.05
$w^* = 532$	1/2	21	512.01
	1/4	10	516.75
	1/8	5	526.78
		$\frac{5}{162}$	
	(then $\lambda \leftarrow$	λ/2 every 5 iteration	us; w = 531.994 at iteration 252)
Problem A48	1	96	9069.14
$\overline{w} = 12196$	1/2	48	9413.79
$w^* = 9870$	1/4	24	9738.26
	1/8	12	9795.85
	1/16	6	9832.83
	1/32	5	9831.57
		191	
	(then $\lambda \leftarrow$	λ/2 every 5 iteration	ns; $w = 9869.91$ at iteration 307)
Problem A57	1	114	9185.62
$\overline{w} = 13696$	1/2	57	10121.73
$w^* = 10553$	1/4	28	10345.09
	1/8	14	10427.58
	1/16	10	10520.43
	•	223	



(then $\lambda \leftarrow \lambda/2$ every 10 iterations; w = 10552.91 at iteration 405)

__ 210

180

Fig. 3.2. (Problem A42).

90

120

150

30

60

4. The non-integer symmetric traveling-salesman problem

Let the $n \times n$ symmetric matrix (c_{ij}) specify the weights assigned to the edges of the complete undirected graph with vertex set $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$. Any subgraph G may be represented by 0-1 variables x_{ij} , i=1,2,...,j-1, j=2,3,...,n, where $x_{ij}=1$ if the arc (ij) is present, and $x_{ij}=0$ otherwise. The weight of any subgraph G is $\sum_{i,j} c_{ij} x_{ij}$. The traveling-salesman problem seeks a tour (a cycle passing through each vertex exactly once) of minimum weight. Dantzig, Fulkerson and Johnson [4] have given an integer linear programming formulation for this problem involving a combinatorial number $O(2^{n-1})$ of constraints. By shrewd choice of some of those, and ad hoc combinatorial arguments, they found the first known solution of the famous "42-city" traveling-salesman problem. Held and Karp [10, 11] considered the same formulation with the 0-1 constraints deleted and replaced by $0 \le x_{ii} \le 1$. The resulting program is an ordinary linear program (still, of course, with $O(2^{n-1})$ constraints) the solution of which provides lower bounds on the solution of the traveling-salesman problem. They showed that this linear program could be cast in the form (2.1), (2.2): Define a 1-tree as a tree (a cycleless connected subgraph spanning the vertex set $\{2, 3, ..., n\}$, together with two distinct edges incident on vertex 1. If the 1-trees are numbered 1, 2, ..., $K = \frac{1}{2}(n-2)(n-1)^{n-2}$, then in (2.2), c_k is the weight of the k^{th} 1-tree and $(v_k)_i = d_{ki} - 2$, where d_{ki} is the degree of vertex *i* in 1-tree *k*.

The results given by Held and Karp [11] include the three traveling-salesman problems we report on here. They used the subgradient algorithm simply with $t_j = 1$, apparently not a bad choice for these problems, since the number of steps they required to reach a reasonable value of w was as low as twice that taken by the present method.

Our results, using the rules given in Section 2, are summarized in Table 2 and Figs. 4.1, 4.2. The data for the three problems, T42, T48 and T57, are those for the assignment problems A42, A48 and A57, cited in Section 3, and the displays are constructed in the same way.

5. The multicommodity maximum flow problem

A directed network consists of a set $N = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ of nodes, a subset A of ordered pairs (i, j) of elements taken from N, called the arcs of the network, and non-negative numbers c_{ij} associated with each

Table 2	
Traveling-salesman	problems

		•		
	λ	iterations	best w	
Problem T42	2	84	642.62	
$\overline{w} = 720$	1	42	689.35	
$w^* = 697$	1/2	21	693.95	
	1/4	10	695.22	
	1/8	5	696.23	
		$\frac{5}{162}$		
	(then λ ←	λ/2 every 5 iteration	ns; $w = 696.99$ at iteration	230)
Problem T48	2	96	9599.14	
$\vec{w} = 12363$	1	48	11143.48	
$w^* = 11444.5$	1/2	24	11299.14	
	1/4	12	11375.72	
	1/8	6	11410.43	
	-, -	186		
	(then $\lambda \leftarrow$ tion 282)	λ/2 every 6 iteration	us; w = 11443.2539 at itera	-
Problem T57	2	114	12505.78	
$\bar{w} = 13151$	1	57	12789.22	
$w^* = 12907.5$	1/2	28	12876.62	
	1/4	14	12898.65	
	1/8	7	12899.14	
	,	$\overline{220}$		
	(then $\lambda \leftarrow$ tion 304)	λ/2 every 7 iteration	us; w = 12907.4297 at itera	l-

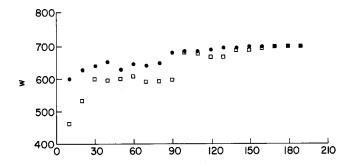


Fig. 4.1. (Problem T42).

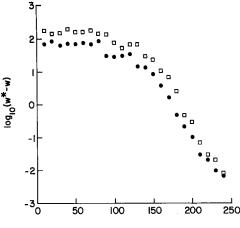


Fig. 4.2. (Problem T42).

arc (i, j), called the *capacity* of arc (i, j). There are 2D special nodes in the network: $s^1, s^2, ..., s^D$ and $t^1, t^2, ..., t^D$. The node s^d is called the *source* for commodity d, and t^d is called the *sink* for commodity d. It is not required that these 2D special nodes be distinct except that $s^d \neq t^d$ for each d = 1, ..., D.

A set of non-negative numbers x_{ij} is called a *simultaneous flow* of commodities if the following are satisfied:

for every
$$(i, j) \in A$$
, $\sum_{d=1}^{D} x_{ij}^{d} \le c_{ij}$, (5.1)

and for every node i, and for every commodity d = 1, 2, ..., D,

$$\sum_{\{j: (i,j) \in A\}} x_{ij}^d - \sum_{\{j: (j,i) \in A\}} x_{ji}^d = \begin{cases} v^d & \text{if } i = s^d \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq s^d, t^d \\ -v^d & \text{if } i = t^d \end{cases}$$
 (5.2)

For each arc (i, j) and for each d, x_{ij}^d represents the amount of flow of commodity d in arc (i, j). The constraints (5.1) express the fact that the different commodities share a scarce resource, arc capacity. We call v^d the *value* of the flow of commodity d. The multicommodity maximum flow problem seeks a simultaneous flow which maximizes $\sum_{d=1}^{D} v^d$. This particular statement of the problem is sometimes called the *node-arc* formulation [7].

In order to exhibit the multicommodity maximum flow problem in the form (1.1), (1.2), we apply a resource-allocation decomposition procedure 1 . In this approach the "scarce resources", are capacities, are allocated among the competing commodities. Let the network have R arcs and let c_r denote the capacity of arc r. Letting π_{rd} be the amount of the capacity of arc r dedicated to the flow of commodity d, we require

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{d=1}^{D} \pi_{rd} = c_r & \text{for all } r, \\ \pi_{rd} \ge 0 & \text{for all } r, d. \end{cases}$$
 (5.3)

Any RD dimensional vector $\pi = \{\pi_{rd}\}$ satisfying (5.3) is called an *allocation*. Clearly, given any allocation, the multicommodity flow problem decouples into D single-commodity flow problems: Let $F_d(\pi)$ be the maximum flow value for commodity d, given the allocation π , and let

$$w(\pi) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} F_d(\pi) . \tag{5.4}$$

Then we seek an allocation π which maximizes $w(\pi)$.

We proceed to show how (5.4) can be written in the form (1.2). A cut q_d for commodity d is a set of arcs of the network whose deletion breaks all paths from s^d to t^d . Relative to the allocation π , the capacity included in q_d is $\sum_{r \in q_d} \pi_{rd}$. Letting Q_d be the set of all cuts for commodity d, the max-flow, min-cut theorem for single commodity flows [7] asserts that

$$F_d(\pi) = \min_{q_d \in Q_d} \sum_{r \in q_d} \pi_{rd} \ ,$$

so that

$$w(\pi) = \min_{q_1 \in \mathcal{Q}_1, \dots, q_D \in \mathcal{Q}_D} \sum_{d} \sum_{r \in q_d} \pi_{rd} \ .$$

Each selection $(q_1, ..., q_D)$ of cuts from $Q_1 \times ... \times Q_D$ defines an RD-dimensional vector $v = \{v_{rd}\}$, where $v_{rd} = 1$ if $r \in q_d$, and is zero otherwise; we suppose the (probably astronomically large) set of all such v

¹ This was suggested to us by R.M. Karp. Subsequently we found G.B. Dantzig had proposed this approach [1].

numbered v_1 , ..., v_K in any fashion. The multicommodity flow problem becomes

$$\max_{\pi} w(\pi)$$
,

where

$$w(\pi) = \min\{\pi \cdot v_k : k = 1, ..., K\}$$
 (5.5)

and

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{d=1}^{D} \pi_{rd} = c_r & (r = 1, 2, ..., R) \\ \pi_{rd} \ge 0 & (r = 1, 2, ..., R; d = 1, 2, ..., D). \end{cases}$$
 (5.6)

This problem is clearly in the form (1.1), (1.2).

Because of the simple nature of the constraints (5.6), the projection operator required for the subgradient procedure (cf. eq. (2.11)) has a particularly simple characterization. Given some $\bar{\pi} = \{\bar{\pi}_{rd}\} \in \mathbb{E}^{RD}$, we must find $\pi = \{\pi_{rd}\}$, minimizing $|\pi - \bar{\pi}|^2$ and satisfying (5.6). Noting that $|\pi - \bar{\pi}|^2 = \sum_r \sum_d (\pi_{rd} - \bar{\pi}_{rd})^2$, we see that we need only find, for each r, the point $(\pi_{r1}, ..., \pi_{rd})$, minimizing $\sum_d (\pi_{rd} - \bar{\pi}_{rd})^2$ under the constraints $\sum_d \pi_{rd} = c_r$, $\pi_{rd} \geq 0$ for all d. In general, we want to solve the quadratic programming problem:

$$\min\{\frac{1}{2}|x-\bar{x}|^2: \Sigma_i x_i = c, \text{ all } x_i \ge 0, j = 1, ..., n\}$$
.

By the Kuhn-Tucker theorem [14], necessary and sufficient conditions that x solve the last-stated problem are the existence of multipliers λ and $v_1, ..., v_n$ such that

$$x_j - \bar{x}_j = v_j - \lambda, \quad v_j \ge 0, \quad x_j v_j = 0 \quad \text{for all } j.$$

If we set

$$x_j(\lambda) = \max\{\bar{x}_j - \lambda, 0\}, \quad v_j(\lambda) = \max\{-(\bar{x}_j - \lambda), 0\},$$

then the Kuhn-Tucker conditions are satisfied, for $x = x(\lambda)$, $v = v(\lambda)$, and we have $x \ge 0$. It is then only necessary to find that value, λ^* of λ for which $\sum_j x_j(\lambda) = c$, and we have the solution. Since $\sum_j x_j(\lambda)$ is non-increasing as a function of λ , piecewise linear, and attains every nonnegative value, this is readily done. Suppose the coordinates of \bar{x}

ordered $\bar{x}_1 \leq \bar{x}_2 \leq ... \leq \bar{x}_n$. The "breakpoint" values of λ between, and outside of, which $\Sigma_j x_j(\lambda)$ is linear, are $\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2, ..., \bar{x}_n$, and its value for $\lambda = \bar{x}_I \ (J=1, 2, ..., n)$ is $\sum_{i=J+1}^n (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_J)$.

 $\lambda = \bar{x}_{J} \ (J = 1, 2, ..., n) \text{ is } \Sigma_{j=J+1}^{n} (\bar{x}_{j} - \bar{x}_{J}).$ Since $\Sigma_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}(\lambda^{*}) = c$ for any $\bar{x}_{J} < \lambda^{*}, x_{J}(\lambda^{*}) = 0$ and $\Sigma_{j=J+1}^{n} (\bar{x}_{j} - \bar{x}_{J})$ > c. Thus $x_{J}(\lambda^{*}) = 0$ for $J = 1, 2, ..., J_{0}$, where

$$J_0 = \max \left\{ J : \frac{\bar{x}_{J+1} + \dots + \bar{x}_n - c}{n - J} > \bar{x}_J \right\} ,$$

and it is merely necessary to choose λ^* such that

$$\sum_{j=J_0+1}^{n} x_j(\lambda^*) = \sum_{j=J_0+1}^{n} (\bar{x}_j - \lambda^*) = c ,$$

i.e.,

$$\lambda^* = \frac{-c + \sum_{j=J_0+1}^{n} \bar{x}_j}{n - J_0} \ .$$

We tried the subgradient procedure on a variety of multicommodity flow problems. For each problem the capacities were randomly chosen integers. The problems "Complete 1" and "Complete 2" represent complete networks (all possible arcs present). "Bipartite" is a network with an essentially bipartite structure. Problem "Test" was especially constructed for testing the program and algorithm. "Random" is a randomly chosen subnetwork of the complete network. "Circle" was constructed so that the arc-chain linear programming formulation [7] would be small — there are only two chains from source to sink for each commodity; thus the total number of columns in the linear program is only 40.

In every case the algorithm terminated because the optimal set of π was fully dimensional. This need not always be the case: we have constructed the problem sketched in Fig. 5.1 whose optimal set contains no open set. The algorithm converged to a very accurate solution, but showed no signs of terminating.

Results on the six problems we studied are summarized in Table 3, and a plot of the value of w for the even-numbered iterations for problem Complete 1 in Fig. 5.2. The data for the first three of these problems will be found in the Appendix to this paper.

Table 3 Multi-commodity flow problems

	λ	iterations	best w	
Problem Random w* = 361 25 nodes 172 arcs 4 commod.	2	7	361	
Problem Complete 1 $w^* = 1924$ 14 nodes 182 arcs 4 commod.	2 1 1/2	28 14 <u>3</u> 45	1888.45 1916.47 1924	
Problem Bipartite $w^* = 4935$ 30 nodes 285 arcs 15 commod.	2 1 1/2	60 30 <u>6</u> 96	4911.81 4931.99 4935	
Problem Test $w^* = 172$ 17 nodes 40 arcs 3 commod.	2	29	172	
Problem Circle $w^* = 38$ 10 nodes 20 arcs 20 commod.	2 1 1/2	40 20 10 70	19.94 30.80 34.01	
		- λ/2 every 10 iten ated at 38 at itera		
Problem Complete 2 $w^* = 19777$ 30 nodes 870 arcs 10 commod.	2 1 1/2 1/4	$ \begin{array}{c} 60 \\ 30 \\ 15 \\ \underline{6} \\ 111 \end{array} $	18138.21 19318.71 19708.84 19777	

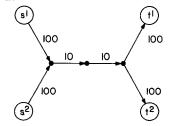
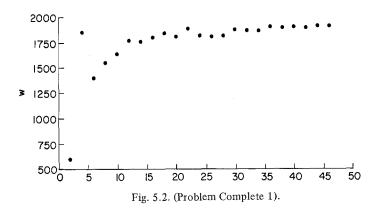


Fig. 5.1. Numbers indicate arc capacities.



6. Establishing optimality

The method of this paper differs from almost all other optimization procedures in not containing, as part of its machinery, an effective test for the optimality of its solutions. Since the point of our experimental work was to see how well the method would approximate optimality, we were obliged to develop such tests in order to evaluate the answers we got. The material of this section is thus a contribution to the art of obtaining the exact solution of a large linear programming problem with the assistance of subgradient optimization, but it is only a small step in that direction. We are content, at this time, to have some sufficient conditions for optimality which are satisfied by the data of the problems we have studied.

We will discuss optimality conditions here only for the unconstrained problem; the exact solutions of our one type of constrained problem – multicommodity flow – were obtained directly (see Section 5). Throughout this section we will study the sequence $\{\pi^j\}$ given by (2.6), supposing only that the step sizes satisfy conditions (2.7). Then we know [20, 21] that

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} w(\pi^j) = w^* = \max w = w(\pi^*) \text{ for some } \pi^*.$$

Our results require that the sequence $\{\pi^j\}$ be bounded. A condition ensuring this is given by

Theorem 6.1. If for all $\pi \neq 0$ there exists v_k (k = 1, ..., K) with $\pi \cdot v_k < 0$, then any sequence $\{\pi^j\}$ satisfying (2.6), (2.8) is bounded.

Proof. If $\{\pi^j\}$ is not bounded, then there is a subsequence on which $|\pi^j| \to \infty$ and a point π which is the limit of $\pi^j/|\pi^j|$ on the subsequence. Now on the subsequence

$$\min_{k} \left[\frac{c_k}{|\pi^j|} + \frac{\pi^j}{|\pi^j|} \cdot v_k \right] = \frac{w(\pi^j)}{|\pi^j|} \to 0$$

(since $w(\pi^j) \to w^*$), so we have $\pi \cdot v_k \ge 0$ for all k, which proves the theorem.

The condition just established is readily checked for the traveling-salesman problem. The condition does not hold for the assignment problem in the formulation of Section 3, because $w(\pi)$ is unchanged if $\pi = (\pi_1, ..., \pi_n)$ is replaced by $(\pi_1 + \alpha, ..., \pi_n + \alpha)$ for any α ; but if π is normalized by requiring always $\pi_1 = 0$, say, then the condition is easily checked.

To shorten notation below, we shall write

$$v^{j} = v(\pi^{j}) = v_{k(j)}, \quad c^{j} = c_{k(j)},$$

where k(j) is the index chosen at step j in the calculation (2.2) of $w(\pi^{j})$. Note that the infinite sequences $\{c^{j}\}, \{v^{j}\}$ have only finitely many distinct members.

Writing the problem (2.2) as the linear programming problem

$$\max \{z\colon z - \pi \boldsymbol{\cdot} v_k \le c_k \text{ for all } k\} \ ,$$

we find its dual to be the problem

$$\min \left\{ \sum c_k y_k : \text{ all } y_k \ge 0, \sum y_k = 1, \sum -v_k y_k = 0 \right\}. \tag{6.1}$$

To the extent that the subgradient algorithm is clever about its choices v^{J} of subgradients, we can expect the important part of the above problem to be represented by the choices v^{J} , v^{J+1} , ... for sufficiently large J. Thus for integers $J < J^*$ we define the linear programming problem $P(J, J^*)$ as:

$$\min \left\{ \sum_{j=J}^{J^*} c^j y_j \colon \text{all } y_j \ge 0, \ \sum_{J}^{J^*} y_j = 1, \ \sum_{J}^{J^*} - v^j y_j = 0 \right\}.$$

Lemma 6.2. For any J there exists J^* so that $P(J, J^*)$ is feasible.

Proof. If not, then the convex hull of the finite set $\{v^J, v^{J+1}, ...\}$ does not contain the origin. The nearest point $d \neq 0$ to the origin in that set is such that $d \cdot v^j \geq |d|^2$ for all $j \geq J$, so for j > J

$$d \boldsymbol{\cdot} \pi^j = d \boldsymbol{\cdot} \left[\pi^J + \sum_{i=J}^{j-1} t_i v^i \right] \geq d \boldsymbol{\cdot} \pi^J + |d|^2 \sum_{i=J}^{j-1} t_i \; ,$$

which tends to ∞ as $j \to \infty$, contradicting the boundedness assumption on $\{\pi^j\}$.

Theorem 6.3. For any J there exists J^* so that the solution of $P(J, J^*)$ solves the linear programming problem (6.1).

Proof. Let \overline{K} be the set of all indices k actually chosen in the calculation of w in (2.2) for some $j, J \leq j \leq J^*$. For J^* sufficiently large, K contains all the indices that will ever be chosen, and $P(J, J^*)$ is feasible. Define the function \overline{w} by

$$\overline{w}(\pi) = \min\{c_k + \pi \cdot v_k \colon k \in \overline{K}\} \ .$$

Then, just as for the original problem, the problem $\max \overline{w}(\pi)$ is the dual of $P(J, J^*)$, and since the latter is feasible, the former has a finite solution. Thus the subgradient algorithm applied to \overline{w} , started at $\pi = \pi^J$, yields a sequence $\{\overline{\pi}^{J+1}, ...,\}$ such that

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \overline{w}(\overline{\pi}^i) = \max \overline{w} = \text{Value} [P(J, J^*)],$$

the left-hand equality expressing the convergence of the algorithm for \overline{w} , and the right-hand equality the duality theorem for linear programming. But the restriction to \overline{K} has in no way altered the choices made by the algorithm; $\overline{\pi}^j = \pi^j$ and $\overline{w}(\overline{\pi}^j) = w(\pi^j)$ for $j \ge J$, so

$$\lim_{j\to\infty} w(\pi^j) = \text{Value}\left[P(J, J^*)\right].$$

Since the left-hand term is a lower bound for the value of the problem (6.1) and the right-hand term is an upper bound for it, the theorem is proved.

The theorems just proved were not used in a systematic way to determine the optimal values of the functions w for the various problems reported above. The theorems were, in fact, developed later. We give two examples of the ad hoc means actually used to determine optimal solutions for those problems for which the algorithm did not terminate.

We ran the algorithm on problem A42 until we felt it could not do much more: At 319 iterations, w reached 531.9939 (the optimal value must, of course, be an integer). At that point we calculated all the reduced costs $a_{ir} - \pi_i - \rho_r$ (they are nonnegative by construction) and found that we could clearly distinguish those that were nearly zero (less than 10^{-4}) from the remainder (all greater than 0.1). There were 48 of the former, as against a minimum possible number of 42, hence only six men and six jobs not decisively assigned at this stage. It was a simple matter to find, by hand, a one-one assignment using only the nearly zero positions, which was thus a "nearly optimal" assignment. Its cost turned out to be 532, so it was indeed optimal.

Solutions of the traveling-salesman problems were found using Theorem 6.3 above, but in the special way described here for T42. We had noticed in all our runs long series of steps in which successive subgradients satisfied the relation $v^j = v^{j+1}$ in all but a few components, so we continued the algorithm to 1850 iterations and an objective value of 696.999985, where we found $v^{1850} + v^{1851} = 0$. The corresponding costs c^j were 688 and 706. Since $\frac{1}{2}[688 + 706] = 697$, we have established the optimality of the resulting "fractional solution" $\frac{1}{2}v^{1850} + \frac{1}{2}v^{1851}$. (Dantzig, Fulkerson and Johnson [4] exhibited a fractional solution of value 698 but no optimal solution.)

7. Conclusions

Our results show that subgradient optimization is effective for approximating the maximum of certain piecewise linear concave functions; to us, it is surprisingly effective. It has performed well on large optimization problems of the kind normally encountered in applications of decomposition to combinatorics — problems in which the Dantzig—Wolfe decomposition algorithm, for example, tends to "tail off" and require an excessive number of iterations. Naturally we hope that it will perform as well when used on more general linear programming problems of decomposable structure, but at this point we cannot

say. Neither do we know whether the algorithm suggested by the results of the previous section (the building up of the "core problem" $P(J, J^*)$ by the subgradient method, and the solution of the core problem by, say, the simplex method) will be generally efficient; that procedure, and variants such as the "Boxstep" procedure of Marsten and Blankenship [16], need much more exploration.

When "resource allocation" decomposition can be used, as we did with the multicommodity flow problem, then a feasible solution is always at hand; but of course, when the procedure is applied to the dual of the problem of interest — as above with the assignment and traveling-salesman problems — one has, unless the procedure "luckily" terminates, only an approximation to the values of optimal dual variables and an approximation (a lower bound) to the optimal objective value. Indeed, the procedure has shown its practical usefulness so far in just that way: in making branch-and-bound practical in the Held—Karp solution of traveling-salesman problems [11], and the work of Fisher and Shapiro in integer programming [6]. We feel, however, that in any particular problem there will be sufficient structure to permit the construction of an optimal, or nearly optimal, solution to the original problem without great difficulty.

Briefly, we think that subgradient optimization holds promise for alleviating some of the computational difficulties of large-scale optimization. It is no panacea, though, and needs careful work to make it effective, but its basic simplicity and its wide range of applicability indicate that it deserves to be more widely studied.

Appendix

An established canon of research in the physical sciences is that experiments must be designed and described so as to be reproducible. There is no reason for the mathematical sciences to be less demanding; it should be possible for the reader of a paper to duplicate every finding, right down to the least digit, provided he has access to the same systems. (An exception must be made for one source of error in computational experiments: the execution time of a program will depend on other jobs being run concurrently, and we do not think it feasible in general to eliminate or control that source.) The primary requirements are a *complete* description of the algorithm and problem data. Of these, the latter is often violated. This is regrettable, since it has led to a

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Table A1 Capacities for Random

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1173 644 646 647 641 641 641 641 641 641 641 641 641 641	
68 125 125 136 90 90 162 110 103 110 110 110 110 111 111 111 111	
1113 1832 1833 1833 1833 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 1	
56 52 11 12 141 141 151 164 173 173 173 173 173 173 173 173	
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7 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	
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1875 1875 1876 1876 1876 1876 1877 1870

123 34 34 123 125 125 20 100 110 1145 129 88 1145 129 88 1160 1

Capacities for Complete 2 Table A2

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71	0	35	55	69	57	58	82	62	98	5	4	60	84
44	30	0	18	14	19	11	34	30	82	54	71	17	66
29	59	81	0	6 7	97	45	63	18	8	80	88	64	33
72	84	36	81	0	6	64	74	41	7	91	81	31	7
73	73	81	.20	16	0	80	74	80	61	26	94	5	. 39
86	78	64	90	61	1	0	71	8	5	33	35	47	71
57	9	49	62	20	72	67	0	28	79	66	61	40	75
62	52	16	55	67	20	16	17	0	26	93	51	11	12
60	30	55	73	21	67	93	6 5	97	0	64	54	6	94
0	15	88	38	20	21	10	41	49	41	0	69	37	5.0
30	0	29	66	28	25	23	56	19	28	67	0	62	51
20	51	0	54	89	56	40	63	70	98	35	15	0 -	58
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1 2 3 4 11 12 13 14

Table A3
Capacities for Complete 1

dearth of "benchmark" problems in the literature, which in turn has made it almost impossible to compare algorithms.

We have described the algorithm used in our experiments in about as much detail as possible short of giving the computer programs. Our calculations were done variously on the IBM 360, Models 91 and 67 at the IBM Research Center, Yorktown Heights, using the FORTRAN and PL/I languages. Sources of the data for the assignment and traveling-salesman problems were cited at the end of Section 3. We have found no large multi-commodity flow problems in the literature, and offer here the data for the first three such problems we generated. For reasons of space, we have omitted the remaining three; they are available from the authors.

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