

# Monge and feasibility sequences in general flow problems

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## Abstract

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In a feasible transportation problem, there is always an ordering of the arcs such that greedily sending maximal flow on each arc in turn, according to that order, yields a feasible solution. We characterize those transportation graphs for which there exists a *single* order which is good for all feasible problems with the same graph. The characterizations are shown to be intimately related to Monge sequences and to totally balanced matrices. We describe efficient algorithms which, for a given graph, construct such order whenever it exists. For a transportation problem with corresponding  $m \times n$  bipartite graph with  $e$  arcs, we show how to generate such an order in  $O(\min(e \log e, mn))$  steps. Using that order, the feasibility question for any given supply and demand vectors can be determined in  $O(m+n)$  time.

We also extend the characterization and algorithms to general minimum cost flow problems in which the underlying graph is nonbipartite, and the sources and destinations are not predetermined. We generalize the theory of Monge sequences too to such problems.

**Keywords.** Network flow, greedy algorithms, Monge sequences, totally balanced matrices, chordal bipartite graphs, transshipment problems.

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## 1. Introduction

The transportation problem is one of the fundamental problems of combinatorial optimization. It can be stated as follows: A commodity available at certain sources must be shipped to satisfy demands at some destinations. Shipping costs per unit from each source to each destination are known. Given the amount of commodity available at each source and the amount required at each destination, the problem is to determine how much to send from each source to each destination so that all supplies and demands are met and the total shipping cost incurred is minimum. When not every source can ship to every destination, we say that the problem is *restricted* and call the excluded source-destination pairs *inadmissible*. For a recent survey on algorithms for transportation and related network flow problems, see [3].

The greedy algorithm has the obvious advantage that it is very fast (its number of operations is at most linear in the problem dimensions), but in general its output sends the maximum possible amount of flow directly from the source to the destination, and updates the supplies and demands accordingly. The “north-west corner rule” and the “minimum  $C_{ij}$  rule” are two well-known examples of such a greedy algorithm (see, e.g., [17]). We assume that the greedy algorithm scans the arcs in a predetermined order which is independent of the supplies and demands. In principle, every permutation of the admissible source-destination pairs can be used by that algorithm.

The greedy algorithm has the obvious advantage that it is very fast (its number of operations is at most linear in the problem dimensions), but in general its output is insufficient. Depending on the permutation and on the supplies and demands, the solution produced by the greedy algorithm may be optimal, feasible, or infeasible. In restricted problems, a permutation may produce an infeasible solution even when the problem is feasible. Our interest here is in those cost matrices for which there exists a *single* permutation which resolves the feasibility issue *for all* possible supplies and demands. Namely, the greedy algorithm with that permutation produces a feasible solution whenever the supplies and demands are such that the problem is feasible. We call such a permutation a *feasibility sequence*. Similarly, if the greedy algorithm using a permutation produces an optimal solution for every feasible problem, we call such permutation an *optimality sequence*. If the sources and destinations can be reordered so that the source-destination pair  $(i, j)$  precedes  $(k, l)$  in the permutation whenever  $i \leq k$  and  $j \leq l$ , we say that the permutation is *lexicographic*. For example, the permutation used by the “north-west corner rule” is lexicographic.

There are several reasons to study those problems. From the practical point of view, the availability of an optimality sequence is very useful whenever one needs to solve several problems with the same costs, but with varying supplies and demands: Given an optimality sequence, each problem is solvable in linear time. While randomly chosen cost matrices very seldom admit such sequences, “real” problems often tend to have that property (see the ensuing literature survey).

- Optimality sequences for transportation problems have been studied in the past. Hoffmann [19] proved that for the cost matrix of an unrestricted problem, a sequence of optimality sequences (and hence can be solved greedily) have been studied in the past. Some examples from the operations research literature include the assignment problem [14], warehousing problems [19], scheduling problems [4, 18] and transportation problems [6, 21]. In computational geometry and robotics, totally monotone matrices, which admit lexicographic optimality sequences turn out to be totally monotone. Recently, interest in the question of speeding up dynamic programming has rekindled, due to important applications in molecular biology and string matching. Several studies have shown that in those applications, a certain convexity (or concavity) condition holds in the costs matrix, which allows dynamic programming to be sped up considerably (see, e.g., [9]). In particular, that condition implies the existence of a lexicographic optimality sequence.
- The question of constructing an optimality sequence for a given matrix have been studied by Chandrasekaran [7], for the special case where the sequence is lexicographic (see also [15]). Alon, Cossarès, Hochbaum and Shamir [5] provided an algorithmic solution of a lexicographic optimality sequence for a given matrix under which a permutation is a feasibility sequence for a given transportation network. The conditions are closely related to the Monge condition for optimality sequences.
- In Section 3, we give two necessary and sufficient conditions under which a permutation is a feasibility sequence for a given transportation network. The conditions are closely related to the Monge condition for optimality sequences.
  - Section 4 extends the theory of feasibility and optimality sequences beyond the nonbipartite graphs, which is achieved by considering shortest paths rather than direct arcs between sources and destinations. We characterize the flow problems which admit optimality sequences, and those which admit feasibility sequences. The bipartite graphs, which is achieved by defining shortest cost flow problem. This requires first an appropriate generalization of the definitions of such sequences in transportation problem, to any uncapacitated minimum cost flow problem. This relation is a feasibility sequence for a given transportation network. The condition is a feasibility sequence for a given transportation network.
  - In Section 5 we point out some interesting connections between feasibility and optimality sequences in general flow problems.

graph admits a feasibility sequence if and only if it is chordal bipartite (or, equivalently, if and only if its adjacency matrix is totally balanced). Using this relation, we show that a feasibility sequence for a transportation matrix can be constructed in  $O(\min(e \log e, mn))$  steps. We also show that whenever a feasibility sequence exists, a lexicographic one exists, and in that case the greedy algorithm can find a solution in *optimum* time. Finally, we generalize these results to the nonbipartite case.

## 2. Preliminaries

Let  $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$  be a bipartite graph whose two vertex sets are  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , where  $|V_1| = n$ ,  $|V_2| = m$  and  $|E| = e$ . Denote by  $F = V_1 \times V_2 - E$  the set of *inadmissible arcs*. Let  $C$  be an  $n \times m$  transportation cost matrix corresponding to the graph. For an arc  $(i, j) \in E$ ,  $C_{ij}$  is the finite, nonnegative cost of shipping each unit on that arc. When arc  $(i, j)$  is inadmissible, we also set  $C_{ij} = \infty$ . The pair  $(G, C)$  is called a *transportation network*. (Note that the notation  $(G, C)$  is redundant: All the information on the graph  $G$  is contained in  $C$ , since  $(i, j) \in E$  if and only if  $C_{ij} < \infty$ . We include  $G$  explicitly since it will be useful later.)

Denote by  $P(C, a, b)$  the uncapacitated transportation problem with the cost matrix  $C$  and supply and demand vectors  $a$  and  $b$  respectively. I.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \sum_{(i, j) \in E} C_{ij} x_{ij}, \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{\{j \mid (i, j) \in E\}} x_{ij} = a_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \sum_{\{i \mid (i, j) \in E\}} x_{ij} = b_j, \quad j = 1, \dots, m, \\ & x_{ij} \geq 0, \quad (i, j) \in E. \end{aligned} \tag{P(C, a, b)}$$

We assume throughout that the supplies and demands are nonnegative, that  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = \sum_{j=1}^m b_j$ , and that  $n \leq m$ . We also assume that the underlying undirected graph is connected, so in particular  $e \geq m$ . We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are *feasible* for the network if  $P(C, a, b)$  has a feasible solution. If  $F \neq \emptyset$  we say that the problem is *restricted*. An obvious necessary condition for feasibility of  $P(C, a, b)$  is that  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = \sum_{j=1}^m b_j$ . For unrestricted problems, this condition is also sufficient. However, in restricted problems, it is not immediate to determine feasibility.

Let  $S$  be a permutation of the admissible arcs. For a problem  $P(C, a, b)$ , the *greedy algorithm* maximizes each variable in turn, according to the order given in  $S$ . A formal description is the following. (Initially,  $x_{ij} = 0$  for all  $(i, j) \in E$ .)

**Algorithm GREEDY( $S$ );**  
**begin**

**Theorem 2.1.** (a) (Chomicki [19], Shamir and Dietrich [28])  $S$  is an optimality sequence for  $(G, C)$  if and only if it is a Monge sequence for  $C$ .  
(b) (Alon et al. [5], Shamir and Dietrich [28]) The optimality sequence problem is solvable in  $O(n \log n)$ .

Condition (1) depends only on the graph structure, and involves 4-tuples  $i, j, k, l$  which contain one inadmissible arc. In 4-tuples containing two or more inadmissible arcs, no conditions are imposed. Condition (2) depends on the finite costs, and it involves only 4-tuples in which all arcs are admissible. (Formally, the two conditions could be stated together by requiring that for every 4-tuple  $i, j, k, l$ ,  $C_{ij} + C_{kl} \leq C_{il} + C_{kj}$ , where for sums involving infinity one defines  $\infty + a = \infty$  for every finite  $a$  [28].) The following theorem summarizes the knowledge on the optimality sequence problem in transportation networks:

Following condition is satisfied:  
 For every  $i, k \in V_1$  and  $j, l \in V_2$ , such that  $(i, j), (i, l)$  and  $(k, j)$  are admissible:  
 (1) If  $(k, l)$  is admissible then  $(i, j)$  does not precede both  $(i, l)$  and  $(k, j)$  in  $S$ .  
 (2) If  $(k, l)$  is admissible and  $(i, j)$  precedes  $(i, l)$  and  $(k, j)$  in  $S$ , then  $C_{ij} + C_{kl} \leq C_{il} + C_{kj}$ .

When the algorithm terminates, a feasible solution has been obtained if and only if all supplies and demands have been reduced to zero. In general, termination without a feasible solution does not imply infeasibility. Obviously, for every feasible problem there exists a permutation  $S$  which gives a feasible solution. (In fact, there exists one which also gives an optimal solution.) We focus our attention here on net-works for which there is a single permutation which is good for all supply and de-mands vectors. More precisely, call a permutation  $S$  of the admissible arcs an *optimality sequence* (respectively, a *feasibility sequence*) for the network  $(G, C)$  if it determines a feasible pair  $a, b$  of supply and demand vectors, GRIDDY( $S$ ) provides an optimal (respectively, feasible) solution to  $P(C, a, b)$ . In particular, termination of GRIDDY( $S$ ) with an infeasible solution implies the infeasibility of the problem. Obviously, every optimality sequence is a feasibility sequence, but the converse is not necessarily true. The optimality (respectively, feasibility) sequence problem is the following: Given a transportation network, construct an optimality (respec-tively, feasibility) sequence for it or determine that no such sequence exists.

Our questions here are motivated by Hoffmann's theory of Monge sequences. A permutation  $S$  of the admissible arcs is called a *Monge sequence* for  $C$  if the fol-lowing conditions hold:

- 1. Every arc  $(i, j)$  with  $i < j$  satisfies  $c_{ij} \leq c_{ik} + c_{kj}$  for all  $k$  with  $i < k < j$ .
- 2. Every arc  $(i, j)$  with  $i > j$  satisfies  $c_{ij} \geq c_{ik} + c_{kj}$  for all  $k$  with  $i > k > j$ .

It is well known that a permutation  $S$  is a Monge sequence for  $C$  if and only if the corresponding vector  $a = (a_i)_{i \in V}$  is a *Monge vector*, i.e., if and only if  $a_i + a_j \leq a_k + a_l$  whenever  $i < j < k < l$ . It is also known that every Monge vector is a feasible solution to  $P(C, a, b)$  for any feasible vector  $b$ . Thus, a permutation  $S$  is a Monge sequence for  $C$  if and only if GRIDDY( $S$ ) provides a feasible solution to  $P(C, a, b)$ .

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    end
    $^s x - ^s q \rightarrow ^s q
    a' \rightarrow a - x
    x^s \rightarrow \min \{ a^s, b^s \}
begin let $! = (r,s).
For ? = 1, ..., e do

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### 3. Feasibility sequences

We first turn to the problem of characterizing feasibility sequences: Given a cost matrix  $C$ , define its *skeleton matrix*  $\bar{C}$  to be the matrix obtained by replacing all the finite costs in  $C$  by ones. I.e.,  $\bar{C}_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $(i, j) \in E$ , and  $\bar{C}_{ij} = \infty$  if and only if  $(i, j) \in F$ . The skeleton matrix of a transportation graph is defined analogously. The following theorem follows from Theorem 2.1(a):

**Theorem 3.1.** *S is a feasibility sequence for a bipartite graph G if and only if it is a Monge sequence for its skeleton matrix  $\bar{C}$ .*

Since the existence of a feasibility sequence depends only on the structure of the underlying graph and not on the finite costs (i.e., only on condition (1) in the definition of a Monge sequence), we shall call  $S$  a feasibility sequence *for the graph G*. We shall also denote the feasibility problem  $P(G, a, b)$  to emphasize its dependence on the graph structure only.

Using Theorem 3.1, one can apply the algorithms of [28] to  $\bar{C}$  in order to solve the feasibility sequence for a given transportation graph. With such a sequence, a feasible solution for every feasible instance of problem  $P(G, a, b)$  can be constructed in  $O(e)$  steps by the greedy algorithm. We shall improve upon both of these results in Section 5.

Interestingly, even by severely limiting the range of supply and demand vectors for which an optimality (or feasibility) sequence is required to give the right answer, one cannot obtain a larger class of greedily solvable networks. This fact is stated in the following theorem, whose proof is similar to that of Theorem 2.1(a) and is omitted:

**Proposition 3.2.** *Let  $(G, C)$  be a transportation network and let  $S$  be a permutation of its admissible arcs. The following are equivalent:*

- (a) *S is an optimality sequence.*
- (b) *For every feasible  $(0, 1)$  supply and demand vectors, GREEDY(S) gives an optimal solution.*
- (c) *For every feasible  $(0, 1)$  supply and demand vectors with only two coordinates equal to one in each of them, GREEDY(S) gives an optimal solution.*

One consequence of this proposition is for the perfect matching problem: The bipartite matching problem (see, e.g., [3]) can be viewed as a transportation problem on a bipartite graph, where the supplies and demands are all ones. A perfect matching exists if and only if that transportation problem is feasible. Let us call a sequence  $S$  of the admissible arcs a *perfect sequence* for a bipartite graph  $G$  if for every induced subgraph on which a perfect matching exists, GREEDY( $S$ ) gives a perfect matching. Since assigning supply or demand zero to a vertex is equivalent to removing it from the problem, the above observation implies the following.

$$\min \sum_{(i,j) \in E} C_{ij} x_{ij}, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sum_{(k,l) \in E} x_{kl} - \sum_{(k,l) \in E} x_{lk} = 1, \\ \quad k \in A_0, \\ \quad q_i = \sum_{j \in A_+} x_{ij}, \quad i \in A_+, \\ \quad 0 = \sum_{j \in A_-} x_{ij}, \quad i \in A_-, \end{array} \right. \quad (i,j) \in E.$$

We first remove the restriction that the graph is bipartite, but assume that the sources and destinations are specified: For a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$  with arc costs  $C$ , let  $V = V_+ \cup V_- \cup V^0$  be a partition of the vertices. We also write  $G_+$  and  $G_-$  to emphasize the underlying partition  $\pi$ .  $V_+$  and  $V_-$  are the sources and destinations in  $V$ , respectively. Given a pair of nonnegative supply and demand vectors  $a = (a_i, i \in V_+)$  and  $b = (b_j, j \in V_-)$ , with  $\sum_{j \in V_-} a_i = \sum_{j \in V_-} b_j$ , a minimum cost flow problem is determined, as follows:

In the transposition problem discussed above, the underlying graph is bipartite and the vertices are partitioned into sources and destinations. An interesting question is whether the notions of optimality and feasibility sequences could be extended to more general flow problems. We show below that this can be done, thereby extending the theory to general minimum cost flow problems. We assume throughout that the problems are uncapacitated.

#### 4. Nonbipartite problems

**Corollary 3.3.** A bipartite graph  $G$  admits a perfect sequence if and only if it admits a feasible sequence. Moreover,  $S$  is a perfect sequence for  $G$  if and only if it is a feasible sequence for  $G$ .

Given  $G_\pi$  and  $C$ , define a related bipartite graph  $G' = G'_\pi = (V^+, V^-, E')$  by  $E' = (V^+ \times V^-) \cap E^t$ . The costs  $C'$  in  $G'$  are the cheapest path costs in  $G$ , as defined above. Clearly  $P(C', a, b)$  is a transportation problem, and it is easy to observe that one can solve it to obtain an optimal solution for the original problem. This observation allows us to reduce the nonbipartite case to the bipartite case and apply to it the results for optimality and feasibility sequences for transportation. Hence we can conclude:

**Proposition 4.1.** *Given a directed graph  $G_\pi$  (not necessarily bipartite) with arc costs  $C$  and specified sets of sources and destinations,  $S$  is an optimality sequence for  $(G_\pi, C)$  if and only if it is a Monge sequence for  $(G'_\pi, C')$ . Moreover,  $S$  is a feasibility sequence for  $G_\pi$  if and only if it is a Monge sequence for  $\bar{C}'$ .*

In the following corollaries, denote  $N = |V|$ ,  $e = |E|$ ,  $n = |V^+|$ ,  $m = |V^-|$  and  $\tilde{e} = |E'|$ . Again, without loss of generality we assume  $n \leq m$ . We denote by  $SP(k, l)$  the complexity of solving a single-source shortest path problem on a graph with  $k$  vertices and  $l$  arcs.

**Corollary 4.2.** *Under the conditions of Proposition 4.1, the optimality sequence problem for  $(G_\pi, C)$  is solvable in  $O(n \cdot SP(N, e) + \tilde{e}n \log m)$  steps.*

**Proof.** Constructing the graph  $G'$  can be done by finding  $n$  shortest path trees, one from each of the sources in  $G$ . A Monge sequence in  $(G', C')$  can subsequently be found in  $O(\tilde{e}n \log m)$  steps [28].  $\square$

For example, by using the algorithm of [13],  $SP(N, e) = O(e + N \log N)$ , which gives an overall complexity of  $O(en + nN \log N + \tilde{e}n \log m)$  steps. (When  $n = \Omega(m)$  and  $G'$  is very dense, one can improve slightly upon the complexity in the above corollary by using Fredman's all-pairs shortest path algorithm [12] for the preprocessing step.) In particular, when  $n + m = N$  and  $G$  is not very sparse ( $e = \Omega(N \log N)$ ), this gives  $O(en + \tilde{e}n \log m)$  steps. Not surprisingly, the transformation of the graph may be the most costly operation, for dense networks with relatively few supply and demand vertices. However, unless  $e = o(\tilde{e})$  this algorithm is still faster than the best known strongly polynomial algorithm for solving a single uncapacitated minimum cost flow problem, with fixed supply and demand vectors, which takes  $O(N \log N(e + N \log N))$  steps [24].

**Corollary 4.3.** *Under the conditions of Proposition 4.1, the feasibility sequence problem for  $G_\pi$  is solvable in  $O(ne + \tilde{e}n \log m)$  steps.*

**Proof.** The proof follows from Theorem 3.1, Proposition 4.1 and Corollary 4.2. The slight improvement in complexity is in the preliminary step: Computing the con-

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$$S = S \cup \{(i, j) \mid i \in V_+, j \in V_-, (i, j) \in E\}.$$

by this partition, i.e.,

Proof. Every supply function  $d$  induces a partition  $\pi$  of  $V$  into  $V_+ = V_+ \cup V_- \cup V_0$ , and a fixed partition problem  $(G, C)$ . Let  $S$  be the subschedule of  $S$  induced

Proposition 4.4.  $S$  is an optimality superschedule for  $(G, C)$  if and only if it is a Monge superschedule for  $(G, C)$ .

Note the requirement that all four vertices be distinct. This requirement was not necessary in previous versions of the Monge conditions [19, 28], since the two sets of vertices corresponds to the rows and the columns were by definition disjoint. In fact, since a superschedule  $S$  cannot contain pairs  $(i, i)$  we could omit the explicit requirement of distinctness.

( $i, j$ ) is also connected and  $C_{ij} + C_{kl} \leq C_{il} + C_{kj}$ .

For every 4-tuple  $i, j, k, l$  of distinct vertices, if each of the pairs  $(i, j)$ ,

Recall that  $C$  is the matrix of shortest path costs in  $G$ . Define  $S$  to be a Monge superschedule for  $(G, C)$  if it satisfies the following condition:

every supply function only a fraction of the pairs in  $S$  is relevant for the greedily supersequecne for this problem. (We call  $S$  a

algorithm.) A feasibility superschedule is defined analogously.

Suppose to distinguish it from the previous cases, and to emphasize that for every supply function which it is feasible, GREEDY( $S$ ) terminates with an optimal solution. (We call  $S$  a feasible, GREEDY( $S$ ) terminates with an optimal solution. (We call  $S$  a

algorithm which picks the pairs according to their order in  $S$ .  $S$  is called an optimality superschedule for the pairs  $\{(i, j) \mid (i, j) \in E\}$ , denote by GREEDY( $S$ ) that

$j$ . For a permutation  $S$  of the pairs  $\{(i, j) \mid (i, j) \in E\}$ , denote by GREEDY( $S$ ) that

the algorithm sends a maximum amount of flow along the cheapest path from  $i$  to the checks if  $i$  is a source and  $j$  is a destination. In case both answers are positive,

The greedy algorithm for problem  $P(C, d)$  repeatedly picks a connected pair  $(i, j)$ ,

$$x_{ij} \geq 0, \quad (i, j) \in E.$$

$$\text{s.t. } \sum_{\{j \mid (i, j) \in E\}} x_{ij} - \sum_{\{k \mid (k, i) \in E\}} x_{ki} = d_i, \quad i \in V, \quad (P(C, d))$$

$$\min \sum_{(i, j) \in E} C_{ij} x_{ij},$$

minimum cost flow problem  $P(C, d)$ . A formulation of the problem is the following: where  $d_i$  is the supply (demand) at vertex  $i$  if  $d_i > 0$  ( $d_i < 0$ ). This determines a source and destinations. In this case, a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$  with arc costs  $C$  is given. A supply function  $d$  is an assignment of values to the vertices  $d_v, v \in V$ , We now consider the more general case, in which there is no fixed partition into

nectivity from each vertex in  $V_+$  can be done in  $O(e)$  steps by depth-first search, for a total of  $O(ne)$  steps of computing  $C$ .  $\square$

If  $S$  is a Monge supersequence for  $(G, C)$ , then by definition  $\tilde{S}$  is a Monge sequence for  $(G'_n, C')$ , hence by [19, 28], it is an optimality sequence for problem  $(G'_n, C')$ . In particular, if  $S$  is a Monge supersequence then for every feasible supply function, GREEDY( $S$ ) terminates with an optimal solution. The proof of the converse is similar to that of the corresponding claims in [19, 27].  $\square$

**Corollary 4.5.**  *$S$  is a feasibility supersequence for  $G$  if and only if it is a Monge supersequence for  $(G, \bar{C})$ .*

**Corollary 4.6.** *Let  $G(V, E)$  be a directed graph with arc costs  $C$  where  $N = |V|$ ,  $e = |E|$ , and  $e' = |E^t|$ . The optimality supersequence problem for  $(G, C)$  is solvable in  $O(e'N \log N)$  steps. In particular, the feasibility supersequence problem is solvable in the same complexity.*

**Proof.** The proof is similar to that of Corollaries 4.2 and 4.3. Here one needs to find a Monge sequence for  $(G', C')$ , where  $G' = (V, V, E')$  satisfies  $(i, j) \in E'$  if and only if  $i \neq j$  and  $(i, j) \in E^t$ , and  $C'_{ij}$  is the cost of the shortest path from  $i$  to  $j$  in  $G$ . Computing  $(G', C')$  requires calculation of all pairs shortest path distances, which can be done, for example, in  $O(Ne)$  steps by Floyd's algorithm (see, e.g., [26]). The bottleneck in the complexity is finding a Monge supersequence in  $(G', C')$ , which can be done in  $O(e'N \log N)$  by a minor adaptation of the algorithm in [27], to take care of the special pairs  $(i, i)$ .  $\square$

For the transportation problem, Alon et al. observed that every  $2 \times n$  problem admits a Monge sequence [5]. This property is obviously true also for feasibility sequences, and is carried over to the corresponding problems on a nonbipartite graph  $G_n$ . When looking for supersequences, where there is no fixed partition anymore, we can recognize two special cases in which a sequence always exists: If  $G'$  is a tree then there is always an optimality supersequence, since an arc which is incident on a leaf can always be placed next in a sequence without violating the Monge condition. The other case will be discussed in the next section.

## 5. Graph theoretic connections

We now give several graph theoretic characterizations of graphs which admit feasibility sequences. Using these characterizations, we will be able to improve upon the complexity of some of the algorithms presented in Sections 3 and 4. First, we need some definitions: A  $(0, 1)$  matrix is called *totally balanced* if it contains no  $k \times k$  submatrix with  $k \geq 3$ , which has exactly two ones in each row and each column and has no identical rows [20]. A matrix is called  $F$ -*free* if it does not contain  $F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  as a submatrix. The following characterization of totally balanced matrices was introduced independently by Lubiw and Farber and used by Hoffman et al.:

**Theorem 5.1** [10, 20, 22]. A matrix is totally balanced if and only if its rows and columns can be permuted in such a way that the resulting matrix is  $F$ -free.

Let us now return to bipartite graphs. For a bipartite graph  $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$  with  $|V_1| = n$ ,  $|V_2| = m$ , let  $M = M(G)$  be its  $n \times m$  vertex-vertex adjacency matrix, i.e.,  $M_{ij} = 1$  or 0 if  $(i, j) \in E$  or  $(i, j) \notin E$ , respectively. It follows from the definition that for a bipartite graph  $G$ ,  $M(G)$  is totally balanced if and only if  $G$  does not contain an induced chordless cycle of length six or more. (Namely, there is no set of vertices  $X = \{u_1, \dots, u_6\}$  where  $k \geq 6$  such that the subgraph of  $G$  induced by  $X$  contains exactly the arcs  $(u_1, u_2), (u_2, u_3), \dots, (u_6, u_1)$ . A bipartite graph satisfying this property is also called chordal bipartite [16].

To keep the notation consistent with that of Section 3, let us say that the  $(\infty, 1)$  skeleton matrix and the  $(0, 1)$  adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph  $G$  are the same bipartite graph  $G$ . This simply means that all  $\infty$  entries in the former are replaced by zeroes in the latter, and vice versa.

**Theorem 5.2.** The adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph is totally balanced if and only if the corresponding skeleton matrix admits a Monge sequence.

**Proof.** Denote the adjacency and skeleton matrices by  $M$  and  $C$ , respectively.

In [27], a simple example was given of a problem which does not admit a Monge sequence. (The cost matrix was  $3 \times 3$  with the diagonal entries  $\infty$  and all the other entries finite.) The above proof implies that only problems of that type (or those which contain subproblems of that type) do not admit a feasibility sequence. More precisely:

The proof of Theorem 5.2 implies also that every bipartite graph which admits a feasibility sequence has one of a particular simple type:

**Corollary 5.3.** A bipartite graph admits a feasibility sequence if and only if it is chordal bipartite.

**Corollary 5.4.** *If a bipartite graph admits a feasibility sequence, then one can permute its vertices to obtain a lexicographic feasibility sequence.*

In other words, whenever a feasibility sequence exists, there is one which can be represented by row and column permutations. These row and column permutations are exactly those which put  $M$  into  $\Gamma$ -free form. Moreover, with respect to that order of rows and columns, every other permutation with the property that  $(i, j)$  succeeds  $(i, j - 1)$  and  $(i - 1, j)$  in  $S$  whenever these arcs are admissible is also a feasibility sequence.

If the matrix is in  $\Gamma$ -free form, then the greedy algorithm, using the lexicographic sequence, scans the matrix from left to right and from top to bottom. In this case, it is possible to avoid scanning entries whose row or column has already been eliminated, and to perform the algorithm in time proportional to the number of variables whose value is positive in the resulting solution. That number is at most  $m + n - 1$ . Hence we can improve upon the results of Section 3 as follows:

**Corollary 5.5.** *In a bipartite graph  $G$  which admits a feasibility sequence, one can find a feasibility sequence which provides a feasible solution or determines infeasibility for every problem  $P(G, a, b)$  in  $O(m + n)$  steps.*

Note that  $O(m + n)$  is optimum for constructing a solution, since a solution consists of  $m + n - 1$  positive numbers in nondegenerate problems.

Note also that from Corollaries 3.3 and 5.3 we get that for the matching problem, a graph admits a perfect sequence if and only if it is chordal bipartite.

An efficient method to determine if a matrix is totally balanced, and to find its  $\Gamma$ -free form in case it is, is the following: A matrix is totally balanced if and only if the matrix obtained by reverse doubly lexical ordering of it is  $\Gamma$ -free [20]. So, one can first find a reverse doubly lexical ordering of the matrix, and then check if it is  $\Gamma$ -free. Finding doubly lexical ordering can be done in  $O(L \log L)$ , where  $L = m + n + e$ , by an algorithm due to Paige and Tarjan [25]. For dense matrices, a recent algorithm of Spinrad reduces the complexity to  $O(mn)$  [29]. Given the ordering, checking whether the matrix is  $\Gamma$ -free can be done in  $O(L)$  time [23]. Using these results we can improve upon the results of Section 3 and Corollary 4.3 as follows:

**Corollary 5.6.** *The feasibility sequence problem can be solved in  $O(\min(e \log e, mn))$  steps for bipartite graphs, and in  $O(ne)$  steps for a nonbipartite graph with fixed source-destination sets.*

Determining if a restricted transportation problem with given supplies and demands is feasible is equivalent to solving a maximum flow problem. The best known general algorithms for the maximum flow problem require  $O(em)$  steps or more (see, e.g., [3]). The complexities of our algorithms above are lower. Hence instead of solving a feasibility problem by maximum flow algorithms, one can first

Suppose  $S$  is not a feasibility supersequence. Then there is a blocker in  $S$ . It must contain both  $i$  and  $j$  or else the corresponding 4-tuple in  $S'$ , would be a blocker in  $S$ . Vertices  $i$  and  $j$  cannot be on the same side of a blocker, since they have the same set of (in- and out-) neighbors. Hence they must be on opposite sides of a blocking 4-tuple. Out of the four arcs in any such blocker, either  $(i,j)$  or  $(j,i)$  appears first in  $S$ , by the construction of EXPAND. Since  $i$  and  $j$  are strongly connected, it  $(i,j)$ ,  $(j,i)$  are connected then the pair  $(k,l)$  is connected too, by transitivity, so  $(i,j)$ ,  $(j,k)$  are not contained in any blocker of  $S$ . Hence  $S$  does not contain a blocker, so it is a feasibility supersequence.  $\square$

```

Algorithm EXPAND( $S, u, i, j$ ):
begin
  For every  $k \neq u$  do
    begin
      Replace ( $u, k$ ) in  $S$ , by ( $i, k$ ), ( $j, k$ ); Replace ( $k, v$ ) in  $S$ , by ( $k, i$ ),
      ( $k, j$ );
      Set  $S' \rightarrow ((i, j), (j, i), S)$ ;
    end
  end
end

```

**Proof.** If  $G$  does not admit a feasibility supersequence then clearly  $G$  does not admit one. Assume that  $G$  admits a feasibility supersequence  $S$ . Construct a sequence  $S$  as follows:

**Lemma 3.1.** Let  $i$  and  $j$  be strongly connected in  $G$ , and let  $G$  be the graph obtained from  $G$  by contracting  $i$  and  $j$  into  $v$ .  $G$  admits a feasibility supersequence if and only if  $G$  does.

We now turn to the general case, where there is no fixed partition into source and destination subgraphs. Recall that vertices  $i$  and  $j$  are called strongly connected if each one is reachable from the other, i.e., both  $(i, j) \in E$  and  $(j, i) \in E$ .

use the faster algorithms above to look for a feasibility sequence, and in case one is found, the greedy algorithm subsequently resolves the feasibility question in linear time. If no sequence is found, one can still use the maximum flow algorithm without loss in the overall complexity.

The *condensation* of a directed graph  $G$  is the directed graph obtained from  $G$  by contracting each strongly connected component into a single vertex. Using Lemma 5.7 repeatedly we get:

**Corollary 5.8.** *A graph admits a feasibility supersequence if and only if its condensation does.*

Note that the condensation is always acyclic. In particular, Corollary 5.8 and the discussion in Section 4 imply that it is sufficient to be able to find feasibility supersequences in acyclic graphs which are closed under transitivity. (A graph is closed under transitivity if it is identical to its transitive closure.) We use this fact in the following theorem:

**Theorem 5.9.** *Let  $G$  be a directed acyclic graph which is closed under transitivity, and let  $M(G)$  be its adjacency matrix.  $G$  admits a feasibility supersequence if and only if  $M(G)$  is totally balanced.*

Recall that the adjacency matrix of the directed graph  $S$  satisfies  $M_{ij} = 1$  if and only if  $(i, j) \in E$  and 0 otherwise. In particular,  $M_{ii} = 0$  for all  $i$ .

**Proof.** Sufficiency follows in the same way as in Theorem 5.2: If  $M$  is totally balanced then by Theorem 5.1 it has a  $\Gamma$ -free form. With respect to that form, the lexicographic sequence is a feasibility supersequence.

Let us now prove necessity: If  $M$  is not totally balanced then it contains a submatrix corresponding to a chordless cycle of  $2k$  vertices,  $C = (i_0, j_0, i_1, j_1, \dots, i_{k-1}, j_{k-1}, i_0)$  for some  $k \geq 3$ . It suffices to show that these vertices must be distinct in order to imply that  $G$  does not admit a feasibility sequence. Assume conversely that  $C$  contains two identical vertices,  $r$  and  $s$ . If  $r$  and  $s$  have the same parity in the cycle, say  $r = i_l$  and  $s = i_m$ , then either  $(s, j_{l-1})$  or  $(s, j_{l+1})$  is a chord (here and throughout, all indices are mod  $k$ ). If  $r$  and  $s$  have opposite parity, say  $r = i_l$  and  $s = j_m$ , then since in the adjacency matrix  $M_{ii} = 0$  for all  $i$ ,  $r$  and  $s$  cannot be adjacent in the cycle. Since  $(i_m, s) \in E$ ,  $(r, j_l) \in E$  and  $(r, j_{l-1}) \in E$ , and  $r = s$ , by transitivity both  $(i_m, j_{l-1})$  and  $(i_m, j_l)$  must be present in  $E$ , and at least one of them is a chord. Hence all vertices in  $C$  must be distinct. In such a cycle  $C$ , no vertex can appear first in a feasibility supersequence.  $\square$

Interestingly, from the above theorem using the terminology of partially ordered sets, we get that  $G$  admits a feasibility supersequence if and only if the partially ordered set corresponding to  $G$  does not contain a crown of order  $\geq 3$  (see, e.g., [11]). This interpretation immediately gives another set of graphs on which the existence of a feasibility supersequence is guaranteed: Recall that in a directed acyclic graph two vertices are *comparable* if there is a path from one of them to the other, and an *antichain* is a set of vertices no two of which are comparable.

As in Corollary 5.6, Steps 3 and 4 require  $O(\min(n^2, \epsilon \log n))$  and  $O(\epsilon)$ , respectively. Hence, in particular, using Warshall's algorithm for the transitive closure (see, e.g., [26]) gives an overall complexity of  $O(\epsilon + \frac{n}{\epsilon})$ . Note that formally Step 1 is not necessary for the validity of the algorithm. (If we do not perform it, we shall have identical rows and columns in  $M(D)$  for vertices in the same strongly connected component.) However, this step may considerably reduce the size of the graph on which Steps 2–4 are performed, and is faster to perform than Step 2. Hence, in practice contracting strong components first may improve the running time when these components form a large part of the graph.

**Proof.** Validity follows from Corollary 5.8 and Theorem 5.9. The strong components can be computed in Step 1 in  $O(\epsilon)$  [30]. Step 2 requires calculating the transitive closure of  $\text{cond}(G)$ , and Steps 3–4 find the  $F$ -free form. □

**Theorem 5.11.** *The above algorithm constructs a feasibility supersequence or determines that no such sequence exists in  $O(\epsilon + \text{TC}(n, \epsilon) + \text{GF}(n, \epsilon))$  steps.*

Denote by  $n$  and  $\epsilon$  the number of vertices and arcs, respectively, in  $\text{cond}(G)$ , and by  $\text{TC}(k, l)$  the complexity of computing a  $F$ -free permutation of its adjacency matrix, or determining that none exists.

```

Algorithm FEASIBILITY-SUPERSEQUENCE( $G$ ):
    begin
        Step 1. Contract strong components of  $G$ . Call the resulting graph  $\text{cond}(G)$ .
        Step 2. Compute  $D$ , the transitive closure of  $\text{cond}(G)$ .
        Step 3. Compute a reverse doubly lexical ordering of  $M(D)$ , the adjacency matrix of  $D$ . Call the reordered matrix  $M_*$ .
        Step 4. Check whether  $M_*$  is  $F$ -free. If not, stop,  $G$  does not admit a feasibility supersequence. If it is, the lexicographic order in  $M_*$  induces a feasibility supersequence. If it is, the lexicographic order in  $M_*$  is feasible.
    end

```

Using Corollary 5.8 and Theorem 5.9, we can recognize if a graph admits a feasibility supersequence by the following algorithm:

**Corollary 5.10.** *Let  $G$  be a directed acyclic graph closed under transitivity. If the maximum antichain in  $G$  is of size at most two then  $G$  admits a feasibility supersequence.*

## 6. Concluding remarks

We have shown how the theory of optimality sequences can be extended from the bipartite case to general minimum cost flow problems. We have also described a parallel theory of feasibility sequences, gave necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of such sequence, and provided efficient algorithms for constructing optimality and feasibility sequences in general networks. The complexities of these algorithms are comparable to those of the fastest known general algorithms for solving a single feasibility or optimality question for a specific supply and demand function. The complexity results are summarized in Table 1.

We have also shown that the concept of a graph admitting a feasibility sequence is closely related to the concepts of totally balanced matrices and chordal bipartite graphs. Since these concepts have been shown in the past to be very useful for studying integral polyhedra and perfect Gaussian elimination, it may be interesting to investigate these relations further. A deeper understanding of the relations between optimality sequences and totally monotone matrices is also of interest.

If the algorithm of [27] is used to find a Monge sequence (either for the optimality or for the feasibility question), it may terminate with a negative answer after having produced a partial sequence. As already noted by [5, 27], this partial sequence can still be used by the greedy algorithm until exhausted, thereby reducing the problem size considerably. Subsequently, general flow algorithms may be applied on the reduced problem. Since the use of each element in the partial sequence may remove one or two vertices from the problem, a partial sequence may also be useful in practice.

Finally, let us mention several open questions that arise from our study:

(1) Extend the theory of optimality and feasibility sequences to capacitated flow problems.

(2) Given a minimum cost problem which does not admit a feasibility or an optimality sequence, find how to modify the costs "in a minimal way" so that the modified problem will admit such a sequence.

(3) Given a sequence  $S$  which is not lexicographic, is there an efficient way to preprocess it in such a way that for every supply function, GREEDY( $S$ ) will take  $O(m + n)$  steps?

Table 1

Complexity of the optimality and feasibility sequence algorithms in various networks

(Notation:  $n$  sources,  $m$  destinations,  $n \leq m$ ;  $N$  vertices,  $e$  arcs;  $\bar{e}$  arcs in the corresponding bipartite graph for the fixed partition case;  $e'$  arcs in the transitive closure;  $\hat{n}$  vertices and  $\hat{e}$  arcs in the condensation;  $\bar{e}$  arcs in the transitive closure of the condensation.  $SP(k, l)$  = complexity of the single source shortest path problem in a graph with  $k$  vertices,  $l$  arcs.)

	Bipartite	Fixed partition	General
Optimality	$O(en \log m)$ [27]	$O(n \cdot SP(N, e) + \bar{e}n \log m)$	$O(e'N \log N)$
Feasibility	$O(\min(e \log e, mn))$	$O(en)$	$O(e + \hat{n}\hat{e})$

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