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Column Elimination: An Iterative Approach to Solving Integer Programs

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We present column elimination as a general framework for solving (large-scale) integer programming problems. In this framework, solutions are represented compactly as paths in a directed acyclic graph. Column elimination starts with a relaxed representation, that may contain infeasible paths, and solves a constrained network flow over the graph to find a solution. It then iteratively refines the graph by eliminating infeasible paths until an optimal feasible solution is found. We introduce the notion of relaxed dynamic programs to generalize and formalize prior works that were developed for specific applications. We also present a subgradient method for solving the Lagrangian relaxation of the problem which provides additional graph refinement opportunities. Lastly, we propose extensions to include cut generation and branch-and-bound. Our experimental evaluation shows that column elimination can be competitive with or outperform state-ofthe-art methods on various problem domains. Specifically, we find that column elimination closes five open instances of the graph multicoloring problem, one open instance with 1,000 locations of the vehicle routing problem with time windows, and six open instances of the pickup-and-delivery problem with time windows.

Key words : integer programming, column elimination, column generation, dynamic programming, network flows

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1. Introduction

The computational revolution in integer programming solvers over the last decades has enabled the ability to solve problems with hundreds of thousands of integer variables in reasonable time. It has expanded the application of this powerful technology from strategic planning problems to detailed operational decision making and even real-time use cases. For several important problem domains, however, general integer programming does not scale to the requirements demanded by the application. Examples include vehicle routing problems such as last-mile delivery, complex multimachine scheduling applications, and airline crew scheduling. In such cases alternative methods including Benders decomposition, branch-and-price, or constraint programming can be more effective, providing a different problem representation and associated solution methodology.

In this work, we present a framework called *column elimination* that integrates ideas from dynamic programming, decision diagrams, network flows, and linear and integer programming. The starting point of the framework is a problem representation that is similar to that of *column generation*, i.e., in which a variable (or a column) represents a specific combinatorial structure such as a route or a schedule. A column formulation lists all possible variables and then selects an optimal subset of columns that satisfies the constraints. Because column formulations are, in general, exponentially large, we propose to represent a *relaxation* of the columns. While this may seem counter-intuitive, the relaxation can be represented compactly as a directed acyclic graph which allows solving a polynomial-sized problem that implicitly represents an exponential number of columns. In this representation, a column corresponds to a path in the graph. Because we work with a relaxation, the solution may contain infeasible columns, or paths, which are iteratively removed from the graph until an optimal feasible solution is found.

This iterative method was first introduced by van Hoeve (2020, 2022) as an alternative to branchand-price to solve the graph coloring problem; Karahalios and van Hoeve (2022) present an improved variant that uses a portfolio of variable orderings to construct the directed acyclic graph. The method was subsequently applied to compute dual bounds for the traveling salesperson problem with a drone

(Tang 2021, Tang and van Hoeve 2024). That work also introduced a subgradient descent method to solve the linear programs more efficiently. The term 'column elimination' was first mentioned in (van Hoeve and Tang 2022) to describe the method and draw the parallel with column generation. Lastly, Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023) apply column elimination to find dual bounds for the capacitated vehicle routing problem, including the addition of cutting planes, reduced cost-based variable fixing, and an improved subgradient descent method.

Contributions We present a generalized framework of column elimination for solving integer programming problems, incorporating and formalizing the existing approaches. The formalization includes the introduction of *relaxed dynamic programs* that are similar to state-space relaxations but more general. We introduce a subgradient method that solves the Lagrangian relaxation of the problem and offers additional refinement opportunities; this is key to solving large-scale instances. We furthermore introduce a *cut-and-refine* algorithm that incorporates cutting planes into column elimination and a *branch-and-refine* algorithm that incorporates branch-and-bound. Lastly, we provide a computational evaluation of our framework and find that column elimination is competitive with or outperforms the state-of-the-art on various problem domains, as it closes closes five open instances of the graph multicoloring problem, one open instance with 1,000 locations of the vehicle routing problem with time windows, and six open instances of the pickup-and-delivery problem with time windows, for the first time.

The paper is organized as follows. We start by discussing related work in Section 2. We then present the general discrete optimization problem setting to which we apply column elimination in Section 3. In Section 4, we describe the underlying model of column elimination, combining dynamic programming and integer programming. Section 5 introduces the iterative column elimination algorithm, including the extensions cut-and-refine and branch-and-refine. We present the subgradient method for solving large-scale problems in Section 6. Section 7 presents the three combinatorial problems that we use as a computational case study. The experimental results are presented in Section 8. We provide a summary and conclusion in Section 9.

2. Related Work

Column elimination shares many similarities with column generation, which is a well-established computational method for solving linear programming models. It was introduced by Ford and Fulkerson (1958) to solve multi-commodity network flow problems and later generalized by Dantzig and Wolfe (1960) for solving linear programs. The extension to integer programming is done through branchand-price, where column generation is embedded inside a branch-and-bound framework (Desrosiers et al. 1984, Barnhart et al. 1998, Lübbecke and Desrosiers 2005). Branch-and-price provides stateof-the-art results for many discrete optimization problems, including graph coloring (Mehrotra and Trick 1996, Held et al. 2012), scheduling (van Den Akker et al. 1999, Chen and Powell 1999, Leus and Kowalczyk 2016), and vehicle routing problems (Fukasawa et al. 2006, Baldacci et al. 2011b, Pecin et al. 2017, Pessoa et al. 2018, Mandal et al. 2023).

Column generation solves a restricted master problem that contains a subset of the possible variables. It uses the associated dual variables to solve a pricing problem to generate a new primal variable with a negative reduced cost that can improve the master problem. Potential implementation challenges of branch-and-price include stabilization strategies to handle dual degeneracy and the representation of (branching) cuts in the pricing problem (Vanderbeck 2005). As we will see later in more detail, column elimination does not solve a pricing problem, and avoids these issues as a result. On the other hand, column elimination solves network flow problems that may contain more (arc) variables than the analogous column generation model, which uses one variable per column. Column elimination also depends on the number of refinement iterations, as column generation depends on the number of pricing problems solved. The relative computational benefits are therefore problem dependent, but we show in Section 8 that column elimination provides state-of-the-art results on three problem domains that have also been tackled with column generation.

Many branch-and-price methods, especially in the context of vehicle routing, rely on dynamic programming for solving the pricing problem. As the associated state space can grow exponentially large, *state-space relaxations* of dynamic programs are often used in the pricing problem, which is equivalent to relaxing the set of columns in the linear program being solved by column generation, thus providing dual bounds. Our work is closely related to this approach, as we also define a relaxed set of the variables with a dynamic program. While column generation uses the dynamic program to generate new variables via the pricing problem, column elimination uses the dynamic program to directly define a model over the relaxed set of columns. We will discuss more similarities and differences in Section 4.

Another related approach is that of *arc flow formulations* for integer programming (de Lima et al. 2022). Arc flow formulations have been used successfully to model problems over directed networks with solutions that are either a single path (Boland et al. 2017, Lozano et al. 2022, Tang and van Hoeve 2024) or a collection of paths (Gouveia et al. 2019, van Hoeve 2022, Kowalczyk et al. 2024). A specific recent application is the use of decision diagrams to solve optimization problems, which involves arc flow formulations, restrictions, and relaxations (Bergman et al. 2016, Ciré and van Hoeve 2013, Bergman and Ciré 2018); we refer to Castro et al. (2022) and van Hoeve (2024) for recent surveys. In the previous works on column elimination, arc flow formulations were described using decision diagrams. This work instead uses state-transition graphs of dynamic programs to describe its networks, which are closely related to weighted decision diagrams (Hooker 2013) but offer a more generic modeling environment.

Column elimination works by solving iteratively strengthened discrete relaxations. Similar methods have been proposed for arc flow formulations, including iterative aggregation and disaggregation (Clautiaux et al. 2017), dynamic discretization discovery (Boland et al. 2017), and in the context of column generation, decremental state-space relaxation or state-space augmentation (Righini and Salani 2008, Boland et al. 2006). Column elimination differs from these methods by using a dynamic program to define the network of its arc flow formulation, applying a generic algorithm to iteratively refine relaxations of the dynamic program, and employing a Lagrangean method to simultaneously refine and solve the arc flow formulation.

3. Problem Statement

Column elimination solves discrete optimization problems of a particular form. The form is a generalization of finding a minimum-cost sequence of elements from a finite set of feasible sequences, which appears, e.g., in discrete dynamic programming (Bellman 1957), domain independent dynamic programming (Kuroiwa and Beck 2024), and decision-diagram based optimization (Bergman et al. 2016). Here, the problem is to find a minimum cost *subset* of sequences of elements from a set of feasible sequences, where the set of feasible subsets can also be constrained. For our purposes, we allow the subset to contain multiple copies of the same sequence. We assume the cost of a subset of sequences is equal to the sum of the costs of individual sequences.

Formally, let U be a universe of elements and let S be a set of ordered sequences of elements in U, each with arbitrary but finite length. The discrete optimization problem is:

$$
\left(\mathcal{P}\right) \ \underset{X \subseteq \mathcal{S}}{\min} \left\{ \sum_{x \in X} f(x) : C(X) = 1 \right\} \tag{1}
$$

where *X* represents the decision variable ranging over subsets of S, function $C: 2^S \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ defines feasible subsets (also considering multisets), and $f : \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a cost function over \mathcal{S} . A main assumption of our model is that the function *C* can be represented as a conjunction of constraints with the following form. Each constraint is defined by a function $\gamma : \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$ that associates an additional 'cost' with each sequence, and has the form $\sum_{x \in X} \gamma(x) \leq b$. Denote $\Gamma = \{(\gamma_j, \circ_j, b_j)\}_{j=1}^m$ as the set of these constraints. We assume that the constraint function can be written as a conjunction of these new constraints, i.e. $C(X) = \wedge_{j=1}^{m} (\sum_{x \in X} \gamma_j(x) \circ_j b_j).$

Many discrete optimization problems can be naturally described in this form; as a running example, we consider the *capacitated vehicle routing problem* (CVRP) (Toth and Vigo 2014).

EXAMPLE 1. Let $\mathcal{G} = (V, A)$ be a complete directed graph with vertex set $V = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ and arc set $A = \{(i, j) | i, j \in V, i \neq j\}$. Vertex 0 represents the depot, and vertices $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ represent the locations to be visited. We will interchangeably use vertices and locations. Each vertex $i \in V$ has a demand $q_i \geq 0$ and each arc $a \in A$ has a length $T_a \geq 0$ (typically representing time). Let *K* be the number of (homogeneous) vehicles, each with capacity *Q*. A *route* is a sequence of vertices

 $[v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k]$ starting and ending at the depot with total demand at most *Q*. The *distance* of a route is the sum of its arc lengths, i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} T_{(v_i,v_{i+1})}$. The CVRP consists in finding *K* routes such that each vertex except for the depot belongs to exactly one route and the sum of the route distances is minimized. We can describe the CVRP in the form of P . Let $U = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ and let S be the set of all (feasible) routes. The function *f* is a mapping from routes to their distances. The constraints *C* restrict the subset of routes to have cardinality *K* and to visit all locations, which can be translated to the following constraints in Γ. To ensure that each location is visited, we define a constraint for each $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ by $(\gamma_i, =, 1)$ where $\gamma_i(x) = [i \in x]$, and $[\![\cdot]\!]$ denotes an indicator function. To ensure that each subset has *K* routes, we define a constraint by $(\gamma_{n+1},=,K)$ where $\gamma_{n+1}(x) = 1$ for all $x \in X$.

As a special case, observe that any integer linear programming problem can be represented in the form of P. Consider the integer program $\min_{\eta \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \{ \alpha^{\mathsf{T}} \eta : A\eta \geq \beta, \ell \leq \eta \leq u \}$, where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, and $u \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. We define the set of elements as the set of integers from the smallest lower bound to the largest upper bound, i.e. $U = \{\min_{i \in [n]} \ell_i, \min_{i \in [n]} \ell_i + 1, \ldots, \max_{i \in [n]} u_i\}$. We define $S =$ $\{[x_1,\ldots,x_n]: \ell_i \leq x_i \leq u_i, x_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}\}\$ for a fixed but arbitrary ordering of the variables *x*. In this case, each sequence in S is of the same length *n*. The cost function is $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i$. The constraints *C* ensure that one sequence is chosen and that $A\eta \geq \beta$, which can be written in the form of Γ. To ensure that $A\eta \geq \beta$, we define constraints for each $j = 1, ..., m$ by $(\gamma_j, \geq, \beta_j)$ where $\gamma_j(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ji} x_i$. To ensure one sequence is chosen, we define a constraint by $(\gamma_{m+1},=,1)$ where $\gamma_{m+1}(x) = 1$ for all $x \in X$. While this shows that column elimination can, in principle, be applied to integer programs of this general form, we do not expect this to be efficient unless we can exploit specific problem structures when defining problem P . This will be discussed in the next section.

4. Modeling

Column elimination solves P via a particular modeling framework that combines dynamic programming and integer programming. We use a dynamic program to represent S , f , and the cost functions in Γ. Then, an integer linear program is defined over the state-transition graph of the dynamic program to find the minimum cost subset of feasible sequences. The model resembles a common decomposition of the problem into an integer linear programming master problem and a dynamic programming pricing problem, used in column generation. In this section, we detail the model and describe relaxations of the model that are used in column elimination.

4.1. Dynamic Program

The set of sequences of elements S, the cost function f, and the cost functions in Γ are modeled with dynamic programming. It is always possible to construct a dynamic program that encodes $\mathcal S$ with an arbitrary value function over the sequences (Hooker 2013). This can directly be extended to multiple value functions, in our case *f* and the cost functions in Γ. An advantage of dynamic programming is its ability to *compactly* represent the set of sequences (with the associated costs) instead of enumerating each one individually. We describe the structure of the dynamic program and explain how it models the set of sequences and costs.

We define a *dynamic program* by a set of states *S*, an initial state $r \in S$, a terminal state $t \in S$, a state transition function $h:(S \times U) \to S$, a cost function $c:(S \times U) \to \mathbb{R}$. A *solution* is a sequence of transitions $[(s_1, u_1), \ldots, (s_k, u_k)]$ where $(s_i, u_i) \in S \times U$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$, such that $s_1 = r$, $h(s_i, u_i) = s_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$, and $h(s_k, u_k) = t$. Each solution uses a unique set of elements $u = [u_1, ..., u_k]$. The *cost* of a solution is $\sum_{i=1}^{k} c((s_i, u_i))$. We extend this standard definition by introducing a set of additional cost functions $G = \{g_j\}_{j=1}^m$ such that $g_j : (S \times U) \to \mathbb{R}$ for all $j = 1, ..., m$. We denote the dynamic program as $P = (S, h, c, G)$, and assume that *r* and *t* are defined within *S*. We assume that a dynamic program is acyclic, so solutions cannot visit a state more than once.

We model S, f , and the cost functions in Γ by constructing a dynamic program $P = (S, h, c, G)$ with the following properties. First, the set of solutions to P must be equal to S . Second, for each solution $x \in \mathcal{S}$ equivalent to a solution $[(s_1, u_1), \ldots, (s_k, u_k)]$ in P, we require that $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k c((s_i, u_i))$ and $\gamma_j(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k g_j((s_i, u_i))$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$. As mentioned above, it is always possible to construct a dynamic program with these properties (Hooker 2013).

EXAMPLE 2. We formulate a dynamic program $P = (S, h, c, G)$ to represent S, f, and the function costs in Γ for the problem P described for the CVRP in Example 1. Define each state in *S* by a

tuple (NG*,w, v*), where NG is a 'no-good' set of visited locations, *w* is the current load, and *v* is the current location. The initial state r is $(\emptyset, 0, 0)$ and the terminal state t is a tuple of sentinel values. The transition and cost functions are defined for two cases: visiting a location and returning to the depot. For each state $s = (NG, w, v)$ and element $i \in U$ such that $i \notin NG$, $i > 0$, and $w + q_i \leq Q$, define $h(s, i) = (NG \cup \{i\}, w + q_i, i)$ and $c(s, i) = T_{(v,i)}$. For each state $s \in S$, define $h(s, 0) = t$ and cost $c(s, 0) = T_{(v,0)}$. For other combinations of states and decisions, we let the transition function and cost function equal -1 as a sentinel value. To model the cost functions in Γ, we define $g_j(s, i) = [i = j]$ for each $j = 1, ..., |V|$, and $g_{|V|+1}(s, i) = [s = r]$.

4.2. Integer Linear Program

The optimization model that column elimination solves is an integer linear program defined over a network representation of *P*. The network representation is known as a *state-transition graph*, which is a directed acyclic graph where each state is represented by a node and each transition is represented by an arc. Given a dynamic program $P = (S, h, c, G)$, we define its state-transition graph as $\mathcal{D} = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{A})$ with node set $\mathcal N$ and arc set $\mathcal A$. For each state $s \in S$ we introduce a node in $\mathcal N$. For each transition $h(s_i, u) = s_j$, we define an arc in A from the node for s_i to the node for s_j . Parallel arcs are distinguished by the transition element *u*. For ease of notation, especially for function inputs, we use nodes and states interchangeably, and we use arcs and state/element pairs interchangeably. This defines a one-to-one correspondence between sequences in S and directed *r*-*t* paths in D.

The model is a constrained network flow problem over D . For each arc $a \in \mathcal{A}$, we introduce a decision variable *ya*. The model is as follows.

$$
F: \min \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} c(a) y_a \tag{2}
$$

s.t.
$$
\sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} g_j(a) y_a \circ_j b_j \qquad \forall j \in \{1, ..., m\}
$$
 (3)

$$
\sum_{a \in \delta^+(s)} y_a - \sum_{a \in \delta^-(s)} y_a = 0 \qquad \forall \ s \in \mathcal{N} \setminus \{r, t\} \tag{4}
$$

$$
y_a \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \qquad \qquad \forall \ a \in \mathcal{A} \tag{5}
$$

The objective (2) is to minimize the sum of the costs of the flows on arcs used in the solution. Constraints (3) are linear constraints using the additional cost functions from *G* with the comparators and right-hand side values from Γ . Constraints (4) are flow conservation constraints, where $\delta^+(s)$ and $\delta^-(s)$ are the sets of outgoing and incoming arcs respectively for a node $s \in \mathcal{N}$. Constraints (5) are nonnegativity and integrality constraints. We prove the correctness of the model in Theorem 1.

Theorem 1. *The optimal solution value of F is equal to the optimal solution value of* P*.*

Proof We start by showing that the set of solutions to F is equal to the set of solutions to P. Consider an optimal solution to *F*. The solution adheres to the flow conservation constraints (4) and integrality constraints (5), so by the flow decomposition theorem, the solution can be converted into a set of r -*t* paths (Ahuja et al. 1993). Each r -*t* path uses a set of arcs, equivalent to a sequence $x \in S$. Let X be the set of these sequences (with multiplicity), and let A be the union of these sets of arcs (with multiplicity). The solution is feasible, so $\sum_{a \in A} g_j(a) \circ_j b_j$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$. By construction of the dynamic program, each $x \in S$ corresponds to an arc set *A'* such that $\gamma_j(x) = \sum_{a \in A'} g_j(a)$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$. So, $\sum_{x \in X} \gamma_j(x) \circ_j b_j$. Thus, $C(X) = 1$. The reverse of this argument shows that *X* ⊆ S can be converted into a solution to *F*. To finish the proof, we show that each $X \subseteq S$ has the same cost in *F* and \mathcal{P} . By construction of the dynamic program, each $x \in \mathcal{S}$ corresponds to an arc set *A'* such that $f(x) = \sum_{a \in A'} c(a)$. So, for a solution $X \subseteq S$ corresponding to an arc set *A'* (both with multiplicity), $\sum_{x \in X} f(x) = \sum_{a \in A'} c(a)$. *Q.E.D.*

Example 3. We give the complete formulation for the CVRP, which was originally developed in Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023) in online Appendix C.

4.3. Model Relaxations

Column elimination works by solving relaxations of *F* that are created by replacing *P* with relaxations of *P*. The literature contains two types of relaxations of dynamic programs. First, a *state-space relaxation* maps each state into a smaller state space such that predecessor states are conserved and each transition cost is the minimum cost of all equivalent transitions in the preimage of the mapping (Christofides et al. 1981). Second, in the decision diagram literature, relaxations are created by merging non-equivalent states and reasoning about the transitions to retain for the resulting state (Bergman et al. 2016). The key properties in both types of relaxations are that the relaxed dynamic program represents a superset of the sequences in the original dynamic program, and has a cost for each sequence that is less than or equal to the cost in the original dynamic program. We will present a generalized notion of a dynamic program relaxation, which is based on these properties:

DEFINITION 1. Let P_1 and P_2 be dynamic programs with solution sets S_1 and S_2 , solution costs that are defined by the functions f_1 and f_2 , and additional costs defined by $\{\gamma_{1j}\}_{j=1}^m$ and $\{\gamma_{2j}\}_{j=1}^m$ with constraint operators $\{ \circ_j \}_{j=1}^m$ and right-hand side values $\{ b_j \}_{j=1}^m$. P_2 is a *dynamic program relaxation* w.r.t. *P*₁ if $S_1 \subseteq S_2$, $f_1(x) \ge f_2(x)$ for all $x \in S_1$, and $\gamma_{2j}(x) \circ_j \gamma_{1j}(x)$ for all $j = 1, ..., m$ and for all $x \in \mathcal{S}_1$.

State-space relaxations and relaxed decision diagrams both yield relaxed dynamic programs. We show in Appendix A how Definition 1 differs from the definition of a state-space relaxation.

We use a dynamic program relaxation to create a relaxation for the exact model F . Let $P' =$ (S', h', c', G') be a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. *P*. Let S' be the set of solutions in P', let f' be the cost function represented by P' , and let $\{\gamma'_j\}_{j=1}^m$ be the additional cost functions. We define F' as the model (2)-(5) based on P' . Theorem 2 shows that F' is a relaxation of F .

THEOREM 2. F' is a relaxation of F .

Proof Because P' is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P, the set of solutions (sequences) to P' is a superset of the set of solutions to P, i.e. $S \subseteq S'$. Recall from the previous proof that a solution to *F* (or *F*[']) can be mapped to a set of sequences *X* \subseteq *S* (or *X* \subseteq *S*[']). So, for each *X* \subseteq *S* that is feasible to F, X is feasible to F' because $X \subseteq S \subseteq S'$ and $\sum_{x \in X} \gamma'_j(x) \circ_j \sum_{x \in X} \gamma_j(x) \circ_j b_j$ for all $j = 1, ..., m$, and the objective function value is relaxed, i.e. $\sum_{x \in X} f(x) \ge \sum_{x \in X} f'(x)$. *Q.E.D.*

In practice, it is convenient when the functions in *G* only rely on the transition element from the input, and not the state, except the root state *r*. Then, we can use $G' = G$ in a dynamic program relaxation. This is the case for the covering constraints in our running example.

Example 4. Continuing our example on the CVRP, we describe a relaxation of the exact model *F* that is based on *P*. To do this, we formulate a dynamic program relaxation $P' = (S', h', c', G')$ w.r.t. *P*, using the well-known *ng*-route state-space relaxation (Baldacci et al. 2011b). An *ng*-route relaxation is defined by a parameter $\chi \in \mathbb{Z}$ and a set $N_i \subseteq V$ of size χ for each $i \in V$. It has the same state definition and cost function as *P*, but a different transition function *h* ′ which is again defined for two cases: visiting a location and returning to the depot. Given a state $s = (NG, w, v)$ and element $i \in U$ such that $i > 0$, $i \notin NG$, and $w + q_i \le Q$, let $h'(s, i) = ((NG \cup \{i\}) \cap N_i, w + q_i, i)$. For each state $s \in S$, let $h'(s, 0) = t$. For other combinations of states and decisions, we let the transition function equal −1 as a sentinel value. Because the constraints in the set *G* are defined only by the transition elements and r in P , we can keep the same constraints in G' .

5. Column Elimination

In this section, we describe column elimination for solving *F*. The main idea of column elimination is to start with an initial relaxation of F , and to iteratively strengthen the relaxation by updating the underlying dynamic program relaxation. The algorithm works by first solving the linear program relaxation of *F*, which we denote $LP(F)$, and then solving *F*. The purpose of solving $LP(F)$ is to efficiently strengthen the model relaxation and to achieve useful bounds, before trying to solve integer programs. At iteration *i*, we denote the model relaxation as F_i , which is created by P_i that represents the set of sequences S_i . Below, we describe each step in more detail.

5.1. Solving the linear programming relaxation *LP*(*F*)

Column elimination solves $LP(F)$ by solving the linear programming relaxations of a series of improving relaxations, as shown in Figure 1. We next detail each of the steps of the algorithm.

Initializing a Relaxation: Given a model F , the first step is to create an initial relaxation F_1 . This is done by defining a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P , denoted as P_1 . The choice of initial relaxation can affect the performance of the algorithm, as there is often a tradeoff between the strength of a dual bound generated by F_1 and the number of variables in F_1 , which affects the time required to achieve the dual bound.

Solving $LP(F_i)$: After setting up an initial relaxation, column elimination enters a loop of solving $LP(F_i)$ at each iteration *i*, decomposing the solution into a set of paths, and refining conflicts. To solve $LP(F_i)$, column elimination can use an off-the-shelf linear programming solver or a subgradient method to solve an equivalent Lagrangean reformulation, which we describe in Section 6.

Path Decomposition: The solution to $LP(F_i)$ is decomposed into a set of sequences $X_i \subseteq S_i$. Because F_i is a (constrained) network flow on a directed acyclic graph, such a path decomposition is known to exist (Ahuja et al. 1993), although it may not be unique for a given solution. If there exists a sequence $x \in X_i$ such that $x \notin S$, then *x* has a 'conflict'. Otherwise X_i is an optimal solution for *LP*(*F*). A conflict can also be due to a sequence having a relaxed cost in *Fⁱ* , but for simplicity we will only consider a conflict as an infeasible sequence.

Conflict Refinement: The conflict refinement algorithm removes a conflict from P_i to create a new dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. *P*. Because the path decomposition may return multiple paths with conflicts, all of these can be used to refine the dynamic program relaxation. In our experimental results, however, we only remove one conflict at each iteration. We introduce Algorithm 1 as a general conflict refinement algorithm and prove its correctness. Similar refinement algorithms exist in the literature on decision diagrams (Hadzic et al. 2008, Ciré and Hooker 2014). There are more efficient problem-specific conflict refinement algorithms, such as the one for graph coloring in van Hoeve (2022), which uses terminology from decision diagrams. The description of the general algorithm is written in terms of updating the *dynamic program* (relaxation).

We describe Algorithm 1 as follows. Line 1 creates P_{i+1} as a copy of P_i . Line 2 sets a 'current state' s_{curr} as the root state $r \in S_{i+1}$. Line 3 begins a loop that iterates over the indices of elements in the conflict *x*. Lines 4 to 8 check the set of subsequences from *r* to s_{curr} in P' to see if any of these subsequences are feasible in P when appended with the next element x_j in the conflict. If none are feasible, then the transition from s_{curr} with x_j can be removed without removing any feasible sequences in S , but it does remove the conflict x. In detail, Line 4 creates a set of states in P that are found by taking any possible transition from *r* to s_{curr} in P' , where $S_{i+1}^{-s_{curr}}$ represents the set of these

transitions and $P[y]$ represents the state in P found by starting from r and taking the transitions in *y*. Line 5 finds the set of feasible decisions from any of those states. Line 6 checks if the next element in the sequence x_j is not in the set of feasible decisions. Line 7 filters out the transition and Line 8 returns the updated dynamic program relaxation. Otherwise, Lines 10 to 18 create a new state which copies all of the information from the next state (found by the transition of *scurr* with element x_j), which maintains all of the postsequences from the next state to *t*, but only $[x_1, ..., x_j]$ as a presequence from r to the new state. The uniqueness of the solution in S_i ensures that by the end of the algorithm the conflict *x* is removed. In detail, Line 10 finds the next state by taking the transition using s_{curr} and x_j . Line 11 creates a new state. Lines 12 to 16 copy the transitions and costs from the next state to this new state. Line 17 changes the transition from *scurr* to the next state, to the newly created state. Line 18 updates *scurr* to the new state.

Each step of the algorithm is straightforward to perform, and the step requiring the most computation is in Line 4 which requires considering all paths in a directed acyclic graph from the root to a node. In practice, this computation can be avoided by using information stored in each state to directly check the condition in Line 6. In our experiments, we use problem-specific conflict refinement algorithms that avoid creating a new node and new transitions in Lines 10 to 16 by instead using an existing node and transitions. This is done by relying on the structure of the relaxation in terms of its states, transitions, and costs to ensure that a dynamic program relaxation is maintained. We note two possible disadvantages of using existing nodes. First, updating a transition to equal an existing node may introduce infeasible sequences in P_{i+1} that were not solutions to P_i , because it combines presequences from the root that use the new transition to reach the existing node with the set of postsequences from the existing node to the terminal. Second, updating a transition to equal an existing node may introduce a cycle into the dynamic program for a similar. In our experiments, we find that the advantages of maintaining a smaller network flow formulation outweigh the potential disadvantages. We prove the correctness of Algorithm 1 as Theorem 3.

Theorem 3. *Algorithm 1 outputs a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P, called Pi*+1*, such that* P_i is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P_{i+1} and $x \notin S_{i+1}$.

Algorithm 1 Conflict Refinement Algorithm

Input: A dynamic program $P = (S, h, c, G)$, a dynamic program relaxation $P_i = (S_i, h_i, c_i, G_i)$ with initial state *r*, and a conflict $x = [x_1, \ldots, x_k] \in \mathcal{S}_i$.

Output: P_{i+1}

1: $P_{i+1} := (S_{i+1}, h_{i+1}, c_{i+1}, G_{i+1}) = (S_i, h_i, c_i, G_i)$ 2: $s_{curr} = r$ 3: **for** $j = 1, ..., k$ **do** 4: $S^{-} = \bigcup_{y \in S^{-s_{curr}}_{i+1}} \{P[y]\}$ 5: $U_{S^-} = \bigcup_{s \in S^-} \{u : h(s, u) \neq -1\}$ 6: **if** $x_j \notin U_{S}$ then 7: $h_{i+1}(s_{curr}, x_j) = -1$ 8: **return** P_{i+1} 9: **else** 10: $s_{next} = h_{i+1}(s_{curr}, x_i)$ 11: $s_{new} = createState()$ 12: **for all** $u \in U$ **do** 13: $h_{i+1}(s_{new}, u) = h_{i+1}(s_{next}, u)$ 14: $c_{i+1}(s_{new}, u) = c_{i+1}(s_{next}, u)$ 15: **for all** $g_j \in G_{i+1}$ **do** 16: $g_i(s_{new}, u) = g_i(s_{next}, u)$ 17: $h_{i+1}(s_{curr}, x_i) = s_{new}$ 18: $s_{curr} = s_{new}$

Proof First, we show that P_{i+1} is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P and that P_i is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. P_{i+1} . To start, P_{i+1} begins as a copy of P_i . The algorithm only updates P_{i+1} in Line 7 and Lines 10 to 17. In Line 7, a transition is made infeasible, which can only remove solutions from P_{i+1} , and only does so if the condition on Line 6 is met, which is equivalent to checking that no feasible solutions in P are removed. In Lines 10 to 16, a new state is created that is a copy of the next state found by starting at *scurr* and transitioning with element *x^j* . Because the transition function outputs, costs, and additional costs are all copied, when Line 17 updates the transition from s_{curr} with x_j to be this new node, no solutions or solution costs change in P_{i+1} . So, the only changes from the solutions to P_i are that sequences not in S can be removed from P_{i+1} , which proves that

 P_{i+1} is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. *P* and that P_i is a dynamic program relaxation w.r.t. *P*_{*i*+1}. Next, we prove that $x \notin S_{i+1}$. The key observation is that at each step of the algorithm, P_{i+1} has exactly one presequence starting from *r* and transitioning to *scurr*. In the first iteration this is trivially true. After that, *scurr* is always updated to *snew*, which is a new state that is only reachable by the previous *scurr*. Thus, in the worst case, by the final iteration the only presequence to *scurr* is $[x_1, ..., x_{k-1}]$ and then the transition with element x_k is infeasible in S, so it will be removed in Line 7. Q.E.D.

To conclude this subsection, we prove the correctness of the column elimination algorithm for solving the linear programming relaxation of model *F*. Assume that the initial dynamic program relaxation has a cost function *f'* and additional cost functions $\{\gamma'_j\}_{j=1}^m$ such that for each $x \in S$, *f*'(*x*) = *f*(*x*) and $\gamma'_j(x) = \gamma_j(x)$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$.

THEOREM 4. *Column elimination solves* $LP(F)$ *in a finite number of steps.*

Proof Column elimination begins with a valid relaxation F_1 . At each iteration *i*, column elimination solves $LP(F_i)$, and if there is a conflict, it is removed with Algorithm 1. By Theorem 3, removing a conflict from P_i creates a new dynamic program relaxation w.r.t P , denoted P_{i+1} , such that $S \subseteq S_{i+1} \subseteq S_i$. There can only be a finite number of conflict refinements before $S_i = S$, because S_1 and S are both finite and at least one solution is removed from S_i by Algorithm 1. Also, at each iteration of column elimination, each sequence $x \in S$ will have costs $f(x)$ and $g_j(x)$ for all $j = 1, ..., m$, because Algorithm 1 does not update the costs of these sequences and the assumption that this holds for the initial dynamic program relaxation. So, if a solution to $LP(F_i)$ has no conflicts, then is also an optimal solution to *LP*(*F*). *Q.E.D.*

5.2. Solving the integer programming model *F*

We describe three ways of solving the integer programming model *F* using column elimination. The first is a pure column elimination approach that extends column elimination for solving *LP*(*F*) by iteratively solving integer programs *Fⁱ* (at iteration *i*) with an off-the-shelf integer programming solver. The second approach, cut-and-refine, augments the approach for solving *LP*(*F*) with cutting planes. The third approach, branch-and-refine, embeds the linear programming relaxation *LP*(*F*) within a branch-and-bound search.

5.2.1. Pure column elimination The pure column elimination approach extends column elimination for solving $LP(F)$ by continuing the iterative procedure, but at each iteration *i* solving F_i instead of $LP(F_i)$. The first step is to solve $LP(F)$, which strengthens the initial relaxation. Then, the algorithm iteratively solves strengthened relaxations of *F* as integer programs. The framework is shown in Figure 2.

To solve *Fⁱ* , column elimination uses an off-the-shelf integer programming solver. This foregoes the need to develop problem-specific cuts or branching rules, although we show how to incorporate these in the next section. Conflicts are identified and refined in the same way as for solving *LP*(*F*).

There are two advantages to solving $LP(F)$ before solving F. First, a solution to $LP(F_i)$ may contain conflicts that also appear in an optimal solution to F_i , but $LP(F_i)$ is easier to solve. Second, a solution to $LP(F_i)$ provides a lower bound, which is likely weaker than the optimal solution value to the integer relaxation *Fⁱ* , but again it is easier to obtain. Linear programming lower bounds are useful to reduce the size of the problem by a method called variable fixing, which we describe in Appendix D. We show that column elimination solves *F* in Theorem 5.

Theorem 5. *Column elimination solves F in a finite number of steps.*

Proof Column elimination solves $LP(F)$ in a finite number of steps by Theorem 4. Then, by the same logic as the proof of Theorem 4, only a finite number of conflicts can be refined before $S_i = S$. So, when there are no conflicts, an optimal solution to F_i is also an optimal solution to F . $Q.E.D.$

5.2.2. Cut-and-refine Cut-and-refine introduces cutting planes to the column elimination algorithm by not only refining conflicts in solutions to $LP(F_i)$ but also adding valid inequalities to remove conflict-free solutions. The framework is depicted in Figure 3. When an optimal solution to $LP(F_i)$ is fractional, cut-and-refine adds one or more valid cuts to remove that solution. Each cut should have a form that can be represented even if the underlying dynamic program relaxation is changed in a future iteration. Cut-and-refine was shown to improve the performance of column elimination on some instances of the CVRP in (Karahalios and van Hoeve 2023), which used problem-specific cuts. We prove the correctness and finite termination of cut-and-refine in Corollary 1, with the assumption that cuts are added from a finite cutting plane procedure.

Corollary 1. *Cut-and-refine solves F in a finite number of steps.*

Proof A finite number of refinements are needed to obtain *F* from F_1 . When a solution to $LP(F_i)$ does not contain a conflict, only a finite number of cuts need to be added before the solution either contains a conflict or is integer-valued, because of the finite cutting plane procedure. *Q.E.D.*

5.2.3. Branch-and-refine Branch-and-refine embeds column elimination in a branch-andbound framework. The algorithm begins by solving *LP*(*F*) with column elimination at the root node, and then proceeds with branch-and-bound. The branching rule must partition the set of solutions in a way that maintains the form of the problem as P , so column elimination can solve the subproblems.

It may not be straightforward to create such a branching rule. For example, branching on a single variable y_a in a formulation F_i may be complicated after a conflict refinement, because the arc a needs to be mapped from P_i to P_{i+1} . Similar considerations apply to branch-and-price algorithms, in which branching decisions often depend on problem-specific features. For example, for the CVRP a constraint can be imposed on the number of times that a set of routes enters and exits a set of locations, which can either be at most twice or at least four times, and can be expressed in the underlying dynamic program formulation. In the online Appendix K we provide an experimental study of solving the vertex coloring problem using branch-and-refine. We prove both the correctness and finite termination of branch-and-refine in Corollary 2.

Corollary 2. *Branch-and-refine solves F in a finite number of steps.*

Proof Because the set of feasible subsets in P is a finite set, any branch-and-bound tree will have a finite number of nodes. Column elimination can solve each subproblem in a finite number of steps. *Q.E.D.*

A natural extension is to embed a cutting plane procedure from Section 5.2.2 into the branch-andbound search to strengthen the linear programming relaxations. This would yield a branch-cut-andrefine algorithm.

6. Column Elimination with Subgradient Descent

In this section, we propose solving the linear programming relaxation $LP(F)$ via a Lagrangian reformulation with subgradient descent. A key benefit of this approach is the ability to refine conflicts while solving the linear programming relaxation, instead of requiring an optimal solution before refinement. This can be particularly helpful for large-scale instances for which solving the linear program relaxations can be a computational bottleneck. We present a generalization of the singlepath Lagrangian approach by Tang and van Hoeve (2024) and the application-specific approach by Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023).

6.1. Lagrangian Model

Recall that the linear programming relaxation $LP(F)$ contains constraints (3). Without loss of generality, we assume in this section that these constraints are of the following standard form:

$$
\sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} g_j(a) y_a \ge b_j \qquad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, m\}.
$$

We create a Lagrangian formulation for $LP(F)$ by introducing a Lagrangian dual multiplier $\lambda_j \geq 0$ for each $j \in \{1, ..., m\}$ and defining the Lagrangian relaxation as follows:

$$
L(\lambda): \min \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} c_a y_a + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j (b_j - \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} g_j(a) y_a)
$$
 (6)

s.t.
$$
\sum_{a \in \delta^-(u)} y_a - \sum_{a \in \delta^+(u)} y_a = 0 \qquad \forall u \in \mathcal{N} \setminus \{r, t\}
$$
 (7)

$$
y_a \ge 0, y_a \in \mathbb{Z} \qquad \qquad \forall a \in \mathcal{A} \tag{8}
$$

The objective function (6) can be rewritten as

$$
\min \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} c_a y_a - \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} g_j(a) y_a + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j b_j =
$$

$$
\min \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} (c_a - \sum_{j=1}^m g_j(a) \lambda_j) y_a + \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j b_j.
$$

Each relaxation $L(\lambda)$ corresponds to solving a (continuous) minimum-cost network flow problem on a directed acyclic graph. The Lagrangian formulation is $\max_{\lambda \geq 0} L(\lambda)$, which has an optimal solution value equal to the optimal solution value of $LP(F)$ (Geoffrion 1974). It can be solved by a subgradient descent method (Nemhauser and Wolsey 1988). For fixed *λ*, the Lagrangian relaxation $L(\lambda)$ can be solved efficiently using a successive shortest paths algorithm (Ahuja et al. 1993). As a special case, when the problem has at most unit flow on the arcs, a 'minimum update' successive shortest paths algorithm can solve this problem more efficiently in practice (Wang et al. 2019). We discuss the computational benefits of using the Lagrangian relaxation in comparison to the standard linear programming relaxation, and the minimum update algorithm in comparison with a standard successive shortest paths algorithm in the online Appendix F.

Given an upper bound K on the number of r - t paths in an optimal solution to the Lagrangian relaxation for a fixed λ , the following proposition gives an upper bound on the runtime. A proof is given in Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023) for the CVRP, which also applies to the general case.

PROPOSITION 1. For a fixed λ , $L(\lambda)$ can be solved in $O(K(|\mathcal{N}| \log(|\mathcal{N}|) + |\mathcal{A}|))$ time.

6.2. Subgradient Descent

We next modify column elimination to incorporate solving *LP*(*F*) with subgradient descent. At iteration *i*, we denote the Lagrangian relaxation as $L_i(\lambda)$ where λ are the dual variables. The updated algorithm is given in Figure 4. While the column elimination framework presented in Figure 1 solves $LP(F_i)$ at each iteration *i*, and then refines conflicts based on the optimal solution, the framework in Figure 4 instead solves $L_i(\lambda^i)$ at each iteration, where λ^i is the value of λ at iteration *i*. This allows the algorithm to use the resulting solution to the Lagrangean relaxation to both update the dynamic program relaxation and take a step to update the dual values. We discuss the convergence of the algorithm in Appendix E.

There are two possible advantages to using column elimination with subgradient descent. First, the dynamic program P_i can be refined more quickly by not needing the optimal solution to $LP(F_i)$ before refining conflicts. The refinements can still be effective in removing the optimal solution to $LP(F_i)$, because an average of the subproblem solutions converges to an optimal solution (Anstreicher and Wolsey 2009). Second, column elimination can apply variable fixing at each iteration of subgradient descent, which can accelerate the method. It is useful that subgradient descent can try variable fixing at each step, because the result of variable fixing can vary depending on the feasible dual solution used. Subgradient descent does not require the dual values at each step to be feasible, so in these cases the dual values can be 'repaired' to a nearby feasible solution. In our experiments, we use a repair algorithm that finds the most violated constraint and updates one dual value at a time until the constraint is satisfied.

Two variations of column elimination with subgradient descent are given by Tang and van Hoeve (2024): 'LagAdapt' and 'LagRestart'. LagAdapt stops updating the duals after some stopping criteria, but continues solving the Lagrangian relaxation and refining conflicts. LagRestart updates the duals until some number of conflicts are found, then refines all of the conflicts, and resets the subgradient descent algorithm, including the duals and iteration count, which affects the step size. We considered these variants in our experiments, but did not see improvements.

6.3. Cut-and-refine with Subgradient Descent

Modifying cut-and-refine to incorporate solving *LP*(*F*) with subgradient descent is not straightforward. Indeed, in a previous work Lucena (2005) discusses the difficulty of effectively adding cuts during subgradient descent, within their framework called relax and cut. A relax and cut procedure can either be 'delayed', meaning cuts are only identified when subgradient descent terminates, or 'non-delayed', meaning cuts are added during subgradient descent. Once cuts are identified, they are added by 'dualizing' the cut and starting subgradient descent with the new variables. Using the delayed approach, Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023) added a limited number of cuts to column elimination with subgradient descent. The experiments from their work show a performance improvement for solving capacitated vehicle routing problems.

7. Applications

In addition to the CVRP, we will evaluate the computational performance of column elimination on four other fundamental combinatorial optimization problems: the vehicle routing problem with time windows, the graph multicoloring problem, the pickup and delivery problem with time windows, and the sequential ordering problem. We present here the problem definitions, while the associated dynamic programming models and initial dynamic program relaxations can be found in Appendix B.

VRPTW The *vehicle routing problem with time windows* (VRPTW) is a generalization of the CVRP that introduces constraints that each location must be visited in a given time window (Toth and Vigo 2014). We modify the definition of the CVRP from Example 1 and introduce for each location $i \in V$ a time window $[e_i, l_i]$. The definition of a *route* is updated to be a sequence of vertices $[v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k]$ starting and ending at the depot with total demand at most Q , such that each location is visited during its time window. The requirement to use exactly *K* vehicles is relaxed. A vehicle is allowed to wait at a location until the start of the location's time window.

Graph Multicoloring We define the *graph multicoloring problem* as follows (Gualandi and Malucelli 2012). Given an undirected graph $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ and weights $b_v \in \mathbb{Z}$ for each $v \in V$, use the minimum number of colors possible to color each vertex *v* with *b^v* colors such that adjacent vertices are not assigned any of the same colors. Define a subset of vertices that are pairwise non-adjacent as an *independent set*. So, for each color, the set of vertices assigned that color must be an independent set. The *vertex coloring problem* is the graph multicoloring problem with $b_v = 1$ for all $v \in V$.

PDPTW The *pickup and delivery problem with time windows* (PDPTW) is a generalization of the VRPTW, with the addition of precedence constraints (Ropke et al. 2007). The notation is the same as for the VRPTW, but now the locations are partitioned into origin-destination pairs. The locations are labeled $V = \{0, 1, \ldots, 2n\}$ and partitioned into the depot node 0, and sets $\Phi = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $\Omega = \{n+1,\ldots,2n\}$ which represent pickup and delivery nodes respectively. For each origindestination pair, the demand of the destination is negative the demand of the origin. So, for each $i \in \Phi$, $q_i = -q_{i+n}$. A *route* has the same requirements as for the VRPTW, but now also includes precedence constraints that an origin node $i \in \Phi$ must be visited before its corresponding delivery node $i + n \in \Omega$ by the same vehicle. The problem is to minimize the total distance traveled by a set of feasible routes that visit all of the locations.

SOP The *sequential ordering problem* corresponds to the precedence-constrained (asymmetric) traveling salesman problem. It is a special case of the PDPTW on a single vehicle, without time windows or vehicle capacity and for which precedences are defined for a subset of pairs of locations.

8. Experimental Results

In this section, we provide an experimental evaluation of the computational performance of column elimination. We first consider the impact of the various components of the column elimination algorithm, and then give a comparison with the state-of-the-art.

8.1. Experimental Setup

All experiments are run on an Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6248R CPU \textcircled{a} 3.00GHz. We use CPLEX version 22.1 with one thread and default parameters. The best-known primal solution value is input to all solvers. For each experiment, we give each algorithm a timeout of 3,600 seconds. The Github repositories of the code will be made available upon acceptance of the paper.

Initial Relaxation: We use the following initial relaxations as defaults for each application, unless otherwise specified. For VRPTW, CVRP, PDPTW, we follow the description in Appendix B, starting with an initial *ng*-route relaxation with $\rho = 2$. For the VRPTW and PDPTW, we relax the capacity constraints for instances in the classes R2, C2, RC2 and we keep the capacity constraints for all others (Gehring and Homberger 2002). For VRPTW and PDPTW instances, we also set bucketing parameter Δ equal to the minimum non-zero service time. For graph multicoloring and vertex coloring instances, we start with the initial relaxation that is described in Appendix B.

Subgradient Descent: We make the following implementation decisions for column elimination with subgradient descent. At each iteration *k* of the subgradient method, we use a subgradient γ^k such that for each $j = 1, ..., m$, $\gamma_j^k = (b_j - \sum_{a \in A} g_j(a)y_a^k)$ where y_a^k is the solution to $L_k(\lambda^k)$. We use an estimated Polyak step size $\alpha^k = \frac{\psi^* - v(\lambda^k)}{||\gamma^k||_2^2}$ where $\psi^* = LB * (1 + \frac{5}{100+k})$ is an estimate of the optimal value, *k* is the iteration, *LB* is the best lower bound so far, and $v(\lambda)$ is the optimal value of $L_k(\lambda^k)$. To update the multipliers, we set $\lambda^{k+1} = \lambda^k + \alpha^k \gamma^k$ (Bertsekas 2009). For the VRPTW/CVRP, we use initial dual values $\lambda_i^1 = 2l_{(0,i)}\frac{q_i}{Q}$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$. For the SOP, we initialize λ_j^1 for each $j = 1, ..., m$ to the best known primal bound divided by the number of locations. For vertex coloring, we initialize $\lambda_j^1 = 0$ for each $j = 1, ..., m$. We do not 'dualize' constraints on the size of the subset of feasible sequences, like for the CVRP. We repair infeasible λ values using a greedy algorithm. We store the dual values that give the largest percent of fixed arcs, and we use these dual values for arc fixing at each iteration. We switch to using column elimination with CPLEX when variable fixing has reduced the number of arc variables to below 100,000 or by at least 97.5% of the total arcs.

Cutting Planes: For the VRPTW and CVRP, we give cut-and-refine the following defaults. We use the package CVRPSEP (Lysgaard 2003) to add at most 100 rounded capacity cuts at each iteration of column elimination. We do not add cuts during column elimination with subgradient descent.

8.2. Impact of Column Elimination Components

We performed an extensive evaluation of the various components of column elimination, using the different applications listed above for different purposes. We give details on the respective problem domains and the computational results in the online Appendices F-K. As a summary of these results, we report the following insights:

Subgradient Descent: Column elimination with subgradient descent performs well on VRPTW instances, but not on vertex coloring instances. This is likely due to the (non-)stability of the primal and dual solutions for successive iterations. (See Appendix F.)

Initial Relaxation: Larger initial relaxations are not always better. Our experimental study on the SOP shows that an initial relaxation that includes important constraints can perform well when the size of the state-transition graph is not too large. Otherwise, a weaker initial relaxation that corresponds to a smaller state-transition graph performs better. (See Appendix G.)

Minimum-Update SSP: The specialized minimum-update successive shortest paths algorithm is very effective, as it can solve the Lagrangean subproblems on average 3.7 times faster than a standard successive shortest paths algorithm for the CVRP. (See Appendix H.)

Variable Fixing: Variable fixing is critical to solving large-scale instances. Using variable fixing allows column elimination to solve CVRP instances on average 53% more quickly than without variable fixing. (See Appendix I.)

Cut-and-Refine: We show for the CVRP that cut-and-refine can be effective for column elimination using a linear programming solver, but is not as effective for column elimination with subgradient descent. This is due to the challenges related to integrating cutting planes into the Lagrangian reformulation and subgradient descent. (See Appendix J.)

Branch-and-Refine: Branch-and-refine can help when conflict refinement alone 'plateaus' at a sub-optimal bound. We find that it solves instances of the vertex coloring problem on average 2.3 times faster than without branching. (See Appendix K.)

8.3. Comparison with State-of-the-Art

We next compare column elimination to state-of-the-art algorithms for solving the VRPTW, the graph multicoloring problem, and the PDPTW. For each instance, we list the current best-known upper bound (UB) that each algorithm takes as input. For each method, we report the lower bound (LB) and time taken (Time (s)). For branch-and-cut-and-price methods, we give the number of explored nodes (Nodes). For column elimination, we also report the number of column elimination iterations (CEIt) and column elimination with subgradient descent iterations (CESIt), the number of cuts (Cuts), and the number of refinements (CR). For multicoloring instances, we also report the number of nodes *n* and edges *m* in the graph, an initial lower bound ω used for preprocessing, and the best upper bound found by each method.

8.3.1. VRPTW We use column elimination to solve the VRPTW instances from Gehring and Homberger (2002). We compare the performances of column elimination and the state-of-the-art solver called VRPSolver (Pessoa et al. 2020), which is based on branch-and-cut-and-price. We use VRPSolver with the default settings on the same server as the one we use for column elimination.

Before discussing the results, we consider the characteristics of the six classes of instances in the benchmark set: C1,C2,R1,R2,RC1,RC2. For C1 and C2, the locations are generated in clusters. For R1 and R2, the locations are randomly generated. For RC1 and RC2, some locations are clustered and some are randomly generated. For R1, C1, and RC1, each feasible route has few customers due to a short time horizon, which effectively removes the capacity constraint. For R2, C2, and RC2, feasible routes can have many customers and the capacity *Q* is large. In fact, VRPSolver relaxes the capacity constraint for problems in instances R2, C2, and RC2. So, we do the same in our initial relaxations. We hypothesize that column elimination will perform better when two characteristics of an instance hold. First, a strong relaxation of the set of feasible routes can be compactly represented. Second, conflict refinement can quickly close the gap between the initial relaxation and the full model. Instances with clustered locations are likely to require eliminating routes that have cycles within the clusters, but can leave many routes relaxed that have cycles across more than one cluster. This may allow a strong relaxation to be obtained quickly and remain over a compact network. Similarly, instances for which we use an initial dynamic program relaxation that does not maintain capacity in its states allows for a more compact network, so capacity values are only needed when they are the reason a useful route in the solution to a relaxation is infeasible. These characteristics allow the conflict refinements to strengthen relaxations. Thus, we hypothesize that column elimination may work well on C2 instances.

The results in Table 1 compare the performance of column elimination and VRPSolver for C2 instances with 400 and 600 locations. The table shows that column elimination can outperform VRPSolver on six instances. Table 2 shows the same comparison for three instances that column elimination solves. Based on CVRPLib (http://vrp.atd-lab.inf.puc-rio.br/index.php/en/), column elimination is able to close one instance and solve two others that were only recently closed by VRPSolver in work that is not yet published. We show the full table of results for all instance classes in Appendix L.

8.3.2. Graph Multicoloring We compare column elimination to the branch-and-price method from Gualandi and Malucelli (2012) (GM) for solving the COG graph multicoloring instances introduced in the same paper. We directly use the results from Gualandi and Malucelli (2012) from their paper, as their code is not available. The full table of results are presented in Appendix M.

The results in Table 3 show that column elimination closes five instances by obtaining an optimal solution at termination: COG-gesa2-o, COG-misc07, COG-nsrand-ipx, COG-opt1217, and COGrout. Column elimination solves four of these instances without making any conflict refinements. We attribute this to the initial relaxation that column elimination uses, which is not used in the branch-and-price method by Gualandi and Malucelli (2012).

8.3.3. PDPTW We compare column elimination to a dual ascent method from Baldacci et al. (2011a) (BBM) and VRPSolver for solving instances from Li and Lim (2001). We directly take the results from Baldacci et al. (2011a) from their paper as their code is not available. We use VRPSolver with the default settings and use the same server as the one we use for column elimination. The full table of results are presented in Appendix N.

The results show that BBM outperforms column elimination on all instances, although column elimination finds competitive bounds for many instances. In contrast, the general VRPSolver does not find a lower bound for any instance. Because no exact method including BBM and VRPSolver have reported results on many of the larger instances from Li and Lim (2001), we show in Table 4 six of these instances that column elimination closes.

9. Conclusion

We introduced column elimination as an iterative framework for solving a general class of discrete optimization problems. The framework models these problems by a minimum-cost constrained network flow problem over the state-transition graph of a dynamic program that stores the feasible sequences, their costs, and additional costs. We generalized earlier work by introducing the concept of dynamic programming relaxations, and described the column elimination algorithm as an iterative procedure that solves increasingly stronger dynamic programming relaxations of the problem by removing infeasible solutions. This iterative method converges in a finite number of steps to the optimal solution. As a variant, we presented a subgradient method that uses a minimum update successive shortest paths algorithm to solve the Lagrangian relaxation of the network flow problem. We showed that this method can solve the Lagrangian method more efficiently, but also allows refining the dynamic program relaxations more quickly. We also introduced cut-and-refine and branch-andrefine as extensions of the algorithm. Lastly, we showed experimentally that column elimination can be especially effective for large-scale instances, closing five open instances of the graph multicoloring problem, one open instance with 1,000 locations of the vehicle routing problem with time windows, and six open instances of the pickup-and-delivery problem with time windows.

Appendix A: Dynamic Program Relaxation Example

We give an example of a dynamic program relaxation that is not a state-space relaxation. First, we give the formal definition of a state-space relaxation. We will use a formal definition similar to the one in Christofides et al. (1981). Given (S_1, h_1, c_1, G_1) , define a state-space relaxation to be (S_2, h_2, c_2, G_2) that meets the following requirements. First, $|S_2| < |S_1|$. Second, there exists a mapping function $\mu : S_1 \to S_2$ such that for each $s_2 \in S_1$, for all $(s_1, u) \in h_1^{-1}(\{s_2\}), \ (\mu(s_1), u) \in h_2^{-1}(\{\mu(s_2)\}),$ where we define $h^{-1}(\{s_2\}) = \{(s_1, d):$ $h((s_1,d)) = s_2$ as the preimage of $s_2 \in S$, not to be confused with an inverse function. Third, for every $s_1 \in S_2$, $c_2(s_1, u) = \min_{\{s_3 \in S_1 | \mu(s_3) = u, \mu(h_1(s_3, u)) = h_2(s_1, u)\}} \{c_1(s_3, u)\}.$

We give an example of when a dynamic program relaxation is not a state-space relaxation in Proposition 2, using data for an example CVRP instance in Figure 6. The costs are not relaxed in either dynamic program, so we only argue about the solution sets complying with the definitions.

Proposition 2. *The dynamic program relaxation represented by the state-transition graph in Figure 5(b) is not a state-space relaxation.*

Proof For sake of contradiction assume the dynamic program relaxation is a state-space relaxation defined by a mapping μ . It must be the case that $\mu(r) = r$, which implies $\mu((\{1\},1,1)) = (\{1\},1,1)$ and $\mu((\{2\},1,2)) = (\{2\},1,2)$. This implies $\mu((\{1,2\},2,2)) = (\{1,2\},2,2)$ and $\mu((\{2,1\},2,1)) = (\{1\},2,1)$. Finally, this implies $\mu((\{1,2,3\},3,3)) = (\{1,2,3\},3,3)$, which would require $h((\{2,1\},2,1),3) = (\{1,2,3\},3,3)$, but in the dynamic program relaxation shown $h(((2,1),2,1),3) = ((2,1,3),3,3)$ (the states labelled $((1,2,3),3,3)$) and $({2,1,3},3,3)$ are distinct even though they represent the same information), which is a contradiction. *Q.E.D.*

Appendix B: Application Models

B.1. VRPTW

The problem P has the same form as the CVRP, but the set S is further restricted to routes that respect the time window constraints. To create *P*, we extend the model for the CVRP as follows. We augment the states of the dynamic program to consider time. The states become tuples $(\overline{NG}, w, v, \tau)$ where τ is the current time. The initial state is $r = (\emptyset, 0, 0, 0)$. Given a state $s = (NG, w, v, \tau)$ and element $u \in U$ such that $u \neq 0, u \notin NG$, $w + q_u \le Q$, and $\tau + \ell_{v,u} \le l_u$, the transition function becomes $h(s, u) = (NG \cup \{u\}, w + q_u, u, \max(\tau + \ell_{v,u}, e_u)).$ Otherwise if $u = 0$ and $\tau + \ell_{v,0} \leq l_0$, define $h(s, 0) = t$. Otherwise $h(s, u) = -1$. The cost function is the same

We relax the model by creating a dynamic programming relaxation w.r.t. *P*. We use an *ng*-route relaxation and also consider relaxing the time windows and/or vehicle capacity. To relax the time windows, we use a 'bucketing' idea from the column generation literature (Sadykov et al. 2021). When a transition would create a state with time value τ , round down τ to the nearest multiple of $\Delta \in \mathbb{Z}$. To relax the load values, for certain instances we set all states to have load 0. This way, we only create states that remember load when conflicts are refined. We use a binary value *κ* to indicate if capacity should be relaxed or not. We add a counter *c* to all states to maintain an acyclic state-transition graph (Horn 2021). We use an upper bound denoted *U* on the number of locations in a route, because the relaxation can create many long infeasible routes. We calculate *U* by using two greedy methods based on summing the smallest loads up to *Q* and summing the shortest distances with service times compared to l_0 .

Formally, we construct an initial dynamic programming relaxation $P' = (S', h', c', G')$ w.r.t. *P*. Each state is a tuple (NG, w, v, τ, c) with the initial state being $r_1 = (\emptyset, 0, 0, 0, 0)$. The set of states S' is implicitly in defining a transition function *h'*. Given a state $s = (NG, w, v, \tau, c)$ and label $u \in U$ such that $u \neq 0, u \notin NG$, $w + q_u \le Q$, $\tau + \ell_{v,u} \le l_u$, and $c < U$, let the transition function be $h'(s, u) = ((NG \cup \{u\}) \cap N_u, (w + q_u) *$ $(1 - \kappa), u, \max(\lfloor \frac{\tau + \ell_{v,u}}{\Delta} \rfloor * \Delta, e_v), c + 1)$. Otherwise, when $u = 0$ and $\tau + \ell_{v,0} \le l_0$, define $h'(s, 0) = t$. Otherwise $h'(s, u) = -1$. Then, we keep the same cost function $c' = c$ and the same additional cost function $G' = G$.

B.2. Graph Multicoloring

The problem P is formed by an element set $U = \{1, ..., |V|\}$, a set S containing all independent sets in $\mathcal G$ as sequences with strictly increasing values, a constant cost function $f = 1$, and for a subset of sequences $X, C(X) = 1$ if and only if all vertices are contained in at least one sequence. We represent the constraint function as a tuple $(\gamma_j, =, b_j)$ for each $j = 1, ..., |V|$ such that $\gamma_j(x) = [j \in x]$.

We model the problem with a dynamic program $P = (S, h, c, G)$. The dynamic program will depend on an ordering of the vertices $\{1, \ldots, |V|\}$, similar to the one in van Hoeve (2022). In our experiments, we use a variable ordering called 'min width' from Karahalios and van Hoeve (2022). Let each state *s* = (NG) contain a 'no-good' subset of vertices NG that can no longer be included in an independent set. The initial state is $r = (\emptyset)$. The transition function given a state $s = (NG)$ and decision *i* such that $i \notin NG$ is $h(s, i) =$

 $(NG \cup N_i \cup \{1, \ldots, i\}),$ where N_i is the set of neighbors of vertex *i*, and all vertices with smaller index are included in the updated NG to break symmetries. The dynamic program differs from the one in van Hoeve (2022), because in that work the set of decisions was binary and each transition corresponded to selecting a vertex to be in the independent set or not. The cost function is $c(r, i) = 1$ for all $i \in U$, and $c(s, i) = 0$ when $s \neq r$ for all $i \in U$. Second, we construct *G*. For each $j = 1, ..., m$, we create an additional cost function $g_j((s, u)) = [j = u].$

We relax the model by creating a dynamic programming relaxation $P' = (S', h', c', G')$ w.r.t. *P*. Each state maintains a 'no-good' subset of vertices $s = (NG)$ and the initial state is $r = (\emptyset)$. The dynamic program only 'remembers' the latest decision. Formally, given a state $s = (NG)$ and feasible transition $u \in U$ such that $u \notin NG$, define $h'(s, u) = (\{1, \ldots, u\} \cup N_u)$. Otherwise, $h'(s, u) = -1$. We keep the same cost function $c' = c$ and additional cost functions $G' = G$.

In our experiments, we use a common preprocessing rule to simplify the graph $\mathcal G$ before setting up the model. We remove a vertex if the sum of the weights of its neighbors plus its own weight is smaller than a lower bound on the optimal solution value. For multicoloring, we use an initial maximum (weighted) clique from Gualandi and Malucelli (2012) as an initial lower bound for this preprocessing.

B.3. PDPTW / SOP

The problem P has the same form as the VRPTW, but the sequences in S must also follow the precedence constraints. We define the set of precedence locations for each location $u \in V$ as Π_u . So, for $u \in D$, $\Pi_u = \{u$ n , and $\Pi_u = \emptyset$ otherwise. We define the transition function as follows. Each state is a tuple $s = (NG, w, v, \tau)$ and the initial state is $r = (NG, w, v, \tau)$. Given a state $s = (NG, w, v, \tau)$ and element $u \in U$ such that $u \neq 0$, $u \notin \text{NG, } \Pi_u \subseteq \text{NG, } w + q_u \leq Q \text{, and } \tau + \ell_{v,u} \leq l_u \text{, let } h(s,u) = (\text{NG} \cup \{u\}, (w+q_u)*(1-\kappa), u, \lfloor \frac{\max(\tau + \ell_{v,u}, e_u)}{\Delta} \rfloor * \ell_{v,u} \leq \ell$ Δ , *c*+1). Otherwise, when $u = 0$ and $\tau + \ell_{v,0} \leq l_0$, define $h(s, 0) = t$. Otherwise $h(s, u) = -1$. The cost function and the additional costs are the same as for the VRPTW.

We relax the model in a similar way to the VRPTW, while also relaxing precedence constraints. To relax the model, we create a dynamic programming relaxation $P' = (S', h', c', G')$ w.r.t. *P*. Again, we add a counter *c* to each state, so each state has the form $s = (NG, w, v, \tau, c)$. The initial state is $r = (\emptyset, 0, 0, 0, 0)$. Then, for a state $s = (NG, w, v, \tau, c)$ and transition u such that $u \neq 0$, $u \notin NG$, $w + q_u \leq Q$, $\tau + \ell_{v,u} \leq l_u$, and $c < |V|$, let $h'(s, u) = ((\text{NG} \cup \{u\}) \cap N_u, (w + q_u) * (1 - \kappa), u, \max(\lfloor \frac{\tau + \ell_{v,u}}{\Delta} \rfloor * \Delta, e_u), c + 1).$ When $u = 0$, let $h'(s, u) = t$. Otherwise $h'(s, u) = -1$. We use the same cost function $c_1 = c$ and additional cost functions $G' = G$.

Similar to other works in the vehicle routing literature, we aim to solve instances based on distances that are rounded to the thousandths place. To do this, we start by rounding distances to the hundredths place and solving the instance. Then, we keep the *Pⁱ* at termination, update the distances to be rounded to the thousandths place, and solve the instance again. We model the SOP in this way, with the additional constraint that a solution has one sequence.

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Instance			VRPSolver				Column Elimination			
Name	UB	LB	Nodes	Time (s)	LB	CEIt	CESIt	CR	Cuts	Time (s)
$C2_4_1$	4100.3	4100.3	$1\,$	852	4085.95	29	150	992	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_4_10$	3665.1	3647.88	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	3397.41	$1\,$	175	2128	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_4_2$	3914.1	3900.22	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	3815.14	$\mathbf{1}$	152	2153	0	3600
$C2_43$	3755.2	3723.96	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	3348.42	$1\,$	79	1021	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_4_4$	3523.7	3486.12	$1\,$	3600	2725.34	$1\,$	51	474	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_45$	3923.2	3923.2	$\mathbf{1}$	971	3831.85	$1\,$	376	5034	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_{-}4_{-}6$	3860.1	3860.1	1	2466	3696.11	1	291	3892	0	3600
$C2_4_7$	3870.9	3870.9	$\mathbf{1}$	1483	3692.25	$1\,$	253	3391	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_4_8$	3773.7	3770.24	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	3553.38	$1\,$	232	3090	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_4_9$	3842.1	3806.45	$\mathbf 1$	3600	3568.74	1	210	2714	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_1$	7752.2	7719.46	$\,1\,$	3600	7688.34	$\mathbf 1$	391	1671	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_10$	7123.9	6340.81	$\mathbf 1$	3600	6437.63	$\mathbf 1$	94	1733	0	3600
$C2_62$	7471.5	7075.15	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	7177.06	$\mathbf 1$	94	1546	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_3$	7215	4670.06	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	5953.32	$\mathbf 1$	41	593	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_65$	7553.8	7540.44	$\mathbf 1$	3600	7241.6	$\mathbf{1}$	231	4427	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_6$	7449.8	7400.61	$\mathbf 1$	3600	6976.78	$\mathbf 1$	168	3227	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_7$	7491.3	6294.69	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	6966.47	$\mathbf 1$	151	2871	0	3600
$C2_6 - 8$	7303.7	7223.09	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	6753.56	1	140	2559	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C2_6_9$	7303.2	5754.15	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	6741.86	$\mathbf{1}$	104	1834	0	3600

Table 1 The performance of column elimination on VRPTW instances from Gehring and Homberger (2002)

	Instance		VRPSolver		Column Elimination						
Name	UB	LB.		Nodes Time (s)			LB LPIt Lagit		CR Time (s)		
$C1_{-}10_{-}5$	42434.8	42434.8	1	1227	42434.8	5	397	7468	6224		
C185	25138.6	25138.6	1	737	25138.6	4		144 3198	1340		
$C2_{-}10_{-}1$	16841.1		$\overline{}$	3600	16841.1	17	145	1661	10049		

Table 2 The performance of column elimination on three difficult VRPTW instances.

Table 3 The performance of column elimination on the five graph multicoloring instances that it closes.

	Instance					GМ	Column Elimination				
Name	n	m	ω	LB		UB Time (s)		LB UB	LPIt	CR	Time (s)
COG-gesa2-o	192	144	12	12	13	3600	12	12	\mathcal{P}	Ω	Ω
$COG-misc07$	410	2928	36	36	39	3600	36	36	141	581	139
COG-nsrand-ipx	13240	69510	30			3600	30	30	2	$\overline{0}$	5
COG-opt1217	1536	6528	26			3600	26	26	2	$\overline{0}$	13
COG-rout	560	2940	30	30	32	3600	30	30	\mathcal{P}	Ω	Ω

	Instance	Column Elimination							
Name	UB	LB	CEIt	CESIt		CR Time (s)			
LC1_4_1 7152.06		7152.06	8	15	217	50			
LC145	7150.0	7150.0	9	32	609	477			
LC146	7154.02	7154.02	19	73	1867	3295			
$LC1_6_5$	14086.3	14086.3	8	91	2140	1620			
LC ₂ 2 1	1931.44	1931.44	37	54	494	300			
LC ₂ 4 1	4116.33	4116.33	12	113	1123	1555			

Table 4 The performance of column elimination on six PDPTW instances from Li and Lim (2001) that it solves that have not been reported on by an exact solver.

Figure 1 Column elimination for solving *LP*(*F*)**.**

Figure 2 Pure column elimination for solving *F***.**

Figure 3 Cut-and-refine for solving *F***.**

Figure 4 Column elimination for solving *LP*(*F*) **using subgradient descent.**

Figure 5 The state-transition graph on the left is a state-space relaxation of a dynamic program, and the state-transition graph on the right is a dynamic program relaxation created by removing some feasible sequences from the state-space relaxation on the left.

			l_{ij} 0 1 2 3 4 5	
Locations $V = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$			$\begin{array}{c cccccc} 0 & 0 & 12 & 10 & 11 & 10 & 11 \\ 1 & 12 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 22 & 23 \\ 2 & 10 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 20 & 21 \\ 3 & 11 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 21 & 22 \end{array}$	
$Depot = 0$				
Demands $q_1 = q_2 = q_3 = q_4 = 1, q_5 = 3$				
Number of vehicles $K = 2$				
Vehicle capacity $Q = 4$			$\begin{array}{c cccc}\n4 & 10 & 22 & 20 & 21 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline\n5 & 11 & 23 & 21 & 22 & 1 & 0\n\end{array}$	

Figure 6 Input data for a CVRP instance.

Appendix C: CVRP Formulation

The model F to solve the CVRP is formulated as follows:

$$
F: \min \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} c_a y_a \tag{9}
$$

$$
\text{s.t.} \sum_{a \in \delta^+(r)} y_a = K \tag{10}
$$

$$
\sum_{(s,u)\in\mathcal{A}:u=j} y_a = 1 \qquad \qquad \forall j = 1,...,m \tag{11}
$$

$$
\sum_{a \in \delta^+(u)} y_a - \sum_{a \in \delta^-(u)} y_a = 0 \qquad \forall u \in \mathcal{N} \setminus \{r, t\} \tag{12}
$$

$$
y_a \in \{0, 1\} \qquad \qquad \forall a \in \mathcal{A}.\tag{13}
$$

The objective function (9) minimizes the sum of all arc costs. The 'flow conservation' constraints (12) ensure that the solution is a collection of labeled *r*-*t* paths, or single feasible routes. Constraint (10) enforces that exactly *K* units of flow originate from *r* and thus *K* routes are used. Constraints (11) ensure that all locations are visited once. The binary constraints (13) complete the formulation.

Appendix D: Variable Fixing

Variable fixing is an important method to improve the performance of column elimination. Variable fixing is an acceleration method used in integer programming (Nemhauser and Wolsey 1988) and constraint programming (Focacci et al. 1999) to prove that a variable must equal its lower bound or upper bound in an optimal solution. For integer programming, the proof requires a primal bound and a feasible dual solution to the linear programming relaxation. For column elimination, we use a variable fixing algorithm that considers one arc $a \in A$ at a time and reasons about all $r - t$ paths that traverse the arc. Theorem 6 generalizes the arc fixing theorem from Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023), which is based on Irnich et al. (2010).

Let *ν* be a feasible solution to the dual of $LP(F)$ such that each *ν* corresponds to G. For each arc $a \in \mathcal{A}$ we define a 'reduced cost distance' $rc(y_a) = c_a - \sum_{j=1}^m g_j(a)\nu_j$. For each node $u \in \mathcal{N}$, we define sp_u^{\downarrow} as the shortest *r*-*u* path in the state-transition graph of *P* with respect to the reduced cost distances, and similarly define sp_u^{\uparrow} to be the shortest *u*-*t* path in the state-transition graph of *P*.

THEOREM 6. *Consider arc* $a = (v_1, v_2) \in \mathcal{A}$. Let $v(\nu)$ be the solution value of ν to the dual of $LP(F)$ *, and let UB an upper bound on the optimal solution value for F. If* $v(\nu) + sp_{v_1}^{\downarrow} + sp_{v_2}^{\uparrow} + rc(a) > UB$, then arc a *can be fixed to have flow 0 in F.*

Proof Consider the following integer program that is equivalent to *F*, created by enumerating the solutions to S , where A_x is the set of arcs in the solution x .

$$
(IP) \quad \min \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} z_x f(x) \tag{14}
$$

s.t.
$$
\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} z_x \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}_x} g_j(a) \circ_j b_j \qquad \forall j \in \{1, ..., m\}
$$
 (15)

$$
z \in \mathbb{Z}_+^{|\mathcal{X}|} \tag{16}
$$

Given ν and a solution *x*, in the linear program relaxation of *IP*, the variable z_x has reduced cost $rc(x)$ = $f(x) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} \nu_j \sum_{a \in A_x} g_j(a)$. Each x corresponds to a path $p = \{a_1, \ldots, a_l\}$ in \mathcal{D} , so $rc(x)$ can be decomposed into $rc(x) = \sum_{a \in A_x} rc(y_a)$. For all *p* that contain arc *a*, let *p*' be the path that corresponds to the route *x* with lowest reduced cost. Denote the lowest reduced cost as $rc'(x') = sp_{v_1}^{\downarrow} + sp_{v_2}^{\uparrow} + rc(a)$. Now for sake of contradiction assume an optimal solution to *F* has $y_a = 1$. Then some solution x'' in D that contains arc *a* will be in the solution *X* to *F*, which is equivalent to $z_{x''}=1$ in *IP*. To construct the remainder of an optimal solution to the linear programming relaxation of *IP*, we can solve the linear programming relaxation with the constraints defined by *G* adjusted to have the values contributed from x'' removed. Then, ν remains feasible to the dual of this updated problem and has value $v(\nu) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} \nu_j \sum_{a \in A_{x''}} g_j(a)$. So, combining this feasible dual with the cost of *x*["] gives a valid lower bound on *IP* as $v(\nu) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} \nu_j \sum_{a \in A_{x''}} g_j(a) + f(x'')$. This contradicts UB. Specifically, $v(\nu) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} \nu_j \sum_{a \in A_{x''}} g_j(a) + f(x'') = v(\nu) + rc(x'') \ge v(\nu) + rc(x') \ge$ $v(\nu) + sp_{v_1}^{\downarrow} + sp_{v_2}^{\uparrow} + rc(a) > UB.$ Q.E.D.

Appendix E: Convergence of Column Elimination with Subgradient Descent

It is not straightforward to analyze the convergence of column elimination with subgradient descent. Given F_i , subgradient descent will converge to an optimal dual solution for $LP(F_i)$ if a divergent series steplength is used (Anstreicher and Wolsey 2009). However, an optimal primal solution is needed to determine if any conflicts need to be refined. Subgradient descent produces a sequence of solutions to the Lagrangian relaxation whose average converges to an optimal primal solution, but this does not theoretically guarantee that an optimal primal solution is found (Anstreicher and Wolsey 2009).

So, to evaluate the convergence of the algorithm in practice, we consider the following example. We apply column elimination and column elimination with subgradient descent to solve the instance C1.2.5 of the Vehicle Routing Problem with Time Windows (VRPTW) from Gehring and Homberger (2002), which we define in the next section. For each algorithm, we plot the sequence of dual solutions obtained at each iteration, converted into three dimensions using a principal component analysis method. Figure 7(a) shows that the optimal dual solutions of column elimination can greatly change from one iteration to the next, possibly indicating degeneracy, which can hinder column generation. In contrast, Figure 7(b) shows a smooth path of dual solution values, indicating that each step of subgradient descent is in the general direction of the optimal dual solution to $LP(F)$ that the algorithm finds upon termination.

a. CPLEX b. Lagrangian Method

Figure 7 Sequences of dual solutions obtained by running a column elimination and column elimination with subgradient descent to solve the VRPTW instance C1 2 5. The dual solutions are plotted in three dimensions using the Python package 'sklearn'.

Appendix F: Evaluating Column Elimination with Subgradient Descent

We give insights into when column elimination with subgradient descent will outperform column elimination. To do this, we apply each algorithm to solve the vertex coloring instances from Johnson and Trick (1996) and the VRPTW instances from Gehring and Homberger (2002) and Solomon (1987). We choose these two applications, because they differ in the following way. The primal and dual solutions to F_i and F_{i+1} for some iteration *i* can be greatly different for vertex coloring. However, for the VRPTW, the primal and dual solutions can remain very similar. This property affects the performance of column elimination with subgradient descent for two reasons. Firstly, it changes the likelihood that refinements of conflicts at the current iteration will benefit future iterations. Secondly, the steps of subgradient descent are more likely to be in the direction of the optimal solutions to *F*. So, we hypothesize that column elimination with subgradient descent will perform well for the VRPTW, but not for vertex coloring problem.

We show a plot that validates our hypothesis. For instances that both column elimination and column elimination with subgradient descent solver, we plot the time it takes for column elimination and column elimination with subgradient descent to solve each instance in Figure 8(a). For vertex coloring, column elimination solves instances on average 195 seconds faster than column elimination with subgradient descent. For the VRPTW, the column elimination with subgradient descent solves instances on average 330 seconds faster than column elimination. For vertex coloring, column elimination solves 13 additional instances and column elimination with subgradient descent solves no additional instances. For the VRPTW, column elimination with subgradient descent solves two additional instances and column elimination solves one additional instance.

Figure 8 a) The time taken to solve VRPTW and vertex coloring (VC) instances using column elimination (CE) and column elimination with subgradient descent (CESGD). The axes use log scales. b) The optimality gap achieved when using column elimination with subgradient descent starting with an initial ng-route relaxation with *ρ* = 2 **(CESGD NG2) and an initial ng-route relaxation with** *ρ* = 8 **(CESGD NG8) for the SOP with** *p***% precedence constraints.**

Appendix G: Sensitivity to Initial Relaxations

We evaluate the sensitivity of column elimination to the initial relaxation. To do this, we use column elimination with subgradient descent and two different initial relaxations to solve the TSPLIB SOP instances (Ascheuer et al. 2000). The two initial relaxations are *ng*-route with $\rho = 2$ and $\rho = 8$. We aim to test the behavior of the following general tradeoff. A stronger initial relaxation can reduce the number of conflict refinements needed for column elimination to solve the problem, but it can increase the time needed to solve $LP(F_i)$ at each iteration. In the context of the SOP, we consider that an initial relaxation relaxes precedence constraints and the constraint that the solution is an elementary path. We hypothesize that a stronger *ng*-route relaxation will capture the constraint that a solution is an elementary path, but not capture the precedence constraints because the *NG* sets are different for each location, so larger *NG* sets do not necessarily encode precedence constraints for solutions that have two locations appearing far apart in the ordering.

We show a plot that gives insight into this hypothesis. We plot the optimality gaps achieved at termination when starting with the $\rho = 2$ and $\rho = 8$ initial relaxations in Figure 8(b). The instances are partitioned based on the percent of values in the distance matrix that are indicate a precedence, which we denote at *p*. The groups are $p \le 10$, $10 < p < 40$, and $p \ge 40$. The instances in the group $p \le 10$ tend to have a smaller number of vertices than the instances in the group with $p \geq 40$. The average number of locations is 63 and 263 respectively. The plot shows that for instances with a low percent of precedences, starting with the $\rho = 8$ initial relaxation is beneficial. For these instances, the size of the initial relaxation for $\rho = 8$ is small enough that column elimination can run for many iterations; when using $\rho = 8$ the median number of iterations solved is 3507 and when using $\rho = 2$ the median is 19389 iterations. In comparison, the plot shows that for instances with a high percent of precedences, starting with the $\rho = 2$ initial relaxation is beneficial. For these instances, when using $\rho = 8$, the median number of iterations solved is only 206, and when using $\rho = 2$ the median is 1038 iterations.

Appendix H: Impact of Using Minimum Update SSP

We evaluate the impact of the minimum update successive shortest paths (muSSP) instead of SSP during column elimination with subgradient descent. We use column elimination with subgradient descent to solve ten CVRP instances from Uchoa et al. (2017) each with a different number of locations. At each iteration, we solve $L(\lambda)$ using both muSSP and SSP. We plot the runtimes in Figure 9(b). For smaller instances, there is not much impact, but for larger instances muSSP can greatly improve performance. Using muSSP solves the subproblem on average 3*.*7 times faster than using SSP.

Appendix I: Impact of Using Variable Fixing

We evaluate the effect of using variable fixing during column elimination. We use column elimination with and without subgradient descent, and with and without variable fixing, to solve the VRPTW instances from

a. Impact of muSSP b. Impact of Variable Fixing

Figure 9 a) The difference in solve time of *L*(*λ*) **between SSP and muSSP for solving VRPTW instances with column elimination. For both plots, the axes use log scales. b) The runtime to solve CVRP instances using column elimination and column elimination with subgradient descent both with and without variable fixing.**

Solomon (1987). We plot the run times of instances solved by both methods in Figure 9(a). Variable fixing allows column elimination with subgradient descent to solve one additional instance and solved instances on average 106 seconds faster than without variable fixing. Variable fixing allows column elimination without subgradient descent to solve 4 additional instances and solved instances on average 110 seconds faster than without variable fixing. These are the first experimental results for using variable fixing during column elimination with subgradient descent by checking dual feasibility and repairing infeasible duals.

Appendix J: Evaluating Cut-and-refine

We evaluate the performance of cut-and-refine compared to column elimination. We implement cut-and-refine for the CVRP using the framework in Figure 3. We apply column elimination without adding any cutting planes and cut-and-refine on the CVRP instances from http://vrp.atd-lab.inf.puc-rio.br/index.php/ en/ in classes A,B,M,E,F, and P. We also apply column elimination with subgradient descent without any cutting planes and cut-and-refine with subgradient descent to the same instances. We choose to remove the constraint that a solution must use *K* vehicles, as this is the case for the large-scale VRPTW instances that we will evaluate when comparing to the state-of-the-art. Similar experiments that include the constraint on the number of vehicles are shown in Karahalios and van Hoeve (2023).

Figure 10 a) The runtime to solve VRPTW instances using column elimination with and without subgradient descent, with and without cuts. b) The runtime to solve vertex coloring instances using column elimination (CE) and branch-and-refine. For this plot the axes use log scales.

We plot the optimality gaps achieved at termination for both column elimination without cuts, column elimination with subgradient descent without cuts, cut-and-refine, and cut-and-refine with subgradient descent in Figure 10(a). The plot shows that cut-and-refine achieves better optimality gaps than column elimination without cutting planes. However, the plot also shows that cut-and-refine with subgradient descent does not improve the performance of column elimination with subgradient descent without cutting planes.

Appendix K: Evaluating Branch-and-refine

We evaluate the performance of branch-and-refine. We implement branch-and-refine for the vertex coloring problem. We use Zykov branching, which chooses two nonadjacent vertices and defines one branch by contracting these vertices and the other branch by adding an edge between the vertices (Corneil and Graham 1973). We choose the two nonadjacent vertices with the highest sum of their degrees, using an ordering of the vertices as a tie breaker. We terminate the algorithm when solving a subproblem if there has not been an improvement to the lower bound for 30 seconds. We choose the subproblem with the greatest lower bound as the one to solve next, using the most recently created node as a tie breaker. We solve the DIMACS vertex coloring instances using branch-and-cut and column elimination Johnson and Trick (1996).

We plot the runtimes of column elimination and branch-and-refine on instances that both methods solve in Figure 10(b). Branch-and-refine solves instances on average 2*.*3 times faster than without using branching. Branch-and-refine solves an additional 7 instances, mostly FullIns instances related to Mycielski graphs. Using column elimination without branching solves an additional 8 instances, mostly larger instances that require more conflict refinements.

Appendix L: VRPTW Results

	Instance		VRPSolver		Column Elimination					
Name	UB	LB	Nodes	Time (s)			LB CEIt CESIt	CR —	Cuts	Time (s)
$C1_{-}10_{-}1$	42444.8	42444.8	$\mathbf{1}$	1219	42389.3	$\mathbf{1}$	290	742	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C1_10_10$	39816.8		$\overline{}$	3600	37913.0	$\mathbf{1}$	24	3814	0	3600
$C1_10_2$	41337.8	41068.76	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	39383.6	$\mathbf{1}$	48	3954	0	3600
$C1_10_3$	40064.4			3600	38051.3	$\mathbf{1}$	12	2637	0	3600
$C1_10_5$	42434.8	42434.8	$\mathbf{1}$	1227	41924.9	$\mathbf{1}$	176	4239	0	3600
$C1_10_6$	42437	42437.0	$\mathbf{1}$	1670	41184.4	$\mathbf{1}$	120	6296	0	3600
$C1_10_7$	42420.4	42305.87	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	40791.3	$\mathbf{1}$	125	5321	0	3600
$C1_{-}10_{-}8$	41652.1	41062.0	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	39042.5	$\mathbf{1}$	76	6491	0	3600
$C1_10_9$	40288.4	39508.04	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	38150.4	$\mathbf{1}$	44	4953	0	3600
$C1_{-2_{-1}}$	2698.6	2698.6	$\mathbf{1}$	11	2698.6	$\overline{4}$	$\mathbf{1}$	3	$\boldsymbol{0}$	11
$C1_2_10$	2624.7	2624.7	$\mathbf{1}$	218	2522.82	3	861	8265	0	3600
$C1_{-2_{-2}}$	2694.3	2694.3	$\mathbf{1}$	29	2694.3	12	121	1099	41	821
$C1_{-2_{-3}}$	2675.8	2675.8	3	338	2614.92	$\mathbf{1}$	680	5772	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C1_{-2_{-4}}$	2625.6	2625.6	$\mathbf{1}$	457	2516.12	$\mathbf{1}$	414	6904	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3600
$C1_{-2.5}$	2694.9	2694.9	$\mathbf{1}$	16	2694.9	6	$\mathbf{1}$	12	1	84
$C1_2_6$	2694.9	2694.9	$\mathbf{1}$	20	2694.9	6	12	79	$\overline{2}$	129
$C1_{-2_{-7}}$	2694.9	2694.9	$\mathbf{1}$	18	2694.9	7	11	85	4	173
$C1_2_8$	2684	2684.0	$\mathbf{1}$	26	2680.18	24		124 2178	48	3600
$C1_{-}2_{-}9$	2639.6	2639.6	$\mathbf{1}$	65	2578.09	6	1150	9021	0	3600
$C1_4_1$	7138.8	7138.8	$\mathbf{1}$	99	7138.8	$\overline{4}$	12	23	1	50
$C1_4_10$	6825.4	6820.19	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	6608.93	$\mathbf{1}$	226	7098	$\pmb{0}$	3600
$C1_4_2$	7113.3	7113.3	$\overline{7}$	587	7046.75	$\mathbf{1}$	349	3188	$\pmb{0}$	3600
$C1_4_3$	6929.9	6929.9	$\mathbf{1}$	991	6769.86	$\mathbf{1}$	158	4852	0	3600
$C1_4_4$	6777.7	6769.16	$\mathbf{1}$	3600	6578.63	$\mathbf{1}$	79	4988	0	3600

Table 5 A comparison of the performance of VRPSolver from Pessoa et al. (2020) and column elimination for solving VRPTW instances by Gehring and Homberger (2002).

Appendix M: Multicoloring Results

	Instance					GM			Column Elimination				
Name	n	m	ω	LB	UB	Time(s)	LB	UB	CElt	CR	Time (s)		
COG-10teams	3200	124480	73			3600	71	1600	25	3713	3373		
COG-air04	17808	2121648	377	377	377	1.8	377	377	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	6		
COG-air05	14390	2527253	413			3600	1	5295	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf 0$	2117		
COG-atlanta-ip	8124	9250	15	15	15	1844	15	15	$\overline{2}$	17	$\mathbf{1}$		
COG-cap6000	11992	12103	14	14	14	304	14	14	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$		
$COG-ds$	15252	2057486	$\mathbf{1}$	500	500	6.5					3600		
COG-gesa2-o	192	144	12	12	13	3600	12	12	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$		
COG-misc07	410	2928	36	36	39	3600	36	36	141	581	139		
COG-mkc	10394	154870	169	169	169	0.1	169	169	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf{1}$		
COG-mod011	192	336	12	12	13	3600	12	13	61	2395	3266		
COG-mzzv11	19942	257012	101	101	101	0.1	101	101	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	5		
COG-mzzv42z	18806	225687	91	91	91	0.1	91	91	$\mathbf{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	4		
COG-net12	3202	4835	17	17	17	1301	17	17	$\mathbf{2}$	17	0		
COG-nsrand-ipx	13240	69510	30			3600	30	30	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	5		
COG-opt1217	1536	6528	26			3600	26	26	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	13		
COG-rd-rplusc-21	904	11785	109	109	109	$\mathbf 0$	109	109	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$		
COG-rout	560	2940	30	30	32	3600	30	30	$\overline{2}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf 0$		
COG-swath	12480	958000	317			3600					3600		

Table 6 A comparison of the performance of the branch-and-price algorithm created by Gualandi and Malucelli (2012) and that of column elimination for solving the COG instances created in Gualandi and Malucelli (2012).

Appendix N: PDPTW Results

Instance			BBM			VRPSolver			Column Elimination		
Name	UB	LB	UB	Time (s)	LB	Time(s)	LB		CEIt CESIt	CR	Time (s)
$LC1_2_1$	2704.6	2704.6	2704.6	3.3	$\overline{}$	3600	2704.57	10	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{7}$	3600
LC1 ₋₂₋₁₀	2741.6	2741.6	2741.6	137.1	\blacksquare	3600	2389.82	$\mathbf{1}$	324	6034	3600
$LC1_22_2$	2764.6	2764.6	2764.6	21.5	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	3600	2757.11	74	126	2608	3600
$LC1_2_3$	2772.2	2772.2	2772.2	114.9	\overline{a}	3600	2499.26	1	124	2080	3600
$LC1_2_4$	2661.4	2395.8	2661.4	454.2	$\overline{}$	3600					3600
$LC1_2_5$	2702.0	2702.0	2702.0	4.8	$\overline{}$	3600	2702.05	10	13	176	130
$LC1_2_6$	2701.0	2701.0	2701.0	7.4	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	3600	2701.04	10	24	337	129
$LC1_2_7$	2701.0	2701.0	2701.0	7.7	$\overline{}$	3600	2701.04	9	23	311	130
$LC1_2_8$	2689.8	2689.8	2689.8	16.0	$\overline{}$	3600	2673.18	5	1053	6399	3600
$LC1_2_9$	2724.2	2724.2	2724.2	55.3	\overline{a}	3600	2606.42	$\mathbf{1}$	638	11183	3600
LR1_2_1	4819.1	4819.1	4819.1	1.6	$\overline{}$	3600	4819.12	18	$\mathbf{1}$	416	75
LR1_2_10	3386.3	3386.3	3386.3	1376.7	$\overline{}$	3600	2614.42	1	342	3346	3600
LR1_2_2	4093.1	4093.1	4093.1	20.6	\blacksquare	3600	3868.42	1	176	2011	3600
LR1_2_3	3486.8	3486.8	3486.8	3690.8	$\overline{}$	3600					3600
LR1_2_4	2830.7	2341.8	2830.7	1809.6	$\overline{}$	3600					3600
LR1_2_5	4221.6	4221.6	4221.6	2.6	$\overline{}$	3600	4170.29	6	1309	8835	3600
LR1_2_6	3763.0	3763.0	3763.0	180.9	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	3600	3256.39	$\mathbf{1}$	250	3008	3600
LR1_2_7	3112.9	2761.8	3112.9	1320.4	$\qquad \qquad -$	3600					3600
LR1_2_8	2645.5	2150.8	2645.5	566.9	\blacksquare	3600				$\overline{}$	3600
LR1_2_9	3953.5	3953.3	3953.5	15.4	\equiv	3600	3590.42	$\mathbf{1}$	789	9524	3600
LRC1_2_1	3606.1	3606.1	3606.1	3.1	\equiv	3600	3530.91	3	1711	12737	3600
LRC1_2_10	2837.5	2335.5	2837.5	217.4	\equiv	3600	2146.89	$\mathbf 1$	379	4560	3600
LRC1_2_2	3292.4	3292.4	3292.4	322.3	$\overline{}$	3600	2778.25	$\mathbf{1}$	226	3014	3600

Table 7 Comparing the performance of the dual ascent method from Baldacci et al. (2011a) and column elimination for solving some PDPTW instances by Li and Lim (2001) with 200 locations.

Instance			BBM			VRPSolver			Column Elimination		
Name	UB	LB	UB	Time (s)	LB	Time (s)	LB	CEIt	CESIt	CR.	Time (s)
LRC1_2_3	3079.5	2497.8	3079.5	304.3	$\overline{}$	3600					3600
$LRC1_2_4$	2525.8	1981.0	2525.8	188.2	$\overline{}$	3600					3600
LRC1 2 5	3715.8	3715.8	3715.8	42.1	$\overline{}$	3600	3021.66	1	994	13568	3600
LRC1_2_6	3360.9	3360.9	3360.9	7.0		3600	2750.99	1	183	2169	3600
LRC1_2_7	3317.7	3317.7	3317.7	408.2	$\overline{}$	3600	2658.79	$\mathbf{1}$	861	10800	3600
LRC1 ₋₂₋₈	3086.5	3086.5	3086.5	1562.7	$\overline{}$	3600	2339.36	1	611	7051	3600
LRC1 2 9	3053.8	3053.8	3053.8	1757.2		3600	2340.17	1	556	6441	3600

Table 7 Continued.

Table 8 Comparing the performance of the dual ascent method from Baldacci et al. (2011a) and column elimination for solving some PDPTW instances by Li and Lim (2001) with 1000 locations.

Instance			BBM			VRPSolver			Column Elimination		
Name	UB	LB	UB	Time (s)	LB.	Time (s)			LB CEIt CESIt		CR Time (s)
LCA_10_1	42488.66	42488.7	42488.7	79.5		3600	42432.6	2	257	2946	3600
$LC1_{-}10_{-}5$	42477.4	42477.4	42477.4	118.7	$\overline{}$	3600	39046.4	1	28	2561	3600
LR1 ₋₁₀₋₁	56744.91	56744.9	56744.9	233.1	$\overline{}$	3600	36732.4	1	9	613	3600
LR1 10 5	59053.68	52536.3	52901.3	4068.8		3600	41026.9	1	77	4069	3600
LRC1 ₋₁₀₋₁	49111.78	48398.8	48666.5	2533.3	$\overline{}$	3600	31414.6	1	37	2895	3600
LRC1 ₋₁₀₋₅	50323.04	38177.8	49287.1	1650.3	$\overline{}$	3600					3600

		Column Elimination			Instance				
Time (s)	CR	CESIt	CElt	LВ	UB	Name			
50	217	15	8	7152.06	7152.06	$LC1_4_1$			
3600	433	4	1	4980.79	8007.79	LC1 ₋ 4 ₋ 2			
477	609	32	9	7150.0	7150.0	LC1 ₋₄₋₅			
3295	1867	73	19	7154.02	7154.02	LC1 ₋ 4 ₋ 6			
3600	2573	120	3	7119.88	7149.43	LC1 ₋₄₋₇			
3600	8755	293	1	6941.46	8305.42	LC1 ₋ 4 ₋ 8			
3600	1149	19	1	5529.08	7451.2	LC1 ₋₄₋₉			
3600	741	56	8	14095.6	14095.64	LC1_6_1			
1620	2140	91	8	14086.3	14086.3	$LC1_6_5$			
3600	4464	168	1	14002.8	14090.79	LC1 ₋ 6 ₋ 6			
3600	2197	44	1	13443.7	14083.76	LC1_6_7			
300	494	54	37	1931.44	1931.44	LC2 ₋ 2 ₋ 1			
3600	3168	496	1	1697.61	1817.45	LC2 ₋ 2 ₋ 10			
3600	1415	231	1	1839.51	1881.4	LC2 ₋ 2 ₋ 2			
3600	458	90	1	1605.18	1844.33	LC2 ₋₂₋₃			
3600	118	46	1	1320.68	1767.12	$LC2_2_4$			
3600	2845	389	5	1852.14	1891.21	LC2_2_5			
3600	854 6119		$\overline{2}$	1794.7	1857.78	$LC2_2_6$			
3600	4738	711	$\mathbf{1}$	1804.02	1850.13	LC2_2_7			
3600	3798	551	$\mathbf{1}$	1740.64	1824.34	$LC2_2.8$			
3600	3682	527	$\mathbf{1}$	1744.24	1854.21	LC2_2_9			
1555	1123	113	12	4116.33	4116.33	$LC2_4_1$			
3600	809	83	$\mathbf 1$	3302.42	3828.44	$LC2_4_10$			
3600	1109	104	$1 \quad$	3800.05	4144.29	LC2 ₋ 4 ₋ 2			

Table 9 The performance of column elimination for solving PDPTW instances by Li and Lim (2001) that have not yet been reported on by an exact solver.

Instance		Column Elimination						
Name	UB	LB	CElt	CESIt	CR.	Time (s)		
$LR2_4_5$	9894.46	2878.01	1	28	12	3600		
LR2_4_9	7926.07	2536.86	1	26	30	3600		
$LR2_6_1$	21759.33	7190.63	1	26	1	3600		
LRC1 ₋₄₋₁	9124.52	7711.6	1	213	4997	3600		
LRC1 ₋₄₋₁₀	7064.36	3579.29	1	8	1189	3600		
LRC1_4_5	8847.4	6647.12	1	347	8422	3600		
LRC1_4_6	8394.47	6391.08	1	351	8586	3600		
LRC1_4_7	8037.87	5685.65	1	214	5303	3600		
LRC1_4_8	7930.15	4882.51	1	111	3017	3600		
LRC1_4_9	8004.24	4876.15	1	104	2846	3600		
LRC1_6_1	18288.9	14261.5	1	149	5428	3600		
LRC2_2_1	3595.18	2021.66	1	257	1219	3600		
LRC2_2_2	3158.25	803.983	1	44	37	3600		
LRC2 ₋₂₋₅	2776.93	1461.8	1	157	482	3600		
LRC2 ₋₂₋₆	2707.96	1380.48	1	171	527	3600		
LRC2_2_7	3010.68	1250.51	1	138	338	3600		
LRC2 ₋₂₋₈	2399.89	1151.38	1	142	254	3600		
LRC2_2_9	2208.49	1197.57	1	148	231	3600		
LRC2_4_1	9738.95	3489.16	1	108	575	3600		
LRC2_4_5	7309.54	2246.14	$\mathbf 1$	48	107	3600		
LRC2_4_6	6337.08	1851.51	$\mathbf 1$	21	24	3600		
LRC2_4_7	6292.23	1863.73	1	36	49	3600		

Table 9 Continued.