THE GREEDY PROCEDURE FOR RESOURCE ALLOCATION PROBLEMS: NECESSARY AND SUFFICIENT CONDITIONS FOR OPTIMALITY

AWI FEDERGRUEN

Columbia University, New York, New York

HENRI GROENEVELT

University of Rochester, Rochester, New York (Received July 1984; revisions received May, November 1985; accepted January 1986)

In many resource allocation problems, the objective is to allocate discrete resource units to a set of activities so as to maximize a concave objective function subject to upper bounds on the total amounts allotted to certain groups of activities. If the constraints determine a polymatroid and the objective is linear, it is well known that the greedy procedure results in an optimal solution. In this paper we extend this result to objectives that are "weakly concave," a property generalizing separable concavity. We exhibit large classes of models for which the set of feasible solutions is a polymatroid and for which efficient implementations of the greedy procedure can be given.

In many resource allocation problems, the objective is to allocate discrete resource units to a set of activities so as to maximize a *concave* objective function subject to upper bounds on the total amount allotted to certain groups of activities. These problems can be formulated as integer programs of the following type:

maximize r(z)

subject to $\sum_{i \in S} z_i \leq V(S)$, (P)

 $S \in A$ and $z_i \ge 0$ and integer.

In this model, A is a class of subsets of a finite set E and $V(\cdot)$ is a given function defined on subsets S of E.

The greedy or marginal allocation procedure assigns available units sequentially to the activity that benefits most from an additional allocation among all activities whose allotment can be increased without creating infeasibilities. It terminates as soon as no such activity can be found.

In the simplest case, $r(\cdot)$ is separable and $A = \{E\}$ (so the model contains a single budget constraint), and as is well known, the *greedy* procedure results in an optimal solution (Gross 1956 and the references cited later in this section). Tamir (1980) extended this result to models with a *nested* set of constraints $(A = \{S_i \text{ for } i = 1, ..., n\}$ with $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq ... \subseteq$ $S_n = E$). Brucker (1982) established a further generalization to *tree-structured* models that are structured so that, for each pair $S, T \in A$, either $S \subset T$ or $T \subset S$ or $S \cup T = \emptyset$. (see also Mjelde 1983).

We recently developed an optimization model for an investment company that deals in oil and gas ventures (Federgruen and Groenevelt 1986). The model determines which of the company's clients should apply for a lease on each of the parcels offered by the U.S. government in its bimonthly special drawings. The model can be formulated as a special instance of the class P and the greedy procedure can be shown to result in an optimal solution in spite of its failing to have a tree-structure. On the other hand, the transportation problem with non-positive cost coefficients is a special case of the problem class P; yet here, the greedy procedure may fail to generate an optimal solution. Also, the set-covering problem can be formulated as a special case of our class of models, and this problem is known to be notoriously hard; in fact, it is strongly NP-complete (Karp 1972, Garey and Johnson 1979 and Section 6).

For linear objectives, as is well known (see Edmonds 1970) the greedy procedure results in an optimal solution if and only if the constraints determine (the independence polytope of) a *polymatroid*. The intent of this paper is to extend this result to objectives that are specified by a so-called *weakly concave* complete order on R^E . This class of objectives includes all orders generated by separable concave functions, as well as other important nonseparable cases. (Megiddo 1974)

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and Fujishige 1980, for example, consider the problem of constructing a maximal flow in a capacitated network with multiple sinks while (in ascending order) lexicographically maximizing *each* of the amounts supplied to individual sinks. Such an objective corresponds with a weakly concave order; the set of possible supply vectors is a polymatroid, and an optimal flow can be found by the greedy procedure.)

We also identify a set of *local* optimality conditions that imply *global* optimality, provided the set of feasible solutions is a polymatroid and the objective satisfies a second, slightly stronger concavity property.

There are two problems associated with the practicality of these optimality results:

(a) it is often difficult to verify whether a feasible region is a polymatroid, and

(b) each iteration of the greedy procedure involves multiple checks as to whether a particular component of the current solution can feasibly be incremented by one unit. This feasibility test can be extremely complicated for general polymatroids and is related to the well-known "membership problem" (Bixby, Cunningham and Topkis 1985, Topkis 1983b and Grötschel, Lovasz and Schrijver 1981).

A second major purpose of this paper is, therefore, to enumerate important and easily verifiable cases that satisfy the polymatroid condition and for which an efficient implementation of the feasibility test can be given.

Gross' (1956) initial optimality result for models with a single budget constraint was refined by Fox (1966) and Veinott (1964). The result was later rediscovered by many others, e.g., Einbu (1977), Hartley (1976), Kao (1976), Mjelde (1975), Proll (1976) and Shih (1974); see also Ibaraki (1980). This single constraint model (or its continuous version) has numerous applications (see, for example, Zipkin 1980). Asymptotically more efficient algorithms were proposed by Katoh, Ibaraki and Mine (1979), Galil and Megiddo (1979), Ibaraki, and Frederickson and Johnson (1982). As mentioned previously, researchers also extended the optimality result to nested models (Tamir, and Galperin and Wacksman 1981) and then to tree-structured models (Brucker, and Section 6). Federgruen and Zipkin (1983) deal with models that include generalized upper bounds in addition to the budget constraint, which is a model with a tree-structure as described in Section 4.

Polymatroids, a generalization of matroids, are associated with a special class of polyhedra introduced by Edmonds (1970). They, as well as the associated submodular set functions (see Section 1), play a central role in the modern theory of combinatorial opti-

mization (see, for example, Lovasz 1982). Important applications are mentioned in Edmonds and Giles (1977), Frank (1982) and Schrijver (1982); see also Bixby, Cunningham and Topkis, and Topkis (1983b) and the references they cite. Edmonds and Giles, Hassin (1978) and Lawler and Martel (1982) introduced generalizations of the network flow problem in which restrictions on net flows into individual vertices or capacities on individual arcs are generalized to polymatroidal restrictions on net flows into *subsets* of vertices and capacities on *subsets* of arcs respectively. An application of this model to machine scheduling problems can be found in Martel (1982).

We start (Section 1) with some notation and preliminary results, such as necessary and sufficient conditions for the feasible region of P to be (the independence polytope of) a polymatroid. Section 2 introduces and discusses concavity notions, and Section 3 analyses the behavior of the greedy procedure as well as equivalence between local and global optimality. The next two sections enumerate a number of classes of models for which the feasible region of P is easily verified to be a polymatroid (Section 4) and for which an efficient implementation of the feasibility test can be given (Section 5). Section 6, finally, makes some concluding remarks with respect to related problems.

1. Notation and Preliminaries

Let *N* denote the set of nonnegative integers and let e^i for $i \in E$ be the *i*th unit basis vector of \mathbf{N}^E . For $x, y \in \mathbf{N}^E$, we write x < y if $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$.

For a finite set A, let $|\mathbf{A}|$ denote the number of elements of A, and let $2^A = \{S: S \subseteq A\}$ be its power set. For $z \in \mathbf{N}^E$, $S \subseteq E$ we will write $z(S) = \sum_{i \in S} z_i$; for $\mathbf{B} \subseteq 2^E$, we write $z[\mathbf{B}] = \sum_{S \in \mathbf{B}} z(S)$. Likewise, for $\mathbf{B} \subseteq \mathbf{A} \subseteq 2^E$ and V a set function defined on A, we write $V(\mathbf{B}) = \sum_{S \in \mathbf{B}} V(S)$.

For $\mathbf{A} \subseteq 2^{E}$ with $\bigcup \mathbf{A} = \bigcup_{S \in \mathbf{A}} S = E$, and V a nonnegative set function defined on \mathbf{A} , let $F(\mathbf{A}, V) =$ $\{z \in \mathbf{N}^{E} : z(S) \leq V(S) \text{ for all } S \in \mathbf{A}\}$. Let \geq_{R} denote a complete order on \mathbf{N}^{E} . We write $x >_{R} y$ if $x \geq_{R} y$ and $y \neq_{R} x$. Some orders on \mathbf{N}^{E} are *induced* by a realvalued function f. In this case, $x \geq_{R} y$ if and only if $f(x) \geq f(y) (x, y \in \mathbf{N}^{E})$.

Let $F \subseteq \mathbf{N}^E$ and R a complete order on \mathbf{N}^E . In this paper we consider certain types of integer problems.

Find $z \in F \subseteq \mathbf{N}^E$ which is maximal with respect to R. P(R, F)

The set F is called the *feasible region* of P(R, F). A point $z \in F$ is a (global) optimum for P(R, F) if $z \ge_R z'$ for all $z' \in F$. A point $z \in F$ will be called a *local optimum* if

(L1)
$$z \ge_R z + e^i$$
 $(i \in E : z + e^i \in F)$,
(L2) $z \ge_R z - e^j$ $(j \in E : z - e^j \in F)$, and
(L3) $z \ge_R z + e^i - e^j$ $(i, j \in E : z + e^i - e^j \in F)$.

Of particular interest in this paper are certain special sets F, the so-called independence polytopes of polymatroids. We first define a *rank function* (with *groundset* E) as a set function V, defined on 2^E with the properties:

- (V1) V is normalized: $V(\phi) = 0$,
- (V2) V is nondecreasing: $V(S) \le V(T)$ ($S \subset T \subseteq E$), and
- (V3) V is submodular: $V(S) + V(T) \ge V(S \cup T) + V(S \cap T)$ for all $S, T \subseteq E$.

Let $G \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{E}$. We call G a *polymatroid* (with ground set E) if $G = F(2^{E}, V)$ for some rank function V with groundset E. (In the standard literature, G is usually referred to as the independence polytope of a polymatroid.) Several equivalent definitions for polymatroids can be found in the literature; see, e.g., Edmonds, and Dunstan and Welsh (1973) and Welsh (1976). In this paper we need the following "properties":

Lemma 1. Let F be a polymatroid with groundset E and rank function V, i.e., $F = \{z \in \mathbb{N}^E : z(S) \leq V(S), S \subseteq E\}$. Then F satisfies

- (F1) $0 \in F$;
- (F2) if $z \in F$, $y \in \mathbf{N}^E$ and y < z then $y \in F$;
- (F3) if $z \in F$, $y \in \mathbb{N}^E$ and $j \in E$ satisfy
 - (i) y < z,
 - (ii) $y_j = z_j$ and
 - (iii) $y + e^j \in F$,
 - then there exists some $l \neq j$ such that $z + e^j e^l \in F$ and $z_l > y_l$.

Proof. (F1) and (F2) are well-known and immediate properties (see, for example, Welsh p. 336). To show (F3), let $\mathbf{B} = \{S \subseteq E \mid z(S) = V(S) \text{ and } j \in S\}$. If $\mathbf{B} = \emptyset$, then $z + e^j \in F$, and (i) and (ii) imply that there exists an $l \neq j$ with $z_l > y_l$. So $z + e^j - e^l \in F$, in view of (F2). If $\mathbf{B} \neq \emptyset$, we first show that \mathbf{B} is closed under intersection. Let $S, T \in \mathbf{B}$. Then $j \in S \cap T$ and $z(S \cap T) = z(S) + z(T) - z(S \cup T) = V(S) + V(T)$ $- z(S \cup T) \ge V(S) + V(T) - V(S \cup T) \ge V(S \cap T)$. So $z(S \cap T) = V(S \cap T)$ and $S \cap T \in \mathbf{B}$. Let $H = \cap \mathbf{B}$. Then y(H) < V(H) by (iii) and V(H) =z(H). So there exists an $l \in H \setminus \{j\}$ satisfying $y_l < z_l$. But then $z + e^j - e^l \in F$ and $z_l > y_l$. **Remark.** The fact that B in this proof is closed under intersection is well known; see, e.g., Lemma 2.3 in Fujishige.

Later on, we will see that (F1), (F2) and (F3) are indeed sufficient as well as necessary for $F \subseteq \mathbf{N}^E$ to be a polymatroid.

Lemma 2. Assume $F \subseteq \mathbf{N}^E$ satisfies (F1), (F2) and (F3) and suppose $x \in F$. Define $Fx = \{z \in \mathbf{N}^E: z + x \in F\}$. Then Fx satisfies (F1), (F2) and (F3).

Proof. $0 \in Fx$ since $0 + x = x \in F$. If $z \in Fx$, $y \in \mathbb{N}^{E}$ and $y \leq z$, then $y + x \leq z + x$. Since $z + x \in F$, $y + x \in F$ in view of F satisfying (F2). Thus $y \in Fx$, showing Fx satisfies (F2). If $z \in Fx$, $y \in \mathbb{N}^{E}$ and $k \in E$ satisfy (i), (ii) and (iii) of (F3) with respect to Fx, then $z' = z + x \in F$ and $y' = y + x \in \mathbb{N}^{E}$ satisfy (i), (ii), and (iii) of (F3) with respect to F. Hence there exists $l \neq k$ such that $z' + e^{k} - e^{l} \in F$, $z'_{l} > y'_{l}$ and $z' + e^{k} - e^{l} \geq y'$. But then $z + e^{k} - e^{l} \in Fx$.

Federgruen and Groenevelt (1984) specify convenient ways to check if a set $F(\mathbf{A}, V)$ (feasible region of P) is a polymatroid by extending the set function V from A to 2^{E} .

In Section 3 we characterize the behavior of the following greedy algorithm to solve P(R, F).

Greedy or Marginal Allocation Algorithm

Step 0. z:= 0; Step 1. find $i \in E$ with $z + e^i \in F$, $z + e^i \ge_R z$ and $z + e^i \ge_R z + e^j$ ($j \in E : z + e^j \in F$), Step 2. if no such $i \in E$ exists, stop, Step 3. z:= $z + e^i$ and go to Step 1.

2. Concave Orders

In this section we introduce and discuss three increasingly stronger concavity properties. A complete order R is called *concave* if it satisfies

- (R1) if $y \ge x$, $x \ge_R x + e^i$, then $y \ge_R y + e^i$, $i \in E$;
- (R2) if $y \ge x$, $x \ge_R x + e^i$, then $y \ge_R y + e^i$, $i \in E$;
- (R3) if $y \ge x$, $x_i = y_i$ and $x + e^i \ge_R x + e^j$, then $y + e^i \ge_R y + e^j$, $i, j \in E$;
- (R4) if $y \ge x$, $x_i = y_i$ and $x + e^i >_R x + e^j$, then $y + e^i >_R y + e^j$, $i, j \in E$.

A complete order is called *weakly concave* if it satisfies (R1) and (R3). Similarly, it is called *strongly concave* if it is concave and satisfies

- (R5) if $y \ge x$, $x_i = y_i$, $x \le_R x + e^i$, then $y \le_R y + e^i$,
- (R6) if $y \ge x$, $x_i = y_i$, $x <_R x + e^i$, then $y <_R y + e^i$.

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Observe first that the order induced by any separable concave (real-valued) function is strongly concave. In addition, various nonseparable optimization problems can be handled by an appropriate choice of a concave order; see the examples given later in this section. The following three lemmas show that concavity is maintained through translation over a given vector, through lexicographic combinations of several concave orders, as well as through extensions of strongly concave orders to a larger groundset.

Lemma 3 (Translation). Let R be a complete order on \mathbf{N}^{E} . For $b \in \mathbf{N}^{E}$, define Rb by $x \ge_{Rb} y$ if and only if $x + b \ge_{R} y + b$. If R satisfies (Ri) (i = 1, ..., 6), then so does Rb.

Proof. The proof is trivial.

Lemma 4 (Lexicographic combinations). Let R_1 , R_2 be complete orders on \mathbf{N}^E . Define the order R on \mathbf{N}^E by $x \ge_R y$ if and only if $x \ge_{R_1} y$, or $x =_{R_1} y$ and $x \ge_{R_2} y$.

- (a) If R₁ is concave and R₂ satisfies property (R_i), then so does R (i = 1, 2, 3, 4).
- (b) If R₁ is strongly concave and R₂ satisfies property (Ri) (i = 1, ..., 6), then so does R.

Proof

- (a) Assume R_2 satisfies (R1): Let $y \ge x, x + e^i \le_{R_1} x, i \in E$.
- Case 1: $x + e^i <_{R_1} x$. Then $y + e^i <_{R_1} y$ by (R2) of R_1 , so $y + e^i <_{R} y$.
- Case 2: $x + e^i =_{R_1} x$, $(x + e^i) \leq_{R_2} x$. Then $y + e^i \leq_{R_1} y$ and $y + e^i \leq_{R_2} y$ by (R1) of R_1 and R_2 . So, $y + e^i \leq_R y$.

Assume R_2 satisfies (R2): verified as in the proof for (R1).

Assume R_2 satisfies (R3): Let $y \ge x$, $y_i = x_i$ and $x + e^i \ge_R x + e^j$ for $i, j \in E$.

- Case 1: $x + e^i >_{R_1} x + e^j$. Then $y + e^i >_{R_1} y + e^j$ by (R4) of R_1 , and $y + e^i >_R y + e^j$.
- Case 2: $x + e^i =_{R_1} x + e^j$, $x + e^i \ge_{R_2} x + e^j$. Then $y + e^i \ge_{R_1} y + e^j$ and $y + e^i \ge_{R_2} y + e^j$ by (R3) of R_1 and R_2 , so $y + e^i \ge_R y + e^j$.

Assume R_2 satisfies (R4): verified as in the previous proofs.

- (b) Assume R_2 satisfies (R5): Let $y \ge x$, $y_i = x_i$ and $x + e^i \ge_R x$, $i \in E$.
- Case 1: $x + e^i >_{R_1} x$. Then $y + e^i >_{R_1} y$ by (R6) of R_1 , so $y + e^i >_R y$.

Case 2:
$$x + e^i =_{R_1} x$$
 and $x + e^i \ge_{R_2} x$. Then $y + e^i \ge_{R_1} y$ and $y + e^i \ge_{R_2} y$ by (R5) of R_1 and R_2 and so $y + e^i \ge_{R} y$.

Assume R_2 satisfies (R6): verified as in the previous proofs.

Lemma 5 (Extension of the groundset). Let R_1 be a strongly concave order on \mathbf{N}^{E_1} with $E_1 \subseteq E$. For $x \in \mathbf{N}^E$, write $x_1 = (x_i)_{i \in E_1}$. The order R, defined on \mathbf{N}^E by $x \ge_R y$ if and only if $x_1 \ge_{R_1} y_1$, is strongly concave.

Proof. Immediate.

Remark. Lemma 5 fails to hold when we replace strong concavity by concavity.

Example 1. The following class of nonseparable objectives was considered by, for example, Megiddo (1974), Fujishige, and Ichimori, Ishii and Nishida (1982): For a given $w \in \mathbf{R}^E$, let T(x) denote the vector $(w_i x_i)_{i \in E}$ ranked in ascending order of its components $(x \in \mathbf{N}^E)$. Define the order R on \mathbf{N}^E by $x \ge_{\mathbf{R}} y$ if and only if T(x) is lexicographically larger than T(y). It is easy to verify that R is a strongly concave order if $w \ge 0$. More generally, R remains strongly concave if T(x) denotes the vector $(f_i(x_i))_{i \in E}$, ranked in ascending order, when $f_i(\cdot)$ for $i \in E$ are arbitrary nondecreasing functions. These criteria are sometimes referred to as "the sharing problem," see Brown (1979a,b) and Ichimori, Ishii and Nishida.

An ingenious proof in Fujishige shows that when Tx is the vector $(w_i x_i)_{i \in E}$, the order may, for purposes of optimization over polymatroids, be replaced by another separable objective (i.e., an order induced by a separable function). As in Fujishige, the results in this paper apply to concave nonseparable objectives directly; in other words, there is no need to identify and prove a potential equivalency with a separable objective.

Note also that the order *R* induced by the simpler criterion $\min_{i \in E}(x_i)$ fails to be concave, since (R3) fails to hold. (Let x = (0, 1, 2) and y = (2, 1, 2); $(0, 1, 3) \ge_R (0, 2, 2)$ but $(2, 1, 3) \ge_R (2, 2, 2)$.)

Example 2. Let $c \in \mathbf{N}$, and let \overline{R} be the complete order on \mathbf{N}^{E} defined by $x \ge_{\overline{R}} y$ if and only if $y(E) \le x(E) \le c$ or min $\{y(E), x(E)\} \ge c$. It is easy to verify that \overline{R} is concave, though not strongly concave. Also, if c > 0, \overline{R} cannot be induced by a separable function. The concavity of \overline{R} has important implications for optimization problems for which a (strongly) concave order R_1 is to be optimized over a region $\overline{F} = F \cap \{z \in \mathbf{N}^{E} : z(E) \ge c\}$, with F a poly-

matroid. Let *R* be defined by $x \ge_R y$ if and only if $x \ge_{\overline{R}} y$, or $x =_{\overline{R}} y$ and $x \ge_{R_1} y$. In view of the concavity of \overline{R} and Lemma 4, the problem is equivalent to the maximization of *R* over *F*, with *R* concave.

3. Optimizing a Concave Order Over a Polymatroid

We first characterize the behavior of the Marginal Allocation Algorithm (MAA):

Theorem 1. Let *R* be a complete order satisfying (R3) and let $F \subseteq \mathbf{N}^{E}$ satisfy (F1) and (F2). Then the MAA results in a local optimum for P(R, F).

Proof. Let *y* be the solution obtained by the MAA. In view of (F1), $0 \in F$. Hence, $y \in F$, by induction and in view of Step 1. Step 1 and Step 2 also imply (L1). Fix $i \in E$ with $y_i > 0$. Let *x* be the last point generated by the algorithm with $x_i = y_i - 1$, and let $y - e^j$ be the next to last point generated. Hence, $y - e^j \ge x$, or $y \ge x + e^j$ and in view of (F2), $x + e^j \in F$. Since $x + e^i \ge_R x + e^j$, we have by (R3) and Step 1,

$$y \ge_R y - e^j = (y - e^j - e^i) + e^i$$

 $\ge_R (y - e^j - e^i) + e^j = y - e^i.$

This result proves (L2). To show (L3), let $j \in E$ with $y + e^j - e^i \in F$. Since $x + e^j \leq y - e^i + e^j$, we have $x + e^j \in F$ in view of (F2). Thus, $x + e^i \ge_R x + e^j$ which implies, by (R3), $y = (y - e^i) + e^i \ge_R y - e^i + e^j$.

Lemma 6. Let R be a complete order on \mathbb{N}^E satisfying (R1), and let F satisfy (F1) and (F2). If 0 is a local optimum of P(R, F), then 0 is a global optimum.

Proof. Let $z \in F$ with $z_i > 0$ for some $i \in E$. In view of (F2), $e^i \in F$ and hence $0 \ge_R e^i$ by (L2). Applying (R1) with x = 0 and $y = z - e^i$ then gives $z - e^i \ge_R z$. The lemma follows by repeated application of this argument.

Theorem 2. (Sufficient condition for optimality of MAA). Let *R* be a weakly concave order on \mathbb{N}^{E} , and let $F \subseteq \mathbb{N}^{E}$ satisfy (F1), (F2) and (F3). The MAA solves P(R, F).

Proof. By induction on $m(F) = \max\{z(E): z \in F\}$. Let x be the solution found by the MAA. If m(F) = 0, the theorem is true, so assume it holds whenever $m(\cdot) \le k - 1$ with $k \ge 1$ and let m(F) = k. If the algorithm terminates at the first iteration, x = 0 is a local optimum by Theorem 1 and hence x is optimal by Lemma 6. In the remaining case, let $i \in E$ be the index found during the first pass through Step 1. By Lemma 3, the order Re^i is weakly concave and by Lemma 2, Fe^i satisfies (F1), (F2) and (F3).

Since $x - e^i$ is a solution that the MAA could attain for the problem $P(Re^i, Fe^i)$ and $m(Fe^i) < k$, we have $x \ge_R z$ ($z \in F: z_i > 0$), by the induction assumption. To complete the optimality proof of x, let $z \in F$ with $z \ne 0$ and $z_i = 0$. By (F3) with y = 0, there is a $j \in E$ with $z' = z + e^i - e^j \in F$ and $z_j > 0$. By (R3) and $e^i \ge_R e^j$, we have $z' \ge_R z$. Since $z'_i > 0$, we have $x \ge_R z'$ and hence $x \ge_R z$. This result concludes the induction proof.

Theorem 2 generalizes Edmonds' classical result for *linear* objectives. For the special case of *separable* objective functions, Theorem 2 may be established by exhibiting an equivalence between P(R, F) and a *linear* optimization problem with a matroid as its feasible region, invoking Edmonds' classical results. For the general case (with nonseparable functions), no such transformation is possible (see also Girlich and Kowaljow 1981, remark 2.66, p. 181).

Corollary 1 (Main result). Let $A \subseteq 2^E$, let V be a nonnegative, integer-valued set function on A, and let F = F(A, V). The MAA results in an optimal solution for every weakly concave order R. The following statements are equivalent:

- (i) F is a polymatroid.
- (ii) *F* satisfies (F1), (F2), and (F3).
- (iii) *MAA* results in an optimal solution for every weakly concave order *R*.

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (ii) \Rightarrow (iii) follows from Lemma 1 and Theorem 2. If *F* is not a polymatroid, a linear objective exists for which MAA fails to generate an optimal solution (see Edmonds, showing (iii) \Rightarrow (i)).

Remark. If the feasible region F is not a polymatroid, MAA may fail to generate an optimal solution for separable and strictly concave, as well as nonseparable, concave objectives (see Federgruen and Groenevelt 1984).

Problems P(R, F) with R concave and F a polymatroid have the additional property that every *local* optimum is a global optimum. This property will be established by Theorem 3. (Note that the property may fail to hold for weakly concave orders.) We first prove the following lemma:

Lemma 7. Consider P(R, F) with R concave and F a polymatroid. Let $z \neq 0$ be a local optimum. For some $i \in E$ with $z_i > 0$, a global optimum z^* can be found with $z_i^* > 0$.

Proof. Let $l \in E$ with $e^{i} \in F$ and $e^{i} \ge_{R} e^{k}$ $(k \in E: e^{k} \in F)$. If $z_{i} > 0$, choose i = l. Otherwise, by (F3) with y = 0, there is a $j \in E$ satisfying $z + e^{l} - e^{j} \in F$ and $z_{j} > 0$; in this case, choose i = j. By (L3), $z \ge_{R} z + e^{l} - e^{j}$. So by (R4) with x = 0 and $y = z - e^{j}$, we have $e^{j} \ge_{R} e^{l}$. Hence, in either case, $e^{i} \in F$, and $e^{i} \ge_{R} e^{k}$ $(k \in E: e^{k} \in F)$. Since $z_{i} > 0$, $z \ge_{R} z - e^{i}$ by (L2) and hence by (R2) with x = 0 and $y = z - e^{i}$, we have $e^{i} \ge_{R} 0$. Thus $i \in E$ could be chosen in Step 1 of the first pass of the MAA, and in view of Theorem 2 there exists a global optimum z^{*} with $z_{i}^{*} > 0$.

Theorem 3. Consider P(R, F) with R concave and F a polymatroid. Every local optimum is a global optimum.

Proof. By induction on $m(F) = \max\{z(E): z \in F\}$. The theorem is trivially true if m(F) = 0, so assume it holds whenever m(F) < k with $k \ge 1$. Let m(F) = k. If 0 is a local optimum, it is a global optimum by Lemma 6. Thus, let $z \ne 0$ be a local optimum and let $i \in E$ satisfy the requirements of Lemma 7. By Lemma 2, Fe^i is a polymatroid and by Lemma 3, Re^i is a concave order. Then $z - e^i$ is a local optimum for $P(Re^i, Fe^i)$ and $m(Fe^i) < k$, so by the induction assumption, $z - e^i$ is a global optimum of $P(Re^i, Fe^i)$. By Lemma 7, there is a global optimum z^* of P(R, F) with $z_i^* > 0$. Hence $z^* - e^i \in Fe^i$ and $z - e^i \ge_{Re^i} z^* - e^i$. But this conclusion implies $z \ge_R z^*$, so z is a global optimum.

4. Polymatroid Feasible Regions

In this section we enumerate several classes of models for which the feasible region is a polymatroid.

4.1. Feasible Regions Specified by Upper Bounds on Sets of Variables

Let $F = \{z \in \mathbb{N}^E : z(S) \leq V(S), S \in \mathbb{A}\}$ with $A \subseteq 2^E$.

4.1.1. Ring families

If $S, T \in A$ then $(S \cap T) \in A$ and $(S \cup T) \in A$ and $V(\cdot)$ is submodular on A (see Edmonds).

4.1.2. Intersecting families

If S, $T \in \mathbf{A}$ and $(S \cap T) \neq \emptyset$, then $(S \cap T) \in \mathbf{A}$ and $(S \cup T) \in \mathbf{A}$ and $V(\cdot)$ is submodular on S and T (see Lawler 1982).

An important subclass is the class of *tree-structured* models: A has a tree-structure if for all $S, T \in A$, $S \cap T \neq \emptyset$ implies $T \subset S$ or $S \subset T$. Note that tree-

structured models are intersecting families for all set functions $V(\cdot)$ on A.

As pointed out in the introduction, the class of tree-structured models contains many important cases: (1) a single resource constraint: $A_1 = \{E\}$; (2) a single resource constraint with simple upper bounds: $A_2 = \{E\} \cup \{S: S \subset E, |S| = 1\}$; (3) a single resource constraint with simple and generalized upper bounds: for some partition $\{E_k: k \in K\}$ of $E, A_3 = A_2 \cup \{E_1, \ldots, E_{|K|}\}$, (4) nested constraints: $A_4 = \bigcup_{i=1} \{S_i\}$ with $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq S_n = E$.

4.1.3. Crossing families

If $S, T \in A$ and $(S \cap T) \neq \emptyset$, and $(S \cup T) \neq E$, then $(S \cap T) \in A$ and $(S \cup T) \in A$ and $V(\cdot)$ is submodular on S and T (see Lawler).

4.1.4. Generalized symmetric models

 $\mathbf{A} = 2^{E}$ and $V(S) = f(w(S)), S \subseteq E$ with f(0) = 0and $f(\cdot)$ a nondecreasing concave function, $w \in \mathbf{N}^{E}$ and w > 0. It is easy to verify that $V(\cdot)$ is a rank function. Researchers refer to the special case with $w_{i} = 1$ for $i \in E$ as the symmetric case, (see, for example, Lawler and Martel, and Topkis (1983a,b).

Generalized symmetric models arise, for example, in the analysis of dynamic priority scheduling rules for multiclass queueing systems (Kleinrock 1976, Wood and Sargent 1984, Gelenbe and Mitrani, Chapter 6, 1980; and the references they cite). Each priority rule implies an average waiting time for each customer class, and the feasible region of waiting time vectors is a generalized symmetric polymatroid with f(t) =t/(1 + t - w(E)) and an appropriate choice of w. Designing a dynamic priority rule often amounts to optimizing an aggregate performance measure stated as a concave order on this feasible region of waiting time vectors; see the previous references.

We note that the classes 4.1.1, 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 are nested in increasing order of generality.

4.2. Network-based Models

Let G = (N, E) be a connected network with node set N and arc set E. Let $S \subseteq N$ be the set of sources, and $T \subseteq N \setminus S$ the set of sinks. For each $i \in S$, let b_i denote the net capacity of source i. Also, u_{ij} denotes the (integer) capacity of arc $(i, j) \in E$. We define the variables

$$x_{ij} =$$
flow on arc $(i, j) \in E;$

 z_i = net supply to node i, $i \in T$; $z = (z_i)_{i \in T}$.

The network flow model has constraints:

$$0 \leq \sum_{l:(i,l)\in E} x_{il} - \sum_{l:(l,i)\in E} x_{li} \leq b_i, \quad i \in S$$

$$\sum_{l:(i,l)\in E} x_{li} - \sum_{l:(l,i)\in E} x_{il} = z_i, \quad i \in T \quad (*)$$

$$\sum_{l:(i,l)\in E} x_{il} - \sum_{l:(l,i)\in E} x_{li} = 0, \quad i \in N \setminus S \setminus T$$

$$0 \leq x_{ij} \leq u_{ij}; \quad (i,j) \in E; \quad x_{ij} \text{ integer};$$

$$z_i \geq 0, \quad i \in T.$$

The set $\{z \in \mathbb{N}^T: (z, x) \text{ satisfies (*) for some } x\}$ is a polymatroid (Megiddo). We refer to Federgruen and Groenevelt (1984) for a survey of applications of this model.

5. Efficient Implementations of the MAA

The computational requirements of the MAA depend almost entirely on the possibility of implementing Step 1 efficiently. For general polymatroids, the feasibility check $(z + e^j \in F)$ is a special form of the general polymatroid membership problem. Grötschel, Lovasz and Schrijver's ellipsoid method performs the feasibility test in a polynomial amount of time, assuming V can be evaluated in polynomial time. Efficient combinatorial algorithms have been established only for matroids (Cunningham 1981) and for testing membership in the case of a structured convex game (Topkins 1983a,b). In this section, we describe efficient implementations of the MAA for several of the polymatroid classes enumerated in Section 4.

5.1. Tree-structured Models

The feasibility tests are simple, since each $i \in E$ can be contained in at most |E| sets in A. Brucker presents a greedy procedure for tree-structured models and nondecreasing, separable concave objective functions. The procedure requires 0(|E| V(E)) steps and is an immediate implementation of the MAA. In addition, he gives a polynomial $0(|E|^2\log (V(E)))$ algorithm. This algorithm uses as a subroutine an $0(|E| \log (V(E)))$ procedure by Galil and Megiddo for the single constraint problem. For problems with a nested set of constraints (i.e., $\mathbf{A} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{S_i\}$ with $S_1 \subset S_2 \subset \ldots \subset S_n = E$) an $0(|E|^2 \log(V(E)/|E|))$ algorithm is given by Galperin and Waksman and Tamir.

5.2. Network-based Models

The feasibility check of Step 1 of MAA is easily performed by an augmenting path algorithm (Federgruen and Groenevelt 1986).

5.3. Generalized Symmetric Models

The following lemma implies an efficient membership test.

Lemma 9. Let V be a generalized symmetric rank function with V(S) = f(w(S)). Let $x \in \mathbb{N}^E$ and $E = \{i_1, \ldots, i_{|E|}\}$ and assume $x_{i_1}/w_{i_1} \ge x_{i_2}/w_{i_2}$ $\ge \ldots \ge x_{i_{|E|}}/w_{i_{|E|}}$. Let $E_n = \{i_1, \ldots, i_n\}$, $n = 1, \ldots,$ |E|. $x \in F$ if and only if $x(E_n) \le V(E_n)$ for n = $1, \ldots, |E|$.

Proof. Consider the collection $W = \{(w(S), x(S)): S \subset E\}$ of points in $R \times R$. Then $x \in F$ if and only if the region $\{(s, t): t \leq f(s), s \geq 0\}$ contains W or, more precisely, the set of vertices V on the "upper-left" part of the convex hull of W.

For fixed *x*, consider the parametric programming problem

maximize
$$\sum_i b_i (x_i - \lambda w_i)$$

subject to $0 \le b_i \le 1$, $i \in E$ for all $\lambda \ge 0$.

Note that the largest solution $b(\lambda)$ to $P(\lambda)$ has $b(\lambda)_i = 1$ if $x_i \ge \lambda w_i$, and $b(\lambda)_i = 0$, otherwise $(i \in E)$. Define the scalars $x(\lambda) = \sum_i b(\lambda)_i x_i$ and $w(\lambda) = \sum_i b(\lambda)_i x_i$ and note that $V = \{(w(\lambda), x(\lambda)): \lambda \ge 0\} = \{(w(E_n), x(E_n)): n = 1, ..., |E|\}$. The lemma follows from the properties of *f*.

The following proposition facilities the feasibility test of Step 1 of MAA.

Proposition 2. Let V(S) = f(w(S)) be a generalized symmetric rank function. Let $x \in F$, $E = \{i_1, \ldots, i_{|E|}\}$ and assume $x_{i_1}/w_{i_1} \ge x_{i_2}/w_{i_2} \ge \ldots \ge x_{i_{|E|}}/w_{i_{|E|}}$. Let $E_n = \{i_1, \ldots, i_n\}, n = 1, \ldots, |E|$. Then $x + e^{i_n} \in F$ if and only if $x(E_m) < V(E_m)$ $(m = n, n + 1, \ldots, |E|)$.

Proof. Assume $x(E_m) = V(E_m)$ for some $m \ge n$. Then $(x + e^{i_n})(E_m) = x(E_m) + 1 > V(E_m)$ so $x + e^{i_n} \notin F$. This conclusion proves the "only if" part of the proposition. Next, assume $x(E_m) < V(E_m)$ for all $m = n, \ldots, |E|$. Let k = 0 if $[(x_{i_n} + 1)/w_{i_n}] > [x_{i_1}/w_{i_1}]$; otherwise, let $k = \max\{l: x_{i_l}/w_{i_l} \ge (x_{i_n} + 1)/w_{i_n}\}$. In view of Lemma 9, verification of $(x + e^{i_n}) \in F$ requires merely showing that $x(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) < V(E_l \cup \{i_n\})$ for $l = k, \ldots, n - 2$. Now assume that $x(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) = V(E_l \cup \{i_n\})$ for some l with $k \le l < n - 1$. We will show that this assumption leads to a contradiction. Since $x(E_l) \le V(E_l)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x(e^{i_n}) &= x(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) - x(E_l) \ge V(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) - V(E_l) \\ &= f(w(E_l \cup \{i_n\})) - f(w(E_l)). \end{aligned}$$

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Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} x(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l) / w(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l) \\ &\ge x_{i_n} / w_{i_n} \\ &\ge [f(w(E_l \cup \{i_n\})) - f(w(E_l))] / w_{i_n} \\ &\ge [f(w(E_n)) - f(w(E_l \cup \{i_n\}))] / w(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l). \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying both sides of this inequality by $w(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l)$ yields

$$x(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l) \ge f(w(E_n)) - f(w(E_l \cup \{i_n\}))$$
$$= V(E_n) - V(E_l \cup \{i_n\})$$

and hence

$$\begin{aligned} x(E_n) &= x(E_{n-1} \setminus E_l) + x(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) \\ &\ge V(E_n) - V(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) \\ &+ V(E_l \cup \{i_n\}) = V(E_n), \end{aligned}$$

a contradiction.

The following efficient implementation of the MAA follows from Proposition 2.

Algorithm (Marginal Allocation for Generalized Symmetric Polymatroids)

Step 0. z:=0;Step 1a. n:= |E|; y:=z; let $E = \{i_1, \ldots, i_{|E|}\}$ where $z_{i_1}/w_{i_1} \ge z_{i_2}/w_{i_2} \ge \ldots \ge z_{i_{|E|}}/w_{i_{|E}},$ and $E_m = \{i_1, \ldots, i_m\}$ $(m = 1, \ldots, |E|);$ Step 1b. While $z(E_n) < N(E_n)$ and n > 0 do Begin if $z + e^{i_n} >_R y$ then $y:=z + e^{i_n};$

$$n := n - 1$$
End;

Step 2. if y = z, then stop; Step 3. z := y; go to Step 1a.

6. Concluding Remarks and Related Problems

Problem P, considered in the Introduction, may be viewed as a general integer problem with constraint set $Az \le b$, $0 \le z \le u$, defined by a binary matrix A. If the objective function is linear, the problem is equivalent to the multiple set covering problem (Van Slyke 1982).

Minimize $\sum_{i \in E} c_i z_i$ subject to $\sum_{i \in S} z_i \ge V'(S)$, $S \in A$ and $0 \le z_i \le u_i$, $i \in E$; z integer. (MSC) (Transform MSC into P as follows: write $z_i = u_i - z'_i$, $0 \le z'_i \le u_i$ and substitute z'_i for z; in all constraints. The same substitution transforms P into MSC provided the objective function is linear.) Thus the multiple set covering problem can be solved exactly by the greedy procedure if and only if the feasible region of the transformed problem is a polymatroid.

The multiple set covering problem was introduced as a generalization of the well-known (unit) set covering problem specified by the data $u_i = 1$ for $i \in E$ and V'(S) = 1 for $S \in A$. In general this problem is notoriously hard; in fact, it is strongly NP-complete since the minimum cover problem is NP-complete (Karp, and Garey and Johnson). Consequently, the class P is strongly NP-complete even for linear objective functions, $V'(\cdot)$ symmetric on A, i.e., V'(S) =V'(T) for all S, $T \in \mathbf{A}$ with |S| = |T|, and even if for every $i \in E$ there are at most 3 sets $S \in A$ that contain *i* (Garey and Johnson p. 222). Chvatal (1979) has shown that a similar greedy procedure may, at worst, result in a solution whose value is inferior to the optimal value by a factor that is logarithmic in $d = \max_{i \in E} d_i$ defined by $d_i = |\{S \in \mathbf{A} : i \in S\}|$. This worst case behavior applies to the multiple set covering problem as well (Dobson 1982), and the worst case bound has been shown to be tight.

We note that, in general, our results cannot be extended to objective functions that can be viewed as restrictions to \mathbf{N}^E of a concave function on \mathbf{R}^E . In fact, the problem is strongly NP-complete for such objective functions, even if $\mathbf{A} = \{\{i\}: i \in E\}$. To verify this statement, consider the "exact cover by 3-sets problem" which is known to be NP-complete (Karp, and Garey and Johnson, p. 222). The problem is to determine whether the set of equalities

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} z_j = 1,$$

 $i = 1, ..., n$ with $a_{ij} = 0, 1$ and $\sum_{i} a_{ij} = 3,$

for all j = 1, ..., n has a zero-one solution. Note that this problem is equivalent to

minimize
$$r(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} z_j - 1 \right)^2$$

subject to $z_i = 0, 1,$

where $r(\cdot)$ is concave (as a function on \mathbb{R}^{E}). The same reduction shows that our results cannot be extended to general supermodular functions (Topkis 1978).

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