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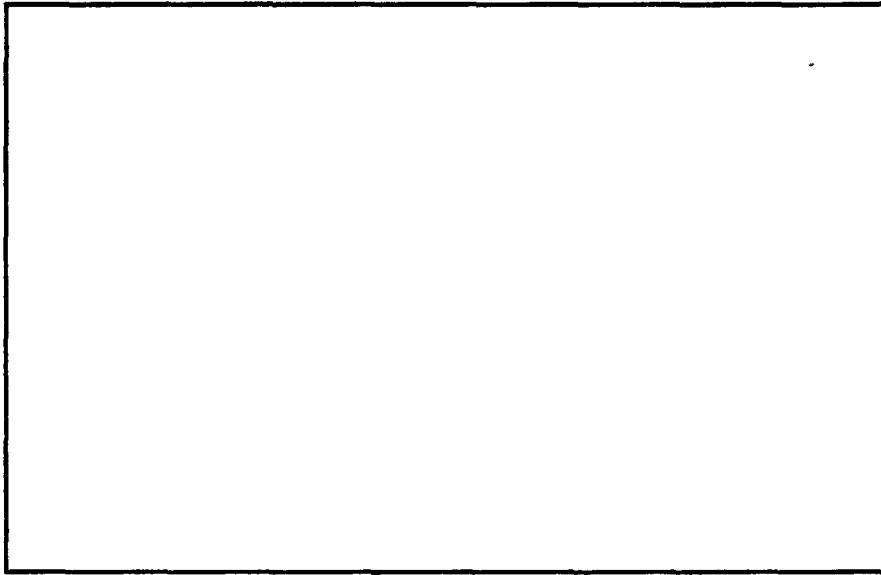


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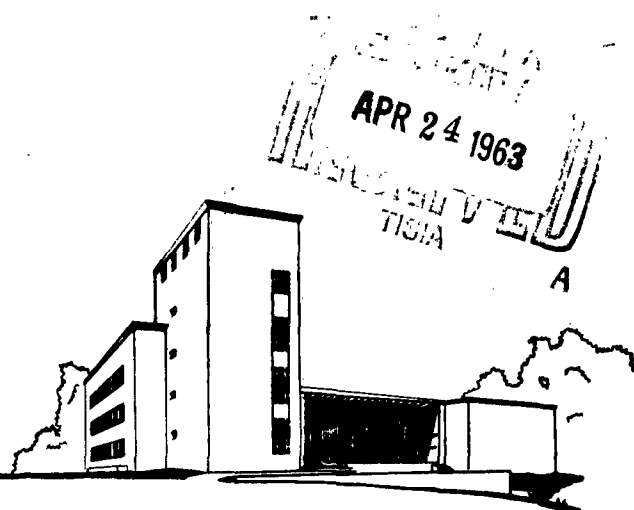
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A HEURISTIC APPROACH TO SOLVING
TRAVELLING SALESMAN PROBLEMS*

by

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and

Gerald L. Thompson^{2/}

January 5, 1963

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1. INTRODUCTION

Let $A = \left\| \left\| a_{ij} \right\| \right\|$ be an $n \times n$ matrix of real numbers. The travelling salesman problem asks for an acyclic permutation $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n)$ of the integers $1, 2, \dots, n$ such that the sum

$$(1) \quad a_{i_1 i_2} + a_{i_2 i_3} + \dots + a_{i_n i_1}$$

is a minimum. If $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i and j , the problem is said to be symmetric; otherwise, it is nonsymmetric. In case the distances a_{ij} are computed between points in the Euclidean plane the problem is Euclidean. A Euclidean problem is, of course, symmetric.

In the nonsymmetric case the solution involves finding one out of $(n!)$ possible permutations; and in the symmetric case it involves finding one out of $\frac{1}{2}(n!)$ possible permutations. Hence, complete enumeration and evaluation of all the possible permutations provides a theoretically satisfactory solution to the problem. What is actually desired, however, is a computationally practical method of finding the optimum. Even methods that find "good" permutations would be of practical interest as approximate solutions.

The name "travelling salesman" is applicable when one interprets the sum (1) as the total distance that must be travelled by a salesman who must visit each of n cities exactly once before returning home. The acyclic requirement prevents a solution involving several disconnected loops. The travelling salesman interpretation usually results in a symmetric problem. However, if we think of a school bus that has a given number of corners at which to stop to pick up children in a city which has a substantial number of one way streets, a nonsymmetric problem results, since the distance from a to b may well be different from the distance from b to a . Still another nonsymmetric interpretation is that of a machine tool that performs a given set of jobs repetitively.

The distance from job a to job b is the setup cost, which can be different from the setup cost going from job b to job a. For instance, in a paint mixer, it is easy to go from a light to a darker color, but difficult to go in the reverse direction. There are numerous other practical interpretations of this seemingly frivolous problem.

In this paper we shall discuss a method, suitable for electronic computers, that has proved capable of quickly obtaining solutions for problems having about 60 cities or less in symmetric and some nonsymmetric problems. In principle the method can be used for any size problem. Although the code does not guarantee finding the optimum tour, it can be used over and over several times and in various ways to get a probabilistic idea of how good the best answer found is relative to the set of observed answers. Also the checking procedure of Dantzig, Fulkerson, and Johnson [2] can be applied to check on the optimality of the observed result.

We call the method a heuristic one because (a) the code for it contains probabilistic elements so that its performance varies each time it is run; (b) in certain cases it can be proved that it has positive probability of producing the optimum answer, and our experience leads us to believe that it will always do so; and (c) as the result of initial calculations partial answers and sub-problems are obtained so that later calculations depend upon the results of early calculations, i.e., the process is one of "learning from experience." Nevertheless, the code is an algorithm in the sense that it terminates after a finite number of steps and has been run on an electronic computer. This application is an example of artificial intelligence, that is, the use of a computer to solve problems, the solution of which by human beings would be regarded as intelligent acts. Humans are not good at solving travelling salesman problems because of limited arithmetic abilities. Hence our

code does not imitate the behavior of humans and is not heuristic in that sense.

A good summary of the history of the problem up to 1954 is presented in Flood [5]. More recently, Tucker [6] and Lantzig [4] have given integer programming formulations of the problem and some computational experience has been gained with them. The largest problem solved so far in the literature is the 42 city problem of Lantzig, Fulkerson, and Johnson [2]. Our algorithm also solved the same 42 city problem in 4.5 minutes on a Bendix G-20 computer. A much more difficult problem involving 57 cities was solved in 36 minutes. Other experience with these and smaller problems is reported on later in the paper.

In Section 2 we describe the simple idea needed for the basic step in the program. The initial code which does not have built in learning is discussed in Section 3. The final code together with its learning aspect is discussed in Section 4. In Section 5 we discuss the probabilistic methods we use for evaluating answers obtained, and in Section 6 we prove that the optimal tour has positive probability of being chosen with the algorithm.

2. THE BASIC STEP OF THE ALGORITHM

In the Euclidean travelling salesman problem it can be proved that an optimal tour will never cross itself. This follows from the Euclidean theorem that the sum of two sides of a triangle is greater than the third side. However, when cities on a map are used, the curvature of the earth, the existence of mountains having passes and tunnels, and the existence of lakes, oceans, and other natural barriers, negate the above Euclidean result. Of course, nothing like it need be true for nonsymmetric problems. In any case, if an optimal tour can be found by any means, it will have the desired properties without specifically stating restrictions needed to insure getting them.

For this reason, the only specific restriction on the permutations we construct is that they be acyclic. We have devised an inductive method for constructing acyclic permutations. The method is described in the following series of steps:

1. Choose any two cities and list them arbitrarily to form an acyclic permutation (i_1, i_2) of length two.

2. Assume that a permutation $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k)$ of k cities, where $2 \leq k < n$ has been constructed. Choose one of the remaining cities, call it city h . For j running from 1 to n compute the quantities

$$d_j = e_{i_j, h} + a_{h, i_{j+1}} - a_{i_j, i_{j+1}}$$

where we define i_{n+1} to be i_1 when $j = n$.

3. Let j^* be any value of j such that d_{j^*} is a minimum of the quantities computed in 2.

4. Relabel i_j as i_{j+1} for $j = j^*, \dots, n$ and label h as i_{j^*} .

5. We thus have constructed a permutation $(i_1, \dots, i_{k+1})$ of $k+1$ cities. If $k+1 = n$ stop; otherwise replace k by $k+1$ and return to step 2.

Briefly, the method consists of starting with any pair of cities as a permutation of length 2, then inserting a third city in such a way as to minimize the length of the resulting tour on three cities; then inserting a fourth city in such a way as to minimize the resulting tour on four cities, etc. This is our heuristic rule for constructing acyclic permutations.

The tour resulting from this acyclic permutation may or may not be the optimum one. In fact, there are a whole set of possible tours of various lengths that can be so generated, depending upon the order in which new cities are introduced. In Section 6 we present a proof of the fact that, in the Euclidean case, there always exists an order in which to introduce the cities

so that the above heuristic rule will produce the optimal tour. We have nearly always succeeded in getting what we believe to be the optimal tour even in the non-Euclidean cases and so we conjecture that the same result holds for them. However, we do not have a proof of the fact at the present time.

The five city problem of Figure 3 will help illustrate the method as well as its difficulties. Here the optimal tour is 12345, which has length 148. The only other tour constructed by our algorithm is 12453, which has length 152.

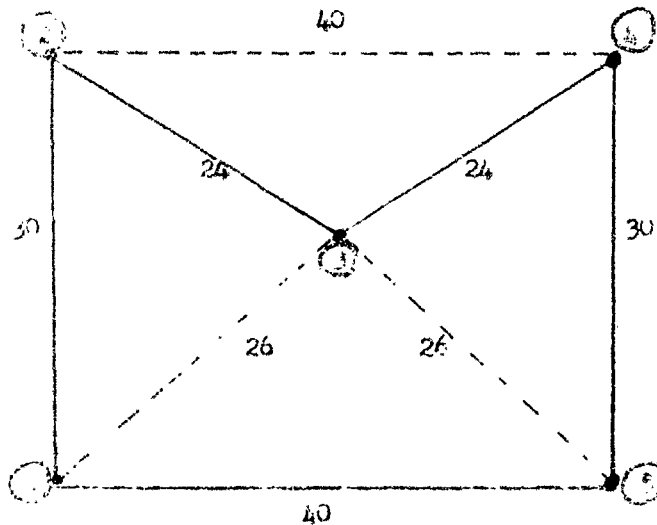


Figure 3

We ran 25 trials of the algorithm, more fully described in Section 3, using random orders for introducing new cities, and found that 15 of them resulted in the optimal tour, while the other 10 produced the suboptimal tour. Thus, for this problem, there is empirical probability of $\frac{3}{5}$ of finding the optimum tour by this random procedure.

THE FIRST ALGORITHM CODE

The result of the algorithm of the previous section depends on the order in which the cities are introduced in step 2. So that final results were not

biased we first arranged the cities in a random order list and selected cities from this list when needed for step 2. We did this a number of times, printing each tour and its distance each time. We call the first algorithm Code 1. For instances in the 10-city problem studied by L. L. Barachet [1], whose data is given in Exhibit J and whose optimal tour is given in Exhibit B, the distribution of completion times is given in Figure 2. Note that the empirical probability of getting the optimum tour (whose length is 378 miles) is .16. Note also that the distribution is multi-modal and has gaps.

Some other experimental results are displayed in Figure 3.

No. of Cities	5	10	33	42	57
Empirical Prob. of getting optimum with Code 1.	.60	.16	.01	.0045	---

Figure 3

The probability estimates for the 5, 10, 33, and 57 were based on runs of 100 each and that of the 42 city problem on a run of 225. The shortest schedule observed in the 57 city case was 331 miles longer than what we believe to be the optimum. We did not feel that the empirical probability of getting the best answer in the 57 city case was high enough to continue computations with Code 1 until one was observed. The time to construct one tour in the 57 city case was about 30 seconds, and the time for the other problems proportionately less.

From the experience we obtained, particularly on the 33 and 42 city problems, we found that the shortest tours so produced tended to agree pretty well around the periphery of the tour where it tended to be convex, but did not agree at all well in the "center" of the problem where the optimal tour was necessarily quite non convex. Hence, we built into Code 1 the added

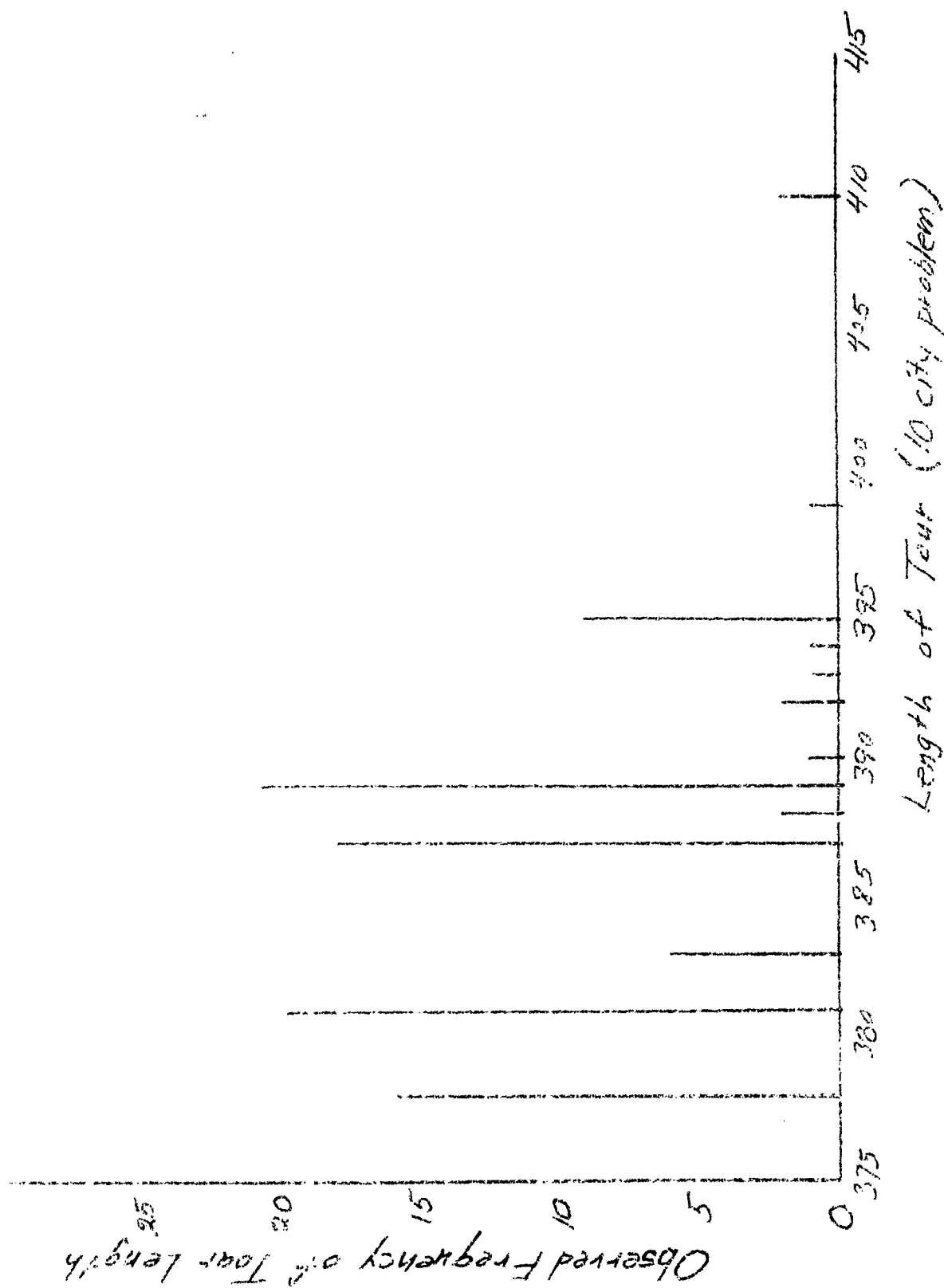


Figure 2

feasibility of being able to specify subproblems, and have the program work on them separately.

For instance, in Figure 4 we have illustrated a case in which the eight

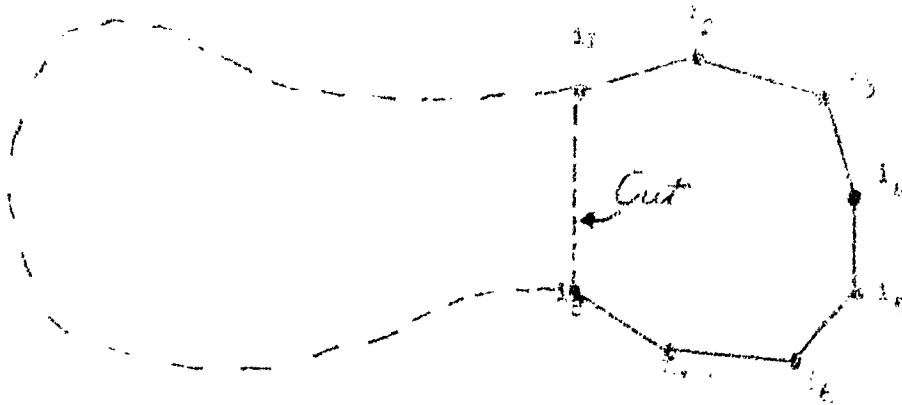


Figure 4

cities of the right form a convex part of the tour that was traversed by most of the shortest tours produced in the initial runs of the problem. For this case we made a "cut" from i_1 to i_8 and solved the two sub-problems separately. In this way we "factored" the 8-city problem into an 8-city and an n-6-city problem since cities i_1 and i_8 occur in both problems. The 8-city problem, being a convex (or nearly convex) problem is extremely easy to solve with this $\bar{L}$ and usually resulted in probability of 1 or greater for the empirical frequency of observation of the shortest tour. Thus, as will be explained in Section 5, we were virtually certain of obtaining the correct answer to that sub-problem. The n-6-city problem can be considered as a new problem that is susceptible to further factoring of the same kind. The only requirement on the solutions to the series of subproblems so defined is that the common link (in Figure 4, the common link is shown dashed from i_1 to i_8) must be traversed once in the solutions to both subproblems. In the case of the non-geometric problem, there is the further requirement that the common

line be traversed once in one direction in the solution to the first subproblem, and once in the opposite direction in the solution to the complementary subproblem.

Our experience, as exhibited in Figure 5, with the 42 and 33 city problems was that we could obtain the optimal solution to each problem using all the cities. But the empirical probability of finding them in this way was quite small. We then verified probabilistically (see Section 5) that the best tour was optimal, by factoring them into subtours and showing that as subproblems, these subtours had empirical probability of .1 or greater of being picked up by Code 1.

Our next idea was to have the computer do the factoring of the problem, and we describe how it did that in the next section.

4. THE LEARNING ALGORITHM--CODE 2

Our success in factoring problems after making some initial runs with Code 1, although satisfactory, was time consuming, and led us to incorporate the factoring procedure into the code. The result is Code 2 to be described next. It is a code that has learning aspects in that the results of early computations of the program define the subproblems chosen to be worked later in more detail. Of course, both correct and incorrect learning are possible. The algorithm we thus developed is one that stops after a finite number of steps and prints out a tour that may or may not be optimal. Our experience shows that it has positive probability of finding the optimal tour which depends upon the size of the problem being worked and on the number of random tries the machine is permitted to make (i.e., the experience it is allowed to have) before being required to define subproblems to be worked on. To describe just one numerical result with Code 2 we found that in the 42 city problem the

algorithm found the correct answer after making 5 cuts, i.e., it defined 6 subproblems. The cuts can be observed in Exhibit D. Other results will be discussed later.

We describe in more detail the algorithm for Code 2 which includes the algorithms previously described in Sections 2 and 3.

0. Read initial data.

1. Choose two link cities, x and y , at random from among the list of possible cities.

2. Eliminate the link cities from the list. Then put the remaining cities in random order.

3. Using the link cities, x and y , as the initial asyclic permutation on 2 cities, use the algorithm of Section 2 to construct a permutation on n cities and compute the length of the tour.

4. Go back to 2 and construct a new permutation. Compare each time with the previous shortest tour found, saving the best one observed in k trials, where the value of k is read in as data, or else k is chosen to be a multiple of n . For instance, $k = 50$ or 75 or $k = 2n$ are typical values we used.

5. Print the best tour found in k loops.

6. Find a city on the diameter of the best tour as follows: Choose any city, a , at random; find the city, b , on the tour that is farthest from a ; then find the city, c , on the tour that is farthest from b . Select c as the diameter city. (This process could be repeated more often, but would cycle. The net effect is to get a city on the tour that is "far away" from the "center" of the problem.)

7. Define a convex subproblem. To describe how we do this, let us assume that diameter city c is also i_{10} the 10^{th} city on the best tour found in 4.

We now compute the distance d from i_{10} to i_9 . Next we compute the distance d' from i_{10} to i_{11} and see whether it is greater than or equal to d . In any case, we replace d by d' and go on. Next we compute the distance d'' from i_{11} to i_9 and make the same comparison, replacing d by this distance. We continue this process as long as d continues to increase. Once d starts to decrease, we continue the process as long as d continues to decrease, and terminate it as soon as d starts to increase again. Thus, if the optimal tour consists of points on a circle we would include the whole problem as a subproblem. But if the optimal tour were in the shape of an hour glass, as in Figure 4, we would cut off one lobe of the star. Illustrations of subproblems defined by the program are shown in Exhibits C, D, and E. The reader will note in these figures that the resulting subproblems are not always convex in the strict mathematical sense. However, the resulting subproblems are sufficiently simple for our algorithm to solve easily, which is all that is desired.

3. Once the convex subproblem is defined, we print out the partial answer. If the convex subproblem includes all the cities of the original problem we stop the procedure. If the subproblem does not include all the cities on the list, we set up a new problem that consists of all the cities not included in the convex problem printed out, determine the link cities x and y (being careful about the order of these cities in the nonsymmetric case) and go back to 2. Since a finite number of cities are removed each time the cities of a subproblem are deleted from the list of remaining cities, this process will stop after a finite number of steps.

In another version of the program we employed "double-cutting," that is, removing a subproblem from both ends of the diameter of the partial tour chosen in 6. This process worked reasonably well but necessitated a longer learning loop in 4 to be certain that both ends of the periphery of the tour were correct.

There was a net saving of computational time, however.

It should be obvious to the reader that the program we have outlined was devised by looking at geometrical, hence symmetric and euclidean, problems. Nevertheless, the program is entirely arithmetical in nature, and the limited experience we have had with perhaps 5 nonsymmetric problems indicated that it works for these problems as well. However, the latter conclusion is highly tentative and needs a good deal of further study and experimentation before it can be firmly asserted.

Our experience with the various sample problems is shown in Figure 5. The actual cuts made by the machine are shown dashed in Exhibits A-F. In Figure 5 we have indicated the experience both with and without the double-cutting feature.

Of these problems the 5 and 10 city problems were completely trivial to solve. The 33 city problem was interesting in that the program (with single cutting), had mistakes in its initial guesses that were not corrected until the last cut was made. In the 42 city problem (with single-cutting), the program actually obtained the correct answer after the first cut, so that doubtless a shorter learning loop would also have produced the correct answer. Note that double-cutting almost halved the time needed to solve this problem. The answers shown to these four problems have been proved to be the optimal answers by various people [2, 3].

By far the most difficult problem is the 57 city problem, the data for which was obtained from the Rand-McNally 1962 road atlas of the United States. On some initial runs of the problem we obtained a tour that had length 12,986 miles shown in Exhibit F. The best answer that we found is that shown in Exhibit E which has length 12,985 miles. Although these two tours agree pretty well around the periphery, they are quite different in the middlewest. An answer to this problem that is 30 miles shorter has been obtained by Gordon and S

No. of Cities	5	10	33	42	57
Length of Learning Loop, Code 2 (single cutting)	10	20	50	75	150
Number of cuts	0	0	3	5	6 ^{**}
Time	0:02 [*]	0:11	2:29	7:21	33:31
Length of Learning Loop, Code 2 (double cutting)	-	-	-	2n	3n
Number of cuts	-	-	-	4 ^{**}	6 ^{**}
Time	-	-	-	4:27	16:56 ^{***}

* Estimated Time

** Additional cuts were made, but not needed

*** The answer was the same as in Exhibit E except for the mistake in the Northeast, discussed in Section 5.

Figure 5

Reiter (private communication). In spite of repeated attempts our program has never produced their solution, the probable reasons for this are discussed in Section 6. It should be noted that their procedure requires several days of computation to obtain such an answer, so that in terms of cost of computation the answer in Exhibit E is still probably preferable.

In addition to the experience already discussed we have made several runs on larger problems with randomly generated data of dimensions as high as 90 x 90. Although the program works for such problems we have no way of comparing how good the answers are with any other standard so that we shall not report on such experience here.

5. CHECKING OF ANSWERS

One method for checking the optimality of proposed answers to travelling salesman problems has been given by Dantzig, Fulkerson, and Johnson [2]. That method is, of course, applicable to the answers which our program gives.

We propose here a probabilistic method for checking on the accuracy of the result. Our model is the simple binomial trials model in which there are two events success and failure. In Figure 6 we have listed the probabilities of observing successes in n trials where p is the probability of a success each time.

$p \backslash n$	10	25	50	75	100	200
1.00	.651322	.28210	.994846	.999830	.999973	1.00000
.950	.401263	.712610	.923055	.978656	.990079	.999900
.900	.182927	.396535	.655830	.780256	.867380	.982412
.850	.095618	.222179	.394794	.529443	.633468	.866020

Figure 6

From the table it can be seen that events of probability .5 or greater are essentially certain of being observed in 50 trials and events of probability .05 or more are essentially certain of being observed in 100 trials. Our own philosophy is to delete the word "essentially" and regard these events as certain. This is an approximation, and our solutions are approximate in this probabilistic sense. Nevertheless, there are several ways of improving on the confidence that one feels in the answer so obtained. We list some of these methods next.

(a) Run Code 2 several times to get different ways of cutting the problem up and different answers. Take the best answer of these.

(b) Cut the best answer manually into subproblems that are different from the ones that Code 2 used. Apply Code 1 to the subproblems.

(c) Take adjacent subproblems, learn ones that have a common link and work pairs of them using Code 1 to see if the subproblems define the same answer as that given by Code 1.

(d) From Figure 6 it is possible to estimate the probability of the various subproblems being worked correctly. By taking the product of these probabilities it is possible to estimate the probability of having found the complete tour at random using Code 1, and thus get an idea of how much has been "learned" from the cutting and factoring procedures of Code 2. The probability thus obtained is a good upper estimate of the probability of finding the optimum tour, and can be used to estimate the cost of getting a better tour than the one found so far.

(e) Of course, it is obvious that using long learning loops in Code 2 and repeating it a number of times will improve the reliability estimate that one can put in the final best answer found by the algorithm.

We do not claim that our program is infallible, but rather that it gives good answers in a computationally feasible amount of computer time. For instance, a better tour (30 miles shorter) is known for the 57 city problem than any that our programs found. An explanation of the failure of our program to find the better one may be found by examining the nine city subproblem consisting of the cities 34, 42, 7, 6, 36, 39, 19, 3, and 56 in the northeastern part of the United States (see Exhibits E and F). The optimum tour and another tour that is 147 miles longer are the two most probable tours chosen by our heuristic. The relative probabilities of choosing these tours, obtained by running Code 1 500 times on this subproblem are shown in Figure 7.

Tour	Observed Probability
3-19-39-36-6-7-42-34-50	.19%
3-56-34-42-7-19-6-30-33	.40%

Figure 7

Thus the non-optimal tour is twice as probable as the optimal tour, and actually will be chosen about 40 percent of the time. It happened in many of the runs that we made that the best tours found would contain the non-optimal tour in the north-east, and this error being on the periphery of the best tour observed caused difficulties, particularly when double-cutting was used. This tendency of our program to choose highly probable schedules, relative to the heuristic used, constitutes a weakness of the method. It is undoubtedly for this reason that we were unable to observe the Gordan-Reiter tour which was 30 miles shorter, i.e., the tours in Exhibits E and F were probably chosen much more often by the algorithm, and the shorter tour is extremely unlikely to be observed in the relatively short amounts of computer time we used, as compared to the times employed by Gordan and Reiter.

6. PROOF THAT THE OPTIMAL TOUR CAN BE CHOSEN IN THE EUCLIDEAN CASE

In the Euclidean case it is well-known that an optimal tour can never cross itself. This follows from the triangle inequality, for if a tour is used that crosses itself then it is easy to see how to pull it away at the crossing point and shorten the tour.

Now consider an optimal tour T_n in an n -city travelling salesman problem in the euclidean plane. We first show that the interior of the tour T_n can be triangulated by means of line segments lying completely in the interior of T_n . For instance, in Figure 8 we illustrate an eight city optimal tour that is so triangulated.

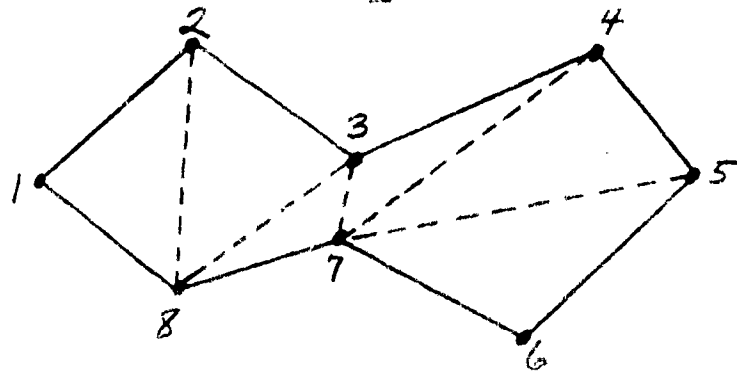


Figure 8

The line segments in the interior of the tour are shown dashed. Note that the inside of the tour has been decomposed into triangles.

To prove that this can always be done, observe that it is vacuously true for T_3 , and the only two possible cases for T_4 are shown in Figure 9. Now assume that all tours T_{n-1} on $n-1$ cities can be so triangulated. Consider an optimal

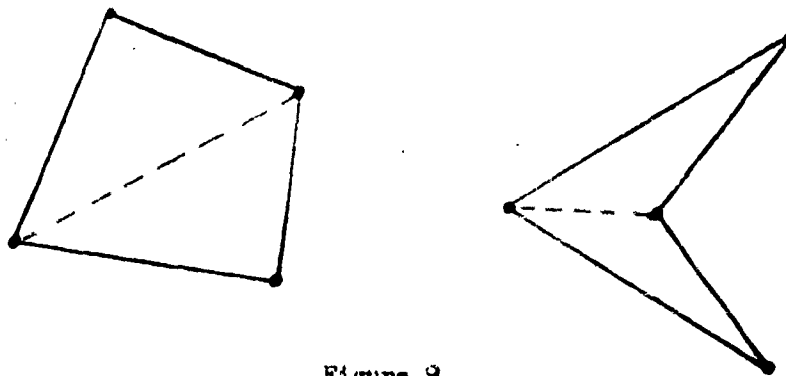


Figure 9

tour T_n for n cities. Choose a vertex, call it i_1 , at which the angle formed by the two edges of the tour that meet at i_1 and which points into the interior of the tour, is less than 180° . Consider the cities i_2 and i_{n-1} which are adjacent to i_1 in the optimal tour, as shown in Figure 10. We have two cases: (a) the line segment joining i_2 and i_{n-1} lies entirely inside the tour; or (b) the line segment does not lie entirely within the tour. In case (a) we include the line segment from i_2 to i_{n-1} as part of the triangulation,

and now the tour^{that} bypasses i_1 by making use of this line segment consists of

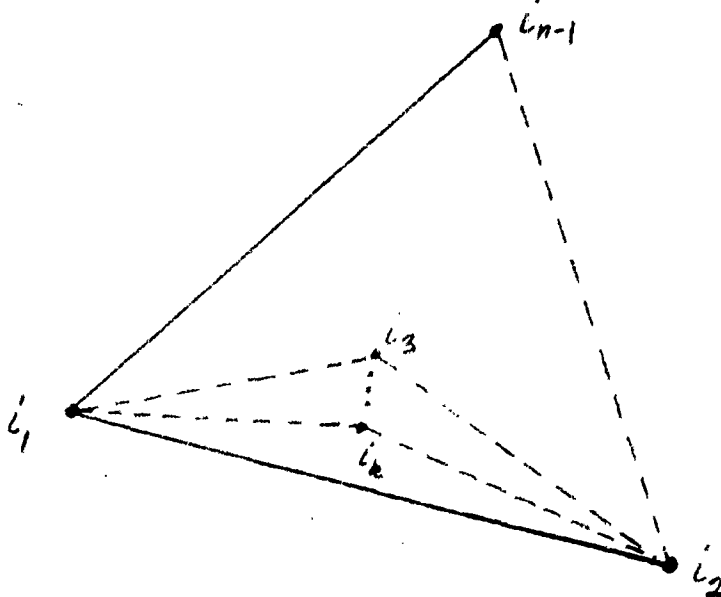


Figure 10

$n-1$ cities. This tour must be optimal for that problem or else the original tour on n cities could be shortened. Hence by the induction assumption the remaining tour can be triangulated, giving a triangulation of T_n . In case (b), there must be a city, call it i_3 , in the interior of the triangle formed by i_1, i_2 , and i_{n-1} . We now consider the line segment from i_1 to i_3 . Either it lies completely inside T_n or else there is another city i_4 in side the triangle formed by i_1, i_2 , and i_3 . Continuing in this way we eventually find (since there are only a finite number of cities) a line segment from i_1 to some other city on the tour, say i_k , and which lies entirely inside the optimal tour T_n . This line segment divides T_n into two sub-tours each involving fewer than n cities. Hence by the induction assumption these two sub-tours can be triangulated, and these give a triangulation of T_n .

By the same kind of inductive argument, it can be shown that $n-3$ interior segments will be needed to perform the triangulation. It can also be shown that there is at least one vertex that has no interior segment connected to it, such

as vertex 1 in Figure 8.

To demonstrate that there is a random order of the cities that will make the heuristic produce the optimal tour, we consider a triangulation of the optimal tour T_n . Remember the cities so that city 1 is a vertex having no interior segment of the triangulation connected to it (as in Figure 8), and assume that the other cities are numbered in order around the tour. Then, necessarily because we have a triangulation, cities 2 and n will be connected by an interior segment (2 and 8 in Figure 8). Hence we make cities 1 and 8 be the first two cities considered by the algorithm, and city 2 the next one on the list. The segment from 2 to n will be the base of one of the triangles of the triangulation; let the next city on the list be the city at the peak of that triangle, etc. For instance, in Figure 8 we let cities 1 and 8 be the initial cities, and introduce the other cities in the order 2, 3, 7, 4, 5, and 6. The algorithm given in Section 2 will then produce the optimal tour 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, as the reader can easily check. Thus for every different triangulation of the optimal tour we get a different initial list that will produce the optimal answer. There are other initial lists which will also produce the optimal tour, for instance the list 1, 8, 5, 4, 6, 3, and 7 in Figure 8.

At present, we do not have a proof that for non-euclidean problems there is an initial list which will produce the optimal tour. Nevertheless, our experience leads us to conjecture that such is possible.

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- [6] Tucker, A. W., "An Integer Program for a Multiple-Trip Variant of the Travelling Salesman Problem," private notes.

Exhibit A
5 CITY OPTIMAL TOUR
Distance 148

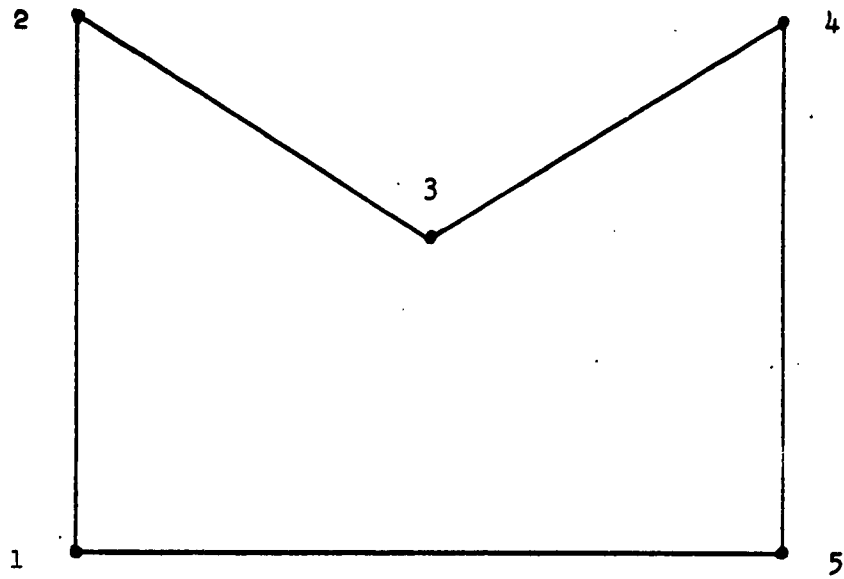


Exhibit B
10 CITY OPTIMAL TOUR
Distance 378

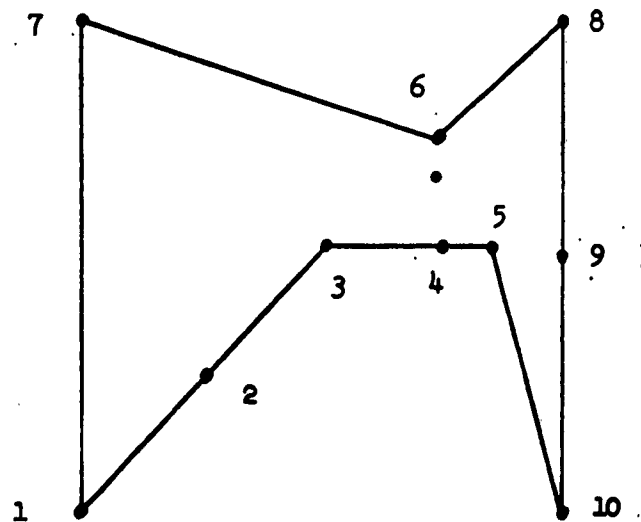


Exhibit C

BEST 33 CITY TOUR FOUND

(PEG Optimum)

Distance 10,861 miles

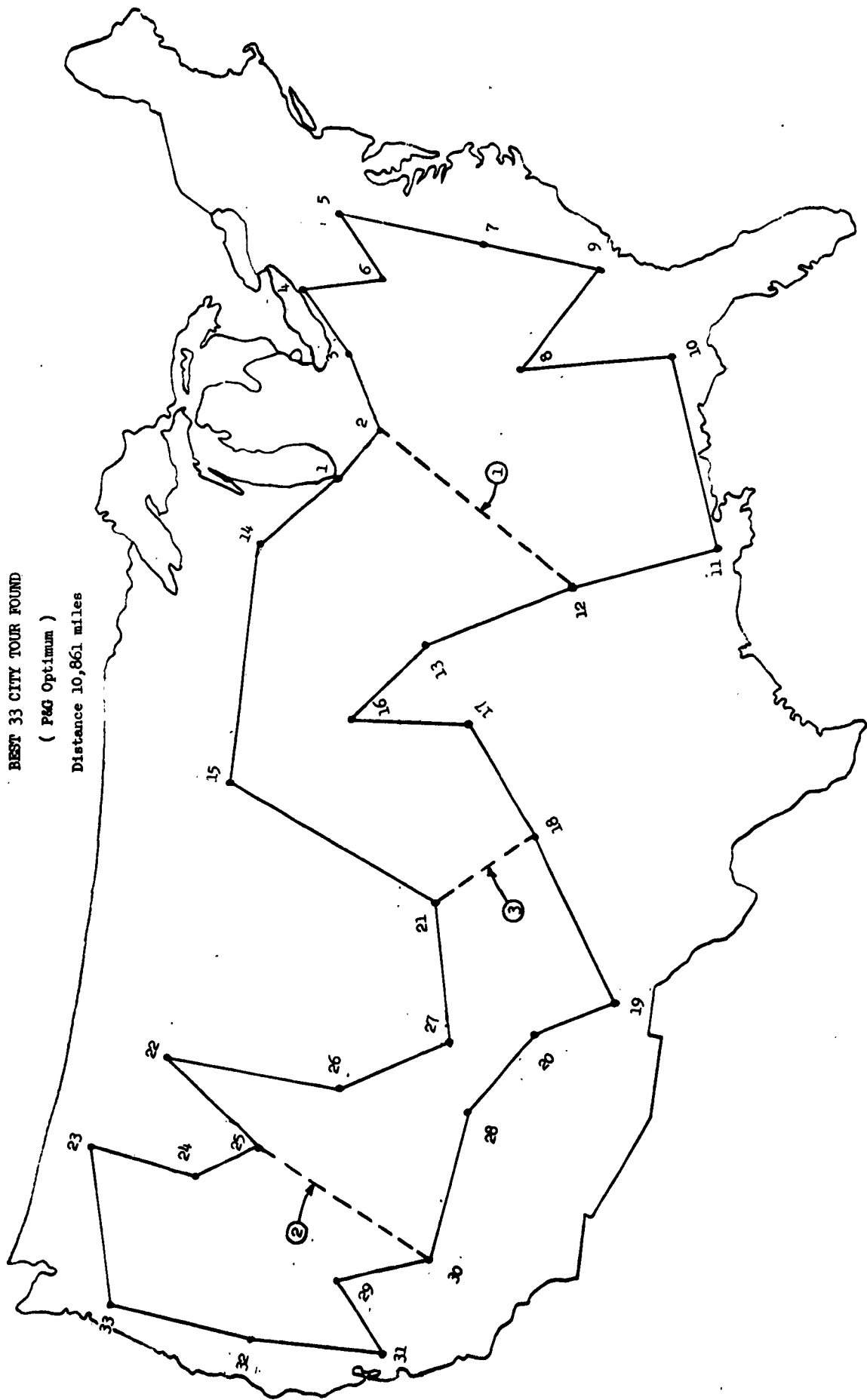
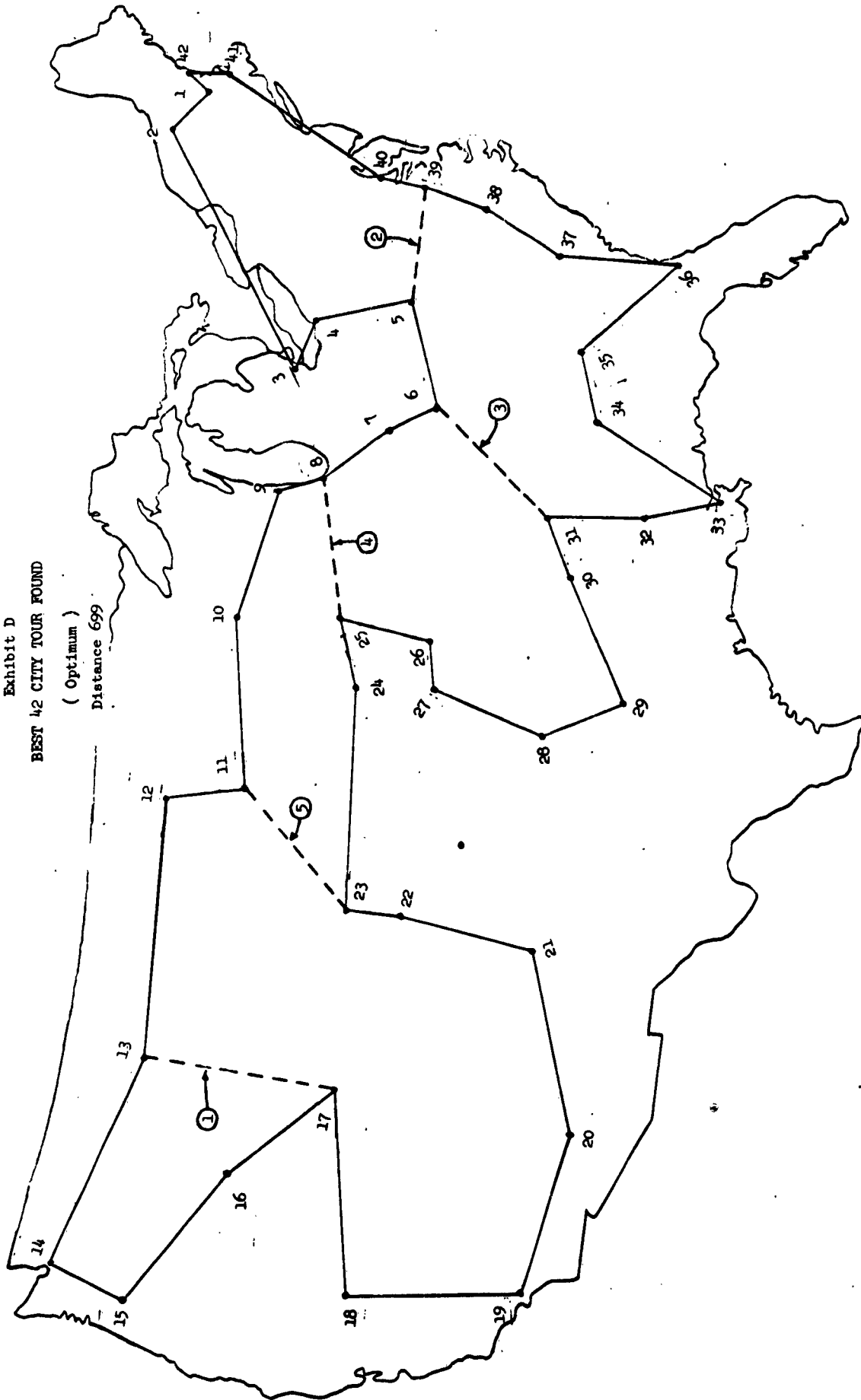


Exhibit D

BEST 42 CITY TOUR FOUND

(Optimum)

Distance 699



BEST 57 CITY TOUR FOUND

BEST 57 CITY TOUR FOUND

Distance 12,955 miles

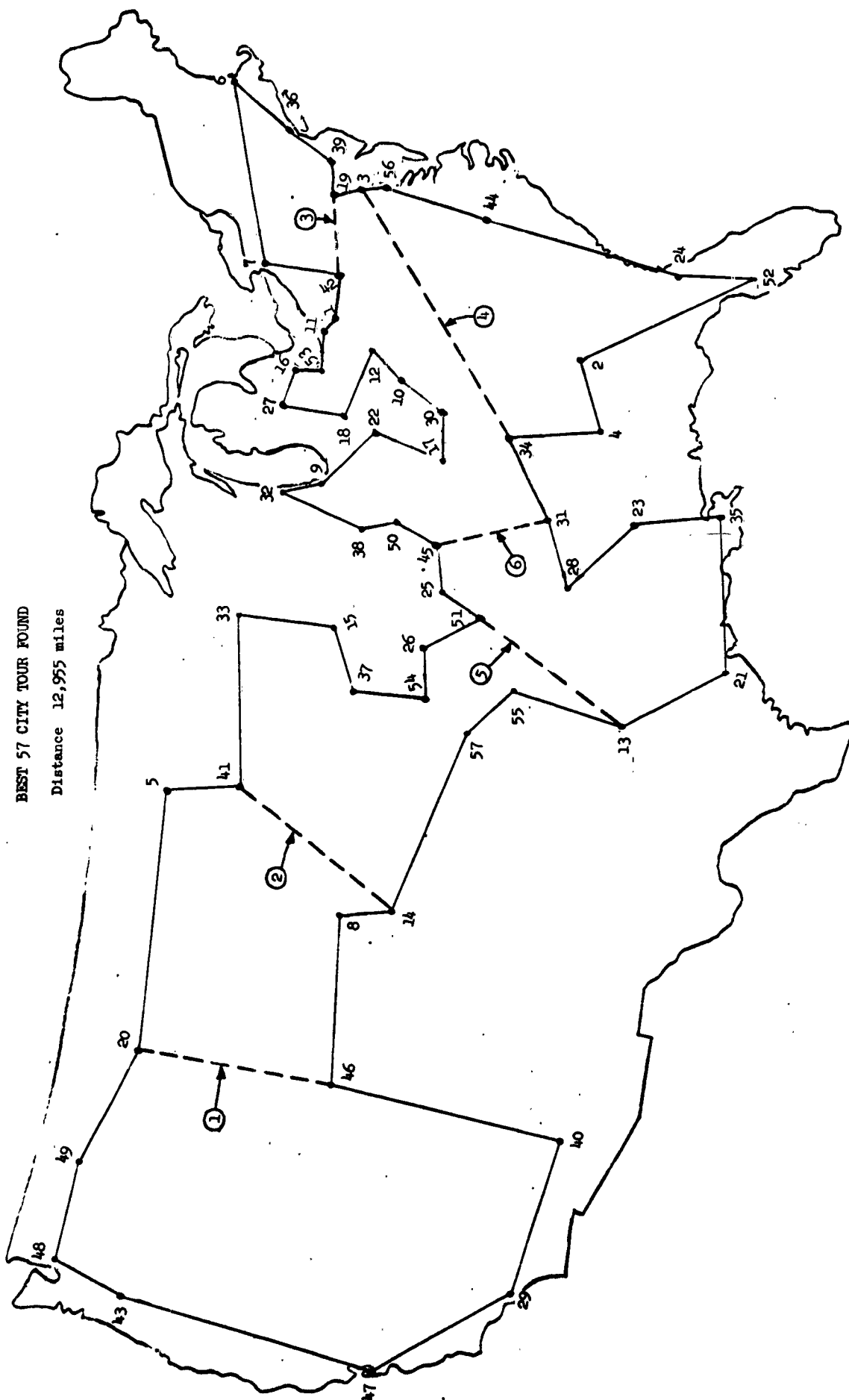


Exhibit F

NEXT BEST 57 CITY TOUR FOUND

Distance 12,956 miles

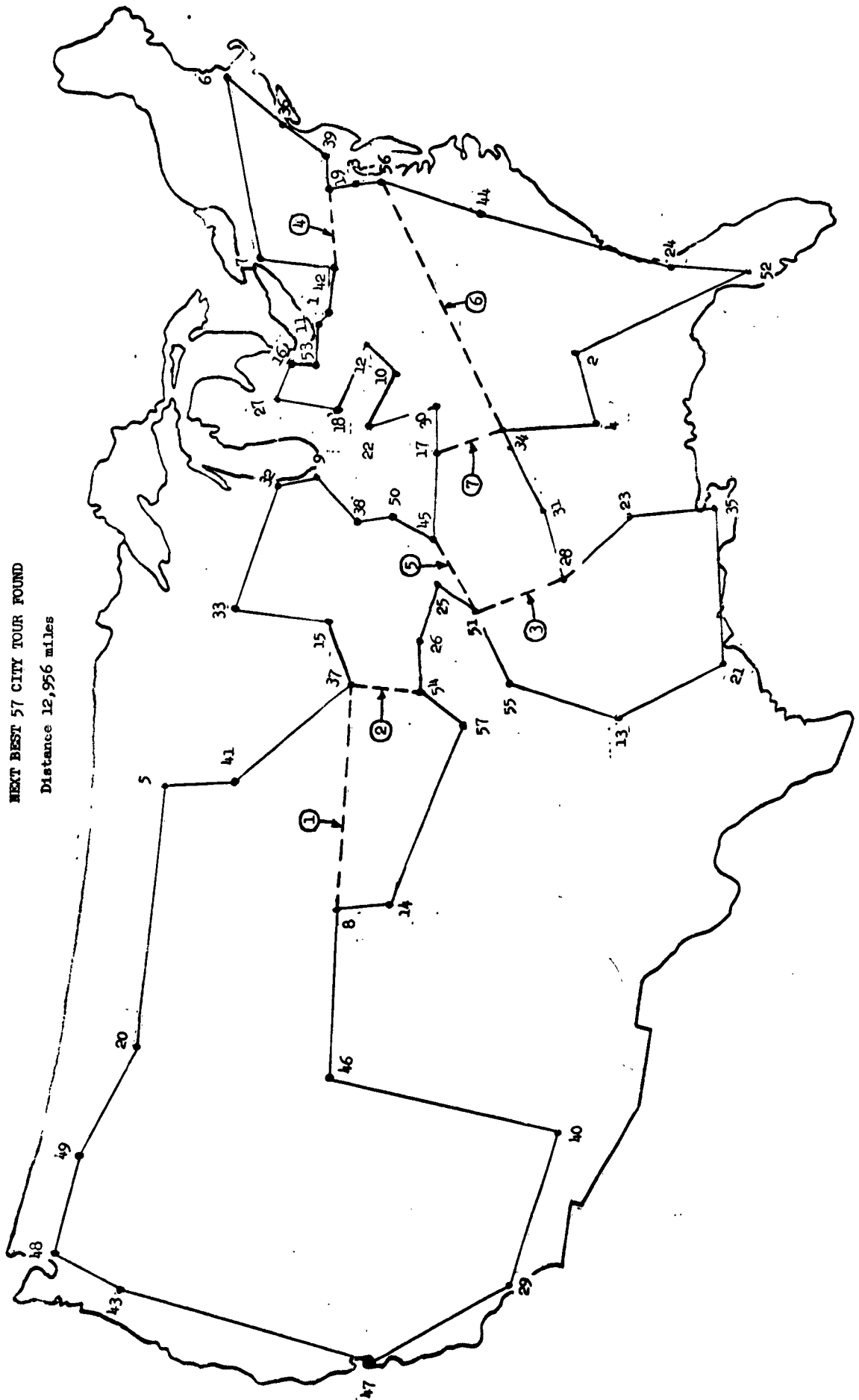


Exhibit G
List
33 City Problem

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Chicago, Ill. | 17. Wichita, Kan. |
| 2. Indianapolis, Ind. | 18. Amarillo, Tex. |
| 3. Marion, Ohio | 19. Truth or Consequences, N. Mex. |
| 4. Erie, Penna. | 20. Manuelito, N. Mex. |
| 5. Carlisle, Penna. | 21. Colorado Springs, Colo. |
| 6. Wana, West Virginia | 22. Butte, Mont. |
| 7. Wilkesboro, N. C. | 23. Lewiston, Ida. |
| 8. Chattanooga, Tenn. | 24. Boise, Idaho |
| 9. Barnwell, S. Car. | 25. Twin Falls, Ida. |
| 10. Bainbridge, Ga. | 26. Salt Lake City, Utah |
| 11. Baton Rouge, La. | 27. Mexican Hat, Utah |
| 12. Little Rock, Ark. | 28. Marble Canyon, Ariz. |
| 13. Kansas City, Mo. | 29. Reno, Nev. |
| 14. La Crosse, Wis. | 30. Lone Pine, Calif. |
| 15. Blunt, S. Dak. | 31. Gustine, Calif. |
| 16. Lincoln, Neb. | 32. Redding, Calif. |
| | 33. Portland, Ore. |

Exhibit H
List
42 City Problem

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Manchester, N. H. | 22. Denver, Colo. |
| 2. Montpelier, Vt. | 23. Cheyenne, Wyo. |
| 3. Detroit, Mich. | 24. Omaha, Neb. |
| 4. Cleveland, Ohio | 25. Des Moines, Iowa |
| 5. Charleston, W. Va. | 26. Kansas City, Mo. |
| 6. Louisville, Ky. | 27. Topeka, Kans. |
| 7. Indianapolis, Ind. | 28. Oklahoma City, Okla. |
| 8. Chicago, Ill. | 29. Dallas, Tex. |
| 9. Milwaukee, Wis. | 30. Little Rock, Ark. |
| 10. Minneapolis, Minn. | 31. Memphis, Tenn. |
| 11. Pierre, S. D. | 32. Jackson, Miss. |
| 12. Bismark, N. D. | 33. New Orleans, La. |
| 13. Helena, Mont. | 34. Birmingham, Ala. |
| 14. Seattle, Wash. | 35. Atlanta, Ga. |
| 15. Portland, Ore. | 36. Jacksonville, Fla. |
| 16. Boise, Idaho | 37. Columbia, S. C. |
| 17. Salt Lake City, Utah | 38. Raleigh, N. C. |
| 18. Carson City, Nev. | 39. Richmond, Va. |
| 19. Los Angeles, Calif. | 40. Washington, D. C. |
| 20. Phoenix, Ariz. | 41. Boston, Mass. |
| 21. Santa Fe, N. Mex. | 42. Portland, Me. |

Exhibit I
List
57 City Problem

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Akron, Ohio | 29. Los Angeles, Calif. |
| 2. Atlanta, Ga. | 30. Louisville, Ky. |
| 3. Baltimore, Md. | 31. Memphis, Tenn. |
| 4. Birmingham, Ala. | 32. Milwaukee, Wis. |
| 5. Bismarck, N. Dak. | 33. Mpls, St. Paul, Minn. |
| 6. Boston, Mass. | 34. Nashville, Tenn. |
| 7. Buffalo, N. Y. | 35. New Orleans, La. |
| 8. Cheyenne, Wyo. | 36. New York, N. Y. |
| 9. Chicago, Ill. | 37. Omaha, Nebr. |
| 10. Cincinnati, Ohio | 38. Peoria, Ill. |
| 11. Cleveland, Ohio | 39. Philadelphia, Pa. |
| 12. Columbus, Ohio | 40. Phoenix, Ariz. |
| 13. Dallas, Tex. | 41. Pierre, S. Dak. |
| 14. Denver, Colo. | 42. Pittsburgh, Pa. |
| 15. Des Moines, Iowa | 43. Portland, Ore. |
| 16. Detroit, Mich. | 44. Raleigh, N. C. |
| 17. Evansville, Ind. | 45. St. Louis, Mo. |
| 18. Ft. Wayne, Ind. | 46. Salt Lake City, Utah |
| 19. Harrisburg, Pa. | 47. San Francisco, Calif. |
| 20. Helena, Mont. | 48. Seattle, Wash. |
| 21. Houston, Tex. | 49. Spokane, Wash. |
| 22. Indianapolis, Ind. | 50. Springfield, Ill. |
| 23. Jackson, Miss. | 51. Springfield, Mo. |
| 24. Jacksonville, Fla. | 52. Tampa, Fla. |
| 25. Jefferson City, Mo. | 53. Toledo, Ohio |
| 26. Kansas City, Mo. | 54. Topeka, Kans. |
| 27. Lansing, Mich. | 55. Tulsa, Okla. |
| 28. Little Rock, Ark. | 56. Washington, D. C. |
| | 57. Wichita, Kans. |

Exhibit J

Data for the Five City Problem

Source: Hypothetical Example

1	0				
2	30	0			
3	26	24	0		
4	50	40	24	0	
5	40	50	26	30	0

Exhibit K

Data for the Ten City Problem

Source: L. L. Barachet,
"Graphic Solution of the
Travelling Salesman Problem,"
O. R. 5(1957) 841-5

1	0									
2	28	0								
3	57	28	0							
4	72	45	20	0						
5	81	54	30	10	0					
6	85	57	28	20	22	0				
7	80	63	57	72	81	63	0			
8	113	85	57	45	41	28	80	0		
9	89	63	40	20	10	28	89	40	0	
10	80	63	57	45	41	63	113	80	40	0

Data for the 33 City Problem

Source: Rand-McNally Road Atlas, 38th Edition, Rand-McNally Company: 1962

[illegible]

Data for the 42 City Problem

ROAD DISTANCES BETWEEN CITIES IN ADJUSTED UNITS

ROAD DISTANCES BETWEEN CITIES IN ADJUSTED UNITS
The figures in the table are mileages between the two specified numbered cities, less 11, divided by 17, and rounded to the nearest integer.

Source: G. Deatsig, R. Fulkerson, and S. Johnson
 "Solution Of A Large-Scale Travelling-Salesman Problem"
Journal of the Operations Research Society of America
 November, 1954
 Volume 2, Number 4

Sources: G. Dantsig, R. Fulkerson, and S. Johnson
"Solution Of A Large-Scale Traveling-Salesman Problem"
Journal of the Operations Research Society of America
November, 1954
Volume 2, Number 4

Source: Rand-McNally Road Atlas, 38th Edition, Rand-McNally Company: 1962

[illegible]

EXHIBIT N
(Continued)

Source: Rand-McNally Road Atlas, 38th Edition, Rand-McNally Company: 1962

[illegible]