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Facets of the axial three-index assignment polytope

Trivikram Dokka [a,*], Frits C.R. Spieksma [b]

[a] Department of Management Science, Lancaster University Management School, Lancaster, LA1 14X, United Kingdom
[b] ORSTAT, KU Leuven, Naamsestraat 69, B-3000, Leuven, Belgium

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ABSTRACT

We revisit the facial structure of the axial 3-index assignment polytope. After reviewing known classes of facet-defining inequalities, we present a new class of valid inequalities, and show that they define facets of this polytope. This answers a question posed by Qi and Sun (2000). Moreover, we show that we can separate these inequalities in polynomial time. Finally, we assess the computational relevance of the new inequalities by performing (limited) computational experiments.

1. Introduction and motivation

The axial 3-index (or 3-dimensional) assignment problem (3AP) can be described as follows. Given are three disjoint n-sets I, J, K and a weight function $w : I \times J \times K \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The problem is to select a collection of triples $M \subseteq I \times J \times K$ such that each element of each set appears in exactly one triple, and such that total weight of the selected triples is minimized (or maximized). Its formulation as an Integer Linear Program (ILP) is:

$$\min \sum_{i\in I}\sum_{j\in J}\sum_{k\in K} w_{ijk}x_{ijk}$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{j\in J}\sum_{k\in K} x_{ijk} = 1 \quad \forall i \in I, \tag{1.1}$$

$$\sum_{i\in I}\sum_{k\in K} x_{ijk} = 1 \quad \forall j \in J, \tag{1.2}$$

$$\sum_{i\in I}\sum_{j\in J} x_{ijk} = 1 \quad \forall k \in K, \tag{1.3}$$

$$x_{ijk} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K. \tag{1.4}$$

The 3AP is a straightforward generalization of the well-known (two-dimensional) assignment problem. Whereas the latter problem is solvable by a polynomial-time algorithm, the 3AP is more difficult: no polynomial-time algorithm is known for the 3AP, see [17]. The 3AP however, is a very relevant problem, and has applications in many different fields of science. In fact, the above stated formulation can be found in recent papers that deal with the statistical design of experiments. For instance, Rassen et al. [24], Higgins [14], and Xu and Kalbfleisch [26] describe how subjects, each receiving one of three

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: t.dokka@lancaster.ac.uk (T. Dokka), frits.spieksma@kuleuven.be (F.C.R. Spieksma).

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possible treatments, should be assembled into triples in a best possible way. A completely different application can be found in the field of computational chemistry where so-called methyl groups need to be assigned to minimize the cost of the resulting resonance assignment; we refer to John et al. [16] for further details. Yet another application is described in computational biology (see Biyani et al. [7]).

Another reason for the importance of the 3AP is that it can be seen as a special case of the axial multi-index assignment problem (mAP). In this case, instead of three disjoint n-sets, we are given m disjoint n-sets, and the problem is to find nm-tuples such that each element is in exactly one m-tuple, while minimizing total cost. This problem is particularly relevant in target tracking situations, which occur not only in data-association (see e.g. Poore and Gadaleta [20] and the references contained therein), but also in particle tracking in live-cell imaging studies, see Feng et al. [12] for an example.

A consequence of these different applications is the existence of a wide range of heuristic solution methods for the 3AP. Many of the papers above, as well as Huang and Lim [15] and Aiex et al. [1] describe heuristic procedures. And although our work reported here is not primarily algorithmic in nature, we remark that the inequalities described here can be used in an (exact) cutting-plane approach, and hence can also be used to establish lower bounds (see Section 5), thereby helping to assess the quality of heuristic solutions found.

Thus, in this work we contribute to the polyhedral knowledge of the facial structure of the convex hull of the feasible solutions to (1.1)–(1.4). First, we describe known classes of facets by adopting a geometrical point of view, i.e., we organize the variables x_{ijk} in a three-dimensional array (a cube). This allows us to illustrate the differences between distinct classes of inequalities (Section 2). Next, we give a new class of facet-defining inequalities, called the wall inequalities (Section 3). We show that this class can be separated in polynomial time in Section 4. Further, we perform limited computational experiments in order to assess the practical relevance of the wall inequalities in Section 5.

1.1. Literature

It is well-known that, as opposed to the polytope that corresponds to the two-dimensional assignment problem, not all extreme vertices of the polytope corresponding to (1.1)–(1.4) are integral. In fact, different types of fractional vertices exist; work on this topic is reported in Kravtsov [18]. Early work investigating the facial structure of the polytope P_I is described in Balas and Saltzman [5] and Euler [10]. They give different classes of facet-defining inequalities (see Section 2). Subsequently, other classes of facet-defining inequalities are reported in Qi and Balas [21] (see also Qi, Balas and Gwan [22]). Separation algorithms are discussed in Balas and Qi [4]. A nice overview of existing polyhedral results is given in Qi and Sun [23]. This paper also contains the question: "Are there other facet classes such that the right hand sides of their defining inequalities are 2?", to which we provide an (affirmative) answer here. An exact algorithm based on known valid inequalities that are used in conjunction with Lagrangian multipliers is given in Balas and Saltzman [6].

A related polytope is the one that corresponds to the so-called *planar* three-index assignment problem; this is the problem that arises when a collection of triples needs to be selected such that each *pair* of elements from $(I \times J) \cup (I \times K) \cup (J \times K)$ is selected precisely once. The facial structure of this polytope has first been studied in Euler et al. [11]. Also, polytopes that correspond to four-index assignment problems have been studied, see Appa et al. [2]. Recent results that unify these polyhedral results for all multi-index assignment polytopes can be found in Appa et al. [3]. We refer to [25] for results concerning approximability of special cases of 3AP.

1.2. Preliminaries

To avoid trivialities we assume $n \geq 4$. Let A^n denote the (0, 1) matrix corresponding to the constraints (1.1)–(1.3). Thus A^n has n^3 columns (one for each variable) and $3n$ rows (one for each constraint). Then, the 3-index assignment polytope is the following object:

$$P_I^n = \text{conv}\{x \in \{0, 1\}^{n^3} : A^n x = \mathbf{1}\},$$

while its linear programming (LP) relaxation is described as:

$$P^n = \{x \in R^{n^3} : A^n x = \mathbf{1}, x \geq 0\}.$$

For reasons of convenience, we will often omit the superscript n, and use A, P_I and P instead. We use $R \equiv (I \cup J \cup K)$; elements of R are called *indices*. We also use $V \equiv I \times J \times K$; elements of V are called *triples*. Given a triple $(i, j, k) \in V$, we refer to i, j and k as *first*, *second*, and *third* indices respectively.

An important object is the so-called *column intersection* graph corresponding to A^n. This graph $G(V, E)$, has a node for each column of A^n (i.e., a node for each triple) and an edge for every pair of columns that have a +1 entry in the same row. Notice that each column of A^n contains three +1's. The support of the intersection of two columns c and d is nothing else but the number of indices that the triples c and d have in common; this number is denoted by $|c \cap d|$. Thus, the edge set E of the column intersection graph is given by $E = \{(c, d) : \{c, d\} \subseteq V, |c \cap d| \geq 1\}$, i.e., two nodes are connected iff the corresponding triples share some index. We call two triples *disjoint* if the corresponding nodes are not connected in G. Clearly, *cliques* (a complete subgraph of G) and *odd cycles* (a cycle consisting of an odd number of vertices in G) are relevant structures. Indeed, it is clear that when given a set of variables that correspond to nodes that form a clique in G, at most one

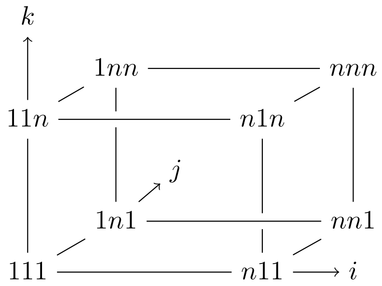

Fig. 1. The arrangement of the x_{ijk} variables in a three-dimensional cube.

of these variables can equal 1. In other words, a clique in G corresponds to a valid inequality for P^n with right hand side 1, see Balas and Saltzman [5]. Also, a set of variables that correspond to an odd cycle in G gives rise to a valid inequality, see e.g. Euler [10].

In this work, we use well-known concepts from polyhedral theory; for a thorough introduction into this field we refer to Nemhauser and Wolsey [19].

We will adopt a geometrical point of view to illustrate the valid inequalities. To do so, we see the variables x_{ijk} arranged as in a cube, see Fig. 1.

We find it convenient to have a symbol for the set of all x-variables that share two indices. More concrete, we define the following sets.

- For a given $(j^*, k^*) \in J \times K$: the set
$$(-, j^*, k^*) \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in V : j = j^*, k = k^*\}.$$
We use $x(-, j^*, k^*)$ to denote the total weight of the corresponding variables.
- For a given $(i^*, k^*) \in I \times K$, the set
$$(i^*, -, k^*) \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in V : i = i^*, k = k^*\}.$$
We use $x(i^*, -, k^*)$ to denote the total weight of the corresponding variables.
- For a given $(i^*, j^*) \in I \times J$, the set
$$(i^*, j^*, -) \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in V : i = i^*, j = j^*\}.$$
We use $x(i^*, j^*, -)$ to denote the total weight of the corresponding variables.

Geometrically, such a set of variables corresponds to an "axis" through the cube depicted in Fig. 1. Further, we write $x(A)$ for $\sum_{q \in A} x_q$.

In the next section we review the known classes of facet-defining inequalities of P_I.

2. A review of known facet classes of P_I

In this section, we review the known facet classes of P_I. There are two classes of facet-defining inequalities with right-hand side (RHS) 1 (Section 2.1), and we distinguish four classes of facet-defining inequalities with right-hand side 2 (Section 2.2). Section 2.3 deals with other facet-defining inequalities.

2.1. Facet-defining inequalities with RHS 1

As described in Section 1.2, a clique in the column intersection graph gives rise to a valid inequality. Balas and Saltzman [5] showed that there exist three types of cliques in $G(V, E)$, and two of them give rise to families of valid inequalities that are facet-defining for P_I. They show that these facet-defining inequalities constitute all facet-defining inequalities with coefficients in $\{0, 1\}$, and right-hand side 1. It is known that each of these classes can be separated in $O(n^3)$ (see Balas and Qi [4]).

2.1.1. Clique inequalities of type I

Consider a triple $c = (i_c, j_c, k_c) \in V$. For each $c \in V$, define

$$Q(c) = \{(i, j, k) \in V : i = i_c, j = j_c \text{ or } i = i_c, k = k_c \text{ or } j = j_c, k = k_c\}.$$

Thus, $Q(c)$ is the set of triples sharing at least two indices with triple c. The corresponding inequalities are clearly valid. For each $c \in V$:

$$x(Q(c)) \leq 1. \tag{2.5}$$

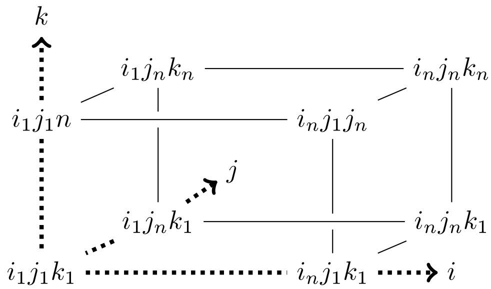

Fig. 2. Geometric illustration of a clique inequality of type I; the three dotted axes correspond to the variables in this inequality.

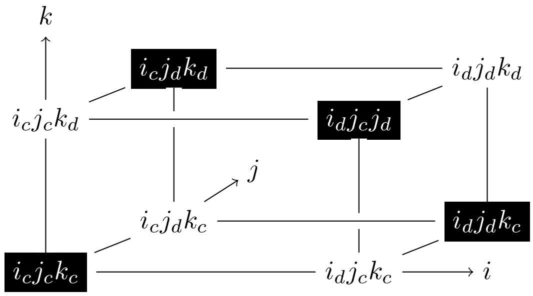

Fig. 3. Geometric illustration of a clique inequality of type II; the four highlighted cells correspond to the four variables in this inequality.

Fact 1 (*[5]*). *Inequalities (2.5) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called clique inequalities of type* I.

When we organize the variables x_{ijk} in a three-dimensional array (a cube), a clique inequality of type I can be seen as the sum of those x-variables that lie on the three "axes" through a particular cell. Indeed an alternative way of expressing $Q(c)$ is by observing that

$$Q(c) = (-, j_c, k_c) \cup (i_c, -, k_c) \cup (i_c, j_c, -),$$

see Fig. 2.

2.1.2. Clique inequalities of type II

Consider two disjoint triples $c = (i_c, j_c, k_c) \in V$ and $d = (i_d, j_d, k_d) \in V$. For each such pair of triples $c, d \in V$, define

$$Q(c, d) = \{(i_c, j_c, k_c), (i_c, j_d, k_d), (i_d, j_c, k_d), (i_d, j_d, k_c)\}.$$

Thus, $Q(c, d)$ is the set of triples that has two indices in common with d, and one with c, together with triple c; notice that $Q(c, d)$ contains exactly four triples. The corresponding inequalities are clearly valid. For each disjoint pair $c, d \in V$: (See Fig. 3)

$$x(Q(c, d)) \le 1. \tag{2.6}$$

Fact 2 (*[5]*). *Inequalities (2.6) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called clique inequalities of type* II.

2.2. Facet-defining inequalities with RHS 2

There are four classes known of facet-defining inequalities with right-hand side 2; these classes are members of larger classes of facet-defining inequalities that have arbitrary right-hand sides (see Qi and Sun [23] for a nice overview). Below we describe each of these classes restricted to right-hand side 2. It is shown in [23] that each of these four classes can be separated in $O(n^3)$ time.

2.2.1. Lifted 5-hole inequalities

Balas and Saltzman [5] describe a class of facet-defining inequalities that correspond to cycles of odd length in G; this class can have an arbitrary right-hand side. Here, we restrict ourselves to describing those inequalities that have right-hand side 2, and we will refer to them as *lifted 5-hole* inequalities. Let U consist of two elements of I, two elements of J, and a single element of K, i.e., $U = \{i_1, i_2, j_1, j_2, k_1\} \subset R$. Of course, the roles of I, J, K in the definition of U can be interchanged. For each such $U \subset R$, define

$$S(U) = \{(i, j, k) \in V : |(i, j, k) \cap \{i_1, i_2, j_1, j_2, k_1\}| \ge 2\}.$$

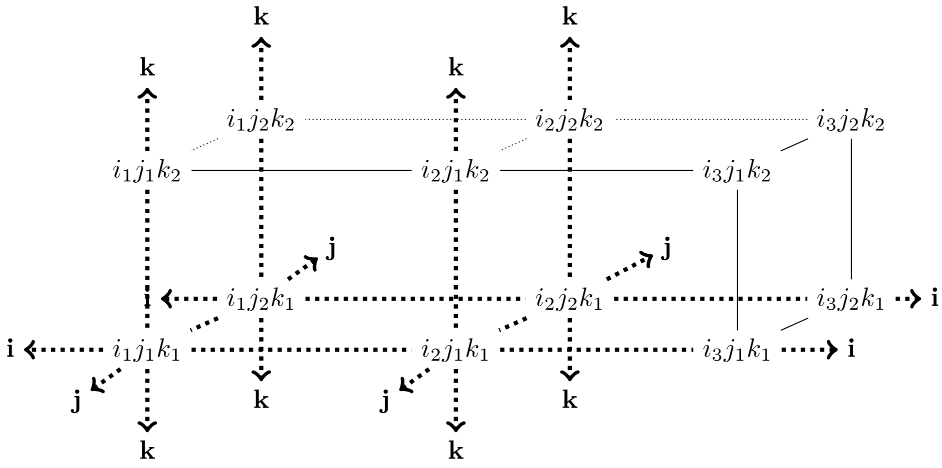

Fig. 4. Geometric illustration of a lifted 5-hole inequality; the eight dotted axes correspond to the variables in this inequality.

Thus, $S(U)$ contains the triples that have at least two indices in common with $U = \{i_1, i_2, j_1, j_2, k_1\}$. The corresponding inequalities are valid. For each $U = \{i_1, i_2, j_1, j_2, k_1\} \subset R$:

$$x(S(U)) \leq 2. \tag{2.7}$$

Fact 3 *([5]). Inequalities (2.7) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called lifted 5-hole inequalities.*

Informally, we can view the left-hand side of a lifted 5-hole inequality as the union of four (specific) clique inequalities of type I. Indeed, it is easily verified that $S(U) = Q(i_1, j_1, k_1) \cup Q(i_1, j_2, k_1) \cup Q(i_2, j_1, k_1) \cup Q(i_2, j_2, k_1)$, see Fig. 4. Thus, informally said, a lifted 5-hole inequality consists of 8 axes. In fact, clique inequalities of type I, as well as the lifted 5-hole inequalities, can be seen as members of a larger class of facet-defining inequalities (called facet class Q in [23], see also [5]).

2.2.2. $P(2)$ inequalities

This class of inequalities was introduced by Qi and Balas [21] (see also Qi et al. [22]), and can be seen as a generalization of the clique inequalities of type II. Consider two disjoint sets of indices $U, W \subset R$. We define

$$C_1(U) \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in V : i, j, k \in U\}, \quad \text{and} \tag{2.8}$$

$$C_2(U, W) \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in V : |(i, j, k) \cap U| = 1, |(i, j, k) \cap W| = 2\}. \tag{2.9}$$

Thus, $C_1(U)$ consists of those triples whose indices are contained in U, while $C_2(U, W)$ contains triples that share precisely one index with U, and precisely two indices with W. We now apply definitions (2.8) and (2.9) to the following two choices of U and W. Here is a first choice:

$$U = \{i_1, i_2, j_1, j_2, k_1, k_2\}, \qquad W = \{i_3, j_3, k_3\}. \tag{2.10}$$

This leads to

$$\begin{aligned} C_1(U) \;=\; & \{(i_1, j_1, k_1), (i_1, j_1, k_2), (i_1, j_2, k_1), (i_1, j_2, k_2), \\ & (i_2, j_1, k_1), (i_2, j_1, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_1), (i_2, j_2, k_2)\}, \quad \text{and} \end{aligned}$$

$$C_2(U, W) = \{(i_1, j_3, k_3), (i_3, j_1, k_3), (i_3, j_3, k_1), (i_2, j_3, k_3), (i_3, j_2, k_3), (i_3, j_3, k_2)\}.$$

And here is a second choice for the sets U, W:

$$U = \{i_1, i_2, j_1, k_1\}, \qquad W = \{i_3, j_2, j_3, k_2, k_3\}. \tag{2.11}$$

This leads to

$$C_1(U) = \{(i_1, j_1, k_1), (i_2, j_1, k_1)\}, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_2(U, W) \;=\; & \{(i_1, j_2, k_2), (i_1, j_2, k_3), (i_1, j_3, k_2), (i_1, j_3, k_3), (i_2, j_2, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_3), \\ & (i_2, j_3, k_2), (i_2, j_3, k_3), (i_3, j_1, k_2), (i_3, j_1, k_3), (i_3, j_2, k_2), (i_3, j_3, k_1)\}. \end{aligned}$$

The following inequalities are valid. For each disjoint pair of sets $U, W \subset R$ satisfying (2.10) or (2.11):

$$x(C_1(U)) + x(C_2(U, W)) \leq 2. \tag{2.12}$$

Fact 4 *([5]). Inequalities (2.12) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called $P(2)$ inequalities.*

Thus, an inequality of the class $P(2)$ consists of 14 cells, see Fig. 5.

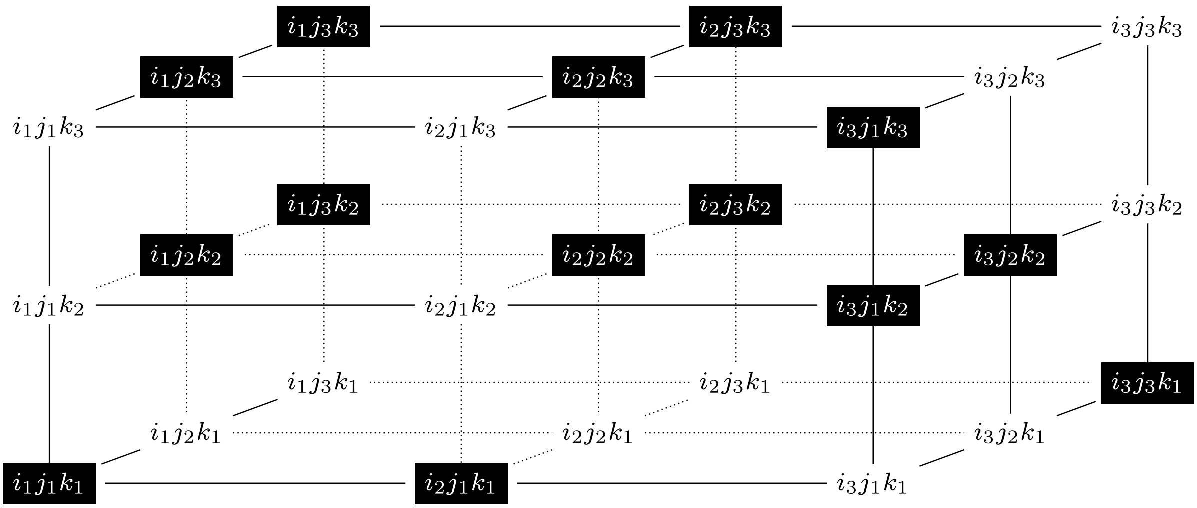

Fig. 5. Geometric illustration of a $P(2)$ inequality; the fourteen highlighted cells correspond to the fourteen variables in this inequality.

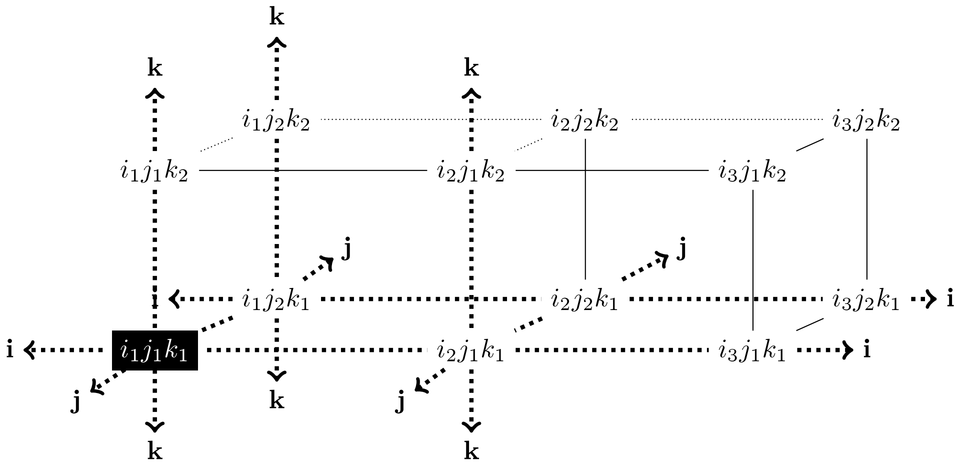

Fig. 6. Geometric illustration of a bull inequality; the seven dotted axes correspond to the variables in this inequality, whereas the highlighted cell corresponds to the variable with coefficient 2.

2.2.3. Bull inequalities

This class of inequalities was described in Gwan and Qi [13]. It is a class of inequalities with arbitrary right-hand side; here, we restrict our attention to the case where the right hand side equals 2. Notice that this class of inequalities contains variables whose coefficient has value 2.

Consider a single triple from V, say (i_1, j_1, k_1), and consider a set $U = \{i_2, j_2\}$ (with $i_1 \neq i_2, j_1 \neq j_2$); let us call $W = \{i_1, j_1, k_1\} \cup U$. Define

$$F(U) = \{(i, j, k) \in V : |(i, j, k) \cap W| \geq 2, 1 \leq |(i, j, k) \cap \{i_1, j_1, k_1\}| \leq 2\}.$$

Thus, $F(U)$ contains those triples that share at least two indices with W, and either one or two indices with $\{i_1, j_1, k_1\}$. The following inequalities are valid. For each $(i_1, j_1, k_1) \in V$ and $U \subset R$:

$$2x_{i_1,j_1,k_1} + x(F(U)) \leq 2. \tag{2.13}$$

Fact 5 ([13]). *Inequalities (2.13) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called bull inequalities.*

Notice that we can write

$$F(U) \cup (i_1, j_1, k_1) = \{(i_1, j_1, -), (i_1, -, k_1), (-, j_1, k_1), (i_1, j_2, -), (i_2, j_1, -), (i_2, -, k_1), (-, j_2, k_1)\}.$$

Thus, a bull inequality consists of 7 axes and a single variable with coefficient 2, see Fig. 6 for an illustration.

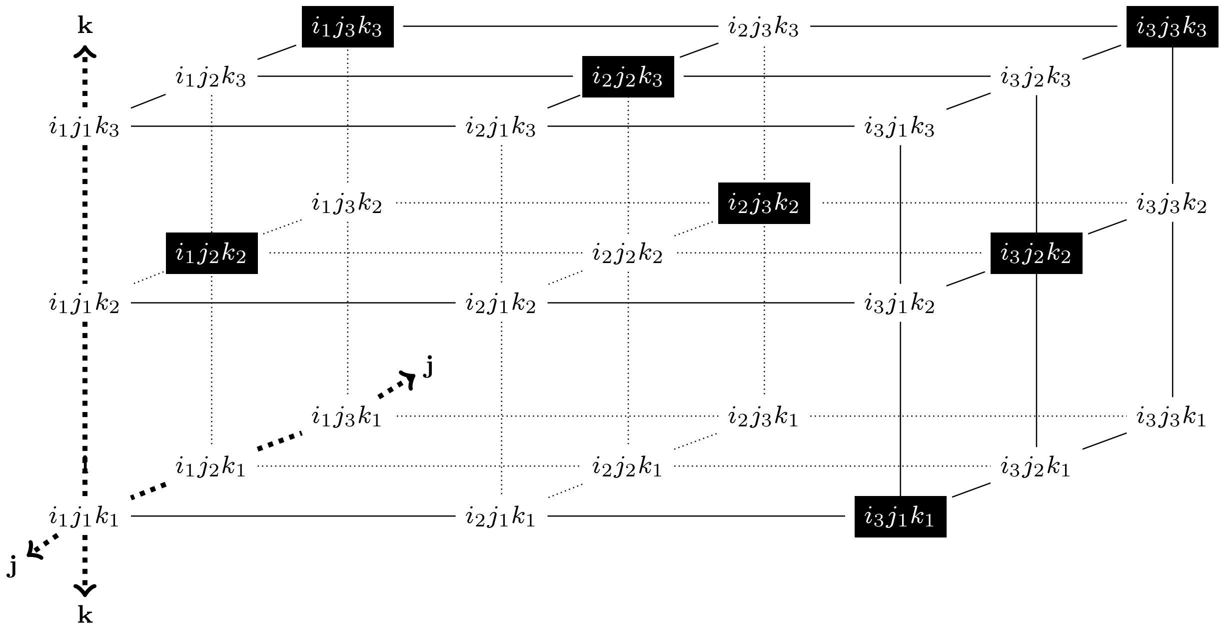

Fig. 7. Geometric illustration of a comb inequality; the two dotted axes, and the seven highlighted cells, correspond to the variables in this inequality.

2.2.4. Comb inequalities

This class of inequalities was also described in Gwan and Qi [13]. Again, it is a class of inequalities with arbitrary right-hand side; here, we restrict our attention to the case where the right hand side equals 2.

Let $i_1, i_2, i_3 \in I, j_1, j_2, j_3 \in J, k_1, k_2, k_3 \in K$ be pairwise distinct indices in R, and let

$$U = \{(i_1, j_2, k_2), (i_1, j_3, k_3), (i_2, j_2, k_3), (i_2, j_3, k_2), (i_3, j_1, k_1), (i_3, j_2, k_2), (i_3, j_3, k_3)\}. \tag{2.14}$$

The following inequalities are valid. For each $(i_1, j_1, k_1) \in V$ and U satisfying (2.14):

$$x(U) + x(i_1, j_1, -) + x(i_1, -, k_1) - x(i_1, j_1, k_1) \leq 2. \tag{2.15}$$

Fact 6 (*[13]*). *Inequalities (2.15) define facets of P_I; these inequalities are called comb inequalities.*

Thus, a comb inequality consists of 2 axes and 7 cells, see Fig. 7 for an illustration.

2.3. Other facet-defining inequalities

Based on odd-cycles present in the column intersection graph G, Euler [10] described a class of facet-defining inequalities. Indeed, an odd cycle in G gives rise to a valid inequality, and, in some circumstances (see [10]), such a valid inequality can be lifted to a facet-defining inequality. Although we refrain from giving a precise description of the resulting inequalities, we note here that the right-hand side of this class of inequalities equals $n - 1$.

As far as we aware, the classes of inequalities that we covered in this section constitute all known facet-defining inequalities of the polytope P_I.

3. Wall inequalities

3.1. A new class of valid inequalities

In this section we present a new class of valid inequalities that we call *wall* inequalities. We will prove in Section 3.2 that these inequalities define facets of P_I, thereby answering a question asked in [13].

Let $i_1, i_2, i_3 \in I, j_1, j_2, j_3 \in J, k_1, k_2 \in K$ be pairwise distinct indices in R. We define the following set of triples:

$$\begin{aligned} B = \{&(i_1, j_1, k_1), (i_1, j_2, k_2), (i_2, j_1, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_1), \\ &(i_3, j_3, -), (i_3, -, k_1), (i_3, -, k_2), (-, j_3, k_1), (-, j_3, k_2)\}. \end{aligned} \tag{3.16}$$

Consider now the following inequalities. For each B satisfying (3.16):

$$x(B) \leq 2. \tag{3.17}$$

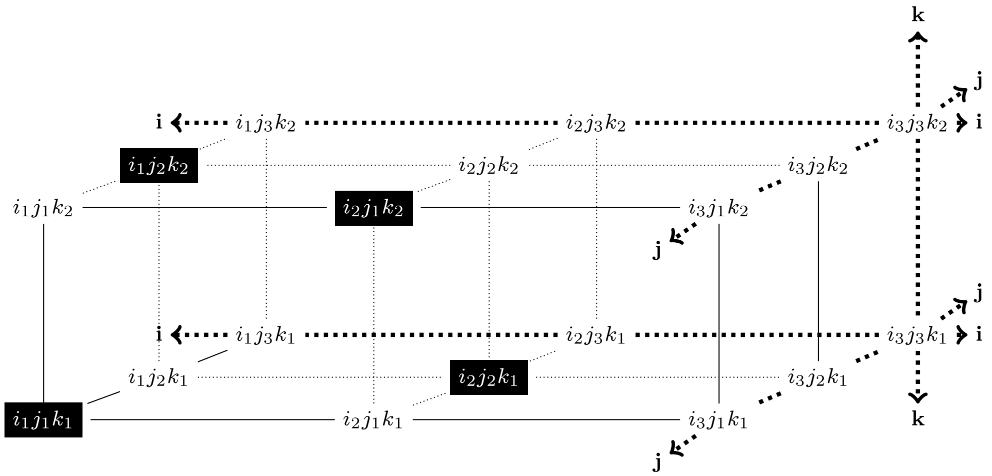

Fig. 8. Geometric illustration of a wall inequality; the five dotted axes, and the four highlighted cells, correspond to the variables in this inequality.

Observe that choosing $i_1, i_2, i_3 \in I, j_1, j_2, j_3 \in J, k_1, k_2 \in K$ completely specifies a wall inequality, and hence there exist at most $O(n^8)$ inequalities in this class. Notice that simultaneously interchanging the roles of any two indices belonging to the four triples leads to the same inequality. For example interchanging the roles of i_1, i_2 and j_1, j_2, or i_1,i_2 and k_1, k_2, or $j_1 j_2$ and k_1, k_2, does not change the inequality; any other interchange would lead to another wall inequality.

These inequalities are valid, as witnessed by the following lemma.

Lemma 7. *Inequalities (3.17) are valid.*

Proof. Inequalities (3.17) can be obtained by adding Eq. (1.1) with $i = i_3$, (1.2) with $j = j_3$ and (1.3) with $k = k_1, k_2$, and by adding a clique inequality of type II: $x(Q((i_2, j_2, k_1), (i_1, j_1, k_2))) \leq 1$. Next, integer rounding, i.e., dividing the resulting inequality by 2 and rounding down all coefficients to the nearest integers, gives a wall inequality. ■

We note that inequalities (3.17) can be written as

$$x(B) = x(Q(i_3, j_3, k_2)) + x(Q((i_1, j_1, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_1))) + x(i_3, -, k_1) + x(-, j_3, k_1) - x(i_3, j_3, k_1), \tag{3.18}$$

where $Q(i_3, j_3, k_2)$ is the set of variables in a clique inequality of type I corresponding to triple (i_3, j_3, k_2) and $Q((i_1, j_1, k_2),$ $(i_2, j_2, k_1))$ is the set of variables in a clique inequality of type II corresponding to triples (i_1, j_1, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_1). Thus, a wall inequality consists of five axes and four cells, see Fig. 8 for an illustration.

We remark the following. Since our polytope P_I is not full-dimensional, there is no unique representation of a facet-defining inequality. Indeed, by adding or subtracting an equality from (1.1)–(1.3), another, equivalent representation of a facet-defining inequality can appear. Hence, it is conceivable that a wall inequality is nothing else but another representation of some already known inequality. That, however, is not the case. For each class of known facet-defining inequalities that we covered in Section 2, we can exhibit a fractional point satisfying equalities (1.1)–(1.3), such that it is not cut away by the known class, but is cut away by a wall inequality.

We now give two fractional solutions; the first one satisfies all lifted 5-hole inequalities and all bull inequalities, and the second one satisfies all $P(2)$ inequalities and all comb inequalities. Both solutions violate a wall inequality. Here is the first solution:

$$x_{222} = x_{213} = x_{123} = x_{112} = \frac{1}{3}; \qquad x_{444} = x_{456} = x_{546} = x_{554} = \frac{1}{3};$$
$$x_{888} = x_{879} = x_{789} = x_{778} = \frac{1}{3}; \qquad x_{248} = x_{482} = x_{824} = \frac{1}{3}; \qquad x_{159} = x_{573} = x_{716} = \frac{1}{3};$$
$$x_{331} = x_{665} = x_{997} = 1 = x_{iii} \quad i = 10, \ldots, n,$$
all other variables equal 0.

We claim that this fractional solution satisfies (1.1)–(1.3), all lifted 5-hole inequalities, as well as all bull inequalities, see Dokka [8] for the precise details. However, there exists a violated wall inequality:

$$x(B) \geq x(Q((2, 2, 2), (1, 1, 3))) + x_{331} \geq \frac{4}{3} + 1 = \frac{7}{3} > 2.$$

Next, consider the following fractional solution. Let $N_1 \equiv \{1, 2, \ldots, 18\}$, and $N_2 \equiv \{19, 20, \ldots, n\}$, and set $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2n}$. Consider now the following fractional solution:

$$x_{iii} = 36\epsilon \quad i \in N_1,$$

$$x_{iii} = 1 - 18\epsilon \quad i \in N_2,$$
$$x_{kii} = x_{iki} = x_{iik} = \epsilon \quad i \in N_1, k \in N_2,$$

with all other x-variables equal 0. Notice that this solution is symmetric with respect to the three indices i, j, k. We claim that this solution satisfies all equalities in (1.1)–(1.3), all $P(2)$ inequalities, as well as all comb inequalities, see Dokka [8]. However, this solution violates a wall inequality, for each $n > 36$:

$$\begin{aligned} x(B) &\geq x(Q(3,3,3)) + x_{222} \\ &= 36\epsilon + (n-18)\epsilon + (n-18)\epsilon + (n-18)\epsilon + 1 - 18\epsilon \\ &= \frac{5}{2} - 36\epsilon > 2. \end{aligned}$$

3.2. *Wall inequalities define facets of P_I*

Here we prove the main theorem.

Theorem 8. *Inequalities (3.17) define facets of P_I.*

Proof. Let us first explain the plan we follow in order to prove that $x(B) \leq 2$ defines a facet of P_I. An inequality defines a facet of P_I when it is satisfied by every $x \in P_I$ and the dimension of the polyhedron $P^B \equiv \{x \in P_I : x(B) = 2\}$ is equal to the dimension of $P_I - 1$ (see [19]). To prove that this is the case we will show that

- an inequality from (3.17) does not define an improper face, and
- adding $x(B) = 2$ to the constraints defining P_I increases the rank of the equality system of P_I by exactly one.

The latter statement means that any equation that is satisfied by all $x \in P^B$, is a linear combination of the equations in the system defining P^B. Since the dimension of the polyhedron P is equal to the number of variables in the system defining P minus rank of the equality system of P, proving the second point above implies $\dim(P^B) = \dim(P_I) - 1$.

To prove that an inequality from (3.17) does not induce an improper face, we need to exhibit a feasible solution with $x(B) \leq 1$. Here is such a feasible solution: $x_{i_3+\ell, j_3+\ell, k_2+\ell} = 1$ for $\ell = 0, \ldots, n-1$ (indices should be read modulo n; the values of the indices i_3, j_3, k_2 follow from the specific wall inequality under consideration).

To show that an inequality from (3.17) defines a facet of P_I i.e., that $\dim(P^B) = \dim(P_I) - 1$, we use the same approach as used in [5] and [13]. Namely, we exhibit scalars $\lambda_i, i \in I, \mu_j, j \in J, \nu_k, k \in K$ and a scalar π such that if $\alpha x = \alpha_0$ for all $x \in P^B$, then the scalars λ_i, μ_j, ν_k, and π satisfy:

$$\alpha_{ijk} = \lambda_i + \mu_j + \nu_k \quad \text{if } (i,j,k) \in V \backslash B, \tag{3.19}$$
$$\alpha_{ijk} = \lambda_i + \mu_j + \nu_k + \pi \quad \text{if } (i,j,k) \in B, \text{ and} \tag{3.20}$$
$$\alpha_0 = \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i + \sum_{j \in J} \mu_j + \sum_{k \in K} \nu_k + 2\pi. \tag{3.21}$$

To prove (3.19) and (3.20), we repeatedly apply the following *interchange procedure*.

1. Consider a solution $x \in P_I$ containing two disjoint triples (i,j,k) and (a,b,c), i.e., we have $x_{ijk} = x_{abc} = 1$.
2. Construct a solution $\bar{x}$ from x by interchanging the first index in the two selected triples (i,j,k) and (a,b,c): $\bar{x}_{ajk} = \bar{x}_{ibc} = 1$. Observe that $\bar{x} \in P_I$.
3. Deduce the value of α_{ijk} using $\alpha x = \alpha \bar{x}$, which now implies $\alpha_{ijk} = \alpha_{ajk} + \alpha_{ibc} - \alpha_{abc}$.

The above procedure describes a *first index* interchange; clearly, a similar procedure exists involving a second and third index interchange. Without of loss of generality let us assume that $i_1 = 1, i_2 = 2, i_3 = 3, j_1 = 1, j_2 = 2, j_3 = 3, k_1 = 1, k_2 = 2$.

We define for all $i \in I, j \in J$ and $k \in K$:

$$\lambda_i = \alpha_{inn} - \alpha_{nnn}, \tag{3.22}$$
$$\mu_j = \alpha_{njn} - \alpha_{nnn}, \quad \text{and} \tag{3.23}$$
$$\nu_k = \alpha_{nnk}. \tag{3.24}$$

Then, in order to prove (3.19), we need to prove for $(i,j,k) \in V \backslash B$

$$\alpha_{ijk} = \lambda_i + \mu_j + \nu_k = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{njn} + \alpha_{nnk} - 2\alpha_{nnn}. \tag{3.25}$$

In the following, when we illustrate a solution $x \in P_I$, we only write those variables in the set B that take positive values.

We first deduce four equations which we will use in proving (3.25) for each $(i,j,k) \notin B$. Consider, for each $i \in I \setminus \{n\}$, a solution $x \in P^B$ such that $x_{nnn} = x_{i32} = 1$. Using a first index interchange, we obtain $\bar{x} \in P^B$ with $\bar{x}_{inn} = \bar{x}_{n32} = 1$. Using

Table 1
Proving (3.19) when $i = n, j \neq n, k \neq n$.

Case	Start sol.	Interchange type	New sol.	Remarks
$j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$				
$j = 1, k \neq 1$	$x_{n1k}, x_{33n}, x_{221}$	3	$\bar{x}_{n1n}, \bar{x}_{33k}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.29)
$j = 1, k = 1$	$x_{n11}, x_{33n}, x_{122}$	3	$\bar{x}_{n1n}, \bar{x}_{331}, \bar{x}_{122}$	(3.29)
$j = 2, k \neq 1$	$x_{n2k}, x_{33n}, x_{111}$	3	$\bar{x}_{n2n}, \bar{x}_{33k}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.29)
$j = 2, k = 1$	$x_{n21}, x_{33n}, x_{212}$	3	$\bar{x}_{n2n}, \bar{x}_{331}, \bar{x}_{212}$	(3.29)
$j = 3, k \notin \{1, 2\}$	$x_{n3k}, x_{3n2}, x_{111}$	2	$\bar{x}_{nnk}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.27)
$j = 3, k \in \{1, 2\}$				$(i, j, k) \in B$
$j \notin \{1, 2, 3\}$				
$k = 1$	$x_{nj1}, x_{33n}, x_{122}$	3	$\bar{x}_{njn}, \bar{x}_{331}, \bar{x}_{122}$	(3.29)
$k \neq 1$	$x_{njk}, x_{33n}, x_{111}$	3	$\bar{x}_{n2n}, \bar{x}_{33k}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.29)

$\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$ we have

$$\alpha_{nnn} + \alpha_{i32} = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{n32}. \tag{3.26}$$

Note that (3.26) is true for every $i \in I$.

Consider, for each $j \in J \setminus \{n\}$, a solution $x \in P^B$ such that $x_{nnn} = x_{3j2} = 1$. Using a second index interchange, we obtain $\bar{x} \in P^B$ with $\bar{x}_{njn} = \bar{x}_{3n2} = 1$. Therefore,

$$\alpha_{3n2} = \alpha_{nnn} + \alpha_{3j2} - \alpha_{njn}. \tag{3.27}$$

Note that this is true for every $j \in J$.

Again, consider for each $j \in J \setminus \{n\}$, a solution $x \in P^B$ such that $x_{nnn} = x_{3j1} = 1$. Using a second index interchange, we obtain $\bar{x} \in P^B$ with $\bar{x}_{njn} = \bar{x}_{3n1} = 1$. Therefore,

$$\alpha_{3n1} = \alpha_{nnn} + \alpha_{3j1} - \alpha_{njn}. \tag{3.28}$$

Note that this is true for every $j \in J$.

Now, consider for each $k \in K \setminus \{n\}$, a solution $x \in P^B$ such that $x_{nnn} = x_{33k} = 1$. Using a third index interchange, we obtain $\bar{x} \in P^B$ with $\bar{x}_{nnk} = \bar{x}_{33n} = 1$. Therefore,

$$\alpha_{33n} = \alpha_{nnn} + \alpha_{33k} - \alpha_{nnk}. \tag{3.29}$$

Observe that (3.29) is true for all $k \in K$.

3.2.1. *Proving (3.19)*

If at least two indices of i, j, k are equal to n then it is easy to see that (3.25) holds, and hence (3.19) follows. Below we consider the cases when at least two indices of i, j, k are not equal to n.

Case 1: when $i = n, j \neq n$ and $k \neq n$

Substituting $i = n$ in (3.25), implies that we need to show the following:

$$\alpha_{njk} = \alpha_{njn} + \alpha_{nnk} - \alpha_{nnn}. \tag{3.30}$$

We consider all possible cases of j and k as follows. We explain in detail the three steps in the interchange procedure mentioned above for the case when $j = 1, k \neq 1$. For other possible values of j and k such that $(n, j, k) \notin B$ we omit the complete details in proving (3.25); instead we give the start solution, the type of index interchange, and the new solution in Table 1.

Let $x \in P^B$ be such that $x_{n1k} = x_{33n} = x_{221} = 1$. Using a third index interchange we obtain $\bar{x} \in P^B$ such that $\bar{x}_{n1n} = \bar{x}_{33k} = \bar{x}_{221} = 1$. By $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$ we have:

$$\alpha_{n1k} + \alpha_{33n} = \alpha_{n1n} + \alpha_{33k}.$$

Substituting the value of α_{33n} from (3.29) we get the required equality:

$$\alpha_{n1k} = \alpha_{nnk} + \alpha_{n1n} - \alpha_{nnn}.$$

In the column 'remarks' of Table 1, we mention the equality used (e.g., (3.29) in the above case) in deducing the expression for α_{ijk}. Notice that when $i = n, j = 3$ and $k \in \{1, 2\}$, $(i, j, k) \in B$, and we need to prove (3.20).

Case 2: when $i \neq n, j = n$ and $k \neq n$

We consider all possible values of i and k such that $(i, n, k) \notin B$ in Table 2. Straight forward calculations prove the corresponding version of (3.25):

$$\alpha_{ink} = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{nnk} - \alpha_{nnn}. \tag{3.31}$$

Table 2
Proving (3.19) when $i \neq ns, j = n, k \neq n$.

Case	Start sol.	Interchange type	New sol.	Remarks
$k \in \{1, 2\}$				
$k = 1, i = 2$	$x_{2n1}, x_{33n}, x_{122}$	3	$\bar{x}_{2nn}, \bar{x}_{331}, \bar{x}_{122}$	(3.29)
$k = 1, i \notin \{2, 3\}$	$x_{in1}, x_{33n}, x_{212}$	3	$\bar{x}_{inn}, \bar{x}_{331}, \bar{x}_{212}$	(3.29)
$k = 2, i = 2$	$x_{2n2}, x_{33n}, x_{111}$	3	$\bar{x}_{2nn}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.29)
$k = 2, i \notin \{2, 3\}$	$x_{in2}, x_{33n}, x_{221}$	3	$\bar{x}_{inn}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.29)
$i = 3$				$(i, j, k) \in B$
$k \notin \{1, 2\}$				
$k \notin \{1, 2\}, i = 1$	$x_{1nk}, x_{n32}, x_{221}$	1	$\bar{x}_{nnk}, \bar{x}_{132}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.26)
$k \notin \{1, 2\}, i \neq 1$	$x_{ink}, x_{n32}, x_{111}$	1	$\bar{x}_{nnk}, \bar{x}_{132}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.26)

Table 3
Proving (3.19) when $i \neq n, j \neq n, k = n$.

Case	Start sol.	Interchange type	New sol.	Remarks
$i \notin \{1, 2, 3\}$				
$i \notin \{1, 2, 3\}, j = 2$	$x_{i2n}, x_{n32}, x_{111}$	1	$\bar{x}_{n2n}, \bar{x}_{i32}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.26)
$i \notin \{1, 2, 3\}, j \neq 2$	$x_{ijn}, x_{n32}, x_{221}$	1	$\bar{x}_{njn}, \bar{x}_{i32}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.26)
$i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$				
$i = 1, j \notin \{2, 3\}$	$x_{1jn}, x_{n32}, x_{221}$	1	$\bar{x}_{njn}, \bar{x}_{132}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.26)
$i = 1, j = 2$	$x_{12n}, x_{3n1}, x_{212}$	2	$\bar{x}_{1nn}, \bar{x}_{321}, \bar{x}_{212}$	(3.28)
$i = 1, j = 3$	$x_{13n}, x_{3n2}, x_{221}$	2	$\bar{x}_{1nn}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.27)
$i = 2, j \notin \{1, 3\}$	$x_{2jn}, x_{n32}, x_{111}$	1	$\bar{x}_{njn}, \bar{x}_{232}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.26)
$i = 2, j = 1$	$x_{21n}, x_{3n1}, x_{122}$	2	$\bar{x}_{2nn}, \bar{x}_{311}, \bar{x}_{122}$	(3.28)
$i = 2, j = 3$	$x_{23n}, x_{3n2}, x_{111}$	2	$\bar{x}_{2nn}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.27)
$i = 3, j \notin \{1, 3\}$	$x_{3jn}, x_{n32}, x_{111}$	1	$\bar{x}_{njn}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{111}$	(3.26)
$i = 3, j = 1$	$x_{31n}, x_{n32}, x_{221}$	1	$\bar{x}_{n1n}, \bar{x}_{332}, \bar{x}_{221}$	(3.26)
$i = 3, j = 3$				$(i, j, k) \in B$

Case 3: when $i \neq n, j \neq n$ and $k = n$
Similar to the above two cases we prove the following version of (3.25)

$$\alpha_{ijn} = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{njn} - \alpha_{nnn} \tag{3.32}$$

for all possible cases of the values of i and j in Table 3.
Case 4: when $i \neq n, j \neq n$ and $k \neq n$
We now prove (3.25) for the case when $i \neq n, j \neq n, k \neq n$. Let $x \in P^B$ such that $x_{nnn} = x_{ijk} = 1$ with $(i, j, k) \in B$. Note that such a solution always exists. We define $\bar{x}$ by doing a first index interchange; we get $\bar{x}_{inn} = \bar{x}_{njk} = 1$. By $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$, we have:

$$\alpha_{nnn} + \alpha_{ijk} = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{njk}. \tag{3.33}$$

Using Eq. (3.30) we get

$$\alpha_{ijk} = \alpha_{inn} + \alpha_{nnk} + \alpha_{njn} - 2 \cdot \alpha_{nnn}. \tag{3.34}$$

This completes the proof of Eq. (3.25), and hence (3.19) is true.

3.2.2. *Proving (3.20)*

For $(i, j, k) \in B$ we define

$$\pi_{ijk} = \alpha_{ijk} - \lambda_i - \mu_j - \nu_k. \tag{3.35}$$

Next, to prove (3.20), we show that all π_{ijk} are equal. To do this, we first prove that $\pi_{221} = \pi_{212} = \pi_{122} = \pi_{111}$ and then derive the rest of the relations from these equalities.

Consider $x \in P^B$ such that $x_u = x_t = x_r = 1$, where $u = (1, 1, 2)$, $t = (2, 2, 1)$, and $r = (3, 3, 3)$. Define $\bar{x}$ from x by a first index interchange with $\bar{u} = (2, 1, 2)$ and $\bar{t} = (1, 2, 1)$. Note that $\bar{u}, t \in B$; $u, \bar{t} \notin B$ and $\bar{x} \in P^B$. Since $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$, we have:

$$\alpha_u + \alpha_t = \alpha_{\bar{u}} + \alpha_{\bar{t}}. \tag{3.36}$$

Substituting the values of α_u and $\alpha_{\bar{t}}$ from Eq. (3.19) and the values of α_t and $\alpha_{\bar{u}}$ from Eq. (3.35) we obtain:

$$\pi_t + \lambda_2 + \mu_2 + \nu_1 + \lambda_1 + \mu_1 + \nu_2 = \pi_{\bar{u}} + \lambda_2 + \mu_1 + \nu_2 + \lambda_1 + \mu_2 + \nu_1, \tag{3.37}$$

or $\pi_{221} = \pi_{212}$.

Table 4
Implications.

Case	Start sol. x_u, x_t, x_r	Type of interchange	Implication	Remarks
$j \neq 3, k \notin \{1, 2\}$	$x_{63k}, x_{3j1}, x_{122}$	1	$\pi_{33k} = \pi_{3j1}$	$\bar{u}, t \in B$, $u, \bar{t} \notin B$
$i \notin \{1, 3\}, k \notin \{1, 2\}$	$x_{32k}, x_{i32}, x_{111}$	2	$\pi_{i32} = \pi_{33k}$	$\bar{u}, t \in B$, $u, \bar{t} \notin B$
$i \notin \{1, 3\}, j \notin \{1, 3\}$	$x_{i37}, x_{3j2}, x_{111}$	3	$\pi_{3j2} = \pi_{i32}$	$\bar{u}, t \in B$, $u, \bar{t} \notin B$
	$x_{443}, x_{331}, x_{122}$	3	$\pi_{331} = \pi_{333}$	$t, \bar{t} \in B$, $u, \bar{u} \notin B$
	$x_{113}, x_{231}, x_{372}$	3	$\pi_{231} = \pi_{111}$	$\bar{u}, t \in B$, $u, \bar{t} \notin B$
	$x_{443}, x_{332}, x_{221}$	1	$\pi_{332} = \pi_{432}$	$t, \bar{t} \in B$, $u, \bar{u} \notin B$
	$x_{213}, x_{132}, x_{341}$	3	$\pi_{132} = \pi_{212}$	$\bar{u}, t \in B$, $u, \bar{t} \notin B$
	$x_{443}, x_{312}, x_{221}$	2	$\pi_{312} = \pi_{342}$	$t, \bar{t} \in B$, $u, \bar{u} \notin B$

Again, consider $x \in P^B$ such that $x_u = x_t = x_r = 1$, where $u = (1, 1, 2)$, $t = (2, 2, 1)$, and $r = (3, 3, 3)$. A third index interchange gives $\bar{u} = (1, 1, 1)$ and $\bar{t} = (2, 2, 2)$. Using $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$, we have:

$$\pi_t + \lambda_1 + \mu_1 + \nu_2 + \lambda_2 + \mu_2 + \nu_1 = \pi_{\bar{u}} + \lambda_1 + \mu_1 + \nu_1 + \lambda_2 + \mu_2 + \nu_2,$$

which implies $\pi_{221} = \pi_{111}$.

Similarly, consider $x \in P^B$ such that $x_u = x_t = x_r = 1$, where $u = (5, 1, 1)$, $t = (1, 2, 2)$, and $r = (3, 3, 3)$. Define $\bar{x}$ from x by a first index interchange with $\bar{u} = (1, 1, 1)$ and $\bar{t} = (5, 2, 2)$. Notice that $\bar{u}, t \in B$; $u, \bar{t} \notin B$ and $\bar{x} \in P^B$. Again by $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$, we have:

$$\pi_t + \lambda_5 + \mu_1 + \nu_1 + \lambda_1 + \mu_2 + \nu_2 = \pi_{\bar{u}} + \lambda_1 + \mu_1 + \nu_1 + \lambda_5 + \mu_2 + \nu_2,$$

or $\pi_t = \pi_{\bar{u}}$ i.e., $\pi_{122} = \pi_{111}$.

Thus, at this point we have shown that:

$$\zeta \equiv \pi_{221} = \pi_{111} = \pi_{122} = \pi_{212}.$$

It still remains to show that for all i, j, k, the following is true:

$$\pi_{3j1} = \pi_{i31} = \pi_{i32} = \pi_{33k} = \pi_{3j2} = \zeta.$$

We prove this by exhibiting pairs of feasible solutions in the following way. Consider $x \in P^B$ such that $x_u = x_t = x_r = 1$, where $u = (2, 2, 3)$, $t = (i, 3, 1)$, and $r = (3, 1, 2)$ with $i \notin \{2, 3\}$. Construct $\bar{x}$ from x by a third index interchange yielding $\bar{u} = (2, 2, 1)$ and $\bar{t} = (i, 3, 3)$. Note that $\bar{u}, t \in B$; $u, \bar{t} \notin B$ and $\bar{x} \in P^B$. Again by $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$, we have:

$$\pi_t + \lambda_2 + \mu_2 + \nu_3 + \lambda_i + \mu_3 + \nu_1 = \pi_{\bar{u}} + \lambda_2 + \mu_2 + \nu_1 + \lambda_i + \mu_3 + \nu_3,$$

or $\pi_t = \pi_{\bar{u}}$ i.e.,

$$\pi_{i31} = \pi_{221} = \zeta \quad \text{for } i \notin \{2, 3\}. \tag{3.38}$$

Next, consider $x \in P^B$ such that $x_u = x_t = x_r = 1$, such that $u = (3, j, k)$, $t = (1, 1, 2)$, and $r = (2, 3, 3)$, with $j \notin \{3\}$ and $k \notin \{1, 2\}$, a third index interchange will give $\bar{u} = (3, j, 1)$ and $\bar{t} = (1, 1, k)$. Again using $\alpha x = \alpha\bar{x}$ implies

$$\pi_{3j1} = \pi_{111} = \zeta \quad \text{for } j \neq 3. \tag{3.39}$$

For simplicity, we avoid working out all details in the rest of the cases. Instead, we refer to Table 4 which lists the start solution, the type of interchange, and the implication.

The results from Table 4, together with (3.38) and (3.39), imply the following:

$$\pi_{3j1} = \pi_{33k} = \pi_{i32} = \pi_{3j2} = \pi_{111} = \pi_{122} = \pi_{221} = \pi_{212} = \pi_{i31} \quad \text{for each } i, j, k.$$

3.2.3. Proving (3.21)

Let $\tilde{x}$ be defined by

$$\tilde{x}_{ijk} = 1, \quad \text{if } i = j = k$$
$$= 0, \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

Then $\tilde{x} \in P^B$, hence $\alpha\tilde{x} = \alpha_0$. Substituting the values of α from (3.19), (3.20) will give us (3.21). ■

4. Separation

In this section we address the separation problem corresponding to the wall inequalities. Although the number of distinct wall inequalities is polynomial in n ($O(n^8)$), and hence simple enumeration of these inequalities already runs in polynomial time, the structure present in these inequalities allows for faster separation. More specifically, we give an $O(n^4)$ separation algorithm to decide whether a given $x \in P$ that satisfies the clique inequalities of type I and type II, violates a wall inequality. Note that the separation of clique inequalities of type I and type II can be done in linear time. Notice that since the number of variables is $O(n^3)$, the resulting complexity is less than quadratic; we refer to Dokka [8] for a more in-depth discussion.

For convenience, let us define the concept of a *large* triple, and a *large* axis. These concepts are defined with respect to a given (fractional) solution $x \in P$. We call a triple $c \in V$ *large* if $x_c > \frac{1}{7}$. Similarly, we call an axis $(i, j, -)$ large (respectively $(i, -, k)$, $(-, j, k)$) when $x(i, j, -) > \frac{1}{7}$ (respectively when $x(i, -, k) > \frac{1}{7}$, $x(-, j, k) > \frac{1}{7}$). We assume the following sets of large triples are pre-computed in a preprocessing step:

$$LT(i) \equiv \{(j, k) \in J \times K : (i, j, k) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LT(j) \equiv \{(i, k) \in I \times K : (i, j, k) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LT(k) \equiv \{(i, j) \in I \times J : (i, j, k) \text{ is large}\}.$$

Further, we will use LT to denote the set of all large triples, i.e.,

$$LT \equiv \{(i, j, k) \in I \times J \times K : (i, j, k) \text{ is large}\}.$$

Also, the following sets of large axes are pre-computed:

$$LAJ(i) \equiv \{j \in J : (i, j, -) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LAK(i) \equiv \{k \in K : (i, -, k) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LAI(j) \equiv \{i \in I : (i, j, -) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LAK(j) \equiv \{k \in K : (-, j, k) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LAI(k) \equiv \{i \in I : (i, -, k) \text{ is large}\},$$
$$LAJ(k) \equiv \{j \in J : (-, j, k) \text{ is large}\}.$$

Notice that all these sets can be computed in $O(n^3)$ time. Indeed, inspecting the value of each x_c, $c \in V$, gives us the sets LT directly, and also allows us to identify the axes that are large, from which we find the sets LAI, LAJ, and LAK. Large triples (axes) play a vital role in our separation algorithm, because there a constant number of large triples and large axes that contain r for each fixed $r \in R$. We record the following straightforward observations in a lemma.

Lemma 9. *Given is some $x \in P$. The following statements are true:*

(i) *For each $i \in I$ ($j \in J$, $k \in K$): $|LT(i)| \le 6$ ($|LT(j)| \le 6$, $|LT(j)| \le 6$).*
(ii) *For each $i \in I$ ($j \in J$, $k \in K$): $|LAJ(i)| \le 6$, and $|LAK(i)| \le 6$ ($|LAI(j)| \le 6$, $|LAK(j)| \le 6$, $|LAI(k)| \le 6$, $|LAJ(k)| \le 6$).*
(iii) *$|LT| \le 7n$, i.e. the number of large triples in x equals at most $7n$.*

Proof. We argue by contradiction. Suppose the first statement is not true, i.e., there exist at least 7 pairs $(j, k) \in J \times K$ with $x(i, j, k) > \frac{1}{7}$. This implies:

$$\sum_{j \in J} \sum_{k \in K} x(i, j, k) > 7 \times \frac{1}{7} = 1,$$

which contradicts $x \in P$. All other inequalities follow in a similar way. ■

In the following subsections we will prove the following theorem:

Theorem 10. *The separation problem for wall inequalities (3.16) can be solved in $O(n^4)$ time.*

Recall that B stands for the set of triples present in some wall inequality, see (3.16). We use $B_1 \subset B$ to denote four of these triples, i.e., we set

$$B_1 \equiv \{(i_1, j_1, k_1), (i_1, j_2, k_2), (i_2, j_1, k_2), (i_2, j_2, k_1)\}.$$

As remarked in Section 3, wall inequalities (3.16) are *symmetric* in the following sense: the values of indices i_1 (j_1), k_1 can be interchanged with i_2 (j_2), k_2 respectively without changing the inequality. We use this symmetry later on. Theorem 10 relies on the following lemma.

Lemma 11. *Any violated wall inequality falls into at least one of the following three cases:*

Case 1: *No triple in B_1 is large.*
Case 2: *A triple from B_1, as well as the axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$, are large.*
Case 3: *A triple from B_1 with a third index k from $\{k_1, k_2\}$, as well as an axis with third index k' from $\{k_1, k_2\}$, $k' \neq k$, are large.*

Proof. Observe that a violated wall inequality must contain a large axis. We argue by contradiction. Suppose that none of the first two cases apply. Then, there exists a large triple in B_1 (since we are not in Case 1), and the axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$ is not large (since we are not in Case 2). If, in addition, we are not in Case 3, all large triples, and large axes share a third index, say k_1. However, since $x \in P$, we have $x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_1)] + x(i_1, j_1, k_1) + x(i_2, j_2, k_1) \leq 1$. Thus, the sum of the remaining variables in the wall inequality, being $x[(i_3, j_3, -) \cup (i_3, -, k_2) \cup (-, j_3, k_2)] + x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2)$ must exceed 1; this is impossible since each of these terms is not large: a contradiction. ∎

We will now show how to detect a violated wall inequality in each of the three cases given in Lemma 11. Taken together, these algorithms constitute a separation algorithm for the wall inequalities; in each of these algorithms a vector x satisfying (1.1)–(1.3) is input.

4.1. Case 1: when no triple in B_1 is large

As mentioned before, we assume that the given (fractional) solution $x \in P$ satisfies the clique inequalities of type I and type II. We now give some properties of a violated wall inequality when no triple in B_1 is large.

Lemma 12. *For a violated wall inequality with no large triple in B_1, the following statements are true:*

(i) *at least one of the axes $(-, j_3, k_1)$ and $(-, j_3, k_2)$ is large,*
(ii) *at least one of the axes $(i_3, -, k_1)$ and $(i_3, -, k_2)$ is large,*
(iii) *at least one of the axes $(i_3, -, k_1)$ and $(-, j_3, k_1)$ is large,*
(iv) *at least one of the axes $(i_3, -, k_2)$ and $(-, j_3, k_2)$ is large.*

Proof. (i) Since $x \in P$, we know that

$$x[(i_3, j_3, -) \cup (i_3, -, k_1) \cup (i_3, -, k_2)] \leq 1.$$

Together with $x(B_1) \leq \frac{4}{7}$, it follows that, for a wall inequality to be violated, at least one of the axes $(-, j_3, k_1)$, $(-, j_3, k_2)$ must be large.

(ii) A similar argument as above using $x[(i_3, j_3, -) \cup (-, j_3, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_2)] \leq 1$ applies.

(iii) Since x satisfies the clique inequalities of type I, and in particular: $x(Q(i_3, j_3, k_2)) \leq 1$, statement (iii) follows from $x(B_1) \leq \frac{4}{7}$.

(iv) A similar argument as above using $x(Q(i_3, j_3, k_1)) \leq 1$ applies. ∎

Here is the algorithm for Case 1.

Algorithm 1 Separation algorithm for Wall Facets - Case 1

{No large triple in B_1}
0. $S := \emptyset$;
1. for each $k_1, k_2 \in K \times K$, $i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$, $j_3 \in LAJ(k_2)$, and $(i_1, j_1) \in I \times J$:
 if (4.40) is satisfied then $S := S \cup \{(i_1, j_1)\}$;
2. for each $k_1, k_2 \in K \times K$, $i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$, $j_3 \in LAJ(k_2)$, and $(i_1, j_1) \in S$:
 if $x(B) > 2$ then output $x(B) \leq 2$ as violated wall inequality.

Correctness of Algorithm 1 Consider a violated wall inequality. It follows from Lemma 12, and from symmetry, that it is enough to consider the case when $(i_3, -, k_1)$ and $(-, j_3, k_2)$ are large. We now assume that

$$x(i_1, j_1, k_1) = \max\{x(i_1, j_1, k_1), x(i_1, j_2, k_2), x(i_2, j_1, k_2), x(i_2, j_2, k_1)\};$$

we come back to this assumption later. Algorithm 1 starts by enumerating over $K \times K$ to consider all pairs k_1 and k_2. For each fixed k_1 and k_2, each $i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$ and $j_3 \in LAJ(k_2)$ are considered to identify a violated inequality. Clearly, since $(i_3, -, k_1)$ and $(-, j_3, k_2)$ are large, it follows that $i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$ and $j_3 \in LAJ(k_2)$; no other i_3, j_3 need to be considered.

In addition, we claim that for a violated wall inequality to exist, it must be true that there exist $i_1, j_1 \in I \times J$ such that:

$$x(i_1, j_1, k_1) > \frac{1 - x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_1)]}{4}. \tag{4.40}$$

Indeed, suppose this were not true, then

$$x(i_1, j_1, k_1) \leq \frac{1 - x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_1)]}{4},$$

which is equivalent with:

$$4x(i_1, j_1, k_1) \leq 1 - x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_1)],$$

which by our earlier assumption, implies:

$$x(i_1, j_1, k_1) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2) + x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_2, j_2, k_1) + x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_1)] \leq 1. \tag{4.41}$$

However, since clique inequalities of type I are satisfied, we have:

$$x[(i_3, j_3, -) \cup (i_3, -, k_2) \cup (-, j_3, k_2)] \leq 1. \tag{4.42}$$

Inequalities (4.41) and (4.42) would imply that no violated wall inequality exists, and hence it is true that for a violated wall inequality to exist, (4.40) must hold. Thus, we can use (4.40) to build a list of all $(i_1, j_1) \in I \times J$. Then the inequality is checked for each $(i_2, j_2) \in I \times J$ for fixed i_3, j_3, k_2, k_1 and for each $(i_1, j_1) \in S$. Hence, in this case of no large triple in B_1, a violated wall inequality is found if one exists. We point out that the assumption $x(i_1, j_1, k_1) = \max\{x(i_1, j_1, k_1), x(i_1, j_2, k_2), x(i_2, j_1, k_2), x(i_2, j_2, k_1)\}$ is indeed without loss of generality: one of these four elements has the largest weight among them, and the arguments used above go through for each choice of maximum-weight element.

Complexity of Algorithm 1 The first 'for' loop builds the set S. The complexity of this loop is $O(n^4)$, since, by Lemma 9, the sets LAI and LAJ contain at most 6 elements. Observe that the cardinality of the set S is at most 3. To see this, suppose there exist 4 pairs (i_1^h, j_1^h), $h = 1, \ldots, 4$, satisfying (4.40). This implies:

$$\sum_{h=1}^{4} x(i_1^h, j_1^h, k_1) + x(-, j_3, k_1) \cup (i_3, -, k_1) > 1,$$

which contradicts $x \in P$. Thus, the cardinality of the set S is at most 3. Therefore, the last 'for' loop, which detects a violated wall inequality if one exists, runs in $O(n^2)$; this gives a total complexity of Algorithm 1 of $O(n^4)$.

4.2. Case 2: A triple from B_1, as well as the axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$, are large

In this case, the algorithm looks for a violated inequality when there is a large triple in B_1, and when the axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$ is large. Without loss of generality we assume that the large triple is (i_1, j_2, k_2). As in case 1, we assume that the given solution $x \in P$ satisfies the clique inequalities of type I and II. The algorithm to identify a violated wall inequality in this case is given in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 Separation algorithm for Wall Facets - case 2

{triple (i_1, j_2, k_2) and axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$ are large}
0. $S := \emptyset$;
1. for each $i_3 \in I, j_3 \in LAJ(i_3), k_1 \in K$:
   if (4.45) is satisfied then $S := S \cup \{k_1\}$;
2. for each $i_3 \in I, j_3 \in LAJ(i_3), k_1 \in S, k_2 \in K, (i_2, j_1) \in I \times J, (i_1, j_2) \in LT(k_2)$:
   if $x(B) > 2$ then output $x(B) \leq 2$ as violated wall inequality.

Correctness of Algorithm 2 Algorithm 2 starts by choosing a candidate for i_3 in I. Then the set $LAJ(i_3)$ is enumerated for j_3 making use of the fact that $(i_3, j_3, -)$ is large. Since $x \in P$ satisfies all clique inequalities of type II, it follows that

$$x[(i_3, j_3, -) \cup x(i_3, -, k_1) \cup x(i_3, -, k_2) \cup x(-, j_3, k_1) \cup x(-, j_3, k_2)] > 1, \tag{4.43}$$

for a wall inequality to be violated.

Let us assume that the following is true:

$$x(i_3, -, k_1) \geq \max\{x(i_3, -, k_2), x(-, j_3, k_1), x(-, j_3, k_2)\}. \tag{4.44}$$

Then it follows that a wall inequality can only be violated when

$$x(i_3, -, k_1) > \frac{1 - x(i_3, j_3, -)}{4}. \tag{4.45}$$

Indeed, if this were not true then we have:

$$x(i_3, -, k_1) \leq \frac{1 - x(i_3, j_3, -)}{4},$$

which is equivalent with:

$$4x(i_3, -, k_1) \leq 1 - x(i_3, j_3, -),$$

leading to (using (4.44)):

$$x[(i_3, -, k_1) \cup (i_3, -, k_2) \cup (-, j_3, k_1) \cup (-, j_3, k_2)] \leq 1 - x(i_3, j_3, -),$$

contradicting (4.43). Now, Algorithm 2 first enumerates over all $i_3 \in I, j_3 \in LAJ(i_3)$, and $k_1 \in K$ to build a list S of all k_1 satisfying (4.45). Then, again for each $i_3 \in I, j_3 \in LAJ(i_3)$, and for each choice of $k_1 \in S$, the algorithm enumerates over all $k_2 \in K, i_2 \in I, j_1 \in J$, and $(i_1, j_2) \in LT(k_2)$, the algorithm checks the inequality. Since we assumed the triple (i_1, j_2, k_2) to be large, it is enough to consider the (i_2, j_1) pairs in $LT(k_2)$ to identify a violated wall inequality in this case. Notice that assumption (4.44) is indeed without loss of generality: one of the four axes in (4.44) has the largest weight among them, and straightforward modifications of (4.45) can then be used.

Complexity of Algorithm 2 The first 'for' loop builds the set S, and runs in $O(n^2)$. Notice that the cardinality of S is at most 3. Indeed, suppose this were not true, then we have $k_1^h, h = 1, 2, 3, 4$, each satisfying (4.45) for a fixed i_3, implying

$$x(i_3, j_3, -) + \sum_{h=1}^{4} x(i_3, -, k_1^h) > 1,$$

which is impossible, since $x \in P$. Notice that this argument applies for each possible axis in (4.44) having the largest weight. The second 'for' loop runs in $O(n^4)$, since the sets $LAJ(i_3)$ and $LT(k_2)$ contain $O(1)$ elements. Hence the overall complexity is $O(n^4)$.

4.3. Case 3: A triple from B_1, as well as an axis with a different third index, are large

In this case, the algorithm looks for a violated inequality when there is a large triple in B_1, and when an axis with a different third index is large. Without loss of generality we assume that the large triple is (i_1, j_2, k_2). As before, we assume that the given solution $x \in P$ satisfies the clique inequalities of type I and II.

It follows that either axis $(i_3, -, k_1)$ or axis $(-, j_3, k_1)$ is large. Symmetry implies that we can assume the larger axis to be $(i_3, -, k_1)$. Further, we need to distinguish three subcases depending upon which of the remaining four axes has the largest weight.

Subcase A: $\max\{x(i_3, -, k_2), x(-, j_3, k_2)\} \geq \max\{x(i_3, j_3, -), x(-, j_3, k_1)\}$,
Subcase B: $x(i_3, j_3, -) \geq \max\{x(i_3, -, k_2), x(-, j_3, k_1), x(-, j_3, k_2)\}$,
Subcase C: $x(-, j_3, k_1) \geq \max\{x(i_3, j_3, -), x(i_3, -, k_2), x(-, j_3, k_2)\}$.

The separation in each of these cases is given in Algorithms 3–5. The reasoning and arguments required to prove the correctness of Algorithms 3–5 are very similar. Therefore, for the sake of conciseness we only present a detailed proof of correctness and complexity of Algorithm 3 and omit the proofs of Algorithm 4 and Algorithm 5. For detailed proofs of these algorithms, see [9].

We assume that one of the two axes containing third index k_2 is heaviest; let us say axis $(-, j_3, k_2)$ is heaviest. The algorithm to identify a violated wall inequality in this case is given in Algorithm 3.

Algorithm 3 Separation algorithm for Wall Facets - subcase A

{triple (i_1, j_2, k_2) and axis $(i_3, -, k_1)$ are large; an axis containing as third index k_2 is heaviest}
0. $S := \emptyset$;
1. for each $(i_1, j_2, k_2) \in LT, (i_2, j_1) \in I \times J, j_3 \in J$:
 if (4.46) is satisfied then $S := S \cup \{j_3\}$;
2. for each $(i_1, j_2, k_2) \in LT, (i_2, j_1) \in I \times J, j_3 \in S, k_1 \in K, i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$:
 if $x(B) > 2$ then output $x(B) \leq 2$ as violated wall inequality.

Algorithm 4 Separation algorithm for Wall Facets - subcase B

{triple (i_1, j_2, k_2) and axis $(i_3, -, k_1)$ are large; axis $(i_3, j_3, -)$ is heaviest}
0. $S := \emptyset$;
1. for each $(k_1, k_2) \in K \times K, i_3 \in LAI(k_1), j_3 \in J$:
 if $(x(i_3, j_3, -) > \frac{1-[x(i_3,-,k_2) \cup x(i_3,-,k_1)]}{3})$ is satisfied then $S := S \cup \{j_3\}$;
2. for each $(k_1, k_2) \in K \times K, i_3 \in LAI(k_1), j_3 \in S, (i_2, j_1) \in I \times J, (i_1, j_2) \in LT(k_2)$:
 if $x(B) > 2$ then output $x(B) \leq 2$ as violated wall inequality.

Algorithm 5 Separation algorithm for Wall Facets - subcase C

{triple (i_1, j_2, k_2) and axis $(i_3, -, k_1)$ are large; axis $(-, j_3, k_1)$ is heaviest}
0. $S := \emptyset$;
1. for each $k_1 \in K, i_3 \in LAI(k_1), j_3 \in J$:
 if $(x(-, j_3, k_1) > \frac{1-x(i_3,-,k_1)}{4})$ is satisfied then $S := S \cup \{j_3\}$;
2. for each $k_1 \in K, i_3 \in LAI(k_1), j_3 \in S, (i_2, j_1, k_2) \in V, (i_1, j_2) \in LT(k_2)$:
 if $x(B) > 2$ then output $x(B) \leq 2$ as violated wall inequality.

Correctness and Complexity of Algorithm 3 Algorithm 3 starts by considering each possible $(i_1, j_2, k_2) \in LT$. Then, it enumerates over all pairs $i_2, j_1 \in I \times J$, and next for each $j_3 \in J$. Algorithm 3 then makes a list S of j_3's such that

$$x(-, j_3, k_2) > \frac{1 - [x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2)]}{3}. \tag{4.46}$$

Indeed, notice that otherwise no violated wall inequality exists: using

$$x(-, j_3, k_2) \leq \frac{1 - [x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2)]}{3},$$

we can arrive at:

$$x(i_3, j_3, -) + x(i_3, -, k_2) + x(-, j_3, k_2) + x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2) \le 1,$$

which, since $x \in P$, implies no violated wall inequality exists.

Let us now argue that the number of such j_3's is at most 2. Indeed, suppose this is not the case and let there be j_3^1, j_3^2, j_3^3 which satisfy (4.46). We have:

$$\sum_{h=1}^{3}(-, j_3^h, k_2) + x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2) > 1 - [x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2)] + x(i_2, j_1, k_2) + x(i_1, j_2, k_2) = 1.$$

This is a contradiction and hence there are at most 2 j_3's. For a fixed i_2, j_1, i_1, j_2, k_2 and for each $j_3 \in S$ the inequality is checked for all $k_1 \in K$ and $i_3 \in LAI(k_1)$. Again this is enough as $(i_3, -, k_1)$ is large.

With respect to complexity: the first 'for' loop runs in $O(n^4)$ (since, by Lemma 9, we have $O(n)$ large triples), and the second 'for' loop also runs in $O(n^4)$ times since both S and $LAI(k_1)$ contain a constant number of elements. Thus, the total complexity is $O(n^4)$.

5. Computational experiments

Here, we report on experiments that shed light on the computational relevance of the wall inequalities. Clearly, from a practical point of view, the ability to cut away fractional solutions determines to a large extent the success of a cutting-plane algorithm solving instances of 3DA, and the usefulness of the corresponding set of inequalities. We implemented a separation algorithm for the wall inequalities presented in Section 4. This algorithm has been coded in C++ using Visual Studio C++ 2010 and ILOG concert technology; all the experiments are run on a Dell Latitude E6400 personal computer with Intel core 2 Duo processor with 2.8 GHz clock speed and 1.59 GB RAM, equipped with Windows XP. CPLEX 12.4 was used for solving the linear programs.

5.1. Instances

We focus on a single class of instances, namely those that can be found in [5]; these instances are available at http://mauricio.resende.info/data/index.html. The cost-coefficients w_{ijk} in these instances are generated uniformly in the interval [0, 100]. We acknowledge that other classes of instances exist, however, preliminary experiments showed that such instances very often have a value of the linear programming relaxation equal to the integer optimum. This property makes such classes of instances less suited as a testbed for analyzing the practical strength of the wall inequalities. There are 45 instances in this class, and results for these instances are given in Tables 5–6: a row corresponds to a single instance. Further, Tables 5–6 contains 9 columns; the first column gives the name of the instance (notice that the middle number in this name refers to n), the second column contains the value of the linear programming relaxation (the LP-value), the third column gives the value that results from separating over the clique inequalities of type 1 and type 2, the fourth column gives the value that results from separating over the wall inequalities, the fifth column shows the value after separating over both the clique inequalities and the wall inequalities, the sixth column gives the value of the integer optimum (OPT), and the last three columns give the percentages of the gap closed after adding only the clique inequalities (column 7), only the wall inequalities (column 8), and the clique inequalities and the wall inequalities (column 9). All values are rounded up to four decimals.

5.2. Results

When comparing the LP-values in the second column with the entries in the fourth column (that result from separating over the wall inequalities) in Tables 5–6, we see that the LP-value almost always improves by adding violated wall inequalities. Especially for the smaller instances, a sizable part of the gap between the LP-value and OPT is closed by using wall inequalities. More precise, when averaged over the instances, more than 20% of the gap between the LP-value and OPT is closed by using only wall inequalities (see Column 8). It is also true that wall inequalities alone do not suffice to find an integral solution. In fact, it happens only twice (out of 45 instances) that a fractional LP-value becomes integral after adding both the clique and the wall inequalities. Further, one may wonder to what extent wall inequalities improve the LP-values when clique inequalities of type 1 and type 2 have already been separated. i.e., when the (fractional) x satisfies the clique inequalities. This question can be answered by considering the entries in the third column, and compare them to the entries in the fifth column of Tables 5–6: this comparison shows that even when a fractional solution x satisfies all clique inequalities, the wall inequalities still have an effect, and are able to further improve the lower bound. More precisely, on average the clique inequalities close about 15% of the gap, and when using in addition wall inequalities, an additional 8% of the original gap between OPT and LP-value is closed.

Since our goal here is to see whether wall inequalities have practical relevance, we do not report running times, and we confine ourselves to the following general remarks. The running times of the separation algorithm for both the clique

Table 5
The effect of wall inequalities.

Instance	LP	LP+C1 +C2	LP+WI	LP+C1+C2+WI	OPT	% gap closed by WI (alone)	% gap closed by C1+C2	% gap closed by C1+C2 +WI
bs-10–1	23.6	24	25	25	25	100.00%	28.57%	100.00%
bs-10–2	9.93	10.25	10.33	10.4	11	37.50%	29.69%	43.75%
bs-10–3	18.6	19.5	19.92	19.92	21	54.86%	37.50%	54.86%
bs-10–4	16.67	18	18.27	18.70	21	37.03%	30.77%	46.98%
bs-10–5	17	17	17	17	17	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-12–1	16.87	17	17	17	17	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
bs-12–2	18.25	18.65	19.16	19.18	22	24.21%	10.73%	24.79%
bs-12–3	11	11	11	11	11	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-12–4	12.67	12.67	13.26	13.26	14	44.36%	0.00%	44.74%
bs-12–5	12.6	13.52	13.83	13.85	14	87.65%	66.07%	89.55%
bs-14–1	7.35	7.44	7.68	7.70	9	19.93%	5.14%	20.89%
bs-14–2	4.67	5	5.12	5.14	9	10.34%	7.57%	10.87%
bs-14–3	12	12.34	12.6	12.6	13	60.00%	34.21%	60.00%
bs-14–4	6.62	7.72	7.90	7.95	10	38.12%	32.65%	39.55%
bs-14–5	7.5	8.43	8.36	8.46	9	57.73%	62.22%	64.10%
bs-16–1	7.36	7.54	7.90	7.92	11	15.00%	5.00%	15.39%
bs-16–2	4	4	4.25	4.25	7	8.33%	0.00%	8.33%
bs-16–3	9.89	10.17	10.20	10.21	12	14.76%	13.16%	15.08%
bs-16–4	8.93	9.70	9.66	9.94	11	35.55%	37.13%	48.77%
bs-16–5	6.88	7.18	7.57	7.6	9	32.50%	13.90%	33.68%
bs-18–1	3.70	4.03	3.94	4.04	6	10.38%	14.16%	14.72%
bs-18–2	3.58	4	4	4.1	5	29.29%	29.29%	36.36%
bs-18–3	4.22	4.25	4.69	4.69	7	16.98%	1.06%	16.98%
bs-18–4	6.02	6.02	6.19	6.19	8	8.86%	0.00%	8.86%
bs-18–5	3.28	3.66	3.73	3.75	6	16.45%	13.92%	17.22%

Table 6
The effect of wall inequalities.

Instance	LP	LP+C1 +C2	LP +WI	LP+C1 +C2+WI	OPT	% gap closed by WI (alone)	% gap closed by C1+C2	% gap closed by C1+C2 +WI
bs-20–1	2.17	2.47	2.62	2.65	5	16.01%	10.68%	17.07%
bs-20–2	2.96	3	3.13	3.13	5	8.64%	1.77%	8.64%
bs-20–3	1.55	1.67	1.71	1.72	3	11.22%	8.26%	11.79%
bs-20–4	4.55	4.83	4.82	4.83	7	11.17%	11.69%	11.71%
bs-20–5	1.73	1.80	1.87	1.88	4	6.16%	3.06%	6.63%
bs-22–1	3	3.07	3.17	3.17	5	8.52%	3.88%	8.52%
bs-22–2	1.86	1.86	1.88	1.89	3	1.18%	0.01%	1.92%
bs-22–3	2.55	2.72	2.78	2.78	5	9.21%	6.98%	9.21%
bs-22–4	2.08	2.51	2.73	2.75	5	22.15%	14.65%	22.99%
bs-22–5	1.06	1.08	1.11	1.12	2	5.79%	1.85%	6.14%
bs-24–1	0.51	0.70	0.79	0.82	3	11.21%	7.42%	12.45%
bs-24–2	0	0	0	0	2	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-24–3	0	0	0.04	0.04	1	4.04%	0.00%	4.04%
bs-24–4	1	1	1	1	1	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-24–5	0.36	0.47	0.51	0.51	2	8.82%	6.73%	8.93%
bs-26–1	0	0	0	0	0	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-26–2	0	0	0	0	0	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-26–3	1	1	1	1	2	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-26–4	0	0	0	0	1	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
bs-26–5	0.30	0.38	0.42	0.42	2	7.04%	4.48%	7.11%

inequalities and the wall inequalities are quite reasonable, and run in seconds even for the larger instances. Also, solving the integer program using Cplex does not take too much time, even for the larger instances this takes less than one minute.

We end this section with concluding that, based on the instances used here, the wall inequalities have potential in improving LP-relaxations that correspond to formulations of the 3AP.

6. Conclusion

We have exhibited a new class of valid inequalities for the axial 3-index assignment polytope. This class of valid inequalities, called *wall* inequalities define facets of this polytope, and can be separated in $O(n^4)$ time. Using limited computational experiments, we show the usefulness of these inequalities.

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