

The Ticket Restaurant Assignment Problem

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Introduction

In this report we detail a branch-and-bound exact algorithm based on Lagrangean relaxation to solve the ticket restaurant assignment problem (TRAP), pursuant to the project specifications set out for the Operational Research Complements course of the Università degli Studi di Milano¹.

In Section 1 we define the problem. In Section 2 we describe the main aspects of the branch-and-bound algorithm. In Section 3 we show the results of our experiments. Finally, Section 4 contains our concluding remarks.

1 Ticket Restaurant Assignment Problem

In this section we define the TRAP (Section 1.1), we formalize it as a mathematical programming problem (Section 1.2) and we examine the relevant literature (Section 1.3).

1.1 Definition

The TRAP is defined as follows. A ticket company possesses two kinds of restaurant tickets: the low-profit tickets and the high-profit tickets. The ticket company gives the tickets to customer companies. Each customer company receives only one kind of tickets and distributes the tickets to its employees. Each ticket is associated to a specific restaurant and can be used to buy meals only in that restaurant.

For each restaurant a given ratio between low-profit and high-profit tickets must be observed. The ticket company must maximize the profit while complying with this constraint. Thus, maximizing the profit amounts to minimizing the number of low-profit tickets while ensuring that a given amount of low-profit tickets is assigned for each considered restaurant.

¹ <https://homes.di.unimi.it/righini/Didattica/ComplementiRicercaOperativa/ComplementiRicercaOperativa.htm>

1.2 Formalization

Let $I = \{1, \dots, m\}$ be a set of restaurants, $J = \{1, \dots, n\}$ be a set of customer companies, $b \in \mathbb{Z}_+^m$ be the vector representing the minimum amount of low-profit tickets to be assigned for each restaurant, and $A \in \mathbb{Z}_+^{m \times n}$ be the matrix representing the amount of low-profit tickets assigned to each customer company for each restaurant, so that a_{ij} is the amount of low-profit tickets assigned to customer company j for restaurant i . Then, the integer linear programming model of the TRAP is the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & z = \sum_{j \in J} \left(\sum_{i \in I} a_{ij} \right) x_j \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \sum_{j \in J} a_{ij} x_j \geq b_i & i = 1, \dots, m, \\ & x_j \in \{0, 1\} & j = 1, \dots, n, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where each binary variable x_j indicates whether customer company j is assigned low-profit tickets. A cover is a vector x such that $Ax \geq b$.

From (1), the following Lagrangean relaxation (LR) is obtained:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & z_{\text{LR}} = \sum_{j \in J} \left(\sum_{i \in I} (1 - \lambda_i) a_{ij} \right) x_j + \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i b_i \\ \text{subject to} \quad & x_j \in \{0, 1\} & j = 1, \dots, n, \\ & \lambda_i \geq 0 & i = 1, \dots, m, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where λ_i are the Lagrangean multipliers.

The TRAP is a generalization of the set covering problem (SCP), as explained in the following section. The SCP is NP-hard [4], hence so is the TRAP.

1.3 Related Works

Set covering problem. The problem at hand is equivalent to the SCP when A is a binary matrix and b is an all-ones vector. The SCP has been treated extensively in literature and the ideas developed in that context can be leveraged to solve the TRAP. For the SCP, both exact and heuristic algorithms have been devised (see the survey in [4]). We focus only on exact algorithms for our problem.

The following works in the field of SCP are of particular interest to us. Balas and Ho [2] adopted a branch-and-cut algorithm, comprising a primal heuristic to find upper bounds and subgradient optimization to find lower bounds. Beasley [3] adopted a branch-and-bound algorithm, computing upper bounds with a greedy heuristic, computing lower bounds with dual ascent and subgradient optimization, and devising problem reduction techniques. Balas and Carrera [1] adopted a dynamic subgradient-based branch-and-bound algorithm, additionally employing variable fixing techniques and heuristics to obtain upper bounds.

We fashioned our branch-and-bound algorithm based on the algorithms described in these works, adapting their solutions to account for the distinctive features of the TRAP. In particular, these distinctive features preclude the use of techniques relying on the fact that each constraint can be satisfied by setting to 1 exactly one variable with a non-zero coefficient in the row corresponding to that constraint.

Multicovering problem. A problem closely related to the TRAP is the one called multicovering problem (MCP) [7, 8], defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & z = c^\top x \\ \text{subject to} \quad & Ax \geq b, \\ & x_j \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, n, \end{aligned}$$

where A is a binary matrix and b is a vector of positive integers. This problem differs from the one at hand in that A is binary and not simply non-negative.

Notably, Hall and Hochbaum [8] adopted a branch-and-cut procedure to solve the MCP, using a primal heuristic to find upper bounds and combining a dual heuristic with subgradient optimization to find lower bounds. From this work we derived the main primal heuristic for our branch-and-bound algorithm (see Sections 2.1 and 3.3).

Covering integer problem. Finally, a generalization of the TRAP is given by the so-called covering integer problem (CIP) [9, 10], defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & z = c^\top x \\ \text{subject to} \quad & Ax \geq b, \\ & x_j \leq d_j \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, n, \\ & x_j \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, n, \end{aligned}$$

where all the entries in A , b , c and d are non-negative. This problem is equivalent to the TRAP when $d_j = 1$ for all $j = 1, \dots, n$. Unfortunately, we found only approximation algorithms for the CIP (see [9, 10]).

2 Branch-and-Bound

In this section we describe the different aspects of the branch-and-bound algorithm employed to solve the TRAP: the primal heuristics used to find upper bounds (Section 2.1); the strategies used to find lower bounds (Section 2.2); the branching rules (Section 2.3); and the reduction techniques (Section 2.4).

2.1 Primal Heuristics

Greedy heuristic. This heuristic selects greedily the variables of the cover, picking the row i with the largest ratio $\frac{\sum_{j \in J} a_{ij}}{b_i}$ and then picking the column

with the largest coefficient. Each time a variable is selected, the coefficients on the left-hand side (LHS) and right-hand side (RHS) are decreased accordingly.

This heuristic selects the row which is easiest to cover, since a larger ratio means that more solutions might satisfy the constraint. Indeed, when $\sum_{j \in J} a_{ij} = b_i$, we must select all variables with non-zero entries in A_i in order to satisfy the constraint, thus restricting the number of possible solutions. By picking the column with the largest coefficient we aim to satisfy the constraint in the fastest way.

Dobson heuristic. This heuristic is taken from Dobson [6] and generalizes an heuristic for the SCP from Chvatal [5]. This heuristic picks the column j that minimizes $c_j \sum_{i \in I} a_{ij}$. Furthermore, any a_{ij} larger than b_i is lowered down to b_i .

The idea of this heuristic is to pick the column that covers the most while costing the least. In the case of the TRAP, however, the cost of each column is equal to the sum of the coefficients of that column, which means that all columns could be equivalently selected. The only exception occurs when a coefficient a_{ij} is more than enough to cover the remaining part of b_i for any i . In this case, a_{ij} would be lowered and therefore $c_j \sum_{i \in I} a_{ij}$ would also be lowered. Therefore, this heuristic, when applied to the TRAP, prioritizes the columns whose coefficients are more than enough to cover the remaining part of b_i for any i .

Hall-Hochbaum heuristic. This heuristic adapts one of the heuristics conceived by Hall and Hochbaum [8]. Specifically, this heuristic picks the column j that maximizes $\frac{1}{c_j} \sum_{i \in L} \frac{b_i a_{ij}}{\text{space}(i)}$, where $L = \{i \in I : b_i > 0\}$ and $\text{space}(i) = \sum_{j \in J} a_{ij} - b_i$.

2.2 Lower Bounds

Lagrangian relaxation. A lower bound to the optimal value of problem (1) can be obtained by solving the LR defined in (2). When the Lagrangean multipliers λ are given, the objective function of (2) is trivially minimized by setting x_j to 1 when $\sum_{i \in I} (1 - \lambda_i) a_{ij} < 0$ and to 0 otherwise. The only problem left is to find the optimal Lagrangean multipliers, which yield the highest lower bound.

Subgradient optimization is a popular algorithm to find the optimal Lagrangean multipliers. Our version of subgradient optimization is adapted from [1] and is described in Algorithm 1, where z_{UB} is the best incumbent upper bound and z_{LB} is the lower bound.

We cannot assume that the optimal Lagrangean multipliers can be confined within the range $[0, 1]$.

Proposition 1 *The optimal Lagrangean multipliers for problem (2) may not lie in the range $[0, 1]$.*

Algorithm 1: Subgradient optimization

Input: $A, b, z_{UB}; f, k, \epsilon, \omega$
 $t \leftarrow 1$
 $\lambda_i^t = 0 \ \forall i \in I$
 $\lambda_{\text{best}} \leftarrow \lambda^t$
 $z_{LB} \leftarrow 0$
 $z_{\text{best}} \leftarrow z_{LB}$
while $z_{UB} > z_{LB}$ **do**
 for $j \in J$ **do**
 if $\sum_{i \in I} (1 - \lambda_i^t) a_{ij} < 0$ **then**
 $x_j \leftarrow 1$
 else
 $x_j \leftarrow 0$
 end
 end
 $L(\lambda^t) \leftarrow \sum_{j \in J} (\sum_{i \in I} (1 - \lambda_i^t) a_{ij}) x_j + \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i^t b_i$
if $L(\lambda^t) > z_{LB}$ **then**
 $z_{LB} \leftarrow L(\lambda^t)$
 $z_{\text{best}} \leftarrow z_{LB}$
 $\lambda_{\text{best}} \leftarrow \lambda^t$
end
 $g(\lambda^t) \leftarrow b - A^\top x$ /* gradients */
if z_{LB} *unchanged for k iterations* **then**
 $f \leftarrow \frac{f}{2}$
end
 $\sigma^t \leftarrow \frac{f(z_{UB} - z_{LB})}{\|g(\lambda^t)\|^2}$ /* step length */
for $i \in I$ **do**
 $\lambda_i^{t+1} \leftarrow \max(0, \lambda_i^t + \sigma^t g_i(\lambda^t))$
end
if $f < \epsilon \vee t > \omega$ **then**
 break
end
 $t \leftarrow t + 1$
end
return $z_{\text{best}}, \lambda_{\text{best}}$

Proof. Consider a matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and a vector $b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. If we run Algorithm 1 with parameters $f = 2$, $k = 5$, $\epsilon = 0.005$, $\omega = 150$ and we bind the Lagrangean multipliers in the range $[0, 1]$, we obtain $z_{LB} = 8$ and $\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Running the algorithm with the same parameters, but without bounds on the Lagrangean multipliers, we obtain $z_{LB} = 10.498$ and $\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2.259 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. \square

LP relaxation. Finally, one could consider solving the LP relaxation of (1) to obtain a lower bound. In fact, it is observed in [4] that “the lower bound determined by Lagrangian or alternative relaxations is much worse than the optimal solution value of the LP relaxation”. The same Authors remark that exact algorithms behave better with LP relaxation, whereas Lagrangean relaxation is better suited for heuristic algorithms.

2.3 Branching Rules

Reduced costs branching. For this branching rule we compute the reduced costs r of the variables with the formula $r = (1 - \lambda) \cdot A$. After that, we determine a solution by setting to 0 all the variables not fixed to 1 in the current node. Considering the computed solution, we select the variable x_j with the minimum reduced cost and a non-zero coefficient in the row with the largest violation. Finally, we generate two children nodes, fixing $x_j = 0$ in the first node and $x_j = 1$ in the second.

Costs branching for LP. This branching rule differs from the reduced costs branching rule only because it selects the variable with the minimum cost instead of the variable with the minimum reduced cost. This modification allows to employ this rule with the LP relaxation, since in that case we do not have the Lagrangean multipliers (or dual variables) λ .

Beasley branching. This is the branching rule used in [3] and differs from the reduced costs branching rule only because it selects the row whose corresponding Lagrangean multiplier has the largest value instead of the row with the largest violation.

2.4 Reduction

Lagrangean penalties. Following [3], we use the reduced costs to fix variables to 0 or to 1, thus reducing the size of the problem instances.

Let $r = (1 - \lambda) \cdot A$ be the vector of reduced costs, z_{LB} be the lower bound of the current node and z_{UB} be the best incumbent upper bound. Then we can fix x_j to 0 when $r_j \geq 0$ and $z_{LB} + r_j > z_{UB}$, and we can fix x_j to 1 when $r_j < 0$ and $z_{LB} - r_j > z_{UB}$.

Column inclusion. This reduction method is adapted from [3] and consists in fixing to 1 all the unassigned variables with a non-zero coefficient in an uncovered row, when said row cannot be covered otherwise.

3 Computational Results

In this section we describe the machine and the technologies used to run the experiments (Section 3.1), we illustrate how the TRAP instances are generated (Section 3.2), and then we show the results of our tests (Section 3.3).

3.1 Hardware and Technologies

We ran the branch-and-bound algorithm on a machine with 16 gigabytes of RAM and a CPU Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-9700K 3.60GHz with 8 cores. The code was implemented in Python 3.11.2.

We include in our comparisons the results obtained with a state-of-the-art commercial solver, Gurobi 10.0.2². Note that Gurobi, unlike our implementation, exploits multi-threading.

3.2 Problem Generation

We generate random TRAP instances by determining the number of constraints (m) and variables (n) and the density of the problem. The density is the percentage of non-zero coefficients in each row of the matrix A .

For each row, we pick the value of b_i uniformly at random between n and n^2 . After that, the sum of the coefficients on the LHS is picked uniformly at random between $2b_i$ and $5b_i$. Then, we determine the number of columns with a non-zero coefficient using the density parameter, selecting their indices uniformly at random. Finally, the sum of the coefficients on the LHS is distributed uniformly at random among the selected column indices.

3.3 Comparative Analysis

Primal heuristics. Table 1 compares the lower bounds obtained by the different primal heuristics described in Section 2.1 over sets of randomly generated TRAP instances with different numbers of rows and columns. We observe that the bigger is the size of the problem, the more the heuristic by Hall and Hochbaum outperforms the other primal heuristics. For this reason, only this heuristic was employed in the subsequent experiments.

² <https://www.gurobi.com/>

Table 1. Number of times each primal heuristic provided the solution with the lowest upper bound over sets of 10 randomly generated TRAP instances with different numbers of rows and columns and with density equal to 0.5. The best result for each set of problems is highlighted in bold.

		Greedy	Dobson	Hall-Hochbaum
Rows	Cols			
5	10	1	7	2
10	20	1	3	6
20	50	0	0	10
50	100	0	0	10

Subgradient optimization parameters. We set the subgradient optimization parameters as: $f = 2$, $k = 5$, $\epsilon = 0.005$, $\omega = 150$. Setting $\omega = 150$ is enough to find the optimal Lagrangean multipliers for problems having up to 80 rows and up to 150 columns, as shown in Figure 1.

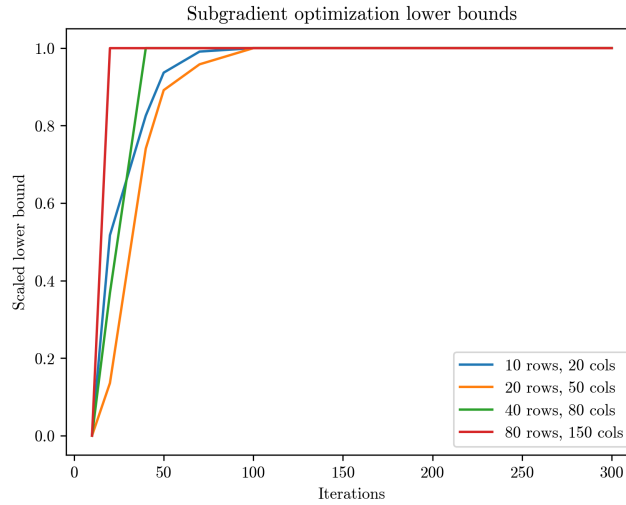


Fig. 1. Min-max scaled lower bounds obtained with subgradient optimization for different numbers of iterations.

3.4 Runtime and number of nodes.

We compare different configurations for the branch-and-bound algorithm:

- S: reduced costs branching rule and subgradient optimization lower bound, without any primal heuristic and without any reduction technique;

- SP: same as S but with Hall-Hochbaum primal heuristic;
- SPR: same as SP but with both the reduction techniques described in Section 2.4;
- SPRR: same as SPR but with the primal heuristic ran only at the root node;
- SPRB: same as SPR but with Beasley branching rule instead of reduced costs branching rule;
- LP: costs branching rule, LP relaxation lower bound, Hall-Hochbaum primal heuristic and column inclusion reduction technique.

Tables 2 and 3 respectively give the runtime and number of nodes for each of these configurations over randomly generated TRAP instances. We forcibly terminated the algorithm when the runtime exceeded 5 minutes.

Table 2 shows how SPR, SPRR and SPRB achieve similar results and outperform the other configurations for all problem instances. Table 3 confirms these results and reveals also how the Beasley branching rule is marginally better than the reduced costs branching rule when the number of nodes is concerned. Contrary to what was observed in Section 2.2, LP yields the worst results over all problem instances.

All this considered, the algorithm still performs poorly when compared to Gurobi. A look at the logs of Gurobi reveals that the solver employs a branch-and-cut algorithm, performing root relaxation and finding heuristic solutions periodically. Some of the mentioned cuts are: Gomory, Cover, MIR, StrongCG, Mod-K, Zero half, RLT.

Table 2. Runtime of different configurations of the branch-and-bound algorithm over randomly generated TRAP instances with different numbers of rows and columns and different densities. Configurations whose runtime exceeded 5 minutes were assigned nan values. The best result obtained by algorithms other than Gurobi is highlighted in bold for each problem instance.

Rows	Cols	Density	Gurobi	S	SP	SPR	SPRR	SPRB	LP
5	10	0.3	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.05
		0.5	0.00	0.17	0.12	0.11	0.03	0.12	0.14
		0.7	0.00	0.12	0.17	0.06	0.06	0.02	0.25
10	20	0.3	0.00	11.16	14.62	3.53	3.73	2.81	38.53
		0.5	0.00	22.95	24.70	6.39	5.58	5.34	85.36
		0.7	0.08	21.52	17.45	1.86	1.53	1.61	161.22
13	22	0.3	0.02	41.48	46.30	6.69	7.02	2.61	89.72
		0.5	0.00	17.80	19.02	3.00	2.52	2.47	nan
		0.7	0.02	32.92	30.95	1.25	1.50	1.69	nan
15	25	0.3	0.02	22.41	30.61	5.69	5.16	2.66	nan
		0.5	0.03	30.34	28.86	2.05	1.45	1.69	nan
		0.7	0.06	34.19	35.62	4.58	3.67	3.81	nan

Table 3. Number of nodes generated by different configurations of the branch-and-bound algorithm over randomly generated TRAP instances with different numbers of rows and columns and different densities. Configurations whose runtime exceeded 5 minutes were assigned nan values. The best result obtained by algorithms other than Gurobi is highlighted in bold for each problem instance.

Rows	Cols	Density	Gurobi	S	SP	SPR	SPRR	SPRB	LP
5	10	0.3	0	17	15	5	5	7	23
		0.5	1	179	185	63	63	63	183
		0.7	1	75	85	23	23	23	323
10	20	0.3	1	9131	8659	1607	1761	1205	55541
		0.5	50	15421	14115	2469	2781	2337	124795
		0.7	25	14057	8705	609	607	559	209799
13	22	0.3	1	25257	26033	2427	2849	907	117271
		0.5	1	9147	8837	949	951	795	nan
		0.7	1	18929	14419	371	501	453	nan
15	25	0.3	1	13387	13475	1631	2077	833	nan
		0.5	59	15903	14897	1731	1657	1541	nan
		0.7	384	53149	50545	4549	5315	4841	nan

4 Conclusions

In this work we described and evaluated a branch-and-bound algorithm to solve the TRAP, employing reduction techniques, different strategies to find upper and lower bounds, and different branching rules. The best algorithm configuration, however, fell short when compared with a state-of-the-art solver.

Further research might investigate a branch-and-cut algorithm. The cutting plane algorithms reported by Gurobi can provide a starting point.

Additionally, the dual of the LP relaxation of (1) offers another option to find the optimal Lagrangean multipliers for (2). In the context of the SCP, this method was adopted, for instance, in [2, 3]. We performed cursory tests on this method, but ultimately decided to disregard it due to memory overloads when running the branch-and-bound algorithm.

Finally, the similarities between the TRAP and the CIP might warrant delving into the related literature to search for new ideas.

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