

6. (Mixed) Integer Linear Programming

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From Reals to Integers

- We have seen the **simplex method** to solve LP problems in “*typically polynomial*” time
- We however can **always** solve LP problems in **polynomial time**
 - **Ellipsoid** methods (inefficient, worse than simplex in practice)
 - **Interior point** methods (e.g., Karmarkar, can outperform simplex)
- If the **domain** of the variables involved is \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{Q} solving LP problems is **not NP-hard**
- What if we require domains to be subsets of \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{N} ? Would the problem be easier? Or harder? Or the same?
 - Let's go back to the baking example

Baking cakes

```
1 % We know how to make two sorts of cakes. A banana cake which takes 250g of
2 % self-raising flour, 2 mashed bananas, 75g sugar and 100g of butter, and a
3 % chocolate cake which takes 200g of self-raising flour, 75g of cocoa, 150g
4 % sugar and 150g of butter. We can sell a chocolate cake for $4.50 and a
5 % banana cake for $4.00. And we have 4kg self-raising flour, 6 bananas,
6 % 2kg of sugar, 500g of butter and 500g of cocoa. How many of each sort of
7 % cake should we bake for the fete to maximise the profit
8
9 var 0..100: b; % no. of banana cakes
10 var 0..100: c; % no. of chocolate cakes
11
12 % flour
13 constraint 250*b + 200*c <= 4000;
14 % bananas
15 constraint 2*b <= 6;
16 % sugar
17 constraint 75*b + 150*c <= 2000;
18 % butter
19 constraint 100*b + 150*c <= 500;
20 % cocoa
21 constraint 75*c <= 500;
22
23 % maximize our profit
24 solve maximize 400*b + 450*c;
25
26 output ["no. of banana cakes = \"(b)\\n\",
27         "no. of chocolate cakes = \"(c)\\n\""];
```

Baking cakes

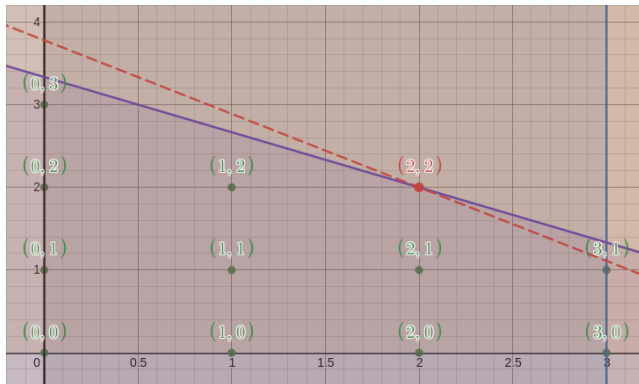


- $b, c \in 0..100 = \{0, 1, \dots, 100\} \subsetneq [0, 100] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq x \leq 100\}$
- $b = 3, c = 4/3$ can't be a feasible solution anymore!

Baking cakes

- On the previous episodes, we assumed we could sell **slices** of cakes
 - E.g., one third of banana cake and two fifths of chocolate cake
- This could be a **too strong** assumption in a **real-world** setting
 - Imagine we are selling cars instead of cakes
- The **feasible/optimal regions** are now **sets** of integer points
 - “Grids” instead of polyhedra
- What is the **optimal** solution if we strictly require $b, c \in 0..100$?

Baking cakes



- $b, c \in 0..100 = \{0, 1, \dots, 100\} \subsetneq [0, 100] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq x \leq 100\}$
- Optimal solution $b = c = 2$

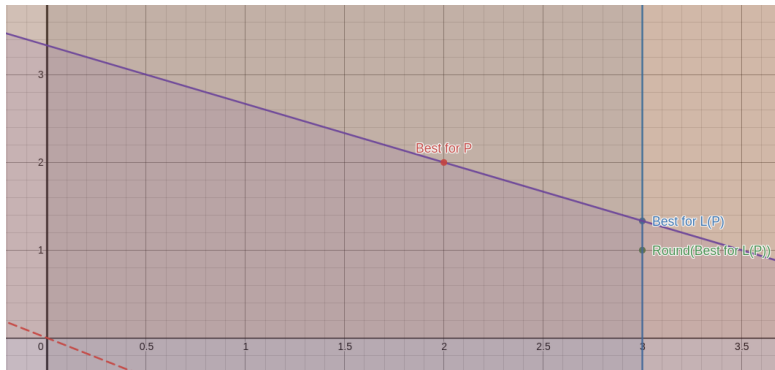
Integer Linear Programming

- An **Integer Linear Programming (ILP)** problem has **standard** form:

$$\begin{array}{ll}\max & \sum_{j=1}^n c_j x_j \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} x_j = b_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq m \\ & x_j \geq 0, \quad x_j \in \mathbb{Z} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n\end{array}$$

- If we require only $k < n$ variables to be integers, then it is a **Mixed-Integer Programming (MIP)** problem
 - ILP a.k.a. Integer Programming (**IP**)
 - MIP a.k.a. Mixed-Integer Linear Programming (**MILP**)
- **Linear relaxation**: MIP problem with **no integrality constraints** $x_j \in \mathbb{Z}$
 - If $\mathcal{L}(P)$ is the linear relaxation of P , $\mathcal{F}_P \subseteq \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$ hence **solving** $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$ and **rounding** its optimal solution does **not work** in general

Linear relaxation



- Optimal solution of linear relaxation: $b = 3$, $c = 4/3 = 1.\bar{3}$, rounding to nearest integer $b = 3$, $c = 1$. Obj. value = $400 \cdot 3 + 450 \cdot 1 = 1650$
- Optimal solution original problem: $b = 2$, $c = 2$. Obj. value = $400 \cdot 2 + 450 \cdot 2 = 1700$

Linear relaxation

- Rounding the optimal solution of $\mathcal{L}(P)$ is **not sound** in general!
- E.g. with $P : \max(x) \text{ s.t. } x \leq 5/3, x \geq 0, x \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have that $5/3 = 1.\bar{6}$ is optimal for $\mathcal{L}(P)$ but its rounding is $2 \notin \mathcal{F}_P = \{0, 1\}$
 - In this case $\mathcal{O}_P = \{1\} \neq \{5/3\} = \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$
- Clearly, $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)} = \emptyset \implies \mathcal{F}_P = \emptyset$: solving $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$ can help to detect **unsatisfiability** of P
- If $\mathcal{L}(P)$ **unbounded**, P can be:
 - bounded, e.g. $P : \max(x_1) \text{ s.t. } x_1 = \sqrt{2}x_2 \text{ and } x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{N}$
 - unbounded, e.g. $P : \max(x) \text{ s.t. } x \in \mathbb{N}$
 - unsatisfiable, e.g. $P : \max(x_1) \text{ s.t. } 0.1 \leq x_2 \leq 0.2 \text{ and } x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{N}$

Complexity

- Adding integrality has huge impact on the **complexity** of LP solving
- **No known** algorithms for solving MIP problems in **polynomial time**
 - otherwise, **P = NP**
- More precisely, MIP problems are **NP-complete**
 - They are in **NP** (**certifying** solutions takes **polynomial** time)
 - *Solvable by NDTM in polynomial time...*
 - They are among the *hardest* problems in **NP** (**NP-hard**)
- If we could solve a generic MIP problem in polynomial time, we could also solve, e.g., **any SAT problem** in polynomial time
 - And **all** the NP problems in polynomial time...

SAT to MIP reduction

- From any **generic SAT** problem in CNF P_{SAT} with clauses C_1, \dots, C_m and **literals** ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_n we get an **equisatisfiable MIP** problem P_{MIP} :

$$\begin{array}{ll}\max & 0 \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} x_j \leq |C_i^-| - 1 \quad 1 \leq i \leq m \\ & x_j \in \{0, 1\} \quad 1 \leq j \leq n\end{array}$$

where $C_i = C_i^- \cup C_i^+$ and C_i^-/C_i^+ are the **negative/positive literals** of

$$C_i \text{ and } a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } \ell_j \in C_i^+ \\ +1 & \text{if } \neg \ell_j \in C_i^- \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m, j = 1, \dots, n$$

- E.g. $\ell_1 \vee \neg \ell_2 \vee \ell_4 \vee \neg \ell_5 \implies x_1 + (1 - x_2) + 0 \cdot x_3 + x_4 + (1 - x_5) \geq 1 \implies x_1 - x_2 + x_4 - x_5 \geq -1 \implies -x_1 + x_2 - x_4 + x_5 \leq 1$

SAT to MIP reduction

- Reducing P_{SAT} to P_{MIP} takes **polynomial** time
 - $O(mn)$ time
- P_{SAT} feasible $\iff P_{MIP}$ feasible, and any solution of P_{MIP} can be mapped back into a solution of P_{SAT} in **polynomial** time
 - $O(n)$ time: $x_j = 0 \mapsto \ell_j = \text{false}$, $x_j = 1 \mapsto \ell_j = \text{true}$
- P_{MIP} solvable in polynomial time \implies **any SAT** problem solvable in poly. time \implies **any NP-complete** problem in poly. time \implies **P=NP**
- Because rounding is in general not applicable, we have to tackle MIP solving with other approaches

Handling NP-hardness

Different ways of handling NP-hard problems:

- **Exact** algorithms: they guarantee to find an **optimal** solution although this may take **exponential** time
 - Branch-and-bound, cutting planes
- **Approximation** algorithms: they guarantee in **polynomial time** a (sub-)optimal solution at most ρ times worse the optimal one
 - $\rho =$ **approximation factor**
- **Heuristic** algorithms: **no guarantee** of optimality nor polynomial runtime, but “in practice” they find **good** solutions in **reasonable** time
 - According to **empirical** evidences

Branch-and-bound

- **Branch-and-bound (BB)** is based on **divide et impera** approach: split a “big” problem into **sub-problems** until a success or a failure
 - **Overall solution** derived from the solution of sub-problems
- **Branch** phase = explore the sub-problems
 - sub-trees of the **search tree**
- **Bound** phase = compute the **bounds** of sub-problem optimal solution
 - to possibly **prune** the search tree if current solution not improvable
- BB is a **general paradigm** applicable to various NP-hard problems

Branch-and-bound

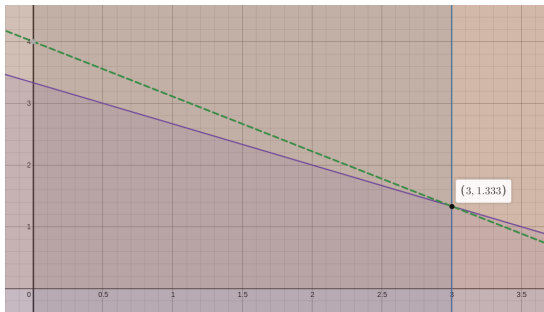
- We can solve a standard MIP problem P via BB. Suppose $P_0 = \mathcal{L}(P)$ has solution β_1, \dots, β_n with some $\beta_k \notin \mathbb{Z}$ (very lucky otherwise!)
- Pick a x_k s.t. $\beta_k \notin \mathbb{Z}$ and branch:
$$\begin{cases} P_1 = P_0 \cup \{x_k \leq \lfloor \beta_k \rfloor\} \\ P_2 = P_0 \cup \{x_k \geq \lceil \beta_k \rceil\} \end{cases}$$
 - Note $\mathcal{F}_P = \mathcal{F}_{P_1} \cup \mathcal{F}_{P_2}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{P_1} \cap \mathcal{F}_{P_2} = \emptyset$
- We can solve P_1, P_2 to optimality and take the best solution (if any)
 - If integral, optimal for P too! Otherwise, branch again on P_1, P_2, \dots
- So we build search tree rooted in P_0 with edges $P_i \rightarrow P_j$ if child node P_j is a sub-problem of parent node P_i

Branch-and-bound

- If a P_k has **integral** optimal solution, we compare its obj. value z_k with the best obj. value z^* so far (**best bound**): if $z_k > z^*$, then $z^* \leftarrow z_k$, otherwise we **cannot improve** z^*
 - In any case, we “close” that path: P_k will be a **leaf**
 - Initially, $z^* \leftarrow -\infty$
- A **leaf** can also denote an **unfeasible** sub-problem or one with non-integral solution and **obj. value $\leq z^*$**
- In the end, an optimal solution for P corresponds to a **feasible leaf** P_k with obj. value z^*
 - Leaves also called **fathomed nodes**, current optimal solution also called **incumbent solution**

Baking example

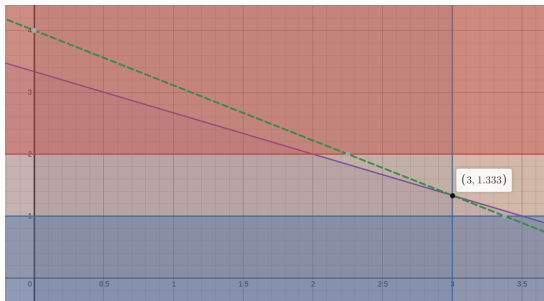
Let's how BB works on the baking problem where $B, C \in 0..100$



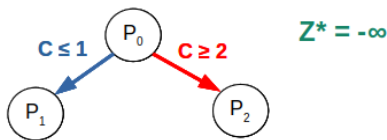
If we solve $P_0 = \mathcal{L}(P)$, optimal solution $B = 3$, $C = 4/3$ not feasible: we need to **branch** on C :

$$\begin{cases} P_1 = P_0 \cup \{C \leq \lfloor 4/3 \rfloor = 1\} \\ P_2 = P_0 \cup \{C \geq \lceil 4/3 \rceil = 2\} \end{cases}$$

Baking example



The resulting **search tree** is:

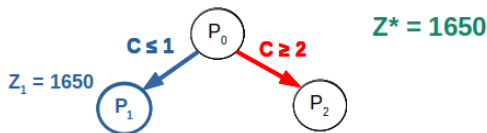


remember objective function is $Z = 400B + 450C$

Baking example

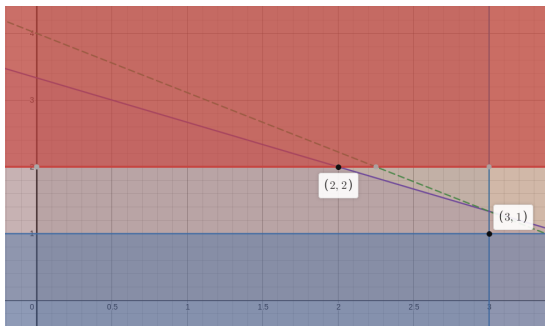


If $C \leq 1$, optimal solution is integral: $B = 3, C = 1$ with value 1650

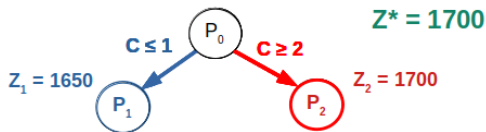


Node P_1 is a **leaf**: we **backtrack** and explore P_2

Baking example



If $C \geq 2$, we get a better solution $B = 2, C = 2$ with value 1700



the solution of node P_2 is optimal

Branch and Bound

- BB works well typically in **combination** with other techniques
 - Presolve
 - Cutting planes
 - Heuristics
 - Parallelism
 - ...

Presolve

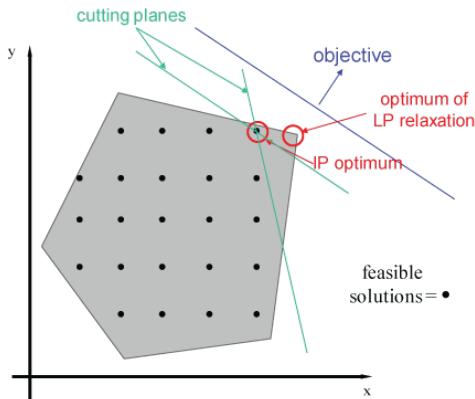
- **Presolve** means **reformulating** a problem **before** its actual solving process to possibly **reduce** its size
 - Presolve should be computationally **efficient**
- **Bounds tightening**, e.g.: $\{x_1 + x_2 \geq 20, x_1 \leq 10\} \models x_2 \geq 10$
 - If $x_2 \in 1..9$, we **eagerly** detect unsatisfiability
- **Problem reduction**, e.g.: $\{x_1 + x_2 \leq 0.8\} \models x_1 = x_2 = 0$
 - x_1, x_2 can be **removed** from problem formulation
- Pre-processing a MIP problem P is important because it can **reduce** the size of $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$ **without altering** \mathcal{F}_P

Cutting planes

- The theory of **cutting planes** has allowed for significant advancements of MIP solving
- Instead of (or in addition to...) branching on sub-problems, we repeatedly **add** new constraints **entailed** by the original problem P
- The idea is to “**cut out**” parts of $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)} - \mathcal{F}_P$ along the solving process to remove non-integral solutions
 - Until we converge to an optimal solution for P
- The **existence** of a cut **separating** optimal solution in $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)} - \mathcal{F}_P$ from $\mathcal{F}(P)$ is **guaranteed**
 - But not its **uniqueness**!

Cutting planes

Formally, a **cut** for a MIP problem P in standard form is an inequality $px \leq q$ such that $py \leq q$ and $pz > q$ for each $y \in \mathcal{F}_P$ and $z \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{L}(P)}$



Cutting Planes

Gomory's cut

- Proposed by R. Gomory in the 1950s
- Suppose basis $\mathcal{B}^* = \{x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_m}\}$ is optimal for $\mathcal{L}(P)$. Basic variables can be rewritten as:

$$x_{i_k} = \beta_k + \sum_{j=1}^{n-m} \alpha_{kj} x_{i_{m+j}} \quad \text{for } k = 1, \dots, m$$

where $x_{i_{m+1}}, x_{i_{m+2}}, \dots, x_{i_n}$ are non-basic variables

- The optimal solution x^* is $x_{i_k}^* = \beta_k$ for $k = 1, \dots, m$ and $x_{i_j}^* = 0$ for $j = m+1, \dots, n$. If there is a $\beta_k \notin \mathbb{Z}$, then $x^* \in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{L}(P)} - \mathcal{F}_P$ so we generate a cut to separate x^* from \mathcal{F}_P

Gomory's cut

- The cut has the form $-f_k + \sum_{j=1}^{n-m} f_{k,j} x_{i_m+j} \geq 0$ where for $j = 1, \dots, n - m$ and $k = 1, \dots, m$:
 - $f_k = \beta_k - \lfloor \beta_k \rfloor$
 - f_k is the **mantissa** of β_k : $0 < f_k < 1$
 - $f_{k,j} = -\alpha_{k,j} - \lfloor -\alpha_{k,j} \rfloor$
 - $f_{k,j}$ is the **mantissa** of $-\alpha_{k,j}$: $0 \leq f_{k,j} < 1$
- So, $\mathcal{L}(P) \leftarrow \mathcal{L}(P) \cup \left\{ y_k = -f_k + \sum_{j=1}^{n-m} f_{k,j} x_{i_m+j}, \quad y_k \geq 0 \right\}$
 - A new slack variable y_k added at each round
- $\mathcal{B}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{B}^* \cup \{y_k\}$ and solve with **dual simplex**. Why?

Gomory's cut

- Dual simplex solves dual problem without converting the primal, by moving between **dual feasible** basis until **primal feasible** basis reached
 - \mathcal{B}^* **unfeasible** for current (primal) problem ($y_k = -f_k < 0$)
 - \mathcal{B}^* is optimal for primal problem and so **dual feasible**: all the reduced costs are non-positive
- In the first round:
 - **Leaving variable** = y_k (because $\beta_k = \min\{\beta_i\}$)
 - **Entering variable** = x_i with maximum negative ratio $-\gamma_i/\alpha_{k,i}$
- If dual simplex finds an **integral** optimal solution or is **unbounded** (primal infeasible) then STOP, otherwise repeat

Example

- E.g., for baking example we get $B^* = \{S_1, B, S_3, C, S_5\}$, with optimal solution $B = 3$, $C = 4/3$, $S_1 = \dots = S_5 = 0$ having value $z^* = 1800$
 - We need to “cut out” non-integral value $4/3$
 - $\alpha_{C,S_2} = 1/3$, $\alpha_{C,S_4} = 1/150$
- $f_C = 4/3 - \lfloor 4/3 \rfloor = 1/3$
- $f_{C,S_2} = 1/3 - \lfloor 1/3 \rfloor = 1/3$, $f_{C,S_4} = -1/150 - \lfloor -1/150 \rfloor = 149/150$
- Gomory's cut is $y_C = -1/3 + 1/3 \cdot S_2 + 149/150 \cdot S_4$, $y_C \geq 0$
 - Corresponding to $300B + 447C \leq 1495$
 - $300 \cdot 3 + 447 \cdot 4/3 = 1496 > 1495$ does not satisfy the cut
- Starting basis for dual simplex is $\{S_1, B, S_3, C, S_5, y_C\}$, then y_C out, choose entering variable, reformulate with new basis...

Branch-and-cut

- Gomory's cut considered **ineffective at the time** because of numerical instability and number of cuts needed for convergence
- In mid **1990s**, **G. Cornuéjols** et al. proved it to be very effective in combination with branch-and-bound: **branch-and-cut**
- Basically, it runs **BB** for P and if an optimal solution of $\mathcal{L}(P)$ is not integral it possibly adds cutting planes to **refine $\mathcal{L}(P)$**
 - E.g., <https://www.ibm.com/docs/en/icos/12.10.0?topic=concepts-branch-cut-in-cplex>
- Cuts can be **global** (valid for all solutions of P) or **local** (valid for sub-problems)

Bender's Decomposition

- Cutting planes can be seen as “row generation” methods: new constraints are added at each step
- Bender's decomposition is another row generation method dividing a problem P into master problem (min) and sub-problem(s) (max)
 - Idea: iteratively fix the value of some variables and solve the dual of residual sub-problem to get cuts or better objective bounds
 - Logic-Based Bender's Decomposition: sub-problems are generic problems solvable with any solver (e.g., CP or SMT solvers)
- Also column-generation methods exist: start with subset of variables and repeatedly add variables until objective value cannot be improved
 - Assumption: only a small subset of variables is useful
 - E.g., Dantzig-Wolfe decomposition

Bender's Decomposition

- Consider a problem with m inequalities and n variables, divide them in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-p}$ for some $p \in 1..n$ and rewrite the problem as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & c^T \mathbf{x} + d^T \mathbf{y} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & A\mathbf{x} + B\mathbf{y} \geq b \\ & \mathbf{x} \geq 0, \quad \mathbf{y} \in Y \end{aligned}$$

- where $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n-p}$ is the **feasible set** of \mathbf{y} (no assumptions on Y). For any **fixed** tuple of values $\bar{\mathbf{y}} \in Y$, the **residual problem** is:

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & c^T \mathbf{x} + d^T \bar{\mathbf{y}} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & A\mathbf{x} \geq b - B\bar{\mathbf{y}}, \quad \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- The **dual** of the residual problem is:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & (b - B\bar{\mathbf{y}})^T \mathbf{u} + d^T \bar{\mathbf{y}} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & A^T \mathbf{u} \leq c, \quad \mathbf{u} \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

with $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ and $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Bender's Decomposition

- So, the original problem (**master**) can be seen as a **minimax** problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{y} \in Y} \left[\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{y} + \max_{\mathbf{u} \geq \mathbf{0}} \left\{ (\mathbf{b} - B\mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{u} \mid A^T \mathbf{u} \leq \mathbf{c} \right\} \right]$$

- Bender's approach iteratively builds a (initially empty) set of cuts for the master problem by repeatedly solving the max **sub-problem**:
 - If **unbounded**, residual problem **unfeasible**: a corresponding **cut** is generated to exclude $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$
 - If **unfeasible**, residual problem **unbounded** or **unfeasible**: STOP
 - If $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ is **optimal**, is optimal for residual too. We might update the current **upper bound** of **master** problem, and add to it $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \geq (\mathbf{b} - B\mathbf{y})^T \bar{\mathbf{u}}$
 - By weak duality, $\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} + \cancel{d^T \mathbf{y}} \geq (\mathbf{b} - B\mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{u} + \cancel{d^T \mathbf{y}}$
 - Now solve the new master problem to get a new solution $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$: if the new bounds **gap** $< \epsilon$ then STOP and get $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ from residual problem
 - Otherwise repeat with the new $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$

Heuristics

- **Heuristics** methods aim to find “good” solutions in “reasonable” time
 - Inherently **experimental**, weak theoretical guarantees
- **Constructive** methods: start with empty solution and iteratively **extend** the current partial solution
 - Evolutionary, genetic algorithms
- **Local search** methods: start with a complete solution and iteratively **improve** it
 - Hill climbing
- **Meta-heuristics** methods: heuristics for selecting, combining, tuning or generating other heuristics
 - Tabu search

MIP Heuristics

- MIP heuristics can be used in addition to branching/cutting, e.g.:
- Rounding and checking non-integral solutions
- Diving: rounding + bounding/fixing some variables and re-solve linear relaxation at each node of the search tree
- Sub-MIPing: restrict to sub-problem by fixing/bounding some variables and solve it
- ...

Warm starts

- MIP resolution may be **warm-started** by giving an initial value to (some of) the variables
- This **not necessarily** translates to a new **incumbent**: the suggested solution might be unfeasible or not better than current best bound
 - Or, if partial, it might take too long to compute a complete solution
- A warm start vector might come from the **knowledge** of a similar problem, or from the **expertise** of a domain expert
- Warm-starting MIP problems can be highly beneficial for **tightening** the bounds of its variables

Take-home messages

- Adding **integer variables** to LP significantly increases its complexity
- **MIP solving** can be tackled with (a combination of) different approaches
 - Exact
 - Approximate
 - Heuristic
- **Rounding** non-integral solutions of **linear relaxation** does **not work** in general

Take-home messages

- **Branch-and-bound**: divide-et-impera approach, **branches** on variables with non-integer value, stop if we cannot improve **incumbent** solution
- **Cutting planes**: linear equalities **separating** non-integral, optimal solutions of linear relaxation from feasible region of original problem
 - Branch-and-cut
 - **Gomory's** cut
 - **Benders'** cut
- **Heuristics**: no strong guarantees on optimality/runtime, but “in practice” they find **good** solutions in **reasonable** time
 - Inherently **experimental**