

Integer linear Programming

Given rational numbers a_{ij} , b_{ij} , c_{ij} , find integers x_i that solve:

min
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{j}x_{j}$$
s. t.
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}x_{j} \geq b_{i}$$

$$1 \leq i \leq m$$

$$x_{j} \geq 0 \qquad 1 \leq j \leq n$$

$$x_{j} \qquad \text{integral} \qquad 1 \leq j \leq n$$

INTEGER-PROGRAMMING is NP-hard.

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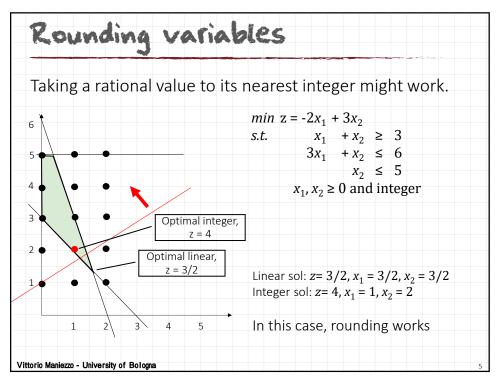
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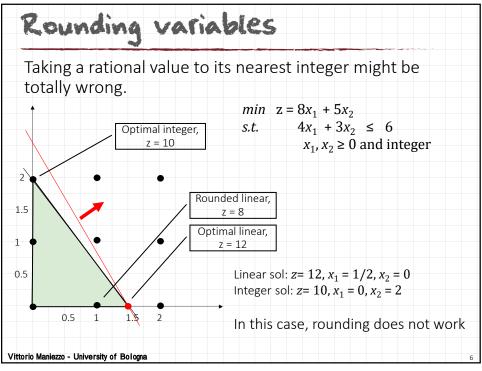
Integer linear programs

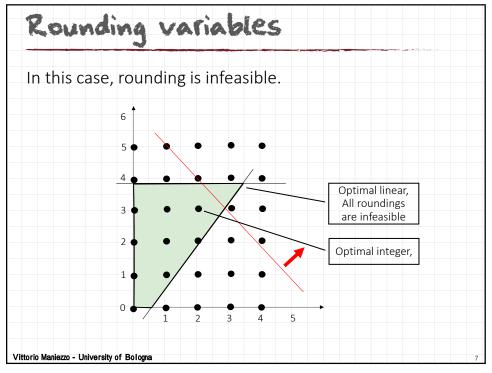
Integer linear programs are almost identical to linear programs with the very important exception that some of the decision variables need to have only integer values.

Since most integer programs contain a mix of real and integer variables they are often known as Mixed Integer Programs (MIP).

While the change from linear programming is a minor one, the effect on the solution process is enormous. Integer programs can be very difficult problems to solve, just rounding solutions is not an option.







Dealing with IP

There are three main categories of algorithms for integer programming problems:

- Exact algorithms: they guarantee to find an optimal solution, but may take an exponential time. They include branch-and-bound, cutting-planes and dynamic programming.
- Approximation algorithms: they provide in polynomial time a suboptimal solution together with a bound on the quality of the solution proposed.
- Heuristic algorithms: they provide a suboptimal solution, with no guarantee on its quality. Even the running time is not always guaranteed to be polynomial, but empirical evidence suggests that these algorithms find a good solution fast.

Branch and bound

It is a divide et impera (divide and conquer) method.

The problem to solve is decomposed into a number of simpler subproblems.

Decomposition proceeds recursively until simple sub-subproblems can be solved.

The overall solution is derived from the solutions of the subproblems.

The decomposition of the problem into subproblems is the *branching* phase. It can be done in different ways, we will see only the one based on LP.

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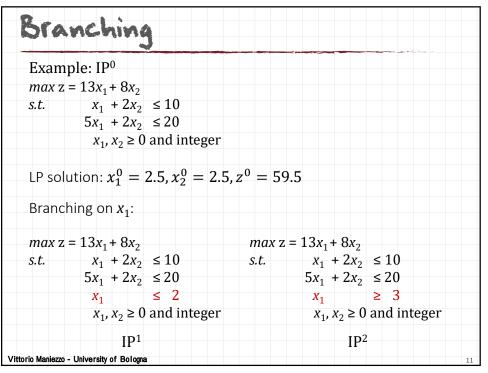
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Branch and bound

From LP: the branching part eliminates non-integer values for integer variables in the following way:

- Initially, all variables are left as real variables. The problem is solved using linear programming;
- If one of the integer variables in the linear programming solution has a fractional value, e.g., $x_1 = 0.5$ then the linear program is split in two and the fractional region eliminated. This is done by branching on the variable value, e.g., adding the constraint $x_1 <= 0$ to form one linear program and $x_1 >= 1$ to form the other.
- By finding the optimal solution in each of these new linear programs and comparing them, we can find the optimal solution for the original problem.
- If either of the new linear programs has a fractional value for an integer variable then a new branch is needed.

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Branching
   Solving IP<sup>1</sup>: x_1^1 = 2, x_2^1 = 4, z^1 = 58
    Solution is feasible, branch concluded.
   Solving IP<sup>2</sup>: x_1^2 = 3, x_2^2 = 2.5, z^2 = 59
    Branching on x_2:
    max z = 13x_1 + 8x_2
                                             max z = 13x_1 + 8x_2
                                                        x_1 + 2x_2 \le 10
               x_1 + 2x_2 \le 10
              5x_1 + 2x_2 \le 20
                                                       5x_1 + 2x_2 \le 20
               x_1 \geq 3
               x_2 \leq 2
                                                                    ≥ 3
                                                        X<sub>2</sub>
                                                         x_1, x_2 \ge 0 and integer
                x_1, x_2 \ge 0 and integer
                     IP^3
                                                                IP^4
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Branching

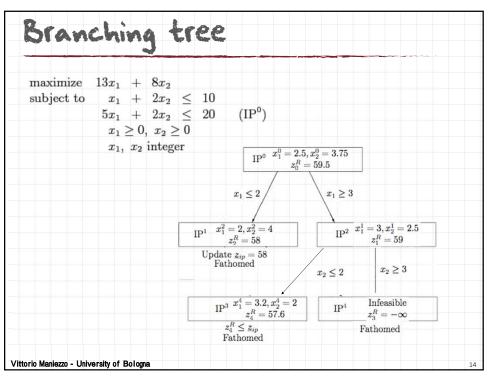
Solving IP³: $x_1^3 = 3.2, x_2^3 = 2, z^3 = 57.6$

Solution is fractional, but we already know a better feasible solution, branch concluded.

Solving IP^4 : subproblem is infeasible , branch concluded.

Search completed, solution was found exploring IP²

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Branching

This branching process results in the formation of a branch-and-bound tree.

Each node in the tree represents a linear program consisting of the original linear program and additional added constraints.

Adding constraints to a mathematical programming will result in a deterioration of the objective value, descendent nodes have worse objective values.

The leaf nodes correspond to problems either infeasible or where all the integer variables have integer values, no further branching is needed.

All these values can be compared and the best one is the solution to the original integer program.

Note: for MIPs of any reasonable the size this tree could be huge, it grows exponentially with the number of integer variables.

The bounding process allows sections of the branch-and-bound tree to be removed from consideration before all the leaf nodes have integer solutions.

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Branching

Adding the branching constraints to the linear programs at the nodes implies that the resulting nodes will have an optimal objective function value that is equal to or worse than the optimal objective function value of the original linear program.

The objective function values get worse the deeper we get into the tree.

Since we are finding the integer solution in the branch-and-bound tree with the best objective value, we can use any integer solution to bound the tree.

The current best integer solution is called the incumbent.

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Branching

After solving a linear program at a node of the branch-and-bound tree one of the following conditions holds:

- The linear program is infeasible (no more branching is possible);
- The linear program gives an integer solution with a better objective value than the incumbent. The incumbent is replaced with this new solution;
- The linear program solution has a worse objective than the incumbent. Any nodes created from this node will also have a worse objective than the incumbent.
- The linear program solution is fractional and has a better objective value than the incumbent. Further branching from this node is necessary to ensure an optimal solution is found.

Only the last condition requires more branching, all the other conditions result in the node becoming fathomed. Vittorio Maniezzo - University of Bologna

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Branching strategy

As any tree, the search tree can be explored breadth-first, depthfirst or with combinations thereof.

Breadth-first: you generate all sons of the incumbent node before changing the incumbent. Possibly get the best solution sooner, but large memory consumption.

Depth-first: you move the incumbent to the first generated son and backtrack when no further generation is possible. Can be slower to optimality but less memory consumption (just a stack).

Bounding

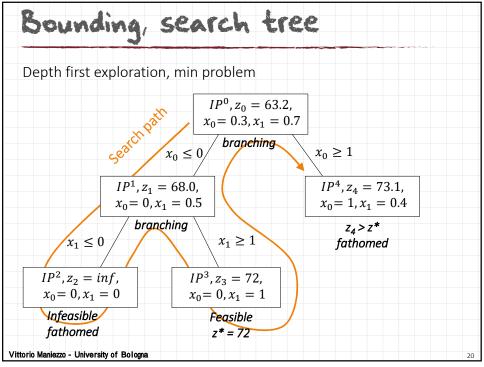
The Linear Programming (LP) relaxation has the same form as the integer program, except that integrality constrains are "relaxed" to allow variables to take fractional values.

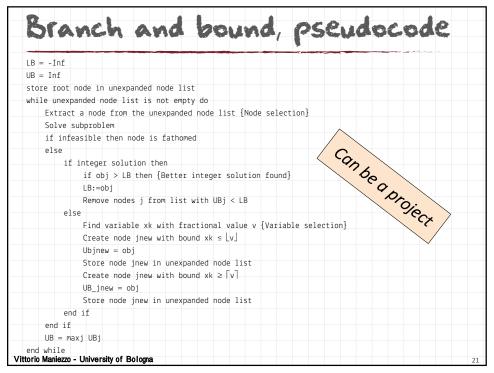
The integer program's feasible region lies within the feasible region of the LP relaxation (at points where the integer variables have integer values). Therefore the integer restrictions cause the optimal objective function value to be worse in the integer program when compared to the LP relaxation.

If a solution \mathbf{x} of the LP relaxation has integer values for the integer variables, then \mathbf{x} is also a solution for the integer program.

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Branch and cut

For branch and cut, the lower bound is again provided by the linear relaxation of the integer program.

If the optimal solution to the problem is not integral, this algorithm searches for a constraint which is violated by this solution, but is not violated by any optimal integer solutions. This constraint is called a cutting plane. Well-known cuts are the Gomory cuts (which act on fractional parts of a variable).

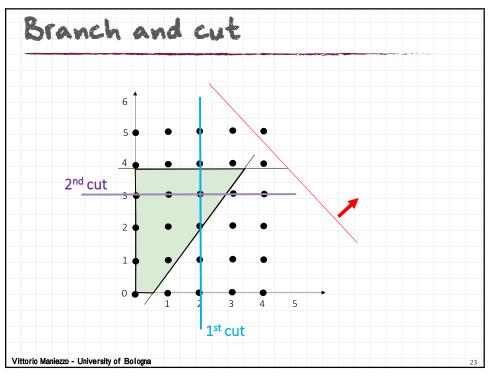
When this constraint is added to the model, the old optimal solution is no longer valid, and so the new optimal will be different, potentially providing a tighter bound.

Cutting planes are iteratively derived until either an integral solution is found or it becomes impossible or too expensive to find another cutting plane.

In the latter case, a branch operation is performed and the search for cutting planes continues on the subproblems

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Dynamic programming

Dynamic programming is based on Bellman's Optimality Principle: "An optimal policy has the property that whatever the initial state and initial decision are, the remaining decisions must optimal policy."

- Obtaining feasible solutions comes after ce of decisions occurring in stages, leading to stages otal cost is the sum of the costs of the individual
- of all relevant past decisions. 2. A state can be seen
- Very interesting, but I cannot fit this in this course Need to dete state transitions are possible. Let the nsition be the cost of the corresponding cost of decis
- Given the objective function, one must derive a recursion on the optimal cost from the origin state to a final, optimal state

Heuristics

A heuristic algorithm is an algorithm that finds a hopefully good feasible solution. Typically, heuristics are fast (polynomial) algorithms.

For some problems, even feasibility is NP-complete, in such cases a heuristic cannot even guarantee to find a feasible solution.

Heuristic algorithms can be classified among:

- Constructive: start from an empty solution and iteratively add new elements to the incumbent partial solution, until a complete solution is found. Usually greedy.
- Local Search: start from an initial feasible solution and iteratively try to improve it by "slightly" modifying it. Stop when no improving adjustment is possible (local optimum)
- Metaheuristics: try avoid local optima using specific techniques.
 Many approaches tested, in the 80's it was fashionable to draw inspiration from nature (annealing, genetics, ant colonies, ...)

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Example: K-means

k-means clustering aims to partition n observations into k clusters in which each observation belongs to the cluster with the nearest mean, serving as a prototype of the cluster.

k-means minimizes within-cluster variances

$$\arg\min_{S} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in S_i} ||x - \mu_i||^2$$

The Euclidean norm needs to be computable. Related combinatorial optimization problem is the p-median problem.

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K-means

The k-means problem is a mixed nonlinear integer problem.

- All points need to be assigned to a centroid, integer variable.
- All points can have continuous coordinates, continuous variable.
- Objective function is the Euclidean norm, a quadratic function.

In this course, we will study a related linear problem.

PROJECT: optimize k-means other than with the heuristic hereafter

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K-means heuristic

A pseudocode for a simple k-means clustering heuristic is as follow:

- Step 1. Select k centroids randomly as initial centroids of k clusters (Initial solution).
- Step 2. Allocate each customer to the nearest centroid, such that k new clusters are created.
- Step 3. For each *k* new created clusters, recalculate new centroids.
- Step 4. Repeat the steps 2 and 3, until new centroids for all clusters in each repetition are fixed.

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K-means heuristic
       # k-means heuristic
       for i in range(max_iter):
           # distances between datapoints and centroids
           distances = np.array( [np.linalg.norm(data - c, axis=1) for c in centroids] )
           # new_labels, find centroid with minimal total distance
           new_labels = np.argmin(distances, axis=0)
           if (labels == new_labels).all():
               # labels unchanged
               labels = new_labels
               print('Labels unchanged. Terminating.')
               break
           else:
               # labels changed
               # difference : percentage of changed labels
               difference = np.mean(labels != new_labels)
print('Iter {0}, {1}% labels changed'.format(i,(difference * 100)))
               labels = new_labels
               for c in range(k):
                   # centroids are the means of their associated data points
                   centroids[c] = np.mean(data[labels == c], axis=0)
       return labels, centroids
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```

p-median Choose p vertices as median of their cluster. No new point is created, no need for Euclidean norms, loss function can be linear. $x_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if vertex } x_j \text{ is allocated to vertex } x_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ The formulation becomes $min z = \sum_{ij} d_{ij} x_{ij}$ (1) $\sum_{i} x_{ij} = 1 \qquad \qquad j = 1, \dots, n$ s.t. (2) $\sum_{i} x_{ii} = p$ (3) $x_{ij} \le x_{ii}$ i,j = 1, ..., n $x_{ij} \in \{0,1\}$ i,j = 1, ..., ni,j = 1, ..., n(4) (5) Vittorio Maniezzo - University of Bologna

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p-median in PULP
     import numpy as np
    import pandas as pd
    df = pd.read_csv("data/pmedval.csv", header=None)
    c = df.values

p = 3 + number of clusters
    n = len(c)
    # decision variables
categ = 'Binary'; # 'Continuous''
X = LpVariable.dicts('X_%s_%s', (range(n), range(n)), cat = categ, lowBound = 0, upBound = 1)
# create the LP object, set up as a min problem
     prob = LpProblem('PMedian', LpMinimize)
    # cost function
    # cost function prob += sum( sum(c[i][j] * X[i][j] for j in range(n)) for i in range(n)) # p clusters constraint (x_iii = 1 is chosen as median) prob += (sum(X[i][i] for i in range(n)) == p , "p medians") # assignment constraint
    for j in range(n):

prob += (sum(X[i][j] for i in range(n)) == 1, "Assignment %d" % j)
    for i in range(n):
for j in range(n):
    prob.writeLP("p-median.lp")
     # view the model
    print(prob)
# solve the model
    prob.solve()
print("Status:",LpStatus[prob.status])
    print("Objective: ",value(prob.objective))
for v in prob.variables():
          if(v.varValue > 0):
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```

Commedian heuristics. 1) Simple greedy. Just as the one described for k-means 2) Lagrangian. Can relax either constraints (2) or constraint (3). Either can be a project. Insatnces can be retrieved from http://people.brunel.ac.uk/~mastjjb/jeb/orlib/pmedinfo.html