AIMMS Modeling Guide - Integer Programming Tricks

This file contains only one chapter of the book. For a free download of the complete book in pdf format, please visit www.aimms.com or order your hard-copy at www.lulu.com/aimms.

Copyright © 1993-2011 by Paragon Decision Technology B.V. All rights reserved.

Paragon Decision Technology B.V.

Schipholweg 1 2034 LS Haarlem The Netherlands

Tel.: +31 23 5511512 Fax: +31 23 5511517 Paragon Decision Technology Inc.

500 108th Avenue NE

Ste. # 1085 Bellevue, WA 98004 USA

Tel.: +1 425 458 4024 Fax: +1 425 458 4025 Paragon Decision Technology Pte.

Ltd.

80 Raffles Place UOB Plaza 1, Level 36-01 Singapore 048624

Tel.: +65 9640 4182

Email: info@aimms.com WWW: www.aimms.com

AIMMS is a registered trademark of Paragon Decision Technology B.V. IBM ILOG CPLEX and sc CPLEX is a registered trademark of IBM Corporation. GUROBI is a registered trademark of Gurobi Optimization, Inc. KNITRO is a registered trademark of Ziena Optimization, Inc. XPRESS-MP is a registered trademark of FICO Fair Isaac Corporation. Mosek is a registered trademark of Mosek Aps. Windows and Excel are registered trademarks of Microsoft Corporation. T_{EX} , ET_{EX} , and A_{MS} - ET_{EX} are trademarks of the American Mathematical Society. Lucida is a registered trademark of Bigelow & Holmes Inc. Acrobat is a registered trademark of Adobe Systems Inc. Other brands and their products are trademarks of their respective holders.

Information in this document is subject to change without notice and does not represent a commitment on the part of Paragon Decision Technology B.V. The software described in this document is furnished under a license agreement and may only be used and copied in accordance with the terms of the agreement. The documentation may not, in whole or in part, be copied, photocopied, reproduced, translated, or reduced to any electronic medium or machine-readable form without prior consent, in writing, from Paragon Decision Technology B.V.

Paragon Decision Technology B.V. makes no representation or warranty with respect to the adequacy of this documentation or the programs which it describes for any particular purpose or with respect to its adequacy to produce any particular result. In no event shall Paragon Decision Technology B.V., its employees, its contractors or the authors of this documentation be liable for special, direct, indirect or consequential damages, losses, costs, charges, claims, demands, or claims for lost profits, fees or expenses of any nature or kind.

In addition to the foregoing, users should recognize that all complex software systems and their documentation contain errors and omissions. The authors, Paragon Decision Technology B.V. and its employees, and its contractors shall not be responsible under any circumstances for providing information or corrections to errors and omissions discovered at any time in this book or the software it describes, whether or not they are aware of the errors or omissions. The authors, Paragon Decision Technology B.V. and its employees, and its contractors do not recommend the use of the software described in this book for applications in which errors or omissions could threaten life, injury or significant loss.

This documentation was typeset by Paragon Decision Technology B.V. using \LaTeX and the Lucida font family.

Chapter 7

Integer Linear Programming Tricks

As in the previous chapter "Linear Programming Tricks", the emphasis is on abstract mathematical modeling techniques but this time the focus is on *integer* programming tricks. These are not discussed in any particular reference, but are scattered throughout the literature. Several tricks can be found in [Wi90]. Other tricks are referenced directly.

This chapter

Only *linear* integer programming models are considered because of the availability of computer codes for this class of problems. It is interesting to note that several practical problems can be transformed into linear integer programs. For example, integer variables can be introduced so that a nonlinear function can be approximated by a "piecewise linear" function. This and other examples are explained in this chapter.

Limitation to linear integer programs

7.1 A variable taking discontinuous values

This section considers an example of a simple situation that cannot be formulated as a linear programming model. The value of a variable must be either zero or between particular positive bounds (see Figure 7.1). In algebraic notation:

A jump in the bound

$$x = 0$$
 or $l \le x \le u$

This can be interpreted as two constraints that cannot both hold simultaneously. In linear programming only simultaneous constraints can be modeled.



Figure 7.1: A discontinuous variable

This situation occurs when a supplier of some item requires that if an item is ordered, then its batch size must be between a particular minimum and maximum value. Another possibility is that there is a set-up cost associated with the manufacture of an item.

Applications

To model discontinuous variables, it is helpful to introduce the concept of an *indicator variable*. An indicator variable is a binary variable (0 or 1) that indicates a certain state in a model. In the above example, the indicator variable y is linked to x in the following way:

Modeling discontinuous variables

$$y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x = 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } l \le x \le u \end{cases}$$

The following set of constraints is used to create the desired properties:

$$x \le uy$$
$$x \ge ly$$
$$y \quad \text{binary}$$

It is clear that y = 0 implies x = 0, and that y = 1 implies $l \le x \le u$.

7.2 Fixed costs

A fixed cost problem is another application where indicator variables are added so that two mutually exclusive situations can be modeled. An example is provided using a single-variable. Consider the following linear programming model (the sign " \geq " denotes either " \leq ", "=", or " \geq " constraints).

The model

Minimize:
$$C(x)$$
 Subject to:
$$a_i x + \sum_{j \in J} a_{ij} w_j \gtrless b_i \qquad \forall i \in I$$

$$x \geq 0$$

$$w_j \geq 0 \qquad \forall j \in J$$
 Where:
$$C(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x = 0 \\ k + cx & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

As soon as x has a positive value, a fixed cost is incurred. This cost function is not linear and is not continuous. There is a jump at x = 0, as illustrated in Figure 7.2.

In the above formulation, the discontinuous function is the objective, but such a function might equally well occur in a constraint. An example of such a fixed-cost problem occurs in the manufacturing industry when set-up costs are charged for new machinery.

Application

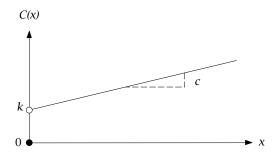


Figure 7.2: Discontinuous cost function

A sufficiently large upper bound, u, must be specified for x. An indicator variable, y, is also introduced in a similar fashion:

Modeling fixed costs

$$y = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x = 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

Now the cost function can be specified in both x and y:

$$C^*(x, y) = ky + cx$$

The minimum of this function reflects the same cost figures as the original cost function, except for the case when x > 0 and y = 0. Therefore, one constraint must be added to ensure that x = 0 whenever y = 0:

$$x \le u \gamma$$

Now the model can be stated as a mixed integer programming model. The formulation given earlier in this section can be transformed as follows.

The equivalent mixed integer program

Minimize: Subject to:

$$ky + cx$$

$$a_i x + \sum_{j \in J} a_{ij} w_j \ge b_i \qquad \forall i \in I$$

$$x \le uy$$

$$x \ge 0$$

$$w_j \ge 0 \qquad \forall j \in J$$

$$y \quad \text{binary}$$

7.3 Either-or constraints

Consider the following linear programming model:

The model

Minimize:

$$\sum_{j\in J} c_j x_j$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j} x_j \le b_1 \tag{1}$$

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j} x_j \le b_2$$

$$x_j \ge 0 \qquad \forall j \in J$$
(2)

Where: at least one of the conditions (1) or (2) must hold

The condition that at least one of the constraints must hold cannot be formulated in a linear programming model, because in a linear program *all* constraints must hold. Again, a binary variable can be used to express the problem. An example of such a situation is a manufacturing process, where two modes of operation are possible.

Consider a binary variable y, and sufficiently large upper bounds M_1 and M_2 , which are upper bounds on the activity of the constraints. The bounds are chosen such that they are as tight as possible, while still guaranteeing that the left-hand side of constraint i is always smaller than $b_i + M_i$. The constraints can be rewritten as follows:

Modeling either-or constraints

(1)
$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j} x_j \le b_1 + M_1 y$$
(2)
$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j} x_j \le b_2 + M_2 (1 - y)$$

When y=0, constraint (1) is imposed, and constraint (2) is weakened to $\sum_{j\in J} a_{2j}x_j \le b_2 + M_2$, which will always be non-binding. Constraint (2) may of course still be satisfied. When y=1, the situation is reversed. So in all cases one of the constraints is imposed, and the other constraint may also hold. The problem then becomes:

Minimize:

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j \in J} c_j x_j$$

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j} x_j \le b_1 + M_1 y$$

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j} x_j \le b_2 + M_2 (1 - y)$$

$$x_j \ge 0 \qquad \forall j \in J$$

$$y \quad \text{binary}$$

The equivalent mixed integer program

7.4 Conditional constraints

A problem that can be treated in a similar way to either-or constraints is one that contains conditional constraints. The mathematical presentation is limited to a case, involving two constraints, on which the following condition is imposed.

The model

If (1)
$$(\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j}x_j \le b_1)$$
 is satisfied,
then (2) $(\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j}x_j \le b_2)$ must also be satisfied.

Let A denote the statement that the logical expression "Constraint (1) holds" is true, and similarly, let B denote the statement that the logical expression "Constraint (2) holds" is true. The notation $\neg A$ and $\neg B$ represent the case of the corresponding logical expressions being false. The above conditional constraint can be restated as: A *implies* B. This is logically equivalent to writing $(A \text{ and } \neg B)$ is false. Using the negation of this expression, it follows that $\neg (A \text{ and } \neg B)$ is true. This is equivalent to $(\neg A \text{ or } B)$ is true, using Boolean algebra. It is this last equivalence that allows one to translate the above conditional constraint into an either-or constraint.

Logical equivalence

One can observe that

If
$$(\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j}x_j \le b_1)$$
 holds, then $(\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j}x_j \le b_2)$ must hold,

Modeling conditional constraints

is equivalent to

$$(\sum_{j\in J}a_{1j}x_j>b_1)$$
 or $(\sum_{j\in J}a_{2j}x_j\leq b_2)$ must hold.

Notice that the sign in (1) is reversed. A difficulty to overcome is that the strict inequality "not (1)" needs to be modeled as an inequality. This can be achieved by specifying a small tolerance value beyond which the constraint is regarded as broken, and rewriting the constraint to:

$$\sum_{j \in I} a_{1j} x_j \ge b_1 + \epsilon$$

This results in:

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j} x_j \ge b_1 + \epsilon, \quad or \quad \sum_{j \in J} a_{2j} x_j \le b_2 \quad \text{must hold.}$$

This last expression strongly resembles the either-or constraints in the previous section. This can be modeled in a similar way by introducing a binary

variable y, a sufficiently large upper bound M on (2), and a sufficiently lower bound L on (1). The constraints can be rewritten to get:

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{1j} x_j \ge b_1 + \epsilon - Ly$$

$$\sum_{j \in J} a_{2j} x_j \le b_2 + M(1 - y)$$

You can verify that these constraints satisfy the original conditional expression correctly, by applying reasoning similar to that in Section 7.3.

7.5 Special Ordered Sets

There are particular types of restrictions in integer programming formulations that are quite common, and that can be treated in an efficient manner by solvers. Two of them are treated in this section, and are referred to as *Special Ordered Sets* (SOS) of type 1 and 2. These concepts are due to Beale and Tomlin ([Be69]).

This section

A common restriction is that out of a set of yes-no decisions, at most one decision variable can be yes. You can model this as follows. Let y_i denote zero-one variables, then

SOS1 constraints

$$\sum_{i} y_i \le 1$$

forms an example of a SOS1 constraint. More generally, when considering variables $0 \le x_i \le u_i$, then the constraint

$$\sum_{i} a_i x_i \le b$$

can also become a SOS1 constraint by adding the requirement that at most one of the x_i can be nonzero. In AIMMS there is a constraint attribute named Property in which you can indicate whether this constraint is a SOS1 constraint. Note that in the general case, the variables are no longer restricted to be zero-one variables.

A general SOS1 constraint can be classified as a logical constraint and as such it can always be translated into a formulation with binary variables. Under these conditions the underlying branch and bound process will follow the standard binary tree search, in which the number of nodes is an exponential function of the number of binary variables. Alternatively, if the solver recognizes it as a SOS1 constraint, then the number of nodes to be searched can be reduced. However, you are advised to only use SOS sets if there exists an natural order relationship among the variables in the set. If your model contains multiple SOS sets, you could consider specifying priorities for some of these SOS sets.

SOS1 and performance

To illustrate how the SOS order information is used to create new nodes during the branch and bound process, consider a model in which a decision has to be made about the size of a warehouse. The size of the warehouse should be either 10000, 20000, 40000, or 50000 square feet. To model this, four binary variables x_1 , x_2 , x_3 and x_4 are introduced that together make up a SOS1 set. The order among these variables is naturally specified through the sizes. During the branch and bound process, the split point in the SOS1 set is determined by the weighted average of the solution of the relaxed problem. For example, if the solution of the relaxed problem is given by $x_1 = 0.1$ and $x_4 = 0.9$, then the corresponding weighted average is $0.1 \cdot 10000 + 0.9 \cdot 50000 = 46000$. This computation results in the SOS set being split up between variable x_3 and x_4 . The corresponding new nodes in the search tree are specified by (1) the nonzero element is the set $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ (i.e. $x_4 = 0$) and (2) $x_4 = 1$ (and $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$).

SOS1 branching

Another common restriction, is that out of a set of nonnegative variables, at most two variables can be nonzero. In addition, the two variables must be adjacent to each other in a fixed order list. This class of constraint is referred to as a type SOS2 in AIMMS. A typical application occurs when a non-linear function is approximated by a piecewise linear function. Such an example is given in the next section.

SOS2 constraints

7.6 Piecewise linear formulations

Consider the following model with a separable objective function:

The model

Minimize:
$$\sum_{j\in J} f_j(x_j)$$
 Subject to:
$$\sum_{j\in J} a_{ij}x_j \gtrless b_i \qquad \forall i\in I$$

$$x_j \geq 0 \qquad \forall j\in J$$

In the above general model statement, the objective is a *separable function*, which is defined as the sum of functions of scalar variables. Such a function has the advantage that nonlinear terms can be approximated by piecewise linear ones. Using this technique, it may be possible to generate an integer programming model, or sometimes even a linear programming model (see [Wi90]). This possibility also exists when a constraint is separable.

Separable function

Some examples of separable functions are:

$$x_1^2 + 1/x_2 - 2x_3 = f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_2) + f_3(x_3)$$

$$x_1^2 + 5x_1 - x_2 = g_1(x_1) + g_2(x_2)$$

Examples of separable functions

The following examples are not:

$$x_1x_2 + 3x_2 + x_2^2 = f_1(x_1, x_2) + f_2(x_2)$$

 $1/(x_1 + x_2) + x_3 = g_1(x_1, x_2) + g_2(x_3)$

Consider a simple example with only one nonlinear term to be approximated, namely $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$. Figure 7.3, shows the curve divided into three pieces that are approximated by straight lines. This approximation is known as piecewise linear. The points where the slope of the piecewise linear function changes (or its domain ends) are referred to as breakpoints. This approximation can be expressed mathematically in several ways. A method known as the λ -formulation is described below.

Approximation of a nonlinear function

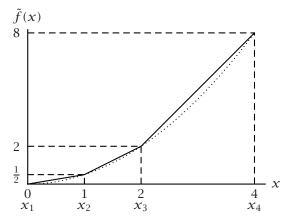


Figure 7.3: Piecewise linear approximation of $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$

Let x_1, x_2, x_3 and x_4 denote the four breakpoints along the x-axis in Figure 7.3, and let $f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3)$ and $f(x_4)$ denote the corresponding function values. The breakpoints are 0, 1, 2 and 4, and the corresponding function values are 0, $\frac{1}{2}$, 2 and 8. Any point in between two breakpoints is a weighted sum of these two breakpoints. For instance, $x = 3 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4$. The corresponding approximated function value $\tilde{f}(3) = 5 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 8$.

Weighted sums

Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \lambda_4$ denote four nonnegative weights such that their sum is 1. Then the piecewise linear approximation of f(x) in Figure 7.3 can be written as:

λ-Formulation

$$\lambda_{1}f(x_{1}) + \lambda_{2}f(x_{2}) + \lambda_{3}f(x_{3}) + \lambda_{4}f(x_{4}) = \tilde{f}(x)$$
$$\lambda_{1}x_{1} + \lambda_{2}x_{2} + \lambda_{3}x_{3} + \lambda_{4}x_{4} = x$$
$$\lambda_{1} + \lambda_{2} + \lambda_{3} + \lambda_{4} = 1$$

with the added requirement that at most two adjacent λ 's are greater than zero. This requirement together with the last constraint form the SOS2 con-

straint referred to at the end of the previous section. The SOS2 constraints for all separable functions in the objective function together guarantee that the points $(x, \tilde{f}(x))$ always lie on the approximating line segments.

The added requirement that at most two adjacent λ 's are greater than zero can be modeled using additional binary variables. This places any model with SOS2 constraints in the realm of integer (binary) programming. For this reason, it is worthwhile to investigate when the added adjacency requirements are redundant. Redundancy is implied by the following conditions.

Adjacency requirements sometimes redundant

- 1. The objective is to *minimize* a separable function in which all terms $f_i(x_i)$ are *convex* functions.
- 2. The objective is to *maximize* a separable function in which all terms $f_i(x_i)$ are *concave* functions.

A function is convex when the successive slopes of the piecewise linear approximation are nondecreasing, and concave if these slopes are non-increasing. A concave cost curve can represent an activity with economies of scale. The unit costs decrease as the number of units increases. An example is where quantity discounts are obtained.

Convexity and concavity

The adjacency requirements are no longer redundant when the function to be approximated is non-convex. In this case, these adjacency requirements must be formulated explicitly in mathematical terms.

The case of a non-convex function

In AIMMS you do not need to formulate the adjacency requirements explicitly. Instead you need to specify sos2 in the property attribute of the constraint in which the λ 's are summed to 1. In this case, the solver in AIMMS guarantees that there will be at most two adjacent nonzero λ 's in the optimal solution. If the underlying minimization model is convex, then the linear programming solution will satisfy the adjacency requirements. If the model is not convex, the solver will continue with a mixed integer programming run.

SOS2 in AIMMS

7.7 Elimination of products of variables

This section explains a method for linearizing constraints and objective functions in which the products of variables are incorporated. There are numerous applications that give rise to nonlinear constraints and the use of integer variables. These problems become very difficult, if not impossible, to solve.

This section

In general, a product of two variables can be replaced by one new variable, on which a number of constraints is imposed. The extension to products of more than two variables is straightforward. Three cases are distinguished. In the third case, a separable function results (instead of a linear one) that can then be approximated by using the methods described in the previous section.

Replacing product term

Firstly, consider the binary variables x_1 and x_2 . Their product, x_1x_2 , can be replaced by an additional binary variable y. The following constraints force y to take the value of x_1x_2 :

Two binary variables

$$y \le x_1$$

$$y \le x_2$$

$$y \ge x_1 + x_2 - 1$$

$$y \text{ binary}$$

Secondly, let x_1 be a binary variable, and x_2 be a continuous variable for which $0 \le x_2 \le u$ holds. Now a continuous variable, y, is introduced to replace the product $y = x_1x_2$. The following constraints must be added to force y to take the value of x_1x_2 :

One binary and one continuous variable

$$y \le ux_1$$

$$y \le x_2$$

$$y \ge x_2 - u(1 - x_1)$$

$$y \ge 0$$

The validity of these constraints can be checked by examining Table 7.1 in which all possible situations are listed.

x_1	x_2	x_1x_2	constraints	imply
0	$w:0\leq w\leq u$	0	$y \leq 0$	y = 0
			$y \leq w$	
			$y \ge w - u$	
			$y \ge 0$	
1	$w:0\leq w\leq u$	w	$y \leq u$	y = w
			$y \leq w$	
			$y \ge w$	
			$y \ge 0$	

Table 7.1: All possible products $y = x_1x_2$

Thirdly, the product of two continuous variables can be converted into a separable form. Suppose the product x_1x_2 must be transformed. First, two (continuous) variables y_1 and y_2 are introduced. These are defined as:

Two continuous variables

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2)$$
$$y_2 = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 - x_2)$$

Now the term x_1x_2 can be replaced by the separable function

$$y_1^2 - y_2^2$$

which can be approximated by using the technique of the preceding section. Note that in this case the non-linear term can be eliminated at the cost of having to approximate the objective. If $l_1 \le x_1 \le u_1$ and $l_2 \le x_2 \le u_2$, then the bounds on y_1 and y_2 are:

$$\frac{1}{2}(l_1 + l_2) \le y_1 \le \frac{1}{2}(u_1 + u_2)$$
 and $\frac{1}{2}(l_1 - u_2) \le y_2 \le \frac{1}{2}(u_1 - l_2)$

The product x_1x_2 can be replaced by a single variable z whenever

Special case

- \blacksquare the lower bounds l_1 and l_2 are nonnegative, and
- one of the variables is not referenced in any other term except in products of the above form.

Assume, that x_1 is such a variable. Then substituting for z and adding the constraint

$$l_1x_2 \le z \le u_1x_2$$

is all that is required to eliminate the nonlinear term x_1x_2 . Once the model is solved in terms of z and x_2 , then $x_1=z/x_2$ when $x_2>0$ an x_1 is undetermined when $x_2=0$. The extra constraints on z guarantee that $l_1 \le x_1 \le u_1$ whenever $x_2>0$.

7.8 Summary

In practical applications, integer linear programming models often arise when discontinuous restrictions are added to linear programs. In this chapter, some typical examples have been shown, along with methods to reformulate them as integer programs. The binary "indicator variable" plays an important role. With the aid of binary variables it is possible to model discontinuities in variables or objectives, as well as either-or constraints and conditional constraints. By conducting a piecewise linear approximation of a nonlinear program, containing a separable nonlinear objective function, it may be possible to generate a linear programming model or perhaps an integer programming model. At the end of the chapter, methods for eliminating products of variables are described.

Bibliography

- [Be69] E.M.L. Beale and J.A. Tomlin, *Special facilities in a general mathemati- cal programming system for non-convex problems using ordered sets of variables*, Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Operations Research (Tavistock, London) (J. Lawrence, ed.), 1969.
- [Wi90] H.P. Williams, *Model building in mathematical programming*, 3rd ed., John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, 1990.