

5 A BRANCH-AND-PRICE ALGORITHM FOR THE P-MEDIAN DISTRICTING PROBLEM – ONGOING AND PLANNED WORK

Abstract. The p -Median Districting Problem is the most prevalent problem in districting domains. Given a planar graph G , it asks for a p -partition of G into connected and balanced components called districts, such that the partition's compactness, given by its p -median cost, is minimized. In this chapter we present our preliminary work on an exact branch-and-price algorithm to solve this problem. It uses a set partitioning formulation over the set of all feasible districts, whose linear relaxation is known to yield tighter dual bounds than standard formulations. We extend the previous method of Mehrotra et al. [155], who solved this model with column generation within a branch-and-price framework, with several improvements. These include an exact solution to the pricing subproblem, Lagrangean-based dual bounding and variable fixing techniques, early branching strategies and an improved primal solution. Experiments show that our method produces better root lower bounds than other formulations, but that column generation struggles with convergence and degeneracy, which ultimately make the proposed branch-and-price worse than existing solutions. We discuss how we intend to address these issues.

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter we present our ongoing work on an exact branch-and-price algorithm for the p -Median Districting Problem (PMDP). We have defined the PMDP in [Section 2.3.2](#). We chose this problem for three reasons. First, it is also considered by Mehrotra et al. [155], Salazar-Aguilar et al. [197] and Validi et al. [222], who have broken new grounds in districting problems from a MIP perspective and whose methods we build upon. Second, as we saw in [Section 2.3.2](#) p -median as a com-

pactness function has been used widely across several domains, and has a number of desired properties such as favoring connectivity, inducing low routing costs, and being responsive to changes. Third, the problem has no domain-specific constraints, which allows us to strive for generality and maintain our focus on the methods rather than the application. For this reason, here we also consider a single balancing attribute.

We consider the set partitioning formulation of Garfinkel and Nemhauser [78], which we have introduced in Section 2.4.1.3. Rather than an assignment of units to medians, as the Hess model (2.10), it seeks a partition of V from elements of the set $\mathcal{F} = \{V' \subseteq V \mid \text{connected}(V') \wedge L \leq w(V') \leq U\}$ of connected and balanced districts. (Recall that L and U are the lower and upper balancing limits.) Let variables $z_j \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathcal{F}}$ be such that

$$z_j = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if district } j \in \mathcal{F} \text{ is selected in the final districting plan,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (5.1)$$

and let $c_j = C_{pm}(j) = \min_{c \in j} \sum_{i \in j} d_{ic}$ be the p -median cost function for district $j \in \mathcal{F}$. The set partitioning model is then defined as:

$$\text{minimize} \quad \sum_{j \in \mathcal{F}} z_j c_j \quad (5.2a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j \in \mathcal{F}} z_j = p, \quad (5.2b)$$

$$\sum_{j \in \mathcal{F} \mid i \in j} z_j = 1 \quad \forall i \in V, \quad (5.2c)$$

$$z_j \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{F}. \quad (5.2d)$$

Although this formulation has been used by several authors [78, 155, 46, 17, 99, 161], nearly all proposed methods either consider a heuristically-generated set of districts in place of \mathcal{F} , or use heuristic pruning rules to solve the model, which makes the methods not exact. To our knowledge, the only exact method on a related formulation is from Bender et al. [16], who consider a multi-period districting problem and solve it through branch-and-price. However, in that problem the union of all districts is not required to be a partition of V , and districts need not be connected, which makes it fundamentally different from the PMDP.

Mehrotra et al. [155] have used Garfinkel and Nemhauser [78]'s model in a branch-and-price to solve the PMDP. Because the model has exponentially many variables, they solved its linear relaxation by column generation. However, because the pricing

subproblem of finding a minimum-cost, connected and balanced district is computationally difficult, Mehrotra et al. [155] solved a simplified version of it which made their branch-and-price not exact.

In this chapter, we revisit the approach of Mehrotra et al. [155] with the goal of proposing an exact branch-and-price method. Since their work, a number of techniques have become available which we believe make this possible. They include:

- efficient ways to enforce connectivity in districting models, studied by Salazar-Aguilar et al. [197] and Validi et al. [222] and which make the pricing subproblem tractable;
- the Lagrangean-based variable fixing approach of Validi et al. [222], which fixes about 90% of variables in the Hess model for instances of fewer than 1000 units, and further eases the burden of the pricing subproblem;
- high-quality heuristic solvers for the PMDP proposed by Validi et al. [222], Ríos-Mercado et al. [193] and ourselves in Chapter 3, which we use both as primal bounds for branch-and-price and to seed initial columns for column generation;
- techniques such as Lagrangean lower bounding for early termination, dual stabilization to mitigate the tailing-off effect, early branching and effective column management techniques, which have appeared as the literature on column generation matured [150, 223, 52]; and
- valid inequalities for knapsack constraints such as lifted cover inequalities, which have been studied at length [98] and could be used as cutting planes in a branch-and-cut-and-price method.

In the following sections we present in detail how we leverage some of these techniques to propose an improved, exact branch-and-price. Then, in Section 5.3 we report on early experiments that show that Model (5.2) produces much better lower bounds than that of Hess et al. [108]. Despite this, we find that column generation converges slowly and struggles with degeneracy, and therefore the proposed branch-and-price requires much more effort than a commercial solver running the Hess model. In Section 5.4 we present our plans to address this.

5.2 Proposed branch-and-price algorithm

We use the solution to the linear relaxation of Model (5.2), which we shall call the *linear master problem* (LMP), as dual bound in a branch-and-bound algorithm. The LMP can be obtained by substituting constraints (5.2d) with constraints $0 \leq z_j \leq$

$1 \forall j \in \mathcal{F}$. Since \mathcal{F} is exponentially-sized, we solve the LMP by column generation (Section 5.2.2).

Iteratively, we expand the next node in the branch-and-bound tree and solve its corresponding relaxation. If the optimal relaxed cost is higher than the cost of the incumbent, the node is fathomed. If the optimal solution to the LMP is fractional, we then proceed to generate two child branches that will solve subproblems with restricted domains. We explain our branching strategy in the next section. Otherwise, if it is not fractional, we update the incumbent and do not branch, since further branching cannot improve the solution. We expand nodes depth-first.

The initial incumbent solution is obtained by running the location-allocation heuristic of Validi et al. [222]. We chose this heuristic because it performed better in early tests for the real-world instances of Validi et al. [222] and Moreno et al. [161], which were our starting point. However, more experimental work is needed to determine if this heuristic is generally better than our heuristic of Chapter 3 or that of Ríos-Mercado et al. [193] for a broader instance set.

5.2.1 Branching

We use a variation of Ryan-Foster branching [196], similar to the one used by Mehrotra et al. [155]. It branches on the assignment of a pair of basic units $\{i, j\}$, with one branch forcing i and j to be assigned to the same district and the other forcing them to be assigned to different districts. Let B_{same} be the set of unit pairs which have been fixed to the same district, and B_{diff} be the set of unit pairs which have been fixed to different districts. In the Hess model, this would translate to cuts of the form

$$x_{ik} = x_{jk} \quad \forall \{i, j\} \in B_{\text{same}}, k \in V, \quad (5.3)$$

$$x_{ik} + x_{jk} \leq 1 \quad \forall \{i, j\} \in B_{\text{diff}}, k \in V. \quad (5.4)$$

Since they are in general not difficult to treat integrally, we include these cuts in the pricing subproblem rather than the RLMP. Namely, the following cuts are added to each pricing subproblem:

$$y_i = y_j \quad \forall \{i, j\} \in B_{\text{same}} \quad (5.5)$$

$$y_i + y_j \leq 1 \quad \forall \{i, j\} \in B_{\text{diff}}. \quad (5.6)$$

At the pricing subproblem rooted at unit k this leads to variable fixes $y_i = 1$ for each $\{i, k\} \in B_{\text{same}}$, and $y_i = 0$ for each $\{i, k\} \in B_{\text{diff}}$.

To choose units i and j to be branched on, given fractional solution $z^f \in \mathbb{R}^k$, Mehrotra et al. [155] selected first the unit i with the highest w_i in the most fractional column $s_1 \in [k]$. Then, they selected the most fractional column $s_2 \neq s_1$ such that $i \in s_2$, and chose some unit j such that $[j \in s_1] \neq [j \in s_2]$. Note that pair (s_1, s_2) must exist, since i) if the solution is not fractional no branching occurs and ii) if unit i is covered partially, constraints (5.2c) force multiple columns to cover i .

In the strategy above, units i and j are not necessarily neighbors in G . While B_{diff} fixes simply induce disjoint assignment constraints on the pricing subproblem, having a set of non-contiguous B_{same} fixes can make pricing significantly harder to solve, especially heuristically, since the selection of a unit v becomes conditioned to also finding a subset of V which connects $\{u \mid \{u, v\} \in B_{\text{same}}\}$. To mitigate this, we propose a branching strategy that branches only on neighboring units. Namely, given the most fractional column s_1 , we branch on units i, j such that $i \in N(j)$, $i \in s_1$, $j \notin s_1$, and $w_i + w_j$ is maximum. Such a pair must always exist unless $p = 1$, since $\delta(S) \neq \emptyset$ for any $S \neq V$.

This strategy ensures that the subgraph induced by $V_{\text{same}} = \bigcup_{p \in B_{\text{same}}} p$ has no connected component of size 1. At any branch-and-bound node the current branching decisions therefore induce a modified graph $G_{\text{rf}} = (V_{\text{rf}}, E_{\text{rf}})$ that merges sets of units fixed to B_{same} into a single unit, and removes edges between units fixed to B_{diff} . Let C be the set of connected components of $G(V_{\text{same}})$. Namely, we have

$$V_{\text{rf}} = (V \setminus V_{\text{same}}) \cup \bigcup_{c \in C} v_c$$

for new units v_c associated with each component $c \in C$, and

$$E_{\text{rf}} = E(V_{\text{rf}}) \setminus B_{\text{diff}} \cup \{\{i, v_c\} \mid i \in V_{\text{rf}}, c \in C, \exists k \in c : \{i, k\} \in E \setminus B_{\text{diff}}\}.$$

For each new unit v_c , $c \in C$ we set its weight as $w_{v_c} = w(c)$, its distances to units $i \in V$ as $d_{iv_c} = d_{v_c i} = \sum_{k \in c} d_{ik}$, and distances to other units $v_{c'}$, $c' \in C$ as $d_{v_c, v_{c'}} = \sum_{k \in c} \sum_{k' \in c'} d_{kk'}$. After every branching decision set C is updated in amortized cost $O(\alpha(n))$ using a union-find data structure, where α is the inverse Ackermann function [74].

5.2.1.1 Domain propagation and further pruning

After branching we use domain propagation to try and generate additional cuts or prune the branch-and-bound node, when possible. To this end we apply, in order, the following tests.

First, if $w_i + w_j > U$ for any $\{i, j\} \in E_{\text{rf}}$, add $\{i, j\}$ to B_{diff} . Otherwise, this would lead to a district that would violate upper balancing constraints.

Second, for each articulation node $i \in V_{\text{rf}}$ let $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_{|A|}\}$ be the disjoint parts of the articulation such that, for every $\{a_j, a_k\} \subseteq A$, no path in G_{rf} exists from a unit in a_j to a unit in a_k that does not pass through i . Let also $A_L = \bigcup_{a \in A | w(a) < L} a$ be the set of units in parts that weigh less than L . In a feasible solution each such part must be joined with i . Therefore, if $w_i + w(A_L) > U$ or if $\{i, j\} \in B_{\text{diff}}$ for any $j \in A_L$, we prune this branch-and-bound node. Otherwise, for each $j \in A_L$ we add $\{i, j\}$ to B_{same} .

Third, note that graph G_{rf} is not necessarily connected, since B_{diff} branches remove edges from E_{rf} , and that no district can have units in two different connected components. Let $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_{|B|}\}$ be the set of connected components of G_{rf} . Then, a feasible solution must contain anywhere between $\lceil w(b)/U \rceil$ and $\lfloor w(b)/L \rfloor$ districts per connected component $b \in B$. This leads to the feasibility problem

$$\text{exists } x \quad (5.7a)$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{b \in B} x_b = p, \quad (5.7b)$$

$$\lceil w(b)/U \rceil \leq x_b \leq \lfloor w(b)/L \rfloor \quad \forall b \in B, \quad (5.7c)$$

$$x \in \mathbb{N}^{|B|}, \quad (5.7d)$$

with variable x_b denoting the number of districts placed in connected component b . If [Model \(5.7\)](#) is not feasible, then there is no way to distribute p districts over the components B , and the branch-and-bound node can be pruned. [Model \(5.7\)](#) can be solved by computing $\text{feasible}(0, 0)$ in the recurrence

$$\text{feasible}(i, j) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } i = |B| \wedge j = p, \\ \text{false} & \text{if } i = |B| \wedge j \neq p, \\ \bigvee_{\lceil w(b_i)/U \rceil \leq k \leq \lfloor w(b_i)/L \rfloor} \text{feasible}(i+1, j+k) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (5.8)$$

This can be done in $O(p|B|)$ time by dynamic programming on arguments i and j .

Unfortunately, in early experiments we found that these domain propagation techniques were not effective. In nearly all instances the granularity of unit weights is too

fine compared to bounds L and U , and so these rules only activate at deep branches where B_{same} induces high weights and G_{rf} is connectivity-restricted by B_{diff} . However, branch-and-bound nodes seldom reached such depths, since they were either fathomed or not branched due to integrality of the LMP solution much earlier.

5.2.2 Solving the LMP with column generation

We use column generation to solve the LMP. For an overview on column generation, see Lübbecke and Desrosiers [150]. Iteratively, it solves the *restricted* linear master problem (RLMP) given by

$$\text{minimize} \quad \sum_{j \in J} z_j c_j \quad (5.9a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j \in J} z_j = p, \quad (5.9b)$$

$$\sum_{j \in J | i \in j} z_j = 1 \quad \forall i \in V, \quad (5.9c)$$

$$0 \leq z_j \leq 1 \quad \forall j \in J, \quad (5.9d)$$

which is defined over a set of feasible districts $J \subset \mathcal{F}$. Then, it searches for new columns (districts) of negative reduced cost from $\mathcal{F} \setminus J$ to include in J . If no such columns exist, then the optimal solution to the RLMP is also optimal for the LMP, and the algorithm stops.

Let π_0 be the dual variable associated with constraint (5.9b), and $\pi_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the dual variable vector associated with constraints (5.9c). Then, the reduced cost of including column $z_j, j \in J$ is given by $c_j - \sum_{i \in j} \pi_i^1 - \pi_0$. To find a column with minimum reduced cost, the pricing problem

$$\text{minimize}_{u \in V} \quad -\pi^0 + \sum_{i \in V \setminus \{u\}} y_i (d_{iu} - \pi_i^1) \quad (5.10a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad L \leq \sum_{i \in V} w_i y_i \leq U, \quad (5.10b)$$

$$y \text{ induces a connected subgraph of } G, \quad (5.10c)$$

$$y_u = 1, \quad (5.10d)$$

$$y_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i \in V \setminus \{u\}, \quad (5.10e)$$

is solved. It consists of n independent subproblems, one for each $u \in V$, and its optimal solution can be obtained by taking the solution y^* of minimum value among

the subproblems. If it has negative value, column generation adds the column $\{i \in V \mid y_i^* = 1\}$ to the RLMP.

Pricing does not need to be solved exactly at each iteration: as long as negative reduced cost columns are found, even if heuristically, column generation converges towards the optimal solution [52]. Therefore, to save time we adopt a four-staged approach to generating new columns:

1. to search for columns in a global column pool shared across all branch-and-bound nodes;
2. to search for columns using a simple semi-greedy multistart heuristic to look for columns quickly, without a significant time investment;
3. to run the matheuristic of Mehrotra et al. [155]'s, which solves Model (5.10) with restricted connectivity constraints;
4. to solve Model (5.10) optimally by branch-and-bound.

At any stage, if negative reduced cost columns are found, we add them to the RLMP and reoptimize it, then go back to stage 1. This is akin to a variable neighborhood search [103] through $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{F})$ space, but without the randomization step. In this way, pricing is only solved optimally at the last step when all heuristics fail, or in order to prove that the RLMP is optimal by showing no more negative reduced cost columns exist. Solving the RLMP and thus updating duals π^0 and π^1 is usually a better approach than to solve pricing to optimality every time, since to find optimal solutions is a bottleneck. Whenever possible we add multiple new columns per iteration, which is generally recommended [150].

Algorithm 14 outlines our column generation method. In the following sections we describe how we obtain set J initially, then detail each of the four stages above. We also explain early branching and Lagrangean bounding techniques we have used.

As a note, we have also experimented with the covering version of Model (5.9), which substitutes constraints (5.9c) by $\sum_{j \in J \mid i \in j} z_j \geq 1 \forall i \in V$. However, in practice there was little difference in performance between the two formulations.

5.2.2.1 Initial column set and managing infeasible columns

Set J in the root node of branch-and-bound is initialized with the districts of the initial primal solution. If the primal solution is feasible, then the introduced columns will be a feasible solution to the RLMP since they are a p -partition of V . If it is not feasible, however, to induce feasibility we introduce p artificial columns a_1, \dots, a_p such that $a_i = V$ and $c_{a_i} = \infty$. Because of their high cost, these columns are priced

Algorithm 14 Solving the LMP by column generation.

Input: a branch-and-bound node with column set J , and the current incumbent solution S .

Output: the LMP solution value.

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1: if we are at the root node of branch-and-bound then
2:    $J \leftarrow \{S_i \mid i \in P\}$ 
3:  $\mathcal{L} \leftarrow -\infty$ 
4: repeat
5:   solve Model \(5.9\) with columns  $J$  to obtain duals  $\pi^0, \pi^1$  and upper bound  $v$ 
6:   if  $v < C_{pm}(S)$  then ▷ early branching, see Section 5.2.5
7:     return  $\mathcal{L}$ 
8:    $C \leftarrow \text{searchColumnPool}(\pi^0, \pi^1)$ 
9:   if  $C = \emptyset$  then
10:     $C \leftarrow \text{greedyMultistart}(\pi^0, \pi^1)$ 
11:    if  $C = \emptyset$  then
12:       $C \leftarrow \text{matheuristic}(\pi^0, \pi^1)$ 
13:      if  $C = \emptyset$  then
14:         $C, \tau \leftarrow \text{exactPricing}(\pi^0, \pi^1)$ 
15:        if  $C = \emptyset$  then
16:          return  $v$  ▷  $v$  is optimal
17:         $\mathcal{L} \leftarrow \text{solveLagrangean}(\tau, \pi^0, \pi^1)$  ▷ see Section 5.2.3
18:        if  $\mathcal{L} + \epsilon \geq v$  or  $\mathcal{L} \geq C_{pm}(S)$  then
19:          return  $\mathcal{L}$ 
20:         $\text{lagrangeanFixing}(\tau, \pi^0, \pi^1)$  ▷ see Section 5.2.3.1
21:    $J \leftarrow J \cup \{C\}$ 

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out immediately in the first iterations of column generation.

Intermediate branch-and-bound nodes inherit the set of columns from their parent, except columns which violate the branching decision (5.5) or (5.6). Because instantiating data structures for the RLMP and the pricing IPs is computationally expensive, in our implementation upon branching one child receives the parent's data structures and the other child has them generated anew. In the former, violated columns z_j are then disabled by setting $c_j = \infty$, while in the latter they are never created. This leads to violated columns being removed from the model after every two branches, on average.

5.2.2.2 Column pool

We maintain a global column pool $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ shared by all branch-and-bound nodes, comprising all negative reduced cost columns generated so far. At each iteration, before attempting to generate new columns we first scan \mathcal{P} looking for columns with negative reduced cost w.r.t. current duals π^0, π^1 and are feasible w.r.t. the node's branching decisions. All such columns are then added to the RLMP.

For each column $j \in \mathcal{P}$ we cache its p -median cost $C_{pm}(j)$. Then, j 's reduced cost $rc(j) = C_{pm}(j) - \pi^0 - \sum_{i \in j} \pi_i^1$ can be computed in $O(|j|)$ time. We further speed this up by keeping a hash table of the current column set J , and testing whether a candidate $j \in \mathcal{P}$ is in it. If this is the case, then by definition $rc(j) \geq 0$. While this test has the same worst-case runtime of $O(|j|)$, in practice it is worth doing. To test whether j respects branching decisions, we also maintain a boolean vector $h_i^j = [i \in j]$ for each $j \in \mathcal{P}$, so that feasibility can be checked in $O(|B_{same}| + |B_{diff}|)$ by testing whether $h_u^j = h_v^j$ for $\{u, v\} \in B_{same}$ and $h_u^j + h_v^j \leq 1$ for $\{u, v\} \in B_{diff}$.

5.2.2.3 Greedy multistart heuristic

If no more negative reduced cost columns are found in \mathcal{P} , we first look for new columns with a fast multistart semi-greedy heuristic. For each "root" unit $u \in V$ we repeat the heuristic $iter_{gr}$ times, and so it is executed $n \cdot iter_{gr}$ times in total, where $iter_{gr}$ is a parameter. Each time the heuristic results in a negative reduced cost column, we add it to the RLMP.

Given root unit $u \in V$, let $v \in V_{rf}$ be the unit which accounts for u in G_{rf} . Then, a greedy solution seeded at v is built as follows.

1. Start with solution $S = \{v\}$, exclusion set $B = \{i \mid \{i, v\} \in B_{diff}\}$, and candidate

set $K = N_{rf}(v)$. Here, $N_{rf}(v) = \{i \mid \{i, v\} \in E_{rf}\}$ denotes the neighborhood of v in G_{rf} , and we loosely extend the definition of B_{diff} to include units in G_{rf} .

2. Remove from K all units k such that either i) $k \in B$, ii) $w(S) + w_k > U$, or iii) $w(S) \geq L \wedge d_{kv} - \pi_k > 0$. Then, if $K = \emptyset$, stop and return S . Note that test iii) disallows adding positive cost units if the solution already weighs L , since they cannot improve the solution and the heuristic does not remove units from S , and that we stop adding units before $w(S)$ reaches U .
3. Move one randomly-chosen unit k such that $(f(k_{best}) - f(k))/f(k_{best}) \leq \alpha_{gr}$ from K to S , where $f(i) = (\pi_i - d_{iv})/w_i$, $k_{best} = \operatorname{argmin}_{k \in K} f(k)$, and α_{gr} is a parameter. Fitness function f gives preference to assignments with lowest reduced costs contribution over weight ratios, since they have the highest impact in the final reduced cost.
4. Add to K any neighbors of k which are not in $K \cup S$, and add to B any unit i such that $\{i, k\} \in B_{diff}$. Go to step 2.

The full method is shown in [Algorithm 15](#). Note that connectivity is guaranteed, since we only consider the addition of neighbor units. In our implementation, we have fixed $\alpha_{gr} = 0.2$ and $iter_{gr} = 5$.

Algorithm 15 Greedy multistart heuristic for pricing.

Input: a dual vector $\pi \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- 1: **for** $u \in V$ **do**
 - 2: **for** $iter_{gr}$ iterations **do**
 - 3: $v \leftarrow v_c : c \in C, u \in c$
 - 4: $S \leftarrow \{v\}$
 - 5: $K \leftarrow N_{rf}(v)$
 - 6: $B \leftarrow \{i \mid \{i, v\} \in B_{diff}\}$
 - 7: **while** $K \neq \emptyset$ **do**
 - 8: $k_{best} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_{k \in K} f(k)$
 - 9: $k \leftarrow$ a random element from $\{k \in V \mid (f(k_{best}) - f(k))/f(k_{best}) \leq \alpha_{gr}\}$
 - 10: $S \leftarrow S \cup \{k\}$
 - 11: $B \leftarrow B \cup \{i \in V_{rf} \mid \{i, k\} \in B_{diff}\}$
 - 12: $K \leftarrow (K \cup N_{rf}(k)) \setminus (S \cup B)$
 - 13: $K \leftarrow K \setminus \{k \in V_{rf} \mid w(S) + w_k > U \vee (w(S) \geq L \wedge d_{kv} - \pi_k > 0)\}$
 - 14: add column S to the RLMP if $L \leq w(S) \leq U$.
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5.2.2.4 Mehrotra et al. [155]'s matheuristic

If the greedy heuristic above does not find columns of negative reduced cost, in a second step we run the matheuristic proposed by Mehrotra et al. [155] for the

pricing problem. It solves by branch-and-bound [Model \(5.10\)](#) with connectivity constraints [\(5.10c\)](#) replaced by tree-like constraints

$$y_i \leq \sum_{k \in N(i) | s_{ku} < s_{iu}} y_k \quad \forall i \in V \setminus \{u\} \quad (5.11)$$

for given center unit u . Here, s_{ij} denotes the length of the shortest path (in hops) from unit i to unit u in G . These constraints ensure that unit $i \in V$ can only be selected if some neighbor $k \in N(i)$ closer to u than i is also selected, and thus force solutions to be shortest-path trees rooted at u . Since [Model \(5.10\)](#) decomposes into n independent subproblems, one for each u , we solve the subproblems separately and add to the RLMP all solutions which have negative reduced cost. Since columns of non-negative reduced cost are not useful, during branch-and-bound we prune any nodes with non-negative lower bounds.

Because constraints [\(5.11\)](#) force new columns to be shortest-path trees from u , they may exclude feasible columns which are not. This leads to a restricted problem that is significantly easier than solving [Model \(5.10\)](#) with e.g. flow or cutset connectivity constraints. In practice, we find that this restricted model is better at generating negative reduced cost columns than the greedy heuristic, but at a higher computational cost. This is why we use it as an intermediary solution between the simple greedy heuristic and the exact solution.

Mehrotra et al. [\[155\]](#) made a further simplification to their heuristic: to fix $y_i = 0$ for any i such that $s_{iu} > \delta$, for parameter δ (in the original paper, δ was fixed to 3). In early experiments, however, we found that doing this did not bring any significant performance benefits, and thus to avoid introducing a parameter that probably does not generalize to multiple instance sizes, we do not use this simplification.

5.2.2.5 Exact pricing

Finally, we solve [Model \(5.10\)](#) exactly by branch-and-bound. Like the previous section, because [Model \(5.10\)](#) decomposes into n independent subproblems, we solve each one separately and add to the RLMP all solutions of negative cost. In each problem, we prune intermediate nodes with non-negative lower bounds, since they will never result in a negative reduced cost column.

In the pricing subproblem we model connectivity with a single-commodity flow approach, which we have reviewed in [Section 2.4.1.4](#). Given reference unit u , it uses

constraints

$$\sum_{j \in N(i)} (f_{ij} - f_{ji}) = y_i \quad \forall i \in V \setminus \{u\}, \quad (5.12a)$$

$$\sum_{j \in N(i)} f_{ij} \leq (n-1)y_i \quad \forall i \in V \setminus \{u\}, \quad (5.12b)$$

$$\sum_{j \in N(u)} f_{uj} = 0, \quad (5.12c)$$

$$f_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \forall (i,j) \in A, \quad (5.12d)$$

where A is the arc-directed version of E .

We have also experimented to treat connectivity with the subtour elimination approach of constraints (2.24) and the cutset approach of (2.25) (see Section 2.4.1.4 for an overview). In practice, however, we found that in many subproblems branch-and-bound required a huge number of lazy cuts and sometimes did not terminate within the time limit. We think this is because formulations based on lazy cuts are well-suited when the objective function is correlated to connectivity, such as p -median, since the expected number of cuts is small, but not otherwise. Because Model (5.10)'s objective subtracts dual values, it can have negative coefficients and therefore its optimal solution is less likely to be naturally connected.

5.2.3 Lagrangean dual bounding

Consider the following model obtained by relaxing partition constraints (2.10c) of the Hess model (2.10) in a Lagrangean way:

$$\text{minimize} \quad \sum_{i,j \in V} x_{ij} d_{ij} + \sum_{i \in V} \lambda_i \left(1 - \sum_{j \in V} x_{ij}\right) \quad (5.13a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j \in V} x_{jj} = p, \quad (5.13b)$$

(2.10d) to (2.10f),

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the Lagrangean multiplier vector for the dualized constraints. Combining like terms, we can rewrite objective (5.13a) as

$$\sum_{i,j \in V} \left(x_{ij} (d_{ij} - \lambda_i)\right) + \sum_{i \in V} \lambda_i. \quad (5.14)$$

Observe that, for fixed j , constraints (2.10d) to (2.10f) and the first summation of (5.14) amount to an independent subproblem which is equivalent to solving the pricing subproblem (5.10) for center $u = j$, with $\pi_i^1 = \lambda_i$ and $\pi^0 = 0$. Let τ_j be the optimal solution to this subproblem. Then, Model (5.13) equates to

$$\text{minimize} \quad \sum_{j \in V} x_{jj} \tau_j + \sum_{i \in V} \pi_i^1 \quad (5.15a)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \sum_{j \in V} x_{jj} = p, \quad (5.15b)$$

$$x_{jj} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall j \in V, \quad (5.15c)$$

and can be solved in $O(n \log p)$ time by setting $x_{jj} = 1$ for the p units j with minimal τ_j . This means that when we solve the pricing problem optimally and obtain τ_j for $j \in V$, we can compute Model (5.15) to obtain a valid lower bound \mathcal{L} for the LMP.

We use lower bound \mathcal{L} to halt column generation early, in two ways. First, given the current incumbent value u^* we stop if $\mathcal{L} \geq u^*$, since this means the branch-and-bound node will be fathomed. Second, since the current solution v to the RLMP is an upper bound for the LMP, we define a maximum gap ϵ (in our implementation, we use $\epsilon = 10^{-4}$) and stop iterating if $\mathcal{L} + \epsilon \geq v$, then return \mathcal{L} as a dual bound. This helps alleviate the tailing-off effect which is a common issue in column generation [150], but as a downside it requires us to branch even if the current solution to the RLMP is integral, since we cannot prove its optimality without solving column generation until the end.

5.2.3.1 Variable fixing

We also use Model (5.15) to prove whether an optimal solution must (or must not) contain columns with certain centers. This is done as follows. Let i_1, \dots, i_n be such that $\tau_{i_j} \leq \tau_{i_{j+1}}$ for $j \in [n-1]$. Then, if

$$\tau_{i_k} + \sum_{j \in [p-1]} \tau_{i_j} + \sum_{j \in V} \pi_j^1 > u^* \quad (5.16)$$

for $k \in [n] \setminus [p]$ and primal bound u^* , we can fix $x_{kk} = 0$ in the Hess model. In the RLMP, this amounts to setting

$$z_j = 0 \quad \forall j \in J(k), \quad (5.17)$$

where $J(k) = \{j \in J \mid c^{pm}(j) = k\}$. This also means we can safely skip solving the pricing subproblem rooted at $u = k$, since any feasible column it yields can also be obtained from other subproblems.

Similarly, if

$$-\tau_{i_k} + \sum_{j \in [p+1]} \tau_{i_j} + \sum_{j \in V} \pi_j^1 > u^* \quad (5.18)$$

for $k \in [p]$, we can fix $x_{kk} = 1$ in the Hess model. In the RLMP, this amounts to adding constraint

$$\sum_{j \in J(k)} z_j = 1. \quad (5.19)$$

5.2.4 Column management and optimal medians

All three pricing solutions (the greedy heuristic, the matheuristic and exact pricing) consider n subproblems with a fixed median, or root. Note, however, that given root $j \in V$ and column $i \in \mathcal{F}$ generated for j by one of these algorithms, it can be so that $j \neq c^{pm}(i)$, i.e. j is not the optimal median for i . Therefore, before adding column i to the RLMP we compute its optimal median in $O(|i|^2)$ time.

A problem arises when we fix out medians, which we do during Lagrangean bounding and also during instance pre-processing, as we shall see in [Section 5.3](#). If the optimal median $k = c^{pm}(i)$ is such that x_{kk} is fixed to 0, we compute i 's cost with the best available median. Namely, the objective coefficient of column i is computed as

$$c_i = \min \left\{ \sum_{u \in i} d_{uj} \mid j \in i, x_{jj} \text{ is not fixed to } 0 \right\}. \quad (5.20)$$

When variable x_{kk} is fixed to 0, we also update the cost of all existing columns which use k as median.

The main drawback of this strategy is that it allows columns in the RLMP that will never be selected in an optimal integer solution, even if they are penalized by higher costs. Another issue is that, in practice, the same column often ends up being generated by multiple pricing subproblems of fixed medians, which is unnecessarily repeated work.

One way to address this is to never generate columns with suboptimal centers in the first place. We have experimented with this by forcing the pricing subproblem with root j to only generate columns where j is the optimal median. In [Model \(5.10\)](#),

we did this by adding constraints

$$\sum_{i \in V} d_{ij} y_i \leq M(1 - y_k) + \sum_{i \in V} d_{ik} y_i \quad \forall k \in V \setminus \{j\}, \quad (5.21)$$

where M is a large constant. They force that, if $k \in V \setminus \{j\}$ is selected, it cannot be a better median than j . Unfortunately, we found that these constraints made the models too hard to solve, and column generation was intractable. We also experimented with adding these constraints lazily, with little effect. Still, we think the convergence of column generation could be improved if there would be an efficient way to enforce optimal medians.

5.2.5 Early branching

Despite our use of heuristics to speed up column generation and of Lagrangean bounds to combat tailing-off, we find that column generation still takes too long to terminate. We have identified two reasons for this. First, due to degeneracy column generation often gets stuck at plateaus of equal solution value over several iterations, which causes slow convergence. We discuss this issue in more detail in [Section 5.3.4](#). Second, the exact pricing solver sometimes encounters difficult subproblems whose solution requires a substantial number of branch-and-bound nodes, and this tends to dominate the running time.

In an attempt to mitigate these issues, under certain circumstances we stop column generation early and branch. The first is if the RLMP's solution value v is lower than the incumbent value u^* , i.e. when we know the branch-and-bound node will no longer be fathomed. The second is if any call to exact pricing takes longer than a time limit, which we have fixed to 10 seconds. This addresses the first issue above.

The downside of branching early is that we forgo information on the optimal solution to the LMP which could be used to make better branching decisions, or even not branch at all if that solution is integral, thereby potentially reducing the number of nodes expanded. In practice, however, we find that early branching considerably reduces the time spent per branch-and-bound node.

5.3 Experimental work

In this section, we report on early computational experiments. In [Section 5.3.1](#) we describe the instance sets used. In [Section 5.3.2](#) we compare the results of our branch-and-price with the current best methods in the literature, which solve Hess

et al. [108]’s model by treating connectivity with flow constraints [222], and sub-tour elimination constraints [197]. Next, in Section 5.3.3 we compare lower bounds obtained at the root node of branch-and-bound for the different formulations, and discuss how lower bounds could be improved in our case. Then, in Section 5.3.4 we present statistics on column generation and analyze its main issues and bottlenecks, then speculate on how they might be addressed.

We ran all experiments on a PC with a 12-core AMD Ryzen 9 3900X processor and 32 GB of main memory, running Ubuntu Linux 20.04. For each test we set a time limit of 30 minutes, and use only one thread. Our algorithms were coded in C++ and compiled with GCC 9.3.0 with maximum optimization. For solving the MIP models we use CPLEX 20.1.0. Since our algorithm depends little on randomization (namely, to generate initial primal solutions and in greedy multistart pricing, where the randomization is amortized since it is called many times), we ran each test with a fixed random seed.

In all tests, as a preprocessing step we apply the Lagrangean-based variable fixing approach of Validi et al. [222], which we described in Section 2.4.1.5. As we will see in the next section, it fixes a significant percentage (over 80%) of Hess model variables in all instances. For a fair comparison, we apply variable fixing to all algorithm variants we consider in our experiments. To obtain the upper bound needed for variable fixing we run the location-allocation heuristic of Validi et al. [222], which we also use as an initial primal solution, as we have mentioned in Section 5.2.2.1. Since variable fixing depends on solving the LP relaxation of the Hess model, which is very slow for $n \geq 500$, we do not include the runtime for solving the LP in our final results. Because we use variable fixing in all compared variants, this does not affect our interpretation of the results.

5.3.1 Test instances

For our tests we use the smaller instance sets SRC and RF, described in Section 3.4. Since sets SRC and RF were generated for problems of $|A| = 3$ balancing attributes, we transform them to single-attribute instances by taking $w_i = (w_i^1 + w_i^2 + w_i^3)/3$. Additionally, we include two instance sets from a political districting domain in the United States, introduced by Validi et al. [222]: *counties* and *tracts*. These real-world instances range in size from $n = 44$ to $n = 1115$, but generally require fewer districts, with $p = 1$ to $p = 53$. In our experiments, we have removed several trivial instances of $p = 1$. For tract-level instances we use a reduced set *tracts-R* which contains only

Table 5.1: Test instance data.

Inst.	Source	#	n	m	p	UB _h	LB _L	Fix. (%)	Cens.
SRC	[197]	20	60	101	4	0.08	-2.61	91.4	15
counties	[222]	9	77	188	4	0.11	-5.64	82.3	21
SRC	[197]	20	80	140	5	0.51	-3.82	81.4	44
SRC	[197]	20	100	177	6	0.66	-2.35	84.9	50
SRC	[197]	20	120	215	7	0.53	-2.46	83.7	74
SRC	[197]	10	150	271	8	0.95	-2.35	84.9	88
SRC	[197]	10	200	368	11	1.40	-2.44	81.4	163
RF/DS	[190]	20	500	955	10	1.08	-0.51	88.2	258
RF/DT	[190]	20	500	950	10	1.15	-0.53	86.8	289
tracts-R	[222]	14	667	1,795	4	0.01	-0.13	97.4	50

instances which Validi et al. [222] have solved optimally within 1 hour, since it is unlikely that our method will be able to solve any of the other instances.

Table 5.1 summarizes data for the instances used. We show, for each instance set (Inst.) the number of instances (#), the average instance size (n, m and p), the average initial primal (UB_h) and Lagrangean (LB_L, computed by Validi et al. [222]’s variable fixing method) bounds relative to best known lower bound per instance, the percentage (Fix. (%)) of Hess model variables fixed to zero during pre-processing, and the number of center (Cens.) variables not fixed to zero by pre-processing. We see that preprocessing significantly reduces effective instances sizes and fixes most centers, which are usually the complicating variables in the Hess model. This effect is more apparent for instance sets tracts-R and counties. We think this is because their unit topologies are less uniform.

5.3.2 Comparison to other exact approaches

In this section we compare our proposed branch-and-price to the formulations of Validi et al. [222], which we call “Flow”, and of Salazar-Aguilar et al. [197], which we call “Subtour”. We solve them using CPLEX. Both formulations include inequalities (2.12) for strength, and differ in how connectivity is handled: Flow uses multi-commodity flow constraints (2.27), while Subtour uses subtour elimination constraints (2.24), which are added as lazy constraints during branch-and-bound. We have also considered the cutset-based formulation of Validi et al. [222], but as reported by the authors it performs nearly identically to Flow. This was also corroborated by our early experimentation, hence we only include Flow in the comparison.

Table 5.2 shows the results. Results for our branch-and-price are shown under

Table 5.2: Results for the proposed branch-and-price and the current best solutions in the literature.

Inst.	n	Flow				Subtour				B&P			
		t	LB	UB	Opt.	t	LB	UB	Opt.	t	LB	UB	Opt.
SRC	60	0.5	0.00	0.00	20	0.4	0.00	0.00	20	0.8	0.00	0.00	20
counties	77	4.1	0.00	0.00	9	4.0	0.00	0.00	9	190.7	0.00	0.00	9
SRC	80	3.6	0.00	0.00	20	2.0	0.00	0.00	20	165.5	0.00	0.00	20
SRC	100	21.7	0.00	0.00	20	18.4	0.00	0.00	20	348.0	-0.45	0.00	18
SRC	120	9.5	0.00	0.00	20	5.9	0.00	0.00	20	338.7	-0.24	0.00	18
SRC	150	33.6	0.00	0.00	10	54.2	0.00	0.00	10	720.0	-1.19	0.41	7
SRC	200	440.9	-0.26	0.06	8	302.2	0.00	0.00	9	1,457.3	-1.17	1.18	2
RF/DS	500	978.6	-0.34	0.58	11	642.8	0.00	0.10	17	1,800.0	-0.51	1.17	0
RF/DT	500	1,248.0	-0.32	0.39	8	646.4	0.00	0.21	17	1,422.0	-0.37	1.06	0
tracts-R	667	671.8	-0.06	0.00	10	437.7	0.00	0.00	11	1,686.9	-0.13	0.01	1
Avg./Tot.		341.2	-0.10	0.10	136	211.4	0.00	0.03	153	813.0	-0.41	0.38	95

“B&P”. For each method and instance set we show the average running time (t) in seconds, the average final lower (LB) and upper (UB) bounds relative to the best known lower bound per instance, and the number of instances solved to optimality (Opt.).

At a first glance we see that the subtour formulation of Salazar-Aguilar et al. [197] is a clear winner, finding the best known lower bound in every single run and in less time, ultimately solving the most instances (153). Flow ranks second at 136 instances, as it falls short at larger instances of $n \geq 500$. Our branch-and-price is able to handle smaller instances of $n \leq 100$ with high running times, but struggles on larger ones, and ultimately solves only 95 instances. As we shall see in the next two experiments, this is caused by a combination of three factors: i) the slow convergence of column generation, ii) the difficulty in solving the pricing subproblem, and iii) weaker lower bounds caused by our lack of automatic cutting plane generation.

5.3.3 Comparison of dual bounds

In this experiment we assess empirically the formulation strength of branch-and-price’s set partitioning reformulation, compared to Flow and Subtour. Table 5.3 shows the relevant statistics, using data from the experiment of Section 5.3.2. We report, for each instance set, the average initial heuristic upper bound (UB_h), Lagrangean lower bound ($LB_{\mathcal{L}}$), and Hess LP bound (LB_{LP}), without connectivity constraints. Then, for each formulation we report the lower bound obtained after solving the root node

Table 5.3: Empirical comparison of lower bound strengths.

Inst.	n	UB _h	LB _c	LB _{LP}	Flow		Subtour		B&P	
					Nd.	LB _{root}	Nd.	LB _{root}	Nd.	LB _{root}
DU60	60	0.08	-2.61	-2.61	0.6	-0.07	2.5	-0.05	2.7	-0.19
counties	77	0.11	-5.64	-5.64	72.4	-2.26	305.0	-2.36	37.8	-2.27
DU80	80	0.51	-3.82	-3.82	41.1	-1.48	43.7	-1.47	86.7	-1.54
DU100	100	0.66	-2.35	-2.35	21.7	-1.13	13.9	-1.11	190.5	-1.01
DU120	120	0.53	-2.46	-2.46	61.3	-0.90	94.7	-0.92	125.2	-0.75
DU150	150	0.95	-2.35	-2.35	14.1	-1.45	21.9	-1.48	135.3	-1.37
DU200	200	1.40	-2.44	-2.44	44.0	-1.41	58.5	-1.44	45.0	-1.25
DS	500	1.08	-0.51	-0.51	—	-0.46	—	-0.46	—	-0.51
DT	500	1.15	-0.53	-0.53	—	-0.46	—	-0.45	—	-0.37
tracts-R	667	0.01	-0.13	-0.13	0.0	-0.12	0.0	-0.09	1.0	-0.13
Avg./Tot.		0.65	-2.29	-2.29	31.9	-0.97	67.5	-0.98	78.0	-0.94

of branch-and-bound (LB_{root}) and the average number of branch-and-bound nodes (Nd.), for instances which were solved by all variants. All upper and lower bounds are relative to the best known lower bound.

First, we see that Lagrangean bounds and Hess LP bounds are identical in all instances. This was unexpected, considering that reduced cost analysis in the Lagrangean yields substantially more variable fixes than in the Hess LP, in the method of Validi et al. [222]. We believe a further investigation of this phenomenon is warranted. It might be interesting, for instance, to compare optimal bounds between all possible combinations of dualized constraints among (2.10b) to (2.10e).

We also see that branch-and-price's LB_{root} is better than LB_{LP}. This is expected, since as we discussed in Section 2.4.1.3 the set partitioning formulation is tighter than Hess's. Branch-and-price also generally has stronger root bounds than Flow and Subtour when solved with CPLEX, but not always; see e.g. instance sets DU80 and DU100. This is likely because CPLEX uses generic cutting planes to strengthen dual bounds. Looking at the number of branch-and-bound nodes expanded, we see this effect accentuated in practice as both Subtour and Flow actually expand fewer nodes than branch-and-price, despite having weaker formulations. This shows that a tighter formulation alone does not compensate a lack of strong cuts, and marks a clear path for future improvement of our method. Another possibility is that this difference could be due to branching and node expansion strategies.

Comparing Flow and Subtour, we see that Flow expands fewer than half the nodes of Subtour, but spends significantly more effort in each node, as indicated by running times in Table 5.2. Because Subtour has no connectivity cuts at the root, its root

Table 5.4: Column generation statistics.

Inst.	n	Iter.	Cols.	t_{LP}	t_{mh}	t_{ex}	t_{prf}	col_{pl}	col_{gr}	col_{mh}	col_{ex}
DU60	60	18	7.4	1.2	20.2	19.7	8.0	3.5	78.7	13.8	4.0
counties	77	242	3.3	4.3	39.4	45.1	1.8	14.4	51.0	29.3	5.3
DU80	80	31	8.1	3.2	35.4	42.0	3.2	21.3	55.0	17.3	6.4
DU100	100	64	7.1	5.6	34.9	38.9	2.5	19.1	55.5	17.7	7.8
DU120	120	44	10.5	6.9	37.4	38.1	2.7	24.7	52.4	17.0	5.9
DU150	150	51	7.9	8.5	35.7	33.7	1.7	26.8	50.3	17.0	5.9
DU200	200	21	5.5	11.0	31.5	37.1	1.3	40.9	40.6	13.2	5.4
DS	500	330	94.4	39.4	1.0	52.8	0.0	0.0	93.9	6.0	0.0
DT	500	160	68.3	72.1	6.3	7.9	0.2	1.1	81.7	13.6	3.5
tracts-R	667	714	154.4	79.8	13.4	5.6	0.0	0.0	89.8	9.8	0.4

bound is (expectedly) worse than Flow's, on average. Strangely, this was not the case for instance sets DU80 and DU100. For some reason, CPLEX's presolve was able to strengthen the model better when flow constraints were not present.

5.3.4 Column generation analysis

In this section, we analyze how the different components of column generation contribute to convergence and running time. In early experiments, we realized that different parts of column generation were the bottleneck depending on the instance. Our goal in this experiment is to highlight the major issues that make branch-and-price not competitive, and to reflect on how they might be addressed.

In Table 5.4 we display some statistics using data from the experiment of Section 5.3.2. For each instance set we show averages of the number of column generation iterations per branch-and-bound node (Iter.), the number of new columns added per iteration (Cols.), and the running times (relative to the total running time of branch-and-price, in percent) for solving the RLMP with Simplex (t_{LP}), the pricing matheuristic of Section 5.2.2.4 (t_{mh}), exact pricing (t_{ex}), and of the last column generation iteration (t_{prf}), where exact pricing is required to obtain an optimality proof for the RMP. We also show the relative number of columns (in percent) which were added by each of the four methods outlined in Section 5.2.2: searching the global column pool (col_{pl}), greedy heuristic (col_{gr}), matheuristic (col_{mh}) and exact pricing (col_{ex}).

For smaller instances ($n \leq 200$), we see that the time to solve the RLMP accounts for less than 10% of running time, as fewer columns are needed to reach optimality. In larger instances ($n \geq 500$), however, the number of columns and consequently

the LP time increase drastically. Since the RLMP is highly degenerate, in these large instances we find that new columns rarely enter the base, even if they have negative reduced costs. This leads to plateau periods during column generation where the solution value v of the RLMP remains unchanged despite a very large number of columns being added. In nearly all instances of data sets DS, DT and tracts-R, v never improved from the initial primal solution, and negative reduced cost columns continued to be added for several iterations until the LP became over encumbered and the time limit was reached. This phenomenon was also recognized by Gurnee and Shmoys [100], who suggest that it is caused by the fact that the columns generated rarely “fit” together to form p -partitions of V , especially in large instances.

In instances that branch-and-price consistently solves ($n \leq 120$), most of the computational effort is split between the matheuristic and exact pricing, each taking about 30 to 40% of the total running time. This is despite these methods producing only about a quarter of all columns. However, looking at column t_{prf} we see that the cost to prove optimality is rather small in comparison to t_{ex} , usually less than 5% of the total running time. This indicates that most exact pricing runs could be avoided by having a better heuristic. Moreover, we see the global column pool and greedy heuristic work as intended, as they are extremely fast and combined generate over 70% of all columns, on average.

5.4 Conclusion and planned work

In this chapter we presented our ongoing work on an exact branch-and-price algorithm for the p -Median Districting Problem. We have extended the heuristic of Mehrotra et al. [155], which uses branch-and-price on a set partitioning formulation, with several techniques from the literature. These techniques include i) a layered approach that uses heuristics and a column pool to find columns quickly, ii) an exact solution to the pricing problem which uses flow constraints to model connectivity, iii) the use of early branching during column generation, including Lagrangean dual bounding, and iv) the use of variable fixing techniques from the literature as pre-processing step.

In computational experiments we find that our method generally finds better lower bounds as it uses a tighter formulation, but solves fewer instances than other approaches. This is because column generation faces a number of issues, which we discuss in the following.

First, due to high degeneracy of the RLMP, in large instances column generation is slow to converge as it requires a huge number of columns to make progress on the

objective value. Because the RLMP is degenerate, its dual has fewer constraints than variables and thus admits many optimal solutions. As a consequence, column generation alternates between these (often distant) dual solutions of equal value without making progress. A known approach to mitigate this effect, which we intend to investigate, is dual stabilization [56]. It limits the variation between consecutive dual solutions through several techniques, lessening the back-and-forth effect.

Another possible solution to the degeneracy issue is to generate sets of columns that form p -partitions of V , instead of single columns that do not “fit together”. This would make columns more likely to enter the base and not remain unused. This could be done, e.g. by changing the pricing subproblem to generate feasible districting plans such that one or more districts are negative reduced cost columns. This would make pricing significantly more costly to solve, however. Another way is to use the binary partitioning approach of Gurnee and Shmoys [100], which recursively partitions the problem into two smaller subproblems and generates several solutions to each.

Second, as we discussed in Section 5.3.3 our branch-and-price implementation requires more node expansions than CPLEX does for the flow and subtour formulations. This difference is likely due to a combination of i) better lower bounds obtained through the automatic generation of valid inequalities, ii) node selection techniques, iii) branching rules. We will investigate how our method can be improved in these aspects. In particular, (i) appears to be the most promising, and we will consider valid inequalities which have been used for similar capacitated location problems such as lifted cover inequalities [98] and Fenchel cuts [24].

Third, as we saw in Table 5.4, exact pricing consumes almost half the total running time of branch-and-price, but most calls to it could have been avoided if heuristic pricing had found a negative reduced cost column. Therefore, a better heuristic could help to improve running times by up to 30-40%, and possibly more on larger instances. While this will certainly help, it is however clear that this speed up alone will not be sufficient to make branch-and-price competitive.

Last, we will experiment with enforcing connectivity by subtour-based lazy constraints, as in Salazar-Aguilar et al. [197], on the master problem. Currently, exact pricing uses flow constraints to ensure every single column is connected; unfortunately, because of degeneracy, this means significant effort is invested into generating connected columns that end up not being used. To enforce connectivity lazily in the master, rather than fully during pricing, would make exact pricing considerably easier to solve. As a downside, this enlarges significantly the space of feasible columns, which could slow down the convergence of column generation. Another issue might

be that we will not be able to stop branching once an integer solution is found, since it could have disconnected columns. In this case, we could use the heuristic of Validi et al. [222] to repair disconnectivity, which was effective in their method.

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