

Internship Report – Extending a Verified SMT Solver for Mixed-Integer Linear Arithmetic

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Introduction

In the field of decision problems, the theory of linear arithmetic is composed by linear inequalities. Algorithms to solve linear arithmetic problems over rational numbers have been proposed [4], and formalized in Isabelle – a proof assistant – in order to have a verified implementation [9, 1, 10]. When some variables of the problem are required to be integral, we talk about integer or mixed-integer linear problems. The goal of this internship is to extend a verified solver for linear arithmetic to mixed-integer linear arithmetic.

In section 1, I will introduce the background for this work. In section 2, I will present an algorithm to solve mixed-integer linear problems and the mathematics required to prove its correctness. In section 3, I will describe the formalization of this algorithm in Isabelle. Finally, I will describe what remains to be done to complete this work⁴.

1 Background

1.1 The Isabelle Proof Assistant

Isabelle [7] is a generic proof assistant, and Isabelle/HOL (*HOL* is an abbreviation for *Higher Order Logic*) is a specialization that is generally used.

The features of Isabelle include the use of mathematical symbols to make the proof more readable and the use of automatic provers. Finally, Isabelle is generally used with the language *Isar* that allow us to conduct proofs in a structured way.

For example, here is a proof¹ of the Cantor Theorem – the fact that there is no surjection from a set A to its powerset – with Isabelle and Isar:

```
lemma "¬ surj (f :: 'a ⇒ 'a set)"
proof
  assume "surj f"
  hence "∃ a. {x. x ∉ f x} = f a" by blast
  thus False by auto
qed
```

The outline of the proof is the following:

- We assume that there exists a surjective function f from A to its powerset.
- We deduce that there exists an element a of A such that

$$f(a) = \{x \mid x \notin f(x)\}$$

- But from the previous fact we can deduce that both $a \in f(a)$ and $a \notin f(a)$ which is a contradiction (represented by the proposition **False**).

¹adapted from [6, Section 5.1]

The tactics `blast` and `auto` are used to prove each of these facts. These two tactics rely upon automatic provers.

It is also possible to define objects in the functional programming way in Isabelle/HOL and to export code. This way, it is possible to have a certified implementation of an algorithm by writing it in Isabelle/HOL, proving its correctness and exporting its code.

1.2 Linear Arithmetic

Let a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, b be real constants, x_0, \dots, x_{n-1} be variables and $\bowtie \in \{\leq, \geq, <, >\}$ be a comparison operator. With these parameters, we can define a linear constraint (or atom) c :

$$\sum_{i < n} a_i x_i \bowtie b$$

An assignment v is a function that maps variables to real numbers. We say that the assignment v satisfies the constraint c (or $v \models c$) if

$$\sum_{i < n} a_i v(x_i) \bowtie b$$

These formulas define a theory that we will call *linear arithmetic*. If C is a finite set of linear constraints, we will use the notation $v \models C$ for $\forall c \in C. v \models c$, and say that the assignment c satisfies the set of constraints C . The problem of finding such an assignment is called a *linear problem*.

Note that we are only interested in the decision problem – checking that a set of constraints admits a satisfying assignment – not the optimization problem – maximizing an objective function while satisfying the constraints –.

The other theory we will study is the theory of *mixed-integer linear arithmetic*. A mixed-integer linear problem (MILP) consists of a linear problem where some variables are required to be integral. We will only consider MILPs with only rational coefficients (or equivalently with integral coefficients). Furthermore, if all the variables are required to be integer, the problem is called an *integer linear problem* (ILP).

For example, here is a MILP:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 3x + y \geq 3 \\ 4y - x < 2 \end{array} \right\} \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

More formally, if S is a set of linear constraints, I is the set of variables that are required to be integral and v is a valuation, I will use the notation

$$v \models_I S$$

for $v \models S$ and $\forall x_i \in I. v(x_i) \in \mathbb{Z}$. We will say that the assignment v is a solution to the MILP characterized by the set of constraints C and the set of integral variables I .

Remark: Linear problems with rational coefficients are polynomial [8, Section 13, 18], while ILPs are NP-complete. The NP-hardness of ILPs (and therefore MILPs) can be shown by reduction from SAT to 0-1 ILPs. The inclusion in the class NP is more involved to prove, but a sketch of proof will be given later. Intuitively, it suggests that it is harder to solve MILPs efficiently than linear problems. Nevertheless, we will use simplex-based algorithms (which are not known to be polynomial in the worst case) to solve linear problems. More generally, we are more interested by algorithms efficient in practice than algorithms optimal in the worst-case.

1.3 SMT Solving

Let T be a quantifier-free theory. A T -solver is an algorithm that checks if a finite set of atoms of T can be satisfied. For linear or mixed-integer linear arithmetic, atoms are linear constraints and the work of a T -solver consists in deciding whether there exists an assignment that satisfies a set of constraints.

Let Φ be a boolean formula of atoms of the theory T . We may want to find an assignment v that satisfies Φ , or to know if no such assignment exists. This problem is called **Satisfiability Modulo Theory** (SMT).

For example, an SMT instance based on linear arithmetic would be:

$$(2x + y > 0 \vee z \leq 1) \wedge \neg(x \geq 0)$$

An efficient procedure to solve SMT problems is DPLL(T) [5, Section 3.2], which works as a combination of a SAT-solver and a T -solver. Here is a quick description of the procedure ²:

- Replace every atom by a SAT variable to obtain a SAT formula Φ . Run a SAT-solver to find a valuation of each variable to 0 or 1 that satisfies this SAT-formula.
- From this affectation, derive a conjunction of atoms. Run a T -solver to find an assignment that satisfies this conjunction.
- If an assignment v is found, return v
- If no assignment is found, from this conjunction find a contradicting subset of atoms. From this subset, derive a new constraint, add it to the SAT-formula Φ , and go to the first step.

To work efficiently in combination with the SAT-solver, we may assume that the T -solver implements the following interface:

- **Assert**(α): Asserts the atom α . It is added to the set of T -atoms that should be satisfied.

²An example of an execution of DPLL(T) with an incremental interface is given in appendix A

- **Check()**: Runs a T -solver to find an assignment to the set of asserted atoms. If such an assignment is found, returns it. Otherwise, returns a subset of inconsistent asserted atoms.
- **Checkpoint()**: Returns a checkpoint c that contains all the necessary information to backtrack to the current state.
- **Backtrack(c)**: Backtracks to the state represented by the checkpoint c .

We will call such an interface an *incremental interface* as it allows us to add or remove constraints without having to do all the computation from the beginning. A similar description can be found in [4] and [10, 1].

Dutertre and de Moura have proposed a Simplex-based solver with an incremental interface to solve linear arithmetic problems [4]. A partial version of this algorithm has been formalized in Isabelle by Spasić and Marić [9] and extended to use the incremental interface by Ralph Bottesch, Max Haslbeck and René Thiemann [10, 1]. The ultimate goal of this internship is to extend the previous work to mixed-integer linear arithmetic.

2 Resolution of Mixed-Integer Linear Problems

2.1 The Branch-and-Bound Algorithm

To solve ILPs and MILPs, we can use the *branch-and-bound* algorithm. [5, Section 5.3]. Though it is generally stated as an optimization algorithm, we will focus on its formulation for decision problems.

Let S and I be respectively the set of linear constraints and the set of integral variables of our problem. The principle of the algorithm is the following:

- Search a valuation v such that $v \models S$. If no solution exists, return **Unsatisfiable**.
- If for all $x_i \in I$, $v(x_i) \in \mathbb{Z}$, return v .
- If there exists a variable $x_i \in I$ such that $v(x_i) \notin \mathbb{Z}$, we can remark that for all solutions of this MILP, either the constraint $x_i \leq \lfloor v(x_i) \rfloor$ or the constraint $x_i \geq \lceil v(x_i) \rceil$ is satisfied.

We can then try to split our initial problem into two subproblems (this is the *branching step*):

- Recursively call branch-and-bound on the constraints set

$$S \cup \{x_i \leq \lfloor v(x_i) \rfloor\}$$

If a solution v' is found, return it.

- Recursively call branch-and-bound on the constraints set

$$S \cup \{x_i \geq \lceil v(x_i) \rceil\}$$

If a solution v' is found, return it.

- If after the branching step no solution is found, return **Unsatisfiable**.

The problem with this formulation is that the algorithm may loop. For example, let us examine the following ILP:

$$\begin{cases} 3x - 3y \geq 1 \\ 3x - 3y \leq 2 \end{cases} \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (1)$$

This problem has no solution, and its relaxation – that is the problem composed by the linear inequalities, without the integrality constraints – is unbounded, as shown in figure 2.1. Here is a possible execution of the branch-and-bound algorithm on this problem:

- Obtain the solution $(\frac{1}{3}, 0)$. The variable x is not integral. Try to solve the problem with the extra constraint $x \geq 1$.
- Obtain the solution $(1, \frac{1}{3})$. The variable y is not integral. Try to solve the new problem with the extra constraint $y \geq 1$.
- Obtain the solution $(1 + \frac{1}{3}, 1)$. The variable x is not integral. Try to solve the problem with the extra constraint $x \geq 2$.
- Obtain the solution $(2, 1 + \frac{1}{3})$. The variable y is not integral. Try to solve the new problem with the extra constraint $y \geq 2$.
- etc...

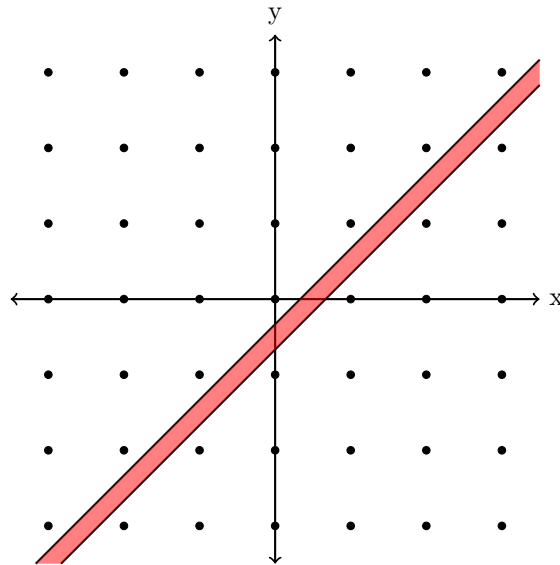


Figure 1: Solutions of the problem 1. The solutions of the relaxation lie in the red area.

In this case, the problem is unbounded and makes the branch-and-bound algorithm loop. This is why we will try to add to the original problem S constraints of the form

$$-B \leq x_i \leq B$$

for all variables x_i to obtain a bounded problem S' . Moreover, we want to choose the bound B such that the bounded problem S' is satisfiable if and only if the problem S is satisfiable³. This is what we are going to see in the next section.

2.2 Obtaining Bounds for ILPs and MILPs

First of all, let us remark that if a linear problem contains only large inequalities, it could be put in the form:

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \leq b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{p1}x_1 + \dots + a_{pn}x_n \leq b_p \end{cases}$$

or in the matrix form $Ax \leq b$ with

$$A = (a_{ij})_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq p \\ 1 \leq j \leq n}}$$

and $b = (b_j)_{1 \leq j \leq p}$. We identify a valuation of n variables to a vector of dimension n .

Now, we are going to give the outline of a proof that MILPs admit a solution if and only if they admit a solution of small size. In what follows, we will focus on ILPs, but the result can be easily extended to MILPs. Most of the definitions and results can be found in Schrijver's book [8, Sections 7 and 16].

Definition 1 (Finitely Generated Cone). *A set of points C is a finitely generated cone if and only if $C = \text{cone} \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ where*

$$\text{cone} \{x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}\} = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \lambda_i x_i \mid \lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{n-1} \geq 0 \right\}$$

for some x_0, \dots, x_{n-1} .

Definition 2 (Polyhedral Cone). *A set of points C is a polyhedral cone if and only if $C = \{x \mid Ax \leq 0\}$ for some matrix A .*

Theorem 1 (Farkas-Minkowsky-Weyl Theorem). *A set C is a finitely generated cone if and only if it is a polyhedral cone.*

Definition 3 (Polyhedron). *A set of points P is a convex polyhedron if and only if*

$$P = \{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$$

for some matrix A and vector b .

³We will call solutions of such a bounded problem *solutions of small size*.

Note that a polyhedron could be interpreted as the set of solutions of a linear problem with only non-strict inequalities.

Definition 4 (Polytope). *A set of points P is a polytope if and only if it is the convex hull of a finite set $C = \{x_0, \dots, x_{m-1}\}$, i.e*

$$P = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \lambda_i x_i \mid \lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{m-1} \geq 0 \wedge \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \lambda_i = 1 \right\}$$

We will also use the following notation: $P = \text{hull } C$.

Corollary 1 (Decomposition Theorem for Polyhedra). *A set of points P is a polyhedron if and only if there exists a polytope Q and a finitely generated cone C such that $P = Q + C$.*

To illustrate this theorem, let us take the following problem:

$$\begin{cases} -6x + 2y \leq 1 \\ 3x + 2y \geq 11 \\ 2y \geq 1 \\ 2x - 4y \leq 5 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

According to the theorems, the set of the solutions of this problem is a polyhedron. The decomposition of this polyhedron is represented in figure 2.2.

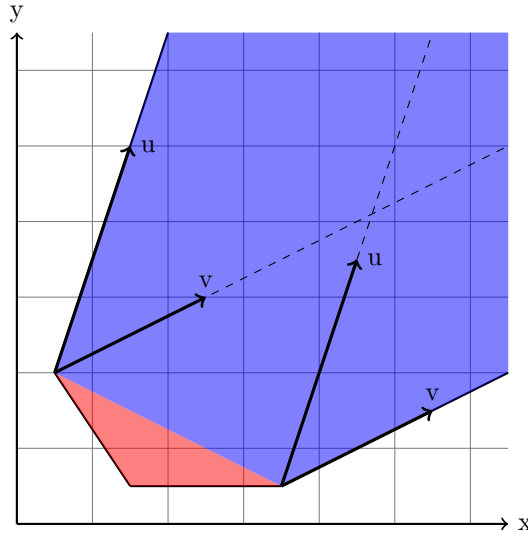


Figure 2: Decomposition of the polyhedron defined by the problem 2. The polyhedron is represented by the red and blue areas. As we can see, it is the sum of a polytope (the red triangle) and a cone (cone $\{u, v\}$).

Corollary 2. *P is a polytope if and only if P is a bounded polyhedron.*

Definition 5 (Integer Hull). *Given a polyhedron P , the integer hull P_I is the convex hull of the integral vectors of P , i.e $P_I = \text{hull}(P \cap \mathbb{Z}^n)$.*

Theorem 2 (Meyer, 1974). *For any rational polyhedron P , P_I is a polyhedron. Moreover, if $P = Q + C$ with Q a polytope and C a cone, then there exists a polytope Q' such that $P_I = Q' + C$.*

Proof. Let us decompose P into $P = Q + C$ where $C = \text{cone}\{y_0, \dots, y_{s-1}\}$. All the y_i 's are rational vectors. Without loss of generality we can assume that the y_i 's are integral.

Let us define

$$D = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{s-1} \mu_i y_i \mid 0 \leq \mu_i \leq 1 \right\}$$

and show that

$$P = (Q + D)_I + C$$

The easy inclusion is the following:

$$(Q + D)_I + C \subseteq P_I + C = P_I + C_I \subseteq (P + C)_I = P_I$$

To prove the other inclusion, let us introduce $x \in P$. There exists $q \in Q$ and $\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{s-1} \geq 0$ such that:

$$x = q + \sum_{i < s} \lambda_i y_i$$

But for every i , $\lfloor \lambda_i \rfloor y_i$ is an integral vector, so

$$x - \sum_{i < s} \lfloor \lambda_i \rfloor y_i = q + \sum_{i < s} (\lambda_i - \lfloor \lambda_i \rfloor) y_i$$

is integral, and as $\sum_{i < s} (\lambda_i - \lfloor \lambda_i \rfloor) y_i$ is contained in D :

$$x - \sum_{i < s} \lfloor \lambda_i \rfloor y_i \in (Q + D)_I$$

Finally:

$$x \in (Q + D)_I + C$$

$(Q + D)$ is bounded, so $(Q + D)_I$ is the convex hull of a finite set, it is a polytope. If we take $Q' = (Q + D)_I$, we have the result. \square

A graphical representation of this proof is given in figure 2.2, with again the polytope defined by the problem 2. As we can see, $(Q + D)_I + C$ (the green and yellow areas) is exactly the integer hull of the polyhedron.

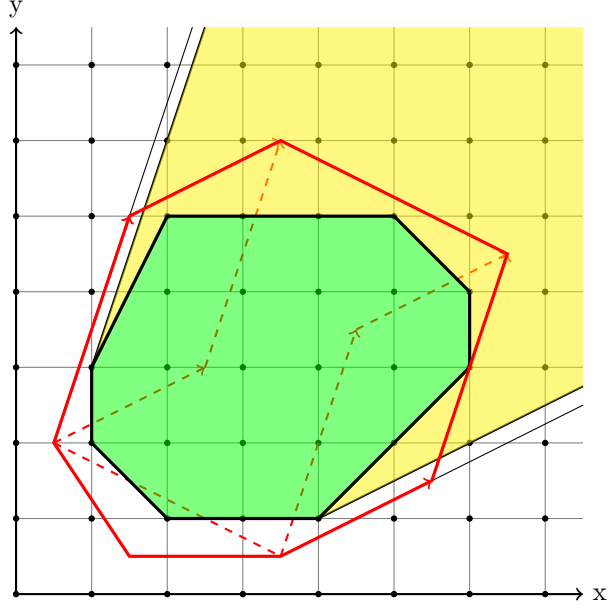


Figure 3: Decomposition of the integer hull of the polytope defined by the problem 2. The boundary of the set $(Q + D)$ is represented in red and $(Q + D)_I$ is represented in green.

Remark: Using the notations of the previous proof:

$$P \cap \mathbb{Z}^n \neq \emptyset \iff P_I \neq \emptyset \iff (Q + D)_I \neq \emptyset \iff (Q + D) \cap \mathbb{Z}^n \neq \emptyset$$

Hence, there is an integral point in the polyhedron P if and only if there is an integral point in the (bounded) polytope $(Q + D)$. What remains to do is to find a bound B that depends on the parameters of the problem. To do so, a solution is to generalize the previous theorems to incorporate bounds. We will use the notation $\llbracket a, b \rrbracket$ for the set of integers in the interval $[a, b]$.

Theorem 3 (Generalized Farkas-Minkowsky-Weyl Theorem). *A set C is a finitely generated cone if and only if it is a polyhedral cone.*

Moreover, if $C = \{x \mid Ax \leq 0\}$ and $A \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p \times n}$ with $m \geq 1$, there exists a finite set Y such that $Y \subseteq \llbracket -B, B \rrbracket^n$ and

$$C = \text{cone } Y$$

where

$$B = (n - 1)! \cdot m^{n-1}$$

Corollary 3 (Generalized Decomposition Theorem). *A set of points P is a polyhedron if and only if there exists a polytope Q and a finitely generated cone C such that $P = Q + C$.*

Moreover, if $P = \{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$ with $A \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p \times n}$, $b \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^p$, and $m \geq 1$, then there exist finite sets $Q \subseteq \llbracket -B, B \rrbracket$ and $X \subseteq \llbracket -B, B \rrbracket$ such that

$$P = \text{hull } Q + \text{cone } X$$

with

$$B = n! \cdot m^n$$

We finally have the desired result:

Corollary 4 (Existence of small solutions for ILPs). *If $P = \{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$ with $A \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p \times n}$, $b \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^p$ and $m \geq 1$, then*

$$P \cap \mathbb{Z}^n \neq \emptyset \iff P \cap \llbracket -B, B \rrbracket^n \neq \emptyset$$

where

$$B = (n + 1)! \cdot m^n$$

With the same outline of proof, we can obtain a more general result that encompasses MILPs and strict inequalities.

Theorem 4 (Existence of small solutions for MILPs). *If I is a subset of $\llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$ and*

$$P = \{x \mid Ax \leq b \wedge A'x < b'\}$$

with $A \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p \times n}$, $b \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^p$, $A' \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p' \times n}$, $b' \in \llbracket -m, m \rrbracket^{p'}$ and $m \geq 1$, then

$$\{x \in P \mid \forall x_i \in I. x_i \in \mathbb{Z}\} \neq \emptyset \iff \{x \in P \mid \forall x_i \in I. x_i \in \llbracket -B, B \rrbracket\} \neq \emptyset$$

where

$$B = (n + 1)! \cdot m^n$$

Remark: If we take the previously defined bound B :

$$\log B \approx n \log n + n \log m$$

Hence, the number of bits necessary to represent numbers in the interval $\llbracket -B, B \rrbracket$ is polynomial in the size of the input. Therefore, a small solution v to an ILP can be used as a certificate of polynomial size, so ILPs are NP.

3 Formalization in Isabelle

As we have presented a method to solve MILPs, we can focus on its formalization, which has been the main part of the work during this internship. It consisted in the formalization of Schrijver results concerning linear inequalities as described in section 3.1), then in the implementation and the proof of correction of the branch-and-bound algorithm as described in section 3.2.

3.1 Formalization of Schrijver’s Results concerning Linear Inequalities

This part is about the formalization of the results from Schijver’s book described in section 2.2 in Isabelle. Also, other results including Farkas’ lemma and the Carathéodory’s theorem have been formalized. In total, 5551 lines of proofs were written. The work was published in the *Archive for Formal Proofs* (AFP), a collection of proof libraries in Isabelle [2]. This was done in collaboration with René Thiemann and Ralph Bottesch:

- René included bounds for the various operations that are performed when executing the decomposition theorem. He also verified Theorem 2 of Meyer.
- Ralph and René formalized the fundamental theorem of linear inequalities.
- I mainly focused on the demonstration of the Farkas-Minkowsky-Weyl and the decomposition theorem.

The formalization follows the outline given in section 2.2. Several theorems, for example the Farkas-Minkowsky-Weyl theorem, have a general formulation:

```
lemma farkas_minkowsky_weyl_theorem:
  "( $\exists X. X \subseteq \text{carrier\_vec } n \wedge \text{finite } X \wedge P = \text{cone } X$ )
   $\longleftrightarrow$  ( $\exists A \text{ nr}. A \in \text{carrier\_mat } nr \ n \wedge P = \text{polyhedral\_cone } A$ )"
```

and particular formulations including bounds:

```
lemma farkas_minkowsky_weyl_theorem_2:
  assumes A: " $A \in \text{carrier\_mat } nr \ n$ "
  shows " $\exists X. X \subseteq \text{carrier\_vec } n \wedge \text{finite } X$ 
         $\wedge \text{polyhedral\_cone } A = \text{cone } X$ 
         $\wedge (A \in \mathbb{Z}_m \cap \text{Bounded\_mat } Bnd \longrightarrow$ 
         $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_v \cap \text{Bounded\_vec } (\text{det\_bound } (n-1) (\text{max } 1 \ Bnd)))$ "
```

where the following Isabelle notations are used:

- `carrier_vec n` is the set of vectors \mathbb{K}^n where \mathbb{K} is a field.
- `carrier_mat nr nc` is the set of matrices $\mathbb{K}^{n_r \times n_c}$.
- \mathbb{Z}_v is the set of integral vectors.

- \mathbb{Z}_m is the set of integral matrices.
- `Bounded_vec` B is the set of vectors with coefficients in the interval $[-B, B]$.
- `Bounded_mat` B is the set of matrices with coefficients in the interval $[-B, B]$.
- `det_bound` n m is $n! \cdot m^n$.

A difficulty I was confronted with is the variety of definitions for linear combinations in Isabelle. The standard definition is

$$\text{lincomb } c \ V = \sum_{v \in V} c(v) \cdot v$$

where V is a set of vectors and c is a map from vectors to scalars.

A problem that can occur is the distributivity when we multiply this sum by a matrix. Indeed, it is clear that

$$A \sum_i \lambda_i x_i = \sum_i \lambda_i \cdot Ax_i.$$

But this equality cannot be simply stated with the operator `lincomb`. Indeed, it is possible that there exist two vectors x_0 and x_1 such that $Ax_0 = Ax_1$. If we want to express $\sum_i \lambda_i \cdot Ax_i$ using `lincomb`, then the scalar coefficient associated to Ax_0 is neither $c(x_0)$ nor $c(x_1)$ but $\sum_{x.Ax=Ax_0} c(x)$, which is more complicated to work with. More generally, this problem occurs every time we want to prove the equality

$$f\left(\sum_i \lambda_i x_i\right) = \sum_i \lambda_i f(x_i)$$

where f is a linear map.

A solution to tackle this problem is to use linear combinations over lists, defined this way:

$$\text{lincomb_list } c \ Vs = \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} c(i) \cdot v_i$$

where $Vs = [v_0, \dots, v_{l-1}]$ is a list of vectors and c is a function mapping integers to scalars.

This way, the distributivity of a linear map to a linear combination can be expressed in a direct manner. To use the advantages of both definitions, we usually define our concepts in two manners: one using sets and the other using lists. For example, here is how non-negative linear combinations are defined, for sets and for lists:

definition `"nonneg_lincomb c Vs b = (lincomb c Vs = b ∧ c ' Vs ⊆ {x. x ≥ 0})"`

definition `"nonneg_lincomb_list c Vs b = (lincomb_list c Vs = b ∧ (∀ i < length Vs. c i ≥ 0))"`

where $c \cdot Vs = \{c(x) \mid x \in Vs\}$ is the image of the set Vs under c . We can then use this definition to define convex combinations:

```
definition "convex_lincomb c Vs b =
  (nonneg_lincomb c Vs b  $\wedge$  sum c Vs = 1)"
```

```
definition "convex_lincomb_list c Vs b =
  (nonneg_lincomb_list c Vs b  $\wedge$  sum c {0.. $\text{length}$  Vs} = 1)"
```

and then define convex hulls:

```
definition "convex_hull Vs =
  {x.  $\exists$  Vs c. finite Vs  $\wedge$  Vs  $\subseteq$  Vs  $\wedge$  convex_lincomb c Vs x}"
```

```
definition "convex_hull_list Vs =
  {x.  $\exists$  c. convex_lincomb_list c Vs x}"
```

Finally, we can show that these two definitions are equivalent:

```
lemma finite_convex_hull_iff_convex_hull_list:
  assumes Vs: "Vs  $\subseteq$  carrier_vec n"
  and id': "Vs = set Vsl'"
  shows "convex_hull Vs = convex_hull_list Vsl'"
```

3.2 Formalization of a Branch-and-Bound Algorithm

The next part is the formalization of a branch-and-bound algorithm, as described in the section 2.1. The idea was to state and prove the correctness of a simple algorithm, without any optimization.

I first developed a function `branch_and_bound_core` that takes four arguments:

- A list of linear constraints `cs`.
- A list of variables `Is` required to be integral.
- A function `lb` mapping variables of `Is` to integral lower bounds.
- A function `ub` mapping variables of `Is` to integral upper bounds.

It returns either `Some v` is a solution v within the bounds is found, or `None`. The code of this function can be found in appendix B

The goal of the arguments `lb` and `ub` is to bound the problem. This way, I ensure that this function always terminates. To do so, a convenient way in Isabelle is to use a *measure*. It is function mapping the arguments of the function `f` to natural numbers. If we prove that at each recursive call the measure strictly decreases, then an infinite sequence of recursive calls cannot happen and the function always terminates. The measure I used is the following:

$$\max \left(0, \sum_{x_i \in \mathbf{Is}} (\text{ub}(x_i) - \text{lb}(x_i)) \right)$$

Indeed, if there is a rational solution v that is not a mixed-integer solution, then $\sum(\mathbf{ub}(x_i) - \mathbf{lb}(x_i)) > 0$. Furthermore, if $v(x_i) \notin \mathbb{Z}$, if we do a recursive call with $\mathbf{ub}(x_i)$ substituted by $\lfloor v(x_i) \rfloor$, as $v(x_i) \leq \mathbf{ub}(x_i)$, $\lfloor v(x_i) \rfloor < \mathbf{ub}(x_i)$ so the measure strictly decreases at the recursive calls. The same happens if $\mathbf{lb}(x_i)$ is substituted by $\lceil v(x_i) \rceil$.

Once the termination proved, I proved correctness properties, the first is that if a valuation is found, it satisfies the MILP:

```
lemma branch_and_bound_core_sat:
  "branch_and_bound_core cs Is lb ub = Some v  $\implies$ 
   v  $\models_{mcs}$  (set cs, set Is)"
```

and the other is that if no valuation is found, then there is no valuation v that satisfies the MILP and such that the valuations of the integral variables are bounded by \mathbf{lb} and \mathbf{ub} :

```
lemma branch_and_bound_core_unsat:
  "branch_and_bound_core c Is lb ub = None  $\implies$ 
    $\forall i \in \text{set } Is. \text{of\_int } (\mathbf{lb } i) \leq v \ i \wedge v \ i \leq \text{of\_int } (\mathbf{ub } i) \implies$ 
    $\neg (v \models_{mcs} (\text{set } c, \text{set } Is))"$ 
```

where the Isabelle notation $v \models_{mcs} (S, I)$ is equivalent to notation $v \models_I S$.

The goal now is to use the theorem 4 to have a formalized complete solver for MILPs. The problem is that linear constraints are coded with a datastructure called *linear polynomials* that should be converted to the form of vectors and matrices to use the theorem.

To do so, linear constraints are converted to the type `Le_Constraint` that is more practical to use, as the description of different inequalities uses a sum-type with only two constructors instead of ten for the type `constraint`. Indeed, I first tried to express the conversion using directly the standard type, and when I switched to `Le_Constraint`'s, I considerably simplified the proofs (around 80 lines of proof were saved).

Afterwards, some work to convert rational constraints to integral constraints is needed. I use it to define a function `compute_bound` that maps a list of constraints to the desired bound. I prove that:

```
lemma compute_bound:
  assumes "v  $\models_{mcs}$  (set cs, I)"
  shows " $\exists v. v \models_{mcs} (\text{set } cs, I) \wedge$ 
   ( $\forall i \in I. |v \ i| \leq \text{of\_int } (\text{compute\_bound } cs))"$ 
```

Finally, I am able to state a complete MILP-solver based on the branch-and-bound algorithm:

```
definition branch_and_bound :: "constraint list  $\Rightarrow$  var list  $\Rightarrow$  rat
valuation option"
where "branch_and_bound cs Is = (
  let Bnd = compute_bound cs in
  branch_and_bound_core cs Is ( $\lambda \_.$  -Bnd) ( $\lambda \_.$  Bnd))"
```

and to prove its correction:

```

lemma branch_and_bound_sat:
  "branch_and_bound cs Is = Some v  $\implies$  v  $\models_{mcs}$  (set cs, set Is)"

lemma branch_and_bound_unsat:
  assumes "branch_and_bound cs Is = None"
  shows " $\neg$  v  $\models_{mcs}$  (set cs, set Is)"

```

In total, the formalization of this algorithm takes 1062 lines of code. It can be consulted in at: <https://github.com/Cemoixerestre/MILP-Isabelle>.

4 Future Work

Even if I have written and proved the correctness of a branch-and-bound algorithm, the work is not yet finished. Indeed, some tasks are needed before having a more effective formalized MILP-solver with an incremental interface. Here is the prospective work to complete the project.

4.1 Using the Incremental Interface

We can remark that for the branch-and-bound algorithm, at the branching step, we only try to solve problems with a single constraint added to the original problem. This is why it should be interesting to use the incremental interface described in [10, 1]. In the current implementation, the computation (including the preprocessing steps) is always made from scratch. The difficulty is that in the current interface, the internal state is initialized with a (finite) list of constraints, and only constraints of this list can be asserted. To efficiently use the incrementality, this interface should be upgraded so that arbitrary constraints can be asserted.

4.2 Gomory Cuts

Suppose that a valuation v such that $v \models S$ has been found but that $v \not\models_I S$. A *cut* is a linear constraint c such that v does not satisfy c but for every mixed-integer solution v' , v' satisfies c . The goal of a cut is to prune non-integral solutions of the problems while keeping the same integral solutions.

For example, let us take the following problem:

$$\begin{cases} 2x + 10y \geq 5 \\ -2x + 10y \leq 5 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$(0, \frac{1}{2})$ is a non-integral solution. But we can remark that the following constraint

$$x \geq \frac{5}{2}$$

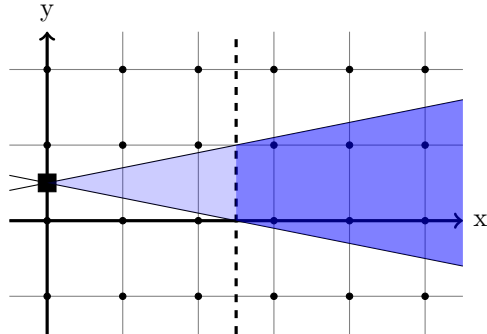


Figure 4: Solutions of the problem 3. The solutions to the problem satisfying the cut lie in the dark blue area. The other solutions lie in the light blue area.

is satisfied by all of the solutions of the problem, but not by $(0, \frac{1}{2})$. We will call this constraint the *cut*. A graphical representation can be found in figure 4.2.

A general method to obtain cuts is described in [4, Section 4]. These cuts are called *Gomory cuts*. The combination of the branch-and-bound algorithm with cut generation is called *branch-and-cut* and it experimentally outperforms the branch-and-bound algorithm [3].

We plan to incorporate Gomory cuts in this branch-and-bound algorithm, and to prove its correction. As in the previous section, it would be useful to extend the following interface so that arbitrary constraints (such as Gomory cuts) could be asserted.

4.3 Finalization

As a least contribution, the branch-and-cut function should be extended to an incremental interface similar to the existing interface for linear problems so that it could be used efficiently by a SMT-solver.

Also, René has already started to export the code to measure its execution time. It could be interesting to measure the difference obtained by each of the previously described optimizations. Finally, it is planned to publish this work in AFP.

Conclusion

During this internship, I contributed to formalize in Isabelle results about linear inequalities with René Thiemann and Ralph Bottesch. I used these results to prove the termination of a branch-and-bound algorithm to solve MILPs. I also proved the correctness of this algorithm.

This is the first step to extending a verified linear arithmetic solver to mixed-integer linear arithmetic, with an incremental interface so that it could be plugged in a SMT-solver.

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A Example: an Execution of DPLL(T)

Let us solve the following SMT-instance (based on linear arithmetic):

$$\Phi \equiv (A \vee B \vee C) \wedge (\neg A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee C \vee D) \wedge (\neg C \vee D)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} A &\equiv (x + y \geq 3) \\ B &\equiv (x \leq 1) \\ C &\equiv (y \leq 1) \\ D &\equiv (y - x < 2) \end{aligned}$$

using DPLL(T). First, let us interpret Φ as a SAT-formula and find an valuation that satisfies it. For example:

- Arbitrarily affect the variable A to 1. Assert the atom A . Get a checkpoint c_1 .
- To solve the clause $(\neg A \vee B)$, we must affect the variable B to 1. Assert the atom B . Get a checkpoint c_2 .
- Affect the variable C to 1. Assert the atom C . Get a checkpoint c_3 .
- To solve the clause $(\neg C \vee D)$, we must affect the variable D to 1. Assert the atom D . Get a checkpoint c_4 .

Now, we have found an valuation that satisfies Φ interpreted as a SAT-formula. But we need to check if this valuation is compatible with an assignment in the theory of linear arithmetic. It means that we need to find an assignment to the conjunction $A \wedge B \wedge C \wedge D$, which is equivalent to the system:

$$\begin{cases} x + y \geq 3 & (A) \\ x \leq 1 & (B) \\ y \leq 1 & (C) \\ y - x < 2 & (D) \end{cases}$$

But this system has no solution. The procedure **Check**() may return that the constraints A , B and C are mutually incompatible. As these three constraints cannot be satisfied simultaneously, any assignment that satisfies Φ must violate at least one of these constraints, so we can deduce that the clause $(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee \neg C)$ is true. Instead of solving Φ , we will try to solve the formula

$$\Phi' = \Phi \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B \vee \neg C)$$

We need to backtrack, but we can notice that we could backtrack just before the choice to affect C to 1 was made. So let us backtrack to c_2 , where only the variables A and B are affected.

- To solve the clause $(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee \neg C)$, we must affect the variable C to 0. Assert the atom $\neg C$. Get a checkpoint c'_3 .

- To solve the clause $(\neg A \vee C \vee D)$, we must affect the variable D to 1. Assert the atom D . Get a checkpoint c'_4 .

Again, we have a valuation that satisfies Φ' interpreted as a SAT-formula. We have to find an assignment that satisfies the conjunction $A \wedge B \wedge \neg C \wedge D$, which is equivalent to the system:

$$\begin{cases} x + y \geq 3 & (A) \\ x \leq 1 & (B) \\ y > 1 & (\neg C) \\ y - x < 2 & (D) \end{cases}$$

`Check()` may return the assignment $(x = 1, y = 2)$. Finally, the formula Φ is satisfiable, and $(x = 1, y = 2) \models \Phi$.

B Code of the Core of the Branch-and-Bound Procedure

```
function branch_and_bound_core ::
  "constraint list ⇒ var list ⇒ (var ⇒ int) ⇒ (var ⇒ int)
  ⇒ rat valuation option" where
  "branch_and_bound_core cs Is lb ub =
    (case simplex (cs @ bounds_to_constraints Is lb ub) of
      Unsat _ ⇒ None
    | Sat r ⇒ (let v = ⟨r⟩ in
      case find (λ x. v x ∉ ℤ) Is of
        None ⇒ Some v
      | Some x ⇒ (
        let lb' = (λ y. if y = x then [v x] else lb y) in
        let ub' = (λ y. if y = x then [v x] else ub y) in
        let sol = branch_and_bound_core cs Is lb' ub' in
        if sol ≠ None then sol
        else branch_and_bound_core cs Is lb' ub)))"
```

To understand the code:

- `bounds_to_constraints Is lb ub` returns a list containing the constraints $x_i \geq lb\ x_i$ and $x_i \leq ub\ x_i$ for all elements x_i of the list `Is`.
- “ @ ” is the symbol used for list concatenation. In this case, `cs @ bounds_to_constraints Is lb ub` is the list composed by the constraints of `cs` and of `bounds_to_constraints Is lb ub`.
- The function `simplex` takes as arguments a list of constraints and returns `Unsat` if there is no rational solution to this combination of constraints, or `Sat v` such that $\langle v \rangle$ is a rational valuation satisfying these constraints.
- The function `find` takes as arguments a predicate `f` and a list `Is` and returns `Some xi` where x_i is an element of `Is` such that `f xi` is true, or `None` if no such element exists.