# **Supplement: Hybrid Models for Learning to Branch**

Prateek Gupta\*
University of Oxford
The Alan Turing Institute

Maxime Gasse Mila, Polytechnique Montréal Elias B. Khalil University of Toronto

**M. Pawan Kumar** University of Oxford

Andrea Lodi CERC, Polytechnique Montréal **Yoshua Bengio** Mila, Université de Montréal

#### 1 Inefficiency in using GNNs for solving MILPs in parallel

In this section, we argue that the GNN architecture looses its advantages in the face of solving multiple MILPs at the same time. In the applications like multi-objective optimization [4], where multiple MILPs are solved in parallel, a GNN for each MILP needs to be initialized on the GPU because of the *sequentially asynchronous* nature of solving MILPs. Not only is there a limit to the number of such GNNs that can fit on a single GPU because of memory constraints, but also several GNNs on a single GPU results in an inefficient GPU utilization.

One can, for instance, try to time multiple MILPs such that there is a need for a single forward evaluation on a GPU, but, in our knowledge, it has not been done and it results in frequent interruptions in the solving procedure. An alternative, much simpler, method is to *pack* multiple GNNs on a single GPU such that each GNN is dedicated to solving one MILP. For example, we were able to put 25 GNNs on Tesla V100 32 GB GPU. Figure 1 shows the inefficient utilization of GPUs when multiple GNNs are packed on a single GPU.

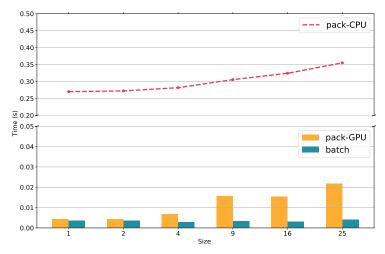


Figure 1: *Packing* several GNNs together on a GPU keeps it underutilized. "Size" is the number of inputs batched together (unrealistic scenario) or number of inputs simultaneously put on a GPU separately.

<sup>\*</sup>The work was done during an internship at Mila and CERC. Correspondence to: <pgupta@robots.ox.ac.uk>

# 2 Input Features

We use the features that were used by Gasse et al. [1] and Khalil et al. [3]. The list of features in G are described in the Table 1. There are a total of 92 features that we use for X as described in the Table 2. We follow the preprocessing procedure as described in Gasse et al. [1].

Table 1: Features of **G**. It is constructed as a variable-constraint bipartite graph, where the vertices of this graph have features as described here. These features are same as used in Gasse et al. [1].

	Type	Description
Variable Features (Total -13)		
Variable type (1)	Categorical	Allowed values - Binary, Integer, Continuous, Implied
Normalized coefficient (1)	Real	Integer Objective coefficient of the variable normalized by the euclidean norm of its coefficients in the constraints
Specified bounds (2)	Binary	Does the variable has a lower bound (upper bound)?
Solution bounds (2)	Binary	If the variable is currently at its lower bound (upper bound)?
Solution bractionality (1)	Real $\in [0,1)$	Fractional part of the variable i.e. $x - \lfloor x \rfloor$ , where $x$ is the value of the decision in variable in the current LP solution
Basis (1)	Categorical	One of 4 classes - Lower (variable is at the lower bound), Basic (variable has a value between the bounds), Upper (variable is at the upper bound), Zero (rare case)
Reduced cost (1)	Real	Amount by which objective coefficient of the variable should decrease so that the variable assumes a positive value in the LP solution
Age (1)	Real	Number of LP iterations since the last time the variable was basic normalized by total number of LP iterations
Solution value (1)	Real	Value of the variable in the current LP solution
Primal value (1)	Real	Value of the variable in the current best primal solution
Average primal value (1)	Real	Average value of the variable in all of the previously observed feasible primal solutions
Constraint Features (Total - 5)		
Cossine similarity (1)	Real	Cossine of angle between the vector represented by objective coefficients and the coefficients of this constraint
Bias (1)	Real	Right hand side of the constraint normalized by the euclidean norm of the row coefficients
Age (1)	Real	Number of iterations since the last time the constraint was active normalized by total number of LP iterations
Normalized dual value (1)	Real	Value of dual variable corresponding to the constraint
		normalized by the product of norms of the row coeffi-
Bounds (1)	Binary	cients and the objective coefficients If the constraint is currently at its bounds?
Edge Features (Total - 1)		
Normalized coefficient (1)	Real	Coefficient of the variable normalized by the norm of the coefficients of all the variables in the constraint

Table 2: Features in X, an input to MLP.

	count
Variable features from <b>G</b>	13
Variable features from Khalil et al. [3]	72

# 3 Preliminary results on running times of various architectures

In order to have a rough idea of relative improvement in runtimes across various architectures, we considered 20 instances in each difficulty level for each problem class and use the solver to obtain observations at each node. Different functions are then used to evaluate decisions at each node, and the total time taken for all the function evaluations across the nodes in an instance is observed. Note that the quality of decision is not important here; we are only interested in time taken per decision.

Specifically, we considered 5 forms of architectures as listed in Table 3. To cover the entire spectrum of strong inductive biases, we constructed an attention mechanism as explained in 4. At the same time, to cover the spectrum of cheaper architectures we consider simple dot product as the form of predictor. Finally, we consider a scenario where we only consider MLPs as predictors everywhere in the B&B tree.

Table 3: Different architectures considered for preliminray runtime comparison.

Туре	Description
GNN ALL ATTN ALL GNN DOT ATTN DOT MLP ALL	Use a Graph Convolution Neural Network (GNN) [1] at all <i>tree nodes</i> Attention mechanism (section 4) at all nodes Use GNN at the <i>root nodes</i> and a dot product with <b>X</b> to compute scores at every node Use attention mechanism at the root node and dot product with <b>X</b> to compute scores at every node Use a 3-layer multilinear perceptron at all the nodes

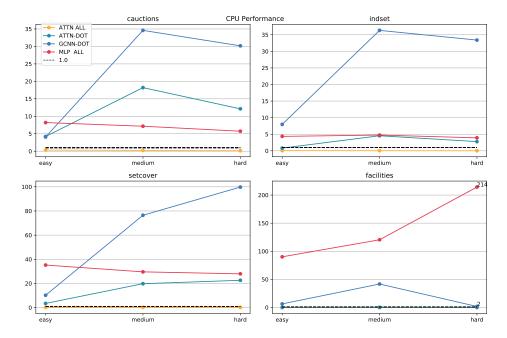


Figure 2: Relative time performance of various methods with respect to GNN ALL on CPU (average values). A value of 10 implies that the method is 10 times faster (on arithmetic average) than GNN ALL implying that one can afford to perform 10 times worse than GNN ALL in iterative performance when using CPUs. Note that this is just a rough estimation.

Figure 2 shows the relative performance (rel. to GNN) of various deep learning architectures across 4 sets of problems. It is evident that MLP ALL and GNN DOT are favored across the problem sets. This observation inspired the range of *hybrid architectures* that we explored in the paper. We also observe that a superior inductive bias like that of attention mechanism and transformers [7] has a better runtime performance on GPUs as illustrated in Figure 3, which we suspect is massive parallelization employed in the computations of attention. However, their performance on CPUs is not better than GNNs.

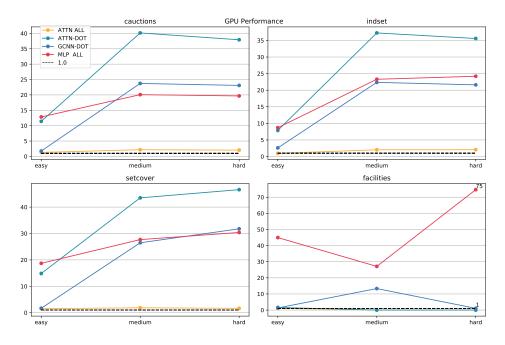


Figure 3: Relative time performance of various methods with respect to GNNALL on GPU (average values). A value of 10 implies that the method is 10 times faster (on arithmetic average) than GNNALL implying that one can afford to perform 10 times worse than GNNALL in iterative performance when using CPUs. Note that this is just a rough estimation.

#### 4 Attention Mechanism for MILPs

To cover the entire spectrum of computational complexity and expressivity of inductive bias, we implemented a transformer [7] as an architecture to replace GNNs. Specifically, we let the variables (constraints) attend to all other variables (constraints) via multi-headed self-attention mechanism. Finally, a modulated attention mechanism between *variable representations* as queries and *constraint representation* as keys outputs final *variable representations*, which is passed through the softmax layer for classification objective. Here, we use modulation scheme as explained in Shaw et al. [6]. Precisely, an edge in variable-constraint graph is used to increment the attention score with a learnable scalar value.

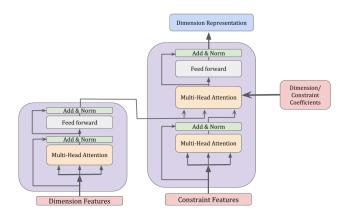


Figure 4: Multi-Head Attention mechanism where a variable or constraint can attend to all other variables or constraints. Finally, variables are used as a query to attend to constraints, where the attention is modulated through variable-constraint features. Modulation of attention scores follow Shaw et al. [6]

# 5 Data Generation & Training Specifications

For our experiments, we used 10,000 training instances for the training dataset and collected 150,000 observations from the tree nodes of those instances. In a similar manner, we generated 20,000 instances each for the validation and testing set, resulting in 30,000 observations each for validation and testing respectively.

We held all the training parameters fixed across the models. Specifically, we used a learning rate of  $1e^{-3}$ , training batch size of 32, a learning rate scheduler to reduce learning rate by 0.2 if there is no improvement in the validation loss for 15 epochs, and an early stopping criterion of 30 epochs. Our epoch consisted of 10K training examples and 2K validation samples. We used a 3 layered MLP with 256 hidden units in each layer, while we used GNN model with an embedding size of 64 units. We used this configuration across all the models discussed in the main paper. Due to the large size of instances in capacitated facility location, we used a learning rate of 0.005, early stopping criterion of 20 epochs with a patience of 10 epochs.

Further, for knowledge distillation we used T=2 (temperature) and  $\alpha=0.9$  (convex mixing of soft and hard objectives). These are the recommended settings in Hinton et al. [2]. We did a hyperparameter search for  $\beta=\{0.01,0.001,0.0001\}$  for ED and MHE. Following are the values for  $\beta$  that resulted in the best performing models.

Table 4: Best AT models

	AT
Capacitated Facility Location	MHE
Combinatorial Auctions	MHE
Set Covering	ED
Maximum Independent Set	MHE

We implemented all the models using PyTorch [5], and ran all the CPU evaluations on an Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2650 v4 @ 2.20GHz. GPU evaluations for GNN were performed on NVIDIA-TITAN Xp GPU card with CUDA 10.1.

#### 6 Depth-dependent loss weighting scheme

In Figure 5 we plot the sorted ratio of number of nodes to the minimum number of nodes observed for an instance across all the weighting schemes. Here we attempt to breakdown the performance of different branching strategies learned using different loss-weighting schemes. We observe that the *sigmoidal* scheme achieves the best performance.

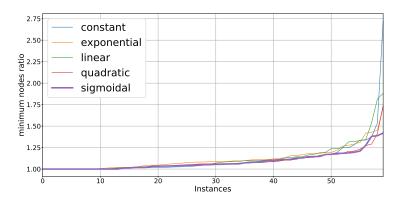


Figure 5: Performance of different weighing schemes across "big" instances. "Sigmoidal" evolves slowest among all.

#### 7 Model Results

The table below is a list of all the architectures along with their performance on the test sets. Please note that training with auxiliary task is not possible with HyperSVM type of architecture so their results are not reported in the table.

Table 5: Top-1 accuracy of various models.

		Combinatorial   Auctions	Capacitated Fa- cility Location	Set Cover	Maximum Independent Set
Expert	GCNN	$ 46.53 \pm 0.12 $	$68.47 \pm 0.22$	$54.82 \pm 0.14$	$58.73 \pm 0.54$
Existing methods	Extratrees LMART SVMRank	$ \begin{vmatrix} 37.97 \pm 0.1 \\ 38.7 \pm 0.16 \\ 39.14 \pm 0.12 \end{vmatrix} $	$60.06 \pm 0.18$ $63.28 \pm 0.06$ $63.47 \pm 0.06$	$42.66 \pm 0.22  46.31 \pm 0.28  46.23 \pm 0.11$	$19.35 \pm 0.55$ $50.98 \pm 0.37$ $49.29 \pm 0.23$
Simple Network	MLP	43.53 ± 0.13	$65.26 \pm 0.16$	$49.53 \pm 0.04$	$53.06 \pm 0.03$
Concatenate	CONCAT (Pre) CONCAT (e2e) CONCAT (e2e & KD)	$ \begin{vmatrix} 44.16 \pm 0.03 \\ 44.09 \pm 0.08 \\ 44.19 \pm 0.05 \end{vmatrix} $	$65.5 \pm 0.1$ $66.59 \pm 0.04$ $66.53 \pm 0.13$	$49.98 \pm 0.18$ $50.17 \pm 0.04$ $50.11 \pm 0.09$	52.85 +- 0.34 $53.23 \pm 0.41$ 53.66 +- 0.32
Modulate	FiLM (Pre) FiLM (e2e) FiLM (e2e & KD)	$ \begin{vmatrix} 44.12 \pm 0.09 \\ 44.31 \pm 0.08 \\ 44.1 \pm 0.09 \end{vmatrix} $	$65.78 \pm 0.06$ $66.33 \pm 0.33$ $66.6 \pm 0.21$	$50.0 \pm 0.09$ $50.16 \pm 0.05$ $50.31 \pm 0.19$	$53.16 \pm 0.51$ $53.23 \pm 0.58$ $53.08 \pm 0.3$
HyperSVM	HyperSVM (e2e) HyperSVM (e2e & KD)	$\begin{array}{ c c c }\hline & 43.19 \pm 0.02 \\ & 42.55 \pm 0.03 \end{array}$	$66.05 \pm 0.06 \\ 66.07 \pm 0.05$	$49.78 \pm 0.23$ $49.53 \pm 0.13$	50.04 ± 0.31 49.34 +- 0.43
HyperSVM-FiLM	HyperSVM-FiLM (e2e) HyperSVM-FiLM (e2e & KD)	$\begin{vmatrix} 43.64 \pm 0.18 \\ 43.28 \pm 0.48 \end{vmatrix}$	$65.54 \pm 0.32$ $65.52 \pm 0.34$	$49.81 \pm 0.27$ $49.73 \pm 0.05$	$50.17 \pm 0.58$ 49.73 + 0.39
	FiLM (e2e & KD & AT)	$44.56 \pm 0.13$	$\textbf{66.85} \pm \textbf{0.28}$	$\textbf{50.37} \pm \textbf{0.03}$	$\textbf{53.68} \pm \textbf{0.23}$

# 8 Overfitting in maximum independent set

Table 6 shows that the FiLM models overfit on small instances of maximum independent set. To address this problem, we used a mini dataset of 2000 observations obtained by running data collection on medium instances of maximum independent set. Further, we regularized the FiLM parameters of the FiLM model to yield much simpler models based on the performance on this mini-dataset, which is not too expensive to obtain owing to the size of observations. The results of the regularized models are in Table 7 For a fair comparison, we regularized GNN and used the best performing model to report evaluation results in the main paper.

Table 6: FiLM models for maximum independent set overfits on small instances

					medium			big	
	Time	Wins	Nodes	Time	Wins	Nodes	Time	Wins	Nodes
FiLM GNN-CPU	52.96 <b>44.07</b>	<b>39</b> / 55 21/ 60	492 <b>432</b>	1515.19 <b>371.81</b>	9/ 17 <b>36</b> / 40	2804 <b>558</b>	2700.02 <b>1981.43</b>	0/ 0 <b>10</b> / 10	nan <b>6334</b>
GNN-GPU	31.70	0/ 59	432	264.01	0/43	558	1772.12	0/ 13	6313

Table 7: Top-1 accuracy of regularized models on 2000 observations from medium random instances of maximum independent set.

weight decay	FiLM	GNN
1.0	$55.15 \pm 0.07$ $56.13 \pm 0.32$	$31.6 \pm 6.63$ $37.23 \pm 0.92$
0.01 0.0	$53.25 \pm 0.95  19.18 \pm 4.24$	$\begin{vmatrix} 26.8 \pm 16.71 \\ 34.08 \pm 4.8 \end{vmatrix}$

# 9 Performance of HyperSVM architectures

HyperSVM architectures are the cheapest in computation. In this section we ask if we are willing to lose machine learning accuracy by 1-2% in HyperSVM architecture, can we still get faster running times with HyperSVM type of architectures? Table 8 compares solver performance by using HyperSVM architecture and FiLM architecture. We observe that HyperSVM types of architectures loose their ability to generalize on larger scale instances.

Table 8: FiLM architecture generalizes to larger instances better than the HyperSVM types of architectures. We compare the performance of the best FiLM architecture from the Table 5 with the best HyperSVM architecture in the same table.

	Time	small Wins	Nodes	Time	medium Wins	Nodes	Time	big Wins	Nodes
FiLM	24.67	<b>53</b> / 60	109	136.42	<b>51</b> / 60	336	531.70	<b>46</b> / 57	345
HyperSVM	27.26	7/60	110	158.97	9/60	345	614.36	11/57	346
MLP	27.61	4/60	114	156.30	11/60	347	595.31	9/ 56	334

#### (a) Capacitated Facility Location

	Time	small Wins	Nodes	Time	medium Wins	Nodes	Time	big Wins	Nodes
FiLM	<b>8.73</b>	<b>59</b> / 60	147	<b>63.75</b> 72.53 77.48	<b>60</b> / 60	2169	1843.24	<b>24</b> / 26	<b>38530</b>
HyperSVM-FiLM	9.73	1/ 60	148		0/ 60	2217	2061.56	1/ 22	47277
MLP	9.98	0/ 60	157		0/ 60	2299	1984.26	1/ 24	40188

(b) Set Cover

# 10 Scaling to $2 \times Big$ instances

In this section we investigate the generalization power of FiLM models trained on dataset obtained from small instances. Specifically, we generate 20 random instances of size double that of big instances, and use the trained models of FiLM and GNN to compare their performance against RPB. We use the time limit of 7200 seconds, i.e. 2 hours to account for longer solving running times as one scales out to bigger instances. We observe that the power to generalize is largely dependent on the problem family. For example, FiLM models can still outperform other strategies on scaling out on capacitated facility location problems. However, we found that RPB remains competitive on setcover problems. We note that this shortcoming of the FiLM models can be overcome via larger size of hidden layers and training on slightly larger instances than what has been used in the main paper. Table 9 shows these results.

Table 9: Performance of branching strategies on twice the size of biggest instances ( $2 \times Big$ ) considered in the main paper. 20 "Bigger" instances were solved using 3 seeds each resulting in a total of 60 runs. We see that FiLM models still remain competitive, and it is highly dependent on the family of problem.

		facilities		setcover					
Model	Time	Wins	Nodes	Time	Wins	Nodes			
RPB	7200.14	0 / 0	n/a	6346.17	9 / 12	135 132			
GNN	7111.83	1 / 5	n/a	7200.25	0 / 0	n/a			
FiLM (ours)	7052.27	4 / 4	n/a	6508.78	3 / 10	107 187			
GNN-GPU	6625.55	- / 13	n/a	6008.14	- / 12	93 909			

#### 11 Effect of different training protocols on B&B performance

Table 10 shows the performance of different training protocols on B&B performance. Although the models trained with auxiliary tasks (AT) and knowledge distillation (KD) are a clear winner up until problem sets of size medium, there is a tie between the models trained with KD and those trained with KD & AT. However, it is worth noting that the difference in B&B performance across different training protocols is not huge, and such performance evaluation can be read from the test accuracy of

Table 10: Effect of training protocols on the performance of *branching strategies*. We report geometric mean of solving times, number of times a method won (in solving time) over total finished runs, and geometric mean of number of nodes. Refer to section 5 (main) for more details. The best performing results are in **bold**. \*Models were regularized to prevent overfitting on small instances.

		Small			Medium			Big	
Model	Time	Wins	Nodes	Time	Wins	Nodes	Time	Wins	Nodes
e2e	25.05	22 / 60	114	154.12	4 / 60	340	550.03	15 / 57	339
e2e + KD	28.00	2 / 60	111	143.12	18 / 60	343	507.50	<b>26</b> / 57	325
e2e + KD + AT	24.67	<b>36</b> / 60	109	136.42	<b>38</b> / 60	336	531.70	16 / 57	345
				Capac	itated Facility	Location			
e2e	9.70	1 / 60	152	71.18	1 / 60	2186	1869.57	4 / 25	40 341
e2e + KD	9.81	0 / 60	146	70.88	4 / 60	2173	1842.29	<b>15</b> / 25	40 437
e2e + KD + AT	8.73	<b>59</b> / 60	147	63.75	<b>55</b> / 60	2169	1843.24	8 / 26	40 881
					Set Covering	,			
e2e	2.45	1 / 60	72	17.59	5 / 60	702	225.88	17 / 60	8939
e2e + KD	2.35	0 / 60	73	17.59	2 / 60	720	241.95	7 / 59	8846
e2e + KD + AT	2.13	<b>59</b> / 60	73	15.71	<b>53</b> / 60	686	217.02	<b>36</b> / 60	8711
				Cor	nbinatorial Au	ctions			
e2e	205.63	2 / 54	559	1103.47	1 / 29	1137	2457.94	1 / 4	2268
e2e + KD	333.52	1 / 52	486	926.12	1 / 41	604	2503.65	0 / 7	1953
e2e + KD + AT	52.96	<b>54</b> / 55	410	131.45	<b>54</b> / 54	331	1823.29	<b>14</b> / 15	3049
				Maxir	num Independ	ent Set*			

trained models. For example, as evident in Table 5, difference in test accuracy of FiLM (e2e & KD) and FiLM (e2e & KD & AT) is not significant for problem sets - Capacitated Facility Location and Set Covering, but its significant enough for problem sets - Combinatorial Auctions and Maximum Independent Set. Given that the inference cost is independent of training protocols, to attain better generalization performance, we recommend FiLM (e2e & KD & AT) only when these models have significantly better accuracy than FiLM (e2e & KD).

# References

- [1] Maxime Gasse, Didier Chételat, Nicola Ferroni, Laurent Charlin, and Andrea Lodi. Exact combinatorial optimization with graph convolutional neural networks. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 15554–15566, 2019.
- [2] Geoffrey Hinton, Oriol Vinyals, and Jeff Dean. Distilling the knowledge in a neural network. *arXiv preprint* arXiv:1503.02531, 2015.
- [3] Elias B. Khalil, Pierre Le Bodic, Le Song, George Nemhauser, and Bistra Dilkina. Learning to branch in mixed integer programming. In *Proceedings of the Thirtieth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pages 724–731, 2016.
- [4] Gokhan Kirlik and Serpil Sayın. A new algorithm for generating all nondominated solutions of multiobjective discrete optimization problems. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 232(3):479–488, 2014.
- [5] Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Soumith Chintala, Gregory Chanan, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Zeming Lin, Alban Desmaison, Luca Antiga, and Adam Lerer. Automatic differentiation in pytorch. 2017.
- [6] Peter Shaw, Jakob Uszkoreit, and Ashish Vaswani. Self-attention with relative position representations. arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.02155, 2018.
- [7] Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 5998–6008, 2017.