

A Cutting Plane Method for Solving Harvest Scheduling Models with Area Restrictions

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Abstract

We describe a cutting plane algorithm for an integer programming problem that arises in forest harvest scheduling. Spatial harvest scheduling models optimize the binary decisions of cutting or not cutting forest management units in different time period subject to logistical, economic and environmental restrictions. One of the most common constraints requires that the contiguous size of harvest openings (i.e., clear-cuts) cannot exceed an area threshold in any given time period or over a set of periods called green-up. These so-called adjacency or green-up constraints make the harvest scheduling problem combinatorial in nature and very hard to solve. Our proposed cutting plane algorithm starts with a model without area restrictions and adds constraints only if a violation occurs during optimization. Since violations are less likely if the threshold area is large, the number of constraints is kept to a minimum. The utility of the approach is illustrated by an application where the landowner needs to assess the cost of forest certification that involves clear-cut size restrictions stricter than what is required by law. We run empirical tests and find that the new method performs best when existing models fail: when the number of units is high or the allowable clear-cut size is large relative to average unit size. Since this scenario is the norm rather than the exception in forestry, we suggest that timber industries would greatly benefit from the method. In conclusion, we describe a series of potential applications beyond forestry.

Keywords: OR in natural resources, integer programming, cutting planes, spatially-explicit harvest scheduling

1. Introduction

We propose a cutting plane algorithm to optimize area-based forest harvest scheduling. Harvest scheduling models, that are typically cast as integer programs, optimize the spatiotemporal

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4 layout of harvests subject to a variety of logistical, economic and environmental constraints. Area-
5 based models ensure that the contiguous size of harvest openings (i.e., clear-cuts) cannot exceed a
6 maximum threshold in any given time period or over a set of periods called green-up. Area-based
7 harvest scheduling problems are combinatorial problems that are often very hard to solve to opti-
8 mality. The proposed cutting plane algorithm starts with a model without area restrictions and adds
9 constraints only if a violation occurs during optimization. Before providing a formal definition of
10 the algorithm, we give a brief background and literature review on harvest scheduling models.
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15 The National Forest Management Act of 1976 was the first piece of legislation in the United
16 States that imposed restrictions on the size of clear-cuts. The Act responded to public criticism,
17 which emerged in the 1960s, that large clear-cuts compromised wildlife habitat and other forest
18 ecosystem functions. Many states followed suit and established clear-cut size regulations on both
19 private and state forestlands [3]. Forest certification standards such as those administered by the
20 Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) or the Sustainable Forestry Initiative (SFI) also dictate various
21 limits on harvest opening sizes [16]. The compliance of forest managers who enroll in an FSC or
22 SFI program, is ensured by periodic third-party audits.
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28 The intention behind the policy of restricting harvest opening sizes was to reduce the spatial
29 and temporal concentration of harvest activities across the landscape. A possible side effect of this
30 policy, however, a heterogeneous, patchy forest landscape, has been shown to have both positive
31 and negative ecological consequences [15]. A forest with a spatially heterogeneous age-class dis-
32 tribution is more resilient against the spread of fire, but the increased amount of edge will increase
33 the likelihood of wind-throw and compromise interior old forest habitat. Clear-cut size restrictions
34 may also reduce timber revenues.
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39 Computing the tradeoffs between timber revenues and landscape metrics is useful for policy
40 makers, for the designers of forest certification standards and for forest landowners/managers who
41 are interested in certification. However, such tradeoff analyses may be prohibitively expensive.
42 The larger the opening limit relative to the average size of the harvest units, the harder it is to
43 formulate and solve these models [18]. We give a brief overview of prior work on spatial harvest
44 scheduling and discuss a real-life example that illustrates the computational issues that can arise.
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49 *1.1. Area-based Harvest Scheduling in Forestry*

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51 Harvest scheduling models seek to maximize timber revenues or other outputs subject to en-
52 vironmental, logistical or budgetary constraints by assigning harvest decisions to forest manage-
53 ment units (contiguous groups of trees that share similar characteristics such as species or average
54 height) over a planning horizon. “Environmental” or sustainability constraints might include end-
55 ing timber volume (inventory) requirements, a balanced flow of timber revenues, or maximum
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4 harvest opening size restrictions. Harvest scheduling models that incorporate maximum harvest
5 opening size constraints are called Unit- or Area Restriction Models [a.k.a., URM vs. ARM, 30]
6 depending on whether or not the combined area of every pair of adjacent units exceeds the **allow-**
7 **able area threshold**. If it does, the problem **is a URM** that prevents adjacent forest stands from
8 being harvested simultaneously or within a pre-specified timeframe called the green-up or exclu-
9 sion period. Otherwise, the problem is an instance of the ARM.

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14 The core of the URM, which was first formulated as a mixed integer program (MIP) by [20],
15 and subsequently by [28, 31, 32, 44] is an instance of the Node Packing Problem, a.k.a. the Vertex
16 Packing or the Maximal Weight Stable Set Problem **in integer programming**. The ARM is a more
17 general model; it allows groups of contiguous management units to be harvested concurrently as
18 long as their combined area is less than the maximum harvest opening size. The ARM typically
19 arises when the maximum harvest opening size is large relative to the size of the units. Since the
20 ARM is a generalization of URM, it can be viewed as a Stable Set problem where the require-
21 ment on the independence of the nodes is relaxed subject to a pre-specified threshold. While this
22 threshold is defined as area in forest planning, it does not have to be - giving rise to potential ap-
23 plications beyond forestry. In portfolio optimization as an example, it can be defined as threshold
24 covariance among a cluster of financial instruments. Being able to select a pair of correlated in-
25 struments whose covariance is below the tolerable risk of the investor can be advantageous given
26 the difficulties of finding large independent sets in an increasingly globalized stock market [5, 6].
27 Since the Stable Set Problem has been shown to be NP-Hard [35], the ARM is also NP-Hard.
28 Due to the computational difficulties that are typically associated with solving NP-Hard decision
29 problems, the first methods that have been proposed for the ARM all involved the use of heuristic
30 techniques to find good solutions [e.g., 3, 7]. It was not until the early 2000s, when the first exact
31 models of the ARM appeared in the refereed literature [4, 27, 34]. **The first model in [27]**, called
32 Path Formulation, enforces harvest opening size restrictions by means of constraints only. The
33 formulation of these constraints, which are structurally very similar to the 0-1 cover inequalities
34 in knapsack problems, requires the enumeration of all contiguous clusters of management units
35 whose combined area just exceeds the maximum opening size. Subsequent attempts to improve
36 the Path Formulation include [11] who appended knapsack constraints to [27]’s model to enforce
37 area restrictions, [40] who proposed a strengthening procedure for the path constraints and [39]
38 who showed that the use of path inequalities in lazy constraint pools can lead to dramatic savings
39 in solution times.

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55 **The second exact model in [27]**, the Generalized Management Unit (GMU) or Cluster Packing
56 Formulation also relies on an enumeration procedure [17, 23, 24, 27, 33]. Unlike the Path For-
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mulation, however, which requires minimally infeasible clusters, it is the set of feasible clusters that are needed in this model. Feasible clusters are contiguous groups of management units whose combined area is less than or equal to the maximum opening size. The GMU model uses extra decision variables to represent feasible clusters that comprise more than one management unit. Pair-wise [27] or maximal clique-based [17] constraints can then be written to prevent the harvest of adjacent or overlapping clusters. [18] showed that the maximal clique-based Cluster-Packing Model provides a tighter approximation of the convex hull of the ARM than the Path Formulation and that it can produce superior computational results.

The third model, **Bucket Formulation** [9], is very different from the previous two in that it does not rely on a priori enumerations of feasible or infeasible clusters. Unlike the Cluster Packing **models** or the Path Formulation, this model uses harvest assignment variables instead of harvest variables. Any one management unit can be assigned to initially empty sets of *clear-cuts* or *buckets* [18] in every planning period. While the management units that are assigned to the same clear-cut don't have to be adjacent, constraints are in place to ensure that the total area of each clear-cut is less than or equal to the maximum harvest opening size. Finally, there are additional constraints in the model to prevent the formation of adjacent or overlapping clear-cuts. What makes **the Bucket Formulation** very attractive is that unlike the other two models, **it** does not require potentially costly enumerations and that the size of the model is limited by the number of feasible clear-cut assignments. While extra preprocessing is needed to identify "infeasible" assignments, the potential reduction in the number of variables and constraints can be substantial. That said, problem size for the **Bucket Formulation** can increase exponentially as a function of the number of units depending on the efficiency of the preprocessing algorithm.

1.2. Problem Motivation

The size of the Path and the **Maximal Clique-based Cluster Packing formulations** is sensitive to the maximum harvest opening size, whereas the size of the Bucket model is sensitive to the number of management units. While problem size is not necessarily a good predictor of problem difficulty [41], it can make the problem formulation process prohibitively time-consuming, especially if cluster enumerations are involved. Moreover, solving large integer programs, such as the ARMs listed above, can also be hard [9, 17]. These issues are never more apparent than in tradeoff analyses where forgone timber revenues or changes in ecosystem metrics, such as forest habitat fragmentation, are to be forecasted as functions of alternative harvest opening size policies. Forest policy makers, landowners or forestry practitioners are all likely to be interested in how much compliance with a specific certification standard or a new regulation would cost. With the three existing ARM approaches, one has to formulate and solve a separate model for each opening

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4 size restriction of concern. This can be a time-consuming process if the forest in question has a
5 large number of management units, or if the maximum harvest opening size is large relative to the
6 average size of the units, or if many different harvest opening size policies are considered. Forest
7 planning problems that involve thousands of management units are common. In fact, most authors
8 argue that future research should focus on solving problems that comprise even more units [e.g.,
9 17]. Forest regions across the globe where the allowable clear-cut size is large are not uncommon
10 either. In the Canadian provinces of Ontario and New Brunswick, in central and north Quebec,
11 and in some regions of Alberta, as well as in Victoria, Australia and in Russia, the maximum
12 opening size varies between 100 and 260 ha [25]. In the Pacific Coastal states of Oregon and
13 Washington, the limit is only 48.56 ha but contiguous clear-cuts up to 97.12 ha are allowed with
14 special permission [25, 43]. Very small management units are the norm in these regions, especially
15 in the U.S. private forest sector, where timber harvesting rights are typically allocated to willing
16 buyers via auctions [2, 38]. Small-scale buyers can bid only on small sales that contain lower
17 timber volumes, and as a result, forest managers often design small units [36].

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The 1,708 ha Pack Forest, United States is a prime example of the computational difficulties that arise in harvest scheduling when unit sizes are small relative to the allowable clear-cut size. Pack Forest has 186 units with an average unit size of 9.18 ha and with feasible clusters that average 10.27 in cardinality. Washington State Forest Practices limits the opening size to 48.56 ha with a 5-year green-up requirement [43]. The administration of the Forest wants to weigh the pros and cons of acquiring FSC certification which requires 24.28 ha maximum clear-cut size subject to green-up rules that are driven by silvicultural factors such as tree height and canopy closure [16]. To estimate the opportunity costs of FSC compliance, the maximum timber revenues under the State's 48.56 ha clear-cut size rule need to be calculated in the absence of FSC requirements. Formulating the harvest scheduling model that could estimate these revenues using **the Maximal Clique-based Cluster Model** requires over ten million variables, whereas **the Path Approach** requires almost a million constraints. The cluster enumeration procedure alone, required by both models, takes several weeks to complete **using the best available algorithms**. While **the Bucket Model** takes only minutes to formulate, the optimality gaps achieved with set time-frames are much larger than those of the other two models.

Pack Forest is not the only organization facing this scheduling problem. There are thousands of other forest owners in Washington State whose holdings are large enough to require harvest scheduling models and all of them have to comply with the State's 48.56 ha restriction on clear-cut size. The nature of the problem is likely to be similar or more pronounced in other regions with significant private holdings and with similar policies (e.g., Oregon, U.S. [25]).

1.3. The Proposed *ARM* Cutting Planes Approach

The cutting plane algorithm proposed in this study can bypass the computational issues listed above. More importantly, we show that it can complement the three exact models as it works best when the others are most likely to fail. The idea of using the path constraints from [27]’s Path Formulation as cuts stems from the expectation that path constraints should rarely be binding during optimization, especially if the maximum harvest opening size is large. This expectation, which we confirm empirically, is based on the fact that while the number of path constraints increases exponentially as a function of maximum opening size, area violations are less likely to occur since the ARM becomes more relaxed. We hypothesize that by creating only those path constraints that prevent the specific opening size violations that arise from solution candidates during optimization would not only lead to smaller IPs that are easier to solve, but it would also cut formulation times.

We note that the proposed cutting plane approach is an instance of what is often called *delayed constraint generation* (DCG). DCG was first reported by [12] in the context of the Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP), which, like the Path Model, requires a potentially enormous set of constraints. It was these, so-called *sub-tour elimination constraints* that [12] used as cuts to be the first to solve the 54-city TSP. Apart from the successful use of cutting planes in the TSP [see 22, for a review], the method was also found to be very efficient in vehicle routing problems [1, 10].

2. Methods

This section starts with a formal description of the Path, *the Maximal Clique-based* Cluster Packing and the Bucket *Formulations* that were used to benchmark the computational performance of the cutting plane algorithm. The proposed algorithm is described next, along with the computational experiment that was designed to compare both formulation and solution times. Both of these time components were included in the analysis since they cannot be separated in the cutting plane method where the formulation of Path constraints is imbedded in the optimization process.

2.1. Model Formulations

2.1.1. Terminology and Model Specifications.

Let P denote the set of planning periods and N the set management units associated with a given forest planning problem. Let p index set P and i index set N . Each management unit has the following attributes: area a_i , age in years at the end of the planning horizon if the unit is cut in period p , $t_{i,p}$, volume in the unit at the end of the horizon if it is cut in period p , $v_{i,p}$, expected net revenue in period p , $r_{i,p}$ and the set of units that are adjacent to unit i , D_i . We consider two units to be adjacent if they share a common boundary. We assume that a management unit with forest type

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k cannot be harvested until it reached a minimum rotation age of R_k periods. Lastly, we assume that $R_k \geq P$: each unit can only be harvested at most once during the planning horizon.

All of the three benchmark models were set to maximize discounted net timber revenues subject to four sets of constraints: (1) logical constraints that allow each unit to be harvested at most once over the planning horizon; (2) harvest flow constraints that limit the harvest volumes in a given period to be both below and above a certain percentage, U and L , respectively, of the volume in the previous period; (3) average ending age constraints that force the area-weighted average age of the forest at the end of the planning horizon to be at or above a certain target age \overline{ET} ; and (4) maximum harvest opening size constraints that prevent the harvest of contiguous clusters of management units whose combined area exceeds a threshold A_{max} in a planning period. In this study, we limited the temporal extent of the maximum harvest opening size restrictions (a.k.a., the green-up period) to be equal to one period. Lastly, we assumed that $a_i \leq A_{max}$ for any $i \in N$.

2.1.2. The Path Formulation [27]:

The Path Formulation requires the apriori enumeration of minimal covers (or minimally infeasible clusters, see Fig. 1). After [17], we let Λ^+ denote this set with C representing one particular element in Λ^+ . A cover $C \in \Lambda^+$ is minimal if $\sum_{j \in C} a_j > A_{max}$ holds, but $\sum_{j \in C \setminus \{l\}} a_j \leq A_{max}$ for any $l \in C$. In the computational comparisons that follow, we used Algorithm I [18] to generate Λ^+ for the test problems. Algorithm I, which also generates the set of feasible clusters (Λ^-), uses the adjacency table, the areas of the management units and A_{max} as inputs:

$$\Gamma(M, A_{max}) : M \times A_{max} \mapsto \Lambda^- \times \Lambda^+ \quad (1)$$

$$\text{where } M = [m_{i,j}]_{|N| \times |N|} \text{ is the adjacency matrix with } m_{i,j} = \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if } i = j, \text{ else} \\ 1 & \text{if } i \text{ and } j \text{ are adjacent, and} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We refer to Algorithm I as $\Gamma(M, A_{max})$ in this paper and direct the reader to [18] for a full description of the algorithm. In the Path Formulation (2)-(8), the decision variables, $x_{i,p}$, represent the choice whether unit i should be harvested in period p or not. Inequality set (3) captures the logical, sets (4)-(5) capture the harvest flow, (6) the minimum average ending age and (7) the adjacency constraints with u denoting the length of the green-ups in periods and t the planning periods. Constraints (8) define the binary restrictions:

$$\max \sum_{i,p} r_{i,p} x_{i,p} \quad (2)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_p x_{i,p} \leq 1 \quad \forall i \in N \quad (3)$$

$$\sum_i v_{i,p+1} x_{i,p+1} \leq U \sum_i v_{i,p} x_{i,p} \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_i v_{i,p+1} x_{i,p+1} \geq L \sum_i v_{i,p} x_{i,p} \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (5)$$

$$\sum_{i,p} (t_{i,p} - \overline{ET}) a_i x_{i,p} \geq 0 \quad (6)$$

$$\sum_{i \in C} \sum_{t=p}^{\min(p+u-1, |P|)} x_{i,t} \leq |C| - 1 \quad \forall C \in \Lambda^+, \quad \forall p \in P \quad (7)$$

$$x_{i,p} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i \in N, \quad \forall p \in P. \quad (8)$$

Let (2)-(6) and (8) be denoted as the *core* of the Path Formulation.

2.1.3. Maximal Clique-based Cluster Packing Formulation [17]:

This model also relies on an apriori enumeration process. Unlike in the Path Formulation, however, this time the set of feasible clusters (Λ^-) is needed (Fig. 1). A contiguous set of management units g forms a feasible cluster if their combined area does not exceed A_{max} . Again, we will use [18]'s Algorithm I (1) to generate set Λ^- . The variables $x_{g,p}$ in this model represent the decision of whether all the management units in cluster g should be cut in period p or not. We note that these variables are defined for $p = 0$ only if they denote a one-unit cluster. This ensures that the ending age constraint functions as intended. Coefficients $t_{g,p}$ denote the age in years at the end of the planning horizon if cluster g is cut in period p . In the experiments that follow, we used the maximal clique-based version of the Cluster Packing Formulation [17], which requires the enumeration of the maximal sets of mutually adjacent management units (cliques): Π . A clique $K \in \Pi$ is maximal if adding one extra unit to the set would result in a group of units that are no longer mutually adjacent. The **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing Formulation can be defined as follows:

$$\max \sum_{g,p} [x_{g,p} \sum_{i \in g} r_{i,p}] \quad (9)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{g \in G_{i,p}} x_{g,p} \leq 1 \quad \forall i \in N \quad (10)$$

$$\sum_g [x_{g,p+1} \sum_{i \in g} v_{i,p+1}] \leq U \sum_g [x_{g,p} \sum_{i \in g} v_{i,p}] \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (11)$$

$$\sum_g [x_{g,p+1} \sum_{i \in g} v_{i,p+1}] \geq L \sum_g [x_{g,p} \sum_{i \in g} v_{i,p}] \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (12)$$

$$\sum_{g,p} (t_{g,p} - \overline{ET}) \sum_{i \in g} a_i x_{g,p} \geq 0 \quad (13)$$

$$\sum_{g \in G_K} \sum_{t=p}^{\min(p+u-1, |P|)} x_{g,t} \leq 1 \quad \forall K \in \Pi, \quad \forall p \in P. \quad (14)$$

$$x_{g,p} \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall g \in \Lambda^-, \quad \forall p \in P \quad (15)$$

where G_i is the set of feasible clusters that contain unit i , and G_K is the set of clusters that contain at least one unit in K . Constraints (11)-(12) are harvest flow constraints, and constraint (13) is the average ending age constraint. Script u in (14) refers the length of green ups in periods.

2.1.4. The Bucket Formulation [9]:

Define class B , indexed by b , as a set of *clear-cuts* [or *buckets* after 18]. Since $|B| \leq |N|$, $b \in N$. Clear-cuts can be empty sets or they can comprise one or more management units that are not necessarily connected to each other (Fig. 1). The composition of clear-cuts is left to the model (16)-(25) to determine by means of assignment variables $y_{i,p}^b$, that represent the decision whether management unit i should be assigned to clear-cut b in period p or not. The following model maximizes discounted net timber revenues (16) subject to logical (17), harvest flow (18)-(19), minimum average ending age (20), and binary (22) constraints:

$$\max \sum_{i,b,p} r_{ip} y_{ip}^b \quad (16)$$

Subject to

$$\sum_{b,p} y_{i,p}^b \leq 1 \quad \forall i \in N \quad (17)$$

$$\sum_{i,b} v_{i,p+1} y_{i,p+1}^b \leq U \sum_{i,b} v_{i,p} y_{i,p}^b \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (18)$$

$$\sum_{i,b} v_{i,p+1} y_{i,p+1}^b \geq L \sum_{i,b} v_{i,p} y_{i,p}^b \quad \forall p \in P \setminus \{1\} \quad (19)$$

$$\sum_{i,p} (t_{i,p} - \overline{ET}) a_i y_{i,p}^b \geq 0 \quad (20)$$

$$\sum_i a_i y_{i,p}^b \leq A_{max} \quad \forall b \in N \quad (21)$$

$$y_{i,p}^b \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall i, b \in N, \quad p \in P. \quad (22)$$

Constraint set (21) puts a limit on the total area of management units that can be assigned to the same clear-cut. Since adjacent clear-cuts might still have a combined area that exceeds A_{max} , constraint set (21) alone cannot prevent all harvest size violations. The Bucket Model uses two additional constraint sets, (23)-(24), and a set of indicator variables, $w_{b,p}^K$, that turn on if at least one unit in maximal clique K is assigned to clear-cut b in period p , to keep the clear-cuts disjoint:

$$y_{i,p}^b \leq w_{b,p}^K \quad \forall K \in \Pi, \quad i \in K, \quad b \leq i, p \in P \quad (23)$$

$$\sum_b \sum_{t=p}^{\min(p+u-1, |P|)} w_{b,t}^K \leq 1 \quad \forall K \in \Pi, \quad p \in P \quad (24)$$

$$w_{i,p}^K \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad \forall K \in \Pi, \quad b \in N, \quad p \in P \quad (25)$$

Constraint set (23) defines the behavior of indicator variables $w_{b,p}^K$ based on the values of the assignment variables. Constraint set (24) says that each management unit in a clique, say clique K , can only be assigned to one clear-cut. Lastly, constraints (25) define the indicator variables as positive real. Constraints (24) allow greenups of length u in periods.

At $O(|N|^2 \times |P|)$ [9], the size of the Bucket Formulation can exceed the size of the Path or the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing models if $|N|$ is large [18]. However, the model can be reduced to a fraction of its size by creating assignment variables only for those pairs of units that can be connected by a chain of other units whose combined area plus the area of the two original units doesn't exceed the maximum opening size [9]. As in [9], a dynamic programming recursion was used [13, 37, 42] **in this study as well** to calculate the area of the *shortest area chains* between each pair of units:

$$s(i, j, l) = \begin{cases} \alpha(i, j) & \text{if } l = 1 \\ \min\{s(i, j, l-1), s(i, l, l-1) + s(l, j, l-1)\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

where $\alpha(i, j)$ is the combined area of units i and j with $\alpha(i, j)$ being ∞ if the units are not adjacent, and $s(i, j, l)$ is the total area of the shortest area chain between units i and j going through intermediate units $1, 2, \dots$, and l . If, for a pair of units i and j , Function (26) returns an $s(i, j, |N|)$ that is greater than A_{max} , there is no need for variables that would assign unit i to clear-cut j , or vice versa. This simplification considerably reduces model size at a minimal preprocessing cost.

2.2. The Cutting Plane Algorithm for the Path Formulation:

As described in Section 1.2, the formulation time for the Path Model can be excessive due to the enormous number of cover constraints that might be needed to prevent all possible harvest opening size violations. To minimize formulation times associated with the cover enumeration process, we propose to use the cover inequalities (7) as *cuts* or *cutting planes*. Unlike conventional constraints, cutting planes do not have to be identified **pre-optimization**. The proposed cutting plane method, whose two variants are formally described in Algorithms (1)-(2), starts as the standard branch-and-bound algorithm [21] with the LP relaxation of the core Path Formulation being the root node (LP_0): (2)-(6) with $x_{i,p} \geq 0 \forall i \in N, \forall p \in P$. In other words, we start with the LP relaxation of the model that lacks the cover inequalities that would prevent harvest opening size violations. The branch-and-bound algorithm is instructed to stop whenever an LP sub-problem, say LP_k (where k indexes the sub-problems), is found with an objective value that is better than the best found so far (a.k.a., the incumbent solution). In either case, the cutting plane algorithm checks if the new solution contains any harvest opening size violations. We call this detection effort the *ARM Separation Problem*. If a violation is found, the algorithm creates a constraint of form (7) to prevent that specific violation and appends it to the problem. Otherwise, no action is taken. In either case, the branch-and-bound algorithm proceeds until another potentially optimal solution is found. The Separation Problem is invoked again and the process continues until no more violations are found and all of the existing LP sub-problems are solved.

Formally, the ARM Separation Problem is defined as a modified version of Function (1). Let $H_{k,p}$ denote the set of management units $m \in N$ such that $x_{m,p} = 1$ in LP_k . Then, the Separation Problem for LP_k is to evaluate if $\bigcup_p \Lambda_{k,p}^+ = \{\emptyset\}$ for $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max}) : M_{k,p} \times A_{max} \mapsto \Lambda_{k,p}^+ \forall p \in P$, where $M_{k,p} = [m_{i,j}]$ with $i, j \in H_{k,p}$. If $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ returns $\{\emptyset\}$, then LP_k is ARM-feasible. Otherwise, one constraint of type (7) needs to be written for each $C \in \Lambda_{k,p}^+$ and appended to LP_k and to the other active nodes. While both the domain and the image of $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ are different from Goycoolea's $\Gamma(M, A_{max})$, what is important is that, typically, $M_{k,p} \subseteq M$, and as a result $M_{k,p}$ is much sparser than M . In other words, the units in $M_{k,p}$ are much less likely to form contiguous clusters than those in M . The computational implication of this, namely that evaluating function $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ is in most cases trivial compared to $\Gamma(M, A_{max})$, is critical to performance of the proposed algorithm.

As mentioned earlier, we developed two different strategies for imbedding the ARM Separation Problem in the branch-and-bound algorithm. In the first strategy (Algorithm 1), the Separation Problem is invoked whenever a solution, fractional or not, is found to an LP sub-problem with an objective value better than the incumbent's. The branch-and-bound algorithm starts as usual.

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4 There is one active (or *dangling*) node, $LP_0 \in D$, where D is the set of active nodes, and an empty
5 set of incumbent solutions (Z^*). The lower bound on the optimal objective value (\underline{z}), is set to $-\infty$.
6 Next we evaluate if D is empty. If it is, we check if we have an incumbent in Z^* . If we do, the
7 incumbent is optimal, otherwise the problem is infeasible. If D is not empty, another sub-problem,
8 LP_k , is selected using the solver's built-in variable selection strategies, and solved as an LP. If the
9 program is infeasible or if it is feasible but the solution has an objective value z_k that is less than
10 the incumbent's, then LP_k is dropped from set D and another sub-problem is selected. Otherwise,
11 we evaluate $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$. If $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ yields an empty $\bigcup_p \Lambda_{k,p}^+$, i.e., LP_k is ARM feasible,
12 we check the integrality of LP_k . If LP_k is integral, we drop it from set D along with all the other
13 LP sub-problems that have an objective value less than or equal to z_k . We identify LP_k as the
14 incumbent and set \underline{z} to be equal to z_k . If LP_k is fractional, we instruct the solver to branch on a
15 variable and create two LP sub-problems that are appended to D , replacing LP_k . If $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$
16 yields a non-empty $\bigcup_p \Lambda_{k,p}^+$, we append all sub-problems in D , including LP_k , with constraints (7)
17 written for all $C \in \Lambda_{k,p}^+$ and $p \in P$. In other words, we add the path constraints as *global cuts*. We
18 also tested the option of adding the constraints to only LP_k as *local cuts*, but this strategy proved
19 to be computationally inferior to global cuts. Once the cuts are appended to the dangling nodes,
20 the composition of set D is reassessed and the process continues in an iterative manner until no
21 more violations are found and set D becomes empty, or if the gap between the objective value of
22 the incumbent and the best node falls below a predefined threshold.

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24 In the second strategy (Algorithm 2), the Separation Problem is invoked, i.e., $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$
25 is evaluated only if the solution to an LP sub-problem with an objective value better than the
26 incumbent's is integral. If LP_k is fractional, we instruct the solver to branch on a variable and
27 create two new LP sub-problems replacing LP_k in D as in the first strategy. If LP_k is integral and
28 $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ yields an empty $\bigcup_p \Lambda_{k,p}^+$, then LP_k is ARM feasible and dropped from set D along
29 with all the other LP sub-problems that have an objective value less than or equal to z_k . We identify
30 LP_k as the incumbent and set \underline{z} to be equal to z_k . If $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ yields a non-empty $\bigcup_p \Lambda_{k,p}^+$, the
31 algorithm proceeds as in the first strategy until another LP sub-problem is found with an objective
32 value better than the incumbent's.

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34 There is a tradeoff between the two strategies. The Separation Problem is less frequently in-
35 voked in the second than in the first strategy leading to potential time savings. However, the
36 identification of path constraints that cut off large amounts of fractional solution space might be
37 delayed or missed with the second strategy. We test both strategies.

2.3. *The computational experiment*

Sixty hypothetical and eight real forest planning problems, including Pack Forest, were used to test the performance of the cutting plane algorithms in comparison with the benchmark models. We compared the formulation plus solution times (*total times*) and tested if the computational advantage of the cutting planes method was sensitive to different maximum clear-cut size restrictions. We hypothesized that the method would perform better with increasing clear-cut sizes.

2.3.1. *The test forests:*

The hypothetical problems were generated using a program called MakeLand [26]. MakeLand randomly created ten 300 and ten 500-unit forests and assigned age-classes to each of the units in such a way so that the overall age-class distribution of each forest would be slightly over-mature resembling a typical Pennsylvania hardwood forest. The age-class allocations were repeated three times for each forest resulting in 60 problems.

The real forests included the 5,224-unit NBCL5 (New Brunswick, Canada), the 1,323-unit Eldorado (California, U.S.) and the 1,019-unit Shulkell (Nova Scotia, Canada). The datasets associated with these forests were obtained from the University of New Brunswick's Forest Management Optimization Site [14]. Four of the five remaining real forests were from Pennsylvania, U.S.: the 32-unit Kittaning4, the 71-unit FivePoints, the 89-unit PhyllisLeeper and the 90-unit BearTown. Lastly, the 186-unit Pack Forest was from Washington, U.S. The hypothetical forests, plus Pack, Eldorado and Shulkell had only one forest type and site class. Kittaning4, FivePoints, PhyllisLeeper and BearTown had five forest types and three site classes, while NBCL5 had six forest types and only one site class. The size of the largest management units in each forest was smaller than the most restrictive harvest opening size limit that was applied to that particular forest. To achieve this, the units larger than 16.1 ha in Shulkell and larger than 20.23 ha in NBCL5 were excluded. Units in NBCL5 without yield information in the FMOS database were also dropped.

2.3.2. *Planning parameter settings:*

Maximum harvest opening sizes of 40, 50 and 60 ha were imposed on the hypothetical problems, 40, 50, 60 and 80 ha on the four smallest real problems, 24.28, 32.37, 40.47 and 48.56 ha on Pack Forest, 48.56, 60.70 and 72.84 ha on Eldorado, 40 and 60 ha on Shulkell and 21, 30 and 40 ha on NBCL5. These restrictions are comparable to those used in earlier studies such as [18]. Other critical planning parameters included the length of the planning horizon, which was set to 60 years for the hypothetical problems, and to 50, 45, 40 or 25 years for the real problems. The length of the planning periods was 10 years for each problem except for Eldorado, Shulkell and Pack where it was only 5 years. We assumed that the forests regenerated in the same forest type and site class

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4 within one planning period after harvest. The minimum rotation age was different for each forest
5 but was constant across forest types and site classes with the exception of NBCL5 where it varied
6 based on forest type. The minimum average age of the forests at the end of the planning horizon
7 was set to be 50 years for Pack and 40 years for Eldorado, Shulkell, Kittaning4, FivePoints, Phyl-
8 lisLeeper, BearTown and for the hypothetical forests. In NBCL5, the ending age was set to be at
9 least one half of the minimum rotation age: 10, 15, 20, 25, 30 and 50 years for the six forest types,
10 respectively. The lower and upper bounds on the harvest volumes in a particular period except the
11 first were varied for each forest between 80 and 95%, and between 110 and 130%, respectively, of
12 that of the previous period.
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19 2.3.3. *Implementation:*

20 We formulated and solved the Path, **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing and Bucket models,
21 and ran the proposed cutting plane algorithms, using the Java programming language and IBM-
22 ILOG CPLEX v. 12.1 [19] Concert Technology (4-thread, 64-bit, released in 2009). A Power
23 Edge 2950 server was used for both model formulations and optimization. The server had four
24 Intel Xeon 5160 central processing units at 3.00Gz frequency and 16GB of random access mem-
25 ory (RAM). The operating system was MS Windows Server 2003 R2, Standard x64 Edition with
26 Service Pack 2 (MS Windows 2003). There were a few larger model instances that we formulated
27 on a more powerful machine, Power Edge R510 that had two Intel Xeon X5670 central processing
28 units at 3.00Gz frequency, with 32GB of RAM and MS Windows Server 2008 R2, Standard x64
29 Edition. These “larger” instances were the Bucket models for Shulkell at 24.3 ha A_{max} , Eldorado
30 at 72.8 ha and NBCL5 at 21, 30 and 40 ha, and the Path and **the Maximal Clique-based** Cluster
31 Packing models for Pack at 48.6 ha A_{max} . As it will be seen in the Results section, the fact that
32 for a few problems the formulation times were measured using the faster machine, had no impact
33 on our conclusions because these formulation times were still longer than those obtained with the
34 alternative models where the slower Power Edge 2950 was used.
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45 Algorithm I [18], or, equivalently, the evaluation of $\Gamma(M, A_{max})$, was implemented in Java.
46 Hash tables and linked lists were used to store the intermediate results of enumeration and to
47 check for redundancies in an efficient manner. Algorithm I was not only used to formulate the
48 Path and the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing models but it was also used to solve the
49 ARM Separation Problem, $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$, in the proposed cutting plane algorithms. The maximal
50 clique enumeration and the Floyd-Warshall Algorithm (Eq. 26), that were needed for the **Maximal**
51 **Clique-based** Cluster Packing and the Bucket models, were also implemented in Java. Formulation
52 times did not include the times to calculate the revenue and volume coefficients.
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58 As for mixed integer optimization, the solver CPLEX was instructed to terminate after 6 hours
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4 of run time or after a 0.05% optimality gap was reached, whichever happened first. Except for
5 the 1GB working memory limit, all other CPLEX parameters were left at their default settings.
6 The ARM Separation Problem was imbedded in both versions of the cutting plane algorithm using
7 CPLEX's *lazy constraint callback*, and *cut callback* routines. Callbacks are user-defined sub-
8 routines that are implemented by CPLEX during optimization whenever certain conditions hold.
9 CPLEX invokes lazy constraint callbacks whenever a new solution, fractional or not, is found
10 with an objective function value that is better than the incumbent's. In cut callbacks, the user
11 defines the conditions under which the sub-routine is invoked. We used lazy constraint callbacks
12 for the first (Algorithm 1) and cut callbacks for the second cutting planes strategy (Algorithm 2).
13 CPLEX was instructed to invoke the cut callbacks whenever an integral solution was found with
14 an objective function value better than the incumbent's. All cuts were added as globally valid. We
15 experimented with adding the cuts locally, but found that many cuts had to be re-created repeatedly
16 during optimization leading to inefficiencies.
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25 26 **3. Results**

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28 Tables 1 and 2 contain details about the computational performance of the proposed cutting
29 plane method. These details include formulation and solution times, optimality gaps and the num-
30 ber and percent of path constraints that were used as cuts by the cutting plane method during
31 optimization. The column "Formulation time" lists only the Core (Eq. 2-6 and 8) formulation
32 times. Computing times associated with the detection algorithm were included in the "Solution
33 times" column. Tables 3 and 4 compare the formulation and solution times that were achieved
34 by the cutting plane method with those of the original Path, the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster
35 Packing and the Bucket models. The cluster enumeration times, which are part of both the Path
36 and **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing formulation times, were listed separately in the second
37 column to show how significant this effort can be computationally. All results listed in the above
38 tables with respect to the cutting plane approach are from **the first strategy (Algorithm 1)** where the
39 ARM Separation Problem was invoked every time a potentially optimal solution, fractional or not,
40 was found by the branch-and-bound algorithm. While on average **the second strategy (Algorithm**
41 **2)** led to 13% better performance, it ran out of the 6-hour time limit in six, while it ran out of mem-
42 ory in three out of the sixty hypothetical problems. We never experienced any time or memory
43 limit issues with **the first strategy**.
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54 Tables 1 and 3 display results about the eight real, while Tables 2 and 4 display results about
55 the sixty hypothetical forest planning problems. Since there were too many hypothetical problems
56 to display individually, only aggregate results are listed in Tables 2 and 4. The aggregate results
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4 include medians and first and third quartiles, which are cutoff values for the lowest 25 and 75% of
5 the test population in terms of performance metrics. The optimality gaps were not aggregated.
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8 One key observation that can be made based on Tables 1 and 2 is that the number of path
9 constraints that were used as cuts by the cutting plane method was, in the vast majority of cases,
10 only a tiny fraction of the entire set of path constraints that are needed for the original Path Model.
11 The only exceptions were Kittaning4, FivePoints, PhyllisLeeper and the BearTown instances with
12 40 and 50ha max opening sizes, where, not surprisingly, the cutting plane method was not able to
13 outperform the original Path Model (Table 3). Another important observation is that the proportion
14 of path constraints always decreased as the maximum clear-cut size increased. This foreboded our
15 primary result, shown in Tables 3 and 4, that the proposed cutting plane algorithm outperformed
16 the other methods, sometimes by dramatic margins, as the maximum clear-cut size increased. It
17 is clear that formulation times for the Path and the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing models
18 were very sensitive to increasing maximum clear-cut sizes, while those of the Bucket model were
19 very sensitive to the increasing number of units. Considering Shulkell at 24.3 ha max opening
20 size, or Eldorado at 72.8ha, while the Path or the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing models
21 required 2-3 days to complete the formulation and the optimization process, the proposed cutting
22 plane method found a solution within the predefined 0.05% optimality gap in 3 minutes for the
23 former and in 71 minutes for the latter instance.
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26 The advantage of the cutting plane method was even more dramatic for Pack Forest at the 40.5
27 or 48.6 ha max opening sizes. Of the 924,133 path constraints that are needed for the full Path
28 Model at the 48.6 ha opening size, which is the legal limit in Washington, only 30 (0.00325%)
29 had to be used by the cutting planes method to find a feasible solution within 0.16% of optimality
30 (Table 1). At 40.5 ha, only 54 of the 170,232 constraints (0.0317%) were necessary. The huge
31 difference in the number of constraints that had to be used led to massive savings in formulation
32 time. While formulating the core Path Model, which is all what is needed for the cutting planes
33 method, took only 1.66 seconds regardless of opening size, the full Path and **Maximal Clique-based**
34 Cluster Packing Models each took more than 60 days for the State's 48.6 ha limit and they took
35 almost 2 days for the 40.5 ha limit to formulate (Table 3). Formulation times were very reasonable
36 at 2-3 minutes for the Bucket Model since Pack Forest had only 186 units. However, in terms of
37 optimality gaps (none of the models solved to the target 0.05% gap within 6 hours), the Bucket
38 Model performed far worse than the proposed cutting planes method and the other benchmarks
39 (Table 3). At 0.34 and 0.16%, respectively, the cutting planes method achieved the best gaps
40 for the 48.6 and the 40.5 ha opening size instances at Pack Forest. Of note is that the **Maximal**
41 **Clique-based** Cluster Model did not produce any feasible solutions at 48.6 ha.
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4 As for the relative performance of the Bucket Model vs. the cutting plane method, the latter
5 did always better in real problems. The advantage of cutting planes was particularly dramatic in
6 cases where the number of units in the forest was large as in NBCL5 (Table 3).
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9 To further contrast how the four methods performed with respect to the hypothetical problems,
10 Fig. 2 maps out trend lines for solution and formulation plus solution times on natural logarithmic
11 scales as functions of increasing clear-cut size. The lines were derived from median formulation
12 and solution times. The top graphs show that solution times for the Path and the **Maximal Clique-**
13 **based** Cluster Packing models increased more than polynomially with the maximum clear-cut size.
14 On the other hand, solution times for the Bucket method increased only slightly, and they peaked
15 in the middle of the clear-cut size range for the cutting plane method. If only the solution times
16 are considered, the cutting plane method did not perform better than the other models. Moreover,
17 the medians obtained with the Bucket model were always below those of the cutting plane method.
18 This is not surprising since solution times include formulation times for the cutting plane method.
19 The two cannot be separated due to the integrated nature of the algorithm. If formulation plus
20 solution times are compared, the result is very different (bottom graphs). Total times for the Path
21 and **the Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing models increased at a rate faster than solution times
22 as a function of increasing maximum harvest opening size. At the extreme, in the 500-unit, 60ha
23 category, the median total time was one magnitude higher than the median solution time for these
24 two models. In 5 out of 6 categories (bottom graphs), median total times for the Bucket model
25 were greater than that of the cutting plane method. Except for the 300-unit, 40 ha category, where
26 the median for the Bucket model was only marginally smaller at 553.46s than that of the cutting
27 plane at 555.44s, all the other problems formulated and solved faster with the new method.
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40 **4. Discussion and conclusions**

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42 Overall, our tests showed that the proposed cutting plane method can be very efficient in for-
43 mulating and solving spatially-explicit harvest scheduling problems with area restrictions if the
44 maximum clear-cut size is large relative the average size of the units or if the number of units is
45 high, or both. The greater the number of units, or the larger the maximum harvest opening size, the
46 cutting plane method is more likely to outperform the other models. While total times for the Path,
47 the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing and the Bucket models exhibited a robust increasing
48 trend as a function of maximum harvest opening size or as a function of the number of units, the
49 total time for the cutting plane method either decreased or if it increased, it increased at a sub-linear
50 rate. With the exception of Eldorado and the four smallest problems (Kittaning4, FivePoints, Phyl-
51 lisLeeper and BearTown), where the relative number of path constraints used as cuts was high,
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4 total times with the cutting plane method were always the lowest at the largest clear-cut size. This
5 trend was expected since a relaxation of harvest opening size should lead to fewer violations in
6 potential solutions. Fewer violations require fewer path constraints to be generated by the cutting
7 plane method, which in turn could result in shorter computing times.
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10 The management planning implications of these time savings is best illustrated by Pack Forest,
11 an actual forestry organization. The biggest part of the opportunity costs of acquiring FSC certifi-
12 cation at Pack Forest comes from foregone timber revenues. These revenues can only be estimated
13 by finding a harvest schedule that maximizes profit subject to regulations that are present in the
14 absence of FSC certification. Since state regulations include a 48.6 ha limit on maximum clear-cut
15 size, whatever model is used to find a profit maximizing harvest schedule needs to take this re-
16 striction into account. Of the three models that were available from the forest planning literature,
17 only two, the Path and the Bucket Models were able to find feasible harvest schedules within 6
18 hours of solution time (Table 3). The failure of the **Maximal Clique-based** Cluster Packing Model
19 to find feasible solutions was not completely unexpected as [18] have already predicted that ARM
20 instances where the feasible clusters average at or above 10 units in cardinality “seem largely in-
21 tractable” (p161). The feasible clusters in the 48.6 ha instance of Pack Forest average 10.27. Of
22 the two models that did find feasible solutions within 6 hours, the Path Model required more than
23 60 days to formulate. The cutting plane method, which requires only 1.66 seconds of formulation
24 time, can be used to run hundreds of sensitivity analyses during this timeframe to investigate the
25 impact of such important but uncertain factors as wood prices or timber yields. While the Bucket
26 Model formulated the 48.6 ha instance in only 176 seconds, it found a solution only within 1.01%
27 of optimality. Although the 1.01% does not seem much, it amounts to about one year’s worth of
28 salaries for one of the Pack Forest workers. Again, the computational advantage of the cutting
29 plane method over the Bucket Model is even more pronounced in larger problems such as NBCL5,
30 Shulkell and El Dorado.
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33 An interesting observation in NBCL5 and the hypothetical problems, is that there is a peak in
34 total times for the cutting plane approach in the middle of the maximum clear-cut size range (Table
35 1 and 2). We speculate this might be due to tradeoffs between the difficulty of solving the ARM
36 Separation Problem and the cost of adding cuts to active nodes in the branch-and-bound process.
37 As A_{max} increases relative to the average size of the units, the ARM Separation Problem becomes
38 slightly harder to solve because a larger number of units is needed to construct minimally infeasible
39 clusters. As the opening size further increases, however, this added computational difficulty is
40 eventually offset by the lack of units that can possibly form large enough clusters.
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43 It might be possible to further improve the efficiency of the proposed cutting plane approach.
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4 We tested only two strategies for imbedding the ARM Separation Problem in the branch-and-bound
5 algorithm. The two differed only in terms of when the Separation Problem was invoked. While in
6 **the first strategy**, it was invoked whenever a solution, fractional or not, was found with an objective
7 value that exceeded that of the incumbent's, **in the second strategy**, it was invoked only when the
8 solution candidate was all-integral. Many other possible strategies exist not only in terms of when
9 the Separation Problem is invoked but also in terms of how exactly the Separation Problem is
10 defined. We defined the set of input variables, $H_{k,p}$, for function $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$, which served as a
11 tool to solve the Separation Problem, based on whether their optimal values in LP_k were equal to
12 one. An equally valid strategy would be to define $H_{k,p}$ based on whether the input variables took
13 strictly positive values in LP_k . If they did, they would be included in $H_{k,p}$, otherwise they would
14 not. While this strategy would make the Separation Problem harder to solve because of the larger
15 input size, it might allow the identification of stronger cuts early in the optimization process.

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23 As a last note, it is important to emphasize that the value of new ARM methodologies is not
24 restricted to timber management. Apart from potential applications in the radio transmission prob-
25 lem [17], the ARM can be used to design prescribed burns or other types of “treatment” units to
26 minimize the risk of catastrophic wildfires and pest infestations in agricultural, grass and forest
27 lands. The contiguous size of the burn or treatment units is typically restricted not only because
28 of operational, safety and economic reasons, but also because the ultimate goal is often to create
29 a landscape structure that is more resilient to future fires and pests [8]. This can be best achieved
30 with a fire or treatment mosaic of burned (treated) and unburned (untreated) areas [8]. Spatial op-
31 timization of land-use patterns in managed landscapes [29] is yet another area where the ARM can
32 come handy to promote the spatial diversity of landscape elements such as farms of various crops,
33 grasslands and forests.

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41 Being a generalization of the Stable Set Problem (SSP), the ARM can also be used in other
42 graph theoretical applications of the SSP where some dependence (connectivity) among the nodes
43 is allowed. One example is portfolio optimization where financial instruments on the stock market
44 can be represented as nodes and correlations among instruments with respect to price movements
45 or liquidity can be represented as edges [5, 6]. Finding large independent portfolios in a *market*
46 *graph* is problematic due to the globalization of the stock market [5]. Thus, the ability to select
47 a pair of instruments that are correlated could be beneficial as long as the covariance (risk) of
48 the pair does not exceed the tolerance of the investor. This is where ARM methodologies, the
49 proposed cutting plane algorithm in particular, can be useful since the market graph is large and
50 risk tolerance varies among investors.

5. Acknowledgment

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Algorithm 1 The ARM Branch-And-Cut Algorithm with $\Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$ invoked at each solution candidate. LP_k represents linear programming sub-problem or node k , where $k = 0$ represents the root node. Set D denotes the set of active, or dangling nodes, and Z^* denotes the set of incumbent solutions. Objective function value \underline{z} is the current best primal bound and z_k represents the objective value corresponding to node k .

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14
15 Initialize:  $\underline{z} \leftarrow -\infty$ ,  $Z^* \leftarrow \{\emptyset\}$ ,  $D \leftarrow \{LP_0\}$ 
16 while  $D \neq \{\emptyset\}$  do
17     currentNode  $\leftarrow$  select element from  $D$       {strategy depends on the solver}
18     currentSolution  $\leftarrow$  solveLP(currentNode)
19      $z_k \leftarrow$  objectiveValue(currentNode)
20     if currentSolution is feasible and  $z_k > \underline{z}$  then
21          $\Lambda_k^+ \leftarrow \bigcup_p \Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$       {evaluate the ARM Separation Problem  $\forall p \in P$ }
22         if  $\Lambda_k^+ \neq \{\emptyset\}$  then
23             for all  $l \in D$  and  $C \in \Lambda_k^+$  do
24                 append  $LP_l$  with constraints  $\sum_{m \in C} x_{m,t} \leq |C| - 1$ 
25             end for
26         else if currentSolution is integral then
27              $Z^* \leftarrow$  currentSolution
28              $\underline{z} \leftarrow z_k$ 
29             for all  $j \in D$  do
30                  $z_j \leftarrow$  objectiveValue( $LP_j$ )
31                 if  $z_j \leq \underline{z}$  then
32                      $D \leftarrow D \setminus \{LP_j\}$ 
33                 end if
34             end for
35         else
36              $D \leftarrow D \cup \{LP_{|D|+1}\} \cup \{LP_{|D|+2}\}$       {branch and create two nodes from currentNode}
37         end if
38     else
39          $D \leftarrow D \setminus \{\text{currentNode}\}$ 
40     end if
41 end while
42 if  $Z^* = \{\emptyset\}$  then
43     problem is infeasible
44 else
45      $Z^*$  is optimal
46 end if

```

Algorithm 2 The ARM Branch-And-Cut Algorithm with $\Gamma_{(k,p,A_{max})}$ invoked at only integral solutions. LP_k represents linear programming sub-problem or node k , where $k = 0$ represents the root node. Set D denotes the set of active, or dangling nodes, and Z^* denotes the set of incumbent solutions. Objective function value \underline{z} is the current best primal bound and z_k represents the objective value corresponding to node k .

```

13 Initialize:  $\underline{z} \leftarrow -\infty$ ,  $Z^* \leftarrow \{\emptyset\}$ ,  $D \leftarrow \{LP_0\}$ 
14 while  $D \neq \{\emptyset\}$  do
15     currentNode  $\leftarrow$  select element from  $D$     {strategy depends on the solver}
16     currentSolution  $\leftarrow$  solveLP(currentNode)
17      $z_k \leftarrow$  objectiveValue(currentNode)
18     if currentSolution is feasible and  $z_k > \underline{z}$  then
19         if currentSolution is integral then
20              $\Lambda_k^+ \leftarrow \bigcup_p \Gamma(M_{k,p}, A_{max})$     {evaluate the ARM Separation Problem  $\forall p \in P$ }
21             if  $\Lambda_k^+ \neq \{\emptyset\}$  then
22                 for all  $l \in D$  and  $C \in \Lambda_k^+$  do
23                     append  $LP_l$  with constraints  $\sum_{m \in C} x_{m,t} \leq |C| - 1$ 
24                 end for
25             else
26                  $Z^* \leftarrow$  currentSolution
27                  $\underline{z} \leftarrow z_k$ 
28                 for all  $j \in D$  do
29                      $z_j \leftarrow$  objectiveValue( $LP_j$ )
30                     if  $z_j \leq \underline{z}$  then
31                          $D \leftarrow D \setminus \{LP_j\}$ 
32                     end if
33                 end for
34             end if
35         else
36              $D \leftarrow D \cup \{LP_{|D|+1}\} \cup \{LP_{|D|+2}\}$     {branch and create two nodes from currentNode}
37         end if
38     else
39          $D \leftarrow D \setminus \{\text{currentNode}\}$ 
40     end if
41 end while
42 if  $Z^* = \{\emptyset\}$  then
43     problem is infeasible
44 else
45      $Z^*$  is optimal
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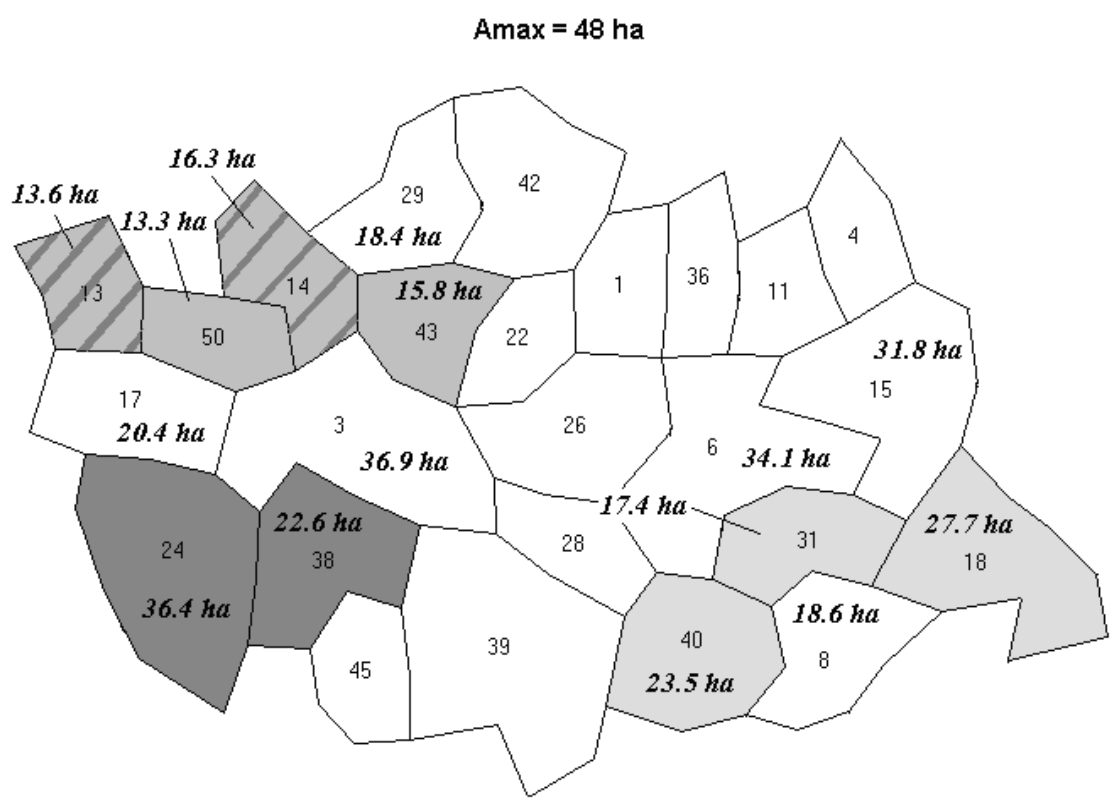


Figure 1: Spatially explicit harvest scheduling models optimize the binary harvesting decisions for each forest stand (depicted as polygons on a map) over a set of planning periods. The figure also shows examples of feasible and minimally infeasible clusters and clear-cuts (or buckets) whose complete sets are required for alternative formulations the ARM. Sets $\{13,14,43,50\}$, $\{24,38\}$ and $\{18,31,40\}$ are examples of minimally infeasible clusters, used in the Path Formulation [27], whereas $\{13\}, \{14\}, \{18\}, \{24\}, \{31\}, \{38\}, \{40\}, \{43\}, \{50\}, \{13,50\}, \{14,43\}, \{14,50\}, \{13,14,50\}, \{14,43,50\}, \{18,31\}$ or $\{31,40\}$ are feasible clusters used in the Maximal Clique-based Cluster Packing Model [17]. Finally, potential clear-cuts used in [9] include all the feasible clusters plus spatially disjoint assignments such as $\{13,14\}$ or $\{43,50\}$.

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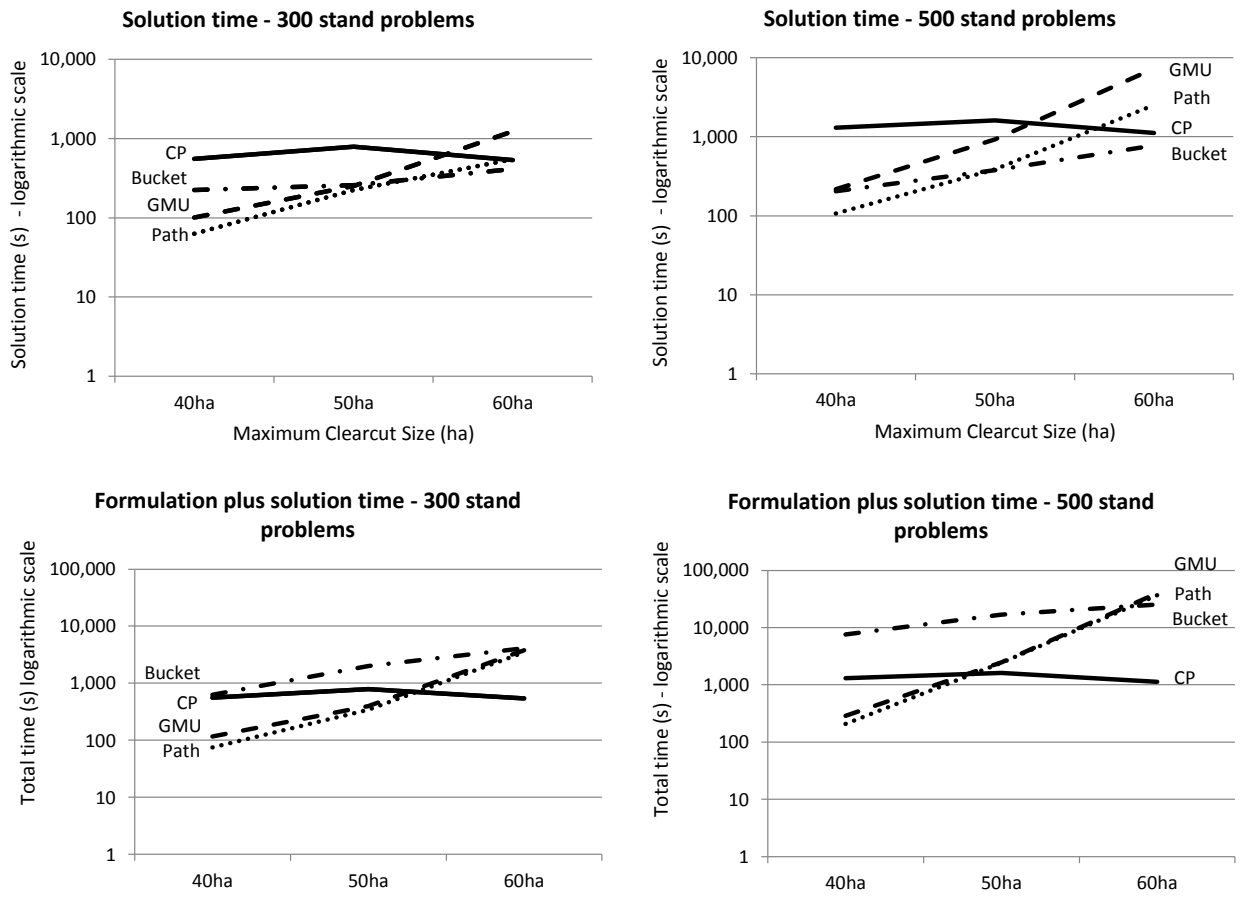


Figure 2: Comparing solution time and total (formulation plus solution) time of the four ARM approaches based on the hypothetical problems. Data points represent the trend in the median values of Table 4.

Table 1: Computational performance of the ARM Cutting Planes - real forests

Problem ID/ Max clear-cut size	Formulation time (s)	Solution time (s)	Optimality gap (%)	Number of cuts used	Percent of path constraints used
<i>Pack, N =186</i>					
24.3ha		-	0.29	145	1.84
32.4ha	1.66	-	0.32	79	0.23
40.5ha		-	0.16	54	0.03
48.6ha		-	0.34	30	0.00
<i>Shulkell, N =1,019</i>					
16.1ha	2.03	183.24	0.03	56	0.11
24.3ha		179.68	0.04	28	0.01
<i>Eldorado, N =1,363</i>					
48.6ha		4,628.30	0.03	1,471	2.72
60.7ha	2.44	3,265.15	0.05	1,228	0.88
72.8ha		4,298.62	0.05	1,866	0.36
<i>NBCL5, N =5,224</i>					
21ha		443.13	0.05	1,343	4.67
30ha	4.17	1,081.20	0.04	1,000	1.38
40ha		159.36	0.02	965	0.38
<i>Kittaning4, N =32</i>					
40ha		28.37	0.05	64	43.54
50ha	1.36	13.91	0.05	31	18.79
60ha		22.48	0.05	28	14.58
80ha		58.19	0.05	15	4.89
<i>FivePoints, N =71</i>					
40ha		36.38	0.05	127	28.22
50ha	1.23	7.42	0.05	93	14.24
60ha		19.94	0.05	88	9.35
80ha		11.88	0.04	52	2.82
<i>PhyllisLeeper, N =89</i>					
40ha		-	0.09	483	83.71
50ha	1.17	-	0.09	631	66.35
60ha		-	0.06	653	57.99
80ha		-	0.07	594	24.54
<i>BearTown, N =90</i>					
40ha		-	0.11	401	82.34
50ha	1.45	-	0.07	452	68.38
60ha		-	0.18	582	65.91
80ha		-	0.10	724	39.56

Table 2: Computational performance of the ARM Cutting Planes - hypothetical forests

Problem ID	Formulation time (s)	Solution time (s)	Number of cuts used	Percent of path constraints used
THIRD QUARTILE (cutoff for the lowest 75% of the data)				
<i>300-stand problems</i>				
40ha		1,307.01	399.25	3.30
50ha	1.11	2,030.89	359.50	0.84
60ha		1,683.81	244.25	0.22
<i>500-stand problems</i>				
40ha		2,489.13	484.25	1.80
50ha	1.20	2,998.58	390.25	0.43
60ha		2,288.71	270.75	0.13
MEDIAN (center - 50% - of the distribution)				
<i>300-stand problems</i>				
40ha		554.33	347.00	2.41
50ha	1.11	789.04	251.50	0.67
60ha		537.79	167.50	0.16
<i>500-stand problems</i>				
40ha		1,302.44	410.00	1.15
50ha	1.17	1,613.98	303.00	0.30
60ha		1,121.93	213.00	0.08
FIRST QUARTILE (cutoff for the lowest 25% of the data)				
<i>300-stand problems</i>				
40ha		386.92	289.00	1.90
50ha	1.09	508.74	202.25	0.50
60ha		304.68	134.50	0.11
<i>500-stand problems</i>				
40ha		792.64	346.00	0.64
50ha	1.17	940.18	229.75	0.17
60ha		626.90	127.00	0.05

Table 3: Formulation and solution times - real forests

Problem ID	Cluster enumeration	Path formulation	Cluster Packing solution formulation	Bucket solution formulation	CP total
(time in seconds / % optimality gap at 6 hrs)					
<i>Pack, N =186</i>					
24.3ha	31.59	36.53 (0.21%)	35.00 (0.44%)	104.78 (1.83%)	(0.29%)
32.4ha	2,731	2,846 (0.20%)	2,751 (0.58%)	135.68 (0.95%)	(0.32%)
40.5ha	162,593	164,079 (0.44%)	162,726 (0.92%)	121.32 (0.86%)	(0.16%)
48.6ha	5,302,395 ^c	5,302,397 ^c (0.55%)	5,303,282 ^c -	176.00 (1.01%)	(0.34%)
<i>Shulkell, N =1,019</i>					
16.1ha	546.85	548.87	42.837	586.52 246.45	68,265 795.09 185.27
24.3ha	164,059	164,062	515.09	164,202 16,143	24,555 ^c 4,079 181.70
<i>Eldorado, N =1,363</i>					
48.6ha	1,497	1,500 20.16	1,516 32.23	56,253 (0.08%)	4,631
60.7ha	20,158	20,160 75.61	20,144 115.92	64,384 (0.14%)	3,267
72.8ha	234,216	234,219 3,518	233,879 530.95	39,149 ^c (0.56%)	4,301
<i>NBCL5, N =5,224</i>					
21ha	143.70	182.14 11.23	167.81 21.27	210,717 ^c 532.14	447.30
30ha	2,626	2,931 22.63	2,825 86.63	789,070 ^c (0.07%)	1,085
40ha	73,558	83,743 79.78	74,510 12,748	949,889 ^c 19,516	163.53
<i>Kittaning4, N =32</i>					
40ha	0.05	1.42 13.48	1.80 162.23	0.44 235	29.73
50ha	0.02	1.38 8.92	1.66 473.14	0.22 2,725	15.27
60ha	0.02	1.38 4.38	1.41 1,164.09	0.23 13,322	23.84
80ha	0.02	1.38 13.81	1.16 138.88	0.30 (0.27%)	59.55
<i>FivePoints, N =71</i>					
40ha	0.09	1.34 4.03	1.78 210.25	2.84 6.97	37.61
50ha	0.08	1.34 0.56	1.25 461.71	3.47 7,075	8.66
60ha	0.08	1.33 0.78	1.29 229.89	4.47 10,342	21.17
80ha	0.34	1.59 0.33	1.62 2,426.62	6.64 35	13.11
<i>PhyllisLeeper, N =89</i>					
40ha	0.05	1.23 (0.07%)	1.41 (0.16%)	2.49 (0.18%)	(0.09%)
50ha	0.05	1.22 (0.08%)	1.19 (0.16%)	3.67 (0.11%)	(0.09%)
60ha	0.06	1.23 19,553.34	1.51 (0.15%)	4.83 (0.21%)	(0.06%)
80ha	0.23	1.44 1,796.89	1.51 (0.13%)	9.79 (0.20%)	(0.07%)
<i>BearTown, N =90</i>					
40ha	0.03	1.48 (0.11%)	1.16 (0.18%)	3.08 (0.21%)	(0.15%)
50ha	0.03	1.48 (0.07%)	1.55 (0.24%)	3.39 (0.14%)	(0.12%)
60ha	0.02	1.48 (0.18%)	1.32 (0.14%)	4.11 (0.38%)	(0.14%)
80ha	0.08	1.56 (0.10%)	1.95 (0.24%)	6.19 (0.51%)	(0.06%)

■: best total time/ optimality gap

-: no feasible solution within 6 hrs

^c: formulated on Power Edge R510

Table 4: Formulation and solution times - hypothetical forests

Problem ID	Cluster enumeration	Path		GMU		Bucket		CP total
		formulation	solution	formulation	solution	formulation	solution	
THIRD QUARTILE (cutoff for the lowest 75% of the data)								
<i>300-stand problems</i>								
40ha	9.40	10.50	98.02	11.57	146.32	364.14	397.64	1,308.15
50ha	213.77	214.86	276.10	221.90	403.19	1,877.06	1,079.39	2,032.00
60ha	5,634.02	5,635.13	963.78	5,656.08	2,579.94	3,715.71	776.25	1,684.96
<i>500-stand problems</i>								
40ha	348.25	349.43	223.72	358.21	302.66	10,773.57	241.37	2,490.31
50ha	8,094.98	8,096.14	833.70	8,131.70	2,099.76	20,484.90	680.96	2,999.75
60ha)	160,339.08	160,340.25	5,467.03	160,536.04	20,188.99	30,855.36	1,889.09	2,289.58
MEDIAN (center - 50% - of the distribution)								
<i>300-stand problems</i>								
40ha	7.40	8.51	62.92	9.51	100.91	330.11	223.35	555.44
50ha	146.41	147.52	224.99	151.54	251.88	1,726.40	257.46	790.16
60ha	2,656.64	2,657.73	550.03	2,671.16	1,236.04	3,472.05	411.23	538.91
<i>500-stand problems</i>								
40ha	87.48	88.66	107.32	93.00	215.83	7,343.02	203.69	1,303.64
50ha	1,799.79	1,800.96	387.94	1,814.19	930.21	15,978.36	376.56	1,615.20
60ha	34,389.50	34,390.69	2,524.52	34,456.30	7,300.03	25,071.03	776.45	1,123.10
FIRST QUARTILE (cutoff for the lowest 25% of the data)								
<i>300-stand problems</i>								
40ha	6.38	7.46	35.82	8.69	59.74	293.99	130.18	388.02
50ha	121.67	122.77	122.85	127.44	191.84	1,412.86	159.75	509.85
60ha	2,064.02	2,065.12	268.48	2,079.97	1,010.41	3,222.42	339.18	305.77
<i>500-stand problems</i>								
40ha	26.39	27.58	56.03	29.90	126.38	6,191.18	117.33	793.81
50ha	596.25	597.45	172.18	609.30	504.89	13,419.41	256.26	941.38
60ha	6,756.09	6,757.28	791.98	6,786.41	2,428.95	20,344.91	357.69	626.90

■: best total time