Permutation Problems and Channelling Constraints

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Abstract. When writing a constraint program, we have to decide what to make the decision variable, and how to represent the constraints on these variables. In many cases, there is considerable choice for the decision variables. For example, with permutation problems, we can choose between a primal and a dual representation. In the dual representation, dual variables stand for the primal values, whilst dual values stand for the primal variables. By means of channelling constraints, a combined model can have both primal and dual variables. In this paper, we perform an extensive theoretical and empirical study of these different models. Our results will aid constraint programmers to choose a model for a permutation problem. They also illustrate a general methodology for comparing different constraint models.

1 Introduction

Constraint programming is a highly successful technology for solving a wide variety of combinatorial problems like resource allocation, transportation, and scheduling. A constraint program consists of a set of decision variables, each with an associated domain of values, and a set of constraints defining allowed values for subsets of these variables. The efficiency of a constraint program depends on a good choice for the decision variables, and a careful modelling of the constraints on these variables. Unfortunately, there is often considerable choice as to what to make the variables, and what to make the values. For example, in an exam timetabling problem, the variables could be the exams, and the values could be the times. Alternatively, the variables could be the times, and the values could be the exams. This choice is especially difficult in permutation problems. In a permutation problem, we have as many values as variables, and each variable takes an unique value. We can therefore easily exchange variables for values. Many assignment, scheduling and routing problems are permutation problems. For example, sports tournament scheduling can be modeled as finding a permutation of the games to fit into the time slots, or a permutation of the time slots to fit into the games. The aim of this paper is to compare such different models both theoretically and empirically.

2 Formal background

A *constraint satisfaction problem* (CSP) is a set of variables, each with a finite domain of values, and a set of constraints. A (binary) constraint is a (binary) relation defining the allowed values for a (binary) subset of variables. A solution is an assignment of values to variables consistent with all constraints. Many lesser levels of consistency

have been defined (see [DB97]). A problem is (i, j)-consistent iff it has non-empty domains and any consistent instantiation of i variables can be consistently extended to j additional variables. A problem is *arc*-consistent (AC) iff it is (1, 1)-consistent. A problem is *path*-consistent (PC) iff it is (2, 1)-consistent. A problem is *strong path*consistent (ACPC) iff it is AC and PC. A problem is *path inverse consistent* (PIC) iff it is (1, 2)-consistent. A problem is *restricted path*-consistent (RPC) iff it is AC and if a value assigned to a variable is consistent with just one value for an adjoining variable then for any other variable there is a compatible value. A problem is *singleton arc*consistent (SAC) iff it has non-empty domains and for any instantiation of a variable, the resulting subproblem can be made AC. A CSP with binary or non-binary constraints is *generalized arc*-consistent (GAC) iff for any value for a variable in a constraint, there exist compatible values for all the other variables in the constraint. For ordered domains, a problem is *bounds consistent* (BC) iff it has non-empty domains and the minimum and maximum values for any variable in a constraint can be consistently extended.

Backtracking algorithms are often used to find solutions to CSPs. Such algorithms try to extend partial assignments, enforcing a local consistency after each extension and backtracking when this local consistency no longer holds. For example, the *forward checking* algorithm (FC) maintains a restricted form of AC that ensures that the most recently instantiated variable and any uninstantiated variables are AC. FC has been generalized to non-binary constraints [BMFL99]. nFC0 makes every k-ary constraint with k - 1 variables instantiated AC. nFC1 applies (one pass of) AC to each constraint or constraint projection involving the current and exactly one future variable. nFC2 applies (one pass of) GAC to each constraint involving the current and at least one future variable. Three other generalizations of FC to non-binary constraints, nFC3 to nFC5 degenerate to nFC2 on the single non-binary constraint describing a permutation, so are not considered here. Finally, the *maintaining arc-consistency* algorithm (MAC) maintains AC during search, whilst MGAC maintains GAC.

3 Permutation problems

A *permutation problem* is a constraint satisfaction problem with the same number of variables as values, in which each variable takes an unique value. We also consider *multiple permutation problems* in which the variables divide into a number of (possibly overlapping) sets, each of which is a permutation problem. Smith has proposed a number of different models for permutation problems [Smi00]. The *primal* not-equals model has not-equals constraints between the variables in each permutation. The *primal* all-different model has an all-different constraint between the variables in each permutation. In a *dual* model, we swop variables for values. *Primal and dual* models have primal and dual variables, and *channelling constraints* linking them of the form: $x_i = j$ iff $d_j = i$ where x_i is a primal variable and d_j is a dual variable. Primal and dual models can also have not-equals and all-different constraints which depend on the nature of the permutation problem. In what follows, we do not consider directly the contribution of such additional constraints to pruning. However, the ease with which we can specify and reason with these additional constraints may have a large impact on our

choice of the primal, dual or primal and dual models. We will use the following subscripts: " \neq " for the primal not-equals constraints, "c" for channelling constraints, " $\neq c$ " for the primal not-equals and channelling constraints, " $\neq c\neq$ " for the primal not-equals, dual not-equals and channelling constraints, " \forall " for the primal all-different constraint, " $\forall c$ " for the primal all-different and channelling constraints, and " $\forall c\forall$ " for the primal alldifferent, dual all-different and channelling constraints. Thus SAC $\neq c$ is SAC applied to the primal not-equals and channelling constraints.

4 Constraint tightness

To compare how different models of permutation problems prune the search tree, we define a new measure of constraint tightness. Our definition assumes constraints are defined over the same variables and values or, as in the case of primal and dual models, variables and values which are bijectively related. An interesting extension would be to compare two sets of constraints up to permutation of their variables and values. Our definition of constraint tightness is strongly influenced by the way local consistency properties are compared in [DB97]. Indeed, the definition is parameterized by a local consistency property since, as we show later, the amount of pruning provided by a set of constraint tightness would also be useful in a number of other applications (e.g. reasoning about the value of implied constraints).

We say that a set of constraints A is *at least as tight as* a set B with respect to Φ -consistency (written $\Phi_A \rightsquigarrow \Phi_B$) iff, given any domains for their variables, if A is Φ -consistent then B is also Φ -consistent. By considering all possible domains for the variables, this ordering measures the potential for domains to be pruned during search as variables are instantiated and domains pruned (possibly by other constraints in the problem). We say that a set of constraints A is *tighter* than a set B wrt Φ -consistency (written $\Phi_A \rightarrow \Phi_B$) iff $\Phi_A \rightsquigarrow \Phi_B$ but not $\Phi_B \rightsquigarrow \Phi_A$, A is *incomparable* to B wrt Φ -consistency (written $\Phi_A \otimes \Phi_B$) iff neither $\Phi_A \rightsquigarrow \Phi_B$ nor $\Phi_B \rightsquigarrow \Phi_A$, and A is *equivalent* to B wrt Φ -consistency (written $\Phi_A \otimes \Phi_B$) iff both $\Phi_A \rightsquigarrow \Phi_B$ and $\Phi_B \rightsquigarrow \Phi_A$. We can easily generalize these definitions to compare Φ -consistency on A with Θ -consistency on B. This definition of constraint tightness has some nice monotonicity and fixed-point properties which we will use extensively throughout this paper.

Theorem 1 (monotonicity and fixed-point).

1. $AC_{A\cup B} \rightsquigarrow AC_A \rightsquigarrow AC_{A\cap B}$ 2. $AC_A \rightarrow AC_B$ implies $AC_{A\cup B} \leftrightarrow AC_A$

Similar monotonicity and fixed-point results hold for BC, RPC, PIC, SAC, ACPC, and GAC. We also extend these definitions to compare constraint tightness wrt search algorithms like MAC that maintain some local consistency. For example, we say that A is *at least as tight as B* wrt algorithm X (written $X_A \rightsquigarrow X_B$) iff, given any fixed variable and value ordering and any domains for their variables, X visits no more nodes on A than on B, whilst A is *tighter* than B wrt algorithm X (written $X_A \rightarrow X_B$) iff $X_A \rightsquigarrow X_B$ but not $X_B \rightsquigarrow X_A$.

5 Theoretical comparison

5.1 Arc-consistency

We first prove that, with respect to AC, channelling constraints are tighter than the primal not-equals constraints, but less tight than the primal all-different constraint.

Theorem 2. On a permutation problem:

 $\begin{array}{c} GAC_{\forall c \forall} \\ \uparrow \\ GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow AC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow AC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow AC_{c} \rightarrow AC_{\neq} \\ \uparrow \\ GAC_{\forall c} \end{array}$

Proof. In this and following proofs, we just prove the most important results. Others follow quickly, often using transitivity, monotonicity and the fixed-point theorems.

To show $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow AC_c$, consider a permutation problem whose primal all-different constraint is GAC. Suppose the channelling constraint between x_i and d_j was not AC. Then either x_i is set to j and d_j has i eliminated from its domain, or d_j is set to iand x_i has j eliminated from its domain. But neither of these two cases is possible by the construction of the primal and dual model. Hence the channelling constraints are all AC. To show strictness, consider a 5 variable permutation problem in which $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is AC_c but not GAC_{\forall} .

To show $AC_c \rightarrow AC_{\neq}$, suppose that the channelling constraints are AC. Consider a not-equals constraint, $x_i \neq x_j$ $(i \neq j)$ that is not AC. Now, x_i and x_j must have the same singleton domain, $\{k\}$. Consider the channelling constraint between x_i and d_k . The only AC value for d_k is *i*. Similarly, the only AC value for d_k in the channelling constraint between x_j and d_k is *j*. But $i \neq j$. Hence, d_k has no AC values. This is a contradiction as the channelling constraints are AC. Hence all not-equals constraints are AC. To show strictness, consider a 3 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 =$ $\{1, 2\}$ and $x_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$. This is AC_{\neq} but is not AC_c .

To show $AC_{\neq c\neq} \leftrightarrow AC_c$, by monotonicity, $AC_{\neq c\neq} \rightsquigarrow AC_c$. To show the reverse, consider a permutation problem which is AC_c but not $AC_{\neq c\neq}$. Then there exists at least one not-equals constraints that is not AC. Without loss of generality, let this be on two dual variables (a symmetric argument can be made for two primal variables). So both the associated (dual) variables, call them d_i and d_j must have the same unitary domain, say $\{k\}$. Hence, the domain of the primal variable x_k includes i and j. Consider the channelling constraint between x_k and d_i . Now this is not AC as the value $x_k = j$ has no support. This is a contradiction.

To show $GAC_{\forall c \forall} \leftrightarrow GAC_{\forall}$, consider a permutation problem that is GAC_{\forall} . For every possible assignment of a value to a variable, there exist a consistent extension to the other variables, $x_1 = d_{x_1}, \ldots x_n = d_{x_n}$ with $x_i \neq x_j$ for all $i \neq j$. As this is a permutation, this corresponds to the assignment of unique variables to values. Hence, the corresponding dual all-different constraint is GAC. Finally, the channelling constraints are trivially AC.

5.2 Maintaining arc-consistency

These results can be lifted to algorithms that maintain (generalized) arc-consistency during search. Indeed, the gaps between the primal all-different and the channelling constraints, and between the channelling constraints and the primal not-equals constraints can be exponentially large¹. We write $X_A \Rightarrow X_B$ iff $X_A \rightarrow X_B$ and there is a problem on which algorithm X visits exponentially fewer branches with A than B. Note that GAC_V and AC are both polynomial to enforce so an exponential reduction in branches translates to an exponential reduction in runtime.

Theorem 3. On a permutation problem:

 $MGAC_{\forall} \Rightarrow MAC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow MAC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow MAC_{c} \Rightarrow MAC_{\neq}$

Proof. We give proofs for the most important identities. Other results follow immediately from the last theorem. To show $GMAC_{\forall} \Rightarrow MAC_c$, consider a n + 3 variable permutation problem with $x_i = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ for $i \leq n + 1$ and $x_{n+2} = x_{n+3} = \{n + 1, n + 2, n + 3\}$. Then, given a lexicographical variable ordering, $GMAC_{\forall}$ immediately fails, whilst MAC_c takes n! branches. To show $MAC_c \Rightarrow MAC_{\neq}$, consider a n + 2 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = \{1, 2\}$, and $x_i = \{3, \ldots, n + 2\}$ for $i \geq 2$. Then, given a lexicographical variable ordering, MAC_c takes 2 branches to show insolubility, whist MAC_{\neq} takes 2.(n - 1)! branches.

5.3 Forward checking

Maintaining (generalized) arc-consistency on large permutation problems can be expensive. We may therefore decide to use a cheaper local consistency property like that maintained by forward checking. For example, the Choco finite-domain toolkit in Claire uses just nFC0 on all-different constraints. The channelling constraint remain tighter than the primal not-equals constraints wrt FC.

Theorem 4. On a permutation problem:

$$\begin{array}{c} nFC2_{\forall} \rightarrow FC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow FC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow FC_{c} \rightarrow FC_{\neq} \rightarrow nFC0_{\forall} \\ \uparrow \\ nFC2_{\forall} \rightarrow nFC1_{\forall} \end{array}$$

Proof. [GSW00] proves FC_{\neq} implies $nFCO_{\forall}$. To show strictness on permutation problems (as opposed to the more general class of decomposable constraints studied in [GSW00]), consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_5 = \{4, 5\}$. FC shows the problem is unsatisfiable in at most 12 branches. nFC0 by comparison takes at least 18 branches.

To show $FC_c \rightarrow FC_{\neq}$, consider assigning the value j to the primal variable x_i . FC_{\neq} removes j from the domain of all other primal variables. FC_c instantiates the dual variable d_j with the value i, and then removes i from the domain of all other primal

¹ Note that not all difference in constraint tightness result in exponentially reductions in search (e.g. [Che00] identifies some differences which are only polynomial).

variables. Hence, FC_c prunes all the values that FC_{\neq} does. To show strictness, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{3, 4\}$. Given a lexicographical variable and numerical value ordering, FC_{\neq} shows the problem is unsatisfiable in 4 branches. FC_c by comparison takes just 2 branches.

[GSW00] proves nFC1 \forall implies FC \neq . To show the reverse, consider assigning the value j to the primal variable x_i . FC \neq removes j from the domain of all primal variables except x_i . However, nFC1 \forall also removes j from the domain of all primal variables except x_i since each occurs in a binary not-equals constraint with x_i obtained by projecting out the all-different constraint. Hence, nFC1 \forall \leftrightarrow FC \neq .

To show nFC2 $\forall \rightarrow$ FC $\neq c\neq i$, consider instantiating the primal variable x_i with the value j. FC $\neq c\neq i$ removes j from the domain of all primal variables except x_i , i from the domain of all dual variables except d_j , instantiate d_j with the value i, and then remove i from the domain of all dual variables except d_j . nFC2 \forall also removes j from the domain of all primal variables except x_i . The only possible difference is if one of the other dual variables, say d_i has a domain wipeout. If this happens, x_i has one value in its domain, l that is in the domain of no other primal variable. Enforcing GAC immediately detects that x_i cannot take the value j, and must instead take the value k. Hence nFC2 \forall has a domain wipeout whenever FC $\neq c\neq$ does. To show strictness, consider a 7 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$ FC $\neq c\neq$ takes at least 6 branches to show the problem is unsatisfiable. nFC2 \forall by comparison takes no more than 4 branches.

[BMFL99] proves nFC2 \forall implies nFC1 \forall . To show strictness on permutation problems, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_5 = \{4, 5\}$. nFC1 shows the problem is unsatisfiable in at least 6 branches. nFC2 by comparison takes no more than 3 branches.

5.4 Bounds consistency

Another common method to reduce costs is to enforce just bounds consistency. For example, [RR00] use bounds consistency to prune a global constraint involving a sum of variables and a set of inequalities. As a second example, some of the experiments on permutation problems in [Smi00] used bounds consistency on certain of the constraints. With bounds consistency on permutation problems, we obtain a very similar ordering of the models as with AC.

Theorem 5. On a permutation problem:

$$\begin{array}{c} BC_{\forall} \rightarrow BC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow BC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow BC_{c} \rightarrow BC_{\neq} \leftarrow AC_{\neq} \\ \uparrow \\ AC_{\neq} \end{array}$$

Proof. To show $BC_c \to BC_{\neq}$, consider a permutation problem which is BC_c but one of the primal not-equals constraints is not BC. Then, it would involve two variables, x_i and x_j both with identical interval domains, [k, k]. Enforcing BC on the channelling constraint between x_i and d_k would reduce d_k to the domain [i, i]. Enforcing BC on the channelling constraint between x_j and d_k would then cause a domain wipeout. But

this contradicts the channelling constraints being BC. Hence, all the primal not-equals constraints must be BC. To show strictness. consider a 3 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = [1, 2]$ and $x_3 = [1, 3]$. This is BC \neq but not BC_c.

To show $BC_{\forall} \rightarrow BC_{\neq c\neq}$, consider a permutation probem which is BC_{\forall} . Suppose we assign a boundary value j to a primal variable, x_i (or equivalently, a boundary value i to a dual variable, d_j). As the all-different constraint is BC, this can be extended to all the other primal variables using each of the values once. This gives us a consistent assignment for any other primal or dual variable. Hence, it is $BC_{\neq c\neq}$. To show strictness, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = [1, 2]$ and $x_4 = x_5 = [3, 5]$. This is $BC_{\neq c\neq}$ but not BC_{\forall} .

To show $BC_c \to AC_{\neq}$, consider a permutation problem which is BC_c but not AC_{\neq} . Then they must be one constraint, $x_i \neq x_j$ with x_i and x_j having the same singleton domain, $\{k\}$. But, if this is the case, enforcing BC on the channelling constraint between x_i and d_k and between x_j and d_k would prove that the problem is unsatisfiable. Hence, it is AC_{\neq} . To show strictness, consider a 3 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = [1, 2]$ and $x_3 = [1, 3]$. This is AC_{\neq} but not BC_c .

5.5 Restricted path consistency

Debruyne and Bessière have shown that RPC is a promising filtering technique above AC [DB97]. It prunes many of the PIC values at little extra cost to AC. Surprisingly, channelling constraints are incomparable to the primal not-equals constraints wrt RPC. Channelling constraints can increase the amount of propagation (for example, when a dual variable has only one value left in its domain). However, RPC is hindered by the bipartite constraint graph between primal and dual variables. Additional not-equals constraints on primal and/or dual variables can therefore help propagation.

Theorem 6. On a permutation problem;

 $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow RPC_{\neq c \neq} \rightarrow RPC_{\neq c} \rightarrow RPC_{c} \otimes RPC_{\neq} \otimes AC_{c}$

Proof. To show RPC_c \otimes RPC_{\not}, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. This is RPC_{\not} but not RPC_c. For the reverse direction, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is RPC_c but not RPC_{\not}.

To show $\operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c} \to \operatorname{RPC}_c$, consider again the last example. This is RPC_c but not $\operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c}$.

To show $\operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c\neq} \to \operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c}$, consider a 6 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = \{4, 5, 6\}$. This is $\operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c}$ but not $\operatorname{RPC}_{\neq c\neq}$.

To show $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow RPC_{\neq c\neq}$, consider a permutation problem which is GAC_{\forall} . Suppose we assign a value j to a primal variable, x_i (or equivalently, a value i to a dual variable, d_j). As the all-different constraint is GAC, this can be extended to all the other primal variables using up all the other values. This gives us a consistent assignment for any two other primal or dual variables. Hence, the problem is $PIC_{\neq c\neq}$ and thus $RPC_{\neq c\neq}$. To show strictness, consider a 7 variable permutation problem with

 $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$. This is $\text{RPC}_{\neq c \neq}$ but not GAC_{\forall} .

To show AC_c \otimes RPC_{\nothermal{eq}}, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. This is RPC_{\nothermal{eq}} but not AC_c. For the reverse direction, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is AC_c but not RPC_{\nothermal{eq}}.

5.6 Path inverse consistency

The incomparability of channelling constraints and primal not-equals constraints remains when we move up the local consistency hierarchy from RPC to PIC.

Theorem 7. On a permutation problem:

 $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow PIC_{\neq c \neq} \rightarrow PIC_{\neq c} \rightarrow PIC_{c} \otimes PIC_{\neq} \otimes AC_{c}$

Proof. To show PIC_c \otimes PIC_{\nothermal{e}}, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. This is PIC_{\nothermal{e}} but not PIC_c. Enforcing PIC on the channelling constraints reduces x_4 to the singleton domain $\{4\}$. For the reverse direction, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is PIC_c but not PIC_{\nothermal{e}}.

To show $\text{PIC}_{\neq c} \rightarrow \text{PIC}_c$, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is PIC_c but not $\text{PIC}_{\neq c}$.

To show $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq c\neq} \to \operatorname{PIC}_{\neq c}$, consider a 6 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = \{4, 5, 6\}$. This is $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq c}$ but not $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq c\neq}$.

To show $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow PIC_{\neq c\neq}$, consider a permutation problem in which the all-different constraint is GAC. Suppose we assign a value j to a primal variable, x_i (or equivalently, a value i to a dual variable, d_j). As the all-different constraint is GAC, this can be extended to all the other primal variables using up all the other values. This gives us a consistent assignment for any two other primal or dual variables. Hence, the not-equals and channelling constraints are PIC. To show strictness, consider a 7 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$. This is PIC_{$\neq c\neq$} but not GAC_{\forall}.

To show $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq} \otimes \operatorname{AC}_c$, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $x_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. This is $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq}$ but not AC_c . Enforcing AC on the channelling constraints reduces x_4 to the singleton domain $\{4\}$. For the reverse direction, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is AC_c but not $\operatorname{PIC}_{\neq}$.

5.7 Singleton arc-consistency

Debruyne and Bessière also showed that SAC is a promising filtering technique above both AC, RPC and PIC, pruning many values for its CPU time [DB97]. Prosser et al. reported promising experimental results with SAC on quasigroup problems, a multiple permutation problem [PSW00]. Interestingly, as with AC (but unlike RPC and PIC which lie between AC and SAC), channelling constraints are tighter than the primal not-equals constraints wrt SAC.

Theorem 8. On a permutation problem:

$$GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow SAC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow SAC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow SAC_{c} \rightarrow SAC_{\neq} \otimes AC_{c}$$

Proof. To show $SAC_c \rightarrow SAC_{\neq}$, consider a permutation problem that is SAC_c and any instantiation for a primal variable x_i . Suppose that the primal not-equals model of the resulting problem cannot be made AC. Then there must exist two other primal variables, say x_j and x_k which have at most one other value. Consider the dual variable associated with this value. Then under this instantiation of the primal variable x_i , enforcing AC on the channelling constraint between the primal variable x_i and the dual variable, and between the dual variable and x_j and x_k results in a domain wipeout on the dual variable. Hence the problem is not SAC_c . This is a contradiction. The primal not-equals model can therefore be made AC following the instantiation of x_i . That is, the problem is SAC_{\neq} . To show strictness, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with domain $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $x_5 = \{3, 4\}$. This is SAC_{\neq} but not SAC_c .

To show $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow SAC_c$, consider a permutation problem that is GAC_{\forall} . Consider any instantiation for a primal variable. This can be consistently extended to all variables in the primal model. But this means that it can be consistently extended to all variables in the primal and dual model, satisfying any (combination of) permutation or channelling constraints. As the channelling constraints are satisfiable, they can be made AC. Consider any instantiation for a dual variable. By a similar argument, taking the appropriate instantiation for the associated primal variable, the resulting problem can be made AC. Hence, given any instantiation for a primal or dual variable, the channelling constraints can be made AC. That is, the problem is SAC_c . To show strictness, consider a 7 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $x_5 = x_6 = x_7 = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$. This SAC_c but is not GAC_{\forall} .

To show $SAC_{\neq} \otimes AC_c$, consider a four variable permutation problem in which x_1 to x_3 have the $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and x_4 has the domain $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. This is SAC_{\neq} but not AC_c . For the reverse, consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = \{0, 1\}$ and $x_3 = x_4 = \{0, 2, 3\}$. This is AC_c but not SAC_{\neq} .

5.8 Strong path-consistency

Adding primal or dual not-equals constraints to channelling constraints does not help AC or SAC. The following result shows that their addition does not help higher levels of local consistency like strong path-consistency (ACPC).

Theorem 9. On a permutation problem:

 $GAC_{\forall} \otimes ACPC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow ACPC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow ACPC_{c} \rightarrow ACPC_{\neq} \otimes AC_{c}$

Proof. To show $ACPC_c \rightarrow ACPC_{\neq}$, consider some channelling constraints that are ACPC. Now $AC_c \rightarrow AC_{\neq}$, so we just need to show $PC_c \rightarrow PC_{\neq}$. Consider a consistent pair of values, l and m for a pair of primal variables, x_i and x_j . Take any third primal variable, x_k . As the constraint between d_l , d_m and x_k is PC, we can find a value for x_k consistent with the channelling constraints. But this also satisfies the not-equals constraint between primal variables. Hence, the problem is PC_{\neq} . To show strictness,

consider a 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$. This is ACPC_{\neq} but not ACPC_c.

To show $ACPC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow ACPC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow ACPC_{c}$, we recall that $AC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow AC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow AC_{c}$. Hence we need just show that $PC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow PC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow PC_{c}$. Consider a permutation problem. Enforcing PC on the channelling constraints alone infers both the primal and the dual not-equals constraints. Hence, $PC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow PC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow PC_{c}$.

To show $GAC_{\forall} \otimes ACPC_{\neq c\neq}$, consider a 6 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$, and $x_5 = x_6 = \{4, 5, 6\}$. This is $ACPC_{\neq c\neq}$ but not GAC_{\forall} . For the reverse direction, consider a 3 variable permutation problem with the additional binary constraint $even(x_1 + x_3)$. Enforcing GAC_{\forall} . prunes the to $x_1 = x_3 = \{1, 3\}$, and $x_2 = \{2\}$. However, these domains are not $ACPC_{\neq c\neq}$. Enforcing ACPC tightens the constraint between x_1 and x_3 from not-equals to $x_1 = 1, x_3 = 3$ or $x_1 = 3, x_3 = 1$.

To show ACPC $\neq \otimes$ AC_c, consider a 5 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$, and $x_4 = x_5 = \{3, 4, 5\}$. This is AC_c but not ACPC \neq . For the reverse direction, consider again the 4 variable permutation problem with $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = x_4 = \{1, 2, 3\}$. This is ACPC \neq but not AC_c.

5.9 Multiple permutation problems

These results extend to multiple permutation problems under a simple restriction that the problem is *triangle preserving* [SW99] (that is, any triple of variables which are alldifferent must occur together in at least one permutation). For example, all-diff (x_1, x_2, x_4) , all-diff (x_1, x_3, x_5) , and all-diff (x_2, x_3, x_6) are not triangle preserving as x_1, x_2 and x_3 are all-different but are not in the same permutation. The following theorem collects together and generalizes many of the previous results.

Theorem 10. On a multiple permutation problem:

Proof. The proofs lift in a straight forward manner from the single permutation case. Local consistencies like ACPC, SAC, PIC and RPC consider triples of variables. If these are linked together, we use the fact that the probem is triangle preserving and a permutation is therefore defined over them. If these are not linked together, we can decompose the argument into AC on pairs of variables. Without triangle preservation, GAC_{\forall} , may only achieve as high a level of consistency as AC_{\neq} . For example, consider again the non-triangle preserving constraints in the last paragraph. If $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \{1, 2\}$ and $x_4 = x_5 = x_6 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ then the problem is GAC_{\forall} , but it is not RPC_{\neq} , and hence neither PIC_{\neq} , SAC_{\neq} nor $ACPC_{\neq}$.

6 SAT models

Another solution strategy is to encode permutation problems into SAT and use a fast Davis-Putnam (DP) or local search procedure. For example, [BM00] report promising results for propositional encodings of round robin problems, which include permutation constraints. We consider just "direct" encodings into SAT (see [Wal00] for more details). We have a Boolean variable X_{ij} which is *true* iff the primal variable x_i takes the value j. In the primal SAT model, there are n clauses to ensure that each primal variable takes at least one value, $O(n^3)$ clauses to ensure that no primal variable gets two values, and $O(n^3)$ clauses to ensure that no two primal variables take the same value. Interestingly the channelling SAT model has the same number of Boolean variables as the primal SAT model (as we can use X_{ij} to represent both the *j*th value of the primal variable x_i and the *i*th value for the dual variable d_j), and just n additional clauses to ensure each dual variable takes a value. The $O(n^3)$ clauses to ensure that no two primal variables x_i and the *i*th value for the dual variable d_j , and just n additional clauses to ensure each dual variable takes a value. The $O(n^3)$ clauses to ensure that no dual variable gets two values are equivalent to the clauses that ensure no two primal variables get the same value. The following result show that MAC is tighter than DP, and DP is equivalent to FC on these different models.

Theorem 11. On a permutation problem:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} MGAC_{\forall} \rightarrow MAC_{\neq c \neq} \leftrightarrow MAC_{\neq c} \leftrightarrow MAC_{c} \rightarrow MAC_{\neq} \\ & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ MGAC_{\forall} \rightarrow DP_{\neq c \neq} & \leftrightarrow DP_{\neq c} & \leftrightarrow DP_{c} & \rightarrow DP_{\neq} \\ & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ MGAC_{\forall} \rightarrow FC_{\neq c \neq} & \leftrightarrow FC_{\neq c} & \leftrightarrow FC_{c} & \rightarrow FC_{\neq} \end{array}$$

Proof. $DP_{\neq} \leftrightarrow FC_{\neq}$ is a special case of Theorem 14 in [Wal00], whilst $MAC_{\neq} \rightarrow FC_{\neq}$ is a special case of Theorem 15. To show $DP_c \leftrightarrow FC_c$ suppose unit propagation sets a literal l. There are four cases. In the first case, a clause of the form $X_{i1} \vee \ldots \vee X_{in}$ has been reduced to an unit. That is, we have one value left for a primal variable. A fail first heuristic in FC picks this last value to instantiate. In the second case, a clause of the form $\neg X_{ij} \lor \neg X_{ik}$ for $j \neq k$ has been reduced to an unit. This ensures that no primal variable gets two values. The FC algorithm trivially never tries two simultaneous values for a primal variable. In the third case, a clause of the form $\neg X_{ij} \lor \neg X_{kj}$ for $i \neq k$ has been reduced to an unit. This ensures that no dual variable gets two values. Again, the FC algorithm trivially never tries two simultaneous values for a dual variable. In the fourth case, $X_{1i} \lor \ldots \lor X_{ni}$ has been reduced to an unit. That is, we have one value left for a dual variable. A fail first heuristic in FC picks this last value to instantiate. Hence, given a suitable branching heuristic, the FC algorithm tracks the DP algorithm. To show the reverse, suppose forward checking removes a value. There are two cases. In the first case, the value i is removed from a dual variable d_i due to some channelling constraint. This means that there is a primal variable x_k which has been set to some value $l \neq j$. Unit propagation on $\neg X_{kl} \lor \neg X_{kj}$ sets X_{kj} to false, and then on $\neg X_{ij} \lor \neg X_{kj}$ sets X_{ij} to false as required. In the second case, the value *i* is removed from a dual variable d_j , again due to a channelling constraint. The proof is now dual to the first case.

To show MAC_c \rightarrow DP_c, we use the fact that MAC dominates FC and FC_c \leftrightarrow DP_c. To show strictness, consider a 3 variable permutation problem with additional binary constraints that rule out the same value for all 3 primal variables. Enforcing AC on the channelling constraints causes a domain wipeout on the dual variable associated with this value. As there are no unit clauses, DP does not immediately solve the problem.

To show $DP_c \rightarrow DP_{\neq}$, we note that the channelling SAT model contains more clauses. To show strictness, consider a four variable permutation problem with three additional binary constraints that if $x_1 = 1$ then $x_2 = 2$, $x_3 = 2$ and $x_4 = 2$ are all ruled out. Consider branching on $x_1 = 1$. Unit propagation on both models sets X_{12} , X_{22} , X_{32} , X_{42} , X_{21} , X_{31} and X_{41} to false. On the channelling SAT model, unit propagation against the clause $X_{12} \lor X_{22} \lor X_{32} \lor X_{42}$ then generates an empty clause. By comparison, unit propagation on the primal SAT model does no more work.

7 Asymptotic comparison

The previous results tell us nothing about the relative cost of achieving these local consistencies. Asymptotic analysis adds detail to the results. Regin's algorithm achieves GAC_{\forall} in $O(n^4)$ [R94]. AC on binary constraints can be achieved in $O(ed^2)$ where *e* is the number of constraints and *d* is their domain size. As there are $O(n^2)$ channelling constraints, AC_c naively takes $O(n^4)$ time. However, by taking advantage of the functional nature of channelling constraints, we can reduce this to $O(n^3)$ using the AC-5 algorithm of [HDT92]. AC_{\neq} also naively takes $O(n^4)$ time as there are $O(n^2)$ binary not-equals constraints. However, we can take advantage of the special nature of a binary not-equals constraint to reduce this to $O(n^2)$ as each not-equals constraint needs to be made AC just once. Asymptotic analysis thus offers no great surprises: we proved that $GAC_{\forall} \rightarrow AC_c \rightarrow AC_{\neq}$ and this is reflected in their $O(n^4)$, $O(n^3)$, $O(n^2)$ respective costs. Thus, GAC_{\forall} achieves the greatest pruning but at the greatest cost. We need to run experiments to see if this cost is worth the additional pruning.

8 Experimental comparison

On Langford's problem, a permutation problem from CSPLib, Smith found that MAC on the channelling and other problem constraints is often the most competitive model for finding all solutions [Smi00]. MAC_c (which takes $O(n^3)$ time at each node in the search tree if carefully implemented) explores a similar number of branches to the more powerful MGAC_{\forall} (which takes $O(n^4)$ time at each node in the search tree). This suggests that MAC_c may offer a good tradeoff between the amount of constraint propagation and the amount of search required. For finding single solutions, Smith's results are somewhat confused by the heuristic accuracy. She predicts that these results will transfer over to other permutation problems. To confirm this, we ran experiments in three other domains, each of which is combinatorially challenging.

8.1 All-interval series

Hoos has proposed the all-interval series problem from musical composition as a benchmark for CSPLib. The ais(n) problem is to find a permutation of the numbers 1 to n, such that the differences between adjacent numbers form a permutation from 1 to n - 1. Computing all solutions is a difficult combinatorial problem. As on Langford's problem [Smi00], MAC_c visits only a few more branches than MGAC_{\forall}. Efficiently implemented, MAC_c is therefore the quickest solution method.

1	n	MAC_{\neq}	MAC_c	$MGAC_{\forall}$
	6	135	34	34
	7	569	153	152
	8	2608	627	626
	9	12137	2493	2482
	10	60588	10552	10476
	11	318961	47548	47052

Table 1. Branches to compute all solutions to ais(n).

8.2 Circular Golomb rulers

A perfect circular Golomb ruler consists of n marks arranged on the circumference of a circle of length n(n-1) such that the distances between any pair of marks, in either direction along the circumference, form a permutation. Computing all solutions is again a difficult combinatorial problem. Table 2 shows that MGAC_{\forall} is very competitive with MAC_c. Indeed, MGAC_{\forall} has the smallest runtimes. We conjecture that this is due to circular Golomb rulers being more constrained than all-interval series.

n	MAC_{\neq}	MAC_c	MGAC∀
6	202	93	53
7	1658	667	356
8	15773	5148	2499
9	166424	43261	19901

Table 2. Branches to compute all order *n* perfect circular Golomb rulers.

8.3 Quasigroups

Achlioptas et al have proposed completing a partial filled quasigroup as a benchmark for SAT and CSP algorithms [AGKS00]. This can be modeled as a multiple permutation problem with 2n intersecting permutation constraints. A complexity peak is observed when approximately 40% of the quasigroup is replaced by "holes". Table 3 shows the increase in problem difficulty with n. Median behavior for MAC_c is competitive with MGAC_{\forall}. However, mean performance is not due to a few expensive outliers. A randomization and restart strategy reduces the size of this heavy-tailed distribution.

		media	n	mean						
n	MAC_{\neq}	MAC_{c}	MGAC∀	MAC≠	MAC _c	MGAC∀				
5	1	1	1	1	1	1				
10	1	1	1	1.03	1.00	1.01				
15	3	1	1	7.17	1.17	1.10				
20	23313	7	4	312554	21.76	12.49				
25	-	249	53	-	8782.4	579.7				
30	-	5812	398	-	2371418	19375				

 Table 3. Branches to complete 100 order n quasigroup problems with 40% holes.

9 Related work

Chen et al. studied modeling and solving the *n*-queens problem, and a nurse rostering problem using channelling constraints [CCLW99]. They show that channelling constraints increase the amount of constraint propagation. They conjecture that the overheads associated with channelling constraints will pay off on problems which require large amounts of search, or lead to thrashing behavior. They also show that channelling constraints open the door to interesting value ordering heuristics.

As mentioned before, Smith studied a number of different models for Langford's problem, a permutation problem in CSPLib [Smi00]. Smith argues that channelling constraints make primal not-equals constraints redundant. She also observes that MAC on the model of Langford's problem using channelling constraints explores more branches than MGAC on the model using a primal all-different constraint, and the same number of branches as MAC on the model using channelling and primal not-equals constraints. We prove these results hold in general for (multiple) permutation problems and that the gap can be exponential. However, we also show that they do not extend to algorithms that maintain certain other levels of local consistency like restricted path-consistency. Smith also shows the benefits of being able to branch on dual variables.

10 Conclusions

We have performed an extensive study of a number of different models of permutation problems. To compare models, we defined a measure of constraint tightness parameterized by the level of local consistency being enforced. We used this to prove that, with respect to arc-consistency, a single primal all-different constraint is tighter than channelling constraints, but that channelling constraints are tighter than primal not-equals constraints. Both these gaps can lead to an exponential reduction in search cost. For lower levels of local consistency (e.g. that maintained by forward checking), channelling constraints remain tighter than primal not-equals constraints. However, for certain higher levels of local consistency like path inverse consistency, channelling constraints are incomparable to primal not-equals constraints.

Experimental results on three different and challenging permutation problems confirmed that MAC on channelling constraints outperformed MAC on primal not-equals constraints, and could be competitive with maintaining GAC on a primal all-different constraint. However, on more constrained problems, the additional constraint propagation provided by maintaining GAC on the primal all-different constraint was beneficial. We believe that these results will aid users of constraints to choose a model for a permutation problem, and a local consistency property to enforce on it. They also illustrate a methodology, as well as a measure of constraint tightness, that can be used to compare different constraint models in other problem domains.

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