

Consistency Techniques for Flow-Based Projection-Safe Global Cost Functions in Weighted Constraint Satisfaction

J.H.M. Lee

K.L. Leung

*Department of Computer Science and Engineering
The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Shatin, N.T., Hong Kong*

JLEE@CSE.CUHK.EDU.HK

KLLEUNG@CSE.CUHK.EDU.HK

Abstract

Many combinatorial problems deal with preferences and violations, the goal of which is to find solutions with the minimum cost. Weighted constraint satisfaction is a framework for modeling such problems, which consists of a set of cost functions to measure the degree of violation or preferences of different combinations of variable assignments. Typical solution methods for weighted constraint satisfaction problems (WCSPs) are based on branch-and-bound search, which are made practical through the use of powerful consistency techniques such as AC*, FDAC*, EDAC* to deduce hidden cost information and value pruning during search. These techniques, however, are designed to be efficient only on binary and ternary cost functions which are represented in table form. In tackling many real-life problems, high arity (or global) cost functions are required. We investigate efficient representation scheme and algorithms to bring the benefits of the consistency techniques to also high arity cost functions, which are often derived from hard global constraints from classical constraint satisfaction.

The literature suggests some global cost functions can be represented as flow networks, and the minimum cost flow algorithm can be used to compute the minimum costs of such networks in polynomial time. We show that naive adoption of this flow-based algorithmic method for global cost functions can result in a stronger form of \emptyset -inverse consistency. We further show how the method can be modified to handle cost projections and extensions to maintain generalized versions of AC* and FDAC* for cost functions with more than two variables. Similar generalization for the stronger EDAC* is less straightforward. We reveal the oscillation problem when enforcing EDAC* on cost functions sharing more than one variable. To avoid oscillation, we propose a weak version of EDAC* and generalize it to weak EDGAC* for non-binary cost functions. Using various benchmarks involving the soft variants of hard global constraints ALLDIFFERENT, GCC, SAME, and REGULAR, empirical results demonstrate that our proposal gives improvements of up to an order of magnitude when compared with the traditional constraint optimization approach, both in terms of time and pruning.

1. Introduction

Constraint satisfaction problems (CSPs) occur in all walks of industrial applications and computer science, such as scheduling, bin packing, transport routing, type checking, diagram layout, just to name a few. Constraints in CSPs are functions returning true or false. These constraints are hard in the sense that they must be satisfied. In over-constrained and optimization scenarios, hard constraints have to be relaxed or softened. The weighted constraint satisfaction framework adopt soft constraints as *cost functions* returning a non-negative integer with an upper bound \top . Solution techniques for solving weighted constraint satisfaction problems (WCSPs) are made practi-

cal by enforcing various consistency notions during branch-and-bound search, such as NC*, AC*, FDAC* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004, 2003) and EDAC* (de Givry, Heras, Zytnecki, & Larrosa, 2005). These enforcement techniques, however, are designed to be efficient only on binary and ternary cost functions which are represented in table form. On the other hand, many real-life problems can be modelled naturally by global cost functions of high arities. *We investigate efficient representation scheme and algorithms to bring the benefits of the existing consistency techniques for binary and ternary cost functions to also high arity cost functions, which are often derived from hard global constraints from classical constraint satisfaction.*

In existing WCSP solvers, these high arity cost functions are delayed until they become binary or ternary during search. The size of the tables is also a concern. The lack of efficient handling of high arity global cost functions in WCSP systems greatly restricts the applicability of WCSP techniques to more complex real-life problems. To overcome the difficulty, we incorporate van Hove, Pesant, and Rousseau's (2006) flow-based algorithmic method into WCSPs, which amounts to representing global cost functions as flow networks and computing the minimum costs of such networks using the minimum cost flow algorithm. We show that a naive incorporation of global cost functions into WCSPs would result in a strong form of the \emptyset -inverse consistency (Zytnecki, Gaspin, & Schiex, 2009), which is still relatively weak in terms of lower bound estimation and pruning. The question is then whether we can *achieve stronger consistencies such as GAC* and FDGAC*, the generalized versions of AC* and FDAC* respectively, for non-binary cost functions efficiently.* Consistency algorithms for (G)AC* and FD(G)AC* involve three main operations: (a) computing the minimum cost of the cost functions when a variable x is fixed with value v , (b) projecting the minimum cost of a cost function to the unary cost functions for x at value v , and (c) extending unary costs to the related high arity cost functions. These operations allow cost movements among cost functions and shifting of costs to increase the global lower bound of the problem, which implies more opportunities for domain value prunings. Part (a) is readily handled using the minimum cost flow (MCF) algorithm as proposed in van Hove et al.'s method. However, parts (b) and (c) modify the cost functions, which can possibly destroy the required flow-based structure of the cost functions required by van Hove et al.'s method. To overcome the difficulty, we propose and give sufficient conditions for the flow-based projection-safety property. If a global cost function is flow-based projection-safe, the flow-based property of the cost function is guaranteed to be retained no matter how many times parts (b) and (c) are performed. Thus, the MCF algorithm can be applied throughout the enforcements of GAC* and FDGAC* to increase search efficiency.

A natural next step is to generalize also the stronger consistency EDAC* (de Givry et al., 2005) to EDGAC*, but this turns out to be non-trivial. We identify and analyze an inherent limitation of EDAC* similar to the case of Full AC* (de Givry et al., 2005). ED(G)AC* enforcement will go into oscillation if two cost functions share more than one variable, which is common when a problem involves high arity cost functions. Sanchez, de Givry, and Schiex (2008) did not mention the oscillation problem but their method for enforcing EDAC* for the special case of ternary cost functions would avoid the oscillation problem. In this paper, we give a weak form of EDAC*, which can be generalized to weak EDGAC* for cost functions of *any* arity. Most importantly, weak EDAC* is reduced to EDAC* when no two cost functions share more than one variable. Weak EDGAC* is stronger than FDGAC* and GAC*, but weaker than VAC (Cooper, de Givry, Sanchez, Schiex, Zytnecki, & Werner, 2010). We also give an efficient algorithm to enforce weak EDGAC*.

Based on the theoretical results, we prove that some of the soft variants of ALLDIFFERENT, GCC, SAME, and REGULAR constraints are flow-based projection-safe, and give polynomial time

algorithms to enforce GAC*, FDGAC* and also weak EDGAC* on these cost functions. Experiments are carried out on different benchmarks featuring the proposed global cost functions. Empirical results coincide with the theoretical prediction on the relative strengths of the various consistency notions and the complexities of the enforcement algorithms. Our experimental results also confirm that stronger consistencies such as GAC*, FDGAC* and weak EDGAC* are worthwhile and essential in making global cost functions in WCSP practical. In addition, the reified approach (Petit, Régim, & Bessière, 2000) and strong \emptyset IC are too weak in estimating useful lower bounds and pruning the search space in branch-and-bound search.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the necessary definitions and background, while Section 3 gives related work. Generalized versions of existing consistency techniques for global cost functions are presented and compared in Section 4. Enforcement algorithms for these consistencies are exponential in general. We introduce the notion of flow-based projection-safety, and describe polynomial time consistency enforcement algorithms for global cost functions enjoying the flow-based projection-safety property. In Section 5, we prove that the softened form of some common hard global constraints are flow-based projection-safe and give experimental results demonstrating the feasibility and efficiency of our proposal both in terms of runtime and search space pruning. Section 6 summarizes our contributions and shed light on possible directions for future research.

2. Background

We give the preliminaries on weighted constraint satisfaction problems, global cost functions and network flows.

2.1 Weighted Constraint Satisfaction

A weighted constraint satisfaction problem (WCSP) is a special case of valued constraint satisfaction (Schiex, Fargier, & Verfaillie, 1995) with a cost structure $([0, \dots, \top], \oplus, \leq)$. The structure contains a set of integers from 0 to \top ordered by the standard ordering \leq . Addition \oplus is defined by $a \oplus b = \min(\top, a + b)$, and subtraction \ominus is defined only for $a \geq b$, $a \ominus b = a - b$ if $a \neq \top$ and $\top \ominus a = \top$ for any a . Formally,

Definition 1 (Schiex et al., 1995) A WCSP is a tuple $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$, where:

- \mathcal{X} is a set of variables $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ ordered by their indices;
- \mathcal{D} is a set of domains $D(x_i)$ for $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$, only one value of which can be assigned to x_i ;
- \mathcal{C} is a set of cost functions W_S with different scope $S = \{x_{s_1}, \dots, x_{s_n}\} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ that maps a tuple $\ell \in L(S)$, where $L(S) = D(x_{s_1}) \times \dots \times D(x_{s_n})$, to $[0, \dots, \top]$.

An *assignment* of a set of variables $S \subseteq \mathcal{X}$, written as $\{x_{s_1} \mapsto v_{s_1}, \dots, x_{s_n} \mapsto v_{s_n}\}$, is to assign each variable $x_{s_i} \in S$ to a value $v_{s_i} \in D(x_{s_i})$. When the context is clear and assuming an ordering by the variable indices, we abuse notations by considering an assignment also a tuple $\ell = (v_{s_1}, \dots, v_{s_n}) \in L(S)$, where $L(S) = D(x_{s_1}) \times D(x_{s_2}) \times \dots \times D(x_{s_n})$. The notation $\ell[x_{s_i}]$ denotes the value v_{s_i} assigned to $x_{s_i} \in S$, and $\ell[S']$ denotes the tuple formed by projecting ℓ onto $S' \subseteq S$.

Without loss of generality, we assume $\mathcal{C} = \{W_\emptyset\} \cup \{W_i \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X}\} \cup \mathcal{C}^+$. W_\emptyset is a constant nullary cost function. W_i is a unary cost function associated with each $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$. \mathcal{C}^+ is a set of cost

functions W_S with scope S containing two or more variables. If W_\emptyset and $\{W_i\}$ are not defined, we assume $W_i(v) = 0$ for all $v \in D(x_i)$ and $W_\emptyset = 0$. To simplify the notation, we denote W_{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n} for the cost function on variables $\{x_{s_1}, x_{s_2}, \dots, x_{s_n}\}$ if the context is clear.

Definition 2 Given a WCSP $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. The cost of a tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$ is defined as $\text{cost}(\ell) = W_\emptyset \oplus \bigoplus_{x_i \in \mathcal{X}} W_i(\ell[x_i]) \oplus \bigoplus_{W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+} W_S(\ell[S])$. A tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$ is feasible if $\text{cost}(\ell) < \top$, and is a solution of a WCSP if $\text{cost}(\ell)$ is minimum among all tuples in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$.

WCSPs are usually solved with basic branch-and-bound search augmented with consistency techniques which prune infeasible values from variable domains and push costs into W_\emptyset while preserving the equivalence of the problems, *i.e.* the cost of each tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{X})$ is unchanged. Different consistency notions have been defined such as NC*, AC*, FDAC* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004, 2003), and EDAC* (de Givry et al., 2005).

Definition 3 A variable x_i is node consistent (NC*) if each value $v \in D(x_i)$ satisfies $W_i(v) \oplus W_\emptyset < \top$ and there exists a value $v' \in D(x_i)$ such that $W_i(v') = 0$. A WCSP is NC* iff all variables are NC*.

Procedure `enforceNC*`(\cdot) in Algorithm 1 enforces NC*, where `unaryProject`(\cdot) moves unary costs towards W_\emptyset while keeping the solution unchanged, and `pruneVal`(\cdot) removes infeasible values. The variables \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{S} are global propagation queues used for further consistency enforcements explained in later sections. They are initially empty if not specified.

```

Procedure enforceNC*( $\cdot$ )
1   foreach  $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$  do unaryProject( $x_i$ );
2   pruneVal( $x_i$ );

Procedure unaryProject( $x_i$ )
3    $\alpha := \min\{W_i(v) \mid v \in D(x_i)\}$ ;
4    $W_\emptyset := W_\emptyset \oplus \alpha$ ;
5   foreach  $v \in D(x_i)$  do  $W_i(v) := W_i(v) \ominus \alpha$ ;

Procedure pruneVal( $x_i$ )
6   foreach  $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$  do
7       flag := false;
8       foreach  $v \in D(x_i)$  s.t.  $W_i(v) \oplus W_\emptyset = \top$  do
9            $D(x_i) := D(x_i) \setminus \{v\}$ ;
10          flag := true;
11      if flag then
12          // For further consistency enforcement. Assume initially
13          // empty if not specified
14           $\mathbb{Q} := \mathbb{Q} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
15           $\mathbb{S} := \mathbb{S} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
16           $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
    
```

Algorithm 1: Enforce NC*

Based on NC*, AC* and FDAC* have been developed for binary (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004, 2003) and ternary cost functions (Sanchez et al., 2008). Enforcing these consistency notions requires two equivalence preserving transformations besides NC* enforcement, namely *projection* and *extension* (Cooper & Schiex, 2004).

A *projection*, written as $\text{Project}(W_S, W_i, v, \alpha)$, transforms (W_S, W_i) to (W'_S, W'_i) with respect to a value $v \in D(x_i)$ and a cost α , where $\alpha \leq \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell[x_i] = v \wedge \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}$, such that:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet W'_i(u) &= \begin{cases} W_i(u) \oplus \alpha & \text{if } u = v, \\ W_i(u) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ \bullet W'_S(\ell) &= \begin{cases} W_S(\ell) \ominus \alpha & \text{if } \ell[x_i] = v, \\ W_S(\ell) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

An *extension*, written as $\text{Extend}(W_S, W_i, v, \alpha)$, transforms (W_S, W_i) to (W''_S, W''_i) with respect to a value $v \in D(x_i)$ and a cost α , where $\alpha \leq W_i(v)$, such that:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet W''_i(u) &= \begin{cases} W_i(u) \ominus \alpha & \text{if } u = v, \\ W_i(u) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \\ \bullet W''_S(\ell) &= \begin{cases} W_S(\ell) \oplus \alpha & \text{if } \ell[x_i] = v, \\ W_S(\ell) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Global Constraints and Global Cost Functions

A *global constraint* is a constraint with special semantics. They are usually with high arity, and thus cannot be propagated efficiently with standard consistency algorithms. With their special semantics, special propagation algorithms can be designed to achieve efficiency.

A *global cost function* is the soft variant of a hard global constraint. The cost of each tuple indicates how much the tuple violates the corresponding global constraint. One global constraint can give rise to different global cost functions using different *violation measures*. A global cost function returns 0 if the tuple satisfies the corresponding global constraint. The notation SOFT_GC^μ denotes the global cost function derived from a global constraint GC using a violation measure μ . For instance, the ALLDIFFERENT constraint has two soft variants.

Definition 4 (Petit, Régim, & Bessière, 2001) *The cost function $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{\text{var}}$ returns the minimum number of variable assignments that needed to be changed so that the tuple contains only distinct values; while $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{\text{dec}}$ returns the number of pairs of variables having the same assigned value.*

2.3 Flow Theory

Definition 5 *A flow network $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$ is a connected directed graph (V, E) , in which each edge $e \in E$ has a weight w_e , a capacity c_e , and a demand $d_e \leq c_e$.*

An (s, t) -flow f from a source $s \in V$ to a sink $t \in V$ of a value α in G is defined as a mapping from E to real numbers such that:

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \sum_{(s,u) \in E} f(s,u) &= \sum_{(u,t) \in E} f(u,t) = \alpha; \\ \bullet \sum_{(u,v) \in E} f(u,v) &= \sum_{(v,u) \in E} f(v,u) \quad \forall v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}; \end{aligned}$$

- $d_e \leq f_e \leq c_e \forall e \in E$.

For simplicity, we call an (s, t) -flow as a flow if s and t have been specified.

Definition 6 The cost of a flow f is defined as $cost(f) = \sum_{e \in E} w_e f_e$. A minimum cost flow problem of a value α is to find the flow whose value is α and cost is minimum.

If α is not given, it is assumed to be the maximum value among all flows.

To solve minimum cost flow problems, various approaches have been developed. Two of those are the *successive shortest path* and *cycle-cancelling algorithms* (Lawler, 1976). Both algorithms focus on the computation in the residual network of the corresponding flow network.

Definition 7 Given a flow f in the network $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$. The residual network $G^{res} = (V, E^{res}, w^{res}, c^{res}, d^{res})$ is defined as:

- $E^{res} = \{(u, v) \in e \mid f_{(u,v)} < c_{(u,v)}\} \cup \{(v, u) \in e \mid f_{(u,v)} > d_{(u,v)}\}$;
- $w_{(u,v)}^{res} = \begin{cases} w_{(u,v)} & \text{if } f_{(u,v)} < c_{(u,v)} \\ -w_{(u,v)} & \text{if } f_{(v,u)} > d_{(v,u)} \end{cases}$
- $c_{(u,v)}^{res} = \begin{cases} c_{(u,v)} - f_{(u,v)} & \text{if } f_{(u,v)} < c_{(u,v)} \\ f_{(u,v)} - d_{(u,v)} & \text{if } f_{(v,u)} > d_{(v,u)} \end{cases}$
- $d_e^{res} = 0$, for all $e \in E$;

The successive shortest path algorithm successively increases flow values of the edges along the shortest paths between s and t in the residual network until the value of flow reaches α or no more paths can be found. The cycle-cancelling algorithm reduces the cost of the given flow to minimum by removing negative cycles in the induced residual network.

In consistency enforcement with flow, we usually deal with the following problem: consider a (s, t) -flow f in a network $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$ with minimum cost, and an edge $\bar{e} \in E$. The problem is to determine whether increasing (or decreasing) $f_{\bar{e}}$ by one unit keeps the flow value unchanged, and compute the minimal cost of the new resultant flow if possible. Again, such a problem can be solved using the residual network G^{res} (Régis, 2002; van Hoeve et al., 2006): we compute the shortest path P from v' to u' in G^{res} , where $\bar{e} = (u', v') \in E$. If P exists, the value of the flow is unchanged if $f_{\bar{e}}$ is increased by one unit. The new minimum cost can be computed by the following theorem.

Theorem 1 (Régis, 2002; van Hoeve et al., 2006) Suppose f' is the resultant flow by increasing $f_{\bar{e}}$ by one unit. Then the minimum value of $cost(f')$ is $cost(f) + w_{\bar{e}}^{res} + \sum_{e \in P} w_e^{res}$.

Theorem 1 reduces the problem into finding a shortest path from v' to u' , which can be made incremental for consistency enforcement. If we want to reduce a unit flow from an edge, we can apply similar methods to those used in Theorem 1.

3. Related Work

Global cost functions can be handled using constraint optimization, which focuses on efficient computation of $\min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}$ and enforcing GAC on their hard constraint forms $W_S(\ell) \leq z_S$, where z_S is the variable storing costs (Petit et al., 2001). Van Hoeve et al. (2006)

develop a framework for global cost functions representable by flow networks, whose computation is polynomial in the size of networks. Beldiceanu (2000) and Beldiceanu, Carlsson and Petit (2004) further develop a representation scheme for global cost functions using a graph-based approach and an automaton approach. Under their framework, the computation of all global cost functions can be reduced to only considering a fixed set of global cost functions, e.g. the `SOFT_REGULAR` functions.

On the other hand, to efficiently remove more search space during WCSPs solving, various consistency notions have been developed. Examples are NC^* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004), BAC^\varnothing (Zytnicki et al., 2009), AC^* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004), FDAC^* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2003), and EDAC^* (de Givry et al., 2005). Stronger consistency notions, namely OSAC and VAC (Cooper et al., 2010), are also defined, but enforcement requires a relaxation of the cost valuation structure $V(\mathbb{T})$ to rational numbers, and current implementations are efficient only on binary WCSPs. For ternary cost functions, AC , FDAC and EDAC are introduced (Sanchez et al., 2008). Cooper (2005) incorporates the concept of k -consistency into WCSPs to form *complete k -consistency*. However, the time and space complexities increase exponentially as the problem size increases, making complete k -consistency impractical to enforce for general WCSPs.

4. Consistency Notions for Global Cost Functions

In this section, we discuss four consistency notions for high-arity cost functions: (1) strong \varnothing -inverse consistency (strong $\varnothing\text{IC}$), (2) generalized arc consistency (GAC^*), (3) full directional generalized arc consistency (FDGAC^*), and (4) generalized EDAC^* . These consistency notions require exponential time to enforce in general, but flow-based global cost functions (van Hoesve et al., 2006) enjoy polynomial time enforcement.

4.1 Strong \varnothing -Inverse Consistency

Strong \varnothing -inverse consistency is based on \varnothing -inverse consistency ($\varnothing\text{IC}$) (Zytnicki et al., 2009).

Definition 8 (Zytnicki et al., 2009) *Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \mathbb{T})$. A cost function $W_S \in \mathcal{C}$ is \varnothing -inverse consistent ($\varnothing\text{IC}$) if there exists a tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ such that $W_S(\ell) = 0$. A WCSP is $\varnothing\text{IC}$ iff all cost functions are $\varnothing\text{IC}$.*

The procedure `enforce $\varnothing\text{IC}$` () in Algorithm 2 enforces $\varnothing\text{IC}$. Each cost function W_S is made $\varnothing\text{IC}$ by lines 3 to 6, which move costs from W_S to W_\varnothing by simple arithmetic operations.

```

Function enforce $\varnothing\text{IC}$ ()
1  flag := false;
2  foreach  $W_S \in \mathcal{C}$  do
3       $\alpha := \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}$ ;
4       $W_\varnothing := W_\varnothing \oplus \alpha$ ;
5      foreach  $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$  do  $W_S(\ell) := W_S(\ell) \ominus \alpha$ ;
6      if  $\alpha > 0$  then flag := true;
7  return flag;
    
```

Algorithm 2: Enforcing $\varnothing\text{IC}$ on a WCSP

The time complexity of `enforce $\varnothing\text{IC}$` () in Algorithm 2 depends on the time complexities of lines 3 and 5. Line 3 computes the minimum cost and line 5 modifies the cost of each tuple

to maintain equivalence. In general, these two operations are exponential in the arity of the cost function. However, the first operation can be reduced to polynomial time for a global cost function. One such example is *flow-based global cost functions* (van Hoeve et al., 2006).

Definition 9 (van Hoeve et al., 2006) A global cost function W_S is flow-based if W_S can be represented as a flow network $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$ such that

$$\min\{\text{cost}(f) \mid f \text{ is the max. } \{s, t\}\text{-flow of } G\} = \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\},$$

where $s \in V$ is the fixed source and $t \in V$ is the fixed destination.

For examples, the cost function $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S)$ returns the number of pairs of variables in S that share the same value, and is shown to be flow-based (van Hoeve et al., 2006). An example of its corresponding flow network, where $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}$, is shown in Figure 1. All edges have a capacity of 1. The numbers on the edges represent the weight of the edges. If an edge has no number, the edge has zero weight. The thick lines show the flow corresponding to the tuple $\ell = (a, c, b, b)$ having a cost of 1.

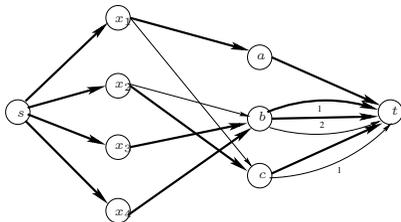


Figure 1: An example flow network for $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}$

With flow-based cost functions, the first operation (computing the minimum cost) can be reduced to time polynomial to the network size for those constraints. The second operation can be reduced to constant time using the Δ_S data structure suggested by Zytnicki et al. (2009). Instead of deducting the projected value α from each tuple in W_S , we simply store the projected value in Δ_S . When we want to know the actual value of W_S , we compute $W_S \ominus \Delta_S$.

Enforcing $\emptyset\text{IC}$ only increases W_\emptyset but does not help reduce domain size. Consider the WCSP in Figure 2. It is $\emptyset\text{IC}$, but the value $c \in D(x_1)$ cannot be a part of any feasible tuple. All tuples associated with the assignment $\{x_1 \mapsto c\}$ must have a cost of at least 4: 1 from W_\emptyset , 2 from W_1 , and 1 from $W_{1,2}$. To allow domain reduction, extra conditions are added to $\emptyset\text{IC}$ to form *strong $\emptyset\text{IC}$* .

$\top = 4, W_\emptyset = 1$

x_1	W_1
a	0
b	2
c	2

x_2	W_2
a	1
b	0

x_1	x_2	$W_{1,2}$
a	a	0
b	a	0
c	a	1

x_1	x_2	$W_{1,2}$
a	b	0
b	b	0
c	b	1

Figure 2: A WCSP which is $\emptyset\text{IC}$

Definition 10 Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. Consider a non-unary cost function $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$ and a variable $x_i \in S$. A tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ is the \emptyset -support of a value $v \in D(x_i)$ with respect to W_S iff $\ell[x_i] = v$ and $W_\emptyset \oplus W_i(v) \oplus W_S(\ell) < \top$. The cost function W_S is strong \emptyset IC iff it is \emptyset IC, and each value in each variable in S has a \emptyset -support with respect to W_S . A WCSP is strong \emptyset IC if it is \emptyset IC and all non-unary cost functions are strong \emptyset IC.

For instance, the WCSP in Figure 2 is not strong \emptyset IC. The value $c \in D(x_1)$ does not have a \emptyset -support, since $W_\emptyset \oplus W_1(c) \oplus \min\{W_{1,2}(\ell) \mid \ell[x_1] = c \wedge \ell \in \mathcal{L}(\{x_1, x_2\})\} = \top = 4$. Removal of $c \in D(x_1)$ makes it so.

Strong \emptyset IC collapses to GAC in classical CSPs when WCSPs collapse to CSPs. Although its definition is similar to BAC^\emptyset (Zytnicki et al., 2009), their strengths are incomparable. BAC^\emptyset gathers cost information from all cost functions on the boundary values, while we only consider the information from one non-unary cost function for all individual values.

The procedure `enforceS \emptyset IC()` in Algorithm 3 enforces strong \emptyset IC, based on the `W-AC*3()` Algorithm (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004). The algorithm maintains a propagation queue \mathbb{Q} of variables. Cost functions involving variables in \mathbb{Q} are potentially not strong \emptyset IC. At each iteration, an arbitrary variable x_j is removed from \mathbb{Q} by the function `pop()` in constant time. The algorithm enforces strong \emptyset IC for the cost functions involving x_j from lines 4 to 6. The existence of \emptyset -support is enforced by `find \emptyset Support()`. If domain reduction occurs (`find \emptyset Support()` returns true), or W_\emptyset increases (`enforce \emptyset IC()` returns true), variables are pushed onto \mathbb{Q} at lines 6 and 7 respectively, indicating that \emptyset IC are potentially broken. If the algorithm terminates, i.e. $\mathbb{Q} = \emptyset$, no variables are pushed into \mathbb{Q} at line 6, or \mathbb{Q} is not set to \mathcal{X} at line 7. It implies all variables are strong \emptyset IC and the WCSP is \emptyset IC. Thus the WCSP is strong \emptyset IC after execution.

```

Procedure enforceS $\emptyset$ IC()
1  |  $\mathbb{Q} := \mathcal{X}$ ;
2  | while  $\mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$  do
3  |   |  $x_j := \text{pop}(\mathbb{Q})$ ;
4  |   | foreach  $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$  s.t.  $x_j \in S$  do
5  |   |   | foreach  $x_i \in S \setminus \{x_j\}$  do
6  |   |   |   | if find $\emptyset$ Support( $W_S, x_i$ ) then  $\mathbb{Q} := \mathbb{Q} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
7  |   | if enforce $\emptyset$ IC() then  $\mathbb{Q} := \mathcal{X}$ ;

Function find $\emptyset$ Support( $W_S, x_i$ )
8  |  $flag := \text{false}$ ;
9  | foreach  $v \in D(x_i)$  do
10 |   |  $\alpha := \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell[x_i] = v\}$ ;
11 |   | if  $W_\emptyset \oplus W_i(v) \oplus \alpha = \top$  then
12 |   |   |  $D(x_i) := D(x_i) \setminus \{v\}$ ;
13 |   |   |  $flag := \text{true}$ ;
14 | return  $flag$ ;
    
```

Algorithm 3: Enforcing strong \emptyset IC of a WCSP

The procedure `enforceS \emptyset IC()` is correct and must terminate. Its complexity can be analyzed by abstracting the worst-case time complexities of `find \emptyset Support()` and `enforce \emptyset IC()` as

f_{strong} and $f_{\emptyset IC}$ respectively. Using an augment similar to the proof of Larrosa and Schiex's (2004) Theorems 12 and 21, the complexity can be stated as follows.

Theorem 2 *The procedure `enforceS \emptyset IC()` a time complexity of $O(r^2 e d f_{strong} + n d f_{\emptyset IC})$, where r is the maximum arity of all cost functions, d is maximum domain size, $e = |\mathcal{C}^+|$ and $n = |\mathcal{X}|$.*

Proof: The while loop at line 2 iterates at most $O(nd)$ times. In each iteration, line 6 executes at most $O(r \cdot |N(j)|)$ times, where $N(j)$ is the set of soft constraints restricting x_j . Since line 7 executes at most $O(nd)$ times, the overall time complexity is $O(r d f_{strong} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n |N(j)| + n d f_{\emptyset IC}) = O(r^2 e d f_{strong} + n d f_{\emptyset IC})$. $O(\sum_{j=1}^n |N(j)|) = O(re)$ holds since each cost function counts at most r times in $\sum_{j=1}^n |N(j)|$. Thus, it must terminate. \square

Corollary 1 *The procedure `enforceS \emptyset IC()` must terminate. The resultant WCSP is strong $\emptyset IC$, and equivalent to the original WCSP.*

In general, due to `enforce \emptyset IC()` and `find \emptyset Support()`, enforcing strong $\emptyset IC$ is exponential in r . As discussed before, `enforce \emptyset IC()` can be reduced to polynomial time for flow-based global cost functions. Similarly, `find \emptyset Support()` can be executed efficiently and incrementally for flow-based global cost functions since line 10 can be computed in polynomial time using minimum cost flow.

Another property we are interested in is *confluence*. A consistency Ψ is *confluent* if enforcing Ψ always transforms a problem P into a unique problem P' which is Ψ . AC* is not confluent (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004). With different variable and/or cost function orderings, AC* enforcement can lead to different equivalent WCSPs with different values of W_{\emptyset} . BAC $^{\emptyset}$ is confluent (Zytnicki et al., 2009). Following the proofs of Propositions 3.3 and 4.3 by Zytnicki et al., it can be shown that strong $\emptyset IC$ is also confluent.

Theorem 3 (Confluence) *Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$, there exists a unique WCSP $P' = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}', \mathcal{C}', \top)$ which is strong $\emptyset IC$ and equivalent to P .*

The above concludes the theoretical analysis of strong $\emptyset IC$. In the following, we compare the strength of strong $\emptyset IC$ with the classical consistency notions used in constraint optimization. Following Petit et al. (2000), we define the *reified form* of a WCSP as follows:

Definition 11 (Petit et al., 2000) *Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. The reified form, `reified`(P), of P is a constraint optimization problem (COP) $(\mathcal{X}^h, \mathcal{D}^h, \mathcal{C}^h, obj)$, where:*

- $\mathcal{X}^h = \mathcal{X} \cup Z$, where $Z = \{z_S \mid W_S \in \mathcal{C} \setminus \{W_{\emptyset}\}\}$ are the cost variables.
- $D^h(x_i) = D(x_i)$ for $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$, and $D^h(z_S) = \{0, \dots, \top - W_{\emptyset} - 1\}$ for each $z_S \in Z$. If $\top - W_{\emptyset} < 1$, $D^h(z_S) = \emptyset$.
- \mathcal{C}^h contains the reified constraints $C_{S \cup \{z_S\}}^h$, which are the hard constraints associated with each $W_S \in \mathcal{C} \setminus \{W_{\emptyset}\}$ defined as $W_S(\ell) \leq z_S$ for each tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$. \mathcal{C}^h also contains C_Z^h defined as $W_{\emptyset} \oplus \bigoplus_{z_S \in Z} z_S < \top$.
- The objective is to minimize obj , where $obj = W_{\emptyset} \oplus \bigoplus_{z_S \in Z} z_S$.

Finding the optimal solution of $\text{reified}(P)$ is equivalent to solving P . However, enforcing GAC on $\text{reified}(P)$ cannot remove more values than enforcing strong \emptyset IC of P . It is because strong \emptyset IC of P implies GAC of $\text{reified}(P)$ but not vice versa.

In general, we define the strength comparison as follows.

Definition 12 *Given a problem P representable by two models $\phi(P)$ and $\psi(P)$. A consistency Φ on $\phi(P)$ is strictly stronger than another consistency Ψ on $\psi(P)$, written as Φ on $\phi(P) > \Psi$ on $\psi(P)$, or $\Phi > \Psi$ if $\phi(P) = \psi(P)$, iff $\psi(P)$ is Ψ whenever $\phi(P)$ is Φ , but not vice versa.*

Zytnicki et al. (2009) also define consistency strength comparison in terms of unsatisfiability detection, which is subsumed by our new definition. If Φ on $\phi(P)$ implies Ψ on $\psi(P)$, and enforcing Ψ on $\psi(P)$ detects unsatisfiability, enforcing Φ on $\phi(P)$ can detect unsatisfiability as well.

Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. We show strong \emptyset IC on P is stronger than GAC on $\text{reified}(P)$ by the following theorem.

Theorem 4 *Strong \emptyset IC on $P > \text{GAC on reified}(P)$.*

Proof: Figure 2 has given an example that a WCSP whose reified COP is GAC may not be strong \emptyset IC. We have to show that strong \emptyset IC on P implies GAC on $\text{reified}(P)$.

First, C_Z^h is GAC. If $|\mathcal{C}| \leq 1$, the constraint is obviously GAC. If $|\mathcal{C}| > 1$, for each $v_{S_i} \in D(z_{S_i})$, to satisfy the constraint, we just let other cost variables take the value 0, i.e. supports for each $v_{S_i} \in D(z_{S_i})$ exist.

Besides, $C_{S \cup \{z_S\}}^h$ is GAC. By the definition of \emptyset IC, there exists a tuple $\ell' \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ such that $W_S(\ell') = 0$. The tuple ℓ' can form the support of $v_S \in D(z_S)$ with respect to $C_{S \cup \{z_S\}}^h$. Besides, the \emptyset -support ℓ_\emptyset of $v \in D(x_i)$, together with $v_S = W_S(\ell_\emptyset)$, forms a support for $v \in D(x_i)$. \square

For a detailed comparison between strong \emptyset IC of WCSPs and GAC of the reified approach, readers can refer to the work of Leung (2009).

When the cost functions are binary, strong \emptyset IC cannot be stronger than AC*. In the next section, we show this fact by proving GAC^* , a generalized version of AC*, to be stronger than strong \emptyset IC.

4.2 Generalized Arc Consistency

Definition 13 (Cooper & Schiex, 2004) *Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. Consider a cost function $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$ and a variable $x_i \in S$. A tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ is a simple support of $v \in D(x_i)$ with respect to W_S with $x_i \in S$ iff $\ell[x_i] = v$ and $W_S(\ell) = 0$. A variable $x_i \in S$ is star generalized arc consistent (GAC*) with respect to W_S iff x_i is NC*, and each value $v_i \in D(x_i)$ has a simple support ℓ with respect to W_S . A WCSP is GAC* iff all variables are GAC* with respect to all related non-unary cost functions.*

The definition is designed with practical considerations, and is slightly weaker than Definition 4.2 in the work of Cooper et al. (2010), which also requires $W_S(\ell) = \top$ if $W_\emptyset \oplus \bigoplus_{x_i \in S} W_i(\ell[x_i]) \oplus W_S(\ell) = \top$.

GAC* collapses to AC* for binary cost functions (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004) and AC for ternary cost functions (Sanchez et al., 2008). GAC* is stronger than strong \emptyset IC, as a WCSP which is GAC* is also strong \emptyset IC, but not vice versa. We state without proof as follows.

Theorem 5 *GAC* > strong \emptyset IC.*

The procedure `enforceGAC*`() in Algorithm 4 enforces GAC* for a WCSP $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$, based on the `W-AC*3`() Algorithm (Larrosa & Schiex, 2004). The propagation queue \mathbb{Q} stores a set of variables x_j . If $x_j \in \mathbb{Q}$, all variables involved in the same cost functions as x_j are potentially not GAC*. Initially, all variables are in \mathbb{Q} . A variable x_j is pushed into \mathbb{Q} only after values are removed from $D(x_j)$. At each iteration, an arbitrary variable x_j is removed from the queue by the function `pop`() at line 4. The function `findSupport`() at line 7 enforces GAC* of x_i with respect to W_S by finding the simple supports. The infeasible values are removed by the function `pruneVal`() at line 10. If a value is removed from $D(x_i)$, the simple supports of other related variables may be destroyed. Thus, x_i is pushed back to \mathbb{Q} again by the procedure `pruneVal`(). If `GAC*`() terminates, all values in each variable domain must have a simple support. The WCSP is now GAC*.

```

Procedure enforceGAC*()
1  |    $\mathbb{Q} := \mathcal{X}$ ;
2  |   GAC* ();

Procedure GAC*()
3  |   while  $\mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$  do
4  |        $x_j := \text{pop}(\mathbb{Q})$ ;
5  |       foreach  $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$  s.t.  $x_j \in S$  do
6  |           foreach  $x_i \in S \setminus \{x_j\}$  do
7  |               if findSupport( $W_S, x_i$ ) then
8  |                   // For further consistency enforcement. Assume
9  |                   // initially empty if not specified
10 |                    $S := S \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
11 |                    $R := R \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
12 |           pruneVal ();

Function findSupport( $W_S, x_i$ )
13 |   flag := false;
14 |   foreach  $v \in D(x_i)$  do
15 |        $\alpha := \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell[x_i] = v\}$ ;
16 |       if  $W_i(v) = 0 \wedge \alpha > 0$  then flag := true;
17 |        $W_i(v) := W_i(v) \oplus \alpha$ ;
18 |       foreach  $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$  s.t.  $\ell[x_i] = a$  do  $W_S(\ell) := W_S(\ell) \ominus \alpha$ ;
19 |   unaryProject( $x_i$ );
20 |   return flag;
    
```

Algorithm 4: Enforcing GAC* for a WCSP

The procedure `enforceGAC*`() in Algorithm 4 is correct and must terminate. The proof is similar to that of Theorem 2. By replacing f_{strong} by f_{GAC} (the worst-case time complexities of `findSupport`()) and $f_{\emptyset IC}$ by $O(nd)$ (the complexity of `pruneVal`()), the complexity of Algorithm 4 can be stated as follows.

Theorem 6 *The procedure `enforceGAC*`() has a time complexity of $O(r^2 e d f_{GAC} + n^2 d^2)$, where n, d, e , and r are as defined in Theorem 2.*

Corollary 2 *The procedure `enforceGAC*`(\cdot) must terminate. The resultant WCSP is GAC^* , and equivalent to the original WCSP.*

In general, the procedure `enforceGAC*`(\cdot) is exponential in the maximum arity of the cost function due to `findSupport`(\cdot). The function `findSupport`(\cdot) consists of two operations: (1) finding the minimum cost of the tuple associated with $\{x_i \mapsto v\}$ at line 13, and (2) performing projection at lines 15 and 16. The time complexity of the first operation is polynomial for a flow-based global cost function W_S . The method introduced by van Hoeve et al. (2006) can be applied to the first operation as discussed in Section 4.1. However, the second operation modifies W_S to W'_S , which requires changing the costs of an exponential number of tuples. Cooper and Schiex (2004) use a similar technique as the one by Zytynicki et al. (2009) (similar to the technique described in Section 4.1) to make the modification constant time. However, the resulting W'_S may not be flow-based, affecting the time complexity of the subsequent procedure calls. To resolve the issue, we introduce *flow-based projection-safety*. If W_S is flow-based projection-safe, the flow property can be maintained throughout enforcement.

Definition 14 *Given a property \mathcal{T} . A global cost function W_S is \mathcal{T} projection-safe iff W_S satisfies the property \mathcal{T} , and for all W'_S derived from W_S by a series of projections and extensions, W'_S also satisfies \mathcal{T} .*

In other words, a \mathcal{T} projection-safe cost function W_S still satisfies \mathcal{T} after any numbers of projections or extensions. This facilitates the use of \mathcal{T} to derive efficient consistency enforcement algorithms. In the following, we consider a special form of \mathcal{T} projection-safety, when \mathcal{T} is the flow-based property.

In the following, we first define \mathcal{FB} , and show that \mathcal{FB} is the sufficient condition of flow-based projection-safety.

Definition 15 *A global cost function satisfies \mathcal{FB} if:*

1. W_S is flow-based, with the corresponding network $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$ with a fixed source $s \in V$ and a fixed destination $t \in V$;
2. there exists a subjective function mapping each maximum flow f in G to each tuple $\ell_f \in \mathcal{L}(S)$, and;
3. there exists an injection mapping from an assignment $\{x_i \mapsto v\}$ to a subset of edges $\bar{E} \subseteq E$ such that for all maximum flow f and the corresponding tuple ℓ_f , $\sum_{e \in \bar{E}} f_e = 1$ whenever $\ell_f[x_i] = v$, and $\sum_{e \in \bar{E}} f_e = 0$ whenever $\ell_f[x_i] \neq v$

Lemma 1 *Given W_S satisfying \mathcal{FB} . Suppose W'_S is obtained from `Project`(W_S, W_i, v, α) or `Extend`(W_S, W_i, v, α). Then W'_S also satisfies \mathcal{FB} .*

Proof: We only prove the part for projection, since the proof for extension is similar. We first show that W'_S is flow-based (condition 1). Assume $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$ is the corresponding flow network of W_S . After the projection, G can be modified to $G' = (V, E, w', c, d)$, where $w'(e) = w(e) - \alpha$ if $e \in \bar{E}$ is an edge corresponding to $\{x_i \mapsto v\}$ and $w'(e) = w(e)$ otherwise. The resulting G' is

the corresponding flow network of W'_S , since for the maximum flow f in G with minimum cost:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{e \in E} w'_e f_e &= \sum_{e \in E} w_e f_e - \alpha \sum_{e \in \bar{E}} f_e \\ &= \min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\} - \alpha \sum_{e \in \bar{E}} f_e \\ &= \min\{W'_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, since the topology of $G' = (V, E, w', c, d)$ is the same as that of $G = (V, E, w, c, d)$, W'_S also satisfies conditions 2 and 3. \square

Theorem 7 *If a global cost function W_S satisfies \mathcal{FB} , then W_S is flow-based projection-safe.*

Proof: Initially, if no projection and extension is performed, directly from Definition 15, W_S is flow-based. Assume W'_S is the cost function formed from W_S after a series of projections and/or extensions. By Lemma 1, W'_S still satisfies \mathcal{FB} and thus flow-based. Result follows. \square

As shown by Theorem 7, if a global cost function is flow-based projection-safe, it is always flow-based after projections and/or extensions. Besides, by checking the conditions in Definition 15, we can determine whether a global cost function is flow-based projection-safe.

Note that the computation in the proof is performed under the standard integer set instead of $V(\mathbb{T})$ for practical considerations. Further investigation is required if the computation can be restricted on $V(\mathbb{T})$.

By using Theorem 7, we can apply the results by van Hoeve et al. (2006) to compute the value $\min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell[x_i] = v \wedge \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}$ in polynomial time throughout GAC* enforcement. Besides, the proof gives an efficient algorithm to perform projection in polynomial time by simply modifying the weights of the corresponding edges.

Again, we use $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}$ as an example. Van Hoeve et al. (2006) have shown that $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S)$ satisfies conditions 1 and 2 in Definition 15. Besides, from the network structure shown in Figure 1, by taking $\bar{E} = \{(x_i, v)\}$ for each assignment $\{x_i \mapsto v\}$, condition 3 can be satisfied. Thus, $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}$ is flow-based projection-safe.

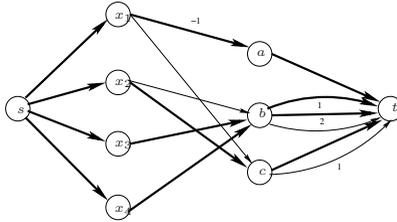


Figure 3: The flow network $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ after projection

Consider the flow network of the $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}$ in Figure 1. Suppose we perform $\text{Project}(\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S), W_1, a, 1)$. The network is modified to the one in Figure 3, the weight of the edge (x_1, a) in which is decreased from 0 to -1 . The flow has a cost of 0, which is the cost of the tuple (a, c, b, b) after projection.

If a global cost function is flow-based projection-safe, `findSupport()` has a time complexity depending on the time complexity of computing the minimum cost flow and the shortest path from any two nodes in the network. The result is stated by the following theorem.

Theorem 8 *Given the time complexities of computing the minimum cost flow and the shortest path are \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{SP} respectively. If W_S is flow-based projection-safe, `findSupport()` has a time complexity of $O(\mathcal{K} + \varepsilon d \cdot \mathcal{SP})$, where $d = \max\{|D(x_i)| \mid x_i \in S\}$ and ε is the maximum size of \bar{E} .*

Proof: By Theorem 1, after finding a first flow by $O(\mathcal{K})$, the minimum cost at line 13 can be found by augmenting the existing flow, which only requires $O(\mathcal{SP})$. Line 15 can be done in constant time, while line 16 can be done as follows: (a) decrease the weights of all edges corresponding to $x_i \mapsto v$ by α , and (b) augment the current flow to the one with new minimum cost by changing the flow values of the edges whose weights have been modified in the first step. The first step requires $O(\varepsilon)$, while the second step requires $O(\varepsilon \cdot \mathcal{SP})$. At most ε edges are required to change their flow values to maintain minimality of the flow cost. Since `unaryProject()` requires $O(d)$, the overall time is $O(\mathcal{K} + d(\mathcal{SP} + \varepsilon \cdot \mathcal{SP}) + d) = O(\mathcal{K} + \varepsilon d \cdot \mathcal{SP})$. \square

The time complexity for finding a shortest path in a graph \mathcal{SP} varies by applying different algorithms. In general, $\mathcal{SP} = O(|V||E|)$, as negative weights are introduced in the graph. However, it can be reduced by applying a potential value on each vertices, as in Johnson's (1977) algorithm. For example, in Figure 3, we can increase the potential value of vertices a and t by 1, and the weight of the edges (b, t) and (c, t) by 1. This increases the cost of all paths from s to t by 1, and makes the weights of all edges non-negative. Dijkstra's (1959) algorithm can thus be applied, reducing the time complexity to $O(|E| + |V|\log(|V|))$.

Although GAC* can be enforced in polynomial time for flow-based projection-safe global cost functions, the `findSupport()` function still requires runtime much higher than that for binary or ternary table cost functions in general. To optimize the performance of the solver, we can delay the consistency enforcement of global cost functions until all binary or ternary table cost functions are processed at line 5.

FDAC* for binary cost functions (Larrosa & Schiex, 2003) suggests that a stronger consistency can be deduced by using the extension operator. We will discuss the generalized version of FDAC* for non-binary cost functions in the next section.

4.3 Full Directional Generalized Arc Consistency

Definition 16 *Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. Consider a cost function $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$ and a variable $x_i \in S$. A tuple ℓ is the full support of the value $v \in D(x_i)$ with respect to W_S and a subset of variables $U \subseteq S \setminus \{x_i\}$ iff $\ell[x_i] = v$ and $W_S(\ell) \oplus \bigoplus_{x_j \in U} W_j(\ell[x_j]) = 0$. A variable x_i is directional star generalized arc consistent (DGAC*) with respect to W_S if it is NC* and each value $v \in D(x_i)$ has a full support with respect to $\{x_u \mid x_u \in S \wedge u > i\}$. A WCSP is full directional star generalized arc consistent (FDGAC*) if it is GAC* and each variable is DGAC* with respect to all related non-unary cost functions.*

FDGAC* collapses to GAC when WCSPs collapse to CSPs. Moreover, FDGAC* collapses to FDAC* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2003) when the arity of the cost functions is two. However, FDGAC* is incomparable to FDAC for ternary cost functions (Sanchez et al., 2008). FDAC requires full supports with not only zero unary but also zero binary costs for the next variable in S only, while we only require all variables with full supports of zero unary costs.

By definition, FDGAC* is stronger than GAC* and also strong \emptyset IC.

Theorem 9 $FDGAC^* > GAC^* > \text{strong } \emptyset IC$.

The procedure `enforceFDGAC*`() enforces FDGAC* for a WCSP, based on the `FDAC*`() Algorithm (Larrosa & Schiex, 2003). The propagation queues \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{R} store a set of variables. If $x_j \in \mathbb{Q}$, all variables involved in the same cost functions as x_j are potentially not GAC*; if $x_j \in \mathbb{R}$, the variables x_i involved in the same cost functions as x_j are potentially not DGAC*. When values are removed from the domain of variable x_j , x_j is pushed onto \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{R} ; when unary costs of the values in $D(x_j)$ are increased, x_j is pushed to \mathbb{R} . At each iteration, GAC* is maintained by the procedure `GAC*`(). DGAC* is then enforced by `DGAC*`(). Enforcing DGAC* follows the ordering from the largest index to the smallest index such that the full supports of values in the domains of variables with smaller indices are not destroyed by DGAC*-enforcement on those with larger indices. The variable with the largest index in \mathbb{R} is removed from \mathbb{R} by the function `popMax`(). By implementing \mathbb{R} as a heap, `popMax`() requires only constant time. DGAC* enforcement is performed at line 10 by `findFullSupport`(). In the last step, NC* is re-enforced by `pruneVal`(). The iteration continues until all propagation queues are empty, which implies all values in each variable domain has a simple and full support, and all variables are NC*. The resultant WCSP is FDGAC*.

Procedure `enforceFDGAC*`()

```

1  |  $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{Q} := \mathcal{X}$ ;
2  | while  $\mathbb{R} \neq \emptyset \vee \mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$  do
3  |   | GAC* ();
4  |   | DGAC* ();
5  |   | pruneVal ();

```

Procedure `DGAC*`()

```

6  | while  $\mathbb{R} \neq \emptyset$  do
7  |   |  $x_u := \text{popMax}(\mathbb{R})$ ;
8  |   | foreach  $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$  s.t.  $x_u \in S$  do
9  |     | for  $i = n$  DownTo 1 s.t.  $x_i \in S \setminus \{x_u\}$  do
10 |       | if findFullSupport ( $W_S, x_i, S \cap \{x_j \mid j > i\}$ ) then  $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
12 |       |  $\mathbb{S} := \mathbb{S} \cup \{x_i\}$ ; // For further consistency enforcement.

```

Function `findFullSupport`(W_S, x_i, U)

```

13 | foreach  $x_j \in U$  do
14 |   | foreach  $v_j \in D(x_j)$  do
15 |     | foreach  $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$  s.t.  $\ell[x_j] = v_j$  do  $W_S(\ell) := W_S(\ell) \oplus W_j(v_j)$ ;
16 |     |  $W_j(v_j) := 0$ ;
17 |  $flag := \text{findSupport}(W_S, x_i)$ ;
18 | foreach  $x_j \in U$  do findSupport ( $W_S, x_j$ );
19 | unaryProject ( $x_i$ );
20 | return  $flag$ ;

```

Algorithm 5: Enforcing FDGAC* on a WCSP

The procedure `enforceFDGAC*`(\cdot) in Algorithm 5 is correct and must terminate, the proof of which is similar to those of Theorems 3 and 4 by Larrosa and Schiex (2003). The worst-case time complexity of `enforceFDGAC*`(\cdot) can be stated in terms of that of `findFullSupport`(f_{DGAC}) and `findSupport`(f_{GAC}) as follows.

Theorem 10 *The procedure `enforceFDGAC*`(\cdot) has a time complexity of $O(r^2ed(nf_{DGAC} + f_{GAC}) + n^2d^2)$, where n , d , e , and r are as defined in Theorem 2.*

Proof: First we analyze the time complexity of enforcing `DGAC*`. Consider the procedure `DGAC*`(\cdot) at line 6. The while-loop iterates at most $O(n)$ times. Since no value is removed in the while-loop, once x_i is processed at line 10, where $i > j$, it is not pushed back to \mathbb{R} at line 11. Thus, line 10 executes at most $O(r \sum_{j=0}^n |N(j)|) = O(r^2e)$ times, where $N(j)$ is the set of cost functions restricting x_j . Therefore, the time complexity of `DGAC*`(\cdot) is $O(r^2ef_{DGAC})$. Since `DGAC*`(\cdot) executes at most $O(nd)$ times throughout the global enforcement iteration. Thus the time spent on enforcing `DGAC*` is $O(nr^2edf_{DGAC})$.

Although `GAC*`(\cdot) is called $O(nd)$ times, it does nothing if no values are removed from variable domains. Thus we count the number of times calling `findSupport`(\cdot). Since the variables are pushed into \mathbb{Q} only when a value is removed, `findSupport`(\cdot) only executes at most $O(nd)$ times throughout the global enforcement iteration. Similar arguments apply to `pruneVal`(\cdot) at line 10 inside `GAC*`(\cdot) defined in Algorithm 4. With the proof similar to Theorem 6, the time spent on enforcing `GAC*` is $O(r^2edf_{GAC} + n^2d^2)$.

The `pruneVal` at line 5 executes $O(nd)$ times, and each time it requires a time complexity of $O(nd)$. Therefore, the overall time complexity is $O(r^2ed(nf_{DGAC} + f_{GAC}) + n^2d^2)$. \square

Corollary 3 *The procedure `enforceFDGAC*`(\cdot) must terminate. The resultant WCSP is `FDGAC*` and equivalent to the original WCSP.*

Again, the complexity is exponential in the maximum arity due to the function `findSupport`(\cdot) and `findFullSupport`(\cdot). In the following, we focus the discussion on `findFullSupport`(\cdot). The first part (lines 15 and 16) performs extensions to push all the unary costs back to W_S . By the time we execute line 17, all unary costs W_j , where $x_j \in U$, are 0, and enforcing `GAC*` for x_i achieves the second requirement of `DGAC*` (each $v \in D(x_i)$ has a full support). Line 18 re-instates `GAC*` for all variables $x_j \in U$. Note that success in line 17 guarantees that $W_j(v_j) = 0$ for some value v_j appearing in a tuple ℓ which makes $W_S(\ell) = 0$.

Again, flow-based projection-safety helps reduce the time complexity of `findFullSupport`(\cdot) throughout the enforcement. The proof of Theorem 7 gives a polynomial time algorithm to perform extension and maintain efficient computation of $\min\{W_S(\ell) \mid \ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)\}$. Flow-based projection-safety can be guaranteed by Theorem 7, which requires checking conditions 1, 2, and 3 in the definition of flow-based projection-safety. The complexity result follows from Theorems 2 and 8.

Theorem 11 *If W_S is a flow-based projection-safe global cost function, `findFullSupport`(\cdot) has a time complexity of $O(K + \varepsilon d \cdot SP)$, where r , ε , d , K and SP are as defined in Theorems 2 and 8.*

Proof: Similarly to Theorem 8, lines 13 to 16 can be performed as follows: (a) for each $x_j \in U$ and each value $v_j \in D(x_j)$, increase the weights of all edges corresponding to $\{x_j \mapsto v_j\}$ by $W_j(v_j)$, and then reduce $W_j(v_j)$ to 0, and (b) find a flow with the new minimum cost in the new

flow network. The first step can be done in $O(\epsilon rd)$, as the size of U is bounded by the arity of the cost function r . The second step can be done in $O(\mathcal{K})$, which also acts as preprocessing for `findSupport()` at lines 17 and 18. By Theorem 8, lines 17 and 18 can be done in $O(r\epsilon d \cdot \mathcal{SP})$. Thus, the overall complexity is $O(r \cdot \epsilon d + \mathcal{K} + r\epsilon d \cdot \mathcal{SP}) = O(\mathcal{K} + \epsilon rd \cdot \mathcal{SP})$. \square

Similarly to GAC*, the DGAC* enforcement for global cost functions can be delayed until all binary and ternary table cost functions are processed.

4.4 Generalizing Existential Directional Arc Consistency

EDAC* (de Givry et al., 2005) can be generalized to EDGAC* using the full support definition as in FDGAC*. However, we find that naively generalizing EDAC* is not always enforceable, due to the limitation of EDAC*. In the following, we explain and provide a solution to this limitation.

4.4.1 AN INHERENT LIMITATION OF EDAC*

Definition 17 (de Givry et al., 2005) Consider a binary WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$. A variable $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ is existential arc consistent (EAC*) if it is NC* and there exists a value $v \in D(x_i)$ with zero unary cost such that it has full supports with respect to all binary cost functions $W_{i,j}$ on $\{x_i, x_j\}$ and $\{x_j\}$. P is existential directional arc consistent (EDAC*) if it is FDAC* and all variables are EAC*.

Enforcing EAC* on a variable x_i requires two main operations: (1) compute

$$\alpha = \min_{a \in D(x_i)} \{W_i(a) \oplus \bigoplus_{W_{i,j} \in \mathcal{C}} \min_{b \in D(x_j)} \{W_{i,j}(a, b) \oplus W_j(b)\}\},$$

which determines whether enforcing full supports breaks the NC* requirement, and (2) if $\alpha > 0$, enforce full supports with respect to all cost functions $W_{i,j} \in \mathcal{C}$ by invoking `findFullSupport`($x_i, W_{i,j}, \{x_j\}$), implying that NC* is no longer satisfied and hence W_\emptyset can be increased by enforcing NC*. EDAC* enforcement will oscillate if constraints share more than one variable. The situation is similar to Example 3 by de Givry et al. (2005). We demonstrate by the example in Figure 4(a), which shows a WCSP with two cost functions $W_{1,2}^1$ and $W_{1,2}^2$. It is FDAC* but not EDAC*. If x_2 takes the value a , $W_{1,2}^1(v, a) \oplus W_1(v) \geq 1$ for all values $v \in D(x_1)$; if x_2 takes the value b , $W_{1,2}^2(v, b) \oplus C_1(v) \geq 1$ for all values $v \in D(x_1)$. Thus, by enforcing full supports of each value in $D(x_2)$ with respect to all cost functions and $\{x_1\}$, NC* is broken and W_\emptyset can be increased. To increase W_\emptyset , we enforce full supports: the cost of 1 in $W_1(a)$ is extended to $W_{1,2}^1$, resulting in Figure 4(b). No costs in W_1 can be extended to $W_{1,2}^2$. Performing projection from $W_{1,2}^1$ to W_2 results in Figure 4(c). The WCSP is now EAC* but not FDAC*. Enforcing FDAC* converts the problem state back to Figure 4(a).

The problem is caused by the first step, which does not tell how the unary costs are separated for extension to increase W_\emptyset . Although an increment is predicted, the unary cost in $W_1(a)$ has a choice of moving itself to $W_{1,2}^1$ or $W_{1,2}^2$. During computation, no information is obtained on how the unary costs are moved. As shown, a wrong movement breaks DAC* without incrementing W_\emptyset , resulting in oscillation.

This problem does not occur in existing solvers which handle only up to ternary cost functions. The solvers allow only one binary cost functions for every pair of variables. If there are indeed two cost functions for the same two variables, the cost functions can be merged into one, where the

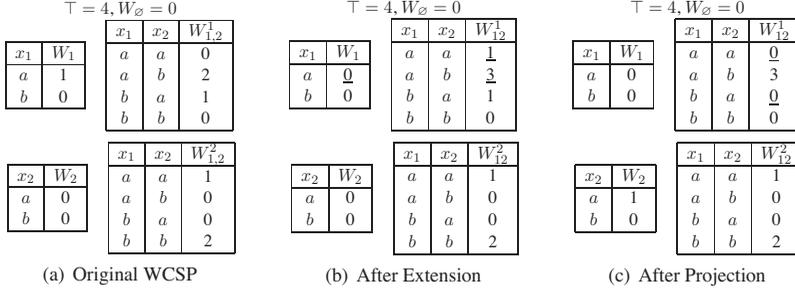


Figure 4: Oscillation in EDAC* enforcement

cost of a tuple in the merged function is the sum of the costs of the same tuple in the two original functions. However, if we allow high arity global cost functions, sharing of more than one variable would be common and necessary in many scenarios. A straightforward generalization of EDAC* for non-binary cost functions would inherit the same oscillation problem. In the case of ternary cost functions, Sanchez et al. (2008) cleverly avoid the oscillation problem by re-defining full supports to include not just unary but also binary cost functions. During EDAC enforcement, unary costs are distributed through extension to binary cost functions. However, the method is only designed for ternary cost functions. In the following, we define a weak version of EDAC*, which is based on the notion of *cost-providing partitions*.

4.4.2 COST-PROVIDING PARTITIONS AND WEAK EDGAC*

Definition 18 A cost-providing partition \mathcal{B}_{x_i} for variable $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ is a set of sets $\{B_{x_i, W_S} \mid x_i \in S\}$ such that:

- $|\mathcal{B}_{x_i}|$ is the number of constraints which scope includes x_i ;
- $B_{x_i, W_S} \subseteq S$;
- $B_{x_i, W_{S_j}} \cap B_{x_i, W_{S_k}} = \emptyset$ for any two different constraints $W_{S_k}, W_{S_j} \in \mathcal{C}^+$, and;
- $\bigcup_{B_{x_i, W_S} \in \mathcal{B}_{x_i}} B_{x_i, W_S} = (\bigcup_{W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+ \wedge x_i \in S} S) \setminus \{x_i\}$.

Essentially, \mathcal{B}_{x_i} forms a partition of the set containing all variables constrained by x_i . If $x_j \in B_{x_i, W_S}$, the unary costs in W_j can only be extended to W_S when enforcing EAC* for x_i . This avoids the problem of determining how the unary costs of x_j are distributed when there exists more than one constraint on $\{x_i, x_j\}$.

Based on the cost-providing partitions, we define *weak EDAC**.

Definition 19 Consider a binary WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$ and cost-providing partitions $\{\mathcal{B}_{x_i} \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X}\}$. A weak fully supported value $v \in D(x_i)$ of a variable $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ is a value with zero unary cost and for each variable x_j and a binary cost function $W_{i,j}^m$, there exists a value $b \in D(x_j)$ such that $W_{i,j}^m(v, b) = 0$ if $B_{x_i, W_{i,j}^m} = \{\}$, and $W_{i,j}^m(v, b) \oplus W_j(b) = 0$ if $B_{x_i, W_{i,j}^m} = \{x_j\}$. A variable x_i is weak existential arc consistent (weak EAC*) if it is NC* and there exists at least one weak fully supported value in its domain. P is weak existential directional arc consistent (weak EDAC*) if it is FDAC* and each variable is weak EAC*.

Weak EDAC* collapses to AC when WCSPs collapse to CSPs for any cost-providing partition. Moreover, weak EDAC* is reduced to EDAC* (de Givry et al., 2005) when the binary cost functions share at most one variable.

We further generalize weak EDAC* to *weak EDGAC** for n -ary cost functions.

Definition 20 Given a WCSP $P = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{C}, \top)$ and cost-providing partitions $\{\mathcal{B}_{x_i} \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X}\}$. A weak fully supported value $v \in D(x_i)$ of a variable x_i is a value with zero unary cost and full supports with respect to all cost functions $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$ with $x_i \in S$ and B_{x_i, W_S} . A variable x_i is weak existential generalized arc consistent (*weak EGAC**) if it is NC* and there exists at least one weak fully supported value in its domain. P is weak existential directional generalized arc consistent (*weak EDGAC**) if it is FDGAC* and each variable is weak EGAC*.

Weak EDAC* and weak EDGAC* can be achieved using for any cost-providing partitions. Weak EDGAC* is reduced to GAC when WCSPs collapse to CSPs.

Compared with other consistency notions, weak EDGAC* is strictly stronger than FDGAC* and other consistency notions we have described. It can be deduced directly from the definition.

Theorem 12 For any cost-providing partitions, *weak EDGAC** $>$ *FDGAC** $>$ *GAC** $>$ *strong \emptyset IC*. VAC is stronger than weak EDGAC*, as stated in the theorem below.

Theorem 13 VAC are strictly stronger than *weak EDGAC** with any cost-providing partition.

Proof: A WCSP which is VAC must be weak EDGAC* for any cost-providing partition. Otherwise, there must exist a sequence of projections and extensions to increase W_\emptyset , which violates Theorem 7.3 by Cooper et al. (2010). On another hand, Cooper et al. (2010) give an example which is EDAC* but not VAC. Results follow. \square

However, weak EDGAC* is incomparable to complete k -consistency (Cooper, 2005), where $k > 2$, for any cost-providing partition. It is because EDAC* is already incomparable to complete k -consistency (Sanchez et al., 2008).

To compute the cost-providing partition \mathcal{B}_{x_i} of a variable x_i , we could apply Algorithm 6, which is a greedy approach to partition the set Y containing all variables related to x_i defined in line 1, hoping to gathering more costs by gathering more variables at one cost function, increasing the chance of removing more infeasible values and raising W_\emptyset .

Procedure findCostProvidingPartition(x_i)

- 1 $Y = (\bigcup_{W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+ \wedge x_i \in S} S) \setminus \{x_i\};$
- 2 Sort \mathcal{C}^+ in decreasing order of $|S|;$
- 3 **foreach** $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$ s.t. $x_i \in S$ **do**
- 4 $B_{x_i, W_S} = Y \cap S;$
- 5 $Y = Y \setminus S;$

Algorithm 6: Finding \mathcal{B}_{x_i}

The procedure `enforceWeakEDGAC*(\emptyset)` in Algorithm 7 enforces weak EDGAC* of a WCSP. The cost-providing partitions are first computed in line 1. The procedure makes use of four propagation queues \mathbb{P} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{S} . If $x_i \in \mathbb{P}$, the variable x_i is potentially not weak EGAC* due to

```

Procedure enforceWeakEDGAC*()
1  foreach  $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$  do findCostProvidingPartition( $x_i$ );
2   $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{Q} := \mathbb{S} := \mathcal{X}$ ;
3  while  $\mathbb{S} \neq \emptyset \vee \mathbb{R} \neq \emptyset \vee \mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$  do
4  |    $\mathbb{P} := \mathbb{S} \cup \bigcup_{x_i \in \mathbb{S}, W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+} (S \setminus \{x_i\})$ ;
5  |   weakEGAC*();
6  |    $\mathbb{S} := \emptyset$ ;
7  |   DGAC*();
8  |   GAC*();
9  |   pruneVal();

Procedure weakEGAC*()
10 while  $\mathbb{P} \neq \emptyset$  do
11 |    $x_i := \text{pop}(\mathbb{P})$ ;
12 |   if findExistentialSupport( $x_i$ ) then
13 | |    $\mathbb{R} := \mathbb{R} \cup \{x_i\}$ ;
14 | |    $\mathbb{P} := \mathbb{P} \cup \{x_j \mid x_i, x_j \in W_S, W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+\}$ ;

Function findExistentialSupport( $x_i$ )
15 |   flag := false;
16 |    $\alpha := \min_{a \in D(x_i)} \{W_i(a) \oplus \bigoplus_{x_i \in S, W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+} \min_{\ell[x_i]=a} \{W_S(\ell) \oplus \bigoplus_{x_j \in B_{x_i}, W_S} W_j(\ell[x_j])\}\}$ ;
17 |   if  $\alpha > 0$  then
18 | |   flag := true;
19 | |   foreach  $W_S \in \mathcal{C}^+$  s.t.  $x_i \in S$  do findFullSupport( $W_S, x_i, B_{x_i, W_S}$ );
20 |   return flag;
    
```

Algorithm 7: Enforcing weak EDGAC*

a change in unary costs or a removal of values in some variables. If $x_j \in \mathbb{R}$, the variables x_i involved in the same cost functions as x_j are potentially not DGAC*. If $x_j \in \mathbb{Q}$, all variables in the same cost functions as x_j are potentially not GAC*. The propagation queue \mathbb{S} helps build \mathbb{P} efficiently. The procedure *weakEGAC**() enforces weak EGAC* on each variable by the procedure *findExistentialSupport*() in line 12. If *findExistentialSupport*() returns true, a projection has been performed for some cost functions. The weak fully supported values of other variables may be destroyed. Thus, the variables constrained by x_i are pushed back onto \mathbb{P} for re-visit in line 14. DGAC* and GAC* are enforced by the procedures *DGAC**() and *GAC**(). A change in unary cost requires re-examining DGAC* and weak EGAC*, which is done by pushing the variables into the corresponding queues in lines 13 and 14, and lines 11 and 12 in Algorithm 5. In the last step, NC* is enforced by *pruneVal*(). Again, if a value in $D(x_i)$ is removed, GAC*, DGAC* or weak EGAC* may be destroyed, and x_i is pushed into the corresponding queues for re-examination by *pruneVal*() in Algorithm 1. If all propagation queues are empty, all variables are GAC*, DGAC*, and weak EGAC*, i.e. the WCSP is weak EDGAC*.

The algorithm is correct and must terminate. We analyze the time complexity by abstracting the worst-case time complexities of *findSupport*(), *findFullSupport*() and

`findExistentialSupport()` as f_{GAC} , f_{DGAC} , and f_{EGAC} respectively. The overall time complexity is stated as follows.

Theorem 14 *The procedure `enforceWeakEDGAC*`() requires $O((nd+\top)(f_{EGAC}+r^2ef_{DGAC}+nd) + r^2edf_{GAC})$, where n , d , e , and r are defined in Theorem 2.*

Proof: As line 1 requires only $O(nr)$, we only analyze the overall time complexity spent by each sub-procedure and compute the overall time complexity.

A variable is pushed into \mathbb{S} if a value is removed or weak EGAC* is violated. The former happens $O(nd)$ times, while the latter occurs $O(\top)$ times (each time weak EGAC* is violated, W_\emptyset will be increased). Since \mathbb{P} is built on \mathbb{S} , `findExistentialSupport()` is executed at most $O(nd+\top)$ times throughout the global enforcement. Thus, the time complexity spent on enforcing weak EGAC* is $O((nd+\top)f_{EGAC})$.

A variable is pushed into \mathbb{R} if either a value is removed, or unary costs are moved by GAC* or weak EGAC* enforcement. Thus, `DGAC*`() is called $O(nd+\top)$ times. Each time `DGAC*`() is called, by Theorem 10, it requires $O(r^2ef_{DGAC})$ for DGAC* enforcement. Thus, the time complexity of enforcing DGAC* is $O((nd+\top)r^2ef_{DGAC})$.

A variable is pushed into \mathbb{Q} only if a value is removed. Thus, `findSupport()` inside the procedure `GAC*`() is called at most $O(nd)$ times throughout the global enforcement. Using the proof similar to Theorem 6, the overall time spent on enforcing GAC* is $O(r^2edf_{GAC} + n^2d^2)$.

The main while-loop in line 3 terminates when all propagation queues are empty. Thus, the main while-loop iterates $O(nd+\top)$ times. The time complexity for re-enforcing NC* by `pruneVal()` at line 9 is $O((nd+\top)nd)$.

By summing up all time complexity results, the overall time complexity is $O((nd+\top)(f_{EGAC}+r^2ef_{DGAC}+nd) + r^2edf_{GAC})$. \square

Corollary 4 *The procedure `enforceWeakEDGAC*`() must terminate. The resultant WCSP is weak EDGAC*, and equivalent to the original WCSP.*

The procedure `enforceWeakEDGAC*`() is again exponential due to `findSupport()`, `findFullSupport()` and `findExistentialSupport()`. In the following, we focus on the last procedure. It first checks whether a weak fully supported value exists by computing α , which determines whether NC* still holds if we perform `findFullSupport()` from line 19. If α equals 0, a weak fully supported value exists and nothing should be done; otherwise, this value can be made weak fully supported by the for-loop at line 19. The time complexity depends on two operations: (1) computing the value of α in line 16, and; (2) finding full supports by the line 19. These two operations are exponential in $|S|$ in general. However, if all global cost functions are flow-based projection-safe, the time complexity of the above operations can be reduced to polynomial time.

In the next section, we put theory into practice. We demonstrate our framework with different benchmarks and compare the results with the current approach.

5. Towards a Library of Efficient Global Cost Functions

In the previous section, we only show `SOFT_ALLDIFFERENTdec` is flow-based projection-safe. In the following, we further show that a range of common global cost functions are also flow-based projection-safe. We give experimental results on various benchmarks with different consistency notions and different global cost functions.

5.1 A List of Flow-Based Projection-Safe Global Cost Functions

In this section, we show that a number of common global cost functions are flow-based projection-safe. They include the soft variants of ALL_DIFFERENT, GCC, SAME, and REGULAR constraints.

5.1.1 THE SOFT VARIANTS OF ALLDIFFERENT

The ALLDIFFERENT() constraint restricts variables to take distinct values (Laurière, 1978). There are two possible soft variants, namely $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ and $\text{ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}()$. The former returns the number of pairs of variables that share the same value, while the latter returns the least number of variables that must be changed so that all variables take distinct values. The cost function $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ is shown to be flow-based projection-safe in Section 4.2. In fact, this also implies that another cost function

$\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}()$ is flow-based projection-safe. The $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}()$ function also corresponds to a flow network with structure similar to that of $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ but different in weights on the edges connecting to t (van Hoeve et al., 2006). We state the results as follows.

Theorem 15 *The cost functions $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}(S)$ and $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S)$ are flow-based projection-safe.*

5.1.2 THE SOFT VARIANTS OF GCC

Given a set of values $\Sigma = \bigcup_{x_i \in S} D(x_i)$ and functions lb and ub that maps from Σ to non-negative integers. Each value $v \in \Sigma$ is associated with an upper bound ub_v and a lower bound lb_v . The $\text{GCC}(S, ub, lb)$ constraint is satisfied by a tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ if the number of occurrences of a value $v \in \Sigma$ in ℓ (denoted by $\#(\ell, v)$) is at most ub_v times and at least lb_v times (Régain, 1996). There are two soft variants of GCC constraints, namely $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{var}()$ and $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{val}()$ (van Hoeve et al., 2006).

Definition 21 (van Hoeve et al., 2006) *Define two functions $s(\ell, v)$ and $e(\ell, v)$: $s(\ell, v)$ returns $lb_v - \#(\ell, v)$ if $\#(\ell, v) \leq lb_v$, and 0 otherwise; $e(\ell, v)$ returns $\#(\ell, v) - ub_v$ if $\#(\ell, v) \geq ub_v$, and 0 otherwise.*

The global cost functions $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{var}(S)$ returns $\max\{\sum_{v \in \Sigma} s(\ell, v), \sum_{v \in \Sigma} e(\ell, v)\}$, provided that $\sum_{v \in \Sigma} lb_v \leq |S| \leq \sum_{v \in \Sigma} ub_v$; while $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{val}(S)$ returns $\sum_{v \in \Sigma} (s(\ell, v) + e(\ell, v))$.

Van Hoeve et al. (2006) show that both SOFT_GCC^{var} and SOFT_GCC^{dec} are flow-based, and the flow networks have structures similar to the SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT cost functions. With a proof similar to Theorem 15, we can show the following theorem.

Theorem 16 *The cost functions $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{var}(S)$ and $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{val}(S)$ are flow-based projection-safe.*

5.1.3 THE SOFT VARIANTS OF SAME

Given two sets of variables S_1 and S_2 with $|S_1| = |S_2|$ and $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$. The $\text{SAME}(S_1, S_2)$ constraint is satisfied by the tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S_1 \cup S_2)$ if $\ell[S_1]$ is a permutation of $\ell[S_2]$ (Beldiceanu, Katriel, & Thiel, 2004). The hard SAME() constraint can be softened to the global cost function $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{var}()$ (van Hoeve et al., 2006):

Definition 22 (van Hove et al., 2006) Given that the union operation \cup is the multi-set union, and $\varphi_1 \Delta \varphi_2$ returns the symmetric difference between two multi-sets φ_1 and φ_2 , i.e. $\varphi_1 \Delta \varphi_2 = (\varphi_1 \setminus \varphi_2) \cup (\varphi_2 \setminus \varphi_1)$.

The global cost function $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{\text{var}}(S_1, S_2)$ returns $|\bigcup_{x_i \in S_1} \{\ell[x_i]\} \Delta \bigcup_{y_i \in S_2} \{\ell[y_i]\}|/2$.

Theorem 17 The cost function $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{\text{var}}(S_1, S_2)$ is flow-based projection-safe.

Proof: Van Hove et al. (2006) have shown that $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{\text{var}}$ satisfies conditions 1 and 2 in Definition 15. For instance, consider $S_1 = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ and $S_2 = \{x_4, x_5, x_6\}$ with $D(x_1) = \{a\}$, $D(x_2) = \{a, b\}$, $D(x_3) = \{b\}$, $D(x_4) = \{a, b\}$, and $D(x_5) = D(x_6) = \{a\}$. The flow network corresponding to $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{\text{var}}(S_1, S_2)$ is shown in Fig. 5. Solid edges have zero weight and unit capacity. Dotted edges have unit weight and a capacity of 3. The thick edges show the (s, t) -flow corresponding to the tuple $\ell = (a, b, b, b, a, a)$.

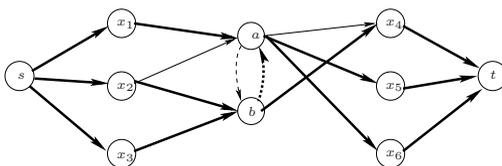


Figure 5: The flow network corresponding to the $\text{SOFT_SAME}^{\text{var}}(S_1, S_2)$ constraint

Moreover, from the network structure, by taking $\bar{E} = \{(x_i, v)\}$ for $x_i \in S_1$ and $v \in D(x_i)$, and $\bar{E} = \{(v, y_i)\}$ for $y_i \in S_2$ and $v \in D(y_i)$, the cost function satisfies condition 3. Thus, it is flow-based projection-safe. \square

5.1.4 THE SOFT VARIANTS OF REGULAR

The REGULAR constraint are defined based on regular languages. A regular language $L(M)$ can be represented by a finite state automaton $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$. Q is the set of states. Σ is a set of characters. The symbol $q_0 \in Q$ denotes the initial state and $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states. The transition function δ is defined as $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \mapsto Q$. An automaton can be represented graphically as shown in Figure 6, where the final states are denoted by double circles.

Given $D(x_i) \subseteq \Sigma$ for each $x_i \in S$. The $\text{REGULAR}(S, M)$ constraint accepts the tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$ if the corresponding string belongs to a regular language $L(M)$ represented by a finite state automaton $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ (Pesant, 2004).

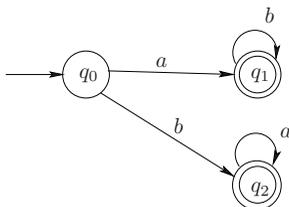


Figure 6: The graphical representation of a automaton.

Two soft variants are defined for the REGULAR constraint, namely $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$ and $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$ (van Hoeve et al., 2006):

Definition 23 (van Hoeve et al., 2006) Define τ_ℓ to be the string formed from the tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$. The cost functions $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}(S)$ returns $\min\{H(\tau_\ell, \tau) \mid \tau \in L(M)\}$, where $H(\tau^1, \tau^2)$ returns the number of positions at which two strings τ^1 and τ^2 differ; while $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}(S)$ returns $\min\{E(\tau_\ell, \tau) \mid \tau \in L(M)\}$, where $E(\tau^1, \tau^2)$ returns the minimum number of insertions, deletions and substitutions to transform τ^1 to τ^2 .

Theorem 18 The cost functions $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}(S)$ and $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}(S)$ are flow-based projection-safe.

Proof: Van Hoeve et al. (2006) show that conditions 1 and 2 are satisfied. For example, consider the automaton M shown in Figure 6 and $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ with $D(x_1) = \{a\}$ and $D(x_2) = D(x_3) = \{a, b\}$. The flow networks corresponding to the $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}(S)$ and $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}(S)$ functions are shown in Figure 7(a) and 7(b) respectively. The solid edges have zero weight and the dotted edges have unit weight. The thick edges show the flow corresponding to the tuple (a, b, a) .

The graphs are constructed as follows (van Hoeve et al., 2006): the vertices are separated into $n + 1$ layers, where $n = |\mathcal{X}|$, and each layer contains $|Q|$ nodes. The source s is connected to $q_{0,0}$ at the first layer, and the sink t is connected by $\{q_{n+1,i} \mid q_i \in F\}$ at the last layer. Between the i^{th} and $(i + 1)^{th}$ layers, a zero weighted edge representing $v \in D(x_i)$ connects $q_{i,h}$ at the i^{th} layer and $q_{i+1,k}$ at the $(i + 1)^{th}$ layer if $\delta(q_k, v) = q_h$. For $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}(S)$, a set of unit-weighted edges E_{sub} is added to the graph, where $E_{sub} = \{(q_{i,k}, q_{i+1,h})_u \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X} \wedge u \in D(x_i) \wedge \exists v \neq u \text{ s.t. } \delta(q_k, v) = q_h\}$. For $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}(S)$, a set of unit-weighted edges E_{edit} is added to the graph, where $E_{edit} = E_{sub} \cup \{(q_{i,k}, q_{i,h}) \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X} \wedge \exists v \text{ s.t. } \delta(q_k, v) = q_h\} \cup \{(q_{i,k}, q_{i,k})_u \mid x_i \in \mathcal{X} \wedge u \in D(x_i)\}$.

Moreover, each assignment $\{x_i \mapsto v\}$ maps to a set of edges \bar{E} labelled as v at the layer x_i in the networks. For example, $\{x_1 \mapsto a\}$ maps to the edges labeled as a at the layer x_1 shown in Fig. 7(a). Thus, the SOFT_REGULAR cost functions satisfy condition 3 and are flow-based projection-safe. \square

For the SOFT_REGULAR cost functions, instead of the general flow computation algorithms, the dynamic programming approach can be applied to compute the minimum cost (van Hoeve et al., 2006; Demassey, Pesant, & Rousseau, 2006).

5.2 Experimental Results

In this section, a series of experiments with different benchmarks is conducted to demonstrate the efficiency and practicality of different consistencies with different global cost functions. We implemented the strong $\emptyset\text{IC}$, GAC^* , FDGAC^* and weak EDGAC^* enforcement algorithms for these global cost functions in ToulBar2 version 0.5¹. We compare their performance using five benchmarks of different natures. In case of the reified COP models, the instances are solved using ILOG Solver 6.0.

All benchmarks are crisp in nature, and are softened as follows. For each variable x_i introduced, a random unary cost from 0 to 9 is assigned to each value in $D(x_i)$. Soft variants of global constraints are implemented as proposed. The target of all benchmarks is to find the optimal value within 1 hour.

1. <http://carlit.toulouse.inra.fr/cgi-bin/awki.cgi/ToolBarIntro>

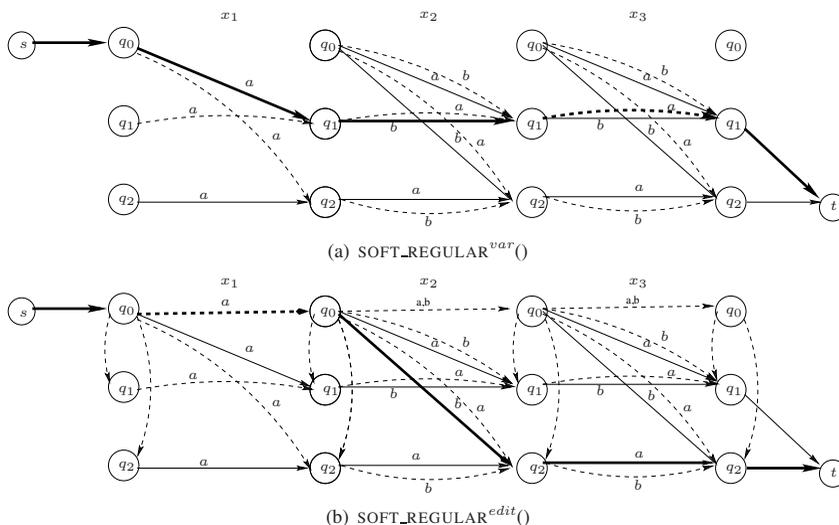


Figure 7: The flow network corresponding to the soft REGULAR constraints

In the experiments, variables are assigned in lexicographical order. Value assignment starts with the value with minimum unary cost. The test was conducted on a Sun Blade 2500 ($2 \times 1.6\text{GHz}$ USIIIi) machine with 2GB memory. The average runtime and number of nodes of five instances are measured for each value of n with no initial upper bound. Entries are marked with a “*” if the average runtime exceeds the limit of 1 hour. The best results are marked using the ‘†’ symbol.

5.2.1 BENCHMARKS BASED ON SOFT ALLDIFFERENT

The ALLDIFFERENT() constraint has various applications. In the following, we focus on two: the all-interval series and the Latin Square problem.

ALL INTERVAL SERIES

The all-interval series problem (prob007 in CSPLib) is modelled as a WCSP by two sets of variables $\{s_i\}$ and $\{d_i\}$ with domains $\{0, \dots, n - 1\}$ to denote the elements and the adjacent difference respectively. Random unary costs ranging from 0 to 9 is placed on each variable. We apply two soft ALLDIFFERENT cost functions on $\{s_i\}$ and $\{d_i\}$ respectively, with a set of hard arithmetic constraints $d_i = |s_i - s_{i+1}|$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$.

The experiment is divided into two parts. We first compare results on enforcing different consistencies using global cost functions derived from ALLDIFFERENT(). Then we compare the result on using different approaches on modelling $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ functions.

The result of the first experiment is shown in Table 1, which agrees with the theoretical strength of the consistency notions as shown by the number of nodes. FDGAC* and GAC* always outperforms strong $\emptyset\text{IC}$ and the reified modelling, but FDGAC* requires more time than GAC*. One explanation for this phenomenon is the problem structure. When x_i and x_{i+1} are assigned, d_i is

automatically assigned due to the hard constraint $d_i = |x_i - x_{i+1}|$. Thus, enforcing FDGAC* on the variables $\{d_i\}$ on every search node is not worthwhile.

(a) $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
8	1.3	571.0	0.2	296.4	†0.1	181.0	†0.1	86.4	†0.1	†15.4
9	3.9	1445.0	1.0	542.2	0.6	300.2	1.2	197.2	†0.1	†20.2
10	52.0	15860.6	20.2	5706.6	10.8	2589.4	15.2	1612.4	†0.2	†47.4
11	59.6	13286.2	31.8	7536.4	16.4	3273.6	21.0	1715.4	†0.1	†33.6
12	180.1	31015.2	77.8	12886.4	37.6	5204.6	46.8	2259.0	†0.8	†47.6

(b) $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
8	1.6	777.0	0.2	396.8	0.2	219.6	†0.1	93.8	†0.1	†16.0
9	3.9	1480.4	1.0	553.2	0.6	301.8	1.2	195.0	†0.1	†28.8
10	56.8	17753.8	21.2	5999.2	11.6	2654.6	16.0	1604.2	†0.8	†70.4
11	70.1	16149.6	38.4	9113.2	18.6	3551.8	23.0	1812.6	†1.0	†68.6
12	214.9	38438.6	96.4	16355.2	46.8	6405.0	52.6	2451.6	†1.8	†71.2

Table 1: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the all-interval series instances

The second experiment is based on the following fact. The $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S)$ is flow-based projection-safe. It can be modelled as a flow network for consistency enforcement efficiently. Another way to model the global cost functions is to apply the decomposition directly. The cost returned by $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}(S)$ is equal to the sum of the costs returned by a set of soft binary cost functions $\{W_{i,j} \mid i > j \wedge x_i, x_j \in S\}$, where $W_{i,j}(a, b)$ returns 0 if $a \neq b$ and 1 otherwise. Thus, binary consistency notions, such as AC* and FDAC* can be applied directly.

We compare the performance on solving the all interval series problem with different modelling methods on $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$. The results are shown in Table 2. Under the same level of consistency, global cost functions remove an order of magnitude 10 to 100 times more nodes than the binary decomposition. However, the time required for binary cost functions is much smaller than global cost functions for AC* and FDAC*. This is because enforcing consistency notions on binary cost functions is faster than global cost functions, and the removal of nodes is not great enough to compensate the extra time for consistency enforcement of global cost functions. The runtime of weak EDGAC*, however, is the fastest among all (2 times over the EDAC* counterpart) since it is able to utilize global information to prune drastically more search space than any of the binary decomposition approaches.

LATIN SQUARES

The Latin Square problem (prob003 in CSPLib) of order n is to fill an initially empty $n \times n$ table using numbers from $\{0, \dots, n - 1\}$ such that each number occurs once in every row and every column. We model and relax the problem as a WCSP by a set of variables $\{x_{ij}\}$ denoting the value placed in the cell at the i^{th} row and the j^{th} column with random unary costs. These costs are essentially restrictions/preferences on the value to be taken by each cell. Thus, our formulation can model different variants of the Latin Square problem, including the Latin Square Completion problem. One $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}()$ cost function is posted on the variables at each row and each

n	Binary Decomposition						Global Cost Functions					
	AC*		FDAC*		EDAC*		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
8	†0.1	317.2	†0.1	231.6	†0.1	161.8	0.2	219.6	†0.1	93.8	†0.1	†16.0
9	†0.1	596.0	†0.1	358.2	†0.1	333.0	0.6	301.8	1.2	195.0	†0.1	†28.8
10	1.4	9113.8	1.0	5957.4	1.0	5483.2	11.6	2654.6	16.0	1604.2	†0.8	†70.4
11	1.6	7672.2	1.2	4578.4	1.2	4318.6	18.6	3551.8	23.0	1812.6	†1.0	†68.6
12	4.6	15897.2	3.2	10534.8	2.6	7414.4	46.8	6405.0	52.6	2451.6	†1.8	†71.2

Table 2: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the all-interval series instances with different modelling

column, denoting that same elements on the same rows and columns are allowed but with violation costs so that the resultant cost is optimal. The result is shown in Table 3, which is similar to Table 1. Besides, the runtime also agrees with the theoretical strength of the consistency notions.

(a) $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{var}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	69.0	129958.0	1.8	3511.0	†0.1	188.0	†0.1	21.8	†0.1	†16.6
5	*	*	490.2	348790.4	26.0	12368.0	†0.1	66.2	†0.1	†41.2
6	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.4	244.4	†1.4	†93.6
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	43.2	1429.4	†16.2	†425.2
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†148.2	†2066.5

(b) $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	62.7	121319.0	2.6	3859.8	†0.1	187.6	†0.1	21.8	†0.1	†16.6
5	*	*	531.4	376526.2	25.2	12254.0	†0.1	66.2	†0.1	†41.2
6	*	*	*	*	*	*	3.4	244.4	†1.4	†93.6
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	43.4	1429.6	†15.8	†425.2
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†147.2	†2066.5

Table 3: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the Latin Square instances using SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT cost functions

The $\text{SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT}^{dec}()$ cost functions can also be decomposed into binary disequality cost functions. We also perform experiments to compare the binary decomposition approach and our global cost function approach. The result is shown in Table 4. The result confirms that enforcing stronger consistency on global cost functions is efficient in terms of the number of nodes explored and also as the problem size grows large.

5.2.2 BENCHMARKS BASED ON SOFT GCC

The $\text{GCC}()$ constraint has various applications. In the following, we focus on the Latin Square problem and round robin tournament problem.

n	Binary Decomposition						Global Constraint Approaches					
	AC*		FDAC*		EDAC*		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	†0.1	264.0	†0.1	71.8	†0.1	39.4	†0.1	187.6	†0.1	21.8	†0.1	†16.6
5	3.0	17955.8	0.4	3059.6	†0.1	828.2	25.2	12254.0	†0.1	66.2	†0.1	†41.2
6	639.2	2188035.4	167.8	346797.6	28.2	45817.8	*	*	3.4	244.4	†1.4	†93.6
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	43.4	1429.6	†15.8	†425.2
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†147.2	†2066.5

Table 4: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the Latin Square instances with different modelling

(a) SOFT_GCC^{var}

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	3.8	4865.6	2.8	3859.8	†0.1	220.8	†0.1	22	†0.1	†17.0
5	653.7	460989.2	621.2	376526.2	38.6	14482.8	†0.1	66.2	†0.1	†48.2
6	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.8	244.6	†1.2	†87.0
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	58.4	1431.2	†16.4	†331.8
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†459.6	†4730.8

(b) SOFT_GCC^{val}

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	2.2	2815.8	1.4	2326.6	†0.1	131.8	†0.1	20.4	†0.1	†17.0
5	165.2	122840.0	153.4	102493.6	10.0	4818.2	†0.1	61.2	†0.1	†45.2
6	*	*	*	*	1407.4	357529.8	3.6	211.0	†1.0	†82.2
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	40.4	1243.6	†13.4	†318.4
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†285.2	†3700.4

Table 5: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the Latin Square instances using soft GCC constraints

LATIN SQUARES

We first focus on the Latin Square problem, which is described in Section 5.2.1. We use the same soft version but we replace SOFT_ALLDIFFERENT by either $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{var}()$ or $\text{SOFT_GCC}^{val}()$ cost functions which measure the violation differently. The results are shown in Table 5, which shows a similar result as Table 3. Weak EDGAC* always performs the best in terms of time and reduction in search space.

ROUND ROBIN TOURNAMENT

The round robin problem (prob026 in CSPLib) of order n is to schedule a tournament of n teams over $n - 1$ weeks. Each week is divided into $n/2$ periods, and each period is divided into two slots. A tournament must satisfy the following three constraints: (1) every team plays at least once a week, (2) every team plays at most twice in the same period over the tournament, and (3) every team plays every other team. Van Hentenryck, Michel, Perron, and Régim (1999) give a CSP model only based on GCC constraints: a triple of variables (s_{ij}, t_{ij}, m_{ij}) represents the match played on the i^{th} week at the j^{th} period. The assignment $\{s_{ij} \mapsto a, t_{ij} \mapsto b, m_{ij} \mapsto ab\}$ represents team a is played against the team b . Ternary constraints link s_{ij}, t_{ij} and m_{ij} together such that s_{ij} takes the value a

(a) SOFT_GCC^{var}

(N, P, M)	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
(4,3,2)	1.7	1119.2	0.6	827.4	0.4	470.2	0.2	142.2	†0.1	†33.4
(5,4,2)	4.5	2016.6	2.2	1242.0	1.8	836.2	0.6	171.6	†0.1	†44.6
(6,5,3)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†583.4	†6508.8
(7,5,3)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†1283.4	†7476.6

(b) SOFT_GCC^{val}

(N, P, M)	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
(4,3,2)	1.5	1046.8	0.4	794.6	0.4	464.6	0.2	141.0	†0.1	†33.0
(5,4,2)	3.5	1821.4	0.6	171.0	1.4	824.6	0.6	171.0	†0.1	†42.8
(6,5,3)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†438.2	†6499.6
(7,5,3)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	†765.0	†7413.6

Table 6: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the round robin tournament problems using SOFT_GCC cost functions

and t_{ij} takes the value b iff m_{ij} takes the value ab or ba . The first and the second requirements are represented by the GCC constraints on $\{s_{ij}, t_{ij} \mid i = w\}$ for each w^{th} week and $\{s_{ij}, t_{ij} \mid j = p\}$ for each p^{th} period. The third requirement is represented by a GCC constraint on $\{m_{ij}\}$.

The problem can be generalized by three parameters (N, P, M) : scheduling a tournament of N teams over M weeks, with each week divided into P periods. Besides placing random unary costs, we also replace the GCC constraints by the soft variants. We try different combinations of N, P , and M . The results are shown in Table 6, which agrees with the theoretical strength of each consistency. It also shows that although enforcing stronger consistency is more expensive, it helps to reduce search space more. Thus, stronger consistency helps to solve larger instances.

5.2.3 BENCHMARKS BASED ON SOFT SAME

The SAME() constraint can be used to model the following two problems: (1) fair scheduling, and (2) people-mission scheduling.

FAIR SCHEDULING

The problem is suggested in the Global Constraint Catalog². The goal is to schedule n persons into s shifts over d days such that the schedule is fair, *i.e.* each person should be assigned to the same number of the i^{th} shift. For example, the schedule in Figure 8(a) is not fair. The person p_1 is assigned to the AM shift two times but p_2 is assigned to the AM shift once only. Figure 8(b) shows a schedule that is fair to everyone: both p_1 and p_2 are assigned to the AM shift and Overnight shift once, and the PM shift twice.

We model and soften the problem by a set of variables $\{x_{ij}\}$, which denote the shift assigned to the i^{th} person on the j^{th} day with random unary costs. The SOFT_SAME^{var} ($\{x_{p_1j}\}, \{x_{p_2j}\}$) cost functions are placed between each pair of persons p_1 and p_2 , allowing violation for the fairness of the schedule to obtain minimum cost. We fix $s = 4$ and $d = 5$ and vary n . The results are shown in Table 7. Similarly to Table 5, weak EDGAC* produces the smallest number of nodes. However,

2. <http://www.emn.fr/x-info/sdemasse/gccat/>

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4
p_1	AM	PM	PM	AM
p_2	AM	PM	Overnight	PM

(a) Unfair Schedule

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4
p_1	AM	PM	PM	Overnight
p_2	AM	PM	Overnight	PM

(b) Fair Schedule

Figure 8: Examples of Fair Scheduling

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		Weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
5	1983.9	1457812.6	74.2	20610.4	16.6	3511.8	\uparrow 0.1	27.4	\uparrow 0.1	\uparrow 25.4
6	*	*	1884.0	1038613.2	78.8	11031.8	\uparrow 0.4	40.4	1.0	\uparrow 34.0
7	*	*	*	*	377.0	36063.0	\uparrow 1.0	45.0	1.2	\uparrow 40.6
8	*	*	*	*	1630.0	124920.8	\uparrow 2.0	45.4	2.2	\uparrow 45.0
9	*	*	*	*	*	*	\uparrow 2.6	\uparrow 49.0	3.2	\uparrow 49.0
10	*	*	*	*	*	*	\uparrow 4.0	58.0	4.6	\uparrow 56.8
11	*	*	*	*	*	*	\uparrow 5.8	67.2	6.4	\uparrow 61.6

Table 7: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the fair scheduling problem by enforcing different consistency notions.

weak EDGAC* requires more time to solve than FDGAC*. We look into the execution and discover that FDGAC* is so strong that the first lower bound computed is already very close, if not identical, to the objective value of the optimal solution. Therefore, enforcing weak EDGAC* gives only little improvement on reducing the search space.

PEOPLE-MISSION SCHEDULING

This problem extends the doctor-nurse rostering problem described by Beldiceanu, Katriel and Thiel (2004). Given three groups of n persons, m missions must be assigned to a team containing exactly one person in each group. We are also given a set of constraints restricting the combination of each team in one mission. The problem is to schedule those people into teams for missions such that no restriction is violated. We model the problem by $\{x_{ij}\}$ denoting the mission assigned to the i^{th} person in the j^{th} group with random unary costs. The combination restriction is softened as ternary cost functions. Two global cost functions $SOFT_SAME^{var}(\{x_{i1}\}, \{x_{i2}\})$ and $SOFT_SAME^{var}(\{x_{i2}\}, \{x_{i3}\})$ are posted to ensure each team exactly contains one person from each group. We fix $m = 6$ and vary n . The results are shown in Table 8. Similarly to Table 7, weak EDGAC* produces the smallest number of nodes, but requires more time than FDGAC*.

5.2.4 BENCHMARKS BASED ON SOFT REGULAR

The REGULAR() constraint has many applications. In the following, we focus on two: (1) the nurse rostering problem, and; (2) the STRETCH() constraint modelling.

NURSE ROSTERING PROBLEM

The nurse rostering problem (Cheng, Lee, & Wu, 1997) is to schedule a group of n nurses into four shifts, PM shift, AM shift, Overnight, and Day-Off, over a period with most requirements satisfied.

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
4	17.5	16992.0	4.0	5931.6	1.6	1517.4	†0.2	247.8	0.4	†238.8
5	427.8	283950.2	45.2	51029.8	11.2	7073.8	†3.4	831.2	†3.4	†693.4
6	*	*	666.6	553001.2	156.6	75481.6	†55.6	11065.2	69.2	†10957.8
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	†1348.0	333937.6	1714.0	†296019.2

Table 8: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the people-mission scheduling problem by enforcing different consistency notions.

(a) $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
3	260.66	118562	152.6	91661.4	2.0	956.2	†0.1	28.6	†0.1	†22.8
4	*	*	*	*	25.4	6983.4	†0.1	32.6	†0.1	†28.0
5	*	*	*	*	*	*	4.0	379.0	†3.6	†273.6
6	*	*	*	*	*	*	63.4	4017.6	†37.8	†1927.2
7	*	*	*	*	*	*	207.6	12242.0	†42.8	†2167.6
8	*	*	*	*	*	*	821.2	44414.0	†229.2	†10437.0

(b) $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \emptyset IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
3	286.6	122542.4	178.4	91933.8	9.2	2850.4	†5.6	841.4	6.2	†803.2
4	*	*	*	*	126.2	27267.6	†25.4	2568.8	27.6	†2424.0
5	*	*	*	*	*	*	†535.6	47091.2	546.8	†40244.0

Table 9: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the nurse scheduling problem by enforcing different consistency notions.

In the experiment, the nurses are scheduled over four days such that (1) each nurse must have at most three AM shifts, at least two PM shifts, at least one Overnight, and at least one day-off; (2) each AM shift must have two nurses, each PM shift and each Overnight must have one nurse, and; (3) AM-shifts are preferred to be packed together, and the same preference is also posted on Day-Offs. We model this problem by a set of variables $\{x_{ij}\}$ to denote the shift assigned to the i^{th} nurse on the j^{th} day with random unary costs. Restrictions (1) and (2) are modeled by SOFT_GCC^{val} cost functions, and (3) is modeled by either $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}$ or $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}$ cost functions. All restrictions are allowed to be violated. The results are shown in Table 9. When $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$ is used, FDGAC* wins in term of runtime. However, if $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$ is used, weak EDGAC* again requires the least time and the least number of nodes to solve.

MODELLING THE STRETCH() CONSTRAINT

Another application of the $\text{REGULAR}()$ constraint is to model constraints that describe patterns. One example is the $\text{STRETCH}()$ constraint.

(a) $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \varnothing IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
30	183.5	7346.2	68.2	5203.2	36.4	573.0	†30.0	171.4	35.2	†162.6
35	419.4	13845.2	162.2	10297.8	80.6	971.6	†57.6	239.8	69.0	†233.4
40	842.4	23485.0	335.6	18067.2	148.4	1423.2	†92.2	328.6	108.2	†316.0
45	2318.2	55976.0	900.4	42007.0	378.2	3042.0	†240.6	651.8	246.4	†570.6
50	*	*	1142.2	88616.8	165.8	10762.2	130.2	1660.6	†118.2	†1316.0
55	*	*	2231.4	146901.6	306.0	17130.0	208.0	2291.8	†193.8	†1856.8

 (b) $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$

n	Reified Approach		Strong \varnothing IC		GAC*		FDGAC*		weak EDGAC*	
	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes	Time(s)	Nodes
30	216.2	6038.6	83.2	3861.6	40.6	447.4	†34.2	123.8	39.6	†122.4
35	561.6	12487.6	204.2	7626.0	86.8	706.0	†60.6	164.0	70.8	†162.8
40	1128.1	20585.8	413.0	12789.6	165.8	1080.0	†90.8	208.4	101.6	†194.0
45	*	*	1151.8	30480.6	446.4	2346.2	239.6	371.0	†207.8	†299.6
50	*	*	2122.8	62225.2	348.6	9189.0	204.8	967.6	†185.0	†823.2
55	*	*	*	*	623.8	13496.8	264.2	972.8	†234.6	†777.6

Table 10: The time (in seconds) and the number of nodes in solving the sliding problem by enforcing different consistency notions.

Definition 24 (Pesant, 2001) Given a value v and a tuple $\ell \in \mathcal{L}(S)$. A v -stretch is the maximal subsequence of identical values v in ℓ . The $\text{STRETCH}(S, ub, lb)$ constraint is satisfied by ℓ if the length of the v -stretch in ℓ is at most ub_v and at least lb_v .

For simplicity, we omit the case when the $\text{STRETCH}()$ constraint is circular. However, it can be handled by variable duplication (Pesant, 2004).

The $\text{STRETCH}()$ constraint can be described by an automaton and thus modelled using the $\text{REGULAR}()$ constraint (Pesant, 2004). The $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$ and $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$ cost functions can be directly applied to define two soft variants of the $\text{STRETCH}()$ constraint, namely $\text{SOFT_STRETCH}^{var}()$ and $\text{SOFT_STRETCH}^{edit}()$. They are flow-based projection-safe by inheriting the same property from $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}()$ and $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}()$ respectively.

To demonstrate the idea, we conduct experiments using the following sliding problem. The sliding problem of order n consists a set of variables $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ with domains $D(x_i) = \{a, b\}$ and random unary costs. Each subsequence $\{x_i, \dots, x_{n-5+i}\}$, where $1 \leq i \leq 5$, is required to contain a -stretches of length 2 and b -stretches of length 2 or 3. This restriction can be enforced through STRETCH constraints. We allow violations by modeling the constraints using either the $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{var}$ or $\text{SOFT_REGULAR}^{edit}$ cost functions. The results are shown in Table 10. Weak EDGAC* needs more time than FDGAC* when the instances are small, but weak EDGAC* pays off for large instances. This experiment also shows that the STRETCH constraint, an important constraint for modeling patterns, can be efficiently propagated in the WCSP framework.

5.2.5 DISCUSSIONS

A control comparison should have been conducted to examine the efficiency of ToulBar2 on the global cost functions encoded explicitly as tables as well. This cannot be done in a meaningful manner since the tables will be prohibitively large. Consider a simple cost function on 10 variables,

each with a domain size of 10. The table already requires storage in the order of 10^{10} integers or tens of gigabytes.

Based on our experiments, two conclusions can be made. First, the experiments show that the reified approach and strong \emptyset IC are too weak both in terms of search space pruning and runtime reduction as compared to GAC*, FDGAC*, and weak EDGAC*. Second, the stronger consistency notions, weak EDGAC*, FDGAC* and GAC*, are worthwhile although they are more expensive to enforce. As shown from the experiments, GAC* reduces the number of search nodes at least 3 times more than the reified approach and 1.5 times more than strong \emptyset IC. GAC* has runtime at least 4 times less than the reified approach and 1.5 times less strong \emptyset IC. Weak EDGAC* and FDGAC* can reduce the search space by a much greater extent. Such additional pruning can usually compensate for the extra effort. Although Table 7 and Table 8 have shown cases where weak EDGAC* results in slower runtime, FDGAC* only wins by a small margin. In general, weak EDGAC* is still worthwhile to enforce. Table 10 further confirms that a stronger consistency is more desirable as the problem becomes large.

6. Conclusion and Remarks

In this section, we summarize our contributions and shed light on possible future directions of research.

Our contributions are five-fold. First, we introduce strong \emptyset IC based on \emptyset IC (Zytnicki et al., 2009) and give an algorithm to enforce strong \emptyset IC. Besides, we prove that strong \emptyset IC is confluent. We also show that enforcing strong \emptyset IC on a WCSP is stronger than GAC in the reified approach. Second, we give an algorithm to enforce GAC* for a WCSP, but enforcement is exponential. For efficient enforcement, we introduce *flow-based projection-safety*, which preserves the basic structure of global cost functions. We give sufficient conditions for a global cost function to be flow-based projection-safe. We also show as a part of the proof how projection and extension can be done so that the flow property is preserved. Third, we generalize FDAC* (Larrosa & Schiex, 2003) to FDGAC* and give an enforcement algorithm. Again, flow-based projection-safety helps FDGAC* enforcement. Fourth, we attempt to generalize EDAC* using similar methods, but find it to be non-trivial. We discover and give an example of a limitation of EDAC*. When cost functions share more than one variable, oscillation similar to the one demonstrated in Full AC* (de Givry et al., 2005) will occur. To solve this problem, we introduce cost-providing partitions, which restrict the distribution of costs when enforcing EDAC*. Based on cost-providing partitions, we define weak EDGAC*, which can be enforced in polynomial time for flow-based projection-safe global cost functions. Last but not least, we show that soft versions of ALLDIFFERENT(), GCC(), SAME() and REGULAR() are flow-based projection-safe. We also prove the practicality of our framework with empirical results on various benchmarks involving these global cost functions. The empirical results agree with the theoretical strength of the consistencies in terms of search tree pruning. The results also show that stronger consistency notions like weak EDGAC* and FDGAC* are more worthwhile to enforce, especially when solving large problems.

Three directions of future work are possible. The first one is to investigate if other even stronger consistency notions, such as VAC (Cooper et al., 2010), can also benefit from projection-safety to make their enforcement practical for global cost functions. Second, the current sufficient conditions for flow-based projection-safety might still be overly restrictive. For example, the global cost function SOFT_SEQUENCE (Maher, Narodytska, Quimper, & Walsh, 2008) does not satisfy the three

conditions. It is interesting to find out other possible definition of flow-based projection-safety, which allow efficient projection and extension operations. Third, we only consider the minimum cost flow computation for finding the minimum cost in a global cost function. It is interesting to check if other approaches, such as mathematical programming, can be used to achieve the same results.

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