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Subset-Row Inequalities and Unreachability in Path-based Formulations for Routing and Scheduling Problems

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Abstract

This work considers branch-price-and-cut algorithms for variants of the vehicle-routing problem in which subset-row inequalities (SRIs) are used to strengthen the linear relaxation. SRIs often help to substantially reduce the size of the branch-and-bound search tree. However, their use is computationally costly because they modify the structure of the respective column-generation subproblem which is a shortest-path problem with resource constraints (SPPRC). Each active SRI requires the addition of a resource to the labeling algorithm that is invoked for solving the SPPRC in every iteration. In the context of time-window constraints, the concept of unreachable customers has been used for preprocessing (time-window reduction, arc elimination, precedence identification) as well as for improving the dominance between labels in the elementary SPPRC and its relaxations. We show that the identification of unreachable customers can also help to improve the dominance due to a modified comparison of SRI-related resources. Computational experiments with a fully-fledged branch-price-and-cut algorithm for the (standard and electric) vehicle routing problem with time windows demonstrates the effectiveness of the approach: Overall computation times decrease, for some difficult instances they may even be cut in half, while the required modifications of a computer implementation for combining SRIs with unreachable customers is minor.

Keywords: Routing, subset-row inequalities, labeling algorithm, unreachability, branch-price-and-cut

1. Introduction

One of the great success stories of *branch-price-and-cut* (BPC) algorithms for the exact solution of *vehicle-routing problems* (VRPs, Toth and Vigo, 2014) has been the invention of non-robust cutting planes starting with the work of Jepsen *et al.* (2008) introducing *subset-row inequalities* (SRIs). A BPC algorithm is, according to Costa *et al.* (2019), “a branch-and-bound algorithm where the lower bounds are computed by column generation and the cutting planes are added to strengthen the linear relaxations encountered in the search tree.” The column-generation procedure iteratively solves a *restricted master program* (RMP), which is the linear relaxation of a route-based formulation over a restricted subset of all potential routes, and a pricing subproblem, which is in almost all VRP applications a *shortest-path problem with resource constraints* (SPPRC, Irnich and Desaulniers, 2005). The task of the SPPRC is to generate negative-reduced cost routes (if any). A dynamic-programming labeling algorithm is typically used for this purpose.

During the last two decades, research on SPPRC labeling algorithms has been intense, which can be explained by the fact that the largest share of the overall BPC solution time is typically consumed by the labeling algorithm. Several powerful algorithmic components have been invented to accelerate labeling. To

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name a few milestones, the concept of unreachable customers improved dominance in *elementary SPPRCs* (ESPPRCs, Feillet *et al.*, 2004), relaxations of elementarity have led to well-solvable SPPRC relaxations (Irnich and Villeneuve, 2006; Desaulniers *et al.*, 2008; Baldacci *et al.*, 2011, 2012; Bode and Irnich, 2014), and important acceleration techniques include decremental state space relaxation (Boland *et al.*, 2006; Righini and Salani, 2008), bidirectional labeling (Righini and Salani, 2006; Tilk *et al.*, 2017), label bucketing (Sadykov *et al.*, 2021), and arc fixing (Irnich *et al.*, 2010; Desaulniers *et al.*, 2020; Bianchessi *et al.*, 2022). The above-mentioned SRIs have such a high impact on BPC performance because they often significantly strengthen the master-program formulations so that they provide very tight dual bounds. At the same time, the SRI-related dominance rule proposed by Jepsen *et al.* (2008) still allows an effective solution of SPPRC subproblems. Note that the subproblems have to be extended by one additional resource per active non-robust cut. This resource has to be properly considered in the reduced-cost computation and dominance procedure. Work on non-robust cuts has been expanded in two directions, where one stream of works considers easier to solve relaxations using a limited memory (Pecin *et al.*, 2017a,c), and the second stream of works invented labeling algorithms integrating alternative non-robust cuts such as clique inequalities (Spoorendonk and Desaulniers, 2010), non-robust strengthened capacity and k -path cuts (Baldacci *et al.*, 2008), and subset-row cuts for set-covering formulations (Balster *et al.*, 2022).

In this paper, we introduce an improved dominance rule for SPPRCs that rely on SRIs. To this end, we reconsider the concept of unreachable customers, which has been used for preprocessing (time-window reduction, arc elimination, precedence identification) in the context of time-window constraints (Desrochers *et al.*, 1992) as well as for strengthening the dominance in elementary SPPRCs and their relaxations (Feillet *et al.*, 2004). We show that for an SRI defined by a subset S , dominance comparisons between two labels can ignore the SRI-related resource as soon as the potentially weaker label represents a path that cannot feasibly fulfill further tasks of S . As a result, the stronger label does not need to be penalized with the respective dual price making the dominance comparison stronger. This leads to a smaller number of labels to be considered, reduced pricing times, and finally faster BPC algorithms. In a computational study on the *vehicle routing problem with time windows* (VRPTW, Desaulniers *et al.*, 2014) and the *electric VRPTW* (EVRPTW, Desaulniers *et al.*, 2016), we quantify the resulting speedups. As one would expect, the speedup typically increases with the number of SRIs that are added and active as well as with the size of the branch-and-bound search tree. The well-known Solomon benchmark instances serve for the experiments.

The improved dominance rule is part of the regular pairwise dominance comparison performed very often in the course of the BPC algorithm. Therefore, it has to be ensured that the new improved dominance runs seamlessly without significantly slowing down dominance. We elaborate the computation of auxiliary information during each label extension step that helps to mitigate the additional effort needed in the improved dominance comparison.

The remainder of this work is structured as follows: Section 2 presents the theoretical background of SPPRC labeling including a generic formulation of standard as well as limited-memory based SRIs, general dominance principles, and an analysis which type of dominance is compatible with which type of SRIs. The improved dominance is introduced in Sections 3 and possibilities to define and identify unreachable vertices in Section 4. In Section 5, computational results compare two fully-fledged BPC algorithms where one is equipped with the stronger dominance and the other one with the standard dominance in the dynamic-programming labeling algorithm solving the SPPRC pricing subproblem. The paper closes with final conclusions given in Section 6.

2. Subset-Row Inequalities in Labeling Algorithms

We start with the description of an *extensive formulation* in the sense of (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2005; Lübbecke and Desrosiers, 2005). Let M represent a set of *tasks* to be performed, e.g., the set of customers to be visited in the capacitated VRP and VRPTW variants, the set of pickup-and-delivery requests in VRPs concerned with point-to-point transportation, or the set of arcs to be serviced in arc-routing problems etc. Moreover, let Ω denote the set of all feasible *routes*. The relationship between tasks and routes is given by the non-negative integer coefficients a_{ir} for $i \in M$ and $r \in \Omega$ describing how often the route r performs

task i . Let $c_r \in \mathbb{R}$ denote the cost of route $r \in \Omega$. The extensive formulation has one variable λ_r for each $r \in \Omega$ indicating how often route r is selected in the solution:

$$z = \min \sum_{r \in \Omega} c_r \lambda_r \quad (1a)$$

$$\text{subject to } \sum_{r \in \Omega} a_{ir} \lambda_r = 1 \quad \forall i \in M \quad (1b)$$

$$\lambda_r \geq 0 \quad \text{integer} \quad \forall r \in \Omega \quad (1c)$$

The objective (1a) minimizes the total cost of all selected routes. Constraints (1b) ensure that all tasks are performed once by exactly one route. Note that in relaxed formulations routes may perform the same service more than once ($a_{ir} > 0$), but these routes r can never be part of an feasible integer solution due to the integrality constraints (1c). Besides the set-partitioning constraints (1b), many models contain further constraints of the form $B\lambda \geq \mathbf{d}$, where B is the arc-route incidence matrix of the digraph $D = (V, A)$ over which the routing problem is defined. Examples are fleet-size constraints, balancing constraints, and service-level constraints. We do not need to explicitly consider these constraints because they are robust, i.e., their presence does not change the structure of the SPPRC subproblem that we describe below. They only modify the reduced costs of the arcs.

When used in column generation, the linear relaxation of formulation (1) is restricted to a small proper subset $\Omega' \subset \Omega$. The resulting linear model over the variables $\lambda_r \geq 0$ for $r \in \Omega'$ is known as RMP. The pricing subproblem receives a dual solution $\boldsymbol{\pi} = (\pi_i)_{i \in M}$ of the RMP and must determine at least one route r with negative reduced cost $\tilde{c}_r = c_r - \sum_{i \in M} a_{ir} \pi_i$, if one exists. The column-generation process is then repeated with a new subset Ω' to which at least one negative reduced-cost route has been added. Column generation terminates when all routes have non-negative reduced cost. The primal solution $\bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}$ of the respective RMP is then the solution to the linear relaxation of formulation (1).

In general, the lower bound $LB = \mathbf{c}^\top \bar{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}$ provided by the linear relaxation is strictly smaller than z . In such a situation, strengthening the linear relaxation with valid inequalities can help to reduce the size of the branch-and-bound tree. *Subset-row inequalities* are rank-1 Gomory cuts for models containing set-packing constraints $\sum_{r \in \Omega} a_{ir} \lambda_r \leq 1$ for $i \in M$, as fulfilled for set-partitioning models of type (1). An SRI is defined by a subset S of the rows M and non-negative rational weights $\mathbf{w} = (w_i)_{i \in S}$:

$$\sum_{r \in \Omega} \left\lfloor \sum_{i \in S} w_i a_{ir} \right\rfloor \lambda_r \leq \left\lfloor \sum_{i \in S} w_i \right\rfloor.$$

An SRI defined for (S, \mathbf{w}) can be written more shortly by defining the coefficients $a_r(S, \mathbf{w}) = \lfloor \sum_{i \in S} w_i a_{ir} \rfloor$ and the *right-hand side* (RHS) $b(S, \mathbf{w}) = \lfloor \sum_{i \in S} w_i \rfloor$:

$$\sum_{r \in \Omega} a_r(S, \mathbf{w}) \lambda_r \leq b(S, \mathbf{w}) \quad (2)$$

In practice, the subsets S that are used to strengthen the RMP are small. Table 1 lists weights that lead to undominated SRIs for subsets S with cardinality between three and five (see Pecin *et al.*, 2017b).

Example 1. For a subset $S = \{i_1, i_2, i_3\}$ with $|S| = 3$ elements, the associated SRI uses weights $w_i = 1/2$ for $i \in S$. The SRI enforces that there is not more than one route $r \in \Omega$ in every feasible solution that serves two or more requests from S . Indeed, with the definition $a(S, \mathbf{w}) = \lfloor \sum_{i \in S} a_{ir}/2 \rfloor$ the inequality is

$$\sum_{\substack{r \in \Omega: \\ 2 \leq \sum_{i \in S} a_{ir} \leq 3}} \lambda_r + 2 \cdot \sum_{\substack{r \in \Omega: \\ 4 \leq \sum_{i \in S} a_{ir} \leq 5}} \lambda_r + 3 \cdot \sum_{\substack{r \in \Omega: \\ 6 \leq \sum_{i \in S} a_{ir} \leq 7}} \lambda_r + \dots \leq 1.$$

The first summand means that not more than one route performing more than one task of S can be part of an integer solution. The additional summands can only contribute with values greater than 1 if non-elementary routes are considered.

Size $ S $	Weights $\mathbf{w} = (w_i)_{i \in S}$	RHS $b(S, \mathbf{w})$
3	$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$	1
4	$(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})$	1
5	$(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}), (\frac{2}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}), (\frac{3}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}), (\frac{3}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}),$ $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), (\frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}), (\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$	1 2

Table 1: Undominated combinations of weights for subset-row inequalities with $3 \leq |S| \leq 5$.

2.1. SPPRC and Labeling

Jepsen *et al.* (2008) have introduced SRIs for SPPRC pricing subproblems. Recall that $D = (V, A)$ denotes the digraph over which the SPPRC is defined. We assume w.l.o.g. that each feasible route starts at the given origin vertex $o \in V$ and ends at the destination vertex $o' \in V$. Moreover, let \mathcal{R} denote the set of attributes (a.k.a. resources) that define the SPPRC. Examples of attributes are the earliest service time, the accumulated demand, the traveled distance etc (further modeling examples are provided in Irnich and Desaulniers, 2005). Also binary attributes related to *ng*-route relaxation (Baldacci *et al.*, 2011) are to be included if this type of SPPRC relaxation is used. In addition, we assume that one attribute $\text{rdc} \in \mathcal{R}$ represents the accumulated reduced cost. At this point, we explicitly *exclude* attributes that are introduced to handle the impact of SRIs. This exclusion enables us to later distinguish between subproblems that disregard SRIs and subproblems that consider SRIs.

The prevalent solution approach for SPPRCs is by dynamic-programming labeling algorithms. Starting from the origin vertex o associated with the trivial path $p = (o)$, *o*-*i*-paths (a.k.a. partial paths) are systematically extended in a vertex-by-vertex fashion towards the destination vertex o' . More precisely, a partial path $p = (o, \dots, i)$ ending at vertex i is extended over all outgoing arcs $(i, j) \in A$ of i producing a new partial path $p = (o, \dots, i, j)$, which is immediately checked for feasibility and dismissed if infeasible.

We further assume that $\mathbf{T} = (T^{\text{res}})_{\text{res} \in \mathcal{R}}$ denotes a problem-specific vector of attributes. *Resource extension functions* (REFs, Desaulniers *et al.*, 1998; Irnich, 2007) are used to propagate the attributes through the network. Let f_{ij} denote the REF associated with arc $(i, j) \in A$. The REF f_{ij} propagates an arbitrary vector \mathbf{T} of attributes referring to a vertex i to resulting attributes \mathbf{T}' for the vertex j via $\mathbf{T}' = f_{ij}(\mathbf{T})$. For convenience, we assume that infeasibility is indicated via $f_{ij}^{\text{rdc}}(\mathbf{T}) = \infty$. Moreover, we do not consider parallel arcs and multiple REFs per arc to keep the notation simple (even though this extension bears no conceptual difficulty, see Desaulniers, 2010; Goel and Irnich, 2017). Let \mathbf{T}_0 denote the initial values of the attributes associated with the origin o . For any path $r = (i_0, i_1, \dots, i_\ell)$, we recursively define

$$\mathbf{T}_k = f_{i_{k-1}i_k}(\mathbf{T}_{k-1}) \quad \text{for all } k = 1, 2, \dots, \ell.$$

For convenience, we define $\mathbf{T}(r)$ as the attribute vector at the last vertex i_ℓ , i.e., $\mathbf{T}(r) = \mathbf{T}_\ell$. The path r is *feasible* if and only if $\mathbf{T}(r)^{\text{rdc}} = T_\ell^{\text{rdc}} < \infty$ (assuming $\infty + a = \infty$ for any real value $a \in \mathbb{R}$).

Example 2. The VRPTW is defined by a demand d_i and a time window $[e_i, \ell_i]$ for all vertices $i \in V$ together with a routing cost c_{ij} and a travel and service time t_{ij} for all arcs $(i, j) \in A$ as well as a vehicle capacity Q (for details we refer to, e.g., Desaulniers *et al.*, 2014). Attributes for the following resources are relevant: reduced cost, load, earliest service time, and *ng*-related binary attributes. The latter *ng*-route relaxation is defined by neighborhoods $(N_j)_{j \in V}$ with $j \in N_j \subseteq V$. The initial attributes at the origin vertex o are given by $\mathbf{T}_o = (0, 0, e_o, \mathbf{0})$. The propagation of attributes \mathbf{T} from a vertex i along an outgoing arc $(i, j) \in A$ to the

vertex j gives the new attributes $\mathbf{T}' = f_{ij}(\mathbf{T})$, where the REF is componentwise defined as:

$$T'^{rdc} = f_{ij}^{rdc}(\mathbf{T}) = T^{rdc} + \tilde{c}_{ij} \quad (3a)$$

$$T'^{load} = f_{ij}^{load}(\mathbf{T}) = T^{load} + d_i \quad (3b)$$

$$T'^{time} = f_{ij}^{time}(\mathbf{T}) = \max\{e_j, T^{time} + t_{ij}\} \quad (3c)$$

$$T'^{ng,v} = f_{ij}^{ng,v}(\mathbf{T}) = \begin{cases} T^{ng,v} + 1, & \text{if } v = j \\ T^{ng,v}, & \text{if } v \in N_j, v \neq j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall v \in V \quad (3d)$$

The extension is feasible if $T'^{time} \leq \ell_j$, $T'^{load} \leq Q$, and $T'^{ng,v} \leq 1$ for all $v \in V$. Otherwise, we set $T'^{rdc} = \infty$ (not formalized in (3a) for the sake of simplicity).

The reduced costs \tilde{c}_{ij} on the arcs $(i, j) \in A$ in (3a) result from dual prices $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ of task fulfillment constraints (1b) (and possibly other robust constraints, e.g., limiting the fleet size) to be consistently subtracted from the original arc costs c_{ij} .

What we have described so far is the path/label extension part of a labeling algorithm. Repeating extensions without using a pruning mechanism would be a brute-force enumeration of all feasible o - i paths for all $i \in V$. Dominance identifies paths that are useless for finding a most negative reduced cost o - o' -path. It is crucial for the effectiveness of a labeling algorithm. Refining the analysis of Desaulniers *et al.* (2020), we now categorize the principles behind dominance. For any o - i -path p and i - o' -path q , the concatenation is the o - o' -path with the vertex sequence (p, q) (without repeating i). If (p, q) is a feasible o - o' -path, the path q is called a *feasible completion* of p .

Definition 1. Let p_1 and p_2 be two different o - i -paths (partial paths). If, for each feasible completion q_2 of p_2 to a path $r_2 = (p_2, q_2)$, there exists a feasible completion q_1 of p_1 to path $r_1 = (p_1, q_1)$ with smaller or identical reduced cost compared to r_2 , then the partial path p_2 is dominated. We distinguish between the following three types of completions q_1 of p_1 :

- (i) either $q_1 = q_2$ is the feasible completion of p_1 (identical completion dominance, ICD),
- (ii) or $q_1 = q_2'$ is an i - o' -subpath of q_2 (including $q_2' = q_2$ as a non-proper possible subpath) such that $r_1 = (p_1, q_2')$ is the feasible completion of p_1 (subpath completion dominance, SCD),
- (iii) or there exists another i - o' -path q_1 that is the feasible completion of p_1 (here, the completion q_1 may or may not be identical to q_2 or a subpath of it) (possibly different completion dominance, PDCD).

Many SPPRC labeling algorithms rely on the ICD principle, such as those for the CVRP, the VRPTW, and almost all of their extensions in which goods are shipped from depot to customers. Likewise, all goods may be collected from customers and shipped to the depot. The attributes \mathbf{T} introduced above serve for testing ICD. We assume that the relation \preceq compares two partial paths p^1 and p^2 via $\mathbf{T}(p^1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(p^2)$. The validity of the relation indicates that every feasible completion of p^2 is a feasible completion of p^1 with identical or smaller reduced cost. In the VRPTW case, ICD can be proven directly because the REFs defined in (3) are non-decreasing (see, e.g., Desaulniers *et al.*, 1998; Irnich, 2007).

Example 3. In the VRPTW, the relation $\mathbf{T}_1 = \mathbf{T}(p^1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(p^2) = \mathbf{T}_2$ can be written out explicitly as $T_1^{rdc} \leq T_2^{rdc}$, $T_1^{time} \leq T_2^{time}$, $T_1^{load} \leq T_2^{load}$, and $T_1^{ng,v} \leq T_2^{ng,v}$ for all $v \in V$. Since the REFs (3) are non-decreasing and feasibility constraints only impose upper bounds, every feasible completion q of p^2 is also a feasible completion of p^1 . All vertices are reached with better or identical attribute values, i.e., $\mathbf{T}(p^1, q) \preceq \mathbf{T}(p^2, q)$. Note that this relationship is not only true for completion q but also for extensions with partial paths of q , i.e., in every intermediate label extension step.

We have seen that ICD completely relies on the attributes \mathbf{T} . Therefore, labeling algorithms do not store and manipulate partial paths directly but use labels. A *label* L is a (convenient) representation of a feasible o - i -path p , and we write $p = p(L)$ and $L = L(p)$ to express the mutual relationship. Typically, the label L stores the attributes $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}(p(L))$ indicating the resource state at the last vertex i . In addition, the label includes a reference to the predecessor label $pred(L)$ when $p(L)$ results from the extension of $p(pred(L))$.

In case of multiple REFs per arc, also a reference to the generating REF is recorded. Herewith, the partial path can be uniquely reconstructed from the label.

SCD has been applied in BPC algorithms for the pickup-and-delivery problem (Dumas *et al.*, 1991; Battarra *et al.*, 2014) and the dial-a-ride problem (Doerner and Salazar-González, 2014), i.e., goods and passenger transportation is between pairs of points. It is often the superior dominance rule for these problems and related variants, e.g., in the presence of additional time-window and ride-time constraints (Gschwind and Irnich, 2015; Gschwind *et al.*, 2018).

Example 4. For the pickup-and-delivery problem with time windows (PDPTW), we assume that the n given transportation requests are represented by pickup-delivery pairs of the form $(i, i+n)$ with $i \in P$ the pickup points and $i+n \in D$ the delivery points. Associated demands fulfill $d_i = -d_{i+n} > 0$. The remaining data is identical to the VRPTW so that REFs (3a)–(3b) and the corresponding feasibility conditions can be used here, too.

To model the pairing and precedence constraints, additional attributes are needed: for each request $(v, v+n)$ for $v \in P$, $T^{\text{open},v}$ indicates whether the request is already picked up but not delivered yet. The initial values are $T_0^{\text{open},v} = 0$ for all $v \in P$. Propagation of the attributes along arcs $(i, j) \in A$ is defined by

$$T^{\text{open},v} = f_{ij}^{\text{open},v}(\mathbf{T}) = \begin{cases} T^{\text{open},v} + 1, & \text{if } v = j \in P \\ T^{\text{open},v} - 1, & \text{if } v = n + j \in D \\ T^{\text{open},v}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall v \in V. \quad (4)$$

The extension to $j \neq o'$ is feasible w.r.t. the open request, if $0 \leq T^{\text{open},v} \leq 1$ for all $v \in P$. For $j = o'$, $T^{\text{open},v} = 0$ for all $v \in P$ is required.

Reduced costs on arcs can here be defined as $\tilde{c}_{ij} = c_{ij} - \pi_j$ for $j \in P$ where π_j is the dual price of the fulfillment constraint of request $(j, j+n)$, and $\tilde{c}_{ij} = c_{ij}$, otherwise. With this definition, the delivery triangle inequality (DTI) holds (for a deeper discussion, see Gschwind *et al.*, 2018) so that the following strong dominance can be defined. For two partial paths p_1 and p_2 ending at the same vertex, the relation $\mathbf{T}_1 = \mathbf{T}(p_1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(p_2) = \mathbf{T}_2$ can be defined with a componentwise \leq between \mathbf{T}_1 and \mathbf{T}_2 . In particular, labels with different sets of open requests can be compared as long as the one associated with p_1 is included in the one associated with p_2 . The proof of the validity of the strong dominance relies on the DTI and SCD. A feasible completion q_2 of p_2 must necessarily include all delivery vertices $D_2 = \{(j+n) \in D : T_2^{\text{open},j} = 1\}$. However, if $T_1^{\text{open},j} = 0$ for at least one $(j+n) \in D_2$, the completion q_2 is not a feasible completion of p_1 , because only deliveries $D_1 = \{(j+n) \in D : T_1^{\text{open},j} = 1\}$ are valid without pickup and additional pickup for a feasible completion of p_1 . Removing all vertices $(j+n) \in D_2 \setminus D_1$ from q_2 creates a proper subpath of q_2 which can be used as a feasible completion q_1 of p_1 (which is a case of SCD). The DTI guarantees that the reduced cost of q_1 is not greater than the reduced cost of q_2 .

Another example for SCD is the labeling-based BPC algorithm for the soft-clustered VRP (Hintsch and Irnich, 2019). Even if PDCD is not often found in the literature, we sketch an important example leaving out the technical details of describing the complete instance data and REFs.

Example 5. The truck-and-trailer routing problem with time windows (Rothenbächer *et al.*, 2018) is another extension of the VRPTW. Here, the fleet consists of trucks to which trailers can be attached in order to extend the capacity. Some customers are not accessible with a truck-and-trailer combination but can however be serviced by a truck alone if its trailer is previously detached and parked at a suitable location. The truck must attach the trailer at some later point because only a truck-and-trailer combination is allowed to return to the destination depot.

The BPC algorithm represents routes of a truck-and-trailer combination by the vertices that the truck visits. The labeling approach stores for each feasible partial path the position where the trailer has been parked (and not yet coupled again to the truck) in an attribute $T^{\text{pos}} \in V \cup \{\perp\}$ (\perp for trailer not parked, i.e., trailer attached). While a straightforward dominance can only compare paths p_1 and p_2 with identical trailer location $T^{\text{pos}}(p_1) = T^{\text{pos}}(p_2)$, an improved dominance uses the PDCD for cases with $T^{\text{pos}}(p_1) \neq T^{\text{pos}}(p_2)$.

As explained in (Rothenbächer *et al.*, 2018, p. 1180), the idea is that the potentially dominating path p_1 may dominate p_2 with $T^{\text{pos}}(p_1) \neq T^{\text{pos}}(p_2)$, ‘if the first vehicle can be transferred into the same trailer status

as the second without violating the dominance constraints'. This is tested 'by hypothetically moving the first vehicle in up to three steps':

- (1) If $T^{pos}(p_1) \neq \perp$, the first truck must pick up its trailer at position $T^{pos}(p_1)$,
- (2) If $T^{pos}(p_2) \neq \perp$, the first truck must park its trailer at position $T^{pos}(p_2)$,
- (3) The first truck must move back to the current customer, say j .

This creates a detour q^+ , i.e., a cycle over vertex j . Any completion q_2 of p_2 is transformed into the completion $q_1 = (q^+, q_2)$ of p_1 (this is PDCD). Note that the higher cost and time attributes of q_1 compared to q_2 must be considered leading to modified rules (3a) and (3c).

2.2. Relaxed Subset-Row Inequalities

SRI have been relaxed in order make the labeling less computationally expensive compared to the original SRIs as stated in (2). Formally, any integer coefficients $a_r^{\mathcal{M}}(S, \mathbf{w})$ on the *left-hand side* (LHS) that fulfill $a_r^{\mathcal{M}}(S, \mathbf{w}) \leq a_r(S, \mathbf{w})$ for all $r \in \Omega$ give rise to a valid inequality

$$\sum_{r \in \Omega} a_r^{\mathcal{M}}(S, \mathbf{w}) \lambda_r \leq b(S, \mathbf{w}), \quad (5)$$

in the following denoted as *relaxed SRI* or simply SRI also.

Consistent SRI relaxations result from modified labeling procedures in which SRI-related attributes are disregarded under certain conditions. Concepts to control which attributes are considered and disregarded ('forgotten') have turned out very powerful and successful in SPPRC labeling: For example, the definition of a neighborhood in the *ng*-route relaxation controls – per vertex – how much information about elementary is kept or forgotten. This can be seen as a short-term *memory*. Pecin *et al.* (2017a,c) have transferred the idea of a memory to the SRI case. The most flexible relaxation that they define is the following *arc-based memory*: For each SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) , the arc subset $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w}) \subset A$ defines, for which arcs the information regarding SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) is maintained: if $(i, j) \in \mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w})$, then the labeling procedure considers all (S, \mathbf{w}) -related information during a label extension over the arc $(i, j) \in A$, otherwise, the labeling procedure disregards and forgets any (S, \mathbf{w}) -related information.

Three types of memory have been used in the literature:

1. The origin SRI definition of Jepsen *et al.* (2008) uses a *full memory* $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w}) = A$ for all SRIs (S, \mathbf{w}) .
2. The limited *node-based memory* of Pecin *et al.* (2017a) is defined per SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) with the help of a vertex subset $V(S, \mathbf{w}) \subset V$. The memory is then defined as $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w}) = \bigcup_{j \in V(S, \mathbf{w})} \delta^-(j)$, where $\delta^-(j)$ denotes the set of ingoing arcs of j (for backward labeling, $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w}) = \bigcup_{j \in V(S, \mathbf{w})} \delta^+(j)$, where $\delta^+(j)$ denotes the set of outgoing arcs of j).
3. The limited *arc-based memory* of Pecin *et al.* (2017c) can be defined with any subset of arcs.

Typically, the limited memory is not chosen a priori but results from the violated SRIs that have been identified. The routes with $\lambda_r > 0$ in the RMP solution that contribute to a violated SRI defined by (S, \mathbf{w}) are inspected. Inserting the subsequence between the first and last occurrence of a vertex included in S suffices to guarantee that the LHS in (5) (relaxed version) coincides with the LHS in (2) (full memory version). In the case of a node-based memory, the ingoing/outgoing arcs of the vertices of the subsequence are added to $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w})$. Likewise, the arcs of the subsequence are added to $\mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w})$ for an arc-based memory.

Next, we describe how the propagation of attributes works in the presence of possibly relaxed SRIs. We assume that the initial partial path p_0 has the label $L_0 = L(p_0)$ without predecessor and initial resource state $\mathbf{T}(L_0)$. Let \mathcal{S} denote the set of active SRIs (S, \mathbf{w}) , i.e., those with non-zero dual price $\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}} < 0$. For a partial path $p = p(L)$, its reduced cost including the contribution of the dual prices $\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$ is then:

$$\tilde{c}_p = c_p - \sum_{i \in M} a_{ip} \pi_i - \sum_{(S, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S}} a_p^{\mathcal{M}}(S, \mathbf{w}) \sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$$

For each label L , besides the problem-specific attributes $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}(L)$, additional integer attributes $W_{S, \mathbf{w}} = W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L)$ accumulate the weights w_i whenever one of the vertices $i \in S$ is reached. The extension of a label L

for the partial path $p(L)$ ending at vertex $i \in V$ over an arc $(i, j) \in A$ produces the following new label L' with attributes $\mathbf{T}' = \mathbf{T}(L')$, $W'_{S,w}$, and coefficients $a'^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w}$:

$$\mathbf{T}'^{\text{rdc}} = f_{ij}^{\text{rdc}}(\mathbf{T}) - \sum_{\substack{(S,\mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S} : j \in S, \\ W_{S,w} + w_j \geq 1, \\ (i,j) \in \mathcal{M}(S,\mathbf{w})}} \sigma_{S,w} \quad (6a)$$

$$\mathbf{T}'^{\text{res}} = f_{ij}^{\text{res}}(\mathbf{T}) \quad \forall \text{res} \in \mathcal{R} \setminus \{\text{rdc}\} \quad (6b)$$

$$W'_{S,w} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (i,j) \notin \mathcal{M}(S,\mathbf{w}) \\ W_{S,w} + w_j, & \text{if } j \in S, W_{S,w} + w_j < 1, \text{ and } (i,j) \in \mathcal{M}(S,\mathbf{w}) \\ W_{S,w} + w_j - 1, & \text{if } j \in S, W_{S,w} + w_j \geq 1, \text{ and } (i,j) \in \mathcal{M}(S,\mathbf{w}) \\ W_{S,w}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \forall (S,\mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S} \quad (6c)$$

$$a'^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w} = a^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w} + \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j \in S, W_{S,w} + w_j \geq 1 \text{ and } (i,j) \in \mathcal{M}(S,\mathbf{w}) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6d)$$

We explain the updates in (6a)–(6d) from simple to more difficult. The update of all problem-specific resources (except for the reduced cost) is straightforward with the REF f_{ij} as shown in (6b). The update of the accumulated weights in (6c) distinguishes four cases: First, if the extension arc (i, j) is not in the memory, the accumulated value is reset to 0, while all other cases require $(i, j) \in \mathcal{M}(S, \mathbf{w})$. Second, if the vertex j is the set S and the new accumulated weight $W_{S,w} + w_j$ does not increase to the value 1 or greater, then this value is stored. Third, if $W_{S,w} + w_j \geq 1$, then its fractional part, which is equal to $W_{S,w} + w_j - 1$, is stored (a value in the interval $[0, 1)$). Fourth and last, in all other cases the current value $W_{S,w}$ is just transferred to $W'_{S,w}$.

The integer coefficient $a^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w}$ of the route variable for the SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) , computed by (6d), increases by one if and only if the accumulated weight increases to or exceeds 1. This exactly corresponds with the third case in the computation of $W'_{S,w}$. Note that the coefficients $a^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w}$ do not necessarily need to be computed and stored within each label. It is however convenient for our later arguments to be able to refer to (6d).

With the already given explanation, it is now simpler to describe the reduced cost update in (6a). Note first that in many VRP applications, the propagation of the reduced cost is done with an REF of the type $f_{ij}^{\text{rdc}}(\mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}^{\text{rdc}} + \tilde{c}_{ij}$ where $\tilde{c}_{ij} = (\pi_i + \pi_j)/2$ and π_i are the dual prices of the partitioning constraints and $\pi_o = \pi_o'$ the dual price of the fleet size constraint. However, to be generic, we also allow more involved cost updates (some examples are He *et al.*, 2019; Liberatore *et al.*, 2010; Bektaş and Laporte, 2011). The crucial modification related to the dual prices of the SRIs are captured in the sum in (6a). Under the same conditions for which the integer coefficient $a'^{\mathcal{M}}_{S,w}$ is increased, the dual price $\sigma_{S,w}$ is incorporated.

Dominance. The seminal paper of Jepsen *et al.* (2008) defines the following modified dominance rule that incorporates the dual prices of the active SRIs: Sufficient conditions for a label L^1 dominating a label L^2 , both resident at the same vertex, are

$$\tilde{c}(L^1) - \sum_{\substack{(S,\mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S}, \\ W_{S,w}(L^1) > W_{S,w}(L^2)}} \sigma_{S,w} \leq \tilde{c}(L^2). \quad (7)$$

and $\mathbf{T}(L^1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(L^2)$. Their proof covers the case of a full memory (refined versions of memory were not yet invented) and argues with ICD. More precisely, the condition $\mathbf{T}(L^1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(L^2)$ was used to argue with ICD. The intuition is that, for SRIs (S, \mathbf{w}) with $W_{S,w}(L^1) > W_{S,w}(L^2)$, the label L^1 is closer to be penalized with $-\sigma_{S,w} \geq 0$ than the other label L^2 . The worst case is taken into account with including all those penalties in the dominance relation (7). In particular, this allows dominance between two labels for which the $W_{S,w}$ -attributes are not directly comparable (with \leq).

The works of Pecin *et al.* (2017a,c) prove that the same dominance rule is valid for the refined memories, i.e., for any type of memory. It is straightforward to prove the validity of the dominance (7) for SCD in combination with a full memory. The following example shows that SCD in combination with any type of limited memory is invalid.

	Full memory SRIs	Node-based memory SRIs	Arc-based memory SRIs
ICD	✓	✓	✓
SCD	✓	invalid	invalid
PDCD	invalid	invalid	invalid

Table 2: Valid (✓) and invalid combinations of dominance principles and types of SRI-related memory.

Example 6. We consider the PDPTW from Example 4. For an SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) with associated set $S = \{j, k, l\}$, let the delivery vertex $i + n$ not be in the node-based limited memory of the SRI. Two labels L^1 and L^2 refer to the same vertex and have identical attributes $W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L^1) = W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L^2) = 0$. The label L^1 has no open requests. The label L^2 has the open request $(i, i + n)$, i.e., i is visited and $i + n$ is not. Consider the completion $q_2 = (j, i + n, k, o')$ of label L^2 . With the limited memory, the attribute $W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L^2)$ is disregarded at vertex $i + n$ so that no penalty $-\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$ is added for the completion of the second path. SCD assumes the completion $q_1 = (j, k, o')$ of L^1 . Here, the penalty $-\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$ is added when visiting vertex k . As a result, L^2 may have a negative reduced cost, while L^1 may have a positive reduced cost. Therefore, the first label does not dominate the second. It follows that SCD is not compatible with a limited memory for SRIs.

Table 2 summarizes which type of dominance is compatible with the different types of SRI memory.

3. Improved Dominance

In this section, we focus on the role of unreachable vertices and subsets of unreachable vertices for an improved SRI-related dominance. For each vertex $i \in V$ and each state \mathbf{T} of the resources at i , let $U_i(\mathbf{T})$ denote the set of vertices u that cannot be feasibly reached, i.e., there exists no resource-feasible i - u -path with initial resource state \mathbf{T} at vertex i to reach the vertex $u \in V$.

Example 7. (cont'd from Example 2) In variants of the VRPTW, a possible definition of the set $U_i(\mathbf{T})$ only depends on the attribute T^{time} . Compute, for each pair $(i, u) \in V \times V$, the latest departure time $LDT(i, u)$, i.e., the latest point in time to leave vertex i so that one can feasibly reach u . These values can be computed with an i -to-all shortest-path algorithm with a non-decreasing update function. Then, the set of unreachable vertices is

$$U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) = \{u \in V : T^{time} > LDT(i, u)\}. \quad (8)$$

The idea is now to test, for a label L resident at a vertex i , whether all vertices $u \in S$ for an SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) are unreachable. In the positive case, i.e., if $U_i(\mathbf{T}) \supseteq S = U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}(L))$ holds, the attribute referring to this SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) is irrelevant in the following sense.

First, it follows that the path $p(L)$ cannot be extended to any vertex in $u \in S$ and therefore never collects another penalty $\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$. Second, if another label L^1 is trying to dominate $L = L^2$, every feasible completion q^2 of $p(L^2)$ does not visit vertices $u \in S$. Therefore, extending $p(L^1)$ with the same completion q^2 (i.e., ICD) or with a subpath of q^2 (i.e., SCD) does not impose any additional penalty $\sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}}$ to the first path. Third, if label $L = L^1$ is trying to dominate another label L^2 , then the necessary precondition $\mathbf{T}(L^1) \preceq \mathbf{T}(L^2)$ imposes $S \subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T}(L^1)) \subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T}(L^2))$. Thus, the same argument as in the second case applies here, too. Summarizing, the attribute is irrelevant for extending label L and for dominance with label L whether it is the dominating or the dominated label.

We therefore suggest the following *improved dominance rule* that only differs from (7) in the additional precondition $S \not\subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T}(L^2))$, i.e.,

$$\tilde{c}(L^1) - \sum_{\substack{(S, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S}, \\ W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L^1) > W_{S, \mathbf{w}}(L^2), \\ S \not\subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T}(L^2))}} \sigma_{S, \mathbf{w}} \leq \tilde{c}(L^2), \quad (9)$$

assuming that both labels L^1 and L^2 are resident at vertex $i \in V$. Compared to condition (7), the new condition (9) is simpler to fulfill, which means that dominance based on condition (9) is stronger.

Note that the condition $S \not\subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T}(L^2))$ is independent from label L^1 and can therefore be pre-computed, e.g., when label L^2 is created. Consequently, we suggest to build and store within each label a second bit vector \mathbf{W}^{weak} componentwise defined as

$$W_{S,w}^{weak}(L) = \begin{cases} w_{S,w}^{max}, & \text{if } S \subseteq U(\mathbf{T}(L)) \\ W_{S,w}(L), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (10)$$

where $w_{S,w}^{max}$ is the largest weight smaller than 1 for the SRI (S, \mathbf{w}) , i.e., $w_{S,w}^{max} = 1/2$ for weights with denominator 2, $w_{S,w}^{max} = 2/3$ for denominator 3, $w_{S,w}^{max} = 3/4$ for denominator 4, and $w_{S,w}^{max} = 4/5$ for denominator 5, see Table 1. The following and final form of the improved dominance rule is equivalent to the rule (9) but computationally simpler to check within the summation:

$$\tilde{c}(L^1) - \sum_{\substack{(S,\mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{S}, \\ W_{S,w}(L^1) > W_{S,w}^{weak}(L^2)}} \sigma_{S,w} \leq \tilde{c}(L^2). \quad (11)$$

Implementation Details. We consider now the special case of SRIs with $|S| = 3$ as used in most implementations. Here the attributes $W_{S,w}$ and $W_{S,w}^{weak}$ are binary (assuming that values 0 and $1/2$ are encoded with 0 and 1) and all SRI-related attributes are typically stored in one bit vector, say $\mathbf{W} = (W_{S,w})$ and $\mathbf{W}^{weak} = (W_{S,w}^{weak})$. The SRIs (S, \mathbf{w}) with $W_{S,w}(L^1) > W_{S,w}^{weak}(L^2)$ are then effectively identified by bit vector operations

$$\mathbf{W}(L^1) \wedge \sim \mathbf{W}^{weak}(L^2)$$

(with ‘ \wedge ’ for the bitwise **and**-operator and ‘ \sim ’ the bitwise **not**-operator). Modern programming languages allow to store bit vectors in a compressed format, e.g., the `bitset` template class in C++. Our experience is that using such a compressed representation has a very positive effect on the performance of the labeling algorithm.

We propose to compute both $\mathbf{W}(L)$ and $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L)$ during the construction of each new label L , i.e., in the label extension procedure of the labeling algorithm. The computation of $\mathbf{W}(L)$ can be performed as described by the REF (6c) or in (Pecin *et al.*, 2017c, p. 493). For the efficient computation of $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L)$, we propose to a priori create a *lookup table* that stores the unreachable information regarding all relevant subsets S for all (S, \mathbf{w}) in the following way: For each vertex $i \in V$ and each possible attribute value T^{res} used in the definition of the set of unreachable vertices, e.g., the time attribute T^{time} in Example 2 for the VRPTW variants, $\mathbf{Z}(i, T^{\text{res}}) = (Z(i, T^{\text{res}})_{S,w})$ is a binary vector that indicates whether $S \subseteq U_i(T^{\text{res}})$ holds. Precisely, $S \subseteq U_i(T^{\text{res}})$ if and only if $Z(i, T^{\text{res}})_{S,w} = 1$. Since this lookup table \mathbf{Z} has dimension $|V|$ times the size of the domain of T^{res} , e.g., the time window width, the binary vector should be stored in compressed format. One can now directly compute $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L)$ as

$$\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L) := \mathbf{W}(L) \vee \mathbf{Z}(i, T^{\text{res}}(L)) \quad (12)$$

where \vee is the bitwise **or**-operator and i is the vertex that the label L resides at.

4. Subsets of Unreachable Vertices

In this section, we present different possibilities for the definition of the sets of unreachable vertices. Advantages and disadvantages of the respective definitions are discussed. As examples we consider the VRPTW and the EVRPTW.

4.1. Unreachability for the VRPTW

In the VRPTW, the definition of unreachable vertices can rely on the time attribute (see above, Eq. (8)), on the load attribute, or both. We now discuss the latter possibility:

Example 8. (cont'ed from Example 7) One can compute, for all $i, u \in V$, a minimum demand i - u -path with cumulative minimum demand $CMD(i, u)$ so that the set of unreachable vertices is

$$U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T}) = \{u \in V : T^{load} + CMD(i, u) - d_i > Q\}.$$

Combining both sets, one can define $U_i(\mathbf{T}) = U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) \cup U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$.

The implementations of improved dominance rules based on $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$, $U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$, and $U_i(\mathbf{T})$ are worth being discussed in more detail. For the time-related sets $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$, we proposed implementing a two-dimensional lookup table $\mathbf{Z}(i, T^{time})$ for quickly retrieving the unreachability information and relating it to the SRIs, see end of Section 3. For the load-related sets $U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$, a perfectly similar approach is viable. Here, the lookup table $\mathbf{Z}(i, T^{load})$ is again two-dimensional and indexed by vertices $i \in V$ and the domain $\{0, 1, \dots, Q\}$ of the load attribute. Computing $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L)$ can in both cases (time and load) be done with Eq. (12).

Instead of Eq. (12) using only one lookup table, it is allowed to combine both lookup tables $\mathbf{Z}^{time}(i, T^{time})$ and $\mathbf{Z}^{load}(i, T^{load})$ defining $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L) := \mathbf{W}(L) \vee \mathbf{Z}^{time}(i, T^{time}(L)) \vee \mathbf{Z}^{load}(i, T^{load}(L))$. A vertex set S is here considered unreachable if either all vertices $u \in S$ have a too early time-window end or if all have a too large demand. This is not the strongest possible definition of unreachability combining time- and load-attributes, because all vertices of S have to fall into either category: unreachable because of the time attribute or because of the load attribute. For the combined sets $U_i(\mathbf{T}) := U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) \cup U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$, the unreachable vertices are, in general, supersets of $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ and of $U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$. For example, an SRI for the set $S = \{i_1, i_2, i_3\}$ may have $i_1 \in U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) \setminus U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$ and $i_2, i_3 \in U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T}) \setminus U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$. Then, $S \not\subseteq U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ and $S \not\subseteq U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$, but $S \subseteq U_i(\mathbf{T})$.

The use of the sets $U_i(\mathbf{T})$ therefore leads to a stronger dominance compared to $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ and $U_i^{load}(\mathbf{T})$, respectively. However, the stronger dominance comes at a high cost regarding computer memory. One would have to use a three-dimensional lookup table depending on i and both attributes T^{time} and T^{load} . We do not follow this approach, since it would only work for instances with a few customers and relatively tight resource windows.

4.2. Unreachability for the EVRPTW

The EVRPTW extends the VRPTW by considering a homogeneous fleet of battery powered electric vehicles characterized by a limited driving range that can be extended by recharging the vehicle at dedicated recharging stations. The EVRPTW exists in various variants. We present the definition of Desaulniers *et al.* (2016) who assume a linear battery charge and consumption. They focus on the following alternative recharging policies: On the one hand, either (S) at most a *single recharge* per route is allowed, or (M) *multiple recharges* per route are allowed. On the other hand, (F) batteries are always *fully* recharged when visiting a recharging station or (P) *partial* battery recharges are possible. The result is four variants named EVRPTW-SF, EVRPTW-SP, EVRPTW-MF, and EVRPTW-MP.

Let the vertex set be $V = \{o, o'\} \cup N \cup R$ where N denotes the set of customers and R the set of recharging stations. Desaulniers *et al.* (2016) model the battery-capacity constraint with the help of the time b_{ij} required to recharge the consumed energy when traveling between locations i and j , i.e., for each arc $(i, j) \in A$. Let B be the corresponding battery capacity of a vehicle (in time units). For a route (i_0, i_1, \dots, i_p) , the amount to recharge at every visited recharging station must be decided. Furthermore, the resulting recharging time needs to be incorporated into the time-window constraints. A necessary condition for the feasibility of a route is that there exist a schedule (T_0, T_1, \dots, T_p) and a (battery-)loading plan (X_0, X_1, \dots, X_p) that fulfill the following conditions: First, loading is only possible at recharging stations R , i.e., $X_j = 0$ if $i_j \in N \cup \{o, o'\}$ and $0 \leq X_j \leq B$ for $i_j \in R$. Second, the time-window constraints are fulfilled, i.e., $T_j \in [e_{i_j}, \ell_{i_j}]$ for all $j = 0, \dots, p$ and $T_{j-1} + s_{i_{j-1}, i_j} + X_{j-1} + t_{i_{j-1}, i_j} \leq T_j$ for all $j \in \{1, \dots, p\}$, where it is assumed that there are no service times at recharging stations, i.e., $s_{i_j} = 0$ for $i_j \in R$. Third, the loading plan must be feasible, i.e., $B - \sum_{j=1}^q b_{i_{j-1}, i_j} + \sum_{j=1}^{q-1} X_j \geq 0$ and $B - \sum_{j=1}^q b_{i_{j-1}, i_j} + \sum_{j=1}^q X_j \leq B$ for all $q \in \{1, \dots, p\}$.

For the EVRPTW-MP (multiple, partial recharges), the given conditions are sufficient. For the single recharge policy, i.e., the EVRPTW-SF and EVRPTW-SP, at most one of the vertices i_0, i_1, \dots, i_p can be a

Table 3: Resources in VRPTW and Variants of EVRPTW

Problem Attribute(s)	VRPTW	EVRPTW-SP/MP	Description
	forward/backward	forward/backward	
T^{rdc}	•	•	accumulated reduced cost
T^{load}	•	•	accumulated load
T^{time}	•		service start time
T^{rch}		•	binary: recharged yes/no
T^{tMin}		•	earliest time start of service
T^{tMax}		•	latest time start of service
T^{rtMax}		•	maximum amount to be recharged
No. of Attr.	3	6	

recharging station. For the full recharge policy, i.e., the EVRPTW-SF and EVRPTW-MF, the battery must always be completely recharged at recharging stations, i.e., $B - \sum_{j=1}^q b_{i_{j-1}, i_j} + \sum_{j=1}^q X_j = B$ if $i_q \in R$.

For EVRPTW variants with partial recharge, forward and backward labeling can be based on the same type of attributes and REFs, because any time-window and recharging feasible forward $o-o'$ -path is, if reversed, a feasible $o-o'$ -path in the transposed network, and vice versa, i.e., there exists a possibly different but feasible schedule and battery-load plan for the reversed path if and only if one exists for the original path (see Desaulniers *et al.*, 2016, p. 1398). Table 3 lists the attributes used to model EVRPTW variants with partial recharge. For the sake of brevity, we restrict our analysis to partial recharging because this case is probably more interesting. The attributes for reduced cost T^{rdc} and load T^{load} from the VRPTW need to be complemented with additional four attributes that we briefly describe now. Three additional attributes T^{tMin} , T^{tMax} , and T^{rtMax} are needed to describe the linear tradeoff between the maximum amount of energy that can be recharged (also expressed as a recharging time) and the earliest service time. The earliest start of service is no longer a single point in time (as T^{time} in the VRPTW) but can lie in the time interval $[T^{tMin}, T^{tMax}]$ over which the tradeoff-curve with slope -1 is described by the initial maximum amount of energy T^{rtMax} (referring time T^{tMin}). A feasible schedule and load plan exist by construction of the tradeoff-curve. All details about the labeling algorithms including the precise definitions of REFs can be found in (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2016).

We now describe problem-tailored definitions of sets of unreachable vertices for the EVRPTW-SP/MP. As in Example 7 for the VRPTW, we can pre-compute and use the latest departure time $LDT(i, u)$ from i to feasibly reach vertex u . Replacing T^{time} by the corresponding attribute T^{tMin} of the EVRPTW-SP/MP, we get

$$U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) = \{u \in V : T^{tMin} > LDT(i, u)\}. \quad (13)$$

Recall that $LDT(i, u)$ is the latest start time at i to feasibly reach u . Moreover, the distance between i and u may require recharging. Recharging is necessary if $T^{rtMax} + b(i, u) > B$ for a path between i and u with minimum recharging time $b(i, u)$. The additional time to be reserved for recharging is therefore $\max\{0, T^{rtMax} + b(i, u) - B\}$. Hence, we would like to replace the condition $T^{tMin} > LDT(i, u)$ in the above definition of $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ by the condition $T^{tMin} + \max\{0, T^{rtMax} + b(i, u) - B\} > LDT(i, u)$. However, the latter condition depends in a non-additive way on T^{tMin} and T^{rtMax} which makes the implementation with a lookup table practically impossible (see Examples 8 and discussion at the end of Section 3). Instead, we propose to use

$$U_i^{battery}(\mathbf{T}) = \{u \in V : (T^{tMin} + T^{rtMax}) + b(i, u) - B > LDT(i, u)\}. \quad (14)$$

in combination with $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ as defined in (13). The reasoning is as follows: If $T^{rtMax} + b(i, u) - B < 0$, then $U_i^{battery}(\mathbf{T}) \subseteq U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ so that nothing is wrong when using $U_i^{battery}(\mathbf{T})$. Otherwise, for $T^{rtMax} +$

$b(i, u) - B \geq 0$, we have $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T}) \subseteq U_i^{battery}(\mathbf{T})$ and using the latter set is not only feasible but, in general, produces a stronger dominance.

Overall, we propose to build two lookup tables, $\mathbf{Z}^{time}(i, T^{tMin})$ based on $U_i^{time}(\mathbf{T})$ and $\mathbf{Z}^{battery}(i, T^{tMin} + T^{rtMax})$ based on $U_i^{battery}(\mathbf{T})$. Building the latter lookup table is viable, since the sum $T^{tMin} + T^{rtMax}$ is as good as any single attribute. In the labeling algorithm, we compute $\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L)$ as

$$\mathbf{W}^{weak}(L) := \mathbf{W}(L) \vee \mathbf{Z}^{time}(i, T^{tMin}(L)) \vee \mathbf{Z}^{battery}(i, T^{tMin}(L) + T^{rtMax}(L)). \quad (15)$$

5. Computational Results

In this section, we report our computational study on the use of the improved dominance rule. Results were computed with a standard PC running Windows 10 equipped with an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-6900k processor clocked at 3.2 GHz with 64 GB RAM main memory. The BPC algorithms were implemented in C++ and compiled into 64-bit single-thread code with MS Visual Studio 2022. The callable library of CPLEX 22.1.0 was used for solving the RMPs.

Setup of BPC Algorithms. To facilitate comparisons between VRPTW and EVRPTW, we use the same setup for our BPC algorithms independent of whether VRPTW or EVRPTW instances are solved (as done by Desaulniers *et al.* (2020), even if one would probably get better results with problem-tailored setups). We sketch the main algorithmic components and their parameterization:

- The labeling algorithm uses a bidirectional strategy with a dynamic half-way point (Tilk *et al.*, 2017) with the monotone attribute T^{time} for the VRPTW and T^{tMin} for the EVRPTW-SP/MP. For further details we refer to (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2020, p. 1177).
- As mentioned before, we solve relaxations of the elementary SPPRC which are based on the *ng*-route relaxation of Baldacci *et al.* (2011). With a neighborhood size of $|N_j| = 14$ for all $j \in V$ we try to exploit the tradeoff between the difficulty of subproblem relaxation and the size of the branch-and-bound tree.
- Arc fixing allows to eliminate provably redundant arcs from the network over which the SPPRC labeling algorithm is defined. We use the standard version as first described in (Irnich *et al.*, 2010) where reduced costs are computed with a complete forward and a complete backward labeling at the root node only (including cuts) of the branch-and-bound tree.
- Heuristic a.k.a partial pricing can help to further reduce the total time spent in pricing. We sequentially apply four pricing heuristics that use arc-reduced networks with a minimum of 2, 5, 10, and 15 arcs, respectively, that enter and exit each customer vertex. The exact pricer defined over the complete network is only called if all heuristics fail. Further details are explained in (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2008).
- Before adding SRIs, violated robust *capacity cuts* (CC) are added to the RMP to strengthen the linear relaxation of the master program. The associated separation problem is solved by employing two variants of the shrinking heuristic (extended and greedy shrinking) as first presented by Ralphs *et al.* (2003). For the SRIs, we use the separation algorithm and vertex memory as described in the work of Pecin *et al.* (2017a). An SRI or CC is considered violated, if the violation is at least $\varepsilon_{cut} = 0.05$. Moreover, the maximum number of SRIs to add is limited to 320.
- Branching is required whenever the addition of valid inequality is not yet sufficient to produce an integer solution. For the VRPTW, we apply the standard two-level branching strategy: branching on (V1) the total number of routes and (V2) the total flow on an arc. For the EVRPTW, we apply the same four-level branching strategy as in (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2016, 2020): branching on (E1) the total number of routes, (E2) the total number of recharges, (E3) the total number of recharges at each recharging station $i \in R$, and (E4) the total flow on an arc. (V1), (E1), (E2), and (E3) are enforced by adding an inequality to the RMP, while (V2) and (E4) are implemented by removing arcs from the pricing network. In (V2), (E2), (E3), and (E4), the specific branching variable is chosen as the one with fractional value is closest to 0.5. The two resulting branches bound the branching variable from above (below) by the rounded-down (rounded-up) value. The search tree is explored with a best-bound first strategy.

VRPTW Instances. Solomon’s benchmark of VRPTW instances consists of 56 instances with 100 customers grouped by customer distributions random (R), clustered (C), or mixed (RC) as well as by tight (series 1 with subsets R1, C1, RC1) or loose (series 2 with subsets R2, C2, RC2) constraints. 25- and 50-customer instances result from dropping the last 75 and 50 customers, respectively. Optimal solutions have been computed for all $56 \cdot 3 = 168$ instances and a complete table with exact results can be found in the Online Supplement of (He *et al.*, 2019). In several other works like (Pecin *et al.*, 2017c,a; Pessoa *et al.*, 2018), an upper bound of $UB = opt + 1$ is provided to the BPC algorithms where opt is the cost of an optimal solution. Metaheuristics (e.g., Vidal *et al.*, 2013) routinely find these optimal solutions, too.

EVRPTW Instances. Schneider *et al.* (2014) constructed the 100-customer EVRPTW benchmark instances from Solomon’s benchmark. We refer to (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2020) for a detailed description of how recharging stations were added, battery capacities were set, and some time windows were modified in order to ensure feasibility in all cases. With the four recharging variants (SF, SP, MF, MP) this leads to an overall benchmark of $56 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 = 672$ instances. Recall that we only consider the recharging variants SP and MP with partial recharging (see Section 4.2), i.e., 336 of these instances.

Reduction and Grouping Instances. As in (Desaulniers *et al.*, 2020), we restrict the experiments to those (E)VRPTW instances that require cutting and/or branching to compute an integer optimal solution. In the other cases, the modified dominance rule has no impact leading to identical results for the original and improved dominance. The consideration of these instances would otherwise bias the statistical analysis. Moreover, we restrict ourselves to those instances that the standard BPC algorithm solves to integer optimality within 2 hours. For the VRPTW, 86 instances are already integer optimal when solving the linear relaxation and only instances R208_100 and R211_100 are not solved within 2 hours leading to 80 VRPTW instances for the experiments. For the EVRPTW with partial recharging, $50 + 51 = 101$ are dropped due to optimality of the linear relaxation and $28 + 30 = 58$ due to the 2-hours time limit. For the experiments, $90 + 87 = 177$ EVRPTW-SP and EVRPTW-MP instances remain for the computational study.

5.1. Comparison of the Original and Improved Dominance Rules

In a first experiment, we compare the original dominance rule (7) and the improved dominance rule (9) implemented as suggested in (11). It is important to perform such a comparison on true instances of the pricing problem, i.e., with a sequence of dual prices and associated reduced costs as they occur in the course of a BPC algorithm. Otherwise, instances with, e.g., randomly generated dual prices and, in particular, with randomly chosen SRIs would not reflect the true diversity and difficulty of SPPRC subproblems. Furthermore, recall that due to partial pricing the SPPRC instances are either defined by an arc-reduced network or the complete network.

What complicates the comparison is that any modification on the labeling algorithm typically leads to different computed routes due to degeneracy, i.e., non-unique optima resulting from labels with identical reduced costs. As a result, we see very different trajectories of pricing iterations if an original implementation is replaced by a new one. In our case, when the first violated SRI is added and active, the labeling algorithms with the original and improved dominance rules produce a completely different series of pricing iterations. From this point on, the pricing iterations produced by the two labeling algorithms are no longer directly comparable. We master this complication in the following way:

- We always run the original and the improved labeling algorithm on identical SPPRC pricing instances, i.e., with exactly the same input in the form of identical dual values. Only the routes that are computed by one of the two labeling algorithms are added to the RMP. Without loss of generality, we take the routes from the improved labeling algorithm.
- We also observed that measured computation times (we use the precise `chrono` STL library of C++) differ depending on whether the original or the improved labeling algorithm is solved first or second. This effect is not fully understood by us, but may be explained with effects that memory allocation and deallocation have on modern PCs. However, we also observed that the recorded computation times become very stable when the exactly same algorithm is called a second time. Therefore, we twice solve the same SPPRC

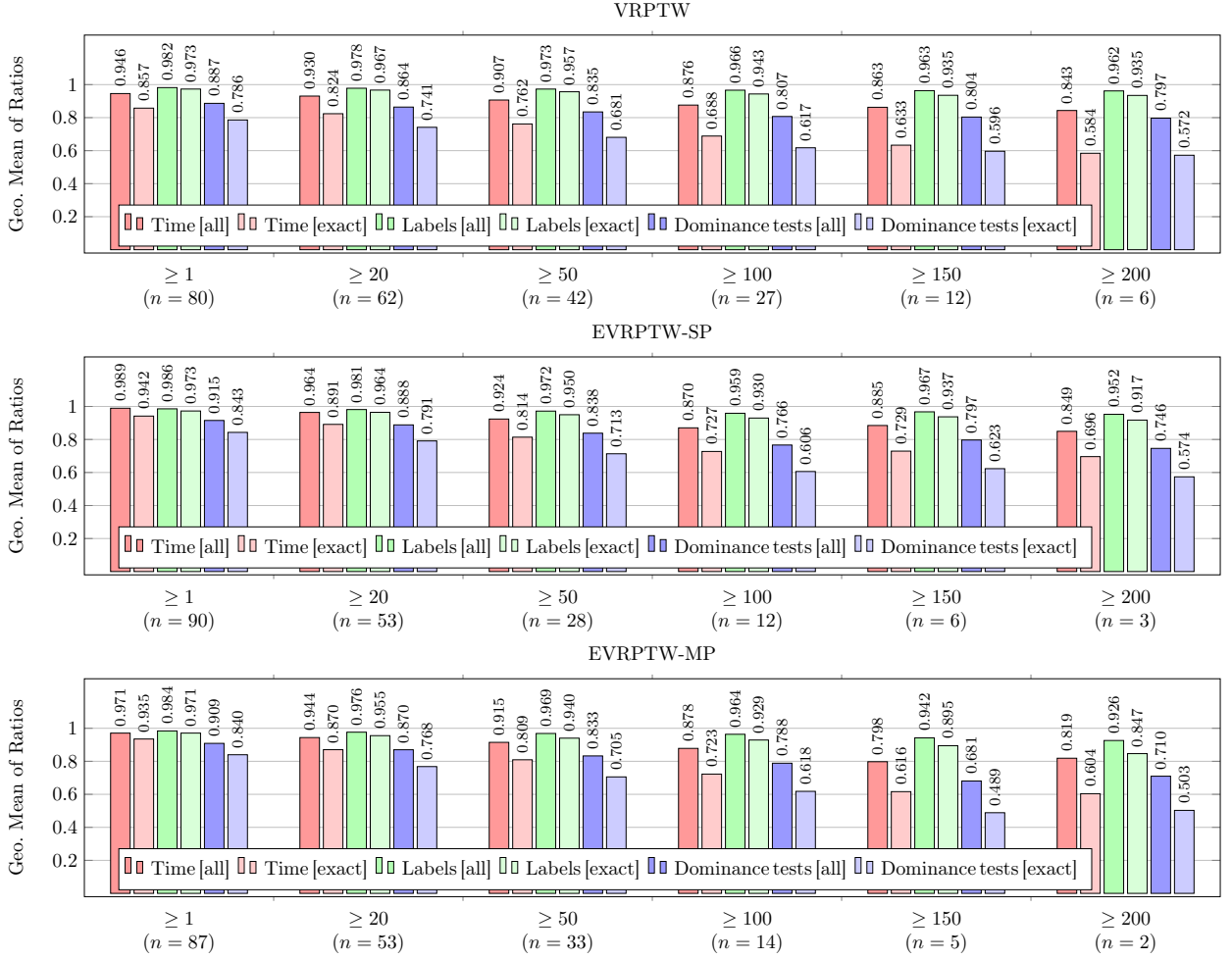


Figure 1: Geometric mean of the computation time ratios, number of generated labels, and number of dominance tests performed; we distinguish between all pricing iterations (partial and exact: [all]) and iterations with exact pricing using the complete network ([exact]); results are grouped by $\geq n_{SRI}$ where only instances for which the total number of added SRIs is at least n_{SRI} are considered.

instance (defined by identical dual values) with the original labeling algorithm and twice with the improved labeling algorithm. Recorded computation times are those from the second and fourth call.

- We compensate the increased computational effort (solving each pricing problem four times) by extending the standard computation time limit of 2 hour to 8 hours.
- For better comparison and reproducibility, full memory and no arc fixing is used.
- For the VRPTW, the *load* resource is often not binding and therefore the improved dominance considers only the *time* resource with the set of unreachable vertices U_i^{time} , see Eq. (8).
- The same is true for the EVRPTW variants. Therefore, the improved dominance considers both the attribute *time* with the set of unreachable vertices U_i^{tMin} (Eq. (13)) and *battery* resource with the set of unreachable vertices $U_i^{battery}$ (Eq. (14)).

Figure 1 summarizes the comparison of the original and improved dominance rule in the form of geometric means of the following criteria:

Time: The ratio of the computation times of the labeling algorithm equipped with the improved and the original dominance rule;

Labels: the ratio of the number of generated labels;

Dominance tests: the ratio of the number of dominance tests that have been performed.

We distinguish between:

all: All calls to the labeling algorithm are taken into account (partial pricing using arc-reduced networks and exact pricing using complete networks);

exact: Only calls to the labeling algorithm using the complete networks are considered.

Note that the latter filtering step focusses on the more difficult SPPRC subproblems that require, in comparison, substantially longer computation times. The combination with the above three criteria with *all* and *exact* gives six ratios displayed in different colors in the bar charts of Figure 1.

The geometric means of all ratios are first computed per instances. Afterwards, geometric means are computed for the VRPTW, EVRPTW-SP, and EVRPTW-MP subsets. For analyzing the impact of the number n_{SRI} of SRIs, we filter over instances that have at least 1, 20, 50, 100, 150, and 200 SRIs in the RMP. The resulting number of instances is indicated as ‘($n = \square$)’.

All average ratios are strictly smaller than one showing that the improved dominance is always beneficial. For each of the $18 = 3 \cdot 6$ groups, the decrease in the number of dominance comparisons is larger than the decrease in computation time. In turn, the decrease in computation time is larger than the decrease in the number of generated labels. This is intuitive, since the computational effort is expected to be linear in the number of labels, while the number of dominance comparisons is quadratic in the number of labels. Dominance testing is responsible for a large share of the consumed computation time but other steps such as label generation, label extension, and memory management also contribute. This explains why results are even better regarding the number of dominance tests compared to SPPRC computation times.

Figure 1 also shows that effects are always more pronounced for increasing values of n_{SRI} . Likewise, effects are more pronounced for *exact* and less for *all*. This means that the improved dominance is more helpful for more difficult and more time-consuming SPPRC subproblems. It is noticeable that these results are consistent over all 18 groups. In the best case, i.e., for VRPTW, $n_{SRI} \geq 200$, and *exact*, the SPPRC computation times drop below 60% on average. For the EVRPTW-SP the computation time drops to 69.6% and for the EVRPTW-MP to 60.4% compared to the respective BPC algorithms that use the original dominance.

5.2. Selection of Attributes in EVRPTW Variants

For the EVRPTW variants with partial recharging, different combinations of the set of unreachable vertices U_i^{load} for the *load* attribute, U_i^{tMin} (Eq. (13)) for the *time* attribute, and $U_i^{battery}$ (Eq. (14)) for the *battery* attribute could be compared. The vehicle capacity is hardly binding in the Solomon-based instances. Thus, it is not promising to consider the *load* attribute for unreachability (this was also confirmed in pretests). Instead, we consider the *time* attribute and the combination of the attributes *time* and *battery* (referred to as *time+bat* in the following). For the comparison, the two EVRPTW variants (MP and SP) and the two SRI memory variants (full and limited) are each tested with the two versions *time* and *time+bat* of defining unreachable customers. Table 4 summarizes the results in the form of aggregate indicators that have the following meaning:

#opt: Number of instances solved to optimality within the time limit;

#faster: Number of instances for which the BPC using attribute *time* or the combination of the attributes *time+bat* is faster than the respective counterpart;

BPC time: Average computation time in seconds of the BPC algorithm (unsolved instances are counted with 7200 seconds);

#SRIs: Average number of SRIs added to the RMP;

% time prep.+cutting: Relative time spent with preparation (computation of the sets U_i^{time} and, for *time+bat*, of the sets $U_i^{battery}$) as well as the time for SRI separation in percent;

Comparing the BPC runs using the improved dominance with either *time* or *time+bat*, the average number of SRIs added to the RMP is very similar (differing by less than two percent) in the corresponding cases (MP/SP and full/limited). Therefore, the significantly higher percentage of the BPC time spent in SRI-related computations found for *time+bat* can only be explained with the additional computational efforts of computing the sets $U_i^{battery}$: These computations approximately double the values *% time prep.+cutting*.

Attributes	Variant SRI memory	EVRPTW-SP ($n = 90$)		EVRPTW-MP ($n = 87$)	
		full	limited	full	limited
<i>time</i>	#opt	88	89	86	87
	#faster	66	57	59	59
	BPC time	316.5	293.6	313.9	295.6
	#SRIs	45.5	81.0	51.0	88.4
	% time prep.+cutting	3.9	6.8	2.5	4.6
<i>time+bat</i>	#opt	88	88	87	87
	#faster	21	21	30	28
	BPC time	327.4	295.3	318.3	298.0
	#SRIs	45.3	82.2	51.0	88.8
	% time prep.+cutting	7.7	12.6	4.4	8.1

Note: Better values are highlighted in **bold**.

Table 4: Comparison of BPC algorithms using the improved dominance with either the *time* attribute alone or with the combination of *time* and *battery* attributes (*time+bat*).

While the SRI-related computation time accounts for between 2.5 and 12.6 percent of the total BPC time, the differences of the *BPC times* are rather small in the corresponding cases (approx. 3.5 percent for SP/full and less than 1.5 percent in the three other cases). Therefore, the increased computational effort for computing the sets $U_i^{battery}$ in the BPC with *time+bat* is compensated by a slightly stronger improved dominance. However, the indicator values *#faster* show that the latter effect is not strong enough to make the BPC algorithm using *time+bat* the superior version: The BPC algorithm using *time* is the faster variant in the majority of the cases (66 and 57 of 90 EVRPTW-SP instances as well as 59 of 87 EVRPTW-MP instances).

It should be mentioned also that EVRPTW and VRPTW instances differ strongly in the size of the attribute domains, even if both are Solomon-based: In the VRPTW, travel times are computed as Euclidian distances using rounding with one digit precision. Thus, the domain of the lookup table storing the sets U_i^{time} is relatively small. Comparing the original and improved dominance, the percentage of the solution time that BPC algorithms spend on separation and preprocessing (*% time prep.+cutting*) increases from 1.6 to 2.0 percent (full memory, an average of 78 cuts) and from 1.9 to 2.2 percent (limited memory, an average of 105 cuts). In contrast, EVRPTW travel times have a 100-times higher precision expanding the size of the lookup tables for U_i^{time} and $U_i^{battery}$ by the same factor. As a result, computing and storing their entries requires a reasonably higher amount of the overall BPC time, see Table 4. This also explains the relatively large values of *% time prep.+cutting* in the EVRPTW.

In conclusion, even if the improved dominance in the BPC with *time+bat* is stronger, unreachability for Solomon-based EVRPTW instances should better be based on the *time* attribute alone. For the remainder, we only use the sets U_i^{time} as described in (13) (see Section 4.2).

5.3. BPC Results

Finally, we present the results obtained with the four BPC algorithms (improved and original dominance, full memory and limited memory) for the VRPTW, EVRPTW-SP and EVRPTW-MP. In contrast to the experiments presented in Section 5.1, each run is now completely independent of the others. We impose a time limit of 2 hours (7200 seconds) and allow arc fixing to make the BPC algorithms competitive with state-of-the-art implementations.

The final results are presented with the help of performance profiles (Dolan and Moré, 2002). Given a set of algorithms $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p\}$ ($p = 4$ for our four computational settings), the performance profile $\rho_A(\tau)$ of an algorithm $A \in \mathcal{A}$ describes the ratio of instances that can be solved by A within a factor τ compared to the fastest algorithm, i.e., $\rho_A(\tau) = |\{I \in \mathcal{I} : t_I^A/t_I^* \leq \tau\}| / |\mathcal{I}|$, where \mathcal{I} is the benchmark set, t_I^A

is the computation time of algorithm A when applied to instance $I \in \mathcal{I}$, and t_I^* is the minimal computation time of all algorithms \mathcal{A} solving the instance I . It follows that $\rho_A(1)$ is the percentage of instances for which algorithm A is the fastest. Unsolved instances are taken into account with a time of $t_I^A = \infty$ so that, for large values of τ , $\rho_A(\tau)$ is the percentage of instances solved by A within the time limit (we assume that ∞/∞ gives ∞).

Separate diagrams with performance profiles for the VRPTW, EVRPTW-SP, and EVRPTW-MP are presented in the Figure 2. In all three cases, the BPC algorithms that use the improved dominance are the ones that perform best, i.e., the respective profiles indicate that a larger number of the instances are solved in a time not exceeding the time of fastest algorithm by a factor of τ .

For the VRPTW, the BPC algorithm with improved dominance and a full memory is the one that is the fastest in 42 of the $n = 80$ cases (see $\tau = 1$). However, starting from $\tau = 1.3$, the BPC algorithm with improved dominance and a limited memory solves more instances in the corresponding extended time; it is the only BPC algorithm solving all $n = 80$ VRPTW instances within the time limit (see $\tau > 10$). The point here seems to be that a limited memory is crucial only for some more difficult instances (e.g., instance R209 is not solved with the full memory, but the variants with limited memory solve it within 400 seconds).

For both the EVRPTW-SP and EVRPTW-MP, the BPC algorithms that use a limited memory are clearly inferior. This outcome is somewhat unexpected, but can be explained with the indicator presented in the previous Section 5.2: The limited memory clearly lowers the computational effort per SRI, but it almost doubles the number of generated SRIs on average (see $\#SRIs$ in Table 4). This effect is less pronounced in the VRPTW explaining the inferior performance of the limited-memory BPC variants. It should however be noted that, for the EVRPTW-SP, the BPC algorithms with limited memory solve one more instance (89 instead of 88 of the $n = 90$ instances). Likewise, the BPC algorithm with improved dominance and full memory fails to solve one instance, while all others solve all of the $n = 87$ EVRPTW-MP instances. On the positive side, the profiles for $\tau < 2$, i.e., where the profiles really differ, show that the winning BPC algorithm is the one with the improved dominance and full memory.

6. Conclusions

In this work, we have introduced an acceleration technique for BPC algorithms that use SRIs and a labeling-based solution approach to solve the column-generation subproblems. Essentially, the speedup results from an improved dominance rule for comparing labels. Using the concept of unreachable customers, the improved dominance leads, on average, to a smaller number of labels to store, extend, and compare in the labeling algorithm. This, in turn, accelerates pricing, which consumes most of the computational time of BPC algorithms in vehicle routing (and beyond). For some instances in our testbed, the total BPC computation time is more than halved by using of the improved dominance rules.

From the application side, we have shown how to compute sets of unreachable customers for the standard *load* and *time* resources as we find them in the VRPTW. An example of more complicated resource updates and resource dependencies is the EVRPTW with partial recharging, for which we have shown how to construct sets of unreachable customers with the help of the sum of two attribute values (one for the earliest service start time and the other for the maximum amount to be recharged). Which of the attributes or combinations of attributes is finally used should be decided by computational tests. The reason for this is that using multiple attributes in combination provides stronger improved dominance rules, but the necessary pre-computation of the unreachable customer sets may require a substantial computational effort. For the EVRPTW, we have seen that using a single *time* attribute alone is superior to the more sophisticated attribute combination (with *time* and *battery*). Note that such a result is certainly not generalizable, as it strongly depends on the chosen instance set.

What is generalizable, however, is the principle of improving the SRI-related dominance by considering sets of unreachable customers. We have classified the SRI memories (full and limited, vertex-based or arc-based) as well as the dominance principles (identical completion, subpath completion, and possibly different completion) with respect to their compatibility. The compatible cases cover a wide range of problems from the family of VRPs (Irnich *et al.*, 2014). In summary, there are several points that speak in favor of

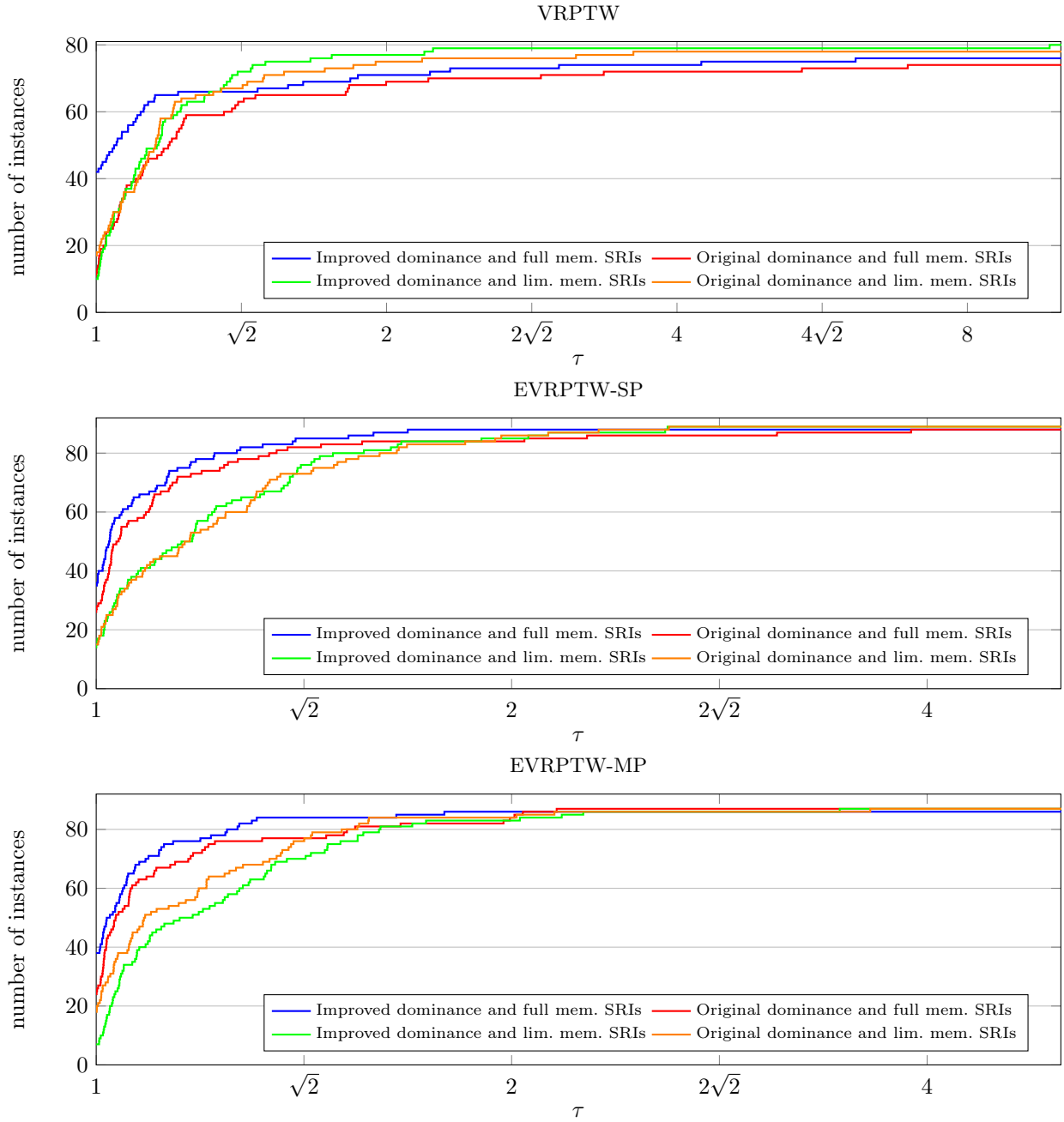


Figure 2: Performance profiles of four BPC algorithms using either the original or improved dominance and either a full or limited memory for SRIs.

improving SRI-related dominance by unreachability: It is widely applicable, the implementation is rather straightforward because it affects a clear-cut and limited component of the BPC algorithm, and it can significantly accelerate the overall solution process.

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