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Résumé de l'article

Consider a project which consists in a set of operations to be performed, assuming the processing time of each operation is at most one time period. In this project, precedence and incompatibility constraints between operations have to be satisfied. The goal is to assign a time period to each operation while minimizing the duration of the whole project and while taking into account all the constraints. Based on the mixed graph coloring model and on an efficient and quick tabu search algorithm for the usual graph coloring problem, we propose a tabu search algorithm as well as a variable neighborhood search heuristic for the considered scheduling problem. We formulate an integer linear program (useful for the CPLEX solver) as well as a greedy procedure for comparison considerations. Numerical results are reported on instances with up to 500 operations.



Solution Methods for a Scheduling Problem with Incompatibility and Precedence Constraints

François-Xavier Meuwly^a Bernard Ries^b Nicolas Zufferey^{c,*}

^aIndependent consultant, Geneva, Switzerland.

^bLAMSADE, Universit Paris Dauphine, Place du Marchal de Lattre de Tassigny, 75775 Paris Cedex 16

^cFaculty of Economics and Social Sciences, HEC - University of Geneva, Uni-Mail, 1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland.

Abstract

Consider a project which consists in a set of operations to be performed, assuming the processing time of each operation is at most one time period. In this project, precedence and incompatibility constraints between operations have to be satisfied. The goal is to assign a time period to each operation while minimizing the duration of the whole project and while taking into account all the constraints. Based on the mixed graph coloring model and on an efficient and quick tabu search algorithm for the usual graph coloring problem, we propose a tabu search algorithm as well as a variable neighborhood search heuristic for the considered scheduling problem. We formulate an integer linear program (useful for the CPLEX solver) as well as a greedy procedure for comparison considerations. Numerical results are reported on instances with up to 500 operations.

Key words: Project Scheduling, Local Search, Mixed Graph Coloring.

1. Introduction

In this paper, we consider a specific problem (P) where a set of operations have to be performed. Each operation has a duration of at most one time period (which can be a day, half a day, etc.). For each operation j , we know the list of all the operations that have to be performed before j (these are called *predecessor operations*), and the list of all the operations that cannot be performed within the same time period as j is (these are called *incompatible operations*). The goal is to assign a time period to each operation, while minimizing the total duration of the project, and satisfying the incompatibility and precedence constraints. Notice that such a problem can be seen as a project management problem or a scheduling problem. For a general project management book with applications to planning and scheduling, the reader is referred to [17]. A review on scheduling models and algorithms is given in [21]. Finally, the reader interested in project scheduling is referred to [5]. One of the goals of this paper is to adapt relevant ingredients from the graph coloring literature to problem (P). We will see that assigning a time period to an op-

eration in problem (P) is equivalent to give a color to a vertex in the mixed graph coloring problem, which is an extension of the famous graph coloring problem. A straightforward idea is therefore to derive appropriate graph coloring approaches to tackle problem (P).

The paper is organized as follows. We formally present the considered problem (P) in Section 2., as well as graph models relevant for (P). In Section 3., we propose a tabu search method for problem (P), derived from an existing graph coloring heuristic. In Section 4., using the proposed tabu search as intensification procedure, we propose a variable neighborhood search for (P). Results are reported and discussed in Section 5., where we also present an integer linear model and a greedy heuristic for comparison purposes. We end up the paper with a conclusion and possible extensions in Section 6..

2. Problem (P) and Graph Coloring Models

In this section, we formulate the considered problem (P), as well as graph models which are appropriate to represent (P). We describe and discuss the well-known graph coloring problem (GCP), and the mixed graph coloring problem ($MGCP$). We see that problem (P) is NP-hard, because of its similarities with the $MGCP$,

* Corresponding author

Email: Bernard Ries [bernard.ries@dauphine.fr], Nicolas Zufferey [nicolas.zufferey-hec@unige.ch].

which is NP-hard too.

Consider a project which consists in a set V of n operations to be performed. Each operation has a duration of at most one time period. For each operation j , we are given a set $Q(j) \subset V$ of incompatible operations. If $j' \in Q(j)$, it means that there is an incompatibility between operations j and j' , i.e., it is not possible to perform both operations j and j' within the same time period. It is obvious that $j' \in Q(j)$ if and only if $j \in Q(j')$. An *incompatibility* constraint, denoted by $[j; j']$, represents for example that the same resource (machines or manpower) is associated with operations j and j' , which means that it is not possible to perform j and j' simultaneously. For each operation j , we are also given a set $R(j) \subset V$ of predecessor operations. If $j' \in R(j)$, it means that operation j' has to be completely performed before j starts. Such a *precedence* constraint is denoted by $(j'; j)$. Note that $R(j)$ only contains the *immediate predecessors* of j , and not all the *predecessors* of j . Suppose for example that $V = \{a, b, c\}$. If for instance a has to be performed before b , and b has to be performed before c , then we set $R(a) = \emptyset$, $R(b) = \{a\}$ and $R(c) = \{b\}$, but not $R(c) = \{a, b\}$. In other words, a is not an immediate predecessor of c . The goal is to assign a time period t to each operation j while minimizing the total duration of the project, and satisfying the incompatibility and precedence constraints.

One can tackle problem (P) as follows. Let $(P^{(k)})$ be the problem of searching for a feasible solution using k time periods. Such a solution can be generated by using a function $per : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\}$. The value $per(j)$ represents the time period assigned to operation j . In order to represent a solution s using k time periods, we associate with each time period $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, a set C_t that contains the set of operations which are performed during time period t . Then s may be denoted by $s = (C_1, \dots, C_k)$. Problem (P) consists in finding a feasible solution s using k time periods with the smallest value of k . Starting with $k = n$, we can tackle problem (P) by solving a series of problems $(P^{(k)})$ with decreasing values of k , and we stop the process when it is not possible to find a feasible solution with k time periods.

The *GCP* is a very famous problem which can be described as follows. Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ with vertex set V and edge set E , and given an integer k , a

k -coloring of G is a function $col : V \rightarrow \{1, \dots, k\}$. The value $col(x)$ is called the *color* of x . Vertices having a same color define a *color class*. If two adjacent vertices x and y (i.e., two vertices x and y which are linked by an edge) have the same color, then vertices x and y are called *incompatible vertices*. A k -coloring without incompatible vertices is said to be *legal*. The *GCP* consists in determining the smallest integer k (called the *chromatic number* of G and denoted by $\chi(G)$) such that there exists a legal k -coloring of G . It is well known that the *GCP* is NP-hard [11]. Given a fixed integer k , one can consider the optimization problem, called $GCP^{(k)}$, which aims to determine a legal k -coloring of G . Starting with $k = |V|$, an upper bound on the chromatic number of G can be determined by solving a series of $GCP^{(k)}$ s with decreasing values of k until no legal k -coloring can be obtained. Many heuristics have been proposed to solve the $GCP^{(k)}$. For a recent survey, the reader is referred to [9]. Currently, no known exact solution method is able to solve all instances with up to 100 vertices [14]. For larger instances, upper bounds on the chromatic number can be obtained by using heuristic algorithms. The best coloring algorithms are proposed in [3,8,10,15,16,18,20,22].

A *mixed graph* $G = (V, E, A)$ is a graph with vertex set V , edge set E , and arc set A . By definition, an edge is not oriented and an arc is an oriented edge. An edge between vertices x and y is denoted by $[x; y]$, whereas an arc from x to y is denoted by $(x; y)$. The *MGCP* has not been paid much attention in the literature. As for the *GCP*, the goal is to assign a color to every vertex while using a minimum number of colors and satisfying the incompatibility constraints (i.e., two adjacent vertices must get different colors). But, in addition, for every arc $(x; y)$, we have to respect the precedence constraint $col(x) < col(y)$. Notice that for a solution to exist, the mixed graph G must not contain any circuit. There currently exists no general heuristic for the *MGCP*. For more information on the *MGCP* concerning optimal coloring of specific classes of mixed graphs and computational complexity results, the reader is referred to [6,7,13,23–27]. For specific scheduling applications of the mixed graph coloring problem, the reader is referred to [1,28]. From now on, we say that there is a *conflict* between vertices x and y if one of the following condition is true: (1) $y \in Q(x)$ and $col(x) = col(y)$; (2) $y \in R(x)$ and $col(x) \leq col(y)$. In both cases, x and y are *conflicting vertices*. In case (1), the conflict occurs on edge $[x; y]$,

and in case (2), it occurs on arc $(x; y)$.

We can now obviously notice the similarities between problems (P) and the $MGCP$. From the input data of problem (P) , we can construct a mixed graph $G = (V, E, A)$ as follows. We associate a vertex $j \in V$ with each operation j , an edge $[j; j'] \in E$ with each $j' \in Q(j)$ (but not more than one edge between two vertices), and an arc $(j''; j) \in A$ with each $j'' \in R(j)$. In addition, we can associate a color t with each time period t . Coloring G with k colors while trying to minimize the number of conflicts is equivalent to assigning a time period $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ to each operation while trying to minimize the number of violations of incompatibility and precedence constraints. Because the GCP is NP-hard [11], the $MGCP$ is NP-hard too and thus we can deduce that (P) is also NP-hard. Therefore, the use of heuristics instead of exact methods is appropriate to tackle (P) . From now on, we will indifferently use the scheduling terminology (e.g., operations, time periods) and the graph terminology (e.g., vertices, colors).

Before designing any heuristic for problem $(P^{(k)})$, we propose the following technique to reduce the set of possible colors (time periods) for each vertex (operation). A *path* consists of a set of adjacent arcs $(j_1; j_2), (j_2; j_3), \dots, (j_{p-2}; j_{p-1}), (j_{p-1}; j_p)$ such that $j_{i_1} \neq j_{i_2}$ if $i_1 \neq i_2$. For example $(a; b), (b; c)$ is a path but not $(a; b), (c; b)$. Suppose we would like to color the mixed graph G consisting of a path $(a; b), (b; c)$. Working with $k = 4$ colors and starting with an empty solution (no vertex is colored), if we first give color 4 to vertex a , it is then impossible to find a legal color for vertices b and c , because more than four colors would be needed. Thus, color 4 can never be considered for vertex a in such a case. More generally, we propose to reduce the solution space as follows. The *length* of a path M from x to y is the number of arcs in M . Let $InRank(j)$ be the number of vertices belonging to a longest path ending at vertex j , and $OutRank(j)$ be the number of vertices belonging to a longest path starting at vertex j . If we have k colors available, we can then associate a set $FC(j) = \{InRank(j), InRank(j) + 1, \dots, k - OutRank(j) + 1\}$ of *feasible colors* with each vertex j . Note that the considered values of k must of course be larger than the length of a longest path in G . In the above example, we have $FC(a) = \{1, 2\}$, $FC(b) = \{2, 3\}$ and $FC(c) = \{3, 4\}$.

In the next two sections, we propose three heuristics

and we adapt them to tackle problem (P) by solving a series of $(P^{(k)})$ problems.

3. Presentation of Tabu- (P)

In this section, we mainly describe an existing tabu search heuristic for the GCP , namely Partialcol [3], and we adapt it to tackle problem $(P^{(k)})$. The resulting heuristic is called Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$.

3.1. Tabu Search

A basic version of tabu search can be described as follows. Let f be an objective function which has to be minimized over the solution space S . At each step, a neighbor solution s' is generated from the current solution s by performing a specific modification on s , called a *move*. All solutions obtained from s by performing a move are called *neighbor* solutions of s . The set of all the neighbor solutions of s is denoted $N(s)$. First, tabu search needs an initial solution $s_0 \in S$ as input. Then, the algorithm generates a sequence of solutions s_1, s_2, \dots in the search space S such that $s_{r+1} \in N(s_r)$. When a move is performed from s_r to s_{r+1} , the inverse of that move is stored in a *tabu list* L . During the following t iterations, where t is the *tabu tenure* (also called *tabu list length*), a move stays *tabu* and cannot be used (with some exceptions) to generate a neighbor solution. The solution s_{r+1} is computed as $s_{r+1} = \arg \min_{s \in N'(s_r)} f(s)$, where $N'(s)$ is a subset of $N(s)$ containing all solutions s' which can be obtained from s either by performing a move that is not in L (i.e., not tabu) or such that $f(s') < f(s^*)$, where s^* is the best solution encountered along the search so far. The process is stopped for example when an optimal solution is found (when it is known), or when a fixed number of iterations have been performed. Many variants and extensions of this basic algorithm can be found for example in [12].

3.2. Partialcol

Partialcol is an efficient, simple and robust tabu search for the $GCP^{(k)}$ [3]. Thus it is not surprising that it is used as an intensification procedure in some of the best coloring algorithms (e.g., [18,22]). Because tabu search is the key ingredient of the best methods for $GCP^{(k)}$ [9], it seems straightforward to propose a tabu search method for problem $(P^{(k)})$. In Partialcol [3], the authors consider the set of *partial legal k-colorings* which

are defined as legal k -colorings of a subset of vertices of G . Such colorings can be represented by a partition of the vertex set into $k+1$ subsets C_1, \dots, C_{k+1} , where C_1, \dots, C_k are k disjoint and legal color classes, and C_{k+1} is the set of non colored vertices. The objective is to minimize the number of vertices in C_{k+1} , i.e., the number of non colored vertices. A neighbor solution s' can be obtained from the current solution s by moving a vertex x from C_{k+1} to a color class C_t (with $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$), and by moving to C_{k+1} each vertex in C_t that is adjacent to x . When such a move is performed, it is then tabu to move x back to C_{k+1} during $\text{UNIFORM}(0, 9) + 0.6 \cdot n_c$ iterations, where n_c is the number of vertices in C_{k+1} of s , and $\text{UNIFORM}(a; b)$ is a function generating an integer number in the set $\{a, a+1, \dots, b-1, b\}$ (assuming $a < b$). Notice that: (1) more sophisticated ways of managing the tabu tenures are also proposed in [3]; (2) a variable neighborhood search already exists for the GCP [2], which is almost as efficient as Partialcol, but it needs more time to be competitive and it is much more complicated, we will thus not focus on such a method.

3.3. Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$

In order to derive Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ from Partialcol, we mainly have to define the search space, the neighborhood structure (i.e. the nature of a move), the objective function to minimize, and the way to manage the tabu tenures.

Search space. In Partialcol, the search space is the set of partial but legal k -colorings of V , and the objective function to minimize is the number of non colored vertices. Thus, any solution s can be denoted by $s = \{C_1, \dots, C_{k+1}\}$, where C_1, \dots, C_k are k disjoint color classes without conflicts, and C_{k+1} is the set of non colored vertices. Similarly to Partialcol, in Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$, the search space is the set of partial but legal solutions of $(P^{(k)})$, and the objective function f to minimize is the number of operations without an associated time period. Formally, any solution s can be denoted by $s = \{C_1, \dots, C_{k+1}\}$, where C_t (with $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$) is the set of operations performed at time period t (without the occurrence of any conflict), and $|C_{k+1}|$ has to be minimized (all the vertices without a time period are in C_{k+1}).

Note however that any solution s of the above proposed solution space cannot necessarily be completed into a legal solution for the whole graph.

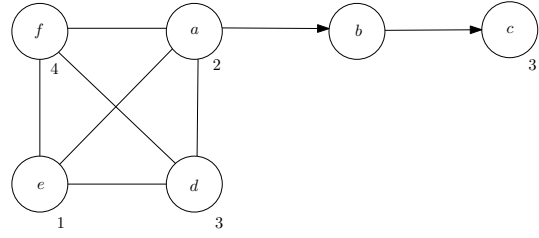


Fig. 1. Partial solution without any conflict which cannot be completed into a legal 4-coloring.

Working with $k = 4$ colors, suppose for example that graph $G = (V, E, A)$ contains a path $(a; b), (b; c)$, as well as a set of pairwise adjacent vertices $\{a, d, e, f\}$, as illustrated in Figure 1. Thus we have $FC(a) = \{1, 2\}, FC(b) = \{2, 3\}, FC(c) = \{3, 4\}, FC(d) = FC(e) = FC(f) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. In such a situation, partial solution $s = \{C_1 = \{e\}, C_2 = \{a\}, C_3 = \{c, d\}, C_4 = \{f\}, C_5 = \{b\}\}$ does not contain any conflicting vertex in C_t , for $0 < t < 5$, but it cannot be completed into a legal solution of the whole graph, because it is impossible to find a feasible solution with $per(a) = 2$ and $per(c) = 3$.

Neighborhood structure. In Partialcol, a move consists in giving a color to an uncolored vertex. If it generates conflicting vertices, these vertices will then be uncolored at the end of the move. In Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$, a move consists in assigning a time period to an operation without an associated time period. If it creates conflicting operations, we remove their associated time periods (i.e., we put such conflicting vertices into C_{k+1}).

Objective functions. In Partialcol, when we color a vertex, we put the created conflicting vertices in C_{k+1} . Thus, we try to minimize $|C_{k+1}|$. In problem $(P^{(k)})$, the objective function f to minimize is also $|C_{k+1}|$. Note that if $|C_{k+1}| = 0$, it means that a feasible solution has been found with k periods, and we can restart the process with $k - 1$ periods, and so on until no feasible solution is found. Then, the provided number of periods will be the last number for which a feasible solution has been found.

Let s be the current solution. Notice that f may give the same value to several candidate neighbor solutions of s , i.e., several ties are encountered. At each iteration, in order to better discriminate the choice of a neighbor solution, we propose to use another objective function g instead of f (thus, g is only used to evaluate candidate neighbor solutions). More precisely, a conflict can

be due to an incompatibility constraint violation or to a precedence constraint violation. We observed that it is better to give different weights to these two types of conflicts. Given a partial solution $s = \{C_1, \dots, C_{k+1}\}$, an operation $j \in C_{k+1}$ and a time period $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, we set

$$A(j, t) = \{j' \in V \mid \exists \text{ edge } [j; j'] \text{ such that } per(j') = t\}$$

$$B(j, t) = \{j' \in V \mid \{\exists \text{ arc } (j; j') \text{ such that } t \geq per(j')\}$$

$$\text{OR } \{\exists \text{ arc } (j'; j) \text{ such that } per(j') \geq t\}\}$$

In other words, $A(j, t)$ is the set of incompatible operations which are put in C_{k+1} if we associate time period t with operation j , and $B(j, t)$ is the set of operations, involved in precedence constraint violations, which are put in C_{k+1} if we associate time period t with operation j . At each step of Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$, we perform the move which minimizes $g(j, t) = \alpha \cdot |A(j, t)| + \beta \cdot |B(j, t)|$, where α and β are parameters. Preliminary experiments showed that $\alpha = 4$ and $\beta = 1$ is a reasonable parameter setting. With such an objective function g , it is very quick to evaluate a neighbor solution. In order to generate a neighbor solution s' from the current solution s , suppose for example that we move j from C_{k+1} to C_t (with $t \in \{1, \dots, k\}$), but we have to move j_1 from C_t to C_{k+1} because of an incompatibility constraint violation, and j_2 and j_3 from $C_{t'}$ to C_{k+1} (with $t' \in \{1, \dots, k\}$) because of precedence constraint violations. It is then easy to evaluate the value of such a move based on a weighted number of vertices which are put in C_{k+1} . In the above case, the evaluation is $g(j, t) = \alpha \cdot 1 + \beta \cdot 2$.

Tabu tenures. Similarly to Partialcol, when we assign a time period to an operation j , it is then tabu to remove this associated time period from j during a certain number of iterations. At each iteration, we determine the best (according to function g) neighbor s' of the current solution s (ties are broken randomly) such that either s' is a non-tabu solution, or $f(s') < f^*$, where f^* is the value of the best solution s^* encountered so far during the search. If operation j is removed from C_{k+1} when switching from the current solution s to the neighbor solution s' , as proposed in [3] and [8], it is forbidden to put j back into C_{k+1} during $tab(j) = \text{UNIFORM}(0; 9) + 0.6 \cdot n_c$ iterations, where n_c is the number of conflicts in the current solution s . Note that we tested more refined ways of managing the tabu tenures, which did not lead to better results. Thus, we decided to keep $tab(j)$ as above.

Algorithm 1. Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$

Input: set of operations, incompatibility and precedence constraints;

Initialization

- (1) generate an initial solution s (randomly or by putting all the operations in C_{k+1});
- (2) set $s^* = s$ and $f^* = f(s)$;
- (3) set $Iter = 0$ (iteration counter);

While a stopping condition is not met, do:

- (1) update the iteration counter: set $Iter = Iter + 1$;
- (2) generate the set D of all non tabu candidate neighbor solutions obtained from s by assigning a time period to $j \in C_{k+1}$, $\forall j$ (exception: D can contain tabu solutions if such solutions have values smaller than f^*);
- (3) set s' as the solution of D minimizing function g (break ties randomly); suppose we generate s' from s by assigning a time period to operation j ;
- (4) update the best solution: if $f(s') < f^*$, set $f^* = f(s')$ and $s^* = s'$;
- (5) update the tabu status: do not put j in C_{k+1} until iteration $Iter + tab(j)$;
- (6) update the current solution: set $s = s'$;

Output: solution s^* with value f^* ;

We have now all the ingredients to formulate Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ in Algorithm 1.

4. Presentation of VNS- (P)

In this section, we describe a basic version of the usual variable neighborhood search (VNS) and we adapt it to problem $(P^{(k)})$. The resulting method is called VNS- $(P^{(k)})$, and uses Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ as intensification procedure.

A basic version of VNS [19] can be described as follows. Let $N^{(i)}$ ($i = 1; \dots; i_{max}$) denote a finite set of neighborhoods, where $N^{(i)}(s)$ is the set of solutions in the i^{th} neighborhood of s . Most local search methods use only one type of neighborhood, i.e., $i_{max} = 1$. The basic VNS, which is described in Algorithm 2, tries to avoid being trapped in local minima with the help of more than one neighborhood.

For the considered problem $(P^{(k)})$, based on preliminary experiments, we propose the following: (1) use

Algorithm 2. Variable Neighborhood Search

Input: neighborhood structures $N^{(i)}$ ($i = i_{min}, \dots, i_{max}$);

Initialization: generate an initial solution s and set $i = i_{min}$;

While a stopping condition is not met, do:

- (1) *Shaking.* Generate a solution s' in the i^{th} neighborhood of s , i.e. $s' \in N^{(i)}(s)$.
- (2) *Local search.* Apply some local search method during I iterations with s' as initial solution; let s'' be the so obtained local optimum.
- (3) *Move or not.* If s'' is better than the incumbent s , move there (i.e., set $s = s''$), and continue the search with $N^{(i_{min})}$ (i.e., set $i = i_{min}$); otherwise set $i = \max\{i_{min}; (i \bmod i_{max}) + 1\}$.

Output: best encountered solution during the search.

$i_{min} = 2$ and $i_{max} = 5$; (2) in step (1) of the main loop, generate s' as the best solution among 10 randomly chosen solutions in $N^{(i)}(s)$; (3) the used local search is Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ with $I = 100,000$.

Therefore, we now mainly have to design different neighborhood structures. We need additional terminology. Recall that a *conflict* occurs between two adjacent vertices x and y if an incompatibility or a precedence constraint is violated. In such a case, x and y are *conflicting vertices*. We propose to extend the definition of a conflict as follows. For $i \geq 2$, we say that an i -*conflict* occurs between vertices x and y if at least one of the following condition is true: (1) there exists a path of length i from x to y such that $col(x) + i > col(y)$; (2) there exists a path of length i from y to x such that $col(y) + i > col(x)$. In such a case, vertices x and y are i -*conflicting vertices*.

In the neighborhood structure $N^{(1)}$, which is already used in Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$, if we perform a move consisting in giving a color to a vertex x , we remove the colors of all conflicting vertices, which are necessarily in the set of adjacent vertices to x . For $i \geq 2$, we define the neighborhood structure $N^{(i)}(s)$ of a current solution s as the set of solutions which can be obtained from s by giving a color to a vertex x , while removing the color of all conflicting and r -conflicting vertices, with $2 \leq r \leq i$. Neighborhood $N^{(3)}(s)$ is illustrated in Figure 2.

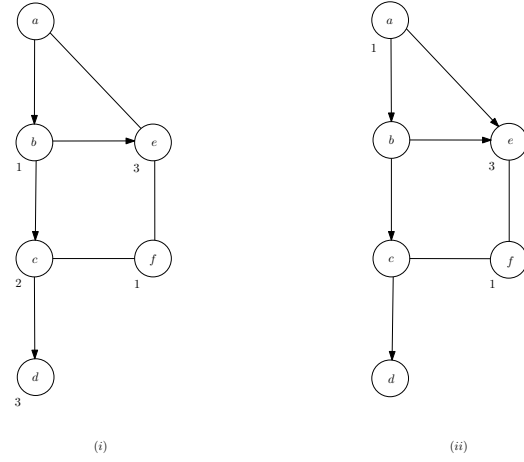


Fig. 2. (i) A partial legal solution s . (ii) A neighbor solution s' in $N^{(3)}(s)$ obtained by assigning time period 1 to operation a .

5. Obtained results

In this section, we first propose a method which will be compared to our heuristics. Then we describe the way we generated instances. Finally, we present and discuss the obtained results.

5.1. Considered Methods for Numerical Comparisons

We propose now an integer linear program as well as a greedy algorithm.

The integer linear model associated with the *MGCP* is the following. Let $G = (V, E, A)$ be a mixed graph with $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, E being the edge set and A being the arc set. Let $C = \{1, \dots, k\}$ be the set of available colors. Let us define the following variables. For all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, we set $x_{ij} = 1$ if vertex v_i gets color j and $x_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. For all $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, we set $z_j = 1$ if at least one vertex gets color j and $z_j = 0$ otherwise. The mixed graph coloring problem can be defined as follows. The objective function to minimize is $\sum_{i=1}^k z_i$, and the constraints to satisfy are:

Table 1

Graph	V	k*	d	d	Greedy	Tabu	VNS
DSJC250.1	250	8	0.1	0.001	9 (5)	8 (5)	8 (5)
				0.002	9 (5)	8 (5)	8 (5)
				0.003	9 (5)	8 (5)	8 (5)
				0.005	9 (5)	8 (5)	8 (5)
				0.01	9 (5)	8 (5)	8 (5)
				0.05	13 (5)	13 (5)	13 (5)
				0.1	30 (5)	30 (5)	30 (5)
DSJC250.5	250	28	0.5	0.001	34 (5)	29 (5)	29 (5)
				0.002	35 (5)	29 (4)	29 (3)
				0.003	35 (5)	30 (5)	29 (2)
				0.005	36 (5)	30 (1)	31 (4)
				0.01	39 (5)	35 (5)	38 (1)
DSJC250.9	250	72	0.9	0.001	84 (5)	72 (2)	72 (4)
				0.002	84 (5)	73 (1)	73 (3)
				0.003	87 (5)	74 (4)	74 (3)
				0.005	89 (5)	78 (5)	82 (3)
				0.01	95 (5)	91 (2)	97 (1)
DSJR500.1	500	12	0.03	0.001	12 (5)	12 (5)	12 (5)
				0.002	12 (5)	12 (5)	12 (5)
				0.003	12 (5)	12 (5)	12 (5)
				0.005	12 (5)	12 (5)	12 (5)
				0.01	12 (5)	12 (5)	12 (5)
				0.1	19 (5)	19 (5)	19 (5)
DSJR500.1c	500	85	0.97	0.001	103 (5)	95 (1)	98 (2)
				0.002	113 (5)	109 (2)	109 (1)
				0.003	132 (5)	127 (2)	135 (1)
				0.005	183 (5)	187 (1)	186 (1)
				0.01	279 (5)	285 (3)	285 (4)
DSJR500.5	500	122	0.47	0.001	127 (5)	126 (3)	127 (3)
				0.002	130 (5)	127 (2)	129 (4)
				0.003	132 (5)	127 (2)	129 (4)
				0.005	137 (5)	132 (5)	138 (1)
				0.01	146 (5)	149 (1)	148 (2)

Results of the heuristics on the DSJC and DSJR graphs

$$x_{i_1j} + x_{i_2j} \leq 1 \forall [v_{i_1}; v_{i_2}] \in E, \quad \forall j \in \{1, \dots, k\} \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k x_{ij} = 1 \forall v_i \in V \quad (2)$$

$$x_{ij} \leq z_j \quad \forall v_i \in V, \forall j \in \{1, \dots, k\} \quad (3)$$

$$x_{i_1j_1} + x_{i_2j_2} \leq 1 \quad \forall (v_{i_1}; v_{i_2}) \in A, \quad \forall j_1 \geq j_2, j_1, j_2 \in \{1, \dots, k\} \quad (4)$$

$$x_{ij}, z_j \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall v_i \in V, \forall j \in \{1, \dots, k\} \quad (5)$$

Constraints (1) impose that two vertices linked with an edge must get different colors; constraints (2) impose that each vertex must get exactly one color; constraints (3) are linking constraints; constraints (4) forbid to give a larger color to the start vertex of an arc than to the end vertex of an arc; constraints (5) impose integer values for variables x_{ij} and z_j .

However, even if we use the CPLEX 10.2 MIP Solver (during one hour on the computer mentioned in section 5.), it can only manage very small and instances (up to 50 vertices), which are very easy to tackle with a local

search heuristic. This confirms that the use of heuristics is mandatory and thus no further comparison will be made with exact methods. Note that the same holds for the graph coloring problem: the best exact methods are able to tackle instances with up to 100 vertices, for which a tabu search procedure is able to find the optimal solution in a few seconds.

On the considered instances (with up to 500 vertices), we propose to compare Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ and VNS- $(P^{(k)})$ with a simpler baseline heuristic, which will be a greedy heuristic, denoted Greedy- $(P^{(k)})$, derived from Dsaturn. Dsaturn [4] is a state-of-the-art greedy heuristic for the GCP. First, the *degree* of a vertex x is the number of adjacent vertices to x and the *saturation degree* of a vertex x is the number of different colors that are used by the vertices adjacent to x . Let Z be a set of vertices which is initialized to V . At each step and while $Z \neq \emptyset$, Dsaturn colors one vertex in Z as follows: (1) select a vertex $x \in Z$ with the largest saturation degree (break ties with the largest degree, and then randomly); (2) assign the smallest color to x without creating any conflict, and remove x from Z .

From Dsaturn, it is rather easy to derive a greedy heuris-

Table 2

Graph	$ V $	$\chi(G)$	d	\hat{d}	Greedy	Tabu	VNS
le450_15c	450	15	0.16	0.001	23 (5)	16 (4)	16 (5)
				0.002	23 (5)	17 (4)	17 (2)
				0.003	23 (5)	17 (5)	18 (4)
				0.005	24 (5)	18 (5)	18 (2)
				0.01	25 (5)	21 (5)	22 (4)
le450_15d	450	15	0.17	0.001	23 (5)	16 (4)	17 (5)
				0.002	23 (5)	17 (5)	17 (5)
				0.003	23 (5)	17 (1)	18 (5)
				0.005	24 (5)	18 (5)	18 (2)
				0.01	25 (5)	20 (1)	22 (1)
le450_25c	450	25	0.17	0.001	28 (5)	27 (5)	27 (5)
				0.002	28 (5)	27 (5)	27 (5)
				0.003	28 (5)	27 (2)	27 (4)
				0.005	29 (5)	28 (5)	27 (1)
				0.01	30 (5)	29 (5)	29 (4)
le450_25d	450	25	0.17	0.001	28 (5)	27 (5)	27 (5)
				0.002	28 (5)	27 (4)	27 (5)
				0.003	28 (5)	28 (5)	27 (2)
				0.005	29 (5)	28 (5)	28 (5)
				0.01	30 (5)	29 (5)	29 (4)
flat300_20_0	300	20	0.47	0.001	38 (5)	21 (1)	22 (5)
				0.002	38 (5)	23 (2)	23 (2)
				0.003	39 (5)	25 (2)	26 (3)
				0.005	40 (5)	27 (3)	27 (1)
				0.01	42 (5)	32 (1)	40 (3)
flat300_26_0	300	26	0.48	0.001	39 (5)	27 (5)	27 (3)
				0.002	39 (5)	28 (3)	28 (1)
				0.003	40 (5)	31 (5)	30 (5)
				0.005	41 (5)	34 (4)	35 (1)
				0.01	42 (5)	38 (5)	42 (2)
flat300_28_0	300	28	0.48	0.001	39 (5)	32 (5)	30 (1)
				0.002	39 (5)	33 (5)	33 (5)
				0.003	39 (5)	33 (1)	33 (5)
				0.005	40 (5)	35 (5)	35 (2)
				0.01	44 (5)	40 (1)	45 (1)

Results of the heuristics on the Leighton and flat graphs

Table 3

		Tabu	VNS	Ties
All the 68 instances	smaller k	21	7	40
	larger success rate	11	7	22
13 instances with $d = 0.001$	smaller k	4	1	8
	larger success rate	1	2	5
13 instances with $d = 0.002$	smaller k	1	0	12
	larger success rate	4	2	6
13 instances with $d = 0.003$	smaller k	5	3	5
	larger success rate	1	2	2
13 instances with $d = 0.005$	smaller k	4	2	7
	larger success rate	4	0	3
13 instances with $d = 0.01$	smaller k	7	1	5
	larger success rate	1	1	3
33 instances with d close to 0.1	smaller k	5	2	26
	larger success rate	4	3	19
20 instances with d close to 0.5	smaller k	8	3	9
	larger success rate	5	1	3
10 instances with d close to 0.9	smaller k	4	1	5
	larger success rate	2	3	0

Detailed comparison between Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ and VNS- $(P^{(k)})$

tic for problem $(P^{(k)})$, using only k colors. We change the above step (2) as follows: we assign the smallest color of $FC(x)$ to x without creating any conflict. If no such color exists, we remove x from Z and we put x in C_{k+1} , which is the set of non colored vertices. The quality of a so obtained solution can be measured by $|C_{k+1}|$. If $|C_{k+1}| = 0$, the associated solution is feasible. Otherwise, we only have a partial but legal solution. With such a method, the obtained results were not convincing at all. Thus, we propose the following improvement. In the above step (1), before considering the saturation degrees, we select vertex $x \in Z$ according to the largest *OutRank* (ties are broken randomly). Thus, we start to color the vertices belonging to the longest paths of the considered graph.

In order to have a fair comparison, we use the same stopping condition for all the methods, which is a time limit of $T = 60$ minutes. As Greedy- $(P^{(k)})$ needs much less than 60 minutes to generate a solution, it will be restarted during 60 minutes, and the provided solution will be the best solution encountered during that time.

5.2. Generation of the Instances

In order to generate random mixed graphs from a non oriented graph $G = (V, E)$, we proceed as follows. An edge $[x; y]$ is transformed into an arc with a probability equal to \hat{d} , and if it is the case, it will be transformed into an arc $(x; y)$ or an arc $(y; x)$ with an equal probability. Note that since we do not allow circuits in a mixed graph (otherwise there is no feasible solution), we only perform a transformation of an edge into an arc if the resulting arc does not create any circuit. If it does create a circuit, we then check the reverse orientation. If both orientations create circuits, the considered edge will not be transformed into an arc.

We consider a set of 13 non oriented graphs from the most challenging ones (see [10]) of the DIMACS Challenge (see <ftp://dimacs.rutgers.edu/pub/challenge/graph/>). The orientation density \hat{d} is defined as the proportion of oriented edges. Each of the 13 below mentioned graph is considered with $\hat{d} \in \{0.001, 0.002, 0.003, 0.005, 0.01\}$, which results in 65 instances. In addition, for graphs DSJC250.1 and DSJR500.1, other values in $\{0.05, 0.1\}$ were also considered to better measure the augmentation of the number of required colors to color the graph. We consider four types of graphs:

- The DSJCN.10 · d instances are random graphs with

n vertices a density d , which means that each pair of vertices has a probability of d to form an edge. We choose $n = 250$ and $d \in \{0.1, 0.5, 0.9\}$.

- The DSJR $n.z$ instances are geometric random graphs with n vertices, which are constructed by randomly choosing n points in the unit square and two vertices are connected if they are distant by less than z . Graphs with an added end letter 'c' are the complementary graphs. We choose $n = 500$ and $z \in \{1, 5\}$.
- The flat n_χ -0 instances are structured graphs with n vertices and a chromatic number χ . The end number '0' means that all vertices are adjacent to the same number of vertices. We choose $n = 300$ and $\chi \in \{20, 26, 28\}$.
- The len $_\chi$ - x instances are graphs with n vertices and a chromatic number χ equal to the size of a largest clique (i.e., the largest number of pairwise adjacent vertices). The end letter 'x' stands for different graphs with similar settings. We choose $n = 450$ and $\chi \in \{15, 25\}$.

As such graphs have very different structures, sizes and densities, we believe that if the proposed heuristics perform well on such instances, it will also be the case for other types of instances.

5.3. Presentation of the Results

Our algorithms were implemented in C++ and run on a computer with the following properties: Processor Intel Core2 Duo Processor E6700 (2.66GHz, 4MB Cache, 1066MHz FSB), RAM 2GB DDR2 667 ECC Dual Channel Memory (2x1GB).

The results are presented in Tables 2 for the random DSJC and DSJR graphs, and in Table 3 for the structured Leighton and flat graphs. The five first columns respectively indicate the following information: the name of the graph, the number $|V|$ of vertices, the smallest number of colors k^* for which a legal k^* -coloring was found by a heuristic or the chromatic number $\chi(G)$ if it is known, the density d , and the orientation density \hat{d} . The last three columns respectively indicate the smallest number of colors for which a legal coloring was found by Greedy- $(P^{(k)})$, Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$, and VNS- $(P^{(k)})$, with the number of successes among five runs (i.e. using five different seeds) in brackets. As expected, larger d and \hat{d} values lead to a larger number of used colors.

We can observe on the one hand that Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ and

VNS- $(P^{(k)})$ are better than Greedy- $(P^{(k)})$, which is not surprising: a local search is in general better than a constructive heuristic with restarts. On the other hand, Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ outperforms VNS- $(P^{(k)})$, which is not straightforward to understand: it actually means that the ingredients added to Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ to derive VNS- $(P^{(k)})$ deteriorates its behavior. More precisely, when performing and evaluating a move, i.e. when trying to color a vertex x , it is better to only focus on the vertices adjacent to x rather than to also consider more distant vertices. Therefore, the latter strategy does not help to guide the search and also needs extra computation.

It can be interesting to perform a more accurate comparison between Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ and VNS- $(P^{(k)})$, according to several criterion: the nature of the graph (random or structured), the density d and the orientation density \hat{d} . This can be done based on the information provided in Table 4, which was built from Tables 2 and 3. The overall performance is first given: among the 68 considered instances, Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ found a smaller legal k -coloring 21 times, VNS- $(P^{(k)})$ 7 times, and both methods obtained the same value of k 40 times. For these latter 40 instances, Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ had a better success rate (among five runs) 11 times, VNS- $(P^{(k)})$ 7 times, and both methods obtained the same success rate value 22 times. The same kind of information is then given for the instances with a fixed \hat{d} value (with $\hat{d} \in \{0.001, 0.002, 0.005, 0.01\}$), then for the instances with d close to 0.1 (i.e. the four Leighton graphs, DSJC250.1, and DSJR500.1), the instances with d close to 0.5 (i.e. the three flat instances, DSJC250.5, and DSJR500.5), and finally the instances with d close to 0.9 (i.e. instances DSJC250.9 and DSJR500.1c). We can generally see that the larger d or \hat{d} are (i.e. the more complex the instance is), the better is Tabu- $(P^{(k)})$ when compared to VNS- $(P^{(k)})$.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we tackle a project scheduling problem (P) for which incompatibilities between operations and precedence constraints are considered. The goal is to assign a time period to each operation while minimizing the duration, i.e. the number of time periods, of the project.

We showed that problem (P) can be represented by the mixed graph coloring problem, which is NP-hard. We propose three heuristics to tackle problem (P) : a greedy procedure, a tabu search as well as a variable

neighborhood search.

Among the future work that can be done in that field, we mention two main avenues of research. In the first one, more sophisticated heuristics might be developed to tackle problem (P) . For example, one can derive efficient population based coloring heuristics in order to obtain better heuristics for (P) . In the second research direction, one might design extensions of problem (P) , such as the consideration of a specific duration for each operation, as well as various types of costs.

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