

# 000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 PAML: MOE-BASED PARTITIONING AND MERGING FRAMEWORK FOR SOLVING LARGE-SCALE MULTI- TASK VRPS

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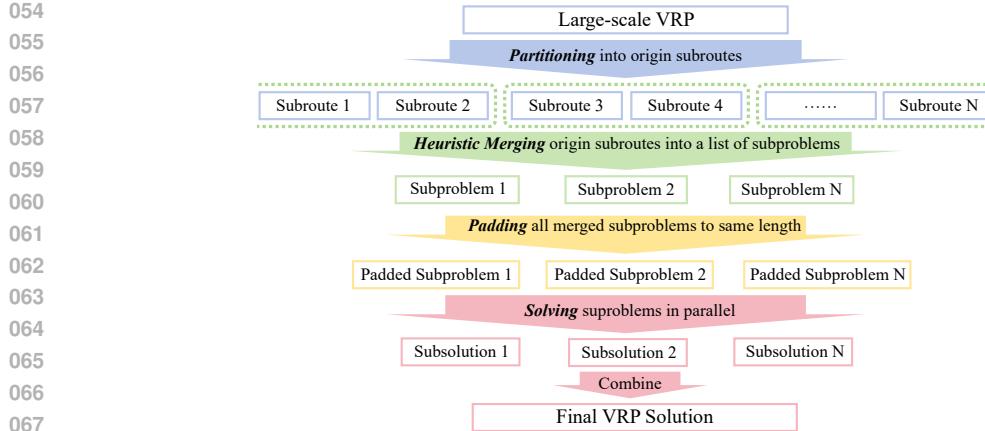
## ABSTRACT

The Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP) serves as a fundamental optimization problem in modern logistics and supply chain management, where efficient solutions to its large-scale multi-task variants are crucial for reducing transportation costs and improving resource allocation efficiency. Although significant progress has been made in intelligent solving approaches for small- and medium-scale VRPs, current methods still face three major limitations when dealing with real-world large-scale multi-task scenarios: 1) Neural heuristic models trained on small-scale datasets struggle to generalize effectively to larger problem instances; 2) The computation time of traditional optimizers grows nonlinearly with problem scale, making them impractical for real-time decision-making; 3) Current solution approaches lack systematic mechanisms to handle the complex interactions and constraints between multiple concurrent tasks in an integrated manner. To address these challenges, this paper proposes the MoE-Based Partitioning and Merging (PAML) framework, with two key innovations: 1) A learnable and scalable implicit partitioner capable of handling multiple VRP variants, which optimizes partitioning strategies through end-to-end reinforcement learning, effectively overcoming training data scale limitations; 2) A dynamic merging mechanism based on polar angle clustering that enables intelligent control of subproblem sizes. This design allows efficient parallel solving of the partitioned VRP subproblems. Experimental results demonstrate that across various synthetic and real-world multi-task VRP variants of different scales, the PAML method shows remarkable improvements over its base solver model: reducing route length by up to 48.71% for 2000-node problems and 20.66% for 1000-node problems. For real-world CVRPLIB instances, PAML achieves a 16.78% reduction in routing distance compared to Multi-Task Vehicle Routing Solver with MoE (MVMoE) while delivering comparable performance to OR-Tools. Remarkably, PAML requires only one-tenth of OR-Tools' computation time (0.95s vs 14.23s on average).

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP), first proposed by Dantzig & Ramser (1959), is a fundamental combinatorial optimization problem in logistics and supply chain management. With increasing complexity of practical scenarios, VRP and its variants (CVRP, VRPTW, VRPB) have become critically important research topics in operations research and artificial intelligence due to their NP-hard characteristics. Traditional optimization methods, including exact algorithms and heuristic/metaheuristic approaches, achieve good results for small-scale VRP instances (Aarts & Jan Karel Lenstra, 2003; Naddef & Rinaldi, 2001; Cordeau et al., 2002), but lack generalization and efficiency in large-scale, multi-task scenarios. In recent years, AI-driven approaches have emerged, with neural heuristics offering end-to-end learning and good generalization. Notable advances include Graph Convolutional Neural Networks (Gasse et al., 2019), attention-based models (Kool et al., 2019), and multi-task architectures like MoE models (Zhou et al., 2024; Shazeer et al., 2017). For detailed reviews and evaluations, see Section Related Work.

Despite these advances, current methods still face significant challenges in large-scale multi-task scenarios: **limited multi-task optimization** capabilities across diverse VRP variants with varying



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Figure 1: Our PAML framework. In the first phase (blue), the learning model splits the large VRP into multiple small primitive subroutes while preserving the original constraints of the VRP, such as capacity, maximum vehicle route length, backhaul demand, etc. Then, in the second stage (green), the primitive subroutes are merged into subproblems according to the constraints. In the third stage (yellow), all merged subproblems are padded to the same number of nodes. In the fourth stage (red), all padded subproblems are solved in parallel.

constraints, **computational inefficiency** for real-time applications due to lengthy solving times, and **poor generalization** from small training instances to large-scale problems due to insufficient global structural understanding.

Given these limitations, we propose: Can we develop an AI-based solving method that adapts to multi-task optimization, maintains high computational efficiency, and demonstrates stronger generalization capabilities? We attempt to achieve this through two key approaches: 1) **Subproblem Partition**: To enhance generalization for large-scale multi-task VRPs, we adopt a partitioning strategy. Inspired by the two-stage division approach of the Two-stage Dividing Method (TAM) (Hou et al., 2023), we decompose a large problem into smaller, manageable multi-task subproblems, enabling parallel and more effective solving. 2) **Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) Solving**: To address the challenges of multi-task optimization, we leverage a Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) architecture. Drawing inspiration from the MVMoE model by Zhou et al. (2024), we use its ability to adaptively handle diverse VRP variants and constraints to solve the partitioned multi-task subproblems.

Based on these ideas, we propose the MoE-Based Partitioning and Merging (PAML) framework. Using a divide-and-conquer strategy, we intelligently decompose large-scale multi-task VRP into smaller subproblems for parallel solving through an MoE-based partitioner. During development, we innovatively introduce a dynamic merging mechanism for intelligent subproblem scale regulation. The method consists of three stages: 1) **Partition**: PAML first employs a deep neural network model based on the MoE architecture to partition VRP nodes into a list of initial subproblems. This model is data-driven and adaptively learned, requiring no preset rules. It is trained end-to-end via reinforcement learning (REINFORCE algorithm) to maximize subsequent solving rewards, with a Greedy Rollout Baseline for training stability. 2) **Merging**: For the divided initial subproblem sequence, PAML then applies heuristic merging strategies based on geometric information (centroids, polar angles relative to depot), merging subproblems according to preset parameters (fixed quantity or target node count). Through this merging process, PAML can dynamically regulate to optimize subproblem scale and quantity, balancing the divided subproblems' ability to preserve global information with their solving complexity. 3) **Parallel Solving**: Finally, the merged subproblems can be solved in parallel using either traditional or AI methods.

The primary contributions of this project include: 1) We developed a **Novel Three-Stage Partition-Merge-and-Solve Framework** specifically designed for large-scale, multi-variant VRPs. It effectively combines deep learning-based implicit partitioning with high-performance multi-task subproblem solving mechanisms, enhancing the capability to solve complex VRP instances. 2) We trained an **Intelligent MoE-based Implicit Partitioner** that has been applied to the task of implicit VRP partitioning. This partitioner, trained via end-to-end reinforcement learning, can adaptively

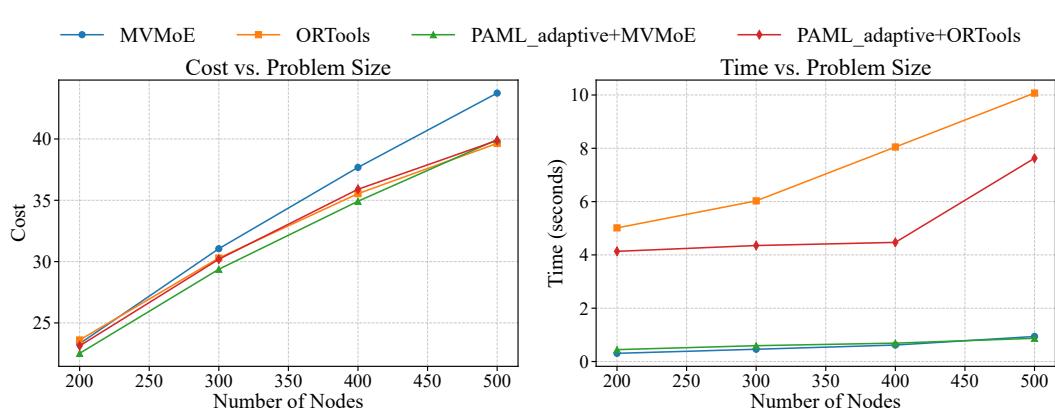
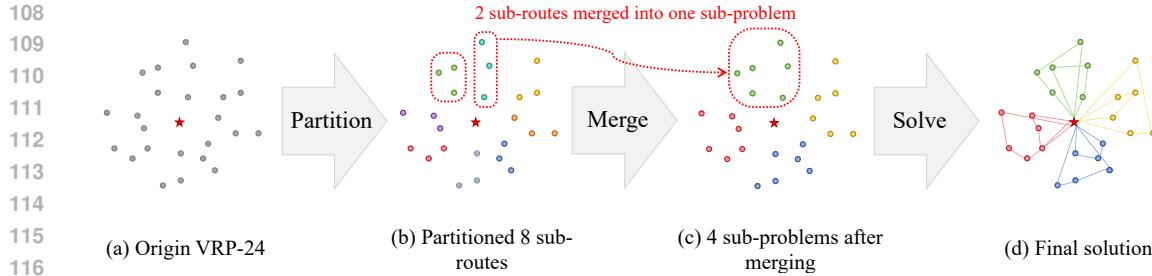


Figure 3: Solving cost (left, smaller is better) and solving time (right, smaller is better) on VRPs of different sizes (200 to 500-nodes) using different methods. We can see that when the size of the VRP is around 200 nodes, the PAML method (PAML\_adaptive+MVMoE), which solves the subproblems using the MVMoE solver, outperforms each of the other methods, and also maintains an advantage in terms of solving speed.

generate high-quality partition sequences based on problem characteristics, eliminating the need for manually designed partitioning rules. 3) We propose and develop a **subproblem merging method**. We have thoroughly studied and experimentally compared various geometrically-informed subproblem merging strategies, and finally identified subproblem merging methods for various multi-task VRPs of various sizes, which can dynamically regulate the size of the solved subproblems. This allows for better matching with the preferred working range of subsequent subproblem solvers, thereby improving overall solving efficiency and solution quality. 4) We have conducted systematic experimental evaluations across multiple datasets (including generated benchmarks and real-world public VRPs), with results demonstrating three key advantages: **Multi-task capability** shows robust generalization across diverse VRP variants through consistent solution quality improvements; **Large-scale performance** achieves significant route length reductions of 3.40% (200-node) and 48.71% (1000-2000 nodes) compared to MVMoE Solver, while matching OR-Tools' solution quality on real-world CVRPLIB instances (100-1000 nodes); and **Computational efficiency** maintains just 10% of OR-Tools' processing time for 200-node problems, delivers 91.20% faster computation for 1000-2000 node problems, and realizes 93.32% time reduction (0.95s vs 14.23s) on real-world cases with equivalent solution quality.

## 2 RELATED WORK

### 2.1 TRADITIONAL METHODS

Early research relied on local search methods (Aarts & Jan Karel Lenstra, 2003), which, while simple, often get trapped in local optima, limiting their effectiveness for complex instances. Branch-

162 and-cut algorithms (Naddef & Rinaldi, 2001) provide exact solutions but suffer from high computational complexity at scale, making them impractical for large problems. Heuristic reviews (Cordeau et al., 2002) cover savings algorithms, sweep methods, and graph-based approaches; these perform well for small instances but prove inefficient for larger, real-world problems due to scalability issues. While effective for small instances, these methods struggle with computational scalability and generalization for modern large-scale VRPs.  
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## 168 2.2 AI METHODS FOR LARGE-SCALE VRP

169 AI techniques have significantly advanced VRP solving through Graph Convolutional Networks  
 170 (Gasse et al., 2019), attention models (Kool et al., 2019), and neural predictors (Accorsi & Vigo,  
 171 2021). Key innovations include Neural Large Neighborhood Search (Chen et al., 2020), learning-to-  
 172 delegate frameworks (Li et al., 2021), TAM’s route decomposition (Hou et al., 2023), and PolyNet’s  
 173 diverse solution learning (Hottung et al., 2024). CaDA (Li et al., 2025b) introduces constraint-  
 174 aware dual-attention for cross-problem VRP solving, achieving state-of-the-art results across 16  
 175 VRP variants through constraint prompts and selective attention mechanisms. While demonstrating  
 176 superior generalization, these methods often require substantial training resources.  
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## 178 2.3 MULTI-TASK VRP PROBLEMS

179 Recent advances in multi-task Vehicle Routing Problems focus on developing integrated architec-  
 180 tures capable of handling multiple constraints and variants. Key approaches include joint attention,  
 181 reinforcement learning, and Mixture-of-Experts models. Joint attention mechanisms capture depen-  
 182 dencies between tasks. Falkner & Schmidt-Thieme (2020) uses joint attention for multi-constraint  
 183 coordination. Reinforcement learning enables dynamic policy adaptation. Delarue et al. (2020)  
 184 demonstrates its robustness in varying scenarios. Mixture-of-Experts models specialize in different  
 185 problem variants; Zhou et al. (2024) proposes a multi-task MoE framework. These methods build  
 186 on foundational work: Shazeer et al. (2017) introduces efficient MoE routing, while Berto et al.  
 187 (2025b) develops a unified Transformer-based platform. The survey by Wu et al. (2025a) categorizes  
 188 paradigms and highlights challenges like generalization and comparison difficulties. Evaluations  
 189 show improved multi-task performance, though expert balancing and training stability remain  
 190 challenges, pointing to future work in adaptive gating and scalable training.  
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## 192 3 PRELIMINARY WORK

### 193 3.1 MARKOV DECISION PROCESS MODEL FOR VRP

194 We model the VRP as a Markov Decision Process (MDP)  $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, R, \gamma)$  where states include node  
 195 positions and constraints, actions select customer nodes, and rewards are negative distances. The  
 196 goal is to maximize expected cumulative reward while respecting capacity and other constraints.  
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198 The policy  $p_\theta(a_t|s_t)$  parameterized by  $\theta$  defines the probability of selecting action  $a_t$  in state  
 199  $s_t$ . For the original VRP with  $n$  nodes, this policy generates a complete solution sequence  
 200  $S = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$  that minimizes the total cost  $\mathcal{C}(S) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} d_{a_i, a_{i+1}}$ , where  $d_{i,j}$  denotes the  
 201 Euclidean distance between node  $i$  and node  $j$ , subject to constraints like  $\sum_{i \in S_k} q_i \leq Q$  for each  
 202 vehicle route  $S_k$ . The full policy is expressed as:  
 203

$$204 p_\theta(S|s) = \prod_{t=1}^n p_\theta(a_t|s_t), \quad (1)$$

205 where the sequence length is fixed to  $n$ . Mathematical formulations are in Appendix B.1.  
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### 207 3.2 TAM AND MVMOE

208 Hou et al. (2023)’s TAM decomposes problems into parallel small-scale TSPs via sequence-to-  
 209 sequence sub-route generation followed by parallel optimization. Zhou et al. (2024)’s MVMOE uses  
 210 MoE gating, multi-task loss, and REINFORCE optimization for multi-variant VRPs. While efficient  
 211 for small instances ( $< 200$  nodes), it degrades on larger problems due to training data limitations.  
 212 Its offline training enables real-time applications like dynamic scheduling. Technical details are in  
 213 Appendix B.2 and B.3.  
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## 4 METHOD

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### 4.1 GENERAL FORMULATION OF PAML

218 In PAML, we reformulate the VRP solving process as a three-stage policy that decomposes the  
 219 problem into subproblems, merges them, and solves them in parallel. The overall policy  $p_\theta(S^*|s)$   
 220 generates a partitioned and merged sequence leading to the best found solution  $S^*$  for the initial  
 221 state  $s$ , where  $\theta$  parameterizes the partitioner. The overall policy is expressed as:

$$223 \quad p_\theta(S^*|s) = p_\theta(\pi|s) \cdot p(\mathcal{M}|\pi) \cdot p(S^*|\mathcal{M}) \quad (2a)$$

224 where

$$225 \quad p_\theta(\pi|s) = \prod_{t=1}^T p_\theta(\pi_t|s_t) \quad (2b)$$

$$226 \quad p(\mathcal{M}|\pi) = \delta(\mathcal{M} = \mu(\zeta(\pi))) \quad (2c)$$

$$227 \quad p(S^*|\mathcal{M}) = \prod_{j=1}^l \delta(S_j^* = \Psi(\mathcal{M}_j)) \quad (2d)$$

228 In these expressions,  $\pi = [\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_T]$  denotes the initial partition sequence with  $T$  steps in-  
 229 cluding separators, and  $s_t$  is the state at step  $t$ ;  $m$  is the number of initial subproblems;  $P_k$  obtained  
 230 by splitting  $\pi$  at separators via  $\mathcal{P} = \zeta(\pi) = [P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m]$ ;  $\mathcal{M} = [\mathcal{M}_1, \mathcal{M}_2, \dots, \mathcal{M}_l]$  is the  
 231 vector of merged subproblems obtained by applying the merging function  $\mu$  to the initial partition  
 232  $\mathcal{P}$ ;  $l$  is the number of merged subproblems;  $S^* = \{S_1^*, S_2^*, \dots, S_l^*\}$  denotes the set of best found  
 233 sub-solutions; and  $S_j^*$  is the best found sub-solution for  $\mathcal{M}_j$  under subproblem solver  $\Psi$ . Here,  
 234  $\delta(\cdot)$  denotes the Kronecker delta function, which equals 1 when the condition inside is satisfied  
 235 and 0 otherwise, representing deterministic operations in the merging and solving stages;  $\zeta(\cdot)$  is the  
 236 splitting function that partitions the sequence at separators; and  $\mu(\cdot)$  is the merging function that  
 237 consolidates the initial subproblems from  $\mathcal{P}$  into a vector of merged subproblems.

238 This formulation evolves the original policy  $p_\theta(S^*|s)$  by introducing decomposition:  $p_\theta(\pi|s)$  pro-  
 239 duces a sequence of nodes interspersed with separators, transforming the fixed-length sequence into  
 240 a variable-length one with delimiters;  $p(\mathcal{M}|\pi)$  combines initial subproblems based on geometric  
 241 heuristics, further adapting the policy to handle grouped subsets; and  $p(S^*|\mathcal{M})$  applies a pre-trained  
 242 solver to each merged subproblem, enabling parallel evaluation.

243 This formulation enables parallel computation and improves generalization by reducing the effective  
 244 problem size while preserving global constraints.

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### 4.2 DETAILED METHODOLOGY

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#### 4.2.1 GENERATING INITIAL SUBPROBLEM SEQUENCE

247 The partitioner generates a sequence  $\pi = [\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_T]$  mixing customer nodes and separator  
 248 tokens (0), where  $T \approx n + n/n_{\text{target}}$ ,  $n_{\text{target}}$  denotes the target subproblem size. The policy becomes:

$$249 \quad p_\theta(\pi|s) = \prod_{t=1}^T p_\theta(\pi_t|s_t), \quad (3)$$

250 with constraint masking:

$$251 \quad \text{Mask}(a_t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \sum_{i \in \mathcal{R}_t} q_i + q_{a_t} \leq Q \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

252 where  $\mathcal{R}_t$  denotes the set of nodes currently assigned to the active route at step  $t$ . Initial subproblems  
 253 are obtained by splitting at separators:  $\mathcal{P} = \zeta(\pi) = [P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m]$ .

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#### 4.2.2 SUBPROBLEM MERGING

255 The merging stage consolidates initial subproblems  $\mathcal{P}$  into  $\mathcal{M} = [\mathcal{M}_1, \mathcal{M}_2, \dots, \mathcal{M}_l]$  using geo-  
 256 metric heuristics. Subproblems are sorted by polar angle  $\alpha_k = \arctan 2(\bar{y}_k - y_{\text{depot}}, \bar{x}_k - x_{\text{depot}})$  relative  
 257 to depot, then merged using either fixed-number or target node count strategies. Here  $(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k)$  de-  
 258 notes the centroid of the  $k$ -th initial subproblem. After merging, the consolidated subproblems  $\mathcal{M}$   
 259 are ready for parallel solving, where each  $\mathcal{M}_j$  will be processed by a pre-trained solver to obtain the  
 260 optimal sub-solution  $S_j^*$ .

270 4.2.3 PARALLEL SOLVING OF MERGED SUBPROBLEMS  
271

272 The merged subproblems  $\mathcal{M}$  are solved in parallel using a pre-trained multi-task solver. For each  
273  $\mathcal{M}_j$  with size  $n_j \approx n_{\text{target}}$ , pad to uniform size if needed and compute the sub-solution  $S_j^*$  that  
274 minimizes the local cost  $\mathcal{C}(S_j^*)$  while satisfying subset constraints. The policy for solving adapts to  
275 subsets:

$$276 \quad p(S^* | \mathcal{M}) = \prod_{j=1}^l \delta(S_j^* = \Psi(\mathcal{M}_j)), \quad (5)$$

277 where  $\Psi$  is a fixed pre-trained solver that deterministically computes the best found solution for each  
278 subproblem  $\mathcal{M}_j$ . The overall solution is the concatenation calculated as:

$$279 \quad S^* = \bigoplus_{j=1}^l S_j^*, \quad (6)$$

280 with total cost:

$$281 \quad \mathcal{C}_{\text{total}}^* = \sum_{j=1}^l \mathcal{C}(S_j^*). \quad (7)$$

288 4.2.4 INFERENCE PIPELINE  
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290 The optimized inference flow (Fig. 2) is: 1) **Partition**: Generate initial sequence  $\pi$  via greedy decoding  
291 with constraint masking. 2) **Merge**: Merge into  $\mathcal{M}$  using target-size strategy ( $n_{\text{target}}$  calibrated  
292 per problem scale in Table 1). 3) **Pad**: Uniform padding for batch processing. 4) **Solve**: Solve all  
293 subproblems in parallel to obtain  $S_j^*$ . 5) **Combine**: Concatenate sub-solutions  $S^* = \bigoplus S_i^*$ .

294 4.2.5 END-TO-END TRAINING OF THE PARTITIONER  
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296 The partitioner parameters  $\theta$  are optimized using REINFORCE with greedy baseline  $\pi^{\text{BL}}$ :

$$297 \quad \nabla J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi \sim p_\theta} [(R(\pi) - R(\pi^{\text{BL}})) \nabla \log p_\theta(\pi)], \quad (8a)$$

298 where

$$300 \quad R(\pi) = - \sum_{j=1}^l \mathcal{C}(S_j^*) + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^l (\beta_{\text{cap}} \mathcal{V}_{\text{cap}}(\mathcal{M}_j) + \beta_{\text{tw}} \mathcal{V}_{\text{tw}}(\mathcal{M}_j) + \beta_{\text{route}} \mathcal{V}_{\text{route}}(\mathcal{M}_j)), \quad (8b)$$

303 with violation terms  $\mathcal{V}_{\text{cap}}(\mathcal{M}_j) = \max(0, \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}_j} q_i - Q)$ ,  $\mathcal{V}_{\text{tw}}(\mathcal{M}_j) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}_j} \max(0, t_i - l_i)$ , and  
304  $\mathcal{V}_{\text{route}}(\mathcal{M}_j) = \max(0, \text{Length}(\mathcal{M}_j) - L_{\text{max}})$  for capacity, time window, and route length constraints  
305 respectively. The total loss incorporates MoE load balancing:

$$306 \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{total}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{RL}} + \lambda_m \mathcal{L}_{\text{MoE}}. \quad (9)$$

308 Here  $\text{Length}(\cdot)$  measures the total route length within a subproblem in the same units as  $\mathcal{C}(\cdot)$ .

310 5 EXPERIMENTS  
311312 5.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP  
313314 5.1.1 DATA GENERATION  
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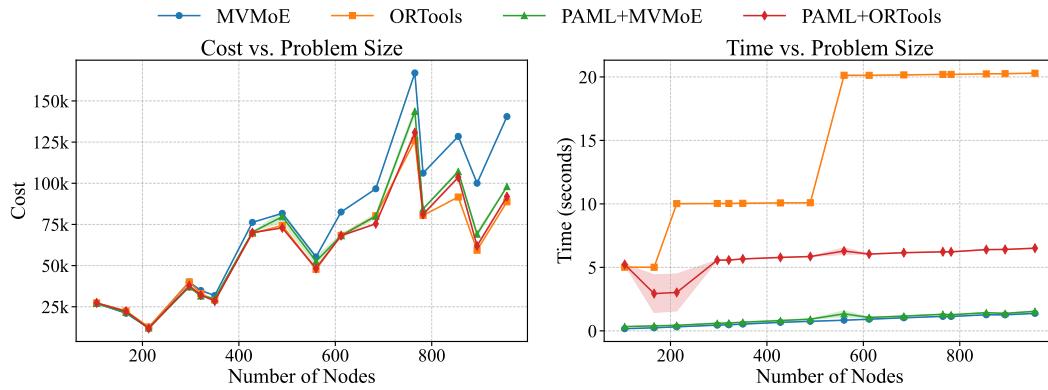
316 The data generation method is designed to cover vehicle routing problem (VRP) variants of varying  
317 scales and complexities to ensure the model’s generalization capability. Taking the classic Ca-  
318 pacitated Vehicle Routing Problem (CVRP) as an example, the data generation process constructs  
319 problem instances using a randomized approach. The geographical locations of nodes are generated  
320 through uniform random sampling. For each problem instance, the depot coordinates are randomly  
321 generated within a two-dimensional unit plane ( $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$ ), while customer node coordinates also  
322 follow a uniform distribution. For problems of different scales (e.g., 20, 50, 100, 200 nodes), the  
323 generator dynamically adjusts the baseline capacity value. For instance, the baseline capacity is set  
324 to 30 for 20-node problems, 40 for 50-node problems, 50 for 100-node problems, and up to 200  
325 for 2000-node problems. As the problem size increases, the baseline capacity is scaled accordingly

324 to ensure an appropriate level of difficulty. Customer demands are normalized by first generating  
 325 random integers between 1 and 10 and then dividing them by the baseline capacity, thereby trans-  
 326 forming demand constraints into continuous values within the  $[0, 1]$  range. For other VRP variants  
 327 (e.g., OVRP, VRPB), the generator extends the randomization logic of CVRP with problem-specific  
 328 constraints. For example, in the Vehicle Routing Problem with Backhauls (VRPB), 20% of cus-  
 329 tomer nodes are randomly selected as backhaul nodes, with their demand values set as negative to  
 330 distinguish them from linehaul deliveries. Additionally, the route length limit is uniformly set to 3.0  
 331 as a global constraint on vehicle travel distance.

### 332 333 5.1.2 BASELINE METHODS AND EVALUATION METRICS

334 We compare our proposed method with several baseline approaches: 1) **MVMoE**: Directly solv-  
 335 ing the full original VRP instance using the MVMoE solver. 2) **OR-Tools**: Solving the complete  
 336 original VRP instance using Google’s OR-Tools. 3) **PAML+MVMoE**: The original VRP instance  
 337 is decomposed using PAML and solved using MVMoE solver. 4) **PAML+OR-Tools**: The origi-  
 338 nal VRP instance is decomposed using PAML and solved using OR-Tools. The evaluation metrics  
 339 include solution quality (total route length, with smaller values being better) and computational effi-  
 340 ciency (solving time in seconds). We conduct experiments on both generated datasets and real-world  
 341 instances from CVRPLIB, with problem sizes ranging from 50 to 2000 nodes.

## 342 343 5.2 MAIN RESULTS



359 Figure 4: Solving cost (smaller is better) and solving time (smaller is better) on CVRPs of different  
 360 sizes (100 to 1000-nodes) from CVRPLIB datasets using four different methods.

### 362 363 5.2.1 PERFORMANCE ON GENERATED DATA

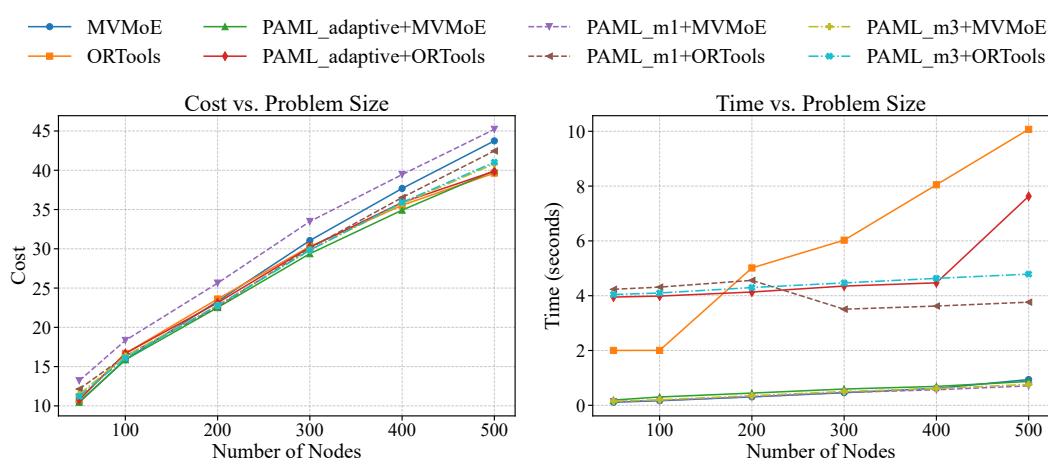
364 We tested the solution results on five VRP variants (CVRP, OVRP, VRPB, VRPL, and VRPTW)  
 365 with problem sizes ranging from 50 to 2000. Our experimental results demonstrate that the PAML  
 366 method exhibits significant advantages in solving VRPs of varying scales, particularly when com-  
 367 bined with the MVMoE Solver: 1) For 400-node and smaller problems: PAML+MVMoE achieves  
 368 optimal performance, reducing route length by 3.40% compared to MVMoE Solver while main-  
 369 taining computation time at only 10% of OR-Tools. 2) For 500-node problems: Solution quality matches  
 370 OR-Tools while reducing route length by 8.67% compared to MVMoE Solver. 3) For 1000-node  
 371 problems: Route length reduced by 20.66% compared to MVMoE Solver, with computation time  
 372 under 1.58 seconds (92.23% faster than OR-Tools). 4) For 2000-node problems: Route length re-  
 373 duced by 48.71% compared to MVMoE Solver, with just 3.62 seconds computation time (91.20%  
 374 faster than OR-Tools).

375 Table 3 that presents detailed data for VRPs for all scales , and Figure 6 that shows the performance  
 376 of all methods on different VRP variants are included in Appendix D.2. The statistical analysis in  
 377 Figure 8 confirms the significance of these improvements, showing consistent performance gains  
 across problem scales with  $p < 0.05$  significance levels. Complete instance-level results and route  
 visualizations are available in Appendix D.3.

378 5.2.2 PERFORMANCE ON REAL-WORLD CVRPs  
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380 To validate our method’s effectiveness in real-world scenarios with irregular customer distributions, we tested PAML on the CVRPLIB dataset. The results, shown in Figure 4, align with our  
381 findings on generated data: 1) For medium-scale instances (200-400 nodes): PAML+MVMoE  
382 achieves the shortest routing distances while maintaining solving times under 0.9 seconds, sig-  
383 nificantly outperforming OR-Tools’ average time of 5.5 seconds. 2) For larger instances (100-  
384 1000 nodes): PAML+MVMoE shows a 15.75% reduction in routing distance compared to MV-  
385 MoE Solver (63261.76 vs 75091.50), with only a modest 6.43% increase compared to OR-Tools  
386 (63261.76 vs 59438.02). Notably, the computational efficiency remains substantial, with average  
387 solving time being merely 6.55% of OR-Tools’ (0.95s vs 14.50s).

388 Detailed results are provided in Appendix D.3. Table 4 provides detailed instance-level results,  
389 Figure 7 illustrates the distribution of costs and computation times across methods, and Figure 8  
390 further validates the statistical significance of these improvements across different problem scales.  
391 Route visualizations are available in Appendix D.4.

393 5.3 ABLATION STUDIES  
394

412 Figure 5: Solving cost (left, smaller is better) and solving time (right, smaller is better) on VRPs  
413 of different sizes (200 to 500-nodes) using all methods.

414 As shown in Figure 5, in order to assess the effectiveness of different components in our framework,  
415 we conducted ablation studies focusing on the merging strategies. We compared three core ap-  
416 proaches: 1) **No Merging (PAML.m1)**: Baseline approach solving the partitioner’s raw sub-routes  
417 directly. 2) **Fixed Number Merging (PAML.m3)**: Merging a fixed quantity of sorted primitive  
418 sub-routes. 3) **Adaptive Merging (PAML.adaptive)**: Merging based on a target node count.

420 Results for 1000-node VRPs when combined with MVMoE solver show: 1) MVMoE: Average  
421 path length 79.69. 2) No Merging: Path length 80.48 (-0.98% improvement). 3) Fixed Subprob-  
422 lem Number Merging: Path length 66.01 (17.09% improvement). 4) Adaptive Subproblem Size  
423 Merging: Path length 63.23 (20.66% improvement). These results demonstrate that: 1) Merging is  
424 essential for solution quality. 2) Fixed Subproblem Number Merging significantly improves over  
425 no merging. 3) Adaptive Subproblem Size Merging consistently performs best across all problem  
426 sizes. Detailed performance data is available in Appendix D.2.

427 5.4 ANALYSIS OF BEST SUBPROBLEM MERGE SIZE  
428

429 Building on the ablation study results, we further analyzed the best target size parameter for Adaptive  
430 Merging. While our solver model has a native training size of 50 nodes, experiments revealed that  
431 uniformly decomposing large-scale VRPs into 50-node subproblems leads to global information  
loss.

432  
433 Table 1: Best Subproblem Merge Size Information for Different VRP Variants and Problem Scales  
434

Variant	Problem Size	Best SP Size	Cost	Avg SPs	Avg Time
CVRP	200	100	23.22	2.00	0.27
	500	125	41.96	4.00	0.64
	1000	150	65.82	6.36	1.26
	2000	300	128.95	6.00	2.58
OVRP	200	100	16.26	2.00	0.27
	500	125	30.67	4.00	0.65
	1000	150	51.40	6.04	1.27
	2000	300	100.37	6.00	2.68
VRPB	200	100	18.44	2.00	0.29
	500	125	34.07	4.04	0.68
	1000	200	59.42	5.02	1.37
	2000	300	119.76	6.30	2.78
VRPL	200	100	23.82	2.00	0.29
	500	125	42.59	4.00	0.70
	1000	150	67.35	6.24	1.37
	2000	300	120.84	6.00	2.95
VRPTW	200	20	107.54	9.74	0.35
	500	50	284.06	9.00	0.86
	1000	50	572.59	18.00	1.72
	2000	100	1184.47	17.18	3.57

452  
453 As shown in Table 1, our systematic analysis shows that the best merging size exhibits a sublinear  
454 relationship with the problem scale. For example, in CVRP with  $N=2,000$ , the best subproblem  
455 merging target (Best SP Size, SP here means subproblem) is 300 (approximately 15% of the origi-  
456 nal problem size). This finding balances the trade-off between retaining global information and  
457 maintaining solver efficiency.

## 459 6 CONCLUSION

460  
461 This paper introduces an innovative framework, named PAML, which employs a novel divide-and-  
462 conquer strategy to efficiently solve large-scale, multi-variant Vehicle Routing Problems (VRPs).  
463 The core innovation of this framework lies in the organic integration of two key technologies: an  
464 intelligent, Mixture-of-Experts (MoE) based implicit partitioner trainable via end-to-end reinforce-  
465 ment learning, and a dynamic subproblem merging mechanism based on polar angle clustering.  
466 The partitioner dispenses with manually designed rules to adaptively generate high-quality division  
467 schemes, while the merging mechanism intelligently regulates subproblem sizes, striking a delicate  
468 balance between preserving global information and maintaining solver efficiency. This approach ef-  
469 fectively overcomes the core challenges of computational complexity, generalization, and multi-task  
470 optimization that plague existing methods for complex VRPs.

471  
472 Comprehensive experimental results clearly demonstrate the superior performance and practical  
473 value of the PAML framework, highlighted by three key advantages: 1) Real-time Computational  
474 Efficiency: Compared to industry-standard optimizers like OR-Tools, PAML reduces computation  
475 time to just one-tenth while maintaining high-quality solutions, showcasing its immense potential in  
476 dynamic scenarios requiring rapid decision-making. 2) Strong Generalization to Large-Scale VRPs:  
477 While the performance of the baseline MVMoE solver degrades significantly on instances with  
478 thousands of nodes, the PAML framework exhibits robust generalization. It achieves up to a 48.71%  
479 reduction in path cost compared to solving with MVMoE alone, proving its robustness as problem  
480 scale increases. 3) Superior Multi-Task Optimization: Across various VRP variants, PAML con-  
481 sistently delivers performance improvements. This is attributable to its MoE-based architecture, which  
482 enables flexible adaptation to the unique constraints of different tasks, validating its effectiveness as  
483 a universal VRP solving framework.

484  
485 In summary, the PAML framework not only provides an efficient and scalable solution for large-  
486 scale VRPs but, more importantly, establishes a new paradigm of synergistic design between neural  
487 partitioning and expert models. This work offers valuable insights and reusable techniques for the  
488 intelligent solving of other combinatorial optimization problems.

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