

Applying Matrix Factorization to Consistency-based Direct Diagnosis

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Abstract Configuration systems must be able to deal with inconsistencies which can occur in different contexts. Especially in interactive settings, where users specify requirements and a constraint solver has to identify solutions, inconsistencies may more often arise. In inconsistency situations, there is a need of diagnosis methods that support the identification of minimal sets of constraints that have to be adapted or deleted in order to restore consistency. A diagnosis algorithm's performance can be evaluated in terms of time to find a diagnosis (runtime) and diagnosis quality. Runtime efficiency of diagnosis is especially crucial in real-time scenarios such as production scheduling, robot control, and communication networks. However, there is a trade off between diagnosis quality and the runtime efficiency of diagnostic reasoning. In this article, we deal with solving *the quality-runtime performance trade off problem* of direct diagnosis. In this context, we propose *a novel learning approach based on matrix factorization for constraint ordering*. We show that our approach improves runtime performance and diagnosis quality at the same time.

Keywords constraint satisfaction, diagnosis, matrix factorization, configuration systems

1 Introduction

Configuration systems [14] are used to find solutions for problems which have many variables and constraints. A configuration problem can be defined as a constraint satisfaction problem (*CSP*) [20]. If constraints of a *CSP* are inconsistent, no solution can be found. In this context, diagnosis is required to find at least one solution for an inconsistent *CSP* [1].

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There are several diagnosis approaches [13]. One approach is *direct diagnosis* which employs queries to check the consistency of a constraint set without the need to identify the corresponding conflict sets [5]. When diagnoses have to be provided in real-time, response times should be less than a few seconds [2]. For example, in communication networks, efficient diagnosis is crucial to retain the quality of service. However, there exists a trade-off between runtime performance of diagnosis calculation and diagnosis quality [4].

To address this challenge, we propose *Learned Constraint Ordering (LCO)* for direct diagnosis. Our approach learns constraint ordering heuristics from inconsistent historical transactions which include inconsistent user requirements. For example, our method learns that "display quality" is more important than "price" according to the past purchases and user requirements regarding a set of digital cameras. For this reason, "display quality" is regarded as more important and "price" would be a candidate for a change proposal. For example, a diagnosis would recommend to increase the price in order to be able to find an item that satisfies all requirements. Using historical inconsistent transactions, we build a sparse matrix and then employ matrix factorization techniques to estimate future diagnoses. After an offline learning phase, the most similar transaction to the new inconsistent requirement set is found and the corresponding constraint ordering heuristic (which has been calculated in the offline phase) is applied to reorder the inconsistent constraints before direct diagnosis is activated. Thanks to the learned ordering, direct diagnosis algorithms can solve a diagnosis task with a high prediction quality and shorter runtime compared to direct diagnosis without learned constraint ordering. We provide a working example to demonstrate the effects of our approach. Finally, based on experimental evaluations, we show that our constraint ordering approach with direct diagnosis is superior to the baseline (direct diagnosis algorithms without constraint ordering) on popular benchmark constraint satisfaction problems.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we give an overview of the basic definitions in consistency-based configuration and diagnosis, and introduce a running example. Finally, we explain our evaluation criteria for the determined diagnoses.

2.1 Configuration Task

The following (simplified) assortment of digital cameras (see Table 1) and a set of inconsistent user requirements (see Table 2) for selecting a digital camera from the camera product table will serve as a working example to demonstrate how our approach works.

Our working example is represented as a configuration task in Table 2 (on the basis of Definition 1). As shown in Table 2, our example configuration consists of a variable set (V) with 10 variables (which are also listed in the first column of Table 1) and only one knowledge base constraint (c_1) which represents the set of available

Table 1: Digital Camera Product Table

	Camera ₁	Camera ₂	Camera ₃	Camera ₄	Camera ₅
effectiveResolution	20.9	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.2
display	3.5	2.5	2.2	1.8	1.8
touch	yes	yes	no	no	no
wifi	yes	yes	no	no	no
nfc	no	no	no	no	no
gps	yes	yes	no	no	yes
videoResolution	UHD	UHD	No	UHD	4K
zoom	3.0	3.0	7.8	5.8	3.0
weight	475	475	700	860	560
price	659	659	189	2329	469

Table 2: An example of an inconsistent configuration task: CSP_{Lisa}

V, D	v_1 : effectiveResolution : $\{6.1Megapixel, 6.2Megapixel, 20.9Megapixel\}$, v_2 : display : $\{1.8inches, 2.2inches, 2.5inches, 3.5inches\}$, v_3 : touch : $\{no, yes\}$, v_4 : wifi : $\{no, yes\}$, v_5 : nfc : $\{no, yes\}$, v_6 : gps : $\{no, yes\}$, v_7 : videoResolution : $\{No, UHD, 4K\}$, v_8 : zoom : $\{3.0x, 5.8x, 7.8x\}$, v_9 : weight : $\{475g, 560g, 700g, 860g, 1405g\}$, v_{10} : price : $\{€ 189, € 469, € 659, € 2329, € 5219\}$
C_{KB}	c_1 : $(Camera_1 \vee Camera_2 \vee Camera_3 \vee Camera_4 \vee Camera_5)$
REQ_{Lisa}	c_2 : effectiveResolution =20.9Megapixel c_3 : display =2.5inches c_5 : wifi =yes c_7 : gps =yes c_9 : zoom =5.8x

cameras shown in Table 1). User related preferences are defined in the set of user requirements (REQ_{Lisa}).

Definition 1 (Configuration Task). A configuration task can be defined as a $CSP(V, D, C)$. $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ represents a set of finite domain variables. $D = \{dom(v_1), dom(v_2), \dots, dom(v_n)\}$ represents a set of variable domains where $dom(v_i)$ represents the domain of variable v_i . $C = C_{KB} \cup REQ$ where $C_{KB} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_q\}$ is a set of domain specific constraints (the configuration knowledge base) that restricts the possible combinations of variable values. $REQ = \{c_{q+1}, c_{q+2}, \dots, c_t\}$ is a set of user requirements, which is also represented as constraints. A configuration (S) for a configuration task is a set of assignments $S = \{v_1 = a_1, v_2 = a_2, \dots, v_n = a_n\}$ where $a_i \in dom(v_i)$ which is consistent with the constraints in C .

2.2 Diagnosis Task

In an interactive configuration scenario (see Table 1), a configuration (solution) may not be found due to the fact that some constraints are inconsistent (see Table 2). Such a "no solution could be found" dilemma is caused by at least one *conflict* between constraints in the knowledge base C_{KB} and the user requirements REQ (assuming the knowledge base C_{KB} to be consistent). Note that it could also be the case that C_{KB} itself is inconsistent [1]. Definition 2 introduces a formal concept of a conflict.

Definition 2 (Conflict). A conflict is a set of constraints $CS \subseteq C_{KB} \cup REQ$ which is inconsistent.

If we have an inconsistency in our knowledge base, we can say that $C_{KB} \cup REQ$ is a conflict set. Definition 3 introduces the concept of *minimal conflicts*.

Definition 3 (Minimal Conflict). A minimal conflict CS is a conflict (see Definition 2) where CS only contains constraints which are responsible for the conflict, s.t. $\nexists c_i \in CS : CS - \{c_i\}$ is inconsistent.

Our example contains three minimal conflict sets. $CS_1 = \{c_2, c_3\}$ because there is no product with c_2 : **effectiveResolution=20.9Megapixel** and c_3 : **display=2.5inches** in the product table C_{KB} , $CS_2 = \{c_2, c_9\}$ since there is no product with c_2 : **effectiveResolution=20.9Megapixel** and c_9 : **zoom=5.8x**, and $CS_3 = \{c_3, c_9\}$ there is no product with c_3 : **display=2.5inches** and c_9 : **zoom=5.8x**.

In such cases, we can help users to resolve the conflicts with a diagnosis Δ (a set of constraints). Assuming that C_{KB} is consistent, we can say that the knowledge base always will be consistent if we remove REQ . Removing Δ from REQ leads to a consistent knowledge base (see Definition 4).

Definition 4 (REQ Diagnosis Task). A user requirements diagnosis task is defined as a tuple (C_{KB}, REQ) where REQ is a set of given user requirements and C_{KB} represents the constraints part of the configuration knowledge base. A diagnosis for a REQ diagnosis task (C_{KB}, REQ) is a set $\Delta \subseteq REQ$, s.t. $C_{KB} \cup (REQ - \Delta)$ is consistent (which means that there is at least one solution). Δ is minimal if there does not exist a diagnosis $\Delta' \subset \Delta$, s.t. $C_{KB} \cup (REQ - \Delta')$ is consistent.

The feasibility (consistency) of the user requirements can be checked using a CSP solver [3, 7]. If a CSP is consistent, there exists a solution i.e., $solve(CSP) \neq \emptyset$ where $solve(CSP : \{V, D, C\})$ includes a set of assignments S (a configuration/solution).

In Definition 5, we introduce the term *minimal diagnosis* which helps to reduce the number of constraints within a diagnosis.

Definition 5 (Minimal Diagnosis). A minimal diagnosis Δ is a diagnosis (see Definition 4) where there doesn't exist a subset $\Delta' \subset \Delta$ which has the diagnosis property.

The *REQ diagnosis task* triggered by the requirements of the user *Lisa* (REQ_{Lisa}) has three corresponding minimal diagnoses. The removal of the set $\Delta_{Lisa_1} = \{c_2, c_9\}$ or $\Delta_{Lisa_2} = \{c_3, c_9\}$ leads to a consistent configuration, i.e., $REQ_{Lisa} - \Delta_{Lisa_1} \cup C_{KB}$ is consistent and $REQ_{Lisa} - \Delta_{Lisa_2} \cup C_{KB}$ is consistent. This also holds for $\Delta_{Lisa_3} = \{c_2, c_3\}$.

2.3 Direct Diagnosis

Algorithmic approaches to provide efficient solutions for diagnosis problems are many-fold. Basically, there are two types of approaches which are *conflict-directed diagnosis* [13, 18] and *direct diagnosis* [4].

Conflict-directed diagnosis algorithms calculate conflicts which are then used to find diagnoses. Their runtime performance is often not sufficient especially in real-time scenarios. *Direct diagnosis* algorithms determine diagnoses by executing a series of queries. These queries check the consistency of a constraint set without the need of pre-calculated conflict sets.

FLEXDIAG [4] is a direct diagnosis algorithm which determines one diagnosis at a time which indicates variable assignments of the original configuration that have to be changed such that a reconfiguration conform to the new requirements is possible. FLEXDIAG is *constraint-ordering sensitive*, i.e., depending on the ordering of the input constraints, different diagnoses (if more than one exists) could be determined.

2.4 Constraint Ordering

Quality and runtime performance of direct diagnosis algorithms are based on the ordering of the constraints in the set of user requirements: *the lower the importance of a constraint, the lower the index of the constraint*. The lower the index of a conflicting constraint, the higher the probability that this constraint is part of a diagnosis [5].

Users typically prefer to keep the important requirements and to change or delete (if needed) the less important ones [6]. The major goal of (model-based) diagnosis tasks is to identify the *preferred (leading) diagnoses* [8]. For the characterization of a preferred diagnosis, we will rely on a total ordering of the given set of constraints in *REQ*. Such a total ordering can be achieved, for example, by directly asking the customer regarding his/her preferences, by applying multi attribute utility theory where the determined interest dimensions are related to the attributes of *REQ*, or by applying the orderings determined by conjoint analysis [15].

2.5 Evaluation Criteria

We can evaluate the performance of a direct diagnosis algorithm, for example, based on *runtime performance*, *diagnosis quality* (in terms of minimality), and *combined performance* (runtime and minimality).

Runtime. $runtime(\Delta)$ represents the time needed by the diagnostic search to find Δ . This spent time can be measured in milliseconds or in terms of number of consistency checks (#CC) applied till a diagnosis is found. For a more accurate runtime measurement (excluding the operating system's effects on runtime, etc.), the number of consistency checks can be used.

Minimality. Diagnosis quality can be measured in terms of the degree of minimality of the constraints in a diagnosis, the cardinality of Δ compared to the cardinality of Δ_{min} . $|\Delta_{min}|$ represents the cardinality of a corresponding minimal diagnosis. The highest (best) minimality can be 1 according to Formula 1.

$$\text{minimality}(\Delta) = \frac{|\Delta_{\min}|}{|\Delta|} \quad (1)$$

Combined. Since it is important to satisfy both evaluation criteria, runtime performance and minimality at the same time, we also evaluate the combined performance (see Formula 2). In this context, $\text{combined}(\Delta)$ increases if $\text{minimality}(\Delta)$ increases and/or $\text{runtime}(\Delta)$ decreases. This means, the direct diagnosis algorithm provides a diagnosis with a high minimality and low runtime while the combined performance is high.

$$\text{combined}(\Delta) = \frac{\text{minimality}(\Delta)}{\text{runtime}(\Delta)} \quad (2)$$

In order to improve the runtime performance of diagnostic search, FLEXDIAG [4] uses a parameter (m) that helps to systematically reduce the number of consistency checks but at the same time the minimality of diagnoses is deteriorated. In FLEXDIAG, the parameter m is used to control diagnosis quality in terms of minimality, accuracy, and the performance of diagnostic search. The higher the value of m , the higher the performance of FLEXDIAG and the lower the degree of diagnosis quality.

3 Related Work

The most widely known algorithm for the identification of minimal diagnoses is *hitting set directed acyclic graph* (HSDAG) [13]. HSDAG is based on conflict-directed hitting set determination and determines diagnoses based on breadth-first search. It computes minimal diagnoses (also minimal cardinality diagnoses) using minimal conflict sets which can be calculated, for example, by QUICKXPLAIN [6]. The major disadvantage of applying this approach is the need of predetermining minimal conflicts which can deteriorate diagnostic search performance [5]. Many different approaches to provide efficient solutions for diagnosis problems are proposed. One approach [23] focuses on improvements of HSDAG. Another approach [22] uses predetermined sets of conflicts based on binary decision diagrams. In diagnosis scenarios where the number of minimal diagnoses and their cardinality is high, the determination of diagnoses with standard conflict-based approaches becomes inefficient.

The direct diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG [4] utilizes an inverse version of QUICKXPLAIN [6] which finds a diagnosis directly from an inconsistent constraint set. FLEXDIAG is an extension of FASTDIAG [5] which assures diagnosis determination within certain time limits by systematically reducing the number of needed solver calls. The authors claim that this specific interpretation of anytime diagnosis leads to a *trade-off between diagnosis quality (evaluated, e.g., in terms of minimality) and the time needed for diagnosis determination*. Our proposed constraint ordering approach *LCO* improves their direct diagnosis approach [4] in terms of diagnosis quality and at the same time in terms of runtime performance.

The approach of [17] determines diagnoses directly. The authors reduce the number of consistency checks by avoiding the computation of conflict sets. Their approach is similar to [5], but introduces a new pruning rule. They compared their approach with the standard technique (based on QUICKXPLAIN [6] and HSDAG

[13]). In their experiments, they show that direct diagnosis outperforms the standard diagnosis approach in terms of runtime. In their approach, authors collect the constraint ordering directly from users (interactively). Compared to the work presented in [17], our approach learns the constraint ordering from historical inconsistent user requirements and their preferred diagnoses.

The relevance of constraint ordering in direct diagnosis scenarios has already been discussed [4,17]. Based on historical transactions (user interaction data), we predict the constraints of high relevance for a user based on *matrix factorization* which is a model-based collaborative filtering approach [9]. We learn a constraint ordering where the predicted most important constraints have the highest ordering. This is due to the fact that the implemented direct diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG first starts to search a diagnosis in the lowest-ranked constraints. Consequently, constraints with a higher ranking have a lower probability of being part of a diagnosis.

4 Learned Constraint Ordering (LCO) for Direct Diagnosis

In this paper, our goal is to solve *the quality-runtime performance trade off problem* of direct diagnosis. For this purpose, our proposed method learns constraint ordering heuristics based on historical transactions in an offline phase and then, in an online phase, it employs a direct diagnosis algorithm on the re-ordered constraints. In this paper, we demonstrate and evaluate our approach based on the direct diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG [4].

Our contributions in this context are the following. We utilize the *constraint-ordering sensitivity* of direct diagnosis and propose a novel learning approach for constraint ordering.

In order to increase diagnosis quality and runtime performance of FLEXDIAG at the same time, we propose matrix factorization based constraint ordering (*LCO*) for the diagnosis of inconsistent constraints (see Algorithm 1). In our approach, we build a *sparse matrix (R)* by exploiting *historical purchase transactions with inconsistent user requirements and preferred minimal diagnoses* and a new inconsistent set of user requirements (constraints). The estimated dense matrix (as a result of matrix factorization of the sparse matrix) provides the input in terms of importance estimates for determining a new diagnosis. According to the importance estimates determined by matrix factorization, constraints are reordered in before employing direct diagnosis.

Data: Historical transactions and an inconsistent *CSP*
Result: Minimal diagnosis for the inconsistent *CSP*
if *offline phase not yet executed* **then**
 $sm = \text{build_sparse_matrix}(\text{historical transactions});$
 $dm = \text{factorize_and_get_dense_matrix}(sm);$
 $LCO = \text{extract_constraint_orderings_from_the_dense_matrix}(dm);$
else
 $T_1 = \text{find_the_closest_transaction_using_Euclidean_Distance}(CSP);$
 $LCO_1 = \text{get_constraint_ordering_for}(T_1);$
 $CSP_1 = \text{reorder_constraints}(CSP, LCO_1);$
 $Diagnosis = \text{DirectDiagnosisAlgorithm}(CSP_1);$
 return *Diagnosis*;
end

Algorithm 1: Pseudocode of Learned Constraint Ordering (LCO)

In the following, we explain our approach by demonstrating how it works with the example diagnosis task ($REQ_{Lisa} \cup C_{KB}$). In this context, we show the experimental evaluations of our approach on the basis of real-world configuration knowledge bases. In our camera configuration example, *Lisa* provides her requirements which are inconsistent with the camera product table, i.e., no solution could be found for *Lisa*'s requirements. Therefore, her requirements need to be diagnosed. Following our approach, we first calculate a new constraint ordering (*LCO*) and then solve the diagnosis task ($REQ_{Lisa} \cup C_{KB}$) using the identified (new) constraint ordering.

4.1 Offline Phase: Learning from Historical Transactions

Our proposed method needs an offline phase in which various constraint ordering heuristics are learned based on historical transactions. For offline learning, matrix factorization techniques and *historical transactions with inconsistent user requirements* are employed (see Table 3). An example of using a learned heuristics is a solution search starting with the variable "resolution" and the corresponding value "20.9" and continuing with the other values of "resolution" in the learned order. After the assignment of the variable "resolution" is satisfied, continue with the next variable with its learned value orderings until all variable values are consistent with the given set of constraints.

In Table 3, for each user, we have an inconsistent set of user requirements (which leads to "no solution"). After a no-solution situation, some of the users (in our case, Alice, Tom, and Joe in Table 3) decided to buy a product (*Purchase*) which does not completely satisfy their requirements. Consequently, they had to change their initial requirements which is presented as Δ_{\min} . These historical transactions which are completed with a purchase are *complete historical transactions*. The rest of historical transactions, in which users did not complete their transactions with a purchase (e.g. Bob and Ray in Table 3), is called *incomplete historical transactions*. In this context, we estimate diagnoses of *incomplete historical transactions* using matrix factorization and we take into account only historical transactions with minimal diagnoses.

Table 3: Historical transactions with inconsistent user requirements.

	Alice	Bob	Tom	Ray	Joe
c_2 : resolution	-	6.1	20.9	20.9	6.2
c_3 : display	3.5	2.2	-	2.5	2.2
c_4 : touch screen	-	-	yes	yes	-
c_5 : wifi	-	-	yes	yes	-
c_6 : nfc	-	yes	-	-	yes
c_7 : gps	-	yes	yes	yes	no
c_8 : video resolution	UHD	-	UHD	UHD	UHD
c_9 : zoom	3.0	5.8	3.0	5.8	7.8
c_{10} : weight	560	700	475	475	-
c_{11} : price	469	189	469	-	189
Purchase	Camera ₁	-	Camera ₁	-	Camera ₃
Δ_{\min}	c_{10}, c_{11}	-	c_3, c_{11}	-	c_2, c_6, c_{v7}

Based on the historical transactions in Table 3, we know that, the product *Camera₁* is purchased by *Alice*. This means, *Alice* has changed her requirements c_{10} : **weight**=560g and c_{11} : **price**=469 and purchased the product *Camera₁* which has **weight**=475g and **price**=659. Therefore, $\Delta_{\text{Alice}}=\{c_{10}, c_{11}\}$ is a diagnosis for the requirements diagnosis task ($REQ_{\text{Alice}} \cup C_{\text{KB}}$). When we eliminate the diagnosis constraints from the inconsistent requirement set, the diagnosed requirement set becomes $REQ'_{\text{Alice}} = \{\text{effective Resolution}=20.9 \text{ Megapixel, display}=3.5\text{inches, touch=yes, wifi=yes, nfc=no, gps=yes, videoResolution}=UHD-U4K/3840x2160, \text{zoom}=3.0x\}$. Based on REQ'_{Alice} , the found solution set is $\{Camera_1\}$ which includes the products purchased by *Alice* (*Camera₁*).

4.1.1 The Sparse Matrix

Matrix factorization based collaborative filtering algorithms [10] introduce a rating matrix R (a.k.a., user-item matrix) which describes preferences of users for the individual items the users have rated. Thereby, R represents an $m \times n$ matrix, where m denotes the number of users and n the number of items. The respective element $r_{u,i}$ of the matrix R describes the rating of the item i made by user u . Given the complete set of user ratings, the recommendation task is to predict how the users *would* rate the items which have not yet been rated by these users.

In our approach, we build a sparse matrix R (user-constraint matrix) using inconsistent historical transactions as shown in Table 4-(a) where columns represent constraints. Therefore, each row of the sparse matrix R represents a set of user requirements (the left half) and their corresponding diagnoses (the right half) if available. User requirements are presented in their normalized values in the range of 0-1, and diagnoses are presented with the presence (1)/non-presence (0) of user requirements.

If there are non-numeric domains in the problem, they are enumerated. For example, the domain v_7 : **videoResolution**: $\{No, UHD, 4K\}$ is enumerated as v_7 : $\{0, 1, 2\}$. Besides, domain ranges of all constraints in REQ are mapped to $[0..1]$ since matrix factorization needs to use the same range for all values in the matrix. For this purpose, we have employed *Min-Max Normalization* [21] according to Formula 3.

$$v_{i,\text{norm}} = \frac{v_i - \text{dom}(v_i)_{\min}}{\text{dom}(v_i)_{\max} - \text{dom}(v_i)_{\min}} \quad (3)$$

In our camera configuration example, in the left half of the first row of R , we set the user requirements of *Alice*. As shown in Table 3, she prefers 3.5 inches displays, i.e. c_3 : **display**=3.5inches. In Table 4, the assigned value of **display** is normalized using Formula 3 and represented as 1. In the right half of the first row of R , we set the diagnoses probabilities. If a constraint c_i exists in Δ_{user} , it's corresponding diagnosis probability δ_i is 1, otherwise to 0. We know that $\Delta_{\text{Alice}}=\{c_{10}, c_{11}\}$ (see Table 3), consequently we set δ_{10} and δ_{11} to 1 and the rest to 0.

4.1.2 Matrix Factorization

In terms of *matrix factorization* [11, 12], the sparse matrix R is decomposed into an $m \times k$ *user-feature matrix* P and a $k \times n$ *constraint-feature matrix* Q^T which both are used to find the estimated dense matrix PQ^T . In this context, k is a variable parameter which needs to be adapted to optimize the prediction quality for the test data.

In our example, we apply matrix factorization to the sparse matrix in Table 4-(a). Then, the estimated matrix is obtained as shown in Table 4-(b) which includes the estimated diagnoses for *Bob* and *Ray*.

Table 4: Matrix factorization estimates a dense matrix PQ^T (b) which closely approximates the sparse matrix R (a).

(a) The sparse matrix (R)																					
	c_2	c_3	c_4	c_5	c_6	c_7	c_8	c_9	c_{10}	c_{11}	P_{c2}	P_{c3}	P_{c4}	P_{c5}	P_{c6}	P_{c7}	P_{c8}	P_{c9}	P_{c10}	P_{c11}	
Alice		1					0.5	0	0.09	0.05	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Bob	0	0.23			1	1		0.58	0.24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Tom	1		1	1			1	0.5	0	0	0.05										
Ray	1	0.41	1	1			1	0.5	0.58	0											
Joe	0.006	0.23			1	0	0.5	1		0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

(b) The estimated dense matrix (PQ^T)																				
	c_2	c_3	c_4	c_5	c_6	c_7	c_8	c_9	c_{10}	c_{11}	P_{c2}	P_{c3}	P_{c4}	P_{c5}	P_{c6}	P_{c7}	P_{c8}	P_{c9}	P_{c10}	P_{c11}
Alice	1.4	0.2	1.3	1.5	0.3	1.2	0.9	0.6	-0.2	-0.3	0.4	0.2	-0.4	-0.4	0.4	0.4	-0.4	0.2	0.4	1.1
Bob	0.9	0.3	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.9	1	0	-0.3	0.7	0	-0.4	-0.4	1.1	1.1	-0.4	0.6	0.1	0.5
Tom	1.5	0.3	1.5	1.6	0.3	1.4	0.9	0.6	-0.2	-0.3	0.4	0.3	-0.4	-0.4	0.4	0.4	-0.4	0.3	0.4	1.1
Ray	1.4	0.3	1.5	1.6	0.7	1.5	0.9	0.9	-0.1	-0.3	0.8	0.1	-0.4	-0.4	0.6	0.6	-0.4	0.7	0.2	0.6
Joe	0.7	0.2	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.1	-0.3	0.8	-0.1	-0.3	-0.3	1.1	1.1	-0.4	0.4	0.1	0.4

4.2 Online Phase: Diagnosing Active Transactions

After calculating the estimated matrix in the offline phase, in the online phase we diagnose active transactions which include inconsistencies as in our working example. In active transactions, users still did not leave the configuration session and need real-time help to remove inconsistencies in their requirements to decide on a product to purchase. Therefore, the configuration system should provide a relevant diagnosis in a reasonable time (before users leave the system without a purchase).

4.2.1 The Most Similar Historical Transaction

Using Formula 4, we find the historical transaction which is the most similar one to the new set of inconsistent requirements. In this context, HT represents a historical transaction, AT represents the active transaction, $HT.c_i$ represents the value of each requirement in the estimated dense matrix PQ^T , and $AT.c_i$ represents the value of each requirement in the active transaction. i represents a constraint index value in the REQ of AT .

$$\min\left(\sqrt{\sum_{i \in AT.REQ} \|HT.c_i - AT.c_i\|^2}\right) \quad (4)$$

In our camera configuration example, the most similar historical transaction to the active transaction of *Lisa* is the transaction of *Ray*. Therefore, to diagnose REQ_{Lisa} , we use LCO_{Ray} : $\{c_2, c_9, c_6, c_7, c_{11}, c_{10}, c_3, c_4, c_5, c_8\}$. When we only consider user requirements of *Lisa*: $\{c_2, c_3, c_5, c_7, c_9\}$, we obtain the constraint ordering for *Lisa* LCO_{Lisa} : $\{c_2, c_9, c_7, c_3, c_5\}$.

4.2.2 Direct Diagnosis with LCO

After the most similar historical transaction has been found and its constraint ordering has been applied to the active transaction's user requirements, the direct diagnosis algorithm is employed. We employ FLEXDIAG as the direct diagnosis algorithm with its parameter m which is used to control diagnosis quality.

In our working example, user constraints of the diagnosis task are reordered using LCO_{Lisa} as $\{c_2, c_9, c_7, c_3, c_5\}$ and a minimal diagnosis $\Delta = \{c_2, c_9\}$ is found by FLEXDIAG($m=1$) with performance results (on the basis of evaluation criteria given in Section 2.5): $\#CC = 4$, $minimality = 1$, and $combined = 0.250$. However, when we employ the diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG($m=1$) on the default order of user constraints $\{c_2, c_3, c_5, c_7, c_9\}$, the same diagnosis $\Delta = \{c_2, c_9\}$ is found with performance results: $\#CC = 8$, $minimality = 1$, and $combined = 0.125$. Therefore, using LCO with FLEXDIAG($m=1$), we improve the performance of diagnosis when diagnosing the working example.

In the following, we discuss the effects of our approach on a direct diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG, based on the evaluation criteria: *runtime* (based on the number of consistency checks), *minimality*, and *combined*. The search trees of FLEXDIAG with LCO (Tree-2 and Tree-4) have better combined performance compared to the search trees of FLEXDIAG without LCO (Tree-1 and Tree-3). When $m=1$, LCO improved the combined performance (see Formula 2) with the ratio 32% (0.166 instead of 0.125). If $m=2$, LCO improves the combined performance with the ratio 100% (0.250 instead of 0.125) and the minimality with the ratio 50% whereas the runtime is not improved. Consequently, as also observed in the example search trees, LCO improves runtime performance and minimality of diagnosing.

5 Experimental Evaluation

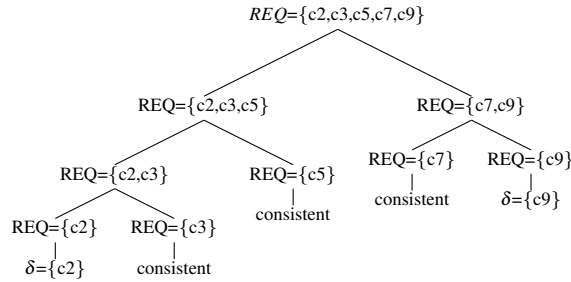
5.1 Settings

We have implemented our approach in Java and tested on a computer with an Intel Core i5-5200U, 2.20 GHz processor, 8 GB RAM and 64 bit Windows 7 Operating System and Java Run-time Environment 1.8.0. Constraint satisfaction problems have been solved by *Choco*¹ which is a Java library for constraint satisfaction problems with a FlatZinc (the target language of MiniZinc) parser. For matrix factorization, we have used the *SVDRecommender* of Apache Mahout [16].²

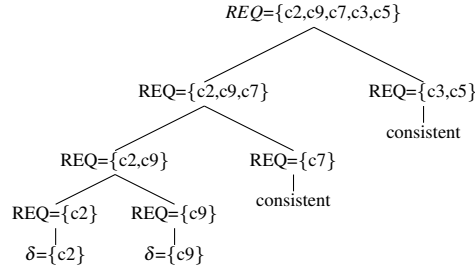
5.2 Datasets

We have used *Minizinc-2016* benchmark problems [19] where each problem includes five data files with file extension ".dzn".³

Tree-1: FLEXDIAG (M=1): $\Delta = \{c2, c9\}$
#CC = 8, minimality = 1, and combined = 0.125



Tree-2: FLEXDIAG (M=1) with LCO: $\Delta = \{c2, c9\}$
#CC = 6, minimality = 1, and combined = 0.166

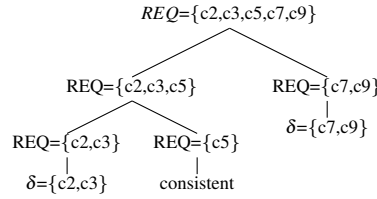


Tree-3: FLEXDIAG (M=2): $\Delta = \{c2, c3, c7, c9\}$
#CC = 4, minimality = 0.5, and combined = 0.125

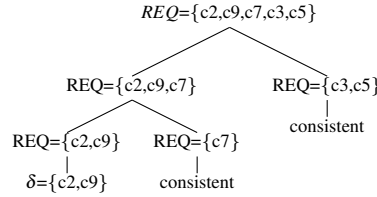
¹ <http://www.choco-solver.org/>

² using the latent factor $k=100$ and the number of iterations = 1000

³ <http://www.minizinc.org/challenge2016/results2016.html>



**TREE-4: FLEXDIAG (M=2) with LCO: $\Delta = \{c2, c9\}$
 #CC = 4, minimality = 1, and combined = 0.250:**



In order to obtain historical and active transactions based on these benchmark problems, we randomly generated 5000 sets of inconsistent user requirements (each with N constraints) based on integer variables. We have employed the java-code snippet below which inserts 10 additional constraints to each benchmark problem and always leads an inconsistency:

```

//PUSH INCONSISTENT CONSTRAINTS INTO the CSP (solver)
Constraint []c = new Constraint[N];
int reqs = new int [numberOfVariables];
while (true){
  for (int i=0; i<N; i++){
    int index= 0;
    do{index = (int)(Math.random() * numberOfVariables);}
    while (reqs[index]!=-1);
    int lb = var[i].getLB(); int ub = var[i].getUB();
    int v = ((int)(Math.random() * ub-lb))+lb; reqs[index]=v;
    c[k] = IntConstraintFactory.arithm(intVars[index], "=", v);
    solver.post(c[k]); } //INSERT GENERATED CONSTRAINTS
  if (solver.findSolution()){ //IF CONSISTENT, TRY AGAIN
    for (int k=0; k<N; k++) solver.unpost(c[k]);
    Arrays.fill(reqs, -1); } else break;}
  
```

5.3 Comparative Methods

We compare our approach directly with FLEXDIAG[4]. In this article, we do not compare *LCO* with more traditional diagnosis approaches – for related evaluations we refer the reader to [4] where detailed analyses of FLEXDIAG can be found. We used FLEXDIAG to show the minimality improvements of using *LCO* when $m \geq 2$. As baseline, we evaluated FLEXDIAG-without constraint ordering. #REQ represents the number of constraints in a set of inconsistent requirements.

To evaluate *LCO*, we analyzed the three aspects (1) runtime performance, (2) diagnosis quality (in terms of minimality, see Formula 1), and (3) combined performance (see Formula 2). We observed that our approach *LCO* outperforms the baseline versions (see Table 5).

5.4 Results

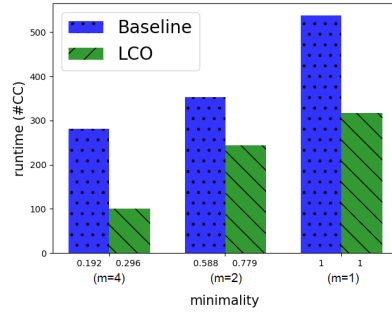
As discussed throughout this paper, our main objective is to improve the combined performance (runtime performance and diagnosis quality at the same time). We have compared our approach *LCO* with the baseline *no constraint ordering*. In both cases, for diagnostic search, FLEXDIAG is used with three different m values 1, 2, and 4.

As shown in Table 5, based on the average value (in the last row), *LCO* outperforms the baseline in terms of *runtime* and *minimality* since with each m value (1, 2, and 4), *LCO* has lower runtime than the baseline whereas its minimality is higher (or equal) compared to the baseline with each m value (1, 2, and 4).

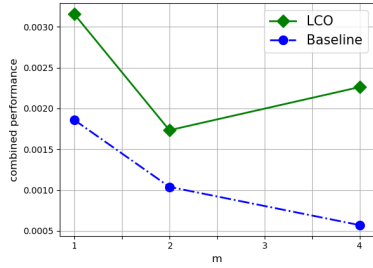
Based on the results in Table 5, we present two comparisons in Figure 1 where relations between performance indicators and the number of constraints in the set of user requirements are shown.

In Figure 1-(a), we observe that *minimality* improves (or the parameter m decreases) when *runtime* increases. As observed, the number of consistency checks (#CC) are at each m ($m=1, 2,$ and 4) lower when *LCO* is used. Moreover, at each m ($m=1, 2,$ and 4), *LCO* also provides better minimality results.

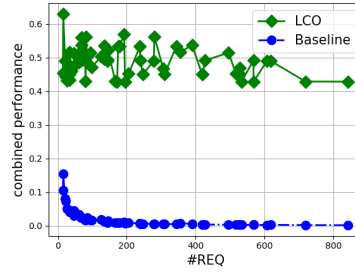
The combined performance results are shown in Figure 1-(b) and Figure 1-(c). Deviations in the results of *LCO* are more visible than the baseline, because *LCO* has greater performance values. When we zoom into the results of the baseline, we also observe similar deviations due to the variations in the problems. As observed, our approach improves the combined performance significantly.



(a) Runtime (#CC)



(b) Combined vs m



(c) Combined vs #REQ

Fig. 1: Comparison Graphs based on the Experimental Results in Table 5

6 Conclusions

In this paper, we proposed a novel learning approach for constraint ordering heuristics to solve the *quality-runtime performance trade off problem* of direct diagnosis. We employed matrix factorization for learning based on historical transactions. Taking the advantage of learning from historical transactions, we calculated possible constraint ordering heuristics in an offline phase for solving new diagnosis tasks in online phase.

In particular, we applied our constraint ordering heuristics to reorder user constraints of diagnosis tasks and employed a direct diagnosis algorithm FLEXDIAG [4] to diagnose the reordered constraints of the diagnosis tasks. The reason to choose this diagnosis algorithm is that the *quality-runtime performance trade off problem* is much more obvious in FLEXDIAG when its m parameter is increased. However, our approach can be also applicable to other direct diagnosis approaches (e.g. [17]). We compared our approach with a baseline: FLEXDIAG without heuristics. According to our experimental results, our approach (*LCO*) solves the *quality-runtime perfor-*

mance trade off problem by improving the diagnosis quality (in terms of minimality) and the runtime performance at the same time.

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