Constraints in the Subproblem

When troubles spring up like mushrooms

What Shall We Do With Static Users?

We may not care about users that stay very long on a page

- That may have have more to do with a tab left open
- ...Then with a genuine interest in the page itself

We could handle that by adding a constraint in the subproblem

I.e. by putting a limit on consecutive visits to the same node

- It seems simple enough, but in practice it's serious issue

Why is that the case?

- Such a constraint violates a basic assumption in Dijkstra's method
- I.e. that all path information can be condensed into it's length

With the new constraint, our shortest path method no longer works

Walking the Line

With our shortest path approach, we were walking a fine line

- The problem could be solved in polynomial time
- ...But even a small addition could make it NP-hard instead

With the new constraint, pricing becomes indeed NP-hard

There is nothing we can do about that

- ...But perhaps we can use a better suited technique
- Something designed specifically for NP-hard, combinatorial problems
- ...With lots of messy constraints

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For example, we could use Constraint Programming

...In its more modern incarnation, Lazy Clause Generation (a.k.a. CP-SAT)

Constraint Programming and Lazy Clause Generation

Very little is lazy about that

Constraint Satisfaction Problems

CP is techniques designed to address Constraint Satisfation Problems (CSPs):

$$\langle X, D, C \rangle$$

Where:

- X is a set of decision variables
- D is the set of their domains
- C is a set of constraints
- f is a cost function

Almost any decision problem fits those definitions...

...But in practice, a given CP solver provides

- A library of supported variables types
- A library of suported constraints

...And Constraint Optimization Problems

CP can handle Constraint Optimization Problems (COP):

$$\langle f, X, D, C \rangle$$

- Where f is a cost function

COPs are tackled as a sequence of CSPs via this scheme:

- best solution $x^* = \bot$
- while true find a solution for $\langle X, D, C \rangle$
  - If a solution x' is found:
    - $x^* = x'$
    - C = C \cup {f(x) < f(x^\prime)} # We as for an improving solution
  - otherwise, break the loop

The solver state is maintained between solutions so as not to waste effort

Variables and Constraints

In terms of supported variables types

- All CP solver provide integer variables
- Some also provide numeric, iterval, set, or graph variables

In terms of supported constraints

- All CP solvers provide equalities, inequalities, _ over linear expressions
  - $y = a^T \mathbf{x}, y \leq a^T \mathbf{x}$
- All CP solvers provide $\neq$ constraints
  - $y \neq x$
- Most CP solvers provide $\max$ and $\min$ constraints
  - $y = \max(\mathbf{x}), y = \min(\mathbf{x})$
- Some CP solvers provide products and modulo constraints (over scalars)
  - $y = xy, y = x \mod a$

Variables and Constraints

CP solver provide also constraints with non-mathematical nature

- E.g. logical constraints:

$$x \vee y, x \wedge y, x \Rightarrow y \dots$$

- E.g. a set of variables should take all different values:

$$\text{ALLDIFFERENT}(x)$$

- E.g. a set of variables should take/not take values from a table T:

$$\text{ALLOWED}(x, T) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{FORBIDDEN}(x, T)$$

- E.g. a set of activities with start times x and durations d should not overlap:

$$\text{NOOVERLAP}(x, d)$$

Propagators

CP solvers are search based

They maintain information about the variable domains in a Domain Store:

- The solver may store the domain bounds, i.e. $x_i \in \{lb_i, \dots ub_i\}$
- ...Or the individual allowed values, i.e. $x_i \in \{v_0, v_1, \dots\}$
- Other representations are also possible

Constraints are associated to algorithms called propagators

- A propagator takes as input the current variable domains
- ...And can prune (some) provably infeasible values

By doing so, we can dramatically reduce the size of the search space

Propagators often rely on structural patterns to improve pruning

- E.g. $\text{ALLDIFFERENT}(x)$ can prune more than $x_i \neq x_j, \forall i \neq j$
- ...Since it can reason on multiple variables at the same time

Propagators

Let's see an example for $\text{ALLOWED}([x_0, x_1], T)$, with T given by:

x_0	**x_1**
0	0
0	1
1	1

Let's that initially $D_0 = \{0, 1\}$, and $D_1 = \{0, 1\}$

- If x_0 looses the value 0
  - ...Then the ALLOWED propagator prunes 0 from D_1
  - ...Because it no longer has a feasible support in D_0
- If x_1 looses the value 1
  - ...Then the ALLOWED propagator prunes 1 from D_0
  - ...Because it no longer has a feasible support in D_1

Propagators and Lazy Clause Generation

In Lazy Clause Generation solvers, propagators have two additional tasks:

1) Whenever they prune a domain, they also generate boolean literals

- These correspond to the pruning operations
  - E.g. in our two example we would generate literals $[x_0 \neq 0]$ and $[x_1 \neq 1]$
- These literals represent variables associated to the state of a constraint
  - E.g. $[x_0 \neq 0] = 1$ if $0 \notin D_0$ and $[x_0 \neq 0] = 0$ otherwise

2) Whenever they prune a domain, they also generate an explanation

- This is a logical clause representing the reasoning that led to pruning
  - E.g. in our first example we would generate $[x_1 \neq 0] \Rightarrow [x_1 \neq 0]$
- These clauses are constraints on the literal variables
  - They function like normal constraints (except they are specifically tracked)

Constraint Propagation

Pruning can trigger the activation of other propagators

...In a process called Constraint Propagation

- After some activations, the process reaches a fix point
- If propagation causes a domain to become empty, we have a conflict
- ...In which case we need to backtrack

As a consequence, propagators are called many times per search node

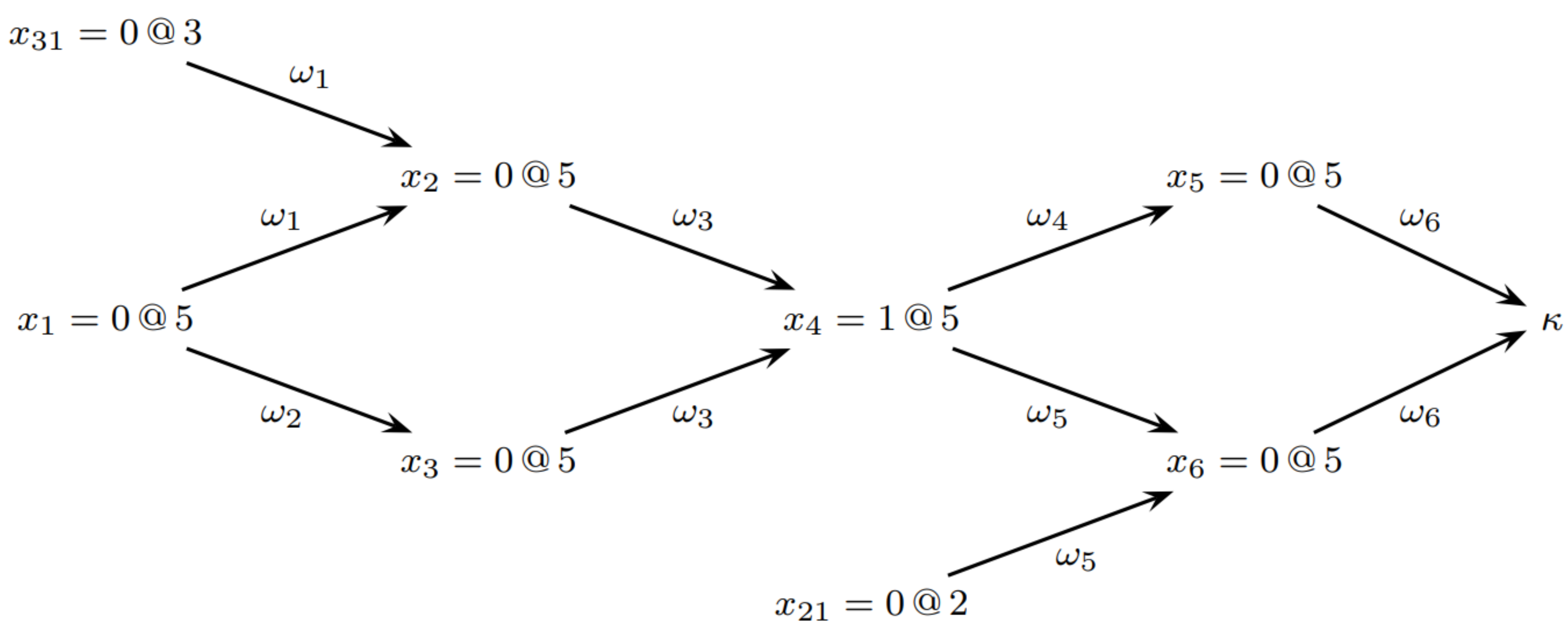
We can have millions of propagator calls in a solution process

- For this reason, they often run in constant or low-degree polynomial time
- ...And propagator are heavily optimized
  - E.g. the **ALLOWED** constraint is so efficient
  - ...That tables with > 100,000 entry can be handled almost instantly
  - This is achieved by relying on incremental computation

Constraint Propagation and Implication Graphs

In LCG solvers, constraint propagation generates an implication graph

This consists of the literals, connected by the generated explanations



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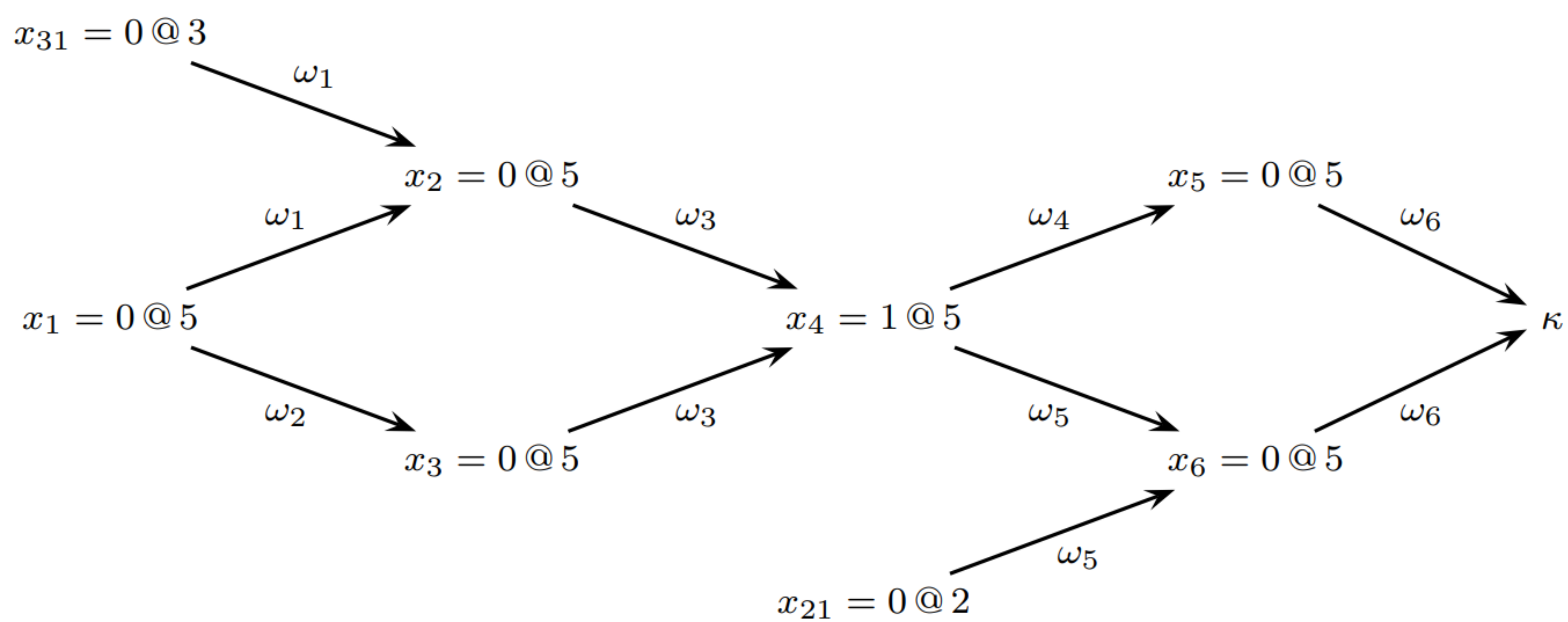
- In the pictures, x variables correspond to boolean literals (i.e. constraint states)
- ...And each ω is an explanation

Conflict Driven Clause Learning

In LCG solvers, each search decision also generates a literal

E.g. if we assign 1 to x_0, we generate $[x_0 = 1]$



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Each decisions is associated to a decision value

- In the picture, they are the number after the @ symbol
- When we make a new decision, we increment the current decision value

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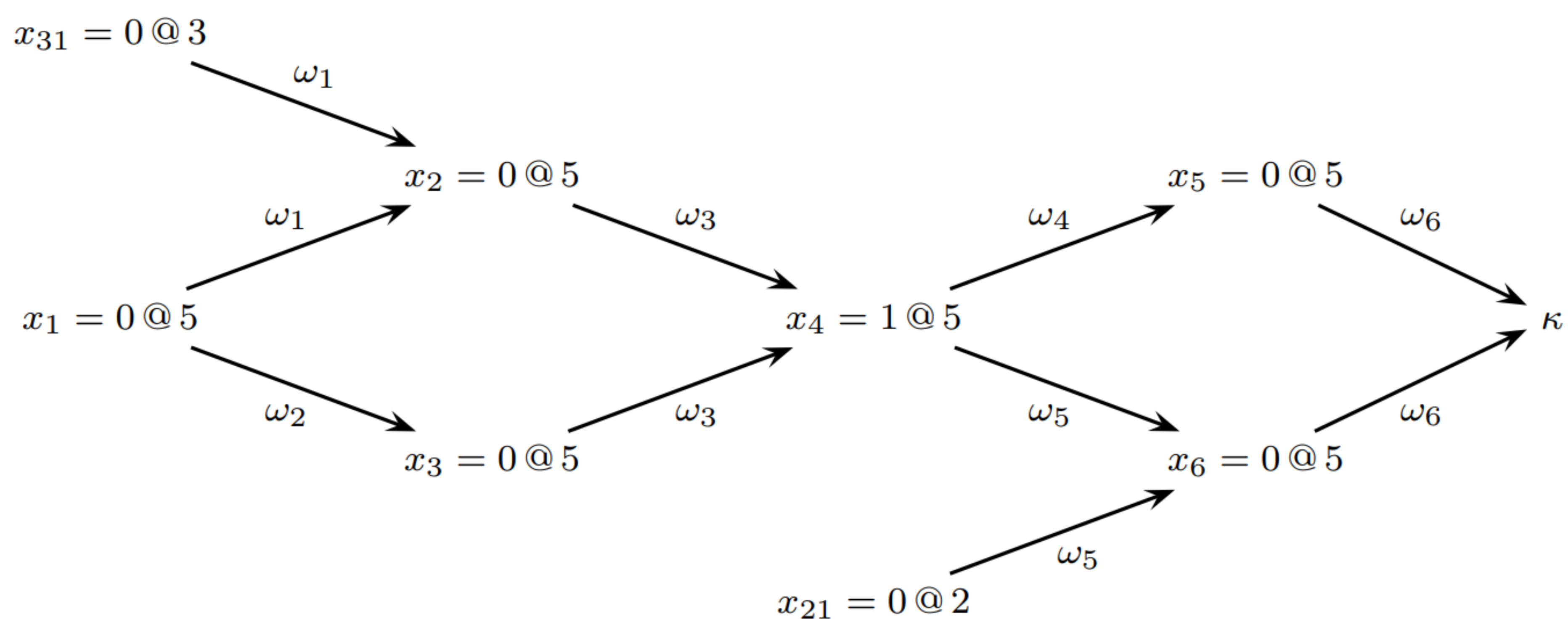

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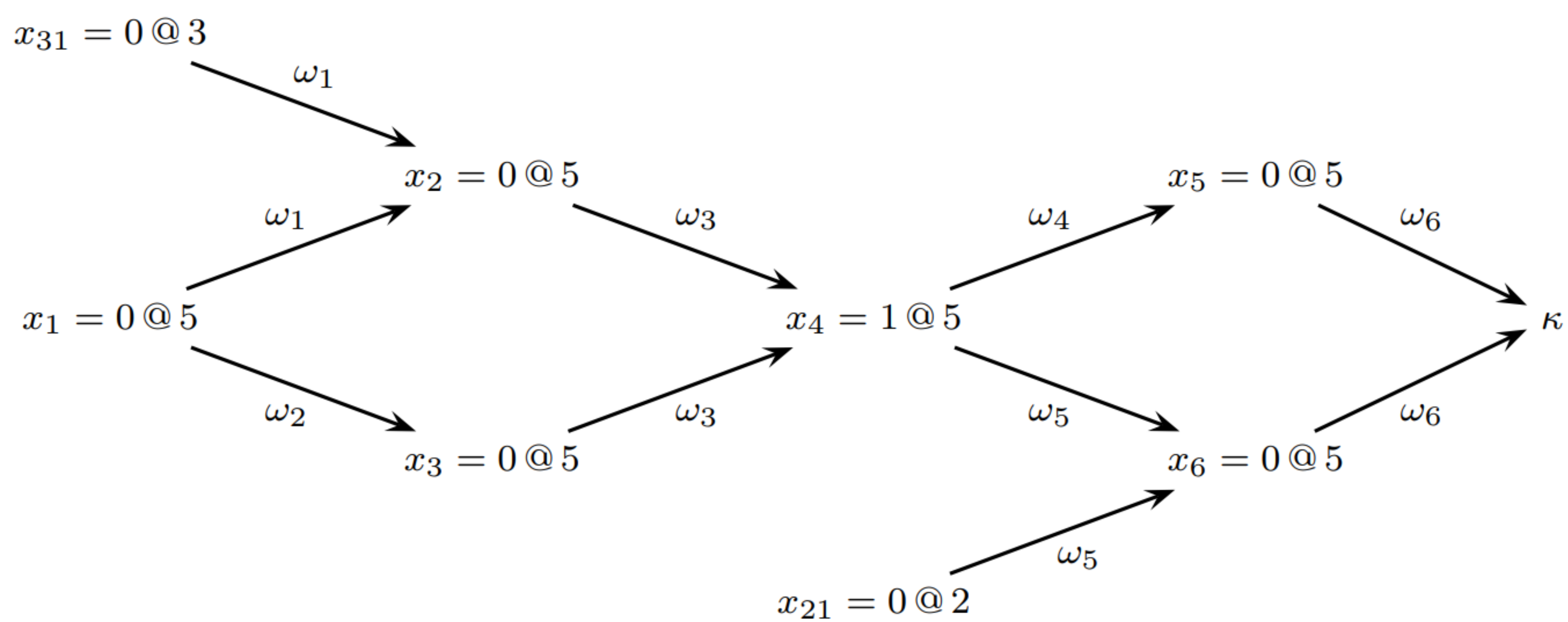
Literals generated by propagation are also labeled with a decision value

- ...But in this case there is no increment
- In the picture, many literals are associated to decision level 5

Conflict Driven Clause Learning

In case of a conflict (κ in the figure), an LCG solver can learn a constraint

This technique is referred to as Conflict Driven Clause Learning



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The idea is to identify which decisions (literals) are to blame for the conflict

- First, we identify all literal with the same decision value as the conflict
- The earliest one ($x_1 = 0@5$ in the figure) always corresponds to a decision

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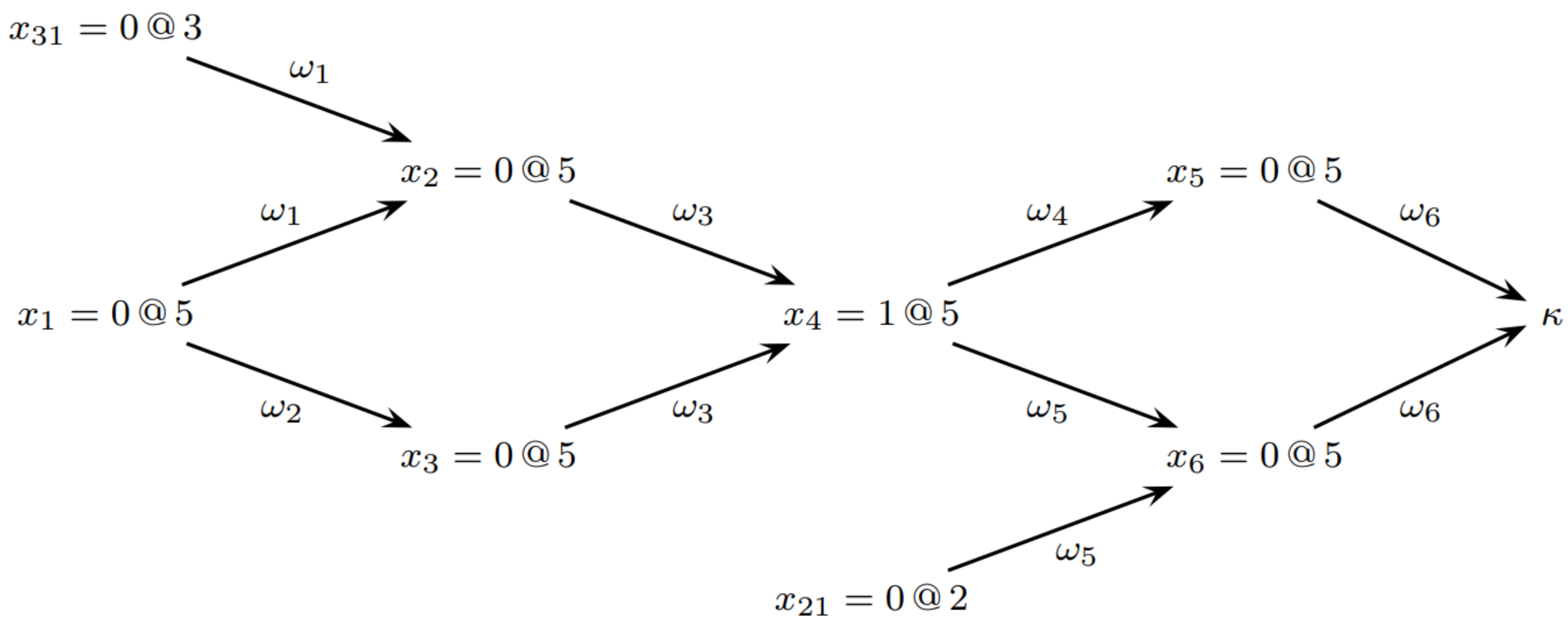

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Without this literal, the conflict would not arise

- ...Therefore it will appear in the learned constraint

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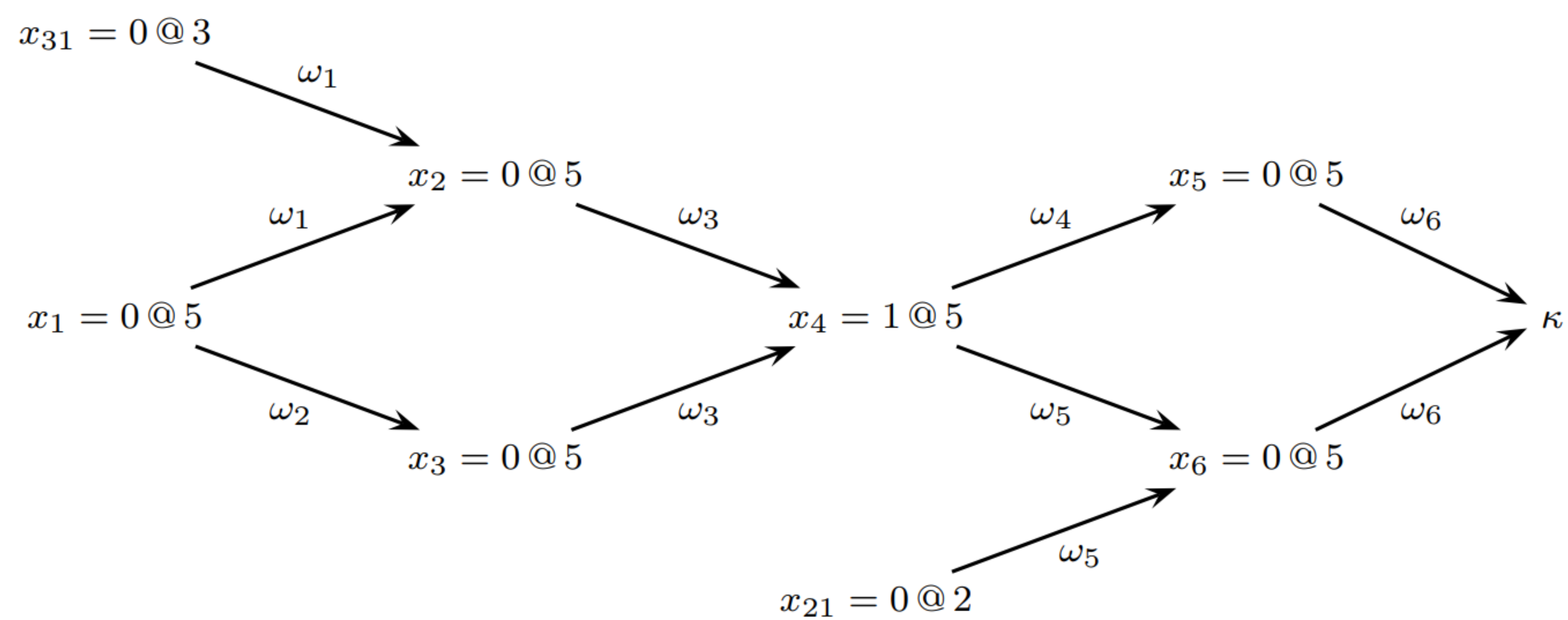

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To this, we add all literals with decision level lower than the current one

- ...That are connected via explanation to literals in the current decision level
- In the figure, those would be $x_{31} = 0@3$ and $x_{21} = 0@2$

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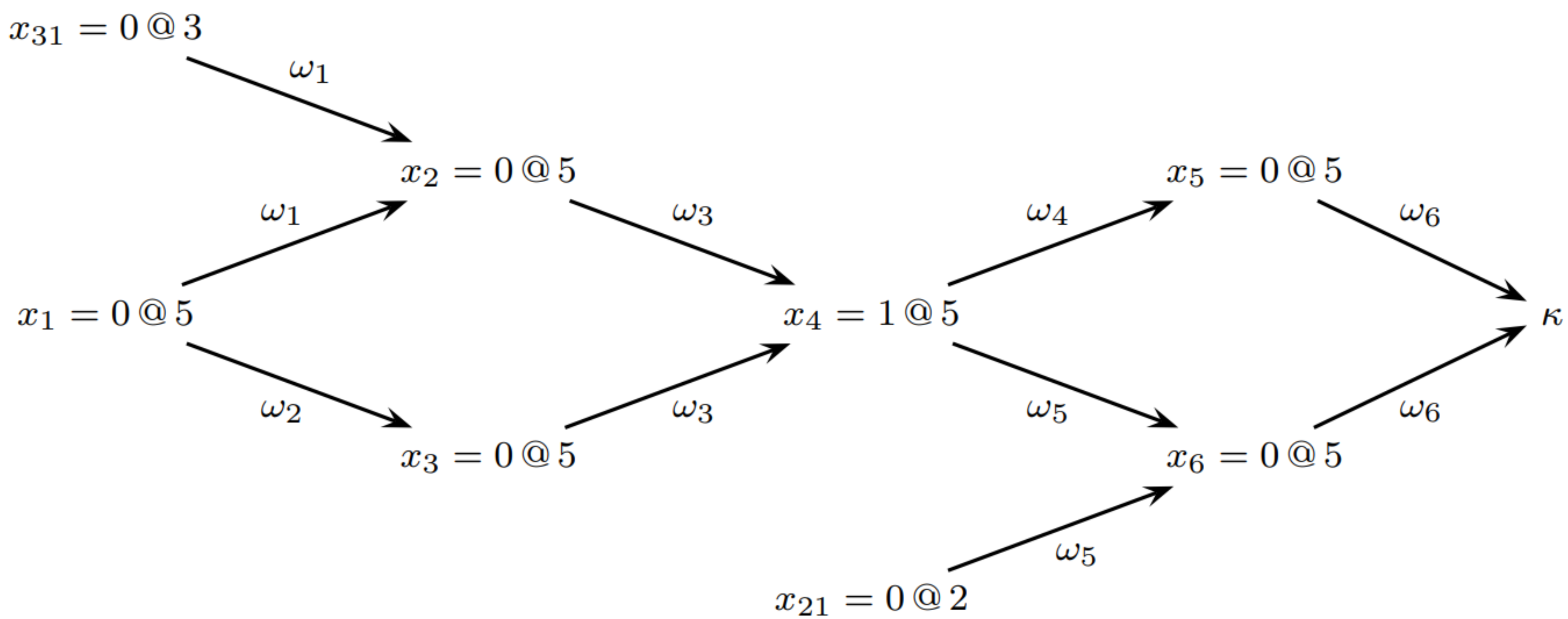

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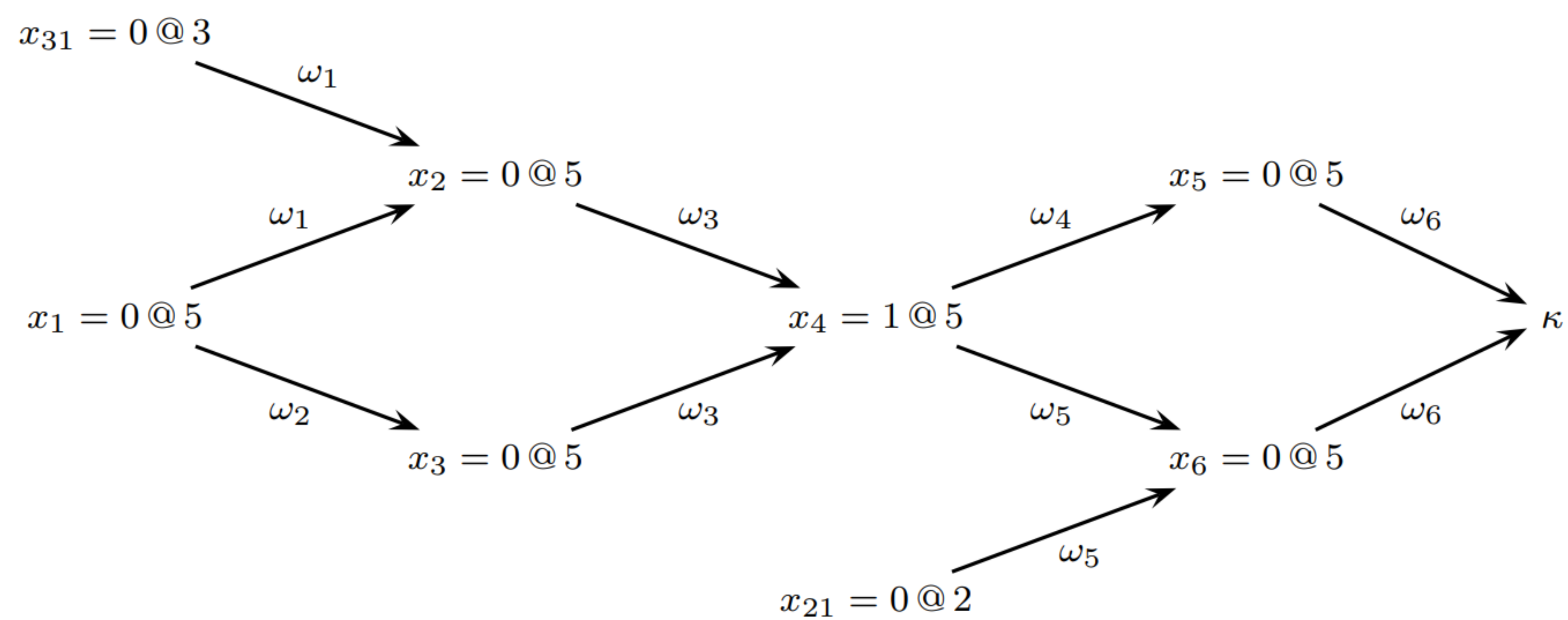
If we want to avoid the conflict, at least one of these literals should be false

Therefore the clause we learn is: $\neg[x_1 = 0] \vee \neg[x_{31} = 0] \vee \neg[x_{21} = 0]$

Conflict Driven Clause Learning

The clause we learn is globally valid

...So that we can restart search and we will not make the same mistake again



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In other words, we have a complete method that does not rely on tree search

- CDCL was invented for pure SAT solvers, and it is key to their efficiency
- In LCG we used it to obtain similarly strong benefits

Some Considerations

As usual, we have just scratched the surface for CP/LCG

- You can find more information about classical CP in this handbook
- ...And for LCG the best starting point are the papers by Peter Stuckey

Unlike MILP, CP does not rely on numerical optimization

- Combinatorial constraints are first-class citizens
  - E.g. we have no big-Ms here!
- It tends to work best for problems with many combinatorial elements

Unlike MILP, CP lack a global bounding method

- There is no LP relaxation, and propagation works at a local level
- CDCL goes a long way towards countering this issue
- ...But sometimes the lack of a global bound leads to weaker performance