



# Construction of problem-solving methods as parametric design

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The knowledge-engineering literature contains a number of approaches for constructing or selecting problem solvers. Some of these approaches are based on indexing and selecting a problem solver from a library, others are based on a knowledge acquisition process, or are based on search-strategies. None of these approaches sees constructing a problem solver as a configuration task that could be solved with an appropriate configuration method. We introduce a representation of the functionality of problem-solving methods that allows us to view the construction of problem solvers as a configuration problem, and specifically as a parametric design problem. From the available methods for parametric design, we use propose-critique-modify for the automated configuration of problem-solving methods. We illustrate this approach by a scenario in a small car domain example.

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## 1. Introduction

The literature on knowledge engineering has identified a number of different *problem types* (e.g. diagnosis, design, monitoring) (Hayes-Roth, Waterman & Lenat 1983; Clancey, 1985) and identified for each problem type a number of *problem-solving methods* (PSMs), which are methods that can be employed to solve a problem of that particular type. For example, diagnosis problems can be solved by such diverse methods as consistency-based diagnosis, hierarchical diagnosis or abduction (see Console, de Kleer & Hamscher, 1992 for a survey).

A central question is then “*which problem-solving method (PSM) is optimal for a given problem type?*” In general, the choice of an appropriate PSM will depend on the goal of problem solving and on characteristics of the specific input (knowledge and data). Consequently, PSMs must be selected from a library or constructed. In the former case, methods are selected from a predefined set, while in the latter case, parts of existing methods or newly defined parts are combined to construct a new method. Such a selected or constructed method does not guarantee the satisfaction of all the intended goals, for example due to lack of sufficient knowledge about when to apply a PSM, or due to

incompleteness of data or knowledge inherent to AI-problems. Because the intended goals are not guaranteed, we have to validate the constructed method. If this validation fails, we have to iterate the selection and construction process, using the results of the validation.

This paper proposes a novel solution for the automated construction of methods. The approach is based on the correspondence between the construction of methods and parametric design. A restriction of our proposal is that we consider a PSM as a logic program and study only the declarative properties of PSMs, and no efficiency or other algorithmic properties. In other words, we study only the configuration of the required functionality of a PSM, and are not concerned with the realization of this functionality by an efficient algorithm. As a result, whenever we say “problem-solving method” in this paper, the reader should interpret this as “the declarative functionality of a problem-solving method”.

Furthermore, our study of automated construction of PSMs is based on studying diagnostic methods, although we believe that it will apply in general to other classes of PSMs.

The structure of this paper is as follows. First we give a definition of the problem of automated construction of PSMs. Then we briefly present a representation of PSMs which allows us to view their construction as parametric design. Subsequently, we interpret automated construction of PSMs as a configuration task and we motivate our choice for the propose-critique-modify method for configuring PSMs. Finally, the body of this paper applies this method to the automated configuration of PSMs. We illustrate this method through a detailed scenario in which we configure a diagnostic PSM.

## 2. Analysis of the construction problem

The goal of automated construction of methods is to construct a method that produces acceptable solutions for a given problem under particular assumptions and desired goals. Our approach is to first configure and then validate a method, and, if this validation fails, to iterate the configuration step. We call the construction before validation *static configuration* and the configuration using the validation results *dynamic configuration*. The question in static configuration is “Which PSM is expected to be optimal?”, and in dynamic configuration “What should be done if the PSM does not give the desired solution?”. In line with the distinction of static and dynamic configuration we distinguish static and dynamic goals. *Static goals* are requirements (of the solution or of the method) that can be guaranteed solely on the basis of the description of the method. For example, the goal that a method always produces singleton diagnoses. *Dynamic goals* are requirements of the solution that can only be validated after executing the method. For example, the goal of a maximal number of diagnoses. This distinction between static and dynamic goals is not fixed. With more knowledge a dynamic goal might be established statically. Whether goals are static or dynamic depends on the knowledge that is available about methods.

The method description that we have to construct has to satisfy both types of goals. The construction process proceeds in two steps. The first step of the construction process concerns the configuration of a method that satisfies the static goals. If there is no such method, the second step occurs: we adapt the problem, assumptions or goals slightly such that a method can be constructed that satisfies the static goals (possibly slightly adjusted). If this method also satisfies the dynamic goals, a suitable method has been

constructed. If the method does not satisfy the dynamic goals, we try to adapt the method in such a way that it does. However, when this is impossible we again adapt the problem, assumptions or goals slightly and configure a method for these new inputs. The basic idea is that we construct the method that computes the “best” possible solutions for the given problem and assumptions and desired goals. For computing these solutions, the constructed method possibly has to apply to a problem which is a slight modification of the original problem, and under possibly slightly modified assumptions and for possibly slightly modified goals.

In all this, the object of the construction is the method description. The possibly slightly adjusted assumptions, goals and problem are side effects of configuring an appropriate method for a given problem under particular circumstances.

In general, the inputs of automated construction of a method are the following.

1. The input problem for which we need to construct a method (given as data and knowledge), e.g. the diagnostic problem containing the observed behaviour and the behaviour model.
2. The assumptions under which the method will have to operate, e.g. the single fault assumption.
3. The goals that the resulting method will have to satisfy, such as a maximal size of the diagnosis.

The outputs are the following.

1. The description of the constructed method.
2. The solutions computed by the method.
3. The possibly slightly adjusted versions of the input problem, the goals and the assumptions.

The input/output relation of the construction process is as follows.

- The output has to be a representation of a method.
- It must not conflict with the (possibly adapted) assumptions.
- It must satisfy the (possible adapted) goals.
- The slightly adapted inputs (assumptions, goals, problem) have to be closely related to the original ones.

### 3. The representation of methods

Our approach to automated configuration of problem solvers relies on exploiting the theory about problem-solving methods from ten Teije and van Harmelen (1994) and ten Teije and van Harmelen (1996b). In that work, we have proposed a uniform representation of (the functionality of) problem-solving method. The central idea of this representation is that of functionality of a class of problem-solving methods is captured in a single schematic formula. Some of the predicates and terms from that formula are regarded as parameters that must be further instantiated to capture different members of the class of problem-solving methods. Thus, given a schematic formula that defines the functionality of a whole class of problem-solving methods, different members of that class correspond to different definitions for the parameters occurring in the schematic formula.

It is exactly this uniform representation of an entire class of problem-solving methods that will allow us in this paper to view the construction process of problem-solving methods as a parametric design task. Since we will illustrate our theory about the configuration of problem-solving methods with examples from diagnostic problem-solving methods, we will now give our schematic definition of these diagnostic methods.

In general, a diagnostic problem arises if there is a discrepancy between the observed behaviour of a system (e.g. an artifact) and how the system should behave; in other words, the expected behaviour does not correspond with reality. The diagnostic task is to find out the cause of this discrepancy. A diagnostic method computes the solution for a diagnostic problem by using a model of the expected behaviour (the behaviour model, *BM*), the actually observed behaviour *OBS* and contextual information *CXT*. The computed solutions of a diagnostic problem represent an explanation for the observed behaviour.

Our uniform representation of diagnostic problem solvers is based on the following general account of their functionality. An explanation distinguishes *two types of observations*: it covers some observations, and it does *not contradict* other observations. The explanation is restricted to a *vocabulary* of special candidates that could be causes of behaviour discrepancy (e.g. components). Usually, we are not interested in all possible explanations, but only the *most reasonable* explanations. We also want to *represent* an explanation as a solution that a user can interpret. (For example, in medical domains, users are usually interested in the disease, and not in all the current states of the parts of the patient's body).

Together, these six aspects written in italics make up the particular notion of diagnosis that is realised in a given method. We can capture these general characteristics of a diagnostic method in the following formal definition:

When given as input the behaviour model *BM*, a context *CXT* and a set of observations *OBS*, a diagnostic method computes a set of solutions *Sol* such that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{Obs\text{-}mapping}(OBS) &= \langle Obs_{cov}, Obs_{con} \rangle \text{ and} \\
 Es &= \{E \mid BM \cup E \cup CXT \vdash_{cov} Obs_{cov} \text{ and} \\
 &\quad BM \cup E \cup CXT \not\vdash_{cov^+} \text{ and} \\
 &\quad BM \cup E \cup CXT \not\vdash_{con \neg} Obs_{con} \text{ and} \\
 &\quad E \subseteq \underline{Vocabulary}\} \text{ and} \\
 \underline{Selection}(Es, E') &\text{ and} \\
 \underline{Solution\text{-}form}(E', Sol)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Each of the six underlined terms is one of the parameters in our representation of diagnostic methods. Varying one or more parameters amounts to describing different diagnostic methods. The *Obs-mapping* determines which observations must be explained (or covered)  $Obs_{cov}$ , and which need not be contradicted ( $Obs_{con}$ ). *E* is an explanation for the observed behaviour by covering some observations ( $\vdash_{cov}$ ), and not contradicting others ( $\not\vdash_{con}$ ). We write  $\vdash_{cov}$  and  $\not\vdash_{con}$  as different symbols to emphasize that one is not necessarily the negation of the other, and that neither is necessarily the same as the classical entailment  $\vdash$ , *E* is expressed in a particular *Vocabulary*. We are interested in the most

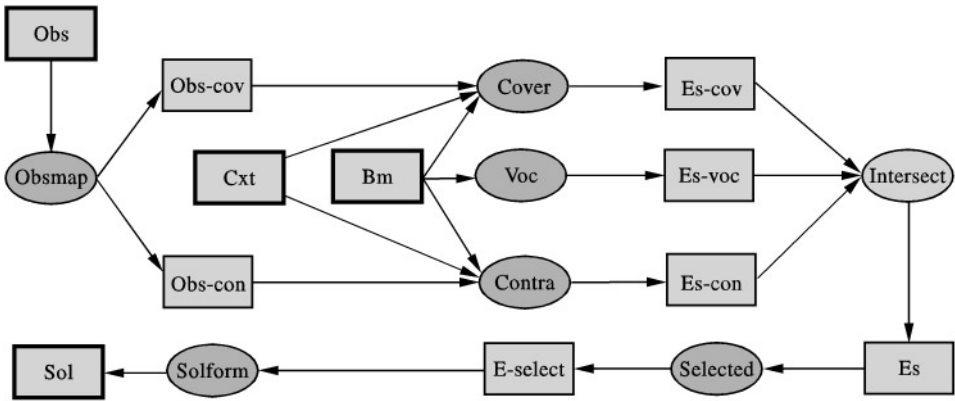


FIGURE 1. Components of diagnostic methods and their relations. This figure is the graphic notion of Formula 1. Ovals are components, boxes are their inputs/outputs, thick boxes are inputs/outputs of the entire method.

reasonable explanations, determined by a *Selection* criterion. The *Solution-form* determines the representation of the final result of the method. The dependencies between all these components of a diagnostic method is shown in Figure 1.

In ten Teije and van Harmelen (1994), we show that we can formulate properties of this general schematic formula, as well as properties of instances of the schema. Such properties will be exploited in the configuration of methods. In ten Teije and van Harmelen (1996b), we have argued that this representation can in principle be applied to families of methods other than diagnostic methods, such as methods for monitoring, design, classification, etc. As a result, we will claim that also our approach to the configuration of methods is general, and could be applied to such other families of problem-solving methods.

The connection of the above representation to the general notion of PSMs can best be explained by relating it to the view on PSMs given in Benjamins, Fensel and Straatman (1996), which is summarized in Figure 2. Given a *goal* to solve, a PSM contains a *functional specification* of what it can achieve and an operational specification which implements the functional specification. In order to achieve the intended goal, a PSM must make assumptions about the domain knowledge that is available to it.

In this context, Formula 1 is a functional specification of a PSM. More precisely, any instantiation of Formula 1 corresponds to the functional specification of a different PSM. This functional specification can be turned into a trivial operational specification by interpreting Formula 1 as a logic program, and adding the corresponding control-structure. The assumptions from Figure 2 correspond exactly to the assumption about the domain knowledge mentioned in Section 2.

The configuration process that we discuss in this paper can be clearly characterized in terms of Figure 2: given a goal and assumptions that we know to hold on the domain knowledge, find a problem-solving method whose functional specification fulfils the required goal under the given assumptions. Benjamins *et al.* (1996) already point out that in cases where such a PSM cannot be obtained, it is possible to either weaken the goal or strengthen the assumptions. As we discussed in Section 2, our configuration method allows for such changes to its own input in order to satisfy the goal as best as it can.

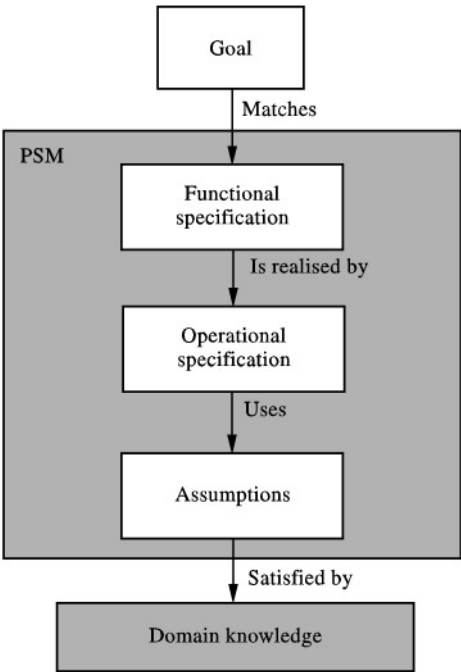


FIGURE 2. The architecture of a PSM. This figure is adapted from Benjamins *et al.* (1996).

4. Configuration task

In the literature on configuration there is a consensus about the nature of configuration tasks. Most definitions of a configuration task found in the literature are a slight variant of Mittal and Frayman (1989):

- “Given: (A) a fixed, pre-defined set of components, where a component is described by a set of properties, ports for connecting it to other components, constraints at each port that describe the components that can be connected at that port, and other structural constraints; (B) some description of the desired configuration; and (C) possibly some criteria for making optimal selections.
- Build: One or more configurations that satisfy all the requirements, where a configuration is a set of components and a description of the connection between the components in the set, or detect inconsistencies in the requirements.”

The configuration task can be considered as a search problem using the above types of inputs and output (Löckenhoff & Messer, 1994). The configuration process restricts this search space in four steps using the various types of inputs (see Figure 3). The set of possible components and the possible connections between these components are fixed and given beforehand. This restricts the search space to the *possible configuration space*. The constraints restrict this possible configuration space to the *valid configuration space*. The user-requirements restrict this valid configuration space to the *suitable configuration space*. The optimality criteria can possibly restrict or divide this space further.

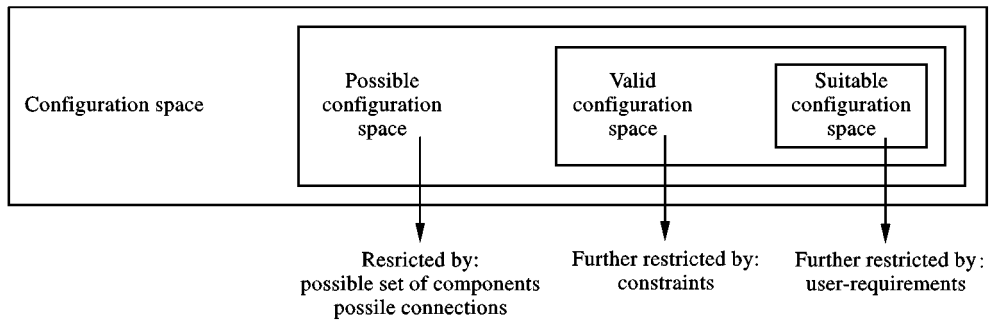


FIGURE 3. Configuration task as search problem.

Parametric design is a simplification of the configuration task. Besides a fixed set of possible components and fixed possible connections, in parametric design the actual connections between the possible components are already fixed in a given structure. Furthermore, each component is specified as a parameter, which has a particular range that is given before hand. This reduces the configuration problem, because we only have to assign values to each parameter in its own range and we no longer have to configure the connections between the components. See Wielinga, Akkermans and Schreiber (1995), and Motta and Zdrahal (1996) for a detailed analysis of parametric design.

4.1. AUTOMATED CONFIGURATION OF PROBLEM SOLVERS AS PARAMETRIC DESIGN

In this section, we map the automated configuration of PSMs on the configuration task. In order to make this mapping, we consider the general characteristics of the configuration task given above in the context of the construction of problem solvers and we consider the configuration of PSMs as a search problem.

We first consider the input types of the configuration task in the context of configuring PSMs. The inputs are the following.

- *Components*: the set of possible components are the possible definitions of the components in the schematic formula from Section 3 (Formula 1) (e.g. subset minimality for the *Selection* component). These possible definitions are the building blocks of the configuration and are fixed and given beforehand.
- *Compositional structures* (the connections): the representation of a method is the schema from Formula 1. This schema is the only allowed structure, and is indeed fixed and given beforehand. The mapping to a configuration problem is possible, exactly because we have a schema for representing diagnostic methods in a uniform way (ten Teije & van Harmelen, 1994).
- *Constraints*: the constraints between the diagnostic components and constraints between underlying assumptions of the components.
- *User-requirements*: the goals (static or dynamic) that have to be fulfilled.
- *Optional*: optimality criteria, transformation knowledge and heuristic knowledge for search. Although, we appreciate the need for these types of knowledge, they are outside the scope of our current work.

This list of inputs to the configuration task corresponds to the components of a PSM from Figure 2: the user-requirements of the configuration task correspond to the goal of a PSM, and the assumptions about the configuration components correspond to the assumptions a PSM makes on its domain knowledge.

The output of the configuration of methods consists of the six components of particular types, which are structured in such a way that together they represent a diagnostic method.

The three types of configurations (possible, valid and suitable; Figure 3) can be given a meaning in configuring methods. A possible configuration is a method that contains a definition for each component of the general method schema. A valid configuration is a method that expresses a diagnostic method and has no conflicts with the assumptions under which the method must operate. A suitable configuration is a method that satisfies the desired goals.

The mapping from the elements of a general construction problem onto our problem of method construction shows that we can indeed interpret automated configuration of diagnostic problem solvers as a configuration problem. In fact, it can even be interpreted as parametric design, because we use a fixed structure and the possible definitions of each component can be considered as the range of the parameter in Formula 1. However, in our view of configuring PSMs we do not only modify the method, but possibly also the assumptions, goals and the input problem, as already stated in Section 2.

#### 4.2. METHODS FOR THE CONFIGURATION TASK

A range of methods for parametric design is available from the literature. Of these methods, we have chosen propose-critique-modify as the most suitable for our purposes. We first briefly describe this method and then state why some other methods are less suitable.

*Propose-critique-modify family.* Characteristic of a propose-critique-modify (PCM) method is that when a configuration is not a suitable configuration, the configuration process uses the test results for determining a new configuration instead of generating a new one from scratch. The propose-critique-modify (PCM) family (Brown & Chandrasekaran 1989; Chandrasekaran, 1990) consists of four steps; propose, verify, critique and modify. We discuss each step in turn.

*Propose:* the propose step gives a partial or a complete configuration. Methods for the propose step are: solution decomposition, design proposal by case retrieval and constraint satisfaction (Chandrasekaran, 1990). For our specific case of configuring diagnostic methods, yet another method (similar to the one used in the VT-task (Schreiber & Birmingham, 1996) seems more appropriate. In this propose-method, parts of the design (in our case some of the parameters in the diagnostic schema) are proposed on the basis of requirements. These partial proposals are then completed into full proposals by proposing values for the remaining parameters.

*Verify:* the verify step involves checking that the proposed configuration satisfies the constraints and the user-requirements. Chandrasekaran (1990) distinguishes two verification steps. (1) "Attributes of interest" that can be directly calculated or estimated by means of domain specific formulae. In our case (configuring diagnostic problem solvers) these are the constraints on the diagnostic components and on the assumptions. (2)



“Behaviour interest” that can be derived by simulation. In our case the simulation amounts to performing diagnosis. Based on these results the dynamic goals have to be verified.

*Critique:* the critique step is a diagnostic problem of mapping from undesired behaviour to the parts of the configuration which are possibly responsible for this undesired behaviour.<sup>†</sup> This step analyses the failure of the configuration. Therefore, it needs information about how the structure of the device contributes to the desired behaviour. In our case, this is knowledge of how properties of the components of the diagnostic schema relate to properties of the complete schema. In this phase, one can use (meta-) diagnostic knowledge about goal violations and repairs.

*Modify:* the modify step uses the repair information from the critique step and executes the repair action. It changes the configuration to get closer to the specifications. In our case this is the actual adaptation of the diagnostic method.

The motivation for not choosing any of the methods that are available for parametric design is as follows. The simplest of these methods is generate-&-test. There is a wide range of generation and test steps, from a simple generation step with a knowledge-intensive test step to a knowledge-intensive generation step with a simple test step. Characteristic of a generate-&-test method is that when a configuration does not pass the test, the configuration process continues with a completely new configuration, without taking into account the reason why the previous configuration failed the test. In our case, it is difficult to generate good candidates from scratch. Instead, the system would generate many almost-good candidates, without exploiting them for constructing a good candidate.

The propose-&-revise family is a sub-family of PCM methods. These methods are used in the VT-domain (Schreiber & Birmingham, 1996). This family of methods is a simplification of the PCM method, because the critique step is replaced by compiled knowledge. The idea behind this family of methods is that it is possible to give an initial proposal for a configuration. This configuration is constructed by selecting values for the set of components based on the user-requirements. This configuration can be “fixed” (repaired) if constraints are violated. These fixes are the compiled critique knowledge. Fixes are direct associations of a constraint violation and a repair action by changing one or more parameter values (Runkel, Brimingham & Balkany, 1995; Marcus, Stout & McDermott, 1988; Fensel, 1995). Propose-&-revise methods require these fixes as search control knowledge.

A propose-&-revise method is not appropriate for automated configuring of PSMs for two reasons. First in our problem we need a full critique step. The critique step is quite complex and it is not possible to code it in simple direct associations between a constraint violation and a repair action. Secondly, propose-&-revise methods are used because of the large search spaces, but our most important motivation is to prevent the expensive tests of dynamic goals (performing diagnoses). Our efficiency problem is not in the constraints but in verifying the dynamic goals.

## 5. A propose-critique-modify method for configuring PSMs

In this section, we describe a method of the PCM family for automated configuration of problem solvers. We configure complete models and verify, criticize and modify them.

<sup>†</sup>Notice that this is a meta-diagnostic problem, since we are diagnosing failures in diagnostic methods.

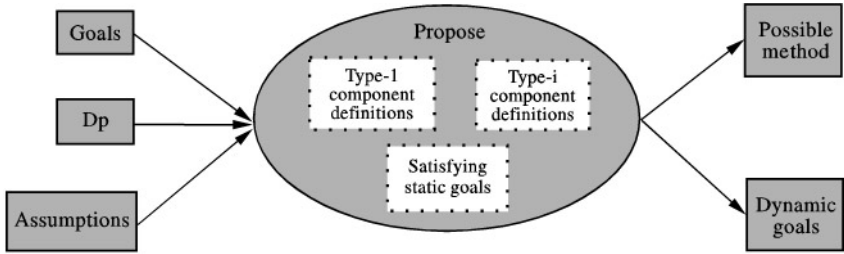


FIGURE 4. Propose step: the *possible method* is a complete definition of a method, where the *goals* are fulfilled as much as possible. The *dynamic goals* are those goals which are part of the *goals*, but which are not guaranteed by the proposed method.

We discuss the four steps of a PCM method (propose, verify, critique and modify), and visualize them in diagrams: the ovals are inferences (step and sub-steps in the method), the solid-line boxes are input/output data of the inferences, and the dotted boxes represent knowledge that is specific for a particular type of PSMs. In our case the dotted boxes contain knowledge about diagnostic methods.

5.1. PROPOSE

The propose step proposes a configuration. It has to propose an instance of the general schema that we use for representing PSMs. In our study, such a proposed configuration is an instantiation of the six components of the diagnostic schema. We describe a method by a term<sup>†</sup>

$$ds(Ob\text{-}mapping, Vocabulary, Cover, NotContra, Selection, Solform),$$

where each argument of *ds* (for diagnostic system) represents a definition of the particular component (e.g. *Obs-mapping*, i.e. one of the underlined terms from Formula 1). Such a definition is a definition taken from the possible set of instance of a component. The proposed components definitions are not structured, but are only a definition from a fixed set that is given beforehand. The *Selection* component is the sole component that can be structured. However, in the propose step, only “basic” selection criteria are proposed, which can be adapted to more complex ones later in the modify step the *Selection* component. We will illustrate this in the scenario in Section 6.

The propose step (see Figure 4) results in a configuration (i.e. a method description) from the possible configuration space, by selecting a definition for each of the six components. This selection is controlled by the required static goals. An example of a static goal would be that the configured method has to result in a small set of the solutions, which would result in proposing a strong *Selection* component.

If the static goals do not determine a definition for each component (or when there are no static goals), the proposed method is completed with an arbitrarily chosen definition from the set of possible definitions for these components. When different static goals require different definitions of the same component, one of these definitions is chosen

<sup>†</sup>Terms beginning with a capital letter will denote variables.

arbitrarily and the goals that are not guaranteed by the method become dynamic goals. Satisfying static goals might depend on the diagnostic problem or on the given assumptions. For this reason, the given input assumptions and problem are input for the propose step.

Characteristic of this propose step is that it always gives a proposal, and that the static goals controls the search space in this phase of the configuration process. The specific (diagnostic) knowledge that is used in the propose step is (1) the knowledge for fulfilling a statical goal, (2) the number of components (the arity of the schema of  $ds(\dots)$ ) and (3) a set of definitions for each component. The propose step enables us to generate possible methods using the definitions for the diagnostic components in the system. However, at this moment, we do not say anything about the sequence of choices of diagnostic component and about the sequence of the proposed configurations.

5.2. VERIFY

The verify step checks whether the proposed method satisfies the constraints and the user-requirements (goals). The verify step is divided into two (sub-) steps: knowledge-verification and simulation-verification (these names are taken from Chandrasekaran (1990)). In the context of problem-solving methods, we might better call them the static-verification (verifying before execution of the method) and the dynamic-verification (verifying after execution of the method), respectively. We discuss both verification steps in turn.

*Knowledge-verification.* In flexible problem solving, the knowledge-verification consists of two types of problem-type specific knowledge (e.g. diagnosis specific): (1) constraints between components and (2) constraints following from assumptions. The knowledge-verification step (see Figure 5) uses the component-constraints and the assumption-constraints for testing whether a method is valid. Both types of constraints might depend on the given assumptions and the input problem. For example, the compatibility of some diagnostic components depends on the kind of behaviour model (which is part of the diagnostic input problem).

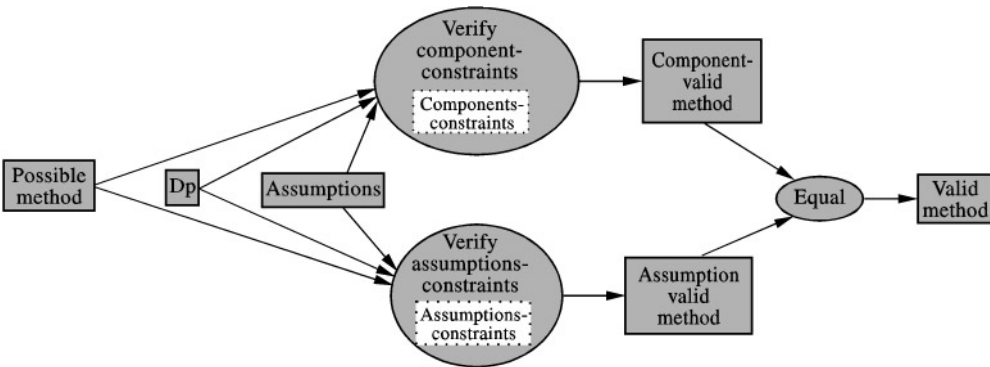


FIGURE 5. Knowledge-verify step: a *valid method* is a *possible method* which causes no assumption conflicts and no component-constraint conflicts. If verification failed a new propose step will be performed.

An example of an assumption-conflict is the following: suppose that the assumption is given that the causes in our behaviour model are not necessarily independent, but are possibly correlated. This would cause an assumption-conflict if we would ever use number-minimality as a *Selection* component. Number-minimality selects the explanation with the lowest number of causes (since a small number of faults is more likely than a high number of faults). This minimality-criterion only makes sense if the causes are assumed to be uncorrelated. After all, if the causes are correlated, a single unmodelled cause might underly a large number of correlated causes in our explanation, and we would incorrectly rule out such an explanation with our selection criterion.

In the configuration literature the term *valid configuration* is used. A method is valid if it is both component-valid and assumption-valid. A method is *component-valid* if and only if all the component constraints hold and a method is *assumption-valid* if no assumption conflict occurs.

If verification fails, a new propose step will be performed. However, the distinction between the propose step and the verify step is relative. We can make the propose step gradually more knowledge intensive by including more knowledge of the knowledge-verification step in the propose step. We can only propose component-valid methods, or only assumption-valid methods, or even only valid methods. We can make the propose step less knowledge intensive by generating arbitrary methods, without using the static goals for guiding the proposal of a method. The knowledge about the particular problem type (in our case diagnosis) determines which type of knowledge (static goals, assumption conflicts or component constraints) must be part of the propose of knowledge-verification steps. In our case the knowledge about diagnostic methods enables us to guide the propose step using the static goals. This makes the propose step a kind of nested generate-&-test, which generates proposals which are tested using the static goals. This saves us from generating proposals which can be easily determined as inappropriate.

*Simulation-verification.* Simulation-verification consists of performing diagnosis followed by tests whether the dynamic goals are met. Diagnosis is performed using the valid method of the knowledge verification step. The computed diagnoses are used for testing the dynamic goals (see Figure 6).

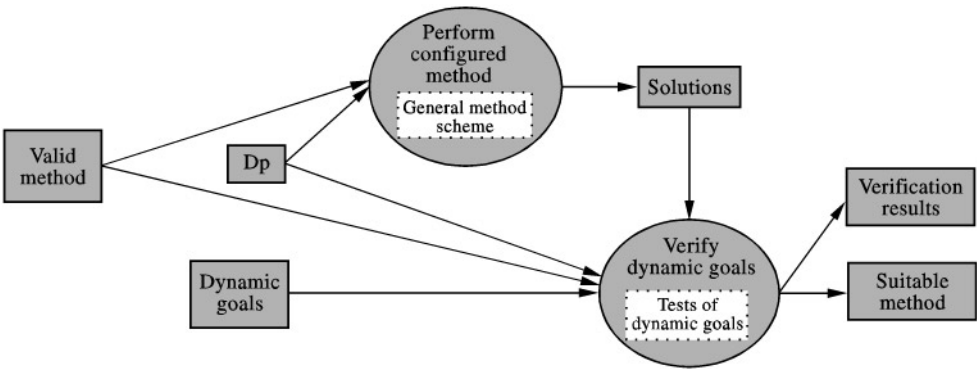


FIGURE 6. Simulation-verify step: if the *verification-results* contains “success” then the method is a *suitable method*. The *verification-results* is “success” if the *valid method* meets all the *dynamic goals*, otherwise the result consist of the violated goals, as well as the used method.

The verification of the dynamic goals requires the computed diagnoses. Computing these diagnoses is expensive, and therefore the simulation-verification is expensive. An examples of a dynamic goals is a requirement on the size of the diagnoses. Sometimes these dynamic goals can be guaranteed by a particular choice of a component (i.e. statically determined), but if this component is not appropriate for other reasons (e.g. an assumption conflict) then we might chose another component. In such a case, we have to verify this goal dynamically. In the case where not all goals are met, the results of verification contain the failing goals, as well as the method that failed to meet these goals.

### 5.3. CRITIQUE

The critique step is an analysis of why the verification failed; in other words why the method is not an appropriate method. In our propose-critique-modify method, we verify and criticize complete methods. The results of the step is the identification of one of the six components that is held responsible for the failure of the verification step. Note that we do not yet identify a possible repair action that must be taken to fix this component. That is the purpose of the modify step. The blame-assignment is done based on domain-specific knowledge (i.e. diagnosis knowledge). Unfortunately, we do have only limited concrete examples of such knowledge. Another open issue is what to do if there are multiple possible components that can be responsible for the verification failure.

An example would be a violation of the goal “maximum number of diagnoses is one”. The system might contain the knowledge that the existence of too many solutions can be blamed on the selection criterion. A possible subsequent repair action in the modify step would then be to use a definition for the *Selection* component that filters more explanations.

We need a critique step, because the verification (especially the simulation-verification) is very expensive (because of performing diagnosis). Such a critique step enables us to control the search instead of generating arbitrary methods and testing these methods until we find a correct one. This is our main motivation for using a propose-critique-modify method. Normally, the large search space is the main motivation to use PCM methods. In our case this holds too, but even more important is the motivation of the expensive simulation-verification step. Therefore, controlling (reducing) the search space is necessary.

### 5.4. MODIFY

The modify step uses the result of the critique step to find an appropriate modification. Given a component that must be modified, finding the appropriate repair action is not immediately obvious. Like every step of our PCM-method the modification uses problem-type specific knowledge, such as the properties of components. For example, the repair-action of strengthening the *Selection* component results in checking for which possible *Selection* components this holds (for example: “number-minimal” is stronger then “subset-minimal”).

Another example of knowledge that is useful for modifications of methods is whether configurations (methods) give the same solutions. This enables us to exclude modification before verifying, and therefore to avoid the expensive simulation verify.

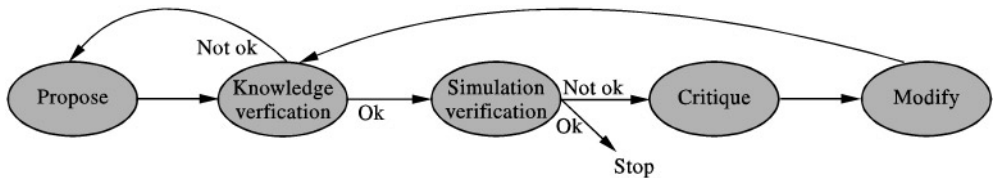


FIGURE 7. Control structure for the PCM method.

For example, in diagnosis we have the knowledge that when the computed sets of explanations are equal, we know that using the same values for the *Selection* and *Solform* components will result in the same solutions for these two methods. We can use this in avoiding a useless repair-action.

A modification action can consist of modifying an individual component so that it has a desired property, modifying an entire method so that it has a desired property or tuning components so that they become more compatible. We have mainly studied modification of methods, although it is also possible to modify some of the given inputs (i.e. goals or assumptions). Finding the appropriate modification step can be a complex process that might consist of generating possible repairs, and preferring those that are “closest” to the original component. In Section 6.2, we illustrate such a complex repair-action.

5.5 CONTROL OF THE PCM-METHOD

The control of the propose-critique-modify method is given in Figure 7. We propose a possible method until the knowledge-verification succeeds. Having found a method that passes the knowledge-verification step, we continue with the simulation-verification step. If the simulation-verification succeeds the automated configuration is finished, otherwise the critique phase analyses the failure of the configuration, and based on the analysis results the repair action is performed in the modify step. The modified method or inputs are again tested in the knowledge-verification step. If this step fails, we resort to a newly proposed candidate, otherwise we continue with the simulation-verification.

6. A scenario of the proposed PCM-method

In this section, we illustrate our PSM-method for the configuration of methods. We start with an initial configuration problem: a diagnostic case to be solved, plus assumptions and goals to be satisfied by the diagnostic method that we will configure. We then pass through the various steps of our method, each indicated with a ▷.

Before giving the detailed description of each of the steps from our scenario, we give an outline of the overall scenario. The entire succession of steps is graphically depicted in Figure 8.

After receiving a problem description as input (Formula 2, as indicated in the figure), the first step of the configuration process is to propose potential candidate methods for solving the given problem. This first candidate (Formula 3) is immediately eliminated in the knowledge-verification step, based on the analysis of the static goals. On backtracking from this failed candidate, a second candidate method is generated (Formula 4),

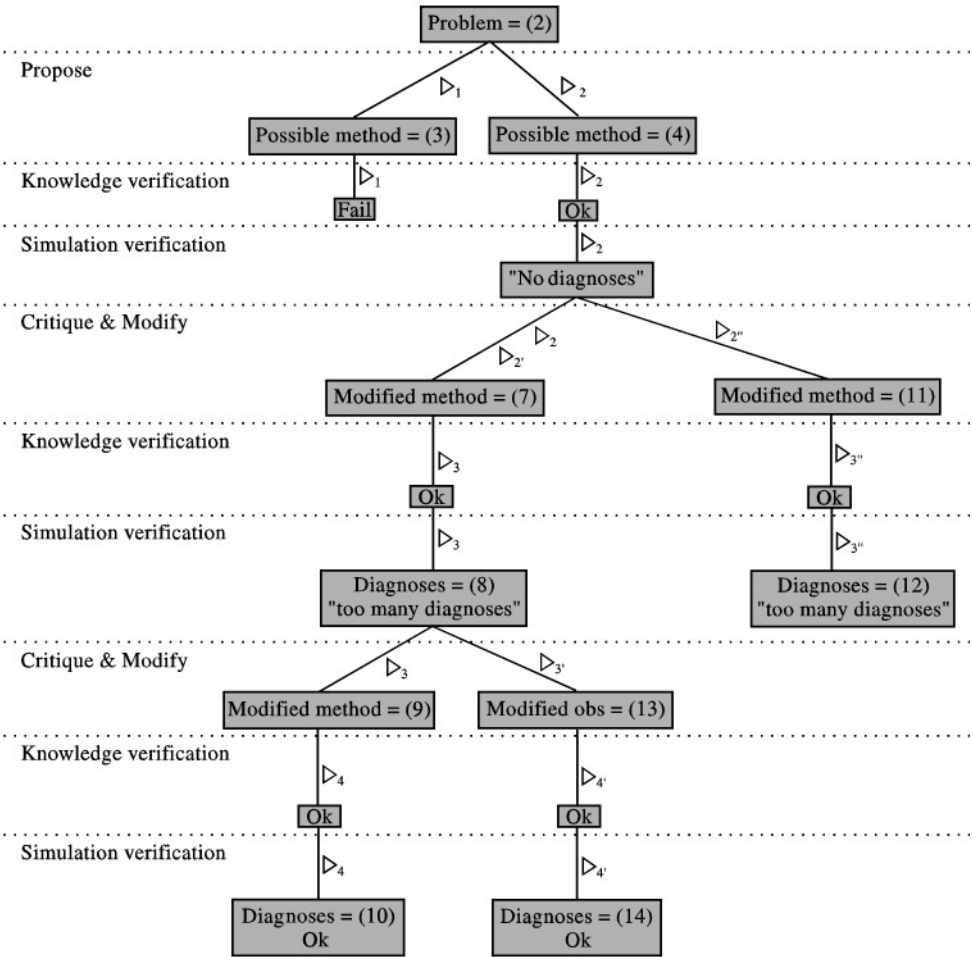


FIGURE 8. The search space of the scenario. Numbers in parantheses refer to the equations in Section 6, the  $\triangleright_i$  symbols refer to the steps of the scenario described in that section.

which does survive the knowledge-verification step. This method is then simulated, which unfortunately results in no diagnoses being computed. The critique-&-modify step proposes a number of potential modifications (Formulae 7 and 11) to this second candidate, aimed at repairing the “no diagnoses” problem. We will only explore the scenario concerning the first of these two modified candidate methods (formula 7). This modification is again subjected to the knowledge-verification step (which succeeds), followed by a simulation of the adjusted method. This time, the simulation results in the opposite problem, namely “too many diagnoses” (Formula 8). A second critique-&-modify step yields two further modifications (Formulae 9 and 13) of the current candidate method. Both of these pass the knowledge-verification step, and yield satisfactory results in the simulation step, giving the diagnoses from Formulae 10 and 14.

The amount of detail in which we have described the scenario might seem somewhat excessive. The reason for this amount of detail is that we can now ensure that each of the steps in our scenario is implementable. In fact, in ten Teije and van Harmelen (1996b) we have described an architecture which we have implemented using logic-programming and meta-reasoning techniques, and which is powerful enough to directly implement each of the steps that occur in the scenario of this section.

### 6.1. THE INPUT-PROBLEM

The input of automated flexible diagnostic problem solving is the diagnostic problem, the assumptions that must be respected, and the desired goals. The diagnostic problem contains domain knowledge of the system under diagnosis (the behaviour model, *BM*), the observed behaviour and the context. Our diagnosis problem is in a car domain and we use the domain model of Figure 9. The case contains two observations: *lights(yes)* and *engine-starting(no)* and there is no context information. The desired goals are: “use a standard notion of explanation” (*explanation-notion(standard)*) and “at most two alternative diagnoses are allowed” (*max-number-diagnoses(2)*). The given assumption is that “the causes are different in likelihood”:

$$BM = \text{Figure 9,}$$

$$OBS = \{lights(yes), engine-starting(no)\},$$

$$Goals = \{explanation-notion(standard), max-number-diagnoses(2)\}, \quad (2)$$

$$Assumptions = \text{the causes are different in likelihood.}$$

The scenario described in the next section will show the steps for computing the outputs of this flexible diagnostic solving problem.

### 6.2. THE STEPS IN THE PCM METHOD

▷<sub>1</sub> **Propose.** We have to propose a method with definitions for each of the six components. The goal that guides the choice for the *Cover* and *NotContra* components is *explanation-notion(standard)*, since the system contains knowledge that standard entailment is most frequently used in diagnostic methods (as opposed to the use of non-standard variations of entailment proposed in ten Teije & van Harmelen (1996a)). As a result, we choose for both explanation relations (*Cover* and *NotContra*) the classical entailment relations ( $\vdash$  and  $\nvdash$  respectively). The other four components are chosen blindly.

The proposed method is<sup>†</sup>

$$ds(abd\text{-}mapping, initial\text{-}fault\text{-}nodes, \vdash, \nvdash, \#-min, =). \quad (3)$$

In Figure 10 the definitions of the components are briefly described. In ten Teije (1997) the definitions of some of these components are given more formally.

The dynamic goals now become all the goals that have not already been statically determined. In this case the only dynamic goal is *max-number-diagnoses(2)*.

<sup>†</sup>We write  $\#-min$  for number-minimality, and  $=$  for the identity mapping.



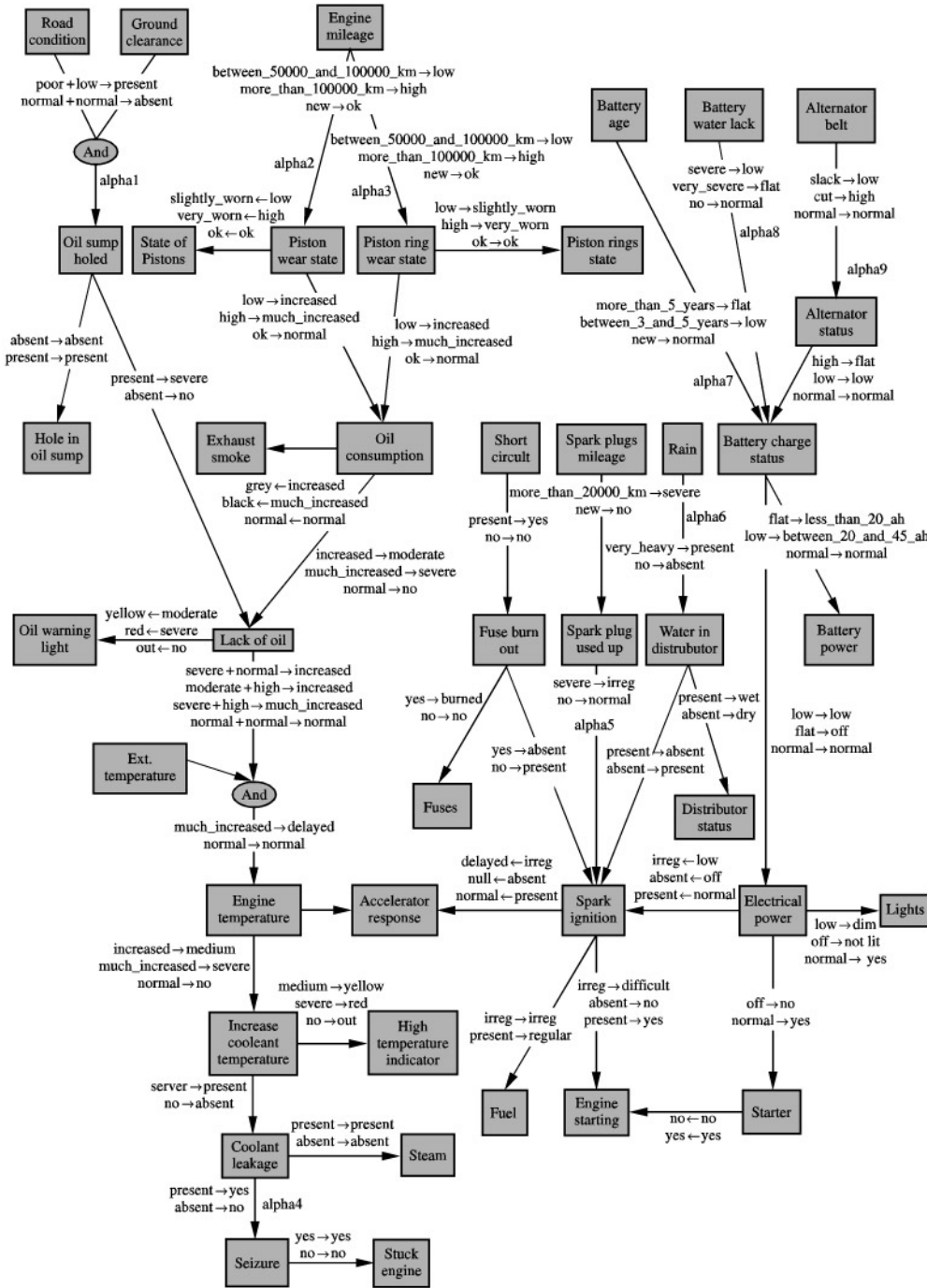


FIGURE 9. Behaviour model (BM) of a car from Dupr  (1994). We have taken this example for illustrating our PCM method for constructing PSMs with permission of the authors. The bold lines boxes are initial causes, conditions and observables.

Type component	Name	Description
<i>Obs-mapping</i>	abd-obs	All observations have to be covered: $Obs_{cov}$ contains all observations, and $Obs_{con}$ is empty
<i>Vocabulary</i>	initial-fault-nodes	The vocabulary contains all initial fault nodes and in-completeness assumptions ( $\alpha$ 's)
<i>Cover</i>	$\vdash$	Use of standard entailment
<i>NotContra</i>	$\nvdash$	Use of standard entailment
<i>Selection</i>	$\#-min$	An explanation is selected if it contains the smallest number of causes
<i>Solform</i>	$=$	No effective solform (thus a minimal set of explanations is also the diagnosis set)

FIGURE 10. The components of the proposed method.

▷<sub>1</sub> **Knowledge-verification.** One of the usual constraints on diagnostic methods is to demand that the *Cover* component is at least as strong as the *NotContra* component. After all, if an observable is entailed by a consistent theory, then that observable is also consistent with this theory.

The method described by Term 3 does not violate this constraint. However, there is another assumption conflict, because  $\#-min$  assumes that every cause has equal likelihood. This means that the knowledge-verification step has failed, and therefore a new propose step is started.

▷<sub>2</sub> **Propose.** We now propose a new method which is not obtained as a modification of an earlier candidate. Because this step is still guided by the same static goal as before (*explanation-notion(standard)*), the method still contains  $\vdash$  as *Cover* definition and  $\nvdash$  as *NotContra* definition. The other components are again chosen blindly. The propose method is now<sup>†</sup>

$$ds(abd-mapping, initial-fault-nodes, \vdash, \nvdash, \subset -min, =) \quad (4)$$

▷<sub>2</sub> **Knowledge-verification.** As in “▷<sub>1</sub> knowledge-verification” there is no violation of the constraint concerning the *Cover* and *NotContra* components. Furthermore, the assumption-conflict also disappear because  $\subset -min$  does not assume equal likelihood of causes.

▷<sub>2</sub> **Simulation-verification.** In this step the system performs diagnosis using the valid method of term 4. Based on the computed diagnoses it tests the dynamic goals.

Using the method of Term 4 results in the following:  $Obs_{cov} = \{engine-starting(no), lights(yes)\}$  and  $Obs_{con} = \emptyset$ . The vocabulary defined by *initial-fault-nodes* contains all the initial nodes of Figure 9 that correspond to fault-modes, plus all the assumption-symbols  $\alpha_i$ . Performing diagnosis results in “no diagnosis”, which becomes the verification result.

▷<sub>2</sub> **Critique.** The reason for not finding any diagnoses is that there is no explanation for *lights(yes)*: only incompleteness assumptions ( $\alpha$ 's) and faults are part of the vocabulary (*initial-fault-nodes*), and a fault cannot explain the correct behaviour of *lights(yes)* when we use  $\vdash$  and  $\nvdash$  for *Cover* and *NotContra* respectively. This step determines that

<sup>†</sup>We write  $\subset -min$  for subset-minimality.

Name	$Obs_{cov}, Obs_{con}$	Intuition
Complete-mapping:	$Obs_{cov} = OBS$ $Obs_{con} = \{\neg O_i : O_i \in \mathcal{O} \setminus OBS\}$	All observations must be covered the absence of all other observables must be consistent
Abd-mappin:	$Obs_{cov} = OBS$ $Obs_{con} = \emptyset$	All observations must be covered with no further consistency check (abductive diagnosis)
Cbd-mapping:	$Obs_{cov} = \emptyset$ $Obs_{con} = OBS$	We demand no cover and only that all observations are consistent with <i>BM</i> (consistency-based diagnosis)
Abnormality-mapping:	$Obs_{cov} = \{o \in OBS / abnormal(o)\}$ $Obs_{con} = \{o \in OBS / normal(o)\}$	All abnormal $o$ must be covered and all normal $o$ need only be consistent
Polarity-mapping:	$Obs_{cov} = \{o_i \in OBS\}$ $Obs_{con} = \{\neg o_i \in OBS\}$	All positive $o$ must be covered and all negative $o$ must be consistent

FIGURE 11.  $\mathcal{O}$  denotes the possible observable values, and  $OBS$  denotes the currently given observations.

a possible suitable repair action is to adapt the *Obs-mapping*. For instance, a different *Obs-mapping* might require only incorrect behaviour to be explained, as opposed to all behaviour, including correct behaviour, as in the current definition, namely *Obs-mapping* = *abd mapping*.

$\triangleright_2$  **Modify.** The modify step must now repair the component specified by the critique step. The repair action is determined by first generating a set of variants of the *Obs-mapping*, and then applying two filters on this generated set of *Obs-mapping* definitions.

- **generate:** generate variants of the *Obs-mapping* component.

We require that any solution of the method using the original *Obs-mapping* is also a solution for the adapted method with the new *Obs-mapping* (after all, we want to increase the set of solutions). For this, we require additional knowledge which states that the explanations generated by a method with one *Obs-mapping*-component are also generated by a method with another *Obs-mapping*-component, provided all the other components remain the same. If we consider the *Obs-mapping*'s from Figure 11, we can add the additional knowledge that any method using *complete-mapping* produces a subset of the solutions of any method using *abd-mapping*, and in turn using *abd-mapping* produces a subset of the solutions of a method using any of the other *Obs-mapping*'s (*cbd-mapping*, *abnormality-mapping* and *polarity-mapping*).

The complete definitions of all these *Obs-mapping* components are in then Teije and van Harmelen (1997), but in sloppy notation these definitions are given in Figure 11.

The generated set of *Obs-mapping* definitions is now

$$\{cbd\text{-mapping}, abnormality\text{-mapping}, polarity\text{-mapping}\}. \quad (5)$$

- **filter<sub>1</sub>:** of all the possible candidate repairs, we prefer the variants that are the “closest” to be the original *Obs-mapping* component. We define “closest” as those *Obs-mapping* definitions whose  $Obs_{cov}$  set is (1) in any case no superset of the original  $Obs_{cov}$  set (since

we do not want to explain more observable values strongly) and (2) is not a subset of another possible  $Obs_{cov}$  set (since we want to delete as few observable values as possible).

For both of these points, we need additional knowledge about the inclusion relations of the  $Obs_{cov}$  set produced by the various *Obs-mapping*'s. The additional knowledge required for this scenario is as follows, where the inclusion relation is from left-to-right in the figure:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \nearrow \text{abnormality-mapping} \searrow & \\ \text{cbd-mapping} & & \text{abd-mapping} = \text{complete-mapping} \\ & \searrow \text{polarity-mapping} \nearrow & \end{array}$$

This factual knowledge is stored as given facts in our system. However, given sufficiently powerful theorem-proving techniques, it would be possible for the system to automatically derive these facts from the definitions in Figure 11. From these definitions, it follows that closest *Obs-mapping* to the *abd-mapping* are the *polarity-mapping* and the *abnormality-mapping*. The generated Set 5 is therefore reduced by this filter to

$$\{\text{abnormality-mapping}, \text{polarity-mapping}\}. \quad (6)$$

- *filter*<sub>2</sub>: We now filter those variants which result in the same solutions as the original method in the current case. In this filter the system executes a part of the diagnosis, namely the *Obs-mapping* definition. The results of the possible *Obs-mapping* definitions have to be computed and compared with the outputs of the original *Obs-mapping*. Those which give the same  $Obs_{cov}$  and  $Obs_{con}$  will be detected from the set. In contrast with *filter*<sub>1</sub>, this filter is specific for the current problem on hand, whereas the *filter*<sub>1</sub> was independent of the problem.

Applying the *Obs-mapping* definitions from Set 6 to  $OBS = \{\text{light}(\text{yes}), \text{engine-starting}(\text{no})\}$  gives the following values for  $Obs_{cov}$  and  $Obs_{con}$ :

<i>Obs-mapping</i>	$Obs_{cov}$	$Obs_{con}$
<i>abd-mapping</i>	$\{\text{light}(\text{yes}), \text{engine-starting}(\text{no})\}$	$\emptyset$
<i>abnormality-mapping</i>	$\{\text{engine-starting}(\text{no})\}$	$\{\text{light}(\text{yes})\}$
<i>polarity-mapping</i>	$\{\text{light}(\text{yes}), \text{engine-starting}(\text{no})\}$	$\emptyset$

We see that the *Obs-mapping* with value *polarity-mapping* gives the same sets as the original *Obs-mapping* (which had value *abd-mapping*). The *Obs-mapping* with value *abnormality-mapping* gives other sets. The results in a set where the only *Obs-mapping* is *abnormality-mapping*.

The modify step therefore results in the method:

$$ds(\text{abnormality-mapping}, \text{initial-fault-nodes}, \vdash, \not\vdash, \subset -\text{min}, =). \quad (7)$$

The originally proposed method of Term 4 could not handle the observed behaviour that was the correct behaviour. The above critique-&-modify step tried to recover from this shortcoming by adapting the *Obs-mapping* component, resulting in the method from Term 7. The next step is to verify the adapted method.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Knowledge-verification.** The knowledge-verification step still succeeds, since the *Cover*-, *NotContra*-, and *Selection*-components, and the assumptions have not changed. (see “▷<sub>1</sub> Knowledge-verification”)

▷<sub>3</sub> **Simulation-verification.** Again we perform diagnosis, but now using the modified method of Term 7. Performing diagnosis results in the following diagnoses:

$$\begin{aligned} &\{short-circuit(present)\} \\ &\{battery-age(more-than-5-years), \alpha_7\}, \\ &\{battery-water-lack(very-severe), \alpha_8\}, \\ &\{alternator-belt(cut), \alpha_9\}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Unfortunately, the test whether the dynamic goal *max-number-diagnoses*(2) is satisfied fails. This means we have to perform another critique step.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Critique.** In the verification step, the problem of too many solutions was recognized. A repair action for this problem is a modification of the *Selection* component. If the new *Selection* component is a stronger filter, then less diagnoses will be left. The system uses the knowledge that constructing the conjunction of the current *Selection*-component with an additional selection criterion will have this effect.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Modify.** The repair action of configuring the new *Selection* criterion is executed in this step. In our case the *Vocabulary* (*initial-fault-nodes*) contains faults and incompleteness-assumptions. We can therefore apply a selection-criterion that prefers explanations which are subset-minimal in the incompleteness assumptions ( $\subset -min-in-\alpha$ ). The proposed *Selection* criterion then becomes “ $\subset -min$  and  $\subset -min-in-\alpha$ ”.

The adapted method is

$$ds(abnormality-mapping, initial-fault-nodes, \vdash, \not\vdash, \subset -min \text{ and } \subset -min-in-\alpha, =). \quad (9)$$

The proposed method from Term 7 resulted in too many diagnoses. The above critique and modify steps tried to recover from “too many diagnoses” and have modified the method. This modified method now has to be verified.

▷<sub>4</sub> **Knowledge-verification.** The knowledge-verification still satisfies, as before ( $\subset -min-in-\alpha$ , also does not violate the unequal-likelihood assumption).

▷<sub>4</sub> **Simulation-verification.** Again we perform diagnosis using the modified method of Term 9. Performing diagnosis results in the following diagnosis:

$$\{short-circuit(present)\}. \quad (10)$$

Checking this against the dynamic goal shows that we have now also satisfied the requirement *max-number-diagnoses*(2).

We have now (finally!) solved the original diagnostic problem specified in Equation 2. The method of Term 9 has explained the observations  $\{engine-starting(no), lights(yes)\}$  under the assumption “the causes are different in likelihood” for the desired goals “use a standard notion of explanation” and “at most two alternative diagnoses are allowed”. The sole compute diagnosis is Term 10.

During this diagnostic problem-solving process, the configuration system had to recover from the initial inability to deal with correact behaviour (by modifying the *Obs-mapping* component) and it had to recover from “too many solutions” caused by too weak a selection filter (by modifying the *Selection* component).

### 6.3. ALTERNATIVES FOR CRITIQUE & MODIFY STEPS

In this section, we give alternatives of the critique and modify steps of the above scenario. How to choose between these alternative actions is still subject of study. The search space which is generated by the trace described above and the alternatives describe below is depicted in Figure 8. We propose two alternatives for recovering from the impossibility to handle correct behaviour (i.e. two alternatives to  $\triangleright_2$ ), and one alternative for the critique and modify steps that tries to recover from “too many diagnoses” ( $\triangleright_3$ ).

#### 6.3.1. First alternative for “ $\triangleright_2$ Critique & Modify”

$\triangleright_2$  **Critique.** An alternative for the critique step is to better tune the *Obs-mapping* component to the *Vocabulary* component *initial-fault-nodes*. In general, the combination of *abd-mapping* and *initial-fault-nodes* is not an obvious choice, because using the *initial-fault-nodes* assumes that only abnormal behaviour is observed. However, the given problem also contains normal behaviour *light*(yes).

$\triangleright_2$  **Modify.** A more obvious choice of *Obs-mapping* component can be determined by checking whether we have observed both normal and abnormal behaviour. This is a case specific repair action, because we use the current observed behaviour in the choice of *Obs-mapping*. The abnormality or normality of the observed behaviour is checked using the *abnormality-mapping Obs-mapping* component. If execution of *abnormality-mapping* results in a non-empty set of  $Obs_{cov}$ , then we use the knowledge that the combination of *initial-fault-nodes* and *abd-mapping* is a bad combination, and *abnormality-mapping* is probably a better one.

The previous modify step results in the same method as the “ $\triangleright_2$  Modify” step namely Term 7.

#### 6.3.2. Second alternative for “ $\triangleright_2$ Critique & Modify”

$\triangleright_2$  **Critique.** The other alternative for “ $\triangleright_2$  Critique & Modify” is to adapt the *Vocabulary* component.

$\triangleright_2$  **Modify.** If the *Obs-mapping* component *abnormality-mapping* does not result in an empty  $Obs_{cov}$  set, then a better choice of *Vocabulary* is possibly *all-initial-nodes*. This vocabulary contains all initial causes (including correct states) and the incompleteness assumptions, and is therefore better turned to *Obs-mapping* = *abd-mapping*.

We would now arrive at another method than before, namely:

$$ds(abd-mapping, all-initial-nodes, \vdash, \not\vdash, \subset -min, = ). \quad (11)$$

$\triangleright_3$  **Knowledge-verification.** The knowledge verification still satisfies, as before.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Simulation-verification.** Performing diagnosis results in the following diagnosis part:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{for } \textit{light}(\textit{yes}): \quad \{\textit{battery-age}(\textit{new}), \alpha_7\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{battery-water-lack}(\textit{no}), \alpha_8\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{alternator-belt}(\textit{normal}), \alpha_9\}. \\
 &\text{for } \textit{engine-starting}(\textit{no}): \quad \{\textit{short-circuit}(\textit{present})\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{rain}(\textit{very-heavy}), \alpha_6\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{battery-age}(\textit{more-than-5-years}), \alpha_7\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{battery-water-lack}(\textit{very-severe}), \alpha_8\}, \\
 &\quad \quad \quad \{\textit{alternator-belt}(\textit{cut}), \alpha_9\}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

This yields  $3 \times 5 = 15$  diagnoses, so we have too many possible diagnoses. We end up with these other diagnoses because the critique and modify steps are based on the observation that the vocabulary was too small, whereas before (in ▷<sub>2</sub>) the deviation of the observations was considered as wrong. After verification we establish that “too many solutions” are computed. A repair action for solving “too many diagnoses” is needed. We do not describe this trace further.

### 6.3.3. Alternative for “▷<sub>3</sub> Critique & Modify”

Finally, we give an alternative for the critique and modify steps that tries to recover from “too many diagnoses”.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Critique.** In analysing the failure of the verification step, the system uses the knowledge that if the number of observations four or less and there are too many diagnoses, then the repair action becomes “ask the user the relevant observables for the computed diagnosis”. This repair action changes the input problem (since additional observations are requested). In contrast, the previous repair actions only changed the method.

▷<sub>3</sub> **Modify.** New observables need to be asked from the user. The relevant observables are those which are connected to a cause of the computed set of diagnoses, but that are not already part of the observed behaviour. Our set of observables for asking the user is therefore based on the causes: *short-circuit*, *battery-age*, *batter-water-lack* and *alternator-belt*.

In our problem the following observables are asked:

*fuses*, *distributor-status*, *accelerator-response*, *fuel*, *battery-power*.

The user gives only a value for *distributor-status*, namely *wet*. The new observation theory contains therefore

$$\textit{engine-starting}(\textit{no}) \wedge \textit{light}(\textit{yes}) \wedge \textit{distributor-status}(\textit{wet}). \tag{13}$$

The diagnostic problem has now been adapted by adding new information.

▷<sub>4</sub> **Knowledge-verification.** The knowledge-verification still satisfies as before.

▷<sub>4</sub> **Simulation-verification.** We perform diagnosis using the adapted problem and the method of Term 7. This results in just one diagnosis

$$\{\text{rain}(\text{very-heavy}), \alpha_6\}. \quad (14)$$

We continue with the test of the dynamic goals, namely *max-number-diagnose*(2), which succeeds. The diagnosis problem is now solved. Notice that we end up with another diagnosis then in the previous scenario, where it was *short-circuit(present)*. This is because we recover from “too many solutions” by asking new observables, whereas in the first scenario we made the *Selection* component stronger.

## 7. Conclusion & related work

In this paper, we have given a proposal for the automated configuration of problem solvers for an arbitrary problem type. We use a parameterized schema for describing a problem solver. Therefore, we are able to regard configuration of problem solvers as a parametric design problem. Our approach can be regarded as “knowledge intensive”: in solving the parametric design problem, we exploit much knowledge of the problem type for which we are configuring a method.

Fundamental to our approach is the representation of a family of problem-solving methods by a single parameterized inference structure. We have shown how this can be done for the family of diagnostic methods. Although we have not demonstrated this, we believe that a similar approach is possible for other families of problem-solving methods, such as planning, design, classification, monitoring, etc. For example, a large number of classification methods can be modelled as instantiations of a generic Heuristic-Classification framework, or Propose-&-Revise as the basis for a sub-family of configuration methods. Similar examples exist for other families of problem-solving methods.

This is a non-standard way of using inference structures, which are normally used to represent individual problem-solving methods. This parameterized inference structure provides the fixed structure of the parametric design problem, and the individual inference steps are the parameters that have to be configured. A fixed set of definitions is available for each of these inference steps.

Besides allowing us to apply parametric design to the configuration of problem-solving methods, this view of a family of methods as a single parameterized inference structure also has consequences for the organization of a library of problem-solving methods. Instead of the hierarchical organization of a library as typically proposed (e.g. Benjamins, 1993), our view instead suggests a multidimensional organization of the library, where each dimension corresponds to the choices that can be made for a single component. Every “point” in this multidimensional “space” (i.e. every combination of parameter values for the different components) then corresponds to a specific member of the family of problem-solving methods. The selection and configuration process in such a library will be based on notions of proximity in the “space” of methods (as was done in our “▷<sub>2</sub> modify” step in Section 6 by “closest” *Obs-mapping*), instead of hierarchically



refining sub-components as in Benjamins (1993). Sub-families will be identified as “clusters” in the “space” of methods, instead of sub-trees in the traditional hierarchical library.

### 7.1. RELATED WORK

In the knowledge-engineering literature, we find approaches for selecting and configuring problem-solving methods. (e.g. Benjamins, 1993; Istenes, Tchounikine & Trichet, 1996; Stroulia & Goel, 1997). All these systems use a method-decomposition tree for describing a method. In Istenes *et al.* (1996) the kind of operations on methods are: select a method, identify a possible method, choose the most favourable method. The approach is Stroulia and Goel (1997) is very close to our own. It also aims at dynamic method selection to improve the quality of the computed solutions. Stroulia *et al.* argue that changes in the control-structure over a fixed set of operators are in general insufficient, and that a different choice of operators must often be made. The “operators” (Stroulia & Goel, 1997) play a role similar to the parameters in our framework. The role of the parameterized inference structure in our work is played in Stroulia and Goel (1997) by the Structure-Behaviour-Function (SBF) framework, which is again based on a hierarchical decomposition, whereas our framework is not based on decomposition. The system is Stroulia and Goel (1997) performs a computation similar to ours: monitoring the problem-solving process leads to feedback on the results, which may trigger critique and modify steps, an analysis of the reason for failure, followed by blame assignment and a possible repair step. In Benjamins (1993) the configuration of methods is based on a decomposition tree of tasks and methods. The decisions for the choice of a method are taken locally at each node, without referring to descendants, ancestors and siblings. The necessary and suitability application criteria determine the choice of the method. The primitive methods of such a tree are labels, which refer to a semi-formal description of the method. The contents of these “labels” do not influence the choices during method configuration. Selecting a method means selecting an informal or semi-formal description of the method. This is a description that is oriented on algorithmic aspects of the method. However, one would expect that the functionality of the method also plays a role in method selection, as is the case in our work. The work presented in Talon and Pierret-Golbreich (1997) is in line with the work of Benjamins. However Talon and Pierret-Golbreich (1997) is more formal: they use preferential logic for the choices of methods. Furthermore, they can execute their configured method.

Remarkable is that all these theories of selecting and configuring problem-solving methods are in very high-level terms. This is a consequence of the desire to generalize the description of methods across very different families of methods, and therefore to avoid the use of specific knowledge, for instance knowledge of diagnostic methods. In our view, we have to exploit domain-specific knowledge for strengthening the theories of problem-solving methods. The work in Perkuhn (1997) uses this same approach of specifying a family of PSMs of a particular problem type by specifying prototypical members of a problem type. Perkuhn illustrates his approach with the problem type parametric design. This strengthens our belief that our representation can in principle be applied to other families of methods than diagnostic methods as we have already argued in ten Teije and van Harmelen (1996b).

## 7.2. LIMITATIONS

The first limitation of our work is the restriction to the *functionality* of problem-solving methods. A significant further step would be required to also configure efficient realizations of the methods (the operational specification of Figure 2). Popular though it has in the KADS school of thought, straight-forward structure-preserving design will certainly not produce efficient implementations of the declarative specifications of methods that we configure. Furthermore, we expect much interaction between the configuration of the declarative functionality on the one hand, and the construction of an efficient realization on the other. No sufficiently strong theory on this question is available at the current time.

A further potential problem with our approach is the difficulty of obtaining the knowledge that is required for the propose-critique-modify method. In particular, the knowledge for choosing between alternative options in the critique and modify steps has turned out to be very hard, even for such a well understood family of methods as diagnosis. In Figure 8, this concerns the choice of the alternatives  $\triangleright_2$ ,  $\triangleright_{2'}$  and  $\triangleright_{2''}$  “critique & modify” steps, and the choice of the alternatives  $\triangleright_3$  and  $\triangleright_{3'}$  “critique & modify” steps.

Finally, it is an open question whether families of methods other than diagnosis can be equally well captured by a single parameterized inference structure. We are optimistic on this question, given recent advances in this direction for other families of methods such as planning and design.

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