

Efficient Model Based Diagnosis

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Abstract

In this paper an efficient model based diagnostic process is described for systems whose components possess a causal relation between their inputs and their outputs. In this diagnostic process, firstly, a set of focuses on likely broken components is determined. Secondly, for each focus the most informative probing point within the focus can be determined. Both these steps of the diagnostic process have a worst case time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ where n is the number of components. If the connectivity of the components is low, however, the diagnostic process shows a linear time complexity. It is also shown how the diagnostic process described can be applied in dynamic systems and systems containing loops. When diagnosing dynamic systems it is possible to choose between detecting intermitting faults or to improve the diagnostic precision by assuming non-intermittency.

1 Introduction

The goal of Model Based Diagnosis is finding the cause of anomalies observed in the behaviour of a (technical) system. To reach this goal MBD, uses a model of the system to determine the components that are responsible for the anomalies observed. To determine these components, additional probing points may be selected. The number of additional probing points, however, should be minimal. Hence, we may not measure the output of every component in the system, which would enable us to determine the diagnosis immediately. Trying, on the other hand, to determine all the relevant information that is implicitly available, i.e. the model of the system together with the observation made, can be intractable [10]. To avoid this time complexity problem, several solutions have been proposed [10, 1]. The solutions are all based on ignoring some of the information available. This also holds for the diagnostic process described in this paper. However, it also uses information is ignored by other diagnostic systems.

The diagnostic process described in this paper exploits the causal relations between the inputs and the output of a component for model based diagnosis. Though the restriction to systems in which components possess a causal relation

between their inputs and their outputs, seems to be a restriction on the applicability of the diagnostic process described, it is not. Components of information processing systems possess, in general, causal relations between their inputs and their outputs. Also in physical systems, causality can be found. Physical systems consisting of components of different fields, such as mechanics, electromechanics, electromagnetism, physical transport phenomena, chemical reaction kinetics, irreversible thermodynamics, and others, can be modelled by using *bond graphs* [6]. In a bond graph computational causality can be determined between *all* components in algorithmic way. As was argued in [15], this computational causality corresponds with physical causality if such a physical causality exists. Hence, assuming causal relations between the inputs and the output of a components does not limit the applicability of a diagnostic process.

Using causality is not a new idea. To determine a diagnosis, Davis [4] has proposed the use of the causality for determining the ancestor components of the faulty outputs of a system. He uses the sets of ancestors of the faulty outputs to determine a diagnosis using a *single-initial-cause heuristic*. This heuristic implies that the intersection of these sets has to be taken. The resulting set is the set of possible candidates. From this set Davis eliminates candidates using his constraint suspension method.

The diagnostic process described in this paper is based on a careful determination of the causal ancestors on which the predicted value of a component's output *actually* depends. Furthermore, it is based on analysing the influences of the observations made on the a posteriori fault probabilities given and the causal ancestors on which the predicted output value of a component actually depends. This has resulted in a diagnostic process in which, given a conflict between a predicted and an observed output value of a component, a *set of focuses* on the most likely broken components is determined. Here, a focus is a set of components among which there is probably one broken component. The set of focuses is determined using a heuristic rule and can be viewed as a generalisation of Davis's *single-initial-cause heuristic*. Unlike the heuristics described by Chen and Srihari [2], this rule is not based on intuition, but on the analysis of a posteriori fault probabilities of the components.

Given a focus, the most informative new probing can be determined. The method described is based on the method described by Bakker and Bourseau [1]. Here, the entropy of a probing point in a focus is determined only using the focus and the set of components on which a predicted value of the probing point actually depends.

The diagnostic process described is also applicable for dynamic systems and systems containing loops. In Section 5 it is described how a set of focuses is determined in a dynamic systems. Depending on whether we want to be able to detect intermitting faults, a different set of focuses can be determined. Finally, in Section 6 diagnoses of systems containing loops are discussed.

2 The diagnostic process

This section describes the diagnostic process. First, a description of a system is introduced. Here, a description of a system consists of the components, the connections between components and the functions of the components. Each component possesses only one output. Since components with multiple outputs can be split into components with only one output, this does not enforce a restriction on the systems that can be modelled. The system inputs must be represented by special components that function as a source, and system outputs are a subset of the outputs of the components. There are no constraints on how the functions of the components are defined; i.e. the functions may be described by a composition of primitive functions, by logical expressions or even by algorithms.

When making a diagnosis of a system, first we have to determine whether there are anomalies. For this we have to compute the output values of the components, starting with known values of the system inputs and following the causal direction. When all relevant values of the system inputs are known, we can predict the behaviour of the system and verify the observed behaviour. Notice that unlike GDE [8], here the predictions are made in only one direction through the system determined by the causality of the components. This will be called forward propagation here. When an input value is predicted using the other input values and the output value, this will be called backward propagation.

When the value of a component's output does not correspond with its predicted value, we have a *conflict* and a diagnosis must be made. Since here it is assumed that there is a causal relation between the inputs of a component and its output, we know that one of the causal ancestors components of the output for which we observed a conflict must be broken. Because a component may function as a switch, the conflict observed need not depend on all causal ancestors. The set of components on which it *actually* depends is called the *dependency set* of a component's output.

To guarantee that the predicted value of an output depends on the corresponding dependency set, a dependency set may not contain components whose output value have been measured. Furthermore, each component in the dependency set of the output of a component c is either equal to c or a component whose output is connected to the input of a component in the dependency set. Finally, notice that components that function as a switch cause a special problem (confer [5]). The output value of a component that functions as a switch need not depend on all the inputs of the component. If the functions of the components are described by 'if ..., then ...' rules, the actual inputs on which a predicted value depends can be determined. However, there may exist hidden switches not described by 'if ..., then ...' rules. Take for example a multiplier. When one of its inputs is equal to zero, it functions as a switch. And though this behaviour is implied by its function, unless stated explicitly, it will not be recognised. Fortunately, for the diagnostic process described below, dependency sets that contain more

components than strictly necessary will only result in some loss of efficiency.

Definition 1 Let c be a component and let $Dep(c)$ be the dependency set of the predicted output value of c .

$Dep(c)$ is the smallest set of components satisfying the following conditions:

- For no component d such that: $d \in Dep(c)$ and $c \neq d$: d has been measured.
- For each component $d \in Dep(c)$ there holds: either $d = c$ or for some $e \in Dep(c)$: the output of d is connected to an input of e .
- The output value of each component $d \in Dep(c)$ can be determine from its measured input values and from the output values of the components in $Dep(c)$ connected to its inputs. An input value is measured if it is connected to an measured output of some component.

If we describe that a multiplier functions as a switch when one of its inputs is equal to zero, another problem arises. When both inputs of a multiplier are equal to zero, the output is determined by either one or the other input. Hence, we get two dependency sets for one output. Unfortunately, if multiple dependency sets for one output are possible, the number of dependency sets for an output can become exponential as is shown with the digital circuits in Figure 1. To overcome this problem we can use the intersection of the dependency sets of an output. This resulting dependency set is called a *focused dependency set*.

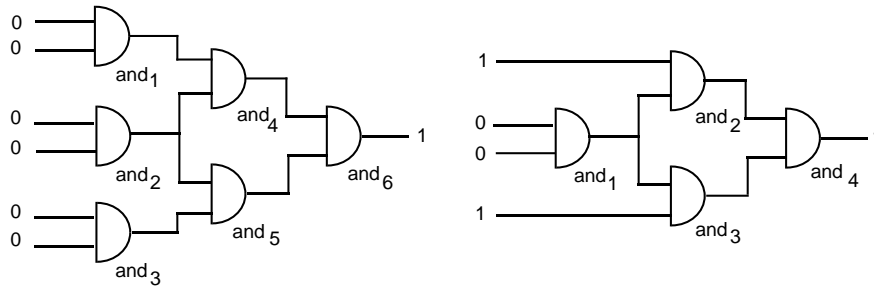


Figure 1: multiple dependency sets

Definition 2 Let c be a component and let $Dep_1(c), \dots, Dep_n(c)$ be the dependency sets of the output value of c .

Then the *focused dependency set* for c is defined as:

$$Dep^f(c) = \bigcap \{Dep_1(c), \dots, Dep_n(c)\}.$$

The focused dependency set of a component c defined above contains the components that *can* influence the predicted output value of c if one of them is

broken. However, they need not influence the predicted value because faults can be masked by other faults and by components whose function is not *injective*. Faults that are masked by other fault do not raise a problem as will be shown in the next section. However, components that can mask a fault because their function is injective do raise a problem. A comparator is an example of such a component. These components make it impossible to assume that a focused dependency set for a component c is likely to contain no broken component when the predicted output value of c is confirmed by an observation. Therefore, a third kind of dependency set for a component, called a *mask-free dependency set*, will be defined. If exactly one of the components in this set for a component c is broken, then the output of c is likely to incorrect.

Definition 3 Let $Dep^{mf}(c)$ be a mask-free dependency set for a component c .

$Dep^{mf}(c)$ is the largest subset of $Dep^f(c)$ such that for each $d \in Dep^{mf}(c)$ the probability that the output value of c will not change due to an incorrect output value of d is less than some reference value ϵ .

Both focused dependency sets an mask-free dependency sets can be determined during forward propagation of predictions through the system. Each time an output value of a component c is predicted given its input values, we can also determine the focused dependency set of this component given the focused dependency sets of the components the outputs of which are connected to its inputs. Let d_1, \dots, d_m be the components the outputs of which satisfy the following conditions:

- The output of d_i is connected to an input of the component c .
- The output value of d_i has not been measured.

Furthermore, let $\Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_k$ be the minimal subsets of $\{d_1, \dots, d_m\}$ needed to predict the output value of c . Then the focused dependency set of c can be determined in the following way:

$$Dep^f(c) = \{c\} \cup (\bigcap \{\Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_k\}),$$

where $\Delta_i = \bigcup \{Dep^f(d_j) \mid d_j \in \Gamma_i\}$. In a similar way the mask-free dependency set of c can be *approximated*. Let e_1, \dots, e_n be the components in $\{d_1, \dots, d_m\}$ for which there holds:

- The probability that the output value of the component c will not change due to an incorrect input value; i.e. an incorrect output value of some component e_i , is less than some reference value ϵ .

Then the mask-free dependency set of c can be determined in the following way:

$$Dep^{mf}(c) = \{c\} \cup (\bigcap \{\Sigma_1, \dots, \Sigma_k\}),$$

where $\Sigma_i = \cup\{Dep^{mf}(d_j) \mid d_j \in (\Gamma_i \cap \{e_1, \dots, e_n\})\}$. Notice that this mask-free dependency set need not satisfy Definition 3. Definition 3 takes also into account that sub-systems can mask a fault though none of its components has this property. In practise, however, these situations can be ignored.

Suppose that we have predicted the output values of the components and have determined the corresponding focused dependency sets given the initial measurements. When the predicted output value *conflicts* with the measured output value of a component c , the *dependency set* $Dep(c)$ is called a *conflict set*. Clearly, the dependency set contains at least one broken component. If the measured output value *confirms* the predicted output value of a component c , the *mask-free dependency set* $Dep^{mf}(c)$ is called a *confirmation set*. Since a confirmation set of c contains the components that are likely to influence the output value of c if exactly one of them is broken, it contains components that are all correct, or it contains a broken component whose fault is compensated by others broken components in $Dep^f(c)$.

Definition 4 If the measured output value of a component c conflicts with the predicted value, then the dependency set $Dep(c)$ is called a conflict set $K(c)$ and the focused dependency set $Dep^f(c)$ is called a focused conflict set $K^f(c)$.

If the measured output value of a component c confirms the predicted value, then the mask-free dependency set $Dep^{mf}(c)$ is called a confirmation set $B(c)$.

If we have observed a conflict, each conflict set must contain at least one broken output of a component. If such a conflict set contains only one component, we know that this component is broken. Hence the component is an element of the diagnosis. If, however, it contains more than one component, we must reduce the number of components by making new measurements. By measuring an output value of a component d in the conflict set $K(c)$, the conflict set is replaced by two new dependency sets, which are proper subsets of the conflict set $K(c)$. Given the measured output value of d we will observe a new conflict for c or d . In case of a double fault we will observe a conflict for both c and d . Hence, we will get either one or two new conflict sets, which are proper subsets of $K(c)$. This process is repeated till all conflict sets contain only one component. These components are the *diagnosis* of the anomalies observed.

3 Focusing on likely broken components

To minimise the number of additional measurements, we want to focus on the most likely broken components. Measuring their output values will give us more information than measuring the output values of components of which it is un-

likely that they are broken. The focus is determined by using the focused and the mask-free dependency sets of the measured output values of components.

Under the assumption that the components fail independently of each other, we can estimate the a posteriori fault probabilities with respect to the conflict and the confirmation set observed. Let K_1, \dots, K_m be the conflict sets of the outputs of the components d_1, \dots, d_m , let B_1, \dots, B_n be the confirmation set of the outputs of the components e_1, \dots, e_n , and let p_c be the a priori fault probability of a component c . Then, for the a posteriori fault probability p'_c of the component c there holds:

$$p'_c = p_c \cdot \frac{Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n | c)}{Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n)},$$

where $Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n)$ and $Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n | c)$ denote the probability that a conflict is observed for the outputs of the components d_1, \dots, d_m and a confirmation for the output of e_1, \dots, e_n (given that the component c is malfunctioning).

Since $Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n)$ is the same for all components c , it can be ignored. Hence we only have to determine $Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n | c)$. Here, two assumptions will be used. Firstly, in general, the probability that one fault is compensated by other faults is very small. Therefore, we may assume that the components occurring in a confirmation set are not broken. So these components can be removed from the conflict sets. Hence:

$$Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n | c) \approx \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c \in (B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n) \\ Pr(\overline{K}_1, \dots, \overline{K}_m | c) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

where $\overline{K}_i = K_i - (B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_n)$.

Secondly, assuming that the a priori fault probabilities of the components lay in the interval $[a, b]$ where $a \gg b^2$, $Pr(\overline{K}_1, \dots, \overline{K}_m | c)$ can be approximated by the minimal number of components such that each set \overline{K}_i contains at least one broken component. This assumption can be justified by the observation that a priori fault probabilities are very small. These fault probabilities, which depend on the mean time between failure, are of the magnitude of 10^{-10} or smaller. Suppose that the largest fault probability is 10^{-10} . Then, according to the assumption the smallest fault probability should be equal or larger than 10^{-18} . The reason for this requirement is that the chance of two broken components with a priori fault probabilities of 10^{-10} is equal to the chance of one broken component with an a priori fault probability of 10^{-20} . If the a priori fault probabilities are sufficiently small, in general, the assumption will hold.

Given this assumption the probability $Pr(\overline{K}_1, \dots, \overline{K}_m | c)$ depends on the minimal number of components needed to explain the conflicts corresponding with $\overline{K}_1, \dots, \overline{K}_m$ given that c is broken. Hence, it depends of the number of components in a minimal hitting set of $\{\overline{K}_i | c \notin \overline{K}_i\}$. Unfortunately, the

determination of a minimal hitting set is an NP-hard problem. Therefore an approximation will be used.

Observe that for each conflict set K_i there is exactly one corresponding focused conflict set $K_j^f \subseteq K_i$. Clearly, if each focused conflict set in $\{\overline{K}_j^f \mid c \notin \overline{K}_j^f\}$ contains one broken component, so does each conflict set in $\{\overline{K}_i \mid c \notin \overline{K}_i\}$. Because for the number of components n in a minimal hitting set of $\{\overline{K}_i \mid c \notin \overline{K}_i\}$ there holds: $n \leq |\{\overline{K}_j^f \mid c \notin \overline{K}_j^f\}| \leq |\{\overline{K}_i \mid c \notin \overline{K}_i\}|$, we can use the size of the set $\{\overline{K}_j^f \mid c \notin \overline{K}_j^f\}$ as an approximation. Hence, the following intuitive focusing rule can be formulated.

Rule 5 Given the components in a focused conflict set, focus on the components occurring in the largest number of other focused conflict sets but in no confirmation set.

Because this rule is based on determining an upper bound for the number of components in the minimal hitting set of $\{\overline{K}_i \mid c \notin \overline{K}_i\}$, the focus determined by the rule can be incorrect in cases of multiple faults. Experiments, however, indicate that this problem will not often arise.

By applying the focusing rule, we can determine a set of focuses, each probably containing one broken component. This set of focuses can contain non minimal elements with respect to the inclusion relation. Because if a focus contains a broken component, every focus that is a superset will also contain a broken component, we may remove the non minimal elements.

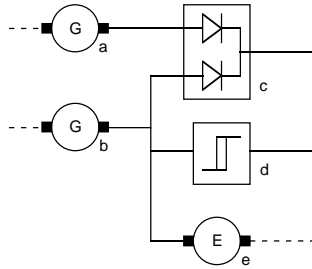


Figure 2:

Example 6 To illustrate the application of the focusing rule, consider the system in Figure 2 consisting of two DC power generators a and b , a diode bridge c , a device d indicating whether generator b can supply power and an electrical engine e . If both generators a and b are in use, we can determine the following dependency sets.

$$\begin{aligned} Dep_1(c) &= \{a, c\} \\ Dep_2(c) &= \{b, c\} \\ Dep^f(c) &= Dep^{mf}(c) = \{c\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
Dep(d) &= Dep^f(d) = \{b, d\} \\
Dep^{mf}(d) &= \{d\} \\
Dep(e) &= Dep^f(e) = Dep^{mf}(e) = \{b, d\}
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that electrical power will be available on the output of c if one of the generators can supply it, and that the signal of d cannot indicate that voltage of generator b is too low.

Now suppose that the engine e is not working property. If the output values of c and d confirm their predicted values, we can determine one focus $\{b, e\}$. If also the output value of d conflicts with its predicted value, the focus will be $\{b\}$. Finally, if output values of both c and d conflict with their predicted values, we can determine two focuses: $\{b\}$ and $\{c\}$. Clearly, the focus $\{c\}$ is too narrow and should have been equal to $\{a, c\}$.

Above it was assumed that the probability that a fault is compensated by other faults is very small. In general, this assumption is valid when the domain of a component's output values is sufficiently large. For systems such as digital circuits, however, the assumption does not hold. For such systems we must consider the possibility that less broken components are needed to explain the observations made when one fault is compensated by other faults. Hence, to determine the relative likelihood of $Pr(K_1, \dots, K_m; B_1, \dots, B_n | c)$ we must determine the minimal number of components such that each conflict set contains at least one broken component and each confirmation set contains either zero or at least two broken components whose fault compensate each other. Because this problem is even harder than determining a minimal hitting set of the conflict sets, again an approximation will be used. This approximation is based on the assumption that the mask-free dependency set of a component is equal to its focused dependency set.

If the component c , which is assumed to be broken, is a member of a confirmation set, we need at least one other broken component in the confirmation set to compensate the fault caused by c . Hence, if c is broken, then, under the assumption that the mask-free dependency set of a component is equal to its focused dependency set, the confirmation set becomes focused conflict set in which there is a broken component not equal to c . Furthermore, the fault caused by c cannot be compensated by a component that belongs to the original conflict sets. We would not observe conflicts caused by the component c if the fault of c is compensated by other components in these conflict sets. Hence, if c is broken, then, under the assumption that the mask-free dependency set of a component is equal to its focused dependency set, the focused conflict sets containing c become confirmation sets and the confirmation sets containing c become focused conflict set. This implies that each confirmation set B_j with $c \in B_j$ must contain at least one broken component d for which there holds: if $c \in K_i^f$, then $d \notin K_i^f$. Therefore, for any component c , $|\{K_k^f \mid c \notin K_k^f\} \cup \{B_j \mid c \in B_j\}|$ is an upper bound for

the minimal number of additional broken components. Given this result we can determine a focus using the following rule.

Rule 7 Given the components in a focused conflict set, focus on the components that maximise difference between the number of focused conflict sets of which they are a member and the number of confirmation sets of which they are a member.

Notice that the set of focuses determined by this rule need not be complete. If a component e in a focus is also an element of some confirmation set, there must be another broken component in the confirmation set. No focus containing this component is determined because such a focus depends on the component e . By assuming that e is broken we can determine this focus in the following way. Let $\Delta = \cup\{K_k^f \mid e \in K_k^f\}$. Then we can determine the focus by only using the conflict sets $\{K_k^f \mid e \notin K_k^f\} \cup \{B_j - \Delta \mid e \in B_j\}$.

Using one of the two rules above we can determine likely minimal candidate diagnoses (Rule 5) or the likely minimal partial candidate diagnoses (Rule 7). Because focuses need not always be mutually exclusive, these candidate diagnoses must be determined by a hitting set. Fortunately, there is no need for determining the actual candidate diagnoses. The set of focuses determined by either rule suffice for the determination of a new probing point as will be shown in the next section.

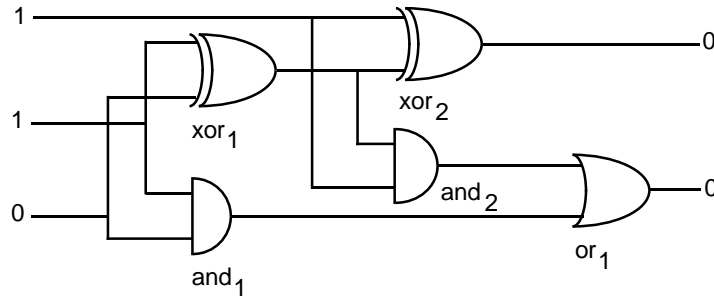


Figure 3: full-adder

Example 8 Consider the full-adder in figure 3. For this full-adder we can predict the component's output values and we can determine the component's focused dependency sets. Notice that for digital circuits a mask-free dependency set is equal to a focused dependency set.

component	output value	focused dependency set
and_1	0	$\{and_1\}$
xor_1	1	$\{xor_1\}$
and_2	1	$\{and_2, xor_1\}$

xor_2	0	$\{xor_1, xor_2\}$
or_1	1	$\{or_1, and_2, xor_1\}$

Since we have a conflict between the measured and the predicted output value of or_1 , there must be a broken component in: $Dep^f(or_1) = \{or_1, and_2, xor_1\}$. From this set we can select a focus by applying the second heuristic rule. Since the output of xor_2 is confirmed, the focus becomes: $\{and_2, or_1\}$. Applying the divide and conquer strategy the output to be measured next is the output of component and_2 .

The application of both focusing rules introduced above requires, in the worst case a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ where n is the number of components. Since the prediction of the behaviour of the system and the determination of the focused dependency sets can be done in linear time, the whole diagnostic process has a worst case time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. However, if the connectivity of the components is low, the time complexity can become linear.

4 Probing points

Because a focus may contain more than one component, we need to select a probing point. This, for example, can be done by applying a divide and conquer strategy. So, the output of a component c to be measured next should be chosen such that:

$$|F - Dep^f(c)| \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot |F|,$$

where F is the focus. Notice that there is no need for choosing as a probing point the output of a component in the focus F .

Instead of a divide and conquer strategy, we can also use the entropy of a probing point. As was shown by Bakker and Bourseau [1], a new probing point can be determined without generating the candidate diagnoses, by only using the conflict sets. Because for applying the focusing method, it suffices to know whether a measurement confirms or conflicts with the predicted value, the method for given probing advise can be simplified. Unfortunately, this simplification is only applicable if the mask-free dependency set of a candidate probing point is equal to the corresponding focused dependency set. This condition is necessary for two reasons. Firstly, it is necessary to determine the probability that we will measure a confirmation of the predicted value of a candidate probing point. Secondly, it is necessary to determine what the new focus is going to be only using the current focus and the dependency sets of a candidate probing point. Examples of systems where the mask-free dependency set is equal to the focused dependency set are: digital circuits and energy conserving systems.

Since we only distinguish two situations; a measurement confirms or conflicts with the predicted value, the determination of the probing point with the highest entropy can be approximated by selecting the probing point that splits the a priori probability of having at least one broken component in the focus in half. I.e. we should measure the output of that component c for which there holds that $Pr(b(c) | F) \approx \frac{1}{2}$, where F denotes that there is at least one broken component in the focus F and $b(c)$ denotes that the measurement confirms the predicted output value of the component c . When the measurement confirms the predicted output value of a component c , its focused dependency set $Dep^f(c)$ is not likely to contain a broken component. Hence, the new focus would become $F' = F - Dep^f(c)$. Therefore, if $Pr(X)$ denotes the a priori probability that a set of components X contains at least one broken component, then:

$$Pr(b(c) | F) = \frac{Pr(F')}{Pr(F)}.$$

The probability that a set of components contains at least one broken component can be determined in the following way.

$$Pr(X) = \begin{cases} 1 - \prod_{c \in X} (1 - p_c) & \text{if } X \neq \emptyset \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where p_c denotes the a priori fault probability of a component c . The determination of a probability $Pr(X)$ can be done in linear time with respect to the number of components in X . Since both a set X and a focus can contain at most n components, the determination a new probing point has a worst case time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.

As was mentioned above the probing advice cannot be used in case the mask-free dependency set of a potential probing point is not equal to its focused dependency set. In such cases it is still possible that a component in $Def^f(c) - Def^{mf}(c)$ is broken after measuring an output value for c that confirms its predicted value. Hence, the following inequality holds for $Pr(b(c) | F)$.

$$\frac{Pr(F')}{Pr(F)} \leq Pr(b(c) | F) \leq \frac{Pr(F'')}{Pr(F)},$$

where $F' = F - Def^f(c)$ and $F'' = F - Def^{mf}(c)$. This inequality can be used instead to select more roughly a new probing point.

5 Focusing in dynamic systems

The focusing method described in Section 3 can also be applied in MBD of dynamic systems. To be able to apply it, we need to make samples of a number of probing points of the system, and compare the measured values with the values predicted by simulating the behaviour of the system. Again we will get focused

conflict sets and confirmation sets. Here, however, these conflict and confirmation sets depend on the time points on which we sampled the system. Therefore, the definition of a dependency set has to be modified.

Definition 9 Let c be a component, let t be a time point and let $Dep(c, t)$ be the dependency set of the predicted output value of c on time point t .

$Dep(c, t)$ is the smallest set satisfying the following conditions:

- For each $\langle d, t' \rangle \in Dep(c, t)$ there holds: $t' \leq t$.
- For no component d such that: $\langle d, t' \rangle \in Dep(c, t)$ and $d \neq c$: d has been measured on time point t' .
- For each component d such that: $\langle d, t' \rangle \in Dep(c, t)$ there holds: either $d = c$ or for some $\langle e, t'' \rangle \in Dep(c, t)$: the output of d is connected to an input of e and $t' \leq t''$.
- The output value of each component $\langle d, t' \rangle \in Dep(c, t)$ can be determine from its measured input values and from the output values of the components in $Dep(c, t)$ connected to its inputs.

Definition 10 Let $Dep^{mf}(c, t)$ be a mask-free dependency set for a component c on time point t .

$Dep^{mf}(c, t)$ is the largest subset of $Dep^f(c, t)$ such that for each $\langle d, t' \rangle \in Dep^{mf}(c)$ the probability that the output value of c will not change on time point t due to an incorrect output value of d on time point t' is less than some reference value ϵ .

Notice that these definitions enables us to denote the time points on which a component must have functioned correctly to observe the predicted value.

Below a reformulation of Rule 5 for dynamic systems will be given. In this new version of Rule 5, components that occur in some confirmation set are replaced by *cancelled* components. So we focus on the components occur in the largest number of conflict set and which are not cancelled. Whether a component is cancelled depends on whether we want to be able to detect intermitting faults. If intermitting faults do not occur, a component c that is broken on time point t , causes a fault in every time point $t' \geq t$. So for no time point $t' \geq t$: $\langle c, t' \rangle$ is an element of some confirmation set. Therefore, if $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in K^f(d, t_2)$ with $t \leq t_1$ and if there exists a confirmation set $B(e, t_3)$ such that: $\langle c, t_4 \rangle \in B(e, t_3)$ and $t_1 \leq t_4$, then the component c is cancelled for the focused conflict set $K^f(d, t_2)$.

If intermitting faults do occur, we can detect them by cancelling the components c for a conflict set $K^f(d, t_2)$ if for every $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in K^f(d, t_2)$ there exists a confirmation set $B(e, t_3)$ such that: $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in B(e, t_3)$. Notice that we cannot cancel a component for a focused conflict set if the time point of the component

in the focused conflict set does not correspond with the time point in the confirmation set. Because intermitting faults are possible the component can cause the conflict observed.

Definition 11 If a component c does not possess intermitting faults, this component c is cancelled for a focused conflict set $K^f(d, t_2)$ if for each $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in K^f(d, t_2)$ there exists a confirmation set $B(e, t_3)$ such that: $\langle c, t_4 \rangle \in B(e, t_3)$ and $t_1 \leq t_4$.

If a component c can possess intermitting faults, this component c is cancelled for a focused conflict set $K^f(d, t_2)$ if for each $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in K^f(d, t_2)$ there exists a confirmation set $B(e, t_3)$ such that: $\langle c, t_1 \rangle \in B(e, t_3)$.

The following example gives an illustration of a component that is cancelled for some focused conflict set.

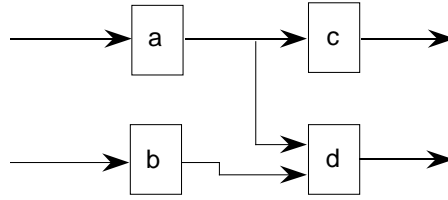


Figure 4:

Example 12 Consider the system in Figure 4. Let component c be the only component depending on a previous time point and let this component cause a time delay of 1 for its input value.

Then we can determine the following dependency sets:

$$Dep^f(c, t) = Dep^{mf}(c, t) = \{\langle a, t - 1 \rangle, \langle c, t \rangle\},$$

$$Dep^f(c, t + 1) = Dep^{mf}(c, t + 1) = \{\langle a, t \rangle, \langle c, t + 1 \rangle\},$$

$$Dep^f(d, t) = Dep^{mf}(d, t) = \{\langle a, t \rangle, \langle b, t \rangle, \langle d, t \rangle\},$$

$$Dep^f(d, t + 1) = Dep^{mf}(d, t + 1) = \{\langle a, t + 1 \rangle, \langle b, t + 1 \rangle, \langle d, t + 1 \rangle\}.$$

Suppose that we observe a conflict for output d on time point t and that we observe a confirmation for output c on time point $t+1$. Then the component a is cancelled for the focused conflict set $Dep^f(d, t) = \{\langle a, t \rangle, \langle b, t \rangle, \langle d, t \rangle\}$.

Rule 13 Given the components in a focused conflict set, focus on the components that are not cancelled for this conflict set and that are a member of the largest number of other focused conflict sets .

In a similar way we can also modify Rule 7 to handle the dynamic systems in which one fault can be compensated by other faults.

Rule 14 Given the components in a focused conflict set, focus on the components that maximise difference between the number of focused conflict sets of which they are a member and the number of confirmation sets which cancel the components for this focused conflict set.

When we have determined the set of focuses of a dynamic system, we can again determine the most informative probing point in a focus. However, to calculate the entropy of a candidate probing point, we must use the dependency set of this probing point on the time point in which we want to make the measurement.

6 Focusing in systems with loops

Diagnosis of systems containing loops is a difficult task. In this section it is shown how we can deal with this task. The method proposed is not limited to the diagnostic process described in this paper, but can also be applied in GDE [8]. The problem with loops is that the state of a loop need not be a function of its inputs only. It can also depend on the loop itself, in particular on its previous state if it is a part of a dynamic system.

If a loop is a part of a static system or if it is a part of a dynamic system whose previous states are unknown, loops can be dealt with by introducing assumptions [13]. When predicting the output value of a component that is part of a loop, assumptions need to be introduced for those inputs of the component that are unknown and part of the loop. Using these assumptions, the output value can be predicted and propagated. For each possible value of such an input an assumption has to be made.

For continuous domains it will not be possible to make assumptions for all possible values. In that case we need to replace the domain by a finite number of abstract values. Fuzzy number, for example, can be one option.

Since the predicted value depends on the assumptions made, the assumptions have to be stored in the dependency sets. So, a dependency set contains the assumptions and the components that must have functioned correctly to observe the predicted value.

Because assumptions are made for inputs that are part of a loop, after propagating the predictions through the loop, a prediction will be made for the assumed inputs. This prediction can either confirm or conflict with the assumed input value. If the assumed input value is confirmed, the mask-free dependency set for the predicted value will be a confirmation set otherwise its focused dependency set will be a focused conflict set. Clearly, if it is a focused conflict set, assuming that none of the components are broken, the assumption must be wrong.

To focus on the most likely broken components, again we can apply one of the Rules 5, 7, 13 or 14. Here, however, we must take into account the confirmation sets and the focused conflict sets that arise because of assumptions that respectively confirm or conflict with the predicted value.

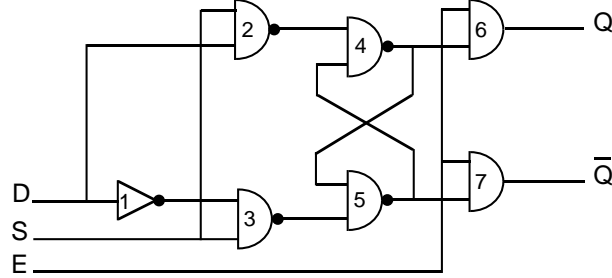


Figure 5: flipflop

Example 15 Consider the flipflop in figure 5 and let $D = 0$, $S = 0$ and $E = 1$. After predicting the output values of each component, the following output value with their corresponding focused dependency sets have been derived. Notice that for digital circuits a mask-free dependency set is equal to a focused dependency set.

component	output value	focused dependency set
inv_1	1	$\{inv_1\}$
$nand_2$	1	$\{nand_2\}$
$nand_3$	1	$\{nand_3\}$
$nand_4$	1	$\{output(nand_5) = 0, nand_4\}$
$nand_5$	0	$\{output(nand_5) = 1, nand_2, nand_4\}$
$nand_5$	0	$\{output(nand_5) = 0\}$
$nand_5$	1	$\{output(nand_5) = 1\}$
and_6	1	$\{output(nand_5) = 0, nand_4, and_6\}$
and_6	0	$\{output(nand_5) = 1, nand_2, nand_4, , and_6\}$
and_7	0	$\{output(nand_5) = 0, and_7\}$
and_7	1	$\{output(nand_5) = 1, and_7\}$

Suppose that for both outputs Q and \bar{Q} are equal to 0. Then we get the following conflict and confirmation sets respectively; *conflict sets*: $\{output(nand_5) = 0, nand_4, and_6\}$, $\{output(nand_5) = 1, and_7\}$ and *confirmation sets*: $\{output(nand_5) = 1, nand_2, nand_4, , and_6\}$, $\{output(nand_5) = 0, and_7\}$. By applying Rule 7 we get the focuses: $\{output(nand_5) = 0\}$, $\{output(nand_5) = 1\}$. Hence, firstly we should measure the output of $nand_5$ to verify the assumptions made. If, for example, its output value is 1, we get a new focus: $\{and_7\}$.

The assumptions introduced above for dealing with loops can also be used for system inputs whose values are unknown. Unlike loops, here we do not have to consider conflicts between an assumed value for an input and its predicted value. A third area where assumptions can be used is in dynamic systems containing *integrating* components. For example, a capacitor in electrical circuits. Integrating components can sum up small and irrelevant differences between their predicted and the actual input values over time. After some period of time this can result in a conflict for some measured output value. By introducing assumptions around the predicted output value of the integrators in the focus, we can verify whether the conflict is caused by small simulation errors.

Above a method for dealing with loops in static systems and in dynamic systems whose previous states are unknown is described. This method opens a loop by introducing assumptions. In a dynamic system in which we know the previous state of a loop, there is no need for using assumptions. Here, we can predict the new state of a loop given the previous state and the new values for the inputs of the loop provided that the loop behaves in a deterministic way.

The difficulty of predicting the behaviour of a loop does not arise because some elements in the loop possess memory, but because the loop itself can possess memory. The most well known example of such a loop is a *flipflop* (Figure 5). These loops, depending on the values of their inputs, can possess multiple equilibrium states. In the flipflop of Figure 5, multiple equilibrium states arise because the components in the loop function as switches. However, also in algebraic loops we can have multiple equilibrium states. The loop in Figure 6 a gives an illustration. Here the values a and b are stable solutions of the loop. Which of the two values we will measure on the system output z depends on the previous state of the system.

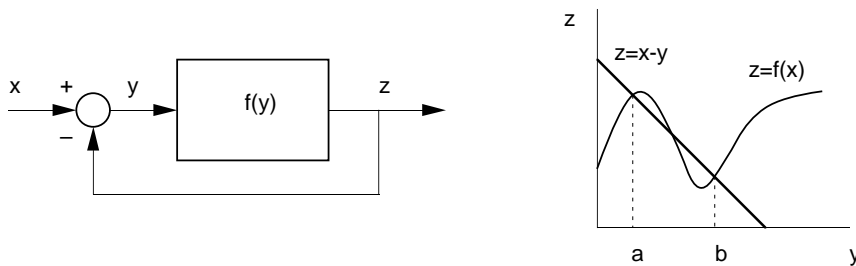


Figure 6: algebraic loop

Because the state of a loop on a time point t_i depends on the previous time point t_{i-1} , the state of a loop is a function of its inputs on time point t and the state of the loop in the previous time point t_{i-1} . When the input value of a component in a loop changes, and when this input is not a part of the loop, this change will not have influenced yet the values of the inputs of this component that are a part of the loop. This implies that if in the process of predicting the

output values of components we reaches a component in a loop, we should predict the output value of this component using for the inputs that are a part of the loop, the values predicted for in the previous state. Next the predicted output value should be used to predict the output values of the other components in the loop. This can result in a new predicted value for the inputs for which we have used the values of the previous state. Even if the predicted value does not change, its dependency set will change. These new predicted values should be used to predict again the output values of the components in the loop. This prediction process looping through a loop is repeated till for all the components we have predicted a stable output value and a stable dependency set. If the system is well designed such a stable solution must exist.

There is one remark that should be made here. The predictions process described here results only in a correct prediction if the system behaves in a deterministic way. If it does not, the predicted values will depend on the order in which the predictions are made.

7 Related work

Davis's work

The focusing method described in this paper can be viewed as a generalisation Davis's work [4]. He uses the *single initial cause heuristic* and the set of causal ancestors of system outputs for which a conflict was observed, to determine exactly one focus on likely broken components.

In this paper, instead of sets of causal ancestors, dependency sets are used. A dependency set is a set of causal ancestors from which those components have been removed which do not influence the predicted output value. Furthermore, in this paper heuristic rules are used instead of the single initial cause heuristic. These rules allow us to determine sets of focuses. Here, each focus *probably* contains one broken component.

After Davis has determined a focus using his single initial cause heuristic, he eliminates components from the focus using *constraint suspension*. In principle constraint suspensions can be used in combination with the diagnostic process described in this paper. However, constraint suspension requires backward propagation of predictions, which has a worst case time complexity that is exponential.

GDE

In [8], de Kleer and Williams describe a General Diagnostic Engine. This GDE derives inconsistencies by forward and backward propagation of predictions and observations. Dependencies between predictions made are stored in an ATMS enabling us to determine the minimal sets of components involved in the inconsistencies. These sets of components, which they call conflicts, but which will

be denoted as *GDE conflict set* in this section, are used to determine the set of minimal candidate diagnosis.

The diagnostic process described in this paper only uses forward propagation. Because GDE uses both forward and backward propagation, in some cases it can gain additional information which lead to a better set of candidate diagnoses. To illustrate this consider Figure 7.

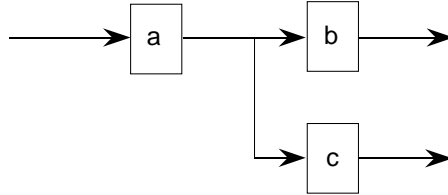


Figure 7:

Suppose that both the components b and c add 1 to their in input value. If we observe a conflict for the outputs of b and c and if their output values differ, then in GDE we have one candidate diagnoses $\{b, c\}$. The diagnostic process described in this paper will not recognise that both b and c must be broken. Instead it will focus on $\{a\}$.

Though GDE can give a better diagnosis, as is shown above, this will in general be insignificant. Because we assumed that component fail independently, a situation as is shown in the example above will be very rare. Especially, when the diagnostic system is monitoring the system to be diagnosed. In the example either b or c will break down first. Hence, if b breaks down first, then, at the time that both b and c are broken, we will have determined two focuses; $\{b\}$ and $\{a, c\}$.

The diagnostic process described in this paper can give better set of candidate diagnoses than GDE, when in GDE backward propagation does not give relevant additional information. I.e. the minimal GDE conflict sets are completely determined by the GDE conflict sets that where derived by forward propagation of predictions. In that case the focused conflict set determined by the diagnostic process described in this paper are minimal with respect to the GDE conflict sets. Since here also confirmation sets are used, we get a better focus on the most likely broken components. To illustrate this consider again Figure 7.

Suppose that we have observed a conflict for the output of component b and a confirmation for the output of component c . Then the focus will contain component b , implying one candidate diagnosis b . Because GDE does not use confirmation sets, it will have two candidate diagnoses a and b .

To illustrate the advantage of the use of confirmation sets more clearly, consider the circuit in Figure 8 consisting of a power supply and three bulbs. If only bulb 3 gives light, GDE will derive 22 minimal diagnoses. Among these is the diagnosis in which both bulb 1 and 2 are broken. The other diagnoses imply

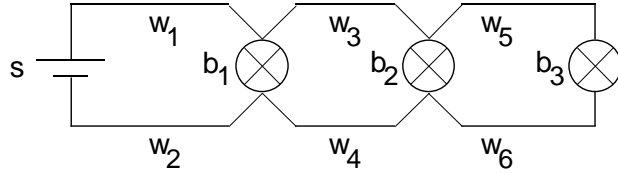


Figure 8:

faults like a bulb that is giving light without power supply, wires that generate energy out of nothing. Clearly, the diagnosis stating that both bulb 1 and 2 are broken is the only plausible diagnosis. To eliminate the implausible diagnoses, fault models [9, 14] or physical impossibility [7] can be used. Both solutions require additional knowledge. By using confirmation sets the implausible diagnoses are eliminated without additional knowledge. For example, the diagnosis in which bulb 3 is giving light without power supply is eliminated because bulb 3 giving light is explained by a power supply that works correctly.

Another difference between the diagnostic process described in this paper and GDE is the way a new probing point is selected. In GDE a probing point is selected by minimising the expected entropy of the candidate diagnoses after measuring a probing point. This implies that every possible outcome of a measurement has to be considered. Since the number of candidate diagnoses can grow exponentially, minimising the expected entropy can be very inefficient unless approximations are used [10].

In this paper the amount of information gained by measuring a probing point is maximised. As was shown in Section 4, this can be done efficiently and without approximations. Furthermore, here possible outcomes of a measurement need not to be considered. Hence, the method can also be applied when probing points take their values from a continuous domain.

A spectrum of logical definitions

In [3], Console and Torasso present a unified framework for different definitions of Model Based Diagnosis. This framework integrates abductive and consistency based diagnosis. It is shown that both abductive and consistency based diagnosis can be viewed as different points in the spectrum of logical definition that are introduced by the framework. More precisely, if no observation has to be explained (abductively), but all assumptions must be consistent with the observations, then we are at the bottom of the spectrum. This corresponds with diagnostic process described by Reiter [12], by de Kleer and Williams [8, 9] and by Struss and Dressler [14]. At the other end of the spectrum the assumptions must not only be consistent with the observation, but must also explain the observations. In between we have the situation in which either the *normal* observations (the observation that correspond with the predicted values), or the *abnormal* observations

must be explained. The latter, for example, is being applied in medical diagnosis.

The diagnostic process described in this paper corresponds with the situation in which only the normal observations (the observations that confirm the predictions) are explained. So the diagnoses that can be generated by the set of focuses are the most likely diagnosis that are consistent with the observations and that explain the normal observations.

Non-intermittent faults

In [11] Raiman, de Kleer, Saraswat and Shirley describe how a non-intermittency assumption can be used to improve the diagnostic precision. A similar assumption is used in the definition of a component that is cancelled for a focus conflict set. The difference between the two approaches is, however, that Raiman et al. only consider a set of static diagnostic instances of a system. They exclude dynamic systems by defining a non-intermittent behaviour of a component as a behaviour where the outputs are a function of the inputs. This definition does not allow for components that possess an internal state. Therefore, it excludes dynamic behaviour. In this paper an intermitting fault is defined as a fault that does not always result in a faulty output value. Such a behaviour can arise, for example, because an and-gate in a digital circuit has a struck at 1 error but also because a broken component does not always function incorrectly. External influences, such as the temperature, can cause the latter kind of intermittency.

Efficiency

In general, the goal of model based diagnosis is formulated as the determination of a diagnosis with the least number of additional measurements. Therefore, we try to use as much information as possible. Also if we are not able to make additional measurements, to reduce the number of candidate diagnoses, as much information as possible should be used. Unfortunately, this can result in a exponential time complexity for the diagnostic process. De Kleer, for example, identifies three source for the exponential time complexity in GDE [10]; the prediction process, the conflict recognition and generation of candidate diagnoses.

To avoid these time complexity problems several solution have been proposed. All solutions proposed are based on ignoring some of the information available. They exchange diagnostic precision for tractability. In [10] de Kleer proposes to focus on likely candidate diagnoses only. Since we need to know the candidate diagnoses before we can determine their likelihood, their a priori probabilities are used as an estimate. In [1] Bakker and Bourseau propose a diagnostic process PDE with a time complexity in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. They gain their efficiency by reducing the number of conflicts generated to *obvious* and *semi-obvious* conflicts and by determining a probe advice using these conflicts only. Because a measured output of the system to be diagnosed can cause an exponential number of conflict sets,

as is shown in Figure 1, they allow only two conflict sets to be determined for each measured output. (Their obvious conflicts correspond with the conflict sets described in this paper.)

Also the diagnostic process described in this paper exchanges diagnostic precision for tractability. However, it also uses information that is ignored by other diagnostic systems. In some cases this results in better diagnostic precision GDE or PDE.

8 Conclusion

In this paper an efficient diagnostic process is described. This diagnostic process can be viewed as a generalisation of Davis's work [4]. Furthermore, using the spectrum of logical definitions of Console and Torasso [3], the diagnostic process can be classified as one that determines the most likely diagnoses that are consistent with the observations and that explain the normal observations. Because it explains the normal observation, it will not consider implausible diagnoses which GDE will consider when no fault models [14] or physical impossibility [7] is used.

The process described determines a set of focuses on likely broken components. These focuses can be viewed as generators of likely candidate diagnoses. To refine the set of candidate diagnoses, here an output value of a component in a focus must be measured. The best output to be measured, is selected using the entropy of each possible probing point in the focus. It is shown that we can determine the entropy of a candidate probing point only using the focus and the set of components on which a predicted value of the probing point actually depends. Because it is not necessary to consider the possible values of a candidate probing point, this method is also applicable when the domain of values for a probing point is continuous.

It is shown how the diagnostic process can also be applied for dynamic systems and systems containing loops. When diagnosing dynamic systems there is no need to demand that components do not possess an internal state. Furthermore, depending on whether we make a non-intermittency assumption, a better set of focuses can be determined.

A important advantage of the diagnostic process described in this paper is its efficiency. The diagnostic process has a worst case complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ where n is the number of components. However, if the connectivity between the components is low, the average time complexity becomes linear.

Because of its low time complexity, the diagnostic process described in this paper is especially suited for diagnosing dynamic systems. In such systems, typically, the outputs of a specific set of components are sampled. Here, a diagnostic process must be efficiently enough to process the information gained from a sample before the next sample is made.

Finally one should notice that the diagnostic process described can be com-

bined with other technologies like constraint suspension and abductive diagnosis. Because each focus probably contains exactly one broken component, the set of focuses can be used to reduce the time complexity of these technologies.

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