

# A Temporal Abductive Diagnostic Process for Runtime Properties Violations

Theocharis Tsigkritis<sup>1</sup> and George Spanoudakis<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Department of Computing, City University London, UK*  
{t7t, G.Spanoudakis}@soi.city.ac.uk

**Abstract.** Monitoring the operation of complex software systems at runtime can detect violations of certain properties of interest but cannot always provide diagnostic information which is significant for understanding the cause of the violation and the adoption of appropriate countermeasures against it. In this paper, we describe a process for diagnosing runtime violations of security and dependability properties that we have developed as part of a general runtime monitoring framework that is based on Event Calculus. The diagnosis generation process is based on a combination of abductive, temporal and evidential reasoning over violations of system properties.

**Keywords:** Abductive reasoning, runtime monitoring, temporal reasoning, Dempster Shafer theory of evidence, Event Calculus.

## 1 Introduction

Monitoring security and dependability properties of complex software systems at runtime is widely accepted as a technique for increasing system resilience to dependability failures and security attacks and several approaches have been developed to support it (see [7] for a survey). Although basic monitoring provides mechanisms for detecting violations of such properties, it cannot always provide the information that is necessary in order to understand the reasons that underpin the violation of a property and decide what would be an appropriate reaction to it.

To appreciate the problem, consider the case of an Air Traffic Management System (ATMS), which consists of components (radars) that monitor the traffic in different air spaces. By monitoring the operations of ATMS at runtime, the availability and integrity of its components (e.g. radars) and the information exchanged between them might be ensured. For instance, a property that could be monitored for ATMS might state that if there are more than one radars covering a particular airspace and one of these radars sends a signal indicating that an airplane is in the relevant airspace, every other radar that covers the same space should also send a signal indicating the presence of the plane in it and this should happen within a certain time period after the receipt of the initial signal.

In cases where this property is violated, knowing about the occurrence of the violation itself is not sufficient for establishing the reasons why some radar has sent a signal but another has not. Clearly getting diagnostic information about these reasons

would be necessary for taking appropriate action as the violation may have been due to different reasons, including the following:

- The radar that did not send the expected signal was malfunctioning.
- The communication link between the radar that did not send the expected signal and the monitor was malfunctioning or an intruder captured the signal and prevented it from reaching the monitor.
- The radar that sent the expected signal was malfunctioning or its identity was faked by an intruder which sent a fake signal to the monitor.

Thus, identifying the reason for the violation is important for taking actions that could restore the integrity of the operation of ATMS.

In this paper, we provide diagnostic information for violations of security and dependability properties that are detected by the monitoring framework described in [17]. This framework has been developed within the European integrated research project SERENITY to support the monitoring of security and dependability properties in distributed and dynamically evolving systems. Such properties are expressed by *monitoring rules* specified in Event Calculus (EC) [16]. The provision of diagnostic information is based on the generation of all the possible alternative *explanations*<sup>1</sup> of the events which are involved in the violations of rules, and the assessment of the plausibility of these explanations by checking whether their expected effects correspond to events recorded during the operation of the monitored system. The key characteristic of our approach for the provision of diagnostic information is the use of abductive reasoning [2][10][11] for the generation of explanations, and belief based reasoning [15] for the assessment of explanation plausibility.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we provide a brief overview of the monitoring framework. In Section 3, we describe the different stages of the diagnostic process. In Section 4, we overview related work and, finally, in Section 5, we present conclusions and directions for future work.

## 2 Monitoring framework

The core of the monitoring framework in [17] is a generic engine for checking violations of properties expressed as EC rules of the form *body*  $\Rightarrow$  *head*. The meaning of a rule is that if its *body* evaluates to true, its *head* must also evaluate to true. EC is a first-order metric temporal logic language which can be used for representing and reasoning about *events* and their effects on the state of a system over time. Our monitoring framework rules are defined in terms of the standard EC predicates. These include the predicates: (i)  $Happens(e, t, \mathcal{X}(lb, ub))$  which denotes that an instantaneous

---

<sup>1</sup> It should be noted that the term “explanation” in our work is used to denote the diagnostic information that explains why a violation of a system property that has been detected at runtime has occurred and is not a description of the reasoning of the monitor to a human being.

event  $e$  occurs at some time  $t$  that is restricted to be within the time range  $\mathfrak{R}(lb,ub)$ <sup>2</sup>, (ii)  $HoldsAt(f,t)$  which denotes that a state (aka fluent)  $f$  holds at the start of the execution of a system and at time  $t$ , (iii)  $Initiates(e,f,t)$  and  $Terminates(e,f,t)$  which denote the initiation or termination of a fluent  $f$  by an event  $e$  at time  $t$  respectively, and (iv)  $Initially(f)$  which denotes that a fluent holds at the start of the operation of a system.

An example of an EC rule is:

**Rule 1:**  $Happens(signal\_r1\_a\_s,t1,R(t1,t1) \wedge HoldsAt(covers\_r1\_s,t1) \wedge HoldsAt(covers\_r2\_s,t1) \wedge \_r1 \neq \_r2 \Rightarrow Happens(signal\_r2\_a\_s,t2,R(t1,t1+5))$

This rule expresses the condition about the radars of ATMS that we discussed in the introduction. More specifically, *Rule 1* states that for all the pairs of different radars  $\_r1$  and  $\_r2$  if the first radar  $\_r1$  sends a signal event  $signal(\_r1, \_a, \_s)$  at some time point  $t1$  to indicate the presence of the airplane denoted by the variable  $\_a$  in the airspace denoted by the variable  $\_s$  and at the time point  $t1$  it is known that both  $\_r1$  and  $\_r2$  cover the airspace  $\_s$  (as indicated by the predicates  $HoldsAt(covers\_r1\_s,t1)$  and  $HoldsAt(covers\_r2\_s,t1)$  in the body of the rule, respectively), the second radar  $\_r2$  should also send a separate signal indicating the presence of  $\_a$  in  $\_s$  no later than 5 time units after the receipt of the original signal as indicated by the predicate  $Happens(signal\_r2\_a\_s,t2,R(t1,t1+5))$ .<sup>3</sup> Rule 1 will be violated if there is a *signal* event from only one of the radars of ATMS which cover a specific airspace but not the others.

### 3 Diagnostic process

As shown in Figure 1, the overall process of diagnosing the causes of rule violations includes four stages, namely:

1. *explanation generation* in which all the *possible explanations* for the individual events that were reported to the monitor and have caused the violation (referred to as “violation observations” henceforth) are generated.
2. *explanation effect identification* in which the possible consequences (effects) of the explanations of the violation observations are derived by deduction
3. *plausibility assessment* in which the effects of explanations are checked against the event log of the monitor to see if there are events that match them and could provide supportive evidence for the explanations
4. *diagnosis generation* in which an overall diagnosis for the violation is generated from the individual explanations

<sup>2</sup> The time range  $\mathfrak{R}(lb,ub)$  expresses temporal constraints for the occurrence of an event  $e$ , while  $t$  expresses the exact time of occurrence of an instance of  $e$ .

<sup>3</sup> In *Rule 1* and all the EC formulas in the rest of the paper, all the non time variables appear with underscored names ( $\_varName$ ) and are assumed to be universally quantified unless otherwise specified in a formula.

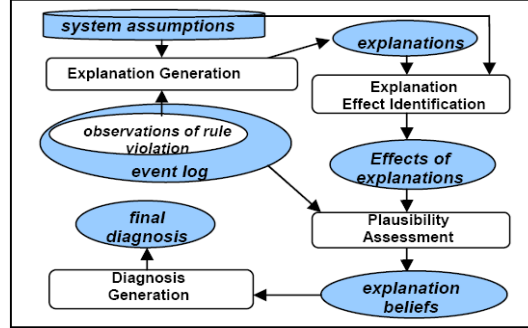


Fig. 1. Diagnostic process

The generation of explanations and their effects in stages (i) and (ii) above is based on a (possibly) incomplete model of the behaviour of the monitored system that is expressed in the form of EC formulas called *assumptions*. In the following, we discuss the stages of the diagnostic process in detail.

### 3.1 Explanation generation

The generation of explanations for violation observations is based on abductive reasoning. More specifically, given a set  $\Omega$  of events and fluents that are involved in the violation of a monitoring rule, this stage of the diagnostic process tries to find a set of *explanation formulas*  $\Phi$  which, in conjunction the set of the *assumptions* about the system that is being monitored and the events that are known to the monitor at the time when the explanation is required (collectively referred to as the theory  $TH$  in the following), entail  $\Omega$ . Formally, this is a search for a set of atomic formulas  $\Phi$  that satisfy the conditions:

(Cnd 1):  $TH \cup \Phi \vdash \Omega$ , and

(Cnd 2):  $\forall f \text{ in } \Phi: \text{predicate}(f) \in APreds$

where *predicate* ( $f$ ) is the predicate of formula  $f$  and  $APreds$  is a set of abducible predicates whose truth value can be established only by abductive reasoning.

The search for explanations is based on a newly developed algorithm (see [18]) which starts from a violation observation  $P$  that needs to be explained and tries to find all assumptions of the form  $a: B1 \wedge \dots \wedge Bn \Rightarrow H$  in  $TH$  whose head  $H$  can be unified with  $P$ . When such an assumption is found, the algorithm checks if: (i) the unification of  $P$  with  $H$  provides concrete values for all the non time variables of the predicates  $B1, \dots, Bn$  in the body of  $a$ , and (ii) it is possible to derive concrete time ranges for the time variables of all these predicates by using George Dantzig's classic *Simplex* method (see [5]). If these conditions are satisfied, the algorithm instantiates the predicates  $B1, \dots, Bn$  and identifies which of the predicates  $B1, \dots, Bn$  are observable (*O-preds*), deducible (*D-preds*) or abducible predicates (*A-preds*), assuming that these are disjoint categories of predicates.

Then, the algorithm checks if each of the *O-Preds* and *D-preds* in the body of the assumption *a* can be matched with some recorded event or derived from the events in the monitor's log and the known system assumptions, respectively. If there are *O-preds* and *D-preds* that cannot be verified via this check, the algorithm tries to find an abducted explanation for them recursively and, if such explanations are found, for all the non verified *O-preds* and *D-preds*, these explanations, along with the *A-preds* have been identified in the current step of the explanation process, are reported as the possible explanation of the initial violation observation *P*. In cases, however, where there are *O-Preds* or *D-preds* in the body of an assumption *a* that can neither be verified nor explained by abduction, the explanation generation path using the particular assumption fails.

(E1)	Initially(covers(R1,S1),0) [captor-0]
(E2)	Initially(covers(R2,S1),0) [captor-0]
(E3)	Happens(changeOfLandingApproach(AR-a,S2),0,R(0,0)) [captor-AR-a]
(E4)	Happens(signal(R2,A2,S2),1, R(1,1)), [captor-R2]
(E5)	Happens(changeOfLandingApproach(AR-a,S1),2,R(2,2)) [captor-AR-a]
(E6)	Happens(permissionRequest(A1,S1),3,R(3,3)) [captor-0]
(E7)	Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7)) [captor-R1]
(E8)	Happens(signal(R2,A5,S1),13,R(13,13)) [captor-R2]

Fig. 2. ATMS event log

As an example of explanation generation, consider a violation of *Rule 1*. More specifically, this rule is violated by the event (E7) in the event log of Figure 2 ( $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$ ) and the predicates  $\neg Happens(signal(R2,A1,S1),t,R(7,12))$ ,  $HoldsAt(covers(R1,S1),7)$  and  $HoldsAt(covers(R2,S1),7)$  which can be derived from this log. In particular, the predicate  $\neg Happens(signal(R2,A1,S1),t,R(7,12))$ , which denotes the absence of a signal from radar *R2* in the time range from  $T=7$  to  $T=12$ , is deduced by the principle of *negation as failure* (NF) from the events (E4) and (E8) in the log that were received from radar *R2* at  $T=1$  and  $T=13$ , respectively. This deduction is possible as soon as the monitor receives the (E8) event because no other event has been received from *R2* between  $T=1$  and  $T=13$ . Also the predicates  $HoldsAt(covers(R1,S1),7)$  and  $HoldsAt(covers(R2,S1),7)$  can be deduced from the events (E1) and (E2) in Figure 2, which denote that radars *R1* and *R2* cover the airspace *S1* initially, and the absence of any event signifying a repositioning of any of the two radars until the time point  $T=7$  when the monitor receives the signal for the presence of aircraft *A1* in *S1* from *R1* (this deduction is based on the axioms of EC [12]).

To explain the violation, the predicates  $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$  and  $\neg Happens(signal(R2,A1,S1),t,R(7,12))$  need to be explained individually.

Assuming that the following assumptions are known about the ATMS:

- (A0)  $Initiates\_e1\_f, t1, R(t1, t1) \wedge \neg \exists e2, t2: Terminates\_e2\_f, t2, R(t1, t2) \Rightarrow HoldsAt\_f, t2$
- (A1)  $Happens(inspace\_a\_s, t1, R(t1, t1)) \wedge HoldsAt(covers\_r\_s, t1) \Rightarrow Happens(signal\_r\_a\_s, t2, R(t1, t1+5))$
- (A2)  $Happens(inspace\_a\_s, t1, R(t1, t1)) \Rightarrow Happens(permissionRequest\_a\_s, t2, R(t1-20, t1-1))$

the search for an explanation of  $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$  will detect that this predicate can be unified with the predicate  $Happens(signal(_r,_a,_s), t2, R(t1,t1+5))$  in the head of assumption (A1). The unification of these two predicates will be  $\{_r/R1, _a/A1, _s/S1\}$  and the linear constraint system generated for the time variable  $t1$  in (A1) will include the constraints  $t1 \leq 7$  and  $7 \leq t1 + 5$ . Thus, since the non time variables in the body of (A1) are covered by the unification and the constraints  $t1 \leq 7$  and  $7 \leq t1 + 5$  determine the range  $[2, \dots, 7]$  as a feasible time range for  $t1$ , the conditions of the explanation generation process are satisfied and the predicate  $Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  will be generated as a possible explanation of  $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$ . Subsequently, assuming that  $Happens(inspace(_a,_s),t1,R(t1,t1))$  belongs to the set of the abducible predicates  $A\text{-preds}$ , there will be no need for further elaboration of it.

It should be noted, however, that as  $Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  has been generated as an explanation from assumption (A1), it can be retained as an explanation only if the other instantiated predicate in the body of (A1), i.e. the predicate  $HoldsAt(covers(R1,S1),7)$ , is *True* when  $t1$  takes values in the range  $R(2,7)$ . The latter predicate, however, can be deduced from the log of Figure 2 and assumption (A0). Thus,  $Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  becomes a possible explanation of  $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$ .

### 3.2 Explanation effect identification

Following the generation of explanations, the next step in the diagnosis process is the identification of the expected effects of these explanations. These consequences are identified in order to assess the plausibility of explanations. The assessment of plausibility is based on the hypothesis that if the expected effects of an explanation match with events which have occurred and recorded during the operation of the system that is being monitored, then there is supportive evidence for the explanation. This is because the events that match its expected effects might also have been caused by it.

The identification of the expected effects of an explanation is based on deductive reasoning. Generally, for an explanation  $Exp = P_1 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n$  formed as a conjunction of abduced atomic predicates, the diagnosis process iterates over the predicates  $P_i$  that constitute it and, for each of these predicates, finds the system assumptions  $B_1 \wedge \dots \wedge B_n \Rightarrow H$  which have a predicate  $B_j$  in their body that can be unified with  $P_i$  and the rest of the predicates in its body are also *True*. For such assumptions, if the predicate  $H$  in the head of the assumption is fully instantiated and its time range is determined,  $H$  is derived as a possible consequence of  $P_i$ .

Then, if  $H$  is an observable predicate, i.e., a predicate that can be matched with recorded events,  $H$  is added to the possible effects of  $Exp$ . If  $H$ , however, is not an observable predicate, the effect identification process tries to generate the consequences of  $H$  recursively and, if it finds any such consequences that correspond to observable events, it adds them to the set of the expected effects of  $Exp$ . In this way, the diagnosis process computes the transitive closure of the effects of  $Exp$ .

As an example of identifying the consequences of explanations, consider again the ATMS system and suppose that, in addition to assumptions (A1) and (A2), three more assumptions are known for this system, namely:

- (A3) **Happens**(inspace(*\_a*,*\_s*),*t1*,*R*(*t1*,*t1*))  $\Rightarrow$  **Initiates**(inspace(*\_a*,*\_s*), inairspace(*\_a*,*\_s*),*t1*)  
(A4) **Initiates**(inspace(*\_a*,*\_s*), inairspace(*\_a*,*\_s*),*t1*)  $\wedge$  **HoldsAt**(landing\_airspace\_for(*\_s*,*\_arpX*),*t1*)  $\Rightarrow$  **Happens**(landingRequest(*\_a*,*\_arpX*), *t2*, *R*(*t1*-10,*t1*))  
(A5) **Happens**(changeOfLandingApproach(*\_arpX*,*\_s*),*t1*,*R*(*t1*,*t1*)) $\Rightarrow$  **Initiates**(changeOfLandingApproach(*\_arpX*,*\_s*), landing\_airspace\_for(*\_s*,*\_arpX*),*t1*)

The formula (A3) above states that when an event *inspace*(*\_a*,*\_s*) that signifies the entrance of an aircraft *a* in an airspace *s* becomes known a fluent called *inairspace*(*\_a*,*\_s*) should be initiated to signify the presence of *a* in *s* unless this fluent already holds. Formula (A4) states that when an aircraft *a* enters an airspace *s* that is used as the final landing route for approaching an airport *\_arpX* (see the fluent *landing\_airspace\_for*(*\_s*,*\_arpX*)) then the aircraft *a* must have made a landing request for the particular airport within the last 10 time units before entering *s*. Using (A3) and (A4), it is possible to determine the expected effects of the predicate *Happens*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*),*t1*,*R*(2,7)) that was generated as a possible explanation of *Happens*(*signal*(*R1*,*A1*,*S1*),7,*R*(7,7)) earlier. Specifically, assuming that the airspace *S1* is the landing airspace of an airport *AR-a* then the entrance of the aircraft *A1* into *S1* should be preceded some request from *A1* to land in *AR-a* or, equivalently, that a runtime event *Happens*(*landingRequest*(*A1*,*AR-a*), *t2*, *R*(0,6)) should have occurred. Thus, the latter runtime event would be an expected effect of the explanation *Happens*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*),*t1*,*R*(2,7)).

Formally, from *Happens*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*),*t1*,*R*(2,7)) and (A3) the predicate *Initiates*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*), *inairspace*(*A1*,*S1*), *t1*) can be deduced for *t1* in [2,...,7]. As the latter predicate, however, is not an observable predicate, the diagnosis process will try to identify whether it has any observable consequences of its own. Whilst searching for such consequences, *Initiates*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*), *inairspace*(*A1*,*S1*), *t1*) can be unified with the first predicate in the body of (A4). Furthermore, the other predicate in the body of this assumption, namely the predicate *HoldsAt*(*landing\_airspace\_for*(*S2*,*AR-a*), *t*) can also be deduced to be *True* for the time range [2,...,7] (i.e., for *t* in [2,...,7]) from the event (E5) in Figure 2 and assumptions (A5) and (A0). Thus, both predicates in the body of (A4) are *True* and, therefore, the predicate *Happens*(*landingRequest*(*A1*,*AR-a*), *t2*, *R*(0,6)) in its head can be derived from it. Assuming that *landingRequest*(*\_a*, *\_arpX*) is an observable event, *Happens*(*landingRequest*(*A1*,*AR-a*), *t2*, *R*(0,6)) will be established as an expected effect of the explanation *Happens*(*inspace*(*A1*,*S1*),*t1*,*R*(2,7)).

### 3.3 Assessment of explanation plausibility

After deriving the expected effects  $\Phi_C = \{C_1, \dots, C_L\}$  of an explanation  $\Phi$ , the diagnosis process searches the event log of the monitor to find events that can match these effects. In this search, a match between an event *e* in the log, which has been produced by an event captor *Captor*(*e*) and has a timestamp *t<sub>e</sub>*, and an effect *C<sub>k</sub>* (*k*=1,...,L) is detected only if: (i) *e* has been produced by the same event captor as the

captor that  $C_k$  is expected to be produced from, (ii)  $e$  can be unified with  $C_k$ , and (iii) the timestamp of  $e$  falls within the time range of  $C_k$ .

It should be appreciated, however, that although the presence of a matching event for an expected effect of an explanation confirms that the effect has indeed occurred, the absence of a matching event for an effect at the time of the search does not necessarily mean that such an event has not occurred and, therefore, cannot cast negative evidence in the validity of the consequence. This is because there might be cases where, although an event that satisfies the conditions (i)–(iii) above may have occurred, this event might not have arrived yet at the event log of the monitoring framework due to communication delays in the “channel” between the event captor that captured the event and the monitoring framework. To cope with this problem, the search for events that match an explanation effect  $C_k$  establishes that no such events have occurred if at the time of the search there is no event  $e$  satisfying the conditions (i)–(iii) above, and the last known value of the clock of  $Captor(C_k)$  (i.e., the timestamp of the last event in the log that has arrived at the monitor from this captor) is greater than the upper boundary of the time variable of  $C_k$ .

Furthermore, there is a possibility of having effects  $C_k$  for which, although no matching event satisfying (i)–(iii) can be found at the time of the search, the last received event from the relevant captor has a timestamp that is less than or equal to the upper time boundary of  $C_k$ . Such effects cannot be confirmed or disconfirmed and, therefore, cast positive or negative evidence for  $\Phi$ . To cope with this uncertainty, we use the *Dempster Shafer (DS) theory of evidence* [15] for the assessment of the plausibility of an explanation, and define the function that gives the basic probability assignment to the validity of an explanation as:

**Definition 1:** The basic probability of the validity of an explanation is computed by the function:

$$\begin{aligned} mE(Valid(\Phi)) &= |\Phi^{c+}| / |\Phi^c| \\ mE(\neg Valid(\Phi)) &= |\Phi^c| / |\Phi^c| \\ mE(Valid(\Phi) \vee \neg Valid(\Phi)) &= |\Phi^c - (\Phi^{c+} \cup \Phi^c)| / |\Phi^c| \end{aligned}$$

where

- $\Phi^{c+}$  is the set of confirmed effects of  $\Phi$ , defined as  $\Phi^{c+} = \{C_k / C_k \in \Phi^c \text{ and } \exists e. (e \in Log \text{ and } Captor(e) = Captor(C_k) \text{ and } t_{kLB} \leq t_e \text{ and } t_e \leq t_{kUB} \text{ and } unifier(e, C_k) \neq \emptyset)\}$
- $\Phi^c$  is the set of a set of disconfirmed effects of  $\Phi$ , defined as  $\Phi^c = \{C_k / C_k \in \Phi^c \text{ and } \neg \exists e. (e \in Log \text{ and } Captor(e) = Captor(C_k) \text{ and } t_{kLB} \leq t_e \text{ and } t_e \leq t_{kUB} \text{ and } unifier(e, C_k) \neq \emptyset) \text{ and } lastTime(Captor(C_k)) > t_{kUB}\}$
- $t_{kLB}$ ,  $t_{kUB}$  are the lower and upper boundaries of the time range of  $C_k$ ,  $t_e$  is the timestamp of the event  $e$ , and  $lastTime(Captor(C_k))$  is the timestamp of the last event arrived from  $Captor(C_k)$  to the monitor.

According to this definition, the probability of the validity of an explanation  $\Phi$  is measured as the proportion of the effects of  $\Phi$  that have been confirmed by events in the event log at time  $t$ . Also the probability of an explanation  $\Phi$  not being valid is measured as the proportion of the effects of  $\Phi$  that have been disconfirmed by events in the event log. Note that, as in general  $\Phi^{c+} \cup \Phi^c \subseteq \Phi^c$ , we will also have that  $mE(Valid(\Phi)) + mE(\neg Valid(\Phi)) \leq 1$  and,  $mE$  is not a classic probability function. As we prove in [14], however,  $mE$  satisfies the axioms of *basic probability assignments* in the DS theory of evidence and, can therefore, be interpreted as a function of this type.



Using  $m_E$ , the basic probability of the explanation  $Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  of the violation observation  $Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$  of *Rule-1* can be computed as follows. As discussed in Section 3.2, an expected effect of this explanation is  $Happens(landingRequest(A1,AR-a),t2,R(0,6))$ . Another expected effect of the same explanation is the predicate  $Happens(permissionRequest(A1,S1), t2, R(0,7))$ . The latter effect can be derived from assumption (A2), according to which an aircraft which enters a particular airspace at some time point  $t1$ , must have requested permission to enter the airspace before its entrance and no more than 20 time units prior to it. Assuming then that the request for diagnosing the violation of *Rule-1* is made at  $T=15$ , a search in the event log of Figure 2 will identify that the event  $Happens(permissionRequest(A1,S1),3,R(3,3))$  provides confirmatory evidence for  $Happens(permissionRequest(A1,S1),t2,R(0,7))$  but there is no matching event for  $Happens(landingRequest(A1,AR-a),t2,R(0,6))$ .

Furthermore, if  $Happens(landingRequest(A1,AR-a), t2, R(0,6))$  refers to events which are captured and transmitted by the event captor *captor-AR-a* then at the time of the search ( $T=15$ ), it will not be impossible to establish whether an event matching  $Happens(landingRequest(A1,AR-a),t2,R(0,6))$  has occurred. This is because, as shown in Figure 2, the last event received from *captor-AR-a* until  $T=15$  is  $Happens(changeOfLandingApproach(AR-a,S1),2,R(2,2))$  and, therefore, the latest known time for this captor ( $lastTime(captor-AR-a)$ ) is 2. Thus, the basic probabilities in the validity of the explanation  $\Phi=Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  will be:  $m_E(Valid(\Phi)) = 1/2 = 0.5$ ,  $m_E(\neg Valid(\Phi)) = 0/2 = 0$  and  $m_E(Valid(\Phi) \vee \neg Valid(\Phi)) = 1/2 = 0.5$ .

### 3.4 Diagnosis generation

Having obtained the basic probability measures in the validity or not of individual explanations, the next step in the diagnosis process is to construct an aggregate explanation of the rule violation. The construction of such aggregate explanations is based on assessing the overall belief in the *genuineness* of the events that are involved in the violation. This assessment is based on the hypothesis that an event  $E$ , which is involved in a violation of a rule, is genuine if and only if at least one of the explanations that have been generated for it is valid. Based on this hypothesis, as we show in [18], the belief in the genuineness of  $E$  ( $Gen(E)$ ) is measured as:

$$\begin{aligned} Bel(Gen(E)) &= Bel(\bigvee_{i=1,\dots,n} Valid(\Phi_i)) \\ &= \sum_{I \subseteq \{1,\dots,n\} \text{ and } I \neq \emptyset} (-1)^{|I|+1} \{ \prod_{i \in I} m_E(Valid(\Phi_i)) \} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Bel(\neg Gen(E)) &= Bel(\bigwedge_{i=1,\dots,n} \neg Valid(\Phi_i)) \\ &= \prod_{i=1,\dots,n} m_E(\neg Valid(\Phi_i)) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

whereby  $\Phi_i$  ( $i=1,\dots,n$ ) are the alternative explanations of  $E$

The beliefs in the genuineness of  $E$  and its negation which are computed by the above formulas are used to decide whether or not a violation observation is confirmed by its available explanations. In particular, the computation of  $Bel(Gen(E))$  and  $Bel(\neg Gen(E))$  generates a belief range for the genuineness of  $E$  which, according to the DS theory [15], is:

$$[Bel(Gen(E)), \dots, Pls(Gen(E))]$$

$$\text{whereby: } Pls(Gen(E)) = 1 - Bel(\neg Gen(E)) \quad (3)$$

The lower bound of this range is the belief in the genuineness of  $E$  and the upper bound of it is the maximum possible value that the belief in the genuineness of  $E$  can take given the belief in the non genuineness of  $E$ . The upper bound for the belief in the genuineness of  $E$  is called the “plausibility” of this proposition [15].

According to our approach,  $E$  is confirmed only if  $Bel(Gen(E)) > Bel(\neg Gen(E))$  and the final diagnosis of the violation consists of the confirmed and unconfirmed events of it and their explanations. It should also be noted that if no explanation can be generated for a violation observation, the diagnosis process attempts to find an explanation of its negation and, if this is possible, the beliefs in the genuineness of the event are calculated by using the (F4) formula and the following one:

$$Bel(\neg Gen(E)) = Bel(Gen(\neg E)) \quad (4)$$

Due to (1)-(4), the beliefs in the genuineness of the predicates involved in the violation of Rule-1 are calculated from the alternative explanations of the relevant violation observations. Specifically, for the predicate  $P1=Happens(signal(R1,A1,S1),7,R(7,7))$  there is a single explanation  $\Phi_{11}=Happens(inspace(A1,S1),t1,R(2,7))$  with basic probabilities  $m_E(Valid(\Phi_{11}))=0.5$  and  $m_E(\neg Valid(\Phi_{11}))=0$ , as we discussed earlier. Thus,  $Bel(Gen(P1))=m_E(Valid(\Phi_{11}))=0.5$  and  $Bel(\neg Gen(P1))=m_E(\neg Valid(\Phi_{11}))=0$ . The predicates  $P2=HoldsAt(covers(R1,S1),7)$  and  $P3=HoldsAt(covers(R2,S1),7)$  are also confirmed without using belief measures, as they are both derived from the runtime events (E1) and (E2) in Figure 2. Finally,  $P4=\neg Happens(signal(R2,A1,S1),t,R(7,12))$  is a negated predicate and, since no explanation of it can be generated from the assumptions of ATMS, the diagnosis process generates explanations of its positive form, i.e.,  $Happens(signal(R2,A1,S1),t,R(7,12))$ . Following the same reasoning process as in the case of  $P1$ ,  $\Phi_{41}=Happens(inspace(A2,S1),t,R(7,17))$  will be derived as an explanation of  $\neg P4$  with basic probabilities  $m_E(Valid(\Phi_{41})) = 0.5$  and  $m_E(\neg Valid(\Phi_{41})) = 0$ . Thus,  $Bel(Gen(\neg P4))=0.5$  and  $Bel(\neg Gen(\neg P4))= 0$  and, from (F4) and (F5),  $Bel(\neg Gen(P4))=0.5$  and  $Bel(Gen(P4))= 0$ . Thus,  $P4$  is reported as an unconfirmed predicate and, finally, as the cause of the rule violation.

## 4 Related work

In the context of model-based diagnosis, diagnosis focuses on the detection of system failures and typically involves the identification of traces of system events that have led to a failure (problematic event) using automata that recognise faulty behaviour [1][6][9][13][19]. In [6], diagnosis is carried through the synchronization of automata modelling the expected behaviour of a monitored system and the events captured from it. The approach in [9] is similar but decentralised as synchronisation is first performed for individual system components and then is aggregated for the global system. In [1][19], the problem of fault diagnosis, concerning time, has been studied by using timed automata to model systems.

Our approach is different from the above, as our focus is not the detection of faulty behaviours. Such faulty behaviours are detected by the core monitoring capability of the framework described in [17] as violations of monitoring rules by the current trace

of runtime events. The focus of our approach, in this paper, is the provision of possible explanations for the events that constitute the faulty behaviours and through them the confirmation or not of the genuineness of these events. The provision of such diagnostic information is necessary if the event traces which are taken into account by the monitor cannot be assumed to be complete and/or consist of trusted genuine events which have not been caused by malfunctioning system components or are the results of attacks. Another difference between the work in model based diagnosis and our approach is that to perform monitoring and the generation of diagnostic explanations for violations of properties, we do not assume a complete model of the system that is being monitored. Our approach can be based on a partial model of this system that includes the properties that should be monitored expressed as rules in Event Calculus, and assumptions about parts of the behaviour of the monitored system which are also expressed as EC formulas.

The generation of abductive explanations considering temporal information is the main focus of interest of the research work described in [2] and [14]. In [2], a temporal abduction algorithm is described which makes use of temporal constraints associated with the observations and the formulation of the underlying domain theory. In [14], the time ranges of the generated explanations are calculated by the use of a computation method based on linear constraint satisfaction, while the uncertainty of explanations is treated through the use of probabilistic assessment scheme based on Bayesian inference [8].

Our approach draws upon work on temporal abductive reasoning [2][3][11][16] and its applications to diagnosis [3][10], but is based on a newly developed algorithm for abductive search with EC which generates all the possible alternative explanations of a formula (unlike [2][16]), treats the time constraint satisfaction problem as a linear programming problem, and computes beliefs in explanations using the DS theory. These beliefs are also used in order to rank explanations and select some of them as the most plausible. The choice of the DS theory of evidence as the framework for calculating the likelihoods of abduced explanations has been dictated by the need to deal with uncertainty regarding the confirmation of the consequences of explanations as we discussed in Section 3.3 and to reason in the presence of this uncertainty.

## 5 Conclusions and future work

In this paper, we have presented the extension of a framework supporting the runtime monitoring of software systems which can provide diagnostic information for violations of monitored properties. The provision of diagnostic information is based on alternative *explanations* of events involved in violations of properties which are generated by abductive reasoning using a model of the monitored properties expressed in Event Calculus. Our approach supports also the computation of beliefs in the plausibility of explanations based on evidence about their expected effects that is gathered from the event log of the monitored system. A more detailed account of our approach and its implementation is given in [18].

Currently, we are extending the scheme for the assessment of the plausibility of explanations in order to take into account beliefs in the genuineness of events in the

monitor's log, which are used in order to derive the expected consequences of explanations of violation observations or match with these consequences and are, therefore, used as confirmatory evidence for them. Since the genuineness of these events may also be questioned, our approach may be extended to compute beliefs in it and use these beliefs as a weighting factor when taking such events into account for generating or confirming explanations. It should, however, be appreciated that extending our approach in this direction requires the establishment of a time window that will determine the event set, which should be taken into account in the process, since looking at the entire event log is unlikely to be feasible in real applications. Furthermore, we are currently performing an experimental evaluation of our approach in the context of industrial case studies used in the SERENITY project.

### Acknowledgements

This work has been partially funded by the European integrated research project SERENITY (FP6-IST-2006-27587).

### References

1. Bouyer P., Chevalier F. and D'Souza D.: "Fault Diagnosis using Timed Automata". In Proc. of FoSSaCS'05, LNCS 3441, 219--233, Springer (2005)
2. Console L. et al.: Local Reasoning and Knowledge Compilation for Efficient Temporal Abduction. IEEE Trans. on Knowledge & Data Engineering 14(6): 1230--1248 (2002)
3. De Kleer J., Williams B.C.: Diagnosing Multiple Faults. A. I. 32(1): 97--130 (1987)
4. Denecker M. et al.: Temporal reasoning with abductive event calculus. 10th ECAI (1992)
5. Gale D.: "Linear programming and the simplex method". AMS, 54(3):364--369 (2007)
6. Grastien A., Cordier M., Largouët C.: Incremental Diagnosis of Discrete-Event Systems, 15th Int. Work. On Principles of Diagnosis (DX05) (2005)
7. Lazarevic A., Kumar V., Srivastava J.: Intrusion detection: a survey. In Managing cyber-threats: issues approaches & challenges, Springer (2005)
8. Pearl J.: Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent Systems, Morgan-Kaufmann (1988)
9. Pencolé Y., Cordier M.: A formal framework for the decentralised diagnosis of large scale discrete event systems & its application to telecommunication networks. A.I. 164: 121--180 (2005)
10. Poole D.: Explanation and prediction: An architecture for default and abductive reasoning. Comp. Intell. 5(2): 97--110 (1989)
11. Ray O., Kakas A.: ProLogICA: a practical system for Abductive Logic Programming. 11th Int. Works. on Non-monotonic Reasoning, 304--312 (2006)
12. Reiter R.: A theory of diagnosis from first principles. Artif. Intell. 32(1): 57--96 (1987)
13. Sampath M et al.: Failure diagnosis using discrete-event models. IEEE Trans. on Control Systems Technology, 4(2):105--124 (1996)
14. Santos E. Jr.: "Unifying time and uncertainty for diagnosis". Journal of Experimental and Theoretical Artificial Intelligence, 8, 75--94 (1996)
15. Shafer G.: A Mathematical Theory of Evidence. Princeton University Press (1975)
16. Shanahan M.: Abductive Event Calculus Planner. J. Logic Progr. 44: 207--239 (2000)
17. Spanoudakis G., Mahbub K.: Non intrusive monitoring of service based systems. Int. J. of Coop. Infor. Sys., 15(3):325--358 (2006)
18. Spanoudakis G., Tsigkritis T.: v1 of diagnosis prototype. Deliverable A4.D5.1, SERENITY Project, <http://www.serenity-forum.org/> (2008)
19. Tripakis S.: Fault diagnosis for timed automata. In Proc. of FTRTFT'02, vol. 2469 of LNCS, 205--224, Springer (2002)