An Abductive Approach for Handling Inconsistencies in SCR Specifications

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ABSTRACT
We present a formal approach for handling inconsistencies in Software Cost Reduction (SCR) specifications. The approach uses an event-based logic, called the *Event Calculus*, to represent SCR mode transition tables. Building on this formalism, the approach provides an abductive reasoning mechanism that enables the analysis of inconsistencies between SCR mode transition tables and global requirements (invariants), and the identification of alternative changes that would resolve such inconsistencies. Changes include addition of new invariants, refinement of existing invariants, and changes on conditions of mode transitions. The methodology is widely applicable, in particular to systems embedded in complex environments whose initial conditions cannot be completely predicted. A case study of an automobile cruise control system is used to illustrate our approach. The technique described is implemented using existing tools for abductive logic programming. Scalability and efficiency are achieved by utilising some theoretical results also described in the paper.

Keywords
Requirements, specifications, SCR, abduction, Event Calculus, model checking.

1 INTRODUCTION

Handling inconsistencies in specifications is a critical activity in the software development process. Inconsistent specifications can lead to system failures, and defects detected late in development can be more expensive to correct than specification inconsistencies discovered early. Therefore, techniques for the detection and resolution of inconsistencies in requirements specifications can be crucial for successful development of software systems.

A variety of techniques have been developed for checking specifications for inconsistencies. These range from informal but structured inspections [11], to more formal techniques such as those based on model checking or theorem proving [6]. While many of these approaches provide rigorous, and often automated, analysis of software specifications to reveal inconsistencies, they often also do not support the analyst in handling these inconsistencies after they have been discovered.

This paper presents an approach to support inconsistency handling of requirements specifications, focusing in particular on requirements expressed as Software Cost Reduction (SCR) tabular specifications [13]. The choice of SCR is a pragmatic one – it has been proven useful for expressing the requirements of a wide range of large-scale real-world systems, and for checking the consistency and validity of such requirements [1; 13; 9; 27]. The approach is supported by a suite of automated tools for consistency checking and simulation, and is complemented by model checking tools and techniques for checking specification invariants [15; 3; 4].

However, while SCR provides a host of tools for analysing requirements specifications, once a violation of an invariant has been detected, the identification of (possible) changes to perform on the specification is still primarily a human task. Inconsistencies are reported to the requirement engineer, who must then investigate ways of changing the specifications to fix the inconsistencies.

To address this issue, we have developed an approach based on *abduction* [19], to suggest ways of changing an SCR specification, given the satisfaction of an invariant as a goal. In Artificial Intelligence (AI), abduction is used as one of the three fundamental modes of reasoning, the others being deduction and induction. Abductive techniques are able to generate "explanations" for a given property ("goal") to be satisfied in a specification. These techniques have been shown to be particularly suitable for addressing problems such as diagnosis [7], planning [10], theory update [8; 20; 18], and knowledge-based software development [25]. Of particular interest to us in this paper are abductive techniques that allow reasoning about specifications expressed in event-based formalisms that can be mapped to and from SCR specifications. One such formalism is the *Event Calculus* [23] based on classical

logic. Abductive Event Calculus techniques provide explanations in terms of events and domain properties, and can be used to (automatically) identify explanations for violated invariants.

This paper describes and demonstrates our approach of using an abductive Event Calculus technique for reasoning about discrepancies between required systems properties (invariants) and SCR tabular specifications. An overview of our approach is shown schematically in Figure-1.

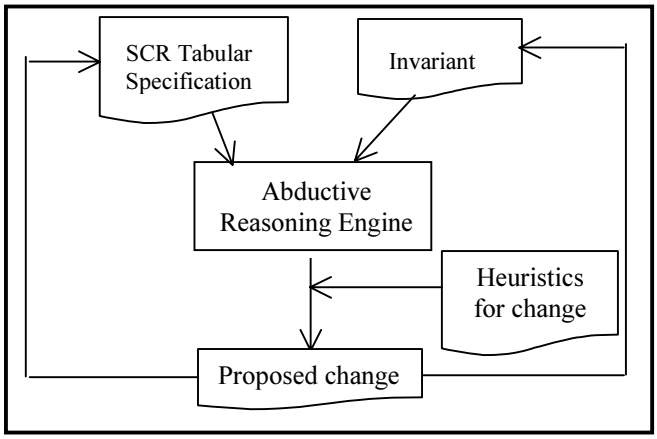

Figure 1: The Abductive Event Calculus Approach

SCR "mode transition tables" and invariants are both expressed in the Event Calculus language. A table denotes a "domain-description", while invariants denote the goals that such a domain-description should satisfy. Given a goal and an SCR table, our abductive technique identifies whether the goal is satisfied by the specification. If it is not, it provides explanations in terms of parts of the specification that violate the property. Heuristics can then be used to prune the set of these explanations (possible) possible to a smaller set of proposed changes. Of course, performing a change on a specification often initiates a sequence of additional related changes, and so the approach must then be deployed iteratively, considering either a new table or a new invariant.

Section 2 of the paper reviews SCR, focusing on mode transition tables and invariants. Section 3 reviews the Event Calculus and illustrates the kinds of reasoning that it can provide. A review of abductive reasoning in the event calculus is also given. Section 4 provides a case study based description of our approach. The domain of the case study is taken from [4]. It shows how SCR tables and invariants can be mapped into an event-based specification, the kind of explanations that our abductive technique is able to provide, and the heuristics that can be used to identify possible changes. The tool we used to implement our approach is also described. The paper concludes with a discussion of lessons learned from our case study, and a summary of related and future work.

2 SCR SPECIFICATIONS.

SCR is a formal requirements engineering method that facilitates the tabular definition of requirements specifications and their analysis [13; 14; 15]. The method is based on an abstract "Four Variable Model" model [28], used to describe a required system's behavior as a set of mathematical relations between four types of variables – monitored and controlled variables, and input and output data items. M*onitored variables* are environmental entities that influence the system behavior, and *controlled variables* are environmental entities that the system controls. Systems are assumed to include an input device to measure monitored variables and map them into software *input data items*, and an output device to use the software *output data items* for setting the controlled variables. Four main relations characterize this model – REQ, NAT, IN, and OUT. The relations IN and OUT specify the accuracy with which the input device measures the monitored variables, and the output device sets the controlled variables. NAT describes natural constraints on the system behavior such as constraints imposed by physical laws, while REQ defines the system requirements in terms of relations between monitored and controlled variables. SCR specifications describe the NAT and REQ relations of a Four Variable Model.

The components of an SCR specification are monitored and controlled variables, mode classes and terms. A *mode class* partitions the monitored environment's state space into modes. Each mode is a collection of systems states sharing common properties on monitored variables. *Terms*, on the other hand, are "internal" variables calculated and used within the system. Variables of an SCR specification are of different types – Boolean, integers, real number, and enumerated domains. Non-boolean variables can always be reduced to Boolean variables, i.e. predicates defined over their values. For instance, a predicate TempTooHot can be defined to indicate that a monitored variable RoomTemp, over the real numbers, has a value RoomTemp>(SetTemp+ 3°C). These predicates are called *conditions* and are defined over single system states. An *event* occurs when a system component (i.e. a monitored variable, controlled variable, mode class or term) changes value. Special events are *monitored events*, when it is a monitored variable to change value, and *conditioned events*, when an event occurs while a specified condition is true.

SCR specifications use three special tables, the mode transition table, the event table and the condition table. A condition table describes a controlled variable or a term as a function of a mode and a condition; an event table describes a controlled variable or a term as a function of a mode and an event. Mode transition tables describe a mode as a function of another mode and an event. In addition to these tables, SCR specifications also include *assertions*, properties of the environment, and *invariants (goals)*, properties that are required to hold in the system. For the

purpose of this paper, we will regard SCR specifications as consisting simply of a mode transition table and a list of system invariants. These two components are therefore described in more detail in the rest of this section. For a complete description of the SCR approach the reader is referred to [14; 13; 5].

Mode Transition Tables. Mode classes are abstractions of the system state space with respect to monitored variables. Each mode class can be seen as a state machine, defined on the monitored variables, whose states are modes and whose transitions, called *mode transitions*, are triggered by changes on the monitored variables. Mode transition tables represent mode classes and their respective transitions in a tabular format. An example of a mode transition table, taken from [4], is given in Table-1 for an automobile cruise control system. For the purpose of this paper it is assumed that mode transition tables have been appropriately "completed" with respect to the assertions included in the full SCR specification and sequences of simultaneous mode transitions (see [4]).

Mode transition events occur when one or more (condition on) monitored variables change their values. Events are of two types: "**@T**(*C*)" when a condition C changes from false to true, and "**@F**(*C*)", when a condition C changes from true to false. C is called a *triggered condition*. For example, in a temperature control system, the event @T(TempTooHot) would denote that the temperature in a room has changed from not being too hot (i.e. RoomTemp ≤ (SetTemp + 3°C)) to be too hot (i.e. RoomTemp > (SetTemp + 3°C)). Event occurrences can also depend on the truth/falsity of other conditions. In this case, the events are called *conditioned events*. For example, in Table 1 the mode transition defined in the second row is caused by the occurrence of conditioned event @T(Ignited) while Running is false. Different semantics have been used for conditioned event [1]. In this paper we will adopt the following interpretation. An event @T(C) conditioned to (a condition) D means that C is false in the current mode and is changed to true in the new mode, while D is true in the current mode and stays true in the new mode. Similarly for an event @F(C) conditioned to D, but with C changing truth value from true to false.

In a mode transition table, each row is a transition from a current mode, indicated in the left most column of the table, to a new mode, specified in the right most column. The central part of the table defines the events that cause the transition. A triggered event C can have entries equal to @T or @F. Monitored variables that condition the occurrence of an event can have entry equal to "t" or "f". Monitored variables that are irrelevant for the transition have a "–"entry.

SCR mode transitions tables are, in general, shorthand for much larger tables. Two main features need to be considered when reading an SCR table. The first one is that a "–" entry for a condition in the table is shorthand for any of the four possible condition's entries "@T", "@F", "t" and "f". This means that any transition between a current and a new mode specified in a table using n dashes is in effect shorthand for 4^n different transitions, between the same current and new mode, given by the different combinations of entries for each of the dashed monitored variables. For instance, the first transition in Table-1 from mode Inactive to mode Cruise is shorthand four different transitions between Inactive and Cruise given, respectively,

Current Mode	Ignited	Running	Toofast	Brake	Activate	Deactivate	Resume	New Mode
Off	@T	-	-	-	-	-	-	Inactive
Inactive	@F	f	-	-	-	-	-	Off
	@F	@F	-	-	-	-	-	
	t	t	-	f	@T	@F	f	Cruise
	t	t	-	f	@T	f	@F	
Cruise	@F	@F	-	-	-	-	-	Off
	t	@F	-	-	-	-	-	Inactive
	t	-	@T	-	-	-	-	
	t	t	f	@T	-	-	-	Override
	t	t	f	-	@F	@T	f	
	t	t	f	-	f	@T	@F	
Override	@F	@F	-	-	-	-	-	Off
	t	@F	-	-	-	-	-	Inactive
	t	t	-	f	@T	@F	f	Cruise
	t	t	-	f	@T	f	@F	
	t	t	-	f	f	@F	@T	
	t	t	-	f	@F	f	@T	

Table 1: Mode Transition Table for an automobile cruise control system

by each of the four entries "t", "f", "@T" and "@F", for the condition Toofast. A second main feature to consider and which makes tables concise, is the non-specification of transitions between identical modes. Mode transition tables are basically functions that define for each current mode and each combination of conditions' values, a new mode of the system. This new mode may or may not be equal to the current mode. Only the transitions between current and new modes that are different are explicitly represented in SCR; the other (transitions between identical current and new modes) are implicitly assumed and "hidden" away from the table. A full, extended SCR mode transition table would thus include, for each possible combination of pairs of modes, a number of transitions (rows) given by all possible combinations of the four condition' entries for all the conditions used in the table. As discussed in section 4, hidden rows or dashes are often causes for mismatch between SCR tables and invariants. Therefore, they need to be taken into account when analysing invariants with respect to the concise version of an SCR mode transition table.

Goals as Invariants. Invariants are properties (specification assertions) of the system behavior regarding mode classes, which ought to be satisfied by the system specification. Considering an automobile cruise control system, an example of invariant is:

$$Cruise \rightarrow (Ignited \wedge Running \wedge \neg Brake)$$

This means that whenever the system is in mode cruise, the conditions Ignited and Running must be true and Brake must be false. The example property given here is called a *mode invariant*. Mode invariants are formulae of the form:

$$m \rightarrow P \qquad \text{(INV)}$$

where *m* is a mode value of a certain mode class and P is a logical proposition over the conditions used in the associated mode transition table. A mode transition table of a given mode class has to satisfy the mode invariants related to that mode class. Different approaches have been developed for checking invariants of SCR specifications. These are mainly based on model checking techniques, such as state-based model checking [4; 16] using Spin [17], and symbolic model checking using SMV [24]. This paper provides an alternative logic-based approach for detecting violation of invariants and for generating explanations. The latter are pointers to the rows in the (extended) table that violate the invariant. A case study investigation of our approach for the cruise control system given in Table-1 has highlighted the fact that such rows can be hidden mode transitions. This shows that it is often the implicit assumptions used by the requirements engineer that cause inconsistencies. This is discussed in more detailed in Section 4. Extensions of the approach to full SCR specifications (i.e. event and condition tables, and global requirements properties that are not necessarily mode invariants) are discussed in Section 5. A brief overview of the event-based formalism used in our approach, and of the basic notion of abductive reasoning, is given in the next section.

3 THE EVENT CALCULUS

The Event Calculus [23; 26] is a logic-based formalism for representing and reasoning about dynamic systems. In contrast to pure state-transition based formalisms, its ontology includes an explicit structure of time, which is independent of any (sequence of) events or actions under consideration. As we shall see, this characteristic makes it straightforward to model concurrent, possibly non-deterministic, event-driven systems (although in the present paper we consider only deterministic systems).

For our purposes, a simple classical logic form [26] of the Event Calculus is sufficient, whose ontology consists of (i) a set of *time-points* isomorphic to the non-negative integers, (ii) a set of time-varying properties called *fluents*, and (iii) a set of *event types* (or *actions*). The logic is correspondingly sorted, and includes the predicates *Happens*, *Initiates*, *Terminates* and *HoldsAt*, as well as some auxiliary predicates defined in terms of these. *Happens(a,t)* indicates that event (or action) *a* occurs at time-point *t*, *Initiates(a,f,t)* (resp. *Terminates(a,f,t)*) means that event *a* causes fluent *f* to be true (resp. false) immediately after *t*, and *HoldsAt(f,t)* indicates that fluent *f* is true at *t*. So, for example, to indicate that events *A1* and *A2* occur concurrently at time-point *T4* it is sufficient to assert $[Happens(A1,T4) \wedge Happens(A2,T4)]$.

Specifications as Axiomatisations. Every Event Calculus specification (i.e. description) includes a core collection of domain-independent axioms (sentences) that describe general principles for deciding when fluents hold or do not hold at particular time-points. In addition, each specification includes a collection of domain- or scenario-dependent sentences describing the particular effects of events or actions (using the predicates *Initiates* and *Terminates*), and may also include sentences stating the particular time-points at which instances of these events occur (using the predicate *Happens*).

To write the domain-independent axioms succinctly, it is convenient to introduce two auxiliary predicates, *Clipped* and *Declipped*. *Clipped(t1,f,t2)* means that some event occurs between the times *t1* and *t2* which terminates the fluent *f*. In logic, this is:

$$Clipped(t1,f,t2) \equiv \exists a,t[Happens(a,t) \wedge t1 \leq t < t2 \wedge Terminates(a,f,t)] \qquad \text{(EC1)}$$

(In this and all other axioms all variables are assumed to be universally quantified with maximum scope unless otherwise stated.) Similarly, *Declipped(t1,f,t2)* means that some event occurs between the times *t1* and *t2* that initiates the fluent *f*:

$$Declipped(t1,f,t2) \equiv \quad \text{(EC2)}$$
$$\exists a,t[Happens(a,t) \wedge t1 \leq t < t2 \wedge Initiates(a,f,t)]$$

Armed with this notational shorthand, we can state the three general (commonsense) principles that constitute the domain-independent component of the Event Calculus: **(i)** fluents that have been initiated by event occurrences continue to hold until events occur that terminate them:

$$HoldsAt(f,t2) \leftarrow \quad \text{(EC3)}$$
$$\exists a,t1[Happens(a,t1) \wedge Initiates(a,f,t1) \wedge t1 < t2 \wedge \neg Clipped(t1,f,t2)]$$

(ii) fluents that have been terminated by event occurrences continue not to hold until events occur that initiate them:

$$\neg HoldsAt(f,t2) \leftarrow \quad \text{(EC4)}$$
$$\exists a,t1[Happens(a,t1) \wedge Terminates(a,f,t1) \wedge t1 < t2 \wedge \neg Declipped(t1,f,t2)]$$

and **(iii)** fluents only change status via occurrences of initiating and terminating events:

$$HoldsAt(f,t2) \leftarrow [HoldsAt(f,t1) \wedge t1 < t2 \wedge \neg Clipped(t1,f,t2)] \quad \text{(EC5)}$$

$$\neg HoldsAt(f,t2) \leftarrow [\neg HoldsAt(f,t1) \wedge t1 < t2 \wedge \neg Declipped(t1,f,t2)] \quad \text{(EC6)}$$

To illustrate how the effects of particular events may be described in the domain-dependent part of a specification using the predicates *Initiates* and *Terminates*, we will describe an electric circuit consisting of a single light bulb and two switches *A* and *B* all connected in series. We need three fluents, *SwitchAOn*, *SwitchBOn* and *LightOn*, and two actions *FlickA* and *FlickB*. We can describe facts such as (i) that flicking switch *A* turns the light on, provided that switch A is not already on and that switch *B* is already on (i.e. connected) and is not simultaneously flicked:

$$Initiates(FlickA,LightOn,t) \leftarrow [\neg HoldsAt(SwitchAOn,t) \wedge HoldsAt(SwitchBOn,t) \wedge \neg Happens(FlickB,t)]$$

(ii) that if neither switch is on, flicking them both simultaneously causes the light to come on:

$$Initiates(FlickA,LightOn,t) \leftarrow [\neg HoldsAt(SwitchAOn,t) \wedge \neg HoldsAt(SwitchBOn,t) \wedge Happens(FlickB,t)]$$

and (iii) that if either switch is on, flicking it causes the light to go off (irrespective of the state of the other switch):

$$Terminates(FlickA,LightOn,t) \leftarrow [HoldsAt(SwitchAOn,t)]$$

$$Terminates(FlickB,LightOn,t) \leftarrow [HoldsAt(SwitchBOn,t)]$$

In fact, in this example we need a total of five such sentences to describe the effects of particular events or combinations of events on the light, and a further four sentences to describe the effects on the switches themselves. Although for readability these sentences are written separately here, it is the *completions* (i.e. the if-and-only-if transformations) of the sets of sentences describing *Initiates* and *Terminates* that are actually included in the specification (see [26] for details). The completion of the two Terminates clauses above, for example, is:

$$Terminates(a,f,t) \equiv [[a=FlickA \wedge f=LightOn \wedge HoldsAt(SwitchAOn,t)] \vee [a=FlickB \wedge f=LightOn \wedge HoldsAt(SwitchBOn,t)]]$$

The use of such completions avoids the frame problem, i.e. it allows us to assume that the only effects of events are those explicitly described.

For many applications, it is appropriate to include similar (completions of) sets of sentences describing which events occur (when using the predicate *Happens*). However, in the present paper we wish to prove properties of systems under all possible scenarios, i.e. irrespective of which events actually occur. Hence our descriptions leave *Happens* undefined, i.e. they allow models with arbitrary interpretations for *Happens*. In this way we effectively simulate a branching time structure that covers every possible series of events. In other words, by leaving *Happens* undefined we effectively consider, in one model or another, every possible path through a state-transition graph.

Efficient Abductive Reasoning in the Event Calculus. In the context of this paper, we wish to take an Event Calculus specification such as described above and use it to test system invariants. In the language of the Event Calculus these are expressions involving *HoldsAt* and universally quantified over time, such as:

$$\forall t.[HoldsAt(SwitchAOn,t) \vee \neg HoldsAt(LightOn,t)]$$

It is (potentially) computationally expensive to demonstrate the truth of such sentences by standard (deductive or abductive) theorem-proving techniques. However, fortunately we can reduce the complexity of the inference task considerably by utilising a general theorem about this type of Event Calculus representation. Suppose that $EC(\mathcal{N})$ is an Event Calculus description with the sort of time-points interpreted as the natural numbers $\mathcal{N}$, and $\forall t.I(t)$ is the invariant we wish to demonstrate. Then in logical terms we wish to show that $EC(\mathcal{N}) \models \forall t.I(t)$. The theorem states that, provided the invariant is initially true (i.e. $I(0)$ is true), it is sufficient to show that $EC(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{I(Sc)\} \models I(Sn)$, where $\mathcal{S}$ is a simple time structure consisting of just two points *Sc* and *Sn* such that $Sc < Sn$ ("*c*" for "current" and "*n*" for "next"). In other words, it is sufficient to consider

only a symbolic time-point *Sc* and its immediate successor *Sn*, assume the invariant to be true at *Sc*, and demonstrate that its truth then follows at *Sn*. (Proof of the theorem is straightforward by induction over $\mathcal{N}$.) This theorem is applicable even when complete information about the initial state of the system is not available. Its utilisation reduces computational costs considerably because, in the context of $EC(\mathcal{S})$, it allows us to re-write all our Event Calculus axioms with ground time-point terms. For example, (EC5) becomes:

$$HoldsAt(f,Sn) \leftarrow [HoldsAt(f,Sc) \wedge \neg Clipped(Sc,f,Sn)]$$

Our final logical tool for efficient reasoning about Event Calculus specifications is *abduction* [19]. Abduction is the process of finding a consistent extension (of a specified form) to a logical specification such that it then entails a given goal. Given an Event Calculus description *EC* and a goal *G* expressed as a collection of *HoldsAt* facts, abductive tools exist that will attempt to identify (the completion of) a collection of *Happens* facts Δ such that $EC \cup \Delta \models G$ and $EC \cup \Delta$ is consistent. (In the context of *planning*, each fact in Δ is then interpreted as an action for the agent to perform to achieve the goal *G*.) Moreover, some of these abductive tools (e.g. [22]) are *complete*, in the sense that they will always identify such a Δ if one exists.

In this paper, we will use abduction "in reverse". Using the reduced time structure described above, we will prove assertions of the form $EC(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{I(Sc)\} \models I(Sn)$ by showing that a complete abductive procedure fails to produce a set Δ of *HoldsAt* and *Happens* facts (grounded at *Sc*) such that $EC(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{I(Sc)\} \cup \Delta \models \neg I(Sn)$. This procedure is valid given the reasonable assumptions that only a finite number of events can occur in a given instant and that the total number of system properties (fluents) is finite. The theorem described above then allows us to confirm that, provided $I(0)$ is true, $\forall t.I(t)$ is also true. As we shall see, the abductive procedure has the added advantage that if instead it does produce such a set Δ, then this Δ is an explicit indicator of where in the specification (i.e. in the SCR table) there is a problem.

4 ABDUCTIVE INCONSISTENCY HANLDING

We are now in the position to describe our abductive Event Calculus approach to analysing the consistency between SCR mode transition tables and system invariants. We refer to Table-1 as an example case study to illustrate our approach. Briefly, SCR tables are translated into Event Calculus specifications of the type described above, system invariants are expressed (in the same language) as *HoldsAt* formulae universally quantified over time, and then abduction is used as an inference method to either confirm that the (translation of the) table satisfies the invariants or to identify the parts where it does not. To guarantee the computational efficiency and scalability of this process, the Event Calculus translations are reduced to ground, two time-point versions, of the type described above, prior to the application of the abductive reasoning process. The soundness of this reduction is guaranteed by the theorem stated in the previous section. In practice, the refinement of an SCR table using this method will be an iterative process, with the abductive tool being reapplied after each change of the table.

The Translation. In our translation both conditions and modes are represented as fluents, which we will refer to as *condition fluents* and *mode fluents* respectively. Although in reality many different types of external, real-word events may affect a given condition, SCR tables abstract these differences away and essentially identify only two types of events for each condition – a "change-to-true" (@T) and a "change-to-false" (@F) event. Hence in our Event Calculus translation there are no independent event constants, but instead two functions *@T* and *@F* from fluents to events, and two axioms:

$$\forall t.Initiates(@T(C),C,t) \quad (S1)$$
$$\forall t.Terminates(@F(C),C,t) \quad (S2)$$

for each condition fluent *C*.

The translation of tables into Event Calculus axioms (rules) is modular, in the sense that a single *Initiates* and a single *Terminates* rule is generated for each row of the table. For a given row, the procedure for generating the *Initiates* rule is as follows. The *Initiates* literal in the left-hand side of the rule has the new mode (on the far right of the row) as its fluent argument, and the first @T or @F event (reading from the left) as its event argument. The right-hand side of the rule includes a *HoldsAt* literal for the current mode and a pair of *HoldsAt* and *Happens* literals for each "non-dash" condition entry in the row. Specifically, if the entry for condition C is a "t" this pair is $HoldsAt(C,t) \wedge \neg Happens(@F(C),t)$, for "f" it is $\neg HoldsAt(C,t) \wedge \neg Happens(@T(C),t)$, for "@T" it is $\neg HoldsAt(C,t) \wedge Happens(@T(C),t)$,and for "@F" it is $HoldsAt(C,t) \wedge Happens(@F(C),t)$. The *Terminates* rule is generated in exactly the same way, but with the current mode as the fluent argument in the *Terminates* literal. For example, the seventh row in Table-1 is translated as follows:

$$Initiates(@F(Running),Inactive,t) \leftarrow$$
$$[HoldsAt(Cruise,t) \wedge HoldsAt(Ignited,t) \wedge \neg Happens(@F(Ignited),t) \wedge HoldsAt(Running,t) \wedge Happens(@F(Running),t)]$$

$$Terminates(@F(Running),Cruise,t) \leftarrow$$
$$[HoldsAt(Cruise,t) \wedge HoldsAt(Ignited,t) \wedge \neg Happens(@F(Ignited),t) \wedge HoldsAt(Running,t) \wedge Happens(@F(Running),t)]$$

Clearly, this axiom pair captures the intended meaning of individual rows as described in Section 2.

The semantics of the whole table is given by the two completions of the collections of *Initiates* and *Terminates* rules. These completions (standard in the Event Calculus) reflect the implicit information in a given SCR table that combinations of condition values not explicitly identified are not mode transitions. Indeed, as discussed in Section 2 we may regard SCR tables as also containing "hidden" or "default" rows (which the engineer does not bother to list) in which the current and the new mode are identical. Mismatches between the system invariants and the table are just as likely to be caused by these hidden rows as by the explicit rows of the table. Because our translation utilises completions, the abductive tool is able to identify problems in hidden as well as explicit rows.

Our Event Calculus translation supplies a semantics to mode transition tables that is independent from other parts of the SCR specification. In particular, the translation does not include information about the initial state, and the abductive tool does not rely on such information to check system invariants. The technique described here is therefore also applicable to (large) systems where complete information about the initial configuration of the environment is not available. The abductive tool does not need to use defaults to "fill in" missing initial values for conditions. (Information about the initial state may of course also be represented in the Event Calculus; e.g., *HoldsAt(Off,0)*, so that system invariants may be checked with respect to the initial state separately).

The Abductive Procedure. For the purposes of discussion, let us suppose that the mode transition table in question has been translated into an Event Calculus specification $EC(\mathcal{N})$ (where the $\mathcal{N}$ signifies that our structure of time-points is isomorphic to the natural numbers) and that the system invariants have been expressed as n universally quantified sentences $\forall t.I_1(t),\ldots,\forall t.I_n(t)$ (where each I_n is expressed with standard logical connectives and the *HoldAt* predicate). We add an additional constraint $\forall t.I_0(t)$ to the specification which simply states (via an exclusive or) that the system is in exactly one mode at any one time. We use the term $\forall t.I(t)$ to stand for the conjunction $\forall t.I_0(t) \wedge \ldots \wedge \forall t.I_n(t)$. In the case of the cruise control specification, the invariants are (reading "|" as exclusive or):

I_0: *[HoldsAt(Off,t) | HoldsAt(Inactive,t) | HoldsAt(Cruise,t) | HoldsAt(Override,t)]*

I_1: $HoldsAt(Off,t) \equiv \neg HoldsAt(Ignited,t)$

I_2: $HoldsAt(Inactive,t) \rightarrow [HoldsAt(Ignited,t) \wedge [\neg HoldsAt(Running,t) \vee \neg HoldsAt(Activate,t)]]$

I_3: $HoldsAt(Cruise,t) \rightarrow [HoldsAt(Ignited,t) \wedge HoldsAt(Running,t) \wedge \neg HoldsAt(Brake,t)]$

I_4: $HoldsAt(Override,t) \rightarrow [HoldsAt(Ignited,t) \wedge HoldsAt(Running,t)]$

As stated in Section 3, a general theoretical result about the Event Calculus allows us to use an abductive tool with a reduced version of the Event Calculus specification. The specification is reduced in the sense that it uses a time structure $\mathcal{S}$ consisting of just two symbolic points *Sc* and *Sn* such that $Sc < Sn$. Our abductive procedure attempts to find mismatches between the transition table and the system invariants (i.e. potential inconsistencies between $EC(\mathcal{N})$ and $\forall t.I(t)$) by attempting to generate a consistent set Δ of *HoldsAt* and *Happens* facts (positive or negative literals grounded at *Sc*), such that $EC(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{I(Sc)\} \cup \Delta \models \neg I(Sn)$. We can also check the specification against a particular invariant $\forall t.I_i(t)$ by attempting to abduce a Δ such that $EC(\mathcal{S}) \cup \{I(Sc)\} \cup \Delta \models \neg I_i(Sn)$. Because the abductive procedure is complete, failure to find such a Δ ensures that the table satisfies the invariant(s). If, on the other hand, the tool generates a Δ, this Δ is effectively a pointer to a particular row in the table that is problematic.

For example, in the case of the cruise control specification, when checking the table against the invariant I_3 the tool produces the following Δ:

Δ = {*HoldsAt(Ignited,Sc)*, *HoldsAt(Running,Sc)*, *HoldsAt(Toofast,Sc)*, ¬*HoldsAt(Brake,Sc)*, *HoldsAt(Cruise,Sc)*, ¬*Happens(@F(Ignited),Sc)*, ¬*Happens(@F(Running),Sc)*, ¬*Happens(@F(Toofast),Sc)*, *Happens(@T(Brake),Sc)*}

Clearly, this Δ identifies one of the "hidden" rows of the table in which a *@T(Brake)* event merely results in the system staying in mode *Cruise*. The requirements engineer now has a choice: (1) alter the new mode in this (hidden) row so that invariant I_3 is satisfied (in this case the obvious choice is to change the new mode from *Cruise* to *Override*, and make this previously hidden row explicit in the table), (2) weaken or delete the system invariant (in this case I_3) that has been violated, or (3) add an extra invariant that forbids the combination of *HoldsAt* literals in Δ (e.g. add I_5 = $[HoldsAt(Cruise,t) \rightarrow \neg HoldsAt(Toofast,t)]$). Choices such as this will be highly domain-specific and therefore appropriate for the requirements engineer, rather than the tool, to select. After the selected change has been implemented, the tool should be run again, and this process repeated until no more inconsistencies are identified (i.e. until the tool fails to abductively generate a Δ).

This example illustrates in general all the types of choices for change that will be available when an inconsistency is detected. In particular, as described in Section 2 any mode transition table employing "-"s as values for monitored variables is equivalent to a (greatly) expanded table in which the "-"s have been eliminated, and in which all "hidden" rows (i.e. rows where the current and new modes are the same) have been added. Thus any change in the concise version of the table (e.g. changing a "t" into a

"@F" or a "-") is equivalent to changing the new mode (i.e. the value in the right-most column) in some collection of rows in the expanded table. This in turn means that performing a change in the concise version of the table is equivalent to replacing zero or more of its rows by a collection of rows taken from the newly modified, expanded version of the table. (Of course, as this collection is added, it should be appropriately collapsed to a manageable size by re-introduction of "-"s.) In other words, the only real underlying choice that the engineer has when defining or altering a mode transition table is which new mode any given set of conditions and events will result in.

Tool Support. It is beyond the scope of this paper to describe in detail the implementation of the abductive tool. However it is worth briefly mentioning how our tool avoids the pitfalls sometimes associated with theorem proving (and in particular abductive theorem proving) techniques, these being computational inefficiency and non-scalability. Both these problems are avoided here because, by appropriate theoretical results, we are able to reduce the representation to a ground expression with just two symbolic time-points *Sc* and *Sn*. Furthermore, the particular structure of this expression allows us to largely avoid the consistency checking that often imposes a high computational cost on automated abductive procedures as they construct an extension Δ. This is because the particular form of the Event Calculus used already ensures that any internally consistent, finite collection of *Happens* literals is consistent with any related specification. Therefore it is necessary only to check the consistency of candidate *HoldsAt* literals against the system invariants, and this can be done efficiently because both these types of expression are grounded at *Sc*.

Our prototype tool is in fact implemented in Prolog, using a simplified version of the abductive logic program module described in [21]. The logic program conversion of the given (classical logic) Event Calculus specification is achieved using the method described in [22], which overcomes the potential mismatch between the negation-as-failure used in the implementation and the classical negation used in the specification.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Observations. The efficiency and intuitiveness of our approach derives partly from the ontology of the Event Calculus. In particular, the Event Calculus's explicit representation of event occurrences facilitates a one-to-one correspondence between a given row in the mode transition table and a particular pair of sentences in the translated specification. Furthermore, the theorem (see Section 3) justifying the reduction of Event Calculus specifications to two-time-point counterpoints directly reflects the primary intuition behind mode transition tables. This is that the extended dynamic behavior of the system can be reduced to a description involving just two symbolic states labeled "current mode" and "new mode". Finally, the use of predicate completion for *Initiates* and *Terminates* exactly mirrors the default assumption implicit in mode transition tables. This is that combinations of events and conditions not explicitly represented in any row are not transitions between different modes.

A key characteristic of our approach is that, because the computation does not utilise information about the "initial state", it is applicable to systems whose initial environmental conditions are not fully known. This is very likely to be the case in many large or complex event-driven systems. The downside to this characteristic is that the tool will in certain cases be over-zealous in its reporting of potential problems, in that it will report inconsistencies associated with system states that are in reality unreachable from the initial state (or set of possible initial states), if such information is given elsewhere in the specification. However, in such cases the resolution of these problems will result only in overly robust, rather than incorrect, specifications.

Related Work. A number of logic-based approaches for handling inconsistency have been proposed in the literature. Specifically, Zowghi and Offen [31] suggest belief revision for default theories as a formal approach for resolving inconsistencies arising during the evolution of requirements specifications. Inconsistencies are removed by changing the status of information from defeasible to non-defeasible. Similarly, Ryan [29] defines (epistemic entrenchment) ordering relations on default information, and changes on these relations rather then the specifications facilitate conflict resolution. A logic-based method more closely related to ours has been proposed by van Lamsweerde *et al.* [30]. This describes a goal-driven approach to requirement engineering in which "obstacles" are parts of a specification that lead to a negated goal. Van Lamsweerde's notion of goals is comparable to our notion of invariants, and his notion of obstacles corresponds to the abduced facts detected by our abductive technique. The main difference is that obstacles are in terms of atomic requirements whereas, in our approach, it is possible to define different levels of granularity of the inconsistency handling process, by defining what is abducible. Recent work by Menzies has also demonstrated the applicability of abductive reasoning to knowledge-based software engineering, using an inference procedure for "knowledge-level modeling" that can support prediction, explanation, and planning [25].

Especially relevant to this paper is existing work on inconsistency analysis of SCR requirements specifications via the use of model checking. Heitmeyer *et al* [16] illustrate how both explicit state model checkers, such as Spin, and symbolic model checkers, like SMV, can be used to detect safety violations in SCR specifications. The first type of model checking verifies systems' invariants by

means of state exploration. Problems related to state explosion are dealt with by the use of sound and complete abstraction techniques, which basically reduce the number of variables to just those that are relevant to the invariant to be tested [16]. In our case, the combination of abduction and Event Calculus has the same effect. Abduction focuses reasoning on goals relevant to the invariant, and the Event Calculus ensures that this reasoning is at the level of relevant variables (fluents) rather than via the manipulation of entire states. The essential differences between our approach and this type of model checking are (i) that our system can deal with specifications in which information about the initial state is incomplete, and (ii) that out system reports problems in terms of individual transitions (which correspond directly to rows in the tables) rather than in terms of particular paths through a state space.

Symbolic model checking techniques, such as SMV use special-purpose languages to represent system specifications, and the (branching time temporal logic) CTL language to express system invariants. Whereas explicit state model checkers detect violation of invariants by enumerating the set of reachable states, symbolic model checkers consider the set of reachable states as logical formulae. The complexity of SMV analysis is therefore given by the number of "possible" (consistent) states, in contrast with the first type of model checking, where the complexity depends on the number of reachable states [3; 5]. Applications of these two techniques to various case studies have revealed that explicit state methods are less expensive than symbolic model checking for error detection [5]. Our approach is similar to the symbolic model checking in that consistency checking is also needed. However, as explained in Section 4, this checking can be efficiently done, as it only applies to abduced *HoldsAt* literals and system invariants, and both these two types of expressions are grounded with respect to the current state. SMV model checking has also been used to analysis requirements specifications expressed in RSML (Requirements State Machine Language) [2; 12]. In this approach state explosion problems are addressed by performing the consistency analysis directly on the model of the specifications. Decomposition and function composition rules are adopted to guarantee the scalability of the approach to large system specifications [12].

Future work. The abductive approach described in this paper lays the (theoretical and practical) foundation for the development of a logic-based method with efficient tools support for inconsistencies handling in SCR requirements specifications. However, a number of specific technical and general issues are still open to further investigation.

In this paper the approach has been applied to single mode transition tables and system invariants. However full SCR specifications also include event tables and condition tables. The approach could also be extended to facilitate reasoning about full SCR specifications. Event tables could be translated into *Initiates* and *Terminates* rules, where modes are expressed by *HoldsAt* literals, events by *Happens* literals and the controlled variables or terms defined by the table are expressed using *Initiates* or *Terminates* literals. Condition tables would instead be formalised as additional constraints of the Event Calculus specification by using *HoldsAt* formulae. In a very similar way environmental constraints could also be included in the Event Calculus specification as *HoldsAt* constraints. For such extensions, abduced *HoldsAt* literals would have also to be checked for consistency with respect to these additional constraints. A second extension of the approach would be to consider SCR specifications with non-Boolean variables. The approach described in this paper facilitates the representation of SCR specifications with non-Boolean variables only when such variables can be re-expressed in terms of auxiliary Boolean conditions. The approach needs to be extended in order to handle specifications that do need to explicitly refer to the non–Boolean values of their variables.

A third line of future investigation is to allow for non-determinism. Although the Event Calculus makes it straightforward to model non-deterministic, systems, in the present paper we have considered only deterministic systems. This is also the case for other existing model checking approaches [4; 5]. In our approach both the abductive reasoning principles and the tool will need to be appropriately adapted in order to reason about non-deterministic event transitions.

A more general issue for future work is the development of (i) automated procedures for translating SCR tables into Event Calculus specifications and (ii) user-friendly interfaces for the abductive tool. Both these issues are feasible, in particular because of the systematic way of generating Event Calculus rules from SCR tables described in Section 4.

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