StaticHS: A Variant of Reiter’s Hitting Set Tree for Efficient Sequential Diagnosis

Patrick Rodler,1* Manuel Herold2
1 Alpen-Adria Universität Klagenfurt
e-mail: patrick.rodler@aau.at
2 Alpen-Adria Universität Klagenfurt
e-mail: m1herold@edu.aau.at

Abstract
Sequential Diagnosis methods aim at suggesting a minimal-cost sequence of measurements to identify the root cause of a system failure among the possible fault explanations, called diagnoses. Hitting set algorithms are often used by such methods to precompute a set of diagnoses serving as a decision basis for iterative measurement selection.

We show that there are two natural interpretations of the sequential diagnosis problem and argue that (1) existing methods consider only the more general definition of the problem and that (2) tackling the more specific problem might suffice under assumptions commonly met in practice.

Thus, we present StaticHS, a novel variant of Reiter’s hitting set tree usable for solving both formulations of the sequential diagnosis problem. Like Reiter’s algorithm, StaticHS is logic- and reasoner-independent and thus generally applicable to various (diagnosis) domains. Theoretical and empirical analyses show the significant superiority of StaticHS to an application of Reiter’s tree in terms of measurement costs when solving both types of sequential diagnosis problems.

1 Introduction
Sequential Diagnosis. When systems such as software, hardware, physical devices or knowledge bases do not exhibit required or desired properties, one important and often time-consuming task towards their repair is the localization of the actual fault. Concretely, the goal is to identify a diagnosis, i.e. a set of system components, e.g. lines of code in a program, whose faultiness provides an explanation for the wrong system behavior. Since there are usually multiple, in the worst case exponentially many, diagnoses for the initially present observations of the system behavior, various sequential diagnosis techniques have been proposed for diagnoses discrimination. The latter try to suggest a minimal-length or least-cost sequence of system measurements that help to narrow down the diagnoses space to a single or a highly probable diagnosis. To make a well-informed decision for each selection of the next measurement, sequential diagnosis algorithms are usually realized in an iterative fashion. This implies an update of the algorithm’s internal state whenever a new measurement outcome becomes known. More precisely, before each measurement selection, such sequential approaches update the set of (known) diagnoses, called leading diagnoses, and possibly other relevant information such as their probabilities. These diagnoses then act as a decision guidance in the selection process. Note, as the computation cost of all diagnoses is generally prohibitive (Bylander et al. 1991), sequential diagnosis approaches usually (must) restrict their focus to leading diagnoses that are (subsets of the) minimal diagnoses. A minimal diagnosis is an irreducible set of conjectured faulty components consistent with all the available information about the system.

Existing Diagnoses Computation Methods. Leading diagnoses can be computed by various approaches, distinguishable along (at least) three axes. First, there are (direct) algorithms which compute diagnoses in a divide-and-conquer fashion (Shchekotykhin et al. 2014) or by compiling the problem to a target language (Darwiche 2001; Torasso and Torta 2006; Metodi et al. 2014) such as SAT, and (indirect) ones which construct diagnoses as hitting sets of conflicts (Reiter 1987; Greiner, Smith, and Wilkerson 1989). A conflict is a set of system components which cannot all be fault-free given the current system knowledge. Along the second axis we have (glass-box) (Parsia, Sirin, and Kalyanpur 2005) methods that tightly intermesh diagnosis computation and logical reasoning for higher efficiency, e.g. by leveraging modifications of the solver (Kalyanpur 2006) or intelligent caching techniques (de Kleer 1986; de Kleer and Williams 1987), and (black-box) approaches that are independent of particular theorem provers and can use them in a simple plug-in fashion (Reiter 1987; Rodler 2015). Lastly, (stateful) algorithms maintain their state, e.g. a (partial) search tree, for reuse in subsequent iterations (de Kleer and Williams 1987; Siddiqi and Huang 2011; Rodler 2015), while (stateless) ones act up to a discard-and-rebuild principle (Shchekotykhin et al. 2012; 2014).

Views on the Sequential Diagnosis Problem. Regardless of their properties in terms of the said features, a commonality of existing algorithms is the sequential diagnosis problem they address. Based on the nomenclature of (Rodler 2015, Chap. 6) we term the latter Dynamic Sequential Diagnosis (DynSD) problem: Given an input diagnosis problem instance (DPI) – consisting of knowledge about the system, its components, and the so-far made observations and measurements...
(Reiter 1987) – the goal is to extend this DPI by a set of new measurements in a way that is a single minimal diagnosis for the resulting new DPI. (The optimization version would call for a minimal-cost set of measurements to solve DynSD.) As a matter of fact, this means that the DPI is constantly changing throughout the sequential process, each time a new measurement is incorporated; and, more importantly, the same holds for the solution space of minimal diagnoses considered in each iteration. That is, in the first iteration a set of leading minimal diagnoses is computed wrt. the input DPI $dpi_0$, in the second wrt. $dpi_1$ resulting from the addition of a new measurement $m_1$ to $dpi_0$, and so forth. If properly chosen, each measurement will rule out some diagnosis. However, the solution space of minimal diagnoses for each next DPI $dpi_{j+1}$, denoted by $\text{sol}(dpi_{j+1})$, will in general not be a subset of $\text{sol}(dpi_j)$. Fig. 1 sketches the evolution of $\text{sol}(dpi_j)$. In fact, each minimal diagnosis in $\text{sol}(dpi_{j+1})$ is either equal to or a proper superset of some minimal diagnosis in $\text{sol}(dpi_j)$ (Reiter 1987). In other words, any “new” minimal diagnosis emerging throughout the sequential diagnosis process assumes faulty strictly more components than some initial minimal diagnosis.

In many real-world applications, e.g. physical devices, however, components are usually much more likely to be nominal than at fault (at a certain point in time). Thus, there is a high chance of the actual diagnosis $D^*$ (pinpointing the actually faulty components) being among the minimal diagnoses for the input DPI $dpi_0$. For such systems, one would only want to explore the initial solution space $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$, and neglect all “new” solutions arising after DPI transition(s). To this end, we suggest to solve the, as we call it in accord with (Rodler 2015, Chap. 6), Static Sequential Diagnosis (StatSD) problem in such a situation: Given an input DPI, the goal is to find a set of new measurements such that all but one minimal diagnosis for the input DPI is ruled out by the measurements. (Again, the optimization version requires a minimal cost set of measurements.) Note the difference between the DynSD and the StatSD problem. In the latter the performed measurements $m_i$ serve just as constraints to iteratively narrow the solution space $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$ for the input DPI, i.e. $\text{sol}(dpi_0) \supseteq \text{sol}(dpi_0 + \{m_1\}) \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \text{sol}(dpi_0 + \{m_1, \ldots, m_k\}) = D^*$, as illustrated by Fig. 1. In the former, in contrast, the measurements aim at formulating a new DPI to be solved in each iteration.

**Example 1** We illustrate the difference between StatSD and DynSD by an execution of a sequential diagnosis session for both problems using a simple example. The single steps of these sessions are shown by Tab. 1. The example involves a DPI $dpi_0$, including a system with five components $c_1, \ldots, c_5$ which gives rise to two set-minimal conflicts, $\langle c_1, c_4, c_5 \rangle$ and $\langle c_2, c_3, c_5 \rangle$. The resulting solution space of minimal diagnoses (minimal hitting sets (Reiter 1987) of the conflicts) $\text{sol}(dpi_0) = \{D_1, \ldots, D_5\} = \{\{c_1, c_2\}, \{c_1, c_3\}, \{c_2, c_4\}, \{c_3, c_4\}, \{c_5\}\} =: D$ (cf. iteration 0 in Tab. 1). Suppose the faulty components are $c_2$ and $c_4$ (and all others are OK), i.e. the actual diagnosis $D^* = \{c_2, c_4\} = D_3$. Let us, for simplicity, assume a measurement selection algorithm that suggests tests of system components $c_i$ in order to discriminate between the given diagnoses. Let the measurement selection strategy favor tests such that for each test outcome, i.e. nominal (ok($c_i$)) or faulty (nok($c_i$)), (approximately) half of the diagnoses can be ruled out. Thence, the first proposed test could involve, e.g., the inspection of component $c_4$, as a positive outcome would eliminate two and a negative outcome three solutions (see third and fourth column for iteration 1 in Tab. 1). Measuring $c_4$ would then evince that it is not working properly, leading to the recognition that $\{c_4\}$ is a conflict. For $dpi_0$’s minimal diagnoses this means that $D_1$, $D_2$ and $D_5$ are eliminated through the new constraint nok($c_4$) (StatSD). However, there is also a “new” minimal diagnosis $\{c_1, c_5\}$ for $dpi_1$, the DPI resulting from the extension of the measurements set of $dpi_0$ by nok($c_4$) (DynSD). Overall, the StatSD problem is solved by two measurements, whereas the DynSD problem requires three. In both cases the actual diagnosis $D_3$ is finally revealed.

**StaticHS.** In this work we propose StaticHS, a hitting set tree search method inspired by (Reiter 1987) that solves the StatSD problem in a sound and complete manner. It is **indirect** in order to enable a uniform-cost (min.-cardinality or most-probable first) search for minimal diagnoses, **black-box** in order to keep it as general as possible and applicable to a large variety of systems, system modeling languages and respective inference engines, **stateful** for better efficiency by avoiding redundant computations through the storage of the so-far built hitting set tree between each two diagnoses computation phases.

**Efficiency and Generality.** Given that the actual diagnosis $D^* \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$, one decisive advantage of considering the static problem rather than the dynamic one is the lower expected number of measurements, and hence the lower cost, necessary to capture $D^*$. In fact, we will prove that, for any sequence of measurements that solves DynSD, there is a shorter or equally long sequence of measurements which solves StatSD. If, on the contrary, $D^* \notin \text{sol}(dpi_0)$, one can nevertheless focus on StatSD to compute an approximation of the actual diagnosis without loss of generality. That is,
after solving the StatSD problem using $k$ measurements with the final result $D'$, one can continue the sequential diagnosis session until a solution for DynSD is found. To this end, the targeted DPI $dpi_0$ can be simply replaced by (the current) $dpi_k$. This means now addressing the StatSD problem with the changed solution space $sol(dpi_k)$, with the guarantee that the actual diagnosis $D^*$ is still (a superset of) an element of this solution space.Indeed, multiple StatSD problems can be solved in sequence while preserving completeness wrt. $D^*$. It is at that immaterial when the DPI-context switches take place. Actually, it might sometimes make sense to start over considering a new DPI before StatSD for the currently targeted DPI has been solved, e.g., if some search data structure would otherwise consume too much memory.

### Example 2
Returning to Example 1 (cf. Tab. 1), one could, after iteration 2, when StatSD is already solved (with final diagnosis $D_3 = \{c_2, c_4\}$), switch to the current DPI $dpi_2$ (i.e. the DPI resulting from the original $dpi_0$ by adding measurements $nok(c_4)$, $ok(c_3)$) and start solving StatSD using $dpi_2$ as an input. The result would be the recognition that there is only a single minimal diagnosis ($D_3$) for $dpi_2$. This proves that $D_3$ is the final diagnosis for DynSD as well.

Note, even if, e.g., the actual diagnosis $D^* = \{c_4, c_5\}$ (which is not a minimal diagnosis for $dpi_0$), it would be correctly identified in the same manner. The number of measurements (3) for solving StatSD and DynSD would in this case be equal, i.e. $nok(c_4)$, $ok(c_3)$ and $nok(c_5)$.

### Parameterized StaticHS
To account for such DPI changes, StaticHS can be parameterized by some strategy $s$ that governs when DPI-context switches must take place, with $s$ potentially depending on dynamic (performance) conditions such as memory consumption or diagnoses computation time. On the one extreme, when $s$ tells to switch DPIs in each iteration, then StaticHS behaves like an iterative (re)construction and deletion of Reiter’s HS-Tree between each two consecutive measurements and DynSD is solved. On the other extreme, when $s$ dictates no DPI transitions at all, then StaticHS resembles an iterative construction of Reiter’s HS-Tree for the input DPI and StatSD is considered. An optimal parametrization would allow to benefit from the benefits of both extremes, the lower expected measurement cost associated with StatSD and the completeness (wrt. solution diagnoses not in $sol(dpi_0)$) when tackling DynSD. Thus, equipped with such parameter $s$, StaticHS represents a generalization of the application of Reiter’s HS-Tree to sequential diagnosis, serving to solve both StatSD and DynSD.

### Organization
Sec. 2 provides technical basics. Sec. 3 describes and exemplifies StaticHS. In Sec. 4 we discuss and prove various properties of StaticHS including its soundness, completeness, generality and its expected cost savings over algorithms tackling DynSD, followed by a report on empirical evaluation results in Sec. 5. We conclude in Sec. 6.

### 2 Preliminaries
We briefly describe basic technical concepts used in this work, based on the framework of (Schekotykin et al. 2012; Rodler 2015) which is slightly more general (Rodler and Schekotihin 2018) than Reiter’s theory (Reiter 1987).

### Diagnosis Problem Instance (DPI)
A diagnosis problem is characterized by a system description and measurements:

- **System Description:** We assume that the diagnosed system, consisting of a set of components $\{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}$, is described by a finite set of logical sentences $K \cup B$, where $K$ (retractable knowledge) characterizes the behavior of the system components, and $B$ (correct background knowledge) comprises any additional available system knowledge and system observations. More precisely, there is a one-to-one relationship between sentences $ax_i \in K$ and components $c_i$, where $ax_i$ describes the nominal behavior of $c_i$ (weak fault model). E.g., if $c_i$ is an AND-gate in a circuit, then $ax_i := out(c_i) = and(in1(c_i), in2(c_i))$; $B$ in this example might encompass sentences stating, e.g., which components are connected by wires, or observed outputs of the circuit. The inclusion of a sentence $ax_i$ in $K$ corresponds to the assumption that $c_i$ is healthy.

- **Measurements:** Evidence about the system behavior is captured by sets of positive ($P$) and negative ($N$) measurements (Reiter 1987; de Kleer and Williams 1987; Felfernig et al. 2004). Each measurement is a logical sentence; positive ones $p \in P$ must be true and negative ones $n \in N$ must not be true. The former can be, e.g., system observations, probes or required system properties. The latter model properties that must not hold for the system.

We call $(K, B, P, N)$ a diagnosis problem instance (DPI).

### Diagnoses
Given that the system description along with the positive measurements (under the assumption $K$ that all components are healthy) is inconsistent, i.e. $K \cup B \cup P \models \bot$, or some negative measurement is entailed, i.e. $K \cup B \cup P \models n$ for some $n \in N$, some component healthiness assumption(s), i.e. some sentences in $K$, must be retracted. We call such a set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>iteration $i$</th>
<th>measurement location $c_j$</th>
<th>$D^*(ok(c_j))$</th>
<th>$D^*(nok(c_j))$</th>
<th>all measurements $M_i$</th>
<th>$C(dpi_1)$</th>
<th>$sol(dpi_1)$</th>
<th>$sol(dpi_0 + M_i)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$c_4$</td>
<td>[2, 4], [3, 4]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(4, 2, 5)</td>
<td>[2, 4], [3, 4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$c_3$</td>
<td>[3, 4]</td>
<td>[2, 4], [4, 5]</td>
<td></td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(4, 2, 5)</td>
<td>[2, 4], [4, 5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$c_5$</td>
<td>[4, 5]</td>
<td>[2, 4]</td>
<td></td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>[2, 4] $\Rightarrow \checkmark$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Sequential diagnosis session for Example 1. Diagnoses are written in squared brackets, conflicts in angled brackets, numbers $k$ in diagnoses/conflicts stand for components $c_k$. $D^*(m)$ refers to the minimal diagnoses eliminated by the measurement $m$. $C(dpi)$ denotes the set-minimal conflicts for $dpi$, $\checkmark$ indicates the end of the diagnosis session (= solution for DynSD (column 7) and StatSD (column 8) found, respectively).
of sentences $D \subseteq K$ a diagnosis for the DPI $\langle K, B, P, N \rangle$ iff $(K \setminus D) \cup B \cup P \models x$ for all $x \in N \cup \{\bot\}$. We say that $D$ is a minimal diagnosis for $dpi$ iff there is no diagnosis $D' \subseteq D$ for $dpi$. The set of minimal diagnoses is representative of all diagnoses (under the weak fault model (de Kleer, Mackworth, and Reiter 1992)), i.e. any superset of a minimal diagnosis is a diagnosis. Therefore, diagnosis approaches usually restrict their focus to only minimal diagnoses. The set of all minimal diagnoses for a DPI $dpi$ is denoted by $\text{sol}(dpi)$; and the set of all minimal diagnoses in $\text{sol}(dpi)$ consistent with all positive ($P^+$) and negative ($N^-$) measurements is referred to as $\text{sol}(dpi + P^+ + N^-)$.

**Conflicts.** Useful for the computation of minimal diagnoses is the concept of a conflict (de Kleer and Williams 1987; Reiter 1987), a set of healthiness assumptions for components $c_j$ that cannot all hold given the current knowledge. That is, $C \subseteq K$ is a conflict for $\langle K, B, P, N \rangle$ iff $C \cup B \cup P \models x$ for some $x \in N \cup \{\bot\}$. We call a minimal conflict for $dpi$ if there is no conflict $C' \subset C$ for $dpi$. A (minimal) diagnosis for $dpi$ is then a (minimal) hitting set of all conflicts for $dpi$ (Reiter 1987). $X$ is a hitting set of a collection of sets $S$ iff $X \subseteq \bigcup_{S \in S} S_1$, and $X \cap S_i \neq \emptyset$ for all $S_i \in S$.

**Sequential Diagnosis Problems.** We now define the problems discussed in Sec. 1 in a more formal fashion:

**Problem 1 ((Opt)DynSD).** Given: A DPI $\langle K, B, P, N \rangle$.

Find: A (minimal-cost) set of measurements $P' \cup N'$ such that $|\text{sol}(\langle K, B, P \cup P', N \cup N' \rangle)| = 1$.

**Problem 2 ((Opt)StatSD).** Given: A DPI $\langle K, B, P, N \rangle$.

Find: A (minimal-cost) set of measurements $P' \cup N'$ such that $|\text{sol}(\langle K, B, P \cup P', N \cup N' \rangle)| = 1$.

A minimal-cost set of measurements $P' \cup N'$ minimizes $\sum_{m \in P' \cup N'} \text{cost}(m)$. In this paper we assume $\text{cost}(m) = 1$ for all measurements $m$, i.e. $|P' \cup N'|$ should be minimized.

Meaningful measurement selection must, as a least requirement, suggest discriminating measurements, i.e. at least two diagnoses must predict different outcomes. To guarantee this property and verify it in advance, a sample of (minimal) diagnoses, the leading diagnoses, is usually taken as a basis (de Kleer and Williams 1987; Feldman, Provan, and van Gemund 2010; Shchekotykhin et al. 2012; Rodler 2015). In fact, it has been proven in (Rodler 2015) that, for each set of minimal diagnoses including two or more elements, there is a measurement to discriminate between the diagnoses in the set. This implies both the existence of a set of measurements to solve StatSD and DynSD.

One efficient sequential diagnosis method that guarantees to deliver a solution for both problems was presented in (Rodler, Schmid, and Schekotihin 2018). Moreover, attempting to approach a solution to the optimization problems OptStatSD and OptDynSD, the leading diagnoses can be leveraged to compute more sophisticated quality properties of measurements, such as their information gain (de Kleer and Williams 1987), their ability to equally separate solutions (Moret 1982; Shchekotykhin et al. 2012), a dynamic combination thereof (Rodler et al. 2013), or their goodness wrt. active learning criteria (Rodler 2018). All these metrics are heuristics and rely on a one-step lookahead (de Kleer, Raiman, and Shirley 1992) due to the fact that OptStatSD and OptDynSD are NP-hard (Hyafil and Rivest 1976).

Orthogonal to the mentioned heuristics that try to optimize measurements for best diagnoses discrimination, the StaticHS algorithm we propose addresses the optimization problems from the perspective of diagnoses computation. Notably, StaticHS is completely compatible and able to synergize with any measurement selection or optimization method (that acts on the basis of minimal diagnoses).

### 3 StaticHS

StaticHS is a procedure that computes a set of minimal diagnoses for an (initial) DPI $dpi_0 = \langle K, B, P, N \rangle$ in lowest-cost-first order such that each returned diagnosis is consistent with the sets of (positive and negative) measurements ($P'$ and $N'$) gathered throughout the sequential diagnosis session so far. Besides $dpi_0$ and $P'$ and $N'$, StaticHS accepts further arguments: (1) a probability measure $p$ (de Kleer and Williams 1987), which is exploited to compute diagnoses in descending order based on their probabilities, (2) a stipulated number $ld \geq 2$ of diagnoses to compute, and (3) a variable $D$ and a tuple of variables state, altogether describing StaticHS’s current state.

Alg. 1 sketches a generic sequential diagnosis algorithm and shows how it accommodates the StaticHS procedure (line 4) as an iterative method for diagnoses computation. The algorithm reiterates a while-loop (line 3) until the solution space of minimal diagnoses includes only a single element (line 5). Since StaticHS is complete (see later) and always attempts to compute at least two diagnoses ($ld \geq 2$), this is the case exactly if StaticHS outputs a diagnoses set $D$ where $|D| = 1$. On the other hand, as long as $|D| > 1$, a next measurement is performed to rule out further elements in $D$ (line 6). As mentioned in Sec. 2, the computation of a good next measurement point might depend (besides $dpi$, $D$, and acquired measurements $P', N'$) on the given probabilistic information $p$ and some selection heuristic heuristic. Then the new measurement $m$ is added to $P'$ if it constitutes a positive measurement, and to $N'$ otherwise (line 7). Finally, $m$ is used to update the state $\langle D, state \rangle$ of StaticHS (line 8), which essentially involves a relabeling of diagnoses invalidated by $m$ in StaticHS’s search tree (see later).

**StaticHS – Idea.** When designing StaticHS, the goal was to modify Reiter’s HS-Tree (Reiter 1987) in a way it can be used in an algorithm like Alg. 1 to solve StatSD (Probl. 2). While doing so, the generality (logics- and reasoner-independence)
as well as the feature to calculate diagnoses in most-preferred-first order should be maintained. Since StatSD calls for a restriction to the initial diagnoses search space, sol(dpi₀), a first observation is that dpi₀ will be the relevant DPI throughout all calls of StaticHS in Alg. 1. So, if the search tree is deleted after each call of StaticHS, significant portions of this tree will need to be redundantly reconstructed in the next run. Hence, in contrast to targeting the DynSD problem, where it is well justified to choose a stateless algorithm due to a constantly changing solution space sol(dpi₀), sol(dpi₁),..., for StatSD a stateful algorithm appears to be the natural and better choice.

3.1 Description of StaticHS

We next describe the StaticHS algorithm, given by Alg. 2. It inherits most of its aspects from Reiter’s HS-Tree. Hence, we first recapitulate HS-Tree and then focus on the differences to and idiosyncrasies of StaticHS.

**Reiter’s HS-Tree – The Basis.** We briefly repeat the functioning of Reiter’s HS-Tree, which computes minimal diagnoses for a (current) DPI dpi = (K, B, P ∪ P’, N ∪ N’) including acquired measurements P’, N’ (in a sound and complete way).

Starting from a priority queue of unlabeled nodes Q, initially comprising only an unlabeled root node, the algorithm continues to remove and label the first ranked node from Q (GETANDDELETEFIRST) until all nodes are labeled or some other stop criterion applies. The possible node labels are minimal conflicts (for internal tree nodes) and valid as well as closed (for leaf nodes). All minimal conflicts used as node labels are stored in the set Ccalc. Each edge in the constructed tree has a label. For ease of notation, the set of edge labels along the branch from the root node of the tree to a node nd is associated with nd, i.e., nd stores this set of labels. E.g., the node at location ⑤ in iteration 2 of Fig. 2 is referred to as ⑤. Once the tree has been completed (Q = []), i.e., all nodes are labeled, the minimal diagnoses for dpi are given exactly by {nd | nd is labeled by valid}

To label a node nd, the algorithm calls a labeling function which executes the following tests in the given order and returns as soon as a label for nd has been determined:

1. *(non-minimality): Check if nd is non-minimal (i.e., whether there is a node n with label valid where nd ⊇ n). If so, nd is labeled by closed.
2. *(duplicate): Check if nd is duplicate (i.e. whether nd = n for some other n in Q). If so, nd is labeled by closed.
3. *(reuse label): scans Ccalc for some C such that nd ∩ C = ∅. If so, nd is labeled by C.
4. *(compute label): invokes getMINCONFLICT, a (sound and complete) minimal conflicts searcher (MCS), e.g., QuickXPlain (Junker 2004), to get a minimal conflict for (K \ nd, B, P ∪ P’, N ∪ N’). If MCS outputs a minimal conflict C, nd is labeled by C. Otherwise, if MCS returns ‘no conflict’, then nd is labeled by valid.  

All nodes labeled by closed or valid have no successors and are leaf nodes. For each node nd labeled by a minimal conflict C = {e₁, ... , eₖ}, k outgoing edges are constructed, where the i-th edge is labeled by ei and pointing to a newly created unlabeled node nd ∪ {ei}. Each new node is added to Q such that Q’s sorting is preserved (INSERTSORTED). Q might be either (i) a FIFO queue, entailling that HS-Tree computes diagnoses in minimum-cardinality-first order (breath-first search), or (ii) sorted in descending order by p, where most probable diagnoses are generated first (uniform-cost search; for details see (Rodler 2015, Sec. 4.6)).

**StaticHS – Changes to Reiter’s HS-Tree.** The changes implemented by StaticHS compared to HS-Tree are:

1. The usage of the initial DPI dpi₀ (instead of the current one) in the labeling function SLABEL. That is, minimal conflicts are only computed wrt. dpi₀ (line 29), as only diagnoses wrt. dpi₀ are of interest.
2. There are three different sets storing minimal diagnoses wrt. dpi₀, i.e., Dcalc, D ∈ and Dₓ. The first comprises diag-

### Algorithm 2 StaticHS

**Input:** tuple (dpi₀, P’, P”, N, ld, Dₓ, state) comprising
- a DPI dpi₀ = (K, B, P, N)
- the acquired sets of positive (P”) and negative (N”) measurements so far
- a function p assigning a fault probability to each element in K
- the number of leading minimal diagnoses to be computed
- the set Dₓ of all minimal diagnoses wrt. dpi₀ computed so far that are consistent with all measurements P” and N”
- state = (Q, Ccalc, Dₓ) where
  - the current queue Q of unlabeled nodes
  - the set Ccalc of all minimal conflict sets wrt. dpi₀ computed so far
  - the set Dₓ of all minimal diagnoses wrt. dpi₀ computed so far that are inconsistent with some measurements(p) in P” at N”

**Output:** tuple (D, state) where
- D is the set of most probable (as per p) minimal diagnoses wrt. dpi₀ that are consistent with all measurements P” and N”
- state is as described above

```plaintext
1: procedure STATICHS(dpi₀, P’, P”, N, ld, Dₓ, state) comprising
2: Dcalc ← ∅
3: dpiₐ ← (K, B, P ∪ P”, N ∪ N”)  current DPI
4: while Q ≠ [] ∩ (Dcalc ∪ Dₓ) ≠ ∅ ∩ (K, B, P ∪ P”, N ∪ N”) do
5: nd ← GETANDDELETEFIRST(Q)
6: Dₓ ← Dₓ ∪ {nd}
7: (L, C) ← SLABEL(dpi₀, nd, Ccalc, D(x, x calc), Q)
8: Ccalc ← C
9: if L = valid then
10: if diagnose(dpi₀, nd) then  ⊨ nd is min diagnosis wrt. dpi₀
11: Dₓ ← Dₓ ∪ {nd}  ⊨ nd satisfies P” and N”
12: else
13: Dₓ ← Dₓ ∪ {nd}  ⊨ nd violates P” or N”
14: else if L = closed then  ⊨ nd: no need to store non-min diagnoses
15: else
16: for e ∈ Dₓ do
17: Q ← INSERTSORTED(nd ∪ {e}, Q, p)
18: return (Dcalc, Dₓ, Q, Ccalc)
19: procedure SLABEL(K, B, P, N, Q, Ccalc, D(x, x calc), Q)
20: for nd ∈ D(x, x calc) do
21: if nd ⊆ n then  ⊨ nd is a non-min diagnosis
22: return (closed, Ccalc)
23: for nd ∈ Q do
24: if nd = n then  ⊨ nd is a duplicate node
25: return (closed, Ccalc)
26: for nd ∈ Ccalc do
27: if C ∩ nd = ∅ then  ⊨ reuse min conflict set C to label nd
28: return (C, Ccalc)
29: L ← getMINCONFLICT(K \ nd, B, P, N)  ⊨ uses initial DPI dpi₀
30: if L = ‘no conflict’ then  ⊨ L is a diagnosis
31: return (valid, Ccalc)
32: else
33: Ccalc ← Ccalc ∪ {L}  ⊨ L is a new min conflict (⊥ Ccalc)
34: return (L, Ccalc)
```

1 Unlike Reiter, we assume that only minimal conflicts are used as node labels. Thus, the issue pointed out by (Greiner, Smith, and Wilkerson 1989) does not arise.
noses newly calculated in the current StaticHS-iteration, whereas the latter two contain diagnoses known from previous StaticHS-iterations. Moreover, the first two sets include diagnoses consistent with $P'$, $N'$, while the last one comprises those not consistent with $P'$, $N'$. The union $D_{(x,\mathcal{c},\mathcal{c}_{alc})}$ of these sets (i.e. all so-far computed minimal diagnoses w.r.t. $dpi_0$) is used in the non-minimality criterion (lines 20-22). Because a node that is a superset of some element in $D_{(x,\mathcal{c},\mathcal{c}_{alc})}$ cannot be a (new) minimal diagnosis w.r.t. $dpi_0$.

(3) A node assigned the label valid by SLABEL is checked for consistency with $P'$, $N'$ (function $\text{ISDIAGNOSIS}$, lines 9-13). This is necessary since valid just means $n$ is a minimal diagnosis for $dpi_0$, but it might be one that contradicts some element in $P'$ or $N'$ since SLABEL relies on $dpi_0$.

**StaticHS – Maintaining and Updating State.** In order to restore the current state of StaticHS’s so-far built hitting set tree at some later point, after a new measurement $m$ has been performed, the relevant values are stored in the tuple $(D_{calc} \cup D_x,(Q,C_{calc},D_x))$ and returned by each call of StaticHS (line 18). While $Q$ and $C_{calc}$ remain constant outside of StaticHS, $D_{calc} \cup D_x$ and $D_x$ are adapted by the UPDATESTATE function in Alg. 1. This involves all diagnoses inconsistent with $m$ being transferred from the former to the latter set. The updated tuple of variables is then passed to StaticHS as an argument at its next call.

**StaticHS – Stop Condition and DPI Transition.** In the basic implementation shown by Alg. 2, StaticHS stops if the queue $Q$ is empty, i.e. the complete hitting set tree for $dpi_0$ has been constructed, or if the desired ld minimal diagnoses have been found. Note, one could also incorporate more sophisticated termination criteria such as a time threshold $t$ (Rodler 2015) which forces StaticHS to stop once at least some minimum specified number (e.g. 2) of diagnoses are known and $t$ has been exceeded. Moreover, Alg.s 1 and 2 are able to accept a parameter $s$ that rules when StaticHS should change its considered DPI $dpi_0$ to the current one. This decision might depend on performance metrics, e.g. reaching some maximum allowed memory or time consumption, or on the sequential diagnosis problem to be solved. In fact, the definition of this parameter $s$ determines whether StatSD (Probl. 2) or DynSD (Probl. 1) is solved. For simplicity and conciseness of the pseudocode, the integration and handling of $s$ is not shown in the presented algorithms.

### 3.2 Exemplification of StaticHS

We now illustrate the workings of StaticHS and contrast it with a construct-and-discard usage of HS-Tree (cdHS for short). Specifically, cdHS, after each addition of a new measurement to the DPI, builds Reiter’s HS-Tree from scratch to compute a new set of leading diagnoses for the new DPI.

**Example 3** Consider $dpi_0 = (K,B,P,N)$ in Tab. 2. Fig. 2 and Fig 3 each showcase the evolution of the hitting set tree(s) throughout a sequential diagnosis session for the input DPI $dpi_0$, the former for StaticHS and the latter for cdHS. Both searches are used in breadth-first mode with a required leading diagnoses number of $ld := 2$ per iteration. Pursued policy for measurement selection is a simple splitting strategy seeking to eliminate half of the diagnoses each time (cf. Example 1); and, given the same leading diagnoses $D$, the same measurement is suggested for both algorithms. We assume the actual diagnosis $D^* := \{ax_5,ax_7\}$.

Looking at the figures, we recognize that both methods build exactly the same tree in iteration 1 (since both start from scratch and consider $dpi_0$). The returned leading diagnoses – in this iteration $\{D_1,D_2\}$ (see tree nodes labeled by $✓$) – state of StaticHS along with the subsequently performed measurement $m_1$, and its effect on the variables is shown in Tab. 3. Measurements for cdHS are stated in Fig. 3 below the respective tree. After iteration 1, the incoming new information is the negative measurement $m_1 = E \rightarrow \neg A$ (same for both). Whereas cdHS now starts to build a new HS-Tree for $dpi_1 = (K,B,P,N \cup \{m_1\})$, StaticHS resorts to the existing partial tree and extends it, sticking further on to the original DPI $dpi_0$ and using $m_1$ as a constraint on diagnoses. The effect is the invalidation of $D_1$ through UPDATESTATE in Alg. 1 (indicated by a $\times$ towards the new label $\times$ of $D_1$, now element of $D_x$).

A circled number $\odot$ in the trees denotes the $i$-th node labeling during the (entire) sequential session. E.g., the 7th node labeling for StaticHS is the closing of node $nd = \{5,1\}$ as it is a superset of the (by now invalidated) minimal diagnosis $D_1 = \{1\}$ for $dpi_0$ (signified by the label $\times_{(D_1)}$). Calls of $\text{GETMINCONFLICT}$ (cf. Alg. 2, line 29) – involving a reasoner – that compute a minimal conflict (more costly) are denoted by a superscript $C$ besides the particular conflict; and those resulting in ‘no conflict’ as well as calls to $\text{ISDIAGNOSIS}$ in line 10 (less costly by $\odot ✓_{(D_1)}$ or $\odot ×_{(D_1)}$ for some $i,j$. Note the difference between cdHS and StaticHS in iteration 2. While the former computes minimal conflicts w.r.t. $dpi_1$, e.g. the root label $(2,5)$, the latter still uses $(1,2,5)$ which is minimal for $dpi_0$, but non-minimal for $dpi_1$. That is, cdHS uses reasoner calls to recompute (possibly reduced versions of) conflicts known from the previous iteration. Notable is also that $\{5,1\}$ is a minimal diagnosis for $dpi_1$, i.e. both algorithms return different diagnoses $D$ in iteration 2 (different addressed search spaces!), leading to different measurements $m_2$ for cdHS and StaticHS.

Overall, the former and latter require 9 vs. 2 more costly reasoner invocations, 9 vs. 7 less costly ones, a maximal memory usage of 6 vs. 7 nodes, and 4 vs. 2 measurements to figure out $D^*$, respectively. We emphasize that using cdHS involves double the amount of user interaction, and in fact a strict superset of the measurements StaticHS requires, as $\{m_1,m_2\}$ for StaticHS equals $\{m_1,m_3\}$ for cdHS.
Table 3: Values of $D$ and state-variables of StaticHS and performed measurements during diagnosis session for DPI in Tab. 2. For diagnoses and conflicts, we use the same notation as in Tab. 1. Numbers $j$ in diagnoses and conflicts stand for $ax_j \in K$.

4 Properties of StaticHS

Essential properties of StaticHS (combined with Alg. 1) are:

**Theorem 1.** Let $dpi_0$ be the DPI given as input to Alg. 1 and $D^*$ the actual diagnosis. Statements 3 and 5 below additionally assume that only discriminating measurements (cf. Sec. 2) are taken in line 6 of Alg. 1. Then:

1. StaticHS (interpreted as all calls of it in Alg. 1) is sound and complete wrt. sol($dpi_0$) and finds its elements in best-first order (according to card. or prob.).
2. When StaticHS is called given acquired measurements $P', N'$, then it returns the ld best (min.-card. or most prob.) elements of sol($dpi_0 + P' + N'$) if |sol($dpi_0 + P' + N'$)| $\geq ld$. Else it computes sol($dpi_0 + P' + N'$).
3. Alg. 1 solves StatSD (Probl. 2). I.e., if $D^* \in$ sol($dpi_0$), it outputs $\{D^*\}$.
4. Let $D^* \in$ sol($dpi_0$). If the set of measurements $M$ solves DynSD (Probl. 1), then $M$ solves StatSD and there is a set of measurements $M' \subseteq M$ that solves StatSD (Probl. 2).
5. There is a DPI transition strategy (parameter $s$, see Sec. 1 and 3) such that Alg. 1 and 2 solve DynSD (Probl. 1).

6. For sequential diagnosis, StaticHS is a generalization of construct-and-discard HS-Tree (cdHS) for the DPI in Tab. 2.

**Proof. (Sketch)** For a rigorous proof of the first three statements we refer to (Rodler 2015, Sec. 9.4+11.4) and just outline the basic idea. The principal reasons why (1) holds are the soundness and completeness of Reiter’s HS-Tree, the usage of $dpi_0$ in the sLABEL function for conflict computation (Alg. 2, line 29) and the sorting of $Q$ (Alg. 2, line 17). As to (2), we observe that the input argument $D_v$ to StaticHS comprises, if any, exactly the best $|D_v|$ elements of sol($dpi_0 + P' + N'$), and a node nd (first element of sorted queue $Q$) marked by valid in sLABEL (i.e. nd is an element of sol($dpi_0$)) is added to $D_{calc} \cup D_v$ (returned diag-
noses) only after its consistency with $P'$, $N'$ has been verified (Alg. 2, lines 9-13). (3) is valid since only discriminating measurements are added (always ruling out $\geq 1$ solution), $|\text{sol}(dpi_0)| < \infty$ (because $K$ is finite), and only $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$ is fully explored by (1.). Ad (4). Let \( |M| = k \) and assume $|\text{sol}(dpi_0)| = 1$. Then $\text{sol}(dpi_j) = \{D^*\}$. Generally, it holds that, if $D \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$ and $D$ is consistent with all $m_i \in M$, then $D \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$. By contraposition, if for some $D' \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$ it holds that $D' \notin \text{sol}(dpi_0)$ it must be inconsistent with some $m_i \in M$. But, as $D^* \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$ and $D^*$ is the only element of $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$ in $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$, $M$ and thus also some $M' \subseteq M$ rule out all elements of $\text{sol}(dpi_0) \setminus \{D^*\}$. Hence, $M$, $M'$ are solutions for StatSD. Ad (5.). One such strategy $s$ is to update the DPI after each measurement, thus focusing on $\text{sol}(dpi_j)$ in iteration $j$. Once $|\text{sol}(dpi_j)| = 1$ for some $k \geq 0$ (this must happen for some $k < \infty$ due to adding only discriminating measurements), Alg. 1 returns $\text{sol}(dpi_0) = \{D\}$ (line 5). Thus, StaticHS solves the DynSD problem. Ad (6).: Using $s$ as in (5.), the behavior of StaticHS equals the one of cdHS.

To sum up, StaticHS is sound and complete wrt. each diagnoses solution space encountered when solving StatSD and always delivers diagnoses best-first. Further, for any solution regarding OptStatSD found by a more general diagnoses computation method (that focuses on DynSD), StaticHS can find an equally good or better solution if $D^* \in \text{sol}(dpi_0)$. Besides, any algorithm for DynSD can also solve StatSD. And, DynSD can be solved by solving a sequence of StatSD problems. Finally, StaticHS is a generalization of Reiter’s HS-Tree in the context of sequential diagnosis and is parameterizable to solve both StatSD and DynSD.

5 Evaluation

In the evaluations of StaticHS (SHS) described next we focus on a comparison with cdHS (cf. Sec. 3.2).

Evaluation Settings. The dataset used in the experiments is given in Tab. 4 where the underlying systems are faulty (i.e. inconsistent) real-world knowledge bases (KBs). Each of these KBs $K \in \{U, M, T, E\}$ was used to define an initial input DPI $dpi_0$ (cf. Alg. 1) as $\langle K, \emptyset, \emptyset, \emptyset \rangle$, i.e. the background $B$, positive ($P$) and negative ($N$) measurements were (initially) empty. Tab. 4 also shows the diagnostic structure ($\#$ of components $|K|$, reasoning complexity, $\#$ and min./max. size of minimal diagnoses for $dpi_0$) of the considered problems.

The factors varied in the experiments were (F1) the DPI $dpi_0$, (F2) the $\#$ of leading diagnoses per iteration $ld \in \{6, 10\}$, and (F3) how the actual diagnosis $D^*$ was set (i.e. whether StatSD or DynSD were solved). To simulate StatSD, each $D^*$ was selected from $\text{sol}(dpi_0)$ (without replacement) by using RIVHSTTREE (Shchekotykhin et al. 2014) with a randomly shuffled input. For DynSD, we defined each $D^*$ as the final diagnosis found after solving DynSD given $dpi_0$ using random measurement-outcome). For each $dpi_0$, the fault probability $p(ax)$ for each $ax \in K$ was assigned uniformly at random from (0, 1).

Then, for each of the $4 \times 2 \times 2$ combinations of factor levels of (F1),(F2),(F3) and for each algorithm, SHS and cdHS, we ran 20 sequential diagnosis sessions, each with a different random $D^*$ as per (F3). For measurement selection we applied the method of (Rodler, Schmid, and Schekotihin 2018) and as a heuristic (cf. Alg. 1) we used entropy (de Kleer and Williams 1987).

Note, to make tests fair and both methods equally general, we used for SHS a version (parameter $s$, see Sec. 1 and 3) that solves the DynSD problem, just as cdHS does. Specifically, $s$ effected a switch to the current DPI if only one diagnosis was left and no second diagnosis could be found after exploring 500 new tree nodes. Consequently, the used version of SHS actually solves DynSD by solving multiple StatSD problems in sequence.

Evaluation Results. For each performed diagnosis session we measured (1) the system reaction time (avg. time between two successive measurements / executions of line 6 in Alg. 1) and (2) the $\#$ of measurements required until finding $D^*$ with certainty. Fig. 4 pictures the results for $ld = 10$ (F2); see the $x$-axis for factor levels of (F1),(F3). SHS required lower/same/higher $\#$ of measurements than cdHS in 76/21/3% of all sessions (solid lines and bars). Avg./max. measurement cost savings in % (see bars) achieved by SHS compared to cdHS were 20/65 (all runs), 21/65 (DynSD runs) and 20/65 (StatSD runs). Thus, albeit designed primarily for StatSD, SHS also performs really well for DynSD (using the parameter $s$). As to reaction time, on average, SHS saves 35% over cdHS for the cases $M$, $U$, and cdHS saves 56% over SHS for $T$. However, as the blue solid and dashed lines indicate, whenever SHS exhibits a somewhat higher reaction time (though never $>4s/5s$ for $ld = 6/ld = 10$), this is compensated by very few measurements. In the (not shown) case $ld = 6$ for (F2), the results were pretty alike, with an average/max. of 17/56% (StatSD) and 20/61% (DynSD) fewer measurements than cdHS. The avg. reaction times (of both SHS and cdHS) were slightly lower for $ld = 6$.

Table 4: Dataset used in the experiments.

| University (U) | | | | |
| MiniTambis (M) | | | | |
| Transportation (T) | | | | |
| Economy (E) | | | | |
| | | | | |
| University (U) | | | | |
| MiniTambis (M) | | | | |
| Transportation (T) | | | | |
| Economy (E) | | | | |

| KB | $|K|$ | reasoning complexity | $\#D/min/max$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| University (U) | | | | |
| MiniTambis (M) | | | | |
| Transportation (T) | | | | |
| Economy (E) | | | | |

*The column states the logical expressiveness in terms of (Baader et al. 2007, p. 525ff.) of the logic used in KB $K$, which determines the complexity of reasoning (consistency/entailment checks), see (Baader et al. 2007, Chap. 3+5) Using KBs as test cases does not restrict the generality of the results, as any model-based diagnosis problem (Reiter 1987) can be modeled as an inconsistent KB (Rodler and Schekotihin 2018). Pre-computing sol(dpi_0) and randomly drawing an element from it is intractable. Because, given one minimal diagnosis, even deciding if there is a further one is NP-complete (Bylander et al. 1991). However, as computing a single minimal diagnosis is in P, we can efficiently simulate this random selection as described.
Figure 4: Results for $ld = 10$ (F2). The x-axis indicates which problem (StatSD vs. DynSD) was solved (F3) and the used input DPI $dpi_0$ (F1) referred to by the name of the KB $\mathcal{K} \in \{U, M, T, E\}$ addressed in it (cf. Tab. 4).

6 Conclusions and Future Work

We argue that the sequential diagnosis problem can be interpreted in two natural ways, StatSD and DynSD, and that existing methods focus only on DynSD. Thus, we present StaticHS, a novel diagnoses search that can solve both StatSD and DynSD and is as generally applicable as Reiter’s HS-Tree. Supporting our theoretical results, empirical examinations using real-world problems reveal that StaticHS reduces the required measurement effort substantially (20% on avg.), both when tackling StatSD and DynSD, compared to an (iterative) application of Reiter’s algorithm. These savings are a result of the ability of StaticHS to combine search space reduction (StatSD) and completeness (DynSD).

Notably, these obtained results regarding measurement cost are not specific to the particular (sound and complete best-first) algorithm used for diagnoses computation (Alg. 1, line 4) in the course of solving StatSD or DynSD, respectively. The reason is that any such algorithm, no matter how implemented, will return the same set of diagnoses for one and the same DPI. Instead, the crucial thing is which DPI is considered when and how acquired measurements are incorporated. In particular, our findings show that solving DynSD by solving a (sequence of) StatSD problem(s) can lead to significant savings in terms of overall effort and time$^6$ until the real cause of a failing system is located.

Future work topics include more extensive experiments and the development of intelligent StaticHS adaptation strategies (parameter $s$) for an automatized dynamic performance optimization.

References


$^6$Depending on the diagnosed system, the time for performing a measurement, e.g. in a physical system, might be substantial, e.g. in the order of minutes. In such a case, given system reaction times in the order of seconds as we observed, significant savings in the number of measurements imply significant overall time savings.