Time Evolving Expert Systems Design and Implementation: The KAFKA Approach

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Abstract: Expert Systems design and implementation has been always conceived as a centralized activity, characterized by the relationship between users, domain experts and knowledge engineers. The growing diffusion of sophisticated PDAs and mobile operating systems opens up to new and dynamic application environments and requires to rethink this statement. New frameworks for expert systems design, in particular rule–based systems, should be developed to allow users and domain experts to interact directly, minimizing the role of knowledge engineer and promoting the real–time updating of knowledge bases when needed. This paper present the KAFKA approach to this challenge, based on the implementation of the Knowledge Artifact conceptual model supported by Android OS devices.

1 INTRODUCTION

Traditional knowledge engineering methodologies, like CommonKads (Schreiber et al., 1994) and MIKE (Angele et al., 1998), considered knowledge acquisition and representation as centralized activities, in which the main point was trying to build up facts' and rules' bases where to model tacit knowledge in order to use and maintain it. Indeed, the explosion of Internet and related technologies, like Semantic Web, Ontologies, Linked Data ... has radically changed the point of view on knowledge engineering (and knowledge acquisition in particular), highlighting its intrinsically distributed nature.

Finally, the growing diffusion of more and more sophisticated PDAs, like smartphones and tablets, equipped with higher and higher performing hardware and operating systems allows the distributed implementation on mobile devices of several key components of the knowledge engineering process. A direct consequence of these considerations is the need for knowledge acquisition and representation frameworks that are able to quickly and effectively understand when knowledge should be integrated, minimizing the role of knowledge engineers and allowing the domain experts to manage knowledge bases in a simpler way.

A relevant work in this field has been recently proposed in (Nalepa and Ligeza, 2010): the HeKatE methodology aims at the development of complex rule–based systems focusing on groups of similar rules rather than on single rules. Doing so, efficient inference is assured, since only the rules necessary to reach the goal are fired. Indeed, this characteristic helps the user in understanding how the system works, as well as how to extend it in case of need, minimizing the knowledge engineer role. Anyway, our goal is (partially) different, to build a tool for supporting the user in understanding when the knowledge base should be updated, according to the domain conditions he/she detects on the field. For this reason, we don't aim to build up new inference engines, like in the HeKatE project, but a good framework to use existing tools usable in varying conditions and portable devices.

In this paper, we present *KAFKA* (Knowledge Acquisition Framework based on Knowledge Artifacts), a knowledge engineering framework developed under Android: the most interesting feature of KAFKA is the possibility for the user to design and implement his/her own knowledge–based system without the need for a knowledge engineer. The framework exploits Android as the running OS, since it is the most diffused mobile operating system in the world: the final aim of KAFKA is the execution of expert systems written in Jess. Due to the difficulties in importing Jess under Android, KAFKA has been currently developed as a client–server architecture. The most important characteristic of Jess, from KAFKA point of view, is the possibility to implement facts as

84

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Java objects rather than simple (attribute, value) pairs exploiting the *shadow fact* construct. This point, together with the conceptual model of Knowledge Artifact adopted in designing the expert system makes possible to understand when new rules and observations should be modeled according to the evolution of the underlying domain.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: section 2 briefly introduces the research field, focusing on distributed expert systems and Knowledge Artifacts. Section 3 further explores the Knowledge Artifact concept from the perspective of time evolving expert systems. Section 4 presents the characteristics of problems and domains addressed by KAFKA: in particular, the role of Knowledge Artifact and rules is analysed from both the conceptual and computational point of view, in order to explain how KAFKA allows the user to take care of possible evolutions of the related expert system. In section 5 a case study is presented, illustrating how KAFKA allows the user to interact with the domain expert to complete knowledge bases when new observations are available. Finally, conclusion and further work end the paper.

2 RELATED WORK

As reported in (Schreiber, 2013), with the advent of the web and of Linked Data, knowledge sources produced by experts as (*taxonomical*) description of domains' concepts have become strategic assets: SKOS (Simple Knowledge Organizations System) has been recently released as a standard to publish such description in the form of vocabularies.

In this way, knowledge engineering has moved from being a typical centralized activity to being distributed: many experts can share their competencies, contributing to the global growth of knowledge in a given domain. The expert system paradigm has become suitable to solve complex problems exploiting the integration between different knowledge sources in various domains, as medicine (Yan et al., 2004) and chemistry (Bonastre et al., 2001), and innovative frameworks have been developed to allow non AI experts to implement their own expert systems (Ruiz-Mezcua et al., 2011; Rybina and Deineko, 2011).

In this paper, we propose an alternative approach to the development of distributed expert systems, based on the Knowledge Artifact (KA) notion. In Computer Science, artifacts have been widely used in many fields; Distributed Cognition (Norman, 1991) described cognitive artifacts as "[...] artificial devices that maintain, display, or operate upon information, in order to serve a representational function and that affect human cognitive performance". Thus, artifacts are able not only to amplify human cognitive abilities, but also change the nature of the task they are involved into. In CSCW, coordinative artifacts (Schmidt and Simone, 2000) are exploited "[...] to specify the properties of the results of individual contributions [...], interdependencies of tasks or objects in a cooperative works setting [...] a protocol of interaction in view of task interdependencies in a cooperative work setting [...]", acting as templates, maps or scripts respectively. In the MAS paradigm (Omicini et al., 2008), artifacts "[...] represent passive components of the systems [...] that are intentionally constructed, shared, manipulated and used by agents to support their activities [...]".

According to the last definition, it is possible to highlight how artifacts are typically considered passive entities in literature: they can support or influence human and artificial agents reasoning, but they are not part of it, i.e. they don't specify how a product can be realized or a result can be achieved. In the Knowledge Management research field, Knowledge Artifacts are specializations of artifacts. According to Holsapple and Joshi (Holsapple and Joshi, 2001), "A knowledge artifact is an object that conveys or holds usable representations of knowledge". Salazar-Torres et al. (Salazar-Torres et al., 2008) argued that, according to this definition, KAs are artifacts which represent "[...] executable-encodings of knowledge, which can be suitably embodied as computer programs, written in programming languages such as C, Java, or declarative modeling languages such as XML, OWL or SQL".

Thus, Knowledge Management provides artifacts with the capability to become active entities, through the possibility to describe entire decision making processes, or parts of them. In this sense, Knowledge Artifacts can be meant as guides to the development of complete knowledge-based systems. A relevant case study in addressing this direction is the pKADS project (Butler et al., 2008), that provided a webbased environment to store, share and use knowledge assets within enterprises or public administrations. Each knowledge asset is represented as an XML file and it can be browsed and analyzed by means of an ontological map. Although the reasoning process is not explicitly included into the knowledge asset structure, it can be considered a Knowledge Artifact being machine readable and fully involved in a decision making process development. Salazar-Torres at al. (Salazar-Torres et al., 2008) proposed a tabular Knowledge Artifact, namely T-Matrix to implement knowledge-based systems according to the design by adaptation paradigm. A T-Matrix describes products as recipes where ingredients and their amount are correlated to the different performances the final product should satisfy, providing a proper grammar to define those correlations and implementing it as rule–based systems.

3 MOTIVATION: MANAGING RAPIDLY CHANGING SCENARIOS BY MEANS OF EXPERT SYSTEMS

In this paper we are concerned with a more complex problem, that of modeling time-varying scenarios. In this case, the observed system and its reference environment change in time, passing through a series of macroscopic states, each one characterized by a specific set of relevant rules. Moving from one state to another, the meaning and importance of some events can change drastically, therefore the applicable inferences, as described by the rule set, must change accordingly.

The crucial point from the system point of view is the difficulty for production rules to capture in a precise way the knowledge involved in decision making processes variable in an unpredictable way. The resulting rules' set must be obtained at the end of an intensive knowledge engineering activity, being able to generate new portions of the system effectively and efficiently with respect to the changes in the application domain.

Some examples of these application scenarios can help in clarifying the characteristics of the problems we intend to tackle. A first example is the evolution of the state of an elderly patient affected by a neurologic degenerative disease. Quite often the development of the disease does not proceed in a linear, predictable way; instead long periods of stationary conditions are followed by rapid changes, which lead to another, worse, long lasting state. In this case, the interpretation of some events (such as a fall, or a change in the normal order in which some routine actions are taken) can differ substantially depending on the macro-state of reference. Another case would be an application analyzing urban traffic, with the purpose to help a driver to take the best route to destination. The scenario being analyzed changes significantly with the hour of the day and the day of the week, as well as in response to events modifying the available routes, such as an accident or a street closure due to traffic works.

In these situations, an efficient response of the system is very important, since the elaboration must be necessarily "real-time", and it is mandatory for the system to check continuously the knowledge-base to understand if it is consistent or not. Here, we present an approach to the development of rule-based systems dynamically changing their behavior according to the evolution of problem variables, both from their value and number standpoint. The approach is based on the acquisition and representation of Functional Knowledge (FK), Procedural Knowledge (PK) and Experiential Knowledge (EK), with the support of the KA notion.

According to (Kitamura et al., 2004), FK is related to the *functional representation* of a product, that "[...] consists of descriptions of the functionality of components (or (sub-) systems) and the relationship between them.". To properly capture such relationships, the authors suggest the adoption of ontologies (being able to deal with the semantic of relations); for this reason, ontologies can be defined as Knowledge Artifacts for functional knowledge acquisition and representation.

PK is defined in (Surif et al., 2012) as the "[...] understanding of how to apply the concepts learned in any problem solving situations". This means that procedural knowledge concerns how to combine concepts to solve a problem. In other words, procedural knowledge is devoted to explain the different steps through which a result is obtained, but it doesn't specify anything on how those steps are implemented.

Finally, some authors defined (Niedderer and Reilly, 2010) EK as "[...] knowledge derived from experience [...]". It is important because "[...] it can provide data, and verify theoretical conjectures or observations [...]". Experiential knowledge, that can remain (partly) tacit, allows to describe what procedural knowledge is not able to represent, and opportune tools are needed to capture it; from the Knowledge Artifact definition point of view, this is the reason why the T–Matrix previously cited is provided with a grammar to define the correlations between ingredients and performances: such grammar is the Knowledge Artifact for experiential knowledge representation.

Although functional, procedural and experiential knowledge have been usually treated as separated entities in the past, it is reasonable to suppose they are someway correlated: it should be possible to link the different Knowledge Artifacts involved to include into a unique conceptual and computational framework the entire knowledge engineering process, from the requirement analysis (i.e. the identification of all the functional elements to obtain a product or a service) to the implementation of a complete knowledge based system (i.e. the description of the decision making process in a machine–readable form, according to the related experiential knowledge), through the clear and complete specification of all the procedural steps needed to move from inputs to outputs (i.e. which intermediate levels of elaboration are necessary).

Doing so, the evolution of the expert system from an initial state S_1 , characterized by stable knowledge base with very few details, to a final state S_n , characterized by a fully developed, stable knowledge base, can be continuously checked by the domain expert, with the possibility to add new rules and delete or modify obsolete ones, to include new inputs or outputs and/or to extend the range of values for existing ones according to the domain characteristics, and so on. This is the main aim of the KAFKA project, as pointed out in the following sections.

4 KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION IN MOBILE SCENARIOS: KAFKA CONCEPTUAL AND COMPUTATIONAL MODEL

4.1 KAFKA Scenario

The typical KAFKA domain is shown in Figure 1, where two kinds of roles are hypothesized: a KA– User supporting a generic operator solving problems and a KA–Developer, supporting a domain expert in the elaboration of decision making processes. The KA–User is characterized by a state, a collection of quantitative and qualitative parameters (observations on the domain) that can be measured by PDAs or evaluated by the expert according to a given reasoning. This state can change over the time: thus, it is continuously checked by the system in order to discover

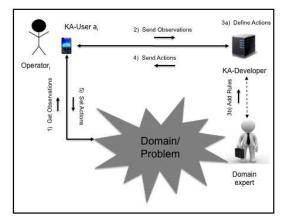


Figure 1: KAFKA scenario: Domain expert and operators virtually communicate to solve a problem in a given domain.

modifications and take proper actions. The domain expert can interact with the KA–Developer to update the different KA elements.

4.2 Knowledge Artifacts

KAFKA Knowledge Artifact is described as a 3-tuple $\langle O, IN, TS \rangle$, where O is an ontology of the investigated domain, IN is an Influence Net to represent the causal dependencies among the ontology elements and TS are task structures to represent how one or more outputs can be produced by the system according to a rule-based system strategy.

In the current KA model, the underlying ontology is a taxonomy: the root is the description of the problem to be solved, the inner nodes are system inputs or partial outputs and the leaves of the hierarchy are effective outputs of the system.

The Influence Net model is a structured process that allows to analyse complex problems of cause– effect type in order to determine an optimal strategy for the execution of certain actions, to obtain an optimal result. The Influence Net is a graphical model that describes the events and their causal relationships. Using information based on facts and experience of the expert, it is possible to analyze the uncertainties created by the environment in which we operate. This analysis helps the developer to identify the events and relationships that can improve or worsen the desired result. In this way you can determine the best strategy.

The Influence Net can be defined as a 4-tuple (IS, PS, OS, AS), where:

- IS is the *input node set*, i.e. the information needed to the KBS to work properly;
- PS is the *partial output node set*, i.e. the collection of new pieces of knowledge and information elaborated by the system to reach the desired output;
- OS is the *output node set*, i.e. the effective answers of the system to the described problem; outputs are values that can be returned to the user;
- AS is the set of *arcs* among the nodes: an arc between two nodes specifies that a causal relationship exists between them; an arc can go from an input to a partial node or an output, as well as from partial node to another one or an output. Moreover, an arc can go from an output to another output. Every other kind of arcs is not permitted.

Finally, Task Structures allow to describe in a rule–based system way how the causal process defined by a given IN can be modeled. Each task is devoted to define computationally a portion of an Influence Net: in particular, *sub–tasks* are procedures to

specify how a partial output is obtained, while *tasks* are used to explain how an output can be derived from one or more influencing partial outputs and inputs. A task cannot be completed until all the sub-tasks influencing it have been finished. In this way, the TS modeling allows to clearly identify all the levels of the system. The task and sub-task bodies are a sequence of rules, i.e. LHS(LeftHandSide) - > RHS(RightHandSide) constructs.

Each LHS contains the conditions that must be verified so that the rule can be applied: it is a logic clause, which turns out to be a sufficient condition for the execution of the action indicated in the RHS. Each RHS contains the description of the actions to conduct as a result of the rule execution. The last step of our model is then the translation of all the task and sub–task bodies into production rules of a specific language (Jess in our case).

4.3 KAFKA Architecture

Every KA–User (i.e. the client in Figure 2) involved in a problem solving activity is provided with an Android application: this application communicates with the KA–Developer (i.e. the server in Figure 2) by means of an Internet connection. The KA–User sends data serialized into a JSON¹ object. JSON is an open standard format that uses human–readable text to transmit data objects consisting of attribute–value pairs. For this reason, it is very useful in KAFKA to exchange facts between the client and the server, being sure they are correctly interpreted. These data are observations about the conditions of the problem domain. The GSON² library has been integrated to automatically convert Java objects (like shadow facts) into their JSON representation.

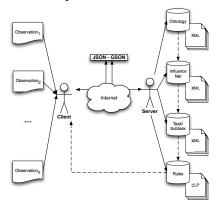


Figure 2: KAFKA architecture: solid arrows represent concrete flows, whilst dashed ones represent virtual flows.

Then, exploiting the Android primitives, it has been possible to create a stable mechanism for the communication with the server. In particular, the following tools were useful to implement the KA–User in KAFKA:

- activities: a class that extends an Activity class is responsible for the communication with the user, to support him/her in setting the layout, assigning the listeners to the various widgets (Android's graphical tools) and setting the context menu;
- *listener*: a class that implements the interface *OnClickListener* is a listener. An instance of this object is always associated with a widget;
- asyncTask: a class that extends AsyncTask is an asynchronous task that performs some operations concurrently with the execution of the user interface (for example the connection to a server must be carried out in a AsyncTask instance, not in an Activity one);

The typical mechanism to interface the client and the server is the following one: the Activity object prepares the layout and sets the widgets' listeners and a container with the information useful for the server; then, it possibly starts the AsyncTask instance for sending the correct request to the server, passing to it the previously created container. Before starting the asynchronous task, in most cases, the listener activates a dialog window that locks the user interface in waiting for the communication with the server; the AsyncTask predisposes the necessary Sockets for the communication and then performs its request to the server, sending the information about the case study observation enclosed in the container. Before concluding, it closes (dismisses) the waiting dialog window. The KA-Developer creates an instance of the KA model (i.e. the collections of XML files for Ontology, Influence Net and Task/Subtask in Figure 2) for each active KA-User in communication with it. Then, it executes the related rule-based system (i.e. the collection of .clp files in Figure 2) and sends answers, serialized into a JSON object, to the KA-User that will be able to take the proper action.

At the current state of development, the rule– based systems generated by a KA–Developer are written in Jess 7.0: this means they cannot be directly executed by a KA–User, since Jess 7.0 is not fully supported by Android. Thus, the server is responsible for their execution. Anyway, it has been designed to allow the serialization of .clp files too in the future, when Jess will be runnable under Android (i.e. when a stable version of Jess 8.0 will be released). The server, once activated, can accept both requests for the creation of a new system by a domain expert

¹JavaScript Object Notation, see http://json.org/ ²See https://sites.google.com/site/gson/

gson-user-guide#TOC-Goals-for-Gson

and for the resolution of problems on the basis of existing rule-based systems by a user.

4.4 KAFKA Implementation

The implementation of the different elements composing the knowledge engineering framework exploits the XML language (Sartori and Grazioli, 2014). A proper schema has been developed for each of them, as well as dedicated parsers to allow the user to interact with them. These XML files contain all the information necessary to compile rule–based systems: as previously stated, the Jess sintax has been chosen to this scope.

4.4.1 Implementing Ontology, Influence Net and Taks/Subtasks

Following the conceptual model briefly introduced in the previous section, the first schema is the ontological one, as presented below. The schema presents opportune tags to specify *inputs*, where the name of the input can be put (i.e. the $\langle name \rangle$ tag in the code below) together with a value for it (the $\langle value \rangle$ tag). The $\langle description \rangle$ tag is used to specify it that input should be modeled as a shadow fact or not. Moreover, it is possible to define an $\langle affects \rangle$ relationship for each input, in order to explain how it is involved in the next steps of the elaboration (i.e. which output or partial output does it contribute to state?).

```
<ontology>
   <name> ... </name>
    <description> ... </description>
   <input>
        <name> ... </name>
        <value> ... </value>
        <affects> ... </affects>
        . . .
    </input>
    <partialOutput>
        <name> ... </name>
        <value> ... </value>
        <affects> ... </affects>
        . . .
         <influencedBy> ... </influencedBy>
        . . .
    </partialOutput>
    <output>
        <name> ... </name>
        <value> ... </value>
        . . .
       <influencedBy> ... </influencedBy>
   </output>
</ontology>
```

A partialOutput (i.e. an inner node between an input and a leaf of the taxonomy) is limited by the $\langle partialOutput \rangle$ and $\langle partialOtuput \rangle$ pair of tags. The fields are the same as the input case, with the difference that a partial output can be influenced by other entities too: this is the sense of the $\langle influencedBy \rangle$ tag. Finally, the $\langle out put \rangle$ tag allows to describe completely an effective output of the system, i.e. a leaf of the taxonomy developed to represent the problem domain. Output can be influenced by other elements of the Ontology, i.e. inputs and partial outputs, but the vice-versa is not valid (i.e. the $\langle affects \rangle$ relationship is not defined on outputs). The following code illustrates an example of how an Influence Net is produced. The taxonomy is bottom-up parsed, in order to identify the right flow from inputs to outputs by navigating the *influenced by* relationships designed by the user. In this way, different portions of the system under development can be described. Outputs, partial outputs and inputs are bounded by arcs which specify the source and the target nodes (the source and target attribute respectively).

```
<influenceNet>
```

```
<name> ... </name>
   <description> ... </description>
   <root>
      ----- Start Output List ------
      <output id = "id" value = "output from ontology">
       </output>
       . . .
      ----- End Output List -----
      ----- Start partialOutput List ------
       <partialOutput id = "id" value = "partialOutput
       from ontology">
      </partialOutput>
      . . .
     ----- End partialOutput List -----
     ----- Start Input List -----
      <input id = "id" value = "output from ontology">
      </input>
       . . .
      ----- End Input List -----
      ----- Start Arc List ------
       <arc id = "id" value = "name of the arc" source =</pre>
       "id input or partialOutput" target = "id output
       or partialOutput">
       </arc>
     </root>
</influenceNet>
```

Finally, an XML schema for the *Task* (*Subtask* elements of the framework are defined in the same way) can be produced as follows. The parser composes a XML file for each output considered in the Influence Net. The *input* and *subtask* tags allow to define which inputs and partial outputs are needed to the output represented by the Task to be produced. The *body* tag is adopted to model the sequence of rules necessary

to process inputs and results returned by influencing Subtasks: a rule is composed of an $\langle if \rangle \dots \langle do \rangle$ construct, where the if statement permits to represent the LHS part of the rule, while the do statement concerns the RHS part of the rule.

```
<task>
   <name> ... </name>
    <description> ... </description>
   <input>
        <element> Input from the ontology </element>
        . . .
   </input>
    <body>
        <subtask> subtask name </subtask>
       <if> rule LHS </if>
        <do> rule RHS </do>
        . . .
   </bodv>
    <output>
        <value> ... </value>
   </output>
</task>
```

The XML files introduced above can be incorporated into dedicated decision support systems to guide the user in the design of the underlying taxonomy, Influence Net and Tasks/Subtasks. Moreover, it is possible to transform the Task into a collection of files containing rules written for instance in the Jess language.

4.4.2 Implementing Rules

Given the XML code for Task and Subtask Structures, a rule file can be generated by means of opportune parsers. In principle, every language for rule–based system design can be exploited, but the current version of KAFKA adopts Jess. The main reason for this was the possibility to exploit the *shadow fact* construct in the knowledge base to take care of its variability: basically, a shadow fact is an object integrated into the working memory as a fact. For this reason, it is possible to access it for value modifications from every kind of application, and the inference engine will understand the situation, activating a new running of the expert system.

The shadow fact is fundamental to manage the variable scenario in Figure 1: as shown in Figure 3 a system transition from state S_i to state S_j can be due to the observation of a not previously considered value for one or more observations. At *State_i*, *Observation_n* is detected by the KA–User, that was not considered by the current knowledge artifact. A new shadow fact is then generated to take care of it (i.e. *ShadowFact_n*), and the KA–Developer is notified about the need for

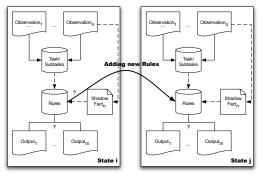


Figure 3: Transition from a State i to a State j: $ShadowFact_n$ is not recognized in $State_i$, for this reason, new rules are added moving to $State_i$, where $ShadowFact_n$ is known.

extending the rule set in order to properly manage that value. In this way, the system moves from state S_i , where it is not able to reach a valid solution to the problem, to state S_j , where new rules have been added to fill the gap.

On the other hand, when all the possible values for every observation will be mapped into the set of rules of an expert system, for example in the S_k state, that system will be considered stable, and the related rules' set will be able to generate a solution for every possible configuration of inputs. Thanks to its intrinsically dynamic nature (it is a Java object), the shadow fact is the most suitable technical artifact to take care of such characteristics: by changing its value at runtime, the inference engine will be able to run the current expert system part whose behavior possibly varies according to that change; in case of no solution, the KA–Developer will be notified about the need for extending both the knowledge artifact and the related set of rules.

5 CASE STUDY

The case study was inspired by the STOP handbook (S. Grimaz (coord.), 2010), supplied to the Italian Fire Corps and Civil Protection Department of the Presidency of Council of Ministers for the construction of safety building measures for some building structures that have been damaged by an earthquake. In case of disaster occurring, operators reach the site in order to understand the event consequences and take the proper actions to make safe both human beings and buildings. The case study focused on two actions typical of earthquakes, namely *WallsÕ safety measures*. This action aims at preventing further rotation or bulging of the wall damaged during an earthquake. It is important to notice that operators are provided with standard equipment to those scopes, i.e. a set

of rakers and shores that can be useful in most situations. The main problem is to understand if this equipment can be adopted in case of particularly disrupting events: in fact, the situation found by the operators continuously evolve from a state S_i to a new state S_j according to phenomena like aftershocks. The *STOP App* has been thought for these situations, when operators need more information to e.g. combine rakers in order to sustain walls dramatically damaged by the earthquake or shores to cover very large apertures.

The following sections will further explain how the scenario has been effectively translated into a computational system, focusing on how a Knowledge Artifact has been created and instantiated. The main goal of the STOP application has been the possibility to have faster answers by means of a collection of rule–base system that incorporates the STOP handbook knowledge, where the operators can insert the inputs to get outputs in a transparent way. Another important point is the possibility to extend the STOP model when needed, adding rules to the KA– Developer knowledge by means of an opportune interface: as previously stated, the role of shadow facts is crucial to this scope.

5.1 Walls' Safety Measures: Modeling Knowledge Involved

Rakers are devices adopted to prevent further rotation or bulging of the wall damaged during an earthquake. There exist two main kinds of rakers: *solid sole* and *flying* (S. Grimaz (coord.), 2010). Solid sole rakers can be used when the conditions of the pavement around the damaged walls are good, while flying rakers are useful when rubble is present. Due to their morphology, solid sole rakers allow to distribute the wall weight in a uniform manner along the whole pavement, with greater benefits from the wall safety point of view. Anyway, the possibility to concentrate the wall sustain on smaller sections is important too, especially when earthquakes intensity is so strong to break windows or building frontages.

The other two information to fix are *raker class* and *dimensions*. Raker class depends on the distance between the sole and the position of the top horizontal brace on the wall; raker dimensions can be established starting from the raker class, the seismic class related to the earthquake, the wall thickness and the span between the raker shores. The values introduced above constitute the set of system inputs that should be properly used by the KA–Developer to elaborate problem solutions. How these inputs are effectively exploited and which relationships exist among them are also important points to take care of. This is the goal of the Influence Net depicted in Figure 4, which clearly identifies outputs and partial elaborations in order to understand what is the reasoning process that allows to get outputs starting from inputs. In particular, the type of raker (i.e. Solid Sole or Flying) and the class of it can be considered as outputs or partial outputs: they have been described as partial outputs, since the final goal of the decision making process is to choose a raker in terms of *name* (that is R1, R2, R3 and so on) and *dimensions*. Raker class and type are characteristics that allow defining the name of the raker, but are not interesting for the user.

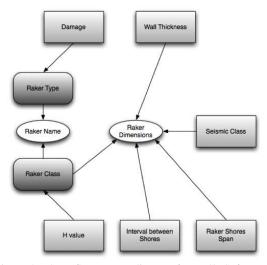


Figure 4: The Influence Net diagram for Walls Safety case study. Light gray rectangles are Inputs, Rounded Corner Rectangles are Partial Outputs and Ovals are Outputs. The arcs semantic is *influenced-by*.

The last part of knowledge acquisition and representation is the definition of Tasks and Subtasks, in order to specify how outputs can be obtained from inputs. As previously introduced, an XML file is produced for each output and partial output included into the Influence Net. According to the designed schema, these files contain a description of necessary inputs, expected outputs and the body, i.e. the instructions necessary to transform inputs into outputs. These instructions can be $\langle if \rangle \dots \langle do \rangle$ constructs or invocations of influencing subtasks. Figure 5 shows a sketch of the decision making process concerning a portion of the case study Influence Net, starting from the knowledge involved as provided by the STOP handbook: the dashed arrow between Class attributes in the Subtask and Task bodies specifies the precedence relationship between them (i.e. the Task must wait for Subtask completion before starting). The result returned by the subtask is used to value the DIMEN-SIONS output of the task to be returned to the user as

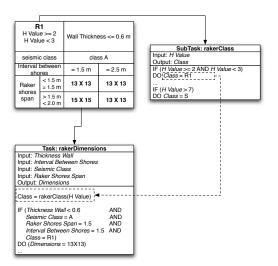


Figure 5: A sketch of the decision making process made by the KA–Developer according to the case study IN in Figure 4. The table on the figure top is derived from the STOP handbook: raker type (R1) is determined by the connected subtask; dimensions of the raker are calculated by the connected task.

a computational result. The task body is a sequence of IF...DO rules, where different patterns are evaluated in the LHS and the RHS propose an opportune value for the output. The semantic of the rule shown in Figure 5 is the following: if the *thickness of the wall* to support is *less than 0.6 m* and the earthquake *seismic class* is A and *raker shores span* is 1.5 m and the *interval between shores* is 1.5 m and the *raker class* is R1, the *dimensions* of the raker should be $13X13 m^2$.

Similar considerations can be made for the other task of the case study, namely *rakerName*, based on the Raker Name node of the Influence Net, and influenced by the *rakerClass* and *rakerType* Subtasks.

5.2 The KA–User and the KA–Developer: Two Android Clients

Every operator involved in the emergency procedures to make safe buildings and infrastructures is provided with an Android application on his/her smartphone: this application communicates with the server via the client–server architecture introduced above. Each KA–User sends the server data about the conditions of the site it is analyzing: according to the STOP handbook, these data allow to make considerations about the real conditions of the building walls and openings after the earthquake, in order to understand which raker or scaffolding to adopt. Figure 6 presents the GUI for introducing inputs to configure rakers in the first case study: according to the conceptual model described so far, the KA–User guides the user in order to avoid mistakes during parameters set up.

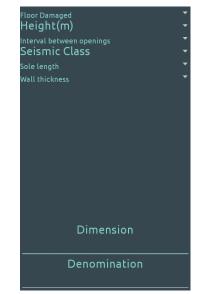


Figure 6: The GUI provided by the KA–User to set up inputs for the Walls' Safety case study and to present Raker's configuration results to the user.

The KA-User converts the values into GSON instances, which will be sent to the server for elaboration, waiting for answers from it. Values are suggested by the application when available (e.g. in the case of Damaged floor, Seismic class, Sole length and Wall thickness), i.e. when the STOP handbook provides guidelines. Otherwise, the operator measures them and they will be properly interpreted by the server according to the Knowledge Artifact provided by the KA–Developer. This operation mode is sharply different from that of a traditional Expert System: the domain expert associated to the KA-Developer could immediately (i.e. dynamically!) add new rules to the Knowledge Artifact, in order to give suggestions fitting the real conditions observed on-site by the KA-User. This is possible thanks to the adoption of shadow facts for representing observations in KAFKA: when results are provided by the server, the KA–User presents them to the operator through the same GUI in Figure 6. Both outputs present in the case study Influence Net (see Section 5.1) are returned, i.e. raker name, that is a combination of partial outputs raker class (value R1) and raker type (value Flying) and dimensions.

If no output is available, due to the lack of knowledge in the KA, as shown in Figure 7, the KA– Developer can support the domain expert to complete the knowledge base: Figure 8 shows the provided GUI.

Then, the rule-based system can be executed



Figure 7: No output available due to the observations provided by the KA–User: new rules must be added to the knowledge base.

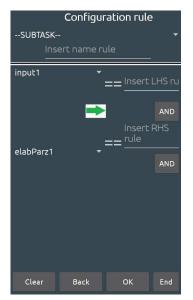


Figure 8: The GUI provided by the KA–Developer to the domain expert to introduce new rule in the knowledge base.

again by the KA–User, being sure that valid values will be obtained in output, as shown in Figure 9.

The system can be run again on different configurations of input, producing new outputs according to the KA model: if necessary, new rules can be added moving the system from a stable state S_i to a new stable state S_j as described in section 4.4.2. In this way, the rule–based system is iteratively built up according to new discoveries made by the user on the application field.



Figure 9: After the domain expert intervention, the KA–User is able to provide the user with an output.

6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper addressed the problem of time evolving expert systems design and implementation: the KAFKA approach has been presented from both the theoretical and practical point of view. A unique feature of KAFKA is its development under Android OS, that allows to use it in many contexts characterized by ubiquity of inputs and scalability of problem descriptions.

The work on the KAFKA framework is developing on multiple directions: from the theoretical point of view, we are moving from KAFKA to $KAFKA^2$, by substituting the IN Knowledge Artifact with Bayesian Networks (BN) (Melen et al., 2015) to represent procedural knowledge; from the practical point of view, we are extending the KA–User side to detect observations by means of wearable devices.

The first point will allow to automatically generate .clp files from an initial probability distribution; in this way, the KA–Developer will be potentially able to discover transitions from S_i to S_j on its own, with no explicit need for domain expert intervention. The second point will allow to extend the applicability of KAFKA to those domains characterized by frequent and continuous values update.

In particular, we are planning to use $KAFKA^2$ in a collaboration with psychologists in the ALS domain, where two kinds of roles are hypothesized (see Figure 10: a KA-User supporting a generic Patient/Caregiver being subject to a given therapy and a KA-Developer,

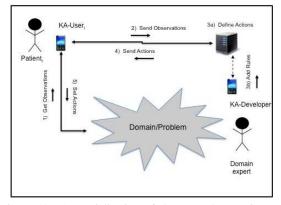


Figure 10: A specialization of the general scenario presented in Figure 1 in the ALS domain.

supporting a Domain Expert, like a psychologist or a doctor. The KA-User is characterized by a state, a collection of quantitative (e.g. *heart rate*) and qualitative (e.g. *self-efficacy*) parameters that can be measured by PDAs or evaluated by the expert according to a decision making process. This state can change over the time: for this reason, it is continuously checked by the system in order to discover potentially negative evolutions and take proper actions. The domain expert can interact with the server to design the KA elements, i.e. the ontology, the Bayesian Network and the initial rule-based system. Then, the KA-User can send observations about the current state of its Patient/Caregiver to the server, which will execute the rules to suggest a proper therapy. The KA-User will provide it to the Patient/Caregiver and periodically send new observations to the server. In case of significant changes in the state detection, the BN component of the KA will be able to automatically generate new rules: these rules can be evaluated by the expert, through the related KA-Developer.

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