

Qualitative and Quantitative Simulation: Bridging the Gap

Daniel Berleant
Dept. of Computer Systems Engineering
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, AR 72701
djb@engr.uark.edu

Benjamin Kuipers
Department of Computer Sciences
University of Texas
Austin, TX 78712
kuipers@cs.utexas.edu

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Abstract

Shortcomings of qualitative simulation and of quantitative simulation motivate combining them to do simulations exhibiting strengths of both. The resulting class of techniques is called *semi-quantitative simulation*. One approach to semi-quantitative simulation is to use numeric intervals to represent incomplete quantitative information. In this research we demonstrate quantitative simulation using intervals in an implemented semi-quantitative simulator. Q3 progressively refines a qualitative simulation, providing increasingly accurate predictions which can converge to a numerical simulation in the limit. The correctness guarantees from qualitative and interval simulation are preserved. Q3's simulations are based on a technique which allows qualitative simulation to have a very coarse step size, while the resulting quantitative simulation has a very fine step size. This allows qualitative simulation to have a relatively few qualitatively distinct states, while the resulting quantitative simulation has a large number of states. This allows qualitative simulation to improve its accuracy without increasing its state space. Q3

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1 Introduction

Systems that change over time are often so complex that analytical solutions, equations predicting future system states as a function of time, cannot be found. In those cases simulation is useful for prediction. Given a model of system structure and initial state, simulation determines the trajectory through its state space.

When accurate numerical information about structure and initial state is available, simulation techniques are available. When only qualitative information is available, a significant body of work describes methods for the many cases in which accurate numerical information is not available. Numerical simulation, yet incomplete methods for stronger predictions than qualitative simulation, are available. Informative information is available. As an example, simulation

An object is fired upward fast enough to escape a gravitational field

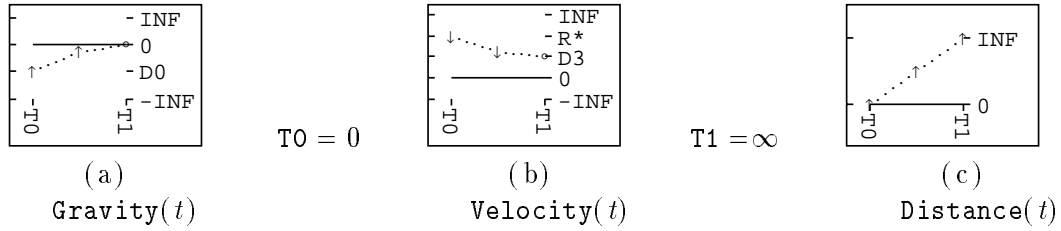


Figure 1: Qualitative simulation of an object fired upward at greater than escape velocity shows that the gravitation experienced by the object produces a negative acceleration (a), reducing velocity (b). As distance increases (c), gravitation decreases. Qualitative simulation also shows another behavior in which the object falls back to Earth (not shown).

This paper significantly revises and expands a preliminary account and provides a proof of convergence and stability for step size

2 Q3 and Step Size Refinement

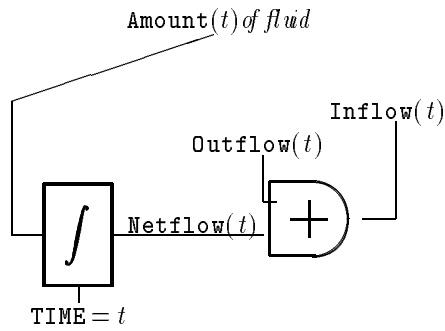
Q3 improves on pure qualitative simulation by augmenting inferences when quantitative information is available. It identifies interesting behaviors, and in providing numerical bounds that quantitative information can be used to refine bounding spaces of possible behaviors. It also provides an algorithm for extracting as much explicit information as possible from the simulation.

tative simulations because the qualitative features of qualitative simulation trajectories do change significantly from one time point to the next. Therefore step sizes for qualitative simulation are large by definition and so numerical inferences on them tend to be weak.

Augmenting a Q2 simulation so that it has smaller step sizes can lead to quantitative inferences, just as numerical simulations can be improved (within limits imposed by the accuracy of floating point arithmetic) by using a better algorithm for doing this. Q3 augments Q2 with the capability of smaller step sizes.

Q3 first generates qualitative behavior information via Q2. Then, better inference is achieved via step size refinement and adaptive numerical techniques. Adaptive numerical techniques represent a significant improvement over the traditional techniques used in the past.

Model of a Tank with Fluid Flow

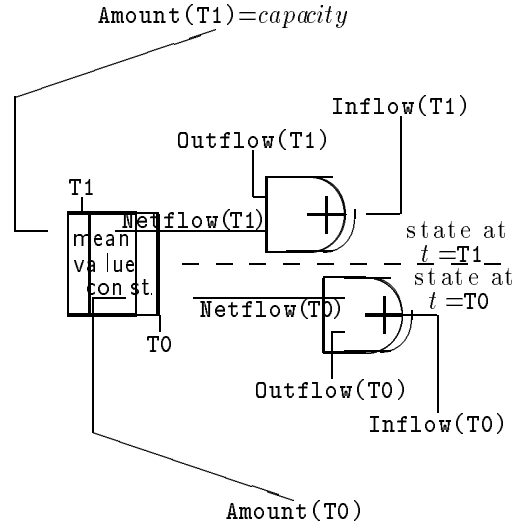


$$\text{Netflow}(t) = \text{Inflow}(t) - \text{Outflow}(t)$$

$$\text{Amount}(t) = \int_t \text{Netflow}(t)$$

(a) Diagram & equations of a *mdl*

Overflow Behavior of the Tank



$$\text{Netflow}(T1) = \text{Inflow}(T1) - \text{Outflow}(T1)$$

$$\text{Netflow}(T0) = \text{Inflow}(T0) - \text{Outflow}(T0)$$

$$\frac{\text{Amount}(T1) - \text{Amount}(T0)}{T1 - T0} \subseteq [\min(\text{Netflow}(T0), \text{Netflow}(T1)), \max(\text{Netflow}(T0), \text{Netflow}(T1))]$$

(b) Diagram & equations of a *behavior*

(c) Overflow behavior: graphical representation

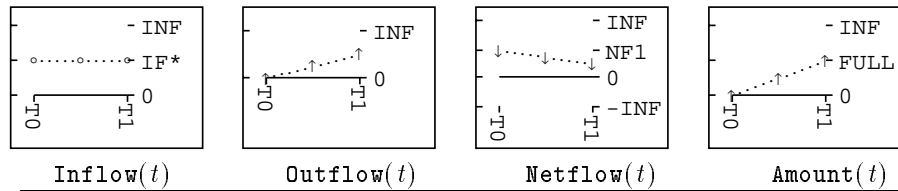
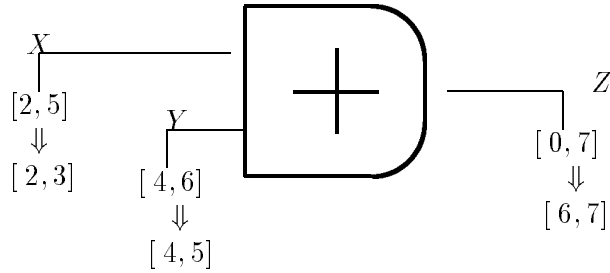


Figure 2: A simple tank model and its overflow behavior. The model consists of two constant templates, shown in (a). Those templates hold at all times. Instantiating the templates at two temporally distinctive time points T_0 and T_1 leads to representations of its behavior. The network representation of the overflow behavior is shown in (b). All time points would be unwieldy to depict graphically, but can be stored in memory. The same behavior represented graphically is shown in (c). The quantity of fluid in the tank. Overflow occurs at the capacity of the tank. The mean value constant is $\frac{\text{Amount}(T1) - \text{Amount}(T0)}{T1 - T0}$. The variables are Amount , Netflow , and TIME .



$$\begin{aligned}
 Z &= Z \cap (X + Y) = [0, 7] \cap ([2, 5] + [4, 6]) = [0, 7] \cap [6, 11] = [6, 7] \\
 X &= X \cap (Z - Y) = [2, 5] \cap ([6, 7] - [4, 6]) = [2, 5] \cap [0, 3] = [2, 3] \\
 Y &= Y \cap (Z - X) = [4, 6] \cap ([6, 7] - [2, 3]) = [4, 6] \cap [3, 5] = [4, 5]
 \end{aligned}$$

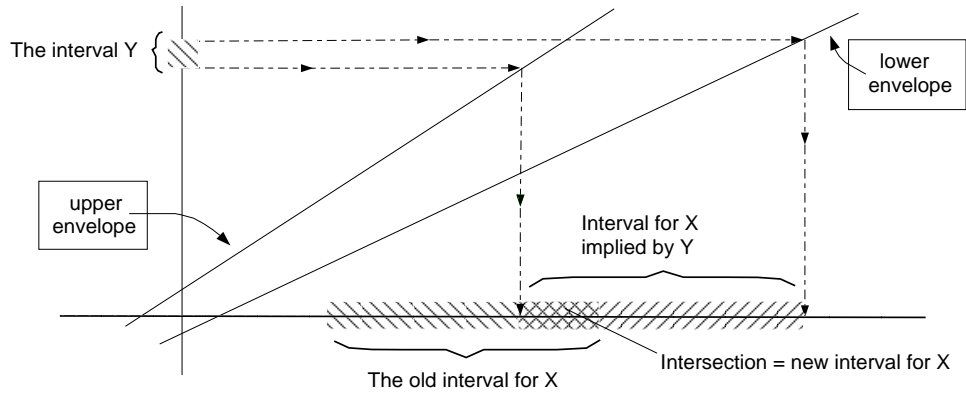
Figure 3: **Constraint propagation** of interval labels through an **add** constraint. The interval at each terminal is narrowed by using the constraint to propagate the intervals currently at the other terminals, so an **add** constraint actually enforces three relations, one addition, $Z \subseteq X+Y$, and two subtractions, $X \subseteq Z-Y$ and $Y \subseteq Z-X$.

variables concerned at particular points in time (Figure 2b). These constraints relate intervals that quantitatively bound the qualitative landmarks of model variables. The constraints enforce the narrowing of one or more intervals (Davis 1987), where a narrower interval indicates greater certainty about quantitative value. When an interval is narrowed, the constraints directly affected can often narrow other intervals (Figure 2c). Thus the effect of narrowing an interval can propagate through the constraint network.

There are a number of different kinds of constraints:

- Arithmetic and monotonic constraints
- Greater and less than constraints between model variables
- Max value constraints on trajectories

Propa



Interval propagation across an M^+ constraint: $Y = M^+(X)$
 Given Y , find a new range for X :
 1) Project Y across the envelopes.
 2) Intersect the projection with the old interval for X .

Figure 4: Propagation through an M^+ (positive monotonic) function with quantitative envelopes.

Hatched regions of the axes represent intervals, and the upper and lower envelopes bound a space of monotonic functions. Propagation shown is from an interval on the y -axis to the x -axis. Propagation the other way, from x to y is analogous.

If two variables are monotonically related, the highest and lowest points of an interval imply highest and lowest points of the projection of that interval on the other axis. A qualitative monotonic function represents a large set of quantitative functions, all those that are monotonic in the direction specified by the function. A middle ground between qualitative monotonic functions and quantitative functions is upper and lower monotonic envelopes which bound the set of functions. This is illustrated by Figure 4, which shows a qualitative monotonicity.

2.1.3 The mean value constraint

The mean value constraint is designed to propagate a time point to another. It derives from the following, which states:

$$\text{where time } t^* \in (t_{n-1}, t_n) \cdot \text{rate}(t^*) = t_n - t_{n-1} \quad (\text{Forrester 1961})$$

We do not know the value of

rate(t^*)

²See e.g. Hyvönen (1992 p. 89–90) for a discussion of this technique (Boltyskii 1964).

because $t^* \in (t_{n-1}, t_n)$, because a closed interval $I = [a, b]$ is a superset of the open interval (a, b) , and because the qualitative simulation module (QSIM) ensures that $rate(t)$ and all other varying quantities are monotonic between states at adjacent time points t_{n-1} and t_n .

From (1) and (2),

$$\frac{level(t_n) - level(t_{n-1})}{t_n - t_{n-1}} \in [min(rate(t_{n-1}), rate(t_n)), max(rate(t_{n-1}), rate(t_n))]. \quad (3)$$

When quantities are known only to within intervals, this equation must be intervalized in the obvious ways. Real variables x_i are replaced by corresponding interval variables X , real functions $f(x_i)$ are replaced by corresponding interval functions $F(X)$, real arithmetic operators “+” are given the corresponding interval interpretations, the natural interval arithmetic (Moore 1979) of \in is \subseteq and functions $min()$ and $max()$ are applied respectively to the lower and upper bounds of intervals. Intervalizing (3) gives

$$\frac{LEVH(T_n) - ILEVH(T_{n-1})}{T_n - T_{n-1}} \subseteq [min(RATE(T_{n-1}), RATE(T_n)), max(RATE(T_{n-1}), RATE(T_n))]$$

where the low bound of an interval X is denoted by \underline{X} and the high bound by \overline{X} (Moore 1979).

The RHS simplifies to the convex hull of the set $RATE(T_{n-1}) \cup RATE(T_n)$, or $RATE(T_{n-1}) \cup RATE(T_n)$, where the convex hull includes everything in either interval or between them. This results in the *mean value constraint*:

$$\frac{LEVH(T_n) - ILEVH(T_{n-1})}{T_n - T_{n-1}} \subseteq RATE(T_{n-1}) \cup RATE(T_n). \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) can be solved algebraically for each variable on the left hand side. The resulting right hand side can then be evaluated to give an interval, which is intersected with the quantity's current interval as in Figure 3.

Quantitative inferences provided by the mean value constraint tend to be weak when the variables T_{n-1} and T_n are widely separated, as is often the case with qualitatively distinct time points (Figure 6a). Much better results are typically obtained from the mean value constraint with time size refinement, which makes adjacent time points closer together (as in Figure 6b).

Alternatives to the mean value constraint The mean value constraint is a simple method. An obvious improvement over the relatively weak Euler's method, a mainstay of numerical simulation. For interval problems, the Runge-Kutta 1-step method (such as Runge-Kutta) can be extended to interval arithmetic (Moore 1979). It would be to use an existence and convergence theorem (Moore 1979 p. 94-97). Moore (1979 p. 94-97) also describes interval simulation. Eigenraam (1981) and Lohn (1981) demonstrate the feasibility of interval simulation. Missuyès (1991) demonstrate the feasibility of interval simulation.

2.2 Phase II: progress

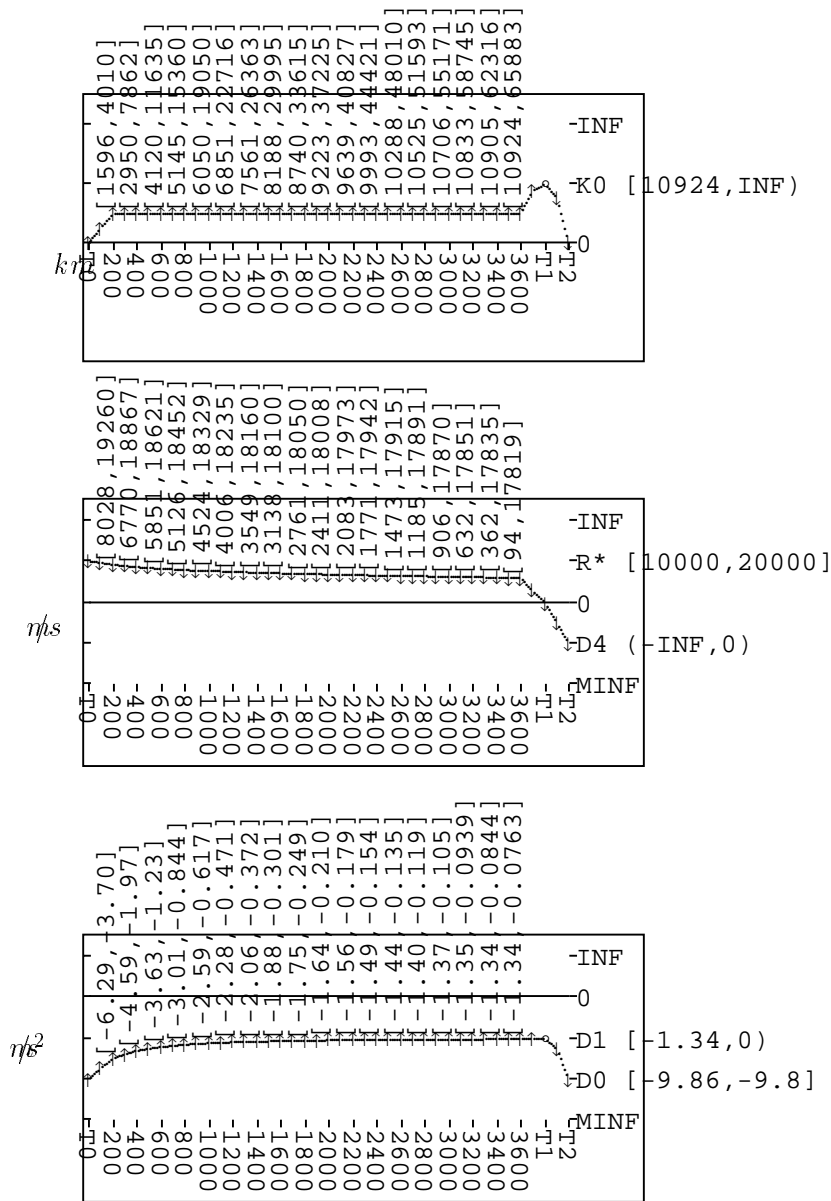
A quantitatively annotated simulation is refined in Phase II. The simulation is refined in Phase II, which gradually refines the simulation.

2.2.1 Step size refinement: overview

Standard numerical simulation algorithms estimate system state at the next time point by extrapolating from current trends. It is better to extrapolate only a short distance along the system trajectory and then to reassess current trends before extrapolating further, than to extrapolate a longer distance. This means keeping the step size of the simulation small and, intuitively, small step sizes typically lead to less error in the predicted trajectory of the system. For most interval generalizations of numerical simulation methods, smaller step sizes lead to narrower but correct interval predictions. In step size refinement, the step sizes of the simulation are adaptively reduced in regions of sharp predictions in the form of narrow intervals. These intuitions about step size refinement are rigorously proven in Appendix B.

2.2.2 Step size refinement

We are given a finite order n interval range $[t_i, \bar{t}_i]$ and a set of intervals $\{I_i\}$ that may overlap. The intervals are iteratively refined.



$T0 \in [0, 0] = 0$
 $T1 \in [3671, \infty)$
 $T2 \in [3671, \infty)$

Figure 5: A rocket is fired upward from the Earth's surface. Gravity decreases with the squared distance from the Earth's center (Figure 8). Initial velocity is $R^* \in [10000, 20000] \frac{m}{s}$, which contains escape velocity (approximately $11000 \frac{m}{s}$). Q3 correctly predicts that the rocket could either return to Earth or escape. The return behavior is the one shown, with graphs for height, acceleration vs. time. Inferences about qualitative time points $T0$, $T1$, and

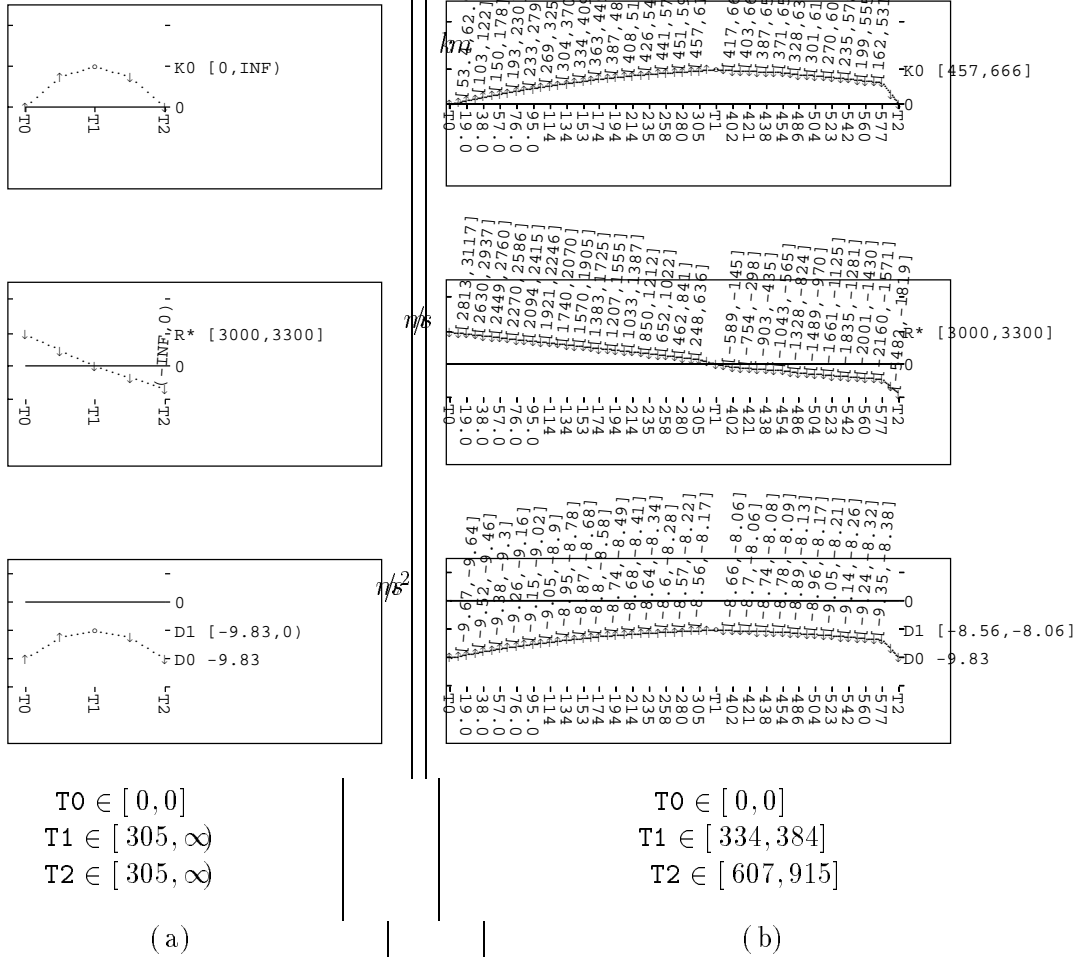


Figure 6: A rocket is fired upward at [3000,3300] meters per second, less than escape velocity.

The behavior in which the rocket falls back to the ground is shown in (a), which also shows weak quantitative inferences that were unable to prune any of the other two behaviors. In (b) the behavior is shown, however 25 time points were interpolated. Consequently, quantitative inferences are much stronger — and the 2 impossible behaviors have been pruned. Table 1 shows the intermediate stages in the simulation.

Variable \rightarrow	Acceleration		Velocity		Height		Time		#
TIME \rightarrow	153	T1	153	T2	153	T1	T1	T2	behs
Stage \downarrow									
(a) Phase I		$[-9.83, 0)$		$(-\infty, 0)$		$(0, \infty)$		$[305, \infty)$	3
(b) 1 interp.	$[-9.16, -8.44]$	$[-9.16, 0)$	$[1496, 2009]$,,	$[229, 505]$	$[229, \infty)$		$[316, \infty)$	1
(c) 4 interp.	$[-8.99, -8.57]$	$[-8.77, 0)$	$[1535, 1948]$,,	$[289, 452]$	$[373, \infty)$		$[326, \infty)$	1
(d) TIS	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	519, ∞
(e) 7 interp.	$[-8.91, -8.64]$	$[-8.65, 0)$	$[1558, 1919]$,,		$[319, 424]$		$[331, \infty)$	519, ∞
(f) Beh. split	,,	$[-8.65, -0.00052]$,,	,,	,,	,,		$[422, 866624]$	331, ∞
(g) 8 interp.	,,	$[-8.63, -7.98]$,,	,,	$(-\infty, -1044]$,,		$[428, 69]$	428, 69
(h) 25 interp.	$[-8.87, -8.68]$	$[-8.56, -8.06]$	$[1570, 1905]$		$[-5482, -1819]$	$[334, 409]$			428, 409
(i) 50 interp.	$[-8.87, -8.69]$	$[-8.53, -8.10]$	$[1572, 1902]$		$[-4653, -2137]$				428, 2137

Table 1: The returning rocket simulation at various stages. The variables are each shown at TIME=153 (the time of the first algorithm), and either T1 when the rocket is on the way down. Each technique is shown with its interval results get near the end of the text.)

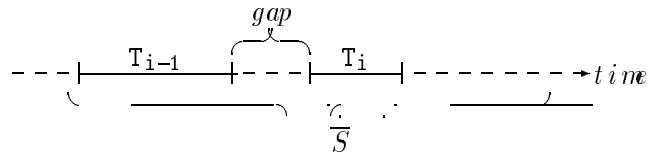


Figure 7: T_{i-1} and T_i are time *points*, but their values are known only to within intervals, indicated by solid line segments. Between them is a gap. T_{i-1} and T_i are the endpoints of a time interval whose size is in $[w(gap), \bar{S}_i]$, where $w(gap)$ is the width of the gap. \bar{S}_i is the maximum possible time interval from T_{i-1} to T_i .

3 Detailed Example: a Nonlinear Second-Order Rocket

We now step through an example requiring step size refinement and the auxiliary function \bar{S}_i that we just defined. Consider a rocket in a gravitational field which decreases with distance from Earth in a second order and nonlinear, and hence makes a useful demonstration model appears in Figure 8. The simulation for this example is described by describing known quantitative data about the Earth's gravity, which is less than the escape velocity of $11,000 \frac{m}{s}$ so that the rocket will not escape. To direct Q3's operation, we set

Goal: "Prune as many behaviors as possible from the set of behaviors $havior(s)$."

To minimize the potential cost of the simulation, the subgoal to pursue, given the goal, is

Subgoal 1:

Phase I of a simulation, with bounds on the time interval t

```

(define-QDE escape-velocity
  (text "Gravity decreases with height as r'=-GM/r^2")
  ; Define model variables and their qualitative values.
  (quantity-spaces
    (r      (0 sea-level inf) "meters from Earth's core")
    (r^2    (0 inf)          "distance squared"          )
    (h      (0 inf)          "meters above surface"      )
    (km     (0 inf)          "kilometers above surface"  )
    (surface (0 s*          ) "depth of Earth"          )
    (dr/dt  (minf 0 r*      inf) "velocity, m/s"          )
    (d2r/dt2 (minf 0      inf) "acceleration, m/s^2"    )
    (G      (0 G*          ) "Gravitational constant G")
    (Earth-M (0 M*        ) "Mass of Earth M"          )
    (K      (0 K*        ) "K (=G*M)"          )
    (-K     (-K* 0        ) "-K"          )
    (=1000  (0 1000      ) "Thousand"          ))
  ; The model defines these constraint templates
  (constraints
    ((mult km =1000 h ))
    ((add surface h r ) (s* 0 sea-level))
    ((mult r r r^2) )
    ((mult G Earth-M K ) (g* m* k*) )
    ((minus k -k ) (k* -k*) )
    ((mult d2r/dt2 r^2 -K ) )
    ((d/dt r dr/dt ) )
    ((d/dt dr/dt d2r/dt2 ) )
    ((constant surface))
    ((constant G))
    ((constant Earth-M))
    ((constant k))
    ((constant -k))
    ((constant =1000))) )

```

Figure 8: **Qualitative model of a second order nonlinear system** A list of quantity-spaces describes the qualitative values the various model variables can have, and a list of constraints describes the relationships among those model variables. This model describes an object in free fall in the Earth's gravitational field, such as a rocket or other projectile fired upward or an object falling downward. Gravity decreases with distance according to the standard nonlinear second order differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} = \frac{-GM}{r^2}.$$

```

(def-quantitative-info
  (name initial-velocity-about-3000)
  (quantitative-initializations
    ;gravitational constant
    (G      (G*      (6.67e-11  6.67e-11)))
    ;Earth's mass
    (Earth-M (M*      (5.98e24  5.98e24 )))
    ;radius of Earth
    (r      (sea-level (6.37e6   6.37e6 )))
    ;Initial condition, less than escape velocity
    (dr/dt  (r*      (3000     3300 )))
    (envelopes ()))

```

Figure 9: Quantitative data describing known facts about the Earth, as well as the incompletely specified initial velocity dr/dt of a rocket (Figure 8) fired upward from the Earth's surface.

each behavior. For the return behavior this was at time 153. For the escape behaviors, which were defined with $T_1 = \infty$, it occurred at time 1000 (Section 4.2.1). Constraint propagation on the resulting network for each behavior pruned the escape behaviors and improved the characterization of the return behavior somewhat. The pruning of an escape behavior is described in Section 4.2.2. The improved characterization of the return behavior was described in Section 4.2.3.

Subgoal 1 has been fully satisfied but the overall Goal 1 is still not fully satisfied. We still know little about how high the rocket will go, and the time it will take to return. The narrow existing intervals, and infinite intervals, are shown in Figure 10.

Subgoal 2

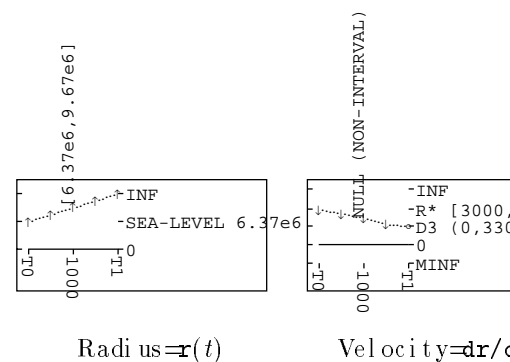
and

Subgoal 3

Step 1

CONSTRAINT	INFERENCE	REASON
Initial Conditions	$R_{T0} = \text{SEA-LEVEL} = 6.37e6$ meters ⁽ⁱ⁾ $(DR/DT)_{T0} \in [3000, 3300]$ η/s ⁽ⁱⁱ⁾	Given
Previously Inferred	$-K^* = -3.99e14$ ⁽ⁱⁱⁱ⁾ $(D2R/DT2)_{T0} = -9.83$ η/s^2 ^(iv)	From G^* and M^* in Ph From $(R^2)_{T0}$ and $-K^*$ i
MEAN VALUE <i>HE</i> variable: DR/DT (velocity, η/s upward) <i>IBL</i> variable: R (radius, meters from the Earth's center)	$RATE(T0) \cup \overline{IBL}(1000)$ $= (-\infty, 3300]$; ^(v) Decrease \overline{R}_{1000} ; $R_{1000} \in (-\infty, 9.67e6]$	Qualitative behavior h decreasing; use that Solve equation (4) for $L\overline{VH}(T_n)$ usin ⁽ⁱ⁾ , ⁽ⁱⁱ⁾ , and ^(v) .
<i>TIME</i> $T_{n-1} = T0 = 0, T_n = 1000$	Increase $\overline{(DR/DT)}_{1000}$; $(DR/DT)_{1000} \in (0, \infty)$ ^(vi) Increase \overline{R}_{1000} ; $R_{1000} \in (6.37e6, 9.67e6]$ ^(vii)	Qualitative be $R_{1000} > R_{T0}$ implies tha Solve equa $\overline{IBL}(T_n)$ ⁽ⁱ⁾ , ⁽ⁱⁱ⁾ , and
MULTIPLICATION $R \times R = R^2$, so $R_{1000} \times R_{1000} = \overline{(R^2)}_{1000}$	Increase $\overline{(R^2)}_{1000}$; Decrease $\overline{(R^2)}_{1000}$; $(R^2)_{1000} \in [4.06e13, 9.35e13]$ ^(viii)	Squ
MULTIPLICATION $(D2R/DT2) \times (R^2) = -K$, so $(D2R/DT2)_{1000} \times \overline{(R^2)}_{1000}$ $= -K_{1000} = -K^*$	Increase $\overline{(D2R/DT2)}_{1000}$; Decrease $\overline{(D2R/DT2)}_{1000}$; $(D2R/DT2)_{1000} \in [-9.83, -4.27]$	
MEAN VALUE <i>HE</i> variable: $D2R/DT2$ (acceleration of gravity η/s^2) <i>IBL</i> variable: DR/DT <i>TIME</i> $T_{n-1} = T0 = 0, T_n = 1000$	Prune behavior; $DR/DT)_{1000} \in (0, \infty)$ and $(DR/DT)_{1000} \in [-6830, -965.5]$ have a null intersection; inconsistency detected.	

(a) Trace ↗



(b) Plot ↗

Table 2: (a) Excerpt of a trace showing how constraints are updated for a rocket, after a state was interpolated at time T_n . (b) A plot for a pruned escape behavior.

because behavior splitting creates new branches in the behavior tree and hence can lead to high computational complexity in subsequent simulation refinement. Thus, target interval splitting

(“IS”) is used next, to try raising $\underline{T2}$ and lowering $\overline{T1}$.

Starting with the knowledge that $T2 \in [326, \infty]$, Q3’s implementation of target interval

assumed $T2 \in [326, 434]$, let the simulation settle via a constraining propagation

that settling led to an inconsistency (Table 2 exemplifies detection

$T2 \notin [326, 434]$, so $[326, 434]$ was trimmed from the interval

successfully ruling out $[326, 434]$, target interval

$[326, 651]$. Subsequent to ruling out

out the adjacent interval

$[482, 536]$, s

approaching point values in the limit if the model is specified with real valued initial conditions and model parameters. When the model is specified imprecisely with one or more intervals we are interested in *stability*, which intuitively means that if systemspecifications are weak widths of result intervals will be wider but only to a limited degree. We first deal with convergence, stability and finally termination for step size

4.1 Correctness

Numerical methods estimate answers, and interval methods bound them so that the bounds safely contain the space of possible answers (even if the method may also include extraneous values, which may occur for

- *Excess width.* This is a well-known problem (see e.g. Abelson & Sussman 1979; see also e.g. Abelson & Sussman 1979). The simplest such expression is $(X - X)$. This gives a weaker answer. For example, $X = [1, 2]$, $X - X = [1, 2] - [1, 2] = [0, 2]$ containing subtraction once. Eliminate either

42 Convergence

For numerical simulation, convergence means improving point predictions all the way to full accuracy (Gear 1971). For interval simulations, convergence means narrowing interval enclosures all the way to correct point predictions (Eijgenraam 1981 p. 57; Moore 1979 pp. 96–97; Lohner 1987 p. 261). Both senses apply in the limit as the step size of the simulation approaches zero.

As the step size decreases, the total number of steps increases. The computation of simulations containing a large number of steps, together with round-off error, point arithmetic or the compensating extra width added intentionally, restricts convergence in practice. Nevertheless, simulation algorithms.

Our analysis builds on traditional analysis as Euler's method (Gear 1971; also see (Appendix B) states:

*Let $\mathbf{Y}' = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y})$ be a system of j valued functions of \mathbf{Y} . We consider component $Y_{(j)}$ of vector \mathbf{Y} . $Y_{(j)} \in [l, u]$, and that each F_i in vector \mathbf{F} is $f_i(y)$.*⁷

Let h be the maximum step size, Y_n estimate of \mathbf{Y} at interpolated time t_n , and δY_n represent the amount of uncertainty such that

Given precise initial conditions that $\|\delta Y_n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$. This can be reduced arbitrarily by choosing h starting at time t_0 and propagating the uncertainty forward. It can be shown

particular systems suffers from excess width. For example, as Davis (1987) points out,

$$x \in [1, 2] \text{ implies } \frac{x+1}{x} \in \left[\frac{3}{2}, 2\right]$$

but straightforward calculation (e.g. by hand or in Q3), gives

$$\frac{x+1}{x} \in \frac{[1, 2] + 1}{[1, 2]} = \frac{[2, 3]}{[1, 2]} = \left[\frac{2}{2}, \frac{3}{1}\right] = [1, 3].$$

Thus this example demonstrates convergence despite excess width.

4.2.1 The infinitesimal step size assumption

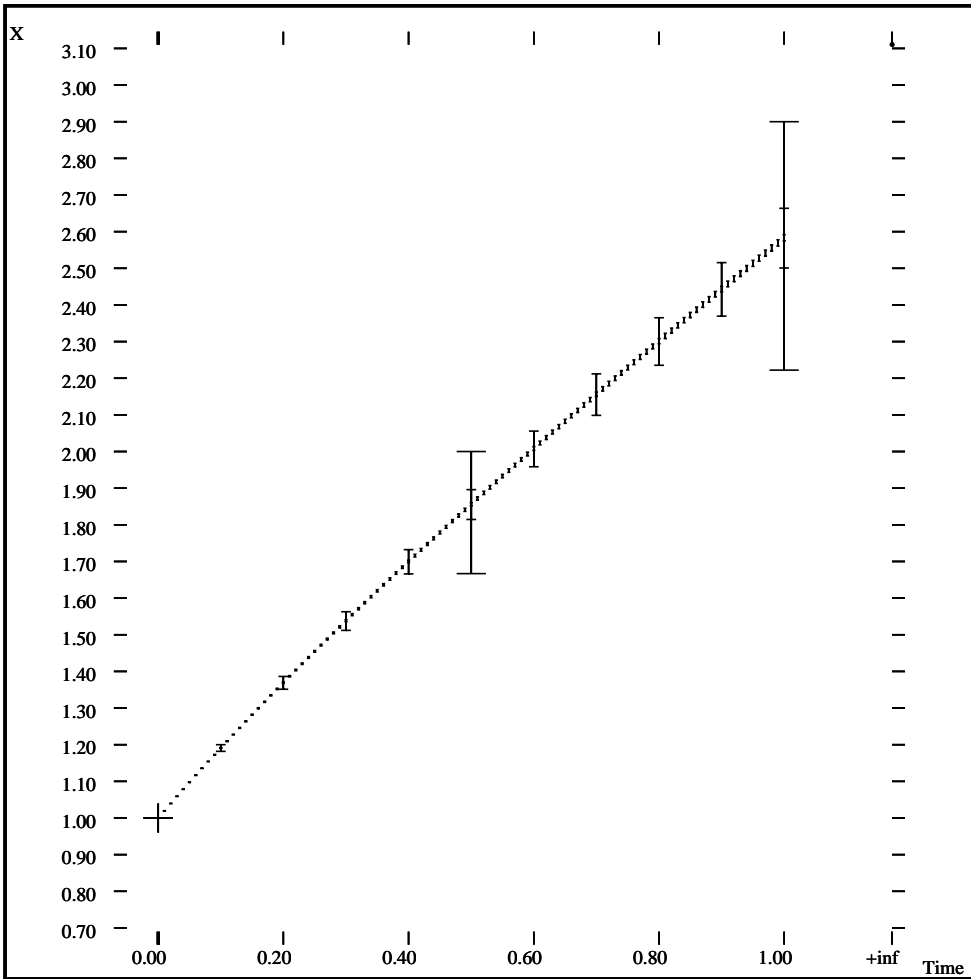
Convergence as a theoretical property (both in numerical simulation and in the present context) assumes that the step size can be made infinitesimally small. We discuss this issue in more detail below.

- If interpolation of each new time point can be done so as to reduce the step size in the region in which convergence is desired, then continued strictly monotonic decrease in the maximum step size is possible.

Example: if the region of convergence is $[0, 1]$ and 0.875 would not be allowed because a gap $(0.75, 1)$ if a strictly monotonic decrease in the maximum step size is required.

- The decrease in maximum step size is strictly monotonic, but the step size is not necessarily smaller than the predefined convergence tolerance.

Example: if the convergence tolerance is 0.1 and the maximum step size is 0.1 , the step size will not decrease further.



$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{x+1}{x}, x(0) = 1$$

Figure 10: Example of convergence even though the interval calculations produce excess width. A simulation for $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{x+1}{x}$ reveals a slightly concave down curve. Before step size refinement there are time points at 0 and ∞ . After refining the simulation by interpolating two new states at time values $t = 0.50$ and $t = 1.00$, uncertainty in x increases rapidly, as shown by the two tall interval delimiters at $t = 0.50$ and $t = 1.00$. After refinement with ten interpolations, the time points are significantly more constrained, as shown by the ten interval delimiters of intervals of times 0.10, 0.20, etc. Refinement with 100 interpolations leads to much more constrained intervals, with the 100 much shorter interval delimiters.

While convergence is universally recognized as an important theoretical property of simulation methods for continuous systems, it should be noted that pragmatically oriented uses of time point interpolation have not had convergence as a goal (Dvorak 1992; Kay 1996; this paper Section 5.3.2). Pragmatically oriented work shows that even one interpolation significantly improved quantitative bounds on model trajectories (Berleant detailed example).

4.3 Stability

In numerical simulation stability is, intuitively, the desirable characteristic that starting values by a fixed amount produces a bounded change in the solution of a well-posed problem and sufficiently small step sizes produce small errors. Gear (1971 p. 56) defines stability more formally as follows:

$$\| \mathbf{y}_n - \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_n \|$$

where \mathbf{y}_0 and $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_0$ are two sets of initial conditions for the numerical simulation after n steps with $\mathbf{y}_0 - \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_0$ a vector generalization of absolute error. The equations contain some positive constant W and

4.3.1 Gap existence and creation

While step size refinement is stable, convergent, and correct, it can only run within a gap. The most common and important case is a gap starting at $T_0 \in [0, 0]$. In particular:

- When the behavior has two qualitative time points $T_0=0$ and $T_1=\infty$ the gap between T_0 and T_1 includes all positive finite values, allowing states to be interpolated at arbitrary time. Step size refinement is unimpeded.
- When $0 < T_1 < \infty$ the first gap is the open interval $(0, T_1)$, and step size refinement is unimpeded for time values in that interval. T_1 may also increase as the simulation becomes more refined, increasing the size of the gap. (This occurred in Table 11.)

While often the requisite gaps will exist prior to step size refinement, gaps may not exist in the intervals in Phase I of the progressive simulation refinement. Gaps may not, due to weak initial conditions. Q3 provides some techniques to address this:

- Use *target interval splitting*. See Appendix 11.
- Use *behavior splitting* to force a particular behavior.
- Use another time step that is more appropriate for the behavior.
- Interpolate using a gap.

Example: step size refinement in Figure 11.

4.3.2 Termination

Constraint propagation is terminated when all nodes have a finite number of transitions or other labels. This is the termination condition.

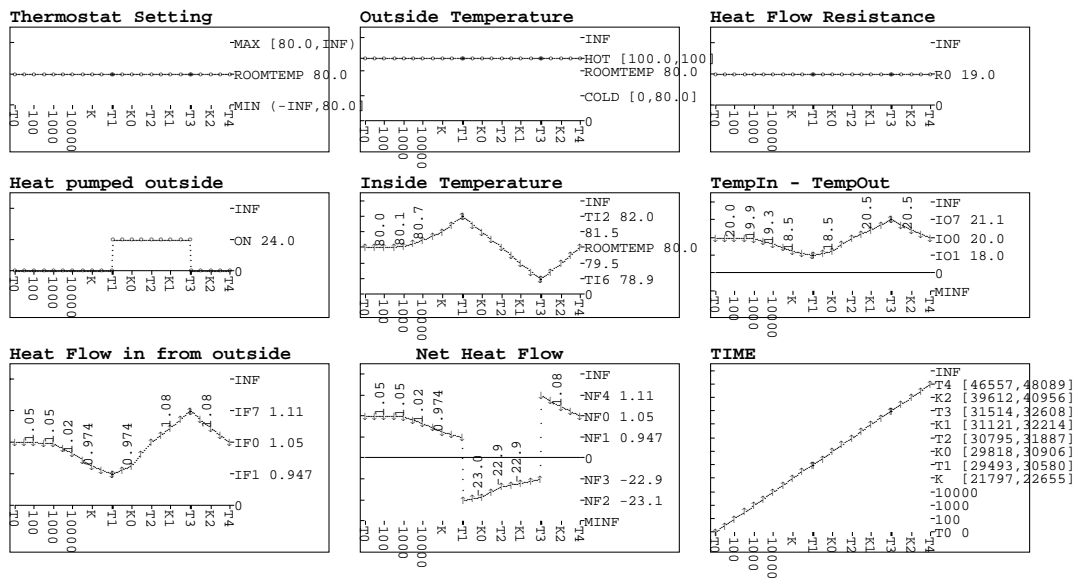


Figure 11: Piecewise continuous simulation of an air conditioned dwelling. The time points in this simulation come from three sources: (1) qualitative simulation, which created time points T0, T1, T2, T3 and T4; (2) interpolations in the gap between T0 and T1, which created time points 1000, and 10000; and (3) interpolations in gaps of model variable Inside Temperature, which created time points K, K0, K1 and K2 at temperatures 79.5 and 81.5. Discontinuities in some of the plots are caused by transitions between models.

5.1 Improved predictions

By making quantitative inferences, semi-quantitative simulation can often prune qualitative behaviors that are plausible from a purely qualitative standpoint. A behavior is pruned when quantitative inference reveals that no interval is possible for some model variable at some time point (as we see in Table 2). Dalle Molle (1989) and Dalle Molle and Edgar (1991) used phase I of Q3 (Q2) for the purpose of two models of chemical engineering systems, the relatively simple but realistic model of two parallel first-order chemical processes, and the less simple adiabatic stirred tank reactor.

Farquhar and Brajnik (1994) used phase I of Q3 in a system called "Physics Compiler". They generated semi-quantitative models for a hydroelectric power plant. They were able to model and simulate a real hydroelectric power plant and its control levels for different water control scenarios.

5.2 Diagnosis

Semi-quantitative simulation can help diagnose faults in systems. Models for which all behaviors are in the model are called "diagnosable". One remaining fault model is the "diagnosable" version (Dvorak 1992).

5.3 Measurement

The concept of interpolation is used in measurement partially because of the power of the

5.3.1

Suppose that
 $t=3375$

	Variable →			Height		
	400	3000	T1	400	3000	T1
No measurement	[6770, 18867]	[906, 17870]	[0, 0]	[2950, 7862]	[10706, 55171]	[10924, ∞)
Weak measurement: Height ∈ [12000, 12500] at time=3375	[6770, 18463]	[906, 14295]	[0, 0]	[2950, 4558]	[10706, 12314]	[12025, ∞)
Strong measurement: Height=12000 at time=3375	[6770, 18293]	[906, 13844]	[0, 0]	[2950, 4058]	[10706, 11814]	[12025, ∞)

	Variable →		
	400	3000	T1
No measurement	[-4.59, -1.97]	[-1.37, -0.105]	[-1.34, 0)
Weak measurement: Height ∈ [12000, 12500] at time=3375	[-4.59, -3.34]	[-1.37, -1.14]	[-1.18, 0)
Strong measurement: Height=12000 at time=3375	[-4.59, -3.67]	[-1.37, -1.2]	[-1.18, 0)

Table 3: Effects of different measurement strengths on predictions for Velocity, Height, and Acceleration of the rocket, at time points 400, 3000, and T1. The intervals for the “no measurement” condition are the same as in Figure 5. The effects of interpolating a state with a measurement condition are shown in the middle rows. A strong measurement introduces the last rows. Notice how predicted intervals tend to narrow as stronger measurements introduce stronger quantitative information into the simulation.

The interpolation method of measurement interpretation contrasts with DeCoste's DATMI system (1991) and its precursor ATMI (Forbus 1986). A significant difference is that DATMI abstracts measurements into qualitative categories before using them whereas MIMIC and Q3 use the measured quantitative information. Hence DATMI loses quantitative information retained by MIMIC and Q3.

DATMI is intended for handling large numbers of measurements. The unmodified system is unwieldy for large numbers of measurements, but can be modified to circumvent this by propagating forward but not backward in time, and propagating forward only. This was the approach taken by MIMIC.

5.4 Bounding the probabilities of qualitative behaviors

Qualitative simulation alone can find all possible behaviors of a system but not their probabilities. Adding quantitative information can help. Q3 was part of a system that investigated the qualitative behaviors of a fault tolerant system (Berleant 1991). Probability density functions (pdfs) were used instead of intervals to describe the uncertainty of the variables. Pdfs are more informative than intervals. An interval represents a range of values, but a pdf is zero beyond the interval endpoints, and has a maximum value within the interval. The pdfs were first discretized into bins within the interval. Thus problems that were solved using intervals and solved more efficiently using pdfs. The discrete pdfs were used to bound the probabilities of the qualitative behaviors.

NSIM (Kay and Kuipers 1993) and SQSIM (Kay 1996) were developed in part to alleviate the wide bounds that Q3's predecessor Q2 often infers. While NSIM sometimes provides better bounds than Q2 (Kay and Kuipers 1993; Kuipers 1994), sometimes NSIM's results are poorer than Q2's result which led to SQSIM which combines features of both NSIM and Q2. Kay (1996) describes SQSIM in detail but no comparison of its inferential ability to that of Q3 exists.

6.2 Numerical work

Forbus & Falkenhainer (1990, 1992) combined numerical and qualitative simulations in a (SIMulator GENeration) system building on qualitative process theory (Forbus) plays notable advantages.

1. Use of qualitatively inferred model transitions (e.g. when water starts boiling and boiling commences) enabling automating simulations.
2. Causal ordering applied to qualitative models.

Limitations of SIMGEN include (1) the requirement for precise numerical information to produce approximate outputs and often for numerical information. While SIMGEN used qualitative information (Forbus 1991) used numerical information as well as qualitative information.

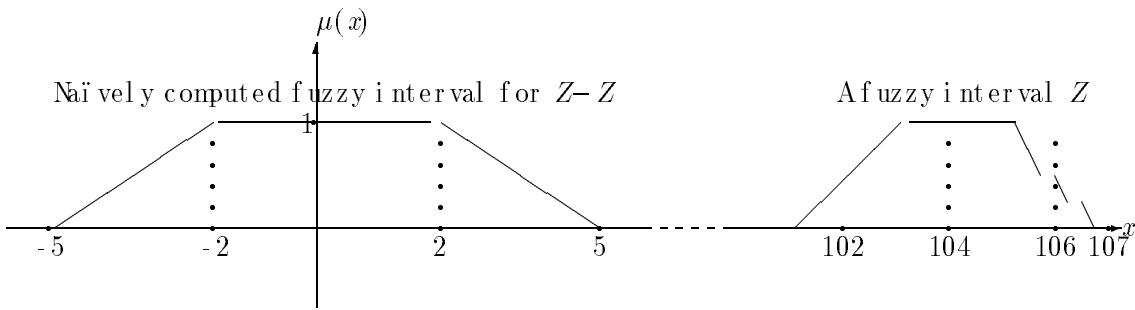


Figure 12: Fuzzy intervals. Sloping line segments indicate fuzzy regions. The lower the value of membership function $\mu(x)$, the less the degree of membership for x in the fuzzy interval.

6.3.1 As with standard intervals, operations on fuzzy intervals can produce excess width

Figure 12 contains a very simple example of how the excess width problem in calculations on intervals has similar manifestations in calculations on fuzzy intervals. Values of x in the interval $[104, 106]$ are full members of fuzzy interval Z and those in the sloping areas are partial members. Subtraction would give the region of full membership in the interval $[104, 106] - [104, 106] = [-2, 2]$, the region of non-zero membership as $[102, 107]$ and fuzzy edges of constant slope. However, Z is perfectly correlated with itself, so $Z - Z$ has full membership at 0 and zero membership everywhere else. In non-trivial, such situations can be arbitrarily complex.

Considering $\mu(x)$ as an upper bound on membership, the problem of excess width addresses the membership over-estimation in the results containing excess width. Correlated fuzzy simulation is a more accurate method, but at the high cost of assuming all correlations. In the worst case of Monte Carlo simulation, the cost is high. Fuzzy simulation is a more accurate method, but at the high cost of assuming all correlations.

- *From interval simulation:* the guarantee that the trajectory of any real system conforming to an incompletely specified model is enclosed by one of the predicted semi-quantitative behavior descriptions.
- *From interval simulation:* $h \rightarrow 0$ stability.
- *From interval simulation:* convergence as uncertainty in the quantitative specification and maximum step size, both approach zero.
- *From qualitative and interval representations:* the ability to express and reason about behavior from partial knowledge.

The capabilities of Q3 rely mostly on the following.

- *Step size refinement,* for adaptive reduction in step size by inserting intermediate time points into a predicted behavior.
- *Propagation of interval labels* in constraint networks.

Examples of graphical output from Q3 were presented in the previous section, involving the domains of prediction, diagnosis, and the capabilities of qualitative behavior.

The significance of Q3 is demonstrated because Q3 demonstrates the ability to handle quantitative behavior.

nen

Target Interval Splitting (TIS): Outline

- GIVEN:** • $Y = X - X$ and
 $X \in [0, 1]$
- THEREFORE:** • $Y \in [-1, 1]$ by constraint propagation (shown in this Figure).
- OBJECTIVE:** • Narrow Y (the target) further, by testing and
 ruling out pieces of its current interval as in Figure 14.

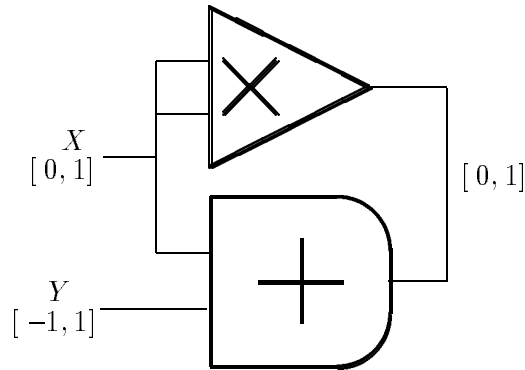


Figure 13: A constraint network for the equation $Y = X - X$. Given $X \in [0, 1]$, constraint propagation concludes $Y \in [-1, 1]$. This conclusion is correct, but excessively weak, and is strengthened in Figure 14.

an equation $a \text{ op } b = c$. Constraints over more than three quantities
in the mean value constraint, Section
Transformation

TIS tests lowbounds...		
Iteration	Interval (s)	Reason
1	$Y \in [-1, 1]$	constraint propagation
	$[-1, 0] \quad [0, 1]$	Split and test
2	$[-1, -0.5] \quad [-0.5, 1]$	Re-split and test
	X	Rule out
	$[-0.5, 1]$	Narrowed interval
3	$[-0.5, +0.25] \quad [+0.25, 1]$	Split and test
4	$[-0.5, -0.125] \quad [-0.125, 1]$	Re-split and test
5	$[-0.5, -0.3125] \quad [-0.3125, 1]$	Re-split and test
	X	Rule out
	$[-0.3125, 1]$	Narrowed interval
6	$[-0.3125, +0.3438] \quad [+0.3438, 1]$	Split and test
7	$[-0.3125, +0.0158] \quad [+0.0158, 1]$	Split and test
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	$[-0.25 - \epsilon_1, 1]$	Conclude
...then high bounds		
N	$[-0.25 - \epsilon_1, 1]$	Given
.	$[-0.25 - \epsilon_1, +0.375 - \frac{\epsilon_1}{2}] \quad [+0.375 - \frac{\epsilon_1}{2}, 1]$	Split and test
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	$[-0.25 - \epsilon_1, 0 + \epsilon_2]$	Conclude

Figure 14: **Target interval splitting narrows a target interval by ruling out pieces**. The constraint network for $Y = X - X$ was shown in Figure 13. Target interval splitting tests the lower half of a target interval, $Y \in [-1, 1]$ in this example, by setting propagating. If the network settles successfully (i.e. has a solution), $[-1, -0.5]$ in this case, the lower eighth if necessary, etc. If the network has no solution. That sub-interval is then tested for the lowest quarter, $Y \in [-1, -0.5]$, was for the *highest* half, quarter above. For $Y = X$ reaching, $[-1, -0.5]$ ϵ .

Proof: The proof has similarities with standard proofs of Euler's method (Gear 1971, Gear and Soper 1976) and is also influenced by Moore (1979).

Y_n

1. The inference method us

This and equation (12) justify

$$u(Y_n) \leq u(Y_{n-1}) + hLu(Y_{n-1} \cup (Y_{n-1} + hF(M))).$$

7. Since F is Lipschitz and a natural interval extension, $F(M)$ is bounded and the absolute value of an interval is the maximum of its endpoints.

Theorem 1 Let $\mathbf{Y}' = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y})$ be a system of first order differential equations, where \mathbf{F} is a vector of interval valued functions of \mathbf{Y} . We consider some bounded subset $[lo, hi]$ of the reals such that for each component $Y_{(j)}$ of vector \mathbf{Y} , $Y_{(j)}(t) \subseteq [lo, hi]$. We assume that $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{Y})$ is defined when each $Y_{(j)} \subseteq [lo, hi]$, and that each F_i in vector \mathbf{F} is the natural interval extension of a real rational function f_i .⁷

Let h be the maximum step size, let $\|\mathbf{Y}_{t \Rightarrow b}\|$ represent the amount of uncertainty in the simulated estimate of \mathbf{Y} at interpolated time point $t = b$ as measured by its vector norm⁸, and let $\|\mathbf{Y}_0\|$ represent the amount of uncertainty in the initial conditions. Then there are constants K_1 and K_2 such that

$$\|\mathbf{Y}_{t \Rightarrow b}\| \leq K_1 \|\mathbf{Y}_0\| + K_2 h.$$

1. *Higher order systems:* The proof of Lemma 1 extends to higher order systems as a system of first order systems. Each individual

1. $E_{i\text{ over }B\text{ wel }ope}$ and $E_{\text{upper}B\text{ wel }ope}$ differ only in the values of some constants. Then, $G_{i\text{ over }B\text{ wel }ope} \equiv G_{\text{upper}B\text{ wel }ope}$. Call this function G .

Consider each constant c_i whose value differs between $E_{i\text{ over }B\text{ wel }ope}$ the lower of the values and \overline{c}_i the higher one. instead of \underline{c}_i or \overline{c}_i . B.

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