

Toward an integrative software infrastructure for water management in the Smarter Planet

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Abstract

Building the Smarter Planet requires creating an Intelligent Infrastructure that integrates technology with business, government, and the everyday life of the citizens of earth, to maximize the use of scarce resources, balance human use and ecosystem preservation, reduce costs, and improve quality of life. One of the keystones of this Intelligent Infrastructure is an Integrative Modeling Framework (IMF), a platform to enable the integration by non-expert users of diverse, sensor-based data, related business data, and complex, cross-disciplinary mathematical modeling, in support of planning, monitoring, management, reporting, and decision support applications. We describe a research prototype that applies the Mashup Automation with Runtime Invocation & Orchestration (MARIO) technology from IBM Research to this problem in a specific application area in water management: simulating stream discharges using compositions of hydrologic process submodels derived from monolithic stream discharge simulators. We show how MARIO's semantic tagging and model composition engine enable us to meet three critical challenges of an IMF: 1) generating valid chain(s) or compositions of model components, given a definition of starting and ending states ; 2) allowing all scientifically valid compositions of components; and 3) disallowing compositions that are scientifically invalid, i.e., that combine model components whose basic assumptions about quantities like soil architectures or evaporation schemes conflict. While we focus here on water management , the technology that we describe is readily generalizable to other Intelligent Infrastructure applications, e.g., cities, transportation, and utilities.

Introduction

Building the Smarter Planet requires creating an Intelligent Infrastructure that integrates technology with business, government, and the everyday life of the citizens of earth, to maximize the use of scarce resources, balance human use and ecosystem preservation, reduce costs, and improve quality of life. Bringing intelligence to these interactions requires an unprecedented degree of integration of heterogeneous data, analytics and simulations. One of the keystones of this Intelligent Infrastructure is therefore an Integrative Modeling Framework (IMF), an infrastructure platform to enable the integration by non-expert users of diverse, sensor-based data, related business data, and complex, cross-disciplinary mathematical modeling, in support of planning, monitoring, management, reporting,

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and decision support applications. For example, critical to the technology foundation for the development and operation of Smart Cities is the integration of a wide variety and volume of data and the application of a correspondingly wide variety of analytics and simulations to interpret this data, make predictions based on it, and optimize business processes that act on it.[1] In the domain of water management, policy makers and other stakeholders need to assess, come to consensus, and act on land-use decisions that balance human use and ecosystem preservation/restoration. These decisions require input from models from a wide variety of environmental sectors, including water balance, water quality, carbon balance, crop production, and proxies for biodiversity.[2] But model codes are typically written in a monolithic fashion which does not support building large integrated models out of a set of model components. Furthermore, in the relatively rare case where codes are modularized, a common framework is lacking which can provide a consistent interface for passing data, as well as a language in which to express rules about which components may validly be integrated.

A number of approaches have been developed for integration of data sources and/or services, such as Service-Oriented Architecture (SOA), Enterprise Service Bus (ESB), Service Component Architecture (SCA) and Extract, Transform, Load (ETL). All of these technologies are relevant to an integrative modeling framework and address important needs, providing execution environments, connectivity, service catalogs, interface contracts, and data transformation. In this paper we present a new approach to describing components that makes it possible to exclude invalid compositions of model components based not just on interface contracts but also on semantic constraints. As illustrated in Figure 1, our approach complements these technologies and can be best applied in combination with all or some of them.

In this work, we describe a research prototype that applies IBM research technology to the problem of model integration in a specific application area: simulating stream discharges. We choose this application area because we have a deep understanding of the needs and issues involved in stream discharge simulation, and therefore the research technology applied to it will be challenged and stretched by its requirements. Nevertheless, the technology that we describe is readily generalizable to other Intelligent Infrastructure applications, e.g., cities, transportation, and utilities.

The reference software architecture we propose for an Intelligent Infrastructure is shown in Figure 1, a variation on that of [3]. A Service-Oriented Architecture, it integrates (near-) real-time sensor data, analytics, and controls with enterprise data, applications, analytics, modeling/simulation, and user interfaces/visualization. It comprises three Enterprise Service Buses, specialized for (from bottom to top): 1) Sensor Level: Event/Data Capture, Analytics, Pattern Recognition, Control; 2) Operational Level: Business Processes, Workflow, Modeling, Contingencies and Analytics; and 3) Enterprise Level: Visualization, Simulation, Process Optimization, Planning, Deep Insight. An orange box in the upper right highlights the portion of the architecture on which this paper focuses: managing model components and the metadata and rules that govern their composition into workflows or chains of model components that comprise simulations. To our knowledge, this functionality is lacking in existing modeling frameworks but it is critical for an Intelligent Infrastructure IMF, particularly one whose target users are not expert modelers.

In the specific area of estimating streamflow, there are a variety of well-respected models, each with different assumptions about such concepts as soil architecture and how best to correct for error in estimating effective precipitation. We are developing a flexible, extensible modeling framework to enable non-expert modelers to define and run multi-step analytic simulations for river basin management, based on the Mashup Automation with Runtime Invocation & Orchestration (MARIO) project from IBM Research. In this framework, we divide monolithic models into atomic components with clearly defined semantics encoded via rich metadata representation. Once models and their semantics and composition rules have been registered with the system by their authors or other experts, non-expert users may construct simulations as workflows of these atomic model components. A model composition engine enforces rules/constraints for composing model components into simulations, to avoid the creation of Frankenmodels, models that execute but produce scientifically invalid results.

This paper is organized as follows. We begin in the Motivation section by describing the basic concepts of hydrology and motivating the need for an IMF in that field. Next we describe the Framework for Understanding Structural Errors (FUSE)[4], a system in which four parent stream discharge models have been componentized, allowing the components to be assembled into new models. We view this work both as a case study for the need for an IMF in hydrology (Case Study: FUSE section), and as an excellent source of model components for our work. Next, we summarize the underlying MARIO technology (MARIO: A New Approach to Model Integration) and describe how we defined MARIO-ready composable components based on FUSE, taking advantage of MARIO's metadata capabilities to represent necessary constraints on compositions of model components (Applying MARIO to FUSE). Next we describe the results of this application (Results). The Discussion section highlights what we see as the primary advantages of our approach, and describes our plans for further research. The Conclusion summarizes the contributions of the paper.

Motivation

In order to motivate the need for an IMF in the hydrology field, we must first introduce some hydrology basics.

A Hydrology Primer

Hydrology is the science that encompasses the occurrence, distribution, movement and properties of water and the relationship of water with environmental and human systems. The hydrologic cycle is a continuous process where water is evaporated and transported from the earth's surface to the atmosphere and back to the land and oceans. Within the hydrologic cycle, water is subjected to physical, chemical and biological processes as it travels various paths through the atmosphere and the earth's surface. Figure 2 illustrates some of the processes and storage reservoirs in the hydrologic cycle, including the principle that energy, via solar radiation, drives the cycling of water between the earth's surface and the atmosphere.

Current, critical issues in hydrology include determining how fresh water distribution over and through and on the land surface may be impacted as a result of climate change and how the cycling of water

influences patterns of ecosystem carbon and nutrient cycling. Given the intensive nature of human inter-relationships with the hydrologic cycle, hydrologists and water resources managers are concerned with adapting water management strategies to variations in the hydrologic cycle, induced by natural or anthropogenic changes in land cover and climate.

Hydrologic modeling, which encompasses the movement and storage of water through the hydrologic cycle, can be a powerful tool for exploring issues of interest to hydrologists and water managers. In this work, we are narrowing the scope to consider models whose primary function is to simulate stream flows, or discharges, in response to precipitation events (e.g. rain storm or snow melt events), although we believe our approach to be generally applicable, both to wider hydrologic modeling issues and to other Intelligent Infrastructure domains. Stream discharge simulations are used to understand and make predictions concerning water supply availability, including support for water banking and groundwater recharge, flood events, hydroelectric power generation, and ecosystem interactions, such as relationships between fish survival and flow magnitude and timing.

Approaches for modeling stream discharge vary widely in terms of how the models conceptually and mathematically represent the physical processes that govern the distribution and movement of water over and through the land surface. The models are typically applied over a watershed or basins that can range in size from a few to millions of square kilometers. Simulations are run over time scales that range from a matter of minutes to months to years. A typical model development exercise involves conceptualization of the hydrologic system, definition of the relevant model equations, writing computer codes, assembly of input information, and calibration of model tuning parameters against observed discharges. The calibrated models are used to forecast stream discharges under a variety of climatic or land cover conditions.

The models usually operate by separating precipitation entering the land surface into various fluxes, such as (1) water that flows on or under the land surface and eventually into a stream channel, (2) water that evaporates or transpires from the land surface or through vegetation into the atmosphere, and (3) water that percolates into the underlying groundwater. Model operation also usually involves dividing the physical system into a number of compartments. Water can be stored within compartments. Water fluxes describe the movement of water in, out, and between compartments.

Water balance equations are written for each compartment, as in

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \sum q_{in} - \sum q_{out}$$

where dS/dt is the time rate of change of storage, S , of water in a compartment, q_{in} represents the fluxes of water entering a compartment, and q_{out} represents the fluxes leaving a compartment. The flux terms typically consist of empirically-derived equations that depend on state variables such as storage and temperature and empirical parameters. The empirical parameters are usually derived by calibrating the model against stream discharge observations. Water balance equations typically must be solved using numerical approximations. A typical model may involve several, coupled water balance equations.

Figure 3 a) shows an example of a model that divides the soil between the land surface and a near-surface groundwater aquifer into two layers, each with its own water balance equation.

There are many sources of uncertainty involved in the development of stream discharge models, including errors in the conceptualization of the system. One promising approach to contending with this uncertainty is to use an ensemble of models to make predictions of streamflows, also known as multi-modeling. Multi-modeling is attractive in that the ensemble mean of all model outputs combines the strengths of each model, generating an output that is more robust than a single model,. Combining model outputs could be as simple as averaging the stream discharges estimated by each model or could incorporate error estimates obtained during model calibration, as in

$$F = \sum w_k f_k$$

where F is the ensemble mean stream discharge, f_k is the result of k th model, and w_k is the weight of the k th model, related to model's correlation with observations during calibration.

Stream discharge codes, and indeed codes used for other aspects of water management, can be built in a modular fashion. Code modules can be written for each water balance equation and flux equation, with the appropriate data being passed between each module. If codes are written in a modular format and data structures are consistent, modules can be swapped in and out of the models and modules representing different processes can be added. For example, the system represented in Figure 3 a) does not include a conceptual representation of canopy interception storage (the part of precipitation that is captured and held by vegetation). An appropriate canopy interception module would have atmospheric precipitation as input and would, in principle, output precipitation onto the soil surface and into the upper soil water balance equation.

Historically, stream discharge model development has occurred through different groups in academic institutions and government agencies, often with little communication among the groups. As a result, many models have been developed, each with its strength and weaknesses. In addition, codes have often been written in a monolithic fashion, and, in the case where codes are modularized, code structures for passing data are not consistent from model to model. This practice has led to several inefficiencies, including the need to customize input data to suit each model and to write specialized code to allow the models or pieces of the models to pass data among each other.

The Need for an Integrative Modeling Framework

To facilitate modeling in the hydrology community and the exchange of modeling ideas and best practices, it is necessary to provide a flexible, extensible modeling framework infrastructure for defining and running multi-step analytic simulations, and integrating them with real-time sensor data. This approach requires the division of extant (typically monolithic) discipline-specific models into atomic model components. Cross-disciplinary simulations may then be expressed as workflows specified as chains or *compositions* of components. Unlike other existing modeling frameworks, our framework is intended to support non-expert modelers. Since models can be built on different or even conflicting assumptions and definitions of key terms, not all compositions of components represent scientifically valid simulations. It is critical not to allow formation of Frankenmodels, compositions of incompatible

components that produce scientifically invalid simulations. This requires a rich metadata specification for representing model semantics and expressing rules/constraints for combining model components. Additional requirements are a software environment for modeling framework development, and an adapter strategy for non-Java code (e.g., FORTRAN, Python) that still enables efficient simulation runs, including parallelization of component execution.

An IMF would allow for modules to be written to a published interface and then to be re-assembled to form completely new models, as long as the structures for passing data in and out of the models were consistent. Initially this approach would involve extracting component modules from the various parent stream discharge codes, but we expect that soon model developers will write directly to the interface. This approach would potentially enhance the robustness of multi-modeling efforts.

Several groups have attempted to develop IMFs for hydrologic modeling. Leavesley et al. [5] developed the Unix-based Modular Modeling System (MMS) to support development of hydrologic process algorithms and the integration of user-selected sets of algorithms into operational hydrologic models. Designed to facilitate integration of existing modelling systems, the OpenMI project focuses on defining a standardized interface to pass data among models and model components.[6] More recently, the Consortium of Universities for the Advancement of Hydrologic Science, Inc. (CUAHSI) is launching an effort towards the development of a Community Hydrologic Modeling Platform (CHyMP). [7] The general thrust of CHyMP is to promote a community-based effort to develop modular components of the hydrologic cycle that can be integrated into useful models and modeling and used in advanced hydrologic research. Clark et al. have developed the Framework for Understanding Structural Errors (FUSE)[4], which focuses primarily on multi-modeling. In this work, the authors componentized four parent stream discharge models and manually combined the components into new models. The following section explains the FUSE methodology.

Case Study: FUSE

In Clark et al.'s FUSE code, individual flux equations are modularized, rather than linking existing sub-models, as is done in the MMS effort. In FUSE, modeling options are drawn from four parent rainfall-runoff models (Figure 3 b-e), denoted here as the PRMS, Sacramento, TOPMODEL, and ARNO/VIC models (see [4] for the full name and citations for each model). The parent models include several processes that interact with the subsurface, such as vegetation storage, but for simplicity, only fluxes within the subsurface are considered. In each model, the subsurface is divided into two layers: the unsaturated layer, or upper soil layer (above the water table), and the saturated layer, or lower soil layer (below the water table). Each parent model describes the architecture of the upper and lower soil layer and equations for simulating fluxes: evaporation, surface runoff, percolation of water between soil layers, interflow, and base flow. The layer architecture refers to the subdivision of the water storage into from one to three compartments. The equations for simulating fluxes for a given process vary in terms of the algebraic equations and the parameters and state variables needed to calculate the fluxes.

The parent models are simplified somewhat to allow for as many processes as possible to be modularized and interchangeable and incorporated into new models that are re-assembled from the

resulting modules. We used a more recent version of the FUSE code than described in Clark et al., which includes several more model building choices. The model building options are given in Table 1. The number of possible models built by simply choosing one option for each calculation in Table 1 exceeds 250,000. However, the vast majority of model decisions, e.g., selection of flux equations, are tied to preliminary decisions such as the choice of soil layer architecture. When model compositions are removed that involve incompatible model components, 316 valid models can be constructed. Note that in FUSE, scientifically invalid compositions are removed manually using programming constructs such as loops and CASE statements, while in our IMF these compatibility constraints, once registered, are automatically enforced by the framework.

The FUSE code is written in FORTRAN. The code is written in a modularized fashion, and data structures are defined to make the addition of more sub-models relatively straightforward and facilitate communication between sub-models. User input files determine the model decisions. FORTRAN CASE statements are used to establish which equations are to be evaluated in the subroutines that calculate model fluxes and related quantities, given the user's model building decisions. Since the solution of the resulting nonlinear ordinary differential equations is not a trivial task, a large portion of the FUSE code is dedicated to the mathematics required to solve the water balance equations for the state variables. The FUSE code also is set up to allow either the user to input values of the model parameters or to have the code estimate the model parameters internally, based on matching simulated and observed stream discharges.

We build on FUSE in the present paper to show how those components could be assembled into integrated workflows of components, or *model compositions*, using a more flexible and powerful declarative approach that manages both syntactic and semantic heterogeneity. The next section describes the MARIO project, which forms the basis of our integrated system.

MARIO: A New Approach to Model Integration

MARIO [8], developed at IBM Research, is an experimental software tool implementing goal-driven, automated assembly of cross-platform [9], flow-based applications (see Figure 4). A flow-based application is an assembly of software components – software modules, web services, etc. – that are interconnected via a dataflow and assembled to perform some information processing task. MARIO's ability to interpret component semantic descriptions, and to assemble from them large numbers of flow-based applications, positions it well as a foundational element of an IMF.

To assemble the individual components into an interconnected application, MARIO requires two things: 1) semantic descriptions of the component's inputs, outputs, and parameters, and 2) a semantic description of the goal to be achieved by the application. Component developers provide the component descriptions, MARIO users (e.g., hydrologists) express their processing goals, and MARIO assembles the flows based on that information.

Components in MARIO are described using a light-weight semantic tagging approach formal enough to support automated assembly yet simple enough to be authored by most developers.⁵ Component developers annotate each component's inputs and outputs with tags, using an XML representation. Examples (**Figure 7**) are described in detail in the next section. The tags describe syntax and semantics of the input or output, including the type of information received or sent, formatting of the data, measurement units, processing or analysis applied to obtain the data, etc. Input descriptions are used to specify assembly constraints. In a valid composition, every tag specified in the description of an input must be present directly or indirectly in the description of the output connected to that input.

MARIO users employ many of the same tags to express processing goals. Using MARIO's faceted interface, shown in Figure 6, a hydrologist might browse among various facets of information, in much the same way he might shop for shoes online, picking the tags that best describe the desired processing outcome. He could select tags such as **ObservedPrecipitation**, **RoutedRunoff**, **GraphView**; MARIO then presents a plan for satisfying that goal—a **GraphView** of a multi-step composition capable of producing **RoutedRunoff**, calculated using **ObservedPrecipitation** as input. The user can examine the composition and can either deploy it or specify additional constraints by selecting additional tags such as **MultiplicativeRainErrorCalculation** until both MARIO's interpretation of the goal and its selected composition meet the user's preferences.

For a given processing goal MARIO identifies combinations of components that satisfy assembly constraints and jointly produce outputs matching goal tags, doing so by applying a special-purpose, optimized planning algorithm. If the goal is ambiguous MARIO selects the top-ranked composition, with ranking based on the total cost and quality of each candidate composition.

Tags in MARIO are typically organized into a "tagsonomy" (Figure 7, top) – a simple taxonomic hierarchy of tags. In a MARIO tagsonomy, tags are related to other tags using simple "extends" links with a specific interpretation for component assembly, open to many uses/interpretations by the component developer.

Composition rules are defined as a combination of match rules and propagation rules. Tags are either matched directly, as an exact tag name match, or taxonomically, whereby a tag can be matched to any sub-tag. In a direct match, an input tagged with **EffectivePrecipitation** could be matched to any output also tagged with **EffectivePrecipitation**. For a taxonomic match, an input tagged with **SaturationAndSurfaceRunoff** could be matched to an output tagged with any model-specific **SaturationAndSurfaceRunoff**, e.g., ARNO/VIC, PRMS, or TOPMODEL (see Table 1, rows 3-5). Tag propagation, described in [8], is beyond the scope of this paper. MARIO enforces these composition and propagation rules to ensure that all combinations of compositions are explored, that only legitimate

⁵ INQ [10], a predecessor to MARIO, relied on OWL-based component descriptions to encode assembly constraints using rich semantic graphs. Although highly expressive and precise, these descriptions could only be authored and maintained by developers with highly specialized modeling skills. MARIO uses simpler semantic descriptions consisting of textual tags, much like tags used in the Delicious social bookmarking service.[11]

compositions are considered, and that goals for all legitimate compositions can be expressed by the user.

The applications composed by MARIO can be deployed across a wide variety of computational platforms, including IBM InfoSphere Streams (Streams). Streams, a new software platform for distributed computing based on a highly scalable stream processing programming model, [12] supports high-performance processing of large data volumes. The Streams platform achieves scalability by distributing stream processing across potentially large clusters of machines, with no special user coding needed to schedule distributed processing or to establish communication interconnectivity. Using Streams as a target environment, applications composed and deployed by MARIO can easily be scaled across a large number of processors.

Streams is programmed using the SPADE programming language [13], a specialized language for stream processing. The parts of a MARIO-assembled composition that are deployed to Streams are programmed in SPADE; each MARIO SPADE component contains a fragment of SPADE code in its binding. In this case, a flux calculation may be implemented in SPADE, or a FORTRAN module implementing it may be called from SPADE. When MARIO assembles SPADE components the MARIO SPADE backend builds a SPADE program from the fragments, compiles it and deploys it to the Streams runtime, connecting it to data sources and processing the data as a distributed, parallel-processed stream processing application. While in this paper we focus on applying MARIO to hydrology modeling, in the Discussion section we preview our next step: using MARIO to assemble SPADE applications built of hydrology-specific operators, and deploying these applications to the InfoSphere Streams platform for distributed, scalable execution.

Applying MARIO to FUSE

As described above, the purpose of the models comprising FUSE is to estimate stream discharge given observed precipitation. This is done by calculating key elements of the water cycle, or fluxes: evaporation, surface runoff, percolation of water between soil layers, interflow, and base flow, and the effect of these fluxes on the change of the state of water in the soil. FUSE incorporates a variety of flux calculations from the four parent models, which are based on different soil architectures (Figure 3) and a variety of different assumptions that affect calculations of key concepts like surface runoff, evaporation and percolation (Table 1). To avoid producing Frankenmodels, our IMF must address three major challenges. First, given a definition of starting and ending states (represented as input and output datatypes), the framework must generate chain(s) or composition(s) of model components that accept the desired input data and produce the desired output data. Secondly, these chains must allow all compositions of components that are scientifically valid. And thirdly, the IMF must disallow compositions that are scientifically invalid, i.e., compositions that combine model components whose assumptions about, e.g., upper and lower soil layer architectures, conflict. In the following sections we describe how we defined MARIO-ready composable components based on FUSE, and how we took advantage of MARIO's metadata capabilities to represent necessary constraints among FUSE components.

Defining composable components from FUSE

As shown in Table 1, the FUSE engine consists of several FORTRAN modules, each of which is responsible for performing a particular flux calculation. Within each module, FORTRAN CASE statements select among the various model configuration options (upper/lower soil architecture, soil evaporation scheme, percolation scheme, etc.), applying the formula appropriate to the configured model. For example, there are three options for the flux calculation for saturation and surface runoff, performing computations similar to those performed under the ARNO/VIC, PRMS, and TOPMODEL models, respectively. As Table 1, rows 3-5 indicate, they all take effective precipitation as input and emit an estimation of saturated area and surface runoff as outputs, but the differences among their assumed soil architectures require different state variable inputs representing water storage in the upper soil layer.

In MARIO each of the FUSE sub-modules is treated as a separate, composable component, each performing a single, model-specific flux computation. In transforming FUSE sub-modules to MARIO components, each numbered row of Table 1 corresponds to a component in MARIO, each of the **Inputs** to a component input, and each of the **Outputs** to an output.

Figure 5 contains a high-level view of the flow of data at execution among these components. The MARIO FUSE components are depicted as stacks of components, each representing the variant used for a specific model configuration option as described in Table 1, second column. When a user conveys a model configuration to MARIO, MARIO assembles at most one component from each stack, linking outputs of some to inputs of others. Thus, each configured model consists only of the formulae needed for that model, eliminating the need for runtime decision logic.

As mentioned above, FUSE's core flux calculations are controlled by collections of many FORTRAN CASE statements and FOR loops. When a new soil architecture, flux computation, or other modeling characteristic is added, changes must be made throughout the FORTRAN code, increasing code complexity and the likelihood of incorrect operation. Converting these modules to composable components and relying on MARIO's rigorous application of composition rules, all possible model compositions are explored, guided by simple expressions of flux dependencies, preventing the creation of Frankenmodels.

Semantic Tagging of FUSE components

To enable automated model composition, each component is annotated with tags, light-weight semantic descriptions of the component's inputs, outputs, and configuration parameters, as shown in Figure 7 and described in an earlier section (MARIO: A New Approach to Model Integration).

Figure 7 (top) includes a fragment of this application's tagsonomy, beginning at the top with tags corresponding to the 9 top-level model configuration options (e.g., *RainfallMeasurementFrequency*). The descendant tags extending *UpperLayerSoilArchitecture* represent the various upper layer architecture choices shown in Figure 3; for example, the *UpperLayerDividedIntoTensionStorageAndFreeStorage* tag reflects the Sacramento architecture, while *UpperLayerUndivided* reflects an architecture shared by TOPMODEL and ARNO/VIC.

Component descriptions are expressed in XML. For example, the following fragment describes the **MiscellaneousFluxes_TensionReservoirWithTwoParallelTanks** component (Figure 7):

```
<component name="MiscellaneousFluxes_TensionReservoirWithTwoParallelTanks">
  <in name="Input1" tags="PercolationFromUpperToLowerSoilLayers" />
  <in name="Input2" tags="LowerLayerArchSelected TensionReservoirWithTwoParallelTanks" />
  <in name="Input3" tags="UpperLayerArchSelected UpperLayerNotSubdivided" />
  <out name="Output1" tags="OverflowFromLowerLayer" />
  <out name="Output2" tags="OverflowFromTensionStorageToFreeStorage_LowerLayer" />
  <out name="Output3" tags="OverflowFromPrimaryLinearReservoir" />
  <out name="Output4" tags="OverflowFromSecondaryLinearReservoir" />
  <binding type="spade">...</binding>
</component>
```

As indicated in Table 1, row 28, this component computes overflow among various compartments related to the lower soil layer. Here, the input constraint captured as **Input1** is tagging the input with **PercolationFromUpperToLowerSoilLayers**. As indicated in Figure 7 by the gray dotted line, this constraint can be satisfied by matching **Input1** above to the output of the **Percolation...** component, also tagged with **PercolationFromUpperToLowerSoilLayers**. This component's relevance is limited to assemblies where specific lower and upper layer architectures have been selected. These constraints are described in definitions **Input2** and **Input3** above, which express 1) that the respective architecture has been selected (**LowerLayerArchSelected** and **UpperLayerArchSelected**,), and 2) that it matches the specified value (**TensionReservoirWithTwoParallelTanks** and **UpperLayerNotSubdivided**), ie the Sacramento soil architecture (Figure 3 c).

Enforcing Semantic Constraints

MARIO's tagging and composition rules are the mechanism by which Frankenmodels are prohibited and correctly formed models are constructed. In this section we show how MARIO enables our IMF to meet the three aforementioned challenges: 1) generate compositions of model components that accept the desired input data and produce the desired output data; 2) allow all scientifically valid compositions of components; and 3) disallow all scientifically invalid compositions. MARIO uses a combination of match rules and propagation rules to represent semantic constraints. By this means, we whittle down the >250K possible combinations of component choices in Table 1 to the 316 valid compositions.

For example, suppose a user chooses the PRMS soil architecture (see Figure 3 b), which models the upper soil layer as a free storage tank plus two tension storage tanks (recharge and excess). As Table 1 indicates, this architecture selection limits choices in the following components:

- Evaporation from Upper Soil Layer (row 6 or 7 only)
- Evaporation from Lower Soil Layer (row 12 only)
- Miscellaneous fluxes (row 24 only)
- Solve State equations (row 31 only)

MARIO ensures that these components and only these components are selected, given the architecture choice, by associating the tag ***UpperLayerSubdivided*** and its children exclusively to them.

Not evident in Table 1 is a more subtle constraint, represented in FUSE by a FORTRAN if-statement: “do not allow percolation below field capacity if the upper soil layer has multiple tension storage tanks”, namely, the excess and recharge zones. Therefore the choice of PRMS upper soil architecture limits the choice of percolation components to choices 2 and 3. As introduced earlier, parent tags were used in MARIO to express this constraint. For this case, ***UpperLayerUndivided***, a specific type of ***UpperLayerSoilArchitecture***, was classified as being an ***UpperLayerArchitectureSingleTank***. All other upper layer architectures were classified as ***UpperLayerArchitectureMultipleTanks***. To enforce the above constraint on percolation, we explicitly restricted the ***Percolation_WiltPointToSat*** component to be assembled only when the upper layer architecture is one of the children of ***UpperLayerArchitectureSingleTank***. Note that ***UpperLayerUndivided*** is currently the only upper layer architecture defined as ***UpperLayerArchitectureSingleTank***; if a new kind of upper architecture were to be introduced and classified as a single tank architecture, it would automatically be allowed in the assembly with ***Percolation_WiltPointToSat***, with all other combinations still being excluded. This occurs without any additional procedural programming, and without recompilation and/or reinstallation of MARIO.

Results

The culmination of our current work is an interface whereby hydrologist users can interact with MARIO, select among model composition options, examine the resultant assembled flows, refine goals, etc., and where component developers can insert additional components for immediate inclusion in subsequent user requests. When our work is complete (with component descriptions bound to real, running code in FORTRAN, SPADE, C++, etc.), those users could, at any time, submit any assembled flow for deployment and operation and can view result data via a variety of data visualizers.

As currently configured, users can interact with MARIO to do two main things: 1) guide MARIO to construct any of a large number of scientifically valid model compositions by selecting among the FUSE model configuration options, and 2) browse and select combinations of the many available flux and state computations and apply these “sub-models” to precipitation data for visualization and exploration. Since MARIO applies its composition rules to the component semantic descriptions, any selectable combination of tags – complete water models or finer grained flux calculation sub-models – is a valid and deployable composition, assuming that the developer has correctly crafted both the component descriptions and the associated computation code.

A hydrologist’s first view of MARIO for FUSE can be seen in Figure 6a. Here, the user can 1) have MARIO construct total water analysis models (under the **Simulations** tab) or 2) select among the various fluxes and calculations (under the **Exploration** tab).

Model configuration options for **Simulations**, reflected in Figure 6b, are grouped into *facets*, corresponding to the Calculation column of Table 1. Figure 6a (right) shows the top-ranked composition

graph produced when two configuration options have been selected (*UpperLayerUndivided* for the **Upper Soil Layer Architecture** and *PercolationFromFieldCapacityToSaturationArea* for the **Percolation Water Availability** facet). Note that MARIO has automatically assembled a complete, ready-to-deploy simulation, selecting options for each as-yet unspecified category.⁶ The user can deploy this simulation or can continue to refine the goal.

Figure 6c shows the fully elaborated, user-selected goal consisting of one option from each category (left), and the corresponding flow composition assembled for that goal (right). The flow diagram has been annotated to describe each computational component. The description of each has been abbreviated. It is possible to identify which of the 39 flux computation components has been selected by its name, in combination with the model decisions, which are represented in the paired blue and red components. For example, the component for calculation of **Saturation and Surface Runoff** would be component 3 (Table 1), because the selected method is *ARNO_X_VICStyle_SatAreaSurfaceRunoffCalculation*.

As mentioned above, the initial set of model elements and computational components can be extended. As component developers identify new soil architectures and/or new ways to calculate fluxes, they register these new elements with MARIO; hydrologists can employ the new options and components immediately. Other analytic toolkits can be incorporated, including those available with InfoSphere Streams, to apply, e.g., comparative analytics to collections of models. Also, additional data sources can be added, such as web-accessible datasets and even live streaming water sensors. Given a scalable model runtime environment such as InfoSphere Streams, many analyses across multiple, high volume data sources provide an environment for high performance water data analysis and exploration.

Discussion

In this paper we have shown how the semantic tagging and model composition engine of the MARIO project enable us to meet three critical challenges of an IMF: 1) generating valid chain(s) or compositions of model components, given a definition of starting and ending states ; 2) allowing all scientifically valid compositions of components; and 3) disallowing compositions that are scientifically invalid, i.e., that combine model components whose basic assumptions about quantities like soil architectures or evaporation schemes conflict. The advantages of this system when compared to other model framework systems mentioned in the Motivation section are many. A declarative approach to constraint specification frees users from the error-prone and tedious practice of manually programming constraints in FORTRAN via nested loops and CASE statements. The tagsonomy allows the expression and enforcement of constraints that are higher level than simple type-checking of inputs and outputs of model components. Since constraint specification is declarative, it is relatively easy to extend the system with new components written (or wrapped) to the MARIO/SPADE interface specification—whether components that compute the same fluxes in a new way, or components that compute new

⁶ The complete graph was generated to satisfy *FullModelResultSet*, and implicit goal element for **Simulations**. This tag represents the generation of all result data output by each FUSE simulation.

fluxes. MARIO's flow generation and automatic composition enable multiple different compositions of a set of components to be generated and run---invaluable in a multi-model, ensemble-based modeling approach. Unlike the case of models written as monolithic FORTRAN programs, MARIO's handling computation at the component level allows the investigation of intermediate results at any stage along the model composition flow.

There is nonetheless further work to be done before we can demonstrate a fully functional IMF. In this paper we focused on componentization of models, and the representation and management of metadata expressing their semantics. An obvious next step is to associate these conceptual components to executable code, either in FORTRAN for complex computations such as the solution of the differential state equations, or in the SPADE language for the relatively simple algebraic expressions used in many of the FUSE flux calculations. The components will then be candidates for parallel execution in InfoSphere Streams, which could dramatically increase performance, especially in multi-model, ensemble-based methods, or when exploring large parameter spaces in autocalibration/parameter estimation. The stream-based data model of InfoSphere Streams will also facilitate connecting the system to real-time or near-real-time streaming sensor data, such as precipitation data.

Incorporating visualization tools will allow the rich and complex data sets that are produced in the stream discharge simulator to be effectively conveyed and will enable non-expert users to make full use of the relevant features of the framework. The MARIO interface will make this task particularly easy, since 1) the results of any calculation would be available for presentation to the user, and 2) the user need only select the tags corresponding to the desired data to see the data.

In our further work with this system, we plan to carry out several explorations of extensibility, for example:

- componentizing and incorporating another monolithic model, e.g., the USGS's Hydrological Simulation Program—FORTRAN (HSPF) [14]
- integrating simulations of stream discharges from multiple watersheds to determine stream discharges in a river network
- include more hydrologic processes in the stream discharge simulators such as infiltration-excess runoff and processes representing role of vegetation in the hydrologic cycle, such as the effect of vegetation canopy on the magnitude and rate of precipitation delivered to the soil surface
- integrating an explicit groundwater model to simulate coupled surface-groundwater systems, to allow users to simultaneously manage surface and groundwater resources

Conclusion

In this paper we have broken new ground in the development of the Integrated Modeling Framework that is needed in many disciplines and domains related to the Intelligent Infrastructure. We have described a research prototype that supports: registering model components in a specific domain; expressing the semantics of the model components in a standardized set of metadata; expressing and enforcing rich, domain-specific semantic constraints on how model components may be validly

composed together and assembled to form larger simulations; and generating valid component assemblies, and excluding assemblies which violate the expressed domain-specific semantic constraints, thus avoiding Frankenmodels, model assemblies that execute but are scientifically invalid. We have demonstrated this work using the complex, real-world example of the calculation of stream discharge from observed precipitation, building on the foundation of real-world FORTRAN modules. The use of this example has challenged and stretched IBM's MARIO research technology, and in the process demonstrated its great utility. Once model developers have registered the model components and their semantics with MARIO, component assemblies may be built by non-expert modelers with the assurance that the model semantics will not be violated, and therefore only scientifically valid assemblies will be generated and run. While we have focused on a single complex but fairly narrow application domain (stream discharge in hydrology), we fully expect that our approach will be readily applicable to a wide variety of related domains (e.g., water quality, carbon balance, crop production, and biodiversity), and to other domains that are critical for intelligent water management, e.g., demographics, financials, weather, geographic information systems, and real-time streaming data from such devices as water meters, water quality sensors, and fault-detection devices in smart levees. From here it is not unreasonable to imagine applications to cities, transportation, utilities, and other key areas making up our vision of the Intelligent Infrastructure.

References

See end of paper after tables and figures.

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Table 1. Description of flux and state calculations in FUSE, represented as individual model components in MARIO. Inputs and outputs that are the same for all options are listed on the row which specifies the calculation. Inputs and comments that differ by option are listed on the row which specifies the option.

Calculation	Model options	Inputs	Outputs	Comments
Rainfall Error		Observed precipitation	Effective precipitation	
1	Additive error correction			No additional inputs
2	Multiplicative error correction			No additional inputs
Saturation and Surface Runoff		Effective precipitation	Saturated area Surface runoff	
3	ARNO Xhang VIC	Upper level water		
4	PRMS Variant	Upper level tension store		
5	TOPMODEL Parameterization	Lower level water		
Evaporation from Upper Soil Layer		Potential evapotranspiration	Total Evaporation, plus evaporation from from 2 separate upper layer soil compartments	If upper soil architecture doesn't support multiple compartments, values set to 0
6	Tension storage sub-divided into recharge and excess; sequential evaporation scheme	Tension storage in recharge and excess tanks		
7	Tension storage sub-divided into recharge and excess; rootweight evaporation scheme	Tension storage in recharge and excess tanks		
8	Single tension store + free store or one state; sequential evaporation	Tension storage		
9	Single tension store + free store or one state; rootweight evaporation	Tension storage		
Evaporation from Lower Soil Layer		Potential evapotranspiration	Evaporation from the lower soil layer	
10	Lower layer architecture is either fixed size or a tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks; Upper layer architecture is either single tension store+ free store or one state; sequential lower-layer evaporation scheme	Tension storage in lower soil layer		
11	Lower layer architecture is either fixed size or a tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks; Upper layer architecture is either single tension store + free store or one state; rootweight lower-layer evaporation scheme	Tension storage in lower soil layer		
12	Lower layer architecture is either fixed size or a tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks; Upper layer tension storage is sub-divided into recharge and excess;			Evaporation from the lower layer is 0 by definition
13	Lower layer architecture is either baseflow reservoir of unlimited size (0-HUGE) with a fractional rate, or baseflow reservoir of unlimited size (0-HUGE) with a power recession, or TOPMODEL exponential reservoir (-HUGE to HUGE)			Evaporation from the lower layer is 0 by definition
Interflow			Interflow from free water in upper layer	
14	Some interflow	Free water in upper layer		
15	No interflow			Interflow = 0 by definition
Percolation from upper to lower soil layers			Percolation from upper to lower soil layers	
16	water from (field capacity to saturation) avail for percolation	Free water in upper layer		
17	water from (wilt point to saturation) avail for	Total water in upper layer		

	percolation			
18	percolation defined by moisture content in lower layer (SAC)	Total water in lower layer		
Baseflow from the lower soil layer			Total baseflow from the lower soil layer, plus baseflow from multiple tanks if applicable	
19	tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks	Free water in the two tanks		
20	baseflow reservoir of unlimited size (0-HUGE), frac rate	Total water in the lower soil layer		
21	baseflow reservoir of unlimited size (0-HUGE), power recession	Total water in the lower soil layer		
22	TOPMODEL exponential reservoir (-HUGE to HUGE)	Total water in the lower soil layer		
23	baseflow reservoir of fixed size	Total water in the lower soil layer		
Miscellaneous fluxes	Related to upper layer	Effective precipitation; Surface runoff	Flow from recharge to excess; Flow from tension storage to free storage; Bucket overflow;	
24	upper architecture tension storage sub-divided into recharge and excess	Storage in the recharge zone; Storage in the lower zone; Free storage in upper layer		
25	upper layer broken up into tension and free storage	Tension storage in the upper layer; Free storage in the upper layer		
26	upper layer defined by a single state variable	Total water storage in upper layer		
27	Related to Lower Layer	Percolation from upper to lower soil layers	Flow from tension storage to free storage; Bucket overflow from relevant storage zones	
28	lower layer architecture is tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks	Tension storage in lower layer; Storage in the primary lower layer reservoir; Storage in the secondary lower layer reservoir		
29	lower layer reservoir is fixed size	Total storage in lower layer		
30	lower layer reservoir is unlimited size			Outputs are 0 by definition
Solve State Equations				
	Related to Upper Layer		Changes in total water storage and tension and free storage in upper soil layer	
31	Upper soil layer tension storage sub-divided into recharge and excess	Effective precipitation; Surface runoff; Percolation from the upper to lower layer; Various upper layer fluxes: evaporation from soil excess zone; Flow from recharge to excess; evaporation from soil recharge zone;		

		flow from tension storage to free storage; Interflow from free water; Bucket overflow		
32	upper layer broken up into tension and free storage	Effective precipitation; Surface runoff; Percolation from the upper to lower layer; Upper layer fluxes: Evaporation; Flow from tension storage to free storage; Interflow from free water; Bucket overflow		
33	upper layer defined by a single state variable	Effective precipitation; Surface runoff; Percolation from the upper to lower layer; Upper layer fluxes: Evaporation; Interflow from free water; Bucket overflow		
34	Related to Lower Layer		Changes in total water storage and tension and free storage in lower soil layer	
35	lower layer tension reservoir plus two parallel tanks	Percolation from the upper to lower layer; Lower layer fluxes: Evaporation; Flow from tension storage to free storage; Baseflow from primary linear reservoir; Baseflow from secondary linear reservoir; Bucket overflow from primary and secondary linear reservoirs		
36	single state for lower layer	Percolation from the upper to lower layer; Lower layer fluxes: Evaporation; Baseflow; Bucket overflow		
Update State				
37		Changes in total water storage and tension and free storage in upper and lower soil layers	Total water storage and tension and free storage in upper and lower soil layers for new timestep	
Overland Routing		Surface runoff; Upper layer bucket overflow; Interflow from free water; Lower layer bucket overflow; Baseflow	instantaneous runoff; Routed runoff	
38	use a Gamma distribution with shape parameter = 2.5			
39	no routing			Routed runoff is 0 by definition

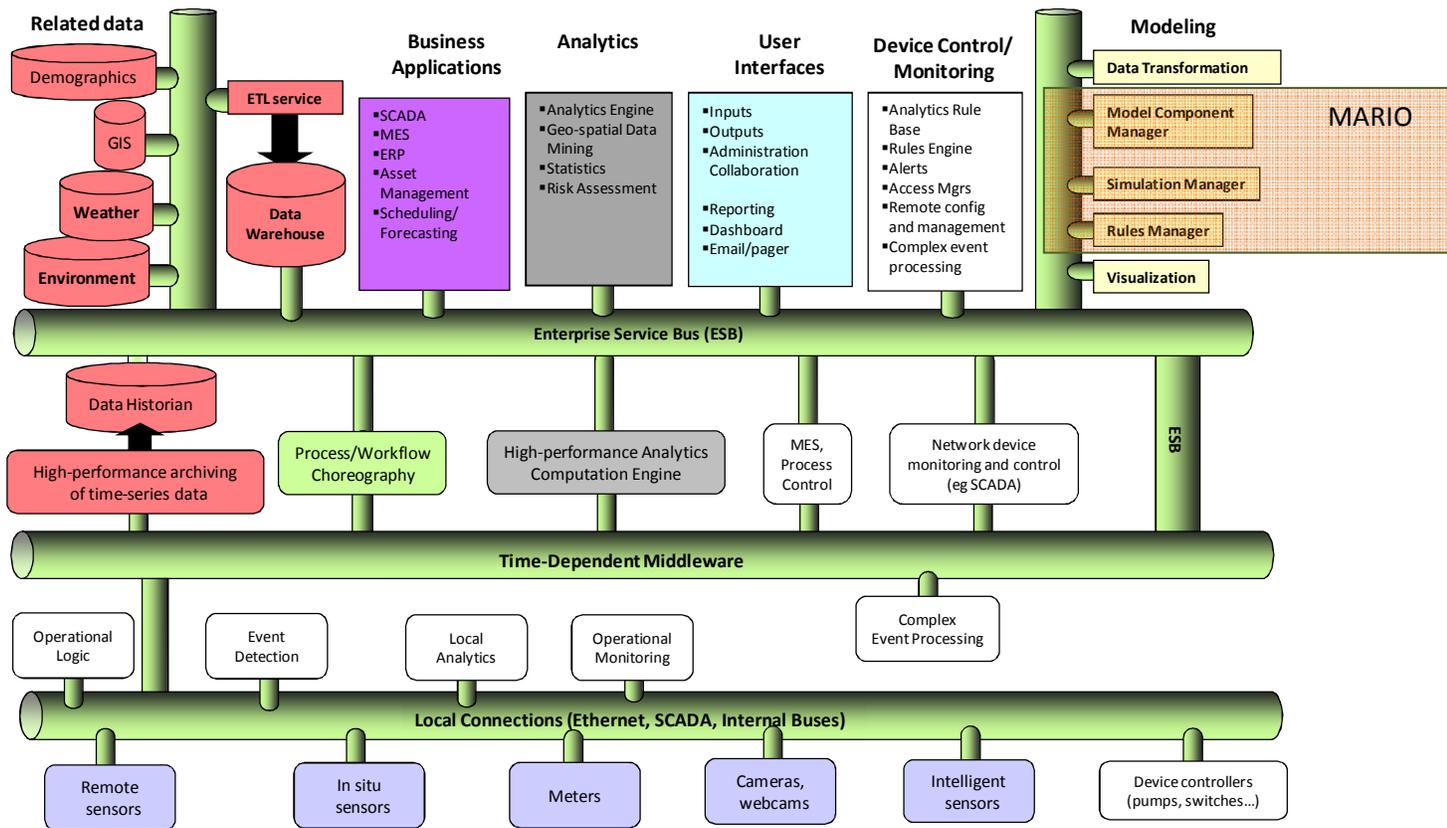


Figure 1. Intelligent Infrastructure Reference Architecture. The Service-Oriented Architectural foundation of the Intelligent Infrastructure, integrating (near-) real-time sensor data, analytics, and controls with enterprise data, applications, analytics, modeling/simulation, and user interfaces/visualization. The orange box in the upper right highlights the portion of the architecture that this paper addresses.

Key to abbreviations: ETL= Extract, Transform, Load data warehousing services. GIS = Geographic Information Systems. SCADA=Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition. MES=Manufacturing Execution System. ERP=Enterprise Resource Planning.

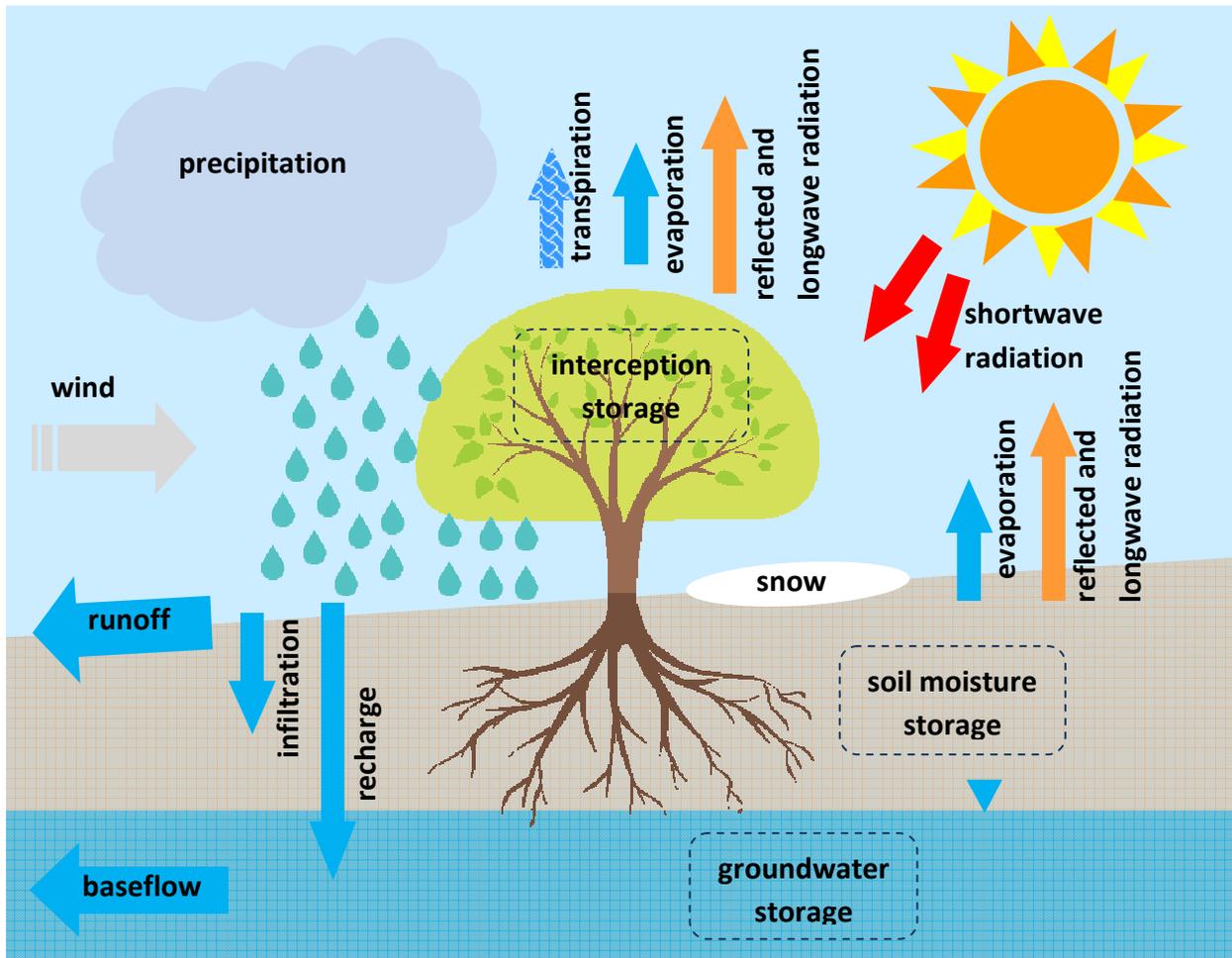


Figure 2. Illustration of hydrologic cycle, including water storage compartments and pathways for water movement in the atmosphere and over and through the land surface (fluxes). Components of energy fluxes that drive the hydrologic cycle also are depicted.

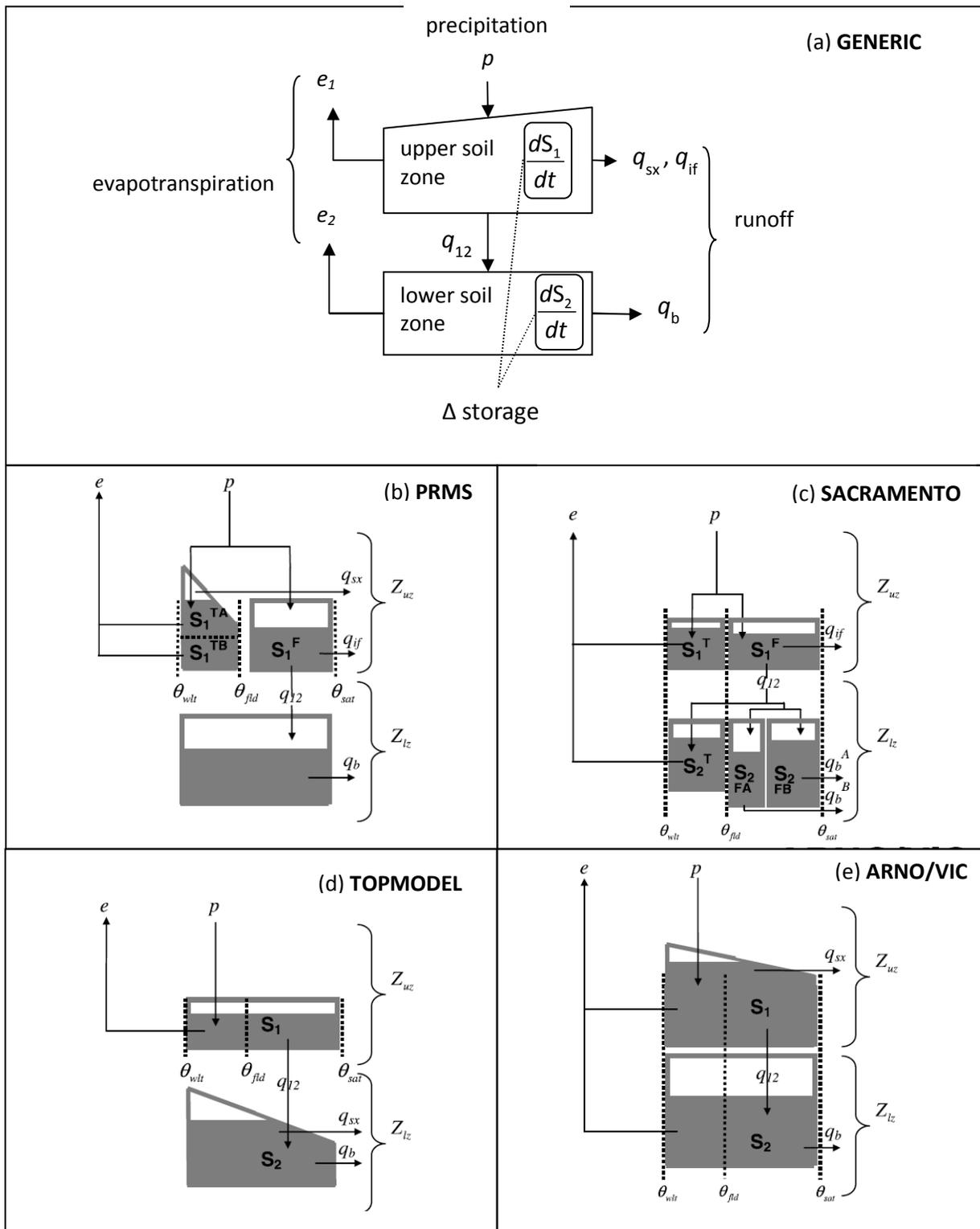


Figure 3. Schematic representations of two-zone systems: (a) generic system with terms for changes in water storage for each zone and corresponding water fluxes; (b) – (e) parent model modular systems, indicating differences among models in terms of fluxes and sub-divisions of zone storages and fluxes. S is storage in each soil zone; e is evapotranspiration from each soil zone; p is precipitation; q_{12} is percolation; q_{sx} is saturation-excess runoff; q_{if} is interflow (lateral flux through the upper layer to the stream); q_b is baseflow (lateral fluxes through the lower layer to the stream); Z_{uz} and Z_{lz} are depths of the upper and lower soil layers, respectively; θ_{wlt} , θ_{fld} , and θ_{sat} are soil moistures at wilting point, field capacity, and saturation, respectively; indices 1 and 2 denote the upper and lower soil zones, respectively; indices T and F denote stored water held in tension (retained by capillary forces) and freely-flowing water in storage; and indices A and B denote further sub-divisions of soil zones.

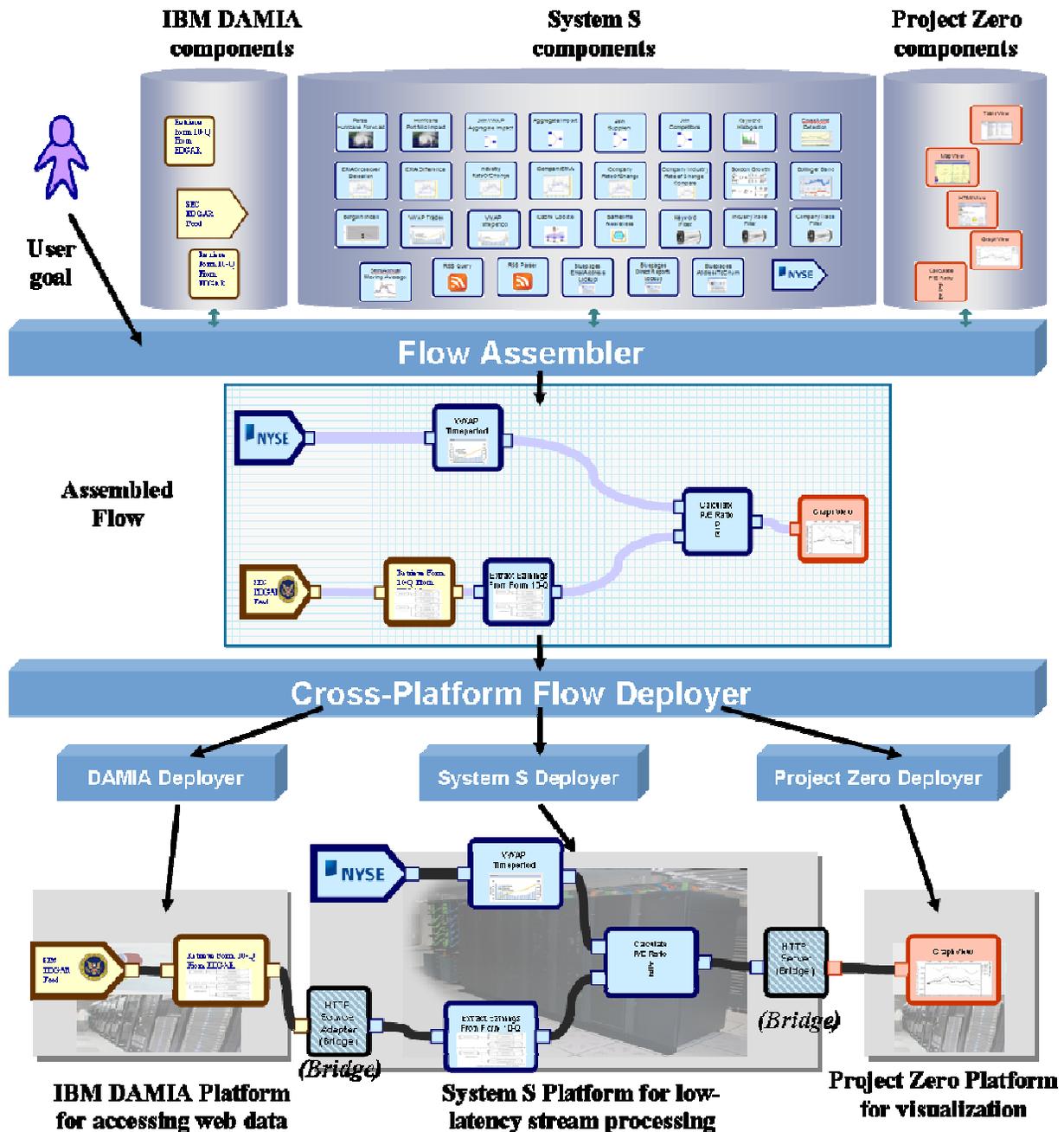
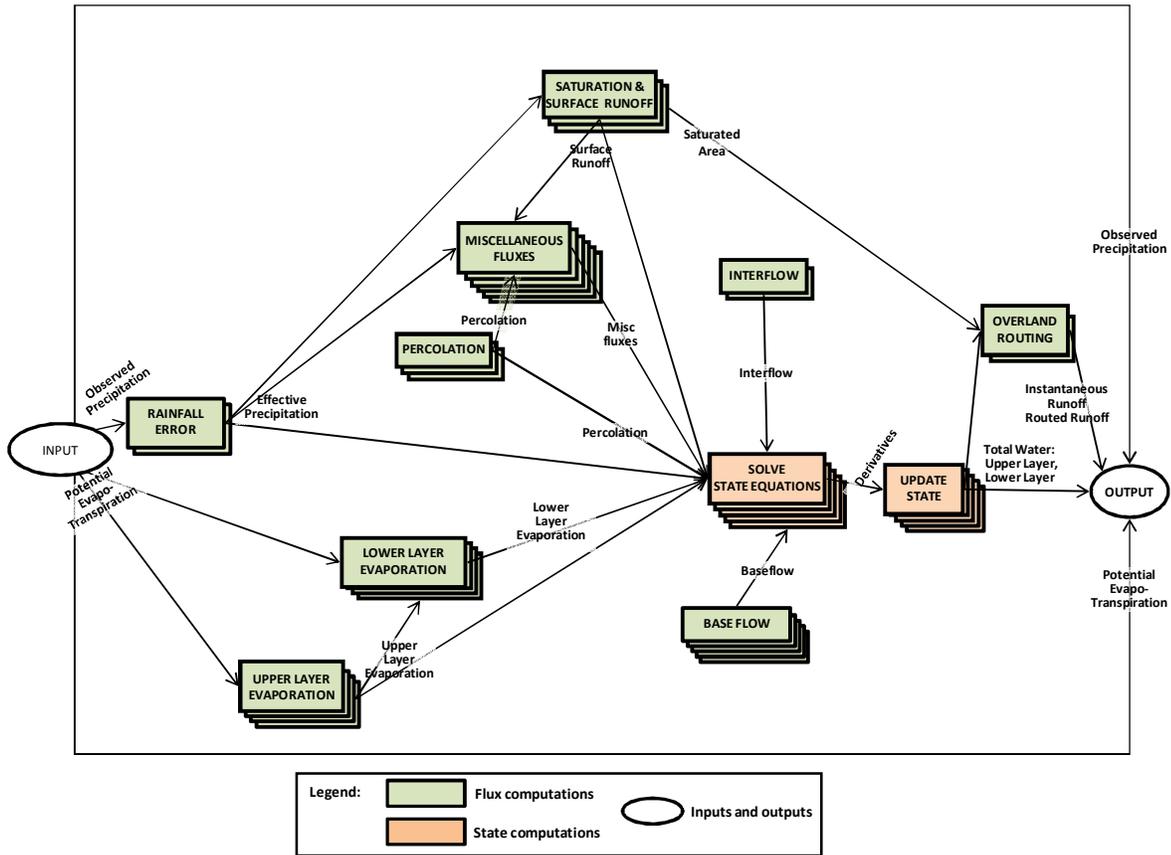


Figure 4. The MARIO cross-platform architecture with example data sources and processing components from the financial domain.



Note: in addition to dependencies shown, most flux calculations are dependent on values of state variables at the previous timestep

Figure 5. Model Component Flow diagram. Text in black labeling arcs connecting two components indicates inputs and outputs of model components. Stacks of green boxes represent options for flux calculations and stacks of orange boxes indicate options for calculating state variables. Ellipses indicate inputs and outputs to the model composition as a whole.

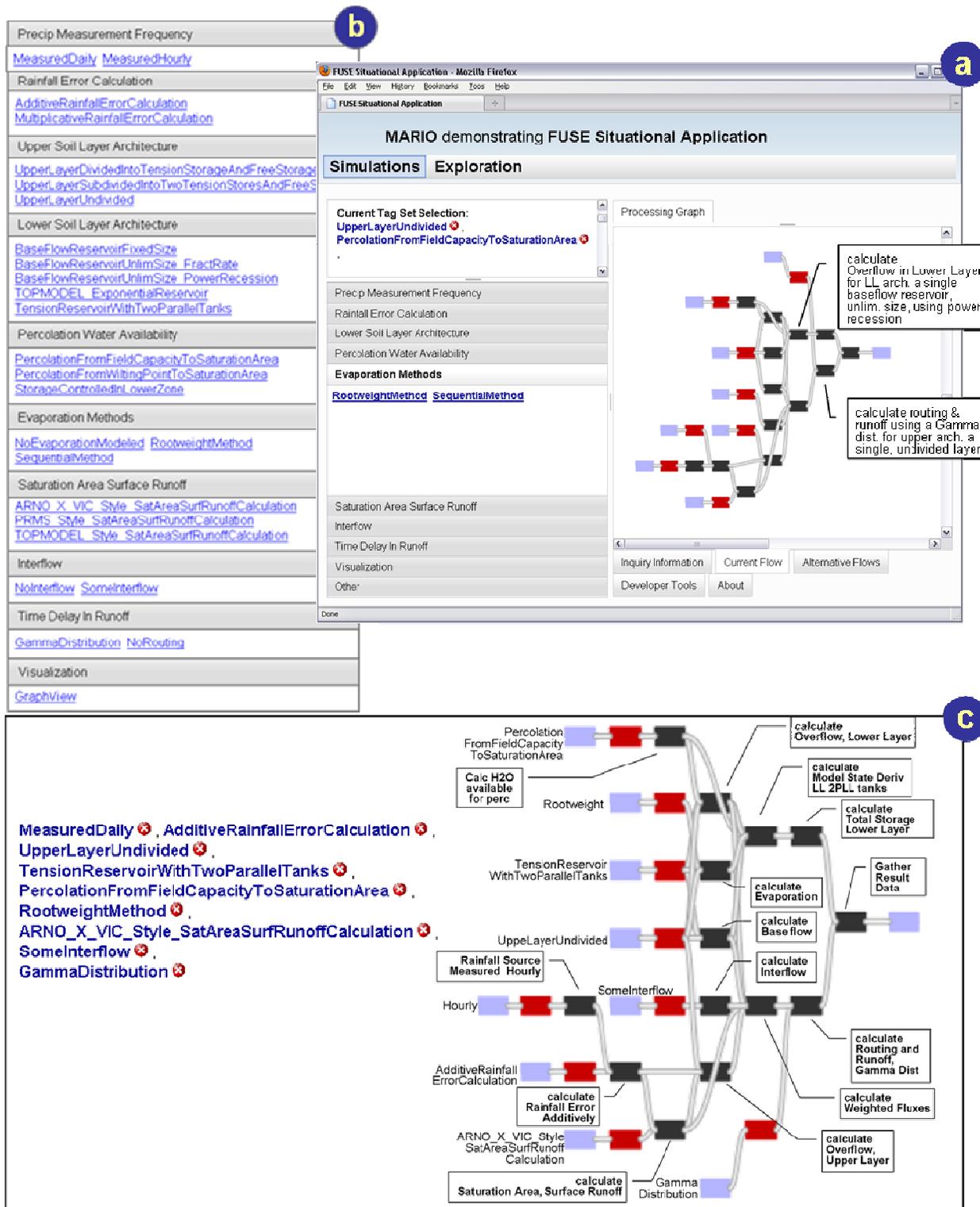


Figure 6. Screen shots of 6a: the MARIO web UI, 6b: a view showing all Model Configuration facets and all selectable option tags in each facet, and 6c: a completely specified FUSE component assembly, with a tag selected for each model composition option, and the corresponding processing graph, with components annotated. The blue and red paired boxes depict exclusive choice constraints: the red

box is a singleton selector, allowing exactly one value of the respective model configuration option. Without such a constraint, any component calling for, e.g., and upper layer architecture choice could be satisfied by any of the upper layer architecture options.

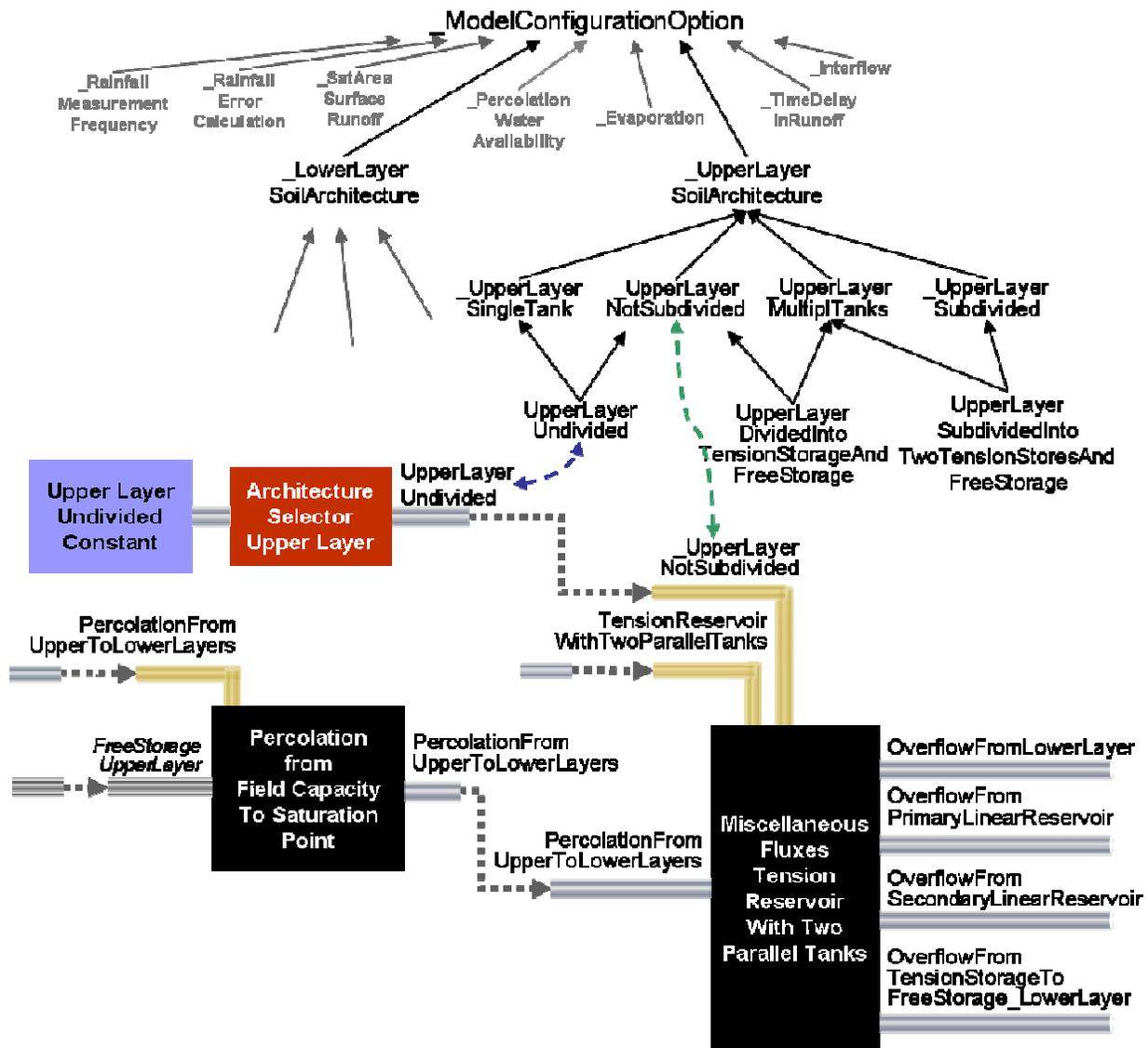


Figure 7. Four components, their tag-described inputs, outputs, and parameters, and an associated fragment of the FUSE *tagsonomy* (top). Here, black components are computational components, red is a special *selector* component, indicating a unique choice, and periwinkle component is a composition parameter, in this case representing the constant *UpperLayerUndivided*.

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