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Decision Support Systems 934 (2002) xxx–xxx

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Decision Support  
Systems

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# Integrating knowledge management into enterprise environments for the next generation decision support

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## Abstract

Decision support and knowledge management processes are interdependent activities in many organizations. In this paper, we propose an approach for integrating decision support and knowledge management processes using knowledge discovery techniques. Based on the proposed approach, an integrative framework is presented for building enterprise decision support environments using model marts and model warehouses as repositories for knowledge obtained through various conversions. This framework is expected to guide further research on the development of the next generation decision support environments. © 2002 Published by Elsevier Science B.V.

*Keywords:* Knowledge management; Decision support; Model marts; Model warehouses

## 1. Introduction

Organizations are becoming increasingly complex with emphasis on decentralized decision making. This trend necessitates enterprise decision support systems (DSS) for effective decision making with processes and facilities that support the use of knowledge management. Kivijarvi [21] highlights the characteristics of such organizational DSS and discusses challenges in design, development and implementation of such systems as compared to one-function or one-user DSS. Ba et al. [3], in their paper on enterprise decision support, point out the knowledge management principles that are necessary to achieve intra-organizational knowledge bases as (i) the use of corporate data to

derive and create higher-level information and knowledge, (ii) integration of organizational information to support all departments and end-users, and (iii) provision of tools to transform scattered data into meaningful business information.

In the process of decision-making, decision makers combine different types of data (e.g., internal data and external data) and knowledge (both tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge) available in various forms in the organization. The decision-making process itself results in improved understanding of the problem and the process, and generates new knowledge. In other words, the decision-making and knowledge creation processes are interdependent. Despite such interdependencies, the research in the fields of decision support systems (DSS) and knowledge management systems (KMS) has not adequately considered the integration of such systems.

Proper integration of DSS and KMS will not only support the required interaction but will also present new opportunities for enhancing the quality of support

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52 provided by each system. A synergy can be created  
53 through the integration of decision support and knowl-  
54 edge management, as these two processes consist of  
55 activities that complement each other. More specifi-  
56 cally, the knowledge acquisition, storage and distribu-  
57 tion activities in knowledge management enable the  
58 dynamic creation and maintenance of decision models,  
59 in this way, enhancing the decision support process. In  
60 return, the application and evaluation of various deci-  
61 sion models and the documentation of decision instan-  
62 ces, supported by DSS, provide the means for acquiring  
63 and storing the tacit and explicit knowledge of different  
64 decision makers and facilitate the creation of new  
65 knowledge. Such integration is expected to enhance  
66 the quality of support provided by the system to deci-  
67 sion makers and also to help in building up organiza-  
68 tional memory and knowledge bases. The integration  
69 will result in decision support environments for the  
70 next generation as explained later in this paper. How-  
71 ever, there is hardly any guidance, framework or re-  
72 search related to the integration of the interdependent  
73 aspects of decision-making and knowledge manage-  
74 ment. The purpose of this paper is to address this void.

75 In Section 2, we briefly review the decision-making  
76 and knowledge management processes and identify  
77 certain similarities and interactions between the two  
78 processes. In Section 3, we describe our proposed  
79 approach for incorporating knowledge management  
80 facilities into a decision support environment. A frame-  
81 work for developing enterprise decision support en-  
82 vironments according to the proposed approach is  
83 presented in Section 4. In Section 5, we discuss the  
84 implications of the proposed approach and propose a  
85 framework for conducting research in the fields of  
86 decision support and knowledge management.

## 87 2. Decision making and knowledge management 88 processes

89 Typical decision making processes are often des-  
90 cribed as consisting of intelligence, design, choice and  
91 an implementation phases [37,41]. Decision makers,  
92 individuals responsible for solving problems for the  
93 purpose of attaining a goal or goals, expect support in  
94 these four phases. Support provided to decision makers  
95 by typical DSS, in this regard, has evolved from simple  
96 predefined reports to complex intelligent agent-based

97 support. In general, the type of support provided is  
98 relatively passive because decision makers are ex-  
99 pected to scan internal and external data, and find dis-  
100 crepancies and deviations from expectations invoking  
101 ad hoc queries and reports that run on operational da-  
102 tabases. Executive information systems (now called  
103 Enterprise Information Systems, EIS), have simplified  
104 this process by providing data organized at different  
105 levels with drill-down facilities through high-level  
106 graphical user interfaces. Online analytical processing  
107 (OLAP) on data warehouses and data marts [17]  
108 provides analytical capabilities required for exploratory  
109 information retrieval and problem formulation. Now-  
110 adays, OLAP capabilities are being merged with  
111 enterprise resource planning (ERP) tools, corporate  
112 portals, etc. [38]. Active form of support to decision  
113 makers is provided using triggers and alarms on spe-  
114 cific attribute values in the databases. Intelligent arti-  
115 ficial agent-based support [18,19] is an active form of  
116 support where certain manual tasks such as searching  
117 and scanning for discrepancies are delegated to soft-  
118 ware agents. Intelligent agents can be used to support  
119 strategic management [10,24], electronic commerce  
120 [25,27], and other decision support activities [38]. Data  
121 mining techniques assist decision makers in finding  
122 interesting relationships or associations that may in  
123 turn help in the identification of problems.

124 Decision makers take decisions based on the infor-  
125 mation obtained through various means as described  
126 above or through DSS built for certain types of decision  
127 problems. Fig. 1 illustrates various components of deci-  
128 sion making environments and the associated knowl-  
129 edge management activities. Data from internal and  
130 external sources, spread across operational databases,  
131 data warehouses and data marts are accessed by deci-  
132 sion makers using tools supporting OLAP, data mining,  
133 EIS, and queries. Decision makers, through the expe-  
134 rience of using such tools and techniques, gain new  
135 knowledge pertaining to the specific problem area.  
136 Specific decision support systems are built using data  
137 extracted from various data sources and models ex-  
138 tracted from various knowledge sources. Knowledge  
139 from internal and external sources may be categorized  
140 into functional or general domain knowledge, organ-  
141 izational knowledge, and problem-specific knowledge.  
142 Decision makers employ their problem-specific knowl-  
143 edge, in addition to the information and knowledge  
144 derived from internal and external data sources using

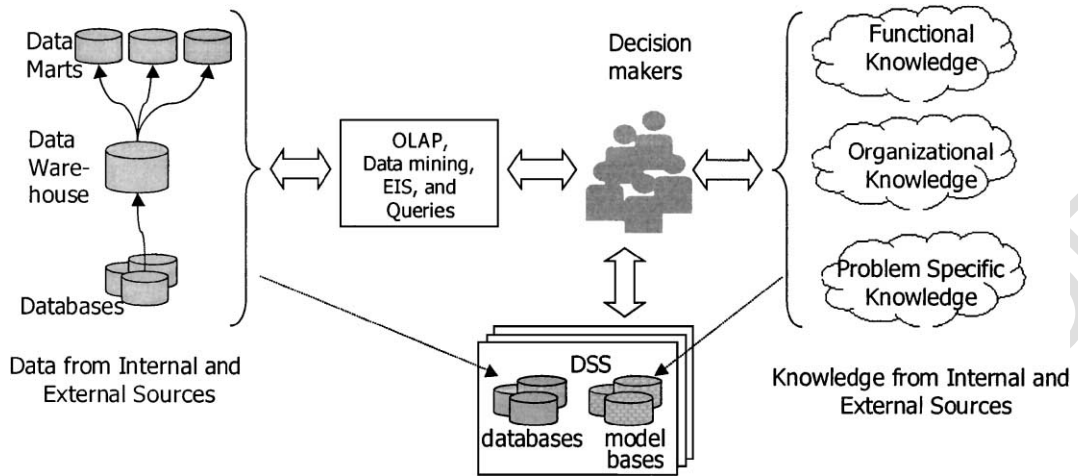


Fig. 1. Decision support and knowledge management activities.

145 appropriate tools, in arriving at solutions to decision  
 146 problems. When solutions are evaluated and found  
 147 effective, the acquired knowledge can be externalized  
 148 and then embedded into the organizational knowledge,  
 149 in the form of *best practices* for example.

150  
 151 **2.1. Organizational knowledge creation**

152 The importance of knowledge as an organizational  
 153 asset that enables sustainable competitive advantage  
 154 explains the increasing interest of organizations in  
 155 knowledge management. Many organizations are devel-  
 156 oping KMS designed specifically to facilitate the  
 157 sharing and integration of knowledge as opposed to  
 158 data or information. According to Alavi and Leidner  
 159 [2], knowledge is not radically different from infor-  
 160 mation. The processing of information in the mind of  
 161 an individual produces what Polanyi [31] refers to as  
 162 *tacit* knowledge. When articulated and communi-

163 cated, this tacit knowledge becomes information or  
 164 what Nonaka [28] refers to as *explicit* knowledge. As  
 165 organizational knowledge is derived from individual  
 166 knowledge, KMS must support the acquisition, organi-  
 167 zation and communication of both *tacit* and *explicit*  
 168 knowledge of employees.

169 Although KMS supports not only the creation, but  
 170 also the gathering, organization and dissemination of  
 171 knowledge, we will focus our discussion on the knowl-  
 172 edge creation process, as it integrated with all the  
 173 others. In order to assist the creation of new knowledge  
 174 effectively, KMS must support the gathering, organi-  
 175 zation and dissemination of existing knowledge. Non-  
 176 aka [28] proposes that new organizational knowledge  
 177 is created by a dialectical relationship between tacit  
 178 and explicit knowledge, which emerges into a spiral of  
 179 knowledge creation consisting of four types of knowl-  
 180 edge conversions: socialization, externalization, com-  
 181 bination and internalization (see Fig. 2).

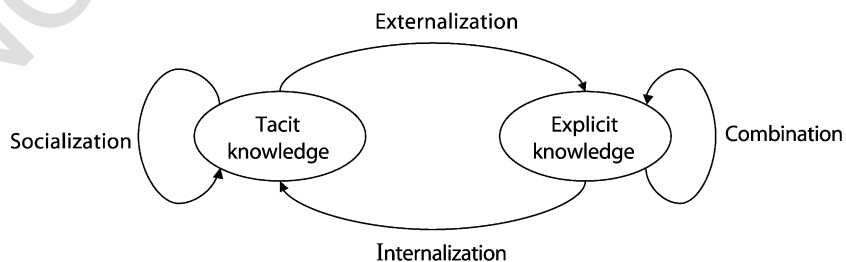


Fig. 2. Nonaka's model of knowledge creation (adapted from Ref. [28]).

182 *Knowledge externalization* refers to the conversion  
 183 of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. This takes  
 184 place when individuals use “metaphors” to articulate  
 185 their own perspectives in order to reveal hidden tacit  
 186 knowledge that is otherwise hard to communicate.  
 187 Knowledge elicitation techniques can be used to help  
 188 individuals to articulate tacit knowledge. For example,  
 189 interviews and focus groups with experienced loan of-  
 190 ficers can help to externalize certain subjective asp-  
 191 ects of the loan approval process that these officers  
 192 may have never articulated before.

193 The second type of knowledge conversion, *social-*  
 194 *ization*, refers to the creation of new tacit knowledge  
 195 from shared tacit knowledge. Individuals can acquire  
 196 tacit knowledge by observation, imitation and practice.  
 197 In the loan application-processing example, a loan  
 198 officer trainee can acquire tacit knowledge about the  
 199 loan approval process by observing other loan officers,  
 200 or by studying previous applications and their outcome.

201 *Knowledge combination* refers to the creation of  
 202 new knowledge through the exchange and combination  
 203 of explicit knowledge held by individuals in the organ-  
 204 ization. The exchange of explicit knowledge could be  
 205 done through information sharing, e.g., shared docu-  
 206 ments, databases and model bases. It could also happen  
 207 through interactions, e.g., meetings, e-mail and casual  
 208 conversations. The integration of the exchanged know-  
 209 ledge and its reconfiguring through sorting, adding, re-  
 210 categorizing and re-contextualizing can help to create  
 211 new explicit knowledge. For example, by evaluating  
 212 externalized loan approval processes followed by dif-  
 213 ferent loan officers in terms of risk performance, ma-  
 214 nagers can develop better procedures for processing  
 215 loan applications.

216 The fourth type of knowledge conversion, *internal-*  
 217 *ization*, takes place when explicit knowledge becomes  
 218 tacit. Nonaka [28] views this conversion as somewhat  
 219 similar to the traditional notion of learning. Individu-  
 220 als integrate shared explicit knowledge with their prior  
 221 knowledge in order to update their mental models and  
 222 produce new tacit knowledge.

## 223 2.2. Similarities and interactions between KMS and 224 DSS

226 Certain similarities and interactions can be observed  
 227 between the decision support environments and Non-  
 228 aka’s model of organizational knowledge creation.

These similarities and interactions, as we discuss later, 229  
 form the basis for integration of KMS and DSS. 230  
 According to Nonaka’s model, the knowledge external- 231  
 ization involves the conversion of tacit knowledge to 232  
 explicit knowledge. In the context of DSS, this can be 233  
 viewed as similar to the process of decision modeling, 234  
 which involves elicitation of problem-solving knowl- 235  
 edge from the decision maker and its representation. 236  
 Similarities can also be found in the combination type 237  
 of knowledge conversion that generates new explicit 238  
 knowledge from existing explicit knowledge and the 239  
 process of model integration in DSS. Knowledge 240  
 internalization corresponds to the adoption and use of 241  
 explicit organizational knowledge by individuals. It 242  
 can be compared to building DSSs using elicited 243  
 decision models. Last, the socialization type of knowl- 244  
 edge conversion may be considered as analogous to 245  
 sharing information pertaining to decisions made by 246  
 different decision makers, as such information reflects 247  
 the tacit models followed by these decision makers 248  
 (e.g., through group discussions). The interaction 249  
 between the KMS and DSS includes the application 250  
 of explicit knowledge created (e.g., decision models) 251  
 for future decision making and/or for building DSS, 252  
 and the generation of new knowledge (e.g., best prac- 253  
 tices) through the use of DSS. 254

## 255 3. Proposed approach for the next generation 256 decision support environments

As described in the previous section, decision sup- 257  
 port and knowledge management are two interrelated 258  
 and interacting processes in any organization. Integra- 259  
 tion of DSS and KMS, therefore, is expected to result 260  
 in several benefits that cannot be realized with any 261  
 one system. Research related to such integration can 262  
 identify specific needs and solutions for building the 263  
 next generation enterprise decision support environ- 264  
 ments. 265

Our proposed approach for integrating decision 266  
 support and knowledge management processes has 267  
 the three following characteristics that facilitate knowl- 268  
 edge conversions through suitable automated techni- 269  
 ques: 270

- it applies knowledge discovery techniques 271  
 (KDT) for knowledge externalization, 272

- 273 • it employs repositories for storing externalized  
274 knowledge, and  
275 • it extends KDT for supporting various types of  
276 knowledge conversions.  
277

278 We elaborate these characteristics using the four  
279 types of knowledge conversions in Nonaka's model  
280 described in Section 2. In our proposed approach, we  
281 use model externalization, model combination, model  
282 internalization and model socialization processes to  
283 reflect the integration of decision support and knowl-  
284 edge management aspects. Among these four proc-  
285 esses, model externalization is generally considered as  
286 the most difficult and time-consuming. Difficulties  
287 associated with the model combination process may  
288 vary depending on the modeling paradigm used for  
289 representation of the explicit knowledge. The other two  
290 types of processes, i.e., model socialization and model  
291 internalization, are relatively easier to support.  
292

### 293 3.1. Model externalization

294 Data in databases, data warehouses and data marts  
295 capture a significant amount of tacit models, which are  
296 represented by sets of related attribute values pertain-  
297 ing to various decisions. Part of this data consists of  
298 decision instances that describe various decisions tak-  
299 en by different decision makers for different decision  
300 problems at different times. The model externalization  
301 process converts such tacit models (data and decision  
302 instances) into explicit models (discovered knowledge  
303 and decision models).

304 The tacit models can be externalized into explicit  
305 models by either traditional externalization methods or  
306 KDT. Traditional methods require analysts to interact  
307 directly with decision makers in order to elicit prob-  
308 lem-solving knowledge from them and represent it as  
309 part of explicit models using typical knowledge elic-  
310 itation/acquisition techniques. A second type of meth-  
311 od enables the decision maker to externalize their tacit  
312 models without the assistance of analysts, using intel-  
313 ligent tools. Some examples of such methods include  
314 the usage of knowledge-based tools for model formu-  
315 lation and protocol analysis [5,7,32,34,37,39]. These  
316 methods eliminate the tedious and less efficient proc-  
317 ess of elicitation and representation of the knowledge  
318 of multiple decision makers performed by analysts.  
319 Using KDT, it is possible to derive decision models

using decision instances that represent decision mak- 320  
ers' tacit models. For example, loan approval deci- 321  
sions, recorded in operational databases as business 322  
transactions with details of relevant attribute values, 323  
can be used for discovering loan approval decision 324  
making processes using KDT. 325

To illustrate the model externalization aspect of the 326  
integration, let us consider a classification problem 327  
such as categorizing a set of loan applications into 328  
*approve* and *reject* classes. Let us also assume that 329  
application details are available in a database. The de- 330  
cision maker defines the decision problem as a classi- 331  
fication problem and identifies the input and output 332  
attributes and possible class identifiers. The integrat- 333  
ed system guides the decision maker during the problem 334  
definition stage. Then, the decision maker starts the 335  
task of classifying each application manually and 336  
creating the decision instances (applying *tacit models*). 337  
As the decision maker performs the classifications, the 338  
system acquires the classification problem-solving 339  
knowledge, and tests the acquired knowledge. Once 340  
the system learns with sufficient reliability, it classifies 341  
the rest of the applications, and presents the acquired 342  
knowledge (*explicit models*) to the decision maker. 343  
Any exceptions in the manual classifications made 344  
during the process of learning will also be reported. 345  
The system finally catalogues the decision problem and 346  
the associated explicit knowledge for later reference 347  
and use. The entire classification process can span a 348  
number of days or weeks or years. The system adapts to 349  
the continually changing decision making patterns 350  
during longer periods. This type of problem-solving 351  
process and support provided can be extended to multi- 352  
ple decision makers working on the same type of 353  
decision problem (e.g., loan approval in different bran- 354  
ches of a bank) or interdependent decision problems. 355  
By combining numerous explicit models of decision 356  
making processes of different decision makers, it is 357  
possible to generate more complex explicit models. 358  
359

### 3.2. Model combination 360

Different explicit models, corresponding to different 361  
data and to multiple decision makers solving one or 362  
more decision problems, can be combined to generate 363  
new explicit models. Model combination in the context 364  
of decision making can be performed in two different 365  
ways: *generalization* and *integration*. 366

367 The *generalization process* aims at abstracting a set  
 368 of specific explicit models to a generic explicit model  
 369 for multiple decision problems of similar type. This  
 370 process reduces the number of models, which in turn  
 371 can minimize the cognitive load on the users of such  
 372 knowledge. This is required especially when there is a  
 373 large number of models representing the various ap-  
 374 proaches followed by different decision makers for  
 375 solving the same type of problem. However, it is  
 376 important to strike a balance between generalization  
 377 and faithful representation of subjectivity. Generalized  
 378 models, naturally, may not adequately represent de-  
 379 cision makers' subjectivity, i.e., differences across dif-  
 380 ferent models. O'Leary [29] suggests verifying that  
 381 decision makers have similar views before aggregating  
 382 individual judgments. A solution to this problem is to  
 383 cluster or group similar decision models and then ge-  
 384 neralize within each cluster [9].

385 The complexity of this generalization task depends  
 386 largely on the modeling paradigm used. The complex-  
 387 ity is least, when all models employ the same paradigm  
 388 and are generated based on a given set of input and  
 389 output attributes. Otherwise, generalization needs to be  
 390 performed either using models of the same paradigm or  
 391 by translating the models to a common modeling pa-  
 392 radigm. It should also be noted that certain modeling  
 393 paradigms, e.g., multi-attribute utility theory and AHP,  
 394 are more amenable to generalization than others (e.g.,  
 395 decision trees, fuzzy rules). Treating the decision in-  
 396 stances corresponding to a set of decision makers (in a  
 397 cluster) to generate a generalized explicit model for that  
 398 group can be a possible solution for generalizing such  
 399 models. Another difficulty in the generalization proc-  
 400 ess is related to the semantic and structural differences  
 401 in various model attributes. For example, if different  
 402 decision makers employ different sets of factors in de-  
 403 fining AHP models for evaluating loan applications  
 404 then it is necessary to unify or resolve the differences  
 405 prior to the generalization process. This type of diffi-  
 406 culty will not arise if a common set of attributes are  
 407 used (e.g., from a given database schema) in model  
 408 specification.

409 While the generalization process creates new ex-  
 410 plicit models through the abstraction of specific mo-  
 411 dels into generic ones to deal with similar problems,  
 412 the *integration process* creates new explicit models by  
 413 combining different models (generalized or not) that  
 414 can even be from different domains to deal with more

complex problems. Research related to model integra- 415  
 tion in the field of DSS can be applied for this purpose. 416  
 Integrating generalized explicit models from different 417  
 domains provides a better understanding of the inter- 418  
 actions between knowledge components belonging to 419  
 different domains. Explicit models created through 420  
 model externalization and combination processes will 421  
 be inputs to the model internalization process. 422

### 3.3. Model internalization 423

424  
 Model internalization refers to the conversion of 425  
 shared explicit models into tacit models held by indi- 426  
 vidual decision makers. This is a learning process that 427  
 results in the modification and possible improvement 428  
 of the individual tacit models based on best practices. 429  
 We identify four important activities for supporting 430  
 internalization. First, the dissemination of explicit mo- 431  
 dels to the decision makers is a requirement for inter- 432  
 nalization. The effectiveness of this activity depends 433  
 on the usage of appropriate knowledge presentation 434  
 methods. Second, facilitating exploratory retrieval of 435  
 explicit models can help in the provision of relevant 436  
 knowledge wherever and whenever required. Third, 437  
 model analysis/evaluation capabilities such as sen- 438  
 sitivity analysis (or what-if analysis) that enable the 439  
 decision maker to compare the effectiveness of alter- 440  
 native models can facilitate the adoption of explicit 441  
 models and their subsequent internalization. Fourth, 442  
 assisting the decision maker in adapting and applying 443  
 shared explicit models. This can be done by building 444  
 and maintaining the model base component of a DSS 445  
 for specific decision-making activities. In this partic- 446  
 ular case, the internalization process becomes more 447  
 systematic. It is also possible to make this systematic 448  
 internalization approach continuous by providing real- 449  
 time adaptive decision support through a dynamic 450  
 update of the model base. 451

### 3.4. Model socialization 452

453  
 While model internalization allows decision mak- 454  
 ers to share, learn, adopt and apply each other's 455  
 explicit models, socialization enables them to acquire 456  
 new tacit models by sharing each other's tacit models. 457  
 The knowledge conversion process of socialization 458  
 refers to the transfer of tacit knowledge through 459  
 shared experiences. In the proposed framework of 460

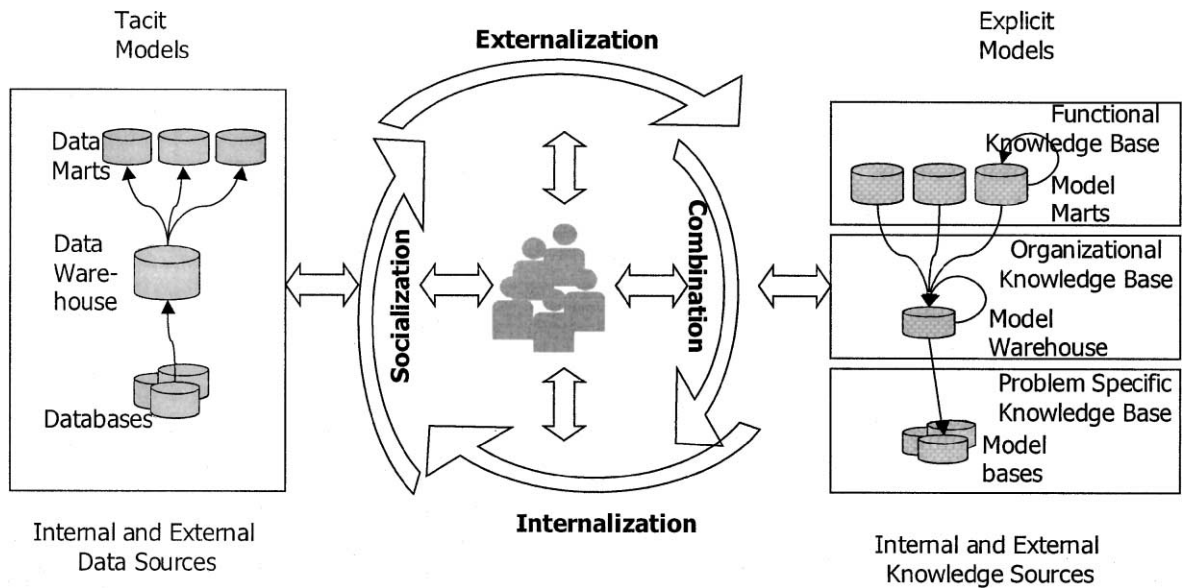


Fig. 3. A proposed framework for enterprise decision support environment with knowledge management.

461 DSS and KMS integration, decision instances docu- 484  
 462 mented in databases, represent the experiences reflect- 485  
 463 ing the tacit knowledge of different decision makers. 486  
 464 The documented decisions enable the decision makers 487  
 465 to learn from each other's experiences and modify 488  
 466 their own tacit models. For example, in processing a 489  
 467 loan application, a loan officer can look for similar 490  
 468 cases and their related decisions (documented in the 491  
 469 databases) in order to make a decision that is more 492  
 470 consistent with previous cases. In doing so, the loan 493  
 471 officer is acquiring a new tacit model based on deci- 494  
 472 sion instances reflecting the tacit models of other 495  
 473 loan officers. 496

#### 474 4. Enterprise decision support environments with 497 475 knowledge management 498

476 In this section, we present a framework for devel- 500  
 477 oping enterprise decision support environments that 501  
 478 include knowledge management, for supporting the 502  
 479 approach described in the previous section. We elab- 503  
 480 orate, as part of this framework, on the representation 504  
 481 and conversion of the tacit and explicit knowledge, and 505  
 482 identify possible difficulties and solutions in various 506  
 483 types of conversions. The major focus of this frame-

work is the application and extensions of KDT to 484  
 support knowledge conversions and enhanced access 485  
 to knowledge represented by explicit models. 486

The proposed framework (Fig. 3) integrates the four 487  
 types of knowledge conversions (see Fig. 2) into vari- 488  
 ous decision support and knowledge management 489  
 activities (see Fig. 1). The tacit models of different 490  
 decision makers, represented by decision instances and 491  
 associated data, are normally stored in operational 492  
 databases. The relevant data from such databases are 493  
 used for building an organizational data warehouse 494  
 employing processes such as extract, filter, condition, 495  
 scrub, load, etc. [14]. The data warehouse contains 496  
 information about problems and the corresponding 497  
 decision instances reflecting the historical and current 498  
 tacit models of different decision makers in different 499  
 problem domains. Data marts are subsets of data ware- 500  
 houses created for efficient use of different functional 501  
 domains. In certain cases, a data mart can be a small 502  
 stand-alone data warehouse specializing in one area, 503  
 such as customer data.<sup>1</sup> 504

<sup>1</sup> In certain cases, a data mart can be a small stand-alone data 505  
 warehouse (i.e., not a subset of corporate data warehouse) specia- 506  
 lizing in one area, such as customer data.

505 In order to facilitate repositories for explicit knowl-  
 506 edge created using externalization and combination  
 507 processes, we propose to use *model marts* and *model*  
 508 *warehouses* as part of the functional and organizational  
 509 knowledge bases. We use the terms model mart and  
 510 model warehouse to define concepts similar to data  
 511 mart and data warehouse, respectively. However, an  
 512 essential difference between these parallel concepts is  
 513 related to the process of building these components. As  
 514 shown in Fig. 3, data warehouses are usually used to  
 515 populate data marts, whereas model marts are used to  
 516 build model warehouses. We propose to use model  
 517 marts to store the explicit models arrived at using the  
 518 methods discussed above. These model marts store  
 519 explicit models of different decision problems belong-  
 520 ing to a particular domain (e.g., sales, production). In  
 521 addition, the model marts also contain the decision  
 522 models pertaining to different time periods. In other  
 523 words, we can think of each model mart as capturing  
 524 the knowledge discovered from data and the problem-  
 525 solving knowledge of one or more decision makers  
 526 dealing with one or more decision problems in a certain  
 527 period. This is becoming important now since compa-  
 528 nies are using ‘decision matrices’ to empower employ-  
 529 ees to make decisions in decentralized locations.

530 Model marts<sup>2</sup> and model warehouses, thus, act as a  
 531 repository for currently operational and historical deci-  
 532 sion models, similar to the data marts and data ware-  
 533 houses. The operational models, however, will be in the  
 534 model base component of various DSS. Each model  
 535 mart acts as a repository of models belonging to a  
 536 specific decision-making domain (e.g., inventory man-  
 537 agement and capital budgeting). Thus, functional  
 538 knowledge bases include model marts and other forms  
 539 of knowledge pertaining to the specific functional  
 540 domain. Similarly, organizational knowledge base in-  
 541 cludes model warehouse and other forms of integrated  
 542 knowledge across different functional domains. Prob-  
 543 lem-specific knowledge bases include model bases of  
 544 current DSS (e.g., internalized models). These knowl-  
 545 edge bases also include necessary meta knowledge (or  
 546 metal models) required for model manipulation. In the  
 547 remaining part of this section, we elaborate on the

support that can be provided in various knowledge 548  
 conversions. 549

#### 4.1. Model externalization support 550 551

A variety of KDT such as decision trees, rule disco- 552  
 very, neural networks, rough sets, genetic algorithms, 553  
 nearest neighbor techniques, fuzzy rule discovery, 554  
 clustering, and link analysis techniques can be used 555  
 for the externalization purpose. The effectiveness of 556  
 such an approach using a neuro-fuzzy classifier to dis- 557  
 cover fuzzy rules modeling employment selection is 558  
 illustrated in Ref. [8]. A successful application of the 559  
 Bayesian network learning model in building and im- 560  
 proving a real-time telemarketing DSS application is 561  
 reported in Ref. [1]. The data mining and knowledge 562  
 discovery website ([http://www.kdnuggets.com/soft- 563](http://www.kdnuggets.com/software/index.html)  
 ware/index.html) provides links to a number of tools 564  
 that can be used for discovering rules or models from 565  
 decision instances. 566

In our proposed framework, we are concerned 567  
 about the conversion of tacit models (available in the 568  
 form of data in databases, data warehouses and data 569  
 marts) into explicit models. A major part of these 570  
 explicit models consists of knowledge discovered from 571  
 large volumes of data. The other part consists of va- 572  
 rious decision models discovered using the decision 573  
 instances. In applying KDT to model externalization 574  
 using decision instances, we should consider certain 575  
 differences from the traditional application of KDT in 576  
 databases, which is often performed on large volumes 577  
 of transaction data such as product sales, service usage, 578  
 etc. Traditional applications of KDT emphasize the 579  
 representation, accuracy, interesting results, and effi- 580  
 ciency [13]. Important challenges of KDT in such 581  
 situations include handling of massive data sets, high 582  
 dimensionality, user-interaction and prior knowledge, 583  
 missing data, managing changes in data and knowl- 584  
 edge, etc. [12]. In model externalization, however, the 585  
 data set is relatively small, but may contain a large 586  
 number of attributes reflecting the complexity of tacit 587  
 models, which often contain both objective and sub- 588  
 jective components. Consequently, the emphasis and 589  
 challenges of KDT for this type of model external- 590  
 ization should be different. Since the data volumes are 591  
 relatively small, the effectiveness of the process is 592  
 more important as compared to the efficiency of the 593  
 process. Accuracy of the explicit model may not be 594

<sup>2</sup> A model mart, similar to a data mart, can be a small stand-  
 alone model warehouse specializing in one area, such as marketing  
 decision models.



595 very important because of inconsistencies in tacit  
596 models used for discovery. Simplicity of model repre-  
597 sentation is particularly relevant if the discovered ex-  
598 plicit models are to be internalized by decision makers.  
599 In this regard, soft computing, which aims to achieve  
600 tractability, robustness, low solution cost and high  
601 machine intelligence quotient (MIQ) through comple-  
602 mentarity of fuzzy logic, neural networks and proba-  
603 bilistic reasons [41], has potential to contribute  
604 towards generating concise and easily understandable  
605 explicit models.

606 Two model externalization examples involving dis-  
607 covery of classification decision rules from two differ-  
608 ent types of data sets representing decisions concerning  
609 credit worthiness of applicants and employment pref-  
610 erence are illustrated in Appendix A.

611 A typical model mart, at this stage, may include  
612 models representing the decision making processes  
613 of one or more decision makers discovered by one or  
614 more KDTs and models that are defined manually by  
615 decision makers/DSS builders or exported from ope-  
616 rational DSS.

617 Extensible Markup Language (XML) can provide a  
618 common structure for representing explicit models of  
619 different modeling paradigms. XML databases ([http://](http://www.rpbouret.com/xml/XMLDatabaseProds.htm)  
620 [www.rpbouret.com/xml/XMLDatabaseProds.htm](http://www.rpbouret.com/xml/XMLDatabaseProds.htm))  
621 can be used for the purpose of creating model marts  
622 and model warehouses.

623

#### 624 4.2. Model combination support

625 New explicit models can be composed from existing  
626 models in model marts and model warehouses using  
627 generalization and integration techniques. Generaliza-  
628 tion should deal with inconsistencies, conflicts, and  
629 decision makers' subjectivity represented in explicit  
630 models. As part of the generalization, it may be ne-  
631 cessary to unify different explicit models. Unification  
632 refers to the process of resolving structural and seman-  
633 tic differences among decision models of the same or  
634 different decision problems. This process requires (a)  
635 resolving differences between different models of the  
636 same modeling paradigm for the same type of decision  
637 problem, and (b) integrating different models of the  
638 same or different modeling paradigms for decision  
639 problems belonging to different domains. We can adapt  
640 schema integration and database interoperability  
641 approaches [4,23] for this purpose. Johannesson and

Jamil [20] present an approach to integrate two differ- 642  
ent database schemas by structural and terminological 643  
standardization before schema comparison and mer- 644  
ging. They contend that knowledge discovery and 645  
machine learning can be used to facilitate schema 646  
integration. Similar approaches can be applied to the 647  
task of unification of model arguments belonging to 648  
different domains for integration. Ba et al. [3] review 649  
the role of artificial intelligence in model management 650  
and model building, and in reasoning with multiple 651  
models. In certain cases, it is possible to solve the uni- 652  
fication problem involving models of different para- 653  
digms by rediscovering the decision models using a 654  
specific KDT. 655

656 Model marts and model warehouses may include,  
657 in addition to the two types identified above, the fol-  
658 lowing as well: 659

- explicit models belonging to a specific domain 659  
after resolving the structural and semantic dif- 660  
ferences with links to the original model, 661
- abstractions of different explicit models corre- 662  
sponding to a specific type of decision problem, 663  
and 664
- integrated models of different decision prob- 665  
lems within a specific domain. 666

667  
668 A model warehouse can be built using models  
669 belonging to different model marts. In addition, a mo-  
670 del warehouse contains models defining further inte-  
671 gration across different domains. Unification of model  
672 parameters may be required prior to this integration.  
673 The model warehouse and model marts support anal-  
674 ysis and integration of decision making patterns oc-  
675 ccurring at different, but related, domains across the  
676 organization, cause–effect relationships among differ-  
677 ent domains, etc.

678 Implementation of the model marts and model  
679 warehouses can be done either as a simple database  
680 with tables to describe models together with full text or  
681 binary representations of models, or as an object-  
682 oriented repository with models represented as objects  
683 with the associated behavior. The former type of  
684 implementation merely provides storage of models as  
685 used/exported by the KDT employed for model dis-  
686 covery. Therefore, any form of analysis involving the  
687 contents of the model should also be provided by the  
688 KDT. The latter type of implementation, as discussed 689

689 below, can support more versatile forms of analysis in  
690 discovering patterns and trends in models. However,  
691 the implementation is dependent on the structure of  
692 models and it should provide for relevant operations on  
693 the models.

#### 694 4.3. Model internalization support

696 In Section 3, we have identified important activi-  
697 ties that can enhance the internalization process, i.e.,  
698 dissemination, exploration, analysis/evaluation, and  
699 dynamic application of explicit models. These activi-  
700 ties enable decision makers to become aware of, un-  
701 derstand, learn, adapt and apply each other's explicit  
702 decision models. In doing so, they acquire new tacit  
703 models. A number of tools can be used to support the  
704 internalization activities. The model dissemination and  
705 exploration activities can be supported by model  
706 representation and visualization tools as well as intel-  
707 ligent agents that are versatile and autonomous (e.g.,  
708 [30,42]) for automated discovery of patterns in explicit  
709 decision models represented in the model warehouse  
710 and model marts. The model analysis/evaluation activi-  
711 ties can be aided by model analysis systems [11,17,  
712 22,36]. These systems enhance the decision maker's  
713 understanding of the environment represented by the  
714 model by assisting in the interpretation and manipu-  
715 lation of the output of the model solvers and in the  
716 analysis of existing knowledge and/or extraction of  
717 new knowledge concerning the environment repre-  
718 sented by the model. By improving the decision mak-  
719 er's understanding of explicit models, model analysis  
720 systems support not only the selection of an appro-  
721 priate model for the problem at hand, but the learning  
722 and subsequent internalization of the selected model as  
723 well. Further, evaluation of decisions made and the  
724 decision models can result in identifying best practi-  
725 ces. Finally, the model application activities can be  
726 supported by DSS and adaptive DSS. The usage of a  
727 DSS to solve problems is a learning experience by  
728 itself that enables the decision maker to acquire new  
729 tacit decision models. In addition to specialized tools  
730 for supporting the specific activities described above,  
731 intelligent tutors can also be used to enhance the  
732 overall learning process associated with internaliza-  
733 tion.

734 Additional requirements in such decision support  
735 environments can be grouped under user interface and

interface between various components. The user in- 736  
terface should provide facilities for specification of 737  
details to various discovery processes such as inputs, 738  
outputs, and tools used for discovery. The ability to 739  
specify objectives for model discovery activity (e.g., 740  
maximum number of models, minimum level of ac- 741  
curacy) will also be required. In general, the user in- 742  
terface should provide interaction with the system 743  
from operational and exploratory perspectives. The 744  
operational perspective should provide facilities that 745  
are common to many DSS (e.g., data visualization in 746  
data warehouses/data marts, finding interesting pat- 747  
terns and associations in data). The exploratory per- 748  
spective should provide similar facilities on models in 749  
model marts and model warehouses. Common faci- 750  
lities between these two modes include intelligent 751  
assistance in various tasks, visual specification envi- 752  
ronment, intuitive graphical user interface, etc. Assis- 753  
tance through intelligent agents that are versatile and 754  
autonomous [30,42] for automated discovery of pat- 755  
terns in data and decision models may also be consid- 756  
ered. Corporate intranets can both provide an effective 757  
medium for dissemination of various types of knowl- 758  
edge. 759

Facilities for interfacing with other systems should 760  
include importing and exporting models discovered to 761  
other existing systems, and access to a variety of 762  
knowledge discovery and data mining techniques. Ap- 763  
proaches such as DecisionNet [6] and the Open DSS 764  
protocol [16] for accessing and invoking data mining 765  
and decision mining tools over the Internet would be 766  
helpful in evaluating and employing suitable tools and 767  
techniques. 768

#### 4.4. Model socialization support 770

The socialization process consists of the creation 771  
of new tacit models based on the sharing and integra- 772  
tion of existing tacit models. This is mainly achieved 773  
through the sharing decision experiences. The experi- 774  
ence sharing can be through participation in the 775  
decision making process or through the sharing of in- 776  
formation documenting the process and its outcome. 777  
Therefore, tools for collaborative decision making 778  
(e.g., GroupSystems for Windows) and tools for data 779  
retrieval and interpretation (e.g., intelligent agents, 780  
OLAP and case-based reasoning) can be very useful. 781  
The information stored in the data warehouse and data 782

783 marts representing past problems and the associated  
 784 decisions can be explored through intelligent agents  
 785 and examined through OLAP tools in order to identify  
 786 patterns reflecting tacit decision making processes.  
 787 Case-based reasoning can also enable decision makers  
 788 to identify cases similar to the problem at hand and  
 789 adapt the associated solutions.

## 790 5. Conclusion

791 In this paper, we presented an approach for inte-  
 792 grating decision support and knowledge management  
 793 to enhance the quality of support provided to decision  
 794 makers. A framework for integrating these highly  
 795 interrelated decision support and knowledge manage-  
 796 ment processes is proposed. Some of the benefits of  
 797 integrating DSS and KMS include (i) enhanced quality  
 798 of support provided to decision makers in the direction  
 799 of real-time adaptive active decision support, (ii) sup-  
 800 porting knowledge management functions such as  
 801 acquisition, creation, exploitation and accumulation,  
 802 (iii) facilitating discovery of trends and patterns in the  
 803 accumulated knowledge, and (iv) supporting means  
 804 for building up organizational memory.

805

### 806 5.1. Implications for research

807 We have described the complementing roles of  
 808 DSS and KMS in our proposed framework that  
 809 integrates the research in the respective fields. The  
 810 approach and the framework proposed in this paper  
 811 require significant integration of research from vari-  
 812 ous fields, e.g., knowledge discovery in databases,  
 813 model management in DSS, knowledge-based sys-  
 814 tems, soft computing, case-based reasoning, intelli-  
 815 gent agents, and data warehouses. Some of the  
 816 challenges in this integration include: (i) representa-  
 817 tion and storage mechanisms for different types of  
 818 explicit models, (ii) discovering patterns in explicit  
 819 models, which is a complex task compared to discov-  
 820 ering patterns in databases, (iii) visualization of  
 821 explicit models and changes in explicit models, (iv)  
 822 defining taxonomy to assist combination of explicit  
 823 models of different modeling paradigms to create new  
 824 models, and (v) extending the applicability of the  
 825 proposed approach to other types of decision-making  
 826 situations.

### 5.2. Implications for practice

827  
828  
829 Many findings and developments in the field of  
830 DSS over the past couple of decades and in the field  
831 of KMS in recent years are not yet fully exploited.  
832 One possible reason for this is the difficulties as-  
833 sociated with externalization or modeling process.  
834 The approach presented in this paper illustrates the  
835 means for automating this difficult task. Using such  
836 an approach, it is possible to build integrated DSS  
837 and KMS that are better tuned to individual decision-  
838 making styles. Although this approach poses chal-  
839 lenges in integrating different tools and technol-  
840 ogies, it helps designers and builders of DSS in  
841 minimizing the time and effort required for developing  
842 DSS applications. DSS developed following the pro-  
843 posed framework will also enhance the chances of  
844 acceptance by decision makers because their subjec-  
845 tivity in decision making is reflected in the decision  
846 models.

847 The externalization process in the proposed ap-  
848 proach assumes that the decision instances are avail-  
849 able and approximately represent tacit models of de-  
850 cision makers. The models externalized using such  
851 instances of a decision maker can, therefore, be ex-  
852 pected to result in decisions that are close to or similar  
853 to those taken by that decision maker.

854 Model marts and model warehouses can, in addition  
855 to providing decision makers a better understanding of  
856 decisions taken, help other decision makers at higher  
857 organizational levels to understand current decision  
858 patterns and analyze changes in those patterns over  
859 long periods of time. Organizations can also use such  
860 information for validation of decisions, verification of  
861 consistency in decision making, alignment of decisions  
862 with organizational objectives and goals, and for train-  
863 ing new staff. The proposed framework has potential to  
864 support building e-commerce and m-commerce appli-  
865 cation that are capable of abstracting and generalizing  
866 relevant data (e.g., purchase decisions of a customer  
867 based on his/her profile) into explicit modes and pro-  
868 vide customized response to both existing and pro-  
869 spective customers. Exploiting recent developments in  
870 these interdisciplinary fields can lead to the building of  
871 enterprise-wide support environments for the next  
872 generation that enhance the quality of support provided  
873 by DSS and KMS. Considering the three mutually  
874 reinforcing trends in data mining speculated by Mitch-  
875

875 ell [26], the proposed integration could be considered  
876 feasible in this decade.

## 877 6. Uncited references

878 [15]  
879 [33]  
880 [35]  
881 [40]

## 882 Appendix A. Examples of model externalization 883 from classification decisions

### 884 A.1. Customer Credit Rating

886 This example illustrates model externalization using  
887 200 randomly selected decision instances describing  
888 customer credit rating provided with Sipina-W for  
889 Windows <http://eric.univ-lyon2.fr/~ricco/sipina.html>.  
890 The credit rating data set has 1000 instances with 7  
891 numeric and 13 categorical attributes. Customer profile  
892 is captured by attributes such as status of checking  
893 account, credit history, purpose of loan application,  
894 amount, saving, present employment, etc. A categori-  
895 cal attribute captures the customer credit rating (GOOD  
896 or BAD). The following set of rules have been gen-  
897 erated using CART method of Sipina-W resulting 69%  
898 accuracy on the remaining 800 instances.

899 R1: if Balance in Checking Account < 0  
900 then Credit Rating = BAD; 75% confidence.  
901 R2: if Balance in Checking Account >= 0 and  
902 < 200  
903 then Credit Rating = BAD; 63% confidence.  
904 R3: if Balance in Checking Account >= 200  
905 then Credit Rating = GOOD; 73% confidence.  
906 R4: if Customer has NO Checking Account  
907 then Credit Rating = GOOD; 75% confidence.  
908

### 913 A.2. Employment Preference

915 A neuro-fuzzy classifier, NEFCLASS-PC 2.04 <http://fuzzy.cs.uni-magdeburg.de/nefclass/nefclass.html>  
916 was used to extract rules from a small data set consist-  
917 ing of 20 employment offers each with three numeric  
918 attributes and a categorical attribute indicating prefer-

ence for that offer by a final year undergraduate 920  
student. The numeric attributes include monthly salary, 921  
status of organization and job relevance. The neuro- 922  
fuzzy classifier has generated the following set of fuzzy 923  
rules using this data set. The classifier also generated 924  
the membership functions (*large*, *medium* and *small* for 925  
each input attribute). 926

R1: if salary is *small* and orgstat is *large* and jobrel 927  
is *large* 928  
then preference = hesitate 929  
R2: if salary is *large* and orgstat is *large* and jobrel 930  
is *medium* 932  
THEN preference = accept 933  
R3: if salary is *large* and orgstat is *small* and jobrel 934  
is *small* 936  
THEN preference = hesitate 937  
R4: if salary is *small* and orgstat is *large* and jobrel 938  
is *medium* 940  
THEN preference = hesitate 941  
R5: if salary is *small* and orgstat is *large* and jobrel 943  
is *small* 944  
THEN preference = hesitate 945  
R6: if salary is *small* and orgstat is *small* and jobrel 946  
is *small* 948  
THEN preference = reject 950

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