

Lecture "Intelligent Systems"

Chapter 10: System analysis

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Content

- Motivation
- Autonomy and self-organisation
- Quantification of self-organisation
- The survival cycle of an organic system
- Robustness
- Autonomy
- Conclusion and further readings

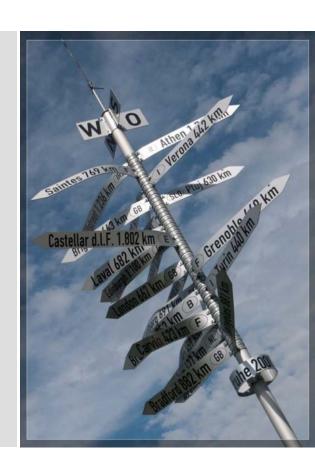
Goals

Students should be able to:

- define what the terms selforganisation, autonomy, adaptability, utility, robustness, disturbance, and variability mean.
- explain the behaviour of an organic system according to a state-space model.
- describe the OC survival cycle.
- quantify robustness, selforganisation, and autonomy.



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Organic Computing as representative for intelligent systems means:

- Using concepts such as self-organisation in technical systems.
- As a result:
 - Traditional design-time decisions are moved to runtime.
 - From the engineer to the systems themselves.
 - Goal: Higher robustness, reduced complexity.

Engineering means:

- Quantification of system properties
- Prove that an organic system is better than any other.
- → We have to define the basic "ingredients" of intelligent systems.
- → We have to quantify the required aspects.

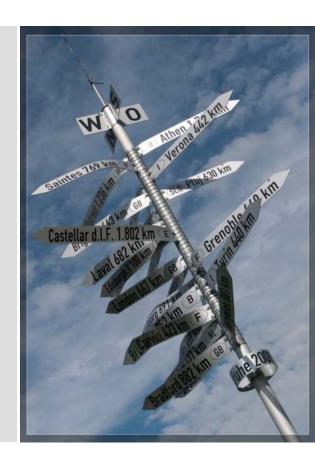


What makes an OC/intelligent system special?

- Emergence may occur.
- The system is self-managing.
- This self-managing process requires objectives or a utility.
- Systems come with a control mechanism that acts autonomously.
- This control mechanism can be distributed in various ways.
- It recovers the system after disturbances occurred.
- Self-organisation takes place to change the system's structure.
- Self-adaptation takes place to change the system's configuration.



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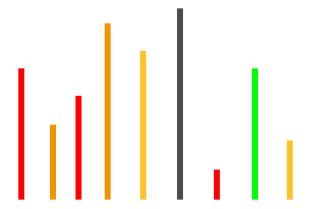


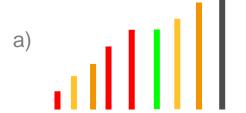
Example: An ordering game

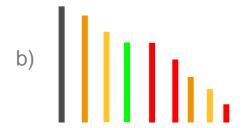


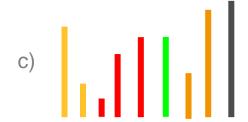
- Properties of each stick
 - Length
 - Colour
- Ordering objectives
 - increasing length
 - decreasing length
 - colour clusters





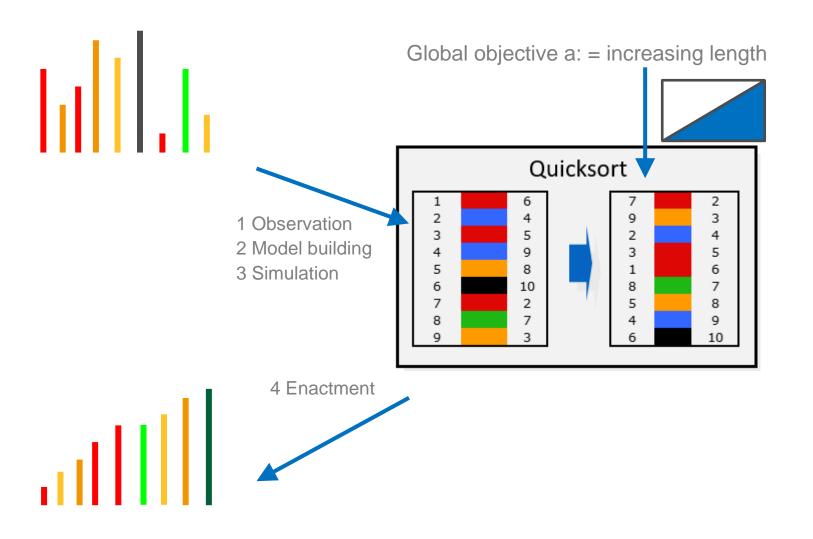






Example: An ordering game (2)

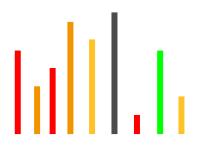




Example: An ordering game (3)



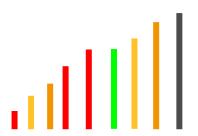
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Global objective a: = increasing length



- 1) Local objective: right > myself
- 2) Local observation: right < myself
- 3) Local decision:if right < myself then switch places;else: nil
- 4) Local enactment
- 5) Go to 2



An "intelligent system" that acts autonomously in the "game".

Example: An ordering game (4)



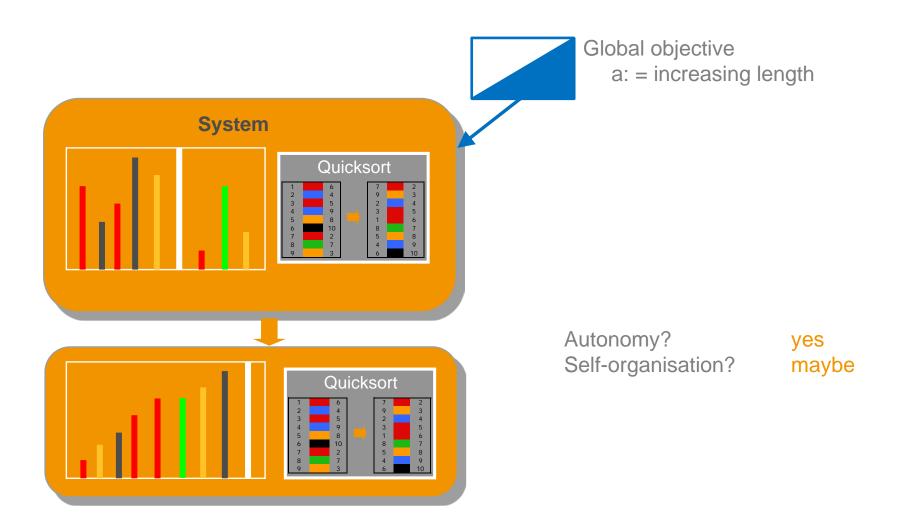
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Question: Is this self-organisation or autonomy?

Global objective: = increasing length **System System** Quicksort Autonomy No SO? No Autonomy? Yes SO? Yes

Example: An ordering game (5)





Example: An ordering game (6)



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What can we learn from these examples?

- Preliminary definitions
 - Autonomy:
 - A System changes its structure without explicit external control.
 - There must be some kind of internal control mechanism!
 - Self-organisation:
 - The internal control mechanism is distributed (to a certain degree).

Example: An ordering game (7)



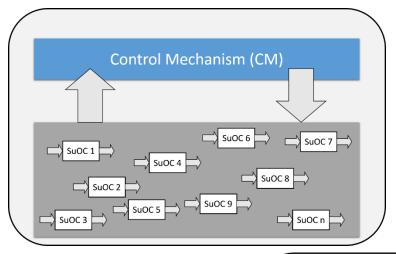
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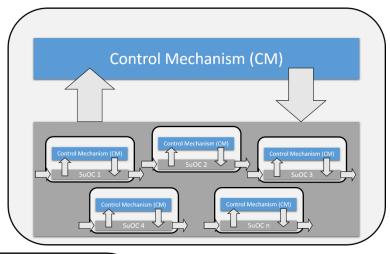
What is self-organisation?

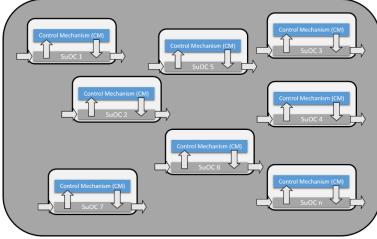
- Intuition suggests that a self-organising system is
 - a multi-element system (consisting of m elements, m > 1)
 - which needs no (little) external control to restructure itself (i.e., it has a high degree of autonomy).
- Common assumption:
 - System consists of one or more productive parts (i.e., the m elements) and an internal control mechanism (CM).
 - CM of a self-organising system is (to a certain degree) distributed over the m elements.
- The control mechanism (CM) can be:
 - centralised / global (one CM)
 - distributed over the m elements (m CMs)
 - distributed over a hierarchy of CMs.

Example: An ordering game (8)



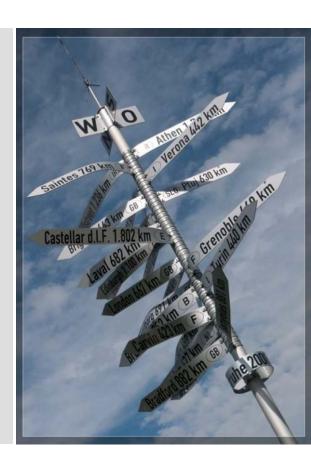








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Static degree of self-organisation



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Quantification: the static degree of self-organisation

- Let S be an adaptive system consisting of m elements (m > 1) with large degrees of autonomy (α and β) and fully or partially distributed k control mechanisms CM (k ≥ 1) leading to a degree of selforganisation of (k : m).
- S is called strongly self-organised, if k = m, i.e. the degree of self-organisation is (m : m).
- S is called self-organised, if k > 1, i.e. it has a medium degree of self-organisation (k : m).
- S is called weakly self-organised, if k = 1, i.e. there is a central control mechanism and the degree of self-organisation is (1 : m).
 → Assumption: all CMs are internal!

Static degree of self-organisation (2)



Assumption:

 Exclude pathological organisational forms, e.g. the concentration of all CMs on a single controller, hidden CMs, etc.

Distinguish between the following terms:

- Systems can be modified (adapted) at runtime in terms of (i) structure and/or (ii) parameter values.
- Self-configuration relates to a (re-) parameterisation of a system (with parameters influencing the productive behaviour).
- Self-organisation relates to change of the structure of a system (i.e. of components and their links).
- Self-management comprises self-configuration, self-organisation, and possibly further self-*mechanisms.

Static degree of self-organisation (3)



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Static degree of self-organisation

- Assumes full access to the design concept.
- Needed to identify and count the CM structures.
- A quantification of self-organisation from an external point-of-view, i.e. without interfering with the system's logic and design, needs a different approach.
- In the following, self-organisation is considered as a process at runtime instead of as a static value.

Self-organisation as a process

- Self-organisation: system's ability to modify its structure autonomously and to optimise a certain utility function.
- System is expected to make use of its self-organisation capability in response to certain events rather than as a permanent change.

Self-organisation as a process



When is self-organisation observed at runtime?

- When the system increases its degree of organisation and builds up a structure (i.e. at system start),
- When a disturbance happens and the system recovers to its previous degree of organisation.

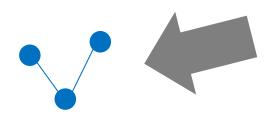
Approach

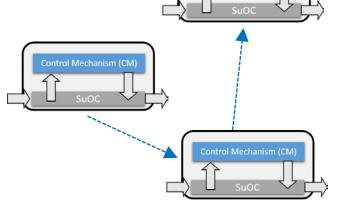
- Internal values are not accessible.
- Observe each (distributed) component of the entire system.
- Relationships between distributed components of the entire system define the structure of the system.
- Relationships are established and altered using communication.
- → Observe the communication and estimate relationships out of this behaviour.

Self-organisation as a process (2)



- Build a graph G = (V, E)
 - Each component/entity is modelled as a node.
 - Each relationship is modelled as an edge.





- From this graph, we can derive two aspects of self-organisation:
 - Changes between two consecutive points in time signalise that the structure in the system has been altered. Information is used to quantify to which degree self-organisation processes occurred in the system.
 - 2. Difference between the possible relationships and the actually utilised relationships over time. This information signalises to which degree the system makes use of its organisation potential.

Quantification of self-organisation processes



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Approach: Build a graph at both time steps t_0 and t_1

- Assumption: All communication is observable from the external. This communication is purpose-oriented.
- Communication is encoded with origin and destination.
- Messages are distinguishable at a semantic level: Those related to structural information are turned into an edge of the graph.
- Message model: unicast (or multicast) messages
 - → Broadcasts are neglected

$$\Delta(G_1, G_2) = \frac{\left| \left\{ e_{ij} : e_{ij} \in G_1 \oplus e_{ij} \in G_2 \right\} \right|}{0.5 \left(|V_1| + |V_2| \right)}$$

Value of Δ: quantifies self-organisation that occurred in the system in the considered time frame

 E_k : set of edges of the k-th graph V_k : set of nodes of the k-th graph Each edge e_{ij} : directed connection from node I to j

Quantification of self-organisation processes (2)



- Isolated information of Δ just highlights that something happened.
- Good indicator when observing one system to decide whether selforganisation occurs or not.
- Goal: Compare different systems
 - Put information of how much self-organisation has been observed into relation to the possible decision potential.
 - Quantify to which degree the system made use of its ability to selforganise.
- Required: estimate the decision potential (corresponds to the possible communication partners)
- Two approaches are possible
 - 1. Information is available by design
 - → Designer specifies possible communication partners for each node.
 - 2. Information is approximated at runtime
 - → We need a method for this...

Approximation of self-organisation potential



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Approach:

- Continuously observe all structure-related communication of the node under consideration and analyse each message.
- Maintain a list of interaction partners I_j (either as the origin or as the destination of the observed messages) for each node j.
- Every time, a new interaction partner is observed, add it to the list.
- Pessimistic alternative, a worst-case estimation is possible by assuming that each node can interact with each other node, resulting in a fully connected graph.

Please note: approach only results in meaningful information after observing the system for a certain period of time. Comparing the actual relationships to those ever observed in the system has only impact after a certain amount of change has occurred.

Approximation of self-organisation potential (2)



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Approach:

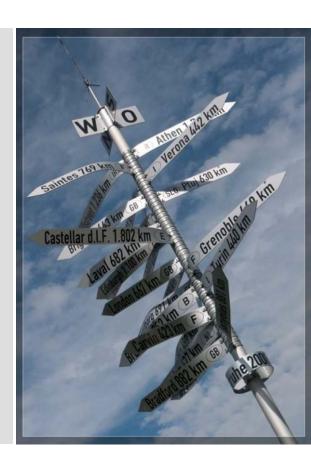
- At a certain point t_{quant} consider set of interaction partners I_j .
- Build directed graph: edges connecting node j and its partners.
- Result of this process is reference graph G_r .
- Instead of the previous approach, where two distinct points in time are represented as graphs in terms of snapshots of conditions, we now consider the entire process.
- Compare all observed changes over time (i.e. the number of modified edges) to the reference graph to come up with a (dynamic) degree of self-organisation until a certain time t_{quant} .

$$SO(t) = \frac{|E_t|}{|E_r|}$$

Set E_t contains all edges that have been changed from system start to time t, and E_r contains all edges of the reference graph. Please note that by definition $|E_r| > |E_t|$.



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Survival cycle



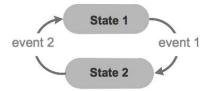
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Motivation

- Systems face the challenge to survive in an ever-changing world.
- Behaviour can be modelled as survival cycle.
- Model is used for formalisations and metrics afterwards.

An initial model

- State machine
- External events change the state of the system in a pre-programmed way.



Example: state machine with 2 states

- Automaton encodes a predefined sequence of steps to be executed depending on the received input in-formation (the events).
- There is no way to express preferences or ambiguities, though, since all transitions are deterministic and all states are equivalent.

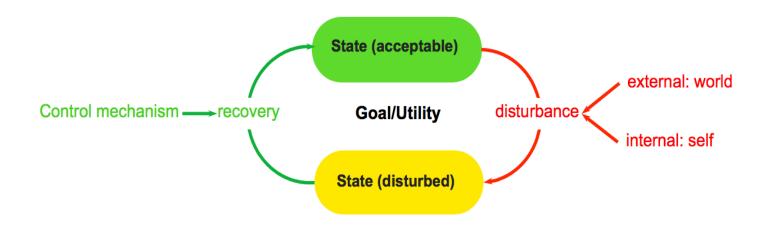


An OC approach

- Adopt the method of a state description, add preferences!
- Perspective of an agent:
 - has the goal to survive.
 - there are certain system states more desirable than others.
- Agent is at any given time in a state z.
- Moved to a different state by an event. Origin can be:
 - internal (e.g. a malfunction of the agent itself) or
 - external, i.e. a change in the environment.
- A state so far is neutral and does not indicate a value (i.e. good or bad).
- Needed: a state's utility about a given goal.



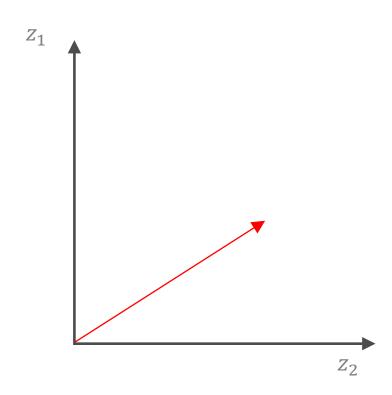
- Goals distinguish good states from bad ones (same holds for influences):
 - Concerning a given goal, a state is acceptable or disturbed (i.e. not acceptable).
 - An OC system always tries to stay in an acceptable state.
 - A disturbance causes a deviation from the acceptable state, the control mechanism will initiate recovery actions to guide the system back into an acceptable state.





The system state

- Given by a vector z.
- With single attributes as components.
- Any useful metric to characterise the system state possible.
- But:
 We are interested only in observable
 metrics (by the system itself).





Example:

- State of a robot with a GPS localisation system might be defined as its x and y coordinates.
- Robot is able to determine these coordinates itself: x and y are selfobservables and part of the state vector.
- Without a GPS: coordinates are known only from the point of view of an external observer.
 - → Not part of the state vector.
- Further examples of state vectors are:
 - Ordering game: z = (length of stick 1, colour of stick 1, length of stick 2, colour of stick 2, ...)
 - Traffic controller: z = (traffic flow in cars/hour for all turnings of the intersection)
 - Router: z = (length of message queues, link status)



- Observables might originate from the "world".
 - I.e. perceived via the external sensory equipment of the agent.
 - Or from its internal sensors (indicating e.g. the battery level, the functional status of a motor, or the length of a task queue).
- In a stricter sense, all observables are internal since even perceptions stemming from the external world are first transferred (possibly under some distortions) into the agent's internal world model before they can be used for control purposes.
- This is equivalent to the "beliefs" in the BDI agent model.
- At any given time t, the system S is in a state z(t).
- If there are n observable attributes used to describe the state of S, $\mathbf{z}(t)$ is a vector in an n-dimensional state space Z^n .





- State vector of a system S is a neutral and (as far as possible) objective statement about the knowledge (or beliefs) of S.
- It becomes a statement about values (good or bad or something in between) by assigning values to the state.
- Assignment is achieved by a utility function η.
- The function η maps the system state into a set of real numbers u:
 u = η (z); u_i ∈ R
- u is used to represent the objectives to be achieved by the control mechanism of S.
- Objectives can be a maximisation or a minimisation.
- **u** can consist of different utilities $u_1, u_2, ...$ resulting from different state attributes and their combinations.
- Utilities can even contradict each other (multi-criteria optimisation).



Examples for utility assignments:

- Ordering game (with increasing order): Let u denote the number of local misorderings (i.e. the number of locations i where the height of stick i + 1 is lower than the height of stick i); then reduce u to zero!
- Distributed workers having to work on a number of tasks: Let u be the aggregated differences in the number of tasks per worker; make u as small as possible.
- Vehicle passing a network (from A to B): Let t_{travel} be the travel time from A to B and t_{opt} the optimal realistic travel time, then define the utility as $\mathbf{u} = t_{travel} t_{opt}$ and minimise \mathbf{u} .
 - → An additional conflicting objective could be to minimise the fuel consumption of the vehicle.

Utility (3)

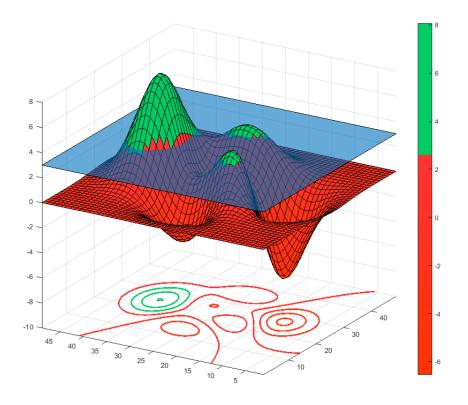


- Utilities can be used to visualise the problem faced by the agents.
- If each state is mapped onto a utility value, we obtain for an ndimensional state space an n+1-dimensional fitness landscape.
- The agents navigate in this landscape and try to assume a state with a high utility (corresponding to a high fitness).
- In case of a 2-dimensional state space, the utility or fitness landscape is a 3-dimensional plane (utility = fitness).



Example:

- 3-dimensional fitness landscape for a 2-dimensional state space.
- Fitness threshold (e.g. an acceptance threshold) is a plane (blue) cutting the fitness "mountains' horizontally.
- All states with a utility higher than the threshold are acceptable (green).

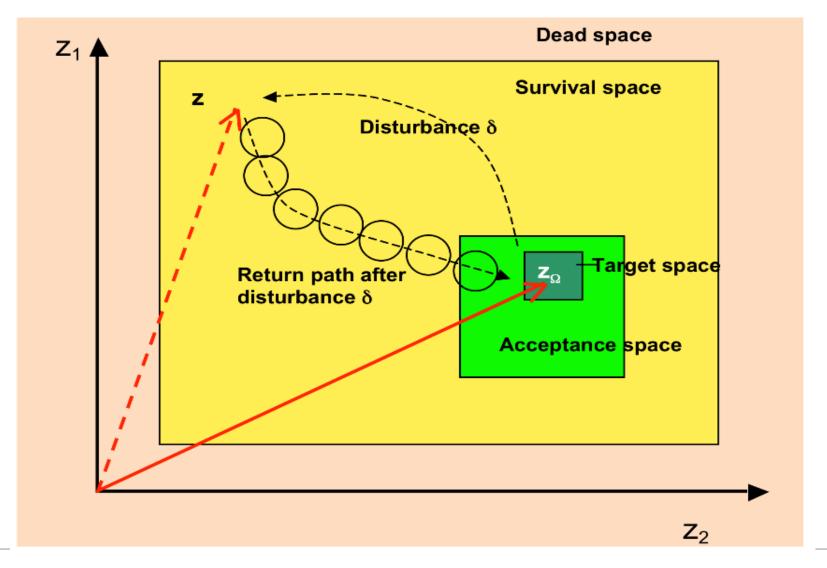




From state and utility to state spaces

- State vector of a system S is a neutral and (as far as possible) objective statement about the knowledge (or beliefs) of S.
- Utilities are used by the control mechanism to compare the current state with an ideal system state.
- If the actual utility is lower than the desired one, the control mechanism has
 to trigger actions to reduce the difference, i.e. to optimise the system.
- Needed: Thresholds categorising behaviour.
- Goal:
 - Classify states according to utility!
 - Provide different state spaces that require different actions from the control mechanism.







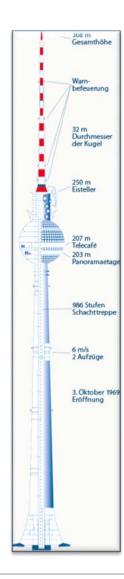
Distinguish state spaces:

- Target Space: All states with a utility $u \ge u_{target}$ belong to the target space Z_{Ω} (might also be just *one* globally optimal state).
- Acceptance Space: We denote those system states as acceptable whose utility is greater than or equal to u_{acc} . The set of all acceptable system states is called acceptance space $Z_{acceptable}$.
- Survival Space: An OC system will always try to return to an acceptable state. Such a recovery is possible only from a certain subset of states, the Survival space.
- Dead Space: Any disturbance δ moving z outside the survival space will be lethal for S: Such states belong to the Dead space.

Example: Broadcast Tower



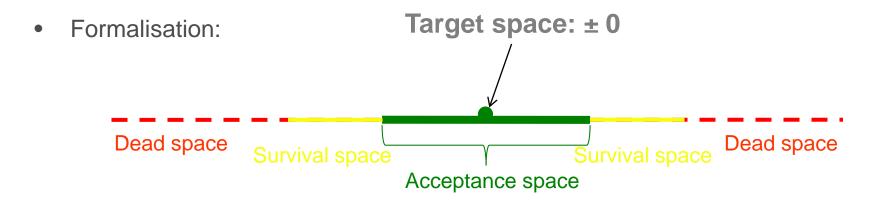
- Tower moves continuously (deflection)
 - Without human perception
 - On top with a radius of about 60cm
 - At the tower cafe with r = 15cm
 - The frequency of changing the deflection is about 7 to 10 seconds
- Goal (target): deflection = 0!
- Acceptance: deflection= ±60 cm (still open to the public)
- Survival: deflection >60cm and <120cm (closed to the public)
- Damage*: deflection> ±120 cm



Example: Broadcast Tower (2)



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Dead space:





Disturbance

- The system might be disturbed by environmental influences or disturbances δ .
- A disturbance δ changes the state z(t) into the disturbed state $z_{\delta}(t) = \delta(z(t))$.
- As a result: utility changes to $u_{\delta} = \eta (z_{\delta}(t))$.
- If $u_{\delta} < u_{acc}$: the system is outside the acceptance space.
- Examples for such a disturbance:
 - Sudden relocation of a stick (in the ordering game).
 - Failure of some component (e.g., in the travel scenario, a vehicle could get a flat tire or a road might be blocked by an accident).



Notion of disturbance

- Also includes changes in the evaluation criteria.
- Example: a change from an ascending to a descending ordering objective or from sorting with respect to height to grouping with respect to colour.
- Corresponds to relocation of target and acceptance space and not a state change of the system!
- For the control mechanism: Same concept.
 - \rightarrow It must become active until **z** is again within $Z_{\text{acceptable}}$.
- We refer to a shift in the utility (i.e. a change of the goals given by the user) as flexibility.

An OC system is *flexible* if its control mechanism guides the system back to (at least) an acceptable state after a change of the utility occurred (i.e. the state-utility mapping results in modified values); within a predefined time period.

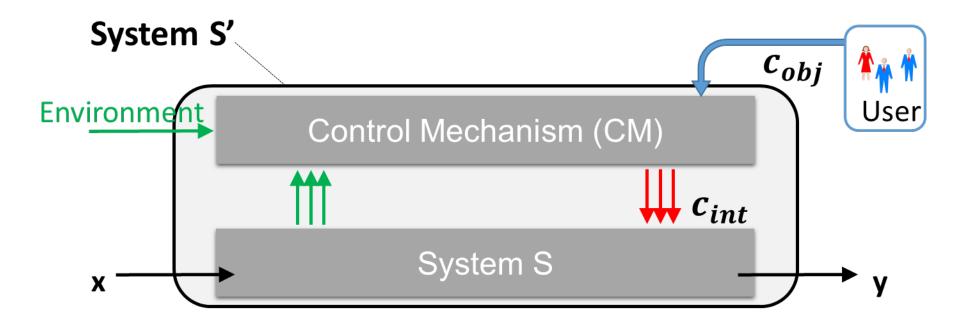
- System state varies over time.
- Consequently: utility differs as well.
- Control mechanism is responsible to guide the system back to the acceptance space after a drop in utility (i.e. from survival space).
- Usually the utility drop occurs very fast after the disturbance while the recovery takes much more time.
- Reasons:
 - Recovery process being typically very noisy and interrupted by setbacks.
 - If the disturbance is still in force while the CM works against it.
- In state space:
 - Recovery of a system is observed as the movement of the state vector back into acceptance/target space.
 - Symbolised by the circles.



Control Mechanism (CM)

- Recovery is not magic and comes for free.
- Recovery is done by built-in CM in organic systems.
- CM influences the behaviour of system S by changing some of its attributes.
- System S is called "System under Observation and Control" (SuOC).
- CS_{int} constitutes the configuration space of the SuOC.
- SuOC is a productive system, which does the real work.
- It receives input signals x and transforms them into output signals y.
- CM initiates control actions (i.e. it issues control signals c_{int} to S).
- S together with the CM constitute a system S', which again could be controlled by a higher-level CM via the control signals c_{obj}.



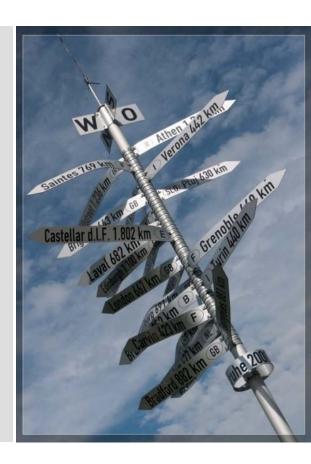


 Important: CM does not change any environmental parameter directly. Even the system state can be influenced only indirectly by setting c_{int}.

Agenda



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Organic Computing systems...

- ... are inspired by nature.
- ... mimic architectural and behavioural characteristics, such as selforganisation, self-adaptation or decentralised control.
- ... avoid a single-point-of-failure to achieve desirable properties, such as self-healing, self-protection, and self-optimisation.

Goal:

- The ultimate goal is to use these concepts to make systems resistant against external or internal disturbances.
- OC systems do not per se achieve a higher performance than conventional systems but they return faster to a certain corridor of acceptable performance in the presence of disturbances.

We call this property robustness!

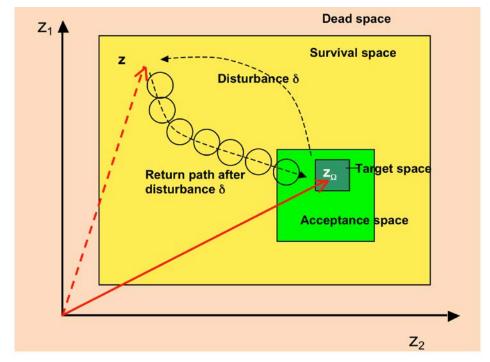
Robustness versus flexibility



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We distinguish two possible reasons for state changes of S:

1. The system state $\vec{z}(t)$ changes due to an internal change of the system (e.g. broken component) or a change of the environment (disturbance δ). If the system remains to be acceptable, this corresponds to the common understanding of a **robust** system.

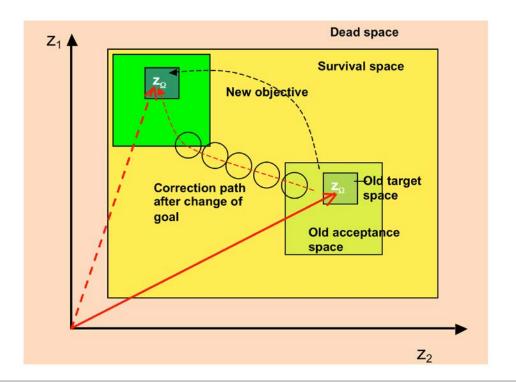


Robustness versus flexibility (2)



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2. The state $\vec{z}(t)$ stays where it is but the evaluation and acceptance criteria change. This moves to target and acceptance space – they have a new position within the n-dimensional state space. We call a system, which is able to cope with such changes in its behavioural specification, a **flexible** system.

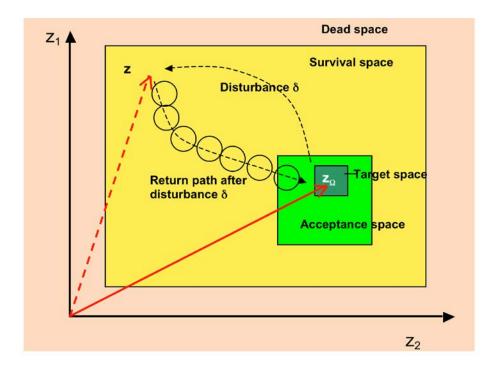




- We call a system more robust if it has a large number of states that do not lead to reduced performance or to undesired behaviour.
- Definition: Let *D* be a non-empty set of disturbances δ :
 - 1. A system S is called **strongly robust** with respect to D, iff all the disturbances in $\delta \in D$ map the target space into itself.
 - 2. A system S is called **robust** with respect to D, iff all the disturbances in $\delta \in D$ map the target space into the acceptance space.
 - 3. A system S is called **weakly robust** with respect to D, iff all the disturbances in $\delta \in D$ map the target space into the survival space and the internal control mechanism CM is able to lead S back to at least an acceptable state.

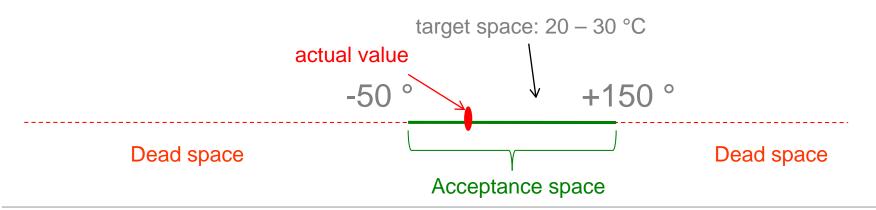


- The (degree of) robustness of a system increases with the size of the set of disturbances D the system can handle.
- This means the system fulfils the requirements named by the three different robustness classes named before.



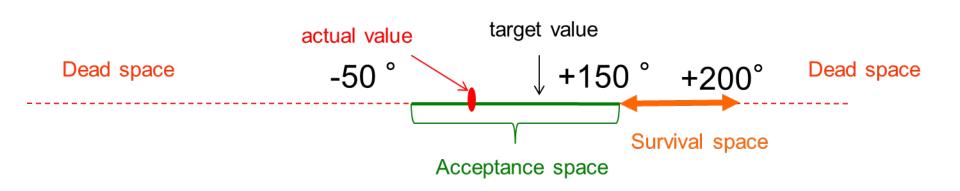


- An integrated circuit IC₁ with automotive specification functions correctly in an environment with temperatures from -50°C to +150°C.
 It works best in the temperature range from 20 to 30 °C.
 - Within -50°C to +150 °C (acceptance space), there is no control action necessary.
 - It is strongly robust concerning a change of environment conditions if it stays within 20 – 30 °C.
 - It is robust concerning a change of environment conditions if it stays within -50 - +150 °C.



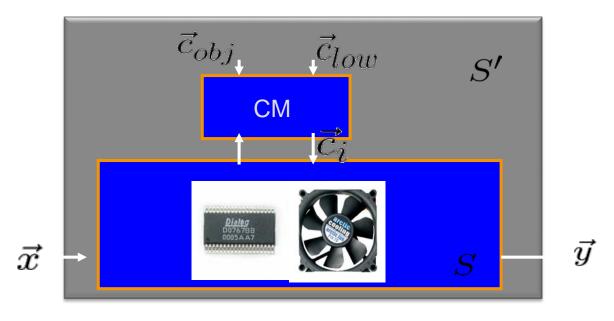


- An integrated circuit IC₂ functions correctly in an environment with temperatures from -50 °C to +150 °C.
 - Within this temperature range, there is no control action necessary (acceptance space).
- Now we add a cooling fan to IC₂ and a temperature sensor. The fan can cool
 the IC₂ if the temperature goes beyond +150 °C (but does not exceed 200
 °C).





- The fan and the CM (which controls it) turn IC₂ into a weakly robust system concerning a temperature range of -50 °C to + 200 °C.
 - S = (IC2 + sensor + fan) is an adaptable system.
 - S' = (IC2 + sensor + fan + CM) is an **adaptive** system.





Observation

- OC systems under attack show a characteristic behaviour
 (an attack is a certain instance of the broader class of disturbances).
- I.e. a fast drop in utility after a disturbance (or an intentional attack).
- Followed by a somewhat slower recovery to the original performance (provided that there are suitable OC mechanisms).

Quantification of robustness

- Goal: Estimate the benefit of OC control.
- Approach: compare different CM designs in terms of their ability to provide resilience to external disturbances.
- Focus: use the area of the characteristic utility degradation over time.
 → Area captures (i) depth of the utility drop, (ii) duration of the recovery.
- Note: degradation of zero corresponds to an ideally robust system.

Quantification requirements

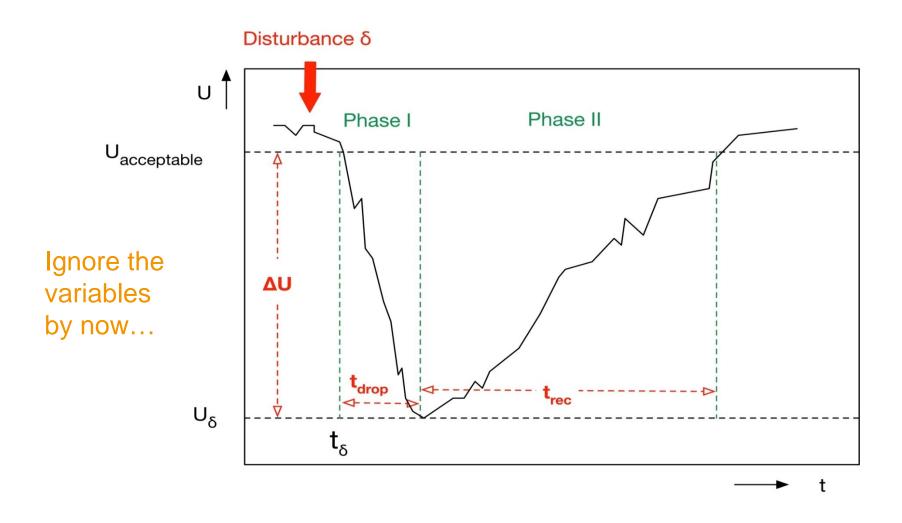


A generalised approach to quantify robustness:

- a) works on externally measurable values,
- does not need additional information sources (e.g. transactional databases),
- distinguishes between system-inherent (or passive) and system-added (or active) robustness (to allow for an estimation of the effectiveness of the particular mechanism) and
- d) provides a measure that allows for a comparison of different systems for the same problem instance.

We derive such a measure step-wise in the following...





Robustness types



Passive and active robustness

- System in the undisturbed state shows a certain target performance.
- Rate a system by a utility measure u.
- System reacts to disturbance by deviating from its acceptable utility u_{acc} by Δu.
- Passively robust systems react to the disturbance by a deflection Δu = Δx.
 → Tower example: wind pressure -> Δx in horizontal distance.
- Active robustness mechanisms (e.g. an organic control mechanism) counteract the deviation and guide the system back to the undisturbed state with $\Delta u = 0$.
- OC systems typically have both!
 - → We'll refer to passive/active as phase 1 and 2.

Robustness types (2)



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Quantification of robustness

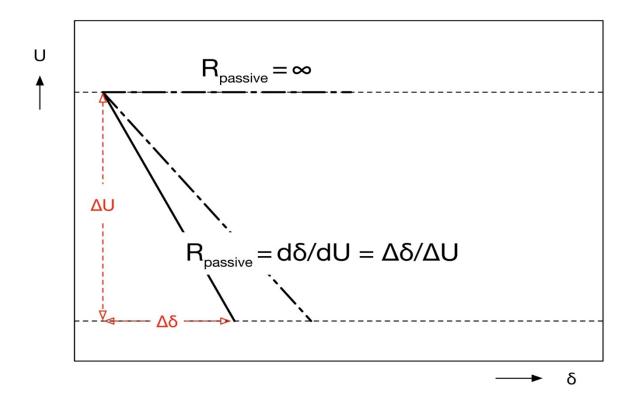
- Phases I and II together constitute the deviation phase.
- Might be difficult to discriminate and may overlap.
 - \rightarrow Active recovery mechanism starts working already at t_{δ} .
- For quantification, take into account:
 - the strength of the disturbance δ
 - the drop of the system utility from the acceptable utility u (i.e. Δu)
 - the duration of the deviation (the recovery time t_{rec}).



Passive Robustness

- Determined by the sensitivity of u against δ.
- Measure of the built-in stability of the system without an active CM.
- Structural sensitivity σ defined as the utility change caused by a disturbance δ (or the gradient of $u(\delta)$): $\sigma = du(\delta)/d\delta$
- If δ has no effect on a system ($\Delta u = 0$) its sensitivity is $\sigma = 0$.
 - Example 1: A very stable concrete tower, which does not move $(\Delta u = 0)$ under a storm of strength δ , is structurally infinitely stable, its sensitivity is $\sigma = 0$.
 - Example 2: A communication link with an error-correcting code, which corrects errors up to 3 bits, is structurally insensitive to a disturbance of strength δ = 1 bit.





• The sensitivity σ determines the utility drop ΔU caused by a disturbance δ .

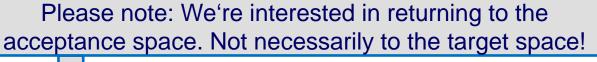


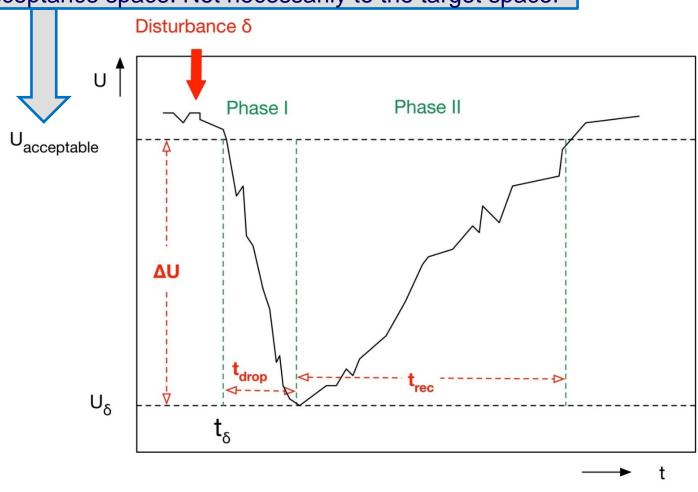
Active robustness

- Determined through the (averaged) recovery speed of the system.
- s_{active} = du/dt or
- $s_{active} = \Delta u/t_{rec}$ (in case of full recovery).
- With $t_{rec} = \Delta u/s_{active}$ and $\Delta u = \delta \cdot \sigma$ we get
- $t_{rec} = \delta \cdot \sigma / s_{active}$
- s_{active} is a property of the control mechanism (CM).
- Without a CM, the system stays at u_{disturbed} at least as long as the disturbance remains.
- The recovery time t_{rec} depends on the initial utility drop Δu determined by the system's sensitivity against the disturbance as well as the active recovery speed.

Robustness process









Effective utility degradation

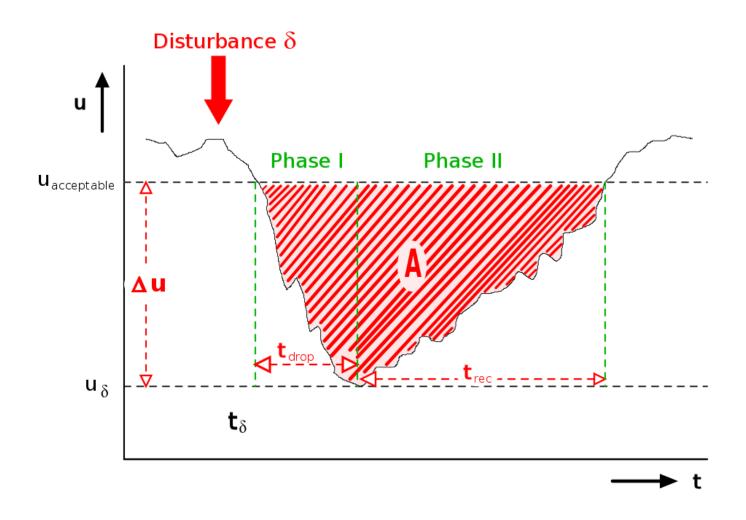
- Robustness of a system under a given disturbance of strength δ is characterised by the triple (δ , Δ u, t_{rec}) or (δ , σ , s_{active}).
- To gauge the total effect of the disturbance on the system: use the area A of the utility deviation from u_{acc} until full recovery to u_{acc} is reached.
- The area A between the accepted utility u_{acc} and the actual utility curve is defined as the utility degradation D_U (holds exactly only if u_δ = 0, otherwise a correction is necessary).

$$D_{u} = \Delta u \cdot (t_{drop} + t_{rec}) - \int\limits_{t_{\delta}}^{t_{\delta} + t_{drop} + t_{rec}} u\left(t
ight) dt$$

• To achieve minimal degradation, we have to minimise t_{rec} and Δu .

Quantification of robustness (2)





Approximation

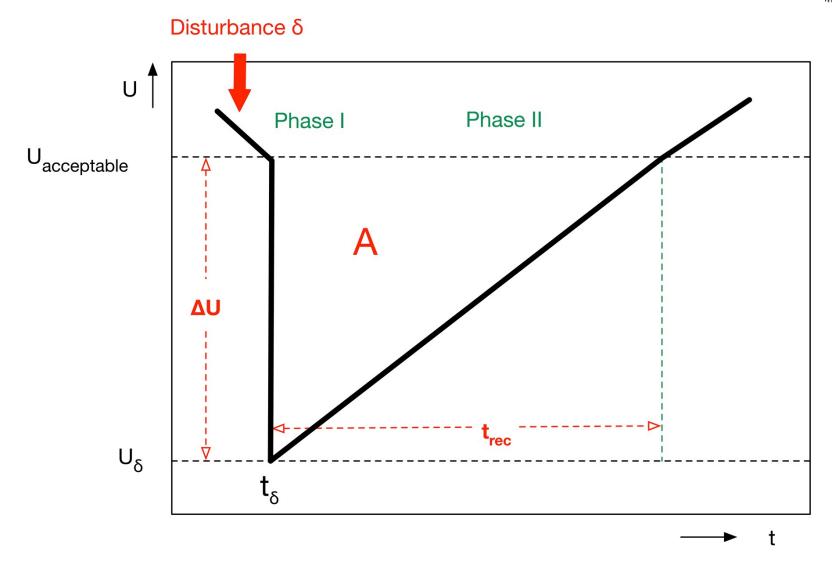


- Goal: Simplification and better estimation
- Assume that the drop occurs very fast, hence we can set $t_{drop} = 0$.
- Assume for simplification a linear utility increase, which renders the utility degradation triangular.
- Then: $D_u \approx \Delta u \cdot t_{rec} / 2 = \frac{1}{2} \delta \sigma \cdot \delta \sigma / s_{active}$
- Effective utility degradation is $D_u = \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 \cdot \sigma^2 / s_{active}$
- Decrease of the sensitivity σ decreases D_u more effectively than an increase in the recovery speed $s_{active.}$
- Reason: σ influences Δu as well as t_{rec}.
- Formula also shows trade-off is possible between σ and s_{active} depending on the cost incurred for passive (σ) and active (s_{active}) robustness measures.

Approximation of utility degradation

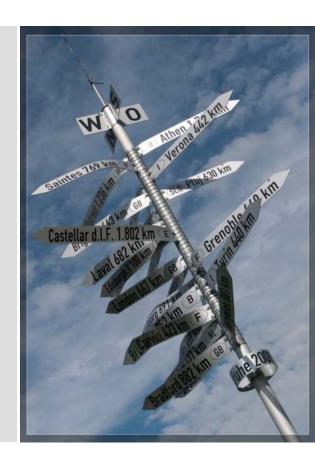


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- Motivation
- Autonomy and self-organisation
- Quantification of self-organisation
- The survival cycle of an organic system
- Robustness
- Autonomy
- Conclusion and further readings

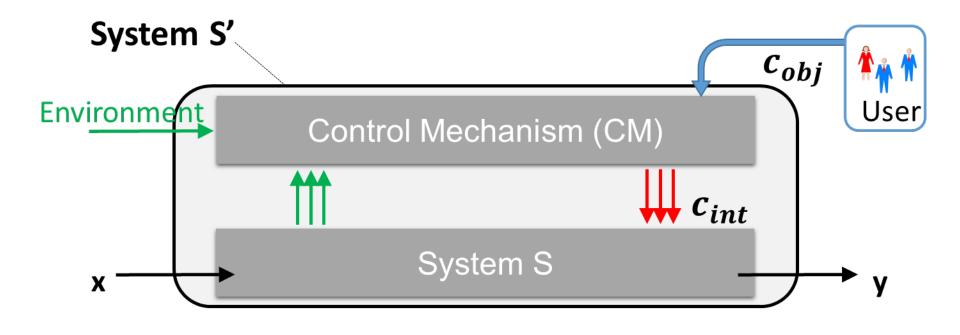




Intelligent / OC systems

- Primary goal is survival in a changing world.
- They must be robust and flexible.
 - → Stay in or to return to the acceptance space.
- Achieved by:
 - Adding control mechanism CM to the productive system S.
 - CM observes the state of S and that of the environment.
 - CM determines deviations of the state z of S from the acceptance space.
 - CM takes appropriate action to lead S back into the acceptance space.
 - Acceptance space is defined by the objective c_{obj} (or goal) as provided by some external authority.





Autonomy



- Systems that survive in this sense are called <u>autonomous</u>.
- Term "auto-nomy" (auto = self, nomos = law) is interpreted as obeying only some internal objectives of the system itself.
 - → This is not what we want!
- System has to fulfil a certain purpose:
 - We want always to be able to control the system from the outside.
 - By prescribing goals and/or constraints the system must follow.
- But: the system should act with as little external interference as possible.
- Goal: systems that keep the balance between
 - too much autonomy (makes them uncontrollable) and
 - too little autonomy (requires permanent corrective action from outside).
- Such systems are semi-autonomous.

In the following, we will develop a quantitative notion of the "degree of autonomy", which will allow us to capture the *semi*-autonomy more precisely.

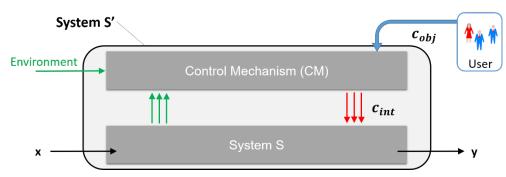
Refining the control mechanism



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Architecture

- Refine system architecture.
- Control mechanism
 - Has to observe and influence S.
 - Means: the system must provide observation and control interfaces.
 - Observation interface defines certain internal parameters of S as visible for the CM (i.e. for the observer) for monitoring.
 - The control interface exposes certain parameters of S as modifiable by the CM (i.e.: by the controller).
 - A system S, which can be modified via a control interface, is adaptable.
 - Apparently, adaptability is a purely passive system property.
- If we add a CM with its active observation and control ability to an adaptable and observable system, we arrive at a system S' which can be called (semi-) autonomous.

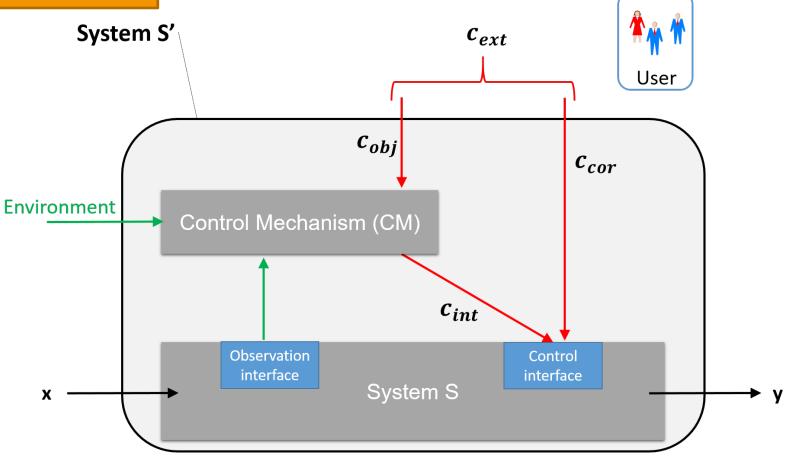


Refining the control mechanism (2)



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S is adaptable S' is adaptive





Distinguish between control influences:

- c_{int} specifies control signals issued from within the system (i.e. from the control mechanism).
- c_{obj} specifies higher-level (and more abstract) goals issued by the user or other higher-layered systems / CMs.
 - → These control signals influence S only indirectly.
- c_{ext} specifies control signals issued by external sources that influence S directly.
- \rightarrow Obviously: A system S is not autonomous if the system S' adapts its behaviour only in response to control issues c_{ext} !
- → In general, external control signals are less frequently issued.



Adaptable system S with influence on control signals

- Control parameters accessible for outside modification defines the possible configurations of S.
- A control vector c (comprising the parameters) applied to the control interface is a pointer selecting one possible configuration.
- The size of the configuration space is measured by the total size (in bits) of all control parameters.
- The size of the configuration space is called variability:

Variability V := #c

(#c denotes the number of bits used in c.)

Configuration space



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Examples for influencing S:

- Parameter modification can tune certain behaviours of S.
 - → E.g. the timing or certain threshold values.
- Parameters can change the system structure of S.,
 - → E.g. by adding or deleting edges in the communication graph of a distributed system.
- A system implemented as an FPGA (Field Programmable Gate Array) might be totally redefined by rewriting its control memory.
 - → In this case, the configuration space is huge allowing all configurations acceptable by the FPGA.



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Effectiveness of an autonomous system

- c_{obj} is (1) smaller and (2) less frequently applied than c_{int}.
 (if designed correctly).
- Quantification possible using the difference: count the number of bits necessary to express c_{obi} and c_{int}, i.e. variabilities:

$$V_{obj} = \#\mathbf{c_{obj}}$$
 and $V_{int} = \#\mathbf{c_{int}}$.

The difference between V_{int} and V_{obj} is the complexity reduction CR:

$$CR = V_{int} - V_{obj}$$

- Positive value of CR: S has a larger configuration space than S';
 - → CM achieves the desired complexity reduction.
- Assumption: coding of the parameters in c_{int} and c_{obj} is optimal in the sense that no unnecessary information is encoded.
 - → Different variabilities are comparable.



- Perfectly designed OC system:
 - CM can translate higher-level control signals (expressed as objectives or goals) into lower-level internal control signals.
 - the prescribed objectives are met.
 - the system stays in or returns to the acceptance space.
- In contrast: CM may need frequent external corrections because it is not able to keep the system within the acceptance space.
- Corrections are applied in the form of additional external control signals corrections
- c_{corr} defines an extension of the configuration space of S'.
- The total configuration space of S' is now a combination of cobj and corr.
- Combined configuration space is addressed by c_{ext}:

$$\mathbf{c}_{\text{ext}} = (\mathbf{c}_{\text{obj}}; \mathbf{c}_{\text{corr}})$$

Corrective control (2)



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If external corrections are applied:

- Variability of S' is then V_{ext} = #c_{ext}.
- Complexity reduction CR is $CR = V_{int} V_{ext}$

This is one of the primary goals of OC!

For frequent use of external corrections:

- Many corrective actions necessary.
- V_{ext} might become even larger than V_{int}.
- Leads to a negative complexity reduction:
 - → It is in this case more difficult to control S' than S!

Quantification of autonomy

- Use the complexity reduction CR
- Goal: define the static degree of autonomy α of a system S' as the complexity reduction CR relative to the internal variability V_{int}.

Static degree of autonomy

$$\alpha = (V_{int} - V_{ext})/V_{int} = CR/V_{int}$$

- with $0 \le \alpha \le 1$.
- $\alpha = 0$ if there is no complexity reduction, i.e. $V_{int} = V_{ext}$.
- α = 1 if V_{ext} = 0,
 → S' is a system, which cannot be controlled from the outside; it has a degree of autonomy of 100% (which is clearly undesirable).

Dynamic degree of autonomy



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From static to the dynamic degree of autonomy

- Static degree of autonomy α is an indicator only of the *possible* control actions for S and S'.
- Does not express the actual control actions applied by CM or by the external authority to S.
- Example: Configuration space with a certain variability V might be used frequently to control or correct S or not at all.
- Goal: measure the control flow, which is actually applied via a control interface during a defined time period from t₁ to t₂.

Dynamic degree of autonomy (2)



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Let $\#c(t_i)$ be the number of control bits applied at discrete time t_i . Then we define the dynamic complexity reduction cr as

$$Dynamic\ complexity\ reduction\ cr = \sum_{t_1}^{t_2} ig[\#c_{ ext{int}}(t_i) - \#c_{ ext{ext}}(t_i)ig]$$

and the *dynamic* degree of autonomy β as

$$Dynamic \deg ree \ of \ autonomy \ \beta = \frac{cr}{\sum_{t_1}^{t_2} \big[\# c_{\text{int}}(t_i) \big]} = \frac{\sum_{t_1}^{t_2} \big[\# c_{\text{int}}(t_i) - \# c_{\text{ext}}(t_i) \big]}{\sum_{t_1}^{t_2} \big[\# c_{\text{int}}(t_i) \big]}$$

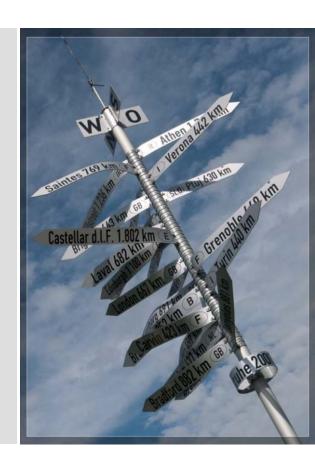
with $0 \le \beta \le 1$. As above for α , an autonomy degree of $\beta = 0$ means that internal and external control are equal, hence all the control originates from the external authority instead of CM. And $\beta = 1$ means that there exists no external control.

Agenda



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- Motivation
- Autonomy and self-organisation
- Quantification of self-organisation
- The survival cycle of an organic system
- Robustness
- Autonomy
- Conclusion and further readings



Summary



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This chapter:

- Introduced the necessary terminology for OC systems.
- Illustrated the runtime process of an OC system as survival cycle.
- Explained how major aspects of these systems can be quantified.
- Highlighted that the overall goals of organic control mechanisms are:
 - Achieve robustness
 - Reduce complexity

By now, students should be able to:

- Define what the terms selforganisation, autonomy, adaptability, utility, robustness, disturbance, and variability mean.
- Explain the behaviour of an organic system according to a state-space model.
- Describe the OC survival cycle.
- Quantify robustness, selforganisation, and autonomy.

Current developments



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The measurement framework is – by far – not complete.

Current research efforts are, e.g., dedicated to answering the following questions:

- How can we define a "degree of adaptivity"?
- Is there a (possibly situation-dependent) desirable degree of adaptivity?
- How can we define "stable" or "resilient" properties that do not refer to static behaviour but acceptable adaptations?
- What metrics need to be considered if an autonomous subsystem decides about its own integration status within an overall system structure?
- How to avoid the representation using the unit "bit" for autonomy and variability?
- ...



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Basic readings

- Schmeck, Hartmut; Müller-Schloer, Christian; Cakar, Emre; Mnif, Moez; Richter, Urban: Adaptivity and Self-organisation in Organic Computing Systems, (Reprint), in "Organic Computing: A Paradigm Shift for Complex Systems", Ed. Müller-Schloer, Schmeck Ungerer, Birkhäuser 2011, ISBN 978-3034-801-294
 http://www.springerlink.com/content/t32485387608687w/
- Kantert, Jan; Tomforde, Sven; Müller-Schloer, Christian: Measuring Self-Organisation in Distributed Systems by External Observation. In Proceedings of the 28th GI/ITG International Conference on Architecture of Computing Systems -- ARCS Workshops, held 24 27 March 2015 in Porto, Portugal, Workshop on Self-Optimisation in Organic and Autonomic Computing Systems (SAOS15), ISBN 978-3-8007-3657-7, pp. 1 8
- Mühl, Gero, Werner, Matthias, Jäger, Michael, Herrmann, Klaus, and Parzyjegla, Helge: "On the definitions of self-managing and self-organising systems". In Proceedings of the KiVS Workshop 2007: Selbstorganisierende, Adaptive, Kontextsensitive verteilte Systeme (SAKS'07). T. Braun, G. Carle, and B. Stiller Eds., VDE Verlag, 291–301



Any questions ...?