

Past, Present and Future of Behaviourally Adaptive Engineered Systems

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1 **Extended editorial:**
2 **Past, present and future of**
3 **behaviourally adaptive engineered systems**

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10 **Abstract**

11 **Keywords:** Engineering systems, adaptive systems, behavioural adaptation, self-adaptation, enabling resources

12 **1. Introduction**

13 When we input 'behavioural adaptation' as a search term in a common search engine, it will
14 immediately be extended with supplements such as 'of animals', 'of plants', 'of humans', etc. However,
15 we can hardly see words such as 'of systems' or 'of artefacts' or 'of products' as a supplement in the
16 drop-down menu of this search engine. One can interpret this as a kind of indication that the research in
17 behaviourally adaptive engineered systems has yet not received enough attention. On the other hand,
18 searches with refined keywords bring up a huge number of publications that addressed very different
19 aspects and issues of complex adaptive systems, self-adaptive autonomous systems, and proactive smart
20 systems. At the dawn of the fifth industrial revolution (a disruption caused by non-natural intelligence),
21 this latter can be explained quite easily. On the one hand, we are witnessing a transfer of behavioural
22 adaptation principles of natural and social systems to the domain of complex engineered systems,
23 accompanied by efforts to implement effective computational mechanisms. On the other hand, one can
24 observe an under-developed, often confusing vocabulary of system adaptability and adaptation, which
25 makes navigation on the sea of related concepts difficult.

26 Notwithstanding the growing number of publications, the very issue of system adaptation, in particular
27 self-adaptation at runtime deserves more scientific attention. Actually, this was the reason and motivation
28 behind proposing this special issue, which intends to provide a concise overview of the most important
29 concepts and viewpoints and to contribute to the broad field of main stream developments. As far as this
30 introductory article is concerned, we believed putting natural adaptation and system adaptation face to

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31 face would help understand the similarities and the differences. Natural behavioural adaptation has to do
 32 with the phenomenon and mechanisms of adaptation of organisms. In the literature, three types of
 33 adaptation are distinguished: (i) behavioural adaptation (that includes all responses of an organism that
 34 help its survival/reproduction), (ii) structural adaptation (that involves all stimulated changes of the
 35 features of an organism, and (iii) physiological adaptation (that enables all bodily processes that support
 36 survival of an organism). Though both structural and physical/functional adaptation play an important
 37 role in the case of engineered systems too, we will concentrate on finding answers to questions related to
 38 behavioural adaptation. Eventually, behavioural adaptation is closely associated with the mentioned two
 39 other forms of adaptation, or can even be deemed to be a consequence of them. For instance, in the
 40 natural world, migration of birds is a form of behavioural adaptation that is facilitated by their structural
 41 adaptation that makes them capable to do this. Behavioural adaptation of engineering systems shows
 42 many similarities, but also many differences ...

43 2. Revisiting the fundamentals

44 It is broadly accepted in biology that adaptation is the result of evolution, which is comprehended as
 45 changes in a species over a long period of time under external influences. Evolution is established by
 46 incrementally aggregating sudden changes. The growth of structural and functional complexity during
 47 evolution has been accepted as a *de facto* law (Heylighen, F., 1996). With regards to its nature, evolution
 48 can be constructive (appearance of new features that help survive and thrive) or destructive (diminish of
 49 existing features that are not needed for survival). According to this general view, the essence of
 50 biological adaptation is the concurrent appearance of: (i) evolutionary changes in physical features, and (ii)
 51 performing routines in alternative ways. Eventually, this makes structural adaptation and behavioural
 52 adaptation inseparable. Adaptation can be instinctive or rationality driven, and may be observed in the
 53 case of individuals, groups and populations. Adapted behaviour can be learned by one individual and
 54 passed on to another one, or collectively and passing it from a generation of a population to another
 55 generation, both behaviourally and genetically. Usually, positive correlations were found between the rate
 56 of adaptation, the intelligence of behaviour, and the level of socialization. The biological adaptation,
 57 which is typical for adaptation of animals, and the rational adaptation of humans represent two largely
 58 different mechanisms. Emergence and mutation play a significant role in the former one, while self-
 59 organization appears in the latter one.

60 Owing to the progress of system engineering and technologies, engineered systems have become
 61 capable to realize various levels of structural and behavioural adaptation, but not exactly as natural
 62 systems do. Their self-adaptation: (i) is driven by different purposes, (ii) is based on different principles,
 63 and (iii) needs to happen in a short timeframe. Both individual system implementations and systems of
 64 systems can have the capability of functional, structural and behavioural adaptation. Structural adaptation
 65 can be morphological, topological or architectural. Adaptation happens at run-time and according to a
 66 purpose that the system is supposed to realize. It may manifest as self-tuning, self-adaptation, self-
 67 evolution, or self-reproduction.

68 The relationship of adaptation and evolution is different in the context of self-adaptive engineered
 69 systems from that one existing in the context of natural adaptive systems. As shown in Figure 1, the
 70 relationship is actually reverse. In our view, it is not really a dilemma whether adaptation is part of
 71 evolution or evolution is part of adaptation. They are seen as different forms of self-organization of
 72 artefactual systems. In our interpretation system adaptation is a change, which does not introduce
 73 functional or architectural novelty. System evolution is however seen as a progressive change that creates
 74 and aggregates novelties. In other words, the extent of the introduced novelty, rather than the time period
 75 needed to arrive at it is important. Both technical adaptation and evolution concern one instance of a
 76 system, rather than generations of a system. The next generation of self-adaptive engineered systems will
 77 most probably be able to behave not only as individual organisms do, but also as families, communities
 78 and organizations perform. De Wolf, T. & Holvoet, T. (2005) contrasted the phenomena of emergence
 79 and self-organisation, and elaborated on the benefits of combining them in systems.

80 **3. Setting the stage**

81 There is a debate in the literature
 82 on whether adaptability is the cause
 83 of complexity of systems or
 84 adaptability is a result of complexity
 85 of systems. Some contemplate all
 86 complex systems as adaptive and use
 87 the term ‘complex adaptive systems’
 88 to refer to them. The most frequently
 89 differentiated categories of complex
 90 adaptive systems are natural, artificial
 91 and social systems. However, most of
 92 the observable systems overlap these
 93 categories, i.e. reflect the features of
 94 more than one category. Adaptation
 95 of systems means not only changing
 96 functionality, architecture or
 97 operation, but also providing the
 98 resources necessary for adaptation in
 99 the right form, on the right place, at the right time, and in the right way. This issue seems to be somewhat
 100 underexposed in the accessible literature and, most probably, also in current research.

101 We have completed a structured literature survey with a dual goal: (i) to sketch up the current state of
 102 research and development in the field of behavioural adaptive engineered systems, and (ii) to create a
 103 reference with regards to introducing the novelties of the papers contributed to this special issue. We used
 104 the reasoning model shown in Figure 2 as a starting point for our survey. We wanted to cast light on the
 105 most important issues of the past (from the beginning until the end of 1990s), the present (from the
 106 millennium until today, and the near future (from now on) of the concerned domains of research and
 107 development. Our overall findings are shown on the right side of Figure 2. The blocks not only show the
 108 general research topics for each period, but also demonstrate how the research concerns progressed and
 109 became articulated. We used the same structuring of the research issues and arranged the findings of the
 110 survey accordingly in the sections below.

111 **4. The past of developing behaviourally adaptive engineering systems**

112 The phenomenon of behaviourally adaptive engineered systems was hardly studied in engineering
 113 research fifty years ago.
 114 Thus, it is practically
 115 untraceable in the then
 116 engineering literature. It
 117 was often the subject of
 118 various philosophical
 119 speculations and science
 120 fiction writings. Holland,
 121 J.H. (1962) was among
 122 those pioneers (visionary
 123 thinkers), who dealt with
 124 the issue of system
 125 adaptation. Based on the
 126 analogy of generational
 127 adaptation of biological

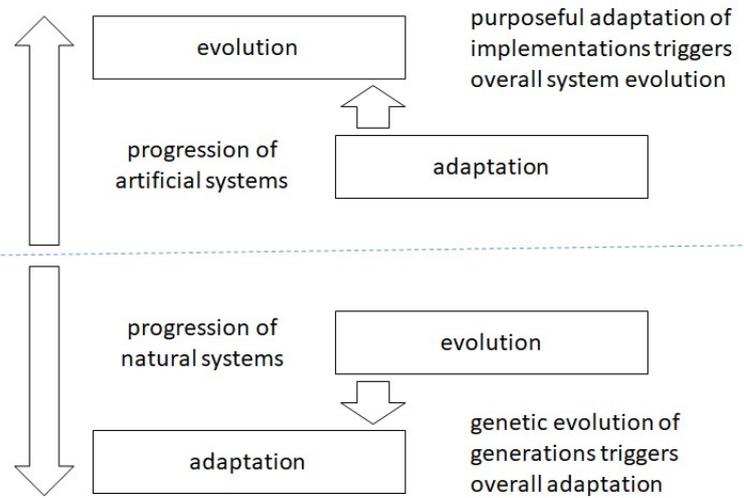


Figure 1 The mirror view on adaptation and evolution of natural systems and engineered systems

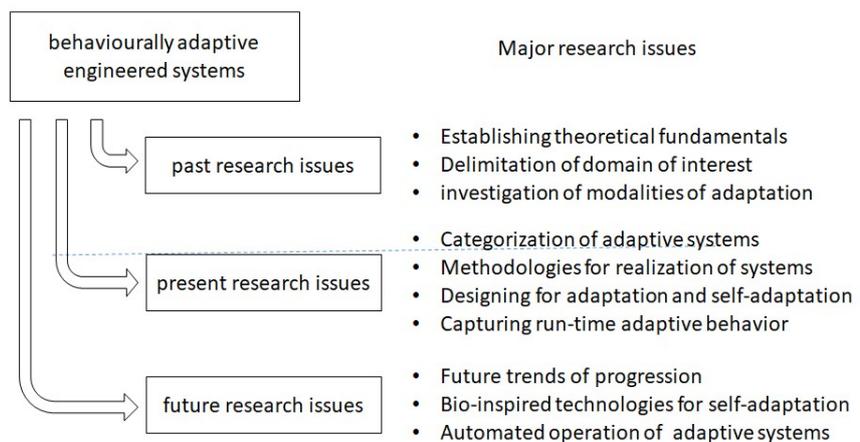


Figure 2 The reasoning model used in the survey

128 systems, he proposed a theory and conceptualized a framework of engineered systems with adaptation
129 abilities. Holland, J.H., & Reitman, J.S. (1977) studied adaptive algorithms for such kind of cognitive
130 systems. Adaptation was seen as an outcome of an intense interaction between a system in a state and its
131 environment. Accordingly, adaptability was defined as the ability to rapidly adjust behaviour according to
132 changes in the operational objectives and conditions, and to the dynamics of the environment. Over the
133 years, multiple theories of adaptive systems have been worked out and extended, among others, to
134 organizations (Dooley, K.J., 1997), supply networks (Choi, T.Y. et al., 2001), clinical practice (Brown,
135 C.A., 2006), public service systems (Rhodes, M.L. & MacKechnie, G., 2003), agile software
136 development (Martín, H. et al., 2006), disaster resilience [Coetzee, C. et al., 2016], and educational
137 systems [Keshavarz, N. et al., 2010]. The law of adaptation was informally stated as: Every adaptive
138 system converges to a state in which all kind of stimulation ceases (De Lope, J. & Maravall, D., 2009).

139 Large gaps were observed in terms of the conceivable purposes of adaptation and the utilization of this
140 ability. It was recognized that the variety of the systems that may adapt in one way or another was rather
141 wide. From a practical perspective, two major forms of systems adaptation were identified, namely, (i)
142 stakeholder completed adaptation, and (ii) system self-adaptation. The latter was regarded as a strategy of
143 changing the architecture and/or operation of a system without human interaction. Research was gradually
144 diversified through inquiries into functional, structural and behavioural system adaptation. The situation
145 when the operation of a system changes without structural adaptation was understood as functional
146 adaptation. Structural adaptation was defined as a situation when the topology (the included entities and
147 their connectivity) of a system is changed (e.g. from a centralized structure to a distributed structure). The
148 situation when functional adaptation and structural adaptation concurrently happen was termed as hybrid
149 adaptation. Lastly, the situation when hybrid adaptation happens under a heavy influence of the
150 operational environment was called behavioural adaptation. The objective of studying behavioural
151 adaptation was to find working principles based on which systems could react to changes so that their
152 desired behaviour can be kept within specified limits or patterns.

153 **5. The present of developing behaviourally adaptive engineering systems**

154 The last 20 years witnessed many theoretical refinements as well as a move towards practical
155 realization of behaviourally adaptive engineering systems. Pike, A. et al. (2010) contributed to the
156 theoretical understanding of system resilience, adaptation and adaptability. In the area of rational
157 elaboration, Kurtz, C.F. and Snowden, D.J. (2003) proposed to divide systems into four groups so as (i)
158 simple, (ii) complicated, (iii) complex, and (iv) chaotic systems, depending on the degree to which their
159 cause-effect relationships can be predicted. Gleizes, M.-P. et al. (2007) elaborated on the essence of
160 engineering systems, which generate emergent functionalities. It became accepted if, like living
161 organisms, systems are to adapt to their environments, then they need to use: (i) sensory perception
162 (detecting and anticipating changes in the environment), (ii) cognition (reasoning about perceived
163 changes and deciding on the best action), and (iii) actuation (controlling the implementation of cognitive
164 decisions). Systems equipped with this capability were variously called: (i) self-tuning systems, (ii) self-
165 optimizing systems, (iii) self-resilient systems, (iv) self-healing systems, (v) self-organizing systems, (vi)
166 self-adaptive systems, self-managing systems, (vii) self-evolving systems, or (viii) self-reproducing
167 systems. The sequence of the names reflects an increase in the capability of concurrently implement
168 functional, structural and behavioural changes by a system on itself.

169 Kephart, J.O. & Chess, D.M. (2003) distinguished four principal types of high-level system adaptation:
170 (i) automatic self-configuration, (ii) continual self-optimization of performance and/or cost), (iii)
171 detecting, diagnosing, and repairing problems caused by bugs/failures by self-healing, and (iv) self-
172 protection against malicious attacks or cascading failures). The potentials of autonomous operations also
173 grow in this order. Weyns, D. et al. (2012) concluded that there are different communities behind these
174 notional descriptions, as well as different vocabularies. Having recognized the fact that several
175 classification proposals exist that intend to capture either the variations in the system awareness and
176 respond capabilities, or the level of pre-programming and run time learning, Sabatucci, L. et al. (2018)

177 proposed a meta-model that describes the typically identified four types of self-adaptive systems. This
178 model includes all generic elements of a smart adaptive system and embraces all the elements that
179 implement the different types of self-adaptation.

180 Designing for adaptation is a modelling paradigm that defines and configures adaptation mechanisms
181 and strategies in the systems design phase. Designing for self-adaption focuses on the opportunities and
182 the resources of adaptation at the runtime. Cansado, A. et al (2010) proposed a formal framework that
183 unifies behavioural adaptation and structural reconfiguration of components and showed the advantages
184 in the context of reconfiguration of a client/server system in which the server has been replaced. Chandra,
185 A. et al (2016) analysed and compared architecture frameworks currently proposed for designing self-
186 adaptive systems, which include the observe-decide-act (ODA), the MAPE-K, the autonomic computing
187 paradigm (ACP), the observer/controller architecture (OCA), etc., which are rooted in organic computing
188 research and are intended for different types of distributed systems, such as swarms, systems-of-systems,
189 crowd computing, computing entity populations, multi-agent systems, etc. Hummida, A.R. et al (2016)
190 presented cloud resource management (allocation of a shared pool of configurable computing resources)
191 as a typical example of demand-enabled system adaptation. The survey completed by Muccini, H. et al
192 (2016) explored that typical levels of system adaptation are the application layer and the middleware layer
193 (rather than the communication, service or cloud layer), and that MAPE, agents, and self-organization are
194 the dominant adaptation mechanisms. Moreno, G.A. et al (2015) and (2016) studied the issues of using
195 probabilistic model checking and uncertain decision making to support proactive self-adaptation,
196 respectively. Multi-agent planning was considered by Marc, F. & Degirmenciyan-Cartault, I., (2003) as a
197 coordination model for self-organized systems, while Miralles, J.C. et al (2009) proposed a peer-to-peer
198 cooperation for multi-agent system adaptation.

199 Haghnevis, M. & Askin, R.G. (2012) presented a framework for modelling engineered complex
200 adaptive systems. Braberman, V. et al (2015) proposed a reference architecture for configuration and
201 behaviour self-adaptation. These and other methodological issues have first been recognized in the field
202 of software and embedded systems design/engineering. Notwithstanding, there has been no clear view on
203 how self-adaptation actually contributes to tackling the challenges of engineering and managing truly
204 complex software systems. In the last decade, many studies addressed the adaptability and self-adaptation
205 issues of cyber-physical systems (CPSs), including advanced robotics (Horváth, I. & Gerritsen, B.H.,
206 2012). The study of Tavčar, J. & Horváth, I. (2018) tried to explore and synthesize the principles of
207 designing smart cyber-physical systems for run-time adaptation. The related literature claims that self-
208 adaptive CPSs should be capable to adjust or change their structure, functionality and behaviour at run-
209 time as a response to emerging requirements, changing objectives, environments, and contexts that may
210 be unknown at design-time. Wolfinger, R. et al (2008) approached the issue of runtime adaptation
211 through product line engineering and using plug-in techniques.

212 Horváth, I. et al (2017) proposed a comprehensive model of self-adaptation of advanced cyber-
213 physical systems. This assumes that self-adaptation simultaneously progresses in the interrelated domains
214 of architecture and operation (i.e. in the system space (SS)). Every point of SS represents a particular
215 architectural and functional manifestation of the system, which is in an operation state (OS). A 0G-CPS
216 is designed to be in an initial system space (ISS) in its designed operation state (DOS). A 1G-CPS can shift
217 its DOS to an optimal operation state (OOS) inside ISS (Figure 3.a). The chosen OS can be anywhere in
218 SS, unless unfeasible. A 2G-CPS can place its OOS outside ISS and extend its ISS, but afterwards it
219 operates in the extended system space (ESS) (Figure 3.b). A 3G-CPS may extend its ISS to various EESs
220 repeatedly and may dispose its OOS to any one of these dynamically (Figure 3.c). A 4G-CPS may create
221 other disjoint ESSs to its ISS/EES) in various manners and may place its OOS to anyone of these EESs
222 (Figure 3.d). Called reproduced system space (RSS), the disconnected EESs are associated with
223 distributed and decentralized replicas of the ISS. Janošek, M. et al (2013) discussed how structural and
224 operational parameters can be instruments of regulating the behaviour of a system. He used the leverage
225 point theory of and recognized these characteristic patterns of the system's behaviour using neural
226 networks (Meadows, D.H., 1999). This system cognizance-based approach to adaptation required
227 subsequent mediation of the system's behaviour through selected parameters and their action ranges

228 based on pre-prepared expectations of
 229 what will happen if the system's
 230 behaviour exhibits a known
 231 characteristic pattern.

232 In the last two decades, both
 233 designing for adaptation and designing
 234 for self-adaptation have become
 235 protruding design methodological
 236 issues in application contexts. This is
 237 also influenced by the high variance of
 238 types and applications of engineered
 239 systems. Recently, system adaptation
 240 has been identified as a key technology
 241 towards automated driving (Haböck, U.
 242 et alia, 2016). In addition to traffic
 243 management, energy provisioning, and
 244 manufacturing environments, adaptive
 245 systems have been penetrating into the
 246 domain of medical systems too (Abbod,
 247 M.F. et alia, 2002). Brown, C.A.
 248 (2006) elaborated on the application of
 249 complex adaptive systems theory to
 250 clinical practice in rehabilitation. Li, C.
 251 et alia (2016) developed a smartly
 252 adapting cyber-physical system solution for monitoring and enhancing rehabilitation of stroke patients.

253 One of the challenging questions today's research is facing is how to get to and operationalize
 254 actionable insights by systems themselves. The current generation of adaptive systems are closed systems,
 255 and suffer from limitations with regards to the theoretical adaptation of functionality (modes of operation)
 256 and architecture (management of resources). As observed by Bruni, R. et alia (2015), the requirements
 257 engineering for these systems typically happens in a black-box perspective, while their modelling and
 258 programming usually happens in a white-box perspective. On the other hand, requirement engineering
 259 should be integrated with runtime behaviour (Feather, M.S. et alia (1998). Various approaches have been
 260 proposed to help self-adaptation at runtime (Filiari, A. et alia, 2016). Kramer, J., & Magee, J. analysed
 261 the architectural challenges of system self-management. Gerostathopoulos, I. et alia (2016) proposed the
 262 so-called 'invariant refinement model/method' that supports architectural self-adaptation at runtime and
 263 integrates the mechanism of predictive monitoring of operational uncertainties. Garlan, D., & Schmerl, B.
 264 (2002) and Garlan, D. et alia (2004) proposed a method for model-based and architecture-based self-
 265 adaptation, respectively. Nevertheless, designing automation for engineered complex adaptive systems in
 266 the industry remains a genuine challenge (Kaber, D.B. et alia, 2001).

267 6. The future of developing behaviourally adaptive engineering systems

268 Evidently, it is not easy to make a forecast concerning the future. Linear extrapolation from the present
 269 day research and trends may prove to be unreliable or even incorrect due to the rapid developments.
 270 Nevertheless, certain strands of research may seem to be robust and road paving. It seems that a strand of
 271 research of high potentials is using natural (e.g. biological) analogies in behavioural adaptation with
 272 respect to changes in hardware, software and cyberware constituents of systems. Negoita, M.G., & Hintea,
 273 S. (2009) investigated bio-inspired technologies for the hardware of adaptive systems. Phillips, B.J., &
 274 Blackburn, M. (2016) discussed that the physical architecture observed within the neocortex will in the
 275 near future be more frequently and sophisticatedly implemented in adaptive systems.

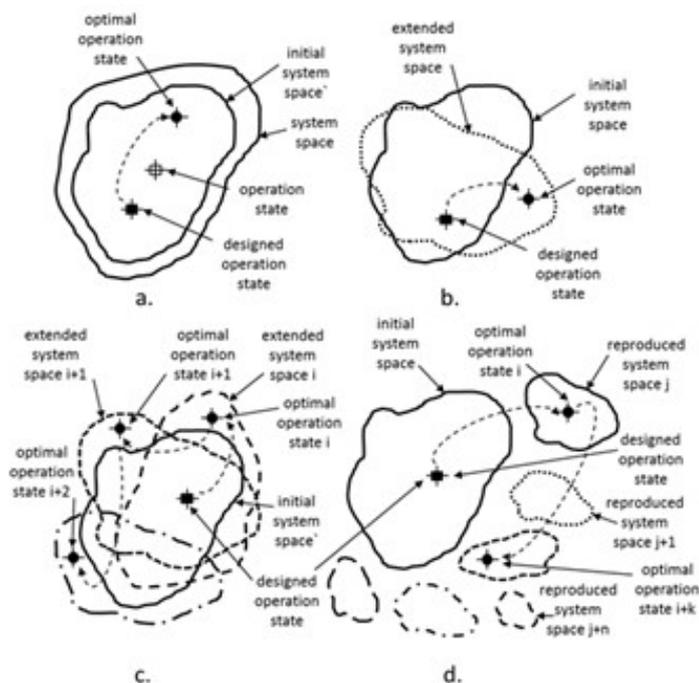


Figure 3 Model of adaptation of various cyber-physical systems

276 Not only service-oriented structural and functional adaptation, but also content and context adaptation
277 seem to be a hot research in the near future. Khazaei, H. et al. (2018) identified the opportunity of
278 establishing increasingly distributed and dynamic system architectures that provide unprecedented
279 flexibility in creating and supporting applications as an advantage of adaptability, but emphasized the
280 importance of balancing complexity and programmability. Towards that end, they proposed the idea of
281 moving from self-adaptation to ADaptation-as-a-Service (ADaaS). Another concept is, as discussed by
282 Geoffrois, E. (2016), to make adaptive systems capable to learn not only from their own experiences, but
283 also from the feedback provided by the users about their outputs and performance, and from each other
284 experiences (Jiao, W., & Sun, Y. (2016). As a general objective, Essa, A. (2016) claimed that next-
285 generation application driven adaptive systems, such as adaptive learning systems, should have generic
286 characteristics such as (i) cost-effective, (ii) accurate, (iii) efficient, (iv) up-scalable, (v) flexible, (vi)
287 generalizable, and (vii) transparent are the most. The above picked out examples provide evidence that
288 research will continue towards a deeper understanding and the development of behaviourally adaptive
289 engineering systems.

290 **7. The novel contribution of the included articles to research and development of** 291 **behaviourally adaptive engineering systems**

292 This special issue is based on a selection of the best papers submitted to the Twelfth International
293 Symposium on Tools and Methods of Competitive Engineering (TMCE 2018). This event of the long-
294 existing and influential series of TMCE Symposia was held in Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Gran Canaria,
295 Spain, from 7 May 2018 until 11 May 2018. This symposium was co-organized by University of Las
296 Palmas de Gran Canaria and the Delft University of Technology. Originally 13 papers were considered,
297 out of which seven qualified for inclusion in the special issue in the end. In one way or another, each of
298 these seven papers contributes to the main theme of the special issue: “Towards behaviourally adaptive
299 engineering systems”. Most of them reports on enablers that support establishing self-adaptation. The
300 selected papers have been pre-reviewed by the co-guest editors in order: (i) to attain the best possible
301 quality, (ii) to have the highest possible relevance for the special issue, and (iii) to achieve coherence in
302 the special issue. This latter aspect proved to be the most challenging, while the other issues were easier
303 to manage based on the understanding and the nice cooperation of the authors. The revised manuscripts
304 were peer reviewed by members of the review panel and the editorial board members of the journal. None
305 of them changes the world in itself, but together they represent the needed main strands of research and
306 useful contributions.

307 The paper following this editorial, entitled ‘*Components and Interactions: Paving the Way to Model*
308 *Agent-Based Cyber-Physical Social Systems*’, is a contribution to theoretical understanding and
309 ontological clarification. The author, *Stefano Borgo*, compares two contemporarily popular paradigms,
310 cyber-physical systems (CPS) and socio-technical systems (STS) of system science and engineering.
311 These paradigms serve as a basis for modelling, simulation, implementation and analysis of systems with
312 complex adaptive behaviours. The author asserts that these are complementary and able to support
313 modelling and realization of adaptive behaviour on both component and system levels. It is an interesting
314 observation of him that, contrary to the historical and methodological differences, current day research in
315 CPS and in STS tends to tackle the same issues. Therefore, similar functionalities and features appear in
316 these types of systems. The author suggests that integration of expertise is necessary in the two domains
317 and that it can be fostered by introducing a suitable conceptual framework and a coherent characterization
318 of agent-based adaptive systems. Eventually, the main contributions of this paper are: (i) characterization
319 of the class of agent-based cyber-physical-social systems, and (ii) development of an ontological
320 framework based on the traditional notions of component and interaction. The paper introduces and
321 motivates a set of initial core distinctions, and re-elaborates on the design issues from a domain-neutral
322 viewpoint.

323 The third paper, contributed by *Jože Tavčar*, *Jože Duhovnik* and *Imre Horváth*, presents the results of
324 a comprehensive survey of the validation approaches and methodologies of cyber-physical systems of

325 varying adaptability capabilities. Entitled ‘*From Validation of Medical Devices towards Validation of*
326 *Adaptive Cyber-Physical Systems*’, the paper starts out from the traditional frameworks of system
327 validation in the development phase and arrives at the dilemmas of self-validation of adapted
328 functionalities, architectures and/or behaviours at run-time. Traditionally, validation is based on a
329 predictive analysis or simulation of the designed operation. However, smart cyber-physical systems (S-
330 CPSs) self-manage their operation and architecture with respect to the overall performance objectives and
331 the environmental effects. The authors claim that this type of systems, which adapt at run-time and evolve
332 over time, cannot be validated by the conventional (deterministic) approaches. They took smart CPSs
333 used as instrumentation in the medical field as an example. They found that the dedicated run-time self-
334 validation methodologies are still rather scarce in the literature, even in the case of adaptive software
335 systems. As a solution, they propose a procedural framework, which includes checklists-based validation
336 of: (i) the designed constituents and features of the system, (ii) comprehensive risk assessment, (iii)
337 checking the interoperation of the sub-systems and constituents, (iv) creation of a validation plan with
338 regards to the run-time operation control capabilities, (v) execution of validation, and (vi) making
339 corrective actions and reporting before launching the system. They also suggest that the tasks of
340 operational and behavioural validation should be shared among the system designers and the designed
341 systems. Designers need prognostic approaches, while systems should be able to validate their run-time
342 generated adaptation plans and execute them run-time.

343 The fourth paper, contributed by *Jan van Niekerk* and *Elizabeth Ehlers* under the title: ‘*CESIMAS: A*
344 *self-adaptive MAS toward improved critical infrastructure protection*’, explores the affordances of multi-
345 agent structures in the context of system adaptation. Their starting point is that there is a critical
346 infrastructure (a set of electronic assets) at the core of every organisation that allows them to perform
347 their daily operations and that needs advanced protection. Conventional defender mechanisms have failed
348 to ensure effective protection, partially due to the dynamics of the operational states of the critical
349 environments. There is a need for more adaptive protection solutions, which are geared towards the
350 critical infrastructure. As a possible solution, the authors propose the CESIMAS, which is a continual
351 evaluative self-aware immune-inspired multi-agent system model for critical information infrastructure
352 protection. An artificial immune system uses analogies between the elements and processes of the human
353 immune system and a computational environment. The CESIMAS model supports both preventive and
354 reactive operation, and defines the protection functionality in the proactive, preventive, reactive and
355 responsive dimensions. It allows software agents to adapt their behaviour to varying internal and external
356 stimuli. This way, the agents establish a self-aware and self-adaptive multi-agent system, which enables
357 more effective responses and a higher level protection. The model was used in the prototype
358 implementation of a critical infrastructure protection system as a virtual environment. Prior to the
359 deployment of the model, self-set data were used in the agent training process.

360 Submitted by *Alain-J. Fougères* and *Egon Ostrosi*, the fifth paper focuses on the utilization of a
361 particular type of agents, namely holonic fuzzy agents, as enablers of adaptation of manufacturing
362 equipment. Entitled ‘*Holonic fuzzy agents for integrated CAD product and adaptive manufacturing cell*
363 *formation*’, the article regards cloud-based design and manufacturing as a dynamic service-oriented
364 network. Modelled by a set of holonic agents and defined from a set of holonic feature agents, 3D feature-
365 based CAD-modelled products can be manufactured in virtual digital cells of this network under certain
366 constraints. A holon in itself is a system composed of interrelated semi-autonomous, structurally
367 hierarchic subsystems. The authors also use the concept of attractors, which are a stable
368 product/workcenter or a stable group of products/workcenters toward which a manufacturing cell
369 formation tends to evolve. The concepts of holon and attractor allow multi-scale cell formation that in
370 turn overcomes the lack of adaptivity of traditional cell formation. One of the objectives of the authors is
371 to capture the uncertainty associated with modelling of the face-feature-product-workcenter-cell network
372 and to provide the needed adaptivity of the virtual manufacturing cell by holonic fuzzy agents. A
373 principle of adaptive formation of virtual manufacturing cell in cloud-based design and manufacturing is
374 also proposed by the authors. They evaluated the capabilities and adaptive capacity of distributed
375 resources in cloud manufacturing according to a scenario, which included different changes in workcenter

376 availability and adding new products that needed reconfiguration of the holonic structure. The fuzzy cell
377 holons are claimed to be capable to overcome the continuous-discontinuous distinction of traditional cell
378 formation problem by relying on a communication network.

379 The sixth paper, '*Personalized messaging based on dynamic context assessment: Application in an*
380 *informing cyber-physical system*', is based on the research of Yongzhe Li, Imre Horváth and Zoltán Rusák.
381 Hazard-intense applications of cyber-physical systems (CPSs) such as evacuation of a building-in-fire
382 requires optimal management of the concerned human individuals. The authors' hypothesis was that a
383 CPS can collect information about the actual situations and can generate information in a situation-
384 adaptive and time-effective manner. Personalized messages are tailored to the individual situation of
385 people and communicated through their mobile devices. Dynamic context processing, decision making,
386 and informing stakeholders was found as a complicated research and engineering challenge. As a solution
387 for the latter, a personalized multi-message construction mechanism (MCM) was designed and
388 implemented. It is enabled by computational algorithms for dynamic context modelling, inferring and
389 reasoning, and message synthesis. The basis of generating messages is a quantitative evaluation of the
390 implications of the relevant situations with regards to the target stakeholders. The concept of impact
391 indicator was used to represent the implications of situations and a personal danger level indicator was
392 used to choose a proper message template for message construction. The algorithms included in the MCM
393 were validated in a (simulated) indoor fire evacuation guiding application. Test people were involved in
394 the practical evaluation of the quality of the generated messages. The conclusion is that the proposed
395 MCM provides more sufficient information about personal context and expected actions than the
396 messages constructed based on static context information.

397 The seventh article is entitled '*Simulating human strategic vision in real-time strategy games with*
398 *holonic superposition intelligent multi-agent systems*', revisits the issues of system holism and system
399 intelligence. Completed by Gerard Gouws and Elizabeth Ehlers, the work presented in this article builds
400 on the Real-time Autonomous Superposition Strategy Arena platform, abbreviated as Ripsaw. The
401 starting point of the authors is that simulating human-like long-term (strategic) vision in real-time strategy
402 (RTS) games is challenging. Ripsaw is used to facilitate the participation of autonomous players in an
403 RTS game. The authors used Ripsaw to simulate human-like strategic intelligence in RTS games by
404 incorporating the concept of holonic superposition intelligence. Ripsaw also helped avoid repetitive
405 artificial behaviour that often leads to predictable and exploitable predicaments when facing human
406 players. Another enabler used by the authors is the Holonic Superposition Collaborative Multi-Agent
407 Systems Architecture, referred to as Splinter. This realizes holonic superposition intelligence by
408 incorporating the linear quantum superposition principle, the concept of holonic multi-agent systems, and
409 the beliefs-desires-intentions (BDI) model. By doing so, it facilitates attaining behaviourally adaptive
410 intelligence in Ripsaw. In addition to the generic architecture of Ripsaw and the fundamental and
411 theoretical cornerstones of Splinter, the paper discusses an experiment, which demonstrates the results
412 that Ripsaw could produce at simulating human-like strategic vision. In the experimental game, artificial
413 competitors with differing human-like strategic visions were competing. This research exemplifies a
414 promising approach to simulate human-like strategic vision in self-adaptive systems through
415 incorporating holonic superposition intelligence by gamification.

416 The eighth paper, entitled '*Development of behavioural modules for mechatronic product families*
417 *using the 3D design structure matrix approach*', addresses the issue of adaptation of product development
418 strategies to the changing needs of customers. Contributed by Zuhal Erden, the article reconfirms that
419 adopting mass customization (diversity in product ranges) requires designing modular products.
420 Modularity of products can be achieved via platform-based systems, in which combinations of various
421 modules are assembled using a common platform. Though an intense research in modularity of
422 mechanical products reported in the literature, the research on modularity of smart systems, such as
423 advanced mechatronic products, is quite limited. Thus, the objective of the presented work was to develop
424 fundamental behavioural modules to facilitate the systematic design of platform-based mechatronic
425 product families for mass customization. Towards this goal, the well-known concept of design structure
426 matrix (DSM) was adopted. It extended to form a 3D block defined by the dimensions of (i) sensorial, (ii)

427 motoric and (iii) cognitive behaviours. Using the modified form of DSM, various fundamental
 428 mechatronic behaviour modules were developed. The author applied symbolic representations at the
 429 specification of the mechatronic behaviour modules, which were further detailed by using state-event
 430 modelling at the early stage of design. The developed modules can enable behavioural adaptation of smart
 431 systems through a systematic formal structure. The sensorial, motoric and cognitive behaviours are to be
 432 specified according to the intended robot tasks. Some mechatronic behaviour modules have been
 433 implemented in this study to demonstrate a specific task-oriented robot family composed of (i) guide
 434 robots for museums and shopping malls, (ii) a guard robot, (iii) a house-cleaning robot and (iv)
 435 companion robots for children, the elderly and pets.

436 8. Conclusions

437 Every paper included in this special issue contributes either to the understanding or to the

Table 1. A bird-eye overview of the articles included in the special issue

Nr.	Authors	Paper title	Main contribution
2	Stefano Borgo*	Components and Interactions: Paving the Way to Model Agent-Based Cyber-Physical Social Systems	Characterization of the class of agent-based adaptive cyber-physical social systems and development of an ontological framework based on the traditional notions of component and
3	Jože Tavčar* Jože Duhovnik Imre Horváth	From Validation of Medical Devices towards Validation of Adaptive Cyber-Physical Systems	A multi-step process framework for validation of smart cyber-physical systems for reliable and safe operations and adaptation in the design phase
4	Jan van Niekerk* Elizabeth Ehlers	CESIMAS: A Continual Evaluative Self-aware Immune-inspired Multi Agent Critical Information Infrastructure Protection System Model	Establishing a natural analogy-based adaptive model, testing its capabilities through a laboratory prototype, and implementation of a dedicated agent training process
5	Alain-J. Fougères* Egon Ostrosi	Holonic Fuzzy Agents for Integrated CAD Product and Adaptive Manufacturing Cell Formation	Capturing the uncertainty associated with modelling of a face-feature-product-workcenter-cell network and providing the needed adaptivity by holonic fuzzy agents
6	Yongzhe Li* Imre Horváth Zoltán Rusák	Personalized Messaging based on Dynamic Context Assessment: Application in an Informing Cyber-Physical System	Using dynamic context information representation and inferring as the basis of situation-adaptive generation of messages for humans involved in critical simulations
7	Gerard Gouws* Elizabeth Ehlers	Simulating Human Strategic Vision in Real-Time Strategy Games with Holonic Superposition Intelligent Multi-Agent Systems	Exemplifying a promising approach to including human-like strategic vision in self-adaptive systems through incorporating holonic superposition intelligence by gamification
8	Zuhal Erden*	Development of Behavioral Modules for Mechatronic Product Families using the 3D Design Structure Matrix Approach	The proposed concept of behavioural modules not only supports modular design of smart systems, but also their self-adaptation to varying operational conditions

438 implementation of behaviourally adaptive engineered systems. As far as understanding is concerned, the
439 surveys summarised in the Extended editorial and included in some of the technical papers casted light
440 not only on the broadening spectrum of adaptive functionalities and features of various systems, but also
441 on the very fast development and the immense amount of knowledge generated. To be aware of all of
442 these is becoming every day more and more challenging for system engineering researchers and system
443 engineers. Based on the content of this Special issue, a reasonably articulated insight in the run-time
444 behaviour and adaptation of complex systems can be obtained. One important contribution is typifying
445 adaptive systems according to their capabilities. Namely, if the run-time activity of a system is the
446 enactment of a set of hard-coded actions (selected and/or configured according to the operative context),
447 then it is a Type I adaptive system. If the system is equipped with a set of pre-defined strategies (each
448 strategy is an aggregation of actions) and if the strategy is selected and/or configured at run-time
449 according to the state and objectives, then it is a Type II adaptive system. If a system is able to infer and
450 assemble a new strategy for operation, architecture and behaviour at run-time, then it is Type III adaptive
451 system. Finally, if a system can creatively modify its run-time models towards novel behaviours and
452 services based on dynamically generated operational, architectural and behavioural patterns, then it is a
453 Type IV adaptive system. In the order of mention, these types reflect higher level of system intelligence
454 and sophistication of resource management. As a takeaway, Table 2 gives a concise overview of the
455 papers included in the special issue and exposes their main contributions.

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461 review comments and reports, the invited peer reviewers have also made a significant contribution to the
462 presentation quality and the professional coherence of the special issue. They cannot be thanked enough
463 for their services. We hope that this special issue can be a reference not only for engineering researchers
464 and PhD students, but also for systems developers, producers, managers and many other stakeholders, and
465 that it will stimulate further work in the fascinating domain of behaviourally adaptive engineered systems.

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612

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