



**APPLICATION OF EXECUTABLE ARCHITECTURES IN EARLY CONCEPT
EVALUATION**

THESIS

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**DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
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EVALUATION

THESIS

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Abstract

This research explores use of executable architectures to guide design decisions in the early stages of system development. Decisions made early in the system development cycle determine a majority of the total lifecycle costs as well as establish a baseline for long term system performance and thus it is vital to program success to choose favorable design alternatives. The development of a representative architecture followed the Architecture Based Evaluation Process as it provides a logical and systematic order of events to produce an architecture sufficient to document and model operational performance. In order to demonstrate the value in the application of executable architectures for trade space decisions, three variants of a fictional unmanned aerial system were developed and simulated. Four measures of effectiveness (MOEs) were selected for evaluation. Two parameters of interest were varied at two levels during simulation to create four test case scenarios against which to evaluate each variant. Analysis of the resulting simulation demonstrated the ability to obtain a statistically significant difference in MOE performance for 10 out of 16 possible test case-MOE combinations. Additionally, for the given scenarios, the research demonstrated the ability to make a conclusive selection of the superior variant for additional development.

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Ryan M. Pospisal

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APPLICATION OF EXECUTABLE ARCHITECTURES IN EARLY CONCEPT EVALUATION

1 Introduction

Procurement of state-of-the-art systems is becoming increasingly intricate and costly as technology advancements facilitate customer requirements for increased capabilities and extended product lifecycles. Decisions made early in system development have an enormous impact on lifecycle costs as well as determining the system's performance in future use case scenarios. The use of an executable architecture can help document, manage and guide sound decision making early in the system development process.

Due to the increases in complexity, there is benefit to the systems engineering (SE) community with development of executable architectures that can be used to influence program decisions as early as possible in the acquisition lifecycle to maximize long-term flexibility, adaptability, robustness and related “-ilities,” to ensure favorable system and system-of-systems (SoS) performance under future uncertain applications. The need for this toolset is further exacerbated in large SoS as total replacement becomes cost prohibitive, thus individual systems and those comprising SoS may remain in service for several decades and beyond.

Systems engineers and program managers must temper performance goals against total lifecycle costs. It is estimated that conceptual and preliminary design decisions lock in 50-75% of lifecycle costs and according to the U.S. Department of Energy, total lifecycle cost obligation is 95% decided by the end of R&D activities (Blanchard & Fabrycky, 2011; Makepeace, 1997). While incorporation of explicit lifecycle cost

estimates is beyond the scope of this thesis, it is none-the-less a practical influence that is always under consideration.

Early trade space decisions in the acquisition process, specifically during the Solution Analysis Phase, do not explicitly consider possible future use cases of the system under procurement. The current version of the Defense Acquisition University's Generic Acquisition Process, dated 17 December 2014, prescribes an Analysis of Alternatives (AoA), but does not call for explicit consideration of future system requirements (Defense Acquisition University, 2014). Additionally, several Department of Defense Architecture Framework (DoDAF), Version 2.0 products, such as the Capability Taxonomy (CV-2) and the Services Evolution Description (SvcV-8), are mandated to address future capabilities yet the document provides little direction or guidance on how to accomplish this requirement (DoD Deputy Chief Information Officer, 2009).

For a given system, a deliberate decision making process that feeds into an engineered solution accounting for other possible use cases, while minimizing resource consumption, such as time and funding, is highly desirable. One approach to this decision making process is to perform parametric based modeling early in program development to indicate how a design choice affects future system performance. This thesis explores application of an executable architecture, early in an acquisition program, to model system performance in potential future operational scenarios and demonstrates, via simulation, how variations of selected parameters may be used to influence system design.

1.1 Problem Statement

Systems engineers and program management offices need a way of evaluating design concepts that do not require comprehensive preliminary designs of component systems but rather do include a number of parameters of interest across those component systems. This evaluation supports the decision making process by informing trade decisions during early systems acquisition. Throughout the modeling process, the balance of time, effort, and cost inputs with the quality of model output is essential.

1.2 Research Objective

The objective of this thesis is to explore the current state of modeling methods and tools in the SE community and implement a modest, yet representative, architecture in an executable model using a selected toolset, with the ultimate goal of demonstrating potential value in use of executable architectures in early concept development. To meet these objectives, this thesis will consider the following questions:

Research Question 1: What is the capability of current architecture modeling tools to execute simulations directly from a system architecture?

Research Question 2: What type of information can be provided from use of an executable architecture in support of trade space decisions during early concept development?

Research Question 3: How detailed of an executable model is required to effectively evaluate trade space decisions in early concept modeling?

1.3 Research Focus

This thesis was completed under study at the Air Force's Institute of Technology and therefore has a Department of Defense (DoD) focus. More specifically, the research focuses in the domain of tactical Intelligence, Surveillance, and Reconnaissance (ISR) system development in an effort to provide a basis for application in future ISR SoS development.

1.4 Methodology

In order to accomplish the objective, this thesis will first examine existing and proposed methods for creating and simulating executable architectures. The author will then comment on several commercially available architecture modeling tools to determine their suitability for creating executable architectures and then choose a tool to model and simulate a representative system while determining and modifying selected model parameters to demonstrate potential value in executable architectures. Finally, an example use of the results to guide the decision making process will be demonstrated.

1.5 Assumptions

Several broad level assumptions were identified during the research and modeling portions of this thesis. Those assumptions are as follows:

- The concepts explored within this thesis are scalable to include more complex individual systems and SoS.
- A commercial tool currently exists, and is accessible to the author, to document a subset of a DoDAF V2.0 compliant system architecture and includes an executable modeling capability to meet the fidelity requirements for this thesis.

- The selected sets of parameters under study are adequate to determine future system performance.

1.6 Preview

The research and parametric modeling methods covered in this thesis are focused on DoD centric problems however the core concepts are intended for wide application among various commercial and governmental program management offices. Specific parameters of interest will vary based on the system under development but the application of an executable architecture and subsequent methods of future scenario evaluation will apply across a range of systems.

A preview of the work by chapter is as follows:

- Chapter 1 provides an overview of the problem statement and introduction of methodology.
- Chapter 2 is a literature review to provide a background on executable architecture methodologies and a study of executable architecture application. This chapter also briefly summarizes software packages featuring the various methodologies when literature is available.
- Chapter 3 is a detailed description of application methods.
- Chapter 4 contains results and analysis of the developed executable architecture simulations.
- Chapter 5 concludes the thesis with interpretation of the model outputs. Critical information is the identification of parameters having the largest impact on future

system performance. Finally, a discussion of recommendations for future study closes the chapter.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with an introduction to executable architectures. The chapter begins by providing a baseline understanding of architectures, architecture frameworks and their respective purposes. Following definition, the chapter contains a review of simulation architecture techniques, discussion of associated implementation(s), and a critique of available methods and tools.

2.2 Definitions

An executable architecture (EA) can be defined as "executable dynamic simulations that are automatically or semi-automatically generated from architecture models or products" (Hu, Huang, Cao, & Chang, 2014). An important characteristic of EA over more conventional modeling and simulation (M&S) efforts is the ability to simulate directly from existing architecture products, with minimal additional system definition or manipulation. Use of EA in early stages of system development is helpful to indicate system characteristics such as interoperability, capability, flexibility, and/or maintainability and therefore to inform trade space decisions.

The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) provides definitions for system, design, and functional architectures. For the purposes of this thesis, the definition of a functional architecture is the most useful and is defined as "an arrangement of functions and their sub-functions and interfaces (internal and external) that defines the execution sequencing, conditions for control or data flow, and the performance requirements to satisfy the requirements baseline" (IEEE Standard 1220-

2005, 2007). Outputs of the functional architecture simulations are then potentially used to influence the design architecture and thus overall system architecture.

In order to increase standardization in the system development process, the concept of an architecture framework was created. An architectural framework serves as a guide for constructing the various architecture products or models to thoroughly describe and document a system. The Department of Defense (DoD) created the DoD Architecture Framework (DoDAF) to provide a consistent modeling platform for military system architects and engineers to describe the system under development. The DoD describes DoDAF as:

The overarching, comprehensive framework and conceptual model enabling the development of architectures to facilitate the ability of Department of Defense (DoD) managers at all levels to make key decisions more effectively through organized information sharing across the Department, Joint Capability Areas (JCAs), Mission, Component, and Program boundaries (DoD Deputy Chief Information Officer, 2009).

2.3 DoDAF Background

The DoD formally mandated use of an architecture framework after introduction of the Command, Control, Communications, Computer, Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance (C4ISR) Framework v2.0 in 1997, establishing an architecture composed of three views; Operational, Systems and Technical. This framework was created for information technology systems in mind and provided the system operators with an overview of capabilities the system possessed. For the acquisition community, the

C4ISR framework provided a basis for determining system-of-system interoperability, under the assumptions that the architecture accurately represented the system under study and that none of the systems changed (Levis & Wagenhals, 2000).

In an effort to facilitate architecture use within the defense acquisition community, the DoD introduced the DoDAF in 2003, with the intent for all system acquisition offices to document system parameters, interactions, and dependencies via a formal method. DoDAF differed from the previous incarnation of C4ISR by expanding existing view definitions, introducing the All View (AV) and placed an emphasis on net-centric concepts (Department of Defense, 2007a).

The DoD further updated the framework to DoDAF v2.0 in 2009. This new release provided more documentation regarding information each model (formerly referred to as products) should contain. DoD also introduced the DoDAF Meta Model (DM2). DM2 explicitly places more emphasis on data-centric modeling. Features that DM2 contribute to DoDAF are a constrained vocabulary, specific semantics and format, increased discovery and understandability and finally, widely adopted integration and analysis (DoD Deputy Chief Information Officer, 2009). Several papers cite the ambiguous definition of terms as a significant challenge with development of executable architectures (Ge, Hipel, Li, & Chen, 2012; Li, Dou, Ge, Yang, & Chen, 2012; Wagenhals, Liles, & Levis, 2009). To complete the release of this updated version of the framework, the DoDAF office provided an extensive data dictionary and mapping resource for explicitly defining terms and mapping those terms to sub models and products. Inclusion of this dictionary greatly improves consistency of use of terms while developing architecture models.

The structure of DM2 is a data repository making it difficult to directly analyze without first translating the data into a graphical or structured textual format (Li et al., 2012). Under the current construct, to form an executable architecture, the data must be extracted, comprehended, possibly modeled, and translated again into another executable form. This not only leaves room for error but also consumes resources in the form of money, time, and personnel.

DoDAF has proven a valuable tool in development of system architectures but it currently only supports representation of static systems. DoDAF v1.5 identified the need for and provided suggested methods to accomplish dynamic modeling, but those have since been removed in newer versions of DoDAF (Department of Defense, 2007b). As the DoD deploys more complex systems and integrates previously stand-alone systems into SoS, the result is a continued need for dynamic representation of systems and SoS.

Successful use of an executable architecture promises to allow inclusion of features to ensure maximum flexibility while meeting current system performance requirements at minimum lifecycle costs. An ability to simulate possible future system requirements and configurations plays a key role in early systems development and selection of alternatives. By modeling foreseeable scenarios, both likely and unlikely, and selecting system attributes based on parametric modeling, the acquisition community can reduce lifecycle costs while increasing system flexibility, adaptability, robustness, etc. for the user. The DoD benefits from the ability to evaluate system variations not just in the near and mid-term, less than 5 years after system deployment, but to evaluate the capabilities and cost for the long term, perhaps upwards of 20 years, and throughout the product lifecycle.

2.4 Simulation Techniques

The modern concept of an executable architecture and application to the DoD was first documented in a series of three companion white papers from George Mason University in the year 2000. These techniques outlined development of a design process, structured analysis and an object-oriented approach for the then current C4ISR Framework (Bienvenu, Shin, & Levis, 2000; Levis & Wagenhals, 2000; Wagenhals, Shin, Kim, & Levis, 2000). Development of executable architectures has continued to evolve since initially conceived with realization of the efficiencies gained through direct simulation from the architecture and increased interest from the systems engineering community. There are still however limited mature, standardized, and user-friendly toolsets available for creating simulations directly from an existing architecture. Along with limited toolsets, there is no clearly preferred method for simulation of executable architectures based on the variety of simulation techniques described in this section of the thesis.

For the purposes of this thesis, DoDAF is considered the architecture standard of interest, and thus defines the information required for each view. It is important to note that while UML and SysML products are commonly used to present relevant DoDAF views, UML and SysML do not natively include executable semantics at this time and thus are not suitable for executable architectures (Griendling & Mavris, 2011). It is desirable that system architecture software supports generation of all DoDAF models to ensure concordance in addition to allowing simulations directly from those models. Various implementations of executable architectures have been suggested and/or enacted by academia and commercial software companies. The remainder of this chapter

contains a brief review of methods and various implementations proposed for EA simulation.

2.4.1 Discrete Event Simulation

Discrete Event Simulation (DES) is a broad modeling concept without a formal graphical notation standard. As the name implies, the simulation method divides events into discrete periods of time to execute activities, events or processes within the model (Griendling & Mavris, 2011). This method presents time and outputs as a step function in the simulation rather than a linear time progression that continuous modeling techniques offer (Matloff, 2008). DES are well suited for analyzing linear processes and modeling discrete system changes with statistical significance (Özgün & Barlas, 2009).

Software toolkits using DES are perhaps the most commonly available and user-friendly packages for performing system modeling and simulation with many variants available from open source, academic and commercial producers. Examples of some of the well-established commercial DES software packages, many including more than exclusively DES capabilities, include Imagine That!'s Extendsim, Mathworks' SimEvent and Rockwell Automation's Arena (Imagine That!, 2015; Mathworks, 2015; Rockwell Automation, 2015). Unfortunately, few DES software packages, commercial or otherwise, are purpose built for use and integration with system architectures and often do not natively support generation of all DoDAF models. Several applications of DES are summarized below.

2.4.1.1 Innoslate

SPEC Innovations has built a powerful online architecture tool called Innoslate. This software supports generation for most of the 50 models identified in DoDAF v2.0 and allows simulation directly from some architecture models using a DES (SPEC Innovations, 2015). Developer documentation and the author's experience were the only sources of relevant information available for this thesis.

Benefits of the Innoslate software are many. World-wide access is provided via the Innoslate website, allowing for platform independent architecture creation and simulation. The built-in DES features a wide array of built-in probabilistic functions for realistic activity durations during model execution. The software accounts for allocation of resources and allows consumption of assigned resources throughout the simulation. In addition to creation of the architecture models, where details can be obscured through abstraction, the entity relationships and actions can be enhanced for simulation with formalization through Simulation Scripts, written in simple JavaScript (SPEC Innovations, 2015). Innoslate also includes predefined formats for many DoDAF views.

2.4.1.2 Canadian Department of National Defence

In 2014, members of the Canadian Department of National Defence's Canadian Forces Warfare Center published a paper on a new method for creation of executable architectures using a combination of Microsoft (MS) Visio to produce architecture models and use of SimEvents to execute automatic simulations (Nakhla & Wheaton, 2014). Once a model is created, their method uses Visio's built-in XML generator to export an XML file. They then process for model consistency and transform to a SimEvents compatible file. The execution can then be run within SimEvents and updates

to change model behavior can be made and finally translated back to a Visio compatible file. A diagram of the model to simulation translation process is shown in Figure 1.

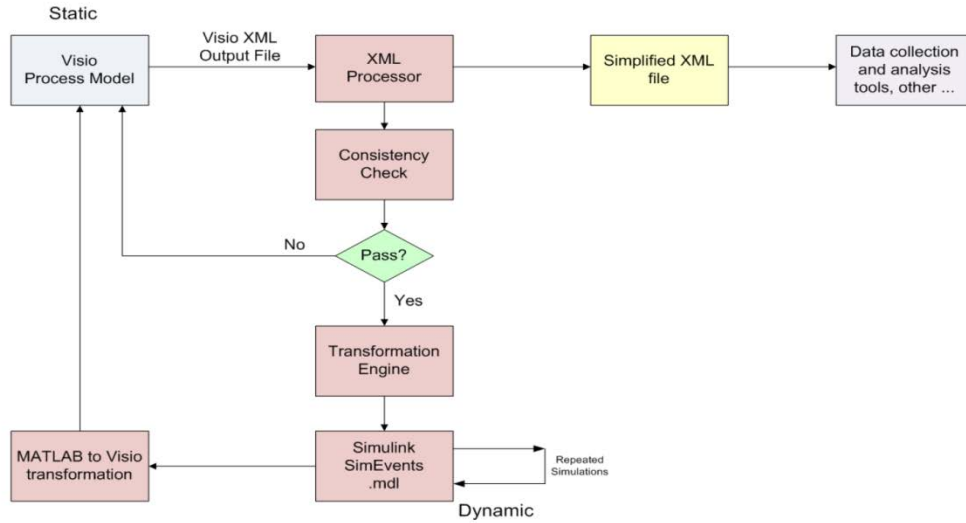


Figure 1: Flow Between Computational Models (Nakhla & Wheaton, 2014)

Nakhla & Weaton's method has several points of merit. First, while both software packages require licenses, they are widely available and each has an existing user base outside of system architecting, fostering broad understanding and possibilities for international cooperation. Second, their method allows for bi-directional translation between the models and the simulation; updates made during simulation can be automatically translated back to an architecture compliant model (Nakhla & Wheaton, 2014).

2.4.1.3 COREsim

Vitech's popular architecting tool, CORE, has an add-on called CORESim. CORESim provides the ability to simulate system architecture from CORE produced Functional Flow Block Diagrams (FFBD) and Enhanced Functional Flow Block

Diagrams (EFFBD) (Vitech Corporation, 2000). The simulator uses a DES and has a comprehensive built-in library of probabilistic distributions available for use.

2.4.1.4 Enterprise Architect

Sparx Systems offers a comprehensive system architecting tool with built-in simulation capabilities. The simulator uses the native UML constructs from the architecture under simulation (Sparx Systems, 2015). The integrated simulator is useful for discovering logical errors within the architecture but is script based and doesn't currently allow for the addition of probabilistic variables or decision making within the simulation. Intercax has developed a plug-in for the Enterprise Architect software to allow execution of SysML parametric models allowing evaluation of cost, performance and automated trade studies (Intercax, 2015b). According to the developer's published information, the plug-in allows use of MATLAB/Simulink and Mathematica in model development as well as export of results data for further analysis. The performance of the plug-in was not evaluated in the completion of this thesis.

2.4.2 Colored Petri Nets

Formal notation and simulation of executable architectures through Colored Petri Nets (CPNs) is an area of active research and is the preferred formalism for many authors proposing executable architecture methods (Ge, Hipel, Yang, & Chen, 2014; Xia, Wu, Liu, & Xu, 2013). CPNs are an extension of standard Petri Nets where the tokens contain information rather than the binary token nature of standard Petri Nets. The information contained in the tokens factor into the activation of a transition activity and thus makes it reasonable for modeling complicated systems. CPNs retain the graphical notation of

Petri Nets while including consideration for data types and parameter analysis featured in Standard Modeling Language (SML) for discrete event models (Jensen, Kristensen, & Wells, 2007). A primary advantage of CPNs is the ability to view the model via a high level graphic, facilitating understanding. CPNs allow transfer of attributes between modules and sub modules, suggesting the systems can be decomposed to encourage module reuse and improve comprehension.

A simple CPN graphic is displayed in Figure 2. Like standard Petri Nets, CPNs contain places, transitions, and arcs, respectively represented by circles or ellipses, rectangles and the lines connecting them. Additionally, all the above can include annotations called inscriptions to provide detailed information. Places may contain one or more unique inscriptions called tokens. The data at any given place is described via these tokens.

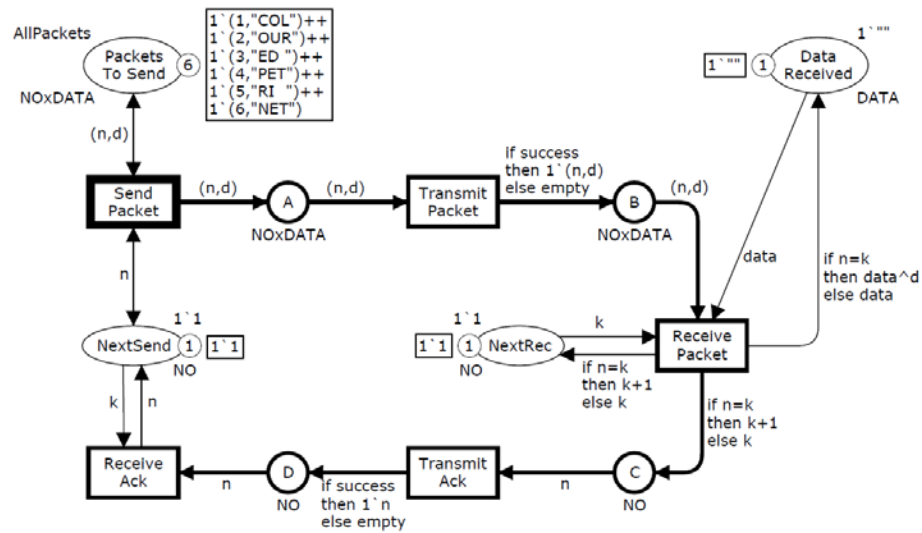


Figure 2: CPN Example (Jensen, Kristesen, & Wells, 2007)

CPNs are viable for modeling executable architectures due to the ability to include time based events. Dynamic modeling is achieved with inclusion of temporal allocations for discrete events. Since the modules are based on discrete events, simulations can run automatically or under direction of the architect, allowing dissection of time and promoting a thorough understanding of system interactions (Jensen et al., 2007).

A matter of practical interest is the complexity faced with automatic conversion of existing architecture products or data to a CPN format through a user friendly translator. Wagenhals et al. demonstrated a proof of concept where they developed model mapping functions to translate widely used DoDAF product instances into an executable instance (Wagenhals & Levis, 2009). These models would make use of existing architecture information and products to generate an XML file capable of being read into a CPN toolset such as CPNTools. While demonstrating the possibility of modeling this way, Wagenhals et al. acknowledged the immaturity of this method. One problem is any errors in the architectural instance will translate to the executable architecture and may only be found by means of thorough examination during simulation. Once discovered, the error must then be corrected in the initial architecture instance and translated again into an executable form. A separate but related difficulty associated with this method is that in some cases, the model may require double translation; once from the data to a static model and then again from the static model to the executable model, creating additional sources for errors (Ge et al., 2014).

Ge et al. propose a direct translation method that does not require an initial static architecture product from which to convert to the executable model (Ge et al., 2014).

Their approach uses the well-defined dictionary associated with DM2 to ensure concordance and translate directly to XML products, again to be read by a CPN toolset. This method may reduce translation error by working through a direct translation but rather is complicated through dependence on the rigidly defined DM2 data dictionary. Like other methods, incorrectly entered data is not exposed until after the architecture is simulated.

2.4.3 Hierarchical Colored Petri Nets

Hierarchical Colored Petri Nets (HCPNs) are an additional extension of Petri Nets to an executable architecture. HCPN is an enhancement of CPNs with the introduction of hierarchical pages to allow for varied levels of abstraction. The developers of this application, Feng et al., propose a 4-dimensioned translation of DoDAF architecture models into a HCPN compatible model (Feng, Ming-Zhe, Cui-Rong, & Zhi-Gang, 2010). A mapping from DoDAF models to an HCPN is shown in Figure 3. Unfortunately, the authors haven't published a case study, implying that a practical application to EA is still in its infancy. Additionally, the most recent academic paper studying HCPN application to executable architectures is from 2010, so presumably this effort has been abandoned for reasons unknown.

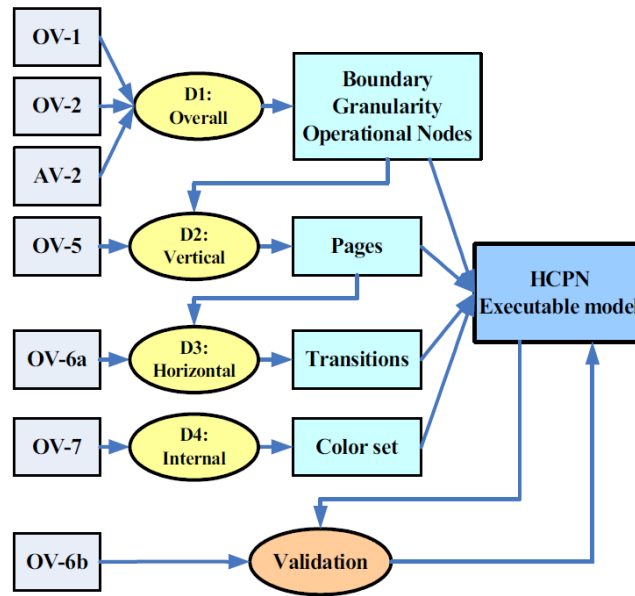


Figure 3: Translation Concept from DoDAF to HCPN (Feng et al., 2010)

The overall use of CPNs or HCPNs to perform executable architectures appears to currently be at the academic level of interest and maturity. The author of this thesis was unable to find any formal architecture software using CPN for simulation. Several papers suggested use of CPNs for simulation via software such as CPN Tools, but alas that software package is not intended to be a systems architecting software and thus not considered as a practical implementation for executable architectures (Janczura, 2009; Jensen et al., 2007; Staines, 2008; Xia et al., 2013).

2.4.4 Executable Specification-based Systems Engineering

Cancro et al. describe a method for developing an executable system engineering tool called Executable Specification-based Systems Engineering (ESSE) (Cancro, Turner, Kahn, & Williams, 2011). The authors don't explicitly refer to this as an executable

architecture tool but the goals of their product, "directly executing the specification," are consistent with the definition of an executable architecture. They propose a three level hierarchical graphical language that specifically includes external system interaction modeling. At the system context level, their method describes system level interactions and is further decomposed at the second level as a Functional Block Diagram. The implementation of functional block diagrams is especially useful in dynamic simulations with the inclusion of flags for differentiation of clock versus interrupt driven functions and enable flags to determine system performance in the absence of particular functions. The third level of decomposition, termed the functional description contains highly detailed communications interfaces (Cancro et al., 2011). A top level depiction of this model is shown in Figure 4.

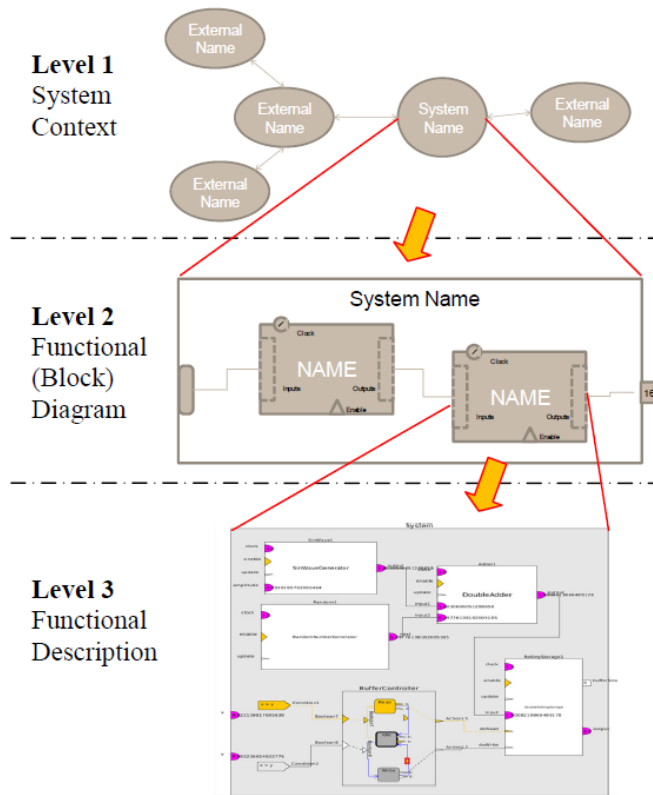


Figure 4: ESSE Development Process (Cancro, Turner, Kahn, & Williams, 2011)

The ESSE model has several desirable attributes. First, this hierarchical based model is similar to existing UML and FFBD modeling methods, therefore familiar to System Engineers and is a more likely candidate for adoption, compared to other textual implementations of an executable architecture. Second, the varying layers provide built-in abstract views for presentation to managers and decision makers, while also containing the requisite level of formalism at the lower levels to support robust systems engineering. Third, with the integrated nature of ESSE developers claim to eliminate modeling lag, which is the time between architecture creation and a simulation output, allowing thoughtful decisions at any process in the system development. Finally, there is an

apparent high level of reusability built in, a critical feature when developing a SoS.

Additionally, the developers have created a prototype development environment,

implying that it's not ready for mass implementation (Cancro et al., 2011).

Unfortunately, the most recent publication covering this modeling concept was in 2011,

leading to an assumption that this project was abandoned for reasons unknown.

2.4.5 fUML

The Unified Modeling Language (UML) was established in 1994 as a combination of the Booch and OMT methods of object-oriented analysis and design and was formally released as UML 1.0 in 1997 (Larman, 2011). It has served the software and systems engineering community well by providing a formalized language used to develop and describe systems. One drawback of UML, current and all previous versions, is the lack of native executable semantics to dynamically evaluate system interactions and behaviors.

The Object Management Group (OMG), a technology standards consortium with considerable input on the evolution of UML, recognized this gap and began developing the Foundational UML (fUML). fUML is an intermediary step in the translation of standard UML models into a platform language, such as Java. The fUML is based from three key tenets: compactness, ease of translation and action functionality (The Object Management Group, 2012). The fUML applies standardized language and syntax to the translation process. A depiction of fUML's role in translating from UML to platform language is shown in Figure 5

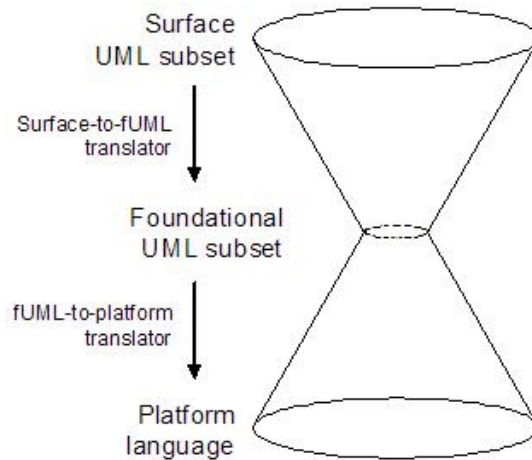


Figure 5: Translation of the fUML Subset (Object Management Group, 2013)

Several papers exist detailing the translation and implementation of UML to fUML and then on to platform specific languages. Wang et al. offer one reasonable theory for implementation by adding to the current fUML standard (Wang, He, & Wang, 2014). They present a case defining explicit meta models, providing a well defined syntax and semantics, and establishing precise rules for execution. They chose graphic representation of an SoS via swimlanes where each system is in one and only one UML swimlane and modeling data transfer using connectors between various activities in each of the swimlanes.

A potential drawback with fUML is that the executable portion of the specification moves away from graphical models used in Surface UML subset to a platform language such as Java. Development of a universal executable generator from standardized UML notation would encourage adoption by a broad user base. Unfortunately, even the authors of the fUML specification acknowledge that ease of translation and compactness are in conflict with one another, complicating the practicality of a "general fUML-to-platform translator" (The Object Management Group, 2012).

Additionally, UML is an abstract modeling language and thus by definition has poor formalization, further complicating direct model translation to fUML (Wang et al., 2014).

2.4.5.1 Magic Draw

Some architecture software vendors are beginning to incorporate fUML into their execution packages. One of those examples is No Magic's MagicDraw Cameo Simulation Toolkit which is the industry's first implementation of the fUML and State Chart XML standards (No Magic, 2015). One criticism of this implementation is that it lacks a global view, preventing the system engineer from viewing the complete system and thus missing portions of the system interaction (Hu et al., 2014). No further literature is available to outline benefits or weaknesses for this product. Similarly to Enterprise Architect, Intercax has created a third party plug-in for Magic Draw called ParaMagic allowing use of Mathematica, PlayerPro, OpenModelica and MATLAB for further simulation and model analysis (Intercax, 2015a). The performance of ParaMagic was not evaluated in the completion of this thesis.

2.4.6 Monterey Phoenix

Monterey Phoenix (MP) was initially developed for software development applications, however similarities between software and systems acquisition provide a favorable application to systems architecture. According to the developer, MP model outputs are suitable for incorporation to DoDAF models however current software doesn't support integrated architecture model generating capabilities. The benefit of MP in this application is the ability to simulate interactions (Auguston, 2014).

MP defines an event as an “abstraction of activity” and is otherwise centered on two basic premises to provide system behavior analysis; the concept of dependency in a precedence relationship and a hierarchical relationship of inclusion (Auguston, 2014). Auguston has formalized the executable modeling language through a syntax library.

Benefits of this model are that it provides a high level of abstraction. For instance, an early concept evaluation isn’t dependent on strict interface control documents and simply modeling the bulk communications between component systems may be adequate. Another benefit is that the model simulates resource limitations and sharing (Auguston, 2014). Like some other executable architecture programs, MP requires unique programming and doesn't provide tailored model generation to a standard architecture such as DoDAF. Current integrated output files and diagrams are limited to sequence diagrams and swimlane diagrams.

2.5 Generalized Architecture Development

In addition to exploring methods of simulation, a generalized architecture development process is appropriate for review. Dietrichs, et al. developed a set of steps used to develop and evaluate system architectures called the *Architecture Based Evaluation Process (ABEP)* (Dietrichs, Griffin, Schuettke, & Slocum, 2006). The ABEP process identifies a logical sequence of operations for evaluation of system performance based on simulations based on developed architecture and is not specific to development and evaluation of an executable architecture.

Architecture Based Evaluation Process (ABEP)

ABEP ASSUMPTIONS:

- a. Some meaningful analysis is required to evaluate system

- b. Integrated architectures provide the most complete system/concept definition to ensure the evaluation is meaningful and accurate.
- c. The architecture, when done correctly, provides the necessary traceability to tie the evaluated concept of interest to the analysis used to validate the concept.

ABEP STEPS

1. Design Operations Concept of system to be evaluated.

Ops concept provides the system description which the architecture will model, and the models will simulate/evaluate.

2. Identify MOE's relevant to the decision/evaluation

Identify the metrics that represent the effectiveness of the system.

3. Identify required level of abstraction for architecture to show traceability to MOE's

Analyze the Ops Concept to determine if MOE's are measured at the output of the system, within the system (requiring 'drilling' into the system activities), or at the output of activities external to the system (requiring external systems diagram)

4. Identify architecture views necessary to capture structure/relationships

- a. Structure (OV-1, OV-2, OV-5) In order to first develop the structure of the analysis, nearly all evaluations will require the OV-1 (High Level Operations Concept), OV-2 (Operational Node Connectivity Description), and OV-5 Operational Activity Model views. The level of abstraction (A-1, A-0, AO etc.) of the OV-5 is initially identified in the previous step.
- b. Decision Logic (OV-6a) To capture the logic of the system, nearly all evaluations will require the OV-6a Rules Model, developed to match the level of abstraction used for the OV-5's.
- c. As Required: SV-2, SV-4, SV-7, OV-6b, OV-6c Depending on the complexity, consideration for time and dependency on internal performance inputs, some or all of the listed views may be required.

5. Develop architecture views

Develop architecture views IAW DoDAF to include all relevant activities and entities. If an integrated architecture already exists, then acquire the required architecture views.

6. Develop Modeling Simulation to replicate architecture

- a. Select Modeling tool best suited to meet evaluation requirements (i.e. Excel spreadsheet vs. discrete model simulation program)
- b. Model structure to match architecture (OV-2, OV-5)
- c. Model decision logic to match OV-6a.
- d. Calculate MOE's at output of activities as functions of design parameters

7. Evaluate Model Completeness

Does model consider all relevant aspects (processes, assumptions, input variables, and outputs, MOE's) of the system/concept?

- a. IF so, continue to step 8.
- b. IF model not complete, return to step 3 with the following considerations.
 - i. Determine additional architecture view and/or level of abstraction required to achieve traceability between system and the missing aspect.
 - ii. Develop required additional architecture
 - iii. Modify model to include additional architecture view.
 - iv. Re-evaluate Step 7 until model captures all relevant aspects of the concept.

8. Evaluate model for MOE results, requirements and key parameters

- a. Once the model is complete, evaluate the system's ability to meet target metrics.
- b. Vary design parameters and perform sensitivity analysis to identify key parameters.
- c. Compare sensitivity analysis to target MOE's to establish requirements and KPPs.
- d. Identify critical performance parameters in the SV-7 Systems Performance Parameters Matrix.
- e. Vary system design and design parameters to evaluate the system's robustness and its rate of degradation.

2.6 Literature Review Summary

Based on quantity of literature related to executable architectures, it is clear there is great interest in the ability to perform architecture based verification and validation of systems (and SoS). Conversely, there are very few examples where the above methodologies are successfully integrated with system architecture software. The large amount of interest and the simultaneous broad lack of comprehensive executable architecture software suites indicate the systems engineering community faces a non-trivial problem and further study is required.

3 Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a detailed description for the creation of a representative executable architecture. The motivations for this thesis stem from a combined AFIT and NPS interest in application of an EA to a SoS, such as tactical ISR UAS platforms. The intent is to synthesize individual vehicle models to simulate a set of UASs that may operate as a SoS. The case will be based on a homogeneous UAS model set but is very relevant to a heterogeneous scenario with alterations to capabilities of one or more of the UASs. This chapter will define the various system properties and parameters within constraints of the physical solution of a UAS.

3.1 Process

The ABEP covered in section 2.5 will form the basis for the development and evaluation of this architecture. Use of an executable architecture results in combination of steps 5 and 6, although some additional fidelity built into the architecture views is required to achieve representative simulation.

3.2 Assumptions

As previously indicated, the development of a UAS architecture has already been selected as the vehicle's form factor, although physical and functional decompositions along with specific requirements and capabilities remain undefined. Throughout the development of this system architecture, the following broad assumptions will be adhered to:

- Technologies of the representative system are currently attainable or at a level where it is reasonable that they will be mature enough for implementation by the year 2025.
- Vulnerabilities to attack, in the physical or cyber domains, are not explicitly considered or modeled.
- SoS systems are homogeneous

Additionally, the software package used for the development is Innoslate. The software developers provided the author with a temporary professional license for the purposes of this thesis. An academic license is normally available to academic students at no cost, but contains 2000 entry and simulation event limitations. The simulation limitations were quickly eclipsed when developing and testing all but the most basic models.

3.3 **Operational Concept**

The concept under consideration is that of a small UAS completing a basic ISR mission. The major functional operations include launch and ingress to a mission area, performance of the mission, and then egress and recovery to the base location. While performing the mission, an integrated sensor scans the area of interest, uses an ATR system to declare objects as targets or non-targets, and returns the declared and/or confirmed target data to the ground control station. A more detailed concept of operations is included in Appendix A; however the most relevant portions are summarized below.

Conceptually, the system is at an early development stage and an appropriately detailed CONOPs is available. True to the intent of this thesis, an early trade space

decision is to be evaluated. To provide inputs for a trade space decision, several variant concepts were generated, from which the most desirable performer will be chosen for further development. For the purposes of this research, the number of UAS simultaneously performing the mission is limited to two. The three variants consist of:

Variant 1: An architecture in which each system operates independently and returns target declarations to the ground control station (GCS).

Variant 2: An architecture in which each system operates independently from one another but sends additional sensor information to the GCS such that the GCS can perform an additional confirmatory analysis to increase confidence and reduce false alarm rates.

Variant 3: An architecture in which each system operates cooperatively with one another and requests the other UAS to provide an additional confirmatory analysis to increase confidence and reduce false alarm rates.

3.4 Measures of Effectiveness

Measures of effectiveness (MOEs) will provide a basis for selection of one variant over another and therefore must be thoughtfully selected. In this case, the system is charged with detecting targets, transmitting data to the ground control station and in the case of Variant 3, providing additional confidence to the ground station through an independent confirmation. With those goals in mind, the MOEs selected for this architecture, along with short descriptions, are listed below.

MOE1: Average Correct Target Declarations per Mission

This is the number of objects declared as targets during the initial object evaluation step of each variant. A higher value is desirable.

MOE2: Average Correct Target Confirmations per Mission

This is the number of objects confirmed as targets during the secondary object evaluation step of Variants 2 and 3. Variant 1 does not include a confirmation step in the process. A higher value is desirable.

MOE3: Average False Alarms per Mission

This is the number of non-target objects, both declared and confirmed, incorrectly as valid targets. A lower value is desirable.

MOE4: Average Missed Targets per Mission

This is the number of valid target objects, both declared and confirmed, incorrectly as non-targets. A lower value is desirable.

3.5 Architecture Scope

Following definition of MOEs, it is appropriate to perform an evaluation to determine the level of abstraction required. In the case of an early concept executable architecture, achieving the correct balance of abstraction versus formalization is doubly important. An overly detailed architecture wastes valuable time as many of the minute interface details, subsystem operations, and component performance are unknown and irrelevant for most general trade space decisions. However, due to the executable nature, the architecture must achieve a level of formalization sufficient to properly scope the architecture. In the case of the architecture under development, modeling will be limited

to relevant subsystems and their primary functions. Other assumptions are documented as required or relevant.

3.6 Required Architecture Views

Once the appropriate level of abstraction is selected, determination of appropriate architecture views is required. Given the early concept nature of the architecture under development, architecture views will be limited to operational views primarily. The operational views constructed are OV-1, OV-2, OV-5b, and OV-6a. Additionally, an AV-1 was developed to provide sufficient background information and purpose for any future work that may build off this architecture.

3.7 Development of Architecture Views

Architecture views, with the exception of the AV-1 and the OV-6a, were completed within the Innoslate program's DoDAF Dashboard which provides general templates for most current DoDAF models. Innoslate doesn't have a template for an OV-6a, even though this logic is embedded in the OV-5b. For this reason, the OV-5b and OV-6a were developed concurrently, with documentation of the OV-6a occurring outside of Innoslate. The AV-1 was drafted before the selection of Innoslate as the architecting software and thus it was completed in Microsoft Word, following headings outlined in the most recent version of DoDAF. As part of the DoDAF Dashboard, Innoslate includes a robust template for the AV-1. All architecture views produced for this thesis are available in Appendices B through F.

As described in the operational concept section, three variants were considered under this thesis. Due to the differences in the actions of the variants, the resulting views

differ slightly even though the components and nodes remain the same. The expectation is that these subtle differences will produce discernible differences in performance as evaluated by the MOEs.

3.8 Development of Architecture Simulation

Translation of an architecture for simulation typically involves conversion of the architecture to a separate application suited exclusively for simulation. This can be time consuming, prone to human error, and potentially more costly as another software license is likely required. Thus, a separation of the architecture models and data from the simulation product is undesirable.

A driving interest in executable architectures is the ability to perform simulations autonomously or semi autonomously, using existing architecture information. As noted in the literature review, many of the methods proposed for creating executable architectures are either immature or deficient in this feature and/or provide little attention to the creation of an integrated executable architecture solution.

Innoslate was the chosen architecting software for this thesis due to the availability of DoDAF view generation for most views and its ability to simulate directly from the architecture, specifically the OV-5b. Furthermore, behavior of individual activities can be easily tailored with JavaScript to monitor resources, update variables, include conditional logic, and incorporate probabilistic functions. This flexibility allows the architect the ability to balance between appropriate levels of abstraction for ease of interpretation while incorporating the nuances required to model specific behavior. The

following several sections briefly summarize the common activities and unique activities for each variant.

3.8.1 Common Activities

For purposes of illustration, approximately one-half of the OV-5b for Variant 1 is shown in Figure 6 and represents a complete system. It will be used to describe common activities among all variants. The entire Variant 1, OV-5b is shown in Figure 24.

In order for the system to provide a response during simulations, the OV-5b must include an external stimulus, in this case, modeled as an object that emits a signature in the Object #1 swim lane. The object is modeled as a loop function that starts when the UAS starts performing its ISR mission and stops when the UAS enters recovery mode. The start and stop timing is an artifact of the simulation and selected to reduce simulation computation time. The rate at which a signature is generated is based on a Poisson distribution with an assignable lambda value. This distribution was chosen due to its common application in cueing theory, which is analogous to this representation.

Next, the probability at which activity O.1.2.2 emits a target signature is determined through an internal JavaScript in which a uniform random variable is generated for each cycle and compared to a threshold. In the event the generated number is below the selected target threshold, the object emits a target signature and thus provides a trigger to the sensor subsystem. Conversely, a random number above the selected threshold dictates a non-target signature and similarly triggers the evaluation process.

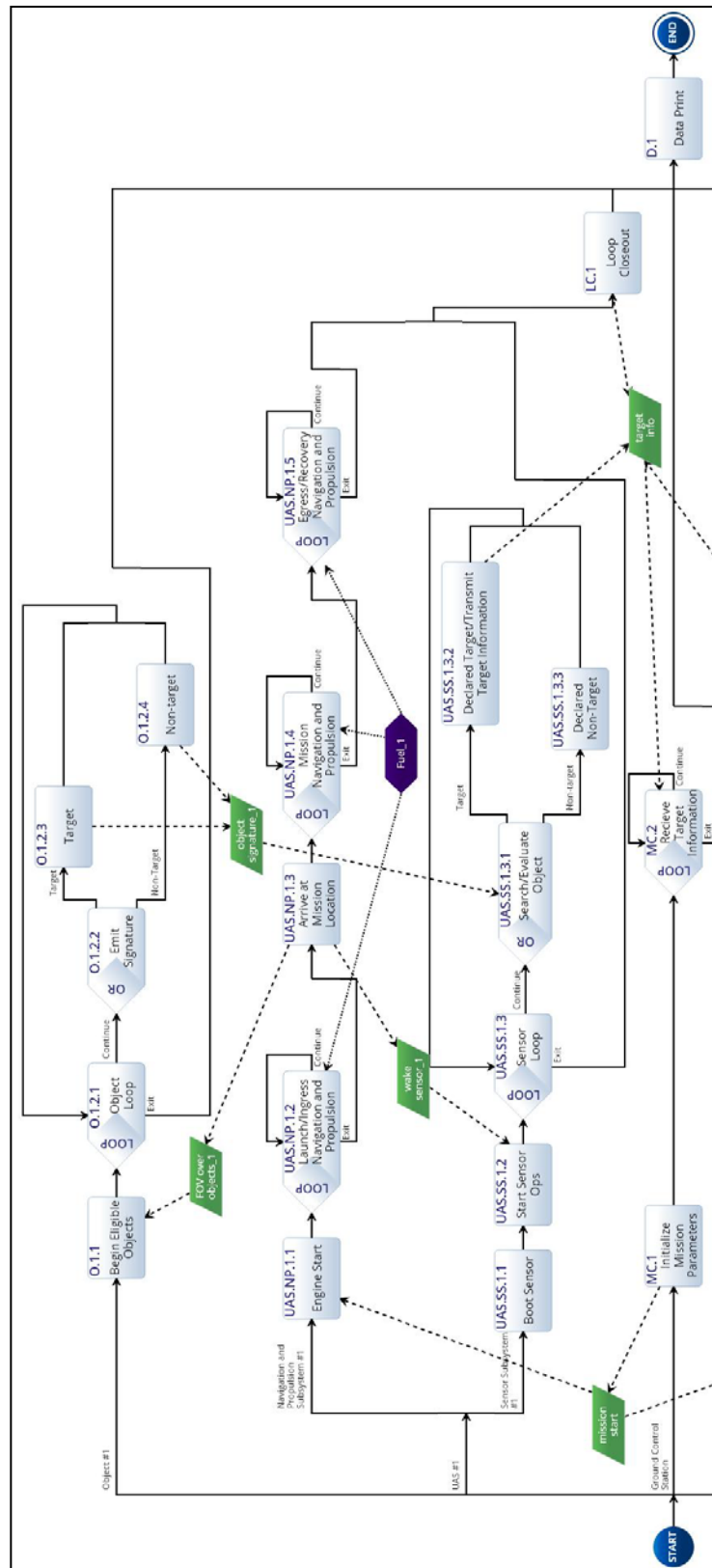


Figure 6: Variant 1, Partial OV-5b

Upon simulated emission of a signature, the simulation makes an internal determination as to whether or not the object is "seen." This is intended to mimic how a real sensor will not be able to evaluate all signatures due to the sensor's inability to differentiate all object signatures from the background. The input parameter represents the portion of the objects ability to be detected and is adjustable between a 0% and 100% chance of seeing an emitted signature. Modification of this parameter allows representative simulation of various environments, targets, and sensor capabilities. The remaining sensor subsystem operations are particular to the variant under inspection and therefore will be discussed individually.

The navigation and propulsion subsystem swim lanes are common among all variants. Fuel is tracked as a resource and consumed at a uniform rate during the mission and therefore can be correlated to duration of any propulsion activities. A value, determined by a defined triangular distribution, is generated to provide launch/ingress activity duration. This same value is used for egress as an approximation of fuel used to return to base. After subtracting the fuel required for launch and recovery, the remaining amount of fuel determines the duration of the ISR portion of the mission. Upon consumption of the fuel to the amount required to perform egress and recovery, the mission enters recovery mode and all new sensor and object operations are ceased.

3.8.2 Variant 1 Operation

The performance of the combined sensor and ATR systems were simulated through use of a confusion matrix. Following successful receipt of a signature, the evaluation activity generates a uniform random number associated with that particular

evaluation activity. This number is compared with the input signature type and respective confusion matrix threshold value and the system declares the object as a target or non-target based on the comparison. The general structure of the confusion matrix is shown in Table 1 along with examples of potential evaluation results shown in Table 2.

Table 1: Confusion Matrix Format (with example threshold values)

	Condition Positive (Target)	Condition Negative (Non-target)
Predicted Condition Positive (Target)	True Positive Value (0.80)	False Positive Value (0.10)
Predicted Condition Negative (Non-target)	False Negative Value (0.20)	True Negative Value (0.90)

Table 2: Confusion Matrix Logic Example

	Inputs		Representative Values of System Performance	Output
Example	Emitted Object Type	Generated Random Number	Confusion Matrix "True" Threshold Values	Declaration Result
1	"Target"	0.50	0.80	Target (True Positive)
2	"Target"	0.85	0.80	Non-Target (False Negative)
3	"Non-Target"	0.40	0.90	Non-Target (True Negative)
4	"Non-Target"	0.95	0.90	Target (False Positive)

If a "target" declaration is made, the model generates a trigger simulating data transfer to a ground control station for potential action, specifics of which are outside the scope of this effort. After completing either a simulated data transfer or a "non-target" declaration, the simulation checks for a mission status of "recovery" and selects to either resume search or end sensor operations if recovery is set to true.

3.8.3 Variation 2 Operation

The partial OV-5b of Variant 2, as shown in Figure 7, is very similar to Variant 1 with the exception that each UAS has a dedicated GCS node. The duration of the sensor data transfer is now represented as a triangular distribution rather than an assumed constant time interval, as in Variant 1. Simulation of the sensor performance is the same as described in Variant 1.

The additional process where the ground station simulates evaluation of the data that is received is also depicted in the OV-5b. This operation is modeled in the same manner as the sensor's evaluation step described in Variant 1, although new confusion matrix values may be used, under the premise that a human analyst will be confirming or rejecting targets under differing criteria compared to the onboard sensor. Once the object data is evaluated and the ground station then either confirms or rejects the target, the GCS waits for another data set to be transferred.

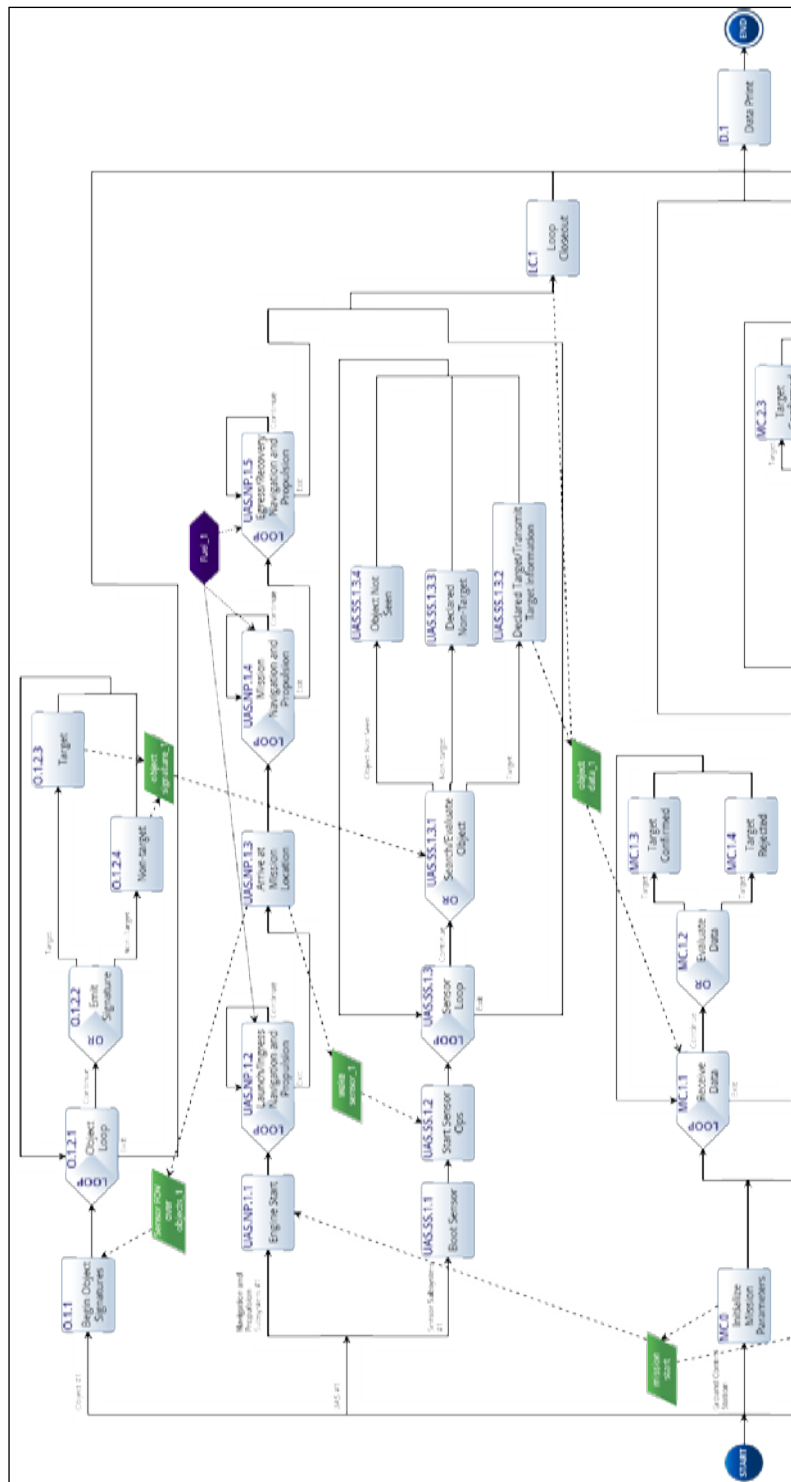


Figure 7: Variant 2, Partial OV-5b

3.8.4 Variant 3 Operation

Variant 3, shown in Figure 8, operates in a cooperative manner to provide a confirmatory step. The addition of a "Sensor Mode" decision checks for a valid request from a cooperative UAS to determine if it will begin standard search operations or perform a target confirmation action. In the condition of no confirmation requests present, the system awaits an object signature and performs an evaluation as previously described. In the event an object is declared a target, the UAS requests confirmation otherwise it returns to check for a confirmation request and begins the cycle over.

If there is a confirmation request, a triangular distribution sets a transit time to and from the requesting UAS. After the transit time is simulated, the sensor simulates an evaluation and either confirms or rejects the target. If confirmed, the UAS simulates a basic data transfer to the ground station and both UAS resume search operations, with the confirming UAS allowing for time to transit back to its original mission area. If during return transit, the UAS in search mode requests an additional confirmation, the transiting UAS returns to confirm as before, assuming the same transit duration as executing during its return transit to that point.

Figure 8: Variant 3, Partial OV-5b

3.9 Evaluation for Model Completeness

Since the architecture was the basis for the simulation model, the simulation order of events and decision points must inherently match the architecture. This characteristic is a clear advantage of development of an architecture on a platform that facilitates direct simulation. However, since there is a level of abstraction used in the architecture, there may be operational parameters and/or assumptions that are not explicitly defined within standard architecture views, yet are required for a representative simulation. A brief discussion of these parameters was shown previously in the variant operations. Additionally, as previously discussed, simulation of external stimuli that are beyond the scope of a system's architecture definition may be required for the EA to simulate properly. Evaluation of MOE results, requirements, and key parameters are the final step of the ABEP and are discussed in chapter 4.

3.10 Test Case Selection

With the core architecture and simulation details defined, relevant test cases were selected. The desire was to present what were deemed reasonable scenarios in order to indicate system performance and aid in selection of a variant for continued development. While many more parameters were available for manipulation, parameters that were varied for this thesis were limited to Target Density and Sensor Target Detection Threshold. Each parameter was varied at two levels, providing 12 unique test cases across all three variants. A test case summary matrix is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Test Case Matrix

Test Case	Target to Non-Target Density	Sensor Target Detection Threshold
1	1:2	Low
2	1:2	High
3	1:20	Low
4	1:20	High

Target density was modeled by adjusting the rate at which the object activity generated targets versus the rate of non-target generation. In this case, target to non-target ratios of 1:2 and 1:20 were selected to represent a target rich environment and a sparse target environment, respectively. For the target rich environment, a generated value of less than the value of $1/3$ equated to a target emission, where as a value greater than $1/3$ resulted in emission of a non-target emission, and similarly, the sparse target environment was assigned a threshold of $1/21$.

The confusion matrices for the UAS sensor considered for this thesis are shown below in Table 4 and Table 5. The intent is to represent the same sensor with differing target detection threshold values. A sensor of the same capabilities was chosen because it is assumed that a sensor with increased capabilities across all areas will therefore perform better under all scenarios. The terms low- and high-target detection threshold represent a value of confidence at which a target declaration is made. A higher target detection threshold represents a lower false positive rate but a higher missed target rate and the opposite is true for a low target detection threshold. This notion is not intuitive when looking solely at the respective rates for true positives and true negatives, i.e. the low

target detection threshold confusion matrix contains more stringent requirements for a true positive declaration.

Table 4: Sensor Low Target Detection Threshold Confusion Matrix

	Condition Positive (Target)	Condition Negative (Non-target)
Predicted Condition Positive (Target)	0.80	0.10
Predicted Condition Negative (Non-target)	0.20	0.90

Table 5: Sensor High Target Detection Threshold Confusion Matrix

	Condition Positive (Target)	Condition Negative (Non-target)
Predicted Condition Positive (Target)	0.75	0.05
Predicted Condition Negative (Non-target)	0.25	0.95

In the case of Variant 2, the GCS was deemed to possess a better capability to evaluate objects and thus was assigned a more accurate confusion matrix, as shown in Table 6. The GCS confusion matrix was not varied between test cases.

Table 6: Ground Control Station Confusion Matrix

	Condition Positive (Target)	Condition Negative (Non-target)
Predicted Condition Positive (Target)	0.85	0.05
Predicted Condition Negative (Non-target)	0.15	0.95

3.11 Other Model Parameters

The models were built with multiple other fixed parameters, presented in Table 7. The other model parameters were not changed within the data collection for this thesis they are available for modification in any future exploration into this architecture. All additional parameters were selected based on values deemed reasonable for the intended use of the UAS.

Table 7: Other Model Parameters

Parameter	Description	Value
Object Arrival Rate	Rate at which the object activity generates signatures	Poisson Distribution $\lambda=30$ Seconds
Percentage of Seen Objects	Simulated obscuration such that the sensor cannot detect all objects	85%
Ingress and Egress Duration	Duration from take-off to the beginning of ISR operations and from the end of ISR operation to landing. Ingress and Egress durations are assumed to be equal on a per mission basis.	Triangular Distribution Min=1 Minute Max=15 Minutes Mode= 5 Minutes 1 Minute Increments
Total Mission Length	The duration of time from simulated wheels-up to touch down	60 Minutes
Mission Time (derived)	Duration of active ISR mission time	30 to 58 Minutes
Variants 1 and 3: Data Transmission Time	Duration for basic data transfer to the GCS	10 Seconds per occurrence
Variant 2: Data Transmission Time	Duration for complex data transfer to the GCS	Triangular Distribution Min=1 Minute Max=3Minutes Mode=2 Minutes Floating Point Increments
Variant 3: Transit Time for Confirmation	Amount of travel time from assigned mission space to cooperative UAS's mission space	Triangular Distribution Min=1 Minute Max=6 Minutes Mode = 2 Minutes 30 Second Increments

3.12 Simulation Software Comments

As previously acknowledged, Innoslate was the chosen architecting software used for this thesis. Monterey Phoenix, Enterprise Architect, Core, as well as development of custom MATLAB models were considered for this thesis. Innoslate was chosen over

these programs due to the availability of licensing, preservation of concordance within the architecture, integrated simulations, and overall ease of use. That said the software had some shortfalls. First, the cloud version of Innoslate used for this thesis is not able to perform Monte Carlo simulations currently. The developers have a beta version of their cloud Monte Carlo simulation available but it did not successfully execute the models developed for this thesis. Furthermore, information on Monte Carlo default settings or the ability to adjust the number of trials was available for the simulations. Second, output of simulation results to a file was not natively available and thus results were manually transferred to a program, in this case MS Excel, for analysis. The simulation runs on a JavaScript platform, which is user-friendly for model generation but inherently does not allow file generation on a client machine. The inability to capture output data in separate files severely limits the scaling capabilities of the program. Finally, triggers must be dealt with care and deliberation within the simulations. In a static activity diagram, triggers should occur wherever completion if an activity permits activation of another activity. This became a problem during simulation, specifically for loops. In cases where triggers were used to activate looping activities, the completion and exit of the loop stimulus activity caused the simulation to fail to execute since the looping activity was still waiting for a trigger. The failure to complete simulation can be avoided but creates extra steps and/or activities not pertinent at the level of abstraction used for the activity diagram.

3.13 Summary

This chapter detailed the application of the ABEP process to the architecture under development with exception of step 8 which will be completed and commented upon in chapter 4.

4 Simulation Analysis and Results

This chapter will provide analysis of the data collected during simulation of the architecture described in previous chapters. The goal of this section is to demonstrate how the execution of the architecture can be used to indicate a favorable variant for continued development. The evaluation and analysis will focus on performance of each variant versus the previously defined MOEs and subsequently review any other data points of interest. This chapter will conclude with a summary of relative MOE performance.

The sample used for analysis was based on ten trials for each variant and test case and then the relevant outputs were recorded. This was a less than desirable number of runs due to feasibility discussed in chapter 3 but it was a sufficient number of trials to illustrate significant differences and relative trends. In most cases, histograms of the trial data formed a normal distribution and due to the small sample size, a student-t distribution was deemed appropriate for analysis. Error bars were then calculated at a confidence interval of 95%. Lower and upper bounds were calculated as follows:

$$L_1 = \bar{X} - t_{\alpha/2} S / \sqrt{n-1} \quad (1)$$

$$L_2 = \bar{X} + t_{\alpha/2} S / \sqrt{n-1} \quad (2)$$

Where:

\bar{X} = Sampled mean

S = Standard deviation of the sampled population

n = 10 samples

$t_{\alpha/2} = 2.262$

4.1 MOE 1: Average Target Declarations per Mission

This MOE provides a relative indication of search efficiency across all variants. Since a common sensor was modeled across all variants, the more time spent actively searching for a target is presumed directly proportional to the mean number of declarations made. Figure 9 contains a comparison of valid target declarations per mission for each variant, grouped by test case. For reference, the sampled average number of targets emitted per mission for the high target density and low target density was 60.43 and 8.6, respectively.

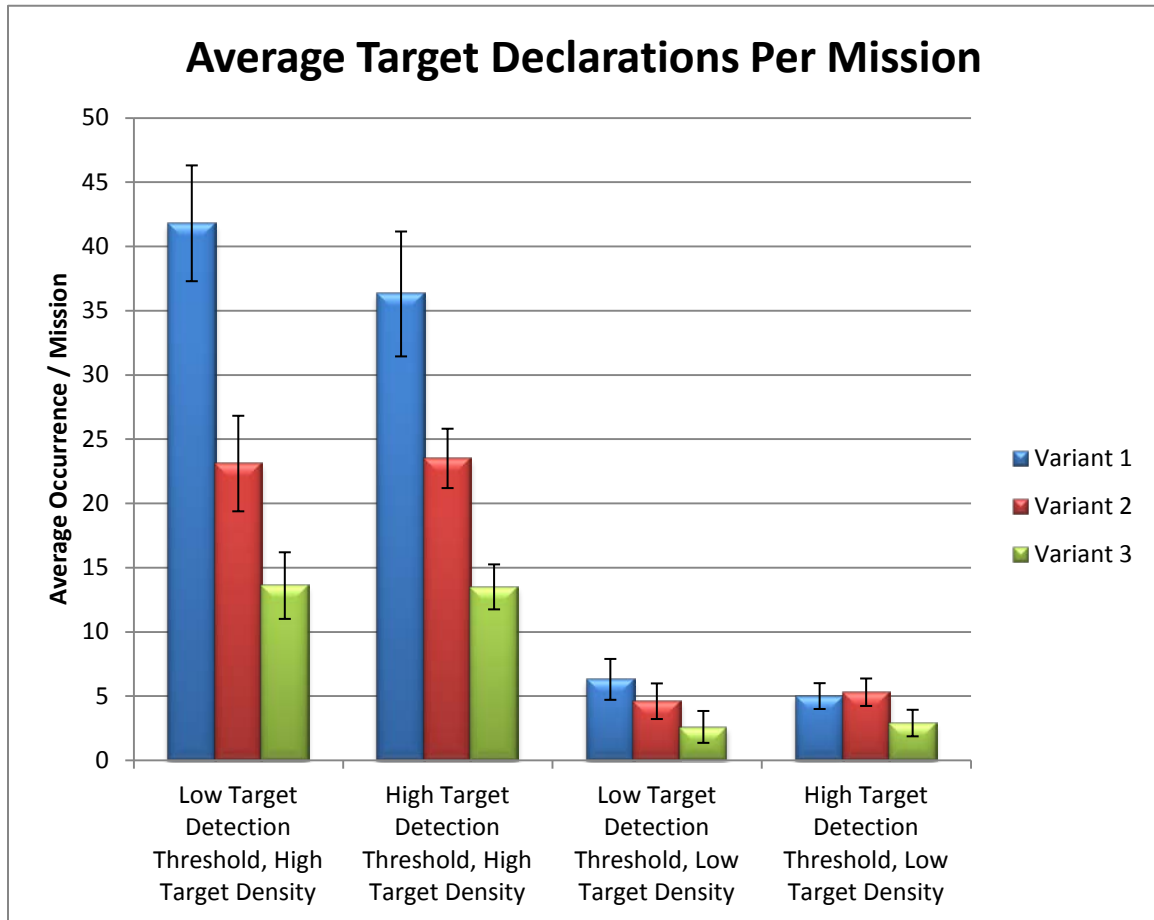


Figure 9: Average Target Declarations per Mission

In the cases of high target density, all variants demonstrated a statistically significant difference in detections per mission at the 95% confidence interval. The respective lower declaration rates of Variants 2 and 3 when compared to Variant 1 are presumed to be a result of evaluating fewer total objects. In these cases, Variants 2 and 3 are sending sensor data or transiting to confirm an object, respectively, instead of evaluating additional objects. Conversely, Variant 1 spends much more time actively evaluating objects and thus generally has higher overall declaration rates. An interesting observation is noted when comparing individual variant declaration performance in the high target density cases. While the declaration rate for Variant 1 trends downward as the target density is reduced and target detection thresholds is raised, this trend is not apparent for Variants 2 and 3. A possible explanation is that in these cases, valid targets are relatively prevalent; leading to frequent data transmission and transit delays, thus resulting in a small impact from the change in target detection threshold.

In the cases of low target density, only Variants 1 and 3 displayed a statistical difference at a low target detection threshold while both Variants 1 and 2 were statistically better than Variant 3 for the high target detection threshold. When comparing the relative effect of target density to declaration performance of all cases, Variants 2 and 3 in a low target density scenario are, on a percentage basis, much closer to that of Variant 1 than that same comparison in the high target density cases. This indicates that the declaration performance of Variant 1 declines faster than that of Variants 2 and 3 as the target density reduces.

4.2 MOE 2: Average Target Confirmations per Mission

As described in chapter 3, Variants 2 and 3 perform an additional confirmation step with the primary objective of reducing false alarm rates. This MOE provides an indication of which variant produces more confirmations per mission. Reviewing Figure 10 reveals a significant performance advantage, at a 95 % confidence, for Variant 2 in all high target density scenarios but the significance is lost in low target density scenarios.

Given that the quantity of object signature inputs to the confirmation process are a direct result of the number of declarations, the result of fewer variant 3 declarations is in line with expectations although the statistical difference is lost for the high target detection, low target density case. Additionally, the lack of statistical difference from test case to test case for Variant 3 within the same target density group indicates that the target density is much more influential in these cases than the target detection threshold. Given the declaration rates shown in Figure 9, Variant 2 should not show a statistical difference as the confirmation step occurs in the GCS and therefore always uses the same target detection thresholds.

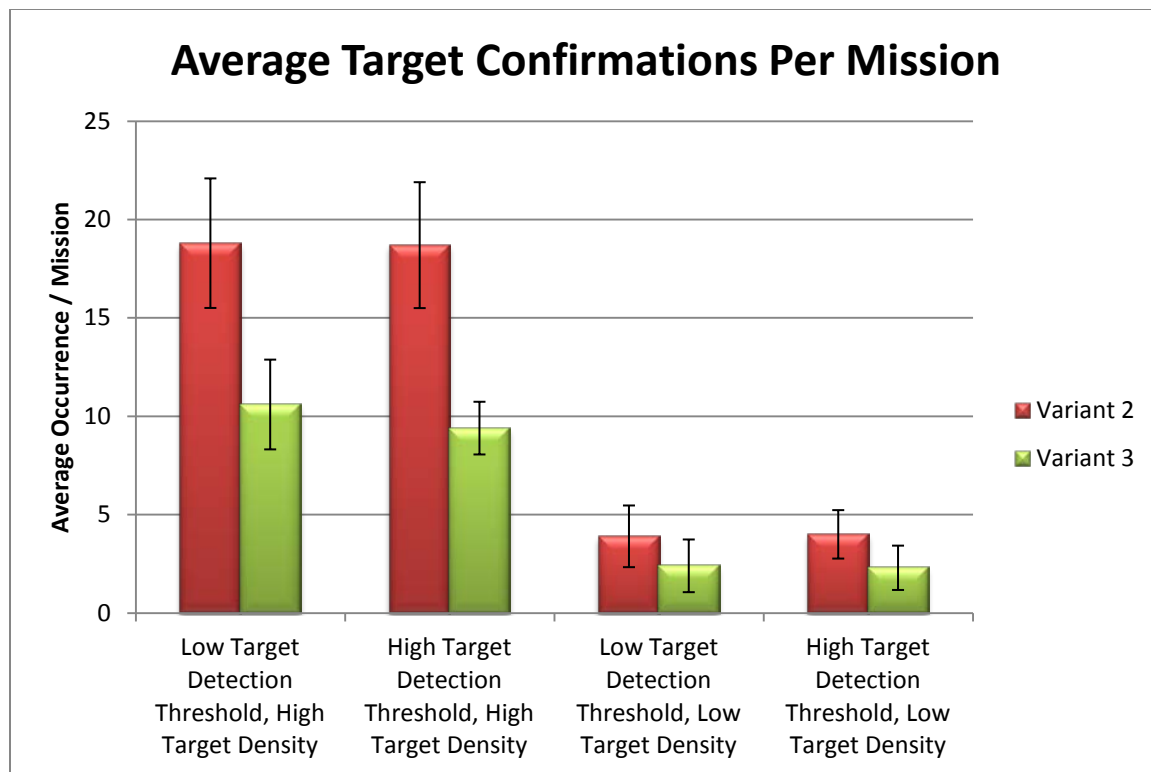


Figure 10: Average Target Confirmations per Mission

4.3 MOE 3: Average False Alarms per Mission

This MOE will consider average false alarms rates per mission for both declarations and confirmations. Under the previously described CONOPs, the Variant 2 and 3 false alarm rate for declarations is not in and of its self an important number under the premise they will be reduced during the confirmation step, but a comparison has been included to provide relative differences between detection operations of all UAS variants.

As shown in Figure 11 and consistent with previous observations, overall rates per mission generally trend lower for Variants 2 and 3 compared to Variant 1 due to time consumed by transmitting data or transiting. Of note, the false alarm rates trend up as the target density decreases. This is due to each UAS evaluating approximately the same

number of objects with fewer valid targets in that group and therefore an increased opportunity to declare more false alarms exists.

In this data set, there is never a statistically significant performance difference between Variants 1 and 2 although there is a consistent trend of higher average false alarms per mission for Variant 1. Variant 3 performed statistically better than Variants 1 and 2 in all cases except the low target threshold, high target density case.

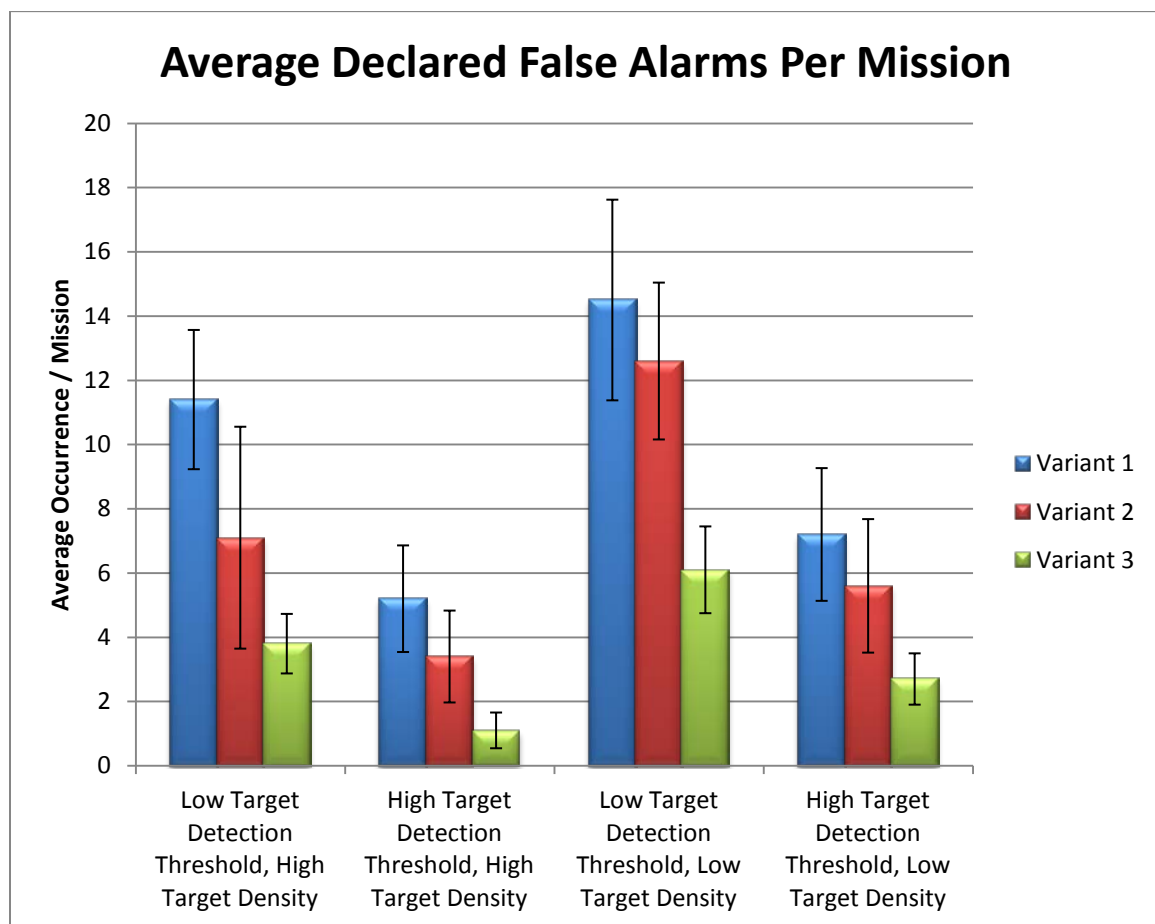


Figure 11: Average False Alarm Declarations per Mission

Figure 12 contains false alarms that make it through both declaration and confirmation evaluations. Note that Variant 2 confirmed zero false alarms for the high detection threshold, high target density case and thus a confidence interval based on a normal distribution was not appropriate. In this case a "Rule of 3" confidence interval was deemed an appropriate method for approximating a confidence interval.

With respect to the Variant 2 high target threshold and high target density test case, there are two reasons why a value of zero is not unreasonable. First, as shown in Figure 13, a relatively small number of false positives were flagged for a confirmatory look, reducing overall probability that one or more false alarms are confirmed. Second, and as mentioned previously, the GCS confusion matrix used represents a highly accurate evaluation. These traits combined lead to a very low probability of a false alarm confirmation.

The data for false alarm confirmations frequently contains zero confirmations per mission, creating a dataset skewed towards zero. Given the small sample size, this appeared to cause larger than reasonable confidence intervals using normal distribution confidence interval methods. Non-parametric methods were evaluated for determining appropriate confidence intervals however none indicated a statistically significant performance difference among any test case.

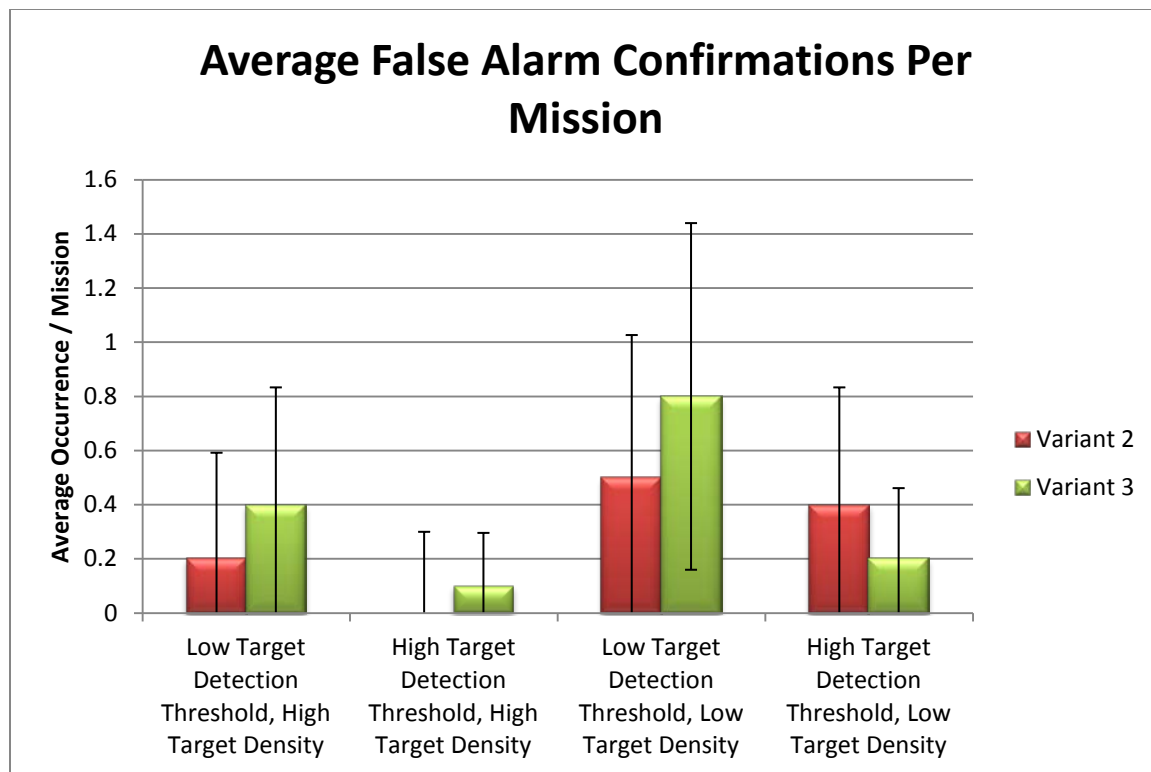


Figure 12: Average False Alarm Confirmations per Mission

Of particular interest is the false alarm output at the system level. As shown in Figure 13, the average false alarm per mission value for Variant 1 far eclipses the same numbers for Variants 2 and 3.

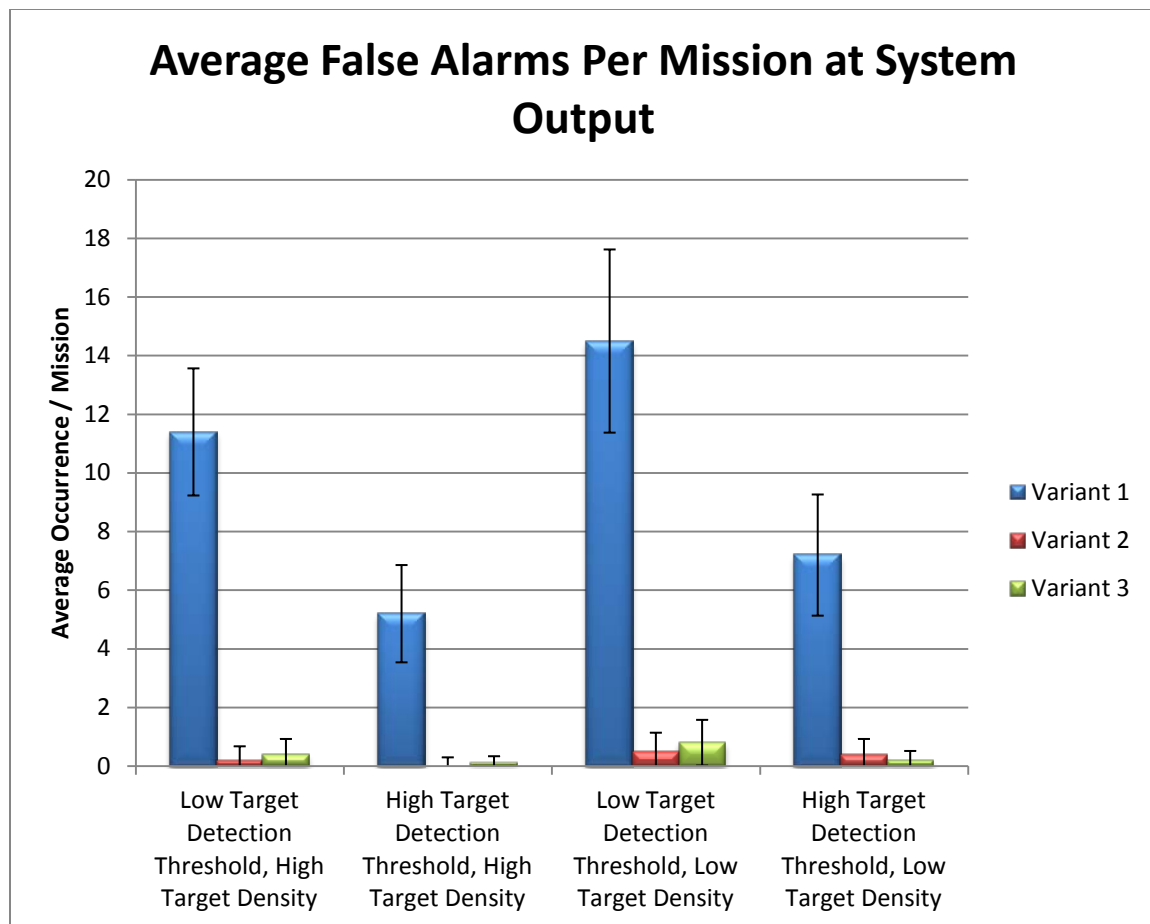


Figure 13: Average False Alarms per Mission at System Output

4.4 MOE 4: Average Missed Targets per Mission

This purpose of this MOE is to compare missed target opportunities. As shown in Figure 14, the high target threshold scenarios have higher missed target values than the respective low target threshold counterpart at a given target density, although it is infrequently a statistical difference with only the Variant 2 high target density cases as an exception. The overall trend of higher missed target rates being correlated to higher target detection thresholds is to be expected as the requirements for declaring a target are more stringent and, thus valid targets are missed more frequently. Additionally, the

observation of fewer missed targets in lower target density environments is an artifact of the existence of fewer targets to miss.

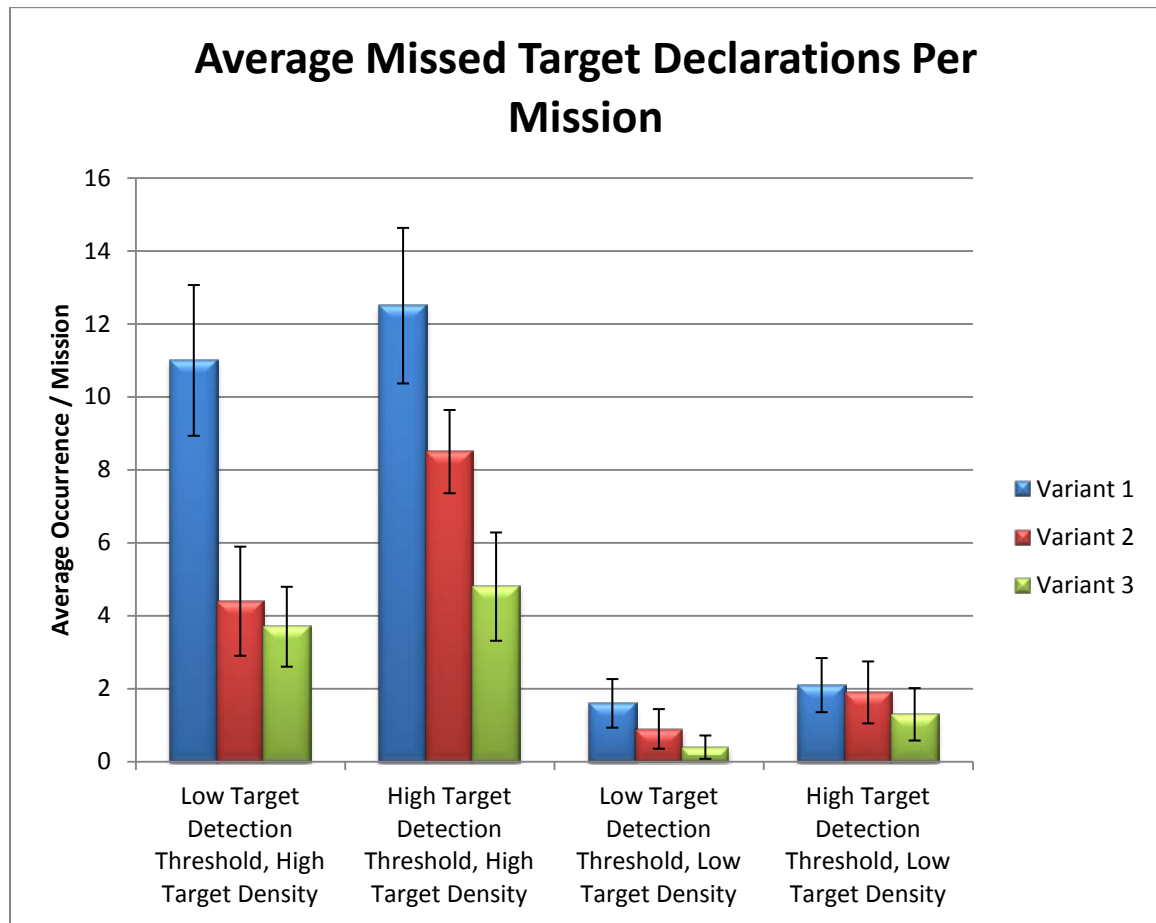


Figure 14: Average Missed Target Declarations per Mission

Figure 15 shows the average post-confirmation missed targets per mission values. This dataset only represents objects that have successfully passed a declaration evaluation as a true positive or a false positive and therefore have no relation to the missed targets identified in Figure 14.

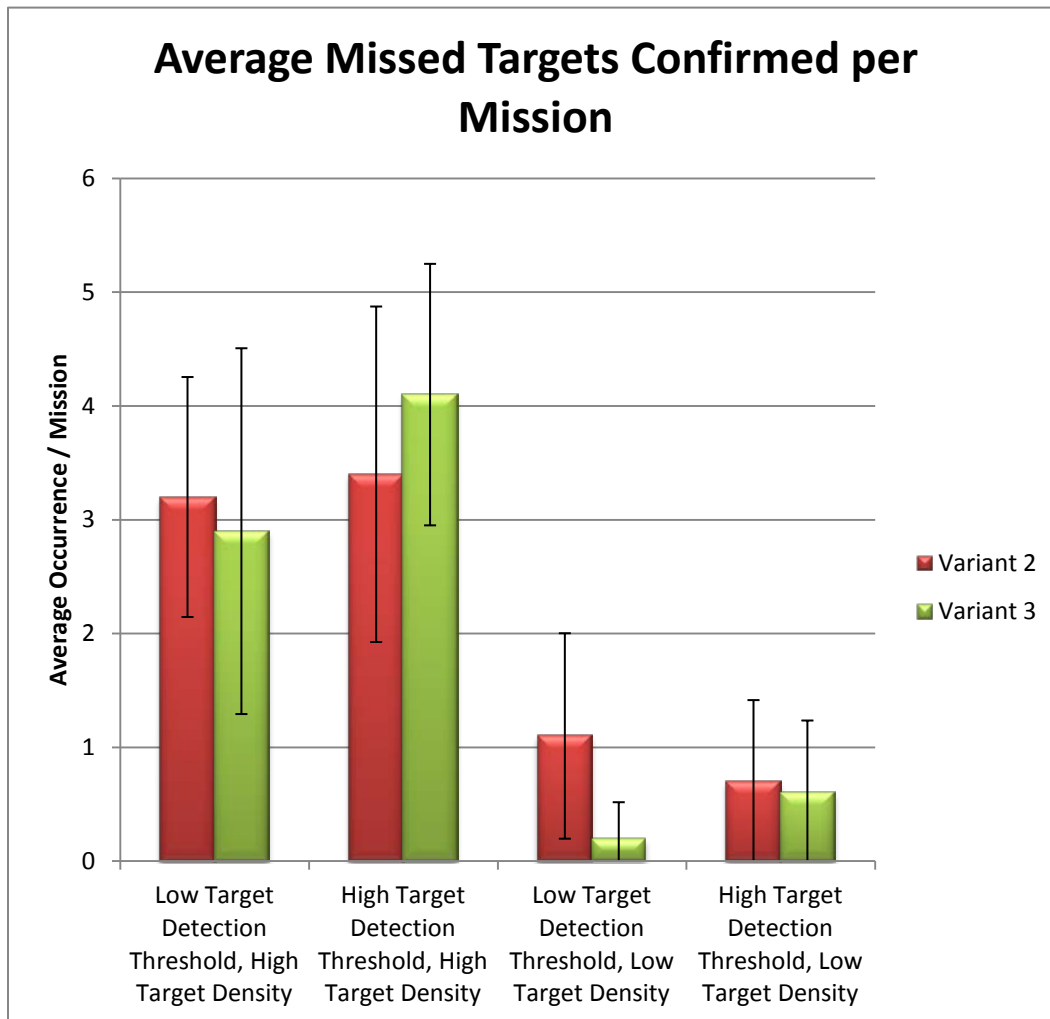


Figure 15: Average Missed Confirmations per Mission

As noted in MOE 3, the system results are of greater interest than the intermediate steps for evaluating system performance. Figure 16 shows the combined results of missed targets for all variants. For Variant 1, this is simply the missed targets from the declaration evaluation. For Variants 2 and 3, this is additive from both the initial declaration evaluation in addition to the targets missed during the confirmation evaluation. This is one of the trade-offs of the confirmation step as it provides another

opportunity to miss or discard valid targets. While none of the results represent a statistically significant difference, it is unexpected to see that the sample mean of Variant 2 is larger than that of Variant 1 for the low target density thresholds, especially given the more accurate confusion matrix used to simulate the GCS confirmation.

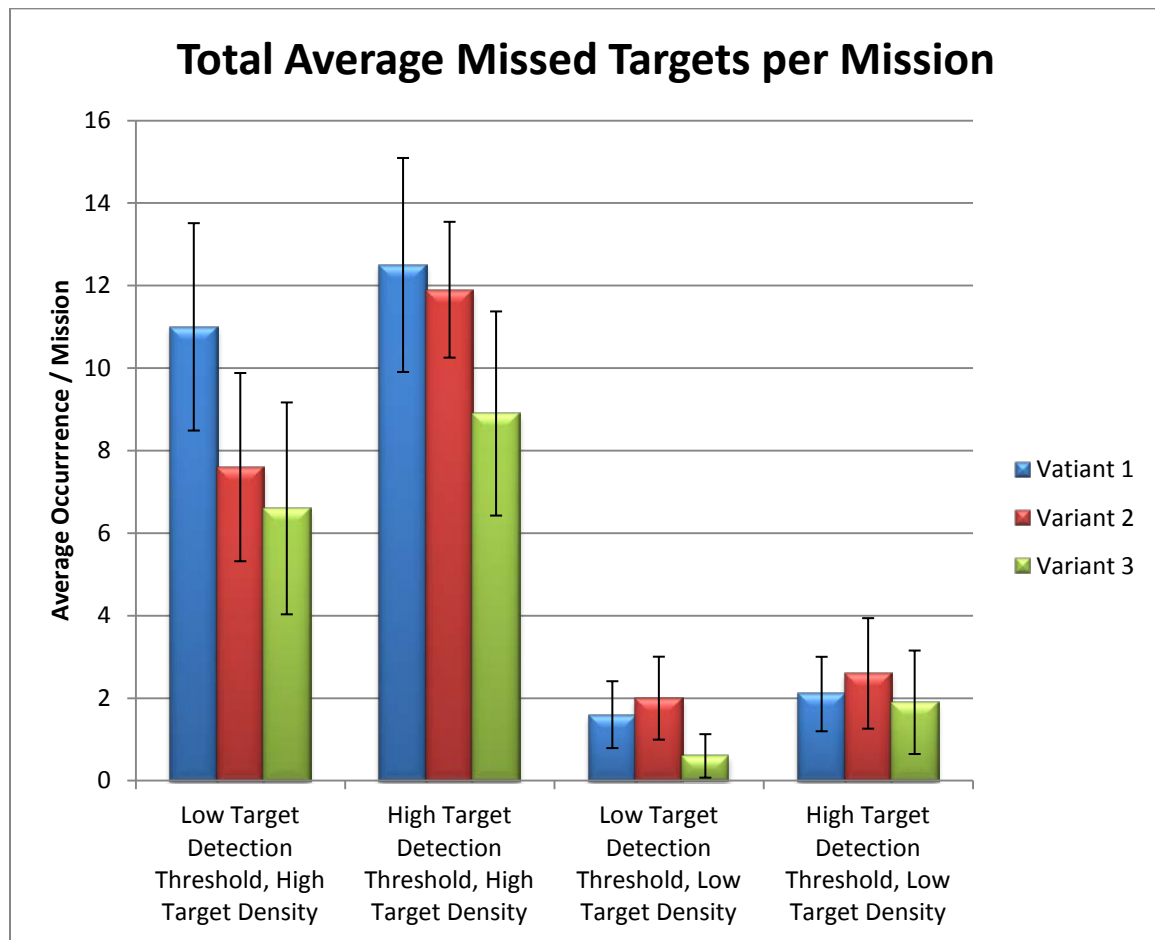


Figure 16: Total Average Missed Targets per Mission

4.5 Other Observations

For Variant 1, object evaluation rates are generally around 85%, which was the selected rate at which obscuration prevents detection of an object. However, Variants' 2 and 3 object evaluation rates trend upward as target density is reduced and target

detection threshold values are increased. Since confirmation steps are only performed on declared targets, a sparse target environment or a higher rejection of false alarms leads to a relative increase in mission time spent on evaluation and thus an increase in evaluation rates.

Figure 17 illustrates that concept in action but also provides trend indications on rates of change. Target detection threshold does not significantly affect evaluation rates in an already dense target population however in both the cases of Variants 2 and 3, it is a significant factor in low target threshold scenarios.

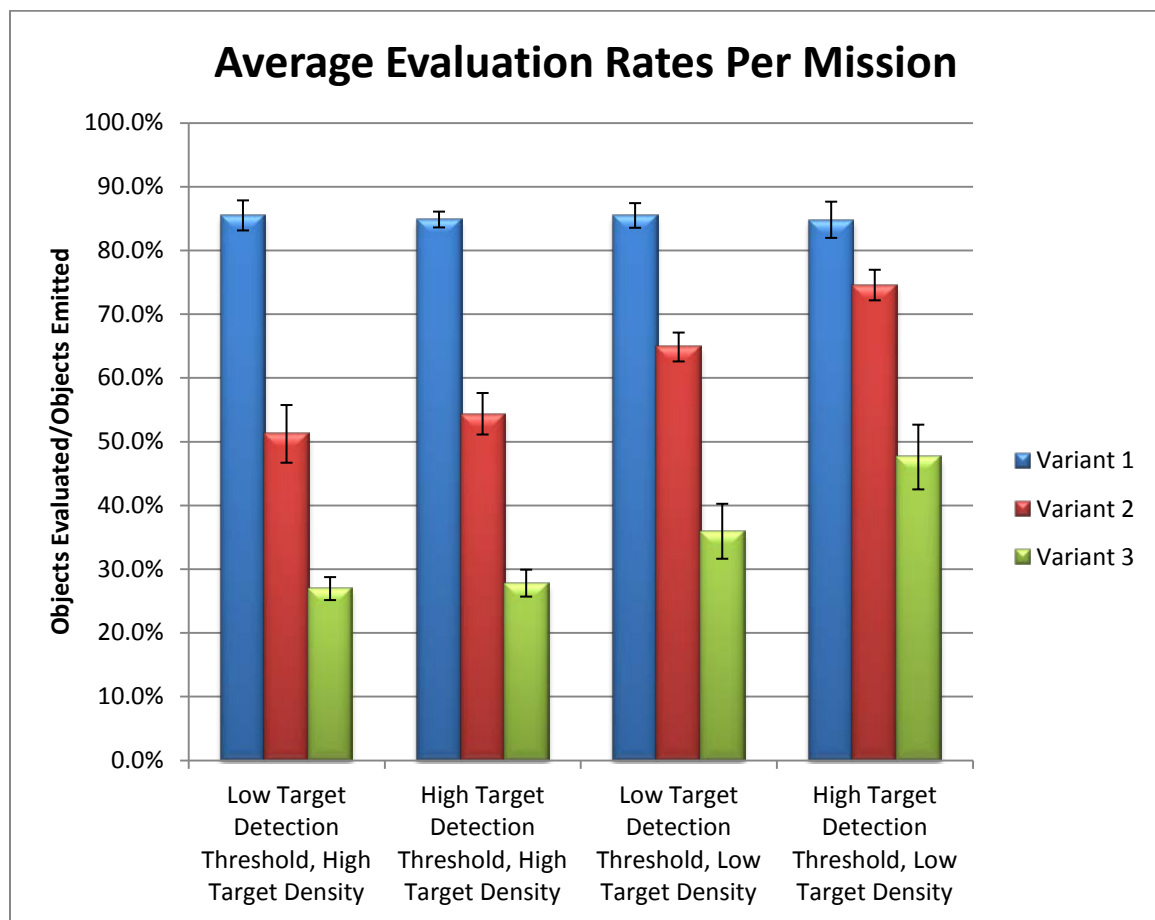


Figure 17: Average Evaluation Rates per Mission

4.6 Results

Based on performance against all MOEs, variants were compared against one another to determine a preferred variant for further development. A summary of results is shown in Table 8. Note, for MOEs 3 and 4, ratings were performed at the system level. The relative scoring repeats itself in each of the high and low target density scenarios with exception of Variant 2, MOE 1 in the low target density, high target detection threshold case. While there are different absolute levels of performance, the relative performance is duplicated for both the high and low target detection threshold. This indicates that, at least in the current model and test cases, target detection threshold does not significantly affect relative performance and perhaps another variable should be selected for future study.

Table 8: Evaluation Results Summary

	High Target Density								Low Target Density							
	High Target Detection Threshold				Low Target Detection Threshold				High Target Detection Threshold				Low Target Detection Threshold			
	MOE 1	MOE 2	MOE 3	MOE 4	MOE 1	MOE 2	MOE 3	MOE 4	MOE 1	MOE 2	MOE 3	MOE 4	MOE 1	MOE 2	MOE 3	MOE 4
V1				-				-				-				-
V2				-				-	-	-		-		-		-
V3				-				-		-		-		-		-
Legend																
	Statistically Significant High Performer															
	Statistically Significant Mid-Range Performer															
	Statistically Significant Low Performer															
	No Data Set															
	-															
	Not Able to Rate Due to No Statistical Difference Found															

In an actual down select process, evaluation criteria need to be rigorously selected along with weighting factors, the process of which is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, assuming all MOEs are equally weighted, the relative results of the executable architecture used for this thesis suggest that Variant 2 is the best overall choice to continue with for further refinement.

5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this thesis was to demonstrate how an executable architecture may be applied to an early concept and use the results to make a decision on how to proceed with system development. The provided mission was an ISR UAS tasked with detecting valid targets. A CONOPs and three partially representative architectures were built in a program capable of performing executable architecture functions. These architectures were simulated and the results analyzed for statistical differences that were used to indicate a preference of variants for further development.

At the onset of this thesis, three questions were posed by the author. Those questions and answers are as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the capability of current architecture modeling tools to execute simulations directly from a system architecture?

As discovered and commented on during the literature review portion of this thesis, there is apparent interest in executable architectures from the broad Systems Engineering Community, but very few integrated software packages capable of producing valid DoDAF products and executing models with sufficient fidelity to be useful for decision making. The tool used in this thesis, Innoslate, appears to be one of the only integrated tools; however the simulation is not currently capable of Monte Carlo simulations nor does the output lend itself well to quantitative analysis.

Research Question 2: What type of information can be provided from use of an executable architecture in support of trade space decisions during early concept development?

The answer to this question is dependent on the fidelity of model and the ability to access the data to determine statistically significant differences in operation. The effort undertaken in this thesis produced a basic model with only four MOEs, three variants and two varied parameters. With only 10 trial runs per test case and variant, the result was a relative difference in performance could be demonstrated at a significant level in many cases. If performance predictions are desired, a more detailed and complete model must be built. Additionally, more trial runs are required along with a rigorous assessment of parameters varied and scenarios to ensure the simulation represents an accurate environment.

Research Question 3: How detailed of an executable model is required to effectively evaluate trade space decisions in early concept modeling?

As demonstrated in chapter 4, the model created for this thesis was sufficient to indicate a preferred solution based on the information entered into the architecture model. A basic yet representative model was created in a commercial modeling program and provided sound data output based on the conditions and the inputs. Moreover, through data analysis, the limiting factors of the modeled system become apparent. For instance, Variant 3 appears to be an efficient solution on paper. The model consistently demonstrated poor performance compared to the competing variants; however, the data indicated that transit times

were severely lowering available time to perform new object evaluations.

Conversely, Variant 1 had relatively high evaluation efficiency but suffered from higher system level false alarms. When deciding how to proceed, consideration should be given to the cost, schedule and performance risk of a faster Variant 3 UAS, thereby reducing transit time; a more accurate Variant 2 sensor, reducing false alarms and missed targets or a change in CONOPS for one or both variants.

5.1 Recommendations for Future Research

5.1.1 Larger SoS Development

Recommend that future work expand SoS modeling to include heterogeneous vehicles and a larger quantity of systems such that effects of emerging behavior may be modeled and studied. An addition of a larger task set and additional logic in the system would help model a more realistic environment and is more representative of a state of the art system.

5.1.2 Improve Existing Simulation Assumptions

Model object signature emissions in a spatial distribution rather than the arrival rate method used in this thesis. This will require significant advancements in the existing executable architecture programs but will provide a more realistic scenario.

5.1.3 Include More External Factors

External costs weren't explicitly considered in this thesis. For instance, from a UAS MOE perspective, Variant 2 appeared to be the highest performer however in practice, it

will require significantly more bandwidth and additional analyst personnel that were not considered in the selection process.

Appendix A: CONOPS

Document Overview

This document describes a concept of operations (CONOPS) for a fictitious small unmanned aerial system (UAS).

Intended Users

This document is intended for stakeholders and reviewers in the architecture development process for the system under design.

Document Organization

- Section 1 describes the document format and intended users.
- Section 2 describes the purpose of the UAS system, functional requirements, stakeholders, and their relationships.
- Section 3 provides a physical description of the UAS.
- Section 4 describes and operational description of the UAS.
- Section 5 provides an acronym list

System Introduction

This section will describe the purpose of the UAS system, functional requirements, stakeholders, and their relationships.

System Purpose

The Combatant Commander (COCOM), with responsibility over a given area, has a requirement to discover, to the maximum practical extent, all valid targets for the

purposes of further surveillance and/or subsequent engagement and is in need of a system to help meet this requirement. Therefore, the purpose of this UAS system is to detect objects in a given mission area and determine if those objects are valid targets to the greatest extent possible. The target location and validation information will be used by the COCOM to cue additional platforms for long term surveillance and/or engagement.

Functional Requirements

This section describes some of the tasks the system must perform from a functional perspective to achieve mission success.

Target Detection

The system must be able to accurately detect targets in a varied and unpredictable physical environment.

Communications

The system must transfer sufficient quantities of information to a ground control station (GCS) or other assets to identify target location and in some cases, raw data for confirmatory analysis.

Mobility

The system must move freely throughout the area of interest in order to detect the maximum possible number of valid targets and in the case of Variant 3, provide target confirmation.

Duration

The system must provide sufficient on-station duration capabilities to complete the system's ISR mission and in some cases, allow confirmatory assessments of the target and to increase overall mission efficiency.

Geo-location accuracy

The system must track field of view location for accurate record of target location and to prevent excessive overlap of data collection throughout the mission.

Launch and Recovery

The system must navigate to and from the mission area to ensure system re-use.

Stakeholders

Intelligence Community

Data from this UAS will be used for Intelligence Preparation of the Battlespace (IPB). Information from the platform must be timely and accurate. Data from the UAS must be provided in a common, recognizable format. Data from the UAS degrades with time and must be provided as soon as possible to be of the greatest value.

Other ISR Platforms

Other sources may be used for target confirmation. The location of the target must be accurate to ensure confirmatory information is valid.

Airborne Strike Operators and Ground Forces

The UAS must provide accurate target information and not interfere with any engagement techniques.

Acquisition Corps

A method of system performance feedback must be enabled. This information will help further system improvements and updates affect increased performance and reliability.

System Physical Description

The system will consist of 3 major components: Ground Control Station, data link, and the air vehicle.

Ground Control Station (GCS)

This component of the system is tactical in nature and therefore must be mobile throughout an area of operations. The GCS contains a networked data storage server in addition to analyst and mission planning terminals. It has a self-contained HVAC system and inputs for generator or commercial power. The system also has connections for external network access.

Data link

This component of the system is consists of a ground based transmitter/receiver dish, airborne transmitter/receiver dish and interface, communications processing server

and all associated connections to the GCS. The transmitter/receiver dishes are capable of being trailer mounted or mounted on the ground near the trailer within close proximity.

Air Vehicle

This component of the system consists of a small conventional design air vehicle. The vehicle houses navigation, propulsion, sensor, and communications systems. The navigation system consists of a GPS sensor, inertial navigation system, mission storage components, and interfaces to all other subsystems. The propulsion system consists of a hydrocarbon fueled engine, integrated fuel storage, control system and interface to the navigation system. The sensor system consists of the physical sensor, autonomous target recognition hardware, storage system for the target library and interface to the navigation system. The communications system is the airborne portion of the data link described previously.

System Operational Description

This section will provide a chronological description of system operations and requirements for a typical mission. The total flight durations are a set, standard length.

Logistics

The system will be deployed, likely to remote locations by cargo aircraft and/or ground transportation. Multiple systems may be deployed in the same location and use the same logistics resources. A spares package will be part of the standard deployment along with technicians trained to perform pre-flight checks, uploading of mission plans

and troubleshoot and repair all foreseeable issues. Fuel is also to be located at the deployed environment and refueling operations must be performed prior to the commencement of all missions.

Launch and Ingress

Following successful preparations for flight, the engine is started and the vehicle prepared for launch and ingress to the mission area. The system is highly automated so once the ground control station communicates a proceed command, the air vehicle launches, reaching the pre-programmed operational envelope and proceeds to the mission area.

Mission Operations

This section will describe standard mission operations for several architecture variants under consideration.

Variant 1

This variant of the system operates in an autonomous, independent mode. The system searches for objects using the onboard sensor. Once the sensor identifies an object, the collected data are run through an autonomous target recognition (ATR) system. The ATR system processes the data and determines a level of object match to an existing set of target data. When the matching coefficient is higher than the threshold value, the coefficient information is then transferred to the ground station for further action by external entities or stored for later use. At no time under this scenario is the target confirmed by another source or human analyst.

Variant 2

This variant of the system operates in an autonomous mode with human analyst confirmation. The system searches for objects using the onboard sensor. Once the sensor identifies an object, the collected data are run through an ATR system. The ATR system processes the data and determines a level of object match to an existing set of target data. When the matching coefficient is higher than the threshold value, the coefficient information, and native sensor data is transferred to the ground station where the data is analyzed for confirmation by a human analyst.

Variant 3

This variant of the system operates in an autonomous, cooperative mode. The system searches for objects using the onboard sensor. Once the sensor identifies an object, the collected data are run through an ATR system. The ATR system processes the data and determines a level of object match to an existing set of target data. When the matching coefficient is higher than the threshold value, a request with current location is then transferred to the nearest cooperative UAS for confirmation. During the time when the secondary UAS is en route, the primary UAS will continue to track the object. Upon arrival the secondary UAS observes the object and determines an independent target coefficient. If the object is determined to be a target, relevant coefficients and locations are transmitted to the GCS. Upon transfer completion, the primary UAS resumes search and the secondary UAS returns to its previous search pattern to proceed to search. If the primary UAS requests another confirmation during transit, the secondary UAS has the ability to quit transit and return to assist the primary UAS.

Egress and Recovery

Once time or fuel for mission operations has expired, all UAS will exit the area of interest and autonomously navigate to the launch site for recovery. After landing is accomplished, any recorded data will be downloaded and stored for future reference. Completion of this step finishes the UAS mission.

Appendix B: AV-1

Architectural Description Identification

The architecture under design is the Small Intelligence Surveillance and Reconnaissance (ISR) Unmanned Aerial System (UAS). The primary purpose of this system is to support a tactical mission of identifying and providing cueing information for further tracking or engagement of targets of interest. The system under development is fictitious but intended to represent a SoS of up to two realistic small UAS that may be deployed as cooperative or independent systems with varying Ground Control Station (GCS) reach back capabilities.

This architecture framework will focus on designating parameters of interest to model future UAS. This framework will be used to represent development decisions in order to weigh “-ilities” versus cost. The goal is to achieve a high level of system flexibility, adaptability, and/or robustness while maintaining a predictable life cycle cost and efficient use of tax payer money.

The architecture is being developed as a thesis project for the Air Force Institute of Technology (AFIT) in order to demonstrate the use of executable architectures (EA) in early trade space decision analysis. The architect is Maj Ryan Pospisal, under advisement and approval of Dr. David Jacques, AFIT faculty. The expected completion date is December 2015. The anticipated level of effort is 150-200 man-hours.

Assumptions and constraints are as follows:

- A commercial tool currently exists, and is accessible to the author, to document a subset of a DoDAF V2.0 compliant system architecture and includes an executable modeling capability to meet the fidelity requirements for this thesis.
- Technologies of the representative system are currently attainable or at a level where it is reasonable that they will be mature enough for implementation by 2025.
- Vulnerabilities to attack, in the physical and cyber domains, are not explicitly considered or modeled.
- The architecture will be limited in scope due to time constraints and the fictitious nature of the system.

Scope

The architecture will consist of three distinct variants of the UAS and focus primarily on identification and development of the operational functionality of the system. Current or near future technologies are under consideration with an expected 5-10 year horizon.

The architecture development process will closely follow the methods presented by Dietrichs, et al. that the authors named the Architecture Based Evaluation Process (ABEP) (Dietrichs et al., 2006). This architecture will focus on the operational aspects of the system and thus will have limited or no detail on internal system and sub-system interactions. As such, the preponderance of architecture views will be operational in nature.

The views created will be limited to those necessary for completing the primary goals of the project and as such, views will be added, removed, and/or refined as needed

to document the necessary system parameters under examination. This architecture will provide a high-level parametric model, sufficiently detailed to complete early trade space analysis. Below is a list of anticipated DoDAF viewpoints required for this architecture, their titles and rationale for their inclusion:

AV-1: Overview and Summary Information

This view is useful for providing an executive level summary of the architecture.

OV-1: High Level Operational Concept Graphic

The OV-1 provides a linkage between physical assets that interact with the system under development. It provides an abstract depiction of the primary mission activity.

This view provides the reader with an introduction to the CONOP.

OV-2: Operational Resource Flow Description

The OV-2 provides a diagram to show the exchange of resources such as information, personnel, material, or funding. The OV-2 isn't intended to show communication links, however in the case of this architecture, the exchange of information will mimic a communication link.

OV-5b: Operational Activity Model

The OV-5b shows all the high-level activities and chronological linkages between them. The OV-5b will be the core of this architecture as it lends itself well to simulation and thus reinforce the concept of an executable architecture.

OV-6a: Operational Rules Model

The OV-6a provides rules in a structured English format. These rules form the basis for how the OV-5b is executed and various decision paths are taken.

Purpose and Perspective

The purpose for this architecture is to produce three system variants and parametrically model key characteristics of the platforms and their interactions. Once the variant models are created, they will be formalized to a sufficient level to provide direct simulation, in the form of an executable architecture. Selected model input parameters will be varied during the simulations of the resulting EA and the outputs documented over the course of several iterations of the architecture. Mission specific Measures of Effectiveness (MOEs) will be developed and used to evaluate the system variants for selection of the most successful design.

Context

The primary activities of the UAS are launch, perform ingress to the mission area, perform the ISR mission, egress out of the mission area, and recover to the launch area. The goals of the CISR platform are to identify and track targets of interest. It will perform the identification with use of an on-board sensor and Autonomous Target Recognition (ATR) software. The specifics of sensor type, capabilities, and operation of the ATR are beyond the scope of this architecture however they will be represented in the simulation as a uniform random variable processed through a confusion matrix.

Use cases will be developed along with a Concept of Operations (CONOPs) to assist with generation of the architecture framework. The completed architectures will

executed in an architecting software program such as Innoslate to determine parameters showing greatest impact on “-ilities” of interest. All scenarios and technologies described in the development of this architecture are either generic or fictitious but are intended to represent a reasonable application to a UAS ISR mission.

The variants were chosen to provide representative architecture differences to perform the basic mission of identifying targets and their locations. The intent is that these differences will produce varied outcomes when executed and facilitate system design and effective CONOP creation early in a systems' development. Basic descriptions of the variants are listed as follows:

Variant 1: Automated Independent

This variant of the UAS is an independent system that identifies targets, returns a matching coefficient and location to the ground control station, and immediately continues searching for more targets.

Variant 2: Ground Station Assisted

Variant 3 operates similarly to Variant 2, with the exception of confirmation via a ground control station rather than a cooperative UAS. Confirmation by the ground station is performed via analysis of sensor data collected by the UAS, sent via a communications data link. Once object data is collected, the system continues to track the object until confirmation of a valid target is confirmed by the ground station, preventing stacking of data sets in the UAS communications cache.

Variant 3: Automated Cooperative

This variant searches as described in Variant 1, but upon discovery of a target, calls a cooperative system to confirm the target as valid. While awaiting arrival of the cooperative UAS, the primary target continues to "track" the object. Upon target confirmation, the target description, matching coefficient, and location data are returned to the ground control station. Both UAS then resume searching for new targets in their respective original mission areas.

Status

All planned architecture views are complete and capable of being executed within the Innoslate program.

Tools and File Formats

All written documentation is Microsoft Office compatible. The architecture and executable portions are based in Innoslate and the model is exportable to an Innoslate XML file.

Appendix C: OV-1: High level Operational Concept Graphic

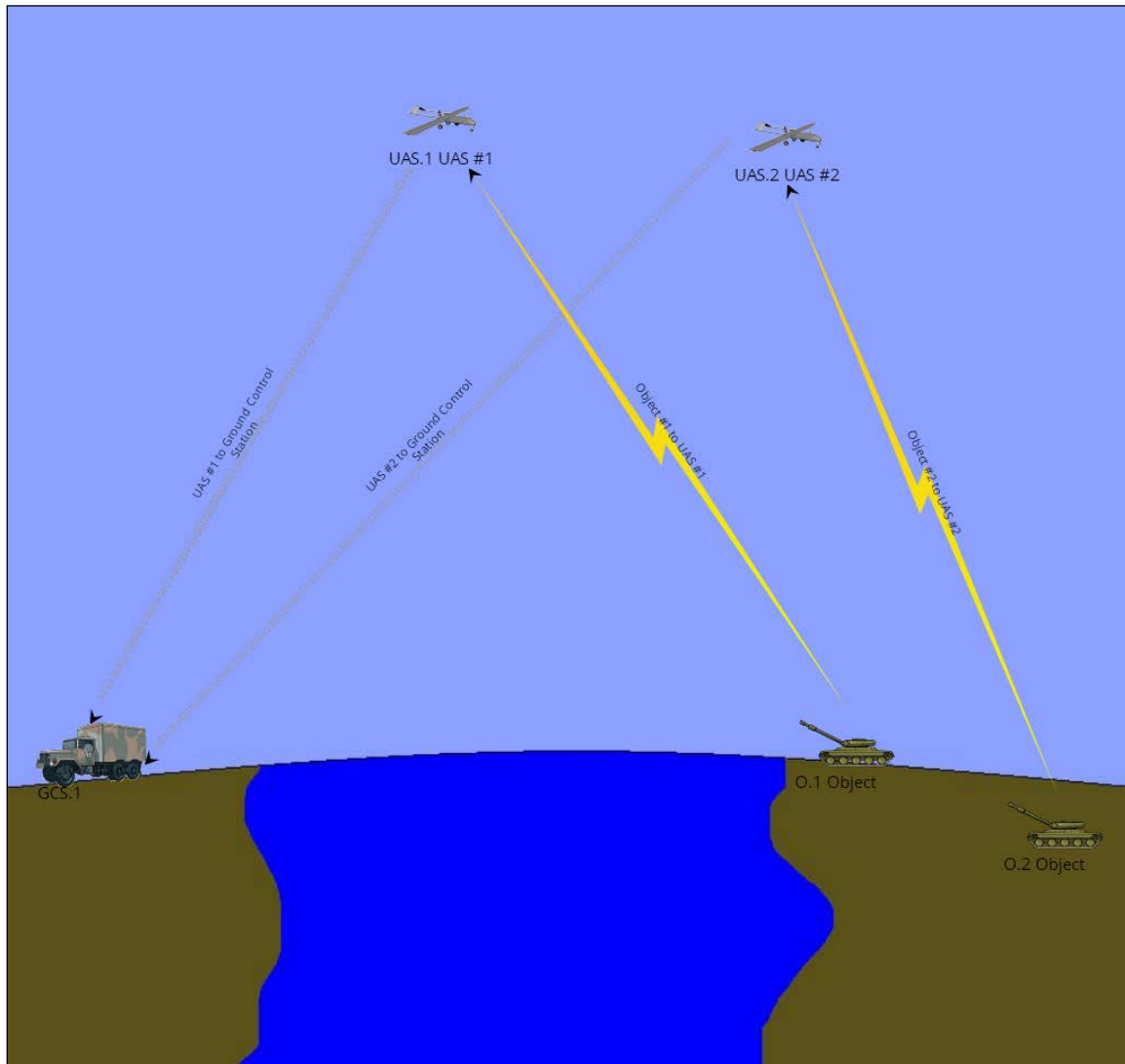
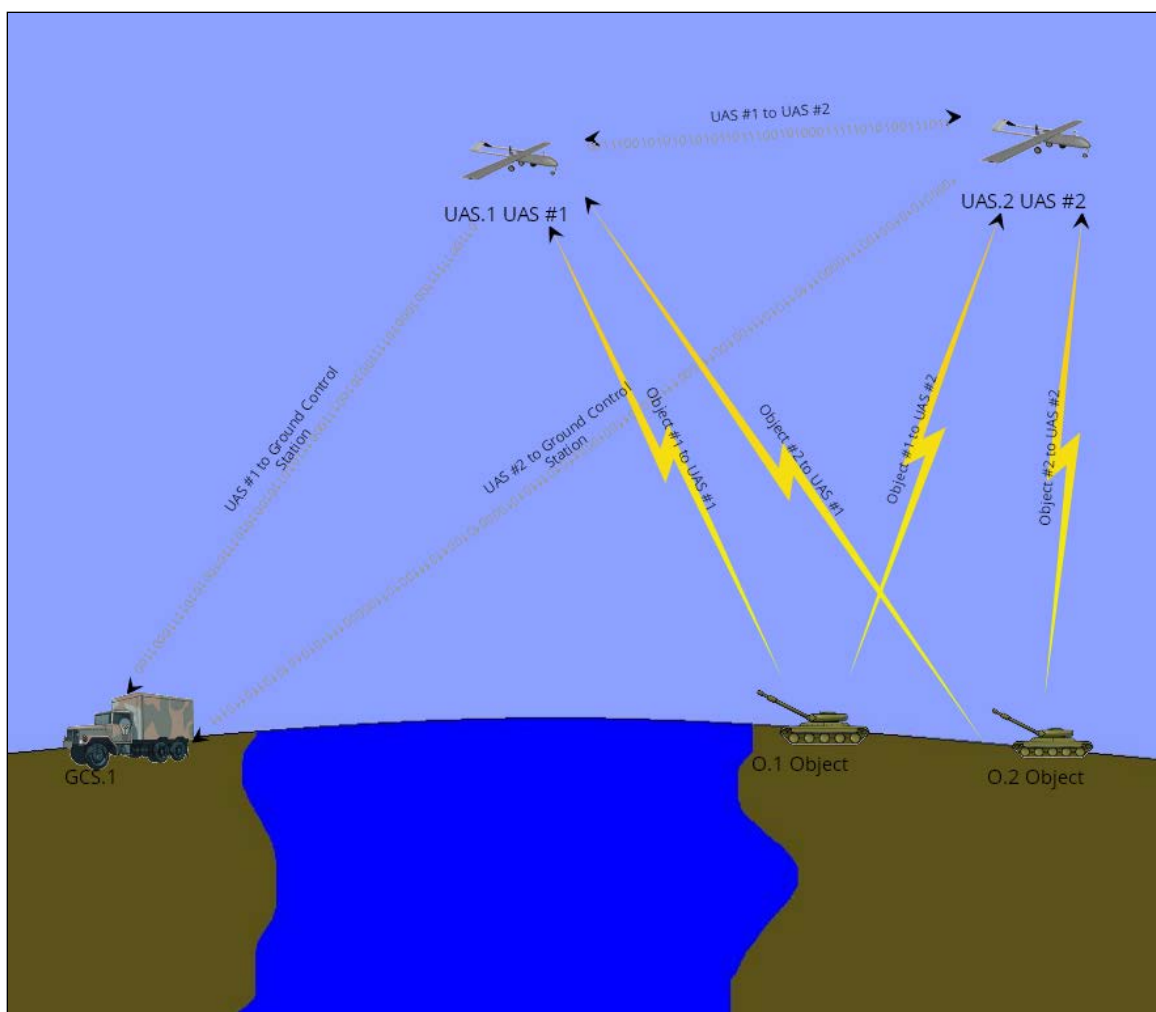


Figure 18: Variant 1 and Variant 2 OV-1



Appendix D: OV-2: Operational Resource Flow Description

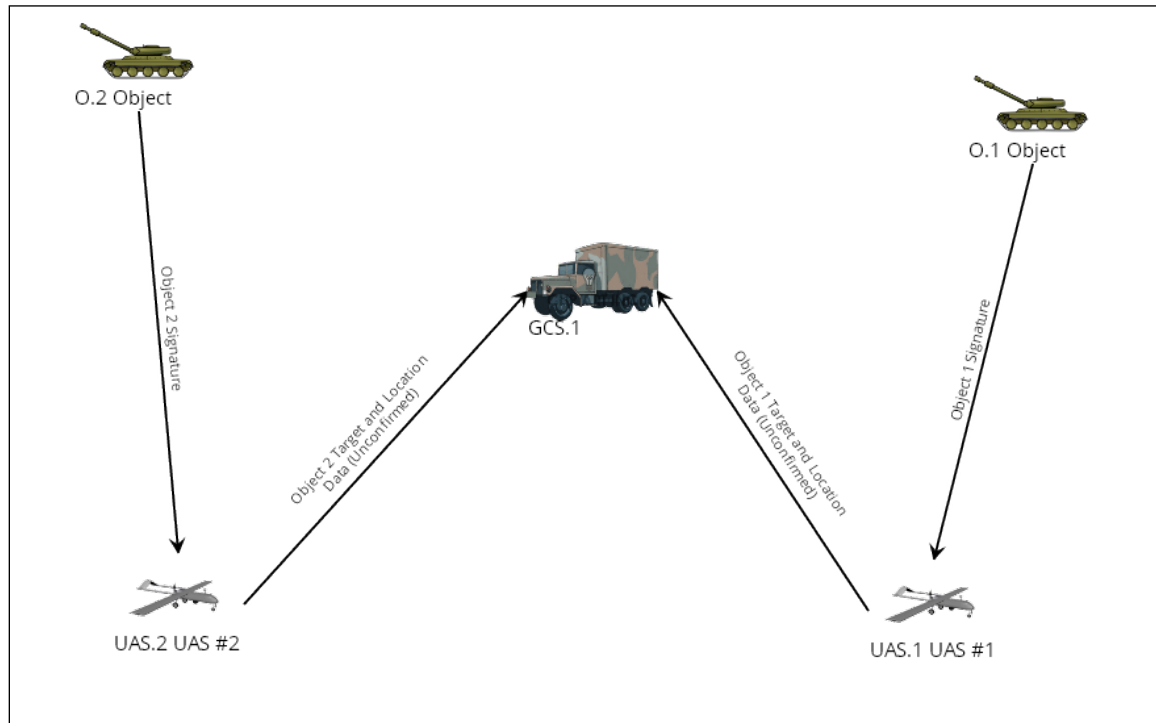


Figure 20: Variant 1 OV-2

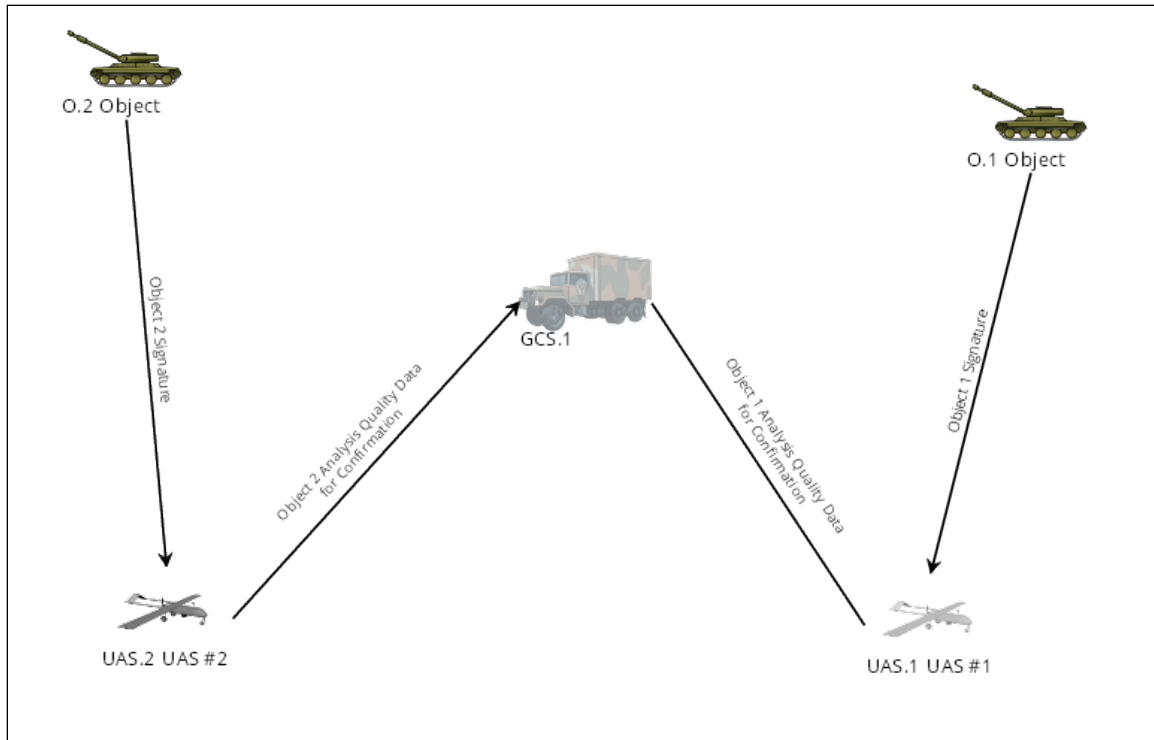


Figure 21: Variant 2 OV-2

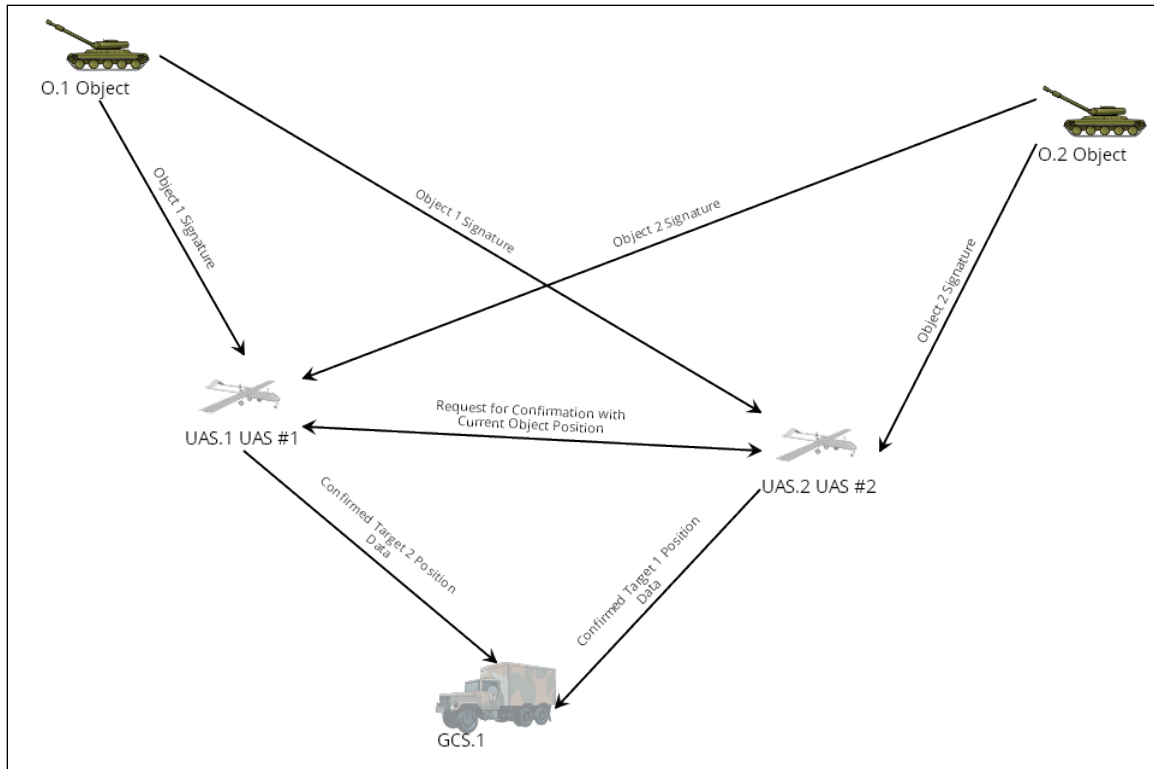


Figure 22: Variant 3 OV-2

Appendix E: OV-5b: Operational Activity Model

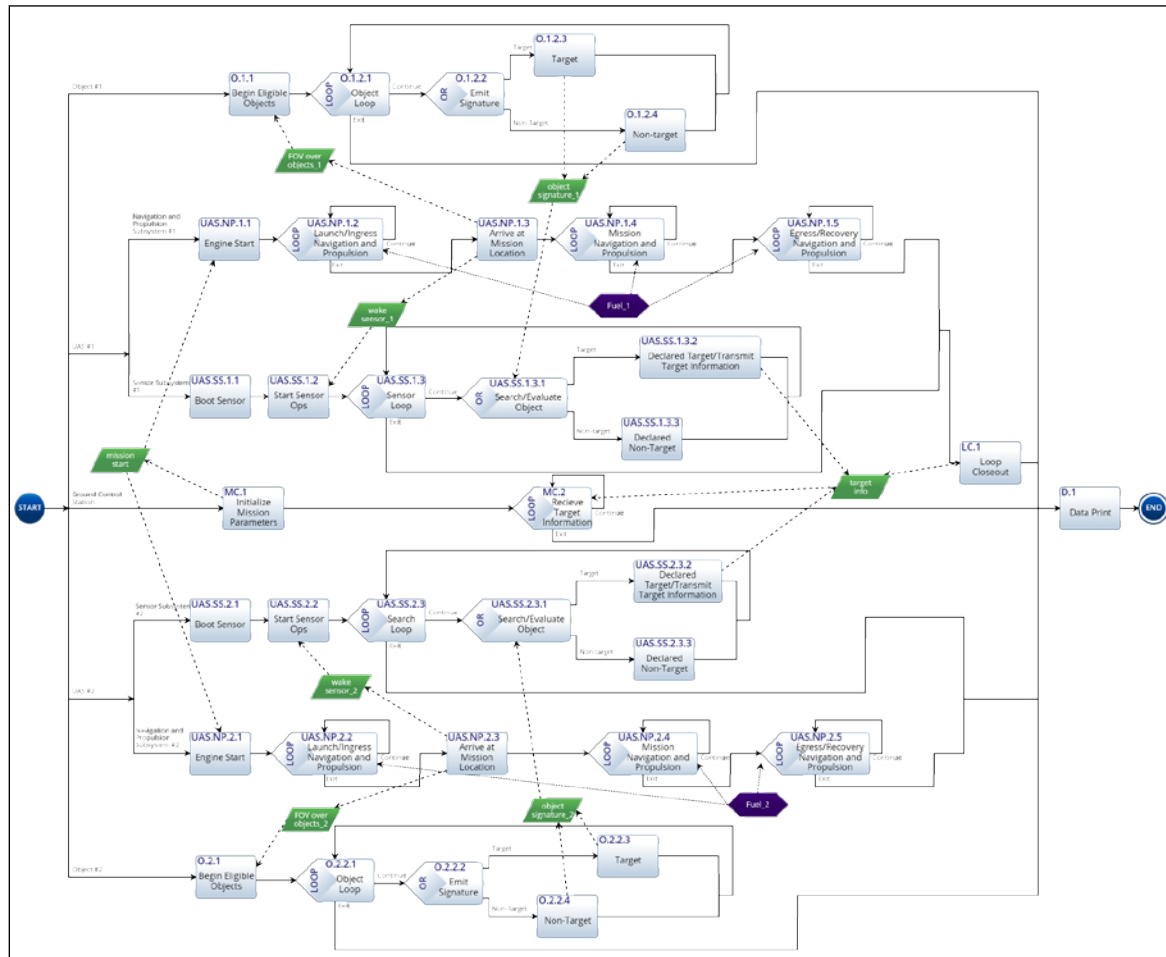


Figure 23: Variant 1 OV-5b

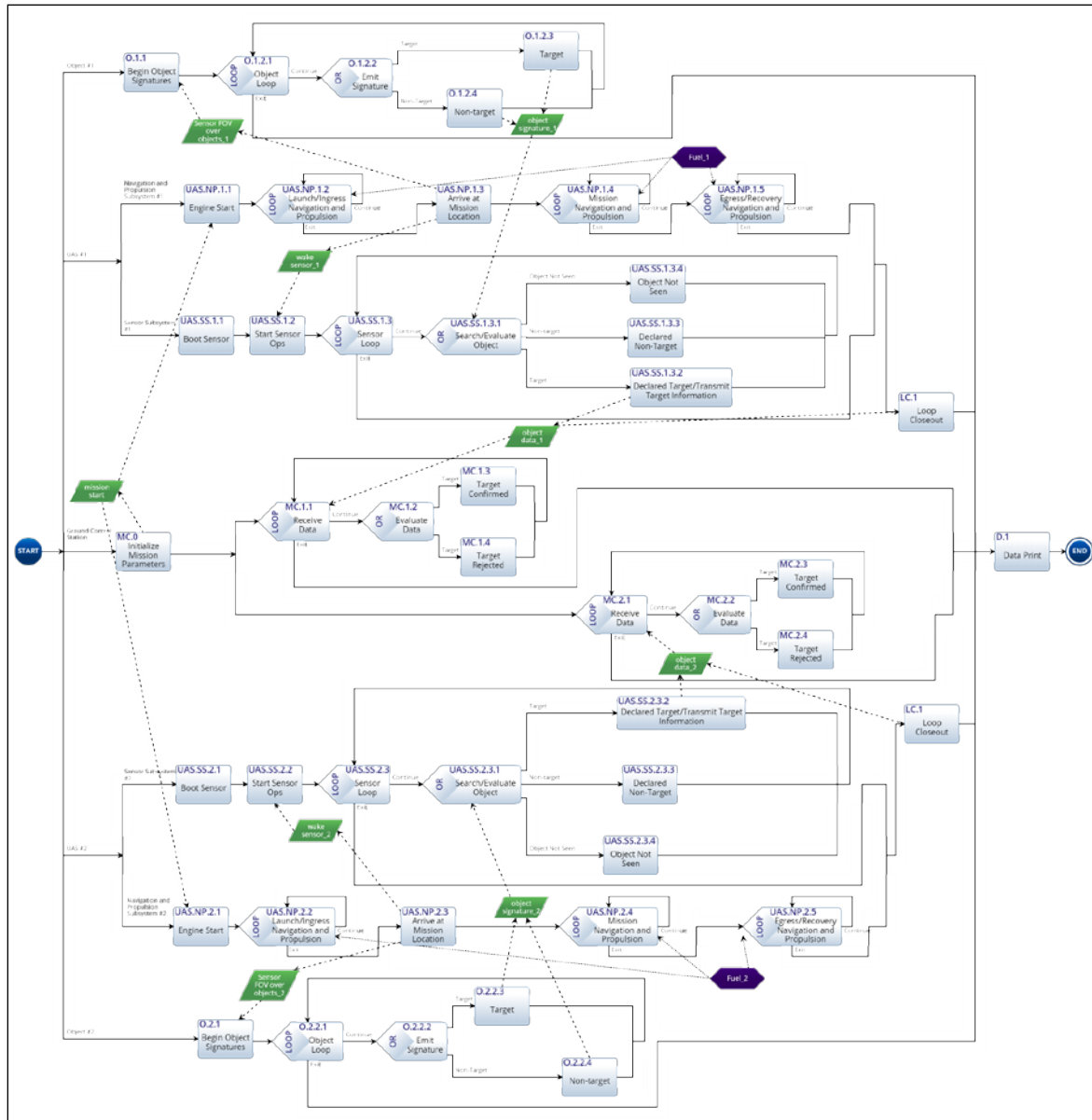
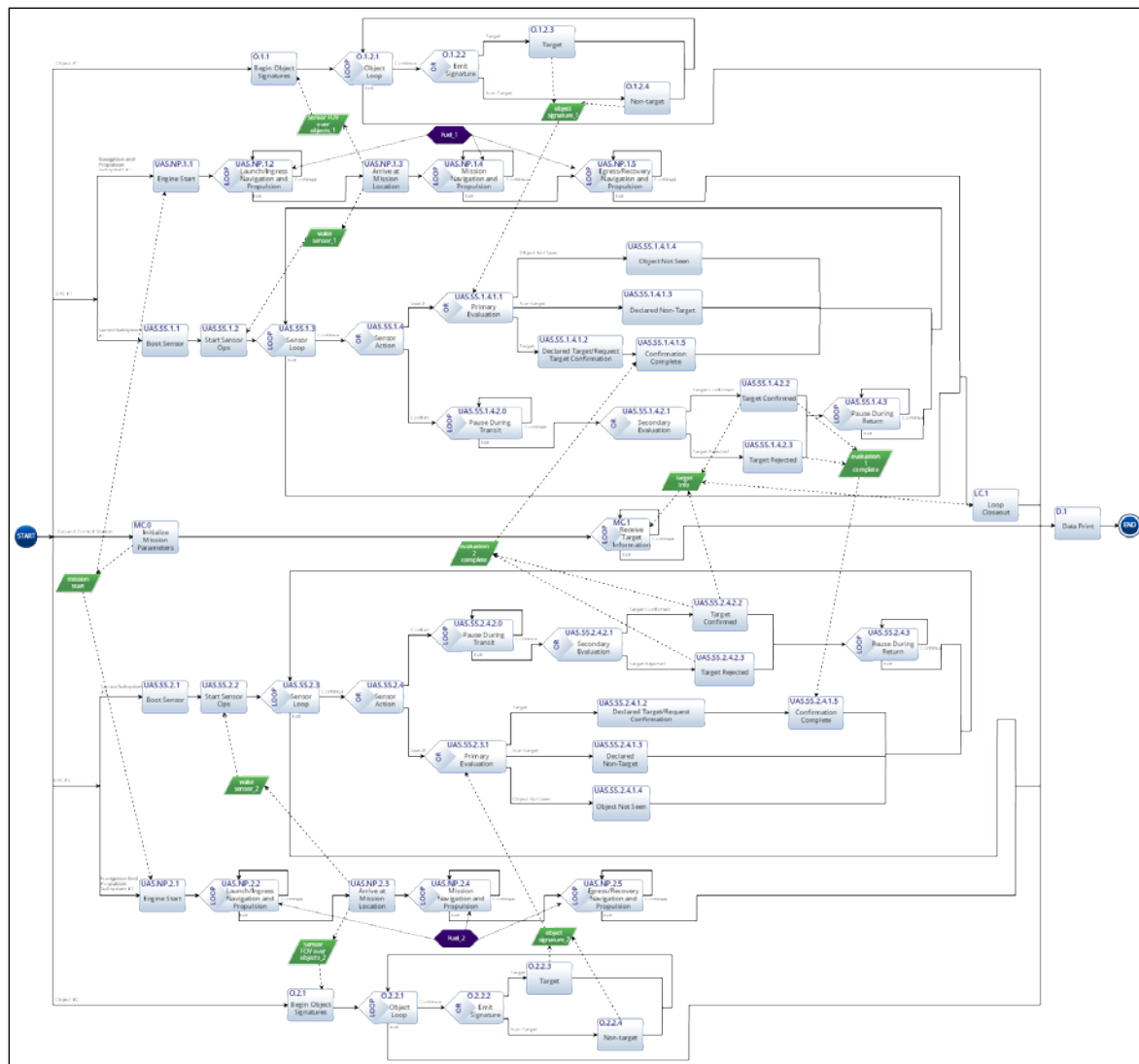


Figure 24: Variant 2 OV-5b



Appendix F: OV-6a: Operational Rules Model

Due to the similarities of the systems, this OV-6a is divided into four sections: Common Behavior, Variant 1 Specific Rules, Variant 2 Specific Rules; Variant 3 Specific Rules. Additionally, this architecture is built around a homogeneous two-ship scenario thus to reduce duplication, only one system is described.

Common Behavior

Assumptions:

Fuel is burned at a steady rate such that duration can be equivocated to amount of fuel used or required.

Mission plans are loaded prior to UAS launch and all navigation is autonomous.

Imperative Rules

Monitor Fuel Level

Fuel required to return from the assigned mission space to the base shall be approximated by the amount used to ingress to the mission space. The fuel level available shall be checked routinely and automatically throughout the mission.

Initialize Mission Parameters

Load mission plans and for purposes of the simulation, sets input parameters and establishes required variables.

Emits trigger for **mission start**

Engine Start

Receives **mission start trigger** to simulate beginning of the propulsion and navigation subsystem.

Boot Sensor

Represents time required for internal sensor checks and when complete, places sensor in a low power mode until operations is required

Arrive at Mission Location

After completion of **Launch and Ingress Propulsion**, activates **wake sensor trigger**

Start Sensor Ops

Upon receipt of **wake sensor trigger**, begins sensor operations

Conditional Rules

Launch and Ingress Propulsion

Known: Initial fuel amount, fuel required for launch and mission

If fuel remaining is greater than initial amount minus amount required for recovery and mission operations,
then continue **Launch and Ingress Propulsion**.

Else begin **Mission Propulsion**

Mission Propulsion

Known: Fuel required for mission and recovery operations

If fuel remaining is greater than fuel required for recovery,
then continue **Mission Propulsion**

else begin **Egress and Recovery Propulsion**

Egress and Recovery Propulsion

Known: Fuel required for recovery operations

If fuel available is greater than zero,

then continue **Recovery Propulsion**
else **End**

Variant 1 Specific Rules

Sensor Loop

If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue to **Search and Evaluate Objects**
else **End**

Search and Evaluate Objects

Wait for object signature trigger and evaluate object
If object is declared a target,
then activate **target information trigger** and transmit basic target information to
Ground Control Station
else return to **Sensor Loop**

Receive Target Information

Wait for **target information trigger**
If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue **Receive Target Information**
else **End**

Variant 2 Specific Rules

Conditional Rules

Sensor Loop

If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue to **Search and Evaluate Objects**
else **End**

Search and Evaluate Objects

Wait for object signature trigger and evaluate object
If object is declared a target,
then activate **object data trigger** and transmit detailed object information to
Ground Control Station
else return to **Sensor Loop**

Receive Data

Wait for **target information trigger**
If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue **Evaluate Data**
else **End**

Evaluate Data

If data evaluation determines object is a target,
then confirm target and return to **Receive Data**
else reject target and return to **Receive Data**

Variant 3 Specific Rules

Search Loop

If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue to **Sensor Mode**

else **End**

Sensor Mode

If sensor confirmation request is true
then continue to **Secondary Evaluation**
else continue to **Primary Evaluation**

Primary Evaluation

If evaluation results in a target declaration,
then proceed to **Declared Target/Request Target Confirmation**
else declare non target and return to **Sensor Loop**

Declared Target/Request Target Confirmation

Send location information to cooperative UAS and continue to **Confirmation Complete**

Confirmation Complete

Await **evaluation complete trigger** and return to **Sensor Loop**

Secondary Evaluation

If evaluation results in target declaration,
then activate **target information trigger** and **evaluation complete trigger**
else activate **evaluation complete trigger**
return to **Sensor Loop**

Receive Target Information

Wait for **target information trigger**
If recovery propulsion is not active,
then continue **Receive Target Information**

else **End**

Appendix G: Example JavaScript

This appendix contains JavaScript used for one half of the Variant 3 OV-5b. Duplicating the below code and updating variable numbers allows recreation of the entire SoS. Many activities did not contain additional formalization through JavaScript and thus were omitted in the table below.

Table 9: Variant 3 JavaScript Summary

Activity	JavaScript
O.1.2	<pre>function onEnd() { // loops until recovery if((globals.get("missionstatus_1")) == "recovery") { return false; } else { return true; } }</pre>
O.1.2.2	<pre>function onEnd() { var totalobjectcount = globals.get("totalobjects_1"); totalobjectcount++; globals.put("totalobjects_1",totalobjectcount); var emit_signature_1 = Math.random(); //Determines if object is target or nontarget if (emit_signature_1 < (globals.get("target_percentage"))) { var localtargetcount=globals.get("totaltargets_1"); localtargetcount++; globals.put("totaltargets_1",localtargetcount); globals.put("signature_1","target"); return "Target"; } else { var localobjectcount=globals.get("totalnontargets_1");</pre>

	<pre> localobjectcount++; globals.put("totalnontargets_1",localobjectcount); globals.put("signature_1","nontarget"); return "Non-Target"; } } </pre>
UAS.NP.1.2	<pre> function onStart() { //Sets mission status to launch globals.put("missionstatus_1", "launch"); //Establish Fuel variable and record initial amount var fuel = resource.get('Fuel_1')[0]; var InitialFuel = fuel.getAmount(); globals.put("initialfuel_1",InitialFuel); } function onEnd() { var fuel = resource.get('Fuel_1')[0]; var initial = globals.get("initialfuel_1"); var launch = globals.get("launchfuel_1"); //when fuel is greater than initial-launchfuel, continue looping if(fuel.getAmount() > (initial - launch)) { return true; } //Updates mission status upon exit globals.put("missionstatus_1", "mission"); return false; } </pre>
UAS.NP.1.3	<pre> function onStart() { globals.put("missionstatus_1", "mission"); } </pre>
UAS.NP.1.4	<pre> function onEnd() { //sets fuel quantity var fuel = resource.get('Fuel_1')[0]; //retrieves fuel used during launch, which approximates amount required for recovery var required = globals.get("launchfuel_1"); </pre>

	<pre> // compares fuel remaining to fuel needed for recovery if(fuel.getAmount()>required) { //globals.put("missionstatus_1", "mission"); return true; } else { //outputs usage stats //print ('Remaining after mission ' + fuel.getAmount()); globals.put("missionstatus_1", "recovery"); return false; } } </pre>
UAS.NP.1.5	<pre> function onStart() { globals.put("missionstatus_1", "recovery"); } function onEnd() { var fuel = resource.get('Fuel_1')[0]; if(fuel.getAmount()>0) { return true; } else { //print('Fuel remaining at mission complete: ' + fuel.getAmount()); return false; } } </pre>
UAS.SS.1.3	<pre> function onEnd() { // only loops while navigation is in misson mode if((globals.get("missionstatus_1")) == "recovery") { return false; } else { return true; } } </pre>

	<pre> } } </pre>
UAS.SS.1.4	<pre> function onEnd() { if (globals.get("uas_2_confirmation_request")==true) { return "Confirm"; } else { return "Search"; } } </pre>
UAS.SS.1.4.1.1	<pre> function onEnd() { //Retrieve object type var signature_type_1 = globals.get("signature_1"); //Aborts if UAS2 is awaiting confirmation if (globals.get("uas_2_confirmation_request")==true) { if (signature_type_1 == "target") { var missedtarget_pri_1 = globals.get("missedtarget_1"); missedtarget_pri_1++; globals.put("missedtarget_1", missedtarget_pri_1); } else { var missedobject_pri_1 = globals.get("missedobject_1"); missedobject_pri_1++; globals.put("missedobject_1", missedobject_pri_1); } return "Object Not Seen"; } //initializes variable to determine if object is seen by the sensor var objectseen_1 = Math.random(); var detection = globals.get("detection_percentage"); //proceeds if object is "seen" if (objectseen_1 < detection) { //initialize variable for confusion matrix path </pre>

	<pre> var search_confusion_1 = Math.random(); var truepositive = globals.get("truepositive"); var truenegative = globals.get("truenegative"); if(signature_type_1=="target") { if (search_confusion_1 < truepositive) { //counts truepositives var tpcount_pri_1 = globals.get("truepositive_1"); tpcount_pri_1++; globals.put("truepositive_1",tpcount_pri_1); //Stores object type so not over written for human eval globals.put("uaseval_1", signature_type_1); globals.put("uas_1_confirmation_request", "true"); return "Target"; } else { //counts falsenegatives var fncount_pri_1 = globals.get("falsenegative_1"); fncount_pri_1++; globals.put("falsenegative_1",fncount_pri_1); return "Non-target"; } } else { if (search_confusion_1 < truenegative) { //counts truenegatives var tncount_pri_1 = globals.get("truenegative_1"); tncount_pri_1++; globals.put("truenegative_1",tncount_pri_1); return "Non-target"; } else { //counts falsepositives var fpcount_pri_1 = globals.get("falsepositive_1"); fpcount_pri_1++; globals.put("falsepositive_1",fpcount_pri_1); //Stores object type so not over written for human eval </pre>
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	<pre> globals.put("uaseval_1", signature_type_1); globals.put("uas_1_confirmation_request", "true"); return "Target"; } } } else // branch for object not seen by sensor with counter { if (signature_type_1 == "target") { var missedtarget_pri_1 = globals.get("missedtarget_1"); missedtarget_pri_1++; globals.put("missedtarget_1", missedtarget_pri_1); } else { var missedobject_pri_1 = globals.get("missedobject_1"); missedobject_pri_1++; globals.put("missedobject_1", missedobject_pri_1); } return "Object Not Seen"; } } </pre>
UAS.SS.1.4.1.5	<pre> function onEnd() { globals.put("uas_1_confirmation_request", "false"); } </pre>
UAS.1.4.2.0	<pre> function onStart() { if(globals.get("uas_1_follow_up")!="true") { //Calculation of a triangular distribution for transit to confirm //Interval is 30 Seconds (min time = one minute or 2 * 30 seconds) var result; var min = 2; var max = 12; var peak = 4; var p = Math.random(); var q = 1.0 - p; if (p <= (peak - min) / (max - min)) { result = Math.round(min + Math.sqrt((max - min) * (peak - min) * p)); </pre>

	<pre> } else { result = Math.round(max - Math.sqrt((max - min) * (max - peak) * q)); } globals.put("transit_1", result); globals.put("transit_1_save", result); } globals.put("transit_1_count",0); } function onEnd() { var transit_1_req = globals.get("transit_1"); var transit_1_count = globals.get("transit_1_count"); transit_1_count++; globals.put("transit_1_count", transit_1_count); if(transit_1_count >= transit_1_req) { globals.put("transit_1_count",0); globals.put("uas_1_follow_up", "false") return false; } else { return true; } } </pre>
UAS.1.4.2.1	<pre> function onEnd() { //Retrieve object type var eval_type_1 = globals.get("uaseval_2"); //initialize variable for confusion matrix path var eval_confusion_1 = Math.random(); var truepositive = globals.get("truepositive"); var truenegative = globals.get("truenegative"); //Case of Target if(eval_type_1=="target") </pre>

	<pre> { if (eval_confusion_1 < truepositive) { //counts truepositives var tpcount_sec_1 = globals.get("uas_tp_1"); tpcount_sec_1++; globals.put("uas_tp_1",tpcount_sec_1); return "Target Confirmed"; } else { //counts falsenegatives var fncount_sec_1 = globals.get("uas_fn_1"); fncount_sec_1++; globals.put("uas_fn_1",fncount_sec_1); return "Target Rejected"; } } else { if (eval_confusion_1 < truenegative) { //counts truenegatives var tncount_sec_1 = globals.get("uas_tn_1"); tncount_sec_1++; globals.put("uas_tn_1",tncount_sec_1); return "Target Rejected"; } else { //counts falsepositives var fpcount_sec_1 = globals.get("uas_fp_1"); fpcount_sec_1++; globals.put("uas_fp_1",fpcount_sec_1); return "Target Confirmed"; } } } </pre>
UAS.SS.1.4.3	<pre> function onEnd() { var transit_1_req = globals.get("transit_1_save"); var transit_1_count = globals.get("transit_1_count"); </pre>

	<pre> transit_1_count++; globals.put("transit_1_count", transit_1_count); if(globals.get("uas_2_confirmation_request")==true") { globals.put("uas_1_follow_up", "true"); globals.put("transit_1", transit_1_count); return false; } if(transit_1_count >= transit_1_req) { return false; } else { return true; } } </pre>
MC.0	<pre> function onStart() { //intialize global mission status globals.put("missionstatus",0); //initialize launch duration value for UAS //Calculation of a triangular distribution for mission length var result; var min = 1; var max = 15; var peak = 5; var p = Math.random(); var q = 1.0 - p; if (p <= (peak - min) / (max - min)) { result = Math.round(min + Math.sqrt((max - min) * (peak - min) * p)); } else { result = Math.round(max - Math.sqrt((max - min) * (max - peak) * q)); } globals.put("launchfuel_1",result); globals.put("launchfuel_2",result); } </pre>

	<pre> // initialize confusion matrix values //True positive + false negative and false positive + true negative // must equal one globals.put("truepositive",0.75); globals.put("truenegative",0.95); //Establishes counters for object evaluation results globals.put("truepositive_1",0); globals.put("falsepositive_1",0); globals.put("falsenegative_1",0); globals.put("truenegative_1",0); globals.put("truepositive_2",0); globals.put("falsepositive_2",0); globals.put("falsenegative_2",0); globals.put("truenegative_2",0); globals.put("uas_tp_1", 0); globals.put("uas_fp_1", 0); globals.put("uas_fn_1", 0); globals.put("uas_tn_1", 0); globals.put("uas_tp_2", 0); globals.put("uas_fp_2", 0); globals.put("uas_fn_2", 0); globals.put("uas_tn_2", 0); globals.put("missedobject_1", 0); globals.put("missedtarget_1", 0); globals.put("missedobject_2", 0); globals.put("missedtarget_2", 0); globals.put("totalobjects_1",0); globals.put("totaltargets_1",0); globals.put("totalnontargets_1",0); globals.put("totalobjects_2",0); globals.put("totaltargets_2",0); globals.put("totalnontargets_2",0); // Set percentage of objects that are targets globals.put("target_percentage", 1/21); </pre>
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	<pre> // Set percentage of objects that are seen by the sensor globals.put("detection_percentage", 0.85); globals.put("uas_1_confirmation_request", 0); globals.put("uas_2_confirmation_request", 0); } </pre>
MC.1	<pre> function onEnd() { // Mission control loop only exits upon mission status set to // recovery if(globals.get("missionstatus_1") == "recovery" globals.get("missionstatus_2") == "recovery") { return false; } else { return true; } } </pre>
D.1	<pre> function onEnd() { print('1 Total Objects Emitted: ' + globals.get("totalobjects_1")); print('1 Total Targets Emitted: ' + globals.get("totaltargets_1")); print('1 Total Non-Targets Emitted: ' + globals.get("totalnontargets_1")); print('2 Total Objects Emitted: ' + globals.get("totalobjects_2")); print('2 Total Targets Emitted: ' + globals.get("totaltargets_2")); print('2 Total Non-Targets Emitted: ' + globals.get("totalnontargets_2")); print('1 Detected True Positives: ' + globals.get("truepositive_1")); print('1 Detected False Positives: ' + globals.get("falsepositive_1")); print('1 Detected True Negatives: ' + globals.get("truenegative_1")); print('1 Detected False Negatives: ' + globals.get("falsenegative_1")); print('1 Total Eligible Missed Non-targets: ' + globals.get("missedobject_1")); print('1 Total Eligible Missed Targets: ' + globals.get("missedtarget_1")); print('2 Detected True Positives: ' + globals.get("truepositive_2")); print('2 Detected False Positives: ' + globals.get("falsepositive_2")); print('2 Detected True Negatives: ' + globals.get("truenegative_2")); </pre>

	<pre> print('2 Detected False Negatives: ' + globals.get("falsenegative_2")); print('2 Total Eligible Missed Non-targets: ' + globals.get("missedobject_2")); print('2 Total Eligible Missed Targets: ' + globals.get("missedtarget_2")); print('1 Confirmed True Positives: ' + globals.get("uas_tp_1")); print('1 Confirmed False Positives: ' + globals.get("uas_fp_1")); print('1 Confirmed True Negatives: ' + globals.get("uas_tn_1")); print('1 Confirmed False Negatives: ' + globals.get("uas_fn_1")); print('2 Confirmed True Positives: ' + globals.get("uas_tp_2")); print('2 Confirmed False Positives: ' + globals.get("uas_fp_2")); print('2 Confirmed True Negatives: ' + globals.get("uas_tn_2")); print('2 Confirmed False Negatives: ' + globals.get("uas_fn_2")); var launchduration = globals.get("launchfuel_1"); var missionduration = 60 - 2*launchduration; print('Total Mission Duration in Minutes: ' +missionduration); } </pre>
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Acronyms

ABEP	Architecture Based Evaluation Process
AoA	Analysis of Alternatives
ATR	Autonomous Target Recognition
COCOM	Combatant Commander
CONOPS	Concept of Operations
CPN	Colored Petri-Net
DES	Discrete Event Simulation
DoD	Department of Defense
DoDAF	Department of Defense Architecture Framework
EA	Executable Architecture
EFFBD	Enhanced Function Flow Block Diagram
FFBD	Function Flow Block Diagram
GCS	Ground Control Station
HCPN	Hierarchical Colored Petri-Net
ISR	Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance
MOE	Measure of Effectiveness
MP	Monterey Phoenix
SE	Systems Engineering
SoS	System of Systems
SysML	Systems Modeling Language
UAS	Unmanned Aerial System
UML	Unified Modeling Language

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14. ABSTRACT This research explores use of executable architectures to guide design decisions in the early stages of system development. Decisions made early in the system development cycle determine a majority of the total lifecycle costs as well as establish a baseline for long term system performance and thus it is vital to program success to choose favorable design alternatives. The development of a representative architecture followed the Architecture Based Evaluation Process as it provides a logical and systematic order of events to produce an architecture sufficient to document and model operational performance. In order to demonstrate the value in the application of executable architectures for trade space decisions, three variants of a fictional unmanned aerial system were developed and simulated. Four measures of effectiveness (MOEs) were selected for evaluation. Two parameters of interest were varied at two levels during simulation to create four test case scenarios against which to evaluate each variant. Analysis of the resulting simulation demonstrated the ability to obtain a statistically significant difference in MOE performance for 10 out of 16 possible test case-MOE combinations. Additionally, for the given scenarios, the research demonstrated the ability to make a conclusive selection of the superior variant for additional development.					
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