Abstract—Motivated by the need for cyber-physical systems (CPS) to perform in dynamic and uncertain environments, smart CPS (sCPS) utilize self-adaptive capabilities to autonomously manage uncertainties at the intersection of the cyber and physical worlds. In this context, self-adaptation approaches face particular challenges, including (i) environment monitoring that is subject to sensing errors; (ii) adaptation actions that take time, sometimes due to physical movement; (iii) dire consequences for not adapting in a timely manner; and (iv) incomparable objectives that cannot be conflated into a single utility metric (e.g., avoiding an accident vs. providing good service). To enable researchers to evaluate and compare self-adaptation approaches aiming to address these unique challenges of sCPS, we introduce the DARTSim exemplar. DARTSim implements a high-level simulation of a team of unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) performing a reconnaissance mission in a hostile and unknown environment. Designed to be easily used by researchers, DARTSim provides a TCP-based interface for easy integration with external adaptation managers, documentation, and a fast simulation capability.

Index Terms—simulation, self-adaptation, cyber-physical system

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivated by the need for cyber-physical systems (CPS) to perform in dynamic and uncertain environments, smart CPS (sCPS) utilize self-adaptive capabilities to autonomously manage uncertainties at the intersection of the cyber and physical worlds [1], [2]. In this context, self-adaptation approaches face particular challenges, which are not often present in information systems. First, monitoring the environment involves monitoring the physical world through sensors that are not perfect. Handling this typically requires dealing with probability distributions of the monitored states to capture the uncertainty of the information collected by the systems [3]. Second, the actions that the system can take to adapt—sometimes called adaptation tactics [4]—can take time to execute. For example, powering up a sensor after it was turned off to save power takes time. Also, there are cases in which adaptation actions require physical movement, which takes time given the dynamics of the system (e.g., the speed at which it moves). The time that an adaptation action takes to execute is known as tactic latency. Previous work has shown that explicitly considering tactic latency during the adaptation decision process improves the effectiveness of self-adaptation. The third challenge is that in some sCPS, there can be dire consequences if the system does not adapt in a timely manner. While in an information system a late adaptation may result in the violation of a service-level agreement (SLA), in an sCPS the consequence could involve physical damage to the system or elements of its environment. When this is a concern, it may be necessary to use proactive self-adaptation approaches [5]–[7], and even consider tactic latency explicitly [8]–[10], unless the system is conservative to compensate for the delayed reaction, resulting in less effectiveness. Finally, some classes of sCPS have incomparable objectives that have to be satisfied and cannot be conflated into a single utility metric. For example, in many cases it is not possible to put a value to the physical damage to the system or third parties in a way that can be traded off with the utility that the system provides, as we will show in Section II.

To enable researchers to evaluate and compare self-adaptation approaches aiming to address these unique challenges of sCPS, we introduce the DARTSim exemplar. This system, developed in the context of the DART (Distributed Adaptive Real-Time) Systems project at the Carnegie Mellon® Software Engineering Institute [11], represents a simulated team of unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) performing a reconnaissance mission in a hostile environment. In this mission, the team faces a trade-off between detecting targets on the ground—the main purpose of the mission—and avoiding being shot down by threats, which would result in the failure of the mission. Pre-planning the execution of the mission is not feasible because the environment (i.e., the location of targets and threats) can only be discovered as the team flies during the mission, and even then, with some uncertainty. In this cyber-physical system, self-adaptation is required for the team to deal with the uncertain environment, thus making it a smart cyber-physical system.

Designed to be easily used by researchers, DARTSim provides a TCP-based interface for easy integration with external adaptation managers regardless of the language they are written in. Furthermore, it includes a Java class that encapsulates the interaction with DARTSim through TCP, making it even easier to integrate adaptation managers written in Java. When interacting with the simulator using TCP, it runs as a process separate from the adaptation manager. However, DARTSim can also be linked as a library with adaptation managers.
written in C++. This is not only convenient, but also improves
the overall performance by eliminating the use of TCP to
interact with the simulator. Regardless of the method used to
connect to the simulator, the adaptation manager controls when
the simulation has to execute a simulation step, which happens
in simulation time—not wall-clock time. Thus, simulations are
fast because there is virtually no wait for events to happen.
Example adaptation managers using both kinds of connection
are included.

Although several aspects of the mission, such as sensing
effects and the locations of threats and targets, are random, the
random number generators are seeded, thus allowing the repli-
cation of the same conditions multiple times. This supports
using DARTSim to compare different adaptation managers
under the same conditions.

DARTSim has been used for evaluating and comparing self-
adaptation approaches [9], [10], and for evaluating an input
attribute approach for statistical model checking [12]. Follow-
ing the proposal of Cito and Gall to use Docker containers
for artifacts supporting software engineering research [13], we
are now making this exemplar available as a Docker image for
easy deployment on different operating systems.1

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II gives
an overview of DARTSim and the mission being simulated.
Section III explains how adaptation managers can interact with
DARTSim to do monitoring and execute adaptation actions
on the system. Section IV shows how to run simulation and
interpret the results.

II. OVERVIEW OF DARTSIM

DARTSim simulates an autonomous team of UAVs carry-
ing out a reconnaissance mission in a hostile and unknown
environment. As depicted in Figure 1, the team has to detect
targets on the ground using a downward-looking sensor as
it flies a planned route at constant speed. However, there are
threats on the ground along the route that can destroy the team.
The closer the UVs fly to the ground, the more likely they
are to detect the targets, but also the higher the probability
of being destroyed by a threat. This poses a trade-off for
the team, which is complicated by the uncertainty about the
environment. Even though both targets and threats are static,
neither their number nor their location is known a priori. The
team can use tactics that include changing altitude, changing
formation, and using electronic countermeasures (ECM) in
order to maximize the number of targets detected, taking
into account that if the team is lost to a threat, the mission
fails. Mission success is defined as surviving the mission and
detecting at least half of the targets.

DARTSim is a high-level simulation of this mission. The
whole team of UVs is considered as a single system with
no distinction between its members. For example, what in
DARTSim is simulated as a single downward-looking sensor,
in reality would be composed of cameras in each UAV whose
images are fused. The physics of the flying UVs is not

1Available at https://hub.docker.com/r/gabrielmoreno/dartsim/.

simulated either. The focus of DARTSim is on the high-level
self-adaptation decisions that the system must make to achieve
mission success. The adaptation manager making these de-
cisions is what gives this sCPS the “smartness” required to
execute the mission autonomously.

Time and space are discretized in the simulation. Vertically,
the simulator deals with altitude levels, and horizontally, the
route is divided into segments2 of equal length. With the team
of UVs flying at constant speed, time is discretized so that
the team traverses one route segment in each simulation time
step.3 The adaptation manager can collect monitoring information,
make an adaptation decision, and execute an adaptation if
necessary at the boundaries between route segments.

The following subsections describe the monitoring information
that the system provides, the adaptation tactics that can
be used to change the team configuration, and the effect the
team configuration has in its ability to detect targets and avoid
being destroyed by threats.

A. Monitoring the System and the Environment

The state of the system is defined by variables divided into
two groups: those that can be controlled through adaptation
tactics, and those that cannot be controlled. The former are
known as the team configuration, and include the altitude
level, the formation (i.e., tight or loose), whether ECM is being
used, and variables that indicate the time to complete (TTC)
in periods for each tactic with latency, which are described
in Section II-B. When TTC is 0, the tactic is not currently
being executed. The variables that cannot be controlled are
the position of the team along the route and the direction of
travel, since the team follows a predefined route. By default,
the route of the UVs is a straight line. However, the simulator
can be configured to use a square map, in which the route
covers every cell in the map following a lawnmower pattern.

3Since DARTSim also supports a square map, the term cell is also used.

This presents the challenge of the forward-looking sensors not
being able to sense the route ahead as the team is making a
turn at the end of each horizontal run across the map.
The team has two long-range forward-looking sensors to monitor the state of the environment ahead of the team. One is used to sense the presence of targets and the other is used for threats. For each cell or route segment in front of the sensor, the sensor reports whether it detects a target or threat, depending on the sensor. However, due to sensing errors, these reports can be false positive or false negative. An adaptation manager can get multiple observations to construct a probability distribution of threat or target presence in a cell.

### B. Adaptation Tactics

DARTSim provides a number of tactics that an adaptation manager can use to change the team configuration. Table I lists the adaptation tactics including whether they have latency or are immediate. An immediate tactic produces its effect without delay. For example, if the adaptation manager uses the tactic GoTight at the beginning of a simulation step, the team will be in tight formation while flying over the route segment covered by that step. If a tactic with latency is used, the effect of the tactic will have a 1 period delay.\(^4\) It is not necessary for an adaptation manager to use the complete tactic repertoire. For example, an adaptation manager may only use tactics to change altitude by one level and change formation. Adding tactics to the set of used tactics can be used to change the size of the adaptation space handled by the adaptation manager.

### C. Effect of Team Configuration

The team configuration has an effect on the probability of being destroyed by a threat and the probability of detecting a target, which is important when deciding how to adapt.

A threat can destroy the team only if both are in the same segment. However, a threat has range \(r_T\), and its effectiveness is inversely proportional to the altitude of the team, denoted by \(a\). In addition, the formation of the team affects the probability of it being destroyed. The team can be in two different formations: loose \((\phi = 0)\), and tight \((\phi = 1)\). The latter reduces the probability of being destroyed \([14]\) by a factor of \(\psi\). When the team uses ECM \((E = 1)\), the probability of being destroyed is reduced by a factor of \(4\). Taking altitude, formation, and the use of ECM into account, the probability of the team being destroyed, \(d\) is given by (1).

\[
d = \frac{\max(0, r_T - a)}{r_T} \left(1 - \frac{\phi}{\psi}\right) \left(1 - E\right) + \frac{E}{4}
\]  

(1)

The probability of detecting a target with the downward-looking sensor given that the target is in the segment being traversed by the UAVs is inversely proportional to the altitude of the team \([15]\). Furthermore, flying in tight formation reduces the detection probability due to sensor occlusion or overlap, and the use of ECM also affects target detection, reducing the probability of detection by a factor of \(4\). The probability \(g\) of detecting a target is given by (2).

\[
g = \frac{\max(0, r_S - a)}{r_S} \left(1 - \frac{\phi}{\sigma}\right) \left(1 - E\right) + \frac{E}{4}
\]  

(2)

where \(r_S\) is the range of the sensor (i.e., at an altitude of \(r_S\) or higher, it is not possible to detect targets), and \(\sigma\) is the factor by which the detection probability is reduced due to flying in tight formation.

These performance characteristics can be leveraged by an adaptation manager to decide how to adapt. Whether they are used qualitatively or quantitatively depends on the decision-making approach used by the adaptation manager. The simple example described in Section III uses the knowledge of these characteristics qualitatively in a heuristic decision-making approach. More principled approaches attempting to use them quantitatively are faced with the problem of trading off two measures that are incomparable in principle, the survival of the team vs. the maximization of targets detected. For example, mission success requires that the UAVs survive the mission, whereas only half of the targets have to be found. Even though this implies that surviving the mission has higher priority, a decision approach that favors survival may be too conservative to detect enough targets. A more balanced trade-off could be guided by assigning value to surviving the mission and to the targets, so that they become comparable. However, given that the number of targets present in the route is unknown, doing this is not trivial. This is a challenge in many sCPS that this exemplar presents as well.\(^5\) DARTSim includes a more complex example that uses these performance characteristics quantitatively with the PLA-SDP self-adaptation approach \([10]\).

### III. Implementing Adaptation Managers

Adaptation managers can interact with DARTSim in two ways. One is using it as a C++ library linked with the program implementing the adaptation manager. The other is running DARTSim as a separate process and interacting with it through a TCP socket. The first method has the advantage of having DARTSim and the adaptation manager in a single process; not incurring the overhead of the TCP socket connection; and interacting with DARTSim with simple method calls. The

\(^4\)The latency of the change altitude tactics can be configured.

\(^5\)For example, survival in other sCPS could mean not running out of power when that depends on how the uncertain weather will affect the output of solar cells.
A. Interacting with DARTSim as a Library

Listing 1 shows a fragment of the code of the adaptation manager in one the examples included with DARTSim. This example is implemented in C++ and demonstrates how to use DARTSim as a library. Lines 1–4 show how to create an instance of DARTSim and check if that was successful. The method createInstance() receives arguments in the same way as the C++ main() function. This allows configuring the simulation from the command line, for example (see Section IV for some of the allowed configuration arguments). Lines 6–8 demonstrate how the adaptation manager can obtain parameters of the configuration of the simulation that can be relevant. In this case, it is using the getParameters() method to determine what is the maximum altitude level allowed. There are several other parameters that can be obtained, such as parameters of the sensors (e.g., false positive and false negative rates), and the range of the threats.

The rest of the code of the adaptation manager is organized in a way similar to the MAPE-K loop [16]. The main adaptation loop is in lines 10–43. The method finished() called in line 10, is used to check if the simulation has finished, either because the team reached the end of the route or because it was destroyed. Lines 12–15 implement the monitoring activities of the adaptation manager. Line 12 invokes the method getState() to get the state of the system—the team—and lines 14–15 read the forward sensors for targets and threats to monitor the environment. The methods readForwardTargetSensor() and readForwardThreatSensor() take the length of the look-ahead horizon in cells as argument, and return a vector of booleans with the sensor report for the presence of a threat or a target, respectively, in each cell over the look-ahead horizon, with the first element of the vector corresponding to the cell the UAVs are about to enter.

The analysis and planning aspects of the adaptation loop are combined in event-condition-action (ECA) style [17], and their implementation is in lines 17–36. The tactics that the planning decides to execute are collected in a list of tactics, which is then passed to the simulator for execution. At a high level, the logic of the adaptation decision is as follows. If a threat is detected in the horizon, increase altitude if possible (lines 18–21), otherwise decrease altitude if possible only if a target is detected in the horizon (lines 22–28). If there is a threat in the segment the team is entering, switch to tight formation if not already in that formation (lines 30–33). If there is no threat in that segment and the team is not in loose formation, switch to loose formation.

The final task of the adaptation loop is to pass the (possibly empty) tactic list to the simulator so that they are executed. This is done by calling the method step() (line 42), which in addition to having the simulator execute the tactics, instructs it to perform one simulation step. All the tactics in the list are started by the simulator at the beginning of the simulation step. The second parameter passed to this method is the adaptation decision time that was measured by the adaptation manager (lines 11, 38–40). Although measuring decision time is not required, when done, DARTSim collects statistics that can be obtained at the end of the simulation. This is useful for comparing different self-adaptation approaches.

Once the simulation finishes, the code in lines 45–49 gets the simulation results from DARTSim and prints the simulation output in the format shown in Figure 2 and described in Section IV.
B. Interacting with DARTSim over TCP

DARTSim’s TCP-based interface can be used for adaptation managers that run as an external program. The interface allows DARTSim to be used as a target system for a variety of adaptation managers, regardless of how they are implemented since most languages support communication through TCP sockets. In addition, for passing data structures through the TCP-based interface, DARTSim uses the JSON data interchange standard [18], which is supported by libraries available for many languages.

Although an adaptation manager and DARTSim will execute as separate programs, they interact with each other at each simulation step. At each step, the manager will probe DARTSim for its state and, if it decides that adaptation is needed, it will pass a list of adaptation tactics to the simulator. DARTSim will execute these adaptation tactics, starting them concurrently, and the simulation will advance one step.

DARTSim listens on port 5418 by default. Once a client (i.e., an external adaptation manager) opens a connection to this port, DARTSim waits for a command sent by the client as a text line terminated with a new-line character. If the command is not recognized or there is an error executing it, DARTSim replies with a text line with the prefix ‘error:’, followed by an error message.

To send a command, the client first needs to create a string containing the command name and the corresponding input parameters separated by spaces; this string is then sent to DARTSim using the TCP connection. Upon receiving a well-formed command string, DARTSim executes it, and sends the result back to the client in the form of a string. The client has to convert the string to the corresponding data type.

For composite data types (e.g., list and records) used either as input parameters or return values, DARTSim’s TCP-based interface uses the JSON data interchange standard. For example, the command `step` has list of tactic names to execute as the first input parameter, and the adaptation decision time, which is a floating point number, as the parameter. In this case, the client needs to create a string in JSON format to encode the list of strings for the first parameter. For instance, the complete string for the command `step` telling the simulator to start the tactics DecAlt and GoLoose, and reporting an adaptation decision time of 132.0 milliseconds is

```plaintext
step ["DecAlt","GoLoose"] 132.0
```

To invoke this command with an empty list of tactics when no adaptation is needed, the empty list is represented with empty square brackets ‘[]’.

If the result of a command is a composite data type such as a record, then the client needs to decode the string encoded in JSON format upon receiving the result. For example, the result of the `getState` command would be encoded as follows (all in a single line):

```plaintext
{"altitudeLevel": 1, "directionX": 1, "directionY": 0, "ecm": false, "formation": 0, "positionX": 17, "positionY": 0, "ttcDecAlt": 0, "ttcDecAlt2": 0, "ttcIncAlt": 0, "ttcIncAlt2": 0}
```

IV. Running Simulations

Running simulations with DARTSim is straightforward. This section shows how to run DARTSim with the provided examples using the default configuration, and explains how to interpret the results of a completed simulation. In addition, some of the most common configuration options are explained.

A. Running Examples

DARTSim includes three examples demonstrating integrating DARTSim with adaptation managers. Two minimal examples illustrate using DARTSim with adaptation managers in two ways: as a library in C++, and over its TCP interface using other programming languages (the provided example is in Java). A third adaptation manager provides an implementation of PLA-SDP [10] to demonstrate a fully featured adaptation manager integrated with DARTSim.

To run DARTSim as a process separate from the adaptation manager (i.e., when they interact through the TCP interface), the simulator can be started with the `run_with_am.sh` script executed from a shell in the top-level directory of DARTSim. In that case, DARTSim waits for a connection from an adaptation manager, which has to be started separately. To simplify this, both processes can be launched with the script `run-with-am.sh`. When DARTSim is used as a library, only the adaptation manager process must be started, which in turn, instantiates the simulator. Detailed instructions for running the examples are included in the artifact’s documentation.

B. Interpreting the Results

The results of the simulation can be obtained as a visual trace and as raw data using the methods `getScreenOutput()` and `getResults()`, respectively (as explained in Section III), and is up to the adaptation manager to print them or save them to a file (see lines 45–49 in Listing 1). Figure 2 shows an example visual trace, which depicts a 2D side view of the team’s route. The two-bottom lines represent the ground, and the lines above them represent the altitude level of the drones (vertical axis) at the different positions in the route (horizontal axis). The meaning of the symbols used in this representation is shown in Table II. The
DARTSim possesses challenges that self-adaptation approaches face when used to provide “smartness” to sCPS. These include the sensing error of the long-range forward-looking sensors; the adaptation tactics to change altitude levels, which take time to execute due to the required physical movement; the unknown threats that can destroy the UAVs if they do not evade them in a timely manner; and the difficulty in conflating the value of surviving the mission and the value of the detected targets in a single utility measure when the number of targets is unknown.

Several aspects of the mission are randomly generated in DARTSim, making it suitable for running many simulations with different conditions for statistical analysis when evaluating self-adaptation approaches. Nevertheless, DARTSim can replicate these random conditions, allowing researchers to compare different approaches. The exemplar is available as a Docker image (https://hub.docker.com/r/gabrielmoreno/dartsim/) for easy deployment on different platforms, and its source code is available at https://github.com/cps-sei/dartsim.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented DARTSim, an exemplar that simulates an autonomous team of UAVs carrying out a reconnaissance mission in an unknown hostile environment. DARTSim possesses challenges that self-adaptation approaches face when used to provide “smartness” to sCPS. These include the sensing error of the long-range forward-looking sensors; the adaptation tactics to change altitude levels, which take time to execute due to the required physical movement; the unknown threats that can destroy the UAVs if they do not evade them in a timely manner; and the difficulty in conflating the value of surviving the mission and the value of the detected targets in a single utility measure when the number of targets is unknown.

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