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Dedicated to those who gave us the prior experience and the inspiring ideas to develop the view offered in this book.
**Preface**

An AAI Course Program: Within a larger book project about the AAI paradigm represents this text a short, condensed version of the AAI analysis which can be handled within the summer term of a master program. While the larger book project tries to bring together such diverse topics as Human-Machine Interaction (HMI), Systems Engineering (SE), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Cognitive Science (CogS) and Philosophy of Science (PhS) in one coherent framework called Actor-Actor Interaction (AAI), this shorter text is intended to introduce to a minimal program starting with a problem, analyze the problem in an AAI manner, test the result and stop.

**Overview** The course follows two main topics: (i) providing the necessary theory (ii) to enable a real analysis process.

**Web Site** This small text is located as one sub-topic at the main website https://www.uffmm.org/.

**Terminology: HMI - AAI - ACI/ACI** In the above mentioned online book the history of the terminology like HCI, HMI, AAI etc. is discussed. In this text – a one-semester course program – the perspective of Actor-Actor Interaction (AAI) will be the dominant perspective. But the reader should know that the labeling of Actor-Cognition Interaction (ACI) is also valid by pointing to cognition as the main factor within the interaction paradigm of actors. One can even go further by emphasizing the dimension of the distributedness of knowledge in the different brains of the individual members of a population which can only be shared and synchronized by a sufficient communication. While the usual communication is the basis for all sharing, new methods of shared symbolic modeling, interactive simulations or even common gaming can improve this sharing remarkably. These new methods can be understood as an augmentation of the classical methods of communication. Thus the acronym ACI can have another, more specific meaning.
Part I

Theory
1

Introduction

THE TERM ‘ACTOR-ACTOR INTERACTION (AAI)’ as used in the title of the book is not yet very common. Better known is the term ‘HMI’ (Human-Machine Interaction) which again points back to the term ‘HCI’ (Human-Computer Interaction). Looking to the course of events between 1945 and about 2000 one can observe a steady development of the hardware and the software in many directions.\(^1\)

One can observe an explosion of new applications and usages of computer. This caused a continuous challenge of how human persons can interact with this new technology which has been called in the beginning ‘Human Computer Interaction (HCI)’. But with the extension of the applications in nearly all areas of daily life from workplace, factory, to education, health, arts and much more the interaction was no longer restricted to the ‘traditional’ computer but interaction happened with all kinds of devices which internally or in the background used computer hardware and software. Thus a ‘normal’ room, a ‘normal’ street, a ‘normal’ building, a toy, some furniture, cars, and much more turned into a computerized device with sensors and actuators. At the same time the collaborators of human persons altered to ‘intelligent’ machines, robots, and smart interfaces. Thus to speak of a ‘human user’ interacting with a ‘technical interface’ seems no longer to be appropriate. A more appropriate language game is the new talk of ‘interacting actors’, which can be sets of different groups of actors interacting in an environment to fulfill a task. Actors are then today biological systems (humans as well as animals) and non-biological systems. Therefore I decided to talk instead of Human-Machine Interaction (HMI) now of ‘Actor-Actor Interaction (AAI)’.

THE BASIC IDEA OF THE AAI PARADIGM IN THIS BOOK is still centered around a ‘concrete interface (A\(_{\text{Intf,Real}}\)’ which allows ‘real interaction’ with ‘real actors (A\(_{\text{Real}}\)’), and these real interfaces have been ‘tested’ before their usage ‘sufficiently well’. Thus the final real interface in real usage has been ‘selected’ from a finite set of ‘real candidates’ according to some ‘predefined criteria’ of ‘good usage’.

THE CONTEXT OF AAI is not ‘hard-wired’ but can be chosen freely. Experience shows us that it is always helpful to fix the conditions under which we want to do our work. What do we presuppose if we start our work? What are

\(^1\) For a first introduction see the two human-computer interaction handbooks from 2003 and 2008, and here especially the first chapters dealing explicitly with the history of HCI (cf. Richard W.Pew (2003) , which is citing several papers and books with additional historical investigations (cf. p.2), and Jonathan Grudin (2008) . Another source is the ‘HCI Bibliography: Human-Computer Interaction Resources’ (see: http://www.hcibib.org/), which has a rich historical section too (see: http://www.hcibib.org/hci-sites/history).

our assumptions? What are possible ‘frameworks’ we are using?

The approach in this book is highly influenced by the paradigm of ‘Systems Engineering (SE)’ as it is very common in the engineering world. System Engineering can be understood as a bet on the future: given a problem, follow some procedures, and there is some chance, that you will find a solution which can be implemented successfully. The main standards are texts representing the experience of thousands of experts of many thousands of realized projects. What the standards describe is the idealized format of a ‘process’ with a ‘start’ and an ‘end’. The process is realized by some finite set of ‘actors’ which coordinate their ‘actions’ by ‘communication’, including different kinds of ‘artifacts’. We will not speak about systems engineering too much here, but at least let us give a basic idea what it is and how it is related to the main topic ‘Actor-Actor Interaction (AAI)’ (cf. figure 1.1).

'Inside' of a systems engineering process you find different actors called ‘experts’ which with their experience will drive the process. Outside of the process you have those actors which have to 'manage' the process called 'managers'.

A systems engineering process is always part of some 'economical system' which in turn is part of a 'societal system'. The 'economical system' is the source of many rules for 'how to play the game': available resources, conditions of exchange, gains and losses. Making a systems engineering process an 'economic success' you have to comply with the economic rules. But the economic system is also always interacting with a 'societal system' too: value systems imply preferences and rules to be followed in a variety of different ways, and cultural and human centered patterns will induce additional constraints, which can conflict each other.

Across society and economy we have the realm of 'science' and of 'engineering & technology'. The domain of 'science' manifests themselves as a multitude of distinguished single disciplines whose coherence and unity is only partially in existence. But if you want to know how 'nature' behaves then you have to consult these disciplines. Based on science and as well on collected 'experiences' from many fields and situations we have 'engineering' as a unification of science, craftsmanship, and art, which

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2 For a first introduction into the idea of systems engineering (SE) cf. INCOSE (2015) INCOSE:2015 Figure 1.1: A simplified picture of the different contexts for a systems engineering process

3 Two popular texts which illustrate the interplay of society, technology, and engineering in a broad scope are Eric Schmidt and Jared Cohen (2013) and Yuval Noah Harari (2018).

transforms ideas in working artifacts, which often are machines and whole
cities. ‘Technology’ is one possible outcome of engineering; technology
supports the daily life in more and more areas.

Finally, all these mentioned systems are embedded in an overall ‘natural
system’, the earth as part of the universe, inducing many very strong
constraints, which to follow is strongly recommended.

To describe this complex matter in detail would burst all boundaries.
Therefore we will focus only on that part of the systems engineering pro-
cess, where AAI comes in and we will thematise the different contexts of a
systems engineering process from within the AAI sub-process where it is
needed.

The structure of a systems engineering process has been
described in a formal way by Louwrence Erasmus and Gerd Doeben-
Henisch during 2011, when they did some ‘conceptual experiments’ looking
how to formalize a systems engineering process (cf. Erasmus & Doeben-
Henisch (2011a/b) 4)

Inspired by modern mathematics (cf. Bourbaki 5) and the structural
approach within philosophy of science (cf. Sneed 6, Balzer et.al. 7) they
pointed out an algebraic structure which can help to describe the elements
as well the dynamics of the process . In the following we give a basic
description of the main idea restricted to the AAI-analysis phase.

The AAI-analysis part of a systems engineering process (SEP) is depicted in the figure 1.2.

The AAI-analysis phase is assumed to be ‘framed’ by a clear beginning
and a clear end. The ‘beginning’ is located in the existence of a ‘prob-
lem document’ $D_P$, which has been produced by some ‘real stakeholder’
$A_{SH,Real}$ together with some real AAI-experts $A_{AAI,Real}$; these AAI-experts
can be extended by some other real experts $A_{X,Real}$. The problem docu-
ment $D_P$ describes, what kind of a ‘problem’ the stakeholder sees and what

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Figure 1.2: Simplified picture of the systems engineering process focussing on the AAI-analysis phase
kind of an ‘improvement’ he wants. Mostly the ‘wishes’ of the stakeholder are ‘framed’ by a set of ‘constraints’ which have to be matched within the envisaged ‘improvements’. 8

THE AAI-ANALYSIS IN A BACKWARD VIEW: Having a ‘beginning’ of the AAI-analysis and an ‘end’ one can ask, which steps are necessary to reach the end from the defined beginning? For to do this one can start with the end and asking back: what are the pre-conditions to get the real interface candidates $A_{\text{Inf.Real}}$ for the final tests?

Here it is assumed that the ‘real interfaces’ are ‘derived’ from symbolically described abstract models of ‘assisting actors’ ($A_{\text{ass}}$) which are ‘used’ by some symbolically described abstract ‘executing actors’ ($A_{\text{exec}}$) 9 to fulfill some ‘task’ (T) within a symbolically describable ‘finite sequence of actions’ constituting an ‘abstract process’; the symbolical description of such an abstract process is called an ‘actor story’ (AS).

Thus, whether the proposed real interfaces are in some sense ‘sound’ is depending from such an actor story, which describes the intended format of the proposed ‘improvements’ by taking into account the different constraints mentioned by the stakeholder.

From this follows a very strong assumption implicitly given with this kind of an AAI-approach: the ‘problem’ (P) described in the problem document $D_P$ can be translated into a sequence of states with at least one start state and at least one goal state, and these states contain intended executive actors $A_{\text{exec}}$, needed assistive actors $A_{\text{ass}}$, a certain ‘environment’ (ENV) where these processes are assumed to happen, additionally needed ‘artifacts’ (OBJ), and at least one ‘task’ (T) which has to be ‘fulfilled’ by such a process. Possible ‘constraints’ (C) given as ‘non-functional requirements’ (NFRs) have to be defined as sets of decidable properties distributed across the different states of the whole process.

That this strong assumption is a ‘sound’ assumption will be demonstrated in this book. During the course of the arguments you will encounter within the overall AAI-Analysis further special topics like ‘Modeling behavior and actors’, ‘Integrating learning intelligent actors’, ‘Simulation of actor stories and actor models’, ‘Automatic verification of non-functional requirements’, ‘Design of real interfaces’, and ‘Testing of usability with learning actors and embedded simulations’. Finally you will find several paragraphs pointing to ‘philosophical aspects’ of this approach which allow a new kind of integration of all these different views.

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8 We know that the assumption of a ready made problem document $D_P$ is very strong, because the elaboration of such a document is a real challenge and worth a book on its own.

9 traditionally called ‘user’.
2 Outline

2.1 Symbolic Space and the Real World

Figure 2.1 shows the symbolic space of an actor story (AS) which has been constructed according to some stated problem (P) and an envisioned solution idea (S+). This symbolic space communicates ideas about intended executing and assisting actors (eA, aA) which are first located in a start state (S*) and which can change the actual state by doing some actions which cause some change in an actual state generating thereby a follow-up state (S'). If one wants to describe the behavior of an actor with more details about the inner structure of an actor then one has to construct additionally an explicit actor model (AM) of this actor describing all the known behavior by explaining the internal dynamics.

To check whether these symbolically described possible states of the actor story are working in the real world (RW) one has to instantiate the intended actors and organize some test. This can be done in various simulations (including gaming), but the most advanced test will be a usability test. In a usability test real actors – as close as possible to the finally intended actors – will try to realize the states of an actor story with the aid of a mock-up. A mock-up is a physical device which represents all the
important properties of the finally intended assistant actor. The outcome of this usability is either that the symbolic description is fully working in the real world or not. If the test shows deficiencies between the symbolic actor story and the real test then this can reveal some important properties which could enable a better follow-up test.

2.2 The AS Construction Process

![Figure 2.2: Outline of all main elements used in this version of the AAI paradigm](image)

The following text provides an outline of all main elements used in an AAI paradigm.

All these elements following mainly a sequential procedure. But because this procedure is to a wide extent also an exploratory process it is important to repeat individual steps or even the whole process if at the end the simulations and/or tests provide insights in deficiencies. Therefore one has to see this whole sequential process as a repetitive process. This recommends to start with as simple as possible assumptions, construct with these assumptions step wise the whole process and get some experience of the effect of all parts working together.

**PROBLEM-SOLUTION:** Every AAI analysis process presupposes a defined problem statement $D_P$ combined with a first idea about a wanted solution $D_S$.

**AAI-CHECK:** To accept the given problem with the wanted solution one has to check, whether the following minimal conditions are fulfilled:

1. The context ($ENV$) of the wanted solution is characterized.
2. There is at least one task ($T$) given which has to be realized within the solution to do the job.
3. There is at least one executive actor (eA) which has to fulfill the task as well as at least one assistive actor (aA) who shall support the executive actor in doing his job.

**NFRs:** If the AAI check is positive then one has to give some additional non-functional requirements (NFRs) if necessary.

**DOMAIN KNOWLEDGE:** While the AAI framework as such is a general framework intended for all kinds of problems you will need a special domain knowledge – often located in so-called experts – which allows the inference of the needed facts for the states and the change rules.

**ACTOR STORY:** To analyze the details of the wanted solution within the intended environment with the implicit tasks and participating actors one has to develop a so-called actor story (AS).

The AS consists of a series of states (S) with at least one start state (S*) and at least one goal state (S+). A state is a collection of facts (F) which can be decided as true or not in the assumed environment. Some of the facts describe different actors (A) with the executive and the assistive actors as subsets ($eA \cup aA \subseteq A$).

If something is changing then a state S.b before the change E converts into a successor or follow-up state S.f. Changes are described by change rules (X). If there exists more than one option to change a state alternatively then the actor story splits up into different lines of state sequences. Possibly these different lines of states can unify again at some point later. There can also be a change which effects in some loop back if a state has to be repeated again.\(^1\)

**CONSTRUCTING SUCCESSOR STATES:** In a first construction phase the AAI experts have to clarify which are the most important states which have to be assumed to enable an actor story which leads from a start state S* to a goal state S+. And for this they have to identify those change-rules X which connect the different identified states. This first construction phase leads to a structure which can mathematically be represented as a graph (G). A graph can be turned into an automaton which is able to simulate this graph G. This gives the foundation for a possible simulator $\sigma$. And as will be shown later this simulator $\sigma$ can be built in a general way such that one can implement an appropriate algorithm (software) in a real computer to be able to be used by the AAI experts to simulate any kind of an actor story description.\(^2\)

**ACTOR AS A LEARNING SYSTEM:** In the context of an actor story it is assumed that every actor is principally a learning system (LS) with inputs, outputs, internal states as well as a learning function. This leads to the following basic structure of an actor:

\(^1\) A more detailed discussion of 'change' you can find in chapter 6.

\(^2\) If a change is triggered by an actor which is not completely deterministic than a change can have some variability associated with probabilities which can change. Such a feature turns a complete process into a minimal grade of uncertainty. The outcome will not be predictable.
\[ A(x) \text{ iff } x = \langle I, O, IS, \phi \rangle \]  
\[ I := \text{Set of inputs} \]  
\[ O := \text{Set of outputs} \]  
\[ IS := \text{Set of internal states} \]  
\[ \phi : I \times IS \mapsto IS \times O \]  

These assumptions allow for first basic classifications: (i) If the set of internal states (IS) is empty or static, then the system is principally unable to learn. It has to have a completely fixed behavior function which makes the system a deterministic system. If there exist internal states and these are changeable, then the system can principally be a learning system, which turns a deterministic behavior function into a non-deterministic function.

**ACTOR AS ACTOR MODEL:** If one wants to describe the details of the learning function of an actor including the details of the main sets \{I, O, IS\} one has to construct an actor model (AM) outside the main actor story. While the actor story is looking to the actors from the outside describing how they behave, how they act in a situation, an actor model (AM) is looking to an actor from inside, from the internal states and processes.

**INTERFACING AS AND AMs:** The interface between an actor story (AS) and some actor models (AMs) is given by the inputs and outputs of an actor. If the actor story describes a certain action of an actor, its output, then the actor model must explain how this output has been generated inside the actor. In the same manner if the actor story describes some input to an actor then the actor model must explain what happens in the actor on account of such an input. How can an input to an actor influence his output.

\[ 3 \text{ This is called the 3rd person view by philosophers} \]  
\[ 4 \text{ This is called 1st person view from philosophers} \]  

\[ 5 \text{ For a more detailed discussion see the chapters ?? and 6.} \]  

2.3 Testing An Actor Story

If an actor story AS has been constructed one has to check the cognitive plausibility of the actor story as well as the usability of the intended assistive actors (aAs) by the intended users.

The cognitive plausibility is located in the relationship between the knowledge of the stakeholder and the possible experience when testing the actor story in a simulation. If the real experience within a simulation differs from the given experience in the brains of the stakeholders than the cognitive plausibility of the actor story is low, eventually too low.

The usability of the intended assistive actors (aAs) is located in the relationship between the intended executive actors (eA) and a preliminary mock-up of the intended assistive actors (aA). While the intended executive actor tries to realize a process which is in agreement with the actor story it has to be empirically measured (i) to which degree the intended executive actors are able to realize the actor story with this mock-up and (ii) it should
be subjectively measured to which degree the intended executive actor is satisfied with this process in an emotional dimension.

**SIMULATION:** Having an actor story AS and an assisting simulator software σ one can realize a simulation, either (i) purely passive without interactions or (ii) with interactions. In the case of an interactive simulation real actors can interact with the simulation and thereby influence the course of the simulation. A simulation enables a shared experience with a common understanding in all participants of the simulation. The simulation experience can be compared with the available real-world experience of the participants and this allows a special kind of a cognitive test revealing those aspects of the simulation which differ from the known reality. These experienced differences can shed some light on either deficiencies of the simulation or deficiencies of the real world situation.

The introduction of actor models (AMs) simultaneously to an actor story (AS) does not change the concept of a simulation. Actor models occur in the format of a change-rule which in turn is connected to an algorithm which defines its computations.

**GAMING:** If one extends an interactive simulation with the definition of explicit win-lose states then one can turn a simulation into a game with real actors which can compete and where some of the participant can become winners. Compared to simulations with their somehow infinite possibilities identifies a game in advance some special states of interest which narrows the scope of the analysis. This helps to focus the test of the process to these special states of interest and enables a much faster clarification of research questions. In this sense is gaming the more efficient way of learning by simulation.

**VERIFICATION OF NFRs; ORACLE:** If one has defined some NFRs (non-functional requirements) for the actor story then one can after the completion of an actor story including simulation verify whether the NFRs are true in the actor story with regard to the assumed environment or not. A special case of the verification of NFRs is the oracle function. Because the verification of NFRs is done in the manner of an automated prove with regard to the existence or non-existence of some defined property (associated with a NFR), one can use this mechanism also for to check whether a special state of interest will occur or not occur within a defined time window of all possible simulations. Such a mechanism can be of great help for the analysis of the possible future of a process, especially without having the need to do all the possible (interactive) simulations which is practically impossible on account of the needed time. But because such an oracle-process can only work with the given change-rules as if these will not change and without the non-deterministic behavior of real executive actors the oracle-results have to be used with caution.

**NEED FOR MOCK-UPS:** Until that point there exist only symbolic descriptions about possible real states. To turn the symbolic descriptions into a real working system one has to implement these descriptions into a real system.
But such a full implementation is not the job of the AAI analysis. The AAI analysis only examines possible states and possible behavior profiles and checks with the aid of mock-ups whether these ideas will work sufficiently well. Mock-ups are physical systems which show all the main physical properties of the intended system without being a full implementation of this system.

**USABILITY TESTING:** Usability reveals something about the way how good the interaction of the intended executive actors with the intended assistive actor works within the whole actor story. Some of the questions which shall be answered by an usability test are: Is it too difficult for the executing actor to learn the needed behavior? Does the executing actor need too much time? Do continuously occur too many errors? To answer these and similar questions one has to prepare a test scenario which allows a real executing actor to behave according to the actor story by using the intended assistive actor realized as a mock-up. This test has to be managed by a test coordinator assisted by some observing persons or/and recording devices to produce a protocol of the events during the test. The protocols have then to be converted into test data which can be used for analytical purposes.

A special point in the AAI usability testing is that within the AAI framework it is generally assumed that the executive actors are by default learning systems (which holds for all biological systems). This means that the executive actors eA all have an individual behavior function \( \phi \). This induces within a testing procedure the possible effects that the behavior of a executing actor can change from test to test.\(^6\) To restrict the usability test therefore to only one test run is highly dangerous. It is recommended to repeat an usability test at least three times. What number \( n \) has to be assumed to be the optimal number is still an unanswered question.

\(^6\) Which is indeed the normal case. Therefore you can find in all reports about learning experiments always so-called learning curves representing these changes along a time line.
3 Define a Problem

IDENTIFY A PROBLEM: At a first glance one can be inclined to think that to have a problem is something simple, natural, because in everyday life it seems that the world is full of problems. But looking nearer, coming closer, start thinking, one can detect that to identify a problem is not as easy as it seems to be.

The starting point for every identification of a problem is always a given situation (S) where some humans have to realize a task (T) by some reasons (R). If there is no task because there is no reason there is no problem.1

Usually implies the realization of a task some context: special situations with typical objects, relations between these objects, as well as typical changes which can or have to happen.

The actors in these task realizations are traditionally human person as executive actors (eA) and in former times animals as assisting actors (aA). Later the animals have been replaced by machines. Today these roles are still subject of ongoing changes because even the role of the executing actor is becoming a hot spot of replacement processes where human persons are substituted by machines, and in this case smart machines, which have been invented only recently in the midst of the 20th century. Where this replacement process will end up is actually an open question. In this text it is assumed that the homo sapiens is a main driving factor of evolution, but not isolated but as part of the whole phenomenon of biological life on the planet earth, with a probable destination to spread into the whole universe.

Having a reason (R) to fulfill some task (T) makes only sense if this reason is accompanied by some criteria (C) which determine verifiable properties which have to be satisfied to be able to declare a task to be solved or not solved.

Thus to produce e.g. a vehicle for the transportation of people from some place A to some other place B will only make sense if the production costs are in a region which sufficiently many customers can pay; and there should be no other competitor which produces an equivalent vehicle a little bit cheaper; for the customer this vehicle should be manageable in an easy way which does not produce too many errors (with possible accidents); the time to learn the usage should be as short as possible; the social acceptance of the vehicle should be above some threshold; there should be no societal norms which are becoming violated by using the vehicle; ideally the vehicle is barrier free for nearly all people; the vehicle should look nice

1 For a human person to have no reason and having no task can as such be a psychological problem, which can turn this human persons into a problem for himself/ herself and some other humans, how to overcome this psychological problem. This then is a bootstrapping problem, how to get started, which will not be discussed in this text.
to attract many customers; ...

Depending on time and culture the set of criteria will vary and even in the same culture criteria can change in time. Thus transport vehicles which have been estimated in 1950 in one country have no chance any more in 2020 (perhaps still for collectors of historical pieces). And if one looks to the hot debate about climate change and energy management one can see how a whole industry can come under pressure to change criteria and terms of production, and in this case not only in one country but world wide.

Therefore the detection of a problem \((P)\) depends on the valid criteria which are active in a culture and grounded in the available technology. If some of these criteria are changing this change can induce a pressure to change because by waiting too long with a change either the competition in the market turns into a disaster or the cultural-societal acceptance changes the habits of the customers which will cause a decline of the sales too. This means a problem arises usually by changing the terms of a business in a way which can destroy the business. Any kind of a solution has to tell a story, how one can either keep the business at least going or even improve the business slightly under the new conditions of the market, the culture, and the society.

Thus a problem definition has to tell why a given solution will not work any longer in the upcoming future and what is lacking is a vision statement which says how one can overcome this by changing the associated processes.

**PROBLEM DOCUMENT AND VISION STATEMENT:** Considering these circumstances it is assumed in this text that there are basically two documents: a description of the problem in a problem document \(D_p\) and the description of some improvements in a vision statement \(D_v\).

The problem description \(D_p\) has to give an account of all the factors which are involved in the actual solution and then the identification of those factors which became problematic on account of some change. As clearer as this analysis is, the greater is the chance to find a new way how to proceed in the future.

The vision statement \(D_v\) has to propose some candidates for either to keep the business going under the new terms of business or even to improve it. A vision statement has to give a possible direction for a process of clarification, not the solution as such. It will be the task of an actor-actor analysis process (AAI analysis) to dig into the details and work out a completely specified solution.

While the details of the vision have to be worked out in an upcoming actor story (AS) enhanced by several actor models (AMs) (see next chapters) the vision statement has to give the main guidelines, the leading preferences which should be meet in the intended solution.

In classical requirements engineering (see e.g. the UML standard 2.5.1 (2017), chapter 18\(^2\)) there is no clear distinction between local functional specifications (LFRs) which are defined by the actual situation transformed by a concrete change and non-functional requirements (NFRs) which have to be specified for the whole process. Thus e.g. a concrete interaction of an actor with its environment can be described directly and concrete, but
the non-functional requirement that the whole process should be 'save' or 'reliable' or 'barrier free' has to be specified for all occurring states of the process.

Assuming such a fundamental distinction this text will locate the local functional requirements within an actor story (AS), eventually extended by actor models (AM), and the non-functional requirements in the vision statement.
4

Actor Story - General Concept

OBJECTIVE FOR AN ACTOR STORY: As described in chapter 3 about the problem definition the proposed solution from the vision statement $D_V$ has to be analyzed by the development of a sufficiently concrete actor story (AS) to satisfy the local function requirements (LFRs) eventually enhanced by some actor models (AMs). The non-functional requirements (NFRs) from the vision statement have to be verified by taking into account the whole actor story.

As outlined in the figure 4.1 the general process of generating an actor story (AS) with possible enhancing actor models (AMs) is rather complex with a strong cognitive component which is located in the inner cognitive processes of the participating AAI experts.¹

The internal mental models have to be represented externally by symbolic expressions of some language $L$. Those symbolic expressions representing objects with properties or objects within a relation are called statements describing facts which can be decided as either (i) corresponding to some real fact, (ii) not corresponding to real facts or (iii) actual undefined because there is no real situation available for comparisons. One can also use grades of similarity which allow fuzzy relationships between mental facts and real facts.

The case of correspondence is often described as 'the statement is true' and the case of non-correspondence is described as 'the statement is false'.

For convenience in this text a state $S$ is called a set of facts ($F$) although...
the state S is only a set of expressions called statements and these statements are within the cognition of an expert mapped into facts which can be distinguished as mental facts \((F.m)\) from mental representations of empirical facts \((F.e)\). Thus a correspondence is here assumed to be a cognitive relation between two different kinds of mental representations: those \((F.e)\), which are caused by the perception (and cognitive processing) of assumed empirical facts, and those \((F.m)\) which are produced by cognitive processes only. These mental facts can correspond to some empirical facts \((F.e)\), but whether this is the case is completely arbitrary.

Every situation/state is here assumed to be static. In that moment where a change occurs it is assumed that at least one fact \((f)\) of the set of facts \((F)\) has been changed, either by deletion \((-F)\) or by creation \((+F)\). Thus one can speak of the effect \((E.f)\) of the change between the state before \((S.b)\) and the state following \((S.f)\) as the unification of the deleted and created facts: \(E.f = -F \cup +F\). The following state \(S.f\) is then the outcome of the operation \(S.f = S.b - (-F) + (+F)\).

KINDS OF SYMBOLIC EXPRESSIONS: The process of translating cognitive representations into symbolic expressions is open for a great variety of expressions. In this text there are two favored kinds of symbolic representation: (i) using everyday language \(L_0\) (in this text English), and (ii) mathematical language \(L_m\). These two basic kinds can be extended on demand by (iii) a pictorial language \(L_{pict,m}\) which visualizes the structure of states (Doeben-Henisch & Wagner (2007)\(^2\)).

It has to be kept in mind that the symbolic expressions as such are meaningless! They receive their possible meaning within those cognitive processes which are mapping different kinds of mental structures \((T.m)\) into a set of symbolic expressions \((L)\). If we call this mapping the meaning function \(\mu\) of the language \(L\), written as \(\mu : T.m \leftarrow L\), then \(\mu(L)\) produces the meaning of the expressions of the language \(L\) and \(\mu(T.m)\) produces the language expressions which are used to encode the meaning by these expressions.

SEMIOTIC ACTORS: This language game of expressions as elements of a language and meaning associated with these expressions encoded in the internal states of an actor leads to a minimal theory of language usage, which traditionally is handled within semiotics (For a good overview of the whole field of semiotics see Nöth (1990, 2000)\(^3\). I have transformed some of the classical approaches – especially that from Charles Morris (1938, 1971)\(^4\) – into a concept of the semiotic actor extended by a framework for cognitive processes enabling mental structures (cf. Doeben-Henisch (1998, 2007)\(^5\)).

Figure 4.2 provides a basic outline of this actor based cognitive semiotic framework. The main idea is given in the assumption that the inner states of a semiotic actor contain different kinds of mental structures which are processed by the brain. And to distinguish those brain processes which are related to mental facts from all the others (no sharp boundaries!) this subset of brain processes is called cognitive space. The main components


of this cognitive space are processes related to *input* (perception), to *output*, to representatives of *symbolic expressions* as well as representatives of *meaning correlates*, as well as the overall *meaning function* mapping symbolic expressions into meaning correlates and vice versa. The meaning correlates are assumed to be *fuzzy* and *dynamic* structures with many inter-dependencies. Furthermore it is assumed that meaning functions are always embedded in some *context* which implicitly defines different kinds of *conditions* which have to be taken into account before a meaning function will *match* a *real* situation *external* to the inner states. Thus if there occurs an external (real) symbolic expression $e_L$ of some known language $L$ then a semiotic actor which has learned the language $L$ has some probability that his internal states *automatically* (unconscious) *activate* some meaning functions which in turn activate possible mental meaning correlates and ‘in the light’ of these activated meaning correlates the semiotic actor perhaps can *identify some real matter* – including its context – which matches with the activated mental structure sufficiently well. In that case the semiotic actor *interprets* the matched meaning correlate as the *intended meaning* of the symbolic expressions. This means that for the semiotic actor there ‘exists’ a meaning function ‘in his head’ but not in the external reality. Those semiotic actors which do not know the language $L$ will not be able to ‘see’ this meaning function. This everyday fact reveals the eminent constructive part of available knowledge to see different realities whereby there is only one real world.

**MATCHING REALITY:** Every usage of a language whose expressions are assumed to correlate somehow with a known meaning which to some degree is also related to the external, empirical world has to deal with the *matching of internal, mental structures* – the assumed encoded meaning correlates – and some parts of the real world. Otherwise symbolic language would not be useful for *communication* and communication mediated...
cooperation. This empirical aspect of everyday language usage will in this

text be assumed to be a basic feature of the usage of some minimal formal

language $L_m$.

We assume a minimal formal language $L_{m.0}$ with the following elements:

\[
L_{m.0}(L) \iff L = (E_{\text{Obj}}, E_{\text{Prop}}, E_{\text{Rel}}, F, T) \tag{4.1}
\]

- $E_{\text{Obj}} := \text{Object names}$
- $E_{\text{Prop}} := \text{Property names}$
- $E_{\text{Rel}} := \text{Relation names}$
- $F := \text{Fact statements}$
- $E_{\text{Prop}} \times E_{\text{Obj}} \subseteq F$
- $E_{\text{Rel}} \times (E_{\text{Obj}})^n \subseteq F$
- $T := \text{Text}$
- $2^F \subseteq T$

A simple example: We assume as a simple text $T_1$ the following set

of expressions: \{HOUSE(H), DOOR(D), PERSON(P), OPEN(D) PART-

OF(D,H)\}. An assumed translation into everyday language could go as

follows: There is an object with name 'H' which has the property to be a

house; another object with name 'D' which has simultaneously the property
to be a door and the property to be open; another object with name 'P' and
the property to be a person, and finally it is stated that the two objects with
the names D and H are embedded in a relation 'PART-OF', i.e. the object
with name D is assumed to be part of the object with the name H.

To apply a minimal formal language $L_{m.0}$ to reality we need a non empty
population of semiotic actors $A_{\text{sem}}$ which have learned to use the minimal
formal language $L_{m.0}$ with an internal encoding for meaning correlates
connected to the expressions.$^6$ Furthermore it has to be assumed that

semiotic actors are always part of some real world situation.

If a semiotic actor $A$ would utter (or write or ...) the text $T_1$ which shall
describe a real situation $S_1$ then we can distinguish the following matching
cases:

1. There is according to the learned meaning function $\mu$ of the language
$L_{m.0}$ a match between text $T_1$ and the intended real world situation $S_1$
which is given as a perception, i.e. there is a house with an open door
and a person within this perception. In this case one would call such a
statement with regard to the mental relation between known = mental
representation and perceived = real representation a true statement.

2. Parts of the real = perceived situation $S_1$ do not match, e.g. the per-
ceived door is closed although the text states that the door is open. If one
assumes that the property of being open is the logical negation of being
closed then one would say that this statement is false.

3. The actual real situation where the semiotic actor is located has no real
counterpart to the encoded meaning of the text $T_1$. In this case the
semiotic actor cannot decide whether the text $T_1$ is true or false; in that
case the text is undefined.

$^6$ This encoding for meaning correlates is here called the meaning function $\mu_{L_{m.0}}$. 

The used language $L$, as well as the presupposed meaning function $\mu$ can be
used to define a language community $\text{COM}_{L,\mu}$. 
While these three cases are really base cases there exist in everyday communication many variants of these cases. Two main versions are mentioned here:

1. Very often one does not use such clear cut cases as mentioned above but one works with some grades of similarity. Thus the one object with the name ‘P’ is associated with the property ‘PERSON’ but this association is only stated with a similarity of say 75%. There are some aspects in the appearance of this object which do not fit completely with the associated property.

2. If an object is associated with a property or a relation which can change then such a change is often not precisely predictable but is associated with some probability $\pi$. Therefore if the object with name ‘D’ is at a certain point of time $t$ associated with the property ‘OPEN’ then there exists some probability $\pi$ that this property can be substituted by the property being ‘CLOSED’. This probability can further be associated with certain conditions which themselves can be connected to properties.

Having these aspects of how a text can match the reality (true, false, undefined, grades of similarity, probability of change), then one can imagine that these different aspects can be mixed up in many ways. A probability of change for the property of OPEN to become CLOSED can also be intermixed with some percentages of similarity in the sense that being CLOSED or being OPEN can occur in a ‘graded way: not completely closed, not complete open, etc.

**GENERATING FOLLOW UP STATES:** If one understands how a semiotic actor A can construct a text T by using a language L with an associated meaning function $\mu$ then one can understand how a semiotic actor can define a possible situation by writing such a text T. Every member of the same language community L can take this text T and can check whether this matches some real situation and how. Instead of describing only given or past situations a semiotic actor can also use such a text T to describe a possible future situation and it is the task of experts to find possible realizable changes which can be applied on the actual situation $S^*$ in a way that it generates one – or more – new situations $S^+_{i}$ in the future to become real.

This induces implicitly the dimension of time: to speak of now and after or follow up or past presupposes that every participating expert actor can distinguish in his cognitive space such order relations interpretable as representations of some real occurrences. While the reality is always a NOW for every kind of an actor it has been shown to be constantly changing. This constant changes can only be detected as changes while the cognitive space of an actor can store somehow a ‘now’, can remember somehow stored items, can compare – mostly automatic (unconscious) – stored items with actual (now) items and can draw some conclusions from these comparisons, e.g. establish an ordering relation as ‘BEFORE(A,B)’ or ‘AFTER(B,A)’ etc. The old habit of using nature-based cyclic changes like day-night cycles has been enriched in modern times by mechanical clocks.
which generate with appropriate precision time events – often called 'ticks' – which are mapped into number signs which then can be used to label these ticks like \{1,2,3, \ldots \} or \{07:27:33\} or \{June 28, 2019\} etc.

**CHANGE:** Now, if there is a dimension of time available with the timely ordering for a state S being before, after or equal to another state S', one can define a general concept of change based on the available fact-statements F of a given state S: a change X from given state S to some follow-up state S' is defined by a set of fact-statements named -F which has been deleted going from S to S' or/and a set of fact-statements named +F which has been added in S' compared to S. If one calls the set \{-F, +F\} the effect set X.e then a change contains at least a non-empty effect set X.e. If T is the text describing the state S then one can construct the new text T' describing the follow-up state S' with the operation: 
\[ T' = T - (-F) + (+F). \]

Usually a change X happens not 'from nothing' but is associated with a condition (X.c) which has to be given that a change takes effect. The condition X.c is nothing else as some subset of the given state S written as \( X_C \subseteq T \). Another aspect is usually that an effect X.e will not necessarily follow the fulfillment of a condition X.c but restricted to some probability \( \pi \in \Pi \). Thus we have the configuration, that the effect X.e of a change X will take effect with some probability \( \pi \), if a certain condition X.c will be fulfilled in the actual state S.

**GENERATING AN ACTOR STORY (AS):** Putting all these elements together it is only a small step to a complete actor story (AS). From a formal point of view one can use the mathematical concept of a graph \( \Gamma \) which will be expanded by some additional properties.

An ordinary mathematical graph is defined as follows:

\[
\Gamma(g) \quad \text{iff} \quad g = \langle V, E \rangle \\
V := \text{vertices} \\
E := \text{edges} \\
E \subseteq V \times V
\]

Related to the case of an actor story (AS) the vertices have to take the role of the situations (or states), and the edges represent the transitions from one state S to the follow-up state S'. To include this additional information one has to install first a mapping from vertices V into the set of fact-statements F, written as:

\[
\lambda : V \longrightarrow 2^F
\]

Thus, having some vertex \( v \in V \) the expression \( \lambda(v) = T \) and T is a subset of \( 2^F \).

To include the change-descriptions X associated with probabilities \( \Pi \) into the transitions one can proceed either by changing the definition of an edge or one can analogously to the facts establish a new mapping from edges into change descriptions.
Thus having an edge $e = (v, v') \in E$ with the change-description $(X_c \times \Pi \times X_e)$ then the text $T = \lambda(v)$ has to have the change-condition $X_c$ as a subset to activate the possible change $X_e$ with probability $\Pi$.

The follow-up text $T' = \lambda(v')$ can then be computed by the operation $T' = T \cup X_e$ with $X_e = \{-F, +F\}$.

Putting all pieces together we get the extended definition of an actor-story $\Gamma_{AS}$ as follows:

$$\Gamma_{AS}(g) \; i f f \; g = (V, E, F, X_c, X_e, -F, +F, \Pi, \lambda, \epsilon) \; (4.5)$$

Thus an actor story (AS) is basically a graph whose vertices are associated with fact-statements constituting a text which represents some potential state/situation, and edges which are labeled with change-descriptions $(X_c \times \Pi \times X_e)$ which determine under which condition $X_c$ with which probability $\Pi$ a certain effect $X_e$ will happen. Because time is another important aspect of change one can include explicitly some information of the duration until an effect can begin and will end.

**ACTOR STORY PROCESSING:** The definitions of an actor story so far describe only the descriptions of states or intended changes, but they do not explicitly define an operator which takes texts and changes as input and generates the follow-up text as output. In this text this processing knowledge has been described rather informal. To make it explicit one has to define an automaton $\alpha$ to do this job. This will be done later under the heading of simulation.

**UNIFYING STATES:** If one defines different actor stories with different sets of states and edges then the question can arise how one can synchronize these different subsystems. There are some cases to distinguish:

1. If there are $n$-many different states to unify then one declares a new super-state where all the other states are sub-states.

\[\text{Think about a city with different subsystems for demography, budget, water supply etc.}\]
2. If there are no relations between the sub-states then nothing else will happen. Every sub-state will be processed with its own change-rules as before.

3. If there shall exist a new relation R between two before different states, then there must in every participating state of the relation a variable be created which will be part of the relation. Change rules can then become influential to another state if the new relation R makes an influence explicit. **Example:** If one actor story AS1 deals with the population dynamics of a city with a population POP, the birth-rate BR and the death-rate DR, and another actor story AS2 deals with the water-supply for this city with the actual water reservoir WR, the possible input to this water reservoir from some spring SPR, and the water consumption of the city WCN. Unifying both systems would require to relate the population POP with the water consumption WCN by some new mapping like $\text{wcnpop}(\text{POP}) = \text{WCN}$. For to extend the two old actor stories AS1 and AS2 to a new unified story $\text{AS12} = \text{AS1} \cup \text{AS2}$ one has then only to add some new change-rule $\text{wcnpop}()$ to the unified list of change rules $X_{12} = X_1 \cup X_2 \cup \{\text{wcnpop}()\}$.

From this follows that the unification of before separated actor stories AS1 and AS2 requires in the worst case the introduction of new change-rules associating two before unconnected variables with a new function. This induces a **cognitive enrichment** of both actor stories in the unified version.
Actor Story - Normative Concept

NORMATIVE ACTOR STORY (NAS): In the preceding chapter 4 the concept of an actor story has been described in the general case without assuming special preferences. This is manifested especially in the format of the change statements $X$ which allow for nearly infinite change statements with a great variety of probabilities how often some change can happen.

In an actor story serving the needs for a vision statement $D_V$ with many explicit and – to work out – implicit requirements the kinds of changes, their probabilities and effects have to be 'tuned' according to the vision statement. This induces the need for probabilities nearly at 1 written as $\pi \approx 1$. Clearly there will still be many factors as part of the realizing situations which are below 1, $\pi < 1$. Thus even a normative actor story (NAS) will be a mixture of different kinds of probabilities $\{\Pi_V, \Pi_S\}$ where $\Pi_V$ denotes the probabilities induced by the vision statement and $\Pi_S$ denotes the probabilities induced by the assumed situation (S) in which the events are occurring.

TASK INDUCED ACTOR REQUIREMENTS (TAR): One consequence of the normative character of a vision-depending actor story is that there will occur many actions required from the participating actors which in turn presuppose certain capabilities on the site of the actors. Thus e.g. it can be presupposed that an actor has some visual perception with certain characteristics or some auditory perception or some kinds of memory etc. Therefore it will be necessary for a complete specification of the participating actors to sum up all the different individual requirements from the different states and changes of the whole actor story into one coherent profile which in this text will be called task induced actor requirements (TAR).

Thus every complete actor story is accompanied by task induced actor requirements for every participating actor. And the later to be described actor models (AM) have to match these profiles.

ACTOR INDUCED ACTOR REQUIREMENTS (AAR): While a normative actor story (NAS) induces preferences for all the actions which shall ($\pi \approx 1$) happen realized by certain actors, one has a special situation if one is afterwards looking for real persons which shall do the real job in the real world. The normative actor story tells everybody what should happen and what is assumed to be an available capability for the different actors, but except for the participating machines which – ideally – have been built
according to formal specifications (normative actor stories with TARs) the biological systems – animals as well as humans – can not be assumed automatically to match the task-induced actor requirements. A collection of tests has to verify how the capability profile of the biological actors actually is working, summarized in *actor induced actor requirements (AAR)*. Depending from the *distance* between the TAR and the AAR one has to decide whether the biological person is too far away from the needed TAR or if it makes sense to organize some *training* to transform thereby the actual AAR into a *modified AAR* AAR+ whose distance δ is below some threshold θ: δ < θ, δ = TAR − AAR+. The other possibility sometimes is to modify the assisting actor (aA) in a way, that the requirements for the executing actor (eA) interacting with the aA is sufficiently *simplified*. This case often overlaps with the requirement for *freedom from barriers*. 
6 Actor Model Embedding

ACTOR MODEL EMBEDDING: In the preceding chapter about the basic elements of an actor story (AS) one can talk about states as sets of facts and some of these facts can be understood as facts describing an object which has some kinds of perceptions as well as actions, but this 3rd-person view of an actor story does not allow for descriptions about the inner states (IS) of such an object which could explain the observable behavior. To talk about such inner states one has to define a separate actor model (AM). To make such potential actor models work in interaction with an actor story one has to define this interaction in a precise way. The primary interface for such an actor story - actor model interaction are the changes which turn a before-state \( S.b \) into follow-up state \( S.f \). Such a change is defined by the change of at least one fact \( f \) which either will be deleted from \( S.b \) to \( S.f \) or will be created from \( S.b \) to \( S.f \).

6.1 Rewriting the Change as an Actor

LOCATE AN ACTOR WITHIN A CHANGE: To understand the interaction of actors in connection with an actor story one must understand the structure of an observable change between two states.

CHANGE AS OBSERVABLE EFFECT: As described in the chapter about the actor story (AS) an actor story can be understood as a directed graph whose nodes are states as sets of facts and the connecting directed edges are possible changes. A change \( (X) \) is described by the differences in the sets of facts between the before-state \( (S.b) \) and the follow-up state \( (S.f) \). With regard to change the following cases are possible: (i) a fact \( F \) from the before-state \( S.b \) will disappear in the follow-up state \( S.f \) represented as \(-F\) or (ii) a fact \( F \) in the follow-up state is new compared to the before-state represented as \(+F\). This set of deleted facts \(-F\) together with the newly created facts \(+F\) is called the effect of the change \( (N.e) \) with \( N.e = \{-F, +F\} \). As soon as one can identify some effect \( N.e \) one can look for a possible source \( (N.s) \) in the realm of the before-state. A source \( N.s \) is a subset of the facts of \( S.b \) which can be identified as preceding the observable effect. Having a possible source \( N.s \) then one can observe with some probability \( p.i \) that the observable fact will occur within a certain time-frame \( \Delta \) defined by two time points \((t, t')\) (cf. figure 6.1).
THE COGNITION OF CHANGES: If one tries to analyze the language game associated with observable changes then one encounters some difficulties. While an object $o$ usually has some permanence one can talk about such an object $o$ by pointing to this object and using names N.o. If a change happens, the previous state $S.b$ which did change will disappear in its original format and will be replaced by a follow-up state $S.f$ revealing something new. In everyday language we have no problem to talk about changes with appropriate names N.x similar to talking about objects, but looking closer one can detect a real difference: although we assume that the new follow-up state $S.f$ can be recognized as new because it is different to the preceding state $S.b$, in the real world this difference is not present. If one assumes that every observer has inner states which enable some memory with the additional capability to remember stored items and being able to compare remembered items with new, present items, then one can explain that we can talk about changes and being able to name the differences based on these cognitive representations and operations. This is depicted in the right half of the figure 6.1. The figure shows a simple model of a minimal cognitive structure with the elements (i) storing perceptions as re-callable items; (ii) being able to compare stored items with regard to possible differences; (iii) identifying possible sources for such effects together with probabilities as well as probable time frames for the occurrence of the effect.

If one makes the assumption that the identified probability $p$ is ‘part of a probability space’ with $\text{sum}(p_i) = 1$ then one has to assume that a source N.s can be associated with different kinds of effects \{N.e_1, ..., N.x_k\} which are exclusive. This means that an actor story with an identified source N.x having different probabilities $p_i$ can have different follow-up states \{S.f_1, ..., S.f_k\}; thus the path containing the state S with the source N.s will be splitted up into different continuations.

The process of the identification of a possible source N.s for an observed effect N.x hides another cognitive property, that of pre-knowledge. To state that some facts are indeed an effect N.x and not only some kind of a difference presupposes that one is able to embed observed differences in some cognitive (=abstract) relation which relates the observed differences to some source N.x. Such a relation is a cognitive fact which belongs to what usually is called knowledge, which is assumed to be located in the inner states of an observer. Without such a knowledge there wouldn’t exist relations and
without relations there wouldn’t it be possible to identify a source for some
differences turning the differences into a possible effect. Thus the detection
of something as being a possible source for an observed effect is completely
depending from a presupposed knowledge. Science has many examples for
detections of differences as effects of some presupposed sources.¹

MULTIPLE SOURCES: If there exists only one source N.s then possible
different effects N.x are exclusive: only one of the possible effects can
happen at the same time. Nevertheless the whole actor story AS has
to be splitted up from that state onward which shows these alternatives.
But there can be more than one source in one state \( N.s_1, \ldots, N.s_k \) and
every source N.s_i can have its own special effects N.e_i. While for each
single source N.s_i there can only one of many effects happen at the same
time, each source N.s_i can generate one effect N.e_i, and these different
effects are simultaneous! And because a real situation does not split up into
alternatives all these effects have to be unified in one follow-up state S.f.

This induces the question how one can unify more than one effect in one
follow-up state S.f?

One possible direction for an answer is the meaning dimension of the
used expressions. Every source N.s is a set of expressions where each
expression is classified as a fact. In the standard situation the AAI expert
has in his cognitive space an encoding schema translating a fact-expression
F into some intended matter which realizes the possible meaning of the
expression. But there is a difference: the intended meaning in the cognitive
space \( M.\text{cog}(F) \) and the meaning in the real world \( M.\text{real}(F) \). There are three
basic cases: (i) \( M.\text{real}(F) \) matches the intended meaning \( M.\text{cog}(F) \) (then
the expression is called true, indicated often as ‘1’); (ii) \( M.\text{real}(F) \) contradicts
the intended meaning \( M.\text{cog}(F) \) directly (then the expression is called false,
indicated often as ‘0’); (iii) The relation between the intended meaning
\( M.\text{cog}(F) \) to the real world is unclear, because there is no matter, which
seems to correspond to \( M.\text{real}(F) \). Then the status of the expressions F in

¹ One of many examples in science: Only
in 1964 it happened that two American
radio astronomers detected signals in
their data (= the differences, which can
become effects) which they discussed
with their colleagues and then came to the
conclusion (= because of presupposed
knowledge about possible relations)
to interpret the signals as the cosmic
microwave background (CMB, CMBR) (=
the differences became effects within a
relation), which could be a remnant from an
eyear stage of the universe (= the possible
source of the effect), also known as relic
radiation. This interpretation presupposed
as knowledge a complex physical theory
about the development of the universe (cf.
the real world is undefined.\(^2\)

Within these basic cases of being true, false or undefined there are some more detailed cases possible. In the real world one has identified some basic laws, which define some constraints for the matching of expressions to matter. Here some basic cases:

1. No two different objects can occupy the same space at the same time.
2. An object \(x\) can not have at the same time property \(F\) as well as \(\neg F\).
3. An object \(x\) can not stay at the same time in a relation \(R\) to some other object \(y\) and not \(\neg R\).
4. An object \(x\) can not have for a property \(F\) within a defined interval \(+/- \epsilon\) the value \(v\) and not.

From this follows that the facts which are part of an effect \(N.e\) of some source \(N.s\) have to be clarified with regard to these truth conditions of the presupposed real world. If one assumes that between to effects \(N.e_i\) and \(N.e_j\) is always a minimal time delay such that the one effect is earlier then the other effect then the realization of the earlier effect comes first. Nevertheless it has to be defined what happens if one effect touches another effect some time later. In many real world situations the hitting of one object by another is not only possible but often intended (some kinds of sports, accidents, battle situations in war, etc.).

**VIRTUAL WORLDS:** In the preceding section only the case of a real world and of the cognitive space of an expert living in the real world is assumed. In science, education, engineering, and different kinds of training parts of the real world are substituted by a model world which mimics important aspects of the real world or plays with a fantasy world to explore new dimensions. In these cases the meaning of the real world \(M_{\text{real}}\) has to be substituted by a constructed artificial meaning relation \(M_{\text{virtual}}\).

**SOURCE AS AN ACTOR:** An important case of a special format of a source is a source structured as an input-output system representing an actor (\(A\)). An actor includes a behavior function \(\phi\) which defines the output (\(O\)) as response to the input (\(I\)) with some sensitivity for the internal states (\(IS\)), which can change, written as \(\phi : I \times IS \rightarrow IS \times O\).

Depending from these basic assumptions about an actor one has to require that a source \(N.s\) which shall be recognized as an actor must consist of a subset of the facts \(F_{S.b}\) of the state-before \(S.b\), which can be divided into three further subsets: (i) there is a subset representing an input-output system assumed to be the actor as an object; (ii) there is another subset of facts which are presupposed as an input to the actor; (iii) there is a further subset of facts related to those facts, which can become changed by the actor as the actors output. The actors output then will be assumed to trigger the observable effect.

As it is known from the real world with the biological systems the same part of the environment – a set of facts as possible input – can be perceived in a different way by different kinds of biological actors. The same holds for

\(^2\) In modern logic such a 3-valued truth system has been extended to many-valued cases or so-called fuzzy systems. But this does not change the basic structure. It gives only more flexibility in practical applications.
Figure 6.3: Source is an actor with input and output
3. If there are multiple sources {
1. To generate a
4. Using the special case of a source as an
2. If there are multiple effects {

After the introduction of the general concept of a source as part of a change and then of the special case of a source which has the format of an actor let us have a look how to apply these concepts.

6.2 How to Apply Changes?

After the introduction of the general concept of a source as part of a change and then of the special case of a source which has the format of an actor let us have a look how to apply these concepts.

1. To generate a follow-up state \( S.f \) for a before state \( S.b \) we have to identify at least a source \( N.s \) and a possible effect \( N.e \) with probability \( p \) and an associated time-frame \((t,t')\). For this we could write as a change-rule \( N.x \):
\[
\langle S.b, S.f, N.s, p, (t,t'), N.e \rangle
\]

2. If there are multiple effects \( \{N.e_1, ..., N.e_k\} \) associated with one source \( N.s \) (obeying the constraint \( \sum(p_i) = 1 \)) then the actor story has to be splitted after the before-state \( S.b \). Thus one has to write down multiple change-rules \( \{N.x_1, ..., N.x_m\} \).

3. If there are multiple sources \( \{N.s_1, ..., N.s_k\} \) in one before-state \( S.b \) then it can happen that each source triggers an effect \( \{N.e_1, ..., N.e_k\} \) and then all these effects have to be unified in the one follow-up state \( S.f \). In this case the change rule \( N.x \) constitutes a whole set of rules like \( \{\langle S.b, S.f, N.s_1, p, (t,t'), N.e \rangle, ..., \langle S.b, S.f, N.s_k, p, (t,t'), N.e \rangle\} \) with different kinds of probabilities, time-frames, and effects for each source \( N.s_i \). A shortened version would read as \( \langle S.b, S.f, \langle N.s_1, p, (t,t'), N.e \rangle, ..., \langle N.s_k, p, (t,t'), N.e \rangle \rangle \)

4. Using the special case of a source as an actor then one has to specify additional subsets in the following way: besides the before-state \( S.b \) and the follow-up state \( S.f \), the source \( N.s \) has to be divided into an input-set \( I_{S.b} \) with the translator function \( \sigma_A(I_{S.b}) = I_A \), the actor-object \( A \), a probability \( p \) with a time-frame, a translator function \( \rho_{S,b} \) of the environment to translate the actor output \( O \) into the effect \( N.e \), which can be written: \( \langle S.b, S.f, \langle \sigma_A(I_{S.b}) = I_A, A \rangle, p, (t,t'), \rho_{S,b}(O) = N.e \rangle \).
5. If an actor has more than one possible output it has to be handled as the case of a source with multiple different effects, i.e., the one before-state S.b has several follow-up states each with another change-rule N.x.

6. Finally, if there exists more than one actor then there exists only one follow-up state S.f – as in the case of multiple sources – but there is a whole set of change rules whose effects have to be unified.

6.3 Actor as a Learning System

ACTOR AS A LEARNING SYSTEM: In the context of an actor story it is assumed that every actor is principally a learning system (LS) with inputs, outputs, internal states as well as a learning function. This induces that an actor can be represented as a change-rule whose actions can cause a state-change depending from the input of the actor in an actual state.

ACTOR AS ACTOR MODEL: If one wants to describe the details of the learning function $\phi$ of an actor including the details of the main sets (I, O, IS) one has to construct an actor model (AM) outside the main actor story. While the actor story is looking to the actors from the outside describing how they behave, how they act in a situation\(^3\), an actor model (AM) is looking to an actor from inside, from the internal states and processes\(^4\).

ACTOR AS AN AUTOMATON: While the general AAI theory can speak of actors in a nearly unrestricted way one has to take some restrictions into account if one transfers the idea of a learning actor onto a computer. Every real computer is an instance of the general mathematical – and indeed philosophical – concept of an infinite automaton called Turing machine in honor of Alan Matthew Turing who invented this concept in a famous paper 1936/7\(^5\), 1937\(^6\). The historical context of these ideas which have lead to this invention before and after is nicely prepared in an anthology compiled by Martin Davis (1964)\(^7\). In the 50ies and 60ies these groundbreaking ideas have been translated in many ways into new formulations, concepts, and one book which presents this new-old mind very well is a book of Marvin L. Minsky (1967)\(^8\). Especially he gives in the chapters 5+6 an account of the Turing machine with notations which have become common today.

\(^3\) This is called the 3rd person view by philosophers

\(^4\) This is called 1st person view from philosophers


\(^7\) Martin Davis. THE UNDECIDABLE. Basic Papers on Undecidable Propositions, Unsolvable Problems, And Computable Functions. Raven Press, Hewlett - New York, 1 edition, 1964

Dynamic AS and AMs Interactions

**DYNAMIC ACTORS:** It has been already stated that in the context of an actor story it is assumed that every actor is principally a *learning system (LS)* with inputs, outputs, internal states as well as a learning function. If one indeed has really learning systems, then this has far-reaching consequences for the course of an actor story.

![Diagram](AS.dyn)

**Figure 7.1:** Outline of a dynamic actor story (AS.dyn) by usage of real learning actor models (AM.learn)

Figure ?? shows the main outline of an actor story with really learning actors. The main points are the following ones: Every actor $A$ of the population of participating actors has at a certain moment of time $t$

1. some *perception* $\pi$ of the actual environment $E$,
2. some already gained *knowledge/ experience* $K$.
3. some *preferences* ($PRF$) what is more preferable in case of more than one option,
4. some *possible actions* $\rho$,
5. some *learning function* $\phi$ to compute possible changes of $\{K, PRF, \rho\}$.

Furthermore it is assumed that the following holds: The participating actors can
6. interact with each other either by
7. communicating with each other by using some language (L) or by
8. coordinating their behavior based on the communication.

TAMING DYNAMIC ACTORS: From these assumptions it follows that a precise forecast of all possible changes in an unrestricted dynamic actor story is not any more possible.

If one – by some reasons – is in need for a certain course of the actor story which can be repeated within given limits $+/-\epsilon$ then one has to embed the learning actors into some training processes $\tau$ where they will become trained to react in the states of the actor story with prescribed responses $\rho$. The prescribed responses should match the prescribed actor story (AS.pre) within some variance of $+/-\epsilon$.

In our everyday world there is a great demand of processes which fit expectations. This means that they widely are following predefined patterns. Thus there is usually no a great demand of dynamic processes. This regulates the needs for really learning artificial intelligent systems strongly.

One side effect of this strong bias for predefined processes is that the learning potential of real learning systems as animals and the homo sapiens is usually not exploited too much. In our everyday world creative learning behavior is mostly perceived as dangerous and un-productive.
EXAMPLE 1 FOR AS-AM INTERACTION:  This text describes a simple example for an actor story - actor model interaction. It takes the example of a simple actor story from chapter ???. In that example ?? there is a person as a user and an electronic door. The person is the executive actor (eA) and the electronic door is the assistive actor (aA). While the executive actor can be assumed as a real learning system eA.ls the electronic door can be assumed as non-learning system which hints to a deterministic system (aA.det).

DESCRIPTION OF AMs:  Analogously to the different modes to describe an actor story one can for the description of actor models use different modes of description. In this simple example the following options will be used:

1. TEXTUAL AM: To begin the description of an actor model one can start with some everyday language (L) with its weaknesses but also strengthnesses.

2. MATHEMATICAL MAM: One can then translate the everyday version by some mathematical expressions (L.math).

3. PROGRAMMING AAM: Finally if one wants to implement the actor model one can translate the mathematical version further into some programming language (L.algo).
**TEXTUAL AM (TAM):** Here a simple text representing a textual version of both actor models.

**TAM for the eA.ls:**

\[\pi: \text{There is a visual perception of the environment} \quad (8.1)\]
\[K: \text{It is known to enter a code C to open the door} \quad (8.2)\]

\[PRF: \text{Use the code C} \quad (8.3)\]
\[\rho: \text{Press the keys of the keypad} \quad (8.4)\]
\[\phi: \text{Keep the pattern stable} \quad (8.5)\]

**COM:** No further communication necessary \( (8.6) \)

**TAM for the aA.det:**

\[\pi: \text{There is a perception of the keys pressed} \quad (8.7)\]
\[K: \text{It is known to open the door after receiving code C} \quad (8.8)\]

\[PRF: \text{Stay with code C} \quad (8.9)\]
\[\rho: \text{Open the door if code C has been entered correctly} \quad (8.10)\]
\[\phi: \text{Follow the pattern} \quad (8.11)\]

**COM:** No further communication necessary \( (8.12) \)

**INTERACTIONS:** Given the above TAMs one can describe the interactions of the actor story with regard to these actor models as follows:

1. **AS:** There is an electronic door D with a keypad K. The door is closed. Before the door stands a person A, which is able to enter a code C into the keypad K. **AM eA.ls:** The person sees the electronic door with its keypad closed, and while the person knows that it has to enter the code C to open the door the person decides to start the action to enter the code C. **AM aA.det:** The electronic door does not sense any key pressed therefore it stays unchanged.

2. **AS:** The person A enters a code C into the keypad K and causes an effect. **AM eA.ls:** The person pushes those keys of the keypad which correspond to the known code C. **AM aA.det:** The electronic door senses certain keys pushed. These correspond to its known code C. Therefore the electronic door opens the door.

3. **AS:** The door is open. The goal-state has been reached. **AM eA.ls:** The person perceives visually that the door has opened. The goal has been reached. **AM aA.det:** The electronic door has opened the door and stays quiet.

This approach is very informal. One still very excellent example how to formalize an actor model in accordance with empirical psychology is still the book of Card, Moran, and Newell (1983)\(^1\). They applied the whole apparatus of empirical psychology to the case of actors and their behavior. For the formalization they introduced in their chapter 5 additionally the GOMS model, which is in use until today.

Testing An AS

If an actor story AS has been constructed one has to check the cognitive plausibility of the actor story as well as the usability of the intended assistive actors (aAs) by the intended users.

The cognitive plausibility is located in the relationship between the knowledge of the stakeholder and the possible experience when testing the actor story in a simulation. If the real experience within a simulation differs from the given experience in the brains of the stakeholders than the cognitive plausibility of the actor story is low, eventually too low.

The usability of the intended assistive actors (aAs) is located in the relationship between the intended executive actors (eA) and a preliminary mock-up of the intended assistive actors (aA). While the intended executive actor tries to realize a process which is in agreement with the actor story it has to be empirically measured (i) to which degree the intended executive actors are able to realize the actor story with this mock-up and (ii) it should be subjectively measured to which degree the intended executive actor is satisfied with this process in an emotional dimension.

USABILITY TESTING - THE GENERAL SETTING: The basic outline of an usability test is shown in the figure 9.1. For more details see e.g. Lauesen (2005), chapters 1 and 13, Dumas and Fox (2008), chapter 57, and Dix et al. (2003), chapter 9.

If the specification of a normative actor story (NAS) together with actor models (AM) as well as the task induced actor requirements (TAR) are completed, then it is highly recommended to test these concepts in reality. Because in the phase of the AAI analysis there exists not yet an implementation of the assisting actor (aA) with its interface a test has to improvise in some sense.

With regard to the intended executing actors (eA) it is possible to recruit some test persons. One has to evaluate the actor induced actor requirements (AAR) profile, compare this with the task induced actor requirements (TAR) profile and if this distance is small enough (or can be made small enough) then one can run a usability test with these test persons.

With regard to the assisting actor (aA) one can built a mock up which presents for the test persons all important properties of the intended assisting actor without having implemented the assisting actor. The idea is to check the usability of the intended assisting actor before the costly implementation will be started.
Figure 9.1: Usability Testing using a normative actor story (NAS) as a norm for testing
Having a test person and a mock up one needs additionally a facilitator who organizes the test and who does the communication with the test person. The facilitator needs some more observers which are trained with the normative actor story and which will observe the behavior of the test person and they have to classify this behavior according to the actor story requirements. Additional technical equipment can be helpful for data gathering, but not necessarily.

**USABILITY TESTING - TEST RUN AND EVALUATION:** Figure 9.2 gives an overview of a minimal test scenario. After a general textual and verbal instruction about the task by the facilitator to the test person the test person shall start to do the described task within a given time window \((t,t')\). The time window is an estimate for an average time for the test experimentally tested before with some other test persons.

During the test the test person is alone with himself/herself. If a situation occurs, where the test person is unsure what to do next he/she can take a
look to the help manual which is given as textual AS as well as as pictorial AS based on the pictures of the mock-up in the different states of the AS. This minimizes the available time for execution.

The observer can check whether a test person solves the expected transitions according to the TAS and the PAS successfully or not. Looking to the help manual is an additional special information. Furthermore the time needed for a transition is measured.

When the official time is over the facilitator can hand out a small questionnaire to the test person and invite the test person to answer these questions. The main question is targeting the subjective feelings of satisfaction with the whole process and the additional question(s) to those circumstances which can be associated with these feelings. Usually there are cognitive matters like lack of knowledge or misunderstanding or special feelings which suppress an expected behavior.

As described before in the general text one should take into account that every biological system, especially a homo sapiens, is a general learning system (GLS) which is permanently in a learning mode. From this follows that a human user as an executing actor would run another test highly probably differently to the preceding one, and this would also be valid for another third test, and so on. Because the space of possible configurations in the realm of one actor story is somehow finite, there will be a finite number of repetitions of the test when the test person will be able to do the test with approximately 100% of success in a minimal time without having the need to consult the help manual. How many repetitions are necessary to get an adequate picture of the learnability of a task is actually an open empirical question. Here we assume that at least three repetitions are necessary to get some minimal impression of the changes in the response of the test persons. Another open question is the duration of the time between the repetitions. Here it is assumed that a general learner can learn best if the interrupting time is not to great, whatever this means.

After all there are several data from the test available:

1. For every of the n test runs there are success rates between 0% and 100% which allow the construction of a learning curve: getting better or not.

2. For every of the n test runs there are associated with the success classifications also help actions or not (realized as consultations of the help manuals).

3. For every of the n test runs there are time recordings for every transition making transparent which transitions needed the most time.

4. From the subjective questionnaire one can get hints which circumstances have been influential to support good or bad feelings.

The subjective information can either correlate with the objective findings of those transitions which worked fine or those which caused problems, or there are no detectable correlations. Nevertheless even in this uncorrelated case the statements of the test persons can be valuable hints for non-observable factors which influence the behavior of the test persons,
eventually only afterwards in subjective decisions to buy such a product or not.

**HOW MANY TEST PERSONS ARE NEEDED?**  One of many questions which can be raised in the context of usability testing is the question 'How many test persons are enough?' A short overview of the discussion can be found in Dumas & Fox 2008:p.1140⁴. There exists some consensus that in many cases 5-8 test persons are sufficient to detect about 80% of the important problems. Nevertheless this point should be taken with caution. There are many factors which can change this estimate. If e.g. the task is very complex it is usually not possible to test sufficiently many aspects. On the other side the intention of a usability test is not the clarification of all possibilities but to detect within a short time and with as little as possible numbers of test persons some of the most important problems to enable a further optimization cycle. Furthermore – and this is a rather new aspect of usability testing – a biological system is basically a general learning system (GLS). This implies that a test person as a learning system will never react the same in repeated sessions. Depending from the available feedback a test person will automatically improve its performance, thereby producing a learning curve showing a decrease in the number of errors from test to test and vice versa an increase in success.

**SIMULATION:**  Having an actor story AS and an assisting simulator software σ one can realize a simulation, either (i) purely passive without interactions or (ii) with interactions. In the case of an interactive simulation real actors can interact with the simulation and thereby influence the course of the simulation. A simulation enables a shared experience with a common understanding in all participants of the simulation. The simulation experience can be compared with the available real-world experience of the participants and this allows a special kind of a cognitive test revealing those aspects of the simulation which differ from the known reality. These experienced differences can shed some light on either deficiencies of the simulation or deficiencies of the real world situation.

The introduction of actor models (AMs) simultaneously to an actor story (AS) does not change the concept of a simulation. Actor models occur in the format of a change-rule which in turn is connected to an algorithm which defines its computations.

**GAMING:**  If one extends an interactive simulation with the definition of explicit win-lose states then one can turn a simulation into a game with real actors which can compete and where some of the participant can become winners. Compared to simulations with their somehow infinite possibilities identifies a game in advance some special states of interest which narrows the scope of the analysis. This helps to focus the test of the process to these special states of interest and enables a much faster clarification of research questions. In this sense is gaming the more efficient way of learning by simulation.

VERIFICATION OF NFRs; ORACLE: If one has defined some NFRs (non-functional requirements) for the actor story then one can after the completion of an actor story including simulation verify whether the NFRs are true in the actor story with regard to the assumed environment or not. A special case of the verification of NFRs is the oracle function. Because the verification of NFRs is done in the manner of an automated prove with regard to the existence or non-existence of some defined property (associated with a NFR), one can use this mechanism also for to check whether a special state of interest will occur or not occur within a defined time window of all possible simulations. Such a mechanism can be of great help for the analysis of the possible future of a process, especially without having the need to do all the possible (interactive) simulations which is practically impossible on account of the needed time. But because such an oracle-process can only work with the given change-rules as if these will not change and without the non-deterministic behavior of real executive actors the oracle-results have to be used with caution.
Part II

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