

## **The Use of the SaGa Tool for Scenario-based Planning**

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### **Abstract**

This paper describes the Scenario Generator (SaGa) tool that prepares "plausible" futures for use in developing - or testing - managerial plans. SaGa generates adaptive, written scenarios based upon some of the power of systems thinking.

SaGa produces scenarios from the combination of textual and numeric values that are linked into cascades of formulae or decision tables. It provides a written description of the implications of using different sets of input values in a model of complex systems behaviour. Managers with preferences for verbal material can then use these scenarios to consider what preparations should be made to achieve their preferred future.



## The Use of the SaGa Tool for Scenario-based Planning

### Uses of Scenarios

Scenarios have five main uses. They have been used for over 20 years in technological forecasting for corporate plans<sup>1</sup>, in building hypothetical circumstances against which alternatives can be evaluated<sup>2</sup>, in testing for the suitability of human-computer interfaces<sup>3</sup>, in experimental gaming to explore decision-making processes<sup>4</sup>, in constructing rich sets of variables for testing hypotheses and in preparing case-studies for management education<sup>6</sup>.

In essence, scenarios can help in predicting, understanding, and learning about planning skills and processes. They can: build possible futures; model the consequences of taking actions; and form case studies for use in practising skills or to learning concepts. This paper describes the first two uses of scenarios.

Scenarios can be used in future studies for two reasons:

- a. to "predict" the future - so that managers can arrange resources to get ready for it or
- b. to provoke thoughts about what would be necessary "as if" the particular future occurred, in order to test the quality of planning or gather ideas or judgements about better processes.

Forecasting may not be a matter of prediction but of making assumptions about the future that lead to decisions about precautions to take now<sup>7</sup>. Scenarios can be treated as if they were not forecasts but opportunities for managers to understand the "... role of uncertainties and become prepared to take informed decisions that take a range of possible developments into account."<sup>8</sup>. In this usage scenarios can be used to test or select options according to their perceived impact upon the hypothetical situations.

Scenarios can build "... intuitive, holistic, views of plausible realities or futures"<sup>9</sup> - that are corporate visions. There is a strong and growing move to the use of visions as the focal point for corporate and Information Systems planning<sup>10</sup>.

Scenarios can provoke discussions of issues. They can be used to explore how different people perceive the future, in order to see if there is any common ground in their perceptions of what are the important issues<sup>11</sup>. They can encourage detailed considerations of cause-and-effect, as well as strengths and weaknesses of plans. They can support building "future state visions"<sup>12</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> See Garrett (1993), Godet (1987), Makridakis (1990), Martino (1972) for examples of how scenarios have been used in technological or economic forecasting.

<sup>2</sup> O'Connor and Edwards (1976)

<sup>3</sup> See Campbell (1992), Nardi (1992) for the debate about the value of scenarios, of various types, testing the 'useability' of interfaces for computer systems

<sup>4</sup> Moynihan (1987), Pruitt and Kimmel (1977)

<sup>5</sup> Kirs, Sanders, Cerveny, and Robey (1989)

<sup>6</sup> Graham (1988)

<sup>7</sup> Ackoff (1993) makes this point well: we do not have to forecast a flat tyre will occur on this trip in order to carry a spare; we only need to assume that one will be needed some day.

<sup>8</sup> Bunn and Salo (1993)

<sup>9</sup> Taylor (1991)

<sup>10</sup> Ackoff (1993)

<sup>11</sup> Kendall, Kendall, Smithson, and Angell (1992)

<sup>12</sup> Stewart (1993)

Even the act of merely building the scenario can have an important role in clarifying assumptions or planning processes. "Forecasting is an art - on a scientific basis"<sup>13</sup> summarizes some of the approaches for the use of scenarios in forecasting.

There are different types of scenarios. Exploratory scenarios can be realistic but not surprising; anticipatory scenarios can be more surprising, leading to more ideas about possible options for action<sup>14</sup>. Other terms used to describe the different types of futures scenarios include: descriptive/normative, trend/ peripheral, deductive/ inductive. In some uses of scenarios for forecasting, several scenarios are drawn up for different points along a time-line. In other cases, several scenarios are designed to show "most likely" or "most impact" futures at the one point in time<sup>15</sup>. There is a need to have different tools to prepare these different types of scenarios.

Scenarios should be credible, comprehensive, consistent, and coherent<sup>16</sup>. They should be plausible, representative, relevant<sup>17</sup>, and transparent<sup>18</sup>.

#### **Difficulties with Scenarios**

There have been constant debates about how scenarios should be constructed. These debates<sup>19</sup> include: whether causal or correlational cross-impact analysis should be used to determine the "most likely" combination of driving variables; how scenarios can be made internally consistent; how the bias of the experts building the scenarios can be avoided. If different scenarios are to be used, in order to ensure that the vividness of presentation does not lead to different responses, they need to have the same level of detail and imagery. Scenarios should be capable of bringing out the actions of actors in the scenario, even including role-playing<sup>20</sup>.

Building a scenario for futures planning can take over 12 months<sup>21</sup>, involving several people. Accordingly, the number of hypotheses, drivers, or variables captured in the scenario could be limited. There is a need for a tool that can be used readily to build a number of consistent scenarios.

#### **Uses of Systems Dynamics**

At the same time, Systems Dynamics models also have been used for a number of purposes. It has been used to model the effects of variables over time and with complex interactions, in order to describe, decide, or learn about the operations of business or physical systems.

Systems Dynamics models have been used to describe the behaviour of systems as part of forecasts, such as the Club of Rome models of natural resource consumption<sup>22</sup>. These descriptions have been used as the basis for recommendations for policy. They have been used for developing strategies for meeting the range of forecasted issues, such that contingency plans can be developed or the strategies are made flexible enough to apply across the likely range of futures<sup>23</sup>.

Systems Dynamics has been used to explore the effects of alternative structures or controls upon the behaviour of systems, in order to improve the performance of the systems<sup>24</sup>. Models have been

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<sup>13</sup> Sviden (1986)

<sup>14</sup> Bunn and Salo (1993, p293)

<sup>15</sup> Schnaars (1987)

<sup>16</sup> see Bunn and Salo (1993, p299)

<sup>17</sup> O'Connor and Edwards (1976)

<sup>18</sup> Godet (1993)

<sup>19</sup> Bunn and Salo (1993), Godet (1976), Helmer (1977), Kelly (1976), Mitchell and Tydeman (1976), Schnaars (1987)

<sup>20</sup> Bunn and Salo (1993, p297)

<sup>21</sup> Godet (1993); Huss and Honton (1987) talk about preping essays of 2-10 pages for each of the many descriptors that are to be included

<sup>22</sup> Meadows, Meadows, Randers, and Behrens (1971)

<sup>23</sup> MacNulty (1977); Mobasher, Orren, and Sioshansi (1989)

<sup>24</sup> Wolstenholme and Coyle (1983) gives one example of this application of Systems Dynamics for the qualitative analysis of the performance of systems. Coyle (1985) gives an example of a quantitative analysis.

combined with multiple attribute utility theory in a decision conference to determine the best policy option<sup>25</sup>.

Systems Dynamics models have been used to assist managers to learn about the behaviour of factors influencing the operations of their business, in order to build a "learning organization" that operates more efficiently and more effectively in a rapidly changing environment<sup>26</sup>. There has often been an interaction between systems dynamics and the use of microworlds or games to assist managers to learn about their business<sup>27</sup>. Managers can use these tools to learn about important variables<sup>28</sup>, and the act of building the models increases the insight into the underlying relationships between the components of systems. There are examples of interactions between Systems Dynamics and scenario-based planning in areas such as analyzing the shortfalls in Defence requirements<sup>29</sup>.

Systems Dynamics models can contribute to the production of case studies needed for management education that are "... a consistent and known environment for active learning"<sup>30</sup>. Generic models can be developed to provide the framework for the case studies.

So, both scenarios and systems dynamics can be used to test the quality of planning or to build planning skills.

### Difficulties with Systems Dynamics

These systems dynamics models are very powerful but they need to be more understandable to a wider range of people. Older dynamic modelling packages such as Dynamo or DYNMAP require detailed equations to represent time or event-linked relationships. These equations can be hard to build without a detailed knowledge of the semantics of modelling and the syntax of the package. As well, my anecdotal evidence suggests that it takes time to grasp how to represent generic models and to build realistically complex models. This time could be begrudged by business managers.

The graphical outputs of packages such as *IThink* or *VENSIM* - the "visual spreadsheets" - do enable patterns to be seen at a glance and relationships to be traced in ways that are impossible in text.

However, many people are 'verbalizers', not 'visualizers', and they have considerable difficulty interpreting graphical material, either in the diagrams or in the graphically presented results<sup>31</sup>. Many of the senior managers who would make use of scenarios come from legal, clerical, or accounting backgrounds - they are verbalizers. There is a need for "... word-and-picture maps to be built at the level of policies"<sup>32</sup>. There is a need for a method of building models of business that are readily understood by verbalizers as well as visualizers.

Of course, the quality of the systems dynamic model is a direct result of the quality of the relationships linking the variables in the model. Dimensional analysis, 0-1 testing, and other techniques can be used to see that the equations of the model are internally consistent. The model can be checked by experts to see if they do have at least some face validity. The models can be

<sup>25</sup> Reagan-Cirincione, Schuman, Richardson, and Dorf (1991).

<sup>26</sup> Of course, this use of systems dynamics is represented by the work from the Sloan school at MIT exemplified by Senge (1990), amongst others. Others using systems dynamics for learning include Byrne and Davis (1991).

<sup>27</sup> Morecroft (1988), who was once also of the Sloan School of Management

<sup>28</sup> Senge (1990), Senge and Sterman (1992)

<sup>29</sup> Coyle (1989)

<sup>30</sup> Graham (1988)

<sup>31</sup> Coyle (1985)

<sup>32</sup> Lewis (1976) gives the most complete list of the 15 different cognitive styles, including the differences in the processing of visual information. Sage (1981) also describes the need for, but difficulty in, designing decision support systems that take account of cognitive styles.

<sup>33</sup> Morecroft (1988, p316)

verified in some circumstances, even though the overwhelming number of permutations of variables usually prevents a complete verification and validation.

There is a need for a method for building the models such that the relationships between the variables can be validated and checked for consistency and completeness in their representation.

### **Summary of Needs**

There is a need for a tool that can produce all types of scenarios, including models of complex systems, in written form. The tool must be capable of combining a range of values in a comprehensive, consistent, coherent, plausible, representative, relevant, and transparent manner.

The tool must be easy enough to use to produce several scenarios readily in order to test many plans or to give a wide range of experience to managers seeking to increase their understanding of systems behaviour.

### **Overview of the Design of SaGa**

#### **Intent of SaGa**

This paper describes the SaGa computer-based tool that provides a single "architecture" for meeting the needs described above. It builds all the different types of scenarios, in a way that incorporates Systems Dynamics concepts.

Actually, there is a family of tools<sup>34</sup> based upon a common SaGa "engine". With slight variations in form, SaGa can provide: a set of scenarios containing a coherent set of factors that can be used to explore the consequences of taking action; a vivid description of a future situation, with a list that shows the actions, resources, and policies that are necessary to make that future feasible; a series of case studies that appear to be different on each presentation yet are based upon a common framework; a set of scenarios for a sequential time-frame, under different assumptions about the likelihood of the availability of various resources.

SaGa can be used for other planning tasks apart from these futures-oriented applications. It can be used to: analyze the processes used in organizations to determine where "process innovation"<sup>35</sup> best applies; generate options from lists of alternative components; determine the value-for-money of options in order to evaluate systems designs, policies, or tenders; and to represent the sequence of tasks needed to implement a chosen option.

Regarding the topics of this conference, SaGa supports many of the Sloan School facets of learning organizations<sup>36</sup>. SaGa can assist in developing personal mastery, through case studies to practise managerial skills or the Think! package that I use to overcome the heuristics and biases in human thinking. SaGa can help to build a shared vision, using the Future SaGa version that forms vision statements from requirements<sup>37</sup>.

More pertinently, the version of SaGa described in this paper builds scenarios and mental models. These provoking scenarios and models can get managers to consider alternative futures, so avoiding fixation upon one mental model. SaGa can present systems dynamics thinking in verbal form. SaGa can help the learning organization in many ways.

#### **Building SaGa**

SaGa links snippets into sagas and scenarios. A snippet is a short description of an action or situation, incorporating the effects of linking one or two variables. A saga is a sequence of snippets

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<sup>34</sup> currently written in a compiled form of Hypercard for the Macintosh and in ToolBook for the PC.

<sup>35</sup> I prefer process innovation, the term used by Davenport (1993) rather than the "business process re-engineering" introduced by Hammer (1990).

<sup>36</sup> as best represented in Senge (1990)

<sup>37</sup> Lewis (1994)

arranged into a sequence that maintains a story-line. A scenario is a saga that involves the whole of factors, linked in a complete and consistent way.

The extent of linkage between snippets determines the use of SaGa. Simple snippets give a test of particular facts or procedures. A complex scene provides a test for planning processes.

The steps in building a saga are:

- a. Write scene snippets.
- b. Write snippets that describe the consequences of actions, including slots for variables whose values are determined by links to other variables.
- c. Write descriptions of the alternative values for each variable.
- d. Build links between variables and snippets, allowing the actions effecting the displayed values to depend upon the type of the links.
- e. Build a script that shows the snippets in a coherent, realistic order.

### Scenes

Scenes are descriptions of backgrounds for a saga. The scene describes the nature of the organization or the problem. For example, the scene could be a small business or an Army unit in combat.

Often some scene snippets are given at the beginning of a scenario, as an introduction to the story line. Other scenes can be inserted at various parts of the scenario, to build the atmosphere or series of characterization. These scene snippets are a sentence or two, possibly containing a slot for the random insertion of other text. With randomly selected values it is possible to change the appearance of a scenario without altering its framework.

### Embedded Variables

Each snippet can contain variables (or "slots") that will be filled by alternatives from a list of values according to the selection method relevant for the snippet. For example, [#org.name] and [#econ.trend] are slots for variables that would insert an organization's name in place of the first slot and a short descriptive phrase about the economy in the second slot.

Values are inserted in the slots when the scenario is formed. These values could be determined by random selections from lists provided by the author; the results from applying formulae upon a set of input values; or the results of applying decision tables to the set of input values.

### Linkages

It is the different linkages between variables and between snippets that gives the versatility to SaGa. The different uses of SaGa come from either the different forms of the links or the different directions in which the links are followed.

The links can combine variables in formulae. These variables, in turn, could be either a function of other formulae or direct input. SaGa can model systems behaviour when the formulae take account of the effects of time and feed-back/ feed-forward links are used.

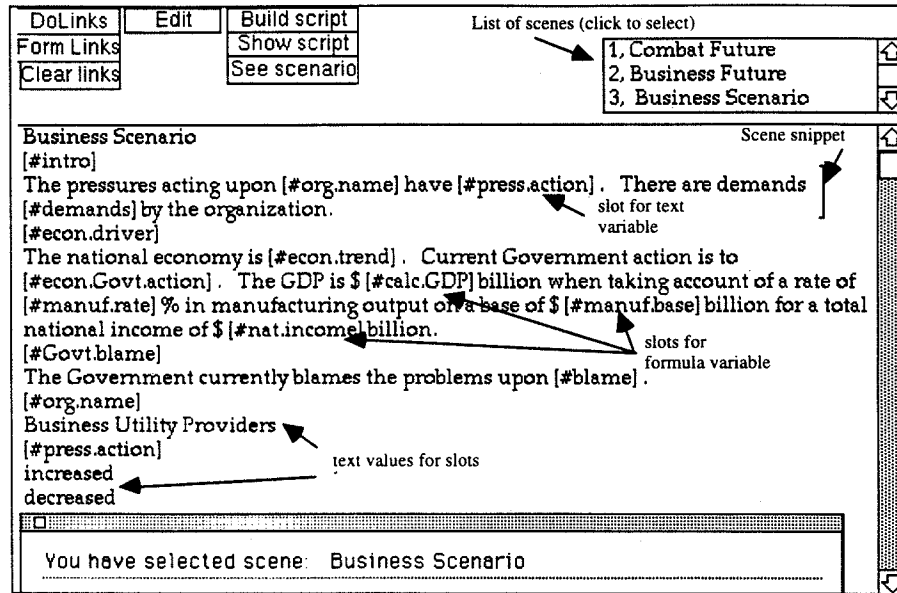
The links can form decision tables resulting from logical combinations. The logical links can represent probabilities or predicates. Fuzzy logic models can be formed from links representing probabilities of association. SaGa can link logical values into Disjunctive Normal Form, representing any logical predicate<sup>38</sup>. In addition, the use of a decision table form enables SaGa

<sup>38</sup> Lewis (1976) gives considerable detail about the use of "fundamental areas" (or DCF) to represent classification rules. This thesis showed that the sequence of information - such as a chain of exemplars - can have a marked effect upon the ability of humans to learn the classification rules. This sequence effect becomes

provide compound causal cross-matrix analyses, which are not possible in most scenario planning approaches.

SaGa can be used to provide a frame-based expert system. The links can cascade through variables, using different signal strengths between 0 and 1 to represent the extent to which the presence of one variable or snippet "fires" another variable or snippet.

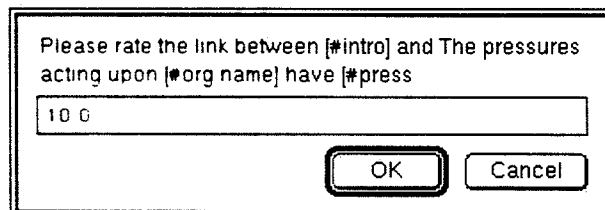
SaGa allows the formula or logical links to be used in any order.



Display 1: Initial display showing the list of snippets and embedded variables.

### Building Links

The author builds the link by clicking on the item to be the "head" of the link and then, in turn, clicking on the items to form the "tail". As each tail item is selected, the following prompt calls for the link information from the author.



The response typed in this prompt determines the type of link that is formed. For example, if a number (0 - 10) is typed then the value is linked to the slot with that relative strength. This strength could be a function of the plausibility that a link exists. If an operator (+, -, \*, /) is typed then a formula linking the selected values is formed. If a letter is typed then a logical link is formed, with the letter (A, I, E) representing the type of logical rule (conjunction, inclusive disjunction, exclusive disjunction, respectively).

The author shows the variables in their place in the snippets by typing [#short name]. The variables with text values are repeated later in the list of snippets, followed by their alternative text values (as for [#press.action] in the example given in Display 1).

important when designing sagas for use by managers trying to discover the concepts determining systems behaviour.



### Building a Script

A script is a sequence of scenes or snippets that will be translated into the text of the final saga. The author builds the script by clicking on the "Build script" button and then simply selecting the snippets or slots in the order in which they are to appear in the final scenario. These selections should be made such that the scenes are in a sensible, coherent order, forming a realistic scenario.

### Using SaGa to Showing Scenarios for Planning

The steps for generating a scenario after the links and scripts have been formed are:

- a. Select the scene that is relevant for the saga. This action calls up the script for that scene.
- b. Provide the input values.
- c. Decide how the values will be selected from lists (randomly, maximum likelihood, or worst impact).
- d. Run SaGa to produce a description of the consequences of choosing the values.
- e. Use the resultant saga as a focus for discussion about what should be done to produce a better set of consequences.

If the variable has numeric or logical values, because it is to be used as input in a formula, then the values are shown in the Input field, as shown in the example given in Display 2.

It is possible to build a set of input values, in separate columns in the Input field. In that case, scenarios can be built for each column of values in turn, so showing "what-if" effects of the different values.

### Insertion of Values

The following prompt occurs after the author clicks the "See scenario".

The response typed in the prompt box determines how values are inserted in the slots. For example, if "max" is typed, then SaGa will use that value in the list associated with each slot that has the maximum link strength. If "random" is typed, then SaGa selects a value randomly from the list of values linked to each slot.

SaGa can produce a cascade of linked values. The value selected in one list can trigger which value in another list is selected, according to the nature of the links between the variables "owning" the lists.

### Resultant Scenario

The scenario will be produced, as follows, after the "See scenario" button is selected. The scenario has replaced all the slots with either some text from a list or the results of a formula.

DoLinks	Edit	Build script	
Form Links		Show script	
Clear links		See scenario	
			1, Combat Future
			2, Business Future
			3, Business Scenario
[#nat.income] 100 200			
[#manuf.base] 25 35 ← Set of input values			
[#manuf.rate] 0.3 0.4			
<p>The pressures acting upon Business Utility Providers have increased . There are demands for reductions in costs by the organization.</p> <p>The national economy is expanding . Current Government action is to pray that rain stops play . The GDP is \$ 107.5 billion when taking account of a rate of 0.3 % in manufacturing output on a base of \$ 25 billion for a total national income of \$ 100 billion.</p> <p>The Government currently blames the problems upon you .</p>			
inserted text values			calculated value

Display 2: Resultant Scenario

### Applications of SaGa

SaGa can be used on an aide to simulate complex organizational behaviour so that the users can see the consequences of taking various actions. Managers can determine which set of input values to use and SaGa will write a story that describes the implications of these choices.

Scenarios can be produced using whichever values authors judge are most likely or most worrisome. The results of running SaGa can be shown to managers in order to provoke their ideas or judgements about what should be done to prepare for the scenario.

It is possible to use SaGa in reverse - as a diagnostic tool. The combinations of variables are altered until the scenario describes the symptoms. The combination that produced the symptoms becomes the diagnosis.

### SaGa and Other Scenario Software

SaGa is most related to the *IThink*, *SimView*, and *VENSIM*. Systems Dynamics tools. These packages simulate or model complex behaviour, representing the effects in animated graphical form. SaGa can act as a verbal front-end to such Systems Dynamics models. Once the simulation has been run, then the results can be fed into SaGa and used to produce a verbal description of the outcomes. Of course, SaGa provides more scene-setting information that is suited for building mental models or sharing visions.

There are software packages for preparing scenarios, such as *BASICS* or *INTERAX*<sup>39</sup> and *SMIC-Prob Expert*<sup>40</sup> for determining cross-impact matrices. These packages do not seem to be able to build models or to represent different scenarios for different scenes.

The Decision Task Analysis Tool<sup>41</sup>, as far as can be seen from the available description, has a basic structure and functions that are similar to those of SaGa. Relationships between decision objects can be used to build a dictionary of links, which can be used to form a cognitive map for validation

39 Huss and Honton (1987)

40 Godet (1991, 1993)

41 Saxena (1993)

purposes. However, this Tool is intended to acquire knowledge about decision-making behaviour with short snippets that elicit such behaviour from experts, rather than to model the future.

Simulations such as *SimCity*<sup>42</sup> can show very graphically what happens when traffic forms grid-lock or pollution becomes rampant. For such cases, SaGa would produce a newspaper that summarize progress<sup>43</sup>.

The ability to insert variables within a common framework is not unique to SaGa. Many authoring languages provide this ability<sup>44</sup>. However, these packages usually allow only simple insertions of single variables. SaGa enables more complex sets of variables to be interrelated, in formulae or in decision tables.

### Examples of the Use of SaGa

Several activities using SaGa are underway at the moment. The results from these activities are not yet available.

One major activity involves preparing a future for the Australian Army. This future will be used to determine the requirements for Army's Information Management plan and for its force capabilities.

Two versions of SaGa are in use now. The first version<sup>45</sup> is being used to build a possible "Day in the Life" of several types of Army managers, to gather reactions and, hence, priorities for requirements that led to the building of these scenarios. The version of SaGa that is described in this paper is being used to build three futures for Army, to see what are the common, 'surprise-free' capabilities that will be needed. Later, Systems Dynamics models will then be used to determine the resources that should be allocated to functional areas to ensure that these capabilities can be achieved.

### Future for SaGa

SaGa is still being developed. The different members of the SaGa family of tools are being combined into an integrated planning support system. Refinements are being made in the use of logical links. A more attractive user interface is being considered. Additional features are being added to SaGa including the ability for managers to "issue commands" (by typing in text) and in effect altering the underlying model, in order to see what would be the implications of these changes.

Above all, there is a need to use SaGa in a wide variety of circumstances. These experiences are needed to see what more should be added to its functions. It would be interesting to see whether the "generic models" developed in the Sloan School or provided with IThink can be developed for use with SaGa.

However, once these developments have been made, SaGa should provide a useful extension to the use of Systems Dynamics models in enhancing managerial performance in the learning organization.

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<sup>42</sup> *SimCity* and *SimCity 2000*, produced by Maxis, simulate the development of a city over time, according to decisions the player makes about how to spend funds.

<sup>43</sup> *SimCity 2000* does provide a newspaper of this interactive nature but it consists of random snippets joined together from a random combination of variables, interspersed with some verbal descriptions of key indicators.

<sup>44</sup> see, for example, *Authorware Professional* or *Hypercard* presentations of mathematical problems

<sup>45</sup> The use of SaGa to gather requirements for future systems is described in Lewis (1994). There is not enough room to describe it here.

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