Realisability of Production Recipes

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Abstract. There is a rising demand for customised products with a high degree of complexity. To meet these demands, manufacturing lines are increasingly becoming autonomous, networked, and intelligent, with production lines being virtualised into a manufacturing cloud, and advertised either internally to a company, or externally in a public cloud. In this paper, we present a novel approach to two key problems in such future manufacturing systems: the realisability problem (whether a product can be manufactured by a set of manufacturing resources) and the control problem (how a particular product should be manufactured). We show how both production recipes specifying the steps necessary to manufacture a particular product, and manufacturing resources and their topology can be formalised as labelled transition systems, and define a novel simulation relation which captures what it means for a recipe to be realisable on a production topology. We show how a controller that can orchestrate the resources in order to manufacture the product on the topology can be extracted from the simulation relation, and give an algorithm to compute a simulation relation and a controller.

1 INTRODUCTION

Automating the manufacture of complex products is key to competitiveness in high-labour cost economies. However, automating the assembly of manufactured products presents significant challenges. It is widely acknowledged that responsiveness and customisability are key to the future of manufacturing [19], resulting in a drive towards “batch-size-of-one” production, in which each item produced differs from the items assembled immediately before and immediately after it [4]. In addition, there is drive towards “manufacturing-as-a-service” and the virtualisation and networking of resources to create Cloud Manufacturing, in which manufacturing software and resources are advertised and shared between members of a cloud [14]. In cloud environments, products may be manufactured by multiple cloud participants, representing multiple different enterprises connected via a supply chain. This trend toward flexible, adaptive, intelligent, and networked manufacturing systems has been termed the fourth industrial revolution or Industrie 4.0, in which decentralised intelligence in an Internet of Things connects embedded production resources to form “smart factories” that communicate and collaborate [12].

There is a growing body of work on automation to achieve flexibility, resilience, and monitoring in manufacturing. For example, Flexible Manufacturing Systems [7, 10, 20] increase the range of products that may be assembled, and Reconfigurable Manufacturing Systems [5, 13, 15, 21] reduce response time. However, to date, there has been little work on the assembly of highly-customised products in a highly-networked manufacturing environment.

In such a setting, the set of products that will be manufactured is not known in advance. Rather, production recipes specifying the steps necessary to manufacture a particular product are matched against virtualised manufacturing resources (such as a plant or assembly line), and the matched resource must then self-configure to assemble the product. Manufacturing control software must therefore make decisions both about whether a particular product can be manufactured by a particular set of manufacturing resources, and how a particular customised product should be manufactured by the resources (the steps an assembly line must perform in order to assemble the product). Whether a product can be manufactured by a set of manufacturing resources is termed the realisability problem; how it should be manufactured by those resources is termed the control problem.

In this paper, we present a new approach to the realisability and control problems in manufacturing. We show how both production recipes and manufacturing resources and their topology can be formalised as labelled transition systems, and define a novel simulation relation which captures what it means for a recipe to be realisable on a production topology. We give an algorithm for computing the simulation relation and show how a controller to manufacture a product specified by a production recipe on a topology can be extracted from the simulation relation. To the best of our knowledge, our approach is the first fully-automated solution to the realisability and control problems in manufacturing. It forms a key component of the Evolvable Assembly Systems (EAS) architecture, an agent-based architecture for manufacturing control software designed to address rapidly changing product and process requirements including batch-size-of-one customised production [8]. The EAS architecture is being evaluated on a number of real-world production system demonstrators, and we illustrate our approach with a simple example of the manufacture of products (automotive hinges) by a flexible assembly platform.

2 ASSEMBLY SYSTEMS

In this section, we motivate and informally introduce the key ideas needed for the formal development, including production recipes, production resources, and their topology.

A production recipe specifies the steps necessary to manufacture a particular product, including the constituent parts, the tasks and associated parameters required to process and assemble these parts into the final product, any tests that must occur to verify the product during and at the end of the manufacturing process, and how to respond to the results of tests (e.g., whether a partially completed product instance should be reworked or discarded following a test).

In industry, when recipe information is passed from the higher-
level enterprise control systems to lower level shop-floor control systems, it is usual for a “recipe file” to be used. Recipe files may be specified in a proprietary format, or the ANSI/ISA-95 (Enterprise-Control System Integration) family of standards [1] (also known as IEC/ISO 62264 [3]). One common approach to implementing the data models in the ISA-95 standard, is to use Business To Manufacturing Markup Language (B2MML) [2] XML schemas. Messages in B2MML contain an operation schedule, which specifies each operation to be performed. An operation consists of one or more requirements (e.g., for personnel, equipment, physical assets, or material), and precisely specifies the location and time the operation should be performed. While languages such as B2MML allow a solution to the control problem to be expressed (i.e., which resource should perform which operation on which part, and when), they do not provide an appropriate level of abstraction for specifying the inputs to the realisability and control problems. In our approach, we therefore specify recipes in a language that has some similarities to Hierarchical Task Networks (HTNs) [11] and Belief-Desire-Intention (BDI) [18] agent systems (see Section 3). For example, like these languages, we allow steps to be partially ordered (including interleaved), and do not specify which resource should perform each step.

A production recipe is enacted by a set of production resources. Each resource has a set of capabilities describing the basic actions it can perform, and in which order. Production resources are connected by transport links (conveyor belts, shuttles, manual item movement, etc.) to form a manufacturing line with a specific production topology. The production topology implicitly determines which production recipes can be manufactured by the line.

To illustrate these ideas, we briefly describe the Precision Assembly Demonstrator (PAD), a flexible assembly platform consisting of four production resources (see Figure 1a): two KUKA robot arms each with an associated workspace allowing the robots to place parts and perform operations, a testing and inspection workstation that can perform mechanical and vision-based tests, and a manual loading and unloading station where pallets of parts can be added or removed. There is additionally a shared, passive tool-changing rack between the two robot arms, and a shuttle transport system.

The shuttle transport system links workstations to give the production topology shown in Figure 1b. The shuttle transports a pallet carrier, which allows one pallet of parts at a time to be moved between resources. The robots use gripper end effectors to pick up or return pallets from the shuttle and place them on their respective workstations, where they can change end effectors from the tool rack and perform a variety of tasks.

The PAD demonstrator’s primary production recipe family is a detent hinge for the use in automotive interiors. The simplest production recipe consists of a hollow plastic hinge consisting of two leaves (an interior and an exterior), which are linked with a metal hinge pin. More complex recipes are achieved by changing the hinge detent force by adding up to three metal balls and springs in slots in the interior hinge leaf. Each spring-ball pair increases the force required to engage the hinge. The robots assemble the hinge using a variety of gripper end effectors. A wide range of new end effectors may be added to alter the capabilities of the robot arms, such as new grippers for alternative hinge designs, glue applicators for securing the hinge pin, or engraving tools to give hinges serial codes. The flexibility of the PAD assembly platform results in both a realisability problem (how to determine if a recipe can be produced on a given set of hardware), and a control problem (how to manage the production of recipes on the hardware).

3 PRODUCTION RECIPE

In this section, we formalise production recipes as labelled transition systems (LTS), where labels are not just atomic steps but complex “task expressions”.

We will make use of two sets: a set $C$ of part constants, which represent parts used in production, and a set of task labels, or simply tasks, which represent operations. The latter set is the union of three mutually disjoint sets: the set of observable tasks $T_{ob}$, which only occur in recipes and non-transport resources; the set of internal tasks $T_{in}$, which only occur in transport resources; and the set of synchronisation tasks $T_{syn}$, which are used to “transfer” parts between production resources. Specifically, $T_{syn} = \{t^{in}_x | x \in N \} \cup \{t^{out}_x | x \in N \}$, namely, the set of $in (t^{in}_x)$ and $out (t^{out}_x)$ synchronisation tasks; parts are moved from resources performing $out$ tasks (releasing a part) to corresponding resources performing $in$ tasks (accepting a part). Further, we introduce the special task $nop$ to denote the special “no-op” task, which represents idling.

Production recipes specify how (though not where) tasks and checks ought to be carried out in order to manufacture a desired end-product. Tasks are specified by task expressions.

The smallest task expression is of the form $t(e, c')$, and is called a parameterised task ($p$-task), where $t \in T_{ob}$, and $e \in C^*$ and $c' \in C^*$ are sequences of part constants such that any constant in $C$ occurs at most once in $e$ and in $c'$. Given a $p$-task $t(e, c')$, sequences $e$ and $c'$ represent the “input” and “output” parameters of $t$, respec-
tively: they represent the part(s) on which t is performed, and the possibly new part(s) that results from doing t. We use e to denote the empty sequence, and denote e by e'' and e' by e'. We sometimes write t instead of t(e, e') when e and e' are not relevant.

For instance, the task cut(c, c1 · c2) represents an operation that takes a part c and produces two parts c1 and c2, whereas the task load(e, c) represents an operation that introduces a new part c into the production facility.

The set of general task expressions is the smallest set of formulas, denoted by \( Lang(T_n) \), generated by the grammar \( T_n := \phi \mid T \cdot T' \), where \( \phi \) is a propositional formula from a propositional language \( P \) and \( T \) is a task expression. A task expression is a formula in the language generated by the grammar:

\[
T := t(e, e') \mid T; T' \mid T\|T' \mid T = T'
\]

The operator "::" denotes a sequence; "\|\" denotes parallel composition; and "\(\cdot\)" denotes interleaved composition. We refer to a p-task or a parallel composition (of p-tasks) as an atomic task expression (or as atomic).

We impose two additional constraints on task expressions:

- any expression \( T_1 \mid \ldots \mid T_m \) occurring in \( T \) is restricted such that each \( T_i \) is a p-task, and for each pair \( t_i, t_j \) of p-tasks, it does not hold that \( t_i \) and \( t_j \) mention the same part, and \( t_i \neq t_j = e \);
- any interleaving \( T_1 \mid \ldots \mid T_m \) occurring in \( T \) is restricted such that each \( T_i \) does not mention operator "\(\cdot\)".

The first constraint restricts parallelism to atomic tasks, and requires that parallel atomic tasks cannot share the same part constants, as a part can be a parameter of only one task at a time. It also forbids two or more parallel tasks with empty input parameters. The second constraint forbids "nested" interleaving.

The general task expression \( ?\phi : T \) specifies that \( T \) can only happen if the guard \( \phi \) holds, based on a valuation for \( \phi \) that is available at runtime (based on data collected in real-time). Since our analysis is instead performed offline, in the remainder of this paper, we will ignore any guard appearing in general task expressions, thus considering any valuation as equally possible. Nonetheless, guards in general task expressions stress the fact that any formula in the language of task expressions \( Lang(T) \) may be associated with a guard.

With these definitions at hand, it is now possible to define our notion of production recipe (or simply recipe). A recipe is a labelled transition system in which labels are task expressions and nodes represent the states of parts in the assembly. This definition essentially allows for loops in task expressions, and for the specification of alternatives among task expressions.

Definition 1 (Recipe) A recipe is a tuple \( R = (s^0, S, L, \rightarrow) \), where \( S \) is a finite set of states, \( s^0 \in S \) is the initial state, \( L \subseteq Lang(T) \) is a set of task expressions, and \( \rightarrow: S \times L \rightarrow S \) is a non-empty transition function. We denote a transition from state \( s \) to \( s' \), with task expression \( T \), either by \( s \xrightarrow{T} s' \) or \( (s, T, s') \in \rightarrow \).

Figure 2 shows an example of a recipe to be executed on the assembly platform in Figure 1. The first two p-tasks request a new pallet fixture \( f \) to be loaded and then separated into the hinge pin \( p \) and hollow hinge \( h \). These are followed by an interleaved composition, which requires glue to be applied to \( p \), and for \( h \) to be engraved with a serial number (in any order). The two parts are then combined to form the final hinge \( h(2) \), by inserting \( p \) into \( h \). The next step requests a visual test to be performed on \( h(2) \), which simply collects test data. After this, the recipe either requests a force test, or for the hinge to be removed, based on the outcome of evaluating guards (not shown) against real-time visual-test data. Similarly, the outcome of evaluating guards against real-time force-test data determines whether the hinge is recycled or stored for delivery.

A trace of a recipe \( R \) is a sequence \( \pi = s_0 \xrightarrow{T_1} s_1 \xrightarrow{T_2} \ldots \xrightarrow{T_n} s_n \), namely, a sequence of states and transitions, of arbitrary length \( n \geq 0 \), such that \( s_{i-1} \xrightarrow{T_i} s_i \) for each \( i \in [1, n] \). If not specified, we assume \( s_0 = s^0 \).

Finally, we assume that cycles in a recipe are bounded, in order to ensure that manufacturing the end-product will eventually cease. Since bounded cycles can easily be removed by unfolding the recipe graph, in what follows we deal only with acyclic recipes, i.e., recipes where the edge-labelled graph \( (S, \rightarrow) \) is acyclic.

4 PRODUCTION RESOURCE & TOPOLOGY

A production resource represents a production "station" (or "cell"), which performs observable operations on parts. A transport resource represents a transport mechanism such as a conveyer belt, which performs internal operations that route parts between stations. We model production and transport resources as labelled transition systems, where a node represents a state of the resource, and an outgoing edge from a node corresponds to a task that can be performed from that node.

Definition 2 (Resource) A production (resp. transport) resource is a tuple \( (s^0, S, L, \Rightarrow) \), where \( S \) is a set of states, \( s^0 \in S \) is the initial state, \( L \subseteq T_{op} \cup T_{syn} \cup \{nop\} \) (resp. \( L \subseteq T_{in} \cup T_{syn} \cup \{nop\} \) ) is a set of tasks, and \( \Rightarrow: S \times L \rightarrow S \) is a non-empty transition function.

Intuitively, the nop task allows a resource to idle for either a fixed or an unbounded number of steps, before and/or after performing other tasks. Note that \( \Rightarrow \) is a function: we assume that when a resource performs a task from a state, there exists only one possible successor state for that task.

Figure 2 shows a simplified model of the resources in Figure 1. Multiple transitions between two states are depicted as one, with labels separated by a comma. Resource \( R_1 \) can load a new pallet (containing a hollow hinge and hinge pin), and also store a hinge for removal or delivery. Labels in \( in1 \) and \( out1 \) are in and out synchronisation tasks, respectively. Resource \( R_2 \) is the first robotic arm in Figure 1, which can either accept (via \( in2 \) ) a pallet fixture and separate it into the hollow hinge and pin, or accept these two parts, one after the other, and then insert the pin into the hinge, thereby again producing a single part. The second robotic arm is modelled as \( R_3 \), which can either apply glue to a given part, or engrave it with a serial number. Resource \( R_4 \) is the testing station, which can first analyse a hinge to gather visual data about its assembly, followed possibly by

\[ A \text{ load}(c,f); \text{ separate}(f,p); \text{ apply glue}(p); \text{ engrave}(h,h); \text{ insert}(p,h,2) \]
\[ B \text{ dtesty}(h,2) \]
\[ C \text{ dtest}(h,2) \]
\[ D \text{ remove}(h,2) \]
\[ E \text{ store}(h,2) \]
\[ F \text{ remove}(h,2) \]
an analysis to gather data about hinge force. The latter is not allowed before doing the former because a wrongly assembled hinge could become damaged if it is manipulated to gather force data. Moreover, due to design constraints, the resource also cannot idle between these two operations, represented by the lack of a non transition.

Finally, $R_0$ is a transport resource, modelling the shuttle system in Figure 1. This resource represents the “legal routes” between production resources: e.g., while a newly loaded fixture can be delivered from $R_1$ to $R_2$, delivering a glued part from $R_3$ to $R_4$ is forbidden, to prevent the part from becoming affixed during force analysis. Thus, intuitively, “out” synchronisations in production resources correspond to “in” synchronisations in transport resources, and vice versa. For example, $out_1$ in $R_1$ corresponds to $tr_{in1}$ in $R_5$, and $tr_{out2}$ in $R_2$ corresponds to $in_{in2}$ in $R_2$.

A production topology (or simply topology) “connects” the available resources via synchronisation tasks, and represents the layout of the production system. Technically, a topology is the cross product of elements in resource tuples, excluding “invalid” transitions, i.e., those having an out synchronisation without the corresponding in synchronisation (and vice versa).

In what follows, we use two auxiliary notions. First, for any pair of states $s_1,s_2 \in \mathcal{S}$ and label $t \in \mathcal{T}$, we use $s_1 \xRightarrow{t} s_2$ to denote $(s_1,t,s_2) \in \mathcal{E}$. Second, we define the complement of a synchronisation task $t \in \mathcal{T}_{syn}$, denoted by $\sim t$, as $t^\alpha$ if $t = t^\beta$, and as $t^\alpha$ otherwise, where $x \in \mathbb{N}$. For instance, referring to Figure 1c, if $t = out_1$, then $\sim t = tr_{in1}$. While, strictly speaking, the definition requires $\sim t = in_{in1}$, in the figure we have used the prefix “tr” for the purpose of readability. Taking inspiration from [6], we define a production topology as follows.

Definition 3 (Topology) Let $R_1, \ldots, R_n$ be resources, where each $R_i = (s_i, S_i, L_i, \Rightarrow_i)$. A topology is a tuple $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{S}_{\text{in}}, \mathcal{L}, \Rightarrow \rangle$, where $\mathcal{S} = \mathcal{S}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{S}_n$ is the set of states; $\mathcal{S}_i \neq \emptyset$ is the initial state; $\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{L}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{L}_n)$ is the set of concurrent tasks; and the transition relation $\Rightarrow$ is such that for any $s_i, s_j, t \in \mathcal{L}$ and $t \in \mathcal{T}$ we have $s_i \xRightarrow{t} s_j$ iff for all $i \in \{1, n\}$:

1. $t_i \notin \mathcal{T}_{syn}$ and $s_i \xRightarrow{t_i} s_j \Rightarrow s_i$; or
2. $t_j \in \mathcal{T}_{syn}$ and $s_i \xRightarrow{t_j} s_j$, and there exists exactly one $j \in \{1, n\}$ such that $s_i \xRightarrow{t_j} s_j$ and $t_j = \sim t_i$.

Thus, the topology depicts the concurrent execution of tasks $t_i$ in different resources. Without loss of generality, condition (2) checks that, within a single transition, a particular synchronisation only takes place between one resource and exactly one other resource. This is because we later use synchronisations to unambiguously transfer parts between resources.

5 REALISABILITY OF A RECIPE ON A TOPOLOGY

We shall now define what it means for a recipe to be realisable on a topology. Our definition relies on some auxiliary notions, particularly involving the movement of parts and the execution of a recipe on a topology.

The notion of a topology as defined above is “static” in that it does not account for parts which are moved between resources and manipulated by them. Thus, given a topology $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{S}_{\text{in}}, \mathcal{L}, \Rightarrow \rangle$, we keep track of the movement of parts (constants) during production via a resource vector $r = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$, where each $c_i \in C^*$ is a (possibly empty) sequence of parts that do not occur anywhere else in $r$; we denote $c_i$ by $r(i)$ for any $i \in \{1, n\}$, and the set of all possible resource vectors as $\mathcal{V}$. Intuitively, we associate each state in the topology with a resource vector $r$, specifying which parts are currently allocated to each resource. Note that each element in vector $r$ is a sequence and not a set: we assume a first-in-first-out approach when moving parts between resources.

Part constants get allocated to resources as p-tasks in recipes are processed. A resource $R_i$ currently in state $s_i$ can execute an (atomic) p-task $(c, c')$ only if (a) the task $t$ is available from state $s_i$, and (b) the parts $t^\alpha$ appearing as the input parameters of $t$ are currently allocated to the resource, namely, $r(j) = c$. After its execution, parts $c'$ appearing as its output parameters (i.e., $t^\beta$) are allocated to $R_j$. For example, the separate $(f, p, h)$ p-task in Figure 2 is executable on resource $R_2$ in Figure 1c only if part $p$ is currently allocated to $R_2$, and the resource is in state 1. Executing the task results in $f$ being “removed” and $R_2$ being allocated parts $p$ and $h$.

Formally, given a task expression $T = t_1 \parallel \cdots \parallel t_m$, a resource vector $r$, a state $s$, and a transition $s \xRightarrow{t} s'$ with $t = (t_1', \ldots, t_m')$, a resource vector $r'$ is an allocation of $T$ to $t$ with respect to $r$, denoted $r' \in \mathcal{A}(r, T, t)$, if and only if

- $\forall j \in \{1, n\}$, either $t_j' \notin \mathcal{A}(r, T, t)$, or $r'(j) = r(j) \vee \exists i \in \{1, m\}$ s.t. $(a) t_j' = t_i$ or $(b) r'(j) = r(j)$ and $r'(j) = t_i$.

- $\forall i \in \{1, m\}, \exists j \in \{1, n\}$ s.t. $(a)$ and $(b)$.

In other words, there must exist a one-to-one mapping from p-tasks $t_i$ in $T$ to observable tasks $t'_j$ in transition $t$, and from the parts associated with $t_i$ to the ones corresponding to $t'_j$ (i.e., $r(j)$).

Allocated parts are transferred across resources by synchronisation tasks. Formally, a resource vector $r'$ is a transfer or “move” of parts from $r$ relative to $t$ (and $t'$ as above), denoted $r' = \mathcal{M}(r, t, t')$, if $r'$ is obtained from $r$ by replacing each $c_i \in r$ $(c_i' = c_1 \cdots c_m)$ with respectively $c_2 \cdots c_n$ and $c_1' \cdots c_n$, only if $t(i) = t'_i$, $t(j) = t'_j$, $t(k) = t'_k$ (for $i \in \mathbb{N}$), and $m > 0$; if $m = 0$, then $r' = r$. For example, the part $p$ in resource $R_2$ in Figure 1c is moved to resource $R_0$ via the synchronisation involving tasks $out_2$ and $tr_{in2}$.

Observe that a resource vector encodes the allocation of parts to resources (that is, which parts are currently allocated to each resource), and part allocations are not considered in the description of the resource itself. In other words, the description of a resource is purely behavioural, in the sense that it encodes the sequence of operations that it can (or is allowed to) execute, which is not constrained by the presence of a part in a given internal state as in the case of, e.g., Petri Nets [17]. The size of a resource vector is thus equal to the number of resources, and the allocation of parts is independent from the current state of the topology. This is an essential point to guarantee our complexity result.

The final auxiliary notion needed to define the execution of a recipe on a topology is the standard notion of a linearisation, which we have adapted for interleaved compositions. Formally, a linearisation $T'$ of a task expression $T = T_1 | \cdots | T_m$, denoted $T' \in \mathcal{L}(T)$, is defined inductively as follows. If $m \in \{1, 2\}$, then $T'$ is any sequence of the form $T'_1; T'_2; T'_3; T'_4; \cdots; T'_m$, where $T_1 = T'_1; \cdots; T'_m = T'_1; \cdots; T'_2$, and each $T'_i$ is a possibly empty sequence. If $m > 2$, then

$$T' \subseteq \bigcup \mathcal{L}(T_1; T'_m).$$

Given a label $t = (t_1, \ldots, t_k)$, we denote $t_i$ by $t(i)$, for any $i \in \{1, k\}$.4

4 Recall that $s = (s_1, \ldots, s_n)$, $s' = (s_1', \ldots, s_n')$ and $t = (t_1, \ldots, t_n)$.
We extend the above notion of executability to traces of a recipe $R$ as follows. A trace $\pi = s_0, r_1, s_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n, s_n$ of $R$ is realisable in a topology $P$ iff (a) there exists a sequence of $n$ couples $(s_1, r_1), \ldots, (s_n, r_n)$ such that $(s_1, r_1) \in \text{NXT}((s_0, r_0), \pi)$ for each $j \in [1, n]$, and (b) $(s_n, r_n) = (s^0, r^0)$. For brevity, we shall write $(s_n, r_n) \in \text{NXT}^n((s_0, r_0), \pi)$. Then, we say that $R$ is realisable in $P$ iff any trace $\pi$ of $R$ (recall that their number is finite) is realisable in $P$ from its initial state, i.e., $\exists (s', r') \in \text{NXT}^n((s^0, r^0), \pi)$ for any trace $\pi$ of $R$.

Finally, note that the definition of realisability highlights how our notion of a recipe is flexible. Multiple branches existing from a given state constitute a universal requirement (AND-nodes), as we need to make sure that, at run-time, any possible trace can be realised. At the same time, task expressions with interleaving represent existential requirements (OR-nodes), as it is sufficient to find a possible realisable linearisation. This makes the control problem in our setting more involved than considering any possible trace of a finite-state machine labelled with atomic tasks (as is the case in Behaviour Composition [9]), or the language expressing the set of legal traces of the system (as for Discrete Event Systems [22]).

5.1 Checking Realisability via Simulation

We can now define the notion of a task simulation relation for a topology and recipe, inspired by the mathematical notion of simulation [16]. Although this notion is generally applied to infinite processes, its application here to finite recipes allows us to capture the realisability property with respect to the state of the manufacturing facility. Intuitively, it relates states in the topology to states in the recipe with respect to current resource allocations, such that each transition (task expression) in the recipe can be executed by transitions (tasks) in the topology, and the same holds iteratively for the entire recipe, irrespective of the actual recipe trace that might be followed at execution-time (which depends on the outcome of evaluating guards in the recipe).

**Definition 5 (Simulation)** Let $P = (s^0, S, L, \Longrightarrow)$ be a topology, and $R = (s^0, S, L, \rightarrow)$ a recipe. A task simulation relation is a relation $\text{SIM} \subseteq \bar{S} \times S \times V$ such that a tuple $(s, s', r) \in \text{SIM}$ implies that for any $T$ and $s'$, if $s \xrightarrow{T} s'$ then there exists a state $g'$ and a resource vector $r'$ such that $(g', r') \in \text{SIM}$, with $(g', r') \in \text{NXT}((s, r), T)$.

We say that a state $s \in S$ simulates a state $s' \in S$ with respect to a resource vector $r$ if and only if there exists a task simulation relation SIM such that $(s, s', r) \in \text{SIM}$. Indeed, many such task simulation relations may exist, each accounting for one or more ways of realising the recipe. Finally, topology $P$ simulates recipe $R$ if and only if there exists a task simulation relation SIM (one is sufficient) such that $(s^0, s^0, r^0) \in \text{SIM}$, where $r^0$ denotes the resource vector (with $|r^0| = |s^0|$) composed of empty sequences, namely, the “empty” resource vector.

**Theorem 1 (Realisability via simulation)** Given a topology $P = (s^0, S, L, \Longrightarrow)$ and recipe $R = (s^0, S, L, \rightarrow)$, the recipe is realisable in $P$ if $P$ simulates $R$.

The proof for this is straightforward, as a task simulation only expresses an invariant property with respect to task allocation (the NXT operator). Proceeding by contradiction, suppose $R$ is realisable in $P$ but that $P$ does not simulate $R$. By the definition of a task simulation operator.
relation, this means that there exists a trace $\pi$ in $R$ such that for any $(z', r') \in \text{NXT}^*((s', r'), \pi)$ we have that $(z', s', r') \notin \text{SIM}$, with $s'$ being the last state in $\pi$. Hence, it can be seen that $\pi$ (and thus $R$) is not realisable in $P$. The proof for the opposite direction is similar.

We conclude this section by observing that our notion of task simulation has some similarity with the notion of simulation between transition systems that has been investigated to solve the problem of Behaviour Composition [9]. However there are some fundamental differences. First, the task simulation relation is defined with respect to complex task expressions that can be allocated to resources in parallel, while the notion of a simulation relation applied to behaviour composition assumes that only one behaviour module at the time is allowed to execute actions. Second, each task in the recipe may here be realised by a sequence of observable and unobservable transitions in the topology, which is a more complex setting than the other.

6 CONTROLLER SYNTHESIS

When it is possible to manufacture a product using the given set of resources, that is, when there exists a task simulation relation between the recipe and the topology, the next step is to synthesise a controller able to orchestrate the resources in order to execute the recipe and thus manufacture the product.

Crucially, the task simulation relation between a topology $P$ and recipe $R$ alone does not hold all the information that is necessary in order to extract solutions: the relation is sufficient to answer whether we can orchestrate the resources in order to realise the recipe, but not how. For instance, given a tuple $(s, r, \pi)$ in the task simulation relation, we know, when considering a transition $s \xrightarrow{T_1T_2s'}$ in the recipe, that there must exist a linearisation $\text{LIN}(T_1, T_2)$ that is executable on the topology, but we do not know which. Indeed, such information is not stored in the relation. The same applies to (atomic) p-tasks: additional information, unobservable transitions may be needed before the p-task can be executed, which the relation does not keep track of.

This additional information is the set of sequences of transitions $(t_1 \cdots t_k)$ in the topology that realise a task expression $T$, for any couple $\sigma = (s, r)$ and $\sigma' = (s', r')$. We denote this set by $\text{TRANS}^\sigma(s, T, \sigma')$. It is defined similarly to the operator $\text{NXT}^\sigma(s, T)$ in Definition 4: an element $(t_1 \cdots t_k)$ is in the set $\text{TRANS}^\sigma(s, T, \sigma')$ if and only if it is one of the sequences of vectors $\mathbf{t}$ corresponding to $k$ recursive applications of steps (4.1) and (4.2) in the definition. Thus, if $(t_1 \cdots t_k) \in \text{TRANS}^\sigma(s, T, \sigma')$, then the trace

$$\mathbf{t} = t_1 \cdots t_k$$

is a trace of $P$. For example, the following sequence of transitions $(\text{out}1, t, t, t, t, \text{in}1) \cdot (t, \text{in}2, t, t, \text{out}2) \cdot (t, \text{separate}, t, t, t)$, with $t = \text{nop}$, is in $\text{TRANS}^\sigma(s, T, \sigma')$, for $s$ and $\sigma'$ as in Figure 3. We omit the full definition for brevity, but we make its steps clearer with an algorithm.

Let $P$ be a production topology and $R$ a production recipe. Suppose that $P$ simulates $R$, i.e., there exists a task simulation relation $\text{SIM}$ between $P$ and $R$. Then, we define a “controller” as a state machine in which a transition encodes a sequence of topology transitions that ought to be executed, given a transition in the recipe.

Definition 6 (Controller) Let $P = (s^0, S, L, \rightarrow)$ and $R = (s^0, S, L, \rightarrow)$ be as above. A controller for $R$ and $P$ is a finite state machine $C = (\text{SIM}, \delta)$, where

- $\text{SIM}$ is a non empty task simulation relation, whose elements correspond to the set of states in the controller;
- $\delta$ is a subset of all possible transitions of the controller.

Figure 4: A graphical representation of a single transition in a controller between two tuples $(s, r)$ in SIM (the first and the last), and therefore states in a possible controller. The states not in bold correspond to “intermediate” steps, namely, applications of the NEXT operator to atomic tasks. For instance, the second transition corresponds to $(z', s', r') = \text{NXT}(s, r)$, separate($f$, $p$, $h$), as in Figure 3. Therefore, the transition in the controller is labelled with $(a)$ the entire task expression $T$ between $A$ and $B$ in Figure 2, and $(b)$ the complete sequence of transitions in the topology that we need to realise $T$, as they appear in this figure. Dashes are used in place of $\text{nop}$ tasks for readability.

- $\delta : \text{SIM} \times \text{Lang}(T) \times 2^\mathbb{L} \rightarrow \text{SIM}$ is a transition function: given a state, an arbitrary task expression and a transitions in a topology, it returns the successor state. Specifically, for any state $(z', s', r')$ and task expression $T$, if and only if $z' \in \text{SIM}$ for some $s'$, then there exists at least one transition $(z', s', r') = \delta((s, r), T, (t_1 \cdots t_k))$, with $(t_1 \cdots t_k) \in \text{TRANS}((s, r), T, (z', r'))$.

Figure 4 depicts a controller between two tuples in the task simulation relation, in relation to the recipe and resources in Figures 2 and 1c.

We use function $\omega : \text{SIM} \times \text{Lang}(T) \rightarrow 2^\mathbb{L}$ in order to “read” the information stored in the controller’s transitions. Given the recipe transition (task expression) that we want to execute, $\omega$ defines the set of possible corresponding sequences of transitions in the topology. Formally, $\omega(\theta, T) = \{(t_1 \cdots t_k) : \exists \theta' : \theta' = \delta(\theta, T, (t_1 \cdots t_k))\}$.

In Section 5, we defined what it means for a recipe to be realisable on a topology. Similarly, we define here what it means for a recipe to be executed on a topology by a controller. First, we say that a trace $\pi = s_0 \cdot t_1 s_1 \cdot t_2 s_2 \cdots t_n s_n$ of a recipe $R$ is executed on a topology $P$ by a controller $C$ if and only if

1. it holds by backward induction that for each $i \in [0, n - 1]$, we have $\omega((s_i, s_{i+1}, r_i, t_{i+1}) \neq \emptyset$ with $\omega((s_i, s_{i+1}, r_i) = \delta((s_{i-1}, s_{i-1}, r_{i-1}, t_{i-1}), (t_i \cdots t_k))$ for some $(t_1 \cdots t_k) \in \omega((s_{i-1}, s_{i-1}, r_{i-1}, t_{i-1}))$;
2. $(s_0, r_0) = (z', s', r')$ is the initial state.

That is, we first use $\omega$ to return the set of transitions in the topology that we may choose in order to realise the current task expression $T_i$ from the current state $(s_i, r_i, \pi)$, in the controller, and then use $\delta$ to compute the next state $(z_{i+1}, s_{i+1}, r_{i+1}, \pi_{i+1})$, which corresponds to the new state $z_{i+1}$ in the topology, the new state $s_{i+1}$ in the recipe (as it appears in $\pi$) and the new allocation $r_{i+1}$. This iterative process is repeated at each step of $\pi$ until the trace is completed, and can
proceed (the set of choices is always non-empty) for any sequence returned by ω. In other words, a trace of the recipe is executed by a controller if, from their respective initial states, the controller can always associate the current task expression in the trace to at least one sequence of transitions in the topology realising that task, thereby orchestrating the resources such that the task expression is realised. A recipe R is executed on a topology P by a controller C if all its traces are executed on P by C.

Theorem 2. Given R and P as above, any controller C (for R and P) is such that R is executed on P by C.

Proof. Let us proceed by induction on the length of traces π in R. If π = s0 then the claim holds: point 1 above does not apply because 0 = n, and point 2 is trivially true. If π = t1 → t2 → · · · → tn−1 → s0 of R is executed by C on P, assume that π t1s0 is not, i.e., ω((t1 → s0, r1), T0) = ∅. By definition of ω, this means that there is no transition (t1, s0, r1) in the topology. Hence, we can define the following: if (s0, s0, r0) δ → (t1, s1, r1), then the claim holds: point 1 above does not apply because 0 = n, and point 2 is trivially true. If (s0, s0, r0) δ → (t1, s1, r1) in TRANS((s0, s0, r0), T0), then π is not realisable. Then, by Theorem 1, no (non-empty) task simulation relation exists, and no controller can be defined. □

We conclude this section with a discussion about complexity.

Theorem 3 (Complexity). Given R and P, checking the existence of (and computing) a controller is polynomial on the size of the topology and exponential in the size of the recipe and number of resources.

Intuitively, for any atomic expression in the recipe we need to consider any possible combination (s, r) of a new state in the topology together with any possible new resource vector (corresponding to recursive applications of the definition of NXT) to check whether there exists an allocation of the task (to a transition in the topology) such that r is the resulting vector. The size of the topology is exponential in the number of resources, and polynomial in their size. The size of all possible resource vectors is exponential in the number of resources and number of parts mentioned in the recipe. As the recipe can be equivalently represented as a rooted tree, if we take the size of the recipe as the maximum length of the sequences of atomic expressions (for any linearisation) appearing along its traces, then computing a simulation relation has cost O((|P| × |V|)^|R|). We conclude by noting that we can compute the transitions in the controller (namely, the sequences of transitions in the topology that allow to realise each atomic task) while computing the simulation relation (see points (4.1) and (4.2) in Definition 4, and the discussion before Definition 6).

Our complexity result is consistent with that of [9], which is exponential in the number of available behaviours and polynomial in the size of the so-called enacted system behaviour [9].

7 ALGORITHM FOR REALISABILITY AND SYNTHESIS

We shall now provide an algorithm that computes a task simulation relation, as well as a controller, from a given topology and recipe. The algorithm clarifies how certain steps in our definitions could be implemented. In particular, we show how linearisations can be considered incrementally, without computing them all at the outset; how the closure of unobservable transitions are computed; how termination is ensured; and finally, how controller transitions are gathered.

The algorithms given some additional auxiliary notions, which we define first. Given a possibly atomic task expression T = T1; T2; · · · ; Tn, n > 0, we define its first element as FST(T) = T1 (where T1 is either atomic or an interleaved composition), and the rest of its elements as RST(T) = T2; · · · ; Tn if n > 1, and as RST(T) = ∅ if n = 1. We also extend these notions as follows. Given a partial interleaved composition T = T1; · · · ; Tn, n > 1, and an atomic task expression Tn, we define the following:

FST(T) = {T1 : T = T1; · · · ; Tn, T1 is atomic},

RST(T, Tn) = {T1; · · · ; Tn+1 | T1 = Tn} ∪ {T1; · · · ; Tn−1 | Tn+1 = Tn = Tn+1},

FST(T) = {T1: T2; Ti ∈ FST(T), T2 ∈ RST(T, T1)}.

where T′ is any non-empty sequence. These notions define the first elements of interleaved composition T as the set of all first elements in each of its sequences Ti, and the rest of T (relative to some first element T0) as the set of all interleaved compositions obtained from T by removing T0 (once) if it occurs first in some Ti.

Given a topology and recipe, Algorithms 1 and 2 work as follows. Algorithm 1 additionally takes a state s in the recipe and a couple σ = (s, r) as input, where s is a state in the topology and r is a resource vector. Then, for each outgoing transition in the recipe, from s to some s′, the algorithm checks whether the associated task expression T can be simulated from the corresponding topology state s and (recursively) whether the same holds for each outgoing transition from s′. Thus, s′ is passed as a parameter to Algorithm 2 in order to “remember” to continue from s′. Whenever the pair s and s are indeed in simulation, they are added to the set SIM in line 1, together with the corresponding resource vector r. Observe that this is done in a post-order (depth-first) fashion, from the “deepest” states in the recipe to the state that was passed into Algorithm 1 when it was first called. For controller synthesis, the algorithm also passes the entire recipe transition being considered and its corresponding couple σ as respectively the third and fifth parameters (line 1) to Algorithm 2.

Intuitively, Algorithm 2 implements the NXT operator in Definition 4. Basically, the algorithm performs a depth-first traversal of the topology to check whether task expression Tcur (initially T) can be simulated. We highlight the important lines below. Line 2 looks for a transition in the topology from state snext that matches the first element in Tcur, provided that the couple snext was not already explored in a previous (recursive) step. Lines 2 and 2 incrementally check each linearisation of an interleaved composition Tcur by recursively checking the concatenation of each first element in Tcur, with a corresponding remainder. The loop exits as soon as any viable linearisation is found. Line 2 is only applicable if Tcur could not be simulated so far, and the topology-transition being considered is an unobservable one. In this case, the transition is “skipped”, and a simulation of Tcur is tried from the next state s′ (with its corresponding resource allocation). Line 2 is only applicable when Tcur has been completely “processed”; it is at this point that a transition x is added to the controller’s transition function δ (Definition 6). Finally, line 2 keeps track of the fact that σnext is being explored, in order to guarantee termination. Combined with the fact that the recipe is acyclic, the following results hold trivially.

Proposition 4. Algorithm 1 always terminates. Furthermore, it is optimal with respect to computational complexity.

Observe that line 2 (and other lines) in Algorithm 2 adds the current transition label t to the end of the sequence of topology
Algorithm 1 FindSim($\sigma$, $s$)

Input: Topology $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}) \Rightarrow$ and recipe $(\mathcal{s}', \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}, \rightarrow)$; the couple $\sigma = (\mathcal{g}, \mathcal{r})$; state $s \in \mathcal{S}$.

Output: Either $(\emptyset, \emptyset)$ or a non-empty relation SIM and function $\delta$.
1: $\delta, SIM' := \emptyset$
2: for each $(s, T, s') \in \mathcal{E}$ do
3: $(SIM', \delta) := EvalExp(\sigma, T, (s, T, s'), \epsilon, \sigma, \emptyset)$
4: if SIM' $\neq \emptyset$ then return $(\emptyset, \emptyset)$
5: SIM := SIM $\cup$ SIM'
6: return $(SIM \cup \{(\mathcal{g}, s, r)\}, \delta)$

Algorithm 2 EvalExp($\sigma_{\text{nat}}, T_{\text{cur}}, tr, (t_1 \cdots t_k), \sigma_0, \Sigma$)

Input: Topology $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}) \Rightarrow$ and recipe $(\mathcal{s}', \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}, \rightarrow)$; current successor couple $\sigma_{\text{nat}} = (\mathcal{g}_{\text{nat}}, r_{\text{nat}})$; task expression being processed $T_{\text{cur}}$; current recipe-transition $tr = (s, T, s\prime)$; current sequence of topology-transition labels $(t_1 \cdots t_k)$; couple $\sigma_0 = (\mathcal{g}_0, \mathcal{r}_0)$ corresponding to $s$; visited couples $\Sigma$.

Output: Either $(\emptyset, \emptyset)$ or a non-empty relation SIM and function $\delta$.
1: $\delta, SIM := \emptyset$
2: if $T_{\text{cur}} = tr$ then
3: $x := (\mathcal{g}_0, \mathcal{r}_0).T(\mathcal{g}_0, \mathcal{r}_0)(\mathcal{g}_{\text{nat}}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{r}_{\text{nat}})$
4: $(SIM, \delta) := FindSim(\sigma_{\text{nat}}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{r}_{\text{nat}})$
5: return $(SIM, \delta) = (SIM \cup \{(\mathcal{g}_0, \mathcal{r}_0)\}, \delta)$
6: for each $(s, t, s\prime) \in SIM$ do
7: if $TST(T_{\text{cur}}) = t_1 \cdots t_n$ and $r^0 \in TST(T_{\text{cur}})$ then
8: $(\sigma, \delta) := EvalExp(\sigma', TST(T_{\text{cur}}), tr, (t_1 \cdots t_k \cdot t), \sigma_0, \emptyset)$
9: return $(SIM, \delta) = (SIM \cup \{(\mathcal{g}' \cdot r'), \delta\})$
10: else if $TST(T_{\text{cur}}) = T_1 \cdots T_n$ where $n > 1$ then
11: for each $T' \in \text{ST}(TST(T_{\text{cur}}))$ do
12: $(SIM, \delta) := EvalExp(\sigma_{\text{nat}}, T', tr, (t_1 \cdots t_k), \sigma_0, \emptyset)$
13: if SIM $\neq \emptyset$ then return $(SIM, \delta)$
14: if SIM $= \emptyset$ and $\forall t \in t, t \not\in T_{\text{obj}}$ then
15: $(\sigma', \delta) := (\mathcal{g}' \cdot r'), \delta) = (SIM \cup \{(\mathcal{g}', \mathcal{r}'), \delta\})$
16: if SIM $= \emptyset$ then return $(SIM, \delta)$
17: return $(\emptyset, \emptyset)$

transitions $t_1 \cdots t_k$ being pursued. This essentially implements the TRANSOF operator described in Section 6, and together with line 2, leads to the fact that the algorithm correctly computes a controller for the recipe and topology. Moreover, the algorithm also correctly computes a task simulation relation for them.

Theorem 5 (Correctness) Let $P = (\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}) \Rightarrow$ be a topology and $R = (\mathcal{s'}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{L}, \rightarrow)$ a recipe. Let $(\sigma, \delta) = \text{FindSim}(\sigma, \mathcal{s'})$ with $\sigma = (\mathcal{g}, \mathcal{r})$. Then (a) $\sigma \in \text{Precision}()$ if $R$ is not realisable in $P$; otherwise, (b) SIM is a task simulation relation between $P$ and $R$; and (c) $(SIM, \delta)$ is a controller of $P$ and $R$.

Proof Sketch. This is an involved proof by induction on the “height” $h$ of vertices in the recipe. For the base case, we take $h = 0$. Then, there is no recipe transition $(s, T, s') \in R$ for any $T$ (line 1 in Algorithm 1). Thus, the algorithm returns $\text{SIM} = \{(\mathcal{g}, \mathcal{r})\}$ and $\sigma \in \text{SIM}$ also holds by Definition 5. Next, we assume that the theorem holds if $h \geq x$, for some $x \in \mathcal{N}_0$ (induction hypothesis). For the inductive step, we take $h = x + 1$. Then, there must exist a recipe transition $(s, T, s') \in \text{SIM}$ for some $T$. We prove that if SIM’ $\neq \emptyset$ in line 3, then SIM’ is “sound.”

We do this by induction on the length of expression $T_{\text{cur}}$ in Algorithm 2. The main point is that the couples in $\Sigma'$ and $\Sigma$ in steps (4.1) and (4.2) in Definition 4 are the same as in lines 2 and 2 in Algorithm 2, respectively. Finally, if SIM’ $\neq \emptyset$ in line 3 of Algorithm 1 for all transitions considered in line 2, it follows that $(\mathcal{g}, s, r) \in \text{SIM}$ also holds by the induction hypothesis and Definition 5.

8 DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we presented an approach for modelling a flexible manufacturing system and checking whether it is possible to manufacture a given product in the system, represented as a manufacturing recipe. This check is done by computing a task simulation relation as discussed in Section 5. Further, we presented an approach for synthesising a controller that is able to orchestrate the manufacturing resources in the system so as to realise the recipe.

However, we did not address the problem of synthesising any controller for the given recipe. Rather, (a) we computed a possible task simulation relation, and (b) defined a possible controller. Moreover, the algorithm presented in Section 7 returns a controller which represents exactly one way of orchestrating the resources to realise the recipe, as this is sufficient for our application.

One direction for future research therefore involves the synthesis of any controller for a given recipe, and the technical content of this paper already allows for this extension. Computing any possible controller amounts to (a) computing the largest task simulation relation, and (b) including in the controller, between two states $(\mathcal{g}, s, r)$ and $(\mathcal{g}', s', r')$, all possible sequences of transitions defined by TRANSOF$(\mathcal{g}, r)$ and $(\mathcal{g}', s', r')$ and not just at least one, as in Definition 6. An algorithm can be devised accordingly.

Another research direction involves checking realizability (and synthesising suitable controllers) offline, but for classes of recipes instead of single recipes. A class of recipes can be expressed in terms of a union of recipes, but also as bounded (even cyclic) processes, which is already handled by our notion of task simulation, as it relies on the standard mathematical notion of simulation. To check the realizability of a new recipe, it would therefore be sufficient to check whether it can be simulated (task simulation) by one such class, which is a polynomial check in the size of the recipe.

Finally, although our current formalism allows only parallel tasks on different parts, we plan to extend it to capture parallel tasks operating on the same part (e.g., two machines performing a joint task on a single part). Allowing parallel tasks on the same part requires machines to be able to “see” the workspaces of each other, thus increasing the complexity of the algorithm proportionately.

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