From Manual to Machine-executable Model-based Systems Engineering via Graph-based Design Languages

Benedikt Walter1, Dennis Kaiser2 and Stephan Rudolph3

1Research & Development MB Passenger Cars, Daimler AG, Kolumbusstraße 19 + 21, 71059 Sindelfingen, Germany
2IILS mbH, Albstraße 6, 72818 Trochtelfingen, Germany
3University of Stuttgart, IFB, Pfaffenwaldring 31, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany

Keywords: Graph-based Design Languages, V-Model, Model-based Systems Engineering, Requirements-driven Engineering, Executable Model, Digital Product Design.

Abstract: Today, Model-Based Systems Engineering (MBSE) is widely used in the successful design of complex systems in various industries. It intends to provide a complete description of the design process of complex systems in form of a V-Model or one of its various extensions thereof (extended V-Model). While already several formal languages like Unified Modelling Language (UML) and Systems Modelling Language (SysML) are used to formally describe the design process and behavioural aspects of the design as well, models in UML- or SysML are still mostly assembled and connected manually. Instead, graph-based design languages based on UML make use of the digital representation of the design process with the additional benefit of a repeatable execution encoded in an activity diagram within a rule set. This allows for a seamless transformation of a formerly mainly manual MBSE-approach towards a fully automated, machine-executable MBSE approach. The article will focus on the impact of graph-based design on that transition from classical MBSE towards machine-executable MBSE. We show this with the example of an automotive dashboard.

1 INTRODUCTION

The product development process with its various development steps becomes more and more complex. The need for improvements of the current product development throughout all development steps is therefore clearly given. Most engineering tasks are performed in domain specific tools without interfaces to other domains. Typical examples for frequently used digital assistance tools are domain-specific design and simulation tools such as CAD-kernels, FEM- and CFD-solvers, spreadsheet calculators and others. However, all these domain-specific models require interfaces between each other in order to exchange design information. Since the information exchange between different programs often exhibits design information losses, the interlinked design models are often inconsistent to each other, which causes serious information gaps in-between the various design models throughout the development process. One approach to resolve this issue is a generic and abstract central model which can be translated into each desired domain-specific model. It serves as a single source of truth for complex design.

Graph-based design languages possess such a central model (called design graph) in UML and are capable to map this into many domain-specific target formats. With this novel approach, an abstract digital twin of the developed product can be created in UML. It is adjusted and refined throughout all development steps: Formal requirements engineering, digital product design and virtual verification and validation. A formal requirements-based engineering provides functional and logical dependencies within the model. From these dependencies, a finite system state machine can be derived. This state machine is consistent with the given system requirements and can be tested as an executable model. It enables the product designers to visualize the consequences and constraints put on the model through decisions made during requirements engineering. The dependencies intrinsically included in formal product requirements reduce the solution space to its true degrees of freedom. The remaining degrees of freedom are the actual design decisions left for product design. All possible product variants can be considered, evaluated and turned into design decisions. The automation of all this allows an optimization under
inclusion of all relevant design domains. This is called digital product design. It is based on a central model in one design language while optimizations are performed in domain specific models. This derived digital product or digital twin can be digitally verified and validated against the given tests derived from formal requirements. Digital verification and validation within an executable model bridge the gaps occurring in the existing manual development process. It provides a solution approach towards a consistent and machine-executable digital V-Model via graph-based design languages. This article presents the idea of a digital, machine-executable V-Model with integrated and consistent development steps and a digital twin of the product as its work item. It will illustrate the advantages of this novel, re-executable extension to MBSE using the example of an automotive dashboard. The paper is structured in the following way: First, an overview of the V-Model with common tasks are given and put in relation to the engineering technique of graph-based design. The showcase in form of a (digital) automotive dashboard is introduced and described. It is followed by three core sections. Each section addresses one of the three main phases of the V-Model (Specification, Development and Testing). Each section describes the engineering tasks for digital product development of the particular V-Model phase. In addition, this is applied to the showcase (automotive dashboard). The paper closes with a discussion about limitations, related work and an overall conclusion. The main contribution of this paper is the presentation of an automated, machine-executable approach that aligns and integrates all engineering tasks occurring during product development in one single model.

2 GRAPH-BASED DESIGN AND DIGITAL V-MODEL

This paper combines the idea of digital product design with the state of the art industrial product development process in form of the V-Model. The foundation of the digital development approach are so-called graph-based design languages.

2.1 Graph-based Design Languages

Graph-based design languages are an abstract form of system representation and the corresponding design process in form of a graph. Background and foundational approaches are mentioned in section 8. This work focuses on an approach developed and proposed by (Rudolph, 2006 and Rudolph et al., 2013). Figure 1 provides an overview about this particular approach. The total of all entities occurring in the design is called vocabulary. In the approach all vocabulary is represented in a class diagram, thus each entity is represented as one class with attributes and relationships (links, dependencies and others) to other classes. From the class diagram, objects are instantiated. This is controlled through a rule set. It defines when classes instantiate objects and how these objects are linked to each other. Vocabulary and rule set therefore build a 'production system'. The rule execution with object instantiation creates the so called 'design graph'. Nodes in the graph are abstract objects (class instantiations) and edges represent relationships and dependencies between the objects.

![Figure 1: Graph-based design process (Rudolph, 2006).](image)

In addition, boundary conditions and underlying equations exist, must be considered and solved. Generating the graph and solving the equation system is performed in one step by a design compiler. The compiler generates the graph and the 'solution path generator' solves the underlying equations. The design graph is an abstract representation of the system and is thus a general model. To work with and consider specific domains, interfaces to particular domains like CAD, FEM and others are required. Through the interfaces domain specific models are derived. In the specific domain, analysis can be performed. The adjustments are fed back to the general model through so called 'round trip engineering'. This approach is the backbone of the digital product development presented in this paper.

2.2 Digital V-Model

In development of complex systems, the V-model is state of the art. It combines the three core steps of product development (specification, design and development and verification and validation). The classic V-Model (figure 2) contains the 'vertical continuity' along the ‘V’, which already existed in the waterfall model. This means that each phase provides work products to the next phase. In addition, the 'horizontal continuity' allows back linking from verification and validation with the test items and test results to the specification phase and its requirements.
While in theory all three steps are well integrated, in industrial setups the steps are usually detached. A specification phase and development phase often do not align. Specification is seen as a needed documentation but often not as a useful development artefact. This is often due to the informal nature of requirements in classic development.

The proposed approach in this paper digitalizes both phases (in fact all three phases). Software-in-the-loop (SIL) and model-in-the-loop (MIL) tests can be performed virtually) and naturally aligns them. The following sections show the formalization of requirements (section 4) during specification, digital product development (section 5) and digital verification and validation (section 6). All work items are formally described and provide useful input for the next development phase. The formal and digital gestalt allows a repetitive execution with adaptations (adjusted parameters, boundary conditions, different design variants). We call this re-executable V-Model.

3 SHOWCASE

In the following, a dashboard is used as an illustrative example. The dashboard has already served as public demonstrator in ITEA3-Project IDEALISM. It includes engineering services of an automated finite element analysis and an automated 3D wire harness model generation. In the ITEA3-Project IDEALISM, the dashboard had a predetermined class A surface (usually defined by industrial product designers, here simplified due to intellectual property issues) and, a customer specific wire-harness. In terms of the machine-executable V-Model, the development process is following a sequential processing of the requirements. First, the car options (provided by the customer) are processed. Typical customer options are add-ons such as the navigation system option, a better sound system or a rear driving camera. Together with the class A surface specified by the design department, all these additional equipment or switches lead to the final geometry of the automotive dashboard (see figure 3).

Figure 3: Simplified dashboard geometry (ITEA3, 20018).

Since the electric system for the light system of the car needs to be incorporated, all the control software for the controller hardware and all electrical cable connections between the electrical components need to be designed. The complete automation of the electrical 3D wire harness model generation and an automated finite element analysis of the dashboard cross beam has already been successfully demonstrated in the ITEA3-Project IDEALISM. Thus, the paper will focus on the automated, requirements-driven generation of the software for the outside light system. Of course, there will be some simplifications in respect to the full light system. The code generation is limited here, in the way that the light system consists of simple headlights and a set of left and right turn indicators.

4 REQUIREMENT ENGINEERING

The first phase of product development in the V-model is concerned with requirements engineering. In classic approaches, documentation occurs in textual form. While this form is needed for non-engineering tasks like marketing, law and others, the complexity of today's systems cannot accurately be expressed in textual requirements. To maintain the textual form while adjusting to formal representations, a text-to-model (T2M) transformation seems suitable. (Walter et al., 2017) showed such formalization from structured textual representations to finite state machines (FSM). This section recaptures this approach and places it into the overall graph-based design methodology. Subsection 4.1 introduces the general formalization idea. Subsection 4.2 applies it to functional requirements, which allows generating
the inner logic of a product in form of a FSM. In addition, Subsection 4.3 shows how formalized non-functional requirements can provide a starting point for geometry and topology design of the product. Functional and non-functional requirements are shown with the previously introduced dashboard.

### 4.1 Formalization

Textual represented requirements are state of the art in industrial contexts because natural language (NL) can be created and read simple. While this is an advantage of such unstructured textual expressions, such representations are prone to syntax errors, inconsistencies and are not easily processed machine-based. An applicable solution are specification patterns. They provide a certain degree of structure. Specification pattern systems (SPS) by (Dwyer et al., 1998) are one common form of language patterns. SPS provides a syntactical structure and contains an empirical mapping to linear temporal logic (LTL). (Walter et al., 2017) combines this approach with a reduction of LTL to first order logic (FOL) with the underlying data structure. FOL can be put into standard form like conjunctive normal form (CNF). This leads to a formalization process chain from textual description (NL) to formalized logic in form of CNF. The general mapping is shown in figure 4.

![Figure 4: Formalization process, (Walter et al., 2017).](image)

Generally, SPS patterns are defined for functional requirements. (Glinz, 2007) separated requirements into functional and non-functional (NFR) with further separation of NFR into performance, quality and constraints. It is often not possible to represent quality and performance requirements through SPS, yet constraints are often simple and thus expressible in SPS. This is useful for data represented in form of constraints. Boundary conditions, which are often used to express geometry in graph-based design, can therefore be formalized. Thus, geometry can be derived from its requirements through this approach.

### 4.2 Functional Requirements - FSM

Functional requirements can be formalized with the process shown in figure 4. The example below shows a requirement for outside light behaviour of the automotive dashboard. Initially it is stated in natural language (NL). An appropriate specification pattern (SPS) is selected (see: 'SPS abstract'). The concrete expression is created by replacing the abstract variables with concrete system parameters.

**NL:** The exterior light must turn on when rotary light switch is turned in position exterior and turned off when turned in position off.

**SPS – abstract:** $P$ is true after $Q$ until $R$

**SPS – concrete:** $\text{ExteriorLight[Ext]}$ is true after $\text{RotaryLightSwitch[Ext]}$ until $\text{RotaryLightSwitch[Off]}$

**LTL abstract:** $G (Q \land P \lor (R \lor G(P)))$

$G$ - Global; $\lor$ - Implies; $U$ - Until; $P = \text{ExteriorLight[Ext]}$; $Q = \text{RotaryLightSwitch[Ext]}$; $R = \text{RotaryLightSwitch[Off]}$

Defined SPS to LTL mapping is used to create LTL expression needed to derive the finite state machine (FSM). Due to space constraints LTL and FSM are only represented in abstract form (see: figure 5). The given parameters can be used to generate the specific FSM. (Walter et al., 2017) calls this 'requirement FSM'; it generates one FSM per requirement.

![Figure 5: Abstract Requirement shown as FSM.](image)

It is possible to connect multiple FSM to one system FSM including all functional requirements. (see Walter et al., 2017 and Kam et al., 2012). An advantage of such an approach is, that during the specification process, it is possible to create the specified system FSM in real-time. This reduces specification misconceptions as well as inconsistencies between requirements.

### 4.3 Non-Functional Reqs. - Geometry

In graph-based design, geometrical forms are often expressed through a combination of boundary conditions and constraints. The class diagram that contains classes for the particular geometrical elements contains additional constraints which are considered once the solution path generator solves the underling equation system. By definition of (Glinz, 2007), constraints are one group of non-functional requirements. This allows us to formalize the initially informal process and represent functional and non-functional requirements formally.

**Req1:** $\text{HorizontalLengthMax[80cm]}$ is true globally

**Req2:** $\text{VerticalLengthMaxUS[60cm]}$ OR $\text{VerticalLengthMaxEurope[55cm]}$ is true globally

The given example provides two non-functional requirements about the outer dimensions of the dashboard. While $\text{HorizontalLengthMax[80cm]}$ is...
rather simple. VerticalLengthMax[60/55cm] depends on the variants US and Europe. Other constraints will specify the particular variant. The appropriate VerticalLengthMax[*] is automatically included. Formalizing and resolving all geometrical constraints with the solution path generator creates a consistent model, which can be derived to a geometry domain.

Figure 6: Dashboard geometry (ITEA3, 2018).

Furthermore, if a navigation system is included, this navigation system needs to be provided with the appropriate electrical connections for power and data. Figure 6 shows the geometry of the dashboard. Since boundary conditions are considered, the derived model necessarily is consistent with the given constraints. These constraints follow the normal requirements process, which is mandatory in industrial contexts. Requirements can be changed, the model is updated and the geometry is derived in real-time. If requirements are inconsistent, this becomes apparent directly during the specification phase, not just in later development steps. Variants can be generated and evaluated against each other. The following section will use the generated FSM. It makes use of the inner logic and the created geometry to perform particular system design tasks. We use cable wiring as the example product design task.

5 DEVELOPMENT

In terms of the machine-executable V-Model, the development process is steered by a sequential processing of the requirements. First, the car configuration is considered. This highly depends on customization. Examples are add-ons such as the navigation system, or a rear-driving camera. Together with the class A surface, all additional equipment’s lead to the final geometry of the dashboard (see figure 6). In the IDEALISM project, finite element analysis and 3D wire harness modelling were shown as two particular examples for digital product design with graph-based design languages. In Figure 7, the resulting geometry with the routed cables is shown. This allows for all specified functionality of the outside light control to be certainly included in the design solution.

Figure 7: Automatic wire harness creation (ITEA3, 2018).

The geometry was created with the 3D wire harness plug-in of the Design Cockpit 43 (IILS, 2018) with the use of graph-based design languages. It made use of the previously defined geometry of the customized automotive dashboard variant.

6 VERIFICATION & VALIDATION

This section discusses how throughout the specification process and particularly on the right-hand side of the V-Model, verification and validation can be performed against the digital model. This significantly reduces costs and time throughout development while product quality can be maintained. Four show cases for digital verification and validation are addressed. This only represents a selection of possible digital tests.

6.1 Verification – Static Analysis

The inner logic of an electric system can naturally only be verified as soon as it explicitly exists. Classic approaches develop the inner logic incrementally in the development phase. This is inefficient, since the inner logic already encodes the system requirements. 'Development' is therefore in fact only a 'pseudo-development' in regards to inner logic which only expresses the implicit dependencies provided in the requirements. The shown approach allows to verify the inner logic at the moment of the requirement specification. It was shown in section 4, that requirements can be converted into the system FSM.
in real-time. It is therefore possible to perform static analysis against the system FSM. This verifies the consistency of each particular state. For example two inconsistent parameters can exist at one state.

**Req1:** ExteriorLight[On] is always true when IgnitionSwitch[On]

**Req2:** ExteriorLight[Off] is always true when IgnitionSwitch[On] AND GearPos[Parking]

E.g. ExteriorLight[On] AND ExteriorLight[Off] at one state would be inconsistent. In addition it can be verified whether all requirements are consistent to each other. If not, the solution space is an empty set and no model can exist in alignment with the given requirements. Inconsistency between requirements is a particular valuable information and the only way to proof, before the development phase, that no such inconsistencies exist, is direct 'requirement-to-model' conversion followed by verification. The given two requirements are not consistent for at least one particular state in the system FSM. Considering industrial systems with more than 2000 requirements, it is impossible to manually oversee and check for inconsistencies. This is usually only revealed once the system is developed. Static analysis with a model consistent with the requirements allows for state consistency and overall requirement consistency before development.

### 6.2 Verification – Fault Tree Analysis

A system is just as robust as its weakest link. While this is common knowledge, it is often not that easy to proof in early design phases that a certain system robustness is given. Fault-tree analysis is a post process to system design and upfront guesses with safety factors are often used. This assures that redesigns can be avoided when fault-tree analysis reveals insufficient system robustness after system design is completed. Safety factors for a product design are in fact a reduction to the product quality. Alternative is a system redesign if robustness turns out to be insufficient. This comes with significant extensions in development time. Graph-based design languages allow fault-tree analysis to be part of the actual design process. (Riestenpatt and Rudolph, 2014) showed that it could be included in system design by adding failure probabilities to all components and including the architectural structure into the analysis. Architectural structure allows to calculate whether a component as a single point of failure or a component with a backup system (failure probability arises from the parallel connection) is required. In contrast to classic design, this analysis is part of the system design. Minimal accepted system robustness is given and all design variants are calculated for its system robustness. All variants with insufficient robustness are excluded from the set of possible correct solutions.

### 6.3 Validation - Physical

The dashboard cross beam needs to be functionally qualified with the use of a finite element analysis. Graph-based design allows for such a qualification with an FEM-analysis by triggering an external tool and feeding results back to the main model. Results are shown in Figure 8. The displacements using an artificial colour plate. Based on the finite element analysis, a modal analysis can be computed to get an indication about the first eigenfrequencies.

![Finite Element Analysis (ITEA3, 2018)](image)

### 6.4 Validation - Functional

The classic prove of functional correctness is performed by testing the finished physical product and its functionality. The digital twin contains correct geometry and the state machine provides functionality. An executable state machine therefore allows for a digital functional test. In digital form, this can be performed much earlier in the life cycle and is therefore cost-efficient. Due to space constraints, we cannot elaborate further on this topic.

### 7 LIMITATIONS

In this section, we want to address potential limitations and address whether these challenge the overall approach. The most relevant question is how well does a digitally designed model mimic the reality and the later derived physical product. This question should be addressed per domain. Many common domains are already well modelled digitally in
isolation. Geometry (here shown with the dashboard geometry) is established and enriched with geometry related analysis in form of FEM, CFD and others. Another example is the functional domain, which is already often modelled in form of state machines. It represent the inner functionality. The overall contribution of this paper is mostly in the combination of these established domains through a general model and an integrated process, rather than improving domain specific models. What must be seen more critical are domains that cannot be formalized like certain non-functional requirements, user based design decisions and management tasks. Our stand on this is, that while no formal description is possible, it can simple not be considered. This is regardless of digital or classic development. Next, we shall address the question what domains are feasible for such an approach. The example given here is an automotive cockpit. Based on previous work, airplanes, satellites and ships are feasible products. The only limitation is, that for every new domain, a specific design language has to be created and implemented. For the listed products and its domains, such design languages exist. For others we see no limitation other than effort for design and implementation. Overall, we see few limitations in modelling of particular domains due to informality of these domains, limitation in regards to availability of domain specific design languages and shortage in trained engineers in this field. None of the limitations represent a significant hindrance to the approach, thus it is useful for industrial system design.

8 RELATED WORK

The overall idea presented in this paper is built on the idea of graph-based design as proposed by (Rudolph, 2006). This includes design languages in general, as well as product design and industrial applications in various domains. (Prusinkiewicz and Lindenmayer, 2012) described design languages with L-systems. (Stiny, 1980) introduces shape grammars where building blocks are lines and shapes instead of words. Systematic product development is described with the V-Model. The V-Model roots in the Waterfall model. (Böhm, 1988) provides a comprehensive discussion about V-Model and Waterfall model. Another prominent collection of (industrial) product design principals is (Pahl and Beitz, 2013) yet, all phases of product design are only described in “semi-formal” form. In contrast, various applications and techniques in the field of design languages applied to the development phases are shown with formal approaches by Rudolph: (Schmidt and Rudolph, 2016) described abstract geometry as an essential building block for graph-based design. Various advantages of graph-based-driven design in regards to geometrical and functional design were shown: (Schäfer and Rudolph, 2005, Gross and Rudolph, 2005), both on Satellite Design, (Vogel et al., 2012) - SCR (Selective Catalytic Reduction) systems, fault-tree analysis in (Riestenpatt and Rudolph, 2014). The still existing gap between development and overall product design is closed by the work of (Walter et al., 2017). The left out phases of requirements engineering and verification and validation are addressed. Classic influences for requirements engineering are (Glinz, 2007, Maalej and Thurimella, 2013) and standards (ISO 29148, 2011). Solutions for formal and thus digital processing are presented. (Walter et al., 2017) based his work on the use of specification patterns for requirements engineering. Common requirement specification patterns are Master (Sophist, 2018), EARS (Mavin and Wilkinson, 2009) and Specification Pattern Systems (Dwyer et al., 1998). Further, linear temporal logic proposed by (Prior 1967 and Kamp, 1968) are used for formal representation. Logic is processed like shown in (Artale and Franconi, 1998). The particular description of finite state machines used in this work is (Kam et al., 2012). While various fields and works are touched and addressed, it is not possible to mention all related work in this brief overview.

9 CONCLUSION

In this work, a re-executable MBSE approach was presented. The premise of this paper was to introduce, discuss and apply a digital design methodology for industrial product design. The existing approach of graph-based design, classically focused on product design during the development phase. It was enriched with the approaches for requirements engineering and verification and validation. This allows for an integrated and fully digital product development process along the V-Model. Formal requirements engineering as shown by (Walter et al., 2018) is combined with graph-based design (Rudolph, 2006) and various formal verification and validation efforts like (Riestenpatt and Rudolph, 2014). The resulting product design consists of a digital model that holds all work items created over all disciplines along the V-Model. The digital gestalt of the created model allows iteration of design parameters at any step of the design process and provides the opportunity of a real-time re-execution of the overall process with
adjusted design parameters. All generated design variants are consistent with the given boundary conditions. A systematic evaluation and selection process can be performed afterwards. Classic approaches (without a digital re-execution) create only one or a few design variants while this approach explores the full solution space. It reveals full variety of possible and consistent designs. This article showed the process with the example of an automotive dashboard and selected engineering tasks (requirements formalization, cable wiring and verification and validation). We see the approach presented as a starting point for further digital engineering efforts across all engineering domains. The approach can be extended incrementally to achieve a more digital product design process with tremendous time and cost reduction while improving overall product quality.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank our collaborators: Dominik Schopper and Claudia Tonhäuser at the University of Stuttgart, Jens Schmidt, Roland Weil, Peter Arnold, Marius Ristenpatt, Marc Eheim and Stefan Hess at IILS mbH and Jan Martin, Jonathan Schmidt, Hanna Dettki and Marco Piechotta at Daimler AG.

REFERENCES

Stiny, G. “Introduction to Shape and Shape Grammars.” Environment & Planning B: planning and design, 1980.