

Defining KPIs for Executable DSLs: A Manufacturing System Case Study

Hiba Ajabri^a, Jean-Marie Mottu^b and Erwan Bousse^c

Nantes University, LS2N Laboratory, Nantes, France

Keywords: Domain-Specific Language, Model Execution, Key Performance Indicators, Reconfigurable Manufacturing System.

Abstract: Early performance evaluation is essential when designing systems in order to enable decision making. This requires both a way to simulate the system in an early state of design and a set of relevant Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). Model-Driven Engineering and Domain-Specific Languages (DSLs) are well suited for this endeavor, e.g. using executable DSLs fitting for early simulation. However, KPIs are commonly tailored to a particular system, and therefore need to be redefined for each of its variation. In light of these problems, this paper examines how KPIs can be defined directly at the level of a DSL, thus making them available for domain experts at the model level. We demonstrate this idea through a case study centered on a DSL to define, simulate, and evaluate the performance of simple manufacturing systems. Models simulation is performed by the DSL operational semantics, and yields execution traces that can then be analyzed by KPIs defined at the DSL level. Performance results are captured using the Structured Metrics Meta-model. We illustrate the usefulness of the proposed approach and KPIs to evaluate a simple hammer factory model and its subsequent reconfiguration.

1 INTRODUCTION

Model-driven engineering (MDE) and Domain-Specific Languages (DSLs) open the possibility to assess the quality of a system early in the design process. In the domain of industrial engineering and manufacturing systems, modeling a future production line (An et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2022) allows experts to thoroughly verify their design before building the actual factory. This can include checking the structural consistency of a factory layout (e.g., are production modules connected in a sound way?) or, with executable models, verifying the expected behavior of the production line using simulation (e.g., is the production line able to produce the expected product?).

An essential factor of quality of a manufacturing system lies in its *performance*. Measuring the performance of a system requires defining a set of relevant Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) (Ferrer et al., 2018), such as the *throughput* (i.e., how much a pro-

duction line can produce over a specified time period) or the machine utilization (i.e., are machines always in use, or are some machines underused?). Evaluating the performance of a system early in the design process gives the possibility to arbitrate the choice between different design options. A prominent example is that of Reconfigurable Manufacturing Systems (RMS) (Koren et al., 1999), which are manufacturing systems designed for rapid change in order to quickly respond to sudden market changes: when an RMS must be reconfigured, it is crucial to evaluate and compare the performance of the multiple considered configurations.

Performance evaluation is not an easy endeavor. One early issue lies in the redundancy of the definition of KPIs, since they are commonly tailored to a particular system and must therefore be redefined for each new considered context (Ferrer et al., 2018). Defining new KPIs or adapting existing KPIs for a manufacturing system can quickly become a cumbersome and error-prone task, especially in contingency situations when decisions have to be made rapidly and efficiently.

To grapple with this issue, we examine in this paper how KPIs can be defined directly at the level of a

^a <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-9307-6123>

^b <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5245-4261>

^c <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0000-9219>

DSL, thus making them available for domain experts at the model level. We demonstrate this idea through a case study considering a DSL to define and evaluate the performance of simple manufacturing systems. Simulation of models is performed by the operational semantics of the DSL, and yields execution traces that can then be analyzed to measure KPIs defined at the DSL level. Performance results are captured using the Structured Metrics Meta-model (SMM) standard. We illustrate the usefulness of the proposed approach, DSL and KPIs to create and evaluate a simple hammer factory model and its subsequent reconfiguration.

In the remainder, Section 2 discusses the research background. Section 3 presents the simple manufacturing system as the case study, while the Section 4 discloses the approach overview and introduces the KPI definition and computation through industrial use cases of a simple production line. The discussion of the related work is invoked in Section 5. Finally, conclusions and future works are drawn in Section 6.

2 BACKGROUND

We first present the main concepts used in our work: manufacturing systems, Key Performance Indicators, executable DSLs and the Structured Metrics Meta-model.

2.1 Manufacturing Systems

Manufacturing systems (MS) are systems composed of sequences of machines, tools, processes, and operators to manufacture a specific product. Raw materials or unfinished parts are used as input to produce final manufactured parts after several assembly and transformation operations. In this work, we consider how to design a performant simple manufacturing system (SMS) composed of *machines*—which take raw materials or unfinished products provided on their input tray and transform them in either unfinished or finished products—and *conveyors*—which transport raw materials and products from machines to trays. In addition, when modeling a SMS, we call *generator* a specific kind of machine that does not require any inputs, and produce an output on a regular basis. Such “machines” are abstractions of stockpiles containing raw material and products. For example, we consider a **Hammer SMS** that assembles hammers from hammer handles and hammer heads. We can model this system using three machines: one generator providing the handles, a second generator providing the heads, and a third machine that given a head and handle is able to assemble a complete ham-

mer. We connect these machines using three conveyors: the first two conveyors connect the generators to a tray, the assembling machine picks parts in the tray to assemble them, and the third conveyor collects the hammers produced.

2.2 Key Performance Indicators

Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) are metrics that report on the efficiency of a given system. While some KPIs are standardized and can be applied to a large range of domains and contexts, others are specific to a given domain, context or manufacturing system. For instance, “*communication traffic load*” is a possible KPI for resource allocations and scheduling techniques in automotive applications (Latif et al., 2016), and “*traffic load*” is a possible KPI to identify the path that is most likely to experience starvation or congestion in a conveyor belt (An et al., 2011).

In this work, we introduce two terms to help distinguishing two categories of KPIs: we call *global KPI* a KPI that concerns the complete manufacturing system, and we call *local KPI* a KPI that concerns only a specific subset of the manufacturing system. For example, a possible global KPI of a MS is the throughput (i.e., how many products the production line can produce over a specified time period? E.g., considering the Hammer SMS: how many hammers per unit of time?), and a possible local KPI is the *machine utilization* (i.e., what is the percentage of use of a given machine during the complete simulation? E.g., considering the Hammer SMS: how much the hammer head generator has been used?).

2.3 Structured Metrics Metamodel

The Structured Metrics Metamodel (SMM¹) is a standard from the Object Management Group (OMG) that defines how to represent properties, measurements, and entities performing measurements. It specifies concepts useful for performance analysis, such as:

- *Measurement*: A numerical or symbolic value associated to an entity that is assigned by a measure.
- *Measurand*: An entity concerned by measures and associated to measurements.

The motivation behind using the SMM implementation is that it provides a means to store the computation results, thus exempting the user from recomputing the same model with the same input parameters. In this paper, we examine how SMM can be applied to capture the results obtained from KPIs.

¹<https://www.omg.org/spec/SMM/1.2/>

2.4 Executable Domain-Specific Languages

A Domain-Specific Language (DSL) is a language providing a set of concepts fitting for a specific domain. We consider a DSL to be composed of two parts. First, the *abstract syntax* defines the concepts of the language and their relationships. An abstract syntax can be defined as an object-oriented model called a *metamodel*. Second, the *execution semantics* defines how a model conforming to the abstract syntax can be executed. Among other uses, model execution can be an efficient way to simulate how a modeled system would behave. We distinguish translational semantics (i.e., compilation) and operational semantics (i.e., interpretation).

In this paper, we call executable DSL (xDSL) a DSL with a discrete event (i.e., not continuous) operational semantics, and our work solely focuses on xDSLs. We consider the operational semantics of an xDSL to be comprised of two parts: the definition of the possible *runtime states* of a model under execution, and a set of *execution rules* defining how such a runtime state changes over time. One possible way to define the runtime states is to extend the same metamodel used to define the abstract syntax, adding new concepts to represent the system’s dynamic behavior. The execution rules are typically defined as endogenous model transformations that modify the runtime state of the model during its execution.

3 SIMPLE MANUFACTURING SYSTEM xDSL CASE STUDY

In this section, we present the Simple Manufacturing System (SMS) xDSL, which aims at modeling and simulating simple manufacturing systems.

3.1 Abstract Syntax

3.1.1 SMS Abstract Syntax

Metamodeling of MS has been considered in several studies, demonstrating the interest of the endeavor (Raith et al., 2021). However, as far as we know, there is no standard metamodel covering exhaustively manufacturing systems. In our work, we cover the main elements involved in simple manufacturing systems. These elements are sufficient both for running discrete-event simulations and assessing performance based on the results of these simulations.

The abstract syntax of the SMS xDSL is depicted on the left part of the Figure 1. Concepts related to

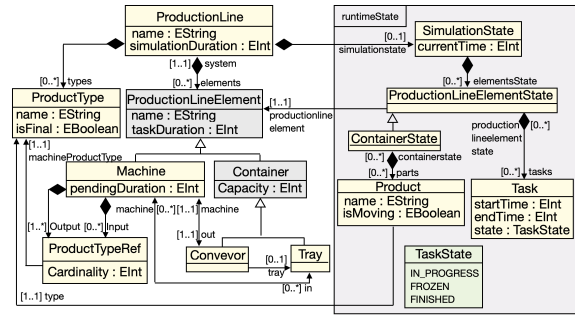


Figure 1: Abstract syntax (left part) and runtime state definition (right part) of the Simple Manufacturing System (SMS) executable DSL.

production line are defined as a set of metaclasses and their features. Features can be either an attribute typed by a primitive data type or a reference to another metaclass.

We consider a SMS to be made of a production line; subsequently, the root element of an SMS model is a *ProductionLine* instance, which contains a set of *ProductionLineElements*. A *ProductionLine* has a *simulationDuration* that defines how long a simulation of this line should last. Elements can be either machines or containers.

A *ProductionLineElement* is an entity that is able to accomplish *tasks*, a typical task being to move or process products. Each *ProductionLineElement* has a *taskDuration* value that specifies how long it takes for this element to perform a task, and a *pendingDuration* value that specifies how long the machine waits after the execution of a task.

A *Machine* is a *ProductionLineElement* that creates products. It may consume a set of products as input, and it produces a non-empty set of products as output. These inputs and outputs are represented by *ProductTypeRef* instances, each specifying both a *ProductType* (i.e., what products are required or produced) and a cardinality (i.e., how many products of said types are required or produced).

A *Container* is a *ProductionLineElement* that can contain products. Two types of containers are possible: a *Conveyor* can transport elements, whereas a *Tray* can temporarily store products to be handled. A *Machine* must be connected to one or multiple *Trays* to receive its input products, and must be connected to one *Conveyor* where it drops output products.

3.1.2 Example of an SMS Model: Hammer Production Line

Figure 2 illustrates an SMS model that represents a simple case of a manufacturing line that crafts hammers. We depict the model using a graphical concrete syntax representing the assembly of the product line.

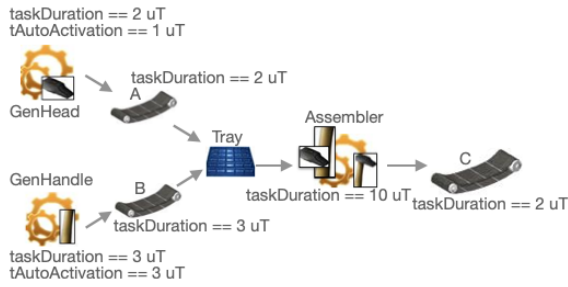


Figure 2: Hammer SMS model.

This production line contains seven elements: three machines, three conveyors, and one tray. The two machines GenHead and GenHandle have no input but one output each, with cardinality one. They act as *generators* which simulate stockpiles from which input products are picked. They each produce products of a specific *ProductType*, namely “hammer head” and “hammer handle” respectively (represented with pictures framed by rectangles). Each machine has an output conveyor, to deliver each generated product. The conveyors, in turn, are associated to the same tray. The tray simulates temporary storage as the input of the next machine. The Assembler machine retrieves one head and one handle from the tray to assemble them, and produces a hammer. The Assembler cannot start producing a hammer unless it has a handle and a head as input. Once a hammer is generated, it will be placed on the conveyor linked to the Assembler’s output, which is the last element in the chain.

In this production line system, we presume that the two generator machines (i.e., GenHead and GenHandle) may produce an infinite number of heads and handles. We set the task durations and pending durations of the machines GenHead and GenHandle. The Assembler has a task duration, but no pending duration, meaning that it will work as soon as the required product parts are available in the tray.

3.2 Operational Semantics

We define the operational semantics of the SMS xDSL, which will then allow the simulation of any SMS model, such as the Hammer SMS.

3.2.1 Discrete-event Simulation

In our work, we rely on discrete event simulation (Adam et al., 2011) to define when the runtime state is updated. Figure 3 illustrates such a discrete event simulation of the Hammer SMS model. The horizontal lines represent the timeline of each production line element that has a behavior (the machines

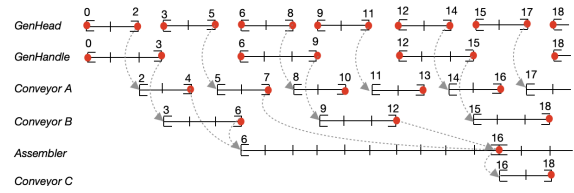


Figure 3: State capture and time advancement based on the discrete event simulation of the Hammer SMS.

and the conveyors). Lines with brackets represent a running task. The red circles represent when the runtime state is updated: the endings of the tasks.

The execution of the system embodies events that occur simultaneously or sequentially. In successive operation chains that happen systematically, after each completion of a task, other tasks are considered to be triggered if possible (represented with curved dashed arrows in Figure 3).

3.2.2 SMS Runtime State Definition

The right part of Figure 1 depicts the runtime state definition of the SMS xDSL. It is defined in a separate package of the SMS xDSL metamodel, and introduces additional meta-classes and features defining the runtime states of the different language concepts shown in the abstract syntax (left part of Figure 1).

An SMS model under execution contains a *SimulationState*, the latter containing a set of *ProductionLineElementState* for each *ProductionLineElement*.

Each *ProductionLineElementState* has a reference to its specific *ProductionLineElement*, and contains a list of *Task* elements representing all ongoing tasks performed by the element. A *Task* has a start time (as an Integer), an end time (as an Integer) and a task state (which can be either *IN_PROGRESS*, *FROZEN*, or *FINISHED*). The *currentTime* of the simulation is changed each time the runtime state is updated, which occurs when a task of an element is completed and/or it starts. We also define *ContainerState* to represent that a container may contain *Product* elements. Each product has a reference to a specific *ProductType* of the model. The attribute *isMoving* represents the possibility that a product may be currently in movement on a conveyor belt.

The initial runtime state of the model is created before the execution starts. We choose an initial runtime state where all containers are empty, and no tasks yet exist. This state is the one of the example model shown in Figure 2.

3.2.3 SMS Execution Rules

We defined a set of execution rules that specify how the runtime state of a given SMS model changes over

Algorithm 1: *Machine* :: *start*() execution rule.

```

Inputs:
simulationState : SimulationState
machine : Machine
currentTime : Integer
begin
    if machine.verifyIfMachineCanStart(
        simulationState, currentTime) then
        task ←
            machine.createOrGetTask(simulationState,
                currentTime);
            machine.initializeTaskValues(currentTime,task);

            machine.consumeInputsIfNeeded(
                simulationState);
    end
end
    
```

time during a simulation, following the principles of discrete-event simulation:

- *ProductionLine*::*initialize*(): Prepare the initial runtime state by creating one *SimulationState*, one *ContainerState* per *Container*, and one *ProductionLineElementState* per *Machine*.
- *Conveyor*::*start*(): Given a *Conveyor*, examine whether the conditions are met for the conveyor to create and possibly start new *Tasks*. This requires the input *Machine* to have finished preparing a product, and space available on the conveyor (as given by its *capacity*).
- *Machine*::*start*(): Given a *Machine*, examine whether the conditions are met for the machine to create and start new *Tasks*. This requires input products to be available, and requires the machine to be ready to work. When a task is created, the required input products are removed from the input tray.
- *Conveyor*::*finishTask*(): Given a *Conveyor* and a *Task*, ends this task, which moves the product on the container into the output *Tray*.
- *Machine*::*finishTask*(): Given a *Machine* and a *Task*, ends this task, which creates output products as specified in the machine.
- *ProductionLine*::*main*(): Executes a *ProductionLine* until the end of the simulation. This is the only execution rule that must be called to run a simulation, which will trigger other execution rules as it goes by.

We give a simplified pseudocode description of a subset of these rules:

Machine*::*start(). Algorithm 1 shows the *Machine*::*start*(currentTime : *Integer*) execution rule. In

 Algorithm 2: *Machine* :: *finishTask*() execution rule.

```

Inputs:
simulationState : SimulationState
task : Task
machine : Machine
begin
    produceOutputProducts(simulationState,machine);
    task.state= FINISHED;
end
    
```

this part, we suppose we have the following utility functions available:

- *Machine*::*verifyIfMachineCanStart*(): Verify the eligibility of the machine to create and start a task, which is achieved by checking the following constraints: (1) the presence of sufficient input products if required; (2) the machine is not in an active state (i.e., does not have a running task); (3) the machine is not frozen (i.e., does not have a task in a frozen state); (4) the attached conveyor will have space to transport the produced output products; and (5) the *currentTime* is the right time for the machine to begin its work (particularly for the machines requiring no inputs (i.e., generators)).
- *Machine*::*initializeTaskValues*(): Initialize the attributes of the task (i.e., *endTime*, *state*) with values.
- *Machine*::*consumeInputsIfNeeded*(): A machine requiring inputs consumes the needed inputs to produce the expected output products.

Whenever a production line element is asked to work, a task associated to its *ProductionLineElementState* is considered. Particularly for machines requiring no inputs (e.g., a generator such as *GenHead*, Figure 2), two tasks are created: the first is meant to work at the current time, and the second is prepared to work for the coming runtime states (i.e., the task is prepared by calculating its expected start time). A conveyor may have several tasks running at the same time, each one corresponding to moving one product from a machine to a tray, several ones can be moved at the same time (w.r.t. its capacity).

Machine*::*finishTask(). Algorithm 2 shows the *Machine*::*finishTask*() execution rule. In this part, we suppose we have a utility function named:

- *Machine*::*produceOutputProducts*(): At this step, the machine can actually produce output products and deliver them on the attached conveyor.

ProductionLine*::*main(). Algorithm 3 shows the *main* execution rule that comprises the main loop of

Algorithm 3: *ProductionLine* :: *main()* execution rule.

```

Inputs:
ProductionLine: the model of the system
begin
  simulationState ← initialize();
  startGenerators(ProductionLine,simulationState);

  while simulationState.tasks().exists(task |
  task.state = IN_PROGRESS) ∧ currentTime <
  ProductionLine.simulationDuration do
    currentTime ←
    computeNextTime(simulationState);
    ProductionLine.simulationstate.currentTime
    = currentTime;

    foreach (task in simulationState.tasks() |
    task.state = IN_PROGRESS ∧
    task.endTime = currentTime) do
      | task.finishTask(currentTime);
    end

    foreach
    element ∈ ProductionLine.elements do
      | element.start(currentTime);
    end
  end
end

```

the system execution. This single rule is used to start the execution of a given SMS model, and triggers other execution rules while it unrolls. Since, by default, all machines are stopped and do nothing, an initialisation stage is performed by using the following utility function :

- *ProductionLine*::*startGenerators()*: starting (using the *start* execution rule) all machines that do not require any input products, i.e., generators.

The products continuously delivered by generators will then eventually trigger a simple “chain reaction”, since other machines will be eventually triggered by the presence of input products. Once the initialization is complete, the main execution loop starts, and will continue while tasks occur and while the simulation target duration has not been reached. During a loop iteration, we start by “jumping” to the next instant where something occurs in the simulation, i.e., either the end of an ongoing task or the start of a coming prepared task. This is achieved by a utility function named *computeNextCurrentTime*:

- *ProductionLine*::*computeNextCurrentTime()*: Look over all ongoing and the coming prepared tasks, and searching for the smallest scheduled end or start time.

We thereby update the *currentTime* of the simulation, with this value. Then, we find all tasks that should end at the new current time value, and trigger the *finishTask()* execution rule on each of these tasks. Depend-

ing on the type of the element performing the task, the *finishTask()* execution rule might move an element (e.g., in the case of a conveyor) or produce an output element (e.g., in the case of a machine). Finally, the *start* execution rule is triggered on all elements, which will create new tasks for elements if conditions are met, as explained previously.

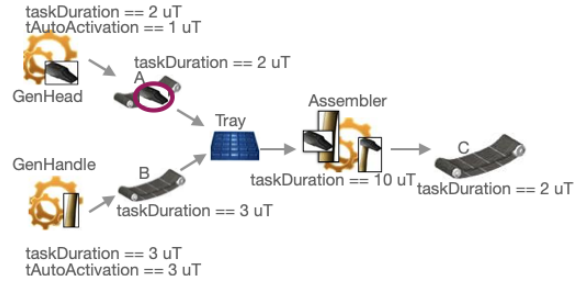


Figure 4: *currentTime* 2 uT during the execution of the Hammer SMS model.

Example of SMS Model Execution. For instance, let’s execute the Hammer SMS model illustrated in Figure 2. The start time is set to 0, it is the *currentTime* of the first runtimeState (the first red circles, from the left in Figure 3). Then, the GenHead and GenHandle are requested to start. Being machines requiring no input, two tasks are instantiated and associated to the *ProductionLineElementState* of these generator machines. The two tasks have a state in progress. The loop (in Algorithm 3) runs as long as there are tasks in progress. The GenHead task will finish at an instant equal to 2 units of time (uT), whereas the GenHandle task will finish at 3 uT. Therefore, the next *currentTime* is computed, being at this stage 2 uT. Next, the GenHead task finishes as it is in progress, i.e., means that the GenHead produces a head and delivers it to the Conveyor A. Figure 4 highlights this runtime state with this produced head surrounded with a red circle. Then, we look at potential tasks to start. At that *currentTime* (at 2 uT, Figure 4), the Conveyor A can start, having received a product to move (i.e., the head produced by GenHead). At this point, the capture of the runtimeState at 2 uT has been successfully built. The next *currentTime* is computed, it is 3 uT, the *endTime* of the GenHandle task. This handle generator delivers a handle product to the Conveyor B, which can have a task starting. The execution will continue in this direction.

4 DEFINITION AND COMPUTATION OF LANGUAGE-LEVEL KPIs

This section presents how we define and compute language-level KPIs for the SMS xDSL using execution traces produced by the operational semantics. The implementation of the xDSL, of a SMS KPI Catalog and of a GUI is provided in a dedicated public GitLab repository².

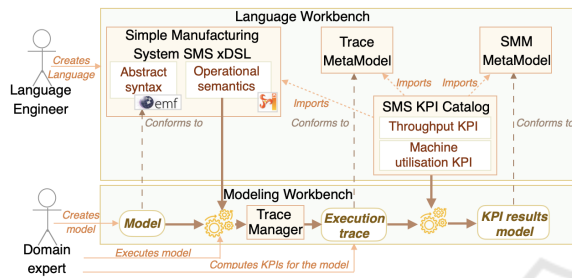


Figure 5: KPI definition and computation process.

4.1 Overview

Figure 5 depicts the KPI definition and computation process for the SMS xDSL. At the top, the language engineer uses the language workbench to create both the SMS xDSL (as presented in the previous section), and a set of relevant KPIs specific to the SMS xDSL. Each of these KPIs is registered in a catalog considered as an SMS KPI Catalog, and it relies on the concepts of the xDSL for its definition (e.g., counting the amount of finished products), and expect as input data an execution trace of an SMS model.

At the bottom, the domain expert (i.e., the user of the SMS xDSL) creates an SMS model using the modeling workbench. She can then execute the SMS model to simulate the manufacturing system behavior, which yields an execution trace model that conforms to the trace metamodel. In this paper, we do not detail how these traces are produced, and we assume a trace manager is available for this task. This trace manager observes the complete simulation, and takes a snapshot of the model state after each simulation step. In the case of SMS, a simulation step consists of simulating all the elements of the system until the next instant. Finally, the domain expert is able to use the language-level pre-defined KPIs available in the SMS KPI Catalog to evaluate the performance of her model. This computation relies on the execution trace produced by the operational semantics, and yields a set of KPI results persisted in a model that conforms

to the standard SMM metamodel. The domain expert can then assess the performance of the manufacturing system at the model level. Therefore, she can compare the evaluation results of several design alternatives by changing only the model.

4.2 Definition of an SMS KPI Catalog

In our approach, an SMS KPI Catalog defines different performance indicators that the user may select when assessing the performance of a system. Each KPI has its own specific formula, which is written as a software program that is able to query an execution trace model and computes the measurements. We consider the following two KPIs for the SMS xDSL:

- **Throughput:** a *global KPI* giving the amount of final products produced at the end of the simulation, divided by the duration of the simulation, i.e., the production speed of the system.
- **Machine Utilization:** a *local KPI* giving the percentage of operating duration of one element of the SMS model (to be opposed to the *pending duration*).

The KPIs presented in the article are assuredly not exhaustive of all KPIs used in the industrial domain, since our objective was to present a proof of concepts and not to iterate on all existing KPIs. Nevertheless, these examples of KPIs constitutes fertile ground for other KPIs as we can apply the same process: defining other KPIs in the language workbench to be used by the domain expert in the modeling workbench on new models of a system.

Algorithm 4 shows the KPI formula for the *throughput KPI*. While this formula takes as input a complete execution trace—as all KPI formulas in our approach—and the type of the final product that the user requests its throughput. This capability gives the proposed approach a parameterization feature: the user can parameterize the KPI computation by specifying which KPI to compute, on/or which element to consider. Note that this KPI in particular only requires looking at the last execution state captured in the trace. The results are captured in an SMM model, and as such a significant part of the logic is dedicated, we suppose we have two utility functions to assist the creation and modification of the SMM model:

- `initializeSMMmodel()` : Initialize the SMM model, and all elements needed (e.g., SMM Library, SMM observation).
- `storeComputedKPIValue()` : Create a SMM Measurement element to store the computed throughput value.

²<https://gitlab.univ-nantes.fr/rodic/simpleplsdl/>

Algorithm 4: Throughput KPI formula.

```

Inputs:
executionTrace: the trace of the execution of the
model
SMMmodel: SMM model where to store the output
type : type of which the user wants its throughput
begin
  SMMmodel ← initializeSMMmodel();
  S ← executionTrace.states.last.currentTime;
  N ← 0;
  foreach container ∈ ExecutionTrace.finalState
  do
    count ← 0;
    foreach part ∈ container.getParts() do
      if part.getType().equals(type) then
        count ++;
      end
    end
    if count > 0 then
      N ← N + count;
    end
  end
  storeComputedKPIValue(SMMmodel, N/S);
end

```

4.3 KPI Computation on Several Models

Once the language engineer has defined KPIs in the language workbench, the domain expert can focus on the models of the systems she wants to assess the performance. In this section, we illustrate how one can compute the KPIs on several versions of a system, by changing its models but without requiring to implement the KPI for each model again.

Firstly, We execute the Hammer SMS model already presented in Figure 2 with a simulation duration of 419 uT and we obtain an execution trace. We then select the *throughput KPI* formula considering the hammer products, shown in Algorithm 4. The computation returns that 41 hammer products have been produced, hence the computed throughput KPI value is $41/419 \simeq 0.1$, i.e., on average 0.1 hammer is produced for 1 uT. This measurement is persisted in a KPI results model.

Thanks to this analysis, it is secondly possible to consider another design of the hammer production line. The domain expert may focus on increasing the throughput by adding another generator of handles and another assembler, and we therefore end up with two assemblers that work in parallel as shown in Figure 6. We run a new simulation with a duration of 419 uT for this second version, and computing the throughput KPI on hammer products, we obtain this time a value of $138/419 \simeq 0.3$ hammer produced for 1 uT. Note that because multiple assemblers are using

the same input tray, the simulator will randomly select which assembler is allowed to pick products from the tray, which may induce inherent differences from one simulation to another (e.g., 137 produced hammers instead of 138).

Starting again from the first version (Figure 2), we can explore another scenario where we introduce drastic capacity limits in the different containers of the system (i.e., a capacity equal to 1 for each conveyor and equal to 2 for the tray). This third version of the model is shown in Figure 7. We run a simulation for 419 uT, but quickly observe that the system is stuck at 27 uT after producing only 2 hammers. The explanation lies in the capacity assigned to different containers. The first container that blocks the producing chain is the Conveyor C as its capacity is restricted to one product, which said that the Assembler activity will be suspended after producing the first hammer. Since the Tray capacity also can not exceed two products, this will paralyze the Conveyor A and B activities, which will be raised to the generators level. Another situation that may also occur is ending up with either two hammer heads or two hammer handles in the tray, which makes it impossible for the assembler to continue, leading to a deadlock. The resulting KPI throughput value is close to zero ($2/419$).

This section illustrates that, once the SMS xDSL and its SMS KPI Catalog are defined and implemented by a language engineer, a domain expert can focus on modeling several models of a hammer production line and compute automatically their KPI. The proposed approach helps a domain expert to reduce her effort by providing relevant information, thus supporting rapid decision-making when reconfiguring a system for instance.

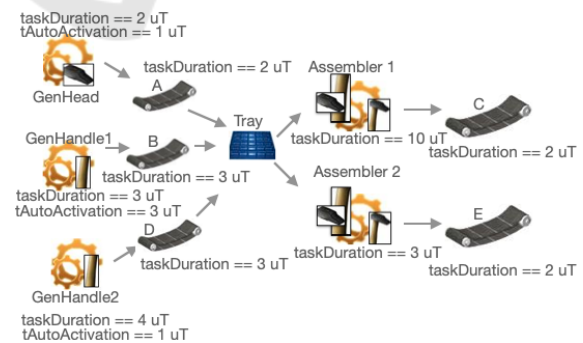


Figure 6: Second version of the Hammer Production Line, with added generator and assembler.

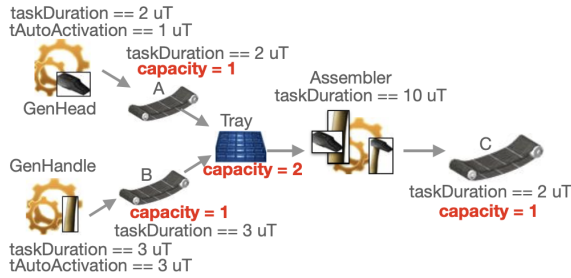


Figure 7: Third version of the Hammer Production Line, with drastic container capacity limits.

5 RELATED WORK

In this section, we report on existing work on the use of MDE and DSLs in the manufacturing domain, and on performance evaluation.

5.1 Use of MDE and DSLs in the Manufacturing Domain

There have been many ventures to use MDE and DSLs in the manufacturing domain. Some specific approaches propose MDE-based solutions adapted for specific sorts of manufacturing systems (An et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2022), while more general approaches propose to generate code from models in order to run simulations (Berruet et al., 2007; Lallican et al., 2007; Prat et al., 2017). There is also flourishing work on the use of MDE to produce digital twins (Bordeleau et al., 2020; Eramo et al., 2022) (i.e., a digital representation of a running cyber-physical system able to predict its behaviors and make decisions accordingly), and existing applications to manufacturing systems (Lugaresi and Matta, 2021).

Overall, compared to existing work, the DSL shown in the present paper only focuses on very simple manufacturing systems at a very high-level of abstraction (e.g., each machine or element is represented as a black-box, and everything is discrete), with a focus on designing the physical layer of a manufacturing system. While most of these approaches aim to run simulations, they do not investigate how and at which abstraction level KPIs should be defined. Through a simple case study, our objective was to investigate how to reduce the effort of the domain expert, related to KPI definition and performance evaluation using language-level KPIs.

5.2 Performance Evaluation Using MDE and DSLs

In the manufacturing domain, Lugaresi et al. (Lugaresi and Matta, 2021) propose to automatically generate a digital twin from an existing system, and to use this digital to estimate the performance of the real system. Compared to our work, while the authors define some KPIs, the work is not focused on how these KPIs are defined nor at which level of abstraction they should be defined.

Outside the manufacturing domain, probably the contribution closest to ours is from Béziers La Fosse et al. (la Fosse et al., 2020) (and with one co-author participating to the present paper), who propose to define energy language-level consumption metrics for each concept of a given DSL. These metrics are then used to estimate the energy consumption of a system modeled and executed with said DSL. In a way, this work provides the means to generalize a specific sort of KPI (energy consumption) directly at the language level, while our work is interested in all sorts of KPIs at the language level, with a specific application to manufacturing systems.

With the same logic, Monahov et al. (Monahov et al., 2013) propose to integrate a DSL for KPI's definition and computation into Enterprise Architecture Management (EAM) tools to quantify Enterprise Architecture (EA) characteristics, thus enabling assessment of EA and measuring the level of goal achievement for EAM. The designed language allows domain experts to define KPIs through the implementation of custom functions and evaluate them. Nonetheless, the designed language was more technically oriented than conceptually engineered; it does not present any concepts constructed around KPIs or performance notions. Otherwise, it was mainly founded on the aggregation of query languages and primitive functions, which results in a query language that may prove difficult to use for domain experts with modest programming knowledge. Compared to our approach, we look to reduce the effort related to the definition of KPIs on the model level, i.e., the domain experts are not requested to write code to query and extract necessary data from the concern model, instead they can easily select KPIs desired from the SMS KPI Catalog, which is predefined at the language level, to get the expected results. Certainly, the domain experts can enrich the SMS KPI Catalog with relevant KPIs according to the application domain (Monahov et al., 2013); nevertheless, the process of feeding this catalog should not amortize the decision-making process.

Moreover, our approach presents an offline evaluation process implemented thanks to the execution

trace mechanism, which separates the performance evaluation from the runtime execution and thus permits domain experts to evaluate the model whenever it is required.

6 CONCLUSION

This paper examined how KPIs can be defined directly at the level of a DSL, thus making them available for domain experts at the model level. This idea was presented through a case study centered on a DSL to define, simulate, and evaluate the performance of simple manufacturing systems. We defined a set of KPIs for this DSL, and illustrated their use with an example of a simple manufacturing system.

As this paper presents early results from our ongoing work, many future research directions are possible. Instead of relying on a generic meta-programming language, the definition of KPIs could be facilitated using a dedicated KPI definition meta-language. This work could also be generalized to be applicable to any executable DSL for which performance measurement would be relevant.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the French National Research Agency (ANR) [grant number ANR 21 CE10 0017].

REFERENCES

Adam, M., Cardin, O., Berruet, P., and Castagna, P. (2011). Proposal of an Approach to Automate the Generation of a Transitive System's Observer and Decision Support using Model Driven Engineering. *IFAC Proceedings Volumes*, 44(1):3593–3598.

An, K., Trewyn, A., Gokhale, A., and Sastry, S. (2011). Model-Driven Performance Analysis of Reconfigurable Conveyor Systems Used in Material Handling Applications. In *2011 IEEE/ACM Second International Conference on Cyber-Physical Systems*, pages 141–150, Chicago, IL, USA. IEEE.

Berruet, P., Lallican, J. L., Rossi, A., and Philippe, J. L. (2007). Generation of control for conveying systems based on component approach. In *2007 IEEE International Conference on Systems, Man and Cybernetics*. IEEE.

Bordeleau, F., Combemale, B., Eramo, R., van den Brand, M., and Wimmer, M. (2020). Towards model-driven digital twin engineering: Current opportunities and future challenges. In *Communications in Computer*

and Information Science, pages 43–54. Springer International Publishing.

Eramo, R., Bordeleau, F., Combemale, B., van den Brand, M., Wimmer, M., and Wortmann, A. (2022). Conceptualizing digital twins. *IEEE Software*, 39(2):39–46.

Ferrer, B. R., Muhammad, U., Mohammed, W., and Lastra, J. M. (2018). Implementing and visualizing ISO 22400 key performance indicators for monitoring discrete manufacturing systems. *Machines*, 6(3):39.

Kaiser, B., Reichle, A., and Verl, A. (2022). Model-based automatic generation of digital twin models for the simulation of reconfigurable manufacturing systems for timber construction. *Procedia CIRP*, 107:387–392.

Koren, Y., Heisel, U., Jovane, F., Moriwaki, T., Pritschow, G., Ulsoy, G., and Van Brussel, H. (1999). Reconfigurable Manufacturing Systems. *CIRP Annals*, 48(2):527–540.

la Fosse, T. B., Tisi, M., Mottu, J.-M., and Sunyé, G. (2020). Annotating executable DSLs with energy estimation formulas. In *Proceedings of the 13th ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Software Language Engineering*. ACM.

Lallican, J. L., Berruet, P., Rossi, A., and Philippe, J. L. (2007). A component-based approach for conveying systems control design. In *4th International Conference on Informatics in Control, Automation and Robotics ICINCO 2007*, pages 329–336, Angers, France.

Latif, K., Selva, M., Effiong, C., Ursu, R., Gamatie, A., Sasatelli, G., Zordan, L., Ost, L., Dziurzanski, P., and Indrusiak, L. S. (2016). Design space exploration for complex automotive applications: an engine control system case study. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Workshop on Rapid Simulation and Performance Evaluation: Methods and Tools*, pages 1–7, Prague Czech Republic. ACM.

Lugaresi, G. and Matta, A. (2021). Automated manufacturing system discovery and digital twin generation. *Journal of Manufacturing Systems*, 59:51–66.

Monahov, I., Reschenhofer, T., and Matthes, F. (2013). Design and Prototypical Implementation of a Language Empowering Business Users to Define Key Performance Indicators for Enterprise Architecture Management. In *2013 17th IEEE International Enterprise Distributed Object Computing Conference Workshops*, pages 337–346, Vancouver, BC, Canada. IEEE.

Prat, S., Cavron, J., Kesraoui, D., Rauffet, P., Berruet, P., and Bignon, A. (2017). An Automated Generation Approach of Simulation Models for Checking Control/Monitoring System. *IFAC-PapersOnLine*, 50(1):6202–6207.

Raith, C., Woschank, M., and Zsifkovits, H. (2021). Meta-modeling in Manufacturing Systems: Literature Review and Trends. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Operations Management*, Singapore.