

An Environment for the Integrated Modelling of Systems with Complex Continuous and Discrete Dynamics

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Abstract. The modelling and simulation of sophisticated technical systems is a demanding task. On the one hand, the physical part consists of a large number of subsystems which exhibit predominantly continuous dynamics, sometimes with (infrequent) discontinuities. On the other hand, the distributed computerised control systems constitute complex discrete-time and discrete-event systems that require completely different modelling and simulation methods. For an evaluation of the behaviour and the performance of the overall system, both types of models have to be combined and simulated efficiently. This contribution presents the requirements for a modelling environment for such systems and discusses an approach that consists of object-oriented modelling and efficient simulation of the physical part using the physical systems modelling language MODELICA, a software environment for the definition of discrete-event models using various formalisms, and the integration of both parts of the system via model translation. The coordination of both parts is performed by the MODELICA simulator. The modelling environment called DES/M (discrete-event systems for Modelica) supports the interoperation of different domain specific discrete-event formalisms. To illustrate the usage of the environment, a laboratory batch plant model is presented. A more elaborate example is described in another contribution in this volume (Mosterman et al., 2002).

1 Introduction

Sophisticated technological systems such as chemical plants, cars, and aircraft consist of a large number of physical components, numerous low-level set-point controllers and interlocks, and interacting complex supervisory controllers which may be organised in a hierarchical manner. On the supervisory control level, trajectory optimisation, fault detection, redundancy management, and sequence control e.g. for start-up and shutdown are performed and the interaction with the user is managed. The dominant part of the functions on this level consists of logic operations that are triggered by thresholds or events in the environment, including user commands. The physical part of the system and the supervisory control system put high demands on the power and the user-friendliness of the modelling techniques. In order to study the overall behaviour of such systems, a simulation model has to incorporate both

parts and an integration is required that enables efficient and at the same time accurate simulation.

1.1 The Physical Part

The physical part of the system consists of a large number of interconnected components. The behaviour of these components is determined by the laws of physics and chemistry. The overall system may consist of subsystems from various domains: electrical circuits, pneumatic and hydraulic actuators, mechanical transmission, fuel cells, combustion chambers, tanks, gas transport systems, chemical reactors, etc. These submodels are usually developed by teams of domain experts who take a lot of technological details and domain knowledge into account. Each modelling domain has specific graphical representations and modelling traditions, but in most cases the final models are algebraic and differential equations involving continuous variables that depend on (continuous) time. The models of the physical components may contain discontinuities that strictly speaking are caused by model simplifications which are made in order to avoid models with largely different time scales. Examples are friction and contact in mechanical systems, thermodynamic phase changes, ideal switches, e.g. diodes, in electronic systems. Other discontinuities occur when physical limits are reached (overflow of a tank, rupture of a vessel) or inputs to the physical system change abruptly. At these points in time, the movement of the system trajectory in the state space may abruptly change its direction and its velocity, or very fast transients occur that can be regarded as jumps in the state space. At points of discontinuity, the number of independent state variables may change, e.g. if two rigid bodies make contact. In consequence, the physical part of the system itself may exhibit hybrid behaviour, i.e. mixed discrete/continuous dynamics.

The complexity of modelling and simulation of the physical part of the system is exacerbated if several components with hybrid behaviour interact with each other, e.g. electronic circuits with several diodes. This calls for powerful modelling and simulation techniques.

1.2 The Supervisory Controllers

Supervisory control is used for many different purposes. For instance, sequential control is needed for the execution of recipes in chemical batch plants, redundancy management is crucial for the safety of aircraft, and resource booking systems are needed for coordinating several interacting sequential controllers, e.g., to avoid collisions of robots or to prevent the mixing of batches running in parallel in chemical plants. Start up, shut down, and emergency procedures are further examples for the necessity of supervisory controllers. In decentralised or redundant automation architectures, autonomous supervisory controllers interact in order to achieve the performance goals. Other functions of supervisory control are trajectory optimisation and user interaction.

In general, a supervisory controller is a reactive discrete-event system. The states and the outputs of such a system change discontinuously according to discrete state

transition sequences that are performed when a reaction to external stimuli from the user or from the physical system is required. For example, in the case of a tank that is being filled, a controller may have to close the inlet valve when the desired level is reached. The events that trigger the instantaneous reactions are determined by logical expressions containing analog and binary input variables that carry information on the current state of the physical system as well as internal variables that belong to the state of the controller and of other controllers in a distributed control system. Hence, the reactions depend on the current discrete state whereas the event times depend on the evolution of the state variables of the physical system and on clock variables in the discrete system. If the duration of a specific process, e.g. the duration of the filling of the tank, is known a priori and corresponding measurements, e.g., a sensor for the tank level, are not available, timers have to be used for triggering the transitions. Thus, time events occur that anticipate corresponding state events.

Even though supervisory controllers are mostly implemented as sampled data systems, their behaviour can adequately be described as reactive, i.e., driven by external state events. This is because the sampling intervals in the logical part are normally very short in comparison to the continuous dynamics so that at most sampling instants the controller does nothing but evaluating the triggering signals and waiting. Consequently, the sampling rate has a subordinate significance for the overall behaviour.

The difficulties for modelling and simulation arise from the fact that a reaction of a supervisory controller that appears as a monolithic state transition to the outer system may be the result of very complex inner iterations including hierarchical execution schemes as well as concurrency and synchronous and asynchronous communication.

1.3 Modelling and Simulation

The overall behaviour of a technical system is generated by the interaction of the physical components, discrete-event controllers and regulators. A precise comprehensive simulation model has to incorporate all these components and their relations if the purpose of the model is to evaluate the overall behaviour. Simulation goals may be, e.g., testing of the reaction to failures, the estimation of throughput or power consumption, a feasibility check for a specific production plan, or operator training.

Independent of the way of modelling, the physical part generally is solved by standard numerical integration methods such as Runge-Kutta methods or *backward differential formulae* (BDF) (Brenan and Campbell, 1996). This implies that the modelling process results in the generation of a consistent and uniquely solvable set of equations, either of explicit ordinary differential equations (ODE form) or of general *differential and algebraic equations* (DAE form). If hybrid phenomena have to be considered, special facilities have to be provided, because the inequalities that define the physical limits or the thresholds of a supervisory controller generate discontinuities, but the numerical integration methods usually require equations with a certain degree of continuity.

A usual approach is to ignore these inequalities during the numerical integration process and to use any efficient integration scheme, usually with a variable step size. This guarantees continuity of the equations. In order to handle the discontinuities, the values of the variables that enter into the trigger inequalities are monitored, and when a threshold is crossed, the integration is stopped and the time instant of the state event is localised up to a certain precision by backtracking. In case the event is dependent on time only, a time event, the integration simply stops directly at the predetermined time. When the integration is stopped, the discrete changes are performed and, afterwards, the integration is restarted.

The embedding of set-point controllers into the physical model is relatively straightforward since regulators are usually described by the same type of equations as the physical systems, and an overall ODE or DAE system results. Sampling effects often can be neglected because the sampling intervals are of the same order of magnitude as the integration step size. If this is not the case, time events have to be used in order to stop the integrator at every sample time. This is not convenient for multistep methods because these schemes must be restarted after every discontinuity which significantly decelerates the numerical integration (Brenan and Campbell, 1996).

In contrast to the domain of predominantly continuous dynamics where there is a standard system representation and general purpose numerical algorithms can be used, discrete-event simulation algorithms are specific to the modelling formalism used, and rather different from continuous integration methods. Popular formalisms are automata, statecharts, Petri Nets, dataflow diagrams, synchronous languages, or programming languages such as sequential function charts and function block diagrams as specified in the IEC 61131-3 standard for programmable logic controllers (IEC 1131, 1993). Each formalism has a specific syntax and semantics that closely matches users' training and expertise and that are well suited to the particular application. The transformation of formal models from one formalism into another is complicated and often leads to inefficient models, even for formalisms with equivalent expressive power (Huuck et al., 1997). Thus for a general purpose simulation environment, it is preferable, if not indispensable, to offer various modelling formalisms and even to allow the user to define new or specific formalisms with little effort. The use of domain specific formalisms results in models that are elegant, intelligible to the user, and closely correspond to the documentation formalism and/or the implementation language. This keeps the modelling effort low and makes it less error prone than a transformation into one general, tool-specific formalism.

2 Requirements for the Modelling Environment

Due to the complexity of both the physical part and the supervisory control system in large technical systems, it is evident that a powerful modelling environment and efficient simulation methods are indispensable to support the design process.

2.1 Intuitive and Effortless Modelling of Physical Systems

The physical part should be modelled as intuitively as possible. From the modeller's point of view the optimum would be to assemble the whole model using predefined building blocks that correspond to the technical components. The graphical connection of these elements would result in composition diagrams that look like familiar engineering notations, e.g. electrical circuit diagrams, flow charts, and other conventional notations.

In most cases, physical systems do not have explicit inputs and outputs; whether an external variable is input or output depends on the environment. For instance, the pressure drop in a pipe may be caused by a prescribed flow or be the cause of a certain flow rate. Thus the building blocks of larger models should have non-causal, undirected interfaces.

Due to the potential variety of components in technical systems, only a limited number of standard elements can be predefined and stored in component libraries. The remaining elements have to be defined by the modeller. For basic elements a convenient approach is to enter the underlying physical equations, possibly taken from the relevant literature, without transformation to a specific mathematical format, e.g. a system of explicit ODEs. Of course, the number of equations must match the number of unknowns. This approach is called declarative modelling, because the modeller states that these equations have to be satisfied, without determining how to perform the calculations. The model acts as a set of constraints on the coupling variables, but it is not explicitly stated how to compute outputs from inputs and initial states.

Larger elements should be defined as a composition of smaller building blocks. This leads to a hierarchical structuring of the model, which is crucial for the effective handling of large models. Since one has to deal with many different building blocks, it should be possible to establish user-defined libraries in addition to the standard libraries. Additionally, the concept of inheritance supports the modelling effort and reduces the likelihood of errors. Component model classes then can be derived from basic model classes by adding more detail. If the basic model class is modified, this modification also effects the derived classes and the models that will be instantiated from the derived classes.

2.2 Adequate Modelling of Discrete-Event Systems

The requirements for the modelling of discrete-event systems are different from those for physical systems in many respects. Discrete-event models are more diverse with respect to syntax and semantics than quantitative simulation models of physical systems. Physical systems can be treated in a uniform way using DAEs as an underlying semantic basis. The syntax of the graphical representation is also simple: the blocks have uniform ports and the building blocks are coupled by simply connecting these ports. In case of the modelling language MODELICA, the coupling semantics is that all (generalised) flow variables must add up to zero or that the (generalised) potential variables, such as voltage, pressure etc., assume the same value.

In contrast, each discrete-event formalism has its specific graphical syntax that does not simply refine a common basic syntax so that specific graphical editors have to be provided for each formalism that is supported.

Furthermore, no established semantic standard form, comparable to the DAE-system, exists for discrete-event formalisms, and transformations to a basic formalism are often inconvenient, sometimes due to relatively small semantic differences. Consequently, for the simulation of DES models, specific algorithms must be used.

Regarding the complexity of real supervisory control systems which may consist of a large number of modules that are specified by different designers from different domains, it is necessary to support heterogeneous discrete-event models including hierarchical execution schemes as well as concurrency with synchronous and asynchronous communication systems, i.e., it should be possible to model different parts of a controller with different formalisms and to connect these parts in a consistent manner. If different simulators are used for different formalisms, these discrete-event simulators have to interact with each other and have to be synchronised with the numerical integration of the continuous part of the system.

2.3 Integration of Continuous and Discrete-Event Models

For a seamless integration of discrete-event formalisms and physical models, on the *syntax* level, the coupling should reflect the actual hierarchical relations. Since components of the supervisory control system often are related to particular sub-systems of the continuous part, the corresponding discrete-event model should be represented by a block that can be inserted into a composition diagram of the physical model. The inputs and the outputs of the discrete blocks can be connected with ports of other building blocks, continuous or discrete.

On the *semantic* level, the coupling of a discrete-event model with the physical model is more involved. Some numerical integrators evaluate the model equations several times in order to do one step (Brenan and Campbell, 1996). This can cause unpredictable behaviours if the discrete-event system is called at intermediate points without considering the fact that the simulation of the continuous system has not yet converged. The semantics of the discrete-event formalisms must not become corrupted by the integration into the physical system. Conversely, transitions in the discrete-event part occur while time in the physical system does not progress. If iterations in the discrete-event part are performed, the intermediate states must not be transmitted to the continuous system but the simulation must be stopped until the discrete part has reached a stable state. This stable state may imply switchings not only of variables but also of the structure of the continuous part which may trigger new events in the discrete system. Even worse, the overall state of the continuous system, composed of the discrete inputs and the past state of the physical part may not be consistent such that a new initialisation has to be computed. So a nested loop of computations must be performed with frozen physical time until the overall system has reached a stable and consistent state from which the simulation can be continued.

The localisation of state events inevitably leads to increased simulation times because iteration or other additional computations are required. If the discrete part contains timers which trigger transitions, it is advantageous to propagate this information to the continuous simulator such that the simulation stops precisely at the event time and an iteration is avoided. Finally, discrete-event formalisms require an adequate visualisation of the simulation results using the graphical formalism itself typically in the form of animation. The usual plots of variables over time are not sufficient.

2.4 The State-of-the-Art

Some general-purpose commercial software tools exist for modelling and simulation of hybrid systems. Among these, the MATLAB package with SIMULINK and STATEFLOW is the most widely used tool (Matlab, 2002). In consideration of the requirements postulated above one has to realise that the state of the art is not satisfactory.

Block diagrams have a fixed causality and are not really intuitive to model large systems. The use of block diagrams results in an abstract mathematical representation of the modelled system as shown in Fig. 1. This block diagram corresponds to an electrical circuit, but it is not evident how it is related to the structure and to the parameters of the circuit. Furthermore, if e.g. a voltage source is replaced by a current generator many modifications are required in the overall model, since the cause and effect relations have to be inverted in several locations. This poses serious problems for the reuse of aggregated building blocks.

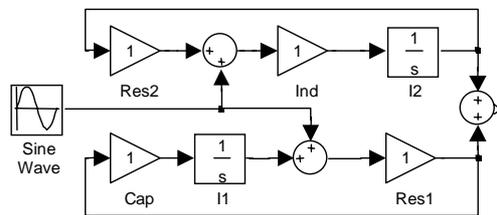


Fig. 1. A block diagram

The STATEFLOW formalism is a variant of statecharts (Harel, 1987). Figure 2 illustrates this with a STATEFLOW model of a relay mechanism. Statecharts are an intuitive and powerful formalism to model reactive behaviour and exist in many slightly different flavours. But besides statecharts, many other formalisms, such as High Level Petri Nets or GRAFCET, and programming languages, such as Sequential Function Charts, exist that have their specific strengths and can not be mapped easily onto statecharts.

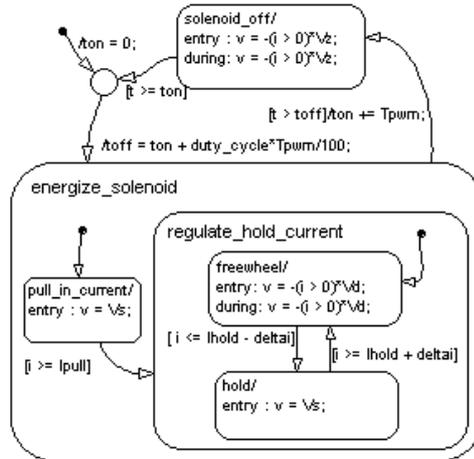


Fig. 2. A stateflow diagram (screenshot)

3 The DES/M Approach

The proposed solution for the modelling and simulation of large, complex systems with continuous and discrete-event dynamics consists of two major elements. The object-oriented equation-based modelling language MODELICA is used for the modelling of the physical part and of the regulators. A newly developed software tool for the modelling of discrete-event systems called DES/M (discrete-event systems for MODELICA) supports various formalisms (at present statecharts and SFCs) and modular, hierarchical and heterogeneous models. The discrete-event part of the model is automatically transformed into a MODELICA algorithm. Any simulator that can process MODELICA code can then be used to solve the overall system. The interaction of the continuous and the discrete part of the system is coordinated by the event handling mechanism of the MODELICA solver.

3.1 Object-Oriented Modelling Using MODELICA

In object-oriented modelling, the model elements correspond to physical components of the real system and the composition of the elements to the overall model is in accordance with the physical structure of the system. The elements have undirected interfaces and their behaviour is normally described declaratively. An element can be a composition of other elements and it can contain equations for the behavioural description. These equations need not to be solved explicitly for a particular variable. Another common feature of object-oriented modelling languages is that the equations are processed symbolically. The overall mathematical model is constituted by all the equations that describe the model elements and their connections. This usually leads to a large but sparse system of algebraic and differential equations (DAE). By means of automatic symbolic manipulations this large set of

equations is transformed into a sorted DAE where as many derivatives and algebraic variables as possible are computed explicitly and redundant variables are removed. This enables efficient simulation using standard integration methods.

The most prominent object-oriented modelling languages are MODELICA (Modelica Design Group, 2000), VHDL-AMS (Heinkel, 2000) and gPROMS (gPROMS, 2002). MODELICA is best suited for our purposes because it is not tailored to a specific application domain, and it is standardised by a non-profit organisation, the MODELICA Association, and freely available. Very important are the class concepts of MODELICA that include class definition, object instantiation, partial classes, inheritance, and more, which facilitate the creation of model libraries. These features are well known from object-oriented programming languages, but they are not always supported by object-oriented modelling languages. The meaning of the term ‘object-orientation’ depends on the context, here the essential property is the construction of large models from building blocks which can be used freely because they are formulated in a general, context-independent fashion. For MODELICA, many free libraries exist for different domains such as electrical systems, rotational and translational mechanics, multibody systems, and others.

For the definition and simulation of MODELICA models we use the commercial software DYMOLA (Dymola, 2002). This tool provides a graphical editor for composition diagrams so that systems can be modelled visually. The graphical representation of the library components mimics conventional engineering notations. The main reason to use DYMOLA, however, is the powerful symbolic engine that transforms the set of equations into a form that can be solved efficiently. This permits the simulation of very complex physical systems including hybrid phenomena (Otter et al., 1999).

In Fig. 3 it is shown how simple it is to build a model of a hydraulic actuator using given library components. The resulting model resembles the engineering notation and can be aggregated to a new composed building block that can be incorporated into a library as well.

To illustrate how hybrid phenomena can be modelled in an equation-based declarative style, consider an ideal electrical diode (Fig. 4). Due to the idealisation a sharp discontinuity is introduced at $u = 0$. In order to achieve an equation-based description, the diode characteristic is parameterised by a parameter s so that u equals s if s is less than zero, and i equals s if it is nonnegative. This results in the following set of equations:

$$off = s < 0 \tag{1}$$

$$u = \text{if } off \text{ then } s \text{ else } 0 \tag{2}$$

$$i = \text{if } off \text{ then } 0 \text{ else } s. \tag{3}$$

Due to this declarative formulation, the interaction of several diodes in an electrical circuit needs not be modelled explicitly. The network behaviour is defined implicitly by the composition of the component equations and of the connection equations (Otter et al., 2000).

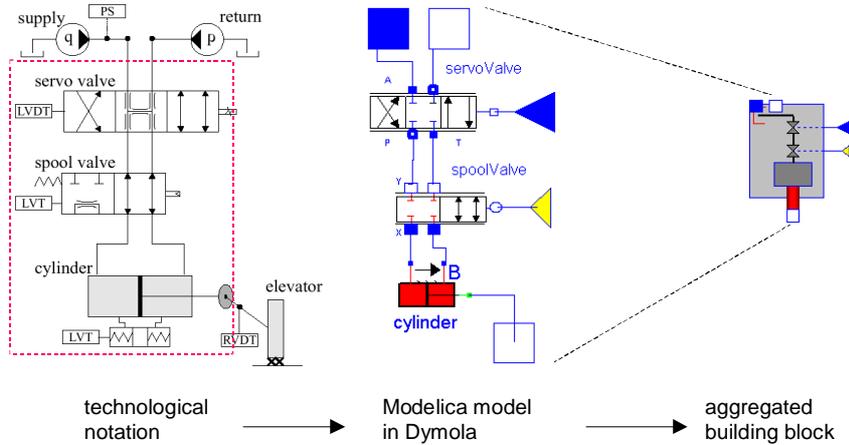


Fig. 3. Modeling a hydraulic actuator using standard components

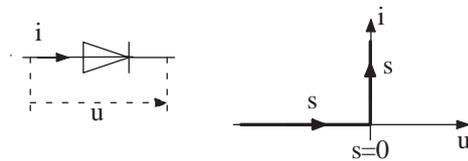


Fig. 4. Ideal diode model described as parameterized curve

Basic discrete event formalisms can also be expressed in an equation-based fashion, e.g. simple Petri Nets and automata (Mosterman et al., 1998). For instance, in a Petri Net model, the places and the transitions are represented by components that are defined in the corresponding MODELICA library. The graph structure is constituted by the connections of the ports of the components. Since each object and each connection just add equations to the overall set of equations, the behaviour of a Petri Net model is defined as the mathematical solution of the subset of equations given by the Petri Net model.

Unfortunately, this object-oriented modelling technique is not suitable for the modelling of complex discrete-event systems. The first reason is that the syntax of composition diagrams based on blocks with ports is not powerful enough for the graphical representation of complex formalisms such as statecharts. The second reason is that certain semantic elements such as local iterations can not be represented adequately by a set of equations. For instance, in certain statechart variants (Harel et al., 1987) a *step* of a statechart, i.e., its reaction to external stimuli, is defined as a sequence of *micro-steps*. Each micro-step consists of a set of concurrently taken transitions. At a micro-step, the firing transitions may generate events that trigger the transitions of the subsequent micro-step. In this manner a kind of event iteration is performed that ends when no further transitions are triggered (improper

statecharts may result in infinite iterations). Micro-steps are considered just as an internal mechanism to compute the reaction of a statechart so that the micro-steps should be hidden from the environment of the statechart. Therefore, an adequate realisation would use this operational semantics to generate the behaviour of a statechart and omit an interleaved execution with the physical system. Unfortunately this is not possible with an equation-based realisation, since the equations of a statechart would have to be solved simultaneously with the equations of the physical system. Thus, each micro-step would be connected to the evaluation of the overall set of equations so that side-effects possibly can take place in the physical system.

3.2 A Compatible Modelling Environment for Discrete-Event Systems

For the reasons stated above, the DES/M modelling environment has been developed that provides dedicated editors for several discrete-event formalisms and allows to insert the discrete-event models consistently into the overall model. By this approach the restrictions on semantics, syntax and graphical appearance are circumvented, and the object-oriented modelling principles for continuous systems are not enforced in a domain where they are not appropriate. By suitable transformations, the models of the discrete-event part can be inserted into the overall MODELICA model and can be solved using standard techniques for the manipulation and the numerical solution of continuous systems.

For the definition of the discrete-event part of the models, there are two different possible options. The first is to compose the model from discrete-event building blocks, the behaviour of which is specified declaratively based on equations, similar to the procedure that is followed for the continuous part. However, these blocks would have to be quite complex because a large number of interacting variables may be required. Therefore the blocks should not simply be merged but a code optimisation step should be performed. Thus there would be two transformations before an executable model is obtained; first the transformation of the individual blocks into MODELICA code, then the construction of the overall model. The second approach is to construct the discrete-event part of the model completely on the graphical level using the chosen formalisms and the respective graphical editors, and then to perform an automatic translation into a single MODELICA-algorithm and to wrap it into a MODELICA class. We prefer the second approach. For reasons discussed above, all discrete-event subsystems that interact directly via events or messages must be represented as a monolithic block in an imperative fashion. The transformation of the complete system into an algorithm leads to a clear structure – first an overall discrete-event model is composed from subblocks that can be structured hierarchically and may even be defined using different formalisms, e.g. statecharts and SFCs, and then the transformation into an algorithm is performed following clearly specified semantics. Actually, in the end a problem specific discrete-event simulator is inserted into the MODELICA model of the physical system. This MODELICA component can be easily connected to physical components because it interacts via standard ports.

The main advantage of using a MODELICA-algorithm is that the handling of the state events is done by MODELICA automatically. The MODELICA compiler discovers all potential sources of discontinuities in the algorithm and makes sure that discontinuities are handled appropriately, i.e., when a threshold is reached and a discrete state transition or any other discontinuity occurs, the integrator will be stopped in order to perform the discrete changes. If the discrete-event model would be simulated by an external program, the conditions that trigger the state transitions in the discrete-event model still would have to be inserted into the MODELICA model in order to stop the continuous simulation when the discrete-event part causes state events. If the discrete system is specified in a different environment, this task has to be performed manually by copying the transition conditions or guards and invariants, which is tedious and error-prone. In contrast, the DES/M environment generates automatically a complete MODELICA simulation algorithm for the discrete system parts from the graphical specification.

The modelling environment supports heterogeneous and hierarchical discrete-event models by means of a special block editor. Model-reuse is enabled using an archetype concept, i.e., each block that is used in a model is an instance of an archetype that defines the ports and the general properties of the block type and one or several alternative implementations. These implementations define the behaviour of the instantiated blocks and can be specified using again block diagrams or another formalism.

In order to reduce the effort for the implementation of several editors, the DES/M environment is based on the meta-modelling tool DoME (DOME, 1999). DoME was designed as a tool for the automatic generation of complex graphical editors based on a formal syntax description and parameters that control the graphical appearance. A partially graphical language called DoME Tool Specification Language is used for specifying the graphical entities, their properties and relations, structural constraints as well as their visual appearance. More advanced features such as more complex syntactical constraints and code generation can be implemented with DoME's Lisp-like extension Alter or using Smalltalk. Besides the block diagram editor, up to the present, two further editors have been realised: a statechart (SC) editor and an editor for *sequential function charts* (SFC) (Deparade et al., 2001).

3.3 Formalism Interoperation via Special Block Diagrams

As already mentioned, a special hierarchical block diagram formalism has been implemented for supporting the interoperation of different formalisms. The main idea is rather straightforward: Certain blocks of a block diagram may contain either another block diagram or a reactive model that is specified with a state transition formalism such as statecharts or sequential function charts. Consequently, it is possible to use different formalisms within one model.

The idea to use a block diagram formalism arose from the modelling of the aircraft elevator described in detail in (Mosterman et al., 2002). The main feature of this control system is that 8 concurrent state machines, each modelled by a statechart, interact tightly in order to achieve a safe configuration of the redundant el-

evator actuators when failures occur. The statecharts have the same structure and their transition conditions are large logical expressions that reference the states of the other statecharts and the failure signals. The goal of the block diagram formalism was to separate the large and complex logical expressions from the statecharts, so that the statecharts become identical (and clearer) and can be instantiated from the same class. Therefore, the block diagram formalism distinguishes static blocks that are depicted with a dashed border, from dynamic blocks that have a solid border (Fig. 5).

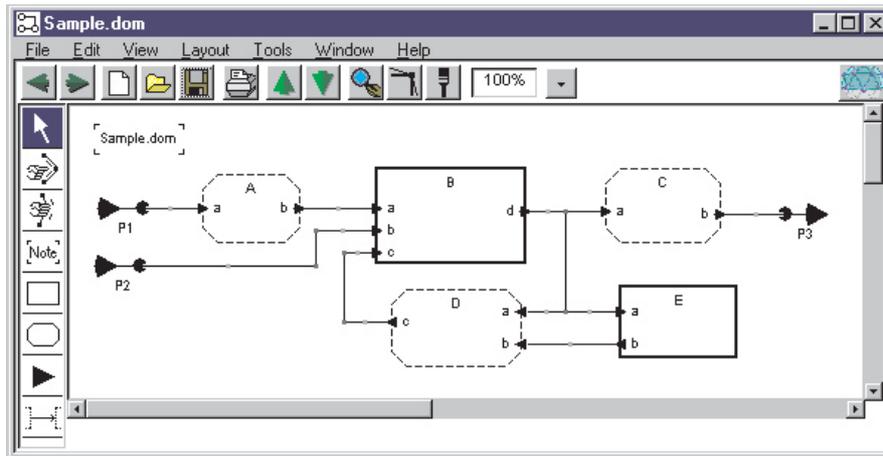


Fig. 5. A sample block graph

A static block contains an algorithm or just a set of assignments and is used to compute the current output values y_i directly from the current input values u_i of the block. Hence the behaviour of a static block can be represented by a function:

$$y_i = f_{stat}(u_i) \quad (4)$$

Such a static block is applied to, e.g., the computation of the logical expressions of the redundancy controller.

The dynamic blocks have internal state variables x_i and a quasi-synchronous semantics is applied, i.e., the blocks are evaluated synchronously, but without simultaneous data exchange:

$$x_i = f_{dyn}(x_{i-1}, u_i), \quad (5)$$

$$y_i = g_{dyn}(x_{i-1}). \quad (6)$$

The state transition function f_{dyn} and the output function g_{dyn} impose an iterative computation scheme for the block graph such that the response of such blocks to new changes of the inputs becomes effective in the next iteration step. As long as

the outputs of these blocks are changing, all blocks have to be reevaluated synchronously. This quasi-synchronous semantics is analogous to the internal computation of statechart behaviour: if a statechart contains orthogonal parts (modelled with and-states), the consequences of concurrently and independently taken transitions of a micro-step, i.e., events and the new states, only become effective in the subsequent micro-step. Thus, in the DEFORM approach, local event iterations are not only performed inside of the statecharts, where a step can be computed by a sequence of micro-steps, but also on the block diagram level.

Further elements in Fig. 5 are the outer ports that represent the interface of the block diagram to the higher level ($P1, P2, P3$) and the ports of the blocks (a, b, c, d). Each port has an associated port type that defines the structure of the data transmitted through the respective port. This data-structure can be hierarchical and may contain different basic types such as Real, Integer and Boolean.

At a higher level, the block diagram in Fig. 5 is itself a dynamic block with ports $P1, P2$ and $P3$. The state of this enclosing block is the Cartesian product of the states of the dynamic blocks B and E . For the computation of the state transition function of the enclosing block an iteration at the level of the inner block graph (Fig. 5) is started during which the following constraints have to be satisfied at each iteration step:

$$\begin{aligned}
A.a_i &= P1 \\
B.b_i &= P2 \\
E.a_i &= D.a_i = C.a_i = B.d_i = g_B(B.x_{i-1}) \\
D.b_i &= E.b_i = g_E(E.x_{i-1}) \\
A.b_i &= f_A(A.a_i) \\
C.b_i &= f_C(C.a_i) \\
D.c_i &= f_D(D.a_i, D.b_i) \\
B.a_i &= A.b_i \\
B.c_i &= D.c_i \\
B.x_i &= f_B(B.x_{i-1}, B.a_i, B.b_i, B.c_i) \\
E.x_i &= f_E(E.x_{i-1}, E.a_i).
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

After this iteration has converged to a stable state, the outputs $P3$ of the enclosing block are updated and the computation of the transition function of the enclosing block is finished.

It should be noted, that for a specific block it does not make a difference whether its behaviour is specified as a block diagram or as a statechart, since both formalisms are transformed into a state transition function that hides the inner processes. Hence arbitrary other reactive formalisms and communication paradigms can be incorporated as well, as long as they can be transformed into a compatible state transition function.

3.4 The Modelling and Simulation Process

The approach described above leads to a tool architecture that consists of two main cooperating tools: DYMOLA is used for physical system modelling, whereas the

DES/M environment is used for modelling discrete-event systems (Fig. 6). By means of the editors for the various discrete-event formalisms, the complete supervisory control system is described. Then it is compiled into a MODELICA class that is stored in the file system so that it can be retrieved by DYMOLA and instantiated in the model of the physical system. The MODELICA classes created in DYMOLA are stored in the file system as well. For simulating the overall model, the corresponding class has to be compiled into an executable. The transformation of the set of equations into a preferably explicit representation is performed automatically. The simulator executable generates the trajectory for a given set of parameters that can be changed without the need to recompile the model. Every time when the supervisory controller has to react, the integrator stops because a state event is generated due to inequality expressions in the MODELICA-algorithm. The execution of the algorithm at these times realises a discrete state transition and the corresponding change of the outputs. The internal processes during such a state transition do not become visible to the model of the physical system, but they are saved in a log file. This permits the visualisation of the internal processes of the discrete-event model in the DoME tool for debugging purposes.

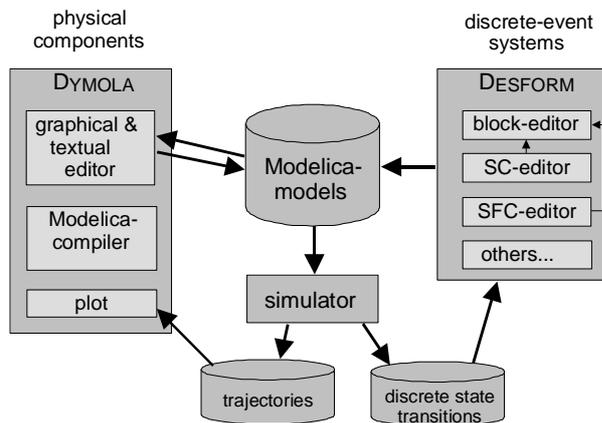


Fig. 6. The modeling and simulation process using two tools

4 Realising Discrete-Event Dynamics in MODELICA

A discrete-event model that was composed within the DES/M environment is translated into a MODELICA component that contains one algorithm for the computation of the reactions of the corresponding supervisory controller. This algorithm is a simulator for the specific discrete-event model and is possibly very complex. In the following, two simple examples are discussed in order to illustrate how the continuous integration and the discrete-event dynamics are combined using the MODELICA

language. The actual code generation is intricate, in essence it is the realisation of the operational semantics of the formalisms supported by DEFORM using the MOD-ELICA language.

4.1 Models with State Events

The synchronisation of the discrete-event dynamics and the continuous integration is straightforward (Pereira Remelhe et al., 2001). To illustrate this, consider a simple supervisory controller that fills a tank up to a certain level h_high , after a specific low level h_low was reached. For safety reasons, an additional limit sensor is installed that indicates whether the tank is full. This controller has two input variables: the current level h and the binary signal $limit_h_full$, as well as a binary output variable v for the inlet valve. The corresponding discrete-event dynamics can be described by a model with two states $S1$ and $S2$, and two Transitions $T1$ and $T2$ (Fig. 7). An algorithm that exhibits the desired behaviour can be formulated as follows:

```
T1_fires := pre(S1) and (limit_h_full or (h>h_high));
T2_fires := pre(S2) and (h<h_low);
S1 := (pre(S1) and not T1_fires) or T2_fires;
S2 := (pre(S2) and not T2_fires) or T1_fires;
v := S1;
```

Such an algorithm corresponds to a state transition function that maps the previous controller state $x_{prev} = \{pre(S1), pre(S2)\}$ and the current input variables $u = \{h, limit_h_full\}$ into the new state $x_{new} = \{S1, S2\}$ and the current output variables $y = \{v\}$. During the continuous integration this algorithm is executed simultaneously to the evaluations of the complete set of equations, but all state variables and outputs remain constant, since the inequality expressions are fixed. If the state $S1$ is active, in the algorithm $pre(S1)$ is true and $pre(S2)$ is false. Therefore only the first logical expression can become true, and, consequently, only the inequality expression $(h>h_high)$ needs to be monitored during continuous integration. When this expression becomes true, the integrator is stopped and the whole set of equations including the algorithms is re-evaluated including the unfixed inequality expressions. Now the value of $T1_fires$ becomes true, $S1$ becomes false, $S2$ becomes true, and v becomes false, i.e., the state changes from “filling” to “waiting”. In a second discrete evaluation only the transition variable $T1_fires$ becomes false again, since $pre(S1)$ is now false. Because the discrete state variables did not change this time, the integration is started again. Now $(h<h_low)$ is monitored.

4.2 Models With Time Events

As an alternative, the limit sensor could be replaced by a time-out corresponding to the known maximum duration of the filling process. This idea is realised in the

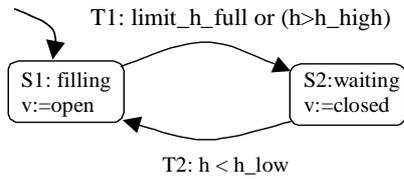


Fig. 7. Discrete-event model using only state events

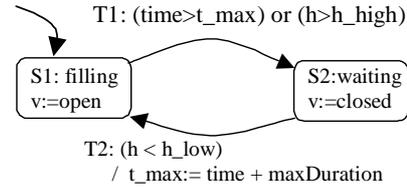


Fig. 8. Discrete-event model using state events and time events

diagram shown in Fig. 8. When the transition T2 is taken, an action is performed that assigns a new value to the variable t_max that stores the point in time, when the state S1 has to be left. Additionally, the transition T1 makes sure that the filling activity stops when this time elapses. A corresponding algorithm is as follows:

```

T1_fires := pre(S1) and ((time>pre(t_max)) or
(h>h_high));
T2_fires := pre(S2) and (h<h_low);
t_max := if T2_fires then time+maxDuration else
pre(t_max);
S1 :=(pre(S1) and not T1_fires) or T2_fires;
S2 :=(pre(S2) and not T2_fires) or T1_fires;
v := S1;
    
```

Hence, an additional state variable t_max is needed that, in contrast to the other state variables, is a real valued variable. If the controller is in state S1 the inequality expression $(h>h_high)$ has to be monitored in order to generate a state event, but as long as the choice of t_max is correct, the expression $(time>t_max)$ is used to generate a time event and the simulation stops exactly at the corresponding time without the need to localise a state event.

5 An Illustrative Application Example

To illustrate how the DES/M environment can be applied, a model of a laboratory batch plant is presented that incorporates hybrid physical dynamics and a supervisory controller. The plant is a slightly simplified variant of one of the benchmark examples in this volume and was already described in (Kowalewski and Preußig, 1996). The physical part of the plant has been modelled in an object-oriented and equation-based fashion using the MODELICA language. A library has been developed that provides the classes *Valve*, *Pump*, *Condenser*, *Sensor* and 4 different types of tanks. These were graphically composed in the DYMOLA tool resulting in a process flow chart (Fig. 9) that resembles the graphics of a standard piping and instrumentation diagram.

The supervisory controller model is also included in the plant model, but the sensor objects and the actuator objects are not connected visually to the controller

component inputs or outputs respectively, in order to keep the model clear. Instead, on the top level of the model, additional equations are used that relate the current values of the sensors to the input variables of the input port of the controller, e.g.:

```
controller.sensors.LIS_101 = LIS_101.value;
```

or that relate the input signals of the actuators to the outputs signals of the controller, e.g.:

```
V1.open = controller.actuators.V1;
```

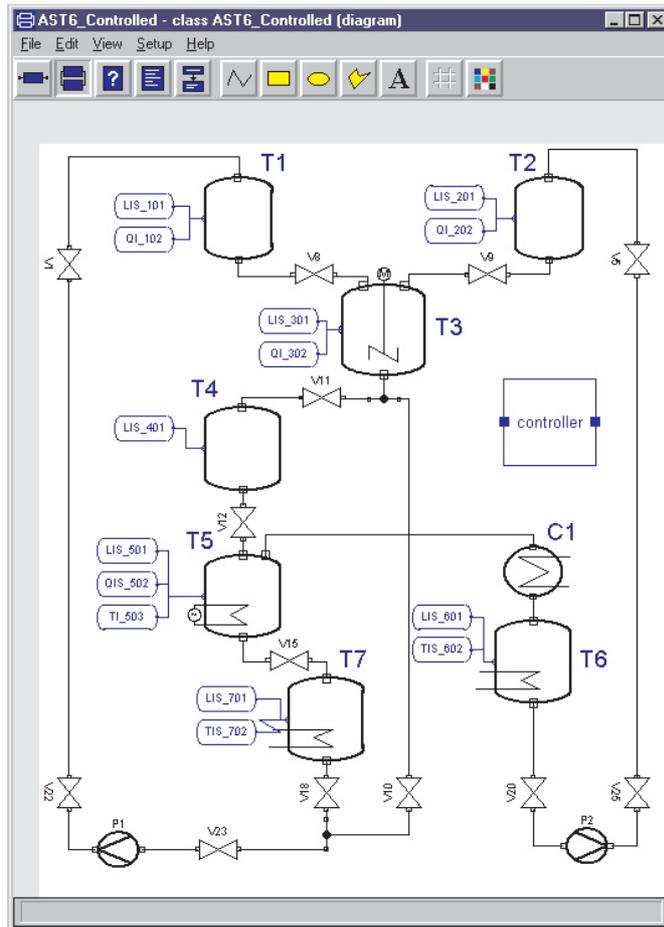


Fig. 9. The MODELICA model of the batch plant

The DES/M environment generated the MODELICA class of the supervisory controller from a graphical specification that includes sequential function charts (SFC)

and the block graph formalism. Figure 10 shows the overall structure of the controller model. The objective of this controller is to run 2 recipes in parallel on the plant. As a rudimentary means of coordination, the idle tanks are determined from the sensor and actuator values using simple logical expressions such as:

```
idleTank.T7_idle := (sensors.LIS_701<=0.001) and
not (actuators.V15) and not (actuators.V18);
```

This means that a tank is idle if the tank is empty and the connected actuators are passive. Since both recipes drive the same actuators, their outputs have to be superposed. This can be realised by simple logical expressions that activate an actuator, if one recipe (or both recipes) set this actuator active, e.g.:

```
actuators.V1 := act1.V1 or act.V2.
```

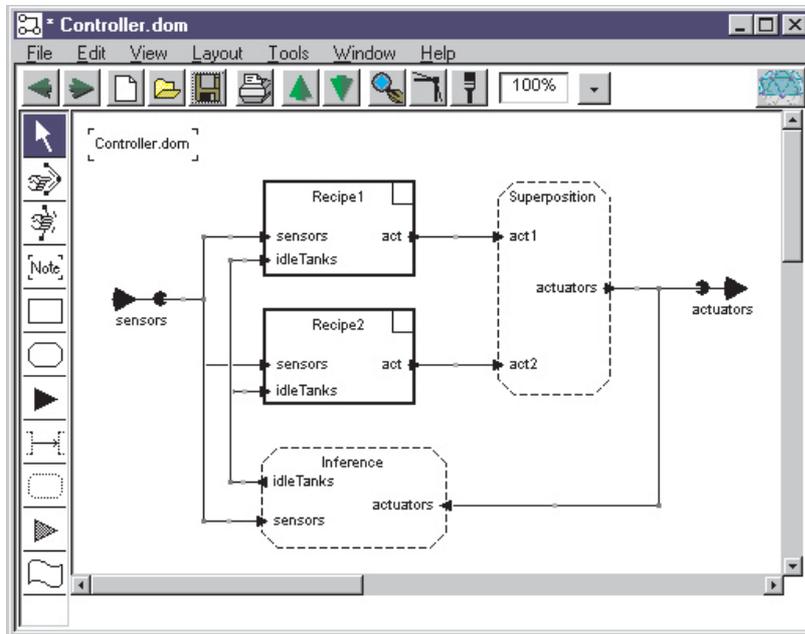


Fig. 10. The top level block graph of the controller

These logical expressions were entered as static blocks. The only dynamic discrete-event behaviour results from the recipes that are contained in the dynamic blocks. Both recipe blocks run the same recipe and only differ in their parameters such as the start time. Therefore, both recipes are described by the same SFC, see Fig. 11. When the start time of a recipe elapses, an infinite loop is started where a concentrated salt solution of tank T1 is drained into tank T3 and then mixed with pure water from tank T2 until a certain concentration w_{dilution} is obtained.

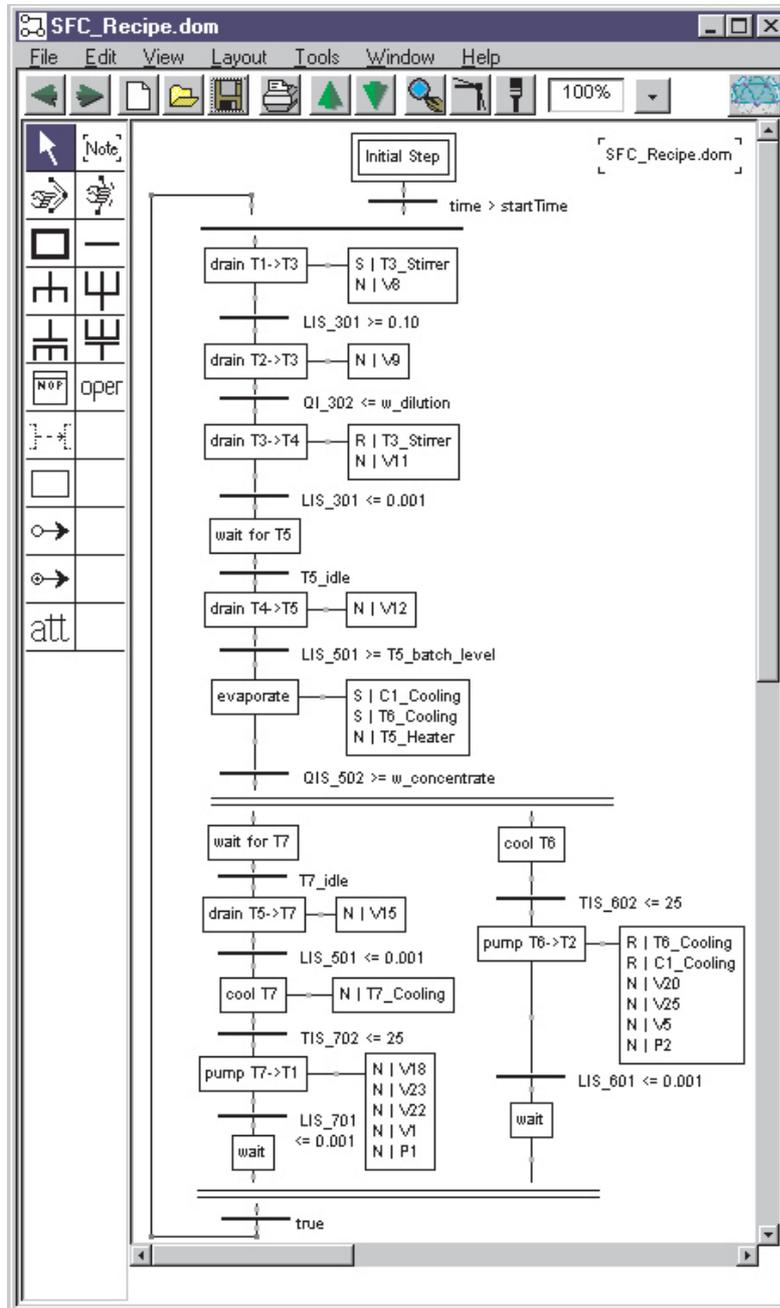


Fig. 11. The sequential function chart of the recipes

This dilution is buffered in tank T4 and then concentrated in the evaporator T5 up to a certain concentration $w_concentrate$. The condenser and the cooling in tank T6 are started at the same time at which the electrical immersion heater of T5 is started. When the evaporation is stopped, the recipe splits into 2 parallel threads in which the concentrate is drained into tank T7 and cooled and then fed back to tank T1, and the condensate in tank T6 is cooled and fed back to tank T2. Then the recipe returns to the first step and repeats this procedure.

In order to omit redundancies in the model, types were declared for ports and blocks. A port type defines which variables are transmitted through a port and their numerical types (Real, Integer, or Boolean). In this example, only three port types are needed: *Sensors*, *IdleTanks*, and *Actuators*. Each port in the model must have an assigned type and connected ports must have the same type. The connections are checked automatically before the translation to MODELICA.

Since all recipes in this controller framework must have the same interface, an archetype is defined for the recipe blocks. Figure 12 shows the interface of the archetype in the centre. The interface defines the ports and their port types for all possible recipe blocks. In the upper right region of the window, both instances of this archetype are enumerated corresponding to the blocks of Fig. 10. In the lower right region, the behaviour specifications that are possible implementations of this archetype are listed. In this case only one SFC is given. But more SFCs can be specified for the usage of different recipes. In principle, also statecharts and block graphs are possible as implementations of a recipe block.

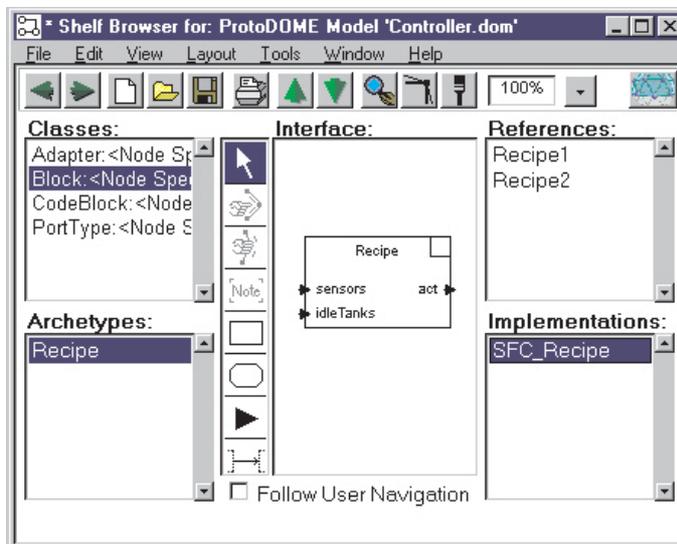


Fig. 12. The Shelf Browser in DOME with the archetype for the recipe blocks

After finishing the overall controller model, the MODELICA class can be generated automatically by selecting a corresponding item from a pull down menu. The MODELICA class contains a data structure that corresponds to the structure of the controller and an algorithm that defines the behaviour. This class can be instantiated in the plant model just like all other components. For simulation, the MODELICA model is compiled with DYMOLA resulting in a simulator executable. The model parameters can be changed conveniently for each simulation run without the need to recompile the model. This includes also the parameters of the controller such as the start times and the concentration parameters of each SFC. Thus, parameter studies can be performed efficiently. Figure 13 shows the plot of the mass hold-up of the evaporator as it results from a simulation run. From this plot one can conclude that the alternating recipes operate the evaporator at full capacity, i.e., there are no gaps where the evaporator is waiting for the next batch.

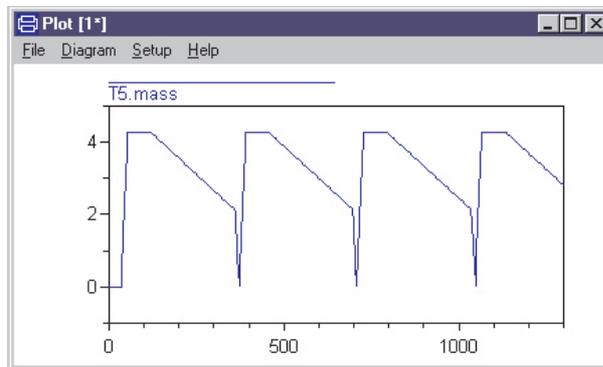


Fig. 13. A plot of the mass hold-up of the evaporator T5

6 Conclusions

The different nature of physical systems and supervisory control systems leads to two distinct sets of requirements for an integrated modelling and simulation methodology. In this work, the physical part of a system is captured by the object-oriented modelling language MODELICA is used, and for the discrete-event parts the DES/M environment has been developed.

MODELICA permits a very intuitive modelling of physical systems even if they include hybrid phenomena, and meets the demands for object-oriented modelling and effective and efficient simulation. The DES/M environment provides dedicated editors for domain specific discrete-event formalisms (and programming languages), and supports heterogeneous models including hierarchical structures and interoperation.

The connection of both parts of a model is done by translating the complete discrete-event model into a MODELICA algorithm that is wrapped in a MODELICA class. This is advantageous in several respects:

- both modelling environments are integrated seamlessly,
- the operational semantics of discrete-event formalisms can be formulated in an arbitrary way and this semantics is realised without any disturbance by the interaction of the continuous and the discrete part of the model or the solution algorithm of the continuous part (e.g. the step size of the integrator is independent of the execution of discrete transitions which occur at frozen simulation time),
- state events are accessible from the discrete-event part.

The latter point is crucial for an accurate synchronisation of continuous integration and discrete-event simulation.

At present, a first prototype of the DES/M environment is available. The current work aims at the improvement of the translation framework towards a more general approach and on the automatic support for graphical data visualisation. Then more formalisms will be implemented. Since MODELICA is based on algebraic and differential equations also other hybrid formalisms such as hybrid Petri Nets can be considered.

Acknowledgement

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Simulation for Analysis of Aircraft Elevator Feedback and Redundancy Control

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Abstract. Safety critical systems such as aircraft require functional and hardware redundancy to achieve prescribed safety levels. Discrete event control is applied to ensure that a safe system configuration is available at all times. Since, at present, formal verification techniques are restricted to models with few continuous states, in this paper, simulation is used to verify that the overall system operates according to the requirements when an actuator failure occurs. The feasibility study to modelling and simulation of complex controlled systems presented here is characterised by (i) a complex object-oriented model of aircraft dynamics, including gravity, aerodynamics, etc., (ii) the specification of the discrete event redundancy control by a domain specific formalism that includes statecharts, (iii) the usage of energy based hybrid bond graphs to model the dynamics of the hydraulic actuators, (iv) model integration on the model level as well as on the data level, (v) support of DAEs with dynamically changing index and (vi) illustrative simulation results.

1 Introduction

Redundancy is one of the most important techniques to achieve the desired level of safety in systems such as aircraft, nuclear plants, chemical plants, and other safety critical applications. Its basic premise is to include redundant functionality into a system that can be activated when failures of the normal operating components occur and to validate and select normal behaviour (e.g., voting procedures).

1.1 Aircraft Attitude Control

To illustrate the concept, consider the primary (attitude) control surfaces of an aircraft as shown in Fig. 1. The ailerons are used to control roll, the elevators control pitch, and the rudder controls yaw motion. This paper concentrates on the pitch control, performed by the elevators. Each of the elevators is positioned by one of two actuators, the other one operates as a passive load. Discrete-event control embedded on two primary flight control units (PFCU) selects the controlling actuator and ensures that the redundant actuator is loading. Each PFCU controls one actuator per elevator, so that both elevators can be controlled, even if one PFCU fails completely. The PFCUs also generate the position control signals for the four actuators.

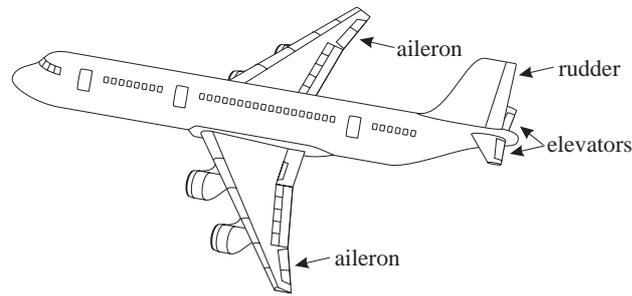


Fig. 1. Primary control surface of an airplane

Feedback control is used for normal operation whereas so-called direct link control is applied to single actuators in the case of certain failures. To ensure minimal transient disturbances caused by actuator switching, the loading actuator should be shadowing the control signals ready to switch to a mode where it actively controls the elevator. However, in some extreme cases the actuator may be disengaged, i.e., it is loading but not shadowing. Thus, each PFCU has to decide for two actuators whether an actuator is disengaged, shadowing, or controlling and whether a feedback or a direct link controller is used for shadowing or controlling. These decisions depend on the mode of the other actuator, the state of the other PFCU and the detected failures. The best possible consistent state configuration of both PFCUs for a given failure situation is achieved by a complex iterative interaction of both PFCUs.

The hydraulic actuator design and the controller parameters may influence the overall behaviour of the aircraft significantly. Therefore, all contributing parts and phenomena of the aircraft such as aerodynamics, gravity, engines, etc. have to be considered in order to assess the design of the elevator control system. Because of the immense complexity and the intricate redundancy management model-based validation is required.

Formal verification techniques are widely used for pure discrete-event systems and much research has been carried out recently on the verification of hybrid systems. However, at present, the complexity of systems amenable to hybrid systems verification techniques is restricted to a low order continuous dynamics (typically not more than three continuous state variables) (Benedetto and Sangiovanni-Vincentelli, 2001, Lynch and Krogh, 2000, Vaandrager and van Schuppen, 1999). Consequently, formal methods are applied to the discrete-event part only, e.g., a so-called Failure Mode Effect (FME) analysis is employed to verify certain safety and reliability properties of the redundancy management system. However, its interaction with the continuous parts as well as the design of the position controllers and the hydraulic actuators can not be evaluated with formal verification techniques. Therefore, the only practical model-based approach for this task is to perform extensive simulation studies.

1.2 Model Design

In this contribution, we concentrate on the modelling and simulation of the elevator control system and the aircraft. The model formulation is driven by the assumption that the simulation studies have the purpose to assess whether the design of the evaluator control system meets the requirements with respect to the overall behaviour of the aircraft (e.g., lateral and longitudinal aircraft velocity and flight path angle). In particular, different sets of parameters of the controllers and of the hydraulic actuators have to be tested in combination with certain failure scenarios.

As a consequence, the simulation model has to incorporate a realistic model of the aircraft dynamics, including all essential effects and components such as aerodynamics, gravity, engines, and hydraulic oil supply. In order to automatically generate the correct Boolean input signals of the feedback controllers and the actuators depending on the sequence of failure events it is convenient to include at least the input-output behaviour of the redundancy management components. Since the sampling times of the PFCUs are very fast in comparison to the bandwidth of the actuators, the hardware aspects of the PFCUs can be neglected, i.e., the redundancy management model reacts instantaneously on failures and the controllers are modelled as ideal continuous controllers. Another idealisation is introduced for the hydraulic actuators. There are many small physical effects such as oil elasticity, viscosity, and fluid inertia which do not influence the overall dynamics significantly, but considerably increase the modelling effort, so that these effects are not considered in the corresponding models.

These basic model design decisions cause several difficulties for the modelling and the simulation. With respect to modelling, the complexity of the systems and their heterogeneous nature mandates the use of dedicated formalisms. These formalisms differ greatly in their visual representation and require the interoperation of specific and powerful modelling environments.

Present day simulation technology, on the one hand, can handle large systems of differential and algebraic equations (DAE), possibly extended by some discontinuous equations (ABACUSS, 1995). On the other hand, discrete-event simulators apply an event driven approach to manage the huge number of state changes in discrete-event models (Group, 1999). The combination of discrete and continuous behaviour requires the integration of a numerical integrator with some sort of discrete-event simulation. Especially, the detection and location of discrete events during continuous integration has to be supported. Furthermore, at event times discontinuities in continuous state variables may occur. For the aircraft model, this phenomenon emerges because the abstractions in the hydraulic actuator models result in a DAE with dynamically changing index. This requires a special simulation engine that switches the active equations and automatically reinitialises the state variables according to physical conservation laws, when the index changes. This contribution presents techniques that cope with all these problems.

1.3 The Modelling and Simulation Approach

For the components of the physical system we use object-oriented modelling. In this context, the term object-oriented modelling means that every physical object is modelled independently without making assumptions about its environment and preserving the physical connection structure of the object. The connections of a model component have to correspond to physical interactions the computational causality of which is not fixed a priori, i.e., the variables involved in an interaction are not a priori defined as inputs or outputs. Furthermore, the behaviour of the component should be defined in a declarative way where a set of (possibly implicit) equations is regarded as a set of behavioural constraints rather than as a calculation formula. To illustrate this, let us consider a hydraulic line. The component model of the line would have two connections which each incorporate a pressure and a flow variable. These variables represent neither inputs nor outputs, since depending on the structure of the environment the pressure drop causes the flow or the flow causes the pressure drop. In some cases the causality can even change dynamically so that a quantity that would be regarded as an input in signal flow diagrams becomes an output and vice versa. This is why the equation-based behavioural description is inherent to object-oriented modelling. Using equations (which may be written in an implicit style) for the description of the behaviour does not impose a specific calculation scheme. From the modelling perspective the equations of all model components and all connections of the overall aircraft model simply form a global set of differential and algebraic equations (DAE) so that simulation is the task to find a solution to these equations, i.e., functions over time that satisfy the equations. To generate efficient simulation code, the model equations must be processed by a symbolic engine and compiled into executable code.

The existing DAE based modelling languages such as gPROMS (Barton, 1992), VHDL-AMS (Heinkel, 2000, Christen, 1997), and MODELICA (Modelica Design Group, 2000) differ in many aspects. This work utilises an aircraft library (Moormann et al., 1999, Moormann, 2001) developed using MODELICA which allows to build domain-specific graphical component libraries and supports many features known from object-oriented programming such as inheritance, packages, etc. For the modelling and the symbolic processing task DYMOLA (Dymola, 2002) was used. It provides a graphical user interface for model composition. The symbolic engine of DYMOLA generates C-code from a MODELICA model. Then a standard C-compiler generates the executable simulation code.

This configuration is already powerful enough to model most parts of the aircraft and to simulate the resulting complex DAE system including certain discontinuities (a so-called 'hybrid DAE'). However, for simulating DAEs with dynamically changing index, the current symbolic engine of DYMOLA (version 4.1d) is too limited. Therefore, a specially developed environment, HYBRISIM (Mosterman and Biswas, 1999), which is based on hybrid bond graphs (Mosterman and Biswas, 1995) was used to model the components with variable index, i.e., the hydraulic actuators. The C-code generated by the two environments, DYMOLA and HYBRISIM

was then merged manually and simulated using a general purpose hybrid dynamic system simulator MASIM (Mosterman, 2001).

The purely discrete-event parts of the elevator control, i.e., the redundancy management, are modelled by a domain-specific formalism including statecharts. It will be shown that the syntax and the semantics of the object-oriented modelling paradigm is not well suited to represent the objects of such a formalism. Instead, a separate modelling environment has been implemented which supports this formalism and generates a monolithic MODELICA component that can be integrated into the MODELICA aircraft model. The behaviour of this component is defined by an algorithm that is interpreted by MODELICA as an additional model constraint, i.e., it is equivalent to one equation with multiple input and output variables. In contrast to the other parts of the model the causality of the interface variables and the calculation scheme of the resulting object are predetermined. While the actuator model is integrated on the data level, the redundancy management model is integrated on the model level.

Section 2 presents a system level view of the elevator redundancy control. Section 3 discusses the different parts in detail and presents the respective models. Simulation results are given in Sect. 4. Finally some conclusions are drawn in Sect. 5.

2 Aircraft Elevator Control System

The aircraft elevator control system includes several forms of redundancy (Seebeck, 1998). The system itself consists of two elevators, the control surfaces. Each of these are controlled by one of two hydraulic actuators while the other one is operating as a passive load. The four actuators take their power from three hydraulic subsystems as depicted in Fig. 2. Two primary flight control units are available to compute actuator control signals and modes.

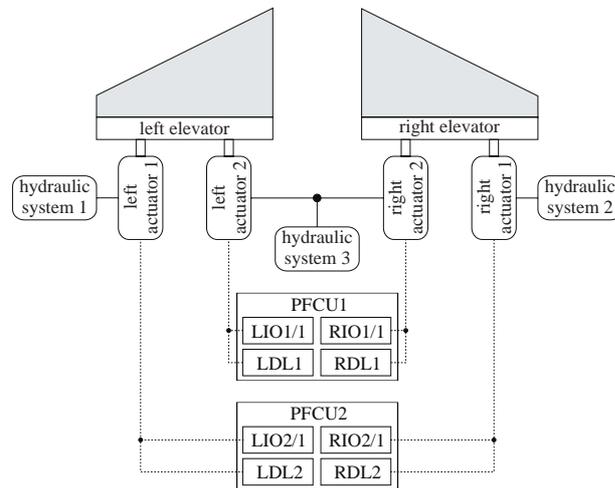


Fig. 2. Elevator system

The functionality of each actuator is specified in textual form in terms of a number of module actuator control modes (MACM) all with their specific behaviour characteristics. These are defined in Table 1. Note that the MACM definitions include behavioural information along with structural information about the particular mode of operation of the actuator components.

Table 1. Module actuator control modes

MACM	Description	Actuator	
		Servo valve	Spool valve
active	The module controls the servo valve in closed loop mode. The corresponding actuator is active and controls the elevator movement.	controlled	open
hot and standby	The module controls the servo valve in closed loop mode. The corresponding actuator is not active and operates as a load.	controlled	closed
passive	The module is waiting and does not generate actuator control signals. <i>It can change its mode at any time to take on control of the corresponding actuator.</i>	not controlled	closed
off	The module is turned off temporarily because of an intermittent failure and does not generate actuator control signals. <i>As long as the failure has not been fixed, it cannot change to a mode where it controls the corresponding actuator.</i>	not controlled	closed
isolated	The module is turned off indefinitely. <i>A persistent fault in the control loop of the corresponding system isolates the module and it cannot change to a mode where it controls the corresponding actuator.</i>	not controlled	closed

The discrete outputs of the redundancy management system are transformed into physical behaviour by means of a spool valve and a servo valve in the hydraulic actuator. Power is supplied by one of the hydraulic systems and delivered to the actuator cylinder that positions the elevator. This flow of energy is modulated by the servo valve, the modulation is computed by a PID feedback control law. The control signals for the actuators are generated by two *primary flight control units* (PFCU) that can operate as *input-output* modules (IOM) or as *direct-link* modules (DLM) controlled by a switch in the control law. The IOMs calculate setpoint values for the actuators based on a PID control algorithm and monitor a number of critical system variables and change between the modes in response. The DLMs allow limited but direct control of the actuators in case the IOMs are not available. The control modules can be in different modes for each of the actuators separately. Moreover, they

may control other aircraft actuators as well. In addition, the servo valve may not be controlled and its piston then is in a default position. Also, the spool valve can be turned on and off to switch between active control and passive loading. Continuous feedback control drives the elevator to its desired setpoint, while higher level redundancy management selects the active actuator and the control law to be used.

Interaction between the actuator and the aircraft model consist of forces and moments acting on the elevator that is stiffly connected to the actuator positioning cylinder as well as the pressure generated by the hydraulic systems. Three hydraulic systems supply the oil for the actuators shown in Fig. 1. When a failure occurs, the redundancy management switches between actuators and oil supply systems to achieve maximum control.

The behavioural redundancy requirements may be formalised by a set of rules for the redundancy management to switch between module actuator control modes as follows (Seebeck, 1998):

1. Mode changes only occur when
 - a system failure is detected, or
 - control of an uncontrolled elevator is requested, or
 - one module requests control of both elevators which are controlled by separate modules.
2. One module should be simultaneously in either *active*, *hot*, or *standby* for both elevators as long as possible.
3. If not overruled by the previous specification, the module priority is such that the switching sequence is IOM2/1 → IOM1/1 → DLM2 → DLM1.
4. There is always one and only one module that controls one elevator, i.e., that is *active*.
5. In case of a failure of the controlling module, control is assumed by a module that is *hot* or *standby*. If no module is in this mode, the one with highest priority that is *passive* assumes control.
6. A module switches to *hot* when the other module that controls the same elevator, and, therefore, is *active*, belongs to another PFCU and both elevators are controlled by IOMs.
7. A module switches to *standby* when the other module that controls the same elevator, and, therefore, is *active*, belongs to another PFCU and one of the elevators is controlled by a DLM.
8. In case of pressure failure, the ‘low pressure’ signal only serves for fault classification. It does not cause a direct mode change.
9. In case of ‘low pressure’ and if a sensor detects an elevator positioning system failure, the module switches *off*. The module switches back to *passive* only when no system failure is reported and the ‘low pressure’ condition does not hold anymore.
10. If ‘low pressure’ is not reported and the elevator positioning system is reported to fail then the module switches to *isolated*.

To prevent nondeterministic switching, priorities are assigned to the possible transitions. Because of the critical nature of switching to the *isolated* mode to prevent

damage to the system, this transition has the highest priority. In addition this causes another module to immediately assume control. This is also desired when, e.g., a pressure loss is detected and the module switches *off*. Therefore, the corresponding transition has second highest priority. Another decision criterion is to allow modules to take over control as quickly as possible. As a result, modes that implement as much control as possible should have highest priority. So, when a module can be switched *active* this should be immediately executed rather than first switching to *standby* if this transition is also enabled. This yields the following priorities:

1. Transition to *isolated*
2. Transition to *off*
3. Transition to *active*
4. Transition to *hot, standby, and passive*.

Sensors in the elevator control system provide the PFCUs with information about the functioning of the system. In case of abnormal readings, the entire set of measurements is used to infer a particular failure mode. Details of this inference mechanism are beyond the scope of this paper. To test the redundancy management, failure mode effect (FME) analysis investigates the availability of the system for several test cases that embody a set of sensor readings:

- Pressure decrease in the hydraulic system (H1, H2, H3)
- Predefined set of failures (F)
 - IO module failure (1, 2)
 - DL module failure (1, 2)
 - Actuator failure (left inner/outer, right inner/outer).

These failures represent abstractions of actual physical phenomena underlying the failure detection. FME is still the most important step in verifying system safety and reliability of discrete-event control (Mai and Schröder, 1999, Osder, 1999).

The combined discrete redundancy management for two of the four actuators on each of the four modules results in eight redundancy modules. This adds up to a considerable discrete behavioural complexity. Each module consists of six possible local modes and there are eight such modules. Thus, the total number of modes of the redundancy management control is 48. There is always one and only one active state in each of the discrete-event models. But, because of the redundancy specification, each of the models needs to have information about the mode of each of the other ones. This interaction is based on the MACMs and causes logic connections between each of the actuator control modules. Finally, an additional discrete-event model is used to model possible fault scenarios by activating states that correspond to particular failure modes. This model has eleven states.

3 Modelling the Parts of the System

The elevator control system described in Sect. 2 contains a number of parts that are best captured by different modelling approaches: (i) the aircraft dynamics, (ii) the redundancy control, including control law switching, and (iii) the actuator switching behaviour.

3.1 Aircraft Dynamics

To investigate the effect of actuator switching on the overall flight characteristics such as nick rate (q) and angle of attack (α), an aircraft model is required. The more realistic this model, the higher is the probability that the analysis results also hold for the actual implementation on the aircraft.

Object-Oriented Modelling. The design of a realistic aircraft model is a tremendous task that combines several domains within aircraft design such as (i) aerodynamics, (ii) gravity, atmospheric, and wind models, (iii) engine/thrust models, (iv) rigid body models including the effects of fuel consumption, and (v) systems models for primary (attitude) control.

Traditionally, such complex aircraft models are written in a computer processable format such as, e.g., FORTRAN, and they are completely integrated with facilities for behaviour generation, e.g., the numerical solver. This, however, renders the models unwieldy, error-prone, and rather costly to implement and update.

Recently, a more structured approach to aircraft modelling has been developed based on object-oriented modelling techniques and the use of libraries of the domain specific components mentioned before (Moormann et al., 1999, Moormann, 2001). Object-oriented modelling techniques rely on the notion of *encapsulation* to hide the details of physical component models and to increase maintainability. Furthermore, the models are organised hierarchically which allows successive refinement of behaviours at increasing levels of detail.

Graphical Syntax. Figure 3 shows a top-level view of the aircraft model with the engine objects (left), the systems component (top) and the aerodynamics model (right), the rigid body model, and the gravity/atmosphere/wind models (bottom-right). These components can be decomposed hierarchically in similar object diagrams.

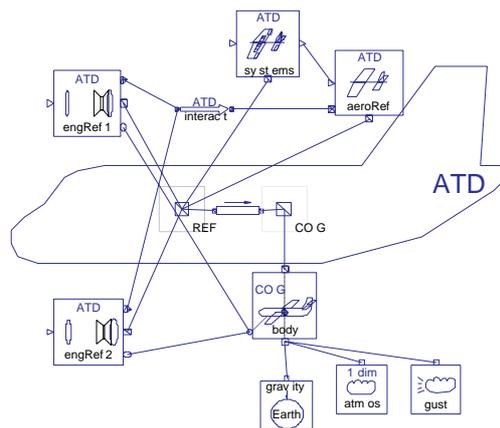


Fig. 3. Top level object diagram of the aircraft model

Communication between objects is realised through ports that also constitute the interface to the next level in the hierarchical decomposition. For a set of connected variables, v_i , these ports use two different connection semantics, (i) $\forall i (i \neq 0 | v_i = v_0)$, i.e., all connected variables are set equal, and (ii) $\sum_i v_i = 0$, i.e., the connected variables are summed to 0. This allows for a convenient implementation of energy flows across ports where the different semantics correspond to the across and through variables, respectively, the product of which constitutes power.

Execution Model. The behaviour of each of the primitive model objects is described in terms of algebraic and differential equations. These are treated as non-causal, i.e., no computational direction of the variables is assigned (it is not determined which variable is to be computed from an equation), which is a convenient way of modelling physical systems in terms of declarative constraint specification. Furthermore, it enhances model reuse.

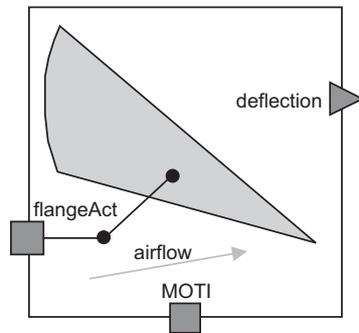


Fig. 4. Elevator control surface library component

To illustrate, consider the elevator control surface library component in Fig. 4. This surface consists of one or more movable parts to adjust the aerodynamic force acting on the aircraft. The library component is connected to the remainder of the aircraft model by three ports: (i) a mechanical port *flangeAct*, that contains the elevator deflection, δ , (ii) an aerodynamic port, *deflection*, that carries the forces because of the airflow around the elevator, and (iii) a mechanical port, *MOTI*, that contains the force acting on the aircraft. Table 2 itemises the most important interface variables of the *ControlSurface* class. The elevator computes the force F_{act} from

$$0 = f(F_{act}, V_a^2, \delta, \rho, S_{cs}, \dots, m_{cs}, g, \dots), \quad (1)$$

the deflection δ from

$$\delta = k_{kin} x_{act}, \quad (2)$$

and, finally, its rate of change $\dot{\delta}$ from

$$\dot{\delta} = k_{kin} v_{act}. \quad (3)$$

Note that k_{kin} is a parameter internal to the object that represents the kinematics of the mechanism.

Table 2. ControlSurface class interface variables

Interface Variables		
across	x_{act}	displacement of actuator flange
	v_{act}	displacement velocity of actuator flange
	V_a	airspeed velocity
	ρ	air density
	g	gravitational acceleration
through	F_{act}	force acting on actuator flange

To enable the execution, the primitive object equations and the connection constraints for across and through variables are accumulated by a global model interpretation scheme. It sorts and solves the overall system of differential and algebraic (DAE) equations by assigning causality so that the unknowns can be computed from the equations and input and state variables. Algebraic manipulations are performed to reduce the system of equations, e.g., (Andersson, 1994).

To represent switching, equations may be conditionally active. When the conditions change their truth value, this causes *events*. When events occur, variables may undergo discontinuous changes. In addition to the differential and algebraic equations, a ‘pre’ operator is defined to allow access to the value of a variable immediately before a discontinuous change. Because this introduces discrete state behaviour, an iteration is required to converge to a consistent state before the continuous simulation is resumed. Though this mechanism can be used for implementing discrete-event behaviour, it is difficult to mimic state transition diagrams using object diagrams and even more so to describe the state transition behaviour by local equations of the primitive states and transitions. The graphical syntax of object diagrams does not allow annotation of component connections, thus it is not possible to write conditions, events, and actions alongside a transition. Furthermore, transitions are not objects in object diagrams. Therefore, the transition behaviour requires a specific transition object to be inserted. Execution has to be described in terms of local algebraic constraints that communicate between states and transitions to evaluate whether a state is active and a transition is enabled (Mosterman et al., 1998).

The result of collecting the local equations, adding the connection constraints, and sorting and solving these leads to a global system of equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= f_{\alpha}(x, u, t) \\ 0 &= g_{\alpha}(x, u, t) \\ \alpha^+ &= \phi_{\alpha}(x, u, t) \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where f_α specifies the dynamics in mode α , g_α the event generation functions ('zero crossings'), and ϕ_α the next mode function. Before continuous simulation can start or be resumed after an event occurred, a consistent mode α , i.e., $\alpha^+ = \alpha$, has to be found. Typically, this is performed by a fixed point iteration scheme.

3.2 Redundancy and Position Control

The main purpose of the two primary flight control units is the generation of appropriate continuous and discrete control signals for the four elevator actuators. Each PFCU contains a failure monitoring function, a specific discrete-event part for the redundancy management as well as one feedback and direct link controller per elevator. When a failure is detected, the redundancy management parts of both PFCUs interact tightly in order to achieve a consistent decision on the appropriate reaction, before switching the operating control laws. This is because each PFCU is responsible for different actuators and has to take the discrete state of the other PFCU into account in order to guarantee that each elevator is controlled by one actuator only. Therefore a simple failure may trigger a sequence of transitions in both PFCUs, where a discrete mode transition in one PFCU may lead to a state which forces another transition in the other PFCU and so on.

Graphics. Since hardware aspects are beyond the scope of this paper, the redundancy management parts of both PFCUs are unified in one discrete-event model component neglecting the distributed architecture of the system. As a consequence, the aircraft model contains only one elevator control component. This is divided into three parts: (i) a failure injection module that replaces the failure monitoring functions so that specific failure scenarios can be studied, (ii) the combined redundancy management parts of both PFCUs that react on changes of the failure configuration and (iii) the switched position controllers of both PFCUs the transfer functions of which depend on the actual modes of the redundancy management component (Fig. 5).

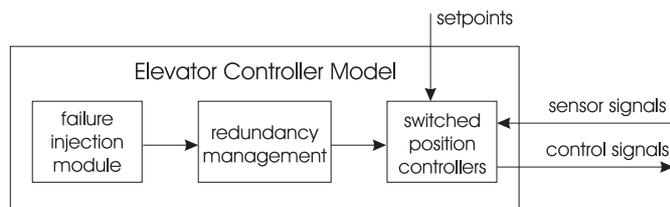


Fig. 5. The structure of the elevator controller model

The requirements for the redundancy management which were formulated informally in Section 2 state that each redundancy module contains 6 possible local

modes. Since a redundancy module switches from one mode to another under certain conditions, the modules should be modelled by a kind of state transition diagram, where the modes are represented by discrete states and the transition arrows represent the possible mode switchings. In order to take the transition priorities into consideration, hierarchical states as known from the statechart formalism (Harel, 1987) are used. Additional states are introduced that do not correspond to a mode, but represent the priorities of the transitions: The higher a state in the hierarchy the higher is the priority of its outgoing transitions, e.g., the transition ToOff in Fig. 6 has a higher priority than ToAct and a lower priority than ToIso. The statechart model in Fig. 6 reflects the state transition aspects of a redundancy module declared in the informal description of the requirements.

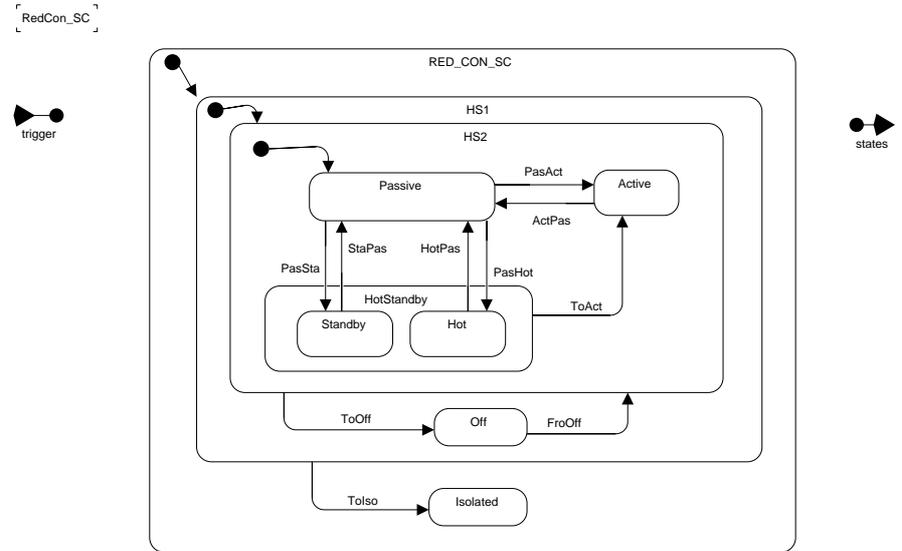


Fig. 6. The redundancy module statechart

The transition conditions can be derived from the switching rules of the requirements and differ for each statechart. In order to keep the statechart model generic and take architectural aspects into consideration, a specific hierarchical block diagram formalism is used (Fig. 7). Two blocks on the top level represent the two primary flight control units. The input port contains the failure values that originate from the failure injection module whereas the output ports transmit the actual module modes to the switched controllers. Each PFCU block contains four control modules (LIO, RIO, LDL and RDL) as subblocks. Their behaviour is defined by the statechart in Fig. 6. The transition conditions are calculated outside the statecharts in a special block (PFCU1_Logic and PFCU2_Logic) with no state behaviour.

Execution The intended behaviour of the elevator control model is as follows: The failure injection module generates Boolean signals that indicate the presence

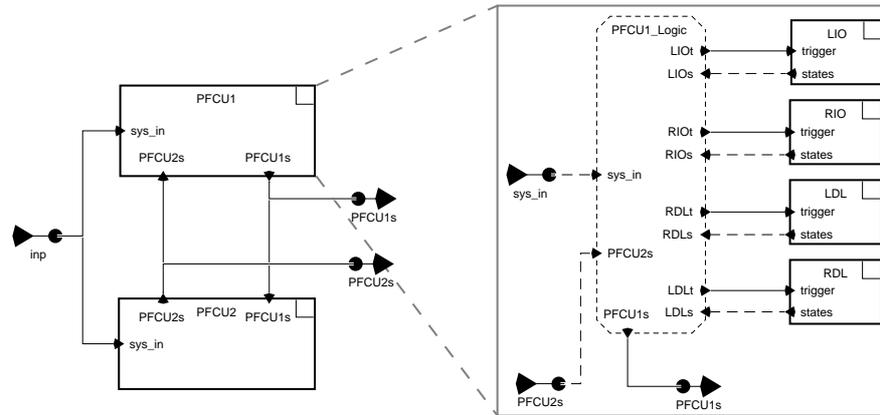


Fig. 7. Two block diagrams of the discrete-event part

of specific failures. When a failure signal changes, the transition conditions of both PFCUs are evaluated and their values are transmitted to the statechart blocks that perform their transitions independently. After all statecharts have converged to a persistent discrete state, i.e. no further transitions happen, the transition conditions are calculated again taking the new states into account and a new set of transitions may be performed in the modules again. When the overall discrete-event system reaches a stable state, this local event iteration is stopped, the output values are set, and the position controllers may change their mode.

In order to analyse the behaviour of the elevator control and the overall aircraft for different failure scenarios, the failure injection module generates predetermined sequences of failures. These scenarios can be modelled by equations containing logical expressions and inequalities over the independent variable time and parameters as shown in the following example where IO2failure is present from time t_1 to t_2 :

$$\text{IO2failure} = (t > t_1) \wedge (t < t_2). \quad (5)$$

The output of the redundancy management part switches the position controllers that are easily described using equations. The following example shows the controller equations of PFCU1 for the left elevator:

$$e_{act,l1} = w_{act} - x_{act,l} \quad (6)$$

$$u_{act} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if PFCU1states.LIO is Off or Isolated} \\ w_{act} & \text{else if PFCU1states.LDL is Active,} \\ k_p e_{act,l1} + k_d v_{act,l} & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

$$u_{spool,l1} = \text{PFCU1states.LIO.Active} \quad (8)$$

3.3 Actuator Dynamics

The hydraulic actuators are the interface between the discrete-event domain of redundancy control and the continuous domain of the aircraft dynamics. The actuator

here is not modelled with all details as this would lead to steep gradients in the behaviour that are difficult to handle and slow down simulation of the aircraft behaviour, even if efficient numerical solvers such as DASSL (Petzold, 1982) are used.

Higher Index DAE. The decision to remove small physical effects such as fluid storage in lines and oil elasticity and viscosity leads to DAEs with a higher complexity because state variables are then directly coupled instead of interacting through additional states with small time constants. These DAEs can be transformed by differentiation before simulation run, but the switching effects of the actuators may also cause such algebraic constraints to emerge during simulation, requiring two phenomena to be handled: (i) the state variables that become algebraically coupled are constrained to a subspace of reduced dimension and the values before the constraint becomes active have to be projected into this subspace, and (ii) the future dynamic behaviour of these state variables must be in this reduced subspace.

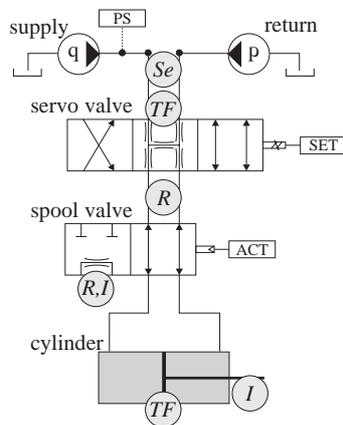


Fig. 8. Schematic of hydraulic actuator

To illustrate these effects, consider the actuator model in Fig. 8. When initially the actuator is *active*, the supply path is open, i.e., control signals generated by the servo valve are supplied to the positioning cylinder, causing the piston to accelerate. When, at a given point in time, the actuator is switched to be *off*, the loading path becomes active. Because of the inertial effects in the loading pathway, there is dependency between the piston and this fluid inertia and an algebraic constraint between these two variables ($v_{piston} = -A_p f_{load}$) restricts the state space in which the system evolves. This is illustrated in Fig. 9(a), where the double arrow heads on the dashed field lines indicate the direction of the discontinuous change. This algebraic dependency would be eliminated by introducing small parasitic storage effects for the piping and some oil elasticity and viscosity, but this adds very steep gradients to overall system behaviour as illustrated by Fig. 9(b) that complicate simulation and are not relevant for the overall behaviour of the aircraft.

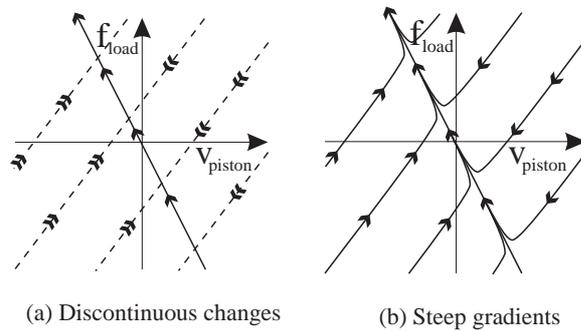


Fig. 9. Phase space for v_p and f_{load}

The implicit jumps in the state variable values have to be computed during simulation. At present, commercially available simulation tools cannot handle such abrupt changes in DAE models. Therefore the experimental modelling and simulation environment HYBRSIM (Mosterman and Biswas, 1999) was used which has been realised for the purpose of testing algorithms for the reinitialisation of switched systems with index changes. HYBRSIM is based on bond graph modelling of the physical system.

Bond Graph Model of the Actuators. Figure 10 shows the hybrid bond graph model of the two left hydraulic actuators. The two *Se* elements¹ are sources (inputs) of a bond graph model which are connected to the hydraulic circuits in the aircraft model that provide the input pressure. The servo valve modulation is applied by the *TF* elements, where the *setL1* and *setL2* elements are connected to the setpoint generated by the aircraft control model. The *I* elements represent connections (equal flow points) and the attached *R* element captures dissipative effects. Note that these are modelled as linear phenomena. The *loadL1* (*loadL1*) connection also has some inertia associated with it, embodied by the *IloadL1* (*IloadL2*) element. The cylinder chamber is modelled by a *0* element, an equal pressure point. Both cylinders connect through a piston with area modelled by a *TF* element to one equal velocity point for the elevator control surface movement. This velocity, as well as the displacement and force are inputs to the aircraft model.

The switching behaviour is modelled by two *controlled junctions* (Mosterman and Biswas, 1995) in each actuator, in the left actuator these are *supplyL1* and *loadL1*. The local finite state machines that control their states are given in Fig. 11. The control event *actL1* is generated by the redundancy control in the enclosing part of the model. When the *supplyL1* junction is ON and *loadL1* is OFF, the actuator is active. When *supplyL1* is OFF and *loadL1* is ON, it is loading (either hot, standby, passive, or isolated). Note that the mutual switching constraints allow no other configurations.

¹ The element type is listed on the left of each element rectangle.

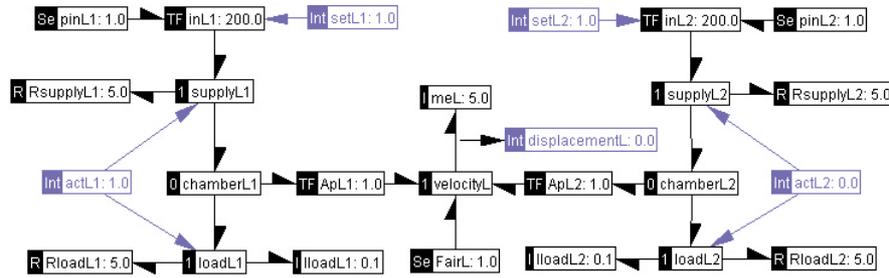
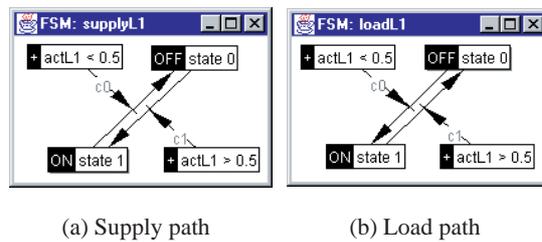


Fig. 10. Hybrid bond graph of the two left hydraulic actuators



(a) Supply path

(b) Load path

Fig. 11. Finite state machines of actuator 1 in the hybrid bond graph

Equations. The equations generated from the hybrid bond graph by HYBRSIM incorporate the switching effect as guarded equations. This prevents the need for pre-enumeration which would cause an exponential growth of the number of modes.² For example, for the loading pathway, *loadL1*, the equation generated is

$$0 = (-chamberL1.p + IloadL1.p + RloadL1.p)\alpha_i + (loadL1.f) \cdot (1 - \alpha_i) \quad (9)$$

where α_i is the i^{th} entry in the mode vector α . This ensures that in a mode where this connection is active, $\alpha_i = 1$, the pressure drops of the connected elements are balanced. When the connector is not active, $\alpha_i = 0$, the fluid flow through *loadL1* becomes 0. This models ideal switching but may lead to higher index DAEs (e.g., because *IloadL1* and *mpL* become algebraically related). A numerical solver such as DASSL can handle systems up to index 1 directly and up to index 2 with some provisions, e.g., the step-size control of index 2 variables needs to be switched off (Bujakiewicz, 1994). Another prerequisite is that DASSL should be given a set of consistent initial conditions, i.e., those that are in the correct subspace of continuous behaviours. This is achieved by applying a projection mechanism which is consistent with physical conservation laws (Griepentrog and März, 1986, van der Schaft and Schumacher, 1996, Verghese et al., 1981).

² For the hybrid bond graph in Fig. 10 there are already $2^4 = 16$ possible modes, but only two occur during normal operation.

The discontinuous changes are computed by first linearising the system with a finite difference method. Then a pseudo Weierstrass normal form is derived (up till index 2)

$$0 = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{E}_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \bar{E}_{22,12} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\bar{x}}_1 \\ \dot{\bar{x}}_{2,1} \\ \dot{\bar{x}}_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \bar{A}_{11} & \bar{A}_{12,1} & \bar{A}_{12,2} \\ 0 & \bar{A}_{22,11} & \bar{A}_{22,12} \\ 0 & 0 & \bar{A}_{22,22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_1 \\ \bar{x}_{2,1} \\ \bar{x}_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \bar{B}_1 \\ \bar{B}_{2,1} \\ \bar{B}_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} [u], \quad (10)$$

where $\bar{E}_{11,11}$, $\bar{A}_{22,11}$, and $\bar{A}_{22,22}$ are of full rank. This allows computation of the initial conditions as (Mosterman, 2000b)

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x}_1 &= \bar{x}_1^0 + \bar{E}_{11}^{-1} \bar{A}_{12,1} \bar{A}_{22,11}^{-1} \bar{E}_{22,12} (\bar{x}_{2,2} - \bar{x}_{2,2}^0) \\ \bar{x}_{2,1} &= -\bar{A}_{22,11}^{-1} (\bar{B}_{2,1} u + \bar{E}_{22,12} \dot{\bar{x}}_{2,2} + \bar{A}_{22,12} \bar{x}_{2,2}) \\ \bar{x}_{2,2} &= -\bar{A}_{22,22}^{-1} \bar{B}_{2,2} u, \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

where \bar{x}_0 are the user-provided initial values after the coordinate transformation to achieve the desired normal form, $\bar{x}_0 = Zx_0$. The values for \bar{x} can then be transformed back to obtain initial values for x that are in the correct subspace of the dynamic behaviour, and in this manner the implicit jump is determined.

4 Simulation of the Overall System

The aircraft model, the redundancy control system, and the actuator feedback and discrete event control were modelled using different modelling formalisms and tools (DYMOLA, HYBRSIM, DOME). Each of these is best suited for the respective task. To enable a comprehensive analysis, however, the parts have to be integrated into a coherent model.

4.1 Integrating the Components

Since the descriptions of the failure injection module and the redundancy management system laws are based on equations, they can be incorporated easily into the object-oriented and equation-based aircraft model. This also holds for the hydraulic actuators, in principle, because the bond graph models correspond to a set of hybrid differential and algebraic equations. But due to present restrictions of the simulation software available for object-oriented modelling languages, specific simulation code is generated from the bond graphs of the actuators and merged with the C-code that results from the aircraft model.

For the redundancy management component, the modelling environment generates a simulation algorithm that defines the input-output behaviour of the discrete-event component. This automatically generated algorithm is designed in a way that is compatible to the MODELICA language so that it can be embedded directly into the aircraft model. In MODELICA such an algorithm is regarded simply as an additional model constraint that corresponds to an equation that contains a function with a fixed set of input and output variables.

To simulate the resulting hybrid model, MODELICA's hybrid DAE semantics is exploited. The temporal inequality expressions in the failure injection module are transformed into time events for the numerical integrator so that the continuous integration stops exactly when a switching time has elapsed. Then the whole set of equations is re-evaluated with the new values of the inequality expressions. Thereby, the algorithm of the redundancy management is also re-evaluated resulting possibly in a new state which may switch the feedback control laws.

4.2 Simulation Results

The phugoid in Fig. 12 is the result of two interacting phenomena: When the aircraft pitch angle increases, it gains altitude and at the same time loses airspeed. Because of this loss of airspeed, there is less upward thrust, which causes the aircraft to lose altitude in return. However, as it starts losing altitude, it picks up speed again and the airspeed rises. This results in a slightly damped oscillatory behaviour which is required to be stable in commercial aircrafts.

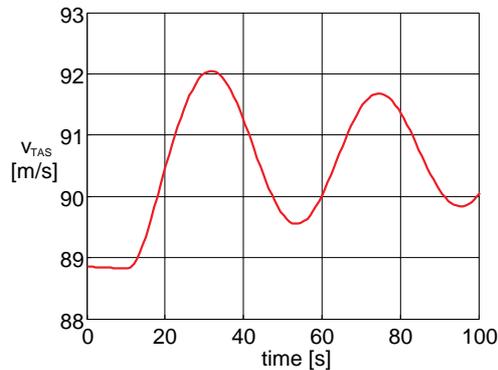


Fig. 12. Simulation shows a phugoid typical for aircraft

To investigate the effect of the redundancy control on the aircraft's behaviour, an actuator failure is introduced during a setpoint change. The setpoint change occurs at $t = 0.05$ [s] and the actuator failure at $t = 0.08$ [s]. Figure 13 shows that the failure leads to an immediate change of the active actuators and the switching transients in the hydraulics cause a sharp drop in elevator velocity. Because small effects such as oil elasticity and viscosity are neglected in the simulation, this results in a discontinuous change that occurs because of the algebraic dependency between elevator inertia and fluid inertia of the new loading path.

During a short period of time, the PID control causes the elevator velocity to ramp up to the value which it would have assumed without the failure. Note the short delay that is possible because the actuator that switches to active was *hot* and *shadowing* the PID control.

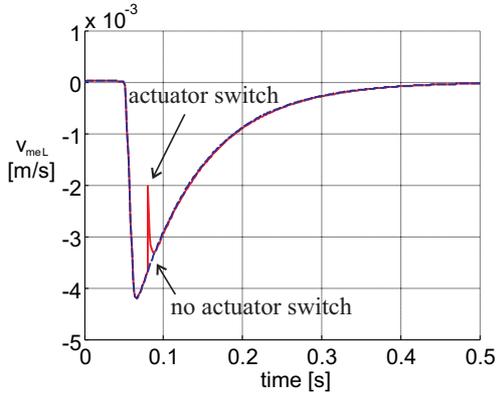


Fig. 13. Elevator velocity when a failure occurs at $t = 0.08$ shortly after a setpoint change at $t = 0.05$

The aircraft redundancy control is designed such that an actuator failure should not have a noticeable effect on the behaviour of the aircraft. Using the comprehensive model with switching logic and transients, and an extensive model of the aircraft dynamics, this effect can be studied as well. Figure 14(b) shows the effect of the actuator switch on the aircraft pitch angle, and Fig. 15(b) shows the effect on the pitch angle velocity. This verifies that the actuator switch has almost no effect on the overall aircraft behaviour which, because of the realistic aircraft model, provides much confidence for the real implementation. Note that the small effect of the actuator switching on the global behaviour manifests itself after a significant delay.

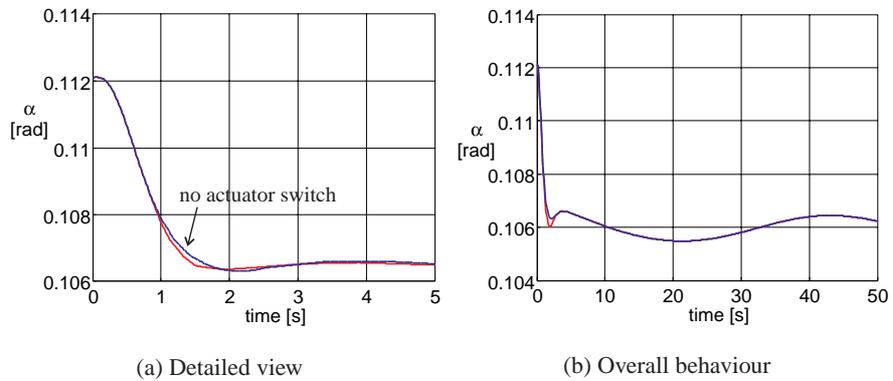


Fig. 14. Pitch angle for normal behaviour and for an actuator switch at $t = 0.08$

Table 3 illustrates how the redundancy management reacts, when the IO module failure occurs in PFCU2. In this case, all resulting state transitions are symmetrical, i.e., the modules of the right elevator have always the same state as the corresponding modules of the left elevator. Therefore the given states refer to both sides. In

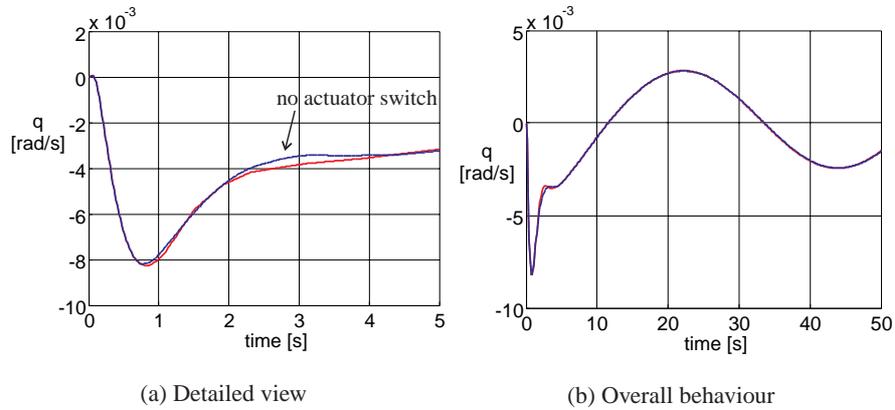


Fig. 15. Pitch angle velocity for normal behaviour and for an actuator switch at $t = 0.08$

the first local transition the statecharts of LIO and RIO (Left / Right IO) of PFCU2 switch from *Active* to *Isolated*, since these modules should not be activated again (see rules 1 and 10 in Section 2). Then PFCU1 takes over the actuators by activating its LIO and RIO modules (rules 1, 3, 5). In the last local transition, the LDL and RDL (Left / Right DL) statecharts of PFCU2 switch into the *Hot* mode preparing the system for a possible second failure (rule 6). Since state 2 would violate rule 4 and the transition from state 3 to state 4 would violate rule 1, the internal iterations have to be hidden from the outer system in order to prevent inconsistent outputs. This is why only the global transition from state 1 to state 4 is made observable to the outside.

Table 3. State transitions of the redundancy management system

components		local steps			
		1	2	3	4
PFCU2	RIO/LIO	Active	Isolated	Isolated	Isolated
	RDL/LDL	Passive	Passive	Passive	Hot
PFCU1	RIO/LIO	Hot	Hot	Active	Active
	RDL/LDL	Passive	Passive	Passive	Passive
outer actuators		control	–	–	shadow
inner actuators		shadow	–	–	control
global visibility		yes	no	no	yes

5 Conclusions

The comprehensive model of the aircraft developed here incorporates the redundancy management system, the switched positioning controllers, the actuator models as well as a complex model of the general dynamics of the aircraft. Hence, it is possible to assess the design of the elevator control system with respect to the overall behaviour of the aircraft in the case of failures. Since the less important physical effects of the hydraulic actuators were neglected, the simulation is fast enough to be used also in the context of a multi-objective parameter optimisation (MOPS) (Joos, 1999). Such an optimisation may, e.g., reduce the elevator surface or the actuator power such that the switching transients still do not affect the level of aircraft handling.

The abstractions used in the actuator models, i.e. neglecting small physical effects such as oil elasticity and viscosity, result in a DAE that may change its index during simulation. A standard DAE solver, such as DASSL, can be applied for this model, if the re-initialisation at event times results in a consistent state. For a correct behavioural simulation, this re-initialisation has to satisfy the physical conservation laws. For the purpose of this feasibility study the actuators were modelled in HYBR-SIM, a modelling environment based on hybrid bond graphs that supports the necessary re-initialisation procedure. The C-code generated by this environment was manually combined with the C-code generated by DYMOLA which includes the rest of the aircraft model. The hybrid system simulator MASIM was used to generate behaviors. MASIM has facilities to compute discontinuous changes of generalized state variables as algebraic constraints between them become active. The discrete-event parts of the aircraft are modelled using a visual specification language and are translated into a MODELICA algorithm that can be integrated into the aircraft model on the model level (Mosterman et al., 2002).

The presented modelling and simulation approach that combines an object-oriented modelling language such as MODELICA, domain-specific model libraries, discrete-event modelling formalisms and powerful simulation methods including correct state re-initialisation, was successfully applied to the aircraft elevator control system and seems to be promising for general complex technological systems.

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