

A Multi-Component Framework for Planning and Scheduling Integration

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Abstract

This paper presents our recent work on OMPS a new timeline-based software architecture for planning and scheduling whose features support software development for space mission planning applications. The architecture is based on the notions of domain components and is deeply influenced by constraint-based reasoning. Components are entities whose properties may vary in time and which model one or more physical subsystems which are relevant to a given planning context. Decisions can be taken on components, and constraints among decisions modify the components' behavior in time.

Introduction

This paper describes OMPS, the Open Multi-component Planning and Scheduling architecture. OMPS implements a timeline-driven solving strategy. The choice of using timelines lies in their suitability for real-world problem specifications, particularly those of the space mission planning context. Furthermore, timelines are very close to the operational approach adopted by human planners in current space mission planning. Timeline-based previous approaches have been described in (Muscettola *et al.* 1992; Muscettola 1994; Cesta & Oddi 1996; Jonsson *et al.* 2000; Frank & Jónsson 2003). We are evolving from our previous work on a planner called OMP (Fratini & Cesta 2005) in which we have proposed a uniform view of state variables and resources timelines to integrate planning & scheduling (P&S). Indeed the OMP experience produced a proof of concept solver for small scale demonstration. The current development of OMPS is fostered by the needs of the Advanced Planning and Scheduling Initiative (APSI) of the European Space Agency (ESA). Due to the constraints of delivering applications in a real environment have required us to reconsider the OMP experience further pushing the system engineering effort. General goal in OMPS is to provide a development environment for enabling the design and implementation of mission planning decision support systems to be used by ESA staff. OMPS is inherit also by our experience in developing planning and scheduling support tools for the same Agency, namely the MEXAR, MEXAR2 and RAXEM systems (Cesta *et al.* 2007a; 2007b), currently in active duty at ESA's control center. Our aim within APSI

is to generalize the approach to mission planning decision support creating a tool that facilitate product development.

The OMPS architecture is not only influenced by constraint-based reasoning work, but introduces also the notion of domain *components* as a primitive entity for knowledge modeling. Components are entities whose properties may vary in time and which model one or more physical subsystems which are relevant to a given planning context. Decisions can be taken on components, and constraints among decisions modify the components' behavior in time. Furthermore, components try to implement a primitive idea of compositionality enabling the possibility to incorporate into a constraint-based reasoning framework entire decisional modules which have been developed independently. The underlying philosophy of OMPS is to provide a development environment into which different, independently developed reasoning modules, the components, can be integrated seamlessly. It is useful to see a component as an entity having both *static* and *dynamic* aspects. Static descriptions are used to describe "what a component is", e.g., the static property of a light bulb is that it can be "on" or "off". Dynamic properties are instead those features which define how the static properties of the component may vary over time, e.g., a light bulb can go from "on" to "off" and vice-versa. It is tempting to associate components to the concept of state variable *a la* HSTS (Muscettola *et al.* 1992; Muscettola 1994). The reason for not doing so is that a state variable models an entity with static properties. The way this entity can change over time is typically specified through constraints, which constrain the possible states the variable can assume based on the values assumed by *other* state variables. A component as we define it here represents a slightly different concept, since its behavior over time can be determined by processes that are *internal* to the component itself. This distinction is important, as it provides a way to seamlessly incorporate into the OMPS reasoning framework objects which are themselves capable of modifying their behavior according to non-trivial processes, such as sophisticated reasoning algorithms. The component based approach is a key feature of OMPS. Goal of this approach is to allow to incorporate into our modeling framework entire decisional modules which have been developed independently.

This paper is organized as follows. First, we provide a definition of the basic building block, namely the compo-

nent, providing examples which show how such an entity can be instantiated to represent a “classical” state variable, a resource, or even a more complex object whose temporal behavior can be described according to its own “internal dynamics”. Second, we describe the notion of decision on a component. Again, we provide examples to show how this concept is instantiated on different common types of components. Third, we introduce the concepts of timeline and domain theory, the former providing the driving feature of the solving approach, the latter describing how components interact, and how decisions taken on components affects other components. Finally, we briefly illustrate the solving strategy implemented in the current OMPS framework and provide an example. It is worth saying that this paper describes the general approach underlying the OMPS architecture. We do not dwell on the theoretical aspects underlying the architecture, for which the interested reader is referred to (Fratini 2006).

Components and Behaviors

An intrinsic property of *components* is that they evolve over time, and that decisions can be taken on components which alter their evolution. In OMPS, a component is an entity that has a set of possible temporal evolutions over an interval of time \mathcal{H} . The component’s evolutions over time are named *behaviors*. Behaviors are modeled as temporal functions over \mathcal{H} .

Figure 1(a) shows an example of a component behavior in the most general case (continuous time), while Figure 1(b) exemplifies a stepwise constant behavior (instantaneous changes). In both cases, the range of the function (denoted \mathcal{D}) can be either a continuous or a discrete set of values.

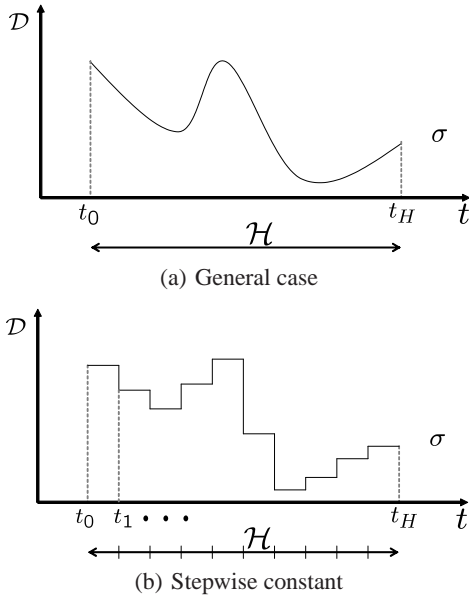


Figure 1: Examples of single behaviors.

In general, a component can have many different behav-

iors. Each behavior describes a different way in which the component’s properties vary in time during the temporal interval of interest. It is in general possible to provide different representations for these behaviors, depending on (1) the chosen temporal model (continuous vs. discrete, or time point based vs. interval based), (2) the nature of the range (finite vs. infinite, continuous vs. discrete, symbolic vs. numeric) and (3) the type of function which describes a behavior (general, piecewise linear, piecewise constant, impulsive and so on).

Not every function over a given temporal interval can be taken as a valid behavior for a component. The evolution of components in time is subject to “physical” constraints (or approximations thereof). We call *consistent* behaviors the ones that actually correspond to a possible evolution in time according to the real-world characteristics of the entity we are modeling. A component’s consistent behaviors are defined by means of *consistency features*. In essence, a consistency feature is a function f^C which determines which behaviors adhere to physical attributes of the real-world entity modeled by the component.

It is in general possible to have many different representations of a component’s consistency function: either explicit (e.g., tables or allowed bounds) or implicit (e.g., constraints, assertions, and so on). For instance, let us model again a light bulb component. A light bulb’s behaviors can take three values: “on”, “off” and “burned”. Supposing the light bulb cannot be fixed, a rule could state that any behavior that takes the value “burned” at a time t is consistent if and only if such a value is taken also for any time $t' > t$. This a declarative approach to describing the consistency feature f^C . Different actual representations for this function can be used, depending also on the representation of the behavior.

A few more concrete examples of components and their associated consistency features are the following.

State variable. *Behaviors:* piecewise constant functions over a finite, discrete set of symbols which represent the *values* that can be taken by the state variable. Each behavior represents a different sequence of values taken by the component. *Consistency Function Model:* a set of sequence constraints, i.e., a set of rules that specify which transitions between allowed values are legal. The function can be for instance represented as a timed automaton (Allur & Dill 1994) (see, e.g., the three state variables in Figure 3).

Note that a distinguishing feature of a state variable is that not all the transitions between its values are allowed.

Resource (renewable). *Behaviors:* integer or real functions of time, piecewise, linear, exponential or even more complex, depending on the model you want to set up. Each behavior represents a different profile of resource consumption. *Consistency Function Model:* minimum and maximum availability. Each behavior is consistent if it lies between the minimum and maximum availability during the entire planning interval.

Note that a distinguishing feature of a resource is that there are bounds of availability.

In general, the component-based approach allows to accommodate a pre-existing solving component into a larger planning problem. For instance, it is possible to incorporate the MEXAR2 application (Cesta *et al.* 2007a) as a component, the consistency property of which is not computed directly on the values taken by the behaviors, but as a function of those behaviors¹.

Component Decisions

Now that we have defined the concept of component as the fundamental building block of the OMPS architecture, the next step is to define how component behaviors can be altered (within the physical constraints imposed by consistency features).

We define a *component decision* as a pair $\langle \tau, \nu \rangle$, where τ is a given *temporal element*, and ν is a *value*. Specifically, τ can be:

- A time instant (TI) t representing a moment in time.
- A time interval (TIN), a pair of TIs defining an interval $[t_s, t_e)$ such that $t_e > t_s$.

The specific form of the value ν depends on the type of component on which the decision is defined. For instance, this can be an amount of resource usage for a resource component, or a disjunction of allowed values for a state variable.

Regardless of the type of component, the value of any component decision can contain *parameters*. In OMPS, parameters can be numeric or enumerations, and can be used to express complex values, such as “transmit(?bitrate)” for a state variable which models a communications system. Further details on value parameters will be given in the following section.

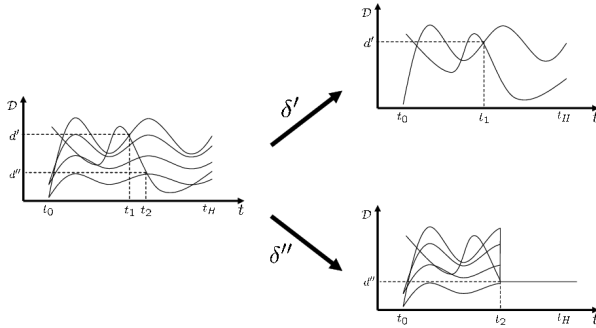


Figure 2: The update function computes the results of a decision on a component’s set of behaviors. The figure exemplifies this effect given the two decisions: δ' imposes a value d' for the behaviors of the component in the time instant t_1 ; δ'' imposes that the values of all behaviors converge to d'' after time instant t_2 .

Overall, a component decision is something that happens somewhere in time and modifies a component’s behaviors

¹Basically, it is computed as the difference between external uploads and the downloaded amount stated by the values taken by the behaviors. See (Cesta *et al.* 2007a) for details on the MEXAR2 application.

as described by the value ν . In OMPS, the consequences of these decisions are computed by the components by means an *update function* f^U . This is a function which determines how the component’s behaviors change as a consequence of a given decision. In other words, a decision changes a component’s set of behaviors, and f^U describes how. A decision could state for instance “keep all the behaviors that are equal to d' in t_1 ” and another decision could state “all the behaviors must be equal to d'' after t_2 ”. Given a decision on a component with a given set of behaviors, the update function computes the resulting set (see Figure 2).

In the following, we instantiate the concept of decision for the two types of components we have introduced so far.

State variable. *Temporal element:* a TIN. *Value:* a subset of values that can be taken by the state variable (the range of its behaviors) in the given time frame. *Update Function:* this kind of decision for a state variable implies the choice of values in a given time interval. In this case the subset of values are meant as a disjunction of allowed values in the given time interval. Applying a decision on a set of behaviors entails that all behaviors that do not take any of the chosen values in the given interval are cut out from the set.

Resource (renewable). *Temporal element:* a TIN. *Value:* quantity of resource allocated in the given interval — a decision is basically an *activity*, an amount of allocated resource in a time interval. *Update Function:* the resource profile is modified by taking into account this allocation. Outside the specified interval the profile is not affected.

Domain Theory

So far, we have defined components in isolation. When components are put together to model a real domain they cannot be considered as reciprocally decoupled, rather we need to take into account the fact that they influence each other’s behavior.

In OMPS, it is possible to specify such inter-component relations in what we call a *domain theory*. Specifically, given a set of components, a domain theory is a function f^{DT} which defines how decisions taken on one component affect the behaviors of *other* components. Just as a consistency feature f^C describes which behaviors are allowed with respect to the features of a single component, the domain theory specifies which of the behaviors belonging to all modeled components are concurrently admissible.

In practice, a domain theory is a collection of *synchronizations*. A synchronization essentially represents a rule stating that a certain decision on a given component (called the *reference* component) can lead to the application of a new decision on another component (called *target* component). More specifically, a synchronization has the form $\langle C_i, V \rangle \longrightarrow \langle C_j, V', R \rangle$, where: C_i is the reference component; V is the value of a component decision on C_i which makes the synchronization applicable; C_j is the target component on which a new decision with value V' will be imposed; and R is a set of *relations* which bind the reference and target decisions.

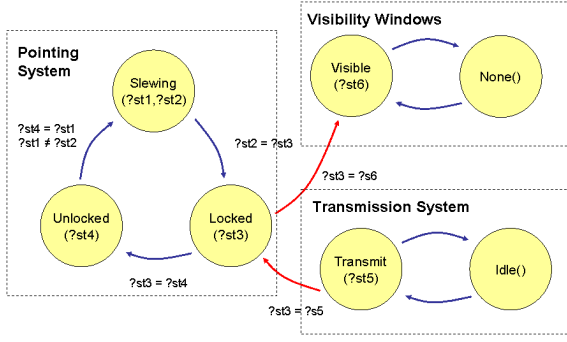


Figure 3: State variables and domain theory for the running example.

Suppose the planning problem consists in deciding data transmission commands from a satellite to earth within given visibility windows. The fundamental components which constitute the system are: the satellite’s Transmission System (TS) and the satellite’s Pointing System (PS). In addition to this, an external, uncontrollable set of properties is also modeled, namely Station Visibility (SV). Component instantiation in this example thus equates to defining three state variables. The consistency features of these three variables are shown in Figure 3. The figure also shows the domain theory, which consists of two synchronizations: one states that the value “locked(?st3)” on component PS requires the decision “visible(?st6)” on component SV (where $?st3 = ?st6$, i.e., the two values must refer to the same station). The other synchronization asserts that transmitting on a certain station requires the PS component to be locked on that station.

Decision Network

The fundamental tool for defining dependencies among component decisions are *relations*, of which OMPS provides three types; *temporal*, *value* and *parameter* relations.

Given two component decisions, a *temporal relation* is a constraint among the temporal elements of the two decisions. A temporal relation among two decisions A and B can prescribe temporal requirements such as those modeled by Allen’s interval algebra (Allen 1983), e.g., A EQUALS B, or A OVERLAPS [l,u] B.

A *value relation* between two component decisions is a constraint among the values of the two decisions. A value relation among two decisions A and B can prescribe requirements such as A EQUALS B, or A DIFFERENT B (meaning that the value of decision A must be equal to or different from the value of decision B). Notice that temporal relations can involve any two component decisions, e.g., an activity should occur BEFORE a value choice. Conversely, value relations are defined among decisions pertaining to components of the same type.

Lastly, a *parameter relation* among component decisions is a constraint among the values of the parameters of the two decisions. Such relations can prescribe linear inequalities between parameter variables. For instance, a parameter constraint between two decisions with values “avail-

able(?antenna, ?bandwidth)” and “transmit(?bitrate)” can be used to express the requirement that transmission should not use more than half the available bandwidth, i.e., $?bitrate \leq 0.5 \cdot ?bandwidth$.

Component decisions and relations are maintained in a *decision network*: given a set of components \mathcal{C} , a decision network is a graph $\langle V, E \rangle$, where each vertex $\delta_C \in V$ is a component decisions defined on a component $C \in \mathcal{C}$, and each edge $(\delta_{C_i}^m, \delta_{C_j}^n)$ is a temporal, value or parameter relation among component decisions $\delta_{C_i}^m$ and $\delta_{C_j}^n$.

We now define the concepts of *initial condition* and *goal*.

An initial condition for our problem consists in a set of value choices for the SV state variable. These decisions reflect the visibility windows given by the Earth’s position with respect to the (given) orbit of the satellite. Notice that the allowed values of the SV component are not references for a synchronization, thus they cannot lead to the insertion in the plan of new component decisions.

Conversely, a goal consists in a set of component decisions which are intended to trigger the solving strategy to exploit the domain theory’s synchronizations to synthesize decisions. In our example, such as set consists in value choices on the TS component which assert a desired number of “transmit(?st5)” values. Notice that these value choices can be allocated flexibly on the timeline.

In general, the characterizing feature of decisions which define an initial condition is that these decisions do not lead to application of the domain theory. Conversely, goals directly or indirectly entail the need to apply synchronizations in order to reach domain theory compliance. This mechanism is the core of the solving process described in the following section.

Reasoning About Timelines in OMPS

OMPS implements a solving strategy which is based on the notion of *timeline*. A timeline is defined for a component as an ordered sequence of its values. A component’s timeline is defined by the set of decisions imposed on that component. Timelines represent the *consequences* of the component decisions over the time axis, i.e., a timeline for a component is the collection of all its behaviors as obtained by applying the f^U function given the component decisions taken on it.

The overall solving process implemented in OMPS is composed of three main steps, namely *domain theory application*, *timeline management* and *solution extraction*. More in detail, timeline management consists in *extraction*, *scheduling* and *completion*. Indeed, a fundamental principle of the OMPS approach is its *timeline-driven* solving process.

Domain Theory Application

Component decisions possess an attribute which changes during the solving process, namely whether or not a decision is *justified*. Specifically, OMPS’s domain application step consisting in iteratively tagging decisions as justified according to the following rules (iterated over all decisions δ in the decision network):

1. If δ unifies with another decision in the network, then mark δ as justified;

2. If δ 's value unifies with the reference value of a synchronization, then mark δ as justified and add the target decision(s) and relations to the decision network;
3. If δ does not unify with any reference value in the domain theory, mark δ as justified.

The previous definition of initial condition and goal can be understood in terms of domain theory application as follows: an initial condition is a set of component decisions whose justification follows trivially from the domain, i.e., it is the direct result of the application of step 3; a goal, on the other hand, is a set of component decisions whose justification leads to the application of synchronizations in the domain theory (i.e., step 2).

Timeline Management

Timeline management is a collection of procedures which are necessary to go from a set of decision network to a completely instantiated set of behaviors. These behaviors ultimately represent a solution to the planning problem. Timeline management may introduce new component decisions as well as new relations to the decision network. For this reason, the OMPS solving process iterates domain theory application and timeline management steps until the decision network is fully justified and a consistent set of behaviors can be extracted from all component timelines.

Timeline Extraction. The outcome of the domain theory application step is a decision network where all decisions are justified. Nevertheless, since every component decision's temporal element (which can be a TI or TIN) is maintained in an underlying flexible temporal network, these decisions are not fixed in time, rather they are free to move between the temporal bounds obtained as a consequence of the temporal relations imposed on the temporal elements. For this reason, a timeline must be *extracted* from the decision network, i.e., the flexible placement of temporal elements implies the need of synthesizing a total ordering among floating decisions. Specifically, this process depends on the component for which extraction is performed. For a resource, for instance, the timeline is computed by ordering the allocated activities and summing the requirements of those that overlap. For a state variable, the effects of temporally overlapping decision are computed by intersecting the required values, to obtain (if possible) in each time interval a value which complies with all the decisions that overlap during the time interval.

In the current implementation, we follow for every type of component an earliest start-time (EST) approach, i.e., we have a timeline where all component decisions are assumed to occur at their earliest start time and last the shortest time possible. Figure 4 shows the timeline extraction mechanism for a state variable. The example illustrates two properties of timelines, namely *flaws* and *inconsistencies*.

The first of these features depends on the fact that decisions imposed on the state variable do not result in a complete coverage of the planning horizon with decisions. This timeline in the figure contains what we call a *flaw* in the interval $[30, 40]$. A flaw is a segment of time in which no decision has been taken, thus the state variable within this

Component decisions

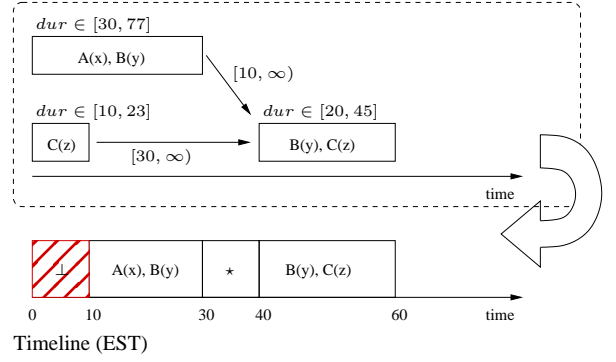


Figure 4: Three value choices on a state variable, and the resulting earliest start time (EST) timeline.

segment of time is not constrained to take on certain values, rather it can, in principle, assume any one of its allowed values. The process of deciding which value(s) are admissible with respect to the state variable's internal consistency features (i.e., the component's f^C function) is clearly a non-trivial process. Indeed, this is precisely the objective of *timeline completion*.

In addition to flaws *inconsistencies* can arise in the timeline. In the case of state variables, an inconsistency occurs when two or more value choices whose intersection is empty overlap in time. In the example above, this occurs in the interval $[0, 10]$. As opposed to flaws, inconsistencies do not require the generation of additional component decisions, rather they can be resolved by posting further temporal constraints. For instance, the above inconsistency can be resolved by imposing a BEFORE constraint which forces $(C(z))$ to occur after $(A(x), B(y))$. Inconsistency resolution is the objective of *timeline scheduling*.

Timeline Scheduling. The scheduling process deals with the problem of resolving inconsistencies. Once again, the process depends on the component. For a resource, activity overlapping results in an inconsistency if the combined usage of the overlapping activities requires more than the resource's capacity. For a state variable, any overlapping of decision that requires a conflicting set of decisions must be avoided. The scheduling process adds constraints to the decision network to avoid such inconsistencies through a constraint posting algorithm (Cesta, Oddi, & Smith 2002).

Timeline Completion. This process is required for components such as state variables, where it is required that any interval of time in a solution is covered by a decision (this is trivially true for reusable resources as we have defined them in this paper). If it is not possible to force an ordering among decisions in such a way that entire planning horizon is decided, then a flaw completion routine is triggered. This step adds new decisions to the plan.

Solution Extraction

Once domain application and timeline management have successfully converged on a set of timelines with no inconsistencies or flaws, the next step is to extract from the time-

lines one or more consistent behaviors. Recall that a behavior is one particular choice of values for each temporal segment in a component's timeline. The previous domain theory application and timeline management steps have filtered out all behaviors that are not, respectively, consistent with respect to the domain theory and the components' consistency features. Behavior extraction deals with the problem of determining a consistent set of fully instantiated behaviors for every component. Since every segment of a timeline potentially represents a disjunction of values, behavior extraction must choose specific behaviors consistently. Furthermore, not all values in timeline segments are fully instantiated with respect to parameters, thus behavior extraction must also take into account the consistent instantiation of values across all components.

Overall Solving Process

In the current OMPS solver the previously illustrated steps are interleaved as sketched in Figure 5.

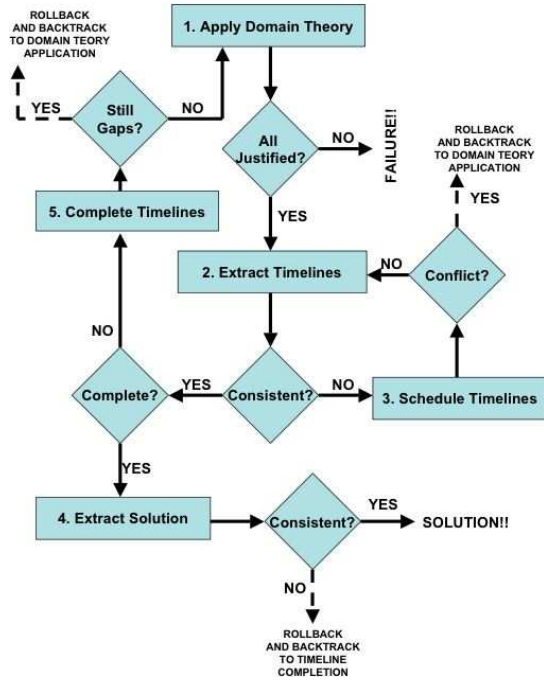


Figure 5: The OMPS solving process.

The first step in the planning process is domain theory application, whose aim is to support non-justified decisions. If there is no way to support all the decisions in the plan, the algorithm fails.

Once every decision has been supported, the solver tries to extract a timeline for each component. At this point, it can happen that some timelines are not consistent, meaning that there exists a time interval over which conflicting decisions overlap (an inconsistency). In such a situation, a scheduling step is triggered. If the scheduler cannot solve all conflicts, the solver backtracks directly to domain theory application, and searches for a different way of supporting goals.

If the solver manages to extract a conflict-free set of timelines, it then triggers a timeline-completion step on any timeline which is found to have flaws. It may happen that some timelines cannot be completed. In this case, the solver backtracks again to the previous domain theory application step, and again searches for a way of justifying all decisions. If the completion step succeeds for all timelines, the solver returns to domain theory application, as timeline completion has added decisions which are not justified.

Once all timelines are conflict-free and complete, the solver is ready to extract behaviors. If behavior extraction fails, the solver attempts to backtrack to timeline completion. This is because our currently implemented completion algorithm attempts to complete all incomplete timelines separately: thus it may easily happen that a completion over a timeline compromises behavior extraction on a different timeline (since values are linked with synchronizations). If this fails, the solver must return to domain theory application in order to search for a different plan altogether.

Finally, the whole process ends when the solver succeeds in extracting at least one behavior for each timeline. This collection of mutually consistent behaviors represents a fully instantiated solution to the planning problem.

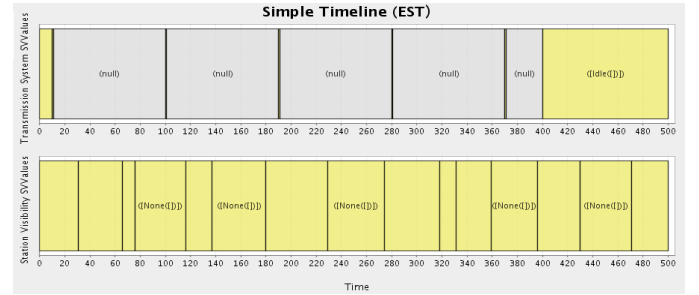


Figure 6: EST timelines for the TS and SV state variables.

Going back to our running example, the timelines of the SV and TS components resulting from the application of a set of initial condition and goal decisions are shown in Figure 6 (no initial decision or goal is specified for the PS component). Notice that the SV timeline is fully defined, reflecting the fact that the SV component is not controllable, rather it represents the evolution in time of station visibility given the fully defined flight dynamics of the satellite. The TS timeline contains five “transmit” value choices, through which we represent our goal. These value choices are allocated within flexible time bounds (the figure shows an EST timeline for the component, in which these decisions are anchored to their earliest start time and duration). As opposed to the SV timeline, the TS timeline contains flaws, and it is precisely these flaws that will be “filled” by the solving algorithm. In addition, the application during the solving process of the synchronization between the SV and PS components that will determine the construction of the PS's timeline (which is completely void of component decisions in the initial situation), reflecting the fact that it is necessary to point the satellite towards the visible target before initiating transmission.

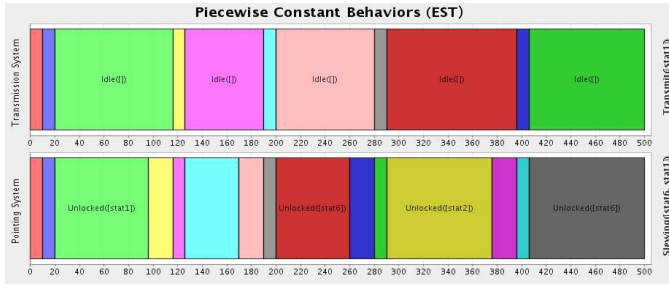


Figure 7: *EST behaviors for the TS and PS state variables.*

The behaviors extracted from the TS and PS components' timelines after applying this solving procedure on our example are shown in Figure 7.

Related Works

The synthesis of OMPS is aimed at creating an extensible problem solving architecture to support development of different applications. It is worth making a comparison with other systems that, for different reasons, share the same goal with our system.

Similarly to OMPS's timelines, IxTeT (Ghallab & Laruelle 1994) follows a domain representation ontology based on state attributes which assume values in a given domain. Unlike OMPS in IxTeT system dynamics are represented with a STRIPS-like logical formalism. Resource reasoning is used as a conflict analyzer on top of the plan representation.

Visopt ShopFloor (Bartak 2002) is grounded on the the idea of working with dynamic scheduling problems where it is not possible to describe in advance activity sets that have to be scheduled. That is the same principle behind the integration of planning into scheduling done in both OMP and OMPS: to put a domain theory behind a scheduling problem to gain flexibility in managing tasks and goal driven problem solving. Dynamic aspects of the problem are described using resources with complex behaviors. These resources are close to our state variable, but they are managed using global constraints instead of a precedence constraint posting approach as we are currently doing. Moreover, although we are working on P&S integration we maintain a clear distinction between planning and scheduling at the level of modeling problem features.

HSTS (Muscettola *et al.* 1992; Muscettola 1994), has been the first to propose a modeling language with explicit representation of timelines, using the concept of state variables. In fact we are extending an HSTS-like state variables modeling language with a generic timeline oriented approach: in OMPS timelines represents not only state variable evolutions, but also multi-capacity and consumable resources, and may arrive to include generic components having temporal functions as behaviors. A clear difference w.r.t. HSTS is that in our approach we see different types of timelines as separate modules, while HSTS, and its derivatives RAX-PS and EUROPA, view resources as specialized state variables. Their view is certainly appealing but leaves the

problem of integrating in a clean way multi-capacity resources open. In fact, while it is immediate to represent binary resources as state variables, it is quite difficult to model and handle cumulative resources. We believe that in these cases the best way is to exploit state of the art scheduling technologies hence our direction of seeing resources as an independent type of components.

Conclusions

In this article we have given a preliminary overview of OMPS a P&S system which follows a component-based, timeline-driven approach to planning and scheduling integration. The approach draws from and attempts to generalize our previous experience in mission planning tool development for ESA (Cesta *et al.* 2007a; 2007b) and to extend our previous work on the OMP planing system (Fratini & Cesta 2005).

A distinctive feature of the OMPS architecture is that it provides a framework for reasoning about any entity which is modelable as a component, i.e., as a set of properties that vary in time. This includes "classical" concepts such as state variables (as defined in HSTS (Muscettola *et al.* 1992; Muscettola 1994) and studied also in subsequent work (Cesta & Oddi 1996; Jonsson *et al.* 2000; Frank & Jónsson 2003)), and renewable/consumable resources (Laborie 2003; Cesta, Oddi, & Smith 2002).

A distinctive feature of the component-based architecture is the possibility to modularize the reasoning algorithms that are specific to each type of component within the component itself, e.g., profile-based scheduling routines for resource inconsistency resolution are implemented within the resource component itself. The more important consequence of this is the possibility to include within the framework ad-hoc components. An example is a type of renewable resource which also has a set of non-numeric allowed values, much like a hybrid between a state variable and a resource. Indeed, the component paradigm can be used to integrate more sophisticated entities such as subsystems which are already present in the work process (as could be the case of the entire MEXAR2 system in ESA's environment).

Acknowledgments

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