

NEW APPROACHES TO ENTERPRISE COOPERATION GENERATION AND MANAGEMENT

Jörg Lässig

International Computer Science Institute, 1947 Center Street, Suite 600, Berkeley, CA, U.S.A.

Ulrich Trommler

CBS Information Technologies, Curiestr. 3a, Chemnitz, Germany

Keywords: Virtual enterprise, Enterprise cooperation generation and management, Enterprise resource planning, Decision support, Supply chain management, Rich internet application, Collaboration, Replanning.

Abstract: The paper considers the problem of task specific cooperation generation and management in a network of small or medium sized enterprises. Such short-term cooperations are called *Virtual Enterprises*. So far this problem has been discussed by several authors by applying different methods from artificial intelligence as *multi-agent systems*, *ant colony optimization*, or *genetic algorithms*, and combinations of them. In this paper we discuss this problem from a target oriented point of view and focus on the question how it can be modeled to keep its complexity controllable by considering sequential, parallel, and non-combinatorial approaches. After describing the implementation of a cooperation generation solution as rich internet application also solutions for the management of such cooperations considering aspects as replanning are described.

1 INTRODUCTION

Besides the classical supply chain there are many other appearances of business cooperations as, e.g., joint ventures, strategic alliances, and *enterprise networks*. While the first three types are long lasting cooperations, according to Teich *enterprise networks* are very dynamic by allowing to adopt new partners, to gain new orders and to expand into new market segments (Teich, 2002). Already Miles and Snow considered dynamic networks which for the external observer or customer can ideally act as one enterprise, and hence, have been dubbed Virtual Enterprises (VE) (Miles and Snow, 1984), see Figure 1. The concept is very close to Shaw's idea of Information-based manufacturing (IbM) (Shaw and Fulkerson, 2001). In this work the computer scientific aspects are emphasized.

In detail we consider the problem to generate cooperations especially consisting of small and medium-sized enterprises to collaboratively solve a given task, as e.g., to produce a machine tool. According to a request for such an product, the goal is to choose eligible companies in a network according to their competences and to compute different cooperation scenarios automatically. As described by Martinz

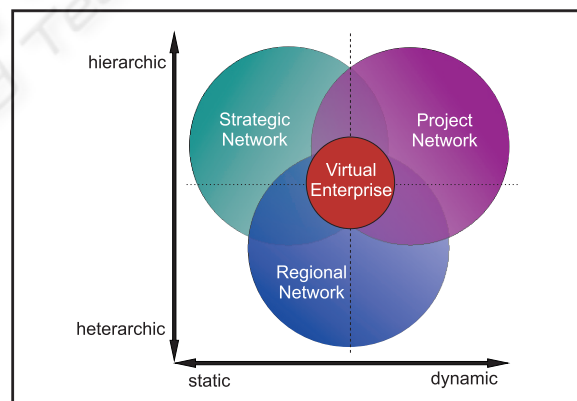


Figure 1: Classification of the virtual enterprise.

et al., in general there is a central *resources pool*, representing the different companies in the network. The starting point is a task request by a customer or network participant (Martinez et al., 2001).

The next generation stage is to identify companies which are eligible to process certain parts of the task by matching competences and to inform them about the task. This problem is not considered further in this paper. If eligible companies are informed, the in-

interested ones bid in some way on parts of the task and an *algorithm generates a cooperation solution* to fulfill the request by using the competencies of different enterprises. Finally, the product is produced in the requested number of items and delivered. This means the process can be seen as a circle, starting with the submission of a new task (from a customer) and ending with the delivery of the product (to this customer). As we will see, it is reasonable to specify tasks by means of work packages with time constraints in between, so called precedences.

The described problem has already been addressed in research for about twenty years, and several approaches have been described. However, due to a set of intricate problems in this context no ultimate solution is known and none of the proposed solutions is used in practice so far; refer, e.g., to Teich for a survey (Teich, 2002). One reason is that the task to accomplish includes several interacting problems combined with duration and time constraints, monitoring, replanning, or failure management.

Of central importance is the *generation of feasible candidate cooperation solutions*, which requires the assignment of specific parts of the task to companies and calculating necessary logistics operations, costs, and finishing times in this scenario. A crucial point in this process is the *restriction of the computational complexity* of the generation task, which is due to the modeling of the task itself, the structure of bids, and the design of the solution space. Depending on the model, the computation can include solving complex multi-criteria optimization problems with side constraints to find groups of enterprises which fit best to a specific request. This paper considers particularly this central *cooperation generation problem*.

First, we describe the problem to be solved in more detail in the next section. Then, in Section 3, different modeling scenarios are discussed, including historical approaches. Particularly, some important design aspects are worked out. Subsequently, in Section 4, we focus on the browser-based implementation of a cooperation generation and control system covering the features as discussed in the sections before. The system has been implemented completely browser-based by applying state of the art web-technologies. Additionally, in Section 5, the cooperation management with questions as replanning is outlined, before the paper is concluded in Section 6.

2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

A crucial part for this kind of problem is to find a good model. First, we restrict ourselves to a case where a

work piece from mechanical engineering has to be produced, let's say a cog wheel on a shaft. Several scenarios in literature now assume that this work piece is available as CAD file, i.e., as 3D model with a description of all features as described by Pratta *et al.* (Pratta et al., 2005). This has the advantage that for each feature the complete knowledge about the machines needed to produce the work piece is available. For specific machines the time to produce it can be calculated, at least in principle. This "complete" approach faces several problems in practice, as there are:

- All tasks must be available as complete CAD file, which is not the case for small lots and small enterprises.
- The cooperation generation system would have to be able to process all common CAD standards.
- The complete feature description of workpieces is still a research problem.
- The number of combinatorial possible cooperation scenarios becomes extremely high due to the small granularity of subtasks and operations.
- Practically, it is in principle sometimes not possible to do each operation on another machine if specific preciseness is necessary.

Therefore, we only look at a scenario where *fixed work packages* are suggested by the party issuing an invitation to bid with precedence constraints in between. This is a scenario which can be described by a graph as shown in Figure 2. In the extreme case this approach could be used to model all operations of the work piece as work package, but as we will see, this would be computationally difficult to treat.

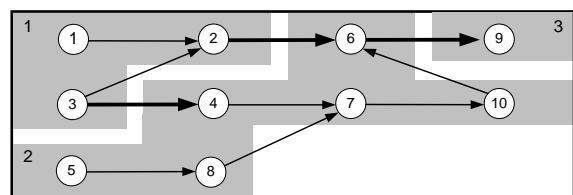


Figure 2: Task graph with precedences between work packages and three chosen bids (grey)

Consider that for each work package parameters are available if a certain machine can process this work package or not. Because a complete feature description of the operations in these work packages is assumed to be not available in our scenario, this can be done only with a certain probability, utilizing incomplete information. This problem is not discussed here further but Lässig describes how this can be realized (Lässig, 2009). Here we just assume the following situation:

- There is a set $C = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ of companies and each company has a set of machines $\mathcal{M}(c), c \in C$.
- There is a set of work packages $w \in \mathcal{W}$.
- There is some mechanism to reason with high probability which company can process a certain work package.

Because this mechanism is probabilistic and because the work packages are not described completely machine readable, it should be clear that human interaction is necessary to decide if a certain work package can finally be realized. To be able to do this, it is necessary to have detailed information and technical detail drawings available, of course. Further information are assumed to be added in this phase as well, e.g., the price for the service or time constraints. Finally, the company bids on a subset of work packages adding also this information. This is the general set-up, which is discussed now in different scenarios.

3 MODELING DECISIONS AND CENTRAL ASPECTS

So far we have a set of work packages and a set of bids on them by the companies. It is open, how exactly bids should be structured, which further information should be provided by the bidders and how the system uses these information to generate cooperation solutions. A cooperation solution is in our case an assignment of companies to work packages, i.e., for each work package there is a company to process it. Further, different cooperations should be comparable by reasonable objectives. Part of the objective function should be at least the occurring costs (including logistics between participants) and the finishing time of the cooperation. Quality or robustness are often mentioned as possible further measures.

3.1 Sequential Assignment

In (Teich, 2002) a sequential bidding scenario is described. The work packages as shown in Figure 2 can be topologically sorted (Corman et al., 2001) and then starting with the topologically last work package all companies which are able to process the work package in principle are asked to bid by submitting a price and a start time of this work package. If n companies are bidding then the search tree has n branches in this stage and in each branch of the search tree, the start time of the next work package is known. Now in each search branch again all companies which are able to process the previous work package(s) are asked to bid. In each of these cases also the logistics time and cost

can be calculated. Of course this scenario has disadvantages:

- The search tree gets exponentially large.
- Each company has to bid many times and in different stages and branches of the search if more than one work packages are of interest.

While the first problem causes dramatic running times for instances with many work packages and many bidders, the second problem rules out human interaction in the bidding process, i.e., in this scenario only software can bid. This again is only possible if any information about the task, the machines, and the scheduling in the company which bids is completely available. As described above, this is in practise often not the case.

3.2 Parallel Assignment

From the previous section we have seen that it is desirable to find a scenario where the number of bids is low for each company in order to reduce the workload and to permit manual bidding. Ideally, each company submits a set of work packages together with a price and some timing constraints, which has been proposed by (Lässig et al., 2007). Let's leave out the complication due to the necessary termination of the work packages for a moment, which can be realized by a graph technique called important paths, described, e.g. in (Lässig, 2007). If companies submit sets of work packages, we face essentially a combinatorial problem as described in the following:

Definition 1 (Work Package Allocation). For a set of bidding companies $C = \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ and a set of work packages $\mathcal{W} = \{1, 2, \dots, W\}$, with $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{W})$ denoting the power set of \mathcal{W} , the variables $x_{i,j}$ are defined for bids $b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_i$ and $\mathcal{B}_i \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{W})$ by

$$x_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & | \text{if bidder } i \text{ gets assigned bid } b_{i,j} \\ 0 & | \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and form a work package allocation \mathbf{x} . Here $i = 1, 2, \dots, C$ is the index for the bidding company and $j = 1, 2, \dots, B_i$ is necessary to distinct between bids of the same company, where B_i is the cardinality of the bid set \mathcal{B}_i of company i , which is a set of subsets of items, the company i is bidding for. Each item $b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_i$ forms a single bid.

An allocation \mathbf{x} is called feasible if work packages are allocated at most once, represented by the constraints

$$\sum_{i \in C} \sum_{\substack{b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_i \\ b_{i,j} \cap \{k\} \neq \emptyset}} x_{i,j} \leq 1, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, W. \quad (1)$$

A feasible allocation \mathbf{x} is called complete if (1) demands equality to one.

The *Weighted Exact Cover Problem* (WECP) is then defined as follows:

Definition 2 (WECP). Given a setup as defined in Definition 1 and, additionally, costs $c_{i,j}$ a company $i \in C$ is declaring to charge for processing the work packages in $b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_i$, the WECP is defined to ask for

$$\mathbf{x} \in \arg \min \left\{ \sum_{i \in C} \sum_{b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}_i} c_{i,j} \cdot x_{i,j} \mid \mathbf{x} \text{ is complete} \right\}.$$

Different algorithmic approaches to this problem and also a generalized version, which integrates further objectives besides costs, have been investigated besides many optimization aspects for questions of search organization (Lässig, 2009).

Algorithm 1 introduces the basic template to solve the problem WECP, where the costs of a set $X \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ of all given bids with $\bigcup_{b \in X} b \subseteq \mathcal{W}$ are defined as

$$c(X) = \sum_{b_{i,j} \in X} c_{i,j}. \quad (2)$$

The algorithm implements a recursive search. The lines 1–4 describe terminating conditions of the recursion. In line 5 a branching decision is calculated which can, e.g., be a decision that some bid is taken or not taken or a decision which bid is used to cover a specific work package. The search is then continued in D_B different branches of the tree. The function `next_tuple` partitions the set of working packages and bids according to the branching decision.

Algorithm 1. `Basic_search`($\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{in}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{bsf}}$).

Require: work packages \mathcal{W} , bids \mathcal{B} with price $c_{i,j}$ for $b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}$, input set \mathcal{X}_{in} , best so far solution \mathcal{X}_{bsf}

Ensure: set \hat{X} of bids, covering \mathcal{W} exactly with price $c(\hat{X}) = \min\{\sum_{b_{i,j} \in X} c_{i,j} \mid \mathbf{x}(X) \text{ is complete}\}$

- 1: **if** ($\mathcal{W} = \emptyset$) **then**
 - 2: **return** $\arg \min\{c(\mathcal{X}_{\text{in}}), c(\mathcal{X}_{\text{bsf}})\}$
 - 3: **if** ($\mathcal{B} = \emptyset$) **then**
 - 4: **return** \mathcal{X}_{bsf}
 - 5: $D_B \leftarrow \text{get_branching_decision}(\mathcal{W}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{in}}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{bsf}})$
 - 6: **for** $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** r_{D_B} **do**
 - 7: $(\mathcal{W}^{(i)}, \mathcal{B}^{(i)}, \mathcal{X}^{(i)}) \leftarrow \text{next_tuple}(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{in}}, D_B, i)$
 - 8: $\mathcal{X}_{\text{bsf}} \leftarrow \text{basic_search}(\mathcal{W}^{(i)}, \mathcal{B}^{(i)}, \mathcal{X}^{(i)}, \mathcal{X}_{\text{bsf}})$
 - 9: **return** \mathcal{X}_{bsf}
-

Although this kind of search algorithms can have an exponential running time in the worst case, theoretical investigations and also experimental studies show,

that the problem keeps computational tractable under reasonable assumptions. In the algorithm there are two degrees of freedom left, indicated by the functions `get_branching_decision` and `next_tuple`, which give room for many improvements and strategies to accelerate the algorithm by orders of magnitude.

Examples of improvements to accelerate the two functions above are for instance different branching strategies (branch on bid, branch on work package, generalized branching, etc.), bid ordering strategies, combinatorial pruning rules, and the application of heuristic pruning functions, known from other applications as the Winner Determination Problem (Sandholm, 2002). Worst case results show that the number of possible solutions for the problem WECP is polynomial in the number of bids but exponential in the number of work packages.

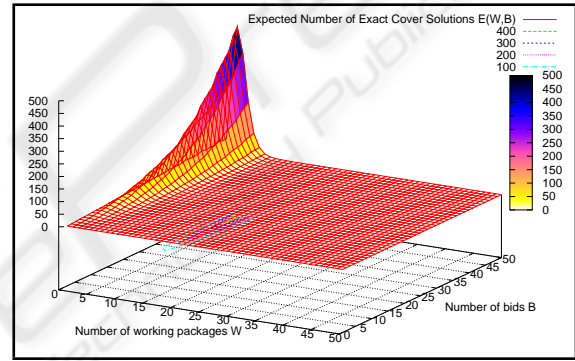


Figure 3: Expected number of exact cover solutions.

The plot in Figure 3 shows the expected number of solutions (average case) for given numbers B of bids and W work packages, calculated by the exact counting function

$$E_{\text{EC}}(W, B) = \sum_{i=1}^B \binom{B}{i} (2^W - 1)^{-i} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} (-1)^j \binom{i}{j} (i-j)^W,$$

which has been developed to investigate performance issues and which scales well with the running time of solvers as Algorithm 1 (Lässig, 2009). It shows that the expected number of solutions is moderate for moderate input sizes W and B . It turns out that this is a very good indicator for the running time of implementations as Algorithm 1, applied to solve this problem, see Figure 4. This means the equation above turns out to be a good model for the running time.

As one can see in the visualization, if the number of work packages is increasing, the expectation to receive at least one possible solution is decreasing for a constant number of bids. Therefore, in practice it is not sufficient to search only for solutions of a given problem – further strategies are necessary.

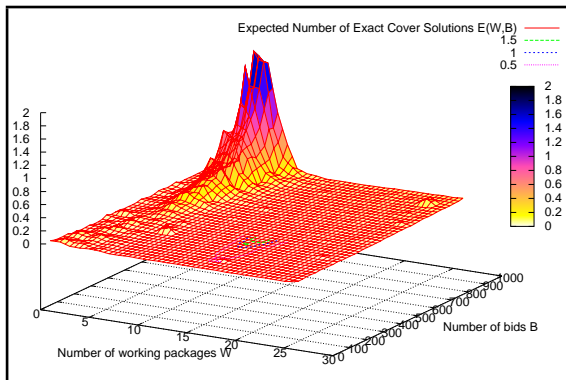


Figure 4: Experimental running time for the solution.

Actually, it turns out that the scenario is controllable if two special cases are carefully taken into account:

- the worst case in terms of the number of solutions, which can be very large, is treated in some way,
- the case that no solution is found is treated in some way, because this may happen even if many bids are available.

The second problem can be handled by providing possible completing bids for potential bidders, i.e., bids which complete partial solutions to exact cover solutions or at least towards them. These can be calculated in the last recursion step. Further, the strategy to handle the first problem is to not consider all possible solutions if there are too many (by using heuristics). Further constraints as the termination of the solution according to given timing parameters and the search for an optimal solution in an multi-objective scenario complicate the search. Hence, a simpler approach seems to be desirable. Major motivations are

- the algorithmically quite elaborate handling of the combinatorial bidding situation combined with multiple objectives and timing constraints,
- the fact that many bids are ruled out and do not contribute to the set of solutions only for combinatorial reasons.

3.3 Removing Combinatorics

A straightforward way to simplify the scenario is that each company bids non-combinatorial, which means independently on different work packages it is able to process – with separate prices and time constraints, which we left out so far but which are introduced below. Of course this has disadvantages because now the companies are not able to express that they are only willing to bid on certain groups of work packages

but, it can have advantages for reducing the complexity of the scenario. We also leave out logistics here.

The central problem now is that the number of possible solutions is much larger not only in the worst case but in any case for a given number of bids and work packages, i.e., if $B(w_i)$ is the number of bids on work package w_i and W the number of work packages, then the overall number of different solutions is

$$S = \prod_{i=1}^W B(w_i).$$

This yields 2^W if there are exactly two bids for each work package, which means exponential many solutions in the number of work packages.

However, in the case of no further constraints, i.e., each bid can be combined with each other bid on other work packages, the most cost-efficient solution can be found trivially by taking the cheapest bid for each work package. Unfortunately, in practise cost is important but other objectives as time for the realization of a certain task as well.

Consider the following simple scenario:

- for each bid $b_{i,j} \in \mathcal{B}$, which includes only one specific work package, besides the cost $c_{i,j}$ also the duration $d_{i,j}$ to complete the work packages is given¹,
- there is an overall earliest start time t_s and an latest end time t_e and only for this time frame the durations are guaranteed by the bidder,
- there are no further objectives besides cost and time.

Now it is easily possible to find the solution with the earliest completion time: Just topologically sort the work packages in the sorting which is given by the task graph (Figure 2) and use the classical CPM/PERT approach (with equivalent best-case and worst-case times for the work packages) to find the completion time if for each work package the bid with the smallest duration is taken into the solution.

To find the cheapest solution is now already more involved because just taking for each work package the bid $b_{i,j}$ with smallest cost value $c_{i,j}$ does not necessarily give a feasible solution because the duration could be larger than the time period $t_e - t_s$. It gets even more involved if a tradeoff between several objectives has to be found. From a theoretical point of view, it would be the best to present all Pareto-optimal solutions to the user, i.e., solutions where for each of

¹Let us consider the case that this duration is the real working time, i.e., we do not consider weekends or working times of the companies in this scenario. In a practical implementation this has to be taken into account.

them no other solution exists which is better in each of the different objectives. The problem is that there can be exponentially many Pareto-optimal solutions for some problems and this is also the case for our problem, as the following example shows.

Example. Consider a task which consists of n work packages which are labeled with the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$. Further there are precedence constraints between the work packages i and $i + 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$. This means we have a chain of work packages. Now consider that there are two bids $b_{i,1}$ and $b_{i,2}$ for each work package i , where the duration for each bid $b_{i,1}$ is $d_{i,1} = 1$; for $b_{i,2}$ we have $d_{i,2} = 2$. For the cost we have exactly the opposite situation: $c_{i,1} = 2$ and $c_{i,2} = 1$. Now, there are 2^W solutions but all of these solutions are Pareto-optimal because for each solution there is no other solution with lower cost and shorter duration.

Approaches as the *weighted linear sum method* are obvious and intuitive ways to prevent the necessity to return all of these solutions. In a minimization context the returned solution is formally described by

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \omega_i \cdot f_i(\mathbf{x}) \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The constraints are not of interest in our case. Nevertheless, this method applied without additional concepts has a major drawback - it cannot discover solutions hidden in concave regions of the Pareto-front. Other approaches are the *Distance to a Reference Objective Method*, the *ϵ -Constraint Method* or the *Corley Method*, as e.g., described by Coello and Lamont (Coello and Lamont, 2004).

More intuitively to handle are methods which interact with the user. Here we choose the following approach: First only the fastest possible solution is computed and visualized for the user as described above, just by using the obvious topological sorting approach. Say this solution has the overall duration d . Now the user knows the cost of the most time efficient solution. If he is only interested in this solution, he will choose it and the task is done. If this is not the case, the user is asked to tell us how much (planned) time more he is willing to spend if the costs can be reduced (at this point it is unclear how much cost can be saved). Now, given additional duration d_{add} , the algorithm has to come up with a solution with cost as low as possible but planned duration at most $d + d_{\text{add}}$.

Interestingly, this is still a difficult problem. That it is indeed NP-hard can be seen from a specific example. Consider n work packages in a chain as described in the example above and also with two different bids

for each work package (the cost of the bids is arbitrary, but fixed). Now consider the solution with the shortest duration is found and d_{add} is given by the user as described. We assume without loss of generality that there are only non-dominating bids, i.e., bids with shorter duration have higher costs.

Now the following Knapsack problem can be defined: There are n (number of work packages) objects in the knapsack. The utility value of the object for work package i is equivalent to the absolute value of the cost difference of the two bids for i (where the more expensive bid should be assigned because we have currently the solution with shortest duration). The cost value for object i in the knapsack is the absolute value of the duration difference of the two bids for i . Now the problem is to find the set of objects with largest possible utility value where the cost threshold is d_{add} . Because the problem is just a special case of the original setup, this in turn must be NP-hard.

For more general task graphs the problem cannot be reduced to a knapsack problem but using standard optimization heuristics it is still possible to get near optimal solutions in most cases. Interesting specific tractable cases exist if the structure of the task graph is restricted to a tree. Then it is possible to either handle combinatorial settings of connected bids in polynomial time if only one objective has to be optimized (Lässig, 2009) or to optimize according to different objectives as time and cost including logistics if the time scale is restricted to fixed intervals as hours or days, which is a reasonable assumption in the given setting. To conclude, it is interesting to see that also very relaxed versions of the cooperation generation problem are still computationally hard to treat.

Comparing the three approaches, advantages and disadvantages can be identified for each of them and there is no definite "winner". For practical realization we ruled out the sequential approach but decided to realize a system which supports combinatorial and non-combinatorial setups.

4 IMPLEMENTATION

A solution which supports cooperation generation as described has been implemented as web-application. The implementation of the system is especially based on modern internet technologies as AJAX, remoting, and web services and can be completely controlled from the browser. Besides cooperation generation and control (monitoring facilities, communication) further functionalities have been integrated in the system, such as facilities for visualization, failure management, up to social networking on enterprise level.

Figure 5 gives an overview on the five layer system architecture.

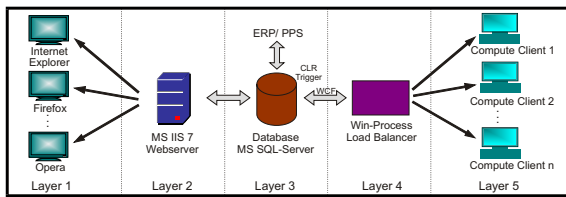


Figure 5: System-layout.

For the web-frontend the .NET framework and especially ASP.NET have been used. To realize computationally intensive tasks like the cooperation generation as described and the termination of the work packages, several compute clients are accessible by a load balancer, which itself communicates with the data base system. New computation tasks are started by CLR triggers. The planning and monitoring facilities especially visualize the planned tasks in the different companies directly in the web-interface, which is shown in the Figures 8 and 9. Further information about the system and its implementation can be found in (Lässig, 2009). In the following sections the application as described above is clarified by an exemplary cooperation task in a combinatorial auction scenario.

4.1 Example Workpiece

As example we consider the scenario that there is a gear box assembly to be produced, consisting of a shaft and a cogwheel, compare Figure 6.

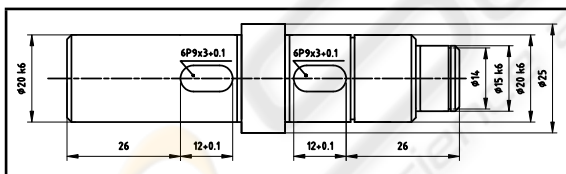


Figure 6: Engineering detail drawing of the shaft.

To manufacture the workpiece, several production methods have to be used. The process steps for the production of the shaft are divided into three work packages, which are not further specified here. The process steps for the production of the cogwheel are divided into four work packages. Afterwards the *assembly* of both components follows. This specifies the last work package –WP8– for the final assembly of the shaft and the cogwheel. The work packages with precedence constraints are shown in Figure 7.

Nine fictitious companies, which represent the acting parties in the system, are equipped with different skills and competence profiles and bid in our

example. In a heuristic preselection step, as described above, the system chooses companies which are able to realize at least one of the work packages. These companies receive a message from the system's internal messaging system and are requested to bid. In the considered scenario they bid on the work packages as shown in the second column of Table 1. The bidding situation is also visualized by the colored regions in Figure 7, where the different bids are indicated by the different colors.

Table 1: Bidding situation.

Enterprise	Bidding on work packages
ASU	WP1, WP2, WP3
FEMA	WP4, WP5, WP6, WP7
Sotec	WP8
PraeTec	WP1-WP8 (all packages)
RTC	WP1, WP2, WP3, WP8
Seifert	WP2, WP6
Interarms	WP6
ExeMa	WP1, WP3, WP4, WP5, WP7, WP8
GlobaMeta	WP2

Table 2: Expected solution scenarios.

Variant 1	ASU, FEMA and Sotec cooperate
Variant 2	Only PraeTec participates
Variant 3	FEMA and RTC in the cooperation
Variant 4	Only Interarms, ExeMa and GlobaMeta
Variant 5	Seifert and ExeMa participate

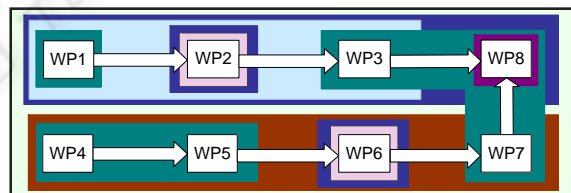


Figure 7: Task graph with bids.

4.2 Cooperation Solution

From the bidding situation as described by Table 1 one can easily obtain five different cooperation scenarios. The variants as indicated in Table 2 are as expected also found by the system. In Figure 8 these solutions are visualized and ranked by different annotated objective function values. We apologize that the screenshots are in German, but the system language is currently German.

Figure 8 visualizes also one of the solutions in detail, i.e., the solution including ExeMa and Seifert. The system provides also a detailed view of each solution including the Gantt charts as introduced in Figure 9 with the termination of the work packages for all available solutions.

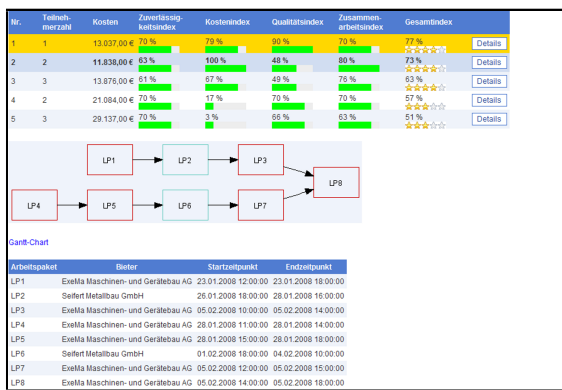


Figure 8: Detailed view of a solution.

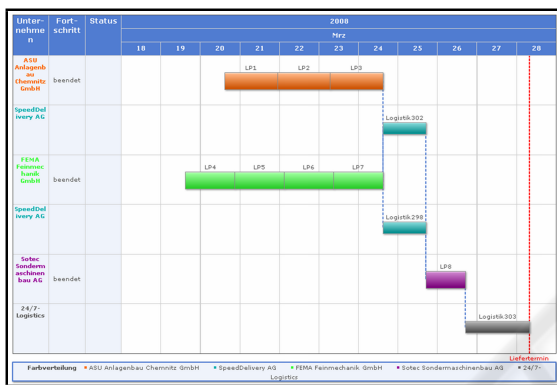


Figure 9: Gantt view of a solution.

5 COOPERATION PHASE

After the planning phase is finished, a task is processed by the different participants. In this realization phase other questions are important than the ones previously discussed, covering the management of this realization process, communication between collaborators, progress visualization, and if necessary replanning. Within the forthcoming section monitoring and failure management approaches are introduced.

5.1 Two-chart Approach

Introducing a monitoring setup with two GANTT charts –one with the originally planned scenario and one with the prognostic development based on the current information– has many advantages compared to other approaches:

- Each participant can immediately obtain sufficient information about the state and prognostic development of the cooperation, without additional workload caused by failure messages or message propagation to succeeding participants.

- Different prognostic measures, such as the *prognostic delay* of all work packages and the complete cooperation, can be obtained directly from a visualization, which includes all available information on one screen.
- *Reasons for different delays* can be clearly arranged and are accessible.
- It is possible to support *different reporting levels* of the participants (see below).

A disadvantage of this approach is that if the two GANTT charts become too different, the current planning situation has to be updated to be still useful. The party issuing the invitation to bid should decide if a replanning is necessary.

Replanning is just a special case of sequential planning. In general, all work packages are ordered topologically considering the precedences of the cooperation. Especially in the case of replanning, the cooperation is already in progress and a few work packages may be already finished. For replanning only unfinished work packages have to be considered. Further, all work packages which are not delayed in the prognostic GANTT chart are initially not considered. One starts replanning with the topologically first work packages, which are delayed. The participants, who process these work packages, are asked for a new prospective end time of these work packages and also of succeeding work packages which are executed by them as well within the same bid. Then the companies which process the in the topological order succeeding work packages are asked sequentially, until the last work packages in the topological sorting are reached.

An interesting question is how to provide some decision support if replanning is necessary in a certain situation or not. In any case this should be realized as an assistance system, i.e., the final replanning decision should be made by the party issuing the invitation to bid.

5.2 Necessary Information

To provide decision support, different input data is needed, e.g. the following items:

- Information about the currently planned *start and end times* of each work package,
- Information about the *current progress* $d(i)$ of each work package $i = 1, 2, \dots, W$ (automatic reporting) or information about the work package status (*planned, in execution, finished*) or at least information about the progress state of the work package (*in time, borderline, delayed*); (the level *borderline* is defined as a delay which is below x

percent of the duration, while the status *delayed* is interpreted as a delay of more than x percent),

- Available user-estimated delays $t_u(i)$ of the end time of work packages $i = 1, 2, \dots, W$ caused by failures in the own company as machine breakdown or lack of resources,
- The ratio between the remaining time of the cooperation and the overall time of the cooperation,
- The ratio between the delay of a company and the overall working time of the succeeding company,
- The *factor mobility* (*replaceable, moderate replaceable, difficult to replace, unreplaceable*) of succeeding production factors.

Independently from the replanning decision, a prognostic GANTT chart about the cooperation based on this data can of course be visualized as described. To integrate these information also in the current planning, different ways to implement a possible escalation strategy for replanning are possible, but this is not discussed in detail here. In the next section we describe disadvantages of the two-chart approach and motivate *continuous replanning*.

5.3 Disadvantages of the Approach

Besides strong advantages, the mentioned overall design of a monitoring and failure management system, based on two different GANTT charts with explicit replanning events, is quite involved and has also a few disadvantages, as there are:

The first and most obvious is that the monitoring screen visualizes two different scenarios which may be difficult to explain to potential users in practice. Further, a GANTT chart including information as prognostic end times is appealing, but the progress $d(w)$ from a company's internal systems is not in any case correct and reliable: If a machine produces items of a certain good one after another, this is reported by the MDE system of the machine and hence also to the ERP-system (in case this infrastructure is existent). In this case it is simple to get reliable measures about the progress. If e.g. 300 of 1000 items are already produced, the progress must be about 30 percent. For other operations as annealing this has to be calculated by another equation because all items are more or less produced in parallel. If all items are in the annealing process and 4 hours of 10 hours annealing are over, then the progress state is obviously about 40 percent, but no item has been finished yet. Other cases can be constructed easily. Applying manual reporting, this information is not that exact. Furthermore, it is unclear if the processing rate can be increased by company internal changes - e.g., by enabling another

machine to make up for lost time, so that the deadline can still be met. Hence, using this information directly to calculate a prognostic GANTT chart may not always be realistic and cause problems if a replanning decision is based on wrong information.

Another disadvantage is that there must be somebody to decide if replanning should be executed or not, which is additional workload. Apart from that, replanning itself is an additional workload for the participants of the cooperation. As last disadvantage we would like to mention the discontinuity of the overall production process caused by a division into periods between replanning events. These problems caused a rethinking on the monitoring and replanning scenario as described above. An elegant setup which includes many of the mentioned advantages but ruling out many of the mentioned disadvantages is *continuous replanning*, introduced in the following section.

5.4 Continuous Replanning

In the continuous replanning approach, only one GANTT chart is used. Progress information about work packages and prognostic end times are only reported to other users directly in this GANTT chart: If a work package is in state *borderline*, it is highlighted with an orange frame, if it is *delayed* with a red frame, otherwise with a green frame. The prognostic end time $t_e(w_i)^{\text{prog}}$ is only reported in a context menu.

Now we explain how periodic replanning as described can be eliminated. As mentioned, failures and delays can be reported. In the previous approach, this information had only informative character but has been visualized in the prognostic GANTT chart. Additionally, current failures and breakdowns are reported in a special table *current failures*, annotated with additional information, such as the *affected work package*, the *reason of the failure* and the *new expected end time*. It is not too difficult to integrate information about delays or other time changes in a prognostic GANTT chart. To integrate this information in a valid planning chart, further knowledge about the effect on the following work packages is demanded because in the prognostic chart the new times of succeeding work packages are just extrapolated, which is not reliable enough for actual planning.

The idea of *continuous replanning* is now to soften this strict concept: If a work package is delayed, the start time of the succeeding work package becomes immediately corrected, just by shifting it (possible logistics operations between a delayed work package and the next one are shifted as well).

Contrarily to the procedure in the prognostic chart, further propagation of the impact of this failure to fur-

ther participants is omitted in this first step but each affected participant directly succeeding the delayed work package receives a message with a request to check the own planned end time based on the new replanned start time². This procedure may result in an analog failure propagation, repeating the procedure until the GANTT chart is up-to-date. Information about delays can also be used to precisely calculate company specific *reliability indices* to characterize a company objectively, integrally motivating the participants to actually update their scheduling contemporary. To realize this in a valid way, it is necessary to count and measure actual faults by this company. This is possible by inventing *failure tags*, classifying failures in a scheme which is readable for the software system as, e.g., machine breakdown, delay(s) of predecessor(s) in the cooperation, or delay(s) at suppliers or subcontractor(s) for the own work packages.

This scheme can be augmented easily, which is not of importance here. Besides a fair calculation of reliability indices of the participants, this paves also the way for a few other functionalities. If somebody states *delay(s) of predecessor(s)* as reason for the delay, this is only plausible if there is a delay of predecessors, which can be checked automatically by using the same feature for the predecessors. Furthermore, if the predecessor(s) retract their delays (which may be possible), the participant can be inquired if the original schedule can be recovered. This is the currently implemented way to handle distributed replanning.

6 CONCLUSIONS & PROSPECTS

The paper introduced different approaches to cooperation generation, discussing their strengths and weaknesses. Further, we introduced an intelligent support system to manage enterprise cooperations which has been implemented as web-application. Finally, replanning strategies have been discussed. Note, that we had to leave out many details in our description of the system and the algorithms here.

Currently, the methods are evaluated under practical conditions in a beta-test phase with selected companies. From a research point of view we proclaim substantial progress towards a practically applicable solution of the problem of cooperation generation but as described above, there are still issues and disadvantages no matter which of the presented approaches one chooses for realization. This means there remains still a lot of work for the future: There are

²The start time itself cannot be influenced by him, because if preceding participants are delayed, this can be seen as a fixed constraint.

e.g. open problems dealing with *work package splitting* or a subsequent *negotiation of bid prices*.

Further possible extensions of the introduced strategies are, e.g., the *integration of procurement* for purchased parts, better *support of rush orders*, and addressing functionalities for a ERP/PPS integration.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank the German Academic Exchange Service for funding their research.

REFERENCES

- Coello, C. A. C. and Lamont, G. B. (2004). *Applications of Multi-Objective Evolutionary Algorithms*. World Scientific Publishing Company, Singapore. ISBN: 9-812-56106-4.
- Corman, T., Leiserson, C., and Rivest, R. (2001). *Introduction to Algorithms*. MIT Press, Cambridge London, 2nd edition. ISBN: 0-262-03141-8.
- Lässig, J. (2007). On a Resource and Time Assignment Problem in an Online Auction Scenario. In *Proceedings of the 3rd Indian International Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, pages 743–762, Pune, India.
- Lässig, J. (2009). *Algorithms and Models for the Generation and Control of Competence Networks*. Dissertation, Chemnitz University of Technology.
- Lässig, J., Heinrich, S., and Dürr, H. (2007). Generation of SME Production and Logistics Networks with Extremal Optimization and Fitness Threshold Accepting. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Pattern Recognition*, pages 313–319, Orlando, USA.
- Martinez, M. T., Fouletier, P., Park, K. H., and Favrel, J. (2001). Virtual Enterprise - Organisation, Evolution and Control. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 74:225–238.
- Miles, R. E. and Snow, C. C. (1984). Fit, Failure and the Hall of Fame. *California Management Review*, 3:10–28.
- Pratta, M. J., Anderson, B. D., and Rangerc, T. (2005). Towards the standardized exchange of parameterized feature-based CAD models. *Computer-Aided Design*, 37(12):1251–1265.
- Sandholm, T. (2002). Algorithm for Optimal Winner Determination in Combinatorial Auctions. *Artificial Intelligence*, 135:1–54.
- Shaw, M. J. and Fulkerson, W. F. (2001). *Introduction to the Technology Strategy and Industrial Applications of Information-Based Manufacturing*. Springer, Berlin Heidelberg New York. ISSN: 0920-6299.
- Teich, T. (2002). *Extended Value Chain Management - ein Konzept zur Koordination von Wertschöpfungsnetzen*. Habilitation, Chemnitz University of Technology, Germany.