

# COLOURED PETRI NETS TO MODEL GEOGRAPHICAL INTERLOCKING FOR RAILWAY

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Abstract: Petri nets have been widely applied in different aspects of railway modelling and analysis. This paper presents an insight into how coloured Petri nets can be used to model geographical interlocking. We start with a generalisation of coloured Petri nets and follow with an overview of interlocking. In the main body we present a generic unit model and demonstrate how it can be used to represent a simple junction, comprising of three fundamental components; namely track, signal and point units.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Ensuring the correct operation of control systems is a complex task of vital importance, especially when such systems control and monitor life-critical operations. Owing to this fact, mathematical models are increasingly being used to validate the design of new safety critical systems, such as railway interlockings (Hansen, 1998). Railway interlockings are systems, which exist to prevent accidents in the form of collisions and derailments, whilst at the same time allowing maximum train movements.

This paper aims to demonstrate that using coloured Petri Nets (CP-nets or CPNs) (Jensen, 1992, 1994a and 1997) offers a sound basis for modelling geographical interlocking. CP-nets have been applied in a wide range of application areas, and many projects have been carried out in industry (Jensen, 1997). Their ability to handle concurrency makes them an ideal tool to model geographical interlocking; i.e. an application where you have a distributed control system made up of blocks known as geographical units.

Petri nets (PTNs, Place Transition Nets) can be represented as a bipartite graph composed of nodes, which are places, transitions and arcs (Peterson, 1981). Places are represented by circles or ovals and transitions by bars or rectangles. Places are connected to transitions via arcs; arcs therefore indicate the relationship between a place and a

transition. No two places or two transitions can be linked directly. Places can be marked with one or more tokens, which are drawn as dots. Tokens can move between places as a result of an enabled transition firing. A transition is enabled (i.e. ready to fire) if all input places contain one or more tokens. The firing of a transition will result in a token being removed from each input place and a token being deposited to each output place.

Petri nets have been extended in many ways such as hierarchy, time and colour. The concept of CP-nets is similar to that of ordinary PTNs; however, CP-nets differ in that each token is equipped with an attached data type known as a token colour (Jensen, 1992). Also, with CP-nets it is possible to make hierarchical descriptions (i.e. a large model can be obtained by combining a set of submodels) (Janneck, and Esser, 2002). CP-nets provide a framework for the construction and analysis of models of distributed concurrent systems, such as geographical interlockings.

This paper presents a generic unit model based on CP-net notation and demonstrates how it can be applied to a simple layout. Three components are considered and used in the model; namely track, signal and point units. Finally, a model of an interlocking system is presented and discussed to demonstrate the merits of Petri nets.

## 2 INTERLOCKING SYSTEMS

As we mentioned earlier, the task of an interlocking is primarily to prevent trains from colliding and derailling, while at the same time allowing maximum train movements. An interlocking receives requests from the signaller (the person orchestrating train movements along the network) and with the known state of the trackside equipment (tracks states, aspects states, etc) decides what operations can safely be carried out by controlling signals and points. The relationship between the signaller, the interlocking and the trackside equipment is shown in Figure 1.

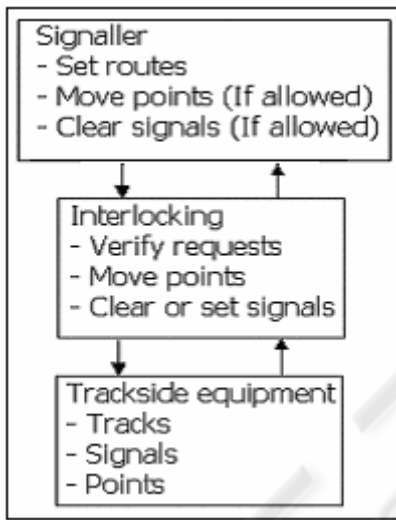


Figure 1: Interlocking relationship diagram

Railway interlockings started off as purely mechanical systems (Hall, 1992). A mechanical system of “interlocking” leavers and locks was directly connected to the signaller’s control panel and would physically ensure that he could only operate certain functions when it was safe to do so. Mechanical interlocking has the advantage of being robust, however they have proven to be difficult to maintain and to alter. This led to the development of electromechanical interlocking (Relay based Interlocking).

Relay based interlocking is used extensively in UK (Hall, 1992). A relay interlocking consists of a large number of fail-safe relays, and interlocking is achieved through electrical circuits. An example of electrical interlocking is shown in Figure 2. The main advantage of relay interlocking is that the technology is proven and dependable. However, the

main disadvantage is that they are very expensive to build and maintain.

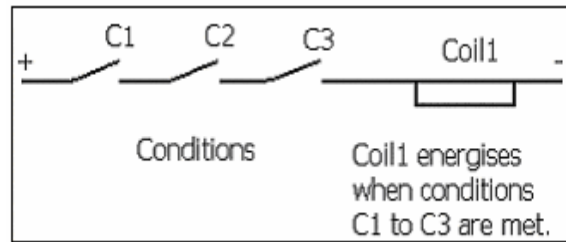


Figure 2: Electrical interlocking.

As modern technology became available, designers were motivated to develop alternate methods based on computer technology. Solid-state devices such as the transistor are considered to be more reliable than a relay (due to the lack of moving parts and contact wear) and can be mass-produced cheaply. However, a transistor cannot be constructed to be fail-safe in the same way as a relay. If a transistor is to be used in a fail-safe system, some additional safeguards must be provided. Majority voting is one method used to overcome this problem (Newing and Castles, 1988). It is considered that a single transistor may not fail in a safe state; it is highly unlikely that two would do so both at the same time. The decisions made by two or three transistor circuits could be compared and if they agree then the joint decision can be considered to be “fail-safe”. The most popular form of computer based interlocking is Solid State interlocking (SSI) (Newing and Castles, 1988).

SSI is a multi computer based system developed by British Rail in conjunction with Westinghouse and GEC. SSI incorporates three independent computers, each of which uses a large number of transistor based circuits to decide what operations trackside equipment can safely carry out (Newing and Castles, 1988). Each interlocking computer continuously monitors its own decisions, and those of the other two. If a computer detects that it disagrees with the other two, the computer shuts down by blowing a security fuse. If the faulty computer does not shut down, the other two act together and shut it down themselves. This majority voting helps to ensure that the system is reliable in operation. Figure 3 depicts a simplified block diagram of SSI; the three multiprocessor modules (MPMs) are shown undergoing majority voting to obtain a failsafe output.

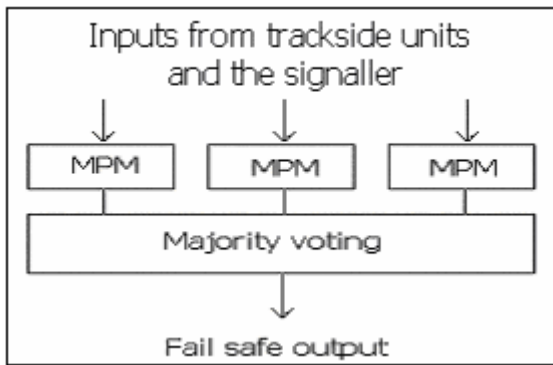


Figure 3: Simplified block diagram of SSI

Many relay based interlockings are of “free-wired” design. This means that every circuit is individually designed, installed and tested for the particular application where it is to be used. This process is very labour intensive and thus expensive. Geographical interlocking systems however, are made up of pre-designed and tested units that represent each of the different pieces of signalling equipment used to ensure the safe passage of trains. All the interlocking functions required are built into each geographical unit. They are connected together via plug couplers to mimic the geographical layout of the railway. Each unit has at least two and a maximum of four connections. The connectors are generally labelled Red, Blue, Yellow and Green (Cox, 2003; WESTPACK, 1965). These connectors allow electrical signals (or messages) to be passed between units in order to set routes, move points and clear signals. An example layout along with its equivalent geographical representation is given in figures four and five respectively.

The main advantage of geographical interlocking is the ease of design and manufacture due to the use of standard pre-defined units. Also if a unit fails then the rest of the system can continue operating while the failed unit is removed and a new unit of an identical type is inserted.

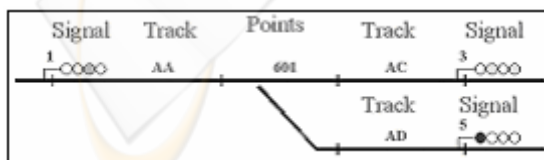


Figure 4: Simple junction

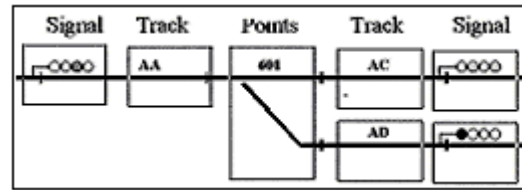


Figure 5: Geographical representation

### 3 MODELLING APPROACH

Mathematically, a CP-net can be described as a many tuple (Jensen, 1994b).

CPN = ( $\Sigma$ , **P**, **T**, **A**, **N**, **C**, **G**, **E**, **I**) where:

- (I)  $\Sigma$  is a finite set of non-empty types, called colour sets.
- (II) **P** is a finite set of places.
- (III) **T** is a finite set of transitions.
- (IV) **A** is a finite set of arcs such that
  - $P \cap T = P \cap A = T \cap A = \emptyset$
- (V) **N** is a node function. **I** is defined from **A** into  $P \times T \cup T \times P$ .
- (VI) **C** is a colour function. It is defined from **P** into  $\Sigma$ .
- (VII) **G** is a guard function. It is defined from **T** into expressions such that:
  - $\forall t \in T: [Type(G(t)) = Bool \wedge Type(Var(G(t))) \subseteq \Sigma]$ .
- (VIII) **E** is an arc expression function. It is defined from **A** into expressions such that:
  - $\forall a \in A: [Type(E(a)) = C(p(a))MS \wedge Type(Var(E(a))) \subseteq \Sigma]$  where  $p(a)$  is the place of  $N(a)$ .
- (IX) **I** is an initialisation function. It is defined from **P** into closed expressions such that:
  - \*  $\forall p \in P: [Type(I(p)) = C(p)MS]$

We mentioned earlier that geographical units communicate using messages sent via couplers. It is therefore essential that any model based on such a scheme is message driven. From careful study of (WESTPACK, 1965), we have derived a list of typical geographical messages. These are shown in table.1.

**Table.1** Typical geographical messages

01	Call Route Request.
02	Call Route Reply.
03	Call Points Request.
04	Call Points Reply.
05	Lock Route Request.
06	Lock Route Reply.
07	Clear Signal Request.
08	Clear Signal Reply.
09	Release Route Request.
10	Track Status Request.
11	Track Status Reply.

We can define these messages in mathematical notation as follows:

$$M = \{01,02,03,04,05,06,07,08,09,10,11\};$$

$$MES = \{(R, B, Y)|R, B, Y \in M\};$$

And in CP-net notation:

Color MES = with  
R01|B01|Y01|G01|R02|B02|Y02|G02| R03|  
B03|Y03|G03|R04|B04|Y04|G04|R05|B05|Y05|G05|  
R06|B06|Y06|G06|  
R07|B07|Y07|G07|R08|B08|Y08|G08|  
R09|B09|Y09|G09|  
R10|B10|Y10|G10|R11|B11|Y11|G11;

Each geographical unit consists of three common elements; these are couplers, system states and system actions. In our model, couplers and system states are both modelled by CP-net places, and actions are modelled by transition networks. Each model has a minimum of two and a maximum of four couplers. Geographical messages (see Table.1) are received on either the red, blue, yellow or green coupler; indicated by the presence of a token. The reaction to the message depends on the type of message received, the direction it is received in, and the current state of the system. Having this information now allows us to form a generic model of what a unit should look like. This is shown in Figure 6. Here we can see that the model has all the necessary components, however, to apply the model, we need to customise it for each unit by configuring the transition networks according to some interlocking specification. This is no trivial task and is out of the scope of this paper.

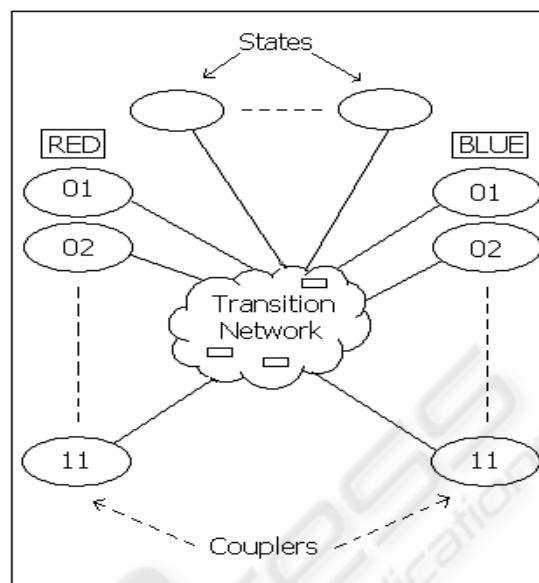


Figure 6: Generic unit model

Places and tokens of the generic model are of data type MES (which was defined earlier). The system states vary from unit to unit (Cox, 2003); the following is a brief overview of the track, signal and point unit states.

### 3.1 Track unit

These are used to represent all plain line track circuits. A track circuit is a section of track that forms an electrical circuit capable of detecting the absence of trains [8]. The states that require modelling are.

- (I) Route locking. This can be either locked or free. This flag indicates whether or not a route has been established across the unit. If a route is requested and one is already established then the unit replies with a request-failed message.
- (II) Track state. This can be either clear or occupied. This flag indicates whether or not there is a train currently occupying the track. If there is a train on the track when a message is received then the unit replies with a request-failed message.

### 3.2 Signal unit

These are used to represent all signal types. They monitor the current state of the signal and control what aspect is currently being displayed. Signal

units also initiate all route setting between other signals. The states that require modelling are:

- (I) Signal state. This is the current state of the signal (red or not red, i.e. green or yellow). This flag indicates what aspect the signal unit is currently displaying.

### 3.3 Point

These are used to represent a single end of points. They monitor a single-track circuit and they also control the movement of the point end. They may be connected to up to three other units via red, blue and yellow plug couplers. The states that require modelling are:

- (I) Route locking. (See track unit description).
- (II) Track state. (See track unit description).
- (III) Points normal. This can be either true or false. If true then this indicates that the points are currently in the normal (default) position.
- (IV) Points reverse. This can also be true or false. If true then this indicates that the points are currently in the reverse position.

### 3.4 Modelling a junction

We shall now consider the layout shown in Fig.4. Here we have a simple junction with only signals, tracks and one set of points. Earlier we mentioned that this layout could be represented in terms of geographical units; this is depicted Fig.5. From Fig.5 we can see that the junction is composed of seven units. We therefore need seven customised unit models to form this junction. Fig.7 shows the simple junction and its CP-net model representation.

## 4 ROUTE CALLING EXAMPLE

For simplicity purposes, the junction will be considered unidirectional and routes are set between signals. A route can be set along the normal or reverse path, i.e. from G1 to G2 or G1 to G3 respectively. The following is an example of route calling from G1 to G3.

G1 issues a call route message to T1 with an attached exit signal address. T1 examines its internal

states and if its track is occupied or a route is already set then it sends a message back to G1 with a failed tag attached. However, if T1's track is clear and no route is set then the same message is passed to the points unit W1. W1 examines its internal states and if it is in the normal position, it sends the message on to T2. However, if it is in the reverse position, it sends the message on to T3. T2 or T3 therefore receive the message and examine their internal states to see whether or not the message can be passed on. It is worth noting at this point that if the track is occupied or a route is set, then the message is passed back to W1 with a failed tag attached. This failed message will then be passed backwards until it reaches the signal unit where it results in a request-failed indication being issued to the signaller's panel. Assuming T2 received the message and its track and route flags are clear, it then passes it on to signal unit G2. G2 then checks the exit signal address and compares it to its own. Discovering that it does not match, it then passes the message back to T2 with a failed tag attached. T2 passes the message to W1. W1 then checks its internal state and if it is in the normal position, it sends the message via the yellow plug coupler to T3. T3 checks its states and if they are clear, it passes the message to signal unit G3. G3 checks the exit signal address and discovers that it matches its own address, it then passes the message back along the units to G1 with a request granted tag. The other messages would travel along the network in a similar manner.

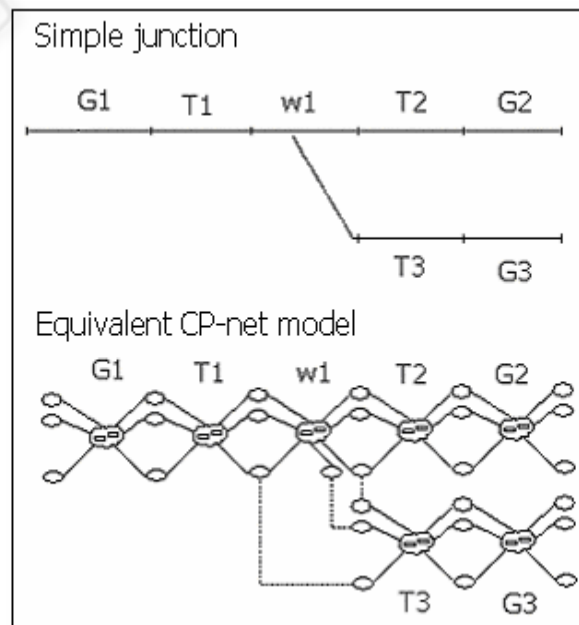


Figure 7: Junction model

## 5 CONCLUSION

This paper has presented an investigation into the use of coloured Petri nets, which offers a basis for the construction geographical interlocking unit models. A layout of a junction was developed and demonstrated the underlying concept of a generic unit model. An example of message passing has been provided which illustrated the working principle of the developed model. This paper has laid the foundations for further research into the application CP-nets to modelling real-time interlockings.

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