

**Inventive Approaches to Competitive Systems Engineering
Is There Anything New Under the Sun?**

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1 Editorial:

3 Inventive Approaches to Competitive Systems 4 Engineering

6 Is There Anything New Under the Sun?

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9 *Netherlands*

10 **Abstract** None.

11 **Keywords:** Systems engineering, Inventive approaches, Phenomenon of invention, Types of inventions, Intuitive
12 invention, Systematic invention, Automated invention

13 1. Introduction

14 Invention is a complicated process which blends informing, envisioning, imagination, discovery,
15 serendipity, luck, inception, conceptualization, detailing, analysis, implementation, and experimentation.
16 Beyond rhetorical invention (that is generation, selection, and evaluation of verbal arguments) [1], the
17 subject of disciplinary heuristics can be an artefact, a process, a method, an organization, and so forth –
18 practically anything that has been not in existence previously. Thus, the subject of invention usually
19 reflects ingenuity, originality, newness, and creativity [2]. Invention is a unique form of convergence of
20 these and many additional factors such as scientific and market knowledge [3]. The act of inventing also
21 has a lot to do with design, especially with its early conceptualization part, not only procedurally, but also
22 cognitively [4]. As Jiang, P. et al. interpreted it, the novelty and inventive steps of patented mechanical
23 designs increasingly rely on their growing complexity, interacting geometric features, and how they
24 contribute to device functions. These features and interactions are normally incorporated in patents [5].
25 The subjects of personal and industrial inventions can be (i) non-natural processes, (ii) artefacts and
26 machines, (iii) methods of manufacture, (iv) material compositions, (v) synthetic living plans, and (vi)
27 unique design ideas [6].

28 The sense of invention is often confused with the sense of innovation. Though the words innovation
29 and invention semantically overlap, they are quite distinct concepts in practice and should not be used
30 interchangeably [7]. Inventiveness is the quality and ability of having or figuring out new and original
31 ideas and approaches, while design is bringing feasible ideas to the gate of a practical realization or
32 production. Inventive researchers and engineers are good at using their imagination and making

33 prospective decisions [8]. Inventions are converted into incremental or breakthrough innovations, but not
34 vice versa. I read somewhere that the first telephone was an invention, the first cellular telephone was
35 either an invention or an innovation, and the first smartphone was an innovation. In their seminal work,
36 Myers, S. and Marquis, D.G. stated that “innovations are the units of technological change” [9]. That is,
37 invention is about bringing in something new that has not existed in that form, while innovation
38 introduces a change into an existing reality towards enhancement. As defined by Sternberg et al.,
39 innovation is “the channelling of creativity so as to produce a creative idea and/or product that people can
40 and wish to use.” [10].

41 The above introductory thoughts were deemed to be necessary and important to describe the very
42 focus, interest, and context of this special issue. In the knowledge economy innovation is mandatory [11],
43 but what is with inventions? More specifically, how inventiveness can be achieved in such a conventional
44 domain as general systems engineering? Can we see milestones of invention such as a steam engine, a
45 transformer, a transistor, a television, a computer, and the like? Are there mentally fabricated original
46 engineering marvels in our rapidly changing modern age? Or, are there only derivable inventions and
47 incremental innovations that are driven by the need for continuous improvement? Are the published
48 inventions and patent proposals based on the results of the ongoing ground-breaking scientific inquiry and
49 learning, or do they involve only small steps and low risk of adaptation? Is there anything new under the
50 sun of engineering approaches?

51 This last question is not a poetic one. On a request, I tried to make an inventory and compile a
52 position paper on inventive, non-traditional system engineering theories, methodologies, methods, tools,
53 and processes. In the knowledge aggregation phase, a search with the term “systems engineering” resulted
54 in approximately 20.000.000 results on Google and some 406.000 hits on Google Scholar. Another search
55 with the term “competitive engineering” resulted in more than 255.000 hits on Google and 4.120 hits on
56 Google Scholar, respectively. I could conclude that the current grand-challenges for competitive
57 engineering were such as sustainable mobility, healthcare and well-being, renewable energy generation,
58 networked industry, digital society, smart built environments, digital food production. It also became
59 evidential that, there are many key technologies in our days that can support inventive approaches in
60 system engineering such as smart embedded systems, cyber-physical-social systems, industrial internet of
61 things, DEFCH (dew/edge/fog/cloud/high-performance) computing, embodied artificial intelligence,
62 massive data processing, system of systems integration platforms, self-supervised software technologies,
63 and bits/atoms/neurons/genes fusion (bang) technologies. Conversely, to my largest surprise, the search
64 phrase “inventive engineering approaches” provided only 4 (!) hits on Google and 1 relevant hit on
65 Google Scholar.

66 This special issue was designed to cast light on some inventive approaches to competitive systems
67 engineering. The motivation came from the outcome of the abovementioned effort to get deeper insights
68 in resources of non-traditional system engineering as well as in the interest of the journal concerning the
69 phenomenon and manifestation of convergence in the creative and inventive practices. The literature
70 evidenced that an enormous number of phenomena were investigated and massive development efforts
71 were invested in competitive systems engineering in the past. However, the relative lack of publications
72 on novel inventive and creative approaches have indeed raised the impression that only the past efforts are
73 revisited in different contexts nowadays, based on different technologies, tools, and methods, and with the
74 goal of incremental innovation. But, is it really true that known things are coming back in novel forms
75 and contexts in system engineering approaches? Obviously, the eight papers included in this special issue
76 cannot provide a complete coverage of the research domain of inventive engineering approaches.
77 Notwithstanding, they cast light on the wide variety of purposes for which inventive approaches have
78 been dreamt up as well as on the variety of contexts in which they could be utilized. Most of the papers
79 were presented in the open-access Proceedings of the Thirteenth International Conference on Tools and
80 Methods of Competitive Engineering (TMCE 2020) Symposium. The papers released for a public debate
81 in this special issue have been revised according to the COPE guidelines and with the intention to expose
82 the ability and way of thinking of new ideas and methods.

83 2. What does invention actually mean and imply?

84 The quest for inventiveness can be better understood if the essence and manifestation of invention is
85 grasped. The following discussion is intended to support this. In general, invention is depicted as
86 dominantly mental of activity which also outreaches to the physical realm [12]. In practice, invention is a
87 down-to-earth activity enabled by imagination, creativity, and knowledge, as fundamentals [13].
88 Typically, it is a creative problem-solving activity, which is characterised by an innate indeterminism
89 with regards to its procedures and its outcomes. Various psychological factors, like absorptive capacity
90 [14] and morphological associations [15], have a strong influence on the conduct of innovative
91 procedures. The categorization proposed by Kivenson, G. identified: (i) single or multiple concept
92 combinations, (ii) concepts and devices for labour saving, (iii) direct solutions to a problem, (iv)
93 adaptation of an old principle to solve an old problem, (v) application of a new principle to solve an old
94 problem, (vi) application of a new principle to a new problem, and (vii) application of an accidental
95 discovery as the most frequent types of inventions [16]. As a capacity, the inventive potential is
96 influenced by (i) the competencies, gender, age, and education of the individuals specialised in a given
97 activity, (ii) the organization of the work (free-lancer, team, crowd, and network), and (iii) attitudinal
98 characteristics of the employers. As a performance, the inventive potential is also influenced by many
99 other factors such as scientific knowledge, intellectual capacities, creative mind-set, professional insights,
100 assumed benefits, social commitment, positive/negative experiences, market interest, etc.

101 Uncountable examples of inventions are known from the human socio-technical history. Inventions
102 and inventors have been playing an influential role in the cycles of changes that the techno-scientific
103 world has gone through along a timeline of evolution and growth [17]. The industrial revolutions could
104 have not happened without a continuing accumulation of substantial, artefactual, technological, and
105 procedural inventions. While inventions were associated with the work of outstanding scientists and
106 engineers in the past, most inventions are nowadays created by researchers and developers working for
107 large international corporations. Inventors can be (i) private inventors (competitive individuals), (ii)
108 academic inventors (researchers and engineers), and (iii) industrial inventors (professionals and managers)
109 [18]. As Robinson, W.K. posited, small businesses, solo inventors, women, and minorities lag behind
110 their counterparts in patenting [19]. According to their technological and social scales and impacts, (i)
111 micro-level, (ii) mezo-level, (iii) macro-level, and (iv) mega-level inventions have been identified.

112 As key characteristics of invention processes, the importance of (i) pre-existing information and
113 knowledge, (ii) accumulation of life experiences and know-how, (iii) triggering the emergence of
114 inventive ideas, and (iv) application of immediate rational-empirical scrutiny is mentioned. Current
115 understanding is that invention has neither theoretically robustly underpinned methodologies, nor
116 systematized procedural models due to its heuristic, intuitive, probabilistic, and emergent nature [20].
117 Even TRIZ does not have a scientifically derived and verified background theory, though it proposes a
118 conceptual framework and a set of interrelated methods. It includes pragmatically chosen methodical
119 elements such as the exactly 40 principles of inventive problem solving and the use of contradiction
120 matrix. The compositional searches and creative associations are supported by, for instance, (i) problem
121 modelling methods [21], (ii) analogical reasoning methods [22], (iii) formal ontologies [23], and (iv)
122 meta-knowledge [24]. Arciszewski, T. provided a concise, but comprehensive overview of the role of
123 morphological analysis in methodological achievement of inventive engineering [25]. The bottom line is
124 that successful invention requires individual creativity to happen, in which imagination and reasoning
125 play equal role.

126 Inventions are not for a direct satisfaction of technical and social demands and requirements. In the
127 current time, inventions are in a closed loop with patenting. On the one hand, patents are the first,
128 technically non-disclosing publications of invention. On the other hand, the information available from
129 patent documents and the surveys of inventions trigger the thinking about new solutions and approaches.
130 As Huber, J.C. argued, patents are commonly recognised as creative output and protected intellectual
131 properties [26]. A large part of industrial and industrial inventors are patent originators, whose patenting
132 activity depends on individual characteristics, knowledge flows, decisions in/about the R&D process, and

133 business relations [27]. Evidentially, the joint use of knowledge sources from science-related channels
134 (university and research centres) and from market-related actors (suppliers, customers, and competitors)
135 positively influences both the quantity and the quality of patents produced by inventors [28].

136 **3. Recent approaches to enabling of inventions**

137 The literature of invention engineering methodologically differentiates (i) intuitive, (ii) systematic, and
138 (iii) automated approaches. Intuitive invention approaches build on creative human abilities, heuristics,
139 and activities. Researchers working in this field explain invention as the dialectic interaction of
140 cognitive/creative capabilities (including individual problem-solving skills and human social learning
141 abilities) and objective circumstances (scientific knowledge, technological affordances, organizational
142 inertia, and business situations). Inventors may work according to their own individual processes or the
143 institutional processes of their employers, but their ideas do not fall down from the sky. Ideas build on
144 ideas and can be triggered! The former implies that inventions usually involve some level of replication,
145 transformation, and recombination. Typical cognitive mechanism of ideation and invention is associative
146 thinking. To facilitate idea generation, various cognitive techniques such as brainstorming, 635, random
147 associations, SCAMPER, and synectics have been proposed [29]. Fleming, L. and Sorenson, O. argued
148 that, in the history of technology, inventions have been described by a popular view as a process of
149 recombination of technological components, where the latter refers to any fundamental bits of knowledge
150 that may be used to develop inventions [30].

151 Trew, R., & Calder, J. reminded us to the saying of Alexander Graham Bell: “Great discoveries and
152 improvements invariably involve the cooperation of many minds. I may be given credit for having blazed
153 the trail, but when I look at the subsequent developments I feel the credit is due to others rather than to
154 myself” [31]. They posited sharing and collaboration as two important elements of the basis of modern
155 (industrial) inventions. Recently, education for invention and for inventive engineering design has
156 received strong attention [32]. Both the issue of organizing learning processes towards creativity [33] and
157 the issue of development of creative problem solving thinking were addressed [34]. From the perspective
158 of industrial innovation, Cohen, W.M. and Levinthal, D.A. discussed the concept of absorptive capacity
159 as the potential of a firm to recognize, assimilate, and exploit external knowledge to facilitate inventions
160 and patents [14].

161 Research is still in debt with clarification of what triggers (i) the inception or invasion of new ideas
162 rooted in reality, (ii) invention in terms of the unconscious and undifferentiated “noise”, (iii) guiding
163 pragmatic random idea combination, and (iv) elaboration of invention frameworks for approaches such as
164 parametric, epistemic, dialectic, and para-logical invention. The idea of computer aided invention (CAI)
165 emerged in the 1990s with the aim to use computers as supporting devices for creative intellectual
166 processes. [35] On the other hand, scientists evidenced that certain human cognitive and behavioural
167 characteristics are non-computational in nature and placed computation and cognition into juxtaposition
168 [36]. Their major argument is that the extensional and intensional equivalence of computation and
169 cognition is not given. It means that significant limitations are to be encountered in terms of what can be
170 accomplished with respect to simulating or replicating creative human abilities by digital machinery-
171 based computation, and to reproducing the near unlimited degrees of freedom of human discovery and
172 inventiveness [37].

173 Systematic invention approaches question and challenge the emphatic heroic theory (inventive genius)
174 of invention [38]. They suggest that (i) inventiveness is a matter of scientific preparation, technological
175 development, and (societal culture, and (ii) inventions can be stimulated and enhanced by systematic and
176 collaborative approaches. Boufeloussen, O. and Cavallucci, D. emphasized that systematic invention
177 means bringing together engineering problems and basic science knowledge [39]. Systematic invention
178 approaches focus on structured processes, creative methods, and other resources of invention, and on the
179 development of computational tools and methods. Arthur, W.B. argued that the process of invention has a
180 certain logical structure common to all cases and that the process may be initiated by a need and/or a
181 phenomenon and runs from principle exploration to working technology [40].

182 Typical examples of systemic approaches to invention are the morphological combination approach
183 (MCA) [41], the TRIZ [42] [43], and the IDM [44]. They rely on different principles and practices. The
184 creative principle of MCA is systematic - possibly multi-dimensional - composition. The fundamentals of
185 TRIZ (TIPS) are (i) a large number of inventive principles, (ii) aggregation of genuine ideas and novel
186 patterns of technological enablers, and (iii) systematic (algorithmic) resolution of contradictions among
187 these [45]. The inventive design methodology (IDM) includes a dynamic set of structured procedures
188 aiming at ideation of a technical product or system design, starting with (i) initial situation analysis and (ii)
189 formulating poly-contradictions, and terminates with (iii) generation of solutions concepts and (iv)
190 selection of break-through solutions [46]. An accompanying goal of development of inventive design
191 theories and formalized methodologies is proposing software tools for deployment. In the last two
192 decades, ontology-based approaches were frequently proposed to enable systematized creativity [47].

193 Supported by the new spring of artificial intelligence research, the complex problematics of automated
194 invention (re-)emerged in the last two decades [48]. The fact of the matter is that integration of
195 disciplinary knowledge, convergence of technologies, and deeply-rooted synthesis methods together make
196 it possible to think of non-human forms of invention that cut across disciplinary boundaries and provide
197 transdisciplinary solutions [49]. An early forerunning example is unsupervised deep learning. Still in an
198 embryonic stage, AI-powered invention systems would either execute a systematic exploration of the
199 search (or composition) spaces or apply randomized composition of massive principles and concepts, and
200 would select the most promising feasible solutions based on their fit for purpose. These systems are
201 assumed to be characterized by (i) free-choice goal setting, (ii) productive creativity, (iii) rational
202 cognitive ability, (iv) autonomous operation, (v) evolving performance, (vi) communicative learning, (vii)
203 massive efficiency, and (viii) unpredictable results.

204 The paradigm of automated artificial creativity/invention is surrounded by intense philosophical
205 speculations, doctrinal debates, and economic foundations, as discussed by Dornis, T.W. [50]. According
206 to many researchers, matured automated invention may create solutions that go beyond human
207 imaginations. Walch, K. argued that this creative intelligence comes from: (i) the ability to generalize
208 knowledge from one domain to another by taking knowledge from one area and applying it elsewhere, (ii)
209 the ability to make plans for the future based on knowledge and experiences, and (iii) the ability to adapt
210 to the environment as changes occur [51]. At the same time, there are many researchers who take a
211 position on the other side and express their reservations. They argue about the lack of theories or fully-
212 fledged computational approaches for handling phenomena such as emergence and understanding [52]. In
213 the current practice, typical requirements for patentability of inventions are (i) having human originator,
214 (ii) uniqueness over a period of time, and (iii) presumable commercial/social usefulness. In view to
215 patenting, AI-based invention is not only a technological and cognitive challenge, but also a legal and
216 social influencer [54]. In fact, the relationship of automated inventions and juridical patenting has grown
217 into a hot and urgent issue. The current law is devoid of doctrines, regulations, rules, and ethics for
218 artificial creativity. The main argument to deal with this issue is that AI systems become able to produce
219 output independently and without direct human influence as their capabilities and autonomy are
220 increasing exponentially. Knutson, K.R. stated that AI cannot satisfy the conception requirement of patent
221 inventorship [53]. He also elaborated on some possible consequences of excluding AI from patent
222 registration. Frueh, A. came to the conclusion that “the current use of the term inventorship is not future-
223 proof and calls for policy adjustments” and that “*droit moral* considerations should be eliminated from
224 substantive patent law altogether” [55]. Should AI systems be capable of independently developing
225 inventions, which are comparable with those historically created by humans, these should be patentable,
226 for instance by the owner of the system. Yanisky-Ravid, S. and Liu, X. argued that “traditional patent law
227 has become outdated, inapplicable, and irrelevant with respect to inventions created by AI systems” and
228 urged to address the “issue of patentability of inventions created by AI systems”.

229 As the above overview suggests, not only the propagation, but also the ministering and facilitation of
230 invention are current hot topics. Nevertheless, the most fundamental issue remains the scientific
231 understanding of the nature of creativity [56] in the context of systemic innovation [57].

232 4. Introducing the contributed works

233 The above overview has also shed light on the fact that researchers studying innovation typically focus
234 on four generic phenomena: (i) understanding the fundamentals and manifestation forms of human
235 creativity and inventiveness, (ii) application of scientific knowledge and cognitive human capabilities to
236 develop innovative ideas and solutions, (iii) transferring creative and inventive human capabilities to
237 engineered systems (relying on artificial general intelligence), and (iv) documentation, assessment, and
238 management of inventions in patents and publications. The overwhelming majority of papers submitted
239 for review dealt with topics that belonged to item (ii). This explains why the main title of this Special
240 Issue has been “*Inventive Approaches to Competitive Systems Engineering*”. In order to achieve a
241 relatively high-level coherence in terms of its contents, only those papers have been accepted for
242 publication which offered something really inventive. This could be achieved by (i) combining known
243 approaches in a novel and creative way, (ii) introducing and realizing a technical idea that has been not
244 documented in the literature, or (iii) addressing a scientific or professional problem with a dedicated non-
245 standard approach. The reader may be interested to learn what the essence of these novel and indigenous
246 approaches is. Towards this end, let us take a close look at the actual contributions of the published papers
247 and see what the essence of their inventiveness is.

248 The first paper in the queue was submitted by Sophia Salas Cordero, Marc Zolghadri, Rob
249 Vingerhoeds, and Claude Baron under the titled “*Identification and Assessment of Obsolescence in the*
250 *Early Stages of System Design*”. The phenomenon the authors addressed is progressive obsolescence of
251 systems. In the context of systems engineering, this phenomenon was recognized almost 30 years ago.
252 However, no solution was proposed for avoiding or reducing the chances of its occurrence in the early
253 stage of design. This motivated the authors to understand and model system obsolescence and the
254 propagation of its possible consequences by linking it to the fundamental concepts of systems engineering.
255 They argued that a deeper understanding of the phenomenon obsolescence and its propagation
256 mechanisms is essential for planning the management of obsolescence. Based on past analogies, they
257 invented two approaches to support the identification and assessment of obsolescence, which they dubbed
258 as the House of Obsolescence and the House of Quality, respectively. Having these means, they managed
259 to map the propagation of obsolescence via dependencies and to determine if changes in the system
260 architecture are desired or imposed by external actors. The proposed system obsolescence criticality
261 analysis assigns an obsolescence criticality index to the identified risks and prioritizes them for solution
262 or mitigation of the critical components during the analysis phase. This approach is inventive since (i)
263 different architectures can be analyzed during the early stages, (ii) facilitates taking technology and/or
264 component maturity into account for a given application, and (iii) may lead to a complementary view on
265 the risk of system or component obsolescence.

266 The second paper, “*A Mechanism to Assess the Effectiveness of Anomaly Detectors in Industrial*
267 *Control Systems*”, presents the results of the work of Salimah Liyakkathali, Francisco Furtado, Gayathri
268 Sugumar, and Aditya Mathur. It is documented in the literature that the total number of attacks on
269 industrial control systems (ICS) is rapidly increasing, while the variability of the attacks is also increasing.
270 Consequently, there is an imperative for the development of anomaly detection mechanisms (ADMs) that
271 are able to address a set of attacks. The authors proposed an inventive method, acronymed as ‘icsres’, that
272 is able to create and launch simulated attacks on ICS and may stimulate better designs. The underpinning
273 idea is mutating the data exchanged between any two PLCs through the communication networks, and the
274 sensors and actuators connected to them via a remote input/output unit. Using first-order deterministic
275 mutation operators and mutation testing in the case of anomaly detectors for ICS is also a novelty. The
276 authors made performance and utility tests with the intention to compare the results with that of humanly
277 generated and launched set of attacks. Three ADMs were installed in an operational water treatment
278 testbed and used to assess their completeness with respect to the generated attacks. Complex attacks are
279 realized by combining attacklets and launched on multiple sensors and actuators. The authors concluded
280 that the results proved the effectiveness of ‘icsres’ and the related tools at exploring the strength and
281 weaknesses of the ADMs.

282 Eckhard Kirchner, Stefan Schork, Gunnar Vorwerk-Handing, and Sven Vogel are the co-authors of the
283 paper entitled “*Using a Signal Flow Analysis to Develop Prototypes of Sensing Machine Elements*”. The
284 background of this work is the proliferating use of sensors and sensor-embedding physical components in
285 smart cyber-physical systems. The state-of-the-art is that the physical system components are reproduced
286 in the form of digital twins that provide opportunity for both reactive and proactive control in a
287 comprehensive and adaptive manner. The key issues are the quality of middle-of-life data and the
288 reliability of networked communication. Making physical components capable to collect data runtime by
289 augmenting sensor elements has become a daily practice in the industry. However developing prototypes
290 of sensing machine elements and analyze their signal flows in critical situations is deemed to be a novelty.
291 The proposed signal flow analysis makes it possible to explore those effects that may negatively influence
292 the functionality of the product as a whole. The paper presents examples of different sensing machine
293 elements and for the analysis of the related signal flows. The proposed approach allows chunking a
294 complex system into subsystems that can be tested individually. The authors argue that their signal flow
295 analysis is inventive and help increase the understanding of the system as a whole and decrease the
296 number of unknown factors and unexpected events.

297 The novelty of the work of David Ross-Pinnock, Glen Mullineux, and Patrick S Keogh concerning
298 “*Temperature Sensor Position Planning*” is in that it intends to reduce the effect of the ambient
299 conditions on temperature measurements. The avoidance of this kind of biases in a hot issue of system
300 metrology since it is often difficult, if not impossible, to control the changing ambient influences. The
301 authors argue that the results of dimensional measurement results are more often than not influenced by
302 those conditions and it is of paramount importance to apply some form of compensation. They also argue
303 that thermal compensation of dimensional measurement depends primarily on the ability to properly
304 measure temperature across physical volumes. The main contribution of authors’ work is a method for
305 planning the placement of actor nodes of a temperature sensor network. This is supposed to facilitate
306 thermal compensation. The authors explained that appropriate methods to quantify and optimize
307 uncertainty are indispensable to improve confidence as the demand for digital twins in production
308 increases. A virtual test bed has been created for the design, testing, and optimization of temperature
309 sensor networks supported by physical simulation. Virtualization is seen as a new element of the approach.
310 To determine some initial rules for sensor network design, random search optimization was carried out on
311 a subset of the nodes of the sensor network. As means of interpolating the ambient field polynomial
312 fitting and kriging have been investigated. The authors found that the positioning of the sensors within the
313 measurement volume and the method of reconstructing the temperature field were more important than
314 the capability of the individual sensors. This invention has led to a sensitive temperature measurement
315 strategy and a method for quickly testing and optimizing sensor networks.

316 The fifth paper, entitled “*Connecting Building Design with the Digital Factory by Design Languages
317 to Explore Different Solutions*”, is co-authored by Christopher Voss, Frank Petzold, and Stephan Rudolph.
318 The addressed phenomenon is a representative of the manifestation and open issues of disciplinary
319 convergence. To facilitate the exchange of data between different engineering domains, the authors
320 propose using of graph-based design languages (GBDLs) in a model-based systems engineering (MBSE)
321 approach. The authors argued that this approach (i) allows making the more or less hidden couplings
322 between the different design domains explicit, (ii) supports the interfacing between different software
323 applications, and (iii) reduces the need and efforts for manual model creation and data exchange.
324 Obviously, the concepts of GBDLs, UML, MBSE, digital factory, and factory building design are not
325 new in themselves. However, their (creative) combination reflects striving for an inventive solution. The
326 twin research question was (i) how the engineering knowledge used in the preliminary design of a factory
327 building can be formally described using graph-based design languages, and (ii) how the production line
328 of the digital factory can be used as an input to automatically create valid preliminary designs for the
329 factory building. The three most important design languages used in combination were: (i) the design
330 language for the preliminary design of the production hall, (ii) the design language for specification of the
331 digital factory of an engine hood, and (iii) the connector design language to link two other design
332 languages. The use of system engineering approaches, in particular design languages, is a front-end

333 initiative in the AEC industry. On the other hand, the research has demonstrated that using graph-based
334 design languages are useful means for cross-domain knowledge integration. They can efficiently support
335 automatic generation of valid designs differing in their structure and parameters.

336 Like the previous one, the paper, “*Performance Comparison of Particle Swarm Optimization and*
337 *Genetic Algorithm Combined with A* Search for Solving Facility Layout Problem*”, by Mariem Besbes,
338 Marc Zolghadri, Roberta Costa Affonso, Faouzi Masmoudi, and Mohamed Haddar, is an example for
339 realizing an novel and more effective approach by combining known means and methods. The essence of
340 their novel approach is using an optimization metaheuristics to solve design problems by (i) browsing
341 large spaces of solutions, (ii) significantly reducing the design time, and (iii) proposing more realistic and
342 better designs. The paper compared the speed and performance of using particle swarm optimization
343 (PSO) and genetic algorithm (GA) in combination with an A* algorithm (i.e. <PSO, A*> versus <GA,
344 A*>) in solving a constrained facility layout task as a search-based optimization problem. PSO and GA
345 were used to configuration of the facilities, whereas the A* algorithm was used finding the shortest path
346 considering the physical obstacles. The authors found that the two chosen metaheuristics were efficient at
347 finding the minimal total distance that products need to travel between the workstations in the workshop.
348 The results showed that GA provided a better solution than PSO in terms of the total travelled distance,
349 while PSO yielded faster. The layout optimization was applied in the case of eight facilities.

350 The seventh paper is entitled “*Preliminary Study of End-Effector Compliance for Reducing Insertion*
351 *Force in Automated Fluid Coupling for Trains*”. It presents the work and results of Kourosh Eshraghi,
352 Pingfei Jianga, Daniele Suraci, and Mark Atherton. In my reading, inventiveness originated here in
353 matching practical experiments and rational considerations. The authors started out from the observation
354 that the literature does not propose dedicated solutions for handling large misalignments of the passive
355 end-effector in such applications as a robot end-effector for train fluid servicing. The end-effector
356 compliance was supposed to be the key to a successful alignment. The authors applied a hybrid approach
357 (combining physical experiments and numerical modeling/simulations) to investigate the magnitude of
358 the insertion forces during misaligned couplings. The conducted physical experiments showed that large
359 insertion forces might be required even in the case of small misalignments. A kind of digital twin was
360 formed by the physical set up and the simulation model. The latter captured the configurable parameters
361 for robot compliance and peg-in-hole friction, and was informed by the results of the physical
362 experiments. The numerical simulation model was calibrated based on the results of the physical
363 experiments. It was shown that the characteristic insertion force curve obtained with the calibrated
364 simulation model was a truthful representative of what could be measured in the physical experiments.
365 Thus, it can reduce the physical efforts and labor that is needed for the testing of end-effectors. However,
366 the testing of the calibrated simulation model for other robot and misalignment configurations showed
367 greater error, suggesting that the model can be used only for the calibrated configuration.

368 Included as the last in this special issue, the paper “*A Novel Implementation of Energy-Based*
369 *Homogenization Method*”, Shuzhi Xu, Xinming Li, Yiming Rong, and Yongsheng Ma, speaks for itself
370 in terms of its inventiveness. As the title informs us, the kernel of this contribution is an innovative
371 energy-based homogenization method, which is underpinned by a rigorous mathematical foundation of
372 the homogenization method. This method has been developed with the goal of enabling an accurate and
373 efficient prediction of the mechanical performance of composite materials. The novelty of the proposed
374 method lies in the combination of automatic (i) domain discretization, (ii) feature extraction, (iii)
375 unification of the feature model, and (iv) periodic boundary condition application. The paper presents the
376 theoretical model of the energy-based homogenization for a cellular solid element and a shell element.
377 The generated model can be best characterized as fairly compact (small scale) construct. Therefore, it can
378 be embedded directly into gradient-based, multiscale, structure optimization programs. The numerical
379 calculations were implemented using commercial CAE software tools (e.g. Autodesk Inventor, ANSYS,
380 and MATLAB) and the integration algorithm was programmed in a third-party language. Examples of the
381 use of the cellular solid element and the stiffened plate element in cellular material design are presented.
382 These can be regarded as practical validations of the proposed energy-based homogenization method,
383 which can be adapted to and extended into many other application fields, such as predicting the heat

384 conductivity and the thermal expansion of composite materials. Beyond the scientific propositions, it is
 385 also a message of the paper that there can be many new things under the Sun even on such a conventional
 386 field of computer aided engineering as final element analysis.

387 **5. Some closing reflections and acknowledgments**

388 Do the current engineering research and development address other than already known engineering
 389 challenges and do they propose other than only incremental advancements in different contexts? Is there
 390 anything new under the Sun in the field of competitive systems engineering? These were the main
 391 questions for the whole of the Special Issue and especially for this Editorial. The overview of the state-of-
 392 the-art revealed what invention actually means and what it implies in systems engineering. It also
 393 identified the three major approaches to enabling of inventions, and explained the related past and current
 394 activities. Nevertheless, it left the question and possibility of automated artificial creativity and invention
 395 open, in spite of the efforts made in the domain of artificial general intelligence development and
 396 application and the buzzing arena of patentability of the potential inventions created by AI systems.

397 In view of the latest developments, I tend to deny the truth of the old proverb which says: “What has
 398 been will be again, what has been done will be done again; there is nothing new under the Sun.”
 399 Incremental and even radical inventions and innovations are happening and will be emerging in the field
 400 of competitive systems engineering. Actually, the duality of an ever-growing need for competitiveness
 401 and the technological affordances is forcing researchers, engineers, and designers to think out of the box
 402 and invent new systems engineering approaches. The papers included in this special issue provide
 403 representative examples and demonstrate the best practices.

404 As guest editor, I would like to express my gratefulness and sincere appreciation to all submitting and
 405 published authors for their valuable contributions, reliable cooperation, and tenacity in the long lasting
 406 evaluation and publication process. I must also to thank my fellow editors for their encouragement,
 407 understanding, and support.

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