

# Digital twin-enabled human-robot collaborative teaming towards sustainable and healthy built environments

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## Abstract

To achieve the collective societal good for all, development of sustainable and healthy built environments (SHBE) is highly advocated. Part of the pathway to such SHBE is the engagement of robots to manage the ever-complex facilities for tasks such as inspection and disinfection. However, despite the increasing advancements of robot intelligence, it is still “mission impossible” for robots to undertake, independently, such open-ended problems as facility management, calling for a need to “team up” the robots with humans. Leveraging digital twin’s ability to capture real-time data and inform decision-making via dynamic simulation, this study aims to develop a human-robot teaming framework for facility management to achieve sustainability and healthiness in the built environments. A digital twin-enabled prototype system is developed based on the framework. Case studies showed that the framework can safely and efficiently incorporate robotics into facility management tasks (e.g., patrolling, inspection, and cleaning) by allowing humans to plan, oversee, manage, and cooperate with robot operations via the digital twin bi-directional mechanism. The study lays out a high-level framework, under which purposeful efforts can be made to unlock digital twin’s full potential in collaborating humans and robots in facility management towards SHBE.

**Keywords:** Sustainability; Green building; Human–robot teaming; Human–robot interaction; Digital twin.

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## 28 **1 Introduction**

29 Given the immense importance of buildings in maintaining all walks of life, transforming  
30 existing built environments to a sustainable and healthy one will bring tremendous benefits to  
31 achieve the collective societal good. A critical step to develop such sustainable and healthy  
32 built environments (SHBE) is to properly manage and maintain those have been built. Facility  
33 management (FM) is a multi-disciplinary profession aimed at ensuring functionality of the built  
34 environment by integrating people, place, process and technology [1]. With the growing  
35 complexity of modern facilities (e.g., hospitals, shopping malls, and stadiums), the importance  
36 of FM cannot be over-emphasized [2][3]. The development of smart technologies, especially  
37 information and communication technologies (ICT), provides promising tools to manage the  
38 ever-more complex facilities. Buckman et al. [4] foresees the rapidly accumulated information  
39 will turn existing buildings into smart ones that can prepare for and adapt to changes over all  
40 timescales. Xu et al. [2] proposes cognitive FM for active intelligent management of facilities,  
41 which has three key characteristics including perception, learning, and action. Despite the  
42 different naming, these new tools and concepts can be broadly referred to as “smart FM”.

43

44 Part of smart FM is the increasing use of robots in built facilities. The introduction of robotics  
45 to the built environment can be traced back to the 1960s, when Joe Engelberger asserted that  
46 the use of robotics should go beyond manufacturing plants to social scenarios for service tasks  
47 such as health care, inspection, and FM [5,6]. This vision has not become a reality until very  
48 recently, as advancements in cybernetics and artificial intelligence have made it possible to  
49 deploy, at scale, autonomous robots in the built environment [5]. Nowadays, it is not  
50 uncommon to encounter robots taking up mundane and repetitive FM tasks traditionally done  
51 by humans in daily life, from toy-like floor cleaning robots in household environments [7] to  
52 disinfection robots in large shopping malls [8]. However, having been designed to operate in  
53 relatively structured environments, existing FM robots are far from autonomous and perfect.  
54 From time to time, cases of malfunctioning robots are reported [9], especially in open, dynamic  
55 environments with uncertainties. As captured by Max Frisch in his novel, *Homo Faber*, “The  
56 machine has no feelings, it feels no fear and no hope ... it operates according to the pure logic  
57 of probability”.

58

59 This deficiency in dealing with uncertainty gives rise to a need for robots to “team up” with  
60 human counterparts to accomplish shared goals and get the best out of both as intelligent agents  
61 [10]. In human–robot teaming (HRT), robotic precision complements human flexibility and  
62 vice versa, enabling more efficient delivery of task targets than either party could achieve alone

63 [11]. Collaboration in a team of humans and robots can be flexible, for example, involving the  
64 use of remote control with two parties in different environments [12], or side-by-side  
65 cooperation in the same workspace [13]. HRT usually involves a fleet of robots and human  
66 peers. This flexible collaboration mode and multi-agent nature of HRT make it suitable for  
67 exploratory tasks in open and dynamic environments [14] and, specifically, FM tasks in a built  
68 environment.

69

70 Despite this promise, existing HRT in FM tends to be ad-hoc, piecemeal, and sporadic [5].  
71 Floor cleaning robots, for example, are usually operated by a FM worker onsite through an  
72 onboard pendant that activates functionalities such as mapping, navigating, and floor cleaning.  
73 No systematic framework is available to monitor and manage the robots consistently, and FM  
74 personnel at different managerial levels are not coordinated. This creates several limitations:  
75 (a) failure to monitor the real-time operational status of the robots from a holistic perspective,  
76 leading to delayed response to possible robot malfunctions; (b) inability to collectively consider  
77 information from all robots to dynamically plan FM task allocation (e.g., work areas allocated  
78 to different cleaning robots); and (c) lack of an effective human–robot interface to intuitively  
79 inform humans of the intentions of the robots, making teamwork less efficient and increasing  
80 accident potential.

81

82 Digital twin (DT) technologies have the potential to improve collaboration between humans  
83 and robots in FM. While there have been many different understandings of DT, it is commonly  
84 believed that a DT is a virtual replica of a physical entity (e.g., a product, process, system) that  
85 can exert influence on the physical counterpart by predictive analytics and simulation based on  
86 real-time collected data [15,16]. This study adopts this prevalent definition, and believes the  
87 bi-directional communication mechanism and dynamic simulation capability of DT can benefit  
88 HRT in FM from various aspects. First, the DT can collect and aggregate real-time robot  
89 information, allowing 24-7 monitoring by FM staff to ensure proper functioning of the robots  
90 and timely countermeasures in the event of anomaly. Second, the DT can provide human  
91 experts with powerful analytics and simulation tools to plan FM tasks holistically with  
92 optimized workload assigned to robotic agents. Thirdly, an intuitive and interactive human-  
93 robot interface enabled by the DT will assist humans better understand or predict robots'  
94 intentions, and vice versa.

95

96 The aim of this research is to explore the DT potential for collaborative HRT in FM tasks, with  
97 the ultimate goal of achieving sustainability and healthiness in the built environments. A

98 constructive research approach is adopted, which involves understanding HRT problems in FM,  
99 development of a DT-enabled framework for collaborative HRT, and evaluation of the  
100 framework via prototyping. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2  
101 reviews the related works on FM robotics, HRT in built environments, and DT for HRT. The  
102 research methodology is elaborated in Section 3, which is followed by framework development  
103 in Section 4 and prototyping in Section 5. Major findings and insights from the prototyping are  
104 discussed in Section 6, and Section 7 concludes by summarizing the contributions and pointing  
105 out future research directions.

106

## 107 **2 Related works**

108 As summarized in Table 1, this section reviews major scholarly works in related fields. It is  
109 found that even though many research has adopted robotics in FM, the level of HRT in this  
110 area is relatively low compared with other areas, in particular the manufacturing and assembly  
111 industry.

112

### 113 ***2.1 Robotics in the built environments***

114 Driven by the rapid development of robotics and related smart technologies, the applications  
115 of robots in FM have gained momentum. The robotization of FM has multiple advantages in  
116 terms of versatility, wide coverage, high efficiency and maintainability [17]. Many FM  
117 tasks/scenarios can benefit from the use of robots. The use of robotics in cleaning and  
118 disinfection, for instance, increased dramatically during the COVID-19 pandemic [18].  
119 Guettari et al. [8] developed a robot equipped with Ultraviolet-C lights for disinfection in mass-  
120 gathering facilities such as hospitals, airlines, and public transit, while Bock et al. [19] designed  
121 a semiautomatic service robot for skyscraper façade cleaning. Hu et al. [20] proposed an  
122 adaptive robotic framework to disinfect areas of potential contamination. Beyond the “hard”  
123 technologies, researchers have also tried to understand the “soft” social implications of  
124 cleaning robots. Forlizzi [7] found that the adoption of automation had allowed for multitasking,  
125 while Gutmann et al. [21] revealed that the use of a cleaning robot saves at least one hour of  
126 time per week for their household users.

127

128 Another important use of robotics in FM is inspection and safety surveillance. The built  
129 facilities, especially large public facilities, usually occupy large areas that are too laborious to  
130 inspect, and can involve dangerous places (e.g., high-rise façade) for humans to access [22].  
131 As such, their inspection and surveillance using traditional manual methods has become very  
132 challenging. Robots have been used to replace (or partially replace) humans for facility

133 inspection [23]. Oyediran et al. [24] designed an autonomous robot-based system for gauge-  
134 checking in power plant facilities. Chen et al. [25] proposed to use an unmanned aerial vehicle  
135 (UAV) to detect and reconstruct defects occurring to the façade of old buildings. For sewer  
136 pipe inspection, Cheng and Wang [26] applied deep learning to process closed-circuit television  
137 images captured by wheel robots. Lattanzi and Miller [27] found the growing use of  
138 infrastructure inspection robots has provided unprecedented platforms to deploy non-  
139 destructive inspection technologies.

140

141 Nonetheless, full automation of FM tasks is difficult to achieve given the complicated and  
142 dynamic nature of the built environment [5]. Where FM tasks cannot be independently  
143 undertaken by robotic agents, the involvement of human experts is needed.

144

## 145 ***2.2 HRT in the built environments***

146 There is no consensus on a formal definition of HRT [10] but it is widely accepted that it differs  
147 from human–robot collaboration (HRC) [28], which studies how humans and robots work  
148 simultaneously in a shared space for a shared goal. While HRT involves the accomplishment  
149 of a shared goal through joint efforts, it does not require humans and robots to share space.

150

151 HRT has been advocated in urban search and rescue (SaR) [14] as a means of counteracting  
152 the open and complex environments in such scenarios through flexible interactions between  
153 humans and robots (remote control, or close collaboration). Since the application of HRT in  
154 9/11 rescue activities [29], rescue robotics has become an important line of human–robot  
155 interaction research [30]. Nourbakhsh et al. [14] established an urban SaR framework via which  
156 first responders can remotely control a team of rovers to explore the disaster site for survivors.  
157 Goodrich et al. [31] explored the impact of human factors when engaging UAVs in SaR. They  
158 found that while HRT can fit into existing SaR information models, the organization of the  
159 HRT roles depends strongly on specific situational factors. Chen et al. [32] developed a  
160 simulator in the “Gazebo+ROS” environment to train first responders on how to effectively  
161 cooperate with aerial SaR robots.

162

163 Compared with the aforementioned areas, limited attention has been paid to HRT in FM. Al-  
164 Sabbag et al. [33] proposed a human–machine collaborative inspection system to coordinate  
165 human inspectors with a robotic data collection platform via a mixed reality interface. Zhou et  
166 al. [34] developed an intuitive robot teleoperation method via a deep learning reconstructed  
167 scene in virtual reality. Despite these research efforts, existing HRT falls short of coordinating

168 FM personnel at different managerial levels with the robotic agents. In addition, it is usually  
169 difficult to gather information about the state of the robot and the environment [35] so that  
170 humans can proactively and effectively oversee, monitor, manage, and intervene in (if  
171 necessary) FM task implementation.

172

### 173 ***2.3 Digital twins for HRT***

174 Originating from space exploration in last century, the concept of a DT was formally introduced  
175 by Grieves in 2002 [15]. Since then, the concept has been applied in a wide range of areas  
176 [36,37]. Due to its ability to capture real-time data and inform decision-making via dynamic  
177 multi-scale and multi-physics simulation, the potential of DT in HRT has been documented in  
178 many scholarly works. Elbasheer et al. [11] have conducted a comprehensive review of DT  
179 critical design considerations for human–robot systems, identifying a series of beneficial roles  
180 that a DT can play, e.g., monitoring and online diagnosis of robotic agents, robot behavior  
181 forecasting, and autonomous system control. Adopting the DT concept, Reardon et al. [38]  
182 developed a set of prototypes that integrate augmented reality (AR) with smart robots to enable  
183 effective HRT in field environments. Kramberger et al. [39] investigated the use of DT in  
184 closing the loop between design and robotic assembly of timber structures in a human–robot  
185 collaboration setup. The manufacturing and assembly industry has been actively exploring DT  
186 for HRC. Sun et al. [40] noticed an absence of perception and cognitive capability in existing  
187 HRC, and developed a DT-driven human–robot collaborative product assembly-  
188 commissioning framework. Kousi et al. [41,42] studied the implications of DT to existing  
189 assembly industry, and developed frameworks to guide the design and reconfiguration of  
190 adaptive HRC in such scenarios.

191

192 In the architecture, engineering, construction and operation sector, the exploration of DT for  
193 HRT is still in its initial stage [11]. Recognizing the unique challenges posed by the  
194 unstructured and fragmented nature of construction environments, Wang et al. [43] proposed  
195 an interactive and immersive process-level DT system. The system can facilitate collaborative  
196 human–robot construction works through task visualization, supervision, planning and  
197 execution. Liang et al. [44] reported the development of a system to bridge a physical robot  
198 with its virtual representation in simulated environments using a DT, empowering humans to  
199 better plan robotic construction works. Fukushima et al. [45] presented a DT-enabled system  
200 to support, manage, monitor, and validate autonomous mobile robots. However, existing DT-  
201 enabled HRT studies have mainly focused on the construction stage. As FM has its unique  
202 characteristics in terms of space and task nature, a new DT-enabled HRT framework oriented

203 to FM is needed.

204

205 **Table 1.** A brief summary of related works in the areas of HRT.

No.	Works	Areas <sup>1</sup>	Task	Use DT?	HRT level <sup>1</sup>
1	Guettari et al. [8]		Disinfection	N	Initialization
2	Bock et al. [19]		Façade cleaning	N	Initialization
3	Forlizzi [7] and Gutmann et al. [21]	FM	Floor cleaning	N	Initialization
4	Chen et al. [25]		Inspection	N	Teleoperation
5	Cheng and Wang [26]		Inspection	N	Teleoperation
6	Nourbakhsh et al. [14]	SaR	Survivor searching	N	Supervisory control
7	Chen et al. [32]		Training	N	Supervisory control
8	Zhou et al. [34]		Pipe installation	N	Teleoperation
9	Kramberger et al. [39]	Construction	Timber structure assembly	Y	Collaborative
10	Wang et al. [43]		Drywall installation	Y	Collaborative
11	Sun et al. [40]		Product assembly-commissioning	Y	Collaborative
12	Kousi et al. [41,42]	MaA	Automotive assembly	Y	Collaborative

206 <sup>1</sup> Application areas of the works: FM (Facility Management), SaR (Search and Rescue), MaA (Manufacturing and  
207 Assembly);

208 <sup>2</sup> Adapted from Goodrich and Schultz [46]. Initialization, teleoperation, supervisory control and collaborative represent  
209 the least level of HRT to the highest level.

210

### 211 **3 Research method**

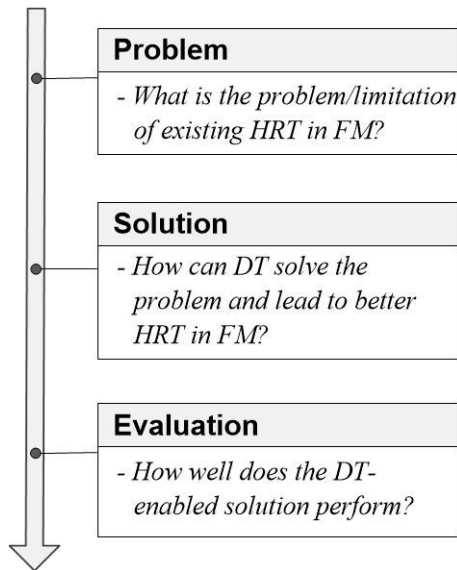
212 As shown in Fig. 1, the research design follows a typical constructive research approach (CRA).

213 CRA produces innovative artefacts such as models, algorithms, and information systems aimed at

214 solving real-world problems, as well as contributing to the theory of the relevant disciplines

215 [47]. CRA involves three steps as follows.

216



217

218 **Fig. 1.** The research design adopted.

219

220 (1) Problem identification. Based on the research team’s engagement with professionals  
 221 from the FM sector [48], the problem of humans and robots working effectively  
 222 together is one of both practical and theoretical significance. A major problem of  
 223 existing FM practice is the lack of a systematic framework to coordinate human FM  
 224 personnel and robots in a consistent and collaborative manner. This could either lead  
 225 to underuse of the robotic or human resources, or raise potential safety concerns  
 226 because of insufficient communication between the two parties [9]. Given the  
 227 criticality of FM, achieving systematic and collaborative HRT would have enormous  
 228 economic and societal implications. In addition, as previous HRT research focuses  
 229 mainly on the area of SaR, the research in FM will derive new theoretical insights  
 230 beyond its original field.

231

232 (2) Solution development. Based on a deep understanding of the HRT problem in FM, a  
 233 solution is devised. Co-operative teamwork should be adopted to involve both  
 234 practitioners and researchers [47]. Following this teamwork model, a multi-disciplinary  
 235 team is assembled, comprising university researchers in real estate and construction,  
 236 robotics engineers, and real estate managers. An iterative development process is  
 237 followed, during which the researchers and robotics engineers first come up with an  
 238 initial DT-enabled framework, which is then forwarded to estate managers for their  
 239 comments to refine the framework. The process goes on until a technically feasible and  
 240 practical solution is reached. The iterative process will result in a solution that is tailor-  
 241 made to solve the problem of HRT in FM. The most distinct innovation of the solution is



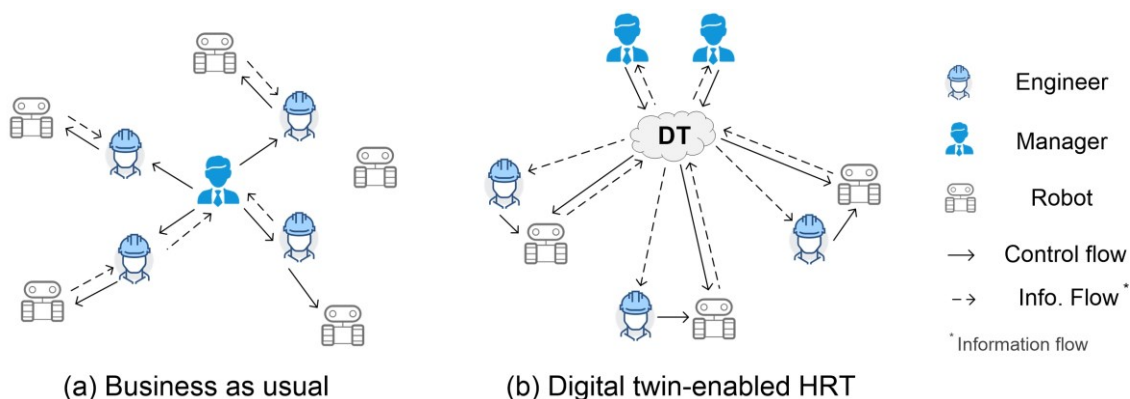
242 the central role of DT in coordinating robots and human staff in the FM administrative  
 243 hierarchy. It is expected, via the solution, the existing sporadic human-robot interaction in  
 244 FM will be turned into a coherent teaming.  
 245

246 (3) Evaluation. Once a solution is available, it should be implemented to evaluate its  
 247 performance and potential theoretical contributions. For evaluation purposes, a set of  
 248 prototypes based on the DT-enabled HRT framework are built. The prototypes are  
 249 tested and evaluated in terms of their functionalities and effectiveness in facilitating  
 250 collaboration among humans and robots in FM tasks. The evaluation will focus on  
 251 validating the prototypes' efficacy in filling major gaps of existing sporadic HRT, e.g.,  
 252 poor situational awareness, insufficient multi-party coordination among different FM  
 253 staff, and lack of tools in guiding safe HRC in a shared space.  
 254

## 255 4 Developing the DT-enabled HRT framework

### 256 4.1 Conceptual model: A shift from sporadic interaction to collaborative teaming

257 The schematic diagram in Fig. 2(a) depicts how humans and robots are teamed up in existing  
 258 FM practice. It can be observed that there are missing links (control flow, information flow, or  
 259 both) between humans and humans (i.e., managers and engineers) and humans and robots,  
 260 indicating that the interactions among FM teams are somehow random. Because no centralized  
 261 system is available to coordinate people with the robotic agents, it is difficult to unleash the  
 262 full potential of robotics in accomplishing FM tasks. Even worse, in the event of malfunction,  
 263 the robots might not receive timely assistance as the missing information flows prevent them  
 264 from directly communicating with their human teammates.  
 265



267 **Fig. 2.** Schematic diagrams showing how FM robots are teamed up with their human peers (a)  
 268 in existing practice, and (b) in a DT-enabled model.  
 269

270 The sporadic human–robot interaction that currently exists should shift to a collaborative HRT  
271 model as described by Fig. 2(b). In this conceptual model, DTs of FM robots will be created  
272 and serve as a central hub where information on robot operating conditions will be aggregated  
273 from all agents and can be disseminated to human FM staff at various levels (managers,  
274 engineers, workers, etc.) on demand and in real time. Via this centralized model, all participants  
275 in the human–robot teams can be connected based on the DT. The benefits are multi-fold. First,  
276 as human facility managers/engineers can easily access any robot’s information anytime and  
277 anywhere via the DT, they are less likely to be unaware of malfunctioned robots. Second,  
278 facility managers or other mid-/high-level FM staff can simultaneously monitor or even control  
279 multiple robots remotely, greatly eliminating time and distance barriers. In addition, the model  
280 allows mid-/high-level FM staff to directly oversee and manage the robots, flattening the  
281 existing hierarchical FM structure and shortening the decision chain. Last but not least, by  
282 aggregating state information (e.g., position, task progress, and remaining battery) of all the  
283 robotic agents, an optimal FM plan and task allocation scheme can be developed. The proposed  
284 DT-enabled HRT model for FM coincides with Tao’s proposition to treat DT as a “transit station  
285 of all things” in industrial manufacturing [49].

286

#### 287 ***4.2 The developed DT-enabled framework for collaborative HRT in FM***

288 In order to overcome the challenges of existing approaches, this study proposed an DT-enabled  
289 framework to enhance HRT for FM. The framework was developed by combinatory  
290 considerations of typical DT structures [50,51] and the practical requirements of HRT in FM.  
291 As shown in Fig. 3, the framework comprises a DT of the FM robots and DT-enabled FM  
292 business. The former is a prerequisite for the latter, and the latter is the purpose of the former.  
293 The framework can be further divided into six layers, as explained below.

294

##### 295 (1) Physical layer

296 In the physical layer are the various FM robots. They can include ground robots that  
297 navigate the facility floor to perform cleaning and disinfection tasks, aerial robots that  
298 undertake facility inspection tasks, and robot arms that are used for maintenance jobs. Forming  
299 the physical part of the DT, the fleet of FM robots are sources of robot operating information  
300 on one hand, and executors of FM tasks on the other.

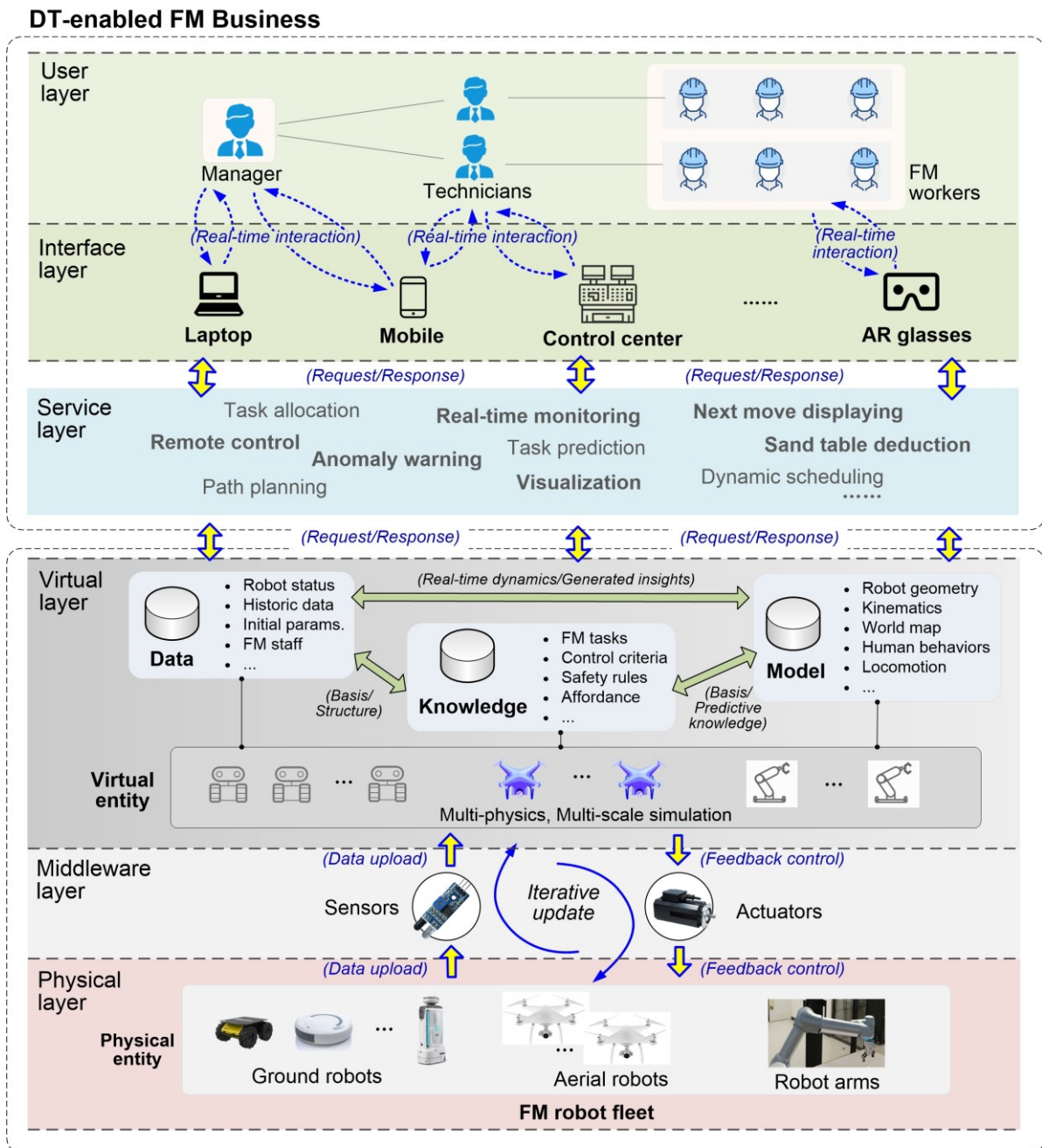
301

##### 302 (2) Middleware layer

303 The middleware layer connects the physical part with the virtual part. It is essentially a  
304 combination of sensors and actuators. The sensors (e.g., gyroscope, thermometer,

305 accelerometer, encoder) collect data of the robot states (positions, payload, level of battery,  
 306 etc.), and then update them to the virtual layer. The actuators (e.g., electric motor, piezoelectric  
 307 actuator), on the other hand, receive feedback signals from the virtual layer, and then adjust  
 308 motor output to control the robot motions. There are two types of feedback signals. The first  
 309 type is automatically generated by the robotic digital replica in the virtual layer. The second  
 310 type is initiated by human FM staff in the user layer to enable remote control when the agents  
 311 cannot independently deal with external uncertainties.

312



313

314

**Digital Twin FM Robots**  
**Fig. 3.** The developed DT-enabled framework for HRT in FM.

315

316 (3) Virtual layer

317 The virtual layer is a digital replica of the physical FM robots. It mirrors the various physics  
318 systems of the physical entities at different levels of granularity regarding three aspects, i.e.,  
319 data, knowledge, and model. Comprising unorganized facts and figures in primitive formats,  
320 data is a fundamental element in the DT of FM robots because it is the carrier of information  
321 for the bi-directional communication between the physical and virtual space. A database in the  
322 virtual layer records data of various types, including, *inter alia*, the robot states (position, speed,  
323 overload, etc.), historical data of past FM events, system initial parameters, and information of  
324 the FM staff.

325 Knowledge plays a critical role in predictive analytics, adaptive control, enabling autonomy,  
326 and simulating the FM robots. For example, knowledge about FM tasks (e.g., breakdown  
327 workflow) and affordance (action possibilities offered to an agent [52]) is needed in order to  
328 plan the FM schedule and allow the robots to independently undertake FM tasks. Another  
329 example is warnings for unsafe or malfunctioned robot behaviors. Knowledge about control  
330 criteria and safety rules (e.g., upper limit of moving speed) is required to enable judgements as  
331 whether the robots are operating within allowed safety ranges. To facilitate interoperability and  
332 reusability, techniques such as web ontology language (OWL) is suggested to formalize the  
333 knowledge in standard manner.

334 A model is a mathematical or conceptual representation of a system of ideas, events or  
335 processes. To enable the DT's simulation capability, a comprehensive modeling of the physical  
336 robotic systems and their dynamics with the human counterparts is indispensable. A first step  
337 is to model the geometry of the robots. A geometric model not only has its own uses such as  
338 visualization, but is also a precondition for other simulation applications such as clearance  
339 analysis. For motion simulation, kinematics and locomotion modeling are prerequisites. An  
340 important part of the model also lies the world map that can be either converted from a building  
341 information model (BIM), or dynamically created as the robot navigates and perceives the  
342 environment. Also, as the FM robots may directly collaborate with human workers in a shared  
343 space, a human behavior model will help the robots better parse and even predict their co-  
344 workers' motions, leading to safer cooperation.

345 The data, knowledge and model complement each other and form a coherent system. The  
346 data serves as basis on which new knowledge can be elicited, while knowledge provides a  
347 structure for how the data should be organized. Knowledge and data will feed the multi-physics  
348 scientific model with robot states and other basic information in different time scales, allowing  
349 dynamic simulations in FM scenarios. The other way around, the model-based simulation will

350 derive insights and predictive knowledge that will be stored in the database and knowledge  
351 base, respectively.

352

#### 353 (4) Service layer

354 The physical, middleware, and virtual layers constitute a DT of the FM robots, based on  
355 which FM business is enabled. Directly connecting to the virtual layer is the service layer, an  
356 encapsulation of functionalities and services oriented to the FM business and an application of  
357 the data–knowledge–model system in the virtual layer. The series of HRT FM services that can  
358 be enabled by the DT include:

359 - Real-time monitoring: Based on the bi-directional mechanism of DT, the processes of all  
360 FM tasks implemented by the robots can be visualized and monitored in real time.

361 - Remote control: When necessary, human experts can intervene and operate the robot  
362 remotely.

363 - Task prediction/Next move visualization: As the task implementation sequences are  
364 formalized in the knowledge base, the next move of the robots can be predicted and  
365 displayed to FM staff. This is particularly useful for FM tasks (e.g., table wiping) that  
366 need direct collaboration among humans and robots in the same space.

367 - Task allocation: With the robot status, FM task knowledge, affordance, and locomotion  
368 model aggregated in the virtual layer, it is possible to come up with an optimal (or quasi-  
369 optimal) task allocation plan among the robots.

370 - Anomaly warning: The robot condition is automatically compared with safety threshold.  
371 If this threshold is exceeded, a warning can be issued for timely human assistance.

372 - Sand table deduction: Using the multi-physics models offered by the DT, users can  
373 simulate and compare outcomes of different robotic FM plans under different scenarios,  
374 which will assist managers in task planning.

375

#### 376 (5) Interface layer

377 The interface layer allows users to access the functionalities provided by the service layer.  
378 An array of smart devices can be used, ranging from mobile devices such as laptop and smart  
379 phone, to a stationary setup such as a control center, and to emerging AR glasses. Mobile  
380 devices allow FM personnel to remotely oversee robot task implementation at any place and  
381 any time Internet is available. A control center is similar to the big room in construction  
382 management, acting as the central hub for deploying, monitoring, controlling, and managing  
383 the FM robots. Large dashboard screens can be set up to display FM, and consoles with  
384 joysticks can be installed to remotely control the robots. AR glasses can be used by FM workers,

385 helping them better collaborate with their robotic counterparts.

386

387 (6) User layer

388 In the user layer are human FM staff at different hierarchical levels who are teamed up with  
389 the robots in various ways, with different interface devices to support their work. For high-  
390 level managers, their main responsibility is to ensure overall FM performance and oversee the  
391 implementation process when necessary. Thus, these managers can access the system using  
392 laptops and mobile phones and, in event of anomaly, receive warning messages via phone.  
393 Mid-level staff (e.g., technicians) are directly in charge of assigning robotic agents for specific  
394 FM tasks, monitoring the FM process, and taking over by remote control when necessary. To  
395 assist their work, mobile phone and the control center are the suggested interface. FM workers  
396 are those dispatched onsite. They will be equipped with the AR glasses, which displays robot  
397 operating information (e.g., battery level, and next move) to help them plan/adjust their actions  
398 (e.g., charging the robots).

399

## 400 **5 Prototyping and testing**

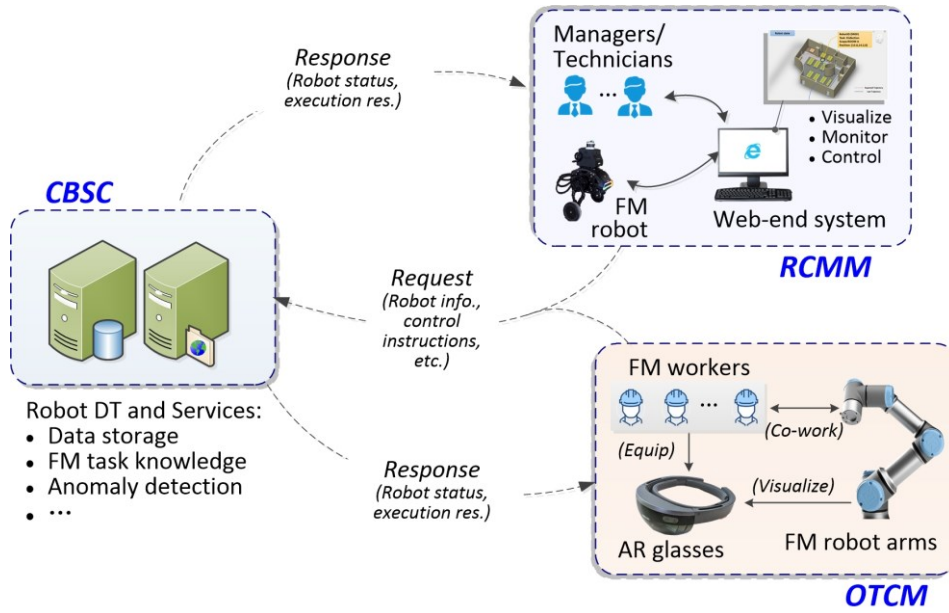
401 This section aims to demonstrate the effectiveness of the DT-enabled framework in facilitating  
402 collaboration among human–robot teams in FM. A prototype system is developed based on key  
403 concepts of the framework, and then applied in two typical FM task scenarios (i.e., facility  
404 inspection and table disinfection).

405

### 406 ***5.1 System architecture design***

407 The system prototype adopts a “cloud/edge” architecture to accommodate the centralized HRT  
408 model depicted by Fig. 2(b). As shown in Fig. 4, the system consists of a cloud-based server  
409 cluster (CBSC), a remote control and monitoring module (RCMM), and an onsite task  
410 collaboration module (OTCM). The CBSC is where the DT and its enabling services are  
411 deployed, acting as the central hub to handle or respond to data requests (e.g., to retrieve/update  
412 robot states, or to issue a control instruction) from the other two modules. The RCMM is  
413 designed to team up high-/mid-level FM staff with the robotic agents via supervisory control.  
414 The RCMM adopts a Web-based system as the human–robot interface. It allows human experts  
415 to conveniently access the system via personal computers, smart phones, or dashboard in a  
416 control center. The OTCM sets out to enable FM workers to better co-work with their robotic  
417 counterparts by equipping the them with hands-free AR devices (e.g., the HoloLens AR  
418 glasses).

419



420

421 **Fig. 4.** Architecture of the system prototype.

422

423 **5.2 System prototype development**

424 Technical details of the prototype development process are introduced in this subsection.

425

426 (1) CBSC

427 The CBSC is hosted on the cloud service instance “ECS.n4” provided by Alibaba Cloud.

428 The server instance has an Ubuntu 20.04 64-bit operating system, a one-core CPU, and a 2GB

429 RAM memory. From a business logic perspective, the CBSC consists of a database server, an

430 application server, and a web server. Node.js is used to build a scalable network application on

431 the CBSC. Fig. 5 shows snapshots of the data, knowledge and model in the database server. To be

432 more specific, information of the robot states, initial parameters, FM staff, and other structured

433 data is stored in a MySQL relational database (see Fig. 5 (a)). There are five tables in the

434 database, including (a) the “Room-Info” table that stores information of functional spaces in a

435 facility, (b) the “Robot-Info” table that stores basic information of the FM robots, (c) the

436 “Robot-Opt-Data” that records the robot operating status (e.g., coordinates, velocity,

437 acceleration, and joint angles), (d) the “Staff-Info” table that saves FM staff information, and

438 (e) the “Model-Info” table that stores file path to 3D representations of the FM robots. The

439 tables are inter-referenced via primary and foreign keys, which are basic components in

440 relational database theory to indicate association among entities. The “Robot-Info” table plays

441 a central role. It is linked to information of storing places (“Room-Info”) and model

442 representations (“Model-Info”) of the FM robots via key “space\_id” and “model\_id”,

443 respectively; on the other hand, information of operating status of the robots and staff that have

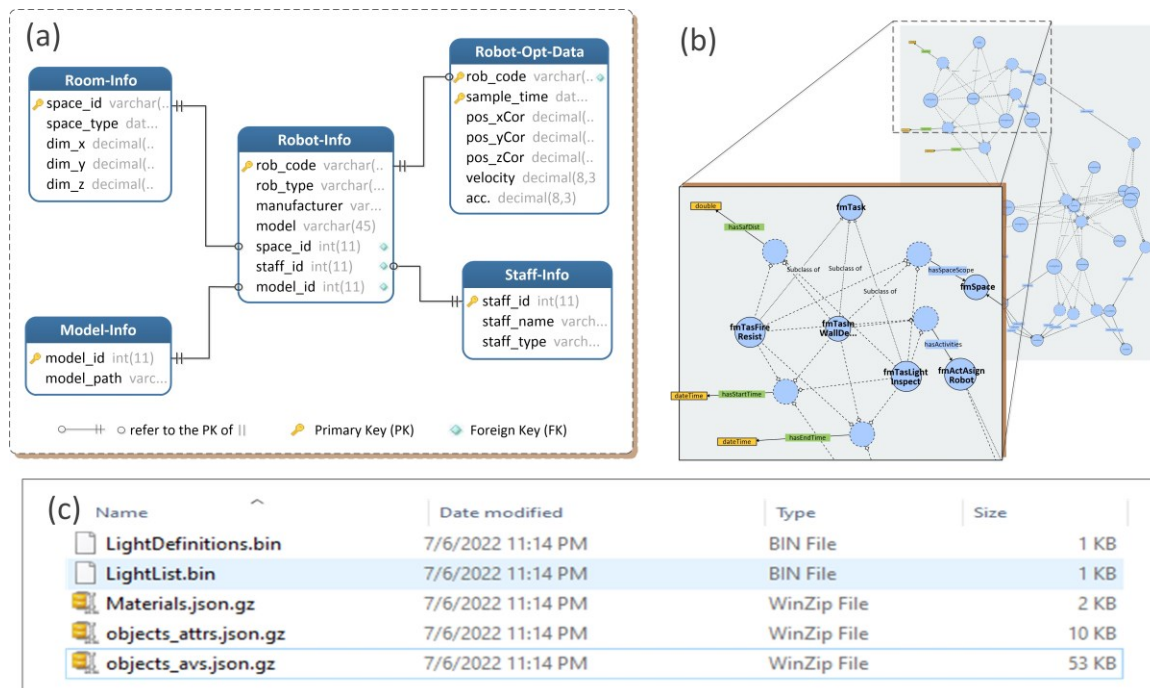


444 assigned the robots can also be indexed via the key “rob\_code” and “staff\_id” in “Robot-Info”  
 445 table.

446 Formalized FM knowledge in terms of task implementation procedure, control criteria and  
 447 safety rules is first created using Protégé, and then converted into an RDF (Resource Description  
 448 Framework) format. The Knowledge base in RDF format is hosted on the database server, which  
 449 can be queried, accessed, and updated by SPARQL. Fig. 5 (b) shows part of the built knowledge  
 450 base that describes the break-down workflow of typical FM tasks. Another important part of the  
 451 database is the models, which in the prototype include the geometric models of the environment  
 452 and the robotic agent. The models are stored in a file-base format, as presented in Fig. 5 (c).

453 The application server encapsulates a series of system functionalities that can be accessed  
 454 remotely by the RCMM and OTCM. For example, in order to receive real-time operating status  
 455 of the robots, a function is written in Node.js to listen to any data incoming event. The anomaly  
 456 detection and warning functionalities are also realized by Node.js, which compares current  
 457 robot operating status with the control criteria and safety rule in the knowledge base, and  
 458 automatically issues a warning to corresponding parties when anomalies are detected. As for  
 459 the Web server, the Node.js NPM http-server is used to launch the web system, allowing users  
 460 to access the provided services from a web browser.

461



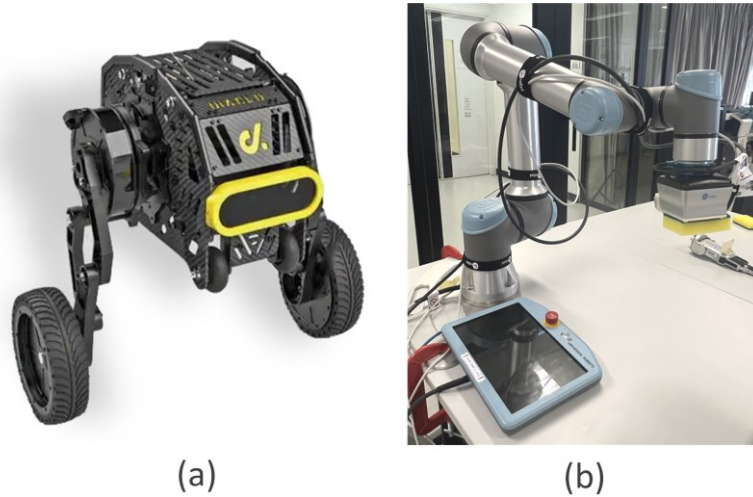
462

463 **Fig. 5.** Database server composition: (a) Entity relationship diagram of the database; (b) Graph

464

representation of the knowledge base; (c) Models stored on the database server as separate files.





**Fig. 6.** Robotic hardware used in the system prototype: (a) Direct Drive Diablo [53]; (b) UR5e collaborative robot arms [54].

### (2) RCMM

The development of RCMM can be introduced from hardware (FM robot) and software (web-end system) aspects. The robot hardware is a Direct Drive Diablo, as shown in Fig. 6 (a) and comprising a wheel-legged moving base and a SLAM (simultaneous localization and mapping) sense device. There are four cameras on the SLAM sense device, which will capture video streams for inspection purposes. The research team uses a 128-line lidar to get a more intensive point cloud. The robot system is built on ROS. Distributed communication is utilized for function coordination of each component. The web-end system is developed using HTML, JavaScript, CSS, and Ajax. The communication between the robot and the web is based on HTTP. To intuitively visualize the robot, a lightweight BIM model of the facility is integrated and displayed on the Web using Autodesk Forge Viewer. A 3D virtual representation of the robotic agent is created using Three.js.

### (3) OTCM

The proposed OTCM integrates AR glasses and a UR5e robot arm (see Fig. 6 (b)) through ROS (version Noetic) as the middleware. HoloLens2, a Microsoft AR headset, is used to create an AR interface based on Unity (version 2021.3.7f1). The AR-based virtual robot described by Unified Robot Description Format (URDF) is connected to the corresponding real robot through the middleware, which is responsible for communication between AR and real robot, trajectory planning, and robot control.

OTCM provides a mechanism for intention recognition and communication between humans and robots. Via the AR glasses, the following functionalities are provided:

- a) Next move prediction. Based on the break-down process of FM tasks provided by the

492 knowledge base, the next move and moving trajectory of the robots can be planned and  
493 predicted;

494 b) Next move visualization. The predicted robot motion and trajectory will be sent to the  
495 virtual robot in Unity. The Unity, as a subscriber, accepts the next-move information in  
496 JSON format by C# from the middleware, and then drives the virtual robot to adapt its  
497 joint angles ahead of the real robot's movement. It is in this way that the next move of  
498 the real robot is visualized to the users in the AR environment;

499 c) Task coordination. With the robot movements predicted and visualized, the collaboration  
500 between FM robots and workers can be effectively coordinated. For example, with  
501 proper visual cues (text and 3D model) fed in AR glasses, the workers can easily  
502 understand the intentions of their robotic counterparts, and plan their works accordingly.

503

### 504 **5.3 Prototype application and evaluation**

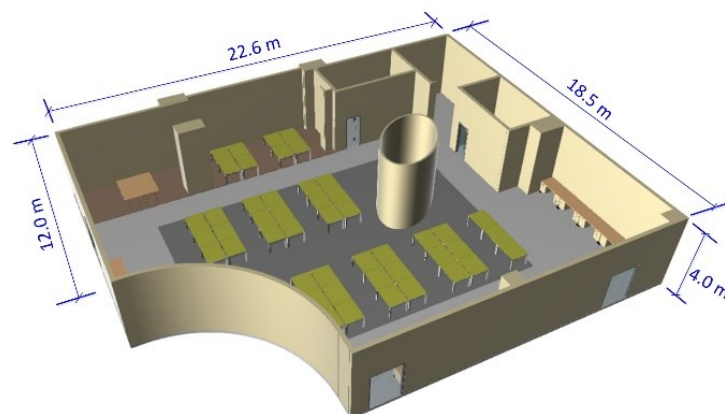
505 The performance of the developed prototype is evaluated in two FM task scenarios.

506

#### 507 *5.3.1 Scenario #1: Facility inspection using the RCMM*

508 The first scenario simulates facility inspection tasks that are widely implemented in FM. An  
509 open office space in Pingshan district, Shenzhen, China is used as a testbed. As shown in Fig.  
510 7, the office occupies an area of around 22.6 m × 18.5 m. When a robot is assigned to inspect  
511 the office, it is required to navigate the office, and record a video of the environment as it  
512 moves. The video is processed afterwards, e.g., by artificial intelligence, to identify defects in  
513 the office.

514



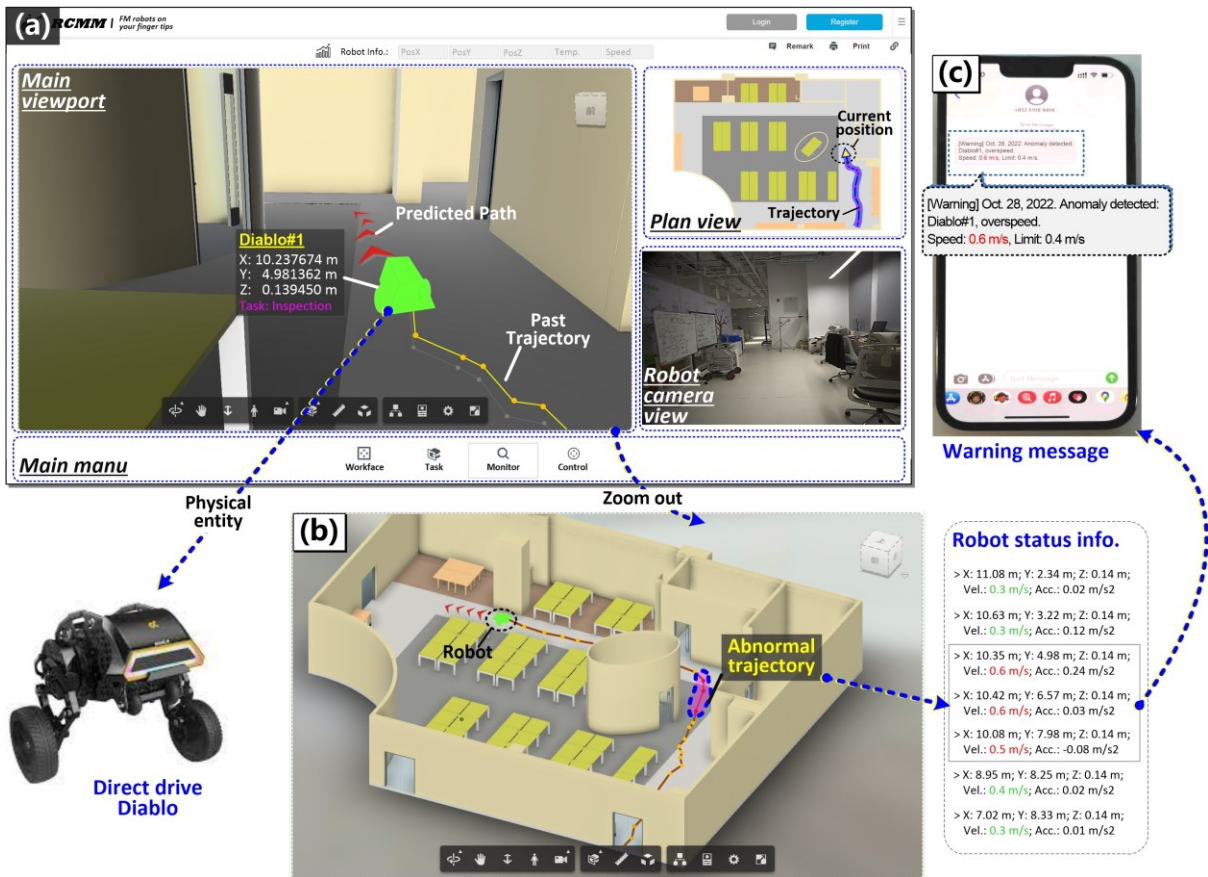
515

516 **Fig. 7.** Diagram showing specifications of the facility to inspect by the robot.

517

518 Fig. 8 (a) shows a Web interface of the developed RCMM, which is consisted of four parts,  
519 i.e., the main viewport, the main menu, the plan view, and the robot camera view. The main  
520 viewport is a 3D viewer displaying the virtual representations of the facility and the FM  
521 robots. A DT of the physical robot (i.e., the Direct Drive Diablo) is shown in the main

522 viewport, which mirrors real-time states of the real robot. The robot trajectory is visualized in  
 523 the viewport. Based on the physics model and the planned path, the next movements of the  
 524 robots are predicted, and displayed to inform human experts. The main menu is where human  
 525 operators access functionalities of the RCMM. For example, by clicking the “Task” button, a  
 526 new panel will pop up, where the human expert (usually a technician who mans the control  
 527 center) can allocate FM tasks to different robots. The task allocation service at the CBSC will  
 528 consider all the available robots and their capabilities to suggest an optimal task allocation  
 529 scheme. Clicking the “Monitor” button will activate the monitoring function as shown in the  
 530 current main viewport in Fig. 8 (a), whereas the “Control” button will activate remote control  
 531 mode, allowing users to designate in which direction the robot will navigate by clicking  
 532 target point in the viewport. On the top-right corner of the interface is the plan view showing  
 533 the robot trajectory from the top down. Right below the plan view is an area where the real-  
 534 time camera view of the robot is streamed.  
 535



536  
 537 **Fig. 8.** Implementation results of the RCMM: (a) Web interface of the module; (b) Zoom-out  
 538 showing the moving trajectory of the inspection robots; (c) Warning message received on  
 539 mobile phone about abnormal robot operation, e.g., overspeed.

540  
 541 Via the RCMM, a close and collaborative teaming of FM robots and humans is formed. In the  
 542 experiment on Oct. 27, 2022, the FM technician assigned a robot with ID “Diablo#1” to

543 execute the task of inspecting the entire office. The technician sat in front of the computer to  
544 monitor the whole process as the robot navigated the environment to implement the  
545 inspection task. Because the robot operating information throughout the process is recorded  
546 and visualized by the DT, the human experts do not have to worry about not being informed  
547 in a timely manner if the robot goes out of control. Fig. 8 (b) shows a bird-eye view of the  
548 inspection process. It is noticed the robot once went overspeed when it was about to take a  
549 left turn, as indicated by the trajectory highlighted in purple in Fig. 8(b). This overspeed  
550 anomaly was recorded and issued as a warning message to the mobile phone of the FM  
551 manager, as shown by Fig. 8 (c). The manager then contacted the FM technician to check the  
552 causes of the warning. The warning was actually a false alarm induced by an overheated  
553 motor. After the motor cooled, the warning ceased.

554

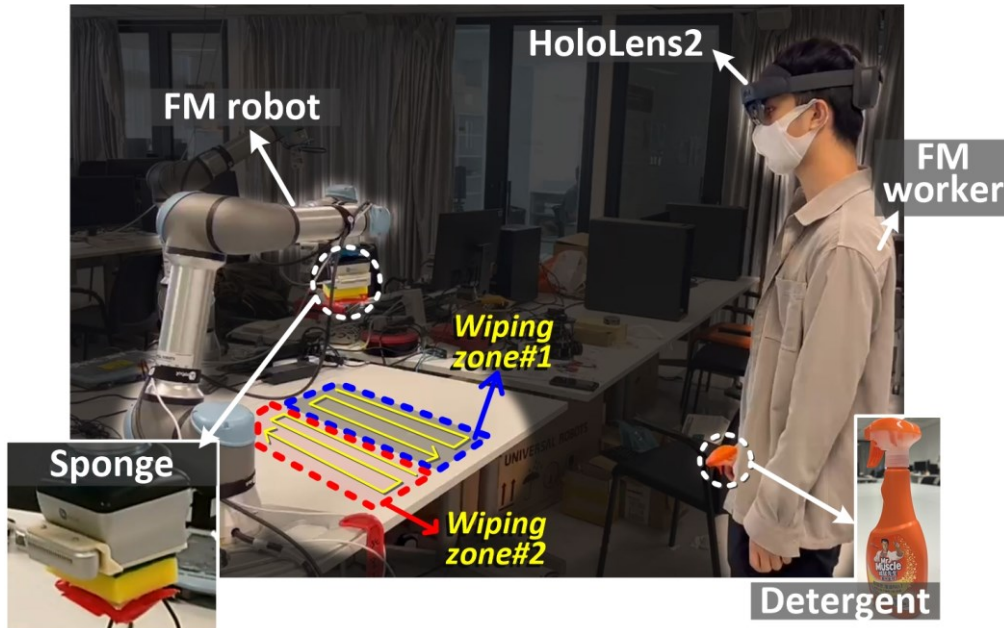
555 Scenario #1 demonstrates efficacy of the DT-enabled framework in addressing some  
556 problems of HRT in FM. a) Improved situational awareness. Via the real-time robot  
557 information twined to the system, all authorized human FM staff were able to monitor  
558 conditions of the robots through a Web-based portal. Compared with existing approach that  
559 can only access robot operating information via pendants attached onboard, this significantly  
560 improved humans' situational awareness toward the FM robots. b) Enhanced coordination  
561 across managerial hierarchy. The framework has been successful in coordinating FM staff at  
562 different level, e.g., the technician that monitored the robots via Web, and the manager that  
563 received warning messages via mobile phone, which has led to a more responsive mechanism  
564 to manage potential risks (e.g., to rapidly detect and repair a malfunctioned robot).

565

### 566 5.3.2 Scenario #2: Collaborative table disinfection using the OTCM

567 As shown in Fig. 9, the second scenario simulates a table disinfection task where a human  
568 worker needs to co-operate with a robot arm. The purpose of this case study is to demonstrate  
569 the predictive and visualization capability of the framework in coordinating the two parties.  
570 The task is broken down into two parts undertaken by human and robot, respectively. First,  
571 the human worker sprays detergent onto the table; second, the robot arm with a sponge  
572 attached wipes the table. In this human–robot collaboration task, the human worker should  
573 have a clear understanding of the robot's intention (e.g., its next move) so as to ensure a safe  
574 and effective collaboration. This can be realized by the developed OTCM, which was  
575 designed to enhance the HRT communication for onsite FM tasks.

576



577  
578 **Fig. 9.** Setup of the table disinfection task in Scenario #2.

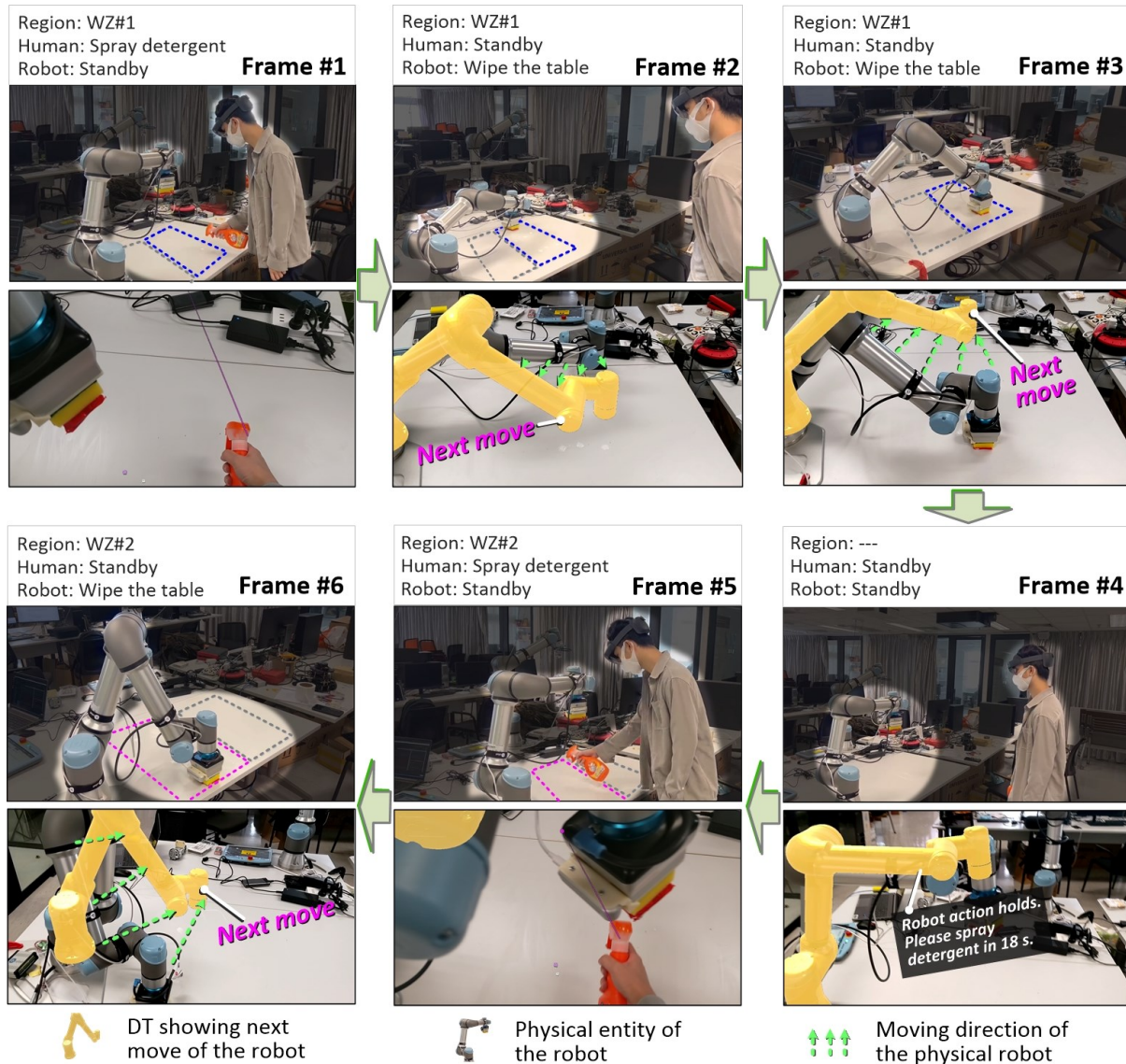
579  
580 There are two wiping zones (WZ) on the table, i.e., WZ#1 and WZ#2. During the process, it  
581 is critical for the FM worker to spray the detergent using the correct timing. Fig. 10 shows  
582 results of applying OTCM in task scenario #2. In each frame, the image in the first row  
583 represents a third-person view, whereas the one in the second row shows the view captured  
584 by the AR glasses.

585  
586 As shown by Frame#1 in Fig. 10, the human worker first sprayed detergent onto the table in  
587 WZ#1. Afterwards, the robot was activated to wipe the table by navigating its attached  
588 sponge across areas that have been sprayed (see Frame#2 and #3 of Fig. 10). The worker  
589 stood by and oversaw the process through the AR glasses as the robot arm executed the  
590 wiping operation. In the AR glasses, a robot DT is displayed to visualize the next move and  
591 moving direction of the robot arm. With the information provided, the FM worker can intuit  
592 his robot peer's intention so as to avoid potential collision. After the robot finished wiping  
593 WZ#1, it returned to its initial pose and a reminder was shown in the AR glasses so that the  
594 worker would spray detergent in the next region at the designated time (see Frame#4 of Fig.  
595 10). Getting the message that the robot would pause for some time, the worker understood it  
596 was his turn to spray the detergent in WP#2. After spraying, the wiping was executed by the  
597 robot arm again to disinfect the region, as shown in Frame#5 and #6 of Fig. 10.

598  
599 From the experiment, it can be seen that the OTCM, which is enabled by DT, can predict the  
600 robot's movement and convey it unambiguously and intuitively to the co-worker. Compared  
601 with business as usual where humans and robots work in a shared space but have no effective  
602 means to communicate with each other, the presented approach has lowered the risks of  
603 potential collision caused by misinterpretation of each other's intentions. With the approach,



604 trust can be built between robots and humans, leading to a more efficient and productive  
 605 collaboration. The results demonstrated a safe and efficient human-robot teaming for the  
 606 shared task of table disinfection.  
 607



608  
 609 **Fig. 10.** Implementation results of OTCM, which predicts and visualizes robot movements to  
 610 guide the human co-worker (Note: the top and bottom row in each frame represent the third-  
 611 person and the HoloLens view, respectively).  
 612

## 613 **6 Discussion**

614 Although the idea of service robots in built environments has existed for decades [5,6], it is  
 615 not until recent years that the use of robotics for FM has become prevalent. The growing  
 616 adoption of robots in human-inhabited environments poses a new challenge regarding how  
 617 teams of humans and robots can work collaboratively to accomplish FM together. The present  
 618 study provides a high-level framework to potentially solve the challenge by applying DT.  
 619

620 The prototyping and testing reveal important findings in terms of the adoption and  
621 generalization of the framework. First, the benefits of DT serving as a central hub of both  
622 information and control flow are demonstrated. Existing teaming of humans and robots in FM  
623 is in a sporadic and distributed manner, which leads to waste of resources because of  
624 insufficient coordination. Our centralized framework can effectively trace all the robotic  
625 resources and link them with human staff at different managerial levels, thus ensuring  
626 resources are utilized at their full capacity. This has been shown by Scenario #1 where  
627 malfunctioning robots were timely identified and FM staff of different roles are automatically  
628 notified. Second, by integrating DT's predictive capability and suitable user interface, the  
629 proposed framework is able to safely and productively coordinate human workers with FM  
630 robots for a shared task in a shared space. This is evident in Scenario #2, where visual cues  
631 (e.g., robot next move predicted by DT) were fed to the workers via AR in the right time to  
632 guide their behaviors. Thirdly, although the prototyping has not exhausted all FM  
633 services/tasks, it validates core principles (DT, multi-party collaboration, predictive analytics,  
634 visualization, etc.) of the proposed framework. Building upon it, the framework is scalable to  
635 more FM tasks for collaborative HRT in more realistic settings.

636

637 Despite the promise shown by the prototyping, it also uncovers two aspects of limitations. On  
638 the one hand, more realistic modelling of the robots and their interactive dynamics with  
639 human peers and environments should be incorporated to enable simulation at different  
640 scales. The case studies only include geometric models (for both the robots and facilities),  
641 knowledge of the FM tasks, and hard-coded rules, *inter alia*. They are sufficient for certain  
642 applications such as moving trajectory prediction and anomaly warning, but might fall short  
643 of achieving other functionalities like defect detection, human behavior prediction, and  
644 anomaly diagnosis. An example is manual identification of the root-cause of the overspeed  
645 warning in Scenario #1. Should the robot internal operating mechanisms and relevant  
646 diagnosis knowledge be modeled and included, the DT might be able to automatically  
647 diagnose the cause of the anomaly.

648

649 On the other hand, computation latency did not emerge as a major problem since the system  
650 responded instantly. However, this might only be valid in less computation-demanding  
651 scenarios. In running computation-intensive tasks (e.g., machine learning models to predict  
652 human behaviors), the required processing time will need to be considered. Another factor  
653 influencing the time performance is the physical distance over which the information is  
654 communicated. For example, if a robot needs to be remote controlled by a human from a  
655 different region (e.g., cross-city or even cross-country), the signal transmission may cost a  
656 delay that cannot be tolerated in time-sensitive tasks, e.g., emergency maintenance. Further  
657 research is needed to investigate how the aforementioned factors affect latency and to  
658 develop possible counter measures (e.g., use of high-performance computers and 5G).

659

## 660 **7 Conclusion**

661 To adapt to the increasing use of robotics for FM in social environments, a new framework is  
662 needed for coordinating teams of humans and robots. This research endeavors to establish  
663 one such framework, which adopts DT as a central communication hub to enable  
664 collaborative rather than sporadic human–robot interaction in FM. The framework is  
665 comprised of six layers, from the bottom up: the physical layer, middleware layer, virtual  
666 layer, service layer, interface layer, and user layer. According to the DT-enabled framework, a  
667 prototype system consisting of a cloud-based server cluster, a remote control and monitoring  
668 module, and an onsite task collaboration module is developed. The developed prototype was  
669 tested with two typical FM task scenarios. It is found that the system can effectively  
670 coordinate FM personnel at different managerial levels (managers, technicians, and FM  
671 workers) with the robotic agents.

672

673 The contribution is three-fold. First, a novel DT-enabled framework is proposed to provide a  
674 high-level architecture to facilitate collaboration between humans and robots in FM task  
675 implementation. In the framework, DT serves as a central hub to aggregate and process  
676 information about resources (humans and robots), and disseminate control instructions based  
677 on the processing results. All available robotic agents and their working environments can be  
678 considered as a whole, enabling multi-scale and multi-physics simulations. Because the FM  
679 robots are all closely overseen, predicted and controlled, the human–robot teaming is  
680 significantly improved. Secondly, by focusing on FM scenarios, the research contributes to  
681 the general theory of HRT. Existing studies on HRT mainly relate to urban SaR. As built  
682 facilities significantly differ from the collapsed ones in the SaR scenarios (indoor versus  
683 outdoor, flat floor versus rough terrain, etc.), the use case of FM presents an ideal testbed to  
684 examine how HRT can extend beyond its original field. Last but not least, the developed DT-  
685 enabled collaborative HRT framework provides another example of social-technical systems.  
686 FM robots, as a disruptive technology, affect every aspect of FM practice and the humans  
687 involved. The proposed framework harmonizes the social sphere (humans and organization)  
688 and the technology sphere (robots, DT), paving the way for safe and productive deployment  
689 of robots in built environments.

690

691 Future research is suggested to further develop the framework. First, as the study only intends  
692 to provide a high-level framework for HRT in FM, many components in the framework  
693 remain open for future exploration. For example, simulation of the DT relies on a diverse set  
694 of physics models. It is imperative for future research to explore and establish such scientific  
695 models as human behavior, interaction, and environments, which will serve as the core  
696 reasoning capability of the DT-enabled framework. Secondly, the research only considers  
697 human FM personnel and the FM robots. However, modern buildings are usually equipped  
698 with complex smart systems for elevator control, temperature and ventilation, fire alarming,  
699 etc. The framework should be integrated with these existing smart systems to facilitate



700 interoperability and enable more value-added applications.

701

## 702 **Declaration of competing interest**

703 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
704 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

705

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