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5 **APPLICATION-BASED DOMAIN ANALYSIS APPROACH AND
ITS OBJECT-PROCESS METHODOLOGY IMPLEMENTATION**

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21 Domain engineering can simplify the development of software systems in specific do-
23 mains. During domain analysis, the first step of domain engineering, the domain is
modeled at an abstract level, providing guidelines for modeling applications within that
25 domain. Drawbacks of existing domain analysis approaches include poor guidelines for
domain-specific application modeling, insufficient validations capability, and limited us-
27 ability. In this paper we apply the Application-based Domain Modeling (ADOM) to the
Object-Process Methodology (OPM). This application requires the extension of OPM
29 with a classification mechanism. Showing that the ADOM-OPM approach overcomes
limitations of existing approaches, we further verify experimentally that the level of cor-
31 rectness of an ADOM extended OPM model is higher than that achieved without the
extension. Finally, we ensure that the proposed extension does not degrade the generic
vanilla form of OPM.

33 *Keywords:* Domain engineering; domain analysis; software product line engineering;
object-process methodology; information systems development.

35 **1. Introduction**

37 Domain engineering is concerned with building reusable software core assets and
components in a specific domain of human interest [1, 2]. Domain engineering
activities include domain analysis, domain design, and domain implementation.

2 *A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory*

1 Domain analysis can be defined as a process by which information used in devel-
3 oping software systems in a specific domain is identified, captured, and organized
5 with the purpose of making it reusable when creating new systems in that domain.
6 Taking an object-centered viewpoint, Valerio *et al.* have viewed domain analysis as
7 the activity of identifying objects and operations of a class of similar systems in a
8 particular domain [3].

9 Domain analysis should “carefully bound the domain being considered, con-
10 sider commonalities and differences of the systems in the domain, organize an un-
11 derstanding of the relationships between the various elements in the domain, and
12 represent this understanding in a useful way” [1]. The initial phases of domain
13 analysis concern the identification of a domain (or a set of related domains) and
14 capturing the domain ontology and its variations within the domain. Subsequent
15 stages of domain engineering, namely domain design and domain implementation,
16 are concerned with mechanisms for translating the requirements into systems that
17 are made up of components with the intent of reusing these components effectively.

18 Methods developed to support domain analysis, reviewed by Czarnecki and
19 Eisenecker [4] and by Sturm and Reinhartz-Berger [5], suffer from a number of
20 weaknesses, including the following:

- 21 1. These domain analysis methods lack formality, making it difficult to validate
22 domain-specific applications against their domain models.
- 23 2. The notions and notations these methods employ for the domain models are
24 different from those used for the application models, limiting the possibility
25 of collaboration among the various stakeholders engaged in the development
26 process.
- 27 3. These methods address primarily the static aspect, characteristics, and con-
28 straints of the domain; their treatment of the domain’s dynamic aspect is lim-
29 ited.
- 30 4. These methods require the use of several views for the specification of both the
31 domain and the application within the domain, resulting in limited accessibility.

32 The Application-based Domain Modeling (ADOM) approach [5, 6] addresses
33 the above-mentioned problems. In particular, it addresses the first two limitations.
34 ADOM treats a domain as an application in its own right that needs to be modeled
35 before systems in that domain are specified and designed, yet the entire domain is
36 modeled as a regular application that serves as a reference to applications in that
37 domain. The same paradigm, along with its semantics — the set of concepts, and
38 its syntax — the set of symbols, is used for specifying domains and the applica-
39 tions within them. The modeled domain structure and behavior serve to define and
40 enforce static and dynamic constraints on models of application in that domain.

41 ADOM consists of three layers:

- 42 1. The language layer, which is concerned with the underlying modeling language,
43 pertinent ontologies, and their constraints.

- 1 2. The domain layer, which uses the language defined within the language layer to
3 model the various domains, including the building blocks of each domain and
 the relationships among them.
- 5 3. The application layer, which consists of domain-specific system models.

5 The ADOM approach explicitly enforces constraints among the different lay-
7 ers: the domain layer enforces constraints on the application layer, while the lan-
9 guage layer enforces constraints on both the application and domain layers. As we
 elaborate later, some of these constraints are syntactic, while others are semantic,
 requiring understanding of the selected modeling language.

11 To address the above limitations, using the language-independent characteris-
13 tics of ADOM, in this paper we have elected to implement the ADOM approach
15 using Object-Process Methodology [7] as the modeling language. We refer to this
17 implementation as ADOM-OPM. OPM is an integrated approach to the study and
19 development of systems. The choice of OPM for that purpose is due to its adequacy
21 to carry out the task at hand, as argued below. As a general-purpose systems model-
23 ing language, OPM has been used to model systems in various domains, including
 pattern recognition in mechanical engineering drawings [8], computer integrated
 manufacturing documentation and inspection [9], and Web applications [10]. These
 systems and others were modeled without first devising a domain-specific ontology
 infrastructure, as the ADOM approach advocates. OPM was selected as the model-
 ing language due to its advantages with respect to comprehension and construction
 of system models compared with multiple-view languages such as OMT and UML
 [11–13]. In particular, OPM addresses the third and the fourth limitations presented
 above.

25 The contribution of this paper is three-fold. First, we validate the suitability of
27 implementing the ADOM approach using a modeling paradigm and language other
29 than UML. Second, we extend OPM with facilities to support domain analysis
31 principles, making it more accessible and efficient for modeling domain-specific
 systems and products. Third, experimenting with ADOM-OPM, we provide an
 empirical proof of the advantage of carrying out domain modeling and engineering
 using this approach for domain modeling over the generic version of OPM.

33 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Secs. 2 and 3 we present the
35 ADOM approach and an overview of OPM, respectively. In Sec. 4 we introduce
37 ADOM-OPM and demonstrate its application by modeling the domain of access
 control systems and two particular systems within this domain: the drinks vending
 machine and the automatic teller machine. In Sec. 5 we describe an experiment we
 performed in order to put to test the suitability of ADOM-OPM for application
 modeling compared with OPM and report the results of this experiment. Section 6
39 discusses the benefits and drawbacks of the ADOM-OPM approach, and Section 7
 concludes with a summary and future research.

4 A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory

1 2. Application-Based Domain Modeling

3 The Application-based Domain Modeling (ADOM) approach is founded on a three-
 4 layered architecture: the language layer, the application layer, and the domain layer.
 5 Following the OMG-MOF [14] metamodeling framework, the *application layer*,
 6 which corresponds to the MOF model layer (M1), consists of models of particu-
 7 lar applications and may include their structure and behavior. The *language layer*,
 8 which corresponds to the MOF metamodel layer (M2), includes metamodels of mod-
 9 eling languages, such as UML, OPM, etc. The intermediate *domain layer*, which we
 10 label M1.5, consists of specifications of models of various domains. ADOM enforces
 11 constraints among the different layers: The domain layer enforces constraints on the
 12 application layer, while the language layer enforces constraints on both the domain
 13 and the application layers.

14 The ADOM architecture is generic, so it can be used for various purposes and
 15 with various modeling languages. Figure 1 depicts an instance of the ADOM archi-
 16 tecture, in which the application layer includes three application models: a poker
 17 game, a Web-based black jack game, and an auction site. The domain (intermediate,
 18 M1.5) layer on top of the application layer includes two domain models: gambling
 19 games and Web applications. By constraining these applications, the corresponding
 20 domain models provide guidelines for instantiating applications in the application
 21 layer of each domain. The language layer in this example includes OPM as the
 22 modeling language. The arrows in Fig. 1 show that the poker game is constrained
 23 by the gambling games domain, the auction site is constrained by the Web applica-
 tions domain, and the Web-based black jack is constrained by both domains. The

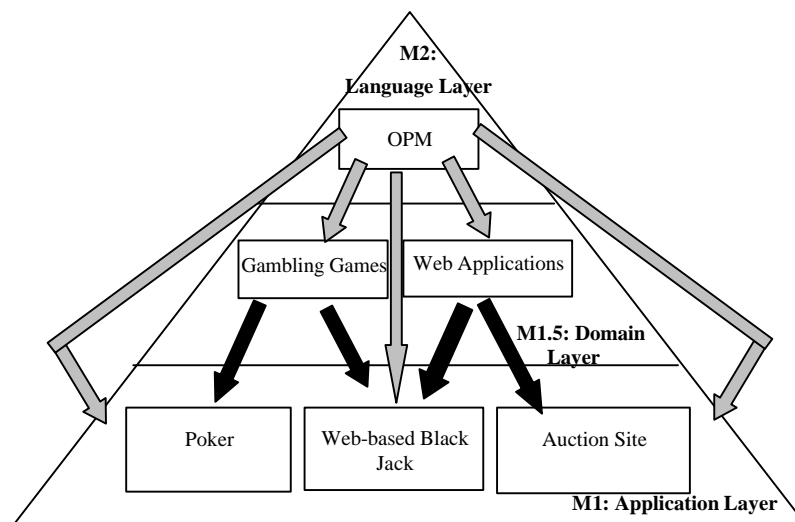


Fig. 1. An instance of the ADOM architecture with two domains and three applications.

1 gray arrows in Fig. 1 indicate syntactic constraints enforced by the language layer
2 on the domain and application layers in terms of modeling language usage, while
3 the black arrows indicate semantic constraints enforced by the domain layer on the
4 application layer.

5 ADOM has three purposes: (1) presenting domain models along with their con-
6 straints; (2) providing guidelines for instantiating application models in a specific
7 domain; and (3) validating application models against their corresponding domain
8 models.

9 While ADOM is general and language-independent, a specific modeling lan-
10 guage needs to be selected as a basis for a workable dialect of ADOM. In order
11 to apply ADOM, the only requirement from the associated modeling language is
12 to have a classification mechanism that enables categorization of elements within
13 a model. Mechanisms such as UML stereotypes and profiles do exist, but if the
14 modeling language has no classification mechanism, a modification of its specifi-
15 cation (via a metamodel) is required. In ADOM, the classification mechanism is
16 used within both the intermediate domain layer and the application layer. Within
17 the intermediate domain layer, the classification mechanism is used for variability
18 management of domain model elements. Variability management in ADOM uses
19 a multiplicity indicator to denote whether and to what extent a model element is
20 optional or mandatory in applications in that domain. Within the application layer
21 the classification mechanism is used for associating domain model elements with
22 application model elements. The application model element has the role of the as-
23 sociated domain model element. For example, in the domain model of the gambling
24 games, a player is a mandatory entity, which has to appear at least once within an
25 application model in that domain. In the Web-based black jack application model,
26 the dealer will play the role of a player, which appears in the domain model.

27 Since domain and application models are specified in ADOM in practically the
28 same way, the validation of a particular application model against a relevant domain
29 model can be done automatically. Validation in this context refers to the adherence
30 of the application model to the domain model after the instantiation of the domain
31 model to fulfill the requirements of the specific application. To avoid confusion, it
32 should be noted that the ADOM validation procedure does not refer to verifying the
33 fulfillment of the specific application requirements in the application model. Rather,
34 it refers to checking the fulfillment of the domain constraints in the application
35 model. As the domain model captures the domain knowledge, the intention of the
36 specific application model should be retained. The validation of an application
37 against its domain model is performed in three steps: element reduction, element
38 unification, and model matching. For that purpose a virtually new model is built.

39 In the *element reduction* step, things (objects or processes) that have no role
40 assigned to them (since they are particular to the specific application) are removed
41 from the application model. As a consequence, we might need to remove or change
42 things in the application model. The result of this step is the reduced application
43 model.

1 During the *element unification* step, things having the same role in the re-
 3 duced application model are unified, leaving only one thing for those that are rele-
 vant from the domain model and changing its name to its corresponding role name.
 5 The multiplicity of these things denotes the number of distinct classes of things
 in the application model having the same role. The result of this step is termed
 verifiable model.

7 *Model matching* is the third and final step, during which the verifiable model
 is checked for agreement with the domain model. When validating an application
 9 model in a specific domain, the multiplicity indicators constraints are checked. The
 matching procedure checks the following:

- 11 1. All the things (objects or processes) in the model are termed as domain model
 elements.
- 13 2. For each thing in the verifiable model, the boundaries of the actual multiplicity
 do not exceed the values of the multiplicity of the corresponding domain model
 15 element.

Formally expressed, $\forall e \in \text{VerifiableModel} \exists de \in \text{DomainModel} e.\text{name} =$
 17 $de.\text{name} \wedge e.\text{actualMultiplicity}.\text{min} \wedge de.\text{multiplicity}.\text{min} \wedge e.\text{actualMultiplicity}.$
 $\text{max} \leq de.\text{multiplicity}.\text{max}.$

- 19 3. Each thing in the domain model that does not appear in the verifiable model
 has minimal multiplicity (in the domain model) of 0.

21 Additional language-specific constraints may also be checked (e.g., logical connec-
 tors, guards, flow, and order). However, since such constraints are specific to the
 23 language selected for implementing ADOM, it is not dealt with in this section. We
 demonstrate the various capabilities of ADOM in Sec. 4.

25 3. Object-Process Methodology

Object-Process Methodology [7] is an integrated approach to the study and devel-
 27 opment of systems. The basic premise of OPM is that (possibly stateful) objects
 and processes are two types of equally important classes of things, which together
 29 describe the function, structure and behavior of systems in a single framework
 in virtually any domain. OPM unifies the system lifecycle stages — specification,
 31 design and implementation — within one frame of reference, using a single dia-
 gramming tool — a set of Object-Process Diagrams (OPDs) and a corresponding
 33 subset of English, called Object-Process Language (OPL), that is intelligible to
 executives and domain experts who are usually not familiar with system modeling
 35 methods, let alone programming jargon. At the same time, OPL is amenable to
 machine compilation for code generation and database schema specification due to
 37 its formal definition by a context-free grammar. In summary, the OPM framework,
 expressed visually by the OPD-set and textually by the OPL script, provides the
 39 ability to grasp the entire system through one visual language, which is useful pri-

Table 1. Main OPM concepts.

Concept Name	Symbol	Definition
Object		An entity that has the potential of stable, unconditional physical or mental existence.
Process		A pattern of transformation that objects undergo.
Essence		An attribute that determines whether the thing (object or process) is physical or informational.
Affiliation		An attribute that determines whether the thing is environmental or internal.
Initial/ Regular/ Final/ Default State		A situation at which an object can exist for a period of time.
Exhibition- Characterization		A fundamental structural relation from a thing (object or process) or a tagged structural relation to a feature (attribute or operation) it exhibits.
Generalization- Specialization		A fundamental structural relation, which denotes the fact that a thing generalizes one or more specialized things.
Aggregation- Participation		A fundamental structural relation, which denotes the fact that a thing aggregates (i.e., consists of, or comprises) one or more things, each of which is referred to as a part of it.
Tagged structural relationship		An association between two things that holds true in the system irrespective of the time of inspection.
Instrument link		A procedural link indicating that a process requires an object for its execution (has a "wait until" meaning).
Effect link		A procedural link indicating that a process changes an object.
Result/ Consumption link		A procedural link indicating that a process creates/consumes an object.
Invocation link		A procedural link indicating that a process activates (invokes) another process.
Event link		A procedural link representing an event (data change, external, etc.) which activates a process.
Condition link		A procedural link representing a condition required for a process execution (has an "if" meaning).
Agent link		A procedural link indicating that a human actor is required for a process execution.

1 marily for system architects and developers, and one textual language, which is
2 useful for domain experts.

3 Table 1 presents the main OPM concepts with their definitions and graphical
4 symbols,, including the OPM/T [15] and OPM/Web [10] enhancements used in this
5 paper. A comprehensive specification of OPM is provided by [7].

6 In OPM, an object class can be either systemic (internal) or environmental
7 (external to the system). Furthermore, an object class can be either physical or
8 informatical (logical). An object class can be at one of several states, which are
9 possible internal status values of the class objects. At any point in time, each object
10 is at some state, and an object is transformed (generated, consumed, or change its
11 state) through the occurrence of a process. A process can affect (change the state of
12 of) an environmental or a physical device, or the state or value of a specific attribute
13 of an object class (rather than the state of the entire class, as in object-oriented
14 methods).

15 Unlike the object-oriented approach, behavior in OPM is not necessarily en-
16 capsulated within a particular object class. Allowing the concept of a stand-alone
17 process, one can model behavior which involves several object classes that enable

1 and/or are transformed by the process. Processes can be connected to the involved
2 object classes through procedural links, which are classified into three groups: en-
3 abling links, transformation links, and control links. OPM also supports the defi-
4 nition of multiple scenarios which use the same entities. This is done by labeling
5 paths composed of chains of procedural links. These path labels are also used to re-
6 move the ambiguity arising from multiple outgoing procedural links from the same
7 process.

8 OPM's two main built-in refinement/abstraction (also called scaling) mecha-
9 nisms, unfolding/folding and in-zooming/out-zooming, help manage system com-
10 plexity. Unfolding/folding is applied by default to objects for detailing/hiding
11 their structural components (parts, specializations, features, or instances). In-
12 zooming/out-zooming is applied by default to processes for exposing/hiding their
13 sub-process components and details of the process execution. A third scaling mech-
14 anism, state expression/suppression, provides for showing or hiding any subset of
15 states of an object class. OPM's scaling mechanisms facilitate focusing on a par-
16 ticular subset of things (objects and/or processes), elaborating on their details by
17 refining each thing to any desired level of detail, and managing the complexity of
18 a system model.

19 The ability to use a single OPM model for specifying the important system as-
20 pects — function, structure and behavior — prevents compatibility and integration
21 problems among different diagram types by avoiding the model multiplicity prob-
22 lem [11]. In addition, expressiveness is increased as there is a possibility to define
23 system changes at all levels of granularity.

4. ADOM-OPM Demonstrated Using the Access Control Domain

25 To implement ADOM-OPM we found it necessary to extend OPM with a classi-
26 fication mechanism by introducing only two new features: (1) A role, which is a
27 stereotype-like element, used within the application model to denote additional se-
28 mantics for an OPM thing, and (2) a multiplicity indicator, used within the domain
29 model to constrain the number of OPM things (objects or processes) of some class
30 that can be modeled in an application. The rest of this section presents the domain
31 and application models of the Access Control (AC) using the ADOM-OPM ap-
32 proach and the validation of the application model with the corresponding domain
33 model.

34 Applications within the AC domain are concerned with problems related to
35 accessing objects, and resources using well-defined access policies and procedures.
36 Examples include systems that access databases using batch and interactive inter-
37 faces, and local (batch or interactive) and remote access to software and hardware
38 objects in a computer network [16]. Application areas within the AC domain include
39 such devices as product vending machines, automated teller machines (ATMs), and
40 gambling machines.

1 In AC applications, clients interact with a machine to acquire specific products,
 3 and their interactions are recorded. In addition, a human operator usually performs
 5 maintenance operations. Since applications in the AC domain manage items and
 their monetary related aspects, an item identification process may be required. For
 any interaction, item and cash availability validation is performed, followed by an
 update of the relevant information upon successful interaction.

7 In what follows we demonstrate an ADOM-OPM deployment by presenting an
 AC domain model in Sec. 4.1 and examples for corresponding application models
 9 in Sec. 4.2, while in Sec. 4.3 we demonstrate the validation of application models
 against the domain model.

11 4.1. The ADOM-OPM domain layer

ADOM advocates modeling the domain as a bona fide application. Hence, as Fig. 1
 13 shows, OPM is used as the modeling language for both the domain model and
 the application model, and each will be constructed as an OPM model with its
 15 OPD set.

Figure 2, which depicts the system diagram (SD, top level) of the AC domain,
 17 shows that it consists of three environmental (external) entities — **Client**,^a
Machine, and **Maintenance Entity**, two processes — **Operation** and
 19 **Maintenance**, and four systemic objects — **Owner**, **Company**, **Transaction**,
 and **Machine Info**. The symbols “*” and “+” at the bottom right edge of some
 21 OPM things (objects or processes) are the multiplicity indicators, which respec-
 23 tively indicate zero to many and 1 to many multiplicity constraints of these things
 within an application model. For example, the + symbol within **Client** in Fig. 2
 25 indicates that at least one object classified (with a role) as **Client** should appear

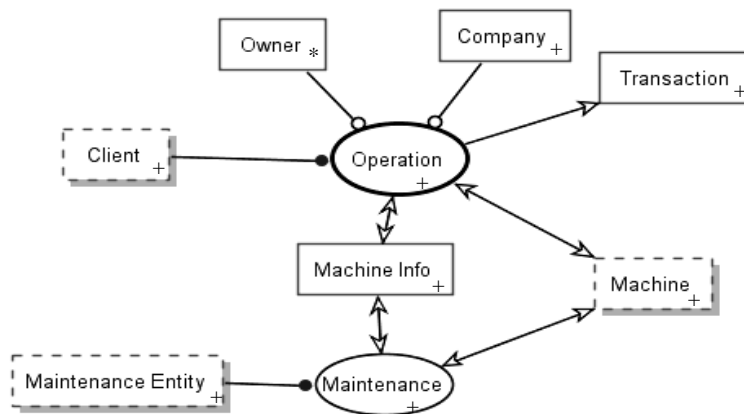


Fig. 2. System Diagram of the Access Control (AC) domain.

^aBold face font indicates a thing name within the model.

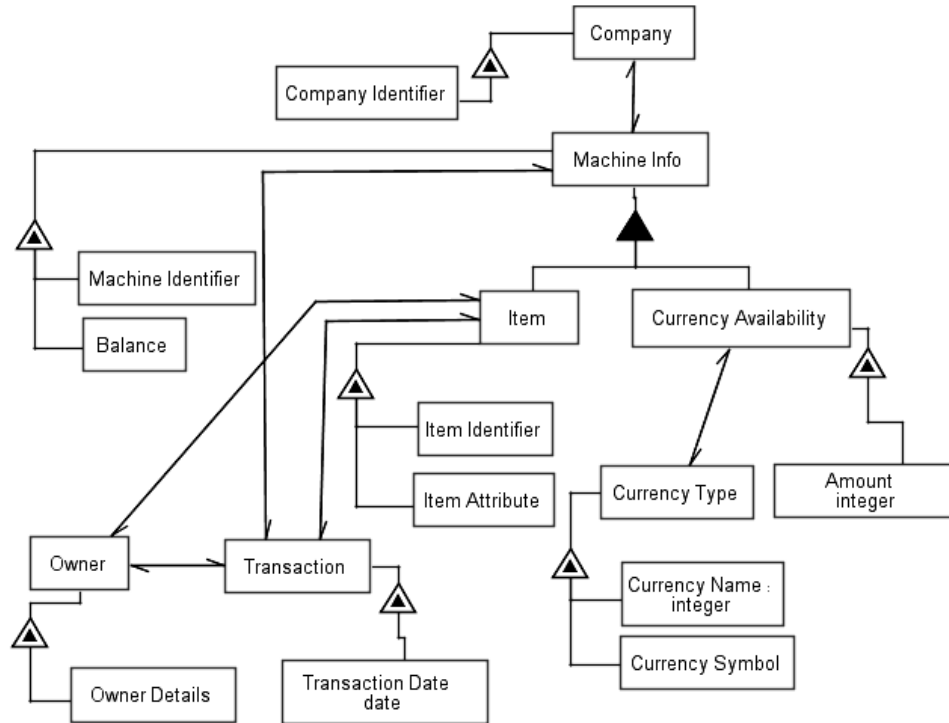
10 *A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory*

Fig. 3. Machine Info from the top-level AC domain model in Fig. 2 unfolded.

1 within any application models in the AC domain. In addition, links in the OPM
 2 domain model induce constraints on the pertaining application models between
 3 respective things. For example, the **Operation** process yields a **Transaction**. This
 4 domain model assertion induces a constraint that should hold in any application
 5 within the AC domain.

6 Unfolded in Fig. 3, **Machine Info** is shown to consist of at least one **Item**
 7 object and many **Currency Availability** objects. **Item** exhibits (i.e., has the
 8 attribute of) **Item Identifier** and at least one **Item Attribute**, and it refers to
 9 many **Transactions** and to at least one **Owner**. **Currency Availability** exhibits
 10 **Amount** and refers to **Currency Type**, which exhibits **Currency Name** and
 11 at least one **Currency Symbol**. **Machine Info** exhibits at least one **Machine**
 12 **Identifier** and an optional **Balance**. **Machine Info** refers to a **Company**
 13 and to many **Transactions**. **Company** exhibits **Company Identifier**. **Transaction**
 14 exhibits **Transaction Date** and optionally refers to **Owner**, which exhibits at
 15 least one **Owner Details**.

16 In Fig. 4, the **Operation** process is elaborated using the in-zooming mechanism
 17 of OPM. The time line within an in-zoomed process flows from top to bottom and
 18 determines the order of process execution. Hence, the sub processes in Fig. 4 occur
 19 in the following order:

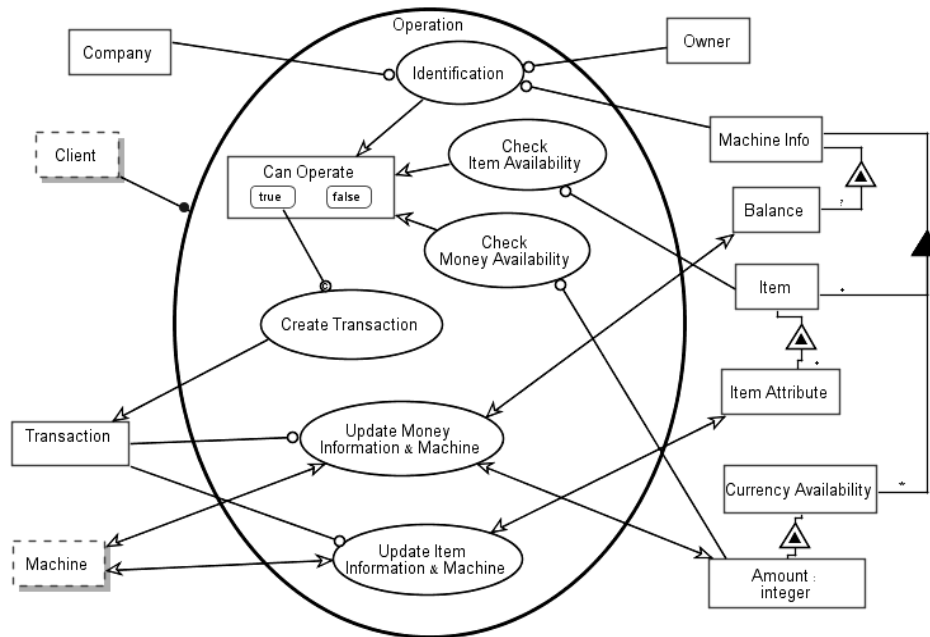


Fig. 4. The process Operation in-zoomed.

- 1 1. An **Identification** process, which, as indicated by the multiplicity indicator “*”,
- 3 is optional, requires the objects **Company**, **Owner**, and **Machine Info**, and
- 5 yields the Boolean object **Can Operate**.
- 7 2. At least one **Check Item Availability** process (as indicated by the multiplicity
- 9 indicator “+”), which requires an **Item** object and yields a **Can Operate**
- 11 object.
- 13 3. At least one **Check Money Availability** process, which requires an **Amount**
- 15 object and yields a **Can Operate** object.
4. A **Create Transaction** process, which is activated if the **Can Operate** object
- is **true**, in which case it yields a **Transaction** object.
5. At least one **Update Money Information & Machine** process, which requires
- the **Transaction** object and affects **Balance**, **Money Amount**, and **Machine**;
- and
6. At least one **Update Item Information and Machine** process, which requires
- Transaction** and affects **Item Attribute** and **Machine**.

4.2. The ADOM-OPM application layer

- 17 The AC domain model resides within the domain layer (M1.5) and serves as a
- 19 basis for constructing application models within that domain in the application
- layer (M1). The domain model provides guidelines for modeling an application,

12 A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory

1 and inducing constraints on the application model, it also serves as a validation
 2 template. We next model two AC domain applications: drink vending machine
 3 (DVM) and automatic teller machine (ATM) [16]. Using these applications, we
 4 demonstrate the correspondence between the domain model and its applications,
 5 and show the commonalty and variability among applications.

4.2.1. The Drink Vending Machine application

7 The DVM application manages machines that belong to various companies. Each
 8 machine is identified by its location and the company that owns it. The application
 9 stores the name and telephone number of each company. Each machine can be
 10 operated using several coin types. The products sold by each machine are identified
 11 by their name and producer. When a customer buys a drink, the system first needs
 12 to check whether the product is available and, if needed, whether coins for change
 13 are available. When the customer buys a drink, the system generates a transaction,
 14 updates the relevant information within the machine, and notifies the (physical)
 15 machine about the product and any change coins it needs to deliver. A machine
 16 operator can fill drinks and load coins into the machine.

17 Figure 5 presents SD, the system (top-level) diagram of the DVM application.
 18 In the application layer model, each thing (i.e., an object or a process) is associ-
 19 ated with a role. For example, the object **Customer** is associated with a *Client*^b
 20 role, which is an object in the domain layer model. The **Buy A Drink** process is
 21 associated with the *Operation* role, a process in the domain layer model.

22 Note that the domain model objects **Owner** and **Company** do not appear
 23 as roles in the application model, since they are not required in this applica-
 24 tion, demonstrating the ability of ADOM-OPM to capture variability within a
 25

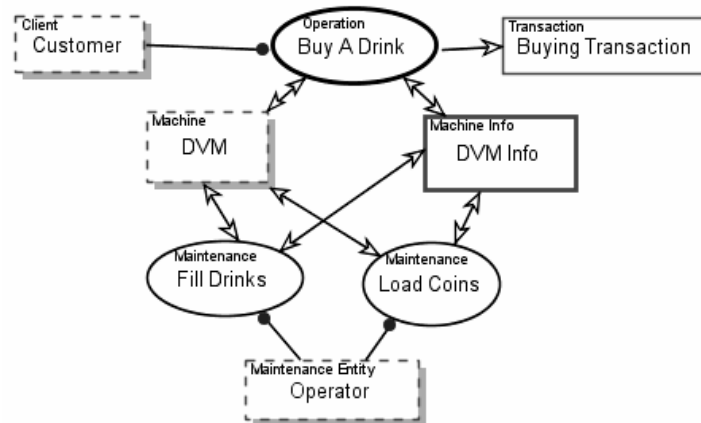


Fig. 5. System diagram of the Drink Vending Machine.

^bItalic font indicates a classifying role within the application model.

1 domain using multiplicity constraints. They are not required since their dependee
 2 process — identification is redundant as shown in Fig. 7.

3 As Fig. 5 shows, the system features three top-level processes:

- 4 1. **Buy A Drink**, which is triggered by **Customer**, yields **Buying Transaction**,
 5 and affects (i.e., changes the state of) **DVM** and **DVM Info**.
- 6 2. **Fill Drinks**, which is triggered by **Operator** and affects **DVM** and **DVM**
 7 **Info**.
- 8 3. **Load Coins**, which, like **Fill Drinks**, is triggered by **Operator** and affects
 9 **DVM** and **DVM Info**.

10 Note that **Buy A Drink** process conforms to the constraints induced by the
 11 *Operation* process, while **Fill Drinks** and **Load Coins** processes conform to the
 12 constraints induced by the *Maintenance* process in the domain model shown in
 13 Fig. 2.

14 Constrained by the domain model OPD of Fig. 3, Fig. 6 is an OPD in which
 15 **DVM Info** is unfolded. The roles specified within the domain model are mapped
 16 to the object and process application classes. For example, the **Producer**, labeled
 17 with the role *Owner*, exhibits **Producer Name** and **Producer Address**, which
 18 are labeled with the role *Owner Details*, demonstrating how the domain model
 19 guides the modeling of the application.

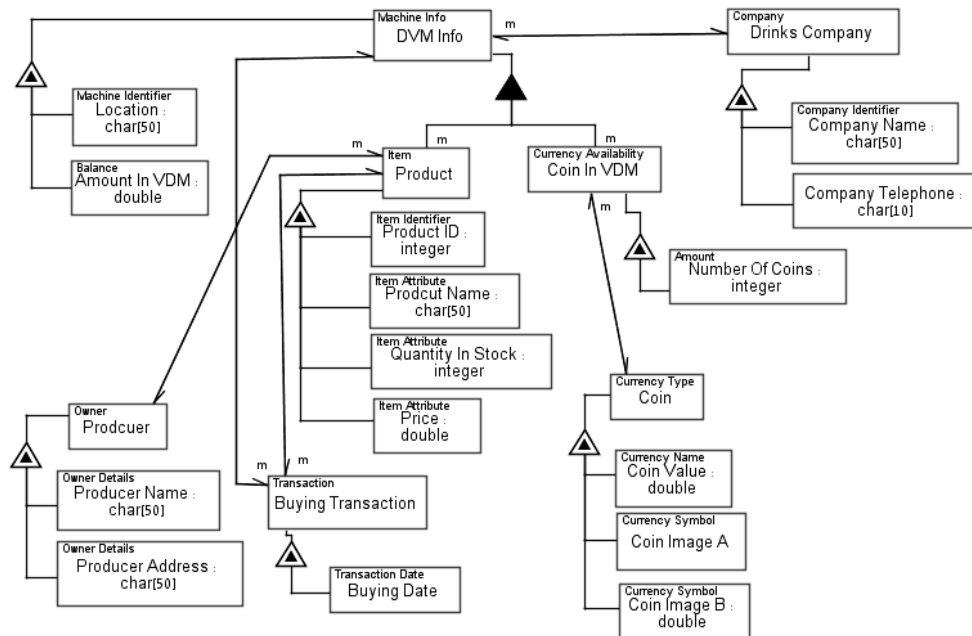


Fig. 6. DVM Info from the OPD in Fig. 5 unfolded.

14 A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory

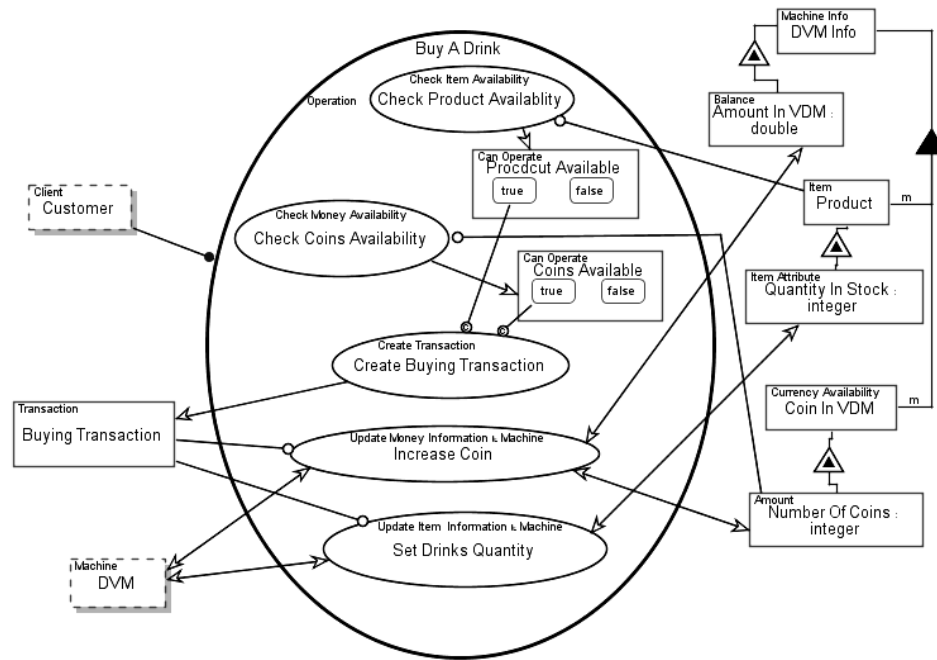


Fig. 7. The process Drink Buying in-zoomed.

1 The **Buy A Drink** process, which is in-zoomed in Fig. 7, conforms to the con-
 2 straints specified in the domain model, as described in Fig. 4. Overall, the sequence
 3 of application processes follows the pattern specified in the domain model. The lack
 4 on an *Identification* process is acceptable, since it was specified as optional in the
 5 domain model.

4.2.2. The Automatic Teller Machine application

7 The ATM application manages several machines that belong to a bank. Each ma-
 8 chine is identified by its location and the bank that owns it. The system stores the
 9 bank name. Each ATM recognizes and can handle several bill types. An account can
 10 be accessed using a customer card. When a customer wishes to withdraw money
 11 from the ATM, he or she is identified, the associated account eligibility is checked,
 12 and bills availability is determined. When the customer withdraws money, the sys-
 13 tem creates a transaction, updates the ATM and the account balance, and notifies
 14 the machine about the bills it needs to deliver. A bank clerk can fill the ATM with
 15 bills. The system diagram of the ATM application is depicted in Fig. 8.

16 Like the DVM, the ATM application model adheres to the Access Control do-
 17 main model. In the ATM model, however, a non-domain process (a process not
 18 represented in the domain model), **Process Operation**, was added. This addi-
 19 tional process does not violate the constraints defined by the domain model, hence

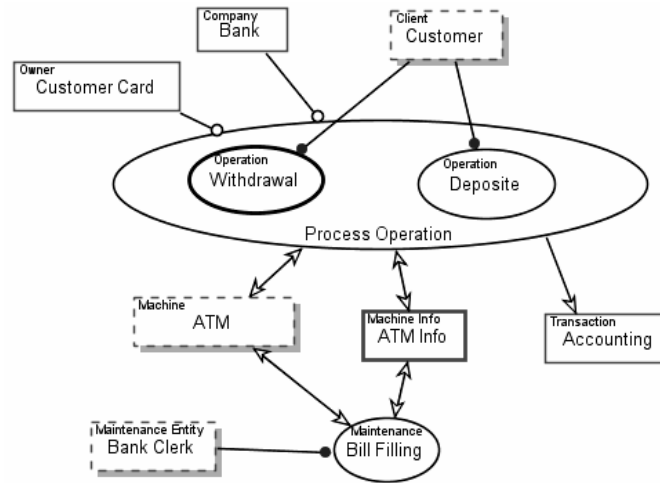


Fig. 8. System diagram of the Automatic Teller Machine.

1 it is valid. The links in the ATM model also conform with those in the domain
 2 model, as links attached to an aggregate process (e.g., **Process Operation**) are
 3 also linked to each internal process, as defined within the domain model, e.g., be-
 4 tween **Owner** and **Operation**.

5 Using the AC domain OPD in Fig. 3 as a template and guidelines for modeling
 6 applications within the AC domain, **ATM Info** is unfolded in the OPD depicted
 7 in Fig. 9. The **Withdrawal** process, which is in-zoomed in Fig. 10, follows the con-
 8 straints induced by the domain model, as specified in Fig. 4. Overall, the sequence
 9 of application processes follows the pattern specified in the domain model, including
 an *Identification* process, which was missing in the DVM application model.

11 4.3. Validating the application model

12 As noted above, a major benefit of a good domain analysis method is its ability
 13 to validate an application model with respect to its domain model. ADOM-OPM-
 14 based validation of an application against its domain model is performed in three
 15 steps: element reduction, element unification, and model matching as discussed in
 16 Sec. 2. In this section we demonstrate the validation process on the case study of
 17 the drink vending machine.

18 In the element reduction step, nothing is done since all elements within the
 19 application model are classified with their corresponding domain model elements.

20 Figures 11–13 present results of the element unification step in terms of the
 21 verifiable model. This model is created only for validation purposes and may even
 22 be syntactically incorrect. Yet, it fulfils its validation goals. This model serves as
 23 the vehicle for validating the application model against its corresponding domain
 model.

16 A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory

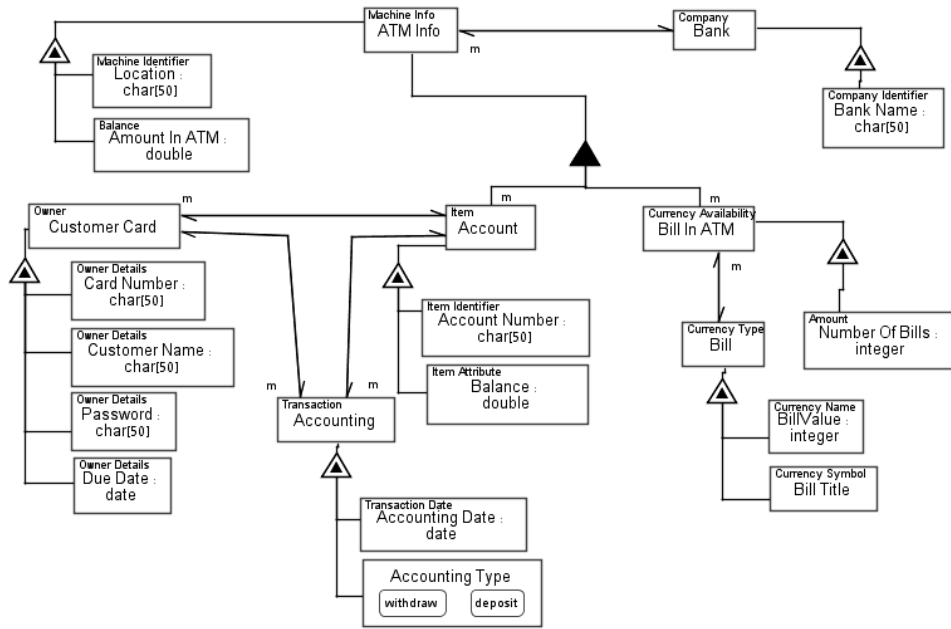


Fig. 9. ATM Info Unfolded.

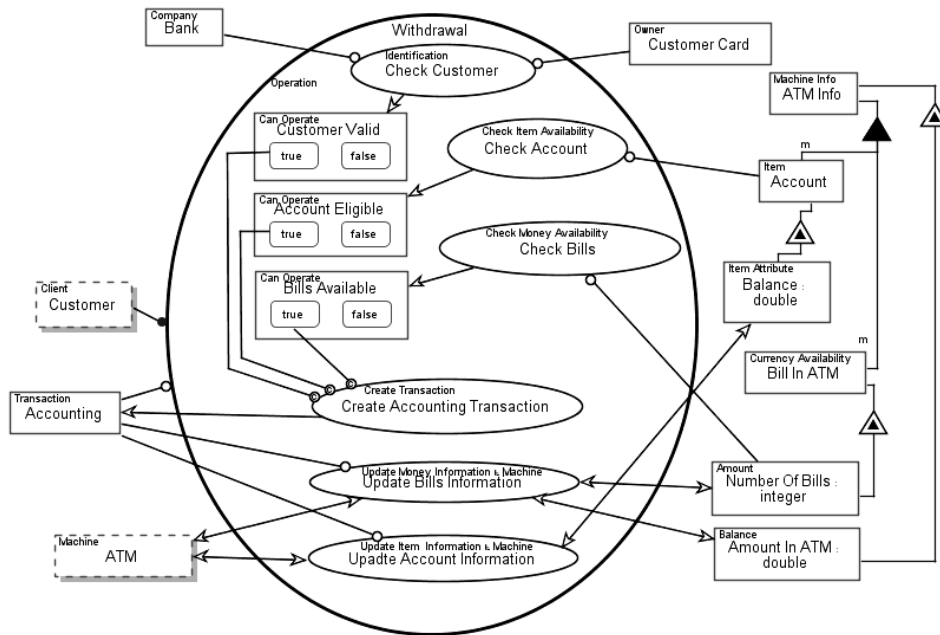


Fig. 10. Withdrawal process in-zoomed.

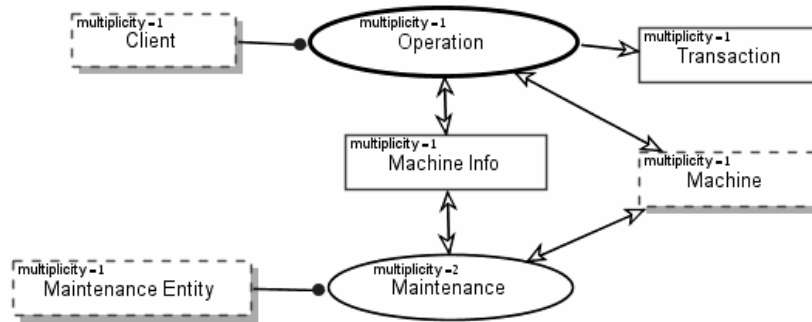


Fig. 11. System Diagram of the verifiable model for the Drink Vending Machine.

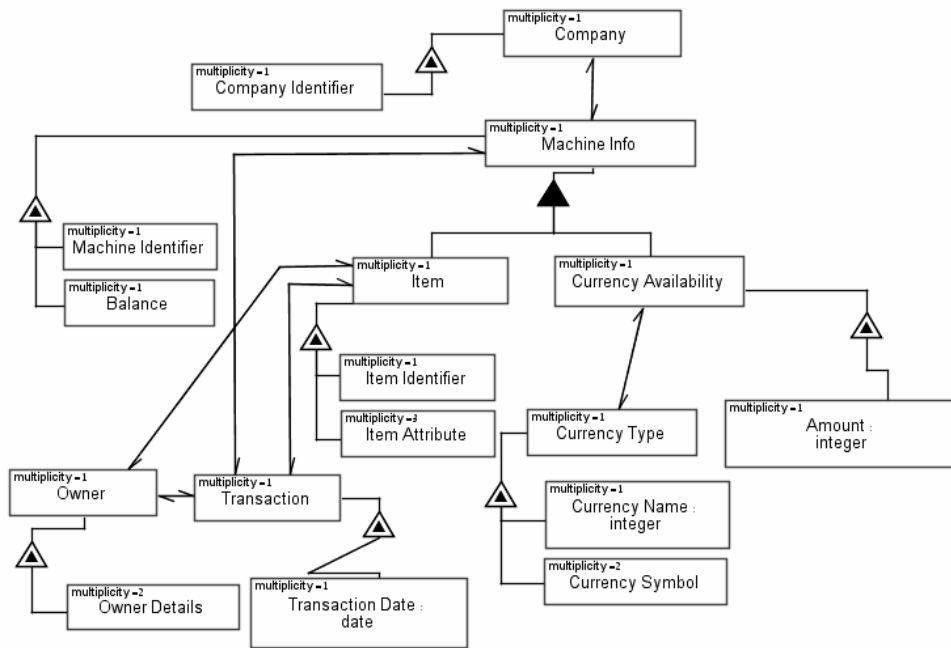


Fig. 12. Machine Info unfolded OPD of the verifiable model for Drink Vending Machine.

- 1 Following the matching algorithm provided in Sec. 2 these facts hold:
1. All elements in the verifiable model are termed as domain model elements.
- 3 2. For each element in the verifiable model, the boundaries of the actual multiplicity do not exceed the values of the multiplicity of the corresponding domain model element.
- 5 3. Each element in the domain model that does not appear in the verifiable model has minimal multiplicity (in the domain model) of 0. For example, the
- 7

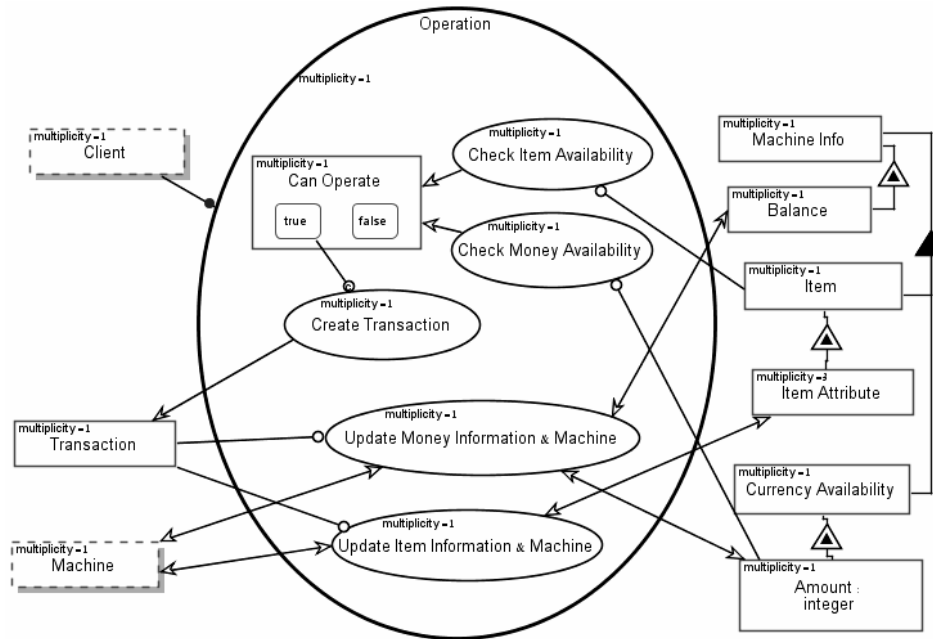
18 *A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory*

Fig. 13. Operate in-zoomed OPD of the verifiable model for Drink Vending Machine.

1 identification process does not appear in the DVM application model. As it has
 2 a minimal multiplicity of 0, the application model also adheres to the domain
 3 model regarding that process.

4 Analyzing these results, none of the specified constrains induced by the domain
 5 model are violated by the DVM verifiable model, implying that the DVM applica-
 tion model is in agreement with its AC domain model.

7 5. Evaluating ADOM-OPM

8 In order to evaluate ADOM-OPM, we conducted an experiment that compares
 9 it with “vanilla” OPM. The goal of the experiment was to determine whether
 10 application modeling that is based on and guided by a domain model improves the
 11 resulting application model compared with an application model that is developed
 12 without the support of a domain model. In this section, we present the experiment
 13 and its results.

14 5.1. *Experiment hypothesis*

15 The null hypothesis of our experiment was that an application model constructed
 16 using ADOM-OPM is not more complete (in terms of requirements coverage) and
 17 not more accurate (in terms of syntax and semantics of OPM models) than the

1 model of the same system resulting from using OPM alone. The alternative hypoth-
2 esis is that there is a significant difference between the completeness and accuracy
3 of the models constructed with and without the domain models. Possible reasons
4 for accepting this conjecture may be that the ADOM-OPM domain model provides
5 a framework that guides the modeler in creating the application model within the
6 domain of discourse and helps her avoid making mistakes that may occur without
7 such guidance.

5.2. Experiment settings

9 The subjects of the experiment were 118 third-year students in a four-year engi-
10 neering B.Sc. program at the Technion, Israel Institute of Technology, who took
11 the course “Specification and Analysis of Information Systems” during the winter
12 semester of the 2004–5 academic year. The students had no prior knowledge or
13 experience in system modeling and specification. During the course, the students
14 studied various modeling techniques, including Data Flow Diagram (DFD), UML,
15 Statecharts, and OPM. The last lecture of the course was devoted to the ADOM
16 approach and its applications in UML and OPM.

17 The experiment took place during the final examination of the course. The ex-
18 amination consisted of three problems, each relating to a different domain: (1) The
19 Resource Allocation and Tracking (RAT) systems domain which refers to applica-
20 tions that register requests from outside sources, assign resources to resolve requests
21 and inform interested client systems of the status; (2) the Process Control (PC)
22 systems domain, which refers to applications that monitor and control the values
23 of certain variables; and (3) the Access Control (AC) systems domain.

24 The RAT domain problem contained requirements calling for modeling of an
25 elevator system that needs to allocate an elevator for a specific call. The PC domain
26 problem required modeling of a water tank’s filling control system and the AC
27 domain problem called for modeling a drink vending machine akin to that described
28 in Sec. 4.2.1. The requirements in all three problems were similar to those specified
29 for the DVM application.

30 We prepared three different examination versions, labeled V1, V2, and V3, each
31 with two problems. In each problem (and its respective domain) about half of the
32 students were also provided with the OPM-based domain model, while the other
33 half did not get it. This way, each version included one question with a domain
34 model and one question without a domain model. The questions were checked and
35 validated by three OPM and ADOM experts.

36 The students were divided arbitrarily into three groups, each responding to a
37 different examination version. The distribution of students by the three examination
38 questions and the three question domains is provided in Table 2, where the numbers
39 of students who responded to each question in each version appear in parenthesis.
40 Examining the student groups using the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA test on students’
41 cumulative average grade over their three years of study, we found no statistically
42 significant differences between the groups ($H(2, N = 118) = 3.45, p = 0.177$).

Table 2. Students' distribution by examination version and question domain.

Examination Version \ Question Domain	V1	V2	V3
Resource Allocation and Tracking (RAT)	OPM (32)		ADOM-OPM (39)
Process Control (PC)		ADOM-OPM (38)	OPM (28)
Access Control (AC)	ADOM-OPM (41)	OPM (32)	

1 5.3. Experiment results

3 All the questions were graded by the course staff. Each one of the graders checked
 5 a question in one domain for all students according to a predefined set of criteria.
 7 Each question could score up to 34 points. Table 3 summarizes the average scores
 9 students achieved for each question in OPM and in ADOM-OPM. As no correlation
 11 was found among the questions within a single subject, we performed a t-test^c to
 13 evaluate the differences between the achievements of students who were provided
 15 with the domain model in addition to the requirements, and those of students who
 17 did not get the domain model. This evaluation was done separately for each one of
 19 the three domains.

11 Table 3 clearly shows that using the ADOM-OPM, the students achieved bet-
 13 ter results than with OPM alone, and that these results are domain independent.
 15 Performing a mean comparison statistical analysis (i.e., t-test) we found that the
 17 differences between the two methods were significant for each domain separately.
 19 Hence we accept the alternative hypothesis regarding the benefits of modeling with
 ADOM-OPM compared with generic OPM modeling. Examining the results in de-
 tail we found out that the models done using ADOM-OPM scored better than
 models done with OPM alone in terms of the correct use of objects, processes,
 relations and links, and in terms of model completeness.

21 Table 4 presents the detailed analysis results. Each model was examined by
 23 four correctness and completeness criteria: objects, relations, processes, and links.
 Analyzing the results, we found out that the domain model helped identify mainly

Table 3. Average total scores for each domain with OPM and ADOM-OPM.

Method \ Domain	RAT	PC	AC
OPM	23.06	27.07	25.06
ADOM-OPM	25.32	30.64	28.19
Significance	$p < 0.01$	$p < 0.01$	$p < 0.02$

^cA t-test is a statistical test of the null hypothesis that the means of two normally distributed populations are equal.

Table 4. Average scores for objects, relations, processes, and links.

Domain \ Method	RAT				PC				AC			
	Objects	Relations	Processes	Links	Objects	Relations	Processes	Links	Objects	Relations	Processes	Links
OPM	12.02	2.93	4.72	3.39	13.52	3.18	3.41	6.96	13.33	1.72	6.36	3.66
ADOM-OPM	13.1	2.67	5.27	4.28	16.2	3.29	4.03	7.13	14.76	2.15	6.76	4.54
Significance	<u>$p < 0.02$</u>	$p < 0.11$	<u>$p < 0.01$</u>	<u>$p < 0.02$</u>	<u>$p < 0.01$</u>	$p < 0.63$	<u>$p < 0.1$</u>	$p < 0.52$	<u>$p < 0.03$</u>	<u>$p < 0.03$</u>	$p < 0.3$	<u>$p < 0.01$</u>

1 the objects and processes of the specific application. The drink vending machine
2 problem (from the access control domain) is an exception with respect to process
3 identification since the processes in this problem were described explicitly, so their
4 identification was relatively easy. Consequently, no significant differences were found
5 between the grades of the students who got the domain model and those who did
6 not get the domain model.

7 Students who used the domain model also achieved better results with respect
8 to relationships and links correctness and completeness, but these differences were
9 not significant in two of the three cases. A possible reason for this lack of significant
10 difference is that once the correct processes and objects have been identified, their
11 associations are quite straightforward, so there is no need for extra help from the
12 domain model. In one case, the RAT domain problem — the scores with respect
13 the relationships were in favor of OPM alone rather than the ADOM-OPM. This
14 might occur due to the fact that the correlation between the domain model and the
15 application model was not easy to achieve.

16 Summarizing the experiment, we found out that ADOM-OPM had improved the
17 resulting model, compared with a model that is constructed with OPM without
18 the domain model support, and that the improvement is mainly due to better
19 identification of the objects and processes in the model.

6. Discussion and Reference to Related Work

21 We have also examined the ADOM-OPM approach and compared it to current
22 domain analysis approaches based on the criteria of specification of abstraction
23 levels, variability management, application modeling guidelines, and validation of
24 application models against their domain models. In what follows we discuss each
25 criterion separately in ADOM-OPM as it relates to pertinent literature.

26 **Specification of different abstraction levels:** It is desirable for a domain
27 analysis method to be able to define both a domain and applications in that domain.
28 While a domain specification is usually generic in order for it to be able to support
29 different types of domain-specific applications, the specification of an application
30 within a domain must be more concrete and specific [17]. ADOM-OPM provides
31 the ability to model the domain and application models using the same language
32 at different abstraction levels. Within the domain and application models, ADOM-
33 OPM provides abstraction capabilities utilizing OPM abstraction/refinement (scal-
34 ing) mechanism. The ADOM-OPM specification of these two abstraction levels via
35 the same method — OPM — is important for defining consistency, validation, and
36 integrity constraints between domains and their applications.

37 **Variability management:** Some domain analysis approaches provide a generic
38 architecture or model, which depicts only the commonality of the domain, ignoring
39 variability. In such approaches, each application starts with the generic architecture
40 and adapts it as required. Developers using such an approach are in a better starting
41 point compared with developing a system from scratch without reuse, but it fails

- 1 to capture knowledge about the variability in the domain. Such knowledge is one
of the major factors that should be handled by a domain analysis approach [18].
3 Webber and Gomaa [19] identified four types of techniques for modeling variability:
- 4 (1) Parameterization: the application designer may change the values of attributes
5 defined as parameters in the domain model;
 - 6 (2) Information hiding: the application designer uses the same interface for defining
7 similar components;
 - 8 (3) Inheritance: the application designer may extend the interface of domain
9 elements within a specific application and even override them; and
 - 10 (4) Variation points definition: the application designer may create new variants
11 and connect them to the variation points specified within the domain.

12
13 When referring to variation points, van Gurp and Bosh [20] made a distinction
between closed and open variation points. Closed variation points consist of a pre-
defined set of variants, from which the application designer can choose. Conversely,
15 in open variation points, new variants that are not part of the domain specification
can be introduced for an application model.

17 ADOM-OPM enables to specify an application using elements defined within
the domain model with various multiplicities, as it is constrained by the domain
19 model. This is the main means by which ADOM-OPM specifies its variability man-
agement. ADOM-OPM also enables adding new model elements, which were not
21 defined within the domain model, as long as they do not violate the constraints
defined by the domain model. These new elements are specific for the modeled
23 application. This shows the ability of the ADOM-OPM to support open variation
points. Commonality, on the other hand, is expressed by assigning a mandatory
25 constraint (i.e., a multiplicity indicator of at least one) on a model element.

27 **Application modeling guidelines:** A domain analysis method is expected
to provide guidelines for constructing an application model using relevant domain
knowledge. These guidelines should refer to issues such as the relationships be-
29 tween a domain and its applications variability management [19], domain-specific
constraints that should hold in an application model [20], decisions that need to be
made during application construction [21], and selecting components for a specific
31 application [22]. In ADOM-OPM, application modeling guidelines are provided by
the domain model as it serves as a template for specifying application models.
33

35 **Validation:** The validation of an application against its domain specification is
essential for reducing errors and faults, and consequently costs and difficulties. In
this context, the domain specification enforces constraints on its applications [23].
37 It captures constraints to be followed by applications in the domain and possibly
refers to variability among applications. Domain models enable checking that all re-
39 lationships and constraints are maintained and fulfilled within the domain-specific
applications [24]. A particular validation type is completeness checking, i.e., de-
termining whether the application model includes all the (mandatory) elements
41 required by the domain model. ADOM-OPM provides a validation algorithm to

1 check the adherence of an application model to the domain model.

3 Comparing the ADOM-OPM approach with other current domain analysis ap-
proaches, we argue above that the proposed approach addresses all four crite-
ria, while other approaches miss at least one of these criteria. *Architecture-based*
5 *domain analysis* methods define the domain knowledge in components, libraries,
or architectures. These various domain artifacts are reused in an application as
7 they are, but they can also be modified to support the particular requirements at
hand. Examples of this type of approach include that of Draco [25], a multiple view
9 method for domain analysis presented in Meekel et al. [26], the Domain Analysis
and Reuse Environment (DARE) [27], and a generic modeling technique that uses
11 UML extensions for variability [28]. These architecture-based domain analysis ap-
proaches do not explicitly refer to commonality and variability within a domain,
13 nor do they provide the designer with guidelines to support a specific application
design. Rather, they allow him or her to select the relevant elements required by the
15 designated application. The modeling of both domains and applications is done at
the same level of abstraction, expecting the application designer to select relevant
17 elements for the application model from the domain model. As a consequence, no
validation is enforced by these methods. The lack of validation facilities as part of
19 these architecture-based domain analysis methods undermines their value as do-
main analysis approaches.

21 *Feature-oriented methods*, such as FODA [22, 29] and PLUS [18] suggest that
a system specification be derived by tailoring the domain model according to the
23 features desired in a specific system. That is, a specific system reuses parts of a
reusable architecture and instantiates a subset of features from the domain model.
25 These methods enable modeling domains and applications at the same level of
abstraction. They handle variability by means of parameterization, generalization,
27 and implicit variation point definition. They provide guidance for the application
designer of how to select the required features. However, they do not allow adding
29 to an application new features which were not modeled within the domain, i.e.,
they support only the concept of closed variation points, narrowing the variety of
31 applications suitable for a specific domain. These methods support validation by
checking whether the feature constraints defined in the domain model hold in the
33 specific application.

35 An approach similar to the feature-oriented one is that of Morisio *et al.* [30],
who proposed an extension to UML that includes a special stereotype, indicating
37 that a class may be altered within a specific system. This extension is demon-
strated by applying it to UML class diagrams. This approach also uses only one level of
abstraction in specifying the domain and its application. Thus, the validation of
39 an application model with respect to its domain model entails checking whether
a class appears in the application model along with its associated classes, but not
41 whether the class is correctly connected.

43 *Metamodeling techniques for domain analysis* enable definition of domains
as metamodels that serve for both capturing domain knowledge and validating

1 particular domain-specific applications. The validation rules that are induced by
the metamodels enable avoiding syntactic and semantic mistakes during the initial
3 stages of application development, reducing development time, and improving system
quality. Examples for this type of approach are the studies by Schleicher and
5 Westfechtel [31], Gomma and Eonsuk-Shin [32], and GME — the Generic Modeling
Environment [33, 34]. Most of these methods use standard visual modeling
7 languages, such as UML. Some of them enhance the visualization by constraint
languages, such as the Object Constraint Language (OCL) [35].

9 The metamodeling methods discussed above support close variation points,
guide the application designer in constructing applications, and provide validation
11 facilities. Variability in these methods is managed using multiplicity constraints
among business elements. However, these methods suffer from limited accessibility,
13 as different jargons are used within the domain and application models, giving
rise to "impedance mismatch," which arises from ambiguous, poorly defined translations
15 between the domain and application models [36]. Moreover, while these
metamodeling methods support modeling at two different abstraction levels, they
17 focus on specifying structural elements, leaving out support for dynamic constraint
specifications. Furthermore, specifying new element types are forbidden, thus when
19 applying these methods the support of open variation points is missing.

7. Summary and Future Work

21 ADOM-OPM has been presented as an application domain modeling approach that
extends Object-Process Methodology with a classification mechanism with two elements:
23 roles, which are stereotypes-like elements, and multiplicity indicators. We
demonstrated the use of ADOM-OPM by applying it to the domain of Access
25 Control and two applications in this domain: the drink vending machine and the
automatic teller machine. ADOM-OPM has been applied in several domains, including
27 multi-agent systems, in which a new modeling language has been suggested
for specifying this type of systems [37], discrete simulation events, and databases,
29 in which database schemata can be easily generated including triggers and stored
procedures.

31 To evaluate ADOM-OPM, we examined it via a controlled experiment and established
that it helps create better models than those obtained using OPM alone. Analyzing
33 the empirical results and the theoretical aspects, we have concluded that the
ADOM-OPM approach addresses the following problems.

- 35 1. The multiplicity aspect problem: ADOM-OPM by its nature supports both static
and dynamic aspects of the domain and application models.
- 37 2. The multiple view problem: OPM supports system specification in a single, unifying
view, or diagram type. Since a domain is modeled just like an application
39 within that domain, domain modeling benefits from all the advantages of OPM,
including its single view, the combination of formal and intuitive model presentation,
41 and the bimodal graphic-textual representation.

26 A. Sturm, D. Dori & O. Shehory

- 1 3. The domain-application relationship problem: The ADOM-OPM approach uti-
3 lizes the domain model while modeling the application in two ways: (1) classify-
5 ing the application model entities with roles defined in the domain model, and
7 (2) validating the relationships among the application model elements (entities
9 and links) according to their classifying roles and link constraints defined in the
domain model.
4. The models incompatibility problem: both the domain and the application OPM
models use the same notations and semantics, eliminating the need for mental
model transformations.

Moving forward from domain analysis, domain design in OPM is similar to
domain analysis, as it employs the same terminology while deepening the level of
details and shifting the focus from the problem area to the solution area. The trans-
formation to domain implementation can be done using the Generic Code Genera-
tor (GCG) [38] associated with Object-Process CAse Tool (OPCAT) [39]. Utilizing
the GCG and roles within a domain can be a basis for developing infrastructure
components and using them to generate application code.

The implementation of the ADOM-OPM analysis approach is currently being
integrated into OPCAT. We also plan to add negation constraints and extend the
application model so that it can incorporate more than one domain model. For eval-
uation purposes, we intend to experimentally compare the ADOM-OPM approach
with ADOM-UML approach and other domain analysis approaches.

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