

From Monolith to Microservices

Proposal of

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Abstract

Powered by the rise of cloud computing, agile development, DevOps and continuous deployment strategies, the microservice architectural pattern emerged as an alternative to monolithic software design. Microservices, as a suite of independent, highly cohesive and loosely coupled services, overcome the shortcoming of centralized monolithic architectures. Therefore, prominent companies recently migrated their monolithic legacy applications successfully to microservice-based architecture. The key challenge is to find an appropriate partition of legacy applications - namely *microservice identification*. So far, the identification process is done intuitively based on the experience of system architects and software engineers - mainly by virtue of missing formal approaches and a lack of automated tool support.

However, when applications grow in size and become progressively complex, it is quite demanding to decompose the system in appropriate microservices. This thesis provides a formal identification model to tackle this challenge. The identification process is based on... // Hier jetzt noch kurz beschreiben was ich eigentlich machen will We use

Zusammenfassung

Deutsche Zusammenfassung

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1. Introduction

The monolithic software architecture is the traditional pattern to design software, where functionality is bundled in one single, large application [5]. Although monoliths have their strength, like fast development and simple deployment, they become an obstacle when they grow in size and become more complex [22]. Incomprehensible code structure makes it difficult to add functionality, fix bugs and enable new software engineering approaches like Continuous Delivery and Continuous Deployment. Besides, the rise of cloud computing demands a new architecture that can fully exploit the rich set of features given by the cloud infrastructure [18].

Microservice Architecture is about to become a promising alternative to overcome the shortcomings of centralized, monolithic architectures. Inspired by service-oriented computing, microservices gain popularity in both, academia and industry [2]. Benefits like the increase of agility, resilience or scalability [23], the ability to use different technology stacks and independent deployment [3], and the efficient resource utilization in cloud environments [18] explain, why big companies like Google, Netflix, Amazon, eBay [5] and Uber [23] migrated their monolithic architectures to microservice-based applications.

This thesis describes the current state of the art regarding microservices extraction and provides a systematic approach to decompose a (legacy) application into microservices.

1.1. Motivation

Monolithic software applications develop over time and become more and more complex. The software structure is highly coupled and hard to maintain [9]. To tackle this issues, software engineers started to decompose their system into modules and provide the functionality over the network as Web Services [11]. The so-called *Service-oriented Architecture* (SOA) provides logical boundaries between the different software modules to address the design challenge of distributed systems. Nevertheless, Baresi et. al state that the boundaries between modules in SOA are too flexible and the application results in "a big ball of mud" [3]. Microservices make these boundaries physical as each service runs in its own process and only communicates with other services through well-defined lightweight mechanisms like REST [23]. Chen et al. consider the microservice architecture as a particular approach for SOA [5]. Others look at it as an evolution of SOA with differences in service reuse [3] or consider it to be the "contemporary incarnation of SOA" combined with modern software engineering practices like continuous deployment [11]. There is no consensus about the relationship between microservices and SOA, but clearly, SOA paved the way for the rise of the microservice pattern.

The microservice architecture has many advantages over the monolithic style. Sec.2.2 elaborates the main aspects of microservices, including several benefits. Netflix, for in-

stance, is able to cope with one billion calls a day to its video streaming API, by migrating their monolithic system to a high flexible, maintainable and scalable microservice architecture [5]. Consequently, moving existing applications to a microservice landscape is a hot topic in academia and industry [2].

Nevertheless, decomposing a system in loosely coupled, fine-grained and independent microservices is a time consuming task that requires tedious manual effort [11] and is technically cumbersome [6]. So far, it is done mainly intuitively and relies on the experience of software architects and system designers. Hence, a formal approach to identify microservices is required. This thesis intends to describe an approach to systematically decompose a monolithic system into loosely coupled, but high cohesive fine-grained microservices.

1.2. Problem Statement

The microservice architecture is a fast rising approach to structure a system in high cohesive but loosely coupled and independent services. Many companies like Amazon, migrated their monolithic legacy software to microservice in order to fully leverage the benefits of cloud computing and new software engineering approaches like Continuous Deployment [18]. Large applications are decomposed into small, independent microservices where each service can be independently scaled and deployed.

However, one of the biggest problem in designing a microservice architecture is to decompose a monolithic application into a suite of small services while keeping them loosely coupled and high cohesive. This challenging task is also known as *microservice identification* [2].

Baresi et al. state that "proper" microservice identification defines how systems will be able to evolve and scale [3]. Others claim, that finding the optimal microservice boundaries and service granularity is the key design decision to fully leverage the benefits of microservices [10] [12].

So far, the partition is performed mainly intuitively based on the experience and know-how of experts that perform the extraction. Hassan et al. criticises a lack of systematic approaches to reduce the complexity of the extraction process [12]. Extracting microservices from monoliths therefore requires tedious manual effort and can be very costly [23] [19]. This leads to the following Problem Statements (PS):

PS1: Which strategy can be used to extract microservices from a monolithic system?

PS2: What formal approach can be constructed to perform the extraction process without detailed know-how?

This thesis aims to reduce the complexity by providing an approach to systematically decompose a monolithic application into microservice. In the following, the challenges of microservice identification are presented.

1.3. Contributions

1.4. Thesis Outline

2. Background

2.1. Monolithic Software Architecture

The monolithic software architecture is a well-known and the most widely used pattern for Enterprise Applications, which usually are built in three main parts (top to bottom): The client-side user interface (Tier 3), the server-side application (Tier 2) and the persistence layer (Tier 1). The server-side application - *the monolith* - is a single unit and deployed on one application server [22]. The software structure, if well defined, is composed of self-contained modules (i.e. software components), where each module consists of a set of functions [6]. The monolith implements a complex domain model, including all functions, many domain entities and their relationships. For small applications, this approach works relatively well. They are simple to develop, test and deploy [23]. Fast prototyping is supported by the current frameworks and development environments (IDE), which are still oriented around developing single applications [22].

But once they grow in size, they become exceedingly difficult to understand and hard to maintain without reasonable effort [23] [10]. A complex and large code base prevents a fast addition of new features and makes the application risky and expensive to evolve [17]. Alterations to the system, even though they might be small, result in a redeployment of the whole monolith application due to its nature being a single unit [23]. Moreover, it is difficult to adopt newer technologies without rewriting the whole application, as monoliths are built on a specific technology stack [22] [19].

Scaling is only possible by duplicating the entire application - namely *horizontal scaling*. Consequently, large portions of the infrastructure remains unused, if only parts of the application need to be upscaled or even used [15] [9].

Chen et al. provide a short résumé:

"Successful applications are always growing in size and will eventually become a monstrous monolith after a few years. Once this happens, disadvantages of the monolithic architecture will outweigh its advantages." [5]

2.2. Microservices

"The microservice architectural style is an approach to developing a single application as a suite of small services, each running in its own process and communicating with lightweight mechanisms, often an HTTP resource API." [8]

2.2.1. Definition

The above quotation is a widely adopted definition of the term *Microservice*, provided by M. Fowler and J. Lewis, the pioneers of the microservice architecture. However, the term is not formally defined. Amiri et al. describes microservices as a collection of cohesive and loosely coupled components, where each service implements a business capability. The author introduces three principles upon which the architecture is build: *Bounded Context*, *Size*, *Independence* [2].

The first principle is about related functionality, that is combined in a single business capability - the *bounded context* [23]. Each capability is implemented by one microservice. The *Size* of a microservice is defined by the number of features it provides (namely bundled functional capabilities) [16]. There is no consensus about the "proper" size of a microservice [21], but several guidelines exists: Services should focus on one business capability only [2]. Others state, that the size of a microservice should not exceed a level, where it cannot be rewritten within six weeks [16]. However, the sizes vary from system to system [23] and even different sizes for each microservice in a specific system are possible [21]. The bottom line of *Independence* is in Amiri's description of microservices as "a collection of high cohesive and loosely coupled components" [2]. High cohesive services implement a relatively independent piece of business logic (at the most one business capability). Further, microservices should hardly depend on each other, which is the idea of being loosely coupled [5].

Communication between microservices is achieved by lightweight message passing mechanisms such as *REST*. Each service exposes a well defined interface (*API*) with endpoints that provide information using standard data formats [23]. The design of microservices mainly follows the *Single Responsibility Principle (SRP)*: Each service should not have more than one reason to change [7]. The SRP mainly corresponds to the idea of not implementing more than one business capability. The following covers the benefits and challenges of the microservice architecture.

2.2.2. Benefits

Fast and Independent Deployment

As a matter of fact, each microservice is deployed independently [3]. Changes to the code do not result in a full redeployment of the entire application [23]. Consequently, software developers are able to react much quicker to changes in business requirements. This includes an acceleration in error correction. Per contra, any changes in a monolithic code base requires a time consuming build of a new version and the redeployment of the entire application [8].

Availability, Resilience and Fault Isolation

Microservices are designed to operate independently of each other and to tolerate failure of services [8]. Large parts of the application remain unaffected of partly failures and the availability of the system is, at least partly guaranteed. Monolithic application do not provide this type of fault isolation. If a failure occurs, the whole application remains unavailable as it is usually running in a single process [19].

Scalability and Resource Utilisation

Small and independent microservices allow more fine-granular horizontal scaling [16]. Single services can be duplicated to cope with changing workload during runtime [5]. Thus, dynamic (de-)allocation of resources on demand prevent infrastructure from being idle [6]. Scaling monoliths can only be attained by duplicating the entire application , leaving resources unused [10]. Further, each microservice is deployed on the best suitable infrastructure for its needs, allowing a more efficient system organization [22].

Improved Productivity

In traditional software development, teams are divided based on their expertise: Database architects, UI-developers and server-side engineers, resulting in a three-tiered application (cf. Sec.2.1). Additionally, software engineers are responsible for the development only. Deployment is part of the operations team. This team structure results in high communication overhead and slows down the productivity [20].

In contrast, microservices are organized around business capabilities requiring cross-functional and independent teams [2]. Each team has the full range of skills required for the end-to-end realization of a microservice, including UI-development, database architecture, back-end engineers and project management. This minimizes the communication and interaction between the teams and thus, speeds up the productivity. Ultimately, microservices enable a more agile flow of development and operation [10], also referred as *DevOps*.

Neutral development technology

Microservices are highly decoupled from each other, as they use standardized and lightweight communication mechanisms such as REST [23]. Microservices can be realized using different programming languages, technologies and even deployment environments [5]. Developers are consequently not longer limited to use a single technology for the whole application. They can choose the most appropriate technology for each particular business problem or try out some new technology without rewriting the whole application [11] [17].

2.2.3. Challenges

The previous section provides a vast amount of benefits that come with microservices. However, it is not the panacea of software engineering and has to face some challenges before being able to fully benefit from them. The challenges are further described in the following.

Expensive Communication

Microservice use network protocols such as *HTTP* to communicate with each other. Compared to standard, inter process communication (*IPC*) as used in monoliths, remote procedure calls are more expensive [1]. As a consequence, applications experience a decrease in performance as network communication is generally slower than *IPC*.

Technical Challenges

Microservices require a high degree of infrastructure automation [9]. The benefits of fast and independent deployment cannot be utilized, if it has to be done manually. Dynamic (de-)allocation of resources when scaling individual microservices need a well defined and structured cloud environment [18]. Besides, the distributed microservice landscape complicates the logging mechanisms and performance monitoring [1]. Traditional centralized logging, as it is used in monolithic applications, is not longer applicable. Instead, a careful aggregation system to gather logging and monitoring data from each service is required.

Organizational Challenges

The microservice approach needs the establishment of cross-functional teams [8]. Adopting *Continuous Practices*, such as *Continuous Deployment*, are essential for the success of a profitable microservice architecture. Therefore, closer collaboration between development teams, operational staff and management has to be established. In summary, a costly and time consuming restructuring process of the entire organization is required [4].

Data Consistency

Distributed systems need to share data. Heinrich et al. propose two concepts for the database architecture [23]: The first concept applies the basic idea of the microservice approach, as it splits the database into several parts. Each microservice has its own database which manages the entities that belong to the corresponding bounded context. Higher speed and horizontal scaling are facing data consistency issues. Data needs to be synchronized which leads to inconsistency, if services are unavailable. The second concept is about sharing a single database. This approach overcomes the issue of consistency, as data is stored centrally. But sharing results in a loss of independence. Scaling can only be achieved through replicating the whole database. Research revealed, that the first concept is preferred [23].

Decomposition

Decomposing a system into microservice is a very complex task that requires experienced system architects and domain experts [8]. Identifying the right granularity of microservice is one of the key issues. Too fine grained services cause inefficiency due to a high amount of expensive inter-service calls [21]. Developing the basic communication infrastructure adds additional complexity and slows down the initial developing process [22].

3. CoCoME

The *Common Component Modelling Example (CoCoME)* is a common case study on software architecture modelling [14][13]. In this thesis, it is used to demonstrate and validate the presented approach. Sec.3.1 provides a short introduction of the demonstrator, followed by a presentation of its system specifications.

3.1. Introduction to CoCoME

CoCoME represents a trading system as it can be found in a supermarket chain. The main task is handling and processing sales at a single store of the chain. Therefore, customers can pick goods and place them on the *Cash Desk* whose main component is a *Cash Desk PC*. Several other components like *Bar Code Scanner*, *Light Display*, *Printer*, *Card Reader* and *Cash Box* are wired by the *Cash Desk PC*.

Multiple *Cash Desks* of a single store form a *Cash Desk Line*, which is connected to the *store server*. A set of stores in the CoCoME chain is organized as an enterprise where each store is connected to a single enterprise server.

More detailed description of the CoCoME system can be found in [14][13]. The next section provides information about the system requirements specifications in form of use cases.

3.2. System specifications

The system specification is informal and given in the form of detailed use cases. Fig.3.1 provides an overview of the use case of CoCoME. A full detailed description can be found in [14].

Use case description

- *Process Sale*: Handles the products a customer wants to purchase and the payment (either cash or card).
- *Manage Express Checkout*: The cash desk switches automatically in the express mode (under certain conditions). The cashier is able to switch back in normal mode.
- *Order Products*: A store manager can order products from suppliers.
- *Receiver Ordered Products*: Ordered products which arrive at the store need to be checked for correctness and inventoried by the stock manager.

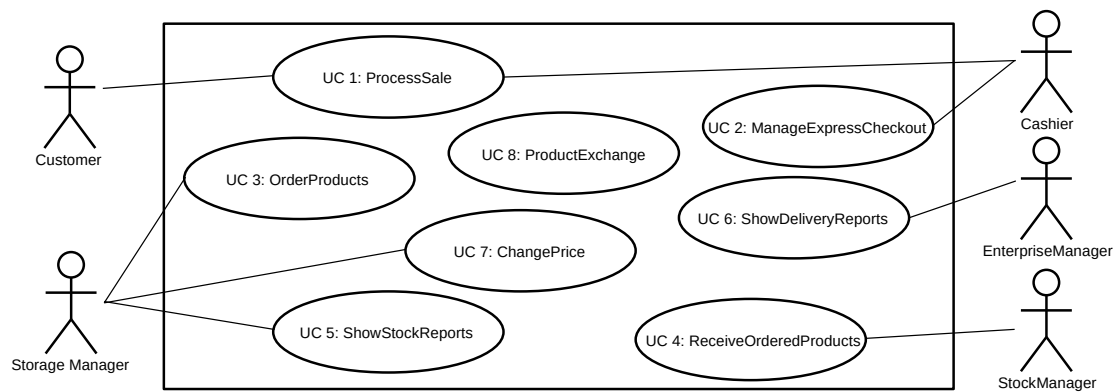


Figure 3.1.: Use Case Diagram

- *Show Stock Reports*: A store manager can request a stock-related report for his/her store.
- *Show Delivery Reports*: Calculation of the mean time for a delivery.
- *Change Price*: The sale price of a product is changed.
- *Product Exchange*: Automatic stock exchange if a store is running out of stock and other stores still have the required product

4. State of the Art

This chapter outlines the current state of the art regarding microservice identification. Sec. 4.1 presents the search strategy and several existing approaches (Table 4.1) that deal with the identification of microservices. Thereupon, the approaches are further explained and finally compared on the basis of several criteria.

4.1. Literature Review

The approaches mentioned in table 4.1 are the result of an extensive literature research which was conducted using the digital libraries IEEE ¹, ACM ² and SpringerLink ³. The web search engine Google Scholar ⁴ provided further approaches and general information. [23] was provided by the supervisor of this thesis and [11] was cited by various approaches, including [3]. The following search string was used:

*["identify" OR "identification" OR "migrating" OR "monolith" OR "decomposition" OR
"decompose monolith" OR "decompose"] AND "microservice"
OR
"microservice" AND ["identification" OR "transformation" OR "refactor"]*

Table 4.1 presents the 8 most promising approaches regarding the criteria mentioned in table //TODO!!!!!!.. Now, a short introduction to each approach is given.

¹<http://ieeexplore.ieee.org>

²<http://portal.acm.org>

³<http://www.springerlink.com>

⁴<http://scholar.google.com>

Link	Titel	Author (Year)	Origin	Search String
[19]	Extraction of Microservices from Monolithic Software Architectures	G. Matzlami et. al. (2017)	Google Scholar	<i>microservice identification</i>
[2]	Object-Aware Identification of Microservice	M. J. Amiri (2018)	IEEE	<i>identification microservices</i>
[3]	Microservices Identification Through Interface Analysis	L. Baresi et. al. (2017)	SpringerLink	<i>microservice identification</i>
[23]	Identifying Microservices Using Functional Decomposition	S. Tyszberowicz et. al. (2018)	<i>provided</i>	<i>n/a</i>
[21]	Partitioning Microservices: A Domain Engineering Approach	I. J. Munezero et. al. (2018)	ACM	<i>partition microservices</i>
[5]	From Monolith to Microservices: A Dataflow-Driven Approach	R.Chen et. al	IEEE	monolith microservice
[6]	Function-Splitting Heuristics for Discovery of Microservices in Enterprise Systems	A. De Alwis et. al. (2018)	Google Scholar	identify microservices
[11]	Service Cutter: A Systematic Approach to Service Decomposition	M. Gysel et. al. (2016)	[3]	<i>n/a</i>

Table 4.1.: List of authors and approaches

4.2. Approaches

The following section provides a short introduction in the approaches mentioned in table 4.1. Further evaluation and comparison is done in Sec. ????. TODO!!!!

Extraction of Microservices from Monolithic Software Architectures

The approach presented in [19] is a class based extraction model, that uses (meta-)information of a version control system (VCS) such as Git⁵ to identify microservices. The approach is divided in two phases: The *Construction Phase* and the *Clustering Phase*. Starting with a given code base, the approach uses three different coupling strategies and the information provided by the VCS to transform the monolith into a weighted graph. Here, the nodes represent classes, and the edges have weights according to the chosen coupling strategy. In the second phase, a clustering algorithm determines possible microservices (each cluster is a microservice candidate).

Object-Aware Identification of Microservice

[2] identifies microservices from business processes, using the widely known *Business Process and Model Notation (BPMN)*. The approach uses clustering based on structural dependency and data object dependency. The first aspect is extracted from related activities within the business process model. A relation exists, if an edge directly connects a pair of activities or if only gateways are in between.

The latter aspect is based on the data object read and writes of each activity. Activities that are directly or indirectly connected and perform write or read operations are more likely to partition into the same microservice.

Microservices Identification Through Interface Analysis

In [3], the author proposes an approach that is based on semantic similarity of functionality specified through OpenApi⁶ specifications (OpenApi defines a language-agnostic, standardized and machine-readable interface for RESTful APIs). The similarity depends on a reference vocabulary: each operation of the specification is analysed along with its resources (parameters, return values, complex types) and mapped to a concept of the chosen reference vocabulary. Each mapping has a score, based on a fitness function that uses the collocation of words (called terms) found in the operation and in the concepts. A co-occurrence matrix contains all mappings of possible pairs of terms and concepts. It is maximized to obtain the best mappings. Finally, this approach identifies potential candidate microservices, as fine-grained groups of operations, that are mapped to the same reference concept.

Identifying Microservices Using Functional Decomposition

The approach presented in [23] identifies microservices by functional decomposition of the software requirements, provided as use case specifications. In order to achieve the decomposition, the system is modelled as a finite set of *system operations* and the system's

⁵<https://github.com/>

⁶<https://www.openapis.org/>

state space. Use cases provide the necessary input data: Verbs found in the use cases serve as *system operations* and nouns correspond to the *state variables* that the operations read or write. The state variables constitute the state space. Relationships between the operations and the variables are store in a relation table, that is visualized as a weighted graph. Finally, the approach uses graph analyse tools to determine clusters, where each cluster is a potential candidate of a microservice that fulfils the criteria of low coupling and high cohesion.

Partitioning Microservices: A Domain Engineering Approach

Munezaro et al. [21] propose an approach to identify appropriate microservices using *Domain-driven Design (DDD)* patterns. As a prerequisite, developers define a domain by using ubiquitous language. The domain indicates what the system does, precisely the system responsibilities, and what functionality it must implement. Domain experts define the boundaries of each responsibility and make it as a *business capability*, where a business capability is something that a system does in order to generate value. Each business capability is a microservice. When defining the boundary, the focus is on the relationships among the responsibilities to minimize cross-cutting transactions.

From Monolith to Microservices: A Dataflow-Driven Approach

[5] uses a top-down data flow driven decomposition approach to determine high cohesive and loosely coupled microservices. Before the actual identification process starts, a *Data Flow Diagram (DFD)* needs to be constructed on the users' natural language description of the system to illustrate the detailed data flow. The first step of the approach consist of manually constructing a purified DFD, which focuses on data's semanteme and operations only. Afterwards, the purified DFD is algorithmically transformed into a decomposable DFD which is finally used to extract potential microservice candidates.

Function-Splitting Heuristics for Discovery of Microservices in Enterprise Systems

[6] is an approach that utilizes heuristics to specify two fundamental areas of microservice discovery: Function splitting based on common object subtypes and functional splitting based on common execution fragments across software.

The discovery process consists of two steps: First, the code, database tables and the SQL queries are evaluated to identify business objects and their relationships. Along with a set of given execution call graphs (different sequences of operations; generated though e.g. analysing log data), the information found is passed to the second part of the process. Algorithms processes the call graphs of the legacy system to derive a set of subgraphs and analyse which fragments are related to the same business objects in order to recommend possible microservices.

Service Cutter: A Systematic Approach to Service Decomposition

Gysel et al. [11] introduce a service decomposition tool based on 16 coupling criteria coming from industry and literature. A coupling criterion is a decision driver to decide whether data, operations or artifacts (generalized under the term *nanoentity*) should or should not be owned and exposed by the same service. Additionally, each criterion has

a different score according to its priority. The input is in form of various *System Specification Artifacts (SSAs)*, such as domain models and use cases. The tool *Service Cutter* extracts coupling criteria information out of it, that must be prioritised by a user. To analyse and process the coupling criteria, Service Cutter creates a weighted graph. The nodes represent the nanoentities and the weights on an edge is the sum of all scores per criterion, multiplied by a user defined priority. In the end, an exchangeable clustering algorithm identifies potential microservice candidates where each cluster corresponds to a high cohesive and loosely coupled service.

4.3. Comparison

Table 4.2 and 4.3 provide a short description of the identified approaches mentioned above regarding some comparison criteria. The following criteria were used: **Basis Concept** recaptures the underlying approach of the microservice identification for classification purposes. **Prerequisites** presents the necessary preconditions for the success of the approach. For example, the approach mentioned in [19] cannot be used without meaningful VCS⁷ data. The **Input** row describes the type and amount of input that is used to realize the approach, i.e. Data Flow Diagrams in [5]. The row **Tool Support** indicates, whether the approach has been implemented or if other supporting tools are available to simplify the identification of high cohesive and loosely coupled microservices. The **Degree of human involvement** is part of the comparison, as this thesis aims to reduce the complexity of the service identification while keeping the required amount of expertise and manual tasks on a minimum. As evaluated in Sec.2.2, defining fine-grained microservices is a key challenge. Therefore, the approaches need to be compared in regard to the **Granularity of the recommended Microservices**. Some approaches allow an adjustable level of the granularity (e.g. [19]), whereas others generate a predefined granularity (e.g. always the most fine-grained microservice candidates [6]). **Validation** compares how the approaches are validated to strengthen the credibility of the individual results. Each approach might have some drawbacks regarding its applicability to universal systems, required amount and type of input, user interaction and further expertise. **Limitations** is meant to point out the identified drawbacks.

In the following, each approach is compared against the criteria if necessary (only if the information provided in Table 4.2 and 4.3 is not sufficient).

⁷Version Control System

Approach/Criterion	Mazlami et al. [19]	Amiri [2]	Baresi et al. [3]	Tyszberowicz et al. [23]
Basic Concept	meta-data aided graph clustering	business process oriented graph clustering	semantic similarity of OpenApi specification	functional decomposition of sw requirements
Prerequisites	applications with meaningful VCS data	business processes and entities available	well-defined Api with proper naming	specification of software requirements
Input	Source Code and VCS meta data	BPMN business processes with data object reads and writes	reference vocabulary (fitness function), OpenApi specifications	use cases
Tool support	prototype available (https://github.com/gmaz/frontend)	n/a	experimental prototype (https://github.com/mgariga/decomposer)	use external graph visualize and analyse tools
Degree of human involvement	choose amount of clusters that will represent the microservices	no interaction needed	user defines level of hierarchy	manual elimination of synonyms, irrelevant nouns and verbs
Granularity of the recommended Mi-croservices	depends on choosen amount of clusters	depends on iteration of genetic algorithm for convergence of fitness function	depends on choosen hierarchy level, varies from one to many	depends on size of business capability
Validation	experiements using open-source projects with VCS data (200 to 25000 commits, 1000 to 500000 LOC, 5 to 200 authors)	multiple experiments, results compared with domain experts knowledge	452 OpenApi specification, 5 samples compared with results of sw-engineers and [11]	case study, compared to three manual implementations
Limitation	need meaningful VCS data and ORM model for its data entities	given weight definitions lack formal explanation	depends on reference vocabulary and well-defined interfaces	manual revision of operations (nouns) and state variable (verbs)

Table 4.2.: Comparison of Approaches, Part I

Approach/Criterion	Munezero et al. [21]	Chen et al. [5]	Alwis et al. [6]	Gysel et al. [11]
Basic Concept	define business capabilities by using domain-driven design patterns	algorithmic identification of microservices using data flows	graph-based identification process using heuristics to describe call graph similarities	service decomposition based on 16 coupling criteria
Prerequisites	domain defined by ubiquitous language	systems's data flows constructen on users' natural langugae description	Log files of legacy system	various System Specification Artifacts (SSAs) in specified format
Input	well defined domain model	Data Flow Diagrams (DFD)	Call Graphs, Source Code, System Database	instances of SSAs (e.g. ERM models, use cases)
Tool support	n/a	n/a	External tool for generating call graphs	implementation and wiki available
Degree of human involvement	domain experts define boundaries for business responsibilities	manual construction of purified DFD	no interaction needed	priorization of coupling criteria
Granularity of the recommended Mi-croservices	depends on the size of the defined business capability	most fine-grained ms candidates in terms of data operations	lowest granularity of sw based on structural and behavioural properties	n/a
Validation	demonstrated on sample domain	two case studies verified against relevant microservice principles and results of [11]	two experiemtns with complex enterprise systems (legacy vs. ms implementation)	validation via implementation and two case studies
Limitation	only conceptional approach, requires vast amount of expertise	transforming purified DFD not trivial (identifying same data operations requires expertise)	requires expressive log files to generate call graphs and identify business object relationships	generating SSAs in specified format is work intense

Table 4.3.: Comparison of Approaches, Part II

5. Solution Overview

6. Evaluation Planning

6.1. Applicability to CoCoME

6.2. Comparison to Functional Decomposition Approach

7. Timetable

7.1. Milestones

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A. Appendix

A.1. First Appendix Section

Figure A.1.: A figure

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