

Augmenting Feature-modeling with Application Domain Modeling

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ABSTRACT

Object-oriented (OO) frameworks represent a significant achievement in extensible design, but there are many well-documented challenges when third-party programmers attempt to use and refactor them. In earlier work, we described how to migrate existing OO framework-based software into a software product line structure using combinatory logic synthesis (CLS) integrated into FeatureIDE, an Eclipse-based IDE that supports feature-oriented software development. While initially successful at synthesizing a few instances of a product line, the approach does not scale to support larger product lines because it does not adequately capture the commonality and inherent variability in the application domain. In this paper, we analyze these problems, and introduce our new approach to construct product line which overcomes many drawbacks of old approach. We describe how application domain modeling helps automated composition, and how our redesigned CLS-engine improves scalability. Results are illustrated by scaling the well-known graph product line with our approach, while reducing the average amount of instance-specific code significantly, generating more readable code and providing more convenience for refactoring.

KEYWORDS

datasets, neural networks, gaze detection, text tagging

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1 INTRODUCTION

Software product lines (SPLs) refer to software engineering methods, tools and techniques for creating a collection of similar software systems, called product line members, from a shared set of software assets using a common means of production. A number of characteristics separate SPLs from routine large, complex systems and thus there is a need for specialized tools and techniques to design, implement and maintain SPLs.

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Fundamental to many SPL approaches is the concept of a *Feature Model*, first introduced by the Feature-Oriented Domain Analysis (FODA) technique [17] and refined over the years by numerous researchers. A feature model is composed of user-visible features from which a wide variety of configurations can be defined through the selection of individual features. Many tool chains have been developed to generate product line members “on demand” from a feature model configuration. Developers need to construct the SPL code artifacts in a specific way that enables the tools to work; this may include, for example, low-level compiler directives embedded in source code, or specialized languages (such as JAK [8] or DeltaJ [29]) that developers use to encode the artifacts.

There remains a potential issue, however, when the variability inherent in the product line relates to the application domain model. The common result is that one must integrate these domain-model concepts into the feature model so they can become part of the configuration process. The feature model from Figure ?? contains features relating to behavior (i.e., **Prim** contains Prim’s implementation of the Minimum Spanning Tree problem) and some relate to structure (i.e., **Weighted** captures the notion that edges in a graph may have weights).

In past work, we have explored product lines within a number of application domains [9, 15]

Here is a reference to Kästner’s paper [19].

Here is a reference to [23]. Here is a reference to [27]. Here is a reference to [14]. Here is a reference to [28]. Here is a reference to [31]. Here is a reference to [32].

Here is a reference to [4].

Here is a reference to [35].

Here is a reference to [22].

Here is a reference to [29].

Here is a reference to [3].

1.1 Approaches to Product Line Development

Software product lines create unique engineering challenges for a number of reasons. First, it should be possible to generate any number of instances of the product line, and by this we mean the code artifacts for the instance application. These are then compiled (or interpreted) to realize the execution of the application. Second, there are multiple development efforts; one can work on code that will effectively be used by all product line instances, but at other times, one is focused on writing code for just a single instance from the PL.

A major goal of featured-oriented PL is to derive a product automatically based on user’s selection. There are three philosophical approaches widely used in practice – *annotation-based*, *composition-based* or

component-based – which differ in the way they represent variability in the code base and the way they generate products.

1.1.1 Annotation-based Approach. There is a single body of code artifacts which fully contains all code resources used by all members of the product line. Using different tools or language-specific capabilities, a compiler (or processor) will extract subsets of the code to be used for a PL instance. One of the most common approaches is to use compiler directives embedded within the code as a means for isolating code unique to a subset of product line instances. Then each product line instance can be generated by compiling the same code base with different compiler flags, resulting in different executable instances. Due to the nature of this approach, often one cannot review the source code for individual instances. [1].

In annotation-based approaches, the code of all features is merged in a single code base, and annotation mark which code belongs to which feature. In some sense, an annotation is a function that maps a program element to the feature or feature combination it belongs to.

Annotation-based approaches are widely used in practice because they are easy to use and already natively supported by many programming environments. It keeps good readability and low complexity, however, relatively simple tool support can address scattered code or error. citeKastner:2012,Apel:2013,ESP:2541773

1.1.2 Composition-based Approach. Another approach is to design a feature tree which is used to capture all the externally visible features that can be used to differentiated one product line instance from another. Then code assets are internally associated with each of these visible features. Finally product line instances are configured by selecting for inclusion features from the feature tree, potentially restricted by constraints. A composition engine processes the code assets associated with the selected features to create the final source code for the product line instance.

Composition-based approaches locate code belonging to a feature or feature combination in a dedicated file, container, or module. A classic example is a framework that can be extended with plug-ins, ideally one plug-in per feature. The key challenge of composition-based approaches is to keep the mapping between features and composition units simple and tractable.

Another way to view the difference between annotation and composition is that annotation separate concerns virtually and composition separate concerns physically, and code is removed on demand with annotation while composition units are added on demand. [1, 33].

1.1.3 Component-based Approach. A software component is a unit of composition with contractually specified interfaces and explicit context dependencies only. A software component can be deployed independently and is subject to composition by third parties. The key idea of a component is to form a modular, reusable unit.

Developing product line by constructing and composing reusable was a common strategy. With domain analysis, developers decided which functionality should be reused across multiple products of the product line designed components accordingly. To derive a product for a given feature selection during application engineering, a developer selects suitable components and then manually writes glue code to connect components for every product individually.

1.1.4 Product Line Techniques In Industry. Annotation-based approach are not so widely used as composition-based approach because

drawbacks mentioned above. Here are some existing annotation-based approaches:

code coloring (FeatureCIDE): CIDE is an Eclipse plug-in that replaces the Java editor in SPL projects. Developers start with a standard Java legacy application, then they select code fragment and associate them with features from the context menu. The marked code is then permanently highlighted in the editor using a background color associated with the feature. Here is a reference to [18].

Type checking approach, a product-line-aware type system that statically and efficiently detects type errors in annotation-based product-line implementations. [19]

To work with FeatureIDE, the primary challenge is to design a feature tree model to represent the desired product line application domain. Because features are cross-cutting with regards to the artifacts in the programming language, the various composer engines supported by FeatureIDE accomplish the same goal in a variety of ways.

AHEAD has feature modules for each concrete feature, and the corresponding composition tool places generated source code directly into the Eclipse source folder. AHEAD brings separate tools together and selects different tools for different kinds of files during feature composition, establishing a clear interface to the build system. Composing Jak files will invoke a Jak-composition, whereas composing XML files invokes an XML-composition tool. [8].

FeatureHouse tool suite has been developed that allows programmers to enhance given languages rapidly with support for feature-oriented programming. It is a framework for software composition supported by a corresponding tool chain. It provides facilities for feature composition based on a language-independent model and tool chain for software artifact, and a plug-in mechanism for the integration of new artifact languages. [2]

Deltaj is a Java-like language which allows to organize classes in modules. A program consists of a base module and a set of delta module in a stepwise manner. Much like a feature module, a delta module can add new classes and members as well as extend existing methods by overriding. In contrast to feature modules, delta modules can also delete existing classes and individual members. [29].

In LaunchPad, each feature can contain any number of combinators, designed using a DSL we had developed to simplify the writing of combinators for an earlier CLS tool. A configuration is a subset of features from which a repository is constructed. Each feature can optionally store target definitions, which are aggregated together and then used as the basis for the inhabitation requests, i.e. As each request is satisfied, the synthesized code from the resulting type expression M is stored in the designated source folder. [15].

1.1.5 Evaluation of related work. The key challenge of composition-based approaches is to keep the mapping between features and composition units simple and tractable. Preprocessor-based and parameter-based implementations are often criticized for their potential complexity, lack of modularity, and reduced readability. And they all have some problems which is the difficulty to refactoring. [20].

Although component-based implementations are common in product line practice, they lack the automation potential of feature orientation that we aim at. Deciding when to build a reusable component and what to include in that component is a difficult design decision, one need to have good understanding of whole scope to do that.

There is no domain in this approach, glue code is a necessary, it's no more than assembling components. [1]

In practice most PLs appear “from the ground up” where developers take advantage of language-specific capabilities to annotate different code regions as being enabled (or disabled) based on compiler directives. Starting from an annotation-based code repository many composition-based approaches simply “snipped” or refactored code fragments to recreate countless tiny “features” that could be selected.

Manual composition is a configuration process. A designer selects individual features from a feature model and relies on constraints to ensure the resulting product line member is valid. Manual Composition is limited to a potential total of 2^N configurations where N represents the number of available features in the model. There is no domain modeling. What commonly occurs is the designer must make sure that changes to any of the units will not invalidate those product line members that incorporate that feature.

Another problem is that the features are fixed and unchanging. If we need to make some modifications to current instances, we may need to trace all the way back and change the code in many classes because it's inheritance structure. If we want to add features which is slightly different from existing ones, we may need to start from very beginning.

2 A NEW APPROACH IS NEEDED

There are features to represent the structure of a variations, and there is a feature for each variation. Our goal was to support the easy construction of new variations by reusing existing features where possible and adding new features as needed to support the functionality expected of new variations.

2.1 Essential Characteristics

2.1.1 Application domain modeling. This appears missing in nearly every approach we see. This happens because Feature Trees do not require any other modeling besides the tree itself, and annotation-based approaches rely solely on the codebase itself.

Because there is no domain modeling, the various Feature-IDE approaches all appear to have configurations which become ineffective domain modeling. For example, in some FeatureIDE models, there is a feature with sub-features that appear to be nothing more than instantiations of different configurations, which makes the width of feature tree in AHEAD huge.

2.1.2 CLS generic composition. With dominated approach for using feature in PLs, n features in the feature tree may generate 2^n configurations which will become product line instances. But if we use CLS as the algorithm for composition, the fundamental units will be combinators instead of features. The CLS starts with a repository of combinators to which a user issues a query which attempts to find a type in the repository using inferencing. Using CLS generic composition, limitations of composition tools are eliminated.

Combinators can be dynamic and added at composition time, something which is simply not possible in traditional feature trees used by feature-oriented product lines.

To better explain these dynamic combinators, consider having a feature model with a feature that provides variability and there are a number of fixed sub-features that are tailored for each valid variation. For example, “Number of external hard disks” might have

sub-features “One-Hard-Disk”, “Two-hard-disks” and so on. Individual members of the PL are configured, accordingly, to select the desired number of external hard disks. In contrast, using CLS a single combinator class `NumberOfExternalDisks` is parameterized with an integer, and one can instantiate a combinator (`NumberOfExternalDisks(3)`) and add to the repository as needed based on the modeling needs of the member.

Without making 2^n configurations, using CLS will significantly simplify code system in PL, optimize code structure make it more readable and reasonable.

2.1.3 Compositional manipulation. Feature-IDE relies on externally provided composition engines to process code fragments. The challenge is that FeatureIDE can make no semantic guarantees about the resulting code. Also there is no theoretical foundation for the composition, which rather simply is assembly. During assembly, units are wired together without making any changes to the units themselves.

2.1.4 Language agnostic. Without being language limited as normal ways, our approach is more language agnostic. Choice of language have been more diversified, which could benefit more engineers with different backgrounds. We don't have to take advantage of single language to build our code base. For example, we have to use .jak files in AHEAD. If you are not familiar with the language, you can't use the approach. [9].

2.1.5 Code sharing between assets. Like we mentioned above, dynamic combinators can be constructed to add methods into classes. Assets can share some basic code, with different methods included.

3 GRAPH PRODUCT LINE

The Graph Product Line (GPL) is a well-known case study within the software product line community [24]. Graph is a fundamental topic in computer science and choosing it minimises the requirement of becoming a domain-expert which is a prerequisite in the product line development process. Still it is complex enough to expose the underlying concepts of product lines and their implementation. This product line supports variations in a library of graph data structures and algorithms. A possible feature diagram of the graph library is shown in Figure 1. Like any other product line, members of the GPL share some common features and differ in certain variant features. The root is labeled with `Gpl` to represent a graph product. It has a mandatory child feature `GraphType`, because each graph library has to implement an type, which is either `Directed` or `Undirected`. Furthermore, three other child features of the root are optional: `Search`, `Weighted` and `Algorithm`. Search strategies may be either breadth-first search (BFS) or depth-first search (DFS). Algorithm offers a selection of graph algorithms as child features. Since it's optional, either zero, one, or more algorithms may be presented in a graph product. In our example, the algorithm for minimal spanning trees `MST` has two alternative implementations, `Prim` and `Kruskal`. Some non-local conditions are modeled as explicit Boolean constraints— for example, minimal spanning tree make only sense for weighted graphs, and shortest paths can be computed directed graphs only.

Some of the common and variant features that the GPL members share are identified as follows:

- Common Features: The common features that the GPL applications share are Vertex and Edge. Which means a GPL application must have these features.

- Variant Features: Members across the GPL share some variant features:

- Graph Type: A graph is either directed or undirected.
- Weight: Edges in a graph can be weighted with non-negative numbers or unweighted.
- Search: A graph application can implement at most one searching algorithm, Breadth First search (BFS), Depth First Search (DFS) or none.
- Algorithms: A graph application implements one or more of the following algorithms: Number (Vertex Numbering), Connected (Connected Components), Strongly (Strongly Connected Components), Cycle (Cycle Checking), Shortest (Single-Source Shortest Path) and MST (Minimum Spanning Tree). Details of these algorithms can be found in any algorithm book and more information on GPL can be found at: <http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/dsb/GPL/graph.htm>. AND <http://stg-tud.github.io/sedc/Lecture/ws16-17/6-SPL.pdf>.

Here are papers using GPL [34]. [36]. [26]. [6]. [25]. [16]. [7]. [13]. [21]. [5].

4 DESIGN OF CLS-BASED GPL

Our improved solution successfully integrates application domain modeling with CLS to dramatically improve our ability to automatically compose members of a product line structure. We start by designing a domain model. This domain model simply models aspects of these variations, and define constraints between assets. For example, MST algorithm can only be applied on undirected and weighted graph. Then we construct concrete combinators and dynamic combinators to represent instances, which are added to gamma repository. After targets are identified, the next step is to inhabit. [12]. We instantiate our combinators, perform reflection on them to allow the CLS engine to gather their type information, and then ask CLS to produce all compositions (by invoking apply methods). [15]. Each valid configuration is an instance of the model.

We have achieved the following vision: to introduce a new member of the product line or to modify an existing one –just create (or modify) the application domain model and synthesize the member using automatic composition. When a variation includes unique logic that has not been seen before, then appropriate localized Scala code changes are introduced; if multiple variations could benefit from the variation-specific concepts, then the Scala code is refactored to bring this logic into the shared area.

4.1 More powerful Scala Implementation

By implementing CLS in a general purpose language, we move away from an interpreted DSL towards an embedded DSL that increases expressivity. However, by choosing Scala we gained a number of significant benefits as well:

- Scala program immediately interoperate with numerous Java libraries in the wider software ecosystem. Notably, we integrate JavaParser to manipulate ASTs and manage the synthesized software using jGit to provide API-level access to the Git version control system.
- Scala offers expressive string interpolation to embed variable references and entire source code fragments within strings. We use this extensively to make it easy for programmers to write readable combinators.
- IntelliJ offers a powerful Scala environment that seamlessly integrates the CLS tool, so programming with combinators

is treated the same as programming in a native language. As code is synthesized, it is placed into local Git repositories and then checked out into IntelliJ.

In our approach, we construct two kinds of combinators with CLS technology. We have extensible static @combinator for all base classes, like Vertex and Graph, which is necessary for the whole product line. Once you add them into repository, they will always be there. Listing below shows few line of vertexBase which synthesize the base class for a vertex:

```
@combinator object vertexBase {
  def apply(extensions: Seq[BodyDeclaration[_]]):
    CompilationUnit = { Java(s"""
      | public class Vertex {
      |   ${extensions.mkString("\n")}
      |   """.stripMargin).compilationUnit
    }
  val semanticType: Type =
    vertexLogic(base, extensions)
    =>: vertexLogic(base, complete)
  }
}
```

The apply method has a parameter which will ultimately be resolved by CLS. It takes a class gives Seq[BodyDeclaration[_]] with vertexLogic(vertexLogic.base, vertexLogic.extensions) as semanticType. A combinator is instantiated from this class –based on a specific application domain object that models the desired variation and added to gamma repository. \${extensions.mkString("\n")} is where the extra imports, fields, and methods required for the specific variation determined by domain object will be added later by dynamic combinator. The types of the parameters designed by semanticType ensure that the arguments are all appropriate, and so the resulting synthesized class will have no syntax errors.

Instead of relying solely on annotated fixed combinators (as shown in Listing above), we can programmatically add customized dynamic combinators (as shown in Listing below). This ability was a major step forward in our ability to populate with modular units suitable to compose any number of instances from a product line structure. For example, we want to add color attribute to vertex:

```
class ColoredVertex {
  def apply() : Seq[BodyDeclaration[_]] = {
    Java(s"""
      | private int color;
      |
      | public void setColor(int c) {
      |   this.color = c;
      | }
      | public int getColor() {
      |   return this.color;
      | }
      | """.stripMargin).classBodyDeclarations()
  }
  val semanticType: Type = vertexLogic(base, var_extensions)
}
```

By using Scala rather than a DSL we can immediately take advantage of writing reusable and extensible combinators. In AHEAD approach, there are many duplicated code, for example, the refinements to Edge are exactly same in MSTKruskalPrepGr and MSTPRIMPREPGr. Also some empty methods are there only for future override. If you do not have a solid understanding for the whole scope in the beginning, which happens a lot in industries, it's hard to construct a structure like that. With our approach, it's much easier to construct product lines from scratch, and the code will make more sense. In Ahead approach, some features can only be used for once. For example, only thing feature dProgStronglyConnected do was to provide a run method. This will lead to redundant code, while our approach doesn't have such problems.

Other than adding content to existing class, which can also be realized with DeltaJ, we can also modify content in the class easily by constructing a combinator which takes a CompilationUnit as parameter, customize the class and return it as a CompilationUnit.

With our approach, it makes it possible to customize existing classes by either adding content or just changing it.

4.2 Perform Computations During Synthesis

Once the combinators (both static and programmable) are added to repository, the inhabitation targets are requested and a forest of type expressions is computed that satisfy these requests. To complete the code generation, the apply methods of the respective combinators in the types are computed.

4.3 Map from Application to Solution Domain

Our most successful contribution is the ability to create customizable and extensible code generators that produce solution domain code fragments directly from application domain elements. This capability truly shows how to transform a lightweight application domain model into executable solution domain code, without relying on proprietary or complicated tool support. The resulting product line members are constructed more directly than existing configuration mechanisms.

The automated composition technology reveals the direct links between the application domain and the solution domain while allowing each to be independently evolved and modified. Evolution can occur in the application domain (i.e., constraints can be added or existing ones refactored) or the solution domain (i.e., an API for a framework changes and the corresponding invocations must adapt). Because there is no design tool separating the programmer from seeing and modifying the combinators, our approach provides maximum power and flexibility in designing and integrating variation specific combinators. Note that the code generator registries are an independent contribution of this paper, and their behavior is orthogonal to the CLS algorithm.

4.4 Engineering Product lines

The CLS algorithm is invoked as a locally hosted web service executed from within IntelliJ as a background task. As combinators are designed and constructed, IntelliJ helps programmers with all of the modern conveniences provided by an IDE, such as code completion, syntax highlighting, and searching (both definitions and usage of). Each graph variation is configured using a top-level Scala class, such as shown

above. To request construction, visit localhost:9000/simple in a web browser and the designated code executes.

As customized by the application domain model, a repository of static combinators is constructed based on the Scala traits that contain variation-specific combinator definitions. And all programmable combinators are added to the repository and, using reflection, the CLS engine gathers all type information. There are two steps to synthesize a specific graph variation. First, upon activation, the CLS web-service performs type inhabitation on the requests which are derived from the application domain model instance or variation. These targets are programmatically supplied, rather than hard-coded. The result of inhabitation is a forest of type expressions returned to the client invoking the web-service. Second, instead of simply pretty printing the synthesized code, the web-service packages the synthesized code corresponding to the type expressions in a locally-hosted Git repository.

Since all artifacts are programmed natively, we can immediately increase programmer productivity in at least four ways; (1) use breakpoints in IntelliJ within the combinator Scala code to debug step-by-step through the static or programmatic combinators; (2) use standardized logging capabilities (with different warn, debug, and error levels) to generate log files to record the detailed context when debugging complicated combinators; (3) incorporate unit tests for individual combinators as well as the POJOs used to model the application domain, so programmers can increase their confidence in the modular units; (4) use code coverage analysis over the test cases to identify non-executing code and potential weak areas;

Using CLS is a major improvement over burying build details within Makefile/Ant scripts which encode the detailed knowledge for constructing individual product line members. Since the entire composition process is transparent, programmers have full control over the process; for example, we have scripts to automatically synthesize and compile all registered solitaire variations. A limitation of FeatureIDE is that the user must manually choose the current configuration, and only one composed product line member can exist at a time. Finally, the CLS composed code is readable, and at first glance is indistinguishable from manually written software.

5 EVALUATION

Evaluation of our approach goes here...

6 CONCLUSION

In our approach, all product line family modeling is accomplished in the application domain model space and the combinators are written to simply “materialize” the actual solution-domain code that reflects the application domain model. This work will also enable true independence from underlying technologies and external dependencies, and in particular, address the common problem of upgrading code that depends upon a framework that has evolved.

7 RELATED WORK

variants are the SPL frameworks supported by the most extensive commercial case-studies in our list. A feature they share with CLS is support for domain spaces with non-boolean types (e.g., numbers), which can also be automatically computed. This exceeds the capabilities of feature diagrams, where extensions have been proposed to include

numbers for modeling cardinalities [32]. In our example, variable cardinalities are used to model the different numbers of piles in a game and positions for their layout are automatically computed. Inclusion of non-booleans blows up the order of magnitude of possible products from 2^n , where n is the number of decisions to be made, to infinity.

The authors of [2] explain the importance of supporting multiple target languages and one of the main improvements of their FeatureHouse framework over AHEAD [8] is to eliminate language extension overhead. From a BNF grammar with some annotations, FeatureHouse generates a parser and pretty printer for superimposed AST components. Given an ordered sequence of these components, they can be automatically composed to generate an AST, which is then pretty printed to create a target source code artifact. CLS is in some sense complementary to this approach: it automates finding the sequence in which AST manipulations are to be made and leaves their specification to the developer. In principle, the two frameworks could be combined. This seems especially promising for the generation of parsers and pretty printers, which is currently one of the major efforts when adapting CLS to a new target language.

The DOPLER [11] framework avoids any assumptions about target languages and instead operates with a decision-based meta model of code generators. Code generators are automatically executed by the rule-based Drools engine [30] whenever decisions are taken. This offers similar flexibility to combinators in CLS, which can perform arbitrary computation. A downside of the DOPLER framework is that the low level, solution space specific collaboration of code generators has to be coded manually. In CLS, code generating combinators can specify their need for input from other code generators in their type, and the inhabitation algorithm will automatically compose them. In DOPLER this solution space dependency would have to be hard coded or pushed to the domain space to be handled by Drools.

In the broader scope of software product lines beyond a specific framework, a feature-based extension to UML is proposed in [10]. In contrast to our modeling of the domain specific variability with classes, this extension modifies models of solution domain classes depending on Object Constraint Language (OCL) expressions.

8 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Identification of funding sources and other support, and thanks to individuals and groups that assisted in the research and the preparation of the work should be included in an acknowledgment section, which is placed just before the reference section in your document.

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9 APPENDICES

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Start the appendix with the “appendix” command:

```
\appendix
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and note that in the appendix, sections are lettered, not numbered. This document has two appendices, demonstrating the section and subsection identification method.

10 SIGCHI EXTENDED ABSTRACTS

The “sigchi-a” template style (available only in L^AT_EX and not in Word) produces a landscape-orientation formatted article, with a wide left margin. Three environments are available for use with the “sigchi-a” template style, and produce formatted output in the margin:

- sidebar: Place formatted text in the margin.
- marginfigure: Place a figure in the margin.
- margintable: Place a table in the margin.

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A RESEARCH METHODS

A.1 Part One

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A.2 Part Two

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B ONLINE RESOURCES

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