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## 6 DEFINING SOFTWARE PROCESS MODEL CONSTRAINTS 7 WITH RULES USING OWL AND SWRL

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17 The Software & Systems Process Engineering meta-model (SPEM) allows the modelling  
 18 of software processes using OMG (Object Management Group) standards such as the  
 19 MOF (Meta-Object Facility) and UML (Unified Modelling Language) making it possi-  
 20 ble to represent software processes using tools compliant with UML. Process definition  
 21 encompasses both the static and dynamic structure of roles, tasks and work products  
 22 together with imposed constraints on those elements. However, the latter requires sup-  
 23 port for constraint enforcement that is not always directly available in SPEM. Such  
 24 constraint-checking behaviour could be used to detect possible mismatches between pro-  
 25 cess definitions and the actual processes being carried out in the course of a project.  
 26 This paper approaches the modelling of such constraints using the SWRL (Semantic  
 27 Web Rule Language), which is a W3C recommendation. To do so, we need to first repre-  
 28 sent generic processes modelled with SPEM using an underlying ontology based on the  
 29 OWL (Ontology Web Language) representation together with data derived from actual  
 30 projects.

31 *Keywords:* SPEM; Ontologies; OWL; rules; SRWL.

### 32 1. Introduction

33 Process modelling in general concerns the representation of resources, artifacts and  
 34 dynamic behaviour of activities. As highlighted by Curtis [11] process modelling  
 35 supports the following objectives: (i) facilitating human understanding and com-  
 36 munication; (ii) supporting process improvement; (iii) supporting process manage-  
 37 ment; (iv) providing automated guidance in performing processes, and (v) provid-  
 38 ing automated execution support. Process modelling is of paramount importance to  
 39 improve the quality of organisation's processes, and in turn, the quality of products  
 they generate. There are several well established standards used to describe process

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1 in descriptive view such as the ISO 12207 [20] as well as improvement frameworks  
2 such as the CMMI (Capability Maturity Model Integration) [10] or ISO/IEC 15504  
3 standard [21]. More recently, the OMG (Object Management Group)<sup>a</sup> has developed  
4 a meta-model to represent software processes, called SPEM (Software & Sys-  
5 tems Process Engineering Meta-model) [26]. SPEM, currently in version 2, allow  
6 us to formalise all the relevant aspects (roles, products, deliverables, guides, life-  
7 cycle, phases, milestones, etc.) of generic software processes. SPEM is supported  
8 by different modelling tools such as the Eclipse Process Framework (EPF) Com-  
9 poser<sup>b</sup> aiming at better management and monitoring of projects. Although SPEM  
10 is increasingly gaining popularity as it is based on the same standards as UML, it  
11 is not the only possibility to represent process. For example, Grüninge and Menzel  
12 [15] describe the Process Specification Language (PSL) designed to exchange pro-  
13 cess information among systems.

14 In another direction, ontologies [14, 36] are explicit representations of domain  
15 concepts and their relationships. More formally, an ontology defines the vocabulary  
16 of a problem domain and a set of constraints on how terms can be combined to  
17 model the domain. Common uses of ontologies include communication between  
18 people and organizations and interoperability between systems, i.e., translation of  
19 modelling methods, paradigms, languages and software tools. Desirable qualities  
20 provided by ontologies include reusability thanks to formal representations, search-  
21 ability providing meta-data to information, and reliability performing consistency  
22 checking. In software engineering, ontologies can be used by applications require a  
23 higher level of formality of definition. For example, cataloguing resources or mapping  
24 of vocabularies from different information sources requiring precise definitions, or  
25 at least significant characterizations that help in deciding which terms to use in  
26 practical situations. Ontologies allow us to add semantics to data so that different  
27 software components can share information in a homogeneous way. For example,  
28 Sicilia *et al.* [32] review of use of ontologies in the engineering domain and how  
29 upper ontologies can be of assistance. Furthermore, formal logic can be used in  
30 conjunction with such formal representations for reasoning about the information  
31 and facts represented as ontologies.

32 In this paper, we show how processes modelled using the SPEM framework can  
33 be translated into ontologies. Such representation together with actual data from  
34 current projects (also translated into ontologies) can provide reasoning capabilities  
35 for consistency checking, model validation, project and resource analysis, business  
36 rule analysis, etc.

37 The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 covers the background.  
38 Sec. 3 summarizes the processes of creating ontologies from SPEM, followed by how  
39 constraints can be modelled and executed in Sec. 4. Finally, Sec. 5 concludes the  
40 paper and outlines future work.

<sup>a</sup><http://www.omg.org/>

<sup>b</sup><http://www.eclipse.org/epf>

**2. Background****2.1. Software processes and SPEM**

As defined by the SWEBOK [19] a “*software process is a set of activities, methods, practices, and transformations which people use to develop and maintain software and the associated products*”. Within the Software Engineering discipline, the definition, implementation, and improvement of processes is becoming increasingly important in what is called Software Process Engineering (SPE) and a large number of standards related to process modelling, assessment and improvement of process have been proposed. Also, many of the software process standards proposed can provide some automated support such as on-line documentation, templates, etc. they are, however, mainly based on paper manuals using natural language presenting several problems (e.g., difficulty accessing to the information, different versions of the same documents, lack of tailored processes to specific environments or projects, etc.). When dealing with the actual management of software process, several software systems were proposed as automated prescriptive models prior to SPEM, such as EPOS (Process Centred Software Engineering Environment) [25] or SPADE (Software Process Analysis, Design, and Enactment) [4]. However, a major drawback of these systems is the lack of standard representations and formats.

The SPEM specification is the first step towards formalising the engineering of processes. In the same way as we can model software systems using the UML (Unified Modelling Language), it is now possible to define processes formally using SPEM which is in turn based on other OMG standards including UML and MOF (Meta Object Facility). In addition to a better management and improvement of processes, SPEM objectives include the improvement of human comprehension of the processes, facilitate process tailoring and reuse as well as the automation of software process execution. SPEM is open specification with all the necessary concepts to design, model, publish and tailor software engineering processes in order to (i) create a repository of reusable content; (ii) support the management and development of software processes; (iii) establishing a process framework within an organisation (e.g., CMM level 3 needs defined as well as tailoring mechanisms) and (iv) generation of templates of actual projects. It is worth noting that SPEM is mainly designed for software processes and not as a general process modelling. Other efforts exist in such direction such as the BPMN (Business Process Modelling Notation)<sup>c</sup> which is also maintained by the OMG.

When using the SPEM standard, processes can be defined using two approaches (i) as a UML profile and (ii) as a meta-model. A UML profile defines a series of stereotypes (mainly graphical icons) to represent software engineering concepts. Therefore, when used as a profile, it is mainly a diagrammatical tool using UML artifacts extended with visual icons to represent software process concepts. As a meta-model, SPEM processes can include the semantics of the MOF meta-model

<sup>c</sup><http://www.bpmn.org/>

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1 and it is possible to automate the translation between different representations  
2 (being MOF the core of the Model Driven Architecture (MDA).<sup>d</sup>

3 The SPEM specification defines two types of concepts: (i) the *Method Content*  
4 with basic elements such as *Role*, *Task* and *WorkProduct* and (ii) *Process* as a com-  
5 bination of previously defined content elements as a dynamic structure. Concepts  
6 are organised in the following meta-model packages:

- 7 • *Core* contains common classes and abstractions used to build upon.
- 8 • *Process structure* represents the static concepts of processes with nesting activities  
9 and predecessor and successor dependencies.
- 10 • *Process behaviour* extends the *Process Structure* package with behavioural models  
11 such as activity diagrams for process behaviour or work products with state  
12 machines to represent its lifecycle.
- 13 • *Managed Content* introduces concepts for managing textual description (natural  
14 language) and documentation capabilities for processes.
- 15 • *Method Content* provides the concepts for defining lifecycle and process inde-  
16 pendent reusable method content elements that provide a base of documented  
17 knowledge of software development methods, techniques and best practices.
- 18 • *Process With-Methods* defines new and redefines existing structures for integrating  
19 Process Structure concepts with instances of Method Content concepts (Tasks,  
20 Roles and Work Products) into the context of a lifecycle model comprising, for  
21 example, phases and milestones.
- 22 • *Method Plug-in*: It allows us to introduce the concept of variability in processes, in  
23 what is called method configuration, where the user can add or remove elements  
24 without modifying the original model.

25 A repository (or *Method Library*) is composed of one or more *Plug-ins* and  
26 *Method Configurations*. Plug-ins are in turn divided into two components: (i) *Method*  
27 *Content* and (ii) *Processes* modelling static and dynamic concepts respectively. Also,  
28 as there is no need to use all process documentation at one given instance in time,  
29 a tailored subset can be defined with *Method Configurations*. For example, different  
30 views can be shown to different roles within an organization (e.g., developers only  
31 need the information related to programming).

32 We next need to define the main elements of the packages without being exhaus-  
33 tive as many concepts are not visible when modelling process. The basic elements  
34 of *Method Content* include:

- 35 • *Tasks* are atomic units of work composed of a series of *Steps*.
- 36 • *Roles* are defined as set of abilities, competencies and responsibilities related to  
37 an individual or group of individuals.
- 38 • *Work products* are *artifacts*, *deliverables* or *outcomes*.
- 39 • *Guidance* elements provide additional information related to other elements.

<sup>d</sup><http://www.omg.org/mda/>

- 1     • *Categories* are in turn classified as *Standard Category* and *Custom Category* used  
2       to organise and create hierarchies of elements.  
3     • *Associations* between *content elements* such as *Task-Steps*, *Task-Roles*, etc.

4       Content Elements (*Tasks*, *Roles* and *Work Products*) that are instantiated in  
5       a particular process end with the suffix “*Use*”. For example, we have *Task Use*,  
6       *Work Product Use*, and *Role Use* representing actual instances of the definition of  
7       a an activity, actual artefact and actual roles in a process respectively. Note that it  
8       refers to the generic term in a process definition but it does not correspond to any  
9       concrete project (e.g., the requirements document in Scrum is referred generically  
10      as the backlog).

11      On the other hand, we have *Processes* in which the *Method Content* described  
12      are combined to define activities and processes. Process basic elements include:

- 13     • *Work Definition* is an abstract concept that generalises all types of *work  
definitions*.  
14     • *Breakdown Element* is an abstract generalisation for all other types of process  
15       elements, mainly *Process Parameters*, *Process Performers*, *Work Breakdown Ele-  
ments*, and *Work Sequence* connecting two *Work Breakdown* elements (prede-  
16       cessor and successor). *Work Breakdown Elements* are composed of *Activities* and  
17       *Milestones*. Finally, SPEM defines three types of *Activities*: (i) *Phase* a significant  
18       non repeatable time span of a project; (ii) *Iteration*; and (iii) *Milestone*.

21      Based on process patterns, SPEM provides two classes for adapting and dynam-  
22      ically ensemble processes: (i) *Capability Pattern*, a generic and reusable software  
23       piece that can be reused across several processes; and (ii) *Delivery Process* which  
24       describes a complete and integrated approach for performing a specific project type,  
25       i.e., it covers a complete project lifecycle to be used as a reference for executing  
26       projects following the same process such us XP, RUP or Scrum.

27      Currently, there are several tools such as the Eclipse Process Framework (EPF)  
28      Composer capable of editing processes using SPEM. The EPF Composer uses XMI  
29       (XML Metadata Interchange),<sup>e</sup> another OMG standard for manipulating, storing  
30       and interchanging information between tools and it enables to export a process  
31       template to project management tools (e.g., Microsoft Project). Once exported, It  
32       is necessary to include further information such as the actual duration of tasks.  
33       It can also generate the process documentation in HTML format to be accessed  
34       through the Web.

35      **2.2. Ontologies and reasoning**

36      Ontologies, as the shared representation of domain concepts and their relationships  
37       can be represented in different formalisms for quite a long time. Since the inception

<sup>e</sup><http://www.omg.org/technology/documents/formal/xmi.htm>

of the Semantic Web, in which ontologies are the principal recourse to integrate and deal with online information, a new set of standards has been proposed. The Ontology Web Language (OWL) [34] is one of such standards that belongs to a family of knowledge representation languages prepared for the Semantic Web that has reached status of W3C (World Wide Web Consortium) recommendation. From technical point of view OWL extends the RDF (Resource Description Framework) and RDF-S (RDF Schema) allowing us to integrate a variety of applications using XML as interchange syntax. Although there are several profiles with different expressive power, it is possible to specify property domains, cardinality ranges and reasoning on ontologies. Reasoning in OWL can be performed at a class, property or instance level and reasoning examples include class membership, equivalence of classes, consistency, classification of the information, obtaining additional properties using transitiveness or equivalent, etc. Another W3C standard, the Semantic Web Rule Language (SWRL) [18], based on RuleML<sup>f</sup>, extends the OWL providing logic based rules, and in consequence, more expressiveness. Rules have the form of antecedent implies a consequent. Also, SPARQL<sup>g</sup> (Protocol and RDF Query Language) SQWRL (Semantic Query-enhanced Web Rule Language)<sup>h</sup> [30] can be used to query ontologies with a large number of build-in libraries. Figure 1 shows the use of SWRL rules with OWL ontologies. Rules together with stored facts (knowledge base) are executed as inputs to by the rule engine inferring new facts as an output. Also, if the inference engine infers knowledge using forward chaining, the new knowledge can be used for further inference or querying stored or inferred knowledge.

The open source Protégé tool<sup>i</sup> is one of the possible tools that can be used for creating ontologies. It includes the SWRLTab which is an extension for editing and executing of SWRL and SQWRL in conjunction with JESS<sup>j</sup>, a rule engine.

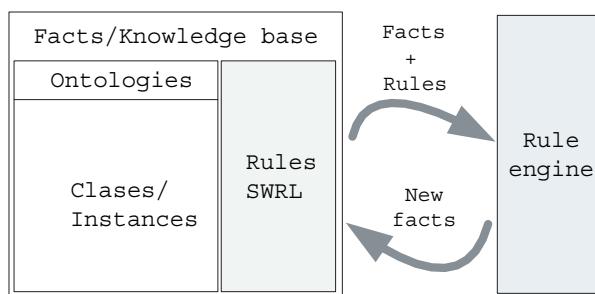


Fig. 1. Execution of rules adding new knowledge/constraints from rules.

<sup>f</sup><http://ruleml.org/>

<sup>g</sup><http://www.w3.org/TR/rdf-sparql-query/>

<sup>h</sup><http://protege.cim3.net/cgi-bin/wiki.pl?SQWRL>

<sup>i</sup><http://protege.stanford.edu/>

<sup>j</sup><http://www.jessrules.com/>

### 3. Representing Processes with OWL Ontologies

As stated previously, SPEM is generally used to design generic software processes such as the Open Unified Process, XP or Scrum. In this section, we discuss a first approach to create an ontology from the Scrum process [28] defined using SPEM. Scrum is a relatively simple process with a reasonable number of classes and properties.

Although SPEM models can be translated to a representation in OWL while retaining the modelling semantics specified in SPEM, the creation of ontologies is not straight forward. There are no standard modelling methodologies but a mix of guidelines that combined with techniques from the database and object oriented modelling domains can iteratively achieve the desired representation [12]. In any case, the translation should not aim at substituting the original model, but to serve as a complement for adding reasoning and inference support to SPEM based models.

Typically, SPEM models would be translated into one or several OWL modules, in addition to other OWL modules with basic mappings that would be imported by these. It should be noted that there is no need to translate each SPEM package into an OWL module as simplicity has been preferred in contrast to mirroring every SPEM element. Many terms in the standard are linked to other through inheritance to provide the necessary semantic meaning which can be directly defined when creating the ontology. For example, *ExtensibleElement* is an abstract class for all the SPEM elements and the ontology can be focused on more visible elements such as *task* or *role*. The packages, however, can help to organise the different concepts in different ontologies and files). For example, from the *Core* package, we just selected the *ParameterDirectionKind* to create and enumeration of *input*, *output* or *inputOutput* linked through a property (*hasParameterdirection*). The *Task*, *Role* and *WorkProduct* elements that appear in the *Method Content* package are defined in the method-content ontology. In the same way the *Activity*, *Milestone*, etc. classes from the *Process* package in another *process* ontology.

Roles in Scrum are divided into: (i) *Chicken* roles which are not part of actual scrum process but need to taken into such as account stakeholders and customers; and (ii) *Pig* roles which are committed to the project. The *Pig* roles in Scrum are the *scrum master*, i.e., the project manager, the *product owners* that represent the stakeholders; and the *team*, which carries out the actual project usually in relatively small teams of around 7 people capable of self-organising. In the ontology, the *Role* class from the method-content ontology can be extended within the Scrum ontology, i.e., *method-Content:Role* can have *scrum:Pig* and *scrum:Chicken* as subclasses. The *productOwner*, *scrumMaster* and *team* will be instances of the Scrum *Chicken* role.

The development of a project using Scrum is performed iterative and incrementally in cycles called *sprints*. Each sprint is supposed to end up with a working system that could be potentially delivered to the client. Requirements are prioritised in what is called the *Product Backlog* which is regularly updated and new items, detailing items, estimates and so on. Before starting each sprint, the functionality

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1 from the product backlog to be included in the next sprint (*sprint backlog*) is decided  
2 during the *sprint planning meeting*. All these terms can be represented in OWL a  
3 as a generic process extending the basic terms. In the ontology, these terms are  
4 defined as *WorkProduct* in the *method content* ontology with *Artifact*, *Deliverable*  
5 and *Outcome* as subclasses. Then, an instance or individual of *Artifact* will be the  
6 *sprintBacklog* as part of the *scrum* ontology.

7 The execution of a project using the Scrum process is composed of the follow-  
8 ing three phases: (i) *Pre-game* composed of two phases *Planning* which defines the  
9 system to be built (*Product Backlog*, estimates, etc.) and *High-level Design* of the  
10 system based on the *Product Backlog* and the *Design Review Meeting*, a prelimi-  
11 nary planning for the releases is outlined; (ii) *Game* or *Development Phase*. The  
12 development is performed in sprints. There are several predefined meetings, the  
13 *sprint planning meeting* at the beginning of each sprint, a *daily scrum* stand-up  
14 meeting and a *sprint review meeting*; and the (iii) *Post-game phase* as the closure  
15 of the project. The *process* ontology has the *Activity* class with *Iteration* and *Phase*  
16 classes defined as subclasses. The *PreGame*, *Game* and *PostGame* are defined in  
17 the *scrum* ontology.

18 Scrum already defines a set of rules that must be followed and many of them are  
19 related to timing constrains. For example, once a sprint has started, the items from  
20 the sprint backlog cannot be modified, another one is that at the beginning of each  
21 day, a *stand up meeting*, called the *daily scrum* must take place and only people  
22 committed to the project can talk (not those only involved). There are also other  
23 rules related to time; for example, duration of each sprint can vary between 15 days  
24 to a month but no more and there is a sprint planning meeting at the beginning that  
25 should not last more than eight hours. There is also a sprint review meeting with a  
26 time limit of four hours. There is also another meeting defined by Scrum, the *sprint*  
27 *retrospective*, in which all team members analyse what went well and what can be  
28 improved in the next sprint with a time limit of three hours. In the ontology, we can  
29 deal with time and time constrains for such classes either using the built-in types or  
30 merge developed ontologies such as the time ontology<sup>k</sup> developed by Hobbs and Pan  
31 [17]. The same applies to generic terms in the SPEM standards such as *Metric*. The  
32 *Metrics* class is the only concept defined in SPEM to contain measurements such as  
33 effort estimations of activities, or maximum duration of Scrum meetings and further  
34 refined ontologies for metrics have defined by [13] among others. Another example  
35 is the matching between roles, people and competences that can be exported from  
36 other ontologies [31].

37 When an actual project is represented in the ontology, we need to include con-  
38 crete people, task and time information that is not available through the SPEM  
39 modules but be retrieved possibly from project management tools. It is there-  
40 fore necessary to translate such information from project management tools or  
41 databases into new classes in the ontology. For example, the actual personnel from

<sup>k</sup><http://www.w3.org/TR/owl-time/>

an organization could be stored in an ontology which we called *genericProjectDefs* which can have the *People* class and all the organisation personnel as instances. As stated previously, all properties (links between classes) are binary, therefore, in order to link personnel, roles and tasks we need to define an *n*-ary relationship. To do so, we need define a new class in which instances and other such as tools can be linked through properties (called reified relations).

For the translation, the OWL ontologies were elaborated using the Protégé tool. Although the nomenclature used in the SPEM standard or Scrum was followed whenever was possible, it should be noted that other translation approaches could be devised in the future with a more comprehensive alignment to the OMG meta-modelling specifications. This includes the use of the recently proposed ODM (Object Definition Metamodel)<sup>1</sup> specification which can be used for translations between metamodels. A large number of terms are generic to software engineering processes and methodologies and defined in numerous standards, guides and other ontologies. Such works can be used in conjunction with SPEM as starting point of the ontological process and merging of ontologies. For example, the Metric concept in SPEM 2 is could be further expanded with much richer descriptions from other ontologies such as the SMO (Software Measurement Ontologies) [13]. However, merging ontologies and terminology from the software engineering standards is not a trivial task. For example, Activity and Task definitions in SPEM do not exactly comply with the ISO 12207 standard as it defines activity as life cycle phase and a task as something performed within an activity. Table 1 shows an excerpt of relevant classes in OWL used to represent projects based on the SPEM metamodel.

Table 1. OWL ontologies representing SPEM projects.

OWL Module	Class
Core	ParameterDirectionKind {Core:In; Core:Out; Core: InOut}
Method Content	Role
	...
	WorkProduct
	TaskType
Process	Activity
	Milestone
	...
Scrum	SprintPlanningMeetingType
	SprintBackLogCreation
	DesingReviewMeeting
	ChickenRole PigRole
	...
GenericProjectDefs	People
	Competency
	...

<sup>1</sup><http://www.omg.org/docs/formal/09-05-01.pdf>

#### 4. Modelling Process Constraints with SWRL

As stated previously, the main motivation of this work is to actually check and verify constraints that can be defined as part of a SPEM process models and other information that can be obtained from project management tools. It can be devised, for example, that other information gathered from software repositories (e.g., metrics) could be included in as OWL ontologies and constraints could be verified using rules.

As it is shown by Fig. 2, ontologies represented using OWL and rules with SWRL are combined in order to improve the management of projects. On the one hand, we have generic process information from SPEM models using tools such as the Eclipse Process Framework. Also, configurations of a concrete project can be exported to project management tool (e.g., MS Project) in which the concrete process specification can be populated with information about personnel, information about start and end dates of activities, their duration, etc. Information from both sources can populate instances in ontologies that can be enriched with constraints in the form of rules using tools such as Protégé in conjunction with rules engines such as JESS. In this environment we can execute such rules to verify constraints and inconsistencies in a project as well as possibly incorporate new knowledge into the project management tools to better monitor the project. It is worth noting that although many of the constraints in UML can be defined using the Object Constraint Language (OCL), however, it currently lacks the maturity and tool support provided by the semantic Web. Following the example described in the SPEM specification [26] as a precondition: “*Input Document X has been reviewed and signed by customer AND the work defined by Work Definition ‘Management Review’ is complete*”. Such precondition is expressed in natural language and associated to the *WorkDefinition* class compositional association (Fig. 3 shows the UML class diagram for the *WorkDefinition* class). Even if expressed in OCL, we are not aware of any environment that automates their execution.

After defining the SPEM ontology, we can now provide an overview of how SPEM and project constraints can be expressed using the SWRL as a rule language capable of checking and verifying constraints. It is possible to run rules at the same level or between different levels in the ontological hierarchy shown in Fig. 4.

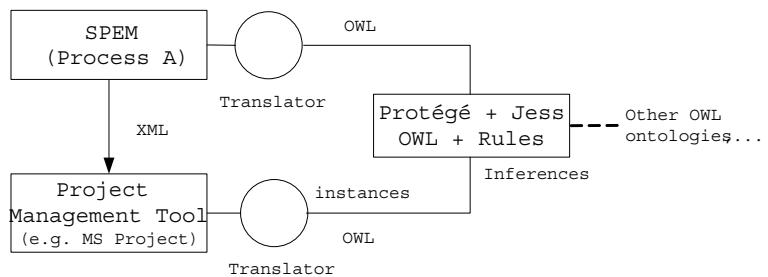


Fig. 2. Extension of SPEM with Semantic Knowledge and Rules.

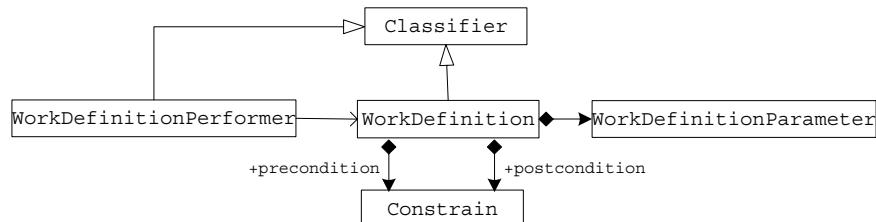
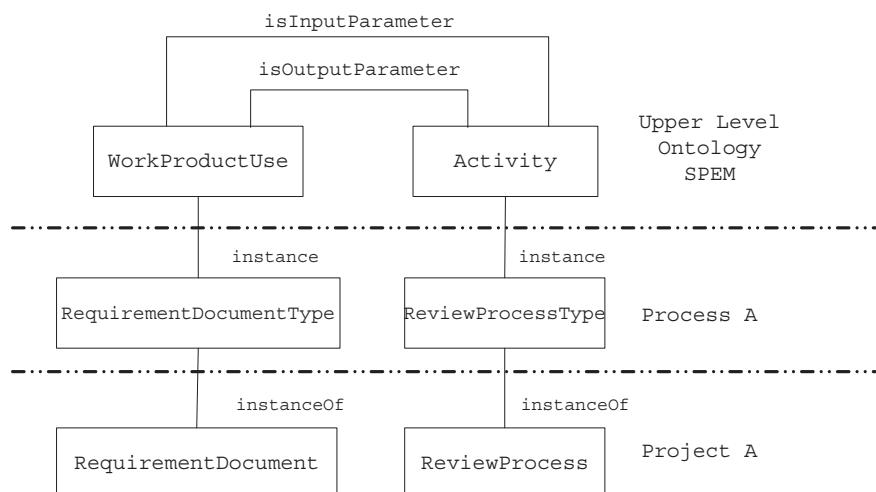
Fig. 3. Constraints as part of the *WorkDefinition* abstract class.

Fig. 4. Different Semantic Levels when Creating SPEM Ontologies.

1 An example of executing rules at the same level could be as follows. When an  
 2 activity has a work product as input and output, a rule could automatically include  
 3 another property that such work product is both input and output parameter. In  
 4 the UML SPEM profile this is defined as an enumeration.

5 `WorkProduct(?a) ∧ ProjectTask(?t) ∧ isInputParameter(?a, ?t) ∧`  
 6 `isModifiedBy(?a, ?t) → hasParameterDirection(?a, core:inOut)`

7 We could specify concrete examples using SCRUM. For example, when running  
 8 a project if the backlog for a sprint has been agreed and the sprint started, then we  
 9 could assign to the Boolean property `modifiable` the value false. Note that such a  
 10 rule could be part of some guideline when specifying the process.

11 `WorkProduct(sprintBacklog1) ∧ isAgreed(sprintBacklog1) ∧`  
 12 `sprintStarted(sprintBacklog1, true)`  
 13 `⇒ modifiable(sprintBacklog1, false)`

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1 Another example of rule could be when a work product goes through the process  
 2 of review; in such a case, there could exist a property (`isReviewedBacklog`) which  
 3 automatically is updated.

```
4 WorkProduct(sprintBacklog1) ∧
 5 isInputParameter(sprintBacklog1, sprintPlanningMeeting1)
 6 → isReviewedBacklog(sprintBacklog1, true)
```

7 As stated, many of the restrictions apply to time. One possible solution could be  
 8 to create all temporal needed properties using the built-in datatypes and functions.  
 9 Another approach is to include the data entry ontology [17]. Similar restrictions  
 10 can be applied to the duration of each of the iteration in a Scrum project cannot  
 11 be longer than 30 days:

```
12 activitySprint(?sp1) ∧ startDate(dt1?, ?spr1) ∧
 13 temporal:durationGreaterthan(30, ?dt1, "Days")
 14 ⇒ conformingPlan (?sp1, false)
```

15 Ontologies and rules could also represent a novel approach to plan, manage and  
 16 monitor software projects. SWRL can be used in conjunction with SPARQL and  
 17 SQWRL to query OWL files chaining knowledge. For example, we could verify that  
 18 a person cannot be assigned to two full time overlapping activities or personnel  
 19 competencies and types of jobs that could be assigned. In these cases, chain of rules  
 20 could be used as an approach to CSP (Constrain Satisfaction Problems).

## 21 5. Related Work

22 One of the initial ontologies in software engineering is REFSENO (Representation  
 23 Formalisms for Software Engineering Ontologies) developed by Tautz and von  
 24 Wangenheim [35]. This ontology has been applied for modelling experience factors  
 25 [6] using the Goal-Question-Metric paradigm [4] and to software maintenance  
 26 process by Vizcaíno *et al.* [37]. Kitchenham *et al.* [22] also defined an ontology for  
 27 software maintenance using UML as a formalism for identifying and defining several  
 28 domain factors (e.g., product, process, people and organization) and attributes that  
 29 influence the maintenance process. Based on Kitchenham *et al.* work, Ruiz *et al.* [29]  
 30 defined another ontology for the management of software maintenance. Althoff *et al.*  
 31 [2] describe an architecture oriented to reuse the experience in software engineering  
 32 that use ontologies as the underlying formalism. In relation to process ontologies,  
 33 Ceravolo *et al.* [9] describe the Extreme Programming Ontology (XPO) specifying  
 34 the main concepts of the XP methodology. Authors aim is to analyse agile processes,  
 35 mining process data about developer's activity and repositories content in order to  
 36 extract new concepts potentially identifying critical factors in agile software develop-  
 37 ment. As SPEM is increases its popularity as a way of representing models more  
 38 formally, several researchers are using SPEM as a foundation for defining ontolo-  
 39 gies. For example, García *et al.* [13] developed an ontology to represent software  
 40 engineering measurement concepts merging SPEM with other ontologies.

1 Researchers have also developed ontologies based on current standards such as  
2 the Guide to the Software Engineering Body of Knowledge (SWEBOK) [19], which  
3 is also an ISO standard (ISO/IEC TR 19759:2005). Standards provide an agreement  
4 on the content of what compose the software engineering discipline opening new  
5 possibilities to ontology engineering in the field of software engineering, since they  
6 represent a shared consensus on the contents of the discipline. For example, Abran  
7 *et al.* [1] report on the developed of a software engineering ontology based on the  
8 SWEBOK and the process for its creation.

9 Although these works represent a very important and starting point to define  
10 terms and processes related to software engineering, most of cited ontologies mainly  
11 define concepts and their relationships without providing formalisms for reasoning.  
12 In most cases, ontologies consist of definitions defined using UML classes and  
13 attributes with textual descriptions of the definitions without reasoning capabilities.  
14 When referring to reasoning with models are mainly focused on the UML (in which  
15 SPEM can be based) and the OCL (Object Constraint Language) as a way of verifying  
16 models. For example, Cabot, Clarisó and Riera [8] describe how to transform  
17 UML class diagrams together with OCL specifications into Constrain Satisfaction  
18 Problems (CSP) in order to validate them. A similar approach is taken by Queralt  
19 and Teniente [27] to validate UML models and by Simmonds *et al.* [33]. As a result  
20 of the REWERSE project, Milanović *et al.* [23] have defined an approach for meta-  
21 model transformation between UML/OCL and OWL/SRWL, based on the R2ML  
22 (REWERSE Rule Markup Language) which is a MOF-defined pivotal language for  
23 the translation. The MOF is a meta-modeling language for specifying models, i.e.,  
24 it allow us to specify models of modeling languages. As stated by Milanović *et al.*,  
25 there are benefits of the bridging the gap between OMG models such as UML or  
26 SPEM and the semantic Web with OWL. On the one hand, OWL has become the  
27 de-facto standard for specifying ontologies and on the other hand, models which they  
28 define as set statements of can be verified using the reasoning technologies provided  
29 by the Semantic Web. From the same project, Aßmann, Zshaler and Wagner [3]  
30 also present a schema combining ontologies and metamodels for the MDE (Model  
31 Driven Engineering) approach as a complementary techniques.

32 Different Constrain Satisfaction Problems (CSP) approaches have been used in  
33 software project management. For example, Neagu and Faltings [24] have applied  
34 Case Based Reasoning to deal with soft and hard constraints. Other authors [5, 16]  
35 have applied search based technique to deal with project constraints. The approach  
36 presented in this paper is based on logic and standard tools.

## 37 6. Conclusions and Future Work

38 This paper describes how software process ontologies can be derived from the Software  
39 and Systems Process Engineering Meta-model (SPEM) models. SPEM standardises  
40 and formalises the way of representing software engineering processes in  
41 relation to both their static and dynamic concepts such as activities, roles, tasks

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1 and work products. Ontologies in turn can be extended with rules representing  
2 constrains over elements of a concrete software project and those rules can be executed  
3 to verify such constrains and discover possible problems during the execution of a  
4 project. We presented a basic approach as a proof of concept using the Ontology  
5 Web Language (OWL) combined with SWRL (Semantic Web Rule Language) rules  
6 to represent constraints as rules. This approach provides the benefit of representing  
7 certain information that can not be represented in SPEM alone and furthermore it  
8 can be automatically verified.

9 Future work includes further development of the ontologies and rules for existing  
10 software processes that started here as a proof of concept. In this work, we created  
11 the ontology manually; it may however be possible to obtain a first version of the  
12 ontologies using model transformations. As both SPEM and the new ODM (Ontol-  
13 ogy Definition Metamodel) are defined using meta-models, the translation can be  
14 performed using M2M (Model-to-Model) using for example the ATL<sup>m</sup> (Atlas Trans-  
15 formation Language) or the QVT<sup>n</sup> (Query/View/Transformation) specifications.  
16 Also, there are several existing ontologies related to software engineering or other  
17 disciplines (e.g., measurement ontologies, competencies) that can be integrated and  
18 form an important activity in the development of new ontologies and tool support  
19 for processes and project managers. The extension of process frameworks such as the  
20 Eclipse Process Framework to include rules as well as translators between project  
21 management and ontology based tools for the introduction of rules and their verifi-  
22 cation. Another open research issue is not only to verify the constrains of a project,  
23 but also how new inferred information could fed back to the project management  
24 tools in order to improve the control of a project.

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