

The Faculty of Science, Technology and Communication

DISSERTATION

Defence held on ??/??/2019 in Luxembourg

to obtain the degree of

DOCTEUR DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG ET
DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DE RENNES 1 EN INFORMATIQUE

by

Ludovic MOULINE

TOWARDS A MODELING FRAMEWORK WITH TEMPORAL AND UNCERTAIN DATA FOR ADAPTIVE SYSTEMS

Dissertation defence committee (*Waiting for approval*)

Dr. Jacques KLEIN, chairman

Senior Research Scientist, University of Luxembourg, Luxembourg, Luxembourg

Prof. Dr. Antonio VALLECILLO, vice-chairman & reviewer

Professor, University of Málaga, Málaga, Spain

Prof. Dr. Yves LE TRAON, co-supervisor

Professor, University of Luxembourg, Luxembourg, Luxembourg

Prof. Dr. Olivier BARAIS, co-supervisor

Professor, University of Rennes 1, Rennes, France

Dr. Johann BOURCIER, advisor

Lecturer, University of Rennes 1, Rennes, France

Dr. Franck FLEUREY, member & reviewer

Research Associate, SINTEF, Oslo, Norway

A-Prof. Dr. Ada DIACONESCU, expert

Research Associate, Telecom ParisTech, Paris, France

Dr. François FOUQUET, expert & advisor

CTO, DataThings, Luxembourg, Luxembourg

Abstract

Vision: As state-of-the-art techniques fail to model efficiently the evolution and the uncertainty existing in dynamically adaptive systems, the adaptation process makes suboptimal decisions. To tackle this challenge, modern modelling frameworks should efficiently encapsulate time and uncertainty as first-class concepts.

Context Smart grid approach introduces information and communication technologies into traditional power grid to cope with new challenges of electricity distribution. Among them, one challenge is the resiliency of the grid: how to automatically recover from any incident such as overload? These systems therefore need a deep understanding of the ongoing situation which enables reasoning tasks for healing operations. **Abstraction** is a key technique that provided an illuminating description of systems, their behaviours, and/or their environments alleviating their complexity. **Adaptation** is a cornerstone feature that enables reconfiguration at runtime for optimizing software to the current and/or future situation.

Abstraction technique is pushed to its paramountcy by the model-driven engineering (MDE) methodology. However, information concerning the grid, such as loads, is not always known with absolute confidence. Through the thesis, this lack of confidence about data is referred to as **data uncertainty**. They are approximated from the measured consumption and the grid topology. This topology is inferred from fuse states, which are set by technicians after their services on the grid. As humans are not error-free, the topology is therefore not known with absolute confidence. This data uncertainty is propagated to the load through the computation made. If it is

neither present in the model nor not considered by the adaptation process, then the adaptation process may make suboptimal reconfiguration decision.

The literature refers to systems which provide adaptation capabilities as dynamically adaptive systems (DAS). One challenge in the grid is the phase difference between the monitoring frequency and the time for actions to have measurable effects. Action with no immediate measurable effects are named **long-term action**. On the one hand, an incident should be detected in the next minutes. On the other hand, a reconfiguration action can take up to several hours. For example, when a tree falls on a cable and cuts it during a storm, the grid manager should be noticed in real time. The reconfiguration of the grid, to reconnect as many people as possible before replacing the cable, is done by technicians who need to use their cars to go on the reconfiguration places. In a fully autonomous adaptive system, the reasoning process should consider the ongoing actions to avoid repeating decisions.

Problematic **Data uncertainty and long-term actions are not specific to smart grids.**

First, data are, almost by definition, uncertain and developers always work with estimates. Hardware sensors have by construction a precision that can vary according to the current environment in which they are deployed. A simple example is the temperature sensor that provides a temperature with precision to the nearest degree. Software sensors approximate also values from these physical sensors, which increases the uncertainty. For example, CPU usage is computed counting the cycle used by a program. As stated by Intel, this counter is not error-prone¹.

Second, it always exists a delay between the moment where a suboptimal state is detected by the adaptation process and the moment where the effects of decisions taken are measured. This delayed is due to the time needed by a computer to process data and, eventually, to send orders or data through networks. For example, migrating a virtual machine from a server to another one can take several minutes.

Through this thesis, we argue that this data uncertainty and this de-

¹<https://software.intel.com/en-us/itc-user-and-reference-guide-cpu-cycle-counter>

lay cannot be ignored for all dynamic adaptive systems. To know if the data uncertainty should be considered, stakeholders should wonder **if this data uncertainty affects the result of their reasoning process, like adaptation.** Regarding long-term actions, they should verify **if the frequency of the monitoring stage is lower than the time of action effects to be measurable.** These characteristics are common to smart grids, cloud infrastructure or cyber-physical systems in general.

Challenge These problematics come with different challenges concerning the representation of the knowledge for DAS. The global challenge address by this thesis is: **how to represent the uncertain knowledge allowing to efficiently query it and to represent ongoing actions in order to improve adaptation processes?**

Vision This thesis defends the need for a unified modelling framework which includes, despite all traditional elements, temporal and uncertainty as first-class concepts. Therefore, a developer will be able to abstract information related to the adaptation process, the environment as well as the system itself.

Concerning the adaptation process, the framework should enable abstraction of the actions, their context, their impact, and the specification of this process (requirements and constraints). It should also enable the abstraction of the system environment and its behaviour. Finally, the framework should represent the structure, behaviour and specification of the system itself as well as the actuators and sensors. All these representations should integrate the data uncertainty existing.

Contributions Towards this vision, this document presents two approaches: a temporal context model and a language for uncertain data.

The temporal context model allows abstracting past, ongoing and future actions with their impacts and context. First, a developer can use this model to know what the ongoing actions, with their expect future impacts on the system, are. Second, she/he can navigate through past decisions to understand why they have been made when they have led to a sub-optimal state.

The language, named Ain'tea, integrates data uncertainty as a first-class citizen.

It allows developers to attach data with a probability distribution which represents their uncertainty. Plus, it mapped all arithmetic and boolean operators to uncertainty propagation operations. And so, developers will automatically propagate the uncertainty of data without additional effort, compared to an algorithm which manipulates certain data.

Validation Each contribution has been evaluated separately. The context model has been evaluated through the performance axis. The dissertation shows that it can be used to represent the Luxembourg smart grid. The model also provides an API which enables the execution of query for diagnosis purpose. In order to show the feasibility of the solution, it has also been applied to the use case provided by the industrial partner.

The language has been evaluated through two axes: its ability to detect errors at development time and its expressiveness. Ain'tea can detect errors in the combination of uncertain data earlier than state-of-the-art approaches. The language is also as expressive as current approaches found in the literature. Moreover, we use this language to implement the load approximation of a smart grid furnished by an industrial partner, Creos S.A.².

Keywords: dynamically adaptive systems, knowledge representation, model-driven engineering, uncertainty modelling, time modelling
--

²Creos S.A. is the power grid manager of Luxembourg. <https://www.creos-net.lu>

Table of Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Context	2
1.2	Problem statement	3
1.2.1	Data are uncertain	3
1.2.2	Actions have long-term effects	4
1.2.3	Systems may have emergent behaviours	5
1.2.4	Different part of a system evolve at different paces	5
1.2.5	Evolution of systems is linked with time	6
1.3	Challenge	7
1.3.1	Data are uncertain	7
1.3.2	Actions have long-term effects	7
1.3.3	Systems may have emergent behaviours	8
1.3.4	Different part of a system evolve at different paces	8
1.3.5	Evolution of systems are linked with time	9
1.4	Scope of the thesis	9
1.5	Contribution & Validation	10
1.6	Structure of the document	12
2	Background	13
2.1	Adaptive systems	14
2.1.1	Principles and vision	14
2.1.2	Models@run.time	17

2.1.3	Characterisation of information of the knowledge	18
2.1.4	Key concepts for this thesis	21
2.2	Model-Driven Engineering	21
2.2.1	Principles and vision	22
2.2.2	Metamodel, model	24
2.2.3	Models@run.time	25
2.2.4	Tooling	25
2.2.5	Concepts used in this thesis	27
2.3	Software Language Engineering	27
2.3.1	Software Languages	27
2.3.2	SLE in this thesis	28
2.4	Probability theory	29
2.4.1	Random variables	29
2.4.2	Distribution	30
2.4.3	Distribution used in this thesis	30
3	State of the art	33
3.1	Introduction	34
3.2	Review methodology	35
3.3	Results RQ1: long-term actions	37
3.3.1	Modelling the evolution of system's context or behaviour . . .	37
3.3.2	Modelling actions, their circumstances, and their effects . . .	41
3.3.3	Reasoning over evolving context or behaviour	45
3.3.4	Modelling and reasoning over long-term actions	48
3.4	Results RQ2: data uncertainty	48
3.4.1	Categories of data uncertainty	48
3.4.2	Modelling data uncertainty	52
3.4.3	Propagation and reasoning over uncertainty	55
3.4.4	Modelling of data uncertainty and its manipulation	58
3.5	Threat to validity	58
3.6	Conclusion	59

4	A unified modelling framework	61
5	AinãŽtea: Managing Data Uncertainty at the Language Level	63
6	A temporal knowledge meta-model	65
6.1	Introduction	66
6.1.1	Motivation	67
6.1.2	Use case scenario	74
6.2	Knowledge formalization	75
6.2.1	Formalization of the temporal axis	75
6.2.2	Formalism	76
6.2.3	Application on the use case	81
6.3	modelling the knowledge	85
6.3.1	Parent element: <i>TimedElement</i> class	86
6.3.2	Knowledge metamodel	86
6.3.3	Context metamodel	88
6.3.4	Requirement metamodel	89
6.3.5	Action metamodel	89
6.4	Validation	91
6.4.1	Diagnostic: implementation of the use case	91
6.4.2	Reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects .	94
6.4.3	Performance evaluation	96
6.4.4	Discussion	99
6.5	Conclusion	101
7	Conclusion	103
	List of publications and tools	i
	Abbreviations	iii
	Glossary	v

Introduction

<chapt:intro>?

Contents

1.1	Context	2
1.2	Problem statement	3
1.3	Challenge	7
1.4	Scope of the thesis	9
1.5	Contribution & Validation	10
1.6	Structure of the document	12

Model-driven engineering methodology and dynamically adaptive systems approach are combined to tackle challenges brought by systems nowadays. After introducing these two software engineering techniques, we describe five problems that we identified for such systems: data uncertainty, actions with long-term effects, emergent behaviours of such systems, different evolution paces of the subparts, and the temporal dimension in their structures and behaviours. We present the challenges that come with these problems. Before describing the two contributions of this thesis, we scope to the addressed sub-challenges tackled.

1.1 Context

Utilities are introducing more and more Information and Communication Technology (ICT)* in the grid to face the new challenges of electricity supply [Far10; IA09; FMX⁺12]. The literature and the industry refer to these nowadays power grids as smart grid*.

In this document, we focus on the **self-healing*** capacity of such grids. A self-healing system* can automatically repair any incident, software or hardware, at runtime [KC03]. For example, a smart grid can optimise the power flow to deal with failures of transformers¹ [FMX⁺12]. In this way, the incident will impact as few users as possible, ideally none.

This healing mechanism can be performed only if the smart grid* has a deep understanding of itself (its structure* and its behaviour*) and its environment* (where it is executed). This understanding can be extracted from an, or a set of, **abstraction**(s) of these elements. Abstractions provide an illuminating description of systems, their behaviours*, or their environments*. For example, Hartmann *et al.*, [HFK⁺14b] provide a class diagram that describes the smart grid topology, when it uses power lines communications².

More generally, a self-healing system* is a **self-adaptive system***. Self-adaptive systems* optimize their behaviours* or configurations at runtime in response to a modification of their environments* or their behaviours* [CdLG⁺09]. Kephart and Chess [KC03] laid the groundwork for this approach, based on an IBM white paper [Com⁺06]. Since then, practitioners have applied it to different domains [GVD19] such as cloud infrastructure [JG17; Tea15; BKF⁺17] or Cyber-Physical System (CPS)* [LGC17; FMF⁺12; HFK⁺14a].

Model-Driven Engineering (MDE)* uses the abstraction mechanism to facilitate the development of nowadays software [Sch06; Ken02; BCW17]. This methodology can be applied to different stages of software development. In this thesis, we focus on one of its paradigms: **models@run.time*** [BBF09; MBJ⁺09]. The state

¹Transformers change the voltage in the cables.

²Data are sent through cables that also distribute electricity.

of the system, its environment*, or its behaviour* is reflected in a model*, used for analysis. Developers can use this paradigm to implement adaptive systems* [MBJ⁺09; HFK⁺14a].

In this thesis, we focus on the use of MDE* techniques, and more specifically, the models@run.time* paradigm, for the implementation of self-adaptive systems*. Adaptation processes use models* to have a deep understanding of the system, its structure and its behaviour, and its environment. Using the vocabulary of the research community, the model* represents the knowledge*. That is, **we studied the representation of the knowledge* of adaptive systems*, using the models@run.time* paradigm.**

1.2 Problem statement

During our study, we have identified several characteristics of adaptive systems* that bring challenges to the software engineering research community. First, information gathered is not always known with absolute confidence. Second, reconfigurations may not be immediate, and their effects are not instantaneously measured. Third, system behaviour may be emergent [ZA11], *i.e.*, it cannot be entirely known at design time. Four, the different sub-parts of the system do not evolve at the same pace. Five, structure and behaviour of systems have a time dimension.

1.2.1 Data are uncertain

Most fuses are manually open and close by technicians rather than automatically modified. Then, technicians manually report the modifications done on the grid. Due to human mistakes, this results in errors. The grid topology is thus uncertain. This uncertainty is propagated to the load approximation, used to detect overloads in the grid. Wrong reconfigurations might be triggered, which could be even worse than if no change would have been applied.

More generally, **data are, almost by definition, uncertain and developers always work with estimates** [BMM14; Met08; AY09]. The uncertainty may be explained by how data are collected. We can distinguish three categories: sensors,

humans, and results of computations. Sensors (software or hardware) always estimate the value and have a precision value due to the method of measurement [Met08; BMM14]. Humans are error-prone. And computations can either give an approximation or be based on uncertain data. This uncertainty is then propagated through all steps until the final result.

For a specific domain, this uncertainty may impact the understanding of the real situation. For example, the uncertainty of the Central Processing Unit (CPU)* clock is too low to damage the percentage load of the processor. However, the uncertainty of the Global Positioning System (GPS)* may impact the understanding by, for instance, showing the user on the wrong road (compared to the real one). **If the data uncertainty can mislead the understanding of a system behaviour or state, then developers should implement an uncertainty-aware system.** For adaptive systems*, this lack of confidence may trigger suboptimal adaptations.

1.2.2 Actions have long-term effects

Reconfiguring a smart grid implied to change the power flow. It is done by connecting or disconnecting specific cables. That is, opening or closing fuses. As said before, technicians need to drive physically to fuse locations to modify their states. Besides, in the case of the Luxembourg smart grid, meters send energy measurement every 15 min, non-synchronously. Between the time a reconfiguration of the smart grid is decided, and the time the effects are measured, a delay of at least 15 min occurs. On the other hand, an incident should be detected in the next minutes. If the adaptation process does not consider this difference of paces, it can cause repeated decisions.

Actions are never immediate, take time to be executed, and have long-term effects. Through this thesis, we refer to such actions as long-term actions*. In computer science, the definition of "immediate" is specific to a domain. For example, for graphical user interfaces, a response time of less than 200 ms is considered as immediate. However, while working at the processor level, the execution time of one instruction is measured at the nanoseconds scale.

Not considering this delay may lead to sub-optimal decisions. For example, not

considering the delay for the system to handle the migration of a virtual machine may lead to repeat decisions. We argue that **developers should take into account this delay if the frequency of the monitoring stage is lower than the time of action effects to be measurable.**

1.2.3 Systems may have emergent behaviours

Smart grid behaviour is affected by several factors that cannot be controlled by the grid manager. One example is the weather conditions. Smart grids rely on an energy production that is distributed over several actors. For instance, users, who were mainly consumers before, now produce energy by adding solar panels on the roof of their houses. The production of such energy depends on the weather, and even on the season³. Another example is the increasing adoption of electric vehicles, which de facto drastically increase the consumption of electricity during the night. Ignoring this characteristic of adaptive systems* may result in suboptimal situations that can be understood with difficulties.

System behaviour may be emergent. [ZA11] Different factors can explain this phenomenon. As for smart grids*, systems may evolve in a stochastic and uncertain environment. Or, some system, like those name ultra-large systems, are so complex that a few engineers can tame it. But, groups of engineers will have an understanding of some part of the system.

Despite the complexity, engineers still need to understand how the system is behaving or behaved. It will help them to optimise the global behaviour or to understand and repair errors. **Engineers need tooling support to trace back previous behaviours and or replay them.**

1.2.4 Different part of a system evolve at different paces

Every meter sends consumption and production data every 15 min. However, this collection is not synchronous. That is, all meters do not send their data at the same timestamp. The global system, which receives all data, has not thus a global vision

³The angle of the sun has an impact on the amount of energy produced by solar panels. This angle varies according to the season.

with the same freshness for all the part of the grid. Electricity data are very volatile: a peak or a drop may happen in less than a minute due to, for instance, the starting or the finishing of a washing machine. When analysing the data, the process should consider this difference of paces, and estimate the evolution of data. Otherwise, they will reason over outdated data, which do not reflect the real situation. It may lead to suboptimal decisions.

Different parts of the same system may evolve at different paces. Some systems are heterogeneous in terms of hardware and software. This diversity results in different evolution or reaction paces. For example, if some components are working on batteries, they will have a sleep cycle to save energy. Contrary, if some others are running connected directly to a power source, they can react faster.

Despite this difference of paces, a global vision of a system at a precise time point may be still required. The vision should deal with data that have different freshness. In the worst case, some data would be outdated and cannot be used. **Solutions to seamlessly predict or estimate what should be the current state of these outdated elements are thus required.**

1.2.5 Evolution of systems is linked with time

Power flow is impacted by consumption and production of users, and by the modifications of the topology. Knowing the last status of the grid is as important as knowing how it evolves. Based on the evolution, the grid operator can predict any future incidents, like overloads. It could also compare this evolution of behaviour with a normal one to detect, for example, any malicious behaviour.

Evolution of systems is inherently linked with a time dimension. Evolution and time are two related concepts. For some systems, not only the last states are important but also how they evolve. Then, analysis processes will investigate this evolution to know if it is a normal one or not. They can also use this evolution to predict how systems will evolve. Based on these predictions, they can proact on future incidents in the system.

Decisions are not made upon the last state of the system but how it evolves. The analysis process should thus navigate both in the structure of the system and its

behaviour over time. **Engineers need efficient tooling to structure, represent, query, and store temporal data on a large scale.**

1.3 Challenge

In this section, we present five challenges for the research community in MDE* and adaptive systems*. The last one has been published in our vision paper regarding time awareness in MDE* in [BHM⁺17].

1.3.1 Data are uncertain

enges:u-data)? Data become a cornerstone piece to autonomously derive decisions from them, or at least to support decision-making processes. We argue that their uncertainty will impact all the development stages of software, from the design to the execution. Design techniques should provide mechanisms to help developers abstract and manipulating uncertain data. Control flows use data, for example, in the branching conditions. This branching should be redesigned to consider the uncertainty in the data.

The literature provides approaches to help engineers reason or manipulate data uncertainty, or at least probability distributions. For example, believe functions [Sha76] help to reduce this uncertainty by combining several sources of data. The probabilistic programming [GHN⁺14] community provide frameworks and languages [MWG⁺18; BDI⁺17] to propagate probabilities through computations.

However, from the best of our knowledge, no global study has been done to evaluate the impact of data uncertainty on the development of software. The following challenge still remains an open question for the software engineering community:

How to engineer uncertainty-aware software (design, implement, test, and validate)?

1.3.2 Actions have long-term effects

ong-term-act)? Decision-making processes follow the growing complexity of software. They are more and more able to make not only decisions on the current state of the system but also its past and future ones. And this decision may also have long-term effects.

Due to this complexity, developers and users may misunderstand the decisions taken by a system. Plus, designers may neglect or underestimate the impact of a

decision. Moreover, as highlighted by Bencomo *et al.*, [BWS⁺12], systems should be self-explained. They should be able to explain the decisions made.

To achieve this vision and to help designers and users understanding the impact of a decision, we argue that the software engineering community should address the following question:

How to represent, query, store, and understand the impacts of long-term actions?

1.3.3 Systems may have emergent behaviours

allenges:ermger-bhv)?

The growing complexity of systems also has another impact: they have emergent behaviour. This behaviour may be suboptimal and hard to understand by designers, who generally have a local vision of the system.

However, when this behaviour leads to failure, engineers still need to understand why and how to avoid a novel occurrence of the problem. Plus, as the behaviour might be suboptimal, they need to optimise it.

To reach this goal, engineers need tooling support to help them in their investigation process. In other words, the research community should answer the following global challenge:

How to understand, predict, and optimise emergent behaviours?

1.3.4 Different part of a system evolve at different paces

allenges:diff-paces)?

Systems may be heterogeneous and diverse, in terms of hardware but also software. Due to this diversity, the different part of a system may evolve at different paces.

However, engineers may need to reason on a global view. They will thus need to deal with data that have different freshness but also with components that can have their behaviour changed at different spaces. While decisions are executed to optimise the global behaviour, the system may be in an inconsistent state or a less good state than the initial one.

When designing the adaptation process, engineers need thus to consider this difference in freshness. For example, they need to implement estimation functions to estimate the value of an outdated data. Plus, they need to consider the fact that the

system can be in an inconsistent state while being updated. To sum up, the software engineering community should answer the following global challenge:

How to represent, query, and store inconsistent system states and behaviours?

1.3.5 Evolution of systems are linked with time

System behaviours are temporal: the execution of the different actions are made over time. Plus, the structure of a system evolves over time. Not only may the last state be important but also how it evolves. Engineers need thus to analyse this temporal evolution.

Time in software engineering is not a new challenge. For example, Riviera *et al.*, [RRV08] have already identified time as a challenge for the MDE* community. Different approaches have been defined [BCC⁺15; KT12; KH10; HFN⁺14b].

However, we notice that modelling, persistence, and processing of data evolution remain understudied. Thomas Hartmann started addressing these challenging in his PhD thesis [Har16]. The final global challenge, not fully addressed, is thus:

How to structure, represent query, and store efficiently temporal data on a large scale?

1.4 Scope of the thesis

Among all the challenges described in the previous section, this thesis focus on three of them: data uncertainty* (Section 1.3.1), long-term actions* (Section 1.3.2), and emergent behaviours (Section 1.3.3). More precisely, we address three sub-problems of these challenges.

Managing uncertainty requires significant expertise in probability and statistics theory. The literature provides different solutions to manage uncertainty [Zad96; Met08; Sha76]. The application of these techniques requires a deep understanding of the underlying theories and is a time-consuming task [VMO16]. Moreover, it is hard to test and perhaps most importantly, very error-prone. In this thesis, we address thus the following problem:

Sub-challenge #1: How to ease the manipulation of data uncertainty?

Adaptation processes may rely on long-term action* like resource migration in cloud infrastructure. The lack of information about unfinished actions and their expected effects on the system, the reasoning component may take repeated of sub-optimal decisions. One step for enabling this reasoning mechanism is to have an abstraction layer which can represent these long-term actions* efficiently. In this thesis, we, therefore, cope with the following challenge:

Sub-challenge #2: How to enable reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects?

Due to the increasing complexity of systems, developers have difficulties in delivering error-free software [BdMM⁺17; MPS15; HBB15]. Moreover, complex systems or large-scale systems may have emergent behaviours. Systems very likely have an abnormal behaviour that was not foreseen at design time. Existing formal modelling and verification approaches may not be sufficient to verify and validate such processes [TOH17]. In such situations, developers usually apply diagnosis routines to identify the causes of the failures. During our studies, we tackle the following challenge:

Sub-challenge #3: How to diagnose the self-adaptation process?

1.5 Contribution & Validation

In this thesis, we argue that modern modelling frameworks should consider uncertainty and time as first-class concepts. In this dissertation, I present two contributions that support this vision. First, we define a language with uncertainty at a first-class citizen: Ain'tea. We detail this contribution in Chapter 5. Second, we define a meta-model, and we formalise it, of the knowledge of adaptive systems*. We present this contribution in Chapter 6.

Ain'tea: Managing Data Uncertainty at the Language Level This contribution addresses the challenge of the manipulation of uncertain data (cf. Sub-Challenge #1). We propose Ain'tea, a language able to represent uncertain data as built-in language types along with their supported operations. It contains a sampling of distributions (Gaussian, Bernoulli, binomial, Dirac delta function, and Rayleigh) that

covers the different data types (booleans, numbers, and references). We implement a prototype of the language, publicly available on GitHub⁴. We use a real-world case study based on smart grid*, built with our partner Creos S.A.. It shows first that our approach does not impact the conciseness of the language. Second, it highlights the feasibility and the advantages of uncertainty-aware type checking systems on the language level.

This contribution is under submission at the JOT Journal⁵:

- “Ain’tea: Managing Data Uncertainty at the Language Level”, Mouline, Benelallam, Hartmann, Bourcier, Barais, and Cordy

A temporal knowledge meta-model This contribution addresses the challenge of reasoning over unfinished actions and of the understanding of adaptive system* behaviour* (cf. Sub-Challenge #2 and #3). First, we formalise the common core concepts implied in adaptation processes, also referred to as knowledge*. The formalisation is based on temporal graphs and a set of relations that trace decisions impact to circumstances. Second, we propose a framework to structure and store the state and behaviour of a running adaptive system*, together with a high-level Application Programming Interface (API)* to efficiently perform diagnosis routines. Our framework relies on a temporal model-based solution that efficiently abstracts decisions, their corresponding circumstances, and their effects. We demonstrate the applicability of our approach by applying it to a smart grid* based example. We also show that our approach can be used to diagnose the behaviour of at most the last five days of a district in the Luxembourg smart grid* in ~2.4 seconds.

Part of this contribution has been published at the IEEE International Conference on Autonomic Computing⁶ (ICAC) and at the ACM/SIGAPP Symposium On Applied Computing⁷ (SAC):

- “Enabling temporal-aware contexts for adaptative distributed systems”, Mouline, Benelallam, Hartmann, Fouquet, Bourcier, Morin, and Barais

⁴<https://github.com/lmouline/aintea/>

⁵<http://www.jot.fm/>

⁶<http://icac2018.informatik.uni-wuerzburg.de/>

⁷<http://www.sigapp.org/sac/sac2018/>

- “A Temporal Model for Interactive Diagnosis of Adaptive Systems”, Mouline, Benelallam, Fouquet, Bourcier, and Barais

1.6 Structure of the document

We split the remaining part of this document into eight chapters. First, Chapter 2 describes the necessary background of the thesis. We present concepts related to MDE* and adaptive systems*. Based on this background, we show the gap of the current state of the art in Chapter 3. Then, in Chapter 4, we detail the vision defended in this thesis. We present the arguments in support of it and those that are in opposition. Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 described our two contributions, which go towards the defended vision. The former details our language, Ain'tea, that integrates uncertainty as a first-class citizen. The latter explains our temporal metamodel that can represent past and ongoing decisions with their circumstances and effects. Finally, we conclude in Chapter 7, and we present a set of perspectives of our work.

Background

Contents

2.1	Adaptive systems	14
2.2	Model-Driven Engineering	21
2.3	Software Language Engineering	27
2.4	Probability theory	29

In this chapter, we describe the principles of the different software engineering approaches related to this thesis: adaptive systems, Model-Driven Engineering (MDE)*, Software Language Engineering (SLE)*, and probability theory. For each of them, we also detail the concepts used in our work, and we explicitly link them to our vision and our contributions.*

2.1 Adaptive systems*

sec:back:adapt-syst)?

This section introduces the background to understand adaptive systems*. First, we describe the principles and vision of adaptive systems*. Before we characterise the information used by an adaptation process, we detail a model-based technique to implement them: models@run.time*. Finally, we highlight the key concepts used in this thesis and link them to the contributions.

2.1.1 Principles and vision

The complexity of nowadays software systems comes with laborious, error-prone, and redundant tasks (installation, configuration, maintenance, *etc.*) for developers. Moreover, software systems can be executed in uncertain and evolving environments* [EM10]. Following the autonomic computing vision pushed by IBM engineers [Com⁺06], Kephart and Chess have established the basis for adaptive systems* [KC03]. Adaptive systems* are recognised by their ability to have their behaviour or structure adapted automatically in response to changes in their environment* or of the systems themselves. This adaptation helps them to achieve their goals based on high-level objectives [CdLG⁺09]. If a system performs itself this adaptation mechanism with minimal interference, the literature refers to it as a self-adaptive system* [BSG⁺09].

Danny Weyns identified two principles for adaptive systems* [Wey19]: the internal and the external principle. The former one is based on the “discipline split” defined by Andersson *et al.*, [AdLM⁺09]: each adaptive system* can be split into two concerns. First, the domain concern categorises the part of the system that deals with the purpose for which the system has been built. Second, the adaptation concern handles the adaptation mechanism and interacts with the first one without interfering with it [KM90]. The external principle says that adaptive systems* should handle changes and uncertainties in their environment, the managed systems, and the goal autonomously.

In addition to these principles, the literature has defined four adaptation goals, usually called the self-* features [Com⁺06]: self-healing, self-optimising, self-configuring,

and self-protecting. First, the healing capacity, defined when the failures in the system can be automatically discovered, diagnosed, and repaired. Second, the adaptation mechanism can be used to optimise the system by tuning resources and balancing workloads. Third, the system can be autonomously configured for dynamically adapting to the changes in the environment*. Four, threats can be anticipated, detected, and identified by the adaptation process to protect the managed system. Besides, we can add the self-organisation feature [Dem98]: adaptive systems* can “acquire and maintain themselves, without external control.” [WH04]. It is mainly discussed for distributed systems, where local rules are applied to adjust their interactions and act co-operatively for adaptation. However, this mechanism can lead to emergent behaviour [WH04].

Furthermore, each adaptive system* is composed of four elements: the environment*, the managed system, adaptation goals, and the managing systems [Wey19]. The environment* includes all external entities, virtual or physical, with which the adaptive system* interacts on each it effects [Jac97]. Only the elements that are monitored are part of the system. One may distinguish the environment to the adaptive system* as, contrary to the element of the adaptive system*, it cannot be directly impacted by the engineer. The managed system evolves in the environment* and covers all the part of the system that implements the domain concern. In the literature, researchers use different names to refer to it: managed element [KC03], system layer [GCH⁺04], core function [ST09], base-level subsystem [WMA12], or controllable plant [FHM14]. To enable the adaptation process, the managed system should contain sensors, for monitoring, and actuators, for modifications. This adaptation process needs adaptation goals to perform. They are related to the managed system and mainly concern its software quality metrics [WA13]. At the roots of the self-* features, Kephart and Chess have defined four families of goals: configuration, optimisation, healing, and protection [KC03]. Engineers can redefine these goals over time, which should consider the uncertainty of the environment* or the system. To express such goals, different approaches have been defined, such as probabilistic temporal logic [CGK⁺11] or fuzzy goals [BPS10]. Finally, the managing system will use these goals to drive the adaptation of the managed system in response to

changes in the environment*. It thus continuously monitor the environment* and the managing system. Researchers use different names to refer to this element: autonomic manager [KC03], architecture layer [GCH⁺04], adaptation engine [ST09], reflective subsystem [WMA12], controller [FHM14].

In the literature, we can find different approaches to engineer adaptive systems* [GCH⁺04]. Among them, the most used one took its inspiration from control theory [BSG⁺09]: the feedback control loop. The common implementation is the Monitor, Analyse, Plan, and Execute over knowledge (MAPE-k)* loop [KC03; Com⁺06]. This loop is split into four phases: monitoring, analyse, planning, and executing. During the monitoring phase, all information of the managed system and the environment* are put into the knowledge. Based on the updated knowledge, the analyse phase detects any need for adaptation using the adaptation goals. If any, the planning phase computes the set of actions to adjust the managing system structure or behaviour. Finally, the executing phase completes the plan.

Danny Weyns have identified six waves of engineering adaptive systems* [Wey19]. First, *automating tasks* that focus on the automation of repetitive and error-prone management tasks of complex systems [KC03]. Second, *architecture-based adaptation* that defines architecture as the basis of supporting engineering of adaptive systems*. Third, *models@run.time** [BBF09; MBJ⁺09] that establishes a technique to link the adaptive system* with a model with a “causal connection”. Four, *goal-driven adaptation* that emphasised on the specification of the system requirements, exposed to uncertainties, and those for the solutions. Five, *guarantees under uncertainties* that consider uncertainty as a cornerstone concern for adaptive systems* and that define techniques to ensure the adaptation goals and the functional correctness of the adaptation components. Six, *control-based adaptation* that stresses the use of the control theory to benefit from a robust mathematical formalism. Among these six waves, this thesis is part of the third one, models@run.time*, that we detail in the next section.

2.1.2 Models@run.time*

The adaptation process needs to have a deep understanding of the system and its environment*. Following the MDE* methodology¹, research efforts have led to the models@run.time* paradigm [MBJ⁺09; BBF09]. The paradigm defines a model* that is “causally connected” to the system. The model* abstracts the structure and the behaviour of the system, the environment*, and the adaptation goals. The causal connection encompasses two features of the model*. First, the model reflects the up-to-date state of the system (structure and behaviour) and its environment*. Second, any modification of the model triggers a modification of the system. In this way, the model* can be used as an interface between the system and the adaptation process. Moreover, Morin *et al.*, [MBJ⁺09] define models@run.time* allow stakeholders to represent a set of configuration points that can be selected at runtime to implement the adaptation mechanism.

Using this approach, we can say that engineers use a model-based architecture. Morin *et al.*, described a possible solution that is characterised by three layers, four types of runtime models, and five elements [MBJ⁺09]. The three layers are: online model space, causal connection, and business application. The business application layer contains the logic of the system. It has sensors for monitoring and actuators (here called factories). This layer is connected to the online model space, which is platform-independent, through the causal connection layer. The online model space contains the four different runtime models: feature, context, reasoning, and architecture model. The feature model represents the different configuration point of the system. The context model abstracts the relevant part of the system and the environment*. The reasoning model links between the first two models by associating the features with a particular context. Finally, the architecture model specifies the different entities of the system. These models are exchanged by the five elements that implement the adaptation mechanism. First, the *event processor*, which implements the monitoring stage of the MAPE-k* loop, updates the context model with information received

¹MDE* is a methodology that promotes the usage of models* for software engineering activities (*cf.* Section 2.2)

through the sensors. Second, the *goal-based reasoner*, which implements the analyse phase, uses the feature and reasoning model to select the new features for adjusting the system and achieving the goals. Third, the *model weaver*, which implements a part of the planning stage, transforms the selected features into a new architecture model, checked by the *configuration checker*. Finally, the configuration manager, which implements a part of the planning stage and the executing one, computes and executes the sequence of actions to reach the proposed architecture model.

More generally, this solution stresses the use of a model layer, causally connected to the system, and used by the adaptation process. Following the MAPE-k*, the model layer should structure the knowledge. In this thesis, we define a metamodel of this knowledge to enable developers diagnosing, understanding, and reasoning over long-term action* (*cf.* Chapter 6). In the next section, we thus characterise the information that composes the knowledge.

2.1.3 Characterisation of information of the knowledge

General concepts of adaptation processes

Similar to the definition provided by Kephart [KC03], IBM defines adaptive systems as “a computing environment with the ability to manage itself and **dynamically adapt** to change in accordance with **business policies and objectives**. [These systems] can perform such activities based on **situations they observe or sense in the IT environment** [...]” [Com⁺06].

Based on this definition, we can identify three principal concepts involved in adaptation processes. The first concept is *actions*. They are executed to perform a dynamic adaptation through actuators. The second concept is **business policies and objectives**, which is also referred to as the **system requirements** in the domain of (self-)adaptive systems. The last concept is the observed or sensed **situation**, also known as the **context**. The following subsections provide more details about these concepts.

Context

In this thesis, we use the widely accepted definition of context provided by Dey [Dey01]: “Context is **any information that can be used to characterize** the situation of an entity. An entity is a person, place, or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between a user and [the system], including the user and [the system] themselves”. In this section, we list the characteristics of this information based on several works found in the literature [HIR02; HFN⁺14b; BBH⁺10; PZC⁺14]. We use them to drive our design choices of our Knowledge meta-model (cf. Section 6.3.2).

Volatility Data can be either **static** or **dynamic**. Static data, also called frozen, are data that will not be modified, over time, after their creation [HIR02; MSS13; BBH⁺10]. For example, the location of a machine, the first name or birth date of a user can be identified as static data. Dynamic data, also referred to as volatile data, are data that will be modified over time.

Temporality In dynamic data, sometimes we may be interested not only in storing the latest value, but also the previous ones [HFN⁺14b; HIR02]. We refer to these data as **historical** data. Temporal data is not only about past values, but also future ones. Two kinds of future values can be identified, **predicted** and **planned**. Thanks to machine learning or statistical methods, dynamic data values can be **predicted**. **Planned** data are set by a system or a human to specify planned modification on the data.

Uncertainty One of the recurrent problems facing context-aware applications is the data uncertainty [dLGM⁺10; HIR02; MSS13; BBH⁺10]. Uncertain data are not likely to represent reality. They contain a noise that makes it deviate from its original value. This noise is mainly due to the inaccuracy and imprecision of sensors. Another source of uncertainty is the behaviour of the environment, which can be unpredictable. All the computations that use uncertain data are also uncertain by propagation.

Source According to the literature, data sources are grouped into two main categories, either sensed (measured) data or computed (derived) data [PZC⁺14]. We refine this with an additional category called profiled. Pro-

filed data may be set either by a user (**profiled by a human**) or by an external system (**profiled by an external**).

Connection Context data entities are usually linked using three kinds of connections: conceptual, computational, and consistency [HIR02; BBH⁺10]. The conceptual connection relates to (direct) relationships between entities in the real world (e.g. smart meter and concentrator). The computational connection is set up when the state of an entity can be linked to another one by a computation process (derived, predicted). Finally, the consistency connection relates to entities that should have consistent values. For instance, temperature sensors belonging to the same geographical area.

Requirement

`:adapt:knowledge:req` Adaptation processes aim at modifying the system state to reach an optimal one. All along this process, the system should respect the **system requirements** established ahead. Through this thesis, we use the definition provided by IEEE [III17]: “(1) Statement that translates or expresses a need and its associated **constraints** and **conditions**, (2) **Condition or capability that must be met or possessed** by a system [...] to satisfy an agreement, standard, specification, or other formally imposed documents”.

Although in the literature, requirements are categorised as functional or non-functional, in this document we use a more elaborate taxonomy introduced by Glinz [Gli07]. It classifies requirements in four categories: functional, performance, specific quality, and constraint. All these categories share a common feature: they are all temporal. During the life-cycle of an adaptive system, the developer can update, add or remove some requirements [CA07; PSR10].

Action

In the IEEE Standards [III17], an action is defined as: “**process of transformation** that **operates upon data** or other types of inputs to create data, produce outputs, or **change the state** or condition of the subject software”.

Back to adaptive systems, we can define an action as a process that, given the

context and requirements as input, adjusts the system behaviour. This modification will then create new data that correspond to an output context. In the remainder of this document, we refer to the output context as impacted context, or impact(s). Whereas requirements are used to add preconditions to the actions, context information is used to drive the modifications. Actions executions have a start time and a finish time. They can either succeed, fail, or be cancelled by an internal or external actor.

2.1.4 Key concepts for this thesis

Adaptive systems* have been proposed to tackle the growing complexity of systems (structure and behaviour) and their environment*. One common model for implementing them is the well-known MAPE-k* loop, a feedback control loop based on shared knowledge. Applying the models@run.time* paradigm, this knowledge can be structured by a model*, which is causally connected to the system. This model* should represent the uncertain and time dimension of the knowledge. In this thesis, we consider that the knowledge comprises information related to the context, the actions, and the requirement. In this thesis, we propose a metamodel*² to represent the decisions made by the adaptation process over time (*cf.* Chapter 6). Plus, we define a language, Ain'tea, to propagate uncertainty in the computation made during the adaptation process (*cf.* Chapter 5).

2.2 Model-Driven Engineering*

Abstraction, also called modelling, is the heart of all scientific discipline, including computer science [Kra07]. One will abstract a system, computer or not, a problem, or a solution to reason about it for a specific purpose. Abstraction reduces the scope to relevant parts, removing the extra that complexity the understanding. For example, a climatologist models all elements that impact the global climate (wind, ocean current, temperature, ...), ignoring local information, like the temperature under a forest, or global ones, like the solar system. In contrast, astronomers model the solar system, ignoring all information regarding the Earth climate.

²A metamodel* is a model* that defines another model* (*cf.* Section 2.2).

In computer science, different modelling formalisms have been proposed. We can cite the entity-relationship [Che76] that is used to describe the data model for relational databases. In the web community, they use the ontology [Gru95] formalism to define the semantic web³ [BHL⁺01]. The software engineering community applies the Unified Modelling Language (UML)* [OMG17] to formalism software system structure or behaviour.

Extending this need for abstraction to all software engineering activities, practitioners have proposed the MDE* methodology [Sch06; Ken02]. This methodology advocates the use of models, or abstractions, as primary software artefacts [WHR14]. The contributions proposed in this thesis are in line with this vision. In the following sections, we give an overview of the MDE* methodology and how we will use it.

2.2.1 Principles and vision

Global overview Software systems tend to be more and more complex. To tame this complexity [FR07; Sch06], the MDE* methodology suggests to use models* for all the steps of software development and maintenance [Sch06; BCW17; HRW11; BLW05; HWR⁺11; AK03]: design, evolution, validation, etc. The core idea of this approach is two reduce the gap between the problem and the solution space [Sch06]. Two main mechanisms have been defined: Domain Specific Modelling Language (DSML)* and model transformation. The former is based on the separation of concern principle. Each concern⁴ should be addressed with a specific language, which manipulates concepts, has a type system, and a semantics dedicated to this concern. These languages allow to create and manipulate models*, specific for a domain. The latter enables engineers to generate automatically software artefacts, such as documentation, source code, or test cases. Using these mechanisms, stakeholders can focus on their problem keeping in mind the big picture. A well-known example is the Structured Query Language (SQL) [fSta16] Using this language, engineers can query a relational database, the data model being the model*. They don't have to consider indexes (hidden behind the concept of, for example, primary keys) or all the mechanisms to persist and retrieve

³The Semantic Web is defined as an extension of the Web to enable the processing by machines.

⁴The definition of concern is intentionally left undefined as it is domain-specific.

data from the disk.

Advantages and disadvantages Defenders of the MDE* approach mainly highlight the benefits of abstraction in software engineering [Sch06; Ken02; BLW05]. First, using the same model*, engineers can target different specific platforms. For example, the ThingML [HFM⁺16] language allow specifying the behaviour of the system through state machines. The same ThingML code can be deployed on different platform such as Arduino, Raspberry Pi. Second, thanks to the transformation engine, the productivity and efficiency of developers is improved. Third, models* allow engineers to implement verification and validation techniques, like model checking [BK08], which will enhance the software quality. Finally, the models* enable the separation of application and infrastructure code and the reusability of models*.

However, the literature has also identified some drawbacks of the MDE* approach [Ken02; BLW05; WHR⁺13; HRW11]. First, it requires a significant initial effort when the DSML* needs to be defined. Second, current approaches do not allow the definition of very large models*. This drawback can be mitigated with new methods such as NeoEMF [BGS⁺14; DSB⁺17], which enable the storage of large models*, and MogwaÍr [DSC16], a query engine for large models*. Third, this approach suffers from poor tooling support, as they should be reimplemented for each model*. As for the second drawback, recent contributions try to remove this limitation. For example, we can cite the work of Bousse *et al.*, [BLC⁺18] that define a generic omniscient debugger⁵ for DSML*. Third, introducing MDE* in a software development team presents organisational challenges. It changes the way developers interact and work together. Finally, abstraction is a two edges sword. Indeed, reasoning at an abstract level may be more complex as some prefer to work with concrete examples and based on simulation.

Fundamentals concepts MDE* is based on three fundamentals concepts: meta-model*, model*, and model transformation. In this thesis, we do not use any transformation technique. In the next section, we thus detail the concept of meta-

⁵Debuggers, generally, allow engineers to execute step-by-step programs, that is, forward. An omniscient debugger is also able to go backwards: to navigate back in the previous states of a program [Lew03].

model* and model*.

2.2.2 Metamodel*, model*

Metamodel* Metamodels* the different concepts in a domain and their relationships. They represent the knowledge of a domain, for a specific purpose [BJT05]. Also, they define the semantics rules and constraints to apply [Sch06]. They can be seen as models* of models*. In the MDE* community, they are generally defined using the class diagram of the UML* specification [OMG17]. They, therefore, contain classes, named metaclass, and properties (attributes or references). In the language engineering domain, metamodels* are used to define the concepts that a language can manipulate (*cf.* Section 2.3). Object Management Group (OMG)*⁶ define a standard metamodeling architecture: Meta Object Facility (MOF)* [Gro16a]. It is set aside with Object Constraint Language (OCL)* [Gro14], the standard constraint language to define constraints that cannot be specified by a class diagram, and XML Metadata Interchange (XMI)* [Gro15], the standard data format to persist (meta)models*.

Model* Models* capture some of the system characteristics into an abstraction that can be understood, manipulated, or processed by engineers or another system. They are linked to their metamodels* through the conformance relationship. A model* is conformed to exactly one metamodel* if and only if it satisfies all the rules of the metamodel*. That is, each element of a model* should instantiate at least one element of the metamodel* and respect all the semantics rules and constraints, that can be defined using OCL*. Based on these models, stakeholders can apply verification and validation techniques, such as simulation and model checking, or model transformation. France *et al.*, have identified two classes of models [FR07]: development and runtime models. The former are abstraction above the code level. It regroups requirements, architectural, or deployment models. The latter abstract runtime behaviour or status of systems. They are the basis of the models@run.time* paradigm, which we detail in the next section.

⁶<https://www.omg.org/>

2.2.3 Models@run.time*

At its origins, MDE* mainly addresses the challenges of designing, validating, and maintaining complex software systems. However, these systems were facing a new challenge: the uncertainty of the environment in which they are deployed. As we detail in section 2.1, systems have been improved to enable runtime adaptation. This process can only be done if the adaptation process has a deep understanding of the structure, the behaviour, and the environment of the system. This deep understanding can be provided by a proper abstraction of these runtime elements. Extending MDE* principles and visions, the models@run.time* paradigm spans the use of models* from design time to runtime. The model, as an abstraction of a real system, can be used during runtime to reason about the state of the actual system. A conceptual link between the model and the real system allows modifying the actual system through the model and vice versa. The models@run.time paradigm uses metamodels* to define the domain concepts of a real system, together with its surrounding environment. Consequently, the runtime model depicts an abstract and yet rich representation of the system context that conforms to (is an instance of) its meta-model.

2.2.4 Tooling

Tooling is an essential aspect of every approach to be adopted. Development platforms allow developers to create, manipulate, and persist (meta)models* through high or low-level programming interfaces. For example, a graphical language can be used for this purpose. Additionally, these tools should embed transformation engines such as a code generator.

In the MDE* community, the standard tool is the Eclipse Modelling Framework (EMF)* [SBM⁺08]. It is the defacto baseline framework to build modelling tools within the Eclipse ecosystem. It embeds its metamodeling language, ECore [SBM⁺08; Fou10]. ECore is thus the standard implementation of Essential MOF (EMOF)* [Gro16a], a subset of MOF* that corresponds to facilities found in object-oriented languages. As written on the EMF*-website⁷, this modelling framework “provides tools and runtime

⁷<https://www.eclipse.org/modeling/emf/>

support to produce a set of Java classes for the model, along with a set of adapter classes that enable viewing and command-based editing of the model, and a basic editor”.

However, as highlighted by Fouquet *et al.*, [FNM⁺14; FNM⁺12], models generated by EMF have some limitations, which prevent their use for the models@run.time* paradigm. The models@run.time* can be used to implement an adaptive Internet of Things (IoT)* systems⁸. These systems contain small devices, like micro-controllers, that have limited memory, disk space, and process capacity. If one wants to deploy a model on it, thus it should have a low memory footprint, a low dependency size, a thread safety capacity, an efficient model (un)marshalling and cloning, a lazy loading mechanism, and compatibility with a standard design tool, here EMF*. However, the approaches at this time failed to tame the first four requirements. They, therefore, define Kevoree Modelling Framework (KMF)* [FNM⁺14; FNM⁺12], a modelling framework specific to the models@run.time* paradigm.

Hartmann extended this work and created the GreyCat Modelling Environment (GCM)*⁹. Using this environment, a developer can create high-scalable models, designed for models@run.time*[HFN⁺14b; MHF⁺15], with time as a first-class concept. All metaclasses have a default time attribute to represent the lifetime of the model element that instantiates it. The created models are object graphs stored on a temporal graph database, called GreyCat¹⁰ [HFM⁺19; Har16]. In addition to time, metamodels* defined by GCM* can have an attribute with a value computed from a machine learning algorithm [HMF⁺19]. Based on the metamodel* definition, a Java and a Javascript API* are generated, to manipulate the model, *i.e.*, the temporal object graph.

⁸Definition of IoT* by Gubbi *et al.*, [GBM⁺13]: “Interconnection of sensing and actuating devices providing the ability to share information across platforms through a unified framework, developing a common operating picture for enabling innovative applications.”

⁹<https://github.com/datathings/greycat/tree/master/modeling>

¹⁰<https://greycat.ai/>

2.2.5 Concepts used in this thesis

The `models@run.time`* paradigm is a well-known approach to handle the challenges faced in adaptive system* development. Plus, the GCM* has been designed to design a data model, with time as the first-class concept. In this thesis, we will use this tool to define a metamodel* to abstract the knowledge of adaptive systems* (cf. Chapter 6).

2.3 Software Language Engineering*

`sec:back:sle)?` As stated by Favre *et al.*, [FGL⁺10], software languages are software. Like traditional software, they need to be designed, tested, deployed, and maintained. These activities are grouped under the term Software Language Engineering (SLE)* [Kle08]. Before explaining the role of software languages in this thesis, we will first define them in this section.

2.3.1 Software Languages

Most of, not to say all of, developers have used, at least once, a programming language to develop software. For example, one may use JavaScript to implement client-side behaviour of a web site and another one C to implement a driver. We can distinguish another kind of language, named modelling languages. Those models allow developers to implement a model. For example, we can argue that many developers have already used the HTML language to implement a Document Object Model (DOM)*¹¹ With the emergence of executable models¹², the difference between models and programs are more and more blurry. So it is for the difference between programming and modelling language. Hence, Annake Kleppe uses the term software language* to combine both kinds of languages.

Another way to classify software languages* is by their scope [vDKV00]. General Purpose Language (GPL)* are languages that can be used for any domain whereas Domain Specific Language (DSL)*¹³ that are restricted to a specific domain. Using

¹¹“The DOM* is a platform -and language- neutral interface that will allow programs and scripts to dynamically access and update the content, structure and style of [web] documents.” [W3C05]

¹²Executable models are models that have a semantics attached to their concepts.

¹³In this thesis, we do not make the difference between DSML* and DSL*

a GPL*, a developer can use it to implement a full software benefit from great tooling support. However, she may manipulate concepts that are different from those of the problem space. For example, implementing an automatic coffee machine in Java, she will have to manipulate the concept of class, object, functions. In contrary, DSLs* are close to their problem domain [vDK98] but might suffer from poor tooling support [Voe14]. As for MDE*, there are some research efforts to remove this disadvantage [BLC⁺18]. Using DSLs*, developers can have simpler code, easier to understand and maintain [vDKV00; vDK98].

Software languages* are composed of two parts [HR04]: syntax and semantics. The syntax defines the element allowed in the language and the semantics their meaning. We can distinguish two kinds of syntax: the abstract one and the concrete one. The abstract one defines the different concepts manipulated with the language and their relationships. A metamodel* can express it. The concrete abstract describes how these concepts are represented. It exists two categories of concrete syntax: graphical and textual. As for the syntax, there are two kinds of semantics: the static and the dynamic. The static semantics defines the constraints of the abstract syntax that cannot be directly expressed in the formalism chosen. For example, the static semantics will define uniqueness constraints for some elements or will forbid any cycle in dependencies (if any). The type system usually goes in part of the static semantics. The dynamic semantics defines the behaviour of the language.

When designing a language, engineers can start with the abstract or with the concrete abstract. In the first case, we say that they define the language in a model*-first way. Others will prefer to start by the concrete syntax, and thus they are using a grammar-first approach. Some tools, like XText [EB10], can generate the model automatically from the grammar.

2.3.2 SLE* in this thesis

In our vision, we argue that uncertainty should be considered as a first-class citizen for modelling frameworks. This modelling framework should allow the definition of metamodels* with uncertainty management capacities. As described in the previous sections, these metamodels* can correspond to the abstract syntax of a language. As

a contribution, we, therefore, propose a language with uncertainty as a first-class citizen: Ain'tea(*cf.* Chapter 5).

2.4 Probability theory

Data uncertainty, and more generally uncertainty, is linked with confidence. Indeed, the confidence level that one can give to data depends on its uncertainty. The more uncertain value is, the less trust it can be placed in it. However, it is rather difficult to put exact numbers on this confidence level. A strategy used by experts to formalise this confidence level, and thus the uncertainty, is to use probability distributions.

In this section, we thus introduce the necessary concepts of these distributions. We first describe the concept of random variables in probability theory. Then we describe what a probability distribution is and the properties that will be used in this thesis. Finally, we will explain the distributions used in this thesis.

2.4.1 Random variables

Definition The three base elements of the probability theory are: an outcome, an event, and a sample space. An outcome is the occurrence of a random phenomenon. An event is a set of outcomes, and a sample space S is the set of all possible outcomes. Let us take an example: the rolling of two dice. i denotes the result of one die and j the result of the other. An example of an outcome is the result of a roll, like the pair $(2, 6)$. An event could contain all outcomes where both dice have an even result: $E = \{(i, j) \mid i, j \in \{2, 4, 6\}\}$. The sample space of our example is this equals to: $S_1 = \{(i, j) \mid i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}\}$. We thus have:

A random variable is a function from the sample space S to \mathbb{R} . In our example, we can define two random variables X and Y that represent, respectively, the minimum of the two dice and the sum of the two. We have thus: $X = \min(i, j)$ and $Y = i + j$.

Discrete and continuous Random variable can be either discrete or continuous. For discrete random variables, we can list all the events of the sample space, whereas we cannot for continuous ones. For example, it is possible to list all results of the rolling of n dice, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. But we cannot list all possible temperatures of a room (if we consider that we have an infinite precision).

Independence and disjoint Independence and joint are defined at the event level. Two events are independent if the probability of occurrence of one does not impact the probability of occurrence of the others. Two events are disjoint if and only if they do not share any outcome. Mathematically speaking, events A and B are independent if and only if $P(A \cap B) = P(A) * P(B)$, and they are disjoint if and only if $P(A \cap B) = 0$.

2.4.2 Distribution

A probability distribution of a random variable X is a function that gives the probability that X takes on the values x , for all possible values of the sample space. Here, we can distinguish two cases: discrete and continuous distributions. A distribution is said discrete when it is based on a discrete random variable, and continuous when the random variable is continuous.

The difference that will interest us in this thesis between the two is how they compute the probability, and thus the confidence level. For discrete distributions, the probability that $X = x$ corresponds to the result of the function. By definition, the probability that the random variable is inferior to a value x is thus equal to the sum of probability for $X < x$.

Contrary, for continuous distribution, the probability is mapped to the area under the function that defines the probability distribution, *i.e.*, the integral of the function. For example, the confidence that a given uncertain value is greater than zero is the surface under the function $f(x)$ for any $f(x) \mid f(x) > 0$. As the area under a precise point is null, the probability that a continuous random variable equals x is zero.

2.4.3 Distribution used in this thesis

Probability distributions have proven their ability to represent uncertain data. Among the existing distributions, in this thesis, we use on five of them: Gaussian (or Normal) distribution, Rayleigh distribution, binomial distribution, Bernoulli distribution and the Dirac delta function. The Gaussian and the Rayleigh distributions will represent continuous distributions. The Bernoulli and the binomial one represent

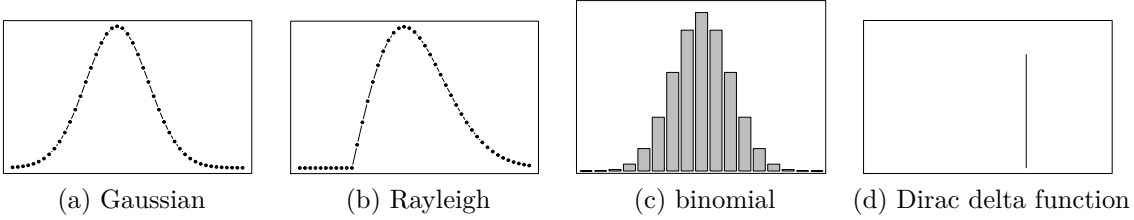


Figure 2.1: Probability distributions used in this thesis

oba:examples)?

discrete distributions. Finally, the Dirac delta function can represent the confidence level of exactly one value.

Bernoulli distribution Bernoulli distribution represents the distribution of a binary phenomenon. One well-known example is the flip of a fair coin. $\text{Bernoulli}(p)$ denotes a random variable that equals 1 with a probability of p and 0 with a probability of $(1 - p)$. Following the coin example, 1 can represent the head and 0 tail.

Binomial distribution The binomial distribution represents the probability of success of a binary phenomenon over a set of trials. Figure 2.1c illustrates an example of a Binomial distribution. It is defined by two parameters: n and p . n is the number of trials done and p the probability of success. By definition, it is defined over a discrete domain, more specifically on the set of natural number \mathbb{N} . In this case, the confidence level corresponds to the values of the function.

It has been proven that this distribution is similar to a Gaussian distribution in certain cases [BHH05]. If the domain definition can be changed from discrete to continuous, a binomial distribution can be approximated by a Gaussian distribution.

Gaussian (or Normal) distribution The Gaussian distribution, commonly referred to as normal distribution, is the most general probability distribution. For example, the International Bureau of Weights and Measures encourages the use of this distribution to quantify the uncertainty of measured values [Met08]. It is defined by two parameters: a mean and a variance. The distribution is defined on a continuous domain: $] - \infty; +\infty[$. An example of this distribution is illustrated in Figure 2.1a.

Rayleigh distribution Another distribution defined on a continuous domain $([0; +\infty[)$ is the Rayleigh distribution. It is often used for GPS positions [Bor13]. This distribution is defined using a unique parameter: a variance. We depict an example of this distribution in Figure 2.1b.

Dirac delta function The Dirac delta function is defined as a probability function with $f(x) = +\infty$ for $x = 0$ and $f(x) = 0$ for all the other points. To represent other values than zero, the following variable substitution can be used $x = x - a$, where. We call a the shifting value. By definition, the integral of this function on the whole domain definition is equal to 1. As it is considered as a continuous distribution, confidence is mapped to the integral of the function. By applying a coefficient, we can modify the value of this integral, *e.g.*, to have 0.8 as the integral. We define this probability distribution using two parameters a coefficient and a shifting value. An example of this probability distribution is shown in Figure 2.1d. Conventionally, the Dirac function is represented as a vertical line that stops at the coefficient. The figure shows a Dirac function with a coefficient of 0.8 and a shifting value of 3. As it is defined on a single value, this distribution can be used for any numbers. This distribution can be used to represent uncertainty that is due to human errors.

State of the art

?<chapt:sota>?

Contents

3.1	Introduction	34
3.2	Review methodology	35
3.3	Results RQ1: long-term actions	37
3.4	Results RQ2: data uncertainty	48
3.5	Threat to validity	58
3.6	Conclusion	59

This chapter reviews work related to the one presented in this dissertation.

3.1 Introduction

In this thesis, we focus on the capacity of adaptive systems* to adjust their behaviour or structure in response to changes in their environment or structure (*cf.* Chapter 1). Following the models@run.time* paradigm, these systems use a modelling layer that abstracts all information needed to enable reasoning processes (*cf.* Chapter 2). As a results, a set of actions* are executed.

However, we have identified three open challenges due to long-term action* present in some systems, the uncertainty of data received, and the emergence of the behaviour of these systems (*cf.* Section 1.4). Adaptive systems* and uncertainty have been heavily studied by researchers in the past years. We thus need to identify any potential work that have already tackled, partially or totally, these challenges. In addition, we have to review approaches that model adaptive systems*, structure*, behaviour*, or environment*, or manipulate uncertainty data.

Two research questions have driven this review process:

- **RQ1:** Do current state of the art solutions that model adaptive system* allow representing and reasoning over long-term actions*?
- **RQ2:** Do current state of the art solutions allow modelling uncertainty of data and its manipulation (propagation, reasoning over)?

Through this review, we found that none of the start of the art solutions model action, their effects, and their circumstances over time (RQ1). Some approaches will partially model these elements, for example actions and their effects. However, these model cannot be automatically navigated by a process, like a reasoning process. Or, some approaches do not consider the temporal dimension of the effects,

Our findings show that different community have studies uncertainty in software. Modelling community has focused on design-time uncertainty, adaptive system community has studied environment uncertainty. Researchers have put a lot of efforts to encapsulate probability distributions behind programming language concepts such as variables.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as followed. First, we describe the methodology used to perform this review in Section 3.2. In Section 3.3 and Section 3.4,

miss something
here

we present and discuss our findings. Before concluding in Section 3.6, we detail some threats to validity of this literature review.

3.2 Review methodology

This review aim at answering two global research questions. As they remain large, we split both in three sub-research questions to help us answering them.

Research questions The first research question has been set to study the presence of long-term actions* in the modelling layer: (**RQ1**) do current state of the art solutions that model adaptive system* allow representing and reasoning over long-term actions*? We split it the following sub-questions:

- **RQ1.1:** How current approaches model the evolution of the context and/or the evolution of the behaviours of systems over time?
- **RQ1.2:** What are the solutions that model actions, their circumstances and their effects over time? Can this model be processed or navigated automatically?
- **RQ1.3:** What are the solutions that enable the reasoning over the evolving context and/or behaviours of systems? Do they also reason over running actions* and their effects?

With RQ1.1, we investigated the approaches that model the context and the structure of adaptive systems*. The second one filter those that also consider long-term actions*. Finally, we use RQ1.3 to list solutions that provide a technique, such as an algorithm, to reason over evolving context or behaviour.

With the second research question, we seek modelling solutions that consider data uncertainty and its propagation: **RQ2:** Do current state of the art solutions allow modelling uncertainty of data and its manipulation (propagation, reasoning over)? The three sub-questions are:

- **RQ2.1:** What are the categories of uncertainties that have been addressed by the literature, and how?
- **RQ2.2:** How the uncertainty of data is modelled?
- **RQ2.3:** What are the solutions that enable an imperceptible propagation and a reasoning over the uncertainty?

We set RQ2.1 to list approaches that tackle challenges brought by uncertainty in software engineering. And we scope them to data uncertainty* with RQ2.2. Lastly, we review approaches that allow developers to propagate uncertainty without writing special code for that and to reason over uncertainty.

Methodology In order to review the literature, we applied a technique inspired from the snowballing approach [Woh14]. Other, due to limited resources, we did not fully applied it. This methodology advocates the use of bibliography (backward navigation) and papers that cite (forward navigation) the selected ones to navigate in the literature. Each paper should be evaluated according to a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria. And a starting set should be defined.

In our case, we use the bibliography of the papers that ground in this thesis as starting set (*cf.* Section 1.5). Then, we apply the backward navigation for a subset of them. Then, we select the paper to add in this review according to a set of inclusion and exclusion criteria. To be picked, a paper should satisfy all inclusion criteria and should not fulfil any of the exclusion criteria. These criteria are the following:

- Inclusion criteria (IC):
 - **IC1:** The paper has been published before the August 9 2019
 - **IC2:** The paper is available online and written in English
 - **IC3:** The paper describes a modelling approach that abstract the context or behaviour* of a system, an approach that enables to reason or navigate through a temporal model, an approach that describes a solution used for adaptive system*, an approach that handles uncertainty, or an approach that helps the manipulation of probability distributions.
- Exclusion criteria (EC):
 - **EC1:** The paper has at most 4 pages (short paper).
 - **EC2:** The paper presents a work in progress (workshop papers), a poster, a vision, a position, an exemplar, a data set, a tutorial, a project, or a Bachelor, Master or PhD dissertation.
 - **EC3:** The paper describes a secondary study (*e.g.*, literature reviews, lessons learned).

- **EC4:** The document has not been published in a venue with a peer-review process. For example, technical and research report or white papers.
- **EC5:** The document is an introduction to the proceedings of a venue or a special issue or it is a guest paper.

Two first inclusion criteria are accessibility criteria: they guarantee that the paper is accessible for any reader of this document. With the third one, IC3, we can include all papers that can be used to answer our research questions. We define the exclusion criteria in order to keep only paper that have been published in a peer-reviewed venue and that present an approach.

In this review, 412 papers have been processed and 84 kept for the review. We report our selection results in an Excel file publicly available on GitHub ¹. Results have also been exported in Comma-separated values (CSV)* files for those who cannot open Excel files.

3.3 Results RQ1: long-term actions*

In this section, we detail our findings regarding the first research questions. First, we detail all approaches that propose a solution to model the evolution of system’s context and behaviour. Then, we list approaches that model actions. Before summarising and answering the research question, we list solutions that model and reason over evolving context and behaviour*, *i.e.*, that implement an adaptation process.

3.3.1 Modelling the evolution of system’s context or behaviour*

Different categories of approaches exist to represent the context or the behaviour* of a system. In this section, we details our findings, with an overview given in Table 3.1.

Modeling paradigm In the MDE* community, researchers have defined the models@run.time* paradigm to implement an adaptation process [BBF09; MBJ⁺09].

¹<https://github.com/lmouline/thesis/tree/master/sota/src>

This approach is based on a runtime model that reflects the current state of the system. It can contain information about either the context of the system, its behaviour*, or both. Moreover, there is a causal link between the model and the system: modifications of the model, made by a stakeholder or a process, trigger modification of the system. For example, changing the status of a fuse in a model that reflects a smart grid triggers the action to open or close it. Hartmann *et al.*, extended this paradigm to introduce a temporal dimension [HFN⁺14b; HFN⁺14a]. This allow to not only store the current state of the system, but also its past (previous states) and future (predicted context). In this thesis, we will use this extension of the paradigm to build our knowledge model, and more precisely to represent long-term actions*.

Formal model In [WMA12], Weyns *et al.*, defined a formal model for adaptive system*, called FORMS. Their goal was to define a reference model, which can be used for discussion or implementation. For self-organisation systems, the literature provide another formal model: MACODO [WHH10]. It uses the Z language [dL04] to formalise the context of the system following the set theory and the first order predicate calculus. The behaviour* is formalised with what they call *laws*. A law is a function from one set to another. The third formal model found in our review has been specified by Bartels and Kleine [BK11]. This one uses Communicating Sequential Process principles [Hoa78], a formalism designed for reactive and concurrent systems. However, none of these models include a time dimension, important to abstract long-term action*.

Object-based model One category of approach found in the literature is object-based models. These models follow object-oriented principles. First, Henricksen *et al.*, defined a model for pervasive computing systems². In their model, there are entities that are linked to their attributes through uni-directional association. These associations can be dynamic, can evolve, or static, do not evolve. A dynamic association can also be temporal. In this case, the entity can have several attributes with a timestamp attached. Second, Hartmann *et al.*, use a temporal model to store

²A pervasive system is composed of cheap and interconnected devices that are ubiquitous and can support users' tasks.[HIR02]

the context and the history of a smart grid system [HFK⁺14a]. This model is based on their extension of the models@run.time* described above [HFN⁺14b; HFN⁺14a]. Third, Tahara *et al.*, [TOH17] use the Maude language [CDE⁺02], to represent the context. Among these three solutions, only the last one do not include a temporal dimension.

Goal model Goal modelling is a technique used by several contributions in our findings [CvL17; IW14; MAR14; CPY⁺14; BPS10]. This technique, mainly used in requirement engineering, represent the different model the different goals of an application. By modelling the requirements of a system's context, we can argue that they de facto represent it in a high level perspective. The context is mainly represented by the goals that are achieved or not. Moreover, in [CvL17], authors add satisfactory rate information on each goal. However, these methods do not include a time dimension.

State machine State machines have the capacity to model, in a same model, the context and the behaviour of a system. The context is represented by the different states while the behaviour can be abstracted by the transitions between the states. [HFK⁺14a; IW14; ARS15; AGR11; GPS⁺13] use the Final State Machine (FSM)* formalism. For example, Hartmann *et al.*, abstracts the behaviour of a smart meter in [HFK⁺14a]. In [GPS⁺13], the authors represent the functionalities of the system and their impact with states. Transitions abstract the different execution flow between the different functionalities. In [BdMM⁺17; BBG⁺13], authors apply the labelled transition system [Kel76]. When authors want to consider the the stochastic behaviour of the system, then they use probabilistic state machines In [BdMM⁺17], the authors extended the model with probabilities, which represent the probability for a transition of a transition to be executed. Another strategy is to use Markov Chain [MCG⁺15; FGL⁺11; GS10; DMS18] A Markov chain can be thought as a FSM* with probabilities attached to the transition. In [MCG⁺15], authors also add information regarding current actions being executed with their progress status. But, no history is kept, when the action is finished, the information is lost. Other approaches use state machine without specifying the formalism used [DBZ14; ZGC09; TGE⁺10]. Tajalli *et*

al., use two state machines: one to represent the system context and behaviour, and another one to represent the adaptation mechanism.

Sequential diagram Through our review, we find one approach that uses sequential diagram to represent the behaviour of the the system [TOH17]. However, nothing is mentioned regarding the context of the system and its history.

Component model In order to represent the context of a system, one can use a component models. This model is at the architecture level and described the different entity (component) that composes a system with their interaction. Four contributions apply this technique in our review [DL06; DBZ14; GCH⁺04; FMF⁺12]. In order to also represent the behaviour, some have extended this model with a state machine description in [DBZ14] or with annotation in [GCH⁺04]. However, no time dimension is considered in these approaches.

Trace models Context and behaviour of a system can be inferred by analysing its logs. In [Mao09], researchers defined an approach to create a model that reflects the runtime state of the system. However, this approach do not keep the history of the system.

Graph model Finally, the last technique used to represent the context of a system is to use a graph model [KM90; GvdHT09; MS17]. In the former, node represents the process unit and the edges the communication between them. In the second one, node represent the possible configuration of the system and the edges represent the actions to reach a configuration. Only the latter include a time dimension. The graph represents the different configuration over time of the system. Plus, some meta-data about previous adaptations (*e.g.*, rate of configuration, average time in this configuration) are added. The latter defined a temporal graph [MS17]. Their temporal graph is a graph that is augmented with two functions. One function serves to indicate if a graph element, a node or an edge, exists for a given time period. The other can retrieve the value of a graph element for a given time period. Using this temporal graph, one can define a model that abstract long-term actions*. However, in our work, we use another temporal graph definition provided by Hartmann *et al.*, and implemented in our research group [HFM⁺19].

Approach	Reference
Modeling paradigm	[BBF09; MBJ ⁺ 09; HFN ⁺ 14b; HFN ⁺ 14a]
Formal model	[WMA12; WHH10; BK11]
Low level model	[MS17]
Object-based model	[HIR02; HFK ⁺ 14a; TOH17]
Goal model	[CvL17; IW14; MAR14; CPY ⁺ 14; BPS10]
State machine	[HFK ⁺ 14a; IW14; ARS15; AGR11; BdMM ⁺ 17; BBG ⁺ 13; MCG ⁺ 15; FGL ⁺ 11; GS10; DMS18; DBZ14; ZGC09; GPS ⁺ 13; TGE ⁺ 10]
Sequential diagram	[TOH17]
Component model	[DL06; DBZ14; GCH ⁺ 04; FMF ⁺ 12]
Trace models	[Mao09]
Graph model	[KM90; GvdHT09]

Table 3.1: Approaches to model systems' context and behaviour* (RQ1.1)

Sum-up Different approaches are used in the literature to represent the context, the behaviour*, or both of systems (*cf.* Table 3.1). However, only a few can be used to keep the history of these informations [HFN⁺14b; HFN⁺14a; MS17; TOH17; HIR02; HFK⁺14a]. This feature remains a key concern to represent long-term actions* as information about delayed effects and previous circumstances* (next and previous context of an action). In the next section, we detail approaches that model actions.

3.3.2 Modelling actions*, their circumstances*, and their effects

In Table 3.2, we regroup the different approaches of our review that model actions*. In this section, we describe the different categories that we identified.

Rule-based approach One solution to model actions* is to use a rule engine [TOH17; ARS15; BCG⁺12; GHP⁺08; PFT03; GCH⁺04]. Rules are characterised by a condition and an executable code. The executable code is executed if the current state of the system meets the condition. Conditions can thus serve to abstract the Circumstances* of an action and the executable code as its effect. However, these information are available at design time and lost during the execution. Plus, these

approach do not allow the representation of the side effects of an action. For example, changing the fuse state has a direct effect on the fuse state. But it also impacts the power grid load. We can notice two exceptions in our review: [TOH17] and [ARS15]. In both cases, rules are used to trigger a state modification in a state machine. We explain the advantages and disadvantages of the state machine approach in the next paragraph.

State machine Several approaches use a state machine to represent the adaptation mechanism [ARS15; IW14; HFK⁺14a; MCG⁺15; FGL⁺11; DBZ14; ZGC09; GPS⁺13; TGE⁺10]. States represent the state of the system and the transition the execution of actions*. One advantage of this approach is that they represent both the circumstances* and the effects of actions. Additionally, it can be used to represent actions at design time and runtime. But, this link remains at high level. The all state is considered at the circumstance or the effect of the action while, in most cases, it just a subset of the element of the state that triggers the action or are affected by it.

Publish/Subscribe approach In our review, we found one approach that uses the publish/subscribe mechanism to trigger actions* [BdMM⁺17]. The circumstances* are thus modelled with the condition of the consumer. In this case, the action is a script. The effects are thus spread, and cannot be navigated. Moreover, this solution only represent the actions at design time, and not their executions.

Goal-modelling In addition to the goals of the system, goal models offer the capacity to represent the actions* that can achieve them. Three approaches have used this ability to represent action in their model [MAR14; BWS⁺12; BPS10]. Baresi *et al.*, extended goal model with *adaptive goals*. This goals contain a condition, objectives (to weaken or enforce some goals), and *actions* (here, an action modify goals or operation-executable code- in the goal model). Here, effects can be seen as the fulfilment of a goal. And a condition is when a goal is not satisfied anymore. However, these information are not kept over time. Furthermore, no information about the runtime execution of the actions is kept.

Programming language Among our findings, one approach defined its own language to define actions: [CG12]. This language allow developers modelling their

actions, with their conditions, and their effects. However, the language does not include a temporal dimension. Plus, the language is suitable to describe actions at design time but provide no mechanism to track them during their execution.

Event-Condition Action In order to trigger adaptation, one can use the Event-Condition Action approach: the action is triggered if an event respect the condition. In our review, all the works use this methodology in order to weave or remove aspects of the program, following Aspect-Oriented Programming³ [CDM09; PBC⁺11; DL06]. However, there is no temporal dimension. Plus, this solution is suitable to describe actions at design time, but does not allow navigation through runtime information.

Model transformation Following the models@run.time*, one way to adapt a system is to modify the model to trigger the actions. One way to do this, is to use the Query/View/Transformation [Gro16b] approach as Chen *et al.*, did in [CPY⁺14]. Here, the circumstance* and the effects are represented at the model level in the query and the transformation part. When the context is represented as a graph, actions* will thus be modelled as graph modifications. In [KM90], authors represent an action by adding or removing graph elements (node and edge). However, these solution do not take into account any time dimension, side-effects or runtime information.

Formal model In our review, we found three formal models [WHH10; BK11; CMR15]. First, the MACODO formalisation [WHH10] that defines actions as function from one set to another. These functions represent actions to reorganise a system: adding, removing, or merging group of components. Second, in [BK11], authors use the process calculus Communicating Sequential Process, which allow engineers formalising reactive and concurrent systems where atomic *events* are handled by *processes* (an infinite transition system). Actions* here correspond to a modification of a component configuration in response to an event. Last, Cimatti *et al.*, defined a planning algorithm which include time [CMR15]. In their algorithm, they formalise actions* as element with an execution time, possibly uncertain. None of these models include a temporal dimension or represent the effects of an action. Plus these solution

³Aspect-Oriented Programming is a programming paradigm that prones the separation of concern. For that, a program is seen as a set of aspects, each aspect implementing one concern.

do not model the execution of actions*.

Dynamic Software Product-Lines One approach to represent the possible adaptation of a system is to use a Software Product-Lines model. Engineer model the all the possible variations of a system. Then, at runtime, the system select the one that can achieve the requirements in the current context. This approach is refers to as Dynamic Software Product-Lines and used by two approaches in our findings [GS10; CCH⁺13]. Here actions* can be executed to achieve the selection of the different variation point. Effects are thus represented as the new configuration selected. However, these solutions do not include a time dimension or cannot represent runtime information.

Graph model Finally, the last approach found in our review is to use graph model. In [GvdHT09], researchers use a graph where nodes represent possible configurations and edges represent the modification of the configuration, using our wording an action*. However, there is no time dimension and only design time information are modelled.

Sum up As shown in Table 3.2, the literature provides different solution to model action*. However, none of them include a temporal dimension. Thus, even if they represent effects, they cannot describe them over time. For example, they will be able to model that a new server will be added, but not when. Moreover, these solutions mainly remain at design time, except for those that use a state machine. No information concerning the runtime, like the status of the execution of an action, the runtime values or the effects. are not represented. One limitation is that they do not represent side-effects over time. For example, they will represent the addition of a server but not the effects on the bandwidth or the workload. Additionally, as they do not represent runtime information, no autonomous solution can be employed to detect any unknown effects of an action to the system. The last limitation is the representation of circumstances*. In the approaches of the review, they are mainly represented as the condition that triggers the action. Even if a human can guess it after, there is no direct link between the action execution and the circumstances. No model can allow an automatic navigation over these time-related information.

Approach	Reference
Rule-based	[TOH17; ARS15; BCG ⁺ 12; GHP ⁺ 08; PFT03; GCH ⁺ 04]
State machine	[ARS15; IW14; HFK ⁺ 14a; MCG ⁺ 15; FGL ⁺ 11; DBZ14; ZGC09; GPS ⁺ 13; TGE ⁺ 10]
Goal-modelling	[MAR14; BWS ⁺ 12; BPS10]
Programming language	[CG12]
Event-Condition Action	[DL06; CDM09; PBC ⁺ 11]
Model transformation	[CPY ⁺ 14; KM90]
Formal model	[WHH10; BK11; CMR15]
Dynamic Software Product-Lines	[GS10; CCH ⁺ 13]
Graph model	[GvdHT09]

Table 3.2: Approaches to model actions*, their circumstances*, and their effects (RQ1.2)

ctions:rq1.2)?

3.3.3 Reasoning over evolving context or behaviour*

In this section, we review the solutions that enable reasoning over evolving context or behaviour*. That is, solutions that can be used to implement adaptive system*. Table 3.3 gives an overview of our findings, detailed in the rest of this section.

Model-based approach Following the MDE* methodology, one approach to reason over an evolving context or behaviour* is the models@run.time* paradigm [BBF09; MBJ⁺09]. Hartmann *et al.*, extended it to include a temporal dimension [HFN⁺14b; HFN⁺14a] for reasoning over the history of a system. Approaches detailed in [BdMM⁺17] and in [CPY⁺14] follow this paradigm. However, in the process, they do not consider long-term action*, specially those that are under execution of with effects in a near future.

Rule-based adaptation In our review, some approaches employ a rule-based mechanism to define the adaptation mechanism [ARS15; TOH17; GHP⁺08]. However, they only reason over the context or the behaviour, not on the running actions or

their future effects.

Architecture-based adaptation Architecture-based adaptation adjust the architecture of a system to achieve requirements. In our review, different approaches use this mechanism [CG12; GCH⁺04; GvdHT09; FMF⁺12]. For example, Cheng *et al.*, define a language to design actions* for architecture-based adaptation. Also, the adaptive mechanism can compute a reconfiguration script by comparing the current component model with the expected one [FMF⁺12]. However, none of these solutions consider running action* and their future effects.

Simulation-based adaptation In our review, one approach applies a simulation-based approach [HFK⁺14a]. In their works, authors simulated different sequences of actions*, evaluate and select the optimal one regarding the requirements. To perform this approach, they have to know the look ahead and consider the impact of each action on the system. However, they do not reason over actions* being executed or their future effects.

Formal model In our review, four formal models describe adaptive system* with their adaptation mechanism [WMA12; IW14; WHH10; BK11]. For example, Iftikhar and Weyns use a state machine formalism to specify self-adaptive system* [IW14]. But, none of the formal model includes a time dimension, which would allow stakeholders to consider running long-term actions*.

Complex Event Processing Among our findings, one is using the an approach based on a complex event processing engine [AFR⁺10]. Here, actions* are triggered in response to an event, as much complex as necessary. Using this approach, one cannot reason over running actions* and their future effects.

Graph model Two approaches in our findings employ a graph model [KM90; MS17]. These approaches reason over a graph to trigger an adaptation process. In [MS17], authors use a temporal graph algebra, which can store the history of the context. But, none of them include running actions* in their model.

Aspect oriented programming From what we see in our findings, aspect oriented programming is an approach heavily used by researchers [GB06; DL06; CDM09;

PBC⁺11; FA04; PFT03]. More specially, they use dynamic aspect oriented programming: aspects are automatically weaved and removed aspects in a software. In addition, Morin *et al.*, uses an aspect-oriented modelling [MBN⁺09]. Part of the MDE* methodology, this approach models the different aspects with their point cuts⁴. However, none of them allow to reason executing action* or their future effects.

Component-based adaptation One approach uses a component model as basis to reason for the adaptation mechanism [DL06]. Here, actions* modify the configuration of a component to adjust the behaviour or the context of the system. But, in this approach, running actions* are not considered by the adaptation process.

State machine Another approach widely adopted in the findings is the use of a state machine [MCG⁺15; FGL⁺11; DBZ14; ZGC09; GPS⁺13; TGE⁺10]. Transitions represent actions*. Effects of an action are also known and modelled. However, no information about running actions* is represented and thus considered.

Dynamic software product-lines Dynamic software product-lines approaches see the adaptation mechanism as a runtime selection between different software product-lines options. However, the two solutions that use this approach in our finding [GS10; CCH⁺13] do not use information about running actions* and their future effects to take decisions.

Requirement-driven adaptation In our review, Baresi *et al.*, defines a reasoning approach over a goal model [BPS10]. However, running actions* are excluded from the adaptation process.

Extension of MAPE-k* loop Maurer *et al.*, [MBE⁺11] extended the traditional MAPE-k* loop. Authors added a step before the monitoring one called *adaptation*. In the context of cloud infrastructure, this step allows to prepare the entity before a deployment, such as contract establishment for service level agreement. But, the MAPE-k* loop is not modified to consider running action* and their effects.

Sum up In the literature, we can find different approaches to reason over an evolving context or behaviour, as depicted in Table 3.3. However, none of them provide a

⁴A point cut is part of the software where an aspect can be weaved or removed.

solution to reason over running execution of their future effects. To make decisions, current solutions only consider current, past, or future context or behaviour*.

3.3.4 Modelling and reasoning over long-term actions*

In the previous section, we detailed our review concerning modelling techniques for adaptive systems*. First, we saw that just a couple of approaches that model the context or the behaviour* include a time dimension. Then, despite this element, current approaches do not include actions* with their circumstances and their effects over time. Finally, we saw that none of the solutions propose an approach to reason over running actions. To answer RQ1, our review shows that no solution in the state-of-art represent and reason over long-term action* and their execution.

3.4 Results RQ2: data uncertainty*

In this section, we detail our findings regarding the modelling of uncertainty. First, we categorise the different kind of uncertainty addressed in the literature. Second, we explain how state-of-the art solution model data uncertainty*. Third, we show current approaches propagate uncertainty. Finally, we conclude by answering the our second research questions of our review.

3.4.1 Categories of data uncertainty

The literature provides different approaches to tackle challenges that come with the different aspect of uncertainty. In Table 3.4, we give an overview of the different categories of these approaches found in our review.

Data uncertainty The main category of uncertainty addressed by the different research community is the uncertainty of data [BBM⁺18; BDI⁺17; BGG⁺13; BMB⁺18; BMM14; CGH⁺17; MWV16; SWF16; VMO16; ZAY⁺19; Hal06; JWB⁺15; ZSA⁺16; BGP92; BSH⁺06; BAV⁺12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; SMH11; Thr00; LTB⁺00; Plu⁺03]. In these studies, they tackle challenges due to the uncertainty that can be attached to a value, in our word a data.

Design uncertainty The modelling community studied the uncertainty in the design of a model-based solution [FSC12; FC19; EPR15; EPR14; SCH⁺13; ZSA⁺16].

Approach	Reference	Reasoning over long-term action*
Model-based	[BBF09; MBJ ⁺ 09; HFN ⁺ 14b; HFN ⁺ 14a; BdMM ⁺ 17; CPY ⁺ 14]	None
Rule-based	[ARS15; TOH17; GHP ⁺ 08]	None
Architecture-based	[CG12; GCH ⁺ 04; GvdHT09; FMF ⁺ 12]	None
Simulation-based	[HFK ⁺ 14a]	Consider effects of actions* to select those to execute. Do not consider running actions*
Formal model	[WMA12; IW14; WHH10; BK11]	None
Complex event processing	[AFR ⁺ 10]	None
Graph model	[MS17; KM90]	None
Aspect Oriented Programming	[GB06; DL06; CDM09; PBC ⁺ 11; FA04; PFT03; MBN ⁺ 09]	None
Component-based	[DL06]	None
State machine	[MCG ⁺ 15; FGL ⁺ 11; DBZ14; ZGC09; GPS ⁺ 13; TGE ⁺ 10]	Effects modelled but do not contain any runtime information about actions* execution
Dynamic software product-lines	[GS10; CCH ⁺ 13]	None
Requirement-driven	[BPS10]	None
Extension of MAPE-k*	[MBE ⁺ 11]	None

Table 3.3: Approaches to reason over evolving context or behaviour* (RQ1.3)

ctions:rq1.3)?

Category	Reference
Data uncertainty	[BBM ⁺ 18; BDI ⁺ 17; BGG ⁺ 13; BMB ⁺ 18; BMM14; CGH ⁺ 17; MWV16; SWF16; VMO16; ZAY ⁺ 19; Hal06; JWB ⁺ 15; ZSA ⁺ 16; BGP92; BSH ⁺ 06; BAV ⁺ 12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; SMH11; Thr00; LTB ⁺ 00; Plu ⁺ 03]
Design uncertainty	[FSC12; FC19; EPR15; EPR14; SCH ⁺ 13; ZSA ⁺ 16]
Requirement uncertainty	[WSB ⁺ 10; WSB ⁺ 09; SCH ⁺ 13]
Uncertainty in model transformations	[BBM ⁺ 18; EPR15; EPR14]
Time uncertainty	[Gar08]
Uncertainty in business process	[JWB ⁺ 15]
Environment* uncertainty	[EM10; ZSA ⁺ 16]
Behaviour* uncertainty	[ZAY ⁺ 19]
Hardware uncertainty	[CMR13]

Table 3.4: Categories of uncertainty addressed by the literature (RQ2.1)

a:results:duc:rq2.1)?

An example used by Famelis *et al.*, [FSC12], is the uncertainty in modelling a state machine. One may not not known with the most thorough confidence the transitions to add.

Requirement uncertainty Related to design uncertainty, there is the requirement uncertainty. This uncertainty is due to the lack of confidence when stakeholders model the requirements of a system. In our finding, three studies have addressed challenges related to this kind of uncertainty [WSB⁺10; WSB⁺09; SCH⁺13].

Model transformation Due to design uncertainty, researchers prone the use of partial models [FSC12]. As explained in Section 2.2, model transformation is a cornerstone feature in the MDE* community. But, this process also contains uncertainty, tackled by three studies from our review [BBM⁺18; EPR15; EPR14].

Time uncertainty When occurring with time-related phenomena, uncertainty about when they are expected to occur exists. Garousi *et al.*, studied the time uncertainty of events in a distributed system.

Uncertain process Staying in the modelling approaches, we found one study that deals with the uncertainty in business processes [JWB⁺15]. In this paper, JimÁlnez-RamÁlrez *et al.*, studied the uncertainty in the properties of business processes.

Uncertainty in environment* Systems tend to be more and more complex and evolve in uncertain environment*. To face challenges due to this uncertainty, researchers defined a new category of systems refer to as adaptive system*. Here, we can add all studies found that answer RQ1 (*cf.* Section 3.3). For the sake of conciseness, here we will just add two studies [EM10; ZSA⁺16]

Uncertainty in behaviour* The uncertainty in the environment* can cause an uncertainty in the behaviour of a system. It thus may complexify the testing phase of the system. In [ZAY⁺19], authors tackle a challenge for the testing phase of system with uncertain behaviour*.

Uncertain hardware Software rely on faulty hardware, which can create errors in the computation and damage them. In our review we found one study that face

Approach	Reference	Used for data uncertainty*
Data type with a field for uncertainty	[BBM ⁺ 18; BMB ⁺ 18; MWV16; VMO16; BGP92; SMH11]	✓
Probabilistic programming	[BDI ⁺ 17; BMM14; BGG ⁺ 13; CGH ⁺ 17; SWF16; BAV ⁺ 12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB ⁺ 00; Plu ⁺ 03]	✓
Multiple possibilities	[FSC12; FC19; EPR15; EPR14; SCH ⁺ 13; BSH ⁺ 06]	(✓)
Randomness	[Gar08]	✗
Domain specific language	[WSB ⁺ 10; WSB ⁺ 09; JWB ⁺ 15; CMR13]	✓
Model-level uncertainty	[ZAY ⁺ 19]	✓
Formal model	[Hal06; ZSA ⁺ 16]	✓

Table 3.5: Approaches to model data uncertainty* (RQ2.2)

a:results:duc:rq2.2)?

this uncertainty in hardware [CMR13].

Sum-up During our review, we found nine different categories of uncertainty studied in the literature shown in Table 3.4. These categories cover different phase of a software lifecycle, from requirement specification to execution environment. In this thesis, we focus on data uncertainty*: the lack of confidence in the data manipulated by a software.

3.4.2 Modelling data uncertainty*

In this section, we detail the different techniques present in the literature that an engineer can use to model data uncertainty*. We give an overview of the different approaches in Table 3.5.

Data type with a field for uncertainty In [BBM⁺18; BMB⁺18; MWV16; VMO16], authors use a complex type, named *UReal*, that contain two fields: one to represent the value and another one to represent the *standard uncertainty*. For

example, when manipulating a dimension value, one may say that the value is $19.1\text{cm} \pm 0.1$. With the data type, an instance will have 19.1 as value and 0.1 as *standard uncertainty*. Then, based on these values they can define a normal distribution where the mean equals the value (here 19.1) and the variance the *standard uncertainty* (here 0.1). Barbară et al., [BGP92] used a similar approach in their database model. In their model, a probability value (a value between 0 and 1) is attached to a database value. Finally, Schwarz et al., [SMH11] attached a confidence value to variables in a state machine. However, these solutions limit the representation of uncertainty to one distribution, *e.g.*, a Gaussian distribution. Although all the complexity of probability theory is hidden from the developer, it hinders its ability to choose another probability distribution that could better fit. Depending on the domain, the optimal probability distribution to represent the uncertainty of data varies. For example, the Gaussian distribution suits for metrology data [Met08] whereas Rayleigh distribution fits with GPS location data [Bor13].

Probabilistic programming A research community has investigated how to introduce probability distributions in a programming language. The different approaches are regrouped under the term *probabilistic programming* [GHN⁺14]. This strategy remains the main approach used in our review [BDI⁺17; BMM14; BGG⁺13; CGH⁺17; SWF16; BAV⁺12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB⁺00; Plu⁺03]. Using this approach, probability distributions can be manipulated as a variable in a programming language.

One example is the *Uncertain<T>* language developed by Bornholt et al., [BMM14]. To manipulate uncertain data, they defined an interface, *Uncertain<T>*, which can be specialised by any probability distribution. For example, an uncertain double is defined as followed: *Uncertain<double> un = new Gaussian(4,1)*. Therefore, the language hides the distribution for developers. However, as in ours, they can still define and use different distributions. We strongly think that using dynamic typing and always hiding the real type, developers may not know or understand what they manipulate. It may end with runtime errors that do not provide any clear explanation. By forcing static types, we can help developers to manipulate uncertain

data but we lose in terms of flexibility [MD04].

As stated by Gordon *et al.*, [GHN⁺14], “the purpose of a probabilistic program is to implicitly specify a probability distribution”. Knowledge about the probability distribution is still required to understand and manipulate a code done by one of these languages. We think that work can be done to abstract the concepts in a higher level. Doing so, engineers can write reasoning algorithms over uncertain data, without knowledge about probability distribution. Moreover, there is a shift in how to apprehend the problem of uncertain data. Using a probabilistic program, engineers will try to see the probability of an event E to be in a situation S whereas in this work they are interested in knowing if the current instance of E is in S. For example, using a probabilistic program, engineers will see the overall probability that the temperature is greater than 20°C. In our problem, they want to see what is the confidence, *i.e.*, the probability, that the current measurement is greater than 20°C.

Multiple possibilities In order to face design uncertainty, Famelis *et al.*, defined the concept of *partial models* [FSC12; FC19]. A partial model is a graph where elements can be annotated with *TRUE*, *FALSE*, or *MAYBE*. *TRUE* and *FALSE* respectively indicate that the graph element should be present or not. When the presence of the element is uncertain, designer can annotate it with *MAYBE*. Eramo *et al.*, apply this approach to handle uncertainty in model transformation [EPR15; EPR14]: the process generate partial models. Partial models can also be used to reflect requirement uncertainty [SCH⁺13]. Finally, in the database community, Benjelloun *et al.*, [BSH⁺06] defined an approach where data can have different possible values. This approach is only suitable for data when the different possibilities can be listed.

Randomness As seen in the previous section, the time uncertainty may affect some events, which can complexify the test phase of such systems. To address this challenge, Garousi *et al.*, [Gar08] define an approach where the time of occurrence of events happen with a random parameter. However, this approach can only be used in testing phase to represent the lack of confidence in a value. Indeed, when one has to reason over received data, such as measurement data, she cannot randomly select the value.

Domain specific language In our review, we found four studies that define a specific language to handle uncertainty in their domain. First, for uncertainty in requirements, Whittle *et al.*, [WSB⁺10; WSB⁺09] designed the RELAX language. The language introduces fuzzy words to reflect the uncertainty. For example, a requirement could be: “The workload *SHALL NOT* be greater than *THRESHOLD*”. In [JWB⁺15], authors presents a declarative language for business process that allow stakeholders adding probability information to properties. For example, to handle uncertain hardware, authors of [CMR13] have implemented a language that can specify reliability constraints on the execution of a function. If a language engineer consider that uncertainty is a first-class citizen concern, as done by these approaches, then she should integrate techniques to handle it in the language.

Model-level uncertainty Zhang *et al.*, [ZAY⁺19] uses a UML* profile to define different kind of uncertainties, called U-Model [ZSA⁺16]. Following this approach, designer can define a model to test CPS* by generating test cases. One may use this technique to model data uncertainty*.

Formal model In our review, we found two formal models for uncertainty [Hal06; ZSA⁺16]. First, Hall *et al.*, defined a model that implements the recommendation of the GUM* [Hal06]. Second, Zhang *et al.*, presented a conceptual model of uncertainty which regroup different kind of uncertainty in a CPS* [ZSA⁺16]. An engineer can implement one of these formal models to represent data uncertainty*.

Sum up As depicted in Table 3.5, in our review we find seven categories of approach that model uncertainty, with the most widely present: probabilistic programming. As shown in the table, most of these approaches can be used to implement data uncertainty*. In this thesis, we mainly focus in using a similar approach as probabilistic programming or defining new data types that contain a field for uncertainty to help developers modelling uncertain data.

3.4.3 Propagation and reasoning over uncertainty

In this section, we study state-of-the art approaches to propagate uncertainty when uncertain data are manipulated. Plus, we study the different approaches to

Approach	Reference	Imperceptible propagation?
Attached to language operators	[BBM ⁺ 18; BDI ⁺ 17; BGG ⁺ 13; BMB ⁺ 18; CGH ⁺ 17; MWV16; SWF16; VMO16; BAV ⁺ 12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB ⁺ 00; Plu ⁺ 03]	✓
Through state machine	[SMH11]	✓
Manual	[BBM ⁺ 18]	✗

Table 3.6: Approaches to propagate data uncertainty* (RQ2.3)

results:duc:rq2.3.1)?

Approach	Reference
Access to the confidence parameter	[BBM ⁺ 18; BMB ⁺ 18; MWV16; VMO16; BGP92; SMH11]
Access to probability features	[BDI ⁺ 17; BMM14; BGG ⁺ 13; CGH ⁺ 17; SWF16; BAV ⁺ 12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB ⁺ 00; Plu ⁺ 03]

Table 3.7: Approaches to reason over the uncertainty of data (RQ2.3)

results:duc:rq2.3.2)?

reason over uncertainty. Table 3.6 and Table 3.7 present a summary of our findings.

[Propagation] Attached to language operators According to our finding, the most common approach to propagate uncertainty is to attach the propagation mechanism to the language operator [BBM⁺18; BDI⁺17; BGG⁺13; BMB⁺18; CGH⁺17; MWV16; SWF16; VMO16; BAV⁺12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB⁺00; Plu⁺03]. From a programming language point of view, (uncertain) data are mainly manipulated through language operators, such as arithmetic operators. In these works, researchers define strategies to map the semantic of a language operator to a process that propagate the uncertainty. For example mapping the addition operator to the addition of two probability distributions.

[Propagation] Through state machine One study propagate the uncertainty using a state machine [SMH11]. In this work, uncertain events are handled by *interactors*. Due to the uncertainty, multiple interactor can match the event. They are called and their results are weighted according to the uncertainty of the event. The state machine can thus be in different states, with different confidence. The most probable one is selected.

[Propagation] Manual propagation Finally, one solution requires a manual propagation [BBM⁺18]. This work is used in model transformation. When a designer implements a transformation rule, she also has to implement manually the code to propagate uncertainty.

[Reasoning] Access to the confidence parameter Six approaches in our findings allow to access to the confidence parameter. For example, using [VMO16] developers can access the *standard uncertainty*.

[Reasoning] Access to properties of probability distribution Probabilistic programming allow to manipulate probability distributions as programming language variables. Using such approaches, developers can access different properties of a probability distribution [BDI⁺17; BMM14; BGG⁺13; CGH⁺17; SWF16; BAV⁺12; CNR13; JK12; PPT08; Pfe01; RP02; SCG13; Thr00; LTB⁺00; Plu⁺03]. For example, they can access to the mean or the variance of a Gaussian distribution. Of, they can

compute a sample from the distribution.

Sum up The widely approach to imperceptibly propagate uncertainty is to attach the propagation uncertainty to the language operators as we can see in Table 3.6. The main advantage of this approach is to keep a language with a syntax as close as possible to what developers are used to. However, current solutions provide only what we call *low level* techniques to reason over uncertainty (*cf.* Table 3.7). Indeed, state-of-the art solution allow developers to access either the values stored or the properties of a probability distribution.

3.4.4 Modelling of data uncertainty* and its manipulation

In this review, we have seen that different kind of uncertainty have been addressed by the literature (RQ2.1). Among them, in this thesis we focus on data uncertainty*. Different strategies can be used to model the uncertainty, with the most used one which consist in using a probabilistic program (RQ2.2). This approach offers propagation of uncertainty by mapping this process to language operators (RQ2.3). Plus, the properties of probability distributions can also be accessed using such techniques (RQ2.3). However, we think that research efforts now can be done to provide a language with a higher level of abstraction, as initiated by Vallecillo *et al.*, [VMO16]. One goal is to help developers implementing reasoning algorithms over uncertain data with a high-level understanding of the probability theory. Moreover, we think that specific operators should be specified to reason over this uncertainty. Another limitation of these work is that they studied uncertainties on numerical values. There is still open research questions to employ these techniques in an object-oriented language, which also contains references and

3.5 Threat to validity

?(sec:sota:validity)? In this section, we discussed several threat to validity that may damage the results of our review.

To perform this review, we use a strategy inspired from the snowballing methodology [Woh14]. However, due to a lack of resources, we do not fully perform it. Contrary to what should have been done, we did not apply the backward and forward

propagation on all the selected papers. Additionally, as mentioned by the authors, the quality of the results of a review that follow this methodology highly depends on the primary set, which can suffer from a bias.

Moreover, the result of a review are impacted by the accuracy of the data extraction step and the research questions formulated. In this case, no discussion have been done around the formulation of the questions. And, the data extraction has been performed by a unique person, which will increase the inaccuracy.

3.6 Conclusion

a:conclusion)?

A unified modelling framework

chapt:vision)?

As argued in the introduction section, adaptation combined with abstraction comes with a novel challenge: the representation of uncertain data and delayed action. In this chapter, we present a vision concerning a modelling framework that should consider uncertainty and time as first-class concepts. We first argue towards this vision. Before detailing the synthesis of this vision, we show arguments against this vision. To do so, we answered with pros and cons to three questions: why do we need a modelling framework? why time and uncertainty should be put as first-class concepts? why should time and uncertainty combined in the same structure?

Ain’tea: Managing Data Uncertainty at the Language Level

chapt:aintea)?

After identifying and discussing the key concepts associated with data uncertainty, this chapter presents Ain’tea, a language that integrates them directly into the grammar, type system and semantics part. To validate and exemplify our approach, we apply it to a smart-grid scenario and compare it to framework-based approaches. We show that developers benefit from the language semantics and type system which guide them to manipulate uncertain data without deep probability theory knowledge.

A temporal knowledge meta-model to represent, reason and diagnose decisions, their circumstances and their impacts

?<chapt:tkm>?

Contents

6.1	Introduction	66
6.2	Knowledge formalization	75
6.3	modelling the knowledge	85
6.4	Validation	91
6.5	Conclusion	101

In this chapter, we first propose a knowledge formalism to define the concept of a decision. Second, we describe a novel temporal knowledge model to represent, store and query decisions as well as their relationship with the knowledge (context, requirements, and actions). We validate our approach through a use case based on the smart grid at Luxembourg. We also demonstrate its scalability both in terms of execution time and consumed memory.

6.1 Introduction

Adaptive systems have proven their suitability to handle the increasing complexity of systems and their ever-changing environment. To do so, they make adaptation decisions, in the form of actions, based on high-level policies. For instance, the OpenStack Watcher project [Tea15] implements the MAPE-k loop to assist cloud administrators in their activities to tune and rebalance their cloud resources according to some optimization goals (e.g., CPU and network bandwidth). For readability purpose, we refer to adaptation decision as decision in the remaining part of this document.

Despite the reactivity of adaptation processes, impacts of their decisions can be measurable long after they have been taken. We identified two problematics caused by this difference of paces:

- How to diagnose the self-adaptation process?
- How to enable reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects?

To address them, we propose a temporal knowledge model which can trace decisions over time, along with their circumstances and effects. By storing them, the adaptation process could consider ongoing actions with their expected effects, also called impacts. Plus, in case of faulty decisions, developers may trace back their effects to their circumstances. Our current approach is limited to the representation of measurable effects of any decision, and therefore action.

The meta-model allow structuring and storing the state and behaviour of a running adaptive system, together with a high-level API to efficiently perform diagnosis routines. Our framework relies on a temporal model-based solution that efficiently abstracts decisions and their corresponding circumstances. Specifically, based on existing approaches for modelling and monitoring adaptation processes, we identify a set of properties that characterise context, requirements, and actions in self-adaptive systems. Then, we formalise the common core concepts implied in adaptation processes, also referred to as knowledge, by means of temporal graphs and a set of relations that trace decisions impact to circumstances. Finally, thanks to exposing common interfaces in adaptive processes, existing approaches in requirements and

goal modelling engineering can be easily integrated into our framework.

The rest of this chapter is structured as follows. In the remaining part of this section, we motivate our approach, we summarise core concepts manipulated in adaptation processes, and we present a use case scenario based on the Luxembourg Smart Grid (*cf.* Chapter). Then, we provide a formal definition of these concepts in Section 6.2. Later, we describe the proposed data model in Section 6.3. In Section 6.4, we demonstrate the applicability of our approach by applying it to the smart grid example. We conclude this chapter in Section 6.5.

add ref

Update with last
version

6.1.1 Motivation

m:intro:motiv>

Delayed action

delayed_action>

In this section, we motivate the need to reason over delayed actions. To do so, we first give four examples of these actions. Then we detail why the effects of actions should be considered. Finally, we summarise and motivate the need for incorporating actions and their effects on the knowledge.

Delayed action examples Until here, we have claimed that adaptation processes should handle delayed actions. In order to show their existence, we give four different examples: two based on our use case, one on cloud infrastructure and a last one on smart homes. From our understanding, three phenomena can explain this delay: the time to execute an action(s) (Example 1), the time for the system to handle the new configuration (Example 3) and the inertia of the measured element (Example 2 and 4).

Example 1: Modification of fuse states in smart grids Even if the Luxembourg power grid is moving to an autonomous one, not all the elements can be remotely controlled. One example is fuses that still need to be open or closed by a human. Open and close actions in the Luxembourg smart grid both imply technicians who are contacted, drive to fuse places and manually change their states. If several fuses need to be changed due to one decision, only one technician will drive to them, sequentially, and executes the modifications. For example, in our case, our industrial partner asks us to consider that each fuse modification takes 15 min whereas any

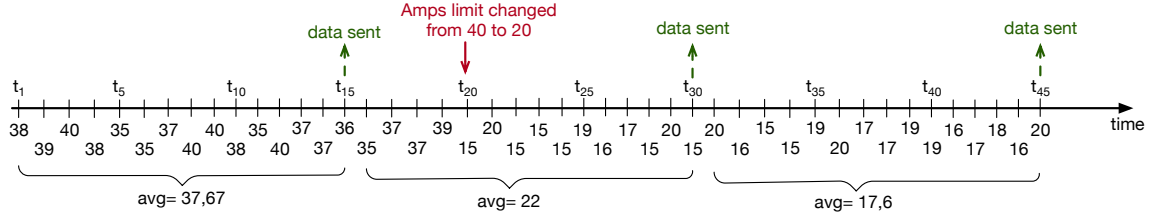


Figure 6.1: Example of consumption measurement before and after a limitation of amps has been executed at t_{20} .

ng-action-amps-limit)

incident should be detected in the minute. Let's imagine that an incident is detected at 4 p.m. and can be solved by modifying three fuses. The incidents will be seen as resolved by the adaptation process at 4 p.m. + 15 min * 3 = 4:45 p.m. In this case, the delay of the action is due to the execution time that is not immediate.

Example 2: Reduction of amps limit in smart grids¹ In its smart grid project, Creos S.A. envisages controlling remotely amps limits of customers. Customers will have two limits: a fixed one, set at the beginning, and a flexible one, remotely managed. The action to remotely change amps limits will be performed through specific plugs, such as one for electric vehicles. Even if the action is near instant, due to how power consumption is collected, its impacts would not be visible immediately. Indeed, data received by Creos S.A. corresponds to the total energy consumed since the installation. From this information, only the average of consumed data for the last period can be computed.

In Figure 6.1, we depict a scenario that shows the delay between the action is executed and the impacts are measured. Each time point represents one minute, with the consumption at this moment.

Let's imagine a customer who has his or her limit set to 40 amps² and consumes near this limit. We consider that data are sent every 15 min. After receiving data sent t_{15} and processing them, the adaptation process detects an overload and decides

¹This example is based on randomly generated data. As this action is not yet available on the Luxembourg smart grid, we miss real data. However, it reflects an hypothesis shared with our partner.

²The user cannot consume more than 40 amps at a precise time t_i .

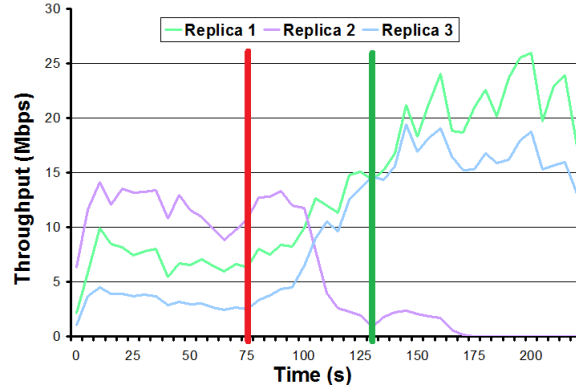


Figure 6.2: Figure extracted from [WBR11]. The red bar depicted the moment when Replica 2 stop receiving new connections. The green one represents the moment where all the rules in the load balancer stop considering R2. Despite these two actions, the throughput of the machine does not drop to 0 due to existing and active connections.

load-balancer)

to reduce the limits to 20 amps for the customer. However, considering the delay for data to be collected and the one to send data³, the action is received and executed at t_{20} . At t_{30} , new consumption data is sent, here equals 22 amps. Here, there are two situations. First, this reduction was enough to fix the overload. Even in this idealistic scenario, the adaptation process must wait at worst 15 min ($t_{30} - t_{15}$) to see the resolution (without considering the communication time). Second, this reduction was not enough - as the adaptation process considered that the consumption data will be at worst 20 amps and here it is 22. Before seeing the incident as solved and knowing that the decision fixed the incident, the adaptation process should wait for new data, sent at t_{45} , *i.e.*, around 30 min ($t_{45} - t_{15}$) after the detection.

In this case, the delay of this action can be explained by the inertia in the average of the consumption.

Example 3: Switching off a machine from a load balancer An example based on cloud infrastructure of delayed actions is to remove a machine from a load balancer, for example during a scale down operation. Scale down operations allows cloud managers to reduce allocated resources for a specific task. It is used either to

³Reminder: the smart grid is not built upon a fast network such a fiber network.

reduce the cost of the infrastructure or to reallocate them to other tasks. In [WBR11], Wang *et al.*, present a load-balancing algorithm. In their evaluation, they present the figure depicted in Figure 6.2 that shows the evolution of the throughput after the server Replica 2 (R2) is removing from the load balancer. The red bar shows the moment where R2 stop receiving new connection and the green the moment where it is removed from the load balancer algorithm. However, despite these actions have been taken, R2 should finish the ongoing tasks that it is executing. This explains why the throughput is progressively decreasing to 0 and there is a delay of around 100s between the red bars and the moment where R2 stop being active.

This example shows a delayed action due to the time required by the system to handle the new configuration.

Example 4: Modifying home temperature through a smart home system Smart home systems have been implemented in order to manage remotely a house or to perform automatically routines. For example, it allows users to close or open blinds from their smartphones. Based on instruction temperatures, smart home systems manage the heating or cooling system to reach them at the desired time. However, heating or cooling a house is not immediate, it can take several hours before the targeted temperature is reached. Plus, if the temperature sensor and the heating or cooling system are not placed nearby, the new temperature can take time before being measured. This can be explained due to the temperature inertia plus the delay for the temperature to be propagated.

Through these four examples, we show that delayed actions can be found in different kinds of systems, from CPS to cloud infrastructure. However, not only knowing that an action is running is important but also knowing its expecting effect. We detail this point in the following section.

The need to consider effects In the previous section, we show the existence of delayed actions. One may argue that action statuses are already integrated into the knowledge. For example, the OpenStack Watcher framework stores them in a

database⁴, accessible through an API. However, for the best of our knowledge Watcher does not store the expecting effects of each action. While the adaptation process knows what action is running, it does not know what it should expect from them.

Considering our example based on the modification of fuses, if the system knows that the technician is modifying fuse states, it does not know what would be the effects. In this case, when the adaptation process analyses the system context it may wonder: what will be the next grid configuration? How the load will be balanced? Will the future configuration fix all the current incidents? If the effects are not considered by the adaptation process, then it may take suboptimal decisions.

Let's exemplify this claim through a scenario based on the fuse example (*cf.* Example 1). As explained before, the overload detected at 4 p.m. takes around 45 min to be fixed. The system marks this incident as "being resolved". In addition to this information, the knowledge contains another one saying that it is being solved by modifying three fuses. However, during the resolution stage, a cable is also being overloaded. The adaptation process has two solutions. It can either wait for the end of the resolution of the first incident to see if both overloaded elements will be fixed or it takes other actions without considering the ongoing actions and their impacts. Applying the first strategy may make the resolution of the second incident late, whereas the second one may generate a suboptimal sequence of actions. For example, the second modifications may undo what has been done before or both actions may be conflicting.

Conclusion Actions, like fuse modification in a smart grid or removing a server from a load balancer, generated during by adaptation processes could take time upon completion. Moreover, the expected effects resulting from such action is reflected in the context representation only after a certain delay. One used workaround is the selection, often empirically, of an optimistic time interval between two iterations of the MAPE-K loop such that this interval is bigger than the longest action execution time. However, the time to execute an action is highly influenced by system overload or failures, making such empirical tuning barely reliable. We argue that by enriching

⁴<https://docs.openstack.org/watcher/latest/glossary.html#watcher-database-definition>

context representation with support for past and future planned actions and their expected effects over time, we can highly enhance reasoning processes and avoid empirical tuning.

The research question that motivates our work is thus: how to enable reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects?

Fined and rich context information directly influences the accuracy of the actions taken. Various techniques to represent context information have been proposed; among which we find the models@run.time [MBJ⁺09; BBF09]. The models@run.time paradigm inherits model-driven engineering concepts to extend the use of models not only at design time but also at runtime. This model-based representation has proven its ability to structure complex systems and synthesize its internal state as well as its surrounding environment.

Diagnosis support

Faced with growingly complex and large-scale software systems (e.g. smart grid systems), we can all agree that the presence of residual defects becomes unavoidable [BdMM⁺17; MPS15; HBB15]. Even with a meticulous verification or validation process, it is very likely to run into an unexpected behaviour that was not foreseen at design time. Alone, existing formal modelling and verification approaches may not be sufficient to anticipate these failures [TOH17]. As such, complementary techniques need to be proposed to locate the anomalous behaviour and its origin in order to handle it in a safe way.

As there might be many probable causes behind an abnormal behaviour, developers usually perform a set of diagnosis routines to narrow down the scope or origin of the failure. One way to do so is by investigating the satisfaction of its requirements and the decisions that led to this system state, as well as their timing [BWS⁺12]. In this perspective, developers may set up a set of systematic questions that would help them understand why and how the system is behaving in such a way. These questions may comprise:

- what goal(s) the system was trying to reach by executing a tactic a ?
- what were the circumstances used by a decision d and its expected impact on

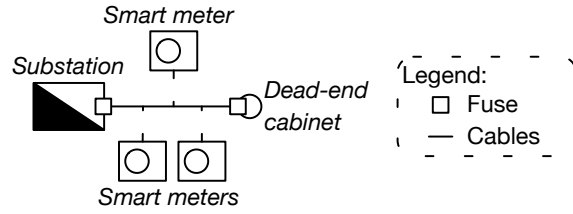


Figure 6.3: Simplified version of a smart grid

the context?

- what decision(s) influenced the system's context at a time t ?

Bencomo *et al.*, [BWS⁺12] argue that comprehensive explanation about the system behaviour contributes drastically to the quality of the diagnosis, and eases the task of troubleshooting the system behaviour. To enable this, we believe that adaptive software systems should be equipped with traceability management facilities to link the decisions made to their **(i) circumstances, that is to say, the history of the system states and the targeted requirements, and (ii) the performed actions with their impact(s) on the system.** In particular, an **adaptive system should keep a trace of the relevant historical events.** Additionally, it should be able to **trace the goals intended to be achieved by the system to the adaptations and the decisions that have been made, and vice versa.** Finally, in order to enable developers to interact with the system in a clear and understandable way, appropriate abstraction to **enable the navigation of the traces and their history should also be provided.** Unfortunately, suitable solutions to support these features are under-investigated.

Existing approaches [HHJ⁺13; HSJ⁺14; EvHW⁺11; MAR14; CGS⁺14; IW14] are accompanied by built-in monitoring rules and do not allow to interact with the underlying system in a simple way. Moreover, they do not keep track of historical changes as well as causal relationships linking requirements to their corresponding adaptations. Only flat execution logs are stored.

6.1.2 Use case scenario

`<sec:tkm:intro:uc>`

In order to provide a readable and understandable example of the formalism, we give a simplified version of the use case presented in Section ??.

Excerpt of a smart grid Figure 6.3 shows a simplified version of a smart grid with one substation, one cable, three smart meters and one dead-end cabinet. Both the substation and the cabinet have one fuse each. The meters regularly send consumption data at the same timestamp. For this example, we consider one requirement: minimizing the number of overloads. To achieve so, among the different actions, two actions are taken into account in this example: decreasing or increasing the amps limits of smart meters.

Adaptation scenario The system starts at t_0 with the actions, the requirements and all element of the context that remain fixed: the grid installation. Meters send their values at t_1 , t_2 and t_3 . Based on these data, the load on cables and substation is computed. On t_1 , an overload is detected on the cable, which breaks the requirement. At the same time point, the system decides to reduce the load of all smart meters. The impact of these actions will be measured at t_2 and t_3 , *i.e.*, the consumption will slowly reduce until the cable is no longer overloaded from t_3 .

Diagnosis scenario As all adaptive systems, smart grids are prone to failures [HFK⁺14a]. Using our approach, an engineer could diagnose the system, and determine the adaptation process responsible for this failure. For instance, considering some reports about regular power cuts during the last couple of days, in a particular area, a stakeholder may want to interrogate the system and determine what past decision(s) have led to this suboptimal state. More concretely, he will ask: did the system make any decisions that could have impacted the customer consumption? If so, what goal(s) the system was trying to reach and what were the values used at the time the decision(s) was(were) made?

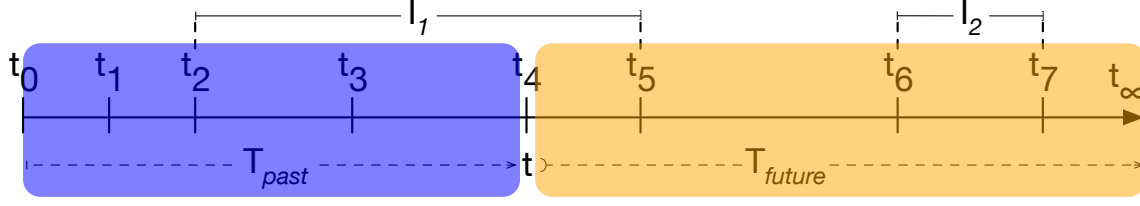


Figure 6.4: Time definition used for the knowledge formalism

6.2 Knowledge formalization

As discussed previously, we consider knowledge* to be the association of context* information, requirements*, and action* information, all in one global and unified model. While context* information captures the state of the system environment and its surroundings, the system requirements* define the constraints that the system should satisfy along the way. Actions*, on the other hand, are meant to reach the goals of the system.

In this section, we provide a formalization of the knowledge* used by adaptation processes based on a temporal graph. Indeed, due to the complexity and interconnectivity of system entities, graph data representation is an appropriate way to represent the knowledge*. Augmented with a temporal dimension, temporal graphs are then able to symbolize the evolution of system entities and states over time. We benefit from the well-defined graph manipulation operations, namely temporal graph pattern matching and temporal graph relations to represent the traceability links between the decisions* made and their circumstances*.

Before describing this formalism, we describe the semantics used for the temporal axis. Then, we exemplify the knowledge formalism using the Luxembourg smart grid use case, detailed in Section 6.1.2.

6.2.1 Formalization of the temporal axis

The formalism described below has been made with two goals in mind. First, the definition of the time space should allow the distinction between past and future. Doing this distinction enable the differentiation between measured data and predicted

(or planned data). Second, it should permit the definition of the life cycle of an element of the knowledge*, which can be seen as a succession of states with a validity period that should not overlap each other.

Time space T is considered as an ordered discrete set of time points non-uniformly distributed. As depicted in Figure 6.4, this set can be divided into 3 different subsets $T = T_{past} \cup \{t\} \cup T_{future}$, where:

- T_{past} is the subdomain $\{t_0; t_1; \dots; t_{current-1}\}$ representing graph data history starting from t_0 , the oldest point, until the current time, t , excluded.
- $\{t\}$ is a singleton representing the current time point
- T_{future} is subdomain $\{t_{current+1}; \dots; t_\infty\}$ representing future time points

The three domains depend completely on the current time $\{t\}$ as these subsets slide as time passes. At any point in time, these domains never overlap: $T_{past} \cap \{t\} = \emptyset$, $T_{future} \cap \{t\} = \emptyset$, and $T_{past} \cap T_{future} = \emptyset$. The definition of these three subsets reaches the first goal.

In addition, there is a right-opened time interval $I \in T \times T$ as $[t_s, t_e)$ where $t_e - t_s > 0$. In English words, it means that the interval should represent at least one time point and should follow the time order. For any $i \in I$, $start(i)$ denotes its lower bound and $end(i)$ its upper bound. As detailed in Section 6.2.2, these intervals are used to define the validity period for each node of the graph (our second goal).

Figure 6.4 displays an example of a time space $T_1 = \{t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5, t_6, t_7\}$. Here, the current time is $t = t_4$. According to the definition of the past subset (T_{past}) and the future one (T_{future}), there is: $T_{past1} = \{t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3\}$ and $T_{future1} = \{t_5, t_6, t_7\}$. Two intervals have been defined on T_1 , namely I_1 and I_2 . The first one starts at t_2 and ends at t_5 and the last one is defined from t_6 to t_7 . As shown with I_1 , an interval could be defined on different subsets, here it is on all of them (T_{past} , t , and T_{future}).

6.2.2 Formalism

Graph definition First, let K be an adaptive process over a system knowledge* represented by a graph such as $K = (N, E)$, comprising a set of nodes N and a set of edges E . Nodes represent any element of the knowledge (context, actions, etc.) and edges represent their relationships. Nodes have a set of attribute values:

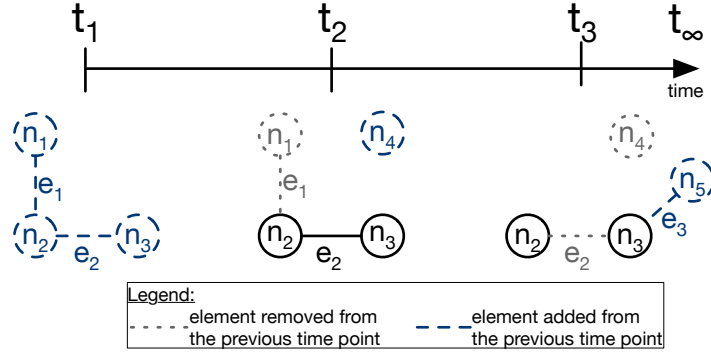


Figure 6.5: Evolution of a temporal graph over time

$\forall n \in N, n = (id, P)$, where P is the set of key-value attributes. An attribute value has a type (numerical, boolean, ...). Every relationship $e \in E$ can be considered as a couple of nodes with a label $(n_s, n_t, label) \in N \times N$, where n_s is the source node and n_t is the target node.

Adding the temporal dimension In order to augment the graph with a temporal dimension, the relation V^T is added. So now the knowledge K is defined as a temporal graph such as $K = (N, E, V^T)$.

A node is considered valid either until it is removed or until one of its attributes value changes. In the latter case, a new node with the updated value is created. Whilst, an edge is considered valid until either its source node and target node are valid, or until the edge itself is removed. Otherwise, nodes and edges are considered invalid. The temporal validity relation is defined as $V^T : N \cup E \rightarrow I$. It takes as a parameter a node or an edge ($k \in N \cup E$) and returns a time interval ($i \in I$, cf. Section ??) during which the graph element is valid.

Figure 6.5 shows an example of a temporal graph K_1 with five nodes (n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4 , and n_5) and three edges (e_1, e_2 , and e_3) over a lifecycle from t_1 to t_3 . In this way, K_1 equals $(\{n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4, n_5\}, \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}, V_1^T)$. Let's assume that the graph is created at t_1 . As n_1 is modified at t_2 , its validity period starts at t_1 and ends at t_2 : $V_1^T(n_1) = [t_1, t_2)$. n_2 and n_3 are not modified; their validity period thus starts at t_1 and ends at t_∞ : $V_1^T(n_2) = V_1^T(n_3) = [t_1, t_\infty)$. Regarding the edges, the first one, e_1 ,

is between n_1 and n_2 and the second one, e_2 from n_2 to n_3 . Both are created at t_1 . As n_1 is being modified at t_2 , its validity period goes from t_1 to t_2 : $V_1^T(e_1) = [t_1, t_2)$. e_2 is deleted at t_3 . Its validity period is thus equal to: $V_1^T(e_2) = [t_1, t_3)$.

Lifecycle of a knowledge element One node represents the state of exactly one knowledge element during a period named the validity period. The lifecycle of a knowledge element is thus modeled by a unique set of nodes. By definition, the validity periods of different nodes cannot overlap. A same time period cannot be represented by two different nodes, which could create inconsistency in the temporal graph.

To keep track of this knowledge element history, the Z^T relation is added to the graph formalism: $K = (N, E, V^T, Z^T)$. It serves to trace the updates of a given knowledge element at any point in time. This relation can also be seen as a temporal identity function which takes as parameters a given node $n \in N$ and a specific time point $t \in T$, and returns the corresponding node at that point. Formally, $Z^T : N \times T \rightarrow N$.

In order to consider this new relation in the example presented in Figure 6.5, the definition of K_1 is modified to $K_1 = (\{n_1, n_2, n_3, n_4, n_5\}, \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}, V_1^T, Z_1^T)$. In Figure 6.5, let's imagine that n_1 , n_4 , and n_5 represent the same knowledge element k_e . The lifecycle of k_e is thus:

- n_1 for period $[t_1, t_2)$,
- n_4 for period $[t_2, t_3)$,
- n_5 for period $[t_3, t_\infty)$.

Let t'_1 be a timepoint between t_1 and t_2 . When one wants to resolve the node representing the knowledge element at t'_1 , she or he gets n_1 node, no matter of the node input (n_1 , n_4 , or n_5): $Z_1^T(n_4, t_1) = n_1$. On the other hand, applying the same relation with another node (n_2 or n_3) returns another node. For example, if n_2 and n_3 do not belong to the same knowledge element, then it will return the node given as input, for example $Z_1^T(n_2, t_1) = n_2$.

Knowledge elements stored in nodes Nodes are used to store the different knowledge elements: context, requirements and actions. The set of nodes N is thus

split in three subsets: $N = C \cup R \cup A$ where C is the set of nodes which store context information, R a set of nodes for requirement information and A a set of nodes for action information.

Actions define processes that indirectly impact the context: they will change the behaviour of the system, which will be reflected in the context information. Requirements are also processes that are continuously run over the system in order to check the specifications. Here, the purpose of the A and R subset is not to store these processes but to list them. It can be thought as a catalogue of actions and requirements, with their history.

Using a high-level overview, these processes can be depicted as: taking the knowledge as input, perform tasks, and modify this knowledge as output. As detailed in the next two paragraphs, action executions and requirement analysis can be formalized by relations.

Temporal queries for requirements At the current state, the formalism of the knowledge K does not contain any information regarding the requirement analysis. To overcome this, system requirements analysis R_A are added such as $K = (N, E, V^T, Z^T, R_A)$. R_A is a set of couples composed of patterns $P_{[t_j, t_k]}(K)$ and requirements R over these patterns: $R_P = P \cup R$.

$P_{[t_j, t_k]}$ denotes a temporal graph pattern, where t_j and t_k are the lower and upper bound of the time interval respectively. $P_{[t_j, t_k]}$ is the result of a function which takes the knowledge and an interval as input: $P_{[t_j, t_k]} : K \times I$. The time interval can be either fixed (absolute), *i.e.*, both bounds are precisely defined, or sliding (relative), *i.e.*, the upper bound is computed from the lower bound. For example, $P_{[t_0, t_4]}$ is considered as fixed and $P_{[t_0, t_0+4]}$ is considered as relative. Each element of the pattern should be valid for at least one timepoint: $\forall p \in P_{[t_j, t_k]}, V^T(e) \cap [t_j, t_k] \neq \emptyset$. Patterns can be seen as temporal subgraphs of K , with a time limiting constraint coming in the form of a time interval.

Temporal relations for actions Like for R_A , the knowledge K needs to be augmented with action executions A_E : $K = (N, E, V^T, Z^T, R_A, A_E)$. Actions executions A_E can be regarded as a couple (A, A_F) , where A is the action that is executed and

A_F a set of relations or isomorphisms mapping a source temporal graph pattern $P_{[t_j, t_k]}$ to a target one $P_{[t_l, t_m]}$, $A_F : K \times I \rightarrow K \times I$.

The left-hand side of the A_F relation depicts the temporal graph elements over which an action is applied. Every relation may have a set of application conditions. They describe the circumstances under which an action should take place. These application conditions are either positive, should hold, or negative, should not hold. Application conditions come in the form of temporal graph invariants. The side effects of these actions are represented by the right-hand side.

Finally, we associate to A_E a temporal function E_{A_E} to determine the time interval at which an action has been executed. Formally, $E_{A_E} : A_E \rightarrow I$.

Temporal relations for decisions Finally, the knowledge formalism needs to include the last, but not the least, element: decisions made by the adaptation, $K = (N, E, V^T, Z^T, R_A, A_E, D)$ While the source of relations in D represents the state before the execution of an action, the target shows its impact on the context*. Its intent is **to trace back impacts of action executions to the decisions they originated from**.

A decision present in D is defined as a set of actions executed, *i.e.*, a subset of A_E , combined with a set of requirement analysis, *i.e.*, a subset of R_A . Formally, $D = \{ A_D \cup R_D \mid A_D \subseteq A_E, R_A \subseteq R_P \}$. We assume that each action should result from only one decision: $\forall a \in A, \forall d1, d2 \in D \mid a \in d1 \wedge a \in d2 \rightarrow d1 = d2$.

The temporal function E_{A_E} is extended to decisions in order to represent the execution time: $E_{A_E} : (A \cup D) \rightarrow I$. For decision, the lower bound of the interval corresponds to the lowest bound of the action execution intervals. Following the same principle, the upper bound of the interval corresponds to the uppermost bound of the action execution intervals. Formally, $\forall d \in D \rightarrow E_{A_E}(d) = [l, u)$, where $l = \min_{a \in A_d} \{E_{A_E}(a)[start]\}$ and $u = \max_{a \in A_d} \{E_{A_E}(a)[end]\}$.

Sum up Knowledge of an adaptive system can be formalism with a temporal graph such as $K = (N, E, V^T, Z^T, R_A, A_E, D)$, wherein:

- N is a set of nodes to represent the different information (context, actions and requirements)

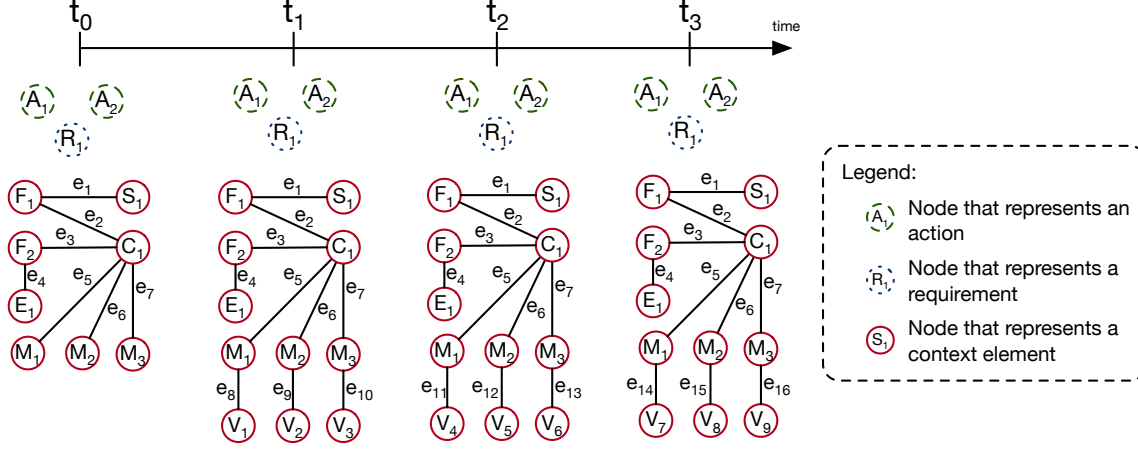


Figure 6.6: Application of the formalism with a temporal graph that represents the knowledge of the smart grid described in Section 6.1.2

m:application)

- E is a set of edges which connects the different nodes,
- V^T is a temporal relation which defines the temporal validity of each element,
- Z^T is a relation to track the history of each knowledge elements,
- R_A is a relation that defines the different requirements processes,
- A_E is a relation that defines the different action processes,
- D is a set of action executions, which result from the same decision, and requirement analysis.

Decisions D can allow adaptation processes to reason over ongoing and future executions of decisions. Moreover, it allows tracing the state of the knowledge before and after the decision has been or is executed, thanks to its A_D component. Plus, it represents which action has been used for this. Thanks to the R_A relation, one can access the requirements at the root of the decision and the state of the knowledge used by this requirement.

In the next section, we exemplify this formalism over our case study.

6.2.3 Application on the use case

In this section we apply the formalism described on the use case presented in Section 6.1.2.

Let K_{SG} be the temporal graph that represents the knowledge of this adaptive system: $K_{SG} = (N_{SG}, E_{SG}, V_{SG}^T, Z_{SG}^T, R_{P_{SG}}, A_{P_{SG}}, D_{SG})$. Figure 6.6 shows the nodes and edges of this knowledge.

Description of N_{SG} N_{SG} is divided into three subsets: C_{SG} , R_{SG} and A_{SG} . R_{SG} contains one node, R_1 in Figure 6.6, which represents the requirement of this example (minimizing the number of overloads): $R_{SG} = \{R_1\}$. Two nodes, A_1 and A_2 , belong to A_{SG} : $A_{SG} = \{A_1, A_2\}$. They represent the two actions of this example, respectively decreasing and increasing amps limits. Regarding the context C_{SG} , there are three nodes to represent the three smart meters (M_1 , M_2 , and M_3), one for the substation (S_1), two for the fuses (F_1 and F_2), one for the dead-end cabinet (E_1), one for the cable (C_1) and one node per consumption value received (V_i): $C_{SG} = \{M_1, M_2, M_3, S_1, F_1, F_2, E_1, C_1\} \cup \{V_i | i \in [1..9]\}$.

According to the scenario, except for nodes to store consumption values, the other nodes are created at t_0 and are never modified. Therefore, their validity period starts at t_0 and never ends: $\forall n \in A_{SG} \cup R_{SG} \cup \{M_1, M_2, M_3, S_1, F_1, F_2, E_1, C_1\}, V_{SG}^T(n) = [t_0, t_\infty)$. Considering the consumption values, all the nodes represent the history of the values for the three smart meters. In other words, there are three knowledge elements: the consumption measured for each meter. Let C_i notes the consumption measured by the smart meter M_i . As shown in Figure ??, there is:

- C_1 of M_1 is represented by $\{V_1, V_4, V_7\}$,
- C_2 of M_2 is represented by $\{V_2, V_5, V_8\}$,
- C_3 of M_3 is represented by $\{V_3, V_6, V_9\}$.

Taking C_2 as an example, V_2 is the initial consumption value, replaced by V_5 at t_2 , itself replaced by V_8 at t_3 . Applying the V_{SG}^T on these different values, results are thus:

- $V_{SG}^T(V_2) = [t_1, t_2)$,
- $V_{SG}^T(V_5) = [t_2, t_3)$,
- $V_{SG}^T(V_8) = [t_3, t_\infty)$.

These validity periods are shown in Figure 6.7a. As meters send the new consumption values at the same time, this example can also be applied to C_1 and C_3 .

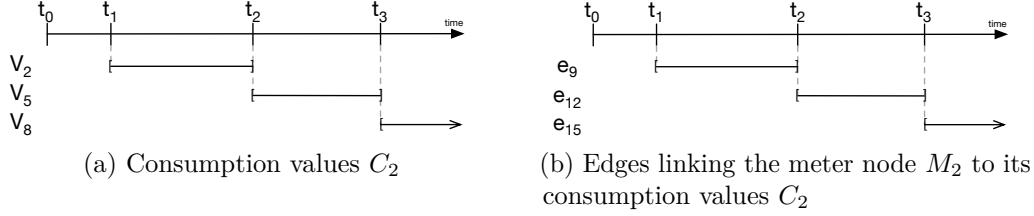


Figure 6.7: Validity periods of consumption values and their edges to the smart meter M_2

From these validity periods, the Z_{SG}^T can be used to navigate to the different values over time. Let's continue with the same example, C_2 . In order to get the evolution of the consumption value C_2 , given the initial one, one will use the Z_{SG}^T relation:

- $Z_{SG}^T(V_2, t_{s1}) = \emptyset$, where $t_0 \leq t_{s1} < t_1$
- $Z_{SG}^T(V_2, t_{s2}) = V_2$, where $t_1 \leq t_{s2} < t_2$
- $Z_{SG}^T(V_2, t_{s3}) = V_5$, where $t_2 \leq t_{s3} < t_\infty$.
- $Z_{SG}^T(V_2, t_{s4}) = V_8$, where $t_2 \leq t_{s4} < t_\infty$.

Description of E_{SG} In this example, edges are used to store the relationships between the different context elements. For example, the edge between the substation S_1 and the fuse F_1 allow representing the fact that the fuse is physically inside the substation. Another example, edges between the cable C_1 and the meters M_1 , M_2 and M_3 represent the fact that these meters are connected to the smart grid through this cable.

One may consider that relations (validity, Z^T , decisions, action executions and requirements analysis) will be stored as edges. But this decision is let to the implementation part of this formalism.

In our model, only consumption values (V_i nodes) are modified over time. Plus, since the scenario does not imply any edge modifications, only those between meters and values are modified. The edge set contains thus sixteen edges: $E_{SG} = \{e_i \mid i \in [1..16]\}$.

By definition, the unmodified edges have a validity period starting from t_0 and

never ends: $\forall i \in [1..7], V_{SG}^T(e_i) = [t_0, t_\infty)$. The history of the three knowledge elements that represent consumption values do not only impact the nodes which represent the values but also the edges between those nodes and the meters ones:

- C_1 impacts edges between M_1 and V_1 , V_4 , and V_7 , *i.e.*, $\{e_8, e_{11}, e_{14}\}$,
- C_2 impacts edges between M_2 and V_2 , V_5 , and V_8 , *i.e.*, $\{e_9, e_{12}, e_{15}\}$,
- C_3 impacts edges between M_3 and V_3 , V_6 , and V_9 , *i.e.*, $\{e_{10}, e_{13}, e_{16}\}$.

Continuing with C_2 as an example, the initial edge value is e_9 from t_1 , which is replaced by e_{12} from t_2 , itself replaced by e_{15} from t_2 . The validity relation, applied to these edges, thus returns:

- $V_{SG}^T(e_9) = [t_1, t_2) = V_{SG}^T(V_2)$,
- $V_{SG}^T(e_{12}) = [t_2, t_3) = V_{SG}^T(V_5)$,
- $V_{SG}^T(e_{15}) = [t_3, t_\infty) = V_{SG}^T(V_8)$,

These validity periods are depicted in Figure 6.7b. As they are driven by those of consumption values (V_2 , V_5 , and V_8), they are equal.

As for nodes, the Z_{SG}^T relation can navigate over time through these values. For example, to get the history of the edges between the consumption value C_2 and the meter represented by M_2 , one can apply the Z_{SG}^T relation as follows:

- $Z_{SG}^T(e_9, t_{s1}) = \emptyset$, where $t_0 \leq t_{s1} < t_1$
- $Z_{SG}^T(e_9, t_{s2}) = e_9$, where $t_1 \leq t_{s2} < t_2$,
- $Z_{SG}^T(e_9, t_{s3}) = e_{12}$, where $t_2 \leq t_{s3} < t_3$,
- $Z_{SG}^T(e_9, t_{s4}) = e_{15}$, where $t_3 \leq t_{s4} < t_\infty$.

Description of D_{SG} , $A_{E_{SG}}$, and $R_{A_{SG}}$ As described in the scenario (cf. Section 6.1.2), the requirement analysis detects that t_1 the requirement is broken. The adaptation process will thus apply the “decreasing amps limits” action on the three meters. Following Example 2 detailed in Section 6.1.1, we consider that the action will impact the consumption values on the next two measurements: t_2 and t_3 .

In the knowledge, we thus have one decision: $D_{SG} = D_1$. This decision has been taken after one requirement analysis, $R_{A_{SG1}}$, that detects no respect of the requirement R_1 . To determine if there is an overload, this analysis needs to know the topology and the consumption values. The pattern is thus defined by all nodes

related to the grid network and consumption values at t_1 : $P_{1[t_1, t_1+1]} = \{S_1, F_1, F_2, C_1, E_1, M_1, M_2, M_3, V_1, V_2, V_3\}$. So we have: $R_{A_{SG1}} = \{R_1, P_{1[t_1, t_1+1]}\}$.

The knowledge also includes the three action executions: A_{ESG1} , A_{ESG2} , and A_{ESG3} . These actions have been executed on, respectively, M_1 , M_2 , and M_3 . Following the definition, they all contain the action A_1 and similar relation which linked the circumstances to the impacts. The circumstances are the state of the knowledge at t_0 , which contain all information of the grid network and the consumption values. We denote them $P_{2[t_1, t_1+1]}$, $P_{3[t_1, t_1+1]}$, and $P_{4[t_1, t_1+1]}$, all equal $P_{1[t_1, t_1+1]}$. The impact contains all consumption values received at t_2 and t_3 . Each action impacts the consumption value of the meter that it modifies. For example, A_{ESG2} only impacts values of meter M_2 . For this action, the output pattern is thus : $P_{5[t_2, t_3]} = \{V_5, V_8\}$. In summary, A_{ESG1} , A_{ESG2} , and A_{ESG3} are defined as follows:

- for the action executed on M_1 : $A_{ESG1} = (A_1, A_{F1})$, with $A_{F1} : P_{2[t_1, t_1+1]} \rightarrow \{V_4, V_7\}$,
- for the action executed on M_2 : $A_{ESG2} = (A_1, A_{F2})$, with $A_{F2} : P_{3[t_1, t_1+1]} \rightarrow \{V_5, V_8\}$,
- for the action executed on M_3 : $A_{ESG3} = (A_1, A_{F3})$, with $A_{F3} : P_{4[t_1, t_1+1]} \rightarrow \{V_6, V_9\}$,

The decision described in the scenario is thus equal to: $D_1 = \{R_{A_{SG1}}, A_{ESG1}, A_{ESG2}, A_{ESG3}\}$. At t_2 , this decision will still be valid. The adaptation process can thus include it in the adaptation process to reason over the ongoing actions. If at t_3 the cable remains overloaded, then one may use this element to check if the system tried to fix it, how and based on which information.

6.3 modelling the knowledge

<sec:tkm:mm> In order to simplify the diagnosis of adaptive systems, this thesis proposes a novel metamodel* that combines, what we call, design elements and runtime elements. Design elements abstract the different elements involved in knowledge* information to assist the specification of the adaptation process. Runtime elements instead, represent the data collected by the adaptation process during its execution. In order to maintain the consistency between previous design elements and newly created

ones, instances of design elements (*e.g.*, actions) can be either added or removed. Modifying these elements would consist in removing existing elements and creating new ones. Combining design elements and runtime elements in the same model helps not only to acquire the evolution of system but also the evolution of its structure and specification (*e.g.* evolution of the requirements of the system). Design time elements are depicted in gray in the Figures 6.8– 6.11. Note that, this thesis does not address how runtime information is collected.

For the sake of modularity, the metamodel* has been split into four packages: Knowledge, Context, Requirement and Action. All the classes of these packages have a common parent class that adds the temporality dimension: *TimedElement* class. Before describing the Knowledge (core) package, we detail this element. Then, we introduce in more details the other three packages used by the Knowledge package: Context, Requirement, and Action. In below sections, we use "*Package::Class*" notation to refer to the provenance of a class. If the package is omitted, then the provenance package is this one described by the figure or text.

6.3.1 Parent element: *TimedElement* class

we assume that all the classes in the different packages extend a *TimedElement* class. This class contains three methods: *startTime*, *endTime*, and *modificationsTime*. The first two methods allow accessing the validity interval bounds defined by the previously discussed V^T relation. The last method resolves all the timestamps at which an element has been modified: its history. This method is the implementation of the relation Z^T described in our formalism (*cf.* Section 6.2.2).

6.3.2 Knowledge metamodel

(sec:tkm:mm:knoeldge)

In order to enable interactive diagnosis of adaptive systems, traceability links between the decisions made and their circumstances should be organized in a well-structured representation. In what follows, we introduce how the knowledge* metamodel* helps to describe decisions*, which are linked to their goals and their context (input and impact). Figure 6.8 depicts this metamodel*.

Knowledge package is composed of a *context**, a set of *requirements**, a set of

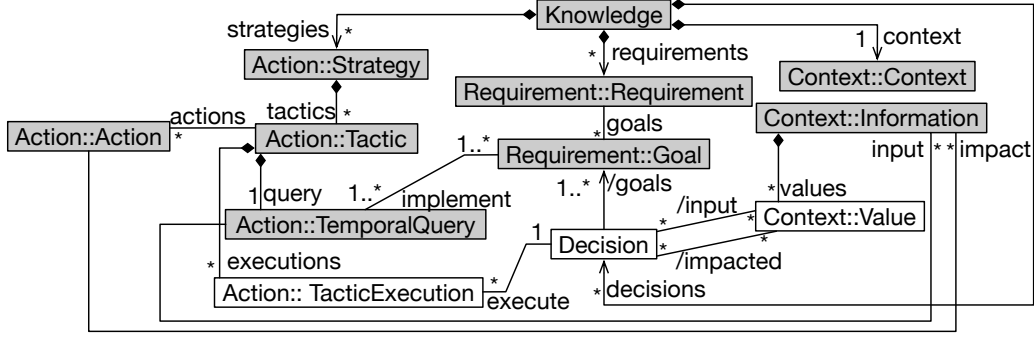


Figure 6.8: Excerpt of the knowledge metamodel

:knowledge-mm)

strategies, and a set of *decisions**. A decision* can be seen as the output of the Analyze and Plan steps in the MAPE-k* loop.

Decisions comprise target *goals* and trigger the execution of one *tactic* or more. A decision has an *input* context and an *impacted* context. The context impacted by a decision (*Decision.impact*) is a derived relationship computed by aggregating the impacts of all actions belonging to a decision (see Fig. 6.11). Likewise, the *input* relationship is derived and can be computed similarly. In the smart grid example, a decision can be formulated (in plain English) as follows: since the district D is almost overloaded (*input context*), we reduce the amps limit of greedy consumers using the “*reduce amps limit*” action in order to reduce the load on the cable of the district (*impact*) and satisfy the “*no overload*” policy (*requirement*).

As all the elements inherit from the *TimedElement*, we can capture the time at which a given decision and its subsequent actions were executed, and when their impact materialized, *i.e.*, measured. Thanks to this metamodel representation, a developer can apprehend the possible causes behind malicious behaviours by navigating from the context values to the decisions that have impacted its value (*Property.expected.impact*) and the goals it was trying to reach (*Decision.goals*). In Section 6.1.2, we present an example of interactive diagnosis queries applied to the smart grid use case.

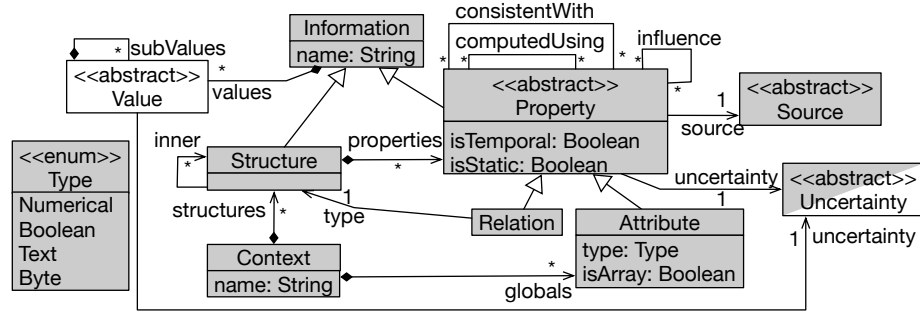


Figure 6.9: Excerpt of the context metamodel

{fig:context-model}

6.3.3 Context metamodel

Context models structure context information acquired at runtime. For example, in a smart-grid system, the context model would contain information about smart-grid users (address, names, etc.) resource consumption, etc.

An excerpt of the context model is depicted in Figure 6.9. we propose to represent the context as a set of structures (*Context.structures*) and global attributes (*Context.globals*). A structure can be viewed as a C-structure with a set of properties (*Property*): attributes (*Attribute*) or relationships (*Relation*). A structure may contain other nested structures (*Structure.inner*). Structures and properties have values. They correspond to the nodes described in the formalization section (*cf.* Section 6.2.2). The connection feature described in Section 2.1.3 is represented thanks to three recursive relationships on the Property class: *consistentWith*, *computedUsing* and *influence*. Additionally, each property has a source (*Source*) and an uncertainty (*Uncertainty*). It is up to the stakeholder to extend data with the appropriate source: measured, computed, provided by a user, or by another system (*e.g.*, weather information coming from a public API). Similarly, the uncertainty class can be extended to represent the different kinds of uncertainties. Finally, a property can be either historic or static.

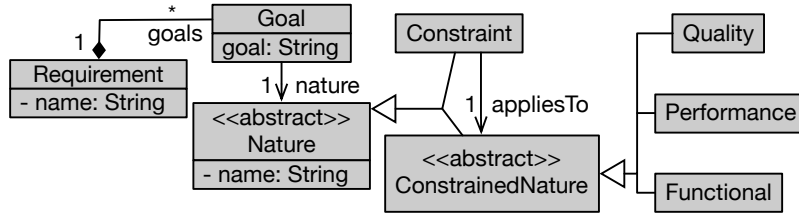


Figure 6.10: Requirement metamodel

6.3.4 Requirement metamodel

As different solutions to model system requirements exist (*e.g.*, KAOS [DvLF93], i* [Yu11] or Tropos [BPG⁺04]), in this metamodel, we abstract their shared concepts. The requirement model, depicted in Figure 6.10, represents the *requirement* as a set of *goals*. Each goal has a *nature* and a textual specification. The nature of the goals adheres to the four categories of requirements presented in Section 2.1.3. One may use one of the existing requirements modelling languages (*e.g.*, RELAX) to define the semantics of the requirements. Since the requirement model is composed solely of design elements, we may rely on static analysis techniques to infer the requirement model from existing specifications. The work of Egyed [Egy01] is one solution among others. This work is out of the scope of the thesis and envisaged for future work.

In the guidance example, the requirement model may contain a **balanced resource distribution** requirement. It can be split into different goals: (i) *minimizing overloads*, (ii) *minimizing production lack*, (iii) *minimizing production loss*.

6.3.5 Action metamodel

Similar to the requirements metamodel, the actions metamodel also abstracts main concepts shared among existing solutions to describe adaptation processes and how they are linked to the context. Figure 6.11 depicts an excerpt of the action metamodel. we define a strategy as a set of tactics (*Strategy*). A tactic contains a set of actions (*Action*). A tactic is executed under a precondition represented as a temporal query (*TemporalQuery*) and uses different data from the context as input. In future work, we will investigate the use of preconditions to schedule the executions

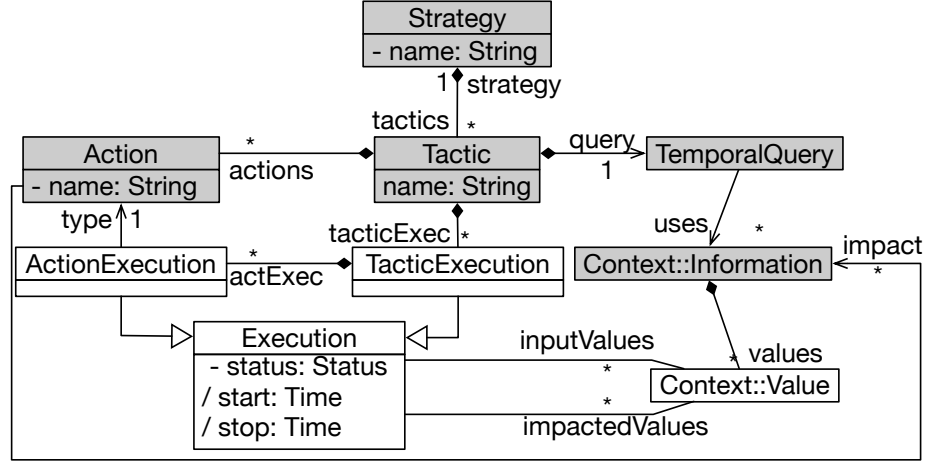


Figure 6.11: Excerpt of the action metamodel

(fig:action-mm)

order of the actions, similarly to existing formalisms such as Stitch [CG12]. The query can be as complex as needed and can navigate through the whole knowledge model. Actions have impacts on certain properties, represented by the *impacted* reference.

The different executions are represented thanks to the *Execution* class. Each execution has a status to track its progress and links to the impacted context values (*Execution.impactValues*). Similarly, input values are represented thanks to the *Execution.inputValues* relationship. An execution has *start* and *end* time. Not to confuse with the *startTime* and *endTime* of the validity relation V^T . Whilst the former corresponds to the time range in which a value is valid, the *start* and *stop* time in the class execution correspond to the time range in which an action or a tactic was being executed. The start and stop attributes correspond to the relation E_{AE} (see Section 6.2.2). These values can be derived based on the validity relation. They correspond to the time range in which the status of the execution is “*RUNNING*”. Formally, for every execution node e , $E_{AE}(e) = (V(e) \mid e.status = \text{“RUNNING”})$.

Similarly to requirement models, it is possible to automatically infer design elements of action models by statically analyzing actions specification. Since acquiring information about tactics and actions executions happens at runtime, one way to achieve this is by intercepting calls to actions executions and updating the appropriate action model elements accordingly. This is out of the scope of this thesis and planned

for future work.

6.4 Validation

km:validation> To validate and evaluate our approach, we implemented a prototype publicly available online⁵. This implementation leverages the GreyCat framework⁶, more precisely the modelling plugin, which allows designing a meta-model using a textual syntax. Based on this specification, GreyCat generates a Java and a JavaScript API to create and manipulate models that conform to the predefined metamodel. The GreyCat framework handles time as a built-in concept. Additionally, it has native support of a lazy loading mechanism and an advanced garbage collection. This is achieved by dynamically loading and unloading model elements from the main memory when necessary.

The validation of our approach has been driven by the two research questions formulated in the introduction section:

- How to diagnose the self-adaptation process?
- How to enable reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects?

To address the first one, we describe how one can use our approach to represent the knowledge of an adaptation process for a smart grid system. Then, we present a code to extract the circumstances and the goals of a decision. For the second one, we present a scenario where a developer can use our approach to reason over unfinished actions and their expected effects. The presented code shows how information can be extracted from our model to enable any reasoning algorithm. Finally, we present a performance evaluation to show the scalability of our approach.

6.4.1 Diagnostic: implementation of the use case

In what follows, we explain how a stakeholder, Morgan, can apply our approach to a smart grid system in order to, first, abstract adaptive system concepts, then, structure runtime data, and finally, query the model for diagnosis purpose. The corresponding object model is depicted in Figure 6.12. Due to space limitation, we only present an ex-

⁵<https://github.com/lmouline/LDAS>

⁶<https://github.com/datathings/greycat>

cerpt of the knowledge model. An elaborate version is accessible in the tool repository.

Abstracting the adaptive system At design time (t_d), either manually or using an automatic process, Morgan abstracts the different tactics and actions available in the adaptation process. Among the different tactics that Morgan would like to model is “*reduce amps limit*”. It is composed of three actions: sending a request to the smart meter (*askReduce*), checking if the new limit corresponds to the desired one (*checkNewLimit*), and notifying the user by e-mail (*notifyUser*). Morgan assumes that the *askReduce* action impacts consumption data (*csmpt*). This tactic is triggered upon a query (*tempQ*) that uses meter (*mt*), consumption (*csmpt*) and customer (*cust*) data. The query implements the “*no overload*” goal: the system shall never have a cable overload. Figure 6.12 depicts a flattened version of the temporal model representing these elements. The tag at upper-left corner of every object illustrates the creation timestamp. All the elements created at this stage are tagged with t_d .

Adding runtime information The adaptation process checks if the current system state fulfills the requirements by analyzing the context. To perform this, it executes the different temporal queries, including *tempQ*. For some reasons, the *tempQ* reveals that the current context does not respect the “*no overload*” goal. To adapt the smart grid system, the adaptation process decides to start the execution of the previously described tactic (*exec1*) at t_s . As a result, a decision element is added to the model along with a relationship to the unsatisfied goal. In addition, this decision entails the planning of a tactic execution, manifested in the creation of the element *exec1* and its subsequent actions (*notifyU*, *checkLmt*, and *askRed*). At t_s , all the actions execution have an IDLE status and an expected start time. All the elements created at this stage are tagged with the t_s timestamp in Figure 6.12.

At t_{s+1} , the planned tactic starts being executed by running the action *askReduce*. The status of this action turns from *IDLE* to *RUNNING*. Later, at t_{s+2} , the execution of *askReduce* finishes with a *SUCCEED* status and triggers the execution of the actions *notifyUser* and *checkNewLimit* in parallel. The status of *askReduce* changes to *SUCCEED* while the status of *notifyUser* and *checkNewLimit* turns to *RUNNING*. The first action successfully ends at t_{s+3} while the second ends at t_{s+4} . As all actions

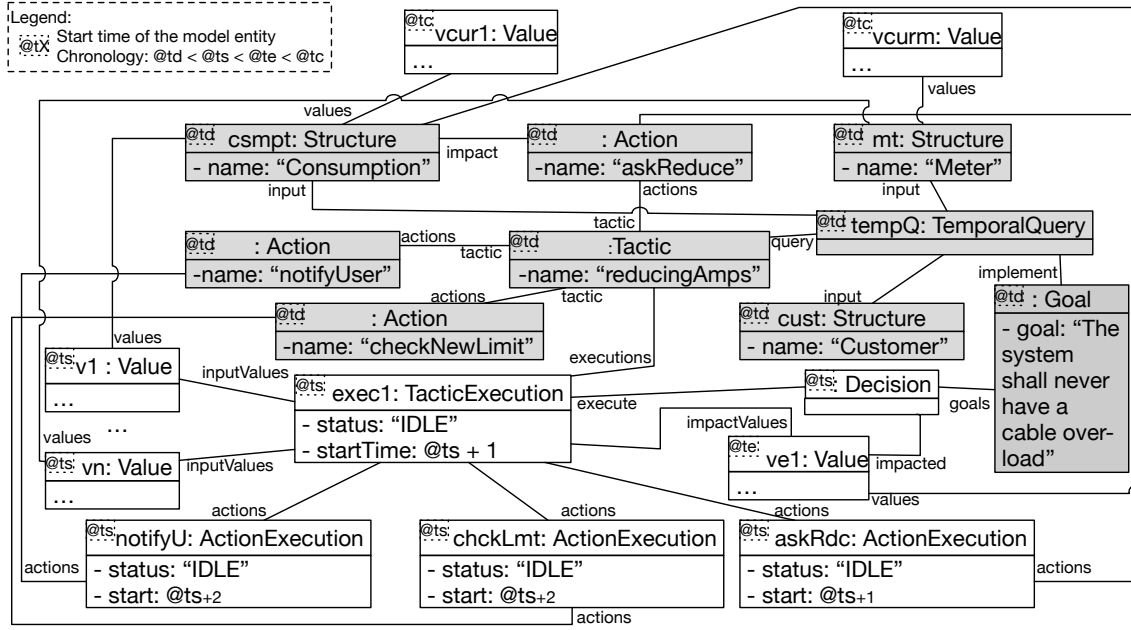


Figure 6.12: Excerpt of the knowledge object model related to our smart grid example

terminates with a *SUCCESS* status at t_{s+4} , accordingly, the final status of the tactic is set *SUCCESS* and the *stop* attribute value is set to t_e .

Interactive diagnosis query After receiving incident reports concerning regular power cuts, and based on the aforementioned knowledge model, Morgan would be able to query the system's states and investigate why such incidents have occurred. As described in Section 6.1.2, she/he will interactively diagnose the system by interrogating the context, the decisions made, and their circumstances.

The first function, depicted in Listing 6.1, allows to navigate from the currently measured values (*vcur1*) to the decision(s) made. The for-loop and the if-condition are responsible for resolving the measured data for the past two days. Past elements are accessed using the *resolve* function that implements the Z^T relation (cf. Section 6.2.2). After extracting the decisions leading to power cuts, Morgan carries on with the diagnosis by accessing the circumstances of this decision. The code to perform this task is depicted in Listing 6.1, the second function (*getCircumstances*). Note that the relationship *Decision.input* is the aggregation of *Decision.execute.inputValues*.

```

ode:actions-to-goals) // extracting the decisions
Decision [] impactedBy(Value v) {
    Decision [] respD
    for( Time t: v.modificationTimes() ):
        if (t >= v.startTime() - 2 day)
            Value resV = resolve(v,t)
            respD.addAll(from(resV).navigate(Value.impactd))
    return respD
}
// extracting the circumstances of the made decisions
Tuple<Value [], Goal[]> getCircumstance(Decision d) {
    Value [] resValues = from(d).navigate(Decision.input)
    Goal [] resGoals = from(d).navigate(Decision.goals)
    return Tuple<>(resValues, resGoals)
}

```

Listing 6.1: Get the goals used by the adaptation process from executed actions

6.4.2 Reasoning over unfinished actions and their expected effects

By associating the action model to the knowledge model, we aim at enhancing adaptation processes with new abilities to reason. In this section, we present an example of a reasoning algorithm which considers the impacts of running actions. This example is based on our use case (*cf.* Section ??).

Let's imagine that the adaptation process detects overloaded cables in the smart grid. To fix this situation, it takes several countermeasures, among which there are fuse state modifications. As detailed in Section 6.1.1, this action is considered as delayed action. Later, another incident is detected, for example, a substation is being overloaded. Before taking any actions, the adaptation process can, thanks to our solution, verify if the running actions will be sufficient to solve this new incident. If not, it can either take additional actions or replan the running one. The algorithm to reschedule current actions or to compute additional actions is out of the scope of this thesis. Here, we present the code to extract the required information from our model.

Checking if the running actions will be sufficient to solve all current issues can also be thought as: will the issue remain with the new context, *i.e.*, after each action have

been executed. In our case, it is like verifying if the second overload will still remain with the new topology, which is coming. The adaptation process, therefore, needs to extract the context in the future. To do so, the adaptation process should know the latest timepoint at which the impact will be measured. Listing 6.2 shows the code to get this timepoint. Running, idle and finished actions are accessed thanks to the first two nested loops with the if-condition. We consider that failed and canceled actions have no effects. As finished actions may still have effects, we also consider them. Then we navigate through all impacted values to get their start time, *i.e.*, the beginning of their validity period (V^T relation, *cf.* Section 6.2.2). Doing so, we are sure to get the latest timepoint at which an impact will be measurable.

latest-impact)

```
Time latestImpact(Knowledge k) {
    Time latestTime = CURRENT_TIME

    for(Decision d: from(k).navigate(decisions))
        for(TacticExecution te: from(d).navigate(execute))
            if(te.status == "RUNNING" || te.status == "IDLE" || te.status == "SUCCEED")
                for(Value v: from(te).navigate(impactedValues))
                    if(v.startTime() > latestTime)
                        latestTime = v.startTime()

    return latestTime
}
```

Listing 6.2: Get latest timepoint at which the impact will be measured

Using this timepoint, then the adaptation process can then compute how the grid should be after the actions have been executed. If the system has no prediction mechanism, then the adaptation process can verify how the power will be balanced over the new topology. Otherwise, it can use this prediction feature to compute the expected loads with the coming topology. Using this information, it can verify if all current incidents will be solved by the ongoing actions or not. If not, it may take additional actions or reschedule them.

Listing 6.3 depicts the code to extract all running actions. The nested loops allow accessing all executions made by decision. Then, we filter only those with the “RUNNING” status. The resulting collection should then be given to the scheduling algorithm, which will decide if rescheduling is possible and how.

km:valid:extract-act)

```
TacticExecution [] runningActions(Knowledge k) {  
    TacticExecution [] resA  
    for(Decision d: k.decisions) {  
        for(TacticExecution te: d.execute) {  
            if(te.status == Status.RUNNING) {  
                resA.add(te)  
            }  
        }  
    }  
    return resA  
}
```

Listing 6.3: Extract ongoing actions and their effects

Using our model, developers have two solutions to model a rescheduling operation. Either they modify the actions, which may delete the history of the previous decision, or they mark all running and idle actions as “CANCELED” and create a new decision, with new actions, which update the circumstances and re-use the same requirements.

6.4.3 Performance evaluation

GreyCat stores temporal graph elements in several key/value maps. Thus, the complexity of accessing a graph element is linear and depends on the size of the graph. Note that in our experimentation we evaluate only the execution performance of diagnosis algorithms. For more information on I/O performance in GreyCat, please refer to the original work by Hartmann *et al.*, [HFJ⁺17; Har16].

<code:traversal-used)

```
MATCH (input)-[*4]->(output)  
WHERE input.id IN [randomly generated set]  
RETURN output  
LIMIT 0
```

Listing 6.4: Traversal used during the experimentations

We consider a diagnosis algorithm to be a graph navigation from a set of nodes (input) to another set of nodes (output). Unlike typical graph algorithms, diagnosis algorithms are simple graph traversals and do not involve complex computations at the node level. Hence, we believe that three parameters can impact their performance (memory and/or CPU): the global size of the graph, the size of the input, and the

number of traversed elements. In our evaluation, we altered these parameters and report on the behaviour of the main memory and the execution time. The code of our evaluation is publicly available online⁷. All experiments reporting on memory consumption were executed 20 times after one warm-up round. Whilst, execution time experiments were run 100 times after 20 warm-up rounds. The presented results correspond to the mean of all the iterations. We randomly generate graph with sizes (N) ranging from 1 000 to 2 000 000. At every execution iteration, we follow these steps: (1) in a graph with size N , we randomly select a set of I input nodes, (2) then traverse M nodes in the graph, (3) and we collect the first O nodes that are at four hops from the input element. Listing 6.4 describes the behaviour of the traversal using Cypher, a well-known graph traversal language.

We executed our experimentation on a MacBook Pro with an Intel Core i7 processor (2.6 GHz, 4 cores, 16GB main memory (RAM), macOS High Sierra version 10.13.2). We used the Oracle JDK version 1.8.0_65.

How performance is influenced by the graph size N ? This experimentation aims at showing the impact of the graph size (N) on memory and execution time while performing common diagnosis routines. We fix the size of I to 10. To assure that the behaviour of our traversals is the same, we use a seed value to select the starting input elements. We stop the algorithm when we reach 10 elements. Results are depicted in Figure 6.13.

As we can notice, the graph size does not have a significant impact on the execution time of diagnosis algorithms. For graphs with up to 2,000,000 elements, execution time remains between 2 ms and four 4 ms. We can also notice that the memory consumption insignificantly increases. Thanks to the implementation of a lazy loading and a garbage collection strategy by GreyCat, the graph size does not influence memory or execution time performance. The increase in memory consumption can be due to the internal indexes or stores that grow with the graph size.

How performance is influenced by the input size (I)? The second experiment aims to show the impact of the input size (I) on the execution of diagnosis algorithms.

⁷<https://bitbucket.org/ludovicpapers/icac18-eval>



(a) Execution time evolution



(b) Memory evolution

`<fig:exp1>` Figure 6.13: Experimentation results when the knowledge based size increases

We fix the size of N to 500 000 and we variate I from 1 000 nodes to 100 000, *i.e.*, from 0.2% to 20% of the graph size. The results are depicted in Figure 6.14 (straight lines).

Unlike to the previous experiment, we notice that the input size (I) impacts the performance, both in terms of memory consumption and execution time. This is because our framework keeps in memory all the traversed elements, namely the input elements. The increase in memory consumption follows a linear trend with regards to N . As it can be noticed, it reaches 2GB for $I=100\,000$. The execution time also shows a similar curve, while the query response time takes around 60ms to run for $I=1\,000$, it takes a bit more than 4 seconds to finish for $I=100\,000$. Nonetheless, these results remain very acceptable for diagnosis purposes.

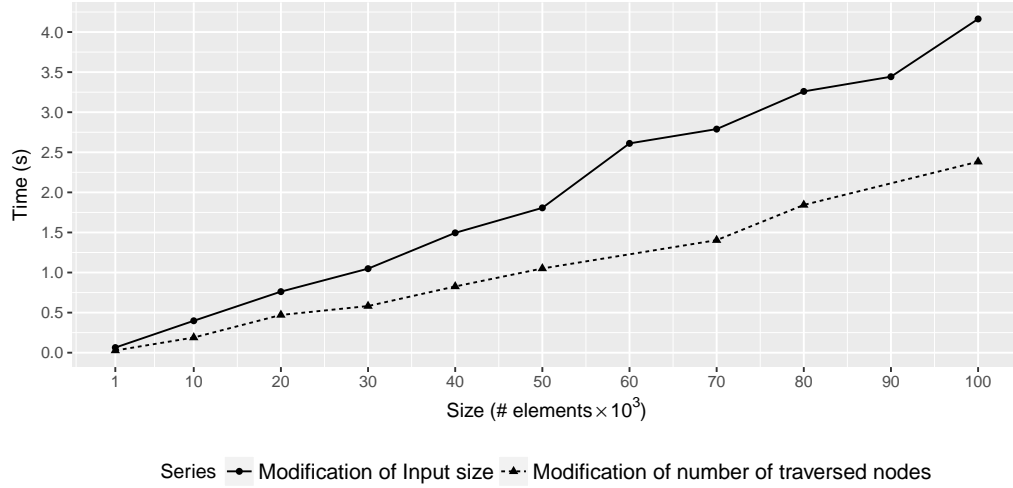
How performance is influenced by the number of traversed elements (M)?

For the last experiment, we aim to highlight the impact of the number of traversed elements (M). For this, we fix I and O to 1, and randomly generate a graph with sizes ranging from 1 000 to 100 000. Our algorithm navigates the whole model ($M=N$). We depict the results in Figure 6.14 (dashed curve). As we can notice, the memory consumption increases in a quasi-linear way. The memory footprint to traverse $M = 100\,000$ elements is around 0.9GB. The progress of the execution time curve behaves similarly, in a quasi-linear way. Finally, the execution time of a full traversal over the biggest graph takes less than 2.5 seconds.

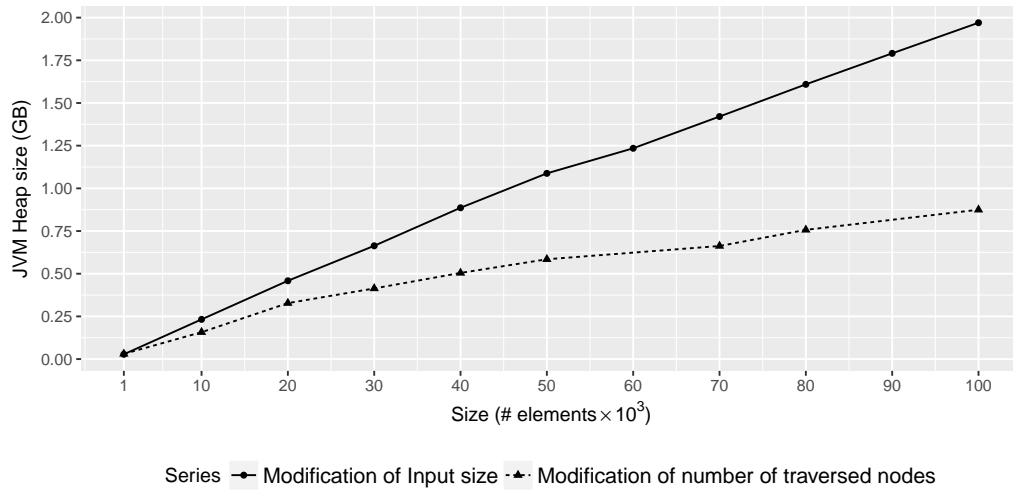
6.4.4 Discussion

By linking context, actions, and requirements using decisions, data extraction for explanation or fault localization can be achieved by performing common temporal graph traversal operations. In the detailed example, we show how a stakeholder could use our approach to define the different elements required by such systems, to structure runtime data, finally, to diagnose the behaviour of adaptation processes.

Our implementation allows to dynamically load and release nodes during the execution of a graph traversal. Using this feature, only the needed elements are kept in the main memory. Hence, we can perform interactive diagnosis routines on large graphs with an acceptable memory footprint. However, the performance of



(a) Evolution of the execution time



(b) Evolution of the memory consumption

Figure 6.14: Results of experiments when the number of traversed or input elements increases

(fig:exp-res)

our solution, in terms of memory and execution time, is restricted by the number of traversed elements and the number of input elements. Indeed, as shown in our experimentation, both the execution time and the memory consumption grow linearly.

In the Luxembourg smart grid, a district contains approximatively 3 data concentrators and 227 meters⁸. Counting the global datacenter, the network is thus composed of 231 elements. Each meter sends the consumption value every 15 min, being 908 every hours. Plus, there is from 0 to 273 topology modifications in the network. In total, the system generates from 908 to 1,181 new values every hour. If we consider that we have one model element per smart grid entity and one model element per new value, 100,000 model elements correspond thus from $((100,000 - 231) * 1H) / 1,181 = 84,5H$ ($\sim 3,5$ days) to $((100,000 - 231) * 1H) / 908 = 109,9H$ ($\sim 4,6$ days) of data. In other word, our approach can efficiently interrogate up to ~ 5 days history data in 2.4s of one district.

6.5 Conclusion

km:conclusion> Adaptive systems are prone to faults given their evolving complexity. To enable interactive diagnosis over these systems, we proposed a temporal data model to abstract and store knowledge elements. We also provided a high-level API to specify and perform diagnosis algorithms. Thanks to this structure, a stakeholder can abstract and store decisions made by the adaptation process and link them to their circumstances –targeted requirements and used context– as well as their impacts. In our evaluation, we showed that our solution can efficiently handle up to 100 000 elements, in a single machine. This size is comparable to 5 days history of one district in the Luxembourg smart grid.

Throughout this work, we assumed that designers are able to link actions with their expected impacts at design time. However, this is not always true. Some impacts cannot be known in advance. In this perspective, in addition to the future plans already mentioned throughout the chapter, we will investigate techniques to

⁸Previously, our studies uses the data described in [HFK⁺14b], which corresponded to the all Luxembourg at this date. Since 2014, the smart grid has been more and more deployed. Numbers present in this paper now correspond more to one district.

identify unknown impacts on the context model, for instance, by studying the use of machine learning techniques. In order to improve the accuracy and correctness of diagnosis routines, another aspect to be considered for future work is handling uncertainty in self-adaptive systems. Understanding the effect of uncertainty on the development of self-adaptive systems and their diagnosis is still an open question. We plan to explore this research direction by answering the following questions: How to represent and express uncertainty in self-adaptive systems at design time? How to efficiently interrogate data with uncertainty in self-adaptive systems, for instance, for troubleshooting purpose?

Conclusion

t:conclusion)?

This chapter concludes the thesis and presents some perspectives.

List of publications and tools

Papers included in the dissertation

- 2017
 - Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, Ludovic Mouline, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, Olivier Barais, and Yves Le Traon. Raising time awareness in model-driven engineering: vision paper. In *20th ACM/IEEE International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, MODELS 2017, Austin, TX, USA, September 17-22, 2017*, pages 181–188. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/MODELS.2017.11. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MODELS.2017.11>
- 2018
 - Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, and Olivier Barais. A temporal model for interactive diagnosis of adaptive systems. In *2018 IEEE International Conference on Autonomic Computing, ICAC 2018, Trento, Italy, September 3-7, 2018*, pages 175–180. IEEE Computer Society, 2018. DOI: 10.1109/ICAC.2018.00029. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICAC.2018.00029>
 - Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, Brice Morin, and Olivier Barais. Enabling temporal-aware contexts for adaptative distributed systems. In Hisham M. Haddad, Roger L. Wainwright, and Richard Chbeir, editors, *Proceedings of the 33rd Annual ACM Symposium on Applied Computing, SAC 2018, Pau, France, April 09-13, 2018*, pages 1433–1440. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3167132.3167286. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3167132.3167286>

- in the process of submission
 - Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, Johann Bourcier, Olivier Barais, and Maxime Cordy. Ain'tea: managing data uncertainty at the language level. *Forthcoming*, forthcoming

Papers not included in the dissertation

- 2017
 - Ludovic Mouline, Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Yves Le Traon, Johann Bourcier, and Olivier Barais. Weaving rules into models@run.time for embedded smart systems. In Jennifer B. Sartor, Theo D'Hondt, and Wolfgang De Meuter, editors, *Companion to the first International Conference on the Art, Science and Engineering of Programming, Programming 2017, Brussels, Belgium, April 3-6, 2017*, 17:1–17:6. ACM, 2017. DOI: 10.1145/3079368.3079394. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3079368.3079394>
- 2018
 - Alejandro Sánchez Guinea, Andrey Boytsov, Ludovic Mouline, and Yves Le Traon. Continuous identification in smart environments using wrist-worn inertial sensors. In Henning Schulzrinne and Pan Li, editors, *Proceedings of the 15th EAI International Conference on Mobile and Ubiquitous Systems: Computing, Networking and Services, MobiQuitous 2018, 5-7 November 2018, New York City, NY, USA*, pages 87–96. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3286978.3287001. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3286978.3287001>

Tools included in the dissertation

- Ain'tea: a language which integrated data uncertainty as a first-class citizen
 - <https://github.com/lmouline/aintea>
- LDAS: a meta-model of knowledge for adaptive systems
 - <https://github.com/lmouline/LDAS>

Abbreviations

API Application Programming Interface. 11, 28

CPS Cyber-Physical System. 2, 61

CPU Central Processing Unit. 4

CSV Comma-separated values. 39

DOM Document Object Model. 29

DSL Domain-Specific Language. 29, *Glossary: DSL*

DSML Domain Specific Modelling Language. 24, 25, 29

E-MOF Essential MOF (EMOF). 27

EMF Eclipse Modelling Framework. 27

FSM Final State Machine. 41, 42

GCM GreyCat Modelling Environment. 28

GPL General Purpose Language. 29

GPS Global Positioning System. 4

GUM Guide to the expression of Uncertainty in Measurement (GUM). 61

ICT Information and communication technology. 2

IoT Internet of Things. 27

KMF Kevoree Modelling Framework. 27

MAPE-k Monitor, Analyse, Plan, and Execute over knowledge. 16, 19, 22, 52, 53, 93, *Glossary: MAPE-k*

MDE Model-Driven Engineering. 2, 3, 7, 9, 12, 13, 18, 22–27, 29, 39, 48, 51, 56

MOF Meta Object Facility. 25, 27

ACL Object Constraint Language. 25, 26

OMG Object Management Group. 25

SLE Software Language Engineering. 13, 28, 30, *Glossary*: SLE

UML Unified Modelling Language. 23, 25, 61

XMI XML Metadata Interchange. 25

Glossary

adaptive system In this document, we modified the definition of self-adaptive systems provided by Cheng *et al.*, in [CdLG⁺09]. Adaptive systems are able to have their behaviour* adjusted in response to the perception of the environment* and the system themselves. If a system perform this adjustment on itself, the literature refers to it as self-adaptive system. 3–5, 7, 11–17, 22, 28, 36–38, 40, 48, 50, 52, 56

action In this document, we use the definition provided by IEEE Standards [III17]: “Process that, given the context* and requirements* as input, adjusts the system behaviour*”. 36, 37, 43, 45–53, 81

behaviour We refer to system behaviour*. 2, 3, 11, 36, 38–40, 43, 44, 48, 52–54, 56

circumstance State of the knowledge* when a decision* has been taken. 43, 45, 46, 48, 49, 81

context In this document, we use the definition provided by Anind K. Dey [Dey01]: “Context is any information that can be used to characterise the situation of an entity. An entity is a person, place, or object that is considered relevant to the interaction between a user and [the system], including the user and [the system] themselves”. 81, 86, 92

data uncertainty . 9, 38, 52, 56–58, 61, 62, 65

TBD

decision A set of actions* taken after comparing the state of the knowledge* with the requirement*. 81, 92, 93

DSL In this document, we use the definition provided by Deursen *et al.*, [vDKV00]: “is a programming language or executable specification language that offers, through

appropriate notations and abstractions, expressive power focused on, and usually restricted to, a particular problem domain.”. 29, *Abbreviation:* DSL

environment See system environment*. 2, 3, 14–16, 18, 22, 36, 54, 56

knowledge The knowledge of an adaptive system gathers information about the context*, actions* and requirements*. 3, 11, 81, 82, 91, 92

long-term action An action* that is not immediate, or that takes time to be executed, or that has long-term effects.. 4, 9, 10, 19, 36, 37, 39, 40, 43, 48, 50, 52, 53

MAPE-k A theoretical model of the adaptation process proposed by Kephart and Chess [KC03]. It divides the process in four stages: monitoring, analysing, planning and executing. These four stages share a knowledge*. 16, *Abbreviation:* MAPE-k

metamodel In this document, we use the definition provided by Douglas C. Schmidt [Sch06]: “[Metamodels] define the relationships among concepts in a domain and precisely specify the key semantics and constraints associated with these domain concepts”. 22, 25, 26, 28–30, 91, 92

model In this document, we use the definition provided by Brambilla *et al.*, [BCW17]: “[A model is] a simplified or partial representation of reality, defined in order to accomplish a task or to reach an agreement on a topic.” The model should conform to a metamodel*: each element of the model instantiates one from the metamodel* and satisfies all semantics rules [BJT05]. 3, 18, 22–27, 30

models@run.time In this document, we use the definition provided by Blair *et al.*, [BBF09]: “A model@run.time is a causally connected self-representation of the associated system that emphasises the structure, behaviour, or goals of the system from a problem space perspective”. 3, 14, 16–18, 22, 26–28, 36, 39, 41, 46, 48

requirement In this document, we use the definition provided by IEEE Standards [III17]: “(1) Statement that translates or expresses a need and its associated constraints and conditions, (2) Condition or capability that must be met or possessed by a system [...] to satisfy an agreement, standard, specification, or other formally imposed documents”. 81, 92

self-adaptive system See adaptive system*. 2, 3, 14, 50

self-healing Refers to the capacity of detecting, diagnosing, and repairing any error in the system. See self-healing system*. 2

self-healing system In this document, we use the definition provided by Kephart and Chess [KC03]: “[A self-healing] system automatically detects, diagnoses, and repairs localised software and hardware problems.”. 2

SLE In this document, we use the definition provided by Anneke Kleppe [Kle08]: “the application of systematic, disciplined, and measurable approaches to the development, use, deployment, and maintenance of software languages”. 13, 28, *Abbreviation*: SLE

smart grid In this document, we use the definition provided by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)* [oSN]: “a modernized grid that enables bidirectional flows of energy and uses two-way communication and control capabilities that will lead to an array of new functionalities and applications.”. 2, 5, 11, 12

software language In this document, we use the definition provided by Anneke Kleppe [Kle08]: “any language that is created to describe and create software systems”. 29

structure See system structure*. 2, 36

Bibliography

- [AdLM⁺09] Jesper Andersson, Rogério de Lemos, Sam Malek, and Danny Weyns. Reflecting on self-adaptive software systems. In *2009 ICSE Workshop on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2009, Vancouver, BC, Canada, May 18-19, 2009*, pages 38–47. IEEE Computer Society, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2009.5069072. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2009.5069072> (cited on page 14).
- [AFR⁺10] Darko Anicic, Paul Fodor, Sebastian Rudolph, Roland Stühmer, Nenad Stojanovic, and Rudi Studer. A rule-based language for complex event processing and reasoning. In Pascal Hitzler and Thomas Lukasiewicz, editors, *Web Reasoning and Rule Systems - Fourth International Conference, RR 2010, Bressanone/Brixen, Italy, September 22-24, 2010. Proceedings*, volume 6333 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 42–57. Springer, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-15918-3_5. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-15918-3_5 (cited on pages 46, 49).
- [AGR11] Paolo Arcaini, Angelo Gargantini, and Elvinia Riccobene. Coma: conformance monitoring of java programs by abstract state machines. In Sarfraz Khurshid and Koushik Sen, editors, *Runtime Verification - Second International Conference, RV 2011, San Francisco, CA, USA, September 27-30, 2011, Revised Selected Papers*, volume 7186 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 223–238. Springer, 2011. DOI:

- 10.1007/978-3-642-29860-8_17. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-29860-8_17 (cited on pages 39, 41).
- [AK03] Colin Atkinson and Thomas Kühne. Model-driven development: a metamodeling foundation. *IEEE Software*, 20(5):36–41, 2003. DOI: 10.1109/MS.2003.1231149. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MS.2003.1231149> (cited on page 22).
- [ARS15] Paolo Arcaini, Elvinia Riccobene, and Patrizia Scandurra. Modeling and analyzing MAPE-K feedback loops for self-adaptation. In Paola Inverardi and Bradley R. Schmerl, editors, *10th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2015, Florence, Italy, May 18-19, 2015*, pages 13–23. IEEE Computer Society, 2015. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2015.10. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2015.10> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 49).
- [AY09] Charu C. Aggarwal and Philip S. Yu. A survey of uncertain data algorithms and applications. *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 21(5):609–623, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/TKDE.2008.190. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/TKDE.2008.190> (cited on page 3).
- [BAV⁺12] Sooraj Bhat, Ashish Agarwal, Richard W. Vuduc, and Alexander G. Gray. A type theory for probability density functions. In John Field and Michael Hicks, editors, *Proceedings of the 39th ACM SIGPLAN-SIGACT Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages, POPL 2012, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, January 22-28, 2012*, pages 545–556. ACM, 2012. DOI: 10.1145/2103656.2103721. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2103656.2103721> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [BBF09] Gordon S. Blair, Nelly Bencomo, and Robert B. France. Models@run.time. *IEEE Computer*, 42(10):22–27, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2009.326. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2009.326> (cited on pages 2, 16, 17, 37, 41, 45, 49, 72, vi).

- [BBG⁺13] Nelly Bencomo, Amel Bennaceur, Paul Grace, Gordon S. Blair, and Valérie Issarny. The role of models@run.time in supporting on-the-fly interoperability. *Computing*, 95(3):167–190, 2013. DOI: 10.1007/s00607-012-0224-x. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00607-012-0224-x> (cited on pages 39, 41).
- [BBH⁺10] Claudio Bettini, Oliver Brdiczka, Karen Henriksen, Jadwiga Indulska, Daniela Nicklas, Anand Ranganathan, and Daniele Riboni. A survey of context modelling and reasoning techniques. *Pervasive and Mobile Computing*, 6(2):161–180, 2010. DOI: 10.1016/j.pmcj.2009.06.002. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pmcj.2009.06.002> (cited on pages 19, 20).
- [BBM⁺18] Loli Burgueño, Manuel F. Bertoa, Nathalie Moreno, and Antonio Vallecillo. Expressing confidence in models and in model transformation elements. In Andrzej Wasowski, Richard F. Paige, and Øystein Haugen, editors, *Proceedings of the 21th ACM/IEEE International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, MODELS 2018, Copenhagen, Denmark, October 14-19, 2018*, pages 57–66. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3239372.3239394. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3239372.3239394> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 56, 57).
- [BCC⁺15] Erwan Bousse, Jonathan Corley, Benoît Combemale, Jeffrey G. Gray, and Benoit Baudry. Supporting efficient and advanced omniscient debugging for xdsmls. In Richard F. Paige, Davide Di Ruscio, and Markus Völter, editors, *Proceedings of the 2015 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Software Language Engineering, SLE 2015, Pittsburgh, PA, USA, October 25-27, 2015*, pages 137–148. ACM, 2015. URL: <https://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2814262> (cited on page 9).
- [BCG⁺12] Roberto Bruni, Andrea Corradini, Fabio Gadducci, Alberto Lluch-Lafuente, and Andrea Vandin. Modelling and analyzing adaptive self-assembly strategies with maude. In Francisco Durán, editor, *Rewriting*

- Logic and Its Applications - 9th International Workshop, WRLA 2012, Held as a Satellite Event of ETAPS, Tallinn, Estonia, March 24-25, 2012, Revised Selected Papers*, volume 7571 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 118–138. Springer, 2012. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-34005-5_7. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-34005-5_7 (cited on pages 41, 45).
- [BCW17] Marco Brambilla, Jordi Cabot, and Manuel Wimmer. *Model-Driven Software Engineering in Practice, Second Edition*. Synthesis Lectures on Software Engineering. Morgan & Claypool Publishers, 2017. DOI: 10.2200/S00751ED2V01Y201701SWE004. URL: <https://doi.org/10.2200/S00751ED2V01Y201701SWE004> (cited on pages 2, 22, vi).
- [BDI⁺17] Michaël Baudin, Anne Dutfoy, Bertrand Iooss, and Anne-Laure Popelin. Openturns: an industrial software for uncertainty quantification in simulation. *Handbook of uncertainty quantification*:2001–2038, 2017. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-12385-1_64. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-12385-1_64 (cited on pages 7, 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [BdMM⁺17] Davi Monteiro Barbosa, Rômulo Gadelha de Moura Lima, Paulo Henrique Mendes Maia, and Evilásio Costa Junior. Lotus@runtime: a tool for runtime monitoring and verification of self-adaptive systems. In *12th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS@ICSE 2017, Buenos Aires, Argentina, May 22-23, 2017*, pages 24–30. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2017.18. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2017.18> (cited on pages 10, 39, 41, 42, 45, 49, 72).
- [BGG⁺13] Johannes Borgström, Andrew D. Gordon, Michael Greenberg, James Margetson, and Jurgen Van Gael. Measure transformer semantics for bayesian machine learning. *Logical Methods in Computer Science*, 9(3),

2013. DOI: 10.2168/LMCS-9(3:11)2013. URL: [https://doi.org/10.2168/LMCS-9\(3:11\)2013](https://doi.org/10.2168/LMCS-9(3:11)2013) (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [BGP92] Daniel Barbará, Hector Garcia-Molina, and Daryl Porter. The management of probabilistic data. *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 4(5):487–502, 1992. DOI: 10.1109/69.166990. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/69.166990> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56).
- [BGS⁺14] Amine Benelallam, Abel Gómez, Gerson Sunyé, Massimo Tisi, and David Launay. Neo4emf, a scalable persistence layer for EMF models. In Jordi Cabot and Julia Rubin, editors, *Modelling Foundations and Applications - 10th European Conference, ECMFA 2014, Held as Part of STAF 2014, York, UK, July 21-25, 2014. Proceedings*, volume 8569 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 230–241. Springer, 2014. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-09195-2_15. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-09195-2_15 (cited on page 23).
- [BHH05] George E. P. Box, J. Stuart Hunter, and William G. Hunter. *Statistics for Experiments: Design, Innovation, and Discovery, 2nd Edition*. Wiley-Interscience, 2005. ISBN: 978-0-471-71813-0 (cited on page 31).
- [BHL⁺01] Tim Berners-Lee, James Hendler, Ora Lassila, et al. The semantic web. *Scientific american*, 284(5):28–37, 2001. DOI: 10.1038/scientificamerican0501-34. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1038/scientificamerican0501-34> (cited on page 22).
- [BHM⁺17] Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, Ludovic Mouline, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, Olivier Barais, and Yves Le Traon. Raising time awareness in model-driven engineering: vision paper. In *20th ACM/IEEE International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, MODELS 2017, Austin, TX, USA, September 17-22, 2017*, pages 181–188. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/MODELS.2017.11. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MODELS.2017.11> (cited on pages 7, i).

- [BJT05] Jean Bézivin, Frédéric Jouault, and David Touzet. Principles, standards and tools for model engineering. In *10th International Conference on Engineering of Complex Computer Systems (ICECCS 2005), 16-20 June 2005, Shanghai, China*, pages 28–29. IEEE Computer Society, 2005. DOI: 10.1109/ICECCS.2005.68. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICECCS.2005.68> (cited on pages 24, vi).
- [BK08] Christel Baier and Joost-Pieter Katoen. *Principles of model checking*. MIT Press, 2008. ISBN: 978-0-262-02649-9 (cited on page 23).
- [BK11] Björn Bartels and Moritz Kleine. A csp-based framework for the specification, verification, and implementation of adaptive systems. In Holger Giese and Betty H. C. Cheng, editors, *2011 ICSE Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2011, Waikiki, Honolulu , HI, USA, May 23-24, 2011*, pages 158–167. ACM, 2011. DOI: 10.1145/1988008.1988030. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1988008.1988030> (cited on pages 38, 41, 43, 45, 46, 49).
- [BKF⁺17] Cornel Barna, Hamzeh Khazaei, Marios Fokaefs, and Marin Litoiu. Delivering elastic containerized cloud applications to enable devops. In *12th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS@ICSE 2017, Buenos Aires, Argentina, May 22-23, 2017*, pages 65–75. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2017.12. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2017.12> (cited on page 2).
- [BLC⁺18] Erwan Bousse, Dorian Leroy, Benoît Combemale, Manuel Wimmer, and Benoit Baudry. Omniscient debugging for executable dsls. *Journal of Systems and Software*, 137:261–288, 2018. DOI: 10.1016/j.jss.2017.11.025. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jss.2017.11.025> (cited on pages 23, 28).
- [BLW05] Paul Baker, Shiou Loh, and Frank Weil. Model-driven engineering in a large industrial context - motorola case study. In Lionel C. Briand

and Clay Williams, editors, *Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, 8th International Conference, MoDELS 2005, Montego Bay, Jamaica, October 2-7, 2005, Proceedings*, volume 3713 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 476–491. Springer, 2005. DOI: 10.1007/11557432_36. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/11557432%5C_36 (cited on pages 22, 23).

- [BMB⁺18] Manuel F. Bertoa, Nathalie Moreno, Gala Barquero, Loli Burgueño, Javier Troya, and Antonio Vallecillo. Expressing measurement uncertainty in OCL/UML datatypes. In Alfonso Pierantonio and Salvador Trujillo, editors, *Modelling Foundations and Applications - 14th European Conference, ECMFA 2018, Held as Part of STAF 2018, Toulouse, France, June 26-28, 2018, Proceedings*, volume 10890 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 46–62. Springer, 2018. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-92997-2_4. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-92997-2_4 (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 56, 57).
- [BMM14] James Bornholt, Todd Mytkowicz, and Kathryn S. McKinley. Uncertain: a first-order type for uncertain data. In Rajeev Balasubramanian, Al Davis, and Sarita V. Adve, editors, *Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems, ASPLOS '14, Salt Lake City, UT, USA, March 1-5, 2014*, pages 51–66. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2541940.2541958. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2541940.2541958> (cited on pages 3, 4, 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [Bor13] James Bornholt. *Abstractions and techniques for programming with uncertain data*. PhD thesis, Honors thesis, Australian National University, 2013. URL: <https://homes.cs.washington.edu/~bornholt/papers/thesis13.pdf> (cited on pages 32, 53).
- [BPG⁺04] Paolo Bresciani, Anna Perini, Paolo Giorgini, Fausto Giunchiglia, and John Mylopoulos. Tropos: an agent-oriented software development methodology. *Autonomous Agents and Multi-Agent Systems*, 8(3):203–236, 2004. DOI: 10.1023/B:AGNT.0000018806.20944.ef. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:AGNT.0000018806.20944.ef>.

//doi.org/10.1023/B:AGNT.0000018806.20944.ef (cited on page 89).

- [BPS10] Luciano Baresi, Liliana Pasquale, and Paola Spoletini. Fuzzy goals for requirements-driven adaptation. In *RE 2010, 18th IEEE International Requirements Engineering Conference, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia, September 27 - October 1, 2010*, pages 125–134. IEEE Computer Society, 2010. DOI: 10.1109/RE.2010.25. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/RE.2010.25> (cited on pages 15, 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [BSG⁺09] Yuriy Brun, Giovanna Di Marzo Serugendo, Cristina Gacek, Holger Giese, Holger M. Kienle, Marin Litoiu, Hausi A. Müller, Mauro Pezzè, and Mary Shaw. Engineering self-adaptive systems through feedback loops. In Betty H. C. Cheng, Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Paola Inverardi, and Jeff Magee, editors, *Software Engineering for Self-Adaptive Systems [outcome of a Dagstuhl Seminar]*, volume 5525 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 48–70. Springer, 2009. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-02161-9_3. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-02161-9%5C_3 (cited on pages 14, 16).
- [BSH⁺06] Omar Benjelloun, Anish Das Sarma, Alon Y. Halevy, and Jennifer Widom. Uldbs: databases with uncertainty and lineage. In Umeshwar Dayal, Kyu-Young Whang, David B. Lomet, Gustavo Alonso, Guy M. Lohman, Martin L. Kersten, Sang Kyun Cha, and Young-Kuk Kim, editors, *Proceedings of the 32nd International Conference on Very Large Data Bases, Seoul, Korea, September 12-15, 2006*, pages 953–964. ACM, 2006. URL: <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1164209> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 54).
- [BWS⁺12] Nelly Bencomo, Kristopher Welsh, Pete Sawyer, and Jon Whittle. Self-explanation in adaptive systems. In Isabelle Perseil, Karin K. Breitman, and Marc Pouzet, editors, *17th IEEE International Conference on Engineering of Complex Computer Systems, ICECCS 2012, Paris, France,*

July 18-20, 2012, pages 157–166. IEEE Computer Society, 2012. DOI: 10.1109/ICECCS.2012.34. URL: <http://doi.ieeecomputersociety.org/10.1109/ICECCS.2012.34> (cited on pages 8, 42, 45, 72, 73).

- [CA07] Betty H. C. Cheng and Joanne M. Atlee. Research directions in requirements engineering. In Lionel C. Briand and Alexander L. Wolf, editors, *International Conference on Software Engineering, ISCE 2007, Workshop on the Future of Software Engineering, FOSE 2007, May 23-25, 2007, Minneapolis, MN, USA*, pages 285–303. IEEE Computer Society, 2007. DOI: 10.1109/FOSE.2007.17. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/FOSE.2007.17> (cited on page 20).
- [CCH⁺13] Maxime Cordy, Andreas Classen, Patrick Heymans, Axel Legay, and Pierre-Yves Schobbens. Model checking adaptive software with featured transition systems. In Javier Cámara, Rogério de Lemos, Carlo Ghezzi, and Antónia Lopes, editors, *Assurances for Self-Adaptive Systems - Principles, Models, and Techniques*. Volume 7740, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pages 1–29. Springer, 2013. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-36249-1_1. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-36249-1_1 (cited on pages 44, 45, 47, 49).
- [CDE⁺02] Manuel Clavel, Francisco Durán, Steven Eker, Patrick Lincoln, Narciso Martí-Oliet, José Meseguer, and Jose F. Quesada. Maude: specification and programming in rewriting logic. *Theor. Comput. Sci.*, 285(2):187–243, 2002. DOI: 10.1016/S0304-3975(01)00359-0. URL: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3975\(01\)00359-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3975(01)00359-0) (cited on page 39).
- [CdLG⁺09] Betty H. C. Cheng, Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Paola Inverardi, Jeff Magee, Jesper Andersson, Basil Becker, Nelly Bencomo, Yuriy Brun, Bojan Cukic, Giovanna Di Marzo Serugendo, Schahram Dustdar, Anthony Finkelstein, Cristina Gacek, Kurt Geihs, Vincenzo Grassi, Gabor Karsai, Holger M. Kienle, Jeff Kramer, Marin Litoiu, Sam Malek, Raffaella Mirandola, Hausi A. Müller, Sooyong Park, Mary Shaw, Matthias Tichy, Massimo Tivoli, Danny Weyns, and Jon Whittle.

Software engineering for self-adaptive systems: a research roadmap. In Betty H. C. Cheng, Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Paola Inverardi, and Jeff Magee, editors, *Software Engineering for Self-Adaptive Systems [outcome of a Dagstuhl Seminar]*, volume 5525 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 1–26. Springer, 2009. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-02161-9_1. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-02161-9_1 (cited on pages 2, 14, v).

- [CDM09] Anis Charfi, Tom Dinkelaker, and Mira Mezini. A plug-in architecture for self-adaptive web service compositions. In *IEEE International Conference on Web Services, ICWS 2009, Los Angeles, CA, USA, 6-10 July 2009*, pages 35–42. IEEE Computer Society, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/ICWS.2009.125. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICWS.2009.125> (cited on pages 43, 45, 46, 49).
- [CG12] Shang-Wen Cheng and David Garlan. Stitch: a language for architecture-based self-adaptation. *Journal of Systems and Software*, 85(12):2860–2875, 2012. DOI: 10.1016/j.jss.2012.02.060. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jss.2012.02.060> (cited on pages 42, 45, 46, 49, 90).
- [CGH⁺17] Bob Carpenter, Andrew Gelman, Matthew D. Hoffman, Daniel Lee, Ben Goodrich, Michael Betancourt, Marcus Brubaker, Jiqiang Guo, Peter Li, and Allen Riddell. Stan : a probabilistic programming language. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 76(1), January 2017. ISSN: 1548-7660. DOI: 10.18637/jss.v076.i01. URL: <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v076.i01> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [CGK⁺11] Radu Calinescu, Lars Grunske, Marta Z. Kwiatkowska, Raffaella Mirandola, and Giordano Tamburrelli. Dynamic qos management and optimization in service-based systems. *IEEE Trans. Software Eng.*, 37(3):387–409, 2011. DOI: 10.1109/TSE.2010.92. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/TSE.2010.92> (cited on page 15).

- [CGS⁺14] Paulo Casanova, David Garlan, Bradley R. Schmerl, and Rui Abreu. Diagnosing unobserved components in self-adaptive systems. In Gregor Engels and Nelly Bencomo, editors, *9th International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2014, Proceedings, Hyderabad, India, June 2-3, 2014*, pages 75–84. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2593929.2593946. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2593929.2593946> (cited on page 73).
- [Che76] Peter P. Chen. The entity-relationship model - toward a unified view of data. *ACM Trans. Database Syst.*, 1(1):9–36, 1976. DOI: 10.1145/320434.320440. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/320434.320440> (cited on page 22).
- [CMR13] Michael Carbin, Sasa Misailovic, and Martin C. Rinard. Verifying quantitative reliability for programs that execute on unreliable hardware. In Antony L. Hosking, Patrick Th. Eugster, and Cristina V. Lopes, editors, *Proceedings of the 2013 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Object Oriented Programming Systems Languages & Applications, OOPSLA 2013, part of SPLASH 2013, Indianapolis, IN, USA, October 26-31, 2013*, pages 33–52. ACM, 2013. DOI: 10.1145/2509136.2509546. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2509136.2509546> (cited on pages 50, 52, 55).
- [CMR15] Alessandro Cimatti, Andrea Micheli, and Marco Roveri. Strong temporal planning with uncontrollable durations: a state-space approach. In Blai Bonet and Sven Koenig, editors, *Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, January 25-30, 2015, Austin, Texas, USA*. Pages 3254–3260. AAAI Press, 2015. URL: <http://www.aaai.org/ocs/index.php/AAAI/AAAI15/paper/view/9728> (cited on pages 43, 45).
- [CNR13] Arun Tejasvi Chaganty, Aditya V. Nori, and Sriram K. Rajamani. Efficiently sampling probabilistic programs via program analysis. In *Proceedings of the Sixteenth International Conference on Artificial In-*

- telligence and Statistics, AISTATS 2013, Scottsdale, AZ, USA, April 29 - May 1, 2013*, volume 31 of *JMLR Workshop and Conference Proceedings*, pages 153–160. JMLR.org, 2013. URL: <http://proceedings.mlr.press/v31/chaganty13a.html> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [Com⁺06] Autonomic Computing et al. An architectural blueprint for autonomic computing. *IBM White Paper*, 31, 2006. URL: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.150.1011&rep=rep1&type=pdf> (cited on pages 2, 14, 16, 18).
- [CPY⁺14] Bihuan Chen, Xin Peng, Yijun Yu, Bashar Nuseibeh, and Wenyun Zhao. Self-adaptation through incremental generative model transformations at runtime. In Pankaj Jalote, Lionel C. Briand, and André van der Hoek, editors, *36th International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE '14, Hyderabad, India - May 31 - June 07, 2014*, pages 676–687. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2568225.2568310. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2568225.2568310> (cited on pages 39, 41, 43, 45, 49).
- [CvL17] Antoine Cailliau and Axel van Lamsweerde. Runtime monitoring and resolution of probabilistic obstacles to system goals. In *12th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS@ICSE 2017, Buenos Aires, Argentina, May 22-23, 2017*, pages 1–11. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2017.5. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2017.5> (cited on pages 39, 41).
- [DBZ14] Brahim Djoudi, Chafia Bouanaka, and Nadia Zeghib. Model checking pervasive context-aware systems. In Sumitra Reddy, editor, *2014 IEEE 23rd International WETICE Conference, WETICE 2014, Parma, Italy, 23-25 June, 2014*, pages 92–97. IEEE Computer Society, 2014. DOI: 10.1109/WETICE.2014.11. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/WETICE.2014.11> (cited on pages 39–42, 45, 47, 49).

- [Dem98] M Beth L Dempster. *A self-organizing systems perspective on planning for sustainability*. PhD thesis, Citeseer, 1998. URL: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/summary?doi=10.1.1.180.6090> (cited on page 15).
- [Dey01] Anind K. Dey. Understanding and using context. *Personal and Ubiquitous Computing*, 5(1):4–7, 2001. DOI: 10.1007/s007790170019. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s007790170019> (cited on pages 19, v).
- [dL04] Mark d’Inverno and Michael Luck. *Understanding agent systems, Second Edition*. Springer series on agent technology. Springer, 2004. ISBN: 978-3-540-40700-3 (cited on page 38).
- [DL06] Pierre-Charles David and Thomas Ledoux. An aspect-oriented approach for developing self-adaptive fractal components. In Welf Löwe and Mario Südholt, editors, *Software Composition, 5th International Symposium, SC 2006, Vienna, Austria, March 25-26, 2006, Revised Papers*, volume 4089 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 82–97. Springer, 2006. DOI: 10.1007/11821946_6. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/11821946%5C_6 (cited on pages 40, 41, 43, 45–47, 49).
- [dLGM⁺10] Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Hausi A. Müller, Mary Shaw, Jesper Andersson, Marin Litoiu, Bradley R. Schmerl, Gabriel Tamura, Norha M. Villegas, Thomas Vogel, Danny Weyns, Luciano Baresi, Basil Becker, Nelly Bencomo, Yuriy Brun, Bojan Cukic, Ronald J. Desmarais, Schahram Dustdar, Gregor Engels, Kurt Geihs, Karl M. Göschka, Alessandra Gorla, Vincenzo Grassi, Paola Inverardi, Gabor Karsai, Jeff Kramer, Antónia Lopes, Jeff Magee, Sam Malek, Serge Mankovski, Raffaella Mirandola, John Mylopoulos, Oscar Nierstrasz, Mauro Pezzè, Christian Prehofer, Wilhelm Schäfer, Richard D. Schlichting, Dennis B. Smith, João Pedro Sousa, Ladan Tahvil-dari, Kenny Wong, and Jochen Wuttke. Software engineering for self-adaptive systems: a second research roadmap. In Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Hausi A. Müller, and Mary Shaw, editors, *Software Engi-*

neering for Self-Adaptive Systems II - International Seminar, Dagstuhl Castle, Germany, October 24-29, 2010 Revised Selected and Invited Papers, volume 7475 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 1–32. Springer, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_1. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_1 (cited on page 19).

- [DMS18] Lucio Mauro Duarte, Paulo Henrique Mendes Maia, and Ana Carolina Sanchotene Silva. Extraction of probabilistic behaviour models based on contexts. In Jennifer Horkoff, Sahar Kokaly, Richard F. Paige, and Jocelyn Simmonds, editors, *Proceedings of the 10th International Workshop on Modelling in Software Engineering, MiSE@ICSE 2018, Gothenburg, Sweden, May 27-28, 2018*, pages 25–32. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3193954.3193963. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3193954.3193963> (cited on pages 39, 41).
- [DSB⁺17] Gwendal Daniel, Gerson Sunyé, Amine Benelallam, Massimo Tisi, Yoann Vernageau, Abel Gómez, and Jordi Cabot. Neoemf: a multi-database model persistence framework for very large models. *Sci. Comput. Program.*, 149:9–14, 2017. DOI: 10.1016/j.scico.2017.08.002. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scico.2017.08.002> (cited on page 23).
- [DSC16] Gwendal Daniel, Gerson Sunyé, and Jordi Cabot. Mogwai: a framework to handle complex queries on large models. In *Tenth IEEE International Conference on Research Challenges in Information Science, RCIS 2016, Grenoble, France, June 1-3, 2016*, pages 1–12. IEEE, 2016. DOI: 10.1109/RCIS.2016.7549343. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/RCIS.2016.7549343> (cited on page 23).
- [DvLF93] Anne Dardenne, Axel van Lamsweerde, and Stephen Fickas. Goal-directed requirements acquisition. *Sci. Comput. Program.*, 20(1-2):3–50, 1993. DOI: 10.1016/0167-6423(93)90021-G. URL: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-6423\(93\)90021-G](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-6423(93)90021-G) (cited on page 89).

- [EB10] Moritz Eysholdt and Heiko Behrens. Xtext: implement your language faster than the quick and dirty way. In William R. Cook, Siobhán Clarke, and Martin C. Rinard, editors, *Companion to the 25th Annual ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-Oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications, SPLASH/OOPSLA 2010, October 17-21, 2010, Reno/Tahoe, Nevada, USA*, pages 307–309. ACM, 2010. DOI: 10.1145/1869542.1869625. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1869542.1869625> (cited on page 28).
- [Egy01] Alexander Egyed. A scenario-driven approach to traceability. In Hausi A. Müller, Mary Jean Harrold, and Wilhelm Schäfer, editors, *Proceedings of the 23rd International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2001, 12-19 May 2001, Toronto, Ontario, Canada*, pages 123–132. IEEE Computer Society, 2001. DOI: 10.1109/ICSE.2001.919087. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2001.919087> (cited on page 89).
- [EM10] Naeem Esfahani and Sam Malek. Uncertainty in self-adaptive software systems. In Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Hausi A. Müller, and Mary Shaw, editors, *Software Engineering for Self-Adaptive Systems II - International Seminar, Dagstuhl Castle, Germany, October 24-29, 2010 Revised Selected and Invited Papers*, volume 7475 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 214–238. Springer, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_9. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_9 (cited on pages 14, 50, 51).
- [EPR14] Romina Eramo, Alfonso Pierantonio, and Gianni Rosa. Uncertainty in bidirectional transformations. In Joanne M. Atlee, Vinay Kulkarni, Tony Clark, Robert B. France, and Bernhard Rumpe, editors, *6th International Workshop on Modeling in Software Engineering, MiSE 2014, Hyderabad, India, June 2-3, 2014*, pages 37–42. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2593770.2593772. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2593770.2593772> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 54).

- [EPR15] Romina Eramo, Alfonso Pierantonio, and Gianni Rosa. Managing uncertainty in bidirectional model transformations. In Richard F. Paige, Davide Di Ruscio, and Markus Völter, editors, *Proceedings of the 2015 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Software Language Engineering, SLE 2015, Pittsburgh, PA, USA, October 25-27, 2015*, pages 49–58. ACM, 2015. URL: <https://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2814259> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 54).
- [EvHW⁺11] Jens Ehlers, André van Hoorn, Jan Waller, and Wilhelm Hasselbring. Self-adaptive software system monitoring for performance anomaly localization. In Hartmut Schmeck, Wolfgang Rosenstiel, Tarek F. Abdelzaher, and Joseph L. Hellerstein, editors, *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Autonomic Computing, ICAC 2011, Karlsruhe, Germany, June 14-18, 2011*, pages 197–200. ACM, 2011. DOI: 10.1145/1998582.1998628. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1998582.1998628> (cited on page 73).
- [FA04] Paolo Falcarin and Gustavo Alonso. Software architecture evolution through dynamic AOP. In Flávio Oquendo, Brian Warboys, and Ronald Morrison, editors, *Software Architecture, First European Workshop, EWSA 2004, St Andrews, UK, May 21-22, 2004, Proceedings*, volume 3047 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 57–73. Springer, 2004. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-540-24769-2_5. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-24769-2_5 (cited on pages 47, 49).
- [Far10] Hassan Farhangi. The path of the smart grid. *IEEE power and energy magazine*, 8(1):18–28, 2010. DOI: 10.1109/MPE.2009.934876. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MPE.2009.934876> (cited on page 2).
- [FC19] Michalis Famelis and Marsha Chechik. Managing design-time uncertainty. *Software and Systems Modeling*, 18(2):1249–1284, 2019. DOI: 10.1007/s10270-017-0594-9. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10270-017-0594-9> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 54).

- [FGL⁺10] Jean-Marie Favre, Dragan Gasevic, Ralf Lämmel, and Ekaterina Pek. Empirical language analysis in software linguistics. In Brian A. Malloy, Steffen Staab, and Mark van den Brand, editors, *Software Language Engineering - Third International Conference, SLE 2010, Eindhoven, The Netherlands, October 12-13, 2010, Revised Selected Papers*, volume 6563 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 316–326. Springer, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-19440-5_21. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-19440-5%5C_21 (cited on page 27).
- [FGL⁺11] Antonio Filieri, Carlo Ghezzi, Alberto Leva, and Martina Maggio. Self-adaptive software meets control theory: a preliminary approach supporting reliability requirements. In Perry Alexander, Corina S. Pasareanu, and John G. Hosking, editors, *26th IEEE/ACM International Conference on Automated Software Engineering (ASE 2011), Lawrence, KS, USA, November 6-10, 2011*, pages 283–292. IEEE Computer Society, 2011. DOI: 10.1109/ASE.2011.6100064. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ASE.2011.6100064> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [FHM14] Antonio Filieri, Henry Hoffmann, and Martina Maggio. Automated design of self-adaptive software with control-theoretical formal guarantees. In Pankaj Jalote, Lionel C. Briand, and André van der Hoek, editors, *36th International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE ’14, Hyderabad, India - May 31 - June 07, 2014*, pages 299–310. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2568225.2568272. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2568225.2568272> (cited on pages 15, 16).
- [FMF⁺12] François Fouquet, Brice Morin, Franck Fleurey, Olivier Barais, Noël Plouzeau, and Jean-Marc Jézéquel. A dynamic component model for cyber physical systems. In Vincenzo Grassi, Raffaella Mirandola, Nenad Medvidovic, and Magnus Larsson, editors, *Proceedings of the 15th ACM SIGSOFT Symposium on Component Based Software Engineering, CBSE 2012, part of Comparch ’12 Federated Events on Component-*

- Based Software Engineering and Software Architecture, Bertinoro, Italy, June 25-28, 2012*, pages 135–144. ACM, 2012. DOI: 10.1145/2304736.2304759. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2304736.2304759> (cited on pages 2, 40, 41, 46, 49).
- [FMX⁺12] Xi Fang, Satyajayant Misra, Guoliang Xue, and Dejun Yang. Smart grid - the new and improved power grid: a survey. *IEEE Communications Surveys and Tutorials*, 14(4):944–980, 2012. DOI: 10.1109/SURV.2011.101911.00087. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SURV.2011.101911.00087> (cited on page 2).
- [FNM⁺12] François Fouquet, Grégory Nain, Brice Morin, Erwan Daubert, Olivier Barais, Noël Plouzeau, and Jean-Marc Jézéquel. An eclipse modelling framework alternative to meet the models@runtime requirements. In Robert B. France, Jürgen Kazmeier, Ruth Breu, and Colin Atkinson, editors, *Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems - 15th International Conference, MODELS 2012, Innsbruck, Austria, September 30-October 5, 2012. Proceedings*, volume 7590 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 87–101. Springer, 2012. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-33666-9_7. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-33666-9_7 (cited on page 26).
- [FNM⁺14] François Fouquet, Grégory Nain, Brice Morin, Erwan Daubert, Olivier Barais, Noël Plouzeau, and Jean-Marc Jézéquel. Kevoree modeling framework (KMF): efficient modeling techniques for runtime use. *CoRR*, abs/1405.6817, 2014. arXiv: 1405.6817. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1405.6817> (cited on page 26).
- [Fou10] Eclipse Foundation. Ecore. <https://wiki.eclipse.org/Ecore>, 2010. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 25).
- [FR07] Robert B. France and Bernhard Rumpe. Model-driven development of complex software: a research roadmap. In Lionel C. Briand and Alexander L. Wolf, editors, *International Conference on Software Engineering, ISCE 2007, Workshop on the Future of Software Engineering*,

- FOSE 2007, May 23-25, 2007, Minneapolis, MN, USA*, pages 37–54. IEEE Computer Society, 2007. DOI: 10.1109/FOSE.2007.14. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/FOSE.2007.14> (cited on pages 22, 24).
- [FSC12] Michalis Famelis, Rick Salay, and Marsha Chechik. Partial models: towards modeling and reasoning with uncertainty. In Martin Glinz, Gail C. Murphy, and Mauro Pezzè, editors, *34th International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2012, June 2-9, 2012, Zurich, Switzerland*, pages 573–583. IEEE Computer Society, 2012. DOI: 10.1109/ICSE.2012.6227159. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2012.6227159> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 54).
- [fSta16] International Organization for Standardization (ISO). Structured query language (SQL). <https://www.iso.org/standard/63555.html>, 2016. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 22).
- [Gar08] Vahid Garousi. Traffic-aware stress testing of distributed real-time systems based on UML models in the presence of time uncertainty. In *First International Conference on Software Testing, Verification, and Validation, ICST 2008, Lillehammer, Norway, April 9-11, 2008*, pages 92–101. IEEE Computer Society, 2008. DOI: 10.1109/ICST.2008.7. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICST.2008.7> (cited on pages 50, 52, 54).
- [GB06] Phil Greenwood and Lynne Blair. A framework for policy driven adaptive systems using dynamic framed aspects:30–65, 2006. DOI: 10.1007/11922827_2. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/11922827_2 (cited on pages 46, 49).
- [GBM⁺13] Jayavardhana Gubbi, Rajkumar Buyya, Slaven Marusic, and Marimuthu Palaniswami. Internet of things (iot): a vision, architectural elements, and future directions. *Future Generation Comp. Syst.*, 29(7):1645–1660, 2013. DOI: 10.1016/j.future.2013.01.010. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2013.01.010> (cited on page 26).

- [GBM⁺18] Alejandro Sánchez Guinea, Andrey Boytsov, Ludovic Mouline, and Yves Le Traon. Continuous identification in smart environments using wrist-worn inertial sensors. In Henning Schulzrinne and Pan Li, editors, *Proceedings of the 15th EAI International Conference on Mobile and Ubiquitous Systems: Computing, Networking and Services, MobiQuitous 2018, 5-7 November 2018, New York City, NY, USA*, pages 87–96. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3286978.3287001. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3286978.3287001> (cited on page ii).
- [GCH⁺04] David Garlan, Shang-Wen Cheng, An-Cheng Huang, Bradley R. Schmerl, and Peter Steenkiste. Rainbow: architecture-based self-adaptation with reusable infrastructure. *IEEE Computer*, 37(10):46–54, 2004. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2004.175. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2004.175> (cited on pages 15, 16, 40, 41, 45, 46, 49).
- [GHN⁺14] Andrew D. Gordon, Thomas A. Henzinger, Aditya V. Nori, and Sriram K. Rajamani. Probabilistic programming. In James D. Herbsleb and Matthew B. Dwyer, editors, *Proceedings of the on Future of Software Engineering, FOSE 2014, Hyderabad, India, May 31 - June 7, 2014*, pages 167–181. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2593882.2593900. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2593882.2593900> (cited on pages 7, 53, 54).
- [GHP⁺08] Paul Grace, Danny Hughes, Barry Porter, Gordon S. Blair, Geoff Coulson, and François Taïani. Experiences with open overlays: a middleware approach to network heterogeneity. In Joseph S. Sventek and Steven Hand, editors, *Proceedings of the 2008 EuroSys Conference, Glasgow, Scotland, UK, April 1-4, 2008*, pages 123–136. ACM, 2008. DOI: 10.1145/1352592.1352606. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1352592.1352606> (cited on pages 41, 45, 49).
- [Gli07] Martin Glinz. On non-functional requirements. In *15th IEEE International Requirements Engineering Conference, RE 2007, October 15-19th, 2007, New Delhi, India*, pages 21–26. IEEE Computer Society, 2007.

DOI: 10.1109/RE.2007.45. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/RE.2007.45> (cited on page 20).

- [GPS⁺13] Carlo Ghezzi, Leandro Sales Pinto, Paola Spoletini, and Giordano Tamburrelli. Managing non-functional uncertainty via model-driven adaptivity. In David Notkin, Betty H. C. Cheng, and Klaus Pohl, editors, *35th International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE '13, San Francisco, CA, USA, May 18-26, 2013*, pages 33–42. IEEE Computer Society, 2013. DOI: 10.1109/ICSE.2013.6606549. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2013.6606549> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [Gro14] Object Management Group. Object constraint language (OCL), version 2.4. <http://www.omg.org/spec/OCL/>, 2014. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 24).
- [Gro15] Object Management Group. XML metadata interchange (XMI), version 2.5.1. <http://www.omg.org/spec/XMI/>, 2015. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 24).
- [Gro16a] Object Management Group. Meta object facility (MOF), version 2.5.1. <http://www.omg.org/spec/MOF/>, 2016. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on pages 24, 25).
- [Gro16b] Object Management Group. Query/view/transformation (OCL), version 1.3. <https://www.omg.org/spec/QVT>, 2016. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 43).
- [Gru95] Thomas R. Gruber. Toward principles for the design of ontologies used for knowledge sharing? *Int. J. Hum.-Comput. Stud.*, 43(5-6):907–928, 1995. DOI: 10.1006/ijhc.1995.1081. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1006/ijhc.1995.1081> (cited on page 22).
- [GS10] Carlo Ghezzi and Amir Molzam Sharifloo. Dealing with non-functional requirements for adaptive systems via dynamic software product-lines. In Rogério de Lemos, Holger Giese, Hausi A. Müller, and Mary Shaw,

editors, *Software Engineering for Self-Adaptive Systems II - International Seminar, Dagstuhl Castle, Germany, October 24-29, 2010 Revised Selected and Invited Papers*, volume 7475 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 191–213. Springer, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_8. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-35813-5_8 (cited on pages 39, 41, 44, 45, 47, 49).

- [GVD19] Simos Gerasimou, Thomas Vogel, and Ada Diaconescu. Software engineering for intelligent and autonomous systems: report from the GI dagstuhl seminar 18343. *CoRR*, abs/1904.01518, 2019. arXiv: 1904.01518. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/1904.01518> (cited on page 2).
- [GvdHT09] John C. Georgas, André van der Hoek, and Richard N. Taylor. Using architectural models to manage and visualize runtime adaptation. *IEEE Computer*, 42(10):52–60, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2009.335. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2009.335> (cited on pages 40, 41, 44–46, 49).
- [Hal06] B. D. Hall. Component interfaces that support measurement uncertainty. *Computer Standards & Interfaces*, 28(3):306–310, 2006. DOI: 10.1016/j.csi.2005.07.009. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csi.2005.07.009> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 55).
- [Har16] Thomas Hartmann. *Enabling Model-Driven Live Analytics For Cyber-Physical Systems: The Case of Smart Grids*. PhD thesis, University of Luxembourg, 2016. URL: <http://orbilu.uni.lu/handle/10993/28924> (cited on pages 9, 26, 96).
- [HBB15] Sara Hassan, Nelly Bencomo, and Rami Bahsoon. Minimizing nasty surprises with better informed decision-making in self-adaptive systems. In Paola Inverardi and Bradley R. Schmerl, editors, *10th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2015, Florence, Italy, May 18-19, 2015*, pages 134–145. IEEE Computer Society, 2015. DOI: 10.1109/

SEAMS.2015.13. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2015.13> (cited on pages 10, 72).

- [HFJ⁺17] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Matthieu Jimenez, Romain Rouvoy, and Yves Le Traon. Analyzing complex data in motion at scale with temporal graphs. In Xudong He, editor, *The 29th International Conference on Software Engineering and Knowledge Engineering, Wyncham Pittsburgh University Center, Pittsburgh, PA, USA, July 5-7, 2017*. Pages 596–601. KSI Research Inc. and Knowledge Systems Institute Graduate School, 2017. DOI: 10.18293/SEKE2017-048. URL: <https://doi.org/10.18293/SEKE2017-048> (cited on page 96).
- [HFK⁺14a] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Jacques Klein, Grégory Nain, and Yves Le Traon. Reactive security for smart grids using models@run. time-based simulation and reasoning. In Jorge Cuéllar, editor, *Smart Grid Security - Second International Workshop, SmartGridSec 2014, Munich, Germany, February 26, 2014, Revised Selected Papers*, volume 8448 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 139–153. Springer, 2014. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-10329-7_9. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-10329-7_9 (cited on pages 2, 3, 39, 41, 42, 45, 46, 49, 74).
- [HFK⁺14b] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Jacques Klein, Yves Le Traon, Alexander Pelov, Laurent Toutain, and Tanguy Ropitault. Generating realistic smart grid communication topologies based on real-data. In *2014 IEEE International Conference on Smart Grid Communications, SmartGridComm 2014, Venice, Italy, November 3-6, 2014*, pages 428–433. IEEE, 2014. DOI: 10.1109/SmartGridComm.2014.7007684. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SmartGridComm.2014.7007684> (cited on pages 2, 101).
- [HFM⁺16] Nicolas Harrand, Franck Fleurey, Brice Morin, and Knut Eilif Husa. Thingml: a language and code generation framework for heterogeneous targets. In Benoit Baudry and Benoît Combemale, editors, *Proceedings*

of the ACM/IEEE 19th International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, Saint-Malo, France, October 2-7, 2016, pages 125–135. ACM, 2016. URL: <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2976812> (cited on page 23).

- [HFM⁺19] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Assaad Moawad, Romain Rouvoy, and Yves Le Traon. Greycat: efficient what-if analytics for data in motion at scale. *Inf. Syst.*, 83:101–117, 2019. DOI: 10.1016/j.is.2019.03.004. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.is.2019.03.004> (cited on pages 26, 40).
- [HFN⁺14a] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Grégory Nain, Brice Morin, Jacques Klein, Olivier Barais, and Yves Le Traon. A native versioning concept to support historized models at runtime. In Jürgen Dingel, Wolfram Schulte, Isidro Ramos, Silvia Abrahão, and Emilio Insfrán, editors, *Model-Driven Engineering Languages and Systems - 17th International Conference, MODELS 2014, Valencia, Spain, September 28 - October 3, 2014. Proceedings*, volume 8767 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 252–268. Springer, 2014. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-11653-2_16. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-11653-2_16 (cited on pages 38, 39, 41, 45, 49).
- [HFN⁺14b] Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Grégory Nain, Brice Morin, Jacques Klein, and Yves Le Traon. Reasoning at runtime using time-distorted contexts: a models@run.time based approach. In Marek Reformat, editor, *The 26th International Conference on Software Engineering and Knowledge Engineering, Hyatt Regency, Vancouver, BC, Canada, July 1-3, 2013*. Pages 586–591. Knowledge Systems Institute Graduate School, 2014. URL: http://ksiresearchorg.ipage.com/seke/Proceedings/seke/SEKE2014_Proceedings.pdf (cited on pages 9, 19, 26, 38, 39, 41, 45, 49).
- [HHJ⁺13] Wilhelm Hasselbring, Robert Heinrich, Reiner Jung, Andreas Metzger, Klaus Pohl, Ralf Reussner, and Eric Schmieders. iObserve: Integrated

Observation and Modeling Techniques to Support Adaptation and Evolution of Software Systems. Research Report, Christian-Albrechts-Universität Kiel, Kiel, Germany, October 2013. URL: <http://oceanrep.geomar.de/id/eprint/22077> (cited on page 73).

- [HIR02] Karen Henricksen, Jadwiga Indulska, and Andry Rakotonirainy. Modeling context information in pervasive computing systems. In Friedemann Mattern and Mahmoud Naghshineh, editors, *Pervasive Computing, First International Conference, Pervasive 2002, Zürich, Switzerland, August 26-28, 2002, Proceedings*, volume 2414 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 167–180. Springer, 2002. DOI: 10.1007/3-540-45866-2_14. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-45866-2_14 (cited on pages 19, 20, 38, 41).
- [HMF⁺19] Thomas Hartmann, Assaad Moawad, François Fouquet, and Yves Le Traon. The next evolution of MDE: a seamless integration of machine learning into domain modeling. *Software and System Modeling*, 18(2):1285–1304, 2019. DOI: 10.1007/s10270-017-0600-2. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10270-017-0600-2> (cited on page 26).
- [Hoa78] C. A. R. Hoare. Communicating sequential processes. *Commun. ACM*, 21(8):666–677, 1978. DOI: 10.1145/359576.359585. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/359576.359585> (cited on page 38).
- [HR04] David Harel and Bernhard Rumpe. Meaningful modeling: what’s the semantics of "semantics"? *IEEE Computer*, 37(10):64–72, 2004. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2004.172. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2004.172> (cited on page 28).
- [HRW11] John Edward Hutchinson, Mark Rouncefield, and Jon Whittle. Model-driven engineering practices in industry. In Richard N. Taylor, Harald C. Gall, and Nenad Medvidovic, editors, *Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2011, Waikiki, Honolulu , HI, USA, May 21-28, 2011*, pages 633–642. ACM, 2011.

DOI: 10.1145/1985793.1985882. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1985793.1985882> (cited on pages 22, 23).

- [HSJ⁺14] Robert Heinrich, Eric Schmieders, Reiner Jung, Kiana Rostami, Andreas Metzger, Wilhelm Hasselbring, Ralf H. Reussner, and Klaus Pohl. Integrating run-time observations and design component models for cloud system analysis. In Sebastian Götz, Nelly Bencomo, and Robert B. France, editors, *Proceedings of the 9th Workshop on Models@run.time co-located with 17th International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems (MODELS 2014), Valencia, Spain, September 30, 2014*. Volume 1270 of *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*, pages 41–46. CEUR-WS.org, 2014. URL: http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-1270/mrt14_submission_8.pdf (cited on page 73).
- [HWR⁺11] John Edward Hutchinson, Jon Whittle, Mark Rouncefield, and Steinar Kristoffersen. Empirical assessment of MDE in industry. In Richard N. Taylor, Harald C. Gall, and Nenad Medvidovic, editors, *Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2011, Waikiki, Honolulu , HI, USA, May 21-28, 2011*, pages 471–480. ACM, 2011. DOI: 10.1145/1985793.1985858. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1985793.1985858> (cited on page 22).
- [IA09] Ali Ipakchi and Farrokh Albuyeh. Grid of the future. *IEEE power and energy magazine*, 7(2):52–62, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/MPE.2008.931384. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MPE.2008.931384> (cited on page 2).
- [III17] ISO, IEC, and IEEE. Systems and software engineering – vocabulary. In *ISO/IEC/IEEE 24765: 2017 (E)*, pages 1–536. 2017. DOI: 10.1109/IEEESTD.2017.8016712. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/IEEESTD.2017.8016712> (cited on pages 20, v, vi).
- [IW14] M. Usman Iftikhar and Danny Weyns. Activforms: active formal models for self-adaptation. In Gregor Engels and Nelly Bencomo, editors, *9th International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2014, Proceedings, Hyderabad, India,*

June 2-3, 2014, pages 125–134. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2593929.2593944. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2593929.2593944> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 46, 49, 73).

- [Jac97] Michael Jackson. The meaning of requirements. *Ann. Software Eng.*, 3:5–21, 1997. DOI: 10.1023/A:1018990005598. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1018990005598> (cited on page 15).
- [JG17] Seyyed Ahmad Javadi and Anshul Gandhi. DIAL: reducing tail latencies for cloud applications via dynamic interference-aware load balancing. In Xiaorui Wang, Christopher Stewart, and Hui Lei, editors, *2017 IEEE International Conference on Autonomic Computing, ICAC 2017, Columbus, OH, USA, July 17-21, 2017*, pages 135–144. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/ICAC.2017.17. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICAC.2017.17> (cited on page 2).
- [JK12] Szymon Jaroszewicz and Marcin Korzen. Arithmetic operations on independent random variables: a numerical approach. *SIAM J. Scientific Computing*, 34(3), 2012. DOI: 10.1137/110839680. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1137/110839680> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [JWB⁺15] Andrés Jiménez-Ramírez, Barbara Weber, Irene Barba, and Carmelo Del Valle. Generating optimized configurable business process models in scenarios subject to uncertainty. *Information & Software Technology*, 57:571–594, 2015. DOI: 10.1016/j.infsof.2014.06.006. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infsof.2014.06.006> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 55).
- [KC03] Jeffrey O. Kephart and David M. Chess. The vision of autonomic computing. *IEEE Computer*, 36(1):41–50, 2003. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2003.1160055. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2003.1160055> (cited on pages 2, 14–16, 18, vi, vii).

- [Kel76] Robert M. Keller. Formal verification of parallel programs. *Commun. ACM*, 19(7):371–384, 1976. DOI: 10.1145/360248.360251. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/360248.360251> (cited on page 39).
- [Ken02] Stuart Kent. Model driven engineering. In Michael J. Butler, Luigia Petre, and Kaisa Sere, editors, *Integrated Formal Methods, Third International Conference, IFM 2002, Turku, Finland, May 15-18, 2002, Proceedings*, volume 2335 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 286–298. Springer, 2002. DOI: 10.1007/3-540-47884-1_16. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-47884-1_16 (cited on pages 2, 22, 23).
- [KH10] Maximilian Koegel and Jonas Helming. Emfstore: a model repository for EMF models. In Jeff Kramer, Judith Bishop, Premkumar T. Devanbu, and Sebastián Uchitel, editors, *Proceedings of the 32nd ACM/IEEE International Conference on Software Engineering - Volume 2, ICSE 2010, Cape Town, South Africa, 1-8 May 2010*, pages 307–308. ACM, 2010. DOI: 10.1145/1810295.1810364. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1810295.1810364> (cited on page 9).
- [Kle08] Anneke Kleppe. *Software language engineering: creating domain-specific languages using metamodels*. Pearson Education, 2008. ISBN: 0-321-60646-9. URL: <https://www.pearson.com/us/higher-education/program/Kleppe-Software-Language-Engineering-Creating-Domain-Specific-Languages-Using-Metamodels/PGM162096.html> (cited on pages 27, vii).
- [KM90] Jeff Kramer and Jeff Magee. The evolving philosophers problem: dynamic change management. *IEEE Trans. Software Eng.*, 16(11):1293–1306, 1990. DOI: 10.1109/32.60317. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/32.60317> (cited on pages 14, 40, 41, 43, 45, 46, 49).
- [Kra07] Jeff Kramer. Is abstraction the key to computing? *Commun. ACM*, 50(4):36–42, 2007. DOI: 10.1145/1232743.1232745. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1232743.1232745> (cited on page 21).

- [KT12] Bilal Kanso and Safouan Taha. Temporal constraint support for OCL. In Krzysztof Czarnecki and Görel Hedin, editors, *Software Language Engineering, 5th International Conference, SLE 2012, Dresden, Germany, September 26-28, 2012, Revised Selected Papers*, volume 7745 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 83–103. Springer, 2012. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-36089-3_6. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-36089-3_6 (cited on page 9).
- [Lew03] Bil Lewis. Debugging backwards in time. *CoRR*, cs.SE/0310016, 2003. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/cs.SE/0310016> (cited on page 23).
- [LGC17] Philippe Lalanda, Eva Gerbert-Gaillard, and Stéphanie Chollet. Self-aware context in smart home pervasive platforms. In Xiaorui Wang, Christopher Stewart, and Hui Lei, editors, *2017 IEEE International Conference on Autonomic Computing, ICAC 2017, Columbus, OH, USA, July 17-21, 2017*, pages 119–124. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/ICAC.2017.1. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICAC.2017.1> (cited on page 2).
- [LTB⁺00] David J. Lunn, Andrew Thomas, Nicky Best, and David J. Spiegelhalter. Winbugs - a bayesian modelling framework: concepts, structure, and extensibility. *Statistics and Computing*, 10(4):325–337, 2000. DOI: 10.1023/A:1008929526011. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008929526011> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [Mao09] Shahar Maoz. Using model-based traces as runtime models. *IEEE Computer*, 42(10):28–36, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2009.336. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2009.336> (cited on pages 40, 41).
- [MAR14] Danilo F. Mendonça, Raian Ali, and Genáina Nunes Rodrigues. Modelling and analysing contextual failures for dependability requirements. In Gregor Engels and Nelly Bencomo, editors, *9th International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2014, Proceedings, Hyderabad, India, June 2-3, 2014*, pages 55–64. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2593929.2593947. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2593929.2593947>.

<https://doi.org/10.1145/2593929.2593947> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 73).

- [MBE⁺11] Michael Maurer, Ivan Breskovic, Vincent C. Emeakaroha, and Ivona Brandic. Revealing the MAPE loop for the autonomic management of cloud infrastructures. In *Proceedings of the 16th IEEE Symposium on Computers and Communications, ISCC 2011, Kerkyra, Corfu, Greece, June 28 - July 1, 2011*, pages 147–152. IEEE Computer Society, 2011. DOI: 10.1109/ISCC.2011.5984008. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCC.2011.5984008> (cited on pages 47, 49).
- [MBF⁺18] Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, and Olivier Barais. A temporal model for interactive diagnosis of adaptive systems. In *2018 IEEE International Conference on Autonomic Computing, ICAC 2018, Trento, Italy, September 3-7, 2018*, pages 175–180. IEEE Computer Society, 2018. DOI: 10.1109/ICAC.2018.00029. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICAC.2018.00029> (cited on pages 12, i).
- [MBH⁺18] Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Johann Bourcier, Brice Morin, and Olivier Barais. Enabling temporal-aware contexts for adaptative distributed systems. In Hisham M. Haddad, Roger L. Wainwright, and Richard Chbeir, editors, *Proceedings of the 33rd Annual ACM Symposium on Applied Computing, SAC 2018, Pau, France, April 09-13, 2018*, pages 1433–1440. ACM, 2018. DOI: 10.1145/3167132.3167286. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3167132.3167286> (cited on pages 11, i).
- [MBH⁺ng] Ludovic Mouline, Amine Benelallam, Thomas Hartmann, Johann Bourcier, Olivier Barais, and Maxime Cordy. Ain’tea: managing data uncertainty at the language level. *Forthcoming*, forthcoming (cited on pages 11, ii).
- [MBJ⁺09] Brice Morin, Olivier Barais, Jean-Marc Jézéquel, Franck Fleurey, and Arnor Solberg. Models@ run.time to support dynamic adaptation.

IEEE Computer, 42(10):44–51, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2009.327. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2009.327> (cited on pages 2, 3, 16, 17, 37, 41, 45, 49, 72).

- [MBN⁺09] Brice Morin, Olivier Barais, Grégory Nain, and Jean-Marc Jézéquel. Taming dynamically adaptive systems using models and aspects. In *31st International Conference on Software Engineering, ICSE 2009, May 16-24, 2009, Vancouver, Canada, Proceedings*, pages 122–132. IEEE, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/ICSE.2009.5070514. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2009.5070514> (cited on pages 47, 49).
- [MCG⁺15] Gabriel A. Moreno, Javier Cámara, David Garlan, and Bradley R. Schmerl. Proactive self-adaptation under uncertainty: a probabilistic model checking approach. In Elisabetta Di Nitto, Mark Harman, and Patrick Heymans, editors, *Proceedings of the 2015 10th Joint Meeting on Foundations of Software Engineering, ESEC/FSE 2015, Bergamo, Italy, August 30 - September 4, 2015*, pages 1–12. ACM, 2015. DOI: 10.1145/2786805.2786853. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2786805.2786853> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [MD04] Erik Meijer and Peter Drayton. Static typing where possible , dynamic typing when needed : the end of the cold war between programming languages. In 2004 (cited on page 54).
- [Met08] JCfGi Metrology. Evaluation of measurement data - guide to the expression of uncertainty in measurement. *Bureau International des Poids et Mesures*, 2008. URL: <https://www.bipm.org/en/publications/guides/gum.html> (cited on pages 3, 4, 9, 31, 53).
- [MHF⁺15] Assaad Moawad, Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Grégory Nain, Jacques Klein, and Yves Le Traon. Beyond discrete modeling: a continuous and efficient model for iot. In Timothy Lethbridge, Jordi Cabot, and Alexander Egyed, editors, *18th ACM/IEEE International Conference on Model Driven Engineering Languages and Systems, MoDELS 2015, Ottawa, ON, Canada, September 30 - October 2, 2015*, pages 90–99.

- IEEE Computer Society, 2015. DOI: 10.1109/MODELS.2015.7338239. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MODELS.2015.7338239> (cited on page 26).
- [MHF⁺17] Ludovic Mouline, Thomas Hartmann, François Fouquet, Yves Le Traon, Johann Bourcier, and Olivier Barais. Weaving rules into models@run.time for embedded smart systems. In Jennifer B. Sartor, Theo D’Hondt, and Wolfgang De Meuter, editors, *Companion to the first International Conference on the Art, Science and Engineering of Programming, Programming 2017, Brussels, Belgium, April 3-6, 2017*, 17:1–17:6. ACM, 2017. DOI: 10.1145/3079368.3079394. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3079368.3079394> (cited on page ii).
- [MPS15] Marina Mongiello, Patrizio Pelliccione, and Massimo Sciancalepore. Ac-contract: run-time verification of context-aware applications. In Paola Inverardi and Bradley R. Schmerl, editors, *10th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS 2015, Florence, Italy, May 18-19, 2015*, pages 24–34. IEEE Computer Society, 2015. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2015.11. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2015.11> (cited on pages 10, 72).
- [MS17] Vera Zaychik Moffitt and Julia Stoyanovich. Temporal graph algebra. In Tiark Rompf and Alexander Alexandrov, editors, *Proceedings of The 16th International Symposium on Database Programming Languages, DBPL 2017, Munich, Germany, September 1, 2017*, 10:1–10:12. ACM, 2017. DOI: 10.1145/3122831.3122838. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/3122831.3122838> (cited on pages 40, 41, 46, 49).
- [MSS13] Prodromos Makris, Dimitrios N. Skoutas, and Charalabos Skianis. A survey on context-aware mobile and wireless networking: on networking and computing environments’ integration. *IEEE Communications Surveys and Tutorials*, 15(1):362–386, 2013. DOI: 10.1109/SURV.2012.

040912.00180. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SURV.2012.040912.00180> (cited on page 19).

- [MWG⁺18] T. Minka, J.M. Winn, J.P. Guiver, Y. Zaykov, D. Fabian, and J. Bronskill. Infer.net 0.3, 2018 (cited on page 7).
- [MWV16] Tanja Mayerhofer, Manuel Wimmer, and Antonio Vallecillo. Adding uncertainty and units to quantity types in software models. In Tijs van der Storm, Emilie Balland, and Dániel Varró, editors, *Proceedings of the 2016 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Software Language Engineering, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, October 31 - November 1, 2016*, pages 118–131. ACM, 2016. URL: <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2997376> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 56, 57).
- [OMG17] Object Management Group (OMG). OMG Unified Modeling Language, version 2.5.1, 2017. URL: <https://www.omg.org/spec/UML/2.5.1> (cited on pages 22, 24).
- [oSN] National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). Smart grid: a beginner’s guide. <https://www.nist.gov/engineering-laboratory/smart-grid/smart-grid-beginners-guide#what>. [Accessed June 2019] (cited on page vii).
- [PBC⁺11] Carlos Parra, Xavier Blanc, Anthony Cleve, and Laurence Duchien. Unifying design and runtime software adaptation using aspect models. *Sci. Comput. Program.*, 76(12):1247–1260, 2011. DOI: 10.1016/j.scico.2010.12.005. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scico.2010.12.005> (cited on pages 43, 45, 47, 49).
- [Pfe01] Avi Pfeffer. IBAL: a probabilistic rational programming language. In Bernhard Nebel, editor, *Proceedings of the Seventeenth International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence, IJCAI 2001, Seattle, Washington, USA, August 4-10, 2001*, pages 733–740. Morgan Kaufmann, 2001 (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).

- [PFT03] Mónica Pinto, Lidia Fuentes, and José M. Troya. DAOP-ADL: an architecture description language for dynamic component and aspect-based development. In Frank Pfenning and Yannis Smaragdakis, editors, *Generative Programming and Component Engineering, Second International Conference, GPCE 2003, Erfurt, Germany, September 22-25, 2003, Proceedings*, volume 2830 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 118–137. Springer, 2003. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-540-39815-8_8. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-39815-8_8 (cited on pages 41, 45, 47, 49).
- [Plu⁺03] Martyn Plummer et al. Jags: a program for analysis of bayesian graphical models using gibbs sampling. In *Proceedings of the 3rd international workshop on distributed statistical computing*, volume 124 of number 125, page 10. Vienna, Austria., 2003 (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [PPT08] Sungwoo Park, Frank Pfenning, and Sebastian Thrun. A probabilistic language based on sampling functions. *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.*, 31(1):4:1–4:46, 2008. DOI: 10.1145/1452044.1452048. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1452044.1452048> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [PSR10] Dharendra Pandey, Ugrasen Suman, and AK Ramani. An effective requirement engineering process model for software development and requirements management. In *Advances in Recent Technologies in Communication and Computing (ARTCom), 2010 International Conference on*, pages 287–291. IEEE, IEEE, 2010. DOI: 10.1109/ARTCom.2010.24. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ARTCom.2010.24> (cited on page 20).
- [PZC⁺14] Charith Perera, Arkady B. Zaslavsky, Peter Christen, and Dimitrios Georgakopoulos. Context aware computing for the internet of things: a survey. *IEEE Communications Surveys and Tutorials*, 16(1):414–454, 2014. DOI: 10.1109/SURV.2013.042313.00197. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SURV.2013.042313.00197> (cited on page 19).

- [RP02] Norman Ramsey and Avi Pfeffer. Stochastic lambda calculus and monads of probability distributions. In John Launchbury and John C. Mitchell, editors, *Conference Record of POPL 2002: The 29th SIGPLAN-SIGACT Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages, Portland, OR, USA, January 16-18, 2002*, pages 154–165. ACM, 2002. DOI: 10.1145/503272.503288. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/503272.503288> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [RRV08] José Eduardo Rivera, José Raúl Romero, and Antonio Vallecillo. Behavior, time and viewpoint consistency: three challenges for MDE. In Michel R. V. Chaudron, editor, *Models in Software Engineering, Workshops and Symposia at MODELS 2008, Toulouse, France, September 28 - October 3, 2008. Reports and Revised Selected Papers*, volume 5421 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 60–65. Springer, 2008. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-01648-6_7. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-01648-6_7 (cited on page 9).
- [SBM⁺08] Dave Steinberg, Frank Budinsky, Ed Merks, and Marcelo Paternostro. *EMF: eclipse modeling framework, 2nd Edition*. Addison-Wesley Professional, 2008. ISBN: 0-321-33188-5. URL: <http://www.informit.com/store/emf-eclipse-modeling-framework-9780321331885> (cited on page 25).
- [SCG13] Sriram Sankaranarayanan, Aleksandar Chakarov, and Sumit Gulwani. Static analysis for probabilistic programs: inferring whole program properties from finitely many paths. In Hans-Juergen Boehm and Cormac Flanagan, editors, *ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation, PLDI '13, Seattle, WA, USA, June 16-19, 2013*, pages 447–458. ACM, 2013. DOI: 10.1145/2491956.2462179. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2491956.2462179> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [SCH⁺13] Rick Salay, Marsha Chechik, Jennifer Horkoff, and Alessio Di Sandro. Managing requirements uncertainty with partial models. *Requir. Eng.*,

- 18(2):107–128, 2013. DOI: 10.1007/s00766-013-0170-y. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00766-013-0170-y> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 54).
- [Sch06] Douglas C. Schmidt. Guest editor’s introduction: model-driven engineering. *IEEE Computer*, 39(2):25–31, 2006. DOI: 10.1109/MC.2006.58. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2006.58> (cited on pages 2, 22–24, vi).
- [Sha76] Glenn Shafer. *A mathematical theory of evidence*, volume 42. Princeton university press, 1976. ISBN: 9780691100425 (cited on pages 7, 9).
- [SMH11] Julia Schwarz, Jennifer Mankoff, and Scott E. Hudson. Monte carlo methods for managing interactive state, action and feedback under uncertainty. In Jeffrey S. Pierce, Maneesh Agrawala, and Scott R. Klemmer, editors, *Proceedings of the 24th Annual ACM Symposium on User Interface Software and Technology, Santa Barbara, CA, USA, October 16-19, 2011*, pages 235–244. ACM, 2011. DOI: 10.1145/2047196.2047227. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2047196.2047227> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [ST09] Mazeiar Salehie and Ladan Tahvildari. Self-adaptive software: landscape and research challenges. *TAAS*, 4(2):14:1–14:42, 2009. DOI: 10.1145/1516533.1516538. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1516533.1516538> (cited on pages 15, 16).
- [SWF16] John Salvatier, Thomas V. Wiecki, and Christopher Fonnesbeck. Probabilistic programming in python using pymc3. *PeerJ Computer Science*, 2:e55, 2016. DOI: 10.7717/peerj-cs.55. URL: <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj-cs.55> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [Tea15] Watcher Drivers Team. Openstack watcher. <https://wiki.openstack.org/wiki/Watcher>, 2015. [Accessed April 2019] (cited on pages 2, 66).

- [TGE⁺10] Hossein Tajalli, Joshua Garcia, George Edwards, and Nenad Medvidic. PLASMA: a plan-based layered architecture for software model-driven adaptation. In Charles Pecheur, Jamie Andrews, and Elisabetta Di Nitto, editors, *ASE 2010, 25th IEEE/ACM International Conference on Automated Software Engineering, Antwerp, Belgium, September 20-24, 2010*, pages 467–476. ACM, 2010. DOI: 10.1145/1858996.1859092. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1858996.1859092> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [Thr00] Sebastian Thrun. Towards programming tools for robots that integrate probabilistic computation and learning. In *Proceedings of the 2000 IEEE International Conference on Robotics and Automation, ICRA 2000, April 24-28, 2000, San Francisco, CA, USA*, pages 306–312. IEEE, 2000. DOI: 10.1109/ROBOT.2000.844075. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/ROBOT.2000.844075> (cited on pages 48, 50, 52, 53, 56, 57).
- [TOH17] Yasuyuki Tahara, Akihiko Ohsuga, and Shinichi Honiden. Formal verification of dynamic evolution processes of UML models using aspects. In *12th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Software Engineering for Adaptive and Self-Managing Systems, SEAMS@ICSE 2017, Buenos Aires, Argentina, May 22-23, 2017*, pages 152–162. IEEE Computer Society, 2017. DOI: 10.1109/SEAMS.2017.4. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/SEAMS.2017.4> (cited on pages 10, 39–42, 45, 49, 72).
- [vDK98] Arie van Deursen and Paul Klint. Little languages: little maintenance? *Journal of Software Maintenance*, 10(2):75–92, 1998. DOI: 10.1002/(SICI)1096-908X(199803/04)10:2<75::AID-SMR168>3.0.CO;2-5. URL: [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1096-908X\(199803/04\)10:2%3C75::AID-SMR168%3E3.0.CO;2-5](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1096-908X(199803/04)10:2%3C75::AID-SMR168%3E3.0.CO;2-5) (cited on page 28).
- [vDKV00] Arie van Deursen, Paul Klint, and Joost Visser. Domain-specific languages: an annotated bibliography. *SIGPLAN Notices*, 35(6):26–36,

2000. DOI: 10.1145/352029.352035. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/352029.352035> (cited on pages 27, 28, v).
- [VMO16] Antonio Vallecillo, Carmen Morcillo, and Priscill Orue. Expressing measurement uncertainty in software models. In Mark C. Paulk, Ricardo J. Machado, Miguel A. Brito, Miguel Goulão, and Vasco Amaral, editors, *10th International Conference on the Quality of Information and Communications Technology, QUATIC 2016, Lisbon, Portugal, September 6-9, 2016*, pages 15–24. IEEE Computer Society, 2016. DOI: 10.1109/QUATIC.2016.013. URL: <http://doi.ieeecomputersociety.org/10.1109/QUATIC.2016.013> (cited on pages 9, 48, 50, 52, 56–58).
- [Voe14] Markus Voelter. *Generic tools, specific languages*. Citeseer, 2014. ISBN: 978-94-6203-586-7. URL: <https://www.voelter.de/data/books/GenericToolsSpecificLanguages-1.0-web.pdf> (cited on page 28).
- [W3C05] World Wide Web Consortium (W3C). Document object model (DOM). <https://www.w3.org/DOM/>, 2005. [Accessed July 2019] (cited on page 27).
- [WA13] Danny Weyns and Tanvir Ahmad. Claims and evidence for architecture-based self-adaptation: a systematic literature review. In Khalil Drira, editor, *Software Architecture - 7th European Conference, ECSA 2013, Montpellier, France, July 1-5, 2013. Proceedings*, volume 7957 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 249–265. Springer, 2013. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-39031-9_22. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-39031-9_22 (cited on page 15).
- [WBR11] Richard Wang, Dana Butnariu, and Jennifer Rexford. Openflow-based server load balancing gone wild. In Anees Shaikh and Kobus van der Merwe, editors, *USENIX Workshop on Hot Topics in Management of Internet, Cloud, and Enterprise Networks and Services, Hot-ICE’11, Boston, MA, USA, March 29, 2011*. USENIX Association, 2011. URL: <https://www.usenix.org/conference/hot-ice11/openflow-based-server-load-balancing-gone-wild> (cited on pages 69, 70).

- [Wey19] Danny Weyns. Software engineering of self-adaptive systems. In Sungdeok Cha, Richard N. Taylor, and Kyo Chul Kang, editors, *Handbook of Software Engineering*. Pages 399–443. Springer, 2019. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-030-00262-6_11. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-00262-6%5C_11 (cited on pages 14–16).
- [WH04] Tom De Wolf and Tom Holvoet. Emergence versus self-organisation: different concepts but promising when combined. In Sven Brueckner, Giovanna Di Marzo Serugendo, Anthony Karageorgos, and Radhika Nagpal, editors, *Engineering Self-Organising Systems, Methodologies and Applications [revised versions of papers presented at the Engineering Selforganising Applications (ESOA 2004) workshop, held during the Autonomous Agents and Multi-agent Systems conference (AAMAS 2004) in New York in July 2004, and selected invited papers]*, volume 3464 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 1–15. Springer, 2004. DOI: 10.1007/11494676_1. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/11494676%5C_1 (cited on page 15).
- [WHH10] Danny Weyns, Robrecht Haesevoets, and Alexander Helleboogh. The MACODO organization model for context-driven dynamic agent organizations. *TAAS*, 5(4):16:1–16:29, 2010. DOI: 10.1145/1867713.1867717. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1867713.1867717> (cited on pages 38, 41, 43, 45, 46, 49).
- [WHR⁺13] Jon Whittle, John Edward Hutchinson, Mark Rouncefield, Håkan Burden, and Rogardt Heldal. Industrial adoption of model-driven engineering: are the tools really the problem? In Ana Moreira, Bernhard Schätz, Jeff Gray, Antonio Vallecillo, and Peter J. Clarke, editors, *Model-Driven Engineering Languages and Systems - 16th International Conference, MODELS 2013, Miami, FL, USA, September 29 - October 4, 2013. Proceedings*, volume 8107 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 1–17. Springer, 2013. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-41533-3_1.

URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-41533-3%5C_1 (cited on page 23).

- [WHR14] Jon Whittle, John Edward Hutchinson, and Mark Rouncefield. The state of practice in model-driven engineering. *IEEE Software*, 31(3):79–85, 2014. DOI: 10.1109/MS.2013.65. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/MS.2013.65> (cited on page 22).
- [WMA12] Danny Weyns, Sam Malek, and Jesper Andersson. FORMS: unifying reference model for formal specification of distributed self-adaptive systems. *TAAS*, 7(1):8:1–8:61, 2012. DOI: 10.1145/2168260.2168268. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2168260.2168268> (cited on pages 15, 16, 38, 41, 46, 49).
- [Woh14] Claes Wohlin. Guidelines for snowballing in systematic literature studies and a replication in software engineering. In Martin J. Shepperd, Tracy Hall, and Ingunn Myrtveit, editors, *18th International Conference on Evaluation and Assessment in Software Engineering, EASE '14, London, England, United Kingdom, May 13-14, 2014*, 38:1–38:10. ACM, 2014. DOI: 10.1145/2601248.2601268. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/2601248.2601268> (cited on pages 36, 58).
- [WSB⁺09] Jon Whittle, Peter Sawyer, Nelly Bencomo, Betty H. C. Cheng, and Jean-Michel Bruel. RELAX: incorporating uncertainty into the specification of self-adaptive systems. In *RE 2009, 17th IEEE International Requirements Engineering Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, August 31 - September 4, 2009*, pages 79–88. IEEE Computer Society, 2009. DOI: 10.1109/RE.2009.36. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1109/RE.2009.36> (cited on pages 50–52, 55).
- [WSB⁺10] Jon Whittle, Peter Sawyer, Nelly Bencomo, Betty H. C. Cheng, and Jean-Michel Bruel. RELAX: a language to address uncertainty in self-adaptive systems requirement. *Requir. Eng.*, 15(2):177–196, 2010. DOI: 10.1007/s00766-010-0101-0. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00766-010-0101-0> (cited on pages 50–52, 55).

- [Yu11] Eric Yu. Modelling strategic relationships for process reengineering. *Social Modeling for Requirements Engineering*, 11:2011, 2011. URL: http://ftp.cs.utoronto.ca/public_html/dist/eric/DKBS-TR-94-6.pdf (cited on page 89).
- [ZA11] Enrico Zio and Terje Aven. Uncertainties in smart grids behavior and modeling: what are the risks and vulnerabilities? how to analyze them? *Energy Policy*, 39(10):6308–6320, 2011. DOI: 10.1016/j.enpol.2011.07.030. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2011.07.030> (cited on pages 3, 5).
- [Zad96] Lotfi A Zadeh. Fuzzy sets. In *Fuzzy Sets, Fuzzy Logic, And Fuzzy Systems: Selected Papers by Lotfi A Zadeh*, pages 394–432. World Scientific, 1996. DOI: 10.1142/9789814261302_0001. URL: https://doi.org/10.1142/9789814261302_0001 (cited on page 9).
- [ZAY⁺19] Man Zhang, Shaukat Ali, Tao Yue, Roland Norgren, and Oscar Okariz. Uncertainty-wise cyber-physical system test modeling. *Software and Systems Modeling*, 18(2):1379–1418, 2019. DOI: 10.1007/s10270-017-0609-6. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10270-017-0609-6> (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 55).
- [ZGC09] Ji Zhang, Heather Goldsby, and Betty H. C. Cheng. Modular verification of dynamically adaptive systems. In Kevin J. Sullivan, Ana Moreira, Christa Schwanninger, and Jeff Gray, editors, *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Aspect-Oriented Software Development, AOSD 2009, Charlottesville, Virginia, USA, March 2-6, 2009*, pages 161–172. ACM, 2009. DOI: 10.1145/1509239.1509262. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1145/1509239.1509262> (cited on pages 39, 41, 42, 45, 47, 49).
- [ZSA⁺16] Man Zhang, Bran Selic, Shaukat Ali, Tao Yue, Oscar Okariz, and Roland Norgren. Understanding uncertainty in cyber-physical systems: a conceptual model. In Andrzej Wasowski and Henrik Lönn, editors, *Modelling Foundations and Applications - 12th European Conference*,

ECMFA 2016, Held as Part of STAF 2016, Vienna, Austria, July 6-7, 2016, Proceedings, volume 9764 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 247–264. Springer, 2016. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-42061-5_16. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-42061-5_16 (cited on pages 48, 50–52, 55).