A survey of self-management in dynamic software architecture specifications

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ABSTRACT
As dynamic software architecture use becomes more widespread, a variety of formal specification languages have been developed to gain a better understanding of the foundations of this type of software evolutionary change. In this paper we survey 14 formal specification approaches based on graphs, process algebras, logic, and other formalisms. Our survey will evaluate the ability of each approach to specify self-managing systems as well as the ability to address issues regarding expressiveness and scalability. Based on the results of our survey we will provide recommendations on future directions for improving the specification of dynamic software architectures, specifically self-managed architectures.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
D.2.1 [Software Engineering]: Requirements/Specifications—languages; D.2.9 [Software Engineering]: Management—software configuration management; D.2.11 [Software Engineering]: Software Architectures

Keywords
dynamic software architecture, architectural formalism, dynamism, run-time evolution, specification, self-management

1. INTRODUCTION
Dynamic software architectures modify their architecture and enact the modifications during the system’s execution [18]. This behavior is most commonly known as run-time evolution or dynamism. Self-managing architectures are a specific type of dynamic software architectures. We define a system that enacts architectural changes at run-time as having a self-managing architecture if the system not only implements the change internally but also initiates, selects, and assesses the change itself without the assistance of an external user. Programmed dynamism [10], self-organising architectures [16, 12], self-repairing systems [23], and self-adaptive software [21] are all examples of self-managing architectures. Programmed dynamism is an early type of dynamism in which a fixed change is conditionally triggered by the system. The other examples listed support more advanced notions of self-management in architectural reconfiguration.

Dynamic software architectures and specifically dynamic components have been identified as “challenging in terms of correctness, robustness, and efficiency” [24]. This is especially true for self-managing architecture since systems that are self-managed have to implement the initiation and selection of a change. Conversely, user-managed architectures usually exhibit ad-hoc change [10] in which the initiation and selection occur external to the software, thus simplifying the development.

Formal specification is one way to support the development of correct and robust dynamic software architectures. In this paper we present a survey of 14 dynamic software architecture specification approaches. Our goal is to focus on the ability of each approach to specify self-managing architectures. First, we determine if each specification approach supports our definition of a self-managing architecture. Second, we evaluate each approach with respect to the expressiveness of the approach in specifying different types of change and different levels of change from a fixed selection approach to an unconstrained approach. Third, we compare the scalability of the approaches to specify decentralized management schemes which are more likely in large-scale systems. After evaluating all of the specification approaches we use the results to make recommendations on how formal specification approaches for dynamic software systems in general, and self-managing in particular, can be improved.

Related work to our survey includes several papers that have surveyed Architecture Description Languages (ADLs) and provided broad comparisons [6, 18]. The survey in [6] compared ADLs on attributes related to scope of language, expressive power, tool maturity, and others. The survey in [18] compared ADLs in terms of their ability to model components, connectors and configuration as well as tool support for such things as analysis and refinement. Our work differs from previous work in that we consider only formal specification approaches and provide a narrower comparison, focusing on the ability of each approach to specify self-managing architectures. The previous approaches have not focused on self-managing architectures. In fact, only the survey in [18] even considers run-time evolution in its evaluation.

In Section 2 we will provide an overview of formal specification for dynamic software architecture including some details regarding the 14 specification approaches surveyed. In Section 3 we
will evaluate the ability of each specification approach to support
self-management and address expressiveness and scalability. The
information presented in this section was gathered from published
research papers and our own experience using each approach. Fi-
nally, we conclude and discuss future work in Section 4.

2. FORMAL SPECIFICATION

Formal approaches to dynamic software architectures involve
the specification of the architectural structure of a system, the
architectural reconfiguration of a system, and usually the behavior
of a system. The formal approaches to specifying dynamic soft-
ware architectures that we consider are divided into four categories:
graph-based approaches, process algebra approaches, logic-based
approaches, and other approaches.

Graph-Based Approaches. A natural way to specify software
architectures and architectural styles is to use a graph grammar to
represent the style and a graph to represent a specific system’s ar-
chitecture. Furthermore, a natural way to specify reconfiguration
in a dynamic architecture is to use graph rewriting rules. We in-
clude the following graph-based approaches in our survey: the Le
Métaier approach [28, 29], and the Aguirre-Métaier approach [19, 20], the Hirsch et al. approach [13], the
Taentzer et al. approach [25], ComaUtrvry approach [28, 29], and Chemical Abstract Machine (CHAM) approach [27].

Process Algebra Approaches. Process algebras are commonly
used to study concurrent systems. Processes in the concurrent sys-
tem are specified in an algebra and a calculus is used to verify the
specification. A variety of process algebras exist including the Cal-
culus of Communicating Systems (CCS), Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP), and the π-calculus. We consider four pro-
cess algebra approaches in this paper: Dynamic Wright [2], Dar-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Architectural Structure</th>
<th>Architectural Element Behavior</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architectural Style</td>
<td>System Architecture</td>
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<td>Dynamic Wright</td>
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<td>Darwin</td>
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<td>LEDA</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>Pilar</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Le Métaier</td>
<td>context-free graph grammar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aguirre-Métaier</td>
<td>context-free graph grammar</td>
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<tr>
<td>ZCL</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2ADEL</td>
<td>only supports the C2 arch. style</td>
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<tr>
<td>RAPIDE</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Support for structure, behavior, and reconfiguration in formal specification approaches for dynamic software architectures
3. SUPPORT FOR SELF-MANAGEMENT

All dynamic architectural changes have four steps (see Figure 1): initiation of change (➀), selection of architectural transformation (➁), implementation of reconfiguration (➂), and assessment of architecture after reconfiguration (➃).

We defined a self-managing architecture as an architecture in which the entire change process occurs internally. We determine which specification approaches support self-management by considering if the initiation of the change occurs internal to the software. In all of the approaches, if the initiation occurs internally then the selection and other steps of the change process can also be specified internally. Internal initiation usually involves monitors that provide the run-time information on which self-management decisions are based. Monitors are not specified explicitly in the surveyed approaches.

An example of an approach that supports internal initiation is the Le Métayer approach which provides this support through side conditions in the rewriting rules. For example, consider the rule given in [20]

\[ C(c), c.\text{leave}=\text{true}, CR(c,m), CA(m,c) \rightarrow \emptyset \]

which removes a component c and two connectors CR and CA. The side condition c.\text{leave}=\text{true} in this rule refers to a public variable \text{leave} in a component c being true. The rewriting rule can only be applied when this side condition is satisfied.

Of the 14 specification approaches surveyed, we evaluated each approach to see if it supported internal initiation, external initiation (e.g. external user), or both. 11 of the approaches explicitly allowed for internal initiation (see Table 2). In all of the tables in this paper we distinguish between criteria that are supported by the specification explicitly (•), supported externally by a tool or infrastructure (⊙), not supported (○), support unknown (?), and not applicable (-). We include the notion of a criterion being not applicable because not every specification approach can be classified perfectly using our criteria. We also include support unknown because despite our best efforts we were occasionally unable to discern how all of the approaches fit. For example, we were unable to determine the location of the initiation of the change process in the Taentzer et al. approach. In Sections 3.1 and 3.2 we will only discuss the approaches that explicitly support internal initiation since these are approaches that satisfy our definition of self-management. Details regarding the approaches that have been omitted can be found in [4].

### 3.1 Expressiveness

Our definition of a self-managing architecture includes systems with very limited forms of self-management. However, in many systems increased expressiveness is desirable. The ability of a system to manage its own architecture is, in general, limited by the types of changes it can make and the freedom to choose the appropriate change. We will now survey the expressiveness provided by different specification approaches in the context of these limitations.

#### 3.1.1 Types of Change

The types of change that a self-managing system can make are limited at the architectural level by the reconfiguration operations that are available. For example, if a system can only add connectors but not components it is limited in the ways it addresses reconfiguration needs. In the context of change type we consider the ability of each approach to specify basic reconfiguration operations (the addition and removal of components and connectors) and composite reconfiguration operations (see Table 3).

Our comparison shows that the majority of approaches support all of the basic change operations. For example, RAPIDE has one execution architecture event type for each of the basic operations:
CreateModule(...);
DeleteModule(module : Event);
CreatePathway(...);
DeletePathway(pathway : Event);

Approaches that did not support all of the basic operations include two of the process algebra approaches (Darwin, LEDA) that do not allow for the removal of architectural elements. The limitation in these approaches appears to be a result of high-level design decisions, not limitations of the underlying formalism. For example, Darwin was originally designed as a configuration language to be used for distributed systems and the removal of components in such a system can still occur at the programming language level.

In composite reconfiguration operations we consider not only the ability to add or remove subsystems or groups of architectural elements but also the constructs that can be used in specifying the operation (e.g., sequencing, choice, and iteration). Almost all of the approaches considered provide support for composite operations. However, only a few of the approaches provide full support for composite operation constructs such as sequencing, choice, and iteration. The scripts used in CosmUsry and Gerel both provide these constructs. Consider, for example, a bank architecture in which connectors link customers (c) to their accounts (a). The following CosmUsry script uses iteration to replace all VIP connectors (which allow overdrafts) by standard connectors (which do not) between a given account and the owners of the account.

```plaintext
script RestoreStandard
  prv i: record(c:Customer; co:VIP)
  for i in match {c:Customer: co:VIP | co(c,a)} loop
    remove i.co;
    create standard(i.c, a);
  end loop
end script
```

### Table 3: Reconfiguration operations support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Reconfiguration Operations</th>
<th>Composite Operations</th>
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<td>Component Removal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Connector Add</td>
<td>Connector Removal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instance Add</td>
<td>Basic Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteration</td>
<td>Sequencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choice</td>
<td>Iteration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Component Removal</th>
<th>Connector Add</th>
<th>Connector Removal</th>
<th>Basic Support</th>
<th>Iteration</th>
<th>Sequencing</th>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>Iteration</th>
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### 3.1.2 Selection

The ability to select different changes also provides increased expressiveness to self-managing systems. We distinguish between three levels of selection that a specification approach may support:

1. **Pre-defined Selection**: Once a dynamic change has been initiated, a change operation is chosen based on a pre-defined selection made prior to run-time.

2. **Constrained Selection from a Pre-defined Set**: Once a dynamic change has been initiated there is some choice in what operation to use. For example, a set of operations may be defined prior to run-time for a given situation or state. The system, upon reaching the situation, will select the appropriate change operation from the set.

3. **Unconstrained Selection**: Once dynamic change has been initiated there is an unconstrained choice regarding the appropriate change to make.

None of the approaches classified in this paper support unconstrained run-time selection, which provides the greatest level of expressiveness (see Table 4). The selection in most approaches is limited. Specifically, most approaches use a selection approach where one reconfiguration is pre-defined for a given situation. The exceptions include the graph rewriting approaches which allow for random selection of a reconfiguration, namely when multiple left hand sides of change rules match part of the current architecture.

An example of constrained selection from a pre-defined set in which the selection is not based on a non-deterministic choice, can be found in LEDA. Consider the following partial definition of a client-server system (originally given in [5]):

```plaintext
component DynamicClientServer {
  interface none;
  composition client: Client;
  server[2]: Server;
  attachments client request(r)<>
    if (server[1].n <= server[2].n)
      then server[1].serve(r);
    else server[2].serve(r);
}
```

### Table 4: Selection support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selection</th>
<th>Pre-defined</th>
<th>Constrained from Pre-defined set</th>
<th>Unconstrained</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graph</td>
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<td>PILar</td>
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<td>Gerel</td>
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<td>CosmUsry</td>
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</table>

Table 4: Selection support
hand, for those readers who are familiar with the literature on software architecture specification we provide details on the ability of existing approaches to specify self-management. We are currently working on a journal version of this paper that will include all of the details about the approaches omitted from this paper due to space constraints. The journal version will also include additional classification dimensions not discussed in this paper.

For each specification approach, we consider basic support for self-management by evaluating the ability of the approach to specify systems in which a change is initiated internally. Additionally, we evaluate each approach in terms of expressiveness (ability to support multiple change types and selection approaches) and scalability (ability to support distributed management).

Our survey shows that the area of dynamic software architecture specification is well researched. There exist a lot of different sometimes conflicting notations, concepts, and definitions. Most of the approaches surveyed do reasonably well at answering questions dealing with the implementation of the change, such as “Given system x, what happens when change y occurs?”

However, a large number of the approaches support only limited forms of self-management. In the context of expressiveness, the results of our survey are mixed. On the one hand, many of the approaches support all of the basic operations as well as some form of composite operations. On the other hand, many of the approaches do not allow for more expressive selection to be specified. Selection is an important step in the dynamic architectural change process and needs to be better specified to enable more meaningful analysis. In the context of scalability many of the approaches do not consider distributed management schemes thus limiting the types and size of systems that can be specified.

To summarize, current approaches do a good job with specifying basic support for self-managing architectures. However, the approaches need to be adapted and updated to address the current limitations in terms of both expressiveness and scalability. An interesting example of this kind of work is the recent extension of Darwin. In [12], the traditional Darwin approach, surveyed in this paper, is extended by specifying Darwin architectures using a constraint-based approach in the Alloy modelling language. The extension is expressive in the selection of appropriate changes, provides scalability by supporting distributed management, and provides automatic analysis using the Alloy constraint analyzer.

5. REFERENCES


