TRACEABILITY MECHANISM FOR ERROR LOCALIZATION IN MODEL TRANSFORMATION

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Abstract: Model Driven Engineering (MDE) introduces the model paradigm as the basis of system design. It increases reusability in the development of complex systems. Nevertheless, with this new paradigm, traditional issues such as system debugging or system evolution management have to be performed in a different way. Existing techniques require to be adapted. We have shown the feasibility of traceability to solve these issues. However, system debugging can only be undertaken if the developer trusts the compiler. In MDE, the compiler is a transformation chain. It is hence important to test the transformations and possibly to debug them. In this paper, we demonstrate that our traceability mechanism coupled to our error localization algorithm eases the transformation test. Indeed, it highlights the succession of rule that leads to a faulty output element. This approach is illustrated in the context of embedded system development.

1 INTRODUCTION

Model Driven Engineering (MDE) proposes to use models as main artifacts in the life cycle of complex systems. Thus model transformation becomes the skeleton of the system development by helping to shift from a model to another or to re-factor a model. The outputs of a transformation can also be the inputs of another one defining a chain.

During the development phase of complex system various types of errors can be encountered: those concerning the compiler and those concerning the system itself. In an MDE approach, the first refer to the definition of the transformation whereas the last correspond to the generated system. Furthermore, as systems may evolve, they imply changes in different sub-parts to lead to a new stable configuration. Even if these issues are common to any system, they require a specific management when a model driven development approach is used.

Traceability is potentially relevant to help designers to solve these issues. It is usually used to link the requirements to the implementation artifacts. However, traceability allows one to establish degrees of relationship between products of a development process, especially products bound by a predecessor-successor or master-subordinate relationship (IEEE, 1991). Regarding MDE and more specifically model transformations, the traceability mechanism links elements of different models in order to specify elements useful to generate others. Those links can also be used to analyze impacts of model evolutions onto other models in the transformations chain. Finally, it is reasonable to consider traceability as a bridge between the business and the transformation world, if the transformation rules are explicitly associated to the links. Business is so materialized by the models useful to generate the system.

We have already defined a traceability algorithm based on two metamodels (Glitia et al., 2008). One captures the trace relative to a single transformation. The other manages the relationships all along the transformation chain. These metamodels are rich enough to support algorithms dedicated to the resolution of the previously cited issues. In (Glitia et al., 2008), this traceability mechanism underlines links between an element and the elements of numerous models involved in its generation. This helps both system debugging and alternative design explorations. In this paper, we focus on error localization in model transformation and we propose an algorithm based on our traceability metamodels. From a given generated element, our approach identifies the rule sequence of each intermediate transformation of the complete transformation chain. Tests identify incorrect parts of the produced model. Then, the erroneous
rule which causes this failure is detected. We have successfully applied this algorithm on a case study.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents existing traceability solutions in MDE. Section 3 gives different ways to exploit trace. In section 4, the trace metamodels are introduced and the use of the trace models for faulty transformation rules identification is described. Section 5 presents our approach with a case study based on a QVT transformation. Finally, we conclude the paper and suggest future works in section 6.

2 RELATED WORK

In MDE, many solutions for traceability are proposed in the literature (Galvao and Goknil, 2007), (Reshef et al., 2006), each of them responding to specific needs of projects.

MDE has as main principle that everything is a model, so the trace information is stored as models (Jouault, 2005). Classically, two main approaches exist. The first focuses on the addition of trace information on the source or target model (Velegrakis et al., 2005). The major drawback of this solution is that it pollutes the models with additional information and it requires the metamodels adaptation in order to take into account traceability. However it produces the most comprehensive traces. The second solution focuses on the storage of the trace as an independent model. Using a separate trace model with a specific semantics has the advantage of keeping trace information independent of original models (Jouault, 2005). To deal with the advantage of these two techniques, a solution consist on the possibility to merge on-demand the trace model with the transformation source or target model (Kolovos et al., 2006).

Collecting the trace information can be easily performed during the transformation execution since this only incurs a small cost (Vanhooff et al., 2007). Indeed the trace model is thus viewed as an additional target model. For this reason, trace generation could be manually implemented in transformations to produce an additional trace target model or it can be supported by the transformation engine (Czarnecki and Helsen, 2006). In (Jouault, 2005), an automatic generation of trace code into rule code is presented, based on the fact that transformation programs are models that could be transformed into another model that contains trace code. Nevertheless, these solutions impose to inject code in transformation rules or transformation engine. To remain the less intrusive as possible, Amar et al. propose another technique using aspect programming (Amar et al., 2008). Regrettably, for the moment, this solution cannot be used with every transformation languages.

Once the trace is generated, the main interest for the user is to have access to the information he needs. However, in case of transformations chain, the trace models relying only on the two concepts Element and Link, which are produced during the transformations, are not enough. One solution is to add the concept of Step, referring to a transformation, in the trace model such as in the trace mechanism of Kermeta (Falleri et al., 2006). Traceability links are gathered by step (i.e. by transformation) what thus allows to manage transformation chains. An other solution is to externalize the navigation between initial models and trace models of a whole transformation chain in another model, called megamodel. It refers to the traceability in the large, whereas model to model transformations refer to a traceability in the small (Barbero et al., 2007).

3 USING TRACEABILITY IN MODEL DRIVEN ENGINEERING

In the introduction, we identified three different issues that can be encountered in the development of complex systems: fix the system itself, fix the transformations generating the system and manage the impact of evolutions on the whole system. We have suggested that a traceability mechanism can solve these issues. In this section, we show that, while remaining in MDE, each of these purposes requires different traceability information.

3.1 Needed Trace Information

When an error in the generated system is found or when an unexpected behavior is observed, the system has to be fixed. For this purpose, the elements of the input models that engender the (or one of the) incorrect element(s) have to be identified. Such information are at the heart of any traceability mechanism and are materialized by links between source elements and target elements. These can also be used to analyze the impact of the input model evolutions on the output model and to propagate these changes. However, when the system evolves, the transformation may also evolve. To overcome this issue, the rule engendering a traceability link must be associated to it. Furthermore, the traceability mechanism has to be adapted to the model driven development reality. Indeed, complex systems do not rely on a single trans-
formation but on one or several transformation chain. Therefore traceability should support relationships all along the chain.

As a first conclusion, we have demonstrated that links between source and target elements are not enough to build an efficient traceability mechanism dedicated to system fixing and system evolution. Information relative to the transformation rules and allowing the navigation in the transformation chain are required.

It can be noticed that fixing the system can be performed only if we are confident in the transformations that generate it. In the following subsection, we focus on using traceability in transformation test and show that information relative to the input/output elements relationships, transformation rules and navigation in the transformations chain are, in that case, also required.

### 3.2 Trace Exploitation for Model Transformation Testing

In this subsection, we briefly present the transformation test and then we show how trace can be used in this context.

#### 3.2.1 Model Transformation Testing

By automating critical operations in system development, model transformations are time and effort saving. However, they may also introduce additional errors if they are faulty. Therefore, systematic and effective testing of transformations is necessary to prevent the production of erroneous models.

Several problems need to be solved when tackling model transformation testing. First, we need to detect the presence of errors by observing wrong execution of the model transformation. Corresponding challenges are efficient test data production and observation of error in the system. We then have to locate the error in the transformation and to fix it. Figure 1 sketches the test transformation process and associates its different parts to the corresponding test problematics.

Efficient test data production and error observation are challenges out of this paper scope. Nevertheless, we briefly illustrate them. In this paper, we focus on error localization.

Transformations manipulate models, which are very complex data structures. This makes the problems of test data generation, selection, and qualification, as well as error observation very difficult.

Test data generation consists in building models conform to the input metamodel. Their number is potentially infinite so the first challenge is to define criteria for test data generation (Fleurey et al., 2007). Then, the resulting test models set has to be qualified, depending on their coverage of the input domain or on their ability to detect potential errors.

Error observation relies on the detection of an error in a model produced by the transformation. In (Mottu et al., 2008) we proposed an approach based on the construction of oracles. The oracle checks the validity of the output model resulting from the transformation of one test model. It relies either on properties between elements of the input and output models or properties only concerning the output model. These properties have to be formalized and must cover the whole metamodels. Defining oracles is difficult since human intervention is required. Indeed, extracting information to produce oracle from the model transformation requirements cannot be automatized.

#### 3.2.2 Error Localization in Model Transformation

Errors observed in the output model can concern: wrong property value, additional/missing class, etc. They result from errors in the transformation. Where are they and what are they, are two questions that remain unanswered.

The error can be everywhere in the transformation. Its detection is easier if the search field is reduced to the faulty rule, i.e., the rule that creates the incorrect element (or doesn’t create an expected element) in the output model. Once the error localized in the transformation, in order to fix it, the input model elements leading to this incorrect output element have to be identified.

Finally, due to the non-exhaustiveness of test and the complexity of building oracles, test of a single transformation can be missed at the expense of test of the whole transformation chain.
4 TRACEABILITY METAMODELS DESCRIPTION

To solve the problems we want manage (e.g. system debugging, transformation debugging, design alternative exploration...), we have defined our own trace approach (Glitia et al., 2008). This approach provides a traceability in the small and in the large (Barbero et al., 2007), which we refer as local and global traceability respectively. It relies on two metamodels: the Local Trace metamodel corresponding to the model to model traceability and the Global Trace metamodel helping in the global navigation. These two metamodels are completely independent from the transformation language and can even be used with various languages. Only the trace generation changes. Our traceability mechanism allows users to trace elements all along a transformation chain where each transformation may be written in different languages.

4.1 Local Trace Metamodel

The Local Trace metamodel is used to capture the traces between the input and the output of one transformation. The metamodel is based on the trace metamodel presented in (Jouault, 2005). Figure 2 shows the Local Trace metamodel.

The Local Trace metamodel contains two main concepts: Link and ElementRef expressing that one or more source elements are possibly bound to target elements. Those concepts are the same as in (Jouault, 2005). All the other concepts have been added to provide a finer and more complete trace. In our metamodel ElementRef is an abstract class representing model elements that can be traced (i.e. properties and classes). Property values referring to a primitive types like Integer, Double, String etc. are traced using PrimitivePropertyRef. Properties typed by a class are traced by Classifier.

More information is needed in order to trace the transformation rules and black-boxes. The rule producing the link is traced using the RuleRef concept. A rule can be associated to several links, so the association is many to one between RuleRef and Link. The RuleRef concept is optional and doesn’t need to be generated if it is not used. In case of error localization such information is definitively useful. Black-Boxses are special kind of rules: producing some output model elements from input model elements. So, they can be traced with Link. The treatment performed by a black-box may be externalized (such as a native library call) but in every case is opaque to the designers. We take care to differentiate black-boxes and rules since test only deals with rules. The BlackBox concept is a subclass of RuleRef. Both establish a bridge with the transformation world.

An ElementRef refers to the real element (EObject) of the input (resp. output) model instantiating the ECore metamodel. The LocalTrace concept represents the root of the Local Trace model. It contains possibly one RulesContainer and several ElementsContainers (one for each source (respectively destination) models), gathering RuleRefs and ElementRefs, respectively. Separating sources and targets elements helps in reducing the cost of search of input or output elements.

4.2 Global Trace Metamodel

The Global Trace model (Glitia et al., 2008; Barbero et al., 2007) links together the local traces following the transformation chain. Thus, the Global Trace model ensure the navigation from local trace models to transformed models and reciprocally as well as between transformed models. The global trace can also be used to identify the local trace associated to a source or destination model.

It also provides a clear separation of trace infor-
mation, which leads to a better flexibility for trace creation and exploitation. Without this global trace all traceability links of the whole transformation chain are gathered in a unique trace model.

Figure 3 shows the global trace metamodel. Each TraceModel produced during a transformation and referring to a LocalTrace, binds two sets of LocalModels. These are shared out transformations, indicating that they are produced by one transformation and consumed by another. The GlobalTrace concept represents the root of the model.

![Figure 3: Global Trace Metamodel.](image)

### 4.3 Trace Generation

The proposed metamodels are completely language independent. However trace generation requires information contained in the transformation and so relies on the transformation language. Whatever the transformation language, the trace generation is a two steps algorithm. The first step corresponds to the production of a local trace for each transformation and the second, to the generation of the global trace specifying the transformation chain.

In the following, we only focus on the trace generation from transformation written in QVTO (Borland, 2007), an implementation of the standard QVT language (Object Management Group, Inc., 2007).

The local trace generation has to be, if possible, non-intrusive in the transformation code or in the engine. The execution of the QVTO transformations uses a trace mechanism to store a mapping between model elements and to resolve reference. This trace is relatively complex and dedicated to the transformation execution. However, it gathers the information useful to generate the local trace models conformed to our local trace metamodel. In particular, it refers the source elements, their associated target elements and the rule used to produce the latter from the former. The produced QVTO trace is transformed into a local trace.

The global trace production is based on information relative to the generated local traces. From the local traces, the transformation sequence can be rebuilt. Indeed, the models never appearing as output models in any local traces are the start models. From these models and traces, the other can be deduced.

If the transformation languages evolve, only the local trace generation may be impacted. Indeed, this latter directly relies on the used transformation language, whereas the global trace is build from the local traces.

### 4.4 Error Localization Algorithm

Our error localization algorithm requires that an error has been beforehand observed in an output model. The transformation producing this model contains errors. Our algorithm aims to reduce the investigation field by highlighting the rule sequences which lead to the observed error.

Our algorithm is based on the following hypothesis. Let us consider two elements A and B of the output model created by the rules toA() and toB() respectively. If A references B through an association, it assumes that the rule toA() calls the rule toB() or makes an operation to reference B.

In case of an erroneous property (e.g. with an unexpected value) in an element, the faulty rule is easily identified. It corresponds to the RuleRef coupled to the Link associated to the ElementRef referring the selected element. In case of an error on an element (e.g. added or missing), the faulty rule is one which calls the last rule involved in the creation of the selected element. Causes can be a missing or misplace rule call.

We detail the algorithm in the second case:

1. select the faulty element and identify the model to which it belongs
2. from the Global Trace model, recover the Local Trace model whose the previously identified model is one of the output models
3. look for the ElementRef corresponding to the selected element in the local trace destContainer
4. recover the RuleRef associated to the ElementRef by navigating through the trace links,
5. store the RuleRef and the eObject type
6. search, in the destContainer, the ElementRef which have their eObject linked by an association to the eObject corresponding to the ElementRef identified in step 3
7. apply recursively the algorithm from step 3 on each element found in step 4

The recursive call stops when no direct linked eObject can be found in step 6. The rule is called by no other one; it is an entry point of the transformation. Technically, it is materialized by the storage of a null pointer.
Thus, the algorithm results in a kind of tree representing the successions of rules producing the selected element. It has been applied with success on transformations written with different transformation languages (QVTO and a Java API).

5 CASE STUDY

Debugging transformations, even if they are simple, is often a tough job. As soon as we operate a scale-up, this task becomes unmanageable. In this section, we illustrate how our approach eases transformation debugging in the Gaspard2 environment by automating the error localization.

5.1 Overview

Gaspard (DaRT Team, 2009) is a co-design environment for Embedded Systems. In this environment, the hardware architecture and the application are separately designed at a high level of abstraction using UML enriched with the MARTE profile (Object Management Group, 2007) dedicated to modeling and analysis of real time and embedded system. In order to generate code that will be used for hardware-software co-simulation, functional verification or circuitry synthesis, several intermediate metamodels representing different levels of abstraction have been specified. Each metamodel introduces new concepts more platform-dependent. Transformations between these metamodels have been written in order to automatically produce intermediate models and generate code. Thus several transformations chains have been defined; one per targeted platform. Figure 4 shows an overview of the MDE skeleton of the Gaspard environment by specifying the metamodels and languages in presence and the transformations between them (Gamatié et al., 2008).

In this case study, we only focus on a single transformation from the MARTE metamodel to the Deployed metamodel. This transformation is written with QVTO. The MARTE metamodel contains around 80 metaclasses whereas the output metamodel is in fact decomposed into five metamodels and contains around 60 metaclasses.

The main idea is to test this transformation on an input test model and, for example using an oracle in order to observe an error on the produced model. The oracle checks, among others, that any model produced by the transformation from the MARTE to the Deployed metamodel has a unique root. This root is a DeploymentSpecificationModel instance has been produced from an instance of the MARTE Model metaclass.

5.2 Illustration of the Localization Algorithm

Using our localization algorithm and from the error reported by the oracle, we can debug more precisely the transformation. First, the models corresponding to the local and the global traces, have to be generated.

The top of Figure 5 shows a fragment of the output model. It contains several roots whose some (the PortImplementedBy) are not instance of the Downscaler:DeploymentSpecificationModel. An error on an element is thus detected in the transformation. We apply our error localization algorithm on one of the output model “misplaced” elements in order to high-
light the rule sequence and identify the faulty rule.

Figure 6 shows a sketch of the output model and its associated traces. The algorithm begins with the selection of a PortImplementedBy element. For example, we select the \texttt{pi1:PortImplementedBy} element that belongs to the deploy.gaspard2 model. The local trace associated to this model is recovered using the global trace model.

In the \texttt{lt1:LocalTrace}, \texttt{cr2:ClassRef:ElementRef} corresponds to the \texttt{pi1:PortImplementedBy}. Navigating through the \texttt{l2:Link} associated to \texttt{cr2:ClassRef}, the \texttt{toImplementedBy:RuleRef} rule is identified and stored. Then, ElementRefs are scanned to identify elements linked to \texttt{pi1:PortImplementedBy}. Here, neither the deploy.gaspard2 model nor other models produced by the transformation own elements linked through an association (including compositions) to the \texttt{pi1:PortImplementedBy}. So, this step returns nothing, the \texttt{toImplementedBy:RuleRef} rule is not called by another rule. Thus a null pointer is stored and the algorithm stops executing. The produced rule calls tree contains only two elements: the \texttt{RuleRef} named \texttt{toPortImplementedBy} associated to the type of the eObject on which it is applied; (PortImplements) and the null pointer.

Figure 6: Excerpt of the output model, of the local and the global trace models.

In Figure 7 we present a piece of the QVTO transformation code illustrating that the rule is called by the main function (line 77). The code of the rule itself corresponds to line 1698 to 1705.

The precedent analysis leads to the conclusion that the \texttt{toPortImplementedBy} rule may be called by another rule or a reference is missing in a rule. Further analysis can be done by manually specifying an expected output model (top of Figure 5) corresponding to the input model. Comparing the generated output model to this new one, we can see that the Deployment-Model contains PortImplementedBy elements. So the rule call should be moved from the main entry point to the rule which creates the DeploymentModel element.

The example developed here is quite simple, but

```
72. main()
73. {
74.   --
75.   deploy_objects(Xm1Deployment::PortImplementedBy),
76.   --
77.   deploy_objects(Xm2Deployment::PortImplementedBy),
78.   --
79.   ...
80.   }
```

```
1698. mapping/mainDeployment::PortImplementedBy::toPortImplementedBy():
1699.   Gaspard::PortImplementedBy@gaspardDeployment
1700.   when {
1701.     self.target.resolveC(gaspard2::Port)->isInstance()
1702.   }
1703.   }
1704.   portImplementation = self.source
1705.   resolveC(PortImplementation);
```

Figure 7: QVTO Transformation Excerpt.

illustrates the easiness to identify a faulty rule in a huge transformation (more than 2000 lines of code). This algorithm has to be used in the context of a transformation test. It requires the results of the test generation and the errors observation steps. It reduces the field of potential faulty rule to the only rules involved in an element creation. Thus, using this approach, we have reduced the search field for the previous example to one rule.

5.3 Error Localization in Transformation Chain

The algorithm presented in section 4.4 is dedicated to error localization in a single transformation, but we develop a variation adapted to transformation chain. Not only the successive rules are stored but also any element of the input model that was useful to the creation of the faulty output element. The algorithm is then again applied on each of these elements. The final result is a set of rules corresponding to the set of potential faulty rules on the whole transformation. For sake of space we do not illustrate this algorithm which has nevertheless be successfully implemented and used with the Gaspard transformation chain.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

In this paper, we have proposed a traceability based mechanism to locate errors in a single model transformation or a transformation chain. It reduces the investigation field to the rules called to create an output element identified as erroneous in a preliminary test phase. The localization is based on three main parts, an error observed in an output model, our trace models and the localization algorithm. The error can
be pointed out by an oracle whereas the traces give the support for the localization algorithm.

As the algorithm is based on our traces metamodels, it is purely language independent and can be reused for any transformation languages as long as the local and the global trace are generated. For the experimentation, we use our approach on transformation written in QVTO. It has also been successfully tested on transformations using a dedicated Java API. Our approach has shown its efficiency on the transformation chains of the Gaspard framework. A qualitative and quantitative study is in progress.

Currently, the localization gives a set of potential faulty rules. To exactly determine the faulty rule, the set returned by the algorithm must be manually analyzed. This final step can be automatized by introducing new oracle answers. Indeed, with some additional information, we could, little by little, reduce the search field to a faulty rule and find the rule to modify.

In this paper, we only deal with model to model transformation. We are currently working on the management of traceability in model to text transformation. The local trace metamodel has to be enhanced with the specificities of code generation. The adaptation of the error algorithm may be more complex since model to text transformations are rarely decomposed into rules.

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