Improving Automatic Test Case Generation Process with Knowledge Engineering in the Crystal Project

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Abstract. Recent research advances have brought to a growing interest from both academic and industrial communities in the improvement of existing engineering processes by means of model-driven techniques. This method is starting to demonstrate its effectiveness by raising the level of abstraction and by improving the level of automation of traditional processes. One of these applications is related to V&V processes and in particular to the generation of system level test cases for critical systems. This chapter investigates the possibility to further improve such process by exploiting synergies between model-driven techniques and knowledge engineering ones. This work is developed in the context of Crystal, an EU Artemis funded research project, and focuses on a specific part of its framework. The proposed approaches are demonstrated by means of a case study in the field of railway signalling system.

1 Introduction

Ontologies constitute formal models of some aspect of the world that may be used for drawing interesting logical conclusions even for large models. Software models capture relevant characteristics of a software artefact to be developed. Most often these software models have no formal semantics, or the underlying (often graphical) software language varies from case to case in a way that makes it hard if not impossible to fix its semantics. In this context, ontology-based metamodels constitute a core means for exploiting expressive ontology reasoning in the software modelling domain while remaining flexible enough to accommodate varying needs of software modellers [1]. With this aim, the four-layer modelling architecture provides the basis for formally defining software modelling languages and some open challenges can be recognised: semantics of modelling languages often is not defined explicitly but hidden in modelling tools; to fix a specific formal semantics for metamodels, it should be defined precisely in the metamodel specification; the syntactic correctness of models is often analysed implicitly using procedural checks of the modelling tools; to make well-formedness constraints more explicit, they should be defined precisely in the metamodel specification. Ontologies and the related languages to represent them can be used to improve the expressive power of software metamodels.
In the last two decades, ontological aspects of information have acquired a strategic value. These aspects are intrinsically independent from information codification, so the information itself may be isolated, recovered, organised and integrated with respect to its content [2]. A formal definition of ontology is proposed in [3], according to whom "an ontology is an explicit and formal specification of a shared conceptualisation; conceptualisation is referred to as an abstract model of specified reality in which the component concepts are identified; explicit means that the type of concepts used and the constraints on them are well defined; formal refers to the ontology property of being “machine-readable”; shared is about the property of an ontology of capturing the consensual knowledge, accepted to a group of person, not only to a single one.

A basic step in the knowledge engineering process is the use of “tools” to represent knowledge, both for inferring and organising it. From this point of view, one of the most important advances in the knowledge representation (KR) applications is derived from proposing [4], studying [5–7] and developing [8–10] languages based on the specification of objects (concepts) and the relationships among them. The main features of all KR languages are the following:

(i) **object-orientedness**, for which all the information about a specific concept is stored in the concept itself (in contrast, for example, to rule-based systems;

(ii) **generalization/specialisation** are basic aspects of the human cognition process [4], the KR languages have mechanisms to cluster concepts into hierarchies where higher-level concepts represent more general attributes than the lower-level ones, which inherit the general concept attributes but are more specific, presenting additional features of their own;

(iii) **reasoning** is the capability to infer the existence of information not explicitly declared by the existence of a given statement;

(iv) **classification** in which given an abstract description of a concept, there are mechanisms to determine whether a concept can have this description; this feature is a special form of reasoning.

Object orientation and generalization/specialisation help human users in understanding the represented knowledge; reasoning and classification guide an automatic system in building a knowledge representation, as the system knows what it is going to represent.

Moreover, we argue that when a KR formalism is constrained in such a way that its intended models are made explicit, it can be classified as belonging to the ontological level [11] introduced in the distinctions proposed in [7], where KR languages are classified according to the kinds of primitives offered to the user.

In recent years, several languages have been proposed to represent ontologies. These languages have a different expressive power and, starting from some considerations from previous authors’ works [12, 13], it is our opinion that OWL [14] is the best language for the purpose of the proposed approach.

OWL 2, the web ontology language, is a W3C recommendation with a very comprehensive set of constructs for concept definitions and allow for specifying formal models of domains. Generally speaking, ontologies are conceptual models, that can be described by OWL. Based on its underlying formal semantics and different services could be provided. They vary between satisfiability checking at the model layer, checking the
consistency of instances with regard to the model, or classifying instances (finding their possible types) with regard to instance and type descriptions. Since ontology languages are described by metamodels and allow for describing structural and behavioural models, they provide the capability to combine them with software modelling languages. In our framework we want use ontologies to support the definition of software modelling language semantics and provide the definition of syntactic constraints.

A second concern that is at the base of this Chapter is a growing need coming from industrial settings to introduce advanced modelling approaches into existing development processes. This need is raised not only by industries more prone to innovation in ICT but also by the manufacture industries where the development processes are well assessed and where managers are less prone to change them. Model-Driven Engineering (MDE) [15] is starting to be applied in this contexts; notwithstanding the absence of universally accepted standard processes, it is still one of the most promising techniques to improve productivity. By means of model-driven techniques both requirements elicitation and analysis, design space exploration and verification & validation phases of a product/service life-cycle can be improved: this can be accomplished by processes built upon the two pillars of the MDE:

(i) **metamodelling**, which allows the structure of a domain in terms of abstract and concrete domain models with textual/graphical languages as well as by extending existing languages (e.g., UML profiling mechanism);

(ii) **model transformation**, by means of which it is possible to automatically generate artifacts that can code (as in Model Driven Software Development) as well as further models (e.g., Petri Nets, Bayesian Networks, etc.).

From all the industrial sectors and the development phases that may be improved in this way, this work is focused on verification processes in railway signalling systems. In particular we focus on automated testing processes (at system level) as a way to improve the quality/safety of the product and to reduce costs and time. Several research works proposes improvements of this specific topic by means of model-driven approaches (a great part of this work are framed into the Model-Driven Testing - MDT).

Due to the high number of common aspects between KR and MDE approaches, the objective of this work is to explore the synergies between these two worlds on the specific problem of automated testing process. A mixed KR-MDE approach of the entire system testing process is defined with enabling techniques as well as present issues. This ongoing work is framed into the ARTEMIS Joint Undertaking project CRYSTAL (CRitical sYSTem engineering AcceLeration) [16] that will be further described in the next sections.

The Chapter is structured as follows: Section 2 presents the CRYSTAL project while Section 3 focuses on the specific Use Case of this work. Section 4 describes the overall approach of KR-MDE integration in the improvement of automated testing process and Section 5 details an aspect of the entire process. Section 6 draws conclusions and future developments.
2 An overview of the Crystal Project

CRYSTAL takes up the challenge to establish and push forward an Interoperability Specification (IOS) and a Reference Technology Platform (RTP) as a European standard for safety-critical systems. CRYSTAL is strongly industry-oriented and will provide ready-to-use integrated tool chains having a mature technology-readiness-level. Figure 1 depicts this overview.

To achieve technical innovations (“technology bricks”), CRYSTAL adopts a user-driven approach based on applying engineering methods to industrially relevant Use Cases from the automotive, aerospace, rail and health-care sectors [17] and increases the maturity of existing concepts developed in previous European and national projects like CESAR [18], iFEST [19], MBAT [20]. Moreover several product life-cycle or project management phases/concerns are used to group together similar research task in the Crystal project. They are: analysis tools, safety tools, AUTOSAR tools, heterogeneous simulations, product life-cycle management, multi viewpoint engineering, variability management, SW development life-cycle, validation models and simulation models.

Figure 1. The Crystal Overview (http://www.crystal-artemis.eu).

Four cross domain technologies cut the entire space of domains and of development life-cycle phases which Crystal embraces: model-based safety critical system engineering, design for reusability, safety, and traceability support, standardised interoperability and system engineering environments. As it is clear, model-driven engineering and knowledge engineering are first class citizens in the vision of the Crystal project and hence, finding ways in where these two pillars of the software engineering can express their synergies, is a research task of a great value.
The achievement of a good level of interoperability cannot leave aside the definition of specific domain ontologies in such big cross-domain project. In fact, in Crystal, one ontology for each domain are the output of specific work packages. The advantages of these activities can be found in the definition of a common vocabulary in the specific domain, in the simplification of communication thorough the different operators and in the usage of a common glossary in the deliverables and artefacts of the project. Furthermore the application of ontology activities is at the basis of the definition of the IOS which can take advantages from these domain ontologies operating in a cross-domain manner.

3. The RBC Use Case within the Crystal Project

The focus of this work is in the rail domain, and specifically from the needs expressed by Ansaldo STS (ASTS), an international transportation leader in the field of signalling and integrated transport systems for passenger traffic (Railway/Mass Transit) and freight operation. The industrial needs expressed by the ASTS’s Use Case are oriented to improve the quality and the efficiency of existing Verification & Validation (V&V) processes, with a specific focus on the validation of functional requirement with testing. In fact, testing activities are time-consuming tasks whose efficiency is a primary issue in a global competitive market and whose quality can not be decreased due to the adherence to international standards.

3.1 The RBC Use Case

The ASTS’s Use Case is centred on the Radio Block Centre (RBC) system, a computer-based system whose aim is to control the movements of the set of trains on the track area under its supervision, in order to guarantee a safe inter-train distance according to the ERTMS/ETCS specifications. ERTMS/ETCS (European Rail Traffic Management System/European Train Control System) [21] is a standard for the interoperability...
of the European railway signalling systems ensuring both technological compatibility among trans-European railway networks and integration of the new signalling system with the existing national train interlocking systems. Each ERTMS/ETCS controlled track is usually divided into several sub-tracks, each of them is supervised by a single RBC in charge of *concurrently and continuously* controlling a number of connections with trains. The main objective of the train control system is to timely transmit to each train its up-to-date Movement Authority (MA) and the related speed profile. The MA contains information about the distance the train may safely cover, depending on the status of the forward track. RBC is also in charge of managing emergency situations if the communication with one or more trains is compromised. Figure 2 gives an overview of the ERTMS/ETCS lev 2 at a glance.

With a particular focus on the validation of the system against functional requirements, a great effort is spent on the generation, execution and analysis of system-level functional test cases. Since these systems are classified as the most dependable in terms of Safety Integrity Level (i.e., they are classified as SIL 4) and according to the applicable international standards and norms (i.e., CENELEC EN50128 [22] and CENELEC EN50126 [23]), these activities must be conducted by a proper “V&V team” which shall be independent from the development team. This team must rely only on high-level behavioural description of the system and on the set of system requirements that the system have to satisfy; its objective, at system level, is the definition of test cases able to functionally validate the overall system against its requirements.

An improvement of the actual V&V approach is hence required for these systems, allowing the automatic execution of some activities. For these reasons our goal in the CRYSTAL project is represented by the definition of a new methodology which must be able to support the execution of these activities; on the basis of a system model is used to drive the process by means of automatic tool. The main activities that have been traditionally done manually are now supported by tools even if the interaction with a V&V Engineer is present.

Figure 3 shows, by means of a diagram mixing UML Use Case elements and an architectural schema, the interactions between user and system as well as the tool supporting such functionalities. In the diagram, tick solid lines represent automatic flows, solid thin lines activities that are executed outside this automated process while dotted lines related use cases with automatic tools. A similar approach and supporting architecture has been defined in [24] but, in that paper, the approach is oriented in mixing functional and non-functional properties. With respect to another previous work [25] this description is enriched with more details and it constitutes an improvement.

The flow of activities can be described as follows. The V&V Engineer is in charge to Model RBC functions in one System Model that is conformant to the Dynamical StaTe Machine (DSTM) language. This language, considering both the needs of a strong formal foundation and ease of use of the final user, it is defined according to principles of MDE as a Domain Specific Modelling Language (DSML). Further discussion on DSTM is in Subsection 3.2. Essentially, DSTM is an extension of state machines where the behaviour of the system is represented by states and transitions. Furthermore, the model is annotated with functional requirements (Model Functional Requirements): up to date, requirements are mapped onto transitions.
After the model is created, it should be verified in order to check if it conforms to all the constraint of the language (Verify Model): this action is supported by the DSTM Verifier tool. Up to date, this tool is essentially a compiler which takes different parts of a DSTM model and verify the consistency of the model itself and its compliance to all the constraints defined in the DSTM language. Different techniques may be used to specify the model: while structural elements of the model itself are better created through a graphical concrete syntax, for variables and data-types, the best way still is a textual old-style concrete syntax. Both traditional parsing techniques and advanced model-driven manipulation and querying approaches are used.

Then, test-sequences can be automatically generated, with a minimum effort required to the V&V team (Generate Test Sequences): this activity can be parted into a phase where “abstract” sequence are generated (Abstract Test Sequence) and one where abstract test sequences are realised in a concrete scripting language and able to be executed (Concrete Test Sequence).

The generation of abstract test sequences supported by the Test Generator tool that works as follows: a test specifications is actually derived from the requirements and it contains the features that a test sequence to generate must own (see for a fully description of this item [26, 27]). At the state, two test specifications are generated for each requirement: a finite set of ‘positive’ test specifications (i.e., the situations in which the transition must be performed), and one ‘negative’ test specification (i.e., the situation in which the transition have not to be performed). Starting from these hypotheses, the model and each test specification generate a Test Sequence Model which represents one of the many concrete executions on the System Model which fulfils the test specification. This last artefact is conformant to the TESt SeQuEnce Language (TESQEL) which is also built according to model driven principles. At the state, the Test Generator is implemented by exploiting model checking techniques [28]: a DSTM model is hence
translated into a Promela language while the negation of the test specification becomes a CTL property to check. The counterexample is the sequence of execution steps on the model which negates the property (i.e. which satisfies the test specification). This notwithstanding, future developments can consider different approaches for the Test Generator mechanism.

Generated test sequences must be executable and hence TESQEL conformant sequences are translated into an executable language by the IOP Test Writer which aim is to translate the “model” of the test sequence into an interoperable language for the execution of ERTMS/ETCS tests (the IOP language itself) (Test Script).

Once these scripts are executed, outside of this approach, Execution Logs are produced: these logs are analysed (Analyze Test Logs) in order to understand if some anomalies are present. This phase is supported by the Log Analyser.

It is important to underline that the IOP Test Writer and the Log Analyzer are not in charge of the research units of Seconda Università di Napoli and of Università di Napoli Federico II. This notwithstanding in this chapter we discuss also on these tools about the possibility to improve them. Such improvements could be done outside the context of the CRYSTAL project.

3.2 The DSTM Language
DSTM extends Hierarchical State Machines [29] specifying an original semantics of fork-and-join. This makes DSTM more powerful than the UML State Machines [30] since it adds, between others, mechanisms for dynamic instantiation and recursive execution of machines. An excerpt of the DSTM metamodel is shown in Fig. 4, where the Ecore diagram is depicted. This Ecore diagram represents the realisation of DSTM, which formalisation have been introduced in [31], in the Eclipse Modeling Framework [32]. The main class is Dynamic State Machine (DSTM), which represents the entire specification model. A DSTM is composed of different Machines, Channels and Variables and allows for the definition of own-defined Types. Channels and Variables allow for communication between machines and with the external environment. A single Machine is composed of Vertices, Transitions and may have a set of Parameters.

The class Vertex is abstract since different kinds of vertexes (with different features and constraints) may be present in a machine. The vertex kinds are similar to those contained in the UML State Machine, but with a different semantics for the Fork and Join concepts. A fork splits an incoming transition into more outgoing transitions; it allows for instantiating one or more processes either synchronously or asynchronously with the currently executing process. The asynchronous instantiation represents the instantiation of machines without suspending the current executing process, which is enabled to continue its evolution. On the contrary, a join merges outgoing transitions from concurrently executing processes: it synchronises their termination together with the current executing process, if asynchronous instantiation have been performed, and/or allows to force the termination when a process is able to perform a preemptive exiting transition. The classes Fork, Join and EnteringNode are inherited from the abstract class PseudoNode which encompasses different types of transient vertexes in the machine.

The class Transition is specified by many attributes. It can specify its trigger, its activation condition and a set of actions. These attributes are specified by a string that must
Fig. 4. DSTM4Rail metamodel [31].
comply with a given syntax. Furthermore a transition can be preemptive, i.e. enabled to kill concurrent executing processes, by setting to true the value of the *is_preemptive* attribute. If a transition enters a box, it can specify the set of parameter instantiations by the attribute *parInstantiation*.

Types allowed in a DSTM model are either *tBasics* and *tCompounds*: the formers represent integer and enumeration types while the latters represent data structures composed by basic subtypes. A specific type, *tChannel*, has been added in order to represent the namespace of channels. Note that *Variables* and *Parameters* are associated with *tBasic* since, in this version of the language, only basic types can be specified for both variables and parameters. The set of allowed channels is divided into *cInternal*, *cExternal* and *cCompound*. Each channel has an associated type, either a simple type or a compound. Internal channels allows for internal communication and allows for the specification of a message buffer and are instantaneously updated when a writing action is performed; external channels instead are used for the communication with the external environment and machines are not allowed to remove messages from these channels. Compound channels are also defined in order to group external channels, specifying the set of channels which model the communication with a single external entity, hence the set of channels which can contain at most one message (if one of the grouped channel contains a message, the others must be empty).

The semantics of DSTM is provided by means of a Labeled Transition System containing sequences of a maximal set of transitions. Specifically the messages generated over external channels cannot trigger other transitions in the same step; in addition a node/box cannot be entered and exited simultaneously in the same step. Accordingly to this semantics sequential firings of transitions are not allowed within a step, only transition affecting concurrent processes can be performed within the same step. Furthermore external channels, if empty, can be filled with non-deterministically generated messages (compliant with the specific type allowed on the channels).

The main peculiarities of this language reside in the high expressive power which is also semantically well-defined. In fact, according to the needs expressed in [33], its abstract syntax is given by a metamodel and the semantics is entirely formally defined; in this way multiple developers understand exactly what modelled. Another advantage is that, according to the adopted technology, DSTM can be easily implemented by graphical diagrams, coping with the necessity of usage.

## 4 Merging Knowledge and Model-Driven Engineering Methods

In this section we introduce our vision on the integration of ontologies and MDE [1]. Generally speaking, we discuss the role of descriptive and structural models, in particular ontologies, in the model-driven process. First, the different role of domain and upper-level ontologies is discussed. In this context an upper-level ontologies can also be used as language descriptions. Second, we integrate parts of the CIM as ontologies into the MDA meta-pyramid (ontology-aware meta-pyramid). In fact, this delivers a first ontology-aware mega-model of MDE [34], and we use its conceptual advantages. On the one hand, the mega-model suggests an extended, ontology-aware software process.
On the other hand, the technologies for tool construction in the MDA and MOF world can be transferred to the ontology world.

The basic idea of the ontology-aware meta-pyramid is that most models in MDE are specifications, but can integrate ontologies on different meta-levels as descriptive analysis models. Since ontologies differ from specifications due to their descriptive nature, the standard M0-M3 meta-pyramid can be refined from using pure specification models to also using ontologies. Depending on the meta-level, an ontology may serve different purposes. In fact, there are different qualities of ontologies in the literature. First of all, the word ontology stems from philosophy, where it characterises Existence. Ontology is a systematic account of Existence [3]. We call such a systematic account of existence a World ontology, a conceptualisation of the world, that is, all existing concepts. Usually, a World ontology is split into an upper-level ontology (concept ontology, frame ontology), providing basic concepts for classification and description, and several lower-level ontologies, domain ontologies describing domains of the world [35, 36].

Usually, concepts of the domain ontology inherit from concepts in the upper-level ontology. For better interoperability and understanding, some researchers try to create a normalised upper-level ontology, from which all possible domain ontologies may inherit [37]. If a standardised upper-level ontology with modelling concepts existed, all domain ontologies could rely on a standardised concept vocabulary.

With this terminological distinction, we can relate the different forms of ontologies to meta-levels in the meta-pyramid. Domain ontologies live on level M1, they correspond to models. An upper-level ontology, also a standardised one, should live on level M2, because it provides a language for ontologies.

We describe two general approaches [33] to bridge software languages and ontology used in the framework of our unit in the Crystal project. In the language bridge approach, the design of an M3 integration bridge consists mainly of identifying concepts in the Ecore metamodel and the OWL metamodel which are combined. The integration bridge itself is used at the M2 layer by a language designer. He is now able to define language metamodels with integrated OWL annotations to restrict the use of concepts he modelled and to extend the expressiveness of the language. The M3 Transformation Bridge allows language designers and language users to achieve representations of software languages (Metamodel/Model) in OWL. It provides the transformation of software language constructs like classes and properties into corresponding OWL constructs. A model transformation takes the UML metamodel and the annotations as input and generates an OWL ontology where the concepts, enumerations, properties and data types (TBox) correspond to classes, enumerations, attributes/references and data types in the UML metamodel. Another transformation takes the UML model and generates individuals in the same OWL ontology. The whole process is completely transparent for UML users.

Using this mapping, we can transform an Ecore Metamodel/Model into OWL TBOX/ABOX.

In the model bridge approach, software models and ontologies are connected on the modelling layer M1. They are defined in the metamodeling layer M2 between different metamodels. The bridge is defined between a process metamodel on the software modelling side and an OWL metamodel in the OWL modelling hierarchy. The process meta-
Table 1. An example of Ecore and OWL comparable constructs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ecore</th>
<th>OWL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>package</td>
<td>ontology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class</td>
<td>class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instance and literals</td>
<td>individual and literals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reference, attribute</td>
<td>object property, data property</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data types</td>
<td>data types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enumeration</td>
<td>enumeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiplicity</td>
<td>cardinality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A model is an instance of an Ecore (EMOF) metamodel. A model bridge is defined as follows: (1) Constructs in the software modelling and in the ontology space are identified. These constructs, or language constructs, are used to define the corresponding models in the modelling layer M1. (2) Based on the identification of the constructs, the relationship between the constructs are analyzed and specified. M2 Integration Bridge merges information of the models from the software modelling and from the ontology space. This allows the building of integrated models (on modelling layer M1) using constructs of both modelling languages in a combined way, e.g. to integrate UML class diagrams and OWL. A transformation bridge describes a (physical) transformation between models in layer M1. The models are kept separately in both modelling spaces. The information is moved from one model to the model in the other modelling space according to the transformation bridge. A process model like a UML Activity Diagram is transformed to an OWL ontology. The transformation rules or patterns are defined by the bridge. Thus, having a process model as an ontology we can provide services for reasoning on the semantics of process models. Ontology Reasoning for Behaviour Modelling Languages The model bridge is defined in the metamodelling layer M2 and is used in layer M1 to transform or integrate model entities on layer M1. Process models capture the dynamic behaviour of an application or system. The metamodels of both are instances of Ecore meta-metamodels. The two metamodels provide flexible means for describing process models for various applications. However, due to their flexibility further modelling constraints and semantic descriptions are required for a clearer representation of the intended meaning. There are additional modelling characteristics for process models in the software modelling space which are analysed in detail in literature. (1) A semantic representation of control flow dependencies of activities within a process, i.e. execution ordering of activities in a control flow. Such constraints allow for the description of order dependencies e.g., an activity requires a certain activity as a predecessor or successor. (2) It is quite common in model-driven engineering to specialise or refine a model into a more fine-grained representation that is closer to the concrete implementation. In process modelling, activities could be replaced by sub-activities for a more precise description of a process.

Using these approaches it is possible a representation of behaviour models in OWL and applications of reasoning services in order to provide model management services for example on process models represented by UML Activity Diagrams. In order to use ontology reasoning for process models, a first step is to build a model bridge from process models (software models) in a UML-like representation to an ontology (TBox).
The model bridge is defined in the metamodeling layer M2 and is used in layer M1 to transform or integrate model entities on layer M1. We consider a transformation bridge. We present our process model bridge that defines a transformation from process models given as UML activity diagrams to an OWL ontology (TBox). This requires a thorough consideration of the entities that are represented in process models, their relations like control flow relations and how they are transformed to OWL ontologies. A challenge in this task is to capture the semantics of process models like activity ordering and flow conditions in the ontology.

A task of our unit in the Crystal project is the development of a model bridge between DSTM (M2 language) and an ontology-based model to represent in OWL the features of this language. Using a mapping the DSTM notations will be translated in description logic and by means of a knowledge base some reasoning services will be implemented. In particular, we’ll take into account the Automatic annotation of system model and the Log Analyzer bricks developed in the Crystal framework.

5 Improving Test Generation with KE

This Section shows the areas that have been detected in Crystal and more specifically in the RBC Use Case, as possible integration points between MDE and KE. Two of these areas are explored in detail and improved version of the MDE-based processes are proposed: achieving these goals would constitute the prime objective of future research efforts.

5.1 Overall of the KE-improved Process

Figure 5 starts from the block level model of the tool-chain proposed within the RBC case study. Furthermore, this schema depicts the point of this tool-chain where Knowledge Engineering techniques can be applied and where synergies with Model Driven Engineering must be searched.

Six main intervention areas are detected:

- **Intelligent Model Verification** (IMV) deals with the problem of adding some advanced features to DSTM Verifier. The proposal here is to improve such level of verification by adding some intelligent features in this phase which can not only verify the model but also suggest to the final user possible improvements. More details on this phase are reported in Subsection 5.2;

- **Requirement Annotation** (RA) means the possibility to automatically propose a mapping between the requirements and a DSTM model. The phase is in charge of analysing the requirements (traditionally expressed in a natural language) and to search the submodels of a DSTM model that best fit to represent these requirement. More details of this phase are reported in Subsection 5.3;

- **Automatic Model Construction** (AMC) is intended to support the modeller into the automatic creation of a DSTM model. This support is constituted by suggest some hints to the modeller: such suggestions may vary from simple expression completion to the suggestion of complex model patterns;
Fig. 5. Points of improvements of the RBC Use Case Automated Testing Process.

- **KE-improved Test Case Generation (KTCG)** aims to improve the test sequence generation phase by defining some assertion which are invariants with respect to the model dynamics. Such assertions may be used in order to restrict the state space where the model checker searches the desired test sequence: these assertions are also called reduction rules and can be inferred from reasoning activities on the DSTM mode by means of automatic reasoning techniques;

- **Automatic Log Verification (ALV)** improves the existing Log Analyzer by adding machine learning techniques in order to understand from the log produced by the execution of the Test Script if the requirement to verify is fulfilled by the trace;

- **Language Interoperability (LI)** can be used to extend the range of influence of the DSTM language to other Crystal’s life-cycle phases and/or applicative domain. Since Crystal is a project that strongly promotes the interoperability among different domains, the use of such techniques to apply DSTM and the related tool-chain may be used in order to automatically map concepts in first different among them.
The application of this approach could also be extended to TESQEL as a way to verify if this language may re-used in other contexts.

Some of these application areas can create mutual benefits when synergies are searched: as example, Automated Model Construction may benefit from patterns and anti-patterns defined during the IMV phase while reduction rules of KE-improved Test Case Generation should also be inferred by log analysis.

### 5.2 Improving Model Verification

Figure 6 shows the schema that will be studied and realised in the next research work: the schema is in charge of defining the main blocks of the IMV functionality. As described, the aim of such functionality is not only to check if the model is correct according to defined syntax and semantics but also to provide a proper support in improving the modelling experience by suggesting best and/or worst practises.

The process works as follows: the DSTM system model (both graphical description of the model structure as well as the textual definition of datatypes and variables) is first processed by traditional techniques. As graphical model structure verification phase can exploit modern model-driven technologies able to generate a model from a graphical user interface that is already conform to a metamodel, the textual definition of the datatypes must by processed by traditional parsers and lexers. After this phase, a validation of semantic constraints are due in order to ensure that the model is well-formed. Some examples of these constraints are: (i) a variable should be defined and assigned to a type; (ii) a variable used in the DSTM model (e.g., in the definition of a trigger) must be declared in the datatype file; (iii) a DSTM transition coming out from a pseudo node must not have a trigger expressed (see for further details [31]).
These activities traditionally retrieve to the user some exceptions in case the model is not conformant to the syntax/semantics of the language. Furthermore, many conformant models (i.e., raising no exception) may be improved by adopting common modelling practises (patterns) or avoiding common pitfalls (anti-patterns). This activity is performed by the Pattern & Anti-Pattern Advisor (P&AP Advisor) that is in charge of reasoning on a ontology representing the DSTM model (System Ontology, i.e. ABOX) and using available reasoning techniques and technologies. This reasoning activity is in charge of substituting non-efficient sub-parts (the anti-patterns) of this ontology with other more efficient ones (the patterns): both patterns and anti-patterns are contained into a Knowledge Base (KB).

The means by which the DSTM System Model is translated into the System Ontology are a Model Bridging and an Inverse Model Bridging transformations. Such bridging functions are built implemented upon the definition of a proper bridge between DSTM metamodel and ontology as described in Section 4.

5.3 Improving Requirement-Model Mapping

A picture of a second integration way is reported in Figure 7 where Requirement Annotation (RA) proposed process is depicted.

![Fig. 7. An integrated reference schema for the RA approach.](image)

This process has the aim to aid the modeller in annotating the defined DSTM System Model with requirements. Requirements are considered in DSTM for both traceability purpose and to generate automatically Test Sequences on the base of the item of the DSTM that is annotated with the requirement. In other words, when a requirement is mapped onto a model transition, the Test Sequence related to that requirement consider
the passage through the model transition. Hence, annotating the model in an effective and efficient way is an important task that Knowledge Engineering can improve.

The main idea is to consider a reasoner (the Matcher) able to match a System Ontology and a Requirement Ontology. While the first can be obtained from the System Model by exploiting the bridging technique already defined, the latter can rely on a well-assessed research background on Natural Language Processing (NL Analyzer). Once the match is done, an Inverse Bridging reports the annotations on the DSTM System Model.

6 Future Developments

The ontology-aware meta-pyramid offers several other benefits that can all be summarised by the exploitation of the transformational techniques of the MDE and the reasoning techniques of the KE. This chapter has defined a roadmap in the concrete realization of a synergies of these two worlds in the context of an industrial-driven research project: the Crystal project. By selecting one of the many Use Case of the Crystal project, this chapter illustrates the main points where KE and MDE may find their synergy.

Of course, this work describes an on-going research mainly by illustrating the main next activity that involve both the research units of the University of Naples Federico II and the Second University of Naples.

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