

Specification of Decision-making and Control Flow Branching in Topological Functioning Models of Systems

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Abstract: System behaviour usually is modelled with logical operators and triggering conditions on control flows between processes, activities, tasks, or events. This allows branching control flows in order to increase model comprehensibility. In case of Topological Functioning Model (TFM), where system's functionality is represented by causal relations among functional characteristics, combinations of causes as well as triggered effects may be quite complex. Therefore, specification of them must not decrease apprehensibility of the TFM, while keeping its accuracy, compactness and level of abstraction. Additionally, this specification must also be modifiable and transformable. In this paper we discuss and refine a concept of a cause-and-effect relation and a logical relation in the TFM. Then, we analyze specification means used in BPMN, UML Activity Diagrams, EPCs, flowcharts, Petri Nets and Decision Models and assess which of them are more appropriate for using or integrating with the TFM. The more suitable means will increase the accuracy of specification of logical relations and system behaviour in the TFM. As a result, it would be possible to eliminate human participation in transformations from the TFM to models at the lower level of abstraction.

1 INTRODUCTION

Business rules usually are represented as logical relations and conditions that drive control flows in business processes. We discuss ways of specifying business rules for decision making in behavioural models, namely using BPMN, UML Activity Diagrams, EPCs, flowcharts, Petri Nets, and Decision Models. The aim of the paper is to find out the suitable specification mechanism of logical relations in the Topological Functioning Model (TFM).

The TFM represents system's functionality as functional characteristics and a set of binary causal dependencies among them. The causal dependencies form cause and effect topology on the set of functional characteristics of the system. In other words, functionality of the system is described as chains and cycles of causes and effects. A more detailed explanation is represented in Section 2.

The issue is that initially this model was applied for diagnostics of mechanical systems. It lacks a mechanism for representation of logical conditions on causal dependencies. At the present, we apply the TFM for software development in the context of Model Driven Development (MDD). It serves as a

computation independent model of systems such as an organization, an information system, or software. Mainly, we apply it as a kind of a business/domain model, which is a root model for further transformations to more detailed models. Logical relations of causal dependencies in the TFM is a decision-making and branching mechanism. This mechanism is necessary for getting branches of control flows in UML models (or other models of interactions or processing) derived from the TFM. Therefore, specification of this mechanism became very significant. This may enhance a number of elements of the TFM. However, the mathematical formalism, system theoretical foundations and simplicity are three key characteristics of this model, and any additional elements must keep them also in further.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 represents main concepts of the TFM and its application within MDD. Section 3 illustrates an assessment of suitability of specification means for decision-making and branching in process-oriented models of the systems. Conclusions analyze the obtained results and indicate directions of further research on this topic.

2 TFM FOR MDD

The Topological Functioning Model (TFM) was introduced and described by Janis Osis in (Osis, 1969), (Osis, 1972). Since 1970s this model was applied for development of high-quality diagnostic algorithms and methods as well as system modelling and analysis in medicine. At the end of the 20th century, research on application of this model for system modelling and analysis in object oriented software development and MDD begun (Osis and Asnina, 2011-a). In the context of Model Driven Architecture (MDA) proposed by OMG (Mukerji and Miller, 2003) the TFM is used as a computation independent source model for its further transformations to the platform independent and platform specific models specified in Unified Modeling Language (UML). Thanks to its holistic and formal nature, the TFM is a formal base for verification of requirements completeness (Osis, et al., 2008), determination of shared functionality and derivation of use cases (Osis and Asnina, 2011-d), transformation to UML diagrams and TopUML diagrams in order to derive the system structure (Donins, et al., 2011), (Donins, 2012), (Osis, et al., 2014), and integration of system knowledge that usually are expressed as a set of interrelated fragments (Slihte, et al., 2011), (Slihte and Osis, 2014).

2.1 Foundations of the TFM

The TFM can be characterized as an engineering model by using key characteristics defined by Bran Selic (Selic, 2003), namely it has abstract, understandable, accurate, predictive and inexpensive nature.

It has two construction elements, namely a functional characteristic of the system called a functional feature and a cause-and-effect relation that shows topological causal dependency (or relation) between two functional features.

The TFM is based on principles of algebraic topology and system theory. Mathematically, the TFM is represented in the form of a topological space (X, Θ) , where X is a finite set of functional features (characteristics) of the system under consideration, and Θ is the topology that satisfies axioms of topological structures (Osis, 1969). Visually it is represented in the form of a directed graph.

A functional feature is defined as a 7-tuple $\langle A, R, O, PrCond, PostCond, Pr, Ex \rangle$, where:

- A is an action linked with a domain object;

- R is a result of that action (it is an optional element); it could be a domain object or a set of them, a message, a trigger for the effect event etc.;
- O is a domain object that gets the result of the action or a set O of domain objects which are used in this action (in case when an item of Ex gets result R); it could be a role, a time period or a moment, catalogues etc.;
- **PrCond** is a set $PrCond = \{prec_1, \dots, prec_i\}$, where $prec_i$ is a precondition or an atomic business rule (it is an optional element) of the action;
- **PostCond** is a set $PostCond = \{postc_1, \dots, postc_i\}$, where $postc_i$ is a post-condition or an atomic business rule (it is an optional element) of the action;
- **Pr** is a set of responsible entities (systems or subsystems), which provide or suggest the action with the set of certain objects;
- **Ex** is a set of responsible entities (systems or subsystems), which enact the action.

The formal definition of preconditions and post-conditions is stated in (Donins, 2012-a).

The process of construction of the TFM consists of definition of system's functional features, cause-and-effect relations among them, and separation of the TFM from the topological space of the system. The details are described in (Osis, et al., 2008), (Osis and Asnina, 2011), (Donins, et al., 2011). Figure 1 illustrates an abstract topological functioning model and its properties. Set $X = \{2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$ is obtained after the closure of a set of inner system functional features $N = \{3, 6, 7, 8, 10\}$. Other functional features are placed in the topological space of the system, for example, functional feature 5, but they are located outside the system itself.

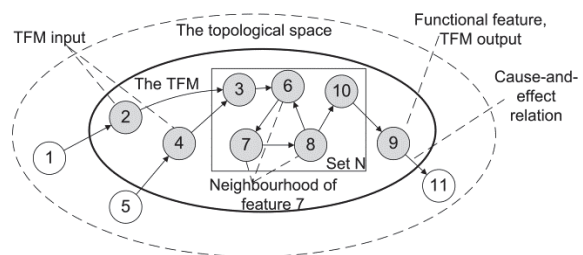


Figure 1: An abstract topological functioning model and its properties.

The TFM has topological (come from algebraic topology) and functioning (come from system theory) properties. The topological properties are *connectedness*, *closure*, *neighbourhood* and

continuous mapping. The functioning properties are *cause-and-effect relations*, *cycle structure*, *inputs and outputs* (Osis and Asnina, 2011-a). Figure 1 demonstrates the correctness of the TFM structure, since all the features are connected by cause-and-effect relations and therein no isolated vertices (*connectedness*, *closure*, *neighbourhood*); there is a main functioning cycle “6-7-8-6”, inputs {2, 4} and outputs {9}; and last, the TFM is a subsystem of its environment (*closure*, *continuous mapping*).

Continuous mapping is a mechanism that allows providing conformity between a solution domain and a problem domain presented by the topological functioning models (Figure 2). It serves for abstracting and refining the TFM, as well as for analysis of similarities and differences of models. However, this property does not influence the subject of the research.

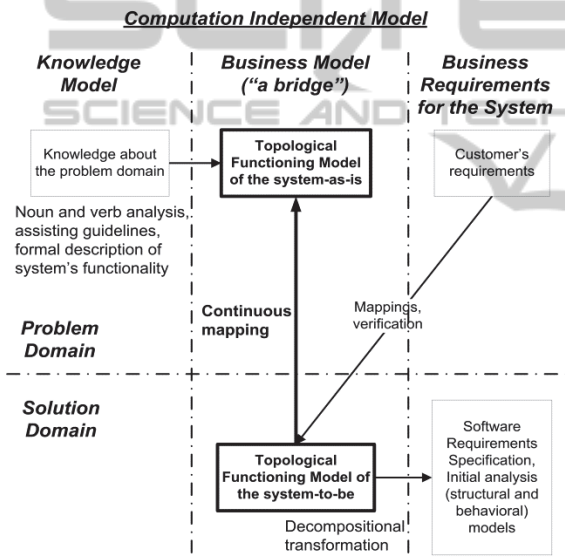


Figure 2: “Bridging” the problem and the solution domains by using the TFM.

2.2 Topological Relationships

2.2.1 Background

The informal definition of cause-and effect relations has been discussed in (Asnina, 2012). It is based on knowledge about causality summarized in (Asnina and Osis, 2010) and states that cause-and-effect relations have a time dimension, may have a situation when “something is allowed to go wrong”, may be sufficient (complete) or necessary (partial), may involve multiple factors as in series, as in parallel, and have a universal nature, i.e. “there is no such a problem domain without causes and effects”.

The TFM has two aspects related to cause-and-effect relations. We may distinguish causes and effects. The *causes* are input arcs to a vertex and connect this vertex with functional features (other vertices) that are necessary or sufficient for its generation. The *effects* are output arcs from the vertex and connect this vertex with other functional features (vertices) that may be triggered if the functional feature represented by this vertex occurs and successfully terminates.

At the beginning of research on TFM transformations we have used some simplification, namely we have assumed that *all causes are sufficient* and we have had no any explicit means for determination and specification of multiplicity of functional factors. This led to hardened automatic branching of logical flows in case of transformations from the TFM to the behavioural specifications. For example, transformation from the TFM to UML activity diagrams required obligatory human participation in cases of multiple effects and multiple causes.

At the same time, Uldis Donins in (Donins, 2012-a) suggested his formal definition of a cause-and-effect relation (using a synonym “topological relationship”) and logical relationships on a set of cause-and-effect relations. In his work, a cause-and-effect relation is defined as a unique 5-tuple $\langle Id, X_c, X_e, L_{out}, L_{in} \rangle$ of a binary relationship between cause functional feature X_c and effect functional feature X_e , as well as two optional sets, namely L_{out} – a set of logical relationships between topological relationships on outgoing arcs of cause functional feature X_c , and L_{in} – a set of logical relationships between topological relationships on incoming arcs of effect functional feature X_e .

In turn, each logical relation L_{id} is defined as a 3-tuple $\langle Id, T, Rt \rangle$ that contains a set of topological relationships T belonging to that logical relationship type Rt that is one of logical operators AND, OR, or XOR. Identification of the logical relationship type is based on combinations of preconditions of effect functional feature X_e .

In (Asnina, et al., 2013) we have defined a cause-and-effect relation as a 5-tuple $\langle C, E, N, S, Refs \rangle$, where:

- C (a cause) is a functional feature that generates E, it cannot be empty;
- E (an effect) is a functional feature that is generated by C, it cannot be empty;
- N is the necessity of C for generating E; a value is *true* or *false*;
- S is the sufficiency of C for generating E; a value is *true* or *false*;

- **Refs** (references) is a set of unique tuples $\langle Ref_Ids, LOp \rangle$, where Ref_Ids is a set of tuples $\langle C^*, E^* \rangle$ of cause-and-effect relations, which participate in logical operator LOp together; and $\langle C, E \rangle$ is not equal to $\langle C^*, E^* \rangle$.

The *necessity* N and *sufficiency* S come from classical logic. They induce substantial and consistent effects on conditional reasoning performance. The *necessity* of the cause is determined when the occurrence of the effect indicates the occurrence of the cause. The *sufficiency* of the cause is determined when the occurrence of the cause indicates the occurrence of the effect. The *necessary and sufficient* cause is when the occurrence of the effect is possible if and only if the cause occurred, and occurrence of the effect indicates the obligatory occurrence of the cause.

Later, we have excluded **Refs** element from the cause-and-effect definition and moved logical combination to the definition of a functional feature. Thus, in (Asnina and García-Bustelo, 2014) we extended the initial definition of a functional feature in form of 7-tuple $\langle A, R, O, PrCond, PostCond, Pr, Ex \rangle$ with two elements $\langle InRel, OutRel \rangle$, where:

- *InRel* is an expression of combinations of possible logical relations among incoming cause-effect relations in_1, in_2, \dots, in_i ;
- *OutRel* is an expression of combinations of possible logical relations among outgoing cause-effect relations $out_1, out_2, \dots, out_i$.

A *logical relation* is presented as an operator from classical logic such as conjunction (AND) and disjunction (OR, XOR). Conjunction indicates a *synchronous* occurrence of referenced causes. Disjunction indicates an *asynchronous* occurrence of referenced causes.

In (Asnina, et al., 2013) identification of the logical relationship type is based on analysis of necessity and sufficiency of causes.

2.2.2 Refined Definitions

Here we present the refined definition of a topological cause-and-effect relation in the TFM based on the previous research results. We skip the point of identification of logical relationship types since it is out of scope of this paper.

Formal Definition of a Cause-and-Effect Relation. A cause-and-effect relation T_i is a binary relationship that relates exactly two functional features X_c and X_e . Both X_c and X_e may be the same functional feature in case of recursion. The synonym for cause-and-effect relation is a topological

relationship. Each cause-and-effect relation is a unique 5-tuple (1):

$$T_i = \langle ID, X_c, X_e, N, S \rangle, \text{ where} \quad (1)$$

- ID is a unique identifier of a relation;
- X_c is a cause functional feature;
- X_e is an effect functional feature;
- N is a Boolean value of the necessity of X_c for generating X_e ;
- S is a Boolean value of the sufficiency of X_c for generating X_e .

Formal Definition of a Logical Relation. A logical relation L_i specifies the logical operator *conjunction (AND)*, *disjunction (OR)*, or *exclusive disjunction (XOR)* between two or more cause-and-effect relations T_i . The logical relation denotes system execution behaviour (e.g., decision making, parallel or sequential actions). Each logical relation is a unique 3-tuple (2):

$$L_i = \langle ID, T, R_T \rangle, \text{ where} \quad (2)$$

- ID is a unique identifier of a relation;
- T is a set of cause-and-effect relations $\{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ that participate in this logical relation;
- R_T is a logical operator AND, OR, or XOR over T ; operator OR is a default value.

Formal Definition of Incoming Topological Relations. A set of logical relations that joins cause-and-effect relations, which income into functional feature X_i , is defined as a subset L_{in} of set $L = \{L_1, \dots, L_n\}$, where at least one topological relation T_i such that its effect functional feature X_e is equal to X_i is found in set T of topological relations in each logical relation L_i .

Formal Definition of Outgoing Topological Relations. A set of logical relations that joins cause-and-effect relations, which outgo from functional feature X_i , is defined as a subset L_{out} of set $L = \{L_1, \dots, L_n\}$, where at least one topological relation T_i such that its cause functional feature X_c is equal to X_i is found in set T of topological relations in each logical relation L_i .

2.2.3 Visual Specification

As illustrated in Figure 1 and Figure 3, the TFM can be visualized as a directed graph, where cause-and-effect relations are visually represented as directed arcs among vertices. As previously mentioned, logical relations among cause-and-effect relations may be quite complex (see Figure 3).

There is no native mechanism for visual specification of logical relations among cause-and-effect relations in the TFM. Uldis Donins in

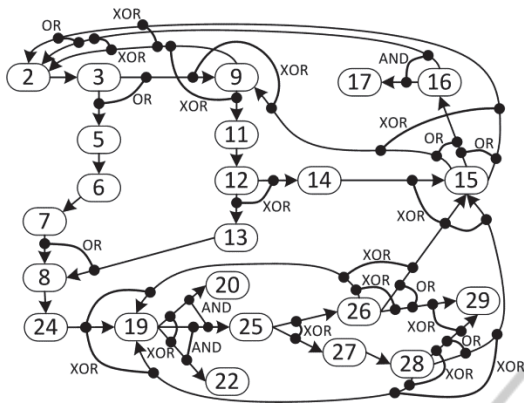


Figure 3: TFM representing enterprise data synchronization system functioning (borrowed from (Donins, 2012)).

(Donins, 2012-a) suggested using visual constraints hanged on arcs as illustrated in Figure 3. Each logical relation is represented as a connector, i.e. a line that connects all needed cause-and-effect relations, with a label that indicates the logical operator.

Such a visualization is not complete since: 1) it does not illustrate necessity and sufficiency of cause-and-effect relations, and 2) it adds additional elements to the digraph that may harden its readability and comprehensibility in case of complex relations as Figure 3 illustrates. Besides that, the TFM lacks a mechanism for specifying this information in a flexible and easy modifiable, but formalized manner.

Therefore, in the next section we will assess possible specification mechanisms that are used or suggested in wide-used behavioural diagrams and process models and their suitability for the TFM.

3 VISUAL MEANS FOR SPECIFICATION OF FLOW BRANCHING AND DECISIONS

In all of the further considered models and notations, control (or message) flows use several elements that highlight different aspects of flow activation or message sending. The common is that activation/sending conditions are visualized as labels and additional symbols on the flows.

Other aspects of instances of processes, activities and tasks such as loops, parallel and sequential execution also may be specified as additional symbols on nodes, e.g., like in BPMN.

3.1 Forks, Joins, Getaways, Logical Connectors, Decisions

Flowcharts provide the simplest visual means for representation of flow branching and decisions. There are multiple information sources that explain meaning of flowchart symbols. According to (Hebb, 2015), flowcharts use the following symbols for branching of flows:

- Decision – a labelled or non-labelled diamond that indicates a question or branch in the process flow, if there are two possible options such as yes/no or true/false. Options are presented as a text on flow arrows. Question answering which one or another option is evaluated is located within the diamond. However, in other implementations the decision node allows multiple outgoing options (ARIS Community, 2019-2015). It performs a logical XOR on its output flows;
- Merge (inverted triangle), Summing Junction (circle with X inside) – two elements with the same meaning: both indicate the merging of multiple processes into a single one; however, they are seldom used in process modelling (logical OR);
- Extract – a triangle that shows when a process splits into parallel paths (logical AND);
- Or - a circle with the plus symbol inside that shows when a process diverges (usually for more than two branches). It is required to label the outgoing flows to indicate the conditions to follow each branch. It performs a logical OR on its outgoing flows.

The *UML activity diagram* is a kind of behavioural diagrams proposed in the UML. This type of diagrams is widely supported by modelling tools. Starting from UML 2.0, activity diagrams use formalism of Petri Nets (Section 3.2) for modelling data and control flows. According to UML 2.0 (Arlow and Neustadt, 2005), the following elements are used for branching flows in activity diagrams:

- Decision node – it is the output edge whose guard condition if true is traversed. May optionally have a “decisionInput”, i.e. a guard condition for the decision node itself. This node has one input edge and two or more output edges, each of which is protected by a guard condition. All guard conditions must be *mutually exclusive* (XOR), otherwise the behaviour of the node is formally undefined. Guards are visualized as labels on corresponding edges;

- Merge node – copies input tokens to its single output edge. It has two or more input edges and a single output edge. All triggered incoming flows are merged and trigger one outgoing flow. It is not mandatory to have all possible incoming flows triggered (OR);
- Fork node – splits the single incoming flow into multiple concurrent outgoing flows (AND);
- Join node – synchronizes *all* multiple concurrent flows into the single outgoing edge (AND). May optionally have a join specification to modify its semantics.

Business Process Model and Notation (BPMN) is a standard for business process modelling developed by the Object Management Group (OMG). It has many different notational constructs for representation of various modelling aspects related to control, data and event flows.

According to (Object Management Group, 2011), BPMN suggests the following visual elements for control on flows:

- Getaways – BPMN suggests several gateway types visualized as diamonds with additional symbols. *Exclusive gateway* may split the incoming sequence flows. It routes the sequence flow to exactly one of the outgoing branches based on conditions (XOR). Conditions are visualized as labels on flows. In case of merging, it awaits one incoming branch to complete before triggering the outgoing flow (XOR). Another type is an *inclusive gateway*. It may split the incoming flows, and then one or more branches are activated based on branching conditions (OR). When merging, it awaits all *active* incoming branches to complete (OR). *Parallel gateway* splits the sequence flow so that all outgoing branches are activated simultaneously (AND). When merging parallel branches it waits for all incoming branches to complete before triggering the outgoing flow (AND). *Complex gateways* are used for complex combinations of synchronous and asynchronous branches.
- Event-based gateways – they are always followed by catching events or receiving tasks. The sequence flow is routed to the subsequent event/task which happens first. Triggered processes may be executed in parallel or in series.

The Event-driven Process Chain (EPC) is a flowchart based diagram that combines events and processes such that processes are triggered by events (Davis and Brabander, 2007). According to

(Gottschalk, et al., 2008) EPCs have three node types, namely functions, event, and logical connectors. Functions are active elements, while events are passive. Events indicate prerequisites for or results from the execution of functions.

The logical connectors determine the control flow behaviour. There are three possible logical connectors, namely XOR (exclusive OR), OR and AND. Visually they are represented as circles with mathematical symbols inside them. The meaning of them is the following:

- XOR – means that if it splits the control flow into two and more successors, then at runtime only one output flow of them is followed. When joins, it requires the input just from the only one incoming arc to forward a case;
- OR means that if it splits the control flow into two and more successors, then at runtime one or more (not obligatory all of) output flows are followed. When joins, it requires a number of incoming arcs, but not all of the defined;
- AND - means that if it splits the control flow into two and more successors, then at runtime *all* output flows are followed. When joins, it requires input from *all* incoming arcs to forward the case.

3.2 Places and Transitions

Petri Nets (PNs) is a formal mathematical and graphical language for modelling systems with concurrency and resource sharing, which can be applied for any area or system that can be described graphically like flowcharts. PNs can be used to represent flows of both control and data. Powerful PNs extensions are Coloured Petri Nets (CPNs) (Kristensen M., et al., 1998), (Jensen, 1994), (Lakos, 2011) and workflow (WF) nets (van der Aalst, 1998).

A Petri net is a particular kind of a digraph (directed, weighted, bipartite), which contains two kinds of nodes – places and transitions, which are connected by directed arcs. Arcs are directed from a place to a transition or from a transition to a place. Arcs are labelled with their weights (classically they are positive integers). In the PNs, places represent conditions, and transitions represent events. An event has a certain number of conditions that must be true in order to generate the event. The same, a transition has a certain number of input and output places correspondingly to the pre-conditions and post-conditions of the event. The status of the conditions, *true* or *false*, is indicated by the presence or absence of a token in the place, correspondingly.

Interpretation of places and transitions may differ (Murata, 1989), e.g., i) pre-condition, event, post-condition, ii) input data, computation step, output data, iii) resources needed, task or job, resources released, etc.

Control flows can be modelled in different ways. The common construct used for this purpose is a scheme, when place p_i has two outgoing arcs: one to transition t_m and one to transition t_n . This construct is called a conflict, choice, or decision. There are some basic examples that are useful in modelling (Murata, 1989):

- Decisions are represented by using state machines (the previously mentioned construct of p_i , t_m and t_n), but state machines do not represent the synchronization of parallel activities;
- Parallel activities (i.e., logical operator AND on the outgoing control flows from the event) are represented by concurrent transitions (which are causally independent, i.e., one transition may fire before or after or in parallel with the other). Besides that each place in the net must have exactly one incoming and one outgoing arc (Figure 4-a);

Conflicts (i.e., logical operators OR and XOR on the outgoing control flows) are a more complex case. Two events $e1$ and $e2$ are in conflict if either $e1$ or $e2$ can occur but not both (XOR), and they are concurrent if both events can occur in any order without conflicts (OR). The situation when conflicts and concurrency are mixed is called confusion (Figure 4-b).

Logical conditions on firing the transition are modelled as logical expressions or valid token colours.

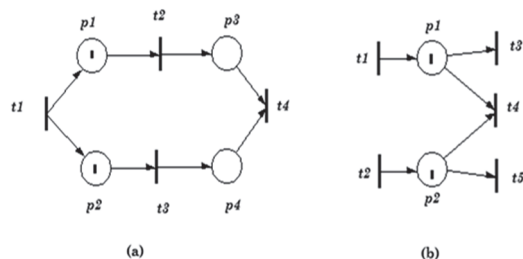


Figure 4: Petri nets for representation of parallel activities (a) and symmetric confusion (b).

3.3 Decision Models

Decision Model and Notation (DMN) is one of standards proposed by the OMG for business process modelling. Its version 1.0 – Beta 1 was presented on February 2014 (Object Management

Group, 2014), according to which “a *decision* is defined as the act of determining an *output value* (the chosen option), from a number of *input values*, using logic defining how the output is determined from the inputs”.

A decision model in DMN consists of a Decision Requirements Graph (DRG) depicted in one or more Decision Requirements Diagrams (DRDs). DRDs use such elements as a decision (explained above), a business knowledge model, an input data element, and a knowledge source element.

Business knowledge models in the form of business rules, analytic models, decision tables, or other formalisms describe a decision logic. It allows specifying a complete set of business rules and calculations, and (if desired) allows the decision-making to be fully automated. This means that decision logic may be specified with prescriptive or descriptive rules. Input data elements serve as parameters to the knowledge models, while knowledge sources denote authorities for a business knowledge model or decision.

Decision-making modelled in DMN may be mapped to tasks or activities within a business process, e.g. using BPMN as suggested in the DMN 1.0 specification.

Let’s consider one of the ways how the decision logic may be expressed, i.e. a decision table. A decision table consists of a name, a set of inputs, a set of outputs, and a list of rules in rows or columns of the table. Each rule is composed of the specific input entries and output entries of the table row or column. Each input (or output) optionally is associated with a type and list of input (or output) values. The list of rules expresses the logic of the decision. If rules are allowed to contain overlapping input combinations, the table hit policy indicates how overlapping rules must be interpreted. The list of rules may contain all possible combinations of input values, thus forming a “complete” table.

Hence, a decision table is a way how to model and visualize complex decisions, i.e. combinations of logical operators XOR, OR and AND on input data, while keeping the decision logic separately from process models. Other ways may be used for less complex decision logics, while keeping the business rules and decision logic separately from the process models, thus providing modifiability of the decision logic.

The decision table requires that all input data were complete and exclusive, i.e. all possible combinations of non-overlapping inputs must be presented there. However, combinations of input data may overlap, but the hit policy must clearly

Table 1: Comparison of the specification means.

Characteristics	LO	FC	UAD	BPMN	EPC	WF net	DMN
Specification of completeness of incoming and outgoing flows							
Necessity	-	-	-	-	-	Tokens and firing conditions	Completeness and overlaps check
Sufficiency	-	-	-	-	-		
Specification of logical relations among outgoing flows (splitting)							
XOR	Connector, conditions	Decision node with exclusive outputs	Decision node with exclusive outputs	Exclusive/event-based getaway	Corresponding connector, events	Places, transitions, tokens	Logical expressions, decision tables
OR	Connector, conditions	OR node/branches with conditions	-	Inclusive/event-based getaway			
AND	Connector	Extract node	Fork node	Parallel/event-based getaway			
Complex combination	Elements combination	Elements combination	Elements combination	Getaway combination/complex one	Elements combination	Places, transitions, tokens	Decision Tables
Specification of logical relations among incoming flows (merging)							
XOR	Corresponding connector	-	-	Exclusive/event-based getaway	Corresponding connector, events	Places, transitions, tokens	Logical expression and decision tables
OR		Merge, Summing Junction nodes	Merge node	Inclusive/event-based getaway			
AND		-	Join node	Parallel/event-based getaway			
Complex combination	A set of connectors	Elements combination	Elements combination	Getaway combination/complex one	Elements combination	Places, transitions, tokens	Decision Tables
Visualisation elements							
Splitting	Labels	Nodes, labels	Nodes, labels	Nodes, labels	Nodes	Nodes, labels	Labels, tables
Merging	Labels	Nodes	Nodes	Nodes	Nodes	Nodes, labels	Labels, tables
Separate location	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
TFM characteristics in case of integrated using							
Compactness (simple)	The same	Lower	Lower	Lower	Low (added events)	Low	The same
Compactness (complex)	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low	The same
Apprehensibility	Low if complex combinations	May be ambiguous	May be lower if complex behaviour	Lower due to notation diversity	The same or higher	Lower	The same or higher
Modifiability	The same	Lower	Lower	Lower	Lower	Lower	The same or higher
Accuracy	Higher	Lower	Higher	Higher	Higher	Higher	Higher
Abstraction	The same	Lower	Lower	Lower	Lower	Lower	The same

state how these overlapping rules have to be interpreted. There could be the single and the multiple outputs according to the indicated hit policy.

3.4 Comparison and Evaluation

So far, we have discussed in brief several approaches, namely logical operators as connectors (LO), flowcharts (FC), UML activity diagrams (UAD), BPMN, EPC, WF nets, and DMN. They provide different elements for specification and visualization of logical conditions on control flows.

We have defined characteristics of the specification means that we want to use together with the TFM. The characteristics and comparison are illustrated in Table 1. We have compared the considered approaches from five aspects: specification of completeness of incoming and outgoing flows, specification of splitting and merging, visualisation elements, and possible influence of these elements on the TFM characteristics in case of integrated using.

Specification of completeness of incoming and outgoing flows is not supported in all approaches but DMN. The DMN states that all input data must be complete (i.e. all possible combinations must be presented) in order to get a set of outputs, besides that all overlaps or incompleteness in input or output data must be solved by using the explicitly specified hit policy for each decision table.

All the approaches use special additional labelled or non-labelled nodes or combinations (patterns) of basic elements for specifying logical relations among sets of incoming or outgoing flows. Outgoing flows are labelled with conditions that if true are traversed. Only DMN decision models are placed separately and have links with the processes and tasks. Other approaches embed decision elements into the main model.

Next, we could evaluate how these approaches would affect such TFM characteristics as compactness, apprehensibility, modifiability and accuracy of specification of logical relations, as well as the level of abstraction in the model.

Compactness means keeping the same size of the TFM digraph, i.e. we prefer not to add additional nodes or patterns of elements. A simple case of logical relations is when a single logical operator is on the set of cause-and-effect relations. A complex case is when two or more logical operators are on the same set of cause-and-effect relations. Apprehensibility is lower when such additional constructs are added, since it requires additional

efforts to understand the model. Modifiability is the higher, the less elements in the digraph are affected by changes. Accuracy of specification is the higher, the less ambiguity is allowed. And the last, the level of abstraction in the model is the same, if additional elements do not add more specialized data to the digraph, e.g., data about events occurred or questions asked.

From these aspects, logical operators hanged on arcs and decision models are the most suitable, i.e. the former are appropriate in case simple logical relations, whereas the latter are more appropriate in case of complex logical relations.

4 CONCLUSIONS

In order to find the most suitable mechanisms we have considered native mechanisms in BPMN, UML Activity Diagrams, EPCs, flowcharts, workflow Petri Nets, and Decision Models. Evaluation of these models and provided specification mechanisms showed that a use of logical operators as we do it at the present and decision models of the DMN is more appropriate for our goal. The weakness of logical operators visualized as labels on connectors of flows is that they decrease compactness and comprehensibility of the model in case of complex logical combinations. However, the decision models are more powerful in such cases. Besides that, the decision models are separate from the main model and could be modified independently. The decision models may be assigned to the TFM using extension of the DMN metamodel.

The obtained results need to be validated for cases where systems have the complex behaviour and various logical relations among control flows. The future research direction is related to validation of the obtained results and integration of the corresponding approaches with the TFM.

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