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Algebraic View Reconciliation

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Abstract

Embedded systems such as automotive systems are very complex to specify. Since it is difficult to capture all their requirements or their design in one single model, approaches working with several system views are adopted. The main problem there is to keep these views coherent; the issue is known as view reconciliation. This paper proposes an algebraic solution. It uses sets of integration constraints that link (families of) system features in one view to other (families of) features in the same or a different view. Both, families and constraints, are formalised using a feature algebra. Besides presenting a constraint relation and its mathematical properties, the paper shows in several examples the suitability of this approach for a wide class of integration constraint formulations.

1 Introduction

At the requirements level, a feature encapsulates a set of related system-environment interactions. In the literature, we find various relationships between features and requirements. For instance, the IEEE standard [19, p. 19] gives among others the following relationship between requirements and features:

“A feature is an externally desired service by the system that may require a sequence of inputs to effect the desired result. For example, in a telephone system, features include local call, call forwarding, and conference call. Each feature is generally described in a sequence of stimulus-response pairs.”

Also, in [18], Savolainen et al. write “A feature is specified by a set of requirements; this set may contain one or more requirements”. Therefore, a feature can be described using scenarios (or use-cases) that provide the system-environment interactions.

The adoption of the product family paradigm in software development aims at recognising a reality in software development industry pointed out by Parnas [17] decades ago. The research on software product families aims at studying the commonality/variability occurring in the products in order to have a better management of and processes for software production. Also, the family approach to software development proposes that, instead of focusing attention on a single software system to be built, one takes into account predictable changes. Thereby, the analysis and design of a family of software systems that share a core part (commonality in all the members) is considered. Software product line engineering, which is a family-oriented software production process and technique, seems to be adopted by both practitioners and researchers to deal with changes in the requirements and hence a reconsideration of the corresponding designs. The idea behind product line engineering is to take advantage of the commonality of systems that are developed for a specific domain. Weiss and Lai [21, Preface, p. xvii] report that applying family-based processes at *Lucent Technologies* led to decreases in development time and costs for family members by 60% to 70%.

Embedded systems such as automotive systems are very difficult to specify using one single model that takes the software and the hardware perspective of the system into consideration. For engineering tasks, it is common to adopt multi-view approaches. For instance, when constructing a building, the specifiers elaborate many views of it: structure view, plumbing view, electrical wiring view, etc. These views need to be coherent. When we carry this view-

approach over to software product families, the complexity of the problem increases: each member of the family of each view needs to be coherent with some members of each of the other views.

Each view gives a partial description of the considered family, including a mixture of optional and required features/properties. Reconciling these views when integrating them helps to eliminate contradictory features/properties of the family, which leads to convergence towards a specification of the family. It is worth noting that this specification might not be complete; it depends on the domain coverage of the views.

After view reconciliation, the obtained family model considers potential products. Some products are theoretically possible in the family model but correspond to inconsistent scenarios that cannot be realised jointly; at a more detailed level, the functional requirements associated with the features clash. In [15], the reader finds a discussion on the transformation from a *feature algebraic* model of a family (given as a feature algebra term) into a more concrete model of its members, of the commonality of its members, or of a simple combination of requirements features.

In this paper, we introduce a technique for an overall integration of descriptions of a product family from several views/perspectives. The proposed formalism allows the integration of descriptions of a family from views that can be either orthogonal (e.g., software and hardware) or may overlap. Some views might impose constraints on others. We aim at integrating product family descriptions to obtain a specification of the combined family that excludes members violating the constraints of integration which relate features from one view with others from the same or a different view. To perform such an integration, mainly two problems need to be resolved. The first is how to articulate the constraints of integration, and the second is to perform the integration of partial family descriptions taking into account these constraints and leading to a coherent specification of the considered family. A review of the literature of product family based software development reveals a wide set of notions and terms used without formal definitions. However, in [7] a clear and simple mathematical setting for the usage of this paradigm is proposed. In the present paper, we extend that approach to cover the view reconciliation problem.

In Section 2, we recapitulate the basics of feature algebra. In Section 3, we extend the algebra by a requirement relation and elaborate on its properties and its use to formally capture informal integration constraints. In Section 4, we present our approach to the multi-view reconciliation problem. In Section 5, we present a larger case study. In Section 6, we discuss related work. In particular, we indicate how the reconciled views can be used for further analysis at more concrete levels of requirements and using already

known requirements analysis techniques. We conclude and point to future research in Section 7. An Appendix presents the proofs of our theorems.

2 Feature Algebra

In this section, we introduce the algebraic structure of feature algebra. Since it is based on semirings we will first present these. Afterwards, we will give an idea of some notions defined within this structure.

Definition 2.1 A *semiring* is a quintuple $(S, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ such that $(S, +, 0)$ is a commutative monoid and $(S, \cdot, 1)$ is a monoid such that \cdot distributes over $+$ and 0 is an annihilator, i.e., $0 \cdot a = 0 = a \cdot 0$. The semiring is *commutative* if \cdot is commutative and it is *idempotent* if $+$ is idempotent, i.e., $a + a = a$. In the latter case the relation $a \leq b \iff_{df} a + b = b$ is a partial order, i.e., a reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive relation, called the *natural order* on S . It has 0 as its least element. Moreover, $+$ and \cdot are isotone with respect to \leq .

In our current context, addition can be interpreted as a choice between options of products and features and multiplication as their composition or mandatory presence. The element 0 represents the empty family of products while 1 represents a product with no features. An important example of an idempotent (but not commutative) semiring is REL, the algebra of binary relations over a set under set union and relational composition.

Note that multiplication is not assumed to be commutative or idempotent; hence, unlike addition, it does not induce a partial order. Also, no absorption laws between addition and multiplication are assumed, so that in general there is no lattice structure on a semiring. However, an idempotent semiring induces an upper semilattice in which addition coincides with the supremum operator. More details about (idempotent) semirings and examples of their relevance to computer science can be found, e.g., in [5, 4].

In the literature, terms like product family and subfamily lack exact definitions. Following [7, 8] we use the following algebraic definitions for these terms.

Definition 2.2 A *feature algebra* is an idempotent and commutative semiring. Its elements are called *product families*.

These elements can be considered as abstractly representing sets of products, each of which is composed of a number of features. Intuitively, a single product cannot be decomposed using the choice operator $+$. In other terms, it does not offer optional or alternative parts. Let us characterise this formally.

Definition 2.3 A product family a is a *product* if

$$\begin{aligned} (\forall b : b \leq a &\implies b = 0 \vee b = a) \wedge \\ (\forall b, c : a \leq b + c &\implies (a \leq b \vee a \leq c)) . \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

In particular, 0 is a product. A product a is *proper* if $a \neq 0$.

With this definition we deviate slightly from the one in [7, 8] to avoid tedious case analyses.

Analogously to Definition 2.3, indecomposability can be required, but this time w.r.t. multiplication rather than addition.

Definition 2.4 An element a is called *feature* if it is a proper product and

$$\begin{aligned} (\forall b : b | a &\implies b = 1 \vee b = a) \wedge \\ (\forall b, c : a | (b \cdot c) &\implies (a | b \vee a | c)) , \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where the divisibility relation $|$ is given by $x | y \iff_{df} \exists z : y = x \cdot z$.

The algebra is *feature-generated* if every element is a finite sum of finite products of features. In this case, single features are the “smallest” components from which products and product lines are built. The *size* of element a is the minimum number n such that $a = \sum_{i < n} p_i$ for suitable products p_i .

The representation of the elements in sum-of-products form corresponds to or/and trees of features.

A particular feature-generated algebra over a set of basic features can be constructed in the following way. Take as elements finite sets of finite bags (or multisets) of basic features and use set union for $+$ and bag union for \cdot . This yields a feature algebra in which \cdot is not idempotent, since bags record the multiplicities of features. The products are the singleton sets of finite bags. We will refer to this algebra as the *bag model*. If one does not want to distinguish multiple occurrences of features, one can use sets rather than bags of basic features; this yields an algebra with idempotent \cdot to which we will refer as the *set model*. In both models the size of an element is its cardinality.

From the mathematical point of view, the characteristics of products (1) and features (2) are similar and well known. A uniform treatment of both notions is given in the Appendix of [8], where also the order-theoretic background is discussed. Other notions and similarity measures among families, like *generated products*, *refinement* of families, *k-near similarity* of two families, *weak zero*, and *subfamily*, are also defined and discussed there. A tool of fundamental importance in the definition of our new requirement relation is the following

Principle of Family Induction: Assume a feature-generated algebra A and a predicate P on A . If $P(p)$ holds for all products $p \in A$ (induction base) and is preserved by addition, i.e., satisfies $P(b) \wedge P(c) \implies P(b + c)$ (induction step) then $P(a)$ holds for all $a \in A$. The soundness of this principle is shown by a straightforward induction on the size of the elements of A .

Example 2.5 We assume a small company which has a family of two product lines: *DVD Players* and *MP3 Players*. All its members share a list of common features, namely audio equaliser (`a_eq`) and dolby surround (`dbs`). Members can also have some mandatory features and might have some optional features that another member of the same product line lacks. For instance, we can have a DVD Player able to *play mp3-files* (`p_mp3`) while another does not have this feature. However, all the DVD players must have the *play DVD* (`p_dvd`) feature. Similarly, some, but not all, MP3 players are able to *record mp3-files* (`r_mp3`). Optionality of a feature (or, more generally, a list of products), is described by $\text{opt}[s_1, \dots, s_n] =_{df} (1 + s_1) \cdot \dots \cdot (1 + s_n)$, a choice allowing any of the products s_1, \dots, s_n (or none). Therefore we can characterise the above product lines as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dvd_player} &= \text{p_dvd} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{p_mp3}] \cdot \text{a_eq} \cdot \text{dbs} , \\ \text{mp3_player} &= \text{p_mp3} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{r_mp3}] \cdot \text{a_eq} \cdot \text{dbs} . \end{aligned}$$

The whole product family is the combination of both players via choice:

$$(\text{p_dvd} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{p_mp3}] + \text{p_mp3} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{r_mp3}]) \cdot \text{a_eq} \cdot \text{dbs} .$$

To motivate the next definition, we define an “older” product line of DVD Players that does not have the capability for dolby surround:

$$\text{old_dvd_player} = \text{p_dvd} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{p_mp3}] \cdot \text{a_eq} .$$

Since each product (or member) of `dvd_player` has at least the same features as a product of `old_dvd_player`, we say that `dvd_player` is a refinement of `old_dvd_player`; in signs

$$\text{dvd_player} \sqsubseteq \text{old_dvd_player} .$$

□

Informally, $a \sqsubseteq b$ means that every product in a has (at least) all the features of some product in b , but possibly additional ones.

Definition 2.6 Formally, the *refinement* relation is defined as $a \sqsubseteq b \iff_{df} \exists c : a \leq b \cdot c$; it forms a preorder, i.e., it is reflexive and transitive.

It is easy to see that divisibility implies refinement:

$$a | b \implies b \sqsubseteq a . \quad (3)$$

The reverse implication need not hold for the following reason: $a | b$ means that *all* products of a can (uniformly) be

extended to products of b , whereas $b \sqsubseteq a$ allows that some products of a may be disregarded in the extension. However, since products are defined as sum-irreducible elements, refinement and divisibility coincide in particular feature algebras if the refinee is a product:

Lemma 2.7 *Let a, p be elements of a feature-generated algebra such that p is a product. Then refinement and divisibility coincide, i.e., $a \sqsubseteq p \iff p \mid a$.*

Because of this lemma, in such algebras we may pronounce $b \sqsubseteq p$ as “ b has p (as a subproduct)”.

We list a few useful properties of the refinement relation.

Lemma 2.8 *Let a, b, c, p be elements of a feature algebra such that p is a product.*

- (a) $a \sqsubseteq a + b$.
- (b) $a \cdot b \sqsubseteq a$.
- (c) $a + b \sqsubseteq c \iff a \sqsubseteq c \wedge b \sqsubseteq c$.
- (d) $p \sqsubseteq a + b \iff p \sqsubseteq a \vee p \sqsubseteq b$.

In [7], we also give some useful applications of feature algebras concerning finding common features, building up product families, finding new products and excluding special feature combinations.

Moreover, finding the commonality of a given set of products is a very relevant issue, since the identification of common artefacts within systems (e.g., chips, software modules, etc.) enhances hardware/software reuse. Within feature algebras like the set-based model and the bag-based model, this problem can be formalised as finding “the greatest common divisor” or to factor out the features common to all given products. It is a direct use of “classical” algorithms which shows an advantage of using an algebraic approach. Solving gcd (greatest common divisor) is well known and easy, whereas finding commonalities using diagrams (e.g., FODA [13]) or trees (e.g., FORM [14]) is more complex. To check the adequacy of the proposed definitions a prototype implementation of the bag model¹ has been written in the functional programming language *Haskell*. Features are simply encoded as strings. Bags are represented as ordered lists and \cdot as bag union by merging. Sets of bags are implemented as repetition-free ordered lists and $+$ as repetition-removing merge. This prototype can normalise algebraic expressions over features into a sum-of-products-form.

¹The program and a short description can be found at the web site belonging to [9].

3 Requirements: Implications and Exclusions

When the specification of a product or that of a family of products is tackled by adopting a multi-view approach, constraints on the integration of the views are elicited as well. These constraints very often link the presence of a feature in a partial description taken from one view to that of another feature in the same or another view. They can link subproducts or subfamilies as well. A common informal formulation of these constraints can be illustrated as follows:

“If a member of a product family has property p_1 it also must have property p_2 ” or

“If a member of a product family has property p_1 it must not have property p_2 ”.

Such integration constraints can easily be formulated in feature algebra. To achieve this goal we introduce the following new *requirement relation*.

Definition 3.1 Assume a feature-generated algebra. For elements a, b and product p we define, in a family-induction style,

$$\begin{aligned} a \xrightarrow{p} b &\iff_{df} (p \sqsubseteq a \implies p \sqsubseteq b), \\ a \xrightarrow{c+d} b &\iff_{df} a \xrightarrow{c} b \wedge a \xrightarrow{d} b. \end{aligned}$$

Now $a \xrightarrow{e} b$ is well defined for all e , since by assumption e can be written as a finite sum of products. Informally, $a \xrightarrow{e} b$ means that if e has a then it also has b , or, in other words, that a implies b within e , whence our notation. If a and b are products then $a \xrightarrow{e} b$ coincides with $a \xrightarrow{e} l$ where l is the least common multiple of a and b . In the bag model the least common multiple of two bags p and q is the “smallest” bag refined by p and q . For example, assume the features `wheel` and `axis`. Then the least common multiple of `wheel4 · axis` and `wheel3 · axis2` is `wheel4 · axis2` (where a^n denotes the n th power of a). The requirement that in a product line a two wheels need an axis is expressed by `wheel2 \xrightarrow{a} axis`. Later on, we present more examples of the requirement relation.

We now establish some connections between our various relations.

Lemma 3.2 *Let a, b, c, d be elements of a feature-generated algebra.*

(a) \xrightarrow{a} is a preorder.

(b) Let $b \sqsubseteq c$, then

$$c \xrightarrow{a} d \implies b \xrightarrow{a} d \quad \text{and} \quad d \xrightarrow{a} b \implies d \xrightarrow{a} c.$$

In particular, $b \sqsubseteq c \implies b \xrightarrow{a} c$.

- (c) Let $b \leq c$, then
 $c \xrightarrow{a} d \implies b \xrightarrow{a} d$ and $d \xrightarrow{a} b \implies d \xrightarrow{a} c$.
 In particular, $p \leq q \implies p \xrightarrow{a} q$.

Since variants of semirings have already been successfully combined with automated theorem provers [10, 11], we implemented feature algebra axiomatically in the first-order theorem prover Prover9 and the counterexample generator Mace4 [16]. Using this encoding we can prove all the presented theorems and lemmas fully automatically. For the sake of readability we do not display the input/output files and machine proofs. They all can be found at a web site [6]. Proofs by hand can be found in Appendix A.

Lemma 3.3 *Let a, b, c, d, p be elements of a feature-generated algebra.*

- (a) $b \xrightarrow{a} b + c$.
 (b) $b \cdot c \xrightarrow{a} b$.
 (c) $b \xrightarrow{a} c \implies b \xrightarrow{a} c + d$.
 (d) $b \xrightarrow{a} d \implies b \cdot c \xrightarrow{a} d$.
 (e) If p is a product, then $b \xrightarrow{p} c \implies b + d \xrightarrow{p} c + d$.
 (f) $a \xrightarrow{e} b \wedge c \xrightarrow{e} d \implies a \cdot c \xrightarrow{e} b \wedge a \cdot c \xrightarrow{e} d$.
 (g) $a + b \xrightarrow{e} c \iff a \xrightarrow{e} c \wedge b \xrightarrow{e} c$.

Before looking at the multi-view reconciliation problem we will give some small examples of how the above relation can be used.

Example 3.4 In the remainder we assume that a vehicle is built up from the following components (features): `axis`, `engine`, `speed.indicator`, `steering.wheel`, `wheel`, `standard.transmission` and `automatic.transmission`.

- `engine` $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `speed.indicator` guarantees that every motor vehicle of the family `car` has also a speed indicator.
- The requirements `wheel` \cdot `wheel` $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `steering.wheel` and `engine` $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `steering.wheel` mean that there is at least one steering wheel if the vehicle has at least two wheels or one engine.
- To exclude more than one steering wheel, one can use the requirement $(\text{steering.wheel}) \cdot (\text{steering.wheel}) \xrightarrow{\text{car}} 0$.
- $(\text{wheel} \cdot \text{wheel})^n \xrightarrow{\text{car}} \text{axis}^n$ (for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$) guarantees that each pair of wheels can be connected by its own axis.
- To express that a car has to have an even number of wheels we can use `wheel`²ⁿ⁺¹ $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `wheel`²ⁿ⁺².

So far we have used only requirements for products. However, our requirement relation can also be used more generally. For instance, we may wish to express the following:

“If a member of product family a has feature p_1 it also needs to have feature p_2 or p_3 ”.

For this we may simply write $p_1 \xrightarrow{a} p_2 + p_3$.

- Thus, by `engine` $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `standard.transmission` + `automatic.transmission` we require that if a car has an engine it also needs to have a standard transmission or an automatic one.

An application of such an integration constraint occurs, e.g., when sensors are used (see Section 5), because then very often several technologies are adopted. We can have requirements demanding that either of the technologies be used. Last, but not least, one can use the product family 1 consisting just of the empty product to guarantee the existence of other elements.

- For example 1 $\xrightarrow{\text{car}}$ `engine` enforces that each car has (at least) one engine.

□

The third item in Example 3.4 shows how to describe exclusion using \xrightarrow{a} . While a global mutual exclusion of products p and q can be expressed by the additional axiom $p \cdot q = 0$, practically, expressing exclusion using \xrightarrow{a} is more suitable. Very often we exclude combination of features only within a particular product (or family) a . The exclusion using \xrightarrow{a} has scope a , whereas $p \cdot q = 0$ does not have an explicit scope. Therefore our requirement relation fits well with the exclusion concept of [7].

Finally, to express global product implication, one might define

$$b \xrightarrow{*} c \iff_{df} \forall a : b \xrightarrow{a} c. \quad (4)$$

However, this relation is uninteresting by the following result.

Lemma 3.5 *Let b, c be elements of a feature-generated algebra. Then $b \xrightarrow{*} c \iff b \sqsubseteq c$. In particular, $b \xrightarrow{*} 0 \iff b \sqsubseteq 0 \iff b = 0$.*

Since the proof only uses reflexivity and transitivity of \sqsubseteq , it generalises to arbitrary preorders. In fact, we have the following result.

Lemma 3.6 *For an arbitrary binary relation Q define the relation R_Q by $y R_Q z \iff_{df} (\forall x : x Q y \implies x Q z)$.*

(a) R_Q is a preorder.

(b) A relation \preceq is a preorder iff it satisfies the principle of indirect inequality, i.e., coincides with R_{\preceq} .

4 Multi-View Reconciliation Problem

In this section we sketch the multi-view reconciliation problem. Later on, we illustrate the problem with a small example. In Section 5 we will present a larger case study.

When we approach the specification of a product family from different perspectives, we can easily show that these perspectives are somehow interdependent. When this interdependence is known, how can we integrate them taking into account their interdependence, which can be captured by a set of integration constraints?

We will show that simple multiplication, i.e., the Cartesian product, of families combined with the requirement relation yields the desired behaviour. On the basis of our algebra we can tackle the feature reconciliation problem in the following way:

- Take two product lines a and b and a set of implication clauses of the form $c \xrightarrow{a \cdot b} d$.
- Write a and b in sum-of-products form.
- Now form $a \cdot b$, multiplying out and removing all products from the resulting sum that do not respect the implication clauses.

As a simple example we assume a company which produces computers. In particular, it builds machines with a hard disk and a screen. Additionally, a second screen, a printer or a scanner can be ordered. Of course, it is possible to have more than one extension for the basic computer. Using the abbreviations `hd`, `scr`, `prn` and `scn`, this yields the following element in feature algebra:

$$hw = hd \cdot scr \cdot opt[scn, prn, scr]$$

where `opt[...]` describes the optional features. In fact the company produces exactly 8 different machines. Next to the company producing hardware, we assume a software company implementing drivers. At the moment it offers only two different software packages.

$$sw = hd_drv \cdot scr_drv \cdot prn_drv + hd_drv \cdot scr_drv \cdot scn_drv$$

The first one contains drivers for hard disks, screens and printers; the second for hard disks, screens and scanners. The Multi-View Reconciliation Problem asks for all products that satisfy the following requirements:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} hd & \xrightarrow{hw \cdot sw} & hd_drv \\ scr & \xrightarrow{hw \cdot sw} & scr_drv \\ prn & \xrightarrow{hw \cdot sw} & prn_drv \\ scn & \xrightarrow{hw \cdot sw} & scn_drv \end{array}$$

These requirements guarantee that each hardware component has an appropriate driver. For this, in our Haskell implementation the function `reconc` takes two product

families a and b and a list of pairs (c, d) that represent requirements $c \xrightarrow{a \cdot b} d$ and solves the multi-view reconciliation problem by the above procedure. Hence the call

```
reconc hw sw
[(hd, hd_drv), (scr, scr_drv),
 (prn, prn_drv), (scn, scn_drv)]
```

determines all desired products, 8 in number:

hard disk	hard disk driver
printer	printer driver
screen (2x)	screen driver

hard disk	hard disk driver
printer	printer driver
screen	screen driver

hard disk	hard disk driver
screen (2x)	printerdriver

hard disk	hard disk driver
screen	printerdriver

hard disk	hard disk driver
scanner	scanner driver
screen (2x)	screen driver

hard disk	hard disk driver
scanner	scanner driver
screen	screen driver

hard disk	hard disk driver
screen (2x)	scanner driver

hard disk	hard disk driver
screen	scanner driver

Let us have a closer look at the result set. First, there is no machine with scanner and printer. This is due to the fact that there is no software package having drivers for both components. Furthermore, there are two different versions of the hardware product consisting of hard disk and screen(s) only. The versions offer software for scanners and printers, resp. Such products can be seen as hardware with an upgrade option. That means that the customer can add a hardware component without changing the software.

Finally, symmetrically to the combination of product lines, one can extract a view of a product family by simple projection to the respective feature set F using a feature algebra homomorphism that sends all features outside F to the empty product 1.

5 Illustrative Case Study of the Multi-View Reconciliation Problem

Due to lack of space we only point out the interesting bits of the case study. The whole specification and the corresponding Haskell code can be found in [9].

We consider a family of *Driver Assisting Systems* described from a functional perspective and from a sensor perspective. The latter perspective includes only the sensors needed by the products.

The functional description is built up from the following basic components (features):

“Road sign recognition and indication” (`rd_sgn_rcg`),
 “Far Infra-Red (IR) detection” (`fir`),
 “Thermal imaging detection” (`tid`),
 “Line departure warning” (`ldw`),
 “Blind spot monitoring” (`bsm`),
 “Adaptive Cruise Control (ACC) following control” (`acc_fc`),
 “Emergency braking” (`e_braking`),
 “Urban ACC (stop & go)” (`u_acc`),
 “Automatic steering and braking” (`aut_str_brk`),
 “Automatic line keeping” (`aut_lane`),
 “Obstacle avoidance” (`obst_avd`) and
 “Obstacle warning” (`obst_wrng`).

More advanced products are combinations of other components. For example, the functional description of night vision consists of far infra-red technology (`fir`) or a simple thermal infra-red imaging technology (`tid`). The component for *driver information and warning* (`driver_i_w`) is the combination of the three mandatory basic features `rd_sgn_rcg`, `ldw` and `bsm`, and the ability of night vision.

```
n_vision = fir + tid + (fir · tid)
driver_i_w = rd_sgn_rcg · ldw · n_vision · bsm
```

To describe the complete product line for the driver assisting system from the functional perspective we use further components for *automatic longitude control* (`aut_long_ctrl`) and *automatic lateral control* (`aut_ltrl_ctrl`). The details are described in [9]. The whole product line is then characterised by

```
p_line_driver_assist_sys =
  obst_wrng · opt[obst_avd, driver_i_w] ·
  opt[aut_long_ctrl, aut_ltrl_ctrl]
```

where `opt[...]` describes again optional features. It is easy to see that this product family contains products with both far and thermal infra-red technology. From an industrial point of view, if both technologies occur one of them is just redundant and would only generate extra costs. Therefore we use the requirement

$$\text{fir} \cdot \text{tid} \xrightarrow{\text{p_line_driver_assist_sys}} 0.$$

The reduced result `res_p_line_driver_assist_sys` yields a size reduction of 25%. In real life this would lead to an immense decrease of costs. Moreover, by simple algebraic calculations done automatically by our prototype, we can list its common features.

```
printfeat (common res_p_line_driver_assist_sys)
```

shows that obstacle warning (`obst_wrng`) is the only common feature. This result shows that (a) every product of the driver assisting system must have such a warning system and (b) that the company can produce one single version of such a system for all its products.

In the sequel we focus on another view. Instead of discussing functional descriptions of our system we now focus on sensors and actuators. In particular, this view describes the kind of sensors needed by the family to gather the information necessary for the above functional features.

Similar to the functional view, we first list the basic features for the actuator and sensor view:

“Acceleration pulsator” (`acclrt_pulsator`),
 “Acceleration-of-wheel sensor” (`acclrt_wheel`),
 “Acceleration-of-vehicle-body sensor” (`acclrt_body`),
 “Displacement-of-wheel sensor” (`dis_wheel`),
 “Displacement-of-vehicle-body sensor” (`dis_body`),
 “Brake temperature sensor” (`brk_temp`),
 “CO₂ sensor” (`co_snsr`),
 “Position sensor” (`position`),
 “Load data sensor” (`load`),
 “ACC radar” (`acc_radar`),
 “ACC laser” (`acc_laser`),
 “ACC video camera” (`acc_v_cam`),
 “ACC IR camera” (`acc_ir_cam`),
 “ACC Far-IR camera” (`acc_far_ir`).

To describe the complete on-board sensor configuration we use the following combined features (for details see again [9]):

“Acceleration Sensors” (`acclrt_sensors`),
 “Displacement Sensors” (`dis_sensors`) and
 “Adaptive Cruise Control Sensors” (`acc_sensors`).

The complete description of all on-board sensors then is

$$\text{on_board} = \text{opt}[\text{co_snsr}] \cdot \text{opt}[\text{brk_temp}^4] \cdot \text{acclrt_sensors} \cdot \text{dis_sensors} \cdot \text{acc_sensors} \cdot \text{opt}[\text{position}^8]$$

where $a^n = a \cdot \dots \cdot a$ denotes the standard power function.

Similar to the requirement constraint of the functional description view, we have the following exclusion constraints:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{acc_radar} \cdot \text{acc_laser} & \xrightarrow{\text{on_board}} & 0, \\ \text{acc_far_ir} \cdot \text{acc_ir_cam} & \xrightarrow{\text{on_board}} & 0. \end{array}$$

The restricted set `res_on_board` of possible sensor configurations is about 76% smaller than the unrestricted version. Thus, adding simple restriction constraints can yield an immense and useful decrease of the variety of products.

The functional and the sensor view now form the basis for the multi-view reconciliation problem. To link these two perspectives we set up the following requirements:

```

driver_i_w
   $\xrightarrow{x}$  acclrt.pulsator + co_snsr + position ,
e_braking
   $\xrightarrow{x}$  brk_temp . position ,
aut_str_brk + aut_lane
   $\xrightarrow{x}$  dis_wheel . acclrt.body . load ,

```

where x is the product consisting of the two restricted product lines, i.e.,

$$x = \text{res_p_line_driver_assist_sys} \cdot \text{res_on_board}.$$

Due to lack of space we cannot explain these requirements in detail; we only sketch the idea of the second one. In the case of an emergency braking, the sensors have to control the temperature of the brakes and at the same time the current position has to be checked to react if there is an obstacle in front.

Now we can use the described algorithm to solve the multi-view reconciliation problem. This yields a general product family of 30240 different models.

6 Related Work

There is a wide literature on the reconciliation of non-functional requirements such as security and performance [2]. For instance, security requires careful scrutinising of data, which could affect system's performance. Also, we find approaches to resolve architectural mismatches resulting from integrating commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) components. The mismatches are essentially between the services required and provided that might arise in the interaction of a component and its environment. However these approaches do not directly relate to the problem we are tackling in this paper. They tackle the reconciliation of two architectural models: one that is forward engineered from the requirements specification and a second that is reverse-engineered from the COTS-based system implementation [1]. Also, a similar problem occurs when merging views of a database and it is called *view reconciliation problem* [12]. The above cases are considering the development of a single software system and not a software family. The mismatches that we are concerned with are at the level of the feature model in the initial phase of the software development process before the architectural design.

Also, the literature regarding the sequential completion method for the development of software systems proposes a variety of solutions to the view reconciliation prob-

lem [3, 20, 22]. The views considered there are partial descriptions (e.g., scenarios or use-cases) of the functional requirements of a system. To build up the overall specification of the system, these partial views are integrated and in this process any inconsistencies among them are detected. In [3] we find a relational approach to the integration of sequential scenarios, which are scenarios involving a single user. The integration is possible if the scenarios are consistent (from a behaviour perspective). Moreover, the proposed technique offers several opportunities for detecting possible sources of requirements incompleteness. In [20], an approach to scenario-based specification, integration, and behaviour analysis is proposed. The approach proposes a Message Sequence Charts language that integrates existing approaches based on scenario composition by using high-level Message Sequence Charts. Also, it presents a synthesis algorithm which transforms scenarios into a behavioural specification in the form of Finite Sequential Processes. The obtained specification can be analysed with the Labeled Transition System Analyzer using model checking and animation. In [22] an algebraic framework for view consistency in the elaboration of functional requirements of a system is presented. Viewpoints are formalised as pairs of a syntactic and a semantic category linked by a model functor, while views are objects in the syntactic category. Consistency of views is defined by a heterogeneous pullback construction. The approaches of [3, 20, 22] deal with the integration of partial descriptions of the behaviour of a single system while interacting with its environment.

Formal requirements scenarios are related to feature algebra by providing concrete definitions for the two feature algebra operators \cdot and $+$, and providing explicit 0 and 1. For instance, the integration of features using the product is presented as a generalisation of the work presented in [3]. It can be as well represented as a scenario composition using high-level Message Sequence Charts (hMSCs) and then one uses the technique proposed by Uchitel et al. [20] to analyse the obtained concrete model.

7 Conclusion and Future Work

We have presented an algebraic framework for solving the multiview reconciliation problem. The main ingredient is a set of integration constraints that link features or more generally subfamilies in one view description to other features or sub-families in the same or another view description. The integration process leads to a more accurate specification of a product family by excluding the members that do not satisfy the integration constraints. The description of a family as well as the integration constraints are given within the same mathematical framework of feature algebra. We have presented the mathematical properties of a requirement relation that we use to express the view integration

constraints. Several examples have shown the capabilities of this approach for dealing with a wide class of integration constraint formulations.

The main characteristics of the proposed approach are the following:

- The conflict resolution among views is performed without modification on the initial views. It is a direct application of the principle of separation of concerns. Each specifier can concentrate on capturing a description of a product family from his own view without being constrained to conform to some other specifier's view. In a second step one can focus the attention on the constraints that govern the integration of the considered views. The global view of the product family is then obtained by simple algebraic manipulations. This approach is suitable for graceful aging and evolution of product family specifications: each time a view changes the global view can be automatically re-generated.
- The mathematical background needed to specify product family views as well as the integration constraints involve only simple concepts that we can realistically expect all stakeholders to understand and relate to.
- Due to the simplicity of the mathematical framework, the reasoning on product families as well as on view integration can be automated in provers such as Prover9 [16] and prototypically implemented over some useful models of feature algebra in Haskell.

The algebraic model of features is at a high level of abstraction. From a software perspective, a feature could be a requirement scenario/use-case or a partial description of the functionality. Our current research aims at investigating the derivation of the specifications of members of a family from its abstract feature algebra specification and the specifications of each of its features. This step would join the ongoing research efforts for formal model driven software development techniques. The feature algebra model of a family and the specifications of the family's features would be the initial models of the sought transformation.

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A Deferred Proofs

Proof of Lemma 2.7.

Assume $a \leq c \cdot p$ for some element $c = \sum_{i \in I} q_i$ with finite index set I and products q_i . By distributivity, $a \leq \sum_{i \in I} q_i \cdot p$. This means $a = \sum_{i \in J} q_i \cdot p$ for some subset $J \subseteq I$. Again, by distributivity, $a = (\sum_{i \in J} q_i) \cdot p$, showing $p|a$. \square

Proof of Lemma 2.8.

- (a) $a \leq a + b = (a + b) \cdot 1$.
- (b) Choose $c = b$ in the definition of refinement.
- (c) See Lemma 4.6 of [7].
- (d) (\Leftarrow) follows by (a) and transitivity of \sqsubseteq .
 (\Rightarrow) Assume $p \leq (a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$. Since p is a product, we have $p \leq a \cdot c \vee p \leq b \cdot c$, which shows the claim. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.2.

The claims are shown by family induction. We only give the induction base cases; the induction steps are straightforward predicate logic.

- (a) Reflexivity follows immediately from the definition. Transitivity holds by transitivity of implication.
- (b) Let p be a product. First we show $c \xrightarrow{p} d \implies b \xrightarrow{p} d$. Therefore we assume $b \sqsubseteq c$, $c \xrightarrow{p} d$ and $p \sqsubseteq b$. Then by transitivity of \sqsubseteq we get $p \sqsubseteq c$ and hence also $p \sqsubseteq d$. The second claim is proved similarly.
 For the third claim set $d = c$ in the first claim or $d = b$ in the second claim and use reflexivity of \xrightarrow{a} .

- (c) Immediate from (b) using $b \leq c \implies b \sqsubseteq c$. \square

Proof of Lemma 3.3.

Again the claims are shown by family induction for which we only do the base cases.

- (a) By Lemma 2.8(a) $q \sqsubseteq b$ implies $q \sqsubseteq b + c$ by $b \sqsubseteq b + c$ and transitivity of \sqsubseteq .

- (b) Assume $q \sqsubseteq b \cdot c$, i.e., $\exists f. q \leq b \cdot c \cdot f$. Setting $c' =_{df} c \cdot f$ shows $q \sqsubseteq b$.

- (c) Immediate from Lemma 3.2(b) by $c \sqsubseteq b + c$.

- (d) Immediate from Lemma 3.2(b) by $b \cdot c \sqsubseteq b$.

- (e) Assume $p \sqsubseteq b + d$. Since p is a product, this implies $p \sqsubseteq b$ or $p \sqsubseteq d$. In the first case, $p \sqsubseteq c \sqsubseteq c + d$ by $b \xrightarrow{p} c$ and Lemma 2.8(b). In the second case $p \sqsubseteq d \sqsubseteq c + d$. Note that this property cannot be lifted to arbitrary elements using the sum of products form, since we use a special property of products.

- (f) Immediate from Part (c).

- (g) By definition of \xrightarrow{p} , Lemma 2.8(d), predicate logic and definition of \xrightarrow{p} again,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (e + f \xrightarrow{p} c) \\
 \iff & (p \sqsubseteq e + f \implies p \sqsubseteq c) \\
 \iff & ((p \sqsubseteq e \implies p \sqsubseteq c) \wedge (p \sqsubseteq f \implies p \sqsubseteq c)) \\
 \iff & (e \xrightarrow{p} c \wedge f \xrightarrow{p} c). \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Lemma 3.5.

(\Leftarrow) We assume $b \sqsubseteq c$. Then, by Lemma 3.2(b), $b \xrightarrow{a} c$ for all a . By definition this is the same as $b \xrightarrow{*} c$.

(\Rightarrow) We use family induction on b .

Induction base, i.e., b a product: Spelling out the definition yields $b \xrightarrow{*} c \iff (\forall a : b \xrightarrow{a} c)$. Choosing $a = b$ implies $b \xrightarrow{b} c$ which is equivalent to $b \sqsubseteq b \implies b \sqsubseteq c$, since b is a product. This immediately yields the claim.

Induction step, i.e., $b = e + f$. We again set $a = b$ and reason as follows, using the definition of $\xrightarrow{e+f}$, Lemma 3.3(g), predicate logic, the induction hypothesis and Lemma 2.8(d),

$$\begin{aligned}
 & e + f \xrightarrow{e+f} c \\
 \iff & e + f \xrightarrow{e} c \wedge e + f \xrightarrow{f} c \\
 \iff & e \xrightarrow{e} c \wedge f \xrightarrow{e} c \wedge e \xrightarrow{f} c \wedge f \xrightarrow{f} c \\
 \iff & e \xrightarrow{e} c \wedge f \xrightarrow{f} c \\
 \iff & e \sqsubseteq c \wedge f \sqsubseteq c \\
 \iff & e + f \sqsubseteq c. \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Lemma 3.6.

- (a) Reflexivity: By definition, $y R_Q y \iff (\forall x : x Q y \implies x Q y)$ which is true by predicate logic.
 Transitivity: Assume $y R_Q z \wedge z R_Q u$ and, for arbitrary x , that $x Q y$. Then, by the first assumption, also $x Q z$ and hence, by the second assumption, also $x Q u$, as required.

- (b) (\Rightarrow) is shown as in the proof of Lemma 3.5.

(\Leftarrow) is immediate from (a). \square