

# Towards Semantical DSMLs for Complex or Cyber-physical Systems

Blazo Nastov<sup>1</sup>, Vincent Chapurlat<sup>1</sup>, Christophe Dony<sup>2</sup> and François Pfister<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>LG12P, Ecole des mines d'Alès, Nîmes, France

<sup>2</sup>LIRMM, University of Montpellier, Montpellier, France

**Keywords:** MDE, Modeling, Models, DSML, Behavior, Dynamic Semantics, Formal Verification, Simulation.

**Abstract:** MDE is nowadays applied in the context of software engineering for complex or cyber-physical systems, to build models of physical systems that can then be verified and simulated before they are built and deployed. This article focuses on DSMLs direct formal verification and simulation of their dynamic semantics. By “direct”, we mean without transforming the DSML description into an automata-like one. This paper presents *xviCore*, a metamodeling language to create DSMLs equipped with an abstract syntax, a concrete syntax and a dynamic semantics. We exemplify *xviCore* by an integration of a metamodeling language and a formal behavioral modeling language, based on the blackboard design pattern. Formal verification techniques based on the Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) and the Temporal Boolean Difference can be then applied as demonstrated by the proposed approach.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The development of software engineering for complex or cyber-physical systems currently deflects a key issue. Within this context, the Model-Driven Engineering (MDE) provides means for systems modeling through creation, checking and manipulation of various models. Models are nowadays created using Domain Specific Modeling Languages (DSML). A DSML basic components are its *syntax* and *semantics* (Kleppe, 2007) but current DSMLs have been more studied from the syntactical point (syntactical DSMLs) than from the semantical one that is often neglected or, when needed, provided by means of translating the DSML into a third-party formalism. This is a key limitation for formal verification and simulation (Chapurlat, 2013). According to (Combemale et al., 2009), the DSML semantical part can be divided into a *static part*, representing concept meaning (abstract and concrete syntaxes) and behavior independent structural constraints (pre and post conditions, invariants, etc.) and a *dynamic part*, dealing with the way models behave. We focus hereafter on this dynamic part, usually named “*dynamic semantics*” or “*behavior*”. It can be defined either by using action languages (e.g., Java) or behavioral modeling languages (e.g., Statechart), providing respectively an implementation or an explicit specification.

Nevertheless, to follow the basic MDE “*everything is a model*” principle (Bézivin, 2005) requires a model-based way of specifying behavior. Languages to model dynamic semantics in this context and/or dedicated virtual machines for simulation have already been studied in various works: Statechart in (Douglass, 2002) or UML activities in (Scheidgen and Fischer, 2007). However, using different tools to design syntax and an automata-like behavior of a language creates a gap that requires transformation rules between them. In some works, e.g., (Mayerhofer et al., 2013), the behavioral modeling language fUML is integrated into the M3 metamodeling layer. This overcomes transformation related problems, but formal-verification related problems remain still a subject of a debate.

Our global contribution presented in this paper is a new meta-modeling language, called *xviCore*, allowing meta-modelers to build DSMLs (called *xviDSMLs*), that along with their syntax and static semantics part also integrates a dynamic semantics part and providing solution for direct (without transformation) models verification and simulation. Our solution combines, two meta-languages, EMOF for the specification of the static part, and an original extension of the behavioral modeling formal language “Interpreted Sequential Machine” (ISM) called extended ISM (eISM) for the dynamic part.

Thanks to this key extension (that includes a blackboard-based communication model), dynamic semantics of an *xviDSMLs* can be designed, statically verified and used to simulate models written using them (called *xviModels*). *xviCore* is a tooling meta-language implemented as an Eclipse-EMF deployable plug-in.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Sections 2-3-4 describe our *xviCore* solution. Section 2 proposes an overview of the approach and the rationale for eISM and for its combination with EMOF. Section 3 presents eISM. Section 4 explains how the dynamic semantics of an *xviDSML* can be verified. A case study example demonstrating the approach’s applicability is illustrated in Section 5. Section 6 presents related works on DSML dynamic semantics. Section 7 concludes and highlights our perspectives.

## 2 GLOBAL VIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTION (*xviCore*)

Our integrated meta-language *xviCore* (executable verifiable and interoperable core concepts and mechanisms) for creating verifiable DSML is illustrated in Fig. 1. *XviCore* combines two metalanguages, EMOF and our extension of the formal behavioral modeling language “Interpreted Sequential Machine” (ISM) (Vandermeulen, 1996) called extended ISM (eISM). Assuming other metalanguages could have been used, we thereafter justify this choice. An *xviModel* is created by an *xviDSML* itself created by EMOF for the static part and eISM for its dynamic semantics.

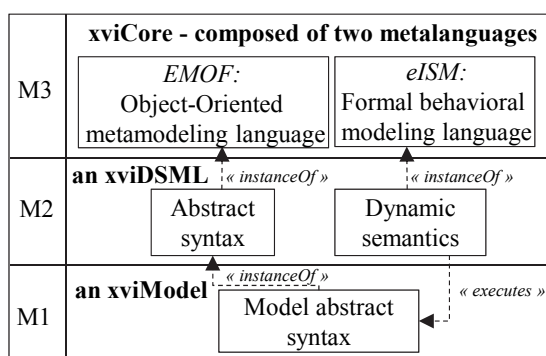


Figure 1: An overview of *xviCore*.

The static part description of *xviDSMLs* is based on EMOF and does not require additional efforts (Steinberg et al., 2008). For what concerns the dynamic semantics, each domain concept has its

own behavior, specified by a behavioral model. The means for interoperation between different behavioral models should then be established, including at least centralized data and event exchanges between behavioral models assuming temporal synchronization rules. However, behavioral modeling languages are not tailored for such use. We propose hereafter a solution for this problem based on the blackboard design pattern integrated to the extension of ISM.

The blackboard design pattern (Engelmore and Morgan, 1988) is a behavioral pattern “affecting when and how programs react and perform”. A “blackboard” is a shared and structured memory that establishes relationships between independent modules called “autonomous processes” where each process is individually able to solve a sub-problem. Processes can solve a “global problem” when they are put together, reading and writing data in the blackboard that is iteratively updated. Each process has a set of triggering conditions that have to be satisfied by particular kinds of events, sent by a controller. The processes synchronization is handled by a controller that monitors the data stored into the blackboard and decides which autonomous processes to prioritize. The controller reacts to global changes in the blackboard resulting from external inputs or previously executed processes. Processes can be simultaneously executed, having a concurrent access to the relevant blackboard data. This may produce a situation of deadlock (if two or more processes are each waiting for the other to finish, and thus neither ever does) (Lalanda, 1997).

The Fig. 2 shows *xviCore* that introduces four main concepts:

- 1) *Controller (C)* is used to schedule the execution of behavioral models (described hereafter) from an *xviDSML* according to a logical and periodical clock taking into account multiscale time and stability management rules. We propose an execution algorithm in (Nastov et al., 2015). It corresponds to the “controller” module of the blackboard pattern.
- 2) *Blackboard (BB)* is a common base of information where behavioral models write their output data (*O*) and read their input data (*I*), enabling information exchange. The *BB* corresponds to the “blackboard” module on the blackboard pattern and is formally defined as 5-uplet  $BB \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle AT, LT, C, S, R \rangle$  where: *AT* is a set of “time indication” variables, specifying the time of adding.

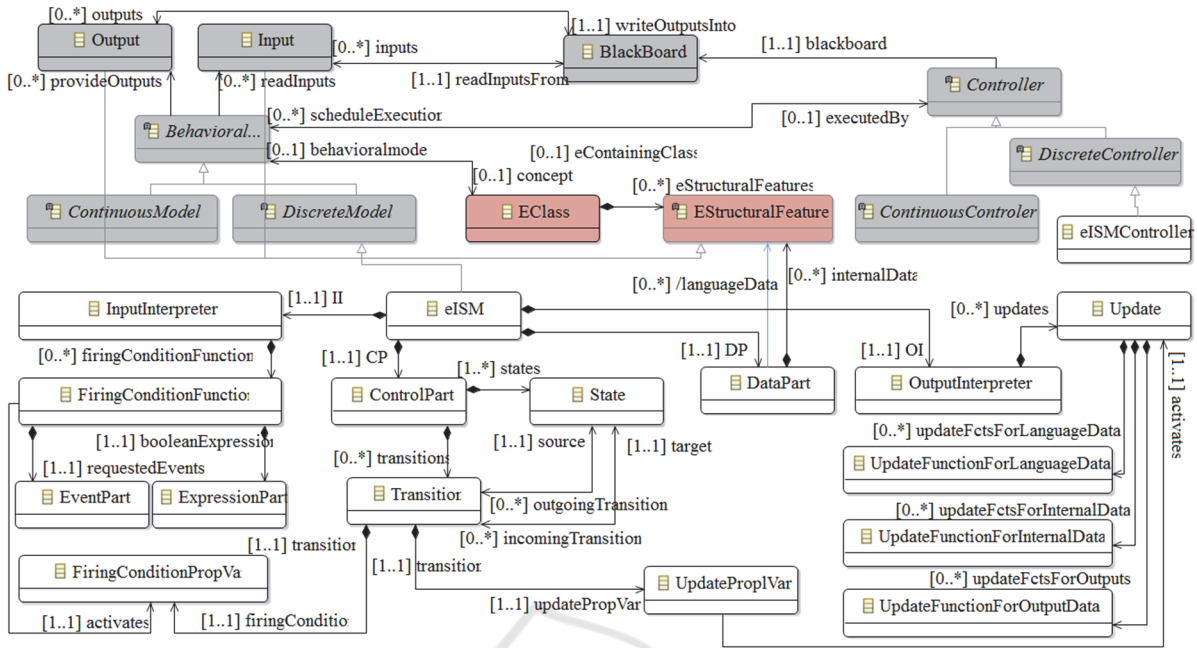


Figure 2: xviCore - in red (a part of) EMOF, in white eISM and in gray the design blackboard pattern.

$LT$  is a set of “lifetime” variables, indicating the remaining time before updating messages.  $C$  is a set of “content” variables carried out by the messages.  $S$  is a set of “sender” variables specifying the behavioral model that sent the message and  $R = \{R_1, \dots, R_k\}$  is a set of “receivers” variables indicating the behavioral models that read the message:  $\forall R_i \in R, R_i = \{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$ .

3) *Concept* is the core component of *xviCore* represented using the EMOF’s *EClass*. It is used to model domain concepts for which a behavioral model might be specified. It does not correspond to any component of the blackboard design pattern. We have chosen EMOF’s *EClass* mainly for two reasons: (1) EMOF and its realization Ecore are standardized by the OMG and (2) it is supported by tools such as Eclipse-EMF under the Eclipse Public License.

4) *Behavioral model* represents the behavior of a domain concept instance of *EClass*. It corresponds to the “*autonomous processes*” module of the blackboard design pattern. Behavioral models are designed using a behavioral modeling language based on continuous or discrete events hypotheses. In this article, we focus on discrete behavioral description, for which we hereafter introduce eISM an extended version of the Interpreted Sequential Machine (Vandermeulen, 1996). eISM behavioral models operate with typed data

and expressions, separating the states/transitions description from the data specification. This allows specifying some states using data variables, reducing consequently their number. The underlying structure of an eISM behavioral model is based on the Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) which is beneficial for formal verification.

### 3 EXTENDED ISM – eISM

An eISM is composed of four interconnected parts called: Input Interpreter (*II*), Output Interpreter (*OI*), Control Part (*CP*) and Data Part (*DP*) as modeled in Fig. 2 and illustrated in Fig. 3.

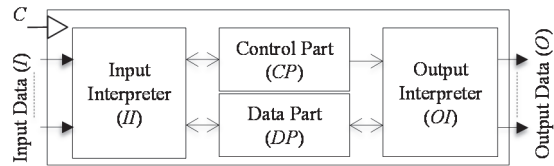


Figure 3: The components (modules) of an eISM model.

The *CP* is a graph of states and transitions. The *DP* holds the model data. The *II* interprets *input data* (gathered into the set  $I$ ) available in the Blackboard (*BB*) and *model data* from the *DP*. Interpreted data takes part in the firing conditions that are associated with each transition of the *CP*, consequentially taking part in the *CP*’s evolution. The *OI* is an

interface that interprets the evolution of the *CP* by updating the values of the output data (gathered into the set *O*) and the values of the model data from the *DP*. This model is formalized as a 6-uplet eISM  $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle I, O, CP, DP, II, OI, \rangle$  where:

- a) *I* is the set of input data available from the *BB*. Each input  $i_i$  is defined by a current value  $cvalue_i$ , a domain definition  $I_i$  and a type  $I_i'$ , such as  $I_i \subseteq I_i'$ .
- b) *O* is the set of output data that is sent to the *BB* by the *OI*. Each output  $o_i$  is defined by a current value  $cvalue_i$ , a domain definition  $O_i$  and a type  $O_i'$ , such as  $O_i \subseteq O_i'$ .
- c) The *CP* (Control Part), is defined as a graph of states related by labeled transitions and formally defined as a 5-uplet  $CP \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle S, \mathbf{S}, T, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{U} \rangle$  where:  $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_v\}$  is a set of states,  $\mathbf{S} = \{s_1, \dots, s_v\}$  is a set of state propositional variables,  $T = \{T_1, \dots, T_q\}$  is a set of transitions,  $\mathbf{E} = \{e_1, \dots, e_q\}$  is a set of firing condition propositional variables and  $\mathbf{U} = \{u_1, \dots, u_q\}$  is a set of update propositional variables. Transitions are given in the following form  $T_i = [(s_i, e_j), (s_k, u_l)]$ . By hypothesis, there is a unique state  $s_i$  that is active each moment of the evolution. When the state  $s_i$  is active (otherwise inactive), the propositional variable associated to that state i.e.,  $s_i = True$  (*False* otherwise). In addition, firing condition propositional variables,  $e_j \in \mathbf{E}$ , evaluate to *True* if and only if the corresponding firing condition function  $e_j$  computed by *II* returns *True*. A transition  $T_i$  can be fired by the transition function  $\underline{\delta}: \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{S}$  if and only if, the transition's firing condition propositional variable  $e_i$  evaluates to true and the source state of the transition  $T_i$  is an active state. Firing a transition activates the output function  $\underline{\lambda}: \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ . As a consequence to these two functions, the source state of transition  $T_i$  is deactivated, its target state is activated and the corresponding update propositional variable  $u_l \in \mathbf{U}$  is set to *True*.
- d) The *DP* (Data Part) holds the model data that is used to specify transitions' firing condition functions  $\mathbf{E}$  and update functions  $\underline{\mathbf{U}}$ . It is formally defined by a 2-uplet  $DP \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle LD, ID \rangle$  where:  $LD = \{ld_1, \dots, ld_c\}$  is a set of language data directly derived from the corresponding DSML class and  $ID = \{id_1, \dots, id_d\}$  is a set of internal (to the eISM model) data, explicitly needed for the description of firing condition and update functions. *DP*'s data elements, from both

*LD* and *ID* sets, are defined by a current value *cvalue*, a domain definition *DP* and a type *DP'* such that  $DP \subseteq DP'$ .

- e) The *II* (Inputs Interpreter) reads data (input data from the *BB* and model data from the *DP*) and based on it, evaluates the firing condition propositional variables that are associated with transitions of the *CP*. It is formally defined as 5-uplet  $II \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle I, LD, ID, \underline{\mathbf{E}}, \mathbf{E} \rangle$  where  $\underline{\mathbf{E}} = \{e_1, \dots, e_x\}$  is a set of firing condition functions and  $\mathbf{E} = \{e_1, \dots, e_x\}$  is a set of firing condition propositional variables. Firing condition functions are composed of a Boolean expression part (evaluated using input and model data) and a requested events part (evaluated using only input data), formally defined as:  $\forall e_j \in \underline{\mathbf{E}}, e_j = \{cond_i, event_i\}$ . The firing condition function evaluates to *True*, if both parts compute to *True*, *False* if at least one computes to *False*. Every firing condition propositional variable is associated with a firing condition function. This is formally defined as  $e_j: I \cup LD \cup ID \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  and  $\forall i \in [1, \dots, x], e_i = 1 \Leftrightarrow (e_i = True)$ .
- f) The *OI* (Outputs Interpreter) associates the update propositional variables with the corresponding update functions. The evaluation of update functions impacts on the model data from the *DP* and on the output data that is sent to the *BB*. The *OI* is illustrated on Fig. 7 and is formally defined as a 6-uplet  $OI \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle LD, ID, I, O, \mathbf{U}, \underline{\mathbf{U}} \rangle$  where  $\mathbf{U} = \{u_1, \dots, u_q\}$  is a set of update propositional variables and  $\underline{\mathbf{U}} = \{u_1, \dots, u_q\}$  is a set of updates. Each update might be associated with three types of update functions: update functions for output data  $u_{ij}: I \cup LD \cup ID \rightarrow O$ , update functions for language data  $u_{ij}: I \cup LD \cup ID \rightarrow LD$  and update functions for internal data  $u_{ij}: I \cup LD \cup ID \rightarrow ID$ . When an update propositional variable  $u_i$  is set to true, the corresponding update is activated, executing simultaneously all associated update functions.

## 4 VERIFICATION

Verification of the *xviDSML* static and dynamic part must occur, prior to model specification and simulation. In general, a verification process is composed, at least, of three components: 1) a formal specification, on which the verification process is conducted, 2) formal properties that are verified on

the formal specification during the verification process and 3) a model-checking verification tool. We cover hereafter each of these components, focusing only on verification of the dynamic part.

1) *Formal Specification*: The underlying structure of an eISM behavioral model is based on the Linear Temporal Logic (LTL), defined by a set of *Elementary Valid Formulas (EVF)* (Larnac et al., 1997). *EVF* are inferred from the *PC*'s transitions combined with LTL operators. Let  $T_i = [(s_i, e_i), (s_j, u_i)]$  a transition between states  $s_i$  and  $s_j$ , associated to an  $e_j$  firing condition propositional variable and to a  $u_i$  update propositional variable.  $T_i$  infers as an *EVF* of the following form:

$$EVF(T_i) := \Box(s_i \wedge e_i \supset \bigcirc s_j \wedge u_i)$$

Its interpretation stands as follows: “it is always true ( $\Box$  operator) that if  $s_i$  is the current state (and therefore  $s_j$  is true) and  $e_j$  is true, then the next state ( $\bigcirc$  operator) will be  $s_j$  ( $s_j$  will be true), and the current output propositional variable  $u_i$  becomes true”. The list of all the *EVFs* gives a symbolic and equivalent description of the behavior of an eISM model. Similarly, a *Unified Valid Formula (UVF)* is computed by taking *EVFs* into consideration. Briefly, the concept of *Temporal Event (E<sub>t</sub>)* describes possible effects of an eISM model evolution.  $E_t$  can either be a future state ( $E_t = \bigcirc s_i$ ), a future state within n-time steps ( $E_t = \bigcirc^n s_i$ ), a future output propositional variable ( $E_t = \bigcirc u_i$ ), or a future output propositional variable within n-future steps ( $E_t = \bigcirc^n u_i$ ). A *Unified Valid Formula (UVF)* defines then conditions that must be satisfied for the occurrence of a temporal event  $E_t$ :

$$UVF(E_t) := \bigvee_{(p,q)/s_p \wedge e_q \supset E_t} (s_p \wedge e_q)$$

Its interpretation stands as follows: “next temporal event  $E_t$  (respectively state  $S_j$  or update function  $u_j$ ) is reachable if and only if at least one of the proposed conditions is verified”. So the calculation of *UVFs* consists in manipulating the set of *EVFs*. For instance, let's consider the following *EVF* formulas:

- $EVF(T_k) := \Box(s_k \wedge e_k \supset \bigcirc s_j \wedge u_k)$
- $EVF(T_l) := \Box(s_l \wedge e_l \supset \bigcirc s_j \wedge u_k)$

The  $UVF(E_t)$  when  $E_t = \bigcirc s_j$  is then noted:

- $UVF(E_t) := (s_k \wedge e_k) \vee (s_l \wedge e_l)$

whose interpretation is: “ $s_j$  will be active in the next step ( $\bigcirc s_j$  is true), either if  $(s_k \wedge e_k)$  is true or if

$(s_l \wedge e_l)$  is true”.

2) *Formal Properties*: coherence between the formal specification and the “to be checked” formal properties is necessary. Therefore, properties should also be specified using the LTL. As an example, the state determinism hypothesis “at a given time step, there is one and only one current state” can be specified as the following LTL formula:

$$P_1 := \Box(s_i \supset \neg s_j), \forall i, j \in \{1, \dots, v\}, i \neq j.$$

3) *Tool*: An adequate model checking tool is under construction considering the survey of (Rozier, 2011) on the formal verification technique of LTL symbolic model checking. As an example of LTL formulas checking mechanisms, let's introduce *Temporal Boolean Difference (TBD)* mechanism (Larnac et al., 1997 – Vandermeulen et al., 1995) inspired by (Kohavi, 1978). This mechanism is applied on a *UVF* with respect to a current state or a firing condition propositional variable, composing them into a *Derived Valid Formula (DVF)*:

$$DVF(E_t, x) := \frac{\partial UVF(E_t)}{\partial x} = UVF(E_t|x) \oplus UVF(E_t|\neg x)$$

The result of an evaluation of  $DVF(E_t, x)$  can either be: *False* –  $UVF(E_t)$  is independent of  $x$ . In other words, the change of value of  $x$  has no influence over the occurrence of  $E_t$ . *Not False* – in this case, we obtain a LTL formula which expresses the sensitivity of  $UVF(E_t)$  with respect to the changes of  $x$ .

## 5 CASE STUDY

We demonstrate here the construction of a new toy *xviDSML*, called *WaterDistrib* for modeling water storage and distribution systems using our approach *xviCore*.

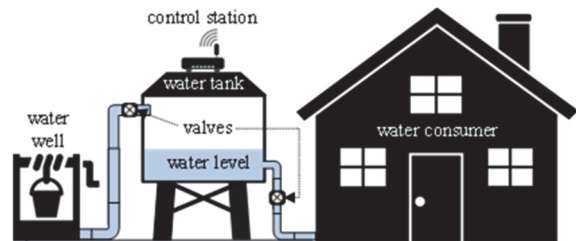


Figure 4: a *WaterDistrib* model – an example of a water storage and distribution system.

A model created by WaterDistrib is illustrated in Fig. 4 and simulated using the dynamic semantics of WaterDistrib allowing experts to observe the changing water level. It is composed of a water tank, a water-source that is connected to the tank with pipes and a control station. A house is supplied with water thanks to the tank. There are valves on each of the pipes, controlled (opened or closed) by a control station, based on the water request and the water level inside the tank.

We propose in Fig. 5 a metamodel for WaterDistrib composed of three principle concepts: *WaterTank*, *Valve* and *ControlStation*. The red ovals represent the eISM behavioral models of each of the concepts as discussed hereafter.

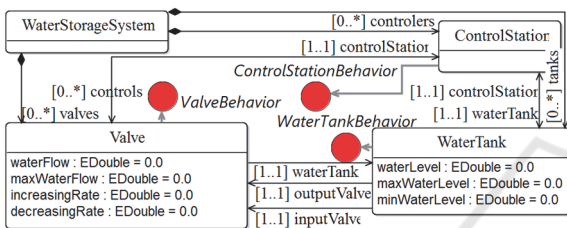


Figure 5: WaterDistrib a new DSML for a water storage and distribution systems.

The behavior of the concept *Valve* is composed of four states: *Closed*, *Opening*, *Opened* and *Closing* as illustrated in Fig. 6.

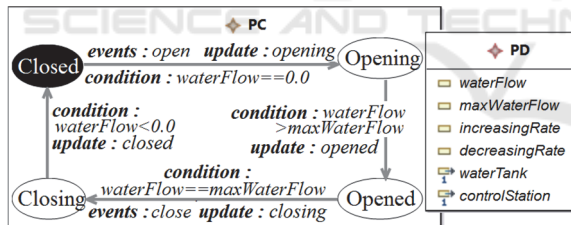


Figure 6: Behavioral model associated to the class Valve.

A valve is initially *Closed*, not providing any water flow (update *closed* is activated, see Table 1), awaiting a request to open itself. When the *open* request arrives, the update *opening* is activated (see Table 1) and the valve enters *Opening* state. Once the valve's water flow reaches its maximum value, the update *open* is activated (see Table 1) and the valve enters *Opened* state. Now the valve awaits a request to close itself. When the *close* request arrives, the update *closing* is activated (see Table 1) and the valve enters *Closing* state. As soon as the valve's water flow reaches 0, the update *closed* is activated and the valve enters its initial *Closed* state.

Table 1: Valve's updates.

Update	Language Data
<i>closed</i>	<i>waterFlow=0</i>
<i>opening</i>	<i>waterFlow+=increasingRate</i>
<i>opened</i>	<i>waterFlow=maxWaterFlow</i>
<i>closing</i>	<i>waterFlow-=decreasingRate</i>

The behavior of the concept *ControlStation* is composed of three states: *Mode1*, *Mode2* and *Mode3* as illustrated in Fig. 7. A control station is initially in the *Mode1* state, filling the tank (update *filling* is activated, see Table 2) awaiting water request. When the request arrives and if there is a sufficient water level in the tank, the *filling-empting* update is activated (see Table 2) and the control station enters *Mode2* state. If the tank is emptying faster than filling, when its current water level reaches the critical min level, the control station enters again *Mode1* state, activating the *filling* update. For the sake of simplicity, the case when the tank is filling faster than emptying is not modeled in Fig. 7. When the station is in *Mode1* state, if a water request has not yet arrived and the tank reaches its critical max level, the *awaiting* update is activated (see Table 2). The control station enters *Mode3* state, waiting for a water request. The request arrival activates the *filling-empting* update and the control station enters *Mode2* state.

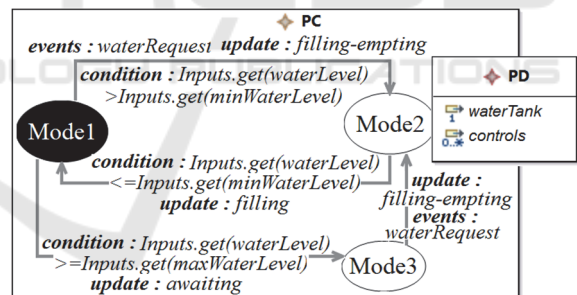


Figure 7: eISM behavioral models associated to the class Control Station.

Table 2: Control Station's updates.

Update	Output Data
<i>filling</i>	<i>Outputs.set(waterTank.inputValve, Open)</i> <i>Outputs.set(waterTank.outputValve, Close)</i>
<i>filling-empting</i>	<i>Outputs.set(waterTank.inputValve, Close)</i> <i>Outputs.set(waterTank.outputValve, Open)</i>
<i>awaiting</i>	<i>Outputs.set(waterTank.inputValve, Close)</i> <i>Outputs.set(waterTank.outputValve, Close)</i>

The next phase consists of checking dynamic semantics for well-constructiveness. For this purpose, the formal underlying structure of the eISM behavioral models should be developed, as illustrated in Fig. 8.

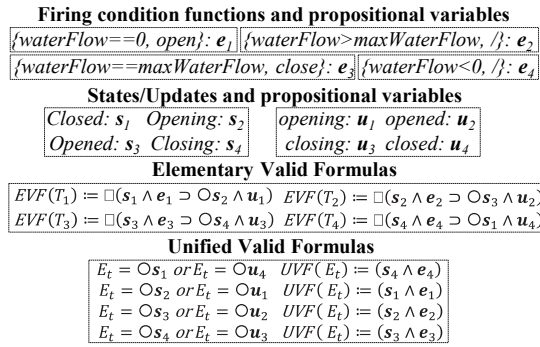


Figure 13: The underlying formal structure of the eISM behavioral models associated to the class Valve.

At the upper side of the figure the states, updates and firing conditions are specified, along with their corresponding propositional variables. Using these variables allows the specification of EVFs that are furthermore used for the specification of the UVFs. In the same way, one can specify the formal underlying structure of any eISM model.

Concerning formal properties, let's consider the transition exclusion hypothesis: *"at any given time step, for the current active state (which must be unique), there is one and only one output transition that can be fired"*. In other word, all firing condition of output transitions of any state from the *PC*, are to be exclusive, modelled as:

$$\forall S_i \in \mathcal{S},$$

$$E_{S_i} = \{e_j | \forall T_k \in post(S_i), pre(FVE(T_k)) = S_i \wedge e_j\}$$

$$\left[ \bigoplus_{j=1}^{card(E_{S_i})} e_j = 0 \right]$$

Finally, an adequate model-checker should be used to verify this property on the formal specification.

## 6 RELATED WORK

Specifying dynamic semantics in the field of MDE have been a topic of research for quite some time now, resulting with a wide diversity of approaches mainly based either on translational or operational semantics (Combemale et al. 2009).

The main benefit of translational semantics approaches is the reuse of appropriate formal tool-supported target space usually based on Automata-like formalisms. Among the most popular and currently used are: StateMate (Harel and Politi, 1998), Uppaal (Larsen et al., 1997), the Finite State Machine (FSM) model of computation of Ptolemy II (Lee and John, 1999), the Stateflow module in the The MathWorks Simulink framework (Boldt, 2007)

and the UML State Machines (Schäfer et al., 2001; Harel, 1987). However, in comparison with the proposed approach, several drawbacks are hereafter highlighted. Translational semantics approaches require expertise and knowledge in the chosen target domain and in transformation languages and tools. Demonstrating the relevance between (source and target) concepts and their behaviour remain limited, often impossible, i.e., obtained results are only available in the target spaces, so they should be interpreted back to the source space.

Operational semantics allows the specification of behavior directly on concepts, allowing model simulation and animation, as early as possible with minimum of effort, improving system quality and reducing time-to-market. Action languages can define operational semantics in ad hoc manner, as a set of operations associated to each concept of a DSML. For this matter different types of languages can be used: object-oriented (e.g., Java), aspect-oriented (e.g., Kermeta), executable constraint (e.g., xOCL (Clark et al. 2008)) or the MOF action language (Paige et al., 2006). Approaches such as: Xcore (an extension of EMOF/Ecore) (Clark et al. 2004) or the EPROVIDE framework (Sadilek et Wachsmuth, 2009), are also worth mentioning. The latter, for instance, is not related to a single language allowing the choice between Java, Prolog, ASM or QVT. However, in comparison to our approach, they do not follow the basic MDE "everything is a model" principle (Bézivin, 2005), providing an implementation of the behavior, instead of an explicit specification. This principle leverages the use of modeling languages for the specification of behavior, named behavioral modeling languages. Among the commonly used are Statechart or Finite Automata. But, as previously discussed, there is a gap between the technical spaces related to such languages and the MDE that can be bridged by using transformation techniques. Alternative approaches bridge this gap by integrating a behavioral modeling language with a metamodeling language into a single metamodeling layer promoted at M3. They propose to use various languages to model behavior, Statechart in (Douglass, 2002), UML activities in (Scheidgen and Fischer, 2007) or fUML in (Mayerhofer et al. 2013) and introduce dedicated virtual machines for simulation. These approaches allows to execute (even partial) models, to test them for correctness as early as possible with very little effort, eliminating the need to manually write source code for the model means, removing consequently developer coding defects and thereby improving system quality and reducing time-to-market.

However, in comparison to the proposed approach, they are not adapted for formal verification of defined behavior.

## 7 CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

The presented contribution illustrates an original, formal and tool-equipped approach named *xviCore* for verification and simulation purposes of DSML and models.

*xviCore* provides the means for expressing dynamic semantics using formal behavioral modeling language, i.e., an extended version of the interpreted sequential machine (ISM), named eISM. eISM is integrated with the metamodeling language EMOF, based on the blackboard design pattern. The resulting executable metamodeling language is promoted to the M3 layer. The approach also supports several formal verification techniques for dynamic semantics based on the Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) and the Temporal Boolean Difference.

Other contributions remain still a subject of a debate. To prove the scalability of the approach, we are currently working on a more complex case study applied in the field of Systems Engineering. Our goal is to provide a framework for Systems Engineering composed of several interconnected languages. In addition, we aim to integrate *xviCore* with a formal property modeling language, initially proposed in (Chapurlat, 2013), allowing the specification of structural and behavioral properties for an *xviDSML*. At a final stage, we aim at integrating a behavioral modeling language based on continuous hypotheses.

## REFERENCES

- Bézivin, J., 2005. On the unification power of models. *Software & Systems Modeling*, vol. 4, no 2, p. 171-188.
- Boldt, R. F., 2007. Combining the Power of MathWorks Simulink and Telelogic UML/SysML-based Rhapsody to Redefine MDD. *Telelogic White Paper*.
- Chapurlat, V., 2013. UPSL-SE: A model verification framework for Systems Engineering. *Computers in Industry*, 64(5), 581-597.
- Clark, T., Evans, A., Sammut, P., and Willans, J., 2004. An eExecutable metamodeling facility for domain specific language design. *The 4<sup>th</sup> OOPSLA Workshop on Domain-Specific Modeling*. Technical Report TR-33, University of Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Clark, T., Sammut, P., and Willans, J. 2008. Superlanguages: developing languages and applications with XMF, Ceteva.
- Combemale, B., Crégut, X., Garoche, P.-L., and Thirioux, X., 2009. Essay on Semantics Definition in MDE. An Instrumented Approach for Model Verification. *Journal of Software*, 4(6).
- Douglass, B. P., 2002. Real time UML. *In the 7th International Symposium FTRTFT*, Oldenburg, Germany.
- Engelmore, R., and Morgan, T. 1988. Blackboard systems, edited by Robert Engelmore, Tony Morgan. Addison Wesley Publishing Company.
- Harel, D., 1987. Statecharts: A visual formalism for complex systems. *Science of computer programming*, 8(3), 231-274.
- Harel, D., and Politi, M. 1998. Modeling reactive systems with statecharts: the STATEMATE approach. McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- IEC 60848, Specification language GRAFCET for sequential function charts. Second edition, 2000.
- Kleppe, A. G., 2007. A language description is more than a metamodel.
- Kohavi, Z., 1978. Switching and Finite Automata Theory. Tata McGraw Hill, *Computer Science Series*.
- Lalanda, P., 1997. Two complementary patterns to build multi-expert systems. *Pattern Languages of Programs*.
- Larnac, M., Chapurlat, V., Magnier, J., and Chenot, B., 1997. Formal Representation and Proof of the Interpreted Sequential Machine Model. *EUROCAST'97*, Las Palmas.
- Larsen, K. G., Pettersson, P., and Yi, W., 1997. UPPAAL in a nutshell. *International Journal on Software Tools for Technology Transfer (STTT)*, 1(1), 134-152.
- Lee, E. A., and John, I. I., 1999. Overview of the ptology project.
- Mayerhofer, T., Langer, P., Wimmer, M., and Kappel, G., 2013. xMOF: Executable DSMLs based on fUML. *In Software Language Engineering* (pp. 56-75). Springer International Publishing.
- Nastov, B., Chapurlat, V., Dony, C., and Pfister, F., 2015. "A Verification Approach from MDE Applied to Model Based Systems Engineering: xeFFBD Dynamic Semantics." *In the proceedings of CSD&M*, (pp. 225-238). Springer International Publishing.
- Paige, R. F., Kolovos, D. S., and Polack, F. A., 2006. An action semantics for MOF 2.0. *In Proceedings of the 2006 ACM symposium on Applied computing* (pp. 1304-1305). ACM.
- Rozier, K. Y., 2011. Linear temporal logic symbolic model checking. *Computer Science Review*, 5(2), 163-203.
- Sadilek, D. A., and Wachsmuth, G., 2009. Using grammarware languages to define operational semantics of modelled languages. *In Objects, Components, Models and Patterns* (pp. 348-356). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Schäfer, T., Knapp, A., and Merz, S. 2001. Model checking UML state machines and collaborations. *Electronic Notes in Theoretical Computer Science*, 55(3), 357-369.
- Scheidgen, M., and Fischer, J., 2007. Human



- comprehensible and machine processable specifications of operational semantics. In *ECMDA-FA 07*, pages 157–171. Springer.
- Steinberg, D., Budinsky, F., Merks, E., and Paternostro, M., 2008. EMF: eclipse modeling framework. Pearson Education.
- Vandermeulen, E., Donagan, H. A., Larnac, M., and Magnier, J., 1995. The temporal boolean derivative applied to verification of extended finite state machine. *Computer and Mathematics with application*, Vol 30, n°2.
- Vandermeulen, E., 1996. Machine Séquentielle Interprétée. *PhD Thesis University of Montpellier II*, (in French).

