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Ammar Osaiweran, Jelena Marincic, Jan Friso Groote
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Abstract

Software metrics are widely used to measure the quality of software and to give an early indication of the efficiency of the development process in industry. There are many well-established frameworks for measuring the quality of source code through metrics, but limited attention has been paid to the quality of software models. In this article, we evaluate the quality of state machine models specified using the Analytical Software Design (ASD) tooling. We discuss how we applied a number of metrics to ASD models in an industrial setting and report about results and lessons learned when collecting these metrics. Furthermore, we recommend some quality limits for each metric and validate them on models developed in a number of industrial projects.

1 Introduction

The use of model-based techniques in software development processes has been promoted for many years [24, 3, 4, 5, 1, 12, 6]. The aim is to use the models as a main software artifact in the development process, not only for visualization and communication among developers but also as an important means of specification, formal verification, code generation, testing and validation.

The premise is that, by modeling, engineers will focus more on the core software functionality rather than the implementation details. As a crucial part of the modeling paradigm, the code is often automatically generated, implementing the specification of the source model. This automatic construction of source code gives real-world value to the behavior specified in the model. Usually, the transformation to code is hidden from modelers; it is just one more command to execute or a button to click before compilation. Furthermore, for some modeling frameworks, behavioral correctness of models is established by automatic formal verification of which related formal specification is also hidden from end users. Visible to users is only the verification results or counterexamples guiding users when certain properties are violated.

The shift from traditional coding towards the model-based development paradigm is becoming very popular and attractive in industry. The reason is that it results in a notable increase of quality and reduction of time to market. Implementation details that support the execution of the core functionality is taken care by the code generator, reducing the time and overhead for error-prone manual implementation, facilitating automatic verification, and increasing overall productivity [23].

In traditional development, source code is the main software artifact. To measure the quality of source code, a number of widely used metrics are utilized, with well-established industrial strength
tools and frameworks, such as TICS [27], CodeSonar [9], SourceMonitor [26] and VerifySoft [28]. Code metrics are useful means to detect decays in architectures and code smells [13] that hinder future evolution and maintenance.

However, these frameworks and tools cannot be applied directly to measure the quality of models. They can measure the generated code but it is debatable whether this is meaningful. This is because, usually, code generators generate correct and optimal source code tailored to a specific domain and the generated code is often excluded from code analysis tools due to violations and non-adherence to the prescribed coding standards. Therefore, complexity, duplication and other undesired properties must be analyzed at the level of models. Since industry is becoming more and more reliant on software models, there is an urgent need to establish a way for measuring various metrics at the level of models and not at the level of source code.

In our industrial context, we use state machines to design and specify reactive and control aspects of software. The behavior of these machines is described using a lightweight formal modeling tool called ASD:Suite. The tool allows specification of state machines in a tabular format. These specifications can be formally verified and corresponding source code can be generated from these verified models [29].

Using ASD:Suite, we can create models but how can we ensure their quality. Because there is no means to measure the quality of these models, a number of challenging questions are raised. How can we evaluate the quality of this type of state machine models? Will we find complex and big models in the software archive? Which factors contribute to the complexity of models? How can these factors be detected and measured? How can we help engineers to improve the quality of their future models? How can we provide to modelers information on deterioration as their models evolve?

In this paper we provide answers to the above questions by utilizing a number of software metrics that we tailored and adapted for measuring the quality of ASD models. We discuss a number of observations raised when analyzing metrics of various models. Based on our empirical results, we propose a number of practical thresholds for various metrics. Note that our work is applied to models developed in real industrial projects and real products that are shipped to the market, and not to simple case studies or prototypes.

This article is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses related work on model-based development and metrics of state machines. Section 3 introduces ASD to the extent needed for this article. In Section 4 a number of well-known software metrics are detailed with the application to ASD models. Section 5 introduces recommended limits of metrics for good quality models. Section 6 details the data collection process of metrics from models and discusses observations during the data analysis. In Section 7 we conclude our paper highlighting the limitations and future work in this regard.

2 Related work

In a previous research at Philips Healthcare [25], guidelines for readability and verifiability of ASD models were introduced. An important guideline is for instance: an ASD tabular model should not include more than 250 rows leading to not more than 3000 lines of generated code. The limitation of this guideline is that it considers only the size of models and generated code while no other complexity factors were addressed. Furthermore, there was no automatic means to calculate the metrics at the level of models.

Most recently, a number of metrics such as cyclomatic complexity (CC) [21], Halstead complexity [17] and Zage complexity [31, 30] were applied to SCADE models. The purpose is to establish whether metrics for traditional source code can be used to assess complexity of SCADE model and to detect unavoidable complexity.
To estimate the reliability of UML state machines, and to identify failure-prone components, a group of authors [20] measured the cyclomatic complexity of UML state machines. They did not measure the $CC$ directly on state machines, but on the control flow graph generated from their software realization.

Similarly, other authors focus on assessing the number of tests. For example, in [15] decision diagrams as intermediate artefacts were used to calculate the number of tests for the code of concurrent state machines.

For automatically generated state-machines that contains a large number of states, and that have abstraction levels flattened, the work of [16] proposes a complexity metric to assist in generating hierarchical state-machines from a flat state-machine. A technique for search-based clustering of related states to identify potential superstates is used and then the $CC$ of each cluster is evaluated for a proper choice of super-states.

3 Analytical Software Design

This section provides a short introduction of the ASD approach and its toolset, the ASD:Suite [7, 19]. ASD is an approach used for building formally verified, component-based systems through the application of formal methods into industrial practice. ASD combines the Box Structure Development Method [22] and the Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) formalism [18], and uses Failures-divergence refinement FDR2 [11] as a model checker tool for formal verification.

Using the ASD:Suite, models of components and interfaces can be described. Two types of models are distinguished which are both state machines specified by a tabular notation: ASD interface models and ASD design models. These models are specified following the Sequence-Based Specification technique, to force consistent and complete specifications [8].

The external behavior (or contract) of a component is specified using an interface model which excludes any internal behavior not seen by client components that use the interface. The interface model is implemented by a design model which typically uses the interfaces of other so-called server components.

In ASD we distinguish between two types of components: ASD components and foreign components. An ASD component includes an implemented interface model, a design model, and optional server interface models. A foreign component has only an interface model of which implementation is constructed manually.

Formal verification is established by verifying that calls in design models to interfaces of server components are correct, with respect to contracts of the servers. The model checker tool exhaustively searches for illegal interactions, deadlocks or livelocks in the specification. It is also formally checked whether the behaviour of the design model obeys its implemented interface model. Verification starts automatically with the click of a button. In case an error is detected in the

![Figure 1: example controller system of automatic door](image-url)
models, the modeler receives a counterexample visualized in a sequence diagram, nicely traceable to the original specification of the model. Besides formal verification, the ASD:Suite allows code generation from design and interface models to a number of languages (C, C++, C#, Java).

In ASD, communication between client and server components is asymmetric, using synchronous calls and asynchronous callbacks. A client issues synchronous calls to server components, whereas a server sends callbacks to its clients. Callbacks are stored in a First-In-First-out (FIFO) callback queue. These callbacks are non-blocking and can be received by a component at any time.

Note that in ASD:Suite a designer can configure an ASD component to be multi-threaded or single-threaded. Using the multi-threaded option any ASD queue will run in its own thread causing potential thread-switching and interleaving of actions. In our industrial context we always use the single-threaded option which means that actions are executed until completion without any interleaving with other actions of the same or other ASD components.

We detail the ASD specification by using a small automatic Door controller example. It consists of a Door controller component that controls a Sensor and a Motor component, see Figure 1. The Controller receives two requests from external clients, namely systemOn to start-up the system and systemOff to shutdown the system. When the system is ON, the controller may receive a callback from the sensor component when there is a detected object. Upon such an event, it issues a command to the motor component to open the door and apply a brake. Then it starts a timer and when it times-out the controller issues a command to release the brake to close the door. This example is used to clarify and illustrate the the interface model in Section 3.1 and the design model in Section 3.2.

### 3.1 ASD Interface Models

The interface model is the first artifact that must be specified when creating an ASD component. It describes the formal contract of the component by means of the allowed sequence of calls and callbacks, exchanged with clients. Any internal behaviour not visible to clients is abstracted from the interface specification.

Figure 2 depicts the tabular specification of an ASD interface model. The specification lists all implemented interfaces, their events (also called input stimuli), guards or predicates on the events. A sequence of response actions can be specified in the Actions list such as return values or callbacks to clients, and special actions such as Illegal which essentially marks the corresponding event as not allowed in that state.

In Figure 2 the interface specification of the Door controller is described. The model contains two states: Off and On. Any ASD model must be complete in the sense that actions for all input stimuli events must be defined. For example in row 3 a systemOn event is accepted and the component will transit to state ON after returning a voidReply to IDoorControlAPI. In row 4 and 7 of Figure 2 the Illegal action is specified denoting that invoking the event is forbidden by clients. Once in the On state, the component accepts a systemOff request and transits back to the Off state. Similarly, Figure 3 depicts the external behavior of the Sensor hardware component, which is strictly alternating between the Active and Inactive states via the startSensing and stopSensing events. In row 10, a so-called internal event is specified denoting that something internal in the device can happen, which is in this case a detectedMovement. As a consequence, the detectedObject callback is sent to the controller and the Sensor remains in the Active state. Via internal events, the interface abstracts from one or more actions that happen internally in the implementation. Or conversely, it is an abstract event that can or must occur which therefore acts as an obligation for any component that implements that interface.
3.2 ASD Design Models

The ASD design model implements the interface model and extends it with more detailed internal behavior. The design model is used to specify how the provided interface model is implemented by mapping it to all required (or used) interface models. This means that the design model may include calls to other interface models of other components.

Figure 4 depicts the design model of the Door controller. The specification refines the interface model of Figure 2 with all required internal details and uses the interface models of other components such as the Sensor interface model of Figure 3. For example, row 4 specifies that when the Door component receives a systemOn request, it does not only return voidReply to the client, as specified in the interface model, but it also calls a configuration component via the getConfiguration action and asks the Sensor hardware to start monitoring the surroundings via the startSensing action. After that, the controller transits to the DoorClose state. Note that, the call to the configuration is supplied with 2 data parameters namely, speed and time. When the
call returns, the component stores their values in the local storage parameters of the component using the \( \geq \) operator, to be retrieved later when needed via \( \leq \) operator. Careful attention and thorough review of the data is needed because checking actual content of the data is excluded from formal verification in ASD. The rest of the specification is self-explanatory.

An example of processing a callback that is stored in the ASD queue is depicted in row 13 and 21 where the component may receive a detectedObject and a timeOut callback from the Sensor and the Timer components respectively.

4 Tailoring code metrics for ASD models

To measure the quality of ASD models, we tailored a number of metrics that are widely used in industrial practice for measuring the quality of source code like McCabe and Halstead complexity metrics [21, 17]. In this section we introduce these metrics and discuss how we adapt them to measure ASD design and interface models.

We start by introducing McCabe cyclomatic complexity metric (CC) and its application to measure complexity of ASD models. Then, we introduce our tailored version of the CC metric and also its application to ASD models. We discuss how both metrics complement each other and how they provide more insights on the complexity of the models. After that we introduce Halstead metrics detailing how they are adapted to measure ASD models. Finally, we present metrics related to formal verification generated by the model checker of ASD:Suite.

4.1 Cyclomatic complexity of ASD models

The cyclomatic complexity (CC) metric provides a quantitative measure on the number of linearly independent paths in a program source code, represented by a control flow directed graph [21]. At the time the CC metric was developed, the main purpose was to calculate the minimum number of test cases required to test the independent paths of a program. When the CC metric is high it indicates not only that the number of related test cases is high but also that the program itself is hard to read and understand by developers.

![Figure 5: code and its graph representation](image)

To calculate the CC of source code, the program should first be represented as a connected graph. For example, Figure 5 depicts a function foo and its graph representation. The CC of a program can be calculated using the following equation:

\[
CC = E - N + 1,
\]

where \( E \) denotes the number of edges in the graph and \( N \) is the total number of nodes. Clearly the CC of the code presented in Figure 5 is: \( 5 - 5 + 1 = 1 \).
In a similar way, we can use $CC$ for code as a basis to calculate the $CC$ of ASD models. The tabular notation of ASD models can also be seen as a directed graph that contains edges and nodes. Note that, for ASD components we are mainly concerned with the understandability aspect of ASD components rather than testing effort since model checking replaces testing and guarantees that all paths of a model are exhaustively and fully checked. Testing efforts can be of a concern for ASD foreign components since their implementation is handcrafted.

To illustrate how $CC$ can be collected for ASD models, consider the specification depicted in Figure 6. The specification consists of 2 states namely state $X$ and state $Y$. In state $X$, the machine accepts events $a_1$, $a_2$ and $a_3$ via the $IF$ interface and then moves to state $Y$. The machine stays in state $Y$ forever accepting $a_4$ and $a_5$ events.

![Figure 6: An ASD interface model with 2 states and 5 transitions](image)

The graphical representation of the ASD state machine is depicted in Figure 7.a. The $CC$ of this model can be calculated as follows:

$$E = 5, N = 2, \quad CC = 5 - 2 + 1 = 4$$

**Application to the Door models**

The $CC$ of the Door interface model depicted in Figure 2 is 1, while $CC$ of the design model depicted in Figure 4 is 4. The $CC$ of the Sensor interface model of Figure 3 is 2.

### 4.2 Actual (structural) complexity

We tailored the $CC$ metric to collect the so-called Actual (or structural) complexity (ACC) of a model. With the ACC metric we group edges between states. If there are multiple edges between certain states, we only count them as one. This means that in ACC any edge may contain one or more events (a set of events) while in $CC$ each edge has only one event. For example, in Figure 7b, it is possible to transit from state $X$ to state $Y$ via either $a_1$, $a_2$ or $a_3$ events (one transition labeled by a set of events). In state $Y$ only $a_4$ or $a_5$ events are accepted.

Note that, the ACC metric does not replace $CC$ but it complements it by providing additional insight to complexity. It groups events that have similar transitions and identical effect on a state. The metric gives an indication on how complex and difficult it is for a human to read and to
understand the model through navigating and memorizing the history of states. The metric is not concerned with the number of tests required to exercise the state machine. $ACC$ can be calculated using the following equation:

$$ACC = E_U - N + 1,$$

where $E_U$ denotes the total number of unique edges and $N$ is the total number of nodes. For instance, the $ACC$ of the ASD state machine depicted earlier in Figure 6a can be calculated as follows:

$$E_U = 2, N = 2,$$

$$ACC = 2 - 2 + 1 = 1.$$

**Application to the Door models**
The $ACC$ of the Door interface model depicted in Figure 2 is 1, while the $ACC$ of the design model depicted in Figure 4 is 4. The $ACC$ of the Sensor interface model of Figure 3 is 1.

### 4.3 Halstead metrics, LoC and maintainability index

Using Halstead approach, metrics are collected based on counting operators and operands of source code [17]. We introduce these metrics and discuss how we tailored them to ASD models. Furthermore, we show how the lines of code metric is collected for ASD models. Another metric called the maintainability index can be derived based on Halstead metrics, the lines of code and $CC$ metrics. We show how this metric is calculated for ASD models.

We start by introducing Halstead metrics. The metrics measure the cognitive load of a program which is the mental effort used to understand, maintain and develop the program. The higher the load, the more time it takes to design or understand it, and the higher the chances of introducing bugs. Halstead considered programs as implementation of algorithms, consisting of operators and operands. His metrics are designed to measure the complexity of any kind of algorithms regardless of the language in which they are implemented. Halstead metrics use the following basis measures:

- $n_1$: the number of unique operators,
- $N_1$: the total number of occurrences of operators,
- $n_2$: the number of unique operands,
- $N_2$: the total number of occurrences of operands,
- $n = n_1 + n_2$ which indicates the model vocabulary,
- $N = N_1 + N_2$ which denotes the length of the model.

For any ASD model we consider the following to be operands:

- state variables used as guards,
- states of the state machine,
- data variables in events and actions.

Furthermore, we consider the following to be operators:

- events (calls, internal events and stimuli callbacks) and actions (all responses including return values and callbacks),
• operators on state variables such as not, and, or, >, <, ==, ≤, ≥, +, −, and otherwise (a keyword denotes the else part of a guard),
• operators on data variables such as >>, <<, >>> (value of variable is stored and retrieved), and $ (literal value a programming language allows).

The basic measures are then used to calculate the metrics below:
• Volume: \( V = N \times \log_2 n \),
• Difficulty: \( D = (n1/2) \times (N2/n2) \),
• Effort: \( E = D \times V \) denotes the effort spent to make the model,
• Time required to understand the model: \( T = (E/18) \) (seconds),
• Expected number of Bugs: \( B = V/3000 \).

The volume metric \( V \) considers the information content of a program as bits. Assuming that humans use binary search when selecting the next operand or operator to write, Halstead interpreted volume as a number of mental comparisons a developer would need to write a program of length \( N \). Program difficulty \( D \) is based on a psychology theory that adding new operators, while reusing the existing operands increases the difficulty to understand an algorithm.

Program effort \( E \) measures the mental effort required to implement or comprehend an algorithm. It is measured in elementary mental discriminations. For each mental comparison (and there are \( V \) of them), depending on the difficulty, the human mind will perform several elementary mental discriminations. The rate at which a person performs elementary mental discriminations is given by a Stroud number that ranges between 5 and 20 elements per second. Halstead empirically determined that in the calculation of the time \( T \) to understand an algorithm this constant should be adjusted to 18.

Finally, the estimated number of bugs \( B \) correlates with the volume of the software. The more the size increases, the more the likelihood to introduce bugs. Halstead empirically calculated the estimated number of bugs by a simple division by 3000.

We calculate the lines of code metric based on not only the total number of rows in the model but also the number of actions in the Actions list. Therefore, each action counts as 1 line, for instance, the specification of the Door interface model contains 4 LoC.

The original maintainability index of source code is calculated based on volume, LoC and \( CC \) of source code [10]. It indicates whether it is worth to keep maintaining, modifying and extending a program or to immediately consider refactoring or redesigning it. \( MI \) should be above 85 or not less than 65 in the worst case. The Maintainability Index is defined as follows:

\[
MI = 171 - 5.2 \times \ln(V) - 0.23 \times CC - 16.2 \times \ln(LOC)
\]

Microsoft incorporated the metrics in Microsoft Studio environment with a slight modification to the above formula:

\[
MI = \text{MAX}(0, (171 - 5.2 \times \ln(V) - 0.23 \times ACC - 16.2 \times \ln(LOC))) \times 100/171
\]

The formula produces a number between 0 and 100, where 20 or above indicates good and highly maintainable source code.

**Application to the Door models**

Table 1 lists the metrics of the three ASD models of the Door system. The table is self-explanatory. Notable is the time required to understand the models. The reader of this paper is expected to read and understand the specification of the Door design model in about 210 seconds. All models exhibit a maintainability index of 20 and above, hence they are highly maintainable. The rest of the data provided in the table is self-explanatory.
4.4 Metrics for formal verification overhead

ASD uses model checking for formal verification of interface models and design models. The model checking tool produces statistical information about the state space that captures all possible execution scenarios of a model (or a group of communicating models).

![Figure 8: List of models and verification metrics (states and verification time).](image)

As can be seen from the figure, the number of generated states of the design model for the deadlock check is 47 and the time required for all listed checks to complete is less than a minute. These metrics can also be obtained from a file generated by the ASD:Suite when the verification check is accomplished.

The deadlock check for the door design model is marked by a green tick sign indicating that the design model is deadlock-free for all possible execution paths.

5 Optimal values and recommended limits of metrics

In this section, we propose limits of metrics for good quality interface and design models. The limits were established after carefully analyzing and reviewing over 615 interface and design models.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Type of model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interface Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>(\leq 30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>(\leq 20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>(\leq 8000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoC</td>
<td>(\leq 200)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MI</td>
<td>(\leq 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VT</td>
<td>(\leq 1 \text{ min})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Optimal values of metrics for ASD models

built for a large photolithography system, developed by ASML [2]. The limits were established after iterative review meetings and alignments with various engineers who owned and developed the models.

Table 2 lists all metrics and the advised limits in our industrial context. As can be seen from the table, the limits of the metrics for interface and design models are similar except for the LoC metric.

Note that in our industrial context, the CC of a module written in C++ should not exceed 10. If source code exhibits a CC between 10 to 40 then the code should be refactored while if it is more than 40 then the code is end-of-life and has to be rewritten again in a simpler way. This CC limit may vary from one organization to another.

The reason that the limit of CC for models is raised compared to the CC for source code is that the metrics are collected at the level of models. We found that the tabular representation of the model raises the abstraction level and increases the understandability of the software artifact compared to source code. Models with a CC less than 30 were easy to understand when reviewing the tabular format of the models.

Similarly, we were reasonably comfortable reviewing models that exhibit an ACC of less than 20. For the size metric, we used the limit suggested by VerifySoft [28] and observed that models exceeding 8000 are big in size. Finally, the thresholds of MI were chosen as used by Microsoft.

In our industrial context, we recommend that verification time (or waiting time for the model checker during debugging) should not exceed 1 minute. The reason is that we want to prevent that productivity of developers is hindered by the model-checking technology. We want to avoid that a developer fixes an error in the specification and waits for a long time before the model checker succeeds or detects another error (and the behaviour repeats itself causing undesired long waits reducing the productivity of the designer). More important is that this limit is set to also prevent designers from making overly complex specification because they are safe with verification of model-checking.

Design and modeling are creative processes and having good metrics of a model does not always mean that the underlying design is good. It is possible that certain models exhibit metrics within the accepted limits while mixing the level of abstractions with inappropriate decomposition of components and mixed responsibilities. Human creativity is still needed to judge whether a design is conceptually acceptable while metrics can help detecting bad smells and decays in the architecture very early.

### 6 Detailed data analysis

In this section we detail the application of the proposed metrics and the recommended limits to measure and evaluate the existing ASD models, see Table 3. In order to make the process of data analysis and collection of the models more efficient, we built a tool that automatically extracts the metrics and visualize the results graphically. The tool is compatible with ASD:Suite version.
9.2.7. We used the tool to extract metrics from 615 ASD interface and design models, developed in four different projects, within the period of 2008 until the end of 2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Interface Models</th>
<th>Design Models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of models</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average CC</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average ACC</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Volume</td>
<td>204,593</td>
<td>3,533,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total LoC</td>
<td>12,580</td>
<td>205,772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total C++ LoC</td>
<td>55,710</td>
<td>611,724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Summary of statistical data of developed models

Table 3 provides collected metrics data about the models. The total number of interface models is 348 while there are 267 design models. Row 3 and 4 list the average CC and ACC measures for the models. In row 5 the total volume or size of models is depicted. Row 6 lists the total number of lines of code in the models while the last row lists the total number of lines of the generated C++ code excluding blank lines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Limit</th>
<th>Interface models</th>
<th>Design models</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>≤ 30</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>77.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(30, 50)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>14.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>&lt; 20</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>91.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(20, 40)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 40</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volume</td>
<td>&lt; 8K</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>85.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8K, 14K)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 14K</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>&lt; 200</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>84.55%</td>
</tr>
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Table 4: Analysis of metrics values

We separated ASD interface models from design models and then carefully evaluated them in isolation. After that, we ordered the models according to CC, ACC and volume, to sort the models based on their complexity and size. The purpose of sorting the models is to capture the complex and big models that are present in our archive to refactor and improve these models. The data analysis of these models is summarized in Table 4.

In summary, the analysis revealed that over 22% of the models are relatively complex based on the CC metric and the models should be refactored to reduce complexity. Considering the ACC metric over 10% of the models should be refactored to simpler models. We discuss the relation between CC and ACC shortly. With respect to size we considered the volume and LoC metrics. Over 15% of the models are big in size and should be split into smaller models. Similarly, over 15% of the models include many lines of code. Most of these big models exhibit also high complexity metrics; therefore, improving one metric will consequently improve the other metrics.

All models were verified in less than 1 minute except one model which took about 5 minutes from the model checker. This model is also the biggest and the most complex model compared to others. The reason that all models were verified in a short time is that the execution of the
components is configured to be single-threaded; therefore there is no concurrency that leads to the generation of big state spaces.

The data and results of our analysis are communicated to the development teams together with the metric extraction tool to facilitate repeating the experiments. The teams appreciated the work since it helped them uncover hidden complex and big models although controlled empirical validation of the metrics are planned for future. A team of one of the projects planned refactoring tasks to gradually improve the quality of complex models. For newly started projects, developers frequently check the quality of their models to address any issue early during the modeling phase and before final delivery of the models.

One observation during the data analysis is that not all models with high $CC$ are really complex to understand. We discuss this observation by comparing $CC$ and $ACC$ of an example specification and discuss how the $ACC$ metrics provided more insight on complexity. Consider Figure 9. At the left of the figure a stateless machine accepts $N$ events. If we set $N$ to 31 (meaning that 31 different events are accepted by the machine) then $CC = 31$ while $ACC = 1$. Therefore, from $CC$ perspective the state machines is considered to be complex since it exceeded the complexity limit we set before as a guideline.

In fact, all models that exhibit a flower-shape behavior are not very complex but they may
be rather big because the interface is verbose with many events. These machines are relatively simple to understand since they just consume input events in a single state. This type of models exhibit a relatively very low ACC metric. Correlating CC and ACC can help developers detecting interfaces that include many different events that have actually the same behavior. In hindsight, it indicates to developers the need to split the interface early and categorize the events into smaller models.

Figure 10 depicts the CC and ACC of interface models of a number of components in one project. Comp08 in the figure gives an example of a flower-shaped interface model with high CC and low ACC. By reviewing the contents of the model we realized that the interface contains many events that should be categorized and split into smaller interface models. Notable are Comp05 and Comp06 which exhibit similar metrics. After reviewing the models we found that they are exact copies (they model 2 physical sensors of the same type with different ids). An action was taken to combine the two models in one and parametrize the ids of the sensors.

We observed that Halstead T and E metrics are very controversial. We found that these metrics provide good estimates for models that are within the recommended size limit of 8000. For some models that exceed this limit the metrics are not very accurate. Empirical experiments are needed to adapt the formula for this type of models.

7 Conclusions and future work

As industry is rapidly migrating towards model-based development, it is becoming urgent to establish means to measure the quality of models since they form the main software artifact in the modeling paradigm. In this article we proposed a number of metrics to measure the quality of ASD models which are state machines specified in a tabular format.

An apparent limitation of our work is that we only considered the structural complexity of models. The added complexity of introducing guards in the specification is not considered. In fact, guards can have a similar effect in complexity as introducing states. For some developers, specifications with guards are relatively more complex to understand than specifications without guards. Future empirical evaluation is needed to validate this observation.

The metrics and the limits proposed in this article are constructed based on consensus and alignment with the majority of ASD designers through a number of meetings and interviews. The designers applied the metrics and the limits to their own developed models. As a future work we are planning to validate the metrics and the limits by executing controlled empirical experiments with a set of models selected from different projects.

For further validation we want to answer a number of questions like: is it always the case that any model big in size is complex (and vice versa)? Which metric contributes more to the number of bugs in the field? Size or complexity? How is McCabe’s CC metric correlated to Halstead’s difficulty metric? Shall we pay more attention to one of them or both? How can we re-calibrate the expected number of bugs of Halstead given that models are formally verified? Another interesting direction is to correlate these metrics to software quality attributes such as extensibility, scalability, testability and verifiability.

Another future direction is to detect similarities in the models caused by duplicating guards or responses events in the actions list. As highlighted previously in the paper, we accidentally detected clones between models by observing the plots of complexity. In the future we are investigating other systematic means to detect clones between models (part of a model is included in another model). Furthermore, modularity metrics will be introduced to indicate the degree of coupling and cohesion among the models.

Finally, the results of this work reveal the importance and need for metrics at the model level.
Based on the metric feedback, and subsequent review of the flagged models, interesting patterns and opportunities for model improvement were identified. Moreover, the results reveal that more work is needed to extend the set of metrics making them also less sensitive or biased for certain patterns and aspects.

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References


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