

RAGNAROK:
An
Architecture
Based
Software Development Environment

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To my wife, Susanne,
and my sons, Mikkel and Magnus.



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Note: Due to technical problems with our colour printer, the pages in chapter 4 that contain colour images could not be printed on both sides. As a result, some pages are unfortunately left blank.

Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Vision	2
1.2	Hypotheses	3
1.2.1	Project Management	3
1.2.2	Management of Evolution	4
1.2.3	Comprehension and Navigation	4
1.2.4	Discussion	5
1.3	Contributions	5
1.3.1	Architectural Software Configuration Management	6
1.3.2	Geographic Space Architecture Visualisation	6
1.3.3	List of Publications	6
1.3.4	Prototypes	8
1.4	Structure of Thesis	9
2	Software Architecture	11
2.1	A Model of Architecture	12
2.1.1	Software Component	12
2.1.2	Substance	13
2.1.3	Relations	14
2.1.4	Graph Interpretation	15
2.2	Annotated Architecture	16
2.2.1	Annotations	16
2.2.2	Annotation Synthesis	16
2.2.3	Status	17
2.3	Discussion	17
2.3.1	Logical versus Physical Structure	17
2.3.2	Derived Objects	17
2.3.3	Architectural Views	18
3	Architectural Software Configuration Management	19
3.1	Motivation and Proposal	20
3.2	Architectural Model, Static Aspects	21
3.2.1	Basic Elements and Domains	22
3.2.2	Software Component Version	22
3.2.3	Component	24
3.2.4	Configuration	24

3.2.5	Version Group	26
3.2.6	Example	26
3.3	Architectural Model, Dynamic Aspects	27
3.3.1	Repository	27
3.3.2	Workspace	28
3.3.3	Project	28
3.3.4	Revise	28
3.3.5	Create	29
3.3.6	Check-in	29
3.3.7	Check-out	31
3.4	Model Properties	32
3.4.1	Versions are Configurations are Versions...	32
3.4.2	Architectural Differences	33
3.4.3	Mixed Configurations	33
3.5	Branching and Merging Architectures	35
3.5.1	Architectural Evolution	36
3.5.2	Parallel Development	37
3.5.3	Overlapping Configurations	40
3.6	Tailorability	41
3.6.1	Reporting	41
3.6.2	Triggers	42
3.7	Implementation Issues	42
3.7.1	Design Rationale	42
3.7.2	Design	44
3.7.3	Deleting Component Versions	44
3.8	RCM Prototype Outline	45
3.8.1	Interface Basics	46
3.8.2	Navigation and Reporting	46
3.8.3	Development	46
3.8.4	Reconstructing Configurations	48
3.8.5	Architectural Differences	48
3.9	Case Studies	49
3.9.1	ConSys Project	49
3.9.2	BETA Compiler Project	49
3.9.3	RAGNAROK Project	50
3.9.4	Interviews	50
3.9.5	Usage Statistics	52
3.9.6	Tailorability Usage	54
3.9.7	Annotation Usage	55
3.9.8	Summary	55
3.10	Discussion	57
3.10.1	Classifying the Version Model	58
3.10.2	The Intermediate Version Debate	58
3.10.3	Pollution by Intermediate Versions	60
3.10.4	On Development Process	60
3.10.5	On Variants	62
3.10.6	On Build Management	64
3.10.7	Architecture Quality is SCM Quality	64

3.10.8	Scaling Up	65
3.10.9	Relation Types	65
3.10.10	Impact of Changes	66
3.10.11	Shadow Problem	66
3.11	Related Work	67
3.11.1	COOP/Orm	67
3.11.2	POEM	68
3.11.3	CVS	68
3.11.4	ClearCase	69
3.11.5	Adele	70
3.12	Future Work	71
3.12.1	Dimensions of Versioning	71
3.12.2	Improved Collaborative Support	72
3.12.3	Branching Consistency	72
3.12.4	Disconnected Operation	73
3.12.5	Softening Project Boundaries	74
3.12.6	Shared Versions	74
3.12.7	Cyclic Relations	75
4	Geographic Space Architecture Visualisation	79
4.1	Motivation	80
4.2	Human Navigation and Spatial Metaphors	81
4.3	Proposal	82
4.4	Visualisation Model	83
4.4.1	Landscape, Landmark, and Decoration	83
4.4.2	Maps	84
4.4.3	Aspects	85
4.4.4	Correlation to Architecture	87
4.4.5	Interaction and Mediation	87
4.4.6	Landscape Creation	88
4.4.7	Global Context	89
4.4.8	Shared Landscape	89
4.5	Model Properties	90
4.5.1	Geographical Organisation	90
4.5.2	Hierarchical Presentation	91
4.5.3	Decoration	91
4.5.4	Map Layer	91
4.5.5	Mediation	91
4.5.6	Aspect Property	92
4.5.7	Shared Landscape Property	92
4.6	Prototype	93
4.6.1	Comprehension	94
4.6.2	Topography	94
4.6.3	Version Control	95
4.6.4	Script Visualisation	96
4.7	Implementation	97
4.7.1	Design	98
4.7.2	Landscape Resolution	99

4.8	Case Studies	99
4.8.1	Interview	99
4.8.2	Summary	102
4.9	Discussion	103
4.9.1	A Cognitive Dimensions Evaluation	104
4.9.2	Saliency	106
4.9.3	Positional Stability	107
4.9.4	Other Architecture- and Project Views	108
4.9.5	Visualisation and Architectural Consistency	108
4.9.6	The Captivating Third Dimension	109
4.10	The Potential of Geographic Space	110
4.10.1	Geographic Space for General Purpose Visualisation	110
4.10.2	To Work is to Be (Somewhere)	111
4.10.3	Geographical Interpretation of Link Enactment	111
4.11	Related Work	112
4.11.1	CASE tools	112
4.11.2	Pad	113
4.11.3	SeeSoft	113
4.11.4	SAAMtool	113
4.11.5	Desktop Space Metaphors	114
4.11.6	Spatialisation of Hypertext	115
4.12	Future Work	115
4.12.1	Visualising Relation Types	116
4.12.2	Visualising Architectural Reuse	116
4.12.3	Run-Time Aspect Definition	116
4.12.4	Semantic Zoom	116
5	Bridging the Gap	119
5.1	Versioning the Landscape	119
5.2	Visualising Versions	120
6	Conclusion	121

Dansk sammendrag

Denne afhandling omhandler RAGNAROK projektet, et projekt indenfor det datalogiske fagområde *software udviklingsomgivelser*.

Den grundlæggende *vision* i projektet er at frembringe modeller og metoder til brug i software udviklingsomgivelser, som mindsker omkostningerne ved essentielle aspekter af udviklingsprocessen, uden dette medfører væsentlige omkostninger i selve produktionen af softwaren.

Som grundlag for at opfylde denne vision opstilles en hovedhypotese:

Et softwaresystems logiske arkitektur er en stærk og naturlig begrebsramme for håndtering af væsentlige aspekter af udviklingsprocessen. Disse aspekter kan understøttes direkte i en arkitekturbaseret udviklingsomgivelse.

Derved bliver begrebet 'softwarearkitektur', specielt det logiske/designorienterede aspekt, det centrale tema i RAGNAROK.

Denne hovedhypotese konkretiseres i tre underhypoteser. Hver af disse underhypoteser retter sig mod konkrete aspekter af udviklingsprocessen:

Ad. Projekt styring: At indsamle og administrere data relateret til projektets styring og organisation, f.eks. timeregistrering, fejlrapportering, budgettering, ressourceallokering, opgavefordeling, osv.

HYPOTESE 1: *Den logiske softwarearkitektur kan annoteres med de data, der er relevante for styring og implementering af softwaren.*

Traditionelt håndteres et design, og den organisatoriske struktur som er grundlaget for designets implementation, af særskilte procedurer og værktøjer, hvilket leder til problemer med at holde disse to strukturer synkroniserede. Ved at behandle organisatoriske data som annoteringer af selve arkitekturen mindskes dette problem.

Ad. Styring af historisk udvikling: At sikre sporbarhed og overblik over projektets historiske udvikling generelt, og af projektet logiske arkitektur og tilhørende kildekode i særdeleshed.

HYPOTESE 2: *Den logiske softwarearkitektur er en naturligt begrebsramme for versions- og konfigurationsstyring.*

Traditionelle versions- og konfigurationsstyringsværktøjer tager udgangspunkt i de fysiske filer, som indeholder et softwareprojekts kildetekst. Det vil sige, at 'software' opfattes som en mængde af filer, og ikke som en arkitektur. Dette kræver, at udviklerne selv skal huske og overskue relationerne mellem designdomænet (arkitekturniveau) og konfigurationsdomænet (filniveau), hvilket er besværligt og ofte leder til fejl. Ydermere kan en filmængde ikke direkte udtrykke ændringer på arkitekturniveau. Ved at benytte samme begrebsramme i begge domæner løses disse problemer.

Ad. Overblik og navigation: At bidrage til at skabe overblik over projektets dele og deres inbyrdes relationer; samt at øge projektmedlemmernes evne til at finde relevant information i strukturen.

HYPOTESE 3: *Den logiske softwarearkitektur bør være visuel håndgribelig i et geografisk organiseret 'softwarelandskab'. Dette softwarelandskab bør være centralt i udviklingsomgivelsen; i kraft af at være fælles for alle projektmedlemmer og i kraft af at det medierer daglige aktiviteter.*

Denne hypotese indebærer et forslag om at lægge en geografisk, rumlig, metafor til grund for visualisering af den logiske arkitektur, og benytte landkort til at manipulere og orientere sig i det derved fremkommende softwarelandskab. En geografisk stabil positionering af arkitektoniske entiteter gør, at menneskets stedsans kan udnyttes til gavn for overblik og navigationsevne. Ydermere er landskabet fælles for projektdeltagerne og mediere daglige opgaver mellem brugere og underliggende data, hvilket bidrager til, at landskabet skaber en fælles forståelsesramme og visualiserer projektudviklingen.

Store dele af disse forslag er indarbejdet i to prototyper: RAGNAROK (indeholdende hypotese 2 og 3, og delvist 1) samt RCM (kun hypotese 2). Prototyperne er blevet brugt i tre konkrete mindre- til mellemstore software udviklingsprojekter over en periode på ca. tre år. Resultaterne fra studier af disse tre projekter, indsamlet primært gennem interview og sekundært gennem statistiske data fra prototyperne selv, er følgende:

Arkitektonisk software konfigurationsstyring er en anvendelig model for konfigurationsstyring i et software projekt, i det mindste for mindre- til mellemstore projekter. Modellen udmærker sig ved sin *naturalighed* idet det benyttede begrebssapparat ligger tæt op ad det, som er velkendt for udviklerne. Modellens fokus på *bundne konfigurationer* fremhæves; altså modellens fastholdelse, ikke kun af versioner af en abstraktion, men af hele konfigurationen, som abstraktionen transitivt udspænder via sine relationer til andre abstraktioner. Derved har modellen også en iboende *sporbarhed af arkitektonisk udvikling*, idet ændringer i relationer mellem abstraktioner er fastholdte. En ofte fremført kritik af konfigurationsmodeller der, som denne, er baseret på version-først udvælgelse (version first selection), er problemet med 'mellemversioner' (version proliferation), hvis antal forventes at eksplodere kombinatorisk. Et væsentligt delresultat i afhandlingen er, at data fra de tre RAGNAROK projekter tilbageviser denne kritik, idet forholdet mellem mellemversioner og versioner med substantielle ændringer er konstant over tid.

Geografisk baseret arkitektur visualisering har vist sin anvendelighed i en række henseender. Modellen udmærker sig primær ved forbedret *navigationsevne*, herved forstået evnen til at finde relevante dele af arkitekturen let og hurtigt. Ligeledes bidrager softwarelandskabet til overblik over dels arkitekturen som helhed, dels over udvalgte aspekter af arkitekturens underliggende data (specielt versionskontrolaspekter i den foreliggende prototype). Landskabets egenskab af, at være fælles for alle projektdeltagere og dets visning af projektudviklingen (specielt nye versioner og igangværende arbejde i den given prototype), udgør et nyttigt supplement til mundtlig kommunikation i teamet. En hypotetiseret fordel ved modellen—at landskabet fremstår som et referenceramme for diskussion og dokumentation—har dog endnu ikke kunne blive af- eller bekræftet ud fra det udførte arbejde.

Annoteret software arkitektur er p.t. kun implementeret i meget begrænset omfang, og det er derfor endnu for tidligt at udtale sig om gyldigheden af den opstillede hypotese.

Sammenfattende mener vi, at resultatet af arbejdet støtter hovedhypotesen: At det logiske aspekt af software arkitektur er en god ramme for håndtering af processer og data i et software projekt. Mere vigtig er dog de opnåede resultater indenfor underhypoteserne, specielt de to hovedbidrag: Modellerne for henholdsvis arkitektonisk software konfigurationsstyring og for geografisk baseret arkitektur visualisering. Selvom de er opstået i kraft af visionen bag RAGNAROK, er de selvstændige bidrag med bredere relevans ud over RAGNAROK softwareudviklingsmiljøet selv.



Chapter 1

Introduction

The RAGNAROK project is a research project within the field of *software development environments*. The project belongs to the category ‘experimental computer science’, and the scientific method employed owes much to the tradition of physics and astronomy: Problems are analysed, hypothetical solutions put forward, and successively validated through experiments. In the RAGNAROK context, it is current problems in software engineering combined with personal experience from large software development projects that are analysed. The analyses are basis for proposing plausible solutions and proposing how to support these in a concrete development environment. These proposals have been formulated as a small set of hypotheses. To validate the hypotheses, a major effort has been invested in the design and implementation of a prototype software development environment, named RAGNAROK, that has been continuously evaluated in realistic case studies.

The central theme in RAGNAROK is the *logical aspect of software architecture* which is explored as the principal framework for supporting concrete aspects of the management of a software project and its data. As the field of software development environments is a large field, focusing has been important. The main focus and the main contributions in the RAGNAROK project have been within the fields of *software configuration management* and *software visualisation*.

A few words about the name: RAGNAROK. Our research group has a tradition for naming software systems after gods and events in the Nordic mythology. RAGNAROK is named after mythological “Ragnarok” that denotes the last, cataclysmic, battle between gods and giants—a battle that destroys the known world. There are two reasons for choosing this name: First, anyone how has been involved

in a hard-pressed development project knows the sensation of “Ragnarok”, and hopefully by introducing the RAGNAROK environment the two may neutralise each other. Secondly—by giving a development team RAGNAROK, I have promised no more than I am able to keep. . .



1.1 Vision

A major source of inspiration for the current work has been personal experiences as chief architect and implementor of a large, industrial, software development project where a team of 3–7 developers over a three year period designed, developed, and maintained a family of meteorological systems for use in airports. Perhaps the most important lesson learned from this experience was that the well-meant methods and tasks that are part of any software development method often fall short when the “going gets tough”. As Meyer correctly notes: “. . . *once everything has been said, software is defined by code*” [Mey88, p. 30]. The customer buying our system did not care whether our design diagram was up-to-date as long as the software fulfilled its purpose. So, out of economic necessity, developing code was first priority.

Our customer, however, *did* care about the number of errors in the supplied system as well as the cost of enhancing its functionality. Which leads back to the design diagram—if it is out-of-date, developers have the wrong basis for correcting errors and adding new functionality. So, this and many other managerial- and development process oriented tasks are important for long-term costs, efficiency, and reliability.

This is a basic schism: If we go for the product without paying attention to the process- and management related issues, we experience that progress becomes slower and slower, more costly, we loose track of things and inevitably things get out of control. On the other hand, we may also impose so many managerial routines that little time is left for the actual production of the system.

The vision in RAGNAROK is to address this schism:

RAGNAROK is a software development environment that lowers the cost of managing essential aspects of the development process without introducing substantial overhead in the actual software production.

To rephrase, the ambition is to change many of the cumbersome managerial tasks that ‘steal time from production’ into being ‘part of production’ by directly supporting them in a software development environment that knows that there is more to software development than just editing, compiling and debugging.

The word ‘essential’ appears in the vision stated above. Evidently, choices have been made—these are outlined in section 1.2.

Stating a vision is the easy part. To formulate concrete ideas that support the vision and ultimately craft a system that implements the ideas and makes probable that they work in practice, is the difficult and costly part. And—what if the great ideas are actually not-so-great? In the current work, an incremental and experimental approach has been employed in order to avoid spending time on unfruitful ideas. Prototypes have been developed from an early stage in the

project and have been used in the continued development of RAGNAROK itself as well as by external groups. The continuous feedback from these case studies have both guided further work as well as determined the soundness of the underlying ideas.

The audience envisioned for a RAGNAROK environment is small- to medium sized software development projects, typically teams of 2–8 developers in 2–20 man-year sized projects. Many of the ideas are beneficial in larger projects, but other issues, especially people issues that RAGNAROK does not address directly, will probably dominate.



1.2 Hypotheses

The leitmotif in RAGNAROK is the *logical aspect of software architecture*, that is, *the hierarchy of abstractions that defines a logical software design*. Abstraction and hierarchy are the key concepts that designers and developers use to design, discuss, build, and manage large software systems.

It is the fundamental hypothesis in RAGNAROK that it is possible to extend the scope of the architecture to include a broader spectrum of project related issues than just design:

Main hypothesis *The logical software architecture is a natural, powerful, framework for handling essential aspects of the development process. These aspects can be supported directly in an architecture based development environment.*

This hypothesis is of course vague and thus difficult to validate unambiguously. As such, it is also primarily intended as an inspiration and ideal, intriguing us to assess it in different settings. This approach, in a sense, explores different dimensions of the space covered by the hypothesis.

As mentioned above, a source of inspiration is personal experience with software projects. A main conclusion of this experience, outlined in [Chr95], is that it is essential to provide support in three areas:

- *Project management*
- *Management of evolution*
- *Comprehension and navigation*

In the RAGNAROK project, the main hypothesis has been concretised and explored in these three areas, as outlined below.

1.2.1 Project Management

Project management involves planning, scheduling, estimating, and tracking the resources of a project. In software production, development time is a critical resource and a work-break-down (WBD) structure is essential to organise and estimate planned and performed tasks. Software designs evolve, however, and it is therefore often a substantial effort to make sure that the WBD keeps pace with the design. This is a *synchronisation problem* because different tools and

procedures are used for design/programming in one end and management in the other.

Adhering to our overall hypothesis, we see architecture as a powerful framework for handling the data associated with project management: Budgets, task-lists, actual spent staff hours, work-break-down, etc. Our hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 1 *The logical software architecture can be annotated with the data relevant for the process of managing and implementing it.*

If the hypothesis is valid, the benefit is that the synchronisation problem is minimised: As the architecture is the project management data framework, indeed there is only one structure to maintain.

Underlying this hypothesis is the assumption that the partitioning expressed in the logical design of a software system is closely related to the partitioning at the organisational level. In projects adhering to modern software engineering practice, this is a fair assumption to make: The principles of separation of concern and low coupling between modules provide natural organisational boundaries between teams and expertise in a project, and thereby in defining task, setting budgets, etc. Case studies also support this observation [BCK98, §13.1].

This hypothesis is the topic of chapter 2.

1.2.2 Management of Evolution

Tracing the historical evolution of a software architecture and its associated project data is important. In particular, tracing the evolution of source code is essential in order to reconstruct and compare milestones and releases accurately and swiftly and to provide ‘safe’ check-points in the daily development.

Configuration management addresses the problem of historic evolution. However, many software configuration management models view ‘software’ merely as a set of files, not as an architecture. This introduces an unfortunate impedance mismatch between the design domain (architecture level) and configuration management domain (file level).

With our main hypothesis in mind, our hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 2 *The logical software architecture is a natural framework for version- and configuration control.*

If valid, the impedance mismatch is removed, as the same conceptual framework, the logical architecture, is used in both the design- and configuration management domains.

This hypothesis is the topic of chapter 3.

1.2.3 Comprehension and Navigation

Overviewing and understanding large software systems and finding the correct piece of data or code in thousands of files and libraries, are daunting tasks; and explaining a design to newcomers can also be problematic.

The software engineering community has responded to these challenges with methods and tools like e.g. graphical design notations, class browsers, method dictionaries, hyperlinks in source code, etc. Common to most of these approaches

is their focus on logical relations and often positioning and ordering of elements is based on alphabetic sorting—that is, an implicit name-based focus.

We have tried to introduce a new angle on the problem of overview and navigation. Our hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 3 *The logical software architecture should be visually manifest in a geographical organised ‘software landscape’. This software landscape should be the focal point of the development environment by being shared in the team and by mediating daily activities.*

Having a software landscape as the primary medium to perform daily development activities and to overview, navigate, and discuss the architecture, promises that the architecture becomes the well communicated backbone of the project. The ‘geographical’ aspect is important as entities can be found by virtue of their location rather than their name allowing humans fine spatial memory to be used actively.

This hypothesis is the topic of chapter 4.

1.2.4 Discussion

The listed areas are not orthogonal. For example, efficient version control that trace project data historically, is important to provide historical data in improving the management of future projects.

An important area that the proposed hypotheses addresses implicitly is *communication and collaboration* within the team. Having a strong version control and configuration management model in place is essential in collaborating on source code development to avoid inconsistencies and loss of data. Also, unambiguous identification of versions and configurations is important for communicating a project’s evolution, milestones, releases, etc., within the team. A visual manifest software design landscape is a valuable asset in communicating design among team members and ensuring a common understanding of the software across different areas of expertise.

In summary, the hypotheses are seen as important contributions addressing the ultimate vision in RAGNAROK. Each addresses a managerial aspect of the software development process beyond the mere tasks of editing, compiling, and debugging. Each proposes direct support for these aspects using the software’s logical architecture as framework.



1.3 Contributions

The primary scientific contributions of the RAGNAROK project have grown out of research and development within the context of the sub-hypotheses, in particular hypotheses 2 and 3. These contributions are within the areas of *software configuration management* and *software visualisation*.

1.3.1 Architectural Software Configuration Management

Within the software configuration management area, a model has been proposed that seeks to validate hypothesis 2. This model is termed:

Architectural Software Configuration Management: A software configuration management model where the abstractions and hierarchy of the logical aspect of software architecture forms the basis for version control and configuration management.

The definition of the basic building block in this model includes annotations that hold process- and project data, allowing hypothesis 1 to be explored. In addition, version- and configuration control holds the promise as fundament for collaborative issues; it facilitates collaboration on source code and minimises risk of data loss and inconsistencies; and the model is therefore also relevant in the context of communication and collaboration.

1.3.2 Geographic Space Architecture Visualisation

The second main contribution is within the area of software visualisation. Our proposal is to augment the logical/static structure part of main-stream, graphical, design notations, like UML or OMT class diagrams, with properties known from geographic space:

Geographic Space Architecture Visualisation: A visualisation model where entities in a software architecture are organised geographically in a two-dimensional plane, their visual appearance determined by processing a subset of the data in the entities, and interaction with the project's underlying data performed by direct manipulation of the landscape entities.

Visualising the architecture using a geographical space metaphor is primarily aimed at exploring hypothesis 3: Overview through providing a 'road-map' of the software structure, and navigation by taking advantage of humans spatial and visual memory when locating data. Also, by making architecture visually manifest, we hope to provide a collaborative reference frame important for communication and collaboration.

As it is evident, the two main contributions share a strong commitment to software architecture. Both are nevertheless valid in their own rights: The SCM model does not need the visualisation facilities (e.g. the RCM prototype (section 3.8) is a textual interface to the SCM model), and the visualisation technique should be applicable to any multi-dimensional data with a relatively stable, hierarchical, structure.

1.3.3 List of Publications

Over the course of the RAGNAROK project, a number of scientific papers has been published:

- The Ragnarok Architectural Software Configuration Management Model, in Ralph H. Sprague, Jr. (ed.), *Proceedings of the Thirty-Second Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*, Maui, Hawaii, January 1999. IEEE Computer Society.
Describes the basic architectural software configuration management model in RAGNAROK including how to handle parallel development, branching, and merging.
- The Ragnarok Software Development Environment, to appear in Special Issue of the *Nordic Journal of Computing*, 6(1), 1999.
Overview paper of the RAGNAROK environment, describes the vision and hypotheses in the project and outlines models and prototypes. (Revised and updated version of the paper presented at NWPER'98.)
- Utilising a Geographic Space Metaphor in a Software Development Environment, in *Proceedings of EHCI'98, Engineering Conference on Human Computer Interaction*, Crete, Greece, September 1998. To be published by Kluwer, spring 1999.
Describes the geographic space architecture visualisation model, and shows examples from the RAGNAROK prototype.
- The Ragnarok Software Development Environment, in K. Mughal and A. Opdahl (eds.), *Proceedings of NWPER'98, Nordic Workshop on Programming Environment Research*, University of Bergen, June, 1998.
(See second paper.)
- Experiences with Architectural Software Configuration Management in Ragnarok, in Boris Magnusson (ed.), *System Configuration Management, SCM-8 Symposium*, Brussels, July, 1998. Lecture Notes in Computer Science 1439, Springer Verlag.
Outlines the architectural software configuration management model briefly and presents results from case studies of RCM prototype usage.
- Context-Preserving Software Configuration Management, in Reidar Conradi (ed.), *Supplementary Proceedings: 7th International Workshop on Software Configuration Management*, Boston, 1997.
Early paper describing the initial configuration management model and implementation considerations.

Presently, a paper, *Versions of Configurations Revisited*, is being written as joint work with Boris Magnusson, Ulf Asklund (both Lund Technical University), and Lars Bendix (Aalborg University) for the SCM-9 Symposium, on the version proliferation debate (section 3.10.2).

A number of technical reports has also been written, primarily published on the WWW:

- *Ragnarok: Aspects of a Software Project Development Environment*, Progress report, DAIMI-PB 509, Department of Computer Science, University of Aarhus, 1996.

- *SAVOS: A Retrospective Case-Study*, Work Note, October 1995.
- *The Ragnarok Home Page*, <http://www.daimi.aau.dk/~hbc/Ragnarok.html>
- *RCM: Overview and Reference Guide*, available from the Ragnarok home page.
- *Ragnarok: Overview and Reference Guide*, from the Ragnarok home page.
- *Ragnarok Technical Documentation*, from the Ragnarok home page.
- *Ragnarok Tcl Scripting Guide*, from the Ragnarok home page.

1.3.4 Prototypes

Underlying this thesis is a substantial system-development-, documentation- and maintenance effort. Much effort has been devoted to the design, implementation, and deployment of two prototypes:

- RAGNAROK: The full, graphical, software development environment that embodies the main contributions: Architectural software configuration management model as well as the geographic space architecture visualisation model.
- RCM: A text- and shell-based tool, that provides a simple interface to the architectural software configuration management component of the RAGNAROK system.

While RCM can be viewed ‘merely’ as a subsystem in RAGNAROK, it has played an important role in the project because it provided adequate functionality early and was quickly adopted by the user groups. The acronym RCM stands for ‘Ragnarok Component Model’ which is the name of the class category representing the configuration management model. (In hindsight, RCM should have been short for ‘Ragnarok Configuration Management’.)

At the time of writing, RAGNAROK (or RCM) is used by two external groups. As these groups use RAGNAROK as their daily software configuration management tool, the demands on stability, functionality, and support, are high.

A final, personal, note concerns the fact that software configurations management systems are perhaps especially devilish to prototype in a real setting. First of all, a development team is very dependent on smooth operation of their SCM system—it usually can not simply be ‘turned off’ if a serious bug is found. This puts high demand on the quality of the prototype (a demand somewhat contrary to the notion of a prototype), as well as your willingness to drop everything to fix a problem. Secondly, developers are interested in developing their system with as little fuss as possible, and introducing a new, potentially more unstable, SCM system may quite understandably generate some frustration.



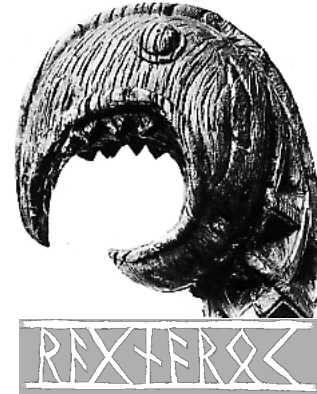
1.4 Structure of Thesis

With two main areas of contributions, it is natural to organise this thesis in two major descriptions of the work in these areas. The architectural software configuration management model is described in chapter 3 while the geographic space based visualisation model is described in chapter 4.

Both models are based on architecture, and the underlying model of software architecture is shortly outlined in chapter 2. Here is also a description of the annotation support envisioned in the full RAGNAROK environment but so far relatively untested.

In chapter 5, future work on joining the two main contributions into a more cohesive whole is discussed.

Finally chapter 6 summarises the thesis.



Chapter 2

Software Architecture

Structural issues include the organisation of a system as a composition of components; global control structures; the protocols for communication, synchronisation, and data access; the assignment of functionality to design elements; the composition of design elements; physical distribution: scaling and performance; dimensions of evolution; and selection among design alternatives. This is the software architecture level of design.

Shaw and Garlan, *Software Architecture*, p. 1

Though the concept of software architecture has been relevant since the earliest days of computing, it is only recently it has been recognised as a research area in its own right. And, as is often the case, many of the current contributions and ideas, were already sketched by an early visionary—in the case of software architecture: Parnas.

This chapter formulates a model for the logical structure view of a software architecture that forms basis for the topics addressed in chapter 3 and 4. It also describes the *annotated architecture* hypothesis and proposal. Finally, it is discusses how the RAGNAROK notion compares to other interpretations of the architecture concept.

In RAGNAROK, the main concern is the logical software design perspective which is interpreted as:

Logical software architecture: *The decomposition of a software system's logical structure into a hierarchy of interrelated abstractions*

In this sense, it is similar to what Booch terms *logical design of system* [Boo91], Rumbaugh et al. calls the *object modeling* [RBP⁺91], or Sommerville the *logical design structure* [Som92]. Lamb provides a similar definition of software architecture [Lam96]. It is mainly in this sense the term ‘software architecture’ is used in this thesis. This view, deeply rooted in RAGNAROK, was developed around 1994, prior to the widespread recognition of software architecture as a research field that operates with a wider definition of the architecture concept.

The emphasis on the *logical* aspect of software architecture, as opposed to a dynamic, functional, process, etc. view, is not accidental, however. As noted by Rumbaugh [RBP⁺91] the logical design view is by far the most stable over the course of a software project. A similar observation was made earlier by Jackson [Jac83]. One of the cornerstones of the Scandinavian approach to object-orientation [MMPN93] is the importance of capturing a model of the problem domain, in contrast to focusing on system functionality, in order to make the produced system more adaptable to future requirements of functionality.

The presentation in this chapter has been partly published in papers [Chr98f, Chr99b, Chr96].



2.1 A Model of Architecture

Generally, the discussion of architecture will be within the context of a *software project*. A project is viewed as a process having a well-defined goal that is achieved through performing a series of activities. These activities must be monitored and controlled in order to keep overview of their dependencies and contributions.

The architecture model presented here forms the framework for the configuration management and visualisation models presented later. The fundamental idea is to describe a logical software architecture in terms of *software components*, each software component representing an abstraction in the design including its physical implementation (source code) and its relations to other abstractions. The description given in this chapter will be refined somewhat in chapter 3 where evolution of software components will be taken into account.

2.1.1 Software Component

In Ragnarok a design abstraction is embodied in a structured object denoted a **software component** (often just ‘component’). A software component has a name and an identity, CID. Whereas the architecture of a project may have several software components with the same name, the component identity CID must be unique¹. A software component representing an abstraction “Foo” will be written using a sans-serif font: Foo.

¹Implementation note: Uniqueness is only guaranteed within a project currently.

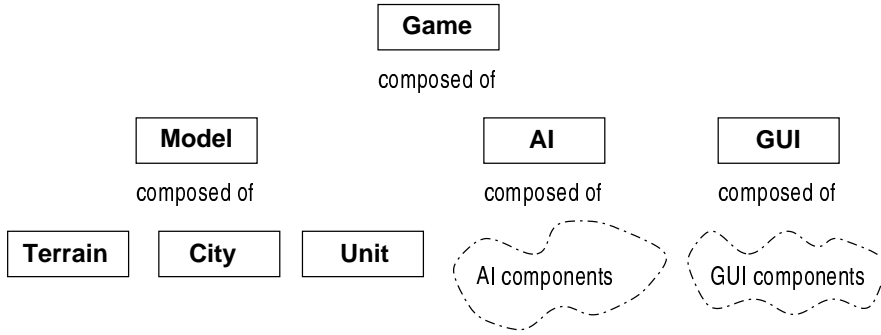


Figure 2.1: Outline of the logical architecture of the game example.

The attributes of a software component:

- Substance
- Relations
- Annotations

are described in more detail below, annotations are the issue of section 2.2. Each attribute will be exemplified through a small fictitious project that is outlined below. This example project is also the main example in chapter 3.

Example: A team has been assigned the task of developing a small computer strategy game. The plot is that of military conquest: A player is up against a number of computer controlled opponents and the stage is set in a region of land, comprising various terrain and cities. Each player controls a number of cities that are able to produce military units. These units can move around in the terrain, engage in combat with enemy units, and try to capture enemy cities. The ultimate goal is, of course, to conquer all enemy cities. The game system itself must provide a graphical interface, showing maps of the land, units, and cities, etc.

The team has come up with a feasible architecture containing three major components: A graphical user interface (GUI) component, an artificial intelligence (AI) component, and a game model (Model) component. The game model component is a class category/library containing three classes that model the fundamental concepts of the game: Class Terrain, class City, and class Unit. It is envisioned that class Terrain is self-contained; class City needs to access functionality in classes Terrain and Unit; and Unit only needs to know the Terrain class. In our examples, we will concentrate on the Model component so no further decomposition of GUI and AI will be presented. Figure 2.1 informally outlines the hierarchy of components in the game architecture.

2.1.2 Substance

Abstractions usually require a physical manifestation, typically as source code fragments in some programming language. This is modelled in the software component by a (possibly empty) set of code fragments, in an attribute denoted the

<p>Model</p> <p>Substance: {}</p> <p>Relations: { Terrain_c, City_c, Unit_c }</p> <p>Annotations: (Budget: 80h, Risk: Low, Staff: hbc,mcbc,...),...</p>	<p>City</p> <p>Substance: {"city.h", "city.cpp" }</p> <p>Relations: { Terrain_d, Unit_d }</p> <p>Annotations: (Task: T06, Time: 3.5h, Log: "Fixed error 980201A"), ... (Bug: 980201A, Descr: "Unit production fails", Fixed: Yes),...</p>
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Figure 2.2: Components Model and City with feasible attributes.

substance. The internal representation of source fragments should ideally be able to handle all levels of abstractions from individual methods over classes and class-categories to full systems. In an implementation based on a database, the code fragments could be objects in the database. In a file-system based implementation, code fragments could be stored in files, for instance in a C++ project, a class foo could be represented by a software component named foo with substance being the files { foo.h , foo.cpp }. A problem with both implementations is that handling fine grained abstractions, like individual methods in a class, is infeasible unless a custom editor is provided that can provide developers with a familiar, cohesive, view of the source code.

Figure 2.2 shows possible instances of software components, here Model and City from the strategy game example. City contains C++ source files as substance while Model contains no substance here as its purpose is to model the class category (although one could imagine it to contain a facade pattern). (It should be noted that the figure shows a simplified view; in the fully developed model (chapter 3) elements of the substance- and relation sets are versioned.)

By having substance as an attribute of the software component, the RAGNAROK model explicitly views the logical architectural level as primary and the physical/code level as secondary: You must define an abstraction/component first, before being able to associate actual source code.

2.1.3 Relations

An abstraction is seldom an isolated entity but must be understood in its context within the architecture; abstractions are organised hierarchically by composition (aggregation/part-whole) and interrelated by functional dependencies (association/use), inheritance, etc. Such **relations** are also stored in the software component in the **relation set** attribute. Relations are a central theme in the RAGNAROK model as will become apparent in chapter 3 and evident in the many figures in this thesis that focus exclusively on relations between components.

Relations have a type, τ , where τ may be a type relevant for describing logical software design: Composition, functional dependency, or inheritance (and possibly others). Relations are uni-directional; they state a relation *from* one software component *to* another, not a bi-directional relation. Bi-directional relations must be represented by two relations, one in each component. Irrespective of type, relations state an underlying *dependency* or *requirement*: If there is a relation from component *A* to component *B*, then *A* builds upon functionality in *B*, or in other ways extends, elaborates, is affected by, or requires *B*.

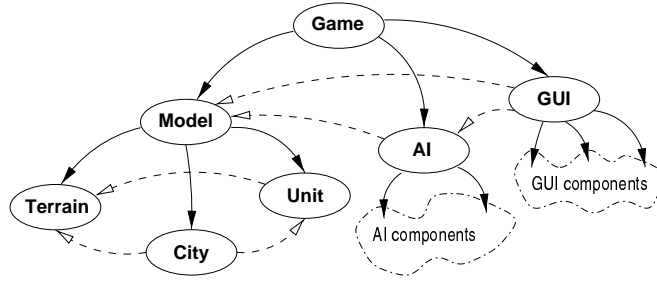


Figure 2.3: Graph interpretation of the game architecture.

Referring to Fig. 2.2 again, the compositional- and functional dependency relations in the game example are apparent in the relation sets of **Model** and **City**. The subscripts $\tau = \mathbf{c}$ and $\tau = \mathbf{d}$ are used to denote composition and dependency respectively.

We require that a component cannot be related to it self, i.e. self-reference is not allowed in the relation set. Moreover, a certain relation type may have stronger requirements. One such example is the compositional relation where we require that the resulting structure is a tree-structure.

Only architecturally relevant relation types are allowed, i.e. a relation like *compiles-into* is not allowed as it is not an architectural/design relation between two logical design abstractions.

Usually relations between components at least mimic the direct import/include declarations in the underlying source code, but should also cover relations that are not directly expressed in the code. As an example, consider two applications, *A* and *B*, where *B* is depending on information sent by *A* over a network to *B*; in the architectural design such a dependency relation should be stated.

2.1.4 Graph Interpretation

The abstractions and hierarchy in an architecture are defined in terms of software components and their relations. This can be viewed as a directed graph [Har88]: Components are nodes and relations are arcs.

Alas, any component, *C*, is root in a directed sub-graph where the nodes are the components that *C* is transitively related to. We will denote this directed, *C*-rooted, graph the **architectural context** of *C*.

Fig. 2.3 exemplifies this view by showing the strategy game architecture as a graph. An ellipse represents a software component and the solid lines between ellipses are composition relations, dashed lines are dependencies. The ‘clouds’ denote unspecified sets of components.

If we think purely in terms of source code, the concepts of ‘architectural context’ and ‘dependency graph’ are closely related concepts. The architectural context is a somewhat wider concept, however, as components may contain non-source code data that require additional relations.



2.2 Annotated Architecture

As noted by Bass et al. [BCK98, p. 286], the team- and organisational structure usually mirrors the logical structure of an architecture. The well-established principle of information hiding states that modules should encapsulate changeable aspects. Modules thus define their own domains and thereby natural boundaries of expertise and staff allocation. RAGNAROK pushes this one step further:

The logical software architecture can be annotated with the data relevant for the process of managing and implementing it.

that is, it is argued that organisational data should be an integral part of the software components.

This way the synchronisation effort is minimised; architectural redesign or the addition of new architectural entities automatically creates the framework for handling managerial data.

2.2.1 Annotations

Managerial data are stored in the **annotation** attribute of the software component. The attribute is actually a set of annotations. Each annotation is structured data for a specific dimension/aspect of the component and can itself contain a list of data. The list of examples is almost only limited by one's imagination. Examples include: Task data (like staffing: Who is responsible for implementing this component; budget: How many staff hours are budgeted for implementation, how many have been spent so far; estimated-time-to-complete etc.), quality assurance annotations (checklists to be gone through in release situation, regression test suites), progress logs (what bug-fixes/enhancements have been carried out, by whom and when), requirement specifications, documentation, scenario descriptions, architectural analyses, etc.

A (very) tentative example is shown in Fig. 2.2 which hints at budgeting, staffing, and bugreporting annotations.

2.2.2 Annotation Synthesis

Annotations should be allowed to be *synthesised*. As an example, consider our game development team defining an annotation storing staff-hours spent. Say developer A has spent 80 hours on component Terrain and 10 hours on City while B has spent 120 hours on City and 90 hours on Unit. Developer C has spent 40 hours on defining a facade pattern for the Model library in component Model. Now consider an answer to the question: "How many staff-hours have been spent on the Model library?". One answer is the 40 hours directly logged by C but what we want is likely the sum of hours spent on all aspects of the Model library: 340 hours. Such synthesised data is relevant in many other contexts: Budgets, estimates, planning, staffing, etc.

2.2.3 Status

Status and preliminary experiences with annotations on the architecture is reported later in section 3.9.7.



2.3 Discussion

Though this chapter primarily sets the stage for the presentation in the following chapters, some issues are relevant at this point.

2.3.1 The Orthogonality of Logical and Physical Structure

Abstractions usually have a physical implementation in a programming language. The coupling between logical and physical structure vary greatly in different programming languages and environments: Integrated environments for Smalltalk [GR95] present the logical structure and hides the physical level; Java [AG98] enforces a strict one-to-one mapping between (public) classes and files, and between packages and directories; BETA [MMPN93] uses a special modularisation language orthogonal to the programming language itself; and in C++ [Str97] the coupling is purely based on conventions. Though they all offer e.g. the class abstraction, their storage models vary greatly.

Several authors claim that logical and physical structure are orthogonal, e.g. Booch [Boo91, § 5.6] and Madsen et al. [MMPN93, § 17.1]. Nevertheless, the question is whether this orthogonality is something to strive for. In practice, developers often try hard to do the opposite, especially if deprived the privilege of having a medium in which to describe the logical structure. Then file-naming and directory conventions become important tools to hint at the underlying logical structure.

Also the distinction may be easy enough at the programming language near level: A class is something different than a file. But what at more abstract levels? After all, is the code generator a logical or physical part of a compiler? Or both? Is a library a logical or physical entity? An application? Or a subsystem?

The position taken by RAGNAROK is emphasis on the logical structure, and letting physical structure be attributes of the former. And the view is that, by using abstraction, we can group related entities into cohesive wholes. As an example, the `Model` component in our game example, is viewed as a logical entity that defines the underlying game model—even though the component perhaps has no source code directly associated.

2.3.2 Derived Objects

In the current formulation, a software component does not handle derived objects, i.e. objects created by an automatic translation process performed on data contained in the component. The typical example is the compiler, that translates source code fragments into binary object code. It is envisioned that the software component is extended with an attribute holding a pool of derived objects. Each derived object should be classified according to the rules/specifications that

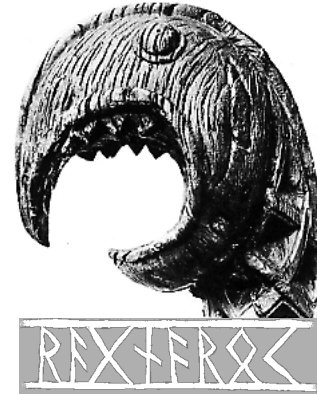
have been used for the translation process, like for instance the switches given to the compiler. This could form basis for an intelligent build management system where the amount of recompilation could be minimised by avoiding unnecessary recompilations. Such techniques were developed in the DSEE system [LJ87] and continued in the later ClearCase product [Leb94].

2.3.3 Architectural Views

Kruchten advocates multiple views on architecture in the 4+1 view model [Kru95] including the logical, process, physical, and development view.

At present, the focus in RAGNAROK is on the static aspects of a software architecture. This is not because other aspects, like dynamic, functional, process, etc., are not interesting. But—“... *once everything has been said, software is defined by code*” [Mey88, p. 30]. No matter what models we have in our minds, in diagrams, or documented for any aspect, it is the static code that *is* reality. The static aspect implicitly defines many of the others: The run-time dynamics, functional characteristics, process properties, etc. The static structure is the one developers perform their modifications and enhancements on, even to achieve a goal in another aspect as e.g. improved speed, better load balancing, enhanced security, etc. Not surprisingly, Rumbaugh et al. directly advocate the static structure as the more fundamental [RBP⁺91]. Architecture reconstruction tools, like Dali [KC99], necessarily have to reconstruct from a software system’s manifestation: The underlying source code.

In Kruchten terminology, the RAGNAROK model is clearly based on the logical view and regards the development view as attributes of the logical, through the substance attribute of software components. One of the reasons that Kruchten needs a separate development view is indeed release- and configuration management concerns, a problem we think the architectural software configuration management model described in chapter 3 overcomes. Still, aspects like process- and physical view as well as for instance the planning phase where one needs to view tasks on a time scale, are not supported and cannot be handled nor visualised well. We think, however, there are enough interesting and important aspects to make the approach worthwhile.



Chapter 3

Architectural Software Configuration Management

In his seminal paper ‘Tools for Software Configuration Management’ [Tic88], Tichy defined software configuration management (SCM) as the process of ‘tracking the evolution of a software system’. Ovum describes configuration management in similar terms [IBW93, p. 17]: ‘Configuration management is the ability to identify, manage and control software as well as software-related components [...] as they change over time’. Basic operational aspects of SCM are highlighted in the IEEE standard and reviewed by Dart [Dar91]:

- *Identification*: An identification scheme reflects the structure of the project, identifies components and their types, making them unique and accessible in some form.
- *Control*: Controlling the release of a product and changes to it throughout the life-cycle by having controls in place that ensure consistent software via the creation of a baseline product.
- *Status Accounting*: Recording and reporting the status of components and change requests, and gathering vital statistics about components in the product.
- *Audit and Review*: Validating the completeness of a product and maintaining consistency among the components by ensuring that the product is a well-defined collection of components.

Evidently, the keywords are ‘control’ and ‘evolution’. The importance of SCM in modern software development is widely recognised as is apparent in the Capability Maturity Model [PWCC97].

This chapter presents the **architectural software configuration management** model that forms the fundamental core of RAGNAROK. It is important to emphasise software configuration management as a core discipline in the development cycle and therefore use it as the fundamental technology in the software development environment. Too often, development and programming environments do not provide SCM abilities; thus an additional SCM tool suite is required, which potentially does not integrate well with the existing environment. Another unfortunate consequence may be that SCM is not done at all.

Many aspects of the architectural software configuration management model have been presented in the papers [Chr97b, Chr98a, Chr99a]. On-line documentation for the RCM prototype can be found in [Chr98e], technical documentation in [Chr98d], and a guide of the tailorability aspects [Chr98c] from the RAGNAROK homepage <http://daimi.au.dk/~hbc/Ragnarok.html>.

This chapter starts with the underlying motivation and proposal of the architectural software configuration management model in section 3.1. Thereafter the static and dynamic aspects of the basic model are introduced in section 3.2 and 3.3. Properties of the model are discussed in section 3.4 and the discussion is extended to branching and merging architectures in section 3.5. The tailorability aspect is described in 3.6. A short outline of design and implementation issues is presented in section 3.7 followed by a brief description of the RAGNAROK companion prototype, RCM, in section 3.8. Case studies from using the RCM prototype as reported by external user groups are the topic of section 3.9. The model is discussed in section 3.10, related to similar work in section 3.11, and some pointers to future work given in section 3.12.



3.1 Motivation and Proposal

The architectural software configuration management model was primarily motivated out of concern for the software developers. In many projects, SCM has meant benefits for the project managers but has been a burden for the developers that have to supply the information required for the SCM system and tackle its complexity [AM97]. The mantra is that ‘the software configuration management model should be natural for software developers’—in line with the overall vision in RAGNAROK.

The logical software architecture is the fundamental framework for designing and implementing large scale software. Many traditional software configuration management tools nevertheless view ‘software’ merely as a set of files, not as an architecture. Examples include CVS [Ber90] and commercial systems like Microsoft SourceSafe [Mic97], ClearCase [Cle98], CCC/Harvest [CCC96], and PVCS [PVC97] to mention a few. As J. Estublier notes: ‘They propose *file management* where *software management* is needed.’ [EC94, p. 100]. This introduces an unfortunate *impedance mismatch* or *mental gap* between the concepts used in the design domain (architectural level) and in the configuration management do-

main (file level). The tools does not support the concept of software architecture directly, and the developers or maintainers have to correlate the two domains mentally. Another key point is the fact that sets of files can not provide unambiguous information about how the architecture itself evolves, for instance how new classes are added or deleted and the dependency structure rearranged.

The hypothesis in RAGNAROK is that to avoid these problems, we must view a software system as an architecture, not as a set of files, also in the software configuration management domain:

The logical software architecture is a natural framework for version- and configuration control.

Thereby, the impedance mismatch is lessened, making the model more natural for developers. Another key issue, implicit in the hypothesis, and addressed by the architectural model, is that architectural entities are seldom understood in isolation: Abstractions are organised hierarchically by composition (aggregation/part-whole), and interrelated by functional dependencies (association/use) and inheritance. For instance, to understand why feature X in class Y has mysteriously stopped working though it worked perfectly last week, you often have to look for the answer outside class Y itself—maybe in changed functionality in some classes depended upon or an imported library. This illustrates that the architecture, that forms the logical context for a given software entity, is just as important as the entity itself. The RAGNAROK architectural SCM model recognises this and puts strong emphasis on traceability and reproducibility of configurations and architectural changes, as described in the following sections.



3.2 Architectural Model, Static Aspects

In this section, the basic concepts of the architectural software configuration management model will be presented. The model and its concepts will be presented through formal descriptions and examples. The treatment is influenced by papers by Conradi and Westfechtel [CW97] and Lin and Reiss [LR97].

In chapter 2, we have been looking at the architecture of a software system from the viewpoint of the developer. Discussing SCM issues, another viewpoint is equally important, namely the viewpoint of the database where snapshots of the software entities are stored. Conradi and Westfechtel [CW97, CW98] describe a SCM system as a combination of *product-* and *version space*. The product space contains software objects and their relationships, both of which evolve over time, and is the space where development is carried out, thus representing a *developer-centred view*. The version space stores *states* of the objects' evolution and represents a *database view*. Often the two spaces are termed *workspace* and *repository*.

This chapter deals primarily with software from the viewpoint of version space (repository). The repository stores individual states of the evolution of components, each state represented by a *software component version*.

The formal description of the model follows the tradition known from physics: The emphasis is on a terse, unambiguous, and clear description, more than on

mathematical rigour—the intention is to present a model and discuss its properties in the context of software engineering. This implies that we draw heavily on object-oriented and normal programming concept—for instance we treat a set as a datatype where we can insert and delete elements, etc. Also, the emphasis is on describing the properties that are special about this model and therefore cumbersome descriptions of concepts that are well known in the domain are avoided—for instance the description of the version graph is not comprehensive as the architectural model assumes standard version graph properties, see e.g. [Tic88, CW97].

3.2.1 Basic Elements and Domains

In the presentation, we use five data types: Primitive data types are *identities*, *object references*, and *software entities*, complex data types are *sets* and *directed graphs*.

An identity is a property of an object, that distinguishes it from all other objects [KC86].

Given an object A , a reference to A is denoted $\text{ref}(A)$. Two references are considered the same if they refer to the same object. We treat $\text{ref}(A)$ as a first class object though it resembles a function call. It is equal to the box operator, $A[]$ in BETA, and somewhat similar to A^{\wedge} in Pascal, and $*A$ or $\&A$ in C.

A software entity is a physical object, that defines a part of a software system. In a file based system a software entity is typically represented by a file or part of a file; in a database it is a database object—however the only requirement of the model, is that it is possible to test for equality of two software entities—the *sameness criteria* of Conradi and Westfechtel [CW97].

Sets are described using standard mathematical notation. The same applies to directed graphs. The usual notation $[v, u]$ is used for a directed arc going from node v to node u .

The standard ‘dot’ notation is used to indicate individual fields in a structured object: $C.CID$ denotes (the value of) the CID field of object C .

3.2.2 Software Component Version

A **software component version** represents a version of an abstraction:

- SOFTWARE COMPONENT VERSION
- A software component version C is a tuple:
- CID is the *component identity*.
 - VID is the *version identity*.
 - WID is the *workspace identity*.
 - S_{sub} is a set of software entities, defining substance.
 - S_{rel} is a set of references to other software component version tuples $\{\text{ref}_{\tau_i}(C_i), \dots, \text{ref}_{\tau_j}(C_j)\}$, defining architectural relations. τ indicates the type of relation as for instance ‘composition’, ‘functional dependency’, ‘inheritance’, etc.
 - S_{annot} is a set of annotations as described in chapter 2.
 - w is a boolean value, *writable*. If w is true the substance and annotations, S_{sub} and S_{annot} , may be modified, otherwise they may not. All other elements of the tuple can only be modified through algorithms outlined later.

Self-reference in the relation set, S_{rel} , is not allowed:

$$\forall \text{ref}(c) \in C.S_{rel} \quad c.CID \neq C.CID$$

Two component versions C_a and C_b are identical, $C_a = C_b$, iff all elements in the tuples are pairwise equal.

Usually, we will use the shorter term *component version*.

A component version is uniquely identified by the first three attributes: CID that identifies the *abstraction* (component), VID that identifies the *version* of it, and finally WID that identifies the *workspace* that the component version belongs to. One can view them as spanning a space where each point is a component version as in Fig. 3.1. The highlighted point in the figure thus denotes version 11 of software component `Model` that is presently available in the workspace of ‘andy’. The repository, the shared database holding all component versions, is identified by a special workspace identity, $WID = \textit{repository}$. Workspaces and repository are treated in more detail in section 3.3.

The substance, relation, and annotation attributes have been described in chapter 2¹. Chapter 2, however, did not consider the version aspect, for instance, Fig. 2.2 (p. 14) is imprecise: Component `City` has to have a version identity associated; the substance like “city.h” must be interpreted not just as a filename, but as the actual contents of “city.h” at the time the component version was created; the same comment applies to annotations; and the dependency relations to `Terrain` and `Unit` have to state the exact version identity of these components, like e.g. `Terrain` in version 7 and `Unit` in version 9.

In the following discussions, we use a string-value as component identity, CID,

¹Implementation note: The component version also stores internal housekeeping information like check-in time, author, etc.

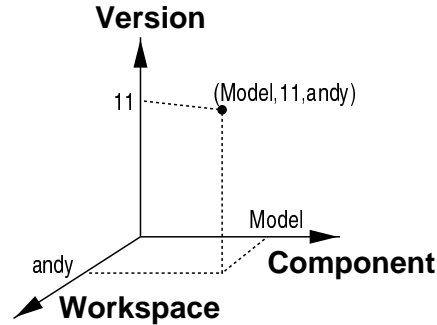


Figure 3.1: The project version space spanned by the (CID, VID, WID) identities.

and natural numbers for version identity, VID, where version 3 is a modification of version 2 being a modification of version 1 etc. Version ‘n’ of software component foo is written (foo, n). The workspace identity, WID, is normally implied by the context (in most cases, we look at component versions in repository). Otherwise a string-value is used (like ‘andy’ in Fig. 3.1).

3.2.3 Component

The **component** is a central concept from the developers’ viewpoint.

COMPONENT All component versions C_i that have the same component identity, $C_i.CID$, are said to belong to the same component, with identity CID.

In practice, developers use the concept ‘component’ somewhat differently. When developing they have a clear production space- and development view, and here the emphasis is not on individual component versions but on ‘the one I have in my workspace’. Accordingly, we will normally write ‘component foo’ instead of the painstaking ‘the component version in workspace with identity CID=foo’.

3.2.4 Configuration

The key property of the model is that the elements in the relation set, S_{rel} , are references to *specific* software component versions, not generic references. This has fundamental consequences for the relationship between a component version and a configuration, as will be discussed shortly.

A **configuration** is a finite set of component versions

$$\mathcal{C} = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m\}$$

that must be *consistent*.

A configuration is *consistent* if the following three requirements hold:

$$\forall (c_i, c_j) \in (\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}) \quad c_i \neq c_j \Leftrightarrow c_i.CID \neq c_j.CID \quad (3.1)$$

i.e. there can be only *one* component version belonging to any given component, CID, in any configuration.

A configuration can not have dangling relations:

$$\forall c \in \mathcal{C} \quad \forall \text{ref}(c') \in c.S_{rel} \quad \exists c'' \in \mathcal{C} \quad \text{ref}(c'') = \text{ref}(c') \quad (3.2)$$

i.e. there are no relation references from within \mathcal{C} to component versions not in \mathcal{C} .

Finally, a configuration can not cross workspaces/repository:

$$\forall (c_i, c_j) \in (\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{C}) \quad c_i.WID = c_j.WID \quad (3.3)$$

which expresses the well-known ‘sand-box’ or isolation concept: Modifications made by one developer does not affect others.

This definition is in essence that of a *bound configuration*, that is, the version to use for each component is always explicitly defined. This is in contrast to models where relations are stated generically between components (like ‘module A depends on module B’), and the exact version to use for e.g. compiling or editing is decided by configuration rules defined elsewhere (exemplified by e.g. ClearCase views).

Usually, we are specifically interested in the configuration rooted in a given component version. A **c-rooted configuration**, \mathcal{C}_c , of a component version c , is the configuration formed by making the reflexive, transitive, closure of $c.S_{rel}$, i.e. a configuration containing all component versions that c is directly or indirectly related to.

Formally, we can express this through dependency sets: The direct dependency set $Rel(c)$ of a component c is the set of component versions that are referenced in c ’s relation set:

$$Rel(c) \equiv \{c' \mid \text{ref}(c') \in c.S_{rel}\}.$$

The reflexive transitive closure is then

$$Rel^*(c) \equiv \{c' \mid (c' = c) \vee \exists c'' (c' \in Rel(c'')) \wedge (c'' \in Rel^*(c))\}.$$

If $Rel^*(c)$ is a consistent configuration under requirements 3.1–3.3 then the configuration rooted in c is $\mathcal{C}_c = Rel^*(c)$.

A **sub-configuration** $sub(\mathcal{C})$ of a configuration \mathcal{C} , is a subset: $sub(\mathcal{C}) \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ that itself must be a consistent configuration.

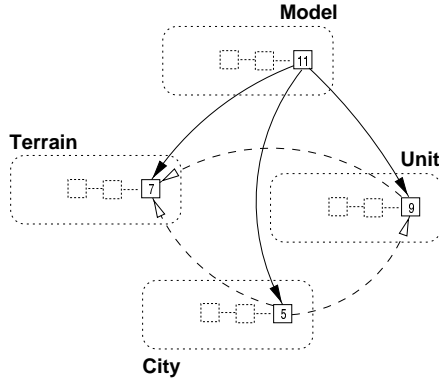


Figure 3.2: (Model, 11)-rooted configuration in repository.

3.2.5 Version Group

The component versions for a given component, CID, are arranged in a traditional **version group** [Tic88, CW97].

VERSION GROUP A version group for a component with identity CID, VG_{CID} is a directed acyclic graph:

$$VG_{CID} = (V, A)$$

where the vertices, $c \in V$, are component versions belonging to the same component, CID, and workspace/repository, WID:

$$\forall (c_i, c_j) \in (V \times V) \quad (c_i.CID = c_j.CID) \wedge (c_i.WID = c_j.WID).$$

The set of arcs, A , describes the evolution of the component with identity CID:

$$A = \{[c_i, c_j] \mid c_j \text{ is a revision-of } c_i\}$$

where the relation ‘revision-of’ is the traditional relation as defined by Tichy [Tic88], that is, c_j was produced by changing a copy of c_i .

The notation VG_k will be used to denote a version group in the repository that traces the evolution of a component with identity CID= k .

3.2.6 Example

Consider again our fictitious software team from chapter 2 developing a small strategy game. The fundamental game model is implemented in a class-category, Model, that is composed of classes Terrain, City, and Unit, modelling the fundamental game concepts. Figure 3.2 shows a milestone: Model version 11. In the figure, the version group for a component is depicted as a box with rounded

corners containing the component versions (small quadrants with the version numbers inside) organised in a version graph. Solid lines going out of a component version represent relations of type ‘composition’, dashed lines ‘dependencies’. So, Model version 11 is composed of (Terrain, 7), (City, 5), and (Unit, 9)—and (City, 5) depends on (Unit, 9) and (Terrain, 7), and so on.

Thus the configuration rooted in (Model, 11) is the set $\{(Model, 11), (Terrain, 7), (City, 5), (Unit, 9)\}$ and is a consistent configuration under requirements 3.1–3.3.

If requirement 3.1 was not ensured, absurd situations could arise. For instance in Fig. 3.2 if (City, 5) depended upon, say, (Unit, 8) then the configuration of Model would refer to two different versions of class Unit.

As is evident from Fig. 3.2, the component versions and their relationships can be viewed as a directed graph: Component versions are nodes and relations are arcs. Thus, a c -rooted configuration can also be interpreted as the directed (sub)graph, that is rooted in c .



3.3 Architectural Model, Dynamic Aspects

So far, static aspects of the model have been described. The dynamic aspect is the check-in/check-out cycle that copies configurations from repository to a workspace and vice versa.

3.3.1 Repository

The **repository** stores the individual states in the evolution of the components.

REPOSITORY A repository is a tuple

$$\mathcal{R} = (\text{ID}, S_{vg})$$

where ID is the identity of the repository and S_{vg} is a finite set of version groups:

$$S_{vg} = \{VG_1, VG_2, \dots, VG_n\}.$$

with two requirements: All component versions in all version groups are immutable and their workspace identity equals the repository identity:

$$\forall vg \in \mathcal{R}.S_{vg} \quad \forall c \in vg.V \quad (c.WID = \mathcal{R}.ID) \wedge (c.w = \text{false}) \quad (3.4)$$

and for all component versions c , the c -rooted configuration is consistent

$$\forall vg \in \mathcal{R}.S_{vg} \quad \forall c \in vg.V \quad \text{the } c\text{-rooted configuration is consistent.} \quad (3.5)$$

3.3.2 Workspace

A **workspace** is a configuration of component versions and a reference to the repository that serves as the version database for these components.

WORKSPACE A workspace is a tuple

$$W = (\text{ID}, \mathcal{C}, \text{ref}(\mathcal{R}))$$

where ID is the identity of the workspace and where we require all component versions in configuration \mathcal{C} to belong to components that have a version group in repository \mathcal{R} :

$$\forall c \in \mathcal{C} \quad \exists vg \in \mathcal{R}.S_{vg} \quad \forall c' \in vg.V \quad c'.\text{CID} = c.\text{CID}$$

and naturally that the component versions belong to this workspace:

$$\forall c \in \mathcal{C} \quad c.\text{WID} = W.\text{ID}.$$

The configuration \mathcal{C} represents the production space where component versions are modified, while \mathcal{R} is the version space: A user can move component versions between the two spaces through check-in and check-out operations described later.

Note that in this formulation a configuration does not necessarily need to contain versions of all components present in the repository. This opens up for defining workspaces that only hold part of the components; in essence a sub-configuration².

3.3.3 Project

In practice, it is convenient to consider components within the context of a **project**. A project defines the domain in which development takes place.

PROJECT A project is tuple

$$\mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{R}, S_W)$$

where S_W is a set of workspaces

$$S_W = \{W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n\}$$

where the workspaces in S_W of course must refer to the same repository

$$\forall W_i \in S_W \quad W_i.\text{ref}(\mathcal{R}) = \mathcal{P}.\text{ref}(\mathcal{R})$$

See also the discussion about project boundaries in section 3.12.5.

3.3.4 Revise

For the architecture to evolve, developers modify copies of component versions in their workspaces, modifying substance, annotations, possibly stating new depen-

²Implementation note: This ability, however, is not available in the current RAGNAROK prototype.

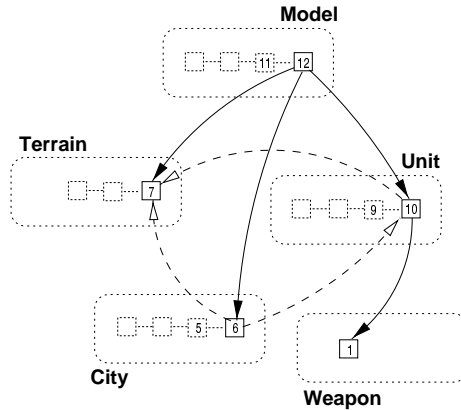


Figure 3.3: Version 12 of component Model

dependencies or removing existing ones, or creating new components.

Component versions in a workspace are by default read-only; in order to modify something, they must be made writable through a **revise** algorithm. The revise algorithm is simple, as it sets the writable flag, w , of a component version in the workspace to true. Hereafter, the developer can directly modify substance and annotations.

A key point here is that

The revise operation is not propagated through-out the transitive, reflexive, closure

in contrast to the check-in and check-out operations described next. While this may seem like a trivial point, it has implications for the way developers can work in parallel on different parts of an architecture, as described in section 3.5 and section 3.10.4. POEM, discussed in section 3.11.2, implements a transitive revise operation.

3.3.5 Create

Creating new components, as well as changing the relations, must be done through special algorithms that ensure the consistency requirements, 3.1–3.3, of configurations. As this is easily ensured, we will not detail these algorithms.

3.3.6 Check-in

When a given set of changes meet some criteria of completeness, they can be committed back to the version database through a check-in procedure.

The architectural model in essence puts the rooted configuration under version control by means of a transitive, reflexive, closure **check-in** algorithm. To check in a new version, the algorithm recursively traverses all relation set references, depth-first, and creates new versions of all components along paths to modified components and updates the relation set references accordingly.

Example: To illustrate a check-in, consider a situation where an inner class, `Weapon`, is added to class `Unit`. The implementation of this change requires modifications to the substance of classes `Weapon` and `Unit`. After testing, the developers consider this change important for the Model library as a whole, and issue a check-in on component `Model`. The resulting repository changes are shown in Fig. 3.3: The check-in is propagated to (leaf) component `Weapon`, its substance stored and a new version identity, 1, established. The composition reference to `(Weapon, 1)` is now in the relation set of `Unit`, and a new version `(Unit, 10)` created. `City` lies on a path to a modified component and is thus checked-in with a reference to `(Unit, 10)` and finally `Model` is checked-in. No new version of `Terrain` is necessary, as it does not lie on a path to `Weapon`. The new version 6 of `City` that is created as a consequence of the nature of the algorithm, and not because of substance modifications or an explicit check-in call, is denoted an **intermediate** version.

Algorithm Walk-through: The actual check-in algorithm is shown in code fragment 3.1. The function checks in the c -rooted configuration present in workspace W into the repository $W.\mathcal{R}$. Note that this algorithm assumes that there are no cycles in the configuration. Section 3.12.7 describes how it may be extended to handle cycles also.

In (1) we create a temporary component version, c' , as a copy of the input parameter c . The loop (2) recursively checks in all component versions referenced in the relation set (3), effectively checking in the c -rooted configuration. A new relation set, S , is built as the check-in proceeds (4). In (5) we fetch the component version in repository, $c_{\mathcal{R}}$, that c originally was a copy of. In (6) we prepare the temporary c' for comparison with $c_{\mathcal{R}}$ by setting the new relation set, make the temporary appear as it belongs to the repository, and write-protects it. The actual comparison is made in (7) and $c' \neq c_{\mathcal{R}}$ may become true for two reasons: The developer has changed substance or annotations in c (a direct modification of c), or something in the c -rooted configuration has changed which will make the relation sets differ due to the propagated check-in in loop (2). If $c' \neq c_{\mathcal{R}}$ then c' must be entered into the repository which is done in (8)–(9): A unique version identity for the component is established by the repository (8), and the new node c' with a ‘revision-of’ arc to $c_{\mathcal{R}}$ inserted into the repository. Finally, we copy the new component version back into the existing (11) after regaining workspace ownership (10).

The algorithm does not simply replace c with c' in W ; if line (11) instead read:

$$W.C := (W.C \setminus \{c\}) \cup \{c'\};$$

the algorithm does not maintain our consistency requirements: There may be component versions in W that are related to c but not in the c -rooted configuration. These references are thus not affected by the check-in and removing c from W would invalidate the configurations rooted in these component versions (dangling references, requirement 3.2). The copy approach provides flexible workspace management, and is treated in more detail in section 3.4.3.

Note that a component version is not required to be writable in order to be checked in; it is thus possible (as done in the example above) to revise components at other levels of granularity than the one the check-in is issued from. This allows

Code fragment 3.1 Check in

```
function CheckIn ( ref(W) : Workspace Reference;
                  ref(c) : Component Version Reference )
    : Component Version Reference

var
    cR,
    c'      : Component Version;
    ref(cr),
    ref(cnew) : Component Version Reference;
    S      : Relation set;
begin
1  c' := c;
   S := {};
2  foreach ref(cr) ∈ c.Srel do
3     ref(cnew) := CheckIn( ref(W), ref(cr) );
4     S := S ∪ {ref(cnew)};
   end;

5  cR := W.R.GetComponentVersion( c.CID, c.VID );
6  c'.Srel := S;
   c'.WID := W.R.ID;
   c'.w := false;
7  if c' ≠ cR then
8     c'.VID := W.R.GenerateUniqueVID( c.CID );
9     W.R.AddComponentVersion( c.CID, {(c', [cR, c'])} );
   end;
10 c'.WID := W.ID;
11 c := c';
   return ref(c);
end
```

a flexible policy and development process to be defined (see section 3.10.4) and falls natural for developers: If we fix a bug in a class by changing two lines in its implementation, we perceive this a change at the class level and not at the statement level.

3.3.7 Check-out

The **check-out** also proceeds transitively: The component version requested is first checked out, then the check-out is propagated recursively to all component versions referenced in the relation sets.

Algorithm Walk-through: The check-out algorithm is outlined in code fragment 3.2. Given a workspace, *W*, a component with identity, *CID*, and a request for a specific version, *VID*, the configuration rooted in (*CID*, *VID*) is checked out into workspace *W*.

First, the requested component version is retrieved from the relevant version graph in the repository and stored in a temporary *c'* (1). In (2) we iterate over

Code fragment 3.2 Check out

```
function CheckOut ( ref(W) : Workspace Reference;
                  CID, VID : Identification )
                  : Component Version Reference;

var
  c'      : Component Version;
  ref(c),
  ref(c''),
  ref(cr) : Component Version Reference;
  S      : Relation Set;
begin
1  c' := W.R.GetComponentVersion( CID, VID );
   S := {};
2  foreach ref(cr) ∈ c'.Srel do
3    ref(c'') := CheckOut( ref(W), cr.CID, cr.VID);
4    S := S ∪ { ref(c'')};
   end;
5  ref(c) := W.GetComponentVersionRef( CID );
6  c'.WID := W.ID;
7  c'.Srel := S;
8  c := c';
   return ref(c);
end
```

the relations of the component version, check out each one recursively (3) and build the relation set (4). Next, we get a reference to the component version of component CID already in the workspace (5). Again, we gain ownership of the temporary (6), assign the relation set (7) (which contains references to the component versions in workspace whereas the original $c'.S_{rel}$ refers to the ones in repository) and copy it into the component version c already in workspace (8).

The workspace method ‘GetComponentVersionRef’ returns a reference to the component version c in the workspace whose CID attribute match the parameter. If no such component version exists, a new, empty, component version is created with attributes CID equalling the parameter.



3.4 Model Properties

This section outlines the important properties of the architectural software configuration management model.

3.4.1 Versions are Configurations are Versions...

One of the main benefits of modularisation is *separation of concern*, a module encapsulates and hides its internal complexity, and this ability to treat a module as a cohesive unit is the key to building and managing large, complex, software.

The architectural model allows modularisation and abstraction to be applied on the SCM level as well. It provides this ability at two levels. At the low level, the substance attribute allows grouping a set of logically related source code fragments into a cohesive, version controlled, unit—the archetypical example is to group the interface- and implementation file in a class component.

At the second level, the transitive nature of the model implies that the concepts ‘version’ and ‘bound configuration’ are unified. Even complex (sub)configurations are identified by a single component version; as exemplified by ‘Model version 12’ in Fig. 3.3. The internal complexity of the game model is abstracted away and developers are free to discuss, test, and use individual versions of the game model as though they were atomic objects. This is perhaps *the* most important property of the model...

Alas, configurations are first class objects and the evolution of configurations is trivially recorded and accessible. Also, the concepts ‘software component’ and ‘configuration’ in RAGNAROK’s configuration management domain map closely to the concepts ‘abstraction’ and ‘dependency graph’ in the development domain.

3.4.2 Architectural Differences

An important consequence of the model is that the software architecture itself is under strict version control. The specific relations between components are stored along with any modifications in (source code) data and annotations.

An *architectural diff* algorithm can recursively compute differences in the relation sets between two different rooted configurations of a component and report components added and deleted, and how relations have changed. This provides better, higher level, overview of architectural changes than the traditional (often very long) list of file contents differences.

As an example, invoking the architectural diff on Model version 11 and 12 (or e.g. City version 5 and 6) would report that a new component, **Weapon**, has been added via a composition relation from Unit, and hence signal the architectural evolution between the two Model versions.

3.4.3 Mixed Configurations

An important property of the RAGNAROK model is that in a given workspace sub-configurations can be managed independently of the configuration they are part of.

To illustrate this point, consider again the (Model, 11) configuration, but now in the full context of the game project as shown in Fig. 3.4. Assume that (Model, 11) is a sub-configuration of the (Game, 3) configuration, that is also composed of (AI, 4) and (GUI, 8) (both with some unspecified sub-configurations).

Consider the consequences for components Game, AI, etc., when inner class Weapon is added to the game model (section 3.2.6), and the Model component checked in.

The (relevant) contents of the repository, after the check-in of Model, is shown in Fig. 3.5: New versions of the model components are made, but relations between component versions in repository are of course immutable.

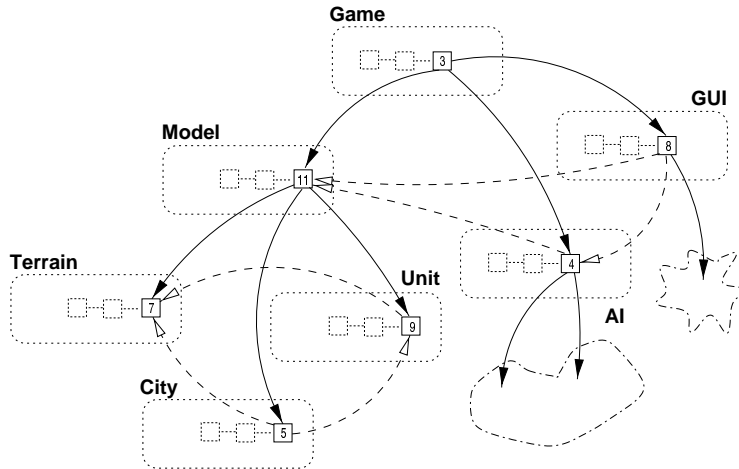


Figure 3.4: The version 11 configuration of Model seen in the full software system context.

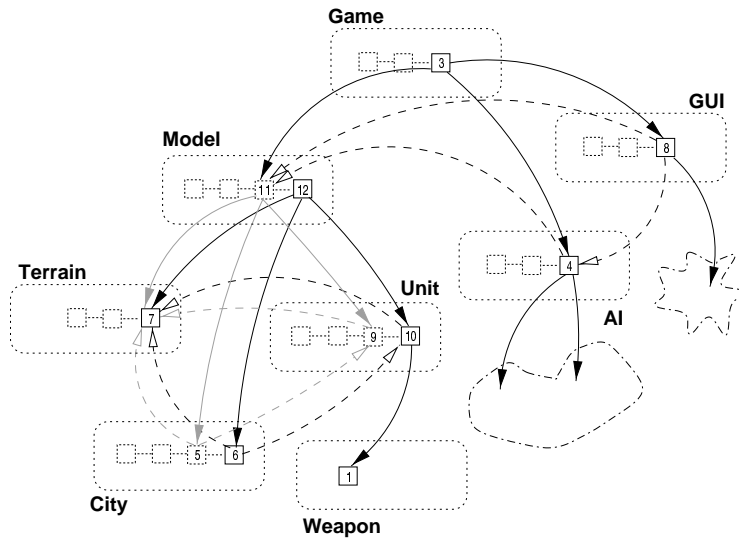


Figure 3.5: The game software system after check-in of Model. Grayed relations show the (Model, 11)-rooted configuration.

The contents of the workspace is shown in Fig. 3.6 and is a **mixed configuration**. As in Fig. 2.3 ellipses symbolise the component versions in the workspace, and we have added the identity of the version, they are a copy of. As we have not changed anything directly in **Game** nor have made a check-in of it, its version identity is still 3—but not quite! (**Model**, 12) is present in the workspace but (**Game**, 3) in the repository refers to (**Model**, 11). In the figure³, this is indicated by the ‘#’ hash sign. Thus ‘3#’ means: ‘the substance and annotations are ver-

³Implementation note: This symbol is also used in the prototypes.

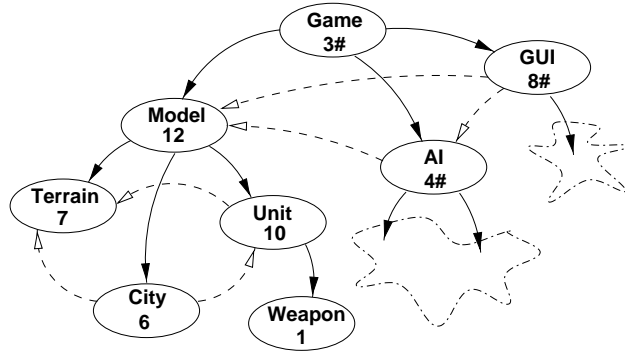


Figure 3.6: The game system in a mixed configuration in a workspace.

sion 3 but relations have changed’. In essence, this workspace contains (Game, 3) where the Model sub-configuration has been substituted with (Model, 12).

This way, it is possible to mix different configurations in workspace by checking out sub-configurations in different versions. In practice, this property is essential to perform integration and merging of sub-architectures as described in section 3.5. It is also a property that allows the users to define policies and define the level of granularity at which a given (code)change is relevant. The latter point is described in more detail in section 3.9.

It should be noted that it is also possible to use rule-based selection (the main selection system in e.g. Adele and ClearCase) to retrieve versions of components based on attributes like check-in time, status, author, etc. RAGNAROK presently provides a single selection profile, namely the inevitable ‘get-latest-version’, in addition to the standard check-out. There has been no need for any additional rule-based check-outs: Rule-based selection plays a lesser part in the architectural model in comparison with other models, as developers can identify and communicate cohesive configurations of libraries and subsystems through a single version identification, instead of relying on version attributes such as date, status, tags, authors, etc. In a sense, the information contents of a single version identification can match that of a complicated selection rule.



3.5 Branching and Merging Architectures

Whereas major architectural changes may be the responsibility of a small elite of chief designers, minor changes often have to be made by sub-teams or individuals in their daily work: Introducing new classes, rearranging the dependency structure, etc. When stabilised, these new configurations have to be made available for integration testing.

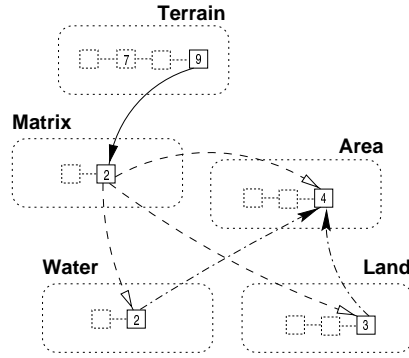


Figure 3.7: Terrain after restructuring to provide multiple terrain types.

3.5.1 Architectural Evolution

Change

Introducing changes in the architecture for part of a system is eased by the fact that the description of architecture is distributed—relations are local attributes of the components. Therefore, changes can be made by the subteam/individual with only local effect and without the potential bottleneck of a global architectural description.

Example: Our game team decides to provide both sea and land terrain in the game. The developer responsible for the Terrain class decides to model this by viewing the terrain as a matrix of areas, each area being either water or land. An inner class Matrix is introduced that depends on superclass Area and subclasses Water and Land. Figure 3.7 shows a version of the new context of Terrain during this work; dash-dotted lines indicate inheritance relations.

Other developers, working on Unit and City, are not disturbed by the changes in Terrain because they can work with the stable (Terrain, 7) in their workspaces.

Integration

Integration of architectural changes is performed by a check-out. Consider the change made to the Terrain class described above. When the developer has a version of the terrain class that is sufficiently stable for the rest of the team to test, the only thing needed to be communicated is the proper version identification, here version 9. The other team members check-out (Terrain, 9) and will automatically get the new configuration including all newly introduced classes, their internal relationships, and the code fragments defining their substance.

The check-out thus becomes an ‘architectural merge’: The changed architecture of component Terrain is merged into the architecture of e.g. component Unit.

Working with stable versions and occasionally integrating with a new milestone version is a well-proven technique. Many fast-paced, small team, development projects, however, work with a much faster integration cycle where developers constantly integrate the newest code. A special ‘get-latest-version’ check-out is provided to enable this working style. It recursively traverses a given rooted

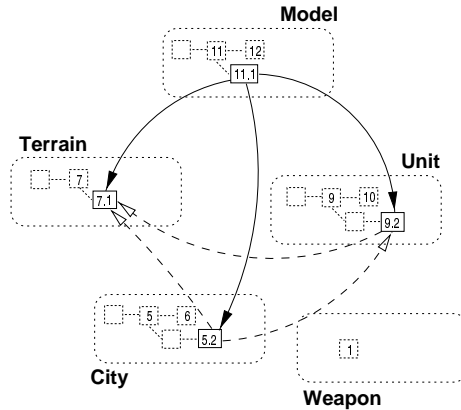


Figure 3.8: A parallel version, 11.1, of version 11 of component Model

configuration and checks-out the newest version on the current branch of every component unless it is currently revised in the developer’s workspace.

3.5.2 Parallel Development

Few development efforts proceed in a strictly linear fashion. The archetypical example of non-linear development is the case where a released system needs to be bug-fixed at the same time as development on the next release is in progress.

In this case, the release version becomes parent in the version graph for both the bug-fixed version(s) and the mainstream development version(s) i.e. a branch point.

Branching

In keeping with the transitive nature of the architectural model, branching is propagated throughout the configuration, i.e. similar branches are created within the version graphs of all components in the configuration. This is exemplified in Fig. 3.8 where a variant of Model version 11 is shown. (To keep the figure small, the evolution of Terrain from Fig. 3.7 is left out.)

This approach may sound expensive in terms of storage. Indeed, there is an overhead but less than one might fear at first sight. Usually, in most components the actual source code fragments are identical in the branch and in the main line. Thus, only lightweight data is changed (basically a new version identification, VID, and a new relation set, S_{rel}), which consumes relatively little storage.

Merging

Usually, the bug-fixes made in a maintenance branch need to be introduced in the main development line as well. An automatic merge is often the heart of such a reconciliation process.

In many traditional systems, a merge only extends to the file level, building a new file version from two file versions with a common ancestor. In the archi-

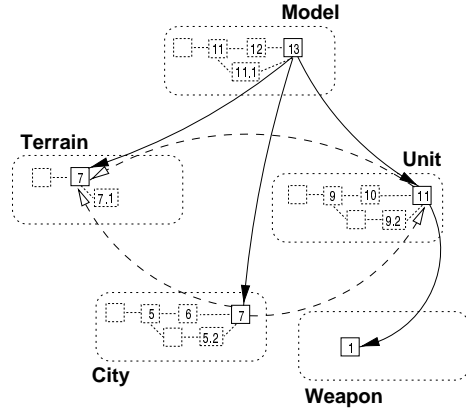


Figure 3.9: A merged version 13 of component Model from receptor version 12 and donator version 11.1

tectural model, the notion of merge must again be extended to the transitive, reflexive, closure of a rooted configuration and thereby extended to the architectural level as well; it must handle added and/or deleted components as well as changed relations.

Example: Figure 3.9 shows an example of how merge works in practice. Here variant 11.1 of Model is merged back into the main development line with version 12 to produce version 13. We will denote version 12 the *receptor* version and version 11.1 the *donator* version. Consider component Unit where the branched version 9.2 has a single relation, a dependency to Terrain, but the receptor has an additional composition relation to Weapon. The result of the merge in Unit is a union with both a dependency to Terrain and a composition relation to Weapon. Considering Terrain, substances and relation sets are identical in receptor- and donator versions, and thus a potential version 8 is avoided.

Algorithm Walk-through: The algorithm for merging is outlined in code fragment 3.3. Consider two versions c_r and c_d of a given component, CID. c_r is denoted the *receptor* version, and c_d the *donator* version, as the donator can be viewed as a supplier of differences (deltas) that are merged into the receptor forming a new, direct, version of the receptor. The merge procedure operates in a given workspace, W , and merges the donator rooted configuration, identified by its version identity, VID, into the receptor rooted configuration, $c_r \in W.C$, returning true if a difference between the receptor- and donator rooted configurations was detected.

First, the donator version is fetched from repository (1); it is the component version with the same component identity as the receptor itself, $c_r.CID$, and the version identity, VID, supplied as parameter to the merge function.

Next, a special set intersection, \cap^R , finds the relation set, S , that forms the basis for the transitive merge (2): We only need to propagate merge in the rooted configurations that the receptor and donator versions have in common, therefore the use of intersection (\cap^R is formally defined after the merge algorithm in code fragment 3.3).

Code fragment 3.3 Merge

```
function Merge( ref(W): workspace; ref(cr) : component version;
                VID: version id ) : Boolean;
    changed : Boolean;
    ref(c)   : Component Version Reference;
    cd      : Component Version;
    S        : Relation Set;
begin
1   cd := W.R.GetComponentVersion( cr.CID, VID );
2   S :=  $\cap^R(c_r.S_{rel}, c_d.S_{rel})$ ;
3   changed := ( cr.Ssub  $\neq$  cd.Ssub  $\vee$  cr.Sannot  $\neq$  cd.Sannot );
4   foreach ref(c)  $\in$  S do
5     changed := changed  $\vee$  Merge( ref(W), ref(c), DV( ref(c), cd.Srel ) );
6   end;
7   if changed then
8     cr.Srel :=  $\cup^C(W.C, c_r.S_{rel}, c_d.S_{rel})$ ;
9     cr.Ssub := SubstanceMerge( cr.Ssub, cd.Ssub );
10    cr.Sannot := AnnotationMerge( cr.Sannot, cd.Sannot );
11    cr.w := true;
12  end;
13  return changed;
end;
```

where $\cap^R(S_{rel}^r, S_{rel}^d)$ is a special set intersection that maintains those component versions in the receptor relation set, S_{rel}^r , whose component identity, CID, is also present in the donator set:

$$\cap^R(S_{rel}^r, S_{rel}^d) \equiv \{\text{ref}(c) \in S_{rel}^r \mid \exists \text{ref}(c') \in S_{rel}^d \quad c.CID = c'.CID\}$$

and $\cup^C(\mathcal{C}, S_{rel}^r, S_{rel}^d)$ defines the subset of component versions in a configuration that are listed in the receptor or donator relation set:

$$\cup^C(\mathcal{C}, S_{rel}^r, S_{rel}^d) \equiv \{\text{ref}(c) \in \mathcal{C} \mid \exists \text{ref}(c') \in (S_{rel}^r \cup S_{rel}^d) \quad c.CID = c'.CID\}.$$

The integer function DV returns the version identity, VID, of a component, *c*, listed in a relation set S_{rel} :

$$DV(\text{ref}(c), S_{rel}) \equiv c'.VID \text{ where } c' \in S_{rel} \wedge c'.CID = c.CID$$

In (3) we test if receptor- and donator substances or annotations are different and store the result in ‘changed’. The rooted configurations are merged in loop (4) using a special integer function, DV, in (5) that finds the version identity of a given component in the donator’s relation set. For each reference in the relation list, *S*, we note any differences through the boolean ‘changed’. This is used in the condition (6); if a difference is noted then the actual, shallow, merge is performed on the attributes of the receptor in line (7)–(10).

In line (7) the relation sets are merged using a special set union $\cup^C(\mathcal{C}, S_{rel}^r, S_{rel}^d)$

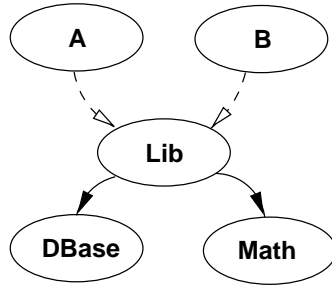


Figure 3.10: The A- and B-rooted configurations overlap.

(also defined formally after the algorithm in the code fragment sidebar). This union essentially ensures that relations from both receptor and donator are present in the merged component version, as `Unit` in the example above that ends up having relations to both `Terrain` and `Weapon`.

The function ‘`SubstanceMerge`’, line (8), must take care of the actual merge of source code fragments⁴ and similarly with ‘`AnnotationMerge`’ and annotations, line (9). The merged sets must again be the union of the parameters. As an example, assume that the receptor has substance $c_r.S_{sub}$ containing source code fragment A and B : $\{A^r, B\}$ and the donator has substance $c_d.S_{sub}$ containing source code fragments A and C : $\{A^d, C\}$. Then ‘`SubstanceMerge`’($c_r.S_{sub}, c_d.S_{sub}$) = $\{m(A^r, A^d), B, C\}$ where $m(x, y)$ is the merge function at the individual source fragment level, i.e. the merged substance contains B , C , and a merge between the A of the receptor and donator. The ‘`AnnotationMerge`’ is potentially complex as one has to consider how to handle synthesised annotations (section 2.2.2) and the semantics of individual attributes, such as whether logged staff-hours on a maintenance branch should be added to the ones logged on the main branch, etc.⁵

The component version is left modifiable allowing users to resolve potential merge conflicts before performing a check-in to manifest the merge in repository⁶.

It should be noted that any automatic merge has its limits. A merge between two versions representing radically different architectures will most likely be useless and invalid.

3.5.3 Overlapping Configurations

By its transitive nature, the architectural model necessarily understands ‘parallelism’ in a stronger sense than traditional SCM systems where entities are loosely coupled.

As an example, consider two developers working on two components `A` and `B`. As depicted in Fig. 3.10, both depends on a library `Lib` that is composed of

⁴Implementation note: Invoking external merge tools if required; the prototype uses `rcsmerge` for ASCII files and just warns in case of binary files.

⁵Implementation note: Presently, the donator annotation set is simply ignored.

⁶Implementation note: A special problem not considered here is that the version group should create two ‘revision-of’ arcs during check-in after a merge, one for both receptor- and donator version. The prototype implementation handles this, however.

modules `DBase` and `Math`. This architecture becomes tricky in a situation where, say, the A developer must modify `DBase` at the same time as the B developer must change `Math`, and they decide to perform the check-in from components A and B respectively. As `Lib` occurs in the path of both check-in operations, one of the check-ins will necessarily result in a branched version of `Lib` if no action is taken to avoid it. The situation could lead to a race-condition.

Seen from a classical SCM perspective this situation may seem odd: At some time we have to ‘merge’ the library even though the two developers have modified disjoint sets of code fragments. But the fact is that the two developers *have* worked in parallel at the library level of granularity—and the architectural model reflects this fact.

The situation is avoided simply by observing standard software engineering doctrine [Som92]: Do bottom-up integration testing. The developers should verify their `DBase` and `Math` changes in isolation, then do the integration testing on `Lib` and finally create a new library version that can serve as basis for the continued work on components A and B. If there are many, closely related, changes necessary in both A/B and the library subcomponents, the special check-out that always retrieves the newest code (section 3.5.1) is useful.

Alternatively, they may branch the library component (automatically creating branches for `DBase` and `Math`) and work in isolation on separate branches, postponing the merge.



3.6 Tailorability

No two software development projects are the same and consequently requirements on the SCM system will vary. RAGNAROK supports a limited form of tailorability to meet the needs of the individual project through a build-in scripting language: Tcl [Ous94].

Presently, the scripting language is used for two purposes in the implementation of the architectural software configuration management model: As customisable report generator and for operational triggers.

The Tcl language was chosen for a number of reasons: It is a relatively mature and stable scripting language, well supported on numerous platforms, and finally a BETA language (the implementation language of RAGNAROK) interface already existed. Tcl was not chosen for its elegance.

Integrating the Tcl interpreter into RAGNAROK on both the Windows NT and Sun4 platform took less than a day, which is a strikingly short time.

The technical aspects of writing scripts for RAGNAROK is documented in [Chr98c].

3.6.1 Reporting

The reporting facilities allow a user-defined script to be called on a component version, or its rooted configuration, in a workspace. The script is supplied with the most pertinent data from the component versions: Substance attributes, relations, version identity, housekeeping data like author, date, etc. The data is supplied

as values so it is not possible for a script to modify the internal RAGNAROK data-structures.

Example: An example of a useful script is the `grep` script. For each file listed in the substance attribute external program `grep` is called and its output written to the console. This way, grepping for a target string can be performed recursively through-out a configuration avoiding irrelevant files in the workspace.

3.6.2 Triggers

Operational triggers are ‘hooks’ into the operation of RAGNAROK where user supplied scripts can be invoked.

Currently, RAGNAROK is able to trigger script execution of scripts before and after check-in and check-out. Trigger scripts are assigned to specific components i.e. you can associate an ‘after check-out’ script to Model as the only one in the strategy game project. The scripts are supplied with all relevant information about the component in question.

As is the case with the reporting scripts, the triggered scripts can not influence the fundamental behaviour of RAGNAROK, i.e. they can not for instance terminate a check-in prematurely.

Some examples of potential use: Sometimes data (files) that is a natural part of a project, is not stored in the normal workspaces (this is true for instance for the file containing RAGNAROK’s standard scripts). A before check-in script can copy these files into a suitable location in the workspace and thus make sure they are under proper version control.

The prominent use of triggers, however, in the two external projects (section 3.9) is as automatic configuration identification. The after check-in and after check-out triggers calls scripts that generate source code containing the proper version identification as generated by RAGNAROK. This source code is compiled into the groups’ executable or shared libraries giving a highly creditable identification.

One can envision extending the trigger mechanism to provide simple process management, like e.g. running a suit of regression tests that must complete successfully in order for a check-in to be accepted or a state attribute to be changed from ‘development’ to ‘tested’ etc.



3.7 Implementation Issues

In this section, some major implementation issues are outlined.

3.7.1 Design Rationale

The RCM and RAGNAROK prototypes were crafted in order to verify the soundness of the ideas they embody. The most important design criteria have therefore been, in order of priority:

- I Implement the basic ideas with the lowest possible effort.

- II Have the widest possible audience.
- III System correctness and stability.
- IV User feedback and requirements.

The criteria has lead to the following design decisions:

- i No specific programming language support.
- ii Traditional file approach for substance.
- iii File-level versioning delegated to RCS.
- iv Component-level persistence in ASCII format.
- v Copy scheme for workspace management.

Ad. i: The architectural model seeks to manage software abstractions and configurations. A natural means to do this is to provide strong support for programming languages, as done in POEM [LR95, LR96] and Mjølner ORM [Gus90]. Such support is however prohibitively expensive in terms of development effort and also lowers the potential audience of the prototypes.

Ad. ii: The substance attribute, S_{sub} , is implemented as a set of file names, and a single directory specification, relative to the workspace root directory. A traditional file-based approach integrates well with most existing programming environments, is relatively platform independent, and well supported by standard libraries.

Ad. iii: Early work within the field of SCM focused on efficient storage techniques through delta storage: Only the differences between two consecutive versions are stored. Efficient delta-storage techniques are not within the scope of the present work, and therefore file-level versioning is delegated to RCS [Tic82b, Tic85]. Thus a component versions substance attribute is represented as a list of (filename, RCS version identity) pairs. Furthermore, using RCS has the advantage that RAGNAROK supports both binary and text files. However, interfacing RCS is troublesome because RAGNAROK has to execute RCS in a shell and parse the textual output. An API based delta-storage system would have been safer and faster but none was found in the public domain at the onset of the project.

Ad. iv: Persistence of the component versions themselves is handled using a simple ASCII-text format. No delta technique is employed. Text files are easy to implement, relatively platform independent, and it is easy to write parsers that adapt as the format inevitably evolves. Finally, a very important aspect is that it is easy to edit the files by hand if a crash has wrecked part of the underlying structure. The format used is described in detail in [Chr98d].

Ad. v: A copy scheme is utilised for workspaces i.e. a check-out operation copies requested data from the repository to a private space. Thus, workspaces are disjoint, and as project size and the number of workspaces increase a considerable amount of disk space is required, ultimately leading to scalability problems. The benefit is ease of implementation, and SCM *transparency*: The normal programming environment and tools can be used in the workspaces without special knowledge of an underlying SCM tool. Also, there is no immediate need to influence the build process (see however section 3.10.6). Another point is that disk space is seemingly constantly becoming cheaper and actually Wingerd and Seiwald [WS98] recommend disjoint workspaces.

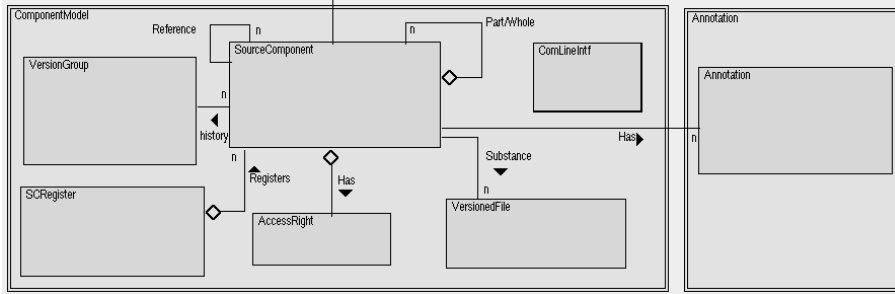


Figure 3.11: UML class diagram for the architectural configuration management model layer.

Decisions 1)–5) were primarily intended to fulfil criteria 1)–2). Much effort has also been made to ensure criteria 3): The source code of a large software system is the result of years of the hard work, and it requires courage from its developers to entrust a prototype system to control this asset. As prototype developer, it is a responsibility that must be approached humbly.

3.7.2 Design

The UML class diagram for the basic classes in the architectural software configuration management model is shown in Fig. 3.11. The central class is `SourceComponent` which models the concept of a software component version (unfortunate naming for historical reasons). `Substance` is modelled by a set of `VersionedFile` instances; the class encapsulates the black magic of RCS. Annotations are handled by the `Annotation` class. Class `AccessRight` is (unfortunately) still just an empty placeholder class. Finally, class `SCRegister` models a container of all accessible software components and provides some of the basic functionality of the project concept. `ComLineIntf` is a class utility containing the RCM main program and documentation. The library (or more correctly: class category) `ComponentModel` contains a facade pattern [GHJV94] through which the graphical user interface of RAGNAROK (section 4) interfaces the architectural software configuration management model.

The design is implemented in the BETA programming language [MMPN93] and consists of about 21800 lines of code.

3.7.3 Deleting Component Versions

Deleting a version of a file in, say RCS, is straight forward, as the file version is considered an isolated entity. Clearly, we are not so fortunate in the architectural model: Any given component version may be part of many different configurations in the repository. Bluntly deleting the component version would invalidate all these configurations.

In this respect, the repository resembles a persistent store implementation based on transitive closure of object references (see e.g. [Bra97]) or the object heap of a running program. Similar techniques can therefore be employed to

handle deletion. As RAGNAROK presently only allows acyclic configurations, a reference counting algorithm can be used [Wil92]. An algorithm can be outlined as follows:

Initially, a reference count is set to zero for all versions of all components in the given project. In the first phase, we iterate in all versions of all components in the project, and for each component version we increment the reference count of the component versions listed in the relation set, S_{rel} . In the second phase, we recursively visit all component versions in the configuration rooted in the component version we want to delete, not depth-first as in check-in, but breadth-first. If the component version visited has reference count zero, we first decrement the reference count of every component version in the relation set, and then remove the version from the repository.

The problem with this algorithm is that it requires ‘global knowledge’—we need to iterate all component versions in a project to set the reference counts. Thus the delete will become slower as a project grows. Also, sharing sub-configurations between different projects (see section 3.12.5) means that the initial reference counting must take multiple projects into account (i.e. a component version may seem deletable from one project’s point of view but not from another). Clearly this is not feasible in a large system’s setting.

The solution is to let the reference count become an attribute of the component version, and then update the reference counts dynamically during check-ins (incrementing all component versions in the rooted configuration) and deletions (decrementing).



3.8 RCM Prototype Outline

The RAGNAROK architecture is a layered, object-oriented, style architecture. In contrast to the common interpretation of a layered architecture (see e.g. [BCK98, p. 100]), a strictly enforced design criteria has been that a layer has only access to its own or lower layers. Thereby a strict decoupling has been made between the implementation of the graphical user interface (chapter 4) and the architectural model.

A major benefit has been that it was possible to write an alternative user interface for the configuration management layer. Thus, only a month after the implementation of RAGNAROK was begun, the first version of RCM (short for ‘RAGNAROK component model’), a text-based interface, was operational.

Over the years a plethora of commands, options, and facilities have been implemented in RCM; some relevant for the ideas in the architectural software configuration management model, but most simply ‘good ideas’—those that would never be mentioned in a paper or a thesis but nevertheless are important to make everyday usage acceptable.

This section is not an attempt at a comprehensive overview of RCM but rather to give a flavour of the basic commands and functionality. As example, we use the strategy game’s model library. (This project is just a framework created for the sake of illustration, therefore AI and GUI are missing and file RCS revision numbers are ‘small’.)

3.8.1 Interface Basics

The user interface is a traditional ‘prompt-eval-print-loop’ type interface: You enter a command, the command is evaluated, the result printed, thereafter you are ready for another round-trip. All commands are executed on the component that is *current* in the same manner that most UNIX shell command affect the current directory. A navigation command, equivalent of UNIX `cd`, is available for making another component the current one.

The basic RCM command prompt displays various information about the component version that is currently in the users workspace, like e.g.

```
2:game/Model/(v11)%
```

that states that the current component is `Model`, part of component `game`, which is in version 11 in this workspace. (The prefix ‘2’ is the component identity CID.)

3.8.2 Navigation and Reporting

The `cd` command is used to move around the software architecture

```
2:game/Model/(v11)% cd city
3:game/Model/City/(v5)%
```

just like the well-known UNIX and DOS shell command. The contents of the workspace is listed by the `ls` command

```
3:game/Model/City/(v5)% ls
Files:
  city.java 1.1 [java]
Parts:
References:
  4:Unit(v9)
  5:Terrain(v7)
```

Here compositional (Parts) and functional dependencies (References) are listed as component identity, name, and version identity, and the substance set listed as file name, RCS revision number and a file type specification. A more elaborate workspace list command, `l`, exists that can list an architecture recursively (the ‘r’ part of `lr` is an option specifying recursive behaviour):

```
1:game/(v3)% lr
List of component game: recursively.
-----
1:game (v3):
  2:Model (v11):
    3:City (v5):
      4:Unit (v9):
        5:Terrain (v7):
```

3.8.3 Development

In order to provide collaborative awareness, users must tell RCM when they want to revise a component. This is done with the `ol` command. (Presently, a pessimistic concurrency control scheme is employed, the `revise` command also

locks the component which is the reason for the command name: ol = obtain lock.) So, let us introduce `Weapon`. First, we signal that we want to modify `Unit`:

```
4:game/Model/Unit/(v9)% ol
Obtaining lock for component 4:(v9)
  Unit
  unit.java -> 1.1
Lock obtained for component
4:game/Model/Unit/(v9+L)%
```

The version identity on the prompt now signals that the component is revisable 'L' (actually 'locked') and that it is potentially modified '+'. Then we create part component `Weapon` and a new source code file in it:

```
4:game/Model/Unit/(v9+L)% cc Weapon
Creating new component: Weapon
Default path relative to root is: Model/Unit/Weapon
Do you wish to change this path assignment? (yes/no[default]) no
The path is: Model/Unit/Weapon
Component successfully created.

4:game/Model/Unit/(v9+L)% cd Weapon

6:game/Model/Unit/Weapon/(v0L)% af weapon.java java
Associating file weapon.java of type java with component Weapon
File associated, did NOT exist in working directory.
```

The `cc` commands create components while `af` associates a file.

Assuming that `Weapon` and `Unit` works together we can now check-in a new version of `Model`

```
2:game/Model/(v11+)% ci
You have not made direct modifications,
                        check-in anyway ? (yes/no[default]) yes
Trying to check in new version of Model
Weapon
  weapon.java () -> (1.1)
Unit
  unit.java (1.1) -> (1.2)
City
Model
Version has checked in.

2:game/Model/(v12)% lr
List of component Model:  recursively.
-----
2:Model (v12):
  3:City (v6):
  4:Unit (v10):
    6:Weapon (v1):
  5:Terrain (v7):
```

Note that `Terrain` is not in the list during check-in as it kept its old version number.

3.8.4 Reconstructing Configurations

To reconstruct the previous (Model, 11) configuration is a simple matter of a check-out:

```
2:game/Model/(v12)% co 11
Trying to check out version (v11) of component Model
Model (v11):
City (v5):
Unit (v9):
```

Version has checked out.

```
2:game/Model/(v11)% lr
List of component Model: recursively.
-----
2:Model (v11):
  3:City (v5):
  4:Unit (v9):
  5:Terrain (v7):
```

Note that Weapon is no longer part of the architecture. Also, Terrain is not in the list made during check-out signalling that there is no need for checking it out.

3.8.5 Architectural Differences

Architectural differences can be reported by the prototype, as outlined in section 3.4.2, by the `d`, `difference`, command (again 'r' in an option specifying recursive behaviour):

```
2:game/Model/(v12)% dr 11 12
Difference between version 11 vrs 12
2:Model (v11) <--> (v12)
3:City (v5) <--> (v6)
4:Unit (v9) <--> (v10)
  Parts:
    Weapon(v1) : Added
```

Another example, from the RAGNAROK project itself illustrates that component name changes are also reported:

```
15:Ragnarok/DataModel/GeoSpace/(v71#)% dr 9 30
Difference between version 9 vrs 30
15:GeoSpace (v9) <--> (v30)
  Name change: PhysicalBackbone -> GeoSpace
  Parts:
    AbstractionLayer: Deleted
    ALRegister: Deleted
    Landscape(v21) : Added
16:Landmark (v12) <--> (v32)
25:Utility (v3) <--> (v5)
31:Decoration (v2) <--> (v5)
```

3.9 Case Studies

At the time of writing, the RCM prototype is used daily in three real-life, on-going, projects whose main characteristics are given in the table below.

	<i>ConSys</i>	<i>BETA Compiler</i>	RAGNAROK
Used since	Mar. 96	Feb. 97	Feb. 96
Data	C++, SQL, binary	BETA, C, html	BETA
Platform	NT	Unix, NT	Unix, NT
No. developers	3	4	1
No. components	160	40	33
No. files	1340	290	160
No. lines (KLOC)	240 + binary	120	45

Main characteristics of on-going case studies. Data as of December 1998.

The case study results presented in the next section are based on two sources. The main source of data is interviews of the developers on the compiler and ConSys projects. The interviews were of the guided, open-ended type [Pat80], meaning that an interview guide, formulating a set of unbiased questions, was prepared in advance. The developers were free to answer the questions as they liked and additional, clarifying, questions were asked based upon their responses during the interview. This technique ensures that all interesting aspects are covered while the interviewees are not restricted in expressing their opinions. The interviews were recorded on tape. Interviews were conducted during autumn 1997.

The second source of data is usage data which is automatically logged by RCM: Every time the developer issues a command, RCM logs a 4-tuple: (time, workspace, component, command). The usage data was analysed by simple statistical methods.

3.9.1 ConSys Project

The ConSys team has been developing a Windows NT system, ConSys [ISA96], for controlling accelerators, storage rings, and other large distributed equipment in experimental physics since January 1995. They also develop a suite of tools for data-analysis and presentation. They use Microsoft Visual Developer Studio C++ and Microsoft SQL server for database management. Also a large bulk of binary data for Windows resources like icons and bitmaps are handled by RCM. Before they began using RCM they used a combination of RCS and scripts to do version control.

3.9.2 BETA Compiler Project

The BETA compiler team is responsible for the development and maintenance of the Mjølner BETA compiler [ABB⁺93, Bet98], a commercial compiler for the strongly typed object oriented language BETA [MMPN93]. The development is mainly done in the BETA language itself, however the run-time system is written in C. Also the technical documentation as HTML is under SCM control. Before the RCM prototype system was introduced, the team used CVS. Two of

the development team members are highly experienced CVS users, and are CVS administrators for the rest of the Mjølner BETA system.

3.9.3 Ragnarok Project

The RCM and RAGNAROK prototypes have been used to bootstrap the development of themselves from early in the implementation phase, as well as manage the many releases of themselves to the user groups. The prototypes are written in the BETA language.

3.9.4 Interviews

The interview guide contained 48 questions covering 8 main subjects: Project organisation, the component concept, versioned configurations, versioning of structure, collaboration, workspace usage, interplay with programming environment, and comparisons with other SCM tools.

ConSys Team Interview

The ConSys software architecture is hierarchical: Three components define a major partitioning of the system into kernel library, device drivers, and applications; each having a lot of subcomponents representing individual parts in the kernel, individual device drivers, and applications. The applications depend on kernel functionality and specific device drivers. Components are also used to represent Windows resources, test systems, and documentation.

Generally the three developers have responsibility for a certain part of the software but these limits have softened over time and are not strictly enforced. The component concept of the architectural model is considered essential to the team, and is used to model entities like device-drivers, DLL's (libraries), and applications, and they claim a near one-to-one correspondence between the logical software architecture and the component structure. However, they do not go as far as modelling individual classes by software components.

The ConSys system basically consists of a large number of individual applications that communicate over a network using a custom designed protocol. The root component in their project, the ConSys component, is only checked in in the relatively rare event of a change in the network protocol; most check-ins occur at application or lower granularity levels. Over a two year period, only about 30 versions of the ConSys component were made.

The recursive nature of the check-in in RCM produces intermediate versions. When asked about whether they can overview what actually goes into a configuration in this situation, they answered 'No' but that this overview was irrelevant: What mattered was that the specific configuration was checked-in and was reproducible—the recursive, complicated, details were no concern and were left to RCM to care about.

The architectural model tracks how the software architecture evolves. This ability was considered one of the major reasons they use RCM—during the period RCM has been handling the evolution of their system, the software architecture has undergone many changes, for instance the number of components has almost tripled.

To sum up, the team is positive towards the architectural model in spite of the limitations of the RCM tool. The component idea, the ability to have a one-to-one correspondence between the logical software design and the SCM model, and the flexible handling of an evolving structure were especially emphasised. The critics they had were towards the current implementation, lack of features, and the current use of a per-component locking scheme during revise operations—and not towards fundamental aspects of the model.

As a closing remark it was interesting to note that they claimed that they use the concept ‘component’ strictly when discussing SCM issues while using concepts like ‘DLL’, ‘application’, and ‘drivers’ when discussing implementation and design. Several times during the interview, however, the developers themselves said things like ‘... when I rewrote the GUI component from scratch’. We take this as an indication that the architectural model indeed succeeds in providing SCM concepts that maps closely to the normal, mental, model of software design.

BETA Compiler Team Interview

The compiler software architecture is hierarchical: The compiler application is divided into a checker, synthesiser, controller, and generator, the latter having a lot of part components for the machine architectures and operating systems, the compiler is available for. Components are also used for HTML documentation and experimental work with dynamic compilation and linkage.

Generally each person in the team has responsibility for a specific part of the project code. The component idea suits their way of working, and components are claimed to model logical parts of the compiler design in the SCM framework.

In contrast with the ConSys team, check-in is almost always made from the root component, in the Compiler component. As this project consists of a single application, as opposed to ConSys, this approach seems natural, but of course produces a vast number of root components, about 600 over a two year period.

The strong focus on versioning full configurations was considered important. Interestingly, they had not used the facility much, but the mere knowledge that their system was under tight control, made the developers feel secure. They stressed the effortless ability to retract to earlier versions, and that if they knew of one version of a file that was ‘OK’, it is a simple exercise using RCM’s version graphs and query facilities to identify the exact configuration it was part of. This was contrasted to CVS where the relations between file versions and configurations, and the version graph was, quote, ‘black magic’.

The compiler team also reported that they had virtually no overview over the internal, recursive, relations between component versions, but that it was irrelevant and ‘the job of the tool’.

Tracking the evolution of the architecture itself, new files and libraries, was also considered important—an aspect that they reported CVS to handle poorly or even wrongly. They emphasised the need for tracking the version history of a file and component across renames and movement within the software architecture; functionality the current implementation unfortunately does not provide adequately.

The team was asked to identify strong and weak points in the model compared to the CVS model. The major critics was the inability to write scripts that exercise

RCM, and a large navigational effort. The strong points were better overview, the security of consistent configurations, and also that operations were generally simpler: One of the casual CVS users said, that he ‘dared doing more’ in RCM than in CVS.

The conclusion of the interview of the compiler team is not much different from the ConSys team: The model is generally well accepted though critical voices are, quite reasonably, raised about the current implementation. The safety of versioned configurations, the versioning of an evolving architecture, and a good overview, were considered main points.

3.9.5 Usage Statistics

The command set of RCM can be divided into five categories.

- Architecture modification commands: These modify the (revisable) component versions presently in the users workspace. Examples are: ‘Add a new file’, ‘create new part component’, ‘edit file’, ‘remove reference relation to other component’, etc.
- Architecture overview commands: These lists the files and relations of components, possibly recursively through-out the full architectural context.
- Versioning commands: These are commands to revise and check components in and out from the version database.
- Version overview commands: These allows versions to be inspected and diff’ed, possibly recursively through their architectural configuration.
- Navigation commands: These are the basic cd like commands for moving around in the software architecture.

Data are from autumn 1997 unless otherwise noted.

Command Category Distribution

The table below shown the distribution of command usage on different categories.

Command category distribution			
	<i>ConSys</i>	<i>Compiler</i>	RAGNAROK
Commands	15669	5930	7414
Architecture modification	10%	5%	4%
Architecture overview	14%	8%	22%
Versioning	17%	22%	12%
Version overview	13%	8%	17%
Navigation	35%	38%	30%
Other	11%	18%	15%

The number of commands is shown to indicate the statistical significance: The uncertainty having N counts goes as \sqrt{N} , thus the uncertainty in the above measurements are 0.8%, 1.3%, and 1.2% respectively.

The large percentage of navigation commands is prominent: In all projects the `cd` command is by far the most used command. The visualisation system in RAGNAROK (see chapter 4) reduces the navigational effort significantly.

Secondly, it is apparent that the architectures of the projects have evolved quite a lot—for instance in the ConSys project about 1560 commands have been issued that modify the software architecture. For the compiler and RAGNAROK projects it is about 300 changes each. This supports the statements given in the interview by the ConSys team concerning the value of supporting an evolving architecture.

Parameterised Commands

A small set of the commands accepts options, these are the architecture overview, version overview, and diff commands. The options determine if the command displays information for the current component only, or recursively for the configuration rooted in the current component; and if substance (file) information should be reported or not. The recursive option ‘r’ given to the list and difference commands of RCM in section 3.8 is an example of the former.

Parameter distribution			
	<i>ConSys</i>	<i>Compiler</i>	RAGNAROK
Parameterised commands issued	799	276	1148
Rooted configuration pct.	83%	71%	58%
File information pct.	11%	8%	15%

The three rows state the count of parameterised commands issued in the three projects and the percentage of these that was issued with the rooted configuration traversal- and display file information-option respectively. As the counts are fairly high the uncertainties are low, about 4%, 6%, and 3% respectively for the three projects. Thus the numbers show with high significance that the overview commands are used to overview the software architecture whereas less attention is paid to the actual files making up the components substance. Again this indicates that the architectural SCM model relieves developers from thinking in files.

Intermediate Version Number Growth

As detailed in section 3.10.2, critical voices are often raised concerning the fact that SCM models that operate on the transitive reflexive closure create *intermediate* versions: Those new component versions that must be created along the path from the component that receives the check-in command to the components where actual changes have been made. The argument is that they may confuse the user, pollute the version graphs, take up storage space, and their number explode combinatorially [CW98, §4.1]. As described above, the user groups did *not* agree with this argument.

To get some statistical feel of the problem, RCM was equipped with a command that performs a sweep of all component versions in the repository and counts their number and the number of component versions that are *origins* (an origin component version is defined as the component version that becomes the

root of the configuration that results from a check-in) and the number of component versions that have had their *substance changed* (i.e. contains files that have been directly modified by developers).

The result from a run on the three projects as of November 1998 is shown in the table below. The table covers the component versions created each quarter of the year in the period 1997–1998 for each project. The total number of versions is shown in column T, the percentage of these that are origins in column O, and the percentage whose substance has been modified in column S. In other words, the percentage of intermediate versions is (100%-S). A ‘-’ indicates that data is not available—the origin and substance changed concepts were introduced in the beginning of 1997.

Evolution of version categories									
	<i>ConSys</i>			<i>Compiler</i>			RAGNAROK		
	T	O	S	T	O	S	T	O	S
1997 I	-	-	-	-	-	-	113	12%	44%
1997 II	405	20%	29%	255	34%	53%	447	13%	36%
1997 III	332	43%	58%	505	30%	55%	457	12%	39%
1997 IV	290	24%	33%	366	23%	62%	138	11%	32%
1998 I	289	31%	43%	253	34%	66%	111	11%	54%
1998 II	499	25%	32%	624	29%	64%	106	12%	36%
1998 III	478	44%	51%	385	26%	52%	207	10%	35%
1998 IV	349	19%	46%	147	32%	60%	73	13%	57%
Sum:	2438	32%	45 %	2518	30%	60%	1648	13%	40%

The important point is the stability over time of the percentages O and S. That is, the number of component versions in the repository is proportional to the number of check-ins and to the number of changes, with a small constant of proportionality. The differences in fractions between projects reflect somewhat different architectures and different policies for SCM handling. Still, none of them are alarming in our opinion. In RAGNAROK 60% of all versions are intermediate but this is attributed to the fact that there is only one developer on the project and typically multiple changes are introduced per session (approx three components with changed substance per check-in) giving more paths to modified components. Also, RAGNAROK and ConSys has an elaborate functional dependency structure, which is not the case with the compiler project.

3.9.6 Tailorability Usage

The tailorability aspect of RCM has not been used by the teams until recently. A small set of reporting scripts are supplied together with the prototype, and a few of these scripts are used regularly by the user groups. The main usage has been trigger scripts to provide automatic identification of components.

The BETA compiler team has associated after-check-in and after-check-out scripts with the compiler main component. This scripts writes a small BETA code fragment containing the RAGNAROK generated version identity of the component as a string value. This code fragment is compiled into the executable compiler, which prints the version identity as part of the copyright notice when

run. Thereby users of the compiler has a safe way of identifying the exact configuration of the compiler they are using.

The ConSys team uses an identical approach to create version identity data that applications and dynamic link libraries can return and display on request.

3.9.7 Annotation Usage

In late 1998, the first usable annotation support was introduced into RAGNAROK, namely support for *change logs*. Many SCM systems support logs in form of a user supplied message to characterise a check in. The problem is that the messages must be supplied after completing the check in and at that time users may have problems remembering what was actually modified—especially if several changes have been introduced and/or the change(s) has taken a long time. This poses a problem in minor projects where no rigid change request handling process has been defined.

RAGNAROK supports adding change logs to any modifiable component at any time. This way, developers can add a log after every change relieving the strain on one's memory. The set of change logs describing the changes between any two component versions can be output either as ASCII or as HTML and thus constitutes an automatically generated change log. An example of a HTML change log for RAGNAROK is shown in Fig. 3.12.

The feature is only implemented in the graphical prototype, not in RCM, and presently only used in the RAGNAROK project itself. Here, however, we have found this type of annotation support very useful.

As an experiment, a field recording spent staff-hours spent on the change was also added. It appeared in practice, however, that staff-hours gave little meaning at the individual change level; at least for the RAGNAROK project that does not have a rigid project management structure.

3.9.8 Summary

We feel it is fair to conclude that the architectural software configuration management model is a viable one, at least for small- to medium sized projects. To sum up, the key points are:

Model 'feels' natural: The user groups readily accept the software component to represent design entities and claim a close, if not one-to-one, mapping between their design and their software component structure. They 'think' SCM in terms of components rather than files/directories. This claim is supported by the usage logs data where file related commands are seldom used.

Focus on bound configurations: Bound configurations are of course important for milestone- and release management but the developers more emphasised the feeling of 'security' in the daily development cycle as backtracking to working configurations was easy.

Traceable architectural evolution: To be able to trace how the architecture evolves was considered important. During the two year period, the ConSys project has more than tripled its size in terms of components and files, and the ability to make local changes to the architecture was considered essential.

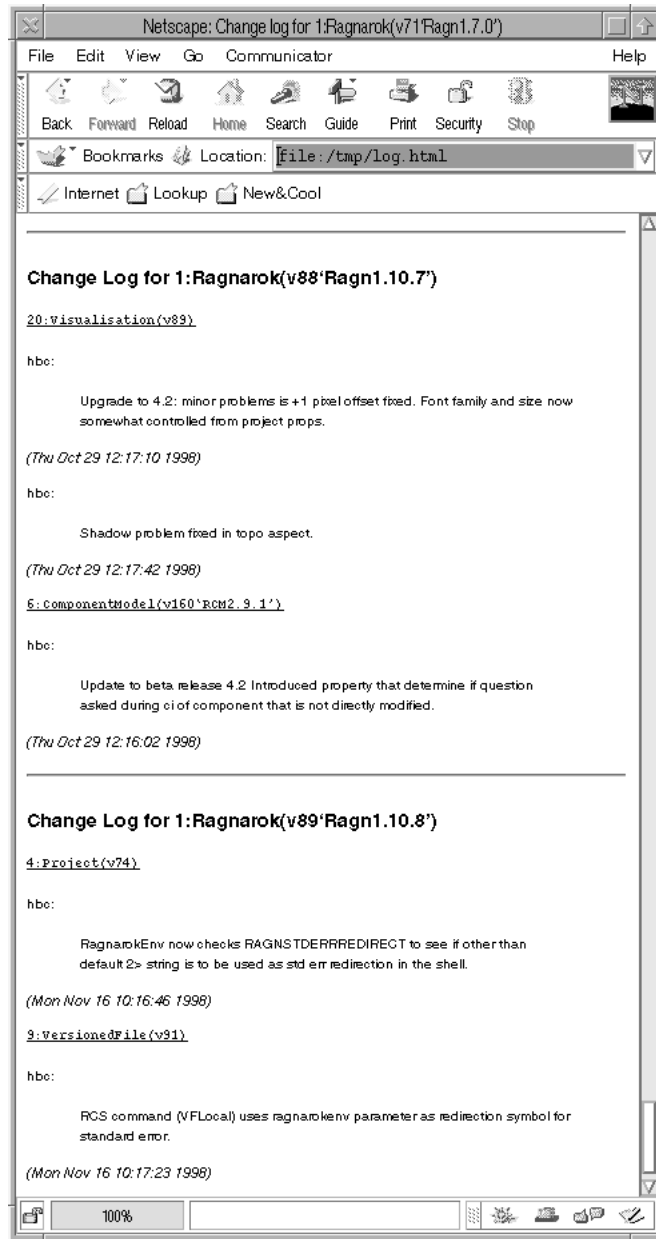


Figure 3.12: Extract of a HTML change log for the RAGNAROK project.

Intermediate versions: The teams were also asked if they found the intermediate versions created in components indirectly modified (i.e. on a path to a modified component) annoying. They did not report this a problem; it was 'the job of the tool' and handled adequately.



3.10 Discussion

The RAGNAROK architectural model is characterised by:

- The *component* concept that allows code fragments and related data to be treated as a cohesive whole under version control.
- *Relations* that state relationships between specific states (versions) of components.
- *Transitive* algorithms meaning that the repository stores bound, rooted, configurations and therefore the concepts *version* and *bound configuration* are unified.

In terms of usability of the model, these properties lead to:

- A model that is easy to learn. Fewer concepts are introduced than in many other SCM systems; basically only the notion of *component* and *version*.
- The introduced concepts map to concepts in the development domain: Components to abstractions, and rooted configurations to the dependency graph. Versions are a quite natural extension when one tries to capture evolution.
- The model provides the well-proven concepts of encapsulation and modularisation at the software configuration management level. A software component version encapsulates a version of an abstraction and hides the potentially highly complicated set of abstractions depended upon and their internal relationships.
- The architectural description is distributed (relations are stated locally to the components they affect) thus no global description becomes a bottleneck (exemplified by for instance makefiles).
- Reproducibility: Any configuration that has been checked in, the model is able to reconstruct exactly. This property is important in release situations, but also provides security in daily work.
- Architectural evolution is captured in the evolution of the rooted configurations, including relationships between components, which is a simple and natural way.
- Differences between versions/configurations can be reported on a high, architectural, level as opposed to simple file contents differences.

The continued use of the prototypes shows that such a model is viable, at least for small- to medium-sized software development projects. User groups report that the model feels ‘natural’ and value the emphasis on bound configurations and architectural evolution.

3.10.1 Classifying the Version Model

One of the first attempts to provide a common terminology for SCM and a framework for comparing different SCM tools was Tichy’s paper at the Grassau SCM-2 workshop [Tic88]. Since this seminal work several researchers have followed up: The overview by Estublier [Est88], Katz’s work on version control in the context of CAD [Kat90], Feiler’s classifications of SCM systems [Fei91], Dart’s historical review [Dar91], and lately Conradi and Westfechtel have focused on the version control aspect of SCM and have aimed at providing a unified version model [CW97, CW98]. Especially the 1998 paper is a thorough and comprehensive study of the version models employed in SCM systems over the last twenty years. They set up a classification scheme, partially based on the AND/OR graph of Tichy (see sidebar 3.1 on p. 76). Using this scheme, the RAGNAROK architectural versioning model can be described as an *extensional versioning, version first selection, total versioning* model:

Extensional versioning: A version group V is defined by enumerating its members: $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$. This is in contrast to *intensional versioning* where V is defined implicitly by a predicate c : $V = \{v \mid c(v)\}$; c defines the constraints that must be satisfied by all members of V . Here specific versions are described intensionally, i.e. constructed in response to some query ([CW98, p. 239-240]).

Version first selection: This property reflects the order of selection between *product structure* and *versions*. In *product first*, the product structure is selected first and versions of components selected subsequently; the standard example is ‘make’ combined with RCS/SCCS/CVS. In *version first*, one first selects a ‘product’ version which then uniquely determines the component versions and the structure; an example is (Model, 11) and (Model, 12) (Fig. 3.2 and 3.3 on pages 26 and 29) that are versions uniquely identifying different product structures ([CW98, p. 245-246]); one with and one without *Weapon*.

Total versioning: This property reflects the version granularity and how external versioning is applied to the software architecture. In *component versioning* only atomic objects are under version control (typically files; again RCS is an example as RCS has no direct way of specifying versions of composites like a directory); thus the version graphs of different components are weakly related. In *total versioning* all entities are uniformly versioned i.e. versions of composite objects are also explicitly represented; for instance *Model* will probably not contain any substance, its only (but critical) purpose is as a composite, defining the library encapsulating the relevant classes. ([CW98, p. 248-249])

3.10.2 The Intermediate Version Debate

Versioning models with version first selection create versions of all components on a path to a modified one—even if they have not been changed directly themselves. The creation of (City, 6) in Fig. 3.3 (p. 29) is a good example: Even if we make no changes in the source code of *City*, a new version is created nevertheless. We have termed such versions ‘intermediate’, in literature the effect is known as *version proliferation*. We have deliberately avoided the term ‘proliferation’ as it is negatively charged which we find unfair.

Conradi and Westfechtel see intermediate versions as a problem at the logical level:

... the user is confronted with a combinatorially exploding number of versions. To get rid of version proliferation at the logical level, we have to distinguish between versions of modules and versions of configurations.

[CW98, §4.1]

Obviously, we think this viewpoint is wrong. We argue in favour of a version first selection scheme for the following reasons:

1. The versions created are necessary and needed as concrete objects representing meaningful sub-configurations.
2. There is no ‘exploding number of versions’; though the approach does create more versions than other version selection schemes, any sensible architecture and working process will certainly not see a combinatorial explosion.
3. There is no problem at the implementation level (this point is also argued by Conradi and Westfechtel).
4. The space overhead of intermediate versions is small.
5. Users of the RAGNAROK prototype did not report the extra versions a problem.
6. Finally, what is the cost of avoiding the problem?

Ad. 1: Versions created serve an important purpose as they are first class objects that identify *parts* of configurations. Returning to our example in Fig. 3.3, (*City*, 6) is a concrete objects that *is* the version of *City* that is part of (*Model*, 12)—allowing us to identify, inspect, and reason about the properties of this sub-configuration.

Ad. 2: Changes do not necessarily result in intermediate versions; many changes can be made independently in sub-configurations before they are ‘frozen’ by a check-in at a higher level component. Figure 3.7 (p. 36) hints at this, the major restructuring of class *Terrain* is a long process producing intermediate versions representing more and more refined states. But as the check-in is done at the granularity of the *Terrain* component, no additional versions of *Model*, *City*, etc., are produced.

Secondly, sensibly arranged architectures do not experience a *combinatorial* explosion of versions. The reported data from the RAGNAROK user groups (section 3.9.5) shows a constant ratio over time between the number of ‘required’ versions and intermediate versions.

Ad. 3: Several working implementations, based on version first selection, exists. Apart from RAGNAROK, section 3.11 has a comprehensive list of these implementations.

Ad. 4: Versions of components that have not experienced direct substance changes only differ from their ancestor versions in the contents of the relation set (and possibly some housekeeping information like date, author, etc.). Therefore, the difference between two versions (the delta) is small.

Ad. 5: As described in section 3.9 neither of the RCM user groups considered it a problem.

Ad. 6: Basically, it is wrong just to characterise the proliferation as a ‘problem’. Rather, it is a trade-off. As Conradi and Westfechtel write ‘... *we have to distinguish between versions of modules and versions of configurations*’ to avoid creating extra versions. In other words, the cost of avoiding them is to introduce additional constructs like separately versioned configuration items, tags, or rule-based selection engines, to handle defining configurations and controlling their evolution. Thus, developers have to master more concepts—concepts that have no simple equivalence to development domain concepts. We happily trade disc space for the simplicity of version first selection systems.

3.10.3 Pollution by Intermediate Versions

It should not be neglected that there *is* a point in the critique of intermediate effect versions: It *is* confusing that there may be many versions of a component where the substance are identical. This constitutes a *pollution* of the version graph for a given component as intentional and intermediate versions are mixed. Another problem is that the version intention, often stated in the ‘log message’ produced at the time of check-in, is stored in the root component version in the resulting configuration; that is the intermediate component versions do not have access to this description directly.

The current implementation of RAGNAROK maintains two additional attributes of each component version that can be useful to answer such questions and provide the basis for a future RAGNAROK version that can reduce and organise the information presented to the user in a relevant way. They are also the attributes that allowed the statistical measurements outlined in section 3.9.5.

- Boolean value `SubstanceChanged` that is true iff the substance attribute of the component version has changed compared to its ancestor.
- Component version reference `CheckInOrigin` that refers to the component version that is the root of the configuration, this (potentially intermediate) component version became part of.

The first attribute can be used to contract successive component versions without any changes to the substance into ‘super’-versions, a feature explored in e.g. CoEd [BLNP98]. This reduces the size of the apparent version graph⁷.

The second attribute supports finding the intention for the version: Through the origin reference one can access, e.g. the symbolic name and log message pertinent for the component version even if these are stored in another component version.

The two attributes are the ones that allowed the statistical measurements outlined in section 3.9.5.

3.10.4 On Development Process

The architectural model addresses data version- and configuration control, but does not address the issue of development process control: It neither provides nor dictates one.

⁷Implementation note: This feature is operational in RCM.

Still, the process is important and in practice different kinds of policies arise naturally when working with RAGNAROK and RCM.

Policy and Consistency

In section 3.2 and section 3.3 the notion of consistency of configurations, of workspaces and of the repository was introduced, through requirements 3.1–3.5. However, this notion focuses purely on aspects of the SCM data-structures, it does not address the question of ‘consistency’ of the underlying substance in the components: It is fully possible to check-in a configuration of component versions whose substance contains a completely inconsistent and invalid set of source code fragments in the sense that the resulting software does not compile, link, or in other ways does not fulfil its requirements. It is an important part of the team policy to define what requirements must be fulfilled by the source code before it is legal to perform a check-in.

In RAGNAROK a viable policy is the one outlined in section 3.5 about branching and merging architectures, i.e. a process where developers (or sub-teams) work quite independently on sub-configurations and occasionally do integration testing by communicating the version identification of the rooted configuration. This policy allows the individual/subteam free hands in defining what constitutes a new version: As other individuals or teams are only supposed to check-out a small number of specific configurations, it opens up for creating versions serving as convenient snapshots, partial goals achieved, etc.

None of the two teams have adopted this policy, however. Instead, they integrate often with the newest available code for every part of the system. This is especially pronounced in the BETA compiler team. As a consequence, the teams have adopted a policy where it is only allowed to check-in if the source-code links, compiles, is logically correct and in other respects ‘well-behaved’. This policy necessarily reduces the flexibility in the use of versioning.

A more stringent, and RAGNAROK controlled, approval process can be envisioned by extending the tailorability aspects of RAGNAROK(section 3.6). For instance, triggered scripts can be allowed to influence the check-in process based on various properties of the configuration, such as aborting the check-in if there are test program that have not been run, code metrics, etc.

Granularity of Check-In

An interesting question is the following: Given a change request has been implemented in a given component or set of components, then at what level of granularity should the check-in be issued? RAGNAROK is very flexible in this respect. Consider again the introduction of the Weapon class in class Unit, sketched in Fig. 3.2 and Fig. 3.3, in section 3.3. The section discussed this change viewing it as a change to the Model library, and therefore it was natural to issue the check-in to component Model. However, one could easily argue that this change should be checked-in at the Unit component level, or at the Game level. Again, it is part of team policy and social protocol to define the ‘right’ granularity of check-in for different types of changes. Interestingly, the three user groups have arrived at quite different policies.

The BETA compiler team is in this aspect quite ‘extreme’ in that any change is always checked-in from the root component. This policy reflects the standpoint that the compiler is a single entity, and therefore the only relevant version history is that of the compiler as a whole. The version graph of the root component plays this role.

The ConSys project consists of a number of separate applications, communicating through a common protocol, and drawing upon base functionality in a number of core (dynamic link) libraries and device drivers. Most applications deal with data from a very limited part of the physical system, typically acquisition of raw data from a single instrument, and is thus largely independent of other applications. Consequently, check-ins are typically made at many levels: At the individual application level or at the library/device driver level. The root component ConSys is checked in very seldom usually signalling a change in the communication protocol between applications.

The RAGNAROK project check-in policy resembles that of ConSys somewhat: Check-ins are performed at many different levels of granularity. As RCM is a subsystem of RAGNAROK, the version graph for this sub-configuration plays a special role as the RCM release history.

Policies Depending on Granularity

It is viable, and indeed beneficial, to define different policies at different granularity in the architecture.

Consider a scenario where two developers in our simple game project is assigned the task of implementing the changes to component Terrain in Fig. 3.7 while two other developers work on Unit and City. It is viable that the terrain developers adopt a fast integration cycle while the rest of the team integrate new terrain changes at a much slower rate. The terrain developers can use the ‘get-latest’ selection profile in the Terrain-rooted configuration while the others perform an occasional check-out of Terrain as new, stable, releases become available.

3.10.5 On Variants

Software variants are logical versions of a piece of software: Variants provide the same functionality, in some sense, but differ in the way this functionality is achieved. For example, a software system may be able to run both on a Windows NT, UNIX X11, and Macintosh platform and/or interface different databases. Another example is software systems that interface electronic instruments, here a variant where software stubs emulate the hardware is convenient for testing and debugging.

The concept of a *software variant* has received less attention in software configuration management research than concepts like ‘version’ or ‘configuration’. The discussion was sparked early by Winkler at SCM1 [Jur88b] and followed up by attempts at tool support like for instance VOODOO [Rei95a]. Estublier provided insight by the classification of versions into historical, logical, and cooperative versions; logical version being variants. Lately, Mahler has provided a comprehensive discussion of the topic [Mah94].

Conradi and Westfechtel [CW98, §4.3] describe the common techniques for variant handling: Either by *single-source versioning* or *version segregation*. In single-source versioning the variations pertinent to all variants are stored within the same software object, and some selection mechanism is used to state which is the interesting one. The classical example is conditional compilation in C, using the C preprocessor. In version segregation, the different variants are stored in separate objects. Usually the variants are maintained on different branches in the version graph.

Both approaches have some inherent problems. In single-source versioning, the control expression embedded in the code may be so voluminous that it overshadows the actual code: Again C's `#ifdef`'s are classical (It should be noted that the BETA fragment modularisation language provides less intrusive control expressions). Version segregation suffers the more severe *multiple maintenance problem* [Bab86], i.e. a change made in a common code fragment has to be applied to all versions in turn; an error-prone and cumbersome process even in the presence of change propagation merge tools. Also, version segregation suffers a combinatorially explosion problem as a separate software object has to exist for every variant combination: If you have variations in three dimensions, say three platforms, three kinds of databases, and a debug- and production variant, you need to maintain 18 objects.

It is possible to identify two different kinds of variants based on their lifetime. Variants of a permanent nature are for example variants for platforms, debug/production variants, etc. Variants of a temporary nature are for example a succession of bug-fixes for a released system, eventually most of the fixes are destined to be absorbed into the main development.

The architectural model does not provide explicit support for variant handling. The viewpoint of RAGNAROK is that *variant is more fundamental than version*, as stated in the Gandalf project [HN86]. The problems of version segregation are more severe than the problems of single-source versioning, and accordingly, permanent variants should be handled by single-source versioning. In other words, logical variants are better handled at the language or language-near level. Temporary variants may adequately be handled by version segregation, typically through a branch in the version graph, as long as the number of variants are small.

The user groups use C++ and BETA as primary implementation languages. BETA has very strong variant handling through the fragment modularisation language, and the ConSys team use Visual C++ that also aids in handling variants. Thus, there has not been demand from the present user groups for special variant handling abilities.

This said, there are situations where more specific variant support is beneficial, namely in case of *architectural variants*. Consider a scenario where component version (A, 3) depends on (B, 6) and (C, 4) in a UNIX variant but only on (C, 4) in a Windows variant. RAGNAROK can of course handle this by the segregation technique: Branch A into a UNIX- and Windows version with different relation sets, but, again, segregation is problematic. To stay within the single-source versioning realm, one idea is to attribute the elements in the relation set of a RAGNAROK component version with variant specifications. Consider the example

from the above paragraph, the relation set for (A, 3) could then read

$$\{(B, 6)_{Unix}, (C, 4)_{Win, Unix}\}.$$

Given a variant specification, RAGNAROK can then display only relevant relations, like ignoring the B relation when the Windows variant is specified. However, this idea has neither been implemented nor tested in RAGNAROK.

3.10.6 On Build Management

The process of translating a set of software source objects into an executable program was termed *software manufacture* by Tichy [Tic88] but the last decade the term *build management* seems to be the favourite.

The emphasis put on build management varies greatly between SCM systems. Some systems, like RCS and CVS, does not address the issue at all. In other systems, it is the core functionality, like in DSEE [LJ87].

RAGNAROK provides no build management at the moment. Once a configuration has been copied to a workspace, the developer must handle compilation and linking himself.

We do think, however, that the architectural software configuration management model provides an excellent framework for build management, mainly through the component concept. One can envision the component version extended with a *derived object pool* that contains the compiled objects derived from the source code in the component. This idea, similar to the caching in DSEE, would allow better build performance as a given version of a component would only have to be built once after which the compilation phase could be avoided by all other developers accessing this particular version.

The POEM system has demonstrated that efficient build management is feasible in a SCM model similar to RAGNAROK's architectural model (section 3.11.2).

3.10.7 Architecture Quality is SCM Quality

An interesting observation about the architectural model, is that the quality of the architecture heavily influences the quality of the configuration management process.

This is perhaps best illustrated by an example. Consider a bad design where every component is related to every other component in the system (this may sound horrible to a computer scientist, but we have personal knowledge of a working system where the modularisation principle employed was alphabetic sorting of function names i.e. there was an A module, a B module etc.). The architectural model used on such a fully connected architecture would degenerate configuration management to a backup system: Any change made in any component would create new versions of all components during a check-in, essentially creating a complete copy.

The argument is whether this property is unfortunate, irrelevant, or a positive side effect. The ConSys and Compiler team did not report this property a problem. We think this property may be fortunate. Section 3.5.3 gave an example where parallel work on an overlapping configuration becomes tedious if well-behaved software engineering discipline is not observed. Also, a student project

that used RCM in 1994 [Chr96, §9.2], directly reported it a benefit. The team consisted of two student programmers that, after about one month of implementation, decided to use RCM after experiencing collaboration problems. Introducing RCM proved to be more difficult than they expected: Their design was rather ad-hoc and they had no notion of individual responsibility for the parts in the design. Therefore, the architectural model at first seemed rigid, and it forced them into defining a policy for how to collaborate (including defining areas of responsibility) and also forced them into redesigning their software architecture in a more hierarchical way. Though extra work had to be put into this process, they reported both the process, as well as the resulting new design, a benefit and an improvement.

Although we cannot state it with certainty and in general, we think that because the architectural model maps closely to the actual software design, the SCM processes that becomes cumbersome to handle are hinting at flaws in the architecture or in the development processes and policies employed.

3.10.8 Scaling Up

Does the architectural software configuration management model scale up to very large systems?

The by now largest system, RAGNAROK is controlling, is 240.000 lines of code maintained by three developers. There is still a long way to, say, 10.000.000 lines of code maintained by 100 people.

It is of course impossible to ‘prove’ that the architectural model will do the trick (it is much easier to state that the current implementation of RAGNAROK most certainly will not).

We are confident that RAGNAROK will scale up well. We base this confidence on the well-known divide-and-conquer strategy for handling very large systems as expressed by the following rule of thumb:

The modules should reflect a separation of concerns that allows their respective development teams to work largely independently of each other.

[BCK98, p. 18]

RAGNAROK provides the fundament for applying this rule of thumb:

- The architectural model’s support for composition- and dependency relations allows designers to utilise the divide-and-conquer strategy to build a hierarchical architecture.
- The flexible way developers/teams can decide the granularity at which they do their check-ins and the policy used for integrating changes allows teams to work independently in parallel.

3.10.9 Relation Types

Relations are typed in the architectural model. The RAGNAROK prototype currently only supports the two types *composition* and *functional dependency*. The

versioning aspect of the architectural model itself, however, does not use the type information: The check-in and check-out algorithms treat all relations similar.

The reason for maintaining the type concept nevertheless, is to provide expressiveness for the system architects: Deciding whether a relation is a compositional or functional dependency relation is an important design decision and conveys much information. Consequently, both the RCM and RAGNAROK prototypes manipulate and visualises supported relation types differently (see section 4.4).

3.10.10 Impact of Changes

Abstractions are usually understood in the context of other abstractions and the architectural model puts this context under version control through its transitive nature. A consequence is that the model has a conservative or pessimistic notion of the impact of a change.

In the field of programming languages, standard doctrine dictates that a software entity consists of an externally visible *interface* and an internal, invisible, *implementation*. Therefore, it must ideally be possible to make changes to the implementation without affecting the interface and, more importantly, affect other software entities that depend on it. In contrast, RAGNAROK treats any change as having impact on all components that directly or indirectly are related to the changed component. This pessimistic view is partly accidental as it facilitate a simpler implementation of the substance attribute (a set of files). But the main point is that it is *conservative*: The implicit assumption made about a implementation change's limited impact, is that of a *perfect* developer. In real life, developers *do* make mistakes, and introducing a bug in a component's implementation may cause havoc way beyond the component itself. The architectural model is conservative in the sense that even an implementation change results in a new version: Thus if problems are detected somewhere else in the system, the new version is listed as part of the configuration, and an architectural difference (section 3.4.2) between this and a working configuration will highlight the new version used. Though the separation of interface and implementation is a strong technique in programming languages, traceability is valued higher in the SCM domain.

The Adele [EC94] and Gandalf [HN86] systems have an internal structure of software objects that allow designers to distinguish between interface and implementation code and thus to limit change impacts. POEM [LR96] also distinguishes between interface- and implementation dependencies between software units, but oddly this distinction is not used nor discussed in detail.

3.10.11 Shadow Problem

The lack of direct programming language support has the consequence that RAGNAROK suffers from a shadow problem [Ben95], i.e. relations between source modules have to be restated in the prototype. Being a manual process, it is quite error-prone.

We see this as a practical (but annoying) problem that can be solved by allowing RAGNAROK to invoke external language parsers (for instance, using Tcl

as interface language) that can match the actual source code dependencies with relations stated in the architectural model.



3.11 Related Work

In this section, the RAGNAROK approach to SCM will be contrasted to a selection of other, primarily research, systems that have influenced the SCM field the last two decades.

First, RAGNAROK is compared to systems that employ a similar versioning model: COOP/Orm and POEM all have the property in common that they are version first selection models. Then RAGNAROK is contrasted to a product first selection based model, exemplified by CVS, and finally we deal with intertwined selection models, exemplified by ClearCase, and Adele.

3.11.1 COOP/Orm

COOP/Orm [MAM93] grew out of the Mjølner Orm project [Gus90, Mag93] that researched dynamic re-compilation techniques, among other things. To achieve this end, fine-grained version control, at programming language method and declaration level, was required. The developed techniques were recognised to be suitable for collaborative (a)synchronous editing of hierarchical documents: The primary goal of COOP/Orm. Like RAGNAROK, COOP/Orm is version first selection based but unlike it, it employs a product versioning view: Only a single version graph is maintained for the document; as its parts evolve, new versions are made for the document as a whole. Documents in COOP/Orm are strict hierarchical tree structures, the only allowed relation between parts is composition; no dependencies are allowed that would create a directed graph. COOP/Orm provides strong and flexible merge mechanisms [MM93], and awareness of the collaborative process through visualisation of the version graph and visualisation of both architectural as well as substance (text) differences in real-time. COOP/Orm is operational in a prototype system, but the system has not been used in practical development projects.

Lately, the COOP/Orm model has been extended with ideas on how to handle dependency relations between documents [MA96]. These ideas basically express a total versioning approach, each document maintains its own version graph. This model is therefore similar to the architectural model employed in RAGNAROK. No implementation of the extended model exists, however.

An interesting difference between COOP/Orm and RAGNAROK is in the support of- and view upon relations. In COOP/Orm only composition relations are allowed within a document, and only (functional) dependency relations envisioned between documents. The two relations also have different semantics with respect to version creation, a property we will term the relations **propagation property** (explained in more detail in sidebar 3.2, page 77).

The primary difference between COOP/Orm and RAGNAROK is focus. COOP/Orm focuses on efficient, fine-grained, version database aspects and visualisation techniques to support collaborative editing and collaborative awareness

combined with traceability. RAGNAROK sacrifices support at the fine-grained level in order to verify the feasibility of an architectural model in practical software development. As such, the two systems complement each other well.

3.11.2 POEM

The design ideas behind the POEM system [LR95, LR96, LR97] are similar to the ideas behind RAGNAROK: To minimise the gap between the development- and SCM domain. POEM is an integrated programming environment, tailored for the C++ language, and provides both version- and configuration control as well as build management. The fundamental concept is the *software unit*, typically representing a C++ class or method. Software units may specify *uses* relations to other units. Like relations in RAGNAROK, these relate *specific* unit versions. Thus, the concepts of component and specific relations are similar. The check-in operation also operates in the reflexive, transitive, closure of software units (but not quite, see below). Unlike RAGNAROK, however, the revise operation is also transitive.

A major difference to RAGNAROK is the focus of the project. As is the case in COOP/Orm, the main emphasis is on fine-grained, programming language near, abstractions like methods and classes; and on the build process. Therefore, the prototype has not reached a level of maturity that has allowed it to be used in realistic development projects.

Also, the POEM model introduces the concept *workarea* as a way to partition the set of software units into disjoint sets. Only one programmer is allowed to modify the units in a given workarea. The workarea also sets a limit to the propagation of revise and snapshot operations [LR96, p. 304]; they propagate only to components in the union between the transitive, reflexive, closure over relations and the workarea. The software units in one workarea are only allowed to relate to fixed (i.e. read-only) versions in other workareas.

In our opinion, the workarea concept introduces an unfortunate inflexibility in the development process, and we suspect it was introduced as a way to limit the effect of a transitive revise operation that otherwise would truly result in version proliferation: Revising the root component would create new versions of every single component in the system. In RAGNAROK, there is no need for a workarea concept: Our revise operation is not transitive, and check-in operations are automatically limited to component versions that are on paths to modified component versions. Refer for instance to Fig. 3.3 where (Terrain, 7) is unaffected by the check-in of library Model.

3.11.3 CVS

CVS [Ber90] is a well-known and widely used version control system in the public domain. Here it is described as a representative for a product first version selection system.

CVS is a front-end to RCS with emphasis on concurrent work and collaboration (CVS is short for Concurrent Versions System). In contrast to RCS that handles only a single file at the time, CVS handles whole projects, i.e. sets of files, potentially recursively in subdirectories.

CVS is highly focused on the latest changes to the files, it handles. Through the operations ‘commit’ and ‘update’ individual developers synchronise their local workspace copies with the newest changes in the repository: ‘update’ merges any new changes, entered into the repository since the last issued ‘update’, into the workspace files; ‘commit’ works in the other direction and adds any changes made by the developer locally into the repository. CVS does, however, not keep track of how your configurations evolve, except weak support through a time-based selection profile (i.e. ‘check-out newest file versions before a given time’). To create a bound configuration (a baseline), all file versions that define the configuration must be ‘tagged’, i.e. assigned a unique label.

CVS is based on the ‘copy-modify-merge’ scheme and every file in project is always open for modification by every developer. Upon committing, CVS merges all files (textual merge) and reports conflicts, if any. All in all, one may say that CVS is more of a team collaboration tool than a configuration management tool.

CVS is based on product first version selection; you have the fixed directory structure of your workspace and then you check-out a baseline by checking out all file versions with a given tag. It is therefore not possible to express changes in the directory structure between two baselines. CVS only handles files and thus lacks constructs that can express software abstractions and relations between them. In summary, CVS lacks the expressive power to capture a software architecture and how it evolves.

CVS uses tagging or labelling to form baselines, as is done in numerous other (commercial) SCM systems, for instance Microsoft SourceSafe [Mic97], ClearCase [Cle98], CCC [CCC96], PVCS [PVC97], and others. While tagged file version based systems are easy to understand, they suffer from a number of conceptual problems. As mentioned above, tagged file versions do not convey information about the evolution of the software architecture itself. Also, if a given file version bears the tag for one release but not the other, there are several valid causes: The file could either have been deleted or added between the two releases, or maybe someone just forgot to tag it. Secondly, conceptually a tag is an *is-used-in* relation (stating that ‘this version of this file *is-used-in*, say, release 4 of our system’)—however developers more naturally think in terms of *uses* relations like: Release 4 *uses* graphics library version 14, which *uses* the window class version 22, etc. As an experiment, think about how it would be to program in a modular programming language that only offered an *is-used-in* relation.

There are also pragmatic concerns: Tagging is a process that takes time linear in the size of the system (all files must be tagged), not in the size of the change. At SCM7, Asklund reported that tagging a project of 30.000 files took 90 minutes [AM97]; hardly an operation you want to do perform often. Care must be taken when naming the tag; most likely the heavily reused class header `CoreBusinessRules.h` already has the tag ‘Release1’. And finally, though a file version has not evolved since the last tagging, it must be tagged anyway; thus stable, heavily reused, files quickly contains literally thousands of tags.

3.11.4 ClearCase

ClearCase [Cle98] evolved from DSEE [LJ87]. DSEE emphasised fast build times through derived object caching and parallel build on a set of machines through

load balancing: Computers with high percentage idle time would become involved in the build process of another machine. ClearCase has of course inherited these techniques.

The version- and configuration control mechanisms are centred on the concept of workspaces and a workspace *view*. A view is a prioritised set of selection rules that defines the set of file versions a developer accesses in his workspace. A very simple view may look like this

```
element * CHECKEDOUT
element * /main/LATEST
```

which states that the workspace contains 1) file versions that are checked out by the developer, and 2) otherwise default to the newest available file version in the main development line.

One notes a key difference to version first selection models: The selection of versions and the specification of the architecture are detached. The above rule is also dangerous in the sense that it defines a generic configuration that may evolve rapidly; rule LATEST may very well select another set of file versions one hour from now due to other developer checking in.

Baselines that define e.g. customer releases are created by tagging the set of file versions defining the baseline. The tagging technique has already been discussed above.

In summary, we find the architectural model simpler as it introduces fewer SCM specific concepts and more direct in the sense that a complex configuration is specified by a component version, not by a rule set whose outcome it is difficult to overview the consequences of. Askund outlines these problems in more detail [AM97].

3.11.5 Adele

In contrast to ClearCase that basically handles files, Adele [Est85, EC94] provides a flexible structuring mechanism in its *family* concept. A family is basically the module concept providing an interface associated with an realisation (implementation). There may be several realisations of an interface (for instance variants for different platforms) as there may be several versions of the interface. The concepts family, interface, realisation are objects in the object-oriented sense: They have a type and can be classified in inheritance hierarchies. Objects can be related through *relationships*, that (in contrast to RAGNAROK) are themselves first-class objects.

The configuration model is based on a first order logic language to define selection rules like for instance `recovery=yes` and `system=unix` and `messages=english`.

In comparison with RAGNAROK, some of the same notes apply for Adele as for ClearCase: The unification of configurations and versions we find more appealing and simpler than overviewing the consequences of expressions in first order logic. However, the ideas of internal structuring of objects (e.g. in interface and realisation) as well as having relations as first class objects is interesting and definitely worth investigating further.



3.12 Future Work

The next sections outline some of the directions in which future work is heading. Common for most of them is their importance to scale up RAGNAROK to handle larger projects.

3.12.1 Dimensions of Versioning

Estublier argues that the individual states of a software entity, the versions, can be classified according to three dimensions based on the purpose of or process leading to the version. These three dimensions are the *historical*, *logical*, and *cooperative* dimensions [EC95]. (In another article, these dimensions are instead named temporal, logical, and dynamic [EC94].) A main point is that these dimensions are orthogonal.

The historical dimension is the entity's evolution in time: We add a feature to an existing version and create a new state in the history of the entity. The logical dimension is another term for 'variant', for instance that the same entity must run on several platforms. Finally, the cooperative dimension are versions created from collaborative necessity; the classical example is that by creating a branch of the main development line, a sub-team can work independently in this branch.

This is an essential insight and important to keep it in mind. In many SCM tools, the version graphs are instances of Tichy's version graph, where the relation between two successive states of a software object, the 'is-revision-of' relation, simply states that y is a modification of a copy of x. This does not capture the intent of the new version: Was 'y' created from 'x' from evolutionary, variant control, or cooperative necessity? The result is that the version graph serves too many and too diverse purposes and easily evolves into a unwieldy tangle.

In our opinion, this is a problem in the COOP/Orm system (section 3.11.1) where the version graph serves both the historical and cooperative dimension. As it employs a product versioning technique and supports fine grained version control it seems that their version graph quickly will become incomprehensible under realistic conditions.

In RAGNAROK the purpose of the version graph is to capture evolution, the historical dimension. Our view on variants has been outlined in section 3.10.5. Version segregation should be avoided for permanent variants, and if this recommendation is followed, the logical dimension is orthogonal to the historical. Temporary variants can be handled by branches and thus a branch in the version graph signals temporary logical versioning.

The point that deserves further work in the architectural model, is how to handle cooperative versions. Parallel development, exemplified by a parallel development- and bug-fix development line, was outlined in section 3.5.2 and handled by branching. It is tempting to support cooperative parallel development using the same technique, and indeed many SCM tools do so; but this way logical and cooperative versioning are not orthogonal: Does a branch signal a new temporary variant or a way to facilitate cooperative work on the same component(s)?

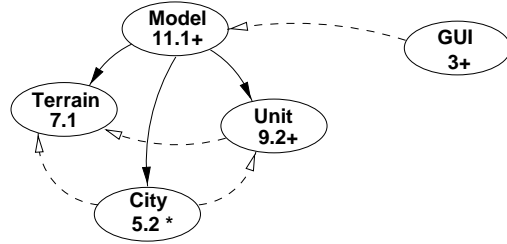


Figure 3.13: Workspace view of partially branched configuration.

A tentative suggestion, at present unimplemented, is to provide specific support for parallel, cooperative, work through cooperative versions. While the underlying technology will be traditional branch/merge, the produced versions will be marked and treated specially to emphasise collaborative awareness and reduce the complexity of the version graph through filtering. That is, developers can state interest in the historical, logical, or cooperative perspective and the version graphs are filtered to emphasise these aspects. For instance, a historical interest view will only hint at the existence of bug-fix variants; a logical interest view will contract successive historical versions without logical branches into single ‘super-versions’; and a cooperative interest view will show cooperative branches for all developers/teams currently working on the same configuration while ignoring historical and logical variant issues. Of course, one can envision all sorts of combinations of views or ultimately viewing the raw version graph.

We think this is a feasible technique to improve overview and understanding of version graphs.

3.12.2 Improved Collaborative Support

RAGNAROK encourages a hierarchical approach to software engineering where individual developers have main responsibility for specific parts (sub-configurations) of the software architecture.

Though we find this approach sound, we acknowledge the occasional benefit of a few developers working closely in parallel on the same component or on highly overlapping configurations. The current prototype implementation is weak in supporting such a process. While one developer modifies a component version, it is locked in RCS terminology, i.e. no other developer is allowed to edit it.

Our proposal to handle this problem is outlined in the previous section: Basically each developer works in his own, cooperative, branch. Frequent merges into a common branch must ensure that individual efforts are kept in synchronisation.

3.12.3 Branching Consistency

Making a branch means branching the rooted configuration, as described in section 3.5. Although natural given the transitive nature of the model, it also leads to situations that need special attention.

SCENARIO: Consider a development situation where we have introduced the maintenance branch of the game model from Fig. 3.8 (p. 37). Now, let us assume

that these changes force us to make some changes in the GUI component, see Fig. 3.13, which shows a workspace view of the situation: The component versions in workspace are shown as ellipses; + and * after the version identities denote direct- and indirect modifications respectively. So, the figure describes a situation where modifications have been made to (Model, 11.1) and (Unit, 9.2); (City, 5.2) is indirectly modified as it depends on Unit while (Terrain, 7.1) is unaffected. Now, we are about to make the necessary changes to the GUI component (GUI, 3). During check-in, however, the GUI component will branch into a maintenance branch, (GUI, 3.1), and as branching is performed transitively, we end up with branching the Model components as well, (Model, 11.2.1), (Unit, 9.2.1), etc.

The above scenario poses no technical problems: The configurations are consistent, no data lost, etc. The problem is that the semantics of a branch is diluted; some branches signal deliberate decisions while others are accidental due to the sequencing of check-ins. If we had started by branching the GUI component before branching Model, no additional branch would have resulted in the Model components.

The scenario is an example of *premature commitment*, as you have to be foresighted and in advance decide which component to branch. In general, such foresight cannot be assumed.

Our proposal, denoted *branch unification*, is to keep track of the branching structure, and in particular the branching *depth* of the component versions in a configuration, and try to keep their depths equal. In the event that this cannot be achieved, human assistance is needed to decide which branch structure should take precedence.

Example: In the scenario described above, the branch unification algorithm notes that all component versions in Model presently have branching depth 1 (on a branch from the main trunk) while GUI has depth 0 (on the main trunk). Thus only the GUI component needs to be branched (to, say, (GUI, 3.1)) while new versions can be added on the existing branches of components in Model's configuration.

Note that the problem is partially because RAGNAROK uses the check-in/check-out model. Models using the revise/snapshot approach (e.g. COOP/Orm, see section 3.11.1) create a version already when 'revise' is issued. Therefore the user can manipulate the configuration's branch structure directly. However, we think that it is beneficial to have similar branching structure of all component versions in a configuration anyway to avoid confusion.

3.12.4 Disconnected Operation

RAGNAROK uses RCS as the delta-storage layer for the substance attribute (files) of component versions, and benefits from its relatively efficient storage model, thoroughly tested functionality and support for binary as well as ASCII text format. A major drawback, however, is that RCS has an inherent notion of a centralised repository. Without direct access to the repository, RCS simply can not do version control—and consequently, neither can RAGNAROK.

In practice, developers are often interested in working without repository access while retaining their ability to do version control. A typical case is to do

some work at home with only periodical (or no) access to the repository as this requires the overhead and cost of a modem connection.

To facilitate this, two things are required: First, we need a way to make sure that the positions within the version graph of any new version made does not interfere with versions created by other users. Secondly, we need a way to create and maintain new versions that does not need to consult the repository in order to calculate deltas (difference to original version).

The first problem can be addressed by the proposal of the previous sections namely separate cooperative versions that are maintained on special branches in the version graph. Obviously, a developer is only allowed to work on a dedicated branch during disconnected operation.

The second problem is divided in two subproblems: The storage of component version information and substance version information. The first is already partially solved in the prototype, as the implementation stores successive component versions in separate files. The substance version problem is best tackled by giving up RCS as back-end. An interesting replacement is the XDelta library [Xde] that is developed as part of the PRCS project [MH98]. XDelta is a C-library that calculates a compact delta between two files of any type; the delta is simply a binary string. Thus, the evolution of the configuration can be stored locally, as sets of series of deltas (both component- and substance deltas), and later entered in the central repository.

3.12.5 Softening Project Boundaries

The current RAGNAROK implementation has a strong notion of a *project*: You invoke both RCM and RAGNAROK with a project specification as argument. A consequence is, that even though only a small sub-configuration of the project is relevant for developer, data for every component in the project is loaded. For large development projects, this can become a bottleneck. Even more problematic is the fact that the configurations of two different projects are required to be disjoint: That is, one project cannot reuse modules or libraries in another project. Clearly, this is infeasible.

From the model viewpoint, it is also unnecessary. Every component version defines a bound (sub)configuration, thus every component and relation required is known. It makes more sense that developers are allowed to specify a certain component as argument to the prototype; then only the data relevant for the rooted configuration needs to be retrieved. It also makes reusing part configurations in other projects feasible; if a dependency to a new, external, configuration is stated, the set of components and relations in it can be read incrementally.

3.12.6 Shared Versions

A large project is typically organised as a set of sub-projects with some internal dependencies. Developers or teams are responsible for one or a small set of these sub-projects and are generally not permitted (nor inclined) to modify objects in other sub-projects.

As outlined in the previous section, RAGNAROK loads data for every component in a project; but it also copies the substance (the files) of every component

into the developers local workspace (section 3.7). Potentially a vast amount of disk space is ‘wasted’ on identical copies of sub-projects depended upon but never modified.

Our proposal is to introduce *shared versions* where ‘shared’ is in the sense that the data of the component version is stored, read-only, in some shared, accessible, location, and not in the local workspace. Naturally, a requirement is that all component versions in the configuration rooted in a shared version are also shared. Typically, versions that are root for milestone configurations are candidates for becoming shared.

This scheme leads to a substantial saving in disk-space in cases where a team is working on software that build upon a large volume of libraries and subsystems.

For this scheme to work, RAGNAROK has to be able to influence the build process in order to tell the compiler/linker where to look for the files. Alternatively, RAGNAROK could introduce a *virtual file system* as known from e.g. ClearCase: All operating system calls to the file system in the workspaces are intercepted and for shared file versions the calls are redirected to a shared pool of file versions.

3.12.7 Cyclic Relations

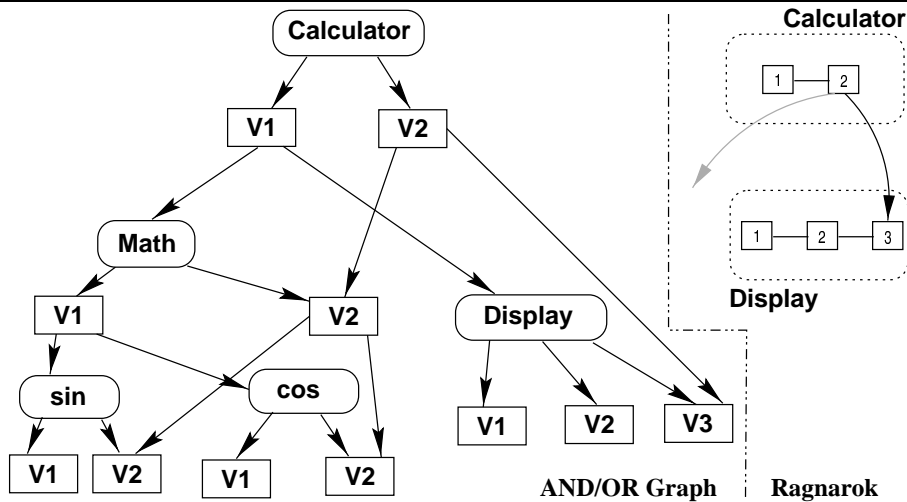
Presently, RAGNAROK does not handle cyclic relations in configurations. The prototypes perform an analysis before adding new relations and if they would result in a cycle they are rejected.

Cyclic relations pose no severe problem, however. The transitive reflective algorithms, check-in and -out, can handle cycles by proceeding in two passes. In the first pass, a cache is build of component versions in the configuration and infinite recursion avoided by testing if the component about to be visited has already been inserted in the cache. In the second pass, the actual operation is performed on the contents of the cache.

In case of check-out, this scenario is trivial.

The check-in case is more tricky. To illustrate the problem, consider component versions (A, 4) and (B, 12) that are cyclic dependent. If A is modified and checked in the outcome should be (A, 5) and (B, 13) with $(A, 5).S_{rel}=\{(B, 13)\}$ and $(B, 13).S_{rel}=\{(A, 5)\}$, i.e. both version identities must be established *before* the resulting component versions are stored in the repository. The tricky part is that we cannot decide that a component version differs from the original in repository (line (7) in code fragment 3.1) before the proper relation set has been determined (loop (2))—but the transitive reflexive closure includes the component itself. In other words, we cannot determine if the component versions should be inserted into the repository before we have actually done so. A solution is to make all insertions first, then clean up the repository for component versions inserted but not relevant after all (no substance change and not on path to modified component version), and finally patch up the relation sets of component versions that was entered into the repository.

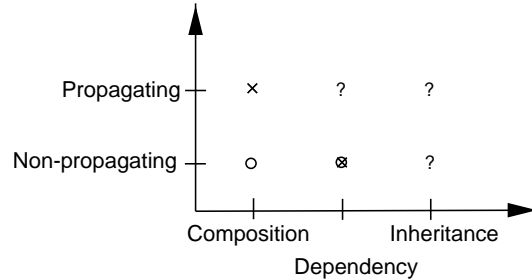
Sidebar 3.1 AND/OR Graph



The AND/OR graph was proposed by Tichy [Tic82a] to explain and structure the selection problem. In this model, graphically shown in Fig. 3.1, atomic objects (i.e. software components) are leaf nodes, configurations are AND-nodes (boxes), and version groups are OR-nodes (boxes with rounded corners). Successors of OR-nodes are the individual versions in the version group. An OR-node represents a choice: Selecting specific version(s) from the version group; AND-nodes implies composition/integration: Successors are combined to form a configuration. Given this model, the selection problem is formulated as a search in the graph from a given node, making choices at each OR-node such that the result represents a viable configuration. For instance, version 2 of Calculator in the figure above, represents a bound configuration (or baseline in Tichy terminology) because all arcs connect AND nodes—and is composed of (sin, 2), (cos, 2), and (Display, 3). Version 1 of Calculator, in contrast, is a generic configuration where the actual version selection has not been made, i.e. it only states that Calculator depends on Math but not what particular version of it. Version selection in this case is deferred from the version model to other models/tools that allow the resolution to take place in order to, say, build the system.

In the right part of the figure is shown, how the AND/OR graph can partially be mapped to the visual formalism used in this thesis. Only version groups for Calculator and Display are shown. The mapping is only partial as only bound configurations are relevant in a RAGNAROK context.

Sidebar 3.2 Properties of a relation's propagation property



The COOP/Orm model for version control in documents [MAM93] is a *product versioning* model [CW98, p. 247], that is, a single version graph is maintained for the document though the document is a composition hierarchy of individual entities: Sections, subsections, paragraphs, etc. In contrast, RAGNAROK maintains a version graph for each entity in the hierarchy (total versioning). This means that if a revise request is issued in a given paragraph in COOP/Orm, a ‘create new version’ request is propagated up through the compositional relations to the document root; the natural interpretation is that ‘if I modify a paragraph I essentially modify the document’. This effect we denote the relation’s *propagation property*. In the extended COOP/Orm model [MA96] the user can specify use-relations between documents but these do not propagate version creation, and is thus similar to the RAGNAROK model. Thus COOP/Orm indirectly assumes that compositional relations should propagate while dependency relations should not. It is however quite easy to come up with examples that show that the propagation property should be orthogonal to the relation type. In RAGNAROK compositional relations do not have the propagation property and we find this a best-practice at the granularity of classes, libraries, etc. For an example of a reference relation that ought to propagate, consider the problem of having the same paragraph appearing both in the introduction and conclusion of a document (as is the case for the hypotheses in this thesis). Here we can set up a reference relation between this paragraph and the two sections, but we do want the propagation property across these reference relations: If the paragraph is modified we would like to create new versions of both sections.

The orthogonality is symbolised in the figure above where the horizontal axis symbolises different types of relations and the vertical axis the propagation property. The marked points indicate the points in this space that COOP/Orm (crosses) and RAGNAROK (circles) covers. The question-marks indicate points in the space not yet covered by any tool. In a flexible model, merging the efforts in COOP/Orm and RAGNAROK, the propagation property should ideally be an attribute of each individual relation.



Chapter 4

Geographic Space Architecture Visualisation

For the architecture to be effective as the backbone of the project's design, it must be communicated clearly and unambiguously to all of the stake-holders who have an interest in it. Developers must understand the work assignments it requires of them, testers must understand the task structure it imposes on them, management must understand the scheduling implications it suggests, etc. Towards this end, the representation medium should be informative, unambiguous, and readable by many people with varied backgrounds.

Bass, Clements, and Kazman, *Software Architecture in Practice*, p. 16

The meaning of visualisation is *'the formation of a mental image.'* With the introduction of powerful, graphical, workstations a new type of computational driven systems arose that, in contrast to the old textual systems, more directly could help forming this 'mental image'.

Today, graphical visualisation systems are used for a vast number of purposes: computer aided design, multimedia, cartoon animation, simulation of physical and chemical processes, algorithm visualisation, flight simulators, and not least entertainment, where high resolution, real-time, 3D graphics games are among the applications that define the requirements on standard PC hardware. A wide range of visualisations is presented by Tufte [Tuf90].

Within the field of software engineering, visualisation systems have also received attention. One of the most basic types of visualisation is pretty printing code where font faces and colour highlight keywords and syntactical constructs (e.g. in Emacs [Sta84], Desert [Rei96], and commercial environments from Borland and Microsoft). Dynamic behaviour can be visualised through animation of data-structures to illustrate algorithm executions. Another type of dynamics is shown by tools that visualise e.g. call-graphs for particular executions. Finally software structure can be visualised as class inheritance graphs extracted from source code, etc. A thorough 3D software engineering visualisation framework is presented by Reiss [Rei95b]; and of course there is the plethora of modelling notations and supporting tools that show software design [Boo91, RBP⁺91, BRJ97], use case scenarios [JCJÖ92], event traces, etc. using various visual layouts, often adopting graphs as visual formalism [Har88].

This chapter is devoted to the visual model that RAGNAROK employs to visualise the logical software architecture of a project. Parts of this work has been published in the papers [Chr97a, Chr98g]. A user guide and manual for the RAGNAROK prototype's visual presentation layer is available on-line [Chr98b] from the RAGNAROK homepage <http://daimi.au.dk/~hbc/Ragnarok.html>.



4.1 Motivation

A key problem that has motivated the visual model for the RAGNAROK user interface, is the complexity and sheer amount of data produced in the development process of large software projects; as systems grow ever larger it becomes increasingly difficult to maintain *overview* and *navigate* in the many aspects and data of the system. This, in turn, implies problems of effective *communication* within the team on the system's development.

- By *overview*, we mean the ability to identify the major components of the software system; understand what purpose they have for achieving the overall goal; and understand how these relate to each other and cooperate in achieving the common goal.
- By *navigation*, we mean the ability to locate needed components and fragments of data quickly and with as little effort as possible.
- By *communication*, we mean that the team share a common understanding and vocabulary concerning the overall structure, tasks and goals of the software project.

We think one of the possible causes of difficulty in overview, navigation, and communication, was pointed out clearly by Brooks in his famous article ‘No Silver Bullet—Essence and Accidents of Software Engineering’ where Brooks states *invisibility* as an inherent, not accidental, property of software [Fre87]: The multi-dimensional nature of software does not easily lend itself to a single 2D or 3D diagrammatic form and thereby deprives us one of our most powerful conceptual tools: Our visual and spatial perception.

We think, however, that many interesting dimensions of software and data from the development process can still be visualised beneficially using a single metaphor: A geographic space metaphor [KB96], which forms the conceptual basis for the user interface of RAGNAROK—the topic of this chapter.



4.2 Human Navigation and Spatial Metaphors

McKnight et al. describe a psychological theory about human navigation, first proposed by Tolman in 1948 [MDR91]. According to this theory, humans build a *cognitive map that is analogue to the physical layout of the environment*. The acquisition of navigation knowledge to form such a map proceeds through several stages: *landmark-*, *route-*, and *survey-knowledge*.

First, geographical knowledge is represented in terms of *highly salient visual landmarks* in the environment such as remarkable buildings, statues, trees, etc. We recognise our position relative to such landmarks and learn the relative positions of the landmarks. Next stage is when we can plan a *route* from one location to another using knowledge of the landmarks that must be passed during the move; but the route chosen may be non-optimal. Finally, *survey* knowledge is the fully developed cognitive map that allows optimal routes to be planned and accurate positions described.

Underlining all stages are two important properties of our perception of physical environments: The existence of *salient landmarks* and their *positional stability*. Humans are apt at navigating in a well-known physical environment: As Kuhn and Blumenthal notes: ‘Perception, manipulation, and motion in space are largely subconscious activities that impose little cognitive load while offering powerful functionality’ [KB96].

Spatial reasoning, spatial memory, and our sense of locality are fundamental aspects of our perception and permeate everything we do. Even our language is full of terms modelled over space: ‘the argument goes around in circles’, ‘we set out to prove’, ‘a central role’, ‘building on experience’, ‘on top of that’, ‘we will go as far as to state’, etc.

In the context of spatial metaphors [KB96, EM95], a distinction is made between *desktop- (small scale)* and *geographic (large scale) spaces*. The distinction comes from everyday experience: Objects in a desktop space have sizes comparable to the human body and can readily be moved and turned, whereas objects in geographic space are beyond the human body and have fixed positions over a long time-scale, like for instance buildings, trees, streets, and so forth.

Of the two properties mentioned above, salience and positional stability, only geographic space may claim the latter. In a desktop space, objects are easily, and consequently often, moved around making it next to impossible to build the cognitive map, that Tolman speaks of. In geographic space, objects have stable positions, and the perception of them ‘triggers the eye and mind’ giving almost instant knowledge of position and direction to a target location, once sufficient route- or survey knowledge has been acquired.



4.3 Proposal

The vision in RAGNAROK is to manage essential aspects of the development process with minimal overhead, and the main hypothesis is that the logical software architecture is a sound framework to achieve this goal. The hypothesis forwarded in the specific context of project overview, navigation, and communication is:

The logical software architecture should be visually manifest in a geographical organised ‘software landscape’. This software landscape should be the focal point of the development environment by being shared in the team and by mediating daily activities.

The geographic space architecture visualisation model proposes to represent the abstractions of a software design by *visual landmarks* having stable positions, sizes, and appearances in a plane thereby creating a manifest ‘design landscape’. Landmarks are directly manipulable and mediate daily development tasks: Source fragments are accessed, defect reports added, staff hours logged, libraries compiled, identifiers searched for, and so forth, through landmarks. The landscape is shared in the sense that project team members view and manipulate the same landscape. Different dimensions (aspects) of the design entities like e.g. the source code files implementing it, documentation, staffing- and budget information, profiling information, version- and configuration control, etc., are visualised by processing the associated data appropriately and control the visual appearance of landmarks based on this processing; in the same way as ordinary maps may show different aspects like vegetation, roads, elevation, or population density, of the same region of a country.

The underlying idea is to employ humans fine spatial and visual perception and memory to enhance and ease the process of navigation and aid in forming a common understanding of the software architecture.

Specifically, the proposed visual model aims at addressing the following topics:

1. Overview and navigation
2. Mediating, up-to-date, software design
3. Communication and collaboration
4. Visualisation framework

Ad. 1: Overviewing large software systems and finding the correct piece of code in the thousands of files and libraries, is becoming a daunting task even in systems with a sound logical design. Explaining the design to newcomers is also problematic [BGZ95].

Ad. 2: The majority of software systems are still implemented in terms of source code files—and files does not convey much information about the design of a software system. Architectural documentation must thus rely on some set of externally maintained documents. These are often simply non-existing, out of sync with the actual implementation, or the correlation to actual code is unclear [KC99, p. 1].

Ad. 3: Software development is a team effort today. Therefore a common understanding and reference frame is essential to allow the software design to be discussed, documented, and reused.

Having an explicit and well-communicated architecture is the first step towards ensuring architectural conformance.

[BCK98]

Ad. 4: Data in a software project is inherently multi-dimensional: One dimension is the source files; another the budgets, task-lists, and staffing information; yet another version control, etc. Traditionally these different dimensions are handled by different tools and organisational procedures and summary information presented in different formats: Lists, tables, graphs, etc.



4.4 Visualisation Model

In this section the basic concepts in the RAGNAROK visual model will be presented.

4.4.1 Landscape, Landmark, and Decoration

The **landscape** is an infinite two dimensional plane. The landscape serves as a space for geographically organising **landmarks** and **decorations**.

A landmark occupies a well defined region of the landscape and represents a software component¹ and hence an abstraction in the software design. In the present RAGNAROK implementation, a landmark is (unimaginatively) represented by a rectangular region. (We have chosen the term ‘landmark’ both to underline the reference to real geographical space as well as to distinguish the visual element from the underlying data-carrying component.)

Compositional relations (part/whole) between components are visualised by *spatial containment* i.e. the landmarks associated with components that are part of a component *A* are positioned inside the landmark of *A*. In Fig. 4.1 a legal landscape for the design structure in Fig. 2.3 (p. 15) is shown.

Thus, the software landscape will represent the architecture of our software system as a geographically organised, hierarchically nested, set of regions, each region representing an abstraction in the architecture. Spatial containment is a natural paradigm for representing composition, established from everyday experience (the objects are inside the container). In our context, the context of software architecture and logical design, the level of containment maps well to the notion of level of abstraction. We may discuss a software design at a high level of abstraction, say in terms of a set of subsystems, or at a detailed level, say in terms of individual classes. In the visualisation model we may similarly choose to limit the level of view to a given level of abstraction, for instance only display the Model landmark but not the classes inside, to support such discussions. (Figure 4.3 shows an example of this.)

¹More correctly: a software component version (section 2 and 3).

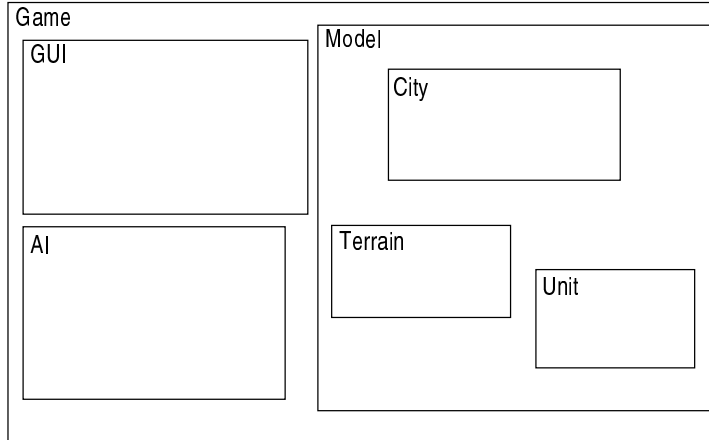


Figure 4.1: Example of legal landscape of landmarks for the components in Fig. 2.3.

Other relation types, dependency and inheritance, are visualised by decorations. A decoration is simple graphics, like text, lines, polygons, images, etc., at a specific position in the landscape. Specifically, the Ragnarok prototype provides basic support for UML class diagrams [BRJ97]. Thereby the software design can be further documented by stating associations, multiplicity, roles, etc., as demonstrated later in Fig. 4.6 in section 4.6.

4.4.2 Maps

The landscape is not directly accessible but viewed and manipulated through **maps**.

A map is a well-known visual formalism [Har88, NZ93], ideal for presenting (and, in our special case, manipulating) geographic space because of three characteristic properties:

- *Respects spatial relations.* A map’s purpose is to faithfully describe spatial relations between objects. Obviously, the key property for the formalism’s usability in our context.
- *Scale determines level of detail.* Depending on scale, you can get a rough outline or detailed information of the underlying structure. For instance, you may ‘zoom out’ to view how subsystems are related, then ‘zoom in’ to get details on which classes a certain library is composed of.
- *Aspect highlights desired features.* Any map highlights some, and ignores other, properties of the objects they display. The map’s aspect determines which to display; maps show aspects like roads, vegetation, or mean temperatures, of an area. In our context, one aspect of the architecture may be the evolution of components (version control), or the number of staff hours spent on implementation, or number of unfixed bugs, etc.

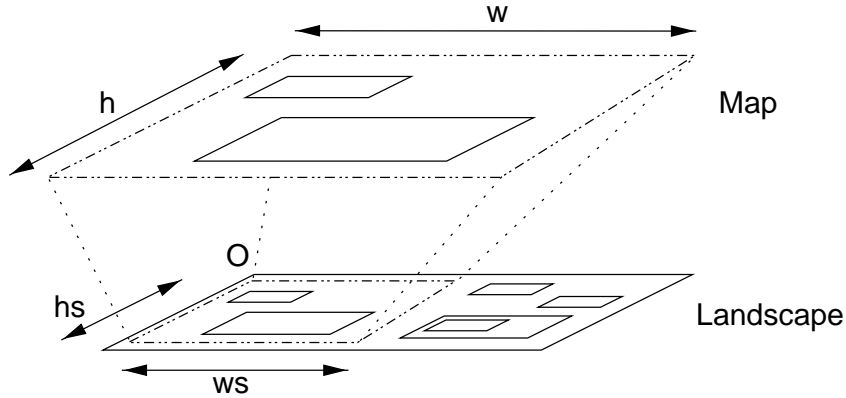


Figure 4.2: The mapping between landscape and a map, determined by the map’s view-parameters.

In RAGNAROK, a map visualises a region of the landscape on the computer display. The region displayed is determined by the map’s **view-parameters**: (O, w, h, s, d, A) .

- O is the position of the map’s top left pixel projected onto the landscape.
- w and h are the map’s physical (pixel) width and height.
- s is the map’s scale.
- d is the map’s view-depth.
- A is the map’s aspect (see section 4.4.3).

A map w pixels wide and h pixels tall will display region $(O.x, O.y, O.x+ws, O.y+hs)$ of the landscape. This is denoted the **displayed region**. Figure 4.2 outlines this simple relation between landscape and displayed region.

The landmarks appearing in a map are denoted **visual landmarks** when we explicitly want to distinguish them from the landmarks in the landscape: There is only one landmark in the landscape for each component but there may be several maps displaying different visual landmarks for the same underlying landmark.

The view-depth, d , determines at what level of granularity the map stops displaying entities in the landscape. At $d = 0$ only the root landmark is shown, at $d = 1$ the root as well as its part landmarks are shown, etc. Figure 4.3 shows two maps both displaying the same region of a landscape; the left one views the landscape to depth $d = 2$ while the right one views to depth $d = 3$.

4.4.3 Aspects

The **aspect** A determines the appearance of visual landmarks in the displayed region by (processing) a subset of the data in the associated software component. In contrast to an ordinary map, the aspect in the RAGNAROK visual model also influences the set of interactions the user can perform; in our implementation in the form of context-sensitive menus appearing when a visual landmark is clicked with the right mouse button, see section 4.4.5.

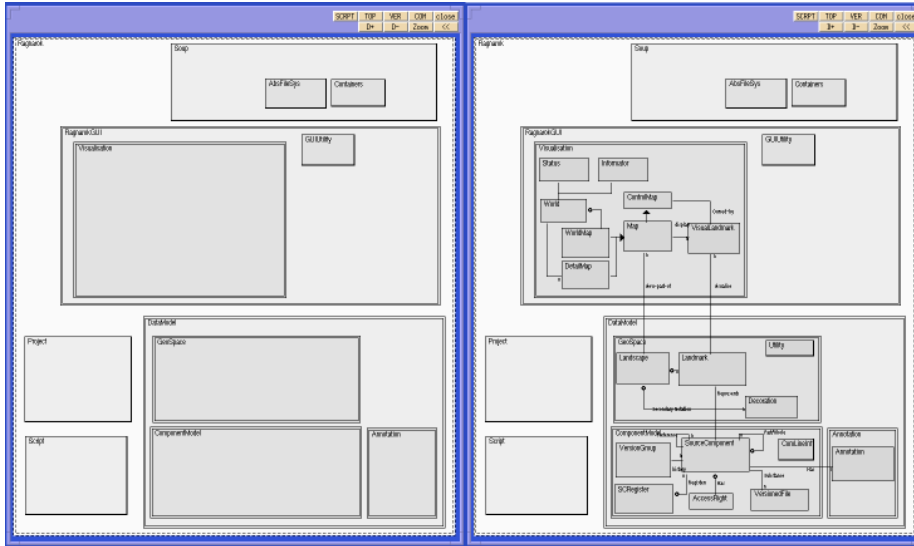


Figure 4.3: Two maps displaying the same region but at two different depths: $d = 2$ (left) and $d = 3$ (right).

Changing the appearance of a visual landmark can mean any number of things, the only requirement of the visual model is that an aspect cannot change the location and size of the landmark: For instance, an aspect cannot draw an image on top of a landmark that is larger than its region.

One category of defining appearance that we find especially interesting is to present cumulative or summary information through colour coding landmarks; for instance, in a management aspect to use red as background colour for over-budget components and green for others. Only affecting the background colour has the advantage that landmarks can be transparent showing their sub-hierarchy inside.

An aspect may also choose to visualise various kinds of information inside the landmark: graphics, images, text, curves, version graphs, etc. Doing this, the landmarks of course become opaque as we cannot view both a landmark's graphics as well as its nested landmarks without producing a highly confusing presentation. In the visual model, only landmarks at a nesting depth exactly equal to the view-depth d show opaque information, all other landmarks are transparent. Thus in maps with such aspects, the user have to change the view-depth up and down to view the information at various depths. Still the background colour may present summary information as in the above category.

Some envisioned aspects follow below with a short description. Some of these are implemented (partially) in the RAGNAROK prototype (section 4.6).

- Comprehension
- Version Control
- Source Code Characteristics
- Project Management
- Release Control

Ad. Comprehension: The processing suggested in what we term ‘Comprehension aspect’ is simply no processing. The purpose of the aspect is to focus on documenting the architecture itself. A gray scale is used in RAGNAROK for landmark colours, indicating the depth of the landmark. Pop-up menu entries on landmarks give access to textual or HTML based documentation for the individual components.

Ad. Version Control: Coding landmark colours according to the state of components in the developer’s workspace compared to the repository state, for instance show that newer versions of a library exists than presently used by the developer (see section 4.6.3). Landmarks mediate version control actions like check-out, check-in, etc. Landmarks could also display the version graph with the currently checked-out version highlighted.

Ad. Source Code Characteristics: Inspired by work by Baker, Eick, and Ball [BE96, BE95] the interior of landmarks could display source code characteristics in compact form. Examples from the articles include code age, software complexity, execution hot spots, number of changes, etc.

Ad. Project Management: Management annotation data of a component may be processed to yield a colour code for estimated-time-to-complete, ranging from green (on schedule) to red (delayed), for landmark background colours. Similarly, the colours could signal actual-versus-budget-costs, risk estimates, fitness factor (Goldberg and Rubin [GR95, chap. 7] give a comprehensive list of management attributes). The landmarks could mediate access to budgets, plans, task descriptions, staffing, etc. This aspect should support synthesised annotations (section 2.2.2), for instance the amount of development time spent on a component is the sum of hour spent directly on it added to the time spent recursively on its part components.

Ad. Release Control: Release control should be supported by annotations on component that list test-suits to be run and possibly check-lists of items to try manually (typically to verify user interface issues that are difficult to test by scripts). A release control aspect map must highlight components where there are unchecked items on the checklist and test-suits that have not been run. Landmarks should mediate changes to test-suits and checklists.

4.4.4 Correlation to Architecture

The visualisation consists of three layers. The fundamental layer is the architectural description of design in terms of components and their relations; this is the *architectural* layer. The second layer is the software landscape that defines a 2D plane and associates landmarks with components, under the constraint that part landmarks are positioned inside their ‘parent’ landmark; this is the *landscape layer*. The third layer is the maps that display selected parts of the landscape and through the map’s aspect emphasise certain data of the underlying component; this is the *map layer*. This layered structure is depicted in Fig. 4.4.

4.4.5 Interaction and Mediation

The interaction model employed is *direct manipulation* [Shn83, HHN86].

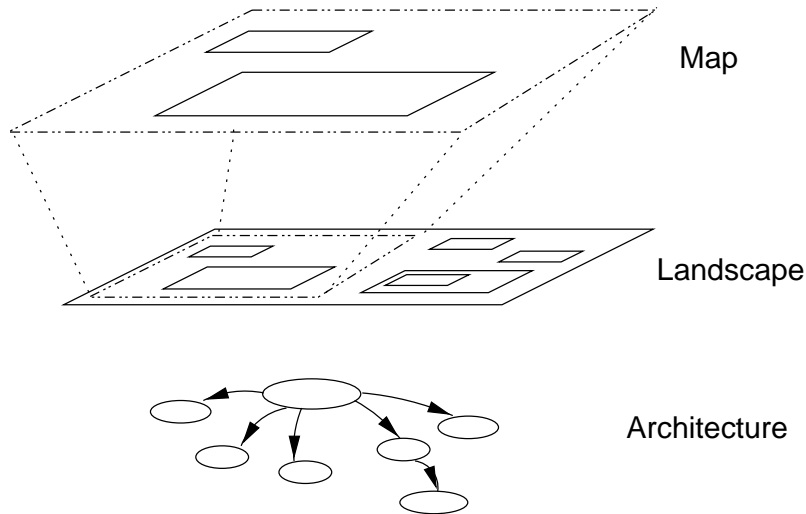


Figure 4.4: The layered representation of an architecture.

Visual landmarks in a map can be moved and resized directly using a mouse. Such modifications are delegated to the landscape layer where the landmark is changed; thereafter maps displaying the landmark are updated. Moving a landmark from one region of the landscape to another automatically moves all landmarks recursively contained within it along with it. In other words, a landmark at any granularity is treated as a composite of all its substructure.

Such a modification may also affect the architectural layer if it reflects an architectural/design change; for instance if a landmark for a class is moved from one library landmark to another. This will change the compositional relations between the underlying components.

The visual landmarks present in maps mediate actions to the underlying landscape and architecture layers. Actions are presently mediated through pop-up menus that appear when (right) clicking a visual landmark with the mouse. The set of actions available depends on the aspect of the map it is displayed in, and may also depend on data in the underlying component. For instance, in a version control map, landmarks mediate actions like check-in and check-out to the underlying components; in a management aspect map the user can edit task lists, log spent staff hours, etc. In a source code focused aspect, the pop-up menu lists source code fragments that can be loaded into an editor.

4.4.6 Landscape Creation

RAGNAROK is envisioned as a constructive tool; you interactively create and modify a software architecture with it. This is in contrast to reconstructive, reverse engineering, tools that tries to extract the architecture of an existing software system.

Landmarks are created directly in a map. The mouse is used to define an area in the displayed region and this action is delegated to the lower layers: it creates

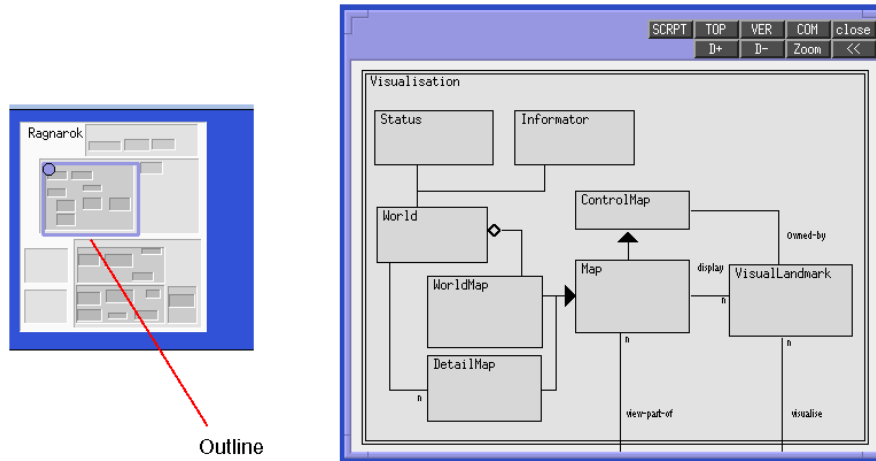


Figure 4.5: The displayed region in a detail-map (right) is projected as an outline onto the world-map (left).

both a landmark in the landscape layer and a component in the architecture layer. Thereafter all relevant maps are updated with a correct display of the landscape.

4.4.7 Global Context

Any number of maps can be created showing regions of the landscape in various aspects. A large number of maps, however, does little to provide overview or global context. Rather the opposite is true: ‘How does the displayed regions of all those maps relate to each other?’

To improve overview in this situation, the visual model introduces a **map outline**. A map outline is a projection of the displayed region of one map, denoted the **detail map**, onto another map dedicated for showing global context, denoted the **world map**. The outline is a coloured rectangle overlaid the landscape displayed in the world map; to distinguish outlines of different detail-maps, the outline and the frame of the corresponding detail map have identical colours. The outline and the displayed region in the corresponding map are synchronised: Moving/resizing an outline will change the displayed region in the corresponding detail map and vice versa. This is an intuitive way of moving in 2D space compared to the often seen use of a vertical and horizontal scrollbar. Figure 4.5 shows how outlines are visualised in the RAGNAROK prototype.

4.4.8 Shared Landscape

The landscape with landmarks and decorations as well as the data of the underlying components are shared among developers in the software project through the repository. Therefore modifications made by one developer to a landmark and/or to data in the underlying component are reflected in all running Ragnarok instances.



4.5 Model Properties

This section outlines major properties of the proposed visual model and argues how these properties can and will be used to address the problems outlined in section 4.3.

4.5.1 Geographical Organisation

Navigation in traditional systems is name-based: You must remember a sequence of directory names and a filename to access data. The landscape metaphor allows architectural entities to be assigned a unique position. Thereby, emphasis is shifted from name-based to location-based search: Developers get to know *where* a given set of data is located. In short, humans spatial memory and abilities can be exploited in search situations.

The geographical organisation allows us to make use of our well developed and precise spatial vocabulary in communicating ideas, instructions, and information relevant to the architecture. As an example, newcomers can be guided to relevant parts using simple instructions: ‘eastern part’, ‘further to the left’, etc., and can report locations in a similar way.

A company can develop *positional semantics*, e.g. a set of guidelines for geographical organisation of recurring architectural patterns. For instance, it is common in computer science textbooks to display a layered architecture with the basic (hardware near) layers at the bottom and the more advanced at the top. Such guidelines can be formulated in terms of positional relations: ‘IO and database related libraries at the bottom’, ‘User interface components at the top’, ‘Business rule related components in the centre’, etc. (Indeed, the landscape for RAGNAROK follows the ‘more elaborate components towards the top’ convention though this decision was not made consciously.)

At a more subtle level, position of components may also carry valuable information. For instance, in a class-category or library, there may be a single class that defines core functionality, aided by a number of helper classes. We think such core components are likely positioned centrally within the region defined by the library component. Being at the centre is a direct, visual, way of signalling that the class is indeed central. The core class will have relations to all helper classes but these should be weakly related to adhere to standard software engineering doctrine, so positioning the class centrally will also make a nicer visual layout with fewer crossing lines of relations. (An example is present in the RAGNAROK architecture in Fig. 3.11.) The size of a landmark may provide information as well. The size of a component can beneficially be used to signal relative importance in a given context.

It should be noted that we do not see location-based navigation as superior to name-based search in all respects; rather they complement each other well and serve different purposes. Name-based organisation has advantages when humans must process lots of new data in a short time, as shown by Jones and Dumas [JD86]; and for seldom accessed entities it may also be easier to remember a name than a location. Location-based navigation has its main advantage

when it comes to locating core entities that are accessed all the time; just as navigation is easy in your hometown, but difficult in an unknown city.

4.5.2 Hierarchical Presentation

Landmarks are generally transparent in the sense that part landmarks are visible inside. This is a compact visualisation of an architecture's hierarchy, typically components to a depth of 3–4 levels in the hierarchy are visible at the same time. Compare this to single level visibility of directory structure in a shell, or the single path visibility in Windows Explorer.

The compact presentation combined with stability of the landmarks' positions is a factor in achieving overview. Spatial containment is a direct and strong visible indication of the cohesion of a set of component; for instance a set of collaborating classes that form a library. The broad-brush visual impression of the landscape is able to stay intact in most cases, even when new landmarks are created or a small number of existing ones rearranged, typically the evolution of an mature architecture will see many more changes at a fine granularity than at a coarse one. Important subsystem or library landmarks are less likely to move than, say, individual classes within a library.

4.5.3 Decoration

Decorations are a simple way to add coarse-grained documentation directly to the landscape. Using for instance OMT or UML class diagram notation, or a company defined variant hereof, the landscape can become the reference documentation of the system's static and logical design within the project. In contrast to diagrams made in separate CASE tools or drawing applications, we think there will be a higher pressure on team members to ensure that the decorated landscape reflects the 'true' architecture. First of all because all team members: managers, testers, coders, maintainers, etc., are confronted with the landscape daily and consequently errors cannot go unnoticed as easily as a diagram in a binder on a shelf. Secondly, it may be easier to make yourself fix the error as you are already within the environment.

4.5.4 Map Layer

Users interact with the software landscape through maps. While complicating the visual model somewhat, it affords *juxtaposability* (section 4.9.1), i.e. the ability to present physically distant areas in detail on the display at the same time. One simply creates two maps, one for each area. Similarly, one may view the same region of the landscape through two maps, each showing different aspects, for easy comparison. Or one map can be used for a coarse overview while another shows detail.

4.5.5 Mediation

The landscape plays an active role in everyday development as landmarks mediate often occurring tasks and in return visualises the outcome of performing these

tasks. For instance, to check-in a component the user selects a menu item directly on the component's landmark; hereafter the colours of affected landmarks change to reflect the check-in's effect on the workspace-repository relationship.

This makes for a close and faster interaction cycle between developer and design visualisation than in more traditional design diagram tools; and indirectly puts pressure on ensuring correct diagrams.

4.5.6 Aspect Property

Software development produces data along many dimensions. Source code is obviously produced; but important is also lists of defects and proposed changes; budget-, planning-, staffing-, and actual cost information for the parts of the system; release procedures and checklists; etc.

The aspect view-parameter of a map defines the appearance of visual landmarks in the map by processing subsets of the data stored in their associated components. As the aspect controls the appearance and not the position of the landmark, the result is that different dimensions of the software are visualised overlaid the same stable landscape.

A first effect is that navigational and spatial knowledge acquired doing one task remains valid as one proceeds to other tasks focusing on other aspects. A second effect is that the data of different aspects gets geographically correlated which is a strong way of comparing data. As an example imagine a management aspect map that highlights a small set of components as over budget; switching to a quality assurance map the same components are highlighted as having many bugs reported; and finally these components are shown to be staffed by the same person in a staffing aspect map—this will inform a manager that some action needs to be taken.

4.5.7 Shared Landscape Property

The software landscape is shared. This is true in two ways.

The first way is the static aspect. Members of the team view the same landscape which reflects the logical architecture closely. The landscape, therefore, serves as part of an 'explicit and well-communicated architecture' that Bass et al. stress as important for architectural conformance. The landscape serves as a common reference frame and a mental image of it can be recalled during discussions within the team. Maps in different aspects visualise pertinent information for various stake-holders: managers, designers, coders, maintainers, etc., overlaid over the same landscape. Alas, the same landscape serve as framework across people with different expertise and thus actively promotes a common understanding of the architecture.

The second way is the dynamic aspect. Changes made by one developer to a given part of the landscape or the underlying architecture is propagated to all that observe it. This is true for geographical rearrangement of landmarks; in practice, however, changes made at the architectural level are perhaps more important, as they occur more often. When a developer makes a check-in of a component, all version control aspect maps that view the landmark of this component will signal the presence of a new version in repository (see section 4.6.3); a developer that

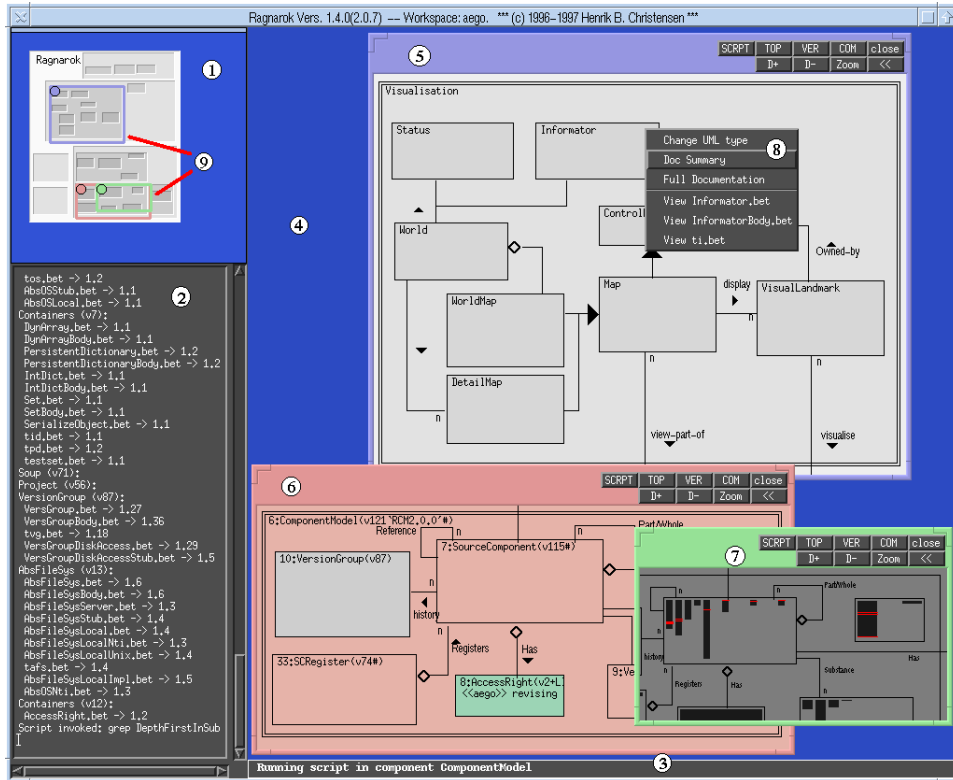


Figure 4.6: Overview over the RAGNAROK prototype window. The numbered parts are explained in the text.

logs 3 hours implementation work on a component will change the appearance of and data in all management aspect maps; a successful run of a test-suit on a component will affect all quality assurance maps; etc.



4.6 Prototype

Though the basic concepts of the visual model are all implemented in the RAGNAROK prototype, it only provides a small set of different aspects. A subset of these aspects is described below.

A snapshot of the prototype, loaded with the RAGNAROK project itself, is depicted in Fig. 4.6. The RAGNAROK window is divided into four part: In the upper left corner is the *world map* (1) with outlines (9) of open detail maps. The world map has a fixed position in the RAGNAROK window for easy reference and overview. The lower left part contains the *log window* (2) which is essentially a running log of important operations, here a version control check-out operation. The bottom right corner contains the *status bar* (3), which displays warnings and status information. On the right is a large area (4), here resides any num-

ber of *detail maps* (5–7). Each detail map has its own frame colour identical to the colour of the corresponding outline in the world map. Visual landmarks are generally displayed as simple, coloured, rectangles containing component name and possible additional information. Clicking any visual landmark brings up a context-sensitive menu which lists available actions on the underlying component (8).

4.6.1 Comprehension

The focus is documenting the static/logical structure of the software architecture through a modelling notation, here UML class diagram notation. The aspect does not do any complex processing, landmark colours are gray levels according to the depth of the component within the architecture. Landmark frames are also UML class diagram inspired: Single frame indicate class, double frame a class-category, and frame with shadow a class utility. The detail-map number (5) in Fig. 4.6 shows the Visualisation class-category of the RAGNAROK implementation: You can readily identify the classes that implement the concepts of the visualisation model: Map, visual landmark, world- and detail-map. Decorations show relations, inheritance, roles, and multiplicity: World is an aggregate of a single world-map and associated to 0..n detail-maps; both inherit from superclass Map; a Map visualises 0..n visual landmarks; and so forth.

The mediating actions available from this aspect are access to further documentation: Summary as well as detailed information, see the pop-up menu of map (5) in Fig. 4.6. Also this aspect provides access to the underlying source code fragments. For instance, the action taken if menu item `View Informator.bet` is chosen is to instruct the editor to load this file. (The actual loading process is done by a Tcl script which RAGNAROK provides with the filename as parameter; this way loading can be tailored for given operating systems and editors.)

This aspect, though simple, illustrate an important point namely that the UML class diagrams of a system play an up-front role as mediator of daily activities instead of being passive documents. If you were a newcomer, supposed to enhance parts of RAGNAROK, the overall design would be shown and explained to you within the daily development environment—and you would do your work through the visual design.

4.6.2 Topography

This aspect visualises the topography of the architecture, trying to minimise the amount of information. This provides a compact overview, refer to the world map (1) in Fig. 4.6. Decorations are not shown, and landmarks are grayed according to their depths and without text. The context-sensitive menu lists (source) files in the component and choosing one loads the file into an editor.

This aspect is the standard one for the world map providing convenient overview of the project landscape and a neutral background for outlines. A strong property of the topography aspect world map is that in essence it is a compact and fast file browser: Any of the 160 source files in the RAGNAROK project can be loaded into our emacs editor using *one* mouse-click in the world map (clicking the landmark brings up a pop-up menu listing all files in the substance of the

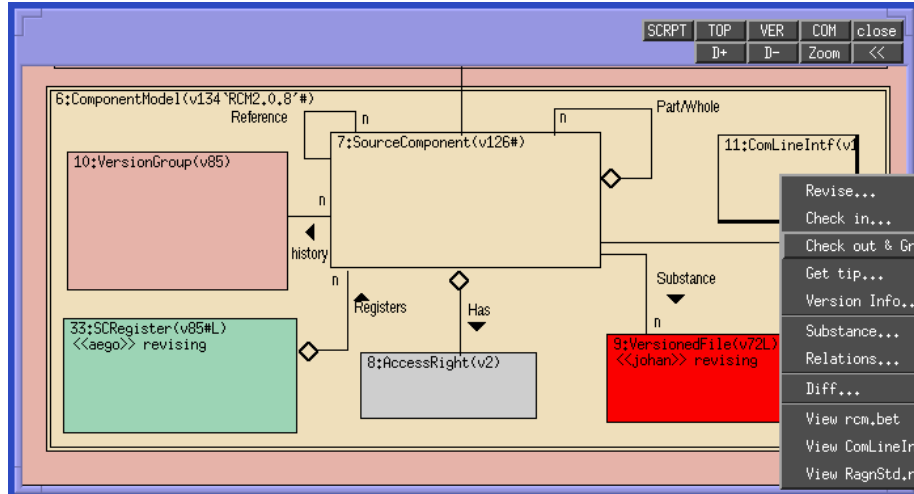


Figure 4.7: A map showing the version control aspect.

underlying component, releasing the mouse button over the wanted file tells our editor to load it).

4.6.3 Version Control

Naturally, there is an aspect to visualise properties of the underlying architectural software configuration management system in RAGNAROK. This aspect focuses on an important collaboration aspect in version- and configuration management, namely to enable the individual developer to overview how his/her workspace relates to the overall project code. A typical question is: ‘Do I have the newest version of components X and Y?’

The version control aspect visualises this in a compact form. Colour coding of landmarks are used to show the state of the developers’ workspace. Referring to Fig. 4.7, light red (mild warning) indicates components where newer versions exist in the repository. Gray (inert) indicates that the local source code match the newest. The colours light green and bright red are used to convey information about currently ongoing work: Light green indicates that the developer himself is currently editing source code in the component, bright red (warning) that some other, named, developer is working on it, and thus warns about potential conflicts if the developer decides to edit this component as well. Light yellow indicate indirect changes because components depended upon have changed.

The context sensitive menu, half visible, allows version control commands, check-in and -out, display version graph, source code access, etc., to be issued to the individual components.

Progress is instantly reflected in all running Ragnarok instances and thus the evolution of the software system is visible on-line: For instance, if developer ‘johan’ checks in component ‘VersionedFile’ in Fig. 4.7, the component will immediately turn light red in the version control maps of all other developers, to indicate that a newer version is available.

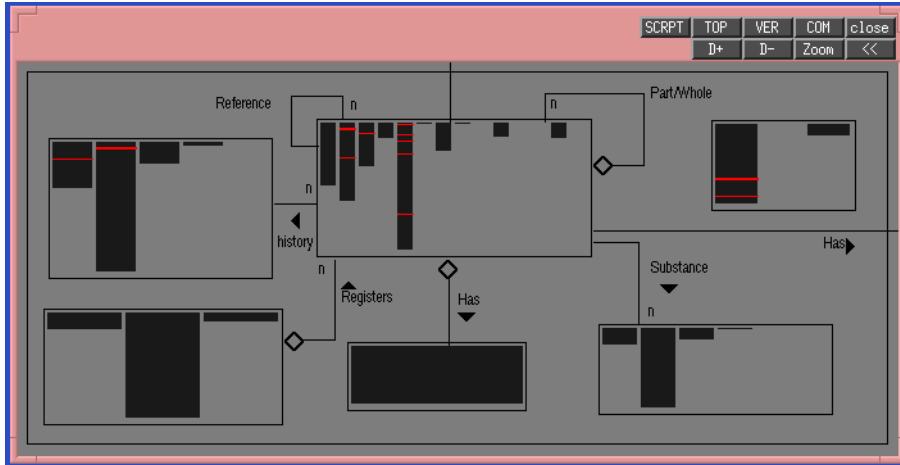


Figure 4.8: A map in visual scripting aspect, showing the result of a `grep` for the string ‘GetLockOwner’.

4.6.4 Script Visualisation

This aspect allows users to run scripts, written in the interpreted language Tcl [Ous94] on (parts of) the project and interpret the result spatially and visually. This aspect can be used to visualise source code characteristics as explained in section 4.4.3. User actions, like mouse clicks on landmarks or positions, result in user defined Tcl functions being called.

As an illustration the prototype has a *visual grep* facility, please refer to Fig. 4.8. Here the user has requested a `grep` in the source files with target string ‘GetLockOwner’ to be run in a part of a project (same part as in Fig. 4.7). The Tcl code for ‘grep’ specifies that the interior of landmarks is filled with black bars. Each bar represents a single file in the component, the bar height is a relative measure of the file size measured in lines. Each red line shows that the search string occurs in the file at this relative position. Clicking and holding down the left mouse button near a red line pops up a text viewer displaying 20 text-lines around the position where the search string occurs in the file—releasing the mouse button again makes the text viewer disappear, see Fig. 4.9. This way one can quickly browse the occurrences and their immediate context without polluting the screen with numerous new windows. Double clicking a red line automatically loads the file into the editor centred on the matching line.

This visualisation of a recursive grep is compact and provides better overview than traditional textual recursive greps. Furthermore, the clustering, density, and distribution of red lines in itself give important information. For instance, grepping for a function or class name may show misuses (‘Now, why is there a call in the GUI library?’) or high coupling (‘Hey, look, this class pops up in every component in the system!’) that are easily missed in a 300 line textual output.

This grep example shows one possibility, namely colouring relative line positions within bars representing files. The scripting aspect implements two other possibilities: Individual file colouring (controlling the colours of the bars), and

```

VersionGroup: VersGroup.tcl
***** --- RagnarokLib: Attributes --- *****
*)
(* Get an element in the version group by knowledge of the
 * Version ID and return the element.
 * Note that the element returned is an actual pointer into
 * the version group structure! SO DONT MESS WITH IT!
 *)
GetFromID:
  (#
   ID:@Integer;
   Elem:^VersionElement;
   enter ID
   <<SLOT VGGGetFromID: DoPart>>
   exit Elem[]
  #);

(* Return the ID of owner of lock of version with specific ID.
 * Remember that 0 means no lock. *)
GetLockOwnerID:
  (#
   ID:@Integer;
   LockOwnerID:@Integer;
   enter ID
   <<SLOT VGGGetLockOwnerID: DoPart>>
   exit LockOwnerID
  #);

(* Get the lock of a specific version without retrieving its
 * information. Grant returns false if not possible. *)
GetLock: aModification
  (#
   ID:@Integer;
   Grant:@Boolean;
   enter ID
   <<SLOT VGGGetLock: DoPart>>
   exit Grant
  #);

```

Figure 4.9: Text viewer spawned by clicking on a red line `grep` match.

component colouring (no bars present, only the landmark background colour is controlled, similar to the approach taken in version control aspect).

By basing this aspects on user written, interpreted, scripts, Ragnarok provides a degree of tailorability to the context of a given project: Developers can write scripts that provide custom visualisations. The Tcl language has strong support for file handling and invoking external programs and it is therefore relatively simple to parse files (as done in the `grep` case above), or invoke profilers, run regression tests, extract relevant data from a project database, etc., and visualise the results of such external processing. The ability to associate user written Tcl scripts to mouse clicks makes these custom visualisation direct manipulable: Clicking a landmark that highlights an unsuccessful regression test run can load the test into an editor; clicking a landmark with project data can instruct the database to load the proper table/view, etc.



4.7 Implementation

In this section, some implementation issues will be discussed. The design rationales for the visualisation model are identical to the ones listed in section 3.7.1 and will not be repeated here.

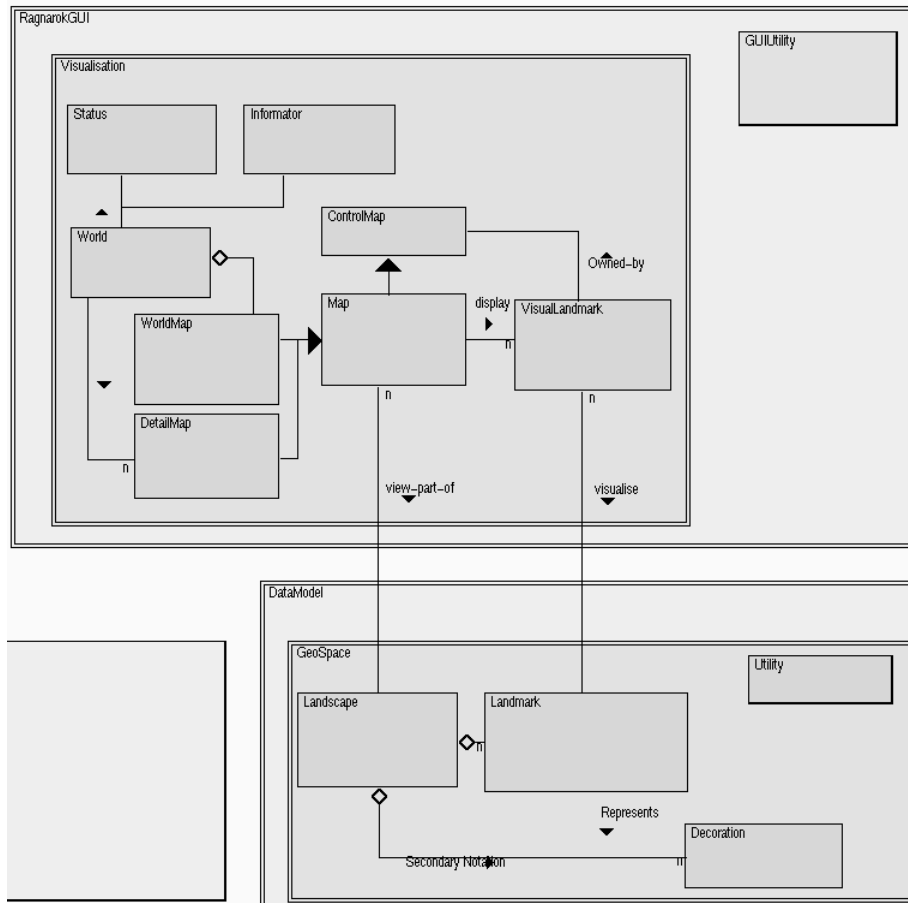


Figure 4.10: Design of geographical space- and map layer.

4.7.1 Design

The three layered design outlined in section 4.4.4 is naturally reflected in the software architecture. Figure 4.10 outlines the geographical space layer (class-category GeoSpace) and the map layer (class-category Visualisation).

In GeoSpace, the landscape is modelled by class Landscape that serve as container for instances of class Landmark and Decoration.

In Visualisation, class Map implements basic map functionality and serves as superclass for classes detail- and world-map. A map's primary purpose is to visualise a set of visual landmarks. A superclass for Map, ControlMap, serves as lightweight abstract class or interface to certain map functionality: Any visual landmark keeps a reference to a ControlMap instance, the map it resides in, which allows it to generate a map update etc. Thus ControlMap breaks what would otherwise be a circular dependency that cannot be handled by the BETA language (nor the current architectural SCM model). The World class defines the overall RAGNAROK layout with status line, log window (class Informator), etc.

Consistency is maintained between landscape landmarks and visual landmarks through an observer pattern [GHJV94]. A state pattern [GHJV94] within class VisualLandmark implements the processing and visual appearances relevant for different aspects.

The design is implemented in the BETA programming language [MMPN93] and consists of about 18000 lines of code on top of the architectural software configuration management code.

4.7.2 Landscape Resolution

Landscape coordinates are 32-bit integers in our present implementation. One concern with this choice is resolution. Obviously we can ‘zoom in’ to the extent where we run out of resolution, for instance if we try to define a rectangle between position (10,10) and (11,11).

The problem is less severe than one might expect, though. Starting a new project, RAGNAROK automatically defines the first landmark and defaults the world map scalefactor. The scalefactor is about 885.000 and the initial landmark is bounded by the rectangle (0, 0, 100.000.000, 100.000.000) giving an initial 118 x 118 pixel rectangle on the world-map. These numbers give ample room for expanding the root landmark (about a factor 40) before having resolution problems. Assuming that sub-landmarks typically have widths and heights that are one fifth of their parent’s sizes, we can nest to depth 7–8 without problems. Assuming on average four part-landmarks per parent landmark this would give room for 64K landmarks at depth 8.

If this does not provide adequate resolution, a more elaborate implementation of the landscape is outlined in [Chr96] that overcomes the resolution problem.



4.8 Case Studies

The RAGNAROK prototype provides most of the functionality of the RCM prototype. It has therefore been natural to ask the teams in the SCM case studies, section 3.9, to migrate to the visual, geographic space based, user interface. This migration has been slow, however, for a number of reasons. At present, the RAGNAROK prototype is used by the ConSys team and in the RAGNAROK project itself—however the compiler team has not made the transition from RCM yet. The ConSys team started using RAGNAROK medio summer 1998.

4.8.1 Interview

As was the case with the previous interviews, an interview guide provided the framework for an open-ended interview [Pat80]. The guide contained 37 questions in 8 major groups: Overview and navigation, world/detail map correlation, mediating landscape, collaboration, visualisation framework, landscape stability, and relations to architectural- and SCM model. The ConSys team was interviewed autumn 1998. The interview was recorded on tape. The RAGNAROK prototype has not been instrumented, thus no usage statistics data is available.

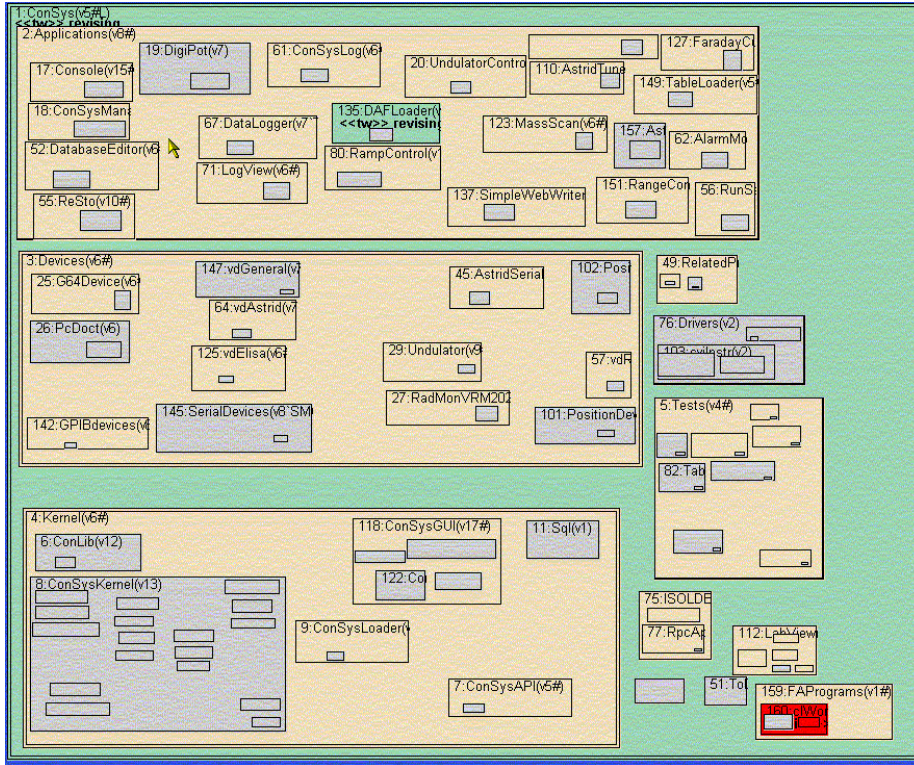


Figure 4.11: The ConSys software landscape, shown in a version control aspect map.

ConSys Team

The ConSys team has already been described in section 3.9.1. A screen dump of the ConSys software landscape seen through a version control aspect is shown in Fig. 4.11.

At the time they made the transition from RCM to RAGNAROK, they had been using RCM for nearly 2 1/2 years. As RCM addresses SCM issues only, it was not surprising that they have been using RAGNAROK exclusively as another interface to the architectural software configuration management model while ignoring other features of the prototype.

The team was highly enthusiastic about the geographic space based visual model: They claimed to be able to locate any landmark/component with ‘lightning speed’ and high accuracy. Of course, the geography of the landscape has to be learned but this was not reported troublesome. These statements should be seen in the light that they are only confronted with the software landscape when doing SCM. Even so they get acquainted well enough to claim confidence and speed in navigation.

Positional semantics was coded into the landscape by the layouter: The Kernel library at the bottom, device drivers above that and finally the (large) set of applications that defines ConSys. A team member acknowledged that he did not

know this scheme but this, nevertheless, caused no problem with navigation. An amusing observation was that the stable, old, architecture was at the left while new landmarks/components were always added right of the existing ones. Thus the left-right orientation of the landscape has connotations of age and stability.

Some components are ‘core’ entities, frequently visited for check-in or -out, while others are rarely visited. They reported that they knew the location of core components by heart while the others were found iteratively: A detail-map was opened over the relevant region, then reading component names allowed them to find the proper one. They were never in doubt about what region of the landscape to start this iterative search in, thus it is still very quick.

In trying to concretise what facilitate their navigation they emphasised that landmarks should be given irregular sizes and positions, avoiding nice-looking but ‘anonymising’ alignments. They had not used decorations at all, but did not believe their presence would have improved navigation anyway. Other shapes than rectangles were requested, however.

The team found that the version control aspect map provided much enhanced overview of the project SCM state compared to what was available in the RCM prototype. The colour coding provides fine overview of newer versions in the repository and provides information about components under revision, i.e. ‘what is going on’, in supplement to verbal communication. Again, the mere location of a coloured landmark is usually enough for the developers to know the identity of the component, or at least give a good hunch of what it is part of.

One technique, the team has (re)invented, is to define a workspace that is used only to contain the latest system release. Thus, to see what has been changed since last release they only have to open a version control map using this workspace and the light red coloured landmarks will tell immediately.

The team is not educated in design notations like UML so they were not able to evaluate the value of having such documentation within a development environment. Understandably, they did not feel the software landscape had contributed to their understanding of their system nor facilitated communication.

The discussion, however, lead to the conclusion that, apart from the Kernel library, the structure manifested in RAGNAROK was more related to the physical than the logical architecture. This conclusion is in contrast to the claims made during the previous interview, section 3.9.4. The contrast is interesting, however, as it supports an observation made in the RAGNAROK project itself. Here, it was observed that the components were created for different reasons in RCM and in RAGNAROK. The RCM ‘look-and-feel’ is that of a shell and this automatically makes you think in terms of physical structure. To add some documentation, it feels natural to create a `Doc` component: `cc Doc` and `makedir Doc` doesn’t feel that different. In RAGNAROK, the ‘look-and-feel’ is that of a software design tool and this unconscious focusing of the mind makes you create different components: You simply do not create a `Doc` landmark as it does not make sense in the UML diagram; instead you associate the documentation directly to the proper component. Especially seen in the light that the ConSys team does not know graphical design notations, it seems plausible that the RCM prototype has made it natural primarily to code the ConSys physical architecture into a structure that now forms the landscape.

A less fortunate point was that since the introduction of RAGNAROK, the team has forgotten to set functional dependency relations between new components. As these are not shown they are of course easy to forget.

Ragnarok

We take the liberty to add some observations from using RAGNAROK in the RAGNAROK project itself. This project has been developed using more traditional tools, Emacs editor and a command line compiler, that provides less support than Visual Studio: No class browser, build-in grep, etc.

Our experience supports the observations of the ConSys team: The landscape is quickly learned and components located fast and with high accuracy. Especially, the world map is an efficient file browser as stated in section 4.6.2.

The visual grep is good, especially in two aspects: The location of red match lines provides compact overview, often you identify the one you are interested in simply by its location. For instance, interface files are generally the first black bar in a class component so a grep match of a method name appearing in that bar is the method definition. Browsing is strong as the matching line as well as its immediate context is visible (as in the pop-up text window, Fig. 4.9). (The usefulness of the latter was vital for a particular bug in the prototype: An empty line was printed on the console occasionally, obviously an unfortunate left-over from a set of debugging output statements—but where? The BETA statement ‘newline’ is correctly used in many places, and ordinary recursive grep could bring no useful information. It was the context of the newline that was important and made it easy to spot the culprit.)

4.8.2 Summary

Though only limited aspects of RAGNAROK has been used, the statements do support some of the claims forwarded in section 4.3:

- *Overview:* The version control aspect colour coding was valued as giving accurate, broad-brush, information about the current state of the ConSys project; with respect to the individual developer’s progress, and with respect to the last release. For instance, Fig. 4.11 essentially summarises progress and current status of over 240.000 lines of C++ code.
- *Navigation:* The team expressed enthusiasm about the geographical location metaphor and claimed fast navigation with high accuracy.
- *Sharedness and progress:* The version control aspect was also reported to complement verbal communication about what other team members are working on and how the project progresses.
- *Script visualisation:* The ability to visualise properties of the architecture’s underlying data, as exemplified with the `grep` script visualisation, provides a compact representation of a potential large dataset while enabling easy browsing of details. The experiences with `grep` indicate the usefulness of the approach for other data extraction techniques.

An interesting change request for the prototype was put forward by the ConSys team. Originally the text in landmarks in version control aspect maps was modelled over the RCM command line, for instance as seen in Fig. 4.7 the SourceComponent landmark text reads `7:SourceComponent (v126#)` which lists component name before version identity. The ConSys team requested that the order was reversed, version identity first, so the above example instead read `(v126#) 7:SourceComponent`. The argument was that in very small landmarks, only the first portion of the string is visible and this limited information should state the version identity rather than component name because component identity is easily inferred from landscape position.



4.9 Discussion

Having an explicit and well-communicated architecture is the first step towards ensuring architectural conformance. Having an environment or infrastructure that actively assists developers in creating and maintaining the architecture (as opposed to just the code) is better. This means that we need tools for architecture development to complement our existing ones for code development.

[BCK98]

The RAGNAROK visual model is characterised by the following properties:

- Spatial, hierarchical, organisation of architectural entities in a software landscape.
- Broad-brush documentation of architecture through decorations, specifically support for modelling notations.
- Landmarks mediate daily development and management activities and in return provides visual feedback on the result of an action.
- Landscape creation and manipulation automatically creates and modifies the underlying architectural framework.
- Maps visualise regions of the software landscape and provides a natural formalism for handling geographic space.
- The aspect property of maps allows data of the underlying components to be overlaid a positional stable landscape.
- The landscape is shared between all team members.

In terms of usability these properties are argued to achieve the following goals

- Enhanced navigation: Spatial memory can efficiently be used to locate (especially core) architectural components.
- Overview: Typical 3-5 levels of granularity of the architecture is presented compactly. Team members can quickly zoom in and out of the landscape based upon whether detailed- or a general view is wanted.

- Decorations allow the landscape to become a logical software design documentation.
- The landscape becomes a common and manifest reference-frame for stakeholders with different expertise and thus promotes high-level communication.
- Mediating landscape eases access to underlying data, tasks, and development processes and counteracts that design documentation is forgotten or becomes out-of-date.
- Development progress and architectural modifications are visualised instantly through a shared landscape.
- Different aspects of the software architecture visualised overlaid the same stable landscape which eases comparisons.

Presently, the case study results are still tentative. We feel, however, that we can state with confidence that:

- The proposed model *does* enhance navigation; users confidently and accurately identify components and access their data solemnly based upon landmark positions.
- Decorations and salience of landmarks are not essential for a navigable landscape: Irregular sizes and positions of landmarks provide sufficient visual clues, at least for small- to medium sized projects.
- Overview is strengthened. The whole architecture can be viewed in a single map, and for instance identifying components under revision and newer versions is fast and direct compared to the RCM textual output.
- The world map acts as a fast and accurate file browser for the project.
- Visualisation of recursive grep is valuable, provides enhanced overview compared to textual output, and the direct interaction with the visual representation of string matches (viewing region around match or telling editor to centre on match) enables fast browsing of context and a quick loading scheme.

4.9.1 A Cognitive Dimensions Evaluation

Green and Petre has proposed a ‘Cognitive Dimensions’ framework as a broad-brush evaluation technique for visual notations [GP96]. Developed with visual programming environments in mind, it nevertheless provides valuable insight for other domains as well.

The dimensions that are relevant for RAGNAROK’s visual model are:

- *Abstraction gradient*: What are the minimum and maximum levels of abstraction? Can fragments be encapsulated forming new abstractions?
- *Error-proneness*: Does the notation induce ‘careless mistakes’?

- *Hard mental operations*: Are there situations where the user needs to resort to pencil and paper to keep track of what is happening?
- *Hidden dependencies*: Is every dependency overtly in both directions?
- *Premature commitment*: Are users forced to make decisions before they have the information they need?
- *Role-expressiveness*: Can the reader see how each component relates to the whole?
- *Secondary notation*: Can layout, colour, and other cues be used to convey extra meaning, above and beyond the semantics of the notation?
- *Viscosity*: How much effort is required to perform local changes?
- *Visibility*: Is every part simultaneously visible? Is it possible to juxtapose any two parts side-by-side at will?

Before discussing each in turn it should be noted that RAGNAROK is a prototype so in many respects there is a gap between what exists and what is envisioned.

Ad. Abstraction gradient: Though RAGNAROK’s understanding of software architecture and architectural software configuration management is all about hierarchical structuring of abstractions, we must admit that the visual model is, what Green and Petre term, *abstraction-hating*. Landmarks are nested in hierarchies reflecting the underlying architecture, and moving a landmark also moves its substructure—but we cannot group landscape features, landmarks and decorations, into a composite that can be instantiated in different places.

This is a deliberate decision, though. Replicating a set of landmarks in several places in the landscape would also replicate the underlying source code; and reuse of software is to be preferred over copying software (cut’n’paste programming). How to visualise reuse of architectural structures, typically design patterns, in multiple places in the landscape is another issue, discussed in section 4.12.2.

Ad. Error-proneness: Presently, the syntax for defining and modifying the landscape is awkward to put it mildly. It was defined ad hoc and only with ease of implementation in mind: The purpose was to validate the value of a geographic space metaphor for visualising architecture, not efficient user handling. Thus one easily defines the wrong type of decoration or modifies a landmark in a wrong way. Of course the long-term goal is to provide a better and more reliable user interface.

Ad. Hard mental operations: Modifications of the landscape are straight forward operations with instant feedback on the outcome. As it is not possible to group interactions or constructs there is thus no way of these interacting in ‘mentally hard’ ways.

Ad. Hidden dependencies: A short-coming of the present implementation is that only compositional relations are directly visualised, through spatial containment. Other types of relations, like functional dependency and inheritance, are not automatically generated by the visual model and developers must add these as decorations themselves and make sure that they are consistent. As the ConSys

team proves, this may very well result in the dependencies not being defined at all. We consider this a severe problem that must be addressed in future work.

Ad. Premature commitment: Studies of the programming process tells what all developers know: Programs are not developed in a linear fashion. Developers make rapid shifts between high level and low level and often revise already written code. Ideally, we should allow a similar process for landscape and thereby architecture development. Unfortunately, RAGNAROK does not support such at present. In order for a landmark be created, it must be created with the context of some other landmark (the root landmark is created automatically by RAGNAROK when a new project is launched). This enforces a top-down working style, at least on the overall architectural design. In other words, the architect is forced to commit prematurely to a design before information on its quality is available. However, this may not be all that different from current practice; a team has to commit itself to an initial architecture before the implementation phase anyway, like setting up a directory structure in order to create files, etc. Also, the landscape can be changed and rearranged (but doing so constantly of course severely deprives us the advantage of spatial memory).

Ad. Role-expressiveness: Green and Petre describe role-expressiveness as ‘intended to describe how easy it is to answer the question “what is this bit for?”’. Obviously, role-expressiveness is at the heart of the RAGNAROK visual model: Understanding and overview of a software design is one of its main goals. A developer well-versed in UML class diagrams (or whatever notation adopted in the team) should hopefully have little difficulty in grasping the overall architectural picture manifested in the software landscape.

Ad. Secondary notation: Decorations are secondary notation, allowing developers to annotate the landscape and thereby their architecture with whatever additional information that may guide those confronted with the landscape.

Ad. Viscosity: Viscosity addresses how difficult it is to perform local changes. Again, the prototype implementation is awful at present. Moving a landmark moves its substructure; decorations, however, are isolated entities with no relation to the landmarks they supposedly provide secondary notation for. Thus, moving a landmark would mess up the UML class diagram notation. Clearly, the long-term goal is to avoid this.

Ad. Visibility: The visibility dimension is well supported: Through maps any part of the landscape can be viewed in any scale, any level of detail; and different maps can juxtapose distant areas side-by-side for easy comparison, or different aspects of the same region can be viewed simultaneously.

4.9.2 Salience—or the lack of it

Our initial psychological motivation (section 4.2) emphasised salience of landmarks. It is the peculiar and salient landmark we note; a town where all houses were alike would quickly make us loose our sense of direction.

Looking at any of the examples in section 4.6, it is clear that salience is *not* a property of landmarks in the current RAGNAROK implementation. On the contrary, landmarks are stereotypical rectangles.

A solution that immediately springs into mind is simply to make the landmarks salient, e.g. by representing them as bitmap images, use a wider range of geometric shapes than just rectangles, etc. These suggestions have some problems. Images deprive the landmarks their transparency property that is important in aspects concerned with overview where viewing 3–4 levels of the architecture is important. Also, if the landscape is to reflect a UML class diagram inspired documentation of the logical architecture, the room for creativeness is rather limited due to the prevailing ‘rectangle-o-mania’ of most notations (the Booch ‘clouds’ being an exception).

Let us step back one moment, however. The wish for salience is to provide visual clues that allows us to identify positions fast and unambiguously. That is, salient landmarks are not a goal in itself but means to achieve sense of locality. It seems this can be achieved without landmark salience. The trick is to let the space between landmarks as well as existence of decorations act as ‘beacons’ instead. As reported by the ConSys team, irregular sizes and positioning of landmarks are important factors in unambiguously identifying a given part of the landscape. As their landscape is completely devoid of decorations, they rely only on this to give sense of locality—and report that they succeed. As for the RAGNAROK project itself, the numerous decorations, whose primary purpose is UML class diagram documentation, all serve an important secondary purpose as ‘beacons’. (The somewhat unfortunate conclusion is that what we denote ‘landmarks’ have less ‘landmarkness’ than other entities in the landscape.)

Another idea is to ‘humanise’ rectangles. Ask any person to draw five rectangles on a piece of paper—and none of them will be exactly alike. In a design project at our university, one researcher noted that it was easier to overview and navigate the initial hand-drawn diagrams than the later machine generated ones. If one could draw the rectangles in an ‘unperfect’, but reproducible unperfect, way—edges incorrectly joined, varying gray-levels and width of lines, sloping/curved lines—these small cues may provide better salience of landmarks. This task is more demanding than it may sound; a small, naive, experiment was quickly abandoned as it produced rectangles that were *ugly* and still looked very ‘machine-ish’. Producing shapes that could pass as being made by a human, may be a topic in its own right.

4.9.3 Positional Stability—or the lack of it

Positional stability is even more important than salience for our sense of locality. The occasional reorganisation of shelves in the favourite supermarket costs a lot of extra time shopping the first couple of times.

Consequently, for the proposed visual model to be beneficial, we must assume a relatively stable landscape—and thereby a relatively stable architecture. Is this a viable assumption in general? This question has several facets.

First, there is a question of granularity of change. It is reasonable to believe there is no *major* architectural reorganisation taking place every second day. (If this is indeed the case, the team has a serious problem, much worse than lost sense of direction in the landscape.) Most architectural rearrangements will take place at a relative fine level of granularity: Adding some classes, change a few dependencies, etc. These should be possible without major effect on the overall

architecture and landscape, and thus the overview and overall framework for navigation should be evolving slowly.

Secondly, once a given architecture is largely implemented it is very costly to do major reorganisations: Much code must be modified leading to introduction of new and even old bugs requiring new rounds of testing and debugging.

The question of positional stability has implications also for what phase of a development project the RAGNAROK visual model is most efficient for. Clearly early analysis and design phases are characterised by rapid and radical changes in the overall structure and an approach based on stable positions is less valuable. In this phase, clearly, the tool must provide additional navigation tools, like e.g. searching for a component with a given name.

The result from the case study, that location-based search is effective, has wider implications. There is an abundance of graphical design- and architecture notations and numerous tools to create and edit such diagrams, CASE tools being a special class. Therefore one important conclusion of the experience with the visual model can be summed in a recommendation for users of ordinary diagram- and CASE tools:

It is recommended that the spatial layout of diagrams should be as stable as possible.

4.9.4 Other Architecture- and Project Views

RAGNAROK visualises the logical design architecture. As Green and Petre points out [GP96, p. 134], any visualisation has a *cognitive fit* to the problems at hand; and there is inherently a trade-off between different views: A visualisation focusing on data-flow makes it difficult to express and overview control flow whereas the opposite is true in a control flow focused visualisation.

Clearly, the tasks that are cognitive fit with a logical view are well supported by RAGNAROK and as we have tried to argue, there are many important tasks in software development that fit well.

There are other tasks and views that are less fit for this visualisation. During a project's planning phase, tasks must be defined, staffed, and scheduled; here the emphasis is on the time aspect and RAGNAROK's visualisation unsuitable.

4.9.5 Visualisation and Architectural Consistency

On several occasions, questions have been raised concerning RAGNAROK's accuracy and consistency of the visualised architecture (as-designed, see [Kaz96]) compared to the system's real architecture (as-built) as manifested by the underlying source code.

First of all, RAGNAROK does not attempt to ensure such consistency at present. Secondly, RAGNAROK does not attempt to reverse engineer or reconstruct the architectures of existing systems. Both endeavours are candidates for future research. However, they are not considered high priority for two reasons: Consistency is difficult to ensure, and secondly RAGNAROK's visualisation is meant to stress overview even at the expense of accuracy.

The dream of perfect synchronisation between design and actual code is an old one. Commercial CASE tools generate source code from design diagrams, and some attempt to reverse engineer existing source code back into diagrams; often producing a result of little or no value. The Freja CASE tool [CS96, San93a] is taking this to the extreme as both it and its cousin, the Sif structure editor [San93b], directly manipulate the underlying abstract syntax tree; and therefore with some weight claims a one-to-one correspondence between design and code. In our opinion, even the Freja approach suffers major problems. To handle relations, like composition and association, between classes, Freja must rely on using a small set of standard implementations; implementing a relation in another way (say, to achieve better speed or size performance) means that it will not show in the design diagram and thus will introduce a discrepancy.

Another and perhaps more important question is what purpose a architectural/design description has: Conveying the ‘grand picture’ or absolute accuracy? Any realistic piece of software will contain a large number of classes that support actual implementation but have little relevance for the overall architecture. This is even more pronounced if one considers the *relations* between all classes. Showing these components and relations in an architectural view generates noise that may be annoying at best and severely damaging overview at worst.

Of course, one can argue in length whether this postulate is true, and one may also rightly argue that everything is important at some level of detail. However, as an example, consider classes, well-known from most APIs, like `Date`, `Button`, and `MenuItem`. Though important in the API development project, there will be thousands of other projects where architectural diagrams would be obscured if every component using e.g. `Date` should draw a UML association-type line to this class. Another concrete example is given by Kazman: The Dali architecture reconstruction tool [KC99] relies heavily on interactive filtering by an expert with code insight to produce an understandable architecture from the source code of a system—in the initial stage where all components and relations are extracted from the raw code, diagrams are an unwieldy tangle. The standpoint taken in RAGNAROK is that the *interpretation* and *understanding* of an architecture is important.

4.9.6 The Captivating Third Dimension

The RAGNAROK user interface does not claim a comprehensive psychological foundation, but nevertheless Tolman’s theories underpin the work. But these theories deal with human navigation in a physical world, not navigation on a map. Anyone who has tried to make sense of a map knows that relating features of reality and of a map can be difficult. This poses the question: Can we transfer our claimed fine spatial perception to the process of dealing with maps as RAGNAROK implicitly does?

A master student at DAIMI has addressed this question indirectly, namely by trying to drive the spatial metaphor to its limit. Using the virtual reality modelling language, VRML, he has created a virtual, 3-dimensional, software landscape for the RAGNAROK project [Grø98]. In his model, components are visualised as boxes, hierarchical composition by stacking: A part component’s box is stacked on top of the box representing the component, it is part of. This

was chosen as a zenith view of the box world is similar to the well-known 2D landscape of RAGNAROK.

Three dimensions hold some promises. A box has five visible sides in this box implementation and therefore more space available for displaying information. And three dimensions may also provide a higher level of salience, as there is more space available for varying shapes and provide texture. Also humans are more used to navigation in three dimensions than on maps.

The lessons from Grøhøj's work, however, suggest that it is difficult to realise the envisioned potential; at least in the simple stacked-box approach adopted. Two major problems were identified:

- Navigation problems. The VRML browsers have too many degrees of freedom in navigation so often the landscape tilts dramatically, turns upside down, etc. If very detailed control of the controls is not exercised, the resulting travel is very unlike everyday experience—we seldom move around our town or house flying upside down.
- Lack of transparency. In contrast to the usually transparent RAGNAROK landmarks, the boxes were opaque. Thus if the landscape was viewed from one of the sides, most landmarks are obscured by those in front.

Some of these problems may be remedied: Providing navigation controls that make travelling more like everyday experience; boxes may be displayed as wire-frames instead of opaque objects, etc. Still, the conclusion is that going to 3D is not straight forward, and it requires future work and research to make the extra dimension a benefit. Another point is that maps, as used in the present 2D RAGNAROK, have some intrinsically nice properties. Travel in physical space takes time; pointing at a location on a map and being transported there instantly is fast—an old dream that is still science fiction. A 3D based user interface will probably make use of some kind of maps (3D maps?) to provide this functionality.



4.10 The Potential of Geographic Space

In section 4.4.3 and 4.6 some potential aspects and examples of using geographic spatialisation were described. However, we think the idea holds further promise. It should be emphasised that these ideas are untested at present.

4.10.1 Geographic Space for General Purpose Visualisation

The visual model has been presented in the context of software architecture and software development. We think, however, that the model has wider use.

In general, the model seems viable for *hierarchical, relatively stable, structures that are negotiated often by a set of users*. Stability has already been discussed, but it is also important that spatial memory fade (as any human memory) and consequently the model seems less interesting for structures that are seldom visited. The map aspect property is also interesting for structures where entities hold data in multiple dimensions.

An obvious candidate for visualisation using the model is file-system directory structures, as an alternative to, e.g., MacFinder, Windows Explorer, or the shell `cd` and `dir/ls` commands.

4.10.2 To Work is to Be (Somewhere)

Envision a very close binding between the RAGNAROK environment and a programming language environment or source code editor. Then RAGNAROK could receive continuous and detailed information about what parts of the software the individual developer is working on. And, to work in the architecture means to be in some specific position in the software landscape. Thus, a natural step could be to visualise *presence* in the landscape. People that are working very closely together should be able to tell RAGNAROK to display the presence of a selection of other team members, perhaps in the form of telepointers, as explored in for instance Self [SMU95]. In a same-time, different-place, setting these cursors could act as channels of communication by for instance establishing a audio- or video link to the person, the cursor represents.

This way, an awareness of work progress is visualised in a very concrete and direct way. Also, potential conflicts may be solved even before they are born, as developers may postpone working on parts of the system that they can see other developers are currently modifying.

The outlined idea, however, also carries the seed of misuse and a flavour of ‘Big Brother is Watching You’. It may quite easily give the individual developer a sensation of ‘the manager is watching me all the time’. Whether the technique is a benefit or a pain is a question the individual team must answer.

4.10.3 Geographical Interpretation of Link Enactment

Hypertext and hypermedia is in wide use today, not at least as the underlying paradigm for the world wide web. The concept of investigating items of interest just by clicking a mouse button is a strong one, and hyperlinks also have many uses in a programming- and development context. Well know examples include having links between name uses and definitions in a programming language, between code fragments and the description of the requirement, it implements, etc.

The problem with hyperlinks is that one can quite easily and quickly loose one’s sense of direction—a situation often termed ‘getting lost in hyper-space’ [MDR91]. After following a few links, you do not know where you are, how you got there, how to get back to the main text/data, or what the context is of the displayed material.

RAGNAROK holds the promise of providing a spatial interpretation of hyperlink enacting; enacting a hyperlink is metaphorically speaking a travel from one part of a system to another. This travel could be visualised by a smooth movement of the developers own cursor/cross-hair (see previous section) across a map; potentially combined with a zoom and pan of the map’s displayed region if the target location is outside it.



4.11 Related Work

Few software development environments base their visualisation on a geographical metaphor. However, similar approaches have been published in various other fields.

4.11.1 CASE tools

Looking at map (5) in Fig. 4.6, Ragnarok may resemble a UML diagram editor or CASE tool, exemplified by e.g. Rational Rose [Ros]. However, the focus of CASE tools and Ragnarok is different.

CASE tools focus on improving developer productivity by allowing design to be drawn graphically in standard notations such as Booch [Boo91], OMT [RBP⁺91], or UML [BRJ97], which is then used to generate a source code skeleton. Often, tools are also equipped with reverse-engineering capabilities that (at least in theory) allows diagrams to be kept consistent with implemented source code. The problems of ensuring consistency between as-designed and as-built architecture have already been touched upon in section 4.9.5. Though CASE tools certainly serve an important role in emphasising high-level architecture over low-level code, and the explicit visualisation of the architecture facilitate communication, it does not seem like a primary purpose. The tool usage seems focused 'up-front' and less so in implementation and maintenance.

In contrast, the emphasis in Ragnarok is foremost on making an architecture manifest in a landscape used by all stake-holders in the project and let this landscape serve as mediator for most, if not all, of the tasks that must be performed through the life-cycle of the project. The landscape furthermore serve as a visualisation framework for a wide range of purposes, all the way from finding strings in the source code to locating components that exceed budget. This way, the same architecture conveys meaning to a wider set of stake-holders than the more design- and development oriented approach by traditional CASE tools.

Nevertheless, adding code generation and reverse engineering capabilities to RAGNAROK is of course appealing.

Another interesting, and teasing, question is the following: 'If we take a CASE tool (or diagram editor for that matter) and simply instruct our designers and coders *not* to move the class- and class-category boxes unless it is absolutely necessary—wouldn't we achieve the much the same functionality as RAGNAROK?' One aspect of the answer has already been given in section 4.9.3, namely that the recommendation of positional stability is a good one, so in this respect one *would* achieve some of the same benefits. On the other hand, RAGNAROK provides a great deal of functionality that supports the underlying space metaphor, not found in ordinary CASE tools: RAGNAROK offers the choice of choosing the level of abstraction at which to view the design, through the depth parameter; in contrast most CASE tools only support a single level of abstraction. A mediating landscape emphasises an active and daily use of diagrams more than ordinary diagram tools; maps emphasise the underlying spatiality; and by overlaying the same landscape with different data aspects more stake-holders are confronted with the architecture.

4.11.2 Pad

Another interesting comparison is to Pad++ [BHP⁺96, BH94, PF93]. Pad++ is an innovative and powerful 2D visualisation system. In Pad++ the user manipulate objects on an infinitely zoomable 2D surface. The Pad++ system incorporates a very effective engine for panning and zooming. The objects on the surface are text, simple graphics, and images. The underlying landscape metaphor employed in Ragnarok is similar to the infinitely zoomable ('rubber') surface in Pad++.

One difference is the map layer that is put between the user and the landscape. A map has the aspect property that only with some difficulty can be simulated in Pad++: Pad++ provides *portals* that allows different regions of the surface to be viewed at the same time, and *lenses* that can provide different visual presentations of the same underlying object, say a slider or textual representation of an integer object. Combining a portal and a lens would thus provide functionality similar to a map; however the lens and portal object must be moved individually. Another consequence is that an unbalance is introduced between the 'true' landscape without lenses and the 'distorted' one viewed through one or more lenses. Map aspects in RAGNAROK in contrast, are explicit that they represent just one dimension of the 'truth'.

The most important difference, however, is the *objects* handled. In Pad++ objects directly *are* on the Pad surface; in contrast landmarks serve as visual *representations* of a complex, multi-dimensional, data-structure of the underlying component. In other words, landmarks *are* not the actual data, as in Pad++. Therefore Ragnarok uses the *same* region to visualise *different* data in different aspect maps (e.g. grep matches or version information). Pad++'s portals and lenses in contrast provide different visual representations of the *same* data, say a slider or textual representation of an integer object. The aspect property of Ragnarok is essential because of the multi-dimensional nature of software.

4.11.3 SeeSoft

The visual scripting facilities are inspired by the interesting work in the Bell Labs 'SeeSoft' systems [BE96, BE95]. SeeSoft is a powerful tool for visualising properties of text files (source code) in a highly compact form. Individual lines in the source code are represented by colour coded text lines, pixel lines or even individual pixels. Compared to SeeSoft the Ragnarok visual layout is less compact due to the 'unused' space between the landmarks but on the other hand it carries valuable information in itself compared to SeeSoft which sorts files alphabetically; an approach that does not take spatial memory into account over file renames and deletion/addition. The stable layout is important as it eases comparisons (like profiling information before and after an optimisation phase) and the distribution and density of 'hot spots' in itself provides valuable clues to system properties as mentioned in section 4.6.4.

4.11.4 SAAMtool

SAAMtool is a tool [Kaz96] developed to support architectural analysis, specifically in context of SAAM: the Software Architecture Analysis Method [KABC96].

Though the scope of SAAMtool is clearly different, namely architecture *analysis*, there are interesting similarities in the underlying emphasis. Kazman emphasises the tool's ability to aggregate architectural elements recursively and associate meaningful semantics with elements at any level of abstraction; and aid in architectural design as a creative activity. Visualisation of the architecture helps as a high-level communication between stake-holders with the team. Finally, it is emphasised '*... to be able to visualise information about a software architecture in the same tool that we create and maintain the architecture*'. RAGNAROK tries to go a bit further as the visualised architecture also mediates daily development activities.

SAAM emphasises *scenarios* as a technique to capture and analyse architectural quality attributes, such as portability, safety, performance, etc., and argues that the tool should act as repository of scenarios. As an example a set of modification scenarios were analysed and the implications visualised by sizing rectangles representing the architectural components such that the large ones express more modifications. An interesting line of future work would be to analyse if scenarios can be viewed as annotations of components and thus be handled within the current framework; then similar information could be made available in RAGNAROK by using landmark colour coding instead of size.

SAAMtool supports multiple views [Kru95] on architecture: Dynamic view, code view, allocation to hardware, etc. These distinct views are interrelated though links between the views' respective entities. As already mentioned in section 2, RAGNAROK perceive the logical/static architecture as the fundamental and focus on this. This does not exclude that the technique of an underlying geographic space metaphor and visualisation through maps to be employed on other views. Though this would result in several, coexisting and interrelated, landscapes (dynamic landscape, process landscape, etc.) we may still benefit from a spatial layout. The question is, of course, whether these views are stable enough over time to enable building an efficient, spatial and cognitive, map.

4.11.5 Desktop Space Metaphors

No comparison is complete without contrasting the Ragnarok visual model to well-known desktop space metaphors like the Macintosh Finder or Windows desktop. In Finder, objects (files/directories) are represented by icons that, when clicked, expands into a window showing its contents (part objects). These only shows one level of the part/whole hierarchy and therefore navigation typically spawns many new windows. In contrast most Ragnarok aspects show 3–4 levels of the hierarchy and thus shows context and avoids intermediate maps during navigation.

More important, however, is the underlying spatial model: In Ragnarok all landmarks have a specific, relative, position with respect to all other landmarks—you can always answer the question: 'Does landmark A lie left of landmark B?' In contrast, MacFinder objects only have a position relative to the window it is part of but not to objects in other windows: You cannot tell the position of MyMac:FolderA:Document1 relative to MyMac:FolderB:Document2 in general, only where they are relative to each other in your current, transient, layout of your desktop. Therefore the Finder spatial reference frame is weaker and more difficult to remember, share, and communicate in a team.

4.11.6 Spatialisation of Hypertext

Spatial organisation has also received attention within the hypertext community. An often reported problem with hypertext systems is the sensation of ‘getting-lost-in-hyperspace’ users experience after following many hyperlinks: Not knowing where they are in the text, difficulty in understanding how the viewed material relates to previous material, and not knowing how to get back to previous material.

A group at Xerox PARC has been working on spatial hypertext [Mar92, MI93, MIC94, MI96] where text-nodes are organised in 2D space as opposed the traditional node-link traversal model. Use of a spatial hypertext prototype, Aquanet, is reported in [Mar92]. Aquanet is a collaborative hypertext tool for knowledge structuring tasks, like analysis and argumentation, and used in the reported case study to organise information about automatic language translation tools.

In context of RAGNAROK, their case study made some interesting observations, though it was in a different domain. The perhaps most important is that:

Instead of articulating how different types of objects were related, users conveyed implicit relational structures through the use of spatial layout.

[Mar92, p. 57]

This observation supports our hypothesis about semantics of position, section 4.5.1. In their model, they have deal with multiple references to the same object through *virtual copies*: All copies share the same graphic appearance and selecting one selects all visible copies. They do not report this problematic and it addresses a problem the current RAGNAROK prototype cannot handle, namely that of reusing architectural bits in various parts of a landscape for documentation purposes, say an observer pattern [GHJV94] in different contexts. They also report the naturalness of proximity-based structures [MI93, p. 223], i.e. entities that are logically related entities are located close to each other; an argument in favour of RAGNAROK’s spatial containment.



4.12 Future Work

In its current state, it is fair to characterise the implementation of the visual model as immature, and the experiences with it as insufficient. Some technical obstacles have in part been responsible for the state of matter: The underlying Lidskjalv graphical library for Windows NT has until recently been immature in a number of key areas required by the RAGNAROK visual model, resulting in the late introduction of the prototype for the ConSys project. The BETA compiler team has been reluctant to change from RCM to RAGNAROK, primarily due to lack of time, but also partly from an ergonomic point of view (a majority of the team are savage ‘mouse-haters’), and because RAGNAROK cannot be operated from shell-scripts.

4.12.1 Visualising Relation Types

Compositional relations are visualised using spatial containment. The underlying software architecture model allows other types of architectural relations to be stated also, such as functional dependency and inheritance, but these are not visualised presently. An obvious way to visualise these is to use the ‘box-and-line’ approach, i.e. use decorations to show these relations coded in, say, UML.

The main reason that the prototype does not already visualise these relation types this way, is the complexity of implementing a reasonable layout algorithm as well as an intuitive user interface—an interesting exercise but beyond the scope of the current work.

However, it is important to provide this visualisation as is particularly stressed by the interview of the ConSys team that had forgotten to state dependencies after the introduction of RAGNAROK.

4.12.2 Visualising Architectural Reuse

One of the mantras in our quest to reduce software costs is *reuse*. Reusing a component or a sub-configuration of components is important in any project, but may pose a special problem in the context of our visual model. As an example, consider a container class hierarchy defined in a library component that we want to use in, say, both a business- and graphics module. If we want to document this explicitly in class diagram notation on the landscape we may easily end up wanting to show the same container component in different places in the landscape; but the RAGNAROK visual model demands that a component is assigned a unique position and thus the same container classes cannot be displayed both in the library, business- and graphics regions of the design landscape.

To overcome this problem, we need to partially compromise our requirement that ‘things are in one place only’. Our suggestion is to provide ‘shadow’ landmarks (shown grayed or with special frames for instance) that act as links to the real landmarks, positioned elsewhere in the landscape. Aquanet has explored this technique, where replicated entities are denoted *virtual copies* [Mar92]. Actions are forwarded to the real landmark and a special action should be to initiate a zoom and pan travel to the real landmark.

4.12.3 Run-Time Aspect Definition

Requirements on visualisations vary from one project to another. Providing just the right set of map aspects for any given situation therefore seems like a never-ending story.

Instead of hard-coding how an aspect acts with respect to processing data in the underlying components and how the result should influence landmark appearance, we would like to define a schema or language that allows users to provide their own aspects at run-time.

4.12.4 Semantic Zoom

Pad++ (section 4.11.2) introduced the concept of semantic zooming, i.e. the appearance of an object varies according to the zoom level it is seen in. Ragnarok

presently have limited support for this capability (e.g. if visual landmarks are very small, they do not try to put text in the interior), but it is an beneficial extension: When landmarks appears physically small on the display they should only convey summary information as e.g. a colour coding; when zoomed in the landmark itself could begin to display more detailed information in its interior.



Chapter 5

Bridging the Gap

The main contributions of the present work are the architectural software configuration management model and the geographical architecture visualisation model. Both contributions can be described and understood with little reference to the other. A future goal is to ‘bridge the gap’ between these two efforts and join them into a more cohesive whole. A bridge must be passable in both directions—in our context this leads to the questions of versioning the landscape and visualising version control in the landscape.



5.1 Versioning the Landscape

The underlying software architecture is under version- and configuration-control. Presently, this is unfortunately not the case for the landscape. Ideally, checking out an old version of a system should reestablish the landscape as it appeared at the time of check-in.

This simple and natural idea, however, opens a potential can of worms in case of mixed configurations. It is not difficult to imagine an older sub-configuration whose sub-landscape occupies a region now occupied by other landmarks. Thus, checking out this sub-configuration would render the full landscape illegal at worst or messy and unreadable at best. However, we think this problem is an intrinsic property that cannot easily be remedied. Rather, one should support switching between the two landscape versions in order to compare the two.

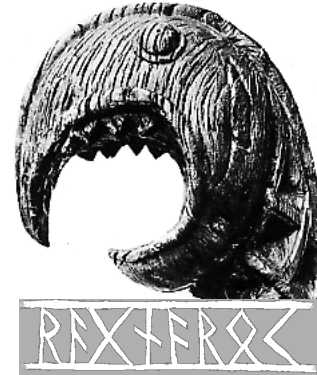


5.2 Visualising Versions

Each landmark represents a component, or more correctly, the component version presently in workspace. But each component version is member of the version group representing the evolution of the component. The version control aspect, outlined in section 4.6.3, focus on latest development only, not on historical aspects. But history is important, and the question is how to visualise this naturally and simple? This may be especially important in our case as the architectural model handles configurations and thereby historical, evolving, relations between components.

A proposal is envisioned where a historical map aspect could visualise version graphs inside landmarks, and the individual component versions could be linked with arrows showing the relations. This enables a visual presentation looking like the figures presented in chapter 3. Only arrows for the rooted configuration of a selected component should be shown to avoid a mess of arrows. The selection of a component version could simply be mouse clicks on the visual presentation. Also, clicking on individual component versions should allow developers to browse more detailed version information (log messages, author, date, etc.).

Other useful visualisations entail describing number of code changes (substance changed) over a given period of time through colour coding, and architectural differences could be visualised through highlighting components whose relation sets contains additions or removals between two versions.



Chapter 6

Conclusion

The vision of the RAGNAROK project is to provide a software development environment that lowers the cost of managing and presenting important project data without introducing substantial overhead in the development process. The main hypothesis is that a software system's logical architecture provides a sound and natural framework for handling many aspects of the development process, and thus enables us to fulfil this vision.

This main hypothesis has been used as inspiration in the specific context of three areas, considered essential in large scale software development. For each of these three areas, a proposal for support has been formulated as a hypothesis:

Ad. Project Management:

1. *The logical software architecture can be annotated with the data relevant for the process of managing and implementing it.*

Ad. Management of Evolution:

2. *The logical software architecture is a natural framework for version- and configuration control.*

Ad. Comprehension and Navigation:

3. *The logical software architecture should be visually manifest in a geographical organised 'software landscape'. This software landscape should be the focal point of the development environment by being shared in the team and by mediating daily activities.*

Based upon these hypotheses, the RAGNAROK software development environment prototype has been designed and implemented. This prototype (and

its companion, RCM) has been used in in three case studies covering small- to medium sized projects over a period of about three years.

The case studies have assessed the validity of the hypotheses. At present, the most well-supported is hypothesis 2: The long and continued use of the prototypes has shown that doing configuration management through the software's logical architecture is viable and beneficial. The case studies have also supported hypothesis 3, especially concerning the value of a geographic space metaphor for enhancing sense of locality and navigation. Both hypotheses indirectly addresses the issue of *communication and collaboration* within the team. The evidence for improved communication and collaboration from the case studies is indirect at best, the architectural software configuration management provides a framework for managing collaboration on physical data but as any SCM tool would do that assessing the added value of an architectural basis is difficult. Also, it has been argued that a manifest architecture is valuable to enhance high-level communication within the team, an argument that the present case study material has not been able to support for several reasons: Team inexperience, physical oriented architectures, and the immaturity of the RAGNAROK prototype. Finally, the ambitious hypothesis 1 requires functionality of the prototype that has barely been scratched at, and therefore remains unsupported so far.

In summary, we feel that the main hypothesis—that software architecture is an ideal framework for handling aspects of the development process—is supported in the present work. Further work is certainly needed to better substantiate hypotheses 1, but nevertheless the relative success in the case studies shows that the logical aspect of software architecture holds promise as a framework for handling many project aspects.

However, the contribution of the RAGNAROK project is less the validation of the main hypothesis in the vision, as it is the individual contributions of the developed models: The architectural software configuration management model and the geographic space architecture visualisation model.

The architectural software configuration management model has contributed by showing that software configuration management models based on version first selection, total versioning, are feasible and practical. Previous work in COOP/Orm and POEM has focused at the fine-grained level of abstraction and the tools have not been used at the level of real software development. Thus, the experience in RAGNAROK complements these works. Another key insight is to have demonstrated that the widespread fear of 'version proliferation' in version first selection based systems is groundless, or at least exaggerated, for software architectures that adhere to standard software engineering principles.

The visualisation model has highlighted the benefits of basing a visual presentation on a geographic space metaphor to enhance navigation, sense of locality, and overview. The use of maps and map aspects has been explored to show, how different dimensions of the underlying data can be visualised in a uniform way, easing comparisons and reinforcing spatial memory. The proposal and the results may be relevant for other multi-dimensional data with a relative stable, hierarchical, structure. The results can also be coined in a recommendation for

of-the-shelf software design- and diagram tools, namely that positional stability, and irregularities of size and position of visual entities, is important to enhance recognition and navigation within large diagrams.



Availability

The RAGNAROK and RCM prototypes are available from the RAGNAROK download page

<http://www.daimi.au.dk/hbc/Ragnarok/download>

at no charge.

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