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On the Composition of Design Patterns

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Abstract

Design patterns are usually applied in a composed form with each other. It is crucial to be able to formally reason about how patterns can be composed and to prove the properties of composed patterns. Based on our previous work on formal specification of design patterns and formal reasoning about their properties, this paper focuses on the composition of design patterns. A notion of composition of patterns with respect to overlaps is formally defined based on two operations on design patterns, which are the specialisation of a pattern with constraints and the lifting of a pattern with a subset of components as the key. The composition of design patterns is illustrated by the composition of Composite, Strategy and Observer patterns. A case study of the formalisation of the relationship between patterns as suggested by GoF is also reported.

1 Introduction

Design patterns are codified reusable knowledge of solutions to recurring design problems [9, 1]. In the past few years, a large number of software design patterns have been described, cataloged [9, 1] and included in software tools [11, 16, 14]. While each design pattern is usually specified separately, they are rarely used alone. They are almost always used together as a composition. A trivial form of composition is when they are used in different parts of a system without overlaps. However, in most cases, there are overlaps on the parts that design pattens are applied. Thus, this paper is devoted to the composition where there are overlaps.

In our previous work, we developed a technique for the formal specification of design patterns in first order logic. We have successfully specified all 23 design patterns in the classic GoF book [9] on both structural features [2] and behavioral features [5]. A formal theory has been developed for the uses of formal specifications in reasoning about design patterns [3]. In particular, we have investigated how to prove that a concrete design represented in UML diagrams

conforms to a design pattern, how to deduce the properties of a design pattern from the specification, and how to reason about the relationship between design patterns. The notion of pattern composition has also been defined and preliminarily studied. This paper further develops the theory and reports a case study.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the background to the paper with a brief review of our approach to the formalization of design patterns and the reasoning about design patterns. Section 3 is the main body of the paper. It defines the notions of overlaps and composition with overlaps. Properties of such compositions are formally proved. Section 4 illustrates the theory with the example of the MVC pattern, which is the composition of $Composite$, $Strategy$ and $Observer$. A case study of the relationships between pattern as suggested in GoF [9] is also reported. Section 5 concludes the paper with a discussion of related works and future work.

2 Background

This section briefly reviews our approach to the formal specification of and to reasoning about design patterns in order to give the background to the remainder of the paper.

Generally speaking, our approach is a meta-modeling approach. Each pattern is a subset of the design models with certain structural and behavioral features. Therefore, the formal specification of patterns is a meta-modeling problem. As in [2, 5], our approach to meta-modeling is first to define the domain of all models by an abstract syntax in the meta-notation GEBNF [21], which stands for Graphic Extension of BNF. It extends the traditional BNF notation with a 'reference' facility to define the graphic structures of diagrams. In addition, each syntactic element in a definition of a language construct is assigned with an identifier (called *field name*) so that a first-order language (FOL) can be induced from the abstract syntax definition. Given a formal definition of the domain of models, for each design pattern, we then define a predicate in the induced first-order language to constrain the models such that each model that satisfies the predicate is an instance of the pattern.

In summary, a meta-model in our approach comprises an abstract syntax in GEBNF plus a first-order predicate. The following expands the specification of an example pattern according to our approach.

2.1 The Domain of Models

In this subsection, we first review the meta-notation GEBNF [21, 2] and then use it to define the domain of models for class diagrams and sequence diagrams.

2.1.1 GEBNF Notation

In GEBNF, the abstract syntax of a modeling language is defined as a tuple $\langle R, N, T, S \rangle$, where N is a finite set of non-terminal symbols such as $ClassDiag$, and T is a finite set of terminal symbols, such as $String$. Non-terminal symbols represents the constructs of the modeling language. Each terminal symbol represents a specific value that can occur in a model, such as a string of characters that can occur in a class node as the name of a class. Furthermore, $R \in N$ is the root symbol and S is a finite set of production rules of the form $Y ::= Exp$, where $Y \in N$ and Exp can be in one of the following two forms.

$$L_1 : X_1, L_2 : X_2, \cdots, L_n : X_n$$
$$X_1 | X_2 | \cdots | X_n$$

where $L_1, L_2, \cdots, L_n$ are field names, and $X_1, X_2, \cdots, X_n$ are the fields. Each field can be in one of the following forms: $Y, Y*, Y+, [Y], \underline{Y}$, where $Y \in N \cup T$.

The meaning of the meta-notation is given in Table 1. Note that where an element is underlined, it is a reference to an existing element on the diagram as opposed to the introduction of a new element.

2.1.2 Meta-Model of UML Diagrams

For the sake of simplicity and to save space, a simplified meta-model of UML class and sequence diagrams [17] is defined by removing some less commonly used attributes and flattening the inheritance hierarchy between meta-classes. The following is the definition in GEBNF. More details can be found in [5].

$ClassDiag ::= classes : Class^+, assocs : Rel^*,$
    $inherits : Rel^*, compag : Rel^*$
$Class ::= name : String,$
    $[attrs : Property^*], [opers : Operation^*]$
$Operation ::= name : String, [params : Parameter^*]$
    $[isAbstract : Bool], [isQuery : Bool],$
    $[isLeaf : Bool], [isNew : Bool], [isStatic : Bool]$
$Parameter ::= [name : String], [type : Type],$

$[direction : ParaDirKind], [mult : Multiplicity]$
$ParaDirKind ::= \text{“}in\text{”} \mid \text{“}inout\text{”} \mid \text{“}out\text{”} \mid \text{“}return\text{”}$
$Multiplicity ::=$
    $[lower : Natural], [upper : Natural | \text{“}*\text{”}]$
$Property ::= name : String, type : Type,$
    $[isStatic : Bool], [mult : Multiplicity]$
$Rel ::= [name : String], source : End, end : End$
$End ::= node : \underline{Class}, [name : String],$
    $[mult : Multiplicity]$

Here, $Natural$ denotes the type of natural numbers, $Bool$ the type of boolean values, and $String$ the type of character strings.

$SequenceDiagram ::=$
    $lifelines : Lifeline^*, msgs : Message^*,$
    $ordering : (\underline{Message}, \underline{Message})^*$
$Lifeline ::=$
    $activations : Activation^*, isStatic : Bool,$
    $className : String, [objectName : String]$
$Activation ::= start, finish : Event, others : Event^*$
$Message ::= send, receive : \underline{Event}, sig : \underline{Operation}$

2.2 Induced First Order Language

As shown in [21], an abstract syntax in GEBNF induces a first-order language for writing first-order predicates as constraints on the models.

In a GEBNF definition, every field $f : X$ of a term T introduces a function $f : T \rightarrow X$. Function application is written $x.f$ for function f and argument x. For example, because $opers : Operation^*$ is a field of $Class$, then $C.opers$ denotes the set of operations in class C. When there is just one class diagram or one sequence diagram, functions on them are written without their arguments, as $classes, lifelines$ etc.

From functions induced from a GEBNF syntax, first-order predicates can be defined as usual using relations and operators on sets and basic data types and using logic connectives and quantifiers. Further functions and relations can be defined as usual in the first-order logic. For the sake of readability, we will also use infix and prefix forms for defined functions and relations. Thus, we also write the application of function f to argument x with the more conventional prefix notation $f(x)$.

Let f be any formula in the first order language induced from a given GEBNF definition of models, and m be any valid model according to the GEBNF definition. The evaluation of the formula f on m in the context of an assignment α of free variables occurred in f to elements in m is defined as usual in the first order language, and we write

Table 1. Meanings of the GEBNF Notation

Notation	Meaning	Example	Explanation
$X_1 \mid \cdots \mid X_n$	Choice	$Actor \mid UseCase$	Either an actor node or a use case node.
$L_1 : X_1, \cdots, L_k : X_k$	Fields	$Name : String,$ $Attr : Attribute^*,$ $Meth : Method^*$	Three fields consists of a $Name$, a number of $Attributes$ and $Methods$
X^*	Repetition	$Diagram^*$	N diagrams, where $N \geq 0$.
X^+	Non-nil repetition	$Diagram^+$	N diagrams, where $N \geq 1$.
$[X]$	Optional	$[Actor]$	Actor is optional.
$\underline{X}$	Reference	$\underline{ClassNode}$	A reference to an existing class node in the model.

$Eva_\alpha(f, m)$ to denote the value of the evaluation in the context of α. A formula is called a predicate, if its value is a truth value. In particular, if the evaluation of a ground predicate (i.e. without free variables) on a model m results in the value $true$, we say that the model m satisfies the predicate f, and write $m \models f$. We will also write $p \vdash q$ if we can deduce formula q from p in the first order logic. By the semantic consistency of first order languages, we have the following proposition.

Proposition 1.
Let p and q be any given ground predicates on models in a given domain D defined by a GEBNF definition. If $p \vdash q$, we have that for all models $m \in D$, $m \models p$ implies $m \models q$. □

Here follows some functions and relations used in many patterns. For the sake of space, their formal definitions are omitted, but they can be found in [5].

We write $C_1 \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow C_2$, $C_1 \longrightarrow\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\!\! C_2$, and $C_1 \longrightarrow C_2$ for the aggregate, inheritance and association relations between classes C_1 and C_2, respectively.

Let C be a class. Then $subs(C)$ denotes the set of concrete subclasses of C. $C..op$ denote the redefinition of op for class C. $isAbstract(C)$ means class C is abstract.

Let m and m' be messages. We write $m < m'$ for $(m, m') \in ordering$. We define $fromAct(m)$ to be the unique activation that m sends to, $fromLL(m)$ to be the unique lifeline that m is from, and $fromClass(m)$ to abbreviate $fromLL(m).class$. Similarly, we define $toAct(m)$, $toLL(m)$ and $toClass(m)$. $trigs(m, m')$ means that message m starts (or "triggers") an activation that sends message m'. For all messages m and objects o, $hasReturnParam(m, o)$ is true if o is the return parameter for m. If there is only one such o for a message m, we write $returns(m) = o$.

For operations op and op', $calls(op, op')$ means op calls op', and we promote this relation to classes. A much-used predicate is $callsHook$, defined when an operation calls another at the root of an inheritance hierarchy.

In the sequel, we define patterns only for design models that are well-formed and consistent with respect to a set of constraints [21]. Such constraints can also be written in the first order logic. Readers are referred to [5] for some examples.

2.3 Formal specification of patterns

Both the structural and behavioural features of patterns can be formally specified as predicates on diagrams in the same way as consistency constraints. We have successfully specified all 23 patterns in the GoF book [9]. Here, we only give one example to illustrate the style and to give the background to the discussions on reasoning about design patterns. More examples will be given later in the paper, but without detailed explanations. The readers are referred to [5] for more details and [4] for a complete list of all specifications of GoF patterns.

For each pattern, the formal specification consists of three parts. The first part, entitled *Components*, declares a set of variables, which are existentially quantified over the scope of all predicates in the specification of the pattern. In this way, it sets the background for the formulae by asserting the existence of certain components in the system design. The second part, entitled *Static Conditions*, consists of a number of predicates for the structural relations between the components. Such predicates can be evaluated using the information contained in the class diagram of a design. The third part, entitled *Dynamic Conditions*, consists of a number of predicates for the dynamic behaviour of the system, using information in the sequence diagram of a design, and sometimes in the class diagram too. In the latter case, consistency between the diagrams is ensured by the consistency constraints. Formally, we have the following definition.

Definition 1 *(Formal Specification of DPs)*
A formal specification of a design pattern is a triple $P = \langle V, Pr_s, Pr_d \rangle$, where Pr_s and Pr_d are predicates on the domain of UML class diagrams and sequence diagrams, respectively, and V is a set of declarations of the variables that are free in the predicates Pr_s and Pr_d. Let $V = \{v_1 : T_1, v_2 : T_2, \cdots v_n : T_n\}$. The semantics of the
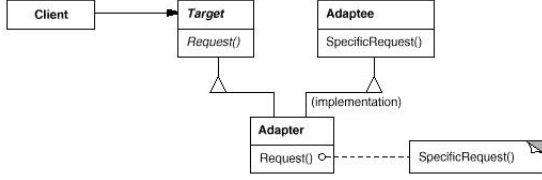
Figure 1. Adapter pattern class diagram

specification is a ground predicate in the following form.

$$\exists v_1 : T_1 \exists v_2 : T_2 \cdots \exists v_n : T_n.(Pr_s \wedge Pr_d) \qquad (1)$$

In the sequel, we write $Spec(P)$ to denote the predicate (1) above, $Vars(P)$ for the set of variables declared in V, and $Pred(P)$ for the predicate $Pr_s \wedge Pr_d$, $Pred_s(P)$ for Pr_s and $Pred_d(P)$ for Pr_d.

For example, the following is the specification of the Adapter design pattern. Here, we omit the text descriptions, context and solutions to save space, but we include the diagrams shown in Figure 1 from the GoF book for the sake of readability.

Specification 1 *(Object Adapter Pattern)*

Components

- $Target, Adapter, Adaptee \in classes,$
- $requests \in Target.opers,$
- $specreqs \in Adaptee.opers$

Static Conditions

- $Adapter \dashrightarrow Target, Adapter \longrightarrow Adaptee,$
- $CDR(Target)$

Dynamic Conditions

- $\forall o \in requests \cdot \exists o' \in specreqs \cdot (calls(o, o'))$

In Specification 1, $CDR(C)$ stands for *client depends on root*, where C is the root class. It means that if a message is sent from a class that is not explicitly mentioned in the pattern then the operation must be declared in the root class. Formally,

$$CDR(C) \equiv \forall m \in msgs \cdot (toClass(m) \in subs(C)$$
$$\Rightarrow m.sig \in toClass(m).opers \wedge$$
$$\exists o \in C.opers \cdot (toClass(m).o = m.sig))$$

The specification given above is for Object Adapter. The Class Adapter pattern has the static condition $Adapter \dashrightarrow Adaptee$ instead of $Adapter \longrightarrow Adaptee$. Moreover, it is only the $Adapter$ class that can send a message to the $Adaptee$. Formally, $\forall m \in msgs \cdot (toClass(m) = Adaptee \Rightarrow fromClass(m) = Adapter)$

2.4 Reasoning about patterns

In the practical application of design patterns, it is desirable to prove that a concrete design really conforms to a design pattern. The following defines the notion of conformance of a concrete design to a pattern.

Definition 2 *(Conformance of a design to a pattern)*
Let m be a model and $P = <V, Pr_s, Pr_d>$ be a formal specification of a design pattern. The model m conforms to the design pattern as specified by P if and only if $m \models Spec(P)$. □

The conformance of a model m to a pattern can be easily proved by finding an assignment α of variables in V to elements in m and evaluating $Pred(P)$ in the context of the assignment α. If the evaluation results in $true$, then the model satisfies the specification. An example of such proofs can be found in [3].

The following theorem proves that such a proof of a model's conformance to a design pattern is valid. The proofs of the theorems given in this section are omitted, but can be found in [3].

Theorem 1 *(Validity of conformance proofs)*
Let m be a model and $P = \langle V, Pr_s, Pr_d \rangle$ be a specification of a design pattern. The model m conforms to the design pattern as specified by P if and only if there is an assignment α from $Vars(P)$ to the elements in m such that $Eva_\alpha(m, Pred(P)) = true$. □.

Given a formal specification of a pattern, we can infer the properties of the systems that conform to the pattern in first order logic. The following theorem proves that properties deduced from the specification in the first order logic are satisfied by all models of the pattern.

Theorem 2 *(Validity of property proofs)*
Let P be a formal specification of a design pattern. $Spec(P) \Rightarrow q$ implies that for all models m such that $m \models P$ we have that $m \models q$. □

There are a number of different kinds of relationships between patterns. Many of the relationships can be defined as logic relations and proved in first order logic. Specialisation is such a relationship.

Definition 3 *(Specialisation relation)*
Let P and Q between design patterns. Pattern P is a specialisation of Q, written $P \Rightarrow Q$, if for all models m, it is the case that m conforms to P implies that m also conforms to Q. □

The specialisation relation between two patterns can be proved by inference in the first order logic that $Spec(P) \Rightarrow Spec(Q)$. The following theorem states that such proofs are valid.

Theorem 3 *(Validity of proofs of specialisation relation)*
Let P and Q be two design patterns. $Spec(P) \Rightarrow Spec(Q)$ implies that $P \Rightarrow Q$, i.e. P is a specialisation of Q. □

3 Composition of design patterns

In this section, we will first define some operations on design patterns, then use these operations to formally define the compositions of design patterns.

3.1 Motivating examples

Before we give the formal definition of composition, let's first see a motivating example.

Specification 2 *(Composite Pattern)*

Components

- $Component, Composite \in classes,$
- $Leafs \subseteq classes,$
- $ops \subseteq Component.opers$

Static Conditions

- $CDR(Component), allAbstract(ops)$
- $\forall l \in Leafs \cdot$
  $(l \longrightarrow Component \wedge \neg(l \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow Component))$
- $isInterface(Component),$
- $Composite \longrightarrow Component$
- $Composite \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow^* Component$

Dynamic Conditions

- $\exists m \in messages \cdot$
  $(toClass(m) = Composite \wedge m.sig \in ops \Rightarrow$
  $\exists m' \in messages \cdot calls(m, m') \wedge m'.sig = m.sig)$
- $\exists m \in messages \cdot$
  $(toClass(m) \in Leafs \wedge m.sig \in ops \Rightarrow$
  $\neg\exists m' \in messages \cdot calls(m, m') \wedge m'.sig = m.sig)$

Consider the $Composite$ and $Adapter$ patterns formally specified in Spec. 2 and 1. Suppose that in the design of a system, we have one leaf class in the $Composite$ pattern and that this class is to be adapted using an Adapter pattern. This specific use of two patterns is a composition of patterns $Composite$ and $Adapter$. To enable this composition to be specified formally, first we need to specialize $Composite$ pattern so that it only contains one leaf component called $Leaf$ rather than in the general case where there is a non-empty set $Leafs$ of leaves. Let this specialised $Composite$ pattern be called $Composite_1$. Moreover, we also need to specify that the component leaf in $Composite_1$ is the adapted component in the $Adapter$ pattern, i.e. the component $Leaf$ in $Composite$ pattern is also the $Target$ component in $Adapter$. Finally, to make the result of composition generally useful, we will also rename the components so that their roles can be understood from their names. For example, we would like to name the component $Leaf$ in $Composite_1$, which overlaps with the $Target$ in $Adapter$, to be the $AdaptedLeaf$. From the above analysis we can see that we need the following operators on design patterns: (a) specialisation of a pattern; (b) composition of pattern with an overlap; (c) renaming the components in a pattern.

Before we formally define the operations and study their properties, let's see a slightly more complicated composition of design patterns.

Specification 3 *(Composite$_1$ Pattern)*

Components

- $Component, Composite, Leaf \in classes,$
- $ops \subseteq Component.opers$

Static Conditions

- $CDR(Component), allAbstract(ops)$
- $Leaf \longrightarrow Component, \neg(Leaf \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow Component))$
- $isInterface(Component),$
- $Composite \longrightarrow Component$
- $Composite \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow^* Component$

Dynamic Conditions

- $\exists m \in messages \cdot$
  $(toClass(m) = Composite \wedge m.sig \in ops \Rightarrow$
  $\exists m' \in messages \cdot calls(m, m') \wedge m'.sig = m.sig)$
- $\exists m \in messages \cdot$
  $(toClass(m) = Leaf \wedge m.sig \in ops \Rightarrow$
  $\neg\exists m' \in messages \cdot calls(m, m') \wedge m'.sig = m.sig)$

When we compose $Composite$ with $Adapter$ pattern, we may want to adapt a number of leaf components in the $Composite$ patterns. Each of the adapted leaves may have a different adapter. We can apply the above operations to define that there are two adapted leaves, three adapted leaves, etc. However, we cannot define a single pattern that can be applied to all these situations. To achieve this objective, we need an operation on patterns such that the result of an application of lifting on a pattern P is a pattern P' with the following property: that a design model m conforms to P' if it contains at least one set of components that matches pattern P. This operation is called $Lift$ in the sequel.

3.2 Specialisation

Let's start with the specialisation operation on patterns.

Definition 4 *(Specialisation operation)*
Let P be given pattern and c be a predicate defined on the components of P, a specialisation of P. A specialisation by imposing a constraint c, written as $P[c]$, is the pattern obtained from P by imposing the predicate c as an additional condition of the pattern. Formally,
$Vars(P[c]) = Vars(P), Pred(P[c]) = (Pred(P) \wedge c)$ □

The following theorem states that by applying a specialisation operation $[c]$ on a pattern P, the result is a pattern that is indeed a specialisation of P.

Theorem 4 *(Specialisation by constraints)*
For all patterns P and valid predicates c, $P[c] \Rightarrow P$.
Proof. By Definition 4, we have that
$$Spec(P[c]) \equiv (Spec(P) \wedge c) \Rightarrow Spec(P).$$
By Theorem 3, we have that $Spec(P[c]) \Rightarrow P$. □

Example 1 *The pattern $Composite_1$ can be formally defined as follows.*

$$Composite_1 = Composite[Leafs = \{Leaf\}].$$

By inference in the first order logic, we can simplify $Composite_1$ to the specification in Spec. 3. □

3.3 Lifting

Informally, the application of the lifting operation on a pattern P results in a pattern P' such that a design model m conforms to P' if it contains at least one set of components that matches pattern P. We will write $P \uparrow$ to denote the result of a lifting on P. So $P \uparrow$ is the pattern in whicha model contains a variable number of instances of pattern P. For example, $Adapter \uparrow$ is the pattern that the design contains a number of $Target$s of adapted classes. For each of them, the system has an $Adapter$ class and an $Adaptee$ class configured as in the $Adapter$ pattern. To indicate that the classes $Adaptee$s and $Adapter$s are varying according to the component $Target$s, we write $Adapter \uparrow Target$. In other words, the component $Target$ in the lifted pattern plays a role similar to the *primary key* in a relational database. Formally, we define the lift operation as follows.

Definition 5 *(Lift Operation)*
Let P be a pattern and $Vars(P) = \{v_1 : T_1, v_2 : T_2, \cdots, v_n : T_n\}$, $n > 0$ and $Spec(P) = p(v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_n)$. Let $V = \{v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_k\}$, $1 \le k < n$, be a subset of the variables of the pattern. The lift of P with V as the key, written $P \uparrow V$, is the pattern defined as follows.

$$Vars(P \uparrow V) = \{vs_1 : \wp T_1, vs_2 : \wp T_2, \cdots, vs_n : \wp T_n\}$$
$$Pred(P \uparrow V) = \forall v_1 \in vs_1 \cdot \forall v_2 \in vs_2 \cdot \forall v_k \in vs_k \cdot$$
$$\exists v_{k+1} \in vs_{k+1} \cdot \exists v_n \in vs_n \cdot p(v_1, v_2, \cdot, v_n)$$
$$\wedge (vs_1 \ne \emptyset) \wedge \cdots \wedge (vs_k \ne \emptyset)$$

□

Example 2 *For example, $Adapter \uparrow \{Target\}$ is the pattern as follows.*

$$Vars(Adapter \uparrow \{Target\}) =$$
$$\{Targets, Adapters, Adaptees \subseteq classes\}$$
$$Pred(Adapter \uparrow \{Target\}) =$$
$$\forall Target \in Targets \cdot \exists Adapter \in Adapter \cdot$$
$$\exists Adaptee \in Adaptees \cdot Spec(Adapter).$$

□

Theorem 5 *(Lifting Operation)*
For all patterns P and models m, we have $m \models P$ if and only if $m \models (P \uparrow V)$, where V is any non-empty subset of $Vars(P)$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let $m \models P$. By definition 2, there is an assignment α such that $Eva_\alpha(Pred(P), m) = true$. Let $\alpha(v_i) = a_i$. We have that $p(a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n)$ is true in model m. Define $\alpha'(vs_i) = \{a_i\}$, for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$. We have that, $vs_i \ne \emptyset$ for all $i = 1, 2, \cdots k$. It is also easy to see that the following predicate is also true under assignment α'.

$$\forall v_1 \in vs_1 \cdot \forall v_2 \in vs_2 \cdot \forall v_k \in vs_k \cdot$$
$$\exists v_{k+1} \in vs_{k+1} \cdot \exists v_n \in vs_n \cdot p(v_1, v_2, \cdot, v_n)$$

Therefore, we have that $m \models P \uparrow V$.
($\Leftarrow$) Let $m \models P \uparrow V$. By definition 2, there is an assignment α such that $Eva_\alpha(Pred(P \uparrow V), m) = true$. Let $\alpha(vs_i) = A_i$. We have that for all $a_1 \in A_1, \cdots, a_k \in A_k$ the following predicate is true in model m.
$$\exists v_{k+1} \cdot \exists v_n \cdot p(a_1, \cdots, a_k, v_{k+1}, \cdots, v_n)$$

Let $a_{k+1}, \cdots, a_n$ be the witness of $v_{k+1}, \cdots, v_n$ in the above. Then, we have that $p(a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_n)$ is true in model m. Define assignment $\alpha'(v_i) = a_i$, $i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$. We have that $Eva_{\alpha'}(p(v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_n), m) = true$. That is, $m \models P$. □

3.4 Overlaps

Consider a situation in which a design model m conforms to two design patterns P and Q at the same time. Thus, by the definition of conformance and Theorem 1, we have that there is an assignment α_1 such that $Eva_{\alpha_1}(Pred(P), m) = true$, and at the same time there is an assignment α_2 such that $Eva_{\alpha_2}(Pred(Q), m) = true$. An overlap between two assignments in the conformances means that there is at least one element in model m involved in both assignments α_1 and α_2. Such an involvement can be in one of the following three cases.

Case 1: One to one overlap. In this situation, there is one element in the model m assigned to a variable of pattern P by α_1 and at the same time the same element is also assigned to a variable in pattern Q by α_2. This element in the design model m plays two roles; one for each of the design patterns. In this case, we say the overlap is an *one-to-one overlap*. Let $v \in Vars(P)$ and $v' \in Vars(Q)$ be the variables that are assigned to the same element in model m. Therefore, the model m does not only conform to P and Q (thus satisfy the condition $Pred(P) \wedge Pred(Q)$), but also satisfies the condition that $v = v'$. We will also name the new role that the overlap element plays in the composition, say v''. Therefore, we also have the equations that $v'' = v$ and $v'' = v'$ for the composition pattern. These equations are called the *overlap constraints*.

Case 2: One to many overlap. In this situation, there is an element in the model m assigned to a variable of pattern P by α_1, and at the same time there is a set E of elements such that E is assigned to a variable v' in pattern Q. In this case, we say the overlap is an *one-to-many overlap*. Assume

that the variable v is of type T, e.g. the type $Class$. Then, the variable v' must be of type $\mathbb{P}\,T$, e.g. a subset of $classes$. Because variables v and v' are of different types, we cannot simply write the overlap constraints as equations. Instead, we will lift the pattern P, thus variable v becomes variable vs, which is of type $\mathbb{P}\,T$. Assume that the new role that the overlap part plays is called v''. The overlap constraints are $v'' = vs$ and $v'' \subseteq v'$.

Case 3: Many to many overlap. In this case, there is an element in the model m in a set E of elements assigned to variable v in pattern P by α_1, and at the same time it is in another set E' of elements that are assigned to variable v' in pattern Q by α_2. In this case, both variables must be of the same type of $\mathbb{P}T$. In this case, we say the overlap is a *many-to-many overlap*. Assume that the new role of the overlap part played in the composition pattern is called v''. Then, the overlap constraints are $v'' \subseteq v$ and $v'' \subseteq v'$.

The following definition introduces a notation to represent various types of overlaps [3]. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that $Vars(P) \cap Vars(Q) = \emptyset$. This can always be achieved by systematically renaming the variables in $Vars(P)$ and their free occurrences in $Pred(P)$.

Definition 6 *(Overlaps)*

Let P and Q be two patterns. We write $v_{new} := (v : P \# v' : Q)$ to denote an overlap between the component v in pattern P with component v' in pattern Q, and the overlapped part is named as v_{new}, where $v_{new} \neq Vars(P) \cup Vars(Q)$. When there is no risk of confusion, we will omit the names of patterns and write simply $v_{new} := (v \# v')$.

An overlap $v_{new} := (v \# v')$ is called an one-to-one *overlap and written $v_{new} := v -\!\!\!- v'$, if both v and v' are of type T. It is called a* many-to-many overlap *and written $v_{new} := v \succ\!\!\!\prec v'$, if both v and v' are of type $\mathbb{P}T$. In both one-to-one and many-to-many overlaps, we say that the variables v and v' are* equally ordered. *The overlap is called a* many-to-one overlap *and written $v_{new} := v \succ\!\!\!- v'$ or $v_{new} := v -\!\!\!\prec v'$, if v is of type $\mathbb{P}T$ and v' is of type T, or vice versa. In this case, we say that v is* higher ordered *in the overlap and v'* lower ordered.

Let o be a set of overlaps as defined above between pattern P and Q. We write $Vars_P(o)$ to denote the subset of variables in $Vars(P)$ that occurred in o. We say that P is lower ordered, if there is a variable in $Vars_P(o)$ that is lower ordered. □

We can now define composition with an overlap.

Definition 7 *(Composition with an overlap) Let o be a set of overlaps between pattern P and Q. The composition of P and Q with overlap o, written $P \otimes_o Q$, is a pattern defined as follows.*

$$Vars(P \otimes_o Q) =$$
$$Vars(P') \cup Vars(Q') \cup NewVars(o),$$

$$Pred(P \otimes_o Q) = Pred(P') \wedge Pred(Q') \wedge OC(o).$$
Here $U' = U \uparrow Vars_U(o)$ if U is lower ordered in o; otherwise $U' = U$, $U = P, Q$. $NewVars(o)$ is the set of new variables given in overlap o. Predicate $OC(o)$ is the conjunction of overlap constraints. Formally, let $o = \{u_1 := v_1 \# v'_1, \cdots, u_n := v_n \# v'_n\}$.
$$OC(o) = OC(u_1 := v_1 \# v'_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge OC(u_n := v_n \# v'_n)$$
$$OC(u := v \# v')$$
$$= \begin{cases} (u = v \wedge u = v'), & u := v -\!\!\!- v'; \\ (u \subseteq v \wedge u \subseteq v' \wedge u \neq \emptyset), & u := v \succ\!\!\!\prec v'; \\ (u \subseteq v \wedge u = vs' \wedge u \neq \emptyset), & u := v \succ\!\!\!- v'; \\ (u = vs \wedge u \subseteq v' \wedge u \neq \emptyset), & u := v -\!\!\!\prec v'; \end{cases}$$
□

In the above definition, variables vs and vs' are the corresponding lifted variables of v and v', respectively.

Example 3 *Now, we return to the motivating example of the composition of $Composite_1$ and $Adapter$ with the overlap that the $Leaf$ component in $Composite_1$ is the same as component $Target$ in the $Adapter$ pattern. We name this overlapped component $AdaptedLeaf$ in the result pattern of the composition. This overlap can be specified as $AdaptedLeaf := Leaf \# Target$. It is an one-to-one overlap. Let o_1 be this overlap. Thus, the composition with o_1 is the pattern $Comp_1Adapter = Composite_1 \otimes_{o_1} Adapter$. By Definition 7, we have that*

$$Vars(Comp_1Adapter) =$$
$$\{Composite, Component, Leaf, Adapter,$$
$$Adaptee, Target, AdaptedLeaf\}$$
$$Pred(Comp_1Adapter) =$$
$$Pred(Composite) \wedge Pred(Adapter) \wedge$$
$$(AdaptedLeaf = Target) \wedge$$
$$(AdaptedLeaf = Leaf)$$
□

Example 4 *For the composition of $Adapter$ with $Composite$ (rather than $Composite_1$), the overlap o_2 is $TLeafs := Leafs \# Target$. This is a one-to-many overlap with $Target$ as the lower ordered variable.*

Let $CompAdapter = Composite \otimes_{o_2} Adapter$.
By Definition 7, we have that
$$Vars(CompAdapter) =$$
$$\{Composite, Component \in classes,$$
$$Leafs, TLeafs, Adapters, Adaptees,$$
$$Targets \subseteq classes\}$$
$$Pred(CompAdapter) =$$
$$(TLeafs \subseteq Leafs) \wedge (TLeafs = Adapters) \wedge$$
$$Pred(Composite) \wedge (TLeafs \neq \emptyset) \wedge$$
$$\forall Adapter \in Adapters \cdot \exists Target \in Targets \cdot$$
$$\exists Adaptee \in Adaptees \cdot Pred(Adapter)$$
□

As one would expect, we have the following theorem about composition as defined above.

Theorem 6 *(Composition of Patterns)*
Let P and Q be any given patterns and o any overlap between P and Q. For all models m, $m \models P \otimes_o Q$ implies that $m \models P$ and $m \models Q$.

Proof. Let o be any given overlap between patterns P and Q. If P is lower ordered, by Definition 7, we have that $Pred(P \otimes_o Q) \Rightarrow Pred(P \uparrow Vars_P(o))$. Therefore, by Theorem 3, we have that for all models m, $m \models Pred(P \otimes_o Q)$ implies that $m \models Pred(P \uparrow Vars_P(o))$. By Theorem 5, we have that for all models m, $m \models Pred(P \uparrow Vars_P(o))$ if and only if $m \models Pred(P)$. Thus, we have that for all models m, $m \models Pred(P \otimes_o Q)$ implies that $m \models Pred(P)$.

Similarly, when P is not lower ordered, by Definition 7, we have that $Pred(P \otimes_o Q) \Rightarrow Pred(P)$. By Theorem 3, we have that $m \models Pred(P \otimes_o Q)$ implies that $m \models Pred(P)$.

Therefore, in all cases, we have that for all models m, $m \models P \otimes_o Q$ implies that $m \models P$. The same proof applies to Q. Therefore the theorem is true. $\square$

4 Example and case study

This section illustrates how the notion of composition with overlaps can be apply to define compositions of design patterns and reports a case study on the expressiveness of the composition operators defined in this paper.

4.1 Example: The MVC Pattern

As a more complicated example of pattern composition, we now show that the MVC pattern can be formed by composing $Composite$, $Strategy$ and $Observer$ patterns. The specifications of $Strategy$ and $Observer$ are given below.

Specification 4 *(Strategy Pattern)*
Components:
- $Context, Strategy \in classes$,
- $conInt \in Context.opers$,
- $algInt \in Strategy.opers$

Static Conditions
- $Context \diamond\!\!\longrightarrow Strategy, isAbstract(algInt)$

Dynamic Conditions
- $callsHook(conInt, algInt)$

We first compose $Composite$ to $Strategy$ with a many-to-one overlap o_3.

$$o_3 = \{ContextLeafs := Leafs >\!\!\!- Context,$$
$$OpContext := operation -\!\!\! conInt)\}.$$

This lifts the variables $Context$ and $Strategy$ to sets and introduces a new component $ContextLeafs$. This yields the following pattern.

$$Vars(Composite \otimes_{o_3} Strategy) =$$
$$\{Composite, Component \in classes,$$
$$Leafs, Contexts, Strategies, ContextLeafs$$
$$\subseteq classes\}$$
$$Pred(Composite \otimes_{o_3} Strategy) =$$
$$Pred(Composite) \wedge$$
$$Pred(Strategy \uparrow \{Context\}) \wedge$$
$$(ContextLeafs \subseteq Contexts) \wedge$$
$$(ContextLeafs \neq \emptyset) \wedge$$
$$(ContextLeafs \subseteq Leafs)$$

However, because of the lifting of the variable $Strategy$ to $Strategies$, the composition pattern has several $Strategy$ classes, each the root of a separate hierarchy. This seems strange. In the Java API, the single class $ActionListener$ is used. So we shall assume for simplicity that every class in the set $Strategies$ is equal to a variable $Strategy$. This can be formally expressed as a constraint on the composition of the patterns by a predicate $Strategies = \{Strategy\}$, thus we have

$$Composite \otimes_{o_3} Strategy[Strategies = \{Strategy\}]$$

It is easy to prove that it is equivalent to the following pattern PVC by inference in the first order logic.

$$Vars(PVC) = \{Leafs \subseteq classes, Composite,$$
$$Component, Context, Strategy \in classes\}$$
$$Pred(PVC) = (Strategy \in Leafs)\wedge$$
$$Pred(Composite) \wedge Pred(Strategy)$$

Specification 5 *(Observer Pattern)*
Components:
- $Subject, Observer \in classes$,
- $update \in opers(Observer)$

Static Conditions
- $Subject \longrightarrow^* Observer, \neg update.isLeaf$,
- $\forall O \in subs(Observer).$
  $(\exists S \in subs(Subject) . O \longrightarrow S)$

Dynamic Conditions
- $\exists ms \in messages . \neg ms.sig.isQuery\wedge$
  $toClass(ms) \in subs(Subject) \Rightarrow$
- $\exists m \in messages \cdot m.sig = notify\wedge$
  $fromLL(m) = toLL(m) = toLL(ms)\wedge$
- $\exists mu, mg . mu.sig = update \wedge isQuery(mg.sig)$
  $\wedge toLL(mu) = l \wedge calls(m, mu)\wedge$
  $calls(mu, mg) \wedge toLL(mg) = toLL(ms)$

Then, we further compose this to Observer with the following overlap o_4.

$$o_4 = \{StrObs := Strategy \text{ ---} Observer\}$$

Let $MVC = PVC \otimes_{o_4} Observer$. By definition, we have that

$$Vars(MVC) = \{Composite, Component,$$
$$Subject, Observer, StrObs \in classes,$$
$$Leafs, Contexts, Strategy, ContextLeafs$$
$$\subseteq classes\}$$
$$Pred(MVC) = Pred(Observer) \wedge$$
$$Pred(Composite) \wedge Pred(Strategy) \wedge$$
$$(Strategy \in Leafs) \wedge StrObs = Strategy \wedge$$
$$StrObs = Observer$$

This is exactly the MVC design pattern.

4.2 Case Study of GoF patterns

In [9], possible compositions of patterns were suggested in the Related Patterns section of each pattern. Such discussions were informal and little details were given. However, having formally defined the notion of compositions of patterns, we can now formalise all of these suggestions using the notion of overlap.

For example, it is stated that an Abstract Factory can create and configure a particular Bridge [9] (p161). This suggests that the $Abstract$ and $Implementor$ components in the $Bridge$ pattern are the $AbstractProducts$ in the $AbstractFactory$ pattern. Thus, the overlap is

$$o = \{AbstractProduct \text{ >---} Abstraction,$$
$$AbstractProduct \text{ >---} Implementor\}$$

By composing $AbstractFactory$ pattern and $Bridge$ pattern with the overlap o, we can see that the Client's dependences on $Abstract$ and $Implementor$ components in the $Bridge$ pattern can be satisfied because of the constraints on $AbstractProduct$ in the $AbstractFactory$ pattern. All other conditions relate $AbstractProducts$ to the other classes in the $AbstractFactory$ pattern and so are not relevant.

It is also suggested that $Iterator$ can be used to implement the recursion in $Composite$ pattern [9]. The overlap is between the $ConcreteAggregates$ in $Aggregate$ pattern and the $Component$ in $Composite$ pattern. In our formal specification given in [4], $ConcreteAggregate$ was implicitly referred to as $subs(Aggregate)$. To enable composition with overlaps be defined, we first apply the specialisation operation to $Iterator$, i.e. define $Iterator'$ as follows.

$$Iterator[ConcreteAggregates = subs(Aggregate)]$$

Then, we compose $Iterator'$ to $Composite$ with the overlap $ConcreteAggregates \text{ >---} Component$.

Table 2 summarises the overlaps between GoF patterns, where $Command'$ is defined in a similar way to $Iterator'$.

Details of these compositions and the proofs of their satisfiability are omitted for the sake of space and will be reported separately. Our case study demonstrated that our operations on design patterns and our compositions of design patterns are expressive and general enough to cover the suggested compositions made in GoF book [9].

Table 2. Summary of Case Study

Patterns	Overlap
Abstract Factory + Bridge	{AbsProducts >—Abstr, AbsProducts >—Implem}
Composite + Decorator	{Component — Component, Composite — Decorator, operation — operation}
Component + Flyweight	{Component — Flyweight}
Iterator' + Composite	{ConcreteAggregates >—Component}
Visitor + Composite	{Component — Element}
Abstract Factory + Facade	{AbstractFactory — Facade}
Facade + Singleton	{Facade — Singleton}
State + Flyweight	{State — Flyweight}
Strategy + Flyweight	{Strategy — Flyweight}
Chain of Resp + Composite	{Chain of Resp — Composite}
Command + Composite	{Command — Component}
Memento + Command'	{Caretaker — ConcreteCommands}
Prototype + Command	{Prototype — Command}
Iterator + Factory Method	{Iterator — Product}
Iterator' + Memento	{ConcreteIterators >— Caretaker}
Mediator + Observer	{Colleague — Observer, Mediator — Subject}
State + Singleton	{State — Singleton}
State + Flyweight	{State — Flyweight}
Strategy + Flyweight	{Strategy — Flyweight}

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we further developed our method for the formal specification of design patterns by adding a formal definition of the composition of design patterns. The properties of compositions are proved. A case study of the relationships between design patterns as suggested by GoF [9] is reported. As demonstrated in this paper, formal reasoning about design patterns and their compositions can be naturally supported by the formal deduction in first order logic, which is well understood, and well supported by software tools such as theorem provers.

There are a large number of papers published in the literature on formalisation of software design patterns. Existing

work can be classified into two categories. The first category proposes special-purpose formal languages or semi-formal graphic modeling languages in order to define patterns rigorously [14, 6, 7]. The second category, to which our work belongs, simply employs or adapts existing formal or semi-formal languages [12, 18, 19, 15, 10, 13, 8, 20].

While each of these approaches are demonstrated with examples, it remains an open question whether they can be used to specify all design patterns. Our approach has been proven to be expressive by the successful specification of all 23 design patterns in the GoF catalog [2, 5].

In the existing work, few have attempted to facilitate formal reasoning about design patterns even though formalisation is perceived to have the potential to support formal reasoning. Generally speaking, for the works in the first category summarized above, to support formal reasoning of design patterns, a formal logic must be devised and its logic properties, such as semantic consistency must be proven and a special purpose formal reasoning tool must be developed. Thus, a great effort must be made before they can become practically useful. For works in the second category, those using the UML meta-modeling facility suffer from the ambiguity and informal definition of UML. Even the basic notion that a concrete design conforms to a pattern has to be defined with great length [8]. Few works on formal definition of pattern composition has been reported in the literature. One such work is by Taibi [18]. He discussed the composition of design patterns specified in the balanced pattern specification language BPSL. His definition did not handle the most complicated form of pattern composition like the many-to-many kind of overlaps, however.

In comparison with existing works, the formal specifications of design patterns in our approach are natural and easier to understand. Our approach is highly expressive. As demonstrated in this paper, reasoning about design patterns on various kinds of properties and relationship as well as their compositions can be naturally supported by the well-understood first order logic. Such reasoning can also be supported by software tools such as first order logic theorem provers. We are investigating the uses of theorem provers for automated reasoning about design patterns based on the theory developed in this paper.

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