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Ulrike Ranger, Erhard Schultchen, and Christof Mosler

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# Specifying Distributed Graph Transformation Systems

Ulrike Ranger<sup>1</sup>, Erhard Schultchen<sup>1</sup>, and Christof Mosler<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> RWTH Aachen University, Department of Computer Science 3,  
Ahornstrasse 55, 52074 Aachen, Germany  
[ranger|erhard|christof]@i3.informatik.rwth-aachen.de

**Abstract:** Graph transformation systems simplify software development by modeling the system in a visual and declarative language. Despite their expressiveness, they fail to support specifiers in modeling distributed systems. As software projects increasingly demand support for distribution, we aim to fill this gap for graph transformation systems. With our concepts, specifiers can visually specify graph transformations affecting multiple applications simultaneously. Based on this visual specification, the corresponding distribution to the different applications is automatically derived. We introduce our concepts in general and demonstrate their applicability by means of an example.

**Keywords:** Graph Transformations, Distributed Systems, Visual Specification

## 1 Introduction

Graph transformation systems (GTS) provide suitable means to model complex applications visually and in a declarative way. By declarative, we understand to model *what* an application should do instead of *how* the result should be achieved. PROGRES [Sch91] is one representative of these systems and has been applied successfully in various large projects from different domains. However, PROGRES in particular and graph transformation systems in general provide only little support for modeling *distributed* systems. As modern large-scaled software projects often require the interaction of separated applications, this lack constitutes a severe drawback of GTS.

In common approaches for distributed systems, the coupling is modeled using textual elements like remote procedure calls or messages. This is even true for visual programming environments like Fujaba [FNTZ00]. E.g. [Tic02] describes the modeling of component-based systems using remote procedure calls. However, no support for modeling distributed graph transformations in a visual way is provided.

In our project, we develop concepts to model distributed systems visually using graph transformations. A distributed system is composed of different specifications, which are executed as separated applications at runtime. This is in contrast to other approaches like [Tae96], which uses one hierarchical distributed graph. Instead, every application stores its runtime graph independent of the coupled applications. The coupling of these applications is achieved by a *Coupling Specification*, which encapsulates all functionality concerning several applications. We aim to enable the specifier to model distributed graph transformations just like local transformations in order to preserve the advantages of declarative programming. This extends our approach presented in [BR04], which introduced the exchange of messages. Messages are still provided, but

are left out in this paper as we focus on purely visual modeling of distributed systems.

The development of a distributed system is divided into two different steps: (1) Using an import/export mechanism, *interfaces* can be exchanged between specifications containing node and edge types. (2) The interfaces exported by specifications may be used to model *distributed graph transformations* concerning several applications. In this paper, we focus on the second step of modeling distributed systems, by a visual approach. Although this approach is very general, we focus on PROGRES in this paper.

Until now, our work does not especially focus on parallelism of distributed graph transformations. As a distributed transformation is executed on separated computers, it is inherently executed in parallel. However, synchronization is solely assured by the underlying infrastructure and not modeled explicitly by the specifier. Research activities on parallel graph transformations are presented e.g. in [LETE04]. We are still investigating how these results can be included into our work.

The paper is structured as follows: In [Section 2](#) we introduce our concepts in a general form. [Section 3](#) gives an example for distributed system modeled in a visual way. Implementation aspects are presented in [Section 4](#). The paper gives an outlook on future work in [Section 5](#) and is summarized in [Section 6](#).

## 2 Distributed Graph Transformation Systems

In this section, we present our concepts for specifying distributed graph transformation systems in a visual way. These concepts will be illustrated in [Section 3](#) considering a simple process management system as example.

### 2.1 Structure of a Distributed System

In our concept, a distributed system is modeled in a similar way as a non-distributed software application. The standard proceeding is as follows: First, the structure and the behavior of the software is modeled within a specification consisting of a graph schema and of appropriate graph transformations. Afterwards, adequate source code for the specification is generated. This code can be executed e.g. as a prototype based on the UPGRADE framework [BJSW02]. The executed application stores a runtime graph representing the application's state. Furthermore, the specified graph transformations can be applied via the prototype changing the state of the application and thus of the runtime graph.

In contrast to a non-distributed software application, a distributed system consists of several applications, which are in turn graph transformation systems. Each of these applications is developed in the standard way (as described above), and is executed separately at runtime. Thus, every application stores its own runtime graph, and may perform graph transformations. To couple these applications, we use *distributed graph transformations*, which affect several applications simultaneously.

To distinguish the actual functionality of the software applications and the logic needed for their coupling, we introduce a separate *Coupling Specification* covering the distributed graph transformations. The Coupling Specification is executed at runtime and is responsible for the

coordination of the distributed applications. It contains all information required for modeling the distributed transformations, like node and edge types<sup>1</sup> of the coupled applications. [Figure 2](#) shows the structure of a sample distributed system, whose details will be explained in [Subsection 3.1](#). The coupling logic does not have to be modeled necessarily in an own specification, but otherwise the coupling logic has to be integrated in the specifications of the coupled applications in addition to their actual functionality. As the coupling logic may be very complex and extensive, this may lead to confusing specifications, which are difficult to maintain.

## 2.2 Exchanging Specification Interfaces

Before distributed graph transformations can be visually specified, the Coupling Specification needs information about node and edge types of the coupled applications. Therefore, for each application an *interface* is defined consisting of graph schema elements. The schema elements that should form the interface are marked with the <e> stereotype, an abbreviation for *export this element*. The interface covers also public attributes of node types. Additionally, certain consistency and completeness constraints for the interface have to be checked. For example, for every edge type of the interface the node types of its source and target node have to be contained in the interface, too. If one constraint is violated, a corresponding error message is shown to the specifier. After defining the interfaces, the Coupling Specification *uses* these interfaces by *importing* the node and edge types into its graph schema.

Used elements are *read-only* and thus can not be changed e.g. by adding a new attribute to a node type or changing the type of an attribute. Though read-only, the used schema elements can be applied within the specification similar to self-defined elements, e.g. in visual graph transformations or queries. To distinguish between self-defined and used types within the specification, nodes and edges of used types are illustrated as striped rectangles resp. dashed arrows. The specifier can define edge types between self-defined and used node types or just between used types. That way, he integrates the imported schema elements into his specification, and defines new relations between schema elements of different applications. An example for exchanging interfaces is depicted in [Figure 2](#) described in [Subsection 3.1](#).

## 2.3 Distributed Graph Transformations

Before distributed graph transformations can be modeled, we have to point out the difference between nodes and edges of used and of self-defined types: Nodes and edges of used types refer to remote objects, in contrast to nodes and edges of self-defined types, which refer to local objects like in non-distributed applications. Therefore, instances of used types are not stored in the Coupling Specification, but in the application which is based on the specification defining the element's type. For sake of simplicity, we assume that every specification is executed exactly once within a distributed system. This simplifies determining the application storing the instance of a used type, as specifications may be executed simultaneously several times. [Section 5](#) will present appropriate concepts to relieve this restriction.

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<sup>1</sup> In the following we regard PROGRES graph transformations, but do not consider the two-level typing system. The terms node class and node type are used as synonyms.

We use *reference nodes* as helper structures for accessing remote objects, instead of replicating remote objects in the local runtime graph. In contrast, we do not store *reference edges* as references in general are helper structures and have only little semantics. But the storage of reference nodes simplifies the realization of edges between nodes of different applications. Reference nodes do not store any information except the location of the actual remote node. The management of references is implicitly handled by the application and the runtime environment. All operations performed on a reference node are transparently propagated to the remote node. For propagating remote operations and the management of reference nodes, we use the features of the database DRAGOS [Böh04] (see Section 4).

Distributed graph transformations can be specified in a similar way as standard graph transformations. Subsection 3.2 will give an example considering the distributed transformation of Figure 3. Note that by using DRAGOS even distributed graph transformations are executed as transactions. The creation of a remote node is triggered in the same way as the creation of a node of a self-defined node type, i.e. by using the node only on the right-hand side of a graph transformation. Thus, a new node will be created in the remote application and an appropriate reference node is automatically inserted in the local graph, which stores a link to the remote node. To destroy a remote node, the corresponding variable is used only on the left-hand side of a transformation. This will cause the instance node to be located and deleted in the remote application. Consequently, the local reference node is deleted, too. The same mechanism is used for creating and deleting remote edges, which is triggered by applying used edge types.

As reference nodes are only helper structures, they are not created explicitly within transformations, but instantiated on-demand in the local runtime graph. A reference node is inserted in two different scenarios: Either, the reference is automatically created when a new remote node is created (as described above), or if the corresponding node is used in the left-hand side of a transformation. In the latter case, the local application is searched for a reference node fulfilling the transformation conditions. If no adequate node is found, an appropriate node is requested from the remote application and a reference node is created in the local graph. The deletion of reference nodes is triggered automatically if the actual remote node is destroyed – independent of the application which has caused the deletion of the actual node.

Up to now, we have assumed that we can create and delete remote nodes and edges without any restrictions. In practice, additional *constraints* may apply for performing modifications on remote runtime graphs ensuring their consistency. For example, an additional actions for the consistency have to be performed. In some cases, it might even be required that an application forbids the creation or deletion of nodes and edges by remote applications as described in [HEET99]. For these reasons, we are developing a *rule engine*, which will perform constraint validations at certain graph modifications and triggers actions preserving the consistency.

In this section, we have informally introduced the modeling of distributed graph transformation systems. We have only described a simplified approach, in which every specification is executed exactly once within a distributed system (see Section 5 for an advanced approach). Furthermore, we have assumed that we have only one Coupling Specification using node and edge types of different applications. But our approach considers even more complex topologies of distributed systems. For example, we offer the possibility to mutual import and export interfaces leading to cyclic relationships between applications. Additionally, our approach supports to include used types in an application's interface. At the moment, we specify appropriate scenarios

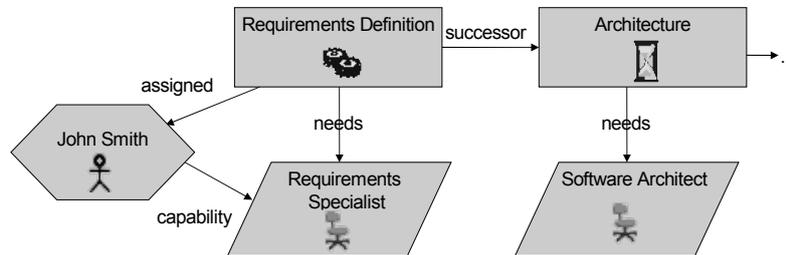


Figure 1: Sample runtime graph of the simplified PMS

to prove our concepts. For lack of space, in the next section we present only a little example according to the simplified approach and show the usage of the presented concepts.

### 3 Example

One of the largest PROGRES specifications is that of the process management system AHEAD [JSW00] (250 pages). Using AHEAD, complex development processes can be modeled and executed. Managers get an overview of the process's progress and developers receive an agenda of their tasks. A process management system (PMS) comprises different management aspects, so modularization is beneficial to retain maintainability. Also, the management aspects are commonly used by different persons, and so the PMS is an interesting application for distributed systems.

This section illustrates the concepts explained in Section 2 by means of a simplified PMS. Figure 1 shows a simple runtime graph of this system for a software development project. The process in Figure 1 is modeled by two tasks, Requirements Definition and modeling of the software's Architecture. Other tasks like the implementation have been left out for lack of space. As requirements have to be defined before the architecture can be described, a successor relation is modeled between the two tasks.

Resources are required to perform a task. For resource management, we distinguish between abstract resources and concrete resources. Abstract resources denote capabilities or roles (like Requirements Specialist), whereas concrete resources refer to objects or persons (like John Smith). With the needs edge, tasks express a demand for an abstract resource. For this abstract resource, an appropriate concrete resource has to be assigned before the task can be started. Here, the task Requirements Definition is associated with the abstract resource Requirements Specialist. The concrete resource (person) John Smith is capable of working as a Requirements Specialist, as indicated by the capability edge. Therefore, he is assigned to the task. As the task's needs are fulfilled, it is put into the state 'started' indicated by the gears icon.

From this simple example, we can identify two different (but interrelated) system parts concerning the management of tasks and resources. When building a non-distributed system, modularization can be used to separate the implementation of these two parts. As they are commonly used by different persons, we model them in separate specifications so they can be executed as autonomous applications at runtime. In the following section we introduce how the two specifica-

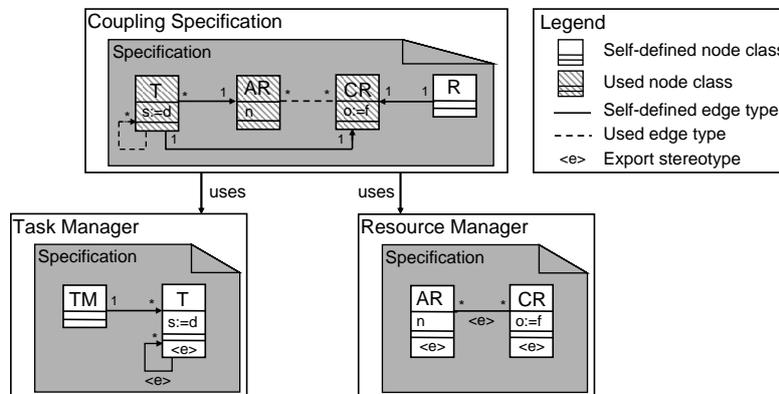


Figure 2: Distributed system modeled by different specifications

tions are coupled statically by means of their graph schemes. Afterwards, the system's program logic is modeled using distributed graph transformations, providing the dynamic coupling.

### 3.1 Static Structure

The PMS depicted in Figure 2 is split up into two separated Managers, which encapsulate independent parts of the system's functionality. For simplicity, only relevant attributes are shown. In the left-lower part of the figure, the *Task Manager* defines the node type T representing tasks, which are ordered by a successor relation indicated by a reflexive edge type. Tasks have an attribute s indicating their state, for example in *Definition d* if the task has been defined, but not yet started. The node type TM manages all tasks of a project and is used to group tasks. In the right-lower part, the *Resource Manager* manages abstract and concrete resources. Abstract resources are modeled by node type AR and identified by a unique name attribute n. Concrete resources CR may be marked as free or occupied using a boolean attribute (o := f resp. o := t). The relation between both node types defines a capability.

Figure 2 also depicts the Coupling Specification, which is used to couple both Managers. To model the Coupling Specification, the specifier needs to know parts of the Task and Resource Manager's graph schema. These are provided by an import/export mechanism, which works as follows: First, the specifiers of the Manager specifications decide, which node and edge types should be accessible from outside the specification. These elements are marked as *exported*, depicted by <e> markers in Figure 2, and form the specification *interface*. Second, marked elements are exported in a textual document, which is passed to the Coupling Specification. Third, the specifier of the Coupling Specification imports the interfaces.

The used elements are depicted differently within the Coupling Specification shown in Figure 2 to indicate their remote character. Edge types defined in the Coupling Specification may connect used and self-defined node types. As an example, the Coupling Specification in Figure 2 introduces a self-defined *rating* node type R to rate concrete resources. This node type is connected to the used node type CR via a self-defined edge-type. We also allow the definition of

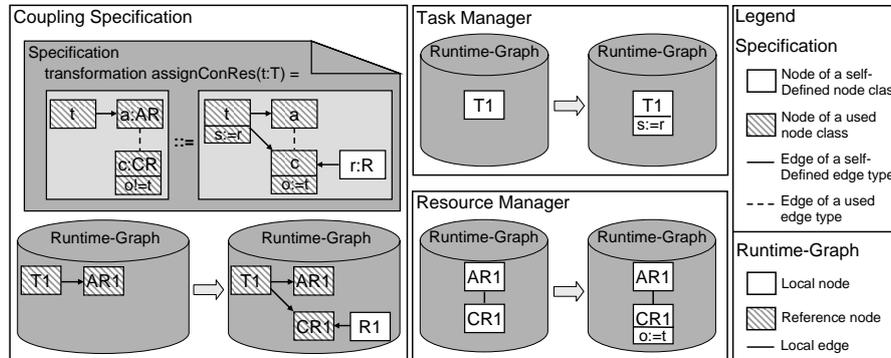


Figure 3: Transformation for assigning a concrete resource

edge types between two used node types: The edge type connecting  $T$  and  $CR$  is defined locally in the Coupling Specification and indicates the assignment of resources to tasks. Note that this connection cannot be modeled within a Manager specification as only one of the connected node types is available in each of them.

Graph transformations modeled in the Coupling Specification can use both self-defined and used elements. Utilizing used elements invokes remote applications at runtime. To execute the transformation, its distribution to the corresponding Managers is derived automatically. We demonstrate such a transformation in the following section.

### 3.2 Dynamic Coupling

As an example for a distributed graph transformation, the transformation `assignConRes` for finding a concrete resource for a task is presented. For the task's abstract resource, a concrete resource is requested from the Resource Manager and assigned to the task. The concrete resource must fulfill the abstract resource and may not be assigned to another task. Furthermore, a rating for the concrete resource is created and the task's state is changed. Based on the Coupling Specification's graph schema of Figure 2, we model the transformation `assignConRes` as depicted in Figure 3, given task  $t$  of node type  $T$  as an input parameter. The transformation looks similar to a local transformation in the Coupling Specification<sup>2</sup>.

In the left-hand side of the transformation, task  $t$  is shown with its assigned abstract resource  $a$ . Moreover, a node  $c$  of node type  $CR$  is required, which fulfills the abstract resource  $a$ , and whose attribute  $o$  should be unequal to value  $t$ . As all nodes within the left-hand side are of used node types, they are represented as striped rectangles. In contrast to the edge incident to  $t$ , the edge connecting the abstract resource  $a$  and the concrete resource  $c$  is dashed, representing an used edge type.

The right-hand side of the transformation defines the effects of applying the graph transformation rule. Besides the nodes and edges of the left-hand side, a new node  $r$  of node type  $R$  is

<sup>2</sup> For sake of simplicity, we do not follow the PROGRES syntax exactly, instead we use an abstract syntax where it is suitable.

depicted. This node is created by the transformation and connected to the concrete resource  $c$  by an edge. The rating node is used to assess the concrete resource. Additionally, a new edge is created connecting  $t$  with the found concrete resource  $c$ . Furthermore, the attributes of  $t$  and  $c$  are updated representing their execution status and the occupied status, respectively.

The effects of the transformation's execution on the applications are also depicted in [Figure 3](#): For each application two runtime graphs are shown, describing sample runtime graphs before and after the transformation. In the Task Manager, only the attribute  $s$  of task  $T1$  (represented by node  $t$  in the transformation) has to be modified. No modifications have to be performed to the corresponding reference node  $T1$  in the Coupling Specification. In the Resource Manager, the attribute  $o$  of the concrete resource  $CR1$  (represented by node  $c$  in the transformation) is set to  $t$  indicating its occupation. In the runtime graph of the Coupling Specification, a new reference node pointing to  $CR1$  in the Resource Manager is inserted. Furthermore, two new edge are created: one connecting  $CR1$  and  $T1$ , and one edge connecting  $CR1$  and the new object  $R1$  (represented by node  $r$  in the transformation). Please note, that the edge between  $CR1$  and  $AR1$  does not exist in the Coupling Specification because reference edges are not stored.

## 4 Realization

As our approach is very general, we are currently implementing the basic functionality not only in PROGRES, but also in the open-source CASE tool Fujaba [[FNTZ00](#)]. Both systems have been extended by an import/export functionality using the standardized XMI format as a common textual exchange format for interfaces. Furthermore, we have adapted both systems so that used elements cannot be modified by the specifier. For the implementation of distributed graph transformations, changes to the code generation of PROGRES and Fujaba have been made. Details on the modifications are presented in [[RL06](#)].

The code generated requires some special functionality which has to be provided by the underlying infrastructure. This functionality can be subsumed under the following four requirements: (1) The runtime state of each application has to be stored persistently; (2) for the realization of reference nodes, each application has to provide unique identifiers for remotely accessible nodes; (3) concurrent modifications to an application's runtime graph by several remote applications have to be handled w.r.t. the ACID properties known from databases; (4) for the implementation of the rule engine mentioned in [Subsection 2.3](#), an event mechanism has to inform rules about changes to the local runtime graph. These rules check violated consistency constraints and trigger appropriate transformations.

The four requirements are fulfilled by the graph-based database DRAGOS, which is already used by PROGRES prototypes for the persistent storage of the runtime graph. Similar support for applications generated by Fujaba has recently been added. Due to its extensible architecture, DRAGOS can easily be extended for operation in distributed systems. For example, we have implemented a new transaction manager for distributed transactions using the two-phase-commit protocol.

The coupling of the generated applications needs some kind of middleware for the basic communication. We use CORBA for this purpose, as synchronous remote procedure calls are well suited for invoking remote parts of a distributed graph transformation. Asynchronous communi-

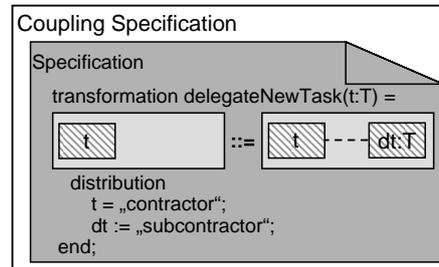


Figure 4: Transformation for delegating a task

cation required for message-based coupling is provided by an appropriate service, too. CORBA also provides a distributed transaction manager, which is used to coordinate the applications' local transaction managers. However, other middleware architectures, like RMI, could be used for this purpose as well, as the middleware is only an implementation detail.

Our conceptual work focuses on visual and declarative modeling of distributed systems. Therefore, we do not concentrate on network-related details of the coupling, which have been developed in the area of distributed systems. For example, modern distributed systems often provide caching of data to reduce the amount of queries sent across the network. Another example is fault-tolerance usually achieved through replication. Although these aspects are interesting for the practical use of distributed systems, they do not affect the visual modeling of these systems.

## 5 Coupling of Similar Specifications

In [Section 2](#) we have assumed that every specification is executed exactly once within a distributed system. Thus, we determine the application in which a remote object is located by its underlying specification defining the object's type. This is too restrictive for the practical usage, as also the multiple execution of a specification is desirable. For example, several companies may use their own Task Manager, and cooperate by delegating tasks to other companies, as described in [\[HJ04\]](#). Thus, the specification of the Task Manager is executed several times in parallel. Therefore, we have to distinguish between applications based on the same specification but located in different applications. For this purpose, we will introduce appropriate means at specification time and at runtime.

At *specification time*, we will integrate new *language constructs* into the specification language. These language constructs should allow to specify that nodes of the same type should be located in different applications or have to be located in the same application respectively. In addition, we will introduce the definition of *roles* for applications. These can be used to determine the precise application, in which a node of a transformation should be searched, created, or deleted. [Figure 4](#) shows an example for these concepts. Here, the transformation `delegateNewTask` of the Coupling Specification creates a new task `dt` as successor of the task `t`. The task `dt` shall be delegated from one company to another. For this purpose, we will introduce the section *distribution* in the graph transformation's definition. Here, different constraints regarding the location of

objects can be defined. In [Figure 4](#), we specify that the application owning the task  $t$  has to fulfill the contractor role. On the other hand, a remote application is searched, taking over the role of a subcontractor. As every application can only fulfill one role within a certain relationship, the two applications have to be different at runtime. A relationship concerns the instance-level, so that a application can fulfill different roles regarding different objects. For example, an application can be a subcontractor as well as contractor dependent on the task.

At *runtime*, a *configuration file* is used to assign roles to the available applications. Additionally, an order can be specified for applications based on the same specification and having the same role. Depending on the configuration file, the concrete applications for remote objects can be determined fulfilling the role constraints. In future, we will analyze, which language constructs are needed and how the configuration of the applications can be supported best.

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper, we described concepts for visually modeling distributed systems using graph transformation systems. Each application of the distributed system is specified in a similar way to a non-distributed application. Additionally, interfaces for the applications have to be defined, which consist of node and edge types and can be used by other specifications. Used elements are read-only and displayed differently within the specification indicating their remote character. Knowing node and edge types of other specifications, distributed graph transformations can be specified in a visual way. At runtime, the specifications are executed in different applications, which interact according to the distributed graph transformations. The usage of reference nodes pointing to remote nodes enables to access and to relate remote objects. As we are at the beginning of visually specifying distributed graph transformations, we have to evaluate our presented concepts with regards to paths, negative application conditions, and folding of nodes. Our approach is advantageous, as the specifier only has to model the coupling logic in a visual way analogously to a non-distributed specification. Based on the visual specification, the corresponding distribution to the different applications is automatically derived. They can be integrated in the existing PROGRES language and are easy to use as they follow the PROGRES semantics for local graph transformations. Furthermore, our approach offers potential for useful extensions, as the following two examples show.

As mentioned in [Section 4](#), the code generation has to be adapted for processing distributed graph transformations. Due to the high communication costs within a network, we have developed concepts for the efficient processing of distributed graph transformations. These concepts are integrated into existing search tree algorithms, which is described in detail in [\[RL06\]](#). The search for a graph pattern within an application has an exponential worst-case complexity, so we sketch our idea for the optimization considering only the distributed query in [Figure 5](#). The main idea is the *division* of the distributed graph pattern into several partial patterns. Each pattern affects exactly one coupled application and is extracted as large as possible. Thus, the coupled applications are not queried for every single element of the pattern, which reduces the communication costs. This mechanism allows us to parameterize the patterns with all information needed to find the pattern (like attribute conditions). In [Figure 5](#) the query  $q$  is divided into two queries  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ .  $q_2$  regarding the Resource Manager can be parametrized with the abstract resource

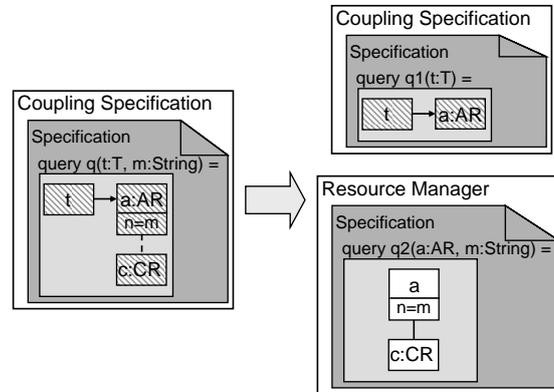


Figure 5: Dividing a distributed pattern

$a$ , thus reducing the complexity of the pattern search. Without the parameterization, query  $q_2$  would consist of the two unbound nodes  $a$  and  $c$  increasing the search complexity. At runtime, these patterns are sent to the corresponding applications, which in turn reply their results. The results of all partial patterns determine the match of the entire distributed pattern.

Furthermore, we will extend our import/export mechanism by introducing *abstract graph views*. In the current approach, every specification interface consists of a graph schema part. In abstract graph views, abstract graph elements can be exported, which represent several concrete graph elements in the local graph. To model such graph views, the specifier has to define appropriate rules for abstract elements using the rule engine mentioned in [Subsection 2.3](#). The rules define the mapping of abstract elements to several concrete elements. Additionally, they define the actions, which have to be performed when an abstract element is created, deleted or changed by a remote application.

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