AN ALGORITHM TO DERIVE USE CASES FROM BUSINESS PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT
This paper describes an algorithm to transform business process models into a functional requirements specification, specified in the form of use case diagrams. The benefit of such an algorithm is that it helps to draw up a functional requirements specification more quickly, because business process models may be available in an enterprise, while use case diagrams have to be developed by performing interviews. The use case diagrams that result from applying the algorithm, specify a software system that provides automated support for the original business processes. We show this with a case study from practice.

KEY WORDS
Business process modeling, model transformation, requirements engineering, method engineering

1 Introduction
Requirements engineering is widely considered to be one of the most difficult tasks in software engineering. At the same time, errors made in this phase are among the most difficult to detect and the most expensive to correct [1]. Therefore, much can be gained from requirements engineering techniques that help to produce robust requirements specifications, and speed up the requirements engineering process. In this paper we propose such a technique. The technique shows how use case based requirements engineering [2, 3, 4, 5] may be improved by using business process models as requirements.

We introduce an algorithm to transform business process models into use case diagrams. The benefit of having such an algorithm is that business process models are often available in a company in the form of working instructions or administrative handbooks. Therefore, use case diagrams can be produced more quickly when they are developed with existing business process models and the algorithm than when they are developed from scratch.

The approach we used to design the algorithm was to create metamodels for use case diagrams and for business process models, and to compare these metamodels. The comparison of the two metamodels gives rise to a formal mapping that forms the basis for our algorithm. In this paper we only introduce the metamodels and their formal mapping briefly. A detailed overview can be found in [6].

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows, section 2 and section 3 briefly introduce use case and business process modeling. These sections also present the metamodels of both modeling techniques. Section 4 describes a formal mapping between the two metamodels. Based on this mapping, section 5 defines the actual algorithm. Section 6 explains industrial experience we have with the technique. The paper finishes with some concluding remarks.

2 UML Use Case Modeling
A use case diagram describes how an entity may use the system under development. To this end, a use case diagram contains actors and use cases. An actor is an entity that may interact with the system. A use case is a set of interactions between any number of actors and the system under development. Thus, a use case describes a part of the behavior of the system.

An example of a use case diagram is shown in figure 1. The ovals represent use cases, and the puppets represent actors. A line between an actor and a use case represents the actors involvement in one or more of the interactions covered by the use case.

When two use cases partly share the same behavior, this behavior may be put into a third use case, and the original two use cases may be defined to ‘include’ the behavior of this new use case. The description of the original use cases specifies the point at which to include this behavior. The goal of the include relation is to remove redundancy. An include relationship is represented by a dashed arrow, labeled «include».

When one use case is a generalized form of another use case, we can draw a generalization relationship between them. We could, for example, draw a generalization relationship from the use case ‘process complaint’ to the use case ‘process incoming mail’.
Many techniques for business process modeling exist. In an earlier study [10], we studied 18 of the most referenced techniques. From this study we were able to draw up a generalized metamodel of business process modeling. Figure 3 presents a simplified version of this metamodel. Although all business process modeling techniques have means to model aspects other than behavior, such as organizational structure, and data objects, we will focus on modeling behavior. The reason for this is that use case diagrams do not have means to model aspects other than behavior. Therefore these aspects can not be mapped, and are thus irrelevant in this paper.

![Figure 3. Business process metamodel](image)

A business process model describes the tasks that have to be carried out to reach a certain goal, and the order in which these tasks have to be carried out. A task is the smallest unit of work that makes sense to a user. Each task is assigned to a role. A role is a group of entities that have the same rights and obligations with respect to performing a task or a group of tasks. A role may be assigned to any number of tasks, and an entity may act in any number of roles.

In this paper, we use UML activity diagrams to model business processes. Activity diagrams have been shown to be useful for business process modeling in [11, 12]. An example of an activity diagram that models a business process for mortgage processing is shown in figure 4. The rounded rectangles represent tasks, and the arrows represent transitions between tasks. The names in the columns represent roles, and a task in the column of a role represents that this task is assigned to that role. The bullet, and the bulls eye, represent the beginning and the end of the business process respectively.

We can use a guard to model a condition that must be met before starting the next task. A guard could be, for example, ‘legal act received’. A guard is graphically represented as a label between square brackets on a transition.

We can use a branch to model a choice on the task that has to be started after the current task has finished. A branch has decision criteria attached to it that define under which condition, which task is started. Decision criteria could be, for example, ‘if amount ≤ 50, start task A, otherwise start task B’. Decision criteria cannot have overlapping values. A branch is represented by a diamond with one incoming arrow and at least two outgoing arrows. The outgoing arrows have guards attached to them that represent the decision criteria.

We can use a fork to model that two or more tasks are started in parallel (i.e. are carried out in random order)
after the current task has finished. When two or more tasks are started in parallel, we may want to wait for all tasks to be finished before going on to the next task. This can be achieved by using a join. A fork is represented by an arrow to a thick line, from which arrows leave to the tasks that have to be started. A join is represented by a set of incoming arrows to a thick line, from which an arrow leaves to the task that has to be started next.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 4. Example business process model**

We chose to disregard the fork and join construct in this paper to simplify the algorithm. Therefore, task that are actually out in sequence. The fork and join construct can be added in future work.

## 4 Mapping

We created a mapping between the two metamodels by assessing from their definitions, which concepts or relations in the business process metamodel map to which concepts or relations in the use case metamodel. We then defined and evaluated the mapping formally [6]. In this section we give an informal description of the mapping.

The mapping is straightforward, except for finding a business process concept that maps to the concept ‘Use Case’. We may be tempted to map the ‘Task’ concept to the ‘Use Case’ concept. However, according to the UML semantics [7], a use case must describe a complete sequence. This means that a use case specifies all the interactions that have to be carried out to bring the system in a state in which the use case can be performed again. A task does not enforce this constraint, and thus does not describe a complete sequence. Therefore, we introduce the ‘Step’ concept [13]. A step is a sequence of tasks that can be performed by the same role without interruption. ‘Send offer’, for example can be a step. ‘Send offer and process reply’ cannot be a step, because time passes between sending an offer and receiving the reply. Since a step is a sequence of tasks that can be performed by the same role without interruption, users experience a step as a unit of work that is completed when it ends, after which it can be performed again. Therefore, a step does describe a complete sequence, and can be mapped to a use case.

We map ‘Role’ to ‘Actor’, and the association between a step and a role to an association between the corresponding actor and use case. Since all tasks in a step are performed by the same role, a role and a step are associated when the role is associated to any of the tasks in the step.

Since a step is defined as a sequence of tasks, each step forms a sub-diagram of the original business process model. Because we decided that use cases are described in detail by activity diagrams, we can use the sub-diagrams that are formed by the steps, to detail the use cases that correspond to these steps. Also, we call the tasks that detail a use case: interactions, because a use case model a sequence of interactions between the system and its users.

The definition of the mapping leads to an integrated metamodel that contains both the use case and the business process metamodel. Figure 5 shows this integrated metamodel. To keep the figure simple, it does not show include, extend, or generalization relations between use cases. However, these relations are part of the integrated metamodel. We chose to represent a mapping from concept A to concept B by an inheritance relation from B to A. A mapping between two associations can be represented as an OCL constraint. For example, the mapping between the association between step and role, and the association between use case and actor, can be represented by the following OCL constraint:

context Step inv:
  self.association.actor → includes(self.responsible)

We also need an OCL constraint that expresses that steps can not contain steps:

context Step inv:
  self.contains → excludesAll(Step.allInstances)

## 5 The Transformation Algorithm

From the mapping that we defined in the previous section, we derived an algorithm to transform a business process model into a use case diagram. In this section we will explain this algorithm. The algorithm is based on an algorithm to create steps from tasks [14].

To develop the algorithm, we assume that a set of instances exists for each concept in the integrated metamodel. We also assume that a new <Concept> operator exists, which adds a new instance to the set of instances of the concept that follows the operator, and returns this instance. For example, new Step adds a new step to steps, and returns this it.
The algorithm should start by identifying the tasks that denote interactions with the system under development, because only these tasks are interesting from a use case point of view. In this section we assume that interactions have already been defined, and we refer to [6] for an elaborate discussion on this topic. After the interactions have been identified, we do the following.

First, we create an actor for each role in the business process model.

Second, we create steps around the tasks in the business process model. Initially we create steps around the tasks that are in the same role and can be reached directly from a start state. We add start states to the created steps to denote where they can start.

Third, we create a use case for each step that we identified. Also, we create an association between an actor and a use case when an association exists between the role that corresponds to the actor, and a step that corresponds to the use case.

Fourth, we restructure the use case diagram that results from applying the algorithm. This can be done according to normal restructuring rules, like, the ones described in [5]. However, when using the algorithm, some constructs need special attention. Therefore, we will point out some restructuring actions that are normally necessary when
using the algorithm. Due to space limitations, we only discuss the restructuring rules informally.

First, we found out that tasks are often described multiple times. The reason for this is that business process modeling techniques do not cater for reuse of tasks. However, in use case diagrams reuse is possible by means of the include relation. Therefore, we search the use cases for interactions that are defined more than once. We put these interactions in a separate use case, and we draw an include relation from the original use cases to this separate use case.

Second, the algorithm does not cater for inclusion, extension or generalization of use cases. Therefore, it may be useful to split up some use cases into a base use case and an extension or addition use case, or into one generalized and multiple specialized use cases.

![Use Case Diagram](image)

**Figure 6. Resulting Use Case Diagram**

Third, according to its definition a use case delivers a result of value to its user. However, in the case study we found situations in which users experienced that a use case only delivered a result of value when it was combined with another use case. This situation can be solved by verifying if each use case delivers a result of value to its users, and, if not, by combining it with other use cases such as it does.

Fourth, the choice to describe use cases that belong to the same business process in one use case diagram suggests that each system is built for only one business process. Also, it suggests that only one system is built for each business process. However, this is rarely the case. A client database, for example, is usually used by all primary business processes. Therefore, once a use case diagram is drawn, we must evaluate which use cases will be implemented by which system. This decision will be based on what systems already exist to support other business processes. When we decide that a use case is partly implemented by one system, and partly by another system, we must split up the use case. Eriksson and Penker describe a procedure for doing this in [15].

Fifth, the algorithm does not add end states to the activity diagrams that detail the use cases. To be complete, we should add end states to these diagrams.

### 6 Case Study

In a case study, we applied the algorithm in the mortgage department of a bank, and evaluated the quality of the resulting use case diagrams by comparing them to use case diagrams that were constructed from scratch. From the results we derived some recommendations that were incorporated in the restructuring step of the algorithm.

In the case study, we investigated a total of 6 business processes, from which we derived 42 use cases. When comparing the use case diagrams, 17 use cases contained improper constructs: of 2 use cases some of the tasks were defined more than once, 3 use cases were completely redundant, and 12 use cases only delivered a result of value in combination with another use case. We corrected these errors by introducing the restructuring actions that are described in the previous section.

A simplified example that shows how a business process model was transformed into a use case diagram during the case study is shown in figure 6. The figure shows two of the use cases that result from applying the algorithm to the business process model from figure 4. It shows how each use case is detailed by an activity diagram that is a part of the original diagram. It also shows the transitions that contain information about the relations between the use cases, but that are not part of the use cases themselves. These transitions may be used later on to build a system that controls the order in which the use cases may occur (such as a workflow engine).

### 7 Conclusion

In this paper we introduced an algorithm to transform business process models into UML use case diagrams. The algorithm is based on a formal mapping between the metamodels of the two modeling techniques. We have shown in a case study that the application of the algorithm results in use case diagrams that can serve as a basis for further system development.

The study described in this paper is related to the fields of requirements, and method engineering. Much work is done in both fields to study how models of different types can be generated from each other. Research is done to how business processes can be described using use case diagrams [5, 7, 16]. We, however, do the opposite, and use business processes to derive use cases. Eriksson and Penker describe a procedure to derive use cases from business processes that is similar to ours in [15], but less detailed.

The use case diagrams that result from the application of the procedure have limitations.

First, use case diagrams specify a typical information system, in the sense that they do not specify control information that is above step level. For example, the use case diagram from figure 1 does not specify whether client data must be entered before mortgage data or not. Our algorithm partly caters for this, but we have not investigated this thoroughly.

Second, the use case diagrams are as detailed as the business processes from which they have been derived. A
use case may, for example, contain the interaction ‘enter client data’, or the interactions ‘search client’, if the client was not found ‘create new client data’. The second set of interactions provides a more precise specification than the first set of interactions. Therefore, depending on the detail specified in the business processes, it may be necessary to perform refine the use case diagrams that result from the algorithm further. The extend to which this is a problem cannot be assessed from one case study.

REFERENCES