

# Concept Analysis – A New Framework for Program Understanding

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## Abstract

Concept analysis transforms any relation between “objects” and “attributes” into a complete lattice. This concept lattice can be studied by algebraic means and offers remarkable insight into properties and structure of the original relation. As relations between “objects” and “attributes” occur all the time in software technology, concept analysis is an attractive foundation for a new class of program analysis tools. The article presents a short overview of the underlying theory, as well as applications for software component retrieval, analysis of configuration spaces, and modularization of legacy code.

## 1 Overview

Concept analysis provides a way to identify groupings of *objects* that have common *attributes*. The mathematical foundation was laid by G. Birkhoff in 1940 [1]. Birkhoff proved that for every binary relation between certain “objects” and “attributes”, a lattice can be constructed which allows remarkable insight into the structure of the original relation. The relation can always be reconstructed from the lattice, hence concept analysis is similar to Fourier analysis.

Later, R. Wille and B. Ganter elaborated Birkhoff’s result and transformed it into a data analysis method [15, 19]. Since then, it has found a variety of applications, such as analysis of Rembrandt’s paintings, classification of algebraic structures, and behaviour of drug addicts. In 1993, work on the application of concept analysis in the area of program understanding and reengineering was initiated. Concept analysis has been used for finding interferences between configurations [5, 14],

improving software component retrieval [6, 7], learning from databases [4], and modularization of legacy code [8, 13]. It is the aim of this article to demonstrate that concept analysis is an elegant and powerful tool, and a useful framework for a new class of program analysis algorithms.

## 2 Mathematical Background

### 2.1 Relations and their lattices

Concept analysis starts with a relation, or boolean table,  $T$  between a set of objects  $\mathcal{O}$  and a set of attributes  $\mathcal{A}$ , hence  $T \subseteq \mathcal{O} \times \mathcal{A}$ . The triple

$$\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{O}, \mathcal{A}, T)$$

is called a formal context.

For any set of objects  $O \subseteq \mathcal{O}$ , their set of common attributes is defined by

$$\sigma(O) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \forall o \in O : (o, a) \in T\}$$

Similarly, for any set of attributes, their set of common objects is

$$\tau(A) = \{o \in \mathcal{O} \mid \forall a \in A : (o, a) \in T\}$$

In fact,  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  form a Galois connection (a pair of two antimonotone functions), and both  $\sigma \circ \tau$  and  $\tau \circ \sigma$  are closure operators: e.g.,  $\sigma \circ \tau(O)$  determines the biggest set of objects which have the same attributes as  $O$ . A pair  $(O, A)$  is called a concept, if

$$A = \sigma(O) \text{ and } O = \tau(A)$$

Informally, such a concept corresponds to a maximal rectangle in the table  $T$ . Note that concepts are invariant against row or column permutations. For a concept  $c = (O, A)$ ,  $O = \text{ext}(c)$  is called the *extent* and  $A = \text{int}(c)$  is called the *intent* of  $c$ .

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```

SUBROUTINE R1(...)
COMMON /C1/ V1,V2
...
END

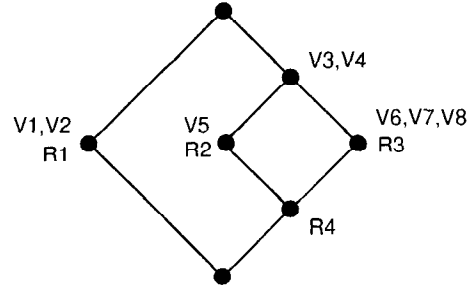
SUBROUTINE R2(...)
COMMON /C2/ V3,V4
COMMON /C3/ V5
...
END

SUBROUTINE R3(...)
COMMON /C2/ V3,V4
COMMON /C4/ V6,V7,V8
...
END

SUBROUTINE R4(...)
COMMON /C2/ V3,V4
COMMON /C3/ V5
COMMON /C4/ V6,V7,V8
...
END

```

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8
R1	x	x						
R2			x	x	x			
R3			x	x		x	x	x
R4			x	x	x	x	x	x



```

V8 → V7 V6 V4 V3
V7 → V8 V6 V4 V3
V6 → V8 V7 V4 V3
V5 → V4 V3
V4 V3 V2 V1 → V8 V7 V6 V5
V4 → V3
V3 → V4
V2 → V1
V1 → V2

```

Figure 1: A formal context, its concept lattice, and its minimal implication base; extracted from a source text.

The set of all concepts of a given table forms a partial order via

$$(O_1, A_1) \leq (O_2, A_2) \iff O_1 \subseteq O_2 \iff A_1 \supseteq A_2$$

G. Birkhoff discovered in 1940 that it is also a complete lattice, the concept lattice

$$\mathcal{L}(C) = \{(O, A) \in 2^O \times 2^A \mid A = \sigma(O) \wedge O = \tau(A)\}$$

In this lattice, the infimum (or join) of two concepts is computed by intersecting their extents:

$$(O_1, A_1) \wedge (O_2, A_2) = (O_1 \cap O_2, \sigma(O_1 \cap O_2))$$

Note that  $A_1 \cup A_2 \subseteq \sigma(O_1 \cap O_2)$ , as  $O_1 \cap O_2$  has at least common attributes  $A_1 \cup A_2$ . Thus an infimum describes the set of attributes common to two sets of objects. Similarly, the supremum (or meet) is computed by intersecting the intents:

$$(O_1, A_1) \vee (O_2, A_2) = (\tau(A_1 \cap A_2), A_1 \cap A_2)$$

Again,  $O_1 \cup O_2 \subseteq \tau(A_1 \cap A_2)$ . Thus a supremum describes a set of common objects which fit to two sets of attributes.

If the concepts are labelled with their extent and intent, the lattice is hard to understand. Fortunately, there is a much simpler way to indicate extent and intent of the concepts in a lattice. A lattice element is labelled with attribute  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , if it is the largest concept having  $a$  in its intent; it is labelled with an object

$o \in \mathcal{O}$ , if it is the smallest concept having  $o$  in its extent. The (unique) lattice element labelled with  $a$  is thus

$$\mu(a) = \bigvee \{c \in \mathcal{L}(C) \mid a \in \text{int}(c)\}$$

The element labelled with  $o$  is

$$\gamma(o) = \bigwedge \{c \in \mathcal{L}(C) \mid o \in \text{ext}(c)\}$$

All concepts greater than  $\gamma(o)$  have  $o$  in its extent, and all concepts smaller than  $\mu(a)$  have  $a$  in its intent.

The following remarkable property establishes the connection between a table and its lattice, and shows that they can be reconstructed from each other:

$$(o, a) \in T \iff \gamma(o) \leq \mu(a)$$

Hence the attributes of object  $o$  are just those which show up above  $o$  in the lattice, and the objects for attribute  $a$  are those which show up below  $a$ .

Utilizing the labelling, suprema in the lattice indicate that certain objects have common attributes, while infima show that certain attributes fit to common objects. Another way to express this is to say that suprema factor out common attributes, and infima factor out common objects. Thus the lattice uncovers a hierarchy of conceptual clusters implicit in the original table. This observation explains part of the power of concept lattices.

## 2.2 Interpretation of concept lattices

Figure 1 gives a very small example of a formal context and its concept lattice. The context table is generated from a (fictious) FORTRAN source file and captures the use of global variables by subroutines. The corresponding lattice shows that all subroutines below  $\mu(V3)$  (namely R2, R3, R4) use V3 (and no other subroutines use V3). All variables above  $\gamma(R4)$  (namely V3, V4, V5, V6, V7, V8) are used by R4 (and no other variables are used by R4). Thus the concept labelled R4 is in fact

$$c_1 = \gamma(R4) = (\{R4\}, \{V3, V4, V5, V6, V7, V8\})$$

The concept labelled V5/R2 is in fact

$$c_2 = \mu(V5) = \gamma(R2) = (\{R2, R4\}, \{V3, V4, V5\})$$

Hence  $c_1 \leq c_2$ , as  $c_1$  has fewer procedures and more variables. This can be read as an implication: “Any variable used by subroutine R2 is also used by R4”. Similarly,  $\mu(V5) \leq \mu(V3) = \mu(V4)$ , which translates to “All subroutines which use V5 will also use V3 and V4”. The infimum of V5/R2 and V6,V7,V8/R3 is labelled R4, which means that R4 (and all subroutines below  $\gamma(R4)$ ,<sup>1</sup> but no other) uses both V5 and V6,V7,V8. The supremum of the same concepts is labelled V3,V4, which means that V3 and V4 (and all variables above  $\mu(V2)$ , but no other) are used by both R2 and R3. Such knowledge is not easy to obtain manually from big source files!

The example already demonstrates several possibilities to interpret the lattice. Wille [18] presents the following list:

1. Concepts determine maximal object sets with identical attributes. E.g., procedures which use the same global variables, or students which solved the same exercises.
2. The lattice displays a hierarchical classification of (sets of) objects. E.g., R4 uses more variables than R2 or R3.
3. Irreducible elements (i.e., not obtainable as infimum or supremum) in the lattice correspond to “fundamental” objects resp. attributes. In Figure 1, all elements are either inf- or sup-irreducible.
4. Repeated patterns (sublattices) in the lattice show that certain groups of attributes are in fact different instances of an “abstract” attribute.
5. Congruences or weak congruences (so-called block relations) allow to partition the table into “independent” subtables. In the example, R1, V1,V2

can be separated from the rest of the table, as R1,V1,V2 and R2,R3,R4,V3,V4,V5,V6,V7,V8 are both congruence classes.

6. Algebraic decompositions of the lattice, such as subdirect or subtensorial decomposition, reveal hidden structure in the objects or attributes themselves.
7. The table is the “logarithm” of the lattice, as algebraic operations on the lattice have a counterpart in the table.
8. Table or lattice can also be represented by a complete, minimal set of implications between attributes. An implication between attribute sets, written  $A \rightarrow B$ , means “any object which has all attributes in  $A$  also has all attributes in  $B$ ”. In Figure 1, there is e.g., the implication  $V5 \rightarrow V4 \vee V3$ , which corresponds to an upward arc in the lattice.
9. An implication base can also be constructed by an incremental, interactive knowledge acquisition process.

In this overview, we cannot explain all these topics in detail. For a discussion of elementary concept analysis, see [2]. The book [19] treats the mathematical theory in depth. There are fast algorithms for the construction and algebraic decomposition of concept lattices. Construction of concept lattices and implication bases has typical time complexity  $O(n^3)$  for an  $n \times n$  table, but can be exponential in the worst case.

## 3 Improving software component retrieval

We will now turn to applications of concept analysis in software technology. Our first application is rather simple: we will demonstrate how to improve software component retrieval. We wish to state in advance that concept analysis should not replace other retrieval techniques, but should be considered an “amplifier”.

We assume that software components are indexed by keywords. It is not important how the indexing has been obtained, manually or automatically. The indexing, written as a table, is of course a formal context, and the corresponding concept lattice can be computed (Figure 2).

What do we get for our money, namely the computational investment into the lattice? First of all, the lattice shows a hierarchy of keywords which is only implicit (or, more precisely, invisible) in the original table. For example, the lattice reveals that the keywords *read* and *write* have a common superattribute, namely the keyword *file*. As mentioned in the theory part, this can be read as an implication: “any component which

<sup>1</sup>there are none in the example

	access	change	check	create	directory	file	get	group	input	mode	new	open	output	owner	permission	process	read	remove	status	write	
access	X	X		X																	
chdir		X			X																
chmod		X			X				X					X	X						
chown		X			X		X							X							
creat				X	X					X							X				
fork				X					X	X							X				
fstat					X	X													X		
mkdir				X	X					X											
open				X	X						X						X				X
read					X			X									X				X
rmdir				X	X												X	X			
write					X							X									X

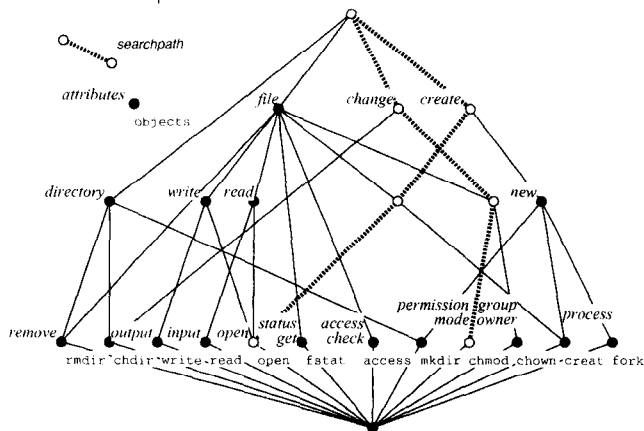


Figure 2: Components indexed by keywords

is indexed with *read* or *write* is indexed with *file* as well”. *write*, in turn, is the superattribute for keywords *output* and *open*, and the lattice shows that component **write** is indexed by the keywords above **write**, namely *input*, *write*, and *file*. The reader should keep in mind that the hierarchy of keywords is solely derived from the table, and looks different if more entries are added to the table.

The lattice can also be used to check or disprove background knowledge. If the user believes that everything which is *created* also is *new*, then the lattice shows that this believe is wrong, as *new* is a subconcept of *create* and not vice versa.

How can the lattice support searching? Any set of keywords  $Q$  may be used as a search key to determine a lattice element  $c$ , which is the infimum of the elements labelled with the keywords:  $c = \bigwedge \{\mu(q) \mid q \in Q\}$ . For example, the search key  $Q = \{file, new\}$  identifies the component **creat**<sup>2</sup>, as there is no other component below both *file* and *new*. The key  $\{file, create\}$  selects the unlabelled center element. Only components below this element will fit to both *file* and *create*. Hence any search key narrows the search space (Figure 3). More search keys may be added incrementally, constraining

<sup>2</sup>not to be confused with the element labelled *create*

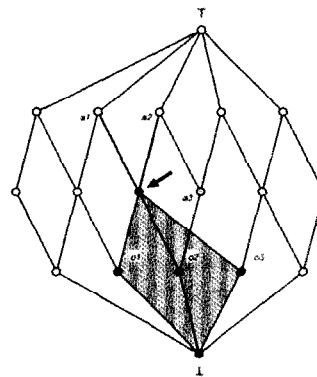


Figure 3: Narrowing the search space

the possible components even further. This behaviour is much more flexible than e.g., faceted search [12], where keywords must be given in a fixed order, and incomplete queries are not possible.

As a side effect, any search key also determines the set of still possible keywords, namely those which are consistent with the preceding search keywords. After selecting *file* and *create*, search key *new* is no longer possible, because there is no element below *file* and *create*, which is also below *new*. In general, a keyword  $k$  is inconsistent with a (partial) query  $Q$ , if  $\mu(k) \wedge \bigwedge \{\mu(q) \mid q \in Q\} = \perp$ . Thus not only can the set of possible search results be narrowed incrementally, the set of still possible keywords is narrowed as well. Using the precomputed lattice, this context-sensitive support can be presented to the user very fast, while the lattice itself need not be visible [6, 7].

#### 4 Exploring configuration spaces

Our next application is the analysis of configuration spaces. Our work was motivated by Parnas, who pointed out: “When a large and important family of products gets out of control, a major effort to restructure it is appropriate. The first step must be to reduce the size of the program family. One must examine the various versions to determine why and how they differ” [10]. The application of concept analysis to this problem is quite obvious, because configuration management systems typically select and compose software components (objects) according to certain features (attributes). We concentrated our efforts on UNIX source files, where variants and versions are often managed using the C preprocessor CPP. A lot of source code sticking to the “configuration selection by preprocessing” scheme is around, which makes it an ideal target for reengineering studies.

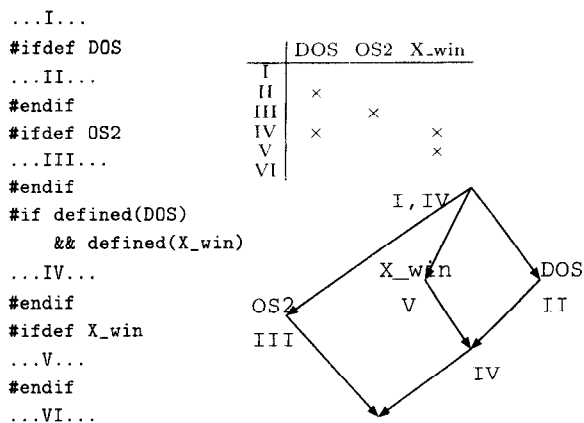


Figure 4: A simple CPP file and its configuration lattice

#### 4.1 The configuration table and its lattice

Using CPP, objects are code pieces (consecutive source line intervals), while the attributes are derived from the CPP expressions governing each code piece. Figure 4 presents a simple example which shows how a *configuration table* is derived from a source file. In the corresponding lattice, a concept represents a specific configuration thread, namely a set of code pieces selected by the same CPP expressions. The example lattice also displays an *interference* between two configuration threads, namely a code piece governed by two supposedly independent, or orthogonal, CPP symbols. Interferences show up as infima not labelled with a CPP symbol. In the example, `X_win` and `DOS` are – as everybody knows – even mutually exclusive, hence the interference indicates that code piece IV is dead code.

But governing conditions can be arbitrary boolean expressions; furthermore, `#ifdefs` and `#ifs` may be nested. Thus it is not so obvious what the “attributes” should be. The handling of complex governing expressions is explained in detail in [14]: governing expressions are transformed into conjunctive normal form; then additional columns for elementary disjunctions and negations are introduced, as a formal context cannot express negated or disjunctive attributes directly. In order that this transformation be correct, additional implications have to be introduced as well. As an example, consider Figure 5. The lattice displays an interference between elementary disjunctions `DOS||X_win` and `UNIX||DOS`. In the source text, it seems that code piece II is governed by the simple expression `DOS`, but since `DOS` also appears in the governing expression for code piece V, there is a subtle interdependency between the corresponding configuration threads - visible in the lattice.

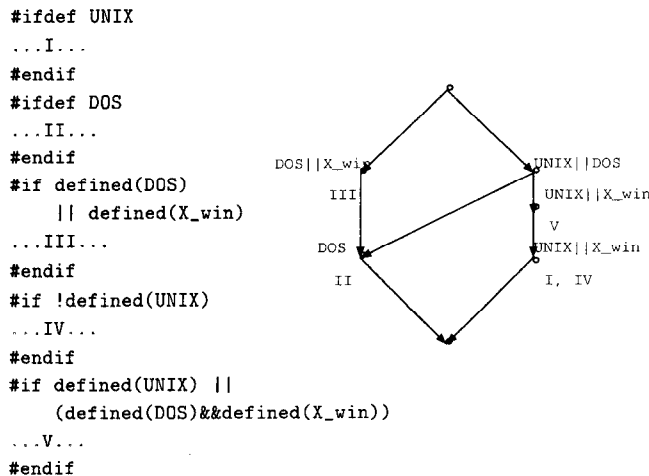


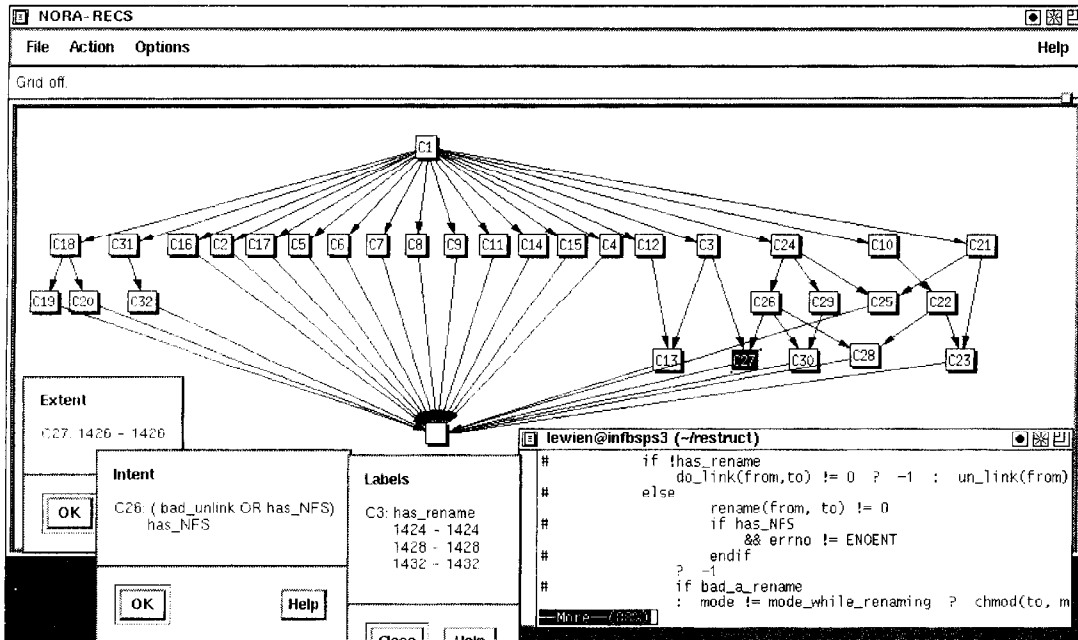
Figure 5: Disjunctions can cause interference

#### 4.2 Interference analysis

One of the source files we analysed was the stream editor `rcsed` from the RCS system. This program is 1656 lines long and uses 21 CPP variables for configuration management. Its configuration lattice, together with the labelling of the lattice elements is shown in Figure 6; it has been computed and layouted by the tool `NORA/RECS`.<sup>3</sup> The top element `C1` represents the code pieces not governed by anything. The left-hand side of the lattice is quite flat (`C18` to `C4`) which means that there are many configurations which do not influence each other. From a software engineering viewpoint, this is desirable, as it indicates *low coupling* between configuration threads.

There are, however, some interferences in the right-hand side. For example, `C27`, representing source line 1426, is the infimum of `C3` and `C26`. The latter are labelled `has_rename` resp. `has_NFS`; `has_rename` has to do with the file system, while `has_NFS` is concerned with the network. These should be independent (transparency of the network), but the lattice reveals that they are not. A look into the source code reveals the following comment for line 1426: “An even rarer NFS bug can occur when clients retry requests. ... This not only wrongly deletes B’s lock, it removes the RCS file! ... Since this problem afflicts scads of Unix programs,

<sup>3</sup>NORA/RECS offers display of concept labels and corresponding code pieces upon mouse click, display of irreducible elements, sublattices, congruences, subdirect decomposition, subtensorial decomposition, horizontal decomposition, and automatic interference detection. Still, it is an experimental implementation not fit for field use.



C1: 1 - 164	1347 - 1370	C8: !has_readlink	254 - 254	C18: large_memory
169 - 179	1377 - 1385	1125 - 1126	277 - 400	C27: 1426 - 1426
210 - 210	1396 - 1396	C9: has_setuid	490 - 490	C28: 215 - 235
238 - 252	1401 - 1402	1545 - 1545	608 - 652	C29: bad_unlink
413 - 427	1406 - 1408	C10: (!has_rename OR bad_b_rename)	661 - 661	198 - 201
486 - 488	1419 - 1420	1410 - 1417	693 - 693	C30: 195 - 196
532 - 598	1434 - 1543	C11: has_fchmod	715 - 715	C31: !large_memory
654 - 659	1549 - 1656	1398 - 1399	729 - 729	166 - 167
666 - 667	C2: !has_setuid	1404 - 1404	751 - 751	402 - 405
674 - 684	1547 - 1547	C12: bad_a_rename	C19: !has_memmove	410 - 411
690 - 691	C3: has_rename	1387 - 1392	258 - 275	429 - 484
695 - 702	1424 - 1424	C13: 1430 - 1430	C20: has_memmove	497 - 530
708 - 713	1428 - 1428	C14: has_prototypes	256 - 256	600 - 606
725 - 727	1432 - 1432	C15: has_mktemp	C21: !has_NFS	663 - 664
731 - 731	C4: !bad_a_rename	1318 - 1318	C22: !has_rename	669 - 672
747 - 749	1394 - 1394	1330 - 1334	1422 - 1422	686 - 688
753 - 754	C5: !has_prototypes	C16: !open_can_creat	C23: 213 - 213	704 - 706
758 - 1049	1375 - 1375	1290 - 1290	C24: (bad_unlink OR has_NFS)	717 - 723
1096 - 1121	C6: !has_mktemp	1051 - 1094	181 - 188	733 - 745
1128 - 1142	1320 - 1320	1123 - 1123	208 - 208	756 - 756
1150 - 1228	1336 - 1345	1144 - 1148	C25: 206 - 206	C32: bad_fopen_wplus
1234 - 1316	C7: open_can_creat	C26: has_NFS	204 - 204	407 - 408
1322 - 1328	1232 - 1232			C33:

Figure 6: Configuration lattice for rcsedit

but is so rare that nobody seems to be worried about it, we won't worry either."

A good configuration lattice is *horizontally decomposable*: it consists of independent sublattices, which are connected only via the top and bottom elements. Figure 7 presents a table which leads to a horizontally decomposable lattice, but also contains an interference. Since row and column permutations do not influence the lattice, horizontal decomposition (if possible) is a simple and natural way to discover independent configuration subspaces, which would be difficult in the table (or source file) directly. If all CPP symbols in a sublattice deal with the same configuration aspect, the principles of high cohesion and low coupling are satisfied. Interferences destroy horizontal decomposability, but can be discovered automatically. Interferences and their dis-

covery using concept analysis are described in detail in [14] and [3].

### 4.3 Background knowledge and minimal governing expressions

Often the user has some background knowledge, such as "X\_win requires UNIX" or "X\_win and DOS are incompatible". Such knowledge can be coded as implications:  $X\_win \rightarrow UNIX$  resp.  $X\_win \wedge DOS \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  (because a contradiction implies everything). It can easily be checked whether background implications are respected by a configuration table and its lattice. If not, the source file is inconsistent with the background knowledge, and the lattice displays those code pieces

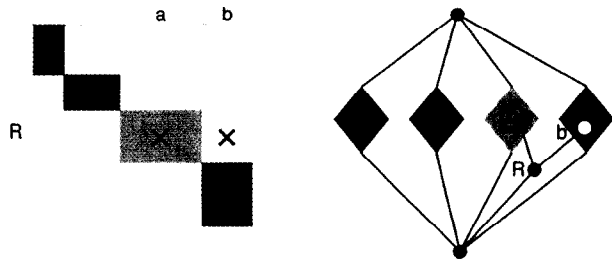


Figure 7: A horizontal decomposition and an interference

which violate background implications.

Background knowledge can also be used to simplify governing expressions in a way not achievable by boolean simplification alone. Lindig [9] not only found a simple and efficient way to determine the total number of configurations from the lattice; he also demonstrated how minimal governing expressions can be generated from irreducible lattice elements. Background knowledge can be added to this process: governing expressions are minimized with respect to program-specific or background-specific mutual dependencies. This results in a powerful tool for “software geriatrics”, as demanded by Parnas.

## 5 Assessing modular structures

In this section, we want to show how concept analysis can be used to assess the modular structure of legacy code and perhaps modularize old systems. We try to find modules in legacy code by analysing the relation between procedures and global variables. Hence the objects  $\mathcal{O}$  are the procedures of a program, the attributes  $\mathcal{A}$  are the global variables, and the *variable usage table* has entry  $(p, v)$  if procedure  $p$  uses variable  $v$ .

### 5.1 Modules and lattices

A module consists of a set of procedures  $P \subseteq \mathcal{O}$  and a set of variables  $V \subseteq \mathcal{A}$  such that all procedures in  $P$  use only variables in  $V$  and all variables in  $V$  are only used by procedures in  $P$ . This definition captures the essence of information hiding. In the table, a module shows up as a maximal rectangle. This rectangle, however, need not be completely filled – not every procedure in a module uses all module variables, and not all module variables are used by all procedures.

We say that two sets of procedures (resp. their modules) are *coupled* if they use the same global variable(s). Similarly, two sets of variables (resp. their modules) *interfere*, if they are used by the same procedure. Although coupling via global variables is undesirable, in a reengineering setting coupling might be acceptable if

	angelegt	geloescht	speicherverbrauch	coloris	maxstrlen	numhashstab	phonhashstab	hashtrabsize	error1	error2	esc
allocate	x										
init	x	x									
analyse	x	x									
initisp			x								
ausgabeisp			x								
fuegespein			x								
changendr				x							
readdata					x						
readline					x						
lookup						x					
exists							x				
rlookup								x			
remove						x	x				
insert						x	x				
calchasvalue								x			
savehashtab						x	x				
partsearch						x	x				
clearhashtabs						x	x				
inithashtabs						x	x	x			
printmessage									x	x	
setbackground											x
settextcolor											x
setattribute											x
clrsrc											x
gotoxy											x

Figure 8: Variable usage table of student Modula-2 program (excerpt)

there are nested local modules or procedures. Interferences however prevent a modularization, as there is a procedure which uses variables from two different modules – a violation of the information hiding principle.

Figure 8 presents the variable usage table for a Modula-2 program from a student project. The program is about 1500 lines long and divided into 8 modules; there are 33 procedures which use 16 module variables. The corresponding lattice (Figure 9) is of course horizontally decomposable<sup>4</sup>. Note that there are more horizontal summands than modules in the program. Thus the modularization proposal generated from the variable usage does not agree with the actual module structure in the program. Manual inspection confirms that some modules have low cohesion and should be split. For example, elements 3 and 4 have been one module in the original program, but the lattice indicates that element 4 implements an abstract data type, while element 3 deals with some low-level memory management.

In case there are only a few interferences between horizontal summands, the modular structure is still good. Interferences can be detected automatically and removed by simple program transformations such as encapsulation of global variables. If there are too many interferences, one might still try to modularize the source code by using so-called block relations. Block relations (also called weak congruences) correspond to rectangle shapes in the table and induce a factor lattice. Every

<sup>4</sup>For modular languages, this is a consequence of the theory. Unfortunately, Modula-2 allows to export module variables, which can lead to coupling and interferences.

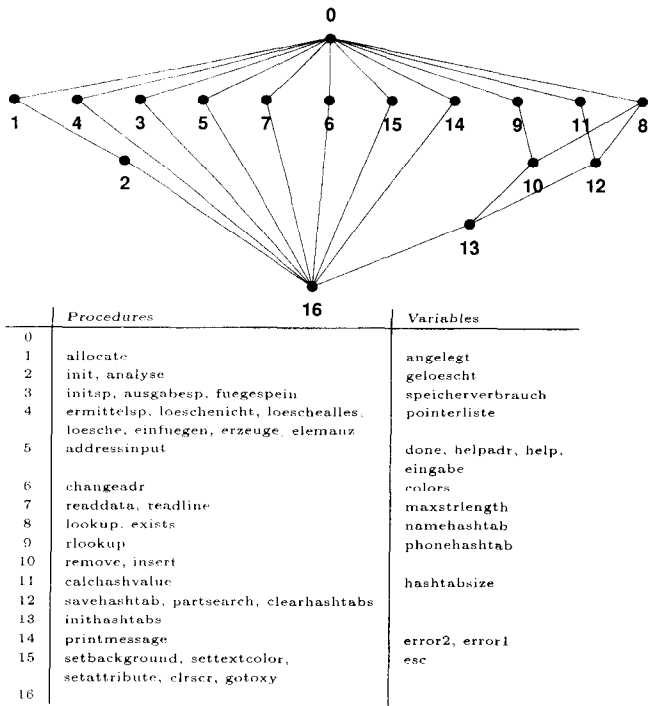


Figure 9: Module structure of a student Modula-2 program

element in the factor lattice corresponds to a rectangle shape in the original table and thus a module candidate. While block relations are difficult to detect manually in a table or its lattice, an efficient algorithm for discovering block relations exists.

Figure 10 presents an example. The table entries can be grouped into three rectangle shapes, as can be seen from the additional bullet entries. The lattice resulting from the “enriched” table (original entries plus bullets) therefore has just three elements, which can be considered a “skeleton” of the original lattice. Indeed, the original lattice can be grouped into three overlapping “congruence classes”. The factor lattice is just the three-element skeleton, hence there are three module candidates in the source code.

Another approach was studied by Siff and Reps [13]. They not only consider the use of global variables, but also use of types, or the fact that a procedure does *not* use a variable or type. A modularization is obtained by finding lattice elements which provide a partition of the attribute space. Siff reports good results on small C programs.

## 5.2 A case study

We examined several legacy systems written in FORTRAN and COBOL. One example is an aerodynamics system used for airplane development in a national re-

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6
R1	•	×	×	×	×	×
R2	×	•	×	×	•	×
R3	×	•	×	•	×	×
R4	×	×	×	•	•	×
R5		×	•	×	×	×
R6		•		×	×	•

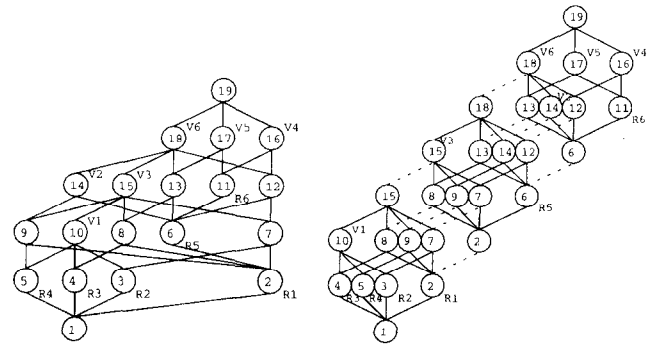


Figure 10: A context table, its lattice, a block relation, and its corresponding congruence classes

search institution. The system is about 20 years old, and has undergone countless modifications and extensions. The source code is 106000 lines long, consists of 317 subroutines, and uses 492 global variables in 46 COMMON blocks. One of the goals of the analysis is to reshape COMMON blocks such that each module corresponds to one COMMON block. Several manual restructuring efforts had not been very successful, so it was decided to try concept analysis.

After the variable usage table was built, the lattice was constructed<sup>5</sup>. It contains no less than 2249 elements. The number of elements in itself is not the problem (after all, it is a large program), but unfortunately the lattice is so full of interferences that it is impossible to reveal any structure (Figure 11). There is no way to make the lattice horizontally decomposable by removing just a small number of interferences.

Several experiments tried to analyse just part of the system. The program contains a particularly intricate COMMON block called “CNTL”, which contains 26 variables. These variables are used in 192 subroutines, and the resulting lattice does not look very encouraging either. Another experiment examined the “OUTPUT”-subsystem, which consists of 50 subroutines using 278 global variables from 26 COMMON blocks; the resulting lattice still has 259 elements and is full of fine-grained interferences.

We also tried to determine block relations. Unfortunately, neither the lattice for the whole system nor the lattice for the “CNTL” COMMON block had usable block relations, hence no automatic modularization was pos-

<sup>5</sup>This required 11 seconds on a SparcStation20.



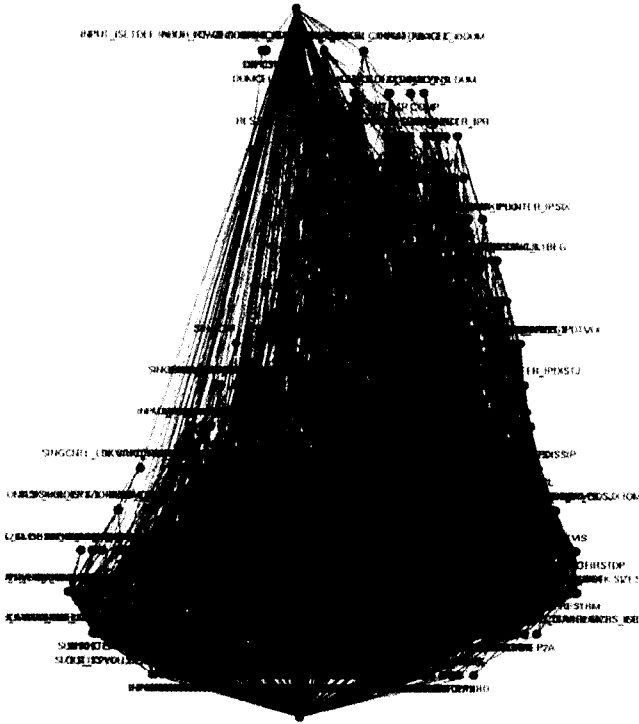


Figure 11: Module structure of aerodynamics system

sible. We also tried to apply subdirect decomposition [16] and subtensorial decomposition [17], as described in [3]. These decomposition techniques are motivated by algebraic rather than software engineering issues, and failed also.

Generally speaking, the presence of module candidates *must* correspond to some partitioning of the variables, and such partitionings can be found by lattice decompositions such as horizontal or block decomposition. In the example, the overwhelming number of interferences prevents a partitioning and hence a modularization.

Based on these results, the national institution decided to cancel a reengineering project for this system, and develop a new system from scratch.

## 6 Future work

The potential of concept analysis in program understanding has not yet been fully explored. Here are some plans for future work:

- A module can also be characterized by variables

which are not used. Hence any module corresponds to a maximal unfilled rectangle. The lattice of the inverted context displays all these rectangles.

- The structure theory for concept lattices offers algebraic decompositions which have not been explored yet.
- Fuzzy contexts use values between 0 and 1 as table entries. For such tables, a concept lattice can again be computed [11].
- Concept analysis can be used for the analysis and perhaps reengineering of class hierarchies in old C++ programs.

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