Metamodels Matching: Issue, Techniques and Comparison

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Abstract. Research and practice for Model Driven Engineering (MDE) have significantly progressed over the last decade for dealing with the increase of complexity within systems during their development and maintenance processes by raising the level of abstraction using models as information storage. New significant approaches, mainly Model Driven Architecture (MDA) defined at the OMG (Object Management Group), "Software Factories" proposed by Microsoft and the Eclipse Modeling Framework (EMF) from IBM, are born and have been experimented. As models grow in use for developing systems, transformation between models grow in importance. University and industry are seeking for effective and efficient ways to treat transformation as first-class assets in MDE. In order to produce new and more powerful transformations, we argue that the semi-automatic generation of transformation rules is an important challenge in future MDE development to make it easier, faster, and cost-reduced process. In this paper we propose to discuss metamodels matching as a key technique for a semi-automatic transformation process. We review, compare, and discuss the main approaches that have been proposed in the state of the art for metamodels matching.

1 Introduction

The special interest behind model driven engineering (MDE) is on the promise of tackling the increase of complexity within the software and its development process by raising the level of abstraction using models as information storage. With the aim of making models as the available internal information, academy and industry have provided several MDE based approaches, among which the most well known are MDA [1] by OMG, "Software factories" by Microsoft [2] and the Eclipse Modeling Framework (EMF) from IBM [3]. MDE has transferred the focus of work from programming to modeling by treating models as first class entities and consequently the primary artifacts of development. As a consequence, models had to be handled and therefore opened new axis of research on the model transformation even if transformation existed in research fields prior to MDE [4]. In the literature, several issues around MDE have been studied and subject of intensive research, e.g. modeling

languages [4] [5], model transformation languages [6] [7], mapping between metamodels [8] [9], Scalability and reuse of model transformations [10], Maintenance and evolution of model transformations [11] and Model-driven development methodologies, approaches, and languages with a focus on transformations [12]. Of particular interest to transformation among these issues, are model transformation languages that allow defining how a set of elements from a source model are analyzed and transformed into a set of elements of a target model, the output of transformation being a set of rules involving, and in the same time merging mapping and transformation techniques between two metamodels. Now that the treated information becomes available as models, the problem of a manual transformation still exists, and is one of the main barriers to tackle avoiding making transformation fastidious and error-prone task, and therefore an expensive process. The semi-automatic generation of transformation rules is an important challenge in future MDE development to make it easier, faster, and cost-reduced process with the decrease of errors that may occur. Matching techniques between metamodels are the centerpieces for a semi-automatic transformation process in MDE and particularly in MDA. In fact, metamodels matching allows discovering mappings between two metamodels and the mappings allow in turn generating transformation rules between two metamodels. However, there has been little research in metamodel matching. In the database domain, the corresponding term for metamodel matching is schema matching. In this paper, we discuss the problem of schema matching that has been extensively studied in the database area, and then we review the main different approaches that have been proposed for metamodel matching in the context of MDA/MDE. We will start by stressing the role of matching techniques in the semi-automatic process of model transformation.

This paper is organized as follows: section 2 introduces the main concepts and techniques for a semi-automatic transformation process, presents schema matching techniques and situates it in the context of metamodel matching. Section 3, reviews and compares five approaches that have been proposed for metamodel matching in the context of MDA. Finally, section 4 concludes our work and presents some final remarks and perspectives.

2 Metamodels Matching for Model Transformation

2.1 Metamodels Matching for Model Transformation: Overview

It is well recognized today that model transformation is one of the most important operations in MDA [13]. The following definition of model transformation, largely consensual, is proposed in [14]:

"A Transformation is the automatic generation of a target model from a source model, according to a transformation definition. A transformation definition is a set of transformation rules that together describe how a model in the source language can be transformed into a model in the target language. A transformation rule is a description of how one or more constructs in the source language can be transformed into one or more constructs in the target language".

However, we point out two main problems concerning the MDA transformation process.

- The first problem concerns the manual creation of "transformation rules" between metamodels. Generally, this task is tedious and error-prone, and therefore expensive in terms of efficiency [15]. Moreover, writing the transformation rules requires a good mastery of both the transformation language and the source and target metamodels, in order to express the correspondence both from a structural and a semantic point of view.
- The second problem concerns the specification of these "transformation rules", which merge together techniques of mapping and transformation without an explicit distinction between them. That is to say, the specification of correspondences between elements of two metamodels and the transformation between them are grouped in the same component at the same level.

In the MDA context, and according to previous works [10, 16], the concepts of mapping and transformation should be explicitly distinguished, and together could be involved in the same process that we call transformation process. In fact, in the transformation process, the mapping specification precedes the transformation definition. A mapping specification is a definition of the correspondences between metamodels (i.e. a metamodel for building a PIM (Platform Independent Model) and another for building a PSM (Platform Specific Model)). This definition is largely obtained by a matching process between two metamodels, and completed by an expert. Transformation definitions contain an explicit description of how to transform a model into another using a transformation language. Transformation definitions are a set of rules that are obtained automatically from all the mappings between two metamodels. Hence, in our approach the transformation process of a PIM into a PSM can be structured in two stages: a mapping specification obtained by a matching process and completed by an expert, and a transformation definition derived automatically from the mappings.

The figure 1 illustrates the main concepts and techniques involved in a semi-automatic transformation process. The matching operation is the process that produces the potential mappings between two metamodels. Generally, this task implies a search of equivalent or similar elements between two metamodels. Given that no generic matching solution exists for different metamodels and application domains, it is recommended to give the human expert the possibility to check the obtained mappings, and, if necessary, update or adapt it. This is one of the steps in the whole process, in which the expert intervenes to complete and validate the obtained results. Finally, a transformation model (a program: a set of rules), is derived automatically from a mapping model. A transformation model is basically represented by a set of rules that states how elements from source metamodel are transformed into elements of target metamodel. A transformation model (program) takes a source model defined by designers or and produces an equivalent target model on a specific platform.

Two important operations (dashed arrows) *adaptation* (1) and *derivation* (2) allow linking and completing the two main operations (matching and transformation) in the whole process of transformation. *Adaptation* is the responsibility of the expert user who should accept, discard or modify the obtained mappings, furthermore, to specify the correspondences which the matcher was unable to find. Loosely speaking, the

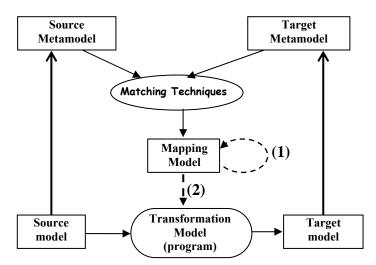


Fig. 1. Semi-automatic transformation process.

mapping and matching techniques (models) could be defined with the following intuitive formula:

The mapping model obtained in the previous step after adaptation by the expert user should be completely defined allowing an automatic generation of transformation model. This operation is called *derivation* and, in the same way as above, transformation and mapping models can be defined with the following intuitive formula:

Transformation = Mapping + Derivation

2.2 From Schema Matching to Metamodel Matching

Matching between metamodels are the centerpieces for a semi-automatic transformation process in MDE, particularly in MDA. Matching techniques have been studied in various research domains, including digital libraries, ontologies, agent matchmaking, schema integration and evolution in databases [16] [17]. In the context of MDE, we can find few works in the literature that address the problem of metamodels matching. Schemas in the context of databases and metamodels in our context of MDE are closely related, hence, we propose to review the different approaches of schema matching, and after that we situate these approaches in our context of metamodeling matching.

2.2.1 Classification of Schema Matching Approaches

In the literature, several schema matching approaches have been proposed [16] [17]. Each schema matching approach has its own characteristics that were grouped in a taxonomy illustrated bellow in figure 2 [15] [18]. In addition, each approach has been

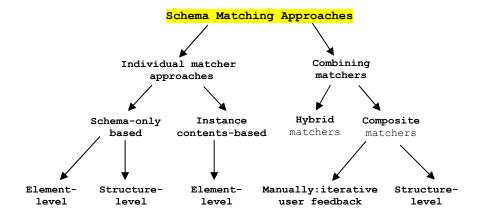


Fig. 2. Classification of schema matching approaches.

evaluated through match quality measures discussed in the next section 2.2.2.

- Individual matcher approaches use only one matching criterion. They are classified in:
- Schema-only based, when they consider only metamodels. They can be classified in:
 - ✓ Element level, the mapping is realized for each individual element. It can be classified in linguistic and constraint-based. Linguistic are based on name similarity, description, global namespace, while constraint-based are based on type similarity and key properties.
 - ✓ *Structure-level*, the mapping is realized considering the combinations of elements related in a structure. It is only classified in constraint-based that use graph matching.
- Instance/contents-based, when they consider only instances (or models). It can also be classified in element-level. This last can be classified in linguistic and constraint-based. In this case, linguistic is based on word frequencies and key terms present in the element instances, while constraint-based is based on value pattern and ranges of the element instances.
 - Combining matchers use multiple matching criteria. They can be classified in:
 - Hybrid, they combine multiple approaches to create only one matcher in order to produce a result, i.e. the creation of mapping between elements.
 - Composite, they combine many results obtained from different approaches in order to produce the mapping between elements. This combination of results can be manual or automatic.

2.2.2 Matching Quality Measure

The interrelationships between metamodels can be organized in sets which can be manually or automatically created. A set created manually can contain all needed matches (i.e. matched elements); while a set created automatically can contain valid and non valid matches. The first set is denominated real matches, and the later derived matches (cf. Figure 3).

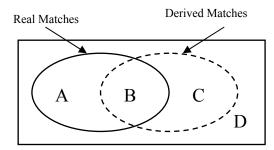


Fig. 3. Comparing real matches and automatically derived matches.

In addition, other subsets are defined as follows [16] [18]:

- A (false negatives) are matches needed but not automatically identified.
- B (true positives) are matches which are needed and have also been correctly matched by the automatic match operation.
- C (false positives) are matches falsely proposed by the automatic match operation.
- D (true negatives) are false matches which have also been correctly discarded by the automatic match operation.

Based on the cardinalities of these sets, the following match quality measures are provided as parameters for benchmarks:

$$Precision = \frac{|B|}{|B| + |C|}$$
 reflects the share of real correspondences among all found

Recall =
$$\frac{|B|}{|A| + |B|}$$
 specifies the share of real correspondences that are found.

$$F$$
-Measure = 2 * $\frac{\text{Pr ecision* Re } call}{\text{Pr ecision} + \text{Re } call}$

$$Overall = Recall * (1 - \frac{1}{Pr \ ecision})$$

All these measures were developed specifically in the schema matching context [15] [18]. We can notice that F-Measure represents the harmonic mean of Precision and Recall. The main underlying idea of Overall is to quantify the post-match effort needed for adding missed matches and removing false ones.

2.2.3 Metamodel Matching versus Schema Matching

Our aim is not to compare schema matching approaches with those of metamodel matching. The main reason is that the technological spaces of both approaches are not the same. A technological space [19] is a working context with a set of associated concepts, body of knowledge, tools, required skills, and possibilities. It is often associated to a given user community with shared know-how, educational support,

common literature and even workshop and conference regular meetings. Although it is difficult to give a precise definition, some TSs can be easily identified, e.g. the XML TS, the DBMS TS, the abstract syntax TS, the meta-model (OMG/MDA) TS, etc. In one case, in schema matching efforts have been made mainly in the context of databases and involve ER schemas. In the other case, metamodel matching focuses on UML OMG standard which is structurally and semantically richer than ER schemas. Moreover, the level of abstraction of metamodels and schemas is not the same. However, techniques known and used to find semantic correspondences between the elements of two schemas are to be applied to the metamodel matching problems since the aim "finding semantic correspondences" is still the same. We can say that metamodel matching techniques would probably subsume schema matching techniques from the fact that a technological space of metamodels includes the technological space of schemas in database area. Thus metamodel matching techniques will probably become a generic solution to many problems of matching; that we can call the X-matching.

3 Metamodel Matching: A Review and Comparison

In this section we will review and compare the different approaches of metamodels matching presented respectively in [20], [21], [18], [17], [15], and [22] as well as their evaluations. We have encountered a number of systems, which have not been evaluated altogether, respectively SF, SAMT, ModelCVS, Delfabro, and Extended SAMT4MDE.

3.1 A review for Metamodel Matching

3.1.1 Similarity Flooding SF

System Description. SF [20] converts schemas (SQL DDL, RDF, XML) into labeled graphs and uses fix-point computation to determine correspondences of 1:1 local and m: n global cardinality between corresponding nodes of the graphs. The algorithm has been employed in a hybrid combination with a simple name matcher, which suggests an initial element-level mapping to be fed to the structural SF matcher. Unlike other schema-based match approaches, SF does not exploit terminological relationships in external dictionary, but entirely relies on string similarity between element names. In the last step, various filters can be specified to select relevant subsets of match results produced by the structural matcher.

Similarity Flooding in [21] is a generic alignment algorithm that allows calculating the correspondences between the nodes of two labeled graphs. This algorithm is based on the following intuition: if two nodes stemming from two graphs have been determined as similar, therefore, there would be strong opportunities for the neighboring nodes to be similar, too. More precisely, SF applies five successive phases on the labeled graphs which have been provided at the input phase. This algorithm is applied after the transformation phase that consists in transforming the

MMsource and the MMtarget to the directed labeled graphs Gsource and Gtarget. Along this phase a set of six strategies to encode the metamodel into such a graph has been used. Each of these strategies has got its proper techniques to transform these two models into a graph.

Evaluation. The SF evaluation in [20] used 9 match tasks defined from 18 schemas (XML and SQL DDL) taken from different application domains. The schemas were small with the number of elements ranging from 5 to 22, while showing a relatively high similarity to each other (0.75 on average). Seven users were asked to perform the manual match process in order to obtain subjective match results. For each match tasks, the results returned by the system were compared against all subjective results to estimate the automatic match quality, for which the Overall measure was used.

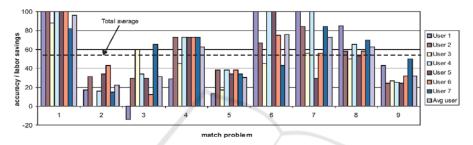


Fig. 4. Match quality of Similarity Flooding Algorithm [20].

Other experiments were also conducted to compare the effectiveness of different filters and formulas for fix-point computation, and to measure the impact of randomizing the similarities in the initial mapping on match accuracy. The best configuration was identified and used in SF. Figure 4 shows the Overall values achieved in the single match tasks according to the match results suggested by the single users. The average Overall quality over all match tasks and all users is around 0.6

Referring to the experiments [21] it is noticed that in each of the six mentioned strategies, a set of match quality variable from one strategy to another is obtained. The results show that the best configuration is generally saturated. On the other hand, the Minimal configuration gives very bad results. Full and Standard configurations, despite using more information from the metamodels, seem to produce slightly poorer results than the Basic configuration. The metamodels used to match on Ecore vary in size. Minjava has more or less the same size as Ecore, Kermeta is a little bigger, and UML is very large. We can clearly see from the results that the alignment quality decreases when the size difference between the two matched metamodels is increasing. This is partly caused by the Selected Threshold filter that the alignment produced by Similarity Flooding. Results on Ecore→Minjava and Ecore→Kermeta show that good quality alignments can be produced by this approach as described by the figures 11 and 12 in [21].

3.1.2 ModelCVS

System Description. In [18], the authors propose an approach said "lifting", allowing

to transform the source and target metamodels into equivalent ontologies. This approach proposes a framework of matching the metamodels thanks to a transition of ModelWare into OntoWare while using transformations of the metamodels Ecorebased into OWL-based ontologies. After having done this transition, one can reuse the tools of ontologies matching that exploit the ontologies which really represent the metamodels. Once the matching task is over, the transition of the ontology mapping into a model of texture will be done. From this model of texture, the necessary transformation rules to transform some models in conformity with a metamodel A to a model in conformity with a metamodel B can be deduced.

In this work, they concentrate on evaluating schema-based matching tools, i.e., they do not consider instance-based matching techniques. This is due to the fact that they are using the data provided by metamodels (schema-level) and not data from models (instance-level) to find equivalences between metamodel elements.

Evaluation. According to [18], in addition to the different modifications and combinations of different matching techniques which produce higher precision values but at the same time lower recall values, the Metamodels must fullfil some requirements in order to prove that matching tools are worth using. The 10 integration scenarios showed that the metamodels must have a common terminology and taxonomy, which is the case when matching UML1.4, UML2.0 and Ecore. These combinations lead to the best results despite their size which obviously lead to a higher number of elements that have to be matched. Furthermore, good results are achieved when matching WebML with EER. These two metamodels also have a common terminology and both do not heavily use inheritance relationships. In contrast, matching WebML or EER with UML1.4, UML2.0 or Ecore results in a very low precision and in a very poor recall which is mostly below 0.10. These results lead to the conclusion that Ontology matching tools are not always appropriate for matching metamodels. Instead, the metamodels must fullfil some common properties which of course are not always the case when matching real-world metamodels.

The evaluation of [18] produced the following best average match quality: Precision=0.63, Recall=0.68, F-Measure=0.61. This last measure is used to study the impact on match quality (>0.5 indicates positive benefit, <0.5 indicates negative benefit)

3.1.3 SAMT4MDE

System Description. In [17], the authors have discussed some issues of schema matching and provided some insights into metamodel matching. To reach this end, they have used UML and the C# platform to illustrate their approach and to evaluate their Mapping Tool for MDE (MT4MDE) and Semi-Automatic Matching Tool for MDE (SAMT4MDE).

Their approach takes into account metamodel matching in the context of MDE. The study of metamodel matching in MDE is a promising trend to improve the creation of mapping specification and, consequently, the transformation definition. Tools for metamodel matching are necessary to avoid error-prone factors linked to the manual creation of the transformation definition and to evolve mapping specification when metamodels change.

Metamodel matching results in a mapping model, which describes how two

metamodels are related to each other. According to *model management algebra* [23], a *mapping* is generated using an operator called *match* which takes two models as input and returns a *mapping* between them. This operator has been modified as follows: given M_a , M_b and $C_{Ma \to Mb} / M_c$, the *operator match* is formally defined as: $Match'(M_a, M_b) = C_{Ma \to Mb} / M_c$.

Evaluation. The evaluation of this approach [17] resulted in the following values

- Schema similarity SS =0.74
- Match quality measures: Precision =0.71, Recall =0.68, F-Measure =0.69, Overall =0.40

In the ideal case, *Precision=Recall=*1.0, i.e. when the number of *false negatives* and *false positives* are both zero. In this experimentation, *Precision =*0.71 demonstrates that 71% of derived matches were correctly determined using our *schema matching algorithm*. And *Recall =*0.68 demonstrates that 68% of real matches were automatically found.

3.1.4 Heuristics for Transformation

System Description. In [15], authors suggest different heuristics for the realization of matching between two metamodels. The Match operation takes two models M_a and M_b as input and produces a weaving model Mw as output. M_a and M_b conform to MM_a and MM_b ; M_w conforms to MM_w .

$$M_w$$
: MM_w = $Match (M_a:MM_a, M_b:MM_b)$ (1)

These heuristics use matching transformations and weaving models to semi-automate the development of transformations. As defined in [15], Matching transformations are a special kind of transformation which implements heuristics and algorithms to create weaving models. Their function is also to select a set of elements from a group of input models and to produce links between these elements. Following the same line of thought, weaving models are models that capture different kinds of relationships between models. The solution suggested earlier enables to rapidly implement and customize these heuristics. Different heuristics are combined and a new metamodel-based heuristic is proposed to exploit metamodel data which automatically produce weaving models and also to exploit the internal features of the set of input metamodels in order to produce weaving models which are derived into model integration transformations. This heuristic is executed together with a link rewriting method that analyzes the weaving metamodel extensions to produce frequently used transformation patterns.

Evaluation. The matching transformations in [15] are executed with two variations of the motivation example. In the first example, MM1 and MM2 conform to KM3. In the second example, MM1 conforms to KM3 and MM2 conforms to SQL-DDL. The weaving models are translated into model transformations. The goal is to verify if the transformations are generated correctly, and to verify if the matching transformations can be easily adapted in both examples.

3.1.5 Extended SAMT4MDE

System Description. The contribution of [22] to this field of metamodel matching is an algorithm that uses structural comparison between a class and its neighbouring classes in order to select the equal or similar classes from source and target metamodels. The proposed algorithm for metamodel matching is an extension and enhancement of the algorithm presented in [24] and it is implemented in the Semi-Automatic Matching Tool for MDE (SAMT4MDE) which is capable of semi-automatically creating mapping specifications and making matching suggestions that can be evaluated by users. This provides more reliability to the system because mapping becomes less error-prone. The algorithm proposed can identify structural similarities between metamodel-elements. However, sometimes elements are matched by its structures but they do not share their meanings. The lack of analysis about element meaning leads the tool to find false positives, i.e. derived correspondences that are not real.

Evaluation. The evaluation of [22] uses a test case for creating mapping specification between UML and Java metamodels in order to evaluate the algorithm developed in this paper for metamodel matching. The SAMT4MDE produced the following results for this study case: Schema similarity=0.68, Precision=0.84, Recall=0.90, F-Measure=0.87 and Overall=73.

The similarity between UML and Java metamodels is 0.68. This means that 68% of elements from both metamodels are involved in metamodel matching. A high percentage of metamodel similarity means that semantic distance between these metamodels is small, and low percentage means the opposite.

The measure of precision is 0.84. It is assumed from this information that 84% of found correspondences are correct. The measure of recall is 0.90, meaning that 90% of existing correspondences were found.

3.2 Comparison between Metamodel Matching Techniques

Table 1 gives a summary of the discussed evaluations. Unlike other approaches of schema matching, the five studied approaches of metamodels matching do not exploit terminological relationships in an external dictionary, but entirely rely on string similarity between elements.

Comparing these approaches, we have found some similarities and differences between them. SAMT4MDE [17], ModelCVS [18] and Extended SAMT4MDE[22] use an object oriented model as schema type, while the other approaches/tools such as SF and Delfabro [15] use an object oriented model and relational or XML as schema type.

SF and SAMT4MDE [17] use small metamodels, while ModelCVS [18] and [15] rely on large and even very large size schemas.

According to Table 1, SF allows only eighteen schemas per nine match task (18/9 schemas/task), and SAMT4MDE allow only two schemas per match task (2/1 schemas/task).

In SAMT4MDE [17] the schema similarity is the highest (equal to 0.79) compared to the other approaches while in Extended SAMT4MDE [22] it is equal to 0.68.

SAMT4MDE [17] uses discrete values {-1, 0, 1} as match result representation (i.e. different, similar or equal), while the other approaches (SF, ModelCVS, Extended SAMT4MDE) use continuous values in the range [0, 1] to represent the similarity degree. For Delfabro [15], the matches are not mentioned.

The metadata representation of SF and SAMT4MDE are nodes which represent a metamodel, while Kappel (*ModelCVS* project) and Delfabro represent models or metamodels data. In Extended SAMT4MDE [22] an UML diagram class has been studied.

All approaches with the exception of Delfabro [15] provide a match local cardinality of 1:1, and a match global cardinality of 1: n, while SAMT4MDE provides a match cardinality of 1:n.

The employed quality measure in SF is overall, in ModelCVS [18] these measures are Precision, Recall, and F-measure. SAMT4MDE and Extended SAMT4MDE use the same measures (Precision, Recall, Overall, F-measure), while Delfabro[15] utilizes Element similarity, link rewriting and link filtering.

SF in [20] has taken into consideration the subjectivity of the user's perception visà-vis the necessary correspondences (7 users), in [21] it has used 6 configurations. The evaluation of ModelCVS [18] has used 10 scenarios and 13 settings tools, SAMT4MDE [17] has used 02 fragments of UML and C-sharp metamodels, [15] has utilized a set of input Metamodels. Finally, Extended SAMT4MDE [22] has utilized one class and its neighboring classes.

All the approaches do not necessitate any pre-match effort. The exception is in SF, where there is an intervention of the user in the choice of metamodels alignment and the necessary tools in [20] [21].

To study the impact match quality, SF utilizes a fix-point (Filters), ModelCVS utilizes F-measure (>0.5 positive benefit; < 0.5 negative benefit), Extended SAMT4MDE uses a threshold; while for SAMT4MDE and ModelCVS [15] it is not mentioned.

Extended SAMT4MDE provides the Highest best average match quality, (precision=0.84, Recall=0.90, F-measure=0.87, and overall=0.73) compared to SAMT4MDE (precision=0.79, Recall=0.68, F-measure=0.73, and overall=0.49), and ModelCVS (precision=0.63, Recall=0.58, F-measure=0.61). For SF [20] Overall is almost equal to 0.6, while in [21] these measures vary from one configurations to another.

The Application area for SF is the database and ontologies, while for ModelCVS [18] it is the database and structural modeling languages. SAMT4MDE focuses on model transformation, and for Delfabro [15] it is the Database and model transformation. Finally, the Application area for Extended SAMT4MDE is the database (Database integration, E-business and Data warehouse).

The manual work of the user is especially required in SF. It consists in choosing the metamodels to align, evaluating the matching suggestions produced by the algorithm. The latter task can equally be applied to Extended SAMT4MDE. In ModelCVS [18] the user's intervention consists in including ontology creation tools, query tools, matching tools, and Reasoning tools.

Table 1. Summary of the evaluations.

	SF	ModelCVS	SAMT4MDE		Extended SAMT4MDE
References	[20] & [21]	[18]	[17]	[15]	[22]
Test problems					
Tested Schema types	XML/SQL DDL Relational/RDF/ UML/ Ecore	UML1.4/UML 2.0	Object-oriented model: UML, Java, and C-Sharp	SQL DDL Relational/ UML	UML 2.0/ Ecore
Schema / Schema tasks	18/9	-	2/1	-	-
Min /Max / Avg schema size	5/22/12	Large schema		Very large schema	-
Min /Max / Avg schema similarity	0.46/0.94/0.75	-	Schema similarity=0.79	=	Schema similarity=0.68
Match result representation					
Matches	Element-level corresponding similarity value in [0.1]		With discrete value {0,1,-1}		Similarity value in [0.1]
Element Repr	Node	Models/Metamodels	Node	Models or Metamodels Data	Class
Local/Global Cardinality	1:1/m:n	1:1/m:n	1 :n	-	1:1/m:n
Quality of measure And test methodology					
Employed Quality Measures	Overall	Precision, Recall, F-measure	Precision, Recall, Overall, F-measure	Element similarity*, Link filtering, Link rewriting.	Precision, Recall, Overall, F-measure
Subjectivity	7 user/ 6 configurations	10 scenarios and 13 tools settings	02 Fragments of UML and C# metamodels	A set of input metamodels	1 class and its neighbor classes
Pre-match effort	None	None	None	None	None
Studies Impact on match Quality	Filters, fix-point formulas, randomizing initial similarity	F-Measure: IF>0.5: positive benefit IF<0.5: negative Benefit			Threshold
Best average Match quality					
Prec/ Recall	**	0.63/0.58	0.79/0.68	-	0.84/0.90
F-measure	~0.6	0.61	0.73	-	0.87
Overall	~0.6	- E 1 4' 1'	0.49	-	0.73
	User subjectivity, no pre-match effort	Evaluation hi	Representative metamodels for developing information system	no pre-match effort	no pre-match effort
Application Area	Database and ontologies	Database and Structural Modeling languages	Model transformation	Model transformation	Model Transformation
Manual work of user	Choice of metamodels to align, Evaluate matching suggestions produced by algorithm.	Including ontology creation tools, query tools, matching tools, and Reasoning tools.			Evaluate matching suggestions produced by algorithm
Match granularity	Element level Mapping	Schema-level Matching	Schema-level Matching	-	-

^{*} Contains element to element similarity and structural similarity
** Change from configuration to another

SF has a granularity of matching at element level; otherwise ModelCVS [18] and SAMT4MDE [17] have a granularity of matching at structure level. The majority of these approaches have a combination of matches of type hybrid.

4 Conclusions

A semi-automation of the transformation process in MDE/MDA leads to a real challenge allowing many advantages: it enhances significantly the development time of transformation and decreases the errors that may occur in a manual definition of transformations. Matching techniques between metamodels are the centerpieces for a semi-automatic transformation process in MDE/MDA. The contribution of this work is twofold: First, we present the main techniques and artifacts involved in the semi-automatic transformation process. Second, we review five main approaches that have been proposed in the literature for metamodel matching. In the future work, we will concentrate on how to combine different approaches to enhance the matching process. In addition, we will envisage studying the optimization of mapping models which seems to be another important issue in MDE.

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