Chapter 1- Introduction

Topics covered

- ✧ Professional software development
  - What is meant by software engineering.
- ✧ Software engineering ethics
  - A brief introduction to ethical issues that affect software engineering.
- ✧ Case studies
  - An introduction to three examples that are used in later chapters in the book.

Software engineering

- The economies of ALL developed nations are dependent on software.
- More and more systems are software controlled
- Software engineering is concerned with theories, methods and tools for professional software development.
- Expenditure on software represents a significant fraction of GNP in all developed countries.

Software costs

- Software costs often dominate computer system costs. The costs of software on a PC are often greater than the hardware cost.
- Software costs more to maintain than it does to develop. For systems with a long life, maintenance costs may be several times development costs.
- Software engineering is concerned with cost-effective software development.

Software project failure

✧ *Increasing system complexity*

- As new software engineering techniques help us to build larger, more complex systems, the demands change. Systems have to be built and delivered more quickly; larger, even more complex systems are required; systems have to have new capabilities that were previously thought to be impossible.

✧ *Failure to use software engineering methods*

- It is fairly easy to write computer programs without using software engineering methods and techniques. Many companies have drifted into software development as their products and services have evolved. They do not use software engineering methods in their everyday work. Consequently, their software is often more expensive and less reliable than it should be.

Professional software development

Frequently asked questions about software engineering

Question	Answer
What is software?	Computer programs and associated documentation. Software products may be developed for a particular customer or may be developed for a general market.
What are the attributes of good software?	Good software should deliver the required functionality and performance to the user and should be maintainable, dependable and usable.
What is software engineering?	Software engineering is an engineering discipline that is concerned with all aspects of software production.
What are the fundamental software engineering activities?	Software specification, software development, software validation and software evolution.
What is the difference between software engineering and computer science?	Computer science focuses on theory and fundamentals; software engineering is concerned with the practicalities of developing and delivering useful software.
What is the difference between software engineering and system engineering?	System engineering is concerned with all aspects of computer-based systems development including hardware, software and process engineering. Software engineering is part of this more general process.

Frequently asked questions about software engineering

Question	Answer
What are the key challenges facing software engineering?	Coping with increasing diversity, demands for reduced delivery times and developing trustworthy software.
What are the costs of software engineering?	Roughly 60% of software costs are development costs, 40% are testing costs. For custom software, evolution costs often exceed development costs.
What are the best software engineering techniques and methods?	While all software projects have to be professionally managed and developed, different techniques are appropriate for different types of system. For example, games should always be developed using a series of prototypes whereas safety critical control systems require a complete and analyzable specification to be developed. You can't, therefore, say that one method is better than another.
What differences has the web made to software engineering?	The web has led to the availability of software services and the possibility of developing highly distributed service-based systems. Web-based systems development has led to important advances in programming languages and software reuse.

Software products

- Generic products
  - Stand-alone systems that are marketed and sold to any customer who wishes to buy them.
  - Examples – PC software such as graphics programs, project management tools; CAD software; software for specific markets such as appointments systems for dentists.
- Customized products
  - Software that is commissioned by a specific customer to meet their own needs.
  - Examples – embedded control systems, air traffic control software, traffic monitoring systems.

Product specification

- Generic products
  - The specification of what the software should do is owned by the software developer and decisions on software change are made by the developer.
- Customized products
  - The specification of what the software should do is owned by the customer for the software and they make decisions on software changes that are required.

Essential attributes of good software

Product characteristic	Description
Maintainability	Software should be written in such a way so that it can evolve to meet the changing needs of customers. This is a critical attribute because software change is an inevitable requirement of a changing business environment.
Dependability and security	Software dependability includes a range of characteristics including reliability, security and safety. Dependable software should not cause physical or economic damage in the event of system failure. Malicious users should not be able to access or damage the system.
Efficiency	Software should not make wasteful use of system resources such as memory and processor cycles. Efficiency therefore includes responsiveness, processing time, memory utilisation, etc.
Acceptability	Software must be acceptable to the type of users for which it is designed. This means that it must be understandable, usable and compatible with other systems that they use.

Software engineering

- Software engineering is an engineering discipline that is concerned with all aspects of software production from the early stages of system specification through to maintaining the system after it has gone into use.
- Engineering discipline
  - Using appropriate theories and methods to solve problems bearing in mind organizational and financial constraints.
- All aspects of software production
  - Not just technical process of development. Also project management and the development of tools, methods etc. to support software production.

Importance of software engineering

- More and more, individuals and society rely on advanced software systems. We need to be able to produce reliable and trustworthy systems economically and quickly.
- It is usually cheaper, in the long run, to use software engineering methods and techniques for software systems rather than just write the programs as if it was a personal programming project. For most types of system, the majority of costs are the costs of changing the software after it has gone into use.

Software process activities

- Software specification, where customers and engineers define the software that is to be produced and the constraints on its operation.
- Software development, where the software is designed and programmed.
- Software validation, where the software is checked to ensure that it is what the customer requires.
- Software evolution, where the software is modified to reflect changing customer and market requirements.

General issues that affect software

- Heterogeneity
  - Increasingly, systems are required to operate as distributed systems across networks that include different types of computer and mobile devices.
- Business and social change
  - Business and society are changing incredibly quickly as emerging economies develop and new technologies become available. They need to be able to change their existing software and to rapidly develop new software.

General issues that affect software

- Security and trust
  - As software is intertwined with all aspects of our lives, it is essential that we can trust that software.
- Scale
  - Software has to be developed across a very wide range of scales, from very small embedded systems in portable or wearable devices through to Internet-scale, cloud-based systems that serve a global community.

Software engineering diversity

- There are many different types of software system and there is no universal set of software techniques that is applicable to all of these.
- The software engineering methods and tools used depend on the type of application being developed, the requirements of the customer and the background of the development team.

Application types

- ✧ Stand-alone applications
  - These are application systems that run on a local computer, such as a PC. They include all necessary functionality and do not need to be connected to a network.
- ✧ Interactive transaction-based applications
  - Applications that execute on a remote computer and are accessed by users from their own PCs or terminals. These include web applications such as e-commerce applications.
- ✧ Embedded control systems
  - These are software control systems that control and manage hardware devices. Numerically, there are probably more embedded systems than any other type of system.

Application types

- Batch processing systems
  - These are business systems that are designed to process data in large batches. They process large numbers of individual inputs to create corresponding outputs.
- Entertainment systems
  - These are systems that are primarily for personal use and which are intended to entertain the user.
- Systems for modeling and simulation
  - These are systems that are developed by scientists and engineers to model physical processes or situations, which include many, separate, interacting objects.

Application types

- Data collection systems
  - These are systems that collect data from their environment using a set of sensors and send that data to other systems for processing.
- Systems of systems
  - These are systems that are composed of a number of other software systems.

Software engineering fundamentals

- Some fundamental principles apply to all types of software system, irrespective of the development techniques used:
  - Systems should be developed using a managed and understood development process. Of course, different processes are used for different types of software.
  - Dependability and performance are important for all types of system.
  - Understanding and managing the software specification and requirements (what the software should do) are important.
  - Where appropriate, you should reuse software that has already been developed rather than write new software.

Internet software engineering

- The Web is now a platform for running application and organizations are increasingly developing web-based systems rather than local systems.
- Web services (discussed in Chapter 19) allow application functionality to be accessed over the web.
- Cloud computing is an approach to the provision of computer services where applications run remotely on the ‘cloud’.
  - Users do not buy software buy pay according to use.

Web-based software engineering

- Web-based systems are complex distributed systems but the fundamental principles of software engineering discussed previously are as applicable to them as they are to any other types of system.
- The fundamental ideas of software engineering apply to web-based software in the same way that they apply to other types of software system.

Web software engineering

- Software reuse
  - Software reuse is the dominant approach for constructing web-based systems. When building these systems, you think about how you can assemble them from pre-existing software components and systems.
- Incremental and agile development
  - Web-based systems should be developed and delivered incrementally. It is now generally recognized that it is impractical to specify all the requirements for such systems in advance.

Web software engineering

- Service-oriented systems
  - Software may be implemented using service-oriented software engineering, where the software components are stand-alone web services.
- Rich interfaces
  - Interface development technologies such as AJAX and HTML5 have emerged that support the creation of rich interfaces within a web browser.

Software engineering ethics

Software engineering ethics

- Software engineering involves wider responsibilities than simply the application of technical skills.
- Software engineers must behave in an honest and ethically responsible way if they are to be respected as professionals.
- Ethical behaviour is more than simply upholding the law but involves following a set of principles that are morally correct.

Issues of professional responsibility

- Confidentiality
  - Engineers should normally respect the confidentiality of their employers or clients irrespective of whether or not a formal confidentiality agreement has been signed.
- Competence
  - Engineers should not misrepresent their level of competence. They should not knowingly accept work which is outwith their competence.

Issues of professional responsibility

- ✧ Intellectual property rights
  - Engineers should be aware of local laws governing the use of intellectual property such as patents, copyright, etc. They should be careful to ensure that the intellectual property of employers and clients is protected.
- ✧ Computer misuse
  - Software engineers should not use their technical skills to misuse other people's computers. Computer misuse ranges from relatively trivial (game playing on an employer's machine, say) to extremely serious (dissemination of viruses).

ACM/IEEE Code of Ethics

- The professional societies in the US have cooperated to produce a code of ethical practice.
- Members of these organisations sign up to the code of practice when they join.
- The Code contains eight Principles related to the behaviour of and decisions made by professional software engineers, including practitioners, educators, managers, supervisors and policy makers, as well as trainees and students of the profession.

Rationale for the code of ethics

- *Computers have a central and growing role in commerce, industry, government, medicine, education, entertainment and society at large. Software engineers are those who contribute by direct participation or by teaching, to the analysis, specification, design, development, certification, maintenance and testing of software systems.*
- *Because of their roles in developing software systems, software engineers have significant opportunities to do good or cause harm, to enable others to do good or cause harm, or to influence others to do good or cause harm. To ensure, as much as possible, that their efforts will be used for good, software engineers must commit themselves to making software engineering a beneficial and respected profession.*

The ACM/IEEE Code of Ethics

Software Engineering Code of Ethics and Professional Practice

ACM/IEEE-CS Joint Task Force on Software Engineering Ethics and Professional Practices

PREAMBLE

The short version of the code summarizes aspirations at a high level of the abstraction; the clauses that are included in the full version give examples and details of how these aspirations change the way we act as software engineering professionals. Without the aspirations, the details can become legalistic and tedious; without the details, the aspirations can become high sounding but empty; together, the aspirations and the details form a cohesive code.

Software engineers shall commit themselves to making the analysis, specification, design, development, testing and maintenance of software a beneficial and respected profession. In accordance with their commitment to the health, safety and welfare of the public, software engineers shall adhere to the following Eight Principles:

Ethical principles

1. PUBLIC - Software engineers shall act consistently with the public interest.
2. CLIENT AND EMPLOYER - Software engineers shall act in a manner that is in the best interests of their client and employer consistent with the public interest.
3. PRODUCT - Software engineers shall ensure that their products and related modifications meet the highest professional standards possible.
4. JUDGMENT - Software engineers shall maintain integrity and independence in their professional judgment.
5. MANAGEMENT - Software engineering managers and leaders shall subscribe to and promote an ethical approach to the management of software development and maintenance.
6. PROFESSION - Software engineers shall advance the integrity and reputation of the profession consistent with the public interest.
7. COLLEAGUES - Software engineers shall be fair to and supportive of their colleagues.
8. SELF - Software engineers shall participate in lifelong learning regarding the practice of their profession and shall promote an ethical approach to the practice of the profession.

Case studies

Ethical dilemmas

- Disagreement in principle with the policies of senior management.
- Your employer acts in an unethical way and releases a safety-critical system without finishing the testing of the system.
- Participation in the development of military weapons systems or nuclear systems.

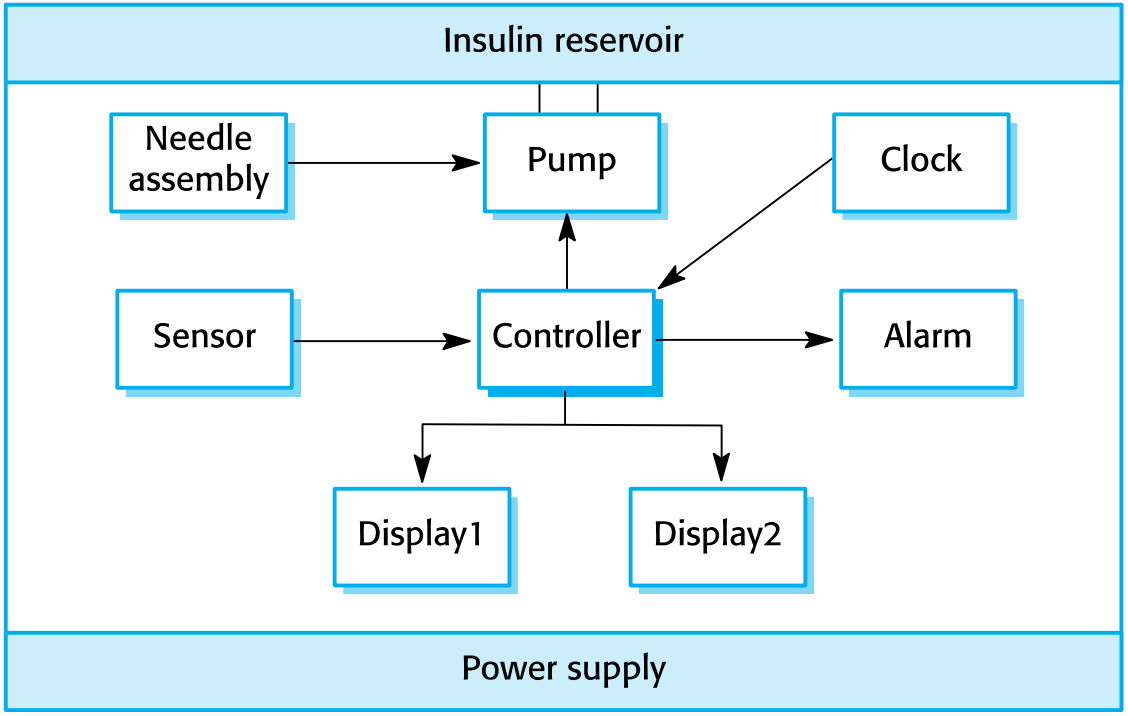
Case studies

- A personal insulin pump
  - An embedded system in an insulin pump used by diabetics to maintain blood glucose control.
- A mental health case patient management system
  - Mentcare. A system used to maintain records of people receiving care for mental health problems.
- A wilderness weather station
  - A data collection system that collects data about weather conditions in remote areas.
- iLearn: a digital learning environment
  - A system to support learning in schools

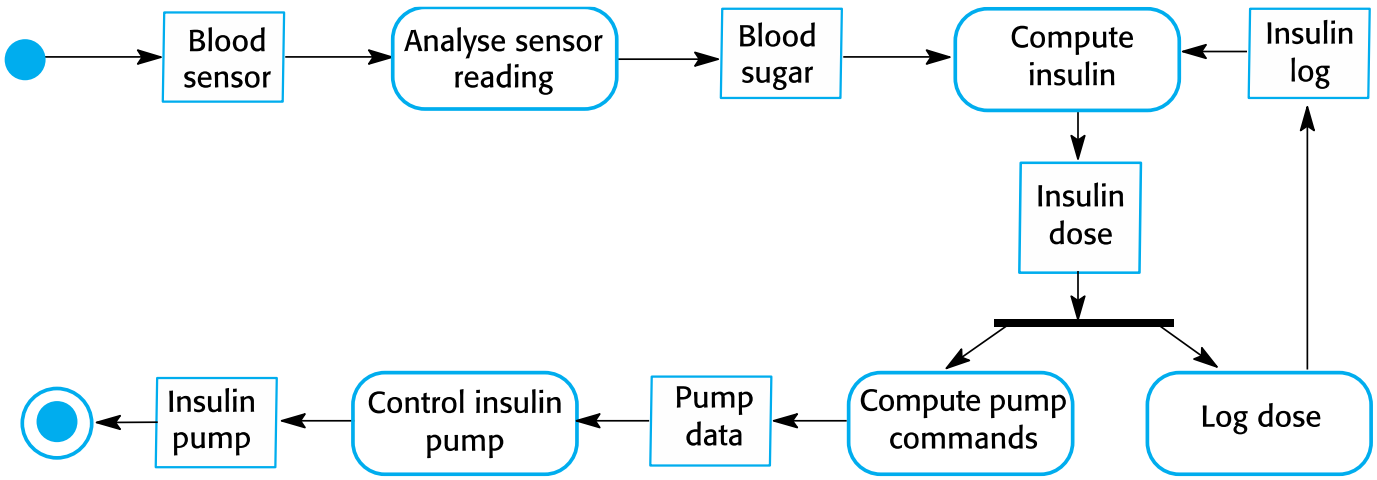
Insulin pump control system

- Collects data from a blood sugar sensor and calculates the amount of insulin required to be injected.
- Calculation based on the rate of change of blood sugar levels.
- Sends signals to a micro-pump to deliver the correct dose of insulin.
- Safety-critical system as low blood sugars can lead to brain malfunctioning, coma and death; high-blood sugar levels have long-term consequences such as eye and kidney damage.

Insulin pump hardware architecture



Activity model of the insulin pump



Essential high-level requirements

- The system shall be available to deliver insulin when required.
- The system shall perform reliably and deliver the correct amount of insulin to counteract the current level of blood sugar.
- The system must therefore be designed and implemented to ensure that the system always meets these requirements.

Mentcare: A patient information system for mental health care

- A patient information system to support mental health care is a medical information system that maintains information about patients suffering from mental health problems and the treatments that they have received.
- Most mental health patients do not require dedicated hospital treatment but need to attend specialist clinics regularly where they can meet a doctor who has detailed knowledge of their problems.
- To make it easier for patients to attend, these clinics are not just run in hospitals. They may also be held in local medical practices or community centres.

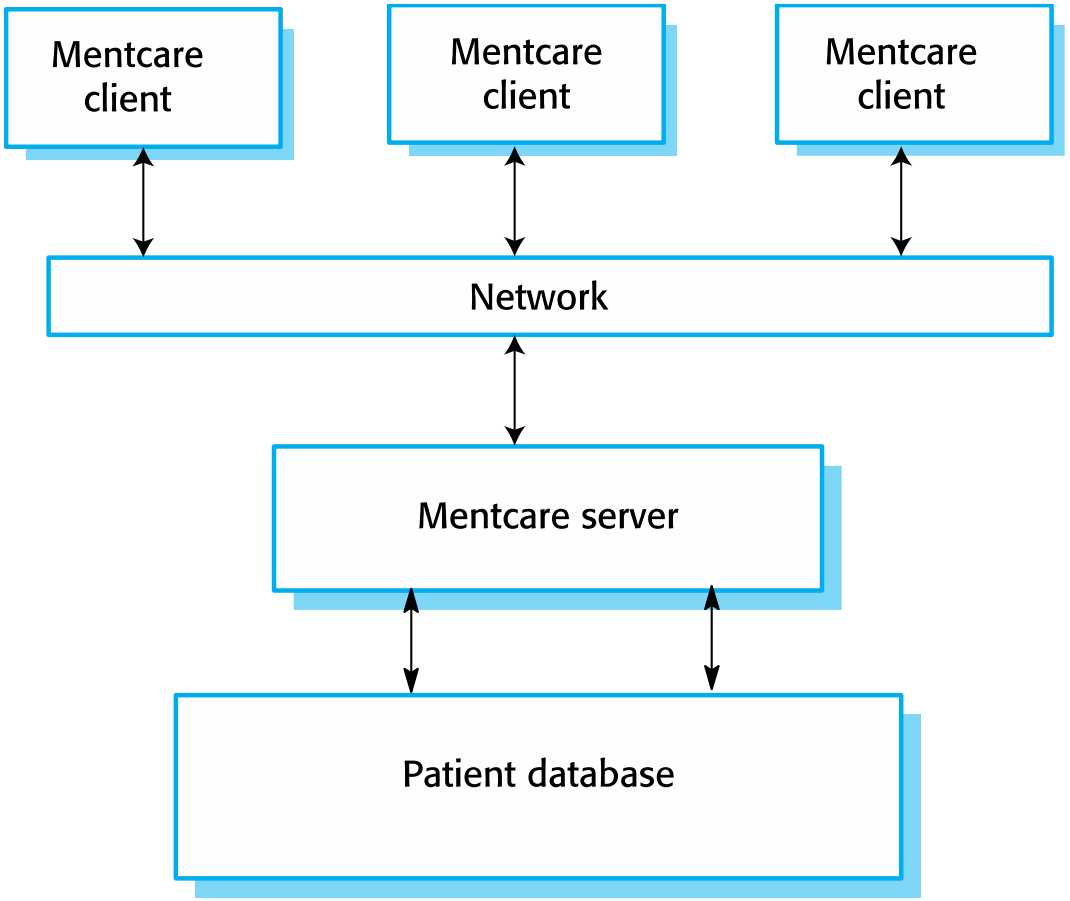
Mentcare

- Mentcare is an information system that is intended for use in clinics.
- It makes use of a centralized database of patient information but has also been designed to run on a PC, so that it may be accessed and used from sites that do not have secure network connectivity.
- When the local systems have secure network access, they use patient information in the database but they can download and use local copies of patient records when they are disconnected.

Mentcare goals

- To generate management information that allows health service managers to assess performance against local and government targets.
- To provide medical staff with timely information to support the treatment of patients.

The organization of the Mentcare system



Key features of the Mentcare system

- ✧ Individual care management
  - Clinicians can create records for patients, edit the information in the system, view patient history, etc. The system supports data summaries so that doctors can quickly learn about the key problems and treatments that have been prescribed.
- ✧ Patient monitoring
  - The system monitors the records of patients that are involved in treatment and issues warnings if possible problems are detected.
- ✧ Administrative reporting
  - The system generates monthly management reports showing the number of patients treated at each clinic, the number of patients who have entered and left the care system, number of patients sectioned, the drugs prescribed and their costs, etc.

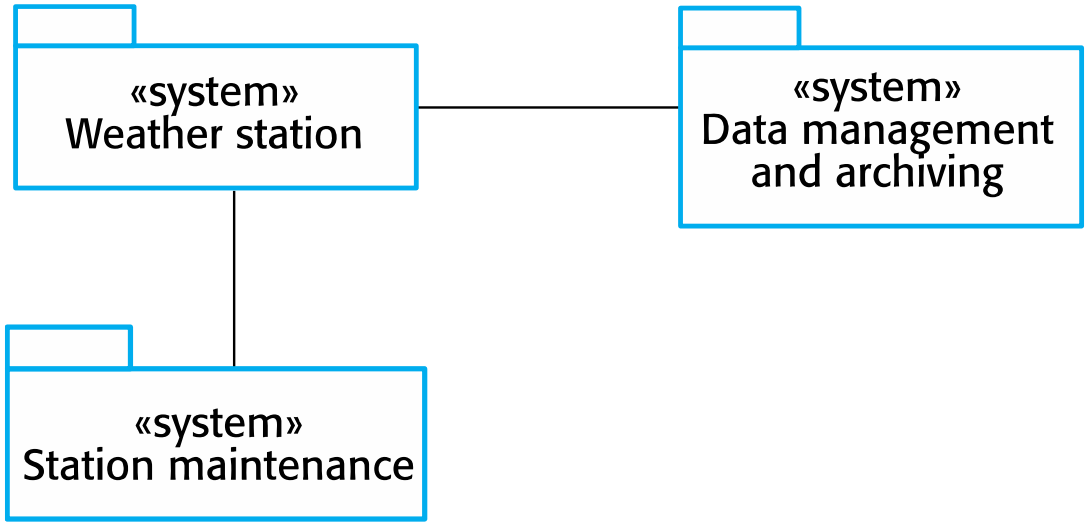
Mentcare system concerns

- Privacy
  - It is essential that patient information is confidential and is never disclosed to anyone apart from authorised medical staff and the patient themselves.
- Safety
  - Some mental illnesses cause patients to become suicidal or a danger to other people. Wherever possible, the system should warn medical staff about potentially suicidal or dangerous patients.
  - The system must be available when needed otherwise safety may be compromised and it may be impossible to prescribe the correct medication to patients.

Wilderness weather station

- The government of a country with large areas of wilderness decides to deploy several hundred weather stations in remote areas.
- Weather stations collect data from a set of instruments that measure temperature and pressure, sunshine, rainfall, wind speed and wind direction.
  - The weather station includes a number of instruments that measure weather parameters such as the wind speed and direction, the ground and air temperatures, the barometric pressure and the rainfall over a 24-hour period. Each of these instruments is controlled by a software system that takes parameter readings periodically and manages the data collected from the instruments.

The weather station's environment



Weather information system

- The weather station system
  - This is responsible for collecting weather data, carrying out some initial data processing and transmitting it to the data management system.
- The data management and archiving system
  - This system collects the data from all of the wilderness weather stations, carries out data processing and analysis and archives the data.
- The station maintenance system
  - This system can communicate by satellite with all wilderness weather stations to monitor the health of these systems and provide reports of problems.

Additional software functionality

- Monitor the instruments, power and communication hardware and report faults to the management system.
- Manage the system power, ensuring that batteries are charged whenever the environmental conditions permit but also that generators are shut down in potentially damaging weather conditions, such as high wind.
- Support dynamic reconfiguration where parts of the software are replaced with new versions and where backup instruments are switched into the system in the event of system failure.

iLearn: A digital learning environment

- A digital learning environment is a framework in which a set of general-purpose and specially designed tools for learning may be embedded plus a set of applications that are geared to the needs of the learners using the system.
- The tools included in each version of the environment are chosen by teachers and learners to suit their specific needs.
  - These can be general applications such as spreadsheets, learning management applications such as a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) to manage homework submission and assessment, games and simulations.

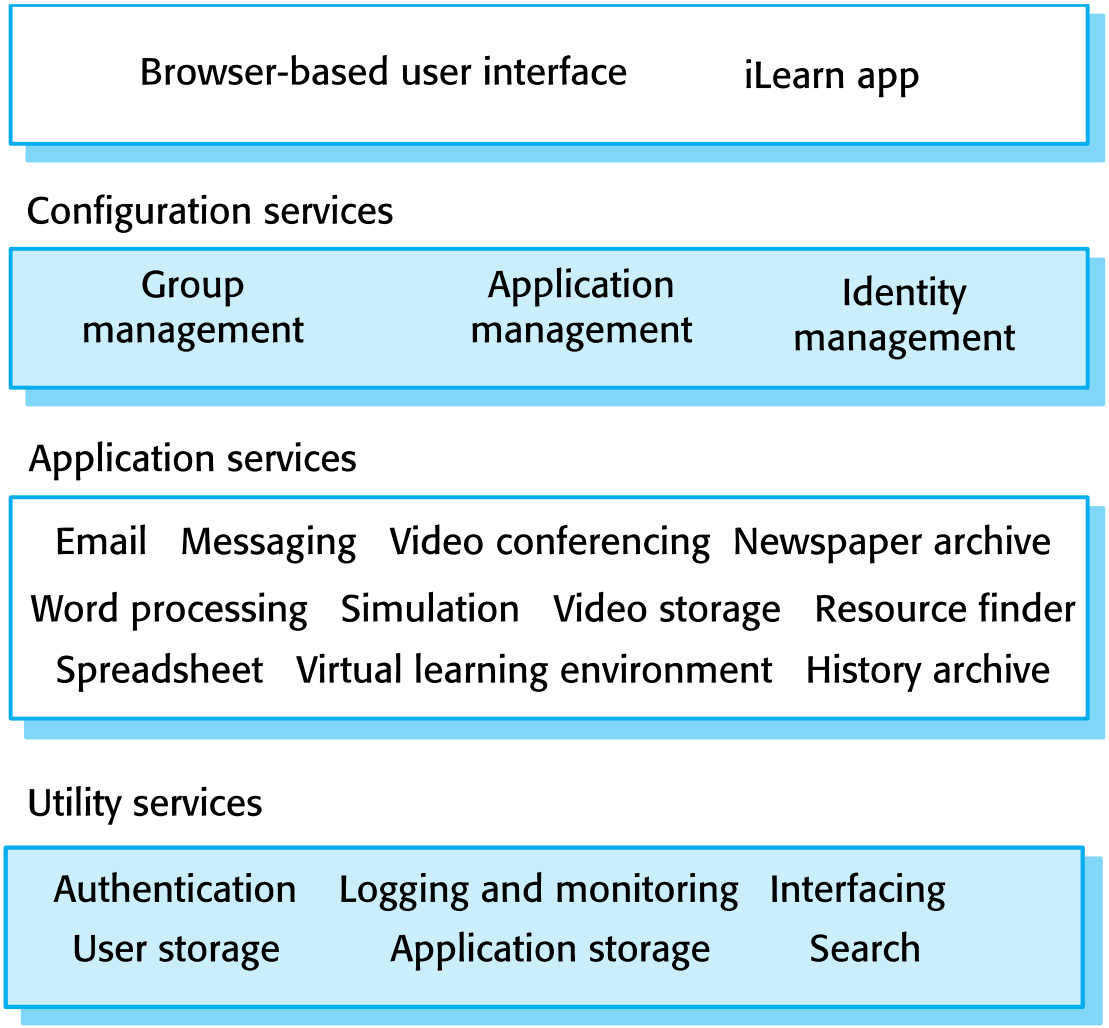
Service-oriented systems

- The system is a service-oriented system with all system components considered to be a replaceable service.
- This allows the system to be updated incrementally as new services become available.
- It also makes it possible to rapidly configure the system to create versions of the environment for different groups such as very young children who cannot read, senior students, etc.

iLearn services

- *Utility services* that provide basic application-independent functionality and which may be used by other services in the system.
- *Application services* that provide specific applications such as email, conferencing, photo sharing etc. and access to specific educational content such as scientific films or historical resources.
- *Configuration services* that are used to adapt the environment with a specific set of application services and do define how services are shared between students, teachers and their parents.

iLearn architecture



iLearn service integration

- *Integrated services* are services which offer an API (application programming interface) and which can be accessed by other services through that API. Direct service-to-service communication is therefore possible.
- *Independent services* are services which are simply accessed through a browser interface and which operate independently of other services. Information can only be shared with other services through explicit user actions such as copy and paste; re-authentication may be required for each independent service.

Key points

- Software engineering is an engineering discipline that is concerned with all aspects of software production.
- Essential software product attributes are maintainability, dependability and security, efficiency and acceptability.
- The high-level activities of specification, development, validation and evolution are part of all software processes.
- The fundamental notions of software engineering are universally applicable to all types of system development.

Key points

- There are many different types of system and each requires appropriate software engineering tools and techniques for their development.
- The fundamental ideas of software engineering are applicable to all types of software system.
- Software engineers have responsibilities to the engineering profession and society. They should not simply be concerned with technical issues.
- Professional societies publish codes of conduct which set out the standards of behaviour expected of their members.

Chapter 2 – Software Processes

Topics covered

- ✧ Software process models
- ✧ Process activities
- ✧ Coping with change
- ✧ Process improvement

The software process

- A structured set of activities required to develop a software system.
- Many different software processes but all involve:
  - Specification – defining what the system should do;
  - Design and implementation – defining the organization of the system and implementing the system;
  - Validation – checking that it does what the customer wants;
  - Evolution – changing the system in response to changing customer needs.
- A software process model is an abstract representation of a process. It presents a description of a process from some particular perspective.

Software process descriptions

- When we describe and discuss processes, we usually talk about the activities in these processes such as specifying a data model, designing a user interface, etc. and the ordering of these activities.
- Process descriptions may also include:
  - Products, which are the outcomes of a process activity;
  - Roles, which reflect the responsibilities of the people involved in the process;
  - Pre- and post-conditions, which are statements that are true before and after a process activity has been enacted or a product produced.

Plan-driven and agile processes

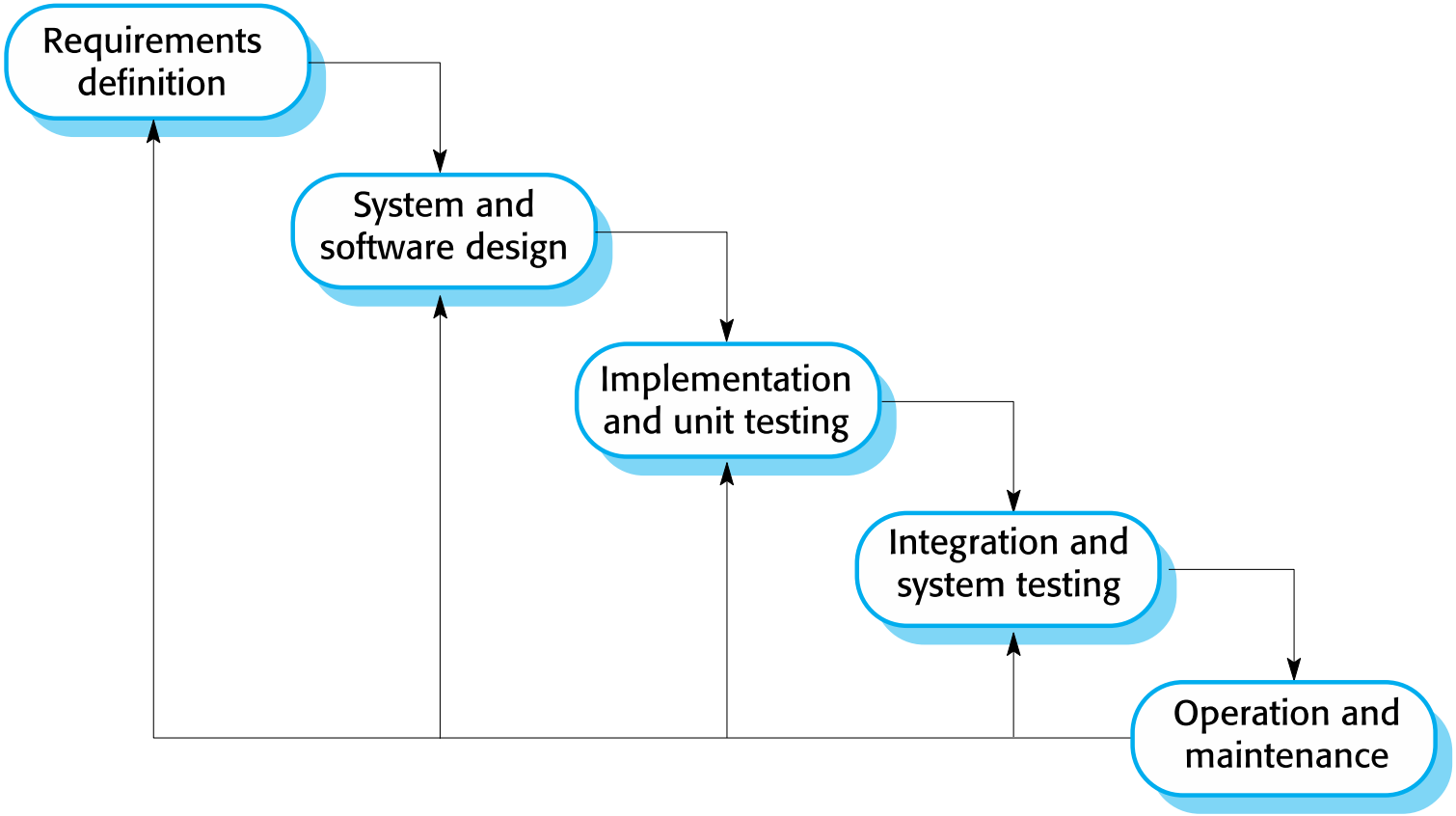
- Plan-driven processes are processes where all of the process activities are planned in advance and progress is measured against this plan.
- In agile processes, planning is incremental and it is easier to change the process to reflect changing customer requirements.
- In practice, most practical processes include elements of both plan-driven and agile approaches.
- There are no right or wrong software processes.

Software process models

Software process models

- The waterfall model
  - Plan-driven model. Separate and distinct phases of specification and development.
- Incremental development
  - Specification, development and validation are interleaved. May be plan-driven or agile.
- Integration and configuration
  - The system is assembled from existing configurable components. May be plan-driven or agile.
- In practice, most large systems are developed using a process that incorporates elements from all of these models.

The waterfall model



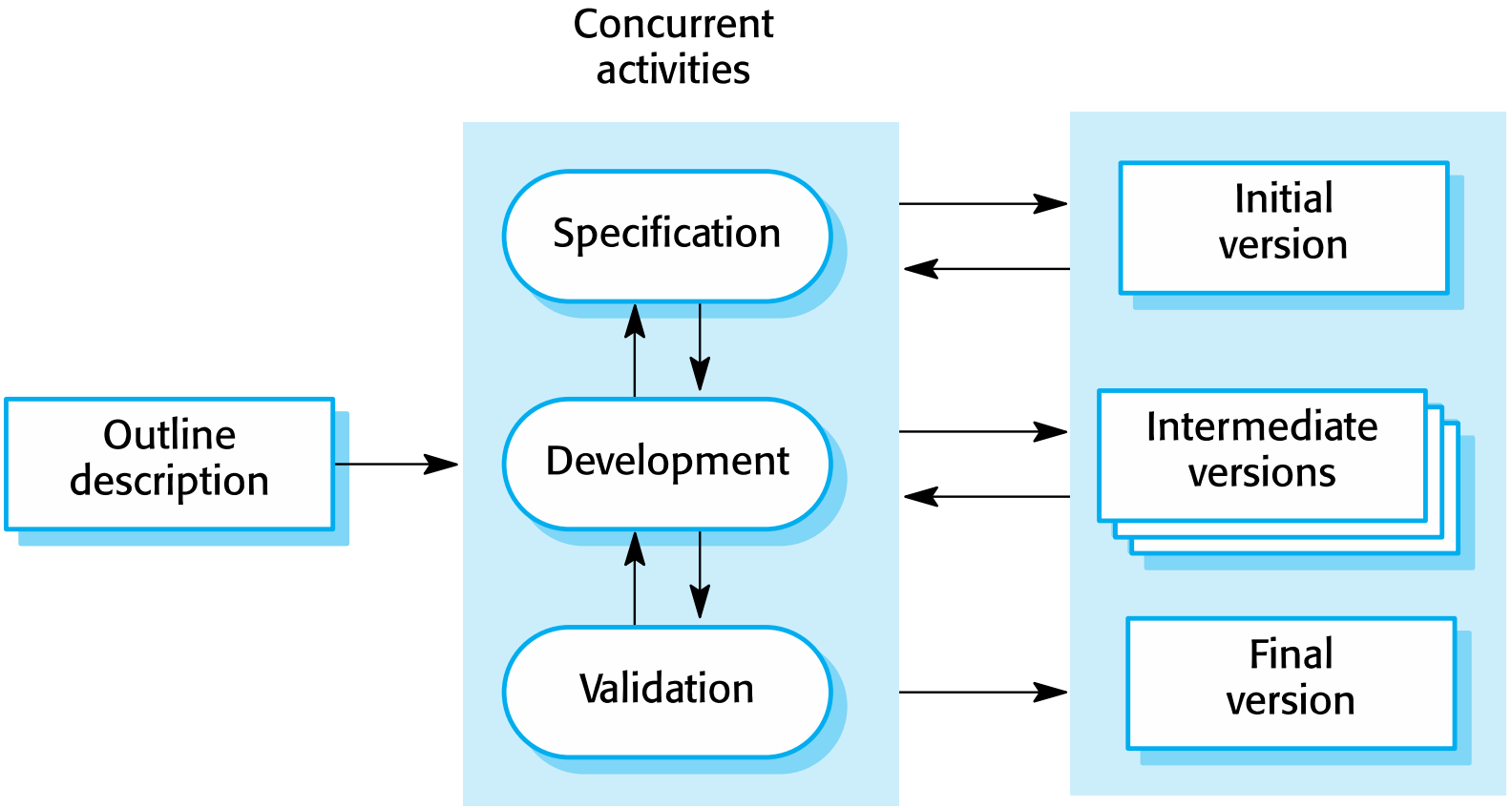
Waterfall model phases

- There are separate identified phases in the waterfall model:
  - Requirements analysis and definition
  - System and software design
  - Implementation and unit testing
  - Integration and system testing
  - Operation and maintenance
- The main drawback of the waterfall model is the difficulty of accommodating change after the process is underway. In principle, a phase has to be complete before moving onto the next phase.

Waterfall model problems

- Inflexible partitioning of the project into distinct stages makes it difficult to respond to changing customer requirements.
  - Therefore, this model is only appropriate when the requirements are well-understood and changes will be fairly limited during the design process.
  - Few business systems have stable requirements.
- The waterfall model is mostly used for large systems engineering projects where a system is developed at several sites.
  - In those circumstances, the plan-driven nature of the waterfall model helps coordinate the work.

Incremental development



Incremental development benefits

- The cost of accommodating changing customer requirements is reduced.
  - The amount of analysis and documentation that has to be redone is much less than is required with the waterfall model.
- It is easier to get customer feedback on the development work that has been done.
  - Customers can comment on demonstrations of the software and see how much has been implemented.
- More rapid delivery and deployment of useful software to the customer is possible.
  - Customers are able to use and gain value from the software earlier than is possible with a waterfall process.

Incremental development problems

- The process is not visible.
  - Managers need regular deliverables to measure progress. If systems are developed quickly, it is not cost-effective to produce documents that reflect every version of the system.
- System structure tends to degrade as new increments are added.
  - Unless time and money is spent on refactoring to improve the software, regular change tends to corrupt its structure. Incorporating further software changes becomes increasingly difficult and costly.

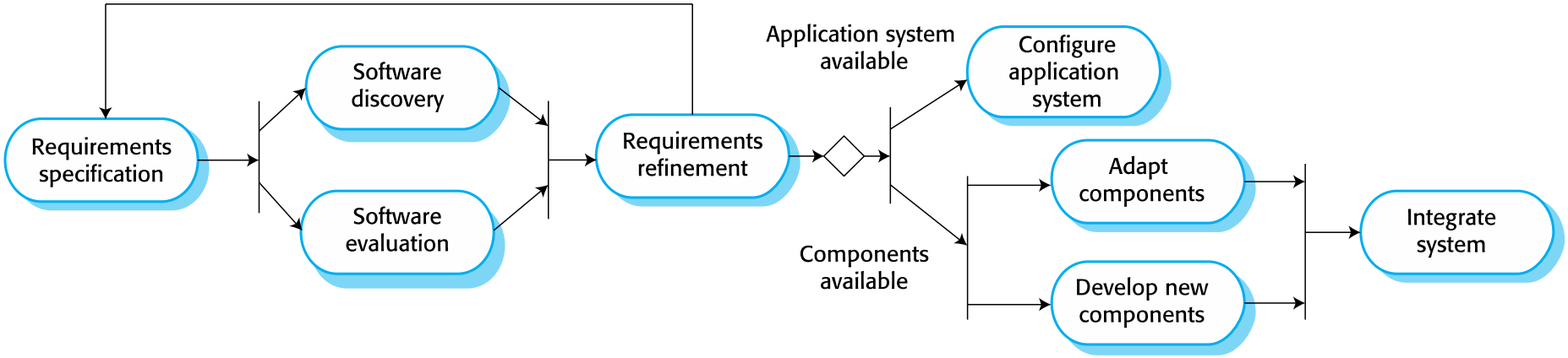
Integration and configuration

- Based on software reuse where systems are integrated from existing components or COTS (Commercial-off-the-shelf) systems.
- Reused elements may be configured to adapt their behaviour and functionality to a user's requirements
- Reuse is now the standard approach for building many types of business system
  - Reuse covered in more depth in Chapter 15.

Types of reusable software

- Stand-alone application systems (sometimes called COTS) that are configured for use in a particular environment.
- Collections of objects that are developed as a package to be integrated with a component framework such as .NET or J2EE.
- Web services that are developed according to service standards and which are available for remote invocation.

Reuse-oriented software engineering



Key process stages

- ✧ Requirements specification
- ✧ Software discovery and evaluation
- ✧ Requirements refinement
- ✧ Application system configuration
- ✧ Component adaptation and integration

Advantages and disadvantages

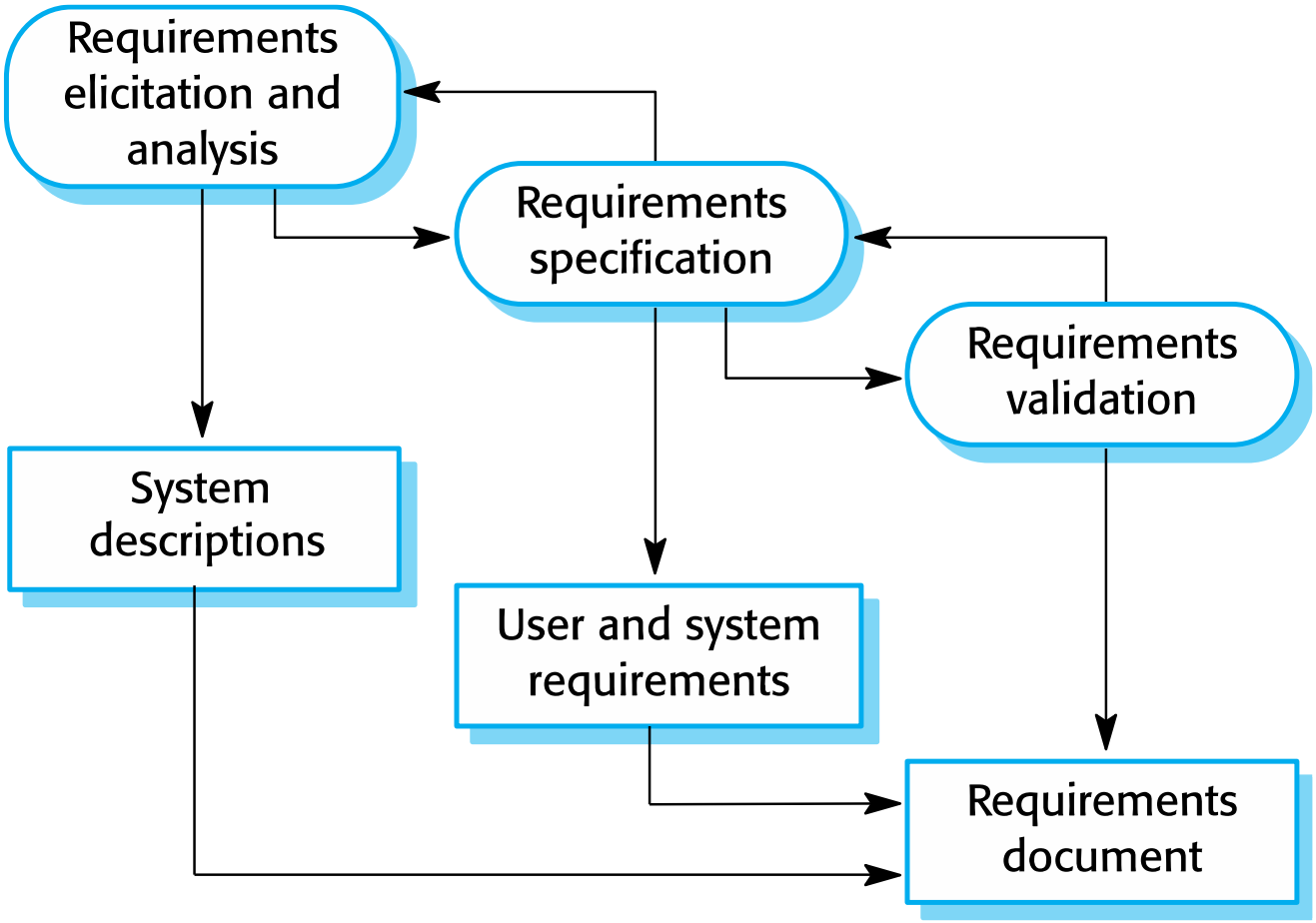
- Reduced costs and risks as less software is developed from scratch
- Faster delivery and deployment of system
- But requirements compromises are inevitable so system may not meet real needs of users
- Loss of control over evolution of reused system elements

Process activities

Process activities

- Real software processes are inter-leaved sequences of technical, collaborative and managerial activities with the overall goal of specifying, designing, implementing and testing a software system.
- The four basic process activities of specification, development, validation and evolution are organized differently in different development processes.
- For example, in the waterfall model, they are organized in sequence, whereas in incremental development they are interleaved.

The requirements engineering process



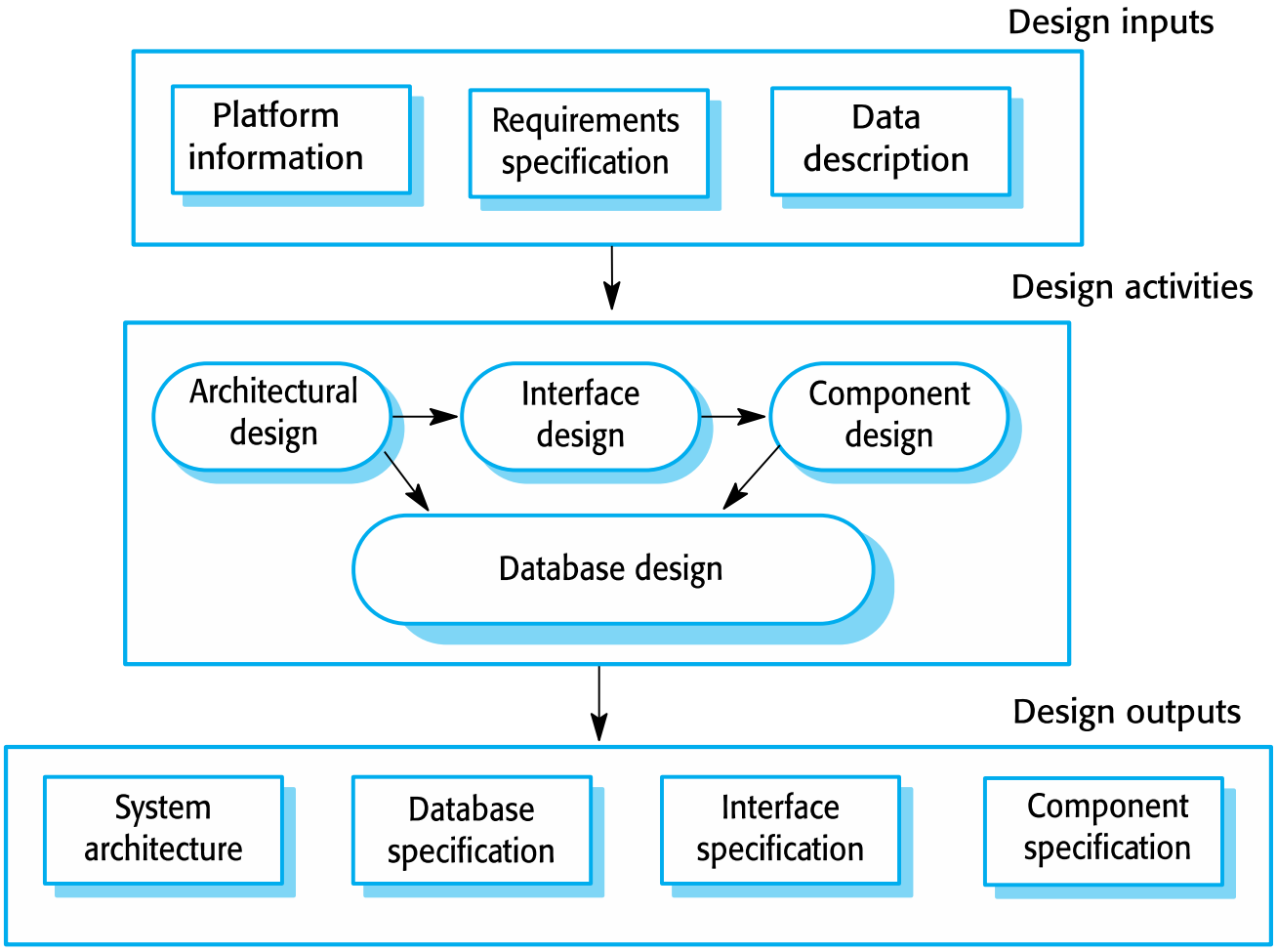
Software specification

- The process of establishing what services are required and the constraints on the system's operation and development.
- Requirements engineering process
  - Requirements elicitation and analysis
    - What do the system stakeholders require or expect from the system?
  - Requirements specification
    - Defining the requirements in detail
  - Requirements validation
    - Checking the validity of the requirements

Software design and implementation

- The process of converting the system specification into an executable system.
- Software design
  - Design a software structure that realises the specification;
- Implementation
  - Translate this structure into an executable program;
- The activities of design and implementation are closely related and may be inter-leaved.

A general model of the design process



Design activities

- *Architectural design,* where you identify the overall structure of the system, the principal components (subsystems or modules), their relationships and how they are distributed.
- *Database design,* where you design the system data structures and how these are to be represented in a database.
- *Interface design,* where you define the interfaces between system components.
- *Component selection and design,* where you search for reusable components. If unavailable, you design how it will operate.

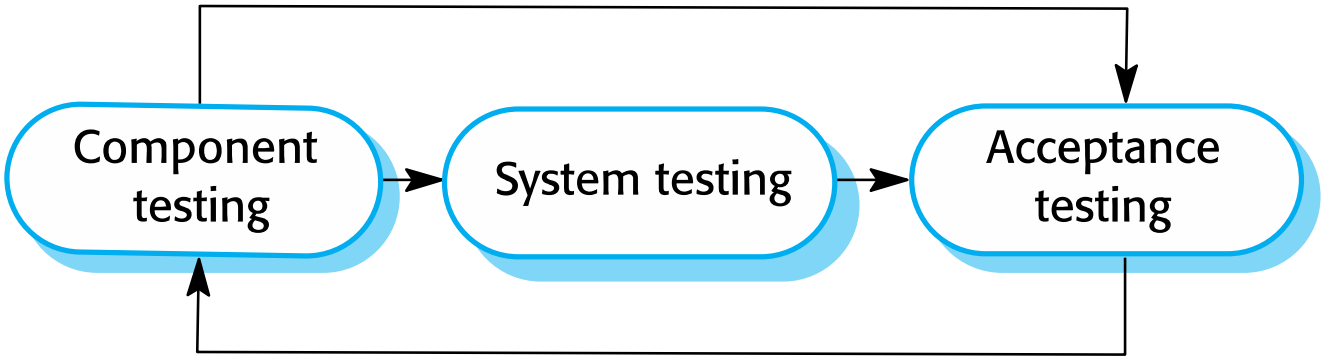
System implementation

- The software is implemented either by developing a program or programs or by configuring an application system.
- Design and implementation are interleaved activities for most types of software system.
- Programming is an individual activity with no standard process.
- Debugging is the activity of finding program faults and correcting these faults.

Software validation

- Verification and validation (V & V) is intended to show that a system conforms to its specification and meets the requirements of the system customer.
- Involves checking and review processes and system testing.
- System testing involves executing the system with test cases that are derived from the specification of the real data to be processed by the system.
- Testing is the most commonly used V & V activity.

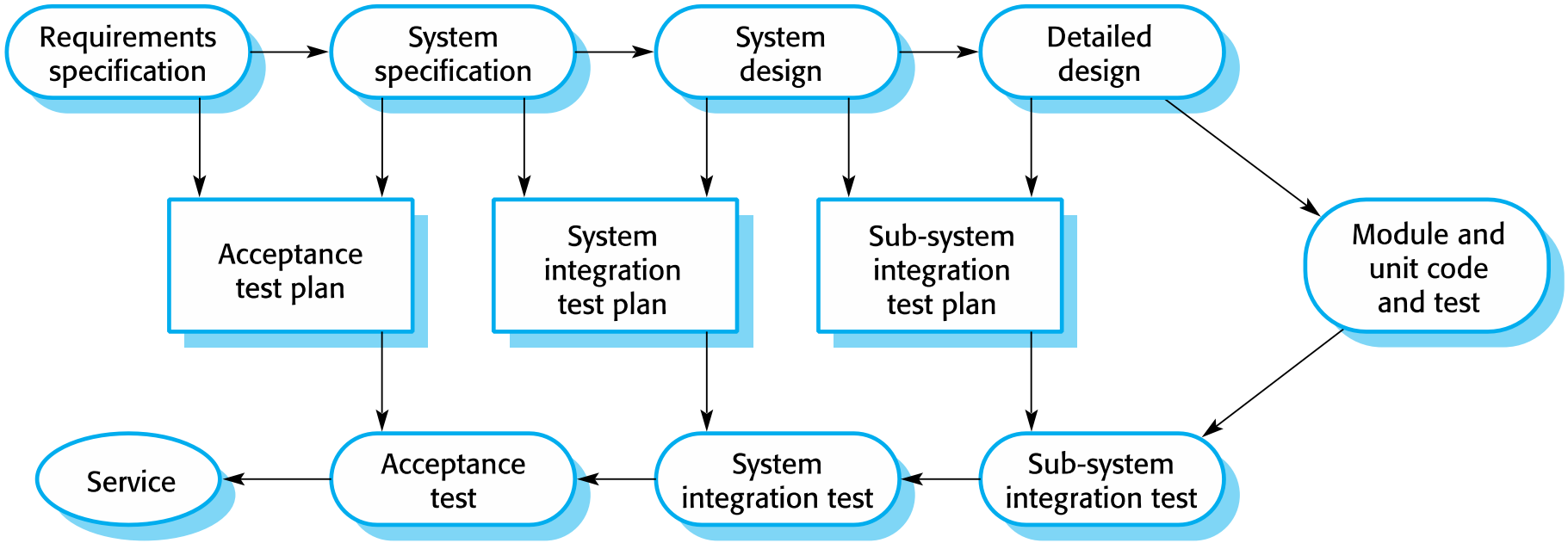
Stages of testing



Testing stages

- ✧ Component testing
  - Individual components are tested independently;
  - Components may be functions or objects or coherent groupings of these entities.
- ✧ System testing
  - Testing of the system as a whole. Testing of emergent properties is particularly important.
- ✧ Customer testing
  - Testing with customer data to check that the system meets the customer’s needs.

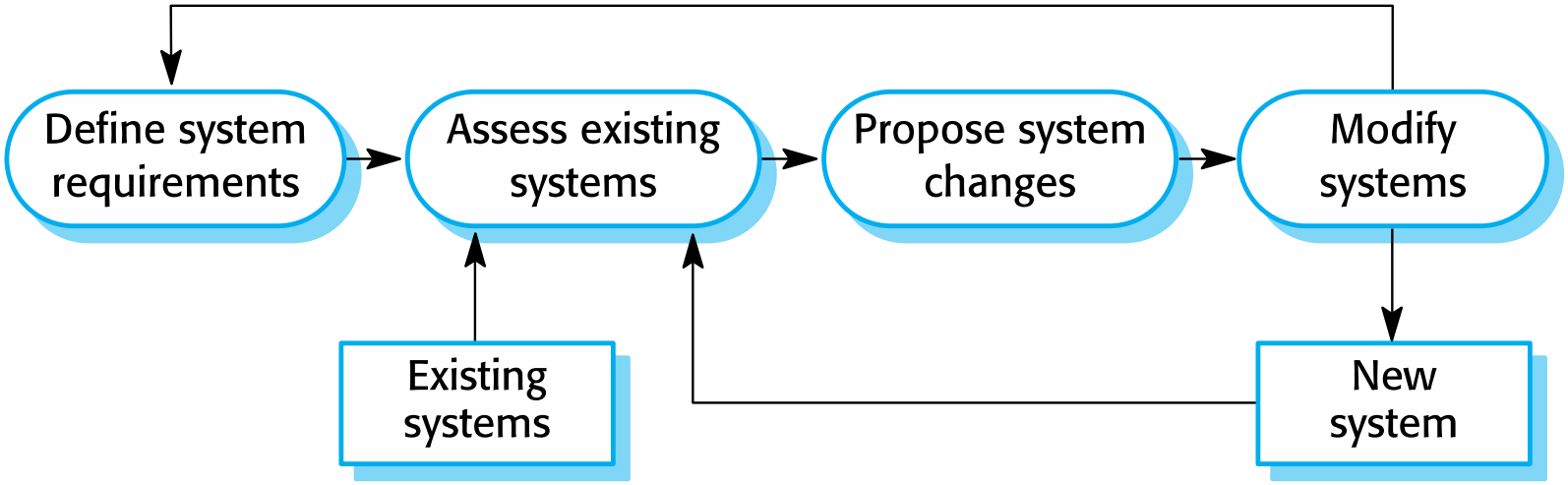
Testing phases in a plan-driven software process (V-model)



Software evolution

- Software is inherently flexible and can change.
- As requirements change through changing business circumstances, the software that supports the business must also evolve and change.
- Although there has been a demarcation between development and evolution (maintenance) this is increasingly irrelevant as fewer and fewer systems are completely new.

System evolution



Coping with change

Coping with change

- Change is inevitable in all large software projects.
  - Business changes lead to new and changed system requirements
  - New technologies open up new possibilities for improving implementations
  - Changing platforms require application changes
- Change leads to rework so the costs of change include both rework (e.g. re-analysing requirements) as well as the costs of implementing new functionality

Reducing the costs of rework

- Change anticipation, where the software process includes activities that can anticipate possible changes before significant rework is required.
  - For example, a prototype system may be developed to show some key features of the system to customers.
- Change tolerance, where the process is designed so that changes can be accommodated at relatively low cost.
  - This normally involves some form of incremental development. Proposed changes may be implemented in increments that have not yet been developed. If this is impossible, then only a single increment (a small part of the system) may have be altered to incorporate the change.

Coping with changing requirements

- System prototyping, where a version of the system or part of the system is developed quickly to check the customer's requirements and the feasibility of design decisions. This approach supports change anticipation.
- Incremental delivery, where system increments are delivered to the customer for comment and experimentation. This supports both change avoidance and change tolerance.

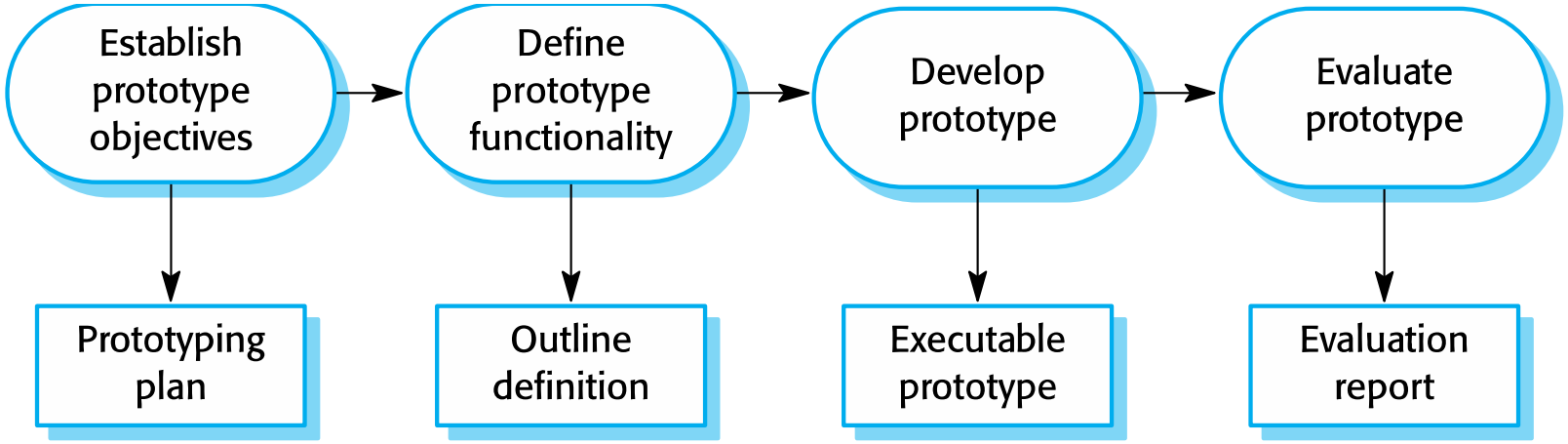
Software prototyping

- A prototype is an initial version of a system used to demonstrate concepts and try out design options.
- A prototype can be used in:
  - The requirements engineering process to help with requirements elicitation and validation;
  - In design processes to explore options and develop a UI design;
  - In the testing process to run back-to-back tests.

Benefits of prototyping

- ✧ Improved system usability.
- ✧ A closer match to users' real needs.
- ✧ Improved design quality.
- ✧ Improved maintainability.
- ✧ Reduced development effort.

The process of prototype development



Prototype development

- ✧ May be based on rapid prototyping languages or tools
- ✧ May involve leaving out functionality
  - Prototype should focus on areas of the product that are not well-understood;
  - Error checking and recovery may not be included in the prototype;
  - Focus on functional rather than non-functional requirements such as reliability and security

Throw-away prototypes

- Prototypes should be discarded after development as they are not a good basis for a production system:
  - It may be impossible to tune the system to meet non-functional requirements;
  - Prototypes are normally undocumented;
  - The prototype structure is usually degraded through rapid change;
  - The prototype probably will not meet normal organisational quality standards.

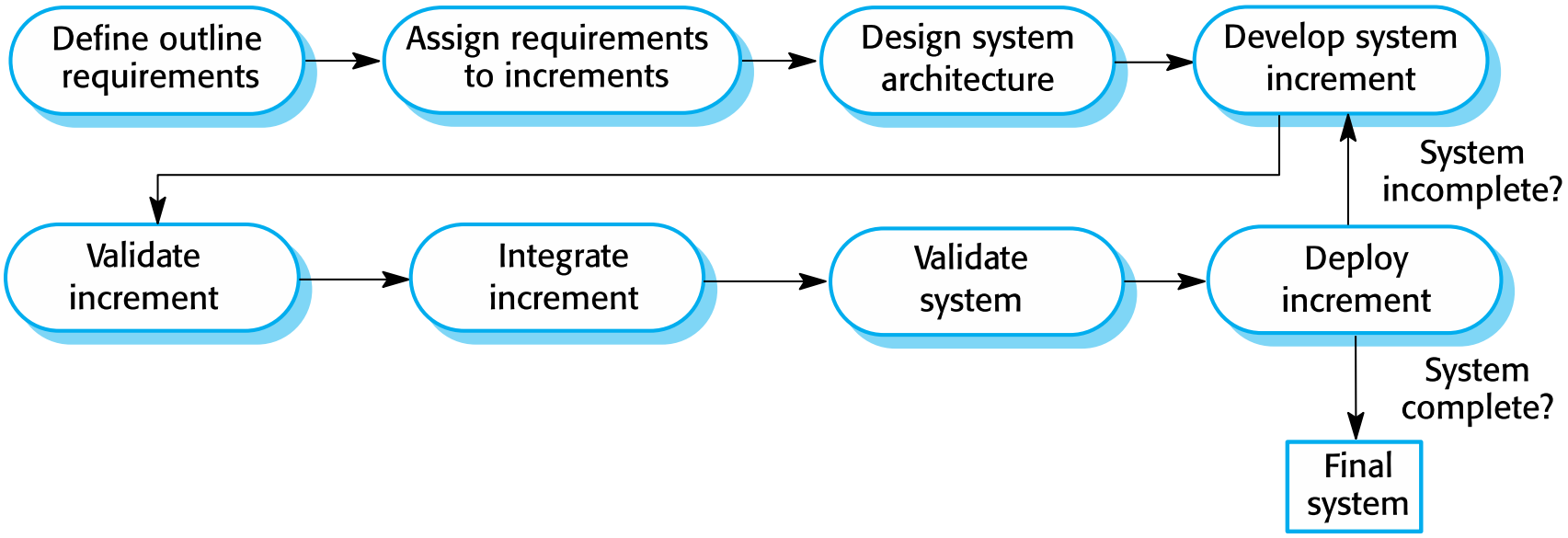
Incremental delivery

- Rather than deliver the system as a single delivery, the development and delivery is broken down into increments with each increment delivering part of the required functionality.
- User requirements are prioritised and the highest priority requirements are included in early increments.
- Once the development of an increment is started, the requirements are frozen though requirements for later increments can continue to evolve.

Incremental development and delivery

- Incremental development
  - Develop the system in increments and evaluate each increment before proceeding to the development of the next increment;
  - Normal approach used in agile methods;
  - Evaluation done by user/customer proxy.
- Incremental delivery
  - Deploy an increment for use by end-users;
  - More realistic evaluation about practical use of software;
  - Difficult to implement for replacement systems as increments have less functionality than the system being replaced.

Incremental delivery



Incremental delivery advantages

- Customer value can be delivered with each increment so system functionality is available earlier.
- Early increments act as a prototype to help elicit requirements for later increments.
- Lower risk of overall project failure.
- The highest priority system services tend to receive the most testing.

Incremental delivery problems

- Most systems require a set of basic facilities that are used by different parts of the system.
  - As requirements are not defined in detail until an increment is to be implemented, it can be hard to identify common facilities that are needed by all increments.
- The essence of iterative processes is that the specification is developed in conjunction with the software.
  - However, this conflicts with the procurement model of many organizations, where the complete system specification is part of the system development contract.

Process improvement

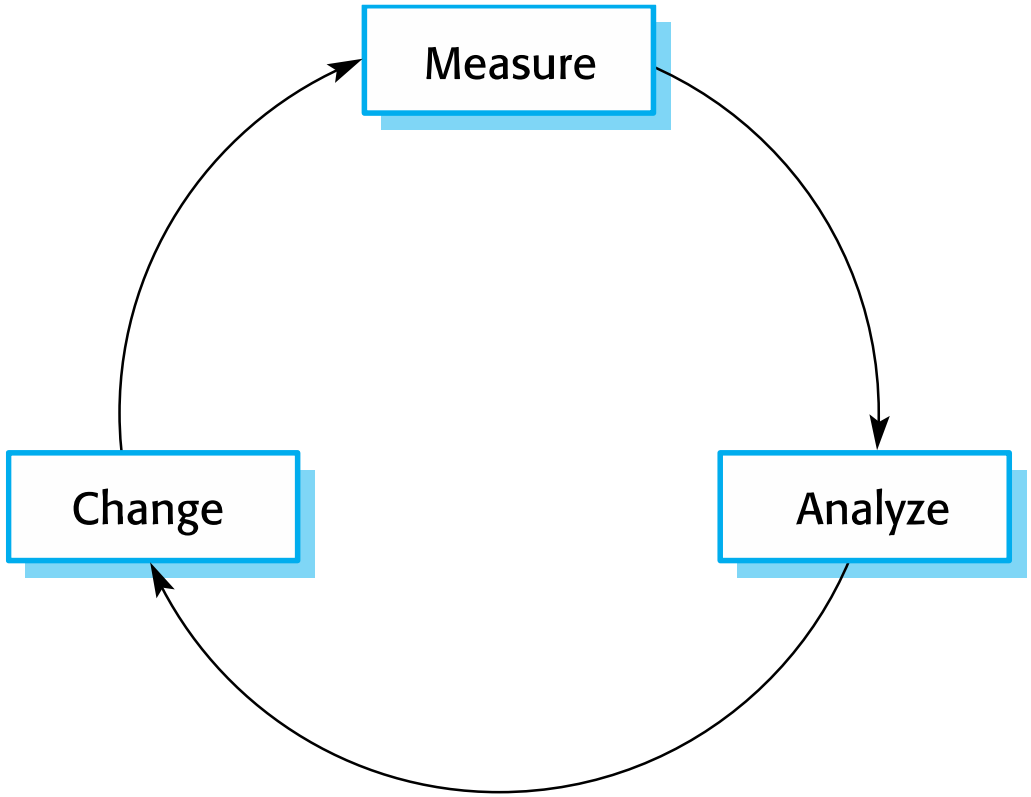
Process improvement

- Many software companies have turned to software process improvement as a way of enhancing the quality of their software, reducing costs or accelerating their development processes.
- Process improvement means understanding existing processes and changing these processes to increase product quality and/or reduce costs and development time.

Approaches to improvement

- The process maturity approach, which focuses on improving process and project management and introducing good software engineering practice.
  - The level of process maturity reflects the extent to which good technical and management practice has been adopted in organizational software development processes.
- The agile approach, which focuses on iterative development and the reduction of overheads in the software process.
  - The primary characteristics of agile methods are rapid delivery of functionality and responsiveness to changing customer requirements.

The process improvement cycle



Process improvement activities

- *Process measurement*
  - You measure one or more attributes of the software process or product. These measurements forms a baseline that helps you decide if process improvements have been effective.
- *Process analysis*
  - The current process is assessed, and process weaknesses and bottlenecks are identified. Process models (sometimes called process maps) that describe the process may be developed.
- *Process change*
  - Process changes are proposed to address some of the identified process weaknesses. These are introduced and the cycle resumes to collect data about the effectiveness of the changes.

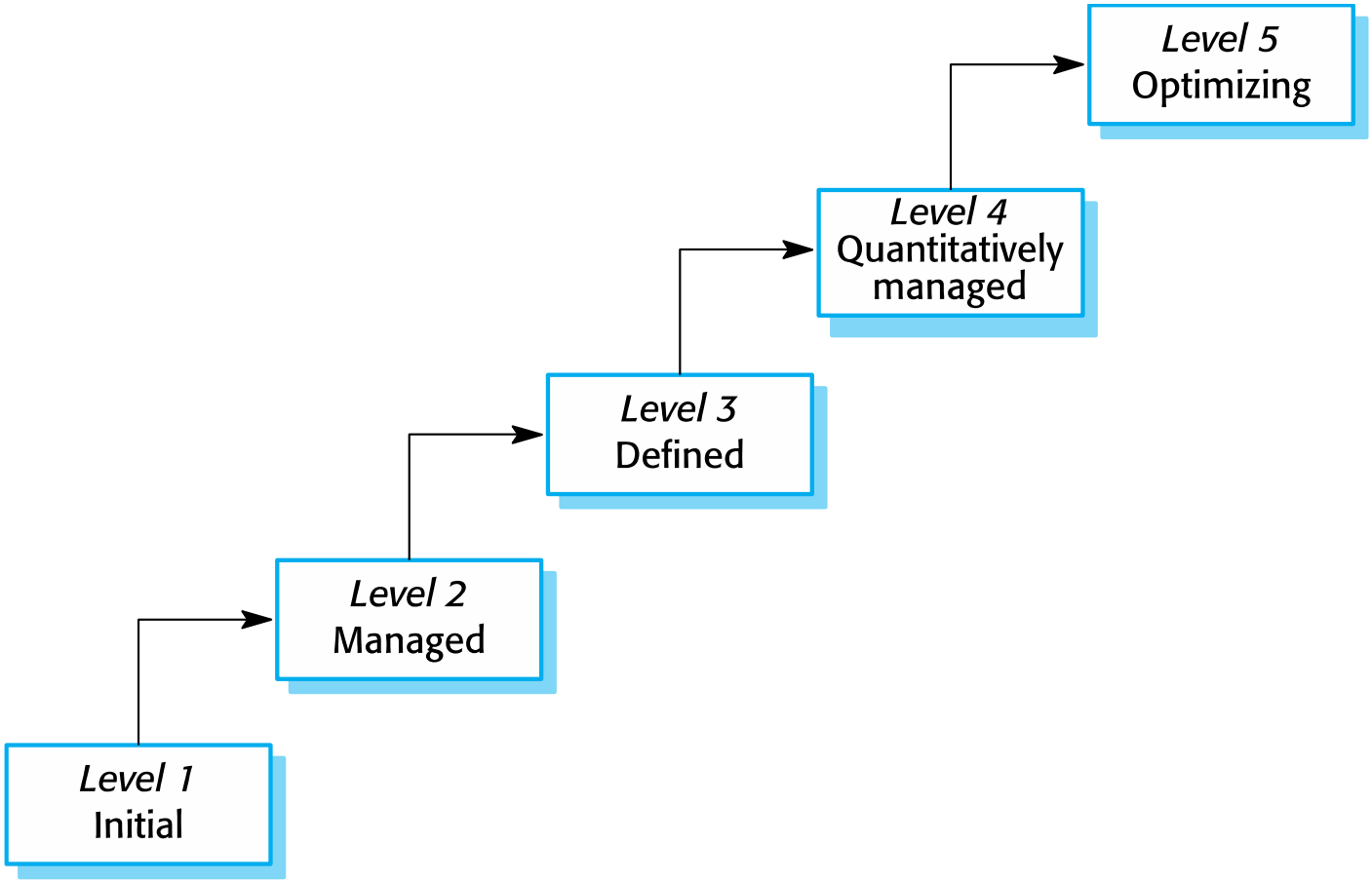
Process measurement

- Wherever possible, quantitative process data should be collected
  - However, where organisations do not have clearly defined process standards this is very difficult as you don't know what to measure. A process may have to be defined before any measurement is possible.
- Process measurements should be used to assess process improvements
  - But this does not mean that measurements should drive the improvements. The improvement driver should be the organizational objectives.

Process metrics

- Time taken for process activities to be completed
  - E.g. Calendar time or effort to complete an activity or process.
- Resources required for processes or activities
  - E.g. Total effort in person-days.
- Number of occurrences of a particular event
  - E.g. Number of defects discovered.

Capability maturity levels



The SEI capability maturity model

- Initial
  - Essentially uncontrolled
- Repeatable
  - Product management procedures defined and used
- Defined
  - Process management procedures and strategies defined and used
- Managed
  - Quality management strategies defined and used
- Optimising
  - Process improvement strategies defined and used

Key points

- Software processes are the activities involved in producing a software system. Software process models are abstract representations of these processes.
- General process models describe the organization of software processes.
  - Examples of these general models include the ‘waterfall’ model, incremental development, and reuse-oriented development.
- Requirements engineering is the process of developing a software specification.

Key points

- Design and implementation processes are concerned with transforming a requirements specification into an executable software system.
- Software validation is the process of checking that the system conforms to its specification and that it meets the real needs of the users of the system.
- Software evolution takes place when you change existing software systems to meet new requirements. The software must evolve to remain useful.
- Processes should include activities such as prototyping and incremental delivery to cope with change.

Key points

- Processes may be structured for iterative development and delivery so that changes may be made without disrupting the system as a whole.
- The principal approaches to process improvement are agile approaches, geared to reducing process overheads, and maturity-based approaches based on better process management and the use of good software engineering practice.
- The SEI process maturity framework identifies maturity levels that essentially correspond to the use of good software engineering practice.

Chapter 3 – Agile Software Development

Topics covered

- ✧ Agile methods
- ✧ Agile development techniques
- ✧ Agile project management
- ✧ Scaling agile methods

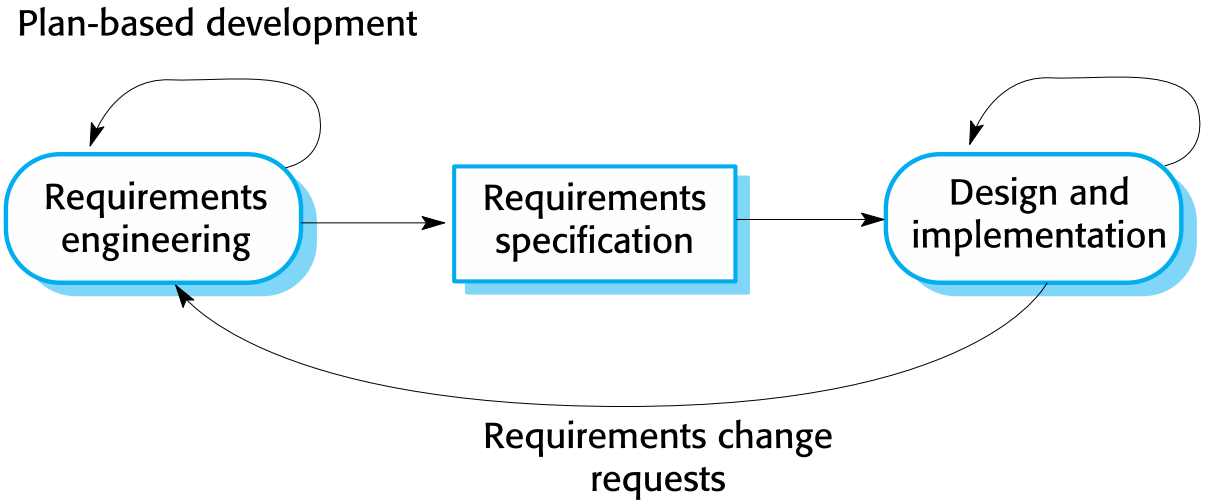
Rapid software development

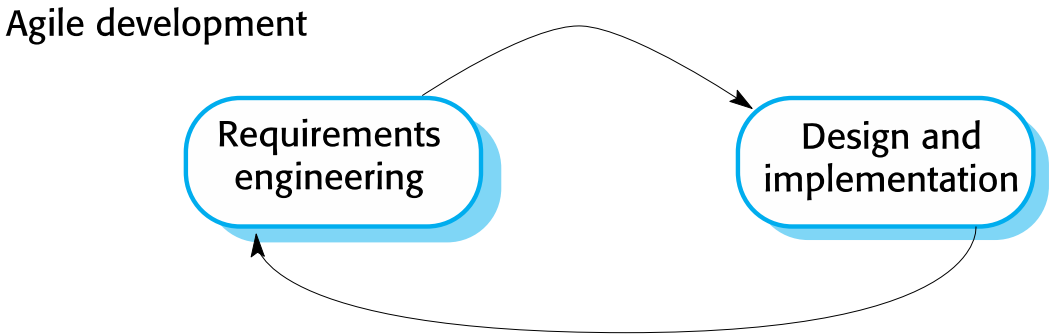
- Rapid development and delivery is now often the most important requirement for software systems
  - Businesses operate in a fast –changing requirement and it is practically impossible to produce a set of stable software requirements
  - Software has to evolve quickly to reflect changing business needs.
- Plan-driven development is essential for some types of system but does not meet these business needs.
- Agile development methods emerged in the late 1990s whose aim was to radically reduce the delivery time for working software systems

Agile development

- Program specification, design and implementation are inter-leaved
- The system is developed as a series of versions or increments with stakeholders involved in version specification and evaluation
- Frequent delivery of new versions for evaluation
- Extensive tool support (e.g. automated testing tools) used to support development.
- Minimal documentation – focus on working code

Plan-driven and agile development





Plan-driven and agile development

- Plan-driven development
  - A plan-driven approach to software engineering is based around separate development stages with the outputs to be produced at each of these stages planned in advance.
  - Not necessarily waterfall model – plan-driven, incremental development is possible
  - Iteration occurs within activities.
- Agile development
  - Specification, design, implementation and testing are inter-leaved and the outputs from the development process are decided through a process of negotiation during the software development process.

Agile methods

Agile methods

- Dissatisfaction with the overheads involved in software design methods of the 1980s and 1990s led to the creation of agile methods. These methods:
  - Focus on the code rather than the design
  - Are based on an iterative approach to software development
  - Are intended to deliver working software quickly and evolve this quickly to meet changing requirements.
- The aim of agile methods is to reduce overheads in the software process (e.g. by limiting documentation) and to be able to respond quickly to changing requirements without excessive rework.

Agile manifesto

- *We are uncovering better ways of developing software by doing it and helping others do it. Through this work we have come to value:*
  - *Individuals and interactions over processes and tools*
    Working software over comprehensive documentation
    Customer collaboration over contract negotiation
    Responding to change over following a plan
- *That is, while there is value in the items on the right, we value the items on the left more.*

The principles of agile methods

Principle	Description
Customer involvement	Customers should be closely involved throughout the development process. Their role is provide and prioritize new system requirements and to evaluate the iterations of the system.
Incremental delivery	The software is developed in increments with the customer specifying the requirements to be included in each increment.
People not process	The skills of the development team should be recognized and exploited. Team members should be left to develop their own ways of working without prescriptive processes.
Embrace change	Expect the system requirements to change and so design the system to accommodate these changes.
Maintain simplicity	Focus on simplicity in both the software being developed and in the development process. Wherever possible, actively work to eliminate complexity from the system.

Agile method applicability

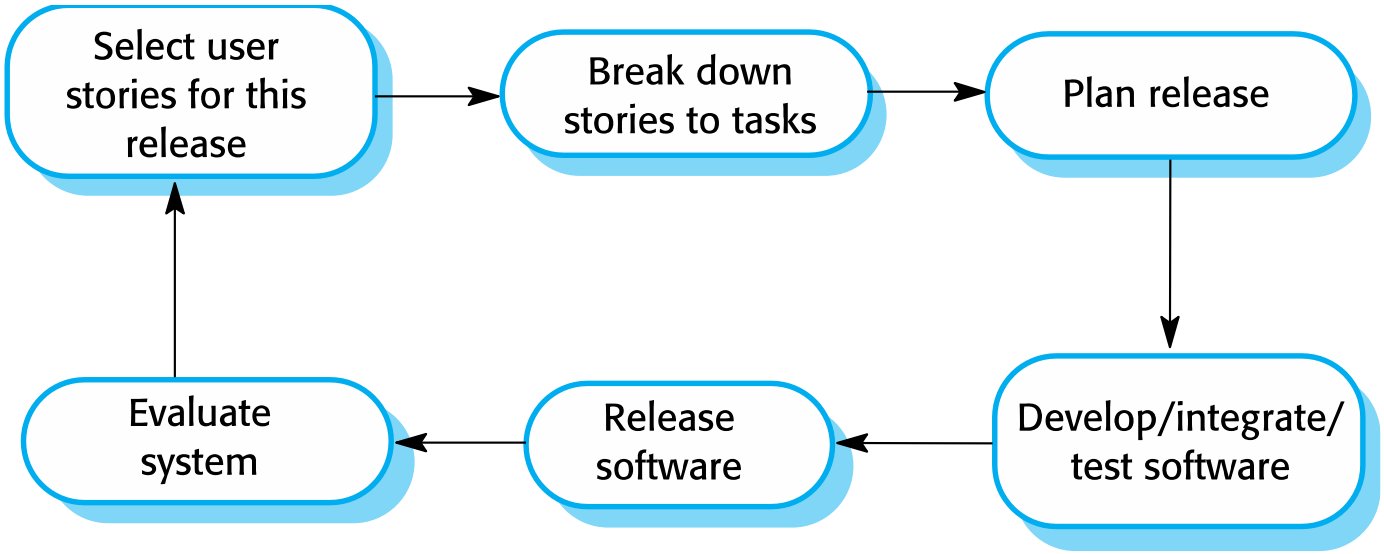
- Product development where a software company is developing a small or medium-sized product for sale.
  - Virtually all software products and apps are now developed using an agile approach
- Custom system development within an organization, where there is a clear commitment from the customer to become involved in the development process and where there are few external rules and regulations that affect the software.

Agile development techniques

Extreme programming

- A very influential agile method, developed in the late 1990s, that introduced a range of agile development techniques.
- Extreme Programming (XP) takes an ‘extreme’ approach to iterative development.
  - New versions may be built several times per day;
  - Increments are delivered to customers every 2 weeks;
  - All tests must be run for every build and the build is only accepted if tests run successfully.

The extreme programming release cycle



Extreme programming practices (a)

Principle or practice	Description
Incremental planning	Requirements are recorded on story cards and the stories to be included in a release are determined by the time available and their relative priority. The developers break these stories into development 'Tasks'. See Figures 3.5 and 3.6.
Small releases	The minimal useful set of functionality that provides business value is developed first. Releases of the system are frequent and incrementally add functionality to the first release.
Simple design	Enough design is carried out to meet the current requirements and no more.
Test-first development	An automated unit test framework is used to write tests for a new piece of functionality before that functionality itself is implemented.
Refactoring	All developers are expected to refactor the code continuously as soon as possible code improvements are found. This keeps the code simple and maintainable.

Extreme programming practices (b)

Pair programming	Developers work in pairs, checking each other's work and providing the support to always do a good job.
Collective ownership	The pairs of developers work on all areas of the system, so that no islands of expertise develop and all the developers take responsibility for all of the code. Anyone can change anything.
Continuous integration	As soon as the work on a task is complete, it is integrated into the whole system. After any such integration, all the unit tests in the system must pass.
Sustainable pace	Large amounts of overtime are not considered acceptable as the net effect is often to reduce code quality and medium term productivity
On-site customer	A representative of the end-user of the system (the customer) should be available full time for the use of the XP team. In an extreme programming process, the customer is a member of the development team and is responsible for bringing system requirements to the team for implementation.

XP and agile principles

- Incremental development is supported through small, frequent system releases.
- Customer involvement means full-time customer engagement with the team.
- People not process through pair programming, collective ownership and a process that avoids long working hours.
- Change supported through regular system releases.
- Maintaining simplicity through constant refactoring of code.

Influential XP practices

- Extreme programming has a technical focus and is not easy to integrate with management practice in most organizations.
- Consequently, while agile development uses practices from XP, the method as originally defined is not widely used.
- Key practices
  - User stories for specification
  - Refactoring
  - Test-first development
  - Pair programming

User stories for requirements

- In XP, a customer or user is part of the XP team and is responsible for making decisions on requirements.
- User requirements are expressed as user stories or scenarios.
- These are written on cards and the development team break them down into implementation tasks. These tasks are the basis of schedule and cost estimates.
- The customer chooses the stories for inclusion in the next release based on their priorities and the schedule estimates.

A ‘prescribing medication’ story

Prescribing medication

The record of the patient must be open for input. Click on the medication field and select either ‘current medication’, ‘new medication’ or ‘formulary’.

If you select ‘current medication’, you will be asked to check the dose; If you wish to change the dose, enter the new dose then confirm the prescription.

If you choose, ‘new medication’, the system assumes that you know which medication you wish to prescribe. Type the first few letters of the drug name. You will then see a list of possible drugs starting with these letters. Choose the required medication. You will then be asked to check that the medication you have selected is correct. Enter the dose then confirm the prescription.

If you choose ‘formulary’, you will be presented with a search box for the approved formulary. Search for the drug required then select it. You will then be asked to check that the medication you have selected is correct. Enter the dose then confirm the prescription.

In all cases, the system will check that the dose is within the approved range and will ask you to change it if it is outside the range of recommended doses.

After you have confirmed the prescription, it will be displayed for checking. Either click ‘OK’ or ‘Change’. If you click ‘OK’, your prescription will be recorded on the audit database. If you click ‘Change’, you reenter the ‘Prescribing medication’ process.

Examples of task cards for prescribing medication

Task 1: Change dose of prescribed drug

Task 2: Formulary selection

Task 3: Dose checking

Dose checking is a safety precaution to check that the doctor has not prescribed a dangerously small or large dose.
Using the formulary id for the generic drug name, lookup the formulary and retrieve the recommended maximum and minimum dose.
Check the prescribed dose against the minimum and maximum. If outside the range, issue an error message saying that the dose is too high or too low.
If within the range, enable the 'Confirm' button.

Refactoring

- Conventional wisdom in software engineering is to design for change. It is worth spending time and effort anticipating changes as this reduces costs later in the life cycle.
- XP, however, maintains that this is not worthwhile as changes cannot be reliably anticipated.
- Rather, it proposes constant code improvement (refactoring) to make changes easier when they have to be implemented.

Refactoring

- Programming team look for possible software improvements and make these improvements even where there is no immediate need for them.
- This improves the understandability of the software and so reduces the need for documentation.
- Changes are easier to make because the code is well-structured and clear.
- However, some changes requires architecture refactoring and this is much more expensive.

Examples of refactoring

- Re-organization of a class hierarchy to remove duplicate code.
- Tidying up and renaming attributes and methods to make them easier to understand.
- The replacement of inline code with calls to methods that have been included in a program library.

Test-first development

- Testing is central to XP and XP has developed an approach where the program is tested after every change has been made.
- XP testing features:
  - Test-first development.
  - Incremental test development from scenarios.
  - User involvement in test development and validation.
  - Automated test harnesses are used to run all component tests each time that a new release is built.

Test-driven development

- Writing tests before code clarifies the requirements to be implemented.
- Tests are written as programs rather than data so that they can be executed automatically. The test includes a check that it has executed correctly.
  - Usually relies on a testing framework such as Junit.
- All previous and new tests are run automatically when new functionality is added, thus checking that the new functionality has not introduced errors.

Customer involvement

- The role of the customer in the testing process is to help develop acceptance tests for the stories that are to be implemented in the next release of the system.
- The customer who is part of the team writes tests as development proceeds. All new code is therefore validated to ensure that it is what the customer needs.
- However, people adopting the customer role have limited time available and so cannot work full-time with the development team. They may feel that providing the requirements was enough of a contribution and so may be reluctant to get involved in the testing process.

Test case description for dose checking

Test 4: Dose checking

Input:
1. A number in mg representing a single dose of the drug.
2. A number representing the number of single doses per day.

Tests:
1. Test for inputs where the single dose is correct but the frequency is too high.
2. Test for inputs where the single dose is too high and too low.
3. Test for inputs where the single dose * frequency is too high and too low.
4. Test for inputs where single dose * frequency is in the permitted range.

Output:
OK or error message indicating that the dose is outside the safe range.

Test automation

- Test automation means that tests are written as executable components before the task is implemented
  - These testing components should be stand-alone, should simulate the submission of input to be tested and should check that the result meets the output specification. An automated test framework (e.g. Junit) is a system that makes it easy to write executable tests and submit a set of tests for execution.
- As testing is automated, there is always a set of tests that can be quickly and easily executed
  - Whenever any functionality is added to the system, the tests can be run and problems that the new code has introduced can be caught immediately.

Problems with test-first development

- Programmers prefer programming to testing and sometimes they take short cuts when writing tests. For example, they may write incomplete tests that do not check for all possible exceptions that may occur.
- Some tests can be very difficult to write incrementally. For example, in a complex user interface, it is often difficult to write unit tests for the code that implements the ‘display logic’ and workflow between screens.
- It difficult to judge the completeness of a set of tests. Although you may have a lot of system tests, your test set may not provide complete coverage.

Pair programming

- Pair programming involves programmers working in pairs, developing code together.
- This helps develop common ownership of code and spreads knowledge across the team.
- It serves as an informal review process as each line of code is looked at by more than 1 person.
- It encourages refactoring as the whole team can benefit from improving the system code.

Pair programming

- In pair programming, programmers sit together at the same computer to develop the software.
- Pairs are created dynamically so that all team members work with each other during the development process.
- The sharing of knowledge that happens during pair programming is very important as it reduces the overall risks to a project when team members leave.
- Pair programming is not necessarily inefficient and there is some evidence that suggests that a pair working together is more efficient than 2 programmers working separately.

Agile project management

Agile project management

- The principal responsibility of software project managers is to manage the project so that the software is delivered on time and within the planned budget for the project.
- The standard approach to project management is plan-driven. Managers draw up a plan for the project showing what should be delivered, when it should be delivered and who will work on the development of the project deliverables.
- Agile project management requires a different approach, which is adapted to incremental development and the practices used in agile methods.

Scrum

- Scrum is an agile method that focuses on managing iterative development rather than specific agile practices.
- There are three phases in Scrum.
  - The initial phase is an outline planning phase where you establish the general objectives for the project and design the software architecture.
  - This is followed by a series of sprint cycles, where each cycle develops an increment of the system.
  - The project closure phase wraps up the project, completes required documentation such as system help frames and user manuals and assesses the lessons learned from the project.
-

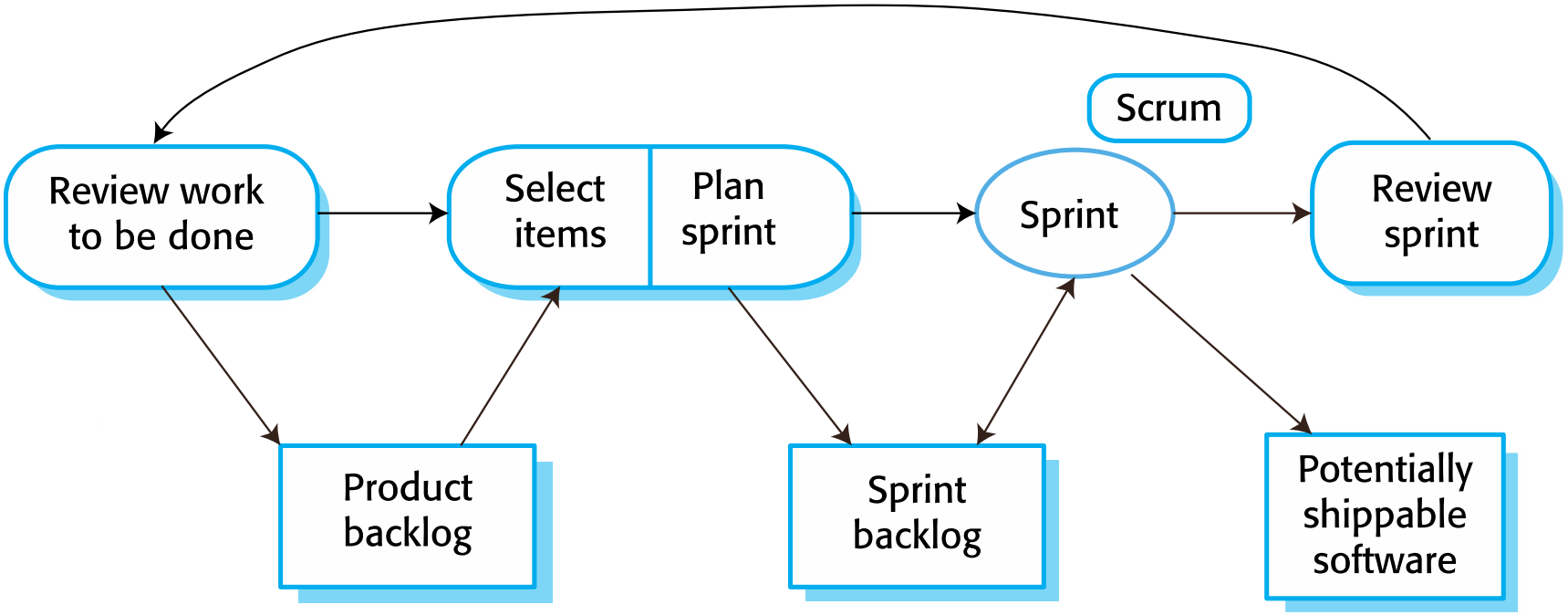
Scrum terminology (a)

Scrum term	Definition
Development team	A self-organizing group of software developers, which should be no more than 7 people. They are responsible for developing the software and other essential project documents.
Potentially shippable product increment	The software increment that is delivered from a sprint. The idea is that this should be 'potentially shippable' which means that it is in a finished state and no further work, such as testing, is needed to incorporate it into the final product. In practice, this is not always achievable.
Product backlog	This is a list of 'to do' items which the Scrum team must tackle. They may be feature definitions for the software, software requirements, user stories or descriptions of supplementary tasks that are needed, such as architecture definition or user documentation.
Product owner	An individual (or possibly a small group) whose job is to identify product features or requirements, prioritize these for development and continuously review the product backlog to ensure that the project continues to meet critical business needs. The Product Owner can be a customer but might also be a product manager in a software company or other stakeholder representative.

Scrum terminology (b)

Scrum term	Definition
Scrum	A daily meeting of the Scrum team that reviews progress and prioritizes work to be done that day. Ideally, this should be a short face-to-face meeting that includes the whole team.
ScrumMaster	The ScrumMaster is responsible for ensuring that the Scrum process is followed and guides the team in the effective use of Scrum. He or she is responsible for interfacing with the rest of the company and for ensuring that the Scrum team is not diverted by outside interference. The Scrum developers are adamant that the ScrumMaster should not be thought of as a project manager. Others, however, may not always find it easy to see the difference.
Sprint	A development iteration. Sprints are usually 2-4 weeks long.
Velocity	An estimate of how much product backlog effort that a team can cover in a single sprint. Understanding a team's velocity helps them estimate what can be covered in a sprint and provides a basis for measuring improving performance.

Scrum sprint cycle



The Scrum sprint cycle

- Sprints are fixed length, normally 2–4 weeks.
- The starting point for planning is the product backlog, which is the list of work to be done on the project.
- The selection phase involves all of the project team who work with the customer to select the features and functionality from the product backlog to be developed during the sprint.

The Sprint cycle

- Once these are agreed, the team organize themselves to develop the software.
- During this stage the team is isolated from the customer and the organization, with all communications channelled through the so-called ‘Scrum master’.
- The role of the Scrum master is to protect the development team from external distractions.
- At the end of the sprint, the work done is reviewed and presented to stakeholders. The next sprint cycle then begins.

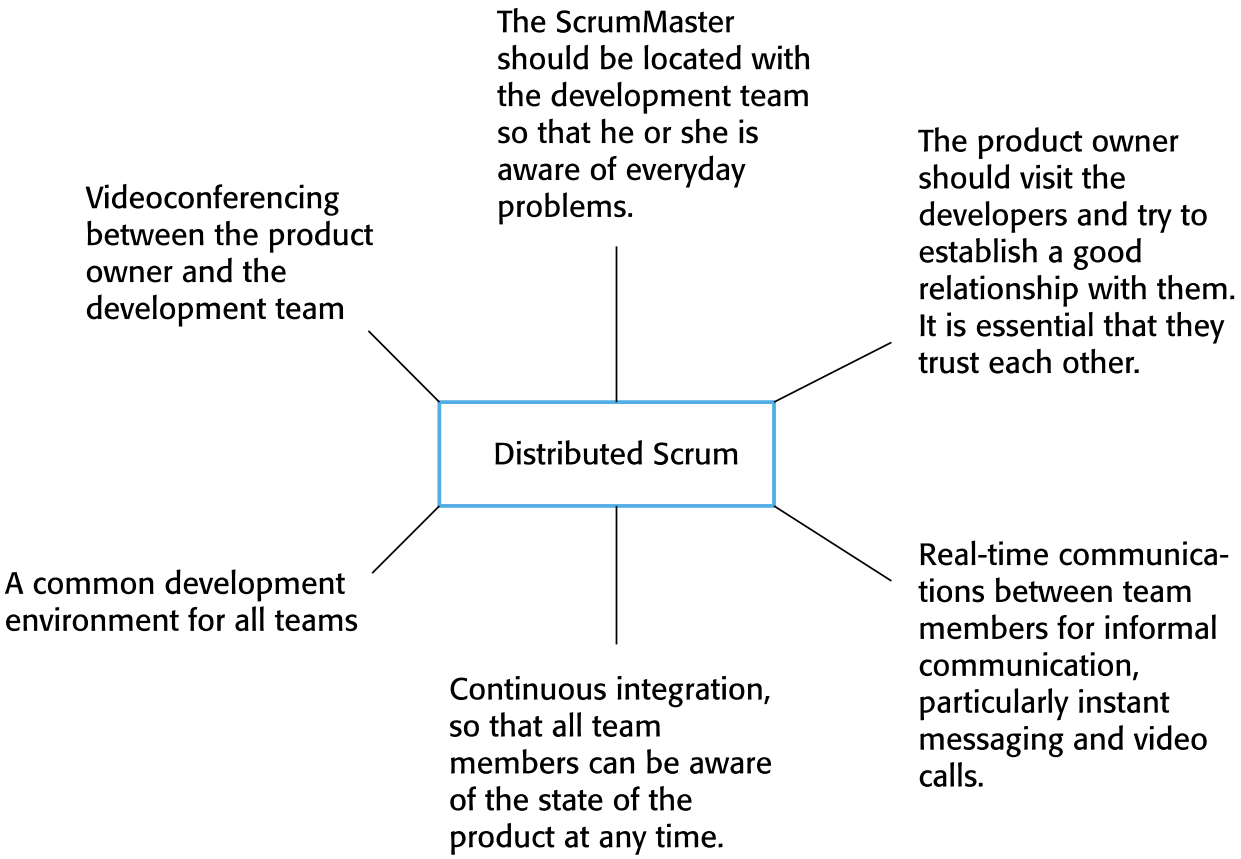
Teamwork in Scrum

- The ‘Scrum master’ is a facilitator who arranges daily meetings, tracks the backlog of work to be done, records decisions, measures progress against the backlog and communicates with customers and management outside of the team.
- The whole team attends short daily meetings (Scrums) where all team members share information, describe their progress since the last meeting, problems that have arisen and what is planned for the following day.
  - This means that everyone on the team knows what is going on and, if problems arise, can re-plan short-term work to cope with them.

Scrum benefits

- The product is broken down into a set of manageable and understandable chunks.
- Unstable requirements do not hold up progress.
- The whole team have visibility of everything and consequently team communication is improved.
- Customers see on-time delivery of increments and gain feedback on how the product works.
- Trust between customers and developers is established and a positive culture is created in which everyone expects the project to succeed.

Distributed Scrum



Scaling agile methods

Scaling agile methods

- Agile methods have proved to be successful for small and medium sized projects that can be developed by a small co-located team.
- It is sometimes argued that the success of these methods comes because of improved communications which is possible when everyone is working together.
- Scaling up agile methods involves changing these to cope with larger, longer projects where there are multiple development teams, perhaps working in different locations.

Scaling out and scaling up

- ‘Scaling up’ is concerned with using agile methods for developing large software systems that cannot be developed by a small team.
- ‘Scaling out’ is concerned with how agile methods can be introduced across a large organization with many years of software development experience.
- When scaling agile methods it is importaant to maintain agile fundamentals:
  - Flexible planning, frequent system releases, continuous integration, test-driven development and good team communications.

Practical problems with agile methods

- The informality of agile development is incompatible with the legal approach to contract definition that is commonly used in large companies.
- Agile methods are most appropriate for new software development rather than software maintenance. Yet the majority of software costs in large companies come from maintaining their existing software systems.
- Agile methods are designed for small co-located teams yet much software development now involves worldwide distributed teams.

Contractual issues

- Most software contracts for custom systems are based around a specification, which sets out what has to be implemented by the system developer for the system customer.
- However, this precludes interleaving specification and development as is the norm in agile development.
- A contract that pays for developer time rather than functionality is required.
  - However, this is seen as a high risk my many legal departments because what has to be delivered cannot be guaranteed.

Agile methods and software maintenance

- Most organizations spend more on maintaining existing software than they do on new software development. So, if agile methods are to be successful, they have to support maintenance as well as original development.
- Two key issues:
  - Are systems that are developed using an agile approach maintainable, given the emphasis in the development process of minimizing formal documentation?
  - Can agile methods be used effectively for evolving a system in response to customer change requests?
- Problems may arise if original development team cannot be maintained.

Agile maintenance

- Key problems are:
  - Lack of product documentation
  - Keeping customers involved in the development process
  - Maintaining the continuity of the development team
- Agile development relies on the development team knowing and understanding what has to be done.
- For long-lifetime systems, this is a real problem as the original developers will not always work on the system.

Agile and plan-driven methods

- Most projects include elements of plan-driven and agile processes. Deciding on the balance depends on:
  - Is it important to have a very detailed specification and design before moving to implementation? If so, you probably need to use a plan-driven approach.
  - Is an incremental delivery strategy, where you deliver the software to customers and get rapid feedback from them, realistic? If so, consider using agile methods.
  - How large is the system that is being developed? Agile methods are most effective when the system can be developed with a small co-located team who can communicate informally. This may not be possible for large systems that require larger development teams so a plan-driven approach may have to be used.

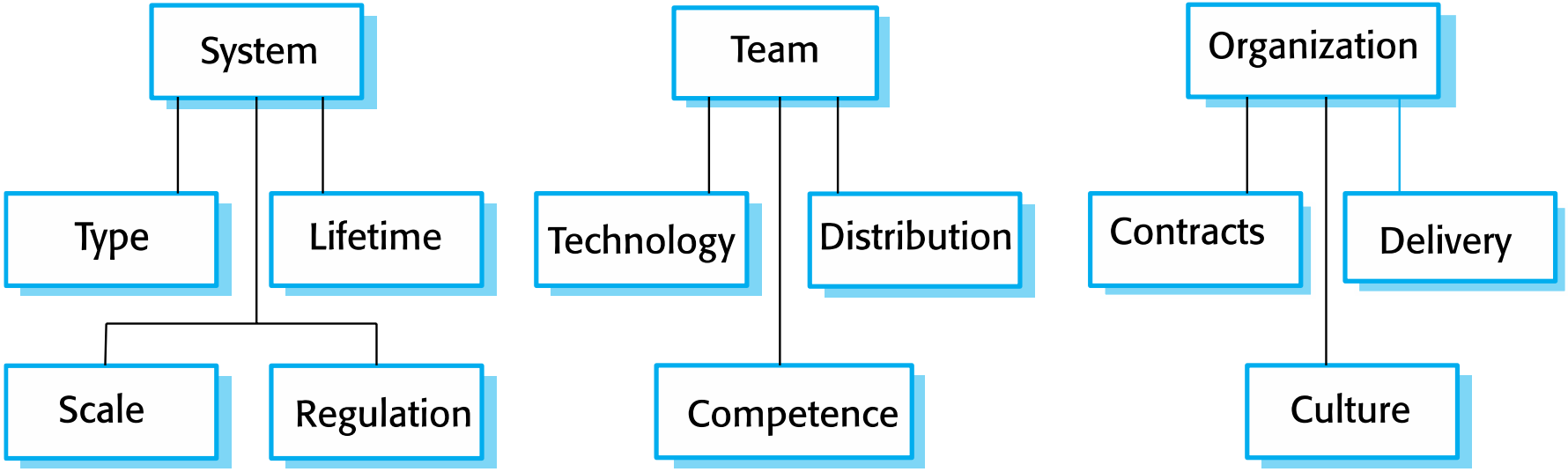
Agile principles and organizational practice

Principle	Practice
Customer involvement	This depends on having a customer who is willing and able to spend time with the development team and who can represent all system stakeholders. Often, customer representatives have other demands on their time and cannot play a full part in the software development. Where there are external stakeholders, such as regulators, it is difficult to represent their views to the agile team.
Embrace change	Prioritizing changes can be extremely difficult, especially in systems for which there are many stakeholders. Typically, each stakeholder gives different priorities to different changes.
Incremental delivery	Rapid iterations and short-term planning for development does not always fit in with the longer-term planning cycles of business planning and marketing. Marketing managers may need to know what product features several months in advance to prepare an effective marketing campaign.

Agile principles and organizational practice

Principle	Practice
Maintain simplicity	Under pressure from delivery schedules, team members may not have time to carry out desirable system simplifications.
People not process	Individual team members may not have suitable personalities for the intense involvement that is typical of agile methods, and therefore may not interact well with other team members.

Agile and plan-based factors



System issues

- How large is the system being developed?
  - Agile methods are most effective a relatively small co-located team who can communicate informally.
- What type of system is being developed?
  - Systems that require a lot of analysis before implementation need a fairly detailed design to carry out this analysis.
- What is the expected system lifetime?
  - Long-lifetime systems require documentation to communicate the intentions of the system developers to the support team.
- Is the system subject to external regulation?
  - If a system is regulated you will probably be required to produce detailed documentation as part of the system safety case.

People and teams

- How good are the designers and programmers in the development team?
  - It is sometimes argued that agile methods require higher skill levels than plan-based approaches in which programmers simply translate a detailed design into code.
- How is the development team organized?
  - Design documents may be required if the team is dsitributed.
- What support technologies are available?
  - IDE support for visualisation and program analysis is essential if design documentation is not available.

Organizational issues

- Traditional engineering organizations have a culture of plan-based development, as this is the norm in engineering.
- Is it standard organizational practice to develop a detailed system specification?
- Will customer representatives be available to provide feedback of system increments?
- Can informal agile development fit into the organizational culture of detailed documentation?

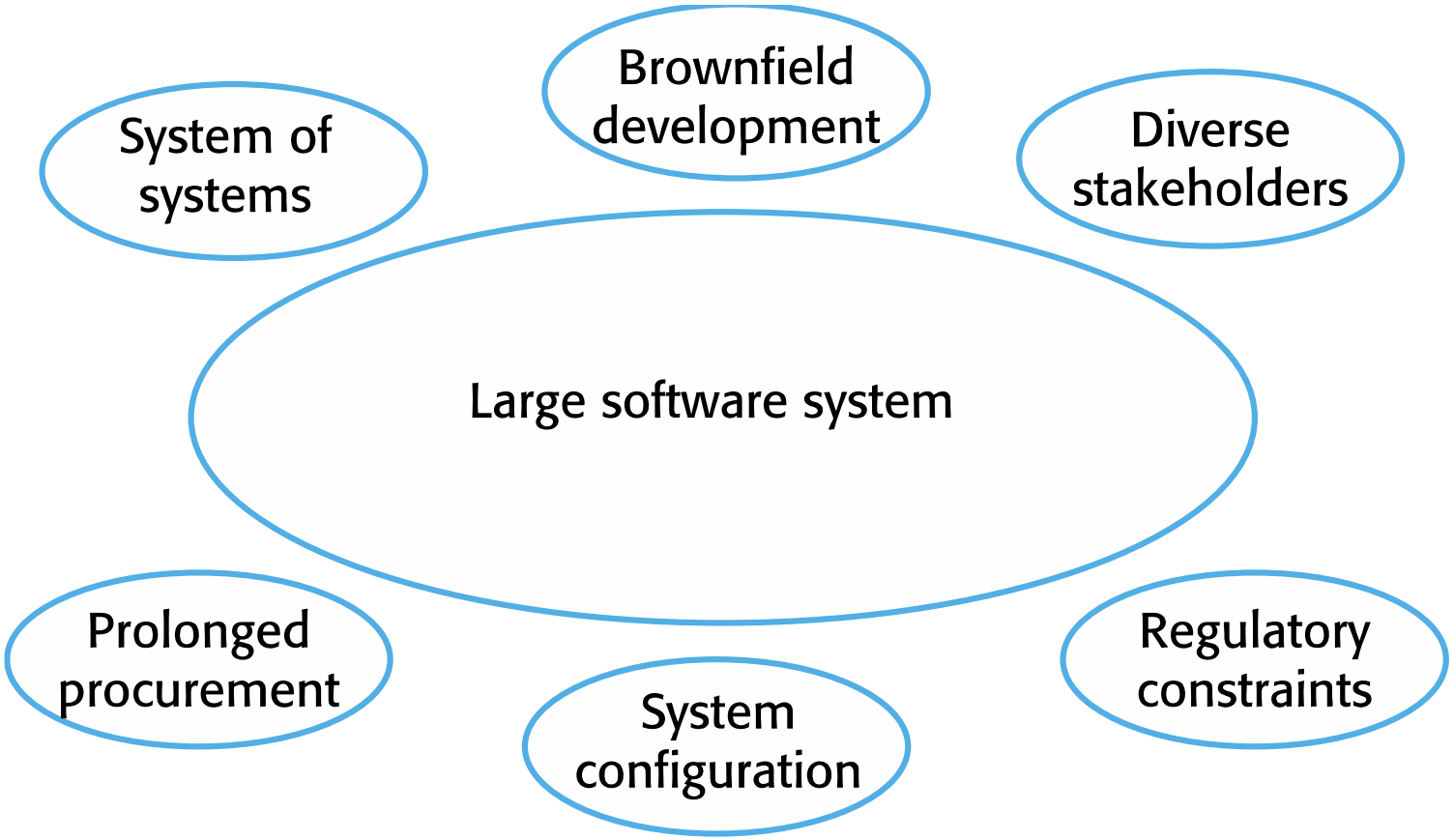
Agile methods for large systems

- Large systems are usually collections of separate, communicating systems, where separate teams develop each system. Frequently, these teams are working in different places, sometimes in different time zones.
- Large systems are ‘brownfield systems’, that is they include and interact with a number of existing systems. Many of the system requirements are concerned with this interaction and so don’t really lend themselves to flexibility and incremental development.
- Where several systems are integrated to create a system, a significant fraction of the development is concerned with system configuration rather than original code development.

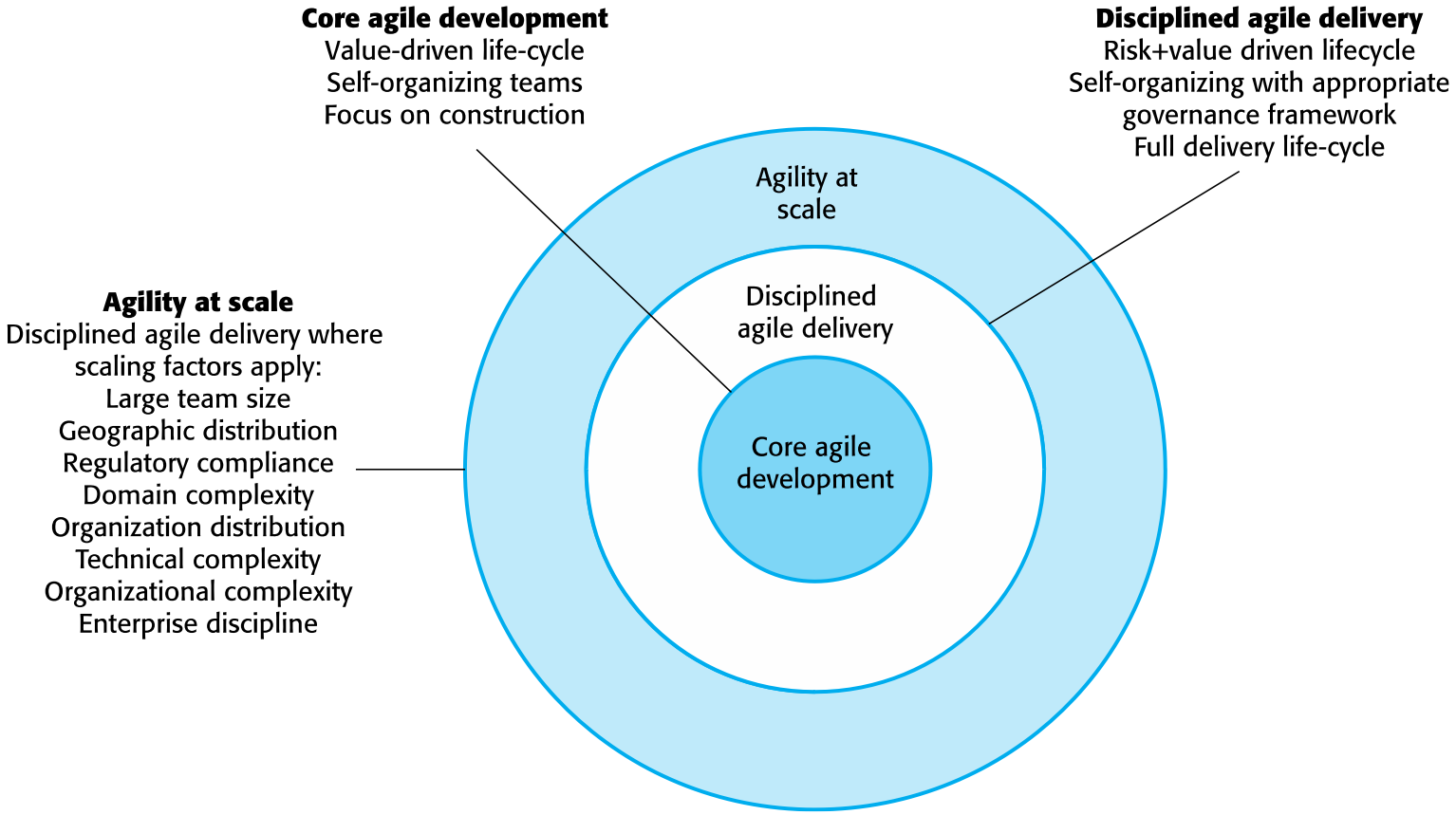
Large system development

- Large systems and their development processes are often constrained by external rules and regulations limiting the way that they can be developed.
- Large systems have a long procurement and development time. It is difficult to maintain coherent teams who know about the system over that period as, inevitably, people move on to other jobs and projects.
- Large systems usually have a diverse set of stakeholders. It is practically impossible to involve all of these different stakeholders in the development process.

Factors in large systems



IBM's agility at scale model



Scaling up to large systems

- A completely incremental approach to requirements engineering is impossible.
- There cannot be a single product owner or customer representative.
- For large systems development, it is not possible to focus only on the code of the system.
- Cross-team communication mechanisms have to be designed and used.
- Continuous integration is practically impossible. However, it is essential to maintain frequent system builds and regular releases of the system.

Multi-team Scrum

✧ *Role replication*

- Each team has a Product Owner for their work component and ScrumMaster.

✧ *Product architects*

- Each team chooses a product architect and these architects collaborate to design and evolve the overall system architecture.

✧ *Release alignment*

- The dates of product releases from each team are aligned so that a demonstrable and complete system is produced.

✧ *Scrum of Scrums*

- There is a daily Scrum of Scrums where representatives from each team meet to discuss progressand plan work to be done.

Agile methods across organizations

- Project managers who do not have experience of agile methods may be reluctant to accept the risk of a new approach.
- Large organizations often have quality procedures and standards that all projects are expected to follow and, because of their bureaucratic nature, these are likely to be incompatible with agile methods.
- Agile methods seem to work best when team members have a relatively high skill level. However, within large organizations, there are likely to be a wide range of skills and abilities.
- There may be cultural resistance to agile methods, especially in those organizations that have a long history of using conventional systems engineering processes.

Key points

- Agile methods are incremental development methods that focus on rapid software development, frequent releases of the software, reducing process overheads by minimizing documentation and producing high-quality code.
- Agile development practices include
  - User stories for system specification
  - Frequent releases of the software,
  - Continuous software improvement
  - Test-first development
  - Customer participation in the development team.

Key points

- Scrum is an agile method that provides a project management framework.
  - It is centred round a set of sprints, which are fixed time periods when a system increment is developed.
- Many practical development methods are a mixture of plan-based and agile development.
- Scaling agile methods for large systems is difficult.
  - Large systems need up-front design and some documentation and organizational practice may conflict with the informality of agile approaches.

Chapter 4 – Requirements Engineering

Topics covered

- ✧ Functional and non-functional requirements
- ✧ Requirements engineering processes
- ✧ Requirements elicitation
- ✧ Requirements specification
- ✧ Requirements validation
- ✧ Requirements change

Requirements engineering

- The process of establishing the services that acustomer requires from a system and the constraints under which it operates and is developed.
- The system requirements are the descriptions of the system services and constraints that are generated during the requirements engineering process.

What is a requirement?

- It may range from a high-level abstract statement of a service or of a system constraint to a detailed mathematical functional specification.
- This is inevitable as requirements may serve a dual function
  - May be the basis for a bid for a contract - therefore must be open to interpretation;
  - May be the basis for the contract itself - therefore must be defined in detail;
  - Both these statements may be called requirements.

Requirements abstraction (Davis)

“If a company wishes to let a contract for a large software development project, it must define its needs in a sufficiently abstract way that a solution is not pre-defined. The requirements must be written so that several contractors can bid for the contract, offering, perhaps, different ways of meeting the client organization’s needs. Once a contract has been awarded, the contractor must write a system definition for the client in more detail so that the client understands and can validate what the software will do. Both of these documents may be called the requirements document for the system.”

Types of requirement

- User requirements
  - Statements in natural language plus diagrams of the services the system provides and its operational constraints. Written for customers.
- System requirements
  - A structured document setting out detailed descriptions of the system's functions, services and operational constraints. Defines what should be implemented so may be part of a contract between client and contractor.

User and system requirements

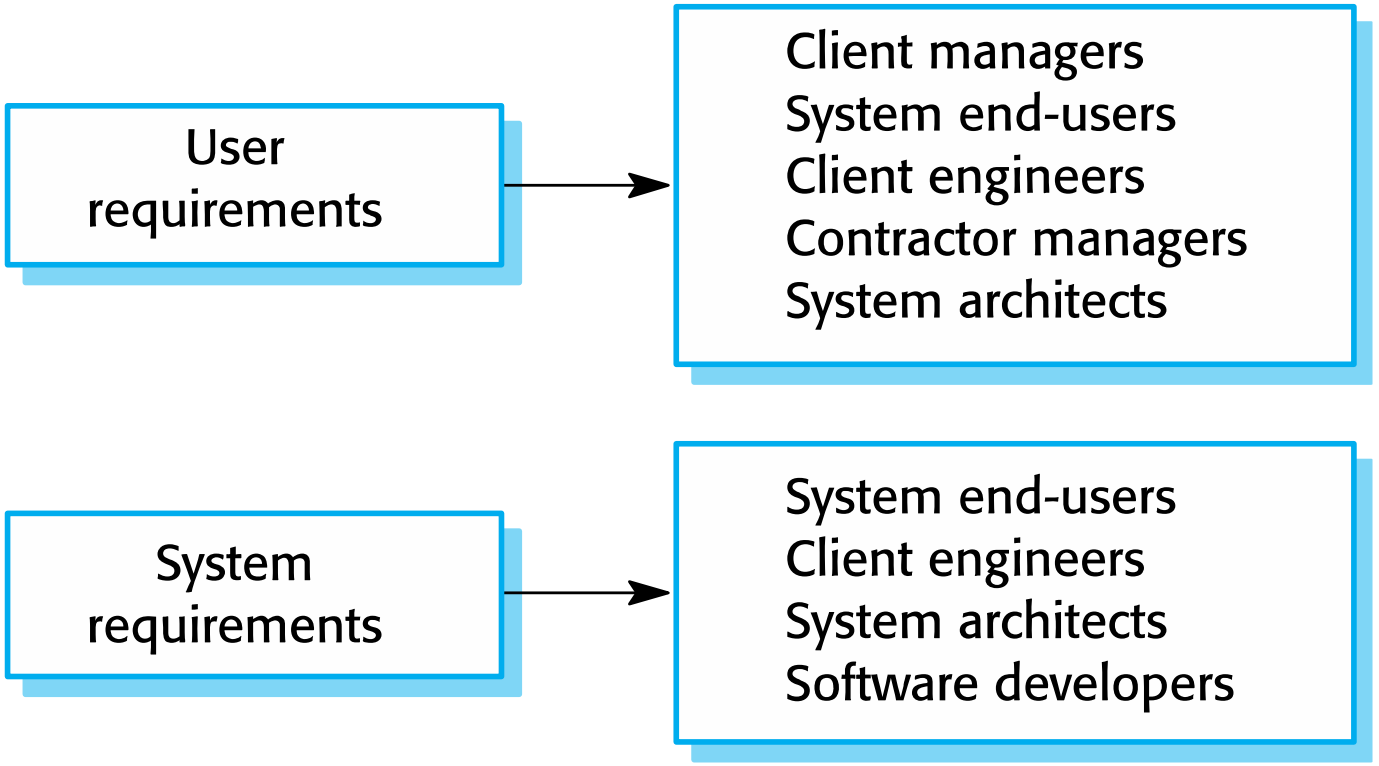
User requirements definition

1. The Mentcare system shall generate monthly management reports showing the cost of drugs prescribed by each clinic during that month.

System requirements specification

1.1 On the last working day of each month, a summary of the drugs prescribed, their cost and the prescribing clinics shall be generated.
1.2 The system shall generate the report for printing after 17.30 on the last working day of the month.
1.3 A report shall be created for each clinic and shall list the individual drug names, the total number of prescriptions, the number of doses prescribed and the total cost of the prescribed drugs.
1.4 If drugs are available in different dose units (e.g. 10mg, 20mg, etc) separate reports shall be created for each dose unit.
1.5 Access to drug cost reports shall be restricted to authorized users as listed on a management access control list.

Readers of different types of requirements specification



System stakeholders

- Any person or organization who is affected by the system in some way and so who has a legitimate interest
- Stakeholder types
  - End users
  - System managers
  - System owners
  - External stakeholders

Stakeholders in the Mentcare system

- Patients whose information is recorded in the system.
- Doctors who are responsible for assessing and treating patients.
- Nurses who coordinate the consultations with doctors and administer some treatments.
- Medical receptionists who manage patients' appointments.
- IT staff who are responsible for installing and maintaining the system.

Stakeholders in the Mentcare system

- A medical ethics manager who must ensure that the system meets current ethical guidelines for patient care.
- Health care managers who obtain management information from the system.
- Medical records staff who are responsible for ensuring that system information can be maintained and preserved, and that record keeping procedures have been properly implemented.

Agile methods and requirements

- Many agile methods argue that producing detailed system requirements is a waste of time as requirements change so quickly.
- The requirements document is therefore always out of date.
- Agile methods usually use incremental requirements engineering and may express requirements as ‘user stories’ (discussed in Chapter 3).
- This is practical for business systems but problematic for systems that require pre-delivery analysis (e.g. critical systems) or systems developed by several teams.

Functional and non-functional requirements

Functional and non-functional requirements

- Functional requirements
  - Statements of services the system should provide, how the system should react to particular inputs and how the system should behave in particular situations.
  - May state what the system should not do.
- Non-functional requirements
  - Constraints on the services or functions offered by the system such as timing constraints, constraints on the development process, standards, etc.
  - Often apply to the system as a whole rather than individual features or services.
- Domain requirements
  - Constraints on the system from the domain of operation

Functional requirements

- Describe functionality or system services.
- Depend on the type of software, expected users and the type of system where the software is used.
- Functional user requirements may be high-level statements of what the system should do.
- Functional system requirements should describe the system services in detail.

Mentcare system: functional requirements

- A user shall be able to search the appointments lists for all clinics.
- The system shall generate each day, for each clinic, a list of patients who are expected to attend appointments that day.
- Each staff member using the system shall be uniquely identified by his or her 8-digit employee number.

Requirements imprecision

- Problems arise when functional requirements are not precisely stated.
- Ambiguous requirements may be interpreted in different ways by developers and users.
- Consider the term ‘search’ in requirement 1
  - User intention – search for a patient name across all appointments in all clinics;
  - Developer interpretation – search for a patient name in an individual clinic. User chooses clinic then search.

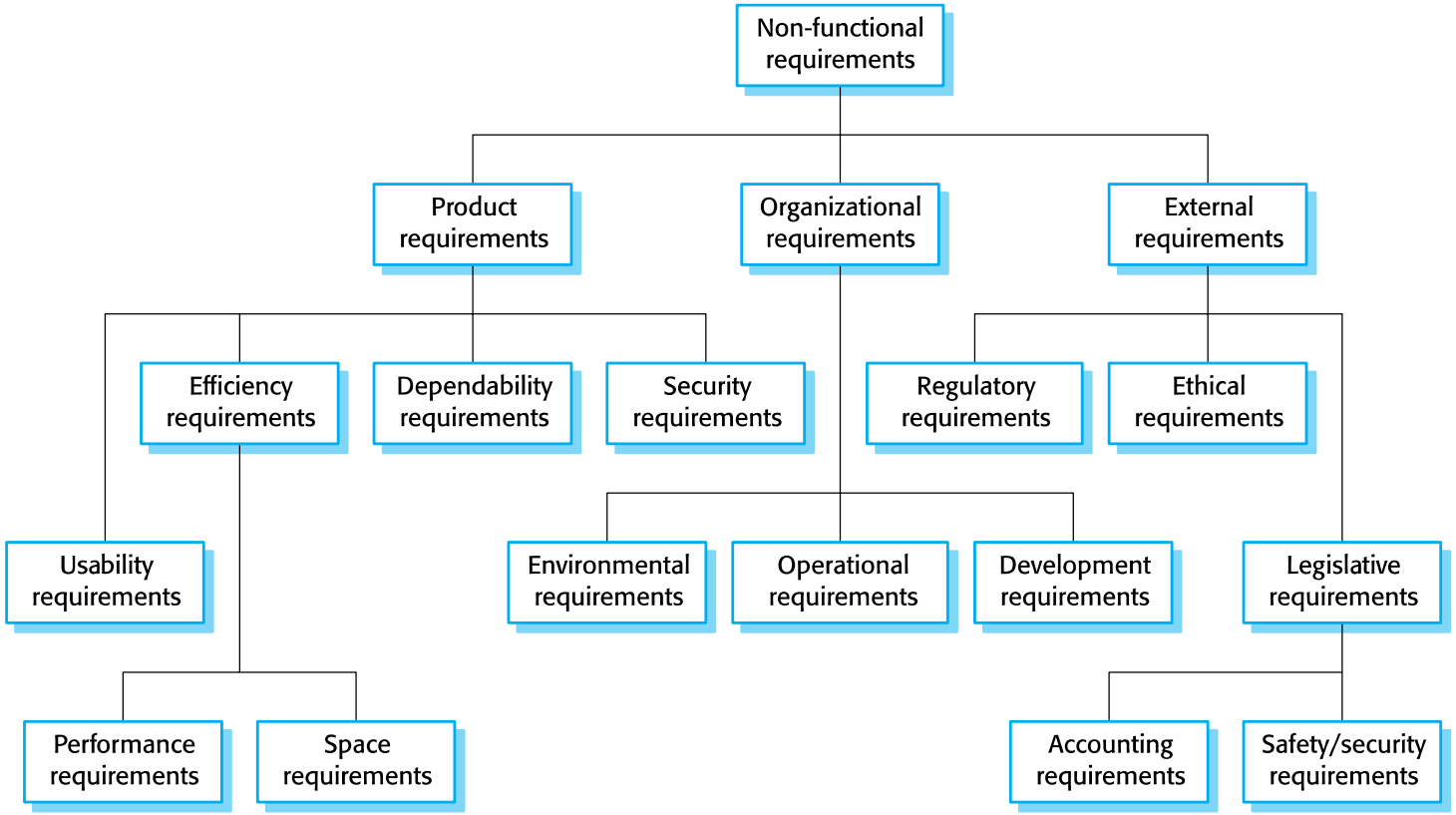
Requirements completeness and consistency

- In principle, requirements should be both complete and consistent.
- Complete
  - They should include descriptions of all facilities required.
- Consistent
  - There should be no conflicts or contradictions in the descriptions of the system facilities.
- In practice, because of system and environmental complexity, it is impossible to produce a complete and consistent requirements document.

Non-functional requirements

- These define system properties and constraints e.g. reliability, response time and storage requirements. Constraints are I/O device capability, system representations, etc.
- Process requirements may also be specified mandating a particular IDE, programming language or development method.
- Non-functional requirements may be more critical than functional requirements. If these are not met, the system may be useless.

Types of nonfunctional requirement



Non-functional requirements implementation

- Non-functional requirements may affect the overall architecture of a system rather than the individual components.
  - For example, to ensure that performance requirements are met, you may have to organize the system to minimize communications between components.
- A single non-functional requirement, such as a security requirement, may generate a number of related functional requirements that define system services that are required.
  - It may also generate requirements that restrict existing requirements.

Non-functional classifications

- ✧ Product requirements
  - Requirements which specify that the delivered product must behave in a particular way e.g. execution speed, reliability, etc.
- ✧ Organisational requirements
  - Requirements which are a consequence of organisational policies and procedures e.g. process standards used, implementation requirements, etc.
- ✧ External requirements
  - Requirements which arise from factors which are external to the system and its development process e.g. interoperability requirements, legislative requirements, etc.

Examples of nonfunctional requirements in the Mentcare system

Product requirement
The Mentcare system shall be available to all clinics during normal working hours (Mon–Fri, 0830–17.30). Downtime within normal working hours shall not exceed five seconds in any one day.

Organizational requirement
Users of the Mentcare system shall authenticate themselves using their health authority identity card.

External requirement
The system shall implement patient privacy provisions as set out in HStan-03-2006-priv.

Goals and requirements

- Non-functional requirements may be very difficult to state precisely and imprecise requirements may be difficult to verify.
- Goal
  - A general intention of the user such as ease of use.
- Verifiable non-functional requirement
  - A statement using some measure that can be objectively tested.
- Goals are helpful to developers as they convey the intentions of the system users.

Usability requirements

- The system should be easy to use by medical staff and should be organized in such a way that user errors are minimized. (Goal)
- Medical staff shall be able to use all the system functions after four hours of training. After this training, the average number of errors made by experienced users shall not exceed two per hour of system use. (Testable non-functional requirement)

Metrics for specifying nonfunctional requirements

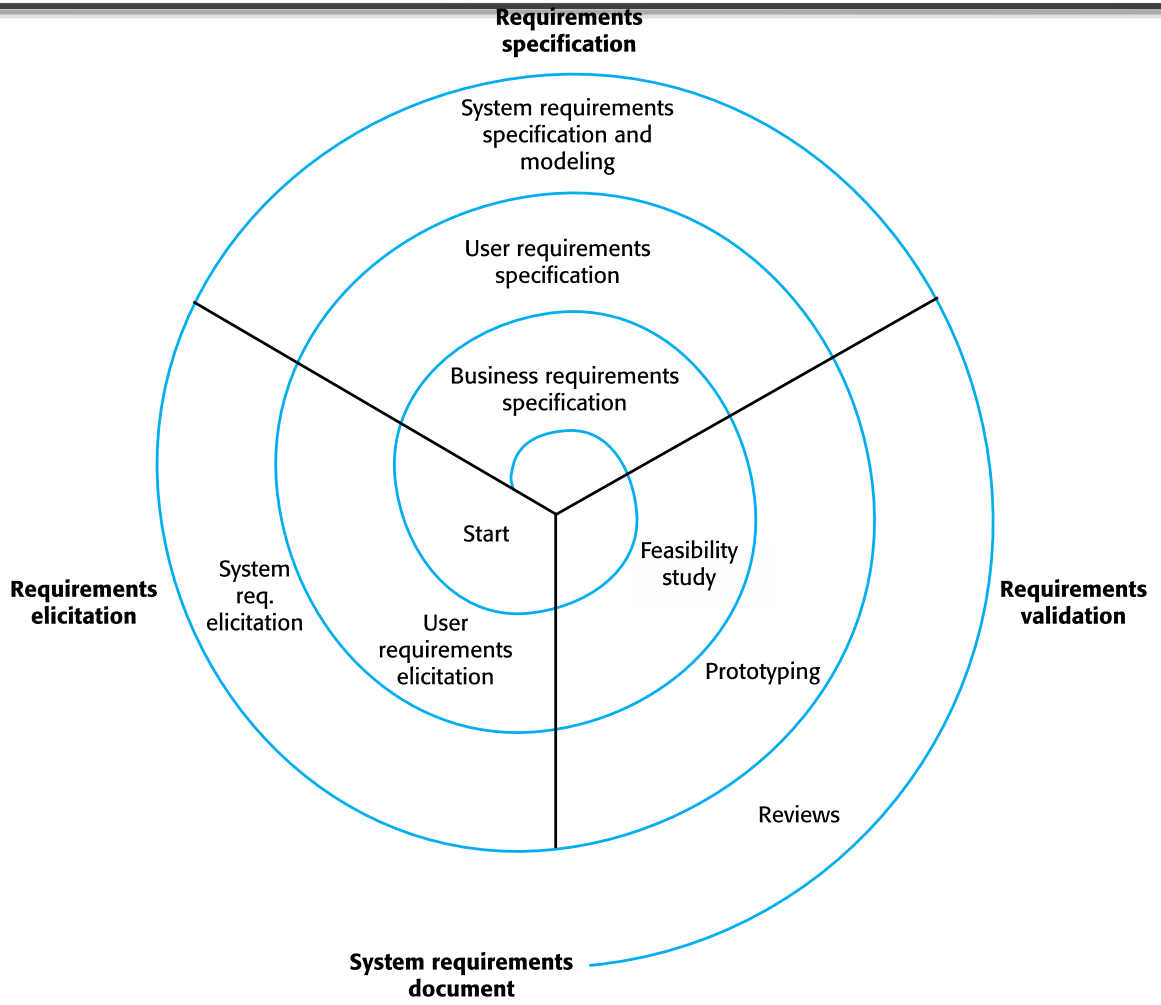
Property	Measure
Speed	Processed transactions/second User/event response time Screen refresh time
Size	Mbytes Number of ROM chips
Ease of use	Training time Number of help frames
Reliability	Mean time to failure Probability of unavailability Rate of failure occurrence Availability
Robustness	Time to restart after failure Percentage of events causing failure Probability of data corruption on failure
Portability	Percentage of target dependent statements Number of target systems

Requirements engineering processes

Requirements engineering processes

- The processes used for RE vary widely depending on the application domain, the people involved and the organisation developing the requirements.
- However, there are a number of generic activities common to all processes
  - Requirements elicitation;
  - Requirements analysis;
  - Requirements validation;
  - Requirements management.
- In practice, RE is an iterative activity in which these processes are interleaved.

A spiral view of the requirements engineering process



Requirements elicitation

Requirements elicitation and analysis

- Sometimes called requirements elicitation or requirements discovery.
- Involves technical staff working with customers to find out about the application domain, the services that the system should provide and the system's operational constraints.
- May involve end-users, managers, engineers involved in maintenance, domain experts, trade unions, etc. These are called *stakeholders.*

Requirements elicitation

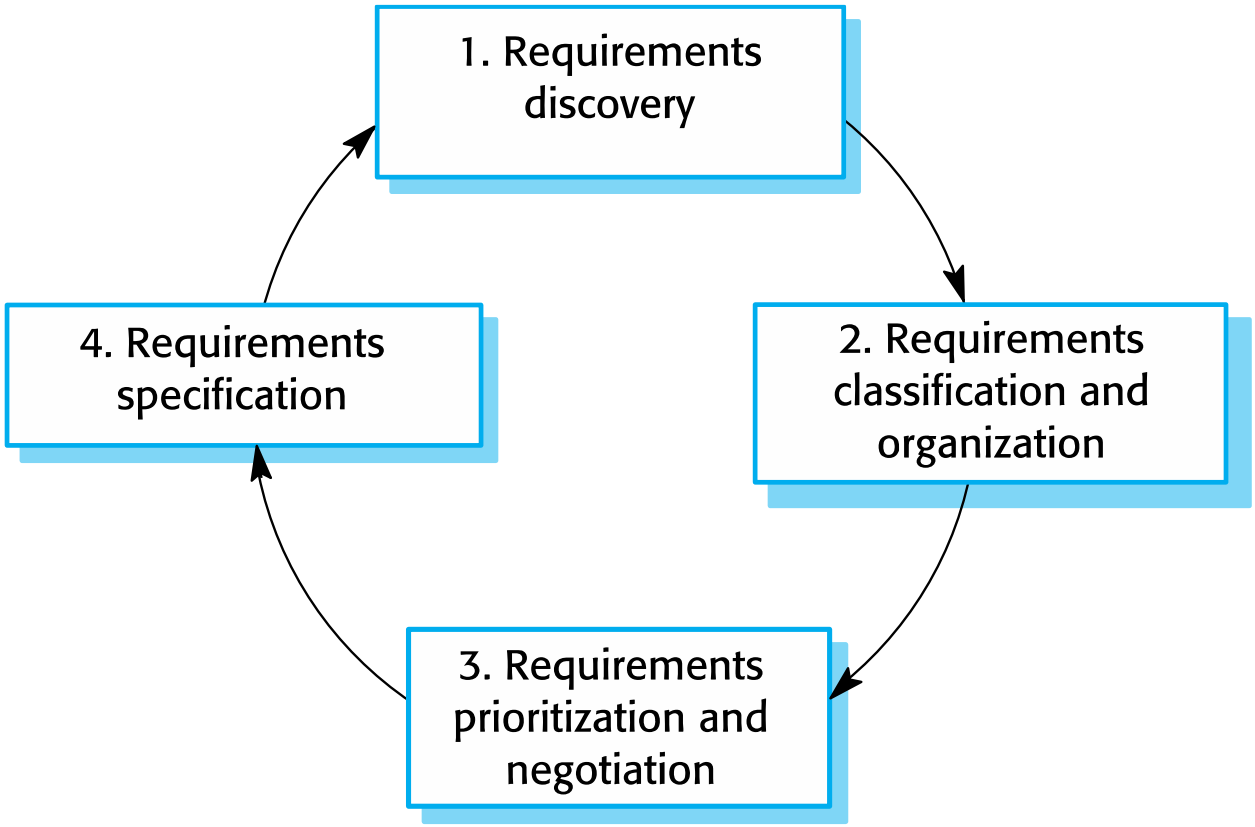
Requirements elicitation

- Software engineers work with a range of system stakeholders to find out about the application domain, the services that the system should provide, the required system performance, hardware constraints, other systems, etc.
- Stages include:
  - Requirements discovery,
  - Requirements classification and organization,
  - Requirements prioritization and negotiation,
  - Requirements specification.

Problems of requirements elicitation

- Stakeholders don’t know what they really want.
- Stakeholders express requirements in their own terms.
- Different stakeholders may have conflicting requirements.
- Organisational and political factors may influence the system requirements.
- The requirements change during the analysis process. New stakeholders may emerge and the business environment may change.

The requirements elicitation and analysis process



Process activities

- Requirements discovery
  - Interacting with stakeholders to discover their requirements. Domain requirements are also discovered at this stage.
- Requirements classification and organisation
  - Groups related requirements and organises them into coherent clusters.
- Prioritisation and negotiation
  - Prioritising requirements and resolving requirements conflicts.
- Requirements specification
  - Requirements are documented and input into the next round of the spiral.

Requirements discovery

- The process of gathering information about the required and existing systems and distilling the user and system requirements from this information.
- Interaction is with system stakeholders from managers to external regulators.
- Systems normally have a range of stakeholders.

Interviewing

- Formal or informal interviews with stakeholders are part of most RE processes.
- Types of interview
  - Closed interviews based on pre-determined list of questions
  - Open interviews where various issues are explored with stakeholders.
- Effective interviewing
  - Be open-minded, avoid pre-conceived ideas about the requirements and are willing to listen to stakeholders.
  - Prompt the interviewee to get discussions going using a springboard question, a requirements proposal, or by working together on a prototype system.

Interviews in practice

- Normally a mix of closed and open-ended interviewing.
- Interviews are good for getting an overall understanding of what stakeholders do and how they might interact with the system.
- Interviewers need to be open-minded without pre-conceived ideas of what the system should do
- You need to prompt the use to talk about the system by suggesting requirements rather than simply asking them what they want.

Problems with interviews

- Application specialists may use language to describe their work that isn't easy for the requirements engineer to understand.
- Interviews are not good for understanding domain requirements
  - Requirements engineers cannot understand specific domain terminology;
  - Some domain knowledge is so familiar that people find it hard to articulate or think that it isn't worth articulating.

Ethnography

- A social scientist spends a considerable time observing and analysing how people actually work.
- People do not have to explain or articulate their work.
- Social and organisational factors of importance may be observed.
- Ethnographic studies have shown that work is usually richer and more complex than suggested by simple system models.

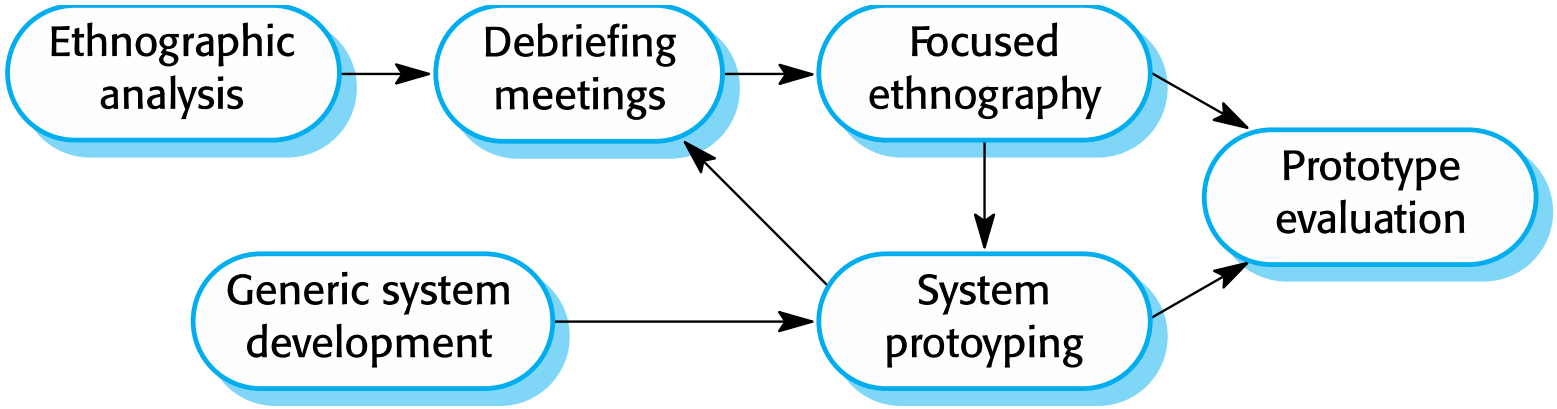
Scope of ethnography

- Requirements that are derived from the way that people actually work rather than the way I which process definitions suggest that they ought to work.
- Requirements that are derived from cooperation and awareness of other people's activities.
  - Awareness of what other people are doing leads to changes in the ways in which we do things.
- Ethnography is effective for understanding existing processes but cannot identify new features that should be added to a system.

Focused ethnography

- Developed in a project studying the air traffic control process
- Combines ethnography with prototyping
- Prototype development results in unanswered questions which focus the ethnographic analysis.
- The problem with ethnography is that it studies existing practices which may have some historical basis which is no longer relevant.

Ethnography and prototyping for requirements analysis



Stories and scenarios

- Scenarios and user stories are real-life examples of how a system can be used.
- Stories and scenarios are a description of how a system may be used for a particular task.
- Because they are based on a practical situation, stakeholders can relate to them and can comment on their situation with respect to the story.

Photo sharing in the classroom (iLearn)

- Jack is a primary school teacher in Ullapool (a village in northern Scotland). He has decided that a class project should be focused around the fishing industry in the area, looking at the history, development and economic impact of fishing. As part of this, pupils are asked to gather and share reminiscences from relatives, use newspaper archives and collect old photographs related to fishing and fishing communities in the area. Pupils use an iLearn wiki to gather together fishing stories and SCRAN (a history resources site) to access newspaper archives and photographs. However, Jack also needs a photo sharing site as he wants pupils to take and comment on each others' photos and to upload scans of old photographs that they may have in their families.

  Jack sends an email to a primary school teachers group, which he is a member of to see if anyone can recommend an appropriate system. Two teachers reply and both suggest that he uses KidsTakePics, a photo sharing site that allows teachers to check and moderate content. As KidsTakePics is not integrated with the iLearn authentication service, he sets up a teacher and a class account. He uses the iLearn setup service to add KidsTakePics to the services seen by the pupils in his class so that when they log in, they can immediately use the system to upload photos from their mobile devices and class computers.

Scenarios

- A structured form of user story
- Scenarios should include
  - A description of the starting situation;
  - A description of the normal flow of events;
  - A description of what can go wrong;
  - Information about other concurrent activities;
  - A description of the state when the scenario finishes.

Uploading photos iLearn)

- **Initial assumption**: A user or a group of users have one or more digital photographs to be uploaded to the picture sharing site. These are saved on either a tablet or laptop computer. They have successfully logged on to KidsTakePics.
- **Normal**: The user chooses upload photos and they are prompted to select the photos to be uploaded on their computer and to select the project name under which the photos will be stored. They should also be given the option of inputting keywords that should be associated with each uploaded photo. Uploaded photos are named by creating a conjunction of the user name with the filename of the photo on the local computer.
- On completion of the upload, the system automatically sends an email to the project moderator asking them to check new content and generates an on-screen message to the user that this has been done.

Uploading photos

- **What can go wrong**:
- No moderator is associated with the selected project. An email is automatically generated to the school administrator asking them to nominate a project moderator. Users should be informed that there could be a delay in making their photos visible.
- Photos with the same name have already been uploaded by the same user. The user should be asked if they wish to re-upload the photos with the same name, rename the photos or cancel the upload. If they chose to re-upload the photos, the originals are overwritten. If they chose to rename the photos, a new name is automatically generated by adding a number to the existing file name.
- **Other activities:** The moderator may be logged on to the system and may approve photos as they are uploaded.
- **System state on completion**: User is logged on. The selected photos have been uploaded and assigned a status ‘awaiting moderation’. Photos are visible to the moderator and to the user who uploaded them.

Requirements specification

Requirements specification

- The process of writing donw the user and system requirements in a requirements document.
- User requirements have to be understandable by end-users and customers who do not have a technical background.
- System requirements are more detailed requirements and may include more technical information.
- The requirements may be part of a contract for the system development
  - It is therefore important that these are as complete as possible.

Ways of writing a system requirements specification

Notation	Description
Natural language	The requirements are written using numbered sentences in natural language. Each sentence should express one requirement.
Structured natural language	The requirements are written in natural language on a standard form or template. Each field provides information about an aspect of the requirement.
Design description languages	This approach uses a language like a programming language, but with more abstract features to specify the requirements by defining an operational model of the system. This approach is now rarely used although it can be useful for interface specifications.
Graphical notations	Graphical models, supplemented by text annotations, are used to define the functional requirements for the system; UML use case and sequence diagrams are commonly used.
Mathematical specifications	These notations are based on mathematical concepts such as finite-state machines or sets. Although these unambiguous specifications can reduce the ambiguity in a requirements document, most customers don't understand a formal specification. They cannot check that it represents what they want and are reluctant to accept it as a system contract

Requirements and design

- In principle, requirements should state what the system should do and the design should describe how it does this.
- In practice, requirements and design are inseparable
  - A system architecture may be designed to structure the requirements;
  - The system may inter-operate with other systems that generate design requirements;
  - The use of a specific architecture to satisfy non-functional requirements may be a domain requirement.
  - This may be the consequence of a regulatory requirement.

Natural language specification

- Requirements are written as natural language sentences supplemented by diagrams and tables.
- Used for writing requirements because it is expressive, intuitive and universal. This means that the requirements can be understood by users and customers.

Guidelines for writing requirements

- ✧ Invent a standard format and use it for all requirements.
- ✧ Use language in a consistent way. Use shall for mandatory requirements, should for desirable requirements.
- ✧ Use text highlighting to identify key parts of the requirement.
- ✧ Avoid the use of computer jargon.
- ✧ Include an explanation (rationale) of why a requirement is necessary.

Problems with natural language

- ✧ Lack of clarity
  - Precision is difficult without making the document difficult to read.
- ✧ Requirements confusion
  - Functional and non-functional requirements tend to be mixed-up.
- ✧ Requirements amalgamation
  - Several different requirements may be expressed together.

Example requirements for the insulin pump software system

3.2 The system shall measure the blood sugar and deliver insulin, if required, every 10 minutes. *(Changes in blood sugar are relatively slow so more frequent measurement is unnecessary; less frequent measurement could lead to unnecessarily high sugar levels.)*

3.6 The system shall run a self-test routine every minute with the conditions to be tested and the associated actions defined in Table 1. *(A self-test routine can discover hardware and software problems and alert the user to the fact the normal operation may be impossible.)*

Structured specifications

- An approach to writing requirements where the freedom of the requirements writer is limited and requirements are written in a standard way.
- This works well for some types of requirements e.g. requirements for embedded control system but is sometimes too rigid for writing business system requirements.

Form-based specifications

- ✧ Definition of the function or entity.
- ✧ Description of inputs and where they come from.
- ✧ Description of outputs and where they go to.
- ✧ Information about the information needed for the computation and other entities used.
- ✧ Description of the action to be taken.
- ✧ Pre and post conditions (if appropriate).
- ✧ The side effects (if any) of the function.

A structured specification of a requirement for an insulin pump

Insulin Pump/Control Software/SRS/3.3.2

Function Compute insulin dose: safe sugar level.

Description

Computes the dose of insulin to be delivered when the current measured sugar level is in the safe zone between 3 and 7 units.

Inputs Current sugar reading (r2); the previous two readings (r0 and r1).

Source Current sugar reading from sensor. Other readings from memory.

Outputs CompDose—the dose in insulin to be delivered.

Destination Main control loop.

A structured specification of a requirement for an insulin pump

Action
CompDose is zero if the sugar level is stable or falling or if the level is increasing but the rate of increase is decreasing. If the level is increasing and the rate of increase is increasing, then CompDose is computed by dividing the difference between the current sugar level and the previous level by 4 and rounding the result. If the result, is rounded to zero then CompDose is set to the minimum dose that can be delivered.
Requirements
Two previous readings so that the rate of change of sugar level can be computed.
Pre-condition
The insulin reservoir contains at least the maximum allowed single dose of insulin.
Post-condition r0 is replaced by r1 then r1 is replaced by r2.
Side effects None.

Tabular specification

- Used to supplement natural language.
- Particularly useful when you have to define a number of possible alternative courses of action.
- For example, the insulin pump systems bases its computations on the rate of change of blood sugar level and the tabular specification explains how to calculate the insulin requirement for different scenarios.

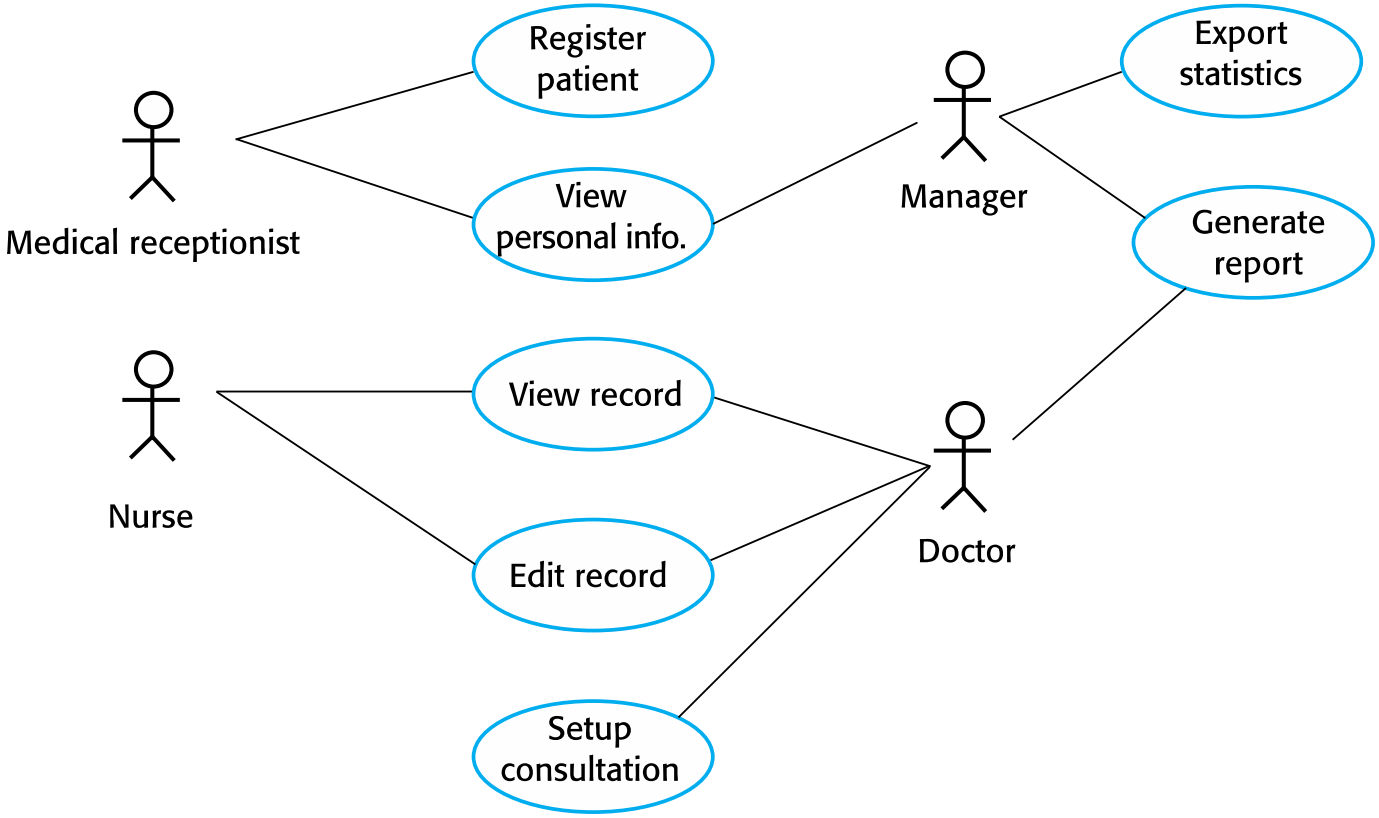
Tabular specification of computation for an insulin pump

Condition	Action
Sugar level falling (r2 < r1)	CompDose = 0
Sugar level stable (r2 = r1)	CompDose = 0
Sugar level increasing and rate of increase decreasing ((r2 – r1) < (r1 – r0))	CompDose = 0
Sugar level increasing and rate of increase stable or increasing ((r2 – r1) ≥ (r1 – r0))	CompDose = round ((r2 – r1)/4) If rounded result = 0 then CompDose = MinimumDose

Use cases

- Use-cases are a kind of scenario that are included in the UML.
- Use cases identify the actors in an interaction and which describe the interaction itself.
- A set of use cases should describe all possible interactions with the system.
- High-level graphical model supplemented by more detailed tabular description (see Chapter 5).
- UML sequence diagrams may be used to add detail to use-cases by showing the sequence of event processing in the system.

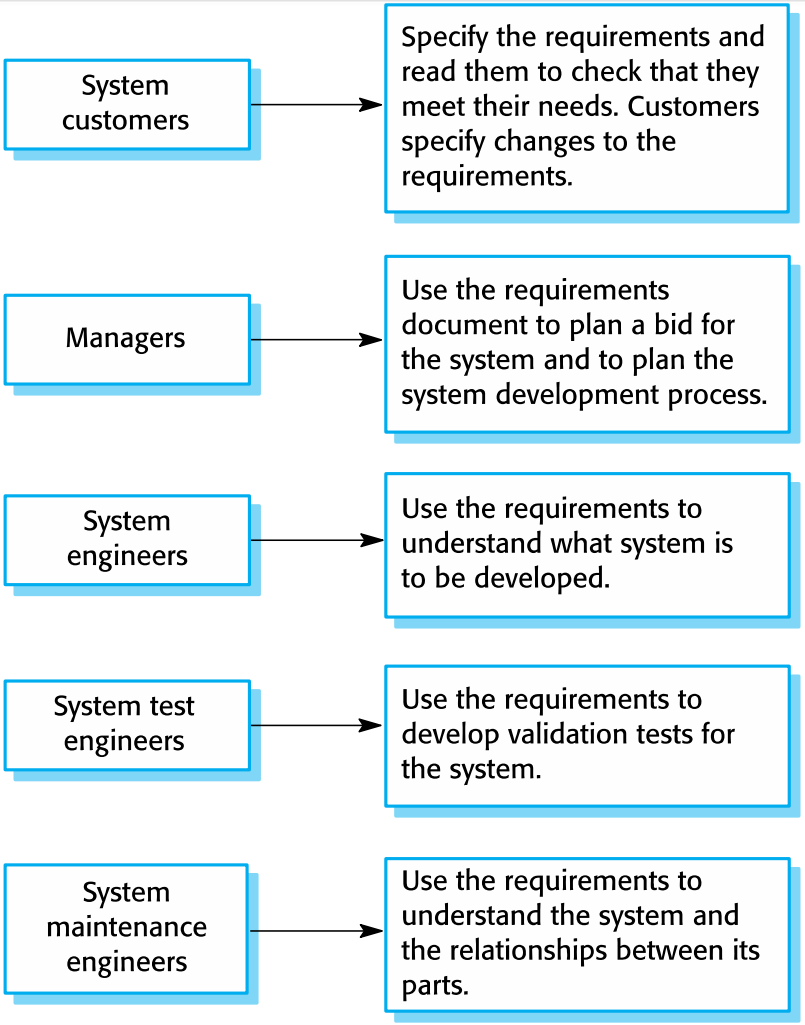
Use cases for the Mentcare system



The software requirements document

- The software requirements document is the official statement of what is required of the system developers.
- Should include both a definition of user requirements and a specification of the system requirements.
- It is NOT a design document. As far as possible, it should set of WHAT the system should do rather than HOW it should do it.

Users of a requirements document



Requirements document variability

- Information in requirements document depends on type of system and the approach to development used.
- Systems developed incrementally will, typically, have less detail in the requirements document.
- Requirements documents standards have been designed e.g. IEEE standard. These are mostly applicable to the requirements for large systems engineering projects.

The structure of a requirements document

Chapter	Description
Preface	This should define the expected readership of the document and describe its version history, including a rationale for the creation of a new version and a summary of the changes made in each version.
Introduction	This should describe the need for the system. It should briefly describe the system's functions and explain how it will work with other systems. It should also describe how the system fits into the overall business or strategic objectives of the organization commissioning the software.
Glossary	This should define the technical terms used in the document. You should not make assumptions about the experience or expertise of the reader.
User requirements definition	Here, you describe the services provided for the user. The nonfunctional system requirements should also be described in this section. This description may use natural language, diagrams, or other notations that are understandable to customers. Product and process standards that must be followed should be specified.
System architecture	This chapter should present a high-level overview of the anticipated system architecture, showing the distribution of functions across system modules. Architectural components that are reused should be highlighted.

The structure of a requirements document

Chapter	Description
System requirements specification	This should describe the functional and nonfunctional requirements in more detail. If necessary, further detail may also be added to the nonfunctional requirements. Interfaces to other systems may be defined.
System models	This might include graphical system models showing the relationships between the system components and the system and its environment. Examples of possible models are object models, data-flow models, or semantic data models.
System evolution	This should describe the fundamental assumptions on which the system is based, and any anticipated changes due to hardware evolution, changing user needs, and so on. This section is useful for system designers as it may help them avoid design decisions that would constrain likely future changes to the system.
Appendices	These should provide detailed, specific information that is related to the application being developed; for example, hardware and database descriptions. Hardware requirements define the minimal and optimal configurations for the system. Database requirements define the logical organization of the data used by the system and the relationships between data.
Index	Several indexes to the document may be included. As well as a normal alphabetic index, there may be an index of diagrams, an index of functions, and so on.

Requirements validation

Requirements validation

- Concerned with demonstrating that the requirements define the system that the customer really wants.
- Requirements error costs are high so validation is very important
  - Fixing a requirements error after delivery may cost up to 100 times the cost of fixing an implementation error.

Requirements checking

- Validity. Does the system provide the functions which best support the customer's needs?
- Consistency. Are there any requirements conflicts?
- Completeness. Are all functions required by the customer included?
- Realism. Can the requirements be implemented given available budget and technology
- Verifiability. Can the requirements be checked?

Requirements validation techniques

- Requirements reviews
  - Systematic manual analysis of the requirements.
- Prototyping
  - Using an executable model of the system to check requirements. Covered in Chapter 2.
- Test-case generation
  - Developing tests for requirements to check testability.

Requirements reviews

- Regular reviews should be held while the requirements definition is being formulated.
- Both client and contractor staff should be involved in reviews.
- Reviews may be formal (with completed documents) or informal. Good communications between developers, customers and users can resolve problems at an early stage.

Review checks

- Verifiability
  - Is the requirement realistically testable?
- Comprehensibility
  - Is the requirement properly understood?
- Traceability
  - Is the origin of the requirement clearly stated?
- Adaptability
  - Can the requirement be changed without a large impact on other requirements?

Requirements change

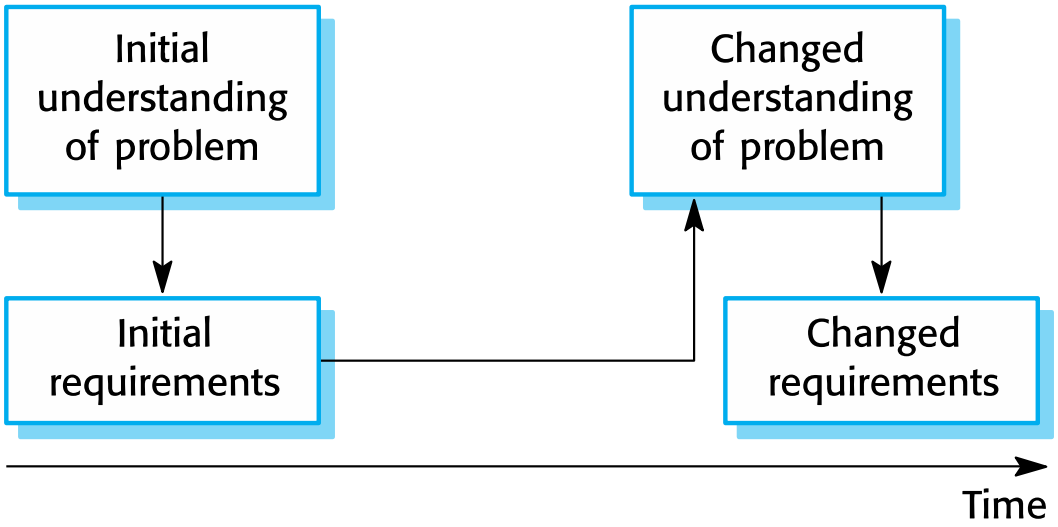
Changing requirements

- The business and technical environment of the system always changes after installation.
  - New hardware may be introduced, it may be necessary to interface the system with other systems, business priorities may change (with consequent changes in the system support required), and new legislation and regulations may be introduced that the system must necessarily abide by.
- The people who pay for a system and the users of that system are rarely the same people.
  - System customers impose requirements because of organizational and budgetary constraints. These may conflict with end-user requirements and, after delivery, new features may have to be added for user support if the system is to meet its goals.

Changing requirements

- Large systems usually have a diverse user community, with many users having different requirements and priorities that may be conflicting or contradictory.
  - The final system requirements are inevitably a compromise between them and, with experience, it is often discovered that the balance of support given to different users has to be changed.

Requirements evolution



Requirements management

- Requirements management is the process of managing changing requirements during the requirements engineering process and system development.
- New requirements emerge as a system is being developed and after it has gone into use.
- You need to keep track of individual requirements and maintain links between dependent requirements so that you can assess the impact of requirements changes. You need to establish a formal process for making change proposals and linking these to system requirements.

Requirements management planning

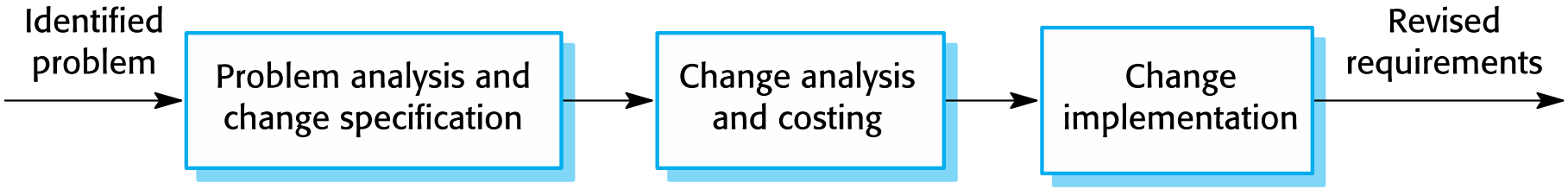
- Establishes the level of requirements management detail that is required.
- Requirements management decisions:
  - *Requirements identification* Each requirement must be uniquely identified so that it can be cross-referenced with other requirements.
  - *A change management process* This is the set of activities that assess the impact and cost of changes. I discuss this process in more detail in the following section.
  - *Traceability policies* These policies define the relationships between each requirement and between the requirements and the system design that should be recorded.
  - *Tool support* Tools that may be used range from specialist requirements management systems to spreadsheets and simple database systems.

Requirements change management

✧ Deciding if a requirements change should be accepted

- *Problem analysis and change specification*
  - During this stage, the problem or the change proposal is analyzed to check that it is valid. This analysis is fed back to the change requestor who may respond with a more specific requirements change proposal, or decide to withdraw the request.
- *Change analysis and costing*
  - The effect of the proposed change is assessed using traceability information and general knowledge of the system requirements. Once this analysis is completed, a decision is made whether or not to proceed with the requirements change.
- Change implementation
  - The requirements document and, where necessary, the system design and implementation, are modified. Ideally, the document should be organized so that changes can be easily implemented.

Requirements change management



Key points

- Requirements for a software system set out what the system should do and define constraints on its operation and implementation.
- Functional requirements are statements of the services that the system must provide or are descriptions of how some computations must be carried out.
- Non-functional requirements often constrain the system being developed and the development process being used.
- They often relate to the emergent properties of the system and therefore apply to the system as a whole.

Key points

- The requirements engineering process is an iterative process that includes requirements elicitation, specification and validation.
- Requirements elicitation is an iterative process that can be represented as a spiral of activities – requirements discovery, requirements classification and organization, requirements negotiation and requirements documentation.
- You can use a range of techniques for requirements elicitation including interviews and ethnography. User stories and scenarios may be used to facilitate discussions.

Key points

- Requirements specification is the process of formally documenting the user and system requirements and creating a software requirements document.
- The software requirements document is an agreed statement of the system requirements. It should be organized so that both system customers and software developers can use it.

Key points

- Requirements validation is the process of checking the requirements for validity, consistency, completeness, realism and verifiability.
- Business, organizational and technical changes inevitably lead to changes to the requirements for a software system. Requirements management is the process of managing and controlling these changes.

Chapter 5 – System Modeling

Topics covered

- ✧ Context models
- ✧ Interaction models
- ✧ Structural models
- ✧ Behavioral models
- ✧ Model-driven engineering

System modeling

- System modeling is the process of developing abstract models of a system, with each model presenting a different view or perspective of that system.
- System modeling has now come to mean representing a system using some kind of graphical notation, which is now almost always based on notations in the Unified Modeling Language (UML).
- System modelling helps the analyst to understand the functionality of the system and models are used to communicate with customers.

Existing and planned system models

- Models of the existing system are used during requirements engineering. They help clarify what the existing system does and can be used as a basis for discussing its strengths and weaknesses. These then lead to requirements for the new system.
- Models of the new system are used during requirements engineering to help explain the proposed requirements to other system stakeholders. Engineers use these models to discuss design proposals and to document the system for implementation.
- In a model-driven engineering process, it is possible to generate a complete or partial system implementation from the system model.

System perspectives

- An external perspective, where you model the context or environment of the system.
- An interaction perspective, where you model the interactions between a system and its environment, or between the components of a system.
- A structural perspective, where you model the organization of a system or the structure of the data that is processed by the system.
- A behavioral perspective, where you model the dynamic behavior of the system and how it responds to events.

UML diagram types

- Activity diagrams, which show the activities involved in a process or in data processing .
- Use case diagrams, which show the interactions between a system and its environment.
- Sequence diagrams, which show interactions between actors and the system and between system components.
- Class diagrams, which show the object classes in the system and the associations between these classes.
- State diagrams, which show how the system reacts to internal and external events.

Use of graphical models

- As a means of facilitating discussion about an existing or proposed system
  - Incomplete and incorrect models are OK as their role is to support discussion.
- As a way of documenting an existing system
  - Models should be an accurate representation of the system but need not be complete.
- As a detailed system description that can be used to generate a system implementation
  - Models have to be both correct and complete.

Context models

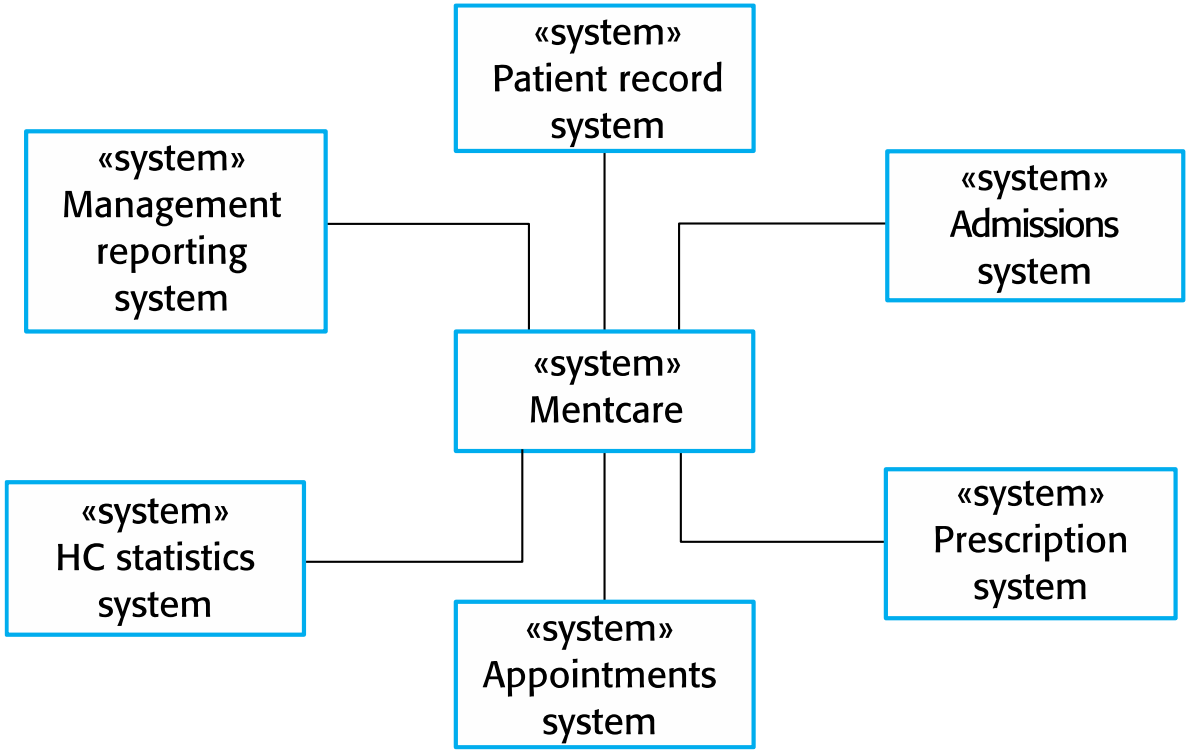
Context models

- Context models are used to illustrate the operational context of a system - they show what lies outside the system boundaries.
- Social and organisational concerns may affect the decision on where to position system boundaries.
- Architectural models show the system and its relationship with other systems.

System boundaries

- System boundaries are established to define what is inside and what is outside the system.
  - They show other systems that are used or depend on the system being developed.
- The position of the system boundary has a profound effect on the system requirements.
- Defining a system boundary is a political judgment
  - There may be pressures to develop system boundaries that increase / decrease the influence or workload of different parts of an organization.

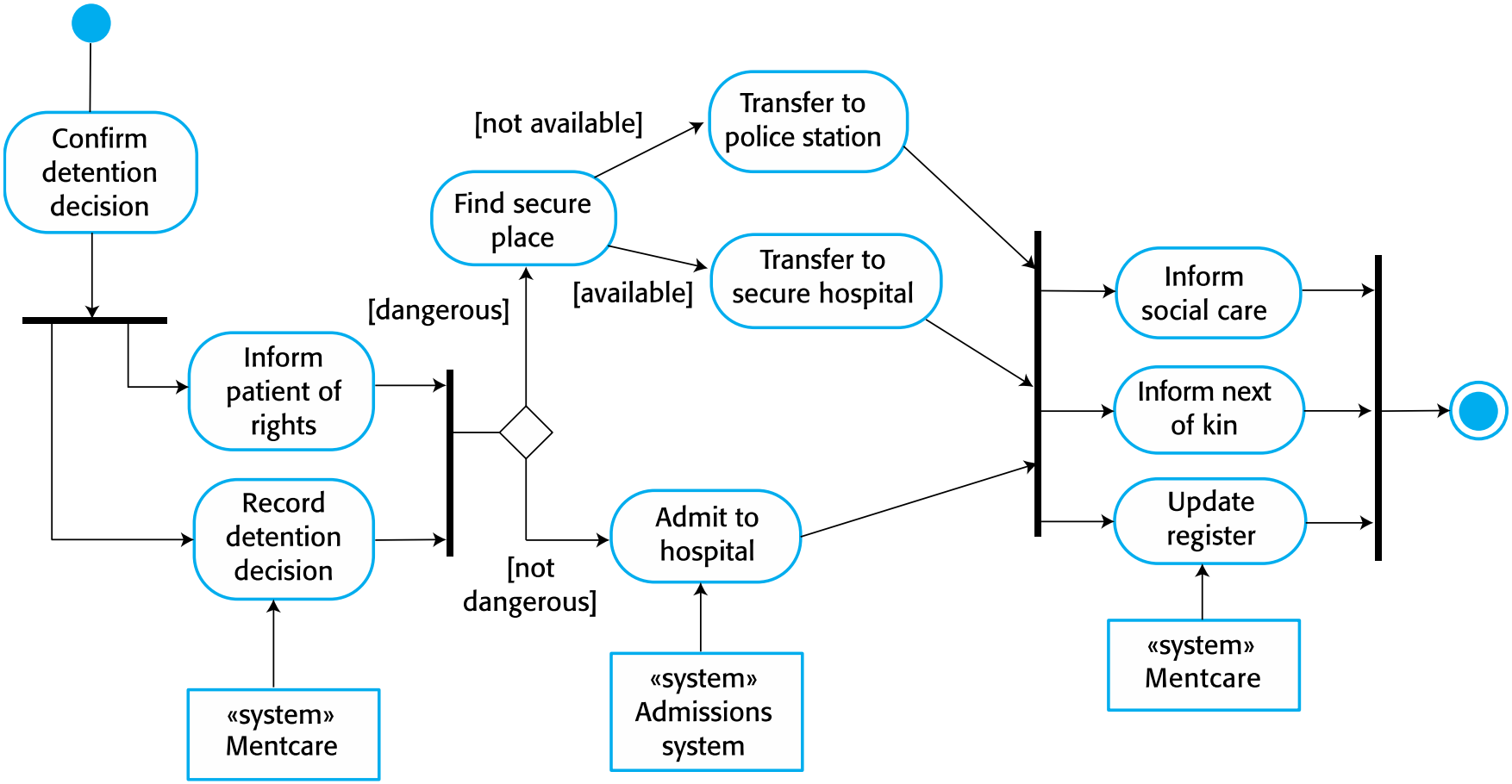
The context of the Mentcare system



Process perspective

- Context models simply show the other systems in the environment, not how the system being developed is used in that environment.
- Process models reveal how the system being developed is used in broader business processes.
- UML activity diagrams may be used to define business process models.

Process model of involuntary detention



Interaction models

Interaction models

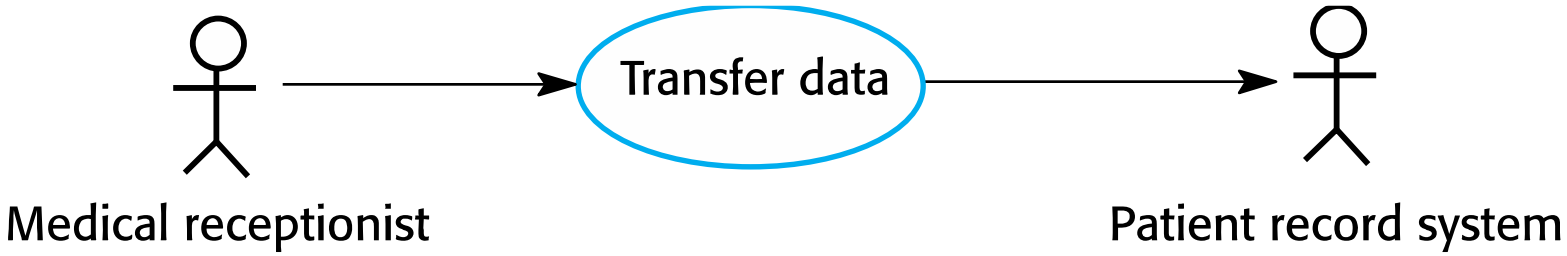
- Modeling user interaction is important as it helps to identify user requirements.
- Modeling system-to-system interaction highlights the communication problems that may arise.
- Modeling component interaction helps us understand if a proposed system structure is likely to deliver the required system performance and dependability.
- Use case diagrams and sequence diagrams may be used for interaction modeling.

Use case modeling

- Use cases were developed originally to support requirements elicitation and now incorporated into the UML.
- Each use case represents a discrete task that involves external interaction with a system.
- Actors in a use case may be people or other systems.
- Represented diagramatically to provide an overview of the use case and in a more detailed textual form.

Transfer-data use case

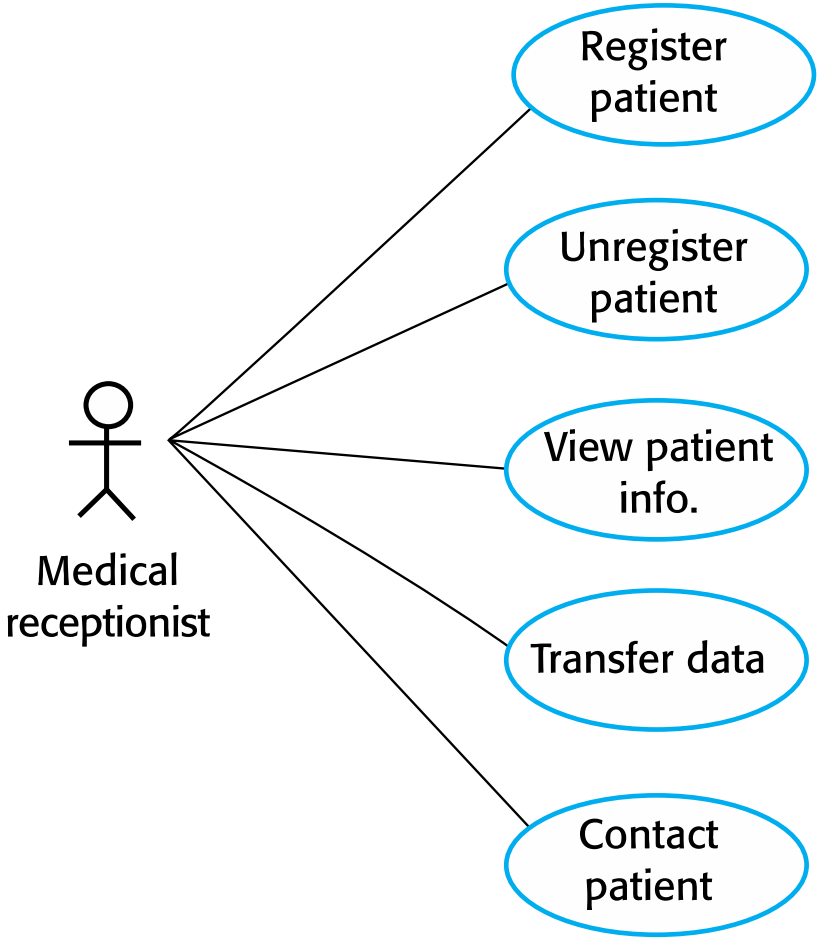
✧ A use case in the Mentcare system



Tabular description of the ‘Transfer data’ use-case

MHC-PMS: Transfer data	
Actors	Medical receptionist, patient records system (PRS)
Description	A receptionist may transfer data from the Mentcase system to a general patient record database that is maintained by a health authority. The information transferred may either be updated personal information (address, phone number, etc.) or a summary of the patient’s diagnosis and treatment.
Data	Patient’s personal information, treatment summary
Stimulus	User command issued by medical receptionist
Response	Confirmation that PRS has been updated
Comments	The receptionist must have appropriate security permissions to access the patient information and the PRS.

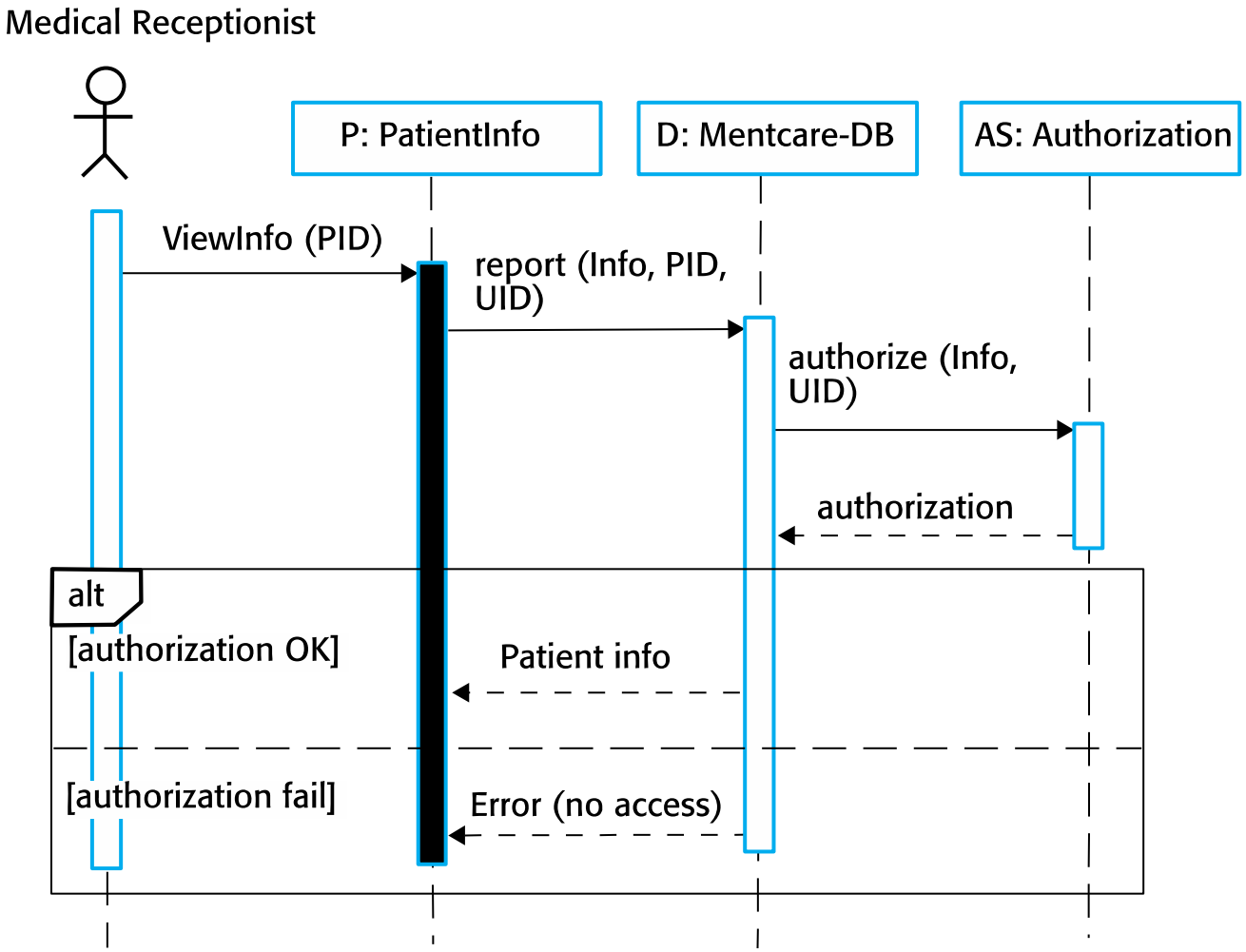
Use cases in the Mentcare system involving the role 'Medical Receptionist'

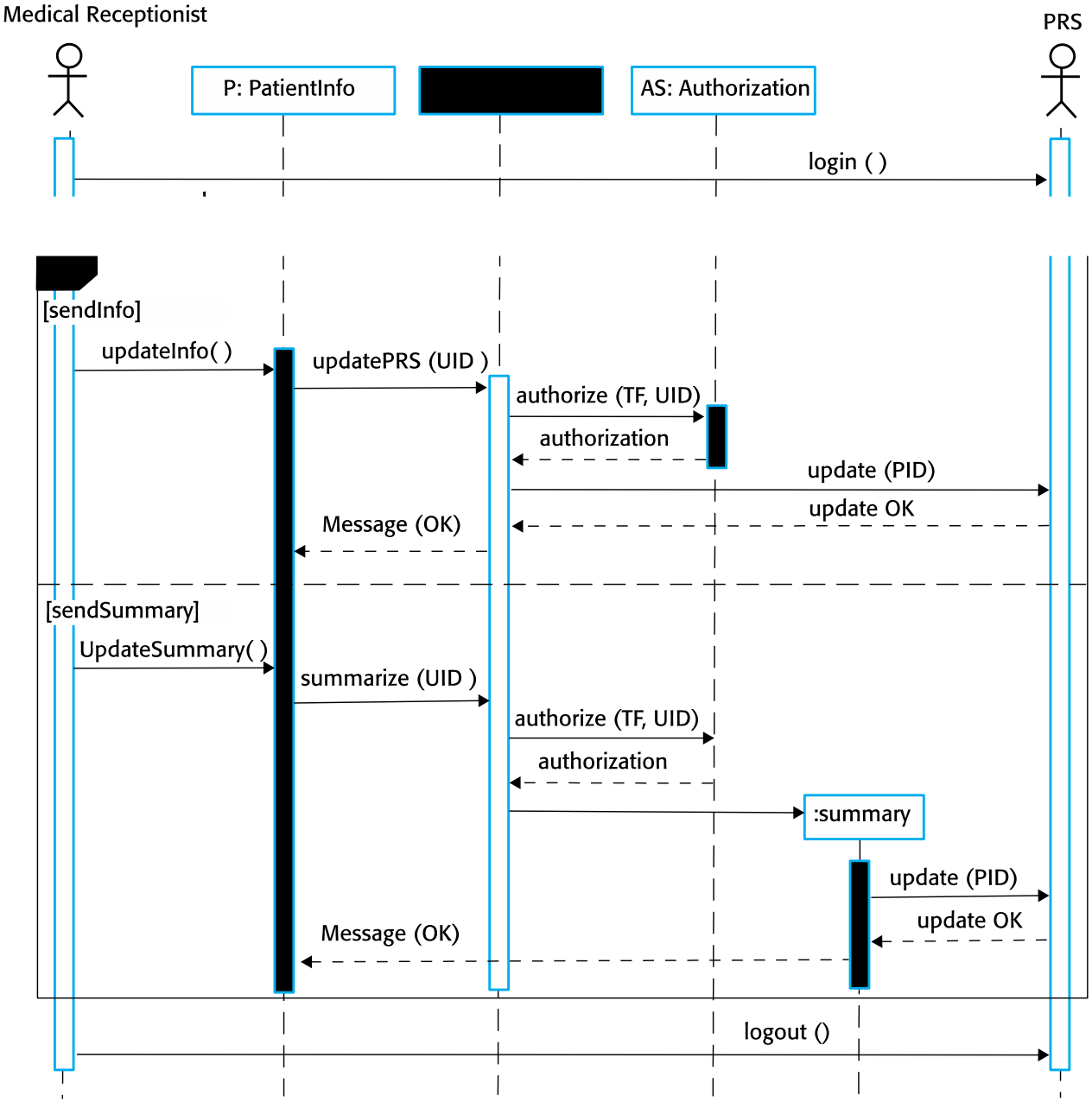


Sequence diagrams

- Sequence diagrams are part of the UML and are used to model the interactions between the actors and the objects within a system.
- A sequence diagram shows the sequence of interactions that take place during a particular use case or use case instance.
- The objects and actors involved are listed along the top of the diagram, with a dotted line drawn vertically from these.
- Interactions between objects are indicated by annotated arrows.

Sequence diagram for View patient information





Sequence diagram for Transfer Data

Structural models

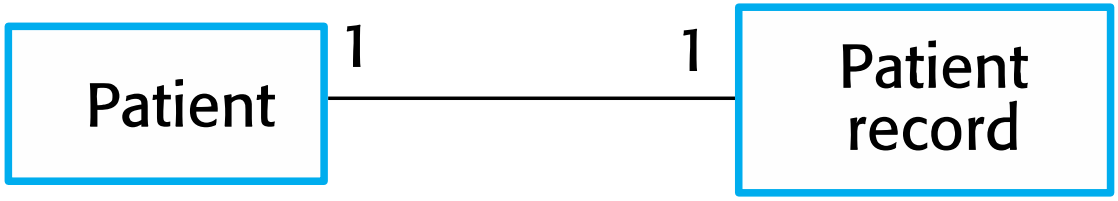
Structural models

- Structural models of software display the organization of a system in terms of the components that make up that system and their relationships.
- Structural models may be static models, which show the structure of the system design, or dynamic models, which show the organization of the system when it is executing.
- You create structural models of a system when you are discussing and designing the system architecture.

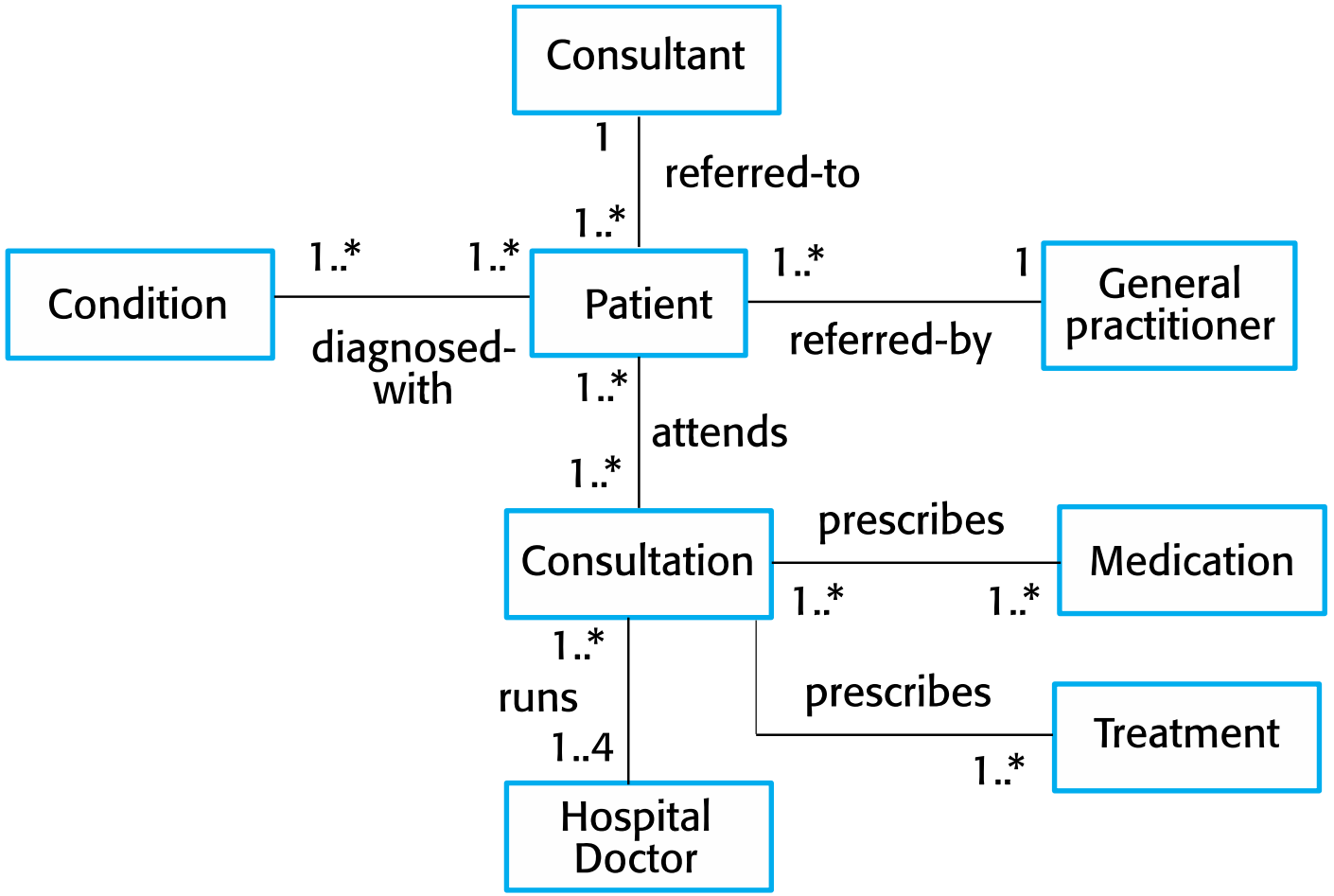
Class diagrams

- Class diagrams are used when developing an object-oriented system model to show the classes in a system and the associations between these classes.
- An object class can be thought of as a general definition of one kind of system object.
- An association is a link between classes that indicates that there is some relationship between these classes.
- When you are developing models during the early stages of the software engineering process, objects represent something in the real world, such as a patient, a prescription, doctor, etc.

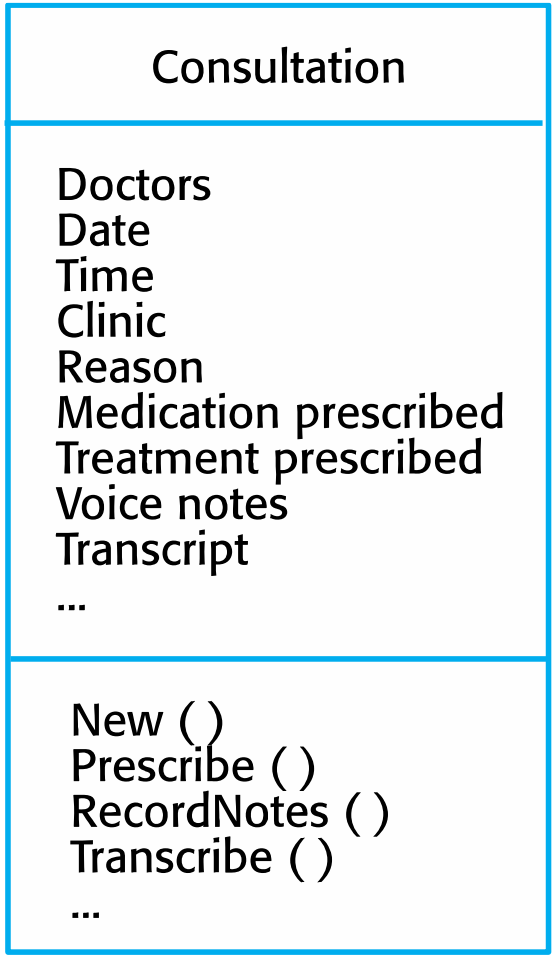
UML classes and association



Classes and associations in the MHC-PMS



The Consultation class



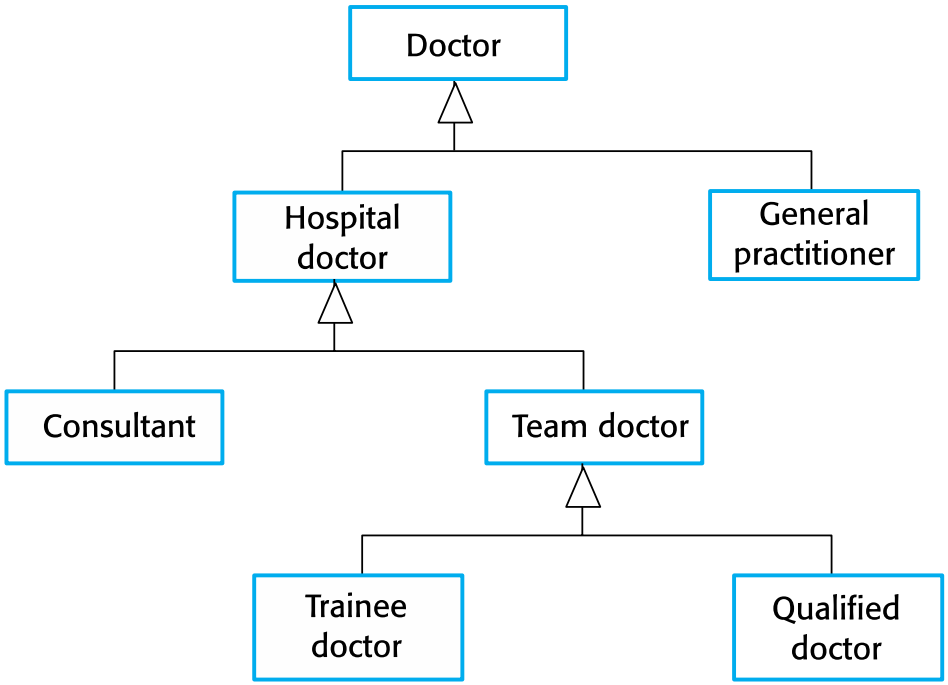
Generalization

- Generalization is an everyday technique that we use to manage complexity.
- Rather than learn the detailed characteristics of every entity that we experience, we place these entities in more general classes (animals, cars, houses, etc.) and learn the characteristics of these classes.
- This allows us to infer that different members of these classes have some common characteristics e.g. squirrels and rats are rodents.

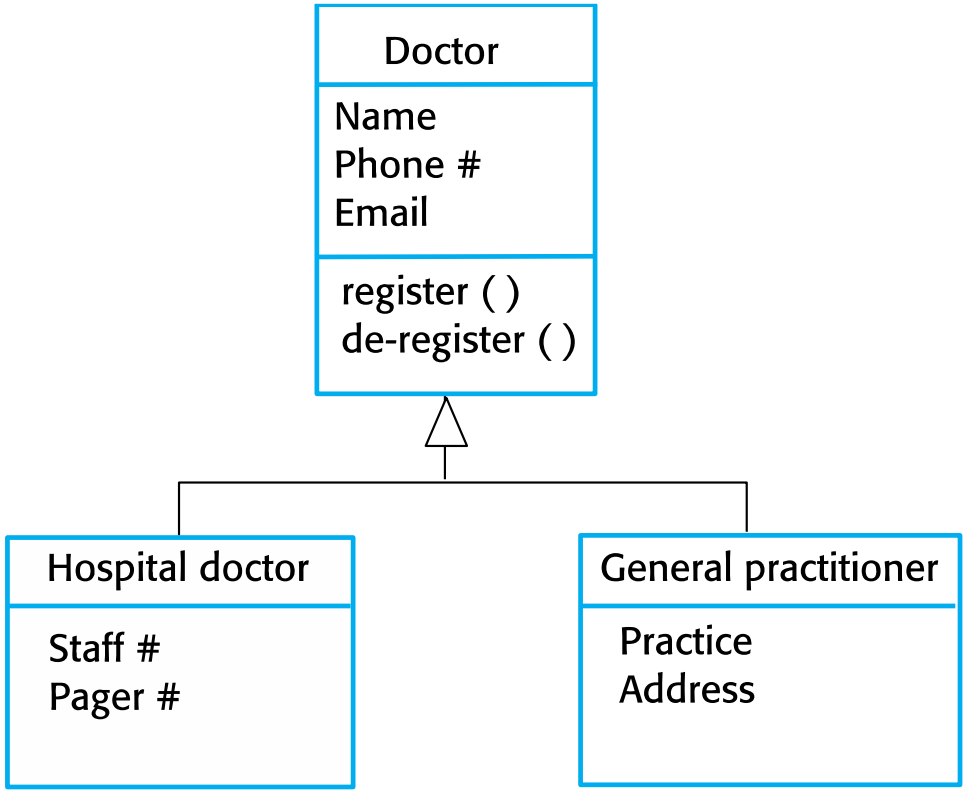
Generalization

- In modeling systems, it is often useful to examine the classes in a system to see if there is scope for generalization. If changes are proposed, then you do not have to look at all classes in the system to see if they are affected by the change.
- In object-oriented languages, such as Java, generalization is implemented using the class inheritance mechanisms built into the language.
- In a generalization, the attributes and operations associated with higher-level classes are also associated with the lower-level classes.
- The lower-level classes are subclasses inherit the attributes and operations from their superclasses. These lower-level classes then add more specific attributes and operations.

A generalization hierarchy



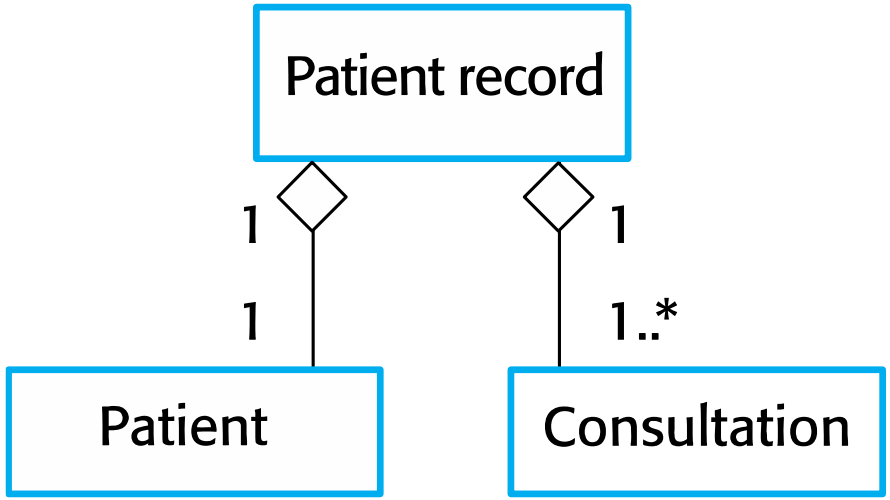
A generalization hierarchy with added detail



Object class aggregation models

- An aggregation model shows how classes that are collections are composed of other classes.
- Aggregation models are similar to the part-of relationship in semantic data models.

The aggregation association



Behavioral models

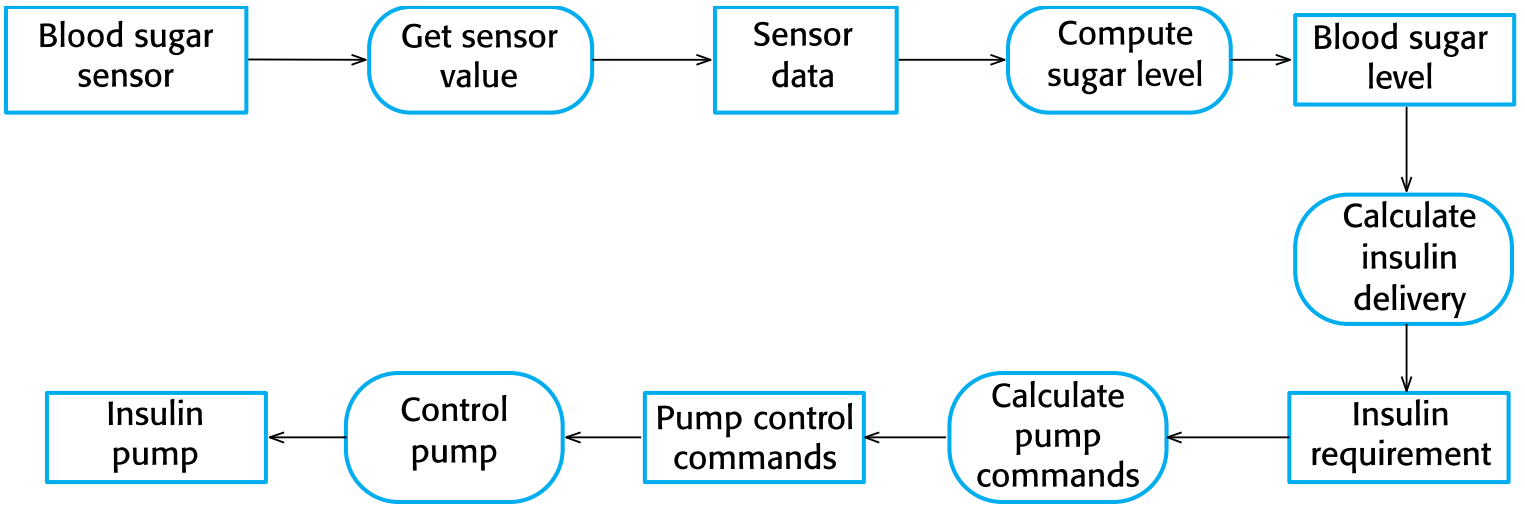
Behavioral models

- Behavioral models are models of the dynamic behavior of a system as it is executing. They show what happens or what is supposed to happen when a system responds to a stimulus from its environment.
- You can think of these stimuli as being of two types:
  - Data Some data arrives that has to be processed by the system.
  - Events Some event happens that triggers system processing. Events may have associated data, although this is not always the case.

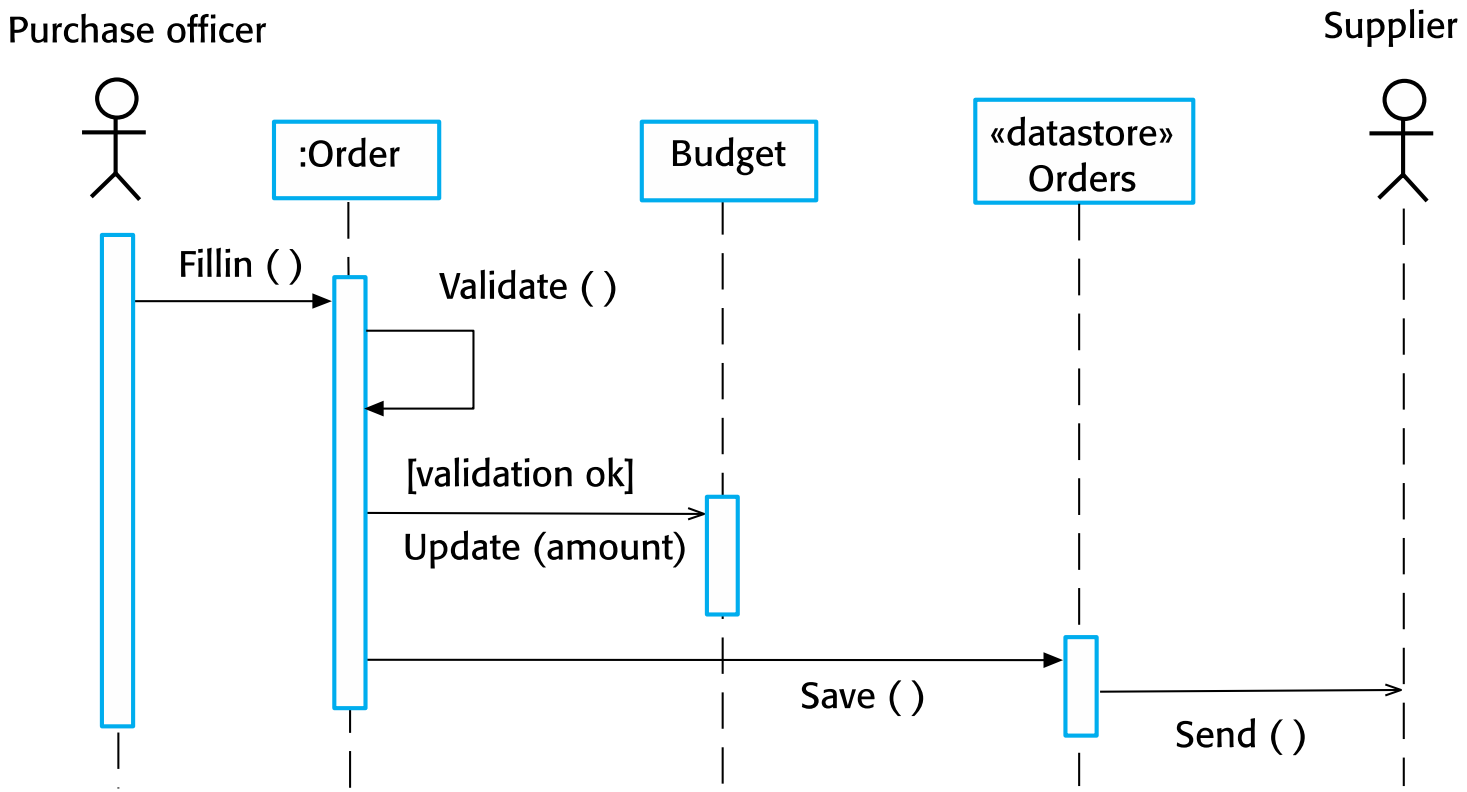
Data-driven modeling

- Many business systems are data-processing systems that are primarily driven by data. They are controlled by the data input to the system, with relatively little external event processing.
- Data-driven models show the sequence of actions involved in processing input data and generating an associated output.
- They are particularly useful during the analysis of requirements as they can be used to show end-to-end processing in a system.

An activity model of the insulin pump's operation



Order processing



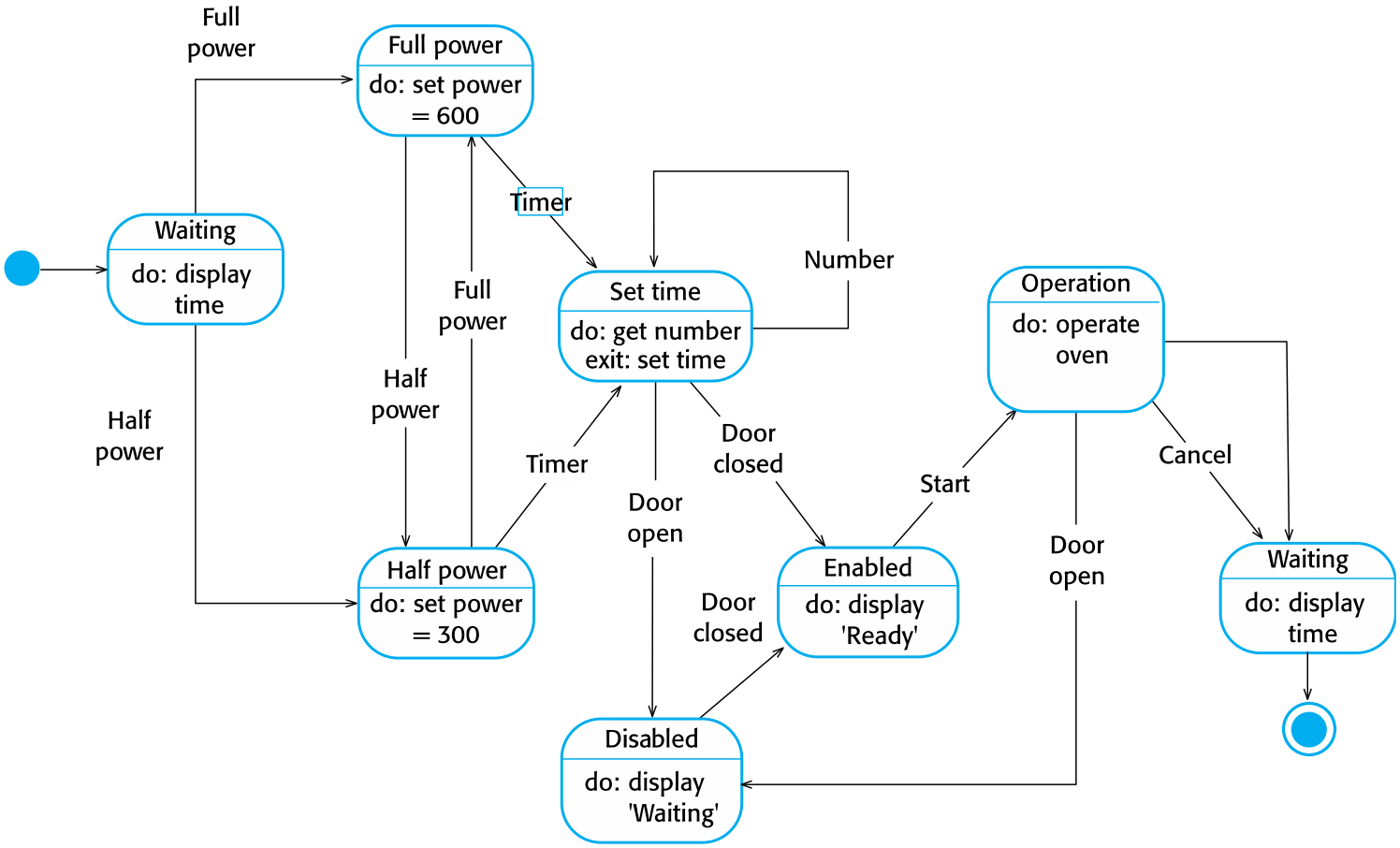
Event-driven modeling

- Real-time systems are often event-driven, with minimal data processing. For example, a landline phone switching system responds to events such as ‘receiver off hook’ by generating a dial tone.
- Event-driven modeling shows how a system responds to external and internal events.
- It is based on the assumption that a system has a finite number of states and that events (stimuli) may cause a transition from one state to another.

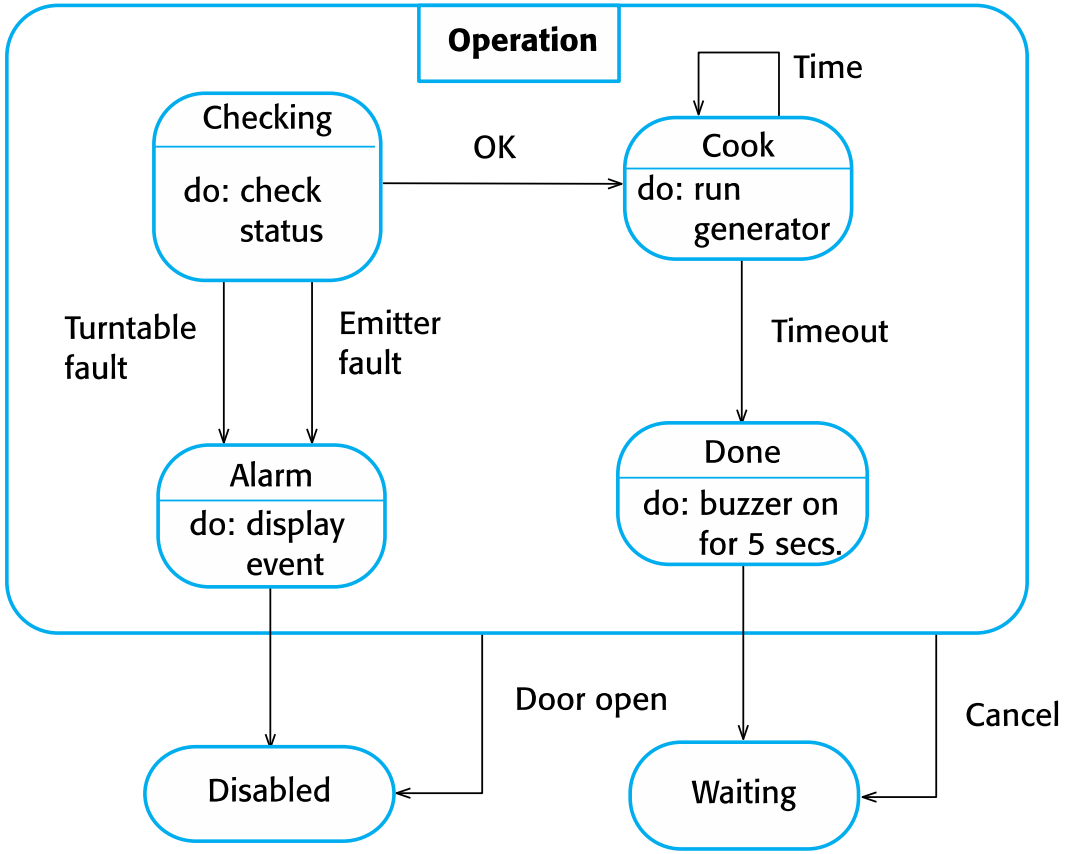
State machine models

- These model the behaviour of the system in response to external and internal events.
- They show the system's responses to stimuli so are often used for modelling real-time systems.
- State machine models show system states as nodes and events as arcs between these nodes. When an event occurs, the system moves from one state to another.
- Statecharts are an integral part of the UML and are used to represent state machine models.

State diagram of a microwave oven



Microwave oven operation



States and stimuli for the microwave oven (a)

State	Description
Waiting	The oven is waiting for input. The display shows the current time.
Half power	The oven power is set to 300 watts. The display shows ‘Half power’.
Full power	The oven power is set to 600 watts. The display shows ‘Full power’.
Set time	The cooking time is set to the user’s input value. The display shows the cooking time selected and is updated as the time is set.
Disabled	Oven operation is disabled for safety. Interior oven light is on. Display shows ‘Not ready’.
Enabled	Oven operation is enabled. Interior oven light is off. Display shows ‘Ready to cook’.
Operation	Oven in operation. Interior oven light is on. Display shows the timer countdown. On completion of cooking, the buzzer is sounded for five seconds. Oven light is on. Display shows ‘Cooking complete’ while buzzer is sounding.

States and stimuli for the microwave oven (b)

Stimulus	Description
Half power	The user has pressed the half-power button.
Full power	The user has pressed the full-power button.
Timer	The user has pressed one of the timer buttons.
Number	The user has pressed a numeric key.
Door open	The oven door switch is not closed.
Door closed	The oven door switch is closed.
Start	The user has pressed the Start button.
Cancel	The user has pressed the Cancel button.

Model-driven engineering

Model-driven engineering

- Model-driven engineering (MDE) is an approach to software development where models rather than programs are the principal outputs of the development process.
- The programs that execute on a hardware/software platform are then generated automatically from the models.
- Proponents of MDE argue that this raises the level of abstraction in software engineering so that engineers no longer have to be concerned with programming language details or the specifics of execution platforms.

Usage of model-driven engineering

- Model-driven engineering is still at an early stage of development, and it is unclear whether or not it will have a significant effect on software engineering practice.
- Pros
  - Allows systems to be considered at higher levels of abstraction
  - Generating code automatically means that it is cheaper to adapt systems to new platforms.
- Cons
  - Models for abstraction and not necessarily right for implementation.
  - Savings from generating code may be outweighed by the costs of developing translators for new platforms.

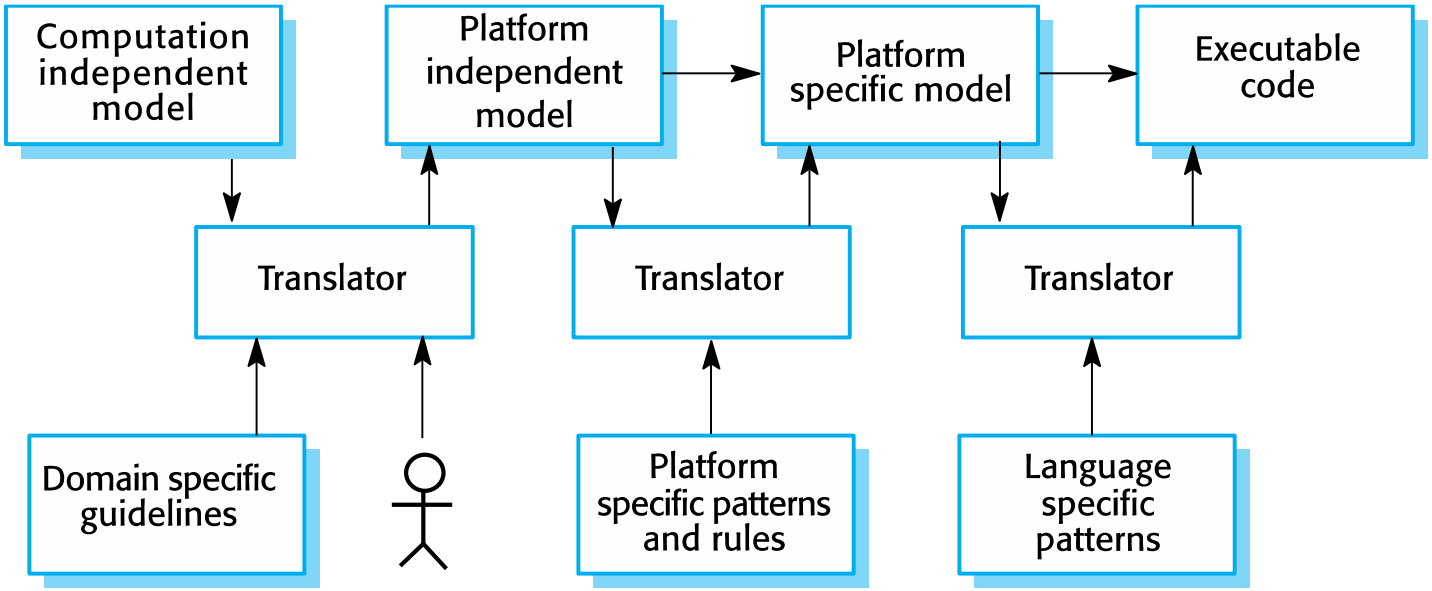
Model driven architecture

- Model-driven architecture (MDA) was the precursor of more general model-driven engineering
- MDA is a model-focused approach to software design and implementation that uses a subset of UML models to describe a system.
- Models at different levels of abstraction are created. From a high-level, platform independent model, it is possible, in principle, to generate a working program without manual intervention.

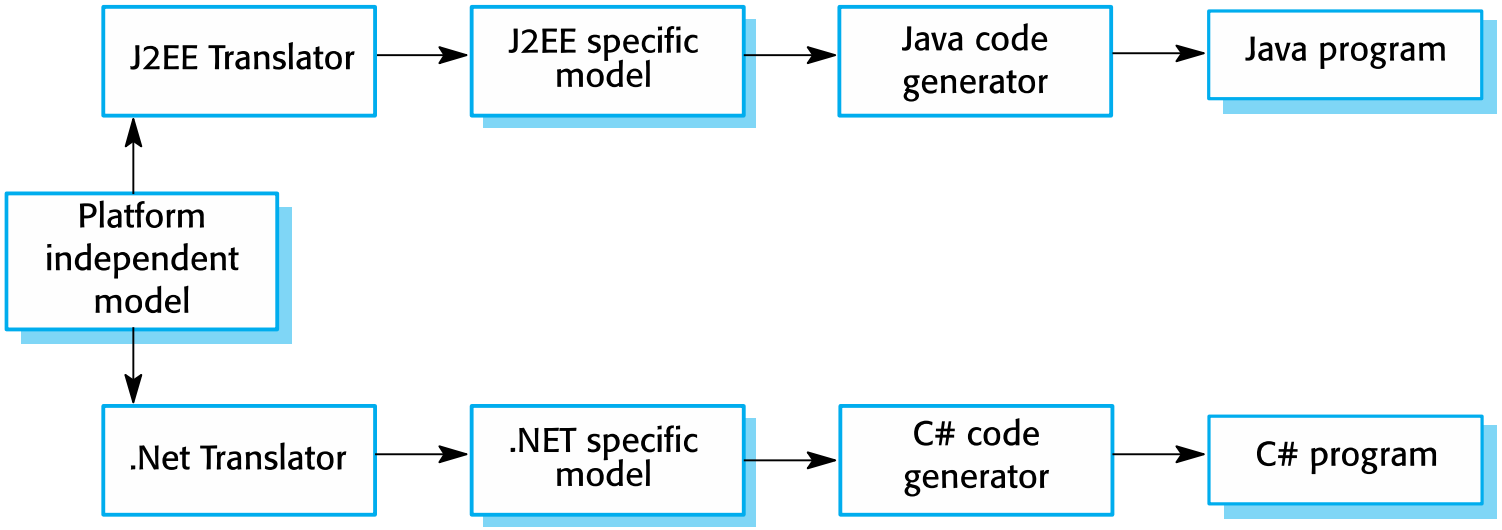
Types of model

- A computation independent model (CIM)
  - These model the important domain abstractions used in a system. CIMs are sometimes called domain models.
- A platform independent model (PIM)
  - These model the operation of the system without reference to its implementation. The PIM is usually described using UML models that show the static system structure and how it responds to external and internal events.
- Platform specific models (PSM)
  - These are transformations of the platform-independent model with a separate PSM for each application platform. In principle, there may be layers of PSM, with each layer adding some platform-specific detail.

MDA transformations



Multiple platform-specific models



Agile methods and MDA

- The developers of MDA claim that it is intended to support an iterative approach to development and so can be used within agile methods.
- The notion of extensive up-front modeling contradicts the fundamental ideas in the agile manifesto and I suspect that few agile developers feel comfortable with model-driven engineering.
- If transformations can be completely automated and a complete program generated from a PIM, then, in principle, MDA could be used in an agile development process as no separate coding would be required.

Adoption of MDA

- A range of factors has limited the adoption of MDE/MDA
- Specialized tool support is required to convert models from one level to another
- There is limited tool availability and organizations may require tool adaptation and customisation to their environment
- For the long-lifetime systems developed using MDA, companies are reluctant to develop their own tools or rely on small companies that may go out of business

Adoption of MDA

- Models are a good way of facilitating discussions about a software design. Howeverthe abstractions that are useful for discussions may not be the right abstractions for implementation.
- For most complex systems, implementation is not the major problem – requirements engineering, security and dependability, integration with legacy systems and testing are all more significant.

Adoption of MDA

- The arguments for platform-independence are only valid for large, long-lifetime systems. For software products and information systems, the savings from the use of MDA are likely to be outweighed by the costs of its introduction and tooling.
- The widespread adoption of agile methods over the same period that MDA was evolving has diverted attention away from model-driven approaches.

Key points

- A model is an abstract view of a system that ignores system details. Complementary system models can be developed to show the system's context, interactions, structure and behavior.
- Context models show how a system that is being modeled is positioned in an environment with other systems and processes.
- Use case diagrams and sequence diagrams are used to describe the interactions between users and systems in the system being designed. Use cases describe interactions between a system and external actors; sequence diagrams add more information to these by showing interactions between system objects.
- Structural models show the organization and architecture of a system. Class diagrams are used to define the static structure of classes in a system and their associations.

Key points

- Behavioral models are used to describe the dynamic behavior of an executing system. This behavior can be modeled from the perspective of the data processed by the system, or by the events that stimulate responses from a system.
- Activity diagrams may be used to model the processing of data, where each activity represents one process step.
- State diagrams are used to model a system's behavior in response to internal or external events.
- Model-driven engineering is an approach to software development in which a system is represented as a set of models that can be automatically transformed to executable code.

Chapter 6 – Architectural Design

Topics covered

- ✧ Architectural design decisions
- ✧ Architectural views
- ✧ Architectural patterns
- ✧ Application architectures

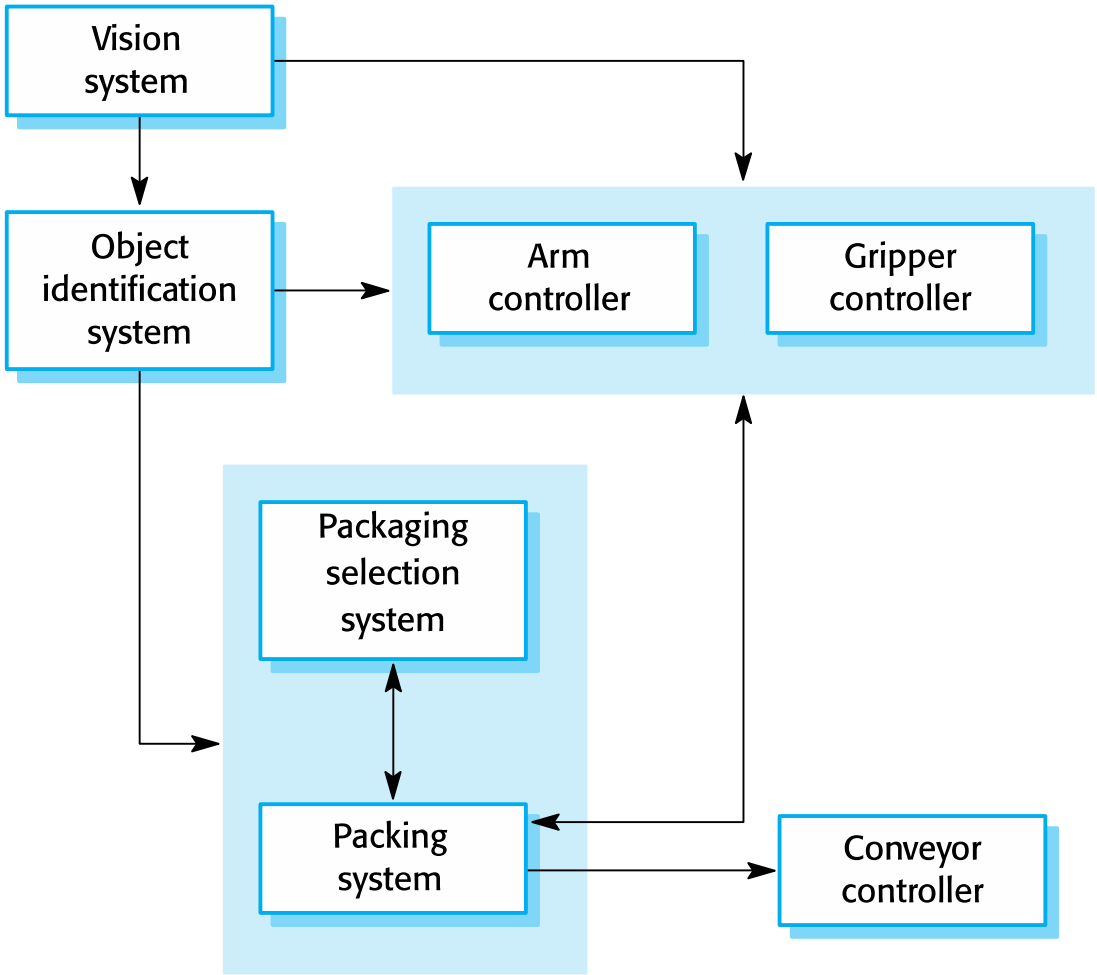
Architectural design

- Architectural design is concerned with understanding how a software system should be organized and designing the overall structure of that system.
- Architectural design is the critical link between design and requirements engineering, as it identifies the main structural components in a system and the relationships between them.
- The output of the architectural design process is an architectural model that describes how the system is organized as a set of communicating components.

Agility and architecture

- It is generally accepted that an early stage of agile processes is to design an overall systems architecture.
- Refactoring the system architecture is usually expensive because it affects so many components in the system

The architecture of a packing robot control system



Architectural abstraction

- Architecture in the small is concerned with the architecture of individual programs. At this level, we are concerned with the way that an individual program is decomposed into components.
- Architecture in the large is concerned with the architecture of complex enterprise systems that include other systems, programs, and program components. These enterprise systems are distributed over different computers, which may be owned and managed by different companies.

Advantages of explicit architecture

- ✧ Stakeholder communication
  - Architecture may be used as a focus of discussion by system stakeholders.
- ✧ System analysis
  - Means that analysis of whether the system can meet its non-functional requirements is possible.
- ✧ Large-scale reuse
  - The architecture may be reusable across a range of systems
  - Product-line architectures may be developed.

Architectural representations

- Simple, informal block diagrams showing entities and relationships are the most frequently used method for documenting software architectures.
- But these have been criticised because they lack semantics, do not show the types of relationships between entities nor the visible properties of entities in the architecture.
- Depends on the use of architectural models.The requirements for model semantics depends on how the models are used.

Box and line diagrams

- Very abstract - they do not show the nature of component relationships nor the externally visible properties of the sub-systems.
- However, useful for communication with stakeholders and for project planning.

Use of architectural models

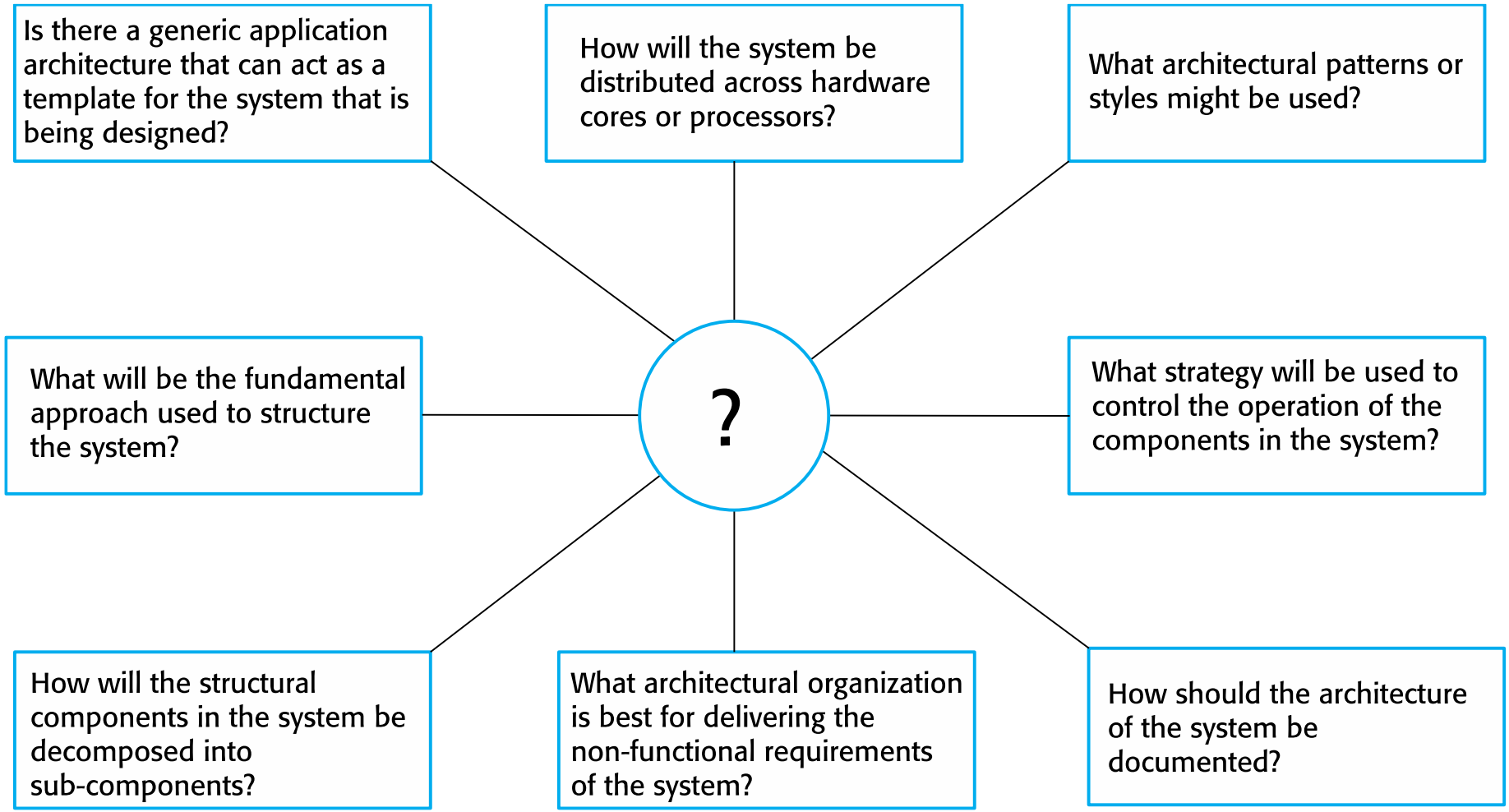
- As a way of facilitating discussion about the system design
  - A high-level architectural view of a system is useful for communication with system stakeholders and project planning because it is not cluttered with detail. Stakeholders can relate to it and understand an abstract view of the system. They can then discuss the system as a whole without being confused by detail.
- As a way of documenting an architecture that has been designed
  - The aim here is to produce a complete system model that shows the different components in a system, their interfaces and their connections.

Architectural design decisions

Architectural design decisions

- Architectural design is a creative process so the process differs depending on the type of system being developed.
- However, a number of common decisions span all design processes and these decisions affect the non-functional characteristics of the system.

Architectural design decisions



Architecture reuse

- Systems in the same domain often have similar architectures that reflect domain concepts.
- Application product lines are built around a core architecture with variants that satisfy particular customer requirements.
- The architecture of a system may be designed around one of more architectural patterns or ‘styles’.
  - These capture the essence of an architecture and can be instantiated in different ways.

Architecture and system characteristics

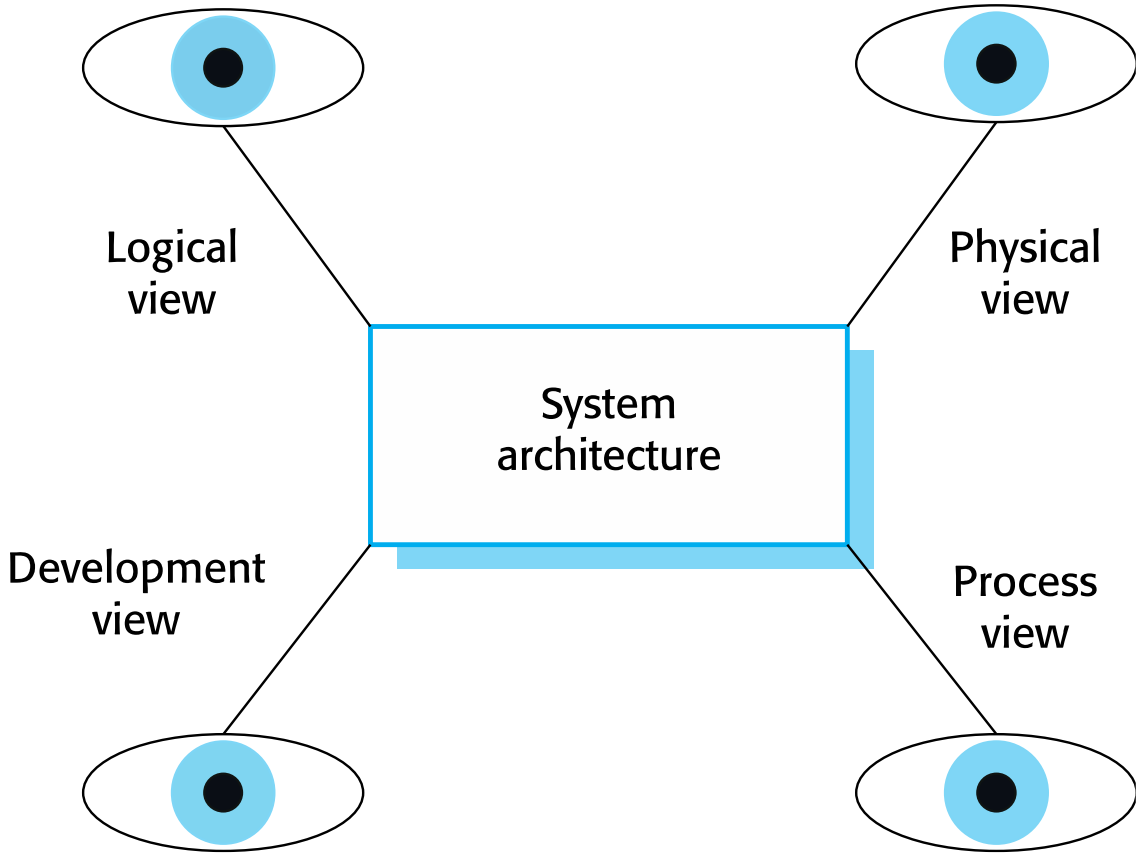
- ✧ Performance
  - Localise critical operations and minimise communications. Use large rather than fine-grain components.
- ✧ Security
  - Use a layered architecture with critical assets in the inner layers.
- ✧ Safety
  - Localise safety-critical features in a small number of sub-systems.
- ✧ Availability
  - Include redundant components and mechanisms for fault tolerance.
- ✧ Maintainability
  - Use fine-grain, replaceable components.

Architectural views

Architectural views

- What views or perspectives are useful when designing and documenting a system's architecture?
- What notations should be used for describing architectural models?
- Each architectural model only shows one view or perspective of the system.
  - It might show how a system is decomposed into modules, how the run-time processes interact or the different ways in which system components are distributed across a network. For both design and documentation, you usually need to present multiple views of the software architecture.

Architectural views



4 + 1 view model of software architecture

- A logical view, which shows the key abstractions in the system as objects or object classes.
- A process view, which shows how, at run-time, the system is composed of interacting processes.
- A development view, which shows how the software is decomposed for development.
- A physical view, which shows the system hardware and how software components are distributed across the processors in the system.
- Related using use cases or scenarios (+1)

Representing architectural views

- Some people argue that the Unified Modeling Language (UML) is an appropriate notation for describing and documenting system architectures
- I disagree with this as I do not think that the UML includes abstractions appropriate for high-level system description.
- Architectural description languages (ADLs) have been developed but are not widely used

Architectural patterns

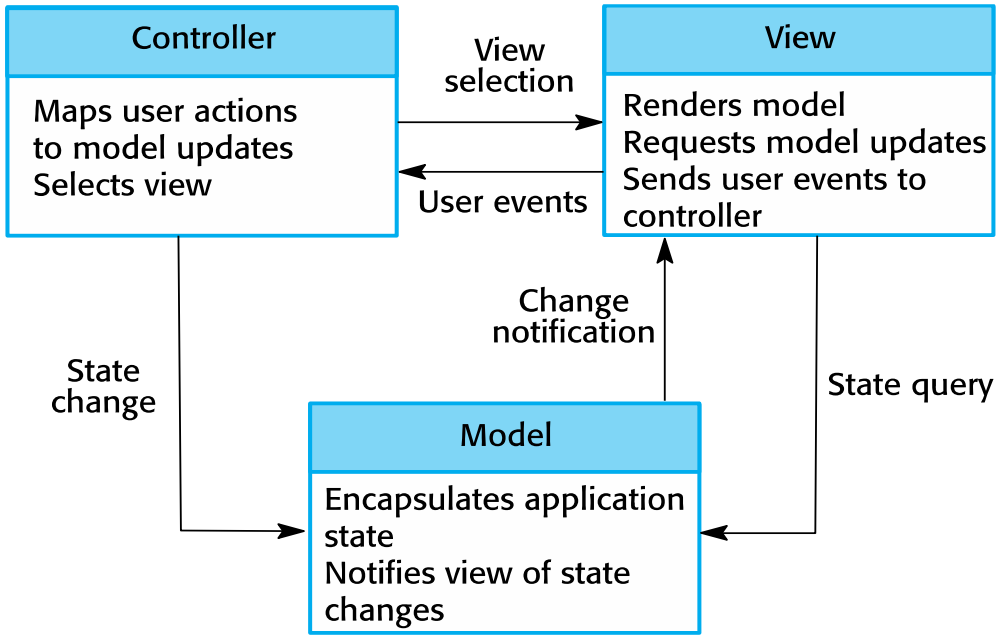
Architectural patterns

- Patterns are a means of representing, sharing and reusing knowledge.
- An architectural pattern is a stylized description of good design practice, which has been tried and tested in different environments.
- Patterns should include information about when they are and when the are not useful.
- Patterns may be represented using tabular and graphical descriptions.

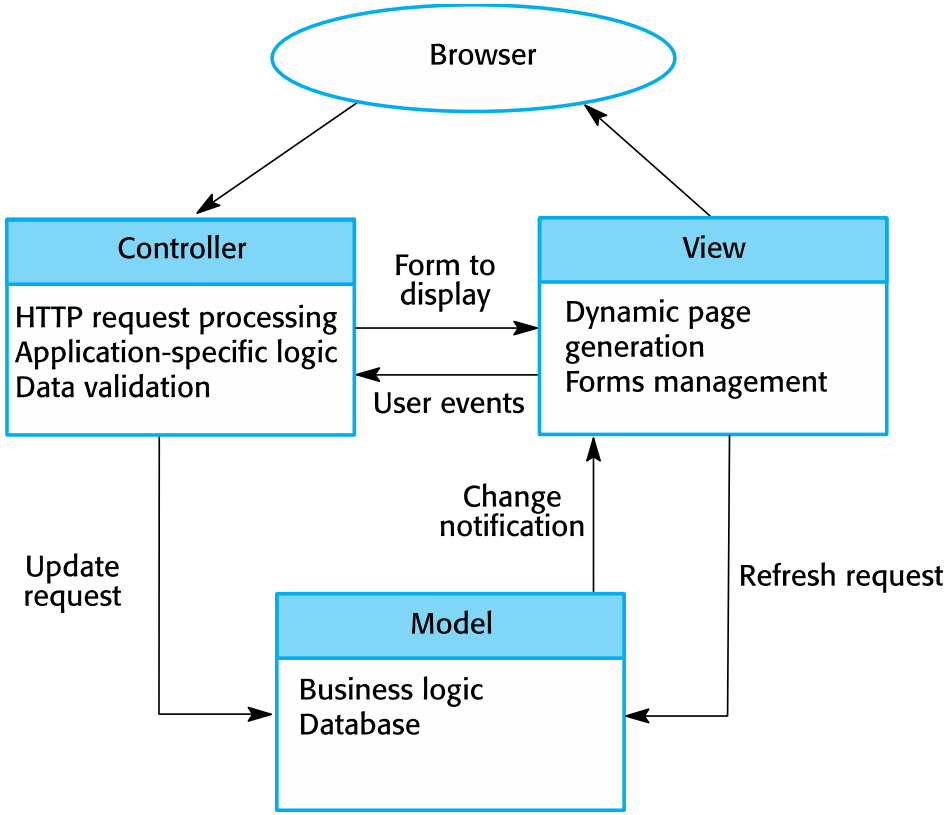
The Model-View-Controller (MVC) pattern

Name	MVC (Model-View-Controller)
Description	Separates presentation and interaction from the system data. The system is structured into three logical components that interact with each other. The Model component manages the system data and associated operations on that data. The View component defines and manages how the data is presented to the user. The Controller component manages user interaction (e.g., key presses, mouse clicks, etc.) and passes these interactions to the View and the Model. See Figure 6.3.
Example	Figure 6.4 shows the architecture of a web-based application system organized using the MVC pattern.
When used	Used when there are multiple ways to view and interact with data. Also used when the future requirements for interaction and presentation of data are unknown.
Advantages	Allows the data to change independently of its representation and vice versa. Supports presentation of the same data in different ways with changes made in one representation shown in all of them.
Disadvantages	Can involve additional code and code complexity when the data model and interactions are simple.

The organization of the Model-View-Controller



Web application architecture using the MVC pattern



Layered architecture

- Used to model the interfacing of sub-systems.
- Organises the system into a set of layers (or abstract machines) each of which provide a set of services.
- Supports the incremental development of sub-systems in different layers. When a layer interface changes, only the adjacent layer is affected.
- However, often artificial to structure systems in this way.

The Layered architecture pattern

Name	Layered architecture
Description	Organizes the system into layers with related functionality associated with each layer. A layer provides services to the layer above it so the lowest-level layers represent core services that are likely to be used throughout the system. See Figure 6.6.
Example	A layered model of a system for sharing copyright documents held in different libraries, as shown in Figure 6.7.
When used	Used when building new facilities on top of existing systems; when the development is spread across several teams with each team responsibility for a layer of functionality; when there is a requirement for multi-level security.
Advantages	Allows replacement of entire layers so long as the interface is maintained. Redundant facilities (e.g., authentication) can be provided in each layer to increase the dependability of the system.
Disadvantages	In practice, providing a clean separation between layers is often difficult and a high-level layer may have to interact directly with lower-level layers rather than through the layer immediately below it. Performance can be a problem because of multiple levels of interpretation of a service request as it is processed at each layer.

A generic layered architecture

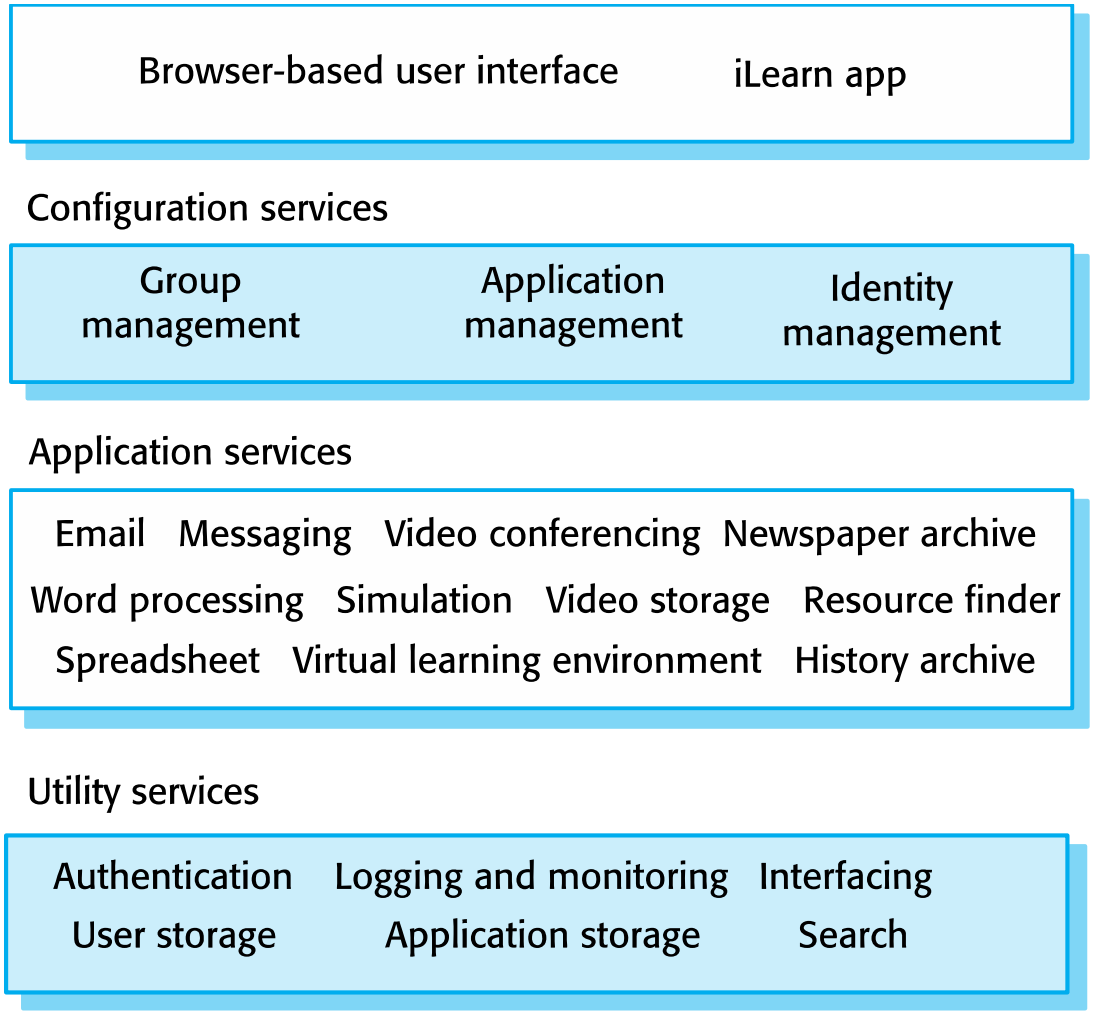
User interface

User interface management
Authentication and authorization

Core business logic/application functionality
System utilities

System support (OS, database etc.)

The architecture of the iLearn system



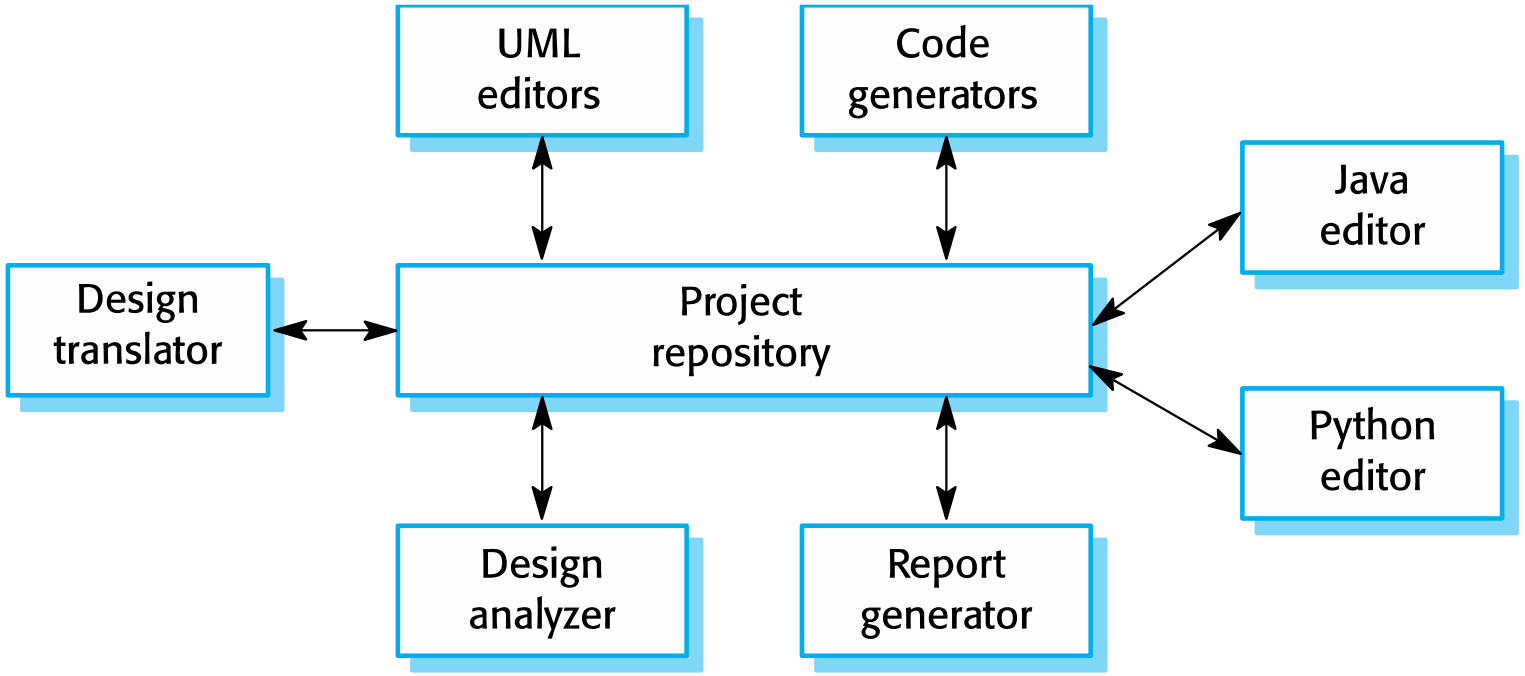
Repository architecture

- Sub-systems must exchange data. This may be done in two ways:
  - Shared data is held in a central database or repository and may be accessed by all sub-systems;
  - Each sub-system maintains its own database and passes data explicitly to other sub-systems.
- When large amounts of data are to be shared, the repository model of sharing is most commonly used a this is an efficient data sharing mechanism.

The Repository pattern

Name	Repository
Description	All data in a system is managed in a central repository that is accessible to all system components. Components do not interact directly, only through the repository.
Example	Figure 6.9 is an example of an IDE where the components use a repository of system design information. Each software tool generates information which is then available for use by other tools.
When used	You should use this pattern when you have a system in which large volumes of information are generated that has to be stored for a long time. You may also use it in data-driven systems where the inclusion of data in the repository triggers an action or tool.
Advantages	Components can be independent—they do not need to know of the existence of other components. Changes made by one component can be propagated to all components. All data can be managed consistently (e.g., backups done at the same time) as it is all in one place.
Disadvantages	The repository is a single point of failure so problems in the repository affect the whole system. May be inefficiencies in organizing all communication through the repository. Distributing the repository across several computers may be difficult.

A repository architecture for an IDE



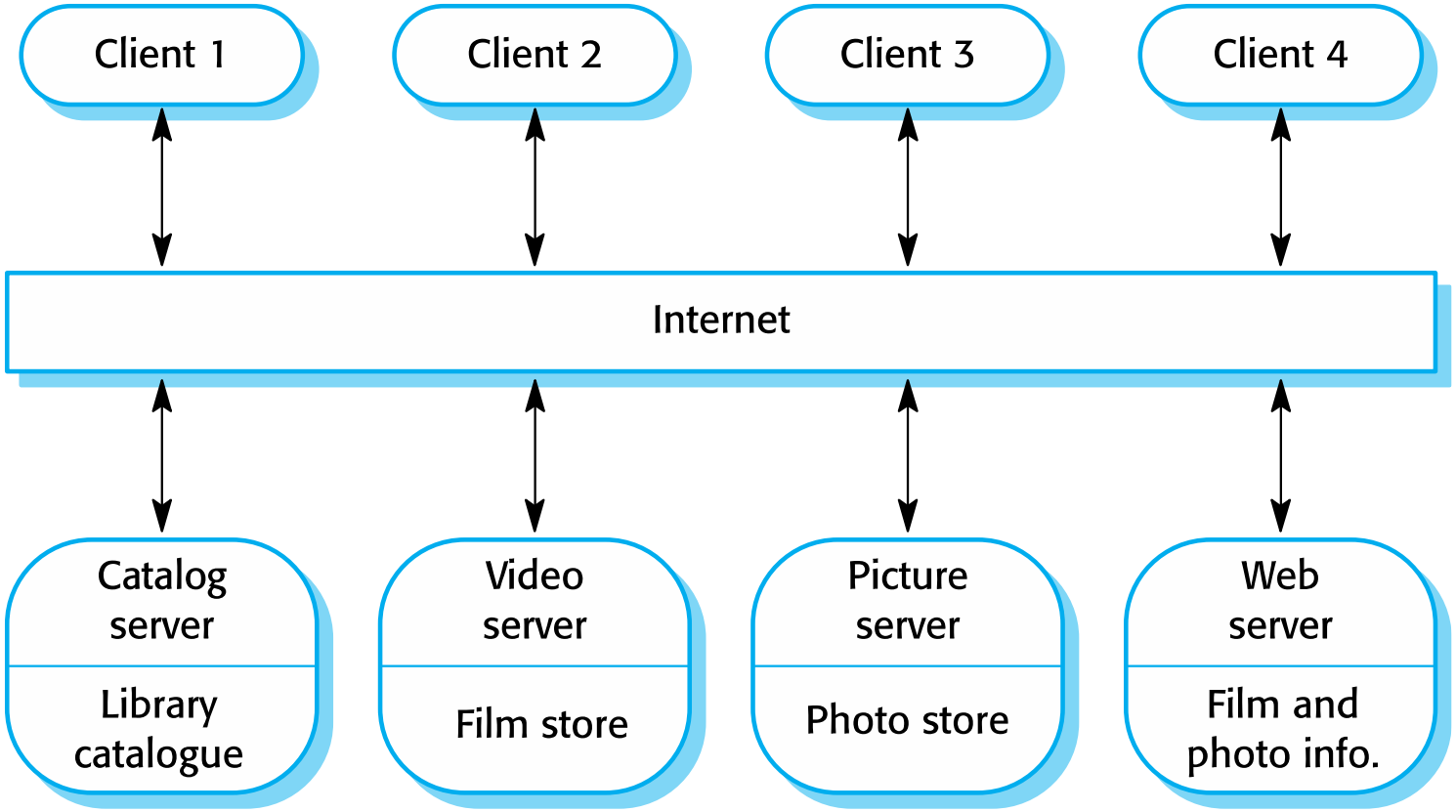
Client-server architecture

- Distributed system model which shows how data and processing is distributed across a range of components.
  - Can be implemented on a single computer.
- Set of stand-alone servers which provide specific services such as printing, data management, etc.
- Set of clients which call on these services.
- Network which allows clients to access servers.

The Client–server pattern

Name	Client-server
Description	In a client–server architecture, the functionality of the system is organized into services, with each service delivered from a separate server. Clients are users of these services and access servers to make use of them.
Example	Figure 6.11 is an example of a film and video/DVD library organized as a client–server system.
When used	Used when data in a shared database has to be accessed from a range of locations. Because servers can be replicated, may also be used when the load on a system is variable.
Advantages	The principal advantage of this model is that servers can be distributed across a network. General functionality (e.g., a printing service) can be available to all clients and does not need to be implemented by all services.
Disadvantages	Each service is a single point of failure so susceptible to denial of service attacks or server failure. Performance may be unpredictable because it depends on the network as well as the system. May be management problems if servers are owned by different organizations.

A client–server architecture for a film library



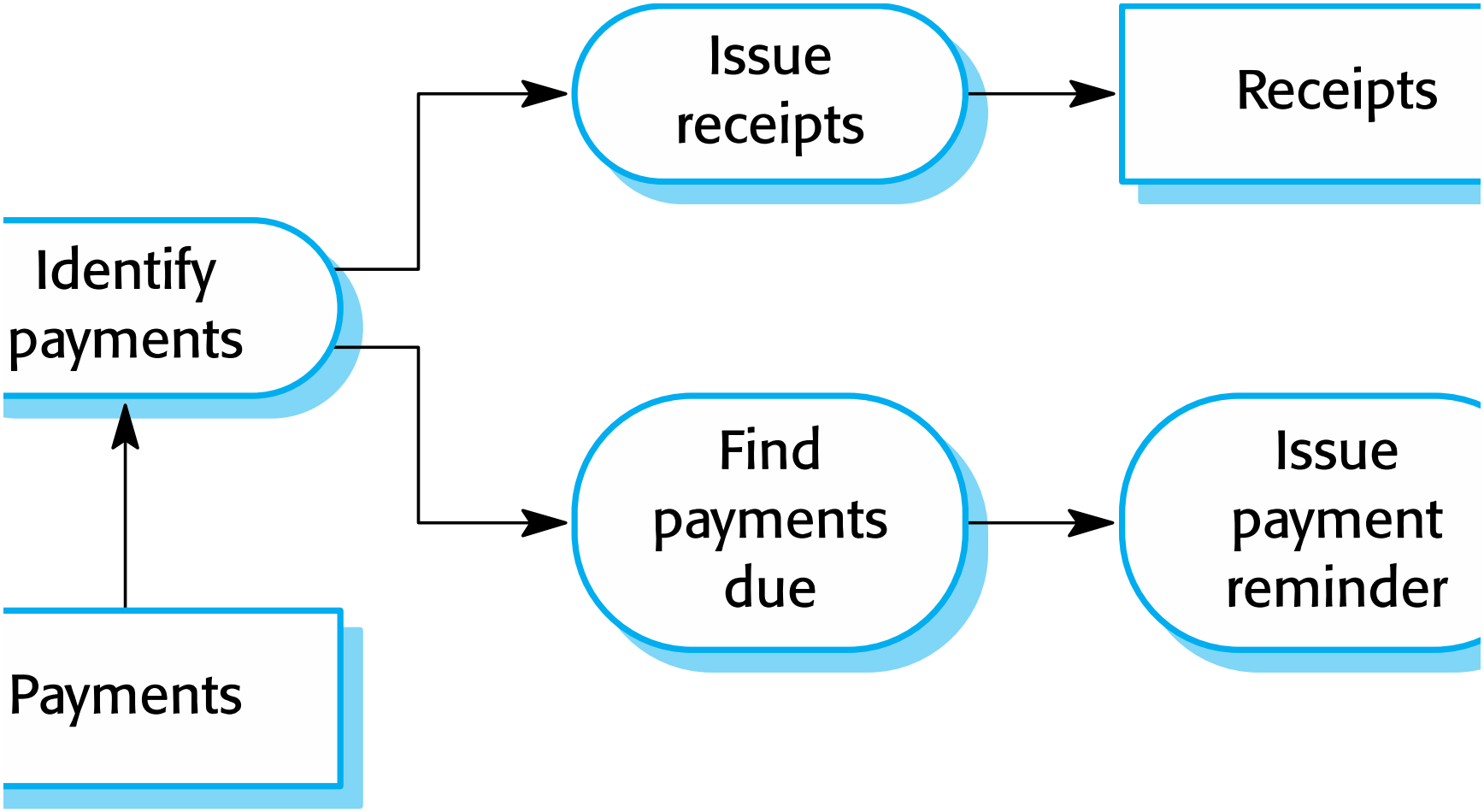
Pipe and filter architecture

- Functional transformations process their inputs to produce outputs.
- May be referred to as a pipe and filter model (as in UNIX shell).
- Variants of this approach are very common. When transformations are sequential, this is a batch sequential model which is extensively used in data processing systems.
- Not really suitable for interactive systems.

The pipe and filter pattern

Name	Pipe and filter
Description	The processing of the data in a system is organized so that each processing component (filter) is discrete and carries out one type of data transformation. The data flows (as in a pipe) from one component to another for processing.
Example	Figure 6.13 is an example of a pipe and filter system used for processing invoices.
When used	Commonly used in data processing applications (both batch- and transaction-based) where inputs are processed in separate stages to generate related outputs.
Advantages	Easy to understand and supports transformation reuse. Workflow style matches the structure of many business processes. Evolution by adding transformations is straightforward. Can be implemented as either a sequential or concurrent system.
Disadvantages	The format for data transfer has to be agreed upon between communicating transformations. Each transformation must parse its input and unparse its output to the agreed form. This increases system overhead and may mean that it is impossible to reuse functional transformations that use incompatible data structures.

An example of the pipe and filter architecture used in a payments system



Application architectures

Application architectures

- Application systems are designed to meet an organisational need.
- As businesses have much in common, their application systems also tend to have a common architecture that reflects the application requirements.
- A generic application architecture is an architecture for a type of software system that may be configured and adapted to create a system that meets specific requirements.

Use of application architectures

- As a starting point for architectural design.
- As a design checklist.
- As a way of organising the work of the development team.
- As a means of assessing components for reuse.
- As a vocabulary for talking about application types.

Examples of application types

- Data processing applications
  - Data driven applications that process data in batches without explicit user intervention during the processing.
- Transaction processing applications
  - Data-centred applications that process user requests and update information in a system database.
- Event processing systems
  - Applications where system actions depend on interpreting events from the system's environment.
- Language processing systems
  - Applications where the users' intentions are specified in a formal language that is processed and interpreted by the system.

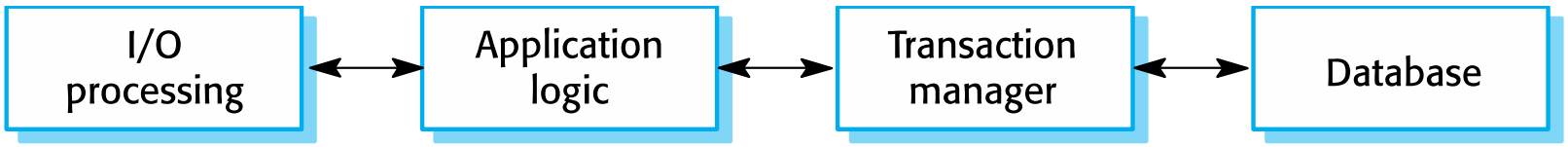
Application type examples

- Two very widely used generic application architectures are transaction processing systems and language processing systems.
- Transaction processing systems
  - E-commerce systems;
  - Reservation systems.
- Language processing systems
  - Compilers;
  - Command interpreters.

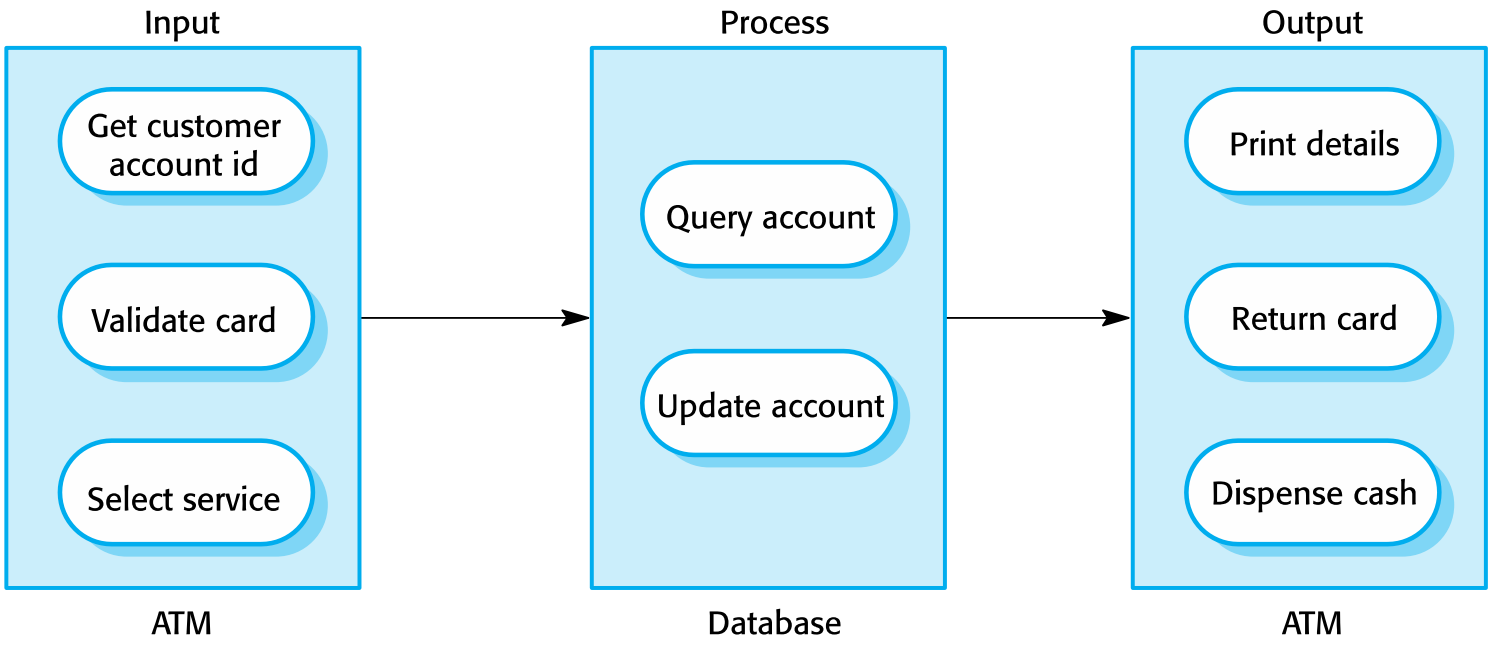
Transaction processing systems

- Process user requests for information from a database or requests to update the database.
- From a user perspective a transaction is:
  - Any coherent sequence of operations that satisfies a goal;
  - For example - find the times of flights from London to Paris.
- Users make asynchronous requests for service which are then processed by a transaction manager.

The structure of transaction processing applications



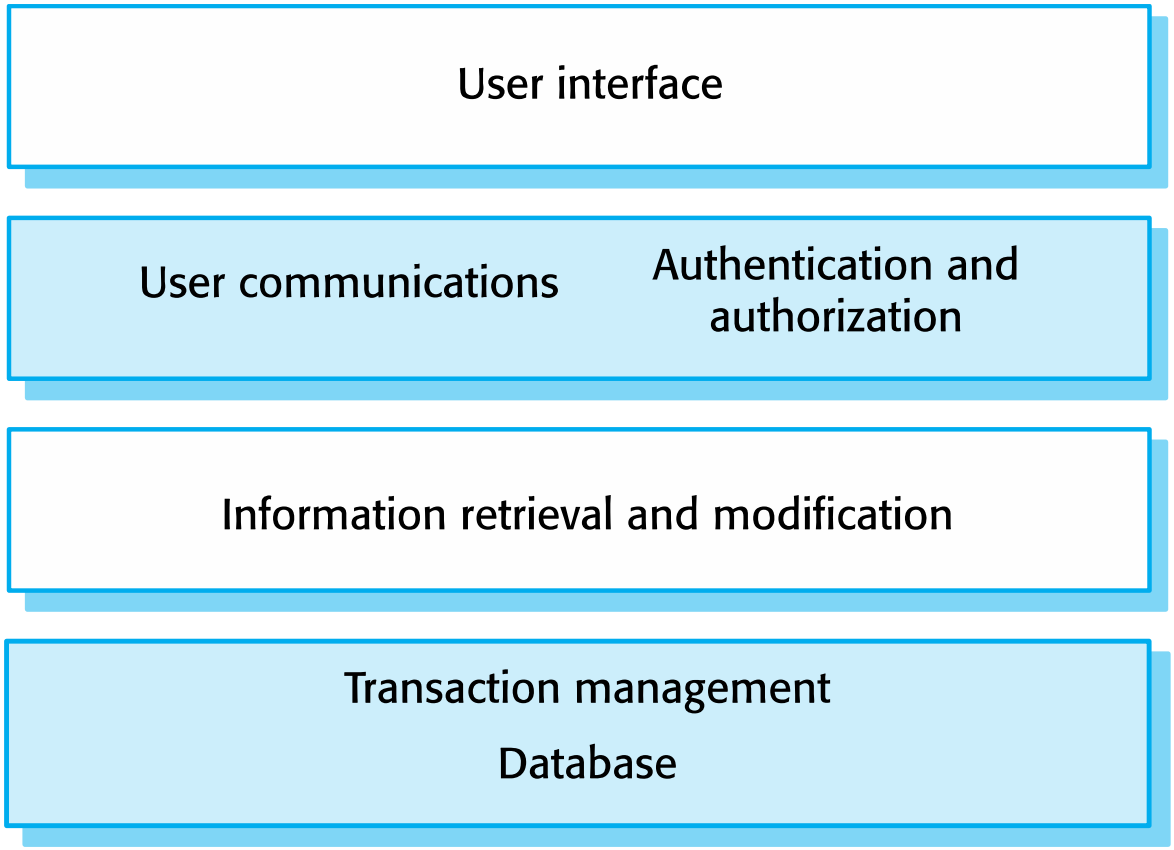
The software architecture of an ATM system



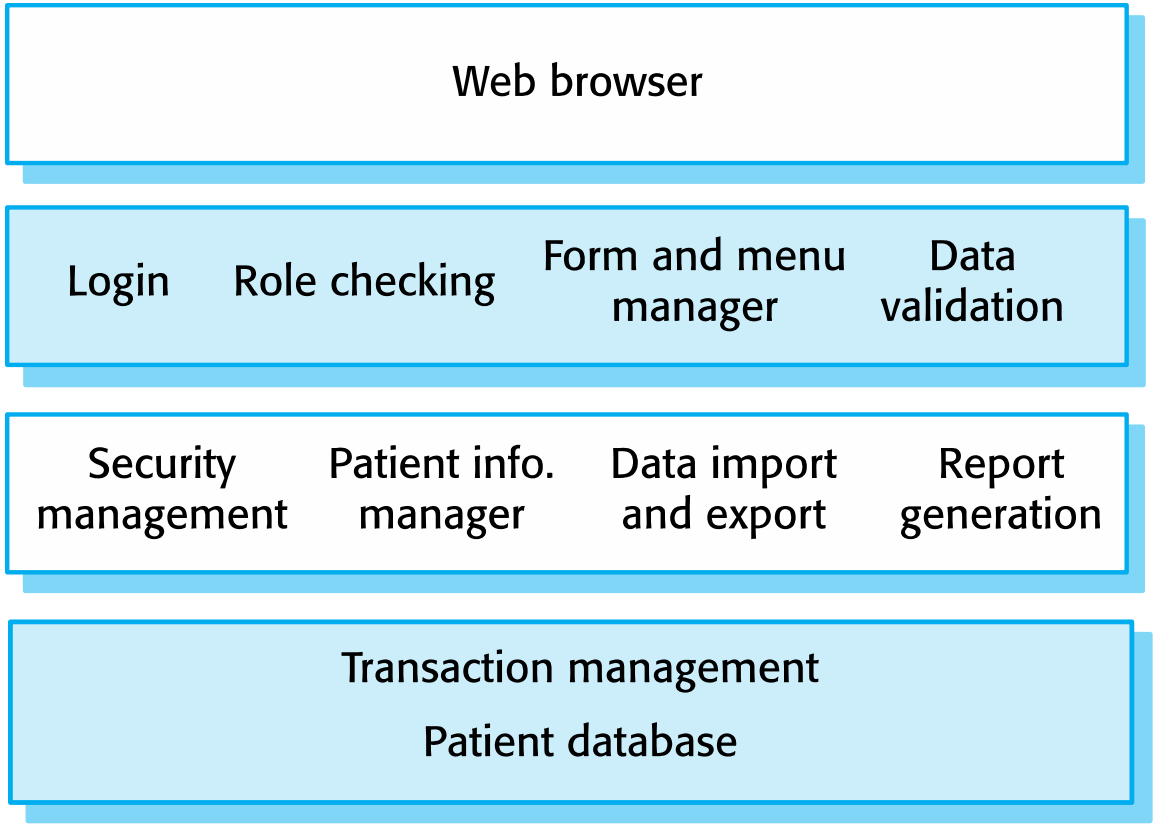
Information systems architecture

- Information systems have a generic architecture that can be organised as a layered architecture.
- These are transaction-based systems as interaction with these systems generally involves database transactions.
- Layers include:
  - The user interface
  - User communications
  - Information retrieval
  - System database

Layered information system architecture



The architecture of the Mentcare system



Web-based information systems

- Information and resource management systems are now usually web-based systems where the user interfaces are implemented using a web browser.
- For example, e-commerce systems are Internet-based resource management systems that accept electronic orders for goods or services and then arrange delivery of these goods or services to the customer.
- In an e-commerce system, the application-specific layer includes additional functionality supporting a ‘shopping cart’ in which users can place a number of items in separate transactions, then pay for them all together in a single transaction.

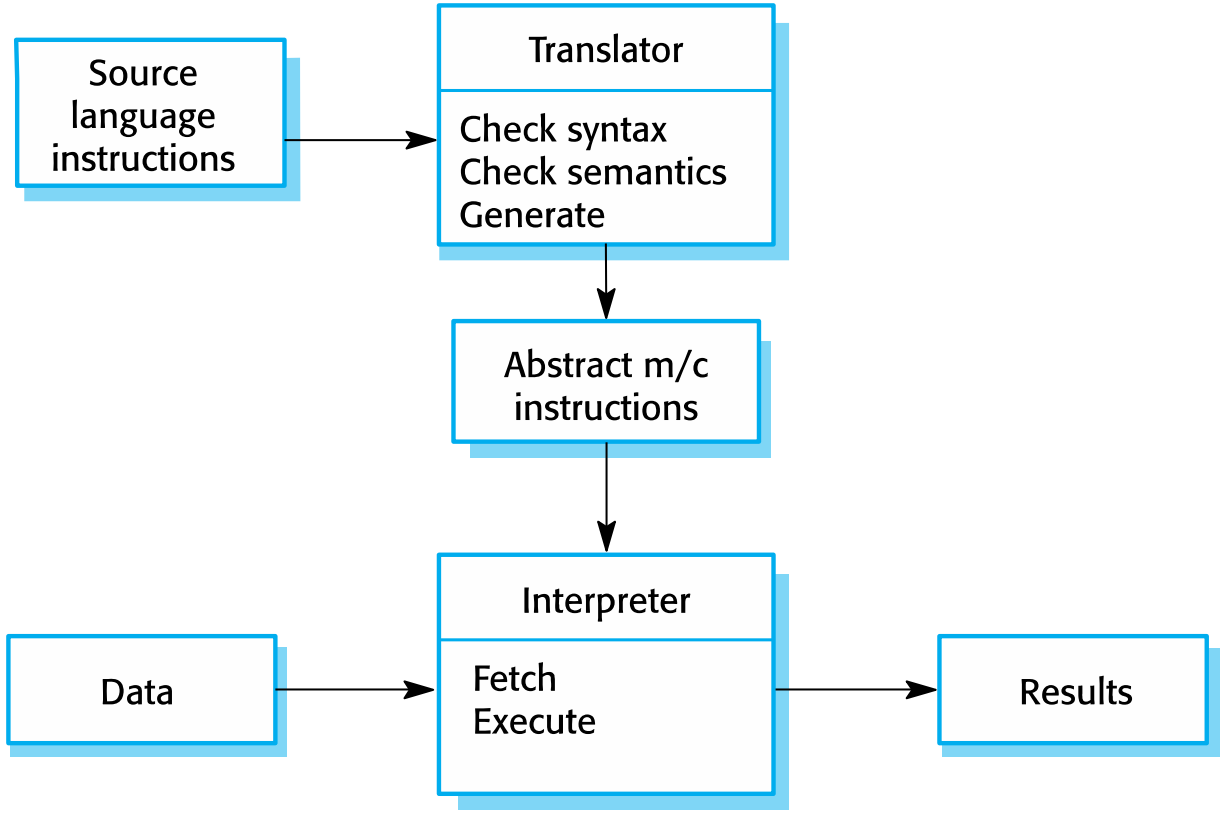
Server implementation

- These systems are often implemented as multi-tier client server/architectures (discussed in Chapter 17)
  - The web server is responsible for all user communications, with the user interface implemented using a web browser;
  - The application server is responsible for implementing application-specific logic as well as information storage and retrieval requests;
  - The database server moves information to and from the database and handles transaction management.

Language processing systems

- Accept a natural or artificial language as input and generate some other representation of that language.
- May include an interpreter to act on the instructions in the language that is being processed.
- Used in situations where the easiest way to solve a problem is to describe an algorithm or describe the system data
  - Meta-case tools process tool descriptions, method rules, etc and generate tools.

The architecture of a language processing system



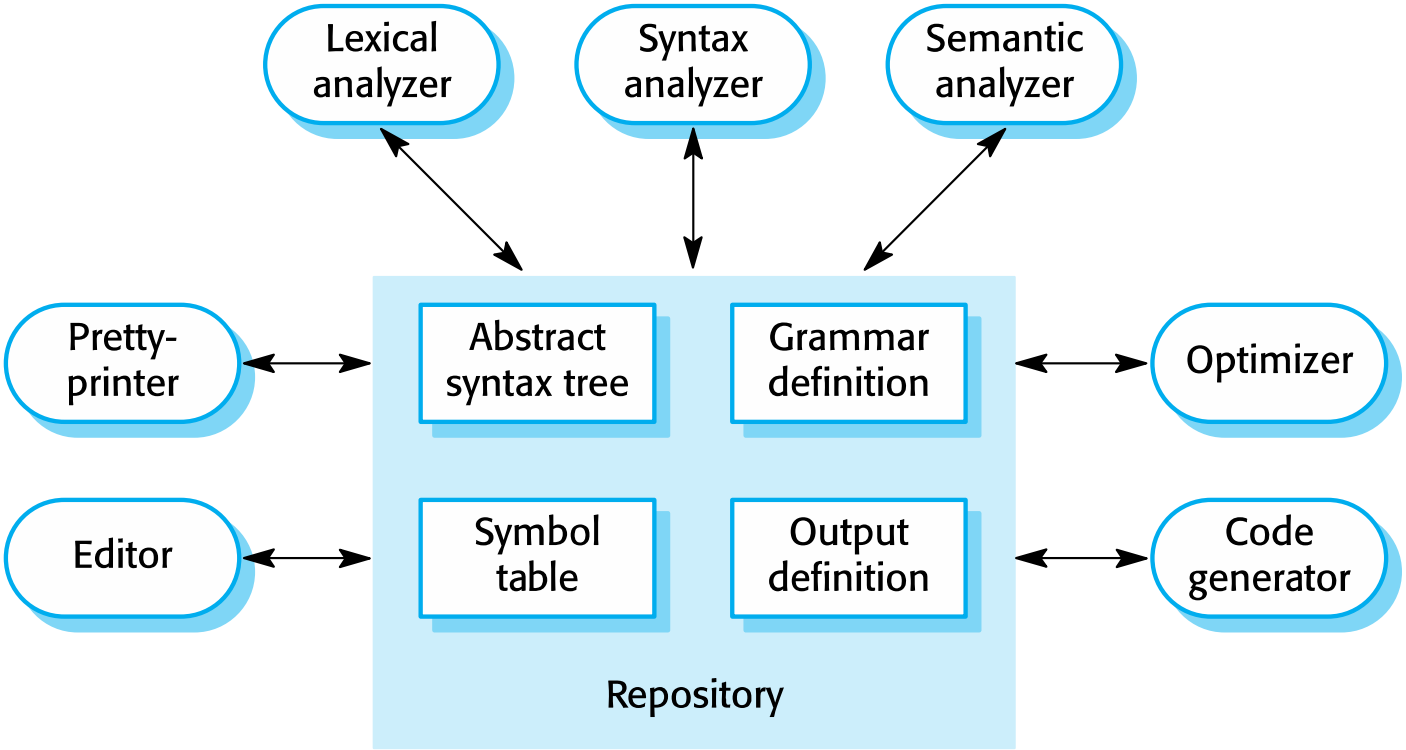
Compiler components

- A lexical analyzer, which takes input language tokens and converts them to an internal form.
- A symbol table, which holds information about the names of entities (variables, class names, object names, etc.) used in the text that is being translated.
- A syntax analyzer, which checks the syntax of the language being translated.
- A syntax tree, which is an internal structure representing the program being compiled.

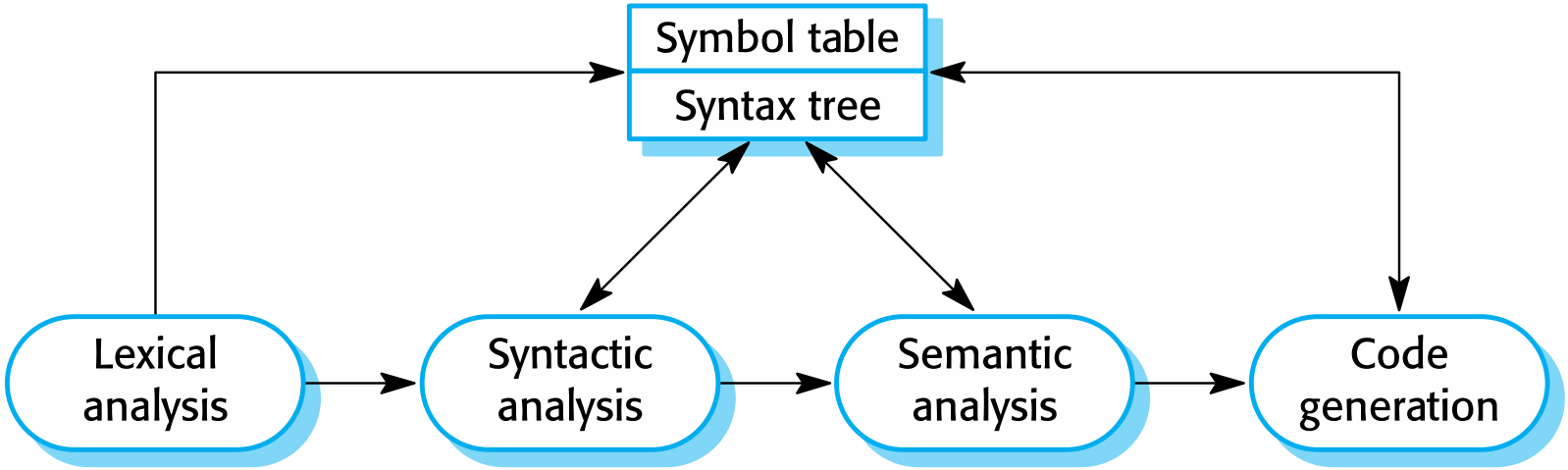
Compiler components

- A semantic analyzer that uses information from the syntax tree and the symbol table to check the semantic correctness of the input language text.
- A code generator that ‘walks’ the syntax tree and generates abstract machine code.

A repository architecture for a language processing system



A pipe and filter compiler architecture



Key points

- A software architecture is a description of how a software system is organized.
- Architectural design decisions include decisions on the type of application, the distribution of the system, the architectural styles to be used.
- Architectures may be documented from several different perspectives or views such as a conceptual view, a logical view, a process view, and a development view.
- Architectural patterns are a means of reusing knowledge about generic system architectures. They describe the architecture, explain when it may be used and describe its advantages and disadvantages.

Key points

- Models of application systems architectures help us understand and compare applications, validate application system designs and assess large-scale components for reuse.
- Transaction processing systems are interactive systems that allow information in a database to be remotely accessed and modified by a number of users.
- Language processing systems are used to translate texts from one language into another and to carry out the instructions specified in the input language. They include a translator and an abstract machine that executes the generated language.

Chapter 7 – Design and Implementation

Topics covered

- ✧ Object-oriented design using the UML
- ✧ Design patterns
- ✧ Implementation issues
- ✧ Open source development

Design and implementation

- Software design and implementation is the stage in the software engineering process at which an executable software system is developed.
- Software design and implementation activities are invariably inter-leaved.
  - Software design is a creative activity in which you identify software components and their relationships, based on a customer's requirements.
  - Implementation is the process of realizing the design as a program.

Build or buy

- In a wide range of domains, it is now possible to buy off-the-shelf systems (COTS) that can be adapted and tailored to the users' requirements.
  - For example, if you want to implement a medical records system, you can buy a package that is already used in hospitals. It can be cheaper and faster to use this approach rather than developing a system in a conventional programming language.
- When you develop an application in this way, the design process becomes concerned with how to use the configuration features of that system to deliver the system requirements.

Object-oriented design using the UML

An object-oriented design process

- Structured object-oriented design processes involve developing a number of different system models.
- They require a lot of effort for development and maintenance of these models and, for small systems, this may not be cost-effective.
- However, for large systems developed by different groups design models are an important communication mechanism.

Process stages

- There are a variety of different object-oriented design processes that depend on the organization using the process.
- Common activities in these processes include:
  - Define the context and modes of use of the system;
  - Design the system architecture;
  - Identify the principal system objects;
  - Develop design models;
  - Specify object interfaces.
- Process illustrated here using a design for a wilderness weather station.

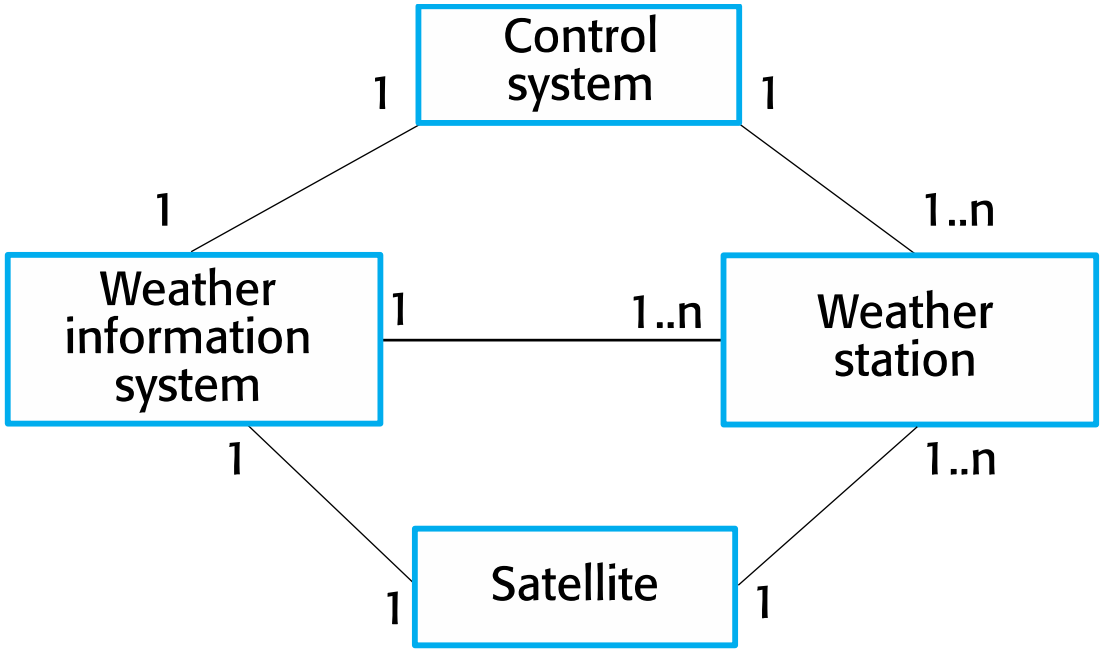
System context and interactions

- Understanding the relationships between the software that is being designed and its external environment is essential for deciding how to provide the required system functionality and how to structure the system to communicate with its environment.
- Understanding of the context also lets you establish the boundaries of the system. Setting the system boundaries helps you decide what features are implemented in the system being designed and what features are in other associated systems.

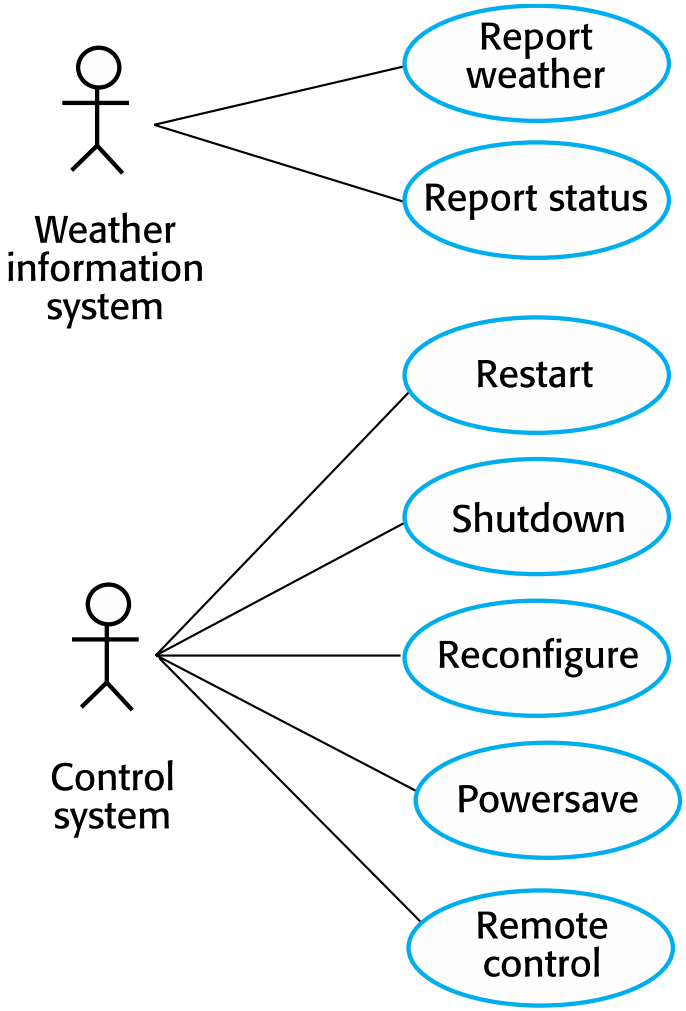
Context and interaction models

- A system context model is a structural model that demonstrates the other systems in the environment of the system being developed.
- An interaction model is a dynamic model that shows how the system interacts with its environment as it is used.

System context for the weather station



Weather station use cases



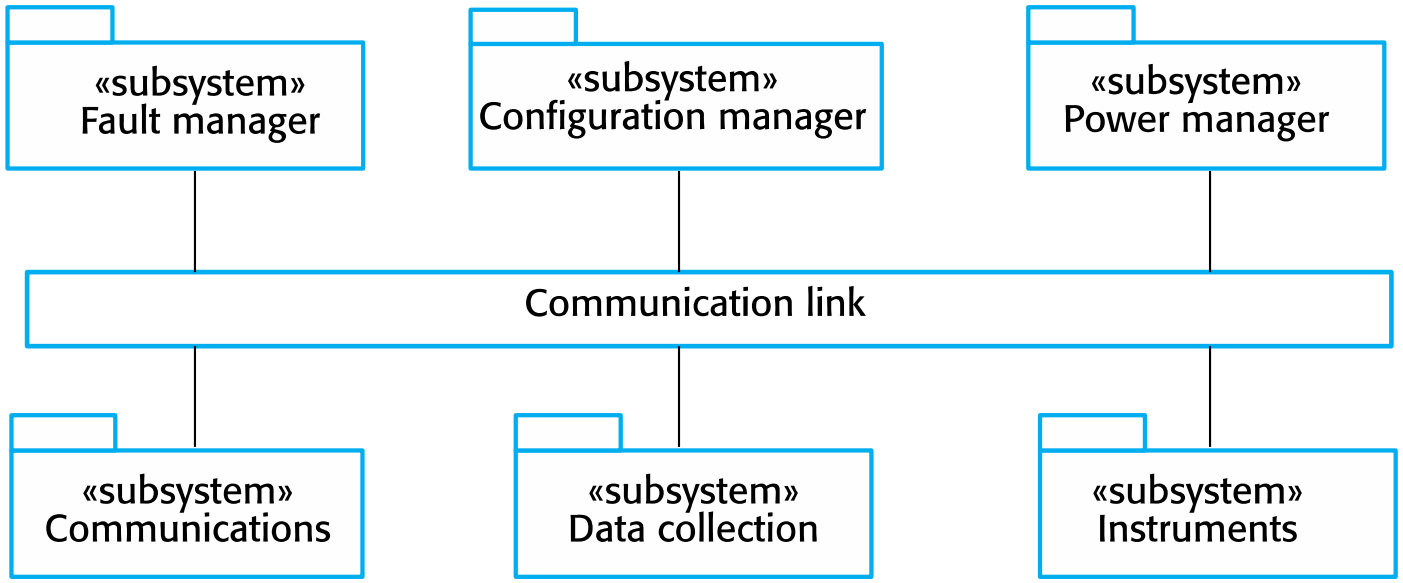
Use case description—Report weather

System	Weather station
Use case	Report weather
Actors	Weather information system, Weather station
Description	The weather station sends a summary of the weather data that has been collected from the instruments in the collection period to the weather information system. The data sent are the maximum, minimum, and average ground and air temperatures; the maximum, minimum, and average air pressures; the maximum, minimum, and average wind speeds; the total rainfall; and the wind direction as sampled at five-minute intervals.
Stimulus	The weather information system establishes a satellite communication link with the weather station and requests transmission of the data.
Response	The summarized data is sent to the weather information system.
Comments	Weather stations are usually asked to report once per hour but this frequency may differ from one station to another and may be modified in the future.

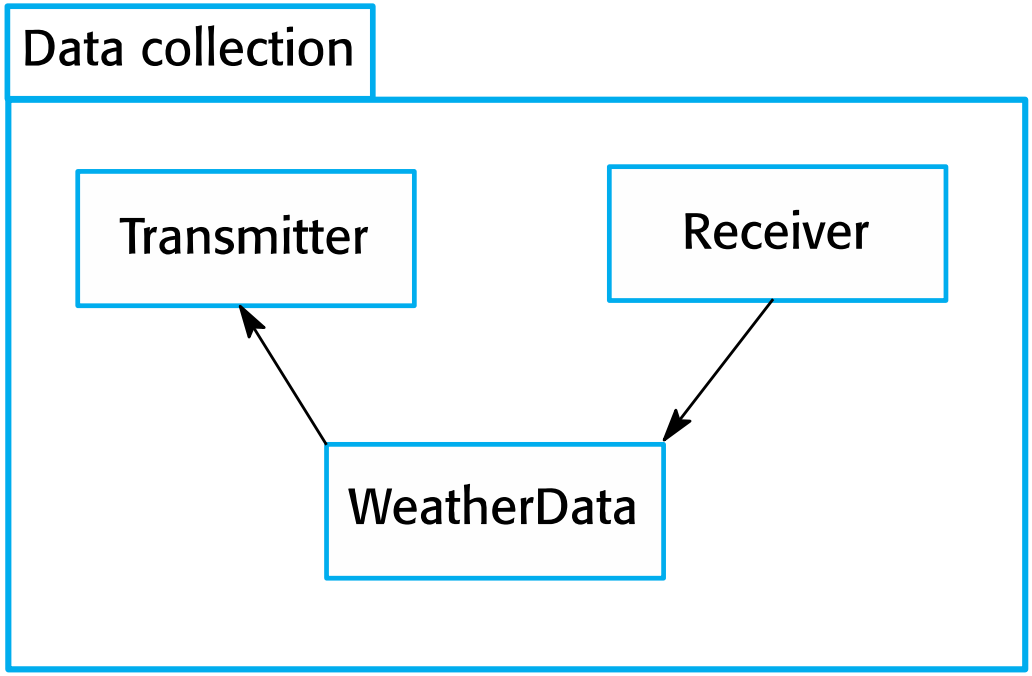
Architectural design

- Once interactions between the system and its environment have been understood, you use this information for designing the system architecture.
- You identify the major components that make up the system and their interactions, and then may organize the components using an architectural pattern such as a layered or client-server model.
- The weather station is composed of independent subsystems that communicate by broadcasting messages on a common infrastructure.

High-level architecture of the weather station



Architecture of data collection system



Object class identification

- Identifying object classes is often a difficult part of object oriented design.
- There is no 'magic formula' for object identification. It relies on the skill, experience and domain knowledge of system designers.
- Object identification is an iterative process. You are unlikely to get it right first time.

Approaches to identification

- Use a grammatical approach based on a natural language description of the system.
- Base the identification on tangible things in the application domain.
- Use a behavioural approach and identify objects based on what participates in what behaviour.
- Use a scenario-based analysis. The objects, attributes and methods in each scenario are identified.

Weather station object classes

- Object class identification in the weather station system may be based on the tangible hardware and data in the system:
  - Ground thermometer, Anemometer, Barometer
    - Application domain objects that are 'hardware' objects related to the instruments in the system.
  - Weather station
    - The basic interface of the weather station to its environment. It therefore reflects the interactions identified in the use-case model.
  - Weather data
    - Encapsulates the summarized data from the instruments.

Weather station object classes

reportWeather ( )
reportStatus ( )
powerSave (instruments)
remoteControl (commands)
reconfigure (commands)
restart (instruments)
shutdown (instruments)

groundTemperatures
windSpeeds
windDirections
pressures
rainfall

collect ( )
summarize ( )

Ground thermometer

gt_Ident
temperature

Anemometer

an_Ident
windSpeed
windDirection

Barometer

bar_Ident
pressure
height

Design models

- Design models show the objects and object classes and relationships between these entities.
- There are two kinds of design model:
  - Structural models describe the static structure of the system in terms of object classes and relationships.
  - Dynamic models describe the dynamic interactions between objects.

Examples of design models

- Subsystem models that show logical groupings of objects into coherent subsystems.
- Sequence models that show the sequence of object interactions.
- State machine models that show how individual objects change their state in response to events.
- Other models include use-case models, aggregation models, generalisation models, etc.

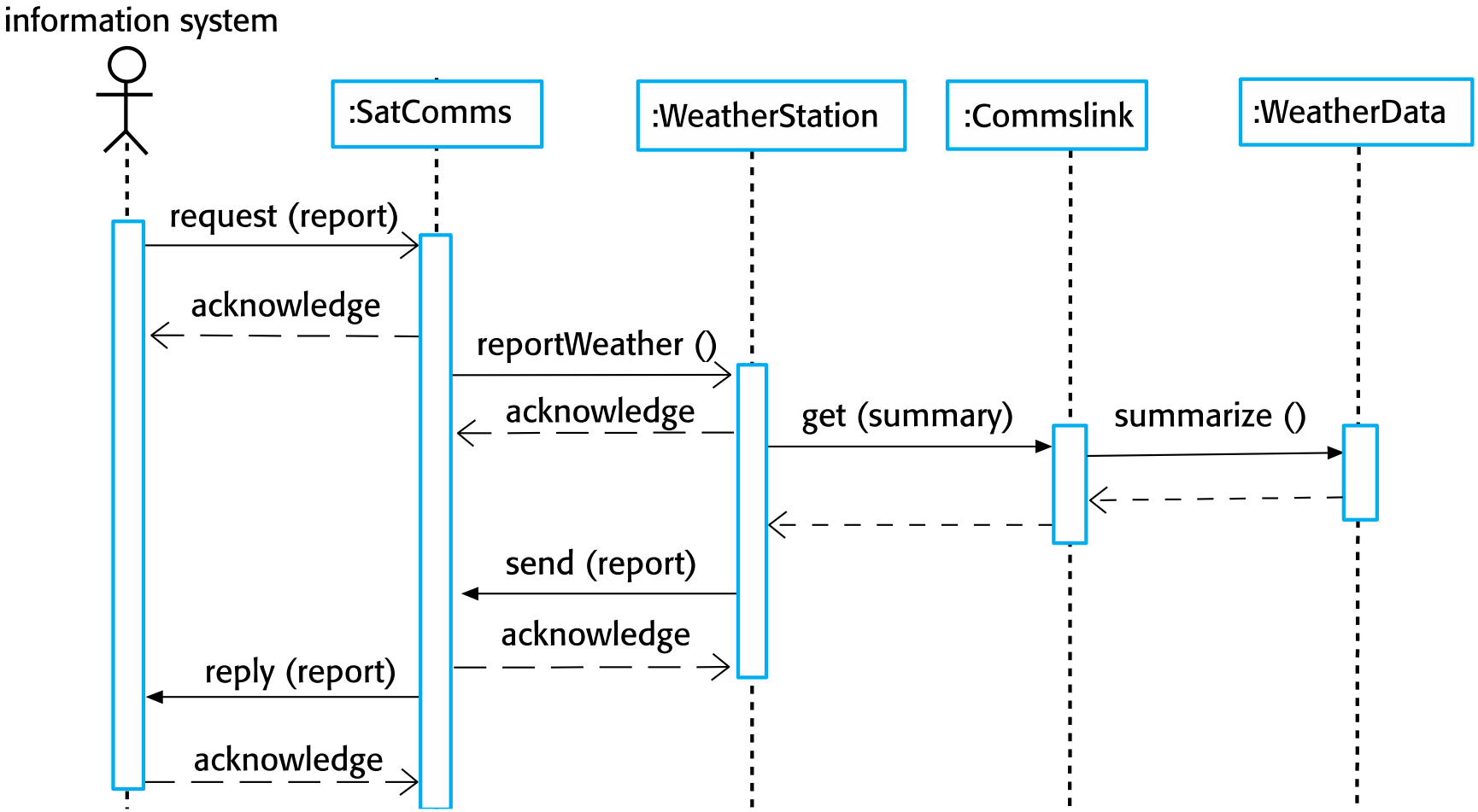
Subsystem models

- Shows how the design is organised into logically related groups of objects.
- In the UML, these are shown using packages - an encapsulation construct. This is a logical model. The actual organisation of objects in the system may be different.

Sequence models

- Sequence models show the sequence of object interactions that take place
  - Objects are arranged horizontally across the top;
  - Time is represented vertically so models are read top to bottom;
  - Interactions are represented by labelled arrows, Different styles of arrow represent different types of interaction;
  - A thin rectangle in an object lifeline represents the time when the object is the controlling object in the system.

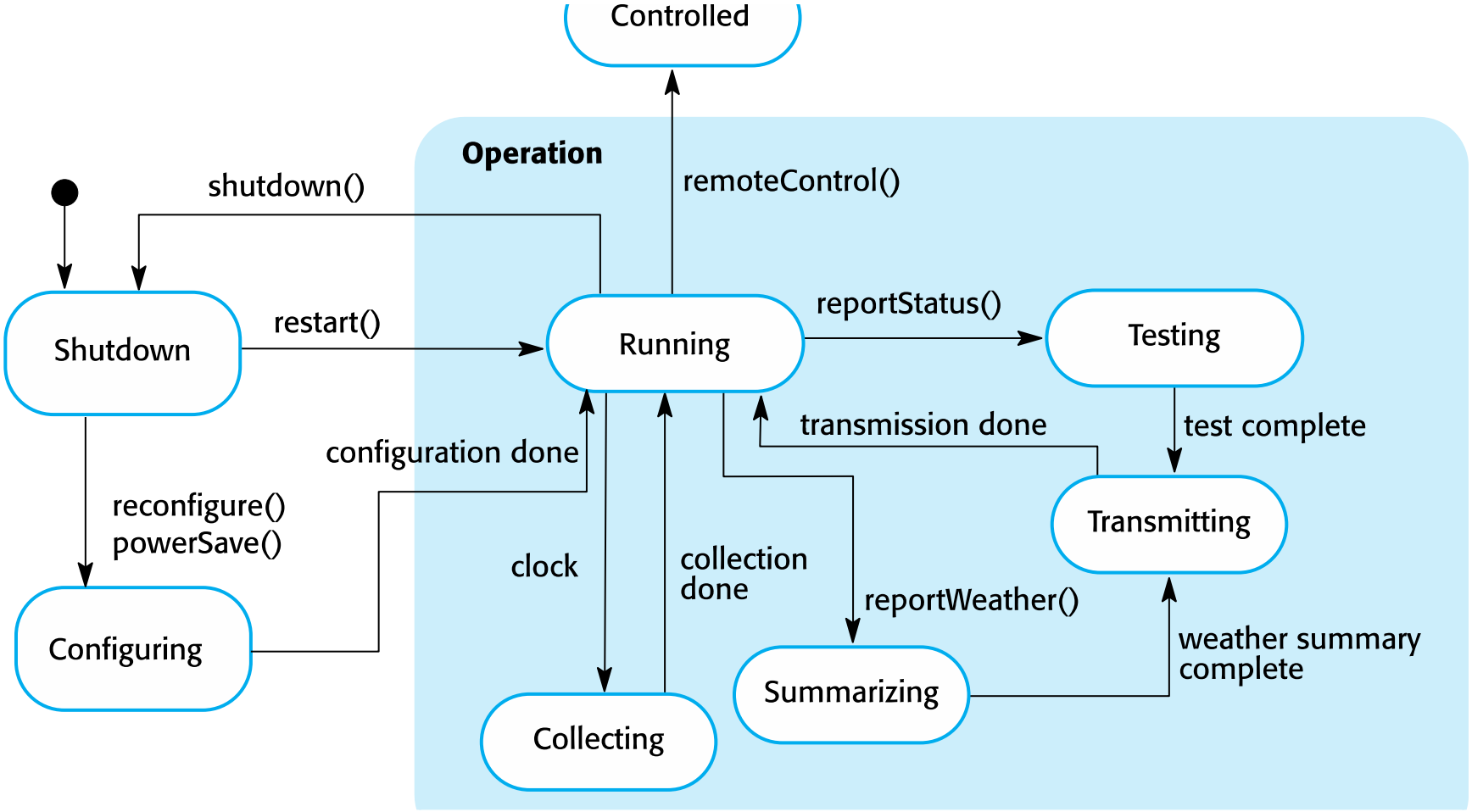
Sequence diagram describing data collection



State diagrams

- State diagrams are used to show how objects respond to different service requests and the state transitions triggered by these requests.
- State diagrams are useful high-level models of a system or an object's run-time behavior.
- You don't usually need a state diagram for all of the objects in the system. Many of the objects in a system are relatively simple and a state model adds unnecessary detail to the design.

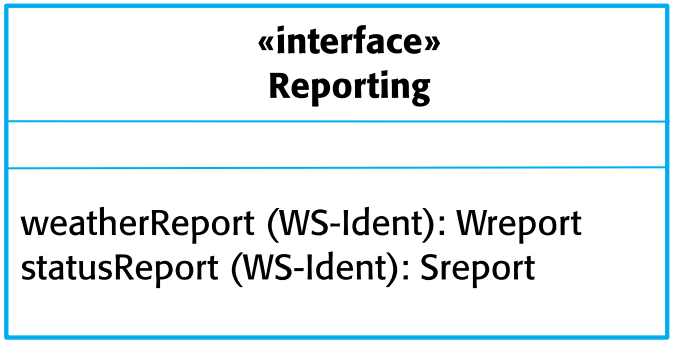
Weather station state diagram

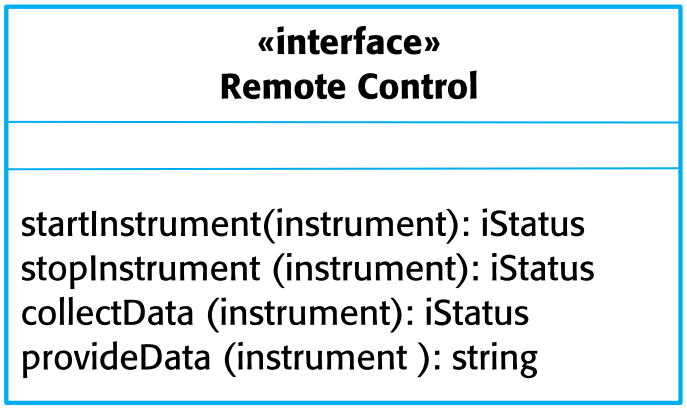


Interface specification

- Object interfaces have to be specified so that the objects and other components can be designed in parallel.
- Designers should avoid designing the interface representation but should hide this in the object itself.
- Objects may have several interfaces which are viewpoints on the methods provided.
- The UML uses class diagrams for interface specification but Java may also be used.

Weather station interfaces





Design patterns

Design patterns

- A design pattern is a way of reusing abstract knowledge about a problem and its solution.
- A pattern is a description of the problem and the essence of its solution.
- It should be sufficiently abstract to be reused in different settings.
- Pattern descriptions usually make use of object-oriented characteristics such as inheritance and polymorphism.

Patterns

- *Patterns and Pattern Languages are ways to describe best practices, good designs, and capture experience in a way that it is possible for others to reuse this experience.*

Pattern elements

- Name
  - A meaningful pattern identifier.
- Problem description.
- Solution description.
  - Not a concrete design but a template for a design solution that can be instantiated in different ways.
- Consequences
  - The results and trade-offs of applying the pattern.

The Observer pattern

- Name
  - Observer.
- Description
  - Separates the display of object state from the object itself.
- Problem description
  - Used when multiple displays of state are needed.
- Solution description
  - See slide with UML description.
- Consequences
  - Optimisations to enhance display performance are impractical.

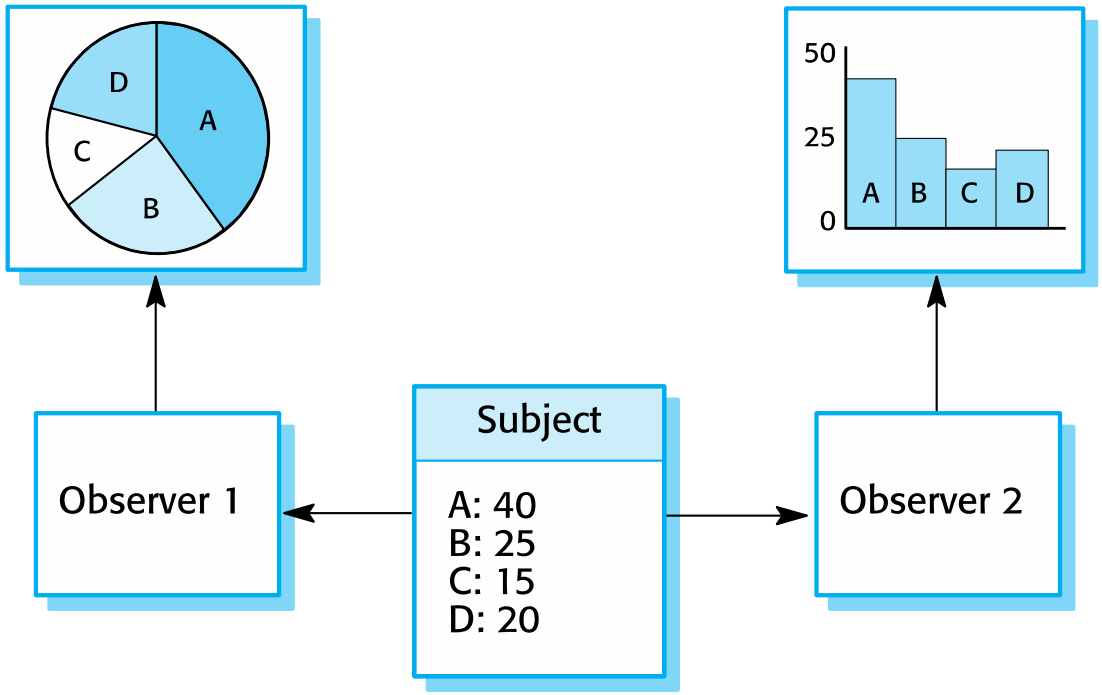
The Observer pattern (1)

Pattern name	Observer
Description	Separates the display of the state of an object from the object itself and allows alternative displays to be provided. When the object state changes, all displays are automatically notified and updated to reflect the change.
Problem description	In many situations, you have to provide multiple displays of state information, such as a graphical display and a tabular display. Not all of these may be known when the information is specified. All alternative presentations should support interaction and, when the state is changed, all displays must be updated. This pattern may be used in all situations where more than one display format for state information is required and where it is not necessary for the object that maintains the state information to know about the specific display formats used.

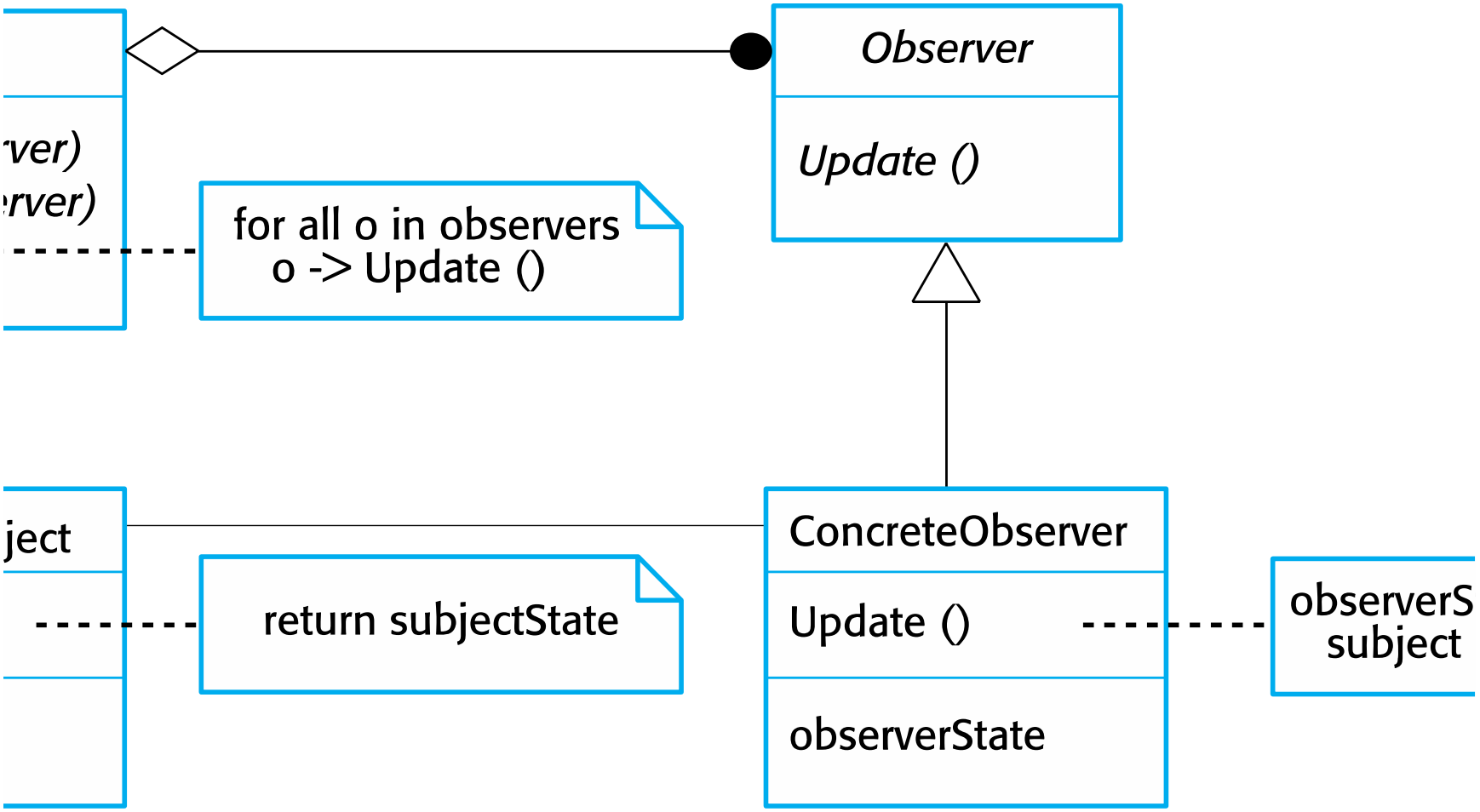
The Observer pattern (2)

Pattern name	Observer
Solution description	This involves two abstract objects, Subject and Observer, and two concrete objects, ConcreteSubject and ConcreteObject, which inherit the attributes of the related abstract objects. The abstract objects include general operations that are applicable in all situations. The state to be displayed is maintained in ConcreteSubject, which inherits operations from Subject allowing it to add and remove Observers (each observer corresponds to a display) and to issue a notification when the state has changed. The ConcreteObserver maintains a copy of the state of ConcreteSubject and implements the Update() interface of Observer that allows these copies to be kept in step. The ConcreteObserver automatically displays the state and reflects changes whenever the state is updated.
Consequences	The subject only knows the abstract Observer and does not know details of the concrete class. Therefore there is minimal coupling between these objects. Because of this lack of knowledge, optimizations that enhance display performance are impractical. Changes to the subject may cause a set of linked updates to observers to be generated, some of which may not be necessary.

Multiple displays using the Observer pattern



A UML model of the Observer pattern



Design problems

- To use patterns in your design, you need to recognize that any design problem you are facing may have an associated pattern that can be applied.
  - Tell several objects that the state of some other object has changed (Observer pattern).
  - Tidy up the interfaces to a number of related objects that have often been developed incrementally (Façade pattern).
  - Provide a standard way of accessing the elements in a collection, irrespective of how that collection is implemented (Iterator pattern).
  - Allow for the possibility of extending the functionality of an existing class at run-time (Decorator pattern).

Implementation issues

Implementation issues

- Focus here is not on programming, although this is obviously important, but on other implementation issues that are often not covered in programming texts:
  - Reuse Most modern software is constructed by reusing existing components or systems. When you are developing software, you should make as much use as possible of existing code.
  - Configuration management During the development process, you have to keep track of the many different versions of each software component in a configuration management system.
  - Host-target development Production software does not usually execute on the same computer as the software development environment. Rather, you develop it on one computer (the host system) and execute it on a separate computer (the target system).

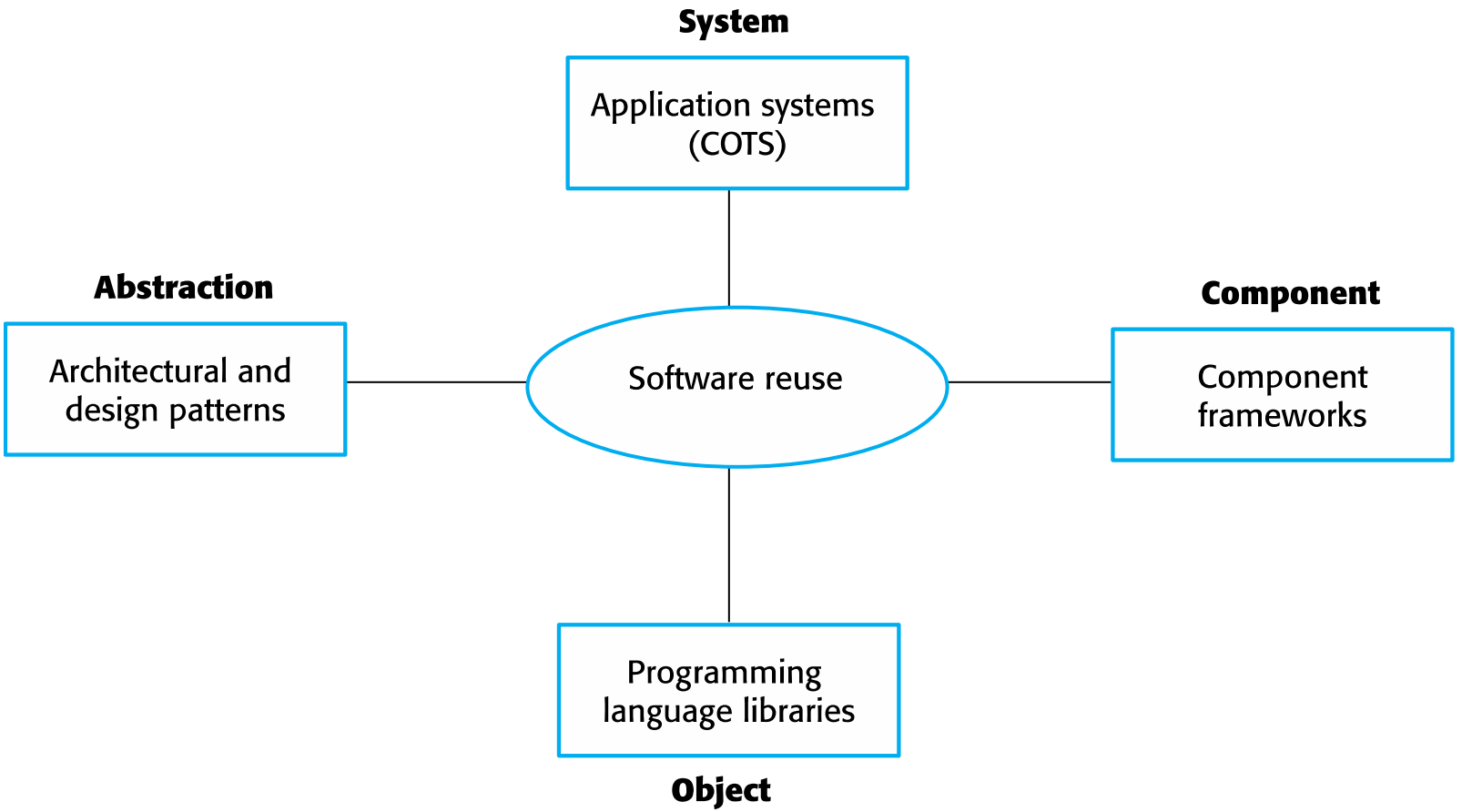
Reuse

- From the 1960s to the 1990s, most new software was developed from scratch, by writing all code in a high-level programming language.
  - The only significant reuse or software was the reuse of functions and objects in programming language libraries.
- Costs and schedule pressure mean that this approach became increasingly unviable, especially for commercial and Internet-based systems.
- An approach to development based around the reuse of existing software emerged and is now generally used for business and scientific software.

Reuse levels

- The abstraction level
  - At this level, you don’t reuse software directly but use knowledge of successful abstractions in the design of your software.
- The object level
  - At this level, you directly reuse objects from a library rather than writing the code yourself.
- The component level
  - Components are collections of objects and object classes that you reuse in application systems.
- The system level
  - At this level, you reuse entire application systems.

Software reuse



Reuse costs

- The costs of the time spent in looking for software to reuse and assessing whether or not it meets your needs.
- Where applicable, the costs of buying the reusable software. For large off-the-shelf systems, these costs can be very high.
- The costs of adapting and configuring the reusable software components or systems to reflect the requirements of the system that you are developing.
- The costs of integrating reusable software elements with each other (if you are using software from different sources) and with the new code that you have developed.

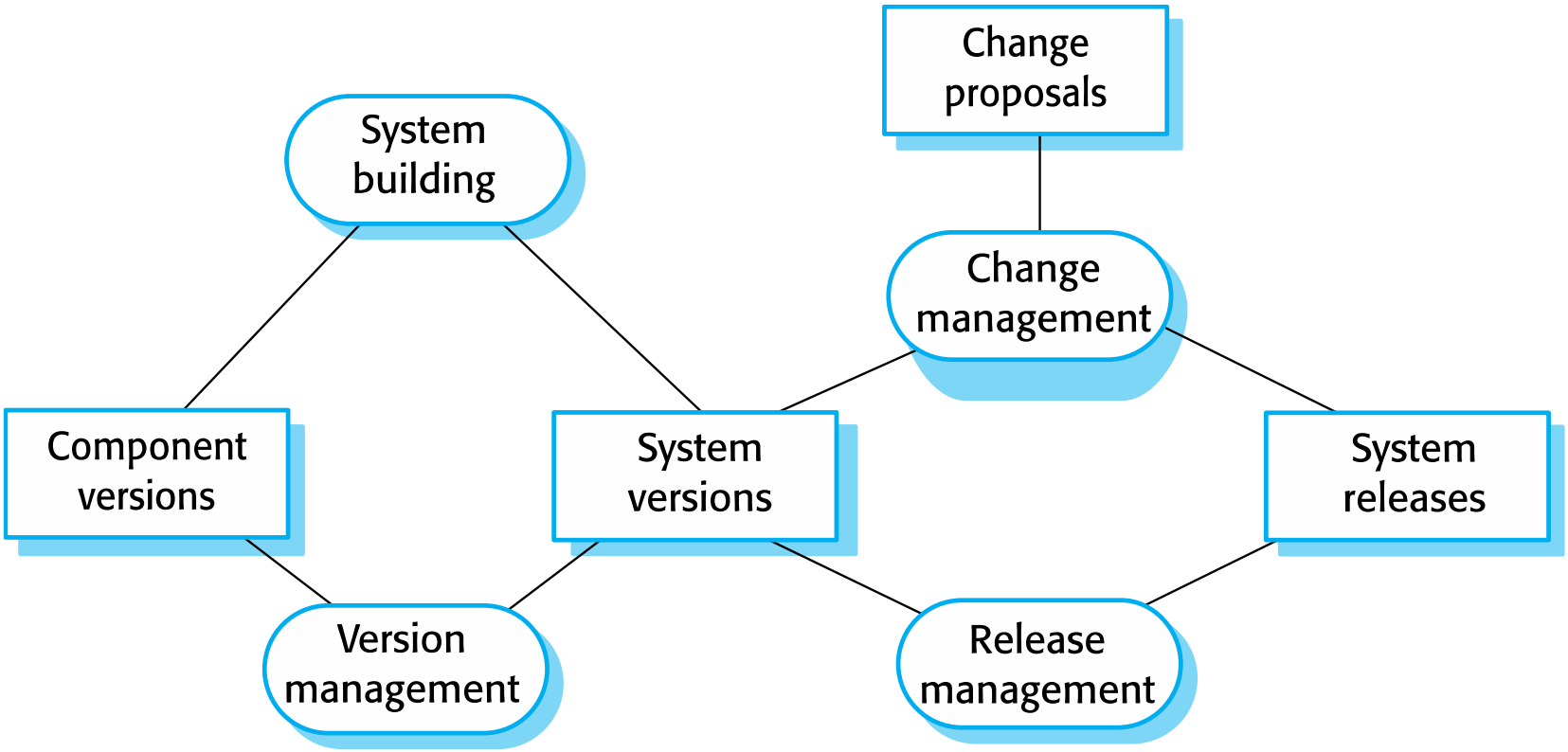
Configuration management

- Configuration management is the name given to the general process of managing a changing software system.
- The aim of configuration management is to support the system integration process so that all developers can access the project code and documents in a controlled way, find out what changes have been made, and compile and link components to create a system.
- See also Chapter 25.

Configuration management activities

- Version management, where support is provided to keep track of the different versions of software components. Version management systems include facilities to coordinate development by several programmers.
- System integration, where support is provided to help developers define what versions of components are used to create each version of a system. This description is then used to build a system automatically by compiling and linking the required components.
- Problem tracking, where support is provided to allow users to report bugs and other problems, and to allow all developers to see who is working on these problems and when they are fixed.

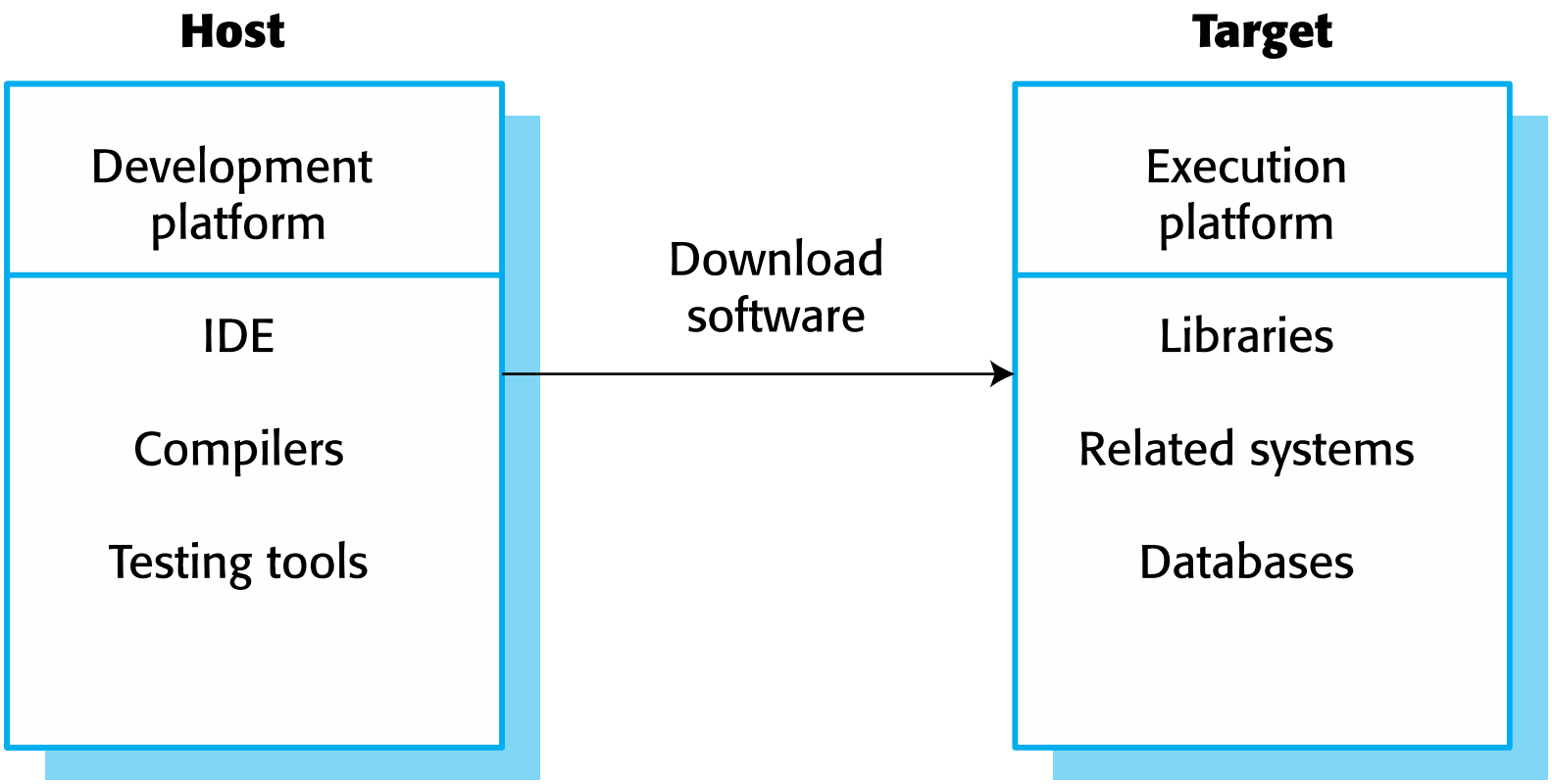
Configuration management tool interaction



Host-target development

- Most software is developed on one computer (the host), but runs on a separate machine (the target).
- More generally, we can talk about a development platform and an execution platform.
  - A platform is more than just hardware.
  - It includes the installed operating system plus other supporting software such as a database management system or, for development platforms, an interactive development environment.
- Development platform usually has different installed software than execution platform; these platforms may have different architectures.

Host-target development



Development platform tools

- An integrated compiler and syntax-directed editing system that allows you to create, edit and compile code.
- A language debugging system.
- Graphical editing tools, such as tools to edit UML models.
- Testing tools, such as Junit that can automatically run a set of tests on a new version of a program.
- Project support tools that help you organize the code for different development projects.

Integrated development environments (IDEs)

- Software development tools are often grouped to create an integrated development environment (IDE).
- An IDE is a set of software tools that supports different aspects of software development, within some common framework and user interface.
- IDEs are created to support development in a specific programming language such as Java. The language IDE may be developed specially, or may be an instantiation of a general-purpose IDE, with specific language-support tools.

Component/system deployment factors

- If a component is designed for a specific hardware architecture, or relies on some other software system, it must obviously be deployed on a platform that provides the required hardware and software support.
- High availability systems may require components to be deployed on more than one platform. This means that, in the event of platform failure, an alternative implementation of the component is available.
- If there is a high level of communications traffic between components, it usually makes sense to deploy them on the same platform or on platforms that are physically close to one other. This reduces the delay between the time a message is sent by one component and received by another.

Open source development

Open source development

- Open source development is an approach to software development in which the source code of a software system is published and volunteers are invited to participate in the development process
- Its roots are in the Free Software Foundation (www.fsf.org), which advocates that source code should not be proprietary but rather should always be available for users to examine and modify as they wish.
- Open source software extended this idea by using the Internet to recruit a much larger population of volunteer developers. Many of them are also users of the code.

Open source systems

- The best-known open source product is, of course, the Linux operating system which is widely used as a server system and, increasingly, as a desktop environment.
- Other important open source products are Java, the Apache web server and the mySQL database management system.

Open source issues

- Should the product that is being developed make use of open source components?
- Should an open source approach be used for the software's development?

Open source business

- More and more product companies are using an open source approach to development.
- Their business model is not reliant on selling a software product but on selling support for that product.
- They believe that involving the open source community will allow software to be developed more cheaply, more quickly and will create a community of users for the software.

Open source licensing

- A fundamental principle of open-source development is that source code should be freely available, this does not mean that anyone can do as they wish with that code.
  - Legally, the developer of the code (either a company or an individual) still owns the code. They can place restrictions on how it is used by including legally binding conditions in an open source software license.
  - Some open source developers believe that if an open source component is used to develop a new system, then that system should also be open source.
  - Others are willing to allow their code to be used without this restriction. The developed systems may be proprietary and sold as closed source systems.

License models

- The GNU General Public License (GPL). This is a so-called ‘reciprocal’ license that means that if you use open source software that is licensed under the GPL license, then you must make that software open source.
- The GNU Lesser General Public License (LGPL) is a variant of the GPL license where you can write components that link to open source code without having to publish the source of these components.
- The Berkley Standard Distribution (BSD) License. This is a non-reciprocal license, which means you are not obliged to re-publish any changes or modifications made to open source code. You can include the code in proprietary systems that are sold.

License management

- Establish a system for maintaining information about open-source components that are downloaded and used.
- Be aware of the different types of licenses and understand how a component is licensed before it is used.
- Be aware of evolution pathways for components.
- Educate people about open source.
- Have auditing systems in place.
- Participate in the open source community.

Key points

- Software design and implementation are inter-leaved activities. The level of detail in the design depends on the type of system and whether you are using a plan-driven or agile approach.
- The process of object-oriented design includes activities to design the system architecture, identify objects in the system, describe the design using different object models and document the component interfaces.
- A range of different models may be produced during an object-oriented design process. These include static models (class models, generalization models, association models) and dynamic models (sequence models, state machine models).
- Component interfaces must be defined precisely so that other objects can use them. A UML interface stereotype may be used to define interfaces.

Key points

- When developing software, you should always consider the possibility of reusing existing software, either as components, services or complete systems.
- Configuration management is the process of managing changes to an evolving software system. It is essential when a team of people are cooperating to develop software.
- Most software development is host-target development. You use an IDE on a host machine to develop the software, which is transferred to a target machine for execution.
- Open source development involves making the source code of a system publicly available. This means that many people can propose changes and improvements to the software.

Chapter 8 – Software Testing

Topics covered

- ✧ Development testing
- ✧ Test-driven development
- ✧ Release testing
- ✧ User testing

Program testing

- Testing is intended to show that a program does what it is intended to do and to discover program defects before it is put into use.
- When you test software, you execute a program using artificial data.
- You check the results of the test run for errors, anomalies or information about the program's non-functional attributes.
- Can reveal the presence of errors NOT their absence.
- Testing is part of a more general verification and validation process, which also includes static validation techniques.

Program testing goals

- To demonstrate to the developer and the customer that the software meets its requirements.
  - For custom software, this means that there should be at least one test for every requirement in the requirements document. For generic software products, it means that there should be tests for all of the system features, plus combinations of these features, that will be incorporated in the product release.
- To discover situations in which the behavior of the software is incorrect, undesirable or does not conform to its specification.
  - Defect testing is concerned with rooting out undesirable system behavior such as system crashes, unwanted interactions with other systems, incorrect computations and data corruption.

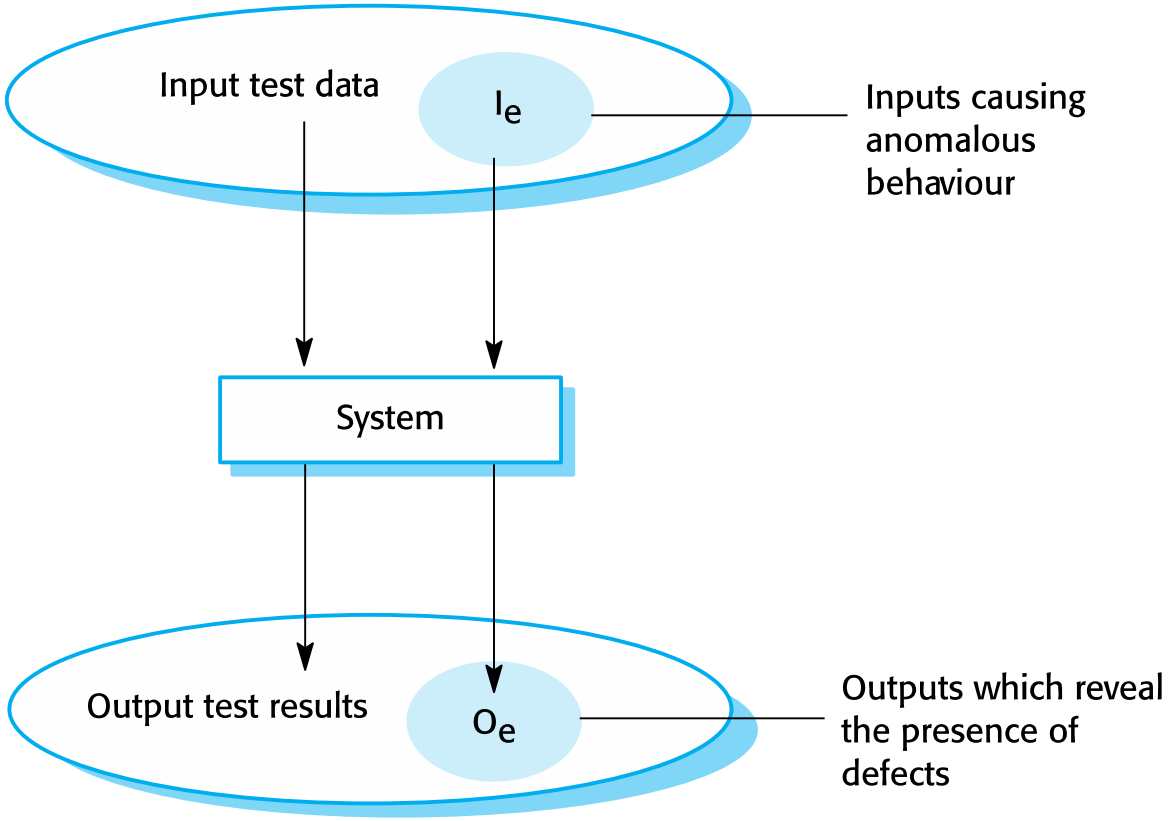
Validation and defect testing

- ✧ The first goal leads to validation testing
  - You expect the system to perform correctly using a given set of test cases that reflect the system's expected use.
- ✧ The second goal leads to defect testing
  - The test cases are designed to expose defects. The test cases in defect testing can be deliberately obscure and need not reflect how the system is normally used.

Testing process goals

- Validation testing
  - To demonstrate to the developer and the system customer that the software meets its requirements
  - A successful test shows that the system operates as intended.
- Defect testing
  - To discover faults or defects in the software where its behaviour is incorrect or not in conformance with its specification
  - A successful test is a test that makes the system perform incorrectly and so exposes a defect in the system.

An input-output model of program testing



Verification vs validation

- Verification:
  "Are we building the product right".
- The software should conform to its specification.
- Validation:
  "Are we building the right product".
- The software should do what the user really requires.

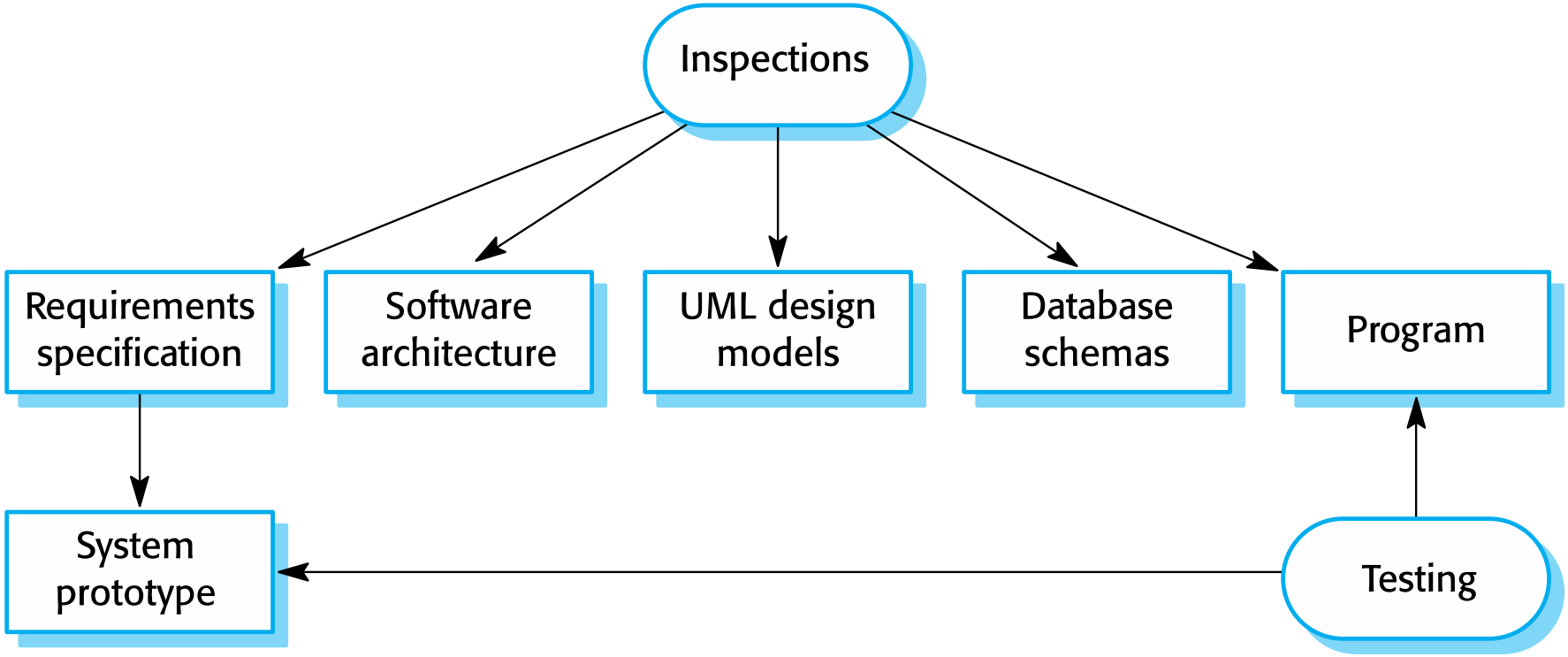
V & V confidence

- Aim of V & V is to establish confidence that the system is 'fit for purpose'.
- Depends on system's purpose, user expectations and marketing environment
  - Software purpose
    - The level of confidence depends on how critical the software is to an organisation.
  - User expectations
    - Users may have low expectations of certain kinds of software.
  - Marketing environment
    - Getting a product to market early may be more important than finding defects in the program.

Inspections and testing

- Software inspections Concerned with analysis of the static system representation to discover problems (static verification)
  - May be supplement by tool-based document and code analysis.
  - Discussed in Chapter 15.
- Software testing Concerned with exercising and observing product behaviour (dynamic verification)
  - The system is executed with test data and its operational behaviour is observed.

Inspections and testing



Software inspections

- These involve people examining the source representation with the aim of discovering anomalies and defects.
- Inspections not require execution of a system so may be used before implementation.
- They may be applied to any representation of the system (requirements, design,configuration data, test data, etc.).
- They have been shown to be an effective technique for discovering program errors.

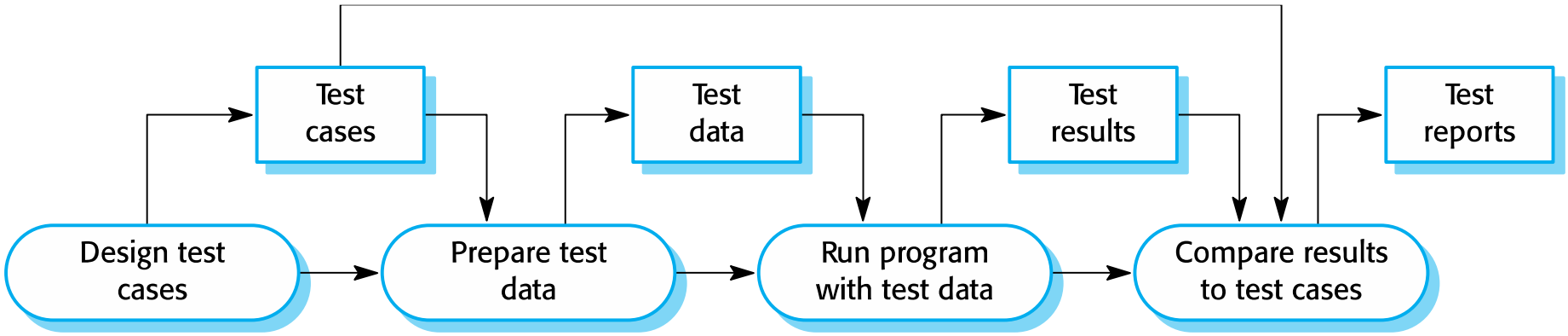
Advantages of inspections

- During testing, errors can mask (hide) other errors. Because inspection is a static process, you don't have to be concerned with interactions between errors.
- Incomplete versions of a system can be inspected without additional costs. If a program is incomplete, then you need to develop specialized test harnesses to test the parts that are available.
- As well as searching for program defects, an inspection can also consider broader quality attributes of a program, such as compliance with standards, portability and maintainability.

Inspections and testing

- Inspections and testing are complementary and not opposing verification techniques.
- Both should be used during the V & V process.
- Inspections can check conformance with a specification but not conformance with the customer's real requirements.
- Inspections cannot check non-functional characteristics such as performance, usability, etc.

A model of the software testing process



Stages of testing

- Development testing, where the system is tested during development to discover bugs and defects.
- Release testing, where a separate testing team test a complete version of the system before it is released to users.
- User testing, where users or potential users of a system test the system in their own environment.

Development testing

Development testing

- Development testing includes all testing activities that are carried out by the team developing the system.
  - Unit testing, where individual program units or object classes are tested. Unit testing should focus on testing the functionality of objects or methods.
  - Component testing, where several individual units are integrated to create composite components. Component testing should focus on testing component interfaces.
  - System testing, where some or all of the components in a system are integrated and the system is tested as a whole. System testing should focus on testing component interactions.

Unit testing

- Unit testing is the process of testing individual components in isolation.
- It is a defect testing process.
- Units may be:
  - Individual functions or methods within an object
  - Object classes with several attributes and methods
  - Composite components with defined interfaces used to access their functionality.

Object class testing

- Complete test coverage of a class involves
  - Testing all operations associated with an object
  - Setting and interrogating all object attributes
  - Exercising the object in all possible states.
- Inheritance makes it more difficult to design object class tests as the information to be tested is not localised.

The weather station object interface

WeatherStation
identifier
reportWeather ( ) reportStatus ( ) powerSave (instruments) remoteControl (commands) reconfigure (commands) restart (instruments) shutdown (instruments)

Weather station testing

- Need to define test cases for reportWeather, calibrate, test, startup and shutdown.
- Using a state model, identify sequences of state transitions to be tested and the event sequences to cause these transitions
- For example:
  - Shutdown -> Running-> Shutdown
  - Configuring-> Running-> Testing -> Transmitting -> Running
  - Running-> Collecting-> Running-> Summarizing -> Transmitting -> Running

Automated testing

- Whenever possible, unit testing should be automated so that tests are run and checked without manual intervention.
- In automated unit testing, you make use of a test automation framework (such as JUnit) to write and run your program tests.
- Unit testing frameworks provide generic test classes that you extend to create specific test cases. They can then run all of the tests that you have implemented and report, often through some GUI, on the success of otherwise of the tests.

Automated test components

- A setup part, where you initialize the system with the test case, namely the inputs and expected outputs.
- A call part, where you call the object or method to be tested.
- An assertion part where you compare the result of the call with the expected result. If the assertion evaluates to true, the test has been successful if false, then it has failed.

Choosing unit test cases

- The test cases should show that, when used as expected, the component that you are testing does what it is supposed to do.
- If there are defects in the component, these should be revealed by test cases.
- This leads to 2 types of unit test case:
  - The first of these should reflect normal operation of a program and should show that the component works as expected.
  - The other kind of test case should be based on testing experience of where common problems arise. It should use abnormal inputs to check that these are properly processed and do not crash the component.

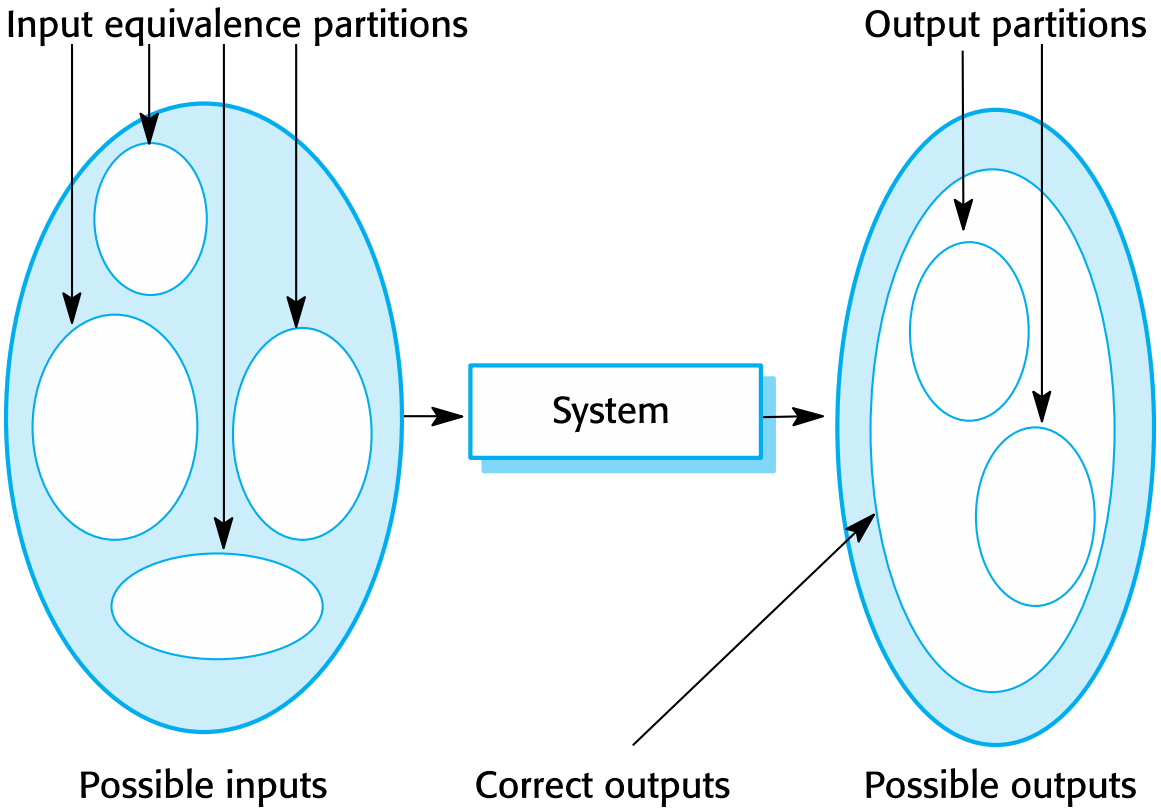
Testing strategies

- Partition testing, where you identify groups of inputs that have common characteristics and should be processed in the same way.
  - You should choose tests from within each of these groups.
- Guideline-based testing, where you use testing guidelines to choose test cases.
  - These guidelines reflect previous experience of the kinds of errors that programmers often make when developing components.

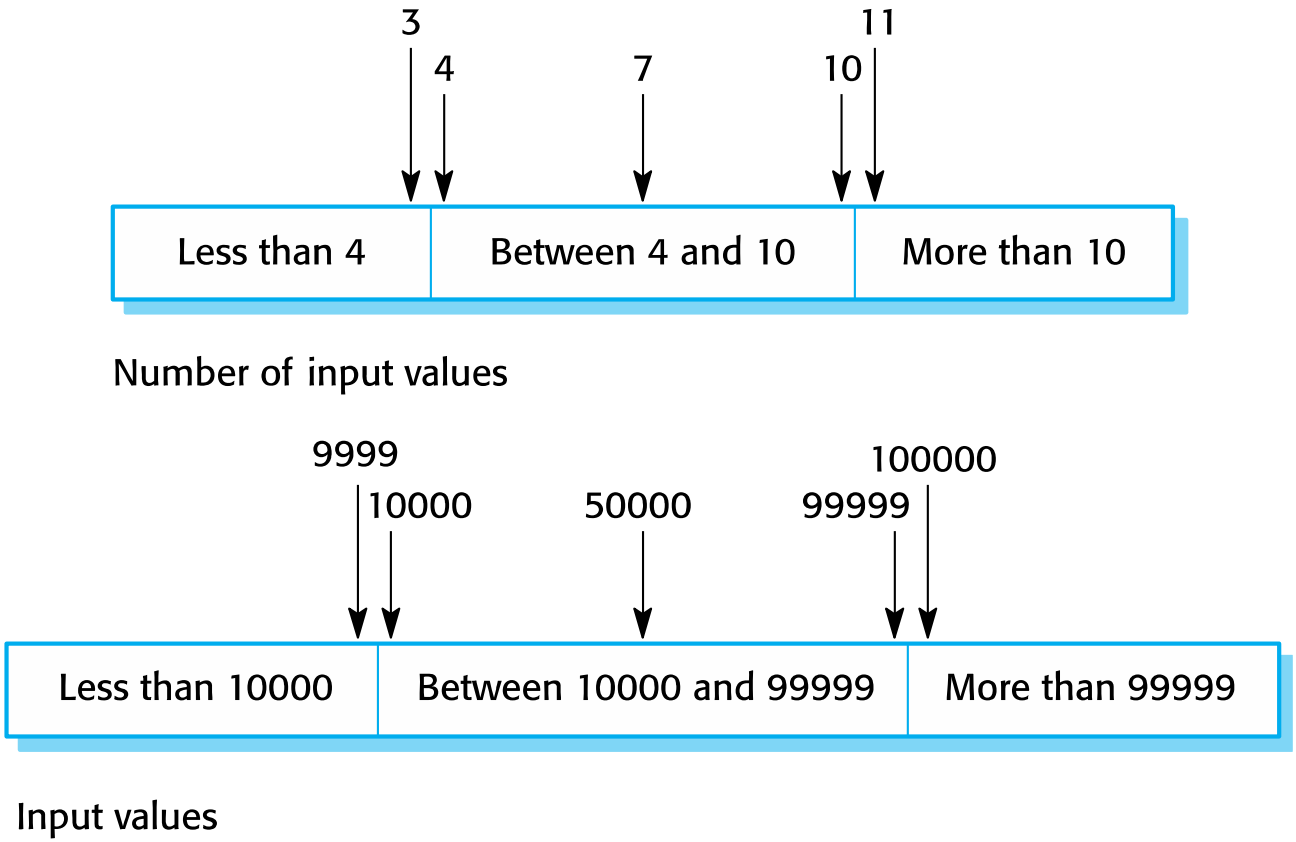
Partition testing

- Input data and output results often fall into different classes where all members of a class are related.
- Each of these classes is an equivalence partition or domain where the program behaves in an equivalent way for each class member.
- Test cases should be chosen from each partition.

Equivalence partitioning



Equivalence partitions



Testing guidelines (sequences)

- Test software with sequences which have only a single value.
- Use sequences of different sizes in different tests.
- Derive tests so that the first, middle and last elements of the sequence are accessed.
- Test with sequences of zero length.

General testing guidelines

- ✧ Choose inputs that force the system to generate all error messages
- ✧ Design inputs that cause input buffers to overflow
- ✧ Repeat the same input or series of inputs numerous times
- ✧ Force invalid outputs to be generated
- ✧ Force computation results to be too large or too small.

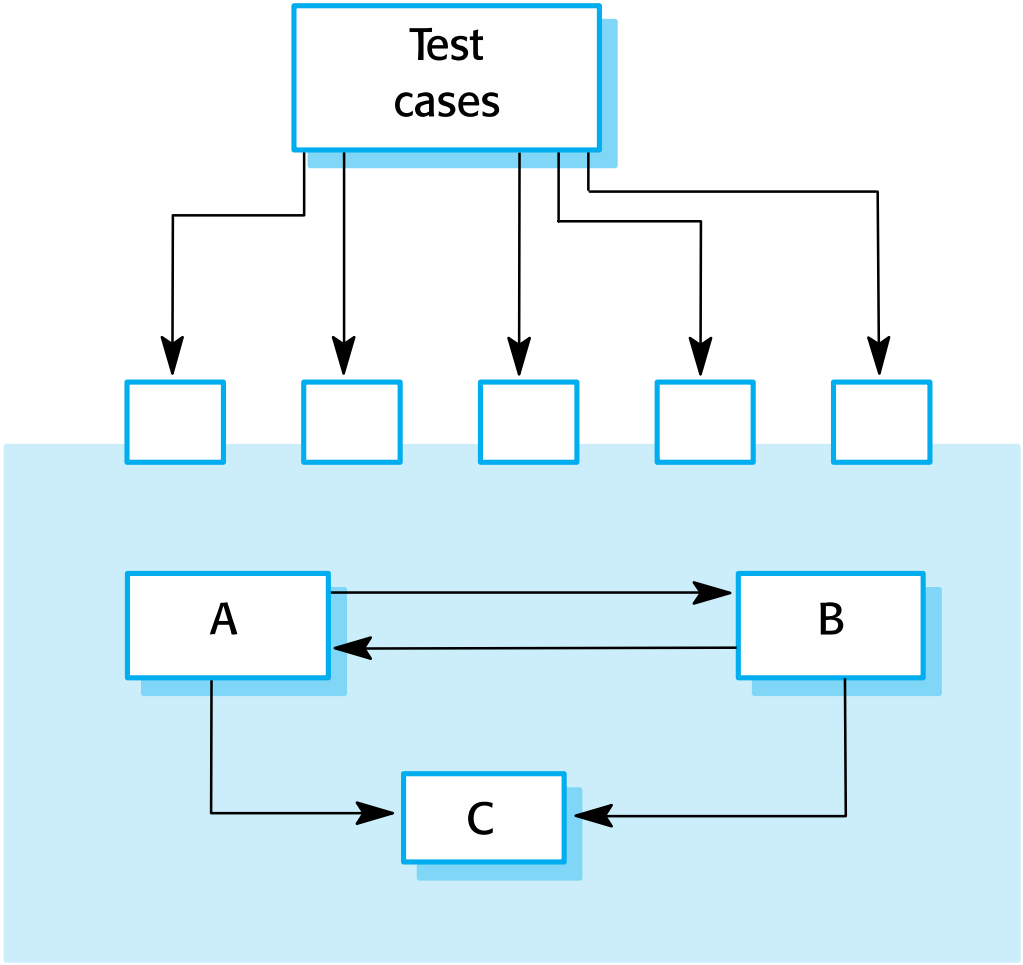
Component testing

- Software components are often composite components that are made up of several interacting objects.
  - For example, in the weather station system, the reconfiguration component includes objects that deal with each aspect of the reconfiguration.
- You access the functionality of these objects through the defined component interface.
- Testing composite components should therefore focus on showing that the component interface behaves according to its specification.
  - You can assume that unit tests on the individual objects within the component have been completed.

Interface testing

- Objectives are to detect faults due to interface errors or invalid assumptions about interfaces.
- Interface types
  - Parameter interfaces Data passed from one method or procedure to another.
  - Shared memory interfaces Block of memory is shared between procedures or functions.
  - Procedural interfaces Sub-system encapsulates a set of procedures to be called by other sub-systems.
  - Message passing interfaces Sub-systems request services from other sub-systems

Interface testing



Interface errors

- Interface misuse
  - A calling component calls another component and makes an error in its use of its interface e.g. parameters in the wrong order.
- Interface misunderstanding
  - A calling component embeds assumptions about the behaviour of the called component which are incorrect.
- Timing errors
  - The called and the calling component operate at different speeds and out-of-date information is accessed.

Interface testing guidelines

- Design tests so that parameters to a called procedure are at the extreme ends of their ranges.
- Always test pointer parameters with null pointers.
- Design tests which cause the component to fail.
- Use stress testing in message passing systems.
- In shared memory systems, vary the order in which components are activated.

System testing

- System testing during development involves integrating components to create a version of the system and then testing the integrated system.
- The focus in system testing is testing the interactions between components.
- System testing checks that components are compatible, interact correctly and transfer the right data at the right time across their interfaces.
- System testing tests the emergent behaviour of a system.

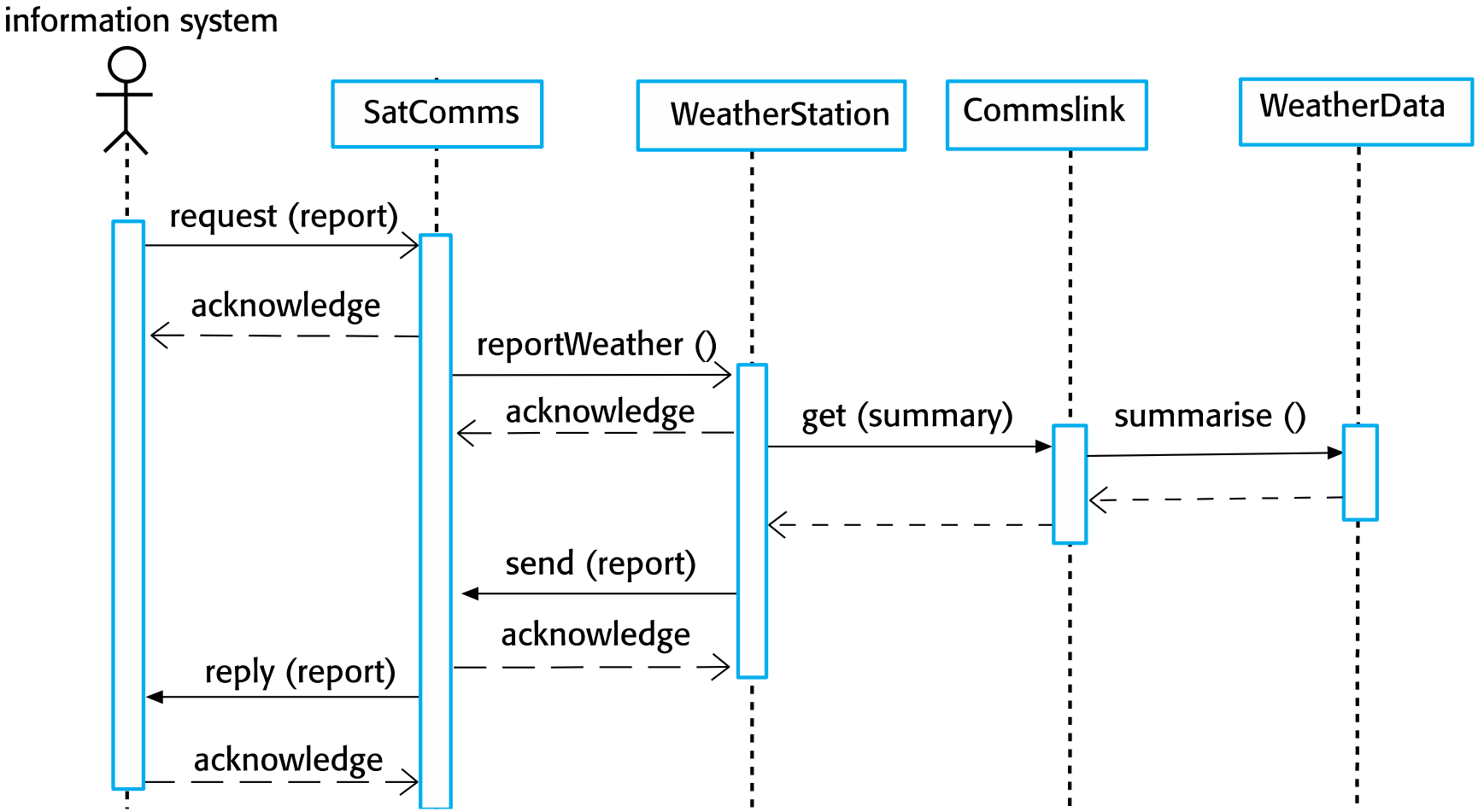
System and component testing

- During system testing, reusable components that have been separately developed and off-the-shelf systems may be integrated with newly developed components. The complete system is then tested.
- Components developed by different team members or sub-teams may be integrated at this stage. System testing is a collective rather than an individual process.
  - In some companies, system testing may involve a separate testing team with no involvement from designers and programmers.

Use-case testing

- The use-cases developed to identify system interactions can be used as a basis for system testing.
- Each use case usually involves several system components so testing the use case forces these interactions to occur.
- The sequence diagrams associated with the use case documents the components and interactions that are being tested.

Collect weather data sequence chart



Test cases derived from sequence diagram

- An input of a request for a report should have an associated acknowledgement. A report should ultimately be returned from the request.
  - You should create summarized data that can be used to check that the report is correctly organized.
- An input request for a report to WeatherStation results in a summarized report being generated.
  - Can be tested by creating raw data corresponding to the summary that you have prepared for the test of SatComms and checking that the WeatherStation object correctly produces this summary. This raw data is also used to test the WeatherData object.

Testing policies

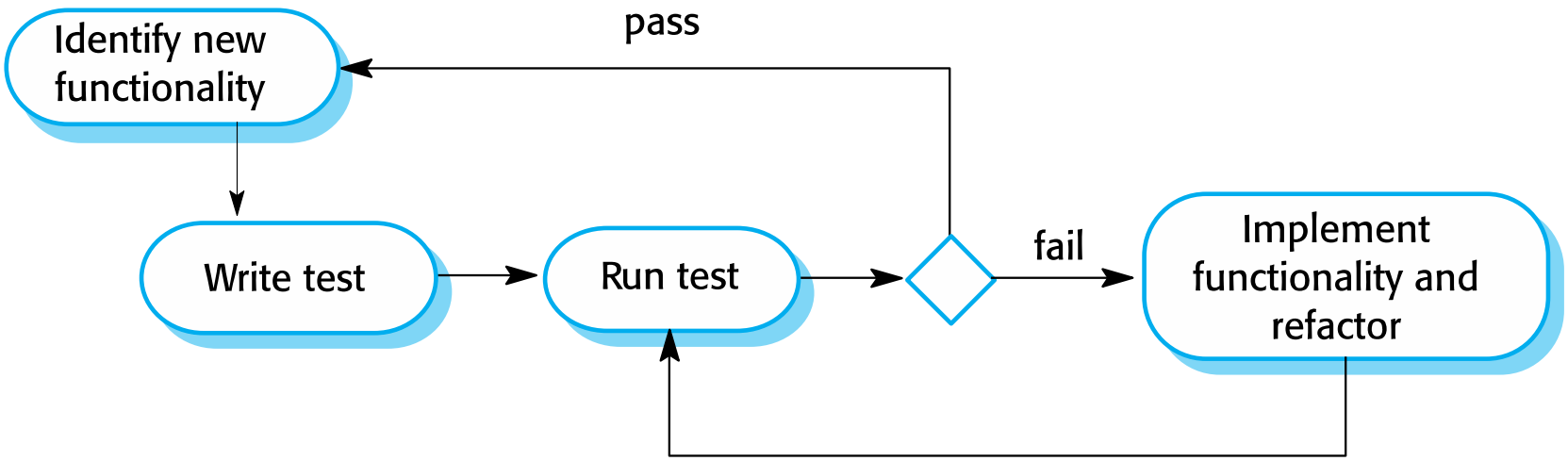
- Exhaustive system testing is impossible so testing policies which define the required system test coverage may be developed.
- Examples of testing policies:
  - All system functions that are accessed through menus should be tested.
  - Combinations of functions (e.g. text formatting) that are accessed through the same menu must be tested.
  - Where user input is provided, all functions must be tested with both correct and incorrect input.

Test-driven development

Test-driven development

- Test-driven development (TDD) is an approach to program development in which you inter-leave testing and code development.
- Tests are written before code and ‘passing’ the tests is the critical driver of development.
- You develop code incrementally, along with a test for that increment. You don’t move on to the next increment until the code that you have developed passes its test.
- TDD was introduced as part of agile methods such as Extreme Programming. However, it can also be used in plan-driven development processes.

Test-driven development



TDD process activities

- Start by identifying the increment of functionality that is required. This should normally be small and implementable in a few lines of code.
- Write a test for this functionality and implement this as an automated test.
- Run the test, along with all other tests that have been implemented. Initially, you have not implemented the functionality so the new test will fail.
- Implement the functionality and re-run the test.
- Once all tests run successfully, you move on to implementing the next chunk of functionality.

Benefits of test-driven development

- ✧ Code coverage
  - Every code segment that you write has at least one associated test so all code written has at least one test.
- ✧ Regression testing
  - A regression test suite is developed incrementally as a program is developed.
- ✧ Simplified debugging
  - When a test fails, it should be obvious where the problem lies. The newly written code needs to be checked and modified.
- ✧ System documentation
  - The tests themselves are a form of documentation that describe what the code should be doing.

Regression testing

- Regression testing is testing the system to check that changes have not ‘broken’ previously working code.
- In a manual testing process, regression testing is expensive but, with automated testing, it is simple and straightforward. All tests are rerun every time a change is made to the program.
- Tests must run ‘successfully’ before the change is committed.

Release testing

Release testing

- Release testing is the process of testing a particular release of a system that is intended for use outside of the development team.
- The primary goal of the release testing process is to convince the supplier of the system that it is good enough for use.
  - Release testing, therefore, has to show that the system delivers its specified functionality, performance and dependability, and that it does not fail during normal use.
- Release testing is usually a black-box testing process where tests are only derived from the system specification.

Release testing and system testing

- ✧ Release testing is a form of system testing.
- ✧ Important differences:
  - A separate team that has not been involved in the system development, should be responsible for release testing.
  - System testing by the development team should focus on discovering bugs in the system (defect testing). The objective of release testing is to check that the system meets its requirements and is good enough for external use (validation testing).

Requirements based testing

- Requirements-based testing involves examining each requirement and developing a test or tests for it.
- Mentcare system requirements:
  - If a patient is known to be allergic to any particular medication, then prescription of that medication shall result in a warning message being issued to the system user.
  - If a prescriber chooses to ignore an allergy warning, they shall provide a reason why this has been ignored.

Requirements tests

- Set up a patient record with no known allergies. Prescribe medication for allergies that are known to exist. Check that a warning message is not issued by the system.
- Set up a patient record with a known allergy. Prescribe the medication to that the patient is allergic to, and check that the warning is issued by the system.
- Set up a patient record in which allergies to two or more drugs are recorded. Prescribe both of these drugs separately and check that the correct warning for each drug is issued.
- Prescribe two drugs that the patient is allergic to. Check that two warnings are correctly issued.
- Prescribe a drug that issues a warning and overrule that warning. Check that the system requires the user to provide information explaining why the warning was overruled.

A usage scenario for the Mentcare system

George is a nurse who specializes in mental healthcare. One of his responsibilities is to visit patients at home to check that their treatment is effective and that they are not suffering from medication side effects.

On a day for home visits, George logs into the Mentcare system and uses it to print his schedule of home visits for that day, along with summary information about the patients to be visited. He requests that the records for these patients be downloaded to his laptop. He is prompted for his key phrase to encrypt the records on the laptop.

One of the patients that he visits is Jim, who is being treated with medication for depression. Jim feels that the medication is helping him but believes that it has the side effect of keeping him awake at night. George looks up Jim's record and is prompted for his key phrase to decrypt the record. He checks the drug prescribed and queries its side effects. Sleeplessness is a known side effect so he notes the problem in Jim's record and suggests that he visits the clinic to have his medication changed. Jim agrees so George enters a prompt to call him when he gets back to the clinic to make an appointment with a physician. George ends the consultation and the system re-encrypts Jim's record.

After, finishing his consultations, George returns to the clinic and uploads the records of patients visited to the database. The system generates a call list for George of those patients who He has to contact for follow-up information and make clinic appointments.

Features tested by scenario

- ✧ Authentication by logging on to the system.
- ✧ Downloading and uploading of specified patient records to a laptop.
- ✧ Home visit scheduling.
- ✧ Encryption and decryption of patient records on a mobile device.
- ✧ Record retrieval and modification.
- ✧ Links with the drugs database that maintains side-effect information.
- ✧ The system for call prompting.

Performance testing

- Part of release testing may involve testing the emergent properties of a system, such as performance and reliability.
- Tests should reflect the profile of use of the system.
- Performance tests usually involve planning a series of tests where the load is steadily increased until the system performance becomes unacceptable.
- Stress testing is a form of performance testing where the system is deliberately overloaded to test its failure behaviour.

User testing

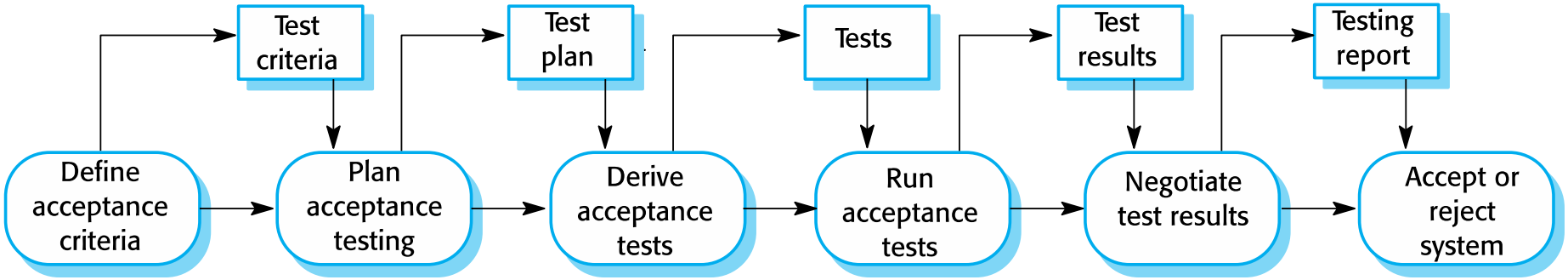
User testing

- User or customer testing is a stage in the testing process in which users or customers provide input and advice on system testing.
- User testing is essential, even when comprehensive system and release testing have been carried out.
  - The reason for this is that influences from the user's working environment have a major effect on the reliability, performance, usability and robustness of a system. These cannot be replicated in a testing environment.

Types of user testing

- Alpha testing
  - Users of the software work with the development team to test the software at the developer's site.
- Beta testing
  - A release of the software is made available to users to allow them to experiment and to raise problems that they discover with the system developers.
- Acceptance testing
  - Customers test a system to decide whether or not it is ready to be accepted from the system developers and deployed in the customer environment. Primarily for custom systems.

The acceptance testing process



Stages in the acceptance testing process

- ✧ Define acceptance criteria
- ✧ Plan acceptance testing
- ✧ Derive acceptance tests
- ✧ Run acceptance tests
- ✧ Negotiate test results
- ✧ Reject/accept system

Agile methods and acceptance testing

- In agile methods, the user/customer is part of the development team and is responsible for making decisions on the acceptability of the system.
- Tests are defined by the user/customer and are integrated with other tests in that they are run automatically when changes are made.
- There is no separate acceptance testing process.
- Main problem here is whether or not the embedded user is ‘typical’ and can represent the interests of all system stakeholders.

Key points

- Testing can only show the presence of errors in a program. It cannot demonstrate that there are no remaining faults.
- Development testing is the responsibility of the software development team. A separate team should be responsible for testing a system before it is released to customers.
- Development testing includes unit testing, in which you test individual objects and methods component testing in which you test related groups of objects and system testing, in which you test partial or complete systems.

Key points

- When testing software, you should try to ‘break’ the software by using experience and guidelines to choose types of test case that have been effective in discovering defects in other systems.
- Wherever possible, you should write automated tests. The tests are embedded in a program that can be run every time a change is made to a system.
- Test-first development is an approach to development where tests are written before the code to be tested.
- Scenario testing involves inventing a typical usage scenario and using this to derive test cases.
- Acceptance testing is a user testing process where the aim is to decide if the software is good enough to be deployed and used in its operational environment.

Chapter 9 – Software Evolution

Topics covered

- ✧ Evolution processes
- ✧ Legacy systems
- ✧ Software maintenance

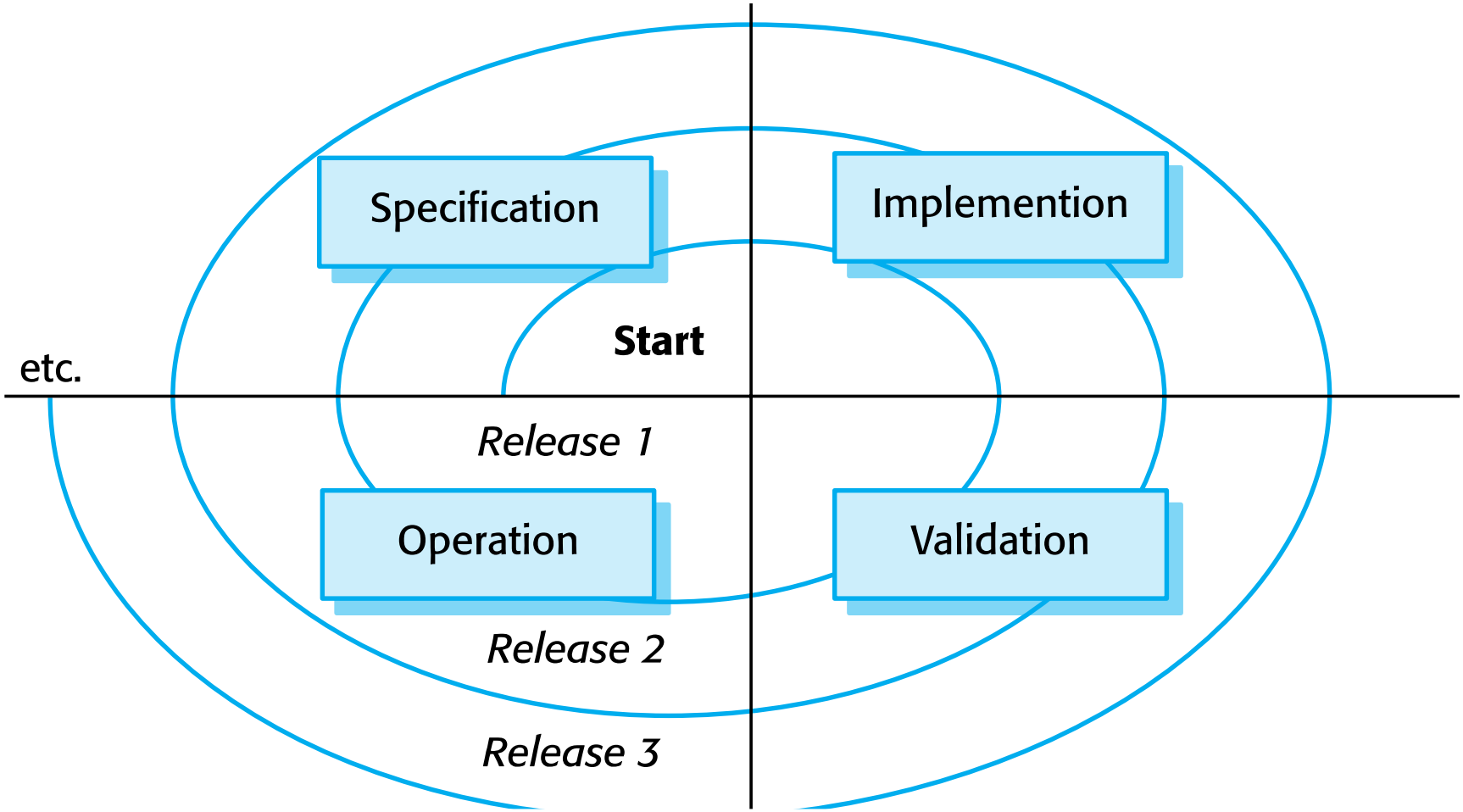
Software change

- Software change is inevitable
  - New requirements emerge when the software is used;
  - The business environment changes;
  - Errors must be repaired;
  - New computers and equipment is added to the system;
  - The performance or reliability of the system may have to be improved.
- A key problem for all organizations is implementing and managing change to their existing software systems.

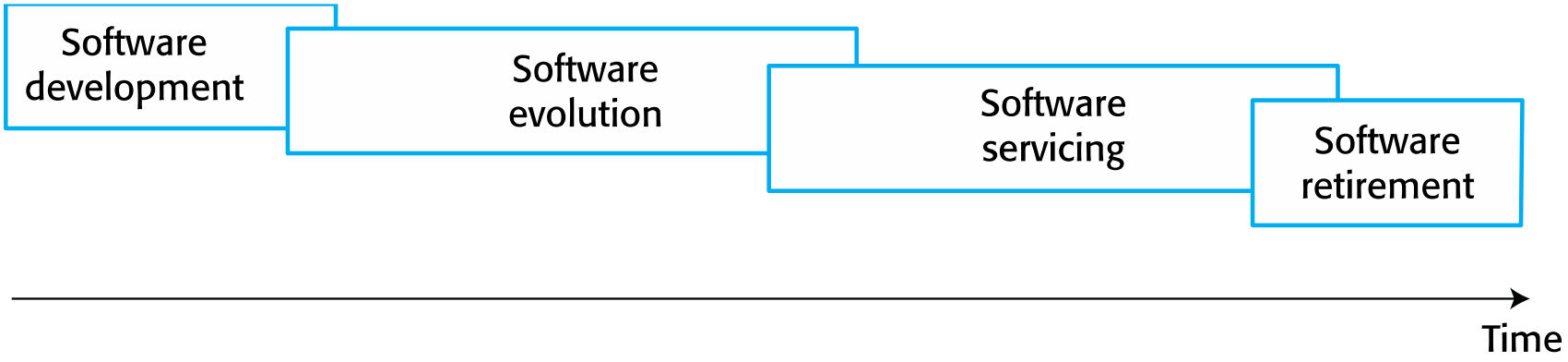
Importance of evolution

- Organisations have huge investments in their software systems - they are critical business assets.
- To maintain the value of these assets to the business, they must be changed and updated.
- The majority of the software budget in large companies is devoted to changing and evolving existing software rather than developing new software.

A spiral model of development and evolution



Evolution and servicing



Evolution and servicing

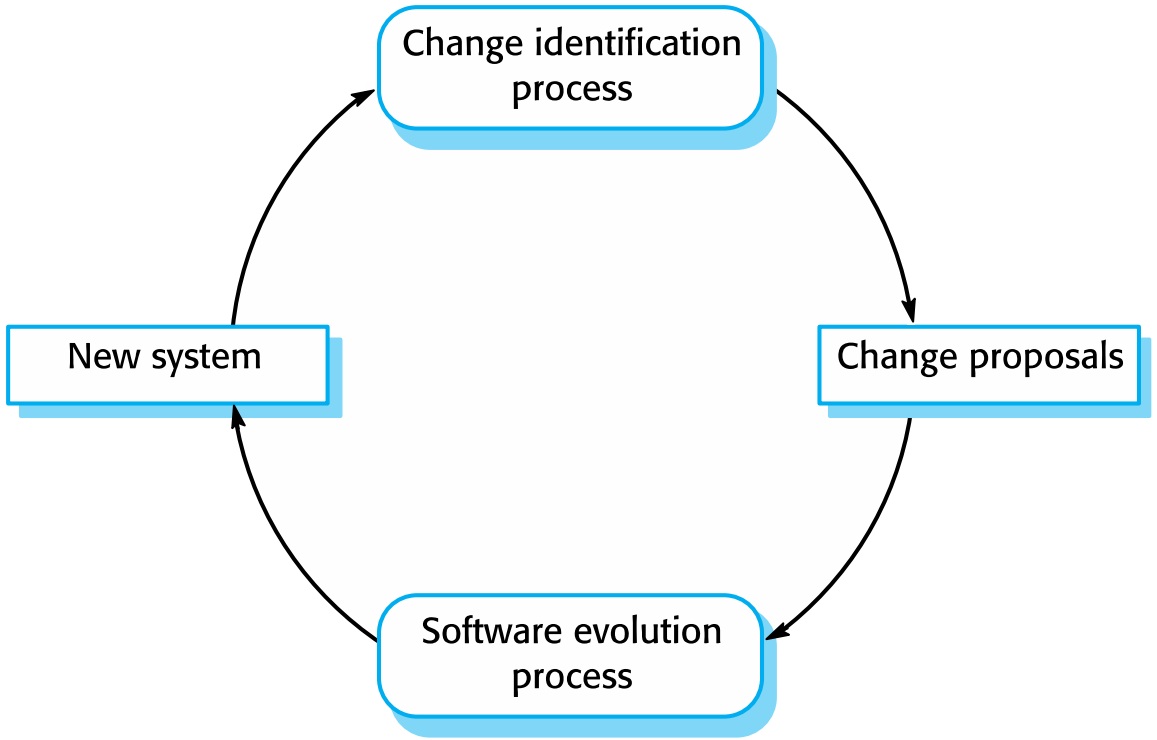
- Evolution
  - The stage in a software system's life cycle where it is in operational use and is evolving as new requirements are proposed and implemented in the system.
- Servicing
  - At this stage, the software remains useful but the only changes made are those required to keep it operational i.e. bug fixes and changes to reflect changes in the software's environment. No new functionality is added.
- Phase-out
  - The software may still be used but no further changes are made to it.

Evolution processes

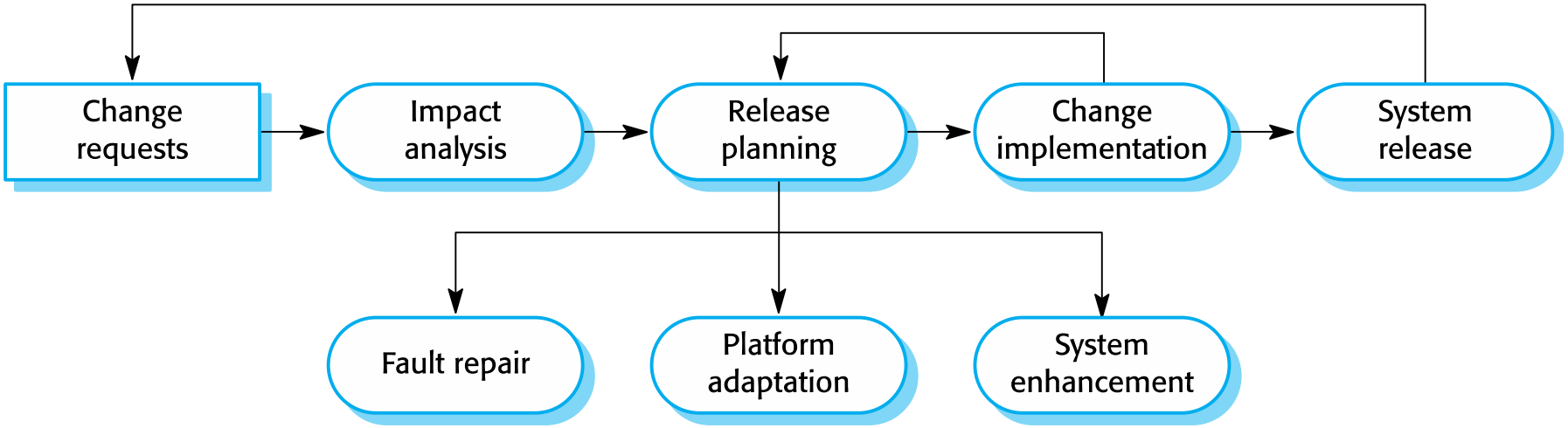
Evolution processes

- Software evolution processes depend on
  - The type of software being maintained;
  - The development processes used;
  - The skills and experience of the people involved.
- Proposals for change are the driver for system evolution.
  - Should be linked with components that are affected by the change, thus allowing the cost and impact of the change to be estimated.
- Change identification and evolution continues throughout the system lifetime.

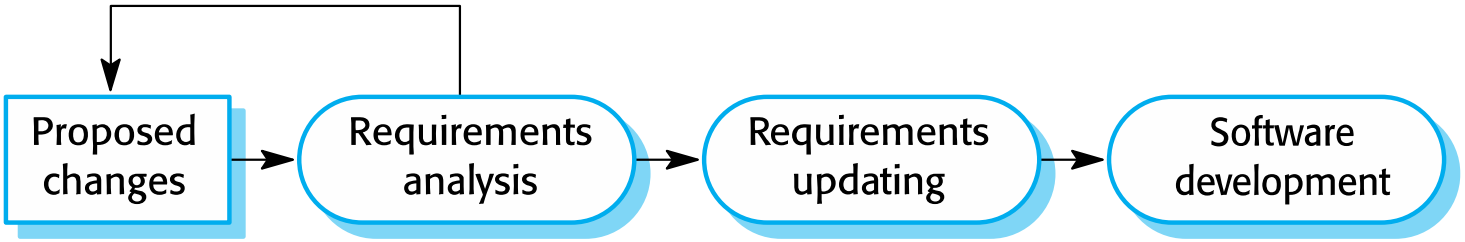
Change identification and evolution processes



The software evolution process



Change implementation



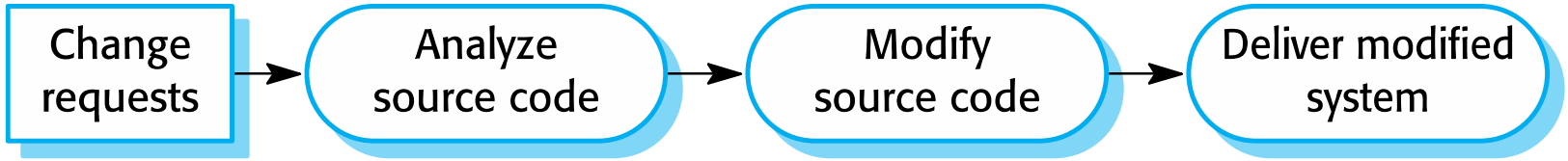
Change implementation

- Iteration of the development process where the revisions to the system are designed, implemented and tested.
- A critical difference is that the first stage of change implementation may involve program understanding, especially if the original system developers are not responsible for the change implementation.
- During the program understanding phase, you have to understand how the program is structured, how it delivers functionality and how the proposed change might affect the program.

Urgent change requests

- Urgent changes may have to be implemented without going through all stages of the software engineering process
  - If a serious system fault has to be repaired to allow normal operation to continue;
  - If changes to the system's environment (e.g. an OS upgrade) have unexpected effects;
  - If there are business changes that require a very rapid response (e.g. the release of a competing product).

The emergency repair process



Agile methods and evolution

- Agile methods are based on incremental development so the transition from development to evolution is a seamless one.
  - Evolution is simply a continuation of the development process based on frequent system releases.
- Automated regression testing is particularly valuable when changes are made to a system.
- Changes may be expressed as additional user stories.

Handover problems

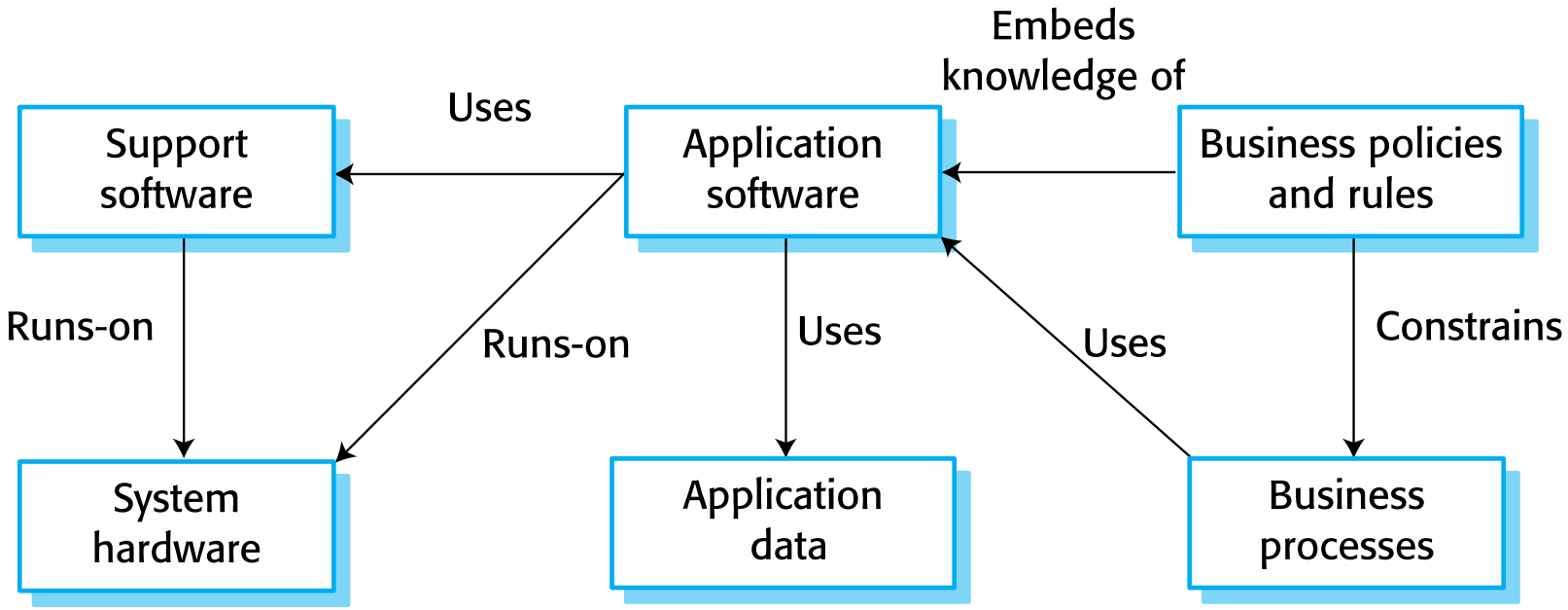
- Where the development team have used an agile approach but the evolution team is unfamiliar with agile methods and prefer a plan-based approach.
  - The evolution team may expect detailed documentation to support evolution and this is not produced in agile processes.
- Where a plan-based approach has been used for development but the evolution team prefer to use agile methods.
  - The evolution team may have to start from scratch developing automated tests and the code in the system may not have been refactored and simplified as is expected in agile development.

Legacy systems

Legacy systems

- Legacy systems are older systems that rely on languages and technology that are no longer used for new systems development.
- Legacy software may be dependent on older hardware, such as mainframe computers and may have associated legacy processes and procedures.
- Legacy systems are not just software systems but are broader socio-technical systems that include hardware, software, libraries and other supporting software and business processes.

The elements of a legacy system



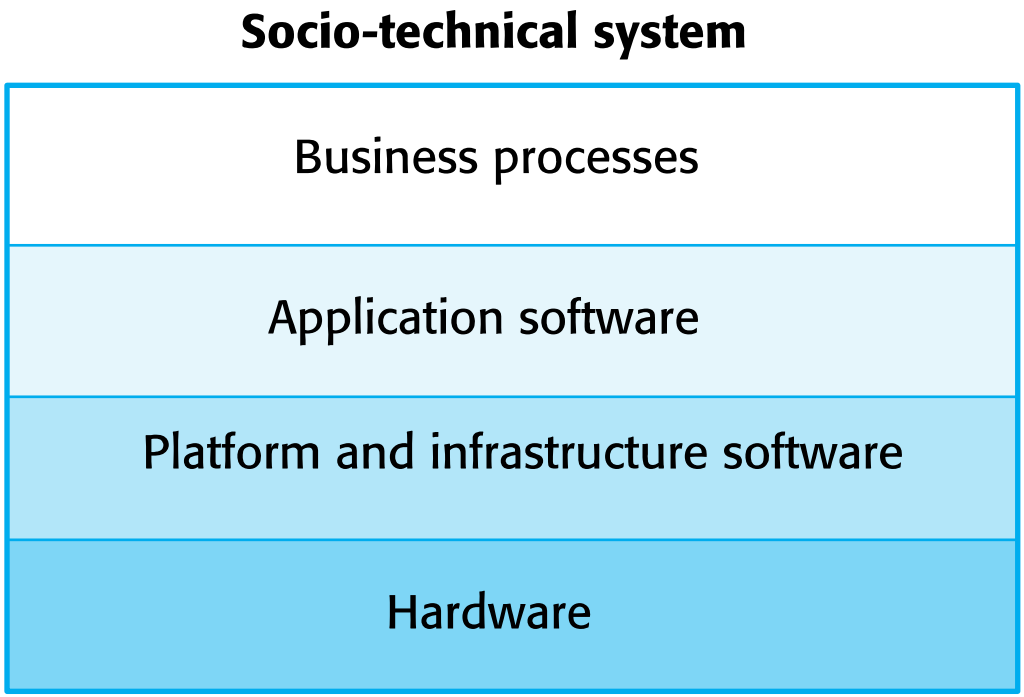
Legacy system components

- *System hardware* Legacy systems may have been written for hardware that is no longer available.
- *Support software* The legacy system may rely on a range of support software, which may be obsolete or unsupported.
- *Application software* The application system that provides the business services is usually made up of a number of application programs.
- *Application data* These are data that are processed by the application system. They may be inconsistent, duplicated or held in different databases.

Legacy system components

- *Business processes* These are processes that are used in the business to achieve some business objective.
- Business processes may be designed around a legacy system and constrained by the functionality that it provides.
- *Business policies and rules* These are definitions of how the business should be carried out and constraints on the business. Use of the legacy application system may be embedded in these policies and rules.

Legacy system layers



Legacy system replacement

- Legacy system replacement is risky and expensive so businesses continue to use these systems
- System replacement is risky for a number of reasons
  - Lack of complete system specification
  - Tight integration of system and business processes
  - Undocumented business rules embedded in the legacy system
  - New software development may be late and/or over budget

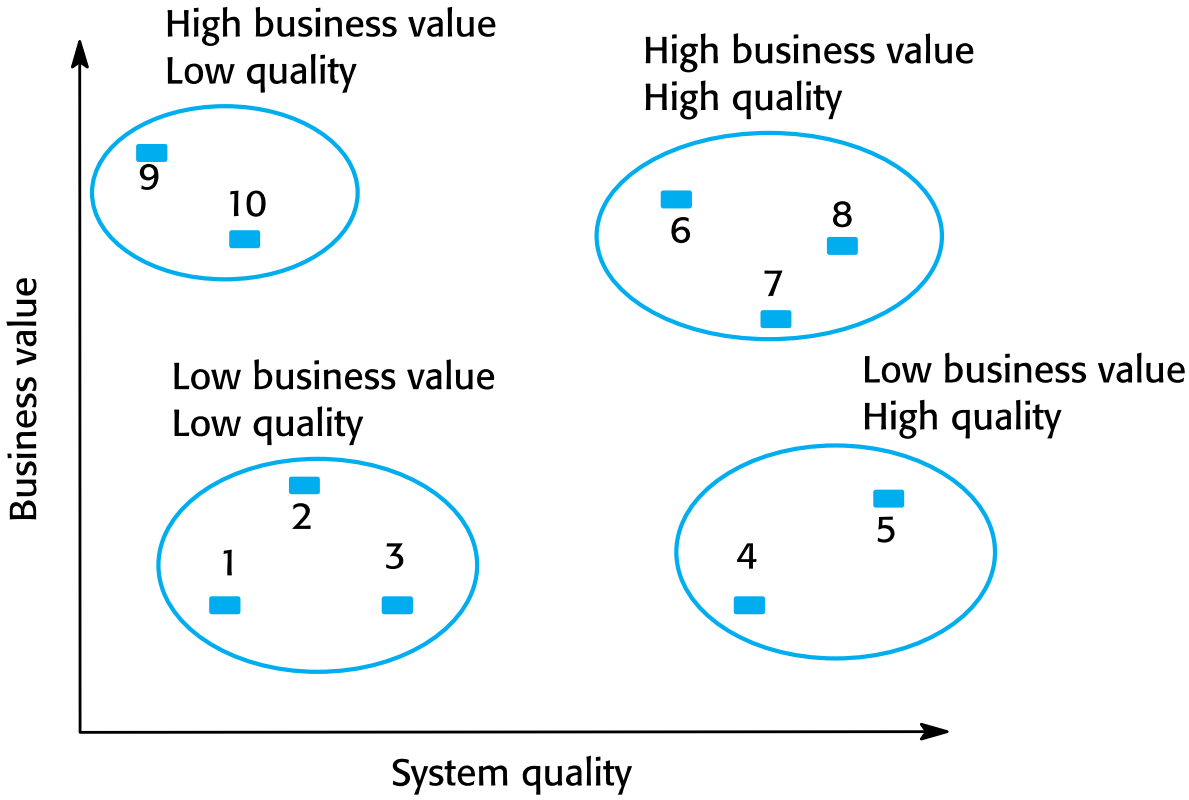
Legacy system change

- Legacy systems are expensive to change for a number of reasons:
  - No consistent programming style
  - Use of obsolete programming languages with few people available with these language skills
  - Inadequate system documentation
  - System structure degradation
  - Program optimizations may make them hard to understand
  - Data errors, duplication and inconsistency

Legacy system management

- Organisations that rely on legacy systems must choose a strategy for evolving these systems
  - Scrap the system completely and modify business processes so that it is no longer required;
  - Continue maintaining the system;
  - Transform the system by re-engineering to improve its maintainability;
  - Replace the system with a new system.
- The strategy chosen should depend on the system quality and its business value.

Figure 9.13 An example of a legacy system assessment



Legacy system categories

- Low quality, low business value
  - These systems should be scrapped.
- Low-quality, high-business value
  - These make an important business contribution but are expensive to maintain. Should be re-engineered or replaced if a suitable system is available.
- High-quality, low-business value
  - Replace with COTS, scrap completely or maintain.
- High-quality, high business value
  - Continue in operation using normal system maintenance.

Business value assessment

- Assessment should take different viewpoints into account
  - System end-users;
  - Business customers;
  - Line managers;
  - IT managers;
  - Senior managers.
- Interview different stakeholders and collate results.

Issues in business value assessment

- The use of the system
  - If systems are only used occasionally or by a small number of people, they may have a low business value.
- The business processes that are supported
  - A system may have a low business value if it forces the use of inefficient business processes.
- System dependability
  - If a system is not dependable and the problems directly affect business customers, the system has a low business value.
- The system outputs
  - If the business depends on system outputs, then the system has a high business value.

System quality assessment

- Business process assessment
  - How well does the business process support the current goals of the business?
- Environment assessment
  - How effective is the system's environment and how expensive is it to maintain?
- Application assessment
  - What is the quality of the application software system?

Business process assessment

- Use a viewpoint-oriented approach and seek answers from system stakeholders
  - Is there a defined process model and is it followed?
  - Do different parts of the organisation use different processes for the same function?
  - How has the process been adapted?
  - What are the relationships with other business processes and are these necessary?
  - Is the process effectively supported by the legacy application software?
- Example - a travel ordering system may have a low business value because of the widespread use of web-based ordering.

Factors used in environment assessment

Factor	Questions
Supplier stability	Is the supplier still in existence? Is the supplier financially stable and likely to continue in existence? If the supplier is no longer in business, does someone else maintain the systems?
Failure rate	Does the hardware have a high rate of reported failures? Does the support software crash and force system restarts?
Age	How old is the hardware and software? The older the hardware and support software, the more obsolete it will be. It may still function correctly but there could be significant economic and business benefits to moving to a more modern system.
Performance	Is the performance of the system adequate? Do performance problems have a significant effect on system users?

Factors used in environment assessment

Factor	Questions
Support requirements	What local support is required by the hardware and software? If there are high costs associated with this support, it may be worth considering system replacement.
Maintenance costs	What are the costs of hardware maintenance and support software licences? Older hardware may have higher maintenance costs than modern systems. Support software may have high annual licensing costs.
Interoperability	Are there problems interfacing the system to other systems? Can compilers, for example, be used with current versions of the operating system? Is hardware emulation required?

Factors used in application assessment

Factor	Questions
Understandability	How difficult is it to understand the source code of the current system? How complex are the control structures that are used? Do variables have meaningful names that reflect their function?
Documentation	What system documentation is available? Is the documentation complete, consistent, and current?
Data	Is there an explicit data model for the system? To what extent is data duplicated across files? Is the data used by the system up to date and consistent?
Performance	Is the performance of the application adequate? Do performance problems have a significant effect on system users?

Factors used in application assessment

Factor	Questions
Programming language	Are modern compilers available for the programming language used to develop the system? Is the programming language still used for new system development?
Configuration management	Are all versions of all parts of the system managed by a configuration management system? Is there an explicit description of the versions of components that are used in the current system?
Test data	Does test data for the system exist? Is there a record of regression tests carried out when new features have been added to the system?
Personnel skills	Are there people available who have the skills to maintain the application? Are there people available who have experience with the system?

System measurement

- You may collect quantitative data to make an assessment of the quality of the application system
  - The number of system change requests; The higher this accumulated value, the lower the quality of the system.
  - The number of different user interfaces used by the system; The more interfaces, the more likely it is that there will be inconsistencies and redundancies in these interfaces.
  - The volume of data used by the system. As the volume of data (number of files, size of database, etc.) processed by the system increases, so too do the inconsistencies and errors in that data.
  - Cleaning up old data is a very expensive and time-consuming process

Software maintenance

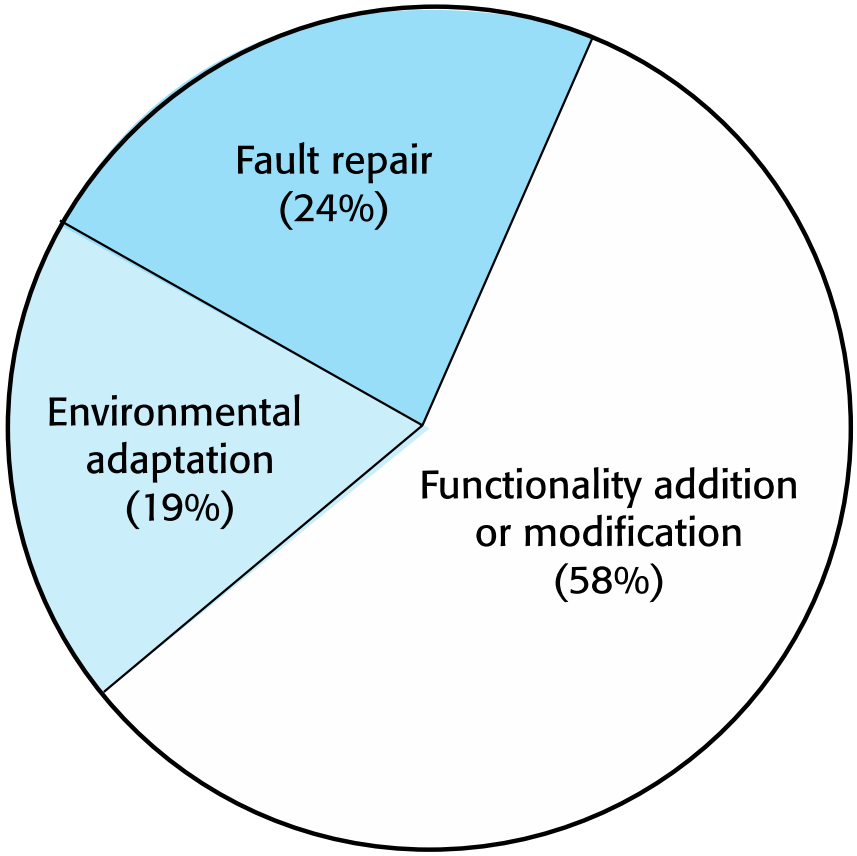
Software maintenance

- Modifying a program after it has been put into use.
- The term is mostly used for changing custom software. Generic software products are said to evolve to create new versions.
- Maintenance does not normally involve major changes to the system's architecture.
- Changes are implemented by modifying existing components and adding new components to the system.

Types of maintenance

- ✧ Fault repairs
  - Changing a system to fix bugs/vulnerabilities and correct deficiencies in the way meets its requirements.
- ✧ Environmental adaptation
  - Maintenance to adapt software to a different operating environment
  - Changing a system so that it operates in a different environment (computer, OS, etc.) from its initial implementation.
- ✧ Functionality addition and modification
  - Modifying the system to satisfy new requirements.

Maintenance effort distribution



Maintenance costs

- Usually greater than development costs (2* to 100* depending on the application).
- Affected by both technical and non-technical factors.
- Increases as software is maintained. Maintenance corrupts the software structure so makes further maintenance more difficult.
- Ageing software can have high support costs (e.g. old languages, compilers etc.).

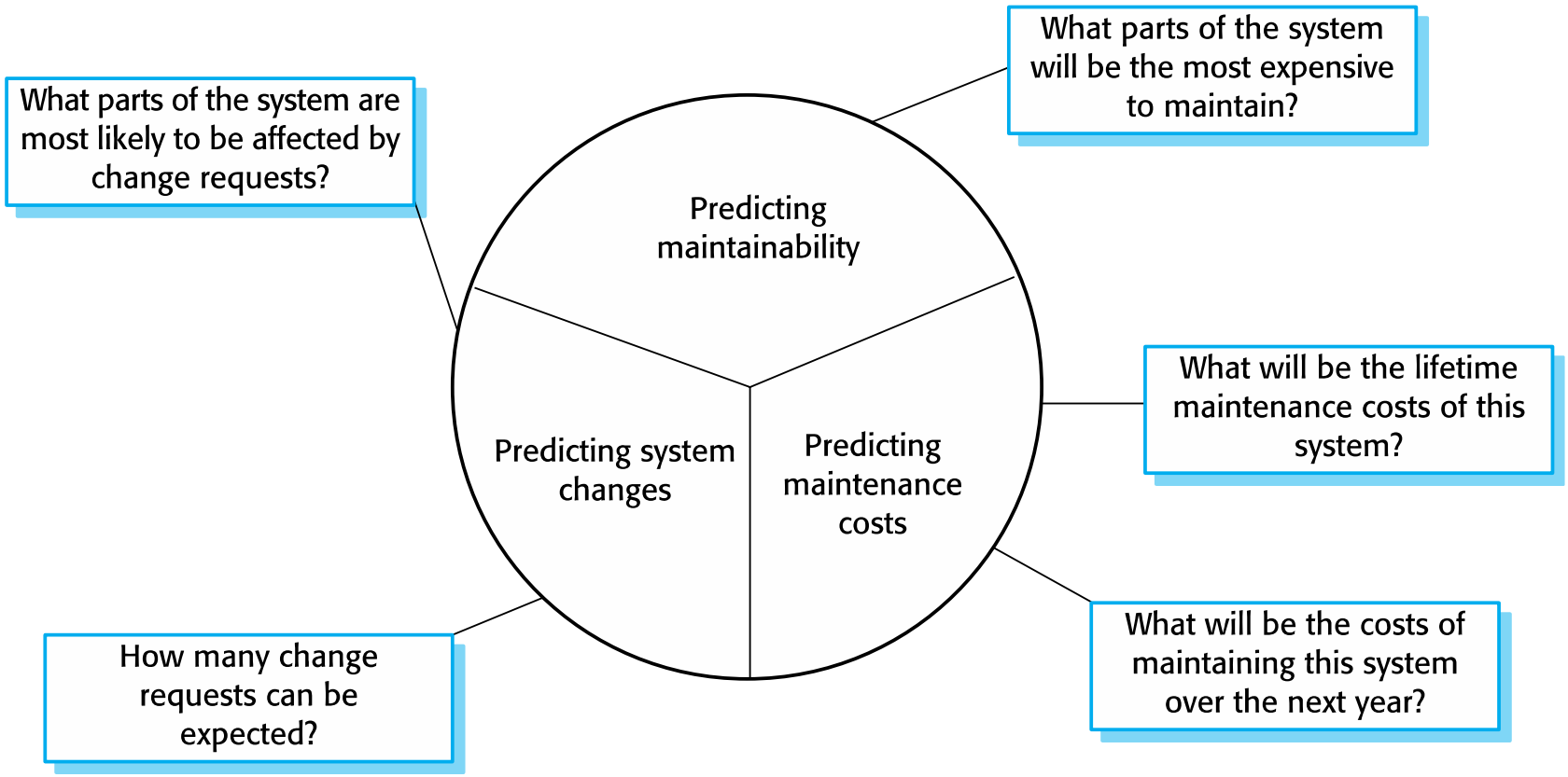
Maintenance costs

- It is usually more expensive to add new features to a system during maintenance than it is to add the same features during development
  - A new team has to understand the programs being maintained
  - Separating maintenance and development means there is no incentive for the development team to write maintainable software
  - Program maintenance work is unpopular
    - Maintenance staff are often inexperienced and have limited domain knowledge.
  - As programs age, their structure degrades and they become harder to change

Maintenance prediction

- Maintenance prediction is concerned with assessing which parts of the system may cause problems and have high maintenance costs
  - Change acceptance depends on the maintainability of the components affected by the change;
  - Implementing changes degrades the system and reduces its maintainability;
  - Maintenance costs depend on the number of changes and costs of change depend on maintainability.

Maintenance prediction



Change prediction

- Predicting the number of changes requires and understanding of the relationships between a system and its environment.
- Tightly coupled systems require changes whenever the environment is changed.
- Factors influencing this relationship are
  - Number and complexity of system interfaces;
  - Number of inherently volatile system requirements;
  - The business processes where the system is used.

Complexity metrics

- Predictions of maintainability can be made by assessing the complexity of system components.
- Studies have shown that most maintenance effort is spent on a relatively small number of system components.
- Complexity depends on
  - Complexity of control structures;
  - Complexity of data structures;
  - Object, method (procedure) and module size.

Process metrics

- Process metrics may be used to assess maintainability
  - Number of requests for corrective maintenance;
  - Average time required for impact analysis;
  - Average time taken to implement a change request;
  - Number of outstanding change requests.
- If any or all of these is increasing, this may indicate a decline in maintainability.

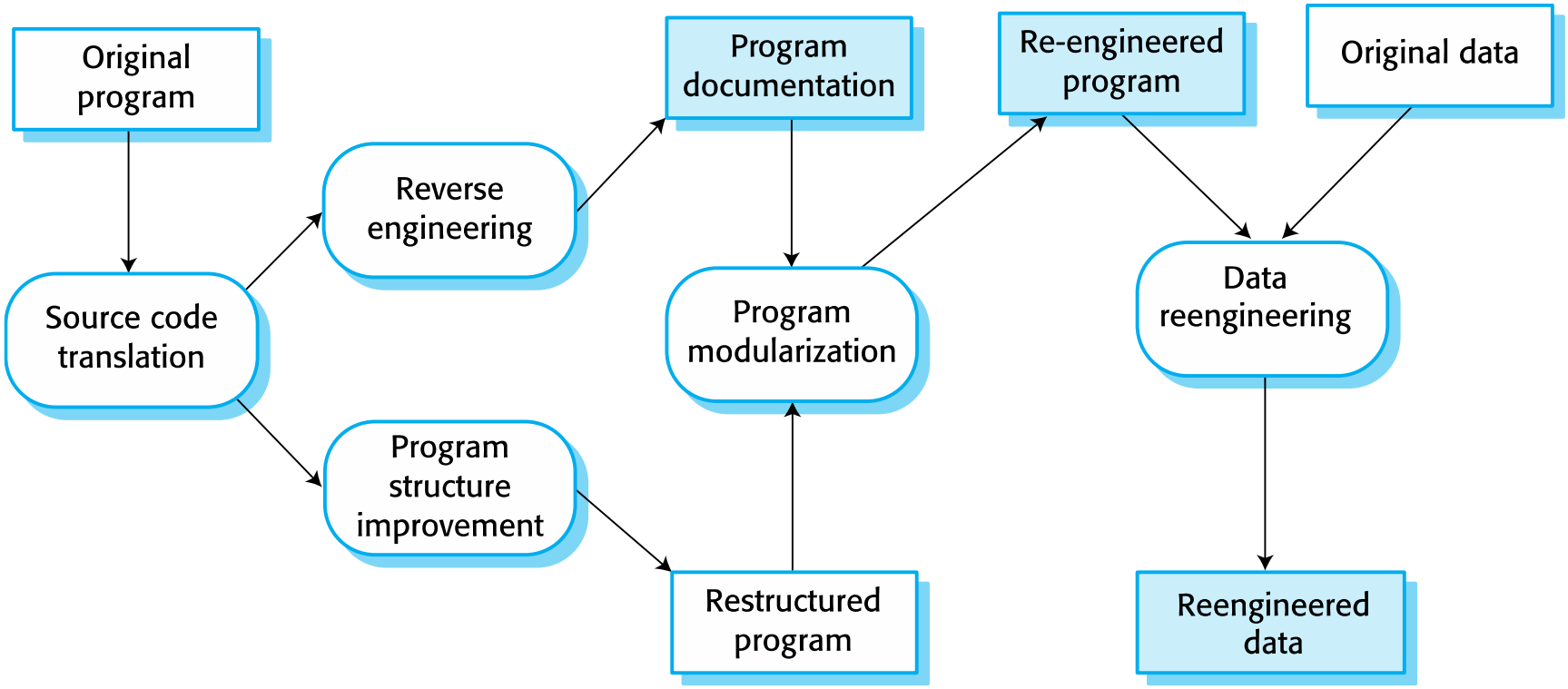
Software reengineering

- Restructuring or rewriting part or all of a legacy system without changing its functionality.
- Applicable where some but not all sub-systems of a larger system require frequent maintenance.
- Reengineering involves adding effort to make them easier to maintain. The system may be re-structured and re-documented.

Advantages of reengineering

- ✧ Reduced risk
  - There is a high risk in new software development. There may be development problems, staffing problems and specification problems.
- ✧ Reduced cost
  - The cost of re-engineering is often significantly less than the costs of developing new software.

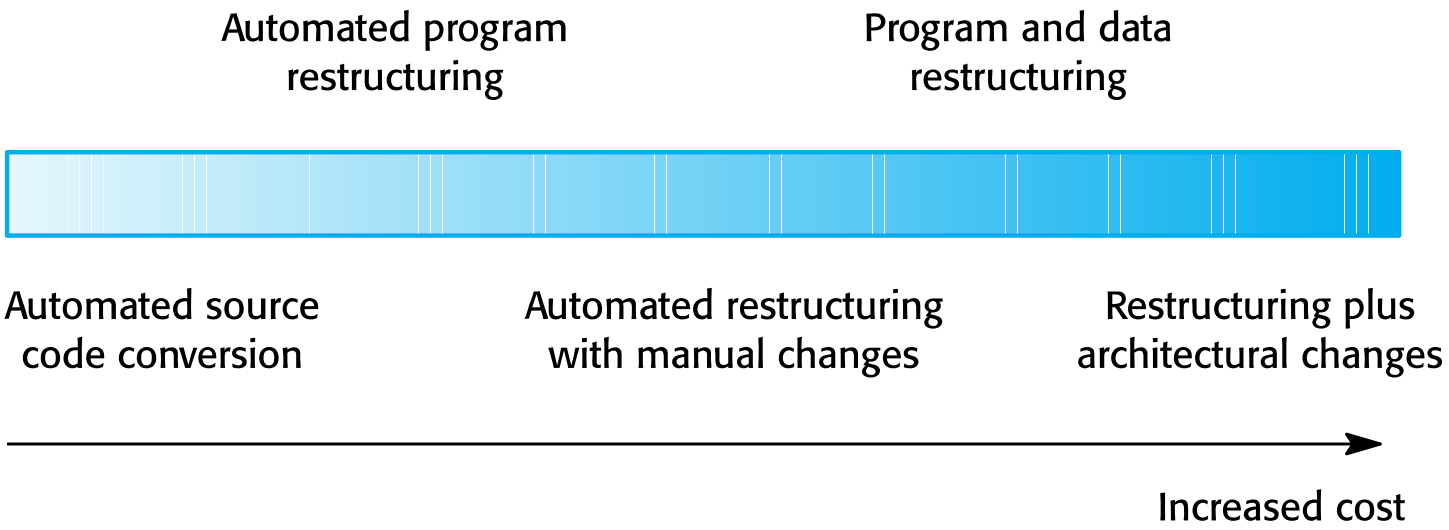
The reengineering process



Reengineering process activities

- ✧ Source code translation
  - Convert code to a new language.
- ✧ Reverse engineering
  - Analyse the program to understand it;
- ✧ Program structure improvement
  - Restructure automatically for understandability;
- ✧ Program modularisation
  - Reorganise the program structure;
- ✧ Data reengineering
  - Clean-up and restructure system data.

Reengineering approaches



Reengineering cost factors

- The quality of the software to be reengineered.
- The tool support available for reengineering.
- The extent of the data conversion which is required.
- The availability of expert staff for reengineering.
  - This can be a problem with old systems based on technology that is no longer widely used.

Refactoring

- Refactoring is the process of making improvements to a program to slow down degradation through change.
- You can think of refactoring as ‘preventative maintenance’ that reduces the problems of future change.
- Refactoring involves modifying a program to improve its structure, reduce its complexity or make it easier to understand.
- When you refactor a program, you should not add functionality but rather concentrate on program improvement.

Refactoring and reengineering

- Re-engineering takes place after a system has been maintained for some time and maintenance costs are increasing. You use automated tools to process and re-engineer a legacy system to create a new system that is more maintainable.
- Refactoring is a continuous process of improvement throughout the development and evolution process. It is intended to avoid the structure and code degradation that increases the costs and difficulties of maintaining a system.

‘Bad smells’ in program code

- ✧ Duplicate code
  - The same or very similar code may be included at different places in a program. This can be removed and implemented as a single method or function that is called as required.
- ✧ Long methods
  - If a method is too long, it should be redesigned as a number of shorter methods.
- ✧ Switch (case) statements
  - These often involve duplication, where the switch depends on the type of a value. The switch statements may be scattered around a program. In object-oriented languages, you can often use polymorphism to achieve the same thing.

‘Bad smells’ in program code

- Data clumping
  - Data clumps occur when the same group of data items (fields in classes, parameters in methods) re-occur in several places in a program. These can often be replaced with an object that encapsulates all of the data.
- Speculative generality
  - This occurs when developers include generality in a program in case it is required in the future. This can often simply be removed.

Key points

- Software development and evolution can be thought of as an integrated, iterative process that can be represented using a spiral model.
- For custom systems, the costs of software maintenance usually exceed the software development costs.
- The process of software evolution is driven by requests for changes and includes change impact analysis, release planning and change implementation.
- Legacy systems are older software systems, developed using obsolete software and hardware technologies, that remain useful for a business.

Key points

- It is often cheaper and less risky to maintain a legacy system than to develop a replacement system using modern technology.
- The business value of a legacy system and the quality of the application should be assessed to help decide if a system should be replaced, transformed or maintained.
- There are 3 types of software maintenance, namely bug fixing, modifying software to work in a new environment, and implementing new or changed requirements.

Key points

- Software re-engineering is concerned with re-structuring and re-documenting software to make it easier to understand and change.
- Refactoring, making program changes that preserve functionality, is a form of preventative maintenance.

Chapter 10 – Dependable systems

Topics covered

- ✧ Dependability properties
- ✧ Sociotechnical systems
- ✧ Redundancy and diversity
- ✧ Dependable processes
- ✧ Formal methods and dependability

System dependability

- For many computer-based systems, the most important system property is the dependability of the system.
- The dependability of a system reflects the user's degree of trust in that system. It reflects the extent of the user's confidence that it will operate as users expect and that it will not 'fail' in normal use.
- Dependability covers the related systems attributes of reliability, availability and security. These are all inter-dependent.

Importance of dependability

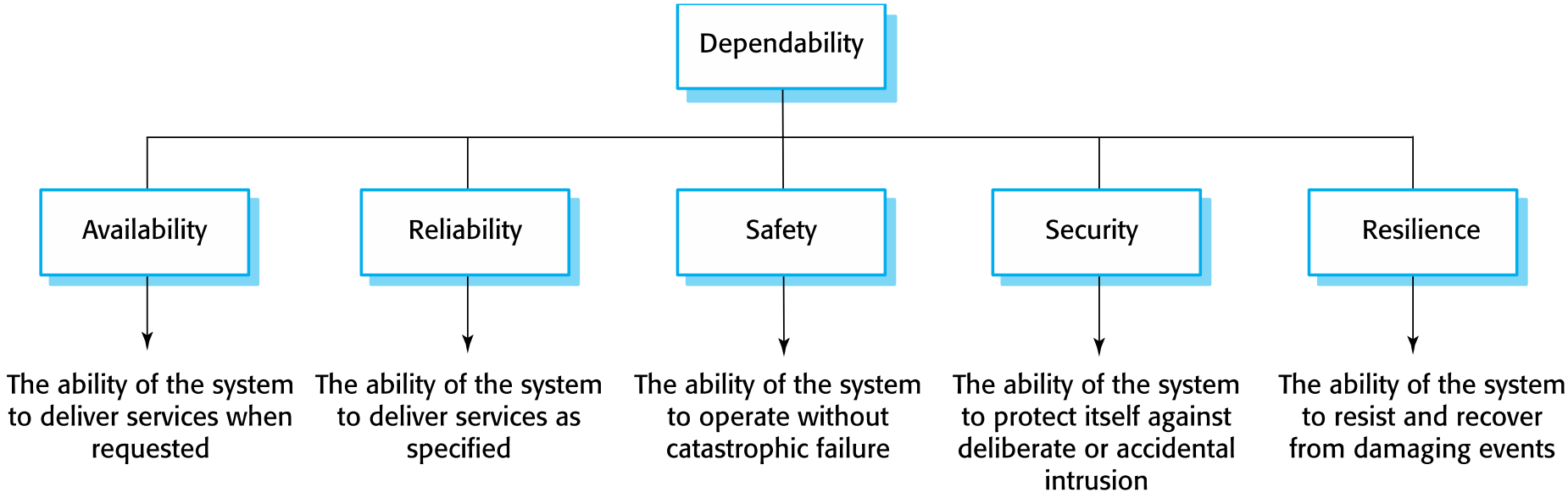
- System failures may have widespread effects with large numbers of people affected by the failure.
- Systems that are not dependable and are unreliable, unsafe or insecure may be rejected by their users.
- The costs of system failure may be very high if the failure leads to economic losses or physical damage.
- Undependable systems may cause information loss with a high consequent recovery cost.

Causes of failure

- Hardware failure
  - Hardware fails because of design and manufacturing errors or because components have reached the end of their natural life.
- Software failure
  - Software fails due to errors in its specification, design or implementation.
- Operational failure
  - Human operators make mistakes. Now perhaps the largest single cause of system failures in socio-technical systems.

Dependability properties

The principal dependability properties



Principal properties

- Availability
  - The probability that the system will be up and running and able to deliver useful services to users.
- Reliability
  - The probability that the system will correctly deliver services as expected by users.
- Safety
  - A judgment of how likely it is that the system will cause damage to people or its environment.

Principal properties

- Security
  - A judgment of how likely it is that the system can resist accidental or deliberate intrusions.
- Resilience
  - A judgment of how well a system can maintain the continuity of its critical services in the presence of disruptive events such as equipment failure and cyberattacks.

Other dependability properties

- Repairability
  - Reflects the extent to which the system can be repaired in the event of a failure
- Maintainability
  - Reflects the extent to which the system can be adapted to new requirements;
- Error tolerance
  - Reflects the extent to which user input errors can be avoided and tolerated.

Dependability attribute dependencies

- Safe system operation depends on the system being available and operating reliably.
- A system may be unreliable because its data has been corrupted by an external attack.
- Denial of service attacks on a system are intended to make it unavailable.
- If a system is infected with a virus, you cannot be confident in its reliability or safety.

Dependability achievement

- Avoid the introduction of accidental errors when developing the system.
- Design V & V processes that are effective in discovering residual errors in the system.
- Design systems to be fault tolerant so that they can continue in operation when faults occur
- Design protection mechanisms that guard against external attacks.

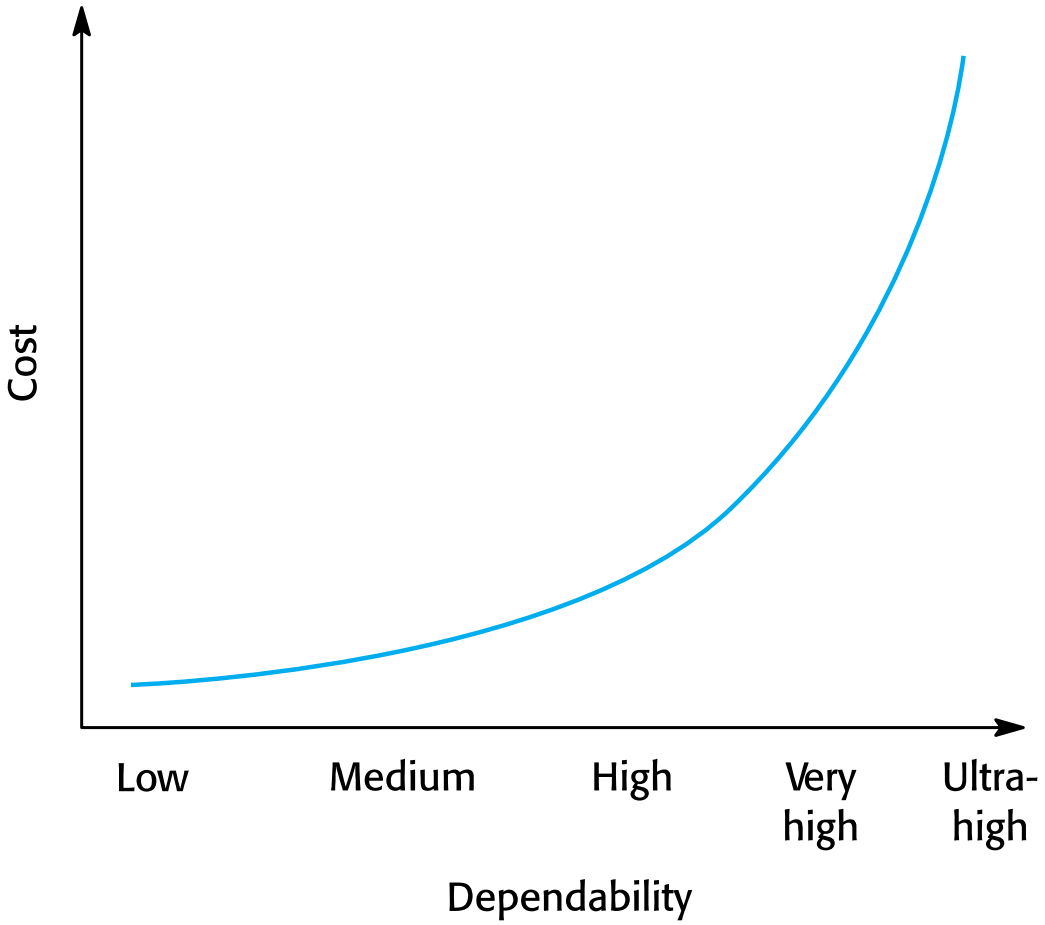
Dependability achievement

- Configure the system correctly for its operating environment.
- Include system capabilities to recognise and resist cyberattacks.
- Include recovery mechanisms to help restore normal system service after a failure.

Dependability costs

- Dependability costs tend to increase exponentially as increasing levels of dependability are required.
- There are two reasons for this
  - The use of more expensive development techniques and hardware that are required to achieve the higher levels of dependability.
  - The increased testing and system validation that is required to convince the system client and regulators that the required levels of dependability have been achieved.

Cost/dependability curve



Dependability economics

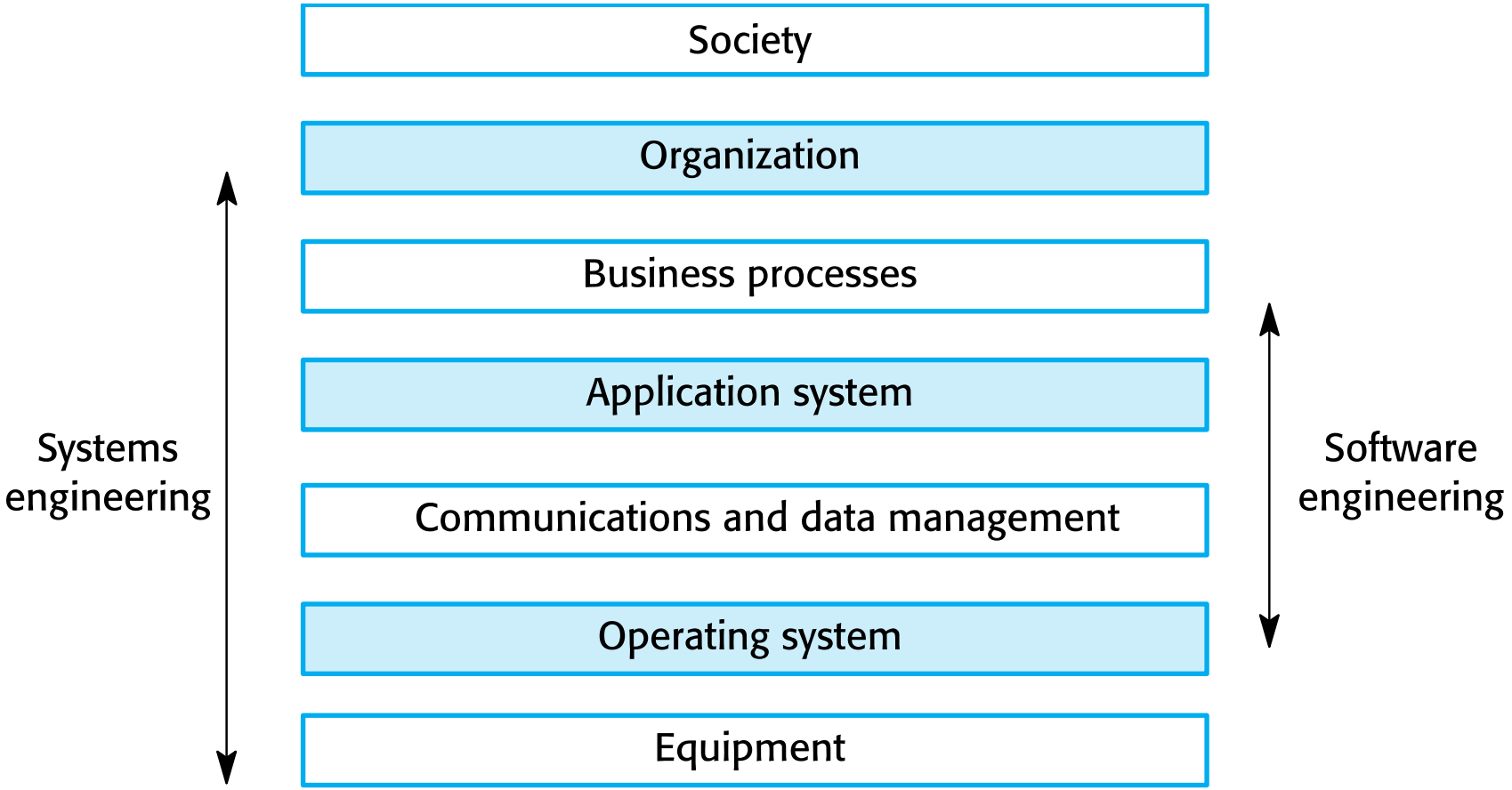
- Because of very high costs of dependability achievement, it may be more cost effective to accept untrustworthy systems and pay for failure costs
- However, this depends on social and political factors. A reputation for products that can't be trusted may lose future business
- Depends on system type - for business systems in particular, modest levels of dependability may be adequate

Sociotechnical systems

Systems and software

- Software engineering is not an isolated activity but is part of a broader systems engineering process.
- Software systems are therefore not isolated systems but are essential components of broader systems that have a human, social or organizational purpose.
- Example
  - The wilderness weather system is part of broader weather recording and forecasting systems
  - These include hardware and software, forecasting processes, system users, the organizations that depend on weather forecasts, etc.

The sociotechnical systems stack



Layers in the STS stack

- Equipment
  - Hardware devices, some of which may be computers. Most devices will include an embedded system of some kind.
- Operating system
  - Provides a set of common facilities for higher levels in the system.
- Communications and data management
  - Middleware that provides access to remote systems and databases.
- Application systems
  - Specific functionality to meet some organization requirements.

Layers in the STS stack

- Business processes
  - A set of processes involving people and computer systems that support the activities of the business.
- Organizations
  - Higher level strategic business activities that affect the operation of the system.
- Society
  - Laws, regulation and culture that affect the operation of the system.

Holistic system design

- There are interactions and dependencies between the layers in a system and changes at one level ripple through the other levels
  - Example: Change in regulations (society) leads to changes in business processes and application software.
- For dependability, a systems perspective is essential
  - Contain software failures within the enclosing layers of the STS stack.
  - Understand how faults and failures in adjacent layers may affect the software in a system.

Regulation and compliance

- The general model of economic organization that is now almost universal in the world is that privately owned companies offer goods and services and make a profit on these.
- To ensure the safety of their citizens, most governments regulate (limit the freedom of) privately owned companies so that they must follow certain standards to ensure that their products are safe and secure.

Regulated systems

- Many critical systems are regulated systems, which means that their use must be approved by an external regulator before the systems go into service.
  - Nuclear systems
  - Air traffic control systems
  - Medical devices
- A safety and dependability case has to be approved by the regulator. Therefore, critical systems development has to create the evidence to convince a regulator that the system is dependable, safe and secure.

Safety regulation

- Regulation and compliance (following the rules) applies to the sociotechnical system as a whole and not simply the software element of that system.
- Safety-related systems may have to be certified as safe by the regulator.
- To achieve certification, companies that are developing safety-critical systems have to produce an extensive safety case that shows that rules and regulations have been followed.
- It can be as expensive develop the documentation for certification as it is to develop the system itself.

Redundancy and diversity

Redundancy and diversity

- Redundancy
  - Keep more than a single version of critical components so that if one fails then a backup is available.
- Diversity
  - Provide the same functionality in different ways in different components so that they will not fail in the same way.
- Redundant and diverse components should be independent so that they will not suffer from 'common-mode' failures
  - For example, components implemented in different programming languages means that a compiler fault will not affect all of them.

Diversity and redundancy examples

- Redundancy. Where availability is critical (e.g. in e-commerce systems), companies normally keep backup servers and switch to these automatically if failure occurs.
- Diversity. To provide resilience against external attacks, different servers may be implemented using different operating systems (e.g. Windows and Linux)

Process diversity and redundancy

- Process activities, such as validation, should not depend on a single approach, such as testing, to validate the system.
- Redundant and diverse process activities are important especially for verification and validation.
- Multiple, different process activities the complement each other and allow for cross-checking help to avoid process errors, which may lead to errors in the software.

Problems with redundancy and diversity

- Adding diversity and redundancy to a system increases the system complexity.
- This can increase the chances of error because of unanticipated interactions and dependencies between the redundant system components.
- Some engineers therefore advocate simplicity and extensive V & V as a more effective route to software dependability.
- Airbus FCS architecture is redundant/diverse; Boeing 777 FCS architecture has no software diversity

Dependable processes

Dependable processes

- To ensure a minimal number of software faults, it is important to have a well-defined, repeatable software process.
- A well-defined repeatable process is one that does not depend entirely on individual skills; rather can be enacted by different people.
- Regulators use information about the process to check if good software engineering practice has been used.
- For fault detection, it is clear that the process activities should include significant effort devoted to verification and validation.

Dependable process characteristics

- ✧ Explicitly defined
  - A process that has a defined process model that is used to drive the software production process. Data must be collected during the process that proves that the development team has followed the process as defined in the process model.
- ✧ Repeatable
  - A process that does not rely on individual interpretation and judgment. The process can be repeated across projects and with different team members, irrespective of who is involved in the development.

Attributes of dependable processes

Process characteristic	Description
Auditable	The process should be understandable by people apart from process participants, who can check that process standards are being followed and make suggestions for process improvement.
Diverse	The process should include redundant and diverse verification and validation activities.
Documentable	The process should have a defined process model that sets out the activities in the process and the documentation that is to be produced during these activities.
Robust	The process should be able to recover from failures of individual process activities.
Standardized	A comprehensive set of software development standards covering software production and documentation should be available.

Dependable process activities

- Requirements reviews to check that the requirements are, as far as possible, complete and consistent.
- Requirements management to ensure that changes to the requirements are controlled and that the impact of proposed requirements changes is understood.
- Formal specification, where a mathematical model of the software is created and analyzed.
- System modeling, where the software design is explicitly documented as a set of graphical models, and the links between the requirements and these models are documented.

Dependable process activities

- Design and program inspections, where the different descriptions of the system are inspected and checked by different people.
- Static analysis, where automated checks are carried out on the source code of the program.
- Test planning and management, where a comprehensive set of system tests is designed.
  - The testing process has to be carefully managed to demonstrate that these tests provide coverage of the system requirements and have been correctly applied in the testing process.

Dependable processes and agility

- Dependable software often requires certification so both process and product documentation has to be produced.
- Up-front requirements analysis is also essential to discover requirements and requirements conflicts that may compromise the safety and security of the system.
- These conflict with the general approach in agile development of co-development of the requirements and the system and minimizing documentation.

Dependable processes and agility

- An agile process may be defined that incorporates techniques such as iterative development, test-first development and user involvement in the development team.
- So long as the team follows that process and documents their actions, agile methods can be used.
- However, additional documentation and planning is essential so ‘pure agile’ is impractical for dependable systems engineering.

Formal methods and dependability

Formal specification

- Formal methods are approaches to software development that are based on mathematical representation and analysis of software.
- Formal methods include
  - Formal specification;
  - Specification analysis and proof;
  - Transformational development;
  - Program verification.
- Formal methods significantly reduce some types of programming errors and can be cost-effective for dependable systems engineering.

Formal approaches

- ✧ Verification-based approaches
  - Different representations of a software system such as a specification and a program implementing that specification are proved to be equivalent.
  - This demonstrates the absence of implementation errors.
- ✧ Refinement-based approaches
  - A representation of a system is systematically transformed into another, lower-level represention e.g. a specification is transformed automatically into an implementation.
  - This means that, if the transformation is correct, the representations are equivalent.

Use of formal methods

- The principal benefits of formal methods are in reducing the number of faults in systems.
- Consequently, their main area of applicability is in dependable systems engineering. There have been several successful projects where formal methods have been used in this area.
- In this area, the use of formal methods is most likely to be cost-effective because high system failure costs must be avoided.

Classes of error

- ✧ Specification and design errors and omissions.
  - Developing and analysing a formal model of the software may reveal errors and omissions in the software requirements. If the model is generated automatically or systematically from source code, analysis using model checking can find undesirable states that may occur such as deadlock in a concurrent system.
- ✧ Inconsistences between a specification and a program.
  - If a refinement method is used, mistakes made by developers that make the software inconsistent with the specification are avoided. Program proving discovers inconsistencies between a program and its specification.

Benefits of formal specification

- Developing a formal specification requires the system requirements to be analyzed in detail. This helps to detect problems, inconsistencies and incompleteness in the requirements.
- As the specification is expressed in a formal language, it can be automatically analyzed to discover inconsistencies and incompleteness.
- If you use a formal method such as the B method, you can transform the formal specification into a ‘correct’ program.
- Program testing costs may be reduced if the program is formally verified against its specification.

Acceptance of formal methods

- Formal methods have had limited impact on practical software development:
  - Problem owners cannot understand a formal specification and so cannot assess if it is an accurate representation of their requirements.
  - It is easy to assess the costs of developing a formal specification but harder to assess the benefits. Managers may therefore be unwilling to invest in formal methods.
  - Software engineers are unfamiliar with this approach and are therefore reluctant to propose the use of FM.
  - Formal methods are still hard to scale up to large systems.
  - Formal specification is not really compatible with agile development methods.

Key points

- System dependability is important because failure of critical systems can lead to economic losses, information loss, physical damage or threats to human life.
- The dependability of a computer system is a system property that reflects the user's degree of trust in the system. The most important dimensions of dependability are availability, reliability, safety, security and resilience.
- Sociotechnical systems include computer hardware, software and people, and are situated within an organization. They are designed to support organizational or business goals and objectives.

Key points

- The use of a dependable, repeatable process is essential if faults in a system are to be minimized. The process should include verification and validation activities at all stages, from requirements definition through to system implementation.
- The use of redundancy and diversity in hardware, software processes and software systems is essential to the development of dependable systems.
- Formal methods, where a formal model of a system is used as a basis for development help reduce the number of specification and implementation errors in a system.

Chapter 11 – Reliability Engineering

Topics covered

- ✧ Availability and reliability
- ✧ Reliability requirements
- ✧ Fault-tolerant architectures
- ✧ Programming for reliability
- ✧ Reliability measurement

Software reliability

- In general, software customers expect all software to be dependable. However, for non-critical applications, they may be willing to accept some system failures.
- Some applications (critical systems) have very high reliability requirements and special software engineering techniques may be used to achieve this.
  - Medical systems
  - Telecommunications and power systems
  - Aerospace systems

Faults, errors and failures

Term	Description
Human error or mistake	Human behavior that results in the introduction of faults into a system. For example, in the wilderness weather system, a programmer might decide that the way to compute the time for the next transmission is to add 1 hour to the current time. This works except when the transmission time is between 23.00 and midnight (midnight is 00.00 in the 24-hour clock).
System fault	A characteristic of a software system that can lead to a system error. The fault is the inclusion of the code to add 1 hour to the time of the last transmission, without a check if the time is greater than or equal to 23.00.
System error	An erroneous system state that can lead to system behavior that is unexpected by system users. The value of transmission time is set incorrectly (to 24.XX rather than 00.XX) when the faulty code is executed.
System failure	An event that occurs at some point in time when the system does not deliver a service as expected by its users. No weather data is transmitted because the time is invalid.

Faults and failures

- Failures are a usually a result of system errors that are derived from faults in the system
- However, faults do not necessarily result in system errors
  - The erroneous system state resulting from the fault may be transient and ‘corrected’ before an error arises.
  - The faulty code may never be executed.
- Errors do not necessarily lead to system failures
  - The error can be corrected by built-in error detection and recovery
  - The failure can be protected against by built-in protection facilities. These may, for example, protect system resources from system errors

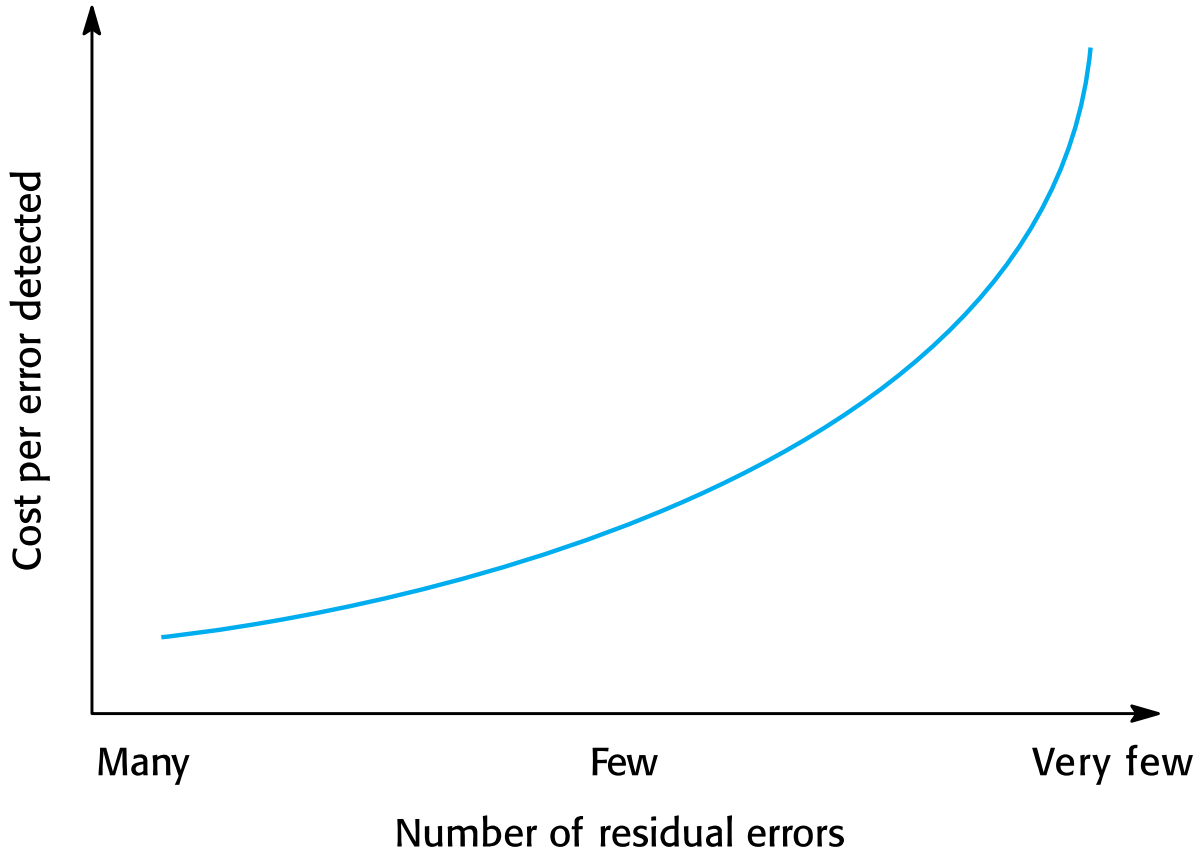
Fault management

- Fault avoidance
  - The system is developed in such a way that human error is avoided and thus system faults are minimised.
  - The development process is organised so that faults in the system are detected and repaired before delivery to the customer.
- Fault detection
  - Verification and validation techniques are used to discover and remove faults in a system before it is deployed.
- Fault tolerance
  - The system is designed so that faults in the delivered software do not result in system failure.

Reliability achievement

- ✧ Fault avoidance
  - Development technique are used that either minimise the possibility of mistakes or trap mistakes before they result in the introduction of system faults.
- ✧ Fault detection and removal
  - Verification and validation techniques are used that increase the probability of detecting and correcting errors before the system goes into service are used.
- ✧ Fault tolerance
  - Run-time techniques are used to ensure that system faults do not result in system errors and/or that system errors do not lead to system failures.

The increasing costs of residual fault removal



Availability and reliability

Availability and reliability

- Reliability
  - The probability of failure-free system operation over a specified time in a given environment for a given purpose
- Availability
  - The probability that a system, at a point in time, will be operational and able to deliver the requested services
- Both of these attributes can be expressed quantitatively e.g. availability of 0.999 means that the system is up and running for 99.9% of the time.

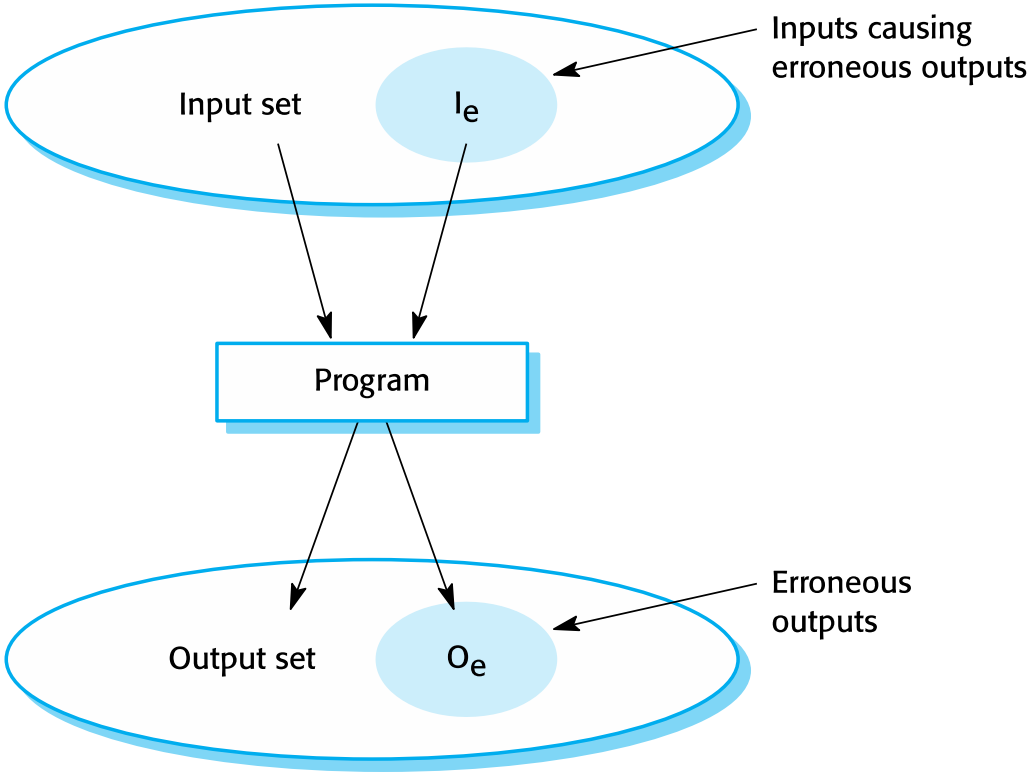
Reliability and specifications

- Reliability can only be defined formally with respect to a system specification i.e. a failure is a deviation from a specification.
- However, many specifications are incomplete or incorrect – hence, a system that conforms to its specification may 'fail' from the perspective of system users.
- Furthermore, users don't read specifications so don't know how the system is supposed to behave.
- Therefore perceived reliability is more important in practice.

Perceptions of reliability

- The formal definition of reliability does not always reflect the user's perception of a system's reliability
  - The assumptions that are made about the environment where a system will be used may be incorrect
    - Usage of a system in an office environment is likely to be quite different from usage of the same system in a university environment
  - The consequences of system failures affects the perception of reliability
    - Unreliable windscreen wipers in a car may be irrelevant in a dry climate
    - Failures that have serious consequences (such as an engine breakdown in a car) are given greater weight by users than failures that are inconvenient

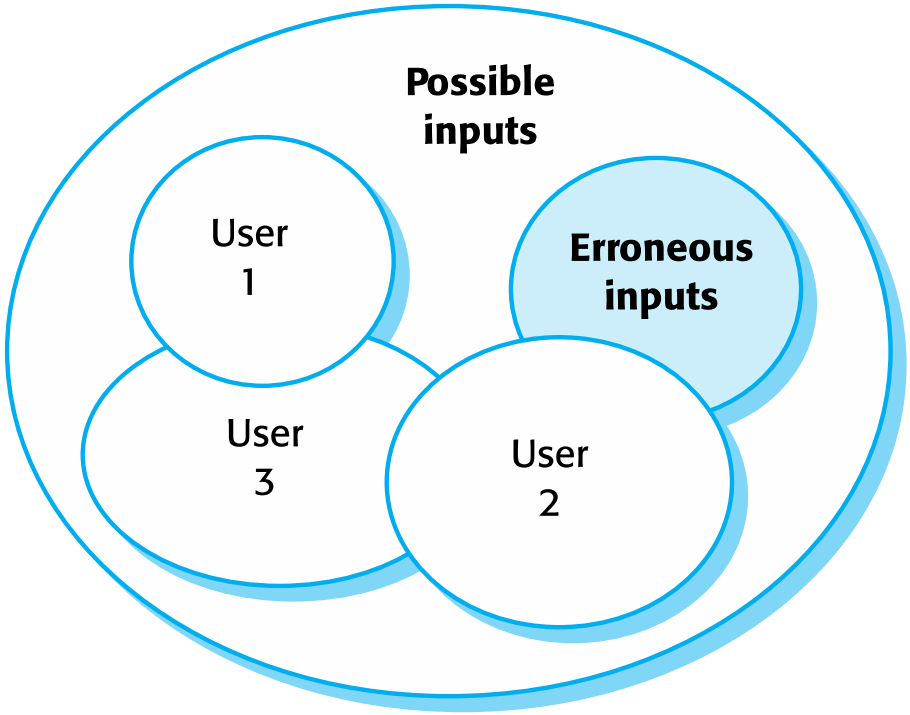
A system as an input/output mapping



Availability perception

- Availability is usually expressed as a percentage of the time that the system is available to deliver services e.g. 99.95%.
- However, this does not take into account two factors:
  - The number of users affected by the service outage. Loss of service in the middle of the night is less important for many systems than loss of service during peak usage periods.
  - The length of the outage. The longer the outage, the more the disruption. Several short outages are less likely to be disruptive than 1 long outage. Long repair times are a particular problem.

Software usage patterns



Reliability in use

- Removing X% of the faults in a system will not necessarily improve the reliability by X%.
- Program defects may be in rarely executed sections of the code so may never be encountered by users. Removing these does not affect the perceived reliability.
- Users adapt their behaviour to avoid system features that may fail for them.
- A program with known faults may therefore still be perceived as reliable by its users.

Reliability requirements

System reliability requirements

- Functional reliability requirements define system and software functions that avoid, detect or tolerate faults in the software and so ensure that these faults do not lead to system failure.
- Software reliability requirements may also be included to cope with hardware failure or operator error.
- Reliability is a measurable system attribute so non-functional reliability requirements may be specified quantitatively. These define the number of failures that are acceptable during normal use of the system or the time in which the system must be available.

Reliability metrics

- Reliability metrics are units of measurement of system reliability.
- System reliability is measured by counting the number of operational failures and, where appropriate, relating these to the demands made on the system and the time that the system has been operational.
- A long-term measurement programme is required to assess the reliability of critical systems.
- Metrics
  - Probability of failure on demand
  - Rate of occurrence of failures/Mean time to failure
  - Availability

Probability of failure on demand (POFOD)

- This is the probability that the system will fail when a service request is made. Useful when demands for service are intermittent and relatively infrequent.
- Appropriate for protection systems where services are demanded occasionally and where there are serious consequence if the service is not delivered.
- Relevant for many safety-critical systems with exception management components
  - Emergency shutdown system in a chemical plant.

Rate of fault occurrence (ROCOF)

- Reflects the rate of occurrence of failure in the system.
- ROCOF of 0.002 means 2 failures are likely in each 1000 operational time units e.g. 2 failures per 1000 hours of operation.
- Relevant for systems where the system has to process a large number of similar requests in a short time
  - Credit card processing system, airline booking system.
- Reciprocal of ROCOF is Mean time to Failure (MTTF)
  - Relevant for systems with long transactions i.e. where system processing takes a long time (e.g. CAD systems). MTTF should be longer than expected transaction length.

Availability

- Measure of the fraction of the time that the system is available for use.
- Takes repair and restart time into account
- Availability of 0.998 means software is available for 998 out of 1000 time units.
- Relevant for non-stop, continuously running systems
  - telephone switching systems, railway signalling systems.

Availability specification

Availability	Explanation
0.9	The system is available for 90% of the time. This means that, in a 24-hour period (1,440 minutes), the system will be unavailable for 144 minutes.
0.99	In a 24-hour period, the system is unavailable for 14.4 minutes.
0.999	The system is unavailable for 84 seconds in a 24-hour period.
0.9999	The system is unavailable for 8.4 seconds in a 24-hour period. Roughly, one minute per week.

Non-functional reliability requirements

- Non-functional reliability requirements are specifications of the required reliability and availability of a system using one of the reliability metrics (POFOD, ROCOF or AVAIL).
- Quantitative reliability and availability specification has been used for many years in safety-critical systems but is uncommon for business critical systems.
- However, as more and more companies demand 24/7 service from their systems, it makes sense for them to be precise about their reliability and availability expectations.

Benefits of reliability specification

- The process of deciding the required level of the reliability helps to clarify what stakeholders really need.
- It provides a basis for assessing when to stop testing a system. You stop when the system has reached its required reliability level.
- It is a means of assessing different design strategies intended to improve the reliability of a system.
- If a regulator has to approve a system (e.g. all systems that are critical to flight safety on an aircraft are regulated), then evidence that a required reliability target has been met is important for system certification.

Specifying reliability requirements

- Specify the availability and reliability requirements for different types of failure. There should be a lower probability of high-cost failures than failures that don't have serious consequences.
- Specify the availability and reliability requirements for different types of system service. Critical system services should have the highest reliability but you may be willing to tolerate more failures in less critical services.
- Think about whether a high level of reliability is really required. Other mechanisms can be used to provide reliable system service.

ATM reliability specification

- Key concerns
  - To ensure that their ATMs carry out customer services as requested and that they properly record customer transactions in the account database.
  - To ensure that these ATM systems are available for use when required.
- Database transaction mechanisms may be used to correct transaction problems so a low-level of ATM reliability is all that is required
- Availability, in this case, is more important than reliability

ATM availability specification

- System services
  - The customer account database service;
  - The individual services provided by an ATM such as ‘withdraw cash’, ‘provide account information’, etc.
- The database service is critical as failure of this service means that all of the ATMs in the network are out of action.
- You should specify this to have a high level of availability.
  - Database availability should be around 0.9999, between 7 am and 11pm.
  - This corresponds to a downtime of less than 1 minute per week.

ATM availability specification

- For an individual ATM, the key reliability issues depends on mechanical reliability and the fact that it can run out of cash.
- A lower level of software availability for the ATM software is acceptable.
- The overall availability of the ATM software might therefore be specified as 0.999, which means that a machine might be unavailable for between 1 and 2 minutes each day.

Insulin pump reliability specification

- Probability of failure (POFOD) is the most appropriate metric.
- Transient failures that can be repaired by user actions such as recalibration of the machine. A relatively low value of POFOD is acceptable (say 0.002) – one failure may occur in every 500 demands.
- Permanent failures require the software to be re-installed by the manufacturer. This should occur no more than once per year. POFOD for this situation should be less than 0.00002.

Functional reliability requirements

- Checking requirements that identify checks to ensure that incorrect data is detected before it leads to a failure.
- Recovery requirements that are geared to help the system recover after a failure has occurred.
- Redundancy requirements that specify redundant features of the system to be included.
- Process requirements for reliability which specify the development process to be used may also be included.

Examples of functional reliability requirements

RR1: A pre-defined range for all operator inputs shall be defined and the system shall check that all operator inputs fall within this pre-defined range. (Checking)

RR2: Copies of the patient database shall be maintained on two separate servers that are not housed in the same building. (Recovery, redundancy)

RR3: N-version programming shall be used to implement the braking control system. (Redundancy)

RR4: The system must be implemented in a safe subset of Ada and checked using static analysis. (Process)

Fault-tolerant architectures

Fault tolerance

- In critical situations, software systems must be fault tolerant.
- Fault tolerance is required where there are high availability requirements or where system failure costs are very high.
- Fault tolerance means that the system can continue in operation in spite of software failure.
- Even if the system has been proved to conform to its specification, it must also be fault tolerant as there may be specification errors or the validation may be incorrect.

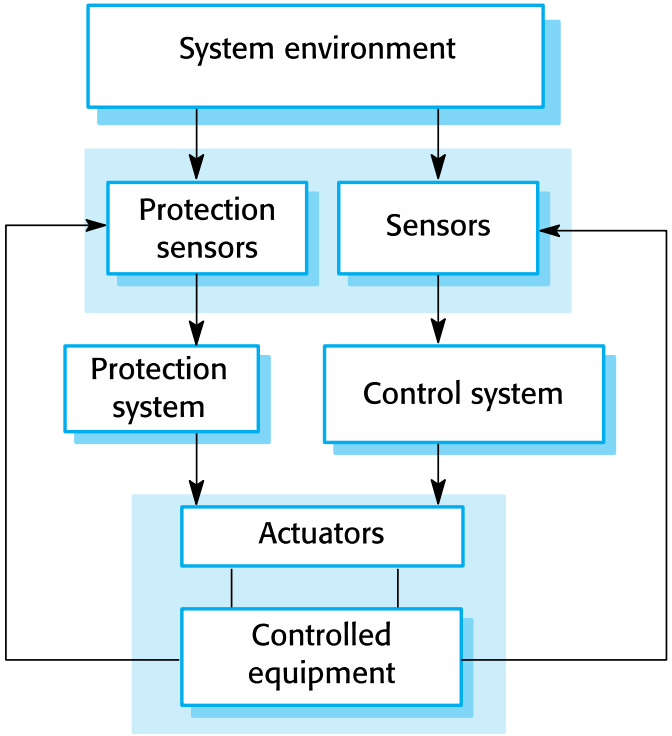
Fault-tolerant system architectures

- Fault-tolerant systems architectures are used in situations where fault tolerance is essential. These architectures are generally all based on redundancy and diversity.
- Examples of situations where dependable architectures are used:
  - Flight control systems, where system failure could threaten the safety of passengers
  - Reactor systems where failure of a control system could lead to a chemical or nuclear emergency
  - Telecommunication systems, where there is a need for 24/7 availability.

Protection systems

- A specialized system that is associated with some other control system, which can take emergency action if a failure occurs.
  - System to stop a train if it passes a red light
  - System to shut down a reactor if temperature/pressure are too high
- Protection systems independently monitor the controlled system and the environment.
- If a problem is detected, it issues commands to take emergency action to shut down the system and avoid a catastrophe.

Protection system architecture



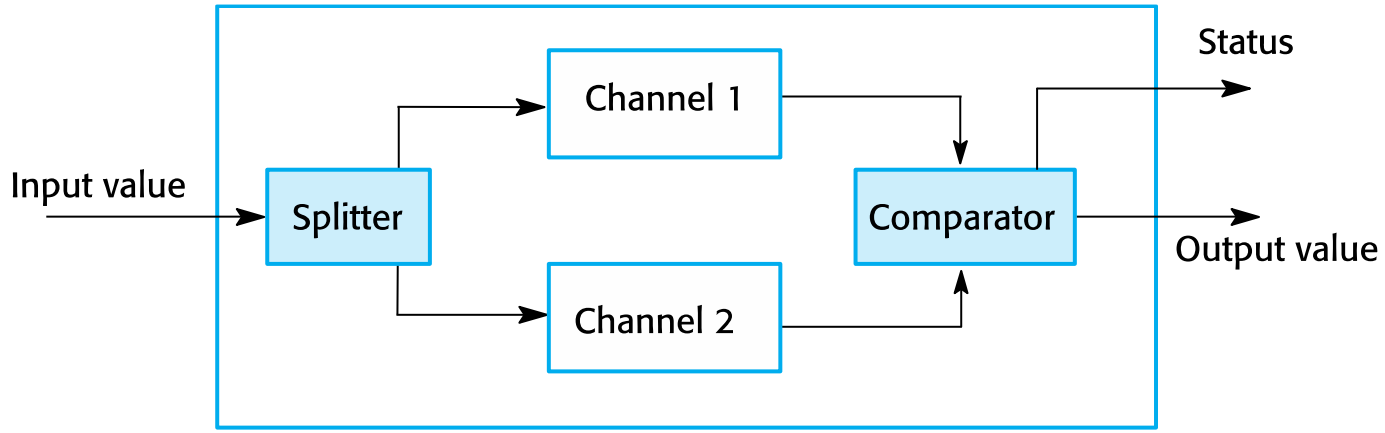
Protection system functionality

- Protection systems are redundant because they include monitoring and control capabilities that replicate those in the control software.
- Protection systems should be diverse and use different technology from the control software.
- They are simpler than the control system so more effort can be expended in validation and dependability assurance.
- Aim is to ensure that there is a low probability of failure on demand for the protection system.

Self-monitoring architectures

- Multi-channel architectures where the system monitors its own operations and takes action if inconsistencies are detected.
- The same computation is carried out on each channel and the results are compared. If the results are identical and are produced at the same time, then it is assumed that the system is operating correctly.
- If the results are different, then a failure is assumed and a failure exception is raised.

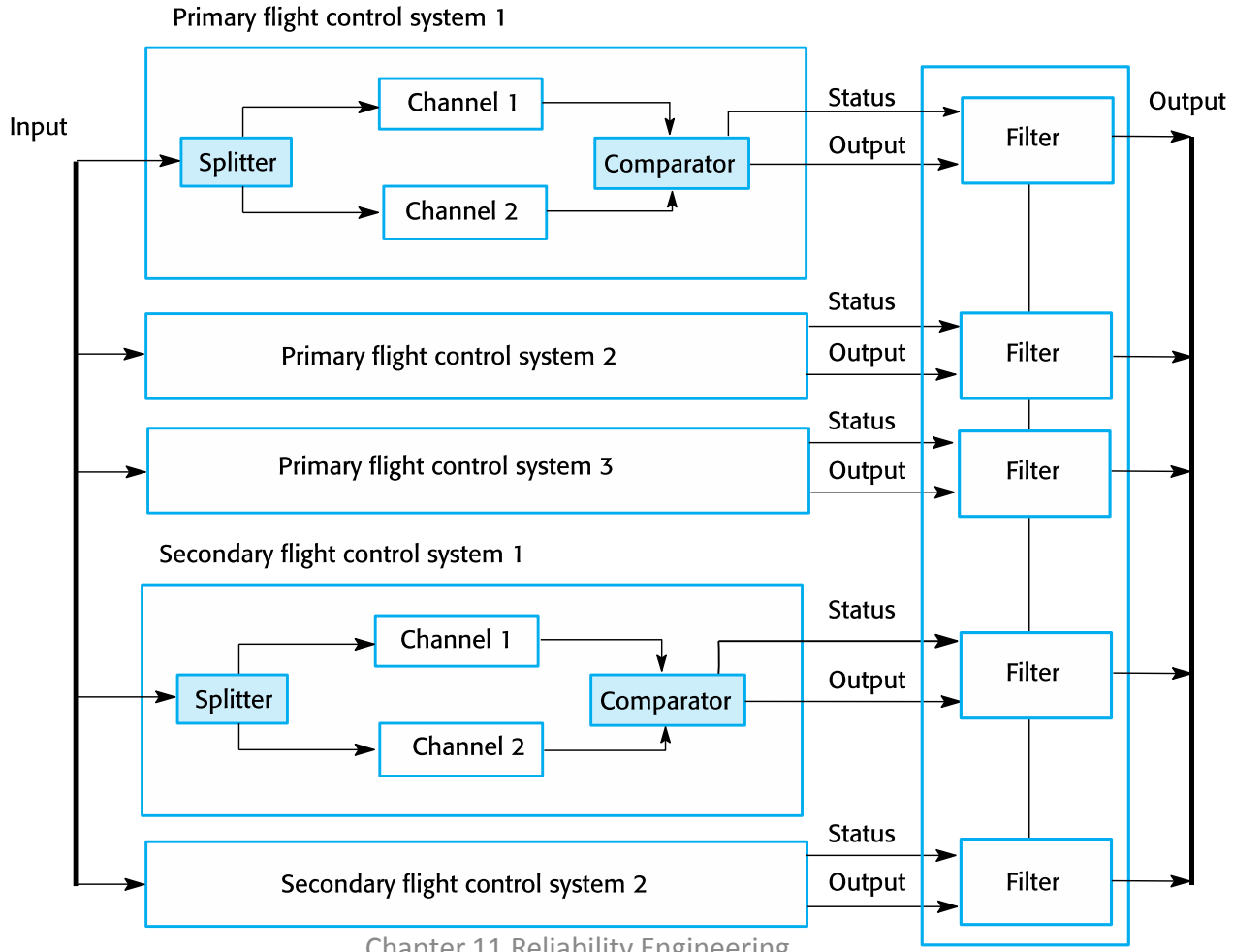
Self-monitoring architecture



Self-monitoring systems

- Hardware in each channel has to be diverse so that common mode hardware failure will not lead to each channel producing the same results.
- Software in each channel must also be diverse, otherwise the same software error would affect each channel.
- If high-availability is required, you may use several self-checking systems in parallel.
  - This is the approach used in the Airbus family of aircraft for their flight control systems.

Airbus flight control system architecture



Airbus architecture discussion

- The Airbus FCS has 5 separate computers, any one of which can run the control software.
- Extensive use has been made of diversity
  - Primary systems use a different processor from the secondary systems.
  - Primary and secondary systems use chipsets from different manufacturers.
  - Software in secondary systems is less complex than in primary system – provides only critical functionality.
  - Software in each channel is developed in different programming languages by different teams.
  - Different programming languages used in primary and secondary systems.

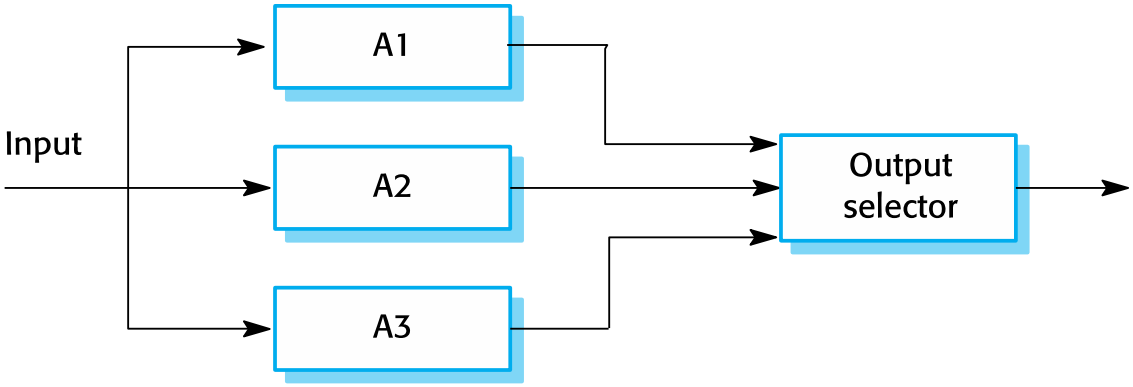
N-version programming

- Multiple versions of a software system carry out computations at the same time. There should be an odd number of computers involved, typically 3.
- The results are compared using a voting system and the majority result is taken to be the correct result.
- Approach derived from the notion of triple-modular redundancy, as used in hardware systems.

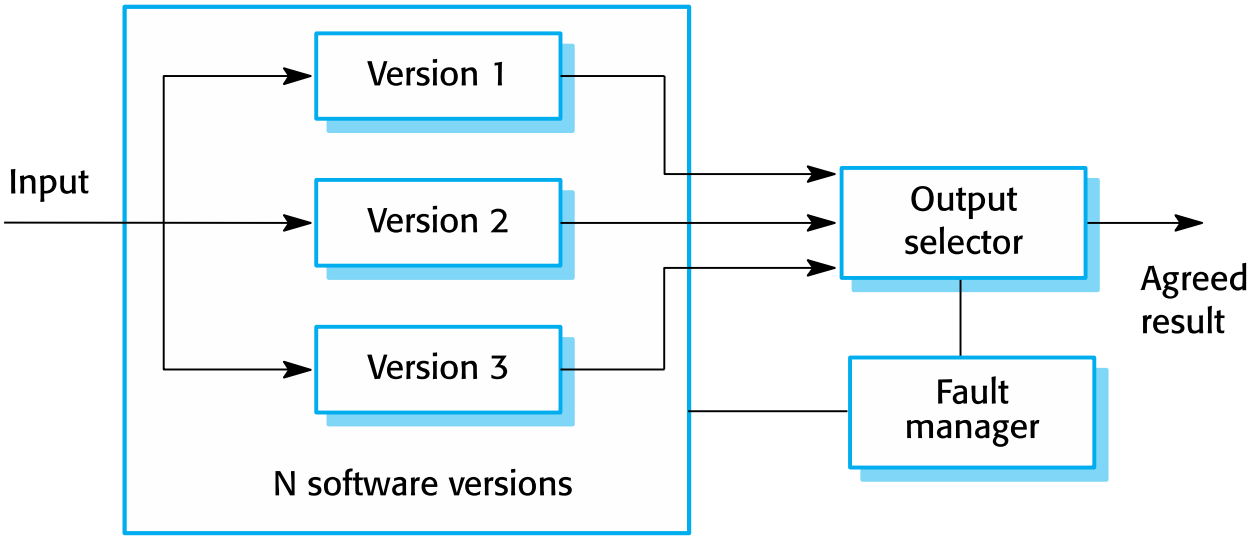
Hardware fault tolerance

- Depends on triple-modular redundancy (TMR).
- There are three replicated identical components that receive the same input and whose outputs are compared.
- If one output is different, it is ignored and component failure is assumed.
- Based on most faults resulting from component failures rather than design faults and a low probability of simultaneous component failure.

Triple modular redundancy



N-version programming



N-version programming

- The different system versions are designed and implemented by different teams. It is assumed that there is a low probability that they will make the same mistakes. The algorithms used should but may not be different.
- There is some empirical evidence that teams commonly misinterpret specifications in the same way and chose the same algorithms in their systems.

Software diversity

- Approaches to software fault tolerance depend on software diversity where it is assumed that different implementations of the same software specification will fail in different ways.
- It is assumed that implementations are (a) independent and (b) do not include common errors.
- Strategies to achieve diversity
  - Different programming languages
  - Different design methods and tools
  - Explicit specification of different algorithms

Problems with design diversity

- ✧ Teams are not culturally diverse so they tend to tackle problems in the same way.
- ✧ Characteristic errors
  - Different teams make the same mistakes. Some parts of an implementation are more difficult than others so all teams tend to make mistakes in the same place;
  - Specification errors;
  - If there is an error in the specification then this is reflected in all implementations;
  - This can be addressed to some extent by using multiple specification representations.

Specification dependency

- Both approaches to software redundancy are susceptible to specification errors. If the specification is incorrect, the system could fail
- This is also a problem with hardware but software specifications are usually more complex than hardware specifications and harder to validate.
- This has been addressed in some cases by developing separate software specifications from the same user specification.

Improvements in practice

- In principle, if diversity and independence can be achieved, multi-version programming leads to very significant improvements in reliability and availability.
- In practice, observed improvements are much less significant but the approach seems leads to reliability improvements of between 5 and 9 times.
- The key question is whether or not such improvements are worth the considerable extra development costs for multi-version programming.

Programming for reliability

Dependable programming

- Good programming practices can be adopted that help reduce the incidence of program faults.
- These programming practices support
  - Fault avoidance
  - Fault detection
  - Fault tolerance

Good practice guidelines for dependable programming

Dependable programming guidelines

1. **Limit the visibility of information in a program**
2. **Check all inputs for validity**
3. **Provide a handler for all exceptions**
4. **Minimize the use of error-prone constructs**
5. **Provide restart capabilities**
6. **Check array bounds**
7. **Include timeouts when calling external components**
8. **Name all constants that represent real-world values**

(1) Limit the visibility of information in a program

- Program components should only be allowed access to data that they need for their implementation.
- This means that accidental corruption of parts of the program state by these components is impossible.
- You can control visibility by using abstract data types where the data representation is private and you only allow access to the data through predefined operations such as get () and put ().

(2) Check all inputs for validity

- All program take inputs from their environment and make assumptions about these inputs.
- However, program specifications rarely define what to do if an input is not consistent with these assumptions.
- Consequently, many programs behave unpredictably when presented with unusual inputs and, sometimes, these are threats to the security of the system.
- Consequently, you should always check inputs before processing against the assumptions made about these inputs.

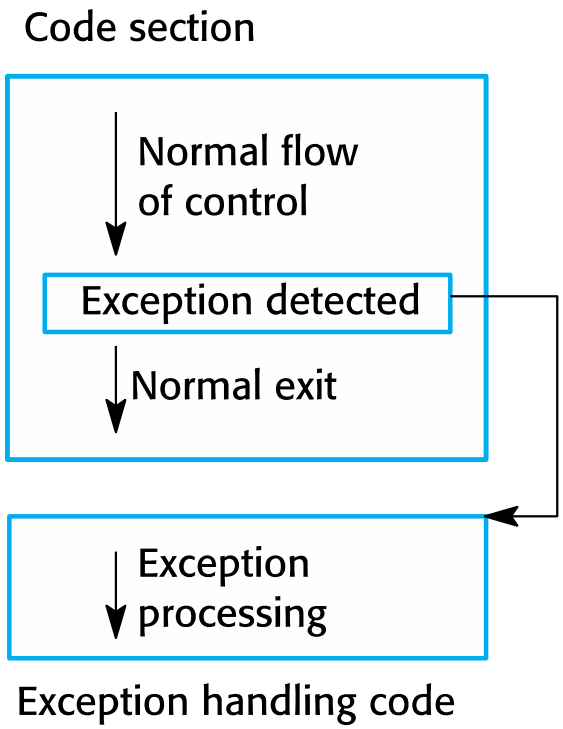
Validity checks

- Range checks
  - Check that the input falls within a known range.
- Size checks
  - Check that the input does not exceed some maximum size e.g. 40 characters for a name.
- Representation checks
  - Check that the input does not include characters that should not be part of its representation e.g. names do not include numerals.
- Reasonableness checks
  - Use information about the input to check if it is reasonable rather than an extreme value.

(3) Provide a handler for all exceptions

- A program exception is an error or some unexpected event such as a power failure.
- Exception handling constructs allow for such events to be handled without the need for continual status checking to detect exceptions.
- Using normal control constructs to detect exceptions needs many additional statements to be added to the program. This adds a significant overhead and is potentially error-prone.

Exception handling



Exception handling

- Three possible exception handling strategies
  - Signal to a calling component that an exception has occurred and provide information about the type of exception.
  - Carry out some alternative processing to the processing where the exception occurred. This is only possible where the exception handler has enough information to recover from the problem that has arisen.
  - Pass control to a run-time support system to handle the exception.
- Exception handling is a mechanism to provide some fault tolerance

(4) Minimize the use of error-prone constructs

- Program faults are usually a consequence of human error because programmers lose track of the relationships between the different parts of the system
- This is exacerbated by error-prone constructs in programming languages that are inherently complex or that don't check for mistakes when they could do so.
- Therefore, when programming, you should try to avoid or at least minimize the use of these error-prone constructs.

Error-prone constructs

- ✧ Unconditional branch (goto) statements
- ✧ Floating-point numbers
  - Inherently imprecise. The imprecision may lead to invalid comparisons.
- ✧ Pointers
  - Pointers referring to the wrong memory areas can corrupt data. Aliasing can make programs difficult to understand and change.
- ✧ Dynamic memory allocation
  - Run-time allocation can cause memory overflow.

Error-prone constructs

- Parallelism
  - Can result in subtle timing errors because of unforeseen interaction between parallel processes.
- Recursion
  - Errors in recursion can cause memory overflow as the program stack fills up.
- Interrupts
  - Interrupts can cause a critical operation to be terminated and make a program difficult to understand.
- Inheritance
  - Code is not localised. This can result in unexpected behaviour when changes are made and problems of understanding the code.

Error-prone constructs

- Aliasing
  - Using more than 1 name to refer to the same state variable.
- Unbounded arrays
  - Buffer overflow failures can occur if no bound checking on arrays.
- Default input processing
  - An input action that occurs irrespective of the input.
  - This can cause problems if the default action is to transfer control elsewhere in the program. In incorrect or deliberately malicious input can then trigger a program failure.

(5) Provide restart capabilities

- For systems that involve long transactions or user interactions, you should always provide a restart capability that allows the system to restart after failure without users having to redo everything that they have done.
- Restart depends on the type of system
  - Keep copies of forms so that users don't have to fill them in again if there is a problem
  - Save state periodically and restart from the saved state

(6) Check array bounds

- In some programming languages, such as C, it is possible to address a memory location outside of the range allowed for in an array declaration.
- This leads to the well-known ‘bounded buffer’ vulnerability where attackers write executable code into memory by deliberately writing beyond the top element in an array.
- If your language does not include bound checking, you should therefore always check that an array access is within the bounds of the array.

(7) Include timeouts when calling external components

- In a distributed system, failure of a remote computer can be ‘silent’ so that programs expecting a service from that computer may never receive that service or any indication that there has been a failure.
- To avoid this, you should always include timeouts on all calls to external components.
- After a defined time period has elapsed without a response, your system should then assume failure and take whatever actions are required to recover from this.

(8) Name all constants that represent real-world values

- ✧ Always give constants that reflect real-world values (such as tax rates) names rather than using their numeric values and always refer to them by name
- ✧ You are less likely to make mistakes and type the wrong value when you are using a name rather than a value.
- ✧ This means that when these ‘constants’ change (for sure, they are not really constant), then you only have to make the change in one place in your program.

Reliability measurement

Reliability measurement

- To assess the reliability of a system, you have to collect data about its operation. The data required may include:
  - The number of system failures given a number of requests for system services. This is used to measure the POFOD. This applies irrespective of the time over which the demands are made.
  - The time or the number of transactions between system failures plus the total elapsed time or total number of transactions. This is used to measure ROCOF and MTTF.
  - The repair or restart time after a system failure that leads to loss of service. This is used in the measurement of availability. Availability does not just depend on the time between failures but also on the time required to get the system back into operation.

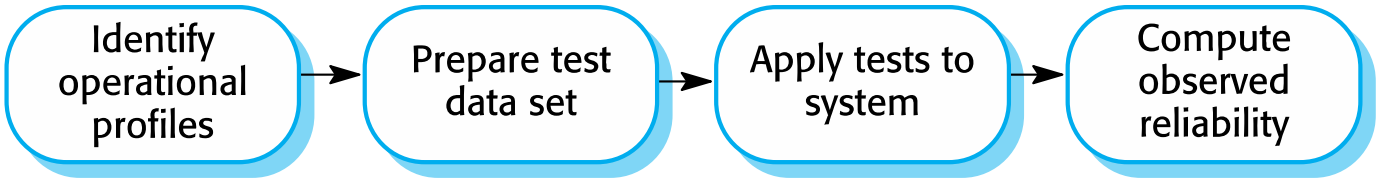
Reliability testing

- Reliability testing (Statistical testing) involves running the program to assess whether or not it has reached the required level of reliability.
- This cannot normally be included as part of a normal defect testing process because data for defect testing is (usually) atypical of actual usage data.
- Reliability measurement therefore requires a specially designed data set that replicates the pattern of inputs to be processed by the system.

Statistical testing

- Testing software for reliability rather than fault detection.
- Measuring the number of errors allows the reliability of the software to be predicted. Note that, for statistical reasons, more errors than are allowed for in the reliability specification must be induced.
- An acceptable level of reliability should be specified and the software tested and amended until that level of reliability is reached.

Reliability measurement



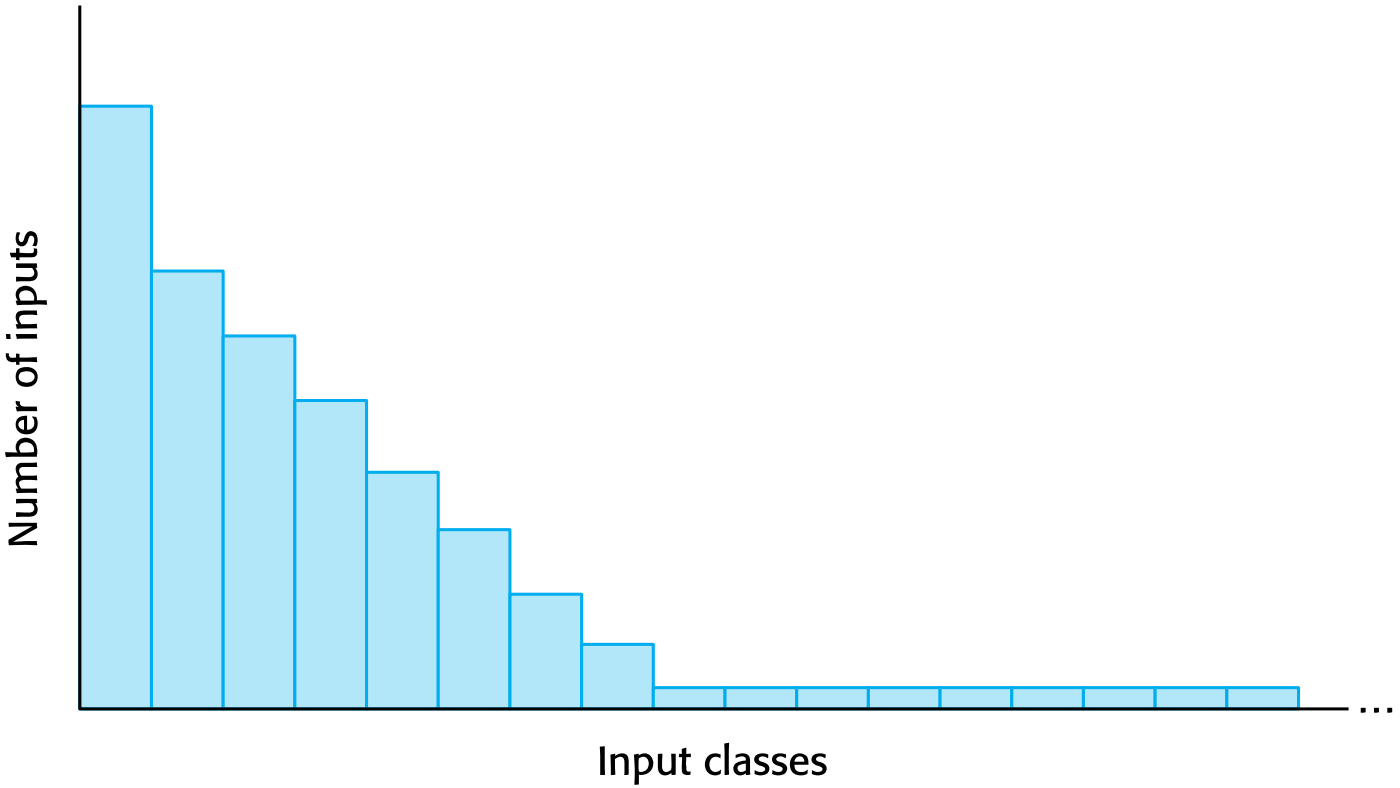
Reliability measurement problems

- Operational profile uncertainty
  - The operational profile may not be an accurate reflection of the real use of the system.
- High costs of test data generation
  - Costs can be very high if the test data for the system cannot be generated automatically.
- Statistical uncertainty
  - You need a statistically significant number of failures to compute the reliability but highly reliable systems will rarely fail.
- Recognizing failure
  - It is not always obvious when a failure has occurred as there may be conflicting interpretations of a specification.

Operational profiles

- An operational profile is a set of test data whose frequency matches the actual frequency of these inputs from ‘normal’ usage of the system. A close match with actual usage is necessary otherwise the measured reliability will not be reflected in the actual usage of the system.
- It can be generated from real data collected from an existing system or (more often) depends on assumptions made about the pattern of usage of a system.

An operational profile



Operational profile generation

- Should be generated automatically whenever possible.
- Automatic profile generation is difficult for interactive systems.
- May be straightforward for ‘normal’ inputs but it is difficult to predict ‘unlikely’ inputs and to create test data for them.
- Pattern of usage of new systems is unknown.
- Operational profiles are not static but change as users learn about a new system and change the way that they use it.

Key points

- Software reliability can be achieved by avoiding the introduction of faults, by detecting and removing faults before system deployment and by including fault tolerance facilities that allow the system to remain operational after a fault has caused a system failure.
- Reliability requirements can be defined quantitatively in the system requirements specification.
- Reliability metrics include probability of failure on demand (POFOD), rate of occurrence of failure (ROCOF) and availability (AVAIL).

Key points

- Functional reliability requirements are requirements for system functionality, such as checking and redundancy requirements, which help the system meet its non-functional reliability requirements.
- Dependable system architectures are system architectures that are designed for fault tolerance.
- There are a number of architectural styles that support fault tolerance including protection systems, self-monitoring architectures and N-version programming.

Key points

- Software diversity is difficult to achieve because it is practically impossible to ensure that each version of the software is truly independent.
- Dependable programming relies on including redundancy in a program as checks on the validity of inputs and the values of program variables.
- Statistical testing is used to estimate software reliability. It relies on testing the system with test data that matches an operational profile, which reflects the distribution of inputs to the software when it is in use.

Chapter 13 – Security Engineering

Topics covered

- ✧ Security and dependability
- ✧ Security and organizations
- ✧ Security requirements
- ✧ Secure systems design
- ✧ Security testing and assurance

Security engineering

- Tools, techniques and methods to support the development and maintenance of systems that can resist malicious attacks that are intended to damage a computer-based system or its data.
- A sub-field of the broader field of computer security.

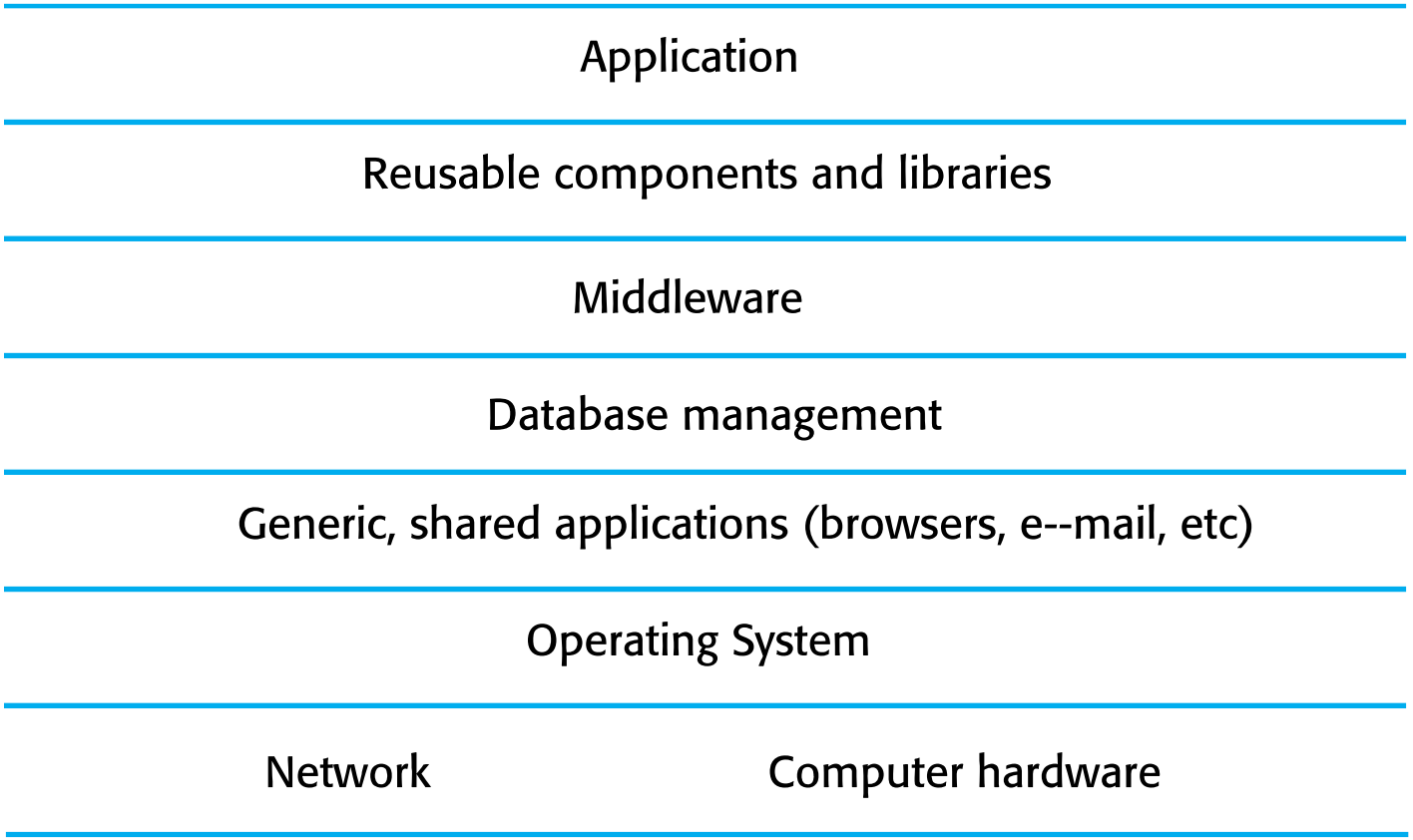
Security dimensions

- *Confidentiality*
  - Information in a system may be disclosed or made accessible to people or programs that are not authorized to have access to that information.
- *Integrity*
  - Information in a system may be damaged or corrupted making it unusual or unreliable.
- *Availability*
  - Access to a system or its data that is normally available may not be possible.

Security levels

- Infrastructure security, which is concerned with maintaining the security of all systems and networks that provide an infrastructure and a set of shared services to the organization.
- Application security, which is concerned with the security of individual application systems or related groups of systems.
- Operational security, which is concerned with the secure operation and use of the organization's systems.

System layers where security may be compromised



Application/infrastructure security

- Application security is a software engineering problem where the system is designed to resist attacks.
- Infrastructure security is a systems management problem where the infrastructure is configured to resist attacks.
- The focus of this chapter is application security rather than infrastructure security.

System security management

- ✧ User and permission management
  - Adding and removing users from the system and setting up appropriate permissions for users
- ✧ Software deployment and maintenance
  - Installing application software and middleware and configuring these systems so that vulnerabilities are avoided.
- ✧ Attack monitoring, detection and recovery
  - Monitoring the system for unauthorized access, design strategies for resisting attacks and develop backup and recovery strategies.

Operational security

- Primarily a human and social issue
- Concerned with ensuring the people do not take actions that may compromise system security
  - E.g. Tell others passwords, leave computers logged on
- Users sometimes take insecure actions to make it easier for them to do their jobs
- There is therefore a trade-off between system security and system effectiveness.

Security and dependability

Security

- The security of a system is a system property that reflects the system's ability to protect itself from accidental or deliberate external attack.
- Security is essential as most systems are networked so that external access to the system through the Internet is possible.
- Security is an essential pre-requisite for availability, reliability and safety.

Fundamental security

- If a system is a networked system and is insecure then statements about its reliability and its safety are unreliable.
- These statements depend on the executing system and the developed system being the same. However, intrusion can change the executing system and/or its data.
- Therefore, the reliability and safety assurance is no longer valid.

Security terminology

Term	Definition
Asset	Something of value which has to be protected. The asset may be the software system itself or data used by that system.
Attack	An exploitation of a system's vulnerability. Generally, this is from outside the system and is a deliberate attempt to cause some damage.
Control	A protective measure that reduces a system's vulnerability. Encryption is an example of a control that reduces a vulnerability of a weak access control system
Exposure	Possible loss or harm to a computing system. This can be loss or damage to data, or can be a loss of time and effort if recovery is necessary after a security breach.
Threat	Circumstances that have potential to cause loss or harm. You can think of these as a system vulnerability that is subjected to an attack.
Vulnerability	A weakness in a computer-based system that may be exploited to cause loss or harm.

Examples of security terminology (Mentcare)

Term	Example
Asset	The records of each patient that is receiving or has received treatment.
Exposure	Potential financial loss from future patients who do not seek treatment because they do not trust the clinic to maintain their data. Financial loss from legal action by the sports star. Loss of reputation.
Vulnerability	A weak password system which makes it easy for users to set guessable passwords. User ids that are the same as names.
Attack	An impersonation of an authorized user.
Threat	An unauthorized user will gain access to the system by guessing the credentials (login name and password) of an authorized user.
Control	A password checking system that disallows user passwords that are proper names or words that are normally included in a dictionary.

Threat types

- Interception threats that allow an attacker to gain access to an asset.
  - A possible threat to the Mentcare system might be a situation where an attacker gains access to the records of an individual patient.
- Interruption threats that allow an attacker to make part of the system unavailable.
  - A possible threat might be a denial of service attack on a system database server so that database connections become impossible.

Threat types

- Modification threats that allow an attacker to tamper with a system asset.
  - In the Mentcare system, a modification threat would be where an attacker alters or destroys a patient record.
- Fabrication threats that allow an attacker to insert false information into a system.
  - This is perhaps not a credible threat in the Mentcare system but would be a threat in a banking system, where false transactions might be added to the system that transfer money to the perpetrator's bank account.

Security assurance

- ✧ Vulnerability avoidance
  - The system is designed so that vulnerabilities do not occur. For example, if there is no external network connection then external attack is impossible
- ✧ Attack detection and elimination
  - The system is designed so that attacks on vulnerabilities are detected and neutralised before they result in an exposure. For example, virus checkers find and remove viruses before they infect a system
- ✧ Exposure limitation and recovery
  - The system is designed so that the adverse consequences of a successful attack are minimised. For example, a backup policy allows damaged information to be restored

Security and dependability

- *Security and reliability*
  - If a system is attacked and the system or its data are corrupted as a consequence of that attack, then this may induce system failures that compromise the reliability of the system.
- *Security and availability*
  - A common attack on a web-based system is a denial of service attack, where a web server is flooded with service requests from a range of different sources. The aim of this attack is to make the system unavailable.

Security and dependability

✧ *Security and safety*

- An attack that corrupts the system or its data means that assumptions about safety may not hold. Safety checks rely on analysing the source code of safety critical software and assume the executing code is a completely accurate translation of that source code. If this is not the case, safety-related failures may be induced and the safety case made for the software is invalid.

✧ *Security and resilience*

- Resilience is a system characteristic that reflects its ability to resist and recover from damaging events. The most probable damaging event on networked software systems is a cyberattack of some kind so most of the work now done in resilience is aimed at deterring, detecting and recovering from such attacks.

Security and organizations

Security is a business issue

- Security is expensive and it is important that security decisions are made in a cost-effective way
  - There is no point in spending more than the value of an asset to keep that asset secure.
- Organizations use a risk-based approach to support security decision making and should have a defined security policy based on security risk analysis
- Security risk analysis is a business rather than a technical process

Organizational security policies

- Security policies should set out general information access strategies that should apply across the organization.
- The point of security policies is to inform everyone in an organization about security so these should not be long and detailed technical documents.
- From a security engineering perspective, the security policy defines, in broad terms, the security goals of the organization.
- The security engineering process is concerned with implementing these goals.

Security policies

- *The assets that must be protected*
  - It is not cost-effective to apply stringent security procedures to all organizational assets. Many assets are not confidential and can be made freely available.
- *The level of protection that is required for different types of asset*
  - For sensitive personal information, a high level of security is required; for other information, the consequences of loss may be minor so a lower level of security is adequate.

Security policies

- *The responsibilities of individual users, managers and the organization*
  - The security policy should set out what is expected of users e.g. strong passwords, log out of computers, office security, etc.
- *Existing security procedures and technologies that should be maintained*
  - For reasons of practicality and cost, it may be essential to continue to use existing approaches to security even where these have known limitations.

Security risk assessment and management

- Risk assessment and management is concerned with assessing the possible losses that might ensue from attacks on the system and balancing these losses against the costs of security procedures that may reduce these losses.
- Risk management should be driven by an organisational security policy.
- Risk management involves
  - Preliminary risk assessment
  - Life cycle risk assessment
  - Operational risk assessment

Preliminary risk assessment

- The aim of this initial risk assessment is to identify generic risks that are applicable to the system and to decide if an adequate level of security can be achieved at a reasonable cost.
- The risk assessment should focus on the identification and analysis of high-level risks to the system.
- The outcomes of the risk assessment process are used to help identify security requirements.

Design risk assessment

- This risk assessment takes place during the system development life cycle and is informed by the technical system design and implementation decisions.
- The results of the assessment may lead to changes to the security requirements and the addition of new requirements.
- Known and potential vulnerabilities are identified, and this knowledge is used to inform decision making about the system functionality and how it is to be implemented, tested, and deployed.

Operational risk assessment

- This risk assessment process focuses on the use of the system and the possible risks that can arise from human behavior.
- Operational risk assessment should continue after a system has been installed to take account of how the system is used.
- Organizational changes may mean that the system is used in different ways from those originally planned. These changes lead to new security requirements that have to be implemented as the system evolves.

Security requirements

Security specification

- Security specification has something in common with safety requirements specification – in both cases, your concern is to avoid something bad happening.
- Four major differences
  - Safety problems are accidental – the software is not operating in a hostile environment. In security, you must assume that attackers have knowledge of system weaknesses
  - When safety failures occur, you can look for the root cause or weakness that led to the failure. When failure results from a deliberate attack, the attacker may conceal the cause of the failure.
  - Shutting down a system can avoid a safety-related failure. Causing a shut down may be the aim of an attack.
  - Safety-related events are not generated from an intelligent adversary. An attacker can probe defenses over time to discover weaknesses.

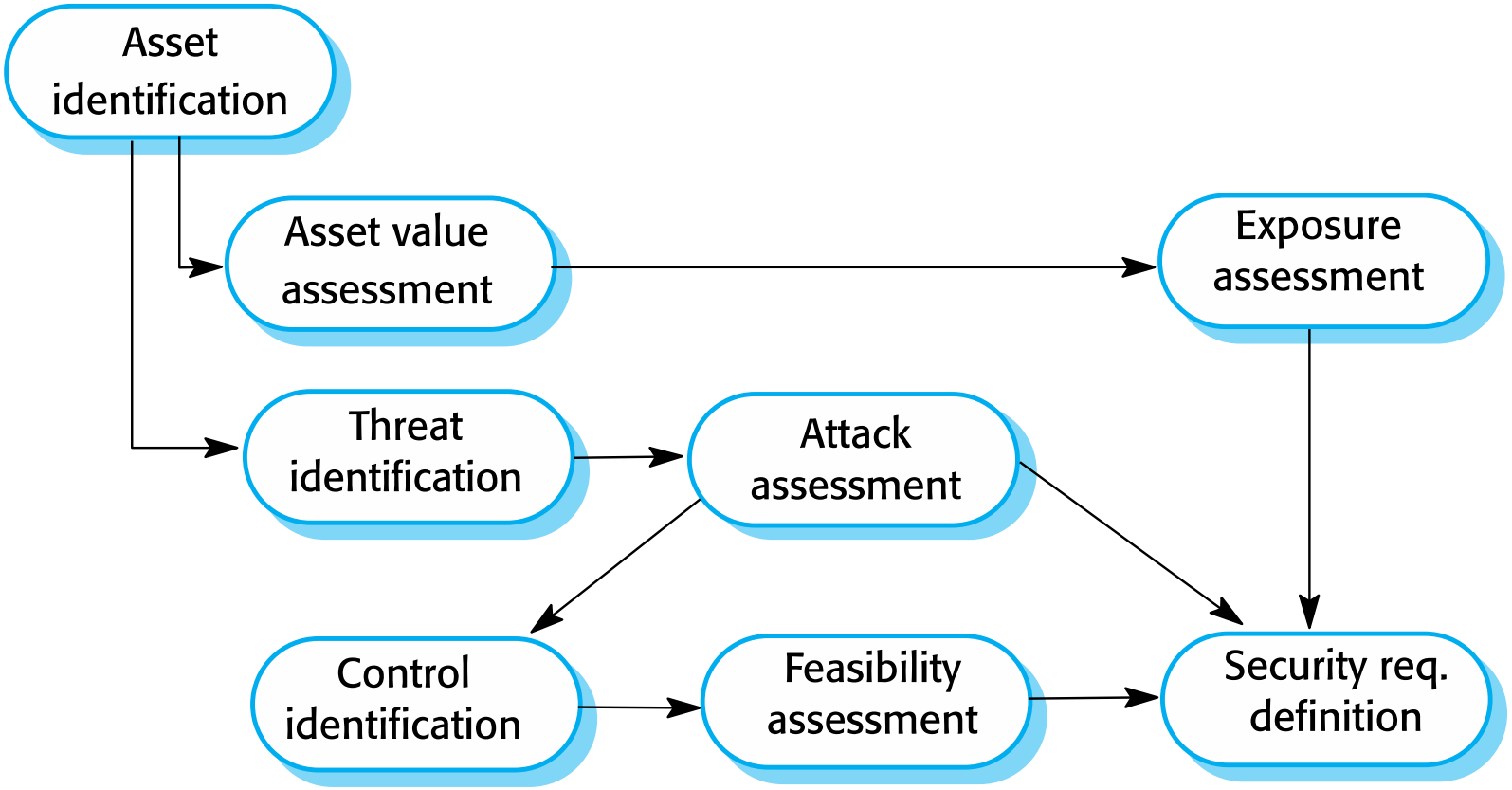
Types of security requirement

- ✧ Identification requirements.
- ✧ Authentication requirements.
- ✧ Authorisation requirements.
- ✧ Immunity requirements.
- ✧ Integrity requirements.
- ✧ Intrusion detection requirements.
- ✧ Non-repudiation requirements.
- ✧ Privacy requirements.
- ✧ Security auditing requirements.
- ✧ System maintenance security requirements.

Security requirement classification

- Risk avoidance requirements set out the risks that should be avoided by designing the system so that these risks simply cannot arise.
- Risk detection requirements define mechanisms that identify the risk if it arises and neutralise the risk before losses occur.
- Risk mitigation requirements set out how the system should be designed so that it can recover from and restore system assets after some loss has occurred.

The preliminary risk assessment process for security requirements



Security risk assessment

- ✧ Asset identification
  - Identify the key system assets (or services) that have to be protected.
- ✧ Asset value assessment
  - Estimate the value of the identified assets.
- ✧ Exposure assessment
  - Assess the potential losses associated with each asset.
- ✧ Threat identification
  - Identify the most probable threats to the system assets

Security risk assessment

- ✧ Attack assessment
  - Decompose threats into possible attacks on the system and the ways that these may occur.
- ✧ Control identification
  - Propose the controls that may be put in place to protect an asset.
- ✧ Feasibility assessment
  - Assess the technical feasibility and cost of the controls.
- ✧ Security requirements definition
  - Define system security requirements. These can be infrastructure or application system requirements.

Asset analysis in a preliminary risk assessment report for the Mentcare system

Asset	Value	Exposure
The information system	High. Required to support all clinical consultations. Potentially safety-critical.	High. Financial loss as clinics may have to be canceled. Costs of restoring system. Possible patient harm if treatment cannot be prescribed.
The patient database	High. Required to support all clinical consultations. Potentially safety-critical.	High. Financial loss as clinics may have to be canceled. Costs of restoring system. Possible patient harm if treatment cannot be prescribed.
An individual patient record	Normally low although may be high for specific high-profile patients.	Low direct losses but possible loss of reputation.

Threat and control analysis in a preliminary risk assessment report

Threat	Probability	Control	Feasibility
An unauthorized user gains access as system manager and makes system unavailable	Low	Only allow system management from specific locations that are physically secure.	Low cost of implementation but care must be taken with key distribution and to ensure that keys are available in the event of an emergency.
An unauthorized user gains access as system user and accesses confidential information	High	Require all users to authenticate themselves using a biometric mechanism. Log all changes to patient information to track system usage.	Technically feasible but high-cost solution. Possible user resistance. Simple and transparent to implement and also supports recovery.

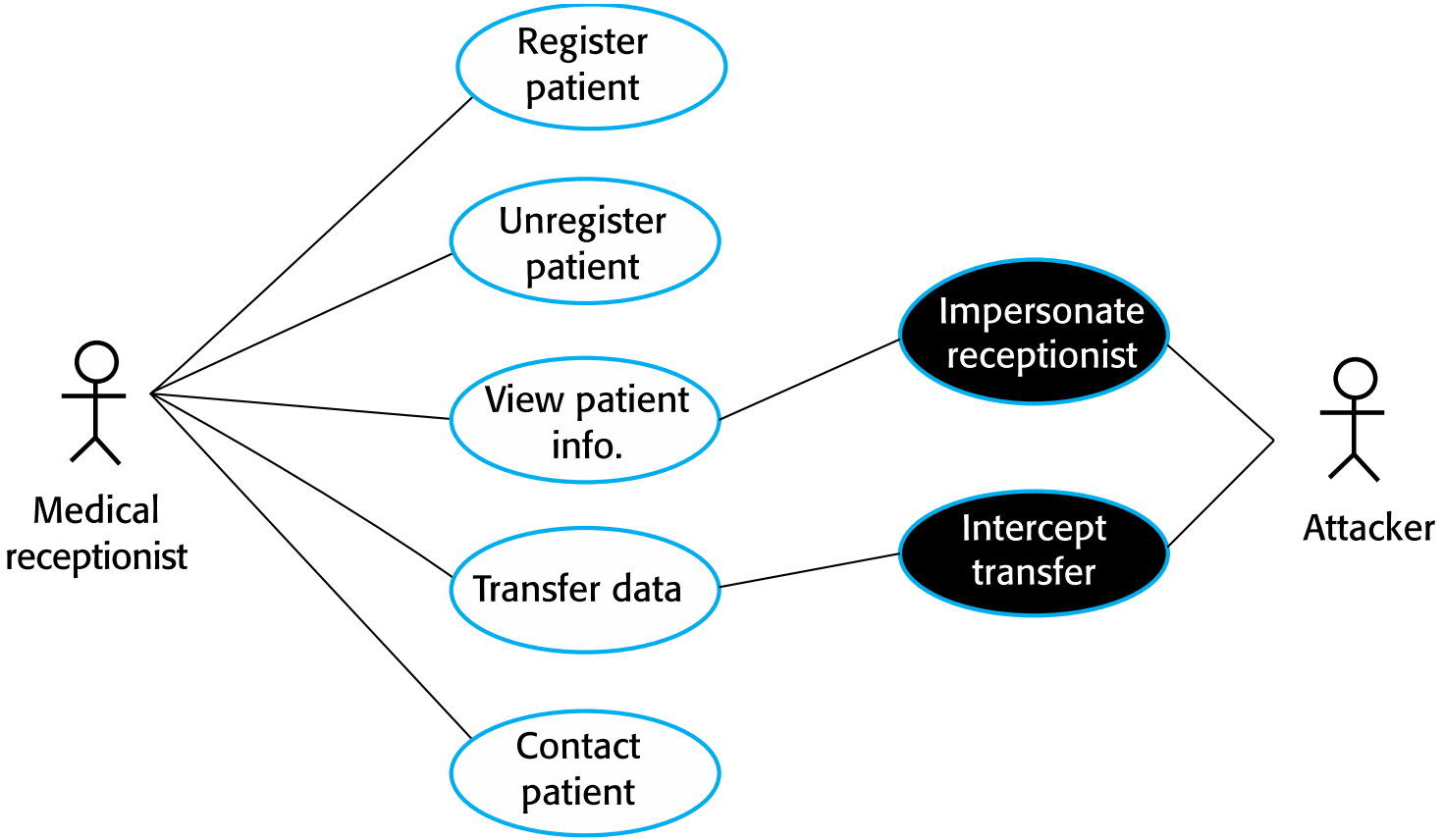
Security requirements for the Mentcare system

- Patient information shall be downloaded at the start of a clinic session to a secure area on the system client that is used by clinical staff.
- All patient information on the system client shall be encrypted.
- Patient information shall be uploaded to the database after a clinic session has finished and deleted from the client computer.
- A log on a separate computer from the database server must be maintained of all changes made to the system database.

Misuse cases

- Misuse cases are instances of threats to a system
- Interception threats
  - Attacker gains access to an asset
- Interruption threats
  - Attacker makes part of a system unavailable
- Modification threats
  - A system asset if tampered with
- Fabrication threats
  - False information is added to a system

Misuse cases



Mentcare use case – Transfer data

Mentcare system: Transfer data	
Actors	Medical receptionist, Patient records system (PRS)
Description	A receptionist may transfer data from the Mentcare system to a general patient record database that is maintained by a health authority. The information transferred may either be updated personal information (address, phone number, etc.) or a summary of the patient's diagnosis and treatment.
Data	Patient's personal information, treatment summary.
Stimulus	User command issued by medical receptionist.
Response	Confirmation that PRS has been updated.
Comments	The receptionist must have appropriate security permissions to access the patient information and the PRS.

Mentcare misuse case: Intercept transfer

Mentcare system: Intercept transfer (Misuse case)	
Actors	Medical receptionist, Patient records system (PRS), Attacker
Description	A receptionist transfers data from his or her PC to the Mentcare system on the server. An attacker intercepts the data transfer and takes a copy of that data.
Data (assets)	Patient's personal information, treatment summary
Attacks	A network monitor is added to the system and packets from the receptionist to the server are intercepted. A spoof server is set up between the receptionist and the database server so that receptionist believes they are interacting with the real system.

Misuse case: Intercept transfer

Mentcare system: Intercept transfer (Misuse case)	
Mitigations	All networking equipment must be maintained in a locked room. Engineers accessing the equipment must be accredited. All data transfers between the client and server must be encrypted. Certificate-based client-server communication must be used
Requirements	All communications between the client and the server must use the Secure Socket Layer (SSL). The https protocol uses certificate based authentication and encryption.

Secure systems design

Secure systems design

- Security should be designed into a system – it is very difficult to make an insecure system secure after it has been designed or implemented
- Architectural design
  - how do architectural design decisions affect the security of a system?
- Good practice
  - what is accepted good practice when designing secure systems?

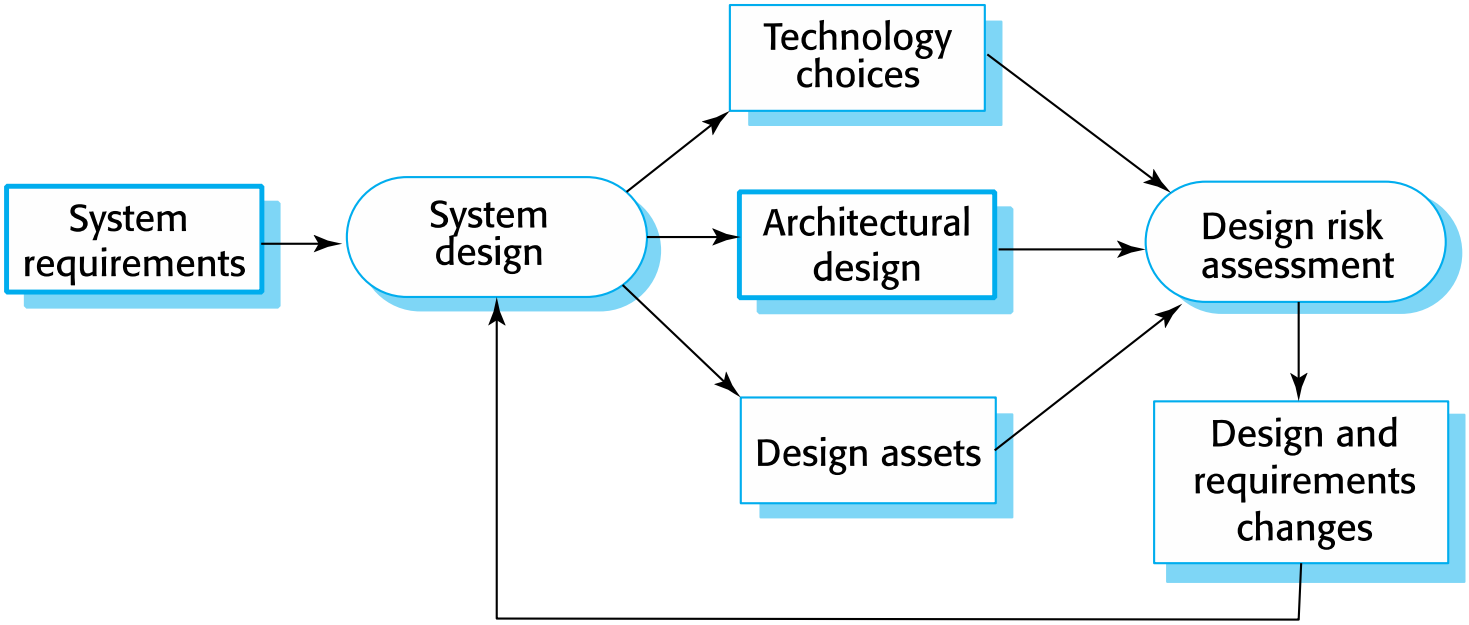
Design compromises

- Adding security features to a system to enhance its security affects other attributes of the system
- Performance
  - Additional security checks slow down a system so its response time or throughput may be affected
- Usability
  - Security measures may require users to remember information or require additional interactions to complete a transaction. This makes the system less usable and can frustrate system users.

Design risk assessment

- Risk assessment while the system is being developed and after it has been deployed
- More information is available - system platform, middleware and the system architecture and data organisation.
- Vulnerabilities that arise from design choices may therefore be identified.

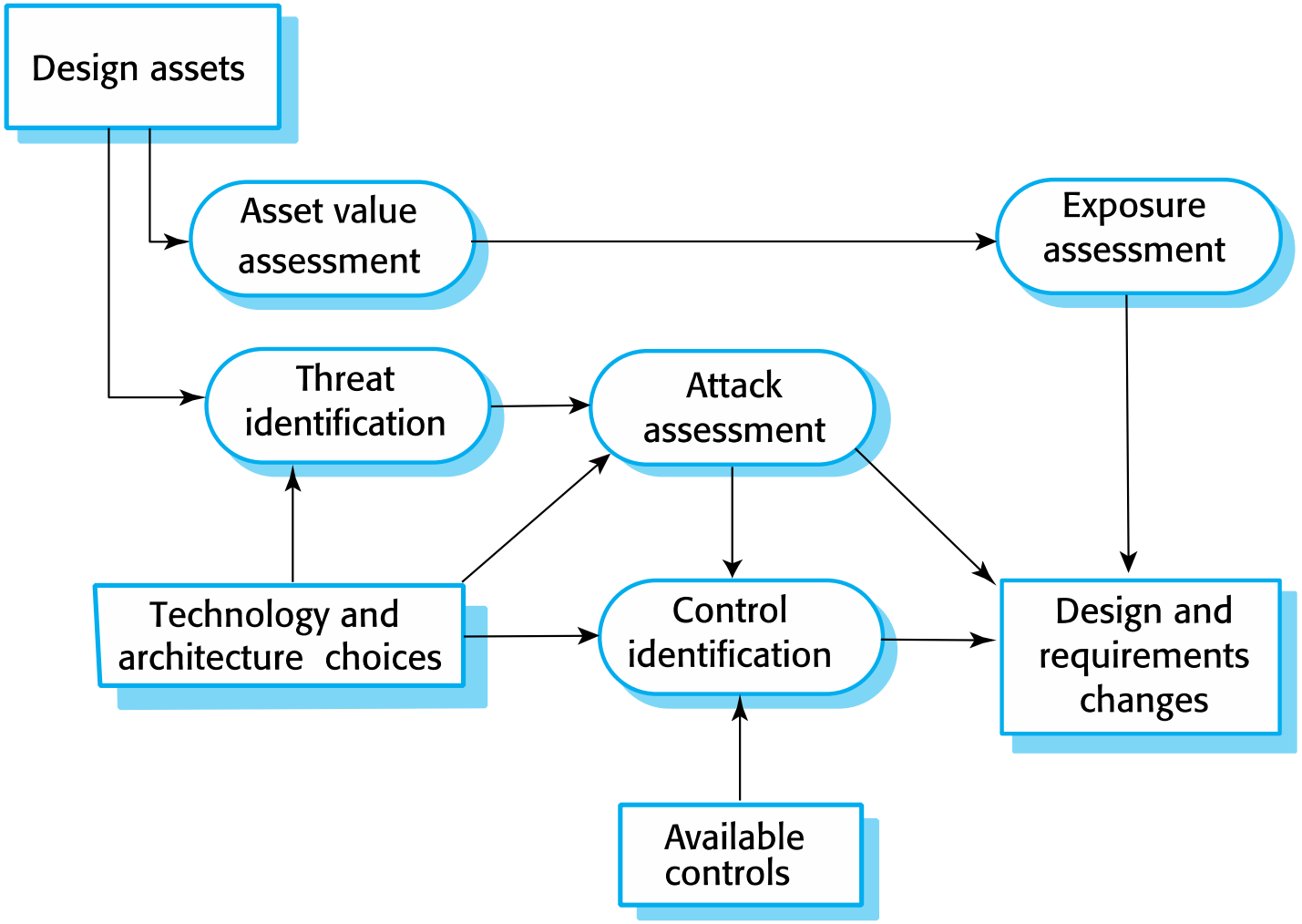
Design and risk assessment



Protection requirements

- Protection requirements may be generated when knowledge of information representation and system distribution
- Separating patient and treatment information limits the amount of information (personal patient data) that needs to be protected
- Maintaining copies of records on a local client protects against denial of service attacks on the server
  - But these may need to be encrypted

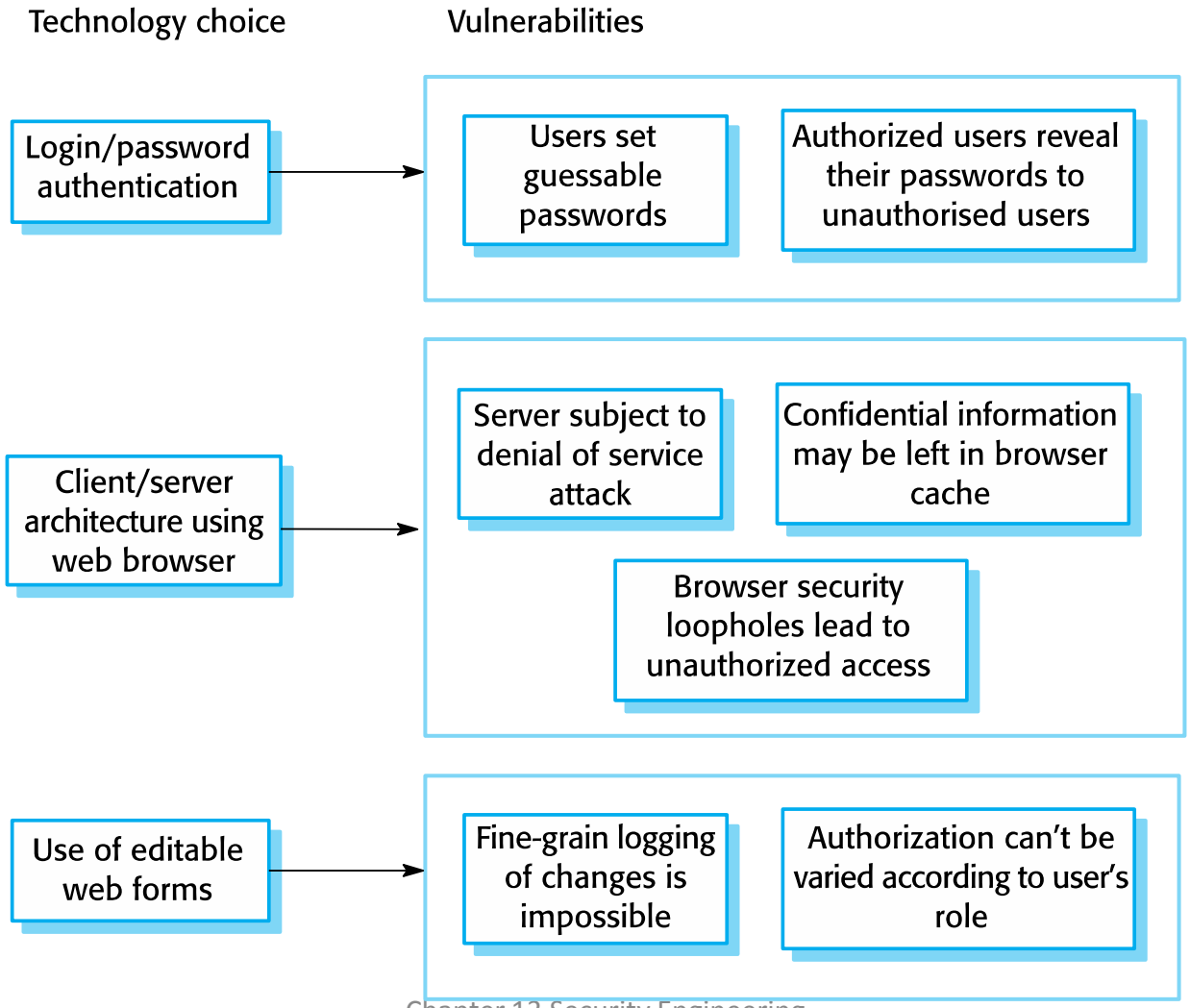
Design risk assessment



Design decisions from use of COTS

- System users authenticated using a name/password combination.
- The system architecture is client-server with clients accessing the system through a standard web browser.
- Information is presented as an editable web form.

Vulnerabilities associated with technology choices



Security requirements

- A password checker shall be made available and shall be run daily. Weak passwords shall be reported to system administrators.
- Access to the system shall only be allowed by approved client computers.
- All client computers shall have a single, approved web browser installed by system administrators.

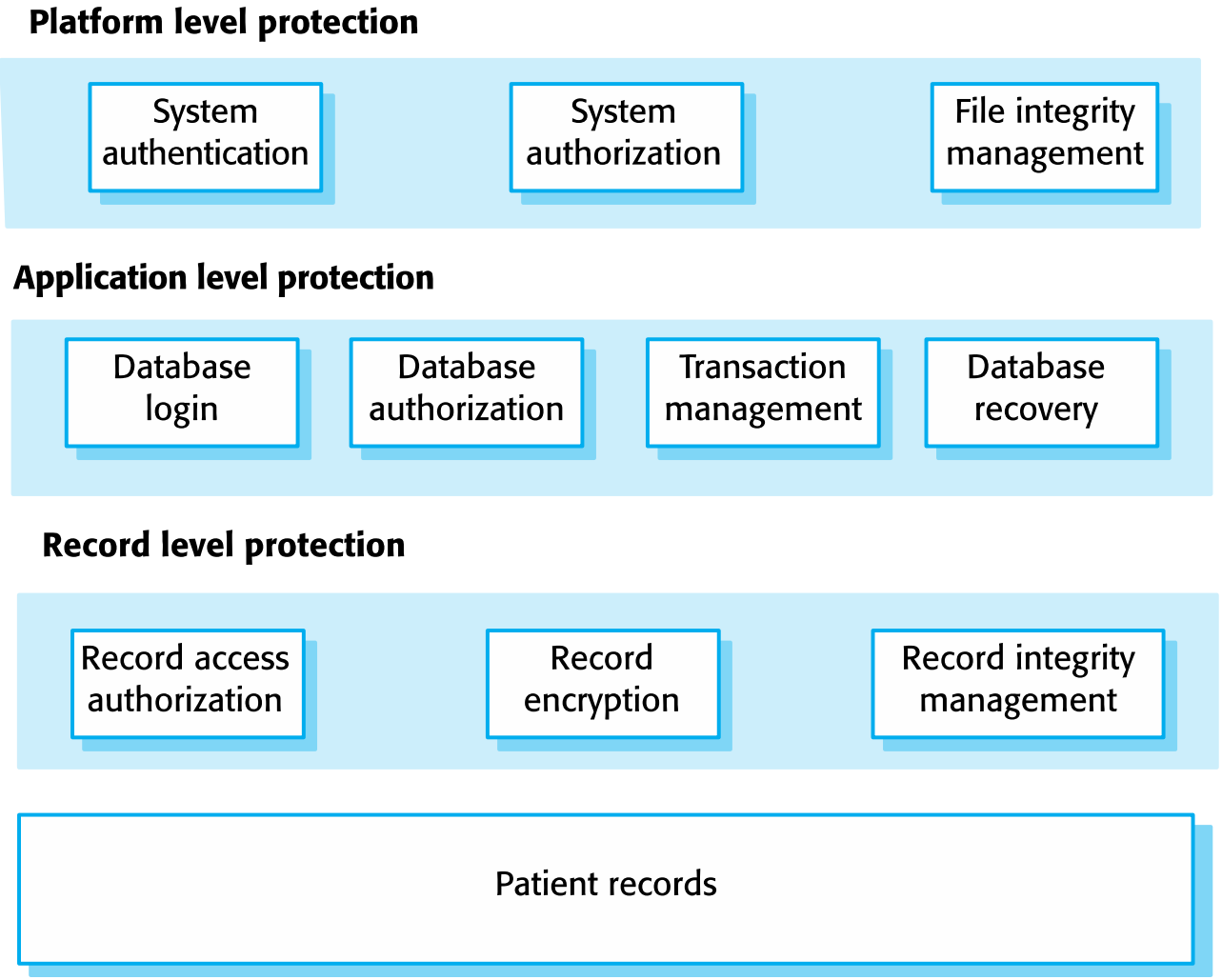
Architectural design

- Two fundamental issues have to be considered when designing an architecture for security.
  - Protection
    - How should the system be organised so that critical assets can be protected against external attack?
  - Distribution
    - How should system assets be distributed so that the effects of a successful attack are minimized?
- These are potentially conflicting
  - If assets are distributed, then they are more expensive to protect. If assets are protected, then usability and performance requirements may be compromised.

Protection

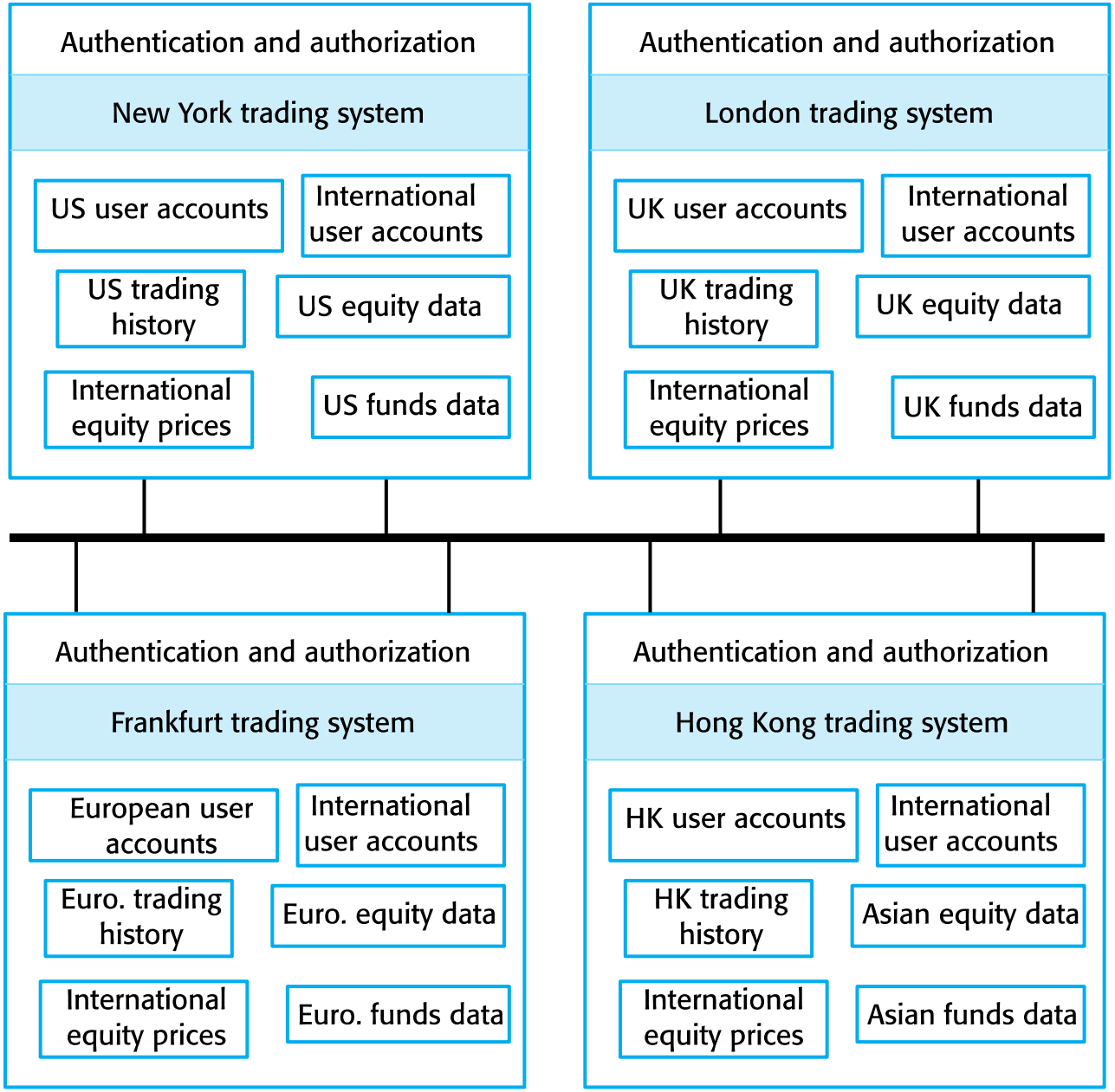
- Platform-level protection
  - Top-level controls on the platform on which a system runs.
- Application-level protection
  - Specific protection mechanisms built into the application itself e.g. additional password protection.
- Record-level protection
  - Protection that is invoked when access to specific information is requested
- These lead to a layered protection architecture

A layered protection architecture



Distribution

- Distributing assets means that attacks on one system do not necessarily lead to complete loss of system service
- Each platform has separate protection features and may be different from other platforms so that they do not share a common vulnerability
- Distribution is particularly important if the risk of denial of service attacks is high



Distributed assets in an equity trading system

Design guidelines for security engineering

- Design guidelines encapsulate good practice in secure systems design
- Design guidelines serve two purposes:
  - They raise awareness of security issues in a software engineering team. Security is considered when design decisions are made.
  - They can be used as the basis of a review checklist that is applied during the system validation process.
- Design guidelines here are applicable during software specification and design

Design guidelines for secure systems engineering

Security guidelines	
Base security decisions on an explicit security policy	
Avoid a single point of failure	
Fail securely	
Balance security and usability	
Log user actions	
Use redundancy and diversity to reduce risk	
Specify the format of all system inputs	
Compartmentalize your assets	
Design for deployment	
Design for recoverability	

Design guidelines 1-3

- ✧ Base decisions on an explicit security policy
  - Define a security policy for the organization that sets out the fundamental security requirements that should apply to all organizational systems.
- ✧ Avoid a single point of failure
  - Ensure that a security failure can only result when there is more than one failure in security procedures. For example, have password and question-based authentication.
- ✧ Fail securely
  - When systems fail, for whatever reason, ensure that sensitive information cannot be accessed by unauthorized users even although normal security procedures are unavailable.

Design guidelines 4-6

- ✧ Balance security and usability
  - Try to avoid security procedures that make the system difficult to use. Sometimes you have to accept weaker security to make the system more usable.
- ✧ Log user actions
  - Maintain a log of user actions that can be analyzed to discover who did what. If users know about such a log, they are less likely to behave in an irresponsible way.
- ✧ Use redundancy and diversity to reduce risk
  - Keep multiple copies of data and use diverse infrastructure so that an infrastructure vulnerability cannot be the single point of failure.

Design guidelines 7-10

- ✧ Specify the format of all system inputs
  - If input formats are known then you can check that all inputs are within range so that unexpected inputs don't cause problems.
- ✧ Compartmentalize your assets
  - Organize the system so that assets are in separate areas and users only have access to the information that they need rather than all system information.
- ✧ Design for deployment
  - Design the system to avoid deployment problems
- ✧ Design for recoverability
  - Design the system to simplify recoverability after a successful attack.

Secure systems programming

Aspects of secure systems programming

- ✧ Vulnerabilities are often language-specific.
  - Array bound checking is automatic in languages like Java so this is not a vulnerability that can be exploited in Java programs.
  - However, millions of programs are written in C and C++ as these allow for the development of more efficient software so simply avoiding the use of these languages is not a realistic option.
- ✧ Security vulnerabilities are closely related to program reliability.
  - Programs without array bound checking can crash so actions taken to improve program reliability can also improve system security.

Dependable programming guidelines

Dependable programming guidelines

1. **Limit the visibility of information in a program**
2. **Check all inputs for validity**
3. **Provide a handler for all exceptions**
4. **Minimize the use of error-prone constructs**
5. **Provide restart capabilities**
6. **Check array bounds**
7. **Include timeouts when calling external components**
8. **Name all constants that represent real-world values**

Security testing and assurance

Security testing

- Testing the extent to which the system can protect itself from external attacks.
- Problems with security testing
  - Security requirements are ‘shall not’ requirements i.e. they specify what should not happen. It is not usually possible to define security requirements as simple constraints that can be checked by the system.
  - The people attacking a system are intelligent and look for vulnerabilities. They can experiment to discover weaknesses and loopholes in the system.

Security validation

- ✧ Experience-based testing
  - The system is reviewed and analysed against the types of attack that are known to the validation team.
- ✧ Penetration testing
  - A team is established whose goal is to breach the security of the system by simulating attacks on the system.
- ✧ Tool-based analysis
  - Various security tools such as password checkers are used to analyse the system in operation.
- ✧ Formal verification
  - The system is verified against a formal security specification.

Examples of entries in a security checklist

Security checklist

1. Do all files that are created in the application have appropriate access permissions? The wrong access permissions may lead to these files being accessed by unauthorized users.

2. Does the system automatically terminate user sessions after a period of inactivity? Sessions that are left active may allow unauthorized access through an unattended computer.

3. If the system is written in a programming language without array bound checking, are there situations where buffer overflow may be exploited? Buffer overflow may allow attackers to send code strings to the system and then execute them.

4. If passwords are set, does the system check that passwords are 'strong'? Strong passwords consist of mixed letters, numbers, and punctuation, and are not normal dictionary entries. They are more difficult to break than simple passwords.

5. Are inputs from the system's environment always checked against an input specification? Incorrect processing of badly formed inputs is a common cause of security vulnerabilities.

Key points

- Security engineering is concerned with how to develop systems that can resist malicious attacks
- Security threats can be threats to confidentiality, integrity or availability of a system or its data
- Security risk management is concerned with assessing possible losses from attacks and deriving security requirements to minimise losses
- To specify security requirements, you should identify the assets that are to be protected and define how security techniques and technology should be used to protect these assets.

Key points

- Key issues when designing a secure systems architecture include organizing the system structure to protect key assets and distributing the system assets to minimize the losses from a successful attack.
- Security design guidelines sensitize system designers to security issues that they may not have considered. They provide a basis for creating security review checklists.
- Security validation is difficult because security requirements state what should not happen in a system, rather than what should. Furthermore, system attackers are intelligent and may have more time to probe for weaknesses than is available for security testing.

Chapter 22 – Project Management

Topics covered

- ✧ Risk management
- ✧ Managing people
- ✧ Teamwork

Software project management

- Concerned with activities involved in ensuring that software is delivered on time and on schedule and in accordance with the requirements of the organisations developing and procuring the software.
- Project management is needed because software development is always subject to budget and schedule constraints that are set by the organisation developing the software.

Success criteria

- Deliver the software to the customer at the agreed time.
- Keep overall costs within budget.
- Deliver software that meets the customer's expectations.
- Maintain a coherent and well-functioning development team.

Software management distinctions

- The product is intangible.
  - Software cannot be seen or touched. Software project managers cannot see progress by simply looking at the artefact that is being constructed.
- Many software projects are 'one-off' projects.
  - Large software projects are usually different in some ways from previous projects. Even managers who have lots of previous experience may find it difficult to anticipate problems.
- Software processes are variable and organization specific.
  - We still cannot reliably predict when a particular software process is likely to lead to development problems.

Factors influencing project management

- Company size
- Software customers
- Software size
- Software type
- Organizational culture
- Software development processes
- These factors mean that project managers in different organizations may work in quite different ways.

Universal management activities

✧ *Project planning*

- Project managers are responsible for planning. estimating and scheduling project development and assigning people to tasks.
- Covered in Chapter 23.

✧ *Risk management*

- Project managers assess the risks that may affect a project, monitor these risks and take action when problems arise.

✧ *People management*

- Project managers have to choose people for their team and establish ways of working that leads to effective team performance.

Management activities

- *Reporting*
  - Project managers are usually responsible for reporting on the progress of a project to customers and to the managers of the company developing the software.
- *Proposal writing*
  - The first stage in a software project may involve writing a proposal to win a contract to carry out an item of work. The proposal describes the objectives of the project and how it will be carried out.

Risk management

Risk management

- Risk management is concerned with identifying risks and drawing up plans to minimise their effect on a project.
- Software risk management is important because of the inherent uncertainties in software development.
  - These uncertainties stem from loosely defined requirements, requirements changes due to changes in customer needs, difficulties in estimating the time and resources required for software development, and differences in individual skills.
- You have to anticipate risks, understand the impact of these risks on the project, the product and the business, and take steps to avoid these risks.

Risk classification

- There are two dimensions of risk classification
  - The type of risk (technical, organizational, ..)
  - what is affected by the risk:
- *Project risks* affect schedule or resources;
- *Product risks* affect the quality or performance of the software being developed;
- *Business risks* affect the organisation developing or procuring the software.

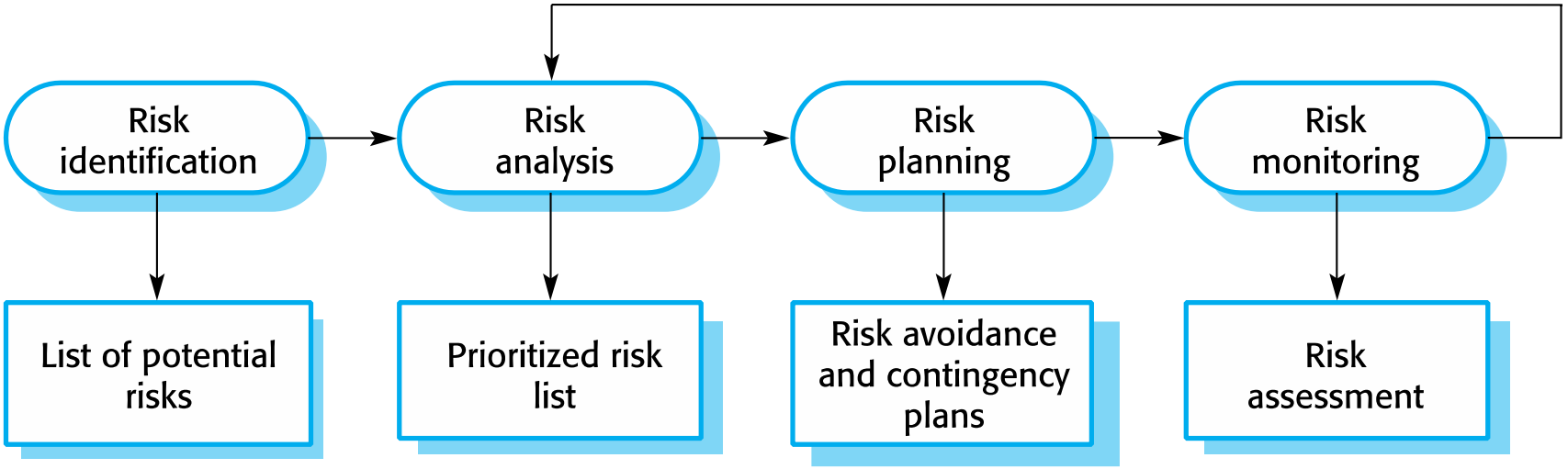
Examples of project, product, and business risks

Risk	Affects	Description
Staff turnover	Project	Experienced staff will leave the project before it is finished.
Management change	Project	There will be a change of organizational management with different priorities.
Hardware unavailability	Project	Hardware that is essential for the project will not be delivered on schedule.
Requirements change	Project and product	There will be a larger number of changes to the requirements than anticipated.
Specification delays	Project and product	Specifications of essential interfaces are not available on schedule.
Size underestimate	Project and product	The size of the system has been underestimated.
CASE tool underperformance	Product	CASE tools, which support the project, do not perform as anticipated.
Technology change	Business	The underlying technology on which the system is built is superseded by new technology.
Product competition	Business	A competitive product is marketed before the system is completed.

The risk management process

- ✧ Risk identification
  - Identify project, product and business risks;
- ✧ Risk analysis
  - Assess the likelihood and consequences of these risks;
- ✧ Risk planning
  - Draw up plans to avoid or minimise the effects of the risk;
- ✧ Risk monitoring
  - Monitor the risks throughout the project;

The risk management process



Risk identification

- ✧ May be a team activities or based on the individual project manager's experience.
- ✧ A checklist of common risks may be used to identify risks in a project
  - Technology risks.
  - Organizational risks.
  - People risks.
  - Requirements risks.
  - Estimation risks.

Examples of different risk types

Risk type	Possible risks
Estimation	The time required to develop the software is underestimated. (12) The rate of defect repair is underestimated. (13) The size of the software is underestimated. (14)
Organizational	The organization is restructured so that different management are responsible for the project. (6) Organizational financial problems force reductions in the project budget. (7)
People	It is impossible to recruit staff with the skills required. (3) Key staff are ill and unavailable at critical times. (4) Required training for staff is not available. (5)
Requirements	Changes to requirements that require major design rework are proposed. (10) Customers fail to understand the impact of requirements changes. (11)
Technology	The database used in the system cannot process as many transactions per second as expected. (1) Reusable software components contain defects that mean they cannot be reused as planned. (2)
Tools	The code generated by software code generation tools is inefficient. (8) Software tools cannot work together in an integrated way. (9)

Risk analysis

- ✧ Assess probability and seriousness of each risk.
- ✧ Probability may be very low, low, moderate, high or very high.
- ✧ Risk consequences might be catastrophic, serious, tolerable or insignificant.

Risk types and examples

Risk	Probability	Effects
Organizational financial problems force reductions in the project budget (7).	Low	Catastrophic
It is impossible to recruit staff with the skills required for the project (3).	High	Catastrophic
Key staff are ill at critical times in the project (4).	Moderate	Serious
Faults in reusable software components have to be repaired before these components are reused. (2).	Moderate	Serious
Changes to requirements that require major design rework are proposed (10).	Moderate	Serious
The organization is restructured so that different management are responsible for the project (6).	High	Serious
The database used in the system cannot process as many transactions per second as expected (1).	Moderate	Serious

Risk types and examples

Risk	Probability	Effects
The time required to develop the software is underestimated (12).	High	Serious
Software tools cannot be integrated (9).	High	Tolerable
Customers fail to understand the impact of requirements changes (11).	Moderate	Tolerable
Required training for staff is not available (5).	Moderate	Tolerable
The rate of defect repair is underestimated (13).	Moderate	Tolerable
The size of the software is underestimated (14).	High	Tolerable
Code generated by code generation tools is inefficient (8).	Moderate	Insignificant

Risk planning

- Consider each risk and develop a strategy to manage that risk.
- Avoidance strategies
  - The probability that the risk will arise is reduced;
- Minimization strategies
  - The impact of the risk on the project or product will be reduced;
- Contingency plans
  - If the risk arises, contingency plans are plans to deal with that risk;

What-if questions

- What if several engineers are ill at the same time?
- What if an economic downturn leads to budget cuts of 20% for the project?
- What if the performance of open-source software is inadequate and the only expert on that open source software leaves?
- What if the company that supplies and maintains software components goes out of business?
- What if the customer fails to deliver the revised requirements as predicted?

Strategies to help manage risk

Risk	Strategy
Organizational financial problems	Prepare a briefing document for senior management showing how the project is making a very important contribution to the goals of the business and presenting reasons why cuts to the project budget would not be cost-effective.
Recruitment problems	Alert customer to potential difficulties and the possibility of delays; investigate buying-in components.
Staff illness	Reorganize team so that there is more overlap of work and people therefore understand each other's jobs.
Defective components	Replace potentially defective components with bought-in components of known reliability.
Requirements changes	Derive traceability information to assess requirements change impact; maximize information hiding in the design.

Strategies to help manage risk

Risk	Strategy
Organizational restructuring	Prepare a briefing document for senior management showing how the project is making a very important contribution to the goals of the business.
Database performance	Investigate the possibility of buying a higher-performance database.
Underestimated development time	Investigate buying-in components; investigate use of a program generator.

Risk monitoring

- Assess each identified risks regularly to decide whether or not it is becoming less or more probable.
- Also assess whether the effects of the risk have changed.
- Each key risk should be discussed at management progress meetings.

Risk indicators

Risk type	Potential indicators
Estimation	Failure to meet agreed schedule; failure to clear reported defects.
Organizational	Organizational gossip; lack of action by senior management.
People	Poor staff morale; poor relationships amongst team members; high staff turnover.
Requirements	Many requirements change requests; customer complaints.
Technology	Late delivery of hardware or support software; many reported technology problems.
Tools	Reluctance by team members to use tools; complaints about CASE tools; demands for higher-powered workstations.

Managing people

Managing people

- People are an organisation's most important assets.
- The tasks of a manager are essentially people-oriented. Unless there is some understanding of people, management will be unsuccessful.
- Poor people management is an important contributor to project failure.

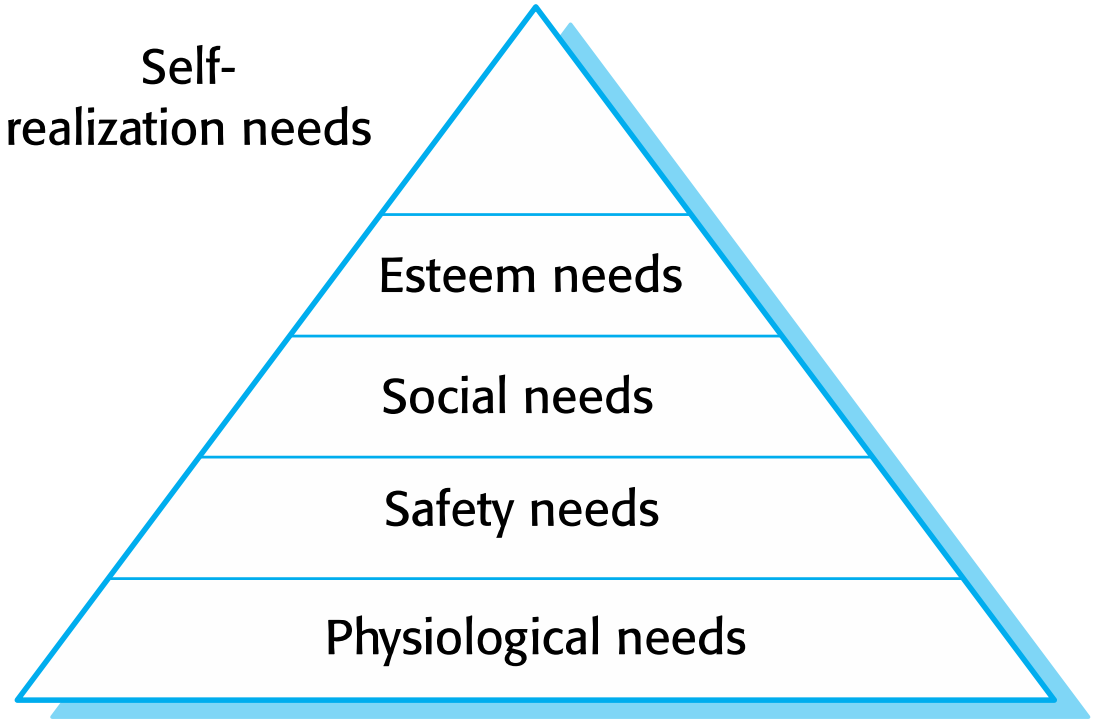
People management factors

- ✧ Consistency
  - Team members should all be treated in a comparable way without favourites or discrimination.
- ✧ Respect
  - Different team members have different skills and these differences should be respected.
- ✧ Inclusion
  - Involve all team members and make sure that people's views are considered.
- ✧ Honesty
  - You should always be honest about what is going well and what is going badly in a project.

Motivating people

- An important role of a manager is to motivate the people working on a project.
- Motivation means organizing the work and the working environment to encourage people to work effectively.
  - If people are not motivated, they will not be interested in the work they are doing. They will work slowly, be more likely to make mistakes and will not contribute to the broader goals of the team or the organization.
- Motivation is a complex issue but it appears that their are different types of motivation based on:
  - Basic needs (e.g. food, sleep, etc.);
  - Personal needs (e.g. respect, self-esteem);
  - Social needs (e.g. to be accepted as part of a group).

Human needs hierarchy



Need satisfaction

- In software development groups, basic physiological and safety needs are not an issue.
- Social
  - Provide communal facilities;
  - Allow informal communications e.g. via social networking
- Esteem
  - Recognition of achievements;
  - Appropriate rewards.
- Self-realization
  - Training - people want to learn more;
  - Responsibility.

Case study: Individual motivation

Alice is a software project manager working in a company that develops alarm systems. This company wishes to enter the growing market of assistive technology to help elderly and disabled people live independently. Alice has been asked to lead a team of 6 developers than can develop new products based around the company's alarm technology.

Alice's assistive technology project starts well. Good working relationships develop within the team and creative new ideas are developed. The team decides to develop a peer-to-peer messaging system using digital televisions linked to the alarm network for communications. However, some months into the project, Alice notices that Dorothy, a hardware design expert, starts coming into work late, the quality of her work deteriorates and, increasingly, that she does not appear to be communicating with other members of the team.

Alice talks about the problem informally with other team members to try to find out if Dorothy's personal circumstances have changed, and if this might be affecting her work. They don't know of anything, so Alice decides to talk with Dorothy to try to understand the problem.

Case study: Individual motivation

After some initial denials that there is a problem, Dorothy admits that she has lost interest in the job. She expected that she would be able to develop and use her hardware interfacing skills. However, because of the product direction that has been chosen, she has little opportunity for this. Basically, she is working as a C programmer with other team members.

Although she admits that the work is challenging, she is concerned that she is not developing her interfacing skills. She is worried that finding a job that involves hardware interfacing will be difficult after this project. Because she does not want to upset the team by revealing that she is thinking about the next project, she has decided that it is best to minimize conversation with them.

Comments on case study

- If you don't sort out the problem of unacceptable work, the other group members will become dissatisfied and feel that they are doing an unfair share of the work.
- Personal difficulties affect motivation because people can't concentrate on their work. They need time and support to resolve these issues, although you have to make clear that they still have a responsibility to their employer.
- Alice gives Dorothy more design autonomy and organizes training courses in software engineering that will give her more opportunities after her current project has finished.

Personality types

- The needs hierarchy is almost certainly an over-simplification of motivation in practice.
- Motivation should also take into account different personality types:
  - Task-oriented people, who are motivated by the work they do. In software engineering.
  - Interaction-oriented people, who are motivated by the presence and actions of co-workers.
  - Self-oriented people, who are principally motivated by personal success and recognition.

Personality types

- ✧ Task-oriented.
  - The motivation for doing the work is the work itself;
- ✧ Self-oriented.
  - The work is a means to an end which is the achievement of individual goals - e.g. to get rich, to play tennis, to travel etc.;
- ✧ Interaction-oriented
  - The principal motivation is the presence and actions of co-workers. People go to work because they like to go to work.

Motivation balance

- Individual motivations are made up of elements of each class.
- The balance can change depending on personal circumstances and external events.
- However, people are not just motivated by personal factors but also by being part of a group and culture.
- People go to work because they are motivated by the people that they work with.

Teamwork

Teamwork

- Most software engineering is a group activity
  - The development schedule for most non-trivial software projects is such that they cannot be completed by one person working alone.
- A good group is cohesive and has a team spirit. The people involved are motivated by the success of the group as well as by their own personal goals.
- Group interaction is a key determinant of group performance.
- Flexibility in group composition is limited
  - Managers must do the best they can with available people.

Group cohesiveness

- In a cohesive group, members consider the group to be more important than any individual in it.
- The advantages of a cohesive group are:
  - Group quality standards can be developed by the group members.
  - Team members learn from each other and get to know each other's work; Inhibitions caused by ignorance are reduced.
  - Knowledge is shared. Continuity can be maintained if a group member leaves.
  - Refactoring and continual improvement is encouraged. Group members work collectively to deliver high quality results and fix problems, irrespective of the individuals who originally created the design or program.

Team spirit

Alice, an experienced project manager, understands the importance of creating a cohesive group. As they are developing a new product, she takes the opportunity of involving all group members in the product specification and design by getting them to discuss possible technology with elderly members of their families. She also encourages them to bring these family members to meet other members of the development group.

Alice also arranges monthly lunches for everyone in the group. These lunches are an opportunity for all team members to meet informally, talk around issues of concern, and get to know each other. At the lunch, Alice tells the group what she knows about organizational news, policies, strategies, and so forth. Each team member then briefly summarizes what they have been doing and the group discusses a general topic, such as new product ideas from elderly relatives.

Every few months, Alice organizes an ‘away day’ for the group where the team spends two days on ‘technology updating’. Each team member prepares an update on a relevant technology and presents it to the group. This is an off-site meeting in a good hotel and plenty of time is scheduled for discussion and social interaction.

The effectiveness of a team

- The people in the group
  - You need a mix of people in a project group as software development involves diverse activities such as negotiating with clients, programming, testing and documentation.
- The group organization
  - A group should be organized so that individuals can contribute to the best of their abilities and tasks can be completed as expected.
- Technical and managerial communications
  - Good communications between group members, and between the software engineering team and other project stakeholders, is essential.

Selecting group members

- A manager or team leader's job is to create a cohesive group and organize their group so that they can work together effectively.
- This involves creating a group with the right balance of technical skills and personalities, and organizing that group so that the members work together effectively.

Assembling a team

- ✧ May not be possible to appoint the ideal people to work on a project
  - Project budget may not allow for the use of highly-paid staff;
  - Staff with the appropriate experience may not be available;
  - An organisation may wish to develop employee skills on a software project.
- ✧ Managers have to work within these constraints especially when there are shortages of trained staff.

Group composition

- Group composed of members who share the same motivation can be problematic
  - Task-oriented - everyone wants to do their own thing;
  - Self-oriented - everyone wants to be the boss;
  - Interaction-oriented - too much chatting, not enough work.
- An effective group has a balance of all types.
- This can be difficult to achieve software engineers are often task-oriented.
- Interaction-oriented people are very important as they can detect and defuse tensions that arise.

Group composition

In creating a group for assistive technology development, Alice is aware of the importance of selecting members with complementary personalities. When interviewing potential group members, she tried to assess whether they were task-oriented, self-oriented, or interaction-oriented. She felt that she was primarily a self-oriented type because she considered the project to be a way of getting noticed by senior management and possibly promoted. She therefore looked for one or perhaps two interaction-oriented personalities, with task-oriented individuals to complete the team. The final assessment that she arrived at was:

Alice—self-oriented
Brian—task-oriented
Bob—task-oriented
Carol—interaction-oriented
Dorothy—self-oriented
Ed—interaction-oriented
Fred—task-oriented

Group organization

- The way that a group is organized affects the decisions that are made by that group, the ways that information is exchanged and the interactions between the development group and external project stakeholders.
  - Key questions include:
    - Should the project manager be the technical leader of the group?
    - Who will be involved in making critical technical decisions, and how will these be made?
    - How will interactions with external stakeholders and senior company management be handled?
    - How can groups integrate people who are not co-located?
    - How can knowledge be shared across the group?

Group organization

- Small software engineering groups are usually organised informally without a rigid structure.
- For large projects, there may be a hierarchical structure where different groups are responsible for different sub-projects.
- Agile development is always based around an informal group on the principle that formal structure inhibits information exchange

Informal groups

- The group acts as a whole and comes to a consensus on decisions affecting the system.
- The group leader serves as the external interface of the group but does not allocate specific work items.
- Rather, work is discussed by the group as a whole and tasks are allocated according to ability and experience.
- This approach is successful for groups where all members are experienced and competent.

Group communications

- Good communications are essential for effective group working.
- Information must be exchanged on the status of work, design decisions and changes to previous decisions.
- Good communications also strengthens group cohesion as it promotes understanding.

Group communications

- Group size
  - The larger the group, the harder it is for people to communicate with other group members.
- Group structure
  - Communication is better in informally structured groups than in hierarchically structured groups.
- Group composition
  - Communication is better when there are different personality types in a group and when groups are mixed rather than single sex.
- The physical work environment
  - Good workplace organisation can help encourage communications.

Key points

- Good project management is essential if software engineering projects are to be developed on schedule and within budget.
- Software management is distinct from other engineering management. Software is intangible. Projects may be novel or innovative with no body of experience to guide their management. Software processes are not as mature as traditional engineering processes.
- Risk management involves identifying and assessing project risks to establish the probability that they will occur and the consequences for the project if that risk does arise. You should make plans to avoid, manage or deal with likely risks if or when they arise.

Key points

- People management involves choosing the right people to work on a project and organizing the team and its working environment.
- People are motivated by interaction with other people, the recognition of management and their peers, and by being given opportunities for personal development.
- Software development groups should be fairly small and cohesive. The key factors that influence the effectiveness of a group are the people in that group, the way that it is organized and the communication between group members.
- Communications within a group are influenced by factors such as the status of group members, the size of the group, the gender composition of the group, personalities and available communication channels.

Chapter 23 – Project planning

Topics covered

- ✧ Software pricing
- ✧ Plan-driven development
- ✧ Project scheduling
- ✧ Agile planning
- ✧ Estimation techniques
- ✧ COCOMO cost modeling

Project planning

- Project planning involves breaking down the work into parts and assign these to project team members, anticipate problems that might arise and prepare tentative solutions to those problems.
- The project plan, which is created at the start of a project, is used to communicate how the work will be done to the project team and customers, and to help assess progress on the project.

Planning stages

- At the proposal stage, when you are bidding for a contract to develop or provide a software system.
- During the project startup phase, when you have to plan who will work on the project, how the project will be broken down into increments, how resources will be allocated across your company, etc.
- Periodically throughout the project, when you modify your plan in the light of experience gained and information from monitoring the progress of the work.

Proposal planning

- Planning may be necessary with only outline software requirements.
- The aim of planning at this stage is to provide information that will be used in setting a price for the system to customers.
- Project pricing involves estimating how much the software will cost to develop, taking factors such as staff costs, hardware costs, software costs, etc. into account

Project startup planning

- At this stage, you know more about the system requirements but do not have design or implementation information
- Create a plan with enough detail to make decisions about the project budget and staffing.
  - This plan is the basis for project resource allocation
- The startup plan should also define project monitoring mechanisms
- A startup plan is still needed for agile development to allow resources to be allocated to the project

Development planning

- The project plan should be regularly amended as the project progresses and you know more about the software and its development
- The project schedule, cost-estimate and risks have to be regularly revised

Software pricing

Software pricing

- Estimates are made to discover the cost, to the developer, of producing a software system.
  - You take into account, hardware, software, travel, training and effort costs.
- There is not a simple relationship between the development cost and the price charged to the customer.
- Broader organisational, economic, political and business considerations influence the price charged.

Factors affecting software pricing

Factor	Description
Contractual terms	A customer may be willing to allow the developer to retain ownership of the source code and reuse it in other projects. The price charged may then be less than if the software source code is handed over to the customer.
Cost estimate uncertainty	If an organization is unsure of its cost estimate, it may increase its price by a contingency over and above its normal profit.
Financial health	Developers in financial difficulty may lower their price to gain a contract. It is better to make a smaller than normal profit or break even than to go out of business. Cash flow is more important than profit in difficult economic times.

Factors affecting software pricing

Factor	Description
Market opportunity	A development organization may quote a low price because it wishes to move into a new segment of the software market. Accepting a low profit on one project may give the organization the opportunity to make a greater profit later. The experience gained may also help it develop new products.
Requirements volatility	If the requirements are likely to change, an organization may lower its price to win a contract. After the contract is awarded, high prices can be charged for changes to the requirements.

Pricing strategies

- ✧ Under pricing
  - A company may underprice a system in order to gain a contract that allows them to retain staff for future opportunities
  - A company may underprice a system to gain access to a new market area
- ✧ Increased pricing
  - The price may be increased when a buyer wishes a fixed-price contract and so the seller increases the price to allow for unexpected risks

Pricing to win

- The software is priced according to what the software developer believes the buyer is willing to pay
- If this is less that the development costs, the software functionality may be reduced accordingly with a view to extra functionality being added in a later release
- Additional costs may be added as the requirements change and these may be priced at a higher level to make up the shortfall in the original price

Plan-driven development

Plan-driven development

- Plan-driven or plan-based development is an approach to software engineering where the development process is planned in detail.
  - Plan-driven development is based on engineering project management techniques and is the 'traditional' way of managing large software development projects.
- A project plan is created that records the work to be done, who will do it, the development schedule and the work products.
- Managers use the plan to support project decision making and as a way of measuring progress.

Plan-driven development – pros and cons

- The arguments in favor of a plan-driven approach are that early planning allows organizational issues (availability of staff, other projects, etc.) to be closely taken into account, and that potential problems and dependencies are discovered before the project starts, rather than once the project is underway.
- The principal argument against plan-driven development is that many early decisions have to be revised because of changes to the environment in which the software is to be developed and used.

Project plans

- In a plan-driven development project, a project plan sets out the resources available to the project, the work breakdown and a schedule for carrying out the work.
- Plan sections
  - Introduction
  - Project organization
  - Risk analysis
  - Hardware and software resource requirements
  - Work breakdown
  - Project schedule
  - Monitoring and reporting mechanisms

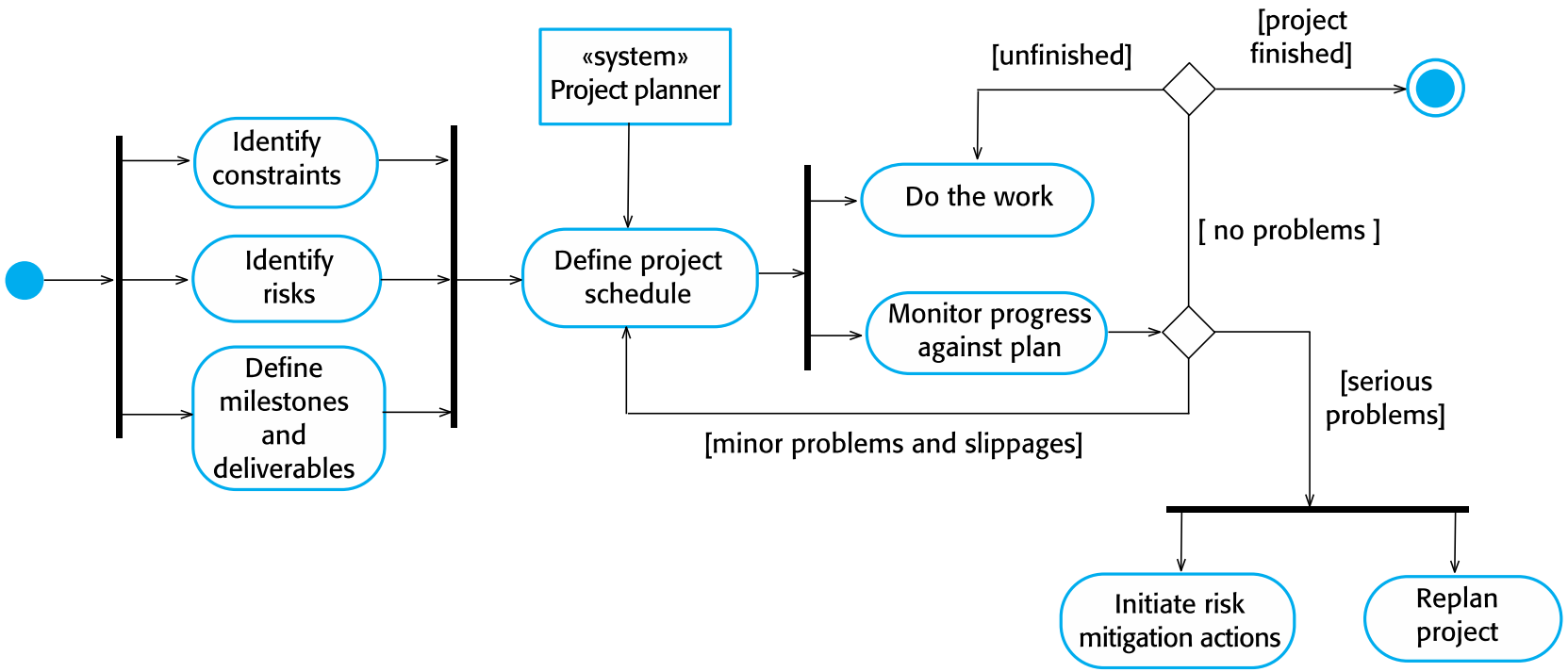
Project plan supplements

Plan	Description
Configuration management plan	Describes the configuration management procedures and structures to be used.
Deployment plan	Describes how the software and associated hardware (if required) will be deployed in the customer's environment. This should include a plan for migrating data from existing systems.
Maintenance plan	Predicts the maintenance requirements, costs, and effort.
Quality plan	Describes the quality procedures and standards that will be used in a project.
Validation plan	Describes the approach, resources, and schedule used for system validation.

The planning process

- Project planning is an iterative process that starts when you create an initial project plan during the project startup phase.
- Plan changes are inevitable.
  - As more information about the system and the project team becomes available during the project, you should regularly revise the plan to reflect requirements, schedule and risk changes.
  - Changing business goals also leads to changes in project plans. As business goals change, this could affect all projects, which may then have to be re-planned.

The project planning process



Planning assumptions

- You should make realistic rather than optimistic assumptions when you are defining a project plan.
- Problems of some description always arise during a project, and these lead to project delays.
- Your initial assumptions and scheduling should therefore take unexpected problems into account.
- You should include contingency in your plan so that if things go wrong, then your delivery schedule is not seriously disrupted.

Risk mitigation

- If there are serious problems with the development work that are likely to lead to significant delays, you need to initiate risk mitigation actions to reduce the risks of project failure.
- In conjunction with these actions, you also have to re-plan the project.
- This may involve renegotiating the project constraints and deliverables with the customer. A new schedule of when work should be completed also has to be established and agreed with the customer.

Project scheduling

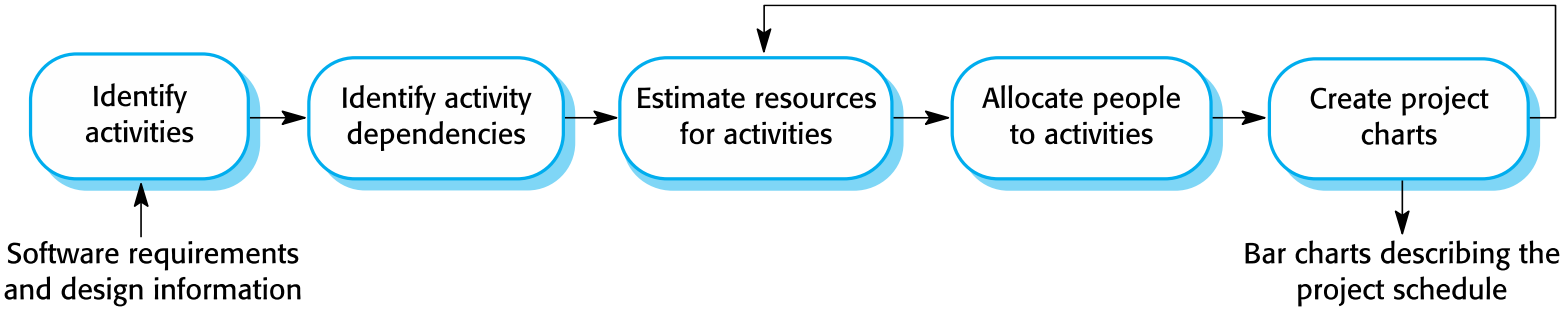
Project scheduling

- Project scheduling is the process of deciding how the work in a project will be organized as separate tasks, and when and how these tasks will be executed.
- You estimate the calendar time needed to complete each task, the effort required and who will work on the tasks that have been identified.
- You also have to estimate the resources needed to complete each task, such as the disk space required on a server, the time required on specialized hardware, such as a simulator, and what the travel budget will be.

Project scheduling activities

- Split project into tasks and estimate time and resources required to complete each task.
- Organize tasks concurrently to make optimal use of workforce.
- Minimize task dependencies to avoid delays caused by one task waiting for another to complete.
- Dependent on project managers intuition and experience.

The project scheduling process



Scheduling problems

- Estimating the difficulty of problems and hence the cost of developing a solution is hard.
- Productivity is not proportional to the number of people working on a task.
- Adding people to a late project makes it later because of communication overheads.
- The unexpected always happens. Always allow contingency in planning.

Schedule presentation

- Graphical notations are normally used to illustrate the project schedule.
- These show the project breakdown into tasks. Tasks should not be too small. They should take about a week or two.
- Calendar-based
  - Bar charts are the most commonly used representation for project schedules. They show the schedule as activities or resources against time.
- Activity networks
  - Show task dependencies

Project activites

- Project activities (tasks) are the basic planning element. Each activity has:
  - a duration in calendar days or months,
  - an effort estimate, which shows the number of person-days or person-months to complete the work,
  - a deadline by which the activity should be complete,
  - a defined end-point, which might be a document, the holding of a review meeting, the successful execution of all tests, etc.

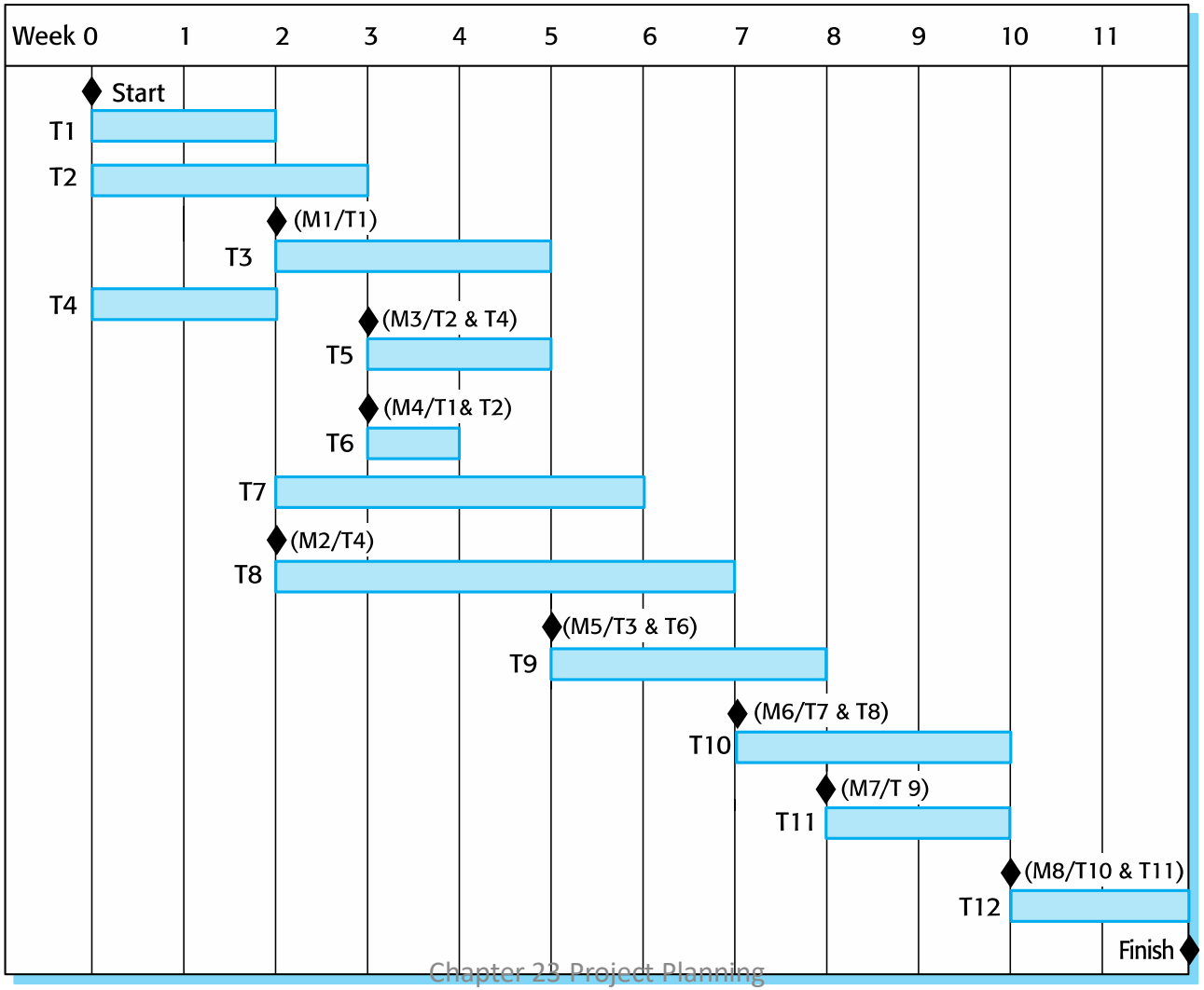
Milestones and deliverables

- Milestones are points in the schedule against which you can assess progress, for example, the handover of the system for testing.
- Deliverables are work products that are delivered to the customer, e.g. a requirements document for the system.

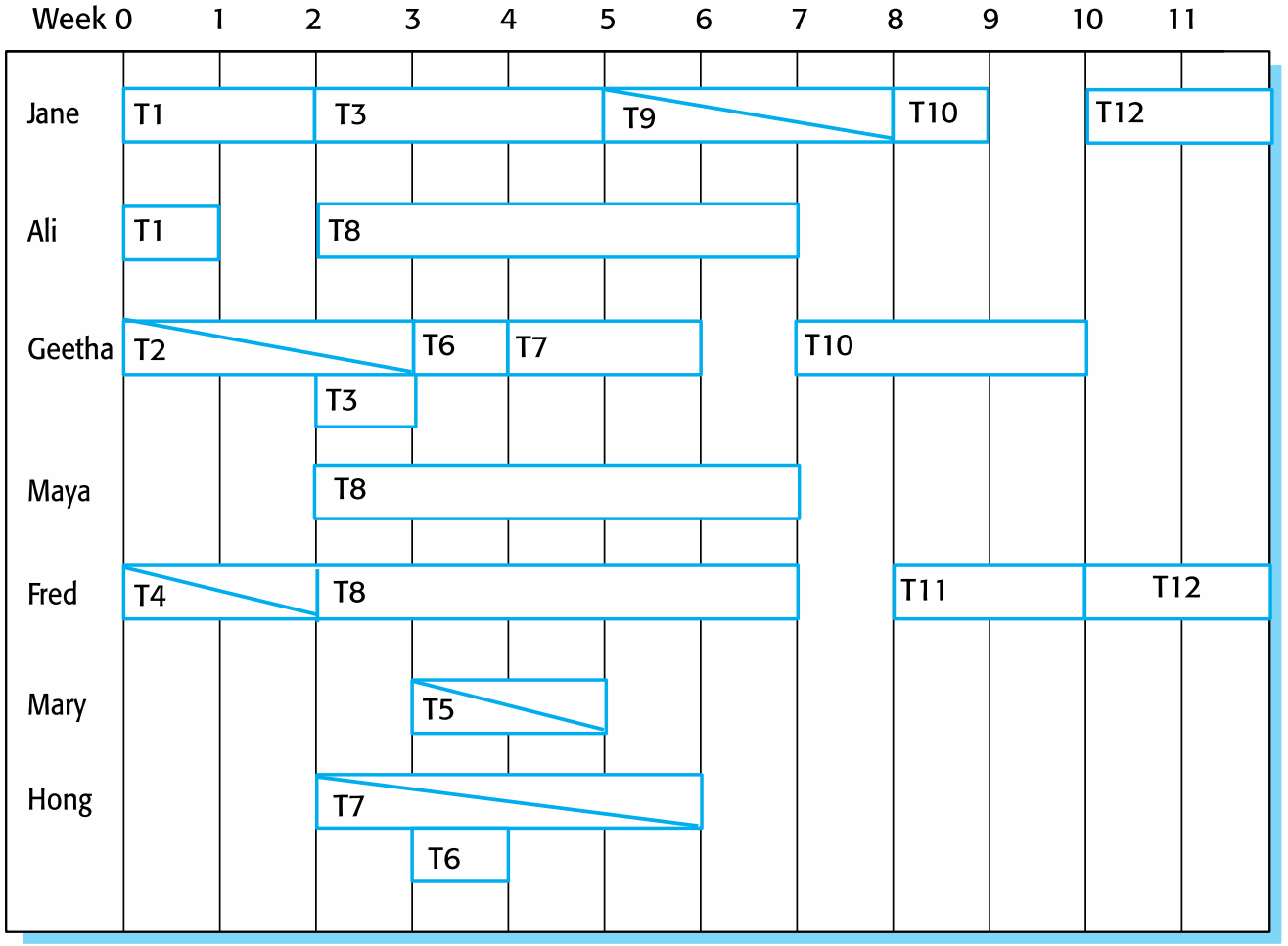
Tasks, durations, and dependencies

Task	Effort (person-days)	Duration (days)	Dependencies
T1	15	10	
T2	8	15	
T3	20	15	T1 (M1)
T4	5	10	
T5	5	10	T2, T4 (M3)
T6	10	5	T1, T2 (M4)
T7	25	20	T1 (M1)
T8	75	25	T4 (M2)
T9	10	15	T3, T6 (M5)
T10	20	15	T7, T8 (M6)
T11	10	10	T9 (M7)
T12	20	10	T10, T11 (M8)

Activity bar chart



Staff allocation chart



Agile planning

Agile planning

- Agile methods of software development are iterative approaches where the software is developed and delivered to customers in increments.
- Unlike plan-driven approaches, the functionality of these increments is not planned in advance but is decided during the development.
  - The decision on what to include in an increment depends on progress and on the customer's priorities.
- The customer's priorities and requirements change so it makes sense to have a flexible plan that can accommodate these changes.

Agile planning stages

- Release planning, which looks ahead for several months and decides on the features that should be included in a release of a system.
- Iteration planning, which has a shorter term outlook, and focuses on planning the next increment of a system. This is typically 2-4 weeks of work for the team.

Approaches to agile planning

- Planning in Scrum
  - Covered in Chapter 3
- Based on managing a project backlog (things to be done) with daily reviews of progress and problems
- The planning game
  - Developed originally as part of Extreme Programming (XP)
  - Dependent on user stories as a measure of progress in the project

Story-based planning

- The planning game is based on user stories that reflect the features that should be included in the system.
- The project team read and discuss the stories and rank them in order of the amount of time they think it will take to implement the story.
- Stories are assigned ‘effort points’ reflecting their size and difficulty of implementation
- The number of effort points implemented per day is measured giving an estimate of the team’s ‘velocity’
- This allows the total effort required to implement the system to be estimated

The planning game

Release and iteration planning

- Release planning involves selecting and refining the stories that will reflect the features to be implemented in a release of a system and the order in which the stories should be implemented.
- Stories to be implemented in each iteration are chosen, with the number of stories reflecting the time to deliver an iteration (usually 2 or 3 weeks).
- The team's velocity is used to guide the choice of stories so that they can be delivered within an iteration.

Task allocation

- During the task planning stage, the developers break down stories into development tasks.
  - A development task should take 4–16 hours.
  - All of the tasks that must be completed to implement all of the stories in that iteration are listed.
  - The individual developers then sign up for the specific tasks that they will implement.
- Benefits of this approach:
  - The whole team gets an overview of the tasks to be completed in an iteration.
  - Developers have a sense of ownership in these tasks and this is likely to motivate them to complete the task.

Software delivery

- A software increment is always delivered at the end of each project iteration.
- If the features to be included in the increment cannot be completed in the time allowed, the scope of the work is reduced.
- The delivery schedule is never extended.

Agile planning difficulties

- Agile planning is reliant on customer involvement and availability.
- This can be difficult to arrange, as customer representatives sometimes have to prioritize other work and are not available for the planning game.
- Furthermore, some customers may be more familiar with traditional project plans and may find it difficult to engage in an agile planning process.

Agile planning applicability

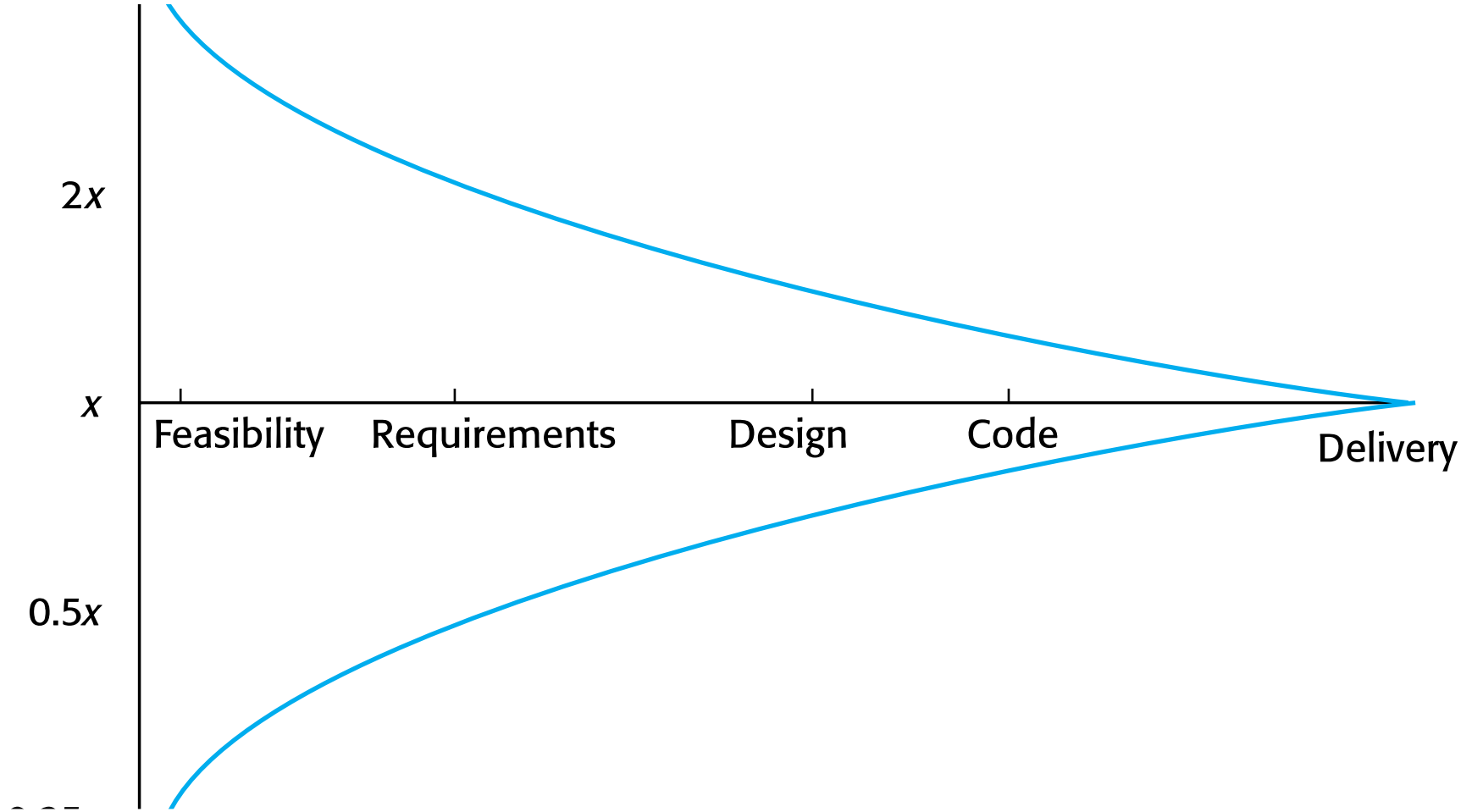
- Agile planning works well with small, stable development teams that can get together and discuss the stories to be implemented.
- However, where teams are large and/or geographically distributed, or when team membership changes frequently, it is practically impossible for everyone to be involved in the collaborative planning that is essential for agile project management.

Estimation techniques

Estimation techniques

- Organizations need to make software effort and cost estimates. There are two types of technique that can be used to do this:
  - *Experience-based techniques* The estimate of future effort requirements is based on the manager's experience of past projects and the application domain. Essentially, the manager makes an informed judgment of what the effort requirements are likely to be.
  - *Algorithmic cost modeling* In this approach, a formulaic approach is used to compute the project effort based on estimates of product attributes, such as size, and process characteristics, such as experience of staff involved.

Estimate uncertainty



Experience-based approaches

- Experience-based techniques rely on judgments based on experience of past projects and the effort expended in these projects on software development activities.
- Typically, you identify the deliverables to be produced in a project and the different software components or systems that are to be developed.
- You document these in a spreadsheet, estimate them individually and compute the total effort required.
- It usually helps to get a group of people involved in the effort estimation and to ask each member of the group to explain their estimate.

Problem with experience-based approaches

- The difficulty with experience-based techniques is that a new software project may not have much in common with previous projects.
- Software development changes very quickly and a project will often use unfamiliar techniques such as web services, application system configuration or HTML5.
- If you have not worked with these techniques, your previous experience may not help you to estimate the effort required, making it more difficult to produce accurate costs and schedule estimates.

Algorithmic cost modelling

- Cost is estimated as a mathematical function of product, project and process attributes whose values are estimated by project managers:
  - Effort = A ´ Size^{B} ´ M
  - A is an organisation-dependent constant, B reflects the disproportionate effort for large projects and M is a multiplier reflecting product, process and people attributes.
- The most commonly used product attribute for cost estimation is code size.
- Most models are similar but they use different values for A, B and M.

Estimation accuracy

- The size of a software system can only be known accurately when it is finished.
- Several factors influence the final size
  - Use of reused systems and components;
  - Programming language;
  - Distribution of system.
- As the development process progresses then the size estimate becomes more accurate.
- The estimates of the factors contributing to B and M are subjective and vary according to the judgment of the estimator.

Effectiveness of algorithmic models

- Algorithmic cost models are a systematic way to estimate the effort required to develop a system. However, these models are complex and difficult to use.
- There are many attributes and considerable scope for uncertainty in estimating their values.
- This complexity means that the practical application of algorithmic cost modeling has been limited to a relatively small number of large companies, mostly working in defense and aerospace systems engineering.

COCOMO cost modeling

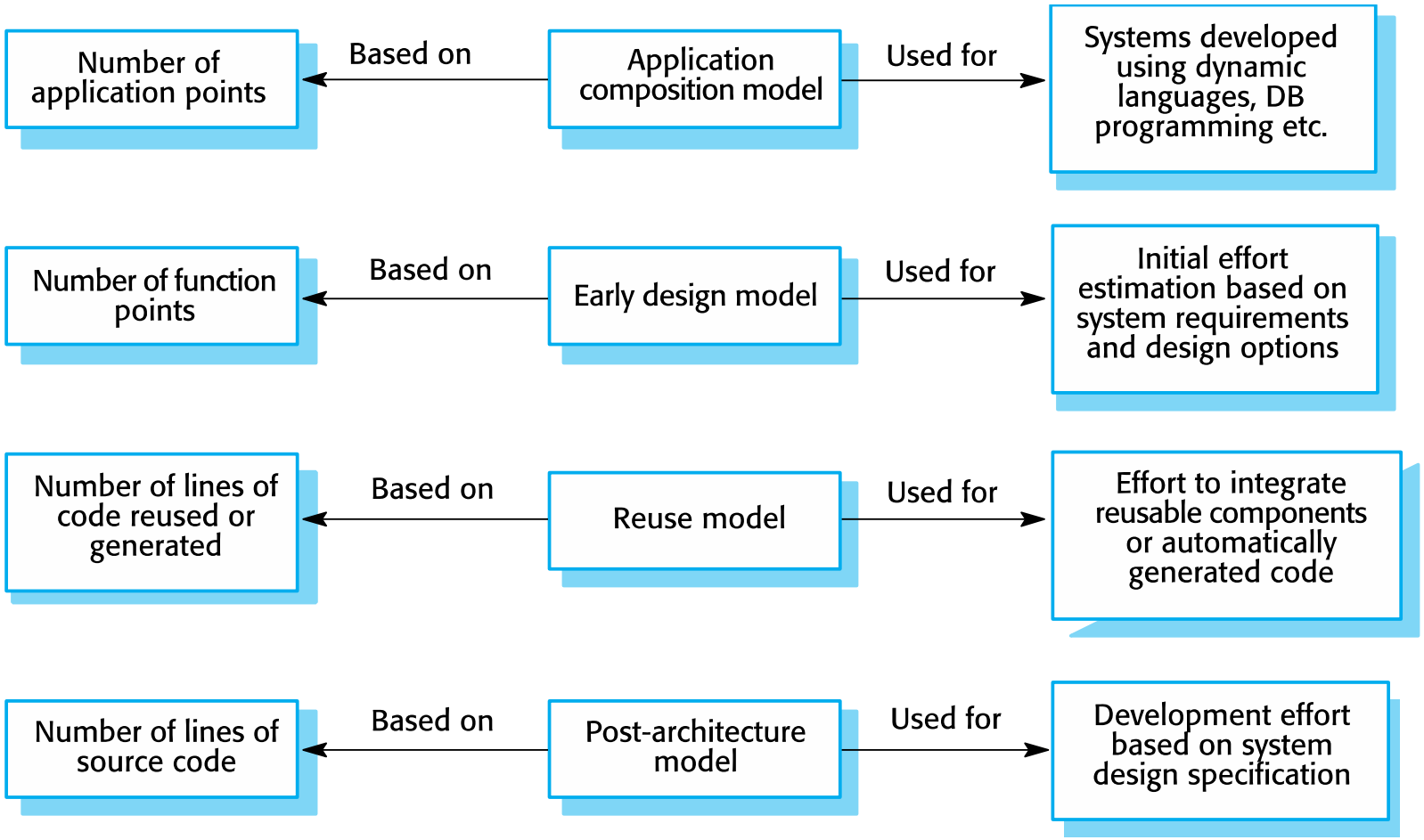
COCOMO cost modeling

- An empirical model based on project experience.
- Well-documented, 'independent' model which is not tied to a specific software vendor.
- Long history from initial version published in 1981 (COCOMO-81) through various instantiations to COCOMO 2.
- COCOMO 2 takes into account different approaches to software development, reuse, etc.

COCOMO 2 models

- COCOMO 2 incorporates a range of sub-models that produce increasingly detailed software estimates.
- The sub-models in COCOMO 2 are:
  - Application composition model. Used when software is composed from existing parts.
  - Early design model. Used when requirements are available but design has not yet started.
  - Reuse model. Used to compute the effort of integrating reusable components.
  - Post-architecture model. Used once the system architecture has been designed and more information about the system is available.

COCOMO estimation models



Application composition model

- Supports prototyping projects and projects where there is extensive reuse.
- Based on standard estimates of developer productivity in application (object) points/month.
- Takes software tool use into account.
- Formula is
  - PM = (NAP ´ (1 - %reuse/100)) / PROD
  - PM is the effort in person-months, NAP is the number of application points and PROD is the productivity.

Application-point productivity

Developer's experience and capability	Very low	Low	Nominal	High	Very high
ICASE maturity and capability	Very low	Low	Nominal	High	Very high
PROD (NAP/month)	4	7	13	25	50

Early design model

- Estimates can be made after the requirements have been agreed.
- Based on a standard formula for algorithmic models
- PM = A ´ Size^{B} ´ M where
  - M = PERS ´ RCPX ´ RUSE ´ PDIF ´ PREX ´ FCIL ´ SCED;
  - A = 2.94 in initial calibration,
  - Size in KLOC,
  - B varies from 1.1 to 1.24 depending on novelty of the project, development flexibility, risk management approaches and the process maturity.

Multipliers

- Multipliers reflect the capability of the developers, the non-functional requirements, the familiarity with the development platform, etc.
  - RCPX - product reliability and complexity;
  - RUSE - the reuse required;
  - PDIF - platform difficulty;
  - PREX - personnel experience;
  - PERS - personnel capability;
  - SCED - required schedule;
  - FCIL - the team support facilities.

The reuse model

- Takes into account black-box code that is reused without change and code that has to be adapted to integrate it with new code.
- There are two versions:
  - Black-box reuse where code is not modified. An effort estimate (PM) is computed.
  - White-box reuse where code is modified. A size estimate equivalent to the number of lines of new source code is computed. This then adjusts the size estimate for new code.

Reuse model estimates 1

- ✧ For generated code:
- ✧ PM = (ASLOC * AT/100)/ATPROD
  - ASLOC is the number of lines of generated code
  - AT is the percentage of code automatically generated.
  - ATPROD is the productivity of engineers in integrating this code.

Reuse model estimates 2

✧ When code has to be understood and integrated:

✧ ESLOC = ASLOC * (1-AT/100) * AAM.

- ASLOC and AT as before.
- AAM is the adaptation adjustment multiplier computed from the costs of changing the reused code, the costs of understanding how to integrate the code and the costs of reuse decision making.

Post-architecture level

- ✧ Uses the same formula as the early design model but with 17 rather than 7 associated multipliers.
- ✧ The code size is estimated as:
  - Number of lines of new code to be developed;
  - Estimate of equivalent number of lines of new code computed using the reuse model;
  - An estimate of the number of lines of code that have to be modified according to requirements changes.

The exponent term

- This depends on 5 scale factors (see next slide). Their sum/100 is added to 1.01
- A company takes on a project in a new domain. The client has not defined the process to be used and has not allowed time for risk analysis. The company has a CMM level 2 rating.
  - Precedenteness - new project (4)
  - Development flexibility - no client involvement - Very high (1)
  - Architecture/risk resolution - No risk analysis - V. Low .(5)
  - Team cohesion - new team - nominal (3)
  - Process maturity - some control - nominal (3)
- Scale factor is therefore 1.17.

Scale factors used in the exponent computation in the post-architecture model

Scale factor	Explanation
Architecture/risk resolution	Reflects the extent of risk analysis carried out. Very low means little analysis; extra-high means a complete and thorough risk analysis.
Development flexibility	Reflects the degree of flexibility in the development process. Very low means a prescribed process is used; extra-high means that the client sets only general goals.
Precedentedness	Reflects the previous experience of the organization with this type of project. Very low means no previous experience; extra-high means that the organization is completely familiar with this application domain.
Process maturity	Reflects the process maturity of the organization. The computation of this value depends on the CMM Maturity Questionnaire, but an estimate can be achieved by subtracting the CMM process maturity level from 5.
Team cohesion	Reflects how well the development team knows each other and work together. Very low means very difficult interactions; extra-high means an integrated and effective team with no communication problems.

Multipliers

- ✧ Product attributes
  - Concerned with required characteristics of the software product being developed.
- ✧ Computer attributes
  - Constraints imposed on the software by the hardware platform.
- ✧ Personnel attributes
  - Multipliers that take the experience and capabilities of the people working on the project into account.
- ✧ Project attributes
  - Concerned with the particular characteristics of the software development project.

The effect of cost drivers on effort estimates

Exponent value	**1.17**
System size (including factors for reuse and requirements volatility)	128,000 DSI
Initial COCOMO estimate without cost drivers	**730 person-months**
Reliability	Very high, multiplier = 1.39
Complexity	Very high, multiplier = 1.3
Memory constraint	High, multiplier = 1.21
Tool use	Low, multiplier = 1.12
Schedule	Accelerated, multiplier = 1.29
Adjusted COCOMO estimate	**2,306 person-months**

The effect of cost drivers on effort estimates

Exponent value	**1.17**
Reliability	Very low, multiplier = 0.75
Complexity	Very low, multiplier = 0.75
Memory constraint	None, multiplier = 1
Tool use	Very high, multiplier = 0.72
Schedule	Normal, multiplier = 1
Adjusted COCOMO estimate	**295 person-months**

Project duration and staffing

- As well as effort estimation, managers must estimate the calendar time required to complete a project and when staff will be required.
- Calendar time can be estimated using a COCOMO 2 formula
  - $TDEV = 3 \times (PM)^{(0.33+0.2*(B-1.01))}$
  - PM is the effort computation and B is the exponent computed as discussed above (B is 1 for the early prototyping model). This computation predicts the nominal schedule for the project.
- The time required is independent of the number of people working on the project.

Staffing requirements

- Staff required can't be computed by diving the development time by the required schedule.
- The number of people working on a project varies depending on the phase of the project.
- The more people who work on the project, the more total effort is usually required.
- A very rapid build-up of people often correlates with schedule slippage.

Key points

- The price charged for a system does not just depend on its estimated development costs and the profit required by the development company. Organizational factors may mean that the price is increased to compensate for increased risk or decreased to gain competitive advantage.
- Software is often priced to gain a contract and the functionality of the system is then adjusted to meet the estimated price.
- Plan-driven development is organized around a complete project plan that defines the project activities, the planned effort, the activity schedule and who is responsible for each activity.

Key points

- Project scheduling involves the creation of various graphical representations of part of the project plan. Bar charts, which show the activity duration and staffing timelines, are the most commonly used schedule representations.
- A project milestone is a predictable outcome of an activity or set of activities. At each milestone, a formal report of progress should be presented to management. A deliverable is a work product that is delivered to the project customer.
- The agile planning game involves the whole team in project planning. The plan is developed incrementally and, if problems arise, it is adjusted so that software functionality is reduced instead of delaying the delivery of an increment.

Key points

- Estimation techniques for software may be experience-based, where managers judge the effort required, or algorithmic, where the effort required is computed from other estimated project parameters.
- The COCOMO II costing model is a mature algorithmic cost model that takes project, product, hardware and personnel attributes into account when formulating a cost estimate.