

CHAPTER 4

SOFTWARE CONSTRUCTION

ACRONYMS

| | |
|-----|---------------------------|
| OMG | Object Management Group |
| UML | Unified Modeling Language |

INTRODUCTION

The term *software construction* refers to the detailed creation of working, meaningful software through a combination of coding, verification, unit testing, integration testing, and debugging.

The Software Construction Knowledge Area is linked to all the other KAs, but is most strongly linked to Software Design and Software Testing because the software construction process, itself, involves significant software design and test activity. The process also uses the design output and provides an input to testing (“design” and “testing” in this case referring to the activities, not the KAs). Detailed boundaries between design, construction, and testing (if any) will vary depending upon the software life cycle processes that are used in a project.

Although some detailed design may be performed prior to construction, much design work is performed within the construction activity itself. Thus, the Software Construction KA is closely linked to the Software Design KA.

Throughout construction, software engineers both unit-test and integration-test their work. Thus, the Software Construction KA is closely linked to the Software Testing KA as well.

Software construction typically produces the highest volume of configuration items that need to be managed in a software project (source files, content, test cases, and so on). Thus, the Software Construction KA is also closely linked to the Software Configuration Management KA.

While software quality is important in all the KAs, code is the ultimate deliverable of a software project, and thus the Software Quality KA is also closely linked to the Software Construction KA.

Since software construction heavily involves the use of knowledge of algorithms and of detailed coding practices, it is closely related to the Computing Foundations KA, which is concerned with the computer science foundations that support the design and construction of software products. It is also related to project management, insofar as the management of construction can present considerable challenges.

BREAKDOWN OF TOPICS FOR SOFTWARE CONSTRUCTION

The breakdown of the Software Construction KA is presented below, together with brief descriptions of the major topics associated with it. Appropriate references are also given for each of the topics. Figure 1 gives a graphical representation of the top-level decomposition of the breakdown for this KA.

1. Software Construction Fundamentals

Software construction fundamentals include:

- ♦ Minimizing complexity
- ♦ Anticipating change
- ♦ Constructing for verification
- ♦ Reuse
- ♦ Standards in construction

The first four concepts apply to design as well as to construction. The following sections define these concepts and describe how they apply to construction.

1.1. Minimizing Complexity

[3]

Most people are severely limited in their ability to hold complex structures and information in their working memories, especially over long periods of time. This proves to be a major factor influencing how people convey intent to computers and leads to one of the strongest drives in software construction: minimizing complexity. The need to reduce complexity applies to essentially every aspect of software construction and is particularly critical to the process of verification and testing of software constructions.

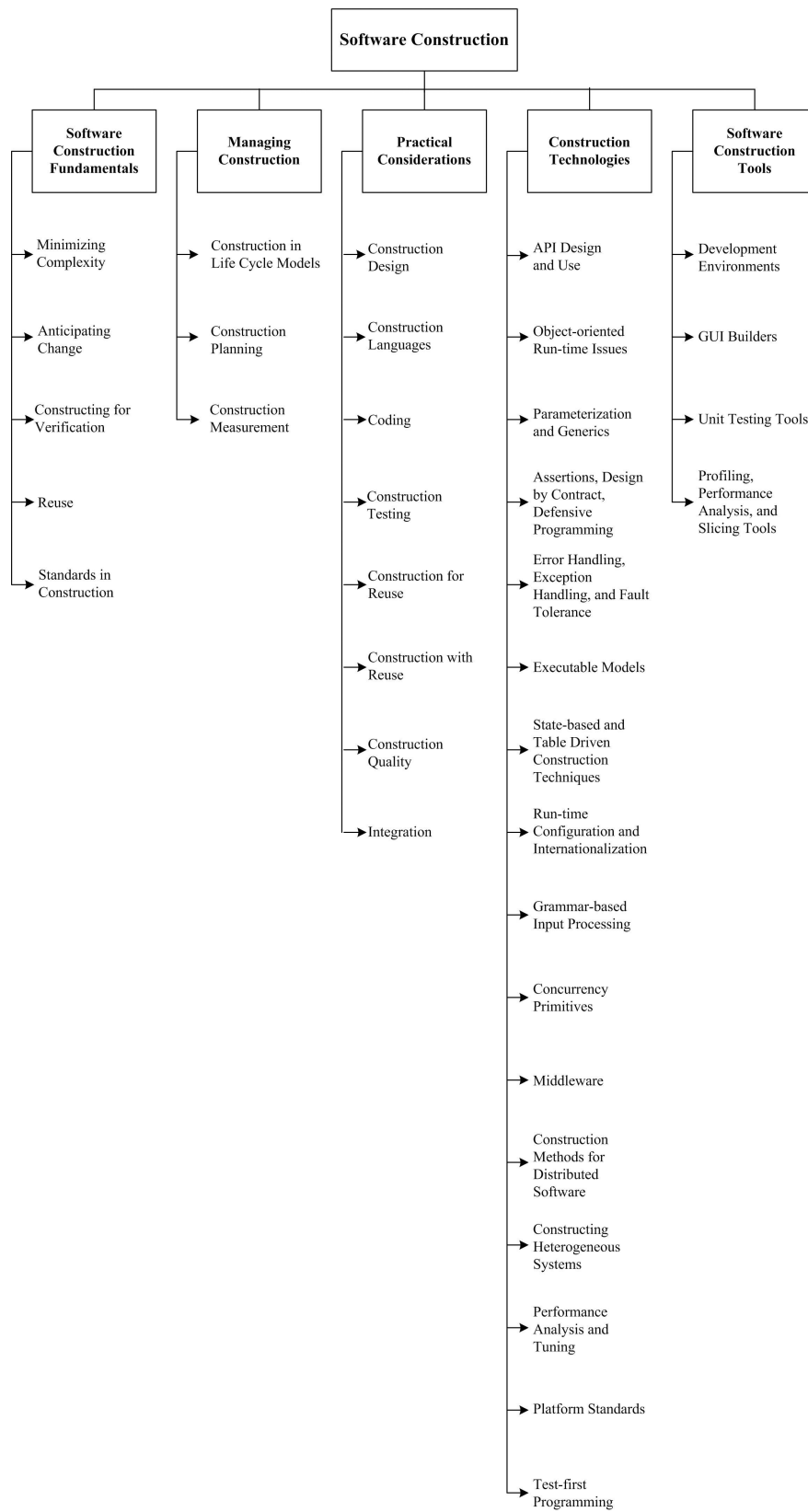


Figure 1. Breakdown of Topics for Software Construction

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In software construction, reduced complexity is achieved through emphasizing code creation that is simple and readable rather than clever. It is accomplished through making use of standards (see 1.5), modular design (see 3.1), and numerous other specific techniques (see 3.3). It is also supported by the construction-focused quality techniques summarized in 3.7.

1.1. *Anticipating Change* [3]

Most software will change over time, and the anticipation of change drives many aspects of software construction. Software is unavoidably a part of changing external environments; changes in those outside environments affect software in diverse ways.

Anticipating change helps engineers build extensible software, which means that they can enhance a software product without causing violence to the underlying structure.

Anticipating change is supported by many specific techniques, which are summarized in 3.3.

1.2. *Constructing for Verification* [3]

Constructing for verification means building software in such a way that faults can be ferreted out readily by the software engineers writing the software as well as testers and users during independent testing and operational activities. Specific techniques that support constructing for verification include following coding standards to support code reviews, unit testing, organizing code to support automated testing, and restricting the use of complex or hard-to-understand language structures, among others.

1.3. *Reuse* [7]

Reuse refers to using an asset in solving different problems. In software construction, typical assets that are reused include libraries, modules, components, source code, and commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) assets. Reuse should be practiced systematically, according to a well-defined, repeatable process. Systematic reuse can enable significant software productivity, quality, and cost improvements.

Reuse has two closely related facets: "construction for reuse" and "construction with reuse." The former means to create reusable software assets, while the

latter means to reuse software assets in the construction of a new solution. Reuse often transcends the boundary of projects, which means reused assets can be constructed in other projects or organizations.

1.4. *Standards in Construction* [3]

Applying external or internal development standards during construction helps achieve the project's objectives for development efficiency, quality, and cost. Specifically, the choices of allowable programming language subsets and usage standards are important aids in achieving higher security.

Standards that directly affect construction issues include:

- ♦ Communication methods (for example, standards for document formats and contents)
- ♦ Programming languages (for example, language standards for languages like Java and C++)
- ♦ Platforms (for example, programmer interface standards for operating system calls)
- ♦ Tools (for example, diagrammatic standards for notations like UML (Unified Modeling Language))

Use of external standards. Construction depends on the use of external standards for construction languages, construction tools, technical interfaces, and interactions between the Software Construction KA and other KAs. Standards come from numerous sources, including hardware and software interface specifications (such as the Object Management Group (OMG)) and international organizations (such as the IEEE or ISO).

Use of internal standards. Standards may also be created on an organizational basis at the corporate level or for use on specific projects. These standards support coordination of group activities, minimizing complexity, anticipating change, and constructing for verification.

2. **Managing Construction**

2.1. *Construction in Life Cycle Models* [3]

Numerous models have been created to develop software; some emphasize construction more than others.

Some models are more linear from the construction point of view—such as the waterfall and staged-delivery life cycle models. These models treat

199 construction as an activity that occurs only after
200 significant prerequisite work has been completed—
201 including detailed requirements work, extensive design
202 work, and detailed planning. The more linear
203 approaches tend to emphasize the activities that
204 precede construction (requirements and design) and to
205 create more distinct separations between activities. In
206 these models, the main emphasis of construction may
207 be coding.

208

209 Other models are more iterative—such as evolutionary
210 prototyping, Extreme Programming, and Scrum. These
211 approaches tend to treat construction as an activity that
212 occurs concurrently with other software development
213 activities (including requirements, design, and
214 planning) or that overlaps them. These approaches tend
215 to mix design, coding, and testing activities, and they
216 often treat the combination of activities as construction.

217

218 Consequently, what is considered to be “construction”
219 depends to some degree on the life cycle model used.
220 In general, software construction is mostly coding and
221 debugging, but it also involves construction planning,
222 detailed design, unit testing, integrating testing, and
223 other activities.

224

225 2.2. Construction Planning 226 [3]

227

228 The choice of construction method is a key aspect of
229 the construction-planning activity. The choice of
230 construction method affects the extent to which
231 construction prerequisites are performed, the order in
232 which they are performed, and the degree to which they
233 are expected to be completed before construction work
234 begins.

235

236 The approach to construction affects the project’s
237 ability to reduce complexity, anticipate change, and
238 construct for verification. Each of these objectives may
239 also be addressed at the process, requirements, and
240 design levels—but they will also be influenced by the
241 choice of construction method.

242 Construction planning also defines the order in which
243 components are created and integrated, the integration
244 strategy (for example, phased or incremental
245 integration), the software quality management
246 processes, the allocation of task assignments to specific
247 software engineers, and other tasks, according to the
248 chosen method.

249

250 2.3. Construction Measurement 251 [3]

252 Numerous construction activities and artifacts can be
253 measured—including code developed, code modified,

254 code reused, code destroyed, code complexity, code
255 inspection statistics, fault-fix and fault-find rates, effort,
256 and scheduling. These measurements can be useful for
257 purposes of managing construction, ensuring quality
258 during construction, and improving the construction
259 process, as well as for other reasons. See the Software
260 Engineering Process KA for more on measurements.

261 3. Practical Considerations

262 Construction is an activity in which the software has to
263 come to terms with arbitrary and chaotic real-world
264 constraints, and it must do so exactly. Due to its
265 proximity to real-world constraints, construction is
266 more driven by practical considerations than some
267 other KAs, and software engineering is perhaps most
268 craft-like in its construction area.

269

270 3.1. Construction Design 271 [3]

272

273 Some projects allocate more design activity to
274 construction while others to a phase explicitly focused
275 on design. Regardless of the exact allocation, some
276 detailed design work will occur at the construction
277 level, and that design work tends to be dictated by
278 immovable constraints imposed by the real-world
279 problem that is being addressed by the software.

280

281 Just as construction workers building a physical
282 structure must make small-scale modifications to
283 account for unanticipated gaps in the builder’s plans,
284 software construction workers must make
285 modifications on a smaller or larger scale to flesh out
286 details of the software design during construction.

287

288 The details of the design activity at the construction
289 level are essentially the same as described in the
290 Software Design KA, but they are applied on a smaller
291 scale.

292

293 3.2. Construction Languages 294 [3]

295 *Construction languages* include all forms of
296 communication by which a human can specify an
297 executable problem solution to a computer.
298 Construction languages and their implementations (for
299 example, compilers) can affect software quality like
300 performance, reliability, portability, and so forth.
301 Especially, they can be serious contributors to security
302 vulnerabilities.

303

304 The simplest type of construction language is a
305 *configuration language*, in which software engineers
306 choose from a limited set of predefined options to
307 create new or custom software installations. The text-

based configuration files used in both the Windows and Unix operating systems are examples of this, and the menu style selection lists of some program generators constitute another.

Toolkit languages are used to build applications out of toolkits (integrated sets of application-specific reusable parts) and are more complex than configuration languages. Toolkit languages may be explicitly defined as application programming languages or may simply be implied by a toolkit's set of interfaces.

Scripting languages are commonly used kinds of application programming languages. In some software, scripts are called batch files or macros.

Programming languages are the most flexible type of construction languages. They also contain the least amount of information about specific application areas and development processes, and so they require the most training and skill to use effectively. The choice of programming language can have a large effect on the likelihood of vulnerabilities being introduced during coding—for example, uncritical usage of C and C++ are questionable choices from a security viewpoint.

There are three general kinds of notation used for programming languages, namely:

- ♦ Linguistic
- ♦ Formal
- ♦ Visual

Linguistic notations are distinguished in particular by the use of word-like strings of text to represent complex software constructions, and the combination of such word-like strings into patterns that have a sentence-like syntax. Properly used, each such string should have a strong semantic connotation providing an immediate intuitive understanding of what will happen when the underlying software construction is executed.

Formal notations rely less on intuitive, everyday meanings of words and text strings and more on definitions backed up by precise, unambiguous, and formal (or mathematical) definitions. Formal construction notations and formal methods are at the heart of most forms of system programming, where accuracy, time behavior, and testability are more important than ease of mapping into natural language. Formal constructions also use precisely defined ways of combining symbols that avoid the ambiguity of many natural language constructions.

Visual notations rely much less on the text-oriented notations of both linguistic and formal construction, and instead rely on direct visual interpretation and placement of visual entities that represent the underlying software. Visual construction tends to be somewhat limited by the difficulty of making “complex” statements using only movement of visual entities on a display. However, it can also be a powerful tool in cases where the primary programming task is simply to build and “adjust” a visual interface to a program, the detailed behavior of which has been defined earlier.

3.3. Coding [3]

The following considerations apply to the software construction coding activity:

- ♦ Techniques for creating understandable source code, including naming and source code layout
- ♦ Use of classes, enumerated types, variables, named constants, and other similar entities
- ♦ Use of control structures
- ♦ Handling of error conditions—both planned errors and exceptions (input of bad data, for example)
- ♦ Prevention of code-level security breaches (buffer overruns or array index overflows, for example)
- ♦ Resource usage via use of exclusion mechanisms and discipline in accessing serially reusable resources (including threads or database locks)
- ♦ Source code organization (into statements, routines, classes, packages, or other structures)
- ♦ Code documentation
- ♦ Code tuning

3.4. Construction Testing [3]

Construction involves two forms of testing, which are often performed by the software engineer who wrote the code:

- ♦ Unit testing
- ♦ Integration testing

The purpose of construction testing is to reduce the gap between the time at which faults are inserted into the code and the time those faults are detected. In some cases, construction testing is performed after code has been written. In other cases, test cases may be created before code is written.

Construction testing typically involves a subset of types of testing, which are described in the Software Testing KA. For instance, construction testing does not typically include system testing, alpha testing, beta testing, stress testing, configuration testing, usability testing, or other more specialized kinds of testing.

Two standards have been published on the topic: IEEE Standard 829-1998, *IEEE Standard for Software Test Documentation*, and IEEE Standard 1008-1987, *IEEE Standard for Software Unit Testing*.

See also the corresponding subtopics in the Software Testing KA: 2.1.1 *Unit Testing* and 2.1.2 *Integration Testing* for more specialized reference material.

3.5. *Construction for Reuse* [7]

Construction for reuse is to create reuse opportunities for the future or for other projects with a broad-based, multi-system perspective. It requires the developers to construct general software solutions with reusability. Construction activity for reuse usually is based on variability analysis and design. To avoid the problem of code clones, it is desired to encapsulate reusable code fragments into well designed libraries or components.

The tasks related to software construction for reuse during coding and testing are:

- ♦ Variability implementation with proper mechanisms like parameterization, conditional compilation, design patterns, etc.
- ♦ Variability encapsulation to make the software assets easy to configure and customize
- ♦ Testing the variability provided by the reusable software assets
- ♦ Description and publication of reusable software assets

3.6. *Construction with Reuse* [7]

Construction with reuse means to create new software with the reuse of existing software assets. The most popular way of reuse is to reuse code from the libraries provided by the language, platform, or tools being used, or the company. And besides these, the applications developed today widely make use of many open-source libraries available all round the world. Reused and off-the-shelf software should meet the same quality requirements (for example, security level) as new software.

The tasks related to software construction with reuse during coding and testing are:

- ♦ The selection of the reusable units, databases, test procedures, or test data
- ♦ The evaluation of code or test reusability
- ♦ The integration of reusable software assets into the current software
- ♦ The reporting of reuse information on new code, test procedures, or test data

3.7. *Construction Quality* [3]

In addition to faults resulting from requirements, design, poor choices, or use of construction languages, faults introduced during construction can bring serious quality problems—for example, security vulnerabilities. This includes not only faults in security functionality but also faults elsewhere that allow the bypassing of such functionality and other security weaknesses or violations.

Numerous techniques exist to ensure the quality of code as it is constructed. The primary techniques used for construction include:

- ♦ Unit testing and integration testing (see 3.4)
- ♦ Test-first development (see 2.2 of the Software Testing KA)
- ♦ Code stepping
- ♦ Use of assertions and defensive programming
- ♦ Debugging
- ♦ Technical reviews, including security-oriented reviews (see 2.3.2 of the Software Quality KA)
- ♦ Static analysis (IEEE1028) (see 2.3 of the Software Quality KA)

The specific technique or techniques selected depend on the nature of the software being constructed as well as on the skills set of the software engineers performing the construction. Especially, constructors/programmers need knowledge of good practices and common vulnerabilities—for example, from widely recognized lists about common vulnerabilities. Useful, automatic static analysis of code for security weaknesses is available for several common programming languages and should be used in security-critical projects.

Construction quality activities are differentiated from other quality activities by their focus. Construction quality activities focus on code and artifacts that are closely related to code—such as small-scale designs—as opposed to other artifacts that are less directly connected to the code, such as requirements, high-level designs, and plans.

526
 527 3.8. *Integration*
 528 [3]
 529
 530 A key activity during construction is the integration of
 531 separately constructed routines, classes, components,
 532 and subsystems into a single system. In addition, a
 533 particular software system may need to be integrated
 534 with other software or hardware systems.
 535
 536 Concerns related to construction integration include
 537 planning the sequence in which components will be
 538 integrated, creating scaffolding to support interim
 539 versions of the software, determining the degree of
 540 testing and quality work performed on components
 541 before they are integrated, and determining points in
 542 the project at which interim versions of the software
 543 are tested.
 544
 545 Programs can be integrated by means of either the
 546 phased or the incremental approach. Phased integration
 547 is also called “big bang” integration. Incremental
 548 integration is thought to offer many advantages over
 549 the traditional phased integration—for example, ease to
 550 locate errors, early project success, improved progress
 551 monitoring, and improved customer relations. In
 552 incremental integration, the developers write and test a
 553 program in small pieces and then combine the pieces
 554 one at a time. By building and integrating one unit (for
 555 example, a class or component) at a time, the
 556 construction process can provide early feedback to
 557 developers and customers. Other advantages of
 558 incremental integration include easier error location,
 559 improved progress monitoring, more fully tested units,
 560 and so forth.

561 **4. Construction Technologies**

562 4.1. *API Design and Use*
 563 [1]
 564
 565 An application programming interface (API) is the set
 566 of signatures that are exported and available to the
 567 users of a library or a framework to write their
 568 applications. Besides signatures, an API usually
 569 involves statements about the program's effects and/or
 570 behaviors.
 571
 572 API design should try to make the API easy to learn
 573 and memorize, lead to readable code, be hard to misuse,
 574 be easy to extend, be complete, and keep backward
 575 compatibility. As the APIs usually outlast their
 576 implementations for a widely used library or
 577 framework, it is desired that the API be straightforward
 578 and kept stable to facilitate the development and
 579 maintenance of the client applications.

580
 581 API use involves the process of selecting, learning,
 582 testing, integrating, and possibly extending APIs
 583 provided by a library or framework (see 3.6.).
 584 4.2. *Object-Oriented Run-Time Issues*
 585 [3]
 586 Object-oriented languages support a series of runtime
 587 mechanisms like polymorphism and reflection. These
 588 runtime mechanisms increase the flexibility and
 589 openness of object-oriented programs. Polymorphism
 590 is the ability of a language to support general
 591 operations without knowing until run time what kind of
 592 concrete objects the software is dealing with. The
 593 program does not have to know the exact type of the
 594 object in advance, and so the exact behaviour is
 595 determined at run-time (called *dynamic binding*).
 596
 597 Reflection is the ability by which a program can
 598 observe and modify its own structure and behaviour at
 599 runtime. Reflection allows inspection of classes,
 600 interfaces, fields, and methods at runtime without
 601 knowing their names at compile time. It also allows
 602 instantiation of new objects and invocation of methods
 603 by parameterized class and method names at runtime.
 604
 605 4.3. *Parameterization and Generics*
 606 [2]
 607
 608 *Parameterized types*, also known as generics (Ada,
 609 Eiffel) and templates (C++), enable the definition of a
 610 type or class without specifying all the other types it
 611 uses. The unspecified types are supplied as parameters
 612 at the point of use. Parameterized types provide a third
 613 way (in addition to class inheritance and object
 614 composition) to compose behaviours in object-oriented
 615 software.
 616
 617 4.4. *Assertions, Design by Contract, Defensive*
 618 *Programming*
 619 [3]
 620
 621 An assertion is an executable predicate that's placed in
 622 a program—usually a routine or macro—that allows
 623 the program to check itself as it runs. Assertions are
 624 especially useful in high-reliability programs. They
 625 enable programmers to more quickly flush out
 626 mismatched interface assumptions, errors that creep in
 627 when code is modified, and so on. Assertions are
 628 normally compiled into the code at development time
 629 and are later compiled out of the code so that they don't
 630 degrade the performance.
 631
 632 Design by contract is a development approach in which
 633 each routine is considered to have pre-conditions and

634 post-conditions. When pre-conditions and post-
635 conditions are used, each routine or class forms a
636 contract with the rest of the program. Assertions are a
637 useful tool for documenting and verifying pre-
638 conditions and post-conditions.

639

640 *Defensive programming* means to protect a routine
641 from being broken by invalid inputs. Common ways to
642 handle invalid inputs include checking the values of all
643 the input parameters and deciding how to handle bad
644 inputs. Assertions are often used for defensive
645 programming to check input values.

646

647 4.5. Error Handling, Exception Handling, and Fault 648 Tolerance

649 [3]

650

651 The way in which errors are handled affects the
652 software's ability to meet requirements related to
653 correctness, robustness, and other non-functional
654 attributes. Assertions are usually used to handle errors
655 that should never occur in the code. For other errors
656 that may occur, other error handling techniques—like
657 returning a neutral value, substituting the next piece of
658 valid data, logging a warning message, returning an
659 error code, or shutting down the software—may be
660 used.

661

662 Exceptions are a specific means by which code can
663 pass along errors or exceptional events to the code that
664 called it. They can also be used to straighten out
665 tangled logic within a single stretch of code. The basic
666 structure of an exception is that a routine uses *throw* to
667 throw an exception object, and code in some other
668 routine higher up the calling hierarchy will *catch* the
669 exception within a *try-catch* block. Exception handling
670 policies should be carefully designed following
671 common principles such as including in the exception
672 message all information that led to the exception,
673 avoiding empty catch blocks, knowing the exceptions
674 the library code throws, considering building a
675 centralized exception reporter, and standardizing the
676 project's use of exceptions.

677

678 Fault tolerance is a collection of techniques that
679 increase software reliability by detecting errors and
680 then recovering from them if possible or containing
681 their bad effects if not. The most common fault
682 tolerance strategies include backing up and retrying,
683 using auxiliary code, using voting algorithm, and
684 replacing an erroneous value with a phony value with
685 benign effect.

686

687 4.6. Executable Models

688 [4]

689

690 Executable models abstract away both specific
691 programming languages and decisions about the
692 organization of the software. Different from traditional
693 software models, a specification built in an executable
694 modeling language like xUML (executable UML) can
695 be deployed in various software environments without
696 change. An executable model compiler (transformer)
697 can turn an executable model into an implementation
698 using a set of decisions about the target hardware and
699 software environment. Thus, constructing executable
700 models can be regarded as a new way of constructing
701 executable software.

702

703 Executable model is one foundation supporting the
704 Model-Driven Architecture (MDA) initiative
705 announced by the Object Management Group (OMG).
706 An executable model is required as a way to specify a
707 Platform-Independent Model (PIM) completely, which
708 is a model of a solution to a problem that does not rely
709 on any implementation technologies. Then a Platform-
710 Specific Model (PSM), which is a model that contains
711 within it the details of the implementation, can be
712 produced by weaving together the PIM and the
713 platforms on which it relies.

714

715 4.7. State-Based and Table-Driven Construction 716 Techniques

717 [3]

718

719 State-based programming, or automata-based
720 programming, is a programming technology using
721 finite state machines to describe program behaviours.
722 The transition graphs of a state machine are used in all
723 stages of software development (specification,
724 implementation, debugging, and documentation). The
725 main idea is to construct computer programs the same
726 way the automation of technological processes is done.
727 State-based programming is usually combined with
728 object-oriented programming, forming a new
729 composite approach called *state-based, object-oriented*
730 *programming*.

731

732 A table-driven method is a schema that allows one to
733 look up information in a table rather than using logic
734 statements (such as *if* and *case*) to figure it out. Used in
735 appropriate circumstances, table-driven code is simpler
736 than complicated logic, easier to modify, and more
737 efficient. When using table-driven methods, the
738 programmer should address two issues: how to look up
739 entries in the table and what to store in the table.

740

741 4.8. *Run-Time Configuration and Internationalization* 742 [3] 743

744 To achieve more flexibility, a program is often
745 constructed to support a late binding time of its
746 variable values. Run-time configuration is a technique
747 that binds variable values and program settings when
748 the program is running, usually by updating and
749 reading configuration files in a just-in-time mode.

750
751 Internationalization is the technical activity of
752 preparing a program, usually for interactive software,
753 to support multiple locales. The corresponding activity,
754 *localization*, is the activity of translating a program to
755 support a specific local language. Most interactive
756 software contains dozens or hundreds of prompts,
757 status displays, help messages, error messages, and so
758 on. The design and construction processes should
759 consider the typical string and character-set issues
760 (including which character set is used and which kinds
761 of strings are used), maintain the strings without
762 changing code, and translate the strings into foreign
763 languages with minimal impact on the code and the
764 user interface.

765 766 4.9. *Grammar-Based Input Processing (Parsing)* 767 [3, 5] 768

768 Grammar-based input processing is a kind of syntax
769 analysis, or parsing, of the input token stream. It
770 involves the creation of a data structure (called a *parse*
771 *tree* or *syntax tree*) representing the input data. The
772 inorder traversal of a parse tree usually gives the
773 expression just parsed. The parser checks the symbol
774 table for the presence of programmer-defined variables
775 that populate the tree. After input parsing, the program
776 uses the parse tree as input in the following verification,
777 computation, and processing.

778 779 4.10. *Concurrency Primitives* 780 [6] 781

782 A synchronization primitive is a programming
783 abstraction with a programming interface that
784 facilitates concurrency and synchronization. Well-
785 known concurrency primitives include semaphores,
786 monitors, and mutexes.

787
788 A semaphore is a protected variable or abstract data
789 type that provides a simple but useful abstraction for
790 controlling access by multiple processes or threads to a
791 common resource in a concurrent programming
792 environment.

793

794 A monitor is an abstract data type that presents a set of
795 programmer-defined operations that are executed with
796 mutual exclusion. A monitor contains the declaration of
797 shared variables and procedures or functions that
798 operate on those variables. The monitor construct
799 ensures that only one process at a time is active within
800 the monitor.

801
802 Mutex is a synchronization primitive that grants
803 exclusive access to the shared resource to only one
804 process or thread.

805 806 4.11. *Middleware* 807 [1, 5] 808

809 Middleware is a broad classification for software that
810 provides services above the operating system layer yet
811 below the application program layer. Middleware can
812 provide runtime containers for software components,
813 supporting an application with a transparent location
814 across the network, message passing, persistence, and
815 lifecycle managing. Middleware can be viewed as a
816 connector between the components that use the
817 middleware.

818 819 4.12. *Construction Methods for Distributed Software* 820 [6] 821

822 A distributed system is a collection of physically
823 separate, possibly heterogeneous, computer systems
824 that are networked to provide the users with access to
825 the various resources that the system maintains.
826 Construction of distributed software is distinguished
827 from traditional software construction by issues like
828 parallelism, communication, and fault tolerance.

829
830 Distributed programming typically falls into one of
831 several basic architectures or categories: client-server,
832 3-tier architecture, n-tier architecture, distributed
833 objects, loose coupling, or tight coupling.

834 835 4.13. *Constructing Heterogeneous Systems* 836 [5] 837

838 Heterogeneous systems consist of a variety of
839 specialized computational units of different types, such
840 as DSPs (Digital Signal Processing), micro-controllers,
841 and peripheral processors. These computational units
842 are independently controlled and communicate with
843 each other. Embedded systems are typical
844 heterogeneous systems.

845
846 The design of heterogeneous systems may require the
847 combination of several specification languages in order

to design different parts of the system—in other words, hardware/software co-design. The key issues include multi-language validation, co-simulation, and interfacing.

During the hardware/software co-design, software development and virtual hardware development proceed concurrently through stepwise decomposition. The hardware part is usually simulated in field programmable gate arrays (FPGAs) or application-specific integrated circuits (ASICs). The software part is translated into a low-level programming language.

4.14. Performance Analysis and Tuning

[3]

Code efficiency—together with program architecture, detailed design, and data-structure and algorithm selection—influences a program's performance, including both execution speed and size. Performance analysis is the investigation of a program's behaviour, using information gathered as the program executes, with the goal of identifying possible hot spots in the program to optimize.

Code tuning, which improves performance at the code level, is the practice of modifying correct code in ways that make it run more efficiently. Code tuning usually involves only small-scale changes that affect a single class, a single routine, or, more commonly, a few lines of code. A rich set of code tuning techniques is available, including those for tuning logic expressions, loops, data transformations, expressions, and routines. Using a low-level language is another commonly used technique for some hot spots of a program.

4.15. Platform Standards

[5, 6]

Platform standards enable the programmers to develop portable applications that can be executed in compatible environments without changes. Platform standards usually involve a set of standard services and APIs that compatible platform implementations must implement. Typical examples of platform standards are Java 2 Platform Enterprise Edition (J2EE) and the operating system standard POSIX (Portable Operating System Interface), which represents a set of standards implemented primarily for UNIX-based operating systems.

4.16. Test-First Programming

[3]

Test-first programming is a popular development style in which test cases are written prior to writing any code. Test-first programming can usually detect defects earlier and correct them more easily than traditional programming styles. Furthermore, writing test cases first forces programmers to think about requirements and design before coding, thus exposing requirements and design problems sooner.

5. Software Construction Tools

5.1. Development Environments

[3]

A development environment, or integrated development environment (IDE), is a software application that provides comprehensive facilities to programmers for software construction by integrating a series of development tools. The choices of development environments can affect the efficiency and quality of software construction.

In addition to basic code editing functions, good modern IDEs often offer other features like compilation and error detection from within the editor, integration with source-code control, build/test/debugging tools, compressed or outline views of programs, automated code transforms, and refactoring.

5.2. GUI Builders

[3]

A GUI (Graphical User Interface) builder, also known as GUI designer, is a software development tool that enables the developer to create and maintain GUIs in a WYSIWYG (what you see is what you get) mode. A GUI builder usually includes a visual editor for the developer to design forms, windows, and manage the layout of the widgets embedded by dragging, dropping, and parameter setting. The GUI builder can automatically generate the source code corresponding to the visual GUI design.

As current GUI applications usually follow the event-driven design style (in which the flow of the program is determined by events and event handling), GUI builders usually provide code generation assistants, which automate the most repetitive tasks required for event handling. The supporting code connects widgets with the outgoing and incoming events that trigger the functions providing the application logic.

Some modern IDEs provide integrated GUI builders or GUI builder plug-ins. There are also many standalone GUI builders.

955 5.3. Unit Testing Tools

956 [3, 7]

957

958 Unit testing verifies the functioning in isolation of
959 software pieces (for example, classes, routines,
960 components), which are separately testable. Unit
961 testing is often automated. Developers can use unit
962 testing tools and frameworks to extend and create
963 automated testing environment. With unit testing tools
964 and frameworks, the developer can code criteria into
965 the test to verify the unit's correctness. Each individual
966 test is implemented as an object, and a test runner runs
967 all of the tests. In and after the test execution, those
968 failed test cases will be automatically flagged and
969 reported.

970

971 5.4. Profiling, Performance Analysis, and Slicing
972 Tools

973 [3]

974

975 Performance analysis tools are usually used to support
976 code-tuning decisions. The most common performance
977 analysis tools are profiling tools. An execution
978 profiling tool watches the code while it runs and tells
979 how many times each statement is executed or how
980 much time the program spends on each statement or
981 execution path. Profiling the code while it is running
982 gives insight into how the program works, where the
983 hot spots are, and where the developers should focus
984 the code-tuning efforts.

985 Program slicing is the computation of the set of
986 program statements (i.e., the program slice) that may
987 affect the values at some point of interest, which is
988 referred to as a slicing criterion. Program slicing can be
989 used for locating the source of errors, program
990 understanding, and optimization analysis. Program
991 slicing tools compute program slices by static or
992 dynamic analysis methods for various programming
993 languages.

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Matrix of Topics vs. Reference Material

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|--|--|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--|------------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| 1. Software Construction Fundamentals | | | | | | | |
| <i>1.1 Minimizing Complexity</i> | c2, c3, c7-c9, c24, c27, c28, c31, c32, c34 | | | | | | |
| <i>1.2 Anticipating Change</i> | c3-c5, c24, c31, c32, c34 | | | | | | |
| <i>1.3 Constructing for Verification</i> | c8, c20-c23, c31, c34 | | | | | | |
| <i>1.4 Reuse</i> | | c18 | | | | | |
| <i>1.5 Standards in Construction</i> | c4 | | | | | | |
| 2. Managing Construction | | | | | | | |
| <i>2.1 Construction in Life Cycle Models</i> | c2, c3, c27, c29 | | | | | | |
| <i>2.2 Construction Planning</i> | c3, c4, c21, c27-c29 | | | | | | |
| <i>2.3 Construction Measurement</i> | c25, c28 | | | | | | |
| 3. Practical Considerations | | | | | | | |
| <i>3.1 Construction Design</i> | c3, c5, c24 | | | | | | |
| <i>3.2 Construction Languages</i> | c4 | | | | | | |
| <i>3.3 Coding</i> | c5-c19, c25-c26 | | | | | | |
| <i>3.4 Construction Testing</i> | c22, c23 | | | | | | |
| <i>3.5 Construction for Reuse</i> | | c18 | | | | | |
| <i>3.6 Construction with Reuse</i> | | c18 | | | | | |
| <i>3.7 Construction Quality</i> | c8, c20-c25 | | | | | | |
| <i>3.8 Integration</i> | c29 | | | | | | |
| 4. Construction Technologies | | | | | | | |
| <i>4.1 API design and use</i> | | | | c7 | | | |
| <i>4.2 Object-oriented run-time issues</i> | c6, c7 | | | | | | |
| <i>4.3 Parameterization and generics</i> | | | | | c1 | | |
| <i>4.4 Assertions, design by contract, defensive programming</i> | c8, c9 | | | | | | |
| <i>4.5 Error handling, exception handling, and fault tolerance</i> | c3, c8 | | | | | | |
| <i>4.6 Executable Models</i> | | | c1 | | | | |
| <i>4.7 State-based and table driven construction techniques</i> | c18 | | | | | | |
| <i>4.8 Run-time configuration and internationalization</i> | c3, c10 | | | | | | |
| <i>4.9 Grammar-based input processing</i> | c5 | | | | | c8 | |
| <i>4.10 Concurrency primitives</i> | | | | | | | c6 |
| <i>4.11 Middleware</i> | | | | c1 | | c8 | |
| <i>4.12 Construction methods for distributed software</i> | | | | | | | c2 |
| <i>4.13 Constructing heterogeneous systems</i> | | | | | | c9 | |
| <i>4.14 Performance analysis and tuning</i> | c25, c26 | | | | | | |

| | (McConnell 2004) | (Sommerville 2006) | (Mellor and Baker 2002) | (Clements, Bachmann et al. 2002) | (Gamma, Helm et al. 1994) | (Null and Lobur 2006) | (Silberschatz, Galvin et al. 2008) |
|--|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|--|------------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| 4.15 Platform standards | | | | | | c10 | c1 |
| 4.16 Test-first programming | c22 | | | | | | |
| 5. Construction Tools | | | | | | | |
| 5.1 Development environments | c30 | | | | | | |
| 5.2 GUI builders | c30 | | | | | | |
| 5.3 Unit testing tools | c22 | c23 | | | | | |
| 5.4 Profiling, performance analysis and slicing tools | c25, c26 | | | | | | |

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