

# CHAPTER 1

## SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

### ACRONYMS

DAG	Directed Acyclic Graph
FSM	Functional Size Measurement
INCOSE	International Council on Systems Engineering
UML	Unified Modeling Language
SysML	Systems Modeling Language

### INTRODUCTION

The Software Requirements Knowledge Area (KA) is concerned with the elicitation, analysis, specification, and validation of software requirements. It is widely acknowledged within the software industry that software engineering projects are critically vulnerable when these activities are performed poorly.

Software requirements express the needs and constraints placed on a software product that contribute to the solution of some real-world problem.

The term “requirements engineering” is widely used in the field to denote the systematic handling of requirements. For reasons of consistency, the term “engineering” will not be used in the Guide other than for software engineering per se.

For the same reason, “requirements engineer,” a term which appears in some of the literature, will not be used either. Instead, the term “software engineer” or, in some specific cases, “requirements specialist” will be used, the latter where the role in question is usually

performed by an individual other than a software engineer. This does not imply, however, that a software engineer could not perform the function.

A risk inherent in the proposed breakdown is that a waterfall-like process may be inferred. To guard against this, subarea 2 *Requirements Process*, is designed to provide a high-level overview of the requirements process by setting out the resources and constraints under which the process operates and which act to configure it.

An alternate decomposition could use a product-based structure (system requirements, software requirements, prototypes, use cases, and so on). The process-based breakdown reflects the fact that the requirements process, if it is to be successful, must be considered as a process involving complex, tightly coupled activities (both sequential and concurrent), rather than as a discrete, one-off activity performed at the outset of a software development project.

The Software Requirements KA is related closely to the Software Design, Software Testing, Software Maintenance, Software Configuration Management, Software Engineering Management, Software Engineering Process, Software Engineering Models and Methods, and Software Quality KAs.

### BREAKDOWN OF TOPICS FOR SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

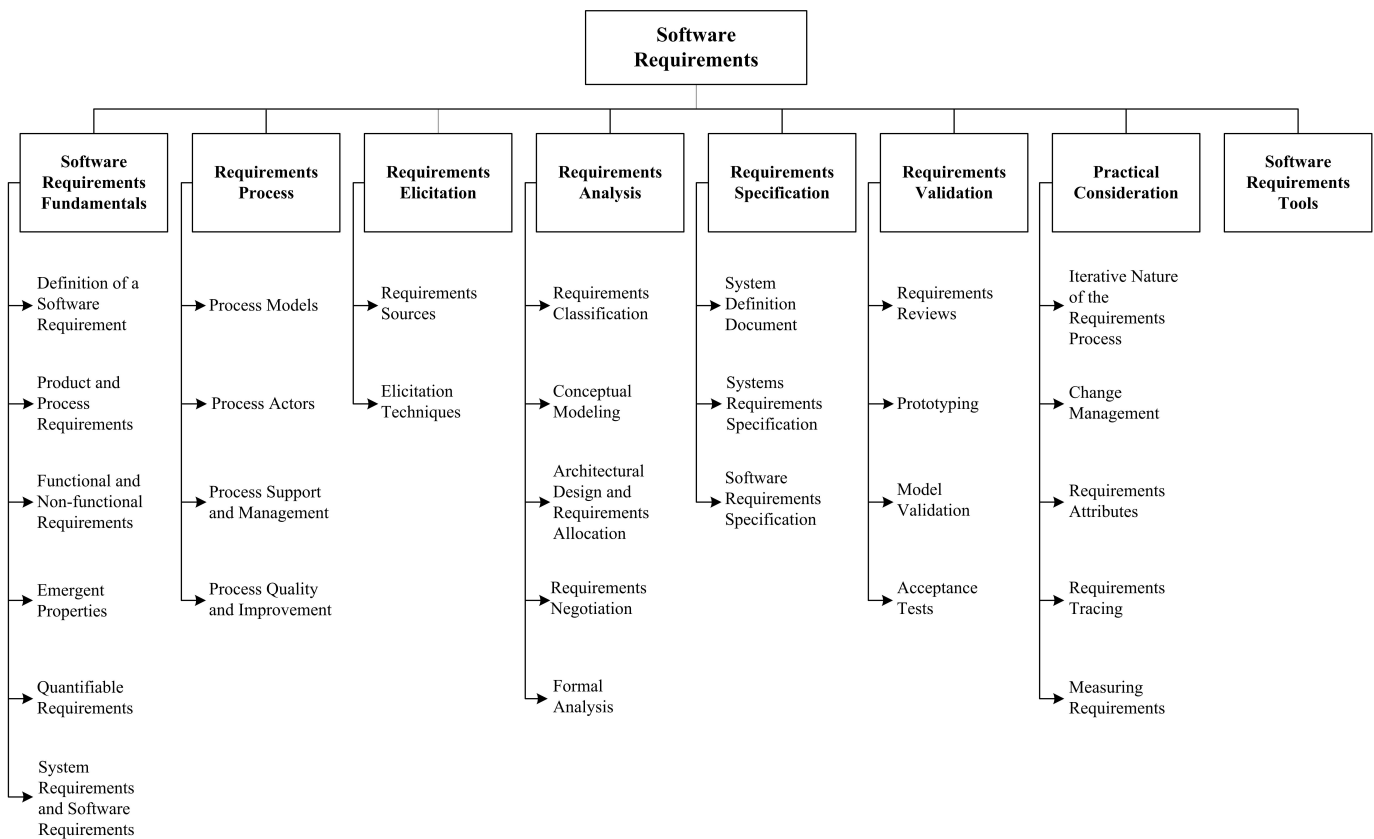


Figure 1: Breakdown of Topics for the Software Requirements KA

## 1. Software Requirements Fundamentals

### 1.1. Definition of a Software Requirement

At its most basic, a software requirement is a property that must be exhibited in order to solve some problem in the real world. The Guide refers to requirements on “software” because it is concerned with problems to be addressed by software. Hence, a software requirement is a property that must be exhibited by software developed or adapted to solve a particular problem. Such software may aim to automate part of a task of someone who will use the software, to support the business processes of the organization that has commissioned the software, to correct shortcomings of existing software, or to control a device—to name just a few of the many problems for which software solutions are possible. The ways in which users, business processes, and devices

function are typically complex. By extension, therefore, the requirements on particular software are typically a complex combination of requirements from different people at different levels of an organization and from the environment in which the software will operate.

An essential property of all software requirements is that they be verifiable. It may be difficult or costly to verify certain software requirements. For example, verification of the throughput requirement on a call center may necessitate the development of simulation software. Both the software requirements and software testing and quality personnel must ensure that the requirements can be verified within the available resource constraints.

Requirements have other attributes in addition to the behavioral properties that they express. Common examples include a priority rating to

enable tradeoffs in the face of finite resources and a status value to enable project progress to be monitored. Typically, software requirements are uniquely identified so that they can be subjected to software configuration control and managed over the entire software life cycle.

#### 1.2. Product and Process Requirements

A distinction can be drawn between *product* parameters and *process* parameters. Product parameters are requirements on software to be developed (for example, “The software shall verify that a student meets all prerequisites before he or she registers for a course”).

A process parameter is essentially a constraint on the development of the software (for example, “The software shall be written in Java”). These are sometimes known as process requirements.

Some software requirements generate implicit process requirements. The choice of verification technique is one example. Another might be the use of particularly rigorous analysis techniques (such as formal specification methods) to reduce faults that can lead to inadequate reliability. Process requirements may also be imposed directly by the development organization, their customer, or a third party such as a safety regulator.

#### 1.3. Functional and Nonfunctional Requirements

*Functional* requirements describe the functions that the software is to execute; for example, formatting some text or modulating a signal. They are sometimes known as capabilities.

*Nonfunctional* requirements are the ones that act to constrain the solution. Nonfunctional requirements are sometimes known as constraints or quality requirements. They can be further classified according to whether they are performance requirements, maintainability requirements, safety requirements, reliability requirements, or one of many other types of software requirements

(see also “Models and Quality Characteristics” in the Software Quality KA).

#### 1.4. Emergent Properties

Some requirements represent emergent properties of software—that is, requirements that cannot be addressed by a single component but that depend for their satisfaction on how all the software components interoperate. The throughput requirement for a call center would, for example, depend on how the telephone system, information system, and the operators all interacted under actual operating conditions. Emergent properties are crucially dependent on the system architecture.

#### 1.5. Quantifiable Requirements

Software requirements should be stated as clearly and as unambiguously as possible, and, where appropriate, quantitatively. It is important to avoid vague and unverifiable requirements that depend for their interpretation on subjective judgment (“the software shall be reliable”; “the software shall be user-friendly”). This is particularly important for nonfunctional requirements. Two examples of quantified requirements are the following: a call center’s software must increase the center’s throughput by 20%; and a system shall have a probability of generating a fatal error during any hour of operation of less than  $1 \times 10^{-8}$ . The throughput requirement is at a very high level and will need to be used to derive a number of detailed requirements. The reliability requirement will tightly constrain the system architecture.

#### 1.6. System Requirements and Software Requirements

In this topic, “system” means “an interacting combination of elements to accomplish a defined objective. These include hardware, software, firmware, people, information, techniques, facilities, services, and other support elements,” as defined by the International Council on Software and Systems Engineering (INCOSE) [1].

203 *System* requirements are the requirements for  
204 the system as a whole. In a system containing  
205 software components, *software* requirements  
206 are derived from system requirements.

207 The literature on requirements sometimes  
208 calls system requirements “user  
209 requirements.” The Guide defines “user  
210 requirements” in a restricted way as the  
211 requirements of the system’s customers or  
212 end users. System requirements, by contrast,  
213 encompass user requirements, requirements of  
214 other stakeholders (such as regulatory  
215 authorities), and requirements without an  
216 identifiable human source.

## 217 2. Requirements Process

218 This section introduces the software  
219 requirements process, orienting the remaining  
220 five subareas and showing how the  
221 requirements process dovetails with the  
222 overall software engineering process.

### 223 2.1. Process Models

224 The objective of this topic is to provide an  
225 understanding that the requirements process

- 226 ♦ Is not a discrete, front-end activity of the  
227 software life cycle, but rather a process  
228 initiated at the beginning of a project and  
229 continuing to be refined throughout the  
230 life cycle;
- 231 ♦ Identifies software requirements as  
232 configuration items and manages them  
233 using the same software-configuration  
234 management practices as other products  
235 of the software life-cycle processes;
- 236 ♦ Needs to be adapted to the organization  
237 and project context.

238 In particular, the topic is concerned with how  
239 the activities of elicitation, analysis,  
240 specification, and validation are configured  
241 for different types of projects and constraints.  
242 The topic also includes activities that provide  
243 input into the requirements process, such as  
244 marketing and feasibility studies.

### 245 2.2. Process Actors

246 This topic introduces the roles of the people  
247 who participate in the requirements process.

248 This process is fundamentally  
249 interdisciplinary, and the requirements  
250 specialist needs to mediate between the  
251 domain of the stakeholder and that of  
252 software engineering. There are often many  
253 people involved besides the requirements  
254 specialist, each of whom has a stake in the  
255 software. The stakeholders will vary across  
256 projects but will always include  
257 users/operators and customers (who need not  
258 be the same).

259 Typical examples of software stakeholders  
260 include (but are not restricted to)

- 261 • Users: This group comprises those who  
262 will operate the software. It is often a  
263 heterogeneous group comprising people  
264 with different roles and requirements.
- 265 • Customers: This group comprises those  
266 who have commissioned the software or  
267 who represent the software’s target  
268 market.
- 269 • Market analysts: A mass-market product  
270 will not have a commissioning customer,  
271 so marketing people are often needed to  
272 establish what the market needs and to act  
273 as proxy customers.
- 274 • Regulators: Many application domains,  
275 such as banking and public transport, are  
276 regulated. Software in these domains must  
277 comply with the requirements of the  
278 regulatory authorities.
- 279 • Software engineers: These individuals  
280 have a legitimate interest in profiting from  
281 developing the software by, for example,  
282 reusing components in other products. If,  
283 in this scenario, a customer of a particular  
284 product has specific requirements that  
285 compromise the potential for component  
286 reuse, the software engineers must  
287 carefully weigh their own stake against  
288 those of the customer.

289 It will not be possible to perfectly satisfy the  
290 requirements of every stakeholder, and it is  
291 the software engineer’s job to negotiate  
292 tradeoffs that are both acceptable to the  
293 principal stakeholders and within budgetary,

294 technical, regulatory, and other constraints. A  
295 prerequisite for this is that all the stakeholders  
296 be identified, the nature of their “stake”  
297 analyzed, and their requirements elicited.

### 298 2.3. *Process Support and Management*

299 This topic introduces the project-management  
300 resources required and consumed by the  
301 requirements process. It establishes the  
302 context for the first subarea (*Initiation and*  
303 *scope definition*) of the Software Engineering  
304 Management KA. Its principal purpose is to  
305 make the link between the process activities  
306 identified in 2.1 and the issues of cost, human  
307 resources, training, and tools.

### 308 2.4. *Process Quality and Improvement*

309 This topic is concerned with the assessment of  
310 the quality and improvement of the  
311 requirements process. Its purpose is to  
312 emphasize the key role the requirements  
313 process plays in terms of the cost and  
314 timeliness of a software product and of the  
315 customer’s satisfaction with it. It will help to  
316 orient the requirements process with quality  
317 standards and process improvement models  
318 for software and systems. Process quality and  
319 improvement is closely related to both the  
320 Software Quality KA and the Software  
321 Engineering Process KA. This topic covers

- 322 ♦ Requirements process coverage by  
323 process improvement standards and  
324 models;
- 325 ♦ Requirements process measures and  
326 benchmarking;
- 327 ♦ Improvement planning and  
328 implementation.

## 329 3. **Requirements Elicitation**

330 Requirements elicitation is concerned with  
331 where software requirements come from and  
332 how the software engineer can collect them. It  
333 is the first stage in building an understanding  
334 of the problem the software is required to  
335 solve. It is fundamentally a human activity,  
336 and is where the stakeholders are identified  
337 and relationships established between the  
338 development team and the customer. It is

339 variously termed “requirements capture,”  
340 “requirements discovery,” and “requirements  
341 acquisition.”

342 One of the fundamental tenets of good  
343 software engineering is that there be good  
344 communication between software  
345 stakeholders and software engineers. Before  
346 development begins, requirements specialists  
347 may form the conduit for this communication.  
348 They must mediate between the domain of the  
349 software users (and other stakeholders) and  
350 the technical world of the software engineer.

351 A critical element of requirements elicitation  
352 is informing the project scope. This involves  
353 providing a description of the software being  
354 specified and its purpose and prioritizing the  
355 deliverables to ensure the customer’s most  
356 important business needs are satisfied first.  
357 This minimizes the risk of the requirements  
358 specialists spending time eliciting  
359 requirements that are of low importance or  
360 those that turn out to be no longer relevant  
361 when the software is delivered.

### 362 3.1. *Requirements Sources*

363 Requirements have many sources in typical  
364 software, and it is essential that all potential  
365 sources be identified and evaluated. This topic  
366 is designed to promote awareness of the  
367 various sources of software requirements and  
368 of the frameworks for managing them. The  
369 main points covered are

- 370 ♦ Goals. The term “goal” (sometimes  
371 called “business concern” or “critical  
372 success factor”) refers to the overall,  
373 high-level objectives of the software.  
374 Goals provide the motivation for the  
375 software but are often vaguely  
376 formulated. Software engineers need to  
377 pay particular attention to assessing the  
378 value (relative to priority) and cost of  
379 goals. A feasibility study is a relatively  
380 low-cost way of doing this.
- 381 ♦ Domain knowledge. The software  
382 engineer needs to acquire, or have  
383 available, knowledge about the  
384 application domain. Domain knowledge

provides the background against which all elicited requirements knowledge must be set in order to understand it.

- ♦ Stakeholders (see topic 2.2 *Process Actors*). Much software has proved unsatisfactory because it has stressed the requirements of one group of stakeholders at the expense of those of others. Hence, the delivered software is difficult to use or subverts the cultural or political structures of the customer organization. The software engineer needs to identify, represent, and manage the “viewpoints” of many different types of stakeholders.

- ♦ Business rules. These are statements that define or constrain some aspect of the structure or the behavior of the business itself. “A student cannot register in next semester’s courses if there remain some unpaid tuition fees” would be an example of a business rule that would be a requirement source for a university’s course-registration software.

- ♦ The operational environment. Requirements will be derived from the environment in which the software will be executed. These may be, for example, timing constraints in real-time software or interoperability constraints in a business environment. These must be actively sought out because they can greatly affect software feasibility and cost as well as restrict design choices.

- ♦ The organizational environment. Software is often required to support a business process, the selection of which may be conditioned by the structure, culture, and internal politics of the organization. The software engineer needs to be sensitive to these since, in general, new software should not force unplanned change on the business process.

### 3.2. Elicitation Techniques

Once the requirements sources have been identified, the software engineer can start elic-

iting requirements information from them. Note that requirements are seldom elicited ready-made. Rather, the software engineer elicits information from which they formulate requirements. This topic concentrates on techniques for getting human stakeholders to articulate requirements-relevant information. It is a very difficult task and the software engineer needs to be sensitized to the fact that (for example) users may have difficulty describing their tasks, may leave important information unstated, or may be unwilling or unable to cooperate. It is particularly important to understand that elicitation is not a passive activity and that, even if cooperative and articulate stakeholders are available, the software engineer has to work hard to elicit the right information. Much of business or technical requirements is tacit or in feedback that has yet to be obtained from end users. The importance of planning, verification, and validation in requirements elicitation cannot be overstated. A number of techniques exist for requirements elicitation, the principal ones being

- ♦ Interviews, a “traditional” means of eliciting requirements. It is important to understand the advantages and limitations of interviews and how they should be conducted.

- ♦ Scenarios, a valuable means for providing context to the elicitation of user requirements. They allow the software engineer to provide a framework for questions about user tasks by permitting “what if” and “how is this done” questions to be asked. The most common type of scenario is the use-case description. There is a link here to topic 4.2 (*Conceptual Modeling*) because scenario notations such as use case diagrams are common in modeling software.

- ♦ Prototypes, a valuable tool for clarifying unclear requirements. They can act in a similar way to scenarios by providing users with a context within which they can better understand what information

they need to provide. There is a wide range of prototyping techniques—from paper mock-ups of screen designs to beta-test versions of software products—and a strong overlap of their separate uses for requirements elicitation and for requirements validation (see topic 6.2 *Prototyping*).

- ◆ **Facilitated meetings.** The purpose of these meetings is to try to achieve a summative effect whereby a group of people can bring more insight into their software requirements than by working individually. They can brainstorm and refine ideas that may be difficult to bring to the surface using interviews. Another advantage is that conflicting requirements surface early on in a way that lets the stakeholders recognize where there is conflict. When it works well, this technique may result in a richer and more consistent set of requirements than might otherwise be achievable. However, meetings need to be handled carefully (hence the need for a facilitator) to prevent a situation in which the critical abilities of the team are eroded by group loyalty or in which requirements reflecting the concerns of a few outspoken (and perhaps senior) people are favored to the detriment of others.

- ◆ **Observation.** The importance of software context within the organizational environment has led to the adaptation of observational techniques such as ethnography for requirements elicitation. Software engineers learn about user tasks by immersing themselves in the environment and observing how users perform their tasks by interacting with each other and with software tools and other resources. These techniques are relatively expensive but also instructive because they illustrate that many user tasks and business processes are too subtle and complex for their actors to describe easily.

- ◆ **User stories.** This technique is commonly used in agile methods (see the “Agile Methods” topic in the Software Engineering Models and Methods Knowledge Area) and refers to short, high-level descriptions of required functionality expressed in customer terms. A typical user story has the form: “*As a <role>, I want <goal/desire> so that <benefit>.*” A user story is intended to contain just enough information so that the developers can produce a reasonable estimate of the effort to implement it. The aim is to avoid some of the waste that often happens in projects where detailed requirements are gathered early but become invalid before the work begins. Before a user story is implemented, an appropriate acceptance procedure must be written by the customer to determine whether the goals of the user story have been fulfilled.

- ◆ **Other techniques.** A range of other techniques for supporting the elicitation of requirements information exist and range from analyzing competitors’ products to applying data mining techniques to using sources of domain knowledge or customer request databases.

#### 4. Requirements Analysis

This topic is concerned with the process of analyzing requirements to

- ◆ Detect and resolve conflicts between requirements;
- ◆ Discover the bounds of the software and how it must interact with its environment;
- ◆ Elaborate system requirements to derive software requirements.

The traditional view of requirements analysis has been that it be reduced to conceptual modeling using one of a number of analysis methods, such as the Structured Analysis method. While conceptual modeling is important, we include the classification of requirements to help inform tradeoffs between requirements (requirements classification) and

573 the process of establishing these tradeoffs  
574 (requirements negotiation).

575 Care must be taken to describe requirements  
576 precisely enough to enable the requirements  
577 to be validated, their implementation to be  
578 verified, and their costs to be estimated.

#### 579 4.1. Requirements Classification

580 Requirements can be classified on a number  
581 of dimensions. Examples include

- 582 ♦ Whether the requirement is functional or  
583 nonfunctional (see topic 1.3 *Functional*  
584 *and Nonfunctional Requirements*).
- 585 ♦ Whether the requirement is derived from  
586 one or more high-level requirements or  
587 an emergent property (see topic 1.4  
588 *Emergent Properties*) or is being  
589 imposed directly on the software by a  
590 stakeholder or some other source.
- 591 ♦ Whether the requirement is on the  
592 product or the process (see 1.2 *Product*  
593 *and Process Requirements*).  
594 Requirements on the process can  
595 constrain the choice of contractor, the  
596 software engineering process to be  
597 adopted, or the standards to be adhered  
598 to.
- 599 ♦ The requirement priority. The higher the  
600 priority, the more essential the  
601 requirement is for meeting the overall  
602 goals of the software. Often classified on  
603 a fixed-point scale such as mandatory,  
604 highly desirable, desirable, or optional,  
605 the priority often has to be balanced  
606 against the cost of development and  
607 implementation. Requirements  
608 prioritization is necessary not only as a  
609 means to filter important requirements  
610 but also in order to resolve conflicts and  
611 plan for staged deliveries, which means  
612 making complex decisions that require  
613 detailed domain knowledge and good  
614 estimation skills. However, it is often  
615 difficult to get real information that can  
616 act as a basis for such decisions. In  
617 addition, requirements often depend on  
618 each other and priorities are relative. In

619 practice, software engineers perform  
620 requirements prioritization frequently  
621 without knowing about all the  
622 requirements.

- 623 ♦ The scope of the requirement. Scope  
624 refers to the extent to which a  
625 requirement affects the software and  
626 software components. Some  
627 requirements, particularly certain  
628 nonfunctional ones, have a global scope  
629 in that their satisfaction cannot be  
630 allocated to a discrete component. Hence,  
631 a requirement with global scope may  
632 strongly affect the software architecture  
633 and the design of many components,  
634 whereas one with a narrow scope may  
635 offer a number of design choices and  
636 have little impact on the satisfaction of  
637 other requirements.
- 638 ♦ Volatility/stability. Some requirements  
639 will change during the life cycle of the  
640 software—and even during the  
641 development process, itself. It is useful if  
642 some estimate of the likelihood that a  
643 requirement will change can be made.  
644 For example, in a banking application,  
645 requirements for functions to calculate  
646 and credit interest to customers' accounts  
647 are likely to be more stable than a  
648 requirement to support a particular kind  
649 of tax-free account. The former reflect a  
650 fundamental feature of the banking  
651 domain (that accounts can earn interest),  
652 while the latter may be rendered obsolete  
653 by a change to government legislation.  
654 Flagging potentially volatile  
655 requirements can help the software  
656 engineer establish a design that is more  
657 tolerant of change.

658 Other classifications may be appropriate,  
659 depending upon the organization's normal  
660 practice and the application itself.

661 There is a strong overlap between  
662 requirements classification and requirements  
663 attributes (see topic 7.3 *Requirements*  
664 *Attributes*).



## 665 4.2. Conceptual Modeling

666 The development of models of a real-world  
667 problem is key to software requirements anal-  
668 ysis. Their purpose is to aid in understanding  
669 the problem, rather than to initiate design of  
670 the solution. Hence, conceptual models com-  
671 prise models of entities from the problem do-  
672 main configured to reflect their real-world  
673 relationships and dependencies. This topic is  
674 closely related to the Software Engineering  
675 Models and Methods Knowledge Area.

676  
677 Several kinds of models can be developed.  
678 These include use case diagrams, data flow  
679 models, state models, goal-based models, user  
680 interactions, object models, data models, and  
681 many others. Many of these modeling nota-  
682 tions are part of the Unified Modeling Lan-  
683 guage (UML). Use case diagrams, for exam-  
684 ple, are routinely used to provide a means of  
685 depicting the software boundary, a high-level  
686 view of its behavior (the use cases), and the  
687 actors in the software environment.

688 The factors that influence the choice of mod-  
689 eling notation include:

- 690 ♦ The nature of the problem. Some types of  
691 software demand that certain aspects be  
692 analyzed particularly rigorously. For  
693 example, state and parametric models,  
694 which are part of SysML [2], are likely to  
695 be more important for real-time software  
696 than for information systems, while it  
697 would usually be the opposite for object  
698 and activity models.
- 699 ♦ The expertise of the software engineer. It  
700 is often more productive to adopt a  
701 modeling notation or method with which  
702 the software engineer has experience.
- 703 ♦ The process requirements of the  
704 customer (see topic 1.2 *Product and*  
705 *Process Requirements*). Customers may  
706 impose their favored notation or method  
707 or prohibit any with which they are  
708 unfamiliar. This factor can conflict with  
709 the previous factor.

710 Note that, in almost all cases, it is useful to  
711 start by building a model of the software  
712 context. The software context provides a  
713 connection between the intended software and  
714 its external environment. This is crucial to  
715 understanding the software's context in its  
716 operational environment and to identifying its  
717 interfaces with the environment.

718 This topic does not seek to “teach” a  
719 particular modeling style or notation but  
720 rather provides guidance on the purpose and  
721 intent of modeling.

## 722 4.3. Architectural Design and Requirements 723 Allocation

724 At some point, the architecture of the solution  
725 must be derived. Architectural design is the  
726 point at which the requirements process  
727 overlaps with software or systems design and  
728 illustrates how impossible it is to cleanly  
729 decouple the two tasks. This topic is closely  
730 related to the *Software Structure and*  
731 *Architecture* subarea in the Software Design  
732 KA. In many cases, the software engineer acts  
733 as software architect because the process of  
734 analyzing and elaborating the requirements  
735 demands that the components that will be  
736 responsible for satisfying the requirements be  
737 identified. This is requirements allocation—the  
738 assignment to components of the  
739 responsibility for satisfying requirements.

740 Allocation is important to permit detailed  
741 analysis of requirements. Hence, for example,  
742 once a set of requirements has been allocated  
743 to a component, the individual requirements  
744 can be further analyzed to discover further  
745 requirements on how the component needs to  
746 interact with other components in order to  
747 satisfy the allocated requirements. In large  
748 projects, allocation stimulates a new round of  
749 analysis for each subsystem. As an example,  
750 requirements for a particular braking  
751 performance for a car (braking distance,  
752 safety in poor driving conditions, smoothness  
753 of application, pedal pressure required, and so  
754 on) may be allocated to the braking hardware  
755 (mechanical and hydraulic assemblies) and an

756 anti-lock braking system (ABS). Only when a  
757 requirement for an anti-lock braking system  
758 has been identified, and the requirements  
759 allocated to it, can the capabilities of the  
760 ABS, the braking hardware, and emergent  
761 properties (such as car weight) be used to  
762 identify the detailed ABS software  
763 requirements.

764 Architectural design is closely identified  
765 with conceptual modeling (see topic 4.2  
766 *Conceptual Modeling*).

#### 767 4.4. Requirements Negotiation

768 Another term commonly used for this sub-  
769 topic is “conflict resolution.” This concerns  
770 resolving problems with requirements where  
771 conflicts occur between two stakeholders  
772 requiring mutually incompatible features,  
773 between requirements and resources, or  
774 between functional and nonfunctional  
775 requirements, for example. In most cases, it  
776 is unwise for the software engineer to make a  
777 unilateral decision, and so it becomes  
778 necessary to consult with the stakeholder(s) to  
779 reach a consensus on an appropriate tradeoff.  
780 It is often important, for contractual reasons,  
781 that such decisions be traceable back to the  
782 customer. We have classified this as a  
783 software requirements analysis topic because  
784 problems emerge as the result of analysis.  
785 However, a strong case can also be made for  
786 considering it a requirements validation topic.

#### 787 4.5. Formal Analysis

788 Formal analysis concerns not only section 4,  
789 but also subsection 5.3 and 6.3. This topic is  
790 also related to the “Formal Methods” topic in  
791 the Software Engineering Models and  
792 Methods Knowledge Area.

793 Formal analysis has made an impact on some  
794 application domains, particularly those of  
795 high-integrity systems. The formal expression  
796 of requirements requires a language with  
797 formally defined semantics. The use of a  
798 formal analysis for requirements expression  
799 has two benefits. First, it enables  
800 requirements expressed in the language to be

801 specified precisely and unambiguously, thus  
802 (in principle) avoiding the potential for  
803 misinterpretation. Secondly, requirements can  
804 be reasoned over, permitting desired  
805 properties of the specified software to be  
806 proven. Formal reasoning requires tool  
807 support to be practicable for anything other  
808 than trivial systems, and tools generally fall  
809 into two types; theorem provers or model  
810 checkers. In neither case can proof be fully  
811 automated, and the level of competence in  
812 formal reasoning needed in order to use the  
813 tools restricts the wider application of formal  
814 analysis.

815 Most formal analysis is focused on relatively  
816 late stages of requirements analysis. It is  
817 generally counterproductive to apply  
818 formalization until the business goals and user  
819 requirements have come into sharp focus  
820 through means such as those described  
821 elsewhere in section 4. However, once the  
822 requirements have stabilized and elaborated to  
823 specify concrete properties of the software, it  
824 may be beneficial to formalize at least the  
825 critical requirements. This permits static  
826 validation that the software specified by the  
827 requirements does indeed have the properties  
828 (for example, absence of deadlock) that the  
829 customer, users, and software engineer expect  
830 it to have.

#### 831 5. Requirements Specification

832 For most engineering professions, the term  
833 “specification” refers to the assignment of  
834 numerical values or limits to a product’s  
835 design goals. In software engineering jargon,  
836 “software requirements specification”  
837 typically refers to the production of a  
838 document that can be systematically  
839 reviewed, evaluated, and approved. For  
840 complex systems, particularly those involving  
841 substantial non-software components, as  
842 many as three different types of documents  
843 are produced: system definition, system  
844 requirements, and software requirements. For  
845 simple software products, only the third of  
846 these is required. All three documents are  
847 described here, with the understanding that

848 they may be combined as appropriate. A  
849 description of systems engineering can be  
850 found in the Related Disciplines of Software  
851 Engineering KA.

### 852 *5.1. System Definition Document*

853 This document (sometimes known as the user  
854 requirements document or concept of  
855 operations) records the system requirements. It  
856 defines the high-level system requirements  
857 from the domain perspective. Its readership  
858 includes representatives of the system  
859 users/customers (marketing may play these  
860 roles for market-driven software), so its  
861 content must be couched in terms of the  
862 domain. The document lists the system  
863 requirements along with background  
864 information about the overall objectives for the  
865 system, its target environment, and a statement  
866 of the constraints, assumptions, and  
867 nonfunctional requirements. It may include  
868 conceptual models designed to illustrate the  
869 system context, usage scenarios, and the  
870 principal domain entities, as well as  
871 workflows.

### 872 *5.2. System Requirements Specification*

873 Developers of systems with substantial  
874 software and non-software components—a  
875 modern airliner, for example—often separate  
876 the description of system requirements from  
877 the description of software requirements. In  
878 this view, system requirements are specified,  
879 the software requirements are derived from  
880 the system requirements, and then the  
881 requirements for the software components are  
882 specified. Strictly speaking, system  
883 requirements specification is a systems  
884 engineering activity and falls outside the  
885 scope of this Guide.

### 886 *5.3. Software Requirements Specification*

887 Software requirements specification establishes  
888 the basis for agreement between customers and  
889 contractors or suppliers (in market-driven  
890 projects, these roles may be played by the  
891 marketing and development divisions) on what  
892 the software product is to do as well as what it  
893 is not expected to do.

894 Software requirements specification permits a  
895 rigorous assessment of requirements before  
896 design can begin and reduces later redesign. It  
897 should also provide a realistic basis for  
898 estimating product costs, risks, and schedules.

899 Organizations can also use a software  
900 requirements specification document to  
901 develop their own validation and verification  
902 plans more productively.

903 Software requirements specification provides  
904 an informed basis for transferring a software  
905 product to new users or software platforms.  
906 Finally, it can provide a basis for software  
907 enhancement.

908 Software requirements are often written in  
909 natural language, but, in software  
910 requirements specification, this may be  
911 supplemented by formal or semi-formal  
912 descriptions. Selection of appropriate  
913 notations permits particular requirements and  
914 aspects of the software architecture to be  
915 described more precisely and concisely than  
916 natural language. The general rule is that  
917 notations should be used that allow the  
918 requirements to be described as precisely as  
919 possible. This is particularly crucial for  
920 safety-critical and certain other types of  
921 dependable software. However, the choice of  
922 notation is often constrained by the training,  
923 skills, and preferences of the document's  
924 authors and readers.

925 A number of quality indicators have been  
926 developed, which can be used to relate the  
927 quality of software requirements specification  
928 to other project variables such as cost,  
929 acceptance, performance, schedule, and  
930 reproducibility. Quality indicators for  
931 individual software requirements specification  
932 statements include imperatives, directives,  
933 weak phrases, options, and continuances.  
934 Indicators for the entire software requirements  
935 specification document include size,  
936 readability, specification, depth, and text  
937 structure.

## 938 6. Requirements Validation

939 The requirements documents may be subject to  
940 validation and verification procedures. The  
941 requirements may be validated to ensure that  
942 the software engineer has understood the  
943 requirements; it is also important to verify that  
944 a requirements document conforms to  
945 company standards and that it is  
946 understandable, consistent, and complete.  
947 Formal notations offer the important advantage  
948 of permitting the last two properties to be  
949 proven (in a restricted sense, at least). Different  
950 stakeholders, including representatives of the  
951 customer and developer, should review the  
952 document(s). Requirements documents are  
953 subject to the same software configuration  
954 management practices as the other deliverables  
955 of the software life-cycle processes.

956 It is normal to explicitly schedule one or more  
957 points in the requirements process where the  
958 requirements are validated. The aim is to pick  
959 up any problems before resources are  
960 committed to addressing the requirements.  
961 Requirements validation is concerned with the  
962 process of examining the requirements  
963 document to ensure that it defines the right  
964 software (that is, the software that the users  
965 expect).

### 966 6.1. Requirements Reviews

967 Perhaps the most common means of validation  
968 is by inspection or reviews of the requirements  
969 document(s). A group of reviewers is assigned  
970 a brief to look for errors, mistaken  
971 assumptions, lack of clarity, and deviation  
972 from standard practice. The composition of the  
973 group that conducts the review is important (at  
974 least one representative of the customer should  
975 be included for a customer-driven project, for  
976 example), and it may help to provide guidance  
977 on what to look for in the form of checklists.

978 Reviews may be constituted on completion of  
979 the system definition document, the system  
980 specification document, the software  
981 requirements specification document, the  
982 baseline specification for a new release, or at  
983 any other step in the process.

## 984 6.2. Prototyping

985 Prototyping is commonly a means for  
986 validating the software engineer's  
987 interpretation of the software requirements, as  
988 well as for eliciting new requirements. As  
989 with elicitation, there is a range of  
990 prototyping techniques and a number of  
991 points in the process where prototype  
992 validation may be appropriate. The advantage  
993 of prototypes is that they can make it easier to  
994 interpret the software engineer's assumptions  
995 and, where needed, give useful feedback on  
996 why they are wrong. For example, the  
997 dynamic behavior of a user interface can be  
998 better understood through an animated  
999 prototype than through textual description or  
1000 graphical models. There are also  
1001 disadvantages, however. These include the  
1002 danger of users' attention being distracted  
1003 from the core underlying functionality by  
1004 cosmetic issues or quality problems with the  
1005 prototype. For this reason, some advocate  
1006 prototypes that avoid software, such as flip-  
1007 chart-based mockups. Prototypes may be  
1008 costly to develop. However, if they avoid the  
1009 wastage of resources caused by trying to  
1010 satisfy erroneous requirements, their cost can  
1011 be more easily justified.

### 1012 6.3. Model Validation

1013 It is typically necessary to validate the quality  
1014 of the models developed during analysis. For  
1015 example, in object models, it is useful to per-  
1016 form a static analysis to verify that communi-  
1017 cation paths exist between objects that, in the  
1018 stakeholders' domain, exchange data. If formal  
1019 analysis notations are used, it is possible  
1020 to use formal reasoning to prove specification  
1021 properties. This topic is closely related to the  
1022 Software Engineering Models and Methods  
1023 KA.

1024

### 1025 6.4. Acceptance Tests

1026 An essential property of a software  
1027 requirement is that it should be possible to  
1028 validate that the finished product satisfies it.  
1029 Requirements that cannot be validated are

really just “wishes.” An important task is therefore planning how to verify each requirement. In most cases, designing acceptance tests does this.

Identifying and designing acceptance tests may be difficult for nonfunctional requirements (see topic 1.3 *Functional and Nonfunctional Requirements*). To be validated, they must first be analyzed and decomposed to the point where they can be expressed quantitatively.

Additional information can be found in the Software Testing KA, sub-topic *Acceptance/Qualification/Conformance testing*.

## 7. Practical Considerations

The first level of subarea decomposition presented in this KA may seem to describe a linear sequence of activities. This is a simplified view of the process.

The requirements process spans the whole software life cycle. Change management and the maintenance of the requirements in a state that accurately mirrors the software to be built, or that has been built, are key to the success of the software engineering process.

Not every organization has a culture of documenting and managing requirements. It is common in dynamic start-up companies, driven by a strong “product vision” and limited resources, to view requirements documentation as an unnecessary overhead. Most often, however, as these companies expand, as their customer base grows, and as their product starts to evolve, they discover that they need to recover the requirements that motivated product features in order to assess the impact of proposed changes. Hence, requirements documentation and change management are key to the success of any requirements process.

### 7.1. Iterative Nature of the Requirements Process

There is general pressure in the software industry for ever shorter development cycles,

and this is particularly pronounced in highly competitive, market-driven sectors. Moreover, most projects are constrained in some way by their environment, and many are upgrades to, or revisions of, existing software where the architecture is a given. In practice, therefore, it is almost always impractical to implement the requirements process as a linear, deterministic process in which software requirements are elicited from the stakeholders, baselined, allocated, and handed over to the software development team. It is certainly a myth that the requirements for large software projects are ever perfectly understood or perfectly specified.

Instead, requirements typically iterate towards a level of quality and detail that is sufficient to permit design and procurement decisions to be made. In some projects, this may result in the requirements being baselined before all their properties are fully understood. This risks expensive rework if problems emerge late in the software engineering process. However, software engineers are necessarily constrained by project management plans and must therefore take steps to ensure that the “quality” of the requirements is as high as possible given the available resources. They should, for example, make explicit any assumptions that underpin the requirements as well as any known problems.

In almost all cases, requirements understanding continues to evolve as design and development proceeds. This often leads to the revision of requirements late in the life cycle. Perhaps the most crucial point in understanding requirements engineering is that a significant proportion of the requirements *will* change. This is sometimes due to errors in the analysis, but it is frequently an inevitable consequence of change in the “environment”—for example, the customer’s operating or business environment or the market into which software must sell. Whatever the cause, it is important to recognize the inevitability of change and take steps to mitigate its effects. Change has to be managed by ensuring that

1121 proposed changes go through a defined  
1122 review and approval process, and, by  
1123 applying careful requirements tracing, impact  
1124 analysis, and software configuration  
1125 management (see the Software Configuration  
1126 Management KA). Hence, the requirements  
1127 process is not merely a front-end task in  
1128 software development but spans the whole  
1129 software life cycle. In a typical project, the  
1130 software requirements activities evolve over  
1131 time from elicitation to change management.

## 1132 7.2. *Change Management*

1133 Change management is central to the  
1134 management of requirements. This topic  
1135 describes the role of change management, the  
1136 procedures that need to be in place, and the  
1137 analysis that should be applied to proposed  
1138 changes. It has strong links to the Software  
1139 Configuration Management KA.

## 1140 7.3. *Requirements Attributes*

1141 Requirements should consist not only of a  
1142 specification of what is required, but also of  
1143 ancillary information, which helps manage  
1144 and interpret the requirements. This should  
1145 include the various classification dimensions  
1146 of the requirement (see topic 4.1  
1147 *Requirements Classification*) and the  
1148 verification method or relevant acceptance  
1149 test plan section. It may also include  
1150 additional information, such as a summary  
1151 rationale for each requirement, the source of  
1152 each requirement, and a change history. The  
1153 most important requirements attribute,  
1154 however, is an identifier that allows the  
1155 requirements to be uniquely and  
1156 unambiguously identified.

## 1157 7.4. *Requirements Tracing*

1158 Requirements tracing is concerned with  
1159 recovering the source of requirements and  
1160 predicting the effects of requirements.  
1161 Tracing is fundamental to performing impact  
1162 analysis when requirements change. A  
1163 requirement should be traceable backwards to  
1164 the requirements and stakeholders that  
1165 motivated it (from a software requirement

1211

1166 back to the system requirement(s) that it helps  
1167 satisfy, for example). Conversely, a  
1168 requirement should be traceable forwards into  
1169 the requirements and design entities that  
1170 satisfy it (for example, from a system  
1171 requirement into the software requirements  
1172 that have been elaborated from it, and on into  
1173 the code modules that implement it).

1174 The requirements tracing for a typical project  
1175 will form a complex directed acyclic graph  
1176 (DAG) (see “Graphs” in the Computing  
1177 Foundations KA) of requirements.

## 1178 7.5. *Measuring Requirements*

1179 As a practical matter, it is typically useful to  
1180 have some concept of the “volume” of the  
1181 requirements for a particular software  
1182 product. This number is useful in evaluating  
1183 the “size” of a change in requirements, in  
1184 estimating the cost of a development or  
1185 maintenance task, or simply for use as the  
1186 denominator in other measurements.  
1187 Functional Size Measurement (FSM) is a  
1188 technique for evaluating the size of a body of  
1189 functional requirements.

1190 Additional information on size measurement  
1191 and standards will be found in the Software  
1192 Engineering Process KA.

## 1193 8. **Software Requirements Tools**

1194 Tools for dealing with software requirements  
1195 fall broadly into two categories: tools for  
1196 modeling and tools for managing require-  
1197 ments.

1198 Requirements management tools typically  
1199 support a range of activities—including docu-  
1200 mentation, tracing, and change manage-  
1201 ment—and have had a significant impact on  
1202 practice. Indeed, tracing and change manage-  
1203 ment are really only practicable if supported  
1204 by a tool. Since requirement management is  
1205 fundamental to good requirements practice,  
1206 many organizations have invested in require-  
1207 ments management tools, although many  
1208 more manage their requirements in more ad  
1209 hoc and generally less satisfactory ways (e.g.,  
1210 using spreadsheets).

	[Sommerville 2010] [3*]	[Wiegiers 2003] [4*]
<b>1. Software Requirements Fundamentals</b>		
<i>1.1 Definition of a Software Requirement</i>	c4	c1
<i>1.2 Product and Process Requirements</i>	c4.1	c1, c6
<i>1.3 Functional and Nonfunctional Requirements</i>	c4.1	c12
<i>1.4 Emergent Properties</i>	c10.1	
<i>1.5 Quantifiable Requirements</i>		c1
<i>1.6 System Requirements and Software Requirements</i>	c10.4	c1
<b>2. Requirements Process</b>		
<i>2.1 Process Models</i>	c.4.4	c3
<i>2.2 Process Actors</i>		c1, c2, c4, c6
<i>2.3 Process Support and Management</i>		c3
<i>2.4 Process Quality and Improvement</i>		c22, c23
<b>3. Requirements Elicitation</b>		
<i>3.1 Requirements Sources</i>	c4.5	c5, c6, c9
<i>3.2 Elicitation Techniques</i>	c4.5	c6
<b>4. Requirements Analysis</b>		
<i>4.1 Requirements Classification</i>	c4.1	c12
<i>4.2 Conceptual Modeling</i>	c4.5	c11
<i>4.3 Architectural Design and Requirements Allocation</i>	c10.4	c17
<i>4.4 Requirements Negotiation</i>	c4.5	c7
<i>4.5 Formal Analysis</i>	c12.5	
<b>5. Requirements Specification</b>		
<i>5.1 System Definition Document</i>	c4.2	c10
<i>5.2 System Requirements Specification</i>	c4.2, c12.2, c12.3, c12.4, c12.5	c10
<i>5.3 Software Requirements Specification</i>	c4.3	c10
<b>6. Requirements Validation</b>		
<i>6.1 Requirements Reviews</i>	c4.6	c15
<i>6.2 Prototyping</i>	c4.6	c13
<i>6.3 Model Validation</i>	c4.6	c15
<i>6.4 Acceptance Tests</i>	c4.6	c15

<b>7. Practical Considerations</b>		
<i>7.1 Iterative Nature of the Requirements Process</i>	c4.4	c3, c16
<i>7.2 Change Management</i>	c4.7	c18, c19
<i>7.3 Requirement Attributes</i>	c4.1	c12, c14
<i>7.4 Requirements Tracing</i>		c20
<i>7.5 Measuring Requirements</i>	c4.6	c18
<b>8. Software Requirements Tools</b>		c21



1214

1215 APPENDIX A. LIST OF FURTHER READINGS

1216

1217 Discovering Requirements by I. Alexander  
1218 and L. Beus-Dukic [5]

1219

1220 An easily digestible and practically oriented  
1221 book on requirements engineering. Perhaps  
1222 the best of current textbooks on how the  
1223 various elements of requirements engineering  
1224 fit together. It is full of practical advice on  
1225 (for example) how to identify the various  
1226 system stakeholders and how to evaluate  
1227 alternative solutions. Its coverage is  
1228 exemplary and serves as a useful reference for  
1229 key techniques such as use case modelling  
1230 and requirements prioritization.

1231

1232 Inquiry-Based Requirements Analysis by C.  
1233 Potts, K. Takahashi and A. Antón [6]

1234

1235 This paper is an easily digested account of  
1236 work that has proven to be very influential in  
1237 the development of requirements handling. It  
1238 describes how and why the elaboration of  
1239 requirements cannot be a linear process by  
1240 which the analyst simply transcribes and  
1241 reformulates requirements elicited from the  
1242 customer. The role of scenarios is described  
1243 in a way that helps to define their use in  
1244 discovering and describing requirements.

1245

1246 Requirements Engineering: From System  
1247 Goals to UML Models to Software  
1248 Specifications by A. van Lamsweerde [7]

1249

1250 Serves as a good introduction to requirements  
1251 engineering but its unique value is as a  
1252 reference book for the KAOS goal-oriented  
1253 requirements modelling language. Explains  
1254 why goal modelling is useful and shows how  
1255 it can integrate with mainstream modelling  
1256 techniques using UML.

1257

1258 An Analysis of the Requirements Traceability  
1259 Problem by O. Gotel and A. Finkelstein [8].

1260

1261 This paper is a classic reference work on a

1262 key element of requirements management.  
1263 Based on empirical studies, it sets out the  
1264 reasons for and the barriers to the effective  
1265 tracing of requirements. It is essential reading  
1266 for an understanding of why requirements  
1267 tracing is an essential element of an effective  
1268 software process.

1269

1270 Acquiring COTS software selection  
1271 requirements by N. Maiden and C. Ncube [9]

1272

1273 This paper is significant because it recognises  
1274 explicitly that software products often  
1275 integrate third-party components. It offers  
1276 insights into the problems of selecting off-the-  
1277 shelf software to satisfy requirements: there is  
1278 usually a mismatch. This challenges some of  
1279 the assumptions underpinning much of  
1280 traditional requirements handling, which  
1281 tends to assume custom software.

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