

Safety Engineering

COMP6226: Software Modelling Tools and Techniques for Critical Systems

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Overview

- What is Safety?
- Safety-Related Concepts
- Safety-critical System Development
- Potential Influence of Software on Safety
- Hazard Analysis
- Safety-critical System Development
- Hazard and Risk Management Paradigm
- Hazard Likelihood Categories
- Hazard and Risk Management
- The Safety Life-cycle

- Safety Requirements Specification
- Safety Case
- Safety Case: Key Components
- Designing for Safety



Objectives

- To understand Safety and Safety related concepts
- Safety-critical System Development
- Hazard Analysis
- Apply Hazard and Risk Management in the context of Software System



What is Safety?

- Safety is a property of a system to operate, normally or abnormally, without danger of causing human injury or death and without damage to the system's environment.
- The system may be software-controlled so that the decisions made by the software and subsequent actions are safety-critical.
 - Therefore, the software behaviour is directly related to the overall safety of the system.

Safety is not reliability!

 Reliability is the probability that a system will perform its intended function satisfactorily.

Safety is not security!

Security is protection or defence against attack, interference, or espionage.



Safety-Related Concepts

- Safety is freedom from accidents or losses.
- An accident is an undesired and unplanned (but not necessarily unexpected) event that results in (at least) a specified level of loss (loss of life, damage to property or the environment).
- A hazard is a state or set of conditions of a system (or an object) that, together with other conditions in the environment of the system (or object), will lead potentially to an accident (loss event).
- Risk is a combination of the likelihood of an accident and its severity

$$risk = P(a) * S(a)$$

P: Probability
S: Severity



Safety-Related Concepts

- · A failure is the non-performance of a system or component, a random fault
 - Random failures are physical failures brought on by excessive stress on the device.
 - Failures are events e.g., a component failure
- An error is a systematic fault
 - A systematic fault is a design error
 - Errors are states or conditions
- A fault is either a failure or an error



Potential Influence of Software on Safety

- A required function does not occur
 - Failure of the software to perform a required function; that is, the function is never executed, or no output is produced.
- An undesired event occurs
 - The software performs a function not required. (i.e. getting the wrong answer, issuing the wrong control instruction, or doing the right thing but under inappropriate conditions).
- An incorrect sequence of required events
 - The software possesses sequencing problems. For example, failing to ensure that two events happen at the same time, at different times, or in a particular order.



Potential Influence of Software on Safety – Cont.

- Timing failures in event sequences
 - The software exceeds maximum time constraints between events, fails to ensure minimum time constraints between events or possesses duration failures.
- An incorrect response to a safety-critical event
 - The software fails to recognise a hazardous condition requiring corrective action, fails to initiate a fault tolerant response to a recognized safety-critical function, or produces the wrong response to a hazardous condition or failure mode.



Hazard Analysis

- It is less expensive and far more effective to build in safety early than try to tackle it later
- The Hazard Analysis ties together hazards, faults, and safety measures
- · Hazard analysis represents the heart of an effective safety programme.
 - The objective is to discover potential hazards and causes which may arise given a systems operational environment.



Safety-critical System Development

- 1. Identify the Hazards
- 2. Determine the Risks
- 3. Define the Safety Measures
- 4. Create Safe Requirements
- 5. Create Safe Designs
- 6. Implement Safety
- 7. Assure the Safety Process
- 8. Validate & Verify through formal modelling, Exhaustive Testing, static and adynamic analysis, model checking and so on.

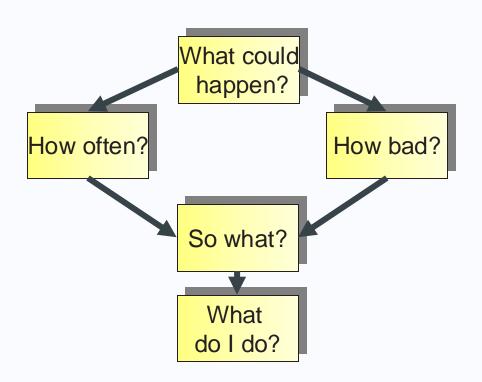
high level goals

Safety Analysis



Hazard and Risk Management Paradigm

- Example Hazard Severity Categories
 - Category I: Catastrophic; may cause death or system loss.
 - Category II: Critical; may cause severe injury, severe occupational illness, or system damage.
 - Category III: Marginal; may cause minor injury, minor occupational illness, or minor system damage.
 - Category IV: Negligible; will not result in injury, occupational illness, or system damage.





Hazard Likelihood Categories

- Based on Leveson (Leveson, N.G. 1995):
 - Frequent: Likely to occur frequently to an individual item, continuously experienced throughout the fleet or inventory.
 - Probable: Will occur several times during the life of an individual item, frequently throughout the fleet or inventory.
 - Occasional: Likely to occur sometimes during the life of an individual item, several times throughout the fleet or inventory.



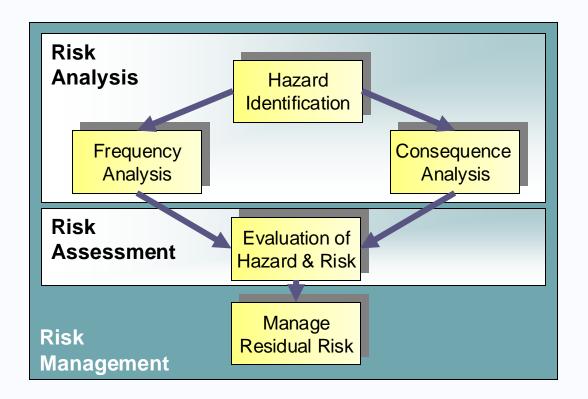
Hazard Likelihood Categories - Cont.

- Based on Leveson (Leveson, N.G. 1995):
- Remote: Unlikely to occur but possible during the life of an individual item but reasonably expected to occur in a fleet or inventory.
- Improbable: Extremely unlikely to occur to an individual item; possible for a fleet or inventory.
- Physically Impossible: Cannot occur to an individual item or in a fleet or inventory.



Hazard and Risk Management

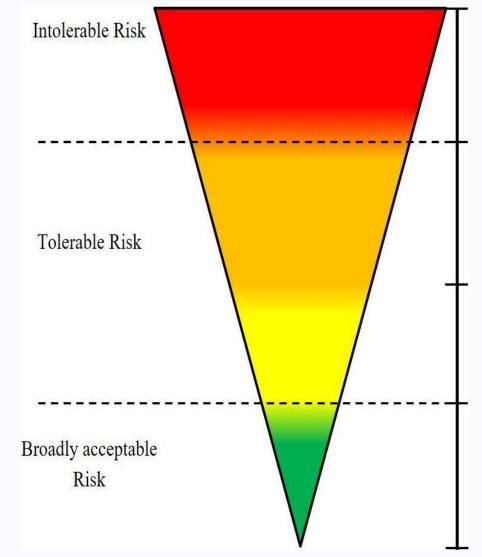
- When is a System Safe Enough?
 - We identified the Hazards and ensured there were adequate Safeguards, consistent with the ALARP (As Low as Reasonably Practicable) principle
 - The cost emphasis of ALARP an encouragement to add safeguards until increased benefits through risk reduction cannot be justified





ALARP - As low as reasonably practicable

- "ALARP" is short for "as low as reasonably practicable".
- Reasonably practicable involves weighing a risk against the trouble, time and money needed to control it.
- Thus, ALARP describes the level to which we expect to see risks are controlled or reduced.





ALARP - As low as reasonably practicable

Unacceptable Region:

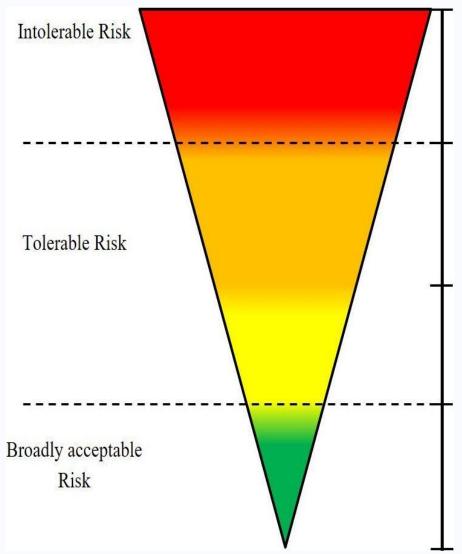
 Risks that are deemed unacceptable and must be reduced, regardless of the cost or effort involved.

ALARP Region:

 Risks that are tolerable but should be reduced to a level that is as low as reasonably practicable.

Broadly Acceptable Region:

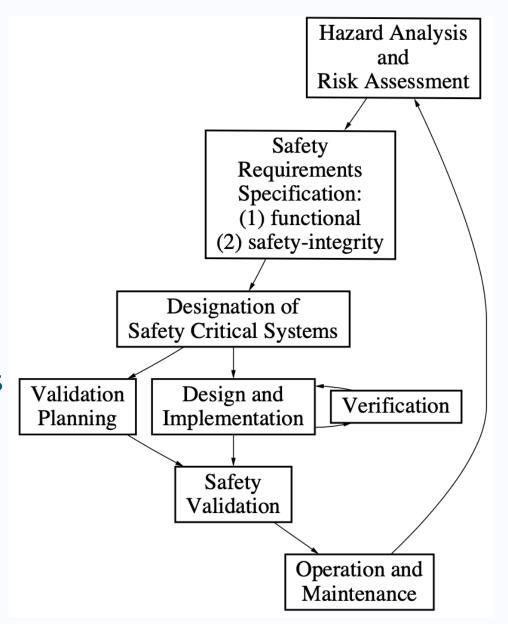
 Risks that are so low that no further action is required, and they are considered to be adequately controlled.





The Safety Life-cycle

- You must identify the hazards of the system
- You must identify faults that can lead to hazards
- The Hazard Analysis feeds into the Requirements Specification
- You must define safety control measures to handle hazards





Hazard Analysis

- Hazard analysis represents the heart of an effective safety programme.
- The objective is to discover potential hazards and causes which may arise given a systems operational environment.
 - 1. Hazard identification: determining what hazards might exist during operation of the system.
 - 2. Hazard classification: order hazards with respect to hazard level (severity & likelihood of arising).
 - 3. Hazard decomposition or causal analysis: an analysis of the individual hazards is carried out in order to determine root cause(s).



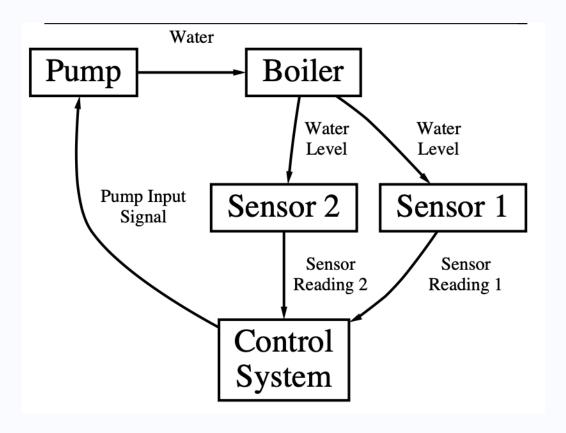
Hazard Analysis: Fault Trees

- There are many techniques for analysing hazards in order to identify the root causes.
- Fault trees are one such technique.
- Fault trees are used to show the causal links between systems events and particular system faults.
- Building blocks:
 - Basic events denoted by circles;
 - Intermediate events denoted by rectangles;
 - System fault denoted by the tree root;
 - Events are connected by AND- and OR-gates.

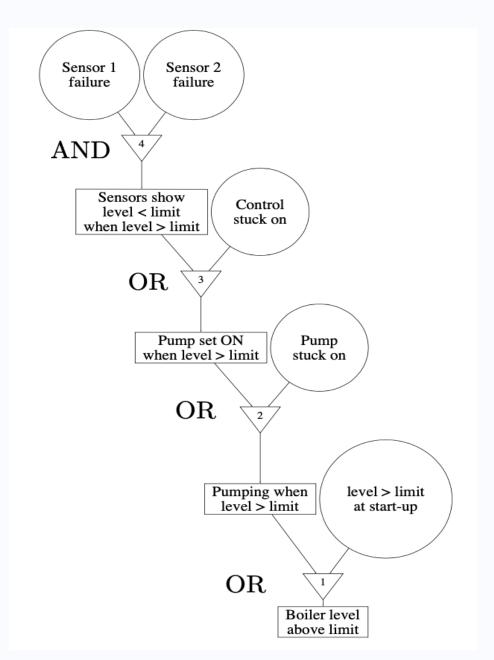


Example: A Simple Boiler System

• As an example, consider the following fault: "Boiler water level higher than safe limit."



A Fault Tree for the Boiler System







Risk Assessment

- Risk assessment follows on from hazard analysis and is involved in classifying the acceptability or safety integrity level of each hazard.
- This classification is based upon the:
 - hazard level for each of the identified hazards and
 - likelihood of an accident resulting from the hazard.
- During hazard analysis worst-case effects are usually only considered and simple qualitative methods are employed.
- In contrast risk analysis involves more quantitative analyses, e.g. statistical analysis based upon historical data.



Safety Integrity Level

- 1. Intolerable: The system must be designed in such a way so that either the hazard cannot arise or, if it does arise, it will not result in an accident.
- 2. As low as reasonably practicable (ALARP): The system must be designed so that the probability of an accident arising because of the hazard is minimized subject to other considerations such as cost, delivery and so on.
- 3. Acceptable: While the system designers should take all possible steps to reduce the probability of this hazard arising, these should not increase costs, delivery time or other non-functional system attributes.

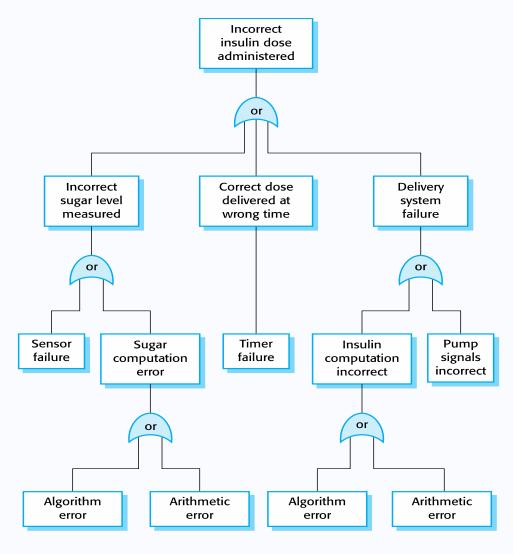


Safety Requirements Specification

- Hazard analysis & risk assessment identify safety-critical functions and associated safety integrity levels which provide the basis for a safety criteria used by the system designers, i.e. a statement of what has to be achieved with respect to each of the hazards (but not how):
 - 1. Hazard avoidance: design so that the hazard cannot arise, e.g. The "dead-man's handle" eliminates the hazard of a run-away train.
 - 2. Hazard probability reduction: design to ensure that hazards cannot arise as a result of any single failure, e.g. install both software and hardware interlocks.
 - 3. Accident prevention: design to detect hazards and remove them before an accident arises, e.g. automatic detection of aircraft engine fire linked with an automatic engine shut-down mechanism.



Insulin Pump – Software Fault Tree





Fault tree analysis

- Three possible conditions that can lead to delivery of incorrect dose of insulin
 - Incorrect measurement of blood sugar level
 - Failure of delivery system
 - Dose delivered at wrong time
- By analysis of the fault tree, root causes of these hazards related to software are:
 - Algorithm error
 - Arithmetic error



Insulin Pump - Software Risks

- Arithmetic error
 - A computation causes the value of a variable to overflow or underflow;
 - Maybe include an exception handler for each type of arithmetic error.
- Algorithmic error
 - Compare dose to be delivered with previous dose or safe maximum doses.
 - Reduce dose if too high.



Examples of safety requirements

SR1: The system shall not deliver a single dose of insulin that is greater than a **specified maximum dose** for a system user.

SR2: The system shall not deliver a daily cumulative dose of insulin that is greater than a specified maximum daily dose for a system user.

SR3: The system shall include a **hardware diagnostic** facility that shall be executed at least four times per hour.

SR4: The system shall include an **exception handler** for all of the exceptions that are identified in Table 3.

SR5: The **audible alarm** shall be sounded when any hardware or software anomaly is discovered and a diagnostic message, as defined in Table 4, shall be displayed.

SR6: In the event of an alarm, insulin delivery shall be suspended until the user has reset the system and cleared the alarm.



Safety Case

- Safety critical systems require certification by a regulating authority, e.g. FAA, HSE,
- A safety case documents the safety justification for a system and provides basis for the certification process –
- A safety case records all the safety activities and should therefore be created early on during the development of a system.
- A safety case must also be maintained throughout the operational life of a system.



Safety Case: Key Components

- A high-level rigorous safety argument, e.g.:
 - if X fails then Y will prevent Z from occurring ...
- Supporting evidence, e.g. test data, mathematical proofs showing that:
 - Y follows from the failure of X and that Y will prevent Z.
- All assumptions need to be made explicit; an unjustified assumption represents a flaw in the safety argument.
- Safety cases are typically multidisciplinary, consequently hard to manage.



Designing for Safety

- Design for Safety
 - Prevention
 - Detection and Control
- Design Trade Offs
 - Safety Vs Other features e. g. Fault Tolerance
 - Issues involved are moral, legal, financial
- Vulnerability to simple design errors
 - Tendency to neglect small errors
 - "Small Errors have small consequence" not in Software



Reference

- Chapter 12 of Software Engineering by Ian Sommerville (10ed)
- Engineering a Safer World: Systems Thinking Applied to Safety by Nancy Leveson
- Safeware: System Safety and Computers, Leveson, N.G. Addison-Wesley, 1995.
- "Safety-Critical Computer Systems" Storey, N. Addison-Wesley, 1996.



YOUR QUESTIONS