

Computer software continues to be the single most important technology on the world stage. And it's also a prime example of the law of unintended consequences. Fifty years ago no one could have predicted that software would become an indispensable technology for business, science, and engineering; that software would enable the creation of new technologies (e.g., genetic engineering and nanotechnology), the extension of existing technologies (e.g., telecommunications), and the radical change in older technologies (e.g., the printing industry); that software would be the driving force behind the personal computer revolution; that shrink-wrapped software products would be purchased by consumers in neighbourhood malls; that software would slowly evolve from a product to a service as “on-demand” software companies deliver just-in-time functionality via a Web browser; that a software company would become larger and more influential than almost all industrial-era companies; that a vast software-driven network called the Internet would evolve and change everything from library research to consumer shopping to political discourse to the dating habits of young (and not so young) adults.

As software's importance has grown, the software community has continually attempted to develop technologies that will make it easier, faster, and less expensive to build and maintain high-quality computer programs. Some of these technologies are targeted at a specific application domain (e.g., website design and implementation); others focus on a technology domain (e.g., object-oriented systems or aspect-oriented programming); and still others are broad-based (e.g., operating systems such as Linux).

The Nature of Software

Today, software takes on a dual role. It is a product, and at the same time, the vehicle for delivering a product. As a product, it delivers the computing potential embodied by computer hardware or more broadly, by a network of computers that are accessible by local hardware. Whether it resides within a mobile phone or operates inside a mainframe computer, software is an information transformer—producing, managing, acquiring, modifying, displaying, or transmitting information that can be as simple as a single bit or as complex as a multimedia presentation derived from data acquired from dozens of independent sources.

Software delivers the most important product of our time—*information*. It transforms personal data (e.g., an individual's financial transactions) so that the data can be more useful in a local context; it manages business information to enhance competitiveness; it provides a gateway to worldwide information networks (e.g., the Internet), and provides the means for acquiring information in all of its forms. The role of computer software has undergone significant change over the last half-century. Dramatic improvements in hardware performance, profound changes in computing architectures, vast increases in memory and storage capacity, and a wide variety of exotic input and output options, have all precipitated more sophisticated and complex computer-based systems.

Questions that are asked when modern computer-based systems are built:

- Why does it take so long to get software finished?

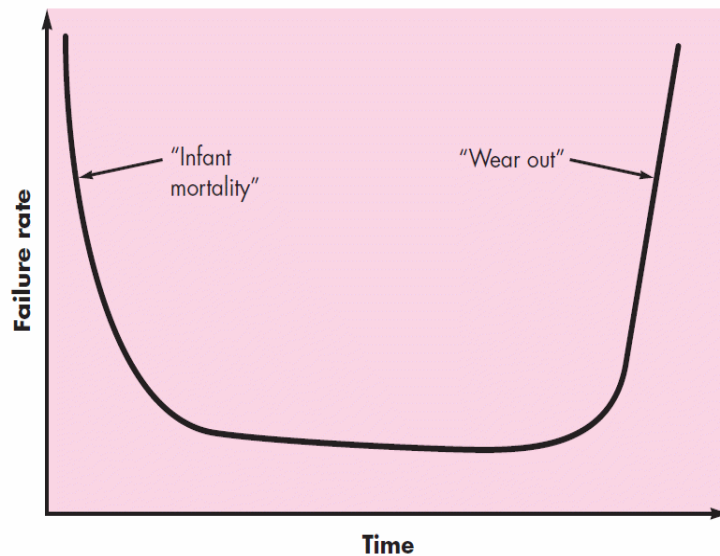
- Why are development costs so high?
- Why can't we find all errors before we give the software to our customers?
- Why do we spend so much time and effort maintaining existing programs?
- Why do we continue to have difficulty in measuring progress as software is being developed and maintained?

Defining Software

Software is: (1) instructions (computer programs) that when executed provide desired features, function, and performance; (2) data structures that enable the programs to adequately manipulate information, and (3) descriptive information in both hard copy and virtual forms that describes the operation and use of the programs.

FIGURE 1.1

Failure curve for hardware



Software characteristics:

1. *Software is developed or engineered; it is not manufactured in the classical sense.*

Although some similarities exist between software development and hardware manufacturing, the two activities are fundamentally different. In both activities, high quality is achieved through good design, but the manufacturing phase for hardware can introduce quality problems that are nonexistent (or easily corrected) for software. Both activities are dependent on people, but the relationship between people applied and work accomplished is entirely different.

2. *Software doesn't "wear out."*

Figure 1.1 depicts failure rate as a function of time for hardware. The relationship, often called the "bathtub curve," indicates that hardware exhibits relatively high failure rates early

in its life (these failures are often attributable to design or manufacturing defects); defects are corrected and the failure rate drops to a steady-state level (hopefully, quite low) for some period of time. As time passes, however, the failure rate rises again as hardware components suffer from the cumulative effects of dust, vibration, abuse, temperature extremes, and many other environmental maladies. Stated simply, the hardware begins to *wear out*.

3. Although the industry is moving toward component-based construction, most software continues to be custom built.

As an engineering discipline evolves, a collection of standard design components is created. Standard screws and off-the-shelf integrated circuits are only two of thousands of standard components that are used by mechanical and electrical engineers as they design new systems. *The reusable components* have been created so that the engineer can concentrate on the truly innovative elements of a design, that is, the parts of the design that represent *something new*. *In the hardware world, component reuse is a natural part of the engineering process.* In the software world, it is something that has only begun to be achieved on a broad scale.

Software Application Domains

Today, seven broad categories of computer software present continuing challenges for software engineers:

System software—a collection of programs written to service other programs. Some system software (e.g., compilers, editors, and file management utilities) processes complex, but determinate,⁴ information structures. Other systems applications (e.g., operating system components, drivers, networking software, telecommunications processors) process largely indeterminate data.

Application software—stand-alone programs that solve a specific business need. Applications in this area process business or technical data in a way that facilitates business operations or management/technical decision making. In addition to conventional data processing applications, application software is used to control business functions in real time (e.g., point-of-sale transaction processing, real-time manufacturing process control).

Engineering/scientific software—has been characterized by “number crunching” algorithms. Applications range from astronomy to volcanology, from automotive stress analysis to space shuttle orbital dynamics, and from molecular biology to automated manufacturing. However, modern applications within the engineering/scientific area are moving away from *conventional numerical algorithms*. *Computer-aided design, system simulation*, and other interactive applications have begun to take on real-time and even system software characteristics.

Embedded software—resides within a product or system and is used to implement and control features and functions for the end user and for the system itself. Embedded software can perform limited and esoteric functions (e.g., key pad control for a microwave oven) or

provide significant function and control capability (e.g., digital functions in an automobile such as fuel control, dashboard displays, and braking systems).

Product-line software—designed to provide a specific capability for use by many different customers. Product-line software can focus on a limited and esoteric marketplace (e.g., inventory control products) or address mass consumer markets (e.g., word processing, spreadsheets, computer graphics, multimedia, entertainment, database management, and personal and business financial applications).

Web applications—called “WebApps,” this network-centric software category spans a wide array of applications.

Artificial intelligence software—makes use of nonnumerical algorithms to solve complex problems that are not amenable to computation or straightforward analysis.

Open-world computing—the rapid growth of wireless networking may soon lead to true pervasive, distributed computing. The challenge for software engineers will be to develop systems and application software that will allow mobile devices, personal computers, and enterprise systems to communicate across vast networks.

Netsourcing—the World Wide Web is rapidly becoming a computing engine as well as a content provider. The challenge for software engineers is to architect simple (e.g., personal financial planning) and sophisticated applications that provide a benefit to targeted end-user markets worldwide.

Open source—a growing trend that results in distribution of source code for systems applications (e.g., operating systems, database, and development environments) so that many people can contribute to its development. The challenge for software engineers is to build source code that is self-descriptive, but more importantly, to develop techniques that will enable both customers and developers to know what changes have been made and how those changes manifest themselves within the software.

Legacy Software

Legacy software systems were developed decades ago and have been continually modified to meet changes in business requirements and computing platforms. The proliferation of such systems is causing headaches for large organizations who find them costly to maintain and risky to evolve. legacy systems often evolve for one or more of the following reasons:

- The software must be adapted to meet the needs of new computing environments or technology.
- The software must be enhanced to implement new business requirements.
- The software must be extended to make it interoperable with other more modern systems or databases.
- The software must be re-architected to make it viable within a network environment.

THE UNIQUE NATURE OF WEBAPPS

Web-based systems and applications “involve a mixture between print publishing and software development, between marketing and computing, between *internal communications and external relations*, and between art and technology.”

The following attributes are encountered in the vast majority of WebApps.

Network intensiveness. A WebApp resides on a network and must serve the needs of a diverse community of clients. The network may enable worldwide access and communication (i.e., the Internet) or more limited access and communication (e.g., a corporate Intranet).

Concurrency. A large number of users may access the WebApp at one time. In many cases, the patterns of usage among end users will vary greatly.

Unpredictable load. The number of users of the WebApp may vary by orders of magnitude from day to day. One hundred users may show up on Monday; 10,000 may use the system on Thursday.

Performance. If a WebApp user must wait too long (for access, for server side processing, for client-side formatting and display), he or she may decide to go elsewhere.

Availability. Although expectation of 100 percent availability is unreasonable, users of popular WebApps often demand access on a 24/7/365 basis. Users in Australia or Asia might demand access during times when traditional domestic software applications in North America might be taken off-line for maintenance.

Data driven. The primary function of many WebApps is to use hypermedia to present text, graphics, audio, and video content to the end user. In addition, WebApps are commonly used to access information that exists on databases that are not an integral part of the Web-based environment (e.g., e-commerce or financial applications).

Content sensitive. The quality and aesthetic nature of content remains an important determinant of the quality of a WebApp.

Continuous evolution. Unlike conventional application software that evolves over a series of planned, chronologically spaced releases, Web applications evolve continuously. It is not unusual for some WebApps (specifically, their content) to be updated on a minute-by-minute schedule or for content to be independently computed for each request.

Immediacy. Although *immediacy*—the compelling need to get software to market quickly—is a characteristic of many application domains, WebApps often exhibit a time-to-market that can be a matter of a few days or weeks.⁷

Security. Because WebApps are available via network access, it is difficult, if not impossible, to limit the population of end users who may access the application. In order to protect sensitive content and provide secure modes of *data transmission*, *strong security measures must be implemented* throughout the infrastructure that supports a WebApp and within the application itself.

Aesthetics. An undeniable part of the appeal of a WebApp is its look and feel. When an application has been designed to market or sell products or ideas, aesthetics may have as much to do with success as technical design.

SOFTWARE ENGINEERING

In order to build software that is ready to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century, one must recognize a few simple realities:

- Understand the problem before you build a solution.
- Design is a pivotal software engineering activity.

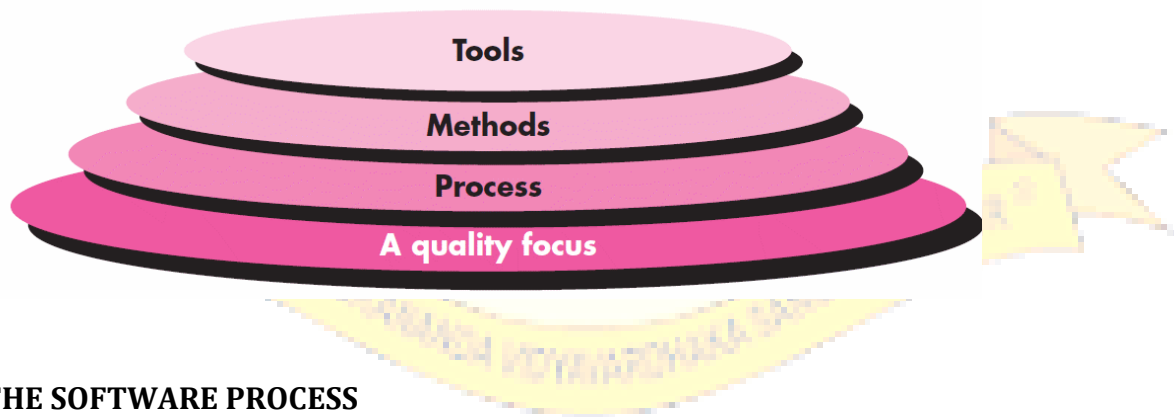
- Both quality and maintainability are an outgrowth of good design.

IEEE Definition --->> Software Engineering: (1) The application of a systematic, disciplined, quantifiable approach to the development, operation, and maintenance of software; that is, the application of engineering to software. (2) The study of approaches as in (1).

Software engineering is a layered technology. The foundation for software engineering is the *process* layer. The software engineering process is the glue that holds the technology layers together and enables rational and timely development of computer software. Process defines a framework that must be established for effective delivery of software engineering technology. The software process forms the basis for management control of software projects and establishes the context in which technical methods are applied, work products (models, documents, data, reports, forms, etc.) are produced, milestones are established, quality is ensured, and change is properly managed.

Software engineering *methods* provide the technical how-to's for building software. Methods encompass a broad array of tasks that include communication, requirements analysis, design modeling, program construction, testing, and support. Software engineering methods rely on a set of basic principles that govern each area of the technology and include modeling activities and other descriptive techniques.

Software engineering *tools* provide automated or semiautomated support for the process and the methods. When tools are integrated so that information created by one tool can be used by another, a system for the support of software development, called *computer-aided software engineering*, is established.



THE SOFTWARE PROCESS

A *process* is a collection of activities, actions, and tasks that are performed when some work product is to be created. An *activity* strives to achieve a broad objective (e.g., communication with stakeholders) and is applied regardless of the application domain, size of the project, complexity of the effort, or degree of rigor with which software engineering is to be applied. An *action* (e.g., architectural design) encompasses a set of tasks that produce a major work product (e.g., an architectural design model). A *task* focuses on a small, but well-defined objective (e.g., conducting a unit test) that produces a tangible outcome. In the context of software engineering, a process is *not* a rigid prescription for how to build computer software. Rather, it is an adaptable approach that enables the people doing the work (the software team) to pick and choose the appropriate set of work actions and tasks. The intent is always to deliver software in

a timely manner and with sufficient quality to satisfy those who have sponsored its creation and those who will use it.

A *process framework* establishes the foundation for a complete software engineering process by identifying a small number of *framework activities* that are applicable to all software projects, regardless of their size or complexity. In addition, the process framework encompasses a set of *umbrella activities* that are applicable across the entire software process. **A generic process framework for software engineering encompasses five activities:**

Communication. Before any technical work can commence, it is critically important to communicate and collaborate with the customer (and other stakeholders). The intent is to understand stakeholders' objectives for the project and to gather requirements that help define software features and functions.

Planning. Any complicated journey can be simplified if a map exists. A software project is a complicated journey, and the planning activity creates a "map" that helps guide the team as it makes the journey. The map—called a *software project plan*—defines the software engineering work by describing the technical tasks to be conducted, the risks that are likely, the resources that will be required, the work products to be produced, and a work schedule.

Modeling. Whether you're a landscaper, a bridge builder, an aeronautical engineer, a carpenter, or an architect, you work with models every day. You create a "sketch" of the thing so that you'll understand the big picture—what it will look like architecturally, how the constituent parts fit together, and many other characteristics. If required, you refine the sketch into greater and greater detail in an effort to better understand the problem and how you're going to solve it. A software engineer does the same thing by creating models to better understand software requirements and the design that will achieve those requirements.

Construction. This activity combines code generation (either manual or automated) and the testing that is required to uncover errors in the code.

Deployment. The software (as a complete entity or as a partially completed increment) is delivered to the customer who evaluates the delivered product and provides feedback based on the evaluation.

These five generic framework activities can be used during the development of small, simple programs, the creation of large Web applications, and for the engineering of large, complex computer-based systems.

Software engineering process framework activities are complemented by a number of *umbrella activities*. In general, umbrella activities are applied throughout a software project and help a software team manage and control progress, quality, change, and risk.

Typical umbrella activities include:

Software project tracking and control—allows the software team to assess progress against the project plan and take any necessary action to maintain the schedule.

Risk management—assesses risks that may affect the outcome of the project or the quality of the product.

Software quality assurance—defines and conducts the activities required to ensure software quality.

Technical reviews—assesses software engineering work products in an effort to uncover and remove errors before they are propagated to the next activity.

Measurement—defines and collects process, project, and product measures that assist the team in delivering software that meets stakeholders' needs; can be used in conjunction with all other framework and umbrella activities.

Software configuration management—manages the effects of change throughout the software process.

Reusability management—defines criteria for work product reuse (including software components) and establishes mechanisms to achieve reusable components.

Work product preparation and production—encompasses the activities required to create work products such as models, documents, logs, forms, and lists.

A process adopted for one project might be significantly different than a process adopted for another project. Among the differences are

- Overall flow of activities, actions, and tasks and the interdependencies among them
- Degree to which actions and tasks are defined within each framework activity
- Degree to which work products are identified and required
- Manner in which quality assurance activities are applied
- Manner in which project tracking and control activities are applied
- Overall degree of detail and rigor with which the process is described
- Degree to which the customer and other stakeholders are involved with the project
- Level of autonomy given to the software team
- Degree to which team organization and roles are prescribed

The intent is to improve system quality, make projects more manageable, make delivery dates and costs more predictable, and guide teams of software engineers as they perform the work required to build a system.

SOFTWARE ENGINEERING PRACTICE

Generic framework activities—**communication, planning, modeling, construction, and deployment**—and umbrella activities establish a skeleton architecture for software engineering work. But how does the practice of software engineering fit in?

The Essence of Practice

1. *Understand the problem* (communication and analysis).
2. *Plan a solution* (modeling and software design).
3. *Carry out the plan* (code generation).
4. *Examine the result for accuracy* (testing and quality assurance).

Understand the problem. It's worth spending a little time answering a few simple questions:

- *Who has a stake in the solution to the problem?* That is, who are the stakeholders?
- *What are the unknowns?* What data, functions, and features are required to properly solve the problem?
- *Can the problem be compartmentalized?* Is it possible to represent smaller problems that may be easier to understand?
- *Can the problem be represented graphically?* Can an analysis model be created?

Plan the solution..

- *Have you seen similar problems before?* Are there patterns that are recognizable in a potential solution? Is there existing software that implements the data, functions, and features that are required?
- *Has a similar problem been solved?* If so, are elements of the solution reusable?
- *Can subproblems be defined?* If so, are solutions readily apparent for the subproblems?
- *Can you represent a solution in a manner that leads to effective implementation?* Can a design model be created?

Carry out the plan. The design you've created serves as a road map for the system you want to build. There may be unexpected detours, and it's possible that you'll discover an even better route as you go, but the "plan" will allow you to proceed without getting lost.

- *Does the solution conform to the plan?* Is source code traceable to the design model?
- *Is each component part of the solution provably correct?* Have the design and code been reviewed, or better, have correctness proofs been applied to the algorithm?

Examine the result.

- *Is it possible to test each component part of the solution?* Has a reasonable testing strategy been implemented?
- *Does the solution produce results that conform to the data, functions, and features that are required?* Has the software been validated against all stakeholder requirements?

General Principles

The First Principle: *The Reason It All Exists*

A software system exists for one reason: *to provide value to its users*. All decisions should be made with this in mind. Before specifying a system requirement, before noting a piece of system functionality, before determining the hardware platforms or development processes, ask yourself questions such as: "Does this add real value to the system?" If the answer is "no," don't do it. All other principles support this one.

The Second Principle: *KISS (Keep It Simple, Stupid!)*

Software design is not a haphazard process. There are many factors to consider in any design effort. *All design should be as simple as possible, but no simpler*. This facilitates having a more easily understood and easily maintained system. This is not to say that features, even internal features, should be discarded in the name of simplicity.

The Third Principle: *Maintain the Vision*

A clear vision is essential to the success of a software project. Without one, a project almost unfailingly ends up being “of two [or more] minds” about itself. Without conceptual integrity, a system threatens to become a patchwork of incompatible designs, held together by the wrong kind of screws. . . . Compromising the architectural vision of a software system weakens and will eventually break even the well-designed systems.

The Fourth Principle: *What You Produce, Others Will Consume*

Seldom is an industrial-strength software system constructed and used in a vacuum. In some way or other, someone else will use, maintain, document, or otherwise depend on being able to understand your system. So, *always specify, design, and implement knowing someone else will have to understand what you are doing.* The audience for any product of software development is potentially large. Specify with an eye to the users. Design, keeping the implementers in mind. Code with concern for those that must maintain and extend the system. Someone may have to debug the code you write, and that makes them a user of your code. Making their job easier adds value to the system.

The Fifth Principle: *Be Open to the Future*

A system with a long lifetime has more value. In today’s computing environments, where specifications change on a moment’s notice and hardware platforms are obsolete just a few months old, software lifetimes are typically measured in months instead of years. However, true “industrial-strength” software systems must endure far longer. To do this successfully, these systems must be ready to adapt to these and other changes. Systems that do this successfully are those that have been designed this way from the start. *Never design yourself into a corner.* Always ask “what if,” and prepare for all possible answers by creating systems that solve the general problem, not just the specific one. This could very possibly lead to the reuse of an entire system.

The Sixth Principle: *Plan Ahead for Reuse*

Reuse saves time and effort.¹⁵ Achieving a high level of reuse is arguably the hardest goal to accomplish in developing a software system. The reuse of code and designs has been proclaimed as a major benefit of using object-oriented technologies. However, the return on this investment is not automatic. To leverage the reuse possibilities that object-oriented [or conventional] programming provides requires forethought and planning. There are many techniques to realize reuse at every level of the system development process. *Planning ahead for reuse reduces the cost and increases the value of both the reusable components and the systems into which they are incorporated.*

The Seventh principle: *Think!*

This last principle is probably the most overlooked. *Placing clear, complete thought before action almost always produces better results.* When you think about something, you are more likely to do it right. You also gain knowledge about how to do it right again. If you do think about something and still do it wrong, it becomes a valuable experience. A side effect of thinking is learning to recognize when you don’t know something, at which point you can research the answer. When clear thought has gone into a system, value comes out. Applying the first six principles requires intense thought, for which the potential rewards are enormous.

SOFTWARE MYTHS

Software myths—erroneous beliefs about software and the process that is used to build it—can be traced to the earliest days of computing. Myths have a number of attributes that make them insidious. For instance, they appear to be reasonable statements of fact (sometimes containing elements of truth), they have an intuitive feel, and they are often promulgated by experienced practitioners who “know the score.”

- Affect managers, customers (and other non-technical stakeholders) and practitioners
- Are believable because they often have elements of truth, *but* ...
- Invariably lead to bad decisions, *therefore* ...
- Insist on reality as you navigate your way through software engineering

HOW IT ALL STARTS

Every software project is precipitated by some business need—

- the need to correct a defect in an existing application;
- the need to adapt a “legacy system” to a changing business environment;
- the need to extend the functions and features of an existing application; or
- the need to create a new product, service, or system.

At the beginning of a software project, the business need is often expressed informally as part of a simple conversation.

Process Models

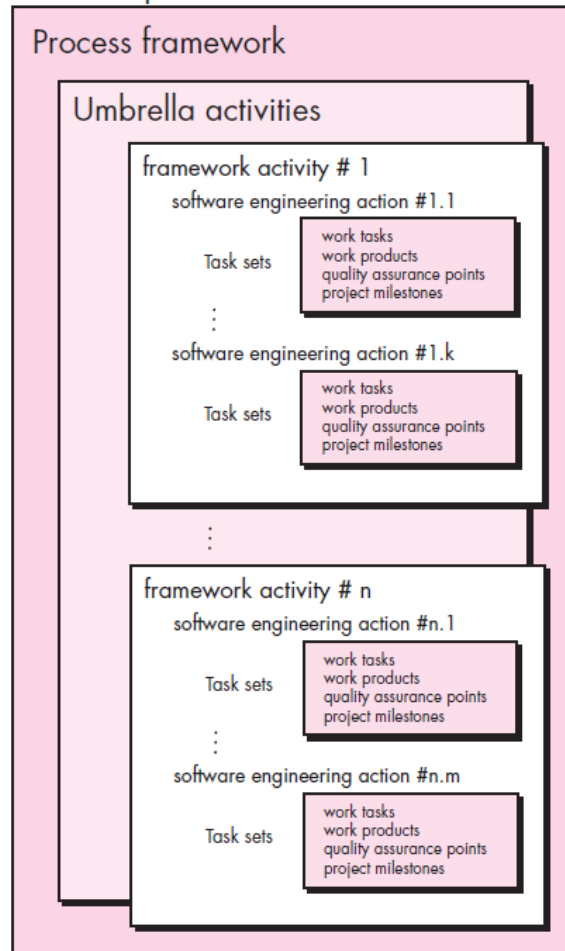
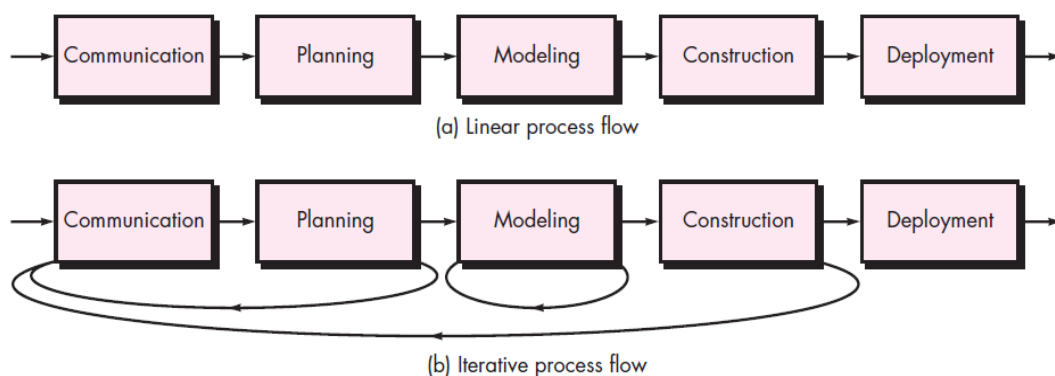
A *software process* as a framework for the activities, actions, and tasks that are required to build high-quality software. A generic process framework for software engineering defines five framework activities—**communication, planning, modeling, construction, and deployment**. In addition, a set of umbrella activities—project tracking and control, risk management, quality assurance, configuration management, technical reviews, and others—are applied throughout the process.

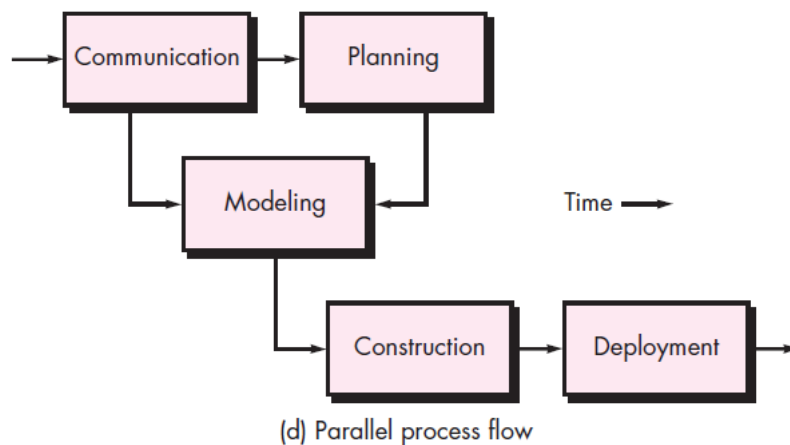
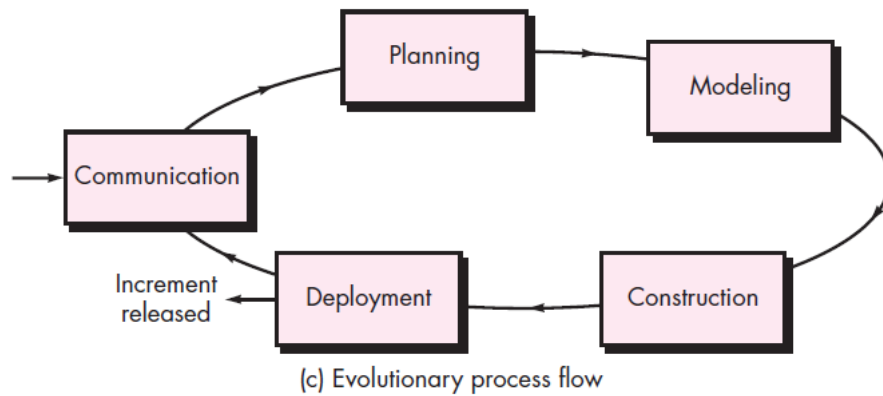
A *linear process flow* executes each of the five framework activities in sequence, beginning with communication and culminating with deployment (Figure 2.2a). An *iterative process flow* repeats one or more of the activities before proceeding to the next (Figure 2.2b). An *evolutionary process flow* executes the activities in a “circular” manner. Each circuit through the five activities leads to a more complete version of the software (Figure 2.2c). A *parallel process flow* (Figure 2.2d) executes one or more activities in parallel with other activities (e.g., modeling for one aspect of the software might be executed in parallel with construction of another aspect of the software).

FIGURE 2.1

A software
process
framework

Software process

**FIGURE 2.2** Process flow



For a small software project requested by one person (at a remote location) with simple, straightforward requirements, the communication activity might encompass little more than a phone call with the appropriate stakeholder. Therefore, the only necessary action is *phone conversation*, and the work tasks (the *task set*) that this action encompasses are:

1. Make contact with stakeholder via telephone.
2. Discuss requirements and take notes.
3. Organize notes into a brief written statement of requirements.
4. E-mail to stakeholder for review and approval.

If the project was considerably more complex with many stakeholders, each with a different set of (sometime conflicting) requirements, the communication activity might have six distinct actions: *inception*, *elicitation*, *elaboration*, *negotiation*, *specification*, and *validation*. Each of these software engineering actions would have many work tasks and a number of distinct work products.

Identifying a Task Set

Referring again to Figure 2.1, each software engineering action (e.g., *elicitation*, an action associated with the communication activity) can be represented by a number of different *task sets*—each a collection of software engineering work tasks, related work products, quality assurance points, and project milestones.

Process Patterns

Every software team encounters problems as it moves through the software process. It would be useful if proven solutions to these problems were readily available to the team so that the

problems could be addressed and resolved quickly. A *process pattern*¹ describes a process-related problem that is encountered during software engineering work, identifies the environment in which the problem has been encountered, and suggests one or more proven solutions to the problem. Stated in more general terms, a process pattern provides you with a template - a consistent method for describing problem solutions within the context of the software process. By combining patterns, a software team can solve problems and construct a process that best meets the needs of a project. Patterns can be defined at any level of abstraction.² In some cases, a pattern might be used to describe a problem (and solution) associated with a complete process model (e.g., prototyping). In other situations, patterns can be used to describe a problem (and solution) associated with a framework activity (e.g., **planning**) or an action within a framework activity (e.g., project estimating).

Pattern Name. The pattern is given a meaningful name describing it within the context of the software process (e.g., **Technical Reviews**).

Forces. The environment in which the pattern is encountered and the issues that make the problem visible and may affect its solution.

Type. The pattern type is specified. Ambler [Amb98] suggests three types:

1. *Stage pattern*—defines a problem associated with a framework activity for the process. Since a framework activity encompasses multiple actions and work tasks, a stage pattern incorporates multiple task patterns that are relevant to the stage (framework activity). An example of a stage pattern might be **Establishing Communication**. This pattern would incorporate the task pattern **Requirements Gathering** and others.

2. *Task pattern*—defines a problem associated with a software engineering action or work task and relevant to successful software engineering practice (e.g., **Requirements Gathering** is a task pattern).

3. *Phase pattern*—define the sequence of framework activities that occurs within the process, even when the overall flow of activities is iterative in nature. An example of a phase pattern might be **Spiral Model** or **Prototyping**.

Initial context. Describes the conditions under which the pattern applies. Prior to the initiation of the pattern: (1) What organizational or team-related activities have already occurred? (2) What is the entry state for the process? (3) What software engineering information or project information already exists?

Process patterns provide an effective mechanism for addressing problems associated with any software process. The patterns enable you to develop a hierarchical process description that begins at a high level of abstraction (a phase pattern). The description is then refined into a set of stage patterns that describe framework activities and are further refined in a hierarchical fashion into more detailed task patterns for each stage pattern. Once process patterns have been developed, they can be reused for the definition of process variants—that is, a customized process model can be defined by a software team using the patterns as building blocks for the process model.

PROCESS ASSESSMENT AND IMPROVEMENT

The existence of a software process is no guarantee that software will be delivered on time, that it will meet the customer's needs, or that it will exhibit the technical characteristics that

will lead to long-term quality characteristics. Process patterns must be coupled with solid software engineering practice. In addition, the process itself can be assessed to ensure that it meets a set of basic process criteria that have been shown to be essential for a successful software engineering. A number of different approaches to software process assessment and improvement have been proposed over the past few decades:

Standard CMMI Assessment Method for Process Improvement (SCAMPI)—provides a five-step process assessment model that incorporates five phases: initiating, diagnosing, establishing, acting, and learning.

CMM-Based Appraisal for Internal Process Improvement (CBA IPI)—provides a diagnostic technique for assessing the relative maturity of a software organization; uses the SEI CMM as the basis for the assessment..

SPICE (ISO/IEC15504)—a standard that defines a set of requirements for software process assessment. The intent of the standard is to assist organizations in developing an objective evaluation of the efficacy of any defined software process.

ISO 9001:2000 for Software—a generic standard that applies to any organization that wants to improve the overall quality of the products, systems, or services that it provides. Therefore, the standard is directly applicable to software organizations and companies

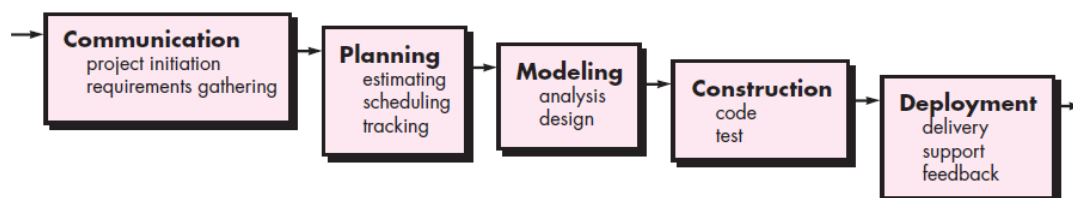
PRESCRIPTIVE PROCESS MODELS

Prescriptive process models were originally proposed to bring order to the chaos of software development. History has indicated that these traditional models have brought a certain amount of useful structure to software engineering work and have provided a reasonably effective road map for software teams. However, software engineering work and the product that it produces remain on “the edge of chaos.” All software process models can accommodate the generic framework activities, but each applies a different emphasis to these activities and defines a process flow that invokes each framework activity (as well as software engineering actions and tasks) in a different manner.

The Waterfall Model

The *waterfall model*, sometimes called the *classic life cycle*, suggests a systematic, sequential approach to software development that begins with customer specification of requirements and progresses through planning, modeling, construction, and deployment, culminating in ongoing support of the completed software .

FIGURE 2.3 The waterfall model

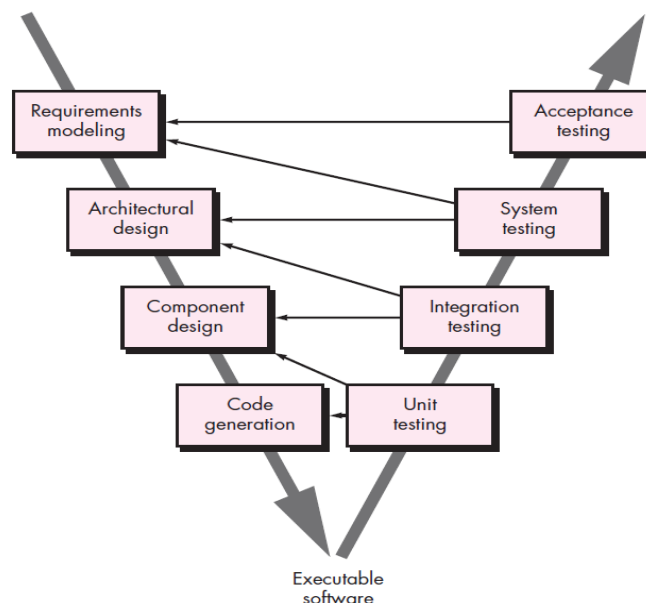


A variation in the representation of the waterfall model is called the *V-model*. It depicts the relationship of quality assurance actions to the actions associated with communication, modeling, and early construction activities. As a software team moves down the left side of

the V, basic problem requirements are refined into progressively more detailed and technical representations of the problem and its solution. Once code has been generated, the team moves up the right side of the V, essentially performing a series of tests (quality assurance actions) that validate each of the models created as the team moved down the left side.⁷ In reality, there is no fundamental difference between the classic life cycle and the V-model. The V-model provides a way of visualizing how verification and validation actions are applied to earlier engineering work. The waterfall model is the oldest paradigm for software engineering. However, over the past three decades, criticism of this process model has caused even ardent supporters to question its efficacy. Among the problems that are sometimes encountered when the waterfall model is applied are:

1. Real projects rarely follow the sequential flow that the model proposes. Although the linear model can accommodate iteration, it does so indirectly. As a result, changes can cause confusion as the project team proceeds.
2. It is often difficult for the customer to state all requirements explicitly. The waterfall model requires this and has difficulty accommodating the natural uncertainty that exists at the beginning of many projects.
3. The customer must have patience. A working version of the program(s) will not be available until late in the project time span. A major blunder, if undetected until the working program is reviewed, can be disastrous.

FIGURE 2.4
The V-model



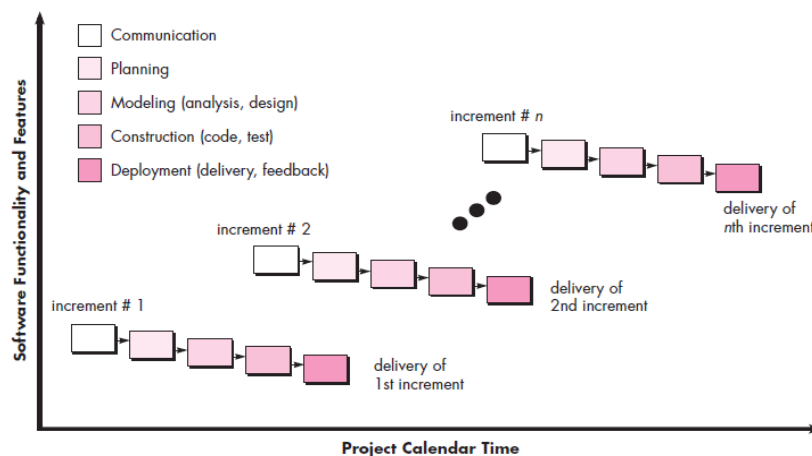
Incremental Process Models

There are many situations in which initial software requirements are reasonably well defined, but the overall scope of the development effort precludes a purely linear process. In addition, there may be a compelling need to provide a limited set of software functionality to users quickly and then refine and expand on that functionality in later software releases. In such cases, you can choose a process model that is designed to produce the software in increments. The *incremental* model combines elements of linear and parallel process flows. When an incremental model is used, the first increment is often a *core product*. That is, basic requirements are addressed but many supplementary features (some known, others unknown)

remain undelivered. The core product is used by the customer (or undergoes detailed evaluation). As a result of use and/or evaluation, a plan is developed for the next increment. The plan addresses the modification of the core product to better meet the needs of the customer and the delivery of additional features and functionality. This process is repeated following the delivery of each increment, until the complete product is produced. The incremental process model focuses on the delivery of an operational product with each increment. Early increments are stripped-down versions of the final product, but they do provide capability that serves the user and also provide a platform for evaluation by the user. Incremental development is particularly useful when staffing is unavailable for a complete implementation by the business deadline that has been established for the project. Early increments can be implemented with fewer people. If the core product is well received, then additional staff (if required) can be added to implement the next increment. In addition, increments can be planned to manage technical risks. For example, a major system might require the availability of new hardware that is under development and whose delivery date is uncertain. It might be possible to plan early increments in a way that avoids the use of this hardware, thereby enabling partial functionality to be delivered to end users without inordinate delay.

FIGURE 2.5

The
incremental
model



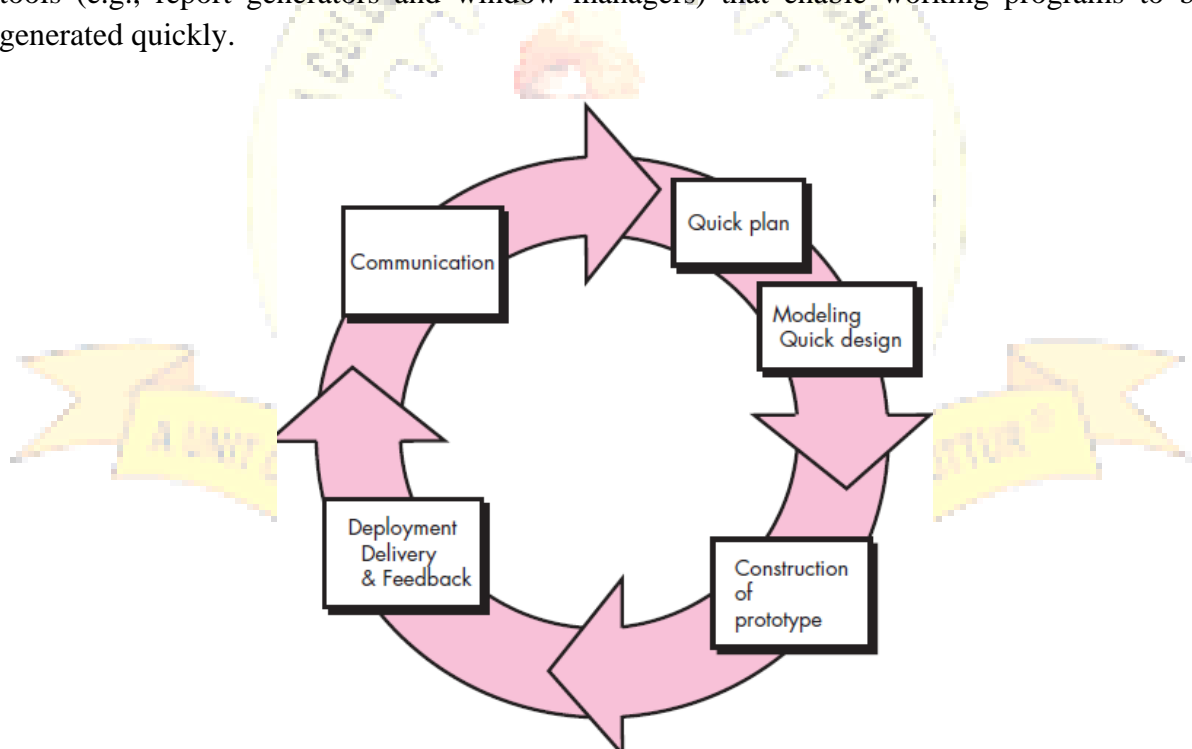
Evolutionary Process Models

Software, like all complex systems, evolves over a period of time. Business and product requirements often change as development proceeds, making a straight-line path to an end product unrealistic; tight market deadlines make completion of a comprehensive software product impossible, but a limited version must be introduced to meet competitive or business pressure; a set of core product or system requirements is well understood, but the details of product or system extensions have yet to be defined. In these and similar situations, you need a process model that has been explicitly designed to accommodate a product that evolves over time. Evolutionary models are iterative. They are characterized in a manner that enables you to develop increasingly more complete versions of the software. The two common evolutionary process models are as follows.

Prototyping.

prototyping can be used as a stand-alone process model, it is more commonly used as a technique that can be implemented within the context of any one of the process models noted in this chapter. Regardless of the manner in which it is applied, the prototyping paradigm assists you and other stakeholders to better understand what is to be built when requirements are fuzzy. The prototyping paradigm (below figure) begins with communication. You meet with other stakeholders to define the overall objectives for the software, identify whatever requirements are known, and outline areas where further definition is mandatory. A prototyping iteration is planned quickly, and modeling (in the form of a “quick design”) occurs. A quick design focuses on a representation of those aspects of the software that will be visible to end users (e.g., human interface layout or output display formats). The quick design leads to the construction of a prototype. The prototype is deployed and evaluated by stakeholders, who provide feedback that is used to further refine requirements. Iteration occurs as the prototype is tuned to satisfy the needs of various stakeholders, while at the same time enabling you to better understand what needs to be done.

Ideally, the prototype serves as a mechanism for identifying software requirements. If a working prototype is to be built, you can make use of existing program fragments or apply tools (e.g., report generators and window managers) that enable working programs to be generated quickly.

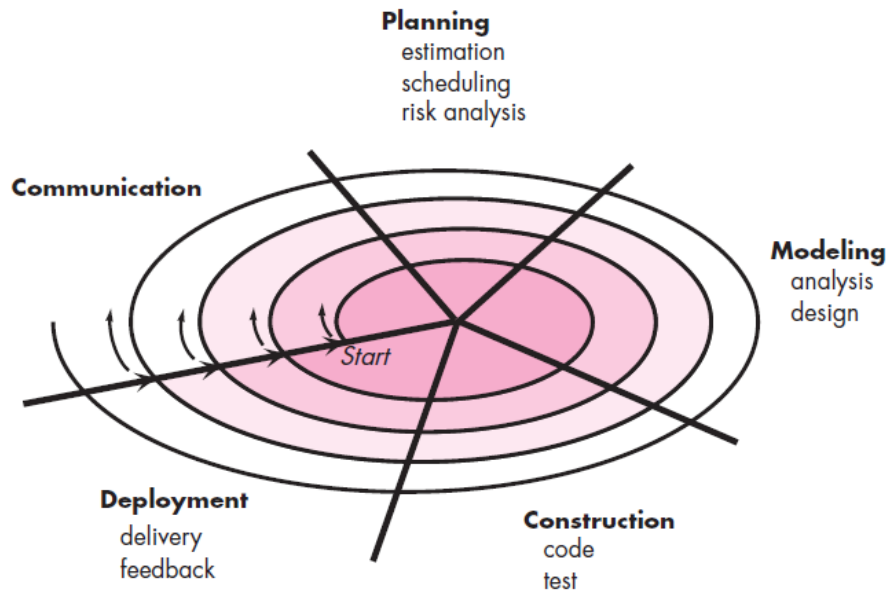


The Spiral Model.

Originally proposed by Barry Boehm, the *spiral model* is an evolutionary software process model that couples the iterative nature of prototyping with the controlled and systematic aspects of the waterfall model. It provides the potential for rapid development of increasingly more complete versions of the software.

Using the spiral model, software is developed in a series of evolutionary releases. During early iterations, the release might be a model or prototype. During later iterations, increasingly more complete versions of the engineered system are produced.

The spiral development model is a risk-driven process model generator that is used to guide multi-stakeholder concurrent engineering of software intensive systems. It has two main distinguishing features. One is a cyclic approach for incrementally growing a system's degree of definition and implementation while decreasing its degree of risk. The other is a set of anchor point milestones for ensuring stakeholder commitment to feasible and mutually satisfactory system solutions.



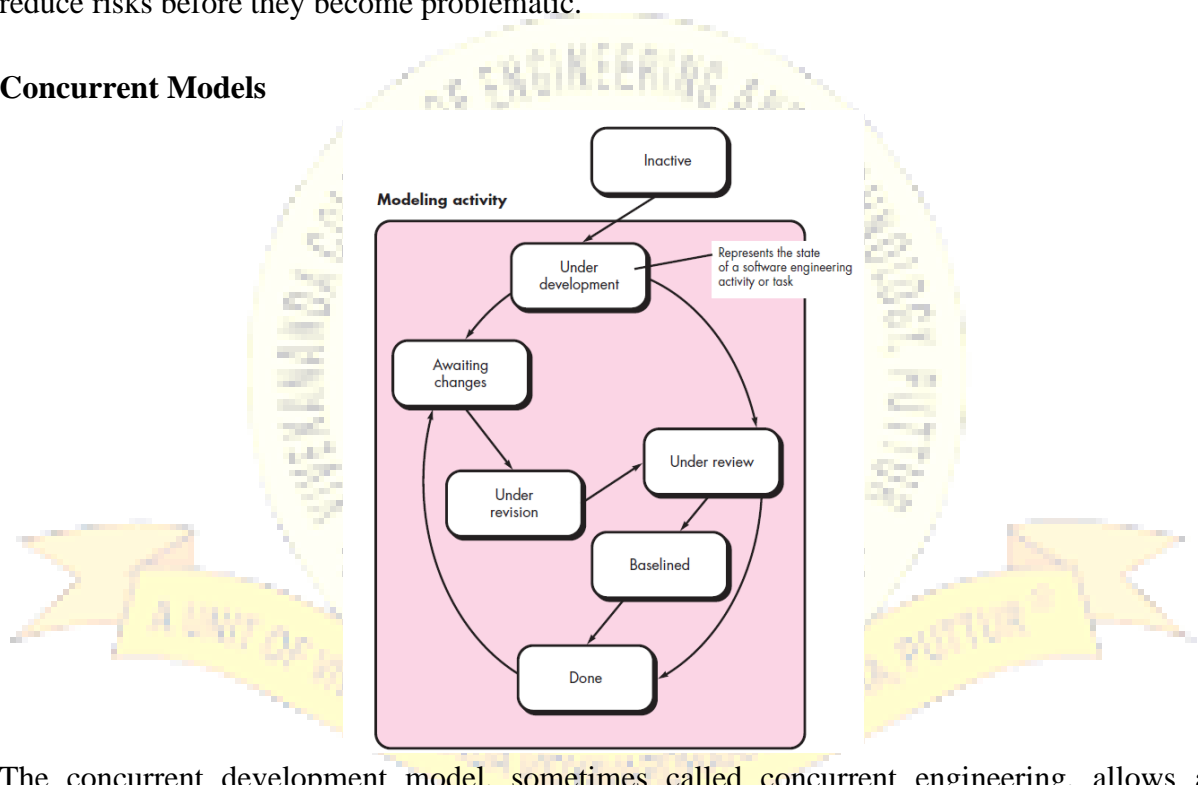
A spiral model is divided into a set of framework activities defined by the software engineering team. For illustrative purposes, I use the generic framework activities discussed earlier.⁹ Each of the framework activities represent one segment of the spiral path illustrated in Figure 2.7. As this evolutionary process begins, the software team performs activities that are implied by a circuit around the spiral in a clockwise direction, beginning at the center. Risk (Chapter 28) is considered as each revolution is made. Anchor point milestones—a combination of work products and conditions that are attained along the path of the spiral—are noted for each evolutionary pass.

The first circuit around the spiral might result in the development of a product specification; subsequent passes around the spiral might be used to develop a prototype and then progressively more sophisticated versions of the software. Each pass through the planning region results in adjustments to the project plan. Cost and schedule are adjusted based on feedback derived from the customer after delivery. In addition, the project manager adjusts the planned number of iterations required to complete the software. Unlike other process models that end when software is delivered, the spiral model can be adapted to apply throughout the life of the computer software. Therefore, the first circuit around the spiral might represent a “concept development project” that starts at the core of the spiral and continues for multiple iterations until concept development is complete. If the concept is to be developed into an actual product, the process proceeds outward on the spiral and a “new product development project” commences. The new product will evolve through a number of iterations around the spiral. Later, a circuit around the spiral might be used to represent a

“product enhancement project.” In essence, the spiral, when characterized in this way, remains operative until the software is retired. There are times when the process is dormant, but whenever a change is initiated, the process starts at the appropriate entry point (e.g., product enhancement).

The spiral model is a realistic approach to the development of large-scale systems and software. Because software evolves as the process progresses, the developer and customer better understand and react to risks at each evolutionary level. The spiral model uses prototyping as a risk reduction mechanism but, more important, enables you to apply the prototyping approach at any stage in the evolution of the product. It maintains the systematic stepwise approach suggested by the classic life cycle but incorporates it into an iterative framework that more realistically reflects the real world. The spiral model demands a direct consideration of technical risks at all stages of the project and, if properly applied, should reduce risks before they become problematic.

Concurrent Models



The concurrent development model, sometimes called concurrent engineering, allows a software team to represent iterative and concurrent elements of any of the process models described in this chapter. For example, the modeling activity defined for the spiral model is accomplished by invoking one or more of the following software engineering actions: prototyping, analysis, and design.

Figure above provides a schematic representation of one software engineering activity within the modeling activity using a concurrent modeling approach. The activity—modeling—may be in any one of the states noted at any given time. Similarly, other activities, actions, or tasks (e.g., communication or construction) can be represented in an analogous manner. All software engineering activities exist concurrently but reside in different states.

For example, early in a project the communication activity (not shown in the figure) has completed its first iteration and exists in the awaiting changes state. The modeling activity (which existed in the inactive state while initial communication was completed, now makes a transition into the under development state. If, however, the customer indicates that changes

in requirements must be made, the modeling activity moves from the under development state into the awaiting changes state.

Concurrent modeling defines a series of events that will trigger transitions from state to state for each of the software engineering activities, actions, or tasks. For example, during early stages of design (a major software engineering action that occurs during the modeling activity), an inconsistency in the requirements model is uncovered. This generates the event analysis model correction, which will trigger the requirements analysis action from the done state into the awaiting changes state.

Concurrent modeling is applicable to all types of software development and provides an accurate picture of the current state of a project. Rather than confining software engineering activities, actions, and tasks to a sequence of events, it defines a process network. Each activity, action, or task on the network exists simultaneously with other activities, actions, or tasks. Events generated at one point in the process network trigger transitions among the states.

Specialized Process Models

These models tend to be applied when a specialized or narrowly defined software engineering approach is chosen.

Component-Based Development

Commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) software components, developed by vendors who offer them as products, provide targeted functionality with well-defined interfaces that enable the component to be integrated into the software that is to be built. The component-based development model incorporates many of the characteristics of the spiral model. It is evolutionary in nature demanding an iterative approach to the creation of software. However, the component-based development model constructs applications from prepackaged software components.

Modeling and construction activities begin with the identification of candidate components. These components can be designed as either conventional software modules or object-oriented classes or packages of classes. Regardless of the technology that is used to create the components, the component-based development model incorporates the following steps (implemented using an evolutionary approach):

1. Available component-based products are researched and evaluated for the application domain in question.
2. Component integration issues are considered.
3. A software architecture is designed to accommodate the components.
4. Components are integrated into the architecture.
5. Comprehensive testing is conducted to ensure proper functionality.

The component-based development model leads to software reuse, and reusability provides software engineers with a number of measurable benefits.

The Formal Methods Model

The formal methods model encompasses a set of activities that leads to formal mathematical specification of computer software. Formal methods enable you to specify, develop, and verify a computer-based system by applying a rigorous, mathematical notation. A variation on

this approach, called cleanroom software engineering is currently applied by some software development organizations.

The formal methods model offers the promise of defect-free software. Yet, concern about its applicability in a business environment has been voiced:

- The development of formal models is currently quite time consuming and expensive.
- Because few software developers have the necessary background to apply formal methods, extensive training is required.
- It is difficult to use the models as a communication mechanism for technically unsophisticated customers.

Aspect-Oriented Software Development

Regardless of the software process that is chosen, the builders of complex software invariably implement a set of localized features, functions, and information content. These localized software characteristics are modeled as components (e.g., object oriented classes) and then constructed within the context of a system architecture. As modern computer-based systems become more sophisticated (and complex), certain concerns—customer required properties or areas of technical interest—span the entire architecture. Some concerns are high-level properties of a system (e.g., security, fault tolerance). Other concerns affect functions (e.g., the application of business rules), while others are systemic (e.g., task synchronization or memory management).

When concerns cut across multiple system functions, features, and information, they are often referred to as crosscutting concerns. Aspectual requirements define those crosscutting concerns that have an impact across the software architecture.

Aspect-oriented software development (AOSD), often referred to as aspect-oriented programming (AOP), is a relatively new software engineering paradigm that provides a process and methodological approach for defining, specifying, designing, and constructing aspects—“mechanisms beyond subroutines and inheritance for localizing the expression of a crosscutting concern”. A distinct aspect-oriented process has not yet matured. However, it is likely that such a process will adopt characteristics of both evolutionary and concurrent process models. The evolutionary model is appropriate as aspects are identified and then constructed. The parallel nature of concurrent development is essential because aspects are engineered independently of localized software components and yet, aspects have a direct impact on these components. AOSD defines “aspects” that express customer concerns that cut across multiple system functions, features, and information instantiate asynchronous communication between the software process activities applied to the engineering and construction of aspects and components.