

But what exactly is a software process from a technical point of view? Within the context of this book, I define a *software process* as a framework for the activities, actions, and tasks that are required to build high-quality software. Is “process” synonymous with software engineering? The answer is “yes and no.” A software process defines the approach that is taken as software is engineered. But software engineering also encompasses technologies that populate the process—technical methods and automated tools.

More important, software engineering is performed by creative, knowledgeable people who should adapt a mature software process so that it is appropriate for the products that they build and the demands of their marketplace.

2.1 A GENERIC PROCESS MODEL

In Chapter 1, a process was defined as a collection of work activities, actions, and tasks that are performed when some work product is to be created. Each of these activities, actions, and tasks reside within a framework or model that defines their relationship with the process and with one another.

The software process is represented schematically in Figure 2.1. Referring to the figure, each framework activity is populated by a set of software engineering actions. Each software engineering action is defined by a *task set* that identifies the work tasks that are to be completed, the work products that will be produced, the quality assurance points that will be required, and the milestones that will be used to indicate progress.

As I discussed in Chapter 1, 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.

You should note that one important aspect of the software process has not yet been discussed. This aspect—called *process flow*—describes how the framework activities and the actions and tasks that occur within each framework activity are organized with respect to sequence and time and is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

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).

KEY POINT

The hierarchy of technical work within the software process is activities, encompassing actions, populated by tasks.

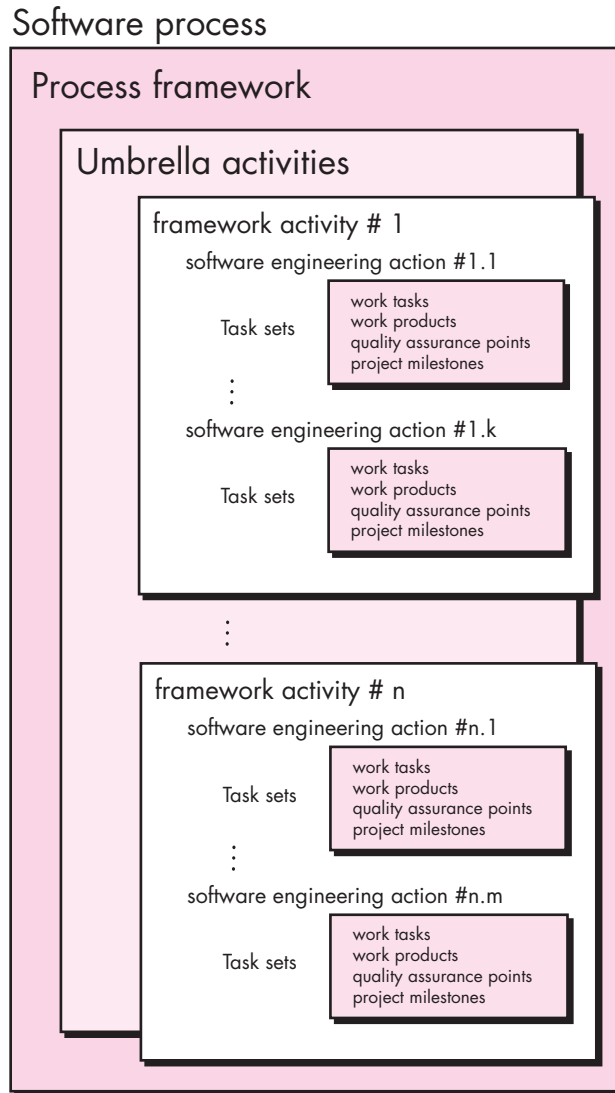
note:

“We think that software developers are missing a vital truth: most organizations don’t know what they do. They think they know, but they don’t know.”

Tom DeMarco

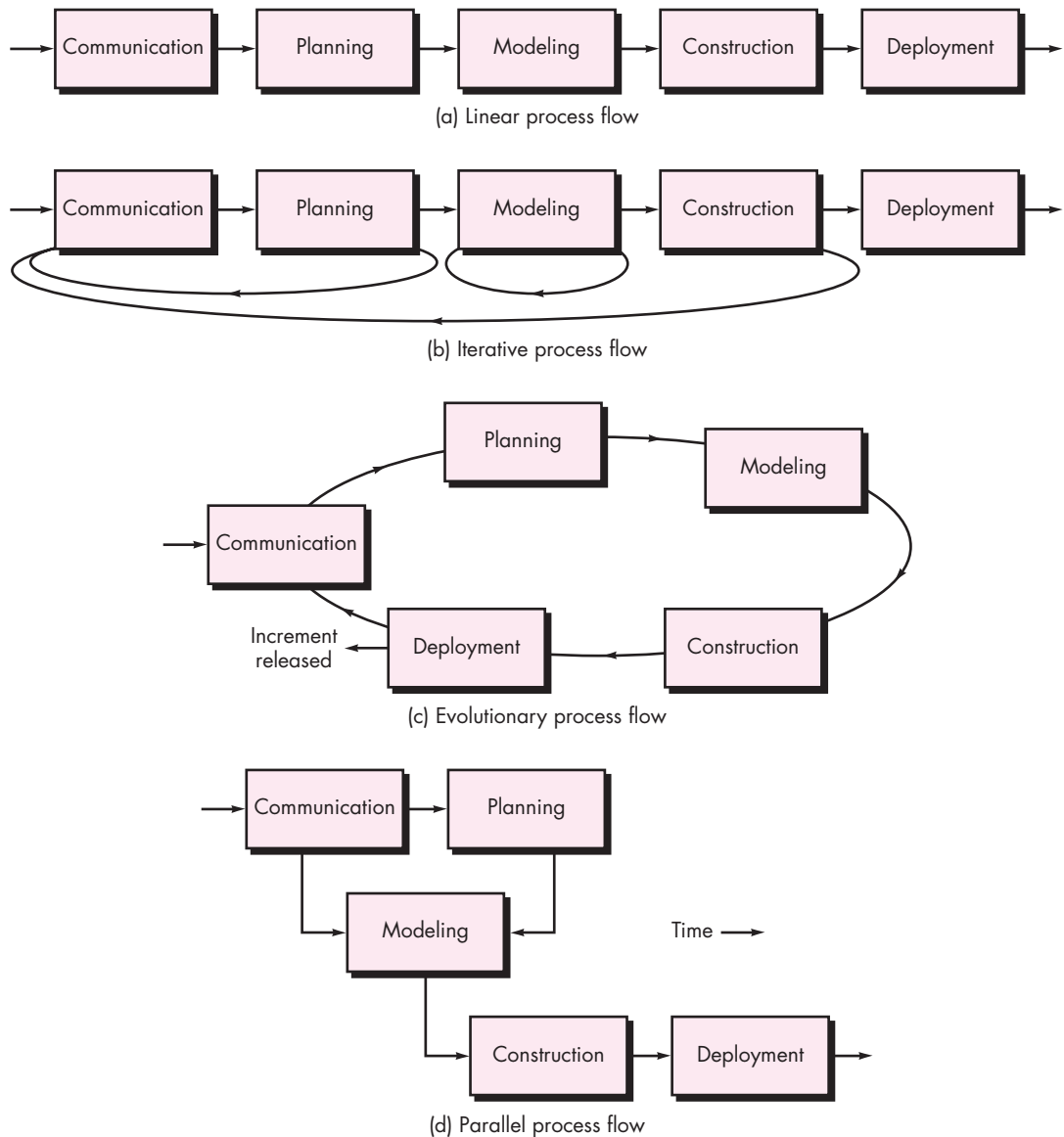
FIGURE 2.1

A software
process
framework



2.1.1 Defining a Framework Activity

Although I have described five framework activities and provided a basic definition of each in Chapter 1, a software team would need significantly more information before it could properly execute any one of these activities as part of the software process. Therefore, you are faced with a key question: *What actions are appropriate for a framework activity, given the nature of the problem to be solved, the characteristics of the people doing the work, and the stakeholders who are sponsoring the project?*

FIGURE 2.2 Process flow

? How does a framework activity change as the nature of the project changes?

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 (described in Chapter 5): *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.

KEY POINT

Different projects demand different task sets. The software team chooses the task set based on problem and project characteristics.

2.1.2 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. You should choose a task set that best accommodates the needs of the project and the characteristics of your team. This implies that a software engineering action can be adapted to the specific needs of the software project and the characteristics of the project team.



Task Set

A task set defines the actual work to be done to accomplish the objectives of a software engineering action. For example, *elicitation* (more commonly called “requirements gathering”) is an important software engineering action that occurs during the communication activity. The goal of requirements gathering is to understand what various stakeholders want from the software that is to be built.

For a small, relatively simple project, the task set for requirements gathering might look like this:

1. Make a list of stakeholders for the project.
2. Invite all stakeholders to an informal meeting.
3. Ask each stakeholder to make a list of features and functions required.
4. Discuss requirements and build a final list.
5. Prioritize requirements.
6. Note areas of uncertainty.

For a larger, more complex software project, a different task set would be required. It might encompass the following work tasks:

1. Make a list of stakeholders for the project.
2. Interview each stakeholder separately to determine overall wants and needs.

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3. Build a preliminary list of functions and features based on stakeholder input.
4. Schedule a series of facilitated application specification meetings.
5. Conduct meetings.
6. Produce informal user scenarios as part of each meeting.
7. Refine user scenarios based on stakeholder feedback.
8. Build a revised list of stakeholder requirements.
9. Use quality function deployment techniques to prioritize requirements.
10. Package requirements so that they can be delivered incrementally.
11. Note constraints and restrictions that will be placed on the system.
12. Discuss methods for validating the system.

Both of these task sets achieve “requirements gathering,” but they are quite different in their depth and formality. The software team chooses the task set that will allow it to achieve the goal of each action and still maintain quality and agility.

? What is a process pattern?

note:

"The repetition of patterns is quite a different thing than the repetition of parts. Indeed, the different parts will be unique because the patterns are the same."

Christopher Alexander

KEY POINT

A pattern template provides a consistent means for describing a pattern.

2.1.3 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 [Amb98]—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).

Ambler [Amb98] has proposed a template for describing a process pattern:

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

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 (see the following) that are relevant to the stage (framework activity). An example of a stage pattern might be **EstablishingCommunication**. This pattern would incorporate the task pattern **RequirementsGathering** 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., **RequirementsGathering** 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 **SpiralModel** or **Prototyping**.³

1 A detailed discussion of patterns is presented in Chapter 12.

2 Patterns are applicable to many software engineering activities. Analysis, design, and testing patterns are discussed in Chapters 7, 9, 10, 12, and 14. Patterns and "antipatterns" for project management activities are discussed in Part 4 of this book.

3 These phase patterns are discussed in Section 2.3.3.

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?

For example, the **Planning** pattern (a stage pattern) requires that (1) customers and software engineers have established a collaborative communication; (2) successful completion of a number of task patterns [specified] for the **Communication** pattern has occurred; and (3) the project scope, basic business requirements, and project constraints are known.

Problem. The specific problem to be solved by the pattern.

Solution. Describes how to implement the pattern successfully. This section describes how the initial state of the process (that exists before the pattern is implemented) is modified as a consequence of the initiation of the pattern. It also describes how software engineering information or project information that is available before the initiation of the pattern is transformed as a consequence of the successful execution of the pattern.

Resulting Context. Describes the conditions that will result once the pattern has been successfully implemented. Upon completion of the pattern: (1) What organizational or team-related activities must have occurred? (2) What is the exit state for the process? (3) What software engineering information or project information has been developed?

Related Patterns. Provide a list of all process patterns that are directly related to this one. This may be represented as a hierarchy or in some other diagrammatic form. For example, the stage pattern **Communication** encompasses the task patterns: **ProjectTeam**, **CollaborativeGuidelines**, **ScopeIsolation**, **RequirementsGathering**, **ConstraintDescription**, and **ScenarioCreation**.

Known Uses and Examples. Indicate the specific instances in which the pattern is applicable. For example, **Communication** is mandatory at the beginning of every software project, is recommended throughout the software project, and is mandatory once the deployment activity is under way.

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.

WebRef

Comprehensive resources on process patterns can be found at www.ambyssoft.com/processPatternsPage.html.



An Example Process Pattern

The following abbreviated process pattern describes an approach that may be applicable when stakeholders have a general idea of what must be done but are unsure of specific software requirements.

Pattern name. RequirementsUnclear

Intent. This pattern describes an approach for building a model (a prototype) that can be assessed iteratively by stakeholders in an effort to identify or solidify software requirements.

Type. Phase pattern.

Initial context. The following conditions must be met prior to the initiation of this pattern: (1) stakeholders have been identified; (2) a mode of communication between stakeholders and the software team has been established; (3) the overriding software problem to be solved has been identified by stakeholders; (4) an initial understanding of project scope, basic business requirements, and project constraints has been developed.

Problem. Requirements are hazy or nonexistent, yet there is clear recognition that there is a problem to be

solved, and the problem must be addressed with a software solution. Stakeholders are unsure of what they want; that is, they cannot describe software requirements in any detail.

Solution. A description of the prototyping process would be presented here and is described later in Section 2.3.3.

Resulting context. A software prototype that identifies basic requirements (e.g., modes of interaction, computational features, processing functions) is approved by stakeholders. Following this, (1) the prototype may evolve through a series of increments to become the production software or (2) the prototype may be discarded and the production software built using some other process pattern.

Related patterns. The following patterns are related to this pattern: **CustomerCommunication**, **IterativeDesign**, **IterativeDevelopment**, **CustomerAssessment**, **RequirementExtraction**.

Known uses and examples. Prototyping is recommended when requirements are uncertain.

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2.2 PROCESS ASSESSMENT AND IMPROVEMENT

KEY POINT

Assessment attempts to understand the current state of the software process with the intent of improving it.

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 (Chapters 14 and 16). Process patterns must be coupled with solid software engineering practice (Part 2 of this book). 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.⁴

A number of different approaches to software process assessment and improvement have been proposed over the past few decades:

? What formal techniques are available for assessing the software process?

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. The SCAMPI method uses the SEI CMMI as the basis for assessment [SEI00].

⁴ The SEI's CMMI [CMM07] describes the characteristics of a software process and the criteria for a successful process in voluminous detail.

note:

"Software organizations have exhibited significant shortcomings in their ability to capitalize on the experiences gained from completed projects."

NASA

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 [Dun01].

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 [ISO08].

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 [Ant06].

A more detailed discussion of software assessment and process improvement methods is presented in Chapter 30.

2.3 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."

In an intriguing paper on the strange relationship between order and chaos in the software world, Nogueira and his colleagues [Nog00] state

note:

"If the process is right, the results will take care of themselves."

Takashi Osada

The edge of chaos is defined as "a natural state between order and chaos, a grand compromise between structure and surprise" [Kau95]. The edge of chaos can be visualized as an unstable, partially structured state. . . . It is unstable because it is constantly attracted to chaos or to absolute order.

We have the tendency to think that order is the ideal state of nature. This could be a mistake. Research . . . supports the theory that operation away from equilibrium generates creativity, self-organized processes, and increasing returns [Roo96]. Absolute order means the absence of variability, which could be an advantage under unpredictable environments. Change occurs when there is some structure so that the change can be organized, but not so rigid that it cannot occur. Too much chaos, on the other hand, can make coordination and coherence impossible. Lack of structure does not always mean disorder.

The philosophical implications of this argument are significant for software engineering. If prescriptive process models⁵ strive for structure and order, are they inappropriate for a software world that thrives on change? Yet, if we reject traditional process

⁵ Prescriptive process models are sometimes referred to as "traditional" process models.

KEY POINT

Prescriptive process models define a prescribed set of process elements and a predictable process work flow.

models (and the order they imply) and replace them with something less structured, do we make it impossible to achieve coordination and coherence in software work?

There are no easy answers to these questions, but there are alternatives available to software engineers. In the sections that follow, I examine the prescriptive process approach in which order and project consistency are dominant issues. I call them “prescriptive” because they prescribe a set of process elements—framework activities, software engineering actions, tasks, work products, quality assurance, and change control mechanisms for each project. Each process model also prescribes a process flow (also called a *work flow*)—that is, the manner in which the process elements are interrelated to one another.

All software process models can accommodate the generic framework activities described in Chapter 1, 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.

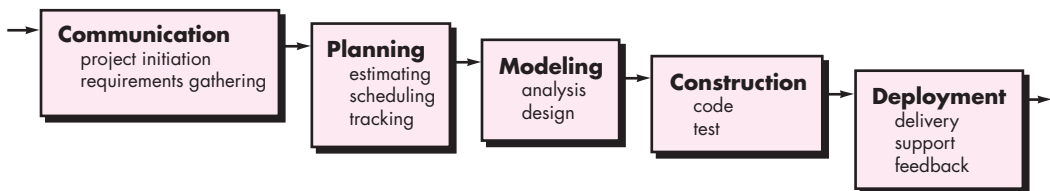
2.3.1 The Waterfall Model

There are times when the requirements for a problem are well understood—when work flows from **communication** through **deployment** in a reasonably linear fashion. This situation is sometimes encountered when well-defined adaptations or enhancements to an existing system must be made (e.g., an adaptation to accounting software that has been mandated because of changes to government regulations). It may also occur in a limited number of new development efforts, but only when requirements are well defined and reasonably stable.

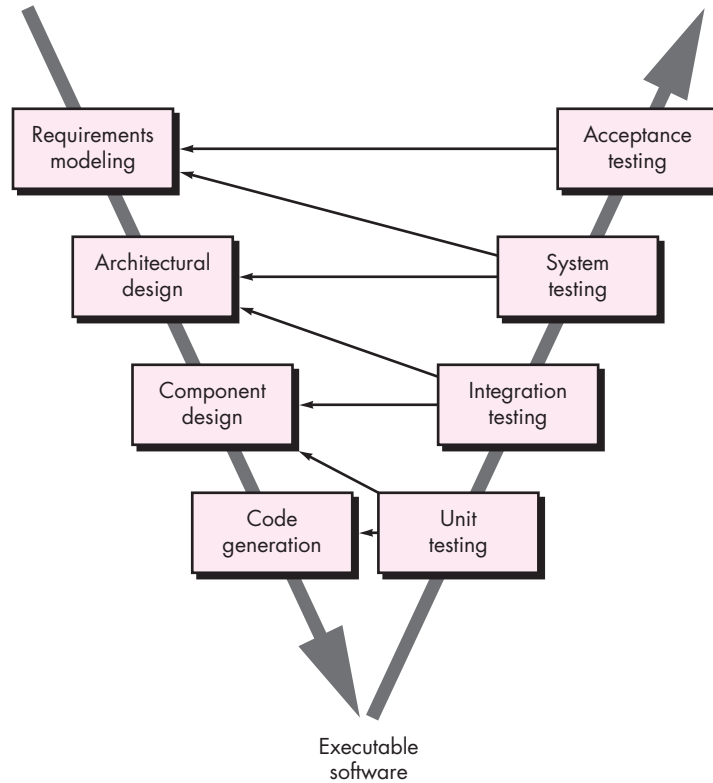
The *waterfall model*, sometimes called the *classic life cycle*, suggests a systematic, sequential approach⁶ to software development that begins with customer specification of requirements and progresses through planning, modeling, construction, and deployment, culminating in ongoing support of the completed software (Figure 2.3).

A variation in the representation of the waterfall model is called the *V-model*. Represented in Figure 2.4, the V-model [Buc99] depicts the relationship of quality

FIGURE 2.3 The waterfall model



6 Although the original waterfall model proposed by Winston Royce [Roy70] made provision for “feedback loops,” the vast majority of organizations that apply this process model treat it as if it were strictly linear.

FIGURE 2.4**The V-model**

KEY POINT

The V-model illustrates how verification and validation actions are associated with earlier engineering actions.

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 [Han95]. Among the problems that are sometimes encountered when the waterfall model is applied are:

? Why does the waterfall model sometimes fail?

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.

⁷ A detailed discussion of quality assurance actions is presented in Part 3 of this book.

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.

note:

"Too often, software work follows the first law of bicycling: No matter where you're going, it's uphill and against the wind."

Author unknown

In an interesting analysis of actual projects, Bradac [Bra94] found that the linear nature of the classic life cycle leads to "blocking states" in which some project team members must wait for other members of the team to complete dependent tasks. In fact, the time spent waiting can exceed the time spent on productive work! The blocking states tend to be more prevalent at the beginning and end of a linear sequential process.

Today, software work is fast-paced and subject to a never-ending stream of changes (to features, functions, and information content). The waterfall model is often inappropriate for such work. However, it can serve as a useful process model in situations where requirements are fixed and work is to proceed to completion in a linear manner.

2.3.2 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 discussed in Section 2.1. Referring to Figure 2.5, the incremental model applies linear sequences in a staggered fashion as calendar time progresses. Each linear sequence produces deliverable "increments" of the software [McD93] in a manner that is similar to the increments produced by an evolutionary process flow (Section 2.3.3).

For example, word-processing software developed using the incremental paradigm might deliver basic file management, editing, and document production functions in the first increment; more sophisticated editing and document production capabilities in the second increment; spelling and grammar checking in the third increment; and advanced page layout capability in the fourth increment. It should be noted that the process flow for any increment can incorporate the prototyping paradigm.

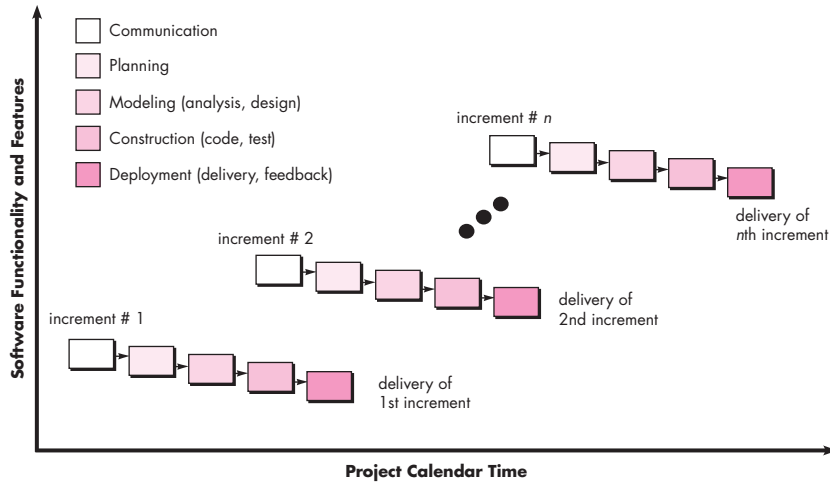
When an incremental model is used, the first increment is often a *core product*. That is, basic requirements are addressed but many supplementary features (some known, others unknown) remain undelivered. The core product is used by the customer (or undergoes detailed evaluation). As a result of use and/or evaluation, a

KEY POINT

The incremental model delivers a series of releases, called increments, that provide progressively more functionality for the customer as each increment is delivered.

ADVICE

Your customer demands delivery by a date that is impossible to meet. Suggest delivering one or more increments by that date and the rest of the software (additional increments) later.

FIGURE 2.5**The incremental model**

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.⁸

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.

KEY POINT

Evolutionary process models produce an increasingly more complete version of the software with each iteration.

2.3.3 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

⁸ It is important to note that an incremental philosophy is also used for all “agile” process models discussed in Chapter 3.

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. In the paragraphs that follow, I present two common evolutionary process models.

Note:

"Plan to throw one away. You will do that, anyway. Your only choice is whether to try to sell the throwaway to customers."

Frederick P. Brooks



When your customer has a legitimate need, but is clueless about the details, develop a prototype as a first step.

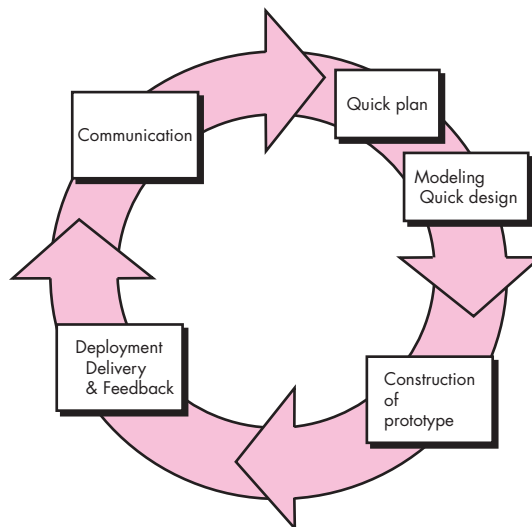
Prototyping. Often, a customer defines a set of general objectives for software, but does not identify detailed requirements for functions and features. In other cases, the developer may be unsure of the efficiency of an algorithm, the adaptability of an operating system, or the form that human-machine interaction should take. In these, and many other situations, a *prototyping paradigm* may offer the best approach.

Although 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 (Figure 2.6) 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

FIGURE 2.6

The prototyping paradigm



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.

But what do you do with the prototype when it has served the purpose described earlier? Brooks [Bro95] provides one answer:

In most projects, the first system built is barely usable. It may be too slow, too big, awkward in use or all three. There is no alternative but to start again, smarting but smarter, and build a redesigned version in which these problems are solved.

The prototype can serve as “the first system.” The one that Brooks recommends you throw away. But this may be an idealized view. Although some prototypes are built as “throwaways,” others are evolutionary in the sense that the prototype slowly evolves into the actual system.

Both stakeholders and software engineers like the prototyping paradigm. Users get a feel for the actual system, and developers get to build something immediately. Yet, prototyping can be problematic for the following reasons:



Resist pressure to extend a rough prototype into a production product. Quality almost always suffers as a result.

1. Stakeholders see what appears to be a working version of the software, unaware that the prototype is held together haphazardly, unaware that in the rush to get it working you haven't considered overall software quality or long-term maintainability. When informed that the product must be rebuilt so that high levels of quality can be maintained, stakeholders cry foul and demand that “a few fixes” be applied to make the prototype a working product. Too often, software development management relents.
2. As a software engineer, you often make implementation compromises in order to get a prototype working quickly. An inappropriate operating system or programming language may be used simply because it is available and known; an inefficient algorithm may be implemented simply to demonstrate capability. After a time, you may become comfortable with these choices and forget all the reasons why they were inappropriate. The less-than-ideal choice has now become an integral part of the system.

Although problems can occur, prototyping can be an effective paradigm for software engineering. The key is to define the rules of the game at the beginning; that is, all stakeholders should agree that the prototype is built to serve as a mechanism for defining requirements. It is then discarded (at least in part), and the actual software is engineered with an eye toward quality.

SAFEHOME

*Selecting a Process Model, Part 1*

The scene: Meeting room for the software engineering group at CPI Corporation, a (fictional) company that makes consumer products for home and commercial use.

The players: Lee Warren, engineering manager; Doug Miller, software engineering manager; Jamie Lazar, software team member; Vinod Raman, software team member; and Ed Robbins, software team member.

The conversation:

Lee: So let's recapitulate. I've spent some time discussing the *SafeHome* product line as we see it at the moment. No doubt, we've got a lot of work to do to simply define the thing, but I'd like you guys to begin thinking about how you're going to approach the software part of this project.

Doug: Seems like we've been pretty disorganized in our approach to software in the past.

Ed: I don't know, Doug, we always got product out the door.

Doug: True, but not without a lot of grief, and this project looks like it's bigger and more complex than anything we've done in the past.

Jamie: Doesn't look that hard, but I agree . . . our ad hoc approach to past projects won't work here, particularly if we have a very tight time line.

Doug (smiling): I want to be a bit more professional in our approach. I went to a short course last week and learned a lot about software engineering . . . good stuff. We need a process here.

Jamie (with a frown): My job is to build computer programs, not push paper around.

Doug: Give it a chance before you go negative on me. Here's what I mean. [Doug proceeds to describe the process framework described in this chapter and the prescriptive process models presented to this point.]

Doug: So anyway, it seems to me that a linear model is not for us . . . assumes we have all requirements up front and, knowing this place, that's not likely.

Vinod: Yeah, and it sounds way too IT-oriented . . . probably good for building an inventory control system or something, but it's just not right for *SafeHome*.

Doug: I agree.

Ed: That prototyping approach seems OK. A lot like what we do here anyway.

Vinod: That's a problem. I'm worried that it doesn't provide us with enough structure.

Doug: Not to worry. We've got plenty of other options, and I want you guys to pick what's best for the team and best for the project.

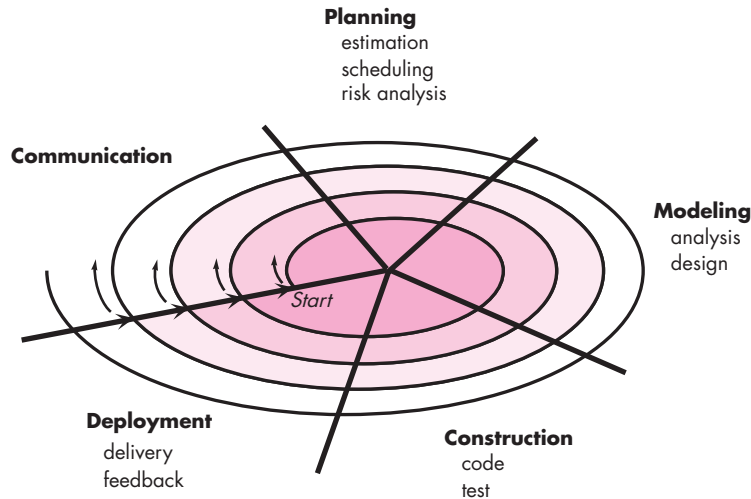
The Spiral Model. Originally proposed by Barry Boehm [Boe88], the *spiral model* is an evolutionary software process model that couples the iterative nature of prototyping with the controlled and systematic aspects of the waterfall model. It provides the potential for rapid development of increasingly more complete versions of the software. Boehm [Boe01a] describes the model in the following manner:

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.

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.

FIGURE 2.7

A typical
spiral model



KEY POINT

The spiral model can be adapted to apply throughout the entire life cycle of an application, from concept development to maintenance.

WebRef

Useful information about the spiral model can be obtained at:
www.sei.cmu.edu/publications/documents/00.reports/00sr008.html

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 iterations¹⁰ until concept

⁹ The spiral model discussed in this section is a variation on the model proposed by Boehm. For further information on the original spiral model, see [Boe88]. More recent discussion of Boehm’s spiral model can be found in [Boe98].

¹⁰ The arrows pointing inward along the axis separating the **deployment** region from the **communication** region indicate a potential for local iteration along the same spiral path.



If your management demands fixed-budget development (generally a bad idea), the spiral can be a problem. As each circuit is completed, project cost is revisited and revised.

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.

But like other paradigms, the spiral model is not a panacea. It may be difficult to convince customers (particularly in contract situations) that the evolutionary approach is controllable. It demands considerable risk assessment expertise and relies on this expertise for success. If a major risk is not uncovered and managed, problems will undoubtedly occur.

note:

“I’m only this far and only tomorrow leads my way.”

Dave Matthews Band

SAFEHOME



Selecting a Process Model, Part 2

The scene: Meeting room for the software engineering group at CPI Corporation, a company that makes consumer products for home and commercial use.

The players: Lee Warren, engineering manager; Doug Miller, software engineering manager; Vinod and Jamie, members of the software engineering team.

The conversation: [Doug describes evolutionary process options.]

Jamie: Now I see something I like. An incremental approach makes sense, and I really like the flow of that spiral model thing. That’s keepin’ it real.

Vinod: I agree. We deliver an increment, learn from customer feedback, replan, and then deliver another increment. It also fits into the nature of the product. We

can have something on the market fast and then add functionality with each version, er, increment.

Lee: Wait a minute. Did you say that we regenerate the plan with each tour around the spiral, Doug? That’s not so great; we need one plan, one schedule, and we’ve got to stick to it.

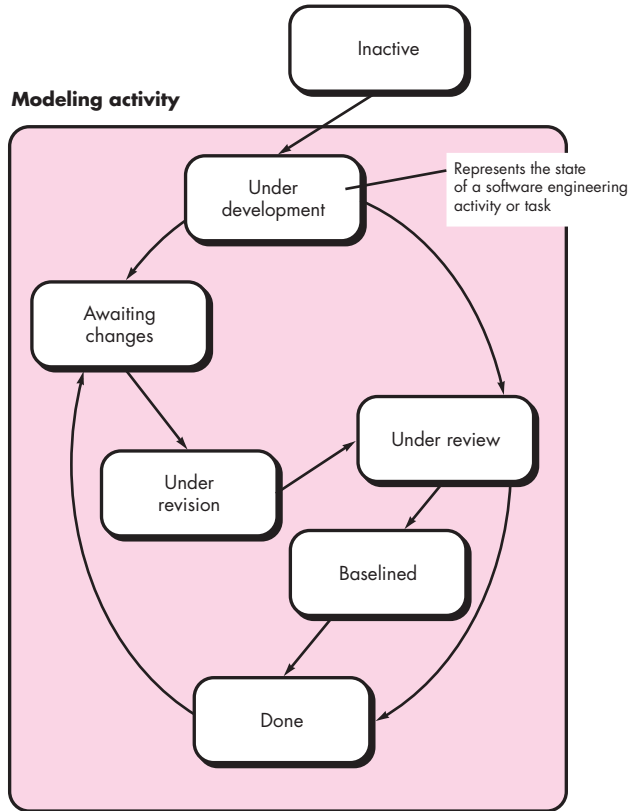
Doug: That’s old-school thinking, Lee. Like the guys said, we’ve got to keep it real. I submit that it’s better to tweak the plan as we learn more and as changes are requested. It’s way more realistic. What’s the point of a plan if it doesn’t reflect reality?

Lee (frowning): I suppose so, but . . . senior management’s not going to like this . . . they want a fixed plan.

Doug (smiling): Then you’ll have to reeducate them, buddy.

FIGURE 2.8

One element of
the concurrent
process model



2.3.4 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.¹¹

Figure 2.8 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 states¹² 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.



The concurrent model is often more appropriate for product engineering projects where different engineering teams are involved.

¹¹ It should be noted that analysis and design are complex tasks that require substantial discussion. Part 2 of this book considers these topics in detail.

¹² A *state* is some externally observable mode of behavior.

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.

note:

"Every process in your organization has a customer, and without a customer a process has no purpose."

V. Daniel Hunt

2.3.5 A Final Word on Evolutionary Processes

I have already noted that modern computer software is characterized by continual change, by very tight time lines, and by an emphatic need for customer-user satisfaction. In many cases, time-to-market is the most important management requirement. If a market window is missed, the software project itself may be meaningless.¹³

Evolutionary process models were conceived to address these issues, and yet, as a general class of process models, they too have weaknesses. These are summarized by Nogueira and his colleagues [Nog00] :

Despite the unquestionable benefits of evolutionary software processes, we have some concerns. The first concern is that prototyping [and other more sophisticated evolutionary processes] poses a problem to project planning because of the uncertain number of cycles required to construct the product. Most project management and estimation techniques are based on linear layouts of activities, so they do not fit completely.

Second, evolutionary software processes do not establish the maximum speed of the evolution. If the evolutions occur too fast, without a period of relaxation, it is certain that the process will fall into chaos. On the other hand if the speed is too slow then productivity could be affected . . .

¹³ It is important to note, however, that being the first to reach a market is no guarantee of success. In fact, many very successful software products have been second or even third to reach the market (learning from the mistakes of their predecessors).