

**KEY  
CONCEPTS**

component-based development . . . . .	50
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**I**n a fascinating book that provides an economist's view of software and software engineering, Howard Baetjer, Jr. [Bae98], comments on the software process:

Because software, like all capital, is embodied knowledge, and because that knowledge is initially dispersed, tacit, latent, and incomplete in large measure, software development is a social learning process. The process is a dialogue in which the knowledge that must become the software is brought together and embodied in the software. The process provides interaction between users and designers, between users and evolving tools, and between designers and evolving tools [technology]. It is an iterative process in which the evolving tool itself serves as the medium for communication, with each new round of the dialogue eliciting more useful knowledge from the people involved.

Indeed, building computer software is an iterative social learning process, and the outcome, something that Baetjer would call “software capital,” is an embodiment of knowledge collected, distilled, and organized as the process is conducted.

**QUICK  
LOOK**

**What is it?** When you work to build a product or system, it's important to go through a series of predictable steps—a road map that helps you create a timely, high-quality result. The road map that you follow is called a “software process.”

**Who does it?** Software engineers and their managers adapt the process to their needs and then follow it. In addition, the people who have requested the software have a role to play in the process of defining, building, and testing it.

**Why is it important?** Because it provides stability, control, and organization to an activity that can, if left uncontrolled, become quite chaotic. However, a modern software engineering approach must be “agile.” It must demand only those activities, controls, and work products that are appropriate for the project team and the product that is to be produced.

**What are the steps?** At a detailed level, the process that you adopt depends on the software that you're building. One process might be appropriate for creating software for an aircraft avionics system, while an entirely different process would be indicated for the creation of a website.

**What is the work product?** From the point of view of a software engineer, the work products are the programs, documents, and data that are produced as a consequence of the activities and tasks defined by the process.

**How do I ensure that I've done it right?** There are a number of software process assessment mechanisms that enable organizations to determine the “maturity” of their software process. However, the quality, timeliness, and long-term viability of the product you build are the best indicators of the efficacy of the process that you use.

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.

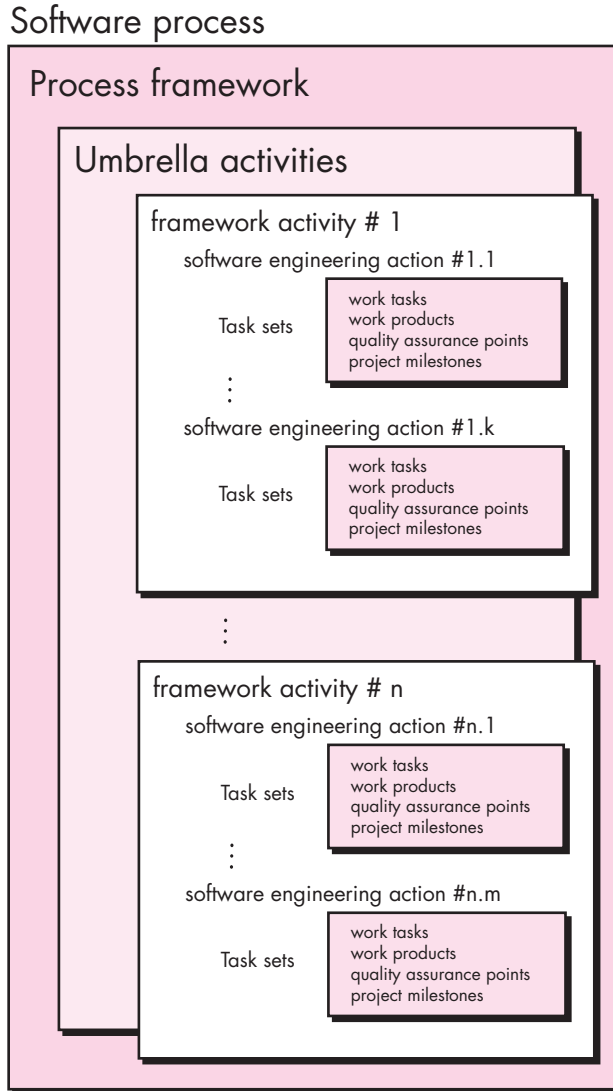
### note:

“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

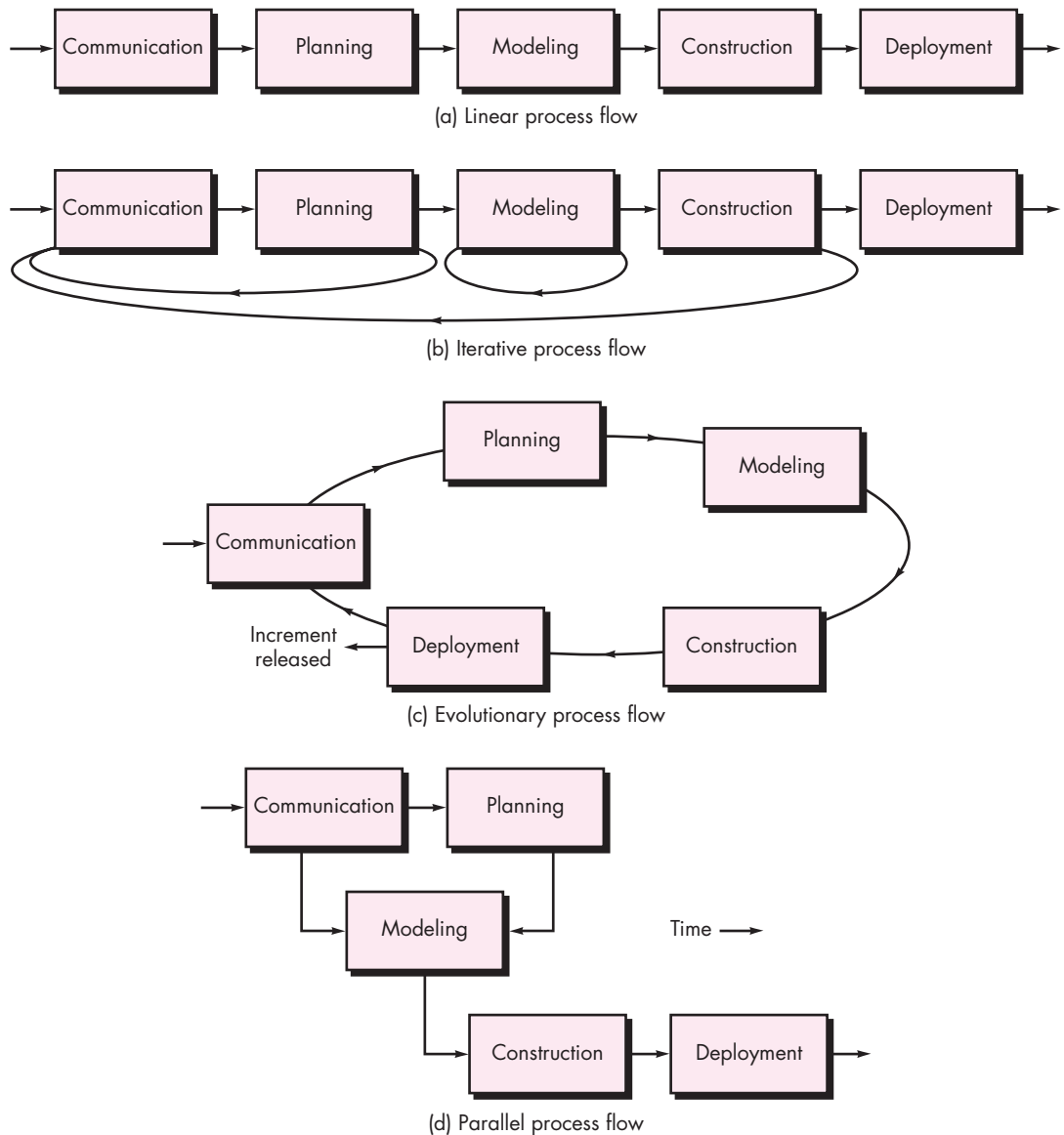
**FIGURE 2.1**

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.

#### INFO

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.

### 2.1.3 Process Patterns

**?** 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.

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*<sup>1</sup> 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.<sup>2</sup> 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**.<sup>3</sup>

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](http://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.

## INFO

## 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.<sup>4</sup>

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].

<sup>4</sup> 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

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 models<sup>5</sup> strive for structure and order, are they inappropriate for a software world that thrives on change? Yet, if we reject traditional process

**note:**

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

Takashi Osada

<sup>5</sup> 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.

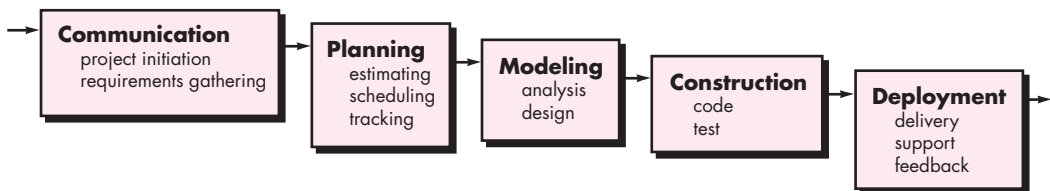
### 2.3.1 The Waterfall Model

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.

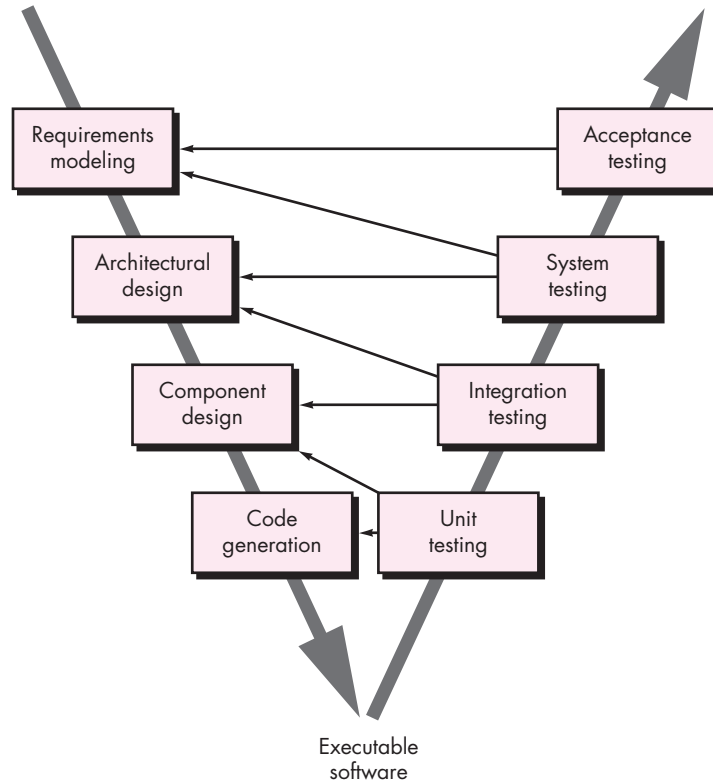
The *waterfall model*, sometimes called the *classic life cycle*, suggests a systematic, sequential approach<sup>6</sup> to software development that begins with customer specification of requirements and progresses through planning, modeling, construction, and deployment, culminating in ongoing support 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.<sup>7</sup> 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.

<sup>7</sup> 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

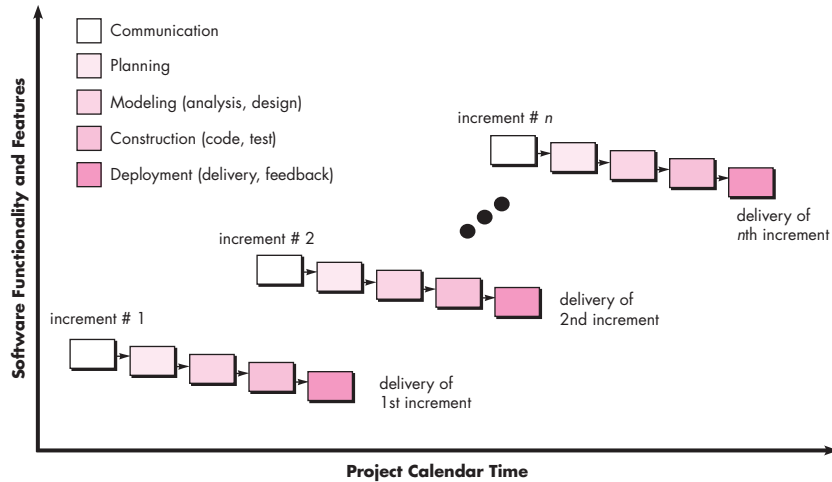
The incremental model delivers a series of releases, called increments, that provide progressively more functionality for the customer as each increment is delivered.

### 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.<sup>8</sup>

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

<sup>8</sup> 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.*

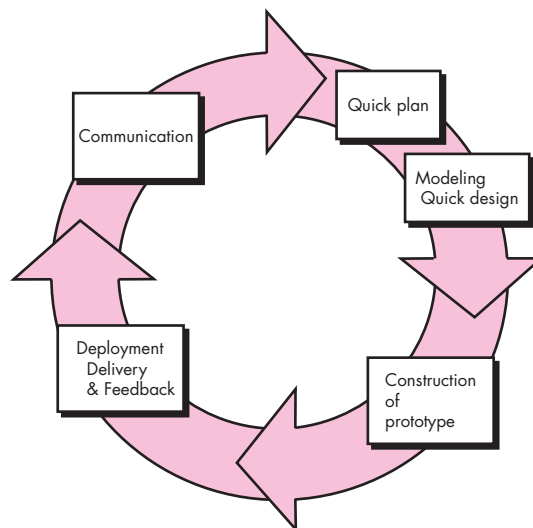
**Prototyping.** Often, a customer defines a set of general objectives for software, but does not identify detailed requirements for functions and features. In other cases, the developer may be unsure of the efficiency of an algorithm, the adaptability of an operating system, or the form that human-machine 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.

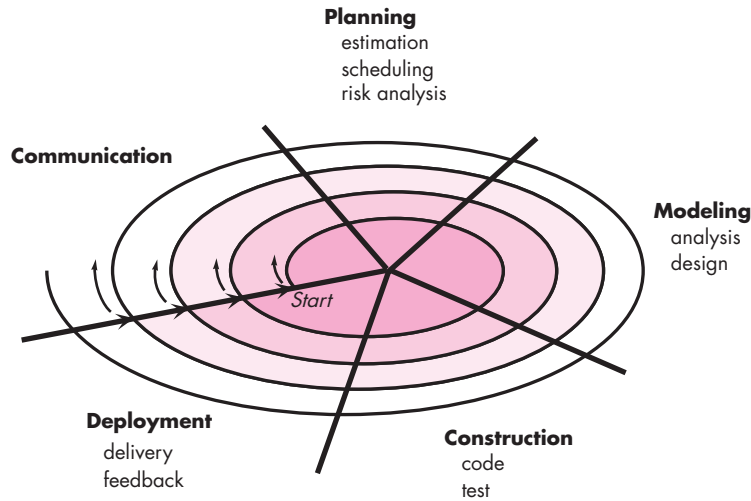
**The Spiral Model.** Originally proposed by Barry Boehm [Boe88], the *spiral model* is an evolutionary software process model that couples the iterative nature of prototyping with the controlled and systematic aspects of the waterfall model. It provides the potential for rapid development of increasingly 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/00reports/00sr008.html](http://www.sei.cmu.edu/publications/documents/00reports/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.<sup>9</sup> 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<sup>10</sup> until concept

<sup>9</sup> 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].

<sup>10</sup> 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.

**Quote:**

*“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.

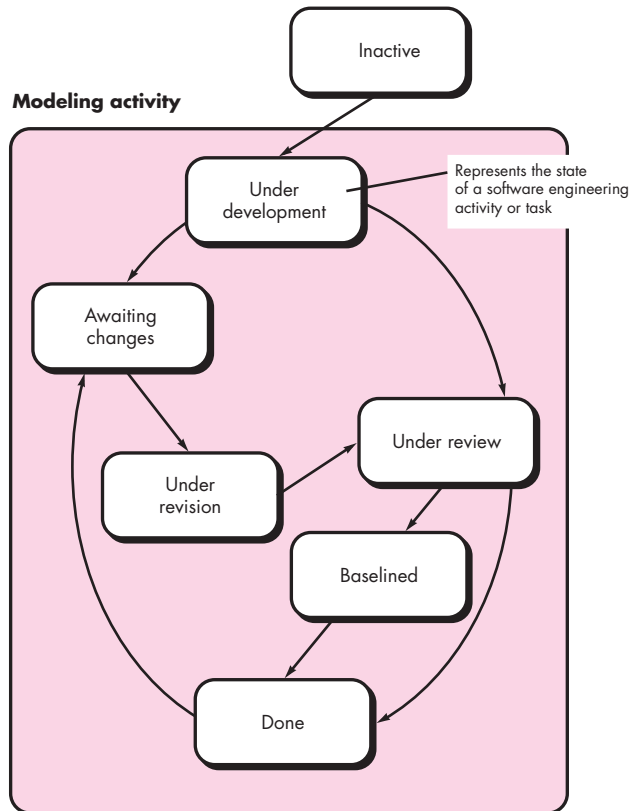
**Doug:** That’s old-school thinking, Lee. Like the guys said, we’ve got to keep it real. I submit that it’s better to tweak the plan as we learn more and as changes are requested. It’s way more realistic. What’s the point of a plan if it doesn’t reflect reality?

**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.<sup>11</sup>

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 states<sup>12</sup> 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.*

<sup>11</sup> 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.

<sup>12</sup> 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.<sup>13</sup>

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 . . .

<sup>13</sup> 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).

Third, software processes should be focused on flexibility and extensibility rather than on high quality. This assertion sounds scary. However, we should prioritize the speed of the development over zero defects. Extending the development in order to reach high quality could result in a late delivery of the product, when the opportunity niche has disappeared. This paradigm shift is imposed by the competition on the edge of chaos.

Indeed, a software process that focuses on flexibility, extensibility, and speed of development over high quality does sound scary. And yet, this idea has been proposed by a number of well-respected software engineering experts (e.g., [You95], [Bac97]).

The intent of evolutionary models is to develop high-quality software<sup>14</sup> in an iterative or incremental manner. However, it is possible to use an evolutionary process to emphasize flexibility, extensibility, and speed of development. The challenge for software teams and their managers is to establish a proper balance between these critical project and product parameters and customer satisfaction (the ultimate arbiter of software quality).

## 2.4 SPECIALIZED PROCESS MODELS

Specialized process models take on many of the characteristics of one or more of the traditional models presented in the preceding sections. However, these models tend to be applied when a specialized or narrowly defined software engineering approach is chosen.<sup>15</sup>

### 2.4.1 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 [Nie92], 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<sup>16</sup> of classes. Regardless of the

#### WebRef

Useful information on component-based development can be obtained at: [www.cbd-hq.com](http://www.cbd-hq.com).

<sup>14</sup> In this context software quality is defined quite broadly to encompass not only customer satisfaction, but also a variety of technical criteria discussed in Chapters 14 and 16.

<sup>15</sup> In some cases, these specialized process models might better be characterized as a collection of techniques or a “methodology” for accomplishing a specific software development goal. However, they do imply a process.

<sup>16</sup> Object-oriented concepts are discussed in Appendix 2 and are used throughout Part 2 of this book. In this context, a class encompasses a set of data and the procedures that process the data. A package of classes is a collection of related classes that work together to achieve some end result.

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. Your software engineering team can achieve a reduction in development cycle time as well as a reduction in project cost if component reuse becomes part of your culture. Component-based development is discussed in more detail in Chapter 10.

### 2.4.2 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* [Mil87, Dye92], is currently applied by some software development organizations.

When formal methods (Chapter 21) are used during development, they provide a mechanism for eliminating many of the problems that are difficult to overcome using other software engineering paradigms. Ambiguity, incompleteness, and inconsistency can be discovered and corrected more easily—not through ad hoc review, but through the application of mathematical analysis. When formal methods are used during design, they serve as a basis for program verification and therefore enable you to discover and correct errors that might otherwise go undetected.

Although not a mainstream approach, the formal methods model offers the promise of defect-free software. Yet, concern about its applicability in a business environment has been voiced:

 **If formal methods can demonstrate software correctness, why is it they are not widely used?**

- 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.

These concerns notwithstanding, the formal methods approach has gained adherents among software developers who must build safety-critical software



(e.g., developers of aircraft avionics and medical devices) and among developers that would suffer severe economic hardship should software errors occur.

### 2.4.3 Aspect-Oriented Software Development

#### WebRef

A wide array of resources and information on AOP can be found at: [aosd.net](http://aosd.net).

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” [Elr01].

Grundy [Gru02] provides further discussion of aspects in the context of what he calls *aspect-oriented component engineering* (AOCE):

AOCE uses a concept of horizontal slices through vertically-decomposed software components, called “aspects,” to characterize cross-cutting functional and non-functional properties of components. Common, systemic aspects include user interfaces, collaborative work, distribution, persistency, memory management, transaction processing, security, integrity and so on. Components may provide or require one or more “aspect details” relating to a particular aspect, such as a viewing mechanism, extensible affordance and interface kind (user interface aspects); event generation, transport and receiving (distribution aspects); data store/retrieve and indexing (persistency aspects); authentication, encoding and access rights (security aspects); transaction atomicity, concurrency control and logging strategy (transaction aspects); and so on. Each aspect detail has a number of properties, relating to functional and/or non-functional characteristics of the aspect detail.

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. Hence, it is essential to

#### KEY POINT

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.

A detailed discussion of aspect-oriented software development is best left to books dedicated to the subject. If you have further interest, see [Saf08], [Cla05], [Jac04], and [Gra03].



### Process Management

**Objective:** To assist in the definition, execution, and management of prescriptive process models.

**Mechanics:** Process management tools allow a software organization or team to define a complete software process model (framework activities, actions, tasks, QA checkpoints, milestones, and work products). In addition, the tools provide a road map as software engineers do technical work and a template for managers who must track and control the software process.

#### Representative Tools:<sup>17</sup>

*GDPA*, a research process definition tool suite, developed at Bremen University in Germany ([www.informatik](http://www.informatik)

### SOFTWARE TOOLS

[.uni-bremen.de/uniform/gdpa/home.htm](http://uni-bremen.de/uniform/gdpa/home.htm)), provides a wide array of process modeling and management functions.

*SpeeDev*, developed by SpeeDev Corporation ([www.speedev.com](http://www.speedev.com)) encompasses a suite of tools for process definition, requirements management, issue resolution, project planning, and tracking.

*ProVision BPMx*, developed by Proforma ([www.proformacorp.com](http://www.proformacorp.com)), is representative of many tools that assist in process definition and workflow automation.

A worthwhile listing of many different tools associated with the software process can be found at [www.processwave.net/Links/tool\\_links.htm](http://www.processwave.net/Links/tool_links.htm).

## 2.5 THE UNIFIED PROCESS

In their seminal book on the *Unified Process*, Ivar Jacobson, Grady Booch, and James Rumbaugh [Jac99] discuss the need for a “use case driven, architecture-centric, iterative and incremental” software process when they state:

Today, the trend in software is toward bigger, more complex systems. That is due in part to the fact that computers become more powerful every year, leading users to expect more from them. This trend has also been influenced by the expanding use of the Internet for exchanging all kinds of information. . . . Our appetite for ever-more sophisticated software grows as we learn from one product release to the next how the product could be improved. We want software that is better adapted to our needs, but that, in turn, merely makes the software more complex. In short, we want more.

In some ways the Unified Process is an attempt to draw on the best features and characteristics of traditional software process models, but characterize them in a way that implements many of the best principles of agile software development

<sup>17</sup> Tools noted here do not represent an endorsement, but rather a sampling of tools in this category. In most cases, tool names are trademarked by their respective developers.

(Chapter 3). The Unified Process recognizes the importance of customer communication and streamlined methods for describing the customer's view of a system (the use case<sup>18</sup>). It emphasizes the important role of software architecture and “helps the architect focus on the right goals, such as understandability, reliance to future changes, and reuse” [Jac99]. It suggests a process flow that is iterative and incremental, providing the evolutionary feel that is essential in modern software development.

### 2.5.1 A Brief History

During the early 1990s James Rumbaugh [Rum91], Grady Booch [Boo94], and Ivar Jacobson [Jac92] began working on a “unified method” that would combine the best features of each of their individual object-oriented analysis and design methods and adopt additional features proposed by other experts (e.g., [Wir90]) in object-oriented modeling. The result was UML—a *unified modeling language* that contains a robust notation for the modeling and development of object-oriented systems. By 1997, UML became a de facto industry standard for object-oriented software development.

UML is used throughout Part 2 of this book to represent both requirements and design models. Appendix 1 presents an introductory tutorial for those who are unfamiliar with basic UML notation and modeling rules. A comprehensive presentation of UML is best left to textbooks dedicated to the subject. Recommended books are listed in Appendix 1.

UML provided the necessary technology to support object-oriented software engineering practice, but it did not provide the process framework to guide project teams in their application of the technology. Over the next few years, Jacobson, Rumbaugh, and Booch developed the *Unified Process*, a framework for object-oriented software engineering using UML. Today, the Unified Process (UP) and UML are widely used on object-oriented projects of all kinds. The iterative, incremental model proposed by the UP can and should be adapted to meet specific project needs.

### 2.5.2 Phases of the Unified Process<sup>19</sup>

Earlier in this chapter, I discussed five generic framework activities and argued that they may be used to describe any software process model. The Unified Process is no exception. Figure 2.9 depicts the “phases” of the UP and relates them to the generic activities that have been discussed in Chapter 1 and earlier in this chapter.

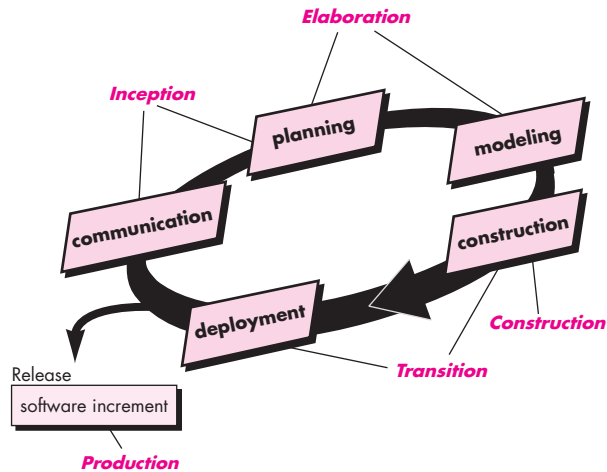
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18 A *use case* (Chapter 5) is a text narrative or template that describes a system function or feature from the user's point of view. A use case is written by the user and serves as a basis for the creation of a more comprehensive requirements model.

19 The Unified Process is sometimes called the *Rational Unified Process* (RUP) after the Rational Corporation (subsequently acquired by IBM), an early contributor to the development and refinement of the UP and a builder of complete environments (tools and technology) that support the process.

FIGURE 2.9

## The Unified Process

**KEY POINT**

UP phases are similar in intent to the generic framework activities defined in this book.

The *inception phase* of the UP encompasses both customer communication and planning activities. By collaborating with stakeholders, business requirements for the software are identified; a rough architecture for the system is proposed; and a plan for the iterative, incremental nature of the ensuing project is developed. Fundamental business requirements are described through a set of preliminary use cases (Chapter 5) that describe which features and functions each major class of users desires. Architecture at this point is nothing more than a tentative outline of major subsystems and the function and features that populate them. Later, the architecture will be refined and expanded into a set of models that will represent different views of the system. Planning identifies resources, assesses major risks, defines a schedule, and establishes a basis for the phases that are to be applied as the software increment is developed.

The *elaboration phase* encompasses the communication and modeling activities of the generic process model (Figure 2.9). Elaboration refines and expands the preliminary use cases that were developed as part of the inception phase and expands the architectural representation to include five different views of the software—the use case model, the requirements model, the design model, the implementation model, and the deployment model. In some cases, elaboration creates an “executable architectural baseline” [Arl02] that represents a “first cut” executable system.<sup>20</sup> The architectural baseline demonstrates the viability of the architecture but does not provide all features and functions required to use the system. In addition, the plan is carefully reviewed at the culmination of the elaboration phase to ensure that scope, risks, and delivery dates remain reasonable. Modifications to the plan are often made at this time.

<sup>20</sup> It is important to note that the architectural baseline is not a prototype in that it is not thrown away. Rather, the baseline is fleshed out during the next UP phase.

**WebRef**

An interesting discussion of the UP in the context of agile development can be found at

[www.ambysoft.com/unifiedprocess/agileUP.html](http://www.ambysoft.com/unifiedprocess/agileUP.html)

The *construction phase* of the UP is identical to the construction activity defined for the generic software process. Using the architectural model as input, the construction phase develops or acquires the software components that will make each use case operational for end users. To accomplish this, requirements and design models that were started during the elaboration phase are completed to reflect the final version of the software increment. All necessary and required features and functions for the software increment (i.e., the release) are then implemented in source code. As components are being implemented, unit tests<sup>21</sup> are designed and executed for each. In addition, integration activities (component assembly and integration testing) are conducted. Use cases are used to derive a suite of acceptance tests that are executed prior to the initiation of the next UP phase.

The *transition phase* of the UP encompasses the latter stages of the generic construction activity and the first part of the generic deployment (delivery and feedback) activity. Software is given to end users for beta testing and user feedback reports both defects and necessary changes. In addition, the software team creates the necessary support information (e.g., user manuals, troubleshooting guides, installation procedures) that is required for the release. At the conclusion of the transition phase, the software increment becomes a usable software release.

The *production phase* of the UP coincides with the deployment activity of the generic process. During this phase, the ongoing use of the software is monitored, support for the operating environment (infrastructure) is provided, and defect reports and requests for changes are submitted and evaluated.

It is likely that at the same time the construction, transition, and production phases are being conducted, work may have already begun on the next software increment. This means that the five UP phases do not occur in a sequence, but rather with staggered concurrency.

A software engineering workflow is distributed across all UP phases. In the context of UP, a *workflow* is analogous to a task set (described earlier in this chapter). That is, a workflow identifies the tasks required to accomplish an important software engineering action and the work products that are produced as a consequence of successfully completing the tasks. It should be noted that not every task identified for a UP workflow is conducted for every software project. The team adapts the process (actions, tasks, subtasks, and work products) to meet its needs.

## 2.6 PERSONAL AND TEAM PROCESS MODELS

The best software process is one that is close to the people who will be doing the work. If a software process model has been developed at a corporate or organizational level, it can be effective only if it is amenable to significant adaptation to meet

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<sup>21</sup> A comprehensive discussion of software testing (including *unit tests*) is presented in Chapters 17 through 20.

**Note:**

“A person who is successful has simply formed the habit of doing things that unsuccessful people will not do.”

Dexter Yager

**WebRef**

A wide array of resources for PSP can be found at [www.ipd.uka.de/PSP/](http://www.ipd.uka.de/PSP/).

**? What framework activities are used during PSP?**

the needs of the project team that is actually doing software engineering work. In an ideal setting, you would create a process that best fits your needs, and at the same time, meets the broader needs of the team and the organization. Alternatively, the team itself can create its own process, and at the same time meet the narrower needs of individuals and the broader needs of the organization. Watts Humphrey ([Hum97] and [Hum00]) argues that it is possible to create a “personal software process” and/or a “team software process.” Both require hard work, training, and coordination, but both are achievable.<sup>22</sup>

### 2.6.1 Personal Software Process (PSP)

Every developer uses some process to build computer software. The process may be haphazard or ad hoc; may change on a daily basis; may not be efficient, effective, or even successful; but a “process” does exist. Watts Humphrey [Hum97] suggests that in order to change an ineffective personal process, an individual must move through four phases, each requiring training and careful instrumentation. The *Personal Software Process* (PSP) emphasizes personal measurement of both the work product that is produced and the resultant quality of the work product. In addition PSP makes the practitioner responsible for project planning (e.g., estimating and scheduling) and empowers the practitioner to control the quality of all software work products that are developed. The PSP model defines five framework activities:

**Planning.** This activity isolates requirements and develops both size and resource estimates. In addition, a defect estimate (the number of defects projected for the work) is made. All metrics are recorded on worksheets or templates. Finally, development tasks are identified and a project schedule is created.

**High-level design.** External specifications for each component to be constructed are developed and a component design is created. Prototypes are built when uncertainty exists. All issues are recorded and tracked.

**High-level design review.** Formal verification methods (Chapter 21) are applied to uncover errors in the design. Metrics are maintained for all important tasks and work results.

**Development.** The component-level design is refined and reviewed. Code is generated, reviewed, compiled, and tested. Metrics are maintained for all important tasks and work results.

**Postmortem.** Using the measures and metrics collected (this is a substantial amount of data that should be analyzed statistically), the effectiveness of the process is determined. Measures and metrics should provide guidance for modifying the process to improve its effectiveness.

<sup>22</sup> It’s worth noting the proponents of agile software development (Chapter 3) also argue that the process should remain close to the team. They propose an alternative method for achieving this.

## KEY POINT

PSP emphasizes the need to record and analyze the types of errors you make, so that you can develop strategies to eliminate them.

PSP stresses the need to identify errors early and, just as important, to understand the types of errors that you are likely to make. This is accomplished through a rigorous assessment activity performed on all work products you produce.

PSP represents a disciplined, metrics-based approach to software engineering that may lead to culture shock for many practitioners. However, when PSP is properly introduced to software engineers [Hum96], the resulting improvement in software engineering productivity and software quality are significant [Fer97]. However, PSP has not been widely adopted throughout the industry. The reasons, sadly, have more to do with human nature and organizational inertia than they do with the strengths and weaknesses of the PSP approach. PSP is intellectually challenging and demands a level of commitment (by practitioners and their managers) that is not always possible to obtain. Training is relatively lengthy, and training costs are high. The required level of measurement is culturally difficult for many software people.

Can PSP be used as an effective software process at a personal level? The answer is an unequivocal “yes.” But even if PSP is not adopted in its entirety, many of the personal process improvement concepts that it introduces are well worth learning.

### 2.6.2 Team Software Process (TSP)

Because many industry-grade software projects are addressed by a team of practitioners, Watts Humphrey extended the lessons learned from the introduction of PSP and proposed a *Team Software Process* (TSP). The goal of TSP is to build a “self-directed” project team that organizes itself to produce high-quality software. Humphrey [Hum98] defines the following objectives for TSP:

- Build self-directed teams that plan and track their work, establish goals, and own their processes and plans. These can be pure software teams or integrated product teams (IPTs) of 3 to about 20 engineers.
- Show managers how to coach and motivate their teams and how to help them sustain peak performance.
- Accelerate software process improvement by making CMM<sup>23</sup> Level 5 behavior normal and expected.
- Provide improvement guidance to high-maturity organizations.
- Facilitate university teaching of industrial-grade team skills.

A self-directed team has a consistent understanding of its overall goals and objectives; defines roles and responsibilities for each team member; tracks quantitative project data (about productivity and quality); identifies a team process that is appropriate for the project and a strategy for implementing the process; defines local standards that are applicable to the team’s software engineering work; continually assesses risk and reacts to it; and tracks, manages, and reports project status.

<sup>23</sup> The Capability Maturity Model (CMM), a measure of the effectiveness of a software process, is discussed in Chapter 30.

## WebRef

Information on building high-performance teams using TSP and PSP can be obtained at: [www.sei.cmu.edu/tsp/](http://www.sei.cmu.edu/tsp/).



To form a self-directed team, you must collaborate well internally and communicate well externally.



TSP defines the following framework activities: **project launch, high-level design, implementation, integration and test,** and **postmortem.** Like their counterparts in PSP (note that terminology is somewhat different), these activities enable the team to plan, design, and construct software in a disciplined manner while at the same time quantitatively measuring the process and the product. The postmortem sets the stage for process improvements.

TSP makes use of a wide variety of scripts, forms, and standards that serve to guide team members in their work. “Scripts” define specific process activities (i.e., project launch, design, implementation, integration and system testing, postmortem) and other more detailed work functions (e.g., development planning, requirements development, software configuration management, unit test) that are part of the team process.

TSP recognizes that the best software teams are self-directed.<sup>24</sup> Team members set project objectives, adapt the process to meet their needs, control the project schedule, and through measurement and analysis of the metrics collected, work continually to improve the team’s approach to software engineering.

Like PSP, TSP is a rigorous approach to software engineering that provides distinct and quantifiable benefits in productivity and quality. The team must make a full commitment to the process and must undergo thorough training to ensure that the approach is properly applied.

## KEY POINT

TSP scripts define elements of the team process and activities that occur within the process.

## 2.7 PROCESS TECHNOLOGY

One or more of the process models discussed in the preceding sections must be adapted for use by a software team. To accomplish this, *process technology tools* have been developed to help software organizations analyze their current process, organize work tasks, control and monitor progress, and manage technical quality.

Process technology tools allow a software organization to build an automated model of the process framework, task sets, and umbrella activities discussed in Section 2.1. The model, normally represented as a network, can then be analyzed to determine typical workflow and examine alternative process structures that might lead to reduced development time or cost.

Once an acceptable process has been created, other process technology tools can be used to allocate, monitor, and even control all software engineering activities, actions, and tasks defined as part of the process model. Each member of a software team can use such tools to develop a checklist of work tasks to be performed, work products to be produced, and quality assurance activities to be conducted. The process technology tool can also be used to coordinate the use of other software engineering tools that are appropriate for a particular work task.

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<sup>24</sup> In Chapter 3 I discuss the importance of “self-organizing” teams as a key element in agile software development.

## SOFTWARE TOOLS



### Process Modeling Tools

**Objective:** If an organization works to improve a business (or software) process, it must first understand it. Process modeling tools (also called *process technology* or *process management* tools) are used to represent the key elements of a process so that it can be better understood. Such tools can also provide links to process descriptions that help those involved in the process to understand the actions and work tasks that are required to perform it. Process modeling tools provide links to other tools that provide support to defined process activities.

**Mechanics:** Tools in this category allow a team to define the elements of a unique process model (actions, tasks, work products, QA points), provide detailed guidance on

the content or description of each process element, and then manage the process as it is conducted. In some cases, the process technology tools incorporate standard project management tasks such as estimating, scheduling, tracking, and control.

#### Representative Tools:<sup>25</sup>

*Igrafx Process Tools*—tools that enable a team to map, measure, and model the software process ([www.micrografx.com](http://www.micrografx.com))

*Adeptia BPM Server*—designed to manage, automate, and optimize business processes ([www.adeptia.com](http://www.adeptia.com))

*SpeedDev Suite*—a collection of six tools with a heavy emphasis on the management of communication and modeling activities ([www.speeddev.com](http://www.speeddev.com))

## 2.8 PRODUCT AND PROCESS

If the process is weak, the end product will undoubtedly suffer. But an obsessive over-reliance on process is also dangerous. In a brief essay written many years ago, Margaret Davis [Dav95a] makes timeless comments on the duality of product and process:

About every ten years give or take five, the software community redefines “the problem” by shifting its focus from product issues to process issues. Thus, we have embraced structured programming languages (product) followed by structured analysis methods (process) followed by data encapsulation (product) followed by the current emphasis on the Software Engineering Institute’s Software Development Capability Maturity Model (process) [followed by object-oriented methods, followed by agile software development].

While the natural tendency of a pendulum is to come to rest at a point midway between two extremes, the software community’s focus constantly shifts because new force is applied when the last swing fails. These swings are harmful in and of themselves because they confuse the average software practitioner by radically changing what it means to perform the job let alone perform it well. The swings also do not solve “the problem” for they are doomed to fail as long as product and process are treated as forming a dichotomy instead of a duality.

There is precedence in the scientific community to advance notions of duality when contradictions in observations cannot be fully explained by one competing theory or another. The dual nature of light, which seems to be simultaneously particle and wave, has been accepted since the 1920s when Louis de Broglie proposed it. I believe that the

<sup>25</sup> Tools noted here do not represent an endorsement, but rather a sampling of tools in this category. In most cases, tool names are trademarked by their respective developers.

observations we can make on the artifacts of software and its development demonstrate a fundamental duality between product and process. You can never derive or understand the full artifact, its context, use, meaning, and worth if you view it as only a process or only a product . . .

All of human activity may be a process, but each of us derives a sense of self-worth from those activities that result in a representation or instance that can be used or appreciated either by more than one person, used over and over, or used in some other context not considered. That is, we derive feelings of satisfaction from reuse of our products by ourselves or others.

Thus, while the rapid assimilation of reuse goals into software development potentially increases the satisfaction software practitioners derive from their work, it also increases the urgency for acceptance of the duality of product and process. Thinking of a reusable artifact as only product or only process either obscures the context and ways to use it or obscures the fact that each use results in product that will, in turn, be used as input to some other software development activity. Taking one view over the other dramatically reduces the opportunities for reuse and, hence, loses the opportunity for increasing job satisfaction.

People derive as much (or more) satisfaction from the creative process as they do from the end product. An artist enjoys the brush strokes as much as the framed result. A writer enjoys the search for the proper metaphor as much as the finished book. As creative software professional, you should also derive as much satisfaction from the process as the end product. The duality of product and process is one important element in keeping creative people engaged as software engineering continues to evolve.

## 2.9 SUMMARY

A generic process model for software engineering encompasses a set of framework and umbrella activities, actions, and work tasks. Each of a variety of process models can be described by a different process flow—a description of how the framework activities, actions, and tasks are organized sequentially and chronologically. Process patterns can be used to solve common problems that are encountered as part of the software process.

Prescriptive process models have been applied for many years in an effort to bring order and structure to software development. Each of these models suggests a somewhat different process flow, but all perform the same set of generic framework activities: communication, planning, modeling, construction, and deployment.

Sequential process models, such as the waterfall and V models, are the oldest software engineering paradigms. They suggest a linear process flow that is often inconsistent with modern realities (e.g., continuous change, evolving systems, tight time lines) in the software world. They do, however, have applicability in situations where requirements are well defined and stable.

Incremental process models are iterative in nature and produce working versions of software quite rapidly. Evolutionary process models recognize the iterative, incremental nature of most software engineering projects and are designed to accommodate change. Evolutionary models, such as prototyping and the spiral model, produce incremental work products (or working versions of the software) quickly. These models can be adopted to apply across all software engineering activities—from concept development to long-term system maintenance.

The concurrent process model allows a software team to represent iterative and concurrent elements of any process model. Specialized models include the component-based model that emphasizes component reuse and assembly; the formal methods model that encourages a mathematically based approach to software development and verification; and the aspect-oriented model that accommodates crosscutting concerns spanning the entire system architecture. The Unified Process is a “use case driven, architecture-centric, iterative and incremental” software process designed as a framework for UML methods and tools.

Personal and team models for the software process have been proposed. Both emphasize measurement, planning, and self-direction as key ingredients for a successful software process.

## PROBLEMS AND POINTS TO PONDER

**2.1.** In the introduction to this chapter Baetjer notes: “The process provides interaction between users and designers, between users and evolving tools, and between designers and evolving tools [technology].” List five questions that (a) designers should ask users, (b) users should ask designers, (c) users should ask themselves about the software product that is to be built, (d) designers should ask themselves about the software product that is to be built and the process that will be used to build it.

**2.2.** Try to develop a set of actions for the communication activity. Select one action and define a task set for it.

**2.3.** A common problem during **communication** occurs when you encounter two stakeholders who have conflicting ideas about what the software should be. That is, you have mutually conflicting requirements. Develop a process pattern (this would be a stage pattern) using the template presented in Section 2.1.3 that addresses this problem and suggest an effective approach to it.

**2.4.** Do some research on PSP and present a brief presentation that describes the types of measurements that an individual software engineer is asked to make and how those measurement can be used to improve personal effectiveness.

**2.5.** The use of “scripts” (a required mechanism in TSP) is not universally praised within the software community. Make a list of pros and cons regarding scripts and suggest at least two situations in which they would be useful and another two situations where they might provide less benefit.

**2.6.** Read [Nog00] and write a two- or three-page paper that discusses the impact of “chaos” on software engineering.

**2.7.** Provide three examples of software projects that would be amenable to the waterfall model. Be specific.

- 2.8.** Provide three examples of software projects that would be amenable to the prototyping model. Be specific.
- 2.9.** What process adaptations are required if the prototype will evolve into a deliverable system or product?
- 2.10.** Provide three examples of software projects that would be amenable to the incremental model. Be specific.
- 2.11.** As you move outward along the spiral process flow, what can you say about the software that is being developed or maintained?
- 2.12.** Is it possible to combine process models? If so, provide an example.
- 2.13.** The concurrent process model defines a set of “states.” Describe what these states represent in your own words, and then indicate how they come into play within the concurrent process model.
- 2.14.** What are the advantages and disadvantages of developing software in which quality is “good enough”? That is, what happens when we emphasize development speed over product quality?
- 2.15.** Provide three examples of software projects that would be amenable to the component-based model. Be specific.
- 2.16.** It is possible to prove that a software component and even an entire program is correct. So why doesn't everyone do this?
- 2.17.** Are the Unified Process and UML the same thing? Explain your answer.

## FURTHER READINGS AND INFORMATION SOURCES

Most software engineering textbooks consider traditional process models in some detail. Books by Sommerville (*Software Engineering*, 8th ed., Addison-Wesley, 2006), Pfleeger and Atlee (*Software Engineering*, 3d ed., Prentice-Hall, 2005), and Schach (*Object-Oriented and Classical Software Engineering*, 7th ed., McGraw-Hill, 2006) consider traditional paradigms and discuss their strengths and weaknesses. Glass (*Facts and Fallacies of Software Engineering*, Prentice-Hall, 2002) provides an unvarnished, pragmatic view of the software engineering process. Although not specifically dedicated to process, Brooks (*The Mythical Man-Month*, 2d ed., Addison-Wesley, 1995) presents age-old project wisdom that has everything to do with process.

Firesmith and Henderson-Sellers (*The OPEN Process Framework: An Introduction*, Addison-Wesley, 2001) present a general template for creating “flexible, yet discipline software processes” and discuss process attributes and objectives. Madachy (*Software Process Dynamics*, Wiley-IEEE, 2008) discusses modeling techniques that allow the interrelated technical and social elements of the software process to be analyzed. Sharpe and McDermott (*Workflow Modeling: Tools for Process Improvement and Application Development*, Artech House, 2001) present tools for modeling both software and business processes.

Lim (*Managing Software Reuse*, Prentice Hall, 2004) discusses reuse from a manager's perspective. Ezran, Morisio, and Tully (*Practical Software Reuse*, Springer, 2002) and Jacobson, Griss, and Jonsson (*Software Reuse*, Addison-Wesley, 1997) present much useful information on component-based development. Heineman and Council (*Component-Based Software Engineering*, Addison-Wesley, 2001) describe the process required to implement component-based systems. Kenett and Baker (*Software Process Quality: Management and Control*, Marcel Dekker, 1999) consider how quality management and process design are intimately connected to one another.

Nygaard (*Release It!: Design and Deploy Production-Ready Software*, Pragmatic Bookshelf, 2007) and Richardson and Gwaltney (*Ship it! A Practical Guide to Successful Software Projects*, Pragmatic Bookshelf, 2005) present a broad collection of useful guidelines that are applicable to the deployment activity.

In addition to Jacobson, Rumbaugh, and Booch's seminal book on the Unified Process [Jac99], books by Arlow and Neustadt (*UML 2 and the Unified Process*, Addison-Wesley, 2005), Kroll and Kruchten (*The Rational Unified Process Made Easy*, Addison-Wesley, 2003), and Farve (*UML and the Unified Process*, IRM Press, 2003) provide excellent complementary information. Gibbs (*Project Management with the IBM Rational Unified Process*, IBM Press, 2006) discusses project management within the context of the UP.

A wide variety of information sources on software engineering and the software process are available on the Internet. An up-to-date list of World Wide Web references that are relevant to the software process can be found at the SEPA website: **[www.mhhe.com/engcs/compsci/pressman/professional/olc/ser.htm](http://www.mhhe.com/engcs/compsci/pressman/professional/olc/ser.htm)**.