

Software Engineering

Final Exam

Review

Note: This review supplements the previous reviews, since the final will be cumulative

Chapter 9

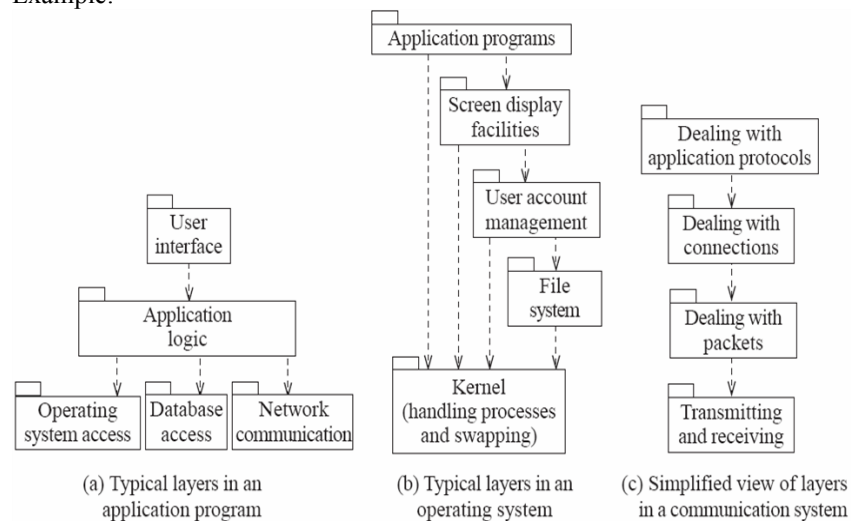
- Design: A problem solving process whose objective is to find and describe a way:
 - Implement the system's functional requirements
 - While respecting the constraints imposed by the non-functional requirements
 - Including the budget
 - And while adhering to the general principles of good quality
- Design Issues
 - Sub-problems of the overall design problem
 - Solutions: design options
- To make decisions, the software engineer uses knowledge of:
 - Requirements
 - Design so far
 - Technology
 - Software design principles
 - What has worked well in the past
- Component: Any piece of software or hardware that has a clear role
- Module: A component that is defined at the programming language level
- System: A logical entity, having a set of definable responsibilities or objectives, and consisting of hardware, software, or both
- Top-down Design
 - First design the very high level structure of the system
 - Then gradually work down to detailed decisions about low-level constructs
 - Finally arrive at detailed decisions such as:
 - The format of particular data items
 - The individual algorithms that will be used
- Bottom-up Design
 - Make decisions about reusable low-level entities
 - Then decide how these will be put together to create high-level constructs
- A mix of top-down and bottom-up approaches are normally used
- Different Aspects of Design
 - Architecture Design: The division into subsystems and components
 - Class Design: The various features of classes
 - User Interface Design
 - Algorithm Design: The design of computational mechanisms
 - Protocol Design: The design of communications protocol
- Principles Leading to Good Design
 - Goals
 - Increase profit by reducing cost and increasing revenue
 - Ensuring that we actually conform with the requirements
 - Accelerating development
 - Increasing RUMER qualities
- Design Principles
 - Divide and Conquer

- Trying to deal with something big all at once is normally much harder than dealing with a series of smaller things
 - Separate people can work on each part
 - An individual software engineer can specialize
 - Each individual component is smaller, and therefore easier to understand
 - Parts can be replaced or changed without having to replace or extensively change other parts
- Ways of Dividing a Software System
 - Distributed system: clients and servers
 - System can be divided up into subsystems
 - Subsystem can be divided up into one or more packages
 - A package is divided up into classes
 - A class is divided up into methods
- Increase Cohesion Where Possible
 - A subsystem or module has high cohesion if it keeps together things that are related to each other, and keeps out other things
 - Functional Cohesion
 - This is achieved when all code that computes a particular result is kept together – and everything else is kept out
 - i.e. When a module only performs a single computation, and returns a result, *without having side-effects*
 - Layer Cohesion
 - All the facilities for providing or accessing a set of related services are kept together, and everything else is kept out
 - The layers should form a hierarchy
 - Commonly organized into an API (Application Programmer Interface)
 - Communicational Cohesion
 - All the modules that access or manipulate certain data are kept together (i.e. in the same class) – and everything else is kept out
 - A class would have good communication cohesion if:
 - All the system's facilities for manipulating and storing its data are contained in this class
 - If the class does not do anything other than manage its data
 - Sequential Cohesion
 - Procedures, in which one procedure provides input to the next, are kept together – and everything else is kept out
 - You should achieve sequential cohesion only after achieving the other types of cohesion
 - Procedural Cohesion
 - Keep together several procedures that are used one after the other
 - Even if one does not provide input to the next
 - Weaker than sequential cohesion
 - Temporal Cohesion
 - Operations that are performed during the same phase of the program are kept together, and everything else is kept out
 - For example, placing together the code used during system start-up or initialization
 - Weaker than procedural cohesion
 - Utility Cohesion
 - When related utilities which cannot logically be placed in other cohesive units are kept together
- Reduce Coupling Where Possible

- Coupling occurs when there are interdependencies between one module and another
- Content Coupling
 - Occurs when one component surreptitiously modifies data that is internal to another component
 - Solution: Encapsulate all instance variables; declare them as private
- Common Coupling
 - Occurs whenever you use a global variable
 - Solution: Use the Singleton pattern where applicable, or simply do not use global variables
- Control Coupling
 - Occurs when one procedure calls another using a 'flag' or 'command' that explicitly controls what the second procedure does
 - Solution: Use polymorphic methods or a lookup table
- Stamp Coupling
 - Occurs whenever one of your application classes is declared as the type of a method argument
 - Solutions: Use an interface as the argument type or pass simple variables (atomic types)
- Data Coupling
 - Occurs whenever the types of method arguments are either primitive or else simple library classes
 - Solution: Do not give methods unnecessary arguments
 - There is a trade-off between data coupling and stamp coupling
 - Increasing one often decreases the other
- Routine Call Coupling
 - Occurs when one routine (or method in an object-oriented system) calls another
 - Routine call coupling is always present in any system
- Type Use Coupling
 - Occurs when a module uses a data type defined in another module
- Inclusion or Import Coupling
 - Occurs when one component imports a package
 - As in Java
 - Or when one component includes another
 - As in C++
- External Coupling
 - When a module has a dependency on such things as the operating system, shared libraries or the hardware
- Keep the Level of Abstraction as High as Possible
 - Ensure that your designs allow you to hide or defer consideration of details, thus reducing complexity
 - A good abstraction is said to provide information hiding
 - Classes are abstractions that contain procedural abstractions
 - Increased by defining all variables as private
 - The fewer public methods in a class, the better the abstraction
 - Superclasses and interfaces increase the level of abstraction
 - Attributes and associations are also abstractions
 - Methods are procedural abstractions
 - Better abstractions are achieved by giving methods fewer parameters
- Increase Reusability Where Possible
 - Design the various aspects of your system so that they can be used again in other contexts

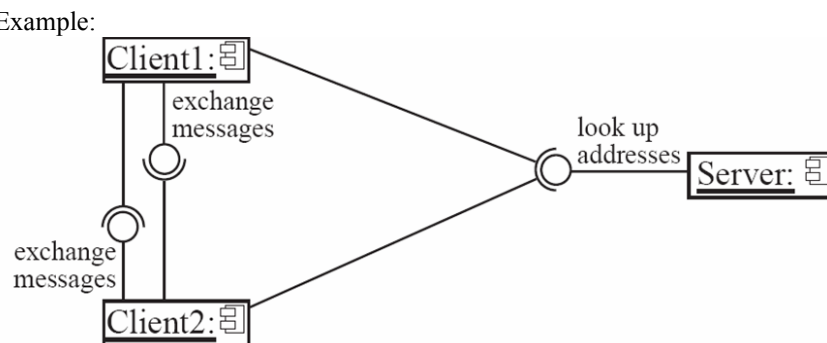
- Reuse Existing Designs and Code Where Possible
 - Design with reuse is complementary to design for reusability
- Design for Flexibility
 - Actively anticipate changes that a design may have to undergo in the future, and prepare for them
 - Reduce coupling, increase cohesion
 - Create abstractions
 - Do not hard-code anything
 - Leave all options open
 - Do not restrict the options of people who have to modify the system later
 - Use reusable code and make code reusable
- Anticipate Obsolescence
 - Plan for changes in technology or environment so the software will continue to run or can be easily changed
- Design for Portability
 - Have the software run on as many platforms as possible
- Design for Testability
 - Take steps to make testing easier
- Design Defensively
 - Never trust how others will try to use a component you are designing
 - Design by Contract
 - A technique that allows you to design defensively in a systematic way
 - Key idea
 - Each method has an explicit contract with its callers
 - Each contract has
 - Preconditions
 - Postconditions
 - Invariants
- Techniques for Making Good Design Decisions
 - Using priorities and objectives to decide among alternatives
 - List and describe the alternatives for the design decision
 - List the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative with respect to objectives and priorities
 - Determine whether any of the alternatives prevents you from meeting one or more of the objectives
 - Choose the alternative that helps you to best meet your objectives
 - Adjust priorities for subsequent decision making
- Software Architecture
 - Software architecture is the process of designing the global organization of a software system, including:
 - Dividing software into subsystems
 - Deciding how these will interact
 - Determining their interfaces
 - Why you need to develop an architectural model:
 - To enable everyone to better understand the system
 - To allow people to work on individual pieces of the system in isolation
 - To prepare for extension of the system
 - To facilitate reuse and reusability
 - Contents of a good architectural model
 - A system's architecture will often be expressed in terms of several different views
 - The logical breakdown into subsystems
 - The interfaces among the subsystems

- The dynamics of the interaction among components at runtime
- The data that will be shared among the subsystems
- The components that will exist at runtime, and the machines or devices on which they will be located
- Design stable architecture
 - To ensure the maintainability and reliability of a system, an architectural model must be designed to be stable
- Developing an architectural model
 - Start by sketching an outline of the architecture
 - Based on the principle requirements and use cases
 - Determine the main components that will be needed
 - Choose among the various architectural patterns
 - Refine the architecture
 - Consider each use case and adjust the architecture to make it realizable
 - Mature the architecture
- Architecture Patterns
 - The notion of patterns can be applied to software architecture
 - The Multi-Layer Architectural Pattern
 - In a layered system, each layer communicates only with the layer immediately below it
 - Each layer has a well defined interface used by the layer immediately above
 - Lower layers: Services
 - A complex system can be built by superimposing layers at increasing levels of abstraction
 - Example:



- Design Principles
 - Divide and Conquer – layers can be independently designed
 - Increase Cohesion – uses layer cohesion
 - Reduce Coupling – Lower level layers do not know about higher level ones; higher level layers access lower level ones through well-defined API's
 - Increase abstraction – You do not need to know how the lower level layers are implemented
 - Increase reusability – Lower level layers can often be designed generically

- Increase reuse – Reuse layers in other applications that provide needed services
 - Increase flexibility – You can add new facilities to lower level layers, or replace higher level ones
 - Anticipate Obsolescence – Isolating components makes the system obsolescent resistant
 - Design for portability – All dependent facilities can be isolated into lower layers
 - Design for testability – Layers can be tested independently
 - Design defensively – API's are natural places to build in rigorous assertion-checking
- Client Server and other Distributed Architectural Patterns
 - At least one component has the role of server, waiting for and then handling connections
 - There is at least one component that has the role of client, initiating connections in order to obtain some service
 - Extension: Peer-to-Peer pattern
 - A system composed of various software components that are distributed over several hosts

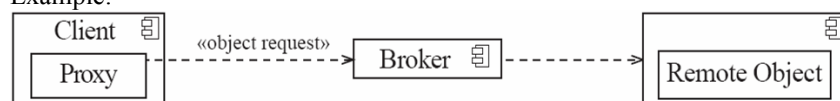


- Design Principles
 - Divide and Conquer – Client and Server systems
 - Increase Cohesion – The server can provide a cohesive service to clients
 - Reduce Coupling – One communication channel exchanging simple messages
 - Increase Abstraction – Separate distributed components are often good abstractions
 - Increase Reuse – Possible to find suitable frameworks to build good distributed systems
 - Design for Flexibility – Easily reconfigured
 - Design for Portability – Write clients for new platforms without having to port the server
 - Design for Testability – Test clients and servers independently
 - Design Defensively – You can put rigorous checks into the message handling code

- Broker Architectural Pattern

- Transparently distribute aspects of the software system to different nodes

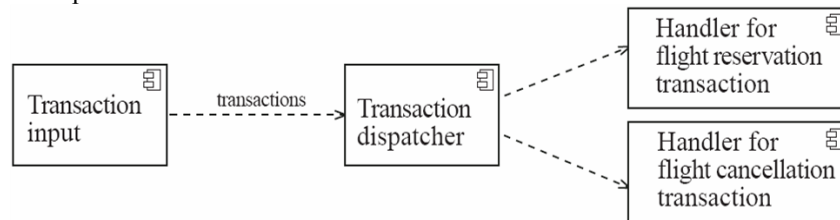
- Example:



- Design Principles

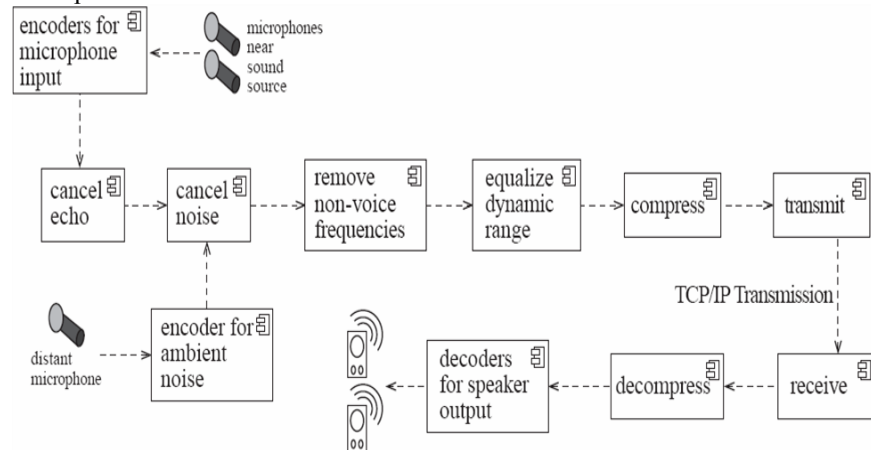
- Divide and Conquer – Remote objects can be independently designed

- Increase Reusability – Possible to design remote objects so that other systems can use them too
 - Increase Reuse – You may be able to reuse remote objects that others have created
 - Design for Flexibility – Brokers can be updated as required, or the proxy can communicate with a different remote object
 - Design for Portability – Can write clients for new platforms while still accessing brokers and remote objects on other platforms
 - Design Defensively – You can provide careful assertion checking in the remote objects
- Transaction-Processing Architectural Pattern
 - A process reads a series of inputs one by one
 - Each input describes a transaction
 - There is a transaction dispatcher component that decides what to do with each transaction
 - This dispatches a procedure call or message to one of a series of components that will handle the transaction
 - Example:



- Design Principles
 - Divide and Conquer – Transaction handlers are suitable system divisions
 - Increase Cohesion – Transaction handlers are naturally cohesive units
 - Reduce Coupling – Separating the dispatcher from the handler tends to reduce coupling
 - Design for Flexibility – You can readily add new transaction handlers
 - Design Defensively – You can add assertion checking in each transaction handler and/or in the dispatcher
- The Pipe-and-Filter Architectural Pattern
 - A stream of data, in a relatively simple format, is passed through a series of processes
 - Each process transforms the data in some way
 - The data is constantly fed into the pipeline
 - The processes work concurrently
 - The architecture is very flexible

▪ Example:

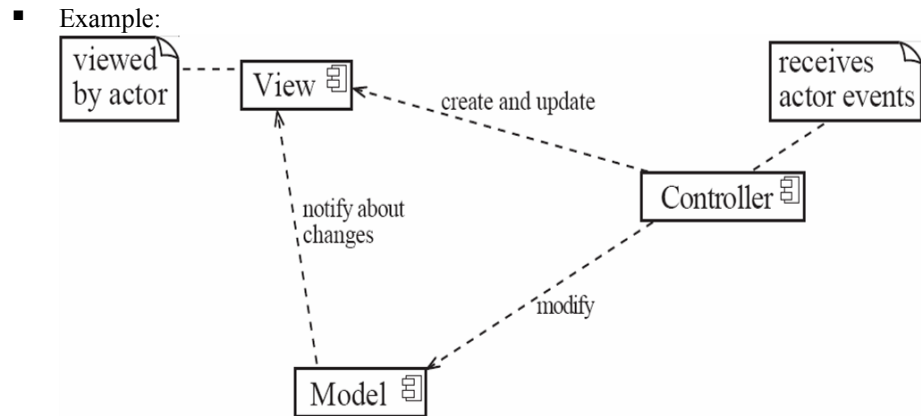


▪ Design Principles

- Divide and Conquer – Separate processes can be independently designed
- Increase Cohesion – The processes have functional cohesion
- Reduce Coupling – The processes have only one input and one output
- Increase Abstraction – Pipeline components are often good abstractions
- Increase Reusability – The processes can be used in many different contexts
- Increase Reuse – It is often possible to find reusable components to insert into a pipeline
- Design for Flexibility – There are several ways in which the system is flexible
- Design for Testability – It is normally easy to test the individual processes
- Design Defensively – You rigorously check the inputs of each component, or you can use design by contract

○ The Model-View-Controller (MVC) Architectural Pattern

- An architectural pattern used to help separate the user interface layer from other parts of the system
 - Model – Underlying classes whose instances are to be viewed and manipulated
 - View – Contains objects used to render the appearance of the data from the model in the user interface
 - Controller – Contains the objects that control and handle the user's interaction with the view and the model
 - The Observable design pattern is normally used to separate the model from the view



- Design Principles
 - Divide and Conquer – The three components can be somewhat independently designed
 - Increase Cohesion – The components have stronger layer cohesion than if the view and controller were together in a single UI layer
 - Reduce Coupling – The communication channels between the three components are minimal
 - Increase Reuse – The view and the controller normally make extensive use of reusable components for various kinds of UI controls
 - Design for Flexibility – It is usually quite easy to change the UI by changing the view, the controller, or both
 - Design for Testability – You can test the application separate from the UI

Chapter 10

- Basic Definitions
 - Failure: Unacceptable behavior exhibited by a system
 - Frequency of failures measures the reliability
 - Design goal: achieve low failure rate, thus ensuring high reliability
 - A failure can result from a violation of an explicit or implicit requirement
 - Defect: A flaw in any aspect of the system that contributes, or may potentially contribute, to the occurrence of one or more failures
 - Error: A slip-up or inappropriate decision by a software developer that leads to the introduction of a defect
- Effective and Efficient Testing
 - To test effectively, you must use a strategy that uncovers as many defects as possible
 - To test efficiently, you must find the largest possible number of defects using the fewest possible tests
- Black-box Testing
 - Testers provide the system with inputs and observe the outputs
 - They can see none of
 - The source code
 - The internal data
 - Any of the design documentation describing the system's internals
- Glass-box Testing
 - Also called 'white-box' or 'structural' testing
 - Testers have access to the system design
 - They can
 - Examine the design documents

- View the code
 - Observe at run time the steps taken by algorithms and their internal data
- Individual programmers often informally employ glass-box testing to verify their own code
- Equivalence Classes
 - Inappropriate to test by brute force, using every possible input value
 - You should divide the possible inputs into groups which you believe will be treated similarly by all algorithms
 - Such groups are called equivalence classes
 - Examples
 - Valid input number: (1 – 12)
 - Equivalence Classes are: [-inf..0], [1..12], [13..inf]
 - Valid input is one of ten strings representing a type of fuel
 - Equivalence Classes are
 - 10 classes, one for each string
 - A class representing all other strings
- Detecting Specific Categories of Defects
 - A tester must try to uncover any defects the other software engineers might have introduced
 - This means designing tests that explicitly try to catch a range of specific types of defects that commonly occur
- Defects in Ordinary Algorithms
 - Incorrect Logical Conditions
 - Defect:
 - The logical conditions that govern looping and if-then-else statements are wrongfully formatted
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Use equivalence class and boundary testing
 - Consider as an input each variable used in a rule or logical condition
 - Performing a Calculation in the Wrong Part of a Control Construct
 - Defect:
 - The program performs an action when it should not, or does not perform an action when it should
 - Typically caused by inappropriately excluding or including the action from a loop or an if construct
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Design tests that execute each loop zero times, exactly once, and more than once
 - Anything that could happen while looping is made to occur on the first, an intermediate, and the last iteration
 - Not Terminating a Loop or Recursion
 - Defect:
 - A loop or recursion does not always terminate, i.e. it is 'infinite'
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Analyze what causes a repetitive action to be stopped
 - Run test cases that you anticipate might not be handled correctly
 - Not Setting Up the Correct Preconditions for an Algorithm
 - Defect:
 - Preconditions state what must be true before the algorithm should be executed
 - A defect would exist if the program proceeds to do its work, even when the preconditions are not satisfied
 - Testing Strategy:

- Run test cases in which each precondition is not satisfied
- Not Handling Null Conditions
 - Defect:
 - A null condition is a situation where there are normally one or more data items to process, but sometimes there are none
 - It is a defect when a program behaves abnormally when a null condition is encountered
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Brainstorm to determine unusual conditions and run appropriate tests
- Not Handling Singleton or Non-singleton Conditions
 - Defect:
 - A singleton condition occurs when there is normally more than one of something, but sometimes there is only one
 - A non-singleton is the inverse
 - Defects occur when the unusual case is not properly handled
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Brainstorm to determine unusual conditions and run appropriate tests
- Off-by-one Errors
 - Defect:
 - A program inappropriately adds or subtracts one
 - Or loops one too many times or one too few times
 - This is a particularly common type of defect
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Develop tests in which you verify that the program:
 - Computes the correct numerical answer
 - Performs the correct number of iterations
- Operator Precedence Errors
 - Defect:
 - An operator precedence error occurs when a programmer omits needed parentheses, or puts parentheses in the wrong place
 - Operator precedence errors are often extremely obvious
 - But can occasionally lie hidden until special conditions arise
 - E.g. If $x * y + z$ should be $x * (y + z)$ this would be hidden if z was normally zero
 - Testing Strategy:
 - In software that computes formulae, run tests that anticipate such defects
- Use of Inappropriate Standard Algorithms
 - Defect:
 - An inappropriate standard algorithm is one that is unnecessarily inefficient or has some other property that is widely recognized as being bad
 - Testing Strategies:
 - The tester has to know properties of algorithms and design tests that will determine whether any undesirable algorithms have been implemented
 - Examples:
 - An inefficient sort algorithm
 - The most classical choice 'bad' choice of algorithm is sorting using a so-called 'bubble sort'
 - An inefficient search algorithm
 - Ensure that the search time does not increase unacceptably as the list gets longer

- Check that the position of the searched item does not have a noticeable impact on search time
 - A non-stable sort
 - A search or sort that is case sensitive when it should not be, or vice versa
- Defects in Numerical Algorithms
 - Not using enough bits or digits
 - Defect:
 - A system does not use variables capable of representing the largest values that could be stored
 - When the capacity is exceeded, an unexpected exception is thrown, or the data stored is incorrect
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Test using very large numbers to ensure the system has a wide enough margin of error
 - Not using enough places after the decimal point or significant figures
 - Defects:
 - A floating point value might not have the capacity to store enough significant figures
 - A fixed point value might not store enough places after the decimal point
 - A typical manifestation is excessive rounding
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Perform calculations that involve many significant figures, and large differences in magnitude
 - Verify that the calculated results are correct
 - Ordering operations poorly so errors build up
 - Defect:
 - A large number does not store enough significant figures to be able to accurately represent the result
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Make sure the program works with inputs that have large positive and negative exponents
 - Have the program work with numbers that vary a lot in magnitude
 - Make sure computations are still accurately performed
 - Assuming a floating point value will be exactly equal to some other value
 - Defect:
 - If you perform an arithmetic calculation on a floating point value, then the result will very rarely be computed exactly
 - To test quality, you should always test if it is within a small range around that value
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Standard boundary testing should detect this type of defect
- Defects in Timing and Co-ordination
 - Deadlock and livelock
 - Defects:
 - A deadlock is a situation where two or more threads are stopped, waiting for each other to do something
 - The system is hung
 - Livelock is similar, but now the system can do some computations, but can never get out of some states
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Deadlocks and livelocks occur due to unusual combinations of conditions that are hard to anticipate or reproduce

- It is often most effectual to use inspection to detect such defects, rather than testing alone
 - However, when testing
 - Vary the time consumption of different threads
 - Run a large number of threads concurrently
 - Deliberately deny resources to one or more threads
- Critical races
 - Defects:
 - One thread experiences a failure because another thread interferes with the 'normal' sequence of events
 - Testing Strategies:
 - It is particularly hard to test for critical races using black box testing alone
 - One possible, although invasive, strategy is to deliberately slow down one of the threads
 - Use inspection
- Semaphore and synchronization
 - Critical races can be prevented by locking data so that they cannot be accessed by other threads when they are not ready
 - One widely used locking mechanism is called a semaphore
 - In Java, the synchronized keyword can be used
 - It ensures that no other thread can access an object until the synchronized method terminates
- Defects in Handling Stress and Unusual Situations
 - Insufficient throughput or response time on minimal configurations
 - Defect:
 - On a minimal configuration, the system's throughput or response time fails to meet requirements
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Perform testing using minimally configured platforms
 - Incompatible with specific configurations of hardware or software
 - Defect:
 - The system fails if it is run using particular configurations of hardware, operating systems, and external libraries
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Extensively execute the system with all possible configurations that might be encountered by users
 - Defects in handling peak loads or missing resources
 - Defects:
 - The system does not gracefully handle resource shortage
 - Resources that might be in short supply include:
 - Memory, disk space or network bandwidth, permission
 - The program being tested should report the problem in a way the user will understand
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Devise a method of denying resources
 - Run a very large number of copies of the program being tested, all at the same time
 - Inappropriate management of resources
 - Defect:
 - A program uses certain resources but does not make them available when it no longer needs them
 - Testing Strategy:

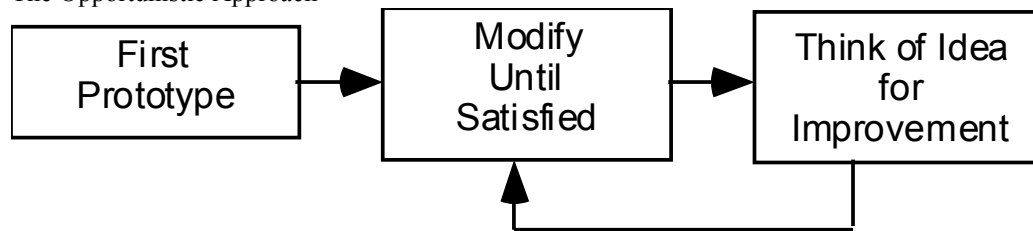
- Run the program intensively in such a way that it uses many resources, relinquishes them and then uses them again repeatedly
 - Defects in the process of recovering from a crash
 - Defects:
 - Any system will undergo a sudden failure if its hardware fails, or if its power is turned off
 - It is a defect if the system is left in an unstable state and hence is unable to fully recover
 - It is also a defect if a system does not correctly deal with the crashes of related systems
 - Testing Strategies:
 - Kill a program at various times during execution
 - Try turning the power off, however operating systems themselves are often intolerant of doing that
- Documentation Defects
 - Defect:
 - The software has a defect if the user manual, reference manual, or on-line help:
 - Gives incorrect information
 - Fails to give information relevant to a problem
 - Testing Strategy:
 - Examine all the end-user documentation, making sure it is correct
 - Work through the use cases, making sure that each of them is adequately explained to the user
- Writing Formal Test Cases and Test Plans
 - A test case is an explicit set of instructions designed to detect a particular class of defect in a software system
 - A test plan is a document that contains a complete set of test cases for a system
 - Along with other information about the testing process
 - The test plan is one of the standard forms of documentation
 - The test plan should be written long before testing starts
- Strategies for Testing Large Systems
 - Big bang testing versus integration testing
 - In big bang testing, you take the entire system and test it as a unit
 - A better strategy in most cases is incremental testing
 - You test each individual subsystem in isolation
 - Continue testing as you add more and more subsystems to the final product
 - Top-down Testing
 - Start by testing just the user interface
 - The underlying functionality are simulated by stubs
 - Then you work downwards, integrating lower and lower layers
 - The big drawback to top-down testing is the cost of writing the stubs
 - Bottom-up Testing
 - Start by testing the very lowest levels of the software
 - You need drivers to test the lower layers of software
 - Drivers in bottom-up testing have a similar role to stubs in top-down testing, and are time-consuming to write
 - Sandwich Testing
 - A hybrid between bottom-up and top-down testing
 - Test the user interface in isolation, using stubs
 - Test the very lowest level functions, using drivers
 - When the complete system is integrated, only the middle layer remains on which to perform the final set of tests
- The Test-Fix-Test Cycle

- When a failure occurs during testing:
 - Failure is reported into a failure tracking system
 - Screened, assigned a priority
 - Low-level priorities are often put in a known-bugs list and released with the software to be fixed later
 - Someone is assigned to investigate the failure
 - That person tracks down the defect and fixes it
 - Finally a new version of the system is created, ready to be tested again
- The Ripple Effect
 - There is a high probability that the efforts to remove the defects may have actually added new defects
- Regression Testing
 - It tends to be far too expensive to re-run every single test case every time a change is made to the software
 - Hence only a subset of the previously-successful test cases is actually re-run
 - This is called regression testing
 - The “law of the conservation of bugs”
 - The number of bugs remaining in a large system is proportional to the number of bugs already fixed
- Inspections
 - An inspection is an activity in which one or more people systematically
 - Examine source code or documentation, looking for defects
 - Normally, inspection involves a meeting...
 - Although participants can also inspect alone at their desks

Chapter 11

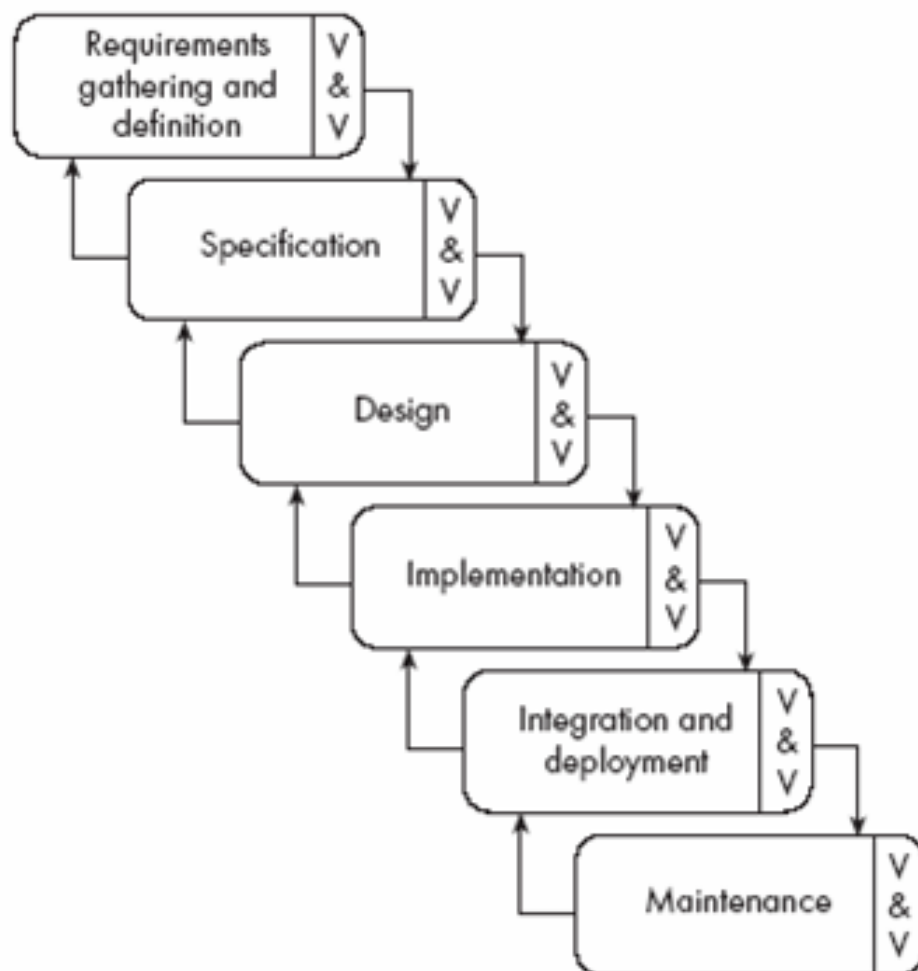
- What is project management?
 - Project management encompasses all the activities needed to plan and execute a project:
 - Deciding what needs to be done
 - Estimating costs
 - Ensuring there are suitable people to undertake the project
 - Defining responsibilities
 - Scheduling
 - Making arrangements for work
 - Directing
 - Being a technical leader
 - Reviewing and approving decisions made by others
 - Building morale and supporting staff
 - Monitoring and controlling
 - Coordinating the work with managers of other projects
 - Reporting
 - Continually striving to improve the process
- Software Process Models
 - Software process models are general approaches for organizing a project into activities
 - The models should be seen as aids to thinking, not rigid prescriptions of the way to do things
 - Each project ends up with its own unique plan

- The Opportunistic Approach



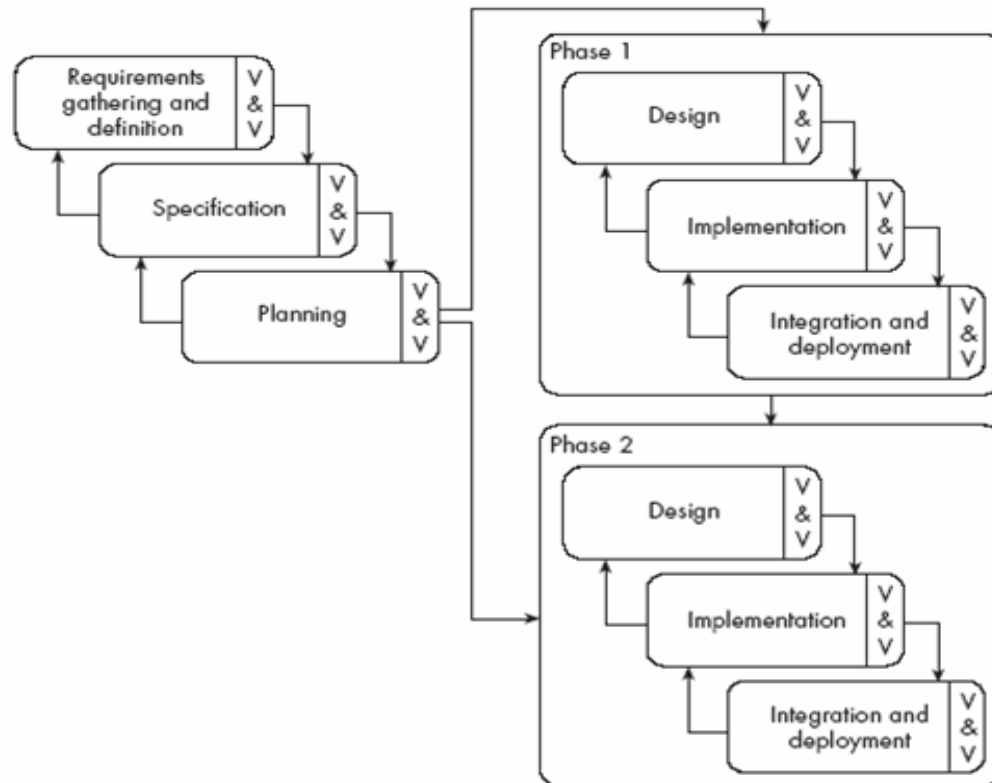
- ... is what occurs when an organization does not follow good engineering practices
 - It does not stress the importance of working out requirements and a design first
 - The design of software deteriorates if it is not well designed
 - No plans = no aim
 - No recognition of a need for systematic testing

- The Waterfall Model



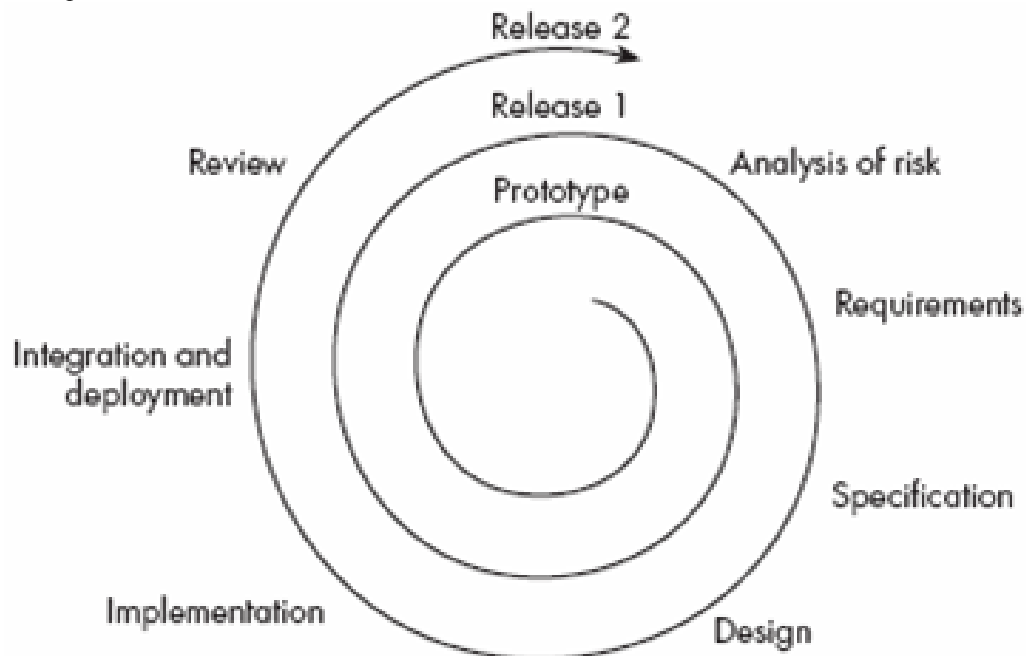
- The classic way of looking at S.E. that accounts for the importance of requirements, design and quality assurance
 - The model suggests that software engineers should work in a series of stages
 - Before the complete each stage, they should complete quality assurance (verification and validation)
 - The waterfall model also recognizes, to a limited extent, that you sometimes have to step back to earlier stages
- Limitations of the Waterfall Model

- Suggests you should complete a stage before moving on to the next
 - Doesn't account for requirements changing
 - Customers cannot use anything until the entire system is complete
 - Makes no allowances for prototyping
 - Implies you can get the requirements right by simply writing them down and reviewing them
 - Implies that once the product is finished, everything else is maintenance
- The Phased-Release Model



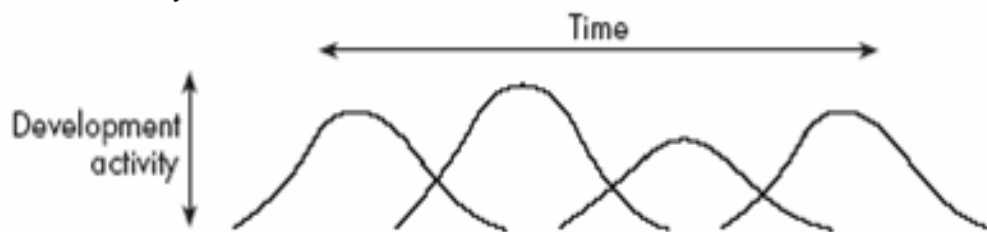
- It introduces the notion of incremental development
 - After requirements gathering and planning, the project should be broken up into separate subprojects, or phases
 - Each phase can be released to customers when ready
 - However, continues to suggest that all requirements be finalized at the start of development

- The Spiral Model



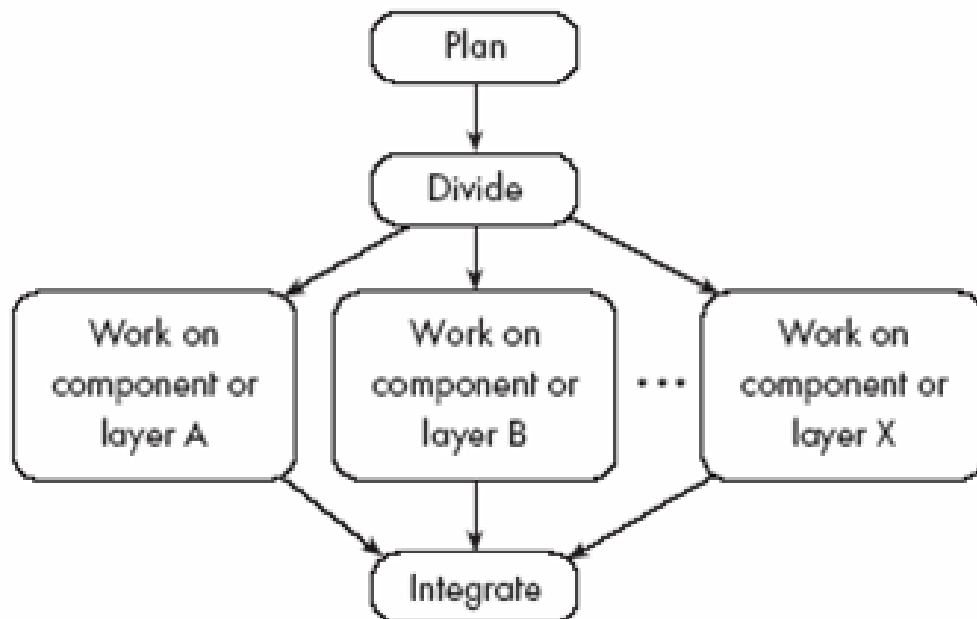
- It explicitly embraces prototyping and an iterative approach to software development
 - Start by developing a small prototype
 - Followed by a mini-waterfall process, primarily to gather requirements
 - Then, the first prototype is reviewed
 - In subsequent loops, the project team performs further requirements, design, implementation and review
 - First thing to do before embarking on a new loop: risk analysis
 - Maintenance is simply a type of on-going development

- The Evolutionary Model



- It shows software development as a series of hills, each representing a separate loop of the spiral
 - Shows that loops, or releases, tend to overlap each other
 - Makes it clear that development work tends to reach a peak, at around the time of the deadline for completion
 - Shows that each prototype or release can take
 - Different amounts of time to deliver
 - Differing amounts of effort

- The Concurrent Engineering Model



- It explicitly accounts for the divide and conquer principle
- Choosing a Process Model
 - From the Waterfall Model:
 - Incorporate the notion of stages
 - From the Phased-Release Model:
 - Incorporate the notion of doing some high-level analysis, and then dividing the project into releases
 - From the Spiral Model:
 - Incorporate prototyping and risk analysis
 - From the Evolutionary Model:
 - Incorporate the notion of varying amounts of time and work, with overlapping releases
 - From the Concurrent Engineering Model:
 - Incorporate the notion of breaking the system down into components and developing them in parallel