Evaluation Criteria for Real-Time Specification Languages

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We develop a set of general evaluation criteria for (formal or informal) real-time specification languages. These criteria cover important properties of a specification (applicability to real-time systems, completeness, etc.) as well as techniques for analyzing those properties (verification, traceability, etc.). These general criteria are intended as a guide to development of more specific criteria during actual evaluations of languages.
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1. Introduction

This report proposes a set of evaluation criteria for languages designed to specify the requirements of real-time systems. It is intended for a reader who is beginning a real-time development project and considering a method or language for capturing the system's requirements. We assume the reader is familiar with at least some real-time specification languages and with the characteristics that distinguish real-time systems from others. Specification languages, for the purpose of this study, include both highly formal languages (having at least a formal syntax) as well as informal ones. We include technical criteria we believe may be formally evaluated, such as the ability to verify timing properties; we also include criteria of a more subjective nature, such as readability and ease of use. For each we include a list of key questions that a developer may use to help evaluate a candidate language.

Not surprisingly, the criteria are not unrelated, although how they affect each other varies from case to case. For example, increasing the formality of a language may increase or decrease the readability of the specification. A language with a strong conceptual construct and high applicability to real-time systems probably produces a very concise specification, which may be easier to modify, but an overly concise specification (or an overly verbose one) may have very poor readability.

We do not provide value rankings for the criteria, because the value varies with projects. For example, ease of learning would be more important to a project staffed with unskilled or inexperienced personnel than one with seasoned veterans; sophisticated support tools may be irrelevant to a project without the computing resources to exploit them.

We do not at this time provide objective measurement procedures for the criteria. For some criteria, derivation of measurements represents an obvious continuation of this work and is beyond the scope of the current effort. For others, it isn't clear that finding an objective measure is feasible. In any case, we believe that the identification of the criteria is useful in its own right. It should motivate the project manager to think about long-term issues and provide a justification framework for choosing a particular language and rejecting others.

The evaluation criteria are presented in two sections. Section 2 suggests language features that support desirable properties of the finished product—the requirements specification. Section 3 proposes language features that facilitate the process by which the specification is produced. A brief summary appears in Section 4. A bibliography and glossary relevant to real-time system specification conclude this report.

2. Product-Oriented Criteria

The product under consideration is the requirements specification. The purpose of a requirements specification language is to establish a syntactic and semantic context in which to develop that product. The purpose of a requirements specification is to define all acceptable implementations of a system and to specify any constraints on its implementation [Heitmeyer and McLean 1983]. We take as axiomatic that a requirements specification should be
unambiguous, complete, verifiable, consistent, easy to change, traceable, and usable during development, operation, and maintenance [ANSI/IEEE Std 830-1984]. A specification language must at least permit such properties in a requirements specification. It might guarantee them (by making it impossible to produce a product without them); it might simply encourage them (by providing features designed to ease their rendering). Note that a language that guarantees a good product need not be the best choice; it might, for instance, be prohibitively hard to use.

In the following subsections, we suggest evaluation criteria related to the production of high-quality requirements specifications in the context of real-time systems.

2.1. Applicability to Real-Time Systems

Since real-time systems, by definition, must respond to events under some timing constraints, it is imperative that the language for rendering real-time specifications be able to express such timing requirements. The existence of a model for timing in the requirements specification language, and the notation for expressing timing constraints is the primary issue that sets real-time and non-real-time specification languages apart. The timing model may be based upon either continuous or discrete time. Furthermore, soft real-time systems deal with stochastic performance models; their requirements are written in terms of a some minimum number of times that a real-time deadline must be met. By contrast, hard real-time systems use deterministic models; their minimum required rate for satisfying a deadline is 100%. Some systems, such as the Space Shuttle, combine aspects of both soft and hard real-time: a set of primary or high-priority tasks must always meet their deadlines, whereas it is permissible for less important tasks to fail to complete from time to time.

It is not sufficient that requirements for real-time systems express only an ordering of events, system responses, etc.; they must also express absolute and relative time intervals from a fixed starting point. Timing constraints should be stated only in terms of events that are externally visible at the system level. To achieve this goal the model of the system environment embraced by the language must be complete and well-defined.

Some specification languages suitable for real-time systems may have semantics for parallelism, which some real-time applications may need. The semantics of parallelism in the specification language may use either a maximal parallelism model or an interleaving model. Maximal parallelism allows any number of events to occur simultaneously, as in the real world. The interleaving model, on the other hand, forces simultaneous events to be sequentialized artificially. Interleaving is considered inadequate by some for handling certain situations involving simultaneity in a meaningful manner [Mok 1991]. Others find that it is possible to incorporate time into an interleaving model to represent real-time adequately [Ostroff 1989].

Key questions about the applicability of the language to real-time systems, then, include:

1. Can the language express absolute and relative timing constraints?
2. Is the language's model of time discrete or continuous?
3. Can timing constraints be expressed only in terms of events observable to the system in its operating environment?
Can the language express stochastic requirements for deadline satisfaction?

Can the language express what is required to occur if a timing constraint is missed?

Can the language express parallelism? Does it use the true or interleaved model of parallelism?

2.2. Representing the Conceptual Construct

A major concern in representing a set of requirements is capturing the essential properties or conceptual construct [Brooks 1987] of a system while leaving unspecified those details that do not affect validity. The specification should serve as an abstraction representing exactly the set of all valid implementations, and neither overspecify (provide details that are not requirements) nor underspecify (omit details that are requirements). A specification should say what is required of the system and not how that system is implemented, i.e., it should represent a "black box" with only the externally observable behavior specified [Parnas 1979].

A difficulty in representing the conceptual construct is that inessential artifacts of a specification may be misconstrued as part of the conceptual construct. Such is often the case with specifications that use operational definitions whose details may be misinterpreted as design or implementation constraints. For example, a specification may include parallelism as a conceptual construct, but it would be a premature design-level decision to interpret this as requiring either a parallel system or a distributed system architecture (unless mandated as a constraint). Also undesirable are specification languages that use design-level concepts such as data flow models, because the specifications resulting from such techniques usually imply that a particular component architecture is required. Even though the ideal conceptual construct for a system can at best be subjectively evaluated, it is desirable that a specification language support models and notations that minimize confusion about which constructs are required properties (i.e., external behavior) and which are artifacts of the specification.

Legitimate design and implementation constraints, which tend to decrease the number of potentially valid implementations by limiting choices for designers and implementors, must be handled with care. Different notations may be appropriate for such constraints, since it is important that true constraints not be confused with similar appearing constructs that are only artifacts of the specification.

Families of systems arise anytime when a requirements specification leaves a choice open to the designer or implementor. While implicit choices left to the designer or implementor give rise to families of different implementations, we emphasize explicit requirements constructs that provide additional family concepts:

- Nondeterminism allows for different choices based upon alternate behaviors that are equally suitable.
- Abstract input or output devices define families of systems with common functionality but choice of hardware devices.
- Generic system parameters (analogous to those of the Ada programming language) give rise to families of systems that differ in the values of those system parameters.

Such concepts in a specification tend to increase the number of potentially valid implementations and may make a specification reusable or more easily modified. Language support for families of systems should be flexible enough to include the full range from narrowly defined
single systems with many constraints to general families of systems.

Part of a system's conceptual construct is its operating environment. Developing a real-time system may require extensive modeling of the external environment (such as a timing model for it) in order to describe or analyze the requirements properly. For further discussion of this concern see [Heitmeyer and McLean 1983].

Key questions about capturing a system's conceptual construct, then, include:

1. Does the language lend itself to specifying only what is required, or is it burdened by the need to include irrelevant details or other artifacts of using that language in the specification?

2. Does the language facilitate the representation of program families by allowing abstraction of parameter values, hardware devices, and nondeterminism?

3. Does the language provide for modeling the system's operating environment?

2.3. Formality

As with many of these criteria, formality is a spectrum quality rather than an absolute. A formal specification language has at least a precise, rigorously defined syntax. That means that it is possible to test unambiguously whether a specification is a member of the language or not. In addition, some formal languages have precisely defined semantics. A specification written in such a language has mathematical properties that can be analyzed. More to the point, it can be shown that any system that meets that specification will have certain properties. For example, desired invariants can be derived for most real-time systems; an example invariant is "the valve will always be closed within two seconds of detection of sensor temperature exceeding 212 degrees." Proving that desired invariants are implied by the specification is an indispensable exercise in making sure that the specification is valid.

Formal specifications also have the potential to be processed mechanically; for example, a correctness proof can be checked automatically, even if the proof could not be automatically derived [Liskov and Berzins 1979]. Completeness and consistency checks can be automated because there is a formal definition of both. By contrast, natural language specifications can be processed mechanically only at the most superficial levels, such as simply manipulating various blocks of text. However, the role of natural language commentary should not be overlooked for clarifying the major points of a formal specification or providing background and motivation for the decisions embodied by the formalisms.

Formal specification languages can be judged by the ease with which their specifications can be checked for a range of properties. These properties include completeness, consistency, lack of ambiguity, and verifiability, each of which is discussed below.

2.3.1. Completeness

A requirements specification is complete if it has all the information needed to define at least one system that is acceptable to the customer. This also includes support for any attributes that contribute to completeness, such as robustness—the ability to handle any possible input conditions including errors.

The specification language must tolerate incompleteness in a given requirements specification during development, although the language must also aid in detecting
incompleteness so that it can eventually be eliminated. Certain constructs are needed, such as TBD's, that allow for reasonable analysis of an incomplete specification.

Key questions:
(1) Does the language include rules that define what a complete requirements specification is?
(2) Does the language tolerate incompleteness during development?
(3) Does the language facilitate rapid identification of areas of incompleteness in the specification?

2.3.2. Consistency

Consistency means that no contradiction can be derived from a set of facts. Inconsistent requirements specifications have no systems that satisfy all the requirements. A requirements specification must be internally consistent; that is, no contradiction can be deduced from within the specification. Specification languages should provide some form of internal consistency checking. A requirements specification must also be externally consistent with other products of development, such as the design, implementation, etc. Traceability (see Section 3.3.) can provide some support for external consistency checking.

If formal reasoning is associated with a specification language, then it is desirable that the underlying formal logic system have been shown to be sound. That is, any theorem derived from the specification must be true in the specification model. Although first order predicate logic is sound, special-purpose logics need to be shown to be sound also [Berg et al. 1982]. Formal reasoning is necessary to precisely define and to automate consistency checking.

Key questions:
(1) Does the language contains rules from which mechanical self-consistency checks can be derived?
(2) Does the language provide a means to perform external consistency checks with other products of the development?

2.3.3. Lack of Ambiguity

Ambiguity in a specification leads to more than one meaning, when only one is intended. A specification language should not have ambiguity at either the syntactic or semantic levels. Formal syntax and formal semantics are solutions, since formal constructs usually have unambiguous definitions. However, even the lack of ambiguity found in formal specifications may not prevent misunderstandings, if the reader does not have the appropriate background and experience in the language [Parnas 1979].

Key questions:
(1) Does the language have a formal syntax by which syntactic correctness of a specification can be unambiguously judged?
(2) Is the language semantically ambiguous?
2.3.4. Verifiability

The quality of verifiability refers to the ability to prove that some set of properties holds for a given specification. The ability to verify properties of a specification is one of the most important reasons for using formal specification languages.

Specification languages that can be verified are usually built upon some type of logic. To make verification feasible, it must be automated. Complete automation of verification requires a decidable language, i.e., one whose underlying logic is decidable. Decidable languages, however, may not be able to express all desired requirements concepts that could be expressed via an undecidable language. A compromise using some restricted subset of an undecidable language is generally sought in order to provide the requisite expressiveness. The ultimate goal is to provide an efficient automation of proofs, so that specifiers and verifiers need not be experts in proof techniques.

Key questions:
(1) Does the language have a formal semantics that will allow proofs of invariant correctness?
(2) Is the language based on a logic that has been shown to be decidable?
(3) What is the computational complexity of the automatic proof techniques, if any are provided?

2.4. Constructibility, Expressiveness, and Conciseness

A language is said to be constructible if it is able to express application domain concepts. A special case of constructibility for real-time systems was discussed in Section 2.1. Other concepts may include special language constructs for vehicle position and attitude, chemical reactions, fluid dynamics quantities, etc. The language is said to have high constructibility if (1) the way the specifiers think about the problem domain is reflected in the available constructs and in the way these constructs are combined; or (2) the specification language is expressive. Expressiveness refers to the ability to make statements about many types of properties, and the ability to describe varied functionality. So, for example, even if a particular language is not constructible with respect to both avionics and chemical processing domains because it does not have built-in concepts specific to each one, it may still be expressive enough so that specifiers can easily build suitable specifications for both domains by using more general (domain-independent) built-in features of the language.

Assuming that the language is able to express a construct at all, as discussed above, conciseness refers to its ability to express the construct with a minimum of redundant or irrelevant information. Important features common to many real-time systems, e.g., timing properties, should be expressible directly via a small number of primitives, rather than indirectly in terms of many primitives.

Alternately viewed, conciseness measures the lack of repetition (either actual or conceptual) necessary in a document. The expressive primitives are powerful because they take the bulk of common information from the specification and move it into the semantics of the language. Support for some form of abbreviations (such as macros) can also aid in concise specifications by factoring out repetitive parts of a specification. Avoiding such repetition also promotes consistency within the specification by maintaining a single definition of a concept.
Key questions:

(1) What features of the language are specifically relevant to the problem domain under consideration?
(2) What features of the language are relevant across application domains?
(3) To what degree must information (whether detailed requirements, conceptual background, or semantic constructs) be repeated in a specification written in the language under consideration?
(4) How compact is the expression of information in the language under consideration, compared to that of other languages?

2.5. Scalability

It is important that the specification language can handle scaling up from small, toy problems to production real-time systems. A major difficulty in scalability is that the complexity of large systems increases nonlinearly with the size of the system [Brooks 1987]. The best evidence of language scalability is the existence of previous application of the language to large production-quality real-time systems, along with documented evaluation of the language's tool and methodology support. Lacking such a posteriori evidence, the following a priori criteria can be used:

- The language should support vertical decomposition of a specification from the top level (most abstract) through refinement to additional more detailed levels. Consistency must be maintained among multiple vertical levels that comprise a specification.
- At each level of the vertical decomposition, there should be constructs for partitioning the specification into more manageable work assignments (horizontal decomposition).

Key questions:

(1) Is there testimonial evidence of application of the language and its methodology to production systems?
(2) Does the language support vertical or horizontal decomposition of the system?

2.6. Modifiability

Modifiability is the quality that makes a specification easy to change. Requirements for real-time systems will likely change many times during the evolution of a project due to such factors as changing environment and changing customer needs under complex technological, legal, political, and social pressures [Brooks 1987]. The language must support ease of change throughout the system's evolution.

In general, readability factors, such as indices and cross-referencing or their automated equivalents, contribute to ease of change. Additionally, structuring to facilitate anticipated changes may be beneficial. However, structuring criteria for modifiability may conflict with those for readability and scalability, and require a compromise.

Key questions:

(1) Does the language support browsing facilities (hardcopy or online) that facilitate locating related sections during modification?
(2) Does the language support the documentation of anticipated changes?

2.7. Readability

Readability is a quality that enables individuals in different roles (specifiers, customers, users, verifiers, and implementors) to understand a specification without undue difficulty. Each role has its own perspectives and assumptions, and requires different educational backgrounds, knowledge, and experience. Those portions of the specification relevant to each role should be clearly understandable to each person serving in that role.

The structure of the specification also affects readability. It is preferable that the specification language aid in separating normal processing from error processing. Including indices and cross-references (or online retrieval equivalents) also promotes understanding, as well as modifiability.

Key questions:

(1) Does the language provide for the needs of readers in different roles?
(2) Can specifications be structured for readability (e.g. normal vs. error processing)?
(3) Does the language support browsing (hardcopy or online)?

3. Process-Oriented Criteria

Development of a good specification requires the basic processes of creation, modification, and analysis. The process of creation should be supported by a method that provides guidance to the specifier. Analysis of a specification takes two basic forms. Verification (definition 1 in Glossary) and testing apply to properties such as consistency, timing, security, and reliability that are sufficiently formal to permit objective evaluation. Properties such as readability, maintainability, and suitability of the system to customer needs require a subjective evaluation or validation. Modification and analysis must normally be iterated until there is agreement with the customer that the specification is satisfactory.

At later stages of the life cycle, verification (definition 2) and testing of designs and implementations with respect to the requirements specification will occur. Traceability, as a complement to analysis, provides limited assurance that all requirements have been covered both during specification development and at later stages.

For building large real-time systems, automation of these processes in terms of tools and environment is an overriding concern, as the complexity of such systems is generally unmanageable without tool support.

3.1. Method for Specification Creation and Modification

A requirements specification language either implies or explicitly provides a method by which the language is used to create and modify a specification. The method may consist of a sequence of steps (i.e., suggestions of what to do next), procedures or heuristics for executing each step, rules for evaluating the results, etc. Guidance should be in terms of when to apply various constructs of the language, as well as how to apply these constructs effectively, especially when there may be a choice of applicable constructs. Finally, the guidance should not be so rigid as to encumber the creativity or productivity of the specifier [STARTS 1987].
Ease of use of the method should be evaluated and considered. Ideally, the method should require little formal training and mastery of few unfamiliar or complicated concepts. Of course, the benefits of the method must be weighed against its start-up cost; one might be willing to invest in a long training course if the method seemed likely to deliver significant long-term benefits. A valuable characteristic of a method is to allow decomposition of the specification task into small work assignments so that a team of specifiers can cooperate and at the same time work relatively independently.

The maturity of the method, whether potential, rudimentary, or fully mature, should be an important factor in evaluating the method associated with a specification language [Zave 1991]. Similarly, the level of method support, ranging from no support for a "bare" specification language to a specification language embedded in a methodology that addresses the entire system life cycle, should also be considered. The specification method should also be compatible with other methods used during the system life cycle.

Key questions:
(1) Is guidance or heuristics provided for creating and modifying specifications?
(2) How difficult or expensive is training in the method?
(3) Can the method support division of the specification process into independent work assignments?
(4) How mature is the method?
(5) How does the method integrate with others in the system life cycle?

3.2. Verification and Testing

A verification technique guarantees that a specification satisfies some property for all states of the system, in contrast to testing, which can only show the satisfaction of that property for some states. In evaluating a specification language, one should consider which verification and test procedures have been established, and the level of support via methods and tools to aid in such analyses.

The primary concern is verification and testing techniques that apply directly to the requirements specification; for example, a formal specification may lead to inexpensive automatic test case generation. Verification or testing of designs and implementations versus a specification will occur at later stages of system development, e.g., correctness (definition 1) of an implementation with respect to its specification. Verification and testing techniques at the design and implementation levels should also be factors in evaluating a specification language.

Key questions:
(1) Which verification and test procedures are available at requirements level?
(2) Which verification and test techniques are available during later design and implementation?

3.3. Traceability

Traceability provides for relating objects at one stage of development to objects at the next stage. Tracing between two development steps provides two major forms of compliancy
checks: (1) coverage of the former system by the latter (each former object corresponds to one or more latter objects), and (2) necessity of the latter objects (each latter object corresponds to one or more former objects).

For requirements specification there are two important forms of traceability that should be compatible with a specification language, with traceability links both forward (linking the requirements specification to another work product) and backward (linking that work product back to the requirements specification) [Davis 1990]:

- The requirements specification language should provide a means of tracing each requirement to its manifestation in the design and implementation as a rudimentary form of verification or testing. This should be supplemented by verification and testing for more complete analysis.
- The requirements specification language should provide a means of tracing each requirement to its informal expression by the customer as an aid in validation.

Key questions:
1. Is traceability from informal customer requirements to the requirements specification supported?
2. Is tracing from the requirements specification to design or implementation supported?

3.4. Validation

Validation that a specification satisfies the customer's needs is at present an informal process involving the specifier, the customer, and the requirements specification. Language support for specification properties, such as readability and traceability, can help in this process, as well as support for techniques such as prototyping, scenarios, and specification execution (e.g., step by step execution of a STATEMATE specification that provides visual highlighting of the currently active state [Harel et al. 1990]). Verification or testing of properties, such as timing and safety, provide additional input to the validation process.

Key questions:
1. Which properties (e.g., readability) related to the language aid in validation?
2. Which techniques (e.g., prototyping, specification execution) related to the language aid in validation?

3.5. Tools and Environment

Manual introduction of methods, analyses, and traceability can only provide limited support. To scale up to production systems ultimately requires well-integrated tool support, as could be provided by a CASE environment, simply to cope with the amount of data and its different uses by the people involved in the requirements specification process.

Various quality factors will affect the acceptance of automation in place of manual techniques. Tools and a supporting environment must be cost-effective. Tools should be robust, easy to learn, and easy to use. Furthermore, simple tools (such as syntax-checking editors) may suffice when the major concern is with recording the specification rather than extensive analyses [Place et al. 1990].
Some basic features of tools and environments that should be integrated with a specification language and its related method and analyses include the following:

- The environment should provide a common repository for all requirements and various useful relationships among different types of information. Special-purpose editors (e.g., structured, syntax-directed, graphical) should provide for the efficient and correct entry of requirements data in multi-user mode.

- Open, non-proprietary data formats and interfaces should be standardized to promote interoperability among tools.

- The environment should provide configuration management and version control for the various work products of the requirements process.

- The organization of the environment and the requirements data should support various analysis tools.

Key questions:

(1) Are the available tools supporting the language cost-effective, robust, easy to learn, and easy to use?

(2) Are these tools interoperable with the development environment?

4. Summary

We have developed a set of general evaluation criteria for real-time requirements specification languages. These criteria cover important properties of a specification (applicability to real-time systems, capturing the conceptual construct, etc.) that should be supported by a specification language, as well as techniques for analyzing those properties (verification, traceability, etc.). These general criteria are intended as a guide to the development of more detailed criteria during actual evaluations of specification languages.

We close by reminding the reader that choice of language plays only a limited role in the success of a development effort. Although a language may facilitate sound engineering practices, it is still incumbent on the engineering staff and project management to enforce those practices.

5. Acknowledgements

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GLOSSARY

acceptable  Satisfying the customer's "real" requirements for a system. The customer's requirements may not be the same as those actually in the requirements specification, since the requirements specification may not correctly capture the "real" requirements. Synonym for valid.

abstraction  The process and product of choosing only certain attributes from many that exist of an object or concept. The chosen attributes are important with respect to some goal.

ambiguity  Lack of precision (fuzziness), which allows multiple interpretations of a given aspect of a specification, at least one of which would lead to an unacceptable implementation.

analysis  1. Process of testing or verifying that a system has certain properties, for example, those described in its requirements specification. 2. Process of determining if the requirements in the specification are consistent with the "real" customer requirements (i.e., validation).

completeness  Quality that all relevant information for developing an acceptable implementation has been included in the specifications. With incomplete specifications it is possible to develop at least one unacceptable implementation.

conceptual construct  The essential properties of a specified system. This represents what is needed to specify the valid implementations of the system—no more (overspecification) and no less (underspecification).

conciseness  Compact expression of a concept.

consistency  1. (Internal consistency) Quality of a requirements specification such that there are no contradictions or conflicts among any of its parts. 2. (External consistency) Quality of a requirements specification that there are no contradictions or conflicts between the specification and another product of the development process.

constraint  Any decision that limits the set of valid implementations of a system. These may be hardware constraints (e.g., computer X must be used), software constraints (e.g., database package D must be used), or non-functional properties such as performance
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>correctness</td>
<td>1. Quality of having consistency between the requirements specification and any of the other development products (for example, design specification or the implementation). 2. Quality of having consistency between the customer's &quot;real&quot; requirements for a system and the final system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customer</td>
<td>The person(s) who contracts and pays for the development of a system. The customer usually (but not necessarily) defines the system requirements [ANSI/IEEE Std 830-1984].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distributed system</td>
<td>A system operating with multiple processors, and one or more of those processors shares no common memory with the others. This makes message passing for communication a requirement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environment</td>
<td>1. (External) environment: The external conditions and interfaces under which a system operates. 2. (Software engineering) environment (SEE): The collection of computers, support software, procedures and facilities that make the tools and methodologies used by software developers easily available [Thayer and Thayer 1990].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formal specification</td>
<td>A formal specification is one that has an effective procedure to tell whether a specification has a particular property of interest [Gunter 1991]. This type of specification tends to be mathematically oriented, and it requires more knowledge and experience than the informal type to understand. Informal explanatory comments may elucidate formal specifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formal verification</td>
<td>Verification in which the proof could be recognized mechanically to be a proof, regardless of whether the proof was developed by hand or (partially) automatically generated. (Also see verification.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard real-time system</td>
<td>System in which deadlines for critical tasks (e.g., start or completion times) must be met to prevent some catastrophe, or to reduce the probability that a catastrophe would result.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>informal specification</td>
<td>A specification that is written largely using natural language rather than formal mathematical notations. The syntax and notation may be largely ad hoc, rather than consistent in the manner of formal specifications. An informal specification may contain free-form commentary as part of the specification itself (as contrasted to informal explanatory comments used with formal specifications). An informal specification is amenable to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
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<tr>
<td>informal verification</td>
<td>Verification in which the proof cannot be recognized mechanically to be a proof. This type of verification tends to be ad hoc and to be expressed in natural language, or informal notations (e.g., ones invented ad hoc, or mixtures of various notations). (Also see verification.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maintenance</td>
<td>The process of fixing errors encountered in a system once it is in operational use, or changing it to satisfy new requirements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>model</td>
<td>An abstraction that includes all essential properties of the process or object being modeled, but does not include any irrelevant properties. Relevance is determined by how the model will be used. A specification is a model of the system to be developed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nondeterminism</td>
<td>Property that an observer cannot tell which of several behaviors should be chosen, since more than one is acceptable. It can be a desirable characteristic in a specification. In addition, however, repeatability may also be desired in some subset of these cases, so that once a particular behavior is chosen later in the development process, it may be a requirement to use that one alone wherever this nondeterministic requirement appears [Parnas and Wang 1989].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>notation</td>
<td>The means of expressing the structure (i.e., syntax) of a given language unit (e.g., sentences in English, or propositions in logic) via the composition of symbols. The notation for expressing syntax is not the same as the syntax.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overspecify</td>
<td>1. To put extra information into the specification of a software system to the extent that it excludes at least one acceptable implementation (due to the extra information being inconsistent, being design information not appropriate to describing the externally visible behavior, etc.). 2. To put undesirably redundant information into the specification of a software system [Place et al. 1990].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parallel system</td>
<td>A system with multiple processors that communicate via shared memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precise</td>
<td>Well-defined. Precision is a major requirement for automated processing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real-time system</td>
<td>Any system that must operate under some form of timing constraints. (See soft and hard real-time systems).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
requirements specification

Product that defines the acceptable implementations for a software system subject to constraints (which may include performance, operating, interface, and economic constraints) [Heitmeyer and McLean 1983, Roman 1985]. These constraints should be minimal so that no useful implementations are precluded [Zave and Yeh 1981].

semantics

The meaning of a construct as opposed to its syntax.

simulation

Process of testing important system properties by executing a model of the proposed system. The model may have artificial (simulated) components for any of the computer hardware, environment, or software functionality [Shooman 1983].

soft real-time system

A real-time system that has stochastic (rather than deterministic) timing constraints.

specification

Description of the essential properties of an object (system, software, program, etc.). Specifications may be informal or formal.

specification language

Any method providing the basic concepts and relations for expressing specifications. Specification languages include formal languages as well as less formal constructs.

syntax

The structure of a construct as implied by the rules for composing it from subcomponents (as opposed to its semantics). The syntax rules may manifest themselves through different notations.

testing

Any process (e.g., regression testing) for establishing confidence in the truth of some property of a specification, design, implementation, etc. by checking or executing some subset of the total possible outcomes. In contrast to verification, testing can never absolutely verify (definition 1) some property (except exhaustive testing of all possibilities).

traceability

Identification and recording of the links between requirements and the manifestation of those requirements in other products of the software development process (informal customer requirements, design, implementation, test plans, etc.)

underspecify

To specify without enough detail (i.e., incompletely, ambiguously, etc.) such that the specification admits at least one unacceptable implementation [Place et al. 1990].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>term</th>
<th>definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>user</td>
<td>Person(s) who interacts directly with a system. Users and customers are not necessarily the same people [ANSI/IEEE Std 830-1984].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valid</td>
<td>Synonym for acceptable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>validation</td>
<td>Process of determining that a software system satisfies the customer's needs. “Am I building the right product [Boehm 1984]?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verification</td>
<td>1. Process of proving that a specification satisfies some property (for all situations). 2. Process of determining if products of one phase of software development satisfy requirements of previous phase. “Am I building the product right [Boehm 1984]?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>