



Modeling...

→ Modeling can guide elicitation:

- ♥ Does the modeling process help you figure out what questions to ask?
- $\$ Does the modeling process help to surface hidden requirements?
 - > i.e. does it help you ask the right questions?

→ Modeling can provide a measure of progress:

Does completeness of the model imply completeness of the elicitation?
i.e. if we've filled in all the pieces of the model, are we done?

→ Modeling can help to uncover problems

- \$ Does inconsistency in the model reveal interesting things...?
 - > e.g. inconsistency could correspond to conflicting or infeasible requirements
 - > e.g. inconsistency could mean confusion over terminology, scope, etc
 - > e.g. inconsistency could reveal disagreements between stakeholders

→ Modeling can help us check our understanding

- ♥ Can we test that the model has the properties we expect?
- & Can we reason over the model to understand its consequences?
- Some animate the model to help us visualize/validate the requirements?

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Type of Model

Can choose a variety of conceptual schema:

→ natural language

- wextremely expressive and flexible
- $\$ very poor at capturing the semantics of the model
- \upsigma better used for elicitation, and to annotate models for communication

→ semi-formal notation

- **\$** captures structure and some semantics
- can perform (some) reasoning, consistency checking, animation, etc.
 E.g.s: diagrams, tables, structured English, etc.

→ formal notation

- $\$ very precise semantics, extensive reasoning possible
- blong way removed from the application domain
 - > note: requirements formalisms are geared towards cognitive considerations, hence differ from most computer science formalisms

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Source: Adapted from Loucopoulos & Karakostas, 1995, p72-73



Desiderata for Conceptual Schema

→ Implementation Independence

does not model data representation, internal organization, etc.

→ Abstraction

extracts essential aspects

 e.g. things not subject to frequent change

→ Formality

- 🖔 unambiguous syntax
- ⋄ rich semantic theory

→ Constructability

- can construct pieces of the model to handle complexity and size
- tonstruction should facilitate communication

→ Ease of analysis

ability to analyze for ambiguity, incompleteness, inconsistency

→ Traceability

- ability to link to design, implementation, etc.

→ Executability

can animate the model, to compare it to reality

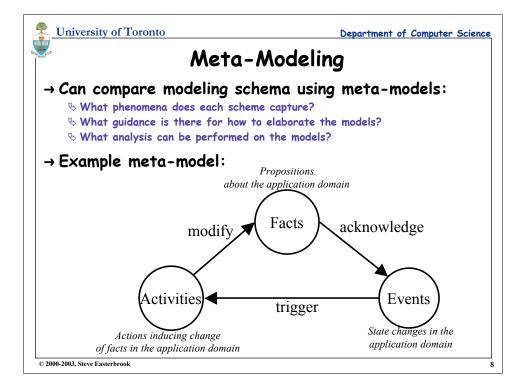
→ Minimality

No redundancy of concepts in the modeling scheme

>i.e. no extraneous choices of how to represent something

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Source: Adapted from Loucopoulos & Karakostas, 1995, p77





Modeling Principle 1: Partitioning

→ Partitioning

♥ captures aggregation/part-of relationship

→ Example:

- ⋄ goal is to develop a spacecraft
- $\$ partition the problem into parts:
 - > guidance and navigation;
 - > data handling;
 - > command and control;
 - > environmental control;
 - > instrumentation:
- ♥ Note: this is not a design, it is a problem decomposition
 - > actual design might have any number of components, with no relation to these sub-problems
- & However, the choice of problem decomposition will probably be reflected in the design

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Modeling Principle 2: Abstraction

→ Abstraction

- ♥ A way of finding similarities between concepts by ignoring some details
- \$ Focuses on the general/specific relationship between phenomena
 - > Classification groups entities with a similar role as members of a single class
 - > Generalization expresses similarities between different classes in an 'is_a'

→ Example:

- requirement is to handle faults on the spacecraft
- whight group different faults into fault classes

based on location of fault:

based on symptoms of fault:

- \$ instrumentation fault,
- ♥ communication fault,
- b processor fault,

- ♥ no response from device;
- ♦ self-test failure;
- ♦ etc...

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Source: Adapted from Davis, 1990, p48 and Loucopoulos & Karakostas, 1995, p78



Modeling Principle 3: Projection

→ Projection:

- $\$ separates aspects of the model into multiple viewpoints
 - > similar to projections used by architects for buildings

→ Example:

- $\$ Need to model the communication between spacecraft and ground system
- ♦ Model separately:
 - > sequencing of messages;
 - > format of data packets;
 - > error correction behavior;
 - > etc.

→ Note:

- ⋄ Projection and Partitioning are similar:
 - > Partitioning defines a 'part of' relationship
 - > Projection defines a 'view of' relationship
- & Partitioning assumes a the parts are relatively independent

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Source: Adapted from Davis, 1990, p48-51

11



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Survey of Modeling Techniques

→ Modeling Enterprises

- ⋄ Goals & objectives
- ♥ Organizational structure
- ♦ Activities, processes, and products
- ♦ Agents and work roles

→ Modeling Functional Requirements

- ♥ Information Structure
- ♦ Behavioral views
- ♦ Timing/Sequencing requirements

→ Modeling Non-functional Requirements

- ♦ Product requirements
- **Process** requirements
- **♥** External requirements

Information modeling: ERD

Organization modeling:

i*, SSM, ISAC

Goal modeling:

KAOS, CREWS

Structured Analysis:

SADT, SSADM, JSD

Object Oriented Analysis:

OOA, OOSE, OMT, UML

Formal Methods:

SCR, RSML, Z, Larch, VDM

Quality tradeoffs:

QFD, win-win

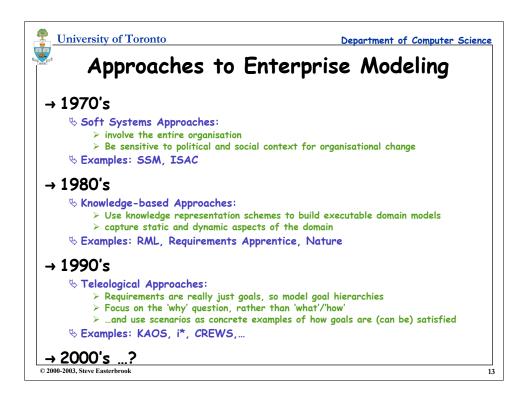
Specific NFRs:

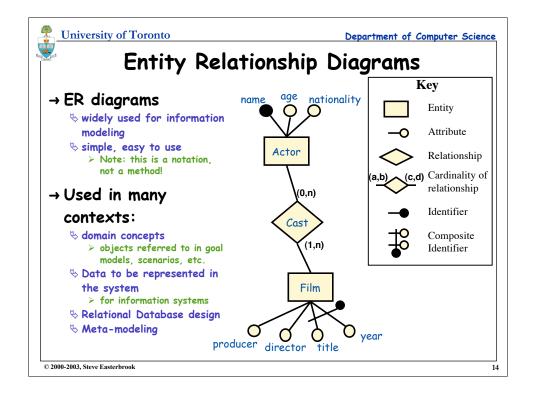
Timed Petri nets (performance)

Task models (usability)

Probabilistic MTTF (reliability)

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ISAC

→Information Systems Work & Analysis of Changes (ISAC)

- ♦ Developed in the 1970's in Sweden
- 🖔 Emphasizes cooperation between users, developers and sponsors
 - > Developers' role is to facilitate the process
- ♥ Good for information systems; not applicable to control systems.

→ISAC Process

- 1. Change Analysis
 - > What does the organization want?
 - > How flexible is the organization with respect to changes?
- 2. Activity Study
 - > Which activities should we regroup into information systems?
 - > Which priorities do the information systems have?
- 3. Information Analysis
 - > Which inputs and outputs do each information system have?
 - > What are the quantitative requirements on each information system?
- 4. Implementation
 - > Which technology (info carriers; h/w; s/w) do we use for the information systems?
 - > Which activities of each information system are manual, which automatic?

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15



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ISAC Change Analysis

1. List problems

- dissatisfactions with current system
 list all problems...
 - >...then remove any that are trivial or intractable

2. List interest groups

- ♦ these are "problem owners"
- the draw matrix of problems against
 - >This exercise is done with the problem owner's involvement

3. Analyze problems

- Use cause-effect analysis

 Eliminate solution-oriented problems, to get to underlying causes
- ⋄ quantify the problems

4. Make Current Activity Model

Notation: A-schemas (similar to dataflow diagrams)

5. Analyze Goals

- Declarative statement of goals
 i.e. desired result, not how to get there
- ⋄ Result should be a tree of goals

6. Define Change Needs

- Goals should explain why the problems exist; problems frustrate goals
- Uster problems into related groups

 >Each group is a change need

7. Generate Change Alternatives

8. Model desired situations

⋄ make packages of change alternatives

9. Evaluate Alternatives

10. Choose an alternative

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Soft System Methodology (SSM)

→ Background

- ♦ Developed by Checkland in late 1970's
- Reality is socially constructed, and therefore requirements are not objective
- ♦ Rationale:
 - > Problem situations are fuzzy (not structured) and solutions not readily apparent.
 - > Impact of a computerization may be negative (e.g. intro of new system reduced productivity as it removed employee motivation)
 - Full exploitation of computerization may need radical restructuring of work processes.

→ Approach

- Analyze problem situation using different viewpoints
 - > Determining the requirements is a discussion, bargaining and construction process.
- ♥ Out of this process emerges not just a specification, but also:
 - > plans for a modified organization structure
 - > task structures
 - > objectives
 - > understanding of the environment

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17



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SSM Approach

1 Existing situation (unstructured problem)

2 Analyze the problem situation

- ♦ Draw a rich picture
- blook for problem themes (describe them in natural language)

3 Define relevant systems and root definitions (CATWOE)

a root definition is a concise description of a human activity system

4 Build a conceptual model

- of the activity system needed to achieve the transformation
- by process oriented model, with activities & flow of resources

5 Compare conceptual model with step (2)

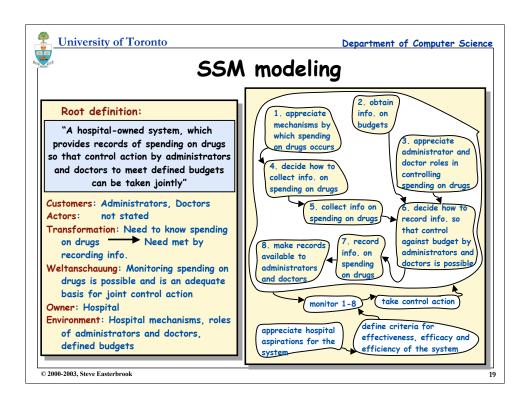
- Ordered questioning questions based on the model
- Event reconstruction take past events and compare them to the model
- General comparison look for features of the model that are different from current situation
- Model overlay point by point comparison of the two models

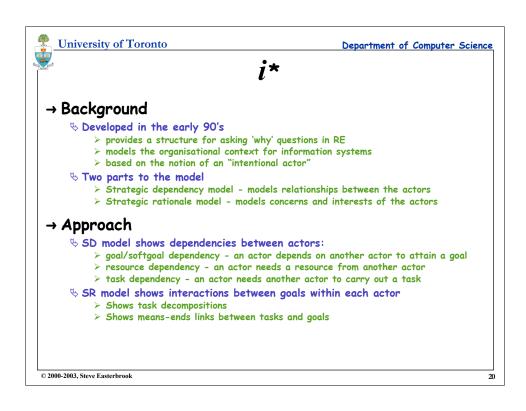
6 Debate feasible and desirable changes

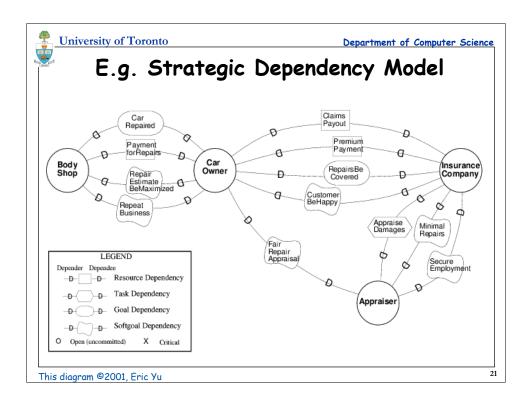
Three types of change: structural, procedural, attitudinal

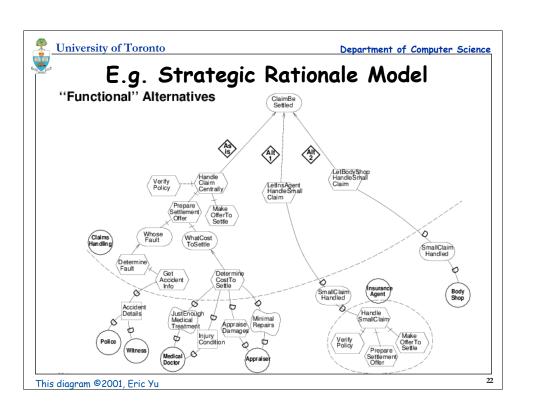
7 Implement changes

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KAOS

→ Background

- ♦ Developed in the early 90's
 - > first major teleological requirements modeling language
 - > full tool support available
 - > has been applied to a number of industrial case studies

♦ Two parts:

- > Informal goal structuring model
- > Formal definitions for each entity in temporal logic

→ Approach

- Method focuses on goal elaboration:
 define initial set of high level goals & objects they refer to
 define initial set of agents and actions they are capable of

♦ Then iteratively:

- > refine goals using AND/OR decomposition
- > identify obstacles to goals, and goal conflicts
- > operationalize goals into constraints that can be assigned to individual agents
- > refine & formalize definitions of objects & actions

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