FUNCTIONAL AND NON-FUNCTIONAL APPLICATION SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

Early Conflict Detection

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Abstract: Usually, standard practices of application software development are only focused on functional requirements. However, IS managers know that when they have an experienced development team, typically systems break not because they do not meet functional requirements, but because some system attributes, also known as non-functional requirements, such as performance, reliability, etc., are not satisfied. One of the root causes of this failure is that non-functional requirements do not receive an adequate attention, are not well understood and are not appropriately modeled. Furthermore, non-functional requirements may present critical conflicts among them. This paper proposes a pragmatic method to help the early detection of conflicts between the functional and the non-functional requirements of application software.

1 INTRODUCTION

Typically, when we analyze software application requirements, we do that almost exclusively from the functional viewpoint. Nevertheless, there is another and very important class of software requirements: non-functional requirements, or quality attributes, used to express some of the constraints acting upon software system behavior (e.g., reliability, performance, accuracy, etc.). IS managers know that when they have an experienced software team and a rather controlled process, typically systems break not because they do not meet functional requirements, but because some desired system non-functional requirements are not satisfied. One of the root causes of this failure is that these requirements usually do not receive an appropriate tool support and are less well understood than functional requirements (Mylopoulos, 1999)(Chung, 1995). To complicate matters, usually non-functional requirements are contradictory or have negative interference among them. For example: let us suppose we have usability and security as general non-functional requirements for certain IS application. To meet the usability requirement, one decides to share the available stored information implemented as an access to all databases. This decision clearly has a negative influence on the security attribute.

Pinned to this complex scenario is the important issue of the impact of functional requirements on the non-functional ones. Typically, when system analysts specify application functional requirements, they do not analyze early in the project their impact on non-functional requirements (obviously if the latter are also specified). How can one relate the functional requirements to the non-functional ones? What are the negative impacts of the functional requirements on the non-functional ones? This paper proposes a pragmatic method to help the early detection of conflicts between the functional and the non-functional requirements, based on an increasingly used software system functional requirements model: the use case model (OMG, 2002). It is also based on a particular traceability model using Rational Unified Process (IBM, 2002) software requirements artifacts. Section 2 presents a synthetic view of functional and non-functional requirements and summarizes well-founded models for representing and analyzing them. Section 3 proposes a method to the early detection of conflicts between functional requirements and non-functional ones. Section 4 shows a simple example to describe and illustrate the method. Section 5 draws some conclusions and presents the ongoing research.
2 FUNCTIONAL AND NON-FUNCTIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Application requirement is an overloaded notion, crossing various levels of abstraction. A convenient road map, which helps the understanding of what requirements we are dealing with, is presented in (Leffingwell, 2003). Application properties are initially stated as a list of simple descriptions from the stakeholders’ viewpoint. They are features, or services, provided by the application that fulfills one or more stakeholder needs. Features are general requirements that must be refined into more specific requirements to guide the construction of the application: the software application requirements. As an example of a feature we may have: “The purchase system should provide purchase trend information on product items”. As an example of correspondent application requirements we may have: “Configure purchase trend report on product items” and “Compile purchase trend history of product items based on the configuration parameters of the purchase trend report on product items”. The separation of requirements into needs, features and application software, helps the requirements management, providing a general model for requirements traceability: from stakeholder’s needs to application software requirements, via application features.

On the other hand, application requirements can be characterized as functional and non-functional requirements. Functional requirements express the expected system behavior, i.e. how the system should react to particular inputs and how the system should behave in particular situations. Non-functional requirements are constraints on the functional requirements, e.g., reliability, performance, project costs, etc. Almost all practical methods concerning requirements elicitation, analysis, specification and validation deal with functional requirements. Non-functional requirements (NFRs) are far much lesser understood than functional requirements (FRs), in part because they are intertwined (NFRs are always related to some FR), or because some NFRs exert negative influences on others, leading to conflicts. NFRs studies and characterizations originated in technical works on software quality metrics, e.g. (Boehm, 1996). But despite their vital nature, the predominant state of practice does not provide guidelines allowing requirement analysts to reason about NFRs and the relations between FRs and NFRs.

On the FR side, a renowned method amidst the plethora of application software requirements elicitation methods is the use case model (OMG, 2002). The fundamental elements of the use case model are: actor, use case and association between an actor and a use case. An actor is an external entity – human or system – with a specific role that interacts with the system under consideration. A use case is the description of the functional use of the system from the actor’s (actor’s) viewpoint: the system must deliver a result with a measurable value to actors. An actor-use case association denotes the interaction between an actor and a use case. There are some well-established use case model specification templates, e.g. (IBM, 2002), allowing the refinement of functional application software requirements expressed as sequence of interactions between actors and use cases. Use cases have also a visual model – the use case diagram -, which is very convenient to show the whole picture. However, the use case model is not appropriate to state application features, it is a model of application requirements. (IBM, 2002) has another artifact to record application features: the Vision document. The Vision document defines the scope of the application from the product point of view and is produced as an outcome of stakeholders’ negotiation. There are specific sections to define stakeholders’ and users’ needs, and product features as well.

On the NFR side, the use case model is not adequate to state NFRs, not only because it does not model and organize NFRs, but also because it is error prone if NFRs are applicable to multiple use cases (Supakkul, 2004). The Supplementary Specification (IBM, 2002) only records NFRs as declarative textual sentences. On the other hand, there is a very promising alternative approach that tries to rationalize the development process in terms of non-functional requirements, providing ways to reason about the NFRs and their relationships: the NFR Framework (Chung, 1995) (Chung, 2000). This approach is far from being known as use cases are, but provides a unified framework to specify NFRs as “first-class citizens” in requirements context.

We will present the NFR framework by quoting (Supakkul, 2004) extensively. The framework is goal-oriented, where NFRs are represented as “softgoals” that must be satisfied where there is sufficient positive and little negative evidence for the claim. In fact, softgoals are “satisficed”, a term coined to refer solutions that are sufficiently good, even if they may not be optimal (Chung, 1995). The “satisficeability” is determined by considering design alternatives or decisions, analysing design tradeoffs, recording the design rationale and choosing design decisions. This rationale is modelled in a softgoal interdependency graph (SIG), representing softgoal decompositions. The selected design decisions are used to guide application architecture and design. Figure 1 depicts a SIG fragment of Confidentiality softgoal. The light cloud
denotes an NFR softgoal, with a label Type [Topic], where Type is an NFR aspect (e.g. Confidentiality), and Topic is the context for the softgoal (e.g. Supplier). There are two forms of decomposition: AND-decomposition (a single arc crossing decomposition edges) and OR-decomposition (a double arc crossing decomposition edges). Arrows, carrying positive or negative contribution, represent interdependencies between pairs of softgoals (not depicted in the figure). A simplified version of the framework expresses the degree of satisficeability by a +/- indicator. The degree of the contribution to the satisficeability is subjectively denoted as highly positive (a ++ symbol), somewhat positive (a + symbol), somewhat negative (a – symbol) or highly negative (a – symbol). There is much more to be said about the framework and its rich set of elements and semantics, but in the present paper we will use their minimum elementary elements.

3 CONFLICT DETECTION

In the early stages of application software specification it is important to have a reasonable knowledge about the impacts of FRs on NFRs. FRs are often in conflict with NFRs and/or cause undesirable scenarios that violate NFR requirements, due to negative interdependencies between NFR softgoals. We propose a pragmatic method that helps the initial negative impact detection of FRs on NFRs, focused on the interdependencies between NFRs and based on an instance of the Rational Unified Process / (IBM, 2002) requirements discipline guidelines. The method does not deal with conflict resolution, and it is limited to conflict detection in early stages of requirements analysis.

The method uses the Use Case Model as a model for FRs and a simplified version of the NFR Framework as a model for NFRs, focused on the requirements viewpoint exclusively. The main strategy of the NFR Framework relates design decisions (also called as operationalizing softgoals) with NFR softgoals, analyzing the impacts of the former on the latter (Chung, 2000). This strategy takes NFRs softgoals interdependencies into consideration. Our strategy substitutes the role of FRs for the role of design decisions, raising the level of abstraction to the requirements viewpoint. The strategy is based on the process of integrating NFRs with FRs described in (Suppakul, 2004), but differs from it in two important ways: it does not consider design decisions and it brings NFRs interdependencies into the front scene. The idea is to analyze how FRs are related to NFR softgoals having negative influences on other NFR softgoals. This situation may characterize serious conflicts derived from requirements (FRs and NFRs) solely. Briefly, the method has two goals: to show the relations between FRs and NFRs, and to show the negative impacts of FRs on NFRs.

How to relate FRs to NFRs? (Supakkul, 2004) presents the guidelines to relate a use case model to NFRs. The integration is based on NFR association points. In a use case model, the association points are: Actor Association Point (external entity related NFR, e.g. scalability: the system must handle potentially large number of users); Use Case Association Point (function related NFRs, e.g. fast response time NFR to Withdraw Fund use case of an ATM system); Actor-Use Case Association Point (NFRs related to system access, e.g. security); and System Boundary Association Point (NFRs that affect the whole system).

Our method uses the same steps of (Supakkul, 2004) to identify the use case model related NFRs and produce the SIG for identified NFRs. We introduce steps to show NFR interdependencies and relate the use case model to the NFRs, instead of considering design and implementation issues as (Supakkul, 2004) does. How to relate use cases to NFRs softgoals? We will the use a particular traceability model based on (Leffingwell, 2003), which describes a very pragmatic traceability model presenting the following tracing dependencies within the requirements definition scope and from the RUP viewpoint: product features traces to stakeholders’ needs; use cases traces to product features; and supplementary requirements traces to product features. As mentioned in section 2, the Vision document defines stakeholders’ needs and product features, the Use Case Specifications define the use cases, and the Supplementary Specification declares the NFRs. The tracing dependencies are recorded into traceability matrices. It is worth noting that product features are the pivotal element that links use cases (FRs) to NFRs. We describe the proposed method along the presentation of an illustration example.
4 AN ILLUSTRATION EXAMPLE

Due to space limitations, we will describe and illustrate our proposed approach with a very simple example based on a hypothetic version of a pricing system developed for major airlines described in (Supakkul, 2004). We extensively quote (Supakkul, 2004) for the system general description and adequately modify the requirements model to meet RUP guidelines.

The pricing system allows the airlines to collaborate with its suppliers over the Internet to manage prices charged by suppliers for in-flight service items such as meals, drinks, supplies, and cleaning activity. In the use case model, the actor Service Item Planner represents authorized airlines users to manage the service items specification. When service items specifications are created, deleted or updated, the system automatically sends electronic Request for Proposal (RFP) over the Internet to the suppliers. The suppliers receiving the RFP send price proposals to the airports they serve. The airlines’ Procurement Manager then approves or rejects the proposal. Suppliers revise the rejected proposals and re-submit until both sides agree on the prices. We will extend this general description with the following requirement: there is a categorization of suppliers with respect to service items, based on their proposals’ history (price, quality, etc.). The remaining of this section succinctly presents the steps of the proposed method.

**Step 1. Collect the application feature list from the Vision document.** The Vision document written for the following high priority feature list:

1. Create/delete/update service item.
2. Update bill of materials.
3. Fill in RFP.
4. Group items with respect to category of suppliers.
5. Maintain suppliers’ proposals history
6. Automatic sending of RFPs via Internet.
7. Submit proposals via Internet
8. Compose proposals for easy comparison
9. Approve/reject proposal.
10. Install application in supplier’s facilities.
11. Multi-language support to international suppliers.
13. Technical support to clients.
14. Custom user input/output due to cultural business issues.
15. Localized user input/output.

**Step 2. Analyze the use case specifications and produce the Use Case vs. Feature Traceability Matrix.**

The use case model, depicted in Figure 2, is straightforward and based on (Supakkul, 2004). Table 1 shows the traceability matrix, relating use cases (rows) and features (columns). This is a **Boolean matrix** (Kolman, 1996), where the ‘X’ mark denotes the Boolean value “true”. The blank cells denote the Boolean value “false”.

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**Step 3. Elaborate the NFR model.**

The Supplementary Specification defined the following NFRs, similar to (Supakkul, 2004): Usability, meaning User Friendliness especially for international suppliers; Serviceability, meaning minimum client side support; and Confidentiality, meaning that suppliers should not see each other’s proposals and approvals. Serviceability has global scope, ranging over the entire system; User Friendliness impacts on suppliers’ interactions with the system; and Confidentiality affects suppliers’ RFPs and proposals handling.

The simple and not complete SIG graph, for illustration purposes only, is depicted in Figure 3. It is also based on (Supakkul, 2004), differing from it with respect to some decomposition details and because we do not consider operationalizations (a design viewpoint) at this early stage of the lifecycle, but NFR decompositions exclusively. Our SIG graph also depicts interdependencies between some pairs of NFRs sub-goals. We may arrive at the following (incomplete) interdependency relationships:

- **Localized Input/Output** may have a somewhat negative influence on Technical Support, if users do not adequately handle it.
- **Customized Input/Output** has a strong negative influence on Installation and Technical Support, for obvious reasons.
- **Easily Accessible Help** has a somewhat positive influence on Technical Support, due to Help lack of clarity or incompleteness.
- **Identification, from User Friendliness, has a strong negative influence on Confidentiality of suppliers’ proposals (e.g., a supplier may enter another supplier identity and have access to its proposals).**
Step 4. Analyze the NFR Model and produce the NFR vs. Feature Traceability Matrix.

After analyzing the NFR model, produce the traceability matrix (also a Boolean matrix), depicted in Table 2, that shows the relations between NFRs (rows) and features (columns). NFRs are identified as follows: S for Serviceability, C for Confidentiality and U for User Friendliness. The matrix also conveys the information about the interdependency influences, having features as pivotal elements as described in section 3 and values of influences taken from the NFR model.

Table 2: NFR vs. Feature Traceability Matrix.

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In the table, NFR N stands for Installation softgoal, T for Technical Support softgoal, P for Confidentiality of Supplier Proposals softgoal, D for Confidentiality of Supplier Identity softgoal, L for Localized Input/Output softgoal, C for Customized Input/Output softgoal, and H for Easily Accessible Help softgoal.

Step 5. Produce the Use Case vs. NFR Traceability Matrix.

This matrix results from the Boolean product (Kolman, 1996) of the matrices produced in steps 2 and 4. More formally, let $A$ denote the Use Case vs. Feature Traceability Matrix, let $B$ denote the NFR vs. Feature Traceability Matrix, and let $C$ denote the Use Case vs. NFR Traceability Matrix. We have:

$$C = A \cdot B^T,$$

where $|$ denotes the Boolean product, and $B^T$ denotes the transpose of $B$. We need the latter in order to interchange the rows and columns of $B$ to perform the Boolean product operation.

This matrix shows that the specifications of Send RFP, Approve Supplier Proposal and Submit Proposal use cases must take applicable NFR requirements into consideration.

Step 6. Produce the NFR Negative Interdependency Matrix.

This matrix denotes the negative interdependencies between pairs of NFRs depicted in the SIG from the NFR Model. As we are only interested in a qualitative evaluation of the negative impacts of use cases (FRs) on NFRs, we will not record into this matrix the degrees of
'satisficeability', but simply a mark (e.g. ‘X’) denoting the existence of a negative interdependency between an NFR row element and an NFR column element. As usual, we interpret the mark as the Boolean value “true”, taking the produced matrix as a Boolean matrix.

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Step 7. Produce the Use Case vs. NFR Impact Matrix.

This matrix results from the composition of the Use Case vs. NFR Traceability Matrix and the NFR Negative Interdependency Matrix, showing the negative impacts of use cases on NFRs. More formally, let \( E \) denote the Use Case vs. NFR Impact Matrix, let \( D \) denote the NFR Negative Interdependency Matrix, and let \( C \) denote the Use Case vs. NFR Traceability Matrix as above. Both \( C \) and \( D \) are Boolean matrices. In this case, the composition of \( C \) and \( D \), denoted by \( D \circ C \), can be computed by the Boolean product of \( C \) and \( D \) (Kalman, 1996):

\[
E = D \circ C = C | D.
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We record a mark (e.g. ‘X’) to denote a negative impact of a use case on an NFR. Computing the composition of the NFR Negative Interdependency Matrix and the Use Case vs. NFR Traceability Matrix, we have the following matrix:

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This matrix shows that the specifications of use cases Send RFP, Approve Supplier Proposal and Submit Proposal must receive a special attention during analysis, because they potentially conflict Installation, Technical Support, Confidentiality of Supplier Proposals, and Confidentiality of Supplier Identity non-functional requirements.

5 CONCLUSION

This paper presented a method to help the early and initial analysis of the relationships between functional requirements and non-functional requirements, and of the negative impacts, or potential conflicts, between functional requirements and non-functional requirements. The presented method is grounded in the use case model (OMG, 2002), in a general traceability model using Rational Unified Process artifacts (Leffingwell, 2003), and in the not so well known NFR Framework (Chung, 2000), providing a pragmatic approach to handle this admittedly difficult tasks. The method is limited to the detection of potential conflicts in early stages of requirements elicitation and analysis.

Currently we are working on the following goals: (1) the refinement of the integration of non-functional requirements with functional requirements, to capture a more detailed view of their relationships and to develop a consistent traceability model; (2) the integration of the degrees of ‘satisficeability’ between softgoals in our method; (3) the analysis of commercial case tools that propose requirements traceability and conflict analysis with respect to the proposed approach.

REFERENCES