

- VL II
 - Introduction and Vocabulary
 - Principles of Design
 - (i) modularity
 - (ii) separation of concerns
 - (iii) information hiding and data encapsulation
 - (iv) abstract data types, object orientation
 - Software Modelling
 - (i) views and viewpoints, the 4+1 view
 - (ii) model-driven / based software engineering
 - (iii) Unified Modeling Language (UML)
 - (iv) modelling structure
 - a) simplified class diagrams
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- Architecture Patterns
 - Layered Architectures,
 - Pipe-Filter
 - Model-View-Controller
- Design Patterns
 - Strategy,
 - Observer, State, Mediator,
 - Singleton, Memoize
 - Inversion of control
- Libraries and Frameworks
- Quality Criteria on Architectures
 - Development Approaches,
 - Software Entropy

- Over decades of software engineering, many clever, proved and tested designs of solutions for particular problems emerged
- Question: can we generalise, document and re-use these designs?
- Goals:
 - “don't re-invent the wheel”;
 - benefit from “clever”, from “proven and tested”, and from “solution”;

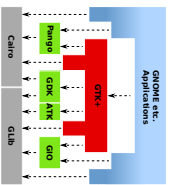
architectural pattern – An architectural pattern expresses a fundamental structural organization schema for software systems. It provides a set of predefined subsystems, specifies their responsibilities, and includes rules and guidelines for organizing the relationships between them. Buchheim et al. (1996)

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- Using an architectural pattern
 - implies certain characteristics or properties of the software (construction, extensibility, communication dependencies, etc.);
 - determines structures on a high level of the architecture; thus is typically a central and fundamental design decision.
- The information that (where, how, ...) a well-known architecture / design pattern is used in a given software can
 - make comprehension and maintenance significantly easier;
 - avoid errors.

Layered Architectures

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- **Object-oriented layer:** interacts with layers directly (and possibly further) above and below
- **Rules:** the components of a layer may use
 - **only** components of the protocol-based layer directly beneath, or
 - **all** components of layers further beneath.

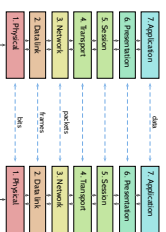


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Example: Layered Architectures

- (Zillig, 2003)
- A layer whose components only interact with components of other layers is called **protocol-based layer**. A protocol-based layer hides all layers beneath it and defines a protocol which is only used by the layers directly above.
- **Example: The ISO/OSI reference model.**



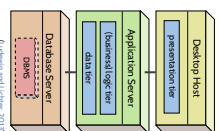
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Example: Three-Tier Architecture

- **presentation layer (or tier):** user interface; presents information obtained from the logic layer to the user; controls interaction with the logic layer; requests actions at the logic layer according to user inputs.
- **logic layer:** core system functionality; layers designed without regard to user interface; may read/write data according to data layer interfaces.
- **data layer:** persistent data storage; hides information about persistent data from the logic layer; defines a particular chunk of information in a form useful for the logic layer.
- **Examples:** Web-shop, business software (enterprise resource planning), etc.



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Example: Layered Architectures Cont'd

- **Object-oriented layer:** interacts with layers directly (and possibly further) above and below.
- **Rules:** the components of a layer may use
 - **only** components of the protocol-based layer directly beneath, or
 - **all** components of layers further beneath.



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Layered Architectures: Discussion



- **Advantages:**
 - **protocol-based:** only neighbouring layers are coupled, i.e. components of these layers interact.
 - **coupling** is low; data usually encapsulated.
 - changes have local effect (only neighbouring layers affected).
 - **protocol-based:** distributed implementation often easy.
- **Disadvantages:**
 - performance (as usual) – forwards often not a problem.

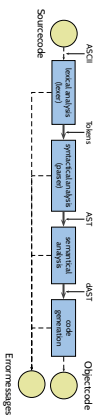
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Example: Pipe-Filter

Example: Compiler



Example: UNIX Pipes

```
ls -l | grep Search.txt | awk '{ print $5 }'
```

- **Disadvantages:**
 - If the filters use a common data exchange format, all filters may need changes
 - If the format is changed or need to employ costly conversions
 - Filters do not use global data, in particular not to handle error conditions.

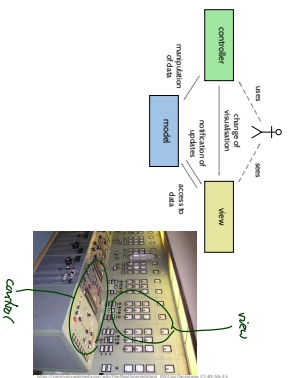
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Model-View-Controller

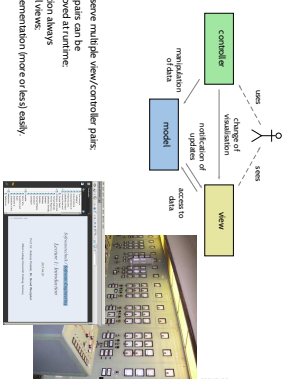
Pipe-Filter

Example: Model-View-Controller



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Example: Model-View-Controller



- **Advantages:**
 - one model can serve multiple view/controller pairs
 - view/controller pairs can be reused
 - model visualization always up-to-date in all views
 - distributed implementation (more or less) easily.
- **Disadvantages:**
 - if the view needs a lot of data, updating the view can be inefficient.

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Design Patterns

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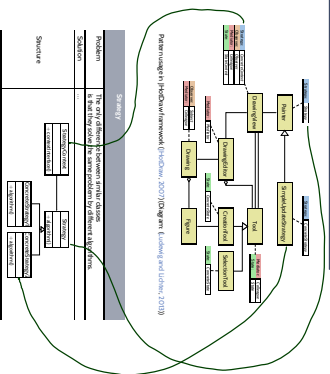
Design Patterns

- In a sense the same as architectural patterns, but on a lower scale
- Often traced back to (Alexander et al., 1977; Alexander, 1979).

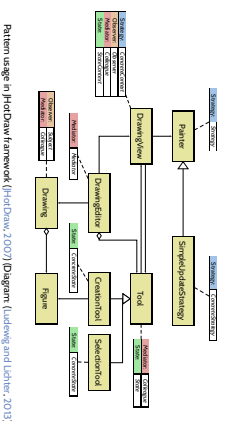


Design patterns ... are descriptions of communicating objects and classes that are customized to solve a general design problem in a particular context. A design pattern names, abstracts, and identifies the key aspects of a common design structure that make it useful for creating a reusable object-oriented design. (Gamma et al., 1995)

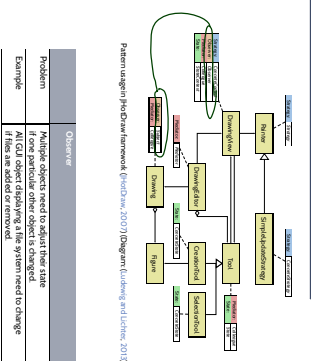
Example: Pattern Usage and Documentation



Example: Pattern Usage and Documentation



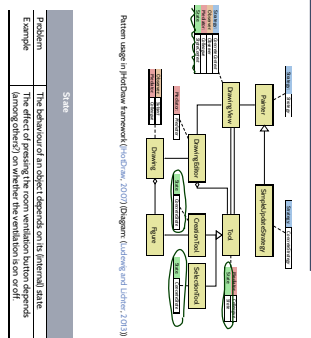
Example: Pattern Usage and Documentation



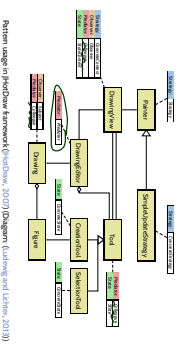
Example: Strategy

Strategy	
Problem	The only difference between similar classes is that they solve the same problem by different algorithms.
Solution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have one class Strategy/Context with all common operators. • For all operations to be implemented differently. • From Strategy, derive one sub-class ConcreteStrategy for each implementation alternative. • Strategy/Context uses concrete Strategy/ConcreteStrategy. • Subclasses of Strategy/Context implement the algorithm.
Structure	

Example: Pattern Usage and Documentation



Example: Pattern Usage and Documentation



Indicator	Problem
	Object referencing in a complex way should only be loosely coupled.
Example	Appearance and state of different means of interaction (menus, buttons, input fields) in a graphical user interface (GUI) should be consistent in each interaction state.

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Other Patterns: Singleton and Memoize

Signification
<p>Problem</p> <p>Of one class, exactly one instance should exist in the system.</p>
<p>Example</p> <p>Print spooler</p>
Memento
<p>Problem</p> <p>The state of an object needs to be archived in a way that allows encapsulation.</p>
<p>Example</p> <p>Undo mechanism.</p>

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Meta Design Pattern: Inversion of Control

"don't call us, we'll call you"

- **User interfaces**, for example
 - define button, callback();
 - register method with UI framework (→ later)
 - whenever button is pressed (provided by UI framework), button_callback() is called and does its thing.
- Also found in MVC and observer patterns.
- model notifies view, subject notifies observer.

```

vs.
classical (small embedded controller software
while (true) {
    // read inputs
    // compute updates
    // write outputs
}
    
```

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Design Patterns: Discussion

"The development of design patterns is considered to be one of the most important innovations of software engineering in recent years." (Jurewicz and Lichte, 2013)

- **Advantages:**
 - Re-use the experience of others and employ well-proven solutions.
 - Can improve on quality criteria like changeability or re-use.
 - Provide a vocabulary for the design process.
 - thus facilitates documentation of architectures and discussions about architecture.
 - Can be combined in a flexible way.
 - one class in a particular architecture can correspond to roles of multiple patterns.
 - Helps teaching software design.
- **Disadvantages:**
 - Using a pattern class is a viable approach.
 - Having too much global data cannot be justified by "but it's the pattern Singleton".
 - Kotlin: reading is easy, writing need not be.
 - Here: Understanding abstract descriptions of design patterns or their use in existing software may be easy – using design patterns appropriately in new design requires (implicit or explicit) experience.

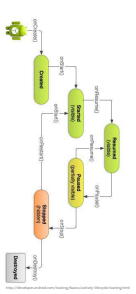
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Libraries and Frameworks

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Libraries and Frameworks

- **Class Library:** a collection of operations or classes offering generally usable functionality in a re-usable way.
- **Example:**
 - libc – standard C library (is in particular abstraction layer for operating system functions).
 - glib – GNU multi-purposes library of Lecture 6.
 - glib – compress data.
 - libxml – read/write xml files, provide DOM tree.
 - libxslt – read/write xml files, provide DOM tree.
- **Framework:** class hierarchies which determine a generic solution for similar problems in a particular context.
- **Example:** Android application Framework



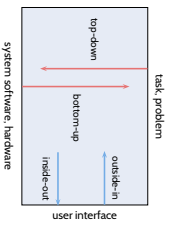
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- **Class Library**
 - a collection of operators or classes offering generally usable functionality in a reusable way
- **Examples**
 - libc - standard C library (is in particular abstraction layer for operating system functions).
 - Qt - GNU multi-platform library of Lecture 6
 - QtSql - connects data
 - QtWeb - (contains various) XML file, provide DOM tree
- **Framework**: class hierarchies which determine a generic solution for similar problems in a particular context
 - Example: Android application framework
- **The difference lies in flow-of-control**:
 - library modules are called from user code; frameworks call user code.
- **Product line**: parameterised design/code
 - (all turn indicators are equal, turn indicators in premium cars are more equal!).
- For some application domains, there are **reference architectures** (games, compilers)

Quality Criteria on Architectures

- **testability**
 - architecture design should keep testing (or formal verification) in mind
 - **bottom-up** design for verification
 - high locality of design units may make testing significantly easier (module testing)
 - e.g. allow operation of user input not only via GUI, or provide particular log output for tests
- **changeability, maintainability**
 - most systems that are used need to be changed or maintained
 - in particular when requirements change
 - **risk reduction**: parts of the system with high probability for changes should be designed such that changes are possible with acceptable effort (abstract, reusable, encapsulated)
- **portability**
 - porting: adaptation to different platform (OS, hardware, infrastructure)
 - systems with a long lifetime may need to be adapted to different platforms over time; infrastructure like databases may change! (→ introduce abstraction layer)
- **Note**:
 - a good design (model) is first of all supposed to support the solution,
 - it need not be a good domain model!

Development Approaches



- **top-down** risk: needed functionality hard to realise on target platform
- **bottom-up** risk: lower-level units do not fit together.
- **inside-out** risk: user interfaces needed by customer hard to realise with existing system.
- **outside-in** risk: elegant system design not reflected nicely in (already fixed) UI

Software Entropy

- **Lehman's Laws of Software Evolution** (Lehman and Beatty, 1983):
 - Any program that is used will be modified.
 - When a program is modified, its complexity will increase, provided that one does not actively work against this.
- (Jacobson et al., 1992) **Software entropy** E (measure of disorder) **claim**

$$\Delta E \sim E$$
 - "When designing a system with the intention of it being maintainable, we try to give it the lowest software entropy possible from the beginning"
 - Work against disorder: re-factoring
 - re-assign data and operators to modules, introduce new layers generalising old and new solutions. (automatically) check that intended interfaces are not bypassed, etc.)
- **Proposal** (Jacobson et al., 1992):
 - use "probability for change" as guideline in architecture of design, i.e. base design on a thorough analysis of problem and solution domain.

Item	probability for change
Direct form application domains	Low
Long-lived information structures	Medium
Reusable object-oriented	High
Interfaces with outside world	High
Functionality	High

Tell Them What You've Told Them...

- **Architecture & Design Patterns**
 - allow re-use of practice-proven designs,
 - promote easier comprehension and maintenance.
- **Notable Architecture Patterns**
 - Layered Architecture
 - Page-Filter
 - Model-View-Controller
- **Design Patterns** read (Gamma et al., 1993)
 - Rule-of-thumb
 - Many modules are called from user-code,
 - framework modules call user-code
- **Mitchell Lehman's Law** and **software entropy**.

Code Quality Assurance

- Introduction
 - quotes on testing.
 - systematic testing vs. 'improbiere'
- Test Case
 - definition
 - execution
 - positive and negative
- The Specification of a Software
- Test Sure
- More Vocabulary

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Content (Part II)

Testing: Introduction

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Quotes On Testing

"Testing is the execution of a program with the goal to discover errors."

(G. J. Myers, 1979)

"Testing is the demonstration of a program or system with the goal to show that it does what it is supposed to do."

(V. P. Hecht, 1984)

"Software testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!"

(E. W. Dijkstra, 1970)

Rule of thumb: (fairly systematic) tests discover half of all errors.

(Ludewig and Licker, 2013)

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Tests vs. Systematic Tests

Test – (one or multiple sequence(s) of a program's computer with the goal to find errors.

(Ludewig and Licker, 2013)

(Old) Synonyms: Experiment, Rumpproblem.

- any inspection of the program.
- errors of the program.
- analysis by software tools for e.g. values of metrics.
- investigation of the program with a debugger.

Not (even) a test in the sense of this work definition:

Systematic Test – a test such that

- (environment) conditions are defined or precisely documented
- input have been chosen systematically
- results are documented and assessed according to other test have been used before

(Ludewig and Licker, 2013)

In the following: **test** means systematic test; if not systematic, call it **experiment**

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More Formally: Test Case

Definition: A test case T is a pair (I_n, S_{out}) consisting of

- a description I_n of sets of finite input sequences,
- a description S_{out} of expected outcomes,
- and an interpretation \mathbb{I} of these descriptions.

Put **strictly speaking** for each input a description I_n of (environmental) conditions, i.e. any aspects which **could** have an effect on the outcome of the test such as:

- Which program (version) is tested? Built with which compiler, linker, etc.?
- Test by OS, architecture, memory size, content (configuration), etc.?
- Which other software (in which version, configuration) is involved?
- Whom supposed to test when? etc. etc.

→ test-cases should be (as) **reproducible** and **objective** (as possible).

Note: inputs can be

- input data, possibly with image/constraints.
- other interaction, eg. from network.
- initial memory content.
- etc.

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Full reproducibility is hardly possible in practice – obviously (err. why...?)

- Steps towards reproducibility and objectivity:
 - have a fixed build environment
 - use a fixed test host which does not do any other jobs
 - execute test cases automatically (test scripts)

```
Software S is the law program:
public int successor( int x ) { x = x + 1; return x; }
```

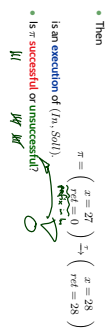
- Assume that \mathbb{S} just considers call and return, i.e. computation paths are of the form

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_0'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi} \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_1'} \right)$$

$\sigma_0'(x)$ is the input value for x and $\sigma_1'(ret)$ is the return value.

Example test case: $(In, Std) = (27, 28)$ denoting

$$[27] := \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_0'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi} \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_1'} \right) \mid \sigma_1'(ret) = 28$$



Recall:

Definition. Software is a finite description S of a (possibly infinite) set $|S|$ of finite or infinite computation paths of the form $\sigma_0 \xrightarrow{\pi} \sigma_1 \xrightarrow{\pi} \sigma_2 \dots$ where

- $\sigma_i \in \Sigma_i$, $i \in \mathbb{N}_0$, is called state (or configuration), and
- $\sigma_i \in A_i$, $i \in \mathbb{N}_0$, is called action (or event).

The (possibly partial) function $[\cdot] : S \rightarrow |S|$ is called interpretation of S .

- From now on, we assume that states consist of an input and an output/internal part, i.e. there are Σ_{in} and Σ_{out} such that

$$\Sigma = \Sigma_{in} \times \Sigma_{out}$$

- Computation paths are then of the form

$$\pi = \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_0'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi_0} \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_1'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \dots$$

- Same software S :


```
public int successor( int x ) { x = x + 1; return x; }
```
- Assume 16-bit int, i.e. values of x s.t. $\ln(-2^{15}, 2^{15} - 1] = [-32768, 32767]$.
- Test case $(In, Std) = (32767, 32768)$.
- What will S compute?

$$\pi = \left(\frac{x = 32767}{ret = 0} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi} \left(\frac{x = -1}{ret = -1} \right)$$

- Is π successful or unsuccessful?
- Well, we operated S outside its specification:
 - pre-condition: $x < 32767$
 - post-condition: $ret = add(x, 1)$
- If an input does not satisfy the pre-condition, S may do "whatever it wants": its behaviour is not specified in that case (aka **chaos**).
- Test cases are usually supposed to test that the software satisfies its specification.

- A computation path

$$\pi = \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_0'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi_0} \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_1'} \right) \xrightarrow{\pi_1} \dots$$

from $|S|$ is called execution of test case (In, Std) if and only if there is $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ such that $\sigma_0', \sigma_1', \dots, \sigma_n \in [In]$.

execution

π is called successful (or positive) if it discovered an error, i.e. if $\pi \notin [Std]$.

(Alternative: test item S failed to pass test, concluding "test failed")

π is called unsuccessful (or negative) if it did not discover an error, i.e. if $\pi \in [Std]$.

(Alternative: test item S passed test, aka "test passed")

- Note: if input sequence not adhered to, or power outage etc., π is **not** (even) a test execution.

- High quality software should be aware of its specification.
- successor() should check its inputs and complain if operated outside of specification, e.g.
 - throw an exception,
 - abort program execution,
 - (at least) print an error message,
 - etc.
- Not "garbage in, garbage out"

Wait, Why a Set of Inputs...?

Definition: A test case T is a pair (I_n, S_{all}) consisting of

- a description I_n of sets of finite input sequences,
- a description S_{all} of expected outcomes,

and an interpretation $[[\]]$ of these descriptions.

- Sometimes, a test case provides a degree of freedom or choices to the person who conducts the tests.
- For example, for the vending machine

$I_n = C50, WATER$

could specify

"At some time after switching on the vending machine, insert a 50 cent coin, and some time later request water" without fixing these times, thus there are many valid input sequences.

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Specific Testing Notions

- How are the test cases chosen?
- Considering only the specification (black-box or function test)
- Considering the structure of the test item (glass-box or structure test)
- How much effort is put into testing?
- execution trial – does the program run at all?
- throw-away-test – insert input and judge output on-the-fly ("run/probe/err"), systematic test – somebody (not author!) derives test cases, defines input/S_{all} documents test execution
- In the long run, systematic tests are more economic
- Complexity of the test item:
 - unit test – a single program unit is tested (function, sub-routine, method, class, etc.)
 - module test – a component is tested.
 - integration test – the interplay between components is tested
 - system test – tests a whole system

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Test Suite

- A test suite is a set of test cases.
- An execution of a test suite is a set of computation paths, such that there is at least one execution for each test case.
- An execution of a test suite is called **positive** if and only if at least one test case execution is positive. Otherwise, it is called **negative**.

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Specific Testing Notions Cont'd

- Which property is tested?
 - function test – functionally as specified by the requirements documents.
 - installation test – is it possible to install the software with the provided documentation and tools?
 - recommissioning test – is it possible to bring the system back to operation after operation was stopped?
 - availability test – does the system run for the required amount of time without issues.
 - load and stress test – does the system behave as required under high or high test load? ... under overload? They, lets by how many game objects can be handled? – that's an experiment, not a test
 - regression test – does the new version of the software behave like the old one on inputs where no behaviour change is expected?
 - resource tests – response time, minimal hardware (software) requirements, etc.

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Testing Vocabulary

- Which roles are involved in testing?
 - inhouse test – only developers (meaning quality assurance roles),
 - alpha and beta test – selected (potential) customers,
 - acceptance test – the customer tests whether the system (or parts of it, at milestones) test whether the system is acceptable

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Specific Testing Notions Cont'd

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- How to choose test cases?

• "Everything, which is required must be examined/checked. Otherwise it's uncertain whether the requirements have been understood and realised!" (Ludwig and Lüdke, 2013)

- In other words:

Not having at least one (systematic) test case for each (required) feature is (grossly?) negligent! (Dr.: (groß?) fahrlässig!)

- In even other words:

Without at least one test case for each feature, we can hardly speak of software engineering!

- Testing is about

- finding errors, or
- demonstrating scenarios

- A test case consists of

- input statements and
- expected outcome(s)

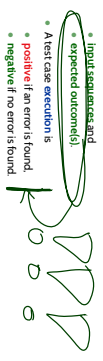
- A test case execution is

- positive if an error is found,
- negative if no error is found.

- A test suite is a set of test cases.

- Distinguish (among others),

- glass-box test: structure (or source code) of test item available
- black-box test: structure not available.



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