The Prevalence and Impact of Persistent Ambiguity in Software Requirements Specification Documents

by

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Abstract

Despite a large amount of research in methods and tools for avoiding and detecting requirements ambiguity, recent studies have indicated that requirements ambiguity seems to be resolved through multiple inspections and discussions that characterize the requirements engineering process. However, this process may not catch ambiguity types that are likely to result in subconscious disambiguation. People are likely unaware of and incapable of recognizing these ambiguity types; therefore, these types are likely to remain after multiple inspections. This kind of ambiguity is defined as persistent ambiguity and may cause expensive damage. The potential impact of persistent ambiguity was investigated.

Initially, a comprehensive ambiguity model based on linguistic ambiguity and its application to requirements engineering was developed. The model was subsequently analyzed to determine the ambiguity types likely to result in subconscious disambiguation and therefore likely to persist. Three requirements specifications were inspected for instances of persistent ambiguity as defined in the model. Each chief requirements engineer verified whether the persistent ambiguities likely to have the greatest impact on each project were indeed interpreted ambiguously, and if so, what the impact was.

For the three requirements specifications inspected, there is an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 15.38 pages; project one has the highest average of one persistent ambiguity for every 3.33 pages, project three has an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 31.25 pages, and project two has the lowest average of one persistent ambiguity for every 56 pages. For the three projects, none of the persistent ambiguities reviewed by each chief requirements engineer caused expensive damage because all of the requirements engineers seemed to subconsciously disambiguate the ambiguities in the same way. For the three projects analyzed and the ambiguities reviewed by each chief requirements engineer, the least expensive approach would have been to forego initially identifying persistent ambiguity in these three projects.

The first main conclusion is that persistent ambiguity remained undetected by the teams of requirements engineers. The second main conclusion is that the process used by these particular requirements engineering teams for these particular projects is enough to prevent damage. The third main conclusion is that the identification of persistent ambiguity in requirements specifications is potentially an effective and efficient strategy for minimizing damage caused by ambiguity precisely because of its focus on ambiguity that remained undetected due to lack of awareness. Further study is necessary to determine what factors are involved in persistent ambiguity and its prevalence, as well as its potential impacts.

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my husband, Primoz Cresnik, my father, Antonio Ribeiro, my very dear friends, and Sox, each of whom I am blessed to have in my life.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- **CBS** Computer Based System
- **NL** Natural Language
- P1 Project One
- P2 Project Two
- **P3** Project Three
- **PP** Prepositional Phrase
- **RC** Relative Clause
- **RE** Requirements Engineering
- **RS** Requirements Specification
- **SD** Subconscious Disambiguation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of requirements engineering (RE) is to capture in a requirements specification (RS) all of the requirements that the client, users, and other stakeholders believe to be imperative in the computer-based system (CBS) being developed. Ambiguity in an RS could cause programmers to implement the CBS incorrectly from the client's viewpoint, resulting in major code re-writes, leading to delays in delivery, and introducing even more defects.

Almost all RSs are written in natural language (NL) [1]. Even when an RS is written in a formal language or with UML diagrams, it still begins with ideas expressed in NL

[2]. NLs are inherently ambiguous. Therefore, it is worth researching writing less ambiguous requirements [3-6] and using restricted languages to write RSs [7-9], but there is no escaping ambiguous requirements [10].

Project failure has often been attributed to ambiguities in RSs. For example, Gause lists too much unrecognized disambiguation in RSs as one of the five most important sources of requirements failure [11]. This attribution claim has not been conclusively empirically proved; nonetheless, this claim has fuelled research in methods and tools for detecting ambiguities in RSs. There are two approaches for detecting ambiguities: manually [3, 4, 12] (See Section 1.1) or automatically with tools [10, 13-26].

As mentioned above, a number of researchers have focused on developing tools for the automatic detection of ambiguity. Rosenberg et al developed a requirements definition tool that produces reports that are used to identify requirements and structural areas within them that need improvement due to ambiguity [21]. They conclude that specifications developed using a requirements definition tool are more consistently numbered, better structured, and contain crisper statements than those developed based only on a documentation standard; however, no recall and precision are reported.

Bucchiarone et al presents an automatic NL requirements evaluation tool that identifies ambiguity, QUARS Express, with no reported recall and precision [22]. Gleich

et al presents an automatic ambiguity detection tool that has a recall of 86% and a precision of 95% [23].

Tjong tried something different, she implemented and evaluated a prototype potential ambiguity finder tool for RSs, SREE [24, 25], with a goal to achieve 100% recall by design even at the expense of precision. By limiting the scope of a manual search with a tool like SREE, the time required for a manual inspection could be decreased. SREE was unsuccessful in its goal of achieving 100% recall, having achieved a recall of only 80% and precision was not noted. SREE demonstrated that such a tool is promising in the ability to reduce the manual search time required for an inspection, and Tjong recommends that more research should be conducted to improve this approach.

Ferrari et al presents a method for pragmatic ambiguity (i.e., ambiguity that depends on the context of a requirement) detection in NL requirements specifications that has a recall of 63% and a precision of 51% [26].

While desirable, the use of tools for the automatic detection of ambiguity in RSs results in varying levels of recall. For example, the reported recall range of the tools mentioned above is 63% and 86%. This recall is problematic if your goal is to avoid all potential damage. In particular, a mission critical system in the area of medicine or banking requires 100% recall. If your goal is to catch all potential damage then a manual inspection is required even if a tool has been used.

Time is the single most important factor in software engineering. Defects that are not identified until the testing phase are at least 14 times more costly to fix than if the defect were identified in the requirements phase [27]. The earlier an ambiguous requirement or a defect is identified, the less expensive it is to repair it [28]. The least expensive time to identify ambiguous requirements is in the analysis phase, before any development begins. The cost to repair an ambiguity or a defect increases exponentially with the software development life cycle phase during which the defect is detected [28]. The paradox is that identifying ambiguities is itself expensive as it involves multiple, time-consuming, and focused inspections.

1.1 Research Problem

A problem with all of these tools and methods for avoiding or detecting ambiguities is that we do not actually know if any of them are worth the effort. A cost – benefit analysis of these tools and methods would be valuable. De Bruijn tried to analyze the impact of ambiguity on project success [29].

De Bruijn's overall goal was to determine the effect of ambiguity in a project's RS on the project's success, and he analyzed the RS for one failed CBS development project that consisted of 279 requirements. With his analysis, he attempted to answer the following research questions [29]:

- "1. How many requirement statements are ambiguous?
- 2. How many problems were caused by ambiguous requirements?"

De Bruijn's analysis determined that only one not very severe defect in the CBS was caused by ambiguous requirements. The independent test team and the third party development team had been able to work through all the other ambiguities. Thus, de Bruijn identified no expensive ambiguities.

De Bruijn's conclusion was that for the RS and CBS he examined, the ambiguities that remained were not critical and had nothing to do with the failure. In the end, he questioned whether focusing on ambiguities with special inspections and tools during RE is cost effective. Perhaps the normal conversation among stakeholders is sufficient to identify the RS ambiguities that would cause defects in the developed CBS.

The drawback of de Bruijn's study that could have caused him to come to an incorrect conclusion is that he took a random sample of the requirements. He started with the goal of identifying every ambiguity and determining if it caused damage. However, he quickly learned that there were far too many ambiguities. Nearly every requirement had some ambiguity, so to drastically reduce the number of requirements considered, he randomly sampled the requirements. To determine the number of problems caused by ambiguous requirements, he conducted a random sampling of a list of defects (problems) that he was fortunate to have access to.

In another study, Philippo went in the opposite direction from de Bruijn [30]. Instead of analyzing one failed CBS project as de Bruijn did, Philippo analyzed one successful CBS project that consisted of 205 requirements and was continually test-

ed. The drawback of Philippo's study, similar to that of de Bruijn's study, is that Philippo also conducted a random sampling of the defects, potentially leading to an incorrect conclusion. Philippo's analysis identified that only three out of the 100 defects he examined in the CBS were caused by ambiguous requirements. For the RS and CBS he examined Philippo concluded that, requirements ambiguity did not cause a significant number of defects. Of the three defects found to be caused by ambiguity, he estimated that the cost to repair is very small.

The random sampling approach used by both de Bruijn and Philippo could have missed a rare yet expensive ambiguity. Expensive ambiguities may be too infrequent to be reliably caught with random sampling. While ambiguities may be uniformly distributed among requirements, expensive ambiguities may not be. De Bruijn and Philippo did not identify any expensive ambiguities; however, this could simply have been the result of the random sampling each conducted. For example, if expensive ambiguities are rare then even sampling 80% of the requirements leaves a 20% chance of missing a rare expensive ambiguity.

1.2 New Approach

I decided to use a different approach, one that I believe is likely to detect expensive ambiguities if they exist. My approach is to focus on the ambiguities that people are generally not aware of and therefore are not capable of recognizing. These ambiguities are thus likely to have been missed by stakeholders during requirements analy-

sis and RS production, and therefore likely to persist. This type of ambiguity is defined as persistent ambiguity.

Persistent ambiguity results in *subconscious disambiguation* (SD). SD of an ambiguity occurs when the reader or hearer of an ambiguous statement is not aware of the ambiguity and believes that his or her first understanding of the statement is the only possible understanding [4]. In some cases, SD leads to an understanding that is the same as the writer intended, and sometimes it does not. When SD of an ambiguity in an RS leads to an understanding different from what the writer intended, the final CBS delivered to the client may be incorrect.

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive ambiguity model that includes a focus on persistent ambiguity, which are likely to result in SD. The intent is to perform a study somewhat similar to de Bruijn's. However, in order to both cut down the search for expensive ambiguities to a manageable size and to avoid the potential drawback caused by the random sampling, I examine all requirements, while narrowing the search to only those kinds of ambiguities included in the model that are likely to persist and therefore to result in SD. This amounts to using a purposive sampling method instead of a random sampling method, in which the purpose is to examine only persistent ambiguities that may be expensive.

1.3 Research Questions

This thesis investigates the potential prevalence and impact of persistent ambiguity and if it is cost effective to devote effort to the avoidance and or detection of ambiguous requirements. A new approach different from de Bruijn's is taken to answer the following research questions:

- 1. What is the prevalence of persistent ambiguity?
- 2. What is the impact of persistent ambiguity?
- 3. Which approach has the lower cost: identifying persistent ambiguities in an RS during RE or repairing the damage caused by undetected ambiguities in later phases of the software development life cycle?

Ambiguities can be expensive to detect. As previously noted, the cost to repair a defect increases exponentially with the software development life cycle phase during which the defect is detected.

1.4 Thesis Structure

Chapters 1 and 2 include all the relevant related work. Therefore, there is no explicit chapter on related work. Chapter 2 outlines the ambiguity model used in the study. Chapter 3 describes the research methods used to conduct the study and outlines the study's threats to validity. Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 analyze the modifier, referential, elliptic, conditional clause reference, and plural results, respectively. Chapter 9 analyzes the interview results for all three projects inspected. Chapter 10

discusses all of the results of the study and presents recommendations for avoiding ambiguity in RSs. Chapter 11 lists the conclusions, limitations and contributions of the study, and discusses future work in the area of requirements engineering.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS SPECIFICATION AMBIGUITY MODEL

This chapter presents a comprehensive ambiguity model. The last section of the model discusses the ambiguity types likely to result in SD. The model's restrictions and application to RSs are discussed below.

Language usage is constantly evolving. Occasionally people's usage does not follow the rules of language for brevity or emphasis. Some sentences, although syntactically problematic, have become common usage. This model focuses on how people use language, syntactically problematic or not, and how that usage might cause ambiguity. This model restricts its focus to the English language.

A spoken ambiguity is more easily resolved because the hearer can ask for clarification on the spot; hence, clarification is just part of the dialogue. Ambiguities in writing are more problematic because often the reader does not have any access to the writer, and in cases that the reader does, it's not direct access. A reader might have to try multiple times to get in contact with the writer before receiving clarification, and the clarification may not even be unambiguous. The focus of this research is on the prevalence and impact of ambiguities in written RSs.

A single requirement varies in size, ranging from a single sentence to multiple sentences, and may include diagrams or tables. There is no agreed upon standard unit to identify a requirement due to its complex nature and the multiple levels of specification found in requirements. The smallest unit that can be examined is a sentence, a phrase or a clause. These units are chosen for identifying ambiguities in this model, but context will be used to disambiguate ambiguities.

When the context of an ambiguity is taken into account, there is often a clearly preferred interpretation, and any other interpretations seem contrived. In most ambiguous cases, people assume the most salient interpretation and disambiguate the sentence as the writer intended. These cases have a low probability of being interpreted counter to the writer's intentions. Less common is an undetected ambiguity in which multiple interpretations are equally likely, and one interpretation is not more salient than the others. Such a case has a high probability of being interpreted counter to the writer's intentions. Other cases might be inherently ambiguous and require the writer to disambiguate.

Ultimately, in the investigation of ambiguities in RSs, context must be taken into account. Requirements in the RSs will not be analyzed in isolation. Rather, the context of the previous requirements, and paragraphs will be used to try to disambiguate each requirement.

An ambiguity that remains ambiguous after context is taken into account is a *nocuous ambiguity*. A nocuous ambiguity has more than one viable interpretation, whereas an *innocuous ambiguity* has a single viable interpretation [31]. An innocuous ambiguity does not cause damage. Conversely, a nocuous ambiguity may or may not cause damage.

In this model the assumed context of a definition of ambiguity is that of linguistic ambiguity. Linguistic ambiguity is researched in the fields of linguistics, computational linguistics [32-36], and philosophy.

Each ambiguity type is described by a definition, some examples, and its resolution when applicable. Throughout the model, examples are typeset in BANK GOTHIC to avoid having to quote them. The numeral naming an example, which is not part of the example, is typeset in the same Times New Roman that is used for the normal text.

The ambiguity types are presented in the following order: lexical, analytical, attachment, coordination, referential, elliptic, modifier, and plural ambiguities. Also presented are the ambiguity phenomenon of vagueness, generality, and subconscious disambiguation.

2.1 Lexical Ambiguity

Two words are homonymous if they have identical spelling, but different meaning.

Definition:

A lexical ambiguity occurs when a homonymous or polysemous word occurs in a sentence and these words have multiple meanings.

Examples:

1. Bank

In Example 1 the word bank has at least two different meanings. It can mean a financial institution or the edge of a river.

2. Green

In Example 2, the word green could describe either the colour of an object; an emotion such as green with envy; or youth, vitality, or inexperience.

Usually context tells you which choice of a homonymy or a polysemy is meant.

Resolution:

To avoid lexical ambiguity, a writer could ensure that enough context is provided to clarify which is the intended meaning.

2.2 Analytical Ambiguity

Definition:

An analytical ambiguity occurs when the role of the elements in a phrase or sentence is ambiguous.

Example:

3. The French history teacher

Example 3 can be interpreted as either The teacher of French history or The history teacher who happens to be French. Even French history is analytically ambiguous, as it could mean history of France or history of the French language. Many of these ambiguities are subtle and difficult to resolve.

Resolution:

To avoid analytical ambiguity, a writer could rewrite with additional words to make clear the intent.

2.3 Attachment Ambiguity

Definition:

An attachment ambiguity occurs when either a prepositional phrase (PP) or relative clause (RC) can be syntactically attached to more than one part of a single sentence and renders different interpretations.

Examples:

4. The police shot the rioters with guns. [4]

Example 4 has two possible interpretations based on the two syntactically possible attachments for the PP, with guns. The first attachment is to shot, and the second attachment is to rioters. The first interpretation is that the police, with their guns, shot the rioters. The second interpretation is that the police shot rioters who had guns themselves.

5. The organization has opened a cleaning center in Seward.

Some PPs do not produce different interpretations for the different attachments, as shown in Example 5. The first attachment option for seward is to a cleaning center and another is to the organization. Both attachments lead to the same interpretation. Therefore, this PP attachment ambiguity is considered innocuous.

6. ... the lamp near the painting in the house that was damaged in the flood... [37]

In Example 6, the RC that was damaged in the flood can be attached to any of the lamp, the painting, or the house.

Resolution:

To avoid attachment ambiguity, a writer could rewrite with additional words to make clear the intent.

2.4 Coordination Ambiguity

Definition:

A coordination ambiguity occurs in a sentence with either more than one conjunction or a modifier and a conjunction.

Examples:

7. I saw Jane and Calvin and Jack saw me.

Example 7 may be interpreted as either I saw Jane and Calvin, and Jack saw me or I saw Jane, and Calvin and Jack saw me.

8. Young man and woman.

Example 8 may be interpreted as either young man and young woman or woman and young man.

Resolution:

To avoid coordination ambiguity, a writer could use line breaks and indentation,

as in this sentence, to show the structure of the coordination,¹

use punctuation,2

use additional words,3 or

change the wording4.

¹ An example of this usage is shown in the resolution.

² An example of this usage is shown in the interpretation of example 7.

³ An example of this usage is shown in the first interpretation of example 8.

2.5 Modifier Ambiguity

Some grammar books [38, 39] promote the rule that a modifier should be placed immediately preceding what it modifies; this placement of a modifier is called "correct placement". Nevertheless, the typical native English speaker places the modifier before the main verb of the containing sentence regardless of what the modifier is intended to modify [4, 40-42]. Appendix A, Section A.1 and Appendix B, Section B.1 contain usage frequency studies with empirical evidence that the typical native English speaker commonly places modifiers before the main verb more often than placement after the main verb. Modifier placement before the main verb is called "standard placement".

Occasionally, standard placement may be correct placement, but exclusive or even frequent use of standard placement causes ambiguity, as the reader cannot determine what is intended to be modified.

⁴ An example of this usage is shown in the second interpretation of example 8.

⁵ The concept of correct placement is a new addition to the 16th edition of the Chicago Manual of Style published in 2010. The preceding editions, the 15th published in 2003, the 14th published in 1993, and the 13th published in 1982, do not include correct placement. The Cambridge grammar of the English Language published in 2003 includes correct placement and the ambiguities that standard placement creates.

⁶ In linguistics the concept of standard English refers to following the grammatical rules of English. In this thesis, standard placement refers to the placement that is commonly used.

If most of the modifiers in a document are placed other than before the main verb, then the reader who is aware of the difference between the placements can assume that an occasional placement before the main verb is intentional, because the writer of the document seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

Definition:

A modifier ambiguity occurs when a sentence contains a modifier and there is more than one possible element that the modifier could be modifying.

Examples:

9. I go grocery shopping only on Wednesdays.

Example 9 has a correct placement, on the assumption that the intended meaning is that the only day of the week that I go grocery shopping is Wednesday. Since the placement of only is non-standard, the aware reader can assume that the placement is intentional because the writer seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

10. I only nap in the afternoon.

There are circumstances in which placing the modifier before the verb is correct: when the intended interpretation is to use the modifier to modify the verb and not to modify anything else in the sentence.

In Example 10, only is placed before the verb nap. As written, this sentence means that the only thing I do is nap in the afternoon.

If the writer intended to say that he or she does not take naps at any time of the day other than the afternoon, then the correct placement of only is I nap only in the afternoon.

There are circumstances where the literal interpretation is contrived, and with context there is a salient interpretation.

11. I only ate vegetables.

Example 11 means that I didn't wash, buy, or cook the vegetables, I only <u>ate</u> them. This is a contrived interpretation, and a large majority of people would not interpret this sentence this way. There is a clearly preferred interpretation, namely I ate only vegetables, regardless of the fact that the syntactical interpretation is different. An ambiguity with a highly viable interpretation, in most cases, is innocuous.

While not common, placing the modifier after what it modifies is incorrect placement and may create ambiguity if the modifier occurs also before something else in the sentence. The reader's interpretation will be that the modifier modifies what immediately follows the modifier, even though the writer's intended interpretation is that the modifier modifies what immediately precedes it.

When the modifier is placed at the very end of a sentence, then the sentence is unambiguous, because the modifier can modify only what precedes it.

12. I nap in the afternoon only.

In Example 12, the modifier only cannot modify what follows it, because it is the last word in the sentence. So it must modify the phrase that precedes it, which is the afternoon. The interpretation for this example is I nap in only the afternoon. Example 12 is unambiguous.

Resolution:

To avoid modifier ambiguity, a writer could ensure that each modifier placement is immediately preceding what is to be modified.

2.6 Referential Ambiguity

In English, a pronoun refers to a noun that appears earlier in the text and a determiner precedes a noun and provides context for determining the referent of that noun in the discourse. Pronouns and determiners are not interpreted semantically on their own; rather, their interpretation is dependant on the set of possible referents.

Definition:

A referential ambiguity occurs when a pronoun or determiner can refer to more than one referent.

Examples:

13. Bob said to Joe that he must leave.

Example 13 has three possible interpretations. The pronoun he could refer to either Bob, Joe or someone else, e.g. Josh.

Example 13 could have been written unambiguously by having the pronoun replaced by the noun that the writer intends to be the referent, as shown in Example 14.

14. Bob said to Joe that Joe must leave.

15. They kidnapped my dog.

Example 15 has three possible interpretations:

- 1. They could refer to some specific plural noun previously given, such as in three thieves came to my house or three friends came to my house.
- 2. They could mean an indeterminate number of people such as in Some people kidnapped my dog.
- 3. They could also mean a person of indeterminate gender such as in Someone kidnapped my dog.

The acceptance in common usage of third-person plural pronouns they, their, them, or themselves as singular is still heavily debated, and has a long history dating back to Middle English [43]. Regardless of its acceptance, the common usage causes ambiguity because a third person pronoun can refer to either a singular or a plural noun referent, even though the associated verb is in plural form. This uncertainty in the number of the referent of They adds ambiguity, as the referent can no longer be assumed to be plural, even when there is a feasible plural potential referent. The reader is left uncertain as to whether the writer is following the rules and intending a plural interpretation, or not following the rules and intending a singular interpretation.

A demonstrative pronoun is particularly problematic because of its popular use in referring to a whole idea instead of a simple noun, as shown in Example 16.

16. This prevents security breaches.

In Example 16, this is a demonstrative pronoun, for which the preceding text is required to determine its referent. The referent could be identified anywhere in the text preceding the sentence. The referent may not even be any particular word or phrase; it may be the idea embodied by whole or multiple sentences. When a demonstrative pronoun is followed by a noun, it becomes a demonstrative determiner and is less likely to be ambiguous, as shown in Example 17.

17. This encoding scheme prevents security breaches.

There are possessive pronouns and determiners, and there are demonstrative pronouns and determiners. In both cases, the use of a determiner less ambiguous than the use of a pronoun.

Resolution:

To avoid referential ambiguity, a writer could use the referent noun instead of a pronoun.

2.7 Elliptic Ambiguity

Ellipsis is quite complex, warranting a separate section because despite its similarity to reference, the two are significantly different. Ellipsis can be viewed as a form of reference: reference by empty string. Whereas a reference replaces an element with another element, an ellipsis is the elision of an element. The elements that may be elided include verbs, nouns, and clauses.

Definition:

An elliptic ambiguity occurs when an element has been elided, and there is more than one possible element from the discourse that the elided element could be.

Elliptical ambiguity is particularly problematic to identify because it is sometimes hard to determine what has been elided.

Example:

18. Perot knows a man richer than Trump. [4]

In Example 18, the verb at the end of the sentence has been elided. The reader does not know if the elided verb is knows or is, each of which provides a different interpretation: Perot knows a man richer than Trump knows or Perot knows a man richer than Trump is.

Resolution:

To avoid elliptical ambiguity, a writer could avoid ellipsis and write the elided word.

2.8 Conditional Clause Reference Ambiguity

Conditions are part and parcel of RSs. Frequently, the different users, systems or sub-systems provide inputs or outputs that are based on conditions. A conditional clause reference includes the reference elements so or not. In natural language these elements occur most often following if, and occasionally following assuming or suppose [44].

Definition:

A conditional clause reference ambiguity occurs when a conditional clause can refer to more than one condition.⁷

Example:

In an RS, a sentence of the form if x, y is a conditional clause with x being the condition and y being what is done if the condition, x, is true. When writers write only if

⁷ In linguistic terms, conditional clause reference is classified as conditional clause substitution. Linguists distinguish substitution as separate from reference regardless of the fact that each has an element that refers to another element. For simplicity, in this model I choose to classify conditional clause as referential.

not, z or if so, z, instead of writing the specific condition, it can be ambiguous what not or so refers to.

An if not or if so condition is ambiguous because the not or so can reference any of the previous conditions, or all of the previous conditions, or some combination of the previous conditions.

Example 19 is from a televised show [45].

19. Person A sends a text message:

"If you' re coming to the party, bring cupcakes.

If not, no problem."

Person B reads the text out loud and says to person C

"What does that mean?

It's no problem if I don't go or its no problem if I don't bring cupcakes?

And if I don't go then there's no cupcakes.

Or will someone else bring them?

And if someone else is bringing them why is she even asking me?"

Example 19 shows a clausal reference ambiguity, where the element not can refer to either of the clauses coming to the party or bring cupcakes, in the previous sentence.

The if not conditional clause in Example 19 changed to an if so conditional clause such as If so, great., is also ambiguous. It is not clear which of the two clauses in the previous sentence so refers to. If there are other preceding sentences, additional interpretations may be possible, shown in Example 20.

20.

- I. When a user requests a book with an available status, assign book to user.
- II. When the user requests a book with a checked-out status, place a hold on the book for the user.
- III. If so, increase the book's number-of-user-requests counter.

In Example 20 So may refer to the first clause in the first sentence or the first clause in the second sentence or it may refer to both. Examples 19 and 20 show the meaning of so or not may go back further than the convention of going to the most recent referential element.

Resolution:

To avoid conditional clause reference ambiguity, a writer could write the specific clause in a conditional clause instead of writing the reference elements so or not.

2.9 Plural Ambiguity

Definition:

A plural ambiguity occurs when a sentence contains a plural subject and or object and it is unclear whether the object or subject complement refers to a collective or a distributive interpretation.

A collective interpretation occurs when the subject or object is interpreted as designating a set. A distributive interpretation occurs when the subject or object is interpreted as designating each of the elements of a set.

Examples:

21. Two men lift a table. [46]

In Example 21, the collective interpretation is: Two men lift a single table together and the distributive interpretation is Each of two men lifts his own table.

There are situations in which there is a clearly preferred interpretation, and a salient interpretation exists. Even when a salient interpretation exists ambiguity might exist.

Example 21 contains a plural subject noun phrase. A plural noun phrase in the argument position of any verb can have both a collective interpretation and a distribu-

tive interpretation. Collective and distributive interpretations are possible whenever a plural noun phrase is a subject, or as a direct or indirect object.

22. John lifted three tables. [46]

In Example 22, if John lifted three tables as a set, he had to lift also each table, that is the collective interpretation has a distributive sub-entailment. There are exceptions to the distributive sub-entailment, as shown in Example 23, in which the direct object is possibly ambiguous.

23. She summarized the proposals. [47]

The collective interpretation of Example 23 is that the proposals were not summarized individually, but they were summarized as a whole. The distributive interpretation of Example 23 is that the proposals were not summarized as a whole, but each proposal was individually summarized.

There is a compounding in the number of possible interpretations when a sentence contains more than one plural noun phrase, as in Example 24.

24. Two men lift three tables. [46]

In Example 24, each of the two noun phrases has a collective and distributive interpretation, creating four possible interpretations. With both noun phrases interpreted collectively there is a total of three tables. With the subject noun phrase interpreted distributively, there are up to six tables.

Another cause of a collective and a distributive interpretation is the usage of quantifiers. Quantifiers are inherently ambiguous. Some quantifiers are syntactically plural, yet they are often used singularly. Quantifiers indicate cardinality of the subject and object relationship. Possible interpretations include the following relationships: one to one, one to many, many to one, or many to many. This relationship ambiguity could cause costly errors in software engineering.

- 25. Many bring their dogs. [4]
- 26. Few bring their dogs. [4]
- 27. Many bring their dog.

Examples 25 to 27 are syntactically correct, yet they are also ambiguous. In each example the reader cannot decipher how many dogs each person brings. Examples 25 and 26 can be interpreted as either a many to many relationship or a many to one relationship. Example 27 can be interpreted as either a many to one relationship or a one to one relationship. The many to one interpretation is possible if multiple people all share the same dog.

28. All lights in the room are connected to a single switch. [4]

Example 28 is ambiguous, with two possible interpretations. The collective interpretation is all lights in the room are connected to a single shared switch. The distributive interpretation is each light in the room has its own unshared single switch.

The syntactically singular use of the quantifiers each, every, and any results in a distributive interpretation. When these quantifiers are used as the subject, due to subject verb agreement, the verb must also be singular, which syntactically results in a distributive interpretation of the complement.

Often people use these quantifiers as a plural rather than as a singular [48-50]. Appendix A, Section A.2 and Appendix B, Section B.2 contain usage frequency studies with empirical evidence that the typical native English speaker uses plural rather than singular when talking about what each member of a set does. This semantically plural usage of these quantifiers makes it difficult for the reader to know the writer's intention, and leads to ambiguity.

29. Every light has their switch [4]

The distributive interpretation of 29 is each light has its own switch. The collective interpretation of 29 is all the lights share a single switch.

Resolution:

To avoid plural ambiguity for a collective interpretation, a writer could use a singu-

lar noun naming the collection, as shown in Examples 30 and 31.

To avoid plural ambiguity for a distributive interpretation, a writer could use an ad-

verb such as each or individually, to refer to each item as being identified separately,

as shown in Examples 32 and 33.

30. A group of two men lifts a table.

31. A pair of men lifts a table.

32. Two men each lifts a table. Or Each of the two men, lifts a table.

33. Two men individually lifts a table.

2.10 Vagueness Phenomenon

Definition:

Vagueness occurs when a sentence contains a subjective noun phrase and results in

more than one interpretation.

Example:

34. tall

In Example 34, the word tall is vague, as different people define tall differently. Also

what is being classified as tall has an effect on how tall is defined. One might define a

person as being tall if that person is over two meters in height, but the same defini-

tion of tall would not be applied to a tall glass of water. Also among basketball play-

ers, two meters is not tall, while among jockeys, even one and a half meters is tall.

Resolution:

To avoid vagueness, a writer could avoid using subjective noun phrases and use

more specific noun phrases as shown in Example 35.

35. He was over 6 feet tall.

2.11 Generality Phenomenon

Definition:

Generality occurs when a sentence contains a general non-specific noun phrase and

results in more than one interpretation.

Example:

36. cousin

In Example 36, cousin describes a person who is related in a particular way, but in English, it does not specify if the cousin is male or female.

Resolution:

To avoid generality, a writer could avoid using general noun phrases and use more specific noun phrases as shown in Example 37.

37. My cousin Elaine is getting married next year.

2.12 Subconscious Disambiguation Phenomenon

As mentioned in Section 1.2, SD occurs when an ambiguous sentence is interpreted as being unambiguous, having only one possible interpretation. All ambiguity types may result in SD, but some types are more likely than others to result in SD.

My approach is to focus on the ambiguities of which people are likely unaware. The typical person commonly uses language that introduces ambiguity, indicating that he or she is unaware of the ambiguity introduced by his or her common usage. Further evidence of the pervasiveness of ambiguity induced by common usage includes the writing of this thesis. I, myself, succumbed to standard modifier placement, common reference usage, and common plural usage despite being aware of the dif-

ferent ambiguity types and trying to avoid this placement and usages. In response to my standard modifier placement, I decided to ensure that I used correct placement. In response to my common reference usage, I decided to risk overcompensating and use a determiner and a noun in particular instances rather than a more natural sounding pronoun; For example, I would use this usage rather than this. In response to my common plural usage, I decided to use the singular usage for each subject when possible.

People are more likely to subconsciously disambiguate when they are unaware of ambiguity types that occur due to common usage. People unaware of ambiguity resulting from common usage cannot identify that another interpretation exists.

The following ambiguity types occur because of common usage: modifier, reference, elliptical, conditional clause reference, and plural [3, 4, 51]. Persistent ambiguity (introduced and defined in Section 1.2) comprises these ambiguity types. Appendix C contains for each persistent ambiguity type an example that is a requirement. The ambiguity model details the common usage, that causes ambiguity, by ambiguity type.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter describes the methods used in the following procedures: the collection method for the requirements data; the strategy for dealing with the size explosion problem in the amount of ambiguity to inspect; the persistent ambiguity identification method; the strategy to further reduce the amount of ambiguity to inspect; the strategy used to rank the ambiguities for review by the chief requirements engineer according to those that are most likely to cause damage; and the interview method for the review by the chief requirements engineer that determines the damage resulting from the ambiguities identified. The data collected from these procedures answer the research questions posed in Section 1.1.

In addition, this chapter discusses the resulting validity of the study. The types of validity discussed are: external validity, construct validity, and internal validity.

3.1 Requirements Data Collection

A major company, which shall remain anonymous⁸, has supplied high quality RSs for three major CBSs that have been successfully implemented. Real-life data is difficult to attain, as most companies don't publically share their RSs. The number of documents available is probably not enough for statistically significant results. However, each document is quite lengthy, averaging over 4,000 complex requirements, and the time required to carefully inspect the ambiguity in these documents manually is significant. Future research could increase the total sample data and strengthen the results of this study.

The software was developed in house. The company developed the software to run their business and gain a competitive advantage over other companies in the same business by providing better service to their customers. The company's software provides automated and semi-automated services to their customers.

The company is serious about RE. The company stays in the RE phase of the SDLC until it is completed. The company follows the waterfall model's SDLC and they allocate enough time to develop a system correctly.

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⁸ Due to a non disclosure agreement.

The company staffs a project with enough people to do the job, fewer for smaller projects and more for larger projects. Team sizes range from 5 people to 15 people with a median at 10 people. Projects take 1 year to 2 years with a median at 18 months.

3.2 Identification of Ambiguity in the Requirements

The requirements inspector is the author of this thesis and was a Computer Science PhD candidate whose research area is software engineering. She is also a native English speaker. The inspector has no *a priori* knowledge of these RSs. Ignorance of the later histories of the RSs makes the inspector akin to a normal domain-ignorant inspector. A domain-ignorant inspector is someone not involved in the project, specifically chosen for one's ignorance, and therefore more likely to interpret what the RS actually says and not what people involved in the project think it says.

In most RSs, if all types of ambiguity were to be identified in each of the requirements, the resulting data set would be too large and expensive to manually inspect.

This data size explosion problem has been dealt with in different ways and my unique strategy is detailed in the following strategy.

3.2.1 Strategy for Dealing with the Data Size Explosion Problem in the amount of Ambiguity

As detailed in Section 1.1, both de Bruijn and Philippo resorted to random sampling as a way to cut down the amount of ambiguity. In both studies, few defects were identified that were associated with ambiguity; however, de Bruijn himself concluded that the reason he did not identify more defects related to ambiguity was his strategy of random sampling.

When conducting an empirical study such as the one in this thesis or those of de Bruijn or Philippo, the number of ambiguities must be cut down to a manageable size. My study includes three projects totalling 12,054 requirements, which is 43 times more data than in de Bruijn's research and almost 59 times more data than in Philippo's research. While both de Bruijn and Philippo use random sampling, a probability sampling method, to reduce the number of ambiguities, this study uses strategic and purposive sampling because expensive ambiguities may be too infrequent to catch with a random sample.

My strategic and purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method. Deviant case sampling is a special type of purposive sampling in which the cases chosen substantially differ from the dominant cases. The deviant cases I chose to sample are the persistent ambiguity types (defined in Section 2.12), those that I believe people are unaware of and are therefore most likely to result in SD. The basis for this decision is that I believe that because people are aware of the types of ambiguity defined

in Sections 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4 (lexical, analytical, attachment, and coordination ambiguity, respectively), these types would likely have been resolved through communication between the various requirements engineers involved in the project. On the other hand, the ambiguities people are unaware of are most likely to cause expensive problems that require repairing late in the SDLC. I believe this strategy to deal with the size explosion problem is more likely to identify an ambiguity that is expensive to repair that was not detected.

The purpose of my strategy that focuses on persistent ambiguity is to attempt to identify ambiguities that were overlooked by requirements engineers in the requirements analysis discussions. These persistent ambiguities may have led to a false sense of project success because hidden defects not yet identified may yet cause expensive damage.

3.2.2 Persistent Ambiguity Identification Method

The identification method for each persistent ambiguity type is outlined in detail in this Section.

3.2.2.1 Modifier Ambiguity

Table 1. Modifier Cue Words

Modifier Cue Words
Only

Also
Just
Even

- 1. Search for instances of the cue words listed in Table 1.
- 2. For each instance identified, determine all the possible viable interpretations from the discourse, while ignoring any contrived interpretations.
- 3. Check each interpretation to ensure that it is unique.

3.2.2.2 Referential Ambiguity

RSs and other technical documents are unlikely to contain first person singular or plural, and second person singular or plural pronouns and determiners. Thus, the following pronouns and determiners are excluded from the referential cue words: I, me, mine, my, you, yours, your, we, us, ours, and our⁹. Referential cue words include the following demonstrative third person singular and third person plural pronouns and determiners, see Table 2. These pronouns and determiners are investigated because they are the ones that are likely to be found in RSs¹⁰.

Table 2. Referential Cue Words

Referential Cue Words					
Pronouns		Determiners			
Personal	Demonstrative	Possessive	Demonstrative	Possessive	
It	This	Its	This + noun	Its + noun	
They	That	Theirs	That + noun	Their + noun	

⁹ In the three RSs inspected, zero first person singular or plural, and second person singular or plural pronouns and determiners were found.

¹⁰ In the three RSs inspected, zero third person singular pronouns were found.

Them	Those	-	Those + noun	-
He and him	These	His	These + noun	His + noun
She	_	Hers	-	Her + noun

- 1. Search for instances of the cue words listed in Table 2.
- 2. For each instance identified, determine all the possible viable referents from the discourse, while ignoring any contrived interpretations.
 - a. Possible referents include:
 - i. A simple noun
 - ii. A phrase
 - iii. An idea embodied by whole or multiple requirements
- 3. Check each interpretation to ensure that it is unique.

3.2.2.3 Elliptic Ambiguity

Table 3. Elliptic Cue Words

Elliptic Cue Words
Than
From

- 1. Search for instances of the cue words listed in Table 3.
- 2. For each instance identified, determine if there is an ellipsis in the requirement.
- 3. If an ellipsis exists determine all possible viable referents from the discourse, while ignoring any contrived interpretations.
 - a. Possible referents include:
 - i. A simple noun
 - ii. A phrase
 - iii. An idea embodied by whole or multiple requirements
- 4. Check each interpretation to ensure that it is unique.

3.2.2.4 Conditional Clause Reference Ambiguity

Table 4. Conditional Clause Cue Words

Conditional Clause Reference Cue Words
If so,
If not,

- 1. Search for instances of the cue words listed in Table 4.
- 2. For each instance identified, determine all the possible viable referents from the discourse, while ignoring any contrived interpretations.
 - a. Possible referents include:
 - i. A simple noun
 - ii. A phrase
 - iii. An idea embodied by whole or multiple requirements
- 3. Check each interpretation to ensure that it is unique.

3.2.2.5 Plural Ambiguity

To identify instances of plural ambiguity, plural cue words include plural nouns and quantifiers. In the ambiguity model in Section 2.9, it is pointed out that the singular quantifiers each, every, and any are often used as plural, which may cause ambiguity. An instance of these singular quantifiers can be a sign that the requirements engineer is aware of the dangers of plural ambiguity. Therefore, these singular quantifiers are also included as cue words.

For the purposes of this thesis the following numbers are investigated: two to ten.

The number one is excluded because this number is singular. These numbers are chosen because these numbers are commonly written in full as quantifiers of a noun.

Table 5. Plural Cue Words

Plural Cue Words				
Quantifiers	Plural Nouns			
Each				
Every				
All				
Any				
Many				
Few				
Both				
Several				
Numbers (two, three, four, five, six, seven,				
eight, nine, and ten)				

- 1. Search for instances of the cue words listed in Table 5.
- 2. For each instance identified, determine the usage of the cue word.
- 3. If the cue word or cue words is used as the subject and or object, determine if there is a collective interpretation and a distributive interpretation that are not contrived for each cue word.
- 4. Check each interpretation to ensure that it is unique.

3.3 Identification of the Damage Potential of Persistent Ambiguities Identified in the Requirements

The result of the inspection method is a list of persistent ambiguities identified. The chief requirements engineer for each RS reviews this list when interviewed by the inspector.

3.3.1 Strategy for Reducing the Amount of Ambiguity Reviewed by Each Chief Requirements Engineer

Although a substantial amount of time was spent to obtain the list of persistent ambiguities, the data size remained too large for review by the requirements engineers¹¹. Initially, I was very fastidious; each requirement with more than one possible interpretation was recorded as ambiguous. However, each chief requirements engineer would not be able to dedicate the time required to review each ambiguity identified. Out of necessity I had to further reduce the list of ambiguities.

I decided to look for signs of a lack of awareness of ambiguity beyond that captured by persistent ambiguity. In some cases, there were comments showing that the requirements engineers were aware of the ambiguity and they requested further details to disambiguate. In other cases, domain knowledge of the project would likely lead the requirements engineers to disambiguate. In both situations, I decided that it is not worth interviewing them about the particular ambiguities because of these signs of awareness.

As a result, the following strategy for reducing the amount of ambiguity was implemented after the identification of persistent ambiguity in the RSs: For each persistent ambiguity identified, if there were signs of discussion or domain knowledge, the ambiguity was removed from the list of persistent ambiguities.

 $^{^{\}rm 11}$ Any contrived interpretation was not considered a valid interpretation as its meaning does not make sense.

3.3.2 Strategy for Ranking Persistent Ambiguities According to Damage Potential

After the reduction of the amount of ambiguity reviewed by the chief requirements engineer is complete, the remaining identified persistent ambiguities are the ones most likely to have been missed and cause damage. Many of these ambiguities have a high number of viable interpretations.

Because the requirements engineer's time is a scarce resource, the ambiguities were ranked from the highest potential damage they could cause to the lowest. In addition, the chief requirements engineers are more likely to review more ambiguities if they prove to be nocuous. This ranking strategy takes this into consideration and will increase the likelihood of answering the research questions.

The ranking strategy purposefully aims to minimize the time required from the people involved in the projects. People are a limited resource and are too busy to take the time to discuss these projects unless something is identified that would interest them. The reason for this strategy is based purely on real-world realities.

3.3.3 Interview with the Chief Requirements Engineer of Each Project

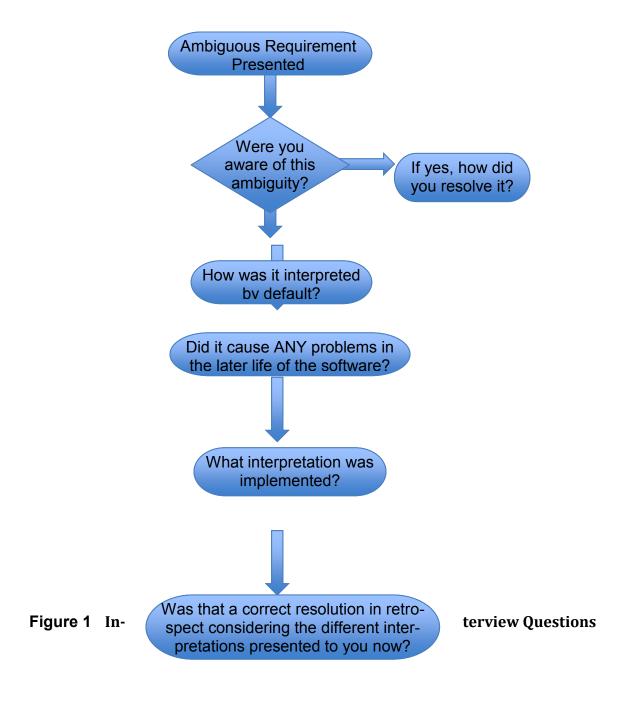
Once the RSs are inspected and the persistent ambiguities ranked, the next step is to interview, the chief requirements engineer for the project, who is familiar with what has happened with the specified system after its implementation.

The interviews are conducted to verify if the ambiguities identified were interpreted incorrectly by the requirements engineers and if any damage has resulted from the ambiguous requirements. Any ambiguous requirements that were implemented incorrectly are considered to be nocuous ambiguities because they have the potential to cause damage. Any ambiguous requirements that were implemented correctly are considered to be innocuous ambiguities because they do not cause damage.

The chief requirements engineer is presented with the requirement ranked most likely to cause damage, along with all the possible interpretations and the questions shown in Figure 1. These questions help identify if the chief requirements engineer is aware of the ambiguity, if the correct interpretation was implemented, and if any damage has resulted from an incorrect interpretation. The chief requirements engineer states the correct interpretation intended and whether the correct interpretation was in fact implemented. If any ambiguity was implemented incorrectly the damage associated to each incorrect implementation is estimated.

If a requirement is interpreted differently from the intended interpretation, this interpretation indicates that the particular requirement could have been implemented incorrectly in the system. If a requirement is interpreted in the exact same way by each of the requirements engineers, this interpretation does not mean the requirement is unambiguous. It is still possible that someone other than the team of requirements engineers could interpret the requirement in a different manner. This could be problematic if the team membership changes. Examples of membership

changes include replacing a member that leaves the company, moves to another project, or takes an extended leave of absence.



3.4 Threats to Validity

3.4.1 External Validity

External validity is the extent to which the results can be generalized to other situations. There are three threats to external validity in this study. The first threat is that the results of empirical case studies are not generalizable and have low external validity. However, this empirical study has a comparable size to real world problems. This study consists of three separate case studies, each using large sets of real world data. Repeated case studies that corroborate the conclusions would provide additional support.

The second threat is that there may be an as of yet unidentified defect with the software that is also a direct result of an ambiguity. However, this possibility is unlikely because the software has been in use for a few years and most defects have likely been identified.

The third threat is that each member of the team of requirements engineers may subconsciously disambiguate persistent ambiguities in a way that matches the intended interpretation, rendering them innocuous with zero damage. However, it is possible that these persistent ambiguities could be interpreted differently by different team members, resulting in damage.

3.4.2 Construct Validity

Construct validity is the extent to which a study measures what it purports to be measuring. This study measures the prevalence of persistent ambiguity by counting the number of instances of persistent ambiguity per page. In addition, this study measures the impact of persistent ambiguity by calculating the cost to repair damage as a direct result of ambiguity, if any exists. These measures are objective and are easily quantifiable from the project data.

The threat to construct validity in this study is that there could have been persistent ambiguities that were missed in the RS inspection. No manual inspection can detect ambiguity perfectly, and this is a limitation of the study. However, the inspector of the RSs has experience with ambiguity and the inspection is similar to an industrial inspection.

3.4.3 Internal Validity

Internal validity of a study is the extent to which a purported causal conclusion of a study is valid. There are two threats to the internal validity of this study. The first threat is that unless the documentation of the CBS defects clearly states that ambiguity caused the defect, the cause is debatable. Therefore, the measurement of damage is effected. However, I do not make the assumption that all reported damage is attributable to ambiguity.

The second threat to internal validity is experimenter bias. Experimenter bias occurs when the experimenter unconsciously behaves in a particular way that inadvertently affects the outcome. In this study the experimenter is the inspector of the RSs. Experimenter bias may occur if the inspector is aware of any documented defects in the software. In this case, the inspector may unconsciously conclude that an ambiguity exists due to prior knowledge that a problem exists. However, the inspector is not aware of any documented defects in the software, nor the outcome of the project, eliminating experimenter bias.

3.5 Plan for Results Chapters

Each of Chapters 4-8 is about the results for one kind of persistent ambiguity. It has one subsection for each project reporting on the data for the chapter's type of ambiguity for the project. At any point in these chapters, "ambiguity" means the chapter's kind of ambiguity and "project" means the current subsection's project. Often both the type of ambiguity and the project are left implicit, with both understood from the currently active section and subsection headers.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS: MODIFIER AMBIGUITY

For each ambiguity type, the results of each of the RSs are discussed separately because different requirements engineers were involved for each project. Also, an analysis of patterns and differences between the three projects is provided. The projects are referred to as P1, P2, and P3.

4.1 Project 1

4.1.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of modifier cue words of each of only, also, even, and just are 30, 6, 1, and 0, respectively, totalling 37 instances. Figure 2 shows the numbers of instances of each modifier cue word.

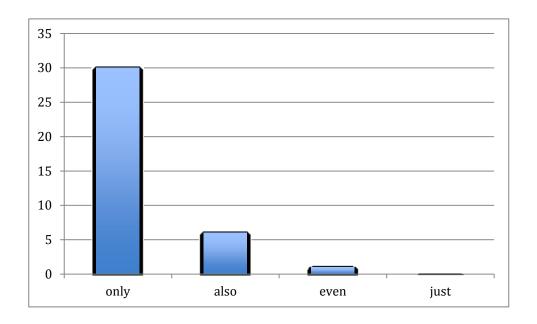


Figure 2 P1: Instances of Modifier Cue Words

4.1.1.1 Placement Distribution

4.1.1.1.1 Only

Only is placed at the end of a requirement¹² 15 times out of 30. Figure 3 shows the placement distribution of the modifier only.

Only is placed before the main verb only once, before the subject three times, and somewhere after the main verb 11 times.

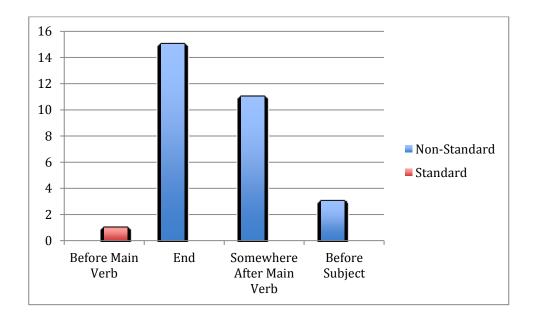


Figure 3 P1: Modifier Placement Distribution of only

¹² In the ambiguity model, Chapter 2, each example of each ambiguity type is referred to as a sentence, in the results Chapters each sentence is referred to as a requirement.

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4.1.1.1.2 Also

Also is placed before the main verb six times out of six.

4.1.1.1.3 Even

Even is used only once, placed somewhere after the main verb.

4.1.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There are zero instances of ambiguity identified.

There are two instances in the track changes of the Microsoft Word RS in which an only was deleted. The requirements engineer responsible for these changes seems to be aware that only can cause ambiguity.

There are three instances of only before the subject, 11 instances somewhere after the main verb and 15 instances at the end of the requirement. Each of these instances is unambiguous. The requirements engineer responsible for these placements seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

For all cases except one, only is not placed before the main verb and is therefore unambiguous. Since non-standard placement is the most frequent placement, this non-standard placement distribution normally indicates that the author seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement. However, the literal interpretation of the placement of this modifier is one that does not make sense; the placement that

does make sense is placement somewhere after the main verb. The requirements engineer responsible for this placement seems unaware of the dangers of standard placement.

Each of the six placements of also before the main verb is unambiguous because the literal interpretation is one that makes sense; placement somewhere after the main verb does not make sense considering the context, thus leaving only one possible interpretation. The requirements engineer responsible for these placements seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

The one and only instance of even is placed somewhere after the main verb and is unambiguous. The requirements engineer responsible for this placement seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

For all modifiers, the requirements engineers used non-standard placement 30 times out of 37. Placement at the end of a requirement is unambiguous¹³. Placement at the end of a requirement occurs most often, 15 times out of 37. Placement before the main verb, occurs the least often, seven times out of 37, and they seem to be using this placement in ways that are unambiguous.

¹³ In the ambiguity model, modifier placement at the very end of a requirement is unambiguous, because the modifier can modify only what precedes it.

The placement distribution of modifiers is an indication that some requirements engineers were paying attention to the placement of the modifiers and seem to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

Each of the 37 instances of a modifier cue word is unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of modifiers, modifier ambiguity does not persist. The reason that modifier ambiguity is not an issue is that the requirements engineers placed modifiers before the main verb sparingly, only seven times out of 37.

4.2 Project 2

4.2.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of modifier cue words of each of only, also, even, and just are 39, 1, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 40 instances. Figure 4 shows the numbers of instances of each modifier cue word.

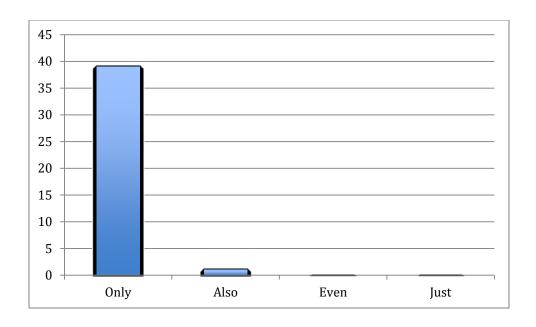


Figure 4 P2: Instances of Modifier Cue Words

4.2.1.1 Placement Distribution

4.2.1.1.1 Only

Only is placed at the end of a requirement 23 times out of 39. Figure 5 shows the placement distribution of the modifier only.

Only is placed before the main verb zero times and somewhere after the main verb 16 times.

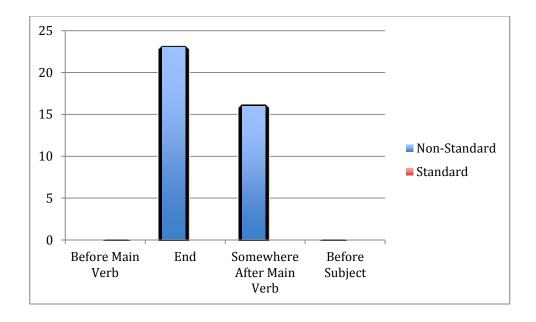


Figure 5 P2: Modifier Placement Distribution of only

4.2.1.1.2 Also

Also is used only once, placed before the main verb.

4.2.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There are zero instances of ambiguity identified.

Each placement of only is either at the end of a requirement or somewhere after the main verb. There are 16 instances somewhere after the main verb and 23 instances at the end of the requirement. Each of these instances is unambiguous. The requirements engineer responsible for these placements seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

There are zero requirements that place the modifier only before the main verb. The requirements engineer responsible for these placements seems to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

There is one requirement that places the modifier also before the main verb. The interpretation of only, in which it actually modifies the verb, is one that does not make sense; the placement that does make sense is placement before the subject. The requirements engineer responsible for this placement seems unaware of the dangers of standard placement.

For all modifiers, the requirements engineers used non-standard placement 39 times out of 40. Placement at the end of a requirement is unambiguous. Placement at the end of a requirement occurs most often, 23 times out of 40. Placement before the main verb occurs the least often, only once out of 40.

The placement distribution of modifiers is an indication that some requirements engineers were paying attention to the placement of the modifiers and seem to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

Each of the 40 instances of a modifier cue word is unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of modifiers, modifier ambiguity does not persist. The reason that modifier ambiguity is not an issue is that the requirements engineers placed modifiers before the main verb sparingly, only one time out of 40.

4.3 Project 3

4.3.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of modifier cue words of each of only, also, even, and just are 51,16, 5, and 1, respectively, totalling 73 instances. Figure 6 shows the numbers of instances of each modifier cue word.

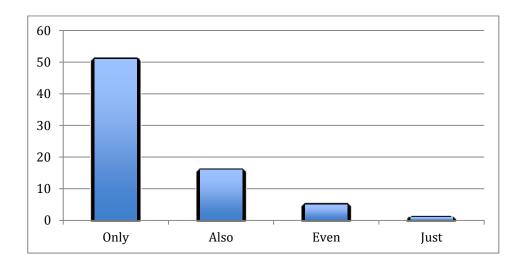


Figure 6 P3: Instances of Modifier Cue Words

4.3.1.1 Placement Distribution

4.3.1.1.1 Only

Only is placed at the end of a requirement 5 times out of 51. Figure 7 shows the placement distribution of the modifier only.

Only is placed before the main verb 20 times, somewhere after the main verb 24 times, and before the subject twice.

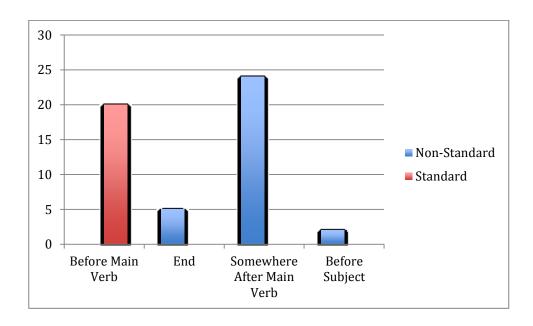


Figure 7 P3: Modifier Placement Distribution of only

4.3.1.1.2 Also

Also is placed before the main verb 14 times out of 16. Figure 8 shows the placement distribution of the modifier also. Also is placed somewhere after the main verb twice.

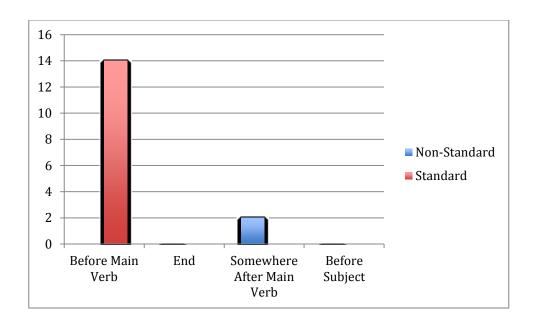


Figure 8 P3: Modifier Placement Distribution of also

4.3.1.1.3 Even

Even is used five times, placed somewhere after the main verb five times.

4.3.1.1.4 Just

Just is used only once, placed somewhere after the main verb.

4.3.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There is one instance of ambiguity identified, and it contains a modifier only placed before the main verb.

Only is placed before the main verb almost as frequently as it is placed somewhere after the main verb. There are 20 requirements with only placed before the main verb and context disambiguated 19 of these requirements.

In almost all cases, also is placed before the main verb and context disambiguates each placement.

For all cases, even and just are placed somewhere after the main verb.

For all modifiers, the requirements engineers used non-standard placement 39 times out of 73. Placement before the main verb occurs the most often, 34 times out of 73. Placement at the end of a requirement occurs the least often, 5 times out of 73.

The placement distribution of modifiers is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the placement of the modifiers and seem to be unaware of the dangers of standard placement.

All except one of the 73 instances of a modifier cue word are unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of modifiers, modifier ambiguity does not persist. The reason that modifier ambiguity is not an issue is that the modifiers placed before the main verb context successfully disambiguates 33 times out of 34.

4.4 All Three Projects: A Comparative Analysis of P1, P2, and P3

4.4.1 Instances of Cue Words

The total numbers of instances of modifier cue words of each of only, also, even, and just are 120, 23, 6, and 1, respectively, totalling 150 instances. In each of the three projects, the modifier cue word only has the highest number of instances. Figure 9 shows the numbers of instances of each modifier cue word for each project.

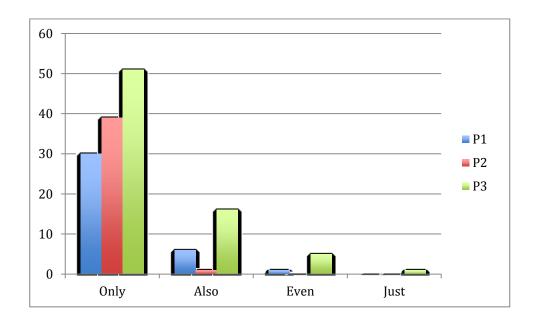


Figure 9 All Three Projects: Instances of Modifier Cue Words

4.4.1.1 Placement Distribution

4.4.1.1.1 Only

Only is placed before the main verb 21 times, only is placed at the end of a requirement 43 times, before the subject five times, and somewhere after the main verb 51 times. Figure 10 shows the placement distribution of each modifier for each project.

4.4.1.1.2 Also

Also is placed before the main verb 21 times and somewhere after the main verb twice.

4.4.1.1.3 Even

Even is placed somewhere after the main verb six times.

4.4.1.1.4 Just

Just is placed somewhere after the main verb only once.

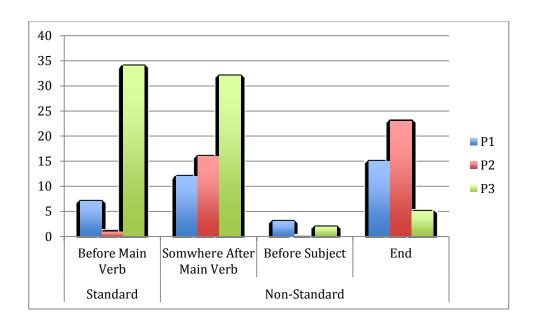


Figure 10 All Three Projects: Modifier Placement Distribution for Each Project

4.4.2 Instances of Ambiguity

For all three projects, there is only one instance of ambiguity identified, and it is in P3. Figure 11 shows the instances of ambiguity. Figure 12 shows the instances of ambiguous and unambiguous requirements containing modifiers for each project.

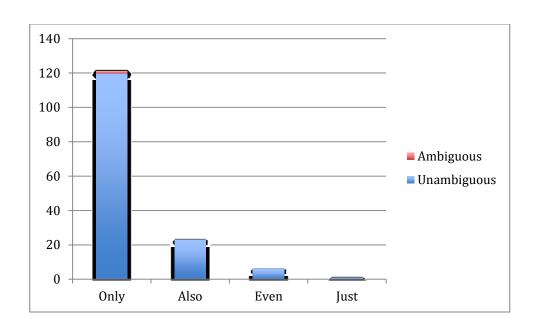


Figure 11 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements for Each Modifier Cue Word

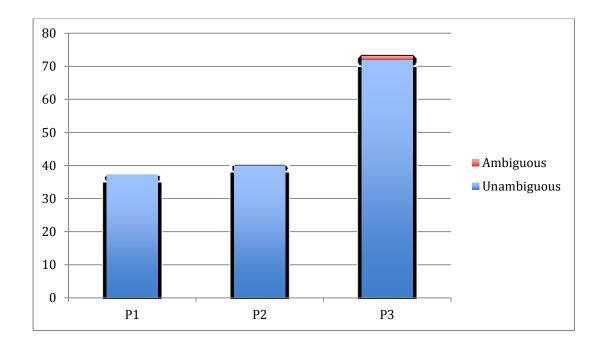


Figure 12 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements Containing Modifiers for Each Project

For all modifiers, the requirements engineers used standard placement 42 times out of 150, they seem to be using this placement in ways that are unambiguous. Figure 13 shows the numbers of instances of non-standard and standard placements for each project.

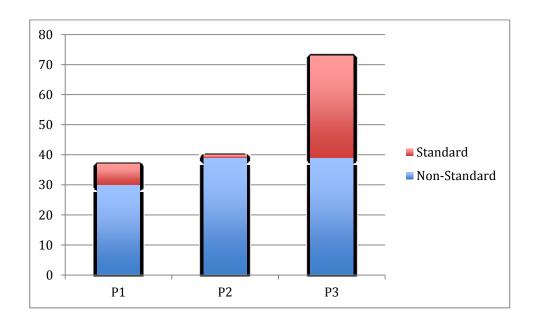


Figure 13 All Three Projects: Instances of Non-Standard and Standard Modifier Placements for Each Project

The requirements engineers for P3 used standard placement frequently, 34 times out of 35, while the requirements engineers of P1 and P2 used this placement less often, seven times out of 22 and once out of 24, respectively.

The placement distribution of modifiers for all three projects is an indication that, unlike the requirements engineers for P3, the requirements engineers for P1 and P2

were paying attention to the placement of the modifiers and seem to be aware of the dangers of standard placement.

All except one of the 150 instances of a modifier cue word is unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of modifiers, modifier ambiguity does not persist for each of the projects. The reason that modifier ambiguity is not an issue is that the requirement engineers placed modifiers before the main verb less often, 42 times out of 150, and when they used this placement context disambiguates successfully 65 times out of 66.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS: REFERENTIAL AMBIGUITY

As mentioned in Section 4, for each ambiguity type, the results of each of the RSs are discussed separately because different requirements engineers were involved for each project. Also, an analysis of patterns and differences between the three projects is provided. The projects are referred to as P1, P2, and P3.

5.1 Project **1**

5.1.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of referential cue words of each of this; that; those; these; it; its; they; them; their; theirs; he, him and his; and she, her and hers are 60, 65, 1, 4, 43, 4, 25, 7, 22, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 231 instances. Figure 14 shows the numbers of instances of each referential cue word.

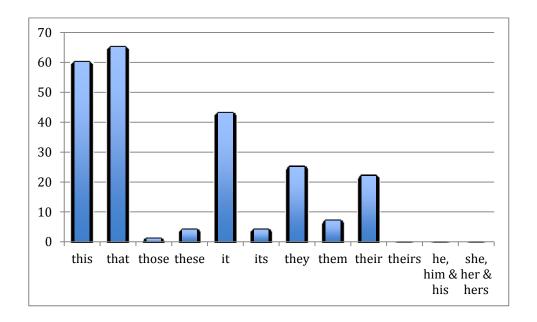


Figure 14 P1: Instances of Referential Cue Words

5.1.1.1 <u>Usage Distribution of Pronouns and Determiners</u>

5.1.1.1.1 Demonstratives

The usage distribution of demonstrative pronouns of each of this, that, those and these are 16, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 16 demonstrative pronouns. The usage distribution of demonstrative determiners of each of this, that, those and these are 44, 65, 1, and 4, respectively, totalling 114 demonstrative determiners. Figure 15 shows the usage distribution of demonstratives.

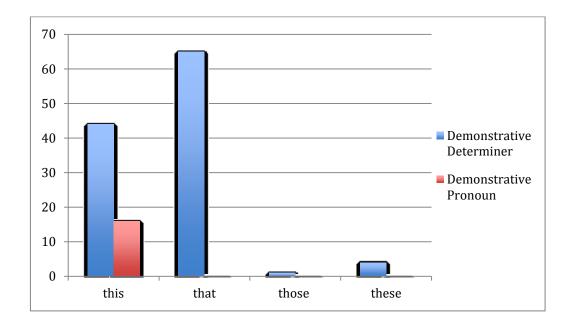


Figure 15 P1: Usage Distribution of Demonstratives

5.1.1.1.2 Possessives

The usage distribution of possessive pronouns of each of its, theirs, her, and his are 4, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 4 possessive pronouns. The usage distribution of

possessive determiners of each of its, their, her, and his are 0, 22, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 22 possessive determiners. Figure 16 shows the usage distribution of possessives.

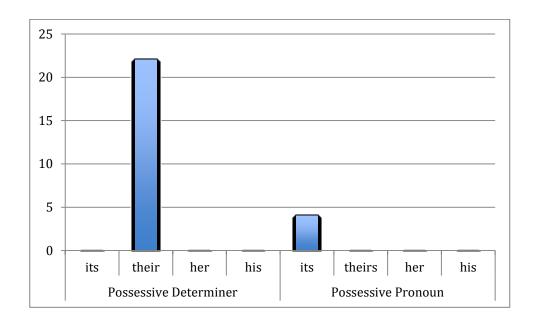


Figure 16 P1: Usage Distribution of Possessives

5.1.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There are nine instances of ambiguity identified. Two instances contain the possessive determiner their, four instances contain the demonstrative determiner this, one instance contain the personal pronoun they, one instance contains the personal pronoun it, and one instance contains the demonstrative pronoun this. This one instance could have been avoided if a demonstrative determiner had been used instead.

There are twice as many ambiguous uses of determiners than uses of pronouns, showing that although determiners may be less ambiguous than pronouns they may still lead to ambiguity.

The requirements engineers used determiners 136 times, and they used pronouns 95 times. The usage distribution of determiners and pronouns is similar between determiners and pronouns and is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the use of references and seem to be unaware of the dangers of pronouns.

Out of 231 instances of referential cue words, 222 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, referential ambiguity does persist. The reason that referential ambiguity is an issue is that the requirements engineers commonly used determiners and pronouns, and context does not disambiguate successfully some of the times.

5.2 Project 2

5.2.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances referential cue words of each of this; that; those; these; it; its; they; them; their; theirs; he, him and his; and she, her and hers are 24, 29, 1, 6, 4, 0, 4, 0, 2, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 70 instances. Figure 17 shows the numbers of instances of each referential cue word.

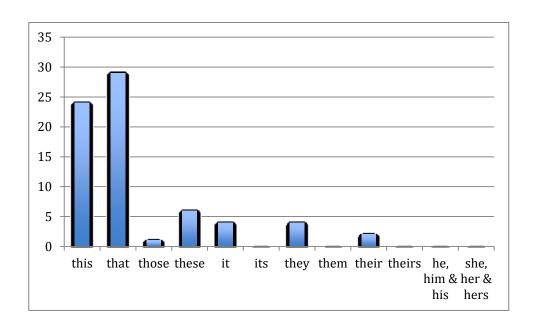


Figure 17 P2: Instances of Referential Cue Words

5.2.1.1 <u>Usage Distribution of Pronouns and Determiners</u>

5.2.1.1.1 Demonstratives

The usage distribution of demonstrative pronouns of each of this, that, those and these are 6, 1, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 7 demonstrative pronouns. The usage distribution of demonstrative determiners of each of this, that, those and these are 18, 28, 1, and 6, respectively, totalling 53 demonstrative determiners. Figure 18 shows the usage distribution of demonstratives.

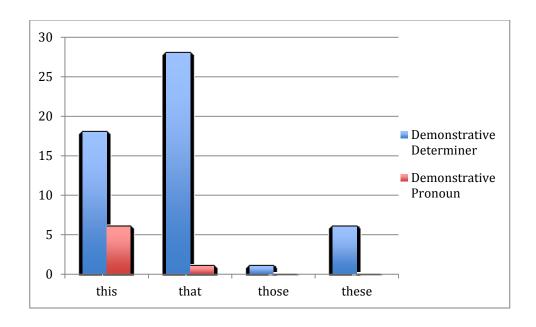


Figure 18 P2: Usage Distribution of Demonstratives

5.2.1.1.2 Possessives

The usage distribution of possessive determiners of each of its, their, her, and his are 0, 2, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 2 possessive determiners; there are zero possessive pronouns.

5.2.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There is only one instance of ambiguity identified. This instance contains the demonstrative pronoun this. This instance of ambiguity could have been avoided if a demonstrative determiner had been used instead.

The requirements engineers used determiners 55 times, and they used pronouns 15 times. The usage distribution of determiners and pronouns is an indication that

some requirements engineers were paying attention to the use of references and seem to be aware of the dangers of pronouns.

Out of 70 instances of referential cue words, 69 instances are unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of referential cue words, referential ambiguity does not persist. The reason that referential ambiguity is not an issue is that when the requirements engineers used determiners and pronouns, context does disambiguate successfully most of the times.

5.3 Project 3

5.3.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of referential cue words of each of this; that; those; these; it; its; they; them; their; theirs; he, him and his; and she, her and hers are 87, 94, 3, 13, 62, 0, 5, 6, 5, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 275 instances. Figure 19 shows the numbers of instances of each referential cue word.

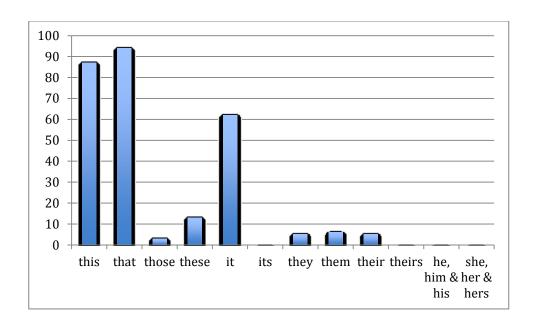


Figure 19 P3: Instances of Referential Cue Words

5.3.1.1 <u>Usage Distribution of Pronouns and Determiners</u>

5.3.1.1.1 Demonstratives

The usage distribution of demonstrative pronouns of each of this, that, those and these are, 59, 4, 1, and 5, respectively, totalling 69 demonstrative pronouns. The usage distribution of demonstrative determiners of each of this, that, those and these are 28, 90, 2, and 8 respectively, totalling 128 demonstrative determiners. Figure 20 shows the usage distribution of demonstratives.

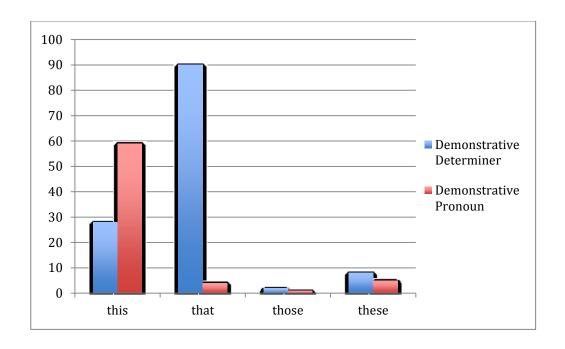


Figure 20 P3: Usage Distribution of Demonstratives

5.3.1.1.2 Possessives

The usage distribution of possessive determiners of each of its, their, her, and his are 0, 5, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 5 possessive determiners; there are zero possessive pronouns.

5.3.2 Instances of Ambiguity

There is one instance of ambiguity identified. This instance contains the demonstrative pronoun this. This instance of ambiguity could have been avoided if a demonstrative determiner had been used instead.

The requirements engineers used determiners 133 times, and they used pronouns 142 times. The usage distribution of determiners and pronouns is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the use of references and seem to be unaware of the dangers of pronouns.

Out of 275 instances of referential cue words, 274 are unambiguous. Therefore, despite the prevalence of referential cue words, referential ambiguity does not persist. The reason that referential ambiguity is not an issue is that when the requirements engineers used determiners and pronouns context does disambiguate successfully most of the times.

5.4 All Three Projects: A Comparative Analysis of P1, P2, and P3

5.4.1 Instances of Cue Words

The total numbers of instances of referential cue words of each of this; that; those; these; it; its; they; them; their; theirs; he, him and his; and she, her and hers are 171, 188, 23, 5, 109, 4, 34, 13, 29, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 576 instances. In each of the three projects, the referential cue word that has the highest number of instances. Figure 21 shows the numbers of instances of each referential cue word for each project.

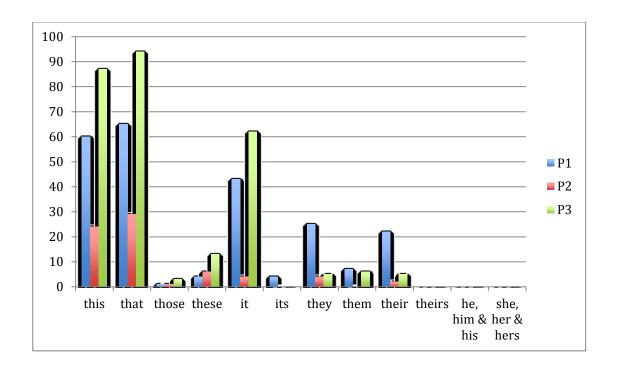


Figure 21 All Three Projects: Placement Distribution of Pronouns and Determiners for Each Project

5.4.1.1 <u>Usage Distribution of Pronouns and Determiners</u>

5.4.1.1.1 Demonstratives

For all three projects, the usage distribution of demonstrative pronouns of each of this, that, those and these are 81, 5, 1, and 5, respectively, totalling 92 demonstrative pronouns. For all three projects, the usage distribution of demonstrative determiners of each of this, that, those and these are 90, 183, 4, and 18, respectively, totalling 295 demonstrative determiners. Figure 22 shows the usage distribution of demonstratives for each project.

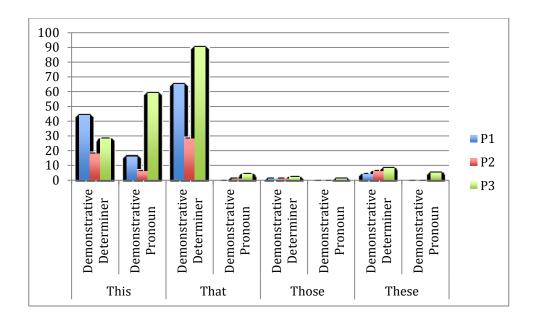


Figure 22 All Three Projects: Usage Distribution of Demonstratives for Each Project

5.4.1.1.2 Possessives

For all three projects, the usage distribution of possessive pronouns of each of its, theirs, hers, and his are 4, 0, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 4 possessive pronouns. For all three projects, the usage distribution of possessive determiners of each of its, their, her, and his are 0, 29, 0, and 0, respectively, totalling 29 possessive determiners. Figure 23 shows the usage distribution of possessives for each project.

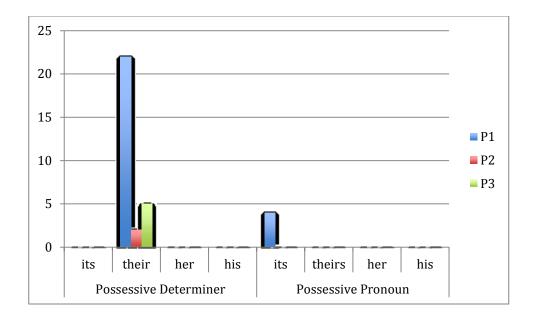


Figure 23 All Three Projects: Usage Distribution of Possessives for Each Project

5.4.2 Instances of Ambiguity

For all three projects, there are 11 instances of ambiguity identified. Four instances contain the demonstrative determiner this, two instances contain the possessive determiner their, one instance contains the personal pronoun they, one instance contains the personal pronoun it, and three instances contain the demonstrative pronoun this. This one instance of ambiguity containing the demonstrative pronoun this could have been avoided if a demonstrative determiner had been used instead.

Figure 24 shows the numbers of instances of ambiguous and unambiguous requirements for each cue word. Figure 25 shows the numbers of instances of ambiguous and unambiguous requirements containing references for each project.

There are nine instances of ambiguity in P1, and one instance of ambiguity in each of P2 and P3. P2 and P3 have a lower number of instances of ambiguity than P1 did.

The requirements engineers for P1 used pronouns slightly more often and used determiners far more often, than P2 and P3.

For all three projects, the usage distribution of pronouns and determiners is an indication that, unlike the requirements engineers for P1 and P3, the requirements engineers for P2 were paying attention to the usage of pronouns and determiners and seem to be aware of the dangers of pronouns.

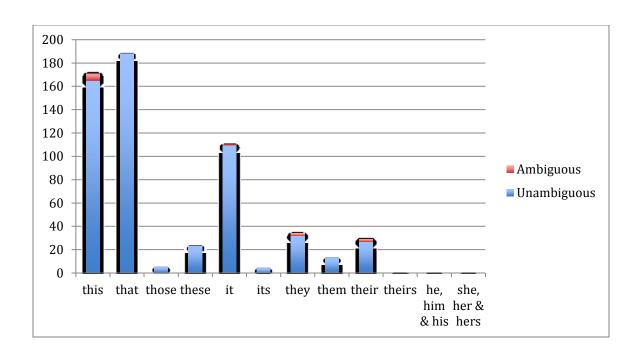


Figure 24 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements for Each Referential Cue Word

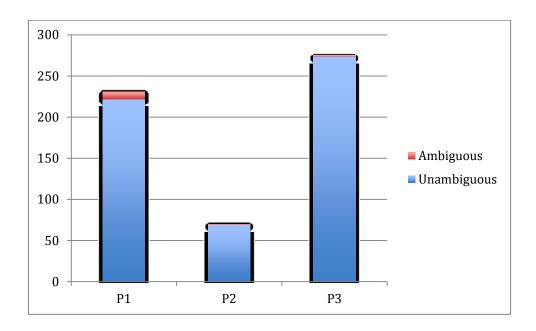


Figure 25 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements Containing References for Each Project

The requirements engineers used determiners 324 times, and they used pronouns 252 times. The usage distribution of pronouns and determiners is an indication that some requirements engineers were paying attention to the placement of the references and seem to be aware of the dangers of pronouns.

Out of 576 instances of referential cue words, 565 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, referential ambiguity does persist for P1. The reason that referential ambiguity is an issue for P1 is that the requirements engineers commonly used determiners and pronouns, and context does not disambiguate successfully some of the times. Even though the requirements engineers used demonstrative determiners far more often than demonstrative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns may still lead to ambiguity.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS: ELLIPTICAL AMBIGUITY

As mentioned in Section 4, for each ambiguity type, an analysis of patterns and differences between the three projects is provided. The projects are referred to as P1, P2, and P3.

6.1 All Three Projects: A Comparative Analysis of P1, P2, and P3

6.1.1 Instances of Cue Words

The total numbers of instances of elliptical cue words of each of than and from are 80 and 1, respectively, totalling 81 instances. In each of the projects, the elliptical cue word than has the highest number of instances. Figure 26 shows the numbers of instances of each elliptical cue word for each project. P1 and P2 has few number instances of elliptical cue words, eight and eight, respectively. P3 has the highest number of instances of elliptical cue words, totalling 65 instances.

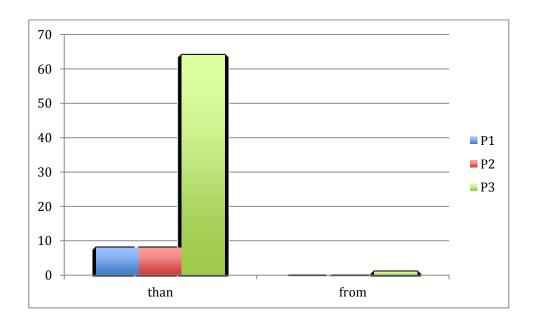


Figure 26 All Three Projects: Instances of Elliptical Cue Words

6.1.2 Instances of Ambiguity

For all three projects, there are zero instances of ambiguity identified. There are zero instances of elliptical cue words that indicate an actual ellipsis. Thus, the requirements engineers in each of these projects seem to be aware of the dangers of elliptical ambiguity. Elliptical ambiguity does not persist in the three projects inspected.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS: CONDITIONAL CLAUSE REFERENCE AMBIGUITY

As mentioned in Section 4, an analysis of patterns and differences between the three projects is provided. The projects are referred to as P1, P2, and P3.

7.1 All Three Projects: A Comparative Analysis of P1, P2, and P3

7.1.1 Instances of Cue Words

The total numbers of instances of conditional clause reference cue words of each of assuming so, assuming not, suppose so, and suppose not, if so and if not are 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, and 2, respectively, totalling four instances. In P1 and P2, there are zero instances of conditional clause reference cue words. In P3, the numbers of instances of conditional clause reference cue words if so and if not are two and two, respectively.

7.1.2 Instances of Ambiguity

For all three projects, there are zero instances of ambiguity identified. Each of the four instances of conditional clause reference cue words is unambiguous. Thus, the requirements engineers seem to be aware of the dangers of conditional clause reference ambiguity. Conditional clause reference ambiguity does not persist in the three projects inspected.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS: PLURAL AMBIGUITY

As mentioned in Section 4, for each ambiguity type, the results of each of the RSs are discussed separately because different requirements engineers were involved for each project. Also, an analysis of patterns and differences between the three projects is provided. The projects are referred to as P1, P2, and P3.

8.1 Project 1

8.1.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of the plural cue words of each of each 14, every, all, any, many, few, both, several, numbers, and plural nouns are 3, 4, 45, 31, 3, 0, 6, 0, 6, and 290, respectively, totalling 388 instances. Figure 27 shows the numbers of instances of each plural cue word.

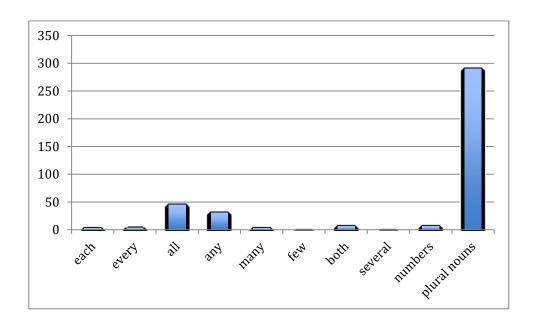


Figure 27 P1: Instances of Plural Cue Words

¹⁴ As noted in Section 3.2.2.5 an instance of the singular quantifiers each, every, and any can be a sign that the requirements engineer is aware of the dangers of plural ambiguity. Therefore, these singular quantifiers are also included as cue words.

8.1.2 Usage Distribution of Plurals

The usage distribution of plurals as a subject, an object and elsewhere are 91, 136, and 161, respectively. Figure 28 shows the usage distribution of plurals.

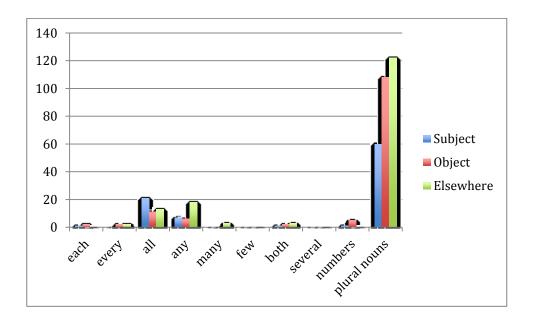


Figure 28 P1: Usage Distribution of Plurals

8.1.3 Instances of Ambiguity

There are three instances of ambiguity identified. Each instance contains a plural noun. One instance has only a plural object, and two instances have a plural subject and a plural object. The three instances could have been avoided if a singular noun had been used as a subject and as an object instead.

The requirements engineers used plurals slightly more often as a subject and an object than as plurals elsewhere. The usage distribution of plurals is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the usage of plurals and seem to be unaware of the dangers of the use of plurals.

Out of 388 instances of a plural cue word, 385 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, plural ambiguity does persist. The reason that plural ambiguity does not persist more often is that when the requirements engineers used plurals as a subject and or an object, context disambiguates successfully most of the times¹⁵.

8.2 Project 2

8.2.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of plural cue words of each of each, every, all, any, many, few, both, several, numbers, and plural nouns are 11, 0, 58, 9, 0, 0, 16, 0, 1, and 312, respectively, totalling 407 instances. Figure 29 shows the numbers of instances of each plural cue word.

¹⁵ A plural noun can be ambiguous only in the subject and or object position. See Examples 21, 23 and 24 in the Ambiguity Model.

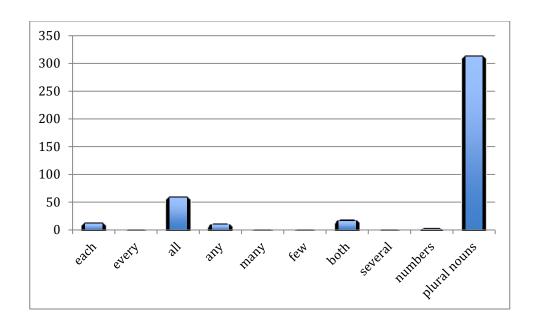


Figure 29 P2: Instances of Plural Cue Words

8.2.2 Usage Distribution of Plurals

The usage distribution of plurals as a subject, an object and elsewhere are 117, 97, and 193, respectively. Figure 30 shows the usage distribution of plurals.

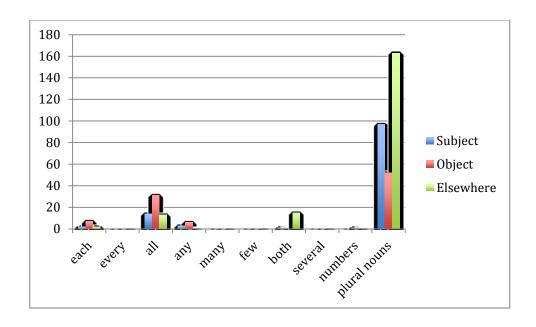


Figure 30 P2: Usage Distribution of Plurals

8.2.3 Instances of Ambiguity

There is one instance of ambiguity identified. This instance contains a plural subject noun phrase. This instance could have been avoided if a singular noun had been used as a subject instead.

The requirements engineers used plurals slightly more often as a subject and an object than as plurals elsewhere. The usage distribution of plurals is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the usage of plurals and seem to be unaware of the dangers of the use of plurals.

Out of 407 instances of plural cue words, 406 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, plural ambiguity does persist. The reason that plural ambiguity does not persist more often is that when the requirements engineers used plurals as a subject and or an object, context disambiguates successfully most of the times.

8.3 Project 3

8.3.1 Instances of Cue Words

The numbers of instances of quantifier cue words of each of each, every, all, any, many, few, both, several, numbers, and plural nouns are 25, 1, 30, 56, 0, 0, 8, 0, 3, and 544, respectively, totalling 667 instances. Figure 31 shows the numbers of instances of each plural cue word.

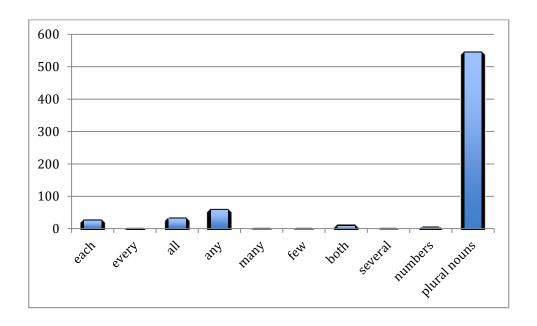


Figure 31 P3: Instances of Plural Cue Words

8.3.2 Usage Distribution of Plurals

The usage distribution of plurals as a subject, an object and elsewhere are 165, 174, and 328, respectively. Figure 32 shows the usage distribution of plurals.

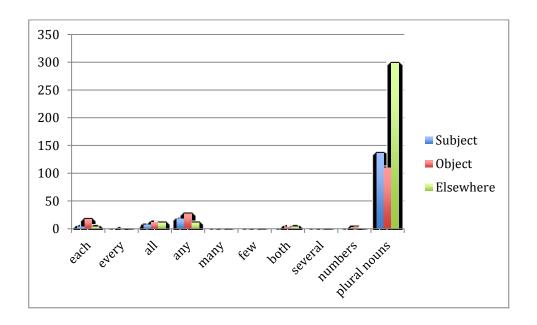


Figure 32 P3: Usage Distribution of Plurals

8.3.3 Instances of Ambiguity

There are two instances of ambiguity identified. The first instance contains the quantifier all as a subject. The second instance contains a plural subject noun

phrase. The two instances could have been avoided if a singular noun had been used as a subject instead.

The requirements engineers used plurals slightly more often as a subject and an object than as plurals elsewhere. The usage distribution of plurals is an indication that some requirements engineers were not paying attention to the usage of plurals and seem to be unaware of the dangers of the use of plurals.

Out of 667 instances of plural cue words, 665 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, plural ambiguity does persist. The reason that plural ambiguity does not persist more often is that when the requirements engineers used plurals as a subject and or an object, context disambiguates successfully most of the times.

8.4 All Three Projects: A Comparative Analysis of P1, P2, and P3

8.4.1 Instances of Cue Words

The total numbers of instances of plural cue words of each of each, every, all, any, many, few, both, several, numbers, and plural nouns are 39, 5, 133, 96, 3, 0, 30, 0, 10, and 1146, respectively, totalling 1462 instances. In each of the three projects, the plural noun has the highest number of instances. Figure 33 shows the numbers of instances of each plural cue word for each project.

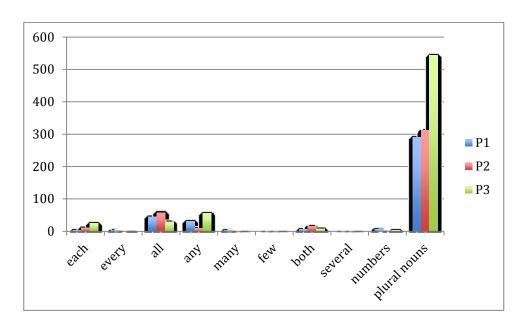


Figure 33 All Three Projects: Instances of Plural Cue Words for Each Project

8.4.2 Usage Distribution of Plurals

The usage distribution of plurals as a subject, an object and elsewhere are 373, 407, and 682, respectively. Figure 34 shows the distribution of plurals for each project.

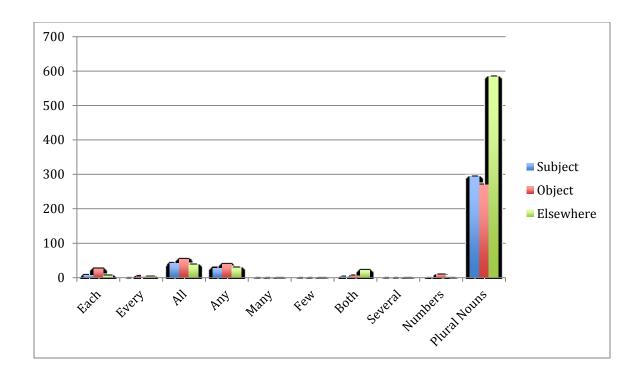


Figure 34 All Three Projects: Usage Distribution of Plurals for Each Project

8.4.3 Instances of Ambiguity

For all three projects, there are six instances of ambiguity identified. One instance contains a quantifier and each of the five instances contains a plural noun. Figure 35 shows the numbers of instances of ambiguous and unambiguous requirements containing plurals for each project. Figure 36 shows the numbers of instances of ambiguous and unambiguous requirements containing plurals for each cue word.

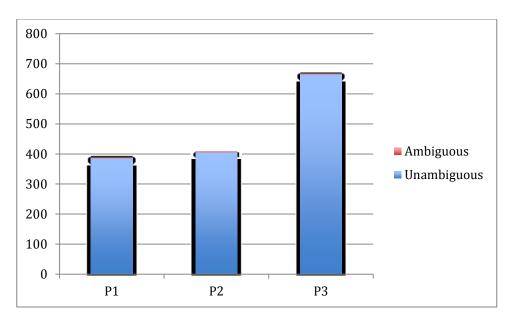


Figure 35 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements Containing Plurals for Each Project

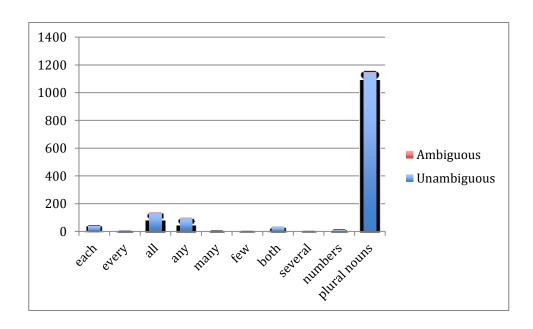


Figure 36 All Three Projects: Instances of Ambiguous and Unambiguous Requirements for Each Plural Cue Word

Instances of ambiguity exist for each project; three instances are in P1, one instance is in P2, and two instances are in P3. P1, P2 and P3 have similar numbers of instances of ambiguity.

For all projects, the requirements engineers used plurals as a subject 373 times, an object 407 times, and elsewhere 682 times. The requirements engineers used plurals slightly more often as a subject and an object than as plurals elsewhere. The usage distribution of plurals is an indication that the requirements engineers were not paying attention to the usage of plurals and seem to be unaware of the dangers of the usage of plurals.

Out of 1462 instances of plural cue words, 1456 instances are unambiguous. Nevertheless, plural ambiguity does persist. The reason that plural ambiguity does not persist more often is that when the requirements engineers used plurals as a subject and or an object, context disambiguates successfully most of the times.

CHAPTER NINE

INTERVIEW RESULTS

The chief requirements engineer of each project was interviewed to determine if any of the identified instances of ambiguity identified caused any problems during the project. Using the author's experience as a software engineer, each project's list of instances of ambiguity was ranked in the order of instances most likely to cause damage or problems, and most likely to have been overlooked. If the chief requirements engineer can dedicate only a small amount of time for the interview, this ranking strategy ensures that if an interview ends before the list is exhausted, the instances of ambiguity most likely to cause problems will have been covered. If the

instances of ambiguity most likely to cause damage are innocuous, then the remaining instances of ambiguities further down the list are most likely innocuous too.

9.1 Project **1**

In P1's RS, the instance of ambiguity most likely to cause damage is a referential ambiguity using the pronoun this. This instance of ambiguity has two interpretations that affect the data structures that are required. The other instances of ambiguity are referential and plural.

The referential ambiguity mentioned above, was determined to be innocuous by the chief requirements engineer. The chief requirements engineer was not aware of this instance of ambiguity, but the entire team of requirements engineers had subconsciously disambiguated the reference in the same way. The team was dedicated to this software project, and they were familiar and comfortable with the language. The chief requirements engineer was not aware of any problems later in the life of the software that would have been caused by this ambiguity.

9.2 Project 2

P2's RS was well written and there are only two instances of ambiguity in the entire project. The instance of ambiguity most likely to cause damage is a plural ambiguity. This instance is a plural subject, and there are two possible interpretations. The interpretation affects the maximum size of a data structure that is required.

The second most likely instance of ambiguity to cause damage is a referential ambiguity using the pronoun this. This instance has five possible interpretations and affects the implementation of a process.

Each instance of ambiguity was determined to be innocuous by the chief requirements engineer. The chief requirements engineer was not aware of either instance of ambiguity, but the entire team of requirements engineers had subconsciously disambiguated each in the same way. For the instance of referential ambiguity, the chief requirements engineer does not believe that this instance of ambiguity was a problem as the process was implemented correctly. For the instance of plural ambiguity, the chief requirements engineer does not believe that this instance of ambiguity was a problem, as the relevant business process is controlled in other applications, and the instance of ambiguity never presented itself in those applications.

9.3 Project 3

In P3's RS, the instance of ambiguity most likely to cause damage is a plural ambiguity using the plural quantifier all. This instance of ambiguity is a plural subject, and there are two possible interpretations. The interpretation affects the implementation of a process. Other instances of ambiguity in P3 were referential, plural, and modifier ambiguities.

The first plural ambiguity mentioned above, was determined to be innocuous by the chief requirements engineer. The chief requirements engineer was not aware of the instance of ambiguity, but the entire team of requirements engineers had subconsciously disambiguated it in the same way. The chief requirements engineer thought that the team interpreted it correctly either by experience or common sense. The chief requirements engineer did not believe that this instance of ambiguity was a problem, as each member of the team who read the requirements understood how the business operates and did not see any ambiguity.

CHAPTER TEN

DISCUSSION

10.1 Prevalence of Persistent Ambiguity

For the three RSs inspected, there is an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 15.38 pages; P1 has the highest average of one persistent ambiguity for every 3.33 pages, P3 has an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 31.25 pages, and P2 has the lowest average of one persistent ambiguity for every 56 pages.

For each project, the persistent ambiguity identification method identified the existence of persistent ambiguities, and most of these ambiguities went undetected by the requirements engineers, increasing their likelihood of causing damage. For the ambiguities identified, there were no signs of discussion and no domain knowledge. The fact that these persistent ambiguities remain in the RSs after multiple focused inspections is evidence that these ambiguity types are in fact persistent.

10.2 Factors Affecting Persistent Ambiguity

I had expected three factors would affect ambiguity; however, number of viable interpretations and writing style has an affect on persistent ambiguity and project size does not have an affect on persistent ambiguity. These three factors are likely to be relevant in determining the extent to which inspecting for persistent ambiguity is useful, potentially leading to the avoidance and minimization of persistent ambiguity. Further study of the effect of these factors on persistent ambiguity is recommended.

10.2.1 Number of Viable Interpretations

Some persistent ambiguity types seem more ambiguous than others. Figure 37 shows the average number of interpretations of instances of ambiguity for each persistent ambiguity type for each project. Figure 38 shows the average number of in-

terpretations for each instance of ambiguity for each persistent ambiguity type for all projects. I expected that the referential ambiguity type would be ambiguous more often because of its capacity for a considerable number of interpretations. In fact, the referential ambiguity type does occur 11 times, which is almost twice as often as the second most common ambiguity type to be ambiguous, plural ambiguity.

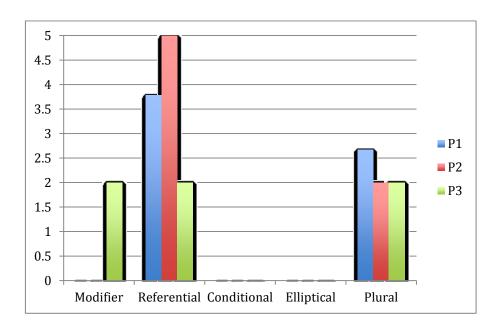


Figure 37 Average Number of Interpretations for Each Ambiguity Type for Each Project

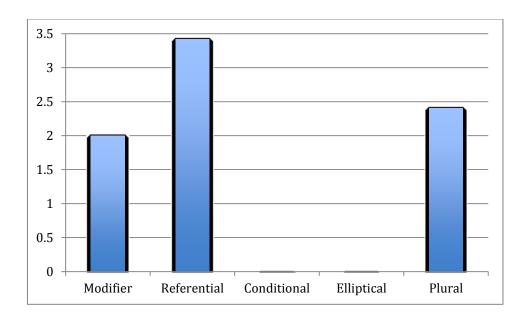


Figure 38 Average Interpretations for Each Ambiguity Type for All Projects

10.2.2 Writing Style

The writing styles of the requirements engineers involved in each project differ in their usage of the cue words. Particular usages of the cue words may avoid ambiguity.

10.2.2.1 <u>Modifier</u>

Table 6. Average Number of Instances per Page of Modifier Ambiguities and Modifier Placement for Each Project

Project	Ambiguities	Before the Main Verb	Somewhere Else	Before the Subject	At the End of a Requirement
P1	0	0.175	0.3	0.075	0.375
P2	0	0.018	0.143	0	0.205
P3	0.008	0.272	0.256	0.016	0.04

Table 6 shows the modifier placement for each project. P3 is the only project that has a modifier ambiguity. P3 has the highest number of instances of modifiers placed before the main verb and this placement creates uncertainty over whether the literal meaning is intended, particularly if all modifiers are placed before the main verb. P3 has the lowest number of instances of modifiers placed at the end of a requirement, and this placement is unambiguous. The writing style of the requirements engineers of P3 likely resulted in more modifier ambiguity than the writing styles of the requirements engineers of P1 and P2.

10.2.2.2 Reference

Table 7. Average Number of Instances per Page of Referential Ambiguities and Reference Usage for Each Project

Project	Ambiguities	As a Pronoun	As a Determiner
P1	0.23	0.5	3.4
P2	0.009	0.6	0.49
P3	0.008	0.59	1.024

Table 7 shows the reference usage for each project. P1 has the highest number of instances of referential ambiguity. Of all persistent ambiguity types, referential ambiguity has the largest difference in usage among the three projects. Table 7 shows a notably higher number of referential ambiguities in P1 than in the other two projects. In P1, determiners were ambiguous almost seven times as often as pronouns were.

P1 has the highest usage of determiners. The three projects have a very similar usage of pronouns. The writing style of the requirements engineers of P1 likely resulted in more referential ambiguity than the writing style of the requirements engineers of P2 and P3.

10.2.2.3 Elliptical

Each project has zero instances of elliptical ambiguity. Each project used a low number of instances of elliptical cue words compared to cue words for other persistent ambiguity types. For all three projects, there is a total of 81 instances of elliptical cue words, yet zero instances have an actual ellipsis. The writing style of the requirements engineers of each project avoided the use of ellipses.

10.2.2.4 Conditional Clause Reference

Each project has zero instances of conditional clause reference ambiguity. P1 and P2 each have zero instances of conditional clause reference cue words. P3 has a total of four instances of conditional clause reference cue words, yet zero of these instances were ambiguous. The writing styles of the requirements engineers of P1 and P2 avoided the use of conditional clause references. The writing style of the requirements engineers of P3 used conditional clause references sparingly.

10.2.2.5 Plural

Table 8. Average Number of Instances per Page of Plural Ambiguities and Plural Usage for Each Project

Project	Ambiguities	As a Subject	As an Object	Elsewhere
P1	0.075	2.275	3.4	4.025
P2	0.009	1.045	0.866	1.72
P3	0.016	1.32	1.39	2.62

Table 8 shows the plural usage for each project. P1 has the highest number of instances of plural ambiguity. P1 has the highest usage of plurals in all positions. The use of a plural as a subject is the most ambiguous use, but use as an object may also cause ambiguity. The use of a plural elsewhere in a requirement is unambiguous. The writing style of the requirements engineers for P1 likely resulted in more plural ambiguity than the writing style of the requirements engineers of P2 and P3.

10.2.3 Project Size

There is no good way to quantify project size. Measuring project size by the number of requirements is problematic as the size of a requirement can vary greatly in the total number of words. Therefore, a project's size is measured by the number of standard 8.5 by 11 inch pages the project's RS has.

Table 9. Project Size

Project Number	Number of Pages	Number of Instances of Cue Words	Number of Instances of Ambiguities
P1	40	757	12
P2	112	423	2
Р3	125	1835	4

An examination of Table 9 shows that project size is not a factor affecting ambiguity. I expected the number of instances of each of cue words and ambiguity to increase as a project's size increases. Surprisingly, the data disproves this expectation. Project size does not correlate with the number of instances of either cue words or ambiguities. It seems that the key factors affecting the instances of ambiguity in a project are (1) that some persistent ambiguity types are more ambiguous, in terms of number of possible interpretations per instance, than others and (2) the writing style of the requirements engineers.

10.3 Impact of Persistent Ambiguity

For each project, the team of requirements engineers subconsciously disambiguated the identified persistent ambiguities in the same way, according to the norms and business processes that everyone understood. This group-wise subconscious disambiguation occurred naturally as a result of the group's continual discussion throughout the project.

The chief requirements engineers of P1 and P3 were each interviewed about one instance of ambiguity and the chief requirements engineer of P2 was interviewed about two instances of ambiguities, totalling four instances.

Each instance of ambiguity, previously ranked most likely to cause damage, was determined innocuous by the chief requirements engineer of each project. Each chief requirements engineer was unaware of the ambiguity in his or her respective project, and reported that the team of requirements engineers had subconsciously disambiguated the ambiguity in the same way.

P2 has only two instances of ambiguities identified for the entire project. The chief requirements engineer was interviewed about both instances, and each instance of ambiguity was reported as innocuous. For P1 and P3, the chief requirements engineers were not interviewed for all instances of ambiguities identified due to limited time.

For P2, it can be concluded that there is zero impact of persistent ambiguity for the entire project. For P1 and P3, it can be concluded that there is zero impact of persistent ambiguity for the instances of ambiguity that the chief requirements engineers were interviewed about, and these instances were the most likely among the ambiguities identified to have an impact.

10.4 Cost Benefit Analysis of Persistent Ambiguity: Initial Identification versus Repair of Any Damage Caused Later in the SDLC

10.4.1 Inherent Strengths and Weaknesses of Each Approach

Table 10 gives the inherent strengths and weaknesses of initial identification of persistent ambiguity versus repairing any damage caused later in the SDLC.

Table 10. Strengths and Weaknesses of Approaches

Approach	Strengths	Weaknesses
Initial Identification	 Increased confidence in project success. Potential prevention of damage and resulting decreases in repair costs. 	• Increase in implementation time and associated labour costs.
Repair of Any Damage Caused Later in the SDLC	Decrease in implementation time and associated labour costs.	 Decreased confidence in project success. Increase in potential repair costs of damage.

The strengths and weaknesses seem to be exactly counter balanced, yet they are not exactly counter balanced. There is a difference in the costs of early and late repairs. Initial identification can significantly decrease potential repair costs because, as previously noted, the cost to repair a defect increases exponentially with the SDLC phase during which the defect is detected.

10.4.2 Retrospective Cost Benefit Analysis of the Three Studies

Not all of the instances of ambiguities were reviewed by the chief requirements engineer in the interview; however, the remaining ambiguities are less likely to cause damage because of the ranking in order of likelihood to cause damage.

In general, the potential cost of repairing any damage caused by persistent ambiguities (i.e., if any ambiguity had been interpreted by any team member differently from the intended interpretation and it turned out to be nocuous) could be quite high as the cost to repair increases exponentially in the later phases of the SDLC. If a nocuous ambiguity had been identified, the least expensive approach would have been the identification of persistent ambiguity.

In retrospect, for the three projects analyzed and the ambiguities reviewed by each chief requirements engineer, it turns out that the less expensive approach would have been to forego initially identifying persistent ambiguity.

As none of the ambiguities reviewed by the chief requirements engineer of each project turned out to be nocuous, there is no damage caused resulting in no repair costs.

10.5 Cost Benefit Analysis of Identifying Persistent Ambiguity versus All Ambiguity Types

Whenever there is an ambiguous requirement, there is a possibility that a team member will subconsciously disambiguate it differently from other team members of the project team. A major goal of this research is to identify ambiguities that people are unaware of, persistent ambiguities, and to focus on awareness of persistent ambiguity types so that it can be determined through cost benefit analysis whether identification early in the SDLC and the resulting reduction in damage is an effective and efficient approach.

The persistent ambiguity identification method is successful in identifying undetected ambiguities remaining in the RSs after multiple inspections. This means that my strategy focused attention on those ambiguities that could have been subconsciously disambiguated incorrectly. In particular, the persistent ambiguity identification method successfully identified modifier, referential, and plural ambiguities. Referential ambiguity is found in all three projects and is the most commonly identified ambiguity; of the types studied, referential ambiguity is shown to have the highest number of viable interpretations leading to ambiguity.

There is a high cost to identifying *all* ambiguity as it requires multiple focused inspections that are time consuming. Conversely, the *persistent* ambiguity identification method is less expensive because it cuts down the inspection time by cutting down the number of ambiguity types to identify.

This method is a new strategy that recognizes the potential for minimizing resources should be spent inspecting for ambiguity if a project has a good RE process in which the requirements are thoroughly discussed, for example the RE process at the company that implemented these three projects. Therefore, the persistent ambiguity identification method is potentially the basis of a cost effective inspection method.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSIONS

11.1 Summary

A comprehensive ambiguity model based on linguistic ambiguity and its application to RE is presented. The model was developed and subsequently analyzed to determine the ambiguity types likely to result in subconscious disambiguation and therefore likely to persist, defined in this research as persistent ambiguity.

The research goal was to identify persistent ambiguity, quantify any resulting damage, and conduct a cost benefit analysis of approaches to identify ambiguity. Two approaches were analyzed: identification of persistent ambiguity versus repairing any resulting damage and identification of persistent ambiguity versus identification of all ambiguity. Current research is questioning the value of identifying ambiguity because it has been suggested that ambiguities are resolved through continual discussion. However, by definition persistent ambiguity has the potential to remain in the RSs after multiple inspections and continual discussion.

A method was developed for inspecting for persistent ambiguity in RSs and three RSs were inspected for instances of persistent ambiguity as defined in the model. Each chief requirements engineer verified whether the persistent ambiguities likely to have the greatest impact on each project were indeed interpreted ambiguously, and if so, what the impact was.

The first research question asked "What is the prevalence of persistent ambiguity?" In the three requirements specifications inspected there is an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 15.38 pages; P1 has the highest prevalence with an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 3.33 pages, P3 has a prevalence of an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 31.25 pages, and P2 has the lowest prevalence with an average of one persistent ambiguity for every 56 pages.

The second research question asked "What is the impact of persistent ambiguity?" In the three projects, none of the persistent ambiguities reviewed by the chief requirements engineer caused expensive damage. The team of requirements engineers in each project were unaware of each instance of persistent ambiguity but seemed to subconsciously disambiguate the ambiguities in the same way. This consistent group-wise SD was likely the result of everyone's understanding of the norms and business processes.

This research provides additional support for both de Bruijn's and Philippo's findings, that ambiguity in RSs does not have a significant impact on the development of a CBS. I conducted a purposive sampling focused on persistent ambiguity in all of the requirements whereas they conducted a random sampling of the requirements focused on all ambiguity. The purposive sampling failed to find the disproof, and thus ended up strengthening de Bruijn's and Philippo's findings.

The third and final research question asked "Which approach has the lower cost: identifying persistent ambiguities in an RS during RE or repairing the damage caused by undetected ambiguities in later phases of the SDLC?" For the three projects analyzed and the persistent ambiguities reviewed by each chief requirements engineer, the least expensive approach would have been to forego initially identifying persistent ambiguity in these three projects. Nonetheless, each project failed to identify its specification's persistent ambiguities; although each of the three projects was successfully implemented and had a good RE process, persistent ambiguity re-

mained in each project even after multiple focused requirements inspections. Each of the persistent ambiguities identified has the potential to cause damage. In mission critical systems, such as a nuclear power plant, damage may be very expensive and potentially cost lives. Especially for these systems, a thorough requirements review including the identification and removal of persistent ambiguities should be considered. In fact, any project, regardless of how good its RE process is, could potentially benefit from the identification of persistent ambiguities in an RS during RE.

The first main conclusion is that, as expected, persistent ambiguity remained undetected by the teams of requirements engineers despite intense continual discussion. The second main conclusion is that the process used by these particular RE teams for these particular projects is enough to prevent damage. The third main conclusion is that the identification of persistent ambiguity is potentially more effective and efficient than identifying all ambiguity in RSs.

11.2 Contributions

This research presents a comprehensive state-of-the-art ambiguity model for RSs, combining research from computational linguistics, linguistics, and RE. This model covers all ambiguity types and includes a special focus on persistent ambiguity, that is, instances of types that are most likely to result in SD and remain undetected despite continual discussions among RE team members and the resulting resolution of defects. In addition, a method is presented to identify persistent ambiguity in RSs.

In fact, persistent ambiguity was identified in each of the projects analyzed suggesting that persistent ambiguity does remain undetected.

My strategy is potentially cost effective because it reduces the amount of ambiguity to inspect by focusing on ambiguity that might not be resolved through continual discussion because the requirements engineers are unaware of it. The identification of persistent ambiguity in RSs is potentially an effective and efficient strategy for minimizing damage caused by ambiguity precisely because of its focus on ambiguity that remained undetected due to lack of awareness. Current research suggests that a focus on *all* ambiguity is not cost effective because continual discussion of RSs results in implementations with no ambiguity related defects. Therefore, the persistent ambiguity inspection strategy is a scalable lower cost RS ambiguity inspection method.

The strengths and weaknesses of initial ambiguity identification versus repair of any damage caused later in the SDLC are not counter balanced. Although avoiding an initial identification of persistent ambiguity may decrease implementation time and associated labour costs, initial identification can significantly decrease potential repair costs because the cost to repair a defect increases exponentially in the later SDLC phases. While all systems could potentially benefit from the identification of persistent ambiguity, for mission critical systems in particular, damage may be very expensive and potentially cost lives. These systems could especially benefit from a

thorough requirements review including the identification and removal of persistent ambiguities.

Finally, software engineers and requirements engineers could use knowledge of persistent ambiguity to produce higher quality RSs and decrease software defects by writing RSs differently.

11.3 Future Work

Any empirical study may be better supported with additional studies. The three studies on the prevalence and impact of persistent ambiguity can be extended in various ways.

11.3.1 Ambiguity Types Investigated for Persistent Ambiguity

Persistent ambiguity was investigated in five ambiguity types chosen because I assumed that these types are more likely to result in ambiguities that people subconsciously disambiguate due to their lack of awareness. This inability to perceive that ambiguity exists may result in persistent ambiguity remaining in an RS even after continual discussion about the RS and its known ambiguities. Two ambiguity types studied, elliptical and conditional clause reference, did not result in persistent ambiguity in the three studies conducted. Further study is necessary to assess if these types chosen are indeed the types that people are likely to be unaware of. This research would determine if the other types not investigated result in persistent am-

biguity. In addition to the relationship between ambiguity type and persistent ambiguity, further research is necessary to determine the effect of other factors on their relationship.

11.3.2 Prevalence of Persistent Ambiguity

In the three studies that were situated in one company, industry, and three different teams, an average of one persistent ambiguity was identified for every 15.38 pages. However, additional and larger studies are necessary to determine the prevalence of persistent ambiguity in different contexts. The three aspects of context likely to have an effect are companies, industries, and people involved.

11.3.3 Impact of Persistent Ambiguity

This research found that persistent ambiguity did not have an impact in the three studies conducted. Due to the limited time each chief requirements engineer could dedicate to the interview, the number of ambiguities reviewed for their resulting impact was small. In my opinion as a domain-ignorant inspector I was surprised that these persistent ambiguities identified were subconsciously disambiguated in the same way by each of the requirements engineers. On the other hand, the company is known to be serious about RE and doing a thorough job of requirements analysis. In such a serious analysis, people tend to come to a consensus more often. Therefore, additional and larger studies are necessary to determine the impact of persistent ambiguity in different companies, industries, and people involved.

11.3.4 Cost Benefit Analyses of Persistent Ambiguity

Further cost benefit analyses are necessary for both initially inspecting for persistent ambiguity versus repairing any damage caused by persistent ambiguity later in the SDLC, as well as inspecting for persistent ambiguity versus inspecting for all ambiguity. These analyses will aid in determining the most effective and efficient allocation of resources to the problem of ambiguity in RSs.

11.3.5 Factors Affecting Persistent Ambiguity

It would be valuable to further investigate the factors affecting persistent ambiguity. The findings of the three studies have potential significance in industry, and software engineers and requirements engineers can benefit from knowledge of the factors that affect persistent ambiguity. The factors investigated in this research include the number of interpretations for each ambiguity, writing style, and project size. Further study of these three factors in different contexts is necessary to determine further their effect on (1) persistent ambiguity and its prevalence, as well as on (2) its potential impacts.

However, additional factors may affect persistent ambiguity and its potential significance in industry. Software engineers and requirements engineers can benefit from knowledge of all the factors that affect persistent ambiguity. Further study is necessary to determine what factors affect persistent ambiguity and its prevalence, as well as its potential impacts. Potential factors include people's backgrounds and other stakeholders.

Because persistent ambiguity is immune to the normally beneficial affects of discussion, a key factor in its impact is whether or not people subconsciously disambiguate an instance of persistent ambiguity in the same way. Potential factors affecting how people subconsciously disambiguate include aspects of the backgrounds of people involved in the project. With internationalization of businesses and specifically the globalization of software development [52], more and more people are involved from different parts of the world, and outsourcing has also become common. In some cases there may be involvement from interdepartmental teams.

People from such varied backgrounds may have differences in terminology, work environment, and perspective that can result in differing assumptions that affect how they subconsciously disambiguate. Further study of projects embedded in complex environments will shed light on the affect of people's backgrounds on persistent ambiguity.

Another potentially relevant aspect of a person's background is their native language background. For example, English as a second language speakers may subconsciously disambiguate differently from native English speakers, and this may depend on their experience in and facility with English. Ironically, a non-native English speaker whose original language's standard placement of modifiers is correct placement may have an easier time avoiding and spotting modifier misplacement.

Finally, depending on the software project there may be other stakeholders involved, for example, clients or experts from different industries. Software engineers and requirements engineers through training and the nature of their work with requirements may subconsciously disambiguate differently from other stakeholders. A deeper understanding of this factor would be useful for software engineers and requirements engineers when working with other stakeholders in the development of software.

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APPENDIX A

USAGE FREQUENCY STUDY

A usage frequency study was conducted with various usage queries using the Google search engine. This usage study is a quick way of comparing usage frequencies. In addition, the output of Google queries allows for examining the context of the queried phrase.

A list of queries to assess different modifier placements was created by pairing the modifier only with each of the five most commonly used verb forms, which are listed below. The modifier only is the most frequently used modifier and the only modifier

to cause ambiguity in the three RSs. For this reason, only is the modifier chosen to conduct the usage frequency queries for modifiers.

A list of the five verbs that are the most commonly used with the modifier only in the RSs was created. These verbs were identified using word frequency counts, using the three RSs as input data. The five verbs identified are: be, add, change, send, and record.

A list of queries to assess different plural usages was created by pairing each of the quantifiers each and all with each of the five most commonly used verb forms, which are listed below. These quantifiers were chosen for the plural queries because they can demonstrate examples of the usage of plural quantifiers when the intended interpretation is distributive.

A list of the five verbs that are the most commonly used with the quantifiers all and each in the RSs is created in a similar manner, using word frequency counts, and the three RSs as input data. The five verbs identified are: identify, support, approve, impact, and request.

A.1 Modifier Placement Usage Frequency Examples

Modifier placement is indicative of people's awareness of modifier ambiguity. The study reveals that overall, for each of the 5 verb forms studied, the modifier only is placed before the main verb 267,010,000 times and is placed after the main verb 39,634,000 times. Thus, only is placed before a verb 6.7 times more often than after a verb, supporting the assumption that before the main verb is the placement used frequently.

Query 1, only be, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 245,000,000 times. See Figure 39. Query 2, be only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 35,300,000 times. See Figure 40. Thus, only be occurs 6.9 times more frequently than be only.

Query 3, only send, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 6,710,000 times. See Figure 41. Query 4, send only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 595,000 times. See Figure 42. Thus, only send occurs 11.3 times more frequently than send only.

Query 5, only add, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 6,170,000 times. See Figure 43. Query 6, add only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 615,000 times. See Figure 44. Thus, only add occurs 10 times more frequently than add only.

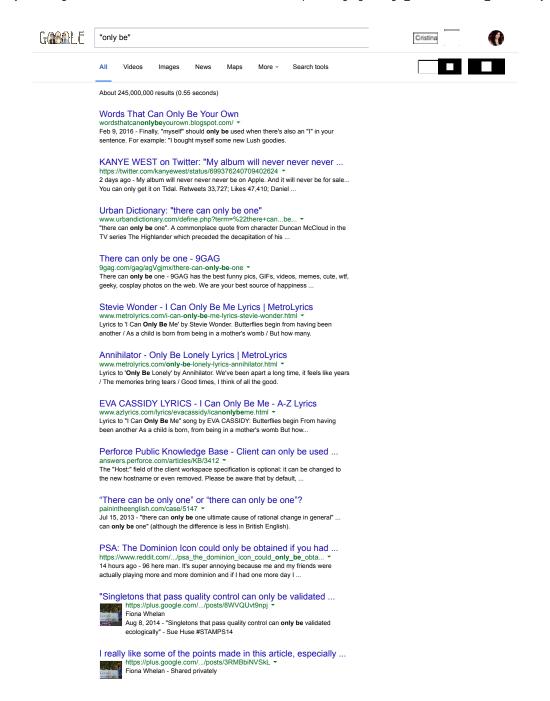
Query 7, only change, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 6,110,000 times. See Figure 45. Query 8, change only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 2,590,000 times. See Figure 46. Thus, only change occurs 2.5 times more frequently than change only.

Query 9, only record, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 3,020,000 times. See Figure 47. Query 10, record only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 534,000 times. See Figure 48. Thus, only record occurs 5.7 times more frequently than record only.

The verb **be** is a highly irregular verb and it seems to have an idiomatic use with the modifier **only**. With **be, been**, and **being** there is a preference for placement before the verb form 6.2 times more often than after the verb form. With the other five forms of **be** (**am**, **is**, **are**, **was**, and **were**) there is a preference for placement after the verb form 9.2 times more often than before the verb form. The difference could be because of **be**s usage as an auxiliary verb more often than is the case with other verbs. The queries include when each of the verb forms is either a main verb or an auxiliary verb. When the verb form **am**, **is**, **are**, **was**, or **were** is used as an auxiliary verb then the placement of the **only** is after this verb form, which means that the **only** is placed before the main verb because the main verb follows the auxiliary verb. Table 11 shows the results of the queries with the different forms of the verb **be**.

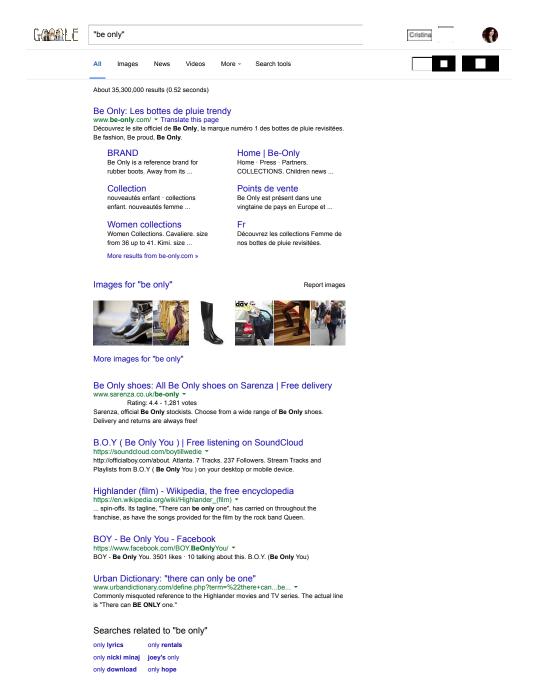
Table 11. Usage Frequency of Modifier Queries with the Verb **be**

Query	Usage Frequency
only be	245,000,000
be only	35,300,000
only been	40,600,000
been only	6,200,000
only being	16,800,000
being only	7,140,000
only am	646,000
am only	15,300,000
only is	48,100,000
is only	436,000,000
only are	23,200,000
are only	197,000,000
only was	14,300,000
was only	148,000,000
only were	5,630,000
were only	45,800,000



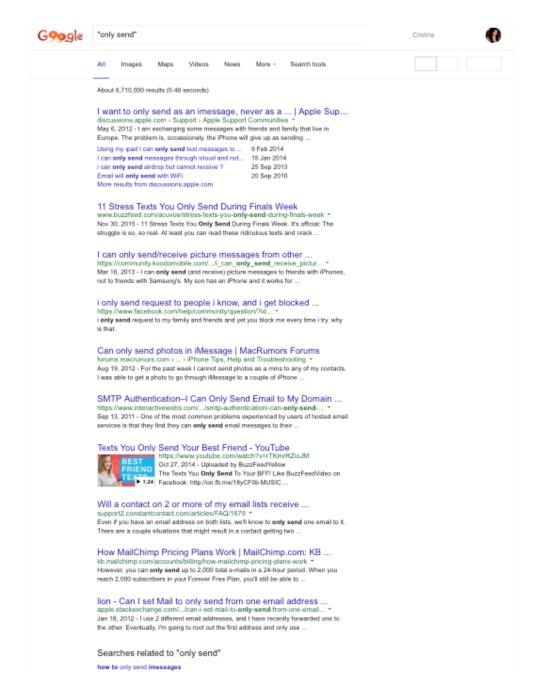
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 9:59 PM

Figure 39 Modifier Query 1: "only be"



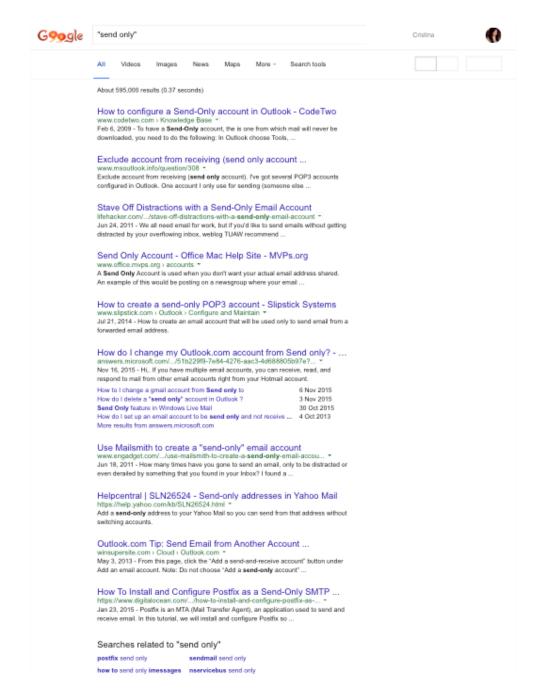
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 9:59 PM

Figure 40 Modifier Query 2: "be only"



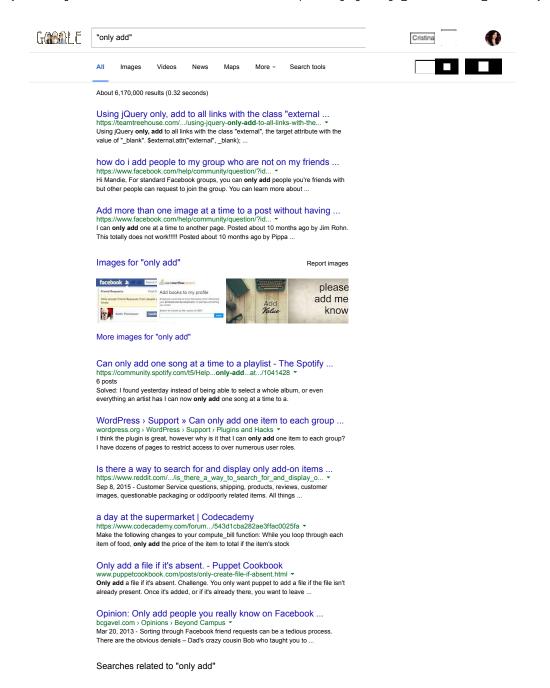
1 of 2 2016-02-08, & 18 PM

Figure 41 Modifier Query 3: "only send"



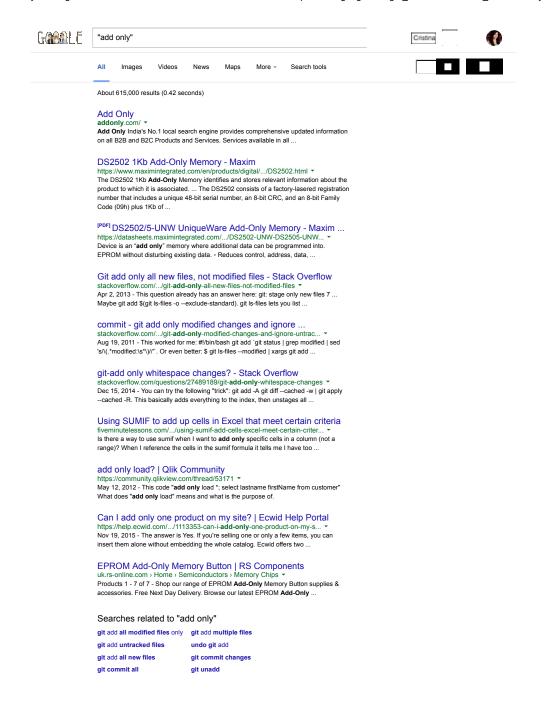
1 of 2 2016-02-08, & 18 PM

Figure 42 Modifier Query 4: "send only"



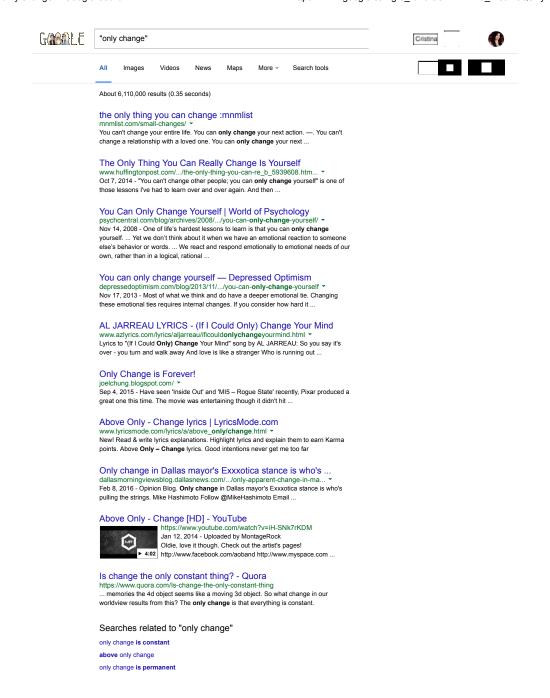
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 10:02 PM

Figure 43 Modifier Query 5: "only add"



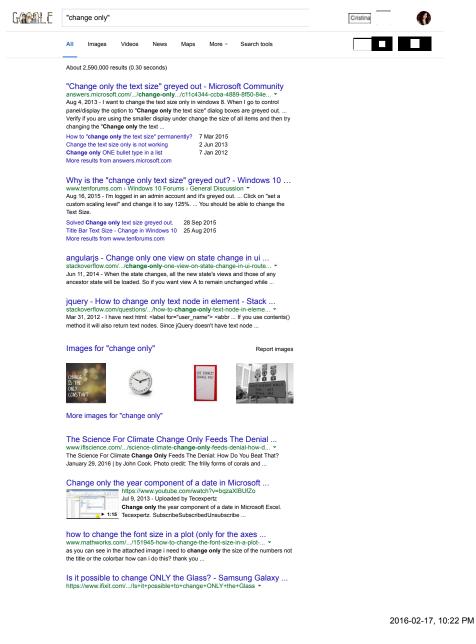
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 9:59 PM

Figure 44 Modifier Query 6: "add only"



1 of 2 2016-02-17, 10:01 PM

Figure 45 Modifier Query 7: "only change"



1 of 2

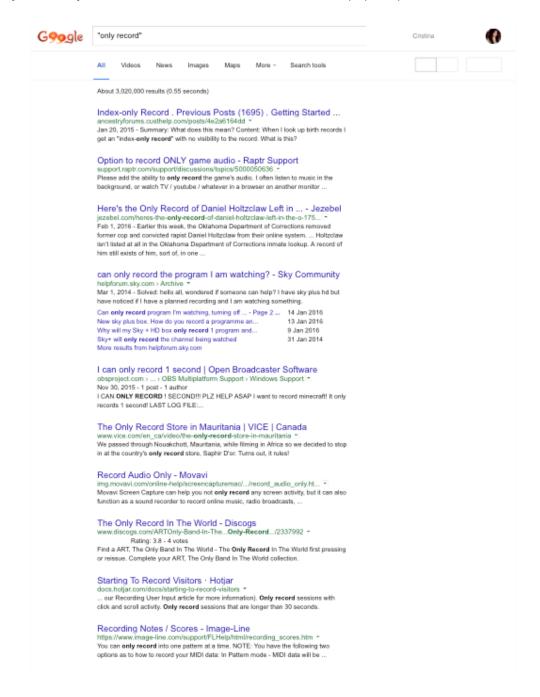
"change only" - Google Search

https://www.google.ca/?gfe_rd=cr&ei=2DLFVu_iA8aD8Qewy...

Hi, I'd like to know if it is posible to exchange the top glass of the Galaxy Nexus 19250. The screen on my device is working OK only the glass has cracked.

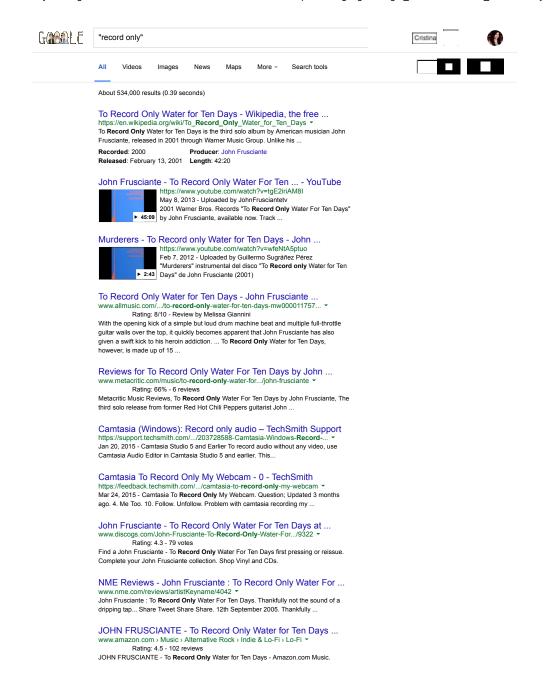
Real change only happens when you want... - Coach Scott ... https://www.facebook.com/CoachScottAbel/posts/417484081596147 *
Real change only happens when you want it - and want it a lot more than you fear itand want it a lot more than you fear staying right where you are now - till ...

Figure 46 Modifier Query 8: "change only"



1 of 2 2016-02-08, 4:45 PM

Figure 47 Modifier Query 9: "only record"



1 of 2 2016-02-17, 10:18 PM

Figure 48 Modifier Query 10: "record only"

A.2 Plural Usage Frequency Examples

The use of a singular subject is indicative of people's awareness of plural ambiguity. The study reveals that overall, for each of the 5 verb forms studied, people write plural rather than singular when talking about what each member of a set does, supporting the assumption that plural quantifiers are commonly used when the intended interpretation is distributive warranting the use of a singular quantifier use instead.

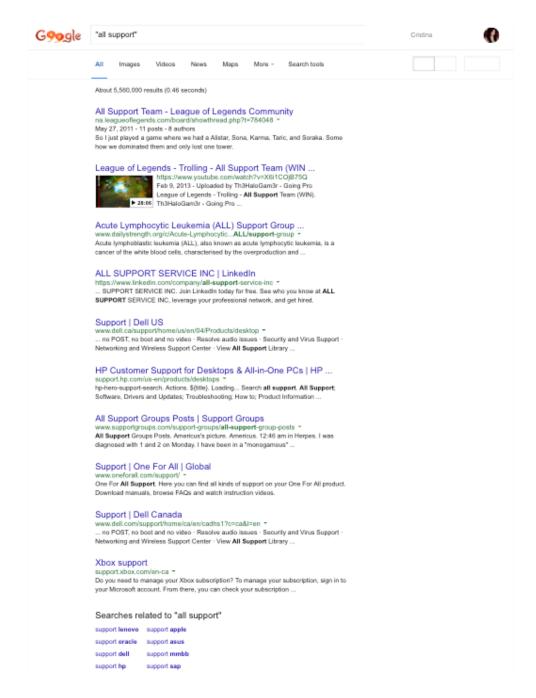
Query 1, all support, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb support 5,560,000 times. See Figure 49. Query 2, each supports, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb supports only 214,000 times. See Figure 50. Thus, all support occurs 26 times more frequently than each supports.

Query 3, all request, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb request 498,000 times. See Figure 51. Query 4, each requests, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb requests only 16,500 times. See Figure 52. Thus, all request occurs 30.2 times more frequently than each requests.

Query 5, all impact, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb impact 462,000 times. See Figure 53. Query 6, each impacts, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb impacts only 13,400 times. See Figure 54. Thus, all impact occurs 34.5 times more frequently than each impacts.

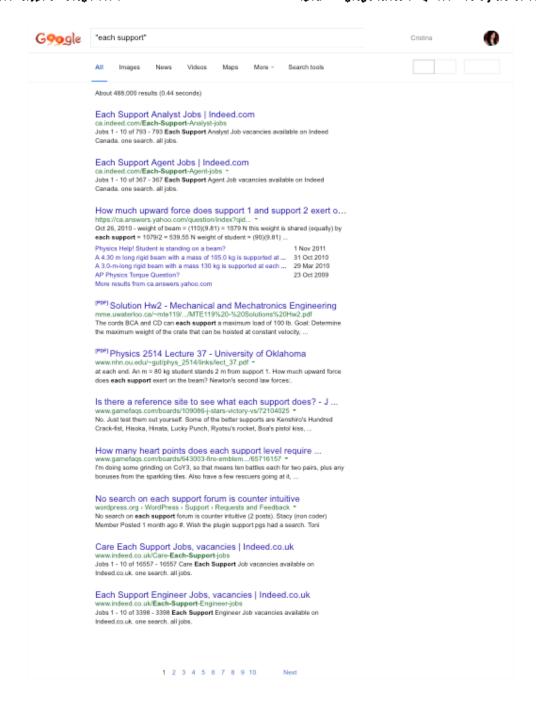
Query 7, all identify, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb identify 183,000 times. See Figure 55. Query 8, each identifies, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb identifies only 29,400 times. See Figure 56. Thus, all identify occurs 6.2 times more frequently than each identifies.

Query 9, all approve, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb approve 95,100 times. See Figure 57. Query 10, each approves, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb approves only 1,340 times. See Figure 58. Thus, all approve occurs 71 times more frequently than each approves.



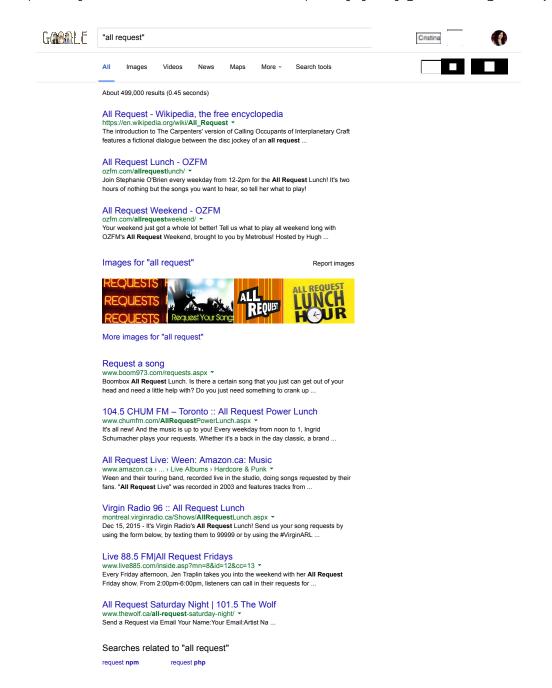
1 of 2 2016-02-03, 5:23 PM

Figure 49 Plural Query 1: "all support"



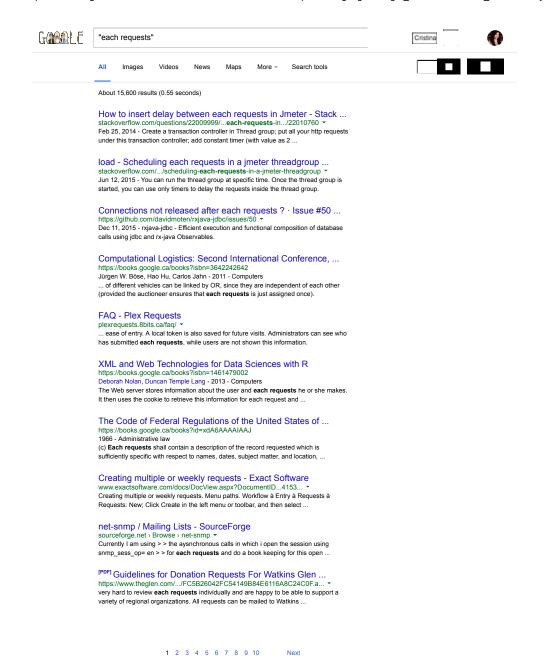
1 of 2 2016-02-08, 8:21 PM

Figure 50 Plural Query 2: "each supports"



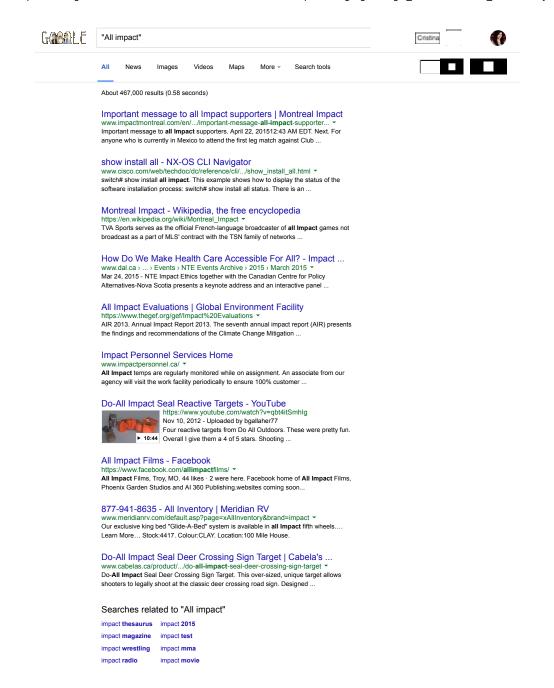
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 11:21 PM

Figure 51 Plural Query 3: "all request"



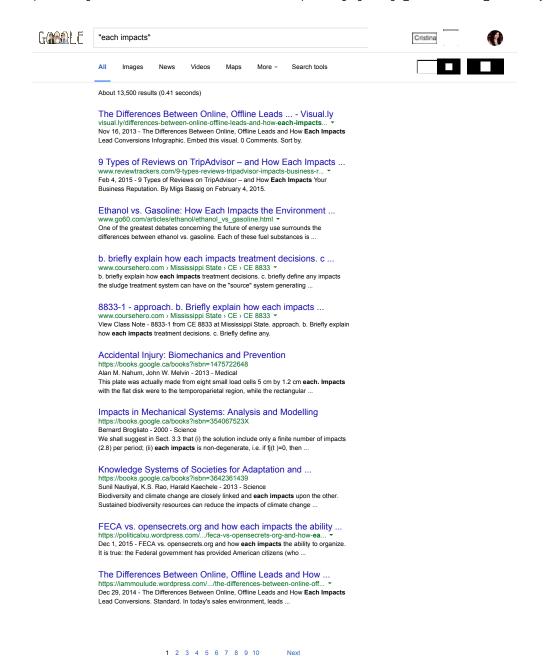
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 11:22 PM

Figure 52 Plural Query 4: "each requests"



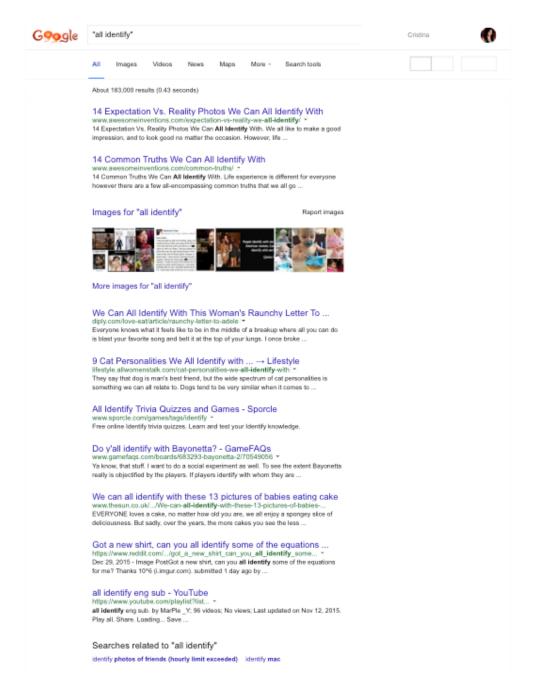
1 of 2 2016-02-17, 10:48 PM

Figure 53 Plural Query 5: "all impact"



1 of 2 2016-02-17, 11:20 PM

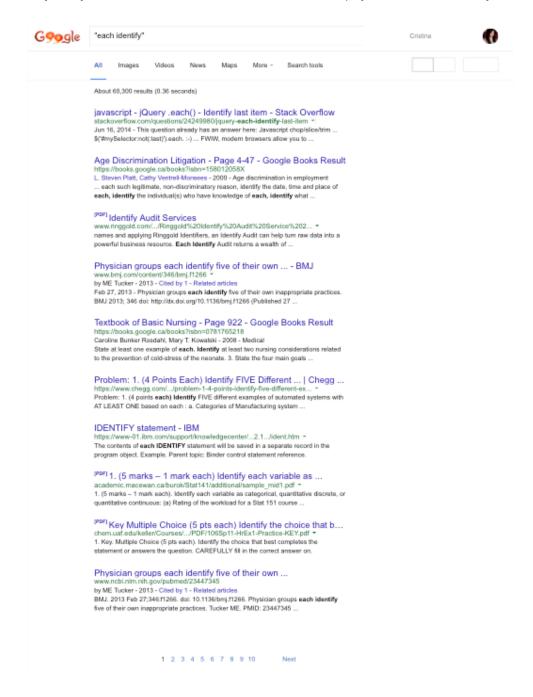
Figure 54 Plural Query 6: "each impacts"



1 of 2 2016-02-08, & 17 PM

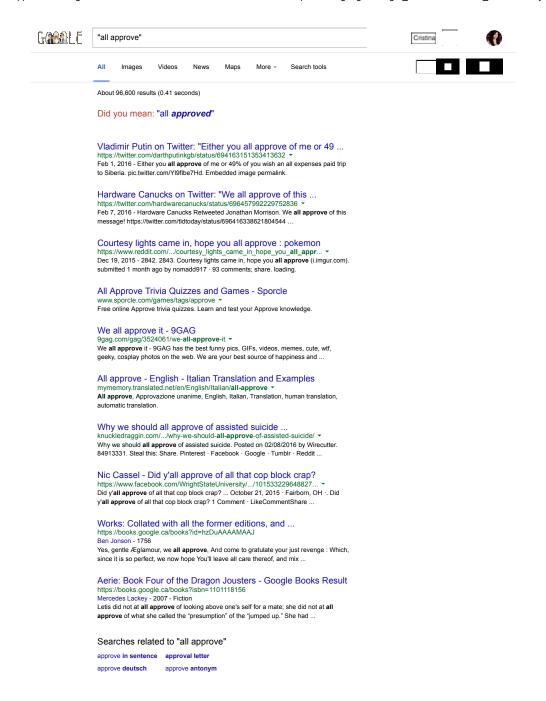
Figure 55 Plural Query 7: "all identify"

"each identify" - Google Search



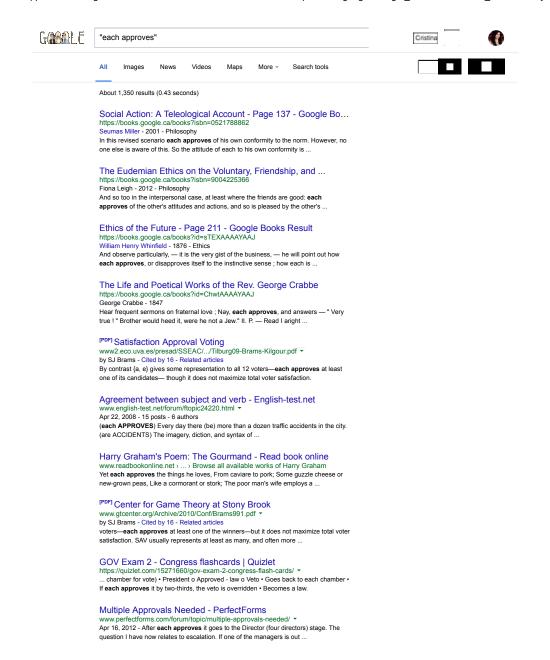
1 of 2 2016-02-08, 5:17 PM

Figure 56 Plural Query 8: "each identifies"



1 of 2 2016-02-17, 11:21 PM

Figure 57 Plural Query 9: "all approve"



1 of 2 2016-02-17, 11:20 PM

Figure 58 Plural Query 10: "each approves"

APPENDIX B

USAGE FREQUENCY STUDY II

A usage frequency study was conducted with various usage queries using the Brigham Young University Wikipedia Corpus. This corpus contains the full text of Wikipedia with more than 4.4 million articles totalling 1.9 billion words. This usage study uses the corpus to identify collocation usage frequencies.

A list of queries to assess different modifier placements was created by pairing the modifier only with each of the five most commonly used verb forms, which are listed below. The modifier only is the most frequently used modifier and the only modifier

to cause ambiguity in the three RSs. For this reason, only is the modifier chosen to conduct the usage frequency queries for modifiers.

A list of the five verbs that are the most commonly used with the modifier only in the RSs was created. These verbs were identified using word frequency counts, using the three RSs as input data. The five verbs identified are: be, add, change, send, and record.

A list of queries to assess different plural usages was created by pairing each of the quantifiers each and all with each of the five most commonly used verb forms, which are listed below. These quantifiers were chosen for the plural queries because they can demonstrate examples of the usage of plural quantifiers when the intended interpretation is distributive.

A list of the five verbs that are the most commonly used with the quantifiers all and each in the RSs is created in a similar manner, using word frequency counts, and the three RSs as input data. The five verbs identified are: identify, support, approve, impact, and request.

B.1 Modifier Placement Usage Frequency Examples

Modifier placement is indicative of people's awareness of modifier ambiguity. The study reveals that overall, for each of the 5 verb forms studied, the modifier only is placed before the main verb 28,483 times and is placed after the main verb 3,671 times. Thus, only is placed before a verb 7.8 times more often than after a verb, supporting the assumption that before the main verb is the placement used frequently.

Table 12 shows the results of the queries with **Only**. Query 1, only be, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 27,008 times. Query 2, be only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 3,058 times. Thus, only be occurs 8.8 times more frequently than be only.

Table 12. Usage Frequency of Modifier Queries

Query Number	Query	Usage Frequency
1	only be	27,008
2	be only	3,058
3	only send	140
4	send only	104
5	only add	294
6	add only	58
7	only change	618
8	change only	156
9	only record	423
10	record only	295

Query 3, only send, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 140 times. Query 4, send only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 104 times. Thus, only send occurs 1.3 times more frequently than send only.

Query 5, only add, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 294 times. Query 6, add only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 58 times. Thus, only add occurs 5.1 times more frequently than add only.

Query 7, only change, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 618 times. Query 8, change only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 156 times. Thus, only change occurs 4 times more frequently than change only.

Query 9, only record, shows that the modifier only is placed before the main verb 423 times. Query 10, record only, shows that only is placed after the main verb only 295 times. Thus, only record occurs 1.4 times more frequently than record only.

As noted at the end of Appendix A, the verb **be** is a highly irregular verb and it seems to have an idiomatic use with the modifier **Only**. With **be** and **been** there is a preference for placement before the verb form 7.6 times more often than after the verb form. With the other six forms of **be** (**being**, **am**, **is**, **are**, **was**, and **were**) there is a preference for placement after the form 17.3 times more often than before the verb form. The difference could be because of **be**s usage as an auxiliary verb more often

than is the case with other verbs. The queries include when each of the verb forms is either a main verb or an auxiliary verb. When the verb form **am**, **is**, **are**, **was**, or **were** is used as an auxiliary verb then the placement of the **only** is after this verb form, which means that the **only** is placed before the main verb because the main verb follows the auxiliary verb. Table 13 shows the results of the queries with the different forms of the verb **be**.

Table 13. Usage Frequency of Modifier Queries with the Verb **be**

Query	Usage Frequency
only be	27,008
be only	3,058
only been	6,174
been only	1,287
only being	2,051
being only	2,109
only am	55
am only	202
only is	1,923
is only	48,132
only are	897
are only	19,639
only was	2,315
was only	54,699
only were	901
were only	16,367

B.2 Plural Usage Frequency Examples

The use of a singular subject is indicative of people's awareness of plural ambiguity.

The study reveals that overall, for each of the 5 verb forms studied, people write plural rather than singular, supporting the assumption that plural quantifiers are commonly used more frequently.

Table 14 shows the results of the queries with **all** and **each**. Query 1, all support, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb support 324 times. Query 2, each supports, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb supports only 11 times. Thus, all support occurs 29.5 times more frequently than each supports.

Table 14. Usage Frequency of Plural Queries

Query Number	Query	Usage Frequency
1	all support	324
2	each supports	11
3	all request	86
4	each requests	1
5	all impact	27
6	each impacts	0
7	all identify	32
8	each identifies	1
9	all approve	8
10	each approves	0

Query 3, all request, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb request 86 times. Query 4, each requests, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb requests only one time. Thus, all request occurs 86 times more frequently than each requests.

Query 5, all impact, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb impact 27 times. Query 6, each impacts, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb impacts zero times. Thus, all impact occurs 27 times and each impacts does not occur in the corpus.

Query 7, all identify, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb identify 32 times. Query 8, each identifies, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb identifies only one time. Thus, all identify occurs 32 times more frequently than each identifies.

Query 9, all approve, shows that the quantifier all is used with the plural verb approve eight times. Query 10, each approves, shows that the quantifier each is used with the singular verb approves zero times. Thus, all approve occurs eight times and each approves does not occur in the corpus.

APPENDIX C

EXAMPLES OF EACH PERSISTENT AMBIGUITY TYPE THAT ARE REQUIREMENTS

Modifier Ambiguity Requirement Example:

Will only bring into System A those items needed to do X, Y, and Z.

Interpretation A:

Will bring into only System A those items needed to do X, Y, and Z. Not into System B, etc.

Interpretation B:

Will bring into System A only those items needed to do X, Y, and Z. Not other items into System A.

Referential Ambiguity Requirement Example Affecting the Data Structure Required:

If there is a company & supplier relationship, need to store <u>this</u> to identify the payment recipient.

Interpretation A: The company.

Interpretation B: The supplier.

Interpretation C: Some combination of A & B. Example: payment spilt 50:50.

Referential Ambiguity Requirement Example Affecting the Implementation of a Process:

The encoding scheme will provide the ability to issue notifications of intrusions.

The simple digest security scheme may be used as a direct replacement for the HTTP/1.0 basic authentication scheme with minimal modifications of clients and servers.

This prevents security breaches & is a priority.

Interpretation A: The encoding scheme prevents security breaches & is a priority.

Interpretation B: The simple digest security scheme prevents security breaches & is a priority.

Interpretation C: The referent may not even be any particular word or phrase; it may be the idea embodied by whole or multiple sentences & is a priority.

Elliptical Ambiguity Requirement Example:

The database needs a data structure faster than System B.

Interpretation A: The database needs a data structure faster than System B is.

Interpretation B: The database needs a data structure faster than System B needs.

Conditional Clause Ambiguity Requirement Example:

When a user requests a book with an available status, assign book to user.

When a user requests a book with a checked-out status, place a hold on the book for the user.

If so, increase the book's number-of-user-requests counter.

Interpretation A: If <u>a user requests a book with an available status</u>, increase the book's number-of-user-requests counter.

Interpretation B: If <u>a user requests a book with a checked-out status</u>, increase the book's number-of-user-requests counter.

Plural Ambiguity Requirement Example Affecting the Data Structure Size:

Maximum of 10 X's and Y's in module A.

Interpretation A: Maximum of 10 for each X's and Y's, totalling 20.

Interpretation B: Maximum of10 total.

Plural Ambiguity Requirement Example of a Plural Quantifier Affecting the Implementation of a Process:

All overdue library books have their own fees of \$1.

Interpretation A: There is one \$1 fee for all overdue library books. Total fee is \$1 regardless of the number of overdue books.

Interpretation B: There is one \$1 fee for each overdue library book. Total fee is \$1*number of overdue books.

Plural Ambiguity Requirement Example Affecting the Implementation of a Process:

Module A summarizes corporate, charity, non-profit, and personal tax laws.

Interpretation A: Module A summarizes corporate, charity, non-profit, and personal tax laws together into one summary.

Interpretation B: Module A summarizes corporate, charity, non-profit, and personal tax laws into separate summaries, one for each category.