

Software Testing

(continued)

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Organization of this Lecture:



- ⌘ **Review of last lecture.**
- ⌘ **Data flow testing**
- ⌘ **Mutation testing**
- ⌘ **Cause effect graphing**
- ⌘ **Performance testing.**
- ⌘ **Test summary report**
- ⌘ **Summary**

Review of last lecture



⌘ White box testing:

- ☑ requires knowledge about internals of the software.
- ☑ design and code is required.
- ☑ also called structural testing.

Review of last lecture



⌘ We discussed a few white-box test strategies.

- ☑ statement coverage

- ☑ branch coverage

- ☑ condition coverage

- ☑ path coverage

Data Flow-based Testing

Data flow-based testing focuses on how data (variables) are defined, used, and killed (lifetime).

The idea is to design test cases that cover all important **definition-use (DU) paths** of variables.

🔗 **Def:** Where a variable is **assigned a value**.

🔗 **Use:** Where a variable is **read/used**.

🔗 **Kill:** Where a variable is no longer needed (goes out of scope).

🔗 **Variable s is defined at $s = x + y$.
 s is used in condition if $s > 10$.**

🔗 **These test cases in green box ensure the variable s 's definition and usage are both exercised.**

```
def compute_sum(x, y):  
    s = x + y    # Definition of s  
    if s > 10:   # Use of s  
        return "Large"  
    else:  
        return "Small"
```

Test Cases for Data Flow Coverage

- **Case 1:**

compute_sum(3, 4) → $s = 7$, path covers **def → use → goes to "Small"**.

- **Case 2:**

compute_sum(8, 5) → $s = 13$, path covers **def → use → goes to "Large"**.

Data Flow-Based Testing

✂ Selects test paths of a program according to the locations of:

✕ **definitions and uses of different variables in a program.**

✂ For a statement numbered S ,

⏏ **DEF(S)** = {X/statement S contains a definition of X }

⏏ **USES(S)** = {X/statement S contains a use of X }

⏏ Example: 1: $a=b$; DEF(1)={ a }, USES(1)={ b }.

⏏ Example: 2: $a=a+b$;

DEF(2)={ a } USES(2)={ a, b }.

Data Flow-Based Testing



⌘ A variable X is said to be **live** at statement $S1$, if

- ⌘ X is defined at a statement S :

- ⌘ there exists a path from S to $S1$ not containing any definition of X .

DU Chain Example

```
1 X(){  
2  a=5; /* Defines variable a */  
3  While(C1) {  
4      if (C2)  
5          b=a*a; /*Uses variable a */  
6          a=a-1; /* Defines variable a */  
7      }  
8  print(a); } /*Uses variable a */
```


Definition-use chain (DU chain)

⌘ **[X,S,S1],**

☐ S and S1 are statement numbers,

☐ X in DEF(S)

☐ X in USES(S1), and

☐ **the definition of X in the statement S is live at statement S1.**

Data Flow-Based Testing

⌘ One simple data flow testing strategy:

☑ every DU chain in a program be covered at least once.

⌘ Data flow testing strategies:

☑ **useful for selecting test paths of a program containing nested if and loop statements**

```
def compute_discount(price,  
discount_flag):
```

```
    # DEF(X) at B1
```

```
    x = price
```

```
    if discount_flag > 0:
```

```
        # DEF(X) at B2
```

```
        x = x * 0.9  # 10% discount
```

```
    else:
```

```
        # DEF(X) at B3
```

```
        x = x * 0.95 # 5% discount
```

```
    if x > 100:
```

```
        # USE(X) at B4
```

```
        print("High value purchase:", x)
```

```
    else:
```

```
        # USE(X) at B5
```

```
        print("Normal purchase:", x)
```

```
    # USE(X) at B6
```

```
    return x
```

Step 1: Identify DEF and USE

•DEF(X):

- B1: **x = price**
- B2: **x = x * 0.9**
- B3: **x = x * 0.95**

•USE(X):

- B4: **if x > 100**
- B5: **print (x)** (else branch)
- B6: **return x**

So:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DEF}(X) &= \{\text{B1}, \text{B2}, \text{B3}\}, \\ \text{USE}(X) &= \{\text{B4}, \text{B5}, \text{B6}\} \end{aligned}$$

Step 2: Total DU Chains

•Each DEF can reach each USE $\rightarrow 3 \times 3 = 9$ DU chains.

•Example chains:

- (B1 \rightarrow B4), (B1 \rightarrow B5), (B1 \rightarrow B6)
- (B2 \rightarrow B4), (B2 \rightarrow B5), (B2 \rightarrow B6)
- (B3 \rightarrow B4), (B3 \rightarrow B5), (B3 \rightarrow B6)

```

def compute_discount(price,
discount_flag):
    # DEF(X) at B1
    x = price

    if discount_flag > 0:
        # DEF(X) at B2
        x = x * 0.9 # 10% discount
    else:
        # DEF(X) at B3
        x = x * 0.95 # 5% discount

    if x > 100:
        # USE(X) at B4
        print("High value purchase:",
x)
    else:
        # USE(X) at B5
        print("Normal purchase:", x)
    # USE(X) at B6
    return x

```

Step 3: Paths Covering Multiple DU Chains

We don't need 9 separate tests — some paths cover multiple chains.

1. Path: B1 → B2 → B4 → B6

Covers: (B1→B4), (B2→B4), (B2→B6).

2. Path: B1 → B2 → B5 → B6

Covers: (B1→B5), (B2→B5).

3. Path: B1 → B3 → B4 → B6

Covers: (B1→B4 again), (B3→B4), (B3→B6).

4. Path: B1 → B3 → B5 → B6

Covers: (B1→B5 again), (B3→B5).

5. Path: B1 → B6 (skipping conditions, say when price=0)

Covers: (B1→B6).

In the example, there are **9 Definition–Use (DU) chains** for variable x.

Naively, you might think **9 separate test cases** are needed to cover them but

With **5 well-chosen paths**, all **9 DU chains** are covered.

Mutation Testing



- ⌘ The software is first tested:
 - ☑ using an initial testing method based on white-box strategies we already discussed.
- ⌘ After the initial testing is complete,
 - ☑ mutation testing is taken up.
- ⌘ The idea behind mutation testing:
 - ☑ **make a few arbitrary small changes to a program at a time.**

Mutation Testing

⌘ Each time the program is changed,

☐ it is called a **mutated program**

☐ the change is called a **mutant**.

⌘ **A mutated program:**

☐ **tested against the full test suite of the program.**

⌘ If there exists at least one test case in the test suite for which:

☐ a mutant gives an incorrect result, then the **mutant is said to be dead**.

Mutation Testing

⌘ If a **mutant remains alive:**

- ☑ even after all test cases have been exhausted,
- ☑ the test suite is enhanced to kill the mutant.

⌘ The process of generation and killing of mutants:

- ☑ can be automated by predefining a set of primitive changes that can be applied to the program.

1. Mutation Testing

```
def is_even(x):  
    return x % 2 == 0
```

```
def is_even(x):  
    return (x % 2) == 0
```

fault-based testing technique where small, artificial changes (mutations) are made in the program code to create **mutant versions**. The goal is to check whether the existing test cases can **detect these changes**.

- If the test case fails for the mutant → the mutant is **killed**.
- If the test case passes (i.e., does not detect the change) → the mutant **survives** (test suite is weak).

Purpose: To measure the **effectiveness of test cases**.

Mutation Testing

⌘ The primitive changes can be:

- ☐ altering an arithmetic operator,
- ☐ changing the value of a constant,
- ☐ changing a data type, etc.

⌘ A major disadvantage of mutation testing:

- ☐ computationally very expensive,
- ☐ a large number of possible mutants can be generated.

Online Voting System

Original Logic

```
def cast_vote(user_id, has_voted):  
    if not has_voted:  
        record_vote(user_id)  
        return "Vote cast successfully"  
    else:  
        return "User has already voted"
```

Effect of the Mutant

- Normal users still follow the rule → **1 vote each**.
- But if a user has `user_id == 9999`, they can **vote multiple times** because the condition bypasses `has_voted`.
- If test cases never check for `user_id == 9999`, this mutant **passes all tests** (survives).

Mutant Logic (Flawed)

```
def cast_vote(user_id, has_voted):  
    if not has_voted or user_id == 9999:#  
Mutant  
        record_vote(user_id)  
        return "Vote cast successfully"  
    else:  
        return "User has already voted"
```

Aspect	Mutation Testing	Data Flow Testing
Focus	Effectiveness of test suite (fault injection)	Variable definitions & usages
Method	Modify code (mutants) and re-run tests	Analyze variable DU paths
Goal	Kill all mutants with strong test cases	Ensure all data flows are covered
Example	Change <code>==</code> to <code>!=</code> and see if test catches	Check <code>s = x+y</code> is used in condition

Additional Blackbox Testing

- ⌘ **Cause and Effect graph**
- ⌘ **Testing would be a lot easier:**
 - ☑ **if we could automatically generate test cases from requirements.**
- ⌘ IBM researchers in the 1970s–1980s worked on:
- ⌘ **Cause–Effect Graphing:** A systematic method to derive test cases from requirements by mapping **causes (inputs/conditions)** to **effects (outputs/actions)**.

Cause Effect Graph

⌘ is a black box testing technique that graphically illustrates the relationship between a given outcome and all the factors that influence the outcome.

⌘ A **graph** is used to represent the situations of combinations of input conditions.

⌘ The graph is then converted to a **decision table** to obtain the test cases.

Cause and Effect Graphs

⌘ Examine the requirements:

- ☑ restate them as logical relation between inputs and outputs.

- ☑ **The result is a Boolean graph**

representing the relationships

- ☒ called a **cause-effect graph**.

Convert the graph to a decision table:

each column of the decision table corresponds to a test case for functional testing.

Steps to create cause-effect graph

⌘ Study the **functional requirements**.

⌘ Mark and number all **causes and effects**.

⌘ Numbered causes and effects:
☐ become **nodes of the graph**.

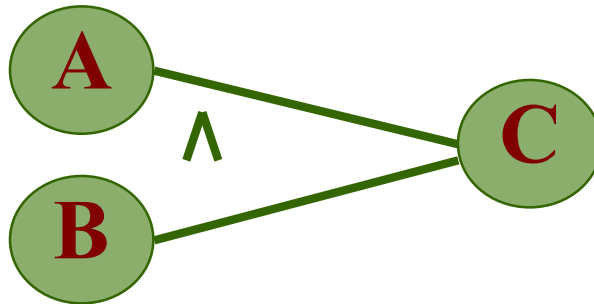
Steps to create cause-effect graph

- ⌘ Draw **causes** on the LHS
- ⌘ Draw **effects** on the RHS
- ⌘ Draw **logical relationship** between causes and effects
 - ☑ as **edges in the graph**.
- ⌘ Extra nodes can be added
 - ☑ to simplify the graph

Drawing Cause-Effect Graphs

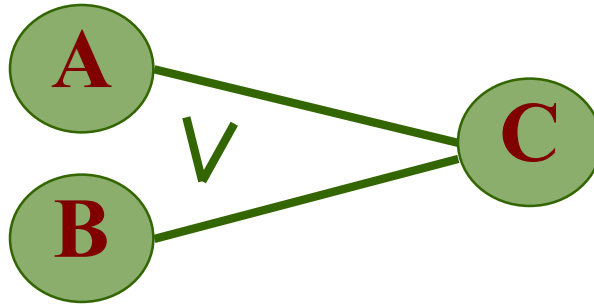


If A then B

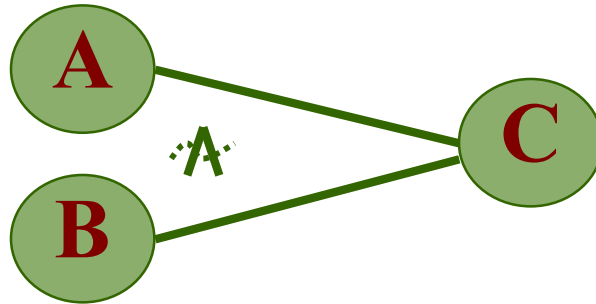


If (A and B) then C

Drawing Cause-Effect Graphs

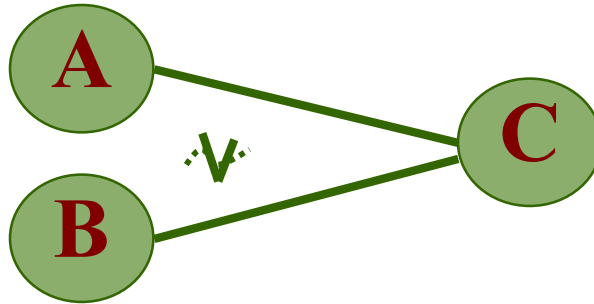


If (A or B) then C



If (not(A and B)) then C

Drawing Cause-Effect Graphs



If (not (A or B)) then C



If (not A) then B

Example Case Study: Login System

Requirements:

1. User must enter a valid **username**.
2. User must enter a valid **password**.
3. If both are valid → **Login Success**.
4. If either is invalid → **Error Message**.
5. After 3 failed attempts → **Account Locked**.

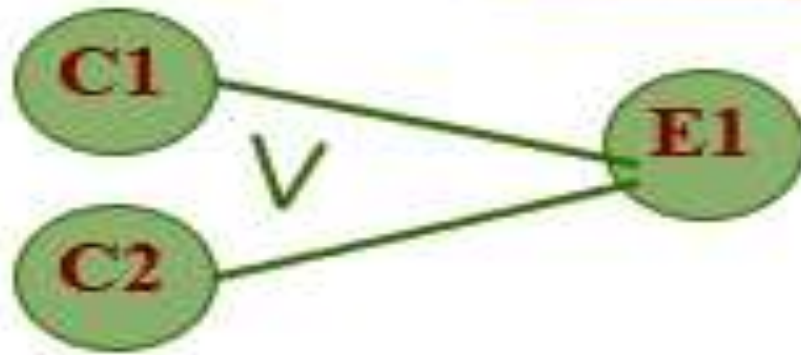
◆ Step 1: Identify Causes (Inputs)

- C1: Username is valid
- C2: Password is valid
- C3: Failed attempts ≥ 3

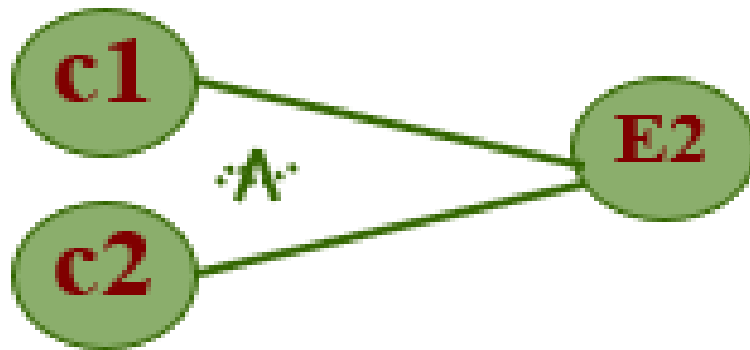
◆ Step 2: Identify Effects (Outputs)

- E1: Login Successful
- E2: Error Message Shown
- E3: Account Locked

Step 3: Cause–Effect Graph (Textual Representation)



**If (C1AND C2)then
E1(Login Success)**



**If not (C1AND C2)then
E2(Error Message)**



**If C3 true then E3 Account
locked**

◆ Step 4: Decision Table

Case	C1 (Username)	C2 (Password)	C3 (Attempts ≥ 3)	E1 (Login)	E2 (Error)	E3 (Locked)
1	T	T	F	✓	—	—
2	T	F	F	—	✓	—
3	F	T	F	—	✓	—
4	F	F	F	—	✓	—
5	—	—	T	—	—	✓

We can determine the number of columns of the decision table by examining the lines flowing into the effect nodes of the graph.

⌘ **Step 5: Derive Test Cases**

- ⌘ Valid username + valid password → expect **Login Success.**
- ⌘ Valid username + invalid password → expect **Error Message.**
- ⌘ Invalid username + valid password → expect **Error Message.**
- ⌘ Both invalid → expect **Error Message.**
- ⌘ After 3 failed attempts → expect **Account Locked.**

Cause effect graph- Example- 2

⌘ A water level monitoring system

⌘ used by an agency involved in flood control.

⌘ **Input:** level(a,b)

⌘ a is the height of water in dam in meters

⌘ b is the rainfall in the last 24 hours in cms

⌘ Processing

⌘ The function calculates whether the level is safe, too high, or too low.

⌘ Output

⌘ message on screen

⌘ level=safe

⌘ level=high

⌘ invalid syntax

```
def water_level(a, b):  
    if a < 0 or b < 0:  
        print("invalid syntax")  
    elif a < 50 and b < 20:  
        print("level = low")  
    elif a < 100 and b < 50:  
        print("level = safe")  
    else:  
        print("level = high")
```


Step 1: Identify Causes and Effects

Causes (inputs/conditions):

- C1: $a < 0$
- C2: $b < 0$
- C3: $a < 50$
- C4: $b < 20$
- C5: $a < 100$
- C6: $b < 50$

Effects (outputs):

- E1: "invalid syntax"
- E2: "level = low"
- E3: "level = safe"
- E4: "level = high"

```
def water_level(a, b):
```

```
    if a < 0 or b < 0:
```

```
        print("invalid syntax")
```

```
    elif a < 50 and b < 20:
```

```
        print("level = low")
```

```
    elif a < 100 and b < 50:
```

```
        print("level = safe")
```

```
    else:
```

```
        print("level = high")
```

Step 2: Logical Relationships

•Invalid syntax \rightarrow if C1 OR C2 \rightarrow E1

•Low level \rightarrow if (C3 AND C4) and not invalid \rightarrow E2

•Safe level \rightarrow if (C5 AND C6) and not low/invalid \rightarrow E3

•High level \rightarrow otherwise \rightarrow E4

To simplify, we can add extra nodes:

•N1 = (C1 OR C2) \rightarrow invalid

•N2 = (C3 AND C4) \rightarrow low

•N3 = (C5 AND C6) \rightarrow safe

Rule	C1 (a<0)	C2 (b<0)	C3 (a<50)	C4 (b<20)	C5 (a<100)	C6 (b<50)	Effect (Output)
1	T	—	—	—	—	—	E1 = Invalid
2	—	T	—	—	—	—	E1 = Invalid
3	F	F	T	T	—	—	E2 = Low
4	F	F	F	F	T	T	E3 = Safe
5	F	F	F	—	F/T	F/T	E4 = High

Step 2: Logical Relationships

- **Invalid syntax** → if **C1 OR C2** → **E1**
- **Low level** → if (**C3 AND C4**) and not invalid → **E2**
- **Safe level** → if (**C5 AND C6**) and not low/invalid → **E3**
- **High level** → otherwise → **E4**

To simplify, we can add extra nodes:

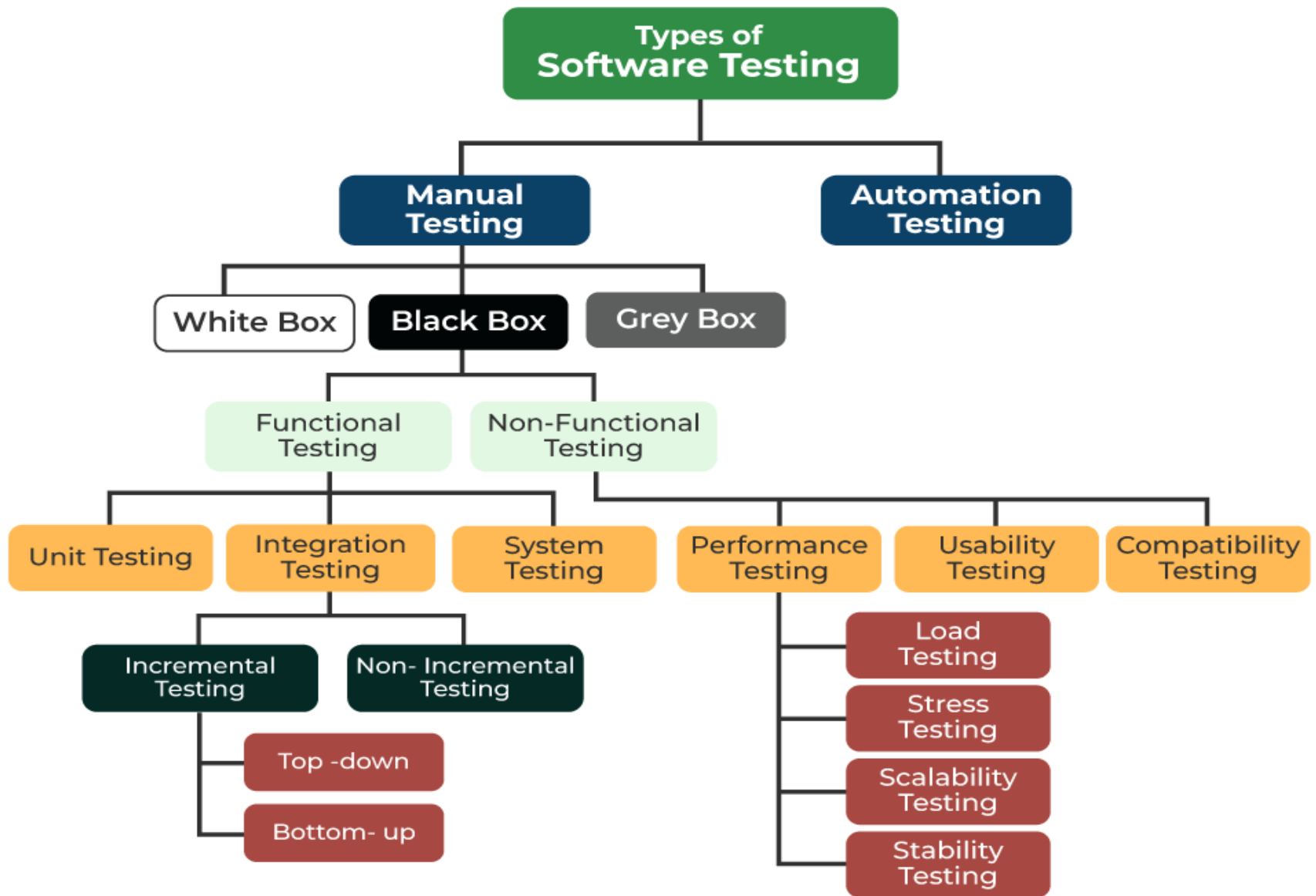
- **N1 = (C1 OR C2)** → invalid
- **N2 = (C3 AND C4)** → low
- **N3 = (C5 AND C6)** → safe

Aspect	Advantages	Disadvantages
Test Case Design	Systematic derivation of test cases from requirements	Can be time-consuming for large systems
Requirement Coverage	Helps detect missing or inconsistent requirements early	May miss real-world scenarios or unexpected inputs
Complex Logic	Handles multiple input conditions and their interactions effectively	Requires expertise to create and interpret graphs correctly
Test Case Optimization	Reduces number of test cases by logically combining conditions	Not ideal for continuous or highly variable inputs
Visualization	Provides clear visual representation of cause-effect relationships	Maintenance overhead if requirements change frequently
Communication	Enhances understanding and discussion among stakeholders	-

Cause effect graph



- ⌘ Not practical for systems which:
 - ☒ include timing aspects
 - ☒ feedback from processes is used for some other processes.



Testing- Different levels



⌘ Unit testing:

- ☑ test the functionalities of a single module or function.

⌘ Integration testing:

- ☑ test the interfaces among the modules.

⌘ System testing:

- ☑ test the fully integrated system against its functional and non-functional requirements.

Integration testing



- ⌘ After different modules of a system have been coded and unit tested:
 - ☑ modules are integrated in steps according to an integration plan
 - ☑ partially integrated system is tested at each integration step.

Integration Testing



⌘ Develop the integration plan by examining the structure chart :

☑ big bang approach

☑ top-down approach

☑ bottom-up approach

☑ mixed approach

Big bang Integration Testing

- ⌘ Put **all modules together at once** (like Patient, Billing, Pharmacy, etc.) and test the whole system in one go.
- ⌘ Main problems with this approach:
 - ⏏ if an error is found:
 - ⏏ it is very difficult to localize the error
 - ⏏ the error may potentially belong to any of the modules being integrated.
 - ⏏ debugging errors found during big bang integration testing are very expensive to fix.

1. Big Bang Approach

- all the modules are simply put together and tested.
- simplest integration testing
- this technique is used only for very small systems.
- Easy to start, but **very hard to debug** because if something breaks, you don't know which module caused it.
- Example: You connect Registration, Appointment, Billing, Lab, etc., all at once → system crashes → **tough to find the faulty part.**

2. Top-Down Approach

Start testing from **the top-level module** (main control/entry point) **and then go down step by step.**

If lower-level modules are not ready, you use **stubs** (dummy pieces of code).

After the top-level 'skeleton' has been tested:

immediate subordinate modules of the 'skeleton' are combined with it and tested.

Example: Start with the “Hospital Main System” → test Appointment Scheduling → then test Registration → then Lab.

3. Bottom-Up Approach

- Start testing from **the lowest-level modules** (like database, billing calculator, payment API) and move upwards.
- If top modules are not ready, you use **drivers** (dummy programs to call the lower modules).
- Example: First test Billing calculations, then Pharmacy stock, then combine them into the Hospital System.

Disadvantage in Large Systems

When the system has **many small subsystems**, bottom-up testing can become:
Too Fragmented:

You spend a **lot of time testing small**, isolated parts before seeing how the system works as a whole.

Delayed System-Level Testing:

The full system behavior (end-to-end flow) is tested very late.

Example: You only see how “Appointment → Doctor → Billing → Pharmacy” works after many small pieces are already tested separately.

Big Bang-like Effect:

In the extreme case (too many small modules), you end up testing and combining **a large number of components all at once**.



4. Mixed (Sandwich) Approach

- Combine **Top-Down + Bottom-Up** together.
- **Most common**
- **Middle-level modules are tested first, then connect upwards and downwards gradually.**
- Example: Test Patient Registration (middle) → then link it with Appointment (top) and Database (bottom).

Integration Testing




⌘ In top-down approach:

☑ testing waits till all top-level modules are coded and unit tested.

⌘ In bottom-up approach:

☑ testing can start only after bottom level modules are ready.

Phased versus Incremental Integration Testing



- ⌘ Integration can be **incremental or phased.**
- ⌘ In incremental integration testing,
 - ☑ only one new module is added to the partial system each time.

Phased versus Incremental Integration Testing

- ⌘ In phased integration,
 - ☒ a group of related modules are added to the partially integrated system each time.
- ⌘ In **phased testing**, modules are integrated in **big chunks/phases** and tested together.
- ⌘ System is brought together in **stages**, but each stage may include several modules combined at once.
- ⌘ More like "*batch testing*".
- ⌘ **Example (Hospital System):**
 - ☒ Phase 1: Integrate and test *Patient Registration + Appointment Scheduling*.
 - ☒ Phase 2: Add *Doctor Module + EMR*.
 - ☒ Phase 3: Add *Billing + Pharmacy + Lab*.

Phased versus Incremental Integration Testing

- ⌘ Phased integration requires less number of integration steps:
 - ☑ compared to the incremental integration approach.
- ⌘ However, when failures are detected,
 - ☑ it is easier to debug if using incremental testing
 - ☒ since errors are very likely to be in the newly integrated module.



Incremental Testing

- In **incremental testing**, modules are added **one by one** (or very few at a time), with testing after each addition.
- Easier to isolate errors, since you test after every small integration step.
- **Example (Hospital System):**
 - Step 1: Test *Patient Registration* alone.
 - Step 2: Add *Appointment Scheduling*, test the pair.
 - Step 3: Add *Doctor Module*, test again.
 - Step 4: Keep adding and testing until the full system is ready.

System Testing

⌘ System tests are designed to validate a fully developed system:

☑ to assure that it meets its requirements.

⌘ There are essentially three main kinds of system testing:

☑ **Alpha Testing**

☑ **Beta Testing**

☑ **Acceptance Testing**

Alpha testing

- ⌘ System testing is carried out
 - ☑ by the **test team within the developing organization.**

Alpha testing is an internal testing process carried out by the development team and a small group of internal users **before releasing the software to external users.**

Where is it done: At the developer's site

Who performs it:

Internal employees, QA team, and sometimes selected users under supervision.

Purpose:

To catch bugs early, before the product goes public.

To validate core functionality and usability.

Process:

Performed in a controlled lab environment. Involves both white-box and black-box techniques.

Example:

A company builds a new **banking app**. **Before releasing it, developers and in-house testers use it internally, testing login, transactions, and UI flows. Bugs are reported and fixed before going to external users.**

Beta Testing




⌘ Beta testing is the system testing:

- performed by **a select group of friendly customers.**
- Beta testing is **real-world testing** performed by **actual users** of the software **outside the development environment**, after alpha testing is completed.

- **Where done:** At the **customer's location** (real environment).
- **Who performs it:** A limited set of **end-users** who volunteer or are selected.
- **Purpose:**
 - To get feedback on performance, usability, and reliability in **real-world conditions**.
 - To discover issues that developers may have missed.
- **Process:**
 - Distributed to external users (sometimes called **beta release**).
 - Feedback is collected, bugs are fixed, and improvements are made.
- **Example:**

WhatsApp releases a **beta version** of a new feature (like disappearing messages) to selected users worldwide. Based on their feedback, the feature is refined before global release.

Acceptance Testing

- ⌘ Acceptance testing is the system testing performed by the customer  to determine whether he should accept the delivery of the system.
- ⌘ It is the **final level of software testing**.
- ⌘ The goal: **Check if the system meets the business requirements and is ready for use by the end users.**
- ⌘ Done **after system testing** and before delivering the product to the customer.

System Testing



⌘ During system testing, in addition to functional tests:

📈 performance tests are performed.

Performance Testing



⌘ Addresses non-functional requirements.

- ☑ May sometimes involve testing hardware and software together.
- ☑ There are several categories of performance testing.

Stress testing/ endurance testing

- ⌘ Evaluates system performance

- ☑ when stressed for short periods of time.

- ⌘ Stress tests are black box tests:

- ☑ designed to impose a range of abnormal and even illegal input conditions

- ☑ so as to stress the capabilities of the software.

Stress Testing

⌘ If the requirements is to handle a specified number of users, or devices:

☒ stress testing **evaluates system performance when all users or devices are busy simultaneously.**

⌘ If an operating system is supposed to support 15 multiprogrammed jobs,

☒ the system is stressed by attempting to run 15 or more jobs simultaneously.

⌘ A real-time system might be tested

☒ to determine the effect of simultaneous arrival of several high-priority interrupts.

Stress Testing



- ⌘ Stress testing usually involves an element of **time or size**,
 - ☐ such as the number of records transferred per unit time,
 - ☐ the maximum number of users active at any time, input data size, etc.
- ⌘ Therefore stress testing may not be applicable to many types of systems.

Volume Testing



⌘ Addresses handling large amounts of data in the system:

☑ whether data structures (e.g. queues, stacks, arrays, etc.) are large enough to handle all possible situations

☑ Fields, records, and files are stressed to check if their size can accommodate all possible data volumes.

Configuration Testing

⌘ Analyze system behavior:

☐ in various **hardware and software configurations** specified in the requirements

☐ sometimes systems are built in various configurations for different users

☐ for instance, a minimal system may serve a single user,

☒ other configurations for additional users.

Compatibility Testing

⌘ These tests are needed when the system interfaces with other systems:

- ☑ check whether the interface functions as required.

⌘ If a system is to communicate with a large database system to retrieve information:

- ☑ a compatibility test examines speed and accuracy of retrieval.

Recovery Testing



⌘ These tests check response to:

- ☑ presence of faults or to the loss of data, power, devices, or services
- ☑ subject system to loss of resources
- ☑ check if the system recovers properly.

Maintenance Testing

⌘ Diagnostic tools and procedures:

- ☑ help find source of problems.
- ☑ It may be required to supply
 - ☒ memory maps
 - ☒ diagnostic programs
 - ☒ traces of transactions,
 - ☒ circuit diagrams, etc.

⌘ Verify that:

- ☑ all required artifacts for maintenance exist
- ☑ they function properly

Documentation tests



- ⌘ Check that required documents exist and are consistent:
 - ☑ user guides,
 - ☑ maintenance guides,
 - ☑ technical documents
- ⌘ Sometimes requirements specify:
 - ☑ format and audience of specific documents
 - ☑ documents are evaluated for compliance

Usability tests



⌘ All aspects of user interfaces are tested:

- ☑ Display screens
- ☑ messages
- ☑ report formats
- ☑ navigation and selection problems

Environmental test



- ⌘ These tests check the system's ability to perform at the installation site.
- ⌘ Requirements might include tolerance for
 - ☑ heat
 - ☑ humidity
 - ☑ chemical presence
 - ☑ portability
 - ☑ electrical or magnetic fields
 - ☑ disruption of power, etc.

Test Summary Report



- ⌘ Generated towards the end of testing phase.
- ⌘ Covers each subsystem:
 - ☒ a summary of tests which have been applied to the subsystem.

Test Summary Report



⌘ Specifies:

- ☑ how many tests have been applied to a subsystem,
- ☑ how many tests have been successful,
- ☑ how many have been unsuccessful, and the degree to which they have been unsuccessful,
 - ☒ e.g. whether a test was an outright failure
 - ☒ or whether some expected results of the test were actually observed.

Regression Testing



⌘ Does not belong to either unit test, integration test, or system test.

☒ Instead, it is a separate dimension to these three forms of testing.

Regression testing



⌘ Regression testing is the running of test suite:

- ☑ after each change to the system or after each bug fix

- ☑ ensures that no new bug has been introduced due to the change or the bug fix.

Regression testing

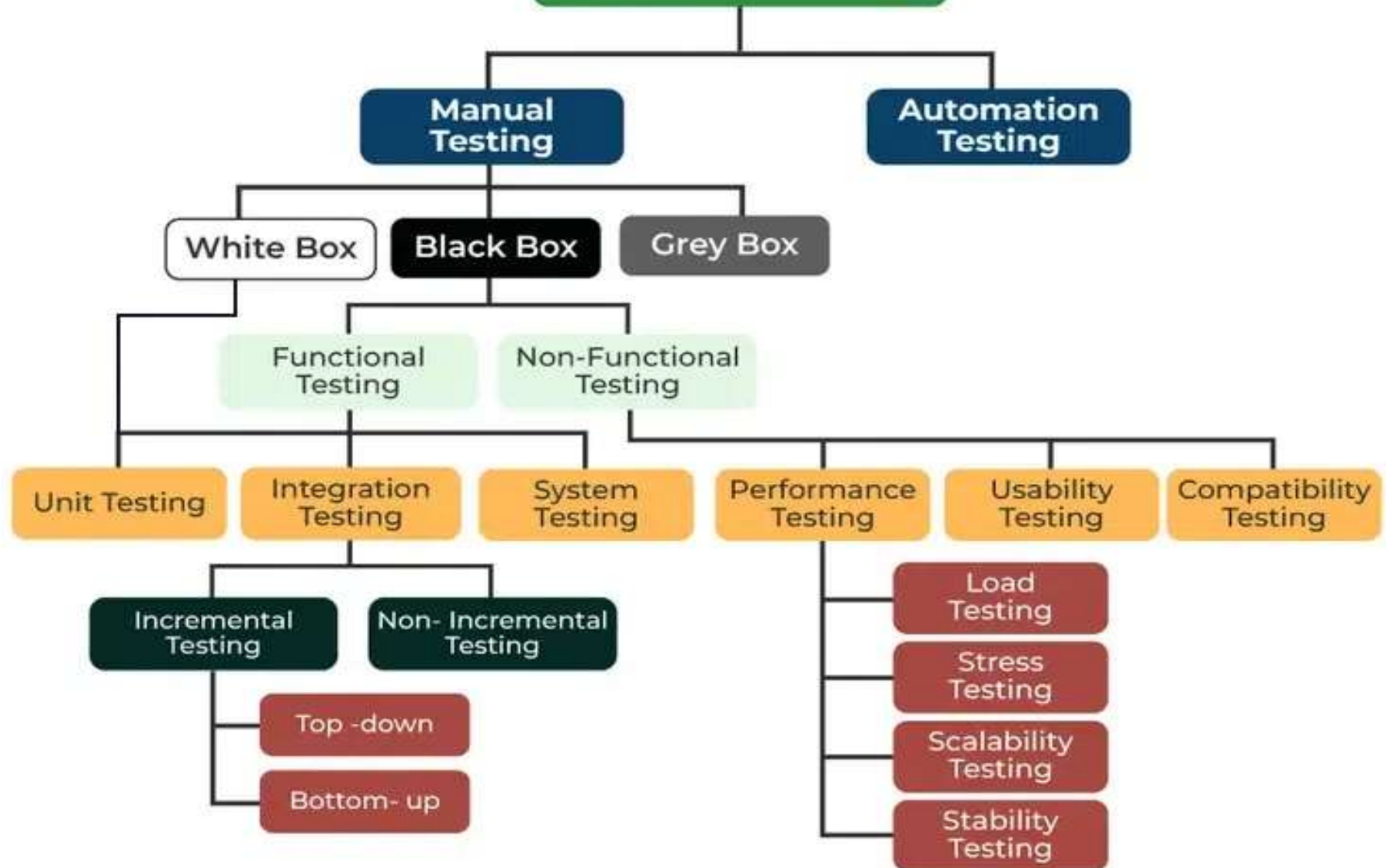


⌘ Regression tests assure:

- ☑ the new system's performance is at least as good as the old system
- ☑ always used during phased system development.



Types of Software Testing



Summary



⌘ We discussed two additional white box testing methodologies:

- ☑ data flow testing

- ☑ mutation testing

Summary



⌘ Data flow testing:

- ☑ derive test cases based on definition and use of data

⌘ Mutation testing:

- ☑ make arbitrary small changes
- ☑ see if the existing test suite detect these
- ☑ if not, augment test suite

Summary



⌘ Cause-effect graphing:

- ☑ can be used to automatically derive test cases from the SRS document.
- ☑ Decision table derived from cause-effect graph
- ☑ each column of the decision table forms a test case

Summary



⌘ Integration testing:

- ☑ Develop integration plan by examining the structure chart:
 - ☒ big bang approach
 - ☒ top-down approach
 - ☒ bottom-up approach
 - ☒ mixed approach

Summary: System testing



⌘ Functional test

⌘ Performance test

- ☒ stress

- ☒ volume

- ☒ configuration

- ☒ compatibility

- ☒ maintenance