# **Software Quality**

#### Lecture 5

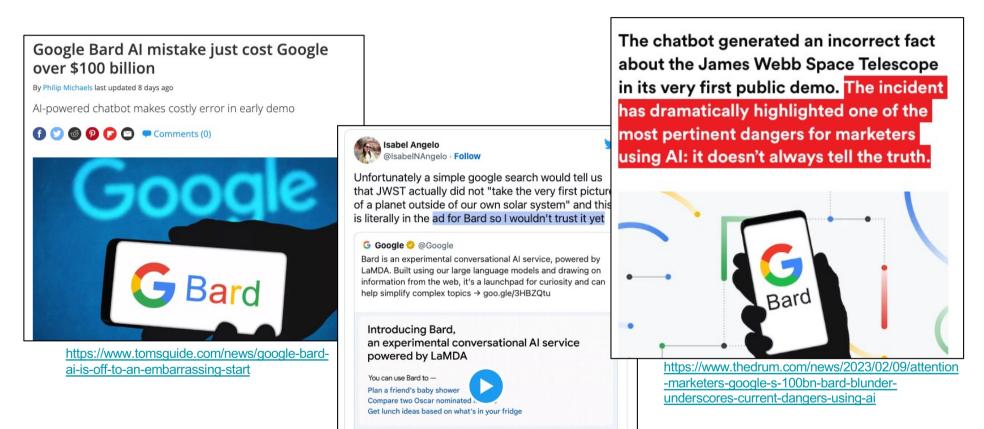
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#### Overview

- Software quality and how to get to it
- Test-driven development
  - White box testing
  - Black box testing

# **Software Quality**

#### Why is Software Quality relevant: Case of Bard



#### Why is Software Quality relevant?

- Reputation
- Cost of Product and Maintenance
- Software Certification
- Organizational Certification
- Legality
- Moral/ethical codes of practice

- **Reputation** Software developers and their organisations rely on reputation. A poor quality product (or family of products) can be enormously damaging for business. Software bugs can have immediate impacts on custom, especially in customer-facing industries. The automotive software problems with Volkswagen have led to an enormous amount of negative publicity, which has a direct impact on sales.
- Limiting Costs of Product and Maintenance Cost is an overriding factor in software development. Poor quality software tends to be expensive to develop and to maintain, which can have a detrimental effect on business. Poor software quality can lead to technical debt, where the organisation in charge of the software needs to invest a disproportionate amount of resources into maintaining and running the software to make up for (and to try and remedy) poor design and implementation decisions.
- **Software Certification** Depending on the domain of the software (e.g. in Aircraft or Rail), the development and use of software might be restricted, and dependent on obtaining some form of certification. For example, software in modern civilian aircraft often has to be certified to the DO178 standard, which requires the extensive use of software quality assurance procedures throughout the software development lifecycle.

- Organisational Certification The organisational procedures and structures that are employed for
  software development can have a huge bearing on the quality of the software they produce. There are
  various ways by which to categorise the extent to which an organisation employs good practice.
  International certification procedures and standards such as CMM and ISO90017 exist, so that
  software development organisations can advertise their "capability" to develop high quality software.
- Legality Depending on the country, there may be overriding legal obligations that apply to organisations that use software. For example, in the UK, organisations have to demonstrate that the risk posed by their technology (this includes software) is "As Low As Reasonably Practicable" or "ALARP". In other words, every "practicable" measure must have been taken to demonstrate that (in our case) the software system does not pose a risk to its users.
- Moral / ethical codes of practice Even in cases where a software system is not covered by industrial certification and legislation, and where its failure is not necessarily business or safety-critical, there can remain a moral obligation to the users. Professional organisations such as the American Computer Society (ACM) have explicit ethical guidelines and codes of practice, with statements such as "Software engineers shall act consistently with the public interest". This clearly implies that they ought to do whatever possible to maximise the quality of their software and to prevent it from containing potentially harmful bugs.

#### Software Quality is Multi-dimensional

- Subjective or "fitness for use": as perceived by an individual user (e.g., aesthetics of GUI, missing functionality...)
  - Fitness for use: Joseph Juran embodied the idea that the quality of product revolves around its fitness for use. He argued that, ultimately, the value of a product depends on the customer's needs. Crucially, it forges the product developers to focus on those aspects of the product that are especially crucial (the *vital few* objectives) as opposed to the *useful many*.
- Objective or "conformance to requirements": can be measured as a property of the product (e.g., detailed documentation, number of bugs, compliance with regulations ....)
  - Conformance to Requirements: Phil Crosby embodied a different tone. He defined quality as
     "conformance to requirements". His opinion was that quality can be achieved by the disciplined
     specification of these requirements, by setting goals, educating employees about the goals, and
     planning the product in such a way that defects would be avoided.
- Practical: what does it mean to your team and your clients?

#### Quality Models: ISO/IES25010

- Functional Suitability
  - Functional Completeness
  - Functional Correctness
  - Functional Appropriateness
- Performance Efficiency
  - Time Behaviour
  - Resource Utilisation
  - Capacity
- Compatibility
  - Co-existence
  - Interoperability

- Usability
  - Appropriateness
  - Realisability
  - Learnability
  - Operability
  - User Error Protection
  - User Interface Aesthetics
  - Accessibility
- Reliability
  - Maturity
  - Availability
  - Fault Tolerance
  - Recoverability
- Security

- Confidentiality
- Integrity
- Nonrepudiation
- Authenticity
- Accountability
- Maintainability
  - Modularity
  - Reusability
  - Analysability
  - Modifiability
  - Testability
- Portability
  - Adaptability
  - Installability
  - Replaceability

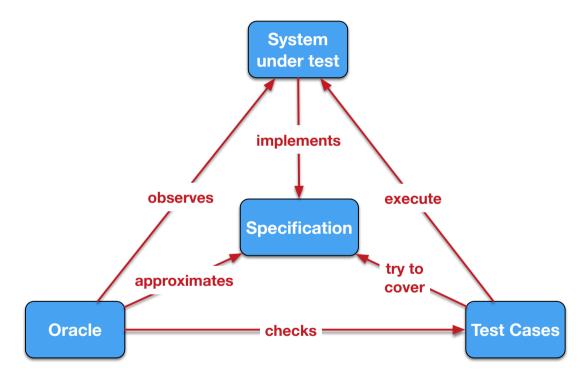
#### **Steps Towards Software Quality:**

- Use a standard development process
- Use a coding standard
  - Compliance with industry standards (e.g., ISO, Safety, etc.)
  - Consistent code quality
  - Secure from start
  - Reduce development costs and accelerate time to market
- Define and monitor metrics (defect metrics and complexity metrics)
  - High complexity leads to higher number of defects
- Identify and remove defects
  - Conduct manual reviews
  - Use Testing

## **Testing**

Mauro Pezze and Michal Young. Software testing and analysis - process, principles and techniques. Wiley, 2007.

#### Testing process: key elements and relationships



From: M. Staats, M. W. Whalen, and M. P. E. Heimdahl. Programs, tests, and oracles: the foundations of testing revisited. In *Software Engineering (ICSE)*, 2011 33rd International Conference on, pages 391–400. IEEE, 2011.

**System under Test (SUT)** This is the system (or unit/function) being tested. It seeks to implement the specification.

- The SUT can either be a *white-box* system, where we have complete access to the source code and the run-time state (e.g. the call-stack), or a *black-box* system, where we only have access to the external interface or API (depending on the type of system). It can also be a mixture of the two; for example, library routines might be provided in the form of closed source components, whilst the source code for the main core of the system is available for analysis.
  - The system might be *reactive* where the input / output behaviour at one stage is affected by previous inputs (e.g. a GUI), or it might process inputs in a single batch and return to its initial state. This matters from a testing perspective, because in the reactive case, the test inputs have to be formulated as sequences.
- The system might be *deterministic*, where it always returns the same answer for a given input. It might however also be *non-deterministic*, where the same input can elicit different outputs (perhaps because of randomised internal behaviour, or other factors beyond control such as thread-scheduling).
- It is commonly important to ensure that the SUT is an isolated version of the "live" system.

<u>Specification</u> A specification represents the idealised behaviour of the system under test. Depending on the development context, this might be embodied as a comprehensive, rigorously maintained document (e.g. a set of UML diagrams or a Z specification). Alternatively, if developed in an agile context, it might be a partial intuitive description captured in a selection of user stories, test cases, and documented as comments in the source code.

• The nature of the specification has an obvious bearing on testing. If a concrete, reliable specification document exists and there is a shared understanding of what the system is supposed to do, this can be used as the basis for a systematic test-generation process. If this is not the case, then testing becomes a more ad-hoc and dependent upon the intuition and experience of the tester.

<u>Test cases</u> The test cases correspond to the executions of the SUT. In practical terms a test case corresponds to an input (or a sequence of inputs) to the system.

• Test cases should ideally cumulatively execute every distinctive facet of software behaviour. An ideal test set (collection of test cases) should be capable of exposing any deviation that the SUT makes from the specification. If it can be shown to do this, the test set is deemed to be *adequate*.

<u>Test Oracle</u> Executing the test cases alone will not determine whether the SUT conforms to the specification or not. This decision – whether or not the output of a test is correct or not – is made by a test oracle. In practice, an oracle might be an assertion in the source code that is checked during the test execution, or it might be the human user, deciding whether or not the behaviour is acceptable.

• Test oracles are notoriously difficult to produce. There is in practice rarely an explicit, comprehensive, up to date specification that can be used as a reference. A successful software has usually been developed over the course of decades by a multitude of developers, which means that, ultimately, there is rarely a definitive record of how exactly the system should behave. What's more, there may be tens of thousands of test cases, each of which might produces complex outputs, which can make the task of manual validation of the outputs prohibitively time consuming. These issues are collectively referred to as the *oracle problem*.

## **Testing: White Box**

Mauro Pezze and Michal Young. Software testing and analysis - process, principles and techniques. Wiley, 2007.

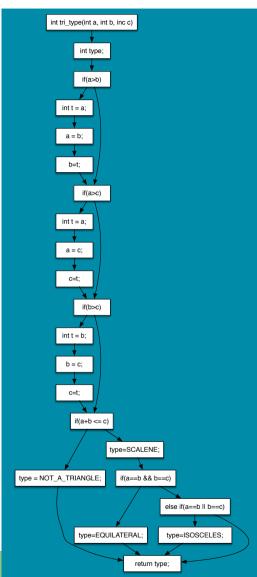
#### White Box Testing

- Access to software ``internals":
  - Source code
  - Runtime state
  - Can keep track of executions.
- White box testing exploits this to
  - Use code to measure coverage
    - Many different ways
  - Drive generation of tests that maximise coverage

```
int tri_type(int a, int b, int c)
        int type;
        if (a > b)
          { int t = a; a = b; b = t; }
        if (a > c)
          { int t = a; a = c; c = t; }
        if (b > c)
          { int t = b; b = c; c = t; }
 8
 9
        if (a + b \le c)
10
          type = NOT_A_TRIANGLE;
11
        else {
12
          type = SCALENE;
13
          if (a == b \&\& b == c)
14
            type = EQUILATERAL;
15
          else if (a == b || b == c)
16
            type = ISOSCELES;
17
18
      return type;
19
      }
```

#### White Box Testing

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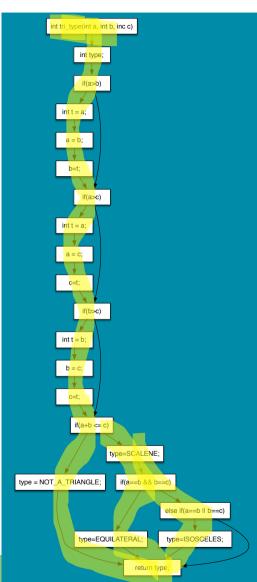
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- Coverage Metrics:
  - Statement coverage
  - Branch coverage
  - Def-Use or Dataflow coverage
  - MC/DC (Modified Condition / Decision Coverage)
  - Mutation coverage...
- Prescribed metrics, e.g., DO178-B/C standard for civilian aircraft software
  - non-critical statement coverage
  - safety-critical MC/DC coverage
- Statement coverage: The proportion of executable statements in the program that have been executed.
- Branch coverage: The proportion of all of the logic-branches in the source code (e.g. outcomes of IF, WHILE, or FOR statements) to have been executed.
- Def-Use or Dataflow coverage: The source code is analysed to extract the def-use relations, which relate statements at which a variable is defined (i.e. instantiated and given a value) to subsequent statements using that definition. The test-goal is to cover all of the possible def-use relations.

#### Statement Coverage

- Test inputs should collectively have executed each statement
- If a statement always exhibits a fault when executed, it will be detected
- Computed as:

```
Coverage = \frac{|Statements|}{|Total|statements|}
```

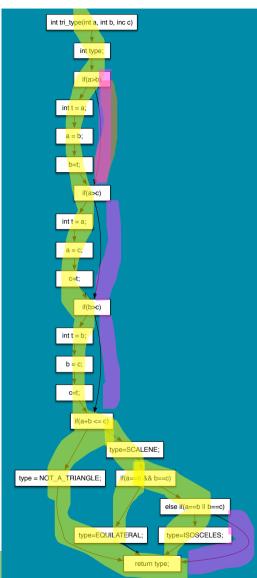


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#### **Branch Coverage**

- Test inputs should collectively have executed each branch
- Subsumes statement coverage
- Computed as:

$$Coverage = \frac{|Branches\ executed|}{|Total\ branches|}$$



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#### However....

# Coverage Is Not Strongly Correlated with Test Suite Effectiveness

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We have extended these studies by evaluating the relationship between test suite size, coverage, and effectiveness for large Java programs. Our study is the largest to date in the literature: we generated 31,000 test suites for five systems consisting of up to 724,000 lines of source code. We measured the statement coverage, decision coverage, and modified condition coverage of these suites and used mutation testing to evaluate their fault detection effectiveness.

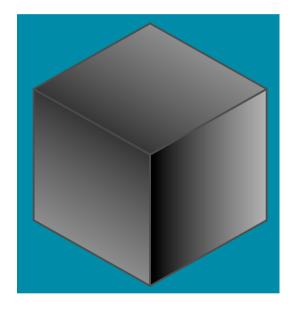
We found that there is a low to moderate correlation between coverage and effectiveness when the number of test cases in the suite is controlled for. In addition, we found that strenger forms of coverage do not provide greater insight into the effectiveness of the suite. Our results suggest that coverage, while useful for identifying under-tested parts of a program, should not be used as a quality target because it is not a good indicator of test suite effectiveness.

## **Testing: Black Box**

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#### **Black Box Testing**

- No access to "internals"
  - May have access, but don't want to
- We know the interface
  - Parameters
  - Possible functions / methods
- We may have some form of specification document



## **Testing Challenges**

- Many different types of input
- Lots of different ways in which input choices can affect output
- An almost infinite number of possible inputs & combinations

## Equivalence Partitioning (EP) Method

Identify tests by analysing the program interface

- 1. Decompose program into "functional units"
- 2. Identify inputs / parameters for these units
- 3. For each input
  - a) Identify its limits and characteristics
  - b) Define "partitions" value categories
  - c) Identify constraints between categories
  - d) Write test specification

## Example – Generate Grading Component

The component is passed an exam mark (out of 75) and a coursework (c/w) mark (out of 25), from which it generates a grade for the course in the range 'A' to 'D'. The grade is calculated from the overall mark which is calculated as the sum of the exam and c/w marks, as follows: greater than or equal to 70 - 'A' greater than or equal to 50, but less than 70 - 'B' greater than or equal to 30, but less than 50 - 'C' less than 30 - 'D'

Where a mark is outside its expected range then a fault message ('FM') is generated. All inputs are passed as integers.

#### EP – 1. Decompose into Functional Units

- Dividing into smaller units is good practice
  - Possible to generate more rigorous test cases.
  - Easier to debug if faults are found.
- E.g.: dividing a large Java application into its core modules / packages
- Already a functional unit for the Grading Component example

#### EP – 2. Identify Inputs and Outputs

- For some systems this is straightforward
  - E.g., the Triangle program:
    - Input: 3 numbers,
    - Output: 1 String
  - E.g., Grading Component
    - Input: 2 integers: exam mark and coursework mark
    - Output: 1 String for grade
- For others less so. Consider the following:
  - o A phone app.
  - A web-page with a flash component.

## EP – 3.a Identify Categories

Category	Description			
Valid	valid exam mark			
	valid coursework mark			
	valid total mark			
Invalid	invalid exam mark			
	invalid coursework mark			
	Invalid total mark			

#### EP: 3.b Define "Partitions" - value categories

• Significant value ranges / value-characteristics of an input

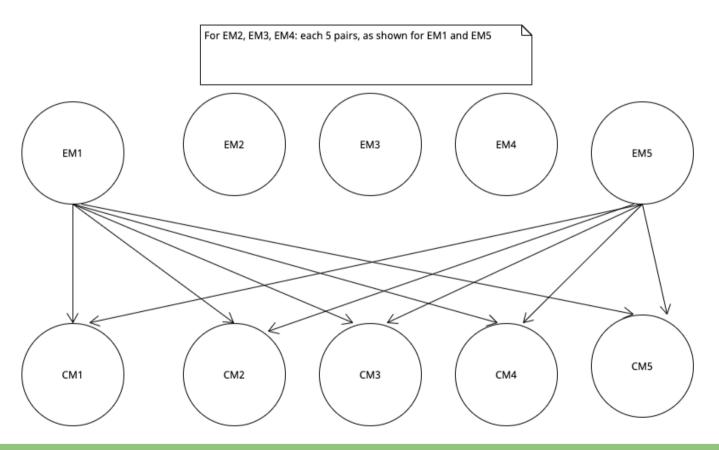
Category	Description	Partition
Valid	EM_1 valid exam mark	0 ≤ Exam mark ≤ 75
	CM_1 valid coursework mark	0 ≤ Coursework mark ≤ 25
Invalid	EM_2 invalid exam mark	Exam mark > 75
	EM_3 invalid exam mark	Exam mark < 0
	EM_4 invalid exam mark	alphabetic
	EM_5 invalid exam mark	real number
	CM_2 invalid coursework mark	Coursework mark > 25
	CM_3 invalid coursework mark	Coursework mark < 0
	CM_4invalid coursework mark	alphabetic
	CM_5 invalid coursework mark	real number
		Overview of Software Engineering COMS

#### EP – 3. c Identify Constraints between Categories

Not all categories can combine with each other

Category		Condition	
valid exam mark	EM_1	0 ≤ Exam mark ≤ 75	
invalid exam mark	EM_2	Exam mark > 75	
invalid exam mark	EM_3	Exam mark < 0	
invalid exam mark	EM_4	alphabetic	
invalid exam mark	EM_5	real number	
valid coursework mark	CM_1	0 ≤ Coursework mark ≤ 25	
invalid coursework mark	CM_2	Coursework mark > 25	
invalid coursework mark	CM_3	Coursework mark < 0	
invalid coursework mark	CM_4	alphabetic	
invalid coursework mark	CM_5	real number	

## EP – 3. d Write Test Specifications



#### Example: Inputs and Expected Outputs

The test cases corresponding to partitions derived from the input exam mark are:

Test Case	1	2	3
Input (exam mark)	44	-10	93
Input (c/w mark)	15	15	15
total mark (as calculated)	59	5	108
Partition tested (of exam mark)	$0 \le e \le 75$	e < 0	e > 75
Exp. Output	'B'	'FM'	'FM'

#### **Boundary Values**

- Most frequently errors occur in "edge" cases
  - Test just under boundary value
  - Test just above the boundary value
  - Test the boundary value

#### How do we go about using this?

- Testing applied in Java unit
- Use JUnit
  - uses "Assertions" to test the code
  - Allow us to state what should be the case
  - If assertions do not hold, JUnit's logging mechanisms reports failures
  - Various types of assertion are available, e.g., assertEquals( expected, actual ); assertTrue( condition ); assertFalse( condition ); assertThat ( value, matchingFunction )

#### Review

- What is Software Quality?
- What are key elements and relationships for test specifications?
- How do we carry out white-box testing?
- How do we carry out black-box testing?

