

Software Testing and Continuous Quality Improvement

William E. Lewis



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Software Testing Associates, Inc.
Plano, Texas



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In 1998 Lewis retired from IBM after 28 years. His jobs included 12 years as a curriculum/course developer and instructor, and numerous years as a system programmer/analyst and performance analyst. An overseas assignment included service in Seoul, Korea, where he was the software engineering curriculum manager for the Korean Advanced Institute of Science and

About the Author

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Contents

Introduction	xxxiii
SECTION I SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE	
Part 1 Quality Assurance Framework	3
What is Quality?	3
Prevention vs. Detection	4
Verification vs. Validation	5
Software Quality Assurance	6
Components of Quality Assurance	7
Software Testing	8
Quality Control	9
Software Configuration Management	10
Elements of Software Configuration Management	11
Component Identification	11
Version Control	12
Configuration Building	12
Change Control	13
Software Quality Assurance Plan	14
Steps to Develop and Implement a Software Quality Assurance Plan	14
ISO9000 Quality Standards	18
Part 2 Overview of Testing Techniques	19
Test Case Design	19
Black-Box Testing (functional)	19
White-Box Testing (structural)	20
Gray-Box Testing (functional and structural)	20
Manual vs. Automated Testing	21
Static vs. Dynamic Testing	21
Taxonomy of Software Testing Techniques	22
Part 3 Quality Through a Continuous Improvement Process	29
Contribution of Edward Deming	29
Role of Statistical Methods	30

Contents

Deming's 14 Quality Principles	31
Point 1: Create Constancy of Purpose.....	31
Point 2: Adopt the New Philosophy	31
Point 3: Cease Dependence on Mass Inspection	32
Point 4: End the Practice of Awarding Business on Price Tag Alone	32
Point 5: Improve Constantly and Forever the System of Production and Service.....	33
Point 6: Institute Training and Retraining.....	33
Point 7: Institute Leadership	33
Point 8: Drive Out Fear	34
Point 9: Break Down Barriers Between Staff Areas	34
Point 10: Eliminate Slogans, Exhortations, and Targets for the Workforce	35
Point 11: Eliminate Numerical Goals	35
Point 12: Remove Barriers to Pride of Workmanship	35
Point 13: Institute a Vigorous Program of Education and Retraining	36
Point 14: Take Action to Accomplish the Transformation	36
Continuous Improvement Through the Plan, Do, Check, Act Process	36
Going Around the PDCA Circle	38

SECTION II LIFE CYCLE TESTING REVIEW

Part 4 Overview	41
Waterfall Development Methodology.....	41
Continuous Improvement "Phased" Approach	41
Psychology of Life Cycle Testing	41
Software Testing as a Continuous Improvement Process	43
The Testing Bible: Software Test Plan	46
Major Steps to Develop a Test Plan.....	47
Components of a Test Plan	49
Technical Reviews as a Continuous Improvement Process	50
Motivation for Technical Reviews	53
Types of Reviews	53
Structured Walkthroughs	54
Inspections	54
Participant Roles	57
Steps for an Effective Review	57
Part 5 Verifying the Requirements Phase	61
Testing the Requirements with Technical Reviews	62
Inspections and Walkthroughs	63

Checklists	63
Methodology Checklist	63
Requirements Traceability Matrix	63
Building the System/Acceptance Test Plan	64
Part 6 Verifying the Logical Design Phase	67
Data Model, Process Model, and the Linkage	67
Testing the Logical Design with Technical Reviews	68
Refining the System/Acceptance Test Plan	70
Part 7 Verifying the Physical Design Phase	73
Testing the Physical Design with Technical Reviews	73
Creating Integration Test Cases	75
Methodology for Integration Testing	75
Part 8 Verifying the Program Unit Design Phase	77
Testing the Program Unit Design with Technical Reviews	77
Sequence	77
Selection	77
Iteration	78
Creating Unit Test Cases	78
Part 9 Verifying the Coding Phase	81
Testing Coding with Technical Reviews	81
Executing the Test Plan	82
Unit Testing	82
Integration Testing	83
System Testing	84
Acceptance Testing	84
Defect Recording	85
SECTION III CLIENT/SERVER AND INTERNET TESTING METHODOLOGY	
Part 10 Development Methodology Overview	89
Limitations of Life Cycle Development	89
The Client/Server Challenge	90
Psychology of Client/Server Spiral Testing	91
The New School of Thought	91
Tester/Developer Perceptions	92
Project Goal: Integrate QA and Development	93
Iterative/Spiral Development Methodology	94
Role of JADs	96

Contents

Role of Prototyping	97
Methodology for Developing Prototypes	98
Continuous Improvement “Spiral” Testing Approach	102
Part 11 Information Gathering (Plan)	107
Step 1: Prepare for the Interview	107
Task 1: Identify the Participants	107
Task 2: Define the Agenda	108
Step 2: Conduct the Interview	108
Task 1: Understand the Project	110
Task 2: Understand the Project Objectives	111
Task 3: Understand the Project Status	112
Task 4: Understand the Project Plans	112
Task 5: Understand the Project Development Methodology	113
Task 6: Identify the High-Level Business Requirements	113
Task 7: Perform Risk Analysis	114
Computer Risk Analysis	115
Method 1 — Judgment and Instinct	115
Method 2 — Dollar Estimation	115
Method 3 — Identifying and Weighting Risk Attributes	116
Step 3: Summarize the Findings	117
Task 1: Summarize the Interview	117
Task 2: Confirm the Interview Findings	117
Part 12 Test Planning (Plan)	119
Step 1: Build a Test Plan	121
Task 1: Prepare an Introduction	121
Task 2: Define the High-Level Functional Requirements (In Scope)	121
Task 3: Identify Manual/Automated Test Types	122
Task 4: Identify the Test Exit Criteria	123
Task 5: Establish Regression Test Strategy	124
Task 6: Define the Test Deliverables	125
Task 7: Organize the Test Team	127
Task 8: Establish a Test Environment	129
Task 9: Define the Dependencies	129
Task 10: Create a Test Schedule	130
Task 11: Select the Test Tools	133
Task 12: Establish Defect Recording/Tracking Procedures	133
Task 13: Establish Change Request Procedures	134
Task 14: Establish Version Control Procedures	136
Task 15: Define Configuration Build Procedures	137
Task 16: Define Project Issue Resolution Procedures	138

Task 17: Establish Reporting Procedures	138
Task 18: Define Approval Procedures	139
Step 2: Define the Metric Objectives	139
Task 1: Define the Metrics	140
Task 2: Define the Metric Points	141
Step 3: Review/Approve the Plan	141
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	141
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	141
Part 13 Test Case Design (Do)	147
Step 1: Design Function Tests	147
Task 1: Refine the Functional Test Requirements	147
Task 2: Build a Function/Test Matrix	148
Step 2: Design GUI Tests	155
Task 1: Identify the Application GUI Components	155
Task 2: Define the GUI Tests	156
Step 3: Define the System/Acceptance Tests	157
Task 1: Identify Potential System Tests	157
Task 2: Design System Fragment Tests	159
Task 3: Identify Potential Acceptance Tests	159
Step 4: Review/Approve Design	161
Task 1: Schedule/Prepare for Review	161
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	161
Part 14 Test Development (Do)	163
Step 1: Develop Test Scripts	163
Task 1: Script the Manual/Automated GUI/Function Tests	163
Task 2: Script the Manual/Automated System Fragment Tests	163
Step 2: Review/Approve Test Development	164
Task 1: Schedule/Prepare for Review	164
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	165
Part 15 Test Execution/Evaluation (Do/Check)	167
Step 1: Setup and Testing	167
Task 1: Regression Test the Manual/Automated Spiral Fixes ...	167
Task 2: Execute the Manual/Automated New Spiral Tests	169
Task 3: Document the Spiral Test Defects	169
Step 2: Evaluation	169
Task 1: Analyze the Metrics	169
Task 2: Refine the Test Schedule	170
Task 3: Identify Requirement Changes	171

Contents

Part 16 Prepare for the Next Spiral (Act)	173
Step 1: Refine the Tests	173
Task 1: Update the Function/GUI Tests	173
Task 2: Update the System Fragment Tests	175
Task 3: Update the Acceptance Tests	175
Step 2: Reassess the Team, Procedures, and Test Environment ...	175
Task 1: Evaluate the Test Team	175
Task 2: Review the Test Control Procedures	176
Task 3: Update the Test Environment	177
Step 3: Publish Interim Test Report	177
Task 1: Publish the Metric Graphics	177
Part 17 Conduct the System Test	181
Step 1: Complete System Test Plan	181
Task 1: Finalize the System Test Types	181
Task 2: Finalize System Test Schedule	182
Task 3: Organize the System Test Team	182
Task 4: Establish the System Test Environment	182
Task 5: Install the System Test Tools	186
Step 2: Complete System Test Cases	187
Task 1: Design/Script the Performance Tests	187
Task 2: Design/Script the Security Tests	189
Task 3: Design/Script the Volume Tests	191
Task 4: Design/Script the Stress Tests	191
Task 5: Design/Script the Compatibility Tests	192
Task 6: Design/Script the Conversion Tests	193
Task 7: Design/Script the Usability Tests	194
Task 8: Design/Script the Documentation Tests	194
Task 9: Design/Script the Backup Tests	195
Task 10: Design/Script the Recovery Tests	195
Task 11: Design/Script the Installation Tests	196
Task 12: Design/Script Other System Test Types	197
Step 3: Review/Approve System Tests	198
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	198
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	199
Step 4: Execute the System Tests	199
Task 1: Regression Test the System Fixes	199
Task 2: Execute the New System Tests	199
Task 3: Document the System Defects	200
Part 18 Conduct Acceptance Testing	201
Step 1: Complete Acceptance Test Planning	201
Task 1: Finalize the Acceptance Test Types	201
Task 2: Finalize the Acceptance Test Schedule	201

Task 3: Organize the Acceptance Test Team	203
Task 4: Establish the Acceptance Test Environment	203
Task 5: Install Acceptance Test Tools	204
Step 2: Complete Acceptance Test Cases	204
Task 1: Subset the System-Level Test Cases	205
Task 2: Design/Script Additional Acceptance Tests	205
Step 3: Review/Approve Acceptance Test Plan	205
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	205
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	206
Step 4: Execute the Acceptance Tests	206
Task 1: Regression Test the Acceptance Fixes	206
Task 2: Execute the New Acceptance Tests	207
Task 3: Document the Acceptance Defects	207
Part 19 Summarize/Report Spiral Test Results	209
Step 1: Perform Data Reduction	209
Task 1: Ensure All Tests Were Executed/Resolved	209
Task 2: Consolidate Test Defects by Test Number	209
Task 3: Post Remaining Defects to a Matrix	209
Step 2: Prepare Final Test Report	209
Task 1: Prepare the Project Overview	210
Task 2: Summarize the Test Activities	210
Task 3: Analyze/Create Metric Graphics	211
Task 4: Develop Findings/Recommendations	216
Step 3: Review/Approve the Final Test Report	219
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	219
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	220
Task 3: Publish the Final Test Report	221
SECTION IV MODERN TESTING TOOLS	
Part 20 Introduction to Testing Tools	227
Justifying Testing Tools	227
When to Consider Using a Testing Tool	227
When to <i>Not</i> Consider Using a Testing Tool	228
Testing Tool Selection Checklist	228
Types of Testing Tools	230
Year 2000 Tools	230
Web Site Management Tools	230
Requirements-Based Testing Tools	231
Test Management Tools	231
Regression Testing Tools	231
Coverage Analysis Tools	231
Dynamic Testing Tools	232
Static Testing Tools	232

Contents

Load Testing Tools	233
Comparators	233
Vendor Tool Descriptions	233
McCabe's Visual 2000	233
McCabe's Visual Testing ToolSet	238
McCabe's Visual Quality ToolSet	239
McCabe's Visual Reengineering ToolSet	240
Rational's SQA Suite (Version 6.1)	241
Rational's SQA SiteCheck Tool	242
Rational's SQA Robot (Version 6.1)	243
Rational's SQA Manager (Version 6.1)	244
Rational's SQA Load Test (Version 6.1)	246
Rational's Visual Test (Version 4.0r)	247
Rational's preVue Tool	248
Rational's PureCoverage Tool	250
Rational's Purify Tool	252
Rational's Quantify Tool	253
Technology Builders' Caliber-RBT	254
AutoTester's Test Library Manager	257
AutoTester's Test Station Tool	259
Mercury Interactive's TestDirector Test Management Tool	261
Mercury Interactive's WinRunner Functional Testing Tool for Windows	263
Mercury Interactive's XRunner Functional Testing Tool for UNIX	265
Mercury Interactive's LoadRunner Load/Stress Testing Tool	268
Mercury Interactive's Astra Site Manager Web Site Management Tool	270
Part 21 Methodology to Evaluate Testing Tools	273
Step 1: Define Test Goals	273
Step 2: Set Tool Objectives	273
Step 3A: Conduct Selection Activities for Informal Procurement	274
Task 1: Develop the Acquisition Plan	274
Task 2: Define Selection Criteria	274
Task 3: Identify Candidate Tools	274
Task 4: Conduct the Candidate Review	275
Task 5: Score the Candidates	275
Task 6: Select the Tool	275
Step 3B: Conduct Selection Activities for Formal Procurement	276
Task 1: Develop the Acquisition Plan	276

Task 2: Create the Technical Requirements Document	276
Task 3: Review Requirements.	276
Task 4: Generate the Request for Proposal	276
Task 5: Solicit Proposals	277
Task 6: Perform the Technical Evaluation	277
Task 7: Select a Tool Source	277
Step 4: Procure the Testing Tool.	277
Step 5: Create the Evaluation Plan	278
Step 6: Create the Tool Manager's Plan	278
Step 7: Create the Training Plan	278
Step 8: Receive the Tool	279
Step 9: Perform the Acceptance Test.	279
Step 10: Conduct Orientation	279
Step 11: Implement Modifications	279
Step 12: Train Tool Users.	280
Step 13: Use the Tool in the Operating Environment.	280
Step 14: Write the Evaluation Report.	280
Step 15: Determine Whether Goals Have Been Met	281

SECTION V TESTING IN THE MAINTENANCE ENVIRONMENT

Part 22 Overview of Software Maintenance	285
Balancing Three Conflicting Forces	285
Software Candidates for Redesign	286
Frequent System Failures	287
Code More than Five Years Old	287
Overly Complex Program Structure and Logic Flow.	288
Code Written for Previous Generation Hardware	288
Systems Running in Emulation Mode	288
Very Large Modules or Unit Subroutines	289
Excessive Resource Requirements	289
Hard-Coded Parameters that Are Subject to Change	289
Low-Level Language Support	289
Seriously Deficient Documentation	290
Turnover of Personnel	290
Missing or Incomplete Design Specifications.	290
Obsolete Technologies	290
Extent of Testing vs. Size of Change	291
Inadequate Test Documentation	291
Types of Software Changes	291
Perfective Maintenance	291
Controlling Perfective Maintenance	292
Adaptive Maintenance	294
Controlling Adaptive Maintenance	295
Corrective Maintenance	295

Contents

Design Errors Resulting from Incomplete or Faulty Design	296
Logic Errors	296
Coding Errors	296
Computational Errors	296
Input/Output Errors	296
Data Handling Errors	296
Interface Errors	296
Data Definition Errors	296
Controlling Corrective Maintenance	296
Strategies for Managing Maintenance	297
Continue the Maintenance Development Test Strategies	297
Establish Automated Regression Testing Approach	298
Establish a Change Request System	298
Establish a Software Configuration Management System	299
Establish a Maintenance “Triage Approach”	299
Release Management Approach	299
Emergency and Intermediate Repair Approaches	300
Psychology of Maintenance Testing	301
Phased Life Cycle Maintenance	301
RAD Maintenance	302
A Continuous Improvement Maintenance Approach	304
Going Around the PDCA Circle	306
Maintenance Testing Methodology	307
Part 23 Enhancement/Defect Requirements Analysis (Plan)	309
Step 1: Prepare for the Maintenance Review	309
Task 1: Identify the Participants	309
Task 2: Define the Agenda	310
Step 2: Conduct the Maintenance Review	312
Task 1: Define Enhancement Opportunities	312
Task 2: Define High-Level Functional Changes	315
Task 3: Define High-Level Data Changes	316
Task 4: Define High-Level GUI Interface Changes	317
Task 5: Perform Impact Analysis	317
Step 3: Summarize the Findings	318
Task 1: Summarize the Maintenance Review	318
Task 2: Confirm the Maintenance Review Findings	319
Part 24 Preliminary Maintenance Test Planning (Plan)	321
Step 1: Build Preliminary Maintenance Test Plan	321
Task 1: Prepare Test Plan Outline	323
Task 2: Prepare an Introduction	324

Task 3: Define the High-Level Functional Changes	324
Task 4: Define the Maintenance Test Deliverables.....	325
Task 5: Establish Defect Recording/Tracking Procedures	326
Task 6: Establish Change Request Procedures.....	328
Task 7: Establish Version Control Procedures	330
Task 8: Define Configuration Build Procedures	330
Task 9: Define Project Issue Resolution Procedures	331
Task 10: Establish Reporting Procedures	331
Task 11: Establish Approval Procedures.....	332
Step 2: Review the Preliminary Maintenance Test Plan.....	333
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	333
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	333
Part 25 Enhancement Prototype Design (Plan)	335
Step 1: Prepare for the Design Session	335
Task 1: Identify the Design Participants	335
Task 2: Define the Agenda.....	336
Step 2: Conduct the Design Session.....	337
Task 1: Design Functional Changes	337
Task 2: Design Data Changes	337
Task 3: Design GUI Interface Changes	338
Step 3: Review/Approve Maintenance Design.....	339
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct Design Review	339
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	340
Part 26 Completed Maintenance Test Planning (Plan).....	341
Step 1: Finalize the Maintenance Test Plan.....	341
Task 1: Identify Manual/Automated Test Types.....	341
Task 2: Identify the Test Exit Criteria	343
Task 3: Establish Maintenance Regression Test Strategy	345
Task 4: Organize the Maintenance Test Team	347
Task 5: Establish the Maintenance Test Environment.....	348
Task 6: Define the Dependencies	349
Task 7: Create a Maintenance Test Schedule	349
Task 8: Select the Maintenance Test Tools.....	352
Step 2: Define the Maintenance Metric Objectives.....	353
Task 1: Define the Metrics.....	353
Task 2: Define the Metric Points.....	354
Step 3: Review/Approve the Maintenance Test Plan	354
Task 1: Schedule/Conduct the Review	354
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	360
Part 27 Maintenance Test Case Design (Do)	361
Step 1: Design Function Tests	361

Contents

Task 1: Refine the Functional Test Requirements	361
Task 2: Build/Modify Function/Test Matrix	361
Step 2: Design GUI Tests	369
Ten Guidelines for Good GUI Design	369
Task 1: Define the Application GUI Components	369
Windows	369
Menus	370
Forms	370
Icons	370
Controls	370
Task 2: Define the GUI Tests	370
Step 3: Define the System/Acceptance Tests	372
Task 1: Identify Potential System Tests	372
Task 2: Design System Fragment Tests	373
Task 3: Identify Potential Acceptance Tests	374
Step 4: Review/Approve Design	375
Task 1: Schedule/Prepare for Review	375
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	375
Part 28 Maintenance Test Development (Do)	377
Step 1: Develop Test Scripts	377
Task 1: Script the Manual/Automated GUI Function Tests	377
Task 2: Script the System Fragment Tests	377
Step 2: Review/Approve Test Maintenance Development	379
Task 1: Schedule/Prepare for Review	379
Task 2: Obtain Approvals	379
Part 29 Maintenance Test Execution/Evaluation (Do/Check)	381
Step 1: Setup and Testing	381
Task 1: Regression Test the Maintenance Fixes	381
Task 2: Execute the New Maintenance Tests	383
Task 3: Record the Maintenance Defects	383
Step 2: Evaluation	383
Task 1: Analyze the Metrics	383
Task 2: Refine the Test Schedule	384
Task 3: Identify Requirement Changes	384
Part 30 Prepare for the Next Test Cycle (Act)	387
Step 1: Refine the Tests	387
Task 1: Update the Function/GUI Tests	387
Task 2: Update the System Fragment Tests	387
Task 3: Update the Acceptance Tests	388
Step 2: Reassess the Team, Procedures, and Test Environment ...	389
Task 1: Evaluate the Test Team	389

Task 2: Review the Test Control Procedures	389
Task 3: Update the Test Environment	390
Step 3: Publish Interim Test Report	391
Task 1: Publish the Metric Graphics	391
Test Case Execution Status	391
Defect Gap Analysis	392
Defect Severity Status	392
Test Burnout Tracking	392
Test Exit Tracking	392
Part 31 Maintenance System Testing	395
Part 32 Maintenance Acceptance Testing	397
Part 33 Maintenance Summary Test Report	399
Part 34 System Installation	401
Step 1: Develop a Recovery Plan	401
Step 2: Place Maintenance Changes into Production	401
Step 3: Delete Old Production System	402
Step 4: Operate and Monitor New System	402
Step 5: Document System Problems	403
 SECTION VI MODERN MAINTENANCE TOOLS	
Part 35 Introduction to Maintenance Tools	407
Maintenance Testing Maintenance Tool Selection Checklist	407
Types of Maintenance Tools	410
Code Complexity Tools	410
Regression Testing Tools	410
Load and Performance Maintenance Tools	410
Problem Management Tools	413
Configuration/Process Management Tools	413
Web Site Test Tools	414
Code Coverage Tools	414
Runtime Error Analysis Tools	414
Cross-Reference Maintenance Tools	416
Comparator Maintenance Tools	418
Diagnostic Routines	421
Application Utility Libraries	429
Online Documentation Libraries	429
Online/Interactive Change and Debugging Facilities	430
Vendor Tool Descriptions	430
McCabe's McCabe QA	430
SunTest's JavaStar 1.2	431
Rational Robot	433
Rational TestFactory	434

Contents

AutoTester's Test Station Tool	435
Mercury's WinRunner Tool 5	437
Mercury's XRunner (Unix) Tool 4	439
SunTest's JavaLoad	442
Mercury's LoadRunner Tool	444
Rational's preVue Tool	447
Rational's PerformanceStudio	449
Rational's Visual Quantify Tool	450
Rational's ClearDDTS	451
Rational's ClearQuest	452
Rational's ClearCase	453
Rational's ClearCase MultiSite	453
Rational's SQA SiteCheck Tool	454
Rational Visual PureCoverage 6.0	455
Rational Purify 6.0	456
Other Maintenance Tools	457

APPENDIXES

Appendix A Spiral Testing Methodology	459
Appendix B Software Quality Assurance Plan	467
Appendix C Requirements Specification	469
Appendix D Change Request Form	471
Appendix E Test Templates	473
E1: Unit Test Plan	473
E2: System/Acceptance Test Plan	473
E3: Requirements Traceability Matrix	475
E4: Test Plan (Client/Server and Internet Spiral Testing)	475
E5: Function/Test Matrix	478
E6: GUI Component Test Matrix (Client/Server and Internet Spiral Testing)	478
E7: GUI-Based Functional Test Matrix (Client/Server and Internet Spiral Testing)	478
E8: Test Case	482
E9: Test Case Log	483
E10: Test Log Summary Report	483
E11: System Summary Report	483
E12: Defect Report	485
E13: Test Schedule	485
E14: Retest Matrix	485
E15: Spiral Testing Summary Report (Client/Server and Internet Spiral Testing)	489

Appendix F Checklists	493
F1: Requirements Phase Defect Checklist	493
F2: Logical Design Phase Defect Checklist	493
F3: Physical Design Phase Defect Checklist	493
F4: Program Unit Design Phase Defect Checklist	497
F5: Coding Phase Defect Checklist	498
F6: Field Testing Checklist	500
F7: Record Testing Checklist	500
F8: File Test Checklist	503
F9: Error Testing Checklist	504
F10: Use Test Checklist	506
F11: Search Test Checklist	507
F12: Match/Merge Checklist	508
F13: Stress Test Checklist	509
F14: Attributes Testing Checklist	510
F15: States Testing Checklist	511
F16: Procedures Testing Checklist	512
F17: Control Testing Checklist	512
F18: Control Flow Testing Checklist	517
F19: Testing Tool Selection Checklist	517
Appendix G Integrating Testing into Development	
Methodology	519
Step 1: Organize the Test Team	520
Step 2: Identify Test Steps and Tasks to Integrate	520
Step 3: Customize Test Steps and Tasks	521
Step 4: Select Integration Points	521
Step 5: Modify the Development Methodology	522
Step 6: Incorporate Defect Recording	522
Step 7: Train in Use of the Test Methodology	522
Appendix H Software Testing Techniques	525
H1: Basis Path Testing	525
H2: Black Box Testing	526
H3: Bottom-Up Testing	527
H4: Boundary Value Testing	527
H5: Branch Coverage Testing	529
H6: Branch/Condition Coverage Testing	530
H7: Cause-Effect Graphing	530
H8: Condition Coverage	534
H9: CRUD Testing	535
H10: Database Testing	536

Contents

H11: Decision Tables	567
H12: Desk Checking	567
H13: Equivalence Partitioning	567
H14: Exception Testing	569
H15: Free Form Testing	569
H16: Gray-Box Testing	570
H17: Histograms	571
H18: Inspections	571
H19: JADs	572
H20: Orthogonal Array Testing	573
H21: Pareto Analysis	574
H22: Positive and Negative Testing	576
H23: Prior Defect History Testing	577
H24: Prototyping	577
H25: Random Testing	582
H26: Range Testing	583
H27: Regression Testing	583
H28: Risk-Based Testing	585
H29: Run Charts	585
H30: Sandwich Testing	586
H31: Statement Coverage Testing	586
H32: State Transition Testing	587
H33: Statistical Profile Testing	588
H34: Structured Walkthroughs	588
H35: Syntax Testing	589
H36: Table Testing	589
H37: Thread Testing	590
H38: Top-Down Testing	590
H39: White-Box Testing	591
Glossary	593
Bibliography	599
Index	605

EXHIBITS

Part 1

<i>Exhibit 1</i> Quality Assurance Components	8
<i>Exhibit 2</i> Software Configuration Management	11
<i>Exhibit 3</i> Companion ISO Standards	18

Part 2

<i>Exhibit 1</i> Testing Technique Categories	23
<i>Exhibit 2</i> Testing Technique Descriptions	25

Part 3

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>The Deming Quality Circle</i>	37
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>The Ascending Spiral</i>	38

Part 4

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Waterfall Development Methodology</i>	42
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Development Phases vs. Testing Types</i>	44
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Test Case Form</i>	48
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>System/Acceptance Test Plan vs. Phase</i>	51
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>PDCA Process and Inspections</i>	55
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Phased Inspections as an Ascending Spiral</i>	56

Part 5

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Requirements Phase and Acceptance Testing</i>	62
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Requirements Phase Defect Recording</i>	64
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Requirements/Test Matrix</i>	66

Part 6

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>CRUD Matrix</i>	69
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Logical Design Phase Defect Recording</i>	70

Part 7

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Physical Design Phase Defect Recording</i>	74
------------------	---------------------------------------------------------	----

Part 8

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Program Unit Design Phase Defect Recording</i>	78
------------------	-------------------------------------------------------------	----

Part 9

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Coding Phase Defect Recording</i>	82
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Executing the Tests</i>	83

Part 10

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Spiral Testing Process</i>	95
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Spiral Testing and Continuous Improvement</i>	103
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Spiral Testing Methodology</i>	105

Part 11

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Spiral Testing and Continuous Improvement</i>	108
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Information Gathering (Steps/Tasks)</i>	109
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Interview Agenda</i>	110
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Identifying and Weighting Risk Attributes</i>	117

Contents

Part 12

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Test Planning (Steps/Tasks)</i>	120
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>High-Level Business Functions</i>	122
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Functional Window Structure</i>	122
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Retest Matrix</i>	126
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>Test Schedule</i>	130
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Project Milestones</i>	132
<i>Exhibit 7</i>	<i>Defect States</i>	134
<i>Exhibit 8</i>	<i>Deliverable Approvals</i>	139
<i>Exhibit 9</i>	<i>Metric Points</i>	142

Part 13

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Spiral Testing and Continuous Improvement</i>	148
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Test Design (Steps/Tasks)</i>	149
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Functional Breakdown</i>	150
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Functional Window Structure</i>	151
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>Functional/Test Matrix</i>	154
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>GUI Component Test Matrix</i>	156
<i>Exhibit 7</i>	<i>GUI Component Checklist</i>	157
<i>Exhibit 8</i>	<i>Baseline Performance Measurements</i>	160

Part 14

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Test Development (Steps/Tasks)</i>	164
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Function/GUI Test Script</i>	165

Part 15

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Spiral Testing and Continuous Improvement</i>	168
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Test Execution/Evaluation (Steps/Tasks)</i>	168

Part 16

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Spiral Testing and Continuous Improvement</i>	174
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Prepare for the Next Spiral (Steps/Tasks)</i>	174
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Test Execution Status</i>	178
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Defect Gap Analysis</i>	178
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>Defect Severity Status</i>	179
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Test Burnout Tracking</i>	179

Part 17

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Conduct System Test (Steps/Tasks)</i>	183
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Final System Test Schedule</i>	184

Part 18

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Conduct Acceptance Testing (Steps/Tasks)</i>	202
------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------	-----

Exhibit 2	Acceptance Test Schedule	203
-----------	------------------------------------	-----

Part 19

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Summarize/Report Spiral Test Results</i>	210
Exhibit 2	Defects Documented by Function	212
Exhibit 3	Defects Documented by Tester	213
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Defect Gap Analysis</i>	214
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>Defect Severity Status</i>	215
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Test Burnout Tracking</i>	216
<i>Exhibit 7</i>	<i>Root Cause Analysis</i>	217
Exhibit 8	Defects by How Found	217
<i>Exhibit 9</i>	<i>Defects by Who Found</i>	218
<i>Exhibit 10</i>	<i>Functions Tested/Not Tested</i>	219
<i>Exhibit 11</i>	<i>System Testing by Root Cause</i>	220
<i>Exhibit 12</i>	<i>Acceptance Testing by Root Cause</i>	221
Exhibit 13	Finding/Recommendations Matrix	222

Part 20

Exhibit 1	Testing Tool Selection Checklist	229
Exhibit 2	Vendor vs. Testing Tool Type	234
Exhibit 3	Vendor Information	236

Part 21

No exhibits

Part 22

<i>Exhibit 1</i>	<i>Legacy Trade-Off Matrix</i>	286
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Perfective, Adaptive, and Corrective Maintenance</i>	292
<i>Exhibit 3</i>	<i>Release, Intermediate, and Emergency Repair</i>	300
Exhibit 4	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement	304
Exhibit 5	Iterative Maintenance Improvements	307
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Maintenance Testing Methodology</i>	308

Part 23

Exhibit 1	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement . . .	310
<i>Exhibit 2</i>	<i>Enhancement/Defect Requirement Analysis (Steps/Tasks)</i>	311
Exhibit 3	Maintenance Interview Agenda	312
<i>Exhibit 4</i>	<i>Defects by Priority</i>	313
<i>Exhibit 5</i>	<i>Defects by Defect Type</i>	314
<i>Exhibit 6</i>	<i>Defects by Module/Program</i>	314
<i>Exhibit 7</i>	<i>Defects by Application Area</i>	315

Contents

Exhibit 8	Impact/Consequence Matrix	319
Part 24		
Exhibit 1	<i>Preliminary Maintenance Test Planning (Steps/Tasks)</i>	322
Exhibit 2	Preliminary Maintenance Test Plan Outline	323
Exhibit 3	High-Level Business Functions	325
Exhibit 4	Functional Window Structure	325
Exhibit 5	Maintenance Defect States	327
Exhibit 6	Maintenance Deliverable Approvals	332
Part 25		
Exhibit 1	<i>Enhancement Prototype Design (Plan)</i>	336
Exhibit 2	Maintenance Design Session Agenda	337
Exhibit 3	CRUD Matrix	339
Part 26		
Exhibit 1	<i>Completed Maintenance Test Plan</i>	342
Exhibit 2	Retest Matrix	346
Exhibit 3	Test Schedule	350
Exhibit 4	Maintenance Milestones	352
Exhibit 5	Test Schedule	355
Part 27		
Exhibit 1	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement ...	362
Exhibit 2	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement ...	363
Exhibit 3	Functional Breakdown	364
Exhibit 4	Functional Window Structure	365
Exhibit 5	Functional/Test Matrix	368
Exhibit 6	GUI Component Test Matrix	370
Exhibit 7	GUI Component Checklist	371
Exhibit 8	Baseline Performance Measurements	374
Part 28		
Exhibit 1	Maintenance Test Development (Steps/Tasks)	378
Exhibit 2	Function/GUI Test Script	378
Part 29		
Exhibit 1	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement ...	382
Exhibit 2	Maintenance Test Execution/Evaluation (Tasks/Steps)	382

Part 30

Exhibit 1	Maintenance Testing and Continuous Improvement . . .	388
Exhibit 2	Prepare for the Next Test Cycle.	388
Exhibit 3	Test Execution Status	391
Exhibit 4	Defect Gap Analysis	392
Exhibit 5	Defect Severity Status	393
Exhibit 6	Test Burnout Tracking	393
Exhibit 7	<i>Requirements/Test Cases vs. Number of Defects Uncovered</i>	394

Part 31

Exhibit 1	Conduct Maintenance System Testing	395
-----------	----------------------------------------------	-----

Part 32

Exhibit 1	Conduct Maintenance Acceptance Testing	397
-----------	--------------------------------------------------	-----

Part 33

Exhibit 1	Summarize/Report Maintenance Test Results.	399
-----------	----------------------------------------------------	-----

Part 34

Exhibit 1	<i>System Installation</i>	402
Exhibit 2	System Installation Metrics	403

Part 35

Exhibit 1	Maintenance Tool Selection Checklist	408
Exhibit 2	Vendor vs. Maintenance Tool Type.	411
Exhibit 3	Java Testing Tools	415
Exhibit 4	Web Link Checking Tools	417
Exhibit 5	HTML Validation Tools	418
Exhibit 6	Web Regression Tools	419
Exhibit 7	Web Security Tools	420
Exhibit 8	Web Management Tools	422

Appendices

Exhibit A-1	<i>Continuous Improvement</i>	459
Exhibit A-2	<i>Information Gathering</i>	460
Exhibit A-3	<i>Test Planning</i>	461
Exhibit A-4	<i>Test Case Design</i>	462
Exhibit A-5	<i>Test Development</i>	462
Exhibit A-6	<i>Test Execution/Evaluation</i>	463
Exhibit A-7	<i>Prepare for the Next Spiral</i>	463

Contents

<i>Exhibit A-8</i>	<i>Conduct System Testing</i>	464
<i>Exhibit A-9</i>	<i>Conduct Acceptance Testing</i>	465
<i>Exhibit A-10</i>	<i>Summarize/Report Spiral Test Results</i>	466
<i>Exhibit D-1</i>	<i>Change Request Form</i>	471
<i>Exhibit E-1</i>	<i>Requirements Traceability Matrix</i>	476
<i>Exhibit E-2</i>	<i>Function/Test Matrix</i>	479
<i>Exhibit E-3</i>	<i>GUI Component Test Matrix</i>	479
<i>Exhibit E-4</i>	<i>GUI-Based Function Test Matrix</i>	480
<i>Exhibit E-5</i>	<i>Test Case</i>	481
<i>Exhibit E-6</i>	<i>Test Case Log</i>	482
<i>Exhibit E-7</i>	<i>Test Log Summary Report</i>	483
<i>Exhibit E-8</i>	<i>Software Problem Report</i>	486
<i>Exhibit E-9</i>	<i>Test Schedule</i>	488
<i>Exhibit E-10</i>	<i>Retest Matrix</i>	490
<i>Exhibit F-1</i>	<i>Requirements Phase Checklist</i>	494
<i>Exhibit F-2</i>	<i>Logical Design Phase Checklist</i>	495
<i>Exhibit F-3</i>	<i>Physical Design Phase Checklist</i>	496
<i>Exhibit F-4</i>	<i>Program Unit Design Phase Checklist</i>	498
<i>Exhibit F-5</i>	<i>Coding Phase Checklist</i>	499
<i>Exhibit F-6</i>	<i>Field Testing Checklist</i>	501
<i>Exhibit F-7</i>	<i>Record Testing Checklist</i>	502
<i>Exhibit F-8</i>	<i>File Test Checklist</i>	503
<i>Exhibit F-9</i>	<i>Error Testing Checklist</i>	504
<i>Exhibit F-10</i>	<i>Use Text Checklist</i>	506
<i>Exhibit F-11</i>	<i>Search Test Checklist</i>	507
<i>Exhibit F-12</i>	<i>Match/Merge Checklist</i>	508
<i>Exhibit F-13</i>	<i>Stress Test Checklist</i>	509
<i>Exhibit F-14</i>	<i>Attributes Testing Checklist</i>	510
<i>Exhibit F-15</i>	<i>States Testing Checklist</i>	511
<i>Exhibit F-16</i>	<i>Procedures Testing Checklist</i>	512
<i>Exhibit F-17</i>	<i>Control Testing Checklist</i>	513
<i>Exhibit F-18</i>	<i>Control Flow Testing Checklist</i>	517
<i>Exhibit F-19</i>	<i>Testing Tool Selection Checklist</i>	518
<i>Exhibit H-1</i>	<i>Cause-Effect Graph</i>	533
<i>Exhibit H-2</i>	<i>Decision Table</i>	534
<i>Exhibit H-3</i>	<i>CRUD Testing</i>	536
<i>Exhibit H-4</i>	<i>Referential Integrity Test Cases</i>	538
<i>Exhibit H-5</i>	<i>Sample Table</i>	541
<i>Exhibit H-6</i>	<i>Employee Table</i>	545
<i>Exhibit H-7</i>	<i>Employee Table</i>	546
<i>Exhibit H-8</i>	<i>Employee Table</i>	547
<i>Exhibit H-9</i>	<i>Telephone Line Table</i>	547
<i>Exhibit H-10</i>	<i>Employee Table</i>	548
<i>Exhibit H-11</i>	<i>Project Table</i>	548
<i>Exhibit H-12</i>	<i>Employee/Project Table</i>	548

Exhibit H-13	Employee Table	549
Exhibit H-14	Project Table	549
Exhibit H-15	Employee/Project Table	549
Exhibit H-16	Purchase Agreement Table.	550
Exhibit H-17	Customer/Salesperson Table.	551
Exhibit H-18	Employee Table	554
Exhibit H-19	Customer Table	556
Exhibit H-20	Customer Table	556
Exhibit H-21	Customer Address Table	556
Exhibit H-22	Product Model Table.	557
Exhibit H-23	Product Table.	558
Exhibit H-24	Product Model Table.	558
Exhibit H-25	Order Table	559
Exhibit H-26	Order Table	560
Exhibit H-27	Product/Model/Contract Table	560
Exhibit H-28	Customer Table	561
Exhibit H-29	Product Table.	561
Exhibit H-30	Order Table	561
Exhibit H-31	Order Table	564
Exhibit H-32	Line-Item Table	564
Exhibit H-33	Employee Table	565
Exhibit H-34	Employee Table	565
Exhibit H-35	Decision Table	568
Exhibit H-36	Income vs. Tax Percent.	568
Exhibit H-37	Income/Tax Test Cases	569
Exhibit H-38	Test Case/Error Exception Test Matrix.	570
Exhibit H-39	Response Time of 100 Samples (seconds)	571
Exhibit H-40	Response Time Histogram	571
Exhibit H-41	Parameter Combinations (with total enumeration)	574
Exhibit H-42	Parameter Combinations (OATS)	575
<i>Exhibit H-43</i>	<i>Pareto Chart.</i>	<i>576</i>
Exhibit H-44	Range Testing Test Cases	584
Exhibit H-45	Sample Run Chart	585
Exhibit H-46	State Transition Table.	588

Exhibits listed in italics are graphics.

Introduction

Numerous textbooks address software testing in a structured development environment. By “structured” is meant a well-defined development cycle in which discretely defined steps provide measurable outputs at each step. It is assumed that software testing activities are based on clearly defined requirements and software development standards, and that those standards are used to develop and implement a plan for testing. Unfortunately, this is often not the case. Typically, testing is performed against changing, or even wrong, requirements.

This text aims to provide a quality framework for the software testing process in the traditional structured as well as unstructured environments. The goal is to provide a continuous quality improvement approach to promote effective testing methods and provide tips, techniques, and alternatives from which the user can choose.

The basis of the continuous quality framework stems from Edward Deming’s quality principles. Deming was the pioneer in quality improvement, which helped turn Japanese manufacturing around. Deming’s principles are applied to software testing in the traditional “waterfall” and rapid application “spiral” development (RAD) environments. The waterfall approach is one in which predefined, sequential steps are followed with clearly defined requirements. In the spiral approach, these rigid sequential steps may, to varying degrees, be lacking or different.

Section I, “Software Quality in Perspective,” reviews modern quality assurance principles and best practices. It provides the reader with a detailed overview of basic software testing techniques, and introduces Deming’s concept of quality through a continuous improvement process. The Plan–Do–Check–Act (PDCA) quality wheel is applied to the software testing process.

The **Plan** step of the continuous improvement process starts with a definition of the test objectives, or what is to be accomplished as a result of testing. The elements of a test strategy and test plan are described. A test strategy is a concise statement of how to meet the goals of testing and precedes test plan development. The outline of a good test plan is provided,

Introduction

including an introduction, the overall plan, testing requirements, test procedures, and test plan details.

The **Do** step addresses how to design or execute the tests included in the test plan. A cookbook approach describes how to perform component, integration, and system acceptance testing in a spiral environment.

The **Check** step emphasizes the importance of metrics and test reporting. A test team must formally record the results of tests and relate them to the test plan and system objectives. A sample test report format is provided, along with several graphic techniques.

The **Act** step of the continuous improvement process provides guidelines for updating test cases and test scripts. In preparation for the next spiral, suggestions for improving the people, process, and technology dimensions are provided.

Section II, “Life Cycle Testing Review,” reviews the waterfall development methodology and describes how continuous quality improvement can be applied to the phased approach through technical reviews and software testing. The requirements, logical design, physical design, program unit design, and coding phases are reviewed. The roles of technical reviews and software testing are applied to each. Finally, the psychology of software testing is discussed.

Section III, “Client/Server and Internet Testing Methodology,” contrasts the waterfall development methodology to the rapid application (RAD) spiral environment from a technical and psychological point of view. A spiral testing approach is suggested when the requirements are rapidly changing. A spiral methodology is provided, broken down into parts, steps, and tasks, applying Deming’s continuous quality improvement process in the context of the PDCA quality wheel.

Section IV, “Modern Testing Tools,” provides an overview of tools and guidelines for when to consider a testing tool and when not to. It also provides a checklist for selecting testing tools, consisting of a series of questions and responses. Examples are given of some of the most popular products. Finally, a detailed methodology for evaluating testing tools is provided, ranging from the initial test goals through training and implementation.

Section V, “Testing in the Maintenance Environment,” discusses the fundamental challenges of maintaining and improving existing systems. Software changes are described and contrasted. Strategies for managing the maintenance effort are presented, along with the psychology of the software maintenance activity. A maintenance testing methodology is then broken down into parts, steps, and tasks, applying Deming’s continuous quality improvement process in the context of the PDCA quality wheel.

Section VI, “Modern Maintenance Tools,” presents an overview of maintenance tools and provides guidelines for when to consider a maintenance testing tool and when not to. Using a question–response format, the section also provides a checklist for selecting maintenance testing tools. Samples of the most popular maintenance testing tools are included, ranging from code complexity tools to configuration/process management tools.

Section I

Software Quality in Perspective

Software quality is something everyone wants. Managers know that they want high quality; software developers know they want to produce a quality product; and users insist that software work consistently and be reliable.

Many organizations form software quality assurance groups to improve and evaluate their software applications. However, there is no commonly accepted practice for quality assurance. Thus the quality assurance groups in various organizations may perform different roles and may execute their planning using different procedures.

In some organizations, software testing is a responsibility of that group. In others, software testing is the responsibility of the development group or an independent organization.

Many software quality groups develop software quality assurance plans, which are similar to test plans. However, a software quality assurance plan may include a variety of activities beyond those included in a test plan.

The objectives of this section are to:

- Define quality and its cost
- Differentiate quality prevention from quality detection
- Differentiate verification from validation
- Outline the components of quality assurance
- Outline common testing techniques
- Describe how the continuous improvement process can be instrumental in achieving quality

Part 1

Quality Assurance Framework

WHAT IS QUALITY?

In *Webster's Dictionary*, quality is defined as “the essential character of something, an inherent or distinguishing character, degree or grade of excellence.” If you look at the computer literature, you will see that there are two generally accepted meanings of quality. The first is that quality means “meeting requirements.” With this definition, to have a quality product, the requirements must be measurable, and the product's requirements will either be met or not met. With this meaning, quality is a binary state, i.e., it is a quality product or it is not. The requirements may be very complete or they may be simple, but as long as they are measurable, it can be determined whether quality has or has not been met. This is the producer's view of quality as meeting the producer's requirements or specifications. Meeting the specifications becomes an end in itself.

Another definition of quality, the customer's, is the one we will use. With this definition, the customer defines quality as to whether or not the product or service does what the customer needs. Another way of wording it is “fit for use.” There should also be a description of the purpose of the product, typically documented in a customer's “requirements specification” (see Appendix C, Requirements Specification, for more details). The requirements are the most important document, and the quality system revolves around it. In addition, quality *attributes* are described in the customer's requirements specification. Examples include usability, the relative ease with which a user communicates with the application, portability, the capability of the system to be executed across a diverse range of hardware architectures, and reusability, the ability to transfer software components constructed in one software system into another.

While everyone is committed to quality, the following are some confusions shared by many individuals, which inhibit achieving a quality commitment:

1. Quality requires a commitment, particularly from top management. Close cooperation of management and staff is required in order to make it happen.

SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE

2. Many individuals believe that defect-free products and services are impossible, and accept certain levels of defects are normal and acceptable.
3. Quality is frequently associated with cost, meaning that high quality equals high cost. This is a confusion between quality of design and quality of conformance.
4. Quality demands requirement specifications in enough detail that the products produced can be quantitatively measured against those specifications. Many organizations are not capable or willing to expend the effort to produce specifications at the level of detail required.
5. Technical personnel often believe that standards stifle their creativity, and thus do not abide by standards compliance. However, for quality to happen, well-defined standards and procedures must be followed.

PREVENTION VS. DETECTION

Quality cannot be achieved by assessing an already completed product. The aim, therefore, is to prevent quality defects or deficiencies in the first place, and to make the products assessable by quality assurance measures. Some quality assurance measures include: structuring the development process with a software development standard and supporting the development process with methods, techniques, and tools.

In addition to product assessments, process assessments are essential to a quality management program. Examples include documentation of coding standards, prescription and use of standards, methods, and tools, procedures for data backup, change management, defect documentation, and reconciliation.

Quality management decreases production costs because the sooner a defect is located and corrected, the less costly it will be in the long run. Although the initial investment can be substantial, the long-term result will be higher-quality products and reduced maintenance costs.

The total cost of effective quality management is the sum of four component costs — prevention, inspection, internal failure, and external failure. Prevention costs consist of actions taken to prevent defects from occurring in the first place. Inspection costs consist of measuring, evaluating, and auditing products or services for conformance to standards and specifications. Internal failure costs are those incurred in fixing defective products before they are delivered. External failure costs consist of the costs of defects discovered after the product has been released. The latter can be devastating because they may damage the organization's reputation or result in the loss of future sales.

The greatest payback is with prevention. Increasing the emphasis on prevention costs reduces the number of defects which go to the customer undetected, improves product quality, and reduces the cost of production and maintenance.

VERIFICATION VS. VALIDATION

Verification is proving that a product meets the requirements specified during previous activities carried out correctly throughout the development life cycle, while validation checks that the system meets the customer's requirements at the end of the life cycle. It is a proof that the product meets the expectations of the users, and it ensures that the executable system performs as specified. The creation of the test product is much more closely related to validation than to verification. Traditionally, software testing has been considered a validation process, i.e., a life cycle phase. After programming is completed, the system is validated or tested to determine its functional and operational performance.

When verification is incorporated into testing, testing occurs throughout the development life cycle. For best results, it is good practice to combine verification with validation in the testing process. Verification includes systematic procedures of review, analysis, and testing, employed throughout the software development life cycle, beginning with the software requirements phase and continuing through the coding phase. Verification ensures the quality of software production and maintenance. In addition, verification imposes such an organized, systematic development practice that the resulting program can be easily understood and evaluated by an independent party.

Verification emerged about 15 years ago as a result of the aerospace industry's need for extremely reliable software in systems in which an error in a program could cause mission failure and result in enormous time and financial setbacks, or even life-threatening situations. The concept of verification includes two fundamental criteria. First, the software must adequately and correctly perform all intended functions. Second, the software must not perform any function that either by itself or in combination with other functions can degrade the performance of the entire system. The overall goal of verification is to ensure that each software product developed throughout the software life cycle meets the customer's needs and objectives as specified in the software requirements document.

Verification also establishes tractability between the various sections of the software documentation and the associated parts of the requirements specification. A comprehensive verification effort ensures that all software performance and quality requirements in the specification are adequately tested and that the test results can be repeated after changes are installed. Verification is a "continuous improvement process" and has no definite ter-

SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE

mination. It should be used throughout the system life cycle to maintain configuration and operational integrity.

Verification ensures that the software functions as intended and has the required attributes, e.g., portability, and increases the chances that the software will contain few errors (i.e., an acceptable number in the final product). It provides a method for closely monitoring the software development project and provides management with a detailed status of the project at any point in time. When verification procedures are used, management can be assured that the developers follow a formal, sequential, traceable software development process, with a minimum set of activities to enhance the quality of the system.

One criticism of verification is that it increases software development costs considerably. When the cost of software throughout the total life cycle from inception to the final abandonment of the system is considered, however, verification actually reduces the overall cost of the software. With an effective verification program, there is typically a four-to-one reduction in defects in the installed system. Because error corrections can cost 20 to 100 times more during operations and maintenance than during design, overall savings far outweigh the initial extra expense.

SOFTWARE QUALITY ASSURANCE

A formal definition of software quality assurance is that it is “the systematic activities providing evidence of the fitness for use of the total software product.” Software quality assurance is achieved through the use of established guidelines for quality control to ensure the integrity and prolonged life of software. The relationships between quality assurance, quality control, the auditing function, and software testing are often confused.

Quality assurance is the set of support activities needed to provide adequate confidence that processes are established and continuously improved in order to produce products that meet specifications and are fit for use. Quality control is the process by which product quality is compared with applicable standards and the action taken when nonconformance is detected. Auditing is the inspection/assessment activity that verifies compliance with plans, policies, and procedures.

Software quality assurance is a planned effort to ensure that a software product fulfills these criteria and has additional attributes specific to the project, e.g., portability, efficiency, reusability, and flexibility. It is the collection of activities and functions used to monitor and control a software project so that specific objectives are achieved with the desired level of confidence. It is not the sole responsibility of the software quality assurance group but is determined by the consensus of the project manager, project leader, project personnel, and users.

Quality assurance is the function responsible for managing quality. The word “assurance” means that if the processes are followed, management can be assured of product quality. Quality assurance is a catalytic function that should encourage quality attitudes and discipline on the part of management and workers. Successful quality assurance managers know how to make people quality conscious and to make them recognize the benefits of quality to themselves and to the organization.

The objectives of software quality are typically achieved by following a software quality assurance plan that states the methods the project will employ to ensure the documents or products produced and reviewed at each milestone are of high quality. Such an explicit approach ensures that all steps have been taken to achieve software quality and provides management with documentation of those actions. The plan states the criteria by which quality activities can be monitored rather than setting impossible goals, e.g., no software defects or 100% reliable software.

Software quality assurance is a strategy for risk management. It exists because software quality is typically costly and should be incorporated into the formal risk management of a project. Some examples of poor software quality include:

1. Delivered software frequently fails.
2. Unacceptable consequences of system failure, from financial to life-threatening scenarios.
3. Systems are often not available for their intended purpose.
4. System enhancements are often very costly.
5. Costs of detecting and removing defects are excessive.

Although most quality risks are related to defects, this only tells part of the story. A defect is a failure to comply with a requirement. If the requirements are inadequate or even incorrect, the risks of defects are more pervasive. The result is too many built-in defects and products that are not verifiable. Some risk management strategies and techniques include software testing, technical reviews, peer reviews, and compliance verification.

COMPONENTS OF QUALITY ASSURANCE

Most software quality assurance activities can be categorized into software testing, i.e., verification and validation, software configuration management, and quality control. But the success of a software quality assurance program also depends on a coherent collection of standards, practices, conventions, and specifications, as shown in Exhibit 1.

Software Testing

Software testing is a popular risk management strategy. It is used to verify that functional requirements were met. The limitation of this approach,

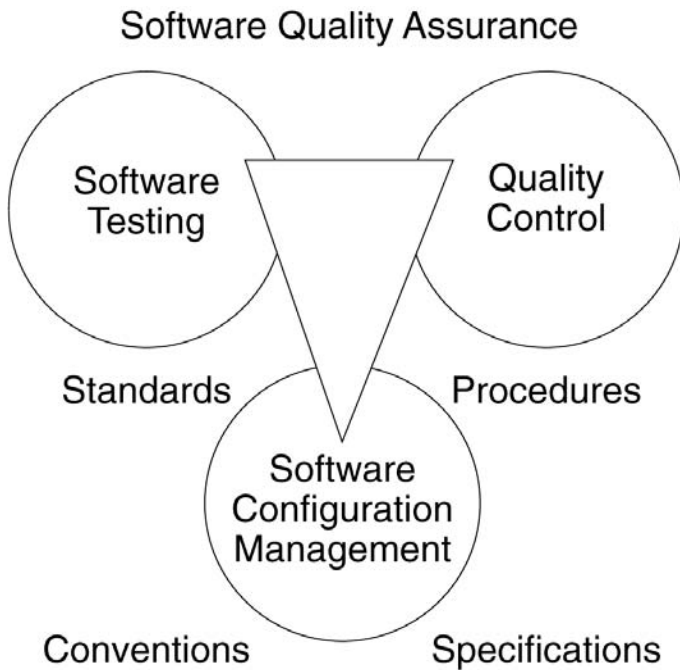


Exhibit 1. Quality Assurance Components

however, is that by the time testing occurs, it is too late to build quality into the product. Tests are only as good as the test cases, but they can be inspected to ensure that all the requirements are tested across all possible combinations of inputs and system states. However, not all defects are discovered during testing. Software testing includes the activities outlined in this text, including verification and validation activities. In many organizations, these activities, or their supervision, are included within the charter for the software quality assurance function. The extent to which personnel independent of design and coding should participate in software quality assurance activities is a matter of institutional, organizational, and project policy.

The major purpose of verification and validation activities is to ensure that software design, code, and documentation meet all the requirements imposed on them. Examples of requirements include user requirements, specifications derived from and designed to meet user requirements, code review and inspection criteria, test requirements at the modular, subsystem, and integrated software levels, and acceptance testing of the code after it has been fully integrated with hardware.

During software design and implementation, verification helps determine whether the products of one phase of the software development life cycle fulfill the requirements established during the previous phase. The verification effort takes less time and is less complex when conducted throughout the development process.

Quality Control

Quality control is defined as the processes and methods used to monitor work and observe whether requirements are met. It focuses on reviews and removal of defects before shipment of products. Quality control should be the responsibility of the organizational unit producing the product. It is possible to have the same group that builds the product perform the quality control function, or to establish a quality control group or department within the organizational unit that develops the product.

Quality control consists of well-defined checks on a product that are specified in the product quality assurance plan. For software products, quality control typically includes specification reviews, inspections of code and documents, and checks for user deliverables. Usually, document and product inspections are conducted at each life cycle milestone to demonstrate that the items produced are within the criteria specified by the software quality assurance plan. These criteria are normally provided in the requirements specifications, conceptual and detailed design documents, and test plans. The documents given to users are the requirement specifications, design documentation, results from the user acceptance test, the software code, user guide, and the operations and maintenance guide. Additional documents are specified in the software quality assurance plan.

Quality control can be provided by various sources. For small projects, the project personnel's peer group or the department's software quality coordinator can inspect the documents. On large projects, a configuration control board may be responsible for quality control. The board may include the users or a user representative, a member of the software quality assurance department, and the project leader.

Inspections are traditional functions of quality control, i.e., independent examinations to assess compliance with some stated criteria. Peers and subject matter experts review specifications and engineering work products to identify defects and suggest improvements. They are used to examine the software project for adherence to the written project rules at a project's milestones and at other times during the project's life cycle as deemed necessary by the project leader or the software quality assurance personnel. An inspection may be a detailed checklist for assessing compliance or a brief checklist to determine the existence of such deliverables as documentation. A report stating the purpose of the inspection and the de-

SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE

iciencies found goes to the project supervisor, project leader, and project personnel for action.

Responsibility for inspections is stated in the software quality assurance plan. For small projects, the project leader or the department's quality coordinator can perform the inspections. For large projects, a member of the software quality assurance group may lead an inspection performed by an audit team, which is similar to the configuration control board mentioned previously. Following the inspection, project personnel are assigned to correct the problems on a specific schedule.

Quality control is designed to detect and correct defects, while quality assurance is oriented toward preventing them. Detection implies flaws in the processes that are supposed to produce defect-free products and services. Quality assurance is a managerial function that prevents problems by heading them off, and by advising restraint and redirection.

Software Configuration Management

Software configuration management is concerned with labeling, tracking, and controlling changes in the software elements of a system. It controls the evolution of a software system by managing versions of its software components and their relationships.

The purpose of software configuration management is to identify all the interrelated components of software and to control their evolution throughout the various life cycle phases. Software configuration management is a discipline that can be applied to activities including software development, document control, problem tracking, change control, and maintenance. It can provide a high cost savings in software reusability because each software component and its relationship to other software components have been defined.

Software configuration management consists of activities that ensure that design and code are defined and cannot be changed without a review of the effect of the change itself and its documentation. The purpose of configuration management is to control code and its associated documentation so that final code and its description are consistent and represent those items that were actually reviewed and tested. Thus, spurious, last-minute software changes are eliminated.

For concurrent software development projects, software configuration management can have considerable benefits. It can organize the software under development and minimize the probability of inadvertent changes. Software configuration management has a stabilizing effect on all software when there is a great deal of change activity or a considerable risk of selecting the wrong software components.

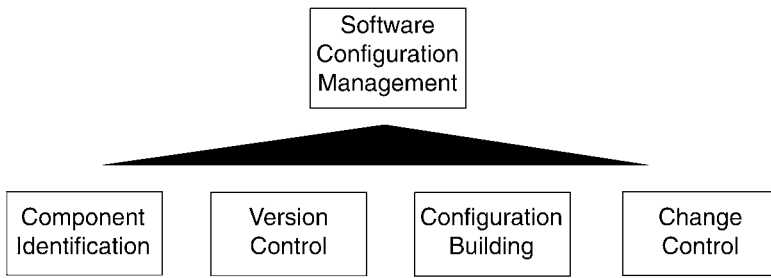


Exhibit 2. Software Configuration Management

ELEMENTS OF SOFTWARE CONFIGURATION MANAGEMENT

Software configuration management identifies a system configuration in order to systematically control changes, maintain integrity, and enforce traceability of the configuration throughout its life cycle. Components to be controlled include planning, analysis, and design documents, source code, executable code, utilities, job control language (JCL), test plans, test scripts, test cases, and development reports. The software configuration process typically consists of four elements — software component identification, software version control, configuration building, and software change control, as shown in Exhibit 2.

Component Identification

A basic software configuration management activity is the identification of the software components that make up a deliverable at each point of its development. Software configuration management provides guidelines to identify and name software baselines, software components, and software configurations.

Software components go through a series of changes. In order to manage the development process, one must establish methods and name standards for uniquely identifying each revision. A simple way to name component revisions is to use a series of discrete digits. The first integer could refer to a software component's external release number. The second integer could represent the internal software development release number. The transition from version number 2.9 to 3.1 would indicate that a new external release 3 has occurred. The software component version number is automatically incremented when the component is checked into the software library. Further levels of qualifiers could also be used as necessary, such as the date of a new version.

A software configuration is a collection of software elements that comprise a major business function. An example of a configuration is the set of program modules for an order system. Identifying a configuration is quite similar to identifying individual software components. Configurations can have a sequence of versions. Each configuration must be named in a way that distinguishes it from others. Each configuration version must be differentiated from other versions. The identification of a configuration must also include its approval status and a description of how the configuration was built.

A simple technique for identifying a configuration is to store all its software components in a single library or repository. The listing of all the components can also be documented.

Version Control

As an application evolves over time, many different versions of its software components are created, and there needs to be an organized process to manage changes in the software components and their relationships. In addition, there is usually the requirement to support parallel component development and maintenance.

Software is frequently changed as it evolves through a succession of temporary states called versions. A software configuration management facility for controlling versions is a software configuration management repository or library. Version control provides the tractability or history of each software change, including who did what, why, and when.

Within the software life cycle, software components evolve, and at a certain point each reaches a relatively stable state. But as defects are corrected and enhancement features are implemented, the changes result in new versions of the components. Maintaining control of these software component versions is called *versioning*.

A component is identified and labeled to differentiate it from all other software versions of the component. When a software component is modified, both the old and new versions should be separately identifiable. Therefore, each version, except for the initial one, has a predecessor. The succession of component versions is the component's history and tractability. Different versions also act as backups so that one can return to previous versions of the software.

Configuration Building

To build a software configuration one needs to identify the correct component versions and execute the component build procedures. This is often called *configuration building*.

A software configuration consists of a set of derived software components. An example is executable object programs derived from source programs. Derived software components are correctly associated with each source component to obtain an accurate derivation. The configuration build model defines how to control the way derived software components are put together.

The inputs and outputs required for a configuration build model include the primary inputs such as the source components, the version selection procedures, and the system model, which describes how the software components are related. The outputs are the target configuration and respectively derived software components.

Software configuration management environments use different approaches for selecting versions. The simplest approach to version selection is to maintain a list of component versions. Other approaches entail selecting the most recently tested component versions, or those modified on a particular date.

Change Control

Change control is the process by which a modification to a software component is proposed, evaluated, approved or rejected, scheduled, and tracked. Its basic foundation is a change control process, a component status reporting process, and an auditing process.

Software change control is a decision process used in controlling the changes made to software. Some proposed changes are accepted and implemented during this process. Others are rejected or postponed, and are not implemented. Change control also provides for impact analysis to determine the dependencies.

Modification of a configuration has at least four elements: a change request, an impact analysis of the change, a set of modifications and additions of new components, and a method for reliably installing the modifications as a new baseline (see Appendix D, Change Request Form, for more details).

A change often involves modifications to multiple software components. Therefore, a storage system that provides for multiple versions of a single

SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE

file is usually not sufficient. A technique is required to identify the set of modifications as a single change. This is often called *delta storage*.

Every software component has a development life cycle. A life cycle consists of states and allowable transitions between those states. When a software component is changed, it should always be reviewed and frozen from further modifications until a new version is created. The reviewing authority must approve or reject the modified software component. A software library holds all software components as soon as they are frozen and also acts as a repository for approved components.

A derived component is linked to its source and has the same status as its source. In addition, a configuration cannot have a more complete status than any of its components, because it is meaningless to review a configuration when some of the associated components are not frozen.

All components controlled by software configuration management are stored in a software configuration library, including work products such as business data and process models, architecture groups, design units, tested application software, reusable software, and special test software. When a software component is to be modified, it is checked out of the repository into a private workspace. It evolves through many states which are temporarily out of the scope of configuration management control.

When a change is completed, the component is checked into the library and becomes a new software component version. The previous component version is also retained.

SOFTWARE QUALITY ASSURANCE PLAN

The software quality assurance (SQA) plan is an outline of quality measures to ensure quality levels within a software development effort. The plan is used as a baseline to compare the *actual* levels of quality during development with the *planned* levels of quality. If the levels of quality are not within the planned quality levels, management will respond appropriately as documented within the plan.

The plan provides the framework and guidelines for development of understandable and maintainable code. These ingredients help ensure the quality sought in a software project. A SQA plan also provides the procedures for ensuring that quality software will be produced or maintained in-house or under contract. These procedures affect planning, designing, writing, testing, documenting, storing, and maintaining computer software. It should be organized in this way because the plan ensures the quality of the software rather than describing specific procedures for developing and maintaining the software.

Steps to Develop and Implement a Software Quality Assurance Plan

Step 1. Document the Plan. The software quality assurance plan should include the sections below (see Appendix B, Software Quality Assurance Plan, which contains a template for the plan).

1. *Purpose Section*
This section delineates the specific purpose and scope of the particular SQA plan. It should list the name(s) of the software items covered by the SQA plan and the intended use of the software. It states the portion of the software life cycle covered by the SQA plan for each software item specified.
2. *Reference Document Section*
This section provides a complete list of documents referenced elsewhere in the text of the SQA plan.
3. *Management Section*
This section describes the project's organizational structure, tasks, and responsibilities.
4. *Documentation Section*
This section identifies the documentation governing the development, verification and validation, use, and maintenance of the software. It also states how the documents are to be checked for adequacy. This includes the criteria and the identification of the review or audit by which the adequacy of each document will be confirmed.
5. *Standards, Practices, Conventions, and Metrics Section*
This section identifies the standards, practices, conventions, and metrics to be applied, and also states how compliance with these items is to be monitored and assured.
6. *Reviews and Inspections Section*
This section defines the technical and managerial reviews, walkthroughs, and inspections to be conducted. It also states how the reviews, walkthroughs, and inspections, are to be accomplished including follow-up activities and approvals.
7. *Software Configuration Management Section*
This section is addressed in detail in the project's software configuration management plan.
8. *Problem Reporting and Corrective Action Section*
This section is addressed in detail in the project's software configuration management plan.
9. *Tools, Techniques, and Methodologies Section*
This section identifies the special software tools, techniques, and methodologies that support SQA, states their purposes, and describes their use.
10. *Code Control Section*

This section defines the methods and facilities used to maintain, store, secure, and document the controlled versions of the identified software during all phases of development. This may be implemented in conjunction with a computer program library and/or may be provided as a part of the software configuration management plan.

11. *Media Control Section*

This section states the methods and facilities to be used to identify the media for each computer product and the documentation required to store the media, including the copy and restore process, and protects the computer program physical media from unauthorized access or inadvertent damage or degradation during all phases of development. This may be provided by the software configuration management plan.

12. *Supplier Control Section*

This section states the provisions for assuring that software provided by suppliers meets established requirements. In addition, it should state the methods that will be used to assure that the software supplier receives adequate and complete requirements. For previously developed software, this section will state the methods to be used to assure the suitability of the product for use with the software items covered by the SQA plan. For software to be developed, the supplier will be required to prepare and implement an SQA plan in accordance with this standard. This section will also state the methods to be employed to assure that the developers comply with the requirements of this standard.

13. *Records Collection, Maintenance, and Retention Section*

This section identifies the SQA documentation to be retained. It will state the methods and facilities to assemble, safeguard, and maintain this documentation, and will designate the retention period. The implementation of the SQA plan involves the necessary approvals for the plan as well as development of a plan for execution. The subsequent evaluation of the SQA plan will be performed as a result of its execution.

14. *Testing Methodology*

This section defines the testing approach, techniques, and automated tools that will be used.

Step 2. Obtain Management Acceptance. Management participation is necessary for the successful implementation of an SQA plan. Management is responsible both for ensuring the quality of a software project and for providing the resources needed for software development.

The level of management commitment required for implementing an SQA plan depends on the scope of the project. If a project spans organizational

boundaries, approval should be obtained from all affected areas. Once approval has been obtained, the SQA plan is placed under configuration control.

In the management approval process, management relinquishes tight control over software quality to the SQA plan administrator in exchange for improved software quality. Software quality is often left to software developers. Quality is desirable, but management may express concern as to the cost of a formal SQA plan. Staff should be aware that management views the program as a means of ensuring software quality, and not as an end in itself.

To address management concerns, software life cycle costs should be formally estimated for projects implemented both with and without a formal SQA plan. In general, implementing a formal SQA plan makes economic and management sense.

Step 3. Obtain Development Acceptance. Since the software development and maintenance personnel are the primary users of an SQA plan, their approval and cooperation in implementing the plan are essential. The software project team members must adhere to the project SQA plan; everyone must accept it and follow it.

No SQA plan is successfully implemented without the involvement of the software team members and their managers in the development of the plan. Because project teams generally have only a few members, all team members should actively participate in writing the SQA plan. When projects become much larger (i.e., encompassing entire divisions or departments), representatives of project subgroups should provide input. Constant feedback from representatives to team members helps gain acceptance of the plan.

Step 4. Plan for Implementation of the SQA Plan. The process of planning, formulating, and drafting an SQA plan requires staff and word processing resources. The individual responsible for implementing an SQA plan must have access to these resources. In addition, the commitment of resources requires management approval and, consequently, management support. To facilitate resource allocation, management should be made aware of any project risks that may impede the implementation process (e.g., limited availability of staff or equipment). A schedule for drafting, reviewing, and approving the SQA plan should be developed.

Step 5. Execute the SQA Plan. The actual process of executing an SQA plan by the software development and maintenance team involves determining necessary audit points for monitoring it. The auditing function must be scheduled during the implementation phase of the software product so that the SQA plan will not be hurt by improper monitoring of the software project. Audit points should occur either periodically during de-

velopment or at specific project milestones (e.g., at major reviews or when part of the project is delivered).

ISO9000 QUALITY STANDARDS

ISO9000 is a quality series and comprises a set of five documents developed in 1987 by the International Standards Organization (ISO). ISO9000 standards and certification are usually associated with non-IS manufacturing processes. However, application development organizations can benefit from these standards and position themselves for certification, if necessary. All the ISO9000 standards are guidelines and interpretive because of their lack of stringency and rules. ISO certification is becoming more and more important throughout Europe and the U.S. for the manufacture of hardware. Software suppliers will increasingly be required to have certification. ISO9000 is a definitive set of quality standards, but it represents quality standards as part of a total quality management (TQM) program. It consists of ISO9001, ISO9002, or ISO9003, and it provides the guidelines for selecting and implementing a quality assurance standard.

ISO9001 is a very comprehensive standard and defines all the quality elements required to demonstrate the supplier’s ability to design and deliver a quality product. ISO9002 covers quality considerations for the supplier to control the design and development activities. ISO9003 demonstrates the supplier’s ability to detect and control product nonconformity during inspection and testing. ISO9004 describes the quality standards associated with ISO9001, ISO9002, and ISO9003 and provides a comprehensive quality checklist.

Exhibit 3 shows the ISO9000 and companion international standards.

Exhibit 3. Companion ISO Standards

International	U.S.	Europe	U.K.
ISO9000	ANSI/ASQA	EN29000	BS5750 (Part 0.1)
ISO9001	ANSI/ASQC	EN29001	BS5750 (Part 1)
ISO9002	ANSI/ASQC	EN29002	BS5750 (Part 2)
ISO9003	ANSI/ASQC	EN29003	BS5750 (Part 3)
ISO9004	ANSI/ASQC	EN29004	BS5750 (Part 4)

Part 2

Overview of Testing Techniques

TEST CASE DESIGN

Ad hoc testing or error guessing is an informal testing technique that relies on inspiration, creative thinking, and brainstorming to design tests. While this technique is important and often very useful, there is no substitute for formal test techniques. Formal design techniques provide a higher probability of assuring test coverage and reliability. Test case design requires a specification that includes a description of the functionality, inputs, and outputs. Test case design becomes a part of the system documentation. Each test case must have a clear definition of the test objectives. Risk management may help define the test objectives, especially in areas of high risk. Following is a discussion of the leading test design approaches.

Black-Box Testing (functional)

Black-box or functional testing is one in which test conditions are developed based on the program or system's functionality, i.e., the tester requires information about the input data and observed output, but does not know how the program or system works. Just as one does not have to know how a car works internally to drive it, it is not necessary to know the internal structure of a program to execute it. The tester focuses on testing the program's functionality against the specification. With black-box testing, the tester views the program as a black-box and is completely unconcerned with the internal structure of the program or system. Some examples in this category include: decision tables, equivalence partitioning, range testing, boundary value testing, database integrity testing, cause-effect graphing, orthogonal array testing, array and table testing, exception testing, limit testing, and random testing.

A major advantage of black-box testing is that the tests are geared to what the program or system is supposed to do, and it is natural and understood by everyone. This should be verified with techniques such as structured walkthroughs, inspections, and JADs. A limitation is that exhaustive input testing is not achievable, because this requires that every possible input condition or combination be tested. Additionally, since there is no

knowledge of the internal structure or logic, there could be errors or deliberate mischief on the part of a programmer, which may not be detectable with black-box testing. For example, suppose a payroll programmer wants to insert some job security into a payroll application he or she is developing. By inserting the following extra code into the application, if the employee were to be terminated, i.e., his or her employee ID no longer exists in the system, justice would sooner or later prevail.

```
if my employee ID exists
    deposit regular pay check into my bank account
else
    deposit an enormous amount of money into my bank account
    erase any possible financial audit trails
    erase this code
```

White-Box Testing (structural)

In white-box or structural testing test conditions are designed by examining paths of logic. The tester examines the internal structure of the program or system. Test data are driven by examining the logic of the program or system, without concern for the program or system requirements. The tester knows the internal program structure and logic, just as a car mechanic knows the inner workings of an automobile. Specific examples in this category include basis path analysis, statement coverage, branch coverage, condition coverage, and branch/condition coverage.

An advantage of white-box testing is that it is thorough and focuses on the produced code. Since there is knowledge of the internal structure or logic, errors or deliberate mischief on the part of a programmer have a higher probability of being detected.

One disadvantage of white-box testing is that it does not verify that the specifications are correct, i.e., it focuses only on the internal logic and does not verify the logic to the specification. Another disadvantage is that there is no way to detect missing paths and data-sensitive errors. For example, if the statement in a program should be coded “if $|a-b| < 10$ ” but is coded “if $(a-b) < 1$,” this would not be detectable without specification details. A final disadvantage is that white-box testing cannot execute all possible logic paths through a program because this would entail an astronomically large number of tests.

Gray-Box Testing (functional and structural)

Black-box testing focuses on the program’s functionality against the specification. White-box testing focuses on the paths of logic. Gray-box testing is a combination of black- and white-box testing. The tester studies the requirements specifications and communicates with the developer to understand the internal structure of the system. The motivation is to clear up

ambiguous specifications and “read between the lines” to design implied tests. One example of the use of gray-box testing is when it appears to the tester that a certain functionality seems to be reused throughout an application. If the tester communicates with the developer and understands the internal design and architecture, many tests will be eliminated, because it may be possible to test the functionality only once. Another example is when the syntax of a command consists of seven possible parameters that can be entered in any order, as follows:

Command parm1, parm2, parm3, parm4, parm5, parm6, parm7

In theory, a tester would have to create $7!$ or 5,040 tests. The problem is compounded further if some of the parameters are optional. If the tester uses gray-box testing, by talking with the developer and understanding the parser algorithm, if each parameter is independent, only seven tests may be required.

Manual vs. Automated Testing

The basis of the manual testing categorization is that it is not typically carried out by people and is not implemented on the computer. Examples include, structured walkthroughs, inspections, joint application designs (JADs), and desk checking.

The basis of the automated testing categorization is that it is implemented on the computer. Examples include boundary value testing, branch coverage testing, prototyping, and syntax testing. Syntax testing is performed by a language compiler, and the compiler is a program that executes on a computer.

Static vs. Dynamic Testing

Static testing approaches are time independent and are classified in this way because they do not necessarily involve either manual or automated execution of the product being tested. Examples include syntax checking, structured walkthroughs, and inspections. An inspection of a program occurs against a source code listing in which each code line is read line by line and discussed. An example of static testing using the computer is a static flow analysis tool, which investigates another program for errors without executing the program. It analyzes the other program’s control and data flow to discover problems such as references to a variable that has not been initialized and unreachable code.

Dynamic testing techniques are time dependent and involve executing a specific sequence of instructions on paper or by the computer. Examples include structured walkthroughs, in which the program logic is simulated by walking through the code and verbally describing it. Boundary testing is a dynamic testing technique that requires the execution of test cases on

SOFTWARE QUALITY IN PERSPECTIVE

the computer with a specific focus on the boundary values associated with the inputs or outputs of the program.

TAXONOMY OF SOFTWARE TESTING TECHNIQUES

A testing technique is a set of interrelated procedures which, together, produce a test deliverable. There are many possible classification schemes for software testing and Exhibit 1 describes one way. The exhibit reviews formal popular testing techniques and also classifies each per the above discussion as manual, automated, static, dynamic, functional (black-box), or structural (white-box). Exhibit 2 provides a description of each technique.

Exhibit 1. Testing Technique Categories

Technique	Manual	Automated	Static	Dynamic	Functional	Structural
Basis Path Testing		x		x		x
Black-Box Testing		x		x	x	
Bottom-Up Testing		x		x		x
Boundary Value Testing		x		x	x	
Branch/Condition Coverage		x		x		x
Branch Coverage Testing		x		x		x
Cause-Effect Graphing		x		x	x	
Condition Coverage Testing		x		x		x
CRUD Testing		x		x	x	
Database Testing		x		x		x
Decision Tables		x		x	x	
Desk Checking	x			x		x
Equivalence Partitioning		x		x	x	
Exception Testing		x		x	x	
Free Form Testing		x		x	x	
Gray-Box Testing		x		x	x	x
Histograms	x				x	
Inspections	x		x		x	x
JADs	x				x	x
Orthogonal Array Testing	x		x		x	
Pareto Analysis	x				x	
Positive and Negative Testing		x		x	x	
Prior Defect History Testing	x		x		x	
Prototyping		x		x	x	
Random Testing		x		x	x	
Range Testing		x		x	x	
Regression Testing				x	x	
Risk-Based Testing	x		x		x	

Exhibit 1. (Continued) Testing Technique Categories

Technique	Manual	Automated	Static	Dynamic	Functional	Structural
Run Charts	x		x		x	
Sandwich Testing		x		x		x
Statement Coverage Testing		x		x		x
State Transition Testing		x		x	x	
Statistical Profile Testing	x		x		x	
Structured Walkthroughs	x			x	x	x
Syntax Testing		x	x	x	x	
Table Testing		x		x		x
Thread Testing		x		x		x
Top-Down Testing		x		x	x	x
White-Box Testing		x		x		x

Exhibit 2. Testing Technique Descriptions

Technique	Brief Description
Basis Path Testing	Identifying tests based on flow and paths of a program or system
Black-Box Testing	Test cases generated based on the system's functionality
Bottom-Up Testing	Integrating modules or programs starting from the bottom
Boundary Value Testing	Test cases generated from boundary values of equivalence classes
Branch/Condition Coverage Testing	Verify each condition in a decision takes on all possible outcomes at least once
Branch Coverage Testing	Verify each branch has true and false outcomes at least once
Cause-Effect Graphing	Mapping multiple simultaneous inputs which may affect others to identify their conditions to test
Condition Coverage Testing	Verify that each condition in a decision takes on all possible outcomes at least once
CRUD Testing	Build CRUD matrix and test all object creations, reads, updates, and deletions
Database Testing	Check the integrity of database field values
Decision Tables	Table showing the decision criteria and the respective actions
Desk Checking	Developer reviews code for accuracy
Equivalence Partitioning	Each input condition partitioned into two or more groups. Test cases are generated from representative valid and invalid classes
Exception Testing	Identify error messages and exception handling processes and conditions that trigger them
Free Form Testing	<i>Ad hoc</i> or brainstorming using intuition to define test cases

Exhibit 2. (Continued) Testing Technique Descriptions

Technique	Brief Description
Gray-Box Testing	A combination of black-box and white-box testing to take advantage of both
Histograms	A graphical representation of measured values organized according to the frequency of occurrence used to pinpoint hot spots
Inspections	Formal peer review that uses checklists, entry criteria, and exit criteria
JADs	Technique that brings users and developers together to jointly design systems in facilitated sessions
Orthogonal Array Testing	Mathematical technique to determine which variations of parameters need to be tested
Pareto Analysis	Analyze defect patterns to identify causes and sources
Positive and Negative Testing	Test the positive and negative values for all inputs
Prior Defect History Testing	Test cases are created or rerun for every defect found in prior tests of the system
Prototyping	General approach to gather data from users by building and demonstrating to them some part of a potential application
Random Testing	Technique involving random selection from a specific set of input values where any value is as likely as any other
Range Testing	For each input identifies the range over which the system behavior should be the same
Regression Testing	Tests a system in light of changes made during a development spiral, debugging, maintenance, or the development of a new release

Exhibit 2. (Continued) Testing Technique Descriptions

Technique	Brief Description
Risk-Based Testing	Measure the degree of business risk in a system to improve testing
Run Charts	A graphical representation of how a quality characteristic varies with time
Sandwich Testing	Integrating modules or programs from the top and bottom simultaneously
Statement Coverage Testing	Every statement in a program is executed at least once
State Transition Testing	Technique in which the states of a system are first identified and then test cases are written to test the triggers to cause a transition from one condition to another state
Statistical Profile Testing	Statistical techniques are used to develop a usage profile of the system that helps define transaction paths, conditions, functions, and data tables
Structured Walkthroughs	A technique for conducting a meeting at which project participants examine a work product for errors
Syntax Testing	Data-driven technique to test combinations of input syntax
Table Testing	Test access, security, and data integrity of table entries
Thread Testing	Combining individual units into threads of functionality which together accomplish a function or set of functions
Top-Down Testing	Integrating modules or programs starting from the top
White-Box Testing	Test cases are defined by examining the paths of logic of a system