

# Module - I

## Life cycle of a Software system:

- Software Design
- Development
- Testing
- Deployment
- Maintenance

- Producing a software application is relatively simple in concept: *Take an idea and turn it in to a useful program*.
- Unfortunately for projects of any real scope, there are countless ways that a simple concept can go wrong.
- Programmers may not understand what users want or need so they build the wrong application.

- The program might be full of bugs that it's frustrating impossible to fix, and can't be enhanced over time.
- Software engineering includes techniques for avoiding many pitfalls.
- It ensures the final application is effective, usable, and maintainable.

- It helps you meet milestones on schedule and produce finished project on time and within budget.
- Perhaps most important, software engineering gives us flexibility to make changes to meet unexpected demand without completely affecting our schedule and budget constraints.

- The different steps that we need to take to keep a software engineering project on track.
- These are more or less the same for any large project although there are some important differences.

- They are:

1. Requirements Gathering (Requirements Analysis)
2. Design
3. Development (coding)
4. Testing
5. Deployment (Implementation)
6. Maintenance

# Design

Software architecture

# Requirements

Product requirements document

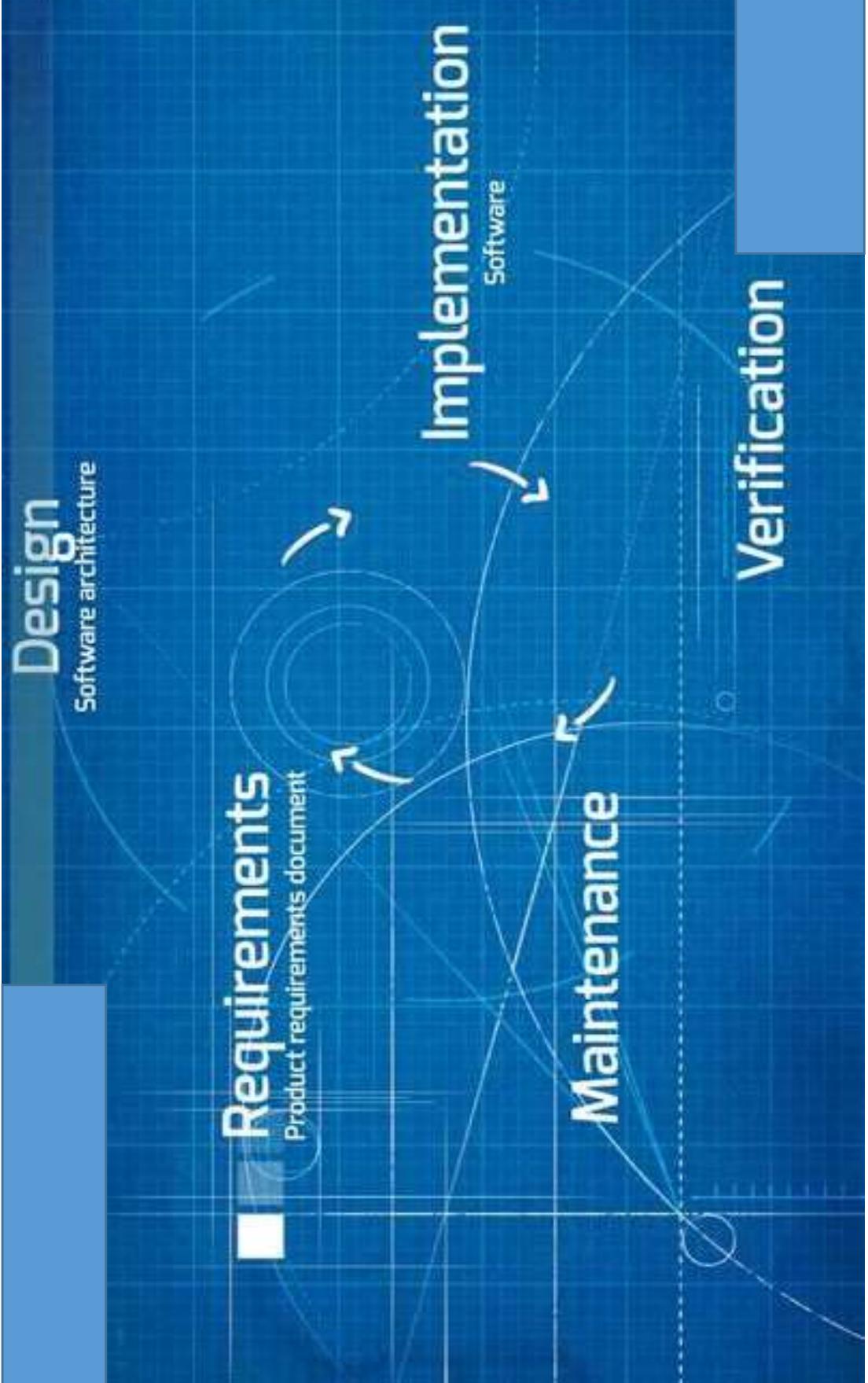


# Implementation

Software

# Maintenance

# Verification



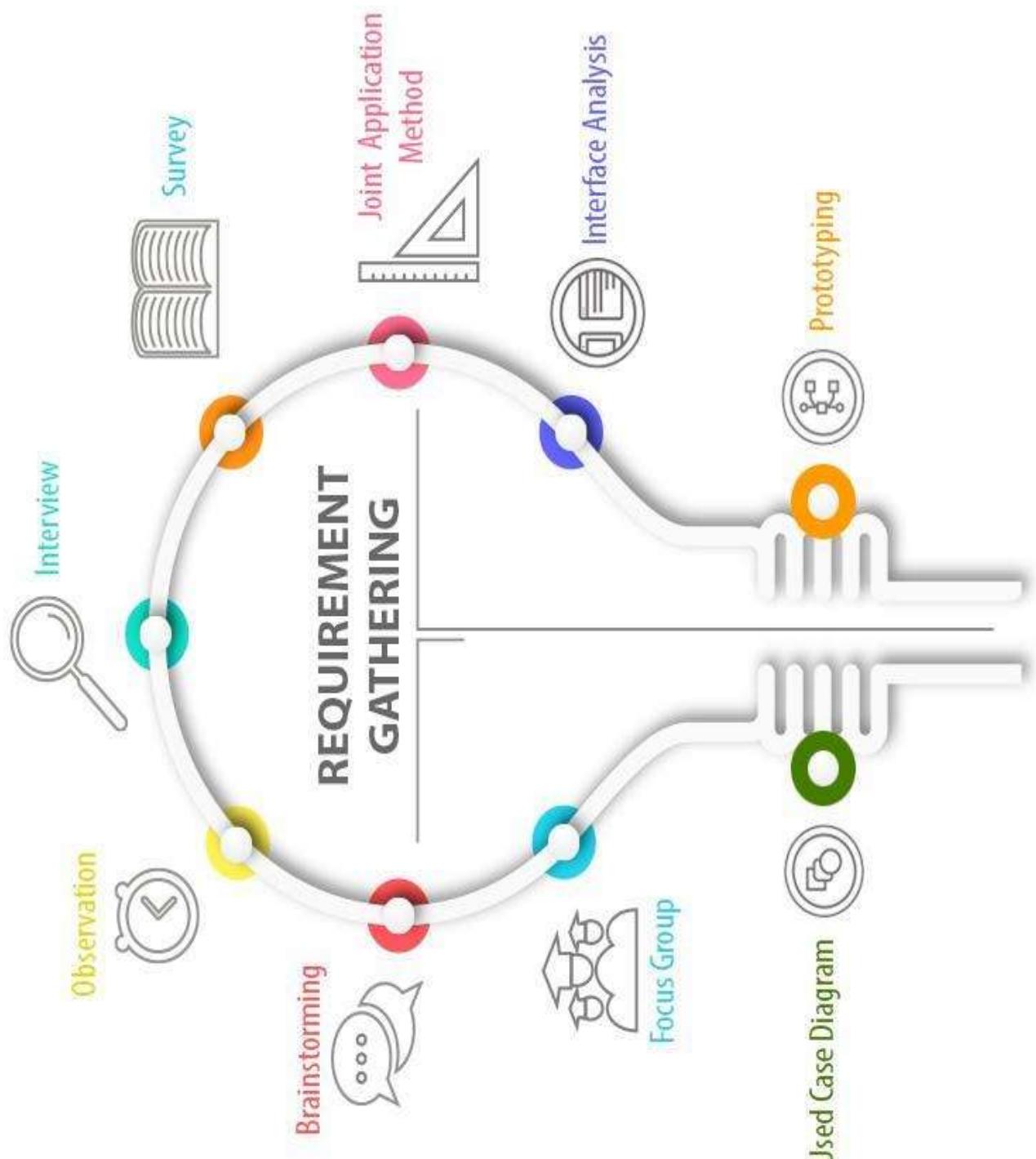
# Requirements Gathering

- No big project can succeed without a plan.
- Sometimes a project doesn't follow the plan closely, but every project must have a plan.
- The plan tells project members what they should be doing, while how long they should be doing it, and most important what the project's goals are.

- They give the project direction.
- One of the first steps in a software project is figuring out the requirements.
  - We need to find out what the customers want and what the customers need.
  - Depending on how well defined the user's needs are, this can be time-consuming.

- Once the customers' wants and needs are clearly specified, we can turn them into requirements documents.
- Those documents tell the customers what they will be getting; they tell the project members what they will be building.
- Throughout the project, both customers and team members can refer to the requirements to see if the project is heading in the right direction.

- Requirements are the features that your application must prove
- At the beginning of the project, we gather requirements from the customers to figure out what we need to build.
- Throughout development, we use the requirements to guide development and ensure that we are heading in the right direction.
- At the end of the project, we use the requirements to verify that the finished application actually does what it's supposed to do.



# Characteristics of good requirements

- Clear

- Good requirements are clear, concise, and easy to understand.
- Requirements cannot be vague or ill-defined.
- Each requirement must state in concrete

- **Unambiguous** (not open to more than one interpretation)

- As we write requirements, do our best to make sure we can't think of another interpretation other than the way we intend.

- **Consistent**

- That means not only that they cannot contradict each other, but that they also provide so many constraints that the problem is unsolvable.
- Each requirement must also be self-consistent.(it must be possible to achieve something's got to go. At this point, we need to prioritize the requirement)

- **Prioritized**

- We might like to include every feature but don't have the time or budget, something's got to go. At this point, we need to prioritize the requirement

- **Verifiable**

- If we can't verify a requirement, how do we know whether we have met it?
- Being verifiable means the requirements must be limited and precisely defined

## MOSCOW METHOD - a common system for prioritizing application features

- **M - Must.** These are required features that must be included. They are for the project to be considered a success.
- **S - Should.** These are important features that should be included if possible.
- **C - Could.** These are desirable features that can be omitted if they won't fit the schedule.
- **W - Won't.** These are completely optional features that the customers likely will not be included in the current release.

# REQUESTMENT CATEGORIES

## Audience-Oriented Requirements:

- These categories focus on different audiences and the different points of view that audience has.

## Business Requirements:

- Business requirements layout the project's high-level goals.

## User Requirements:

- User requirements (which are also called stake holder requirements), describe how will be used by the end users.

## Functional Requirements:

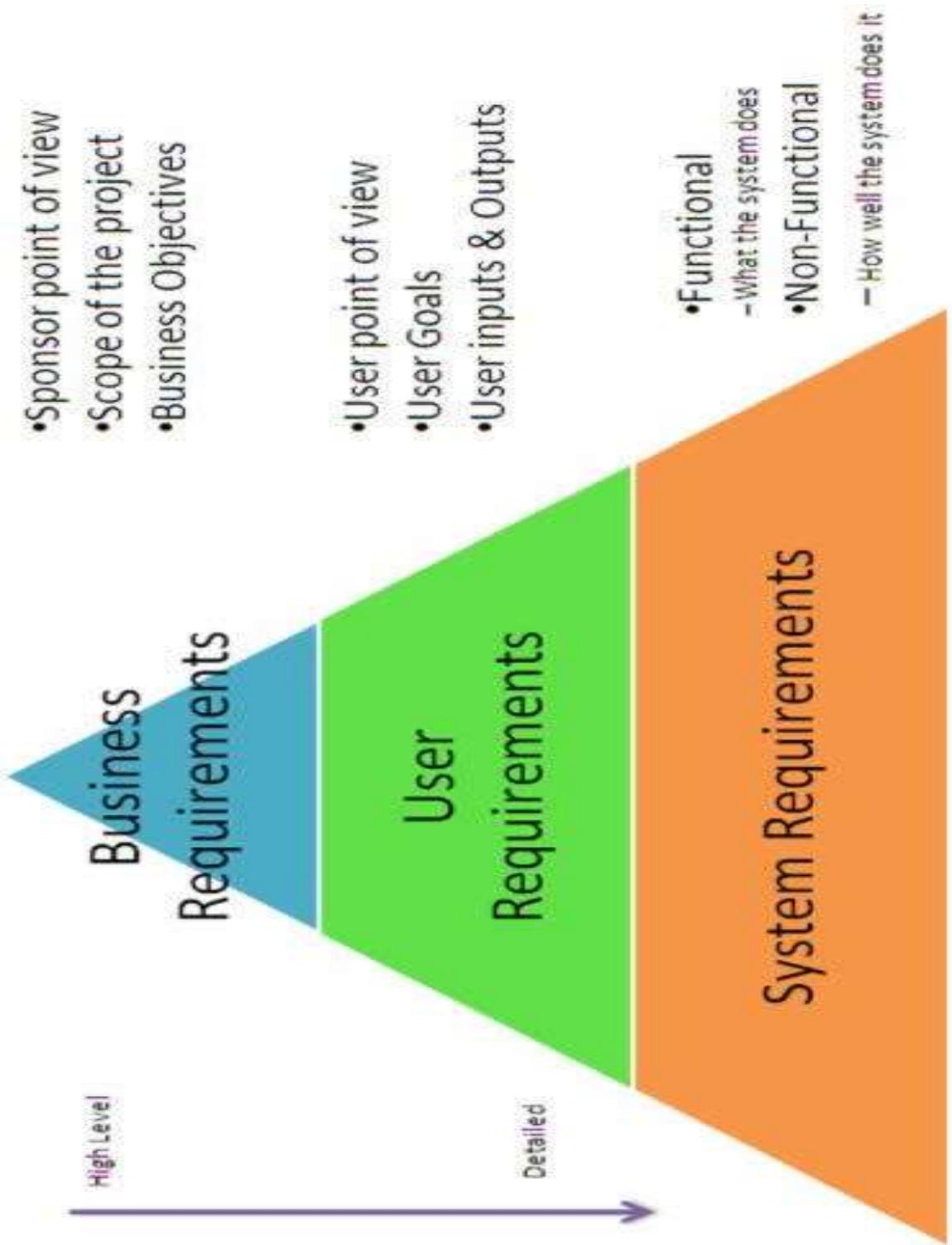
- Functional requirements are detailed statements of the project's desired capabilities

## Non-functional Requirements:

- Non-functional requirements are statements about the quality of the application's behavior constraints on how it produces a desired result.
- They specify things such as the application's performance, reliability, and security characteristics.

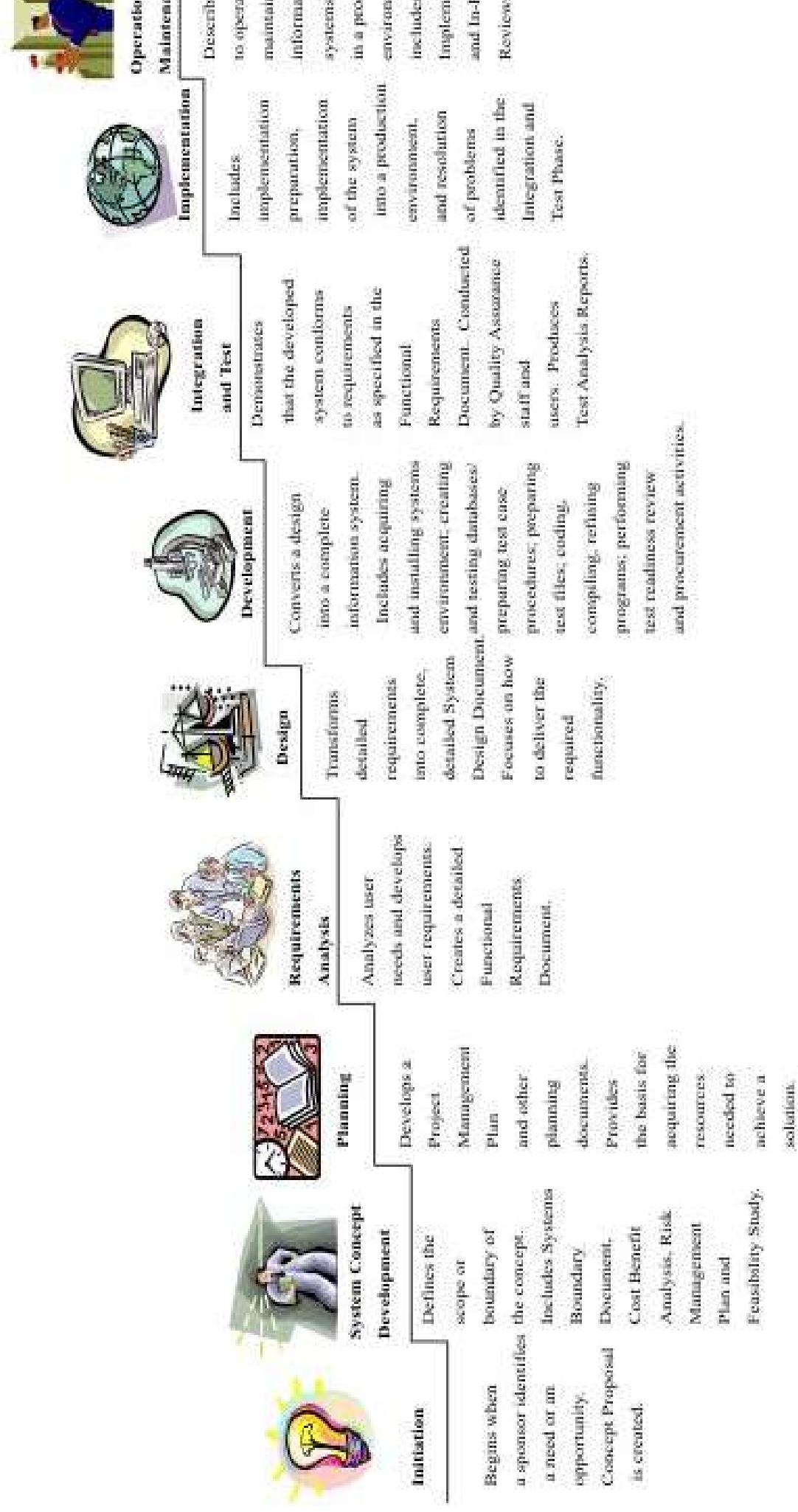
## Implementation Requirements:

- Implementation requirements are temporary features that are needed to transition to new system but that will be later discarded.



# Systems Development Life Cycle (SDLC)

## Life-Cycle Phases



# Design

- Software design sits at the technical kernel of software engineering
- The importance of design is *quality*
- Design is the only way that you can accurately translate stakeholder requirements into a finished software product or system.
- Software design is an iterative process through which requirements translated into a “blueprint” for constructing the software

# Quality Attributes

- It is commonly known as **FURPS**.
  - *Functionality*
  - *Usability*
  - *Reliability*
  - *Performance*
  - *Supportability*

- *Functionality* is assessed by evaluating the feature set and capabilities of the program, generality of the functions that are delivered, and the security of the overall system
- *Usability* is assessed by considering human factors
- *Reliability* is evaluated by measuring the frequency and severity of failure, the output results, the ability to recover from failure
- *Performance* is measured by considering processing speed, response time, resource consumption, throughput, and efficiency
- *Supportability* combines the ability to extend the program (extensibility), adaptability—these three attributes represent a more common term, maintainability

- Design can be of **two types**: high level design and low level design.

## **HIGH-LEVEL DESIGN**

- The high-level design includes such things as decisions about what platform as desktop, laptop, tablet, or phone), what data design to use and the project at a relatively high level.
- We break the project into different modules that handle the project's major functionality.
- We should make sure that the high-level design covers every aspect of the system
  - It should specify what the pieces(modules) do and how they should interact, include as few details as possible about how the pieces do their jobs.

## LOW-LEVELDESIGN

- After high-level design breaks the project into pieces, we can assign those groups within the project so that they can work on low-level designs.
- The low-level design includes information about how that piece of the project may require work.
- Better interactions between the different pieces of the project that may require work here and there.

**High-level design focuses on what.**

**Low-level design begins to focus on how.**

# Three characteristics for a good design

- The design must implement all of the explicit requirements contained in requirements model, and it must accommodate all of the implicit requirements desired by stakeholders.
- The design must be a readable, understandable guide for those who generate code and for those who test and subsequently support the software.
- The design should provide a complete picture of the software, addressing the data, functional, and behavioral domains from an implementation perspective.

- Modular design involves the decomposition of software behavior into encapsulated software units.
- Modularity is achieved by grouping together logically related elements, such as statements, procedures, variable declarations, attributes, and so on in increasingly greater levels of detail
- The main objectives in seeking modularity are to foster **high cohesion and low coupling**

- Cohesion relates to the relationship of the elements of a module.

- Seven levels of cohesion in order of strength

1. Coincidental — parts of the module are not related but are simply bundled in a module.
2. Logical — parts that perform similar tasks are put together in a module.
3. Temporal — tasks that execute within the same time span are brought together.
4. Procedural — the elements of a module make up a single control sequence.
5. Communicational — all elements of a module act on the same area of a data structure.
6. Sequential — the output of one part of a module serves as input for another part.
7. Functional — each part of the module is necessary for the execution of a similar part.

- High cohesion implies that each module represents a single part of the solution. Therefore, if the system ever needs modification, then the parts need to be modified exists in a single place, making it easier to change
- **Coupling** relates to the relationships between the modules themselves
  - There is great benefit in reducing coupling so that changes made to one do not propagate to others (that is, they are hidden)
  - This principle of “information hiding,” also known as Parnas partition cornerstone of all software design.
- Low coupling limits the effects of errors in a module (lower “ripple effect”) reduces the likelihood of data integrity problems.

- Coupling has also been characterized in increasing levels as follows:
  - **No direct coupling** - all modules are completely unrelated.
  - **Data coupling** - when two modules interact with each other by means of passing data
  - Stamp coupling - when a data structure is passed from one module to another, but that module only some of the data elements of the structure. (When multiple modules share common data work on different part of it.)
  - **Control coupling** - one module passes an element of control to another; that is, one module controls the logic of the other. (Two modules are called control-coupled if one of them decides function of the other module or changes its flow of execution.)
  - **Common coupling** — if two modules both have access to the same global data.
  - **Content coupling** — one module directly references the contents of another (When a module access or modify or refer to the content of another module)

- **Parnas partitioning :-** Software partitioning into software units with low cohesion and high cohesion can be achieved through the principle of information hiding
  - ✓ In this technique, a list of difficult design decisions or things that are likely to change is prepared.
  - ✓ Code units are then designated to “hide” the eventual implementation of a design decision or feature from the rest of the system.
  - ✓ Thus, only the function of the code units is visible to other modules, not the method of implementation.
  - ✓ Changes in these code units are therefore not likely to affect the rest of the system.

- Parnas partitioning “hides” the implementation details of software features decisions, low-level drivers, etc., in order to limit the scope of impact of changes or corrections.
- By partitioning things likely to change, only that module need be touched change is required without the need to modify unaffected code.
- This technique is particularly applicable and useful in embedded systems. allows easier future modification due to hardware interface changes and reamount of code affected.

# Development

- After we have created the high- and low-level designs, it's time for programmers to get to work.
- The programmers continue refining the low-level designs until they know how to implement those designs in code.
- As the programmers write the code, they test it to make sure it does not contain any bugs.

- During the Development Phase, the system developer takes the detailed logical information documented in the previous phases and transforms it into machine-executable form, and ensures that all the individual components of the automated system/application function correctly and interface properly with other components within the system/application.
- The Development Phase includes several activities that are the responsibility of the developer.

## **Activities:-**

- The developer places the outputs under configuration control and performs control.
- The developer also documents and resolves problems and non-conformance the software products and tasks.
- The developer selects, tailors, and uses those standards, methods, tools, and programming languages that are documented, appropriate, and established by organization for performing the activities in the Development Phase.
- Plans for conducting the activities of the Development Phase are developed documented and executed. The plans include specific standards, methods, actions, and responsibility associated with the development and qualification requirements including safety and security.
- Verify that the software product covering the documented and baselined requirements is in a sufficient state of readiness for integration and formal testing by an alternate test group (i.e. other than development personnel.)
- During the Development Phase, the final Test Plan is prepared.

# Programming tips

- Be alert
- Write for people not for computer
- Comment first
- Write self documenting codes
- Keep it small
- Stay focused
- Avoid side effects
- Validate results
- Use exceptions
- Don't repeat code

- The best code starts out with a good design.
- A **code smell** refers to an indicator of poor design or code.
- **Refactoring** refers to a behavior-preserving code transformation enacted to improve some feature of the software, which is evidenced by the code smell.

# Testing

- Effective software testing will improve software quality.
- Even poorly planned and executed testing will improve software quality.
- Testing is a life-cycle activity; testing activities begin from product initiation and continue through delivery of the software and into maintenance.
- Collecting bug reports and assigning them for repair is also a testing activity.
- But as a life-cycle activity, the most valuable testing activities occur at the beginning of the project.

- Even if a particular piece of code is thoroughly tested and contains 1 (or a few) bugs, there's no guarantee that it will work properly with the other parts of the system.
- One way to address the problems like this, is to perform different kinds of tests.
- First developers test their own code. Then testers who didn't write the code test it. After a piece of code seems to work properly, it is integrated into the rest of the project, and the whole thing is tested to see if the new code has introduced anything.

The terms error, bug, fault, and failure:-

- Use of “**bug**” is that an error crept into the program through no action. The preferred term for an error in requirement, design, or is “**error**” or “**defect**.”
- The manifestation of a defect during the operation of the software system is called a **fault**.
- A fault that causes the software system to fail to meet one of its requirements is called a **failure**.

- **Verification**, or testing, determines whether the products of a given phase of the software development cycle fulfill the requirements established during the previous phase.
- Verification answers the question “Am I building the product right?”

- Validation determines the correctness of the final program or system with respect to the user’s needs and requirements.
- Validation answers the question “Am I building the right product?

# Purpose of Testing

- Testing is the execution of a program or partial program with known inputs and outputs that are both predicted and observed for the purpose of finding faults or deviations from the requirements.
- Testing will flush out errors, this is just one of its purposes.
- The other is to increase trust in the system.
- Testing must increase faith in the system, even though it may still contain unanticipated faults, by ensuring that the software meets its requirements.
- A **good test** is one that has a high probability of finding an error. A **successful test** is one that uncovers an error.

# Basic principles of software testing

- These are the most helpful and practical rules for the tester.
  - All tests should be traceable to customer requirements.
  - Tests should be planned long before testing begins.
  - Remember that the Pareto principle applies to software testing.

(The Pareto principle states that for many outcomes roughly 80% of consequences come from 20% of the causes.)
  - Testing should begin “in the small” and progress toward testing “in the large.”
  - Exhaustive testing is not practical.
  - To be most effective, testing should be conducted by an independent party.

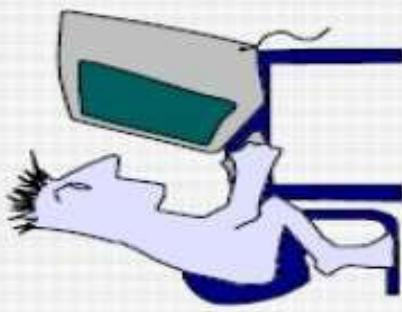
- Testing is a well-planned activity and should not be conducted willy nilly, nor
    - the last minute, just as the code is being integrated.
  - The most important activity that the test engineer can conduct during requirement engineering is to ensure that each requirement is testable.
  - A requirement that cannot be tested cannot be guaranteed and, therefore, must
    - or eliminated.
  - Wide range of testing techniques for unit testing, integration testing, and system testing.
  - Any one of these test techniques can be either insufficient or computationally unfeasible.
- Therefore, some combination of testing techniques is almost always employed.

# Who Tests the Software?



*developer*

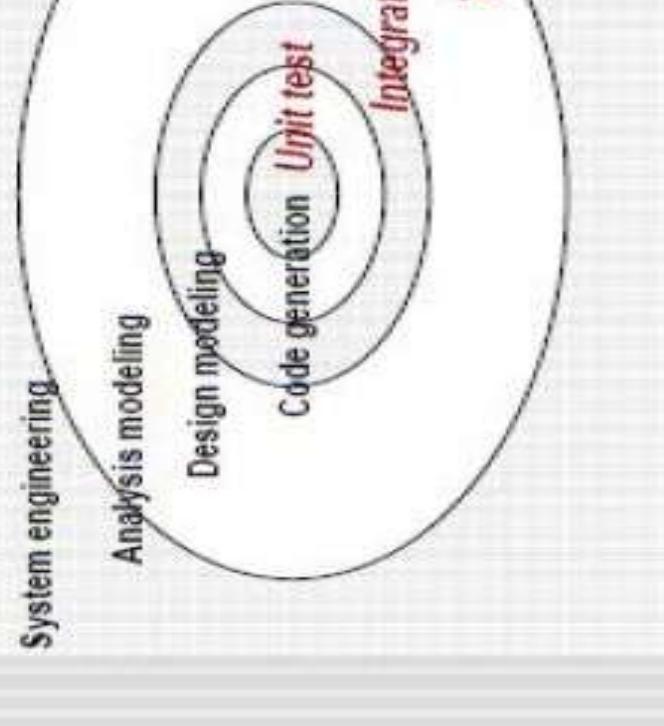
Understands the system  
but, will test "gently"  
and, is driven by "delivery"



*independent tester*

Must learn about the system,  
but, will attempt to break it  
and, is driven by quality

# Testing Strategy



# Levels of Testing (Types of Testing)

- **Unit testing:-** Verifies the correctness of a specific piece of code
  - Since unit test is the first chance to catch errors, it is extremely
  - Focus on each unit (eg: component, class or web App content of the software as implemented in the source code.
  - sometimes called **desk checking.**

# Black Box Testing

- In black box testing, only inputs and outputs of the unit are considered  
the outputs are generated based on a particular set of inputs is ignored
- Some widely used black box testing techniques include:
  - Exhaustive testing
  - Boundary value testing
  - Random test generation
  - Worst case testing

- **Brute force or exhaustive testing** involves presenting each code unit every possible input combination.
- Brute force testing can work well in the case of a small number of each with a limited input range
- **Boundary value or corner case testing** solves the problem of combination explosion by testing some very tiny subset of the input combinations as meaningful “boundaries” of input.

- **Random test case generation, or statistically based testing**, can be both unit and system level testing.
  - This kind of testing involves subjecting the code unit to many random generated test cases over some period of time.
  - The purpose of this approach is to simulate execution of the software under realistic conditions.

- **Equivalence class testing** involves partitioning the space of possible inputs to a code unit or group of code units into a set of representative inputs.

- **Example:-**

Auto manufacturers don't have a crash test dummy representing every possible human being. Instead, they use a handful of representative dummies — small, average, and large adult males; small, average, and large adult females; pregnant female; toddler, etc. These categories represent the equivalence classes.

## **Disadvantages to black box testing :-**

- One disadvantage is that it can bypass unreachable or dead code.
- In other words, black box testing only tests what is expected to happen, not what wasn't intended.
- White box or clear box testing techniques can be used with this problem.

# White Box Testing

- White box testing (sometimes called **clear** or **glass box testing**) test the structure of the underlying code. For this reason it is also **structural testing**.
- Black box tests are data driven, White box tests are logic driven.
- White box testing are designed to exercise all paths in the code used.
- White box testing also has the advantage that it can discover those paths that cannot be executed.

- The following white box testing strategies
  - ✓ DD path testing
  - ✓ DU path testing
  - ✓ McCabe's basis path method
  - ✓ Code inspections
  - ✓ Formal program proving

- **DD path testing**, or **decision-to-decision path testing** is based on the control structure of the program.
- In DD testing, a graph representation of the control structure of the program is used to generate test cases that traverse the graph essentially from one decision branch (for example, if-then statement) to another in well-defined ways.
- Depending on the strength of the testing, different combinations of paths are tested.

- DU (define-use) path testing is a data-driven white box test technique that involves the construction of test cases that exercise all possible definition, change, or use of a variable through software system.
- DU path testing is actually rather sophisticated because there is a hierarchy of paths involving whether the variable is observed changed.

- McCabe's basis path method - McCabe's metric to determine the complexity of code.
- McCabe's metric can also be used to determine a lower bound on the number of test cases needed to traverse all linearly independent paths in a unit of code.

- McCabe also provides a procedure for determining the linear independent paths by traversing the program graph.
- This technique is called the **basis path method**
- The basis path method begins with the selection of a baseline which should correspond to some “ordinary” case of program execution along one of the programs.
- McCabe advises choosing a path with as many decision nodes possible.

- **Code Inspections:-** In code inspections, the author of some code software presents each line of code to a review group of peer software engineers.

- Code inspections can detect errors as well as discover ways for improving the implementation.

- This audit also provides an opportunity to enforce coding standards.

- **Formal Program Proving** :- Formal program proving is a kind of testing using mathematical techniques in which the code is a theorem and some form of calculus is used to prove that the program is correct.
- This form of verification requires a high level of training and is generally, for only limited purposes because of the intensity of a required.

## **Integration Testing:-**

- Integration testing involves testing of groups of components integrated to create a system or sub-system.
- The tests are derived from the system specification.
- Verifies that a block of code is working properly
- It checks that the existing code calls the new method correctly, a new method can call other methods correctly.

- **Incremental Integration Testing:-** This is a strategy that partitions system in some way to reduce the code tested. Incremental testing includes:
  - **Top-Down Testing**
  - **Bottom-Up Testing**
  - **Other kinds of system partitioning**

In practice, most integration involves a combination of these strategies.

- **Top-Down Testing** - This kind of testing starts with a high-level system that integrates from the topdown, replacing individual components by (dummy programs) where appropriate.
- **Bottom-Up Testing** - Bottom up testing is the reverse of top-down testing, in which we integrate individual components in levels, from the bottom up until the complete system is created.
- **Other kinds of system partitioning** - These include pair-wise integration, sandwich integration, neighbourhood,integration testing, and internal testing.

## Other kinds of system partitioning

- **Pair-wise integration testing** - pairs of modules or functionality together.
- **Sandwich integration** - combination of top-down and bottom up which falls somewhere in between big-bang testing (one big test) testing of individual modules.
- **Neighborhood integration testing** - portions of program functions are logically connected somehow are tested in groups.
- **Interface testing** - takes place when modules or subsystems are created to create larger systems.

- **Component interface testing:-** Studies the interactions between components
  - Common strategy for component level testing is to think of the interaction between components as one component sending a message to another component.
- **Stress testing:** executes a system in a manner that demands resources
  - abnormal quantity, frequency, or volume.
  - the system is subjected to a large disturbance in the inputs;
  - to see how the system fails (gracefully or catastrophically).
  - with cases and conditions where the system is under heavy load

- **Burn-in testing** is a type of system-level testing done in the **factory** which seeks to flush out those failures appearing early in the life system, and thus to improve the reliability of the delivered product.
- **Cleanroom testing** is more than a kind of system testing. It is a testing philosophy.
  - The principal tenant of cleanroom software development is that **given sufficient time and care, error-free software can be written.**
  - Cleanroom software development relies heavily on code inspections and program validation.

- **Regression testing:-** Test the program's entire functionality to thing changed when you added new code to the project.
- Regression testing (which can also be performed at the unit level) used to validate the updated software against the old set of tests that have already been passed.
- Regression testing helps to ensure that changes (due to testing or other reasons) do not introduce unintended behavior or additional errors.

- **Acceptance testing:-** Determine whether the finished application meets the customer's requirements.
  - Usually customer or representative sits down with the application runs through all the user cases (during requirement analysis) sure everything works as advertised.
  - Most software builders use a process called alpha and beta testing to uncover errors that only the end user able to find.

## □ Alpha test:-

- ❖ First round testing by selected customers or independent version of the complete software is tested by customer under supervision of the developer at the developer's site

## □ Beta test:-

- ❖ Second round testing after alpha test.
- ❖ version of the complete software is tested by customer at her own site without the developer being present.

- **Software Fault Injection :-** Fault injection is a form of software testing that acts like “crashtesting” the software demonstrating the consequences of incorrect code or data
  - The main benefit of fault injection testing is that it can demonstrate the software is unlikely to do what it shouldn’t.
  - Eg: type a letter when the input called is for a number
- **Security testing:** verifies that protection mechanisms built into the system will, in fact, protect it from improper penetration.

- **Automated testing:-** Automated testing tools let you define and the results they should produce.

- After running a test, the testing tool can compare the results with expected results.

- **System testing:-** End to end run through of the whole system
  - System test exercise every part of the system to discover bugs as possible.

- **Performance Testing:** test the run-time performance of software within the context of an integrated system
- **Deployment testing(configuration testing):** exercises the software in each environment in which it is to operate. It also examines the installation procedures and installation software.
- **Recovery testing:** forces the software to fail in a variety of ways and verifies that recovery is properly performed.

- **Compatibility test:-** Focus on compatibility with different environments such as computers running older operating systems. Also with older versions of files, databases etc...
- **Destructive test :-** Makes the application fail so that you can see its behaviour when the worst happens.
- **Installation test:-** Make sure that you can successfully install the system on a fresh computer

- **Functional test:-** Deals with features the application provides
- **Exhaustive testing :-** Testing a method with every possible input
  - It proves that a method works correctly under all circumstances it's the best you can possibly do.
  - Because most methods take too many possible inputs, it wastes most of the time.
- **Accessibility test:-** Tests the application for accessibility by the visually impaired, hearing or other impairments.

## **When should you stop testing?**

- There are several criteria that can be used to determine when testing should stop:
  1. When you run out of time.
  2. When continued testing causes no new failures.
  3. When continued testing reveals no new faults.
  4. When you can't think of any new test cases.
  5. When you reach a point of "diminishing returns."
  6. When mandated coverage has been attained.
  7. When all faults have been removed

# Deployment

- What is deployment?

- Getting software out of the hands of the developers in hands of the users.
- The software is delivered to the customer who evaluates delivered product and provides feedback based on the evaluation.

# **Key issues around deployment**

- 1. Business processes:-** Most large software systems require the customer change the way they work.
- 2. Training:-** No point in deploying software if the customers can't use it.
- 3. Deployment itself:-** How physically to get the software installed.
- 4. Equipment:-** Is the customer's hardware up to the job?
- 5. Expertise:-** Does the customer have the IT expertise to install the software?
- 6. Integration:-** can it be integrated with other systems of the customer.

# Maintenance

- The software product will *enter a maintenance mode after delivery* which it will experience many recurring life cycles as errors are and corrected and features are added.
- The process of changing a system after it has been delivered.
- Software maintenance is the “...correction of errors, and implementation of modifications needed to allow an existing system to perform new tasks, and to perform old ones under new conditions”

- As soon as the users start pounding away on our software, they will find bugs.
- Of course, when the users find bugs, we need to fix them.
- Fixing a bug sometimes leads to another bug, so now we get to fix as well.
- The software maintenance phase activities generally consist of a reengineering processes to prolong the life of the system.

- **Re-engineering:-** is the process of taking an old or un-maintainable system and transforming it until it's maintainable.
- If our application is successful, users will use it a lot, and they even more likely to find bugs. They also think up of enhancements, and new features that they want added immediately.

- Generally maintenance tasks are grouped into the following four categories: (3 types of maintenance)
  - **Corrective**— changes that involve maintenance to correct errors (Fixing bugs)
  - **Perfective** – all other maintenance including enhancements, documentation changes, efficiency improvements, and so on. (Improving existing features and adding new ones)

- **Adaptive**— changes that result from external changes to the system must respond. (Modifying the application to meet changes in the application's environment )
- **Preventive**— Restructuring the code to make it more maintainable.

- **Fixing bugs and vulnerabilities:-** not only in code, but also and requirements
- **Adapting to new platforms and software environments:-** new hardware, new OS, new support software
- **Supporting new features and requirements:-** necessary as operating environments change and in response to competitive pressures

