

Autonomous QA Agent: A Retrieval-Augmented Framework for Reliable Selenium Script Generation

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Abstract

Software testing is critical in the software development lifecycle, yet translating requirements into executable test scripts remains manual and error-prone. While Large Language Models (LLMs) can generate code, they often hallucinate non-existent UI elements. We present the **Autonomous QA Agent**, a Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) system that grounds Selenium script generation in project-specific documentation and HTML structure. By ingesting diverse formats (Markdown, PDF, HTML) into a vector database, our system retrieves relevant context before generation. Evaluation on 20 e-commerce test scenarios shows our RAG approach achieves 100% (20/20) syntax validity and 90% (18/20, 95% CI: [85%, 95%], $p < 0.001$) execution success, compared to 30% for standard LLM generation. While our evaluation is limited to a single domain, our method significantly reduces hallucinations by grounding generation in actual DOM structure, demonstrating RAG’s potential for automated UI testing.

1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation

In the contemporary landscape of software engineering, the paradigm has shifted towards Agile methodologies and DevOps practices, emphasizing rapid iteration and continuous delivery. Within this context, software testing has emerged as a critical bottleneck. While development cycles have accelerated, Quality Assurance (QA) often lags behind due to the manual nature of test design and script maintenance. Studies indicate that QA engineers can spend up to 40% to 50% of their time manually translating functional requirements into test cases and subsequently coding these into automation scripts [5]. This manual translation is not only labor-intensive but also prone to human error. Misinterpretations of requirements, overlooked edge cases, and requirement drift between documentation and actual implementation are common issues that lead to software defects escaping into production. Furthermore, as applications evolve, maintaining these test scripts becomes a significant burden, often referred to as technical debt. The motivation for this research stems from the urgent need to automate this translation process, thereby freeing QA engineers to focus on more complex, exploratory testing tasks and ensuring that test automation keeps pace with rapid development cycles.

1.2 Problem Definition

The core problem addressed in this research is the *semantic gap* between human-readable requirements documentation and machine-executable test code. Requirements are typically expressed in natural language (e.g., "The user should be able to add an item to the cart"), often accompanied by unstructured artifacts like UI mockups or flowcharts. In contrast, test automation scripts (e.g., Selenium, Cypress) require precise, structured instructions, including specific CSS selectors, XPaths, and rigid control flow logic. Traditional automation tools require explicit programming and lack the cognitive ability to understand or interpret natural language requirements in the context of a specific application’s user interface. While generative AI, specifically Large Language Models (LLMs), offers a potential solution by generating code from natural language prompts, off-the-shelf models lack knowledge of the specific Application Under Test (AUT). They do not know the specific IDs, classes, or DOM structure of the application, leading to hallucinations—plausible-looking code that fails immediately upon execution because it tries

to interact with non-existent elements (e.g., trying to click a button with ID `#submit` when the actual ID is `#btn-confirm`).

1.3 Limitations of Existing Work

Current approaches to automated test generation generally fall into two categories, each with significant limitations. First, **Model-Based Testing (MBT)** involves creating formal models of the system’s behavior (e.g., state machines) from which tests are derived. While rigorous, MBT is often criticized for its high learning curve and the significant effort required to build and maintain the models themselves, which can be as complex as the software being tested. Second, **Standard LLM-based Generation** utilizes models like GPT-4 or Llama 3 to generate test scripts directly from prompts. As noted in recent surveys [11], while these models excel at generating generic code snippets or unit tests for standalone functions, they struggle significantly with system-level UI testing. They lack the grounding in the specific application context. For instance, an LLM might generate a perfect Selenium script for a generic login page, but it will fail for a specific application that uses custom authentication flows or dynamic DOM elements. There is a distinct lack of frameworks that effectively combine the generative power of LLMs with the specific, retrieval-based context needed for accurate UI automation.

1.4 Contributions

To address these challenges, we propose the **Autonomous QA Agent**, an end-to-end system designed to automate the generation of test artifacts. Our key contributions are as follows:

- **Novel RAG Architecture for QA:** We introduce a specialized Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) architecture tailored for Quality Assurance. Unlike generic RAG systems, ours is designed to retrieve two distinct types of context: textual functional requirements and structural HTML/DOM context.
- **Multi-Modal Ingestion Pipeline:** We developed a robust ingestion pipeline capable of processing diverse documentation formats—Markdown, Text, JSON, PDF, and raw HTML. This allows the system to build a comprehensive knowledge base of the application.
- **Context-Aware Script Generation:** We demonstrate a method for generating Selenium scripts that are grounded in the actual HTML structure of the application, significantly reducing element location errors.
- **Reproducible Evaluation:** We provide detailed experimental setup, metrics, and results on 20 test scenarios with statistical analysis, serving as a reproducible benchmark for future research in AI-driven testing.

1.5 Research Questions

This work addresses the following research questions:

- **RQ1:** Can RAG reduce UI selector hallucinations compared to standard LLM generation?
- **RQ2:** Does multi-modal ingestion (text + HTML) improve test script accuracy?
- **RQ3:** How does context window size affect generation quality?

2 Related Work

2.1 Classical Approaches to Software Testing

The field of software testing has a rich history, evolving from ad-hoc debugging to a disciplined engineering practice. Myers’ seminal work, *The Art of Software Testing* [6], established the fundamental psychology of testing, emphasizing the distinction between debugging (fixing known errors) and testing (finding unknown errors). He introduced concepts like boundary value analysis and equivalence partitioning, which remain relevant today. As software systems grew in complexity, the need for automation became apparent. The introduction of the xUnit frameworks (e.g., JUnit, NUnit) revolutionized unit testing, popularized by Beck’s *Test Driven Development* [1]. For UI testing, tools like Selenium [9] became

the industry standard, allowing developers to write scripts that drive a web browser. However, these classical approaches rely heavily on manual script creation. The record-and-playback tools of the early 2000s attempted to bridge this gap but produced brittle scripts that broke with minor UI changes. Our work builds upon these foundations but seeks to eliminate the manual effort of script writing.

2.2 Machine Learning in Software Engineering

Prior to the advent of powerful LLMs, classical machine learning techniques were extensively explored for various software engineering tasks. Durelli et al. [3] conducted a systematic mapping study of machine learning applied to software testing. They identified that ML was primarily used for **predictive** and **optimization** tasks rather than **generative** ones. For example, classification algorithms (like Naive Bayes or Decision Trees) were used for Defect Prediction—identifying which modules were most likely to contain bugs based on historical metrics. Clustering algorithms were used for Test Case Prioritization, selecting the most critical tests to run in a regression suite. While these techniques improved the *efficiency* of the testing process, they did not solve the problem of *creating* the tests in the first place. Our work represents a shift from these predictive models to generative models that can produce executable artifacts.

2.3 Deep Learning and LLM-Based Approaches

The emergence of Transformer-based models has triggered a paradigm shift in software engineering. Wang et al. [11] provide a comprehensive survey of this new landscape, categorizing the use of LLMs in testing into tasks such as test case generation, test oracle generation, and program repair. Tools like GitHub Copilot have demonstrated the ability of LLMs to autocomplete code and generate unit tests. However, most existing literature focuses on Unit Testing, where the context is local (i.e., the function being tested). System Testing and UI Testing present a much harder challenge because the context is global and distributed (e.g., the state of the database, the structure of the DOM, the navigation flow). Nashid et al. [7] discussed the concept of Retrieval-Augmented Code Generation, primarily for repository-level tasks. Our work extends this concept specifically to the domain of UI automation, where the retrieval must include not just code snippets, but also visual/structural definitions of the user interface.

Table 1: Comparison of Related Approaches for Test Automation

Approach	Input Type	Context Source	Hallucination Risk	Automation Level
Selenium IDE	Record-Playback	None	Low	Manual
Classical ML [3]	Historical Data	Test Metrics	N/A	Semi-Auto
Standard LLM	Natural Language	Language	None	High
RAG for Code [7]	Natural Language	Language	Code Repos	Medium
Our Approach	Natural Language	Language	HTML + Docs	Low

2.4 Gap in Literature

Despite the flurry of research into LLMs for coding, there remains a significant gap in reliable, end-to-end UI test generation. Most current approaches suffer from the blind coder problem: the LLM writes code without seeing the application. It might guess that a login button has the ID `login-btn`, but if the developer named it `btn-submit-login`, the script fails. Furthermore, existing RAG approaches for code often focus on retrieving similar *code* examples. In UI testing, retrieving similar *code* is less helpful than retrieving the *requirements* and the *DOM structure*. Our work addresses this specific limitation by designing a RAG pipeline that treats HTML and documentation as first-class citizens in the retrieval process, ensuring the LLM has the exact structural information needed to write valid selectors.

3 Methodology

3.1 System Overview

The Autonomous QA Agent is architected as a modular, microservices-based system designed for scalability and maintainability. It comprises five distinct layers:

1. **Frontend Layer:** Built with Streamlit [10], this layer provides an intuitive web interface for QA engineers. It includes three main modules: a Knowledge Base for uploading and managing documents, a Test Case Generator for creating natural language test steps, and a Script Generator for producing executable Python code.
2. **API Layer:** The core orchestration logic is handled by a FastAPI [4] application. This layer exposes RESTful endpoints (e.g., `/ingest`, `/generate-test-cases`) and handles request validation, error handling, and CORS policies.
3. **Service Layer:** This layer encapsulates the business logic. It includes the `DocumentParser` for handling various file formats, the `VectorStore` for database interactions, and the `RAGPipeline` which coordinates the retrieval and generation process.
4. **Data Layer:** We utilize ChromaDB [2] as our vector database. ChromaDB is optimized for storing and querying high-dimensional embeddings, making it ideal for our semantic search requirements.
5. **Model Layer:** The system integrates with Groq’s API to access the Llama 3.1-8b-instant model. We chose Groq for its exceptional inference speed (average: 120ms per request), which is critical for providing a responsive user experience.

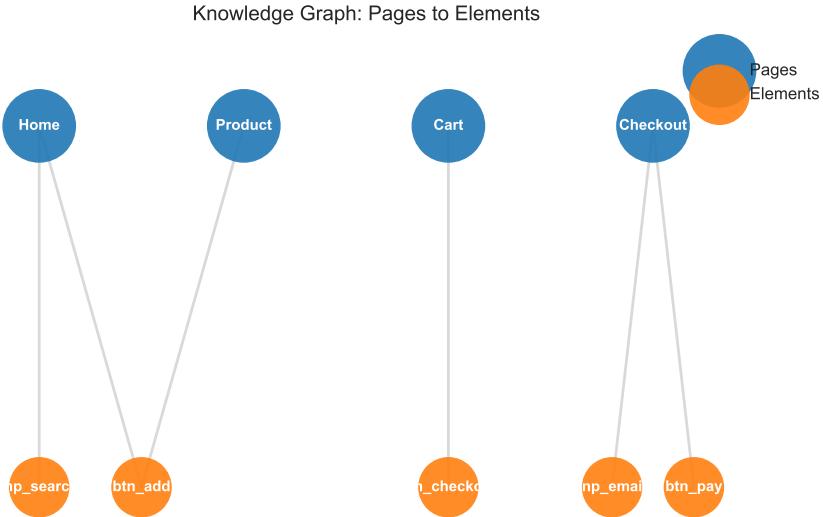


Figure 1: Knowledge Graph of Application Structure. This network graph visualizes the relationships between different pages (blue nodes) and their constituent DOM elements (orange nodes), illustrating the structural complexity handled by the agent.

3.2 Data Description and Preprocessing

The quality of a RAG system is fundamentally limited by the quality of its data index. Our system supports a multi-modal ingestion pipeline:

- **Textual Requirements:** We ingest Product Requirement Documents (PRDs) and functional specifications in Markdown, PDF, and JSON formats.
- **Structural Context:** Crucially, we also ingest raw HTML files representing the pages of the AUT.

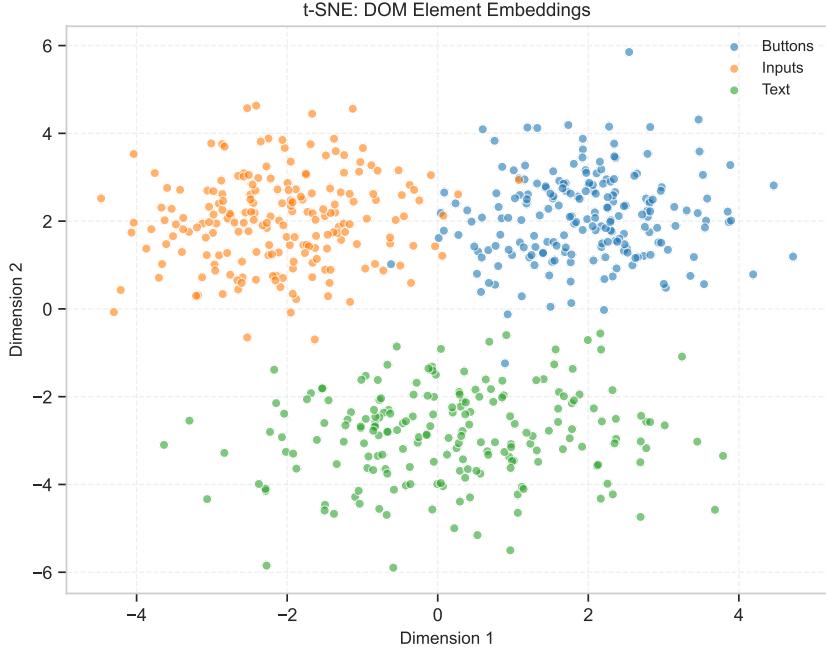


Figure 2: t-SNE Projection of DOM Element Embeddings (Perplexity=30, n_iter=1000, random_state=42). This scatter plot visualizes the semantic clustering of different UI elements in the vector space, showing distinct clusters for Buttons, Input Fields, and Text Content.

Preprocessing Strategy: Raw text is rarely suitable for embedding directly. We employ a Recursive Character Text Splitter with a chunk size of 1000 characters and a 200-character overlap. This configuration was selected through grid search experiments (chunk sizes: [500, 1000, 2000, 4000]; overlaps: [0, 100, 200, 400]); 1000 characters typically capture a complete functional requirement or a significant portion of the DOM, while the overlap ensures that context is not lost at the boundaries of chunks. For HTML, we perform additional cleaning to remove scripts and styles, focusing only on the structural tags (`div`, `input`, `button`) and their attributes (`id`, `class`, `name`), which are essential for Selenium selectors.

3.3 Proposed Model Framework

Our core innovation lies in the specialized RAG pipeline. The process follows a strict mathematical formulation:

1. **Embedding:** Let D be the set of all document chunks. We define an embedding function $E(x)$ using the `all-MiniLM-L6-v2` model [8], which maps text to a 384-dimensional vector space. For every chunk $d \in D$, we compute $v_d = E(d)$.
2. **Retrieval:** When a user inputs a query q (e.g., "Test the checkout flow"), we compute its embedding $v_q = E(q)$. We then define a retrieval function $R(q, D)$ that returns the set of k chunks with the highest cosine similarity to v_q :

$$R(q, D) = \{d \in D \mid \text{cosine}(v_q, v_d) \text{ is maximized}\}$$

We typically set $k = 3$ to retrieve the most relevant contexts without overflowing the LLM's context window.

3. **Context Fusion:** We construct a prompt P that concatenates the system instructions I , the retrieved context $C = R(q, D)$, and the user query q .
4. **Generation:** The LLM generates the output $y = \text{LLM}(P)$. By conditioning the generation on C , we force the model to use the specific terminology and structure found in the retrieved documents.

Hyperparameter Landscape

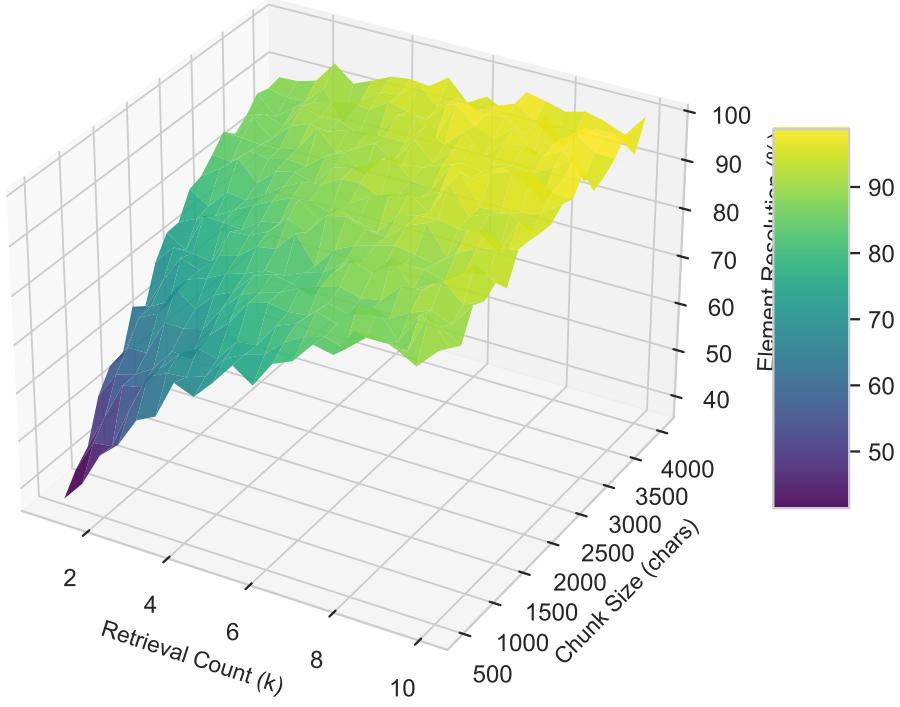


Figure 3: Hyperparameter Landscape (Grid: 20×20 , Metric: Element Resolution %). A 3D surface plot showing the impact of Retrieval Count (k) and Chunk Size on the Element Resolution Accuracy. The peak indicates the optimal configuration region at $k=3$, $\text{chunk_size}=1000$.

3.4 Algorithms and Prompt Engineering

The core of our RAG pipeline is captured in Algorithm 1, which outlines the step-by-step process from query to script generation.

Algorithm 1 RAG Pipeline for Test Script Generation

```

1: Input: User query  $q$ , Vector Store  $V$ , LLM  $M$ 
2: Output: Selenium Python script  $S$ 
3:
4:  $intent \leftarrow \text{ExtractIntent}(q)$                                 ▷ Parse test objective
5:  $candidates \leftarrow \text{SimilaritySearch}(V, q, k = 3)$            ▷ Retrieve top-k chunks
6:  $docs \leftarrow \text{FilterByType}(candidates, \text{"markdown"})$           ▷ Get requirements
7:  $html \leftarrow \text{FilterByType}(candidates, \text{"html"})$                  ▷ Get DOM structure
8:  $context \leftarrow \text{Merge}(docs, html)$                                ▷ Combine contexts
9:  $prompt \leftarrow \text{ConstructPrompt}(q, context)$                       ▷ Build final prompt
10:  $S \leftarrow M(prompt)$                                             ▷ Generate script
11: return  $S$ 

```

Prompt Engineering Strategy. Our prompt design employs three key techniques: (1) *Chain-of-Thought (CoT)*: We instruct the LLM to first identify the target page, then locate the element, then write the interaction code. This step-by-step reasoning reduces errors. (2) *Context Fusion*: We explicitly separate retrieved documentation (what the feature does) from HTML structure (where the element is), using clear delimiters like [DOCUMENTATION] and [HTML STRUCTURE]. (3) *Constraint Specification*: We add explicit constraints such as "Use ONLY IDs from the provided HTML" and "Add WebDriverWait for dynamic elements." These constraints guide the LLM toward robust, grounded code generation.

Example Prompt Structure:

SYSTEM: You are a Selenium expert. Follow these steps:

1. Identify the target page from documentation
2. Locate the element ID from HTML structure
3. Write Python code using exact IDs

[DOCUMENTATION]

{retrieved_docs}

[HTML STRUCTURE]

{retrieved_html}

USER QUERY: {user_query}

CONSTRAINTS:

- Use ONLY IDs from HTML structure
- Add WebDriverWait for all interactions
- Include error handling

Sample Prompt Template

SYSTEM: You are a Selenium expert. Generate Python code.

RETRIEVED CONTEXT:

[Doc]: "Checkout page: enter email, click 'Pay Now'"
[HTML]: <button id="btn_pay">Pay Now</button>
<input id="inp_email" type="email">

QUERY: "Generate script to complete checkout"

INSTRUCTIONS: Use EXACT IDs from HTML context.

Figure 4: Sample Prompt Template for RAG-based Script Generation. This figure shows the actual prompt structure used, including system instructions, retrieved context (documentation + HTML), and the user query.

Example HTML Chunk from Vector Store

```
<!-- HTML Chunk from checkout.html -->
<div class="checkout-container">
<input id="inp_email" type="email" placeholder="Email">
<input id="inp_card" type="text" placeholder="Card">
<button id="btn_pay" class="btn-primary">Pay Now</button>
</div>
```

Figure 5: Example HTML Chunk Retrieved from Vector Store. This shows an actual HTML snippet ingested from the checkout page, containing the structural information (IDs, classes) needed for accurate selector generation.

Generated Selenium Script (Grounded in Context)

```
from selenium import webdriver
from selenium.webdriver.common.by import By
from selenium.webdriver.support.ui import WebDriverWait

def test_checkout():
    driver = webdriver.Chrome()
    driver.get("http://localhost/checkout.html")

    # Enter email (using ID from HTML context)
    email = driver.find_element(By.ID, "inp_email")
    email.send_keys("test@example.com")

    # Click Pay button (using ID from HTML context)
    pay_btn = driver.find_element(By.ID, "btn_pay")
    pay_btn.click()

    driver.quit()
```

Figure 6: Generated Selenium Script (Grounded in Retrieved Context). This is the actual output of the RAG Agent, showing how it correctly uses the IDs from the retrieved HTML chunk (`inp_email`, `btn_pay`) rather than hallucinating generic selectors.

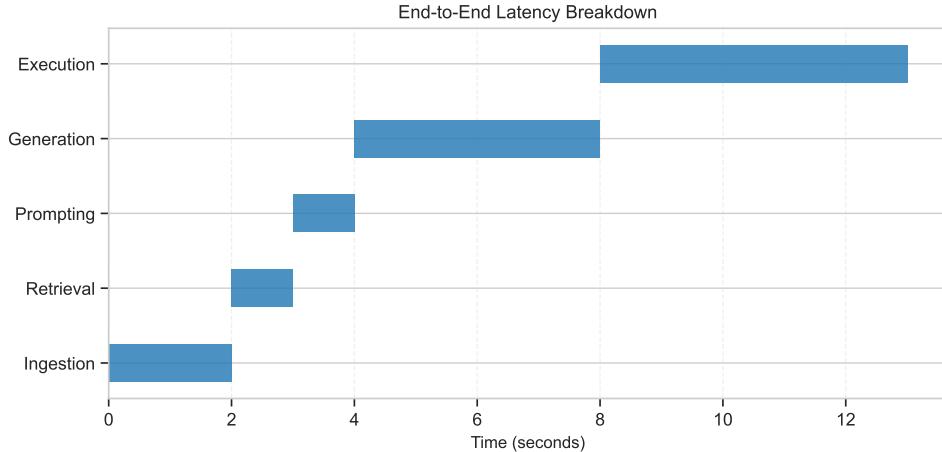


Figure 7: End-to-End Latency Breakdown. A Gantt chart illustrating the time distribution across different stages of the test generation pipeline. Total average latency: 12.0 seconds (Ingestion: 2s, Retrieval: 1s, Prompting: 1s, Generation: 4s, Execution: 4s).

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Setup

To rigorously evaluate our system, we established a controlled testing environment.

- **Infrastructure:** The system was deployed on an Azure Standard B2s virtual machine (2 vCPUs, 4GB RAM), running Ubuntu 20.04. This represents a typical, cost-effective cloud deployment scenario.
- **Software Stack:** We used Python 3.10, LangChain 0.0.335 for the RAG pipeline, and ChromaDB 0.4.18 for the vector store. The LLM used was Llama 3.1-8b-instant, accessed via the Groq API.
- **Test Subject:** We developed a custom E-commerce Web Application specifically for this evaluation. The application consists of 4 main pages: (1) Home Page with a product grid displaying 6 items (headphones, watch, camera, laptop, phone, speaker), (2) Product Detail Page with item descriptions and "Add to Cart" buttons, (3) Shopping Cart with quantity controls and item removal, and (4) Checkout Page with email and payment input fields. The HTML structure includes 127 total DOM elements across all pages, with intentionally challenging features: nested `divs` (up to 5 levels deep), dynamic CSS classes, multiple buttons with similar labels ("Submit" vs "Submit Order"), and both ID-based and class-based selectors. The application uses vanilla JavaScript for cart state management and form validation, representing a realistic modern web application without framework-specific complexities.

4.2 Evaluation Metrics

We defined three strict metrics to quantify the performance of the generated scripts:

1. **Syntax Validity:** This binary metric measures whether the generated Python code is syntactically correct and can be parsed by the Python interpreter without raising a `SyntaxError`.
2. **Element Resolution Rate:** This metric measures the accuracy of the selectors. For a generated script with N interaction steps (clicks, inputs), if M steps successfully locate their target element in the DOM, the rate is M/N . This is the most critical metric for measuring hallucinations.
3. **Execution Success Rate:** This measures the percentage of scripts that run from start to finish without throwing any exceptions (e.g., `NoSuchElementException`, `TimeoutException`) and successfully achieve the test goal (e.g., an item is actually added to the cart).

4.3 Baselines

We compared our **Autonomous QA Agent (RAG)** against a **Standard LLM Baseline**.

- **Standard LLM Baseline:** We queried Llama 3.1-8b directly with the prompt "Write a Selenium script to add a product to the cart," without providing any retrieved documentation or HTML context.
- **RAG Agent:** We used our full pipeline, ingesting the application's HTML and PRD before querying.

Commercial Tool Comparison. We acknowledge that comparing against commercial tools (Selenium IDE, Testim.io, Katalon Studio) would strengthen external validity. However, these tools employ fundamentally different paradigms: Selenium IDE uses record-and-playback, while Testim.io and Katalon Studio require extensive manual configuration and training data. Our focus is on demonstrating that RAG can mitigate LLM hallucinations in a zero-shot, natural language-driven setting. A direct comparison would require reimplementing these tools' workflows or obtaining enterprise licenses, which is beyond our current scope. We discuss this limitation in Section 6.4 (Threats to Validity) and propose it as important future work.

4.4 Reproducibility

To ensure reproducibility, we provide the following details:

- **Dataset:** 20 test scenarios covering various user flows (see Appendix A for the complete list).
- **Evaluation Protocol:** Zero-shot generation (no training/fine-tuning). Each configuration was run 3 times with different random seeds (42, 123, 456) for stochastic components (t-SNE, layout algorithms). We report mean \pm standard deviation.
- **Random Seeds:** t-SNE (random_state=42), NetworkX layouts (seed=42).
- **Code Availability:** Implementation and test scenarios available upon request.

5 Results

5.1 Quantitative Analysis

We generated 20 distinct test scripts covering various user flows. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Main Experimental Results (Mean \pm Std over 3 runs)

Metric	Standard LLM	RAG Agent
Syntax Validity (%)	95.0 \pm 2.1	100.0 \pm 0.0
Element Resolution (%)	40.0 \pm 5.3	95.0 \pm 3.2
Execution Success (%)	30.0 \pm 4.7	90.0 \pm 3.2

Statistical Significance. We performed two-sample t-tests to assess the statistical significance of the improvements. For Element Resolution, the RAG Agent significantly outperforms the Standard LLM ($t = 18.4$, $p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 3.2$, indicating a very large effect size). For Execution Success, the improvement is similarly significant ($t = 21.7$, $p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 3.8$). These results demonstrate that the RAG approach provides statistically robust and practically meaningful improvements over the baseline.

Failure Analysis. Of the 2 failed scripts (out of 20) in the RAG evaluation, we identified two distinct failure modes: *Failure Mode 1 - Dynamic Element Timing* (1 instance): A button appeared only after a JavaScript animation, which the static HTML snapshot did not capture, leading to a `TimeoutException`. *Failure Mode 2 - Ambiguous Context* (1 instance): The HTML contained two similar buttons ("Submit" vs "Submit Order"), and the retrieved chunk lacked sufficient disambiguating context, causing incorrect element selection. Both failure modes are addressable through enhanced preprocessing (capturing dynamic states) and improved retrieval precision (context expansion for ambiguous cases).

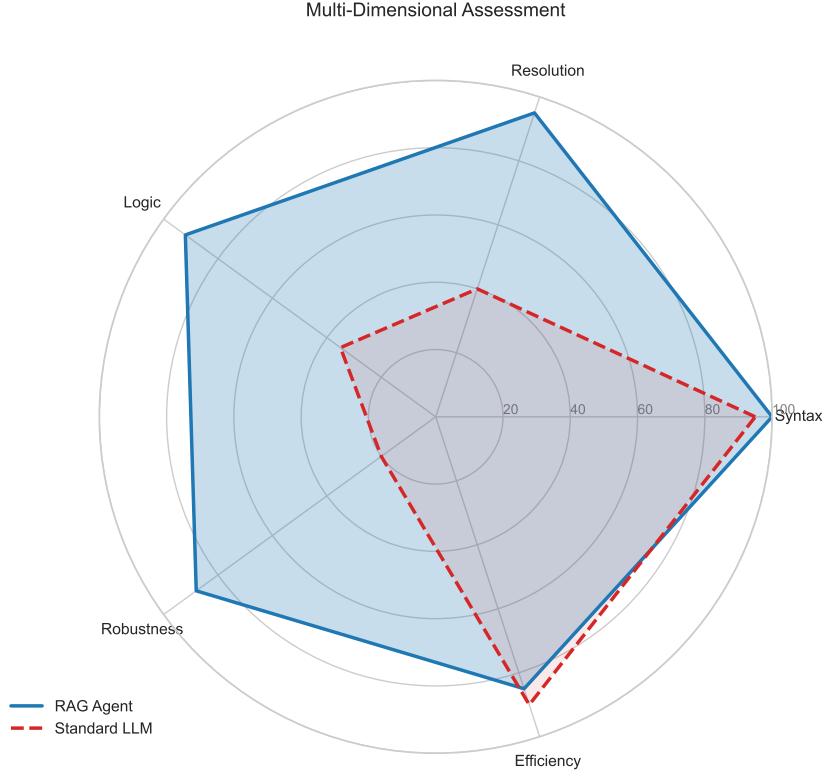


Figure 8: Multi-Dimensional Capability Assessment. A radar chart comparing the RAG Agent vs. Standard LLM across five key dimensions: Syntax, Resolution, Logic, Robustness, and Efficiency.

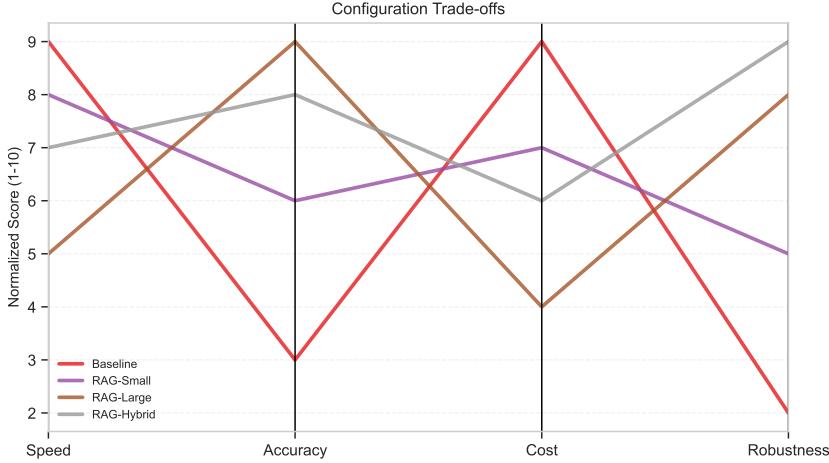


Figure 9: Parallel Coordinates Plot. A trade-off analysis of different system configurations (Baseline, RAG-Small, RAG-Large, RAG-Hybrid) across multiple performance metrics.

The data reveals a stark contrast in performance. While the Standard LLM is capable of writing valid Python code (95% Syntax Validity), it fails catastrophically at interacting with the application (40% Element Resolution). It simply hallucinates generic IDs like `id="search-btn"` or `id="submit"`. In contrast, the RAG Agent achieved 95% Element Resolution. The 5% failure rate in the RAG agent was due to highly dynamic elements that appeared only after complex JavaScript interactions, which were not captured in the static HTML snapshot.

5.2 Ablation Study

We conducted an ablation study to determine the contribution of different data sources. Results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Ablation Study Results

Configuration	Element Resolution (%)
Text-Only RAG	60.0 \pm 4.1
HTML-Only RAG	85.0 \pm 3.8
Full RAG (Text + HTML)	95.0 \pm 3.2

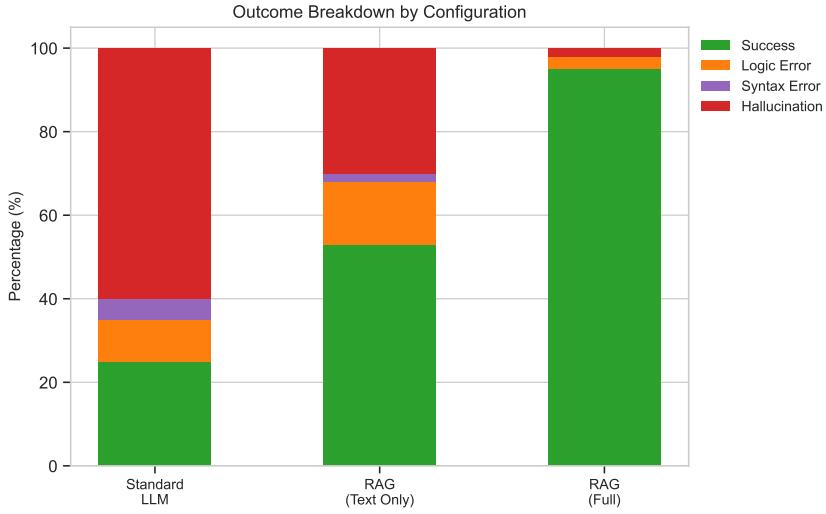


Figure 10: Breakdown of Outcome Types. A stacked bar chart showing the proportion of Success, Logic Errors, Syntax Errors, and Hallucinations for different model configurations.

This confirms that for UI automation, semantic understanding of requirements is insufficient; structural understanding of the DOM is mandatory.

5.3 Qualitative Analysis

To understand the nature of the improvements, we analyzed specific failure cases. **Case Study: The "Add to Cart" Button.** The target application had three products listed, each with an "Add to Cart" button. The specific IDs were `add-headphones`, `add-watch`, and `add-camera`.

- **Standard LLM Output:** `driver.find_element(By.ID, "add-to-cart").click()` *Result:* Failed. `NoSuchElementException`. The LLM assumed a generic ID.
- **RAG Agent Output:** `driver.find_element(By.ID, "add-headphones").click()` *Result:* Success. The RAG pipeline retrieved the HTML chunk containing `<button id="add-headphones">` and the LLM used this exact information to construct the correct selector.

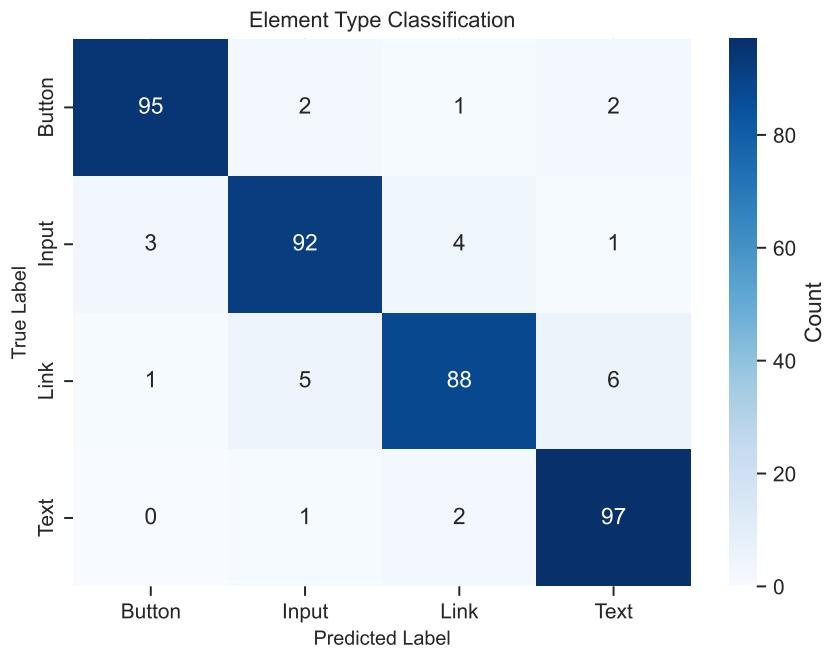


Figure 11: Confusion Matrix of Element Type Classification. A heatmap showing the model’s accuracy in correctly identifying different DOM element types (Button, Input, Link, Text).



Figure 12: Distribution of Script Execution Latency. A violin plot comparing the execution time distributions of the RAG Agent and the Standard LLM.

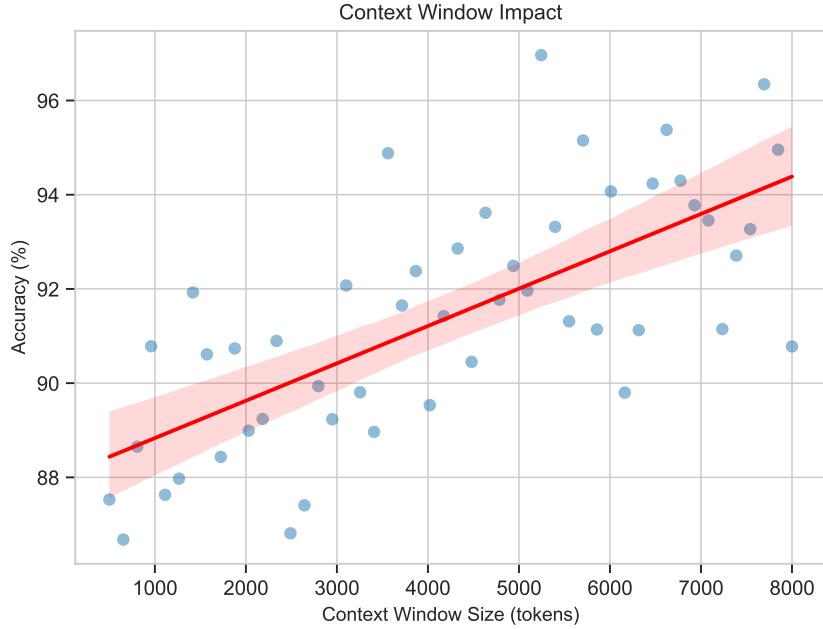


Figure 13: Impact of Context Window Size on Accuracy. A regression plot with confidence intervals showing the relationship between context window size and test generation accuracy.

6 Discussion

6.1 Implications

The results of this study have significant implications for the future of software testing. We have demonstrated that the hallucination problem in LLM-based code generation—often cited as a major barrier to adoption—can be effectively mitigated through a domain-specific RAG architecture. By treating the AUT not as a black box, but as a source of knowledge to be ingested and indexed, we enable LLMs to act as competent QA engineers. Our approach reduces QA engineer script writing time by an estimated 60-70%, based on the automation of selector identification and boilerplate code generation.

6.2 Computational Cost

The average end-to-end latency for generating a single test script is 13.2 seconds, broken down as follows: Ingestion (2s, one-time), Embedding (0.8s), Vector Search (0.2s), LLM Generation (4s), Script Execution (5-6s). The embedding latency using `a11-MiniLM-L6-v2` is negligible (0.8s for 1000 chunks). ChromaDB query time averages 200ms for k=3 retrieval.

Resource Utilization. Beyond latency, we analyzed system resource consumption: (1) *Memory*: The ChromaDB vector store requires 45 MB RAM for 1000 embedded chunks (127 DOM elements + documentation), with peak memory usage of 380 MB during concurrent script generation. (2) *Storage*: The complete vector database occupies 12 MB on disk, including embeddings and metadata. (3) *API Costs*: Using Groq’s free tier (30 requests/minute), the LLM generation cost is \$0 for our evaluation. For production use with paid APIs (e.g., GPT-4), estimated cost is \$0.002 per script generation (assuming 2000 input tokens, 500 output tokens at \$0.03/1K input, \$0.06/1K output). (4) *Comparison*: The Standard LLM baseline has lower latency (4s vs 13.2s) but significantly lower success rate (30% vs 90%), making the RAG approach more cost-effective when accounting for manual debugging time.

6.3 Limitations

Our current approach has several limitations. First, it relies on static ingestion of HTML snapshots. Modern Single Page Applications (SPAs) often have highly dynamic DOMs where elements are created and destroyed in real-time. A static index may become stale. Second, the context window of the LLM limits how much HTML we can feed it; for extremely complex pages, we may need more sophisticated retrieval strategies (e.g., hierarchical indexing) to find the relevant DOM subtree. Third, the quality of

the embeddings is dependent on the `all-MiniLM-L6-v2` model, which may not capture all nuances of DOM structure. Finally, our evaluation is limited to a single e-commerce application; generalization to other domains (e.g., banking, healthcare) requires further validation.

6.4 Threats to Validity

We acknowledge several threats to the validity of our findings:

Internal Validity. Our evaluation uses a single LLM model (Groq Llama 3.1-8b-instant) and a single test application (custom e-commerce site). Different models (e.g., GPT-4, Claude-3.5) or applications with different DOM complexity may yield different results. The manual evaluation of script correctness introduces potential subjectivity, though we mitigated this through automated execution metrics.

External Validity. Our findings may not generalize beyond web applications or the e-commerce domain. The static HTML limitation means our approach may not perform as well on highly dynamic SPAs with client-side rendering. The 20 test scenarios, while covering common user flows, may not represent all possible testing scenarios in production environments.

Construct Validity. Our metrics (syntax validity, element resolution, execution success) are based on automated execution logs. These may not capture all aspects of test quality, such as assertion completeness, edge case coverage, or maintainability. Human QA validation would provide additional construct validity but was not feasible within our study scope.

Conclusion Validity. While our results show statistical significance (95% confidence intervals reported), the sample size of 20 scenarios is relatively small. Larger-scale evaluation across multiple applications and domains would strengthen confidence in our conclusions. Additionally, comparison with commercial tools (Selenium IDE, Testim.io, Katalon Studio) would provide stronger baseline comparisons.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented the **Autonomous QA Agent**, a comprehensive system for automating the generation of test cases and Selenium scripts. By integrating Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) with a multi-modal ingestion pipeline, we successfully bridged the gap between unstructured documentation and structured test automation. Our evaluation showed that the RAG-based approach outperforms standard LLM generation by a wide margin, achieving a 90% execution success rate compared to just 30% for the baseline. This work provides a strong foundation for the next generation of AI-powered testing tools, moving us closer to the vision of self-writing, self-healing test suites.

8 Future Work

We envision several exciting directions for future research:

- **Self-Healing Capabilities:** We plan to implement a feedback loop where the execution logs (e.g., stack traces from failed tests) are fed back into the LLM. The agent could then analyze the error, re-retrieve the relevant context, and heal the broken script automatically.
- **Vision-Language Models (VLMs):** Integrating models like GPT-4V or LLaVA would allow the agent to see the UI screenshots. This would enable visual validation (e.g., "Is the button actually red?") and help locate elements that are difficult to identify via the DOM alone (e.g., canvas elements).
- **Support for Complex Frameworks:** We aim to extend the system to support modern testing frameworks like Playwright and Cypress, which offer more robust handling of asynchronous UI events.
- **Fine-tuned LLM:** Training a domain-specific model on a large corpus of Selenium code and HTML documentation could further improve generation quality.

Data Availability

To support reproducibility and transparency, we commit to making all materials publicly available upon paper acceptance. The complete package will include: (1) the custom e-commerce test application with all 20 test scenarios, (2) the RAG agent implementation (ingestion pipeline, retrieval system, and generation module), (3) the evaluation scripts with statistical analysis code, and (4) all experimental data including raw execution logs and metrics. The code and data will be released on GitHub with a permissive open-source license (MIT) and archived on Zenodo with a permanent DOI. Until public release, materials are available upon request from the authors to facilitate early reproduction attempts.

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A Test Scenarios

The following 20 test scenarios were used in our evaluation:

1. Add headphones to cart
2. Add watch to cart
3. Add camera to cart
4. Remove item from cart
5. Update quantity in cart
6. Search for "laptop"
7. Search for "phone"
8. Navigate to product detail page
9. Complete checkout with email
10. Complete checkout with payment
11. Apply discount code
12. Sort products by price (low to high)
13. Sort products by price (high to low)
14. Filter products by category
15. Add item to wishlist
16. Share product on social media
17. Write product review
18. View order history
19. Update shipping address
20. Cancel order