

## **TYBSc Computer Science**

### **Software Testing – Unit 3 Notes**

#### **Quality Concepts**

All engineered and manufactured parts exhibit variation. The variation between samples may not be obvious without the aid of precise equipment to measure the geometry, electrical characteristics, or other attributes of the parts. However, with sufficiently sensitive instruments, we will likely come to the conclusion that no two samples of any item are exactly alike.

*Variation control* is the heart of quality control. A manufacturer wants to minimize the variation among the products that are produced, even when doing something relatively simple like duplicating diskettes. From one project to another, we want to minimize the difference between the predicted resources needed to complete a project and the actual resources used, including staff, equipment, and calendar time. In general, we would like to make sure our testing program covers a known percentage of the software, from one release to another. Not only do we want to minimize the number of defects that are released to the field, we'd like to ensure that the variance in the number of bugs is also minimized from one release to another. (Our customers will likely be upset if the third release of a product has ten times as many defects as the previous release.) We would like to minimize the differences in speed and accuracy of our hotline support responses to customer problems. The list goes on and on.

When we examine an item based on its measurable characteristics, two kinds of quality may be encountered: quality of design and quality of conformance.

*Quality of design* refers to the characteristics that designers specify for an item. The grade of materials, tolerances, and performance specifications all contribute to the quality of design. As higher-grade materials are used, tighter tolerances and greater

levels of performance are specified, the design quality of a product increases, if the product is manufactured according to specifications.

*Quality of conformance* is the degree to which the design specifications are followed during manufacturing. Again, the greater the degree of conformance, the higher is the level of quality of conformance.

In software development, quality of design encompasses requirements, specifications, and the design of the system. Quality of conformance is an issue focused primarily on implementation. If the implementation follows the design and the resulting system meets its requirements and performance goals, conformance quality is high.

#### **Quality Control**

Variation control may be equated to quality control. But how do we achieve quality control? *Quality control* involves the series of inspections, reviews, and tests used throughout the software process to ensure each work product meets the requirements placed upon it. Quality control includes a feedback loop to the process that created the work product. The combination of measurement and feedback allows us to tune the process when the work products created fail to meet their specifications. This approach views quality control as part of the manufacturing process. Quality control activities may be fully automated, entirely manual, or a combination

of automated tools and human interaction. A key concept of quality control is that all work products have defined, measurable specifications to which we may compare the output of each process. The feedback loop is essential to minimize the defects produced.

### **Quality Assurance**

*Quality assurance* consists of the auditing and reporting functions of management. The goal of quality assurance is to provide management with the data necessary to be informed about product quality, thereby gaining insight and confidence that product

quality is meeting its goals. Of course, if the data provided through quality assurance identify problems, it is management's responsibility to address the problems and apply the necessary resources to resolve quality issues.

### **Cost of Quality**

The *cost of quality* includes all costs incurred in the pursuit of quality or in performing quality-related activities. Cost of quality studies are conducted to provide a base-line for the current cost of quality, identify opportunities for reducing the cost of quality,

and provide a normalized basis of comparison. The basis of normalization is almost always dollars. Once we have normalized quality costs on a dollar basis, we have the necessary data to evaluate where the opportunities lie to improve our processes. Furthermore, we can evaluate the effect of changes in dollar-based terms.

*Quality costs* may be divided into costs associated with prevention, appraisal, and failure. *Prevention costs* include

- quality planning
- formal technical reviews
- test equipment
- training

*Appraisal costs* include activities to gain insight into product condition the “first timethrough” each process. Examples of appraisal costs include

- in-process and interprocess inspection
- equipment calibration and maintenance
- testing

*Failure costs* are those that would disappear if no defects appeared before shipping aproduct to customers. Failure costs may be subdivided into internal failure costs andexternal failure costs.

*Internal failure costs* are incurred when we detect a defect inour product prior to shipment. Internal failure costs include

- rework
- repair
- failure mode analysis

*External failure costs* are associated with defects found after the product has beenshipped to the customer. Examples of external failure costs are

- complaint resolution
- product return and replacement
- help line support
- warranty work

## THE QUALITY MOVEMENT

Today, senior managers at companies throughout the industrialized world recognizethat high product quality translates to cost savings and an improved bottom line.However, this was not always the case.Quality assurance is an essential activity for any business that produces products tobe used by others. Prior to the twentieth century, quality assurance was the soleresponsibility of the craftsperson who built a product.

## SQA Activities

Software quality assurance is composed of a variety of tasks associated with two differentconstituencies—the software engineers who do technical work and an SQAgroup that has responsibility for quality assurance planning, oversight, record keeping,analysis, and reporting.Software engineers address quality (and perform quality assurance and qualitycontrol activities) by applying solid technical methods and measures, conducting formaltechnical reviews, and performing well-planned software testing.

The charter of the SQA group is to assist the software team in achieving a highqualityend product. The Software Engineering Institute [PAU93] recommends a

set of SQA activities that address quality assurance planning, oversight, record keeping, analysis, and reporting. These activities are performed (or facilitated) by an independent SQA group that:

**Prepares an SQA plan for a project.**

The plan is developed during project planning and is reviewed by all interested parties. Quality assurance activities performed by the software engineering team and the SQA group are governed by the plan. The plan identifies

- evaluations to be performed
- audits and reviews to be performed
- standards that are applicable to the project
- procedures for error reporting and tracking
- documents to be produced by the SQA group
- amount of feedback provided to the software project team

**Participates in the development of the project's software process description.**

The software team selects a process for the work to be performed. The SQA group reviews the process description for compliance with organizational policy, internal software standards, externally imposed standards (e.g., ISO-9001), and other parts of the software project plan.

**Reviews software engineering activities to verify compliance with the defined software process.**

The SQA group identifies, documents, and tracks deviations from the process and verifies that corrections have been made.

**Audits designated software work products to verify compliance with those defined as part of the software process.**

The SQA group reviews selected work products; identifies, documents, and tracks deviations; verifies that corrections have been made; and periodically reports the results of its work to the project manager.

**Ensures that deviations in software work and work products are documented and handled according to a documented procedure.**

Deviations may be encountered in the project plan, process description, applicable standards, or technical work products.

**Records any noncompliance and reports to senior management.**

Noncompliance items are tracked until they are resolved. In addition to these activities, the SQA group coordinates the control and management of change (Chapter 9) and helps to collect and analyze software metrics.

## SQA plan :

Software quality assurance encompasses a broad range of concerns and activities that focus on the management of software quality. These can be summarized in the

following manner [Hor03]:

**Standards.** The IEEE, ISO, and other standards organizations have produced a broad array of software engineering standards and related documents. Standards may be adopted voluntarily by a software engineering organization or imposed by the customer or other stakeholders. The job of SQA is to ensure that standards that have been adopted are followed and that all work products conform to them.

**Reviews and audits.** Technical reviews are a quality control activity performed by software engineers for software engineers. Their intent is to uncover errors. Audits are a type of review performed by SQA personnel with the intent of ensuring that quality guidelines are being followed for software engineering work. For example, an audit of the review process might be conducted to ensure that reviews are being performed in a manner that will lead to the highest likelihood of uncovering errors.

**Testing.** Software testing is a quality control function that has one primary goal—to find errors. The job of SQA is to ensure that testing is properly planned and efficiently conducted so that it has the highest likelihood of achieving its primary goal.

**Error/defect collection and analysis.** The only way to improve is to measure how you're doing. SQA collects and analyzes error and defect data to better understand how errors are introduced and what software engineering activities are best suited to eliminating them.

**Change management.** Change is one of the most disruptive aspects of any software project. If it is not properly managed, change can lead to confusion, and confusion almost always leads to poor quality. SQA ensures that adequate change management practices have been instituted.

**Education.** Every software organization wants to improve its software engineering practices. A key contributor to improvement is education of software engineers, their managers, and other stakeholders. The SQA organization takes the lead in software process improvement and is a key proponent and sponsor of educational programs.

**Vendor management.** Three categories of software are acquired from external software vendors—*shrink-wrapped packages* (e.g., *Microsoft Office*), a *tailored shell* [Hor03] that provides a basic skeletal structure that is custom tailored to the needs of a purchaser, and *contracted software* that is custom designed and constructed from specifications provided by the customer organization. The job of the SQA organization is to ensure that high-quality software results by suggesting specific quality practices that the vendor should follow (when possible), and incorporating quality mandates as part of any contract with an external vendor.

**Security management.** With the increase in cyber crime and new government regulations regarding privacy, every software organization should institute policies that protect data at all levels, establish firewall protection for Web Apps, and ensure that software has not been tampered with internally. SQA ensures that appropriate process and technology are used to achieve software security.

**Safety.** Because software is almost always a pivotal component of human-rated systems (e.g., automotive or aircraft applications), the impact of hidden defects can be catastrophic. SQA may be responsible for assessing the impact of software failure and for initiating those steps required to reduce risk.

**Risk management.** Although the analysis and mitigation of risk is the concern of software engineers, the SQA organization ensures that risk management activities are properly conducted and that risk-related contingency plans have been established.

## SOFTWARE REVIEWS

Software reviews are a "filter" for the software engineering process. That is, reviews are applied at various points during software development and serve to uncover errors and defects that can then be removed. Software reviews "purify" the software engineering activities that we have called *analysis*, *design*, and *coding*.

A review—any review—is a way of using the diversity of a group of people to:

1. Point out needed improvements in the product of a single person or team;
  2. Confirm those parts of a product in which improvement is either not desired or not needed;
  3. Achieve technical work of more uniform, or at least more predictable, quality than can be achieved without reviews, in order to make technical work more manageable.
- Many different types of reviews can be conducted as part of software engineering. Each has its place. An informal meeting around the coffee machine is a form of review, if technical problems are discussed. A formal presentation of software design to an audience of customers, management, and technical staff is also a form of review. In this book, however, we focus on the *formal technical review*, sometimes called a *walkthrough* or an *inspection*. A formal technical review is the most effective filter from a quality assurance standpoint. Conducted by software engineers (and others) for software engineers, the FTR is an effective means for improving software quality.

## Review Guidelines

Guidelines for the conduct of formal technical reviews must be established in advance, distributed to all reviewers, agreed upon, and then followed. A review that is uncontrolled can often be worse than no review at all. The following represents a minimum set of guidelines for formal technical reviews:

- 1. *Review the product, not the producer.*** An FTR involves people and egos. Conducted properly, the FTR should leave all participants with a warm feeling of accomplishment. Conducted improperly, the FTR can take on the aura of an inquisition. Errors should be pointed out gently; the tone of the meeting should be loose and constructive; the intent should not be to embarrass or belittle. The review leader should conduct the review meeting to ensure that the proper tone and attitude are maintained and should immediately halt a review that has gotten out of control.
- 2. *Set an agenda and maintain it.*** One of the key maladies of meetings of all types is *drift*. An FTR must be kept on track and on schedule. The review leader is chartered with the responsibility for maintaining the meeting schedule and should not be afraid to nudge people when drift sets in.
- 3. *Limit debate and rebuttal.*** When an issue is raised by a reviewer, there may not be universal agreement on its impact. Rather than spending time debating the question, the issue should be recorded for further discussion off-line.
- 4. *Enunciate problem areas, but don't attempt to solve every problem noted.*** A review is not a problem-solving session. The solution of a problem can often be accomplished by the producer alone or with the help of only one other individual. Problem solving should be postponed until after the review meeting.
- 5. *Take written notes.*** It is sometimes a good idea for the recorder to make notes on a wall board, so that wording and priorities can be assessed by other reviewers as information is recorded.
- 6. *Limit the number of participants and insist upon advance preparation.*** Two heads are better than one, but 14 are not necessarily better than 4. Keep the number of people involved to the necessary minimum. However, all review team members must prepare in advance. Written comments should be solicited by the review leader (providing an indication that the reviewer has reviewed the material).
- 7. *Develop a checklist for each product that is likely to be reviewed.*** A checklist helps the review leader to structure the FTR meeting and helps each reviewer to focus on important issues. Checklists should be developed for analysis, design, code, and even test documents.
- 8. *Allocate resources and schedule time for FTRs.*** For reviews to be effective, they should be scheduled as a task during the software engineering process. In addition, time should be scheduled for the inevitable modifications that will occur as the result of an FTR.
- 9. *Conduct meaningful training for all reviewers.*** To be effective all review participants should receive some formal training. The training should stress both process-related issues and the human psychological side of reviews. Freedman and Weinberg [FRE90] estimate a one-month learning curve for every 20 people who are to participate effectively in reviews.
- 10. *Review your early reviews.*** Debriefing can be beneficial in uncovering problems with the review process itself. The very first product to be reviewed should be the review guidelines themselves.

## STATISTICAL SOFTWARE QUALITY ASSURANCE

*Statistical quality assurance* reflects a growing trend throughout industry to become more quantitative about quality. For software, statistical quality assurance implies the following steps:

1. Information about software defects is collected and categorized.
2. An attempt is made to trace each defect to its underlying cause (e.g., non-conformance to specifications, design error, violation of standards, poor communication with the customer).
3. Using the Pareto principle (80 percent of the defects can be traced to 20 percent of all possible causes), isolate the 20 percent (the "vital few").
4. Once the vital few causes have been identified, move to correct the problems that have caused the defects. This relatively simple concept represents an important step towards the creation of

an adaptive software engineering process in which changes are made to improve those elements of the process that introduce error.

To illustrate this, assume that a software engineering organization collects information on defects for a period of one year. Some of the defects are uncovered as software is being developed. Others are encountered after the software has been released to its end-users. Although hundreds of different errors are uncovered, all can be traced to one (or more) of the following causes:

- incomplete or erroneous specifications (IES)
- misinterpretation of customer communication (MCC)
- intentional deviation from specifications (IDS)
- violation of programming standards (VPS)
- error in data representation (EDR)
- inconsistent component interface (ICI)
- error in design logic (EDL)
- incomplete or erroneous testing (IET)
- inaccurate or incomplete documentation (IID)
- error in programming language translation of design (PLT)
- ambiguous or inconsistent human/computer interface (HCI)
- miscellaneous (MIS)

## SOFTWARE RELIABILITY

There is no doubt that the reliability of a computer program is an important element of its overall quality. If a program repeatedly and frequently fails to perform, it matters little whether other software quality factors are acceptable. Software reliability, unlike many other quality factors, can be measured directly and estimated using historical and developmental data. *Software reliability* is defined in statistical terms as "the probability of failure-free operation of a computer program in a specified environment for a specified time" [MUS87]. To illustrate, program X is estimated to have a reliability of 0.96 over eight elapsed processing hours. In other



words, if programX were to be executed 100 times and require eight hours of elapsed processingtime (execution time), it is likely to operate correctly (without failure) 96 times out of 100.

If we consider a computer-based system, a simple measure of reliability is *meantime-between-failure*(MTBF), where

$$MTBF = MTTF + MTTR$$

The acronyms MTTF and MTTR are mean-time-to-failure and mean-time-to-repair, Respectively

In addition to a reliability measure, we must develop a measure of availability. *Software availability* is the probability that a program is operating according to requirements at a given point in time and is defined as

$$\text{Availability} = [MTTF / (MTTF + MTTR)] \times 100\%$$

The MTBF reliability measure is equally sensitive to MTTF and MTTR. The availability measure is somewhat more sensitive to MTTR, an indirect measure of the maintainability of software.

#### Six Sigma for Software Engineering

*Six Sigma* is the most widely used strategy for statistical quality assurance in industry today. Originally popularized by Motorola in the 1980s, the Six Sigma strategy “is a rigorous and disciplined methodology that uses data and statistical analysis to measure and improve a company’s operational performance by identifying and eliminating defects’ in manufacturing and service-related processes” [ISI08]. The term Six Sigma is derived from six standard deviations—3.4 instances (defects) per million

occurrences—implying an extremely high quality standard. The Six Sigma methodology defines three core steps:

- *Define* customer requirements and deliverables and project goals via well defined methods of customer communication.
- *Measure* the existing process and its output to determine current quality performance (collect defect metrics).
- *Analyze* defect metrics and determine the vital few causes.

If an existing software process is in place, but improvement is required, Six Sigma suggests two additional steps:

- *Improve* the process by eliminating the root causes of defects.
- *Control* the process to ensure that future work does not reintroduce the causes of defects.

These core and additional steps are sometimes referred to as the DMAIC (define, measure, analyze, improve, and control) method.

If an organization is developing a software process (rather than improving an existing process), the core steps are augmented as follows:

- *Design* the process to (1) avoid the root causes of defects and (2) to meet customer requirements.

- *Verify* that the process model will, in fact, avoid defects and meet customer requirements.

This variation is sometimes called the DMADV (define, measure, analyze, design, and verify) method.

## THE ISO 9000 QUALITY STANDARDS

A *quality assurance system* may be defined as the organizational structure, responsibilities, procedures, processes, and resources for implementing quality management [ANS87]. Quality assurance systems are created to help organizations ensure their products and services satisfy customer expectations by meeting their specifications. These systems cover a wide variety of activities encompassing a product's entire lifecycle including planning, controlling, measuring, testing and reporting, and improving quality levels throughout the development and manufacturing process. ISO 9000 describes quality assurance elements in generic terms that can be applied to any business regardless of the products or services offered.

To become registered to one of the quality assurance system models contained in ISO 9000, a company's quality system and operations are scrutinized by third-party auditors for compliance to the standard and for effective operation. Upon successful registration, a company is issued a certificate from a registration body represented by the auditors. Semiannual surveillance audits ensure continued compliance to the standard. The requirements delineated by ISO 9001:2000 address topics such as management responsibility, quality system, contract review, design control, document and data control, product identification and traceability, process control, inspection and testing, corrective and preventive action, control of quality records, internal quality audits, training, servicing, and statistical techniques.

In order for a software organization to become registered to ISO 9001:2000, it must establish policies and procedures to address each of the requirements just noted (and others) and then be able to demonstrate that these policies and procedures are being followed.

### **Pareto Diagram :**

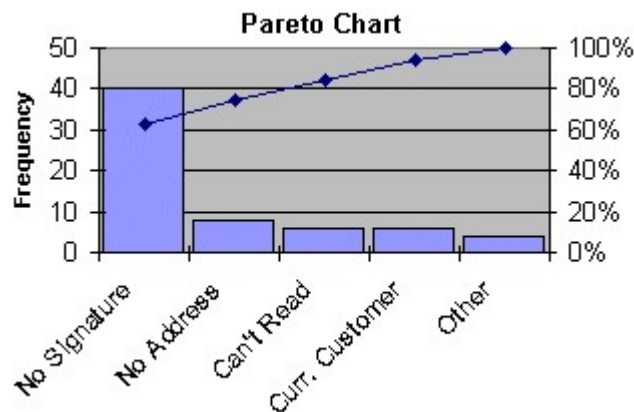
The Pareto chart is one of the seven basic tools of quality control, which include the histogram, Pareto chart, check sheet, control chart, cause-and-effect diagram, flowchart, and scatter diagram.

Typically on the left vertical axis is frequency of occurrence, but it can alternatively represent cost or other important unit of measure. The right vertical axis is the cumulative percentage of the total number of occurrences, total cost, or total of the particular unit of measure. The purpose is to highlight the most important among a (typically large) set of factors. In quality control, the Pareto chart often represents

the most common sources of defects, the highest occurring type of defect, or the most frequent reasons for customer complaints, etc.

Their use gives rise to the 80-20 Rule that is 80 percent of the problems stem from 20 percent of the causes.

### Sample Pareto Chart Depiction



### How to Construct a Pareto Chart

A pareto chart can be constructed by segmenting the range of the data into groups (also called segments, bins or categories). For example, if your business was investigating the delay associated with processing credit card applications, you could group the data into the following categories:

- No signature
- Residential address not valid
- Non-legible handwriting
- Already a customer
- Other

The left-side vertical axis of the pareto chart is labeled Frequency (the number of counts for each category), the right-side vertical axis of the pareto chart is the cumulative percentage, and the horizontal axis of the pareto chart is labeled with the group names of your response variables.

You then determine the number of data points that reside within each group and construct the pareto chart, but unlike the bar chart, the pareto chart is ordered in descending frequency magnitude. The groups are defined by the user.

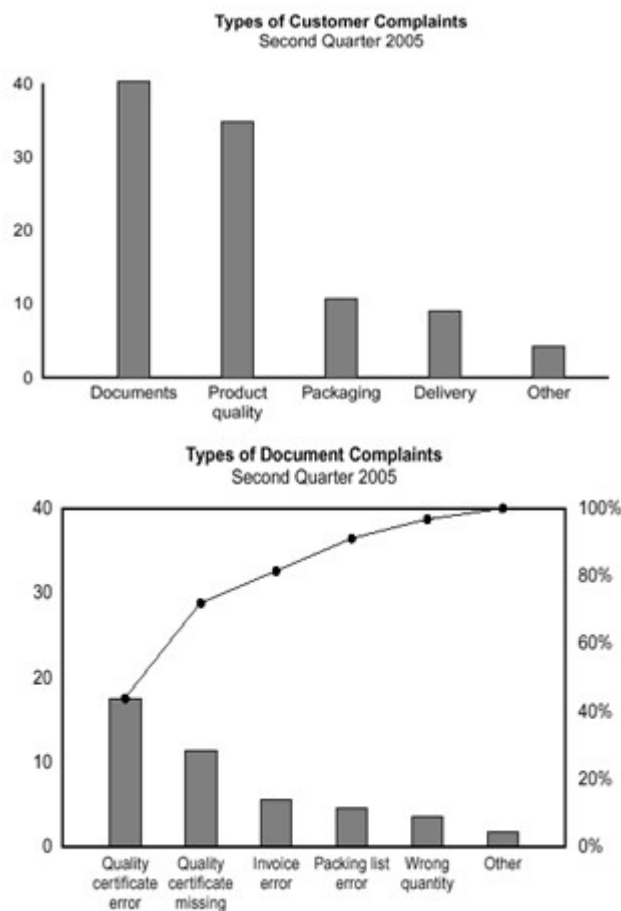
### When to Use a Pareto Chart

- When analyzing data about the frequency of problems or causes in a process.
- When there are many problems or causes and you want to focus on the most significant.
- When analyzing broad causes by looking at their specific components.
- When communicating with others about your data.

## Pareto Chart Examples

Example #1 shows how many customer complaints were received in each of five categories.

Example #2 takes the largest category, “documents,” from Example #1, breaks it down into six categories of document-related complaints, and shows cumulative values.



## Scatter Diagram

The scatter diagram is known by many names, such as scatter plot, scatter graph, and correlation chart. This diagram is drawn with two variables, usually the first variable is independent and the second variable is dependent on the first variable.

A scatter diagram is a graph that shows the relationship between two variables. Scatter diagrams can demonstrate a relationship between any element of a process, environment, or activity on one axis and a quality defect on the other axis.

The scatter diagram is used to find the correlation between these two variables. This diagram helps you determine how closely the two variables are related. After determining the correlation between the variables, you can then predict the behavior of the dependent variable based on the measure of the independent variable. This chart is very useful when one variable is easy to measure and the other is not.

### **Example**

You are analyzing the pattern of accidents on a highway. You select the two variables: motor speed and number of accidents, and draw the diagram.

Once the diagram is completed, you notice that as the speed of vehicle increases, the number of accidents also goes up. This shows that there is a relationship between the speed of vehicles and accidents happening on the highway.

### **Type of Scatter Diagram**

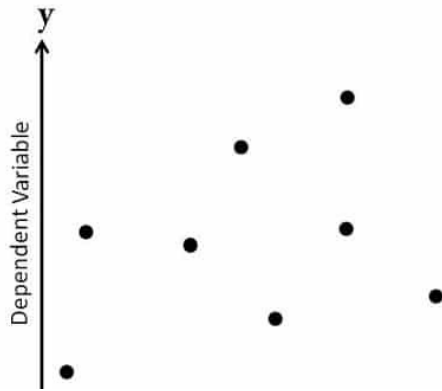
The scatter diagram can be categorized into several types; however, I will discuss the two types that will cover most scatter diagrams used in project management. The first type is based on the type of correlation, and the second type is based on the slope of trend.

According to the type of correlation, scatter diagrams can be divided into following categories:

- Scatter Diagram with No Correlation
- Scatter Diagram with Moderate Correlation
- Scatter Diagram with Strong Correlation

#### *Scatter Diagram with No Correlation*

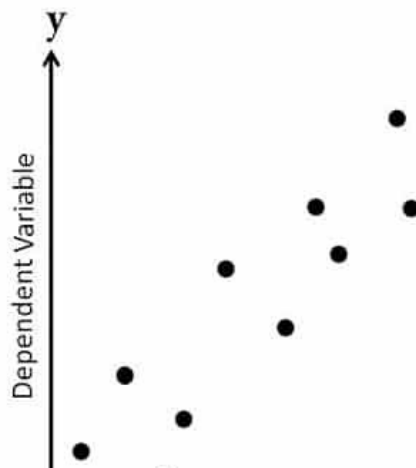
This type of diagram is also known as “Scatter Diagram with Zero Degree of Correlation”.



In this type of scatter diagram, data points are spread so randomly that you cannot draw any line through them.

In this case you can say that there is no relation between these two variables. Scatter Diagram with Moderate Correlation

This type of diagram is also known as "Scatter Diagram with Low Degree of



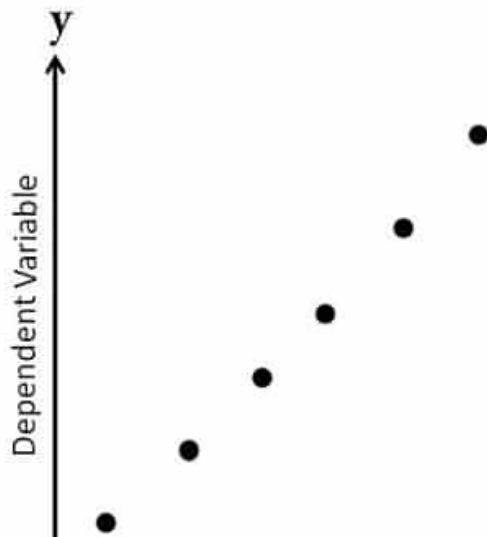
Correlation".

Here, the data points are little closer together and you can feel that some kind of relation exists between these two variables.

### *Scatter Diagram with Strong Correlation*

This type of diagram is also known as "Scatter Diagram with High Degree of Correlation".

In this diagram, data points are grouped very close to each other such that you can draw a line by following their pattern.



Cause-Effect diagram :

**Ishikawa diagrams** (also called **fishbone diagrams**, **herringbone diagrams**, **cause-and-effect diagrams**, or **Fishikawa**) are causal diagrams created by Kaoru Ishikawa that show the causes of a specific event.<sup>[1]</sup>

Common uses of the Ishikawa diagram are product design and quality defect prevention to identify potential factors causing an overall effect. Each cause or reason for imperfection is a source of variation. Causes are usually grouped into major categories to identify and classify these sources of variation.

The *defect* is shown as the fish's head, facing to the right, with the *causes* extending to the left as fishbones; the ribs branch off the backbone for major without causes, with sub-branches for root-causes, to as many levels as required.

These are the best and most common practices when creating cause and effect diagrams.

- **Identify the problem.** Define the process or issue to be examined.
- **Brainstorm.** Discuss all possible causes and group them into categories.
- **Draw the backbone.** Once the topic is identified, draw a straight, horizontal line (this is called the spine or backbone) on the page, and on the right side, draw a rectangle at the end. Write a brief description of the problem in the rectangle.
- **Add causes and effects.** Causes are added with lines branching off from the main backbone at an angle. Write the description of the cause at the end of the branch. These are usually one of the main categories discussed above. Details



related to the cause or effect may be added as sub-categories branching off further from the main branch. Continue to add branches and a cause or effect until all factors have been documented. The end result should resemble a fish skeleton.

- **Analyze.** Once the diagram has been completed, analyze the information as it has been organized in order to come to a solution and create action items.

