An Estimation Model for Test Execution Effort

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Abstract

Testing is an important activity to ensure software quality. Big organizations can have several development teams with their products being tested by overloaded test teams. In such situations, test team managers must be able to properly plan their schedules and resources. Also, estimates for the required test execution effort can be an additional criterion for test selection, since effort may be restrictive in practice. Nevertheless, this information is usually not available for test cases never executed before.

This paper proposes an estimation model for test execution effort based on the test specifications. For that, we define and validate a measure of size and execution complexity of test cases. This measure is obtained from test specifications written in a controlled natural language. We evaluated the model through an empirical study on the mobile application domain, which results suggested an accuracy improvement when compared with estimations based only on historical test productivity.

1. Introduction

In competitive markets, such as the mobile phone market, companies that release products with poor quality may quickly lose their clients. Consequently, companies should ensure that their products conform to the clients’ expectations. A usual activity performed to ensure software quality is testing.

Software testing is being considered so important that organizations can assign teams only for test activities. For example, a big organization may have several development teams with their products being tested by few test teams. In such situations, test managers must be able to properly plan their schedules and resources. They must should be able to estimate the required effort to execute a given set of tests (test suite) and to justify requests for more resources or for extending deadlines.

In addition, Model-based testing (MBT) has become popular in recent years. MBT is a technique for generating test cases from system specifications [15]. Using MBT, a high number of test cases can be automatically generated. However, it may not be possible to execute all generated test cases, since test resources are limited. For this reason, test cases are usually selected using some criteria such as the coverage metrics [19] [16].

An additional criterion that can be useful for test selection is the execution effort, since effort may be restrictive in practice. However, in this case, we need a model that estimates the effort to execute each test case individually, even for test cases never executed before.

Several software development estimation models have been proposed over the years. However, these models are not appropriate to estimate the effort for executing a given set of test cases, since their estimations are based on software size and development complexity, instead of test size and execution complexity.

In this work, we address the problem of supporting test managers to plan their schedules and resources. We propose a test execution effort estimation model that is based on test specifications. We define and validate a measure of test size and execution complexity. This measure is obtained from test specifications written in a controlled natural language. Also, we want to provide execution effort estimates about generated test cases as an additional criterion for test selection.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss about existent software estimation models. After, Section 3 introduces a controlled natural language used for specifying tests. In Section 4, we propose a measure of test size and execution complexity and present a model for estimating test execution effort based on this
measure. After that, Section 5 presents the results of an empirical study on the mobile application domain. Then, we discuss about the cost of using our model in Section 6. Finally, our conclusions are presented in Section 7.

2. Existing SW effort estimation models

During the last few decades, several models and techniques were created for estimating size, complexity and effort on software development. The surveys presented in [2], [12] and [7] summarize the software estimation evolution so far. Some of the related and renowned software estimation models are discussed here.

The first model discussed here is Function Points Analysis (FPA) [6]. FPA gives a measure of the size of a system by measuring the complexity of system functionalities offered to the user. The size of system is determined in function points (FP), a unit-of-work measure, and this count is used for estimating the effort to develop it.

The Use Case Point Analysis (UCP) [11] is an extension of FPA and estimates the size of a system based on use case specifications. Both UCP and FPA regard the development complexity of a system, while our proposed model regards the size and execution complexity of test cases.

The Constructive Cost Model (COCOMO) [3] converts size measures such as FP and SLOC (source lines of code) into effort estimation for developing systems. Its formula uses effort multipliers and scale factors, and their values are defined according to the characteristics of the development environment, teams and processes used in the project.

Similar to UCP, Test Point Analysis [13] is a method for estimating the effort required to perform all functional test activities based on use case points. This model estimates the effort required for all test activities together, such as defining, implementing and executing all the tests. For example, it is not possible to estimate only the effort to execute test cases that were automatically generated.

3. Test specification language

Tests are usually specified in terms of precondition, procedure (list of test steps with inputs and expected outputs) and post-condition [8]. These specifications are commonly written in natural language, often leading to problems such as ambiguity, redundancy and lack of writing standard. All these problems make difficult test understanding and execution complexity estimation. Nevertheless, they can be avoided using controlled natural languages.

A controlled natural language (CNL) [17] is a subset of natural language with restricted grammar and lexicon in order to have sentences written in a more concise and standard way. This restriction reduces the number of possible ways to describe an event, action or object.

The test specifications considered by this work are written using a CNL described here. In a simplified way, each sentence (test step) in the specification conforms to the following structure: a main verb and zero or more arguments. Table 1 shows an example of test procedure written in a controlled natural language defined for the mobile application domain.

Table 1. Example of a test procedure written in a controlled natural language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Expected Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Start the message center.</td>
<td>The phone is in message center.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Select the new message option.</td>
<td>The phone is in message composer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Insert a recipient address into the recipients field.</td>
<td>The recipients field is filled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Insert a SMS content into the message body.</td>
<td>The message body is populated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Send the message.</td>
<td>The send message transient is displayed. The message is sent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb identifies the action of the test step to be performed during the test. The arguments provide additional information about the action represented by the verb. For instance, the sentence Start the message center has the verb start (action of starting an application) and the required argument the message center (application to be started).

The CNL can have its lexicon and grammar extended for specific application domains. For example, the list of possible verbs and arguments may be different between the mobile and the Web application domains.

The context of this work is related to testing mobile applications for Motorola Brazil Test Center site at the Informatics Center/UFPE. Hence, in this work, the considered controlled natural language reflects this domain [18] [9].

4 Test execution effort estimation model

In this section, we present a new test effort estimation model developed during our research. As illustrated by Figure 1, the input of our estimation model is a test suite and the output is the estimated effort in man-hours required to execute all tests in the suite.

Our test execution effort estimation model works as follows. First of all, (1) we analyze each test case in the suite. During this analysis, (2) we assign to each test case a number of execution points, a unit of measure defined in this
work for describing the size and execution complexity of test cases.

After that, (3) we sum all the execution points measured from the analyzed test cases. This total describes the size and execution complexity for the whole test suite. Finally, (4) we estimate the required effort in man-hours to execute all tests in the test suite based on the total number of execution points.

Next, we present the details about this estimation model.

4.1 Test size and execution complexity

Our estimation model is based on the size and execution complexity of test cases in a test suite. Test size means the amount of steps required to execute the test. Test execution complexity is related to the relationship (complexity of interaction) between the tester and the tested product required during the test. These definitions are adaptations of the idea of size and development complexity for software products [14] [4] [5].

Since we are proposing a measure of size and execution complexity of a test case, it is important to have an intuitive understanding of this test case attribute. This leads us to the identification of empirical relations between test cases with respect to their size and execution complexity:

- The relation bigger than indicates that one test has a bigger size and execution complexity than another.

- The relation similar to indicates that one test has a similar size and execution complexity when compared to another.

These relations were defined intuitively by analysing how experts create associations between test cases with respect to their size and execution complexity. We consider that a test \( t_1 \) can be bigger than a test \( t_2 \) only if \( t_1 \) is not similar to \( t_2 \). This assumption reflects the difficult to intuitively compare test cases considered similar with respect to their size and execution complexity.

Here, we call \( T \) as the set of all existing test cases. The set of all identified empirical relations is called \( R \). Then, we call \( (T, R) \) as the empirical relation system for the attribute test size and execution complexity [5].

To measure test size and execution complexity that is characterised by \( (T, R) \), we must define a mapping \( M \) of \( (T, R) \) into \( (E, P) \), in which test cases in \( T \) are mapped into numbers (called execution points) in \( E \) and empirical relations in \( R \) are mapped to numerical relations in \( P \). In this way, we can validate our measure demonstrating empirically that the mapping is valid for the attribute size and execution complexity.

The set \( E \) of all possible numbers of execution points consists of the nonnegative integers and the set of numerical relations \( P \) consists of the relations \( >_{\text{ep}} \) and \( \approx_{\text{ep}} \), defined as follows.

\[
a >_{\text{ep}} b = \begin{cases} 
false & \text{if } a \approx_{\text{ep}} b \\
 a > b & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
a \approx_{\text{ep}} b = \begin{cases} 
true & \text{if } \frac{|a-b|}{a} \leq \frac{p}{100} \text{ and } \frac{|a-b|}{b} \leq \frac{p}{100} \\
false & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

As we can see, the expression \( a >_{\text{ep}} b \) is equivalent to the expression \( a > b \), except in the case of similar numbers \( (\approx_{\text{ep}}) \) of execution points \( a \) and \( b \). The definition of \( \approx_{\text{ep}} \) shows that numbers \( a \) and \( b \) are considered similar if the absolute difference between them is less than or equal to \( p \) percent of \( a \) and of \( b \). The value of \( p \) is discovered empirically, as discussed later in Section 5.3. The relations of \( R \) and \( P \) are mapped following the order of their presentations in this section.

In practice, the execution point count of a test case gives us a quantitative reference about its size and execution complexity. For instance, a test case rated with 700 execution points is bigger than others rated with 590 and 350. In addition, it allows us to better compare test productivity or capacity. For example, a tester that executed 5 tests rated with 500 execution points each one is faster than another that executed 15 tests rated with 100 execution points during the same amount of time.

4.2 The measurement method

This section presents how we measure the size and execution complexity of a test case. All required information is extracted from the test specification. Although not essential, we consider in this paper that test specifications are written in the CNL discussed in Section 3. The CNL simplifies the
use of our model and also efficiently supports a high level of automation of our measurement method.

Figure 2 illustrates how our measurement method works. First, (a) we individually analyze each test step of the test specification. This step by step analysis was defined with the objective to support the method automation. We analyze each test step according to a list of characteristics ($C_1$ to $C_n$). These characteristics represent some general functional and non-functional requirements exercised when the test step is executed. Examples of possible characteristics are number of navigations between screens, number of pressed keys and use of network. The list of characteristics may not be the same for different application domains, as discussed later in Section 4.4.

Each characteristic considered by the model has an impact in the size and execution complexity of the test and (b) this impact is rated using an ordinal scale (Low, Average and High). Later, Section 4.4 presents how to create guidelines to help us to objectively choose the more appropriate impact level for each characteristic.

After that, (c) we assign execution points for each characteristic according to its impact level. The objective here is to transform the qualitative rate (impact level) into a quantitative value.

For instance, a characteristic $C_1$ rated with the Low value could be assigned to 30 execution points. However, a more relevant characteristic rated with the same Low value may be assigned to a higher number of execution points. Section 4.4 also discusses about guidelines provided for assigning the correct value for each possible characteristic value.

To calculate the total number of execution points of a test step, (d) we sum the points assigned for each characteristic. Then, (e) we measure the size and execution complexity of a test case by summing the execution points of each one of its test steps.

**4.3. Test effort estimation**

The execution point count of a test suite gives us a reference about its tests size and execution complexity. The estimated effort is calculated based on this information and a conversion factor (CF). The conversion factor represents the relation between test execution effort and execution points, which varies according to the productivity of the test team.

The conversion factor is given in seconds per execution point, indicating the number of seconds required to execute each execution point of a test case. For calculating the conversion factor, testers can measure the test size and execution complexity of several test cases. Then, the execution time of the tests should be collected from a historical database (if available) or by executing them.

As illustrated by Figure 3, (f) the conversion factor is calculated by dividing the total effort by the total number of execution points. This information is then used for estimating the execution effort of new test suites, we just need to (g) multiply its number of execution points by the conversion factor.

For instance, a test manager may verify a conversion factor of 3.5 seconds per execution point. Using this value, a new test case with 120 execution points is estimated to be executed in 7 minutes. Similar approach is used by other existing estimation models [6] [11] [13] [14].
In this approach, we assume that the test productivity and environment conditions are stable over time. For example, improvements in the test team, tools or environment may change the test productivity and consequently the conversion factor. In this case, the conversion factor should be recalculated using data collected after the improvements.

In summary, the conversion factor used in the estimations should properly represent the current situation. In addition, the conversion factor should be calculated for each different test team, test type or tested product, since they may have significant differences in productivity.

4.4 Model configuration

Our proposed test execution effort model should be configured according to the target application domain in order to maximize the estimation accuracy. This section presents what, why and how to configure our estimation model.

**Controlled natural language**

Test specifications written in CNL are the input of our model. As shown in Section 3, the CNL grammar and lexicon are defined according to the target application domain. For example, on the mobile application domain you have the verb take that accepts the term picture as argument. Hence, a possible test step is Take a picture.

The list of verbs and possible arguments can be constructed by analysing requirement documents and existing test specifications. Besides, new verbs and terms may arises over the time due to the specification of new requirements, technology changes, etc. The CNL grammar and lexicon is stored in a database that can be updated whenever necessary.

**System characteristics**

During the test execution effort estimation, all test steps are analyzed according to a list of characteristics. These characteristics represent some general functional and non-functional requirements exercised when the test step is executed. They may depend on the target application domain.

We use the Delphi method [10] for obtaining a consensus from a group of experts about the list of relevant characteristics. Examples of possible characteristics are the number of navigations between screens, the number of pressed keys and the use of network.

The Delphi panel consists of 3 to 7 experienced testers invited from different teams for attending two or more rounds. In each round, they have the opportunity to add or remove characteristics from the list.

Examples of real test cases are provided as a source for identifying types of test actions, software configurations, use of tools or specific hardwares and other characteristics that may impact the size or the execution complexity of a test case. All this process is anonymous and, in each round, a moderator provides the participants with a summary of the experts’ decisions and their reasons for that.

An alternative technique that can be used to identify relevant characteristics is the survey. When we have several testers in the organization, we can survey them about the relevant characteristics using questionnaires or other survey instrument.

**Guidelines**

Once the experts have defined the list of characteristics to be considered by the estimation model, the experts continue attending the Delphi panels, but with different objectives.

First, they have to define the possible values that each identified characteristic may have. For example, if the type of camera is selected as a relevant characteristic for test size and execution complexity, its possible values would be automatic shooting, required manual zoom, required use of flash, etc.

After identifying the possible values of each selected characteristic, the experts group these values into three impact levels (low, average and high). The choices are made based on the impact of each value in the test size and execution complexity. This part of the guideline will help us to objectively choose the more appropriate impact level of a test step according to each characteristic.

Finally, the experts must define for each characteristic the number of execution points to be assigned for each one of its impact levels. The experts proceed as follows. Each characteristic is weighted from 1 to 10. These weights indicate the significance of each characteristic for the test size and execution complexity.

Then, the experts give a weight from 1 to 10 for the levels Low, Average and High of each characteristic. These weights indicate the significance of each level for the characteristic. In general, values 3, 5 and 8 are used to weight the levels Low, Average and High, respectively. After that, the number of execution points assigned for a level is calculated by multiplying its weight by the weight of its characteristic.

After ending the first version of the model, one or two experts are enough for updating the guidelines when necessary.

4.5 Model automation

One of the objectives of this work was to develop an estimation model that can be automated. This automation is important for supporting the development of new test generation and test selection tools.
In practice, companies may not be able to execute all test cases generated by such tools, since its resources are limited. For this reason, the test execution effort should be taken in consideration for test selection. A test generation tool, for instance, can consider a minimal requirement coverage and a maximum execution effort as its stop criteria.

The use of CNL for specifying tests supports the development of an estimation tool that automatically reads and interprets these specifications. In addition, all the information required for using the model, such as the list of characteristics, guidelines and the conversion factor can be stored in a database. Actually, the CNL grammar and lexicon is also stored in the database [18].

During the analysis of the first test cases, the estimation tool will ask the user to rate the characteristics of each test step. This information is stored in the database. Since the use of CNL reduces the number of possible ways to describe a test step, it is reasonable that the same test step (or very similar ones) occurs many times in the same test case and in different ones. For this reason, the necessity for manual assistance during the estimations tends to reduce as much as you use the tool.

At the moment this paper was written, only an initial prototype was created for validating the model automation capability.

5. Empirical study

This section presents the empirical study we run using our test execution effort estimation model on the mobile application domain. First, we configured our estimation model for the target domain. After that, we applied the estimation model in a controlled experiment. Then, we validated the test size and complexity measure we proposed.

5.1 Model configuration for the mobile application domain

The CNL used in this empirical study was defined in [18], we just needed to reuse its definition. To define the list of characteristics to use in our estimation model, we invited 6 experienced testers. They identified the relevant characteristics and defined the guidelines in a Delphi panel that took four hours (two sessions of two hours). The results are presented in Table 2.

5.2 Experiment

We tested the presented model running an experiment. The main goal of this study was to analyze the accuracy of test execution effort estimates when using the estimation model proposed in this paper. In order to do that, we compared the estimates given by our model with the ones calculated using historical averages of test execution times, a simple and common estimation method used in practice.

Following the goal-question-metric approach [1], we refined our goal for this empirical study to the questions presented next:

Q1: Is the average estimation error lower when using our model rather than using historical execution times?

Q2: Is the average percentage of estimates within 20% of the actual values higher when using our model rather than using historical execution times?

The answer for Q1 will indicate if the use of our estimation model results in a small error when regarding all estimates together. In its turn, the answer for Q2 will indicate if the number of estimates within 20% of the actual values increased when using our estimation model.

For the study, we selected 33 test cases of a messaging application feature for mobile phone. These test cases were written in a controlled natural language and their size and complexity were measured using our method.

We wanted to compare the precision of estimates made using historical information with estimates made using our model. As both approaches require information related to test productivity, we split the collected execution times into two sets of data, one for training and other for testing. The tests were randomly split, where the training set contained approximately 65% of the tests. All test cases were then executed by a tester.

The execution times were collected and stored in a spreadsheet for analysis. We used the test execution times of the training set to calculate:

- The average test execution time (for the historical data approach).
- The average time required to execute each execution point of a test case (the conversion factor for our proposed model).

With this information, we estimated the test execution effort of the testing set using both approaches. The following metrics were collected for answering Q1 and Q2.

- Mean magnitude of the relative estimation error.
  \[
  MMRE = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} MRE_t}{T}
  \]
  where:
  \[
  MRE_t = \text{abs}\left(\frac{\text{estimated}}{\text{actual}}\right)
  \]
  \[T = \text{number of tests}\]

- Average percentage of estimates that were within 20% of the actual values.
  \[
  \text{PRED}(20) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(1, if MRE_t \leq .20, 0, otherwise\right)}{T}
  \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional characteristics</th>
<th>Complexity Level / Guidelines / Rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average number of navigations between screens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Average size of date inputs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Software configuration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>File manipulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>List manipulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Multimedia manipulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Server access type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Type of screen items to be verified.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non functional characteristics</th>
<th>Complexity Level / Guidelines / Rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Application delay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Use of Bluetooth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Use of network.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In order to avoid bias, we repeated the process two more times with different training and testing sets. Table 3 compares the metrics collected from the two analyzed estimation approaches. In all tests we achieved better or equivalent estimation precision. In the first test, for example, the number of estimates within 20% of the actual values increased by 100%. We also applied t-tests and confirmed the significance of the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>MMRE</th>
<th>PRED(20)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>36.75%</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>36.12%</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.19%</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 Test size and complexity measure validation

In Section 4.1, we proposed a measure of the size and execution complexity attribute of a test case. We can validate this measure demonstrating empirically that the mapping between the empirical relation system \((T, R)\) to the numerical relation system \((E, P)\) is valid [5].

During the experiment presented in the previous section, we mapped several test cases in \(T\) into execution points in \(E\). It is necessary to verify that the mapped relations (in \(R\) and \(P\)) is valid considering the collected data.

We used expert judgement and effort information to identify similar tests and tests bigger than others with respect to their size and execution complexity. We verified that tests intuitively identified as similar tests had different measured numbers of execution points. However, the differences between these measures were within 20% of their values and this percentage value \((\rho)\) can be used for identifying similar test cases from their number of execution points.

We also verified that tests identified as bigger than others had bigger measures for their size and execution complexity attribute. In summary, we demonstrated empirically that, for all \(t_a\) and \(t_b\) in \(T\):

\[
t_a \text{ bigger than } t_b \iff ep(t_a) >_{\rho} ep(t_b)
\]

\[
t_a \text{ similar to } t_b \iff ep(t_a) \approx_{\rho} ep(t_b)
\]

where \(ep(t)\) is the number of execution points measured from \(t\).

6. Discussion

In our empirical study, we observed the cost to use our proposed model. This cost can be decomposed into the costs to:

- Define a controlled natural language;
- Identify relevant system characteristics;
- Define guidelines;
- Evaluate the size and execution complexity of test steps.

The cost to define a controlled natural language depends on the way we define it. For instance, we can only define general rules, such as: each test step must be an imperative sentence giving a direct command to the tester, the main verb in infinitive form that defines the test action must starts the sentence, etc. In this case, we do not have a significant cost.

However, we can also specify the list of all possible verbs that define test actions, their possible arguments, the vocabulary to be used, etc. In this case, we have to analyze existing requirement and test documents, a process that can be done incrementally. We also need support tools to store this information and to check the conformity of the test cases. In this way, we maximize the benefits of the controlled natural language: reduced grammar and lexicon, writing standard, etc.

In our study, the cost to identify the relevant system characteristics and to define the guidelines was low. We did a Delphi assessment that took four hours of six experienced testers. Nevertheless, this cost will increase when considering a large scope.

Finally, the cost to evaluate the size and execution complexity of test steps is the most significant one. Although it will usually take less than a minute to evaluate a test step, there may exist hundreds of test steps to be evaluated. However, we did not necessarily need to evaluate all test steps, since it is common to have the same test step occurring several times in different test cases or even in the same test. After evaluating a test step, we just need to assign the same number of execution points to its other occurrences.

In our experiment, we observed that most of times we can evaluate a test step based only on the main verb of its sentence, independently of the verb arguments. For instance, the act of launching an application has the same complexity for most applications and only the exceptions need to have a specific evaluation.

Also, we use a controlled natural language that reduces the vocabulary and consequently increases the use of the same verb in different test steps that only change the verb...
arguments. For this reason, the number of test steps to evaluate (and our cost) is even smaller.

Our empirical study suggested the feasibility of our model regarding the cost of using it. However, more experiments and case studies are required to have more conclusive results about this cost.

7. Conclusions

This paper presented an estimation model for test execution complexity based on the size and execution complexity measured from test specifications written in a controlled natural language. Existing estimation models in the literature are based on system specifications and they estimate the effort required to perform more activities than test execution, such as defining and implementing tests. Actually, they cannot be used to estimate the execution effort of a given test case.

Our model does not require historical execution times of the test cases. This characteristic is extremely important in several situations, such as when test cases are new and different from any previous one. It is also important when you do not have reliable historical data or when you generate high numbers of test cases using model-based testing approaches.

The use of a controlled natural language reduces the ambiguity helping the complexity measurement. Actually, the number of possible ways to describe the same test step in a controlled language is minimal, and we also observed that a small and concise controlled language can support a high number of different test cases written in a standard way.

Based on the considerations presented in previous sections, the method for measuring test execution complexity can be automated and optimized as follows. The complexity evaluation of test steps are recorded and reused whenever possible in the complexity evaluation of other test cases. Over the time, the number of necessary evaluations tends to decrease.

The evaluations of similar test steps are also reused, since their execution complexity may be determined only by its verb. Also, it is possible to automate all steps of the method, except the evaluation of the first occurrence of each different test steps. All these optimizations significantly reduces the costs for using our model.

For the mobile application domain, we defined the relevant system characteristics exercised by the test cases and their weights. This definition used intuition and expert judgment through a Delphi panel [10].

We run an empirical study aiming to test the model and to evaluate its accuracy. In addition, we demonstrated empirically the validity of our test effort and execution measures assuming a similarity criterion of 20%. Although we achieved interesting results suggesting accuracy improvements when using our method, we plan to run more experiments and to verify its results (accuracy, relevant characteristics, complexity levels and weights considered in the model) in other application domains.

We also plan to test the use of other techniques to configure the model, such as surveys for identifying relevant system characteristics, clustering algorithms for grouping characteristics values into impact levels and analysis of variance to define weights and confirm the relevance of the identified characteristics.

The test execution effort estimation is a complex activity, where changes in environment conditions, team experience, use of tools, reuse of test setups and other factors should be considered.

These situations can be modeled by risk factors. A risk factor for test execution represents some characteristic of the test execution process that affects the final effort to execute tests. For instance, FPA and COCOMO are examples of existing models that regard risk factors for software development. We believe that is possible to extend our model in order to regard risk factors.

8. Acknowledges

We would like to thank all anonymous reviewers who have helped us to improve this paper. The first author is partially supported by Motorola, grant BCT-0021-1.03/05, through the Motorola Brazil Test Center Research Project. The second author is partially supported by CNPq, grant 306196/2004-2.

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