Examples of Metrics from Everyday Life

- Working and living
  - Cost of utilities for the month
  - Cost of groceries for the month
  - Amount of monthly rent per month
  - Time spent at work each Saturday for the past month
  - Time spent mowing the lawn for the past two times
- College experience
  - Grades received in class last semester
  - Number of classes taken each semester
  - Amount of time spent in class this week
  - Amount of time spent on studying and homework this week
  - Number of hours of sleep last night
- Travel
  - Time to drive from home to the airport
  - Amount of miles traveled today
  - Cost of meals and lodging for yesterday
Why have Software Product Metrics?

- Help software engineers to better understand the attributes of models and assess the quality of the software
- Help software engineers to gain insight into the design and construction of the software
- Focus on specific attributes of software engineering work products resulting from analysis, design, coding, and testing
- Provide a systematic way to assess quality based on a set of clearly defined rules
- Provide an “on-the-spot” rather than “after-the-fact” insight into the software development

**METRIC SPACES**

2.15 Definition A set $X$, whose elements we shall call points, is said to be a metric space if with any two points $p$ and $q$ of $X$ there is associated a real number $d(p, q)$, called the distance from $p$ to $q$, such that

(a) $d(p, q) > 0$ if $p \neq q$; $d(p, p) = 0$;
(b) $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$;
(c) $d(p, q) \leq d(p, r) + d(r, q)$, for any $r \in X$.

Any function with these three properties is called a distance function, or a metric.
Software Quality Defined

• Definition:

Conformance to explicitly stated functional and performance requirements, explicitly documented development standards, and implicit characteristics that are expected of all professionally developed software

• Three important points in this definition

  – Explicit software requirements are the foundation from which quality is measured. Lack of conformance to requirements is lack of quality
  – Specific standards define a set of development criteria that guide the manner in which software is engineered. If the criteria are not followed, lack of quality will most surely result
  – There is a set of implicit requirements that often goes unmentioned (e.g., ease of use). If software conforms to its explicit requirements but fails to meet implicit requirements, software quality is suspect
Some factors can be directly measured (e.g. defects uncovered during testing)

Other factors can be measured only indirectly (e.g., usability or maintainability)

Software quality factors can focus on three important aspects
- Product operation: Its operational characteristics
- Product revision: Its ability to undergo change
- Product transition: Its adaptability to new environments
ISO 9126 Software Quality Factors

• Functionality
  – The degree to which the software satisfies stated needs
• Reliability
  – The amount of time that the software is available for use
• Usability
  – The degree to which the software is easy to use
• Efficiency
  – The degree to which the software makes optimal use of system resources
• Maintainability
  – The ease with which repair and enhancement may be made to the software
• Portability
  – The ease with which the software can be transposed from one environment to another
Measures, Metrics, and Indicators

- These three terms are often used interchangeably, but they can have subtle differences
- **Measure**
  - Provides a quantitative indication of the extent, amount, dimension, capacity, or size of some attribute of a product or process
- **Measurement**
  - The act of determining a measure
- **Metric**
  - (IEEE) A quantitative measure of the degree to which a system, component, or process possesses a given attribute
- **Indicator**
  - A metric or combination of metrics that provides insight into the software process, a software project, or the product itself
Activities of a Measurement Process

- Formulation
  - The derivation (i.e., identification) of software measures and metrics appropriate for the representation of the software that is being considered
- Collection
  - The mechanism used to accumulate data required to derive the formulated metrics
- Analysis
  - The computation of metrics and the application of mathematical tools
- Interpretation
  - The evaluation of metrics in an effort to gain insight into the quality of the representation
- Feedback
  - Recommendations derived from the interpretation of product metrics and passed on to the software development team

Purpose of product metrics
- Aid in the evaluation of analysis and design models
- Provide an indication of the complexity of procedural designs and source code
- Facilitate the design of more effective testing techniques
- Assess the stability of a fielded software product
Characterizing and Validating Metrics

- A metric should have desirable mathematical properties
  - It should have a meaningful range (e.g., zero to ten)
  - It should not be set on a rational scale if it is composed of components measured on an ordinal scale

- If a metric represents a software characteristic that increases when positive traits occur or decreases when undesirable traits are encountered, the value of the metric should increase or decrease in the same manner

- Each metric should be validated empirically in a wide variety of contexts before being published or used to make decisions
  - It should measure the factor of interest independently of other factors
  - It should scale up to large systems
  - It should work in a variety of programming languages and system domains
Goal-oriented Software Measurement

- Goal/Question/Metric (GQM) paradigm
- GQM technique identifies meaningful metrics for any part of the software process
- GQM emphasizes the need to
  - Establish an explicit measurement goal that is specific to the process activity or product characteristic that is to be assessed
  - Define a set of questions that must be answered in order to achieve the goal
  - Identify well-formulated metrics that help to answer these questions
- GQM utilizes a goal definition template to define each measurement goal
- Example use of goal definition template

*Analyze the SafeHome software architecture for the purpose of evaluating architecture components. Do this with respect to the ability to make SafeHome more extensible from the viewpoint of the software engineers, who are performing the work in the context of product enhancement over the next three years.*

- Example questions for this goal definition
  1) Are architectural components characterized in a manner that compartmentalizes function and related data?
  2) Is the complexity of each component within bounds that will facilitate modification and extension?
Attributes of Effective Software Metrics

• Simple and computable
  – It should be relatively easy to learn how to derive the metric, and its computation should not demand inordinate effort or time

• Empirically and intuitively persuasive
  – The metric should satisfy the engineer’s intuitive notions about the product attribute under consideration

• Consistent and objective
  – The metric should always yield results that are unambiguous

• Consistent in the use of units and dimensions
  – The mathematical computation of the metric should use measures that do not lead to bizarre combinations of units

• Programming language independent
  – Metrics should be based on the analysis model, the design model, or the structure of the program itself

• An effective mechanism for high-quality feedback
  – The metric should lead to a higher-quality end product
Taxonomy: Metrics for the Analysis Model

- **Functionality delivered**
  - Provides an indirect measure of the functionality that is packaged within the software
- **System size**
  - Measures the overall size of the system defined in terms of information available as part of the analysis model
- **Specification quality**
  - Provides an indication of the specificity and completeness of a requirements specification
Taxonomy: Metrics for the Design Model

• Architectural metrics
  – Provide an indication of the quality of the architectural design

• Component-level metrics
  – Measure the complexity of software components and other characteristics that have a bearing on quality

• Interface design metrics
  – Focus primarily on usability

• Specialized object-oriented design metrics
  – Measure characteristics of classes and their communication and collaboration characteristics
Taxonomy: Metrics for Source Code

- Complexity metrics
  - Measure the logical complexity of source code (can also be applied to component-level design)
- Length metrics
  - Provide an indication of the size of the software

“These metrics can be used to assess source code complexity, maintainability, and testability, among other characteristics”
Taxonomy: Metrics for Testing

- Statement and branch coverage metrics
  - Lead to the design of test cases that provide program coverage
- Defect-related metrics
  - Focus on defects (i.e., bugs) found, rather than on the tests themselves
- Testing effectiveness metrics
  - Provide a real-time indication of the effectiveness of tests that have been conducted
- In-process metrics
  - Process related metrics that can be determined as testing is conducted
Introduction to Function Points

• First proposed by Albrecht in 1979; hundreds of books and papers have been written on functions points since then
• Can be used effectively as a means for measuring the functionality delivered by a system
• Using historical data, function points can be used to
  – Estimate the cost or effort required to design, code, and test the software
  – Predict the number of errors that will be encountered during testing
  – Forecast the number of components and/or the number of projected source code lines in the implemented system
• Derived using an empirical relationship based on
  1) Countable (direct) measures of the software’s information domain
  2) Assessments of the software’s complexity
Function Points: Information Domain Values

- Number of external inputs
  - Each external input originates from a user or is transmitted from another application
  - They provide distinct application-oriented data or control information
  - They are often used to update internal logical files
  - They are not inquiries (those are counted under another category)

- Number of external outputs
  - Each external output is derived within the application and provides information to the user
  - This refers to reports, screens, error messages, etc.
  - Individual data items within a report or screen are not counted separately

- Number of external inquiries
  - An external inquiry is defined as an online input that results in the generation of some immediate software response
  - The response is in the form of an on-line output

- Number of internal logical files
  - Each internal logical file is a logical grouping of data that resides within the application’s boundary and is maintained via external inputs

- Number of external interface files
  - Each external interface file is a logical grouping of data that resides external to the application but provides data that may be of use to the application
## Function Point Computation

1) Identify/collect the information domain values
2) Complete the table shown below to get the count total
   - Associate a weighting factor (i.e., complexity value) with each count based on criteria established by the software development organization
3) Evaluate and sum up the adjustment factors (see the next two slides)
   - “F_i” refers to 14 value adjustment factors, with each ranging in value from 0 (not important) to 5 (absolutely essential)
4) Compute the number of function points (FP)
   \[
   FP = \text{count total} \times [0.65 + 0.01 \times \sum(F_i)]
   \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Simple</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Complex</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External Inputs</td>
<td>_____</td>
<td>x 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Outputs</td>
<td>_____</td>
<td>x 4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Inquiries</td>
<td>_____</td>
<td>x 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Logical Files</td>
<td>_____</td>
<td>x 7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Interface Files</td>
<td>_____</td>
<td>x 5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Count total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>_____</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Value Adjustment Factors

1) Does the system require reliable backup and recovery?
2) Are specialized data communications required to transfer information to or from the application?
3) Are there distributed processing functions?
4) Is performance critical?
5) Will the system run in an existing, heavily utilized operational environment?
6) Does the system require on-line data entry?
7) Does the on-line data entry require the input transaction to be built over multiple screens or operations?
8) Are the internal logical files updated on-line?
9) Are the inputs, outputs, files, or inquiries complex?
10) Is the internal processing complex?
11) Is the code designed to be reusable?
12) Are conversion and installation included in the design?
13) Is the system designed for multiple installations in different organizations?
14) Is the application designed to facilitate change and for ease of use by the user?
Function Point Example

\[ FP = \text{count total} \times \left[ 0.65 + 0.01 \times \text{sum}(F_i) \right] \]

\[ FP = 50 \times \left[ 0.65 + (0.01 \times 46) \right] \]

\[ FP = 55.5 \text{ (rounded up to 56)} \]
Interpretation of the FP Number

• Assume that past project data for a software development group indicates that
  – One FP translates into 60 lines of object-oriented source code
  – 12 FPs are produced for each person-month of effort
  – An average of three errors per function point are found during analysis and design reviews
  – An average of four errors per function point are found during unit and integration testing

• This data can help project managers revise their earlier estimates
• This data can also help software engineers estimate the overall implementation size of their code and assess the completeness of their review and testing activities
Architectural Design Metrics

- These metrics place emphasis on the architectural structure and effectiveness of modules or components within the architecture.
- They are “black box” in that they do not require any knowledge of the inner workings of a particular software component.
Hierarchical Architecture Metrics

- Fan out: the number of modules immediately subordinate to the module \( i \), that is, the number of modules directly invoked by module \( i \)
- Structural complexity
  \[ S(i) = f_{out}^2(i), \text{ where } f_{out}(i) \text{ is the “fan out” of module } i \]
- Data complexity
  \[ D(i) = \frac{v(i)}{f_{out}(i) + 1}, \text{ where } v(i) \text{ is the number of input and output variables that are passed to and from module } i \]
- System complexity
  \[ C(i) = S(i) + D(i) \]

- As each of these complexity values increases, the overall architectural complexity of the system also increases
- This leads to greater likelihood that the integration and testing effort will also increase
- Shape complexity
  \[ \text{size} = n + a, \text{ where } n \text{ is the number of nodes and } a \text{ is the number of arcs} \]
  - Allows different program software architectures to be compared in a straightforward manner
- Connectivity density (i.e., the arc-to-node ratio)
  \[ r = \frac{a}{n} \]
  - May provide a simple indication of the coupling in the software architecture
Metrics for Object-Oriented Design

- **Size**
  - Population: a static count of all classes and methods
  - Volume: a dynamic count of all instantiated objects at a given time
  - Length: the depth of an inheritance tree

- **Coupling**
  - The number of collaborations between classes or the number of methods called between objects

- **Cohesion**
  - The cohesion of a class is the degree to which its set of properties is part of the problem or design domain

- **Primitiveness**
  - The degree to which a method in a class is atomic (i.e., the method cannot be constructed out of a sequence of other methods provided by the class)
Specific Class-oriented Metrics

- Weighted methods per class
  - The normalized complexity of the methods in a class, indicates the amount of effort to implement and test a class
- Depth of the inheritance tree
  - The maximum length from the derived class (the node) to the base class (the root), indicates the potential difficulties when attempting to predict the behavior of a class because of the number of inherited methods
- Number of children (i.e., subclasses)
  - As the number of children of a class grows, reuse increases, the abstraction represented by the parent class can be diluted by inappropriate children and the amount of testing required will increase.
- Coupling between object classes
  - Measures the number of collaborations a class has with any other classes
  - Higher coupling decreases the reusability of a class
  - Higher coupling complicates modifications and testing
- Response for a class
  - This is the set of methods that can potentially be executed in a class in response to a public method call from outside the class, indicates the effort required for testing and the overall design complexity of the class
- Lack of cohesion in methods
  - This measures the number of methods that access one or more of the same instance variables (i.e., attributes) of a class
  - If no methods access the same attribute, then the measure is zero
Metrics for Maintenance

• Software maturity index (SMI)
  – Provides an indication of the stability of a software product based on changes that occur for each release

\[
\text{SMI} = \left( \frac{M_T - (F_a + F_c + F_d)}{M_T} \right)
\]

where
- \(M_T\) = number of modules in the current release
- \(F_a\) = number of modules in the current release that have been added
- \(F_c\) = number of modules in the current release that have been changed
- \(F_d\) = number of modules from the preceding release that were deleted in the current release

• As the SMI (i.e., the fraction) approaches 1.0, the software product begins to stabilize
• The average time to produce a release of a software product can be correlated with the SMI
Test Metrics: Defect Density

Definition

- Failures, Faults, Defects
  (IEEE Std 729, 1983)
  - A failure is the departure of a system from its required behaviour
  - A fault occurs when a human error results in a mistake in some SW product
  - Defects normally refer collectively to faults and failures

- An error may lead to faults may lead to failures

\[
\text{defect density} = \frac{\text{number of known defects}}{\text{product size}}
\]

Product size is usually measured in lines of code (or FPs)

We count known defects but the product will still contain latent defects – those not yet discovered
Defect Density Pros and Cons

• Pros
  – De facto standard measure of SW quality
  – Provides useful information
  – Not too hard to collect the necessary data

• Cons
  – There is no general consensus on
    • what constitutes a defect
    • how to measure SW size
  – DD is a product measure but it is derived from the process of finding defects
    • May say more about quality of defect finding and reporting, than about the quality of the product itself
  – Should measure number of defects with respect to time (e.g. MTBF) rather than product size

Even if we knew the exact number of residual faults in a system, it is still
  – Difficult to determine in advance the seriousness of a fault
  – There is much variability in the way the system is used by different users; a system is not always used as expected
Other quality measures based on defect counts

- System spoilage = \( \frac{\text{time to fix post-release defects}}{\text{total system development time}} \)
- Cumulative fault density
- Total serious faults found
- Mean time to serious faults
- High level design review errors per KNCSL (lines of code)
- etc. etc.
Failure Class Descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transient</td>
<td>Occurs only with certain inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>Occurs with all inputs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recoverable</td>
<td>System can recover without operator intervention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unrecoverable</td>
<td>Operator intervention is needed to recover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-corrupting</td>
<td>Failure does not corrupt data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrupting</td>
<td>Failure corrupts system data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When to Stop Testing

• The intuition that testing discovers first the trivial, easy to correct, faults and the more difficult ones later is WRONG

• How can you know when you’ve discovered “most of them” or the “most important” ones?
Fault Seeding

- Used measure testing effectiveness
- *Idea:* in order to measure how thorough the testers have been, first insert some dummy faults into the program (fault seeding) and then count how many of these are detected.
- Previous project experience can also identify likely problem areas
  - Assumption:
    \[
    \frac{\text{detected seeded faults}}{\text{total seeded faults}} = \frac{\text{detected non-seeded faults}}{\text{total non-seeded faults}}
    \]
  - Problem: it is difficult to make seeded faults representative of the real ones.
  - Conclusion: this approach is most useful for testing systems which are similar to ones we have built before
A Balanced Method

- **Idea:** Test Group 1 and Test Group 2 test the same program. Let $F_1$ be the set of faults detected by group 1, $F_2$ those by group 2 and
  - $x$ is size of $F_1$ and $y$ is size of $F_2$
  - $q$ is size of $F_1 \cap F_2$ (the common faults)
  - $n$ is unknown: the total number of faults in the program

- So, the **effectiveness** of Groups 1 and 2 is given by,
  \[
  E_1 = \frac{x}{n} = \frac{q}{y} \quad \text{and} \quad E_2 = \frac{y}{n} = \frac{q}{x} \quad \text{and thus}
  \]
  \[
  n = \frac{x \cdot y}{q}
  \]

- **Conclusion:** So far we have found $(x+y-q)/n$ proportion of the faults.
- **Conclusion:** Group 1 is better than group 2 (or vice versa)
- **Problem:** probably assumes too much uniformity of distribution and detection
Worked Example

- During testing group A detect 20 faults and group B detect 25 faults. 10 of the faults detected are common to both groups. Estimate the total number of indigenous faults in the program and thus number of indigenous faults remaining undetected in the program.
- \( x = 20 \quad y = 25 \quad q = 10 \)
- Effectiveness of A = \( q/y = 10/25 = 0.4 \)
- Effectiveness of B = \( q/x = 10/20 = 0.5 \)
- Estimated total faults is \( n = x.y/q = 20.25 / 10 = 50 \)
- Faults found so far = 20 + 25 - 10 = 35
- So remaining faults est. 15 (ie 30%) still to find