

Reduction in Mutation Testing of Java Classes

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Abstract: In mutation analysis many simple modification of the original program called “mutants” are created. Test cases which are supposed to identify the introduced program changes are designed. Each mutant must be “killed” by a test case, i.e. the test case should detect the purposely introduced modification. Mutation testing is known to be effective but computationally demanding and time consuming because a large number of mutants has to be tested. Mutation score, which is the fraction of mutants that are killed by a test set, is often used to evaluate the effectiveness of mutation testing. An interesting research question is if the number of mutants can be reduced without significantly decreasing the effectiveness of the test. We were exploring selective reductions of mutants generated for Java programs. The results of several experiments conducted in the Eclipse environment are presented in this paper. These results show that selective reduction in mutants can significantly reduce the cost of testing with acceptable mutation score and code coverage.

1 INTRODUCTION

The general idea of mutation testing is that faults used in mutation testing represent mistakes made by a programmer so they are deliberately introduced into the program to create a set of faulty programs called mutants. Each mutant program is obtained by applying a mutant operator to a location in the original program. Mutation operators are defined based on programming language characteristics and common mistakes programmers make. Typical mutation operators include replacing one operator e.g. ‘+’ by another e.g. ‘-’ or replacing one variable by another. Mutation operators have been defined for many languages e.g. Fortran (e.g. Offut et al. 1996), C (e.g. Agrawal H. et al., 1989), C# (Derezińska, 2012, 2013) and Java (e.g. Kim et al. , 2001).

The tester designs tests that make these mutant programs behave differently from the original program. If the test is able to detect the change (i.e. one of tests fails), then the mutant is said to be killed.

Mutation testing is very effective at measuring the adequacy of a test suite, but it can be computationally expensive and time consuming. It is expensive because mutation operators generate a large number of mutants and all these mutants must be run against the test set thus causing high computational cost. Testers have to analyse mutants

and design tests to kill them. Some mutants cannot be killed because they behave the same as the program under test for all tests. Such mutants are called equivalent. The identification of equivalent mutants is usually done “by hand” and needs a lot of time.

Mutation score is a kind of quantitative test quality measurement that examines a test suite's effectiveness. It is defined as the ratio of the number of killed mutants to the total number of non-equivalent mutants.

The reduction of the number of mutants will decrease the computational and “human” costs. Several reduction methods proposed are listed in section 2.

The objective of this paper is to examine what is the impact of selecting some subsets of mutants generated for each mutation operator and for the method for Java programs, on the mutation score and the code coverage. This kind of experiments is not quite new, some of them are also mentioned in section 2. Due to the effort needed to conduct such experiments all of them were made on very limited number of classes, programs (4-10) so repeating them on other programs, with the usage of other tools, other operators and in different environment, seems to us worthy and important. In (Bluemke, 2013) we described completely different, than in this paper, reduction of mutants by randomly sampling.

The main ideas of reducing the number of mutants and related work are briefly described in section 2. The results of experiments are presented in section 3 and some conclusions are given in section 4.

2 REDUCTIONS OF MUTANTS AND RELATED WORK

Interesting survey of mutation techniques was published in 2011 by Jia and Harman, they also created a repository (Mutation, 2011) containing many papers on mutation. Recently Bashir and Nadeem (2012) published a survey on object mutation and Offut (2011) presented fascinatingly the past, the present and the future of mutation.

One of the greatest challenges to the validity of mutation testing is the number of mutants that are semantically equivalent to the original program. Equivalent mutants produce the same output as the original program for every possible input. Determining which mutants are equivalent is a tedious activity, usually not implemented in tools. The impact of equivalent mutants is studied in (Grun et al, 2009). Techniques have been devised to identify equivalent mutants using program slicing (Hierons et al., 1999), compiler optimization (Offut and Craft, 1994), constraint solving (Offut and Pan, 1997) and, more recently, impact assessment (Grun et al, 2009). Equivalent mutants are still difficult to remove completely (Schuler and Zeller, 2010). Recently, in 2014, a systematic literature review regarding the equivalent mutant problem was published by Madeyski et.al .

It is not feasible to use every possible mutant of the program under test, even after all the equivalent mutants have been removed. It is therefore necessary to select a subset of mutants that allow the test suite to be evaluated within a reasonable period of time. Some research has been conducted to reduce the number of mutants by selecting certain operators, sampling mutants at random, or combining them to form new higher-order mutants. Mutant sampling was proposed by Acree (1980) and Budd (1980). The problem of reducing the cost of mutation testing was studied in several papers. Mathur and Wong (1995) proposed two techniques limiting the number of mutants: randomly selected $x\%$ mutants, and constrained mutation (only a few specific types of mutants are used and others are ignored).

Slightly different approach to mutants' sampling was proposed by Scholive, Beroulle and Robach (2005). They proposed to choose a subset (10%) of

mutants generated for each mutation operator. The selection was not performed randomly, they choose different percentages of mutants in the mutant subsets generated from different operators. This idea we used as a basis for our experiments with selective reductions described in section 3. The proportion of mutants selected from each operator was the function of its stuck-at fault coverage efficiency. They conducted experiment on a benchmark comparing the random and the proposed sampling technique. With the classical random sampling technique, the mutation score obtained was 85.62% while with sampling strategy mutation score increased to 88.18%.

Offutt, Rothermel and Zapf (1996) were examining constrained mutation (some mutation operators were ignored). Using the results of the above mentioned experiments and performing others experiments Mresa and Bottaci (1999) proposed the set of efficient operators – *eff*. Researchers have found that statement deletion operator has relatively few mutants, but yields tests that are almost as effective as using all mutants. Delamaro et.al. (2014) extend this idea. Theirs paper presents results from mutation operators that delete variables, operators, and constants. Bluemke and Kulesza (2013) examined randomly sampling mutants in Java programs. The experiment shows that **randomly** sampling 60% or 50% of mutants in Java programs can significantly reduce the cost of testing with acceptable mutation score and code coverage. These subsets of mutants were also effective in detecting hand seeded errors. Another approach to the mutant reduction problem was proposed by Patrick, Oriol and Clark (2012). They propose to use static analysis to reduce mutants.

The above listed approaches to reduce the costs of mutation were aimed at reduction the number of mutants. The literature lacks a theoretical result that articulates how many mutants are needed in any given situation. Recently Amman Delamaro and Offut, 2014, presented a way to identify precisely how many mutants are needed in the context of a given test set. According to them the size of this set appears to be much smaller than the set delivered by current approaches to mutation.

3 EXPERIMENT

The goal of our experiment was to explore the selective reduction of mutants generated by the mutation operator. We based our reductions on rules proposed by Scholive, Beroulle and Robach (2005)

briefly described in section 2 but we decided to examine the selective reductions more thoroughly. We were reducing 40% to 90% of generated mutants using step of 10% as a reduction value. In this paper the experimental results of selecting subsets of mutants generated for each mutation operator (named as OP) and for mutation operators dedicated to method (named as METHOD) are presented while in (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2013) we showed the results of **randomly** reducing the sets of mutants for the same classes.

Our experiments were conducted in the Eclipse environment. MuClipse and CodePro plugins were used for the mutation testing. Two special tools: Mutants Remover and Console Output Analyzer (Kulesza, 2012) were implemented especially for these experiments. Eight Java classes (listed in Table 1), were tested. For these classes 53 to 556 mutants were generated.

Table 1: Tested classes.

class	Project	methods	code	mutants/equivalent mutants
Recipe	CoffeeMaker	14	84	138/15
CoffeeMaker	CoffeeMaker	8	102	285/17
Money	CodePro JUnit Demo	14	59	53/4
MoneyBag	CodePro JUnit Demo	17	114	54/6
Element	MapMaker	10	80	380/20
Board	NetworkShipBattle	12	123	270/3
Wall	jet-tetris	7	79	290/19
Stack	javasol	26	176	556/30

3.1 Plan of Experiment

For each class, being the subject of our experiment, firstly all mutants were generated by MuClipse using traditional operators operating only at the method level i.e., changing lines of code that fit a certain pattern (i.e., switching operands, replacing + with -, etc.) and at the class-level: changing keywords that indicate the type of class or the methods involved (i.e. overloading a given method, changing a class to static, etc.).

Secondly, the test cases killing these mutants were generated using JUnit, part of CodePro plugin. Console Output Analyzer was identifying test cases not killing mutants. The identification of equivalent mutants, based on the analysis of source code of the original program and its mutants was time consuming. Equivalent mutants were indicated and removed “manually”. The tester had to construct several test cases especially for non-equivalent

mutants to obtain an adequate test suite. The number of test cases generated automatically by CodePro was only 28.78% so quite a lot of time was spend on constructing test cases “manually”. The number of mutants killed by automatically generated tests was 47.15%. Such low values of mutants killed by automatically generated tests were also reported in other papers e.g. (Segura et al., 2011). Based on the results of Mresa and Bottaci research (1999) effective test sequence were built. Informally, each test in an effective sequence is non-redundant with respect to the tests that precede it.

The initial set of all generated mutants was reduced by sampling and selective mutations. Due to time limitations and the effort needed to construct test cases, identify equivalent mutants and remove them, for each class being the subject of this experiment, only 18 sets of mutants were constructed which is not sufficient to obtain statistically correct results.

In the next step test cases “killing” all mutants in the set were produced. Firstly the CodePro generator was generating test cases and Console Output Analyzer was identifying test cases not killing mutants. For the not “killed” mutants the test cases prepared for the whole set of mutants were used.

In Table 2 the code coverage (instruction coverage) for each class being the subject of our experiments is given for all generated mutants.

Table 2: Code coverage and method coverage for all generated mutants.

class	coverage for all mutants	methods	covered methods
Recipe	95.90%	14	14
CoffeeMaker	98.20%	8	7
Money	84%	14	10
MoneyBag	74.20%	17	13
Element	99%	10	10
Board	99%	12	12
Wall	100%	7	7
Stack	94.50%	26	23

As far as we know, there are no commonly agreed limits defining satisfying killing factor so we arbitrary assumed that test cases killing 95% of all mutants are adequate. Also arbitrary, we assumed that 2% decrease of the code coverage (instruction coverage) is acceptable. With these values we evaluated the sets of mutants and theirs test cases.

We also assumed **arbitrary** that subset of mutants **satisfying both criteria (95% killed mutants factor and 2% decrease in code coverage) is adequate for testing**. For the majority

of classes the coverage is greater than 90%, only for classes Money and MoneyBag (Codepro) is less. In these classes mutants were not generated for four of its methods (last column of Table 2) and this caused the low value of code coverage.

In following sections the results of reducing the number of mutants generated for mutation operators and methods reductions are presented.

3.2 Results for OP Reduction

In the OP reduction only part of generated mutants by a mutation operator (class level and method level) is used in testing. From 40% to 90% of generated mutants were removed using step of 10% as a reduction value. If the number of mutants disable the removal of multiplicity of 10%, formula (1) was used:

$$U = \text{int}(LM * \text{prc}/100 + 0.2) \quad (1)$$

Where:

- *U* – number of mutants which should be removed,
- *LM* – number of mutants for mutation operator,
- *prc* – percentage of mutants to be removed,
- *int* – integer part of a number.

Mutants Remover tool (Kulesza, 2012) was used to remove mutants. To minimize the “random element” in our experiment the process of removing

mutants was tripled for different *prc* values and the modified sets of mutants were stored in files *class_name_OP_(100% - prc)_i*.

The results of testing using constraint subset are given in Table 3. The mean values greater than 95% of killed mutants for all tested classes were obtained for subset produced for *prc* values 40%, 50% and 60%.

In Table 4 the degradation in the code coverage for OP reduction is shown. The degradation not greater than 2 % (to the code coverage for all mutants) was obtained for two reduced sets of mutants OP_60 and OP_50. These sets are satisfying both our criteria described in section 3.1.

3.3 Results for METHOD Reduction

We treated each method as a “whole” and the number of mutants generated for this method was reduced by 40% to 90% for each mutation operator. In METHOD reductions for each method and for each mutation operator (method level) part of its mutants were removed. Next, independently, parts of mutants generated for each operator (at the method level) were removed and at last, mutants for each operator at the class level were reduced.

Table 3: Percentage of killed mutants in OP subsets.

class/subset	OP_60 %	OP_50 %	OP_40 %	OP_30 %	OP_20 %	OP_10 %
Recipe	94.31	94.85	90.24	87.53	82.93	62.60
CoffeeMaker	99.13	98.88	98.51	98.38	97.01	94.78
Money	97.28	91.84	92.52	91.16	85.71	68.03
MoneyBag	97.22	95.83	95.14	91.67	88.19	87.50
Element	98.70	98.33	96.94	95.09	91.85	86.11
Board	98.75	98.75	97.50	96.63	94.13	91.89
Wall	99.63	99.51	99.14	98.77	97.91	93.36
Stack	98.10	98.23	96.64	93.92	87.77	75.41
average	97.89	97.03	95.83	94.14	90.69	82.46

Table 4: The degradation of code coverage for OP reduction.

class/subset	OP_60	OP_50	OP_40	OP_30	OP_20	OP_10
Recipe	2%	2.37%	5.10%	7.10%	8.65%	30.60%
CoffeeMaker	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.27%	2.73%
Money	2.07%	0.47%	3%	2.07%	6.47%	16.63%
MoneyBag	0%	0%	2.67%	1.43%	4.27%	2.43%
Element	0.23%	0.47%	1.17%	2.10%	3.37%	4.77%
Board	2.07%	2.17%	4.07%	5.17%	9.23%	6.10%
Wall	0%	0%	0.27%	0.27%	0.27%	1.70%
Stack	1.87%	1.20%	2.63%	5.87%	5.43%	8.27%
average	1.03%	0.83%	2.36%	3%	4.74%	9.15%

Table 5: Percentage of killed mutants in METHOD subsets.

Class/subset	M-D_60 %	M-D_50 %	M-D_40 %	M-D_30 %	M-D_20 %	M-D_10 %
Recipe	95.66	93.50	93.77	93.50	88.08	86.18
CoffeeMaker	99.25	99.13	98.63	98.38	97.14	96.52
Money	96.60	95.92	94.56	89.80	89.80	87.76
MoneyBag	97.92	95.83	95.14	95.14	95.14	93.06
Element	98.15	98.24	97.78	96.57	94.35	88.33
Board	99.00	98.63	98.50	96.25	94.63	91.01
Wall	99.75	99.51	99.02	99.26	98.52	97.54
Stack	99.05	98.48	97.02	94.74	90.87	84.09
average	98.17	97.40	96.80	95.46	93.57	90.56

The reductions were performed for each method of a class independently. The exact number of mutants eliminated was also calculated using the formula (1) and Mutants Remover tool was used in the elimination process.

In Table 5 the results for reducing METHOD subsets of mutants are presented. The average value 95% of killed mutants was obtained for subset produced for *prc* values 30%, 40%, 50% and 60%. For 48 subset of mutants the 95% of killed mutants was obtained in 31 subsets. The level 95% of killed mutants was even available for class Recipe, for 60% of mutants, such good results were not available for this class in the OP reduction (section 3.2).

In Fig. 1 mean values of killed mutants factor in OP and METHOD reduction are presented as a function of eliminated mutants for OP and METHOD reductions. It can be seen that these values are similar till the 95% level. These reductions decreased the number of mutants significantly (about 62%) with only small (5%) decrease in killed mutants factor.

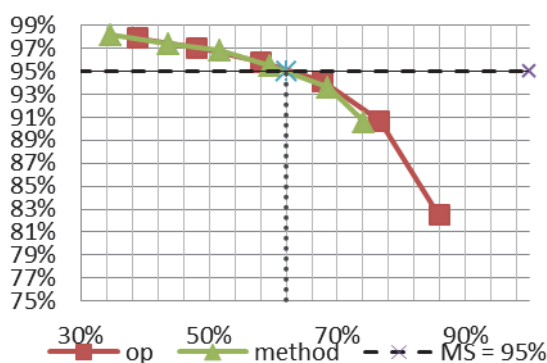


Figure 1: Mean values of killed mutants” factor in OP and METHOD reduction.

Similar measures were also obtained for randomly sampled reductions, described in (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2013), but the killed mutants

factor was worse than for OP and METHOD reductions.

We also observed during experiments that if the number of mutants significantly decreased, till a specified level (e.g. 55% for class Recipe Fig. 2.) the OP and METHOD reductions were less efficient than random elimination of mutants described in (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2013). Decreasing the number of mutants lowers the killed mutants factor which can be seen in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. It may happen, that for a file with less number of mutants the killed mutants factor will be greater, this can be observed in Fig. 2. For class Recipe for file OP_60 killed mutants factor was 94.31%, while for file OP_50, containing less elements than OP_60, the value of killed mutants factor was slightly greater and equal to 94.85%. This phenomenon is caused by random factor in the elimination of mutants.

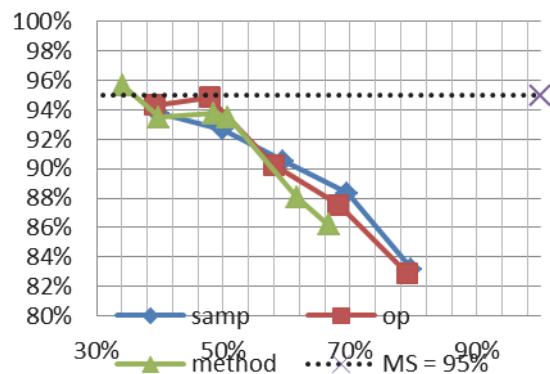


Figure 2: Killed mutants factor for class Recipe in OP, METHOD and random sampling – SAMP.

In Fig. 1, Fig. 2 and in Fig. 3 it can be observed that the ‘METHOD’ curve stops before the others. This is caused by formula 1 used for the calculation of the number of mutants reduced in *prc*% step of reduction. This formula is used, if the number of mutants for the operator is too low to use directly *prc*%. Example: LM=7, and we want to reduce 90%.

From formula 1 we obtain $U=6$ mutants to be removed which is $6/7= 85.71\%$. For subsets SAMP (random reduction) and OP (Fig. 3) the numbers of mutants were significantly greater, than for METHOD, so it was easier to reduce it close to e.g. 90%.

In Table 6 the decrease of code coverage for METHOD reduction comparing to the coverage of full set of mutants is presented. The mean decrease of 2% was for subsets obtained for reductions 40% to 70% of mutants (METHOD_60 - METHOD_30. Each of these subsets enabled also the mean values of killed mutants to be greater than 95% thus satisfying ours both criteria (section 3.1). Even for the subset METHOD_10 the mean decrease in code coverage is only 3% and is significantly lower than for subsets SAMP_10 - random elimination (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2013) and OP_10 (accordingly 17.90% and 9.15%). In METHOD reduction mutants are eliminated independently for each method so it is not possible to eliminate all mutants for a method thus making its code not covered. In OP and randomly reduction such situation may happen.

Table 6: Decrease code coverage for METHOD reduction comparing to the coverage of full sets of mutants.

class/ subset	M-D_60 %	M-D_50 %	M-D_40 %	M-D_30 %	M-D_20 %	M-D_10 %
Recipe	3.03	3.73	4.07	3.73	11.20	13.27
CoffeeMaker	0	0	0	0	0.27	0.53
Money	0	0	0	0	0	0.47
MoneyBag	0	0.87	1	0.43	0.87	0.87
Element	0.70	0.70	0.93	0.93	1.87	4.20
Board	1.57	2.10	1.57	1.73	4.13	3.20
Wall	0	0	0	0.27	0	0.27
Stack	0.43	0.87	0.87	1.30	1.83	1.30
average	0.72	1.03	1.05	1.05	2.52	3.01

In Fig. 3. the mean decrease of code coverage for OP, METHOD and random reduction, denoted as samp, (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2013) of mutation is shown.

3.4 Reduction of Computation Cost

We evaluated each subset obtained after mutants reduction in terms of computational costs. We observed the decrease of the number of: mutants, test cases necessary for maximal killed mutant factor and total runs in testing.

3.4.1 Reduction of Mutants

In Table 7 the mean values of mutants for different prc values (section 3.1 formula 1) are given. These

numbers may differ, as can be seen in Fig. 4. In Table 7 bold fonts are used for subsets satisfying both criteria (section 3.1). From these subsets the greatest reduction level was almost 60%, for subset METHOD_30 (prc=70%).

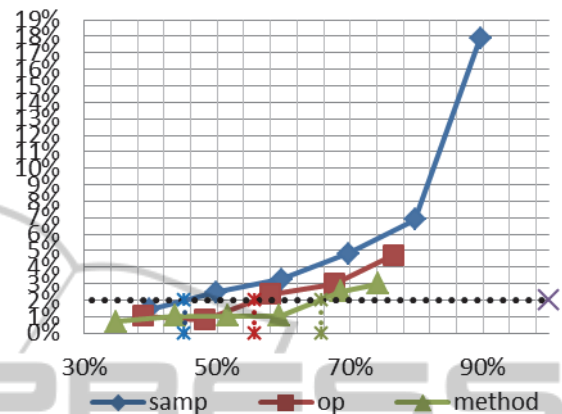


Figure 3: Mean decrease of code coverage for OP, METHOD and random reduction – samp of mutants

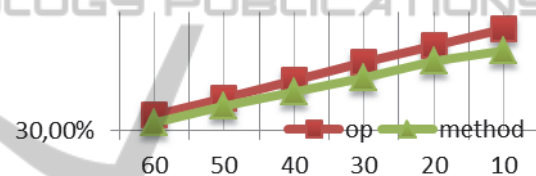


Figure 4: Decrease of the number of mutants as function of 100%-prc (section 3.1, formula 1).

Table 7: Reduction of mutants for different prc values (formula 1, section 3.1).

subset/ prc	40 %	50 %	60 %	70 %	80 %	90 %
OP	38.84	48.05	58.05	67.61	76.58	85.91
METHOD	34.67	43.63	51.63	59.41	68.55	74.16

3.4.2 Reduction of Test Cases

Each generated mutant has to be executed for at least one test case. The less test cases there are, the fewer executions are needed. The reduced number of mutants and reduced number of test cases significantly decrease the total number of test executed in the testing process. The decrease in the total number of executed test is presented in Table 8 for METHOD reduction. Bold font is used for subset satisfying both our criteria (section 3.1). The last row shows the mean percentage of reduced tests for all classes. It can be noticed that the reduction in total number of executed tests is significant: 68.41%.

Table 8: Number of executed tests for METHOD reductions.

Class/subset	full	M-D_60	M-D_50	M-D_40	M-D_30	M-D_20	M-D_10
Recipe	1631	963.67	855.67	660.33	648	406.67	343
CoffeeMaker	4130	2286.33	1848	1507.67	1111	684.33	451.33
Money	412	247	184.33	169	117	96	94.67
MoneyBag	330	180.33	160.67	146.67	137.33	96.33	99.33
Element	6126	3406.67	2871	2275	1787.67	1165.33	644.33
Board	2399	1408	1242.33	986	763	601.67	386.33
Wall	2145	1301	962.67	793.67	539.33	398.67	198.33
Stack	21785	13060.33	10560.67	8604	6521	4136	2496.67
Average reduction		42.01%	52.17%	60.35%	68.41%	78.04%	83.45%

4 CONCLUSIONS

Experimental research has shown mutation testing to be very effective in detecting faults e.g.: (Bluemke and Kulesza, 2011), (Frankl et al., 1997), (Andrews et al., 2005), unfortunately it is computationally expensive so some researchers propose parallel execution of tests (Mateo and Usaola, 2013), others constraining the sets of mutants. The contribution of our research is the detailed examination of selective reduction of mutants generated for mutation operators including class operators in Java programs.

The mean values, greater than 95% of killed mutants for almost all tested classes, were obtained after reductions 40%-60% of generated mutants for OP subsets. Even better results were obtained for sampling METHOD subsets. For these subset only 30% of mutants were able to kill 60% of mutants in average and the degradation in the code coverage was less than 1%.

However our experiment was made in different environment and on different language, we confirmed the observation of Scholive et. al. (2005) that selective reductions of mutants are better than the random ones.

Our experiment shows that reduction in mutants generated for mutation operator (regular and class level) in Java programs can significantly reduce the cost of testing. The reductions in numbers of mutants and executed test are easily visible (Tables 7-8). Even better reductions can be achieved by logic mutations (Kaminski et al., 2011) but they require special test cases.

The experiments reported in this paper were time consuming so only 8 Java classes were tested. The number of programs used in other experiments on mutation' subset were similar. It is difficult to know if 8 classes is sufficiently large sample from which to generalize and so similar studies on larger sets of classes will be useful. Due to the effort needed in

performing the experiment we were not able to use statistically significant number of mutants for random selection. However the results of our experiments support the results presented in literature, some of which were made on other programming languages, e.g. (Mathur and Wong, 1995), (Scholive et al., 2005), (Offutt et al., 1996), (Polo et al., 2009) it seems to us that confirming experiments is important in science.

All the results of this study have been obtained using the set of mutation operators available in MuClipse. Clearly, these results cannot be applied directly to mutation systems that use different operators. Efficiency relationships will, nonetheless, be present between any set of operators. In future it would be interesting to compare the results of our experiment with minimal set of mutants quite recently proposed by Amman, Delamaro and Offutt (March 2014).

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