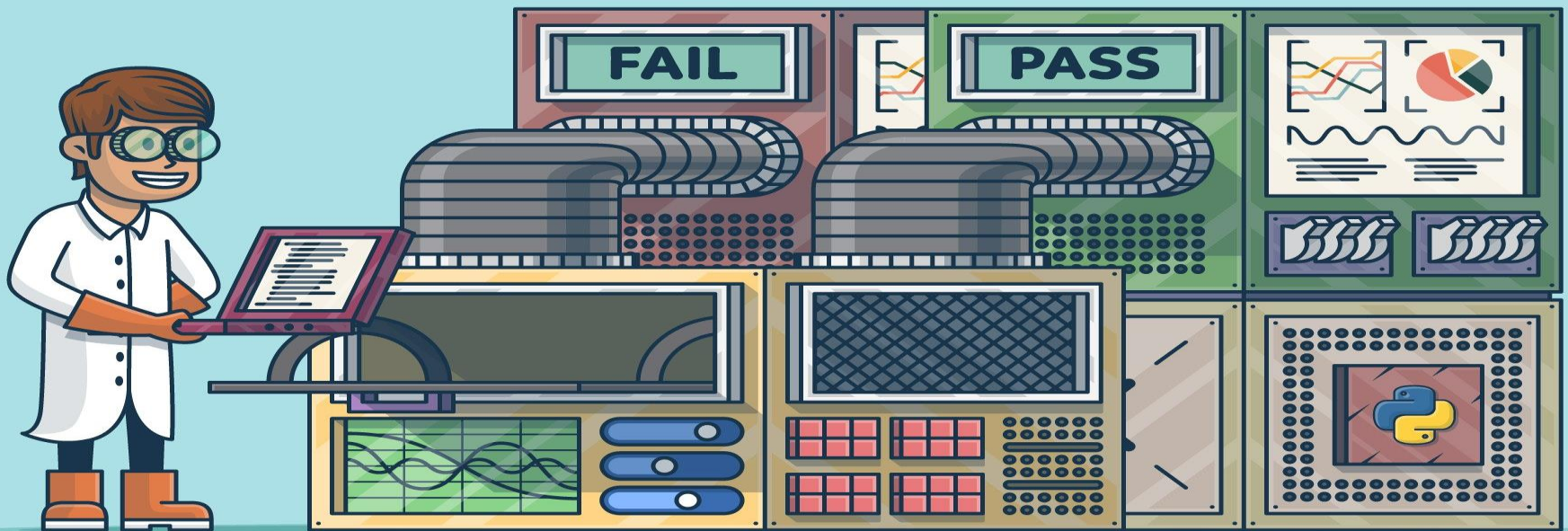


# Advanced Software Engineering

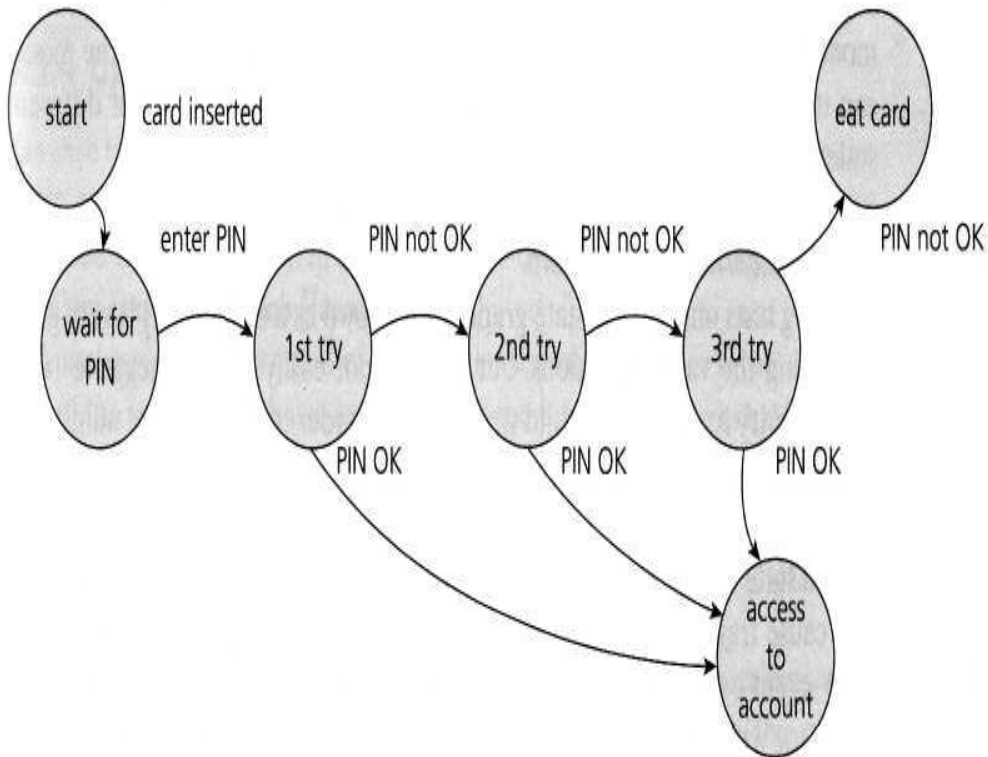
## CSE608

# Software Testing



**Dr. Islam El-Maddah**

# Testing State Diagrams



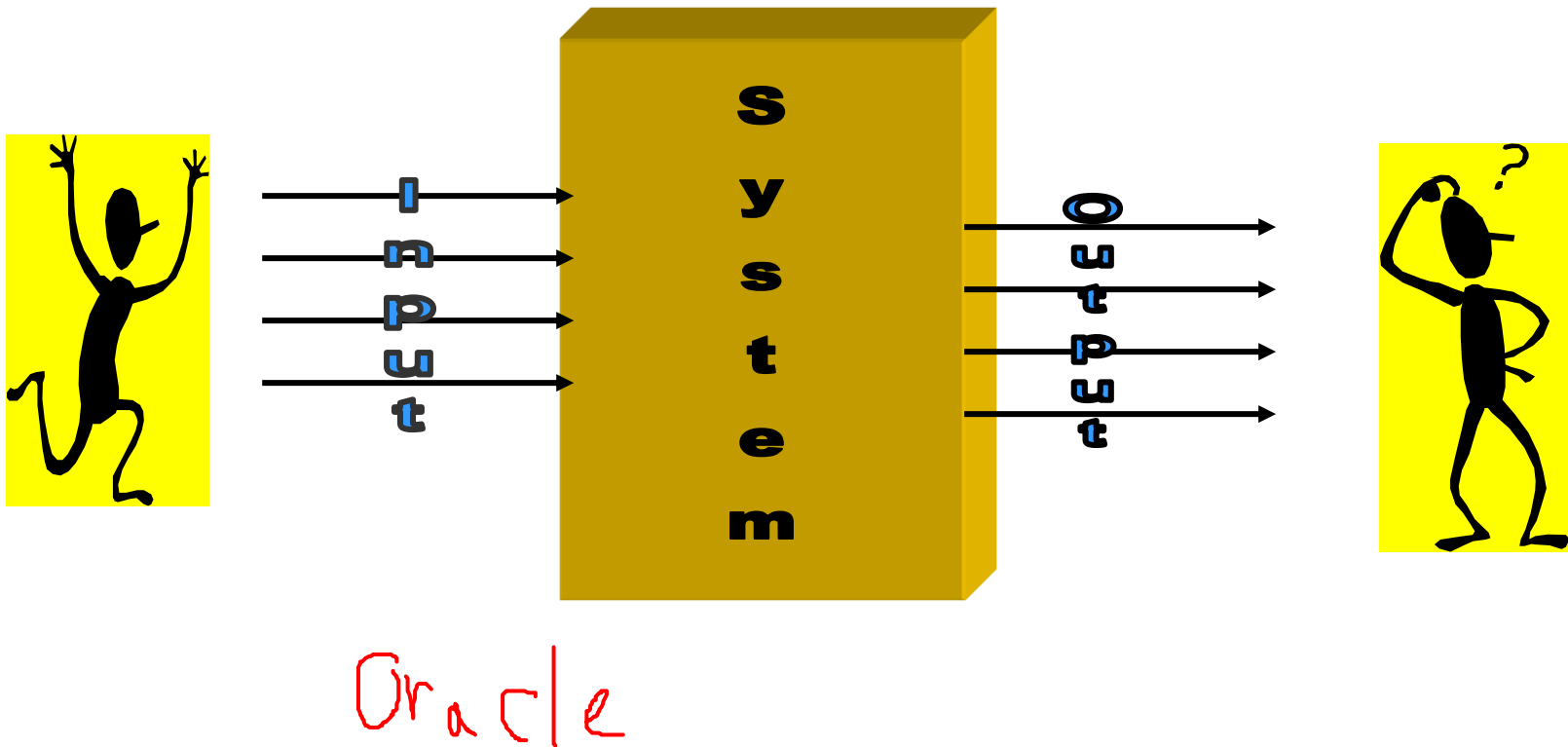
	Insert card	Valid PIN	Invalid PIN
S1) Start state	S2	-	-
S2) Wait for PIN	-	S6	S3
S3) 1st try invalid	-	S6	S4
S4) 2nd try invalid	-	S6	S5
S5) 3rd try invalid	-	-	S7
S6) Access account	-	?	?
S7) Eat card	S1 (for new card)	-	-

# How do you test a system?



- z Input test data to the system.
- z Observe the output:
  - y Check if the system behaved as expected.

# How do you test a system?



# How do you test a system?



- z If the program does not behave as expected:
  - y note the **conditions** under which it failed.
  - y later **debug** and correct.

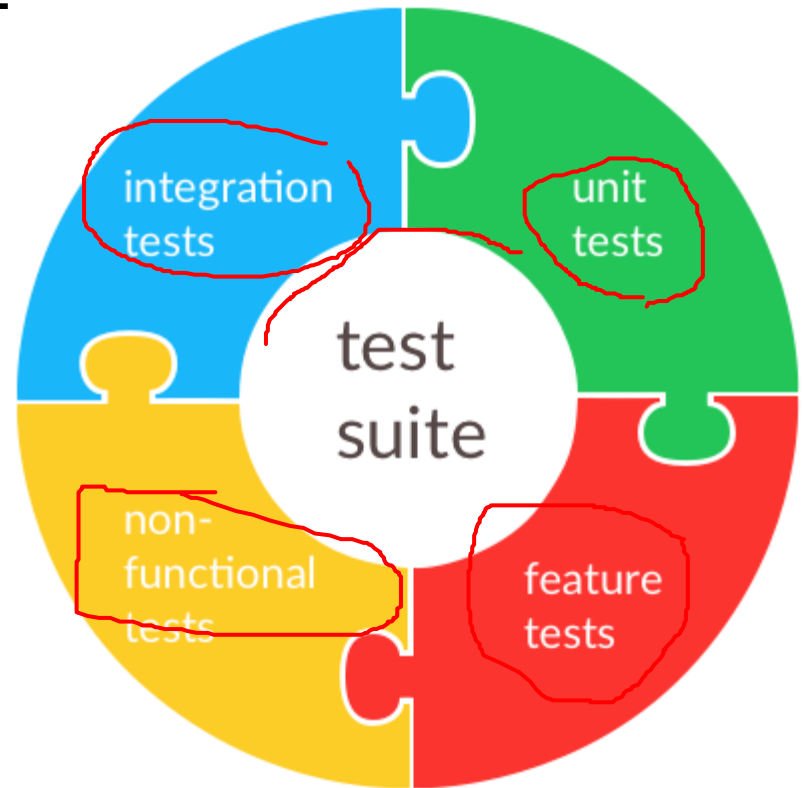
# Errors and Failures



- z A failure is a manifestation of an error (aka defect or bug).
- y mere presence of an error may not lead to a failure.

# Test cases and Test suite

- z Test a software using a set of carefully designed test cases:
  - y the set of all test cases is called the test suite



# Test cases and Test suite

- z A test case is a triplet  $[I, S, O]$ :
  - y I is the data to be input to the system,
  - y S is the state of the system at which the data is input,
  - y O is the expected output from the system.



# Verification vs Validation



z Verification is the process of determining:

y whether output of one phase of development conforms to its previous phase.

z Validation is the process of determining

y whether a fully developed system conforms to its SRS document.



# Verification & Validation



Are we building the product right?



Are we building the right product?

## Verification

- Verify the intermediary products like requirement documents, design documents, ER diagrams, test plan and traceability matrix
- Developer point of view
- Verified without executing the software code
- Techniques used: Informal Review, Inspection, Walkthrough, Technical and Peer review



## Validation

- Validate the final end product like developed software or service or system
- Customer point of view
- Validated by executing the software code
- Techniques used: Functional testing, System testing, Smoke testing, Regression testing and Many more

# Design of Test Cases



- z Exhaustive testing of any non-trivial system is impractical:
  - y input data domain is extremely large.
- z Design an **optimal test suite**:
  - y of reasonable size
  - y to uncover as many errors as possible.

# Design of Test Cases

- z If test cases are selected randomly:
  - y many test cases do not contribute to the significance of the test suite,
  - y do not detect errors not already detected by other test cases in the suite.
- z The number of test cases in a randomly selected test suite:
  - y not an indication of the effectiveness of the testing.

# Design of Test Cases



- z Testing a system using a large number of randomly selected test cases:
  - y does not mean that many errors in the system will be uncovered.
- z Consider an example:
  - y finding the maximum of two integers x and y.

# Design of Test Cases

z `If (x>y) max = x;  
else max = x;`

- z The code has a simple error:
- z test suite  $\{(x=3,y=2);(x=2,y=3)\}$  can detect the error,
- z a larger test suite  $\{(x=3,y=2);(x=4,y=3); (x=5,y=1)\}$  does not detect the error.

# Design of Test Cases



- z Systematic approaches are required to design an optimal test suite:
  - y each test case in the suite should detect different errors.

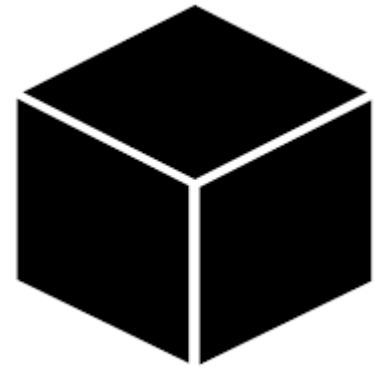
# Design of Test Cases

- z Two main approaches to design test cases:
  - y Black-box approach
  - y White-box (or glass-box) approach



# Black-box Testing

- z Test cases are designed using only **functional specification** of the software:
  - y without any knowledge of the internal structure of the software.
- z For this reason, black-box testing is also known as **functional testing**.



# White-box Testing

- z Designing white-box test cases:
  - y requires knowledge about the internal structure of software.
  - y white-box testing is also called structural testing.



# Black-box Testing



- z Two main approaches to design black box test cases:
  - y Equivalence class partitioning
  - y Boundary value analysis

# White-Box Testing



- z There exist several popular white-box testing methodologies:
  - y Statement coverage
  - y Branch coverage
  - y Path coverage
  - y Condition coverage
  - y Mutation testing
  - y Data flow-based testing

# Statement Coverage



z Statement coverage methodology:

y design test cases so that

x every statement in a program must be executed at least once.

# Statement Coverage



- z The principal idea:
  - y unless a statement is executed,
  - y we have no way of knowing if an error exists in that statement.

# Statement coverage criterion



- z Based on the observation:
  - y an error in a program can not be discovered:
    - x unless the part of the program containing the error is executed.

# Statement coverage criterion



- z Observing that a statement behaves properly for one input value:
  - y no guarantee that it will behave correctly for all input values.



# Example

4

2


3

```
z int f1(int x, int y){  
z 1 while (x != y){  
z 2   if (x>y) then  
z 3     x=x-y;  
z 4   else y=y-x;  
z 5 }  
z 6 return x; }
```

Euclid's GCD Algorithm

# Euclid's GCD computation algorithm



- z By choosing the test set  
 $\{(x=3, y=3), (x=4, y=3), (x=3, y=4)\}$ 
- z all statements are executed at least once.

# Branch Coverage



- z Test cases are designed such that:
  - y different branch conditions
  - x given true and false values in turn.

# Branch Coverage



- z Branch testing guarantees statement coverage:
  - y a stronger testing compared to the statement coverage-based testing.

# Stronger testing

- z Test cases are a superset of a weaker testing:
  - y discovers at least as many errors as a weaker testing
  - y contains at least as many significant test cases as a weaker test.

# Example



```
int f1(int x,int y){  
1  while (x != y){  
2    if (x>y) then  
3      x=x-y;  
4    else y=y-x;  
5  }  
6  return x;    }
```

# Example



- z Test cases for branch coverage can be:
- z  $\{(x=3, y=3), (x=3, y=2), (x=4, y=3), (x=3, y=4)\}$

# Condition Coverage



- z Test cases are designed such that:
  - y each **component** of a composite conditional expression
  - x given both true and false values.



# Example



- z Consider the conditional expression  
y  $((c1.and.c2).or.c3)$ :
- z Each of  $c1$ ,  $c2$ , and  $c3$  are exercised at least once,  
y i.e. given true and false values.

# Branch testing



- z Branch testing is the simplest condition testing strategy:
  - y compound conditions appearing in different branch statements
    - x are given true and false values.

# Branch testing



- z Condition testing
  - y stronger testing than branch testing:
- z Branch testing
  - y stronger than statement coverage testing.

# Condition coverage



- z Consider a Boolean expression having  $n$  components:
  - y for condition coverage we require  $2^n$  test cases.

# Condition coverage



- z Condition coverage-based testing technique:
  - y practical only if  $n$  (the number of component conditions) is small.

# Path Coverage



- z Design test cases such that:
  - y all linearly independent paths in the program are executed at least once.

# Linearly independent paths

z Defined in terms of  
y control flow graph (CFG) of a  
program.

# Path coverage-based testing



- z To understand the path coverage-based testing:
  - y we need to learn how to draw control flow graph of a program.



# Control flow graph (CFG)



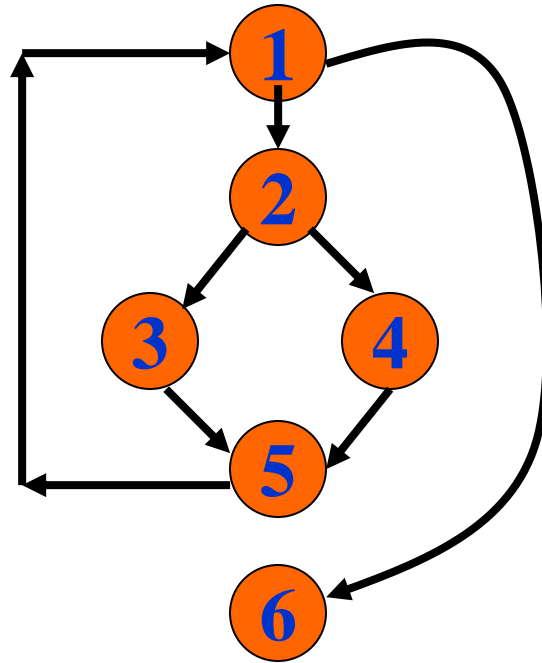
- z A control flow graph (CFG) describes:
  - y the sequence in which different instructions of a program get executed.
  - y the way control flows through the program.

# Example



```
int f1(int x,int y){  
1  while (x != y){  
2    if (x>y) then  
3      x=x-y;  
4    else y=y-x;  
5  }  
6  return x;      }
```

# Example Control Flow Graph

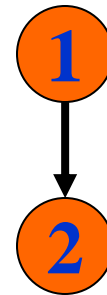


# How to draw Control flow graph?

z Sequence:

y 1 a=5;

y 2 b=a\*b-1;



# How to draw Control flow graph?

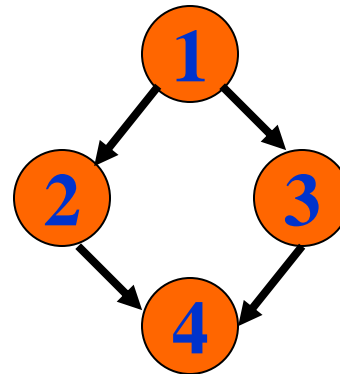
z Selection:

y 1 if(a>b) then

y 2           c=3;

y 3 else     c=5;

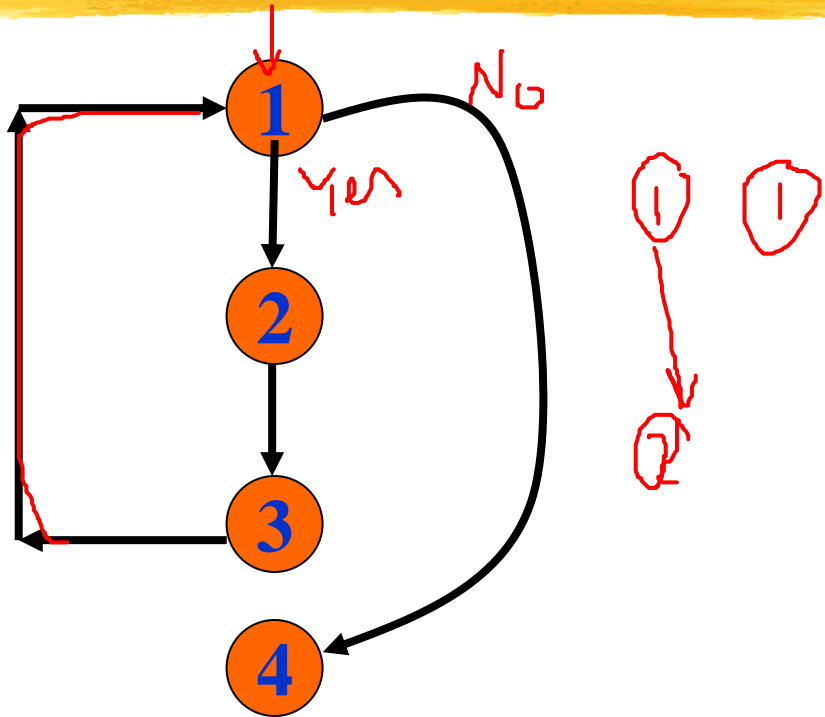
y 4 c=c\*c;



# How to draw Control flow graph?

z Iteration:

```
y 1 while(a>b){  
y 2     b=b*a;  
y 3     b=b-1;}  
y 4 c=b+d;
```



$$C.C. = \text{Nodes} - \text{edges} + 2$$

# Path

- z A path through a program:
  - y a node and edge sequence from the starting node to a terminal node of the control flow graph.
  - y There may be several terminal nodes for program.



# Independent path



- z Any path through the program:
  - y introducing at least one new node:
    - x that is not included in any other independent paths.



# Independent path



- z It is straight forward:
  - y to identify linearly independent paths of simple programs.
- z For complicated programs:
  - y it is not so easy to determine the number of independent paths.

# McCabe's cyclomatic **metric**



- z An upper bound:
  - y for the number of linearly independent paths of a program
- z Provides a practical way of determining:
  - y the maximum number of linearly independent paths in a program.

# McCabe's cyclomatic metric

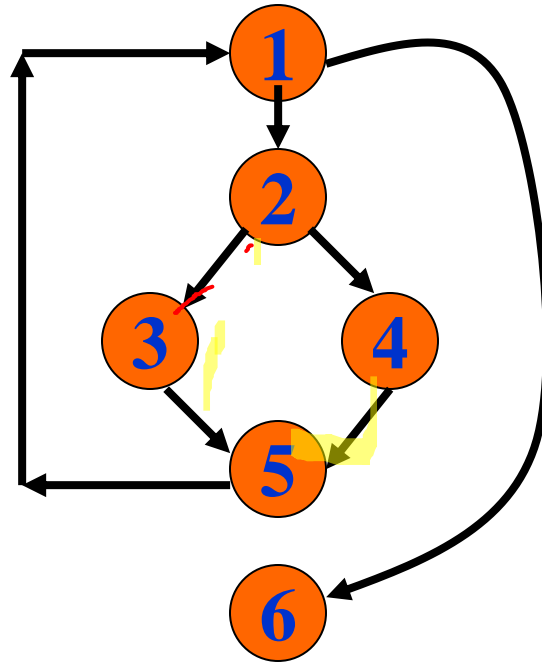
z Given a control flow graph  $G$ ,  
cyclomatic complexity  $V(G)$ :

y  $V(G) = E - N + 2$

x  $N$  is the number of nodes in  $G$

x  $E$  is the number of edges in  $G$

# Example Control Flow Graph



# Example



z Cyclomatic complexity =  
 $7 - 6 + 2 = 3.$

# Cyclomatic complexity

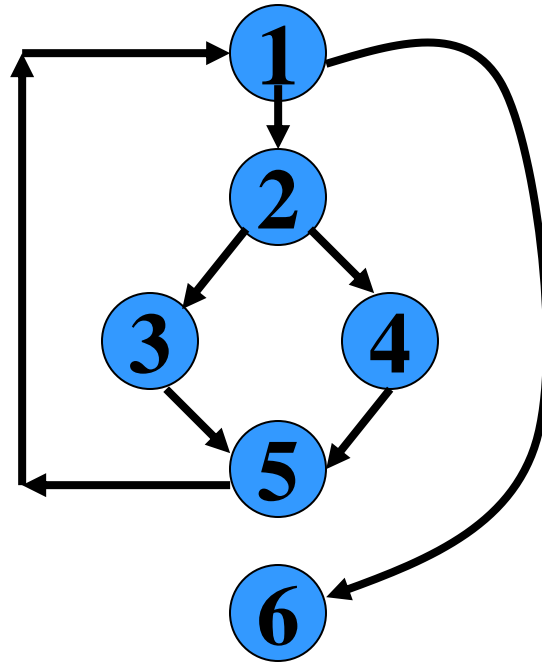
- z Another way of computing cyclomatic complexity:
  - y inspect control flow graph
  - y determine number of bounded areas in the graph
- z  $V(G) = \text{Total number of bounded areas} + 1$

# Bounded area



- z Any region enclosed by a nodes and edge sequence.

# Example Control Flow Graph





# Example



- z From a visual examination of the CFG:
  - y the number of bounded areas is 2.
  - y cyclomatic complexity =  $2+1=3$ .

# Cyclomatic complexity



- z McCabe's metric provides:
  - x a quantitative measure of testing difficulty and the ultimate reliability
- z Intuitively,
  - y number of bounded areas increases with the number of decision nodes and loops.

# Cyclomatic complexity

- z The first method of computing  $V(G)$  is amenable to automation:
  - y you can write a program which determines the number of nodes and edges of a graph
  - y applies the formula to find  $V(G)$ .

# Cyclomatic complexity



- z The cyclomatic complexity of a program provides:
  - y a lower bound on the number of test cases to be designed
  - y to guarantee coverage of all linearly independent paths.

# Cyclomatic complexity



- z Defines the number of independent paths in a program.
- z Provides a lower bound:
  - y for the number of test cases for path coverage.

# Cyclomatic complexity



- z Knowing the number of test cases required:
  - y does not make it any easier to derive the test cases,
  - y only gives an indication of the minimum number of test cases required.

# Path testing



- z The tester proposes:
  - y an initial set of test data using his experience and judgement.

# Path testing



- z A dynamic program analyzer is used:
  - y to indicate which parts of the program have been tested
  - y the output of the dynamic analysis
    - x used to guide the tester in selecting additional test cases.



# Derivation of Test Cases



- z Let us discuss the steps:
  - y to derive path coverage-based test cases of a program.

# Derivation of Test Cases



- z Draw control flow graph.
- z Determine  $V(G)$ .
- z Determine the set of linearly independent paths.
- z Prepare test cases:
  - y to force execution along each path.

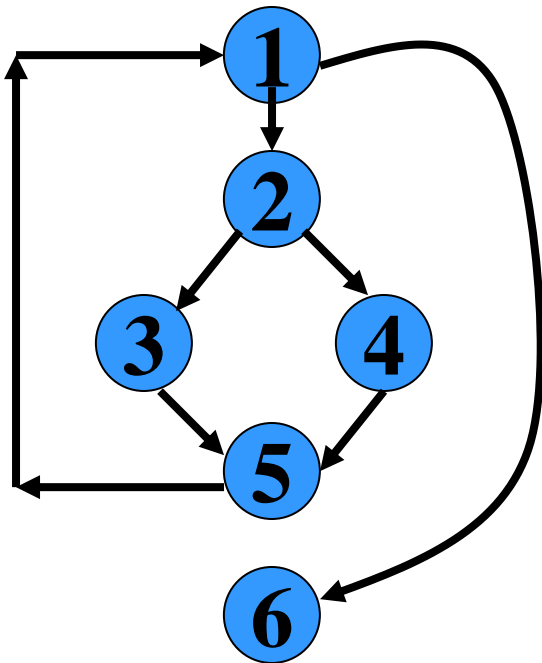
# Example



```
z int f1(int x,int y){  
z 1 while (x != y){  
z 2   if (x>y) then  
z 3       x=x-y;  
z 4   else y=y-x;  
z 5 }  
z 6 return x;      }
```

S ✓  
B ✓  
C  
P

# Derivation of Test Cases



z Number of independent paths: 3

y 1,6 test case (x=1, y=1)

y 1,2,3,5,1,6 test case(x=1, y=2)

y 1,2,4,5,1,6 test case(x=2, y=1)

# **An interesting application of cyclomatic complexity**



- z** Relationship exists between:
  - y** McCabe's metric
  - y** the number of errors existing in the code,
  - y** the time required to find and correct the errors.

# Cyclomatic complexity



z Cyclomatic complexity of a program:

y also indicates the psychological complexity of a program.

y difficulty level of understanding the program.

# Cyclomatic complexity



- z From maintenance perspective,
  - y limit cyclomatic complexity
    - x of modules to some reasonable value.
  - y Good software development organizations:
    - x restrict cyclomatic complexity of functions to a maximum of ten or so.