Software Testing and Validation

Corso di Laurea in Informatica

Finite Models of Software

Igor Melatti

Università degli Studi dell'Aquila

Dipartimento di Ingegneria e Scienze dell'Informazione e Matematica





Models in Testing

- Model checking is based on models of the artifact, testing addresses the artifact
- However, some modeling is often required also for testing
 - models for the environment (i.e., what is providing inputs)
 - models for plant, when the software is a controller
 - in some cases, testing on the final product in its "natural" environment only may be also dangerous
 - . e.g., testing of the controller for a flying aircraft
 - models of the software itself
 - UML diagrams
 - control flow diagrams et al. (will be defined in the following)
 - help in devising better tests
- May be already available from specifications, or a modeling phase may be needed

Models Must Be...

- Compact, i.e., understandable
 - often, they are for human inspection
 - if models are for some automatic procedure, then they must be manipulable in the given computational resources
 - this is exactly the case for model checking!
- Predictive, i.e., not too simple
 - at least be able to detect what is "bad" and what is "good"
 - different models may be used for the same artifact, when testing different aspects
 - e.g., model to predict airflow w.r.t. efficient passenger loading and safe emergency exit





Models Must Be...

- Semantically meaningful
 - given something went bad, we need to understand why
 - identify the part with the failure
- Sufficiently general
 - not too specilized on some characteristics
 - otherwise, not useful
 - e.g., a C program analyzer which only works for programs without pointers



Finite Abstraction of Behaviour

- Given a program, a state is an assignment for all variables in the program
 - state space: set of all possible states
- A behaviour is a sequence of states, interleaved by program statements being executed
- The number of behaviours for non-trivial programs is extremely huge
 - infinite if we do not consider machine limitations
 - e.g., integers need not to be represented on maximum 64 bits
- An abstraction is a function from states to (reduced) states
 - some details are suppressed
 - e.g., some variables are not considered





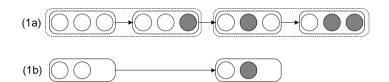
Finite Abstraction of Behaviour

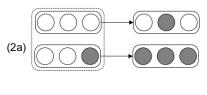
- Two different states may be considered the same by an abstraction
 - e.g., they differ by some variable, which is abstracted out
- States sequences may be squeezed
- Non-determinism may be introduced
 - e.g., when a choice was made by considering the value of some abstracted-out variable
- In model checking, this is done by hand for each system
 - here, instead, we will consider some standard models which are especially tailored for testing
 - in some cases, they may be automatically extracted from code

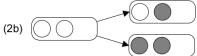




Finite Abstraction of Behaviour









(Intraprocedural) Control Flow Graphs

- Model close to the actual program source code
 - finite by construction
- Often compilators are also able to build the control flow graph
 - e.g., gcc -fdump-tree-cfg
- Directed graph:
 - nodes are program statements or group of statements
 - more on this in the following
 - edges represent the possibility to go from a node to another
 - either by branch or by sequential execution



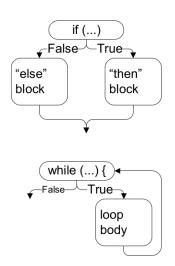


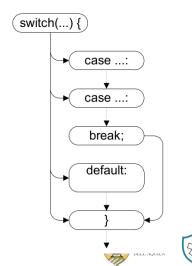
Control Flow Graphs (CFGs)

- Nodes usually are a maximal group of statements with a single entry and single exit
 - basic block
 - e.g., sequential assignments are grouped together
- On the contrary, it may happen that a single statement is broken down
 - e.g., if (++i > 3) becomes i++; if (i > 3)
 - e.g., the for statement
 - e.g., short-circuit evaluation
 - it depends on the level of accuracy needed





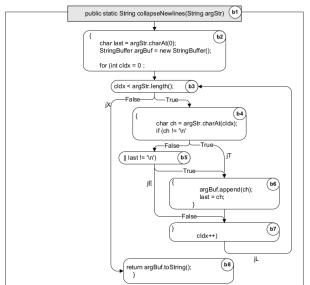




```
/**
 1
           * Remove/collapse multiple newline characters.
 2
 3
           * @param String string to collapse newlines in.
           * @return String
 5
           */
 6
 7
          public static String collapseNewlines(String argStr)
 8
 9
               char last = argStr.charAt(0);
               StringBuffer argBuf = new StringBuffer():
10
11
               for (int cldx = 0; cldx < argStr.length(); cldx++)
12
13
                   char ch = argStr.charAt(cldx);
14
                   if (ch != '\n' || last != '\n')
15
16
17
                        argBuf.append(ch);
18
                        last = ch;
19
20
21
               return argBuf.toString();
22
23
```













- Let P be a (part of a) function or procedure for which testing must be performed
 - white-box testing: we know the code of P as a sequence $\mathcal{C}(P) = \langle I_1, \dots, I_k \rangle$ of statements
 - we assume P is written in some imperative language
 - we assume that complex statements in C(P) are already broken down in parts
 - short-circuited conditions, inline increments, function/procedure calls...
 - in the previous example (collapseNewlines), k = 11





- Let $g = \langle i_1, \dots, i_m \rangle$ be a grouping for the statements of $\mathcal{C}(P)$
 - $1 \le i_i < i_{i+1} \le k$ for all j = 1, ..., m-1
 - e.g., for $g = \langle 3, 5, 10 \rangle$ we will consider three blocks:
 - the first 3 statements, then other two statements, and finally the remaining 5 statements
 - we will call g granularity for a given C(P)
- Of course, granularities must comply with code
 - ullet no flow branches (if, while, etc) inside a block $I_{i_j+1}\dots I_{i_{j+1}}$
- Usually, maximal granularities are chosen
 - from a flow branch (or starting point) to another flow branch (or ending point)





- A CFG for a program P with granularity g is a graph G = (V, E) s.t.
 - $V = \{\langle I_{g_{i-1}+1} \dots I_{g_i} \rangle \mid i = 1, \dots, |g| \}$
 - with $g_0 = 0$
 - ullet nodes are basic blocks and |V| = |g|
 - $E = \{(u, v) \mid u, v \in V \land \text{ control flow from last statement of } u$ and first of v may take place $\}$
- Typically, nodes $v_i \in V$ are labeled with the corresponding basic block $\langle I_{g_{i-1}+1} \dots I_{g_i} \rangle$
- Typically, edges $(u, v) \in E$ may be labeled by a boolean value if flow from u to v is conditioned
 - last statement of *u* is an if or a while
 - and similar, e.g., for, until etc
- In some cases, some alphanumeric label is added to ease references





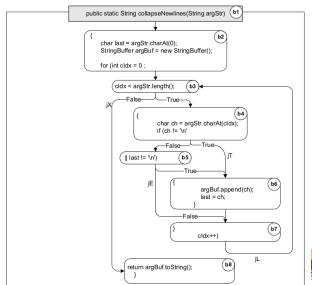
From CFG to LCSAJ

- Linear code sequences and jumps
 - maximal sequences of consecutives statements
 - may be directly derived from a CFG
- In a nutshell: all sequences of consecutive basic blocks (both in the CFG and in the source code)
 - while a basic block cannot contain branches, LCSAJ can
 - conditional branches create overlapping LCSAJs
 - basic blocks cannot overlap
 - typically, there are 4x more LCSAJs than basic blocks
- Let $G = (V, E, L_1, L_2)$ be a labeled CFG
 - $L_1: V \to \mathcal{L}_V, L_2: E \to \mathcal{L}_E$ are two bijective labeling functions for nodes (basic blocks) and edges, respectively
 - no really need of having the labeling function: it simply makes the LCSAJ more readable

```
/**
 1
           * Remove/collapse multiple newline characters.
 2
 3
           * @param String string to collapse newlines in.
           * @return String
 5
           */
 6
 7
          public static String collapseNewlines(String argStr)
 8
 9
               char last = argStr.charAt(0);
               StringBuffer argBuf = new StringBuffer():
10
11
               for (int cldx = 0; cldx < argStr.length(); cldx++)
12
13
                   char ch = argStr.charAt(cldx);
14
                   if (ch != '\n' || last != '\n')
15
16
17
                        argBuf.append(ch);
18
                        last = ch;
19
20
21
               return argBuf.toString();
22
23
```













From CFG to LCSAJ

| From | | | To | | | | | | |
|-------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|--------|
| entry | b1 | b2 | b3 | | | | | | jΧ |
| entry | b1 | b2 | b3 | b4 | | | | | jΤ |
| entry | b1 | b2 | b3 | b4 | b5 | | | | jΕ |
| entry | b1 | b2 | b3 | b4 | b5 | b6 | b7 | | jL |
| jΧ | | | | | | | | b8 | return |
| jL | | | b3 | b4 | | | | | jΤ |
| jL | | | b3 | b4 | b5 | | | | jΕ |
| jL | | | b3 | b4 | b5 | b6 | b7 | | jL |





From CFG to LCSAJ

- Let $G = (V, E, L_1, L_2)$ be a labeled CFG
- The LCSAJ associated to G is $\mathcal{I}(G) = \{\langle I_1, \ell_2, I_3 \rangle \mid I_1, I_3 \in \mathcal{L}_E, \ell_2 \in \mathcal{L}_V^* \}$ s.t.:
 - ullet I_1 arrives to the first statement of ℓ_2
 - that is: if $L_2^{-1}(I_1)=(u,v)$, then ℓ_2 begins with $L_1(v)$
 - I_3 exits from the last statement of ℓ_2
 - that is: if $L_2^{-1}(I_3)=(u,v)$, then ℓ_2 ends with $L_1(u)$
 - ℓ_2 only contain maximal consecutive basic blocks of $\mathcal{C}(P)$
 - that is, $\ell_2 = v_1 \dots v_n$ implies that:
 - v_i and v_{i+1} are consecutive basic blocks both in G and in the source code for all $i=1,\ldots,n-1$
 - v_n has no other consecutive basic block
 - i.e., either it is followed by a control flow jump or it is the end of the unit
 - v₁ is either the beginning of the unit or the testination of control flow jump



- CFG is typically intraprocedural; call graphs are interprocedural
 - simply a graph where nodes are defined functions
 - there is an edge from f to g iff f may call g
 - thus, they may contain calls which are actually never made
 - sometimes arguments are made explicit
 - number of paths inside a call graph may be exponential, even without recursion



```
public class C {
2
        public static C cFactory(String kind) {
             if (kind == "C") return new C();
             if (kind == "S") return new S();
             return null:
        void foo() {
9
             System.out.println("You called the parent's method");
10
12
         public static void main(String args[]) {
13
             (new A()).check();
14
15
16
17
    class S extends C (
18
         void foo() {
19
             System.out.println("You called the child's method");
20
21
22
23
    class A {
24
         void check() {
25
             C myC = C.cFactory("S");
26
             myC.foo();
27
28
29
```







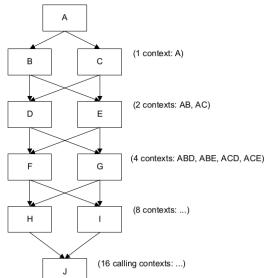


```
public class Context {
         public static void main(String args[]) {
              Context c = new Context();
              c.foo(3):
              c.bar(17);
         void foo(int n) {
              int[] myArray = new int[ n ];
              depends( myArray, 2);
10
11
12
         void bar(int n) {
13
              int[] myArray = new int[ n ];
14
15
              depends( myArray, 16);
16
17
         void depends( int[] a, int n ) {
18
              a[n] = 42;
19
20
21
           main
                                                        main
C.foo
                    C.bar
                                        C.foo(3)
                                                                  C.bar(17)
                                  C.depends(int[3],a,2)
                                                           C.depends(int[17],a,16)
        C.depends
```







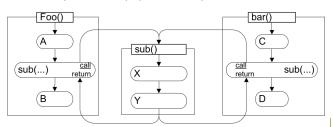






Interprocedural Analysis

- Calls between different functions/methods, important, e.g., for the previous slide
- Simply following calls and returns in a CFG-like way is not practical: too many spurious paths
 - (A, X, Y, B), (C, X, Y, D) are ok
 - (A, X, Y, D), (C, X, Y, B) are impossible







Interprocedural Analysis

- To solve the problem, context is needed
 - if sub is called by A, it must return in B
- Number of contexts is exponential
 - may be ok for a small group of functions, e.g., a not-too-big single Java class
- Some special cases exist
 - the info needed to analyze the calling procedure must be small
 - e.g., proportional to the number of called procedures
 - the information about the called procedure must be context-independent
 - example: declaration of exception throwing in Java

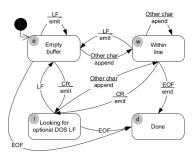






Finite State Machines

- Here we will focus on Mealy Machines
 - a graph where nodes are "modalities" of a given software
 - edges are labeled with input/output



| | LF | CR | EOF | other |
|---|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| e | e / emit | 1 / emit | d/- | w / append |
| w | e / emit | 1 / emit | d / emit | w / append |
| 1 | e/- | | d/- | w / append |







Finite State Machines

```
/** Convert each line from standard input */
     void transduce() {
       #define BUFLEN 1000
       char buf[BUFLEN]; /* Accumulate line into this buffer */
       int pos = 0;
                           /* Index for next character in buffer */
 8
       char inChar: /* Next character from input */
       int atCR = 0; /* 0="within line", 1="optional DOS LF" */
10
       while ((inChar = getchar()) != EOF ) {
12
         switch (inChar) {
13
         case LF:
14
            if (atCR) { /* Optional DOS LF */
15
              atCR = 0:
16
             else {
                         /* Encountered CR within line */
17
              emit(buf, pos);
18
              pos = 0;
19
20
21
            break:
         case CR:
22
            emit(buf, pos);
23
           pos = 0:
24
25
            atCR = 1:
            break:
26
         default:
27
28
            if (pos >= BUFLEN-2) fail("Buffer overflow");
            buffpos++1 = inChar:
29
         } /* switch */
30
31
       if (pos > 0) {
32
         emit(buf, pos);
33
34
35
```







Mealy Machine Formal Definition

- A Mealy machine is a 6-tuple $\mathcal{M} = (S, S_0, \Sigma, \Lambda, T, G)$ consisting of the following:
 - a finite set of states S
 - ullet a start state (also called initial state) $S_0 \in S$
 - \bullet a finite set called the input alphabet Σ
 - ullet a finite set called the output alphabet Λ
 - a (deterministic!) transition function $T: S \times \Sigma \to S$ mapping pairs of a state and an input symbol to the corresponding next state
 - an output function $G: S \times \Sigma \to \Lambda$ mapping pairs of a state and an input symbol to the corresponding output symbol.
- Given an input $w \in \Sigma^*$, \mathcal{M} outputs $o \in \Lambda^*$, |o| = |w| s.t.
 - $\forall i = 1, ..., |w|. s_i = T(s_{i-1}, w_i) \land o_i = G(s_{i-1}, w_i)$
 - $s_0 = S_0$







Data Flow Models

- CFGs, FSMs etc are a good way to represent control flow
- What about data flow?
- Again, ideas are borrowed from compilers theory
 - data flow is used to detect errors for type checking, or also opportunities for optimization
 - also used in software engineering tout court, for refactoring or reverse engineering
- As for testing, useful for:
 - select test cases based on dependence information
 - detect anomalous patterns that indicate probable programming errors, e.g. usage of uninitialized values





- Definition of a variable: either its declaration or a write access
 - for languages like Python, mostly write access...
 - write access may be:
 - left part of an assignment
 - parameter initialization in function calls
 - other special cases such as ++ construct in C-like languages
- Use of a variable: a read access
 - right part of an assignment
 - variable passed in function calls
 - variable used without being modified
- The same line of code may be both definition and use
 - typically, nearly all lines either define and/or use at least one variable

```
public int gcd(int x, int y) {
                                               /* A: def x,y */
                                                       def tmp */
              int tmp;
2
              while (y != 0) {
                                               /* B: use y */
3
                   tmp = x \% y;
                                               /* C: use x,y, def tmp */
4
                                               /* D: use y, def x */
5
                   X = Y;
                                                /* E: use tmp, def y */
6
                   y = tmp;
8
              return x;
                                               /* F: use x */
9
```





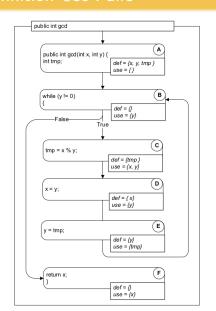
- For a given definition, there may be many uses, and viceversa
 - of course, for a fixed variable
- A definition-use pair combines a given use with the closest definition
 - w.r.t. some possible execution (path) of the code
- Other definitions behind the closest one are killed



- Consider an execution path $\pi = s_1, \dots, s_k$:
 - s_i are statements and s_i, s_{i+1} may be contiguous in π iff the control flow may go from s_i to s_{i+1}
 - e.g., from the previous code: 1,2,3,8,9 and 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,3,4,5,6,7,8,9
- Consider an execution path $\pi = s_1, \dots, s_k$:
 - if $\exists k$. use $(v) \in s_k$, let $L = \{\ell < k \mid \operatorname{def}(v) \in s_\ell\}$
 - $(d, u) = (\max L, k)$ is a definition-use pair
 - v_d reaches u or v_d is a reaching definition of u
 - s_{ℓ} is a *killed* definition if $\ell \in L \land \ell \neq \max L$
 - the sub-path $s_{\ell} \dots s_k$ is definition-clear













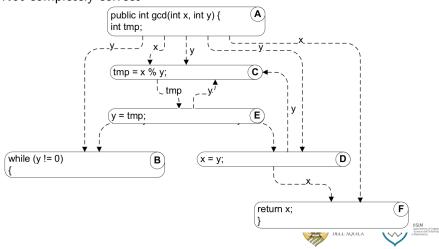
- Use-definition pairs defines a direct data dependence, can be used to build the data dependence graph
 - there is an edge (s, t) with label v iff (s, t) is a definition-use pair for variable v (for some path)
- Granularity on nodes may be tuned according to needs:
 - single expressions (especially for compilers)
 - statements (figure below)
 - basic blocks
 - etc





Definition-Use Pairs

Not completely correct



Algorithm to Generate All Reaching Definitions

```
Algorithm Reaching definitions
```

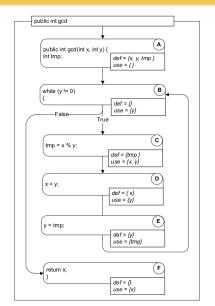
```
A control flow graph G = (nodes, edges)
Input:
           pred(n) = \{m \in nodes \mid (m,n) \in edges\}
           succ(m) = \{n \in nodes \mid (m,n) \in edges\}
           gen(n) = \{v_n\} if variable v is defined at n, otherwise \{\}
           kill(n) = all other definitions of v if v is defined at n, otherwise {}
          Reach(n) = the reaching definitions at node n
Output:
for n \in \text{nodes loop}
     ReachOut(n) = \{\}:
end loop:
workList = nodes:
while (workList \neq {}) loop
     // Take a node from worklist (e.g., pop from stack or queue)
     n = any node in workList ;
     workList = workList \setminus \{n\};
     oldVal = ReachOut(n);
     // Apply flow equations, propagating values from predecessars
     Reach(n) = \bigcup_{m \in pred(n)} ReachOut(m);
     ReachOut(n) = (Reach(n) \setminus kill(n)) \cup gen(n);
     if (ReachOut(n) \neq \text{oldVal}) then
           // Propagate changed value to successor nodes
           workList = workList \cup succ(n)
     end if:
end loop:
```

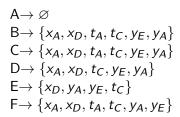






All Reaching Definitions







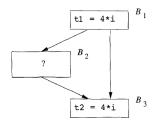
Available Expressions

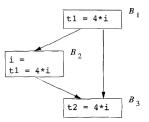
- Other uses of the control flow graph: available expressions
 - again, mutuated from compilers: when a given expression can be evaluated just once and stored for later use
 - testing: available expressions should be always tested
- An expression E is:
 - generated when its value is computed
 - killed when at least one of the variables involved changes its value
 - not necessarily by assignments, could be a side effect of a function call...
 - available at some point p iff, for all paths π from start to p, E is generated but not subsequently killed in π
- Algorithm is very similar to the reaching definitions one:
 - for available expressions, is a forward all-paths analysis
 - for reaching definitions, is a forward any-path analysis.





Available Expressions









Available Expressions

| Statement | Available Expressions |
|-----------|-----------------------|
| _ | Ø |
| a = b + c | (1) |
| b = a - d | $\{b+c\}$ |
| b - a - u | $\{a-d\}$ |
| c = b + c | (w w) |
| | $\{a-d\}$ |
| d = a - d | |
| | Ø |



Algorithm to Generate All Available Expressions

Algorithm Available expressions

```
Input:
           A control flow graph G = (nodes, edges), with a distinguished root node start.
           pred(n) = \{m \in nodes \mid (m, n) \in edges\}
           succ(m) = \{n \in nodes \mid (m, n) \in edges\}
           gen(n) = all expressions e computed at node n
           kill(n) = expressions e computed anywhere, whose value is changed at n;
                kill(start) is the set of all e.
           Avail(n) = the available expressions at node n
Output:
for n \in \text{nodes loop}
     AvailOut(n) = set of all e defined anywhere :
end loop:
workList = nodes:
while (workList \neq \{\}) loop
     // Take a node from worklist (e.g., pop from stack or queue)
     n = any node in workList ;
     workList = workList \setminus \{n\};
     oldVal = AvailOut(n);
     // Apply flow equations, propagating values from predecessors
     Avail(n) = \bigcap_{m \in pred(n)} AvailOut(m);
     AvailOut(n) = (Avail(n) \setminus kill(n)) \cup gen(n);
     if (AvailOut(n) \neq oldVal) then
           // Propagate changes to successors
           workList = workList \cup succ(n)
     end if:
```









end loop:

Algorithm to Generate All Reaching Definitions

```
Algorithm Reaching definitions
```

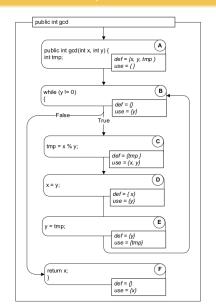
```
A control flow graph G = (nodes, edges)
Input:
           pred(n) = \{m \in nodes \mid (m,n) \in edges\}
           succ(m) = \{n \in nodes \mid (m,n) \in edges\}
           gen(n) = \{v_n\} if variable v is defined at n, otherwise \{\}
           kill(n) = all other definitions of v if v is defined at n, otherwise {}
          Reach(n) = the reaching definitions at node n
Output:
for n \in \text{nodes loop}
     ReachOut(n) = \{\}:
end loop:
workList = nodes:
while (workList \neq {}) loop
     // Take a node from worklist (e.g., pop from stack or queue)
     n = any node in workList ;
     workList = workList \setminus \{n\};
     oldVal = ReachOut(n);
     // Apply flow equations, propagating values from predecessars
     Reach(n) = \bigcup_{m \in pred(n)} ReachOut(m);
     ReachOut(n) = (Reach(n) \setminus kill(n)) \cup gen(n);
     if (ReachOut(n) \neq \text{oldVal}) then
           // Propagate changed value to successor nodes
           workList = workList \cup succ(n)
     end if:
end loop:
```

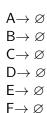






All Available Expressions





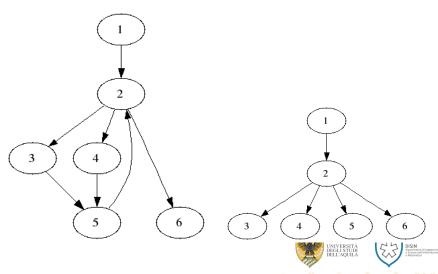




- Control dependence graph
 - nodes are statements, but again granularity may change
 - to define edges, the notion of dominators is needed
 - a node n is dominated by node m iff, for all paths π from the root to n, m is also in π
 - the (unique) immediate dominator of n is the closest dominator of n
 - i.e., with the minimum path to reach n
 - also stated as: the dominator of n which does not dominate any other dominator of n
 - dominator tree: there is an edge (s, t) iff s is the immediate dominator of t
 - for all reachable nodes there is exactly one immediate dominator
 - post-dominators: same definition, but in the everse graph
 - an exit node must be present



Dominators

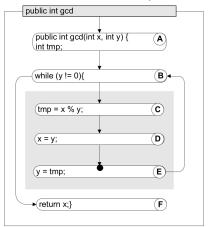


- Back to the control dependence graph: given nodes s, t, we have that (s, t) is an edge iff t is control dependent on s
- To define when t is control dependent on s, the following holds:
 - t is reached on all execution paths
 - then, t is control dependent on the root only
 - it may actually be the root itself
 - t is reached on some but not all execution paths; then for s
 the following must hold:
 - the outgoing degree of s in the CFG is at least 2
 - one of the successors of s in the CFG is post-dominated by t
 - s is not post-dominated by t





Proof that B is control dependent on E

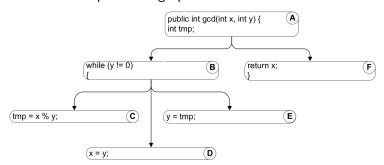


Gray region: nodes post-dominated by ENode B has successors both within and outside the gray region $\rightarrow E$ is control-dependent on B





Full control dependence graph







Data Flow Analysis with Arrays and Pointers

- Easy to perform data flow analysis on single variables
- When considering pointers and/or arrays, many difficulties arise
- Difficulty 1: definition-use on an array referenced by variables
 - e.g.: a[i] = 1; k = a[j]; is a definition-use pair iff i == j
 - too difficult to determine if such a condition is always true, always false, or sometimes true and sometimes false
- Difficulty 2: aliases obtained by full array assigment
 - e.g., b = a; a[2] = 42; i = b[2]; is a definition-use pair (or triple?) in Java





Difficulty 3: Arguments Passing

```
fromCust == toCust? fromHome == fromWork? toHome ==
toWork?

public void transfer (CustInfo fromCust, CustInfo toCust) {
    PhoneNum fromHome = fromCust.gethomePhone();
    PhoneNum fromWork = fromCust.getworkPhone();
    PhoneNum toHome = toCust.gethomePhone();
    PhoneNum toWork = toCust.getworkPhone();
```



