

Logic Coverage Overview part 2



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Outcomes

At the end of Today's Lecture you will be able to:

- Understand the basic concepts and notation for logic coverage
- Understand the different types of logic coverage criteria



Inspiration

“The trouble with programmers is that you can never tell what a programmer is doing until it's too late.” – Seymour Cray

General Active Clause Coverage

General Active Clause Coverage (GACC)

For each $p \in P$ and each major clause $c_i \in C_p$, choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i determines p . TR has two requirements for each c_i : c_i evaluates to true and c_i evaluates to false. The values chosen for the minor clauses c_j do not need to be the same when c_i is true as when c_i is false, that is, $c_j(c_i = \text{true}) = c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_j OR $c_j(c_i = \text{true}) \neq c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_j .

- This is **complicated**!
- It is possible to satisfy GACC **without satisfying** predicate coverage
- We **really want** to cause predicates to be both true and false!



Restricted ACC

Restricted Active Clause Coverage

For each $p \in P$ and each major clause $c_i \in C_p$, choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i determines p . TR has two requirements for each c_i : c_i evaluates to true and c_i evaluates to false. The values chosen for the minor clauses c_j must be the same when c_i is true as when c_i is false, that is, it is required that $c_j(c_i = \text{true}) = c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_j .

- RACC often leads to **infeasible test requirements**
- There is **no logical reason** for such a restriction



Correlated Active Clause Coverage

Correlated Active Clause Coverage (CACC)

For each p in P and each major clause c_i in C_p , choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i determines p . TR has two requirements for each c_i : c_i evaluates to true and c_i evaluates to false. The values chosen for the minor clauses c_j must cause p to be true for one value of the major clause c_i and false for the other, that is, it is required that $p(c_i = \text{true}) \neq p(c_i = \text{false})$.

- A **more recent** interpretation
- **Implicitly** allows minor clauses to have different values
- Explicitly satisfies (**subsumes**) predicate coverage



CACC and RACC

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T |
| 2 | T | T | F | T |
| 3 | T | F | T | T |
| 4 | T | F | F | F |
| 5 | F | T | T | F |
| 6 | F | T | F | F |
| 7 | F | F | T | F |
| 8 | F | F | F | F |

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T |
| 2 | T | T | F | T |
| 3 | T | F | T | T |
| 4 | T | F | F | F |
| 5 | F | T | T | F |
| 6 | F | T | F | F |
| 7 | F | F | T | F |
| 8 | F | F | F | F |

- P_a : $b = \text{true}$ or $c = \text{true}$, thus a is the major clause
- CACC can be satisfied by choosing any of rows 1, 2, 3 AND any of rows 5, 6, 7 – a total of 9 pairs
- RACC can only be satisfied by row pairs (1, 5), (2, 6), or (3, 7) – only three pairs



Inactive Clause Coverage

- The active clause coverage criteria ensure that “major” clauses **do affect** the predicates
- Inactive clause coverage takes the opposite approach – major clauses **do not affect** the predicates

Inactive Clause Coverage(ICC)

For each $p \in P$ and each major clause c_i in C_p , choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i does not determine p . TR has four requirements for each c_i : (1) c_i evaluates to true with p true, (2) c_i evaluates to false with p true, (3) c_i evaluates to true with p false, (4) c_i evaluates to false with p false.

General and Restricted ICC

- Unlike ACC, the notion of correlation is not relevant
 - c_i does not determine p , so cannot correlate with p
- Predicate coverage is always guaranteed

General Inactive Clause Coverage (GICC)

For each $p \in P$ and each major clause $c_i \in C_p$, choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i does not determine p . The values chosen for the minor clauses c_j do not need to be the same when c_i is true as when c_i is false, that is, $c_j(c_i = \text{true}) = c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_i OR $c_j(c_i = \text{false}) \neq c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_j .

Restricted Inactive Clause Coverage (RICC)

For each $p \in P$ and each major clause $c_i \in C_p$, choose minor clauses $c_j, j \neq i$, so that c_i does not determine p . The values chosen for the minor clauses c_j must be the same when c_i is true as when c_i is false, that is, it is required that $c_j(c_i = \text{true}) = c_j(c_i = \text{false})$ for all c_j .

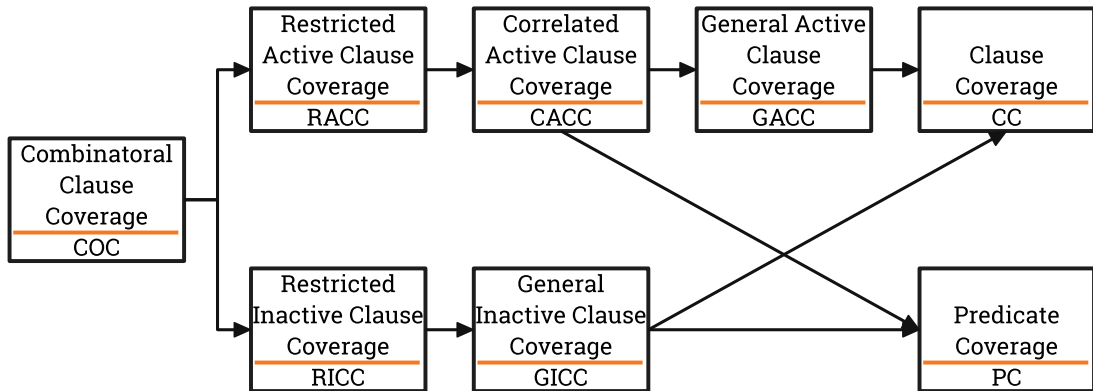


Infeasibility & Subsumption

- Consider the predicate: $(a > b \vee b > c) \vee c > a$
- $(a > b) = \text{true}, (b > c) = \text{true}, (c > a) = \text{true}$ is **infeasible**
- As with graph-based criteria, infeasible test requirements have to be **recognized** and **ignored**
- Recognizing infeasible test requirements is hard, and in general, **undecidable**
- Software testing is **inexact**-engineering, not science



Logic Criteria Subsumption





Making Clauses Determine a Predicate

- Finding values for minor clauses c_j is easy for simple predicates
- But how to find values for more complicated predicates?
- Definitional approach:
 - $p_{c=true}$ is predicate p with every occurrence of c replaced by **true**
 - $p_{c=false}$ is predicate p with every occurrence of c replaced by **false**
- To find values for the minor clauses, connect $p_{c=true}$ and $p_{c=false}$ with exclusive OR

$$p_c = p_{c=true} \oplus p_{c=false}$$

- After solving, p_c describes exactly the values needed for c to determine p

Examples

$$\underline{p = a \vee b}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= p_{a=true} \oplus p_{a=false} \\ &= (true \vee b) \oplus (false \vee b) \\ &= true \oplus b \\ &= \neg b \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{p = a \vee (b \wedge c)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= p_{a=true} \oplus p_{a=false} \\ &= (true \vee (b \wedge c)) \oplus (false \vee (b \wedge c)) \\ &= true \oplus (b \wedge c) \\ &= \neg(b \wedge c) \\ &= \neg b \vee \neg c \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{p = a \wedge b}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= p_{a=true} \oplus p_{a=false} \\ &= (true \wedge b) \oplus (false \wedge b) \\ &= b \oplus false \\ &= b \end{aligned}$$

- “ $\neg b \vee \neg c$ ” means either b or c can be false
- RACC requires the same choice for both values of, CACC does not

XOR Identity Rules

Exclusive-OR (XOR, \oplus) means both cannot be true.

That is, $A \oplus B$ means **"A or B is true, but not both"**

- $p = A \oplus A \wedge b = A \wedge \neg b$
- $p = A \oplus A \vee b = \neg A \wedge b$



Repeated Variables

- The definitions in this chapter yield the same tests no matter how the predicate is expressed
- $(a \vee b) \wedge (c \vee b) == (a \wedge c) \vee b$
- $(a \wedge b) \vee (b \wedge c) \vee (a \wedge c)$
 - Only has 8 possible tests, not 64
- Use the simplest form of the predicate, and ignore contradictory true table assignments



A More Subtle Example

Example

$$\underline{p = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge \neg b)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= p_{a=true} \oplus p_{a=false} \\ &= ((true \wedge b) \vee (true \wedge \neg b)) \oplus ((false \wedge b) \vee (false \wedge \neg b)) \\ &= (b \vee \neg b) \oplus false \\ &= true \oplus false \end{aligned}$$

- **a** always determines the value of this predicate
- **b** never determines the value – **b** is irrelevant!

Example

$$\underline{p = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge \neg b)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_b &= p_{b=true} \oplus p_{b=false} \\ &= ((a \wedge true) \vee (a \wedge \neg true)) \oplus ((a \wedge false) \vee (a \wedge \neg false)) \\ &= (a \vee false) \oplus (false \vee a) \\ &= a \oplus a \\ &= false \end{aligned}$$



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | | | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | | | |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | | |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |



Tabular Method for Determination

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- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|----------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | 1 | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | | | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | | | |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | | |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | 1 | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

b & c are the same,
 a differs, and p
differs ... thus TTT
and FTT cause a
to determine the
value of p



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|----------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | 1 | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | 2 | | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | | | |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | | |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | 1 | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | 2 | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

Again, b & c are the same, so TTF and FTF cause a to determine the value of p



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | 1 | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | 2 | | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | 3 | | |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | | |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | 1 | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | 2 | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | 3 | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

Finally, this third pair, *TFT* and *FFT*, also cause a to determine the value of p



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------|----------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | 1 | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | 2 | 4 | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | 3 | | |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | 4 | |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | 1 | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | 2 | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | 3 | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

For clause b , only one pair, TTF and TFF can cause b to determine the value of p



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | | | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | | | 5 |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | | 5 |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

Likewise, for clause c , only one pair, TFT and TFF , can cause c to determine the value of p



Tabular Method for Determination

- The math sometimes gets complicated
- A truth table can sometimes be simpler
- Example

| | a | b | c | $a \wedge (b \vee c)$ | p_a | p_b | p_c |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 | T | T | T | T | 1 | | |
| 2 | T | T | F | T | 2 | 4 | |
| 3 | T | F | T | T | 3 | | 5 |
| 4 | T | F | F | F | | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | F | T | T | F | 1 | | |
| 6 | F | T | F | F | 2 | | |
| 7 | F | F | T | F | 3 | | |
| 8 | F | F | F | F | | | |

In sum, three separate pairs of rows can cause a to determine the value of p , and only one pair each for b and c



Summary

- Predicates are often **very simple**—in practice, most have less than 3 clauses
 - In fact, most predicates only have one clause!
 - With only one clause, PC is enough
 - With 2 or 3 clauses, CoC is practical
 - Advantages of ACC and ICC criteria are significant for large predicates
- **Control software** often has many complicated predicates, with lots of clauses
- **Question** ... why don't complexity metrics count the number of clauses in predicates?



Are there any questions?