

# TESTING AND DEBUGGING

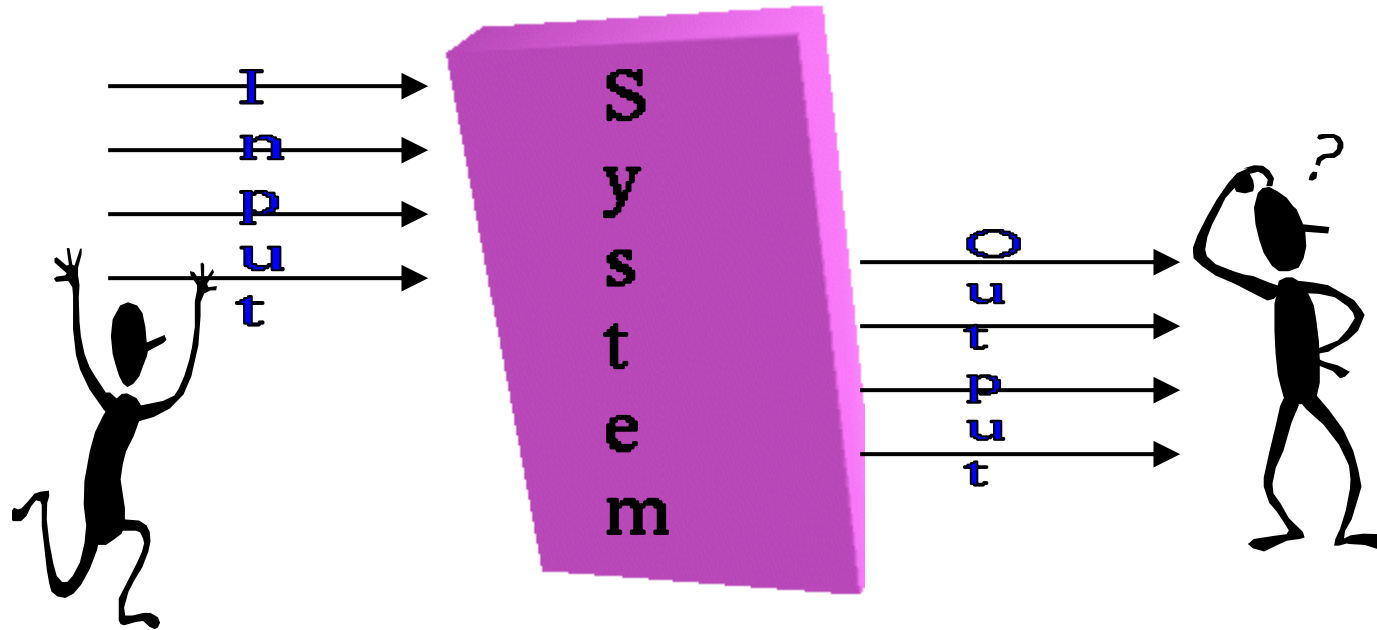
# ORGANIZATION OF THIS LECTURE

- Important concepts in program testing
- Black-box testing:
  - equivalence partitioning
  - boundary value analysis
- White-box testing
- Debugging
- Unit, Integration, and System testing
- Summary

# HOW DO YOU TEST A PROGRAM?

- Input test data to the program.
- Observe the output:
  - Check if the program behaved as expected.

# HOW DO YOU TEST A SYSTEM?



# HOW DO YOU TEST A SYSTEM?

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

# ERROR, FAULTS, AND FAILURES

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

# ERROR, FAULTS, AND FAILURES

- A fault is an incorrect state entered during program execution:
  - a variable value is different from what it should be.
  - A fault may or may not lead to a failure.

# TEST CASES AND TEST SUITES

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



# TEST CASES AND TEST SUITES

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

# VERIFICATION VERSUS VALIDATION

- Verification is the process of determining:
  - whether output of one phase of development conforms to its previous phase.
- Validation is the process of determining
  - whether a fully developed system conforms to its SRS document.

# VERIFICATION VERSUS VALIDATION

- Verification is concerned with phase containment of errors,
  - whereas the aim of validation is that the final product be error free.

# DESIGN OF TEST CASES

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

# DESIGN OF TEST CASES

- If test cases are selected randomly:
  - many test cases would not contribute to the significance of the test suite,
  - would not detect errors not already being detected by other test cases in the suite.
- Number of test cases in a randomly selected test suite:
  - not an indication of effectiveness of testing.

# DESIGN OF TEST CASES

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

# DESIGN OF TEST CASES

- The code has a simple programming error:
- If  $(x > y)$   $\text{max} = x$ ;  
                    else  $\text{max} = x$ ;
- test suite  $\{(x=3, y=2); (x=2, y=3)\}$  can detect the error,
- 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

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



# DESIGN OF TEST CASES

- There are essentially two main approaches to design test cases:
  - Black-box approach
  - White-box (or glass-box) approach

# BLACK-BOX TESTING

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

# WHITE-BOX TESTING

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

# BLACK-BOX TESTING

- There are essentially two main approaches to design black box test cases:
  - Equivalence class partitioning
  - Boundary value analysis

# EQUIVALENCE CLASS PARTITIONING

- Input values to a program are partitioned into **equivalence classes**.
- Partitioning is done such that:
  - **program behaves in similar ways to every input value belonging to an equivalence class.**

# WHY DEFINE EQUIVALENCE CLASSES?

- Test the code with just one representative value from each equivalence class:
  - as good as testing using any other values from the equivalence classes.

# EQUIVALENCE CLASS PARTITIONING

- How do you determine the equivalence classes?
  - examine the input data.
  - few general guidelines for determining the equivalence classes can be given

# EQUIVALENCE CLASS PARTITIONING

- If the input data to the program is specified by a **range of values**:
  - e.g. numbers between 1 to 5000.
  - one valid and two invalid equivalence classes are defined.



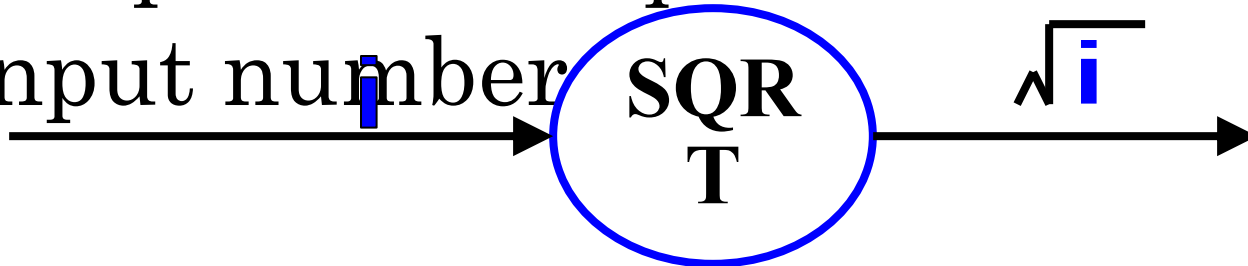


# EQUIVALENCE CLASS PARTITIONING

- If input is an enumerated set of values:
  - e.g. {a,b,c}
  - one equivalence class for valid input values
  - another equivalence class for invalid input values should be defined.

# EXAMPLE

- A program reads an input value in the range of 1 and 5000:
  - computes the square root of the input number



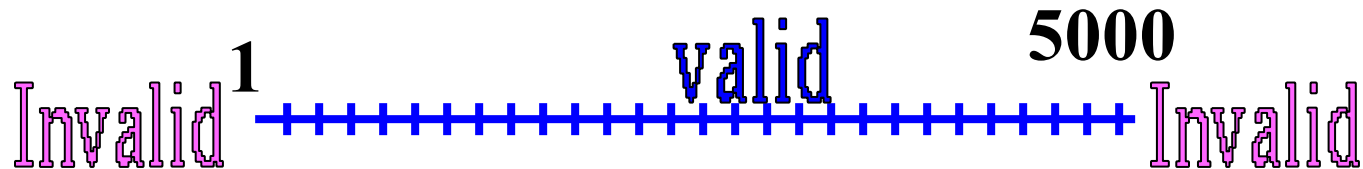
# EXAMPLE (CONT.)

- There are three equivalence classes:
  - the set of negative integers,
  - set of integers in the range of 1 and 5000,
  - integers larger than 5000.



# EXAMPLE (CONT.)

- The test suite must include:
  - representatives from each of the three equivalence classes:
  - a possible test suite can be:  
 $\{-5, 500, 6000\}$ .



# PROBLEM

- Design the Equivalence Class Test Suite for a program that reads two integer pairs  $(m_1, c_1)$  and  $(m_2, c_2)$  defining two straight lines of the form  $y=mx+c$ . The program computes the intersection of the two lines.

# BOUNDARY VALUE ANALYSIS

- Some typical programming errors occur:
  - at boundaries of equivalence classes
  - might be purely due to psychological factors.
- Programmers often fail to see:
  - special processing required at the boundaries of equivalence classes.

# BOUNDARY VALUE ANALYSIS

- Programmers may improperly use  $<$  instead of  $<=$
- Boundary value analysis:
  - select test cases at the boundaries of different equivalence classes.

# EXAMPLE

- For a function that computes the square root of an integer in the range of 1 and 5000:
  - test cases must include the values: {0,1,5000,5001}.





# WHITE-BOX TESTING

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

# WHITE-BOX TESTING

- There exist several popular white-box testing methodologies:
  - Statement coverage
  - branch coverage
  - path coverage
  - condition coverage
  - mutation testing
  - data flow-based testing

# STATEMENT COVERAGE

- Statement coverage methodology:
  - design test cases so that every statement in a program is executed at least once.

# STATEMENT COVERAGE

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

# STATEMENT COVERAGE CRITERION

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

# 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;    }
```

Euclid's GCD Algorithm

# EUCLID'S GCD COMPUTATION ALGORITHM

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

# BRANCH COVERAGE

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



# BRANCH COVERAGE

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

# STRONGER TESTING

- Test cases are a superset of a weaker testing:
  - discovers at least as many errors as a weaker testing
  - 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

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

# CONDITION COVERAGE

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

# EXAMPLE

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

# CONDITION COVERAGE

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

# CONDITION COVERAGE

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



# PATH COVERAGE

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

# LINEARLY INDEPENDENT PATHS

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

# PATH COVERAGE-BASED TESTING

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

# CONTROL FLOW GRAPH (CFG)

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

# HOW TO DRAW CONTROL FLOW GRAPH?

- Number all the statements of a program.
- Numbered statements:
  - represent nodes of the control flow graph.

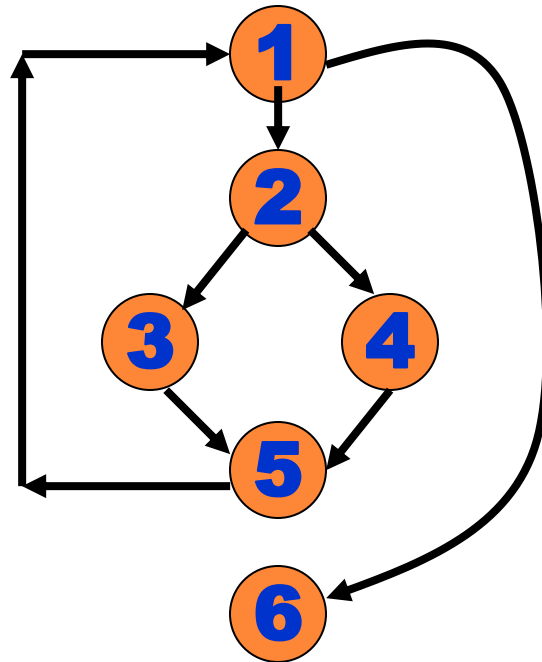
# HOW TO DRAW CONTROL FLOW GRAPH?

- An edge from one node to another node exists:
  - if execution of the statement representing the first node
    - can result in transfer of control to the other node.

# 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

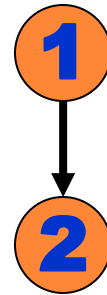




# HOW TO DRAW CONTROL FLOW GRAPH?

- Sequence:

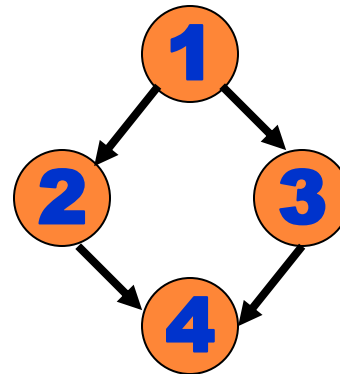
- 1  $a=5;$
- 2  $b=a*b-1;$



# HOW TO DRAW CONTROL FLOW GRAPH?

## ○ Selection:

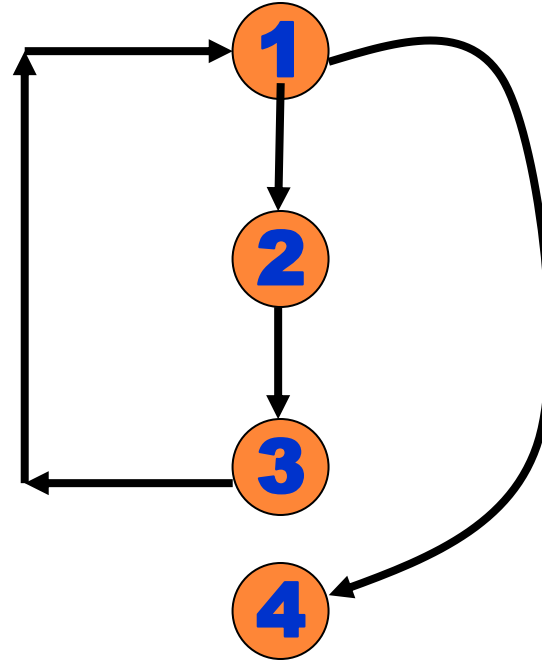
- 1 if(a>b) then
- 2       c=3;
- 3 else   c=5;
- 4 c=c\*c;



# HOW TO DRAW CONTROL FLOW GRAPH?

## ○ Iteration:

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



# PATH

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

# INDEPENDENT PATH

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

# INDEPENDENT PATH

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

# McCABE'S CYCLOMATIC METRIC

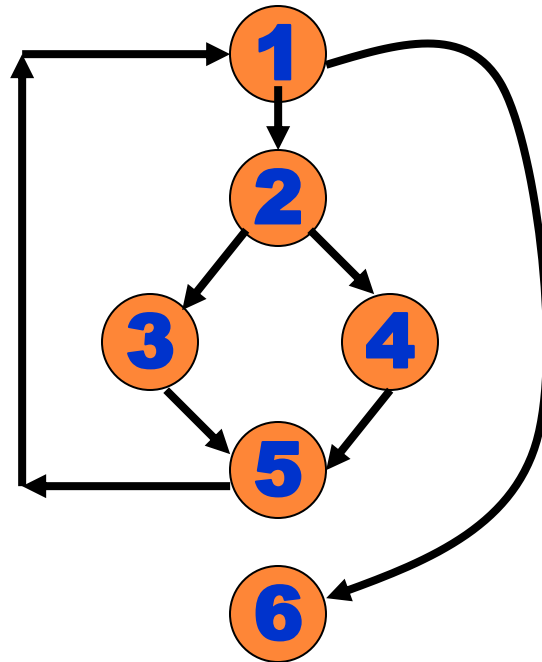
- An upper bound:
  - for the number of linearly independent paths of a program
- Provides a practical way of determining:
  - the maximum number of linearly independent paths in a program.

# McCABE'S CYCLOMATIC METRIC

- Given a control flow graph  $G$ , cyclomatic complexity  $V(G)$ :
  - $V(G) = E - N + 2$ 
    - $N$  is the number of nodes in  $G$
    - $E$  is the number of edges in  $G$



# EXAMPLE CONTROL FLOW GRAPH



# EXAMPLE

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

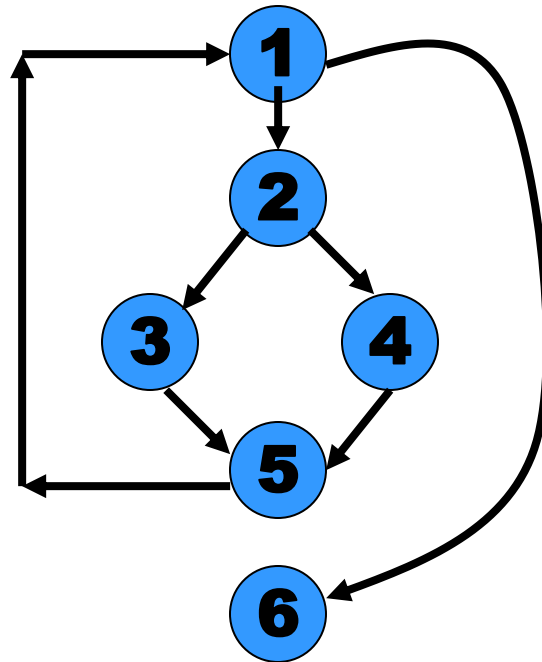
# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# BOUNDED AREA

- Any region enclosed by a nodes and edge sequence.

# EXAMPLE CONTROL FLOW GRAPH



# EXAMPLE

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

# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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



# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# PATH TESTING

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

# PATH TESTING

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

# DERIVATION OF TEST CASES

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

# DERIVATION OF TEST CASES

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

# AN INTERESTING APPLICATION OF CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

- Cyclomatic complexity of a program:
  - also indicates the psychological complexity of a program.
  - difficulty level of understanding the program.



# CYCLOMATIC COMPLEXITY

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

# DATA FLOW-BASED TESTING

- Selects test paths of a program:
  - according to the locations of
    - definitions and uses of different variables in a program.

# DATA FLOW-BASED TESTING

- For a statement numbered  $S$ ,
  - $DEF(S) = \{X/\text{statement } S \text{ contains a definition of } X\}$
  - $USES(S) = \{X/\text{statement } S \text{ contains a use of } X\}$
  - Example: 1:  $a=b$ ;  $DEF(1)=\{a\}$ ,  $USES(1)=\{b\}$ .
  - Example: 2:  $a=a+b$ ;  $DEF(2)=\{a\}$ ,  $USES(2)=\{a,b\}$ .

## DATA FLOW-BASED TESTING

- A variable  $X$  is said to be **live** at statement  $S1$ , if
  - $X$  is defined at a statement  $S$ :
  - there exists a path from  $S$  to  $S1$  not containing any definition of  $X$ .

## DU CHAIN EXAMPLE

```
1 X(){  
2   a=5; /* Defines variable a */  
3   While(C1) {  
4     if (C2)  
5       b=a*a; /*Uses  
variable a */  
6     else a=a-1; /* Defines  
variable a */  
7   }  
8   print(a); } /*Uses variable a  
*/
```

## DEFINITION-USE CHAIN (DU CHAIN)

- $[X, S, S1]$ ,
  - $S$  and  $S1$  are statement numbers,
  - $X$  in  $DEF(S)$
  - $X$  in  $USES(S1)$ , and
  - the definition of  $X$  in the statement  $S$  is live at statement  $S1$ .

# DATA FLOW-BASED TESTING

- One simple data flow testing strategy:
  - every DU chain in a program be covered at least once.

# DATA FLOW-BASED TESTING

- Data flow testing strategies:
  - useful for selecting test paths of a program containing nested if and loop statements



## DEFINITION-USE BASED TESTING

- A definition-use (DU) chain of a variable  $X$  is of form  $[X, S, S1]$ , where
  - $X \in \text{DEF}(S)$
  - $X \in \text{USES}(S1)$

And the definition of  $X$  in the statement  $S$  is live at statement  $S1$ .

- ***DU*** or ***data flow testing strategy*** is to require that every DU chain be covered at least once.

# DEFINITION-USE BASED TESTING

```
int gcd(int a, int b){
    int c = a;
    int d = b;
    if(c == 0)
        return d;
    while(d != 0){
        if(c > d)
            c = c - d;
        else
            d = d - c;
    }
    return c;
}
```

## DU Chains

1. [d, d=b, return d]
2. [d, d=b, while(d!=0)]
3. [d, d=b, if(c>d)]
4. [d, d=b, c=c-d]
5. [d, d=b, d=d-c]
6. [d, d=d-c, while(d!=0)]
7. [d, d=d-c, if(c>d)]
8. [d, d=d-c, c=c-d]
9. [d, d=d-c, d=d-c]

# MUTATION TESTING

- The software is first tested:
  - using an initial testing method based on white-box strategies we already discussed.
- After the initial testing is complete,
  - mutation testing is taken up.
- The idea behind mutation testing:
  - make a few arbitrary small changes to a program at a time.

# MUTATION TESTING

- Each time the program is changed,
  - it is called a **mutated program**
  - the change is called a **mutant**.

# MUTATION TESTING

- A mutated program:
  - tested against the full test suite of the program.
- If there exists at least one test case in the test suite for which:
  - a mutant gives an incorrect result,
  - then the mutant is said to be dead.

# MUTATION TESTING

- If a mutant remains alive:
  - even after all test cases have been exhausted,
  - the test suite is enhanced to kill the mutant.
- The process of generation and killing of mutants:
  - can be automated by predefining a set of primitive changes that can be applied to the program.

# MUTATION TESTING

- The primitive changes can be:
  - altering an arithmetic operator,
  - changing the value of a constant,
  - changing a data type, etc.

# MUTATION TESTING

- A major disadvantage of mutation testing:
  - computationally very expensive,
  - a large number of possible mutants can be generated.



# DEBUGGING

- Once errors are identified:
  - it is necessary identify the precise location of the errors and to fix them.
- Each debugging approach has its own advantages and disadvantages:
  - each is useful in appropriate circumstances.

# BRUTE-FORCE METHOD

- This is the most common method of debugging:
  - least efficient method.
  - program is loaded with print statements
  - print the intermediate values
  - hope that some of printed values will help identify the error.

# SYMBOLIC DEBUGGER

- Brute force approach becomes more systematic:
  - with the use of a symbolic debugger,
  - symbolic debuggers get their name for historical reasons
  - early debuggers let you only see values from a program dump:
    - determine which variable it corresponds to.

# SYMBOLIC DEBUGGER

- Using a symbolic debugger:
  - values of different variables can be easily checked and modified
  - single stepping to execute one instruction at a time
  - **break points** and **watch points** can be set to test the values of variables.

# BACKTRACKING

- This is a fairly common approach.
- Beginning at the statement where an error symptom has been observed:
  - source code is traced backwards until the error is discovered.

# BACKTRACKING

- Unfortunately, as the number of source lines to be traced back increases,
  - the number of potential backward paths increases
  - becomes unmanageably large for complex programs.

# CAUSE-ELIMINATION METHOD

- Determine a list of causes:
  - which could possibly have contributed to the error symptom.
  - tests are conducted to eliminate each.
- A related technique of identifying error by examining error symptoms:
  - software fault tree analysis.

# PROGRAM SLICING

- This technique is similar to back tracking.
- However, the search space is reduced by defining slices.
- A slice is defined for a particular variable at a particular statement:
  - set of source lines preceding this statement which can influence the value of the variable.



# EXAMPLE

```
int main(){  
    int i,s;  
    i=1; s=1;  
    while(i<=10){  
        s=s+i;  
        i++;}  
    printf(“%d”,s);  
    printf(“%d”,i);  
}
```

# DEBUGGING GUIDELINES

- Debugging usually requires a thorough understanding of the program design.
- Debugging may sometimes require full redesign of the system.
- A common mistake novice programmers often make:
  - not fixing the error but the error symptoms.

# DEBUGGING GUIDELINES

- Be aware of the possibility:
  - an error correction may introduce new errors.
- After every round of error-fixing:
  - regression testing must be carried out.

# PROGRAM ANALYSIS TOOLS

- An automated tool:
  - takes program source code as input
  - produces reports regarding several important characteristics of the program,
  - such as size, complexity, adequacy of commenting, adherence to programming standards, etc.

# PROGRAM ANALYSIS TOOLS

- Some program analysis tools:
  - produce reports regarding the adequacy of the test cases.
- There are essentially two categories of program analysis tools:
  - Static analysis tools
  - Dynamic analysis tools

# STATIC ANALYSIS TOOLS

- Static analysis tools:
  - assess properties of a program without executing it.

# STATIC ANALYSIS TOOLS

- Whether coding standards have been adhered to?
  - Commenting is adequate?
- Programming errors such as:
  - uninitialized variables
  - mismatch between actual and formal parameters.
  - Variables declared but never used, etc.

# STATIC ANALYSIS TOOLS

- Code walk through and inspection can also be considered as static analysis methods:
  - however, the term static program analysis is generally used for automated analysis tools.



# DYNAMIC ANALYSIS TOOLS

- Dynamic program analysis tools require the program to be executed:
  - its behavior recorded.
  - Produce reports such as adequacy of test cases.

# DYNAMIC ANALYSIS TOOLS

## ○ Code Instrumentation

- Achieved by inserting additional statements to the code
- To collect the execution trace of the program.

# SUMMARY

- Exhaustive testing of almost any non-trivial system is impractical.
  - we need to design an optimal test suite that would expose as many errors as possible.

# SUMMARY

- If we select test cases randomly:
  - many of the test cases may not add to the significance of the test suite.
- There are two approaches to testing:
  - black-box testing
  - white-box testing.

# SUMMARY

- Black box testing is also known as functional testing.
- Designing black box test cases:
  - requires understanding only SRS document
  - does not require any knowledge about design and code.
- Designing white box testing requires knowledge about design and code.

# SUMMARY

- We discussed black-box test case design strategies:
  - equivalence partitioning
  - boundary value analysis
- We discussed some important issues in integration and system testing.