

# Functional Testing

# Black-box testing: Recap

- White-box testing techniques done so far:
  - Graphs and graphs coverage criteria as applied to code and design sequencing constraints.
  - Logic coverage criteria as applied to code and design models as FSMs.
  - Symbolic testing.
- Black-box testing involves testing a code/design without knowledge about its internals (like the actual code structure, statement, design details etc.)
  - Deals only with inputs and outputs applied to code/design/requirements.

# Functional Testing

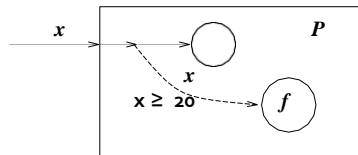
- The term **functional testing** was introduced by W. E. Howden in the late 1970s.
- A program  $P$  is viewed as a **function** transforming inputs to outputs. Given inputs  $x_i$ ,  $P$  computes outputs  $y_i$  such that  $y_i = P(x_i)$ .
- Examples:
  - A sorting program: the input  $x_i$  is an array of numbers and the output  $y_i$  is the array in sorted order.
  - A compiler: the input is a program and the output is the resulting object code.

# Functional testing: Important steps

- 1 Precisely identify the *domain* of each input and each output variable.
- 2 Select values from the data domain of each variable having *important properties*.
- 3 Consider *combinations* of special values from different input domains to design test cases.
- 4 Consider input values such that the program under test produces *special* values from the domains of the output variables.

# Testing a function in context

- Even though functional testing is a black-box testing technique, sometimes, we need to know minimal *context* information to get relevant values for inputs and outputs.
- Consider a program  $P$  and a function  $f$  in  $P$  as shown in the figure below.



# Testing a function in context, contd.

- Suppose  $x$  is a floating point variable and we are unaware of the predicate  $x \geq 20$ .
- We are likely to test for the following input values for  $x$ :  
 $x = +k$ ,  $x = -k$ ,  $x = 0$ , where  $k$  is a number with a large magnitude.
- The function  $f$  will be invoked just once, for  $x = +k$ .
- The valid range for input  $x$  with respect to testing  $f$  will be  $x = k$  where  $k$  is a number much larger than 20,  $x = y$ , where  $20 < y < k$  and  $x = 20$ .

# Types of functional testing

- Equivalence class partitioning
- Boundary value analysis
- Decision tables
- Random testing
- Pair-wise testing: Orthogonal arrays
- Cause-effect diagram

# Equivalence class partitioning

- If the input domain is too large for all its elements to be used as test cases, the input domain is **partitioned** into a finite number of sub-domains for selecting test inputs.
- Each sub-domain is known as an **equivalence class**.
- One sub-domain serves as a source for selecting one test input, any one input from each domain is good enough.
- All inputs from one sub-domain have the *same effect* in the program, i.e., output will be the same.
- We will do equivalence class partitioning in detail in the next lecture.



# Equivalence class partitioning: Example

Consider a software system that computes income tax based on adjusted gross income (AGI) according to the following rules:

- If AGI is between \$1 and \$29,500, the tax due is 22% of AGI.
- If AGI is between \$29,501 and \$58,500, the tax due is 27% of AGI.
- If AGI is between \$58,501 and \$100 billion, the tax due is 30% of AGI.

## Equivalence class partitioning: Example, contd.

We get five partitions as below:

- $1 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 29,500$ : Valid input.
- $\text{AGI} < 1$ : Invalid input.
- $29,501 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 58,500$ : Valid input.
- $58,501 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 100 \text{ billion}$ : Valid input.
- $\text{AGI} > 1 \text{ billion}$ : Invalid input.

Five test cases, each containing one number for AGI in the above range will suffice for testing the tax requirement based on AGI.

# Boundary value analysis

- **Boundary Value Analysis (BVA)** is about selecting test inputs near the boundary of a data domain so that the data both within and outside an equivalence class are selected.
- BVA produces test inputs near the boundaries to find failures caused by incorrect implementation at the boundaries.
- Once equivalence class partitioning partitions the inputs, boundary values are chosen on and around the boundaries of the partitions to generate test input for BVA.
- Programmers often make mistakes at boundary values and hence BVA helps to test around the boundaries.

# Guidelines for BVA

- The partition specifies a range: Construct test cases by considering the boundary points of the range and the points just beyond the boundaries of the range.
- The partition specifies a number of values: Construct test cases for the minimum and the maximum value of the number. In addition, select a value smaller than the minimum and a value larger than the maximum.
- The partition specifies an ordered set: Consider the first and last elements of the set.

# BVA: An example

Consider the AGI and the five partitions that were identified for equivalence class partitioning.

BVA test cases for the partitions will be as follows:

- $1 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 29,500$ : BVA values will be 0, 1, -1, 1.5, 29,499.5, 29,500, 29,500.5.
- $\text{AGI} < 1$ : BVA values will be 0, 1, -1, -100 billion.
- $29,501 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 58,500$ : BVA values will be 29,500, 29,500.5, 29,501, 58,499, 58,500, 58,500.5, 58,501.
- $58,501 \leq \text{AGI} \leq 100 \text{ billion}$ : BVA values will be 58,500, 58,500.5, 58,501, 100 billion, 101 billion.
- $\text{AGI} > 1 \text{ billion}$ : BVA values will be 100 billion, 101 billion, 10000 billion.

# Decision tables

- Equivalence partitioning considers each input separately, we cannot combine conditions.
- **Decision tables** handle multiple inputs by considering different combinations of equivalence classes.
- Very popular to test several different categories of software.

# Decision table

		Rules or Combinations							
Conditions	Values	$R_1$	$R_2$	$R_3$	$R_4$	$R_5$	$R_6$	$R_7$	$R_8$
$C_1$	Y, N, -	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N
$C_2$	Y, N, -	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	N	N
$C_3$	Y, N, -	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Effects									
$E_1$		1		2	1				
$E_2$			2	1			2	1	
$E_3$		2	1	3		1	1		

# Decision table

A decision table has

- A set of **conditions** and a set of **effects** arranged in a column.
- Each condition has possible value (yes (Y), no(N), don't care(-)) in the second column.
- For each combination of the three conditions there are a set of rules from  $R_1$  to  $R_8$ . Each rule has a Y/N/- response and contains an associated set of effects ( $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ ).
- For each effect, an **effect sequence number** specifies the order in which the effect should be carried out if the associated set of conditions are satisfied. For e.g., if  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are true but  $C_3$  is not true, then  $E_2$  should be followed by  $E_3$ . combinations the decision table represents.



# Decision table: Example

Conditions	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Repayment amount has been mentioned	Y	Y	N	N
Terms of loan has been mentioned	Y	N	Y	N
Effects	Y	Y	—	—
Process loan amount	Y	—	Y	—
Process term	—	—	—	Y
Error message				

# Random testing

- In **random testing**, test inputs are selected randomly from the input domain.
- Example: Consider computing  $\text{sqrt}(x)$ , where  $x$  is an integer that takes values from 1 to  $10^8$  with equal likelihood and that the result must be accurate to within  $2 \times 10^{-4}$ .
- To test this program, one can generate uniformly distributed pseudo-random inputs  $t$  and obtain outputs  $z$ .
- For each  $t$ , we compare outputs  $z$  and  $z^2$  and compare  $z^2$  with  $t$ . If any of the outputs fails to be within  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  of the desired results, the program must be fixed and test repeated.

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