DeepGini: Prioritizing Massive Tests to Enhance the Robustness of Deep Neural Networks

Yang Feng State Key Lab for Novel Software Technology, Nanjing University Nanjing, China fengyang@nju.edu.cn

Jun Wan Ant Financial Services Group Hangzhou, China wukun.wj@antfin.com Qingkai Shi The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Hong Kong, China qshiaa@cse.ust.hk

Chunrong Fang
State Key Lab for Novel Software
Technology, Nanjing University
Nanjing, China
fangchunrong@nju.edu.cn

Xinyu Gao State Key Lab for Novel Software Technology, Nanjing University Nanjing, China mf1932046@smail.nju.edu.cn

Zhenyu Chen State Key Lab for Novel Software Technology, Nanjing University Nanjing, China zychen@nju.edu.cn

ABSTRACT

Deep neural networks (DNN) have been deployed in many software systems to assist in various classification tasks. In company with the fantastic effectiveness in classification, DNNs could also exhibit incorrect behaviors and result in accidents and losses. Therefore, testing techniques that can detect incorrect DNN behaviors and improve DNN quality are extremely necessary and critical. However, the testing oracle, which defines the correct output for a given input, is often not available in the automated testing. To obtain the oracle information, the testing tasks of DNN-based systems usually require expensive human efforts to label the testing data, which significantly slows down the process of quality assurance.

To mitigate this problem, we propose DeepGini, a test prioritization technique designed based on a statistical perspective of DNN. Such a statistical perspective allows us to reduce the problem of measuring misclassification probability to the problem of measuring set impurity, which allows us to quickly identify possibly-misclassified tests. To evaluate, we conduct an extensive empirical study on popular datasets and prevalent DNN models. The experimental results demonstrate that DeepGini outperforms existing coverage-based techniques in prioritizing tests regarding both effectiveness and efficiency. Meanwhile, we observe that the tests prioritized at the front by DeepGini are more effective in improving the DNN quality in comparison with the coverage-based techniques.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Software and its engineering \rightarrow Software testing and debugging.

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than the author(s) must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

ISSTA '20, July 18-22, 2020, Virtual Event, USA

© 2020 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). Publication rights licensed to ACM. ACM ISBN 978-1-4503-8008-9/20/07...\$15.00 https://doi.org/10.1145/3395363.3397357

KEYWORDS

Deep Learning, Test Case Prioritization, Deep Learning Testing.

ACM Reference Format:

Yang Feng, Qingkai Shi, Xinyu Gao, Jun Wan, Chunrong Fang, and Zhenyu Chen. 2020. DeepGini: Prioritizing Massive Tests to Enhance the Robustness of Deep Neural Networks. In *Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGSOFT International Symposium on Software Testing and Analysis (ISSTA '20), July 18–22, 2020, Virtual Event, USA.* ACM, New York, NY, USA, 12 pages. https://doi.org/10.1145/3395363.3397357

1 INTRODUCTION

We are entering the era of deep learning, which has been widely adopted in many areas. Famous applications of deep learning include image classification [13], autonomous driving [2], speech recognition [45], playing games [35], and so on. Although for the well-defined tasks, such as in the case of Go [35], deep learning has achieved or even surpassed the human-level capability, it still has many issues on reliability and quality. These issues could cause significant losses such as in the accidents caused by the self-driving car of Google and Tesla [7, 36, 50].

Testing is considered to be the common practice for software quality assurance. However, testing on DNN-based software is significantly different from conventional software because, while conventional software depends on programmers to manually build up the business logic, DNNs are constructed based on a data-driven programming paradigm. Thus, sufficient test data, with oracle information, is critical for detecting misbehaviors of DNN-based software. Unfortunately, like the testing techniques for conventional software, DNN testing also faces the problem that automated testing oracle is often unavailable. For example, it costs more than 49,000 workers from 167 countries for about 9 years to label the data in ImageNet [8], one of the largest visual recognition datasets containing millions of images in more than 20,000 categories.

Specially, in the context of testing DNN-based systems, software testers often focus on the tests that can cause the system to behave incorrectly, because diagnosing these tests can provide insights into various problems in the program. This fact naturally motivates us to propose a technique to prioritize tests so that fault-inducing tests can be labeled and analyzed before the other tests. In this

manner, we can obtain maximum benefit from human efforts, even the labeling process is prematurely halted at some arbitrary point due to resource limit.

In the past decades, many test prioritization techniques have been proposed for conventional software systems [10, 31, 46]. In these techniques, code coverage is employed as the metric to guide the prioritization procedure. Two main coverage-based techniques are known as coverage-total and coverage-additional test prioritization [46]. A coverage-total method prioritizes tests based on their individual total coverage rate. That is, we prefer a test to the other one if it covers more program elements. A coverage-additional method differs from the coverage-total method in that, it prefers a test if it can cover more program elements that have not been covered by previous tests.

Unfortunately, for DNN-based systems, although several neuroncoverage criteria have been proposed by software engineering researchers [22, 25], the aforementioned coverage-based methods are not effective as expected, due to some new challenges:

- First, these criteria are proposed to measure testing adequacy.
 It is often not clear how to improve the DNN quality after testing a DNN with these coverage criteria.
- Second, some coverage criteria cannot distinguish the fault detection capability of different tests. Thus, we cannot prioritize them effectively using the coverage-total prioritization method. For example, given a DNN, every test of the DNN has the same top-k neuron coverage rate [22]. As a result, the coverage-total method becomes meaningless using this coverage criterion.
- Third, for most of existing neuron coverage criteria, only a few tests in a test set can achieve the maximum coverage rate of the set. For example, using the top-k neuron coverage [22], we only need about 1% tests in a test set to achieve the maximum coverage rate of the test set. In this case, the coverage-additional method becomes useless because it stops working after prioritizing the first 1% tests.
- Fourth, coverage-additional method usually takes very high time complexity O(mn²), where m is the number of elements, e.g., neurons, to cover and n is the number of tests. Since n and m are usually very large for a DNN, this method is not scalable.

To overcome the aforementioned problems and effectively improve the DNN quality, in this paper, we propose a test prioritization technique called DeepGini, especially for image-classification DNNs. DeepGini does not prioritize tests as conventional coveragebased approaches but is based on a statistical perspective of DNN. Such a statistical perspective allows us to reduce the problem of measuring misclassification probability to the problem of measuring set impurity [26]. Intuitively, a test is likely to be misclassified by a DNN if the DNN outputs similar probabilities for each class. Thus, this metric yields the maximum value when DNN outputs the same probability for each class. For example, if a DNN outputs a vector (0.5, 0.5), it means that the DNN is not confident about its classification because the test has the same probability (i.e., 0.5) to be classified into the two classes. In this case, the DNN is more likely to make mistakes. In contrast, if the DNN outputs (0.9, 0.1), it implies that the DNN is confident that the test should be classified

into the first class. Compared to the coverage-based approaches, DeepGini has the following advantages:

- Tests are more distinguishable using our metric than existing neuron coverage criteria. This is because it is not likely that different tests have the same output vector but tests usually have the same coverage rate as discussed above.
- It is not necessary for us to record a great deal of intermediate information to compute coverage rate. We prioritize tests only based on the output vector of a DNN. Since it is not necessary for us to understand the internal structure of a DNN, our approach is much easier to use. Meanwhile, it is also more secure because we do not need to look into a DNN and, thus, sensitive information in a DNN is protected.
- The time complexity of DeepGini is the same with the coveragetotal approach but much less than the coverage-additional approach. Thus, our approach is as scalable as coverage-total approaches but much more scalable than coverage-additional approaches.
- Tests prioritized at the front by DeepGini are more effective to improve the DNN quality than those prioritized at the back and those prioritized at the front but by coverage-based prioritization techniques.

We notice that our approach requires to run all tests to obtain the output vectors so that the likelihood of misclassification can be calculated. However, we argue that this is not a significant weakness. First, this issue is shared with all coverage-based prioritization methods as they also need to run tests to obtain the coverage rates. Second, the time cost to run a DNN is not time-consuming like training the DNN. Compared to the expensive cost of manually labeling all tests in a messy order, the time cost is completely negligible.

We compare DeepGini with coverage-based methods using existing neuron coverage criteria. The effectiveness of our approach is evaluated from two aspects. First, we compute the value of Average Percentage of Fault-Detection (APFD) [46], which is a standard method of evaluating prioritization techniques. Second, we evaluate if our technique can improve the quality of DNN. To this end, we add the tests prioritized at the front to the training set and compare the accuracy of the re-trained DNN to the original one. The experimental results demonstrate that DeepGini is close to the optimal solution in terms of the value of APFD, and DeepGini is also more effective to improve the DNN quality. In summary, we make the following contributions in this paper:

- We propose an effective and efficient approach, DeepGini, to prioritizing DNN tests.
- We demonstrate that tests prioritized at the front by Deep-Gini are effective to improve the DNN quality.
- We show the weaknesses of neuron coverage criteria in test prioritization and DNN enhancement.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the background knowledge of deep learning and test prioritization. Section 3 presents our approach to prioritizing tests and its application to improving the DNN quality. Section 4 takes us to the empirical study, in which we introduce the settings of the evaluation. Section 5 discusses the experimental results, which demonstrate the effectiveness and efficiency of our approach. Section 6 surveys the related work and Section 7 concludes this paper.

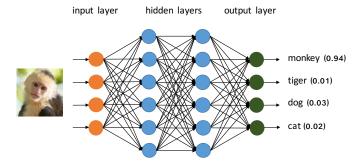


Figure 1: An example to illustrate the DNN structure.

2 BACKGROUND

In this section, we introduce the basic knowledge of DNN and conventional test prioritization techniques.

2.1 Deep Neural Networks

Classification deep neural networks (DNN) are the core of many deep learning systems. As shown in Figure 1, a DNN consists of multiple layers, i.e., an input layer, an output layer, and one or more hidden layers. Each layer is made up of a series of neurons. The neurons from different layers are interconnected by weighted edges. Each neuron is a computing unit that applies an activation function on its inputs and the weights of the incoming edges. The computed result is passed to the next layer through the edges. The weights of the edges are not specified directly by software developers, but automatically learned by a training process with a large set of labeled training data. After training, a DNN then can be used to automatically classify an input object, e.g., an image with an animal, into its corresponding class, e.g., the animal species.

Suppose we have a DNN that classifies objects into N classes. Given an input, the DNN will output a vector of N values, e.g., $\langle v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_N \rangle$, each of which represents how much the system thinks the input corresponds to each class. Using a softmax function [9], it is easy to normalize this vector to $\langle p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_N \rangle$ where $\Sigma_{i=1}^N p_i = 1$ and p_i indicates the probability that an input belongs to the ith class. From now on, with no loss of generality, we assume that the output vector of a DNN is a vector of probabilities as described above.

2.2 Neuron Coverage Criteria

To enhance the quality and robustness of DNNs, in the past decade, software engineering researchers have proposed a series of neuron coverage criteria specifically for DNN testing [15, 22, 25, 42]. In this section, we survey the related papers published on peer reviewed venues as follows.

Neuron Activation Coverage (NAC(k)) [25]. NAC(k) is proposed based on the assumption that higher activation coverage implies that more states of a DNN could be explored. The parameter k of this coverage criterion is defined by users and specifies how a neuron in a DNN can be counted as covered. That is, if the output of a neuron is larger than k, then this neuron will be counted as covered. The rate of NAC(k) for a test is defined as the ratio of the number of covered neurons to the total number of neurons.

k-Multisection Neuron Coverage (KMNC(k)) [22]. Suppose that the output of a neuron o is located in an interval [low_o , $high_o$], where low_o and $high_o$ are recorded in the training process. To use this coverage criterion, the interval [low_o , $high_o$] is divided into k equal sections, and the goal is to cover all the sections. We say a section is covered by a test if and only if the neuron output is located in the section when the DNN is run against the test. The rate of KMNC(k) for a test is defined as the ratio of the number of covered sections to the total number of sections. Here, the total number of sections is equal to k times the total number of neurons.

In most cases, a single test must cover a section in $[low_o, high_o]$ of each neuron. Only a tiny number of tests do not cover a section in the interval, but cover the boundaries, i.e., $(-\infty, low_o]$ and $[high_o, +\infty)$. Thus, almost all single tests have the same coverage rate of KMNC(k).

Neuron Boundary Coverage (NBC(k)) [22]. Different from KMNC(k), NBC(k) does not aim to cover all sections in $[low_o, high_o]$. Instead, it targets to cover the boundaries, i.e., $(-\infty, low_o]$ and $[high_o, +\infty)$. Using this coverage criterion, we can expect to cover more corner cases. In practice, it is not necessary to directly use low_o and $high_o$ as the boundaries. Instead, $low_o - k\sigma$ and $high_o + k\sigma$ can be used. Here, σ is the standard deviation of the outputs of a neuron recorded in the training process. k is a user-defined parameter. The rate of NBC(k) for a test is defined as the ratio of the number of covered boundaries to the total number of boundaries. Since each neuron has one upper bound and one lower bound, the total number of boundaries is twice the number of neurons.

Strong Neuron Activation Coverage (SNAC(k)) [22]. SNAC(k) can be regarded as a special case of NBC(k) as it only takes upper boundary into consideration. Thus, it is defined as the ratio of the number of covered upper boundaries to the total number of upper boundaries, in which the latter is actually equal to the number of neurons in a DNN.

Top-k **Neuron Coverage (TKNC**(k)) [22]. TKNC(k) measures how many neurons have once been the most active k neurons on each layer. It is defined as the ratio of the total number of top-k neurons on each layer to the total number of neurons in a DNN. We say a neuron is covered by a test if and only if when the DNN is run against the test, the output of the neuron is larger than or equal to the kth highest value in the layer of the neuron.

It is noteworthy that, according to this definition, this metric only can be used to compare two test sets with more than one test. For a single test, it always covers k neurons in each layer of a DNN. Thus, TKNC(k) is always the same for two single tests and, thus, cannot distinguish them.

Likelihood- and Distance-based Surprise Coverage (LSC(k) and **DSC**(k)) [15]. Surprise coverage relies on the concept of surprise adequacy SA(x), which measures the dissimilarity between a test x and the training data set. The parameter k here is a pair (n, u). Given an upper bound u and buckets $B = \{b_1, b_2, \cdots, b_n\}$ that divides (0, u] into n SA segments, the surprise coverage rate of a set X of tests is defined as

$$SC(X) = \frac{|\{b_i | \exists x \in X : SA(x) \in \left(u * \frac{i-1}{n}, u * \frac{i}{n}\right]\}|}{n}$$

LSC and DSC, two special types of surprise coverage, rely on likelihood-based surprise adequacy (LSA) and distance-based surprise adequacy (DSA), respectively. LSA uses kernel density estimation [41] to estimate the surprise adequacy while DSA uses Euclidean distance. The details on the computation of DSA and LSA are omitted and can be found in the original paper [15].

2.3 Coverage-Based Test Prioritization

In conventional software testing, test prioritization (a.k.a., test case prioritization) is actually a classic problem defined by Rothermel et al. [31] as following:

Test Prioritization. Given a test set T, the set PT of the permutations of T, and a function f from PT to the real numbers, the test prioritization problem is to find $T' \in PT$ such that

$$\forall T^{\prime\prime} \in PT \setminus \{T^{\prime}\} : f(T^{\prime}) \ge f(T^{\prime\prime}).$$

Here, $f(T' \in PT)$ yields an award value for a permutation.

In the past decades, many test prioritization techniques have been proposed for conventional software. Most of these techniques are based on various code coverage information and follow the basic assumption that early maximization of coverage would lead to early detection of faults [10]. Two main coverage-based techniques are known as the coverage-total prioritization and the coverage-additional prioritization [46].

Coverage-Total Method (CTM). A CTM is an implementation of the "next best" strategy. It always selects the test with the highest coverage rate, followed by the test with the second-highest coverage rate, and so on. For tests with the same coverage rate, the method will prioritize them randomly. For the example in Table 1, both *A*, *B*, *C*, *D* and *A*, *B*, *D*, *C* are valid results of CTM.

CTM is attractive because it is relatively efficient and easy to implement. Given a set consisting of n tests with their coverage rates, CTM only needs to sort these tests according to their coverage rates. Typically, using a quick sort algorithm, it only takes $O(n \log n)$ time [6].

Coverage-Additional Method (CAM). CAM differs from CTM in that it selects the next test according to the feedback from previous selections. It iteratively selects a test that can cover more uncovered code structures. In this manner, we can expect that we can achieve the maximum coverage rate of a test set as soon as possible. After the maximum coverage rate is achieved, we can use CTM to prioritize the remaining unprioritized tests. For the example in Table 1, *A*, *D*, *C*, *B* is the only valid result of CAM.

Given a program with m elements to cover and a set of n tests, every time we select a test, it will take O(mn) time to re-adjust the coverage information of the remaining tests. This process will be performed O(n) times. Thus, the total time cost is $O(mn^2)$. According to the time complexity, it is easy to find that CAM is less scalable compared to CTM, especially when n and m are very large.

3 APPROACH

Owing to the oracle problem discussed before, test prioritization can help label and analyze as many misclassified tests as possible in a limited time. However, due to the problems we argued in Section 1 and as we will show in our evaluation, coverage-based test prioritization becomes ineffective in the context of DNN testing.

Table 1: An example to illustrate coverage-based test prioritization. 'X' means a statement is covered by a test.

Toot		F	rogi	am S	State	men	ıt	
Test	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
A B C	X	X	X			X	X	X
B	X	X	X				X	X
C	X	X	X	X				
D					X	X	X	X

Therefore, we propose a test prioritization method that is not based on neuron coverage criteria, but based on a statistical view of DNN as discussed in Section 3.1. Such a statistical view inspires us to propose a method, called DeepGini, to prioritize tests of a DNN, which is presented in Section 3.2. Section 3.3 discusses how to improve DNN quality with DeepGini.

3.1 A Statistical View of DNN

DNNs are specially good at classifying high-dimensional objects. If we regard each output class of a DNN as a kind of feature of the input object, the computation (or classification) process of a DNN actually maps the original high-dimensional data to only a few kinds of features. As an example, suppose the input of a DNN is a 28x28 image with three channels (i.e., RGB channels). Then the original dimension of the image is $3^{28\times28}$. In Figure 1, the DNN maps the high-dimension object to a bag (or multi-set) 1 $^{$

Generally, if the feature bag has the highest purity, i.e., contains only one kind of features (e.g., 100% elements in *B* are features of monkey), then there will be no other features confusing our classification and it is more likely that a test input is correctly classified. As an example, in Figure 2, Bag 2 has higher purity than Bag 1. Intuitively, this is because almost all elements in Bag 2 are triangles while Bag 1 has the same number of triangles and circles.

Statistically, if a bag has higher purity, the results of two random samplings in the bag have higher probability to be the same. In contrast, if a bag has lower purity, the results of two random samplings in the bag are more likely to be different. For the example in Figure 2, using sampling with replacement, the probability that two random samplings have the same shape is $0.5^2 + 0.5^2 = 0.5$ and $0.1^2 + 0.9^2 = 0.82$ for Bag 1 and Bag 2, respectively.

Formally, assuming the feature distribution in the feature bag output by a DNN is $\langle p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_N \rangle$, we can compute the probability that two random samplings have different results as $1 - \sum_{i=1}^N p_i^2$. The lower the probability, the higher the purity and, thus, the more likely a test input of a DNN is correctly classified.

On the statistical view, we can observe that the problem of measuring the likelihood of misclassification actually has been reduced

¹A multi-set or a bag is a special kind of set that allows duplicate elements.

²In sampling with replacement, after we sample a feature from the feature bag, the feature is put back to the bag so that we have the same probability to get the feature next time.

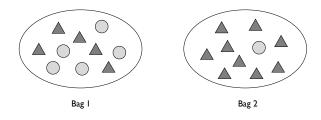


Figure 2: Bag 2 has higher purity than Bag 1. Bag 1 has 50% triangles and 50% circles. Bag 2 has 90% triangles and 10% circles.

to the problem of measuring the purity of a bag. In fact, such a reduction follows the very spirit of the measurement of Gini impurity [26], which inspires us to propose DeepGini for measuring the likelihood of misclassification.

3.2 DeepGini: Prioritizing Tests of a DNN

Formally, the metric we use to measure the likelihood of misclassification is defined as below.

Definition 3.1. Given a test t and a DNN that outputs $\langle p_{t,1}, p_{t,2}, \cdots, p_{t,N} \rangle$ ($\Sigma_{i=1}^N p_{t,i} = 1$), we define $\xi(t)$ to measure the likelihood of t being misclassified:

$$\xi(t) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_{t,i}^2$$

In the definition, $p_{t,i}$ is the probability that the test t belongs to the class i. Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of ξ when the DNN performs a binary classification. The distribution illustrates that when DNN outputs the same probability for the two classes, ξ has the maximum value, indicating that we have high probability to incorrectly classify the input test. This result follows our intuition that a test is likely to be misclassified if the DNN outputs similar probabilities for each class, and the rationality of the result has been explained in the previous subsection. The following theorem demonstrates that even though a DNN classifies input tests into more than two classes, ξ has a similar distribution as that in Figure 3.

Theorem 3.2. $\xi(t)$ has the unique maximum if and only if $\forall 1 \leq i, j \leq N : p_{t,i} = p_{t,j}$.

Proof. According to Lagrangian multiplier method [28], let

$$\begin{split} L(p_{t,i},\lambda) &= \xi(t) + \lambda \times (\Sigma_{i=1}^N p_{t,i} - 1) \\ &\frac{\partial L}{\partial p_{t,1}} = -2p_{t,1} + \lambda = 0 \\ &\frac{\partial L}{\partial p_{t,2}} = -2p_{t,2} + \lambda = 0 \\ &\vdots \end{split}$$

 $\forall p_{t,i}$, let

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial p_{t,N}} = -2p_{t,N} + \lambda = 0$$

If we calculate the difference of any two above equations (e.g. the *i*th and *j*th equation), we will have

$$2p_{t,i} - 2p_{t,j} = 0 \Longrightarrow p_{t,i} = p_{t,j}$$

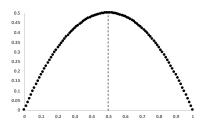


Figure 3: Distribution of ξ for 2-class problem. X-Axis: the probability that a test input belongs to one of the two classes. Y-Axis: the value of ξ .

Hence, when $p_{t,1} = p_{t,2} = \cdots = p_{t,N} = 1/N$, $\xi(t)$ has the unique extremum.

At the point $(p_{t,1}, p_{t,2}, \dots, p_{t,N})$, the Hessian matrix [1] of ξ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is a negative definite matrix. This implies that the unique extremum must be the unique maximum [1].

We notice that many other metrics such as information entropy [33] also have the above property and is almost equivalent to ξ [27]. The difference is that it may require a non-statistical view, e.g., the perspective of information theory, to explain the rationality. In addition, we believe that the simplest is the best: the complexity of computing quadratic sum is much easier than that of computing entropy-like metrics because they require logarithmic computation.

According to the above discussion, $\xi(t_1) > \xi(t_2)$ implies that t_1 is more likely to be misclassified. Hence, to prioritize n tests in a set, we need to run the tests to collect the outputs, and then sort these tests t_i according to the value of ξ .

We argue that the time cost of running the tests is negligible. First, the time cost to run a DNN is not time-consuming like training the DNN. Compared to the expensive cost of manually labeling all tests in a messy order, the time cost is completely negligible. Second, this issue is shared with all neuron-coverage-based test prioritization methods as they also need to to run tests to obtain the coverage rates.

Example 3.3. Assume that we have four tests A, B, C, and D as well as a DNN tries to classify them into three classes. Table 2 shows their output vectors and the values of ξ . According to the values of ξ , we can prioritize the tests as D, A, C, and B, D has the highest probability to be misclassified because the DNN outputs the most similar probabilities for each of the three classes. In comparison, for B and C, the DNN is more confident about their classes as B has the probability of 0.8 to be classified into the third class and C has the probability of 0.6 to be classified into the first class.

Typically, in our prioritization method, we can simply use a quick sort algorithm to sort tests. This algorithm takes $O(n \log n)$ time complexity. Compared to CTM and CAM, our approach has following merits:

Table 2: An example to show how DeepGini prioritizes tests.

Test	Output of DNN	ξ
A	(0.3, 0.5, 0.2)	0.62
B	$\langle 0.1, 0.1, 0.8 \rangle$	0.34
C	(0.6, 0.3, 0.1)	0.54
D	$\langle 0.4, 0.4, 0.2 \rangle$	0.64

- The time complexity of our approach is the same with CTM and is much lower than CAM (O(mn²)). Thus, our approach is as scalable as CTM and much more scalable than CAM.
- Different from CTM and CAM, we only need to record output vectors while CTM and CAM require us to profile the whole DNN to record coverage information. Thus, our approach has less interference with the DNN.

3.3 Enhancing DNN with DeepGini

Generally, we can add more tests to the training set and retrain the DNN to enhance its robustness. In face of a large number of unlabeled tests and a limited time budget, we cannot label all tests and use them to retrain the DNN. DeepGini allows us to find and label as many misclassified tests as possible in a limited time budget. We observe that the tests prioritized by DeepGini at the front are more effective to improve DNN quality than the tests prioritized at the back. Meanwhile, our empirical study shows that tests prioritized by DeepGini at the front are more effective to improve DNN quality than the tests prioritized at the front but by coverage-based prioritization techniques.

The principle behind the effectiveness of DeepGini actually follows the theory of *active machine learning*, which prefers the tests near the decision boundary (i.e., tests that the DNN is least certain how to label or, equivalently, tests that have the highest value of $\xi(t)$) to actively enhance a deep learning system. We omit the details of active learning here because it is not our contribution. Interested readers can refer to the literature [32] for more details.

To sum up, DeepGini provides not only a test prioritization method but also a technique to enhance the robustness of DNN in a limited time budget.

4 EXPERIMENT DESIGN

In this section, we introduce the experimental setup, including the datasets and DNN models we used, approaches to generating adversarial tests, the baseline approaches we compared with, and the research questions we study in the experiments. To conduct the experiments, we implement our approach as well as various neuron-coverage-based test prioritization methods upon Keras 2.1.3 with TensorFlow 1.5.0.3,4 All of our implementation can be accessed via: https://github.com/deepgini/deepgini. All experiments were performed on a Ubuntu 16.04.5 LTS server with one NVIDIA GTX 1080Ti GPU, two 12-core processors "Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-6850K CPU @ 3.60GHz", and 64GB physical memory.

4.1 Datasets and DNN Models

As shown in Table 3, for evaluation, we select four popular publicly-available datasets, i.e., MNIST,⁵ CIFAR-10,⁶ Fashion,⁷ and SVHN.⁸

The MNIST dataset is for handwritten digits recognition, containing 70,000 input data in total, of which 60,000 are training data and 10,000 are test data.

The CIFAR-10 dataset consists of 60,000 32x32 colour images in 10 classes, with 6,000 images per class. There are 50,000 training images and 10,000 test images.

Fashion is a dataset of Zalando's article images consisting of a training set of 60,000 examples and a test set of 10,000 examples. Each example is a 28x28 gray-scale image, associated with a label from 10 classes.

SVHN is a real-world image dataset that can be seen as similar in flavor to MNIST (e.g., the images are of small cropped digits), but incorporates an order of magnitude more labeled data (over 600,000 digit images).

To demonstrate the generalizability of our approach, for every data sets, we use two prevalent DNN models in our evaluation. The size of these DNN models ranges from tens to thousands of neurons, exhibiting the diversity of the DNN models to some degree.

4.2 Adversarial Test Input Generation.

In addition to prioritizing original tests in the datasets, we also conduct an experiment to prioritize adversarial tests. As the previous study [22], we use four state-of-the-art methods to generate adversarial tests, including FGSM [11], BIM [19], JSMA [24], and CW [5]. These techniques generate tests through different minor perturbations on a given test input. Table 3 shows the total number of adversarial tests generated by these methods in 12 hours.

4.3 Baseline Approaches

We compare our approach to coverage-based methods that use eleven different neuron coverage criteria as introduced in Section 2. Since these neuron coverage criteria contain configurable parameters, as shown in Table 4, we use various parameters as suggested by their original authors.

Each comparison experiment is conducted in four modes with regard to two aspects: (1) using CTM or CAM to prioritize tests; and (2) prioritizing tests in the original datasets or prioritizing tests that combine the original tests and the adversarial tests.

4.4 Research Questions

DeepGini is designed for facilitating the testers of DNN-based systems to quickly identify misclassified tests and effectively enhance the robustness. Based on this goal, we empirically explore the following three research questions (RQ).

RQ1. Effectiveness: Can DeepGini find a better permutation of tests than neuron-coverage-based methods?

We provide answers to RQ1 by computing the values of Average Percentage of Fault-Detection (APFD) metric [46]. Higher APFD values denote faster misclassification-detection rates. When plotting

³https://faroit.github.io/keras-docs/2.1.3/

 $^{^{4}} https://github.com/tensorflow/tensorflow/releases \\$

⁵http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/

⁶https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~kriz/cifar.html

 $^{^{7}} https://research.zalando.com/welcome/mission/research-projects/fashion-mnist/\\$

 $^{^{8}}http://ufldl.stanford.edu/housenumbers/\\$

Dataset	Description	DNN Model	#Neurons	#Layers	# Original Tests	# Adversarial Tests
MNIST	Digits 0~9	LeNet-1 LeNet-5	42 258	5 7	10,000	39,854 39,705
CIFAR-10	Images with 10 classes	ResNet-20 VGG-16	698 7242	20 21	10,000	40,000 8,000
Fashion	Zalando's article images	LeNet-1 ResNet-20	42 698	5 20	10,000	39,992 39,905
SVHN	Street view house numbers	LeNet-5 VGG-16	258 7242	7 21	26,032	104,037 8,000

Table 3: Datasets and DNN models.

Table 4: Configuration parameters for the coverage criteria.

ID	Criteria	Configuration Parameter						
1	NAC(k)	0	0.75	-				
2	KMNC(k)	1,000	10,000	-				
3	NBC(k)	0	0.5	1				
4	SNAC(k)	0	0.5	1				
5	TKNC(k)	1	2	3				
6	LSC(k)	(1000, 100)	-	-				
7	DSC(k)	(1000, 2)	-	-				

the percentage of detected misclassified tests against the number of prioritized tests, APFD can be calculated as the area below the plotted line. It is also noteworthy that although an APFD value ranges from 0 to 1, an APFD value not close to 1 does not mean that the prioritization is ineffective. This is mainly because the theoretically maximal APFD value is usually much smaller than 1 [46]. Formally, for a permutation of n tests in which there are k tests will be misclassified, let o_i be the order of the first test that reveals the ith misclassified test. The APFD value for this permutation can be calculated as following:

$$APFD = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} o_i}{kn} + \frac{1}{2n}$$

To be clear, assuming the theoretical minimum and maximum of the APFD value is min and max, respectively, we normalize the APFD value from [min, max] to [0, 1] so that a prioritization method is better if the APFD value is closer to 1 and is worse if the APFD value is closer to 0.

RQ2. Efficiency: Is DeepGini more efficient than neuron-coverage-based methods?

We provide answers to RQ2 by recording the time cost of prioritization. A prioritization method may be very costly because the number of tests is usually very large for a DNN system. According to our evaluation, some prioritization methods cannot finish in several hours, which is not practical in an industrial setting.

RQ3. Guidance: Can DeepGini guide the retraining of an DNN to improve its accuracy?

Since the DNNs already have very high accuracy on the original tests (> 90% or even > 95%), we cannot clearly show the accuracy improvement of these DNNs. Thus, we leverage the adversarial tests to answer RQ3. For each model, we evenly partition adversarial

test set into a testing set T and a validation set V for the following experiment.

After prioritizing the tests in T, we add back the first 1%, 2%, \cdots , 10% tests into the training set and retrain a new DNN. We do not add more than 50% tests to retrain a DNN because we observe that the accuracy of the DNN will not significantly change with more tests. Using the validation set V, we compute the accuracy of the new DNN. We repeat the experiment using DeepGini and other coverage metrics and compare the accuracy of the retrained DNNs. According to the experimental results, we answer RQ3 that DeepGini can provide guidance for more effective retraining against the coverage-based methods.

5 RESULT ANALYSIS

In this section, we present the results of test prioritization (RQ1 and RQ2) and then analyze whether our approach can better guide the retraining of DNNs (RQ3). Due to the page limit, we cannot present all results in detail. All other results show similar trends and are available online: https://github.com/deepgini/deepgini.

5.1 Effectiveness and Efficiency (RQ1 & RQ2)

Table 5 lists the results of the LeNet5 net on the MNIST dataset as an example. We summarize our findings in Table 7 and discuss them at the end of this subsection. Based on the feature of these criteria, we compare the results of DeepGini with existing coverage-based methods in two groups: (1) NAC, NBC, and SNAC; (2) TKNC, LSC, DSC, and KMNC.

5.1.1 Comparing with NAC, NBC, and SNAC. As shown in Table 5, DeepGini is capable of prioritizing tens of thousands of tests within 2 seconds. The APFD value of DeepGini is very close to 1, which implies that our approach is very close to the theoretically best approach. Table 5 also shows that fewer than 0.5% of tests are sufficient to achieve the maximum coverage rate of the three coverage criteria: NAC, NBC, and SNAC, regardless of their parameter settings. In the 10,000 original tests of MNIST, a very small amount of tests are sufficient for achieving the maximum coverage rate: for NAC(0.75), 22 tests can reach the maximum coverage (84%); for NBC(0.5), 5 tests can reach the maximum coverage (0.97%); and for SNAC(0.5), 5 tests can reach the maximum coverage (2%). Since we achieve the maximum coverage rate very quickly, CAM will degenerate into CTM very quickly. Thus, the effectiveness and the efficiency of CAM are almost the same as CTM for these datasets.

		Original Tests						Original Tests + Adv					
Metrics	Param.	Max Cov.		CTM		CA	CAM		Cov.	CTM		CAM	
		%	#	Time (s)	APFD	Time (s)	APFD	%	#	Time (s)	APFD	Time (s)	APFD
NAC	0	100	1	2	0.638	2	0.638	100	1	11	0.340	11	0.340
NAC	0.75	84	22	2	0.385	4	0.384	86	21	11	0.307	16	0.307
	0	8	38	3	0.638	9	0.638	15	56	14	0.339	40	0.339
NBC	0.5	0.97	5	2	0.638	5	0.637	3	11	13	0.400	20	0.400
	1	0.39	3	3	0.638	6	0.637	2	7	13	0.400	20	0.400
	0	14	35	3	0.639	9	0.639	22	48	13	0.340	31	0.340
SNAC	0.5	2	5	3	0.639	7	0.639	7	11	13	0.340	22	0.340
	1	0.78	3	3	0.638	8	0.638	4	7	13	0.340	20	0.340
	1	66	86	N/A	N/A	11	0.023	74	96	N/A	N/A	59	0.001
TKNC	2	73	67	N/A	N/A	10	0.023	79	70	N/A	N/A	48	0.001
	3	76	57	N/A	N/A	10	0.023	81	55	N/A	N/A	43	0.001
LSC	(1000, 100)	22	220	N/A	N/A	9	0.658	98	982	N/A	N/A	36	0.503
DSC	(1000, 2)	53	531	N/A	N/A	1177	0.658	97	974	N/A	N/A	4738	0.490
IZI OLIO	1000	63	8814	N/A	N/A	34045	0.599	T/O	T/O	N/A	N/A	T/O	T/O
KMNC	10000	T/O	T/O	N/A	N/A	T/O	T/O	T/O	T/O	N/A	N/A	T/O	T/O
DeepGini	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.45	0.984	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	2	0.991

Table 5: Results of Prioritization (MNIST with LeNet5)

Max Cov.: The maximum coverage rate of the tests (%) and the number of tests to achieve the rate (#). N/A: Not applicable in theory; T/O: Time out, i.e., cannot get result after running for 12 hours.

Effectiveness. Using MNIST as an example, Figure 4 plots the number of detected misclassified tests against the prioritized tests. We have two observations from this figure. First, DeepGini achieves a higher APFD value in comparison to NAC, NBC, and SNAC. Second, as illustrated by the dotted lines in Figure 4, neuron-coverage-based prioritization methods, sometimes, are even worse than the random prioritization strategy.

Efficiency. Table 5 shows that, for the original test sets, the CAM-based prioritization processes of NAC, NBC, and SNAC cost at least 2, 5, 7 seconds respectively, while DeepGini costs only 0.45 seconds. Similarly, for the test set with the adversarial examples, we observe that the CAM-based prioritization processes of the three baselines cost more than 11 seconds, while DeepGini costs only 2 seconds. This data shows that DeepGini has a higher efficiency in comparison with NAC, NBC, and SNAC.

5.1.2 Comparing with TKNC, LSC, DSC, and KMNC. As discussed in Section 2.2, every single test has the same coverage rate of TKNC, LSC, and DSC, regardless of its parameter k. Thus, CTM does not work if we use these coverage metrics to prioritize tests. Unfortunately, CAM does not work well using these coverage metrics either. The main reason is that fewer than 5% of tests are enough to achieve the maximal coverage rate. After prioritizing the 5% tests, CAM is degenerate into CTM, which does not work as explained above.

Similarly, CTM does not work if we use KMNC to prioritize tests, because almost all single tests have the same coverage rate of KMNC, regardless of its parameter k. However, KMNC can work with the CAM prioritization method. Thus, we only compare KMNC-based CAM with our prioritization method.

Effectiveness. In the example of LeNet-5 on MNIST, Figure 4 plots the prioritization results, in which the curve of our method goes up far more quickly than the four baseline methods. In the original test set, while DeepGini has obtained the APFD value of 0.984, TKNC, LSC, DSC, and KMNC only obtain 0.023, 0.658, 0.658, and 0.599. We can observe similar trends for the test set with adversarial examples. This result implies that the DeepGini significantly outperforms the four baselines regarding the effectiveness of prioritizing tests.

Efficiency. Table 5 shows that prioritization methods based on these coverage metrics are 20×-2000× slower than our method. One special case is KMNC-based CAM method. When prioritizing tests using KMNC-based CAM method, we observe serious efficiency issues. That is because the time complexity of KMNC-based CAM method is very high, we cannot finish prioritizing tests in an acceptable time budget. For MNIST, we cannot succeed in prioritizing tests using the method in 12 hours. Considering MNIST is a relatively small dataset, the efficiency problem would be the bottleneck of applying KMNC-based CAM method in practice.

5.2 Guidance (RQ3)

Figure 5 illustrates the experimental results for RQ3. Like the previous experiments, we put the coverage metrics into two groups. Figure 5-a and Figure 5-b demonstrate the results of LeNet-5 on MNIST. The curves show the accuracy of the DNN after retraining with 1%, 2%, ..., 10% tests. As we introduced in Section 4.4, the testing set T and validation set V is divided from the adversarial test data. This setting makes initial accuracy of the DNN are the same for all metrics, i.e., it is 0 without retraining. Note that, because

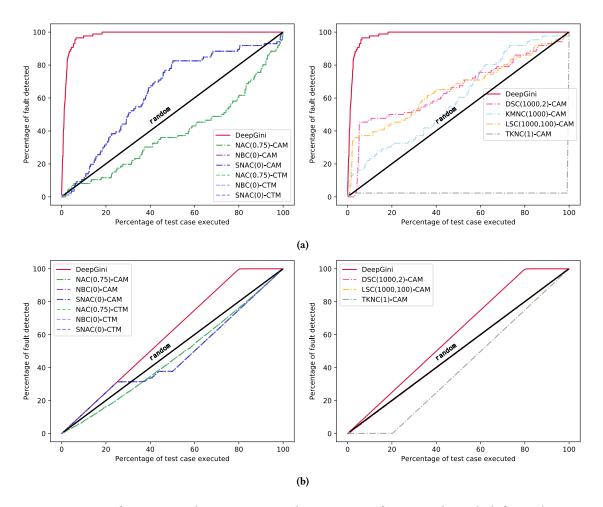


Figure 4: Test prioritization for MNIST with LeNet5. X-Axis: the percentage of prioritized tests (sub-figure a), or percentage of both original and adversarial tests (sub-figure b); Y-Axis: the percentage of detected misclassified tests.

Table 6: The DNNs' accuracy value after retraining with first 10% prioritized tests.

	MNIST		CIFAI	R-10	FAS	HION	SV	A	
	LeNet-1	LeNet-5	ResNet-20	VGG-16	LeNet-1	ResNet-20	LeNet-5	VGG-16	Avg
NAC(0.75)-CTM	0.89	0.93	0.93	0.79	0.81	0.91	0.82	0.67	0.84
NAC(0.75)-CAM	0.83	0.85	0.92	0.76	0.78	0.94	0.8	0.74	0.83
NBC(0)-CAM	0.84	0.88	0.92	0.78	0.77	0.94	0.81	0.75	0.84
NBC(0)-CTM	0.91	0.84	0.93	0.75	0.81	0.95	0.82	0.75	0.85
SNAC(0)-CTM	0.84	0.84	0.93	0.79	0.83	0.95	0.82	0.75	0.84
SNAC(0)-CAM	0.82	0.87	0.91	0.76	0.79	0.94	0.81	0.76	0.83
LSC(1000, 100)-CAM	0.84	0.86	0.92	0.81	0.8	0.94	0.81	0.74	0.84
DSC(1000, 100)-CAM	0.84	87	0.92	0.82	0.81	0.94	0.82	0.75	0.85
TKNC(1)-CAM	0.83	0.88	0.92	0.8	0.78	0.94	0.81	0.8	0.85
DeepGini	0.99	1	0.98	0.93	0.89	0.98	0.93	0.97	0.96

KMNC-based prioritization technique is not scalable, we cannot finish the experiment of RQ3 in 12 hours.

The curves show that retraining with the tests prioritized by DeepGini is more effective in improving the accuracy of DNNs. This outperformance is clear in the retraining with all sizes of the test sets. We also present the accuracy value after retraining the DNN with the first 10% prioritized tests in Table 6. From the table, we can observe that the outperformance can be found across all combinations of datasets and DNN models. In average, while the baseline criteria can reach 0.83-0.85 accuracy, DeepGini can improve the accuracy value to 0.96, which is close to 1.

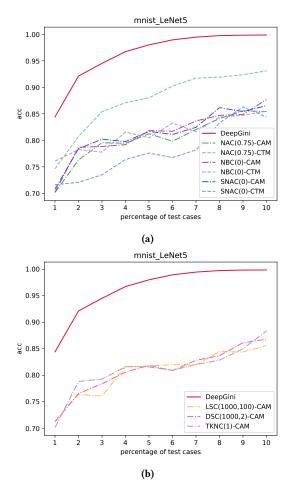


Figure 5: Enhancing the robustness of the DNN with prioritized tests (MNIST with LeNet-5).

5.3 Discussion

For each of these existing neural coverage based criteria, we summarize our findings in Table 7. Although structural coverage criteria are very effective in classic testing methods, they are not effective in the new scenario of DNN testing. More specifically, for some of these criteria, we observe that a very small part, around 1% to 5%, of original tests are sufficient to achieve the maximal coverage. For some of these criteria, the coverage criteria cannot distinguish different tests. These results extend the existing discussion on the effectiveness of structural coverage [21] – some researchers cast doubts on the effectiveness of neuron-coverage-guided test generation techniques. For instance, in our experiment, the random prioritization strategy even outperforms NAC and TKNC, which implies that these coverage criteria could be misleading in finding new incorrect DNN behaviors.

Further, DeepGini is designed based on the assumption that the test produces similar probabilities for all classes has a higher probability of being misclassified. Admittedly, this assumption is not necessarily true. There could be some variance/difference in the probabilities of the different classes, yet a wrong class may be given a higher probability than the expected class. However, the results of RQ1 shows the APFD value of DeepGini is higher than baselines, which indicates that it can efficiently detect a large number (but not all) of misclassified tests in comparison with baselines.

On the other hand, test prioritization should be scalable and efficient so that it can be applied in the scenario of DNN testing. Such scalability and efficiency requirement are very necessary because the number of tests is usually very large in DNN testing, which is different from conventional software testing. For instance, we found that the KMNC criteria failed to work well regarding both the effectiveness and efficiency. In the future, more research should be conducted to investigate its potential and improvement. Considering MNIST is a very basic dataset for deep learning, we suggest software engineers do not apply these criteria in their engineering practice before they are improved.

6 RELATED WORK

We discuss the related work in two groups: (1) test prioritization methods for conventional software and (2) testing techniques for deep learning systems.

6.1 Test Prioritization Techniques

Test prioritization seeks to find the ideal ordering of tests, so that software testers or developers can obtain maximal benefit in a limited time budget. The idea was first mentioned by Wong et al. [44] and then the technique was proposed by Harrold and Rothermel [12, 29] in a more general context. We observe that such an idea from the area of software engineering can significantly reduce the effort of labeling for deep learning systems. This is mainly because a deep learning system usually has a large number of unlabeled tests but developers only have limited time for labeling.

Coverage-based test prioritization, such as the CAM and CTM methods studied in this paper, is one of the most commonly studied prioritization techniques. In conventional software engineering, we can obtain a new prioritization method when a different coverage criterion is applied. Rothermel et al. [30, 31] reported empirical studies of several coverage-based approaches, driven by branch coverage, statement coverage, and so-called FEP, a coverage criterion inspired by mutation testing [3]. In addition, Jones and Harrold [14] reported that MC/DC, a stricter form of branch coverage, is also applicable to coverage-based test prioritization. Different from the above techniques, we focus on testing and debugging for deep learning systems. Thus, we studied test prioritization based on coverage criteria that specially proposed for DNNs. Our study demonstrated that, using these coverage criteria, coverage-based test prioritization is not effective and efficient. Sometimes, its effectiveness is even worse than random prioritization. Instead, our approach uses a simple metric that does not require to profile the DNNs but is effective and also efficient.

We notice that, in software engineering, there are also many prioritization techniques based on metrics other than coverage criteria, including distribution-based approach [20], human-based approach [40, 47], history-based approach [34], model-based approach [16–18], and so on. These techniques are specially-designed for conventional software systems instead of deep learning systems.

Table 7: Summary of Our Findings on Test Prioritization

Metrics	Findings
	1. CAM will quickly degenerate into CTM for these metrics because only a small number of tests can achieve the maximum coverage.
NAC/NBC/SNAC	2. CTM is not effective and even worse than random prioritization when we use these metrics.
	3. CAM will quickly degenerate into CTM for TKNC/LSC/DSC because only a small number of tests can achieve the maximum
TKNC/LSC/DSC	coverage rate.
	4. CTM does not work when TKNC/LSC/DSC are used because all single tests have the same coverage rate.
	5. Computing LSC/DSC additionally relies on the training set.
KMNC	6. CAM is not scalable due to its high complexity when KMNC is used.
KIVIINC	7. CTM does not work when KMNC is used because almost all single tests have the same coverage rate.
	8. DeepGini is the most effective and efficient metric for test prioritization regarding the APFD value and the time cost.
DeepGini	9. DeepGini does not relies on anything except for the tests and the DNN to test.

Making them applicable to deep learning systems may require nontrivial efforts of re-design. We leave them as our future work.

6.2 Testing Deep Learning Systems

In conventional practice, machine learning models were mainly evaluated using available validation datasets [43]. However, these datasets usually cannot cover various corner cases that may induce unexpected behaviors [25, 39]. To further ensure the quality of a deep learning system, software-engineering researchers have designed many testing approaches. Pei et al. [25] proposed DeepXplore, the first white-box testing framework, to identify and generate the corner-case inputs that may induce different behaviors over multiple DNNs. Ma et al. [23] presented a mutation testing framework for DNNs aiming at evaluating the quality of datasets. Tian et al. [39] presented *DeepTest* to generate test inputs by maximizing the numbers of activated neurons via a basic set of image transformations. Zhang et al. [49] employed generative adversarial network to transform the driving scenes into various weather conditions, which increases the diversity of datasets. Different from the above techniques that rely on solid test oracle, our method focuses on the problem that we usually have a large number of tests without test oracle. We observe that the idea of test prioritization can enable developers to obtain as many misclassified tests as possible in a limited time budget, thereby easing the burden of labeling. However, in comparison with traditional software programs, the modern DNNs often consist of millions of neurons and hundreds of layers, which naturally enlarges its potential testing space. While the sophisticated internal logic of a DNN makes it challenging to adopt the idea of coverage criteria to test prioritization, this paper introduces a new metric that only analyzes the output space of a DNN and is able to effectively guide the test prioritization. We notice that researchers have proposed some preliminary prioritization methods for testing DNNs [4, 48]. They use different methods to prioritize the tests but failed to compare their techniques with classic coverage-based methods. Furthermore, they did not provide any information on the capability of enhancing the DNN robustness.

To guide the testing techniques for DNNs, Pei et al. [25] introduced neuron activation coverage to measure the differences of the execution of test data. Ma et al. [22] designed a set of multi-level and multi-granularity testing criteria for assessing the quality of testing of deep learning systems. Our approach has shown that it is not effective or efficient to prioritize tests based on these coverage

criteria. Sun et al. [37, 38] presented a concolic testing framework that incrementally generates a set of test inputs to improve coverage by alternating between concrete execution and symbolic analysis. The MC/DC-like coverage criteria proposed in the paper [37, 38] does not work for prioritization because of two reasons. First, since we need at least a pair of tests to compute the coverage rate, the coverage rate of a single test is meaningless. Thus, CTM does not work. Second, computing the coverage rate is of at least quadratic complexity. Thus, it is not scalable, just like the KMNC coverage shown in our evaluation. Since we only focus on coverage criteria published in peer-reviewed venues, these MC/DC-like metrics are not included but just briefly discussed here. Different from such test generation techniques that also have the oracle problem, our approach attempts to prioritize tests so that the oracle problem is alleviated

7 CONCLUSION

Based on a statistical view of DNN, we have introduced an approach, namely DeepGini, to prioritizing testing data so that we can improve the quality of DNN efficiently. Experimental results demonstrate that it is more effective and efficient than coverage-based methods. In real-world scenario, tests usually do not have labels and we have to invest a lot of manpower to label them. With such a prioritization method in hand, we can achieve maximal benefit, even the labeling process is prematurely halted at some arbitrary point due to resource limits.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments. This project was partially funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant Nos. 61832009 and 61932012. Qingkai Shi is the corresponding author.

REFERENCES

- Ken Binmore and Joan Davies. 2002. Calculus: concepts and methods. Cambridge University Press.
- [2] Mariusz Bojarski, Davide Del Testa, Daniel Dworakowski, Bernhard Firner, Beat Flepp, Prasoon Goyal, Lawrence D Jackel, Mathew Monfort, Urs Muller, Jiakai Zhang, et al. 2016. End to end learning for self-driving cars. arXiv preprint arXiv:1604.07316 (2016).
- [3] Timothy Alan Budd. 1981. Mutation Analysis of Program Test Data. (1981).
- [4] Taejoon Byun, Vaibhav Sharma, Abhishek Vijayakumar, Sanjai Rayadurgam, and Darren Cofer. 2019. Input prioritization for testing neural networks. In 2019 IEEE International Conference On Artificial Intelligence Testing (AITest). IEEE, 63–70.

- [5] Nicholas Carlini and David Wagner. 2017. Towards evaluating the robustness of neural networks. In 2017 IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP). IEEE, 39–57.
- [6] Thomas H Cormen, Charles E Leiserson, Ronald L Rivest, and Clifford Stein. 2009. Introduction to algorithms. MIT press.
- [7] Alex Davies. [n. d.]. Tesla's Latest Autopilot Death Looks Just Like a Prior Crash. Available at https://www.wired.com/story/teslas-latest-autopilot-death-looks-like-prior-crash/ (2020/01/27). ([n. d.]).
- [8] Jia Deng, Wei Dong, Richard Socher, Li-Jia Li, Kai Li, and Li Fei-Fei. 2009. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In 2009 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. Ieee, 248–255.
- [9] John S Denker and Yann Lecun. 1991. Transforming neural-net output levels to probability distributions. In Advances in neural information processing systems. 853–859
- [10] Daniel Di Nardo, Nadia Alshahwan, Lionel Briand, and Yvan Labiche. 2013. Coverage-based test case prioritisation: An industrial case study. In Software Testing, Verification and Validation (ICST), 2013 IEEE Sixth International Conference on IEEE 302-311
- [11] Ian J Goodfellow, Jonathon Shlens, and Christian Szegedy. 2015. Explaining and Harnessing Adversarial Examples. In Proceedings of 2015 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR).
- [12] Mary Jean Harrold. 1999. Testing evolving software. Journal of Systems and Software 47, 2-3 (1999), 173–181.
- [13] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. 2016. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition. 770–778.
- [14] James A Jones and Mary Jean Harrold. 2003. Test-suite reduction and prioritization for modified condition/decision coverage. *IEEE Transactions on software Engineering* 29, 3 (2003), 195–209.
- [15] Jinhan Kim, Robert Feldt, and Shin Yoo. 2019. Guiding Deep Learning System Testing Using Surprise Adequacy. In Proceedings of the 41st International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE '19). IEEE Press, 1039–1049.
 [16] Bogdan Korel, George Koutsogiannakis, and Luay H Tahat. 2007. Model-based
- [16] Bogdan Korel, George Koutsogiannakis, and Luay H Tahat. 2007. Model-based test prioritization heuristic methods and their evaluation. In Proceedings of the 3rd international workshop on Advances in model-based testing. ACM, 34–43.
- [17] Bogdan Korel, George Koutsogiannakis, and Luay H Tahat. 2008. Application of system models in regression test suite prioritization. In Software Maintenance, 2008. ICSM 2008. IEEE International Conference on. IEEE. 247–256.
- [18] Bogdan Korel, Luay Ho Tahat, and Mark Harman. 2005. Test prioritization using system models. In Software Maintenance, 2005. ICSM'05. Proceedings of the 21st IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 559–568.
- [19] Alexey Kurakin, Ian Goodfellow, and Samy Bengio. 2017. Adversarial Examples in the Physical World. In Proceedings of 2017 5th International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR).
- [20] David Leon and Andy Podgurski. 2003. A comparison of coverage-based and distribution-based techniques for filtering and prioritizing test cases. In 2003 IEEE 14th International Symposium on Software Reliability Engineering (ISSRE). IEEE,
- [21] Zenan Li, Xiaoxing Ma, Chang Xu, and Chun Cao. 2019. Structural coverage criteria for neural networks could be misleading. In 2019 IEEE/ACM 41st International Conference on Software Engineering: New Ideas and Emerging Results (ICSE-NIER). IEEE, 89–92.
- [22] Lei Ma, Felix Juefei-Xu, Fuyuan Zhang, Jiyuan Sun, Minhui Xue, Bo Li, Chunyang Chen, Ting Su, Li Li, Yang Liu, et al. 2018. Deepgauge: Multi-granularity testing criteria for deep learning systems. In Proceedings of the 33rd ACM/IEEE International Conference on Automated Software Engineering. ACM, 120–131.
- [23] L. Ma, F. Zhang, J. Sun, M. Xue, B. Li, F. Juefei-Xu, C. Xie, L. Li, Y. Liu, J. Zhao, and Y. Wang. 2018. DeepMutation: Mutation Testing of Deep Learning Systems. In 2018 IEEE 29th International Symposium on Software Reliability Engineering (ISSRE). IEEE, 100–111.
- [24] Nicolas Papernot, Patrick McDaniel, Somesh Jha, Matt Fredrikson, Z Berkay Celik, and Ananthram Swami. 2016. The limitations of deep learning in adversarial settings. In Security and Privacy (EuroS&P), 2016 IEEE European Symposium on. IEEE, 372–387.
- [25] Kexin Pei, Yinzhi Cao, Junfeng Yang, and Suman Jana. 2017. Deepxplore: Automated whitebox testing of deep learning systems. In Proceedings of the 26th Symposium on Operating Systems Principles. ACM, 1–18.
- [26] J. Ross Quinlan. 1986. Induction of decision trees. Machine learning 1, 1 (1986), 81–106.

- [27] Laura Elena Raileanu and Kilian Stoffel. 2004. Theoretical comparison between the gini index and information gain criteria. Annals of Mathematics and Artificial Intelligence 41, 1 (2004), 77–93.
- [28] R Tyrrell Rockafellar. 1993. Lagrange multipliers and optimality. SIAM review 35, 2 (1993), 183–238.
- [29] Gregg Rothermel and Mary Jean Harrold. 1996. Analyzing regression test selection techniques. IEEE Transactions on software engineering 22, 8 (1996), 529–551.
- [30] Gregg Rothermel, Roland H Untch, Chengyun Chu, and Mary Jean Harrold. 1999. Test case prioritization: An empirical study. In Software Maintenance, 1999.(ICSM'99) Proceedings. IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 179–188.
- [31] Gregg Rothermel, Roland H. Untch, Chengyun Chu, and Mary Jean Harrold. 2001. Prioritizing test cases for regression testing. *IEEE Transactions on software engineering* 27, 10 (2001), 929–948.
- [32] Burr Settles. 2009. Active Learning Literature Survey. Computer Sciences Technical Report 1648. University of Wisconsin–Madison.
- [33] Claude Elwood Shannon. 1948. A mathematical theory of communication. Bell system technical journal 27, 3 (1948), 379–423.
- [34] Mark Sherriff, Mike Lake, and Laurie Williams. 2007. Prioritization of regression tests using singular value decomposition with empirical change records. In Software Reliability, 2007. ISSRE'07. The 18th IEEE International Symposium on. IEEE, 81–90.
- [35] David Silver, Aja Huang, Chris J Maddison, Arthur Guez, Laurent Sifre, George Van Den Driessche, Julian Schrittwieser, Ioannis Antonoglou, Veda Panneershelvam, Marc Lanctot, et al. 2016. Mastering the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. nature 529, 7587 (2016), 484.
- [36] Jack Stewart. [n. d.]. Tesla's Autopilot Was Involved in Another Deadly Car Crash. Available at https://www.wired.com/story/tesla-autopilot-self-drivingcrash-california/ (2020/01/27). ([n. d.]).
- [37] Youcheng Sun, Xiaowei Huang, and Daniel Kroening. 2018. Testing Deep Neural Networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.04792 (2018).
- [38] Youcheng Sun, Min Wu, Wenjie Ruan, Xiaowei Huang, Marta Kwiatkowska, and Daniel Kroening. 2018. Concolic Testing for Deep Neural Networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:1805.00089 (2018).
- [39] Yuchi Tian, Kexin Pei, Suman Jana, and Baishakhi Ray. 2018. Deeptest: Automated testing of deep-neural-network-driven autonomous cars. In Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Software Engineering. ACM, 303–314.
- [40] Paolo Tonella, Paolo Avesani, and Angelo Susi. 2006. Using the case-based ranking methodology for test case prioritization. In Software Maintenance, 2006. ICSM'06. 22nd IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 123–133.
- [41] Matt P Wand and M Chris Jones. [n. d.]. Kernel Smoothing. CRC Press.
- [42] Matthew Wicker, Xiaowei Huang, and Marta Kwiatkowska. 2018. Feature-Guided Black-Box Safety Testing of Deep Neural Networks. In Tools and Algorithms for the Construction and Analysis of Systems. Springer, 408–426.
- [43] Ian H Witten, Eibe Frank, Mark A Hall, and Christopher J Pal. 2016. Data Mining: Practical machine learning tools and techniques. Morgan Kaufmann.
- [44] W Eric Wong, Joseph R Horgan, Saul London, and Aditya P Mathur. 1998. Effect of test set minimization on fault detection effectiveness. Software: Practice and Experience 28, 4 (1998), 347–369.
- [45] Wayne Xiong, Jasha Droppo, Xuedong Huang, Frank Seide, Mike Seltzer, Andreas Stolcke, Dong Yu, and Geoffrey Zweig. 2016. Achieving human parity in conversational speech recognition. arXiv preprint arXiv:1610.05256 (2016).
- [46] Shin Yoo and Mark Harman. 2012. Regression testing minimization, selection and prioritization: a survey. Software Testing, Verification and Reliability 22, 2 (2012), 67–120.
- [47] Shin Yoo, Mark Harman, Paolo Tonella, and Angelo Susi. 2009. Clustering test cases to achieve effective and scalable prioritisation incorporating expert knowledge. In Proceedings of the eighteenth international symposium on Software testing and analysis. ACM, 201–212.
- [48] Long Zhang, Xuechao Sun, Yong Li, and Zhenyu Zhang. 2019. A noise-sensitivity-analysis-based test prioritization technique for deep neural networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:1901.00054 (2019).
- [49] Mengshi Zhang, Yuqun Zhang, Lingming Zhang, Cong Liu, and Sarfraz Khurshid. 2018. Deeproad: Gan-based metamorphic testing and input validation framework for autonomous driving systems. In Proceedings of the 33rd ACM/IEEE International Conference on Automated Software Engineering. ACM, 132–142.
- [50] Chris Ziegler. [n. d.]. A Google self-driving car caused a crash for the first time. Available at https://www.theverge.com/2016/2/29/11134344/google-self-driving-car-crash-report (2020/01/27). ([n. d.]).