


IAF0030
Arvutitehnika erikursus I
 Loeng 3
Safety, Fault Tolerance, Software Testing
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Lecture 2

- ✓ Safety Requirements
- ✓ Hazards
- ✓ Hazard Analysis
- ✓ Risks
- ✓ Risk Analysis
- ✓ Risk Management
- ✓ Safety & SILs
- ✓ Risk Reduction & Design



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Lecture Outline

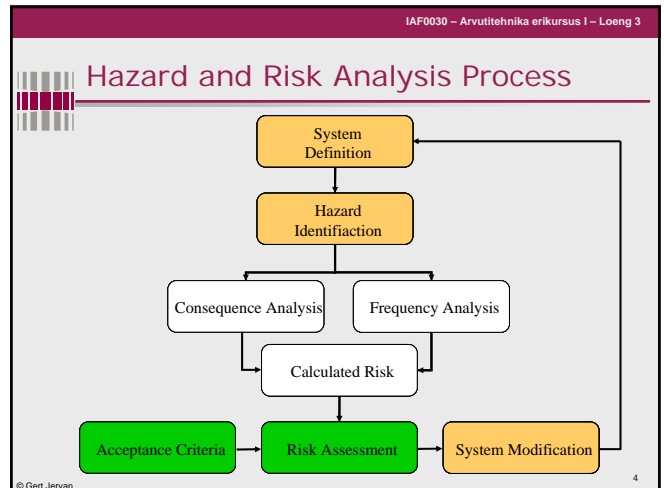
- ✓ Safety Requirements
- ✓ Hazards
- ✓ Hazard Analysis
- ✓ Risks
- ✓ Risk Analysis
- ✓ Risk Management

} Lecture 2

- ✓ Safety & SILs
- ✓ Risk Reduction & Design
- ✓ Software Testing



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Safety Requirements

- ✓ Once hazards are identified and assessed, safety requirements are generated to mitigate the risk
- ✓ Requirements may be
 - primary: prevent initiation of hazard
 - eliminate hazard
 - reduce hazard
 - secondary: control initiation of hazard
 - detect and protect
 - warn
- ✓ Safety requirements form basis for subsequent development

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Safety Integrity

- ✓ Safety integrity, defined by
 - Likelihood of a safety-related system satisfactorily performing the required safety functions under all stated conditions within a stated period of time
 - Hardware integrity, relating to random faults
 - Systematic integrity, relating to dangerous systematic faults
- ✓ Expressed
 - Quantitatively, or
 - As Safety Integrity Levels (SILs)
- ✓ Standards, IEC 1508, 61508
 - Define target failure rates for each level
 - Define processes to manage design & development
- ✓ Aims to deal with systemic failures

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Safety Integrity Levels (SILs)

- ✓ Tolerable failure frequency are often characterised by Safety Integrity Levels rather than likelihoods
 - SILs are a qualitative measure of the required protection against failure
- ✓ SILs are assigned to the safety requirements in accordance with target risk reduction
- ✓ Once defined, SILs are used to determine what methods and techniques should be applied (or not applied) in order to achieve the required integrity level
- ✓ Point of translation from failure frequencies to SILs may vary

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Automotive SIL

- ✓ Uncontrollable (SIL 4), critical failure
 - No driver expected to recover (e.g. both brakes fail), extremely severe outcomes (multiple crash)
- ✓ Difficult to control (SIL 3), critical failure
 - Good driver can recover (e.g. one brake works, severe outcomes (fatal crash))
- ✓ Debilitating (SIL 2)
 - Ordinary driver can recover most of the time, usually no severe outcome
- ✓ Distracting (SIL 1)
 - Operational limitations, but minor problem
- ✓ Nuisance (SIL 0)
 - Safety is not an issue, customer satisfaction is

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Risk & SILs

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IEC 61508 Standard

- ✓ New main standard for software safety
- ✓ Can be tailored to different domains (automotive, chemical, etc)
- ✓ Comprehensive
- ✓ Includes SILs, including failure rates
- ✓ Covers recommended techniques
- ✓ IEC = International Electrotechnical Commission
- ✓ E/E/PES = electrical/electronic/programmable electronic safety related systems

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Safety-Integrity Table of IEC 61508

Safety Integrity Level	Low demand mode of operation (Average probability of failure to perform the design function on demand)
4	$\geq 10^{-5}$ to $< 10^{-4}$ (> 99.99 % reliable)
3	$\geq 10^{-6}$ to $< 10^{-5}$ (> 99.9 % reliable)
2	$\geq 10^{-7}$ to $< 10^{-6}$ (> 99 % reliable)
1	$\geq 10^{-8}$ to $< 10^{-7}$ (> 90 % reliable)

Safety Integrity Level	High demand mode or continuous mode of operation (Probability of dangerous failure per hour)
4	$\geq 10^{-9}$ to $< 10^{-8}$
3	$\geq 10^{-10}$ to $< 10^{-9}$
2	$\geq 10^{-11}$ to $< 10^{-10}$
1	$\geq 10^{-12}$ to $< 10^{-11}$

- ✓ The higher the SIL, the harder to meet the standard
- ✓ High demand for e.g. car brakes, critical boundary SIL 3
- ✓ Low demand for e.g. airbag, critical boundary is SIL 3, one failure in 1000 activations

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SILs

- ✓ SILs 3 and 4 are critical
- ✓ SIL activities at lower levels may be needed
- ✓ SIL 1
 - Relatively easy to achieve, if ISO 9001 practices apply,
- ✓ SIL 2
 - Not dramatically harder than SIL 1, but involves more review and test, and hence cost
- ✓ SIL 3
 - Substantial increment of effort and cost
- ✓ SIL 4
 - Includes state of the art practices such as formal methods and verification, cost extremely high

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Techniques and Measures

Clause 7.7: Software Safety Validation

TECHNIQUE/MEASURE	Ref	SIL1	SIL2	SIL3	SIL4
1. Probabilistic Testing	B.47	--	R	R	HR
2. Simulation/Modelling	D.6	R	R	HR	HR
3. Functional and Black-Box Testing	D.3	HR	HR	HR	HR

NOTE:
One or more of these techniques shall be selected to satisfy the safety integrity level being used.

- ✓ Implementing the recommended techniques and measures should result in software of the associated integrity level.
- ✓ For example, if the software was required to be validated to be of Integrity level 3, Simulation and Modelling are Highly Recommended Practices, as is Functional and Black-Box Testing.

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Detailed Techniques and Measures

- ✓ Related to certain entries in these tables are additional, more detailed sets of recommendations structured in the same manner. These address techniques and measures for:
 - Design and Coding Standards
 - Dynamic analysis and testing
 - Approaches to functional or black-box testing
 - Hazard Analysis
 - Choice of programming language
 - Modelling
 - Performance testing
 - Semi-formal methods
 - Static analysis
 - Modular approaches

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Modeling

D.6: Modelling Referenced by Clauses 7.6

TECHNIQUE/MEASURE	Ref	SIL1	SIL2	SIL3	SIL4
1. Data Flow Diagrams	B.12	R	R	R	R
2. Finite State Machines	B.29	--	HR	HR	HR
3. Formal Methods	B.30	--	R	R	HR
4. Performance Modelling	B.45	R	R	R	HR
5. Time Petri Nets	B.64	--	HR	HR	HR
6. Prototyping/Animation	B.49	R	R	R	R
7. Structure Diagrams	B.59	R	R	R	HR

NOTE:
One or more of the above techniques should be used.

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SILs

- ✓ What does it all mean?
 - SIL 4 system should have a duration of about 10^{-9} hours between critical failures
 - If established SIL 4 needed, used all the techniques...
 - But there is no measurement that the results actually achieves the target
 - Standard assumes that you are competent in all methods and apply everything possible
 - Except that these may be insufficient or not affordable

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The Engineering Council's Code of Practice on Risk Issues

1	Professional responsibility	Exercise reasonable professional skill and care
2	Law	Know about and comply with the law
3	Conduct	Act in accordance with the codes of conduct
4	Approach	Take a systematic approach to risk issues
5	Judgement	Use professional judgement and experience
6	Communication	Communicate within your organization
7	Management	Contribute effectively to corporate risk management
8	Evaluation	Assess the risk implications of alternatives
9	Professional development	Keep up to date by seeking education and training
10	Public awareness	Encourage public understanding of risk issues

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Hazard and Risk Analysis Process

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graph TD
    SD[System Definition] --> HI[Hazard Identification]
    HI --> CA[Consequence Analysis]
    HI --> FA[Frequency Analysis]
    CA --> CR[Calculated Risk]
    FA --> CR
    CR --> RA[Risk Assessment]
    AC[Acceptance Criteria] --> RA
    RA --> SM[System Modification]
    SM --> SD
    
```

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Risk Reduction Procedures

- ✓ Four main categories of risk reduction strategies, given in the order that they should be applied:
 - Hazard Elimination
 - Hazard Reduction
 - Hazard Control
 - Damage Limitation
- ✓ Only an approximate categorisation, since many strategies belong in more than one category

Hazard Elimination

- ✓ Before considering safety devices, attempt to eliminate hazards altogether
 - use of different materials, e.g., non-toxic
 - use of different process, e.g., endothermic reaction
 - use of simple design
 - reduction of inventory, e.g., stockpiles in Bhopal
 - segregation, e.g., no level crossings
 - eliminate human errors, e.g., for assembly of system use colour coded connections

Design Principles

- ✓ Familiar
 - use tried and trusted technologies, materials techniques
- ✓ Simple
 - testable (including controllable and observable)
 - portable (no use of sole manufacturer components compiler dependent features)
 - understandable (behaviour can easily be from implementation)
 - deterministic (use of resources is not random)
 - predictable (use of resources can be predicted)
 - minimal (extra features not provided)

Design Principles (cont.)

- ✓ Structured design techniques
 - defined notation for describing behaviour
 - identification of system boundary and environment
 - problem decomposition
 - ease of review
- ✓ Design standards
 - limit complexity
 - increase modularity
- ✓ Implementation standards
 - presentation and naming conventions
 - semantic and syntactic restrictions in software

Classes of System Failure

- ✓ Random (physical) failures
 - due to physical faults
 - e.g., wear-out, aging, corrosion
 - can be assigned quantitative failure probabilities
- ✓ Systematic (design) failures
 - due to faults in design and/or requirements
 - inevitably due to human error
 - usually measured by integrity levels
- ✓ Operator failures
 - due to human error
 - mix of random and systematic failures

Nature of Random Failures

- ✓ Arise from random events generated during operation or manufacture
- ✓ Governed by the laws of physics and cannot be eliminated
- ✓ Modes of failure are limited and can be anticipated
- ✓ Failures occur independently in different components
- ✓ Failure rates are often predictable by statistical methods
- ✓ Sometimes exhibit graceful degradation
- ✓ Treatment is well understood

Treating Random Failures

- ✓ Random failures cannot be eliminated and must be reduced or controlled
- ✓ Random failures can be mitigated by:
 - predicting failure modes and rates of components
 - applying redundancy to achieve overall reliability
 - performing preventative maintenance to replace components before faults arise
 - executing on-line or off-line diagnostic checks

Nature of Systematic Failures

- ✓ Ultimately caused by human error during development, installation or maintenance
- ✓ Appear transient and random since they are triggered under unusual, random circumstances
- ✓ Systematic and will occur again if the required circumstances arise
- ✓ Failures of different components are *not* independent
- ✓ Difficult to predict mode of failure since the possible deviations in behaviour are large
- ✓ Difficult to predict the likelihood of occurrence

Treating Systematic Failures

- ✓ In theory, design failures can be eliminated
- ✓ In practice, perfect design may be too costly
- ✓ Focus the effort on critical areas
 - identify safety requirements using hazard analysis
 - assess risk in system and operational context
- ✓ Eliminate or reduce errors using quality development processes
 - verify compliance with safety requirements
 - integrate and test against safety requirements

Design Faults

- ✓ Design faults are much more difficult to deal with than random (degradation) faults because:
 - They are hard to anticipate
 - Their effects are hard to predict
 - Component failure semantics tend to be undefined
- ✓ This makes all forms difficult to tolerate, especially software faults

Common Design Faults

- ✓ All forms of software:
 - System software
 - Application software
 - Embedded software (firmware)
- ✓ All forms of computing hardware:
 - Hardware design faults now dominate
 - Degradation faults used to dominate
- ✓ Power supply systems
- ✓ Component interconnection wiring

Design Diversity

- ✓ Idea:
 - Design faults are “aspects” of design
 - Different designs, different faults
 - Produce multiple designs—independent level.
 - Operate in parallel at execution time
- ✓ Applies to all types of design fault
- ✓ Can be configured using many system architectures, like NMR, TMR, etc.

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Hazard Reduction

- ✓ Reduce the likelihood of hazards
- ✓ Use of barriers, physical or logical
 - Lock-ins
 - Lock-outs
 - Interlocks
- ✓ Failure minimization
 - Redundancy
 - Recovery

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Forms of Redundancy

- ✓ Hardware redundancy
- ✓ Software redundancy
- ✓ Information redundancy
- ✓ Temporal (time) redundancy

- ✓ Design diversity, for hardware/software
 - Develop different implementations of the same hardware/software component
 - Called N-version programming
 - Then apply static or dynamic redundancy

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Hardware Redundancy

- ✓ Static redundancy
 - Component (at least) triplicated
 - Triple Modular Redundancy (TMR), N-Modular Redundancy (NMR)
 - Voting element used to remove effects of single failure
 - Loss Of Unit Implies:
 - Removal Or Containment
 - Service Provided By Those That Remain
- ✓ Dynamic redundancy
 - Component has a mirror that is invoked when fault occurs
 - Cold or Hot Standby, spares
 - Loss Of Unit Implies:
 - Removal Or Containment
 - Introducing Standby Unit

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Fault Tolerant System Example

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B777 Primary Flight Computer Architecture

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N Modular Redundancy

- ✓ Independent development of modules
- ✓ This is what Boeing did with N = 3 for processors
- ✓ Operation:
 - Parallel—forward error recovery
 - Serial—backward error recovery
- ✓ In software with forward error recovery, referred to as N-version programming
- ✓ In software with backward error recovery, referred to as recovery block

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B777 PFC CPUs

- ✓ Problem:
 - Processors often (essentially always) contain design faults, need to deal with them
 - 777 channel is a TMR system
- ✓ Three manufacturers, three designs
- ✓ Are these designs different?
- ✓ How would you measure the difference?
- ✓ What metric is there for design diversity?

Redundancy

- ✓ Software redundancy, e.g. N-version programming
- ✓ Information redundancy, e.g., checksums, cyclic redundancy codes, error correcting codes
- ✓ Hybrid redundancy

N-Version Programming

- ✓ NMR for software
- ✓ Practical issues:
 - Cost of development, team separation
 - Resources during execution
 - Different execution times for different versions
 - Different but similar output values
 - Different but valid output values (multiple correct solutions)

N-Version Programming

- ✓ Performance:
 - Assumed statistical independence
 - If not independent, then no lower bound
 - Common specification defects
 - Common implementation (design) faults
- ✓ Problem compounded by comparison checking during testing

Hybrid Redundancy

- ✓ N-S modular redundancy with “S” spares
- ✓ As members of the N-S fail, spares switched in
- ✓ Able to tolerate up to N-2 failures
- ✓ Spares may be unpowered:
 - Saves power
 - Unpowered units much more reliable than powered
 - Attention required to infant mortality
- ✓ Clearly applicable to:
 - Long-duration systems
 - Systems with no repair opportunity

Space Shuttle Computer System

- ✓ Uses combination of
 - Redundancy, fault detection and design diversity
- ✓ Hardware voting on sensors and actuators
- ✓ Five identical computers
 - During critical stages, four computers work in NMR with voting for fault detection
 - Fifth computer performs non-critical functions, e.g. communications
- ✓ Fault tolerance
 - Tolerates failure of two computers
 - In case of third failure, crew/ground control decide which computer wins
 - Fifth computer can take over control, uses different software

Recovery

- ✓ Can reduce failures by recovering after error detected but before component or system failure occurs
- ✓ Recovery can only take place after detection of error
 - Backward recovery
 - Forward recovery

Error Detection

- ✓ Based on check that is independent of implementation of the system
 - coding - parity checks and checksums
 - reasonableness - range and invariants
 - reversal - calculate square of square root
 - diagnostic - hardware built-in tests
 - timing - timeouts or watchdogs

Error Detection (cont.)

- ✓ Timing of error detection important
 - early error detection can be used to prevent propagation
 - late error detection requires a check of the entire activity of system
- ✓ Checking may be in several forms
 - monitor, acting after a system function, checking outputs after production but before use
 - kernel, encapsulating (safety-critical) functions in a subsystem that allows all inputs to and outputs from the kernel to be checked

Backward Recovery

- ✓ Corrects errors through reversing previous operations
- ✓ Return system to a previous known safe state
- ✓ Allows retry
- ✓ Requires checkpoints or saved states (and the expenses involved with producing them)
- ✓ Rollback usually impossible with real-time system

Forward Recovery

- ✓ Corrects errors without reversing previous operations, finding safe (but possibly degraded) state for system
 - data repair, use redundancy in data to perform repairs
 - reconfiguration, use redundancy such as backup or alternate systems
 - coasting, continue operations ignoring (hopefully transient) errors
 - exception processing, only continue with selection of (safetycritical) functions
 - failsafe, achieve safe state and cease processing
 - use passive devices (e.g., deadman switch) instead of active devices (e.g., motor holding weight up)

Hazard Control

- ✓ Detect and control hazard before damage occurs
- ✓ Reduce the level or duration of the hazard
- ✓ Hazard control mechanisms include:
 - Limiting exposure: reduce the amount of time that a system is in an unsafe state (e.g. don't leave rocket in armed state)
 - Isolation and containment
 - Fail safe design

Damage Limitation

- ✓ In addition to eliminating hazards or employing safety devices, consider
 - warning devices
 - procedures
 - training
 - emergency planning
 - maintenance scheduling
 - protective measures

Architectural Design

- ✓ Suitable architectures may allow a high integrity system to be built from lower integrity components
 - combinations of components must implement a safety function independently
 - overall likelihood of failure should be the same or less
 - be wary of common failure causes
- ✓ Apportionment approaches can be quantitative and/or qualitative
 - quantitative: numerical calculations
 - qualitative: judgement or rules of thumb

Fault Tolerance

Basics

- ✓ Computing systems are characterized by five fundamental properties:
 - functionality
 - usability
 - performance
 - cost
 - dependability

Faults

- ✓ Faults are there!
- ✓ Either prevent, **tolerate**, remove or forecast
- ✓ We need redundancy
 - System that is more complex than needed for performing the required task

Means to Achieve Dependability

- ✓ Fault prevention
 - Good design processes, avoid design flaws
 - Good procedures for runtime faults
- ✓ Fault tolerance
 - Fault detection
 - Redundancy
 - Diversity
- ✓ Fault removal
 - Verification and validation during design
 - Corrective/preventive action during maintenance
- ✓ Fault forecasting
 - Simulation, modelling, prediction
 - Analysis based on history statistics

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Fault Tolerance

- ✓ Automobile:
 - Spare Tires
 - Dual Braking Systems
- ✓ Power Supplies:
 - UPS/battery backup
 - Power-fail interrupts
- ✓ Multiple engines on aircraft
- ✓ Emergency lighting in buildings
- ✓ Tape backups of disk files
- ✓ Checkpoint/restart of long-running programs
- ✓ Parity and SECEDED in computer memories

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Faults

- ✓ Random faults (Degradation faults)
 - Arise during operation
 - Usually hardware component failure
- ✓ Systematic faults (Design Faults)
 - mistakes in the spec
 - mistakes in the hardware
 - mistakes in the software

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Faults

- ✓ Faults are either permanent, transient or intermittent
- ✓ Design faults are always permanent
- ✓ Dealing with faults:
 - During development: fault avoidance & removal
 - During operation: fault tolerance & detection

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Hardware Faults

- ✓ Use of fault models
- ✓ Decomposition into modules
 - Gates, transistors, etc
- ✓ Connection faults
 - Single stuck-at model, bridging model (shorts), stuck-open
- ✓ Used to model hardware faults
 - Design testing schemes for digital circuits
 - Fault removal coverage usually less than 100%
 - Guard against physical defects, not design faults
- ✓ In safety critical systems
 - Combined with Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)
 - Need fault avoidance by verification...

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Other Faults

- ✓ Hardware design and specification faults
 - Few fault models available
 - Many faults cannot be modelled
 - System must meet the spec, but spec might be incorrect as well
 - Spec errors may manifest as either hardware or software failures
 - Use of formal methods (formal spec. languages, automata theory, formal verification, model checking, etc.)

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Software Faults

- ✓ Bugs:
 - Software spec faults
 - Coding faults
 - Logical errors within calculations
 - Stack overflows or underflows
 - Uninitialized variables
- ✓ No random failures and it does not degrade with age
- ✓ Always systematic
- ✓ Exhaustive testing almost impossible
- ✓ Must be tolerated

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SW Testing - i.e. Verification

- ✓ Verification:
 - SW testing
 - formal verification
- ✓ Functional and structural testing
- ✓ Path testing, transaction flow testing, data-flow testing, domain testing, mutation testing etc.

Fault Detection Techniques

- ✓ Functionality checking
 - march test
- ✓ Consistency checking
 - range checking, overflow
- ✓ Signal comparison
- ✓ Information redundancy
 - checksums, cyclic redundancy codes, error correcting codes
- ✓ Monitoring techniques
 - Loopback testing
 - Power supply monitoring

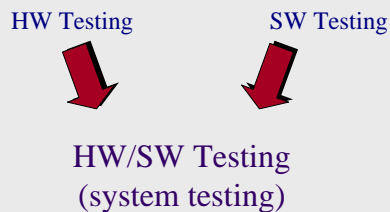
Watchdog Timer

- ✓ An inexpensive method of error detection
- ✓ Process being watched must reset the timer before the timer expires, otherwise the watched process is assumed as faulty
- ✓ Watchdog timers only detect errors which manifest themselves as a control-flow error such that the system does not continue to reset the timer
- ✓ Only processes with relatively deterministic runtimes can be checked, since the error detection is based entirely on the time between timer resets

Heartbeats

- ✓ A common approach to detecting process and node failures in a distributed (networked) computing environment.
- ✓ Periodically, a monitoring entity sends a message (a heartbeat) to a monitored node or process and waits for a reply.
- ✓ If the monitored node does not respond within a predefined timeout interval, the node is declared as failed and appropriate recovery action is initiated.
- ✓ Adaptive or smart

System Testing




Software Testing

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Programmers are in a race with the Universe to create bigger and better idiot-proof programs.

While the Universe is trying to create bigger and better idiots.


So far the Universe is winning



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Software Testing Topics

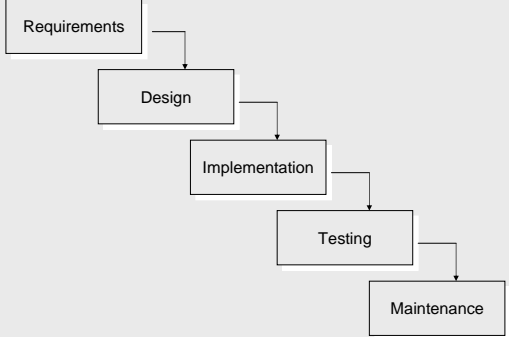
- ✓ Test Economics
- ✓ Types of Testing
- ✓ Testing coverage



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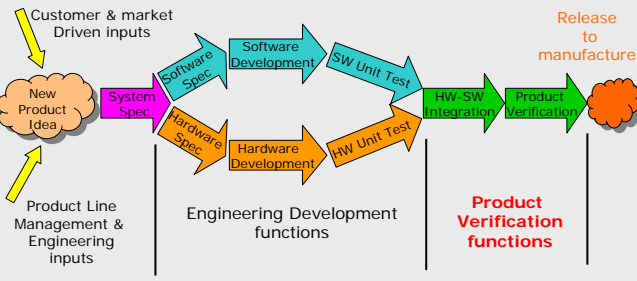
Software Life Cycle



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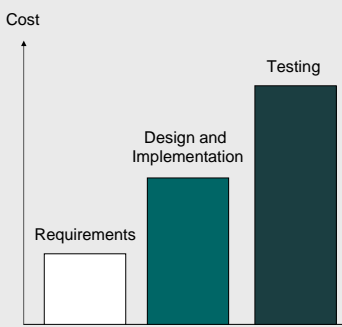
The Product Development Cycle



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Software Development Costs




- ✓ For life-critical software (e.g. flight control, reactor monitoring), testing can cost 3 to 5 times as much as all other activities combined.
- ✓ Stop testing is a business decision
 - There is always something more to test
 - Risk based decision

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Software Life Cycle Costs



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Software Qualities

- ✓ Correctness
- ✓ Reliability (dependability)
- ✓ Robustness
- ✓ Safety
- ✓ Security (survivability)
- ✓ Performance
- ✓ Productivity
- ✓ Maintainability, portability, interoperability,
- ...

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Software Verification and Validation

- ✓ Verification
 - Are we building the product right?
 - Process-oriented
 - Does the product of a given phase fulfill the requirements established during the previous phase?
- ✓ Validation
 - Are we building the right product?
 - Product-oriented
 - Does the product of a given phase fulfill the user's requirements?

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Techniques for V&V

- ✓ Static
 - Collects information about a software without executing it
 - Reviews, walkthroughs, and inspections
 - Static analysis
 - Formal verification
- ✓ Dynamic
 - Collects information about a software with executing it
 - Testing: finding errors
 - Debugging: removing errors

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Static Analysis

- ✓ Control flow analysis and data flow analysis
 - Extensively used for compiler optimization and software engineering
- ✓ Examples
 - Unreachable statements
 - Variables used before initialization
 - Variables declared but never used
 - Variables assigned twice but never used between assignments
 - Variables used twice with no intervening assignment
 - Possible array bound violations

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Formal Verification

- ✓ Given a model of a program and a property, determine whether the model satisfies the property based on mathematics
- ✓ Examples
 - Safety
 - If the light for east-west is green, then the light for south-north should be red
 - Liveness
 - If a request occurs, there should be a response eventually in the future

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Introduction to Testing

- ✓ Debugging and testing are not the same thing!
- ✓ Testing is a systematic attempt to break a program.
 - Correct, bug-free programs by construction are the goal but until that is possible (if ever!) we have testing.
 - Since testing is basically **destructive** in nature, it requires that the tester discard *preconceived* notions of the *correctness* of the software to be tested

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Testing

Apply input → Software → Observe output

Validate the observed output

Is the observed output the same as the expected output?

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Software Testing Fundamentals

- ✓ Testing objectives include
 - Testing is a process of executing a program with the intent of finding an error.
 - A **good** test case is one that has a high probability of finding an as yet undiscovered error.
 - A **successful** test is one that uncovers an as yet undiscovered error.

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Limitations of Testing (I)

- ✓ To test all possible inputs is impractical or impossible


```
int foo(int x) {
    y = very-complex-computation(x);
    write(y);
}
```
- ✓ To test all possible paths is impractical or impossible


```
int foo(int x) {
    for (index = 1; index < 10000; index++)
        write(x);
}
```

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Limitations of Testing (II)

- ✓ Dijkstra, 1972
 - Testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never their absence
- ✓ Goodenough and Gerhart, 1975
 - Testing is successful if the program fails
- ✓ The (modest) goal of testing
 - Testing cannot guarantee the correctness of software but can be effectively used to find errors (of certain types)

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Economics of Testing (I)

- ✓ The characteristic S-curve for error removal

Number of defects found

Testing is effective

We need other techniques

Cutoff point

Time spent testing

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Economics of Testing (II)

- ✓ Testing tends to intercept errors in order of their probability of occurrence

Number of defects

Progress of testing

Found

Not yet found

Less likely = More critical

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Economics of Testing (III)

- ✓ Verification is insensitive to the probability of occurrence of errors

Number of defects

Not yet found

Found

Progress of verification

Less likely = More critical

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Fundamental Questions in Testing

- ✓ When can we stop testing?
 - Test coverage
- ✓ What should we test?
 - Test generation
- ✓ Is the observed output correct?
 - Test oracle
- ✓ How well did we do?
 - Test efficiency
- ✓ Who should test your program?
 - Independent V&V

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Types of Testing

Level

regression
acceptance
system
integration
unit

Accessibility

white box
grey box
black box

functional
reliability
robustness
performance
usability

Aspect

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Levels of Testing

What users really need

Acceptance testing

Requirements

System testing

Design

Integration testing

Code

Unit testing

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Component/Unit Testing (I)

- ✓ A unit of testing
 - Functions in procedural programming languages such as C, Fortran, ...

```

Test driver  F1(int x1, y1) {
              .....
              F2(x1+1, y1-1);
              }

Test unit    F2(int x2, y2) {
              .....
              F3(x2+2, y2-1);
              }

Test stub    F3(int x3, y3) {
              .....
              }
    
```

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Component/Unit Testing (II)

- ✓ Require knowledge of code
 - High level of detail
 - Deliver thoroughly tested components to integration
- ✓ Stopping criteria
 - Code Coverage
 - Quality

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Component/Unit Testing (III)

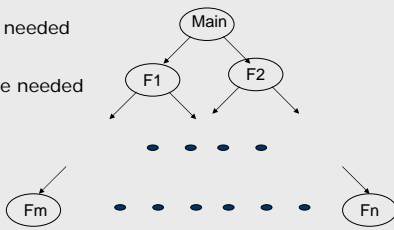
- ✓ Test case
 - Input, expected outcome, purpose
 - Selected according to a strategy, e.g., branch coverage
- ✓ Outcome
 - Pass/fail result
 - Log, i.e., chronological list of events from execution

Integration Testing (I)

- ✓ Interactions among units (assembled components that must be tested and accepted previously)
 - Import/export type compatibility
 - Import/export range errors
 - F1 calls F2 with a parameter of array
 - F1 assumes array of size 8, while F2 assumes an array of size 10
 - Import/export representation
 - F1 calls F2 with a parameter Elapsed_time
 - F1 thinks in seconds, while F2 thinks in milliseconds

Integration Testing (II)

- ✓ Strategies for integration testing
 - Top-down
 - Stubs are needed
 - Bottom-up
 - Drivers are needed
 - Big-bang
 - Functional
- Drivers & stubs have to be tested as well!



System Testing (I)

- ✓ Tests the overall system (the integrated hardware and software) to determine whether the system meets its requirements
- ✓ Focuses on the use and interaction of system functionalities rather than details of implementations
- ✓ Test cases derived from specification
- ✓ Should be carried out by a group independent of the code developers
- ✓ Should be planned with the same rigor as other phases of the software development
- ✓ Use-case focus

System Testing (II)

- ✓ Non-functional testing
- ✓ Quality attributes
 - Performance, can the system handle required throughput?
 - Reliability, obtain confidence that system is reliable
 - Timeliness, testing whether the individual tasks meet their specified deadlines
 - etc.

Acceptance Testing

- ✓ User (or customer) involved
- ✓ Environment as close to field use as possible
- ✓ Focus on:
 - Building confidence
 - Compliance with defined acceptance criteria in the contract

Re-Test and Regression Testing (I)

- ✓ Conducted after a change
- ✓ Re-test aims to verify whether a fault is removed
 - Re-run the test that revealed the fault
- ✓ Regression test aims to verify whether new faults are introduced
 - Re-run all tests
 - Should preferably be automated

Re-test & Regression Testing (II)

- ✓ Development versus maintenance
 - Development costs: 1/3
 - Maintenance costs: 2/3
- ✓ Testing in maintenance phase
 - How can we test modified or newly inserted programs?
 - Ignore old test suites and make new ones from the scratch or
 - Reuse old test suites and reduce the number of new test suites as many as possible

Accessibility of Testing

- ✓ White box testing (structural testing, program-based testing)
- ✓ White box testing is a test case design method that uses the control structure of the procedural design to derive test cases. Test cases can be derived that
 - guarantee that all independent paths within a module have been exercised at least once,
 - exercise all logical decisions on their true and false sides,
 - execute all loops at their boundaries and within their operational bounds, and
 - exercise internal data structures to ensure their validity.

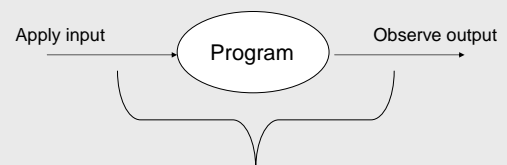
Accessibility of Testing (II)

- ✓ Black box testing (functional testing, specification-based testing)
 - Assumes that the program is unavailable or testers do not want to look at the details of the program
 - Derives test cases from the requirements of the program
 - Controls and observes the program only through external interfaces
 - Ideally done by independent test group (not original programmer)
- ✓ Grey box testing

Program-Based Testing (I)

- ✓ Main steps
 - Examine the internal structure of a program
 - Design a set of inputs satisfying a coverage criterion
 - Apply the inputs to the program and collect the actual outputs
 - Compare the actual outputs with the expected outputs
- ✓ Limitations
 - Cannot catch omission errors
 - What requirements are missing in the program?
 - Cannot provide test oracles
 - What is the expected output for an input?

Program-Based Testing (II)



Validate the observed output against the expected output

Who will take care of test oracles?

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Statement Coverage

- ✓ Statement coverage of a set of test cases is defined to be the proportion of statements in a unit covered by those test cases.
- ✓ 100% statement coverage for a set of tests means that all statements are covered by the tests. That is, all statements will be executed at least once by running the tests.

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Branch Coverage

- ✓ Branch coverage is determined by the proportion of decision branches that are exercised by a set of proposed test cases.
- ✓ 100% branch coverage is where every decision branch in a unit is visited by at least one test in the set of proposed test cases.

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Example – Branch coverage

What branch coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Branch coverage

What branch coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Branch coverage

What branch coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Branch coverage

What branch coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Branch coverage

```

    graph TD
      A((A)) --> B((B))
      A((A)) --> C((C))
      C((C)) --> D((D))
      C((C)) --> E((E))
      B((B)) --> G((G))
      D((D)) --> F((F))
      E((E)) --> F((F))
      F((F)) --> G((G))
    
```

What branch coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

4 in total.

4 covered

So $4/4 = 100\%$ branch coverage

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Path Coverage

- ✓ Path coverage is determined by assessing the proportion of execution paths through a unit exercised by the set of proposed test cases.
- ✓ 100% path coverage is where every path in the unit is executed at least once by the set of proposed test cases.
- ✓ 100% path coverage is achieved by an ideal test set. As we saw the other week, it is all but impossible or infeasible in most programs of any size.

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Example – Path coverage

```

    graph TD
      A((A)) --> B((B))
      A((A)) --> C((C))
      C((C)) --> D((D))
      C((C)) --> E((E))
      B((B)) --> G((G))
      D((D)) --> F((F))
      E((E)) --> F((F))
      F((F)) --> G((G))
    
```

What path coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Path coverage

```

    graph TD
      A((A)) --> B((B))
      A((A)) --> C((C))
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      C((C)) --> E((E))
      B((B)) --> G((G))
      D((D)) --> F((F))
      E((E)) --> F((F))
      F((F)) --> G((G))
    
```

What path coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

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Example – Path coverage

```

    graph TD
      A((A)) --> B((B))
      A((A)) --> C((C))
      C((C)) --> D((D))
      C((C)) --> E((E))
      B((B)) --> G((G))
      D((D)) --> F((F))
      E((E)) --> F((F))
      F((F)) --> G((G))
    
```

What path coverage is achieved by **ABG, ACDFG, ACEFG**?

3/3=100%

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Coverage

- ✓ It is possible to have 100% statement coverage without 100% branch coverage
- ✓ It is possible to have 100% branch coverage without 100% path coverage
- ✓ 100% path coverage implies 100% branch coverage and 100% branch coverage implies 100% statement coverage

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An example

- ✓ Test cases covering ABDEG and ACDFG cover 4/4 branches (100%) and 7/7 statements (100%)
- ✓ They, however, only cover 2/4 paths (50%).

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An example

- ✓ Test cases covering ABDEG and ACDFG cover 4/4 branches (100%) and 7/7 statements (100%)
- ✓ They, however, only cover 2/4 paths (50%).
- ✓ 2 more tests are required to achieve 100% path coverage
 - ABDFG

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An example

- ✓ Test cases covering ABDEG and ACDFG cover 4/4 branches (100%) and 7/7 statements (100%)
- ✓ They, however, only cover 2/4 paths (50%).
- ✓ 2 more tests are required to achieve 100% path coverage
 - ABDFG, ACDEG

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Loop Testing

- ✓ It is usually impossible or infeasible to test all paths in a program involving loops
- ✓ Basis Path Testing
 - Zero path: Test zero iterations of the loop body (Guard is negated by loop initialisation)
 - One path: Test a single iteration of the loop body (Good idea to try for 100% path coverage of loop body if loop body is not iterative)
 - Does not consider maximum iteration termination in many cases
 - Does not consider combinations of loop body paths in successive iterations

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Mutation testing

- ✓ Create a number of mutants, i.e., faulty versions of program
 - Each mutant contains one fault
 - Fault created by using mutant operators
- ✓ Run test on the mutants (random or selected)
 - When a test case reveals a fault, save test case and remove mutant from the set, i.e., it is killed
 - Continue until all mutants are killed
- ✓ Results in a set of test cases with high quality
- ✓ Need for automation

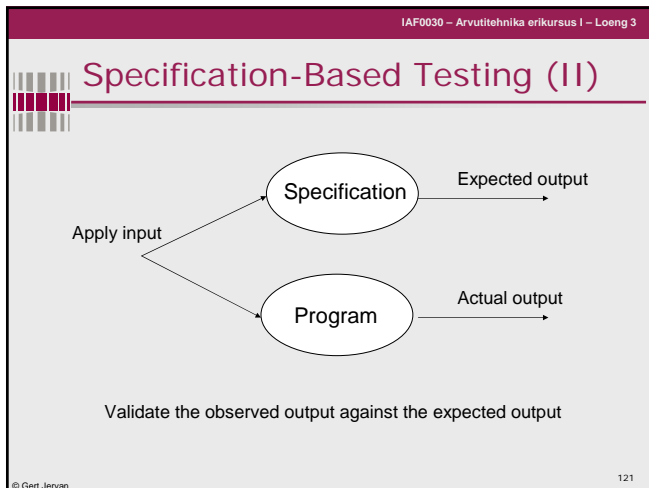
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Specification-Based Testing (I)

- ✓ Main steps
 - Examine the structure of the program's specification
 - Design a set of inputs from the specification satisfying a coverage criterion
 - Apply the inputs to the specification and collect the expected outputs
 - Apply the inputs to the program and collect the actual outputs
 - Compare the actual outputs with the expected outputs
- ✓ Limitations
 - Specifications are not usually available
 - Many companies still have only code, there is no other document.

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Object-Oriented Program Testing

- ✓ Unit testing for OO Programs
 - A class is a set of variables and member functions
 - 50% of member functions are just 10 lines of code
 - A class is often a unit of testing in C++ or Java
- ✓ Integration testing for OO Programs
 - Rule of thumb in OO development
 - Make a large number of small classes in a bottom-up fashion
 - There are several relationships between classes
 - Association, aggregation, inheritance, concurrency

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Steps to Testing Nirvana

- ✓ Think about potential problems as you design and implement. Make a note of them and develop tests that will exercise these problem areas.
 - Document all loops and their boundary conditions, all arrays and their boundary conditions, all variables and their range of permissible values.
 - Pay special attention to parameters from the command line and into functions and what are their valid and invalid values.
 - Enumerate the possible combinations and situations for a piece of code and design tests for all of them.
 - GIGO - what happens when garbage goes in?

Kernighan, Pike, "The Practice of Programming"

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Steps to Testing Nirvana

- ✓ Test systematically, starting with easy tests and working up to more elaborate ones.
 - Often leads to "bottom up" testing, starting with simplest modules at the lowest level of calling
 - When those are working, test their callers
 - Document (and/or automate) this testing so that it can be repeated (regression testing) constantly as the code grows and changes.

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Steps to Testing Nirvana

- ✓ Within a module, test *incrementally* as you code
 - Write, test, add more code, test again, repeat
 - The earlier that errors are detected, the easier they are to locate and fix.
 - Testing is not only concerning code
 - Documents and models should also be subject to testing

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Tricks of the Trade

- ✓ Test boundary conditions.
 - loops and conditional statements should be checked to ensure that loops are executed the correct number of times and that branching is correct
 - if code is going to fail, it usually fails at a boundary
 - check for off-by-one errors, empty input, empty output

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Questions?