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Abstract

Software errors can be a serious problem, because of possible damages (and related costs) and the burden of the needed corrections. Software testing, whose aim is to discover the errors in software products, requires a lot of resources and from it derives the overall quality (i.e. reliability) of the software product.

Testing is a decisive factor in attempting to discover as soon as possible, and so reduce, the presence of errors; it involves a lot of resources against an error discovery expectation, and is thus susceptible of optimization: i.e., the best equilibrium between the number of tests to make and the global expected value of discovered errors has actually to be achieved. In fact, it is not economically feasible to proceed with testing over a given limit as well as to execute too few tests, running in the risk of having too heavy expenses because of too residual errors.

In the present work we propose some models of software testing optimization, making use of an integer linear programming approach solved with a “branch & bound” algorithm.

JEL classification: C61, C63.
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1 Introduction

The presence of errors in system and application software causes remarkable costs, both because of the damages provoked and the burden of the needed corrections. Testing, an activity whose aim is to discover the (inevitable) errors embedded in software products, requires a lot of resources and costs during the development and maintenance phases.

The overall quality of the software product, especially in critical application domains such as the medical one (see Weide (1994)), is therefore mostly related to the presence (or absence) of errors, that is to reliability that can be defined as the probability that it works properly (without errors) within a given period of time (Myers (1976), Miller (1978), Howden (1978c), Miller (1977), Howden (1978a), Ramamoorthy and Bastiani (1982), Hamlet (1988), Miller and Howden (1981)).

Even though noting that error is not an intrinsic characteristic of software (because of its being tied to use conditions and user expectations) it is undoubtable that testing is a decisive factor in attempting to discover as soon as possible, and so reduce, the presence of errors (Fairley (1978)). Testing takes up a lot of (money and time) resources against an error discovery expectation, and is thus susceptible of optimization: i.e., the best equilibrium between the number of tests to make and the global expected value of discovered errors has actually to be achieved. In fact, it is not economically feasible to proceed with testing over a given limit as well as to execute too few tests, running in the risk of having too heavy expenses because of too residual errors (Sorkowitz (1979)).

Of course, given the intrinsic probabilistic nature of error discovery, the value of a test-case execution may be assigned only with probabilistic (or statistical) criteria, or with a-priori (even rough) estimates (Ceriani et al. (1979), Green et al. (1976), Cabe (1976), Kuo-Chung (1980), Huang (1978), Woodward et al. (1980), Zeil and White (1981)).

2 Software Testing

Testing is an activity that receives in input the software product and outputs a quality report. Validation is performed against requirements (which expose the software functional nature, i.e. “what it does”) and project (which expose the software logical nature, i.e. “how it does”) specifications (Myers (1976), Fairley (1978), Branstad et al. (1980), Sorkowitz (1979), Ceriani et al. (1980), Miller (1978), Clarke (1976)).
2.1 Testing approaches


Such approaches are enforced by several studies revealing a strong correlation between software complexity (given by its structural properties) and error characteristics (number, type, discovery and correction time). The program structure influences the number of the possible paths (e.g., a program with a backward goto in its execution flow as potentially infinite paths), Schneidewind (1979), Green et al. (1976), Cabe (1976), Kuo-Chung (1980).

Being, however, an exhaustive testing (of all the possible paths defined by program logic and functionality) impossible, one may want to select an optimal (in economic sense) test-case set.

2.2 Testing strategies

There are “static” testing strategies, which do not imply program execution. They substantially lead themselves to a deep code inspection and reach, however, preliminary and limited outcomes (Fairley (1978), Clarke (1976), Howden (1978a), Darringer and King (1978), Gannon (1979), Myers (1978), Basili and Belby (1987), Miller and Howden (1981)). There are several “dynamic” strategies (based upon program execution), from which the most significant seem to be Fairley (1978), Howden (1980), Howden (1976), Howden (1978b), Gannon (1979), Myers (1978), Basili and Belby (1987), Miller and Howden (1981).

2.2.1 Path testing

It tends to execute every program graph path at least once; given the huge number of possible paths (in a nontrivial program) this strategy can be applied only with drastic reductions. Besides, it may be observed that the candidate errors to be revealed by path testing are those of logic and computational type.
2.2.2 Branch testing

It requires each branch in a program to be tested at least once; it is one of the simplest and best known strategies, but obviously less effective than path testing because error depends more upon branches combination than upon a single one.

2.2.3 Functional testing

It aims to verify software functionalities independently from its internal structure (i.e. implementation logic). It requires test-case selection to be made upon functional relationships between input and output domain values. Being of course all the possible I/O relationships near to infinity, here too there is the problem of extracting a suitable test-case set.

2.2.4 Structured testing

It approximates path testing, and requires the software system under test to be broken down into a hierarchy of functional modules, in which the single modules are first tested (functional testing) and then their integration inside the whole software system is verified (integrated path testing). Structured testing increases branch testing reliability because it allows to verify branch combinations.

No one testing strategy is complete and reliable, however, in the sense that no one of them guarantees software correctness.

2.3 Approaches for testing optimization models

The behaviour of tests effectiveness with respect to allocated resources (work, money, time, computation) is asymptotic (see fig. 1). This means that, among all possible tests, only a part of them is economically useful (Branstad et al. (1980), Sorkowitz (1979), Ceriani et al. (1980), Clarke (1976), Ramamoorthy et al. (1976), Ceriani et al. (1979), Zeil and White (1981)).

Testing optimization is a particular resource allocation problem. Let us assign to each program’s runnable path its test execution cost (e.g. related to execution time) and its test execution value related to possible found errors (e.g. related to instructions number and/or program blocks executed). The tests’ execution total value is the sum of selected paths’ tests execution, and the tests’ execution total cost is the sum of their corresponding costs.
Two possible approaches to the definition of models of testing optimization are:

- \((M_1)\) Limited resources model. To maximize the total tests’ execution value, given a maximum total execution cost.

- \((M_2)\) Given quality model. To minimize the total tests’ execution cost, given a minimum total execution value.

3 Testing optimization models

3.1 Model variables

**Definition 1** PROGRAM BLOCK: a program unit which consists of a set of consecutive instructions executed sequentially.

**Definition 2** PROGRAM PATH: a sequence of (not necessarily consecutive) repeatable blocks; the first block contains the starting program’s instruction, and the last contains an “end program” instruction.
**Definition 3** **PATH LENGTH:** the number of (repeatable) blocks in a program path.

**Definition 4** **SIMPLE PATH:** a path with no repeated block in it.

**Definition 5** **RUNNABLE PATH:** a path for which exists some input data forcing its execution.

Subsets of runnable paths can be selected through the typical functional testing techniques, not requiring the construction of tests involving all possible combinations of input data values, but only those meaningful for program functionality.

Let us suppose to identify, inside a program, \( M \) blocks \( b_i \) (\( i = 1..M \)). Let \( N \) the number of runnable paths \( p_j \) (\( j = 1..N \)) determined through functional tests.

**Definition 6** **COMPOSITION MATRIX:** a matrix \( A = \{a_{i,j}\} \) defined as \( a_{i,j} = 1 \) if the block \( b_i \) belongs to the runnable path \( p_j \), 0 otherwise (for \( i = 1..M \) and \( j = 1..N \)).

Its columns characterize the \( b_i \) blocks of which each \( p_j \) path is made up, while its rows characterize the \( p_j \) paths containing each \( b_i \) block.

**Definition 7** **COVERAGE DEGREE:** the coverage degree of a runnable path is the ratio between the number of its distinct blocks and the number of all program blocks, i.e.: \( T_j = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} a_{i,j} \) (\( j = 1..N \)).

**Definition 8** **EXECUTION MATRIX:** a matrix \( E = \{e_{i,j}\} \), where \( e_{i,j} \) represents the number of times the block \( b_i \) is executed within the runnable path \( p_j \) (\( i = 1..M; j = 1..N \)).

**Definition 9** **BLOCK LENGTH:** let \( l_i \) the length of a block expressed in number of statements.

Let us finally associate to each runnable path \( p_j \) a bivalent integer variable

\[
   x_j = \begin{cases} 
   1 & \text{if } p_j \text{ is selected for testing;} \\
   0 & \text{otherwise;} 
   \end{cases} 
\]

for \( j = 1..N \).
3.2 The objective function and the constraints

Let $c_j$ the test execution cost of $p_j$, and $v_j$ its execution value. E.g., the cost can be initially considered proportional to only the execution time, and not being dependent on error debug and fix times. Test execution value can then be considered equal to the number of statements (code lines) involved by the control flow during $p_j$ execution:

$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^{M} e_{i,j} l_i \quad (i = 1..N)$$

To hold account of the number of blocks covered by each path $p_j$, we correct its value through the coverage degree $T_j$, so its execution test value becomes:

$$v_j = T_j \sum_{i=1}^{M} e_{i,j} l_i \quad (j = 1..N) \quad (1)$$

The objective function $z_1$ of the testing optimization model $M_1$ (representing the total tests’ execution value) is:

$$z_1(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j x_j, \text{ to be maximized} \quad (2)$$

For model $M_2$ the objective function, representing the total tests’ execution cost, is:

$$z_2(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j, \text{ to be minimized} \quad (3)$$

In the $M_1$ approach, the overall value’s maximization must be done for a given maximum total test execution cost $c_{max}$, i.e.:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j \leq c_{max}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

The $M_2$ model requires the total test execution cost to be minimized for a given minimum total test execution value $v_{min}$, i.e.:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j x_j \geq v_{min}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$
Synthesizing, model $M_1$ is:

$$\text{max } z_1(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j x_j, \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j \leq c_{\text{max}}, \ x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

Model $M_2$ is:

$$\text{min } z_2(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j, \text{ subject to } \sum_{j=1}^{N} v_j x_j \geq v_{\text{min}}, \ x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

Both are integer bivalent linear programming models.

### 3.3 Block redundancy effect

The previous base models do not allow for program’s topological coverage factor, definable as the ratio between the number of distinct blocks within the chosen paths, and the total number of blocks in program.

In fact, because $M_1$’s objective function and $M_2$’s constraint does take into account the total number of executed - but not necessarily distinct - blocks, it may happen that the paths selected in an optimal solution of $M_1$ or $M_2$ cover a number of distinct blocks lower than those coverable within another nonoptimal (but obviously better) solution: i.e., the redundancy effect of blocks within the various test-case paths (measuring the correlation degree between paths in terms of common blocks) is not considered.

The **Redundancy Effect** can be defined, for each block $b_i$, as the number of paths in which the block is present respect to the total number of paths:

$$RE_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{i,j} \quad (4)$$

The **Global Redundancy Effect of Blocks** for all blocks is given by all $RE_i$’s average value, i.e.:

$$\text{GREB} = \frac{1}{M \cdot N} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{i,j} \quad (5)$$
3.4 Changing $M_1$ and $M_2$ models

In order to allow for block redundancy effect, a path execution test value may be corrected according to the value of the remaining selected paths and their blocks. This corresponds to associate to each block $N$ partial values (one for each path), representative of the contribution given by the block to the test value of each path.

Let $w_{i,j}$ the partial value associated to block $b_i$ in path $p_j$. If we assume $w_{i,j}$ to be positive only for those paths it belongs to, i.e.:

$$w_{i,j} \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{if block } b_i \text{ belongs to path } p_j \\ = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and that the sum of the partial values of the blocks be the path’s overall value, i.e.:

$$v_j = \sum_{i=1}^{M} w_{i,j} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

(6)

if we compare the right members of (1) and (6) we obtain:

$$w_{i,j} = e_{i,j}l_i T_j \quad (i = 1..M; j = 1..N)$$

To obtain the best overall value, it will be necessary to hypothesize the inclusion - in the solution - of the blocks in those paths in which they have the best (maximum) partial value $w_{i,j}$; from that, the total test execution value allowing for the blocks’ redundancy effect is given by the total sum of the maximum partial values of each block.

From above said, the new formulation of model $M_1$ becomes:

$$\max z_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_j\}, \quad \text{subject to}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j \leq c_{\text{max}}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

Model $M_2$ becomes:

$$\min z_2(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j, \quad \text{subject to}$$
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_j\} \geq v_{min}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N) \]

A completeness index of the test done is given, for both models, by the ratio between the obtained total test value and the desired total test value, i.e.:

\[ R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_i\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}\}} \]

4 Solution algorithm for the proposed optimization model

The two proposed optimization models are similar; we develop model \( M_1 \) because it appears more suitable to real situations.

Being \( M_1 \) a bivalent integer linear programming model, the most efficient (from the application simplicity and convergence speed to optimum solution point of view) algorithms are those based on “branch & bound” techniques. In particular the Land and Doig (1960) algorithm has been chosen, for the “knapsack” suitably modified problem.

This algorithm has some valuable advantages, such as:

- it is simple to apply;
- the maximum number of steps for it to converge is about \( 2^N \) (where \( N \) is the number of \( p_j \) chosen runnable paths);
- it is of combinatorial type and then speedier than an enumerative-like algorithm.

Moving forward in algorithm’s application, the initial problem is transformed into more and more simple ones, expressed similarly to the model, but with an ever lowering variables’ number. Land and Doig’s algorithm’s formulation for the model’s solution is:

\[
\max z(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_i\}, \text{ subject to } \\
\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_jx_j \leq c_{max}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)
\]
4.1 Initialization

Let $M$ blocks constitute the program $P$ to be tested, and let us suppose $N$ runnable paths have been discovered (through the functional testing of $P$’s specifications), among those a solution has to be chosen.

We may initialize the algorithm building the table $T$ illustrated in fig. 2, in which the columns $1..N$ of $V$, $W$ and $C$ are sorted on descending values of $v_j/c_j$. In this way it is possible to insert, in higher levels of the “branch & bound” algorithm’s tree (and so evaluate as soon as possible) those paths having a higher probability to become part of the problem’s optimal solution, so reducing the number of steps needed for the algorithm’s convergence.

![Algorithm’s initialization table T](image)

**Figure 2: Algorithm’s initialization table $T$**

4.1.1 Initial upper bound computation

Let $c_s = \min_{j=1..N} \{c_j\}$. Obviously, no more than $c_m = c_{\max}/c_s$ variables $x_j$ can be equal to 1 (because of the first model’s constraint); the initial upper bound is then given by:

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j} x_j\}$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

However, rather than $c_m$’s value it is important to know whether $c_m \geq 1$, for which $L$’s value makes sense; otherwise, if $c_m < 1$, there is no feasible solution.
4.2 The separation

The separation is carried out through first giving to first variable on the left of table $T$ the value 1 and then the value 0. So two (sub)problems are obtained: $\langle 1 \rangle$ and $\langle \tilde{1} \rangle$, formulated like the initial model and for which upper bounds for $z(x)$ will be computed.

4.3 Computation of the following bounds

Now we’ll examine the possibility of inserting path 1 into the solution. Let $c_s = \min_{j=1..N} \{c_j\}$.

As for problem $\langle 1 \rangle$, i.e. the problem in which is $x_j = 1$, no more than $c_m = c_{max} \cdot c_1/c_s$ variables $x_j (j = 2..N)$ can be 1. If $c_m \geq 1$ an upper bound $L\langle 1 \rangle$ for the value of $z(x)$ is given by: $L\langle 1 \rangle = v_1 + $ “total sum of maximum partial values $w_{i,j}$ relatively to blocks not belonging to path $p_1$”; if $c_m < 1$, the upper bound for $z(x)$ is only given by: $L\langle 1 \rangle = v_1$.

With regard to problem $\langle \tilde{1} \rangle$, instead, no more than $c_{m} = c_{max}/c_s$ variables $x_j (j = 2..N)$ may have the value 1. If $c_{\tilde{m}} \geq 1$ an upper bound $L\langle \tilde{1} \rangle$ for $z(x)$ is given by the total sum of maximum partial values $w_{i,j}$, except for those related to blocks belonging to path $p_1$; if $c_{\tilde{m}} < 1$, no feasible solution exists starting from problem $\langle \tilde{1} \rangle$.

The representative tree is now the one given in fig. 3.

![Diagram](image)

Figure 3: Representative tree - first step
4.4 Choosing the separation vertex

We define strictly feasible a feasible solution to which a further path cannot be added without it becoming unfeasible. Let $L_s$ the upper bound of $z(x)$ associated to the best strictly feasible solution. Initially, $L_s$ must be set to zero.

As regards the pending vertex to which bound $L(1)$ is associated, it will be said active if $L(1) \geq L_s$, otherwise it will be exhausted. Analogously for $L(\tilde{1})$.

If only one vertex is active, it will be selected for subsequent separation; otherwise, the following procedure will be applied. If $L(1) > L(\tilde{1})$ separation will be done on the vertex to which bound $L(1)$ is connected by first giving the second $x_j$ variable to the left in table $T$ the value 1 and then the value 0. So, two new problems $\langle 1, 2 \rangle$ and $\langle 1, \tilde{2} \rangle$ are obtained, formulated like the initial problem and for which the related bounds $L(1, 2)$ and $L(1, \tilde{2})$ will be computed.

If instead $L(1) < L(\tilde{1})$, separation will be done on the vertex associated to bound $L(\tilde{1})$, obtaining problems $\langle \tilde{1}, 2 \rangle$ and $\langle \tilde{1}, \tilde{2} \rangle$ for which the associated upper bounds $L(\tilde{1}, 2)$ and $L(\tilde{1}, \tilde{2})$ will be computed.

4.5 Generalizing the vertex’s choice on which carrying out the separation (branch)

At a given step of the algorithm’s application let us suppose to have “$t$” pending vertices and their related bounds $L P_1$, ..., $L P_t$. Let $L_s$ the bound associated to the best strictly feasible solution (see 4.4).

A generic pending vertex $r$ will be said active if $L P_r \geq L_s$ ($r = 1..t$); it will be said exhausted if $L P_r < L_s$. As already noted, the separation has to be done on active vertices.

Generally, there is more than one vertex in an intermediate step of the algorithm; among these, the active one with the maximum associated bound will be selected. If there is more than one “candidate” vertex for the separation, a random one will be picked out; in this case, one may agree to separate upon the candidate vertex representative of the most recently considered problem. The remaining vertices will surely be taken into account in the following steps.

Let us observe how such a generalization also holds for the first step of the algorithm, where the last pending vertices are those to which the upper bounds $L(1)$ and $L(\tilde{1})$ are associated. Moreover, picking as separation candidate vertex the one with the maximum bound is a “trick” limiting (together with sorting table $T$’s columns on descending $v_j/c_j$ ratios) the number of problems to be examined, i.e. the number of steps in the algorithm. It is in fact useless to proceed on
branching starting from an exhausted vertex, because only worse solutions than those already found would be obtained.

### 4.6 Generalizing $z(x)$’s upper bounds computation (bound)

Let the separation candidate vertex the one to which the problem indexed by $(\#1, \#2, ..., \#r)$, $r < N$ is associated, where $\#k = k$ if variable $x_k$ has been set to 1 (i.e. if the path $p_k$ has been selected), otherwise.

Separation is done by first giving to variable $x_{r+1}$ in table $T$ the value 1, and then the value 0. Two new problems are so obtained, which will be denoted by $(\#1, \#2, ..., \#r, r+1)$ and $(\#1, \#2, ..., \#r, \tilde{r}+1)$, formulated like the initial problem and for which the associated bounds will be computed.

For every new problem, the computation of $z(x)$’s upper bound will be executed as follows.

Besides the paths whose associated $x_j$ variables have value 1 (for $j = 1..r + 1$) it comes out that, letting $c_s = \min_{j=2..N}\{c_j\}$, no more than $c_m = (c_{max} - \sum_{j=1}^{r+1} c_j x_j)/c_s$ variables can be set to 1.

If $c_m \geq 1$ an upper bound for $z(x)$ will be given by the total sum of the maximum partial values of each block, relatively to those belonging to paths for which $x_j = 1$ ($j = 1..r + 1$), plus the sum of the maximum partial values of each block, in solution, not yet covered by at least one path. Formally:

$$L(\#1, \#2, ..., \#r + 1) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..r+1}\{w_{i,j} x_j\} + \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=r+2..N}^\wedge\{w_{i,j}\}$$

where $\wedge$ means that in every $i-th$ iteration the maximum among the $w_{i,j}$ has to be computed only if the block $b_i$ has not been selected in any path of the partial solution.

If $c_m < 1$ then we have only: $L(\#1, \#2, ..., \#r+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..r+1}\{w_{i,j} x_j\}$.

Let us observe, too, that if $c_m \geq 0$ the partial solution is not feasible. Such a generalization holds also in the initial upper bound computation; in fact, we have (still being $x_j = 0$ for $j = 1..N$): $c_m = c_{max}/c_s$ and then:

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N}^\wedge\{w_{i,j} x_j\} = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N}\{w_{i,j} x_j\}$$
5 Application of the model in software maintenance

In this section it will be examined the application of the proposed model of testing optimization to the software being modified in the maintenance phase.

5.1 Software maintenance

It has been estimated that software maintenance costs are in a ratio of 3 to 1 with the production ones; the maintenance activity, besides, tends to deteriorate the software product’s quality and reliability (Myers (1976), Sorkowitz (1979), Miller (1978), Ramamoorthy et al. (1976), Howden (1978a), Myers (1978), McCabe (1982), Miller and Howden (1981)).

The maintenance process objectives are (Myers (1976), Gelperin and Hetzel (1988), Ramamoorthy and Bastiani (1982), Hamlet (1988)):

- correction of errors missed in the testing phase and discovered during use;
- introduction of new functionalities;
- elimination of no more required functionalities;
- adaptation of software to new hardware configurations;
- possible optimization.

Whichever the objective is, the maintenance operation requires the following steps (Abbattista et al. (1980)):

1. determining the detailed lists of the maintenance operation;
2. understanding of the software module(s) on which to act;
3. finding the acting points;
4. finding the elements upon which the adopted changes’ effect spreads;
5. final testing of the changes.

Given the high algorithmic content and architectural complexity of the system software, one thinks that this is the more interesting area in the application of the techniques exposed in the present work. The more interesting is step 4 in which, after applying the required corrections to software after the specific operation, one
passes to examine all the instructions (or sets of instructions, such as e.g. blocks, routines, functional modules) which has to possibly be corrected because of the adopted changes.

Above all, step 5 is particularly important, in which we aim to apply the optimization model only to those paths being influenced by changes.

5.2 Inter-blocks influence matrix

Although in literature (Zeil and White (1981)) attempts are present to automate step 4 (i.e. finding the software parts directly or indirectly influenced by changes) we think this becomes a very difficult task when a real (and thus nontrivial) application is concerned.

By the way, a valid help to this task may come from the “influence matrix” $IB = \{i_{k,p}\}$ among the blocks of a program, so defined (Abbattista et al. (1980), Abbattista et al. (1981)):

$$i_{k,p} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if block } k \text{ influences block } p \text{ (directly or not)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for $k, p = 1..M$, being $M$ the number of distinct blocks in the program.

Because a block is made of a sequence of statements, we may say that there is a connection (or influence) between two blocks if they share some variables (created within the first and referenced within the second block) and are connected by the control flow both directly (in a single step) and indirectly (through several steps).

Let us assume that:

- if an array element is created or used (referenced), we agree that the entire array is created or referenced;
- as far as the interface variables of subprogram calls, we agree that those previously generated are referenced, while the others are created;
- in subprogram calls the global variables are there both created and referenced.

In figures 4 and 5 are represented a sample program and its related influence matrix $IB$, respectively.

Taking account of the meaning of $IB$’s elements, its more immediate use regards the fast finding of the program blocks (or software system modules) to examine after a change.
In fact, let us observe that a change made on a program can whether involve the rewriting or deletion of existing statements, or the introduction of new instructions or, eventually, a combination of the previous.

Therefore, whichever is the operation to be completed upon block $k$’s instructions, it is obvious that it turns out necessary to examine, generally, all the blocks influenced by $b_k$; such blocks are simply found after the examination of the $k$–th row of matrix $IB$.

In some cases (as for example when in the block $k$ the control flow is altered or a new variable is created) the change “upsets” the entire influence network around $b_k$: it is thus necessary to verify all blocks influencing $b_k$, too. In this case it will suffice to examine also the $k$–th column of matrix $IB$.

The examination of the new matrix $IB$, obtained after having applied all the necessary operations, moreover concurs to verify the congruence (with respect to the objectives of the maintenance process) of the new influences established among the program’s blocks.
5.3 Changes testing

After a program modification a very careful testing has to be made, in order to verify that the carried out changes do not degrade (indeed improve) software quality.

Also in the maintenance phase all those problematics occur (for the testing of the modified programs) that turn out in asserting that it is usually impossible to get an exhaustive testing and that lead to define the testing optimization models to the aim of select a certain subset of paths which have to be tested (selective testing, Zeil and White (1981)).

One may think to apply the proposed optimization model also to the testing of programs modified during the maintenance phase.

5.3.1 Finding the paths influenced by changes

One supposes that it is useless to test those paths not interested (i.e. whose blocks are not influenced) by any change because it means that they carry out their functionality correctly.

It is necessary to keep in mind, in the following exposition, that the runnable paths are extracted on the base of the detailed functional lists, and therefore to
every path corresponds a program’s functionality.

Starting with the matrices $A$ (see 3.1) and $IB$ (see 5.2), the paths influenced by the changes can be identified as those containing at least one block influenced by a change. Through these premises it is possible to develop an algorithm that allows to obtain the set of the paths (runnable before the modification) influenced by the change of the generic block $b_k$.

Let $BJ$ the indexes set of the program’s blocks influenced by the change. If $J$ is the indexes set of the runnable paths before the change, and $A_j$ is the $j$-th column of the composition matrix $A$ of the runnable paths, then:

$$PBJ = \{j \in J \mid A_j \cap BJ \neq \emptyset\}$$

is the indexes set of the paths influenced by the change.

### 5.3.2 Application of the testing optimization model

After making some changes to a program, one may consider to apply the testing optimization model to select one or more subsets of runnable paths. The testing of the chosen paths must guarantee that there has been no degradation of software quality after change application (Sorkowitz (1979), Ramamoorthy et al. (1976), Howden (1978a), Howden (1978c), Howden (1976), Ceriani et al. (1979), Cheung (1980)).

For the testing optimization model to be applied the runnable paths need to be defined, among those the solution model’s algorithm must select the paths to test.

Let $J^*$ the indexes set of all the paths not influenced by the changes; the paths in $J^*$ are not therefore considered in the application of the model.

The paths influenced by the changes are represented by the set $PBJ$ (see 5.3.1). Holding into account that every path identifies a program functionality, for each path in $PBJ$ it can happen that:

- the functionality carried out by that path has been removed because no more required: the path is then no more runnable and will no longer be considered in model’s application;

- the functionality carried out by that path is executed in a wrong manner: some changes have been adopted, the old path identified by a $PBJ$'s index has been removed and a new one (not belonging to $J^*$) is defined, which must be considered in the model solution algorithm’s application;
new functionalities and then new paths have been introduced, which has to be considered in model’s application.

Starting with the detailed lists of changes it is then possible to point out a set of runnable paths.

Let \( J' = \{1, 2, \ldots, N'\} \) the set of runnable paths within the modified program.

Usually, program’s modifications imply the changes of some program’s particular characteristics such as:

- total number of code lines;
- number of blocks \( M \);
- matrices \( A, E, IB, W \);
- values \( v_j \) for the paths in the set \( J^* \).

Let us suppose the changes do not influence the paths identified by \( J^* \): therefore such paths, being error-free and not modified, will not be considered in the model’s application.

Let then \( c_j \) the test execution cost of the \( j \)-th path, and \( v_j \) its test execution value. Let \( M' \) the number of blocks and \( W' = \{w'_{i,j}\} \) \((i = 1..M', j = 1..N')\) the partial values matrix of the modified program.

The optimization model in its application to the modified program then becomes:

\[
\max z(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_i\}, \text{ subject to }
\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j \leq c_{max}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)
\]

In conclusion, it is opportune to consider the importance that covers the blocks’ effect of redundancy upon the cardinality of the set \( PBJ \). It is easy to understand that the cardinality of such a set is proportional to the redundancy degree \( RE_i \) (see 3.3) of the blocks \( b_i \) which have been modified or have been influenced by changes.

In particular, if we suppose to modify an instruction of the block \( b_1 \) (the first block in the program, common to all the runnable paths; see figg. 4 and 5) we have \( RE_1 = 1 \), i.e. the block belongs to all paths and so they all have been influenced by the change; therefore, \( \text{card}(PB) = N \).
6 Use of the testing optimization model

In this section we show an example of the use of the proposed software testing optimization model. The model is applied to a simple Pascal program.

```
program TRIANGLE;
  var A, B, C, D: real;
begin
  writeln('** Triangle Test Program **');
  writeln;
  write('Input the lengths of the three sides:');
  readln(A, B, C);
  if (A<B) or (B<C) then begin
    writeln('Input data error');
    writeln('Values are not in decreasing order!');
  end else begin
    if (A<>B) or (B<>C) then begin
      A:=A*A;
      B:=B*B;
      C:=C*C;
      D:=B+C;
      if (A=D) then begin
        writeln('RECTANGLE TRIANGLE');
        writeln;
      end else begin
        if (A<D) then begin
          writeln('OBTUSE TRIANGLE');
          writeln;
        end else begin
          writeln('ACUTE TRIANGLE');
          writeln;
        end
      end
    end
end
end
```
24  9  else begin
25 10  if (A<>B) or (A<>C) then begin
26 10  writeln(‘ISOSCELES TRIANGLE’);
27 10  writeln;
28 11  end
29 11  else begin
30 11  writeln(‘EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE’);
31  end;
32  end;
33  end.

Figure 6: Sample program

6.1 Sample program

The sample program classifies triangles based upon their sides’ length, given in input; the values are integer and in decreasing order. The sample program’s output consists in a comment explaining the triangle’s type (rectangle, obtuse, acute, isosceles, equilateral). It is also present a check on the input data, which must be given in decreasing order: otherwise, an error message is written and the program ends.

In total, there are six program functionalities to which as many runnable paths correspond. In fig. 6 the sample program’s text is reported. In it are outlined:

- the code line number $S$;
- the program’s block $B$ to which each instruction belongs.

The sample program is composed of 11 blocks. Fig. 7 shows the number $l_i$ of code lines for each block $b_i$ ($i = 1..11$) and the total number of the program’s code lines.

Fig. 8 shows the sample program’s graph. It is composed of 11 nodes (one for each block) and 10 edges (one for each direct flow relationship existing between the blocks). From the graph one finds that the program is made of six runnable paths, everyone associated to a program’s functionality.

Fig. 9 represents the composition matrix of the sample program’s runnable paths. Let us observe that, because there is no cycle in the graph, each block is
executed only once in every path in which it appears; this means that the runnable paths’ execution matrix $E$ is identical to the matrix $A$. Fig. 10 allows to deter-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAM BLOCKS</th>
<th>b_1</th>
<th>b_2</th>
<th>b_3</th>
<th>b_4</th>
<th>b_5</th>
<th>b_6</th>
<th>b_7</th>
<th>b_8</th>
<th>b_9</th>
<th>b_{10}</th>
<th>b_{11}</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$l_i$</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: *Number of code lines for each block of the sample program*

mine the program functionality associated to each runnable path and the test data forcing each path’s execution. In fig. 11 the redundancy degree $RE_i$ of each block $b_i$ ($i = 1..11$) and the global redundancy effect GREB (see 3.3) are outlined.

![Sample program’s graph](image)

Figure 8: *Sample program’s graph*

Fig. 12 illustrates the sample program’s matrix $W$ of partial values, in which:

$$w_{i,j} = e_{i,j} \cdot l_i \cdot \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} a_{i,j}$$
Figure 9: Sample program’s composition (A) and execution (E) matrix.

![Matrix Image]

Figure 10: Functionalities and test data associated to each sample program’s path.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path Number</th>
<th>Functionality</th>
<th>Test Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>equilateral triangle</td>
<td>18 18 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>isosceles triangle</td>
<td>9 8 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>acute triangle</td>
<td>24 23 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>obtuse triangle</td>
<td>10 6 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>rectangle triangle</td>
<td>10 8 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>sides not in decreasing order</td>
<td>17 22 25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: Redundancy effects evaluation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Blocks</th>
<th>GREB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$RE_i$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_1$</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_2$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_3$</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_4$</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_5$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_6$</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_7$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_8$</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_9$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_{10}$</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b_{11}$</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: Redundancy effects evaluation.
The test execution values of each path, given by the sum of all its partial values, are represented in fig. 13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>( p_1 )</th>
<th>( p_2 )</th>
<th>( p_3 )</th>
<th>( p_4 )</th>
<th>( p_5 )</th>
<th>( p_6 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>( b_2 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>( b_4 )</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>( b_5 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_6 )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_7 )</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_8 )</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_9 )</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_{10} )</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( b_{11} )</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12: Partial values matrix for the sample program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>( p_1 )</th>
<th>( p_2 )</th>
<th>( p_3 )</th>
<th>( p_4 )</th>
<th>( p_5 )</th>
<th>( p_6 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( v_j )</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 13: Test execution values of the runnable paths for the sample program

### 6.2 Use of the testing optimization model

Supposing that the execution costs of each path and the prefixed maximum execution cost are those brought back in fig. 14, the table \( T \) (sorted on the decreasing ratios \( v_j/c_j \)) is that one represented in fig. 15.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>( p_1 )</th>
<th>( p_2 )</th>
<th>( p_3 )</th>
<th>( p_4 )</th>
<th>( p_5 )</th>
<th>( p_6 )</th>
<th>( c_{max} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( c_j )</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 14: Test execution costs of the runnable paths and maximum prefixed execution cost
From the algorithm’s application of the proposed optimization solution model we derive the table in fig. 16, where the four optimal solutions obtained are outlined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PATH</th>
<th>( p_3 )</th>
<th>( p_4 )</th>
<th>( p_5 )</th>
<th>( p_1 )</th>
<th>( p_2 )</th>
<th>( p_6 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( V )</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( B )</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( L )</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( O )</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C )</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( K )</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( L )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C )</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 15: Table \( T \) in algorithm’s sample application

In the table illustrated in fig. 17 the following optimal solutionos’ characteristics are brought back:

- paths selected for the testing;
- total test execution cost (see 2.3);
• program’s topological coverage reached (see 3.3);
• software product reliability reached (see 3.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OPTIMAL SOLUTION</th>
<th>PATHS SELECTED</th>
<th>OPTIMAL VALUE</th>
<th>TOTAL EXEC. COST</th>
<th>TOPOLOGICAL COVERAGE</th>
<th>RELIABILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1, 3, 6</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1, 4, 6</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2, 3, 6</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2, 4, 6</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 17: Optimal solutions’ characteristics

In figs. 18, 19, 20 and 21 are represented the paths selected for testing in every optimal solution, inside the sample program’s graph. Dots connect the non-executed blocks.

Figure 18: Paths selected for testing in solution #1

Fig. 22 represents a table in which the number of tests probing each block is summarized, in every optimal solution.
Figure 19: Paths selected for testing in solution #2

Figure 20: Paths selected for testing in solution #3
Figure 21: Paths selected for testing in solution #4

Figure 22: Number of test probing each block in every optimal solution
7 Conclusions

In order to solve (if it is ever possible to identify all the functional paths of a program) the problem of the optimal choice of paths for software testing (that is the identification of optimal test data) testing optimization models are definable, based on factors such as:

- the program structure (defining the path’s test execution value, correlated with the number of executed instructions);
- the available resources for the program testing (defining the path’s test execution cost, correlated with the execution time).

The defined software testing optimization models are the following bivalent integer linear programming models:

**Model $M_1$**

$$\max z_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_j\}$$

subject to

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j \leq c_{\text{max}}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

**Model $M_2$**

$$\min z_2(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} c_j x_j$$

subject to

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M} \max_{j=1..N} \{w_{i,j}x_j\} \geq v_{\text{min}}, \quad x_j = \{0, 1\} \quad (j = 1..N)$$

Under particular conditions, such optimization models are also equivalents. The studied model ($M_1$) is that of maximization (see 3.4). The problems that can arise in the application of such optimization models are:
• practical impossibility to identify all the runnable paths inside a program (or software system);

• greater memory requirement to store:
  – the composition matrix of runnable paths;
  – the execution matrix of runnable paths;
  – the matrix of partial values;
  – the representative tree of the “branch & bound” algorithm’s application for the solution of the model.

• greater execution time of the solution algorithm.

The first problem is difficult (if not impossible) to solve; however, the model gives an optimal solution with respect to all the paths identified in the program, and this at least guarantees the maximization of the program’s topological coverage, even if some functionalities (and consequently some errors) may in effect escape to the testing.

As far as the other two points, a further optimization criterion of the solution algorithm consists in the possibility of reducing processing times and memory requirements through stop criteria based on a maximum allowed time (or steps’ number) to come to a strictly feasible solution.

As an example, processing could be stopped in case a new strictly feasible solution has not been generated in an equal interval to that needed for reaching the first strictly feasible solution. Of course, such a stop criterion could carry to a non-optimal solution; but it is important to remember that the algorithm gives, during processing, ever better strictly feasible (sub-optimal) solutions.

A real application of the testing optimization models is the optimal choice of paths to test after a program change during the software maintenance phase.

We moreover think that the proposed model, together with the matrix of the influences between the blocks, can be a valid instrument for software testing during the maintenance phase. From a strictly practical point of view, it is just this last application that can turn out much effective to reach a high level of software quality.

The proposed testing optimization models $M_1$ and $M_2$ do not provide any suggestion (not even methodological) for estimating the number of residual errors in a program, after completing the testing activity. We think this is the direction toward which to address research, in order to achieve a deeper knowledge about software products reliability.
References


