# An Approach to Specify and Test Component-Based Dependable Software\*

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#### Abstract

Components (in-house or pre-fabricated) are increasingly being used to reduce the cost of software development. Given that these components may not have not been developed with dependability as a driver, the components need to be adapted to deal with errors coming from their environment. To achieve this, error containment wrappers are often added to increase the robustness of such components. Adopting a gray-box perspective of software, we first present a modular approach for specifying and verifying embedded software made from components, based on concepts from category theory. This modular approach allows the system designer to check for semantic compatibility. To generate the error containment wrappers needed for adaptation, we subsequently present an algorithm that systematically generates the required wrappers. Using the information obtained through wrapper design, we develop an approach to *identify relevant test cases* to test individual components. We further exploit the modularity of the specification to *identify the relevant test cases* to perform testing at different levels of SW abstraction.

keywords: Testing, program analysis, formal methods, wrappers, fault tolerance

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### 1 Introduction

The functionality and dependability of computer systems is increasingly being defined by the software (SW) implementing the varied system services. To reduce the high cost associated with the development of reliable SW, *components*, for example commercial-off-the-shelf (COTS), or from component repositories, are being used, while still having to satisfy overall system/SW dependability requirements. However, these components may not have been developed with dependability as a major driver. Thus, to protect from errors coming from their environment, these components need to be adapted to enhance their robustness. Wrappers<sup>1</sup> [17, 7] (more specifically dependability wrappers), used as instances of connectors [8], are used to adapt the components.

Error containment wrappers  $[17]^2$  are used to detect and correct erroneous signal values, and they reflect the new requirements imposed on the input and output signals of a component. For example, Executable Assertions (EA's) [16, 15], such as preconditions and postconditions, are used to check the validity of the communicated signals, as per the desired signal tolerance specification. Error recovery mechanisms (ERM's) are subsequently incorporated to aid recovery from erroneous situations. To design the relevant wrappers (input or output) for a component, which sometimes need information internal to the component, [17] used the concept of *reflection* to capture such internal variables (behavior). In this paper, we adopt a gray-box perspective of a component, i.e., the structure of the component is known but is, however, *non-modifiable*. For components coming from repositories, such gray-box perspective is valid, given that the original design may have been formally verified and validated, and thus cannot be modified. Therefore, wrappers are usually added for adaptation. However, a gray-box perspective allows the system designer to use implementation knowledge to best design wrappers to protect the system. However, [1] presented some problems associated with component reuse, identifying mismatching assumptions about the nature of both the components and the communicated data as two of the main problems encountered. Thus, when using components for designing dependable applications, there are three main problems, among others, to be solved: (i) ensuring semantic compatibility of the components, (ii) designing the relevant wrappers for component adaptation for fault tolerance, and (iii) testing the wrapped components (the wrappers).

For the first problem, semantic checks on the compatibility of the components need to be performed. To achieve this, we will present in Section 4 a modular specification and verification framework, based on concepts of category theory. The second problem mentioned earlier is the problem of designing error containment wrappers. In [12], the authors observed that designing self-checks, such as EA's, is difficult. We subsequently proved in [11] that design of a class of EA's, called *globally consistent EA's*, is NP-hard. More details on global consistency will be presented in Section 6. To overcome this intractability problem, in [11], we presented a heuristic approach that can be used to generate wrappers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Dependability wrappers usually consist of an error detection (EDM) and error recovery mechanism (ERM)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>They can be input or output wrappers depending on whether they are placed at the input or output of the component.

For the third problem above, once both input and output wrappers for components are obtained and incorporated in the system, they need to be tested to ascertain their validity, i.e., ensuring that the adapted system behaves according to its specifications. We show how to reuse information from the design of these wrappers to generate test cases.

#### 1.1 Paper Objectives

On the above introduction of overall problem perspectives, our overall contributions are the following:

- Specification and verification: Given our component-based design, we formally specify a system using a modular framework based on category theory concepts, and exploit this modularity to perform its verification. This is done to allow the system designer to check for semantic compatibility between different communicating components. The reason for adopting category theory as a basis for formal specification and verification is that it facilitates direct explanation and application of the concepts that we will later develop and to better present the different constraints that components need to satisfy.
- Wrapper design: We present an approach for the design of error containment wrappers<sup>3</sup> to be incorporated in the system.
- Test case generation: Reuse wrapper design information to generate test cases for testing at different abstraction levels, i.e., unit, integration and system testing. For testing at the unit level (i.e., unit testing at the component), we reuse wrapper design information for that given component to generate the relevant test cases. When components are composed, testing this integration (*integration testing*) is performed reusing test information based on unit testing. Once all components have been integrated, we perform a system level test by reusing test cases used during unit testing.

Our specification approach is similar to that of [4], however our overall approach differs in the following ways: (i) we generate wrappers for components using a heuristic, (ii) we reuse the wrappers as oracle and (iii) our approach is primarily focused on gray-box SW testing, unlike black-box [3] or white-box testing [14]. The heuristic to be presented in Section 6 can be incorporated in a compiler. The benefit of the approach described here is that test case generation can be automated.

For gray-box testing, the term gray-box has been used with various connotations. Sometimes, graybox testing is used to mean that both white-box and black-box testing are conducted. In [24], they tested the more complex (the algorithmic part) part of an object-oriented code, based on static metrics, using a gray-box approach. In their paper, gray-box meant that the authors make partial use of the code implementation. Specifically, assume that a complex module is composed of some subsystems. They perform white-box testing to force each subsystem to be executed, which are however treated as black-boxes. Our gray-box (implementation is known but is non-modifiable) approach for automatically

 $<sup>^{3}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  will use the terms wrappers to denote error containment wrappers

generating test cases, using wrapper design information to test component-based SW represents a *first* cut at such attempts.

#### 1.2 Testing Overview

Testing strategies can be classified into two broad categories, namely (i) black-box testing (or specificationbased testing), and (ii) white-box testing (or structural testing). Our gray-box perspective of SW implies that we use partial implementation knowledge to drive black-box testing. The reason for performing black-box testing is many-fold. Primarily, as the target SW is non-modifiable, EA's, which are known to enhance SW testability [21], cannot be inserted in the SW. This hindrance imposes determination of the correctness of the component only through its behaviors, i.e., based on the specification. The intent of this paper, as far as testing is concerned, is to reuse the information pertaining to the design of those error containment wrappers (EA's) to identify relevant test cases for *partition testing* [20]. Partition testing works by partitioning the input space of the program or component into subsets, and test cases selected from each subset. We solve the *oracle* problem by using the output wrapper of the component or system as oracle. We also argue that test cases derived from component specifications may not provide sufficient coverage, especially if some important recovery mechanisms are incorporated to recover from erroneous system behavior.

**Paper Organization:** Section 2 present the system and fault model we use in the paper. Section 3 presents the example we will use to illustrate our framework. Our framework for modular specification is presented in Section 4. We subsequently present our algorithm for generating wrappers in Section 6. Section 7 presents our approach to generating test cases, based on wrapper design information. Section 8 provides examples on how testing is performed at various abstraction levels. Section 9 discusses our approach and we describe areas for future research.

## 2 System and Fault Models

**System Model:** We assume a system consisting of different SW components, communicating with each other via signals (we use the term "signals" as an abstraction whose implementation could be via message passing, parameter passing, shared variables, etc). The components may run on the same processor or may be distributed. Each component consists of an *import, export* interface, a *parameter* and a *body* part. The import and export interfaces refer to the services needed and provided by a component. The body part implements the services that are exported by the component, by using resources obtained from its environment. The parameter part introduces the domains used by the system (Fig. 1).

**Fault Model:** Our system is driven by information exchange across components (import and export). Thus, we are interested in determining which inputs that are liable to introduce data errors into the system or components that will cause violation of the specification of the system. A data error may be, for example, a signal value which is outside a specified bound. Errors may occur at system input level or at component level. Thus, we need to test each component as well as the system to ensure proper

behavior, both during operational and faulty scenarios.

### 3 An Example System

In this section, we will present a small example that we will use through out the paper to explain the different concepts. Assume the system is composed of two components, as in Fig. 1. The first component,  $C_1$  reads sensor values from two different sensors, and then passes the difference between those two sensor values to the second component,  $C_2$ , which then calculates a value that will be sent as output to an actuator.

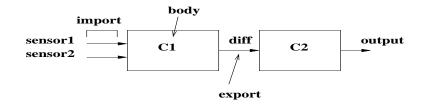
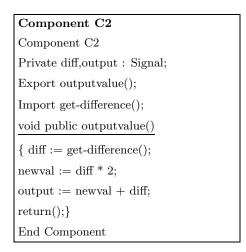


Figure 1: An example target system

The implementations of the two components are presented here:

Component C1
Component C1
Private sensor1, sensor2, difference : Signal;
Export get-difference();
void private read-sensor1()
$\{ sensor1 := sensor1value; \}$
return();}
void private read-sensor2()
$\{ sensor1 := sensor2value; \}$
return();}
void private calc-diff()
{ read-sensor1();
read-sensor2();
difference := $sensor1 - sensor2;$
return();}
Signal public get-difference()
{ calc-diff();
return(difference);}
End Component



Also, we assume that from the specification of the above system, the value of the system output, *output* should be  $(0 \le output \le 30)$ .

## 4 A Modular Specification Framework

Our modular specification framework is based on the concept of category theory [5]. As mentioned in the introduction, we chose category theory as it provides the necessary formal foundation to present our testing framework. Components are algebraically specified<sup>4</sup>, and they can be interconnected to form bigger components. The composition operation then defines and constructs an aggregrated component describing the overall system from the individual components and their interactions.

#### 4.1 Definition of a Component Using Category Theory

A specification consists of two parts:(a) a *signature* part, and (b) an *axiom* part. The signature introduces syntactical elements that are used in the axiom part, and consists of three parts: (a1) <u>Sorts</u> part declares the domains, (a2) <u>Constants</u> (resp. <u>Variables</u>) part declares the time independent (resp. time dependent) functions and/or predicates, and (a3) an <u>Action</u> part declares predicates and functions representing event instances. The *axiom* part defines the behavior of the system as well as constraints on environments. The axiom part may express conditions such as pre- and postconditions.

To capture the time-varying behavior of a system, the axioms can be formulated as TRIO formulas [13], which capture the dynamic aspects of systems. TRIO logic is well adapted to deal with real-time constraints, as they are based on a metric representation of time. More details on TRIO are provided in Section 4.2. Each component is then made up of four specifications and four *specification morphisms*. The four specifications are (i) the *parameter (PAR)*, (ii) *import (IMP)*, (iii) *export (EXP)*, and (iv) *body (BOD)* specifications(see Fig. 2).

The parameter (PAR) part of the component contains the parameters of the component, and it also identifies the elements shared by the export (EXP) interface and import (IMP) interface. The import (IMP) interface identifies all resources that are needed by the component that are defined by its environment. Constraints on what is imported can be specified in the axiom part of the import interface of the component. The export (EXP) interface contains resources made available to the environment by a component. Any constraint on what is exported can be similarly specified as axioms. The body (BOD) part defines how the resources imported from the environment are used to implement the resources to be exported by the component. It presents the complete description of the component, however the details are not available, i.e., they are hidden (encapsulated).

In the next section, we will briefly introduce the TRIO language. Further, we will use our example target system of Section 3 to demonstrate how systems are specified and verified. More details on TRIO logic are found in [13].

#### 4.2 TRIO Logic Specification

The TRIO [13] language is an extension of classical first-order temporal logic: the meaning of a TRIO formula is not absolute, but is given with respect to a current, implicit time instant. Timing

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>This is a realistic assumption since components can be selected and retrieved based on specification [23]

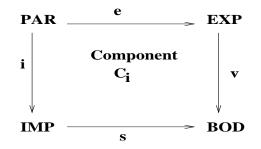


Figure 2: A component with four specifications and associated morphisms

requirements are specified using two basic operators, namely *Futr* and *Past*, which refer to time instants whose distance, in the future or past, is specified precisely and quantitatively. Using these operators, more complex operators can be constructed, such as *Always* etc. The reason for using TRIO logic over classical temporal logic (TLA) is that executable assertions (EA's) [16] are usually inserted to monitor signal values, which are usually time-dependent.

The TRIO language is a typed first order logical language extended with temporal operators. The alphabet of TRIO is composed of sort, logical variable, function/predicates names, and usual propositional connectives, and the existential quantifiers,  $\exists$  and  $\forall$ , and hence more complex temporal operators and properties may be expressed. For example, to specify that a property P will hold at all other future time instant, this may be specified as follow, i.e., Always(P):

 $Always(F) = \forall d(d > 0 \leftrightarrow Futr(F, d)).$ 

In the next section, we will use the example target system to explain how (i) the specification and (ii) verification of the system are performed.

## 5 Specification and Verification of the Example System

In this section, we will use explain how the concepts of category theory presented in the previous section are used to specify and verify a system. In our example system from Section 4, the component  $C_2$  imports (respectively, exports) a method called *get-difference()* (*outputvalue()*).

$C_2$ Import Spec:
<u>Sorts</u> :
Signal: Int
Actions:
get-difference() : $\rightarrow$ Signal
Axioms:
Always( $\exists y : y = \text{get-difference}()$ );
End Spec

$C_2$ Export Spec:
<u>Sorts</u> :
Signal: Int
Actions:
$outputvalue(): \rightarrow signal$
Axioms:
$Always(\exists y : y = outputvalue());$
End Spec

The import (respectively, export) interface introduces the entities imported (exported) by the given component. In this case,  $C_2$  imports (exports) one given function, get-difference() (outputvalue(), which are part of the action section of the specification. Given that the value returned is of type Signal, in the sort part, which introduces the relevant domains, we introduce the domain Signal. Finally, the axiom part expresses the fact that a value can be imported (respectively exported) at any time instant from get-difference() (outputvalue()). In our import and export specifications, no constant or variable was declared.

The parameter (PAR) part and the body (BOD) of component  $C_2$  are shown below:

<u>Sorts</u> : Signal: Int	$C_2$ <b>PAR Spec</b> :		
	<u>Sorts</u> :		
	Signal: Int		
End Spec	End Spec		

$C_2$ BODY Spec:
<u>Sorts</u> :
Signal: Int;
Variables:
diff, output: Signal;
Actions:
get-difference() : $\rightarrow$ Signal
output value : $\rightarrow$ signal
Axioms:
$Always(\forall y: y = get-difference() \leftrightarrow diff = y);$
$Always(\forall y : y = output value() \leftrightarrow output = y);$
End Spec

The parameter (PAR) part introduces the entities common to the export and import interface, in this case, the type Signal. The BODY part of the component specification contains the union of all sorts and actions defined in the IMP and EXP interfaces of the component.

Overall, we have specified component  $C_2$  where values imported and exported are not constrained, as specified by the axioms since it may not be fault tolerant. As the different interfaces have been specified, *specification morphisms* link all these specifications together to form a component specification.

**Specification Morphism:** A specification morphism  $m : A \to B$  from a specification A to specification B maps any element of the signature of A to an element of the signature of B that is compatible (i.e., sort with sort etc) The four specification morphisms e, i, s, v (Fig. 2) of the component describe the links between the four specifications (PAR,IMP,EXP,BOD). For verification, one important aspect of specification morphisms is that they preserve axioms. For example, considering morphism v of component  $C_2$ , one must prove that the axioms defined in the export interface of  $C_2$  can be deduced from those defined in the body specification of  $C_2$ . Behaviorally, this means that the behavior of A is preserved in B. This proof can be done either automatically or via theorem provers. Also, the specification morphisms ensure that no conflict exists in the specifications, such as importing a non-existing resource. As example, we provide the definitions for morphisms s and v for component  $C_2$  of our example.

Morphism s of  $C_2$ : <u>Sorts</u>: Signal  $\rightarrow$  Signal <u>Actions</u>: get-difference():  $\rightarrow$  get-difference()

```
Morphism v of C_2:

<u>Sorts</u>:

Signal \rightarrow Signal

<u>Actions</u>:

outputvalue() : \rightarrow outputvalue()
```

What the above means is that the Signal domain is the same in both the import (respectively, export) and body specifications, and that the function *get-difference()* (respectively, *outputvalue()*) function needed (exported) by the body (export) specification is indeed provided by the import (body) interface.

#### 5.1 Component Composition

Once components are specified and verified, interactions between different components can be specified using the composition operation, as detailed below.

Given two components  $C_i$  (component importing services) and  $C_e$  (component exporting the services) such that all elements imported by  $C_i$  are exported (defined) by  $C_e$ , the composition operation builds a component  $C_{ie}$ . From our example, it means that if all the resources (imported entities) required by component  $C_2$  are provided by component  $C_1$ , then these two components ( $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ) can be composed together to form a bigger component  $C_{21}$ . To ensure this, we define a component morphism to map the resources required by component  $C_i$  to the those provided by component  $C_e$ . For example, we define a component morphism mapping resources needed by  $C_2$  to the resources provided by  $C_1$ .

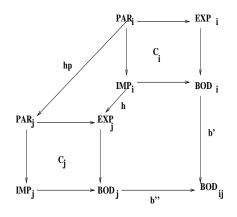


Figure 3: Composing two components

A module morphism is a pair (h, hp) (see Fig 3) of morphisms such that h associates data imported by  $C_i$  to data exported by  $C_e$ . Morphism hp maps parameter part of  $C_i$  to those of  $C_e$ . The component  $C_{ie}$  can then be computed as the *pushout* [5] of components  $C_i$  and  $C_e$ , i.e., the bigger component imports what component  $C_e$  imports, exports what component  $C_i$  exports. If components  $C_i$  and  $C_e$ and morphisms h and hp are correctly defined, then component  $C_{ie}$  is correct. Informally, this means that if the behavior of each component is preserved (i.e., components correctly defined), and the resource associations are right (morphisms correctly defined), then the resulting component is correct. From our example, the behavior of  $C_1$  is preserved in  $C_2$ , and also the resources needed by (imported)  $C_2$  are provided by  $C_1$ , meaning that these two components  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  can be composed together.

As example, we provide the export interface of component  $C_1$  and the associated morphism h required for resource associations. We match the export interface of  $C_1$  with the import interface of  $C_2$  (see Section. 5), resulting in morphism h.

$C_1$ <b>Export</b> Spec:
Sorts :
Signal: Int
Actions:
get-difference() : $\rightarrow$ Signal
<u>Axioms</u> :
Always( $\exists y : y = \text{get-difference}()$ )
End Spec

h morphis	m:
Sorts:	
Signal $\rightarrow$ S <u>Actions</u> :	ignal
Actions:	
get-differen	$ce() \rightarrow get-difference()$

#### 5.2 Verification Issues:

We make use of the component morphisms to perform both verification and testing. During composition, one of the main aspect is that of non-interference across components. This implies that all axioms defined in an importing component  $C_i$  are preserved by an exporting component  $C_e$ . Formally, this means that axioms defined in  $C_i$  are translated along morphism h into theorems in  $C_e$  that need to be proved. Ability to discharge such proofs guarantee safe composition of  $C_i$  and  $C_e$ . From our example, we need to show that we can prove the axiom defined in the import specification of  $C_2$  from those defined in the export specification of  $C_1$ .

We also make use of the morphism h to perform integration testing. Test cases use to perform unit testing on component  $C_i$  are translated as output from component  $C_e$  along h. For testing, we require the morphisms to be injective.

At this point, we have shown how to specify and verify a component-based development of software, using concepts from category theory. We incrementally showed, by use of a small example, how a component is composed from four basic specifications, and how component specifications can be combined into bigger components through component morphisms. We also showed how axioms (i.e., properties) of specifications can be specified in TRIO logic, which we briefly introduced in Section 4.2.

The aim of testing is to ascertain that the different axioms defined in a given component are not violated, i.e., the behavior of the component conforms to its specified property, as defined by TRIO formulas. In the next section, we provide a brief explanation of how TRIO formulas can be tested, i.e., testing the components.

#### 5.3 Testing Issues

For testing purposes, two definitions are provided, and are taken from [13].

**Definition 1:** An event is a pair (L, i) where L is a ground literal of a time-dependent predicate and where i is a time instant belonging to the time domain. A history is an event set that does not include the events (L, i) and  $(\neg L, i)$ .

A history is *complete* if it contains a unique truth value for each predicate of the formula at each time instant of the time domain. A complete history satisfies a formula F at time t if its evaluation in which predicate values are defined by the events in the history yields a TRUE value. The behavior of a system is characterized by TRIO formulas. Therefore, to test the behavior of a system, TRIO histories can be used as test cases.

**Definition 2:** A test case for a given TRIO formula F is a complete history that satisfies F at one or more time instants of the time domain. TRIO is executable, hence its formulas can be automatically checked for validity. During interpretation of a given formula F, behaviors of the specified system compatible with F are generated, and they are histories, and these histories can be used as test cases. Such test cases can be used to test the system under normal operational scenarios.

For example, if we want to test the first axiom defined in the body specification of component  $C_2$  of our example, a history can be as follows<sup>5</sup>:

TestCase-Hist-01-C2
((get-difference() = 10), 1)
((diff = 10), 1)
((output = 30), 1)
End

In fault-free scenarios, a program always satisfy its specification (given that it was formally verified, as we showed earlier). However, when there is an error in the system, a program's behavior may violate its specification. Thus, testing a program only to ascertain its behavior under fault-free scenario is inadequate (as mentioned in one keynote speech at HASE 2001). Thus, testing the system with test cases that can cause violation of some properties of the program need to be performed, so as to ascertain the behavior of the system under such conditions, i.e., test whether the program is fault-tolerant.

Testing behaviors of the program under faulty scenarios give rise to some problems: (i) What characterizes erroneous data for a given component or system?, (ii) how do we generate such test cases, for each component, and for the entire system?, (iii) can such test case generation be automated?

As mentioned in the introduction, to make a system fault tolerant, we add dependability wrappers. Thus, our approach to tackle the above problems is to first generate the wrappers, and then reuse the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>We will use constants, rather than variables, in our examples to represent a certain given value.

knowledge obtained from wrapper design to generate test cases. To automate generation of test cases implies automatic generation of wrappers. When wrappers are incorporated in the system, the behavior of the different components is constrained (through addition of more axioms). Thus, we endeavor to test the different added axioms, i.e., test whether the property of the fault tolerant program still satisfies the program's specification in presence of faults.

We emphasize that our method is not intended to bypass white-box and black-box testing strategies, which are needed to test the initial program. However, our approach targets generation of test cases as a complement to already existing techniques, by providing additional test cases for testing the wrappers. In subsequent sections, we will highlight the complementary aspects of our approach.

## 6 Design of Wrappers: Consistency Conditions

In SW, Executable Assertions (EA's) are usually incorporated to monitor signals so as to detect any erroneous values. However, design of EA's placed in the SW, especially when functionalities are distributed over different components, is problematic, as explained in [12]. In [11], we introduced the concept of global consistency of EA's. Two EA's,  $EA_i$  and  $EA_j$ , are consistent with each other if the code relating them,  $F_M$ , is such that  $F_M$  transforms  $EA_i$  into  $EA_j$ , i.e., the set of values accepted by  $EA_i$  is transformed by  $F_M$  into the set of values accepted by  $EA_j$ . The intent was to design a set of localized EA's (EA's that are placed in individual components) such that all EA's are globally consistent, i.e., they are all consistent with respect to the safety specification [2] of the system, where the safety specification defines a set of bad computation prefix that should not appear in a given execution of the program.

We have shown in [11] that design of those globally consistent EA's is NP hard. We thus provided a heuristic approach that, given the safety specification of the system, systematically generates the globally consistent EA's for each component. The heuristic works in a way analogous to predicate transformers, through backtracking. Informally, the algorithm works as follows: it takes the safety specification of the system as input, together with the SW architecture. The main steps of the algorithm are:

- Step 1,2 The algorithm starts at the end of the sink module and backtracks to its start. Then, the process is performed for every component.
- Step 3 All conditions for computing the different values of variables are calculated. Program slicing [19] techniques can be slightly modified and used to achieve that.
- Step 4 Once all conditions for computing the different variables are obtained, they are substituted in the condition for computing the output signal. For example, suppose we have an output signal X and the condition for computing its value is X := Y + 1. Suppose that the condition for computing Y is Y := Z + 2, where Z is the input. Then, the new condition for X is X := Z + 2 + 1 = X := Z + 3.
- Step 5 This new condition is substituted in the postcondition defined on the output signal (say X), and by simplifying the constraint thus obtained, we can obtain a constraint defined on the input signal (say Z). This constraint will be the precondition in the given module.

- Step 6 This precondition is translated into the postcondition of the preceding module. Formally, we translate this precondition along morphism h to obtain the postcondition on the preceding module.
- Step 7+ The same procedure is iterated until the source components are reached, and constraints on system inputs obtained.

Thus, the algorithm implementation is as following:

```
Derive_EA(<global_output_EA>, <module_name>, <module_interconnections>) {
1 while (NOT beginning of <module_name>) {
2
    for (all variables V in <module_name>)
3
       conditions(V) := determine_from_module(<module_name>);
%Conditions for computing variable V determined from module }
4
     conditions(<OutputSignal>) := get_all_conditions(<module_name>);
%All conditions for computing output signal
    new_preconditions := output_EA[conditions(OutputSignal)/OutputSignal];
5
%new preconditions obtained by substituting output signal by the condition obtained
6
    postcond_preceding_module := new_preconditions;
%preconditions translated as postconditions in preceding module
7
    preceding_module := get_id_preceding_module(module_interconnections, module_name);
%gets the id of the other module with which module_name is communicating
     if (preceding_module == NIL) break;
8
%source module reached
9
    Derive_EA(postcond_preceding_module, preceding_module,module_interconnections); }
```

It generates input and output wrappers for each component upon backtracking. When a component  $C_i$  imports services exported by another component  $C_e$ , the input wrapper defined in  $C_i$  is transformed into an output wrapper in  $C_e$ . Formally, the input wrapper in  $C_i$  is translated along morphism h into an output wrapper in  $C_e$ .

Formally, we make use of the component morphisms to generate globally consistent EA's. As EA's are transformed, and input wrappers generated, we make use of such wrapper design to generate test cases. The wrappers (input and output) developed for each component are added to the axiom part of the component specification, expressed in TRIO logic.

As mentioned in Section 3, the safety specification of the example target system is  $(0 \le output value \le 30)^6$ . Running the above heuristic on the program given in Section 3, we obtain the following wrappers for each component for detecting errors:

Input and output wrappers for $C_2$
(1) $0 \leq output \leq 30$ (output wrapper)
(2) $0 \leq get-difference() \leq 10$ (input wrapper)

Input and output wrappers for $C_1$
(1) $0 \leq difference \leq 10$ (output wrapper)
(2) $0 \le ($ read-sensor1() - read-sensor2() $) \le 10$ (input wrapper)

<sup>6</sup>The safety specification is provided by the system designer during specification phase.

Thus, including these wrappers in the original program transforms it into a fault tolerant program. For example, including the output (respectively, input) wrapper in the export (import) specification of component  $C_2$  will result in the following new specifications for the import and export interfaces (compare with Section 5):

$C_2$ Import Spec:
<u>Sorts</u> :
Signal: Int
Actions:
get-difference() : $\rightarrow$ Signal
Axioms:
Always( $\exists y : \underline{0 \leq \text{get-difference}}() \leq \underline{10} \land y = \text{get-}$
difference() );
End Spec

Thus, these wrappers will ensure that the safety specification of the system is not violated by detecting erroneous signal errors coming from component  $C_2$ 's environment. The added axioms are underlined.

In the next section, we will present how test cases can be generated using the information generated from the above wrappers.

## 7 Test Case Generation Using Wrapper Information

We have presented an approach for specifying and verifying component-based fault intolerant SW. We also argued that for fault tolerance purposes, such programs need to be adapted to make them tolerant to errors from their environment by adding wrappers. We presented in [11] a heuristic that can systematically generate such globally consistent wrappers, exploiting the component morphisms. In this section, we will explain how to systematically reuse wrapper design information to systematically partition the input space of both the components and system to obtain relevant test cases for testing. As mentioned earlier, our overall objective is systematizing and automating test case identification to aid testing the robustness of the adapted software.

#### 7.1 Partition Testing: An Overview

Partition testing refers to a very general family of testing strategies [20]. It works by partitioning an input space into sub-domains, with the tester selecting one or more elements from each sub-domain, depending on the criteria and coverage required. The idea behind partition testing is to divide the input domain in such a way that, within each sub-domain, either the program behaves correctly or the program fails. Such sub-domains are sometimes called *revealing* or *homogeneous*.

In many cases for embedded SW, specification for a given input signal partitions its input space into two sub-domains, i.e., one sub-domain satisfying the precondition defined on the signal and the other one not. However, we argue that partitioning the input space of signals into two such sub-domains is limited, since it does not take into account subtle interactions within a component. For example, consider the input wrapper generated for component  $C_1$ ,  $(0 \le (sensor1 - sensor2) \le 10)$ . Assume that specification of component  $C_1$  of our example states that a precondition on signal sensor1 in  $C_1$  should be greater than 25. However, from the input wrapper for  $C_1$ , even if the value of sensor1 is less than 25 (which implies violation of the precondition), if the difference between sensor1 and sensor2 is less than 10, then there will be no safety specification violation. Hence, we argue that our wrappers better capture the interaction between signals than preconditions obtained from specification, which thus partitions the input space differently. This is crucial, as partitioning an input space in the wrong way will cause the tester to wrongly test the system. To better illustrate this, assume the following specification-based preconditions defined on the input signals of component  $C_1$ :

```
Preconditions defined on input signals of C_1:
(sensor1): sensor1 \ge 25
(sensor2): sensor2 \le 20
```

Assume that at a given time t, sensor1 has value 24 (which violates its precondition) and sensor2 has value 21 (violating its precondition). However, from these values, the output signal from component  $C_2$  will have value 9, which satisfies the safety specification ( $0 \le output \le 30$ ), though the input signals violated their preconditions. What this means in terms of testing is, if such a test case was used to test the system, it would give the impression of the system being fault tolerant (since the safety specification of the system was not violated when there was an error in the system inputs), when the wrong tests have been performed, i.e., wrong test case chosen. Hence, we show that specification-based preconditions are limited. This observation is shared by [12]. However, our wrappers generated fully captured the relationship between the different signals. Thus, we propose to reuse information obtained from wrapper design to partition the input space.

Consider a component as in Fig. 4 (top). The module contains two inputs,  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ . Their respective input space is partitioned into an OK and a BAD partition (Fig. 4 (bottom)). Assuming a uniformity [9] criteria, we may select one value randomly from each subdomain, and obtain a set of test cases for the component, since every test case in a given subdomain will test the system in the same way (uniformity criterion). However, understanding the interactions within the component is crucial, since it will cause partitioning of the input space of the component differently, and, thus, may result in generating more appropriate test cases, (see Fig. 5 (bottom)). We argue that testing based only on specifications defined on input signals is limited.

Another advantage of using the wrapper design information in test case generation is that the input wrapper is an instance of an assertion. In [20], it was shown that, for partition testing to be efficient, there is a need to group within one given partition all inputs that will cause the system to fail. Using the wrapper information, the tester can group all such input combinations that will violate the wrapper constraints within one sub-domain, thus satisfying a criterion for *optimality* from [20]. Thus, it means that using our approach, performance of partition testing is *optimized*. Specifically, from our example, whenever (sensor1-sensor2 > 10), the tester is able to group exactly those input combinations that may cause the system to fail. Thus, reusing wrapper information will optimize the partition testing strategy. Techniques for testing exception handling [18] constructs are mainly based on whitebox knowledge, and may not be applicable in our context.

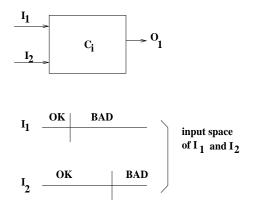


Figure 4: Partitioning the input space of a module

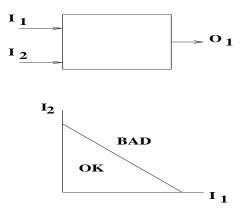


Figure 5: Partitioning the input space of a module uwing wrapper information

### 8 Unit, Integration and System Testing

In this section, we will explain how our framework deals with testing at different levels, i.e., unit, integration and system level testing.

#### 8.1 Unit Testing

In this section, we are interested in performing unit testing, i.e., testing of each component. Given that we cannot have access to modify the source code, the tester cannot insert assertions in the code to improve testability [21]. Also, given that different components have been wrapped with error containment wrappers, we focused on testing the wrappers such that each wrapped component satisfies the required specification, that is, we endeavor to test those axioms that have been added to the axiom part of different specifications (e.g., import interface etc).

As mentioned earlier, we specifically want to test the wrappers that have been added for fault tolerance, i.e., the axioms that have been added. To exactly show how this is achieved, we will develop different test cases, using our example from Section 3.

TestCase-Hist-01-C2	
((get-difference() = 5), 1)	
((diff = 5), 1)	
((output = 5), 1)	
End	

TestCase-Hist-02-C2
TestCase-Hist-02-C2((get-difference() = 15),1)
((diff = 15), 1)
((output = 45), 1)
End

As mentioned in Section 4, under normal operation, test cases can be obtained from TRIO model generator, as histories. Choosing the *Hist-01-C2* test case, and then running TRIO will result in TRIO accepting the above as a possible history, i.e., this test case can be used to test the system for proper functioning, i.e., during no fault scenario. In other words, *Hist-01-C2* can be generated by TRIO model generator as a possible history (test case). A series of such test cases may be obtained from TRIO. Let the set consisting of such test cases be denoted by  $S_q$ 

Now, during faulty scenario, the system may behave in a different way, and the wrappers added in each component need to be tested. Thus, additional test cases, not in set  $S_g$ , need to be generated, and these test cases cannot be obtained from TRIO, since these situations are not histories. We thus reuse the information from the wrapper to generate such test cases. For example, following from our running example, a test case *Hist-02-C2*, for testing the wrappers in component  $C_2$ , is generated. Running test case *Hist-02-C2* above will indicate how the system will behave. We have shown that the value from get-difference() should be between 0 and 10. A value of 15 from get-difference () in test case *Hist-02-C2* will cause a violation of the axiom placed in the import interface of component  $C_2$ . The above test case represents a case where there is an error in the system. If the value returned by  $C_2$  satisfies its output wrapper, then  $C_2$  satisfies its specification during faulty situations, i.e., is fault tolerant.

For component  $C_1$ , we give a test case *Hist-03-C1* obtainable from TRIO model generator (i.e., which is in set  $S_g$ ) and then we also explain how a test case *Hist-04-C1* testing the wrappers may be generated from the wrapper information of  $C_1$ . Since  $(0 \le \text{read-sensor1} - \text{read-sensor2} \le 10)$ , we choose values of *sensor1* and *sensor2* that will violate this constraint, thus we obtains *Hist-04-C1* 

TestCase-Hist-03-C1	TestCase-Hist-04-C1
((read-sensor1 = 27), 1)	((read-sensor1 = 30), 1)
((read-sensor2 = 20), 2)	((read-sensor2 = 15), 1)
((sensor1 = 27), 1)	((sensor1 = 30), 1)
((sensor2 = 20), 1)	((sensor2 = 15), 1)
((difference = 7), 1)	((difference = 15), 1)
End	End

Test cases may contain internal items, i.e., internal variables, and they cannot be included in the test cases since they are hidden (encapsulated). Thus, we need to project these test cases on the interfaces (import and export) of the given component. Test cases Hist-03-C1 and Hist-04-C1 for component  $C_1$  are transformed into test cases Hist-05-C1 and Hist-06-C1 respectively, below by removing any internal variables sensor1 and sensor2.

**TestCase-Hist-05-C1** ((read-sensor1 = 27), 1) ((read-sensor2 = 20),2) ((difference = 7),1) End TestCase-Hist-06-C1 ((read-sensor1 = 30),1) ((read-sensor2 = 15),1) ((difference = 15),1) End

For component  $C_2$ , projecting the test cases *Hist-01-C2* and *Hist-02-C2* on its interface will result in removal of the *diff* variable from the test case, resulting in test cases *Hist-07-C2* and *Hist-08-C2* respectively:

**TestCase-Hist-07-C2** ((get-difference() = 5), 1) ((diff = 5),1) ((output = 5),1) End

TestCase-Hist-08-C2
TestCase-Hist-08-C2((get-difference() = 15),1)
((diff = 15), 1)
((diff = 15),1) ((output = 45),1)
End

#### 8.2 Integration Testing

Integration testing aims at testing the links between two components. A link is specified as an injective morphism between two specifications. Formal verification implies that all behaviors of component  $C_i$  is preserved by component  $C_e$ , i.e., all axioms of  $C_i$  are translated along morphism h as theorems in component  $C_e$ , that need to be proved. So, a test goal of integration testing is to test the image of the new axioms added in the specification of component  $C_i$ . Specifically, from our heuristic, since input wrappers in  $C_i$  (component importing services) are transformed into output wrappers in component  $C_e$  (component exporting services), we need to test that data communication between these two communicating components do not violate the input wrapper constraints of the  $C_i$ . That is, data that satisfies the output wrapper constraint of  $C_e$  should not violate the input wrapper constraint defined in  $C_i$ .

Thus, the test cases generated for unit testing the component  $C_i$  can be reused, with the only change being that items are renamed under morphism h. For example, when testing the import interface of component  $C_2$ , all elements in that test case are projected onto corresponding elements as defined by morphism h. Specifically, test case *Hist-09-C2-Imp* tests the import interface of component  $C_2$ . For integration testing, we want to test the values coming from component  $C_1$ , i.e., testing  $C_1$ 's export interface. As example, *Hist-09-C2-Imp* is transformed under morphism h to test case *Hist-10-C1-Exp*, that tests the export interface of component  $C_1$ , i.e., get-difference() maps onto get-difference() whereas output maps to nothing, and so is removed from the test case.

**TestCase-Hist-09-C2-Imp** ((get-difference() = 5), 1) ((output = 15),1) ((get-difference() = 10),2) ((output = 30),2) End **TestCase-Hist-10-C1-Exp** ((get-difference() = 5),1) ((get-difference() = 10),2) End

#### 8.3 System Level Testing

In system testing, we aim at testing the whole system and we perform black-box testing. In such cases, for system level testing, we use the safety specification defined on the system as oracle.

There are two possible ways to generate test cases for system level testing. One is for the TRIO model generator to generate the test cases. Unfortunately, TRIO model generator is not very suitable for generating test cases for large systems. Thus, we choose the second option, which aims at reusing test cases generated during unit testing. Specifically, in Section 5.1, we mentioned that during composition, the bigger component  $C_{21}$  acquires the import interface of the component  $C_1$ , and the export interface of the component  $C_2$ . To perform system testing, we need to reuse test cases used for unit testing component  $C_1$ . Test case *Hist-05-C1* was used to test component  $C_1$ . However, during system testing,  $C_1$ 's export interface disappears, and we project the given test case over the interface of the larger component  $C_{21}$ , obtaining test case *Hist-11-C21*, i.e., we remove any element that relates to the export interface of component  $C_1$ . Hence, we reuse test cases for system testing. Also, given that the safety specification has been defined on the system, the tester can use it as an oracle during system testing, where the oracle is an omniscient entity that says whether the result of a test is good or not.

TestCase-Hist-05-C1
((read-sensor1 = 27), 1)
((read-sensor2 = 20), 2)
((difference = 7), 1)
End

TestCase-Hist-11-C21
((read-sensor1 = 27), 1)
((read-sensor2 = 20), 1)
End

Given that we need to test for fault tolerance of the overall system as well, we reuse test cases that were used for fault tolerance testing of component  $C_1$ , and project the test cases on the interface of the bigger component. For example, such a test case was *Hist-06-C1*. Projecting it on the interface of component  $C_{21}$  results in test case *Hist-12-C21*.

```
TestCase-Hist-06-C1
((read-sensor1 = 30), 1)
((read-sensor2 = 15),1)
((difference = 15),1)
End
```

TestCaseHist-12-C21
((read-sensor1 = 30), 1)
((read-sensor2 = 15), 1)
End

Overall, we have explained why test cases that test for fault tolerance cannot be generated from TRIO model generator. Thus, to tackle this problem, we gave showed how information from wrapper design can be systematically reused to generate the test cases for fault tolerance testing. As mentioned earlier, our approach for generating test cases from wrapper design information complements the test case generation for normal operation from TRIO.

## 9 Discussion and Future Work

Overall, in this paper, we have made the following contributions:

- 1. We have presented a framework for specifying and verifying a component-based SW to ensure semantic compatibility across components (Sec. 4, Sec. 5),
- 2. We presented a heuristic for generating globally consistent EA's (wrappers) with respect to the safety specification of the system to increase the robustness of software(Sec. 6),
- 3. We have illustrated through examples how we make use of wrapper design information to automatically generate test cases for testing of components at various levels (unit, integration and system), and we systematically exploit the modularity structure of the specification to perform integration testing. For system level testing, we reuse test cases generated for unit testing (Sec. 7 and Sec. 8).

We have showed that testing a system under normal operational conditions is not adequate. As TRIO model generator cannot automatically generate the test cases for faulty scenarios (nor for large systems), we have addressed this problem by reusing the desing information of wrappers used for increasing the robustness to generate the test cases.

Most work on testing has covered two broad categories, namely white-box and black-box testing. Our work covers gray-box testing at the level of components. Our technique is intended to test software built from components, whose internals are not available for modifification by the designer, but which can be compiled. Also, to the best of our knowledge, little work has addressed the automatic generation of wrappers, and consequently the generation of test cases for testing the robustness of the system.

Also, our approach has the property that it partitions an input space into such sub-domains where all inputs that can force the system into an erroneous state are grouped together. Using partition testing, this ability of partitioning the input space as such results in very efficient testing (in fact, optimal).

Thus, test cases for unit, integration and system level testing can be generated, and these test cases provide more insight into how to perform the partitioning of the input space. We argue that testing based on test cases generated from functional specification, especially for component-based SW, are insufficient to test the system given that they fail to completely capture subtle dependencies. Overall, we envision our approach to complement existing testing approaches.

A tool exists where the module calculus was extended in [22] to TRIO [13] logic specifications to capture the dynamic aspects of systems.

As future work, we are planning on using our framework on a real target system, with the intention of testing conformity of wrappers, and of ascertaining that the overall system conforms to the safety specification defined on the system.

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