AUTOMATIC GENERATION OF TEST CASES IN SOFTWARE PRODUCT LINES

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Abstract: This paper describes a method to automatically generate test cases with oracle in software product lines, where the management of variability and traceability are two indispensable requirements. These characteristics may be quite useful for the processing and automatic addition of the oracle to test cases, which is one of the main problems found, not only in the context of software product lines, but also in general testing literature. The paper describes a simple, but effective, way to deal with this problem, based on annotations to precode artifacts, metamodelling and transformation algorithms.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of Software Engineering, a Software Product Line (SPL) represents "a set of softwareintensive systems sharing a common, managed set of features that satisfy the specific needs of a particular market segment or mission and that are developed from a common set of core assets in a prescribed way" (Clements and Northrop, 2002). According to (McGregor et al., 2002), products in a line are characterized, on the one hand, by their similitude with respect to common characteristics and, on the other hand, by the diversity that each product introduces with respect to the line.

Two development processes are distinguished in the construction of a line: *Domain Engineering*, related to the development of the core assets, and *Product Engineering*, related to the implementation of concrete products. The requirements of the line are described at the domain level, and will be used at the product level. Each product is distinguished from the line in a series of variability points. The elements proceeding from the line and the particular characteristics of the product are integrated for implementing the final products. This paper presents a method for the automatic generation of "oracled" test cases in SPL. The idea starts from the reusing capabilities at the domain engineering level, whose test cases can be used to derive test cases for the different products. For this, maintaining coherence and traceability among the different artifacts is essential. Several proposals exist to automate the generation of test cases in product line contexts; however, in all of them the problem of dealing with the oracle is unresolved. According to (Bertolino, 2007), the automatic manipulation and generation of oracles is a central research line in the testing area, and this work introduces a meaningful contribution in this respect.

The paper is organized as follows: section 2 describes some pending challenges with respect to the oracle and includes a brief revision of some works related to testing and testing in software product lines. Section 3 shows and illustrates the product line construction method. Section 4 describes the metamodelling aspects of the work. Finally, Section 5 includes some conclusions, lessons learned and future work.

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2 RELATED WORK

One the main difficulties in software testing research and which, according to (Bertolino, 2007), constitutes an important obstacle to any advance in its automation, is the description of the oracle, which is the mechanism provided to each test case to determine, after its execution, whether the system under test passes or fails the test.

(Baresi and Young, 2001) present a wide state of the art with respect to the oracle problem. Most of the proposals they analyze consist of the insertion of instructions in programs which perform any kind of checking or use formal descriptions of the programs. However, their writing and maintenance may be so complex as the writing and maintenance of the self program.

In her roadmap about testing research, (Harrold, 2000) suggests the use of "precode artefacts", such as design or requirements documents, architectural specifications, state machines etc., a quite stimulating approach in the context of SPL. In this respect, several authors have proposed strategies to obtain test cases from different types of diagrams as (Basanieri et al., 2002, Offutt et al., 2003)

In (Bertolino et al., 2004) the use cases are adapted to SPL and the test cases are derived manually from these. In (Olimpiew and Gomaa, 2006) test models are created from use cases using activity diagrams, decision tables and test templates. Related to test case derivation from sequence diagrams in SPL, in (Nebut et al., 2003) is proposed a method in which behavioural test patterns (behTP) are obtained from high-level sequences which are used to automatically generate test cases specific to each product.

In general, the goal of deriving test scenarios and test cases from state machines, interaction diagrams, etc. has been significantly researched over the last years, and important results have been obtained. However there is a lack of advances in the treatment of the oracle.

As with some of the reviewed works, our proposal makes it possible to obtain test cases from interaction diagrams, both at domain and product engineering. A significant contribution of this work is the possibility of generating concrete oracles (for specific products of the line) from some annotations introduced in the sequence diagrams.

3 DESIGN OF THE PRODUCT LINE

Following some ideas of the authors mentioned in the previous section, the product line design starts with use cases (to represent and describe the requirements) and sequence diagrams (to represent the scenarios of the use cases). Additionally, sequence diagrams are annotated with a description of the states that the instances involved in the diagram must reach during execution. State descriptions (which may or may not come from state machines) will be used later to deal with oracles.

A single example will be used to illustrate the product line building method and the test case generation strategy. Later, in Section 0, the metamodels used to represent the artefacts and the algorithms applied to execute the transformations will be presented.

3.1 Use Case Design in a SPL

Let us suppose we need to build a product line to play different Board games (Trivial, Chess, Ludo, etc.) with a computer. There will be a games server which will receive client connections, each one operated by a human player, which takes the game decisions he/she considers. According to the description, there exist two systems in this product line: the client applications (which are communicated with the human player) and the server system (which interacts with the clients).

For each use case, the classes involved in its execution are identified and categorized (boundaries, controllers and entities). In this example, one of the server use cases is *Piece movement*, which is executed when the client sends a piece movement to the server. In order to keep the example simplified, we assume that two classes are sufficient to manage this use case: "Game" (an entity class) and "Control" (an use case controller). As with other development methodologies, a textual description of use cases is given in a template.

Although use cases are not directly used to generate test cases, work in product lines imposes the joint and rigorous management of traceability and variability.

In this respect, several proposals exist to deal with variability during development, such as (Bertolino et al., 2004), who describe the PLUCs (Product Line Use Cases) that hold the traditional information of use cases plus the variability to be supported by the described functionality. They use the labels *Al*- *ternative* (different execution alternatives depending on the product), *Optional* (optional executions depending on the product) and *Parametric* (different executions depending on the values of other labels). Thus, two new sections are added to the use case description template: *Scope*, to know what products will include the use case; and *Variability*, which defines the variation points and the labels. Eventflows may be annotated with the labels which will be defined in this section.

For our work, the labels *Alternative* and *Optional* have been redefined, and the *Scope* label has been created. The main difference with Bertolino is that labels are always parameterized with the label defining the use case scope; in this way, all variation points depend on the products supported by the use case. Figure 1 shows the textual description of the *Piece movement* use case (for singleness, it only includes the normal flow of events).

In the example, the *Scope* section says that the use case is applicable to any product (as a counterexample, the use case *Dice throwing* is not applicable to the *Chess* product), and the *Variability* section define the labels: *MPO* denotes the use case scope; *MP1* denotes an alternative piece of functionality and *MP2* and *MP3* represent an optional piece of functionality. Note that labels MP1 to MP3 are referenced in the description of the normal flow of events.

3.2 Sequence Diagrams Design in a SPL

Once the use case has been described in the template, the corresponding sequence diagrams are built, drawing one for each event-flow in the use case.

In this case, variability may be present both in messages and objects. Messages may be labelled as *Optional* (they appear in some products, but not in others), *Mandatory* (they are present in all the products, but their implementation depends on the product) and *Fixed* (they appear in all the products with the same implementation). If an instance sends or receives variable messages, the corresponding object may be also annotated with the *Variable* label.

3.2.1 State Descriptions for the Oracle

Since sequence diagrams will be the main artefact to generate test cases, and these will not be complete if they lack the oracle, some means to represent and manipulate the oracle is required. For this issue, when sequence diagrams are constructed, the expected and relevant states of the objects involved in the diagram must have been described, and will be used to annotate the diagram: states are described in terms of the values of the class attributes and complement the description of the scenarios in the sequence diagram: when an object receives a message, the expected state of the instance is annotated. Thus, the sequence diagram holds all the information required to obtain the testing scenarios and the oracles.

The fact of adding this kind of annotation to the scenario is a very simple idea, but has shown to be powerful for the further addition of the oracle to test cases, both at Domain and Product Engineering levels.

State descriptions may also require variability annotations, since some class fields may appear only in some products (for example, there are no *dice* in the *Chess* product).

USE CASE	Piece movement	
OBJECTIVE	Moving a piece	
SCOPE	Any product [MP0]	
PRECONDITIONS	The client has the turn	
SUCCESS FINAL CONDITION	A piece has been moved	
FAILURE FINAL CONDITION	There is no movement	
ACTORS	Client	
TRIGGER	The client executes the	
C A N	movement	
NORMAL FLOW OF EVENTS		
1. The client sends the movement order to control		
2. Control passes the moveme	nt to game.	
3. {[MP1] Game checks the le	gality of the movement. Cross-	
Reference. Legality checking}		
4. {[MP2] Control orders gam	e to take a piece (if necessary).	
Cross-Reference. Piece taking}		
5. Control notifies the movement to the opponents. Cross-		
Reference. Update clients.		
6. {[MP3] Control asks game if the turn must be passed}		
7. {[MP2] Control passes the turn. Cross-Reference. Pass		
turn}		
VARIABILITY		
MP0: [1 of n]. Scope		
0 - Chess, 1 – Checkers, 2 – Ludo, 3 – Trivial		
MP1:[1 of n]. Choice		
If MP0=0		
Check the movement is correct according to the moved		
piece If MDO-1		
II MPU=1 Check the meyoment is correct in diagonal		
LENDO-2 MDO-2		
11 WFU= 5 \parallel WFU=2 Check the final position is scheront with the result of the		
dice obtained before the movement		
MP2. [0, 1 of 1] Ontional		
When MP0= $0 \parallel MP0=1 \parallel MP0=2$		
MP3: [01 of 1]. Optional		
When MP0= 2		

Figure 1: Textual description of Piece movement.

Table 1 shows the possible states for the *Game* class: each state is defined as a function of the class attributes. For the sake of space, neither the structure of the class nor the class diagram appear in this paper; however, expecting that field names are representative enough to understand the approach and the example. Thus:

• *Initialized* has no variability annotations, since its description (existence of a board, sufficient number of clients/players and no assignment of the turn) is common to all the games.

• Two of the six fields of *Playing* have variability annotations (*<<optional>>* stereotypes and the names of the products/games affected), since the game state depends on its possibility of taking pieces.

• In *processing Dices*, its two fields have variability annotations, since they are only applicable to some products of the line (*Ludo* and *Trivial*, which are the two games using dice).

Table 1: Description of the states for the Game class.

Initia-	this.board != null
lized	this.clients.size() < nPlayers
	this.pWithTurn == null
Playing	this. clients.size() == nPlayers
	this.pWithTurn != null
	this.movement == null
	this.pieceToMove ==nul
	this.positionsToTake==-1 < <optional>> {Chess,</optional>
	Checkers, Ludo}
	this.takenPieces==-1< <optional>> {Chess, Check-</optional>
	ers, Ludo}
Processin	this.followeddSix != -1 < <optional>> {Ludo,</optional>
g Dices	Trivial}
-	this.pointsInDices !=0 < <optional>> {Ludo, Triv-</optional>
	ial}

3.2.2 Sequence Diagram Drawing

Annotated sequence diagrams can be drawn once the states have been described.

Figure 2 shows the sequence diagram for the normal flow of events of the *Piece movement* use case. Besides the stereotypes (which indicate the variable messages and objects) and the variability labels (with brackets), the significant messages contain the name of the state that the instance should reach after executing that message: for example, after the message *executeMovement*, the *ct:Controller* instance should be in the *SendGame* does not appear in

Table 1, since it belongs to *Controller*, not to *Game*). In the same way, the expected state of *Game*

after executing the *move* message is *Playing*, which is described in the previous table.

As it can be seen with this example, it is not difficult to generate the test scenarios from the diagram, neither adding them the suitable annotations to include the oracle, which proceed from the expected states.



Figure 2: Sequence diagram for the normal flow, with variability and state annotations (highlighted).

4 TRANSFORMATION ALGORITHMS

The only required products for generating the test cases are the sequence diagrams, conveniently annotated with the state names (which must have been previously described, such as in

Table 1). The generation of the test scenarios from the sequence diagrams is made by means of a set of transformation algorithms which operate over a set of metamodels. Thus, a specific metamodel exists for representing sequence diagrams and another one for representing states.

4.1 Algebraic Descriptions

Metamodels have been designed to be practical and formal in the sense given by (Broy, 2001), for whom Software Engineering needs mathematical descriptions for its modelling aspects, description techniques and development methods, which should not be too complex. In this context, the OMG standard metamodels for UML are so complete that its complexity makes hard its processing. Thus, we have defined a set of metamodels with no incidental details, and with a solid mathematical basis. The following epigraphs describe an overview of the algebraic structure of the metamodels

A **Sequence Diagram** is composed of life lines and messages:

SD = (LifeLines, Messages), where:

• $l \in LifeLines = (Name, Class, In$ $puts <math>\subseteq$ Messages, Outputs \subseteq Messages, Variation-Points). VariationsPoints is the set of variation points in the message, which is explained later.

• $m \in Messages = (Name, Parameters, Return, Source_LifeLines, Target_LifeLines, Variation-Point, State). This definition contains the description of one message. As it is seen, it also has a VariationPoint element (which represents the variability of the instance) and a State. This one is required for the further addition of the oracle to test cases.$

• $v \in VariationPoints takes one of the values$ $in {Optional, Alternative}, if v is$ *Optional*, it has apair (Label, Conditions), which respectively determine the VP identifier and the set of applicable conditions; if v is*Alternative*, the pair (Label, Alternatives) represent the VP identifier and the se of alternative functionalities.

A **State** is composed of a set of conditional sentences, which are written in terms of the class attributes. Thus:

• State = {ConditionalSentence}.

• $c \in$ ConditionalSentence = (Expression, OptionalVariationPoint). *Expression* is the boolean expression to be evaluated; *Optional* represents a removable condition.

According to (Polo et al., 2007), "a **Test Template** is a sequence of operations of the class under test with no values that must be later combined with actual test values to generate test cases". Sequence diagrams produce test templates, which can be later processed to obtain actual test cases. Thus:

• TestTemplate = (Builder, TestValues, Calls, ObjectUnderTest). *Builder* represents the instruction that builds the instance and *Calls* is the set of instructions that execute the operations of the ObjectUnder Test, which has a name and a class, with the TestValues.

• Builder = (BuildOperation, InitValues, ObjectUnderTest)..

• $tv \in TestValues = (Operation, Argument, Value)$. A test value has information about the operation, the argument of the operation where it is applicable.

• $c \in Calls = (ObjectUnderTest, Operation, Oracle, OperationValues, VariationPoint). This definition contains the description of a call.$

• Oracle = (ConditionalSentences, ObjectUnderTest). Since the oracle is derived directly from the States, this definition represents a set of condi-

tional sentences related to an object under test.

4.2 Transformation Algorithms

This section describes how to obtain test cases both for the line as well as for concrete products. The section is divided into two parts: the first one shows how to obtain test templates for the line; the second shows how to obtain test templates for the products from the test templates of the line.

4.2.1 Test Templates for the Product Line

The algorithm of Figure 3 takes three arguments: the sequence diagrams of the line (s), the set of test values (tvs), and the life line (l) corresponding to the instance under test. The function returns the test template for the class under test with the corresponding variability.

The algorithm in Figure 3 uses two auxiliary functions: *getBuilderOperation* returns the instance of *Operation* corresponding to the construction of the object under test (*objectUnderTest* in Figure 3); *getOperation*, which is called several times in Figure 3, returns one instance of the *Operation* corresponding to a message in the source sequence diagram.

getTestTemplate(s:SD, tvs:TestValues, l:LifeLine): Test-	
Template {	
objectUnderTest = ("obtained", l.Class)	
buildOperation= getBuilderOperation(tvs, l.Class)	
initValues = \emptyset	
\forall tv \in tvs {	
If tv.Operation = buildOperation {	
initValues = initValues $\cup \{tv\}\}$	
builder = (buildOperation, initValues, objectUnderTest)	
result : TestTemplate = (builder, tvs, Ø, objectUnderTest)	
\forall m \in 1.Inputs {	
If $m \notin 1$. Outputs {	
operation = getOperation(m, l.Class)	
oracle = (m.State.ConditionalSentences, objectUnder-	
Test)	
operationValues = \emptyset	
\forall tv \in tvs {	
If tv.operation = operation {	
operationalValues = operationalValues \cup {tv} }	
call = (objectUnderTest, operation, oracle, operationVa-	
lues, m.VariationPoint)	
result.Calls = result.Calls \cup { call } }	
getTestCase = result }	

Figure 3: Getting test templates from a sequence diagram.

Note that both additional functions suppose the possibility of accessing the set of constructors and

methods of the class. In practice, this is feasible using reflective programming and has been used in other tools we have developed, such as *testooj* (Polo et al., 2007, Polo et al., 2008).

4.2.2 Test Templates for Products

The algorithm shown in Figure 4 returns a test template for a specific product from a test template for a line and the product identifier defined as *Value*. This uses the auxiliary function *getOracleForProduct* that removes the variability of the general oracle of the line obtained in the algorithm of the Figure 3.

When we have an instance of our metamodel (representing an actual sequence diagram), we can apply the different functions to obtain the test cases for the line and for the products. If we have the sequence diagram of Figure 2 and a set of test values, we will be able to apply the algorithm in Figure 3 to obtain general test cases for the line. Then the algorithm in Figure 4 produces the concrete test templates for the games (Table 2).

```
getProductTestTemplate(t:TestTemplate, p:Value) :
             TestTemplate {
 result:TestTemplate = (t.Builder, t.TestValues, \emptyset,
t.ObjectUnderTest)
 //The set of messages is ordered.
 //We obtain the first message, after the second
 //and finally the last message of the sequence diagram
  \forall call \in t.Calls {
   oracle = getOracleForProduct(call.Oracle, PV)
   if call.VariationPoint = \lambda {
     productCall = (call.ObjectUnderTest, call.Operation,
oracle, call.OperationValues, \lambda)
     result.Calls = result.Calls \cup \{productCall\}
    } else if m.VariationPoint = OptionalVariationPoint{
     if \exists c \in OptionalVariationPoint.Conditions
       | c.Value = p 
       productCall = (call.ObjectUnderTest, call.Operation,
oracle, call.OperationValues, \lambda)
       result.Calls = result.Calls \cup {productCall}
   }else if m.VariationPoint = AlternativeVariationPoint {
     //Since the alternative variation point implies
     //modifications in the implementation of the operation,
     //simply we have to add the call without variability.
     productCall = (call.ObjectUnderTest, call.Operation,
oracle, call.OperationValues, \lambda)
     result.Calls = result.Calls \cup {productCall}
    } }
  getTestCaseProduct = result}
```

Figure 4: Algorithm for transforming a test template of a product line into a test template for a product.

In these concrete cases, the variability (which was included in the test templates of the line), has disappeared since it has been applied to the case of two concrete products. Note that they have some differences, including the oracle descriptions (compartment at the bottom) which proceed from the adequate selection of the variability labels. Thus, *Trivial* does not include any control of the taken pieces. The last step is transforming the formal specification of the test cases in executable source code (Table 2), which is carried out by a single algorithm.

Table 2: Source code of two product test cases.

<pre>public void test1(){</pre>
Pos posl = new Pos($"1"$, $"1"$);
Pos pos2 = new Pos("2", "2");
Vector <int> arg1 = new Vector();</int>
argl.add(posl);
arg1.add(pos2);
Game obtained = new Game();
o.move(argl);
assertTrue(
o.clients.size() == nPlayers &&
o.pWithTurn != null &&
o.movement == null &&
<pre>o.pieceToMove ==null);}</pre>
public void test1(){
Pos pos1 = new Pos($"1"$, $"1"$);
Pos $pos2 = new Pos("2", "2");$
Vector <int> arg1 = new Vector();</int>
argl.add(posl);
arg1.add(pos2);
Game o = new Game();
o.move(argl);
assertTrue(
o.clients.size() == nPlayers &&
o.pWithTurn != null &&
o.movement == null && o.pieceToMove ==null
&&
o.positionsToTake == -1 &&
o.takenPieces == -1);
o.takePiece(arg1);
assertTrue(o.clients.size() == nPlayers &&
o.pWithTurn != null &&
o.movement == null && o.pieceToMove ==null
<u>k</u> &
o.positionsToTake == -1 &&
<pre>o.takenPieces == -1);}</pre>

5 CONCLUSIONS

This article has presented an approach to generate test cases in SPL, based on metamodels and transformation algorithms. The main novelty is the procedure to include oracle instructions in the final test cases. The approach requires sequence diagrams which must be annotated with state descriptions. In this context, the clear and formal specification of the system is a stronger requirement than in traditional development. Due to this, the analysis and design costs are necessarily higher, but they are almost certainly compensated for during further steps in the life cycle.

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