

Toward Automated Test Generation for Engineering Applications

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ABSTRACT

In test generation based on model-checking, white-box test criteria are represented as trap conditions written in a temporal logic. A model checker is used to refute trap conditions with counter-examples. From a feasible counter-example test inputs are then generated. Earlier research has demonstrated the usefulness of this approach and revealed its weakness. The major problems of applying this approach to engineering applications derive from the fact that engineering programs have an infinite state space and non-linear numerical computations. Our solution is to combine predicate abstraction (which reduces the state space) with a numerical decision procedure (which supports predicate abstraction by solving non-linear constraints) based on interval analysis. We have developed a prototype and applied it to MC/DC (Modified Condition/Decision Coverage) test case generation. We have used the prototype on a number of C modules taken from a conflict detection and avoidance system and from a Boeing 737 autopilot simulator. The modules range from tens of lines up to thousands of lines in size. Our experience shows that although in theory the inclusion of a decision procedure for non-linear arithmetic may lead to non-terminating behavior and false positives (as abstraction-based model checking already does), our prototype is able to automatically produce feasible counterexamples with only a few exceptions. Furthermore, the process runs with acceptable execution times, without requiring any other knowledge of the specification, and without tampering with the original C programs.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

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Test case generation, model-checking, predicate abstraction

1. INTRODUCTION

FAA's regulations concerning DO-178B [39] explicitly set test criteria for different levels of safety related software. For example, certification of level A software, one that involves human safety, requires test cases that satisfy the MC/DC (Modified Condition/Decision Coverage) criteria [9, 25]. Efforts in meeting these criteria are highly iterative and labor-intensive. Even small improvements in automated test case generation could help to reduce significantly the development cost of certified software.

In recent years, an active community of researchers on test case generation based on model checking has formed. Several tools have been developed (c.f., [1, 7, 21, 26, 43]). The inputs to these generators are a specification (in a few cases, a program) and a coverage criterion; the outputs are value assignments to the program input parameters. Feeding the value assignments to a test harness will guarantee the coverage demanded by the criteria. Our attention in this paper focuses on generating test cases from a program rather than from a specification. Our tool can be combined with specification-based approaches to accelerate the process of achieving MC/DC coverage.

Using a model checker in test case generation relies on its ability to find a counter-example of an invalid formula. In particular, from coverage criteria one is able to construct a so-called trap condition of the form " P is always not true" for some predicate P . For example, using linear time logic, a trap condition can be: $\Box \neg (pc = L \wedge (x > 0))$, where pc is an artificial variable ranging over program locations. The model checker might find that this trap condition is not true, in which case a counter-example is generated. The counter-example demonstrates how L is reached and $x > 0$ is satisfied. From such a counter-example, one may use a data concretizer to discover test inputs.

Avionics systems are likely to frustrate most existing model checkers because of large state spaces, complicated control structures, and non-linear computation. A large state space

| | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Constraint P | $::= f = f \mid f >= f \mid f <= f$ |
| Expression f | $::= f + f \mid f - f \mid f * f \mid f / f$ $\mid (f) \mid -f \mid +f$ $\mid \text{constants} \mid \text{vars} \mid \mathcal{F}(\vec{f})$ |
| Interpreted Funs \mathcal{F} | $::= \text{min} \mid \text{max} \mid \text{pow} \mid \text{sqrt} \mid \text{log}$ $\mid \text{exp} \mid \text{cos} \mid \text{sin} \mid \text{tan} \mid \text{acos} \mid \text{asin} \dots$ |

Figure 2: Syntax for Constraints

vectors. Every bit⁴ in the vector represents the truth value (plus possibly another value $*$) of a predicate in Φ .

The computation can be understood as observing the program’s behavior over Φ in a piecewise manner. Informally, the effect of a statement c over a predicate $P_i \in \Phi$ can be written as an assignment:

$$b_i = \mathcal{WP}(c, P_i)$$

where we use b_i for the bit corresponding to P_i . Because the domain of the abstraction has to be an abstract state too, that is, every control has to be made solely based on an abstract state, we have to compute an approximation of $\mathcal{WP}(c, P)$ using the bit vector. We write such an approximation of $\mathcal{WP}(c, P)$ as $\mathcal{WP}_E(c, P)$, which can be computed by checking for every conjunction Q_i in Φ if $Q_i \Rightarrow \mathcal{WP}(c, P)$. This is implemented by calling a satisfiability checker on the formula $Q_i \wedge \neg \mathcal{WP}(c, P)$. Thus, $\mathcal{WP}_E(c, P)$ is defined as the disjunction of all Q_i ’s that pass the check. Note that, in general, $\mathcal{WP}_E(c, P) \neq \neg \mathcal{WP}_E(c, \neg P)$, thus the assignment to b_i can be written as a program (called *Boolean program*, or BP) statement of the form:

$$b_i = \text{if } (\mathcal{WP}_E(c, P_i)) \text{ then true} \\ \text{elseif } (\mathcal{WP}_E(c, \neg P_i)) \text{ then false else } *$$

where $*$ represents a non-deterministic choice. Note that a BP is only used as the input to a model checker, where a test of $*$ means both branches based on this test must be searched by the model checker.

An abstract state (bit-vector) s_a can also be represented as a proposition. Suppose the residue of the vector after filtering out the $*$ bits is v . Then the proposition is:

$$\gamma(s_a) = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n \text{if } (v(i)) \text{ then } P_i \text{ else } \neg P_i.$$

Function γ is called a concretization function.

From an initial abstract state s_0 and a set of predicates Φ , a model checker can repeatedly apply the abstract transition to compute a set of reachable states until a fixed point is reached, or an error state is met. Every possible move is followed; when more than one move is eligible, each one is followed and the other is retained for future backtracking.

2.3 Predicate Discovery

Based on counter-example feasibility testing, counter-example driven predicate discovery allows the model checker to incrementally discover a suitable set of predicates, starting

⁴Strictly speaking not a bit, but a variable ranging over values from a lattice induced from $\{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$.

with an initial value of Φ that includes the atomic predicates in Er of the form $(pc = L) \wedge \phi$. This procedure is also known as *predicate refinement* and is in general incomplete (c.f., [2]) because it is possible that the path is not feasible and we could not find new predicates. Given an error path $\beta = s_0, \dots, s_n$, we compute a sequence of statements $tr(\beta) = c_1, \dots, c_n$ (less by one than the number of states in the error path). Iteratively, we compute the weakest preconditions P_1, \dots, P_n using the equations below:

$$P_1 = \mathcal{WP}(c_n, \phi) \\ P_{i+1} = \mathcal{WP}(c_{n-i+1}, P_i)$$

We check whether P_i is satisfiable. If, for some j , P_j is not satisfiable, we attempt to find new predicates from the path from s_j to s_n . One way to find new predicates is to collect all the predicates involved or use certain heuristics to select the new predicates. A better approach is to use Craig interpolation ([28, 35]).

2.4 System Diagram

Constraint satisfiability is studied by the constraint logic programming community. Modern constraint solvers often combines interval arithmetic [36] with local inconsistency checking [34]. Practical considerations such as speed or time-out contribute to the imprecision of constraint solvers. We divide them into satisfiability checkers, whose “yes” decision is accurate, and unsatisfiability ones, whose “no solution” answer is accurate⁵. Unsatisfiability constraint solvers can be used to construct a (semi-)decision procedure to be used in predicate abstraction. An unsatisfiability solver may fail to identify that an implication holds thus introduce further overapproximation. A satisfiability constraint solver is suitable for feasibility test⁶. In addition, the data concretizer itself should be constructed from a satisfiability solver.

The discussion above is reflected in Figure 1. A test requirement analyzer analyzes the input program and generates trap conditions. The trap conditions and source program are then taken into an iterative abstraction-model checking-refinement process. This process depends on different decision procedures. Traditional ones are colored blue (darker gray-scale) while numerical ones are colored pale yellow (lighter gray-scale). This iterative process may not terminate. When it does, it either generates test inputs, or declares the trap condition can never happen, or complains that new predicates cannot be found (the latter two are combined as “unable to proceed” in the figure). Finally, we have the soundness theorem under the assumptions above.

CLAIM 1 (SOUNDNESS). *If the process described in Section 2 returns a feasible error path β , then there exists a test input, the execution of which will satisfy the coverage criterion.*

2.5 Example

Figure 3 is a code snippet from a Boeing 737 autopilot simulator. Suppose the decision we are interested in is $a \neq 0.0$

⁵We refrain from using the words “sound” and “complete” because they are potentially confusing in this context. For example, what is not sound to the decision problem could be sound for predicate abstraction.

⁶Because a satisfiability solver is often slow, we use an unsatisfiability checker as an approximation in our prototype

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1 : /* COMPUTE PARTIAL G WITH RESPECT TO X */
2 : if ( (*lastout > deflmt[0]) &&
3 :      (*lastout < deflmt[1]) )
4 :      pGwrx = 1.0;
5 : else
6 :      pGwrx = 0.0;
7 : a = -gain * pHwre * pGwrx;
8 : if ( a != 0.0 ) {
9 :      /* something else */
10: } else {
11:      /* something else */
12: }

```

Figure 3: Code snippet from autopilot simulator

at line 8. We feed a trap condition $\Box\neg(pc = 8 \wedge a \neq 0.0)$ to the model checker. A counter-example driven approach will start from the predicates that appear in the trap condition ($\{a = 0.0\}$). Because a is not relevant to the decision in Line 2 and 3, the decision will be abstracted to $*$. Suppose the else branch is taken first. Line 6 does not affect a . The abstract state after Line 7 is still $b_1 = *$. Now Line 8 is reached, and the conjunction of $*$ and $a \neq 0.0$ is indeed satisfiable. The trace leading to this error state will be returned as a counter-example, which will be analyzed to see if it is feasible. For example, the trace corresponding to lines 2-3-6-7-8-9 is not feasible because it requires both $pGwrx = 0$ and $a \neq 0$, which is impossible due to the assignment at Line 7. This conclusion is drawn by inquiring the decision procedure about the following constraints, which are computed using weakest precondition:

$$\begin{aligned}
& a \neq 0.0 \\
& 0.0 \neq -gain * pHwre * pGwrx \wedge \\
& 0.0 \neq -gain * pHwre * 0.0 \wedge
\end{aligned}$$

Because the constraint set is non-linear, traditional decision procedures cannot solve it. However, the numerical decision procedure will have no difficulty in deciding that the constraints are not satisfiable. Thus the error trace is not feasible.

From such an analysis, the tool realizes that it is the execution of Line 6 that causes the constraints to be unsatisfiable. Therefore, Φ is updated to $\{a = 0.0, pGwrx = 0.0\}$. Subsequent search based on the new set of predicates should notice that if Line 6 is reached then $a = 0.0$ will be true after executing Line 7. Then the error state is not reached because $a = 0.0 \wedge a \neq 0.0$ is false. The model checker backtracks and selects Line 4 instead of Line 6. This time, the error state is reached at Line 8 and the counter-example is feasible.

3. IMPLEMENTATION

We implement our prototype system based on two existing systems, BLAST from Berkeley and Realpaver from University of Nantes. BLAST provides the reachability test of a C program; Realpaver can be used to determine the satisfiability of a set of non-linear constraints. We extend Realpaver to a decision procedure of the Nelson and Oppen flavor. We then plug the new decision procedure into BLAST, replacing the decision procedures used there (one of Vampire, Simplify, or CVC-lite, though Simplify is favored and sometimes

hard coded). Some amount of reprogramming is required to tailor BLAST for our purpose. Realpaver is claimed to satisfy the following property [23]:

PROPOSITION 1 (RELIABILITY). *Realpaver computes a union of boxes that contains all the solutions of the original constraint satisfaction problem. Therefore, if no box is computed by Realpaver, the constraint satisfaction problem has no solutions.*

We apply our prototype to two programs. One is an experimental air traffic conflict detection and resolution system, called KB3D [17]. The other is a linear dynamics simulator for a Boeing 737 autopilot system (called simulator below). Both programs contains non-linear computations that involve non-linear terms as well as exponential and trigonometric functions. The former is a small program containing several modules, while the latter is a larger program that contains 20 modules. The sizes of the modules range from tens of lines to thousands of lines. The number of decisions are 40 for the KB3D program and 220 for the simulator.

We first generate test cases for each of the modules. With a few exceptions (4 cases for the simulator), we are able to generate feasible examples. Note that certain for-loops are taken special care of in predicate abstraction based approaches. The running time of our prototype is short, typically seconds, with the longest one more than 20 minutes on a commodity computer. The Realpaver-based decision procedure handles the smaller problems generated during abstraction quickly. More complicated problems generated during feasibility testing, which often contain more than 100 variables and hundreds of constraints, take as long as 10 minutes for Realpaver to respond. Our ongoing research includes experimenting with rsolver [38] to generate test cases from the feasible paths.

4. RELATED WORK

- *Test Case Generation* It has been long recognized that test cases can be generated from symbolic execution of the program [31]. Early work in the area of model checking based test case generation [1, 21, 26] generates test cases from specification. A few others [7, 43] take program as input but do not handle non-linear computation. Using a constraint solver in test case generation is built into commercial tools (for example, Reactis⁷). Test case generation for real time system is explored by Hamon et al [24]. Some non-linear decisions are supported by the underlying ICS decision [19] procedure. This work also suggests that for test case generation, a combination of different model checking techniques is needed.
- *Decision Procedures* Tarski [42] shows the first order theory of real numbers with addition and multiplication is decidable through quantifier elimination. Collins shows that quantifier elimination can be done through Cylindrical Algebraic Decomposition [12]. Adding periodic functions will cause the theory to be undecidable, while adding *exp* is decidable if Schanuel's conjecture holds.

⁷<http://www.reactis.com>

- *Data Flow Analysis* ASTREE [13], a dataflow analyzer for safety critical systems, is based on such abstraction domains as octagon, ellipsoid and decision trees.

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