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# Domain Testing

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# Input Domains

- An exhaustive testing of values in the input domains is impossible.
  - One is limited to a small subset of all possible input values.
  - One wants to select a subset with the highest probability of finding the most errors.
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# An Example

- Consider a program that calculates the root of quadratic equations in the form of:

$$a x^2 + b x + c = 0$$

with the solution for the root to be:

$$r = (-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4 a c}) / (2 a).$$

- If each variable is represented by a 32 bit floating point number, the number of all possible input value combinations is then

$$2^{32} \times 2^{32} \times 2^{32} = 2^{96}.$$

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# Equivalence Classes

- A **well-selected** set of input values should **covers a large set of other input values**.
  - This property implies that one should partition the input domains into a finite number of **equivalence classes**.
  - A test of a **representative value** of each class is **equivalent** to a test of any other value.
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# Valid and Invalid Equivalence Classes

- The equivalence classes are identified by taking each **input condition** and partitioning the input domain into two or more groups.
  - Two types of equivalence classes are identified.
  - **Valid equivalence classes** represent valid inputs to the program.
  - **Invalid equivalence classes** represent all other possible states of the condition.
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# An Example

- If an input condition specifies a range of values (e.g., the count can be from 1 to 999), it identifies **one** valid equivalence class ( $1 \leq \text{count} \leq 999$ ) and **two** invalid equivalence classes ( $\text{count} < 1$  and  $\text{count} > 999$ )
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# Partitioning Valid Equivalence Classes

- If elements in a valid equivalence class are not handled in an identical manner by the program, **partition** the equivalence class into smaller equivalence classes.
  - Generate a **test case** for each valid and invalid equivalence class.
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# An Example

- For the quadratic equation example, the types of the roots for the equation depend on the condition  $d = b^2 - 4ac$ .
- The equation has two different real roots if  $d > 0$ .
- The equation has two identical real roots if  $d = 0$ .
- The equation has no real root if  $d < 0$ .



# An Example

Test Case	Condition	Input		
	$d = b^2 - 4ac$	a	b	c
1	$d > 0$	1	2	-1
2	$d = 0$	1	2	1
3	$d < 0$	1	2	3

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# Input Spaces, Vectors, Points

- Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  denote the input variables. Then these  $n$  variables form an  $n$ -dimensional space that we call **input space**.
  - The input space can be represented by a vector  $X$ , we call **input vector**, where  $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ .
  - When the input vector  $X$  takes a specific value, we call it a **test point** or a **test case**, which corresponds to a point in the input space.
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# Input Domains and Sub-Domains

- The **input domain** consists of all the points representing all the allowable input combinations specified for the program in the product specification.
  - An **input sub-domain** is a subset of the input domain. In general, a sub-domain can be defined by a set of **inequalities** in the form of
$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) < K,$$
where “<” can also be replaced by other relational operators.
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# Input Domain Partition

- An **input domain partition** is a partition of the input domain into a number of sub-domains.
  - These partitioned sub-domains are **mutually exclusive**, and **collectively exhaustive**.
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# Boundary

- A **boundary** is where two sub-domains meet.
- A boundary is a **linear boundary** if it is defined by:  
$$a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n = K.$$
Otherwise, it is called a **nonlinear boundary**.
- A sub-domain is called a **linear sub-domain** if its boundaries are all linear ones.
- A point on a boundary is called a **boundary point**.

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# Open and Closed Boundary

- A boundary is a **closed** one with respect to a specific sub-domain if all the boundary points belong to the sub-domain.
  - A boundary is an **open** one with respect to a specific sub-domain if none of the boundary points belong to the sub-domain.
  - A sub-domain with all open boundaries is called an **open sub-domain**; One with all closed boundaries is called a **closed sub-domain**; otherwise it is a **mixed sub-domain**.
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# Interior and Exterior Points

- A point belonging to a sub-domain but not on the boundary is called an **interior point**.
  - A point not belonging to a sub-domain and not on the boundary is called an **exterior point**.
  - A point where two or more boundaries intersect is called a **vertex point**.
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# General Problems with Input Values

- Some input values cannot be handled by the program. These input values are **under-defined**.
  - Some input values result in different output. These input values are **over-defined**.
  - These problems are most likely to happen at **boundaries**.
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# Boundary Problems

- **Closure** problem: whether the boundary points belong to the sub-domain.
  - **Boundary shift** problem: where exactly a boundary is between the intended and the actual boundary.  
$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = K,$$
where a small change in  $K$ .
  - **Boundary tilt** problem:  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = K$ , where a small change in some parameters.
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# Boundary Problems

- **Missing boundary** problem: a boundary missing means that two neighboring sub-domains collapse into one sub-domain.
  - **Extra boundary** problem: An extra boundary further partitions a sub-domain into two smaller sub-domains.
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# Weak $N \times 1$ Strategy

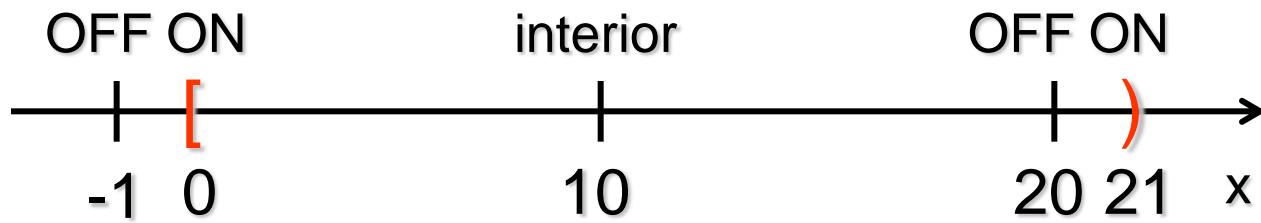
- In an  $n$ -dimensional space, a boundary defined by a **linear equation** in the form of
$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = K$$
would need  $n$  **linearly independent points** to define it.
- We can select  $n$  such boundary points, called **ON** points, to precisely define the boundary.
- We can also select a point, called an **OFF** point, that receives different processing.

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# The OFF Points

- If the boundary is a **closed** boundary with respect to the sub-domain under consideration, the OFF point will be outside the sub-domain or be an **exterior** point.
  - If the boundary is an **open** boundary with respect to the sub-domain under consideration, the OFF point will be inside the sub-domain or be an **interior** point.
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# An Example



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# Distance of the OFF Points

- The idea is to pick the OFF point so close to the boundary that any small amount of boundary change would affect the processing of the OFF point.
  - In practice, the distance  $\epsilon$  to the boundary is set to the precision of the data type. For integers,  $\epsilon = 1$ . For numbers with  $n$  binary digits after the decimal point,  $\epsilon = 1/2^n$ .
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# Position of the OFF Points

- The selected OFF point should be **central** to all the ON points.
  - For **two**-dimensional space, it should be chosen by:
    - Choosing the **midpoint** between the two ON points.
    - Then moving  $\varepsilon$  distance off the boundary, outward or inward for closed or open boundary, respectively.
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# Total Test Points

- In general, an interior point is also sampled as the representative of the equivalence class representing all the points in the sub-domain under consideration, resulting in  $(n + 1) \times b + 1$  test points for each  $n$ -dimensional domain with  $b$  boundaries.
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# An Example

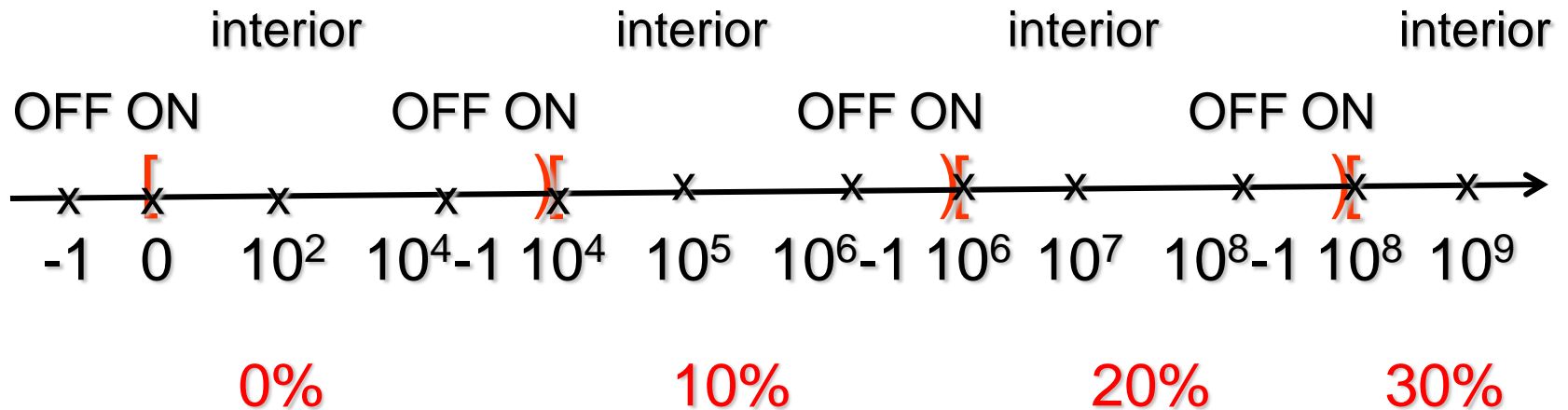
Tax Rate:

0%: 0~9999

10%: 10000~999999

20%: 1000000~99999999

30%: 100000000~

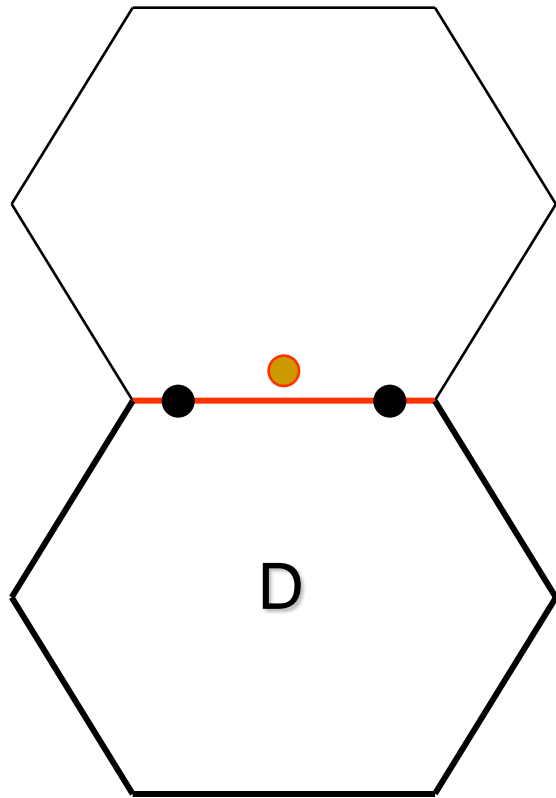


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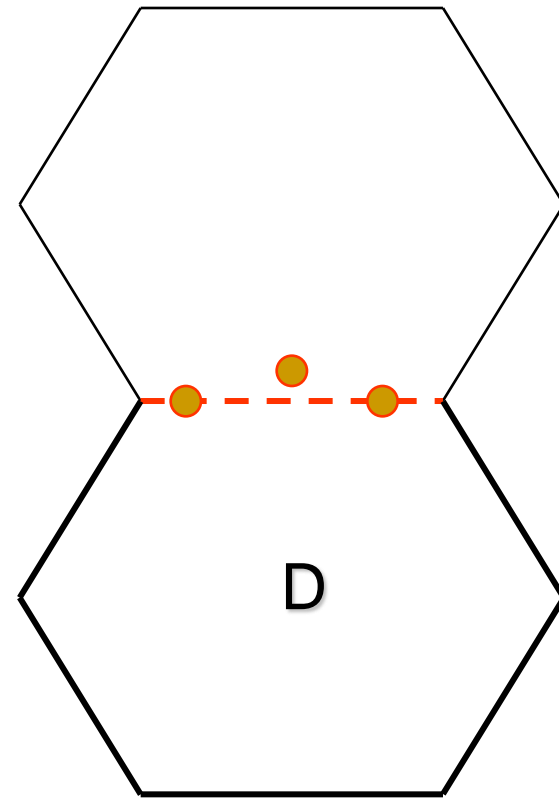
# Boundary Problem Detection of Weak N × 1 Strategy

- Closure problem
  - Boundary shift problem
  - Boundary tilt problem
  - Missing boundary problem
  - Extra boundary problem
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# Closure Problem



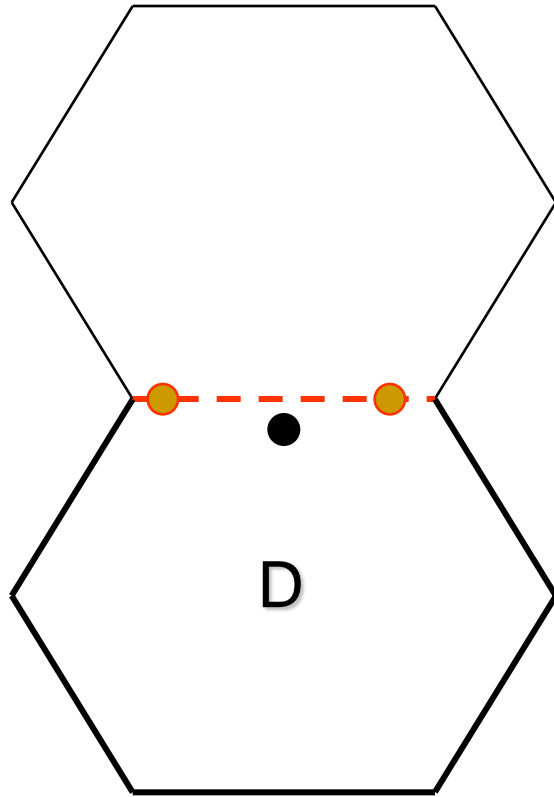
closed



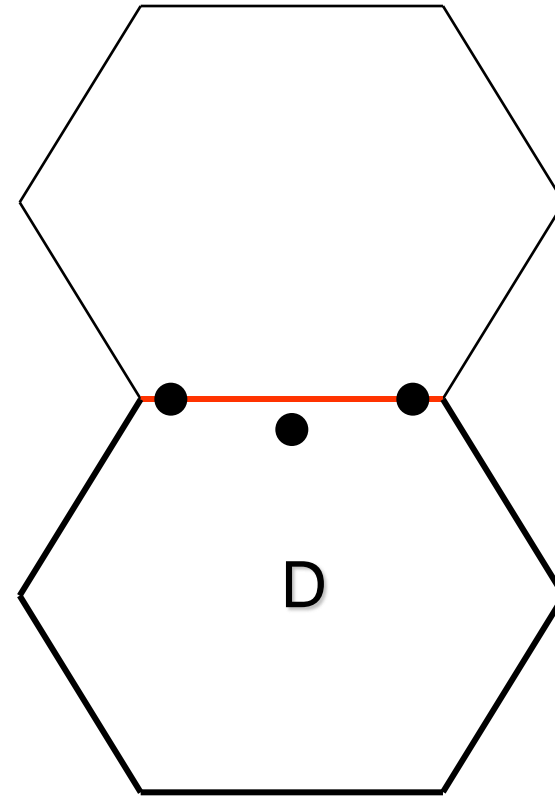
open

● exterior    ● interior

# Closure Problem



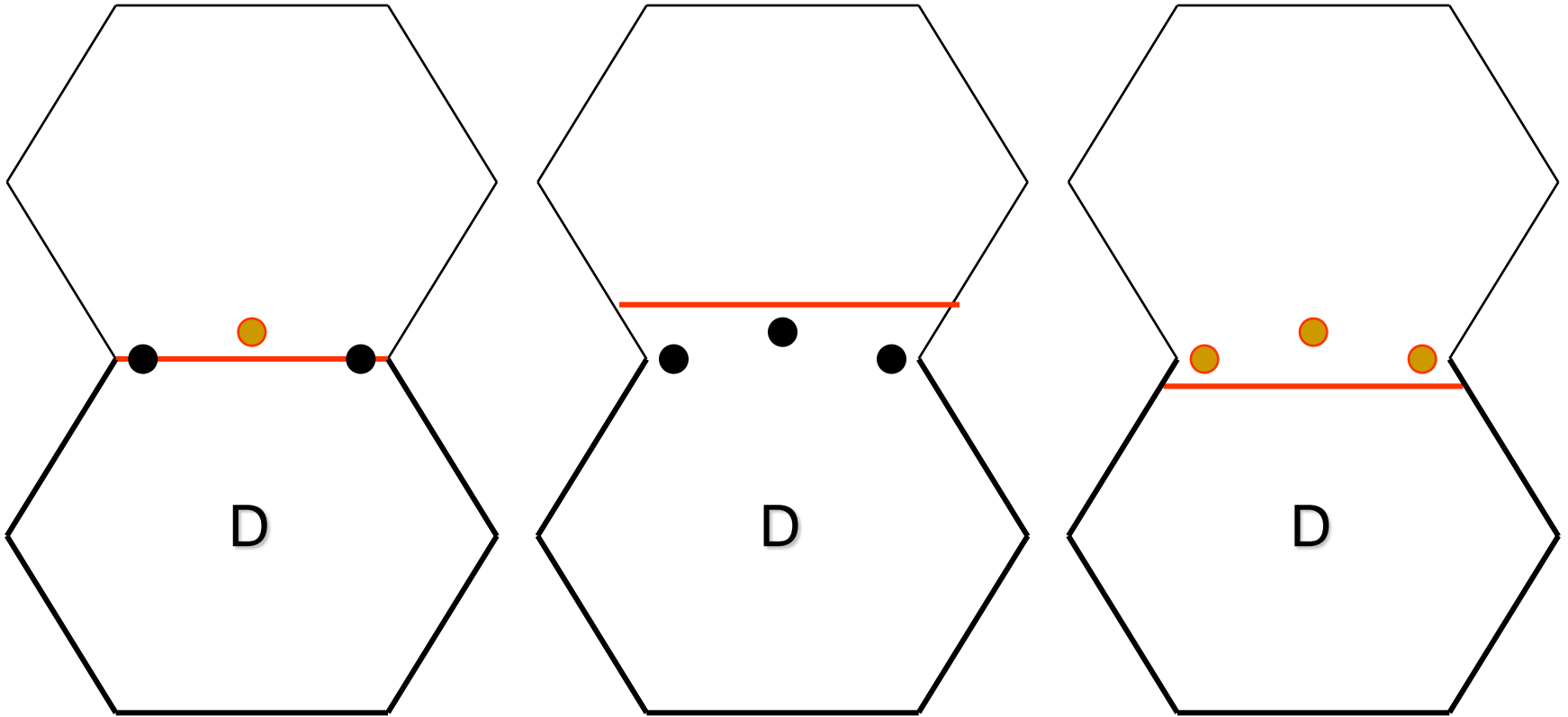
open



closed

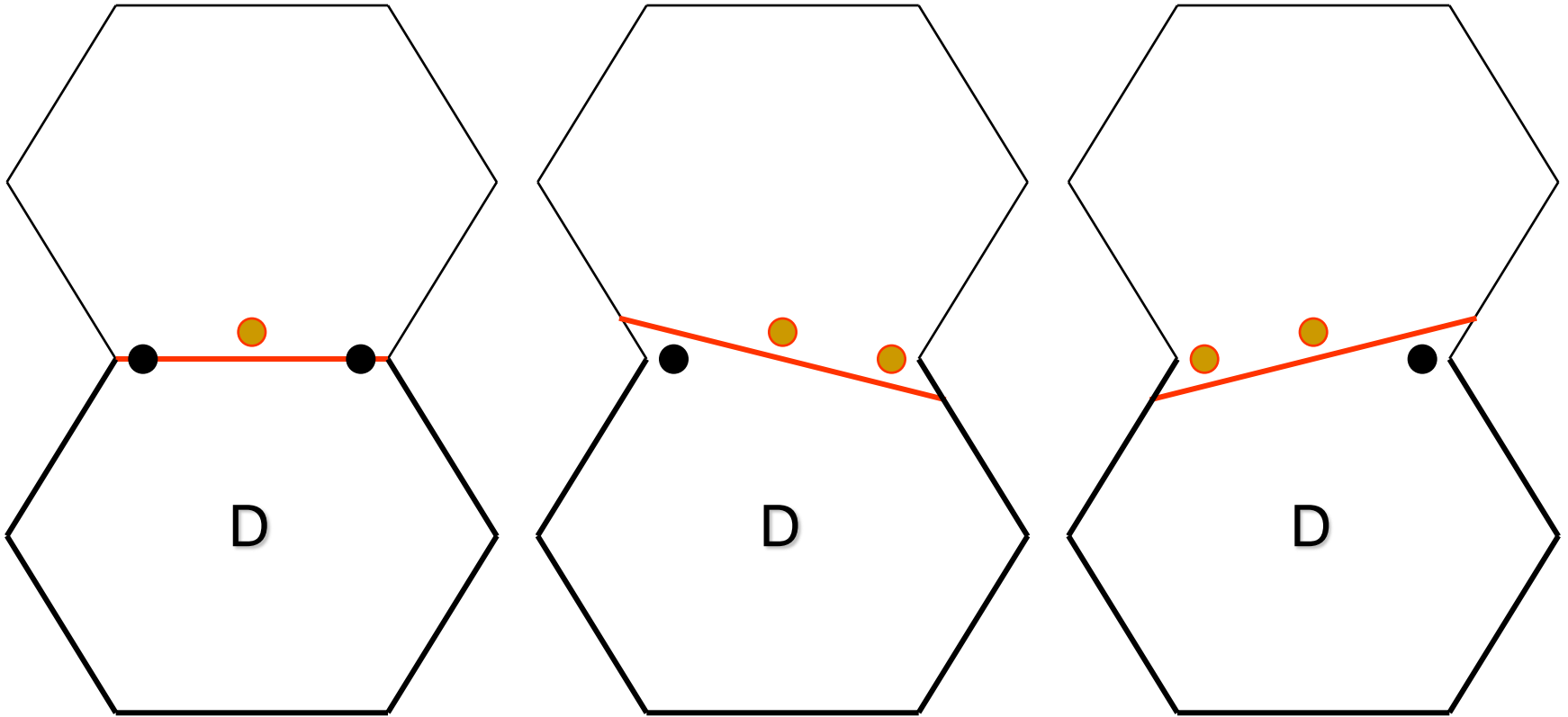
● exterior    ● interior

# Boundary Shift Problem



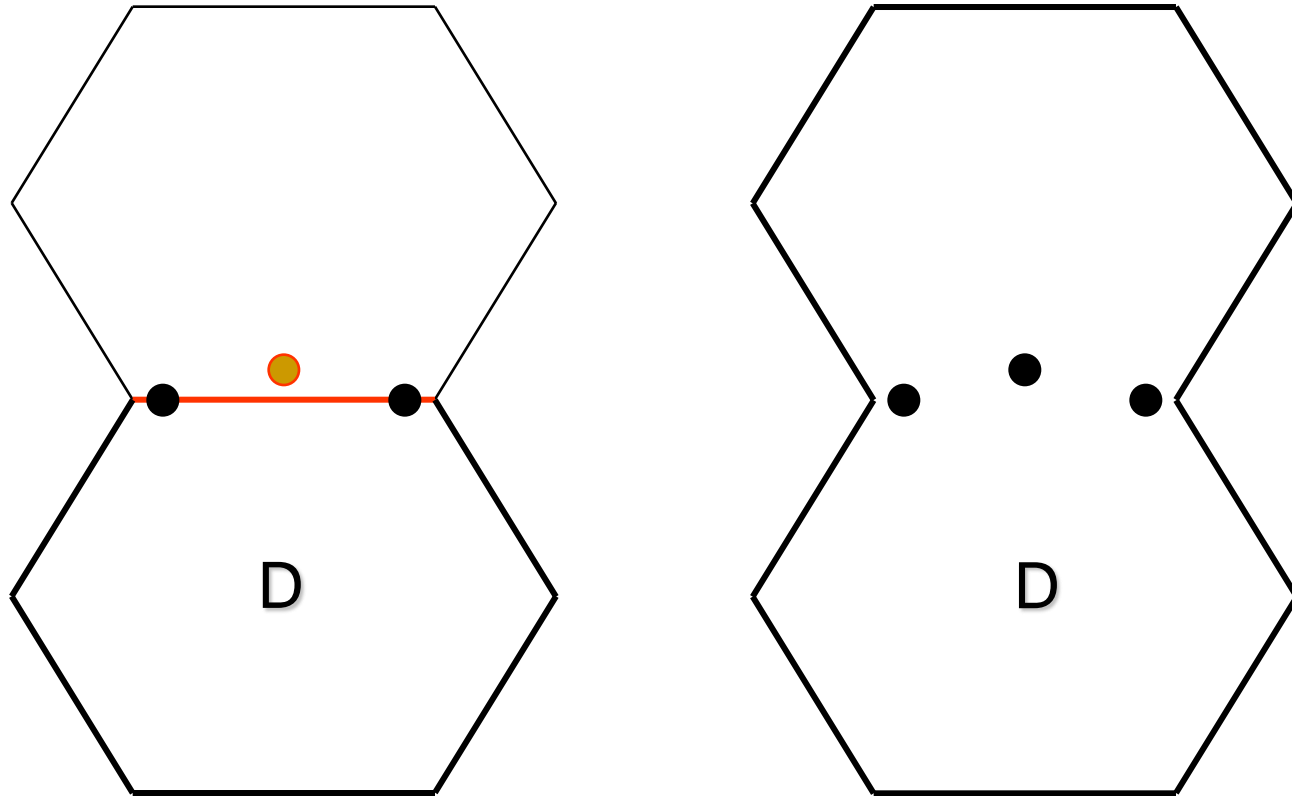
● exterior    ● interior

# Boundary Tilt Problem



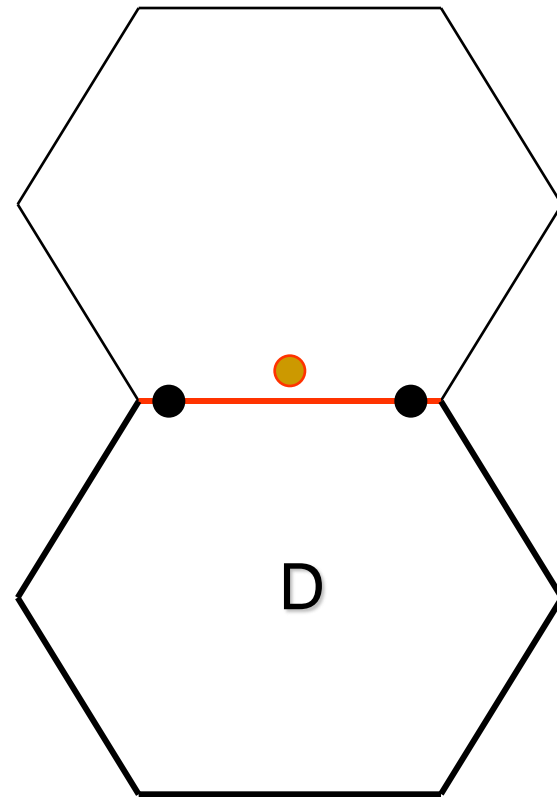
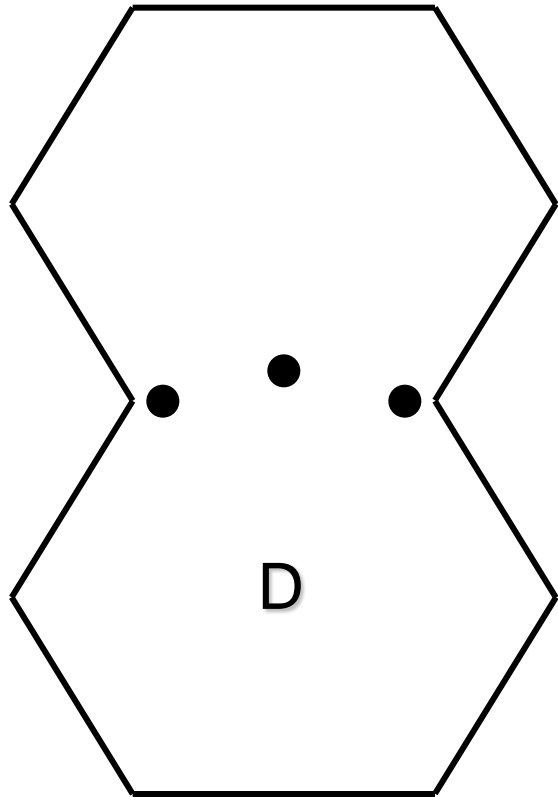
● exterior    ● interior

# Missing Boundary Problem



● exterior    ● interior

# Extra Boundary Problem



● exterior    ● interior



# Weak $1 \times 1$ Strategy

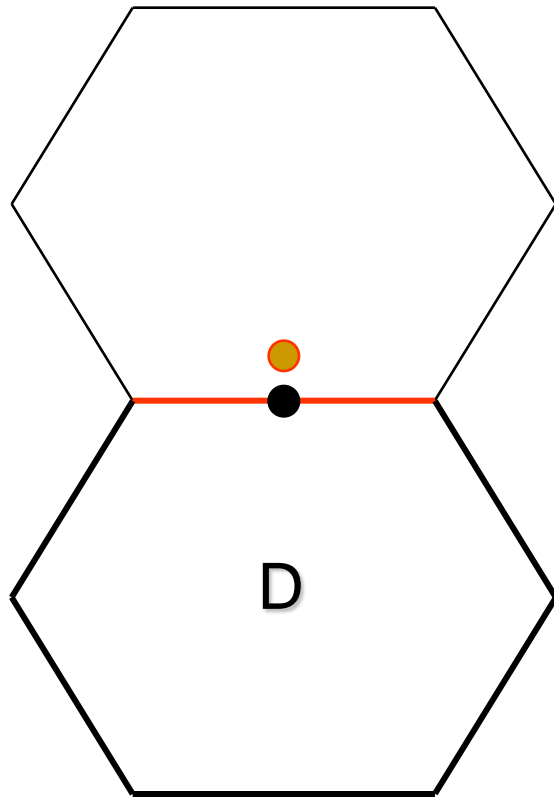
- One of the major drawbacks of weak  $N \times 1$  strategy is the number of test points used,  $(n + 1) \times b + 1$  for  $n$  input variables and  $b$  boundaries.
- Weak  $1 \times 1$  strategy uses just one ON point for each boundary, thus reducing the total number of test points to  $2 \times b + 1$ .
- The OFF point is just  $\varepsilon$  distance from the ON point and perpendicular to the boundary.

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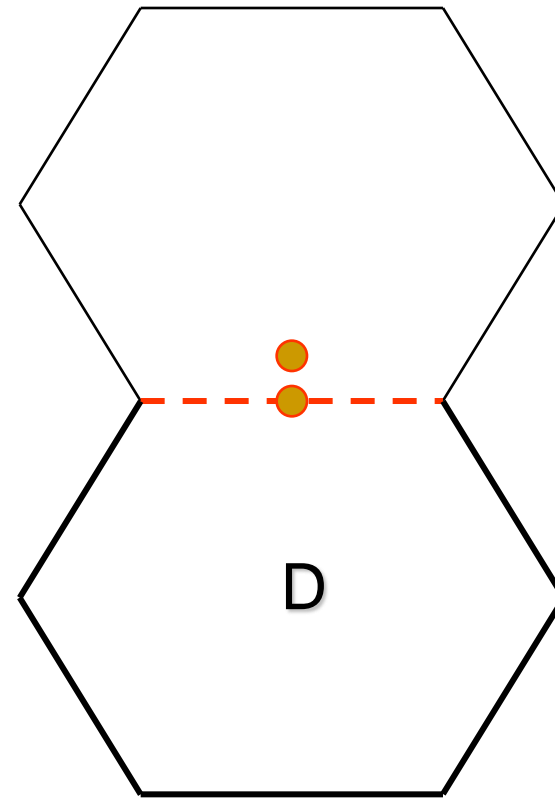
# Boundary Problem Detection of Weak $1 \times 1$ Strategy

- Closure problem
  - Boundary shift problem
  - Boundary tilt problem
  - Missing boundary problem
  - Extra boundary problem
-

# Closure Problem



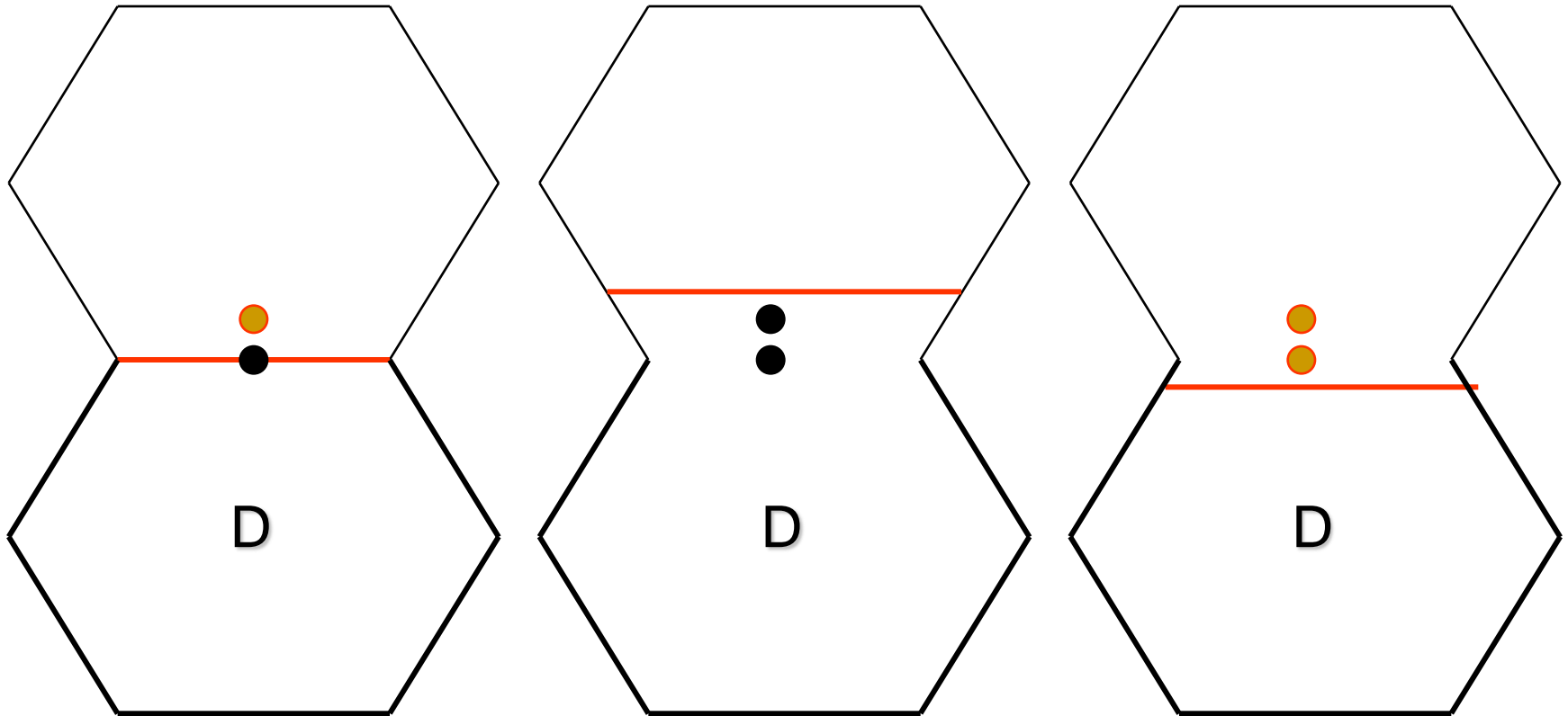
closed



open

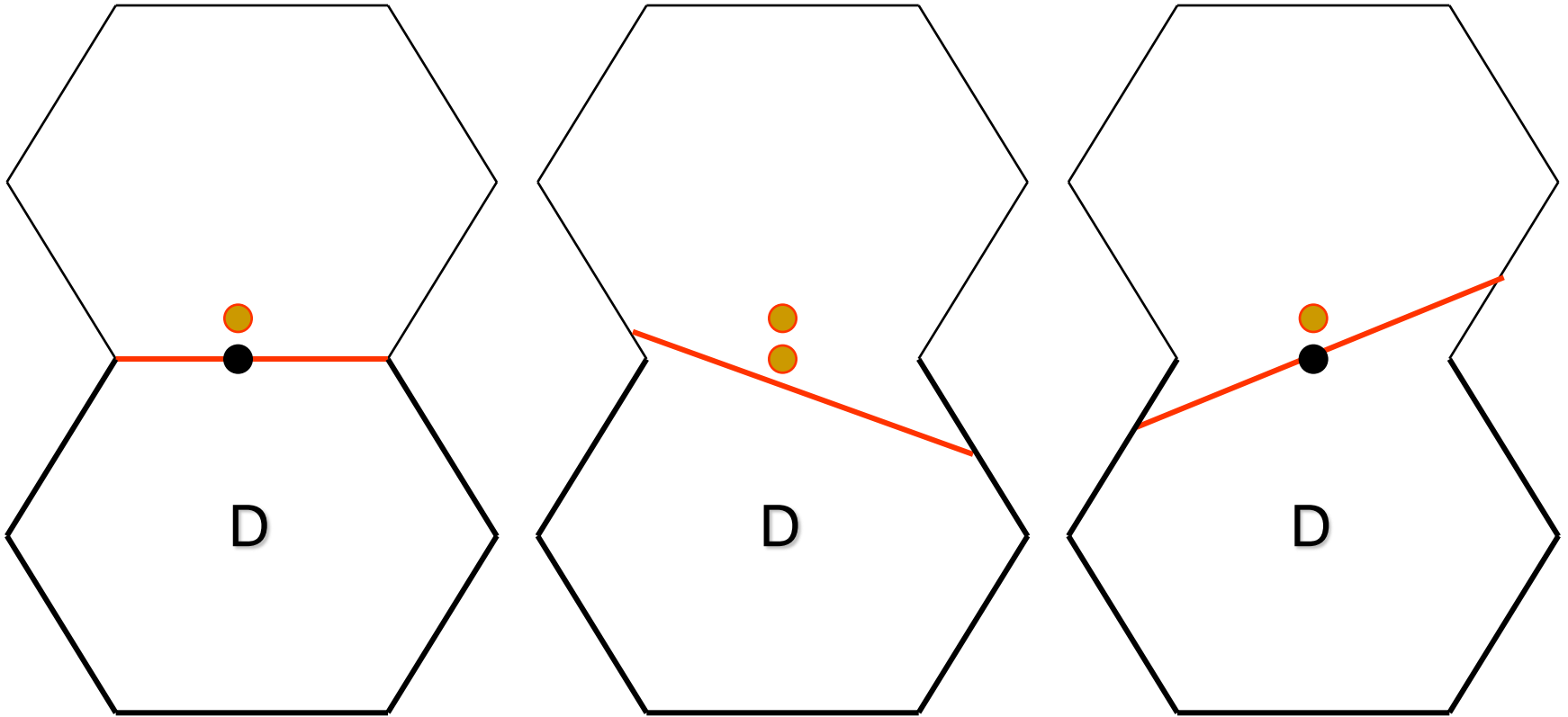
● exterior    ● interior

# Boundary Shift Problem



● exterior    ● interior

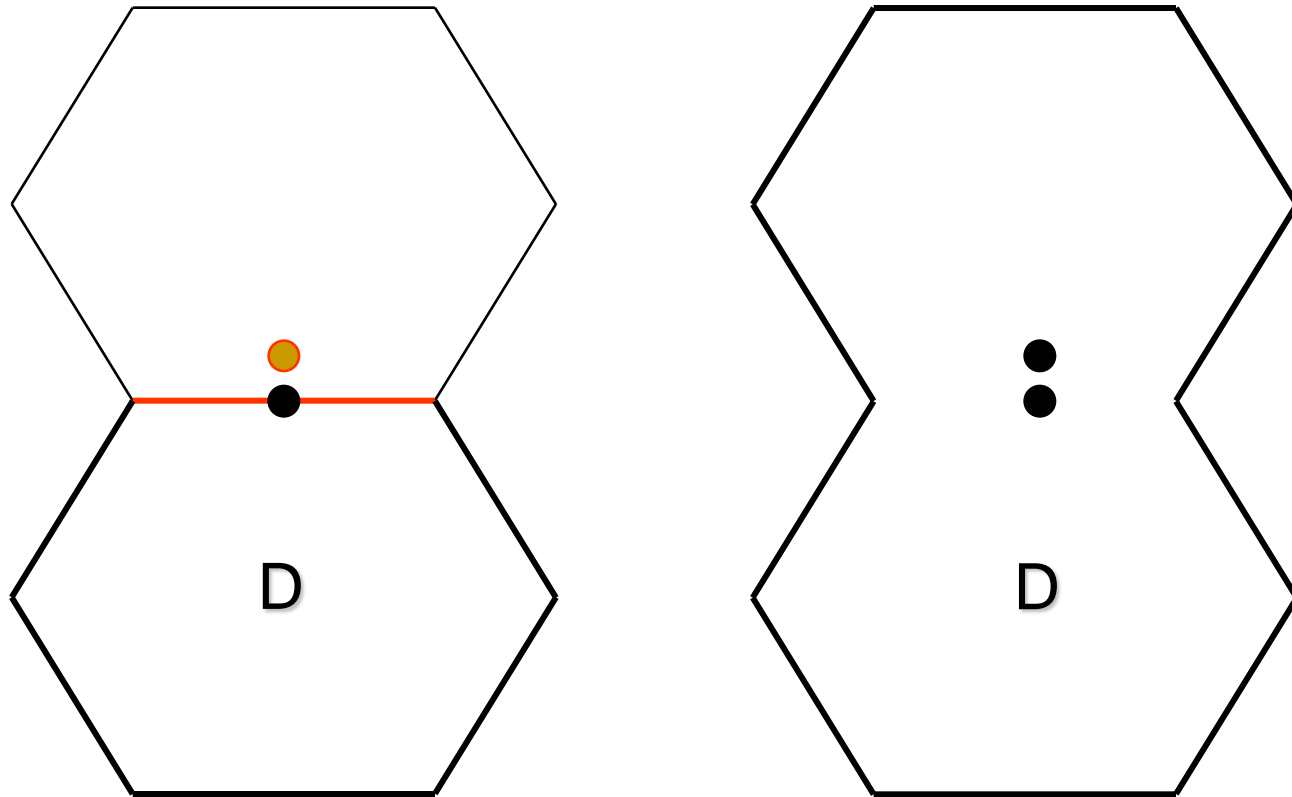
# Boundary Tilt Problem



Such cases are rare

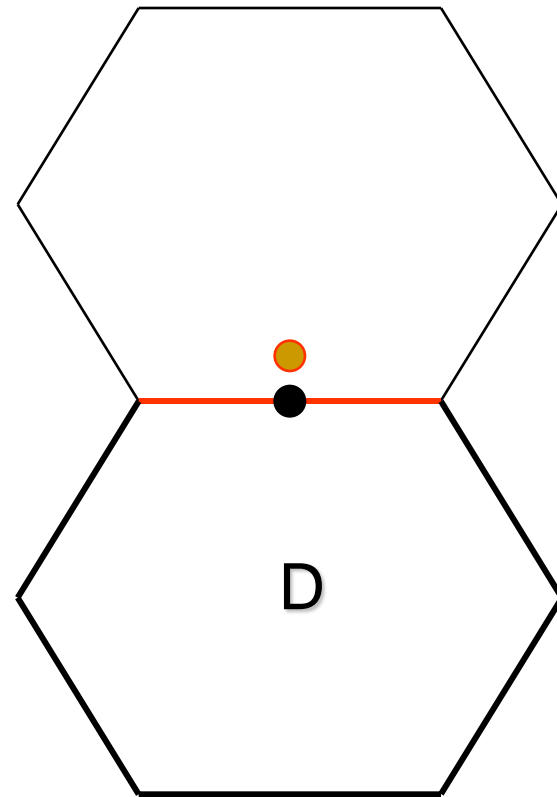
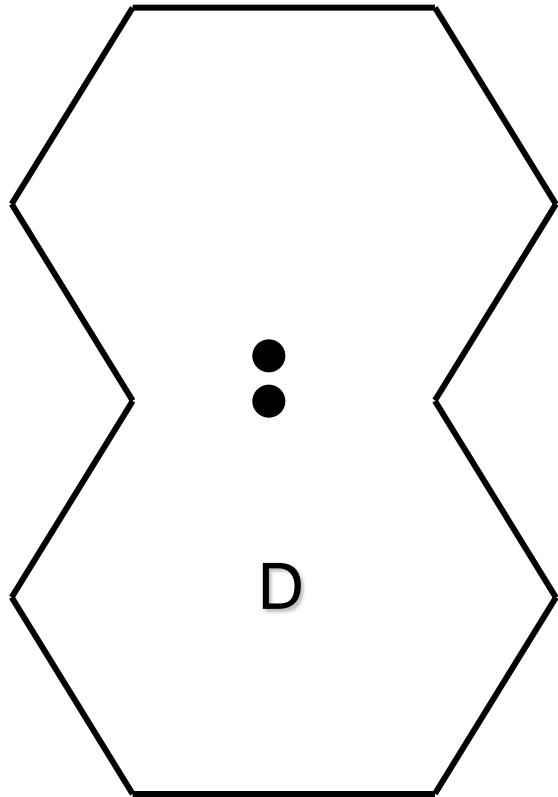
● exterior    ● interior

# Missing Boundary Problem



● exterior    ● interior

# Extra Boundary Problem



● exterior    ● interior

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# Looking for Equivalence Classes

- Don't forget equivalence classes for invalid inputs.
  - Organize your classifications into a table or an outline.
  - Look for ranges of numbers.
  - Look for membership in a group.
  - Analyze responses to lists and menus.
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# Looking for Equivalence Classes

- Look for variables that must be equal.
  - Create time-determined equivalence classes.
  - Look for variable groups that must calculate to a certain value or range.
  - Look for equivalent output events.
  - Look for equivalent operating environments.
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# Don't Forget Equivalence Classes for Invalid Inputs

- This is often your best source of bugs.
  - For example, for a program that is supposed to accept any number between 1 and 99, there are at least **four** equivalence classes:
    - 1~99.
    - < 1.
    - > 99.
    - If it's not a number, it is not accepted. (Is this true for all non-numbers?)
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# Organize Your Classifications into a Table or an Outline

- You will find **so many** input and output conditions and equivalence classes associated with them that you'll need a way to organize them.
  - We use a **table** or an **outline**.
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# Table

Input or Output Event	Valid Equivalence Classes	Invalid Equivalence Classes
Enter a number	1~99	<p>&gt; 99</p> <p>0</p> <p>Negative numbers</p> <p>An expression that yields an invalid number, such as <math>5 - 5</math>, which yields 0</p> <p>Letters and other non-numeric characters</p>

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# Outline

## 1. Enter a number

### 1.1 Valid Case

#### 1.1.1 1~99

### 1.2 Invalid Cases

#### 1.2.1 > 99

#### 1.2.2 0

#### 1.2.3 Negative numbers

#### 1.2.4 An expression that yields an invalid number, such as $5 - 5$ , which yields 0

#### 1.2.5 Letters and other non-numeric characters

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# Look for Ranges of Numbers

- Every time you find a range (like 1~99), you've found several equivalence classes.
  - There are usually three invalid equivalence classes: everything below the smallest number, everything above the largest number, and non-numbers.
  - Look for multiple ranges (like tax rates). There is an invalid range below the lowest range and another above the highest range.
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# Look for Membership in a Group

- If an input must belong to a group, one equivalence class includes all members of the group.
  - Another includes everything else.
  - It might be possible to subdivide both classes further.
  - For example, if you enter the name of a country, the valid equivalence class includes all countries' names. The invalid class includes all inputs that aren't country names.
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# Look for Membership in a Group

- But what of abbreviations, almost correct spelling, native language spelling, or names that are now out of date but were country names?
  - Should you test these separately?
  - The odds are good that the specification won't anticipate all of these issues, and that you'll find errors in test cases like these.
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# Analyze Responses to Lists and Menus

- You must enter one of a list of possible inputs. The program responds differently to each.
  - Each input is its own equivalence class.
  - The invalid equivalence class includes any inputs not on the list.
  - For example, the input **Are you sure? (Y/N)**. One class contains **Y**. Another contains **N**. Anything else is invalid.
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# Look for Variables That Must Be Equal

- You can enter any color you want as long as it's black. Not-black is the invalid equivalence class.
  - Sometimes this restriction arises unexpectedly in the field: everything but black is sold out.
  - Choices that used to be valid, but no longer are, belong in their own equivalence class.
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# Create Time-Determined Equivalence Classes

- Suppose you press the space bar just before, during, and just after the computer finishes reading a program from the disk. Tests like this crash some systems.
  - Everything you do just before the program starts reading is another class.
  - Everything you do long before the task is done is probably one equivalence class.
  - Everything you do within some short time interval before the program finishes is another class.
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## Look for Variable Groups That Must Calculate to a Certain Value or Range

- Enter the three angles of a triangle.
  - In the class of valid input, they sum to 180 degrees.
  - In one invalid equivalence class, they sum to less than 180 degrees.
  - In another they sum to more.
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# Look for Equivalent Output Events

- So far, we've stressed input events, because they're simpler to think about.
  - A program drives a plotter that can draw lines up to four inches long.
  - A line might be within the valid range.
  - The program might try to plot a line longer than four inches
  - There might be no line.
  - It might try to plot something else altogether, like a circle.
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# Look for Equivalent Operating Environments

- The program is specified to work if the computer has between 64 and 256K of available memory.
  - That's an equivalence class.
  - Another class includes RAM configurations of less than 64K.
  - A third includes more than 256K.
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