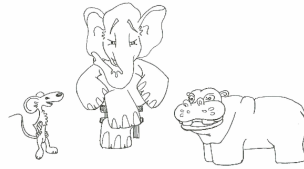


Foundations of Software Testing

Chapter 1: Preliminaries

Aditya P. Mathur
Purdue University



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Learning Objectives

- Errors, Testing, debugging, test process, CFG, correctness, reliability, oracles.
- Finite state machines
- Testing techniques

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Errors, faults, failures



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Errors

Errors are a part of our daily life.

Humans make errors in their thoughts, actions, and in the products that might result from their actions.

Errors occur wherever humans are involved in taking actions and making decisions.

These fundamental facts of human existence make testing an essential activity.

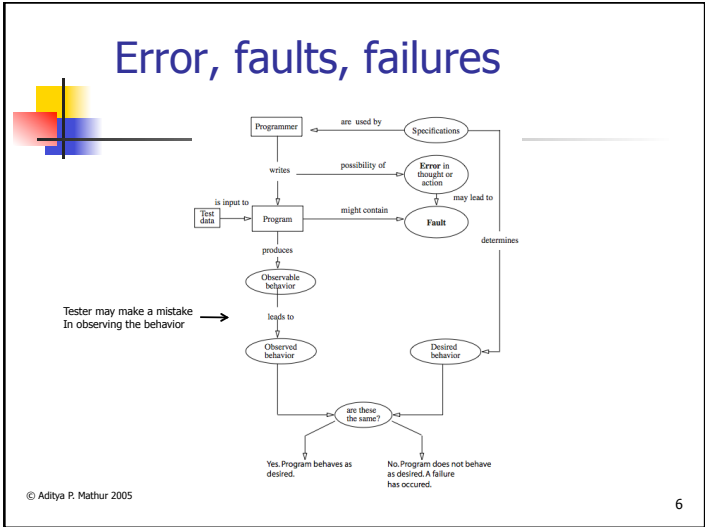
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Errors: Examples

Area	Error
Hearing	Spoken: He has a garage for repairing <i>foreign</i> cars. Heard: He has a garage for repairing <i>falling</i> cars.
Medicine	Incorrect antibiotic prescribed.
Music performance	Incorrect note played.
Numerical analysis	Incorrect algorithm for matrix inversion.
Observation	Operator fails to recognize that a relief valve is stuck open.
Software	Operator used: \neq , correct operator: $>$. Identifier used: <code>next_line</code> , correct identifier: <code>next_line</code> . Expression used: $a \wedge (b \vee c)$, correct expression: $(a \wedge b) \vee c$. Data conversion from 64-bit floating point to 16-bit integer not protected (resulting in a software exception).
Speech	Spoken: <i>single walnut</i> , intent: <i>multiple walnuts</i> . Spoken: <i>We need a new refrigerator</i> , intent: <i>We need a new washing machine</i> .
Sports	Incorrect call by the referee in a tennis match.
Writing	Written: What kind of <i>pass</i> did you use? Intent: What kind of <i>posts</i> did you use?

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Software quality

Static quality attributes: structured, maintainable, testable code as well as the availability of correct and complete documentation.

Dynamic quality attributes: software reliability, correctness, completeness, consistency, usability, and performance

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Software quality (contd.)

Completeness refers to the availability of all features listed in the requirements, or in the user manual. An incomplete software is one that does not fully implement all features required.

Consistency refers to adherence to a common set of conventions and assumptions. For example, all buttons in the user interface might follow a common color coding convention. An example of inconsistency would be when a database application displays the date of birth of a person in the database in different formats ignoring user preference.

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Software quality (contd.)

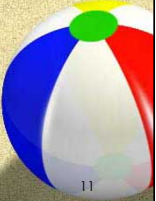
Usability refers to the ease with which an application can be used. This is an area in itself and there exist techniques for usability testing. Psychology plays an important role in the design of techniques for usability testing.

Performance refers to the time the application takes to perform a requested task. It is considered as a *non-functional requirement*. It is specified in terms such as "This task must be performed at the rate of X units of activity in one second on a machine running at speed Y, having Z gigabytes of memory."

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Requirements, input domain, behavior, correctness, reliability



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Requirements, behavior, correctness

Requirements leading to two different programs:

Requirement 1: It is required to write a program that inputs two integers and outputs the maximum of these.

Requirement 2: It is required to write a program that inputs a sequence of integers and outputs the sorted version of this sequence.

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Requirements: Incompleteness

Suppose that program **max** is developed to satisfy Requirement 1. The expected output of **max** when the input integers are 13 and 19 can be easily determined to be 19.

Suppose now that the tester wants to know if the two integers are to be input to the program on one line followed by a carriage return, or on two separate lines with a carriage return typed in after each number. The requirement as stated above fails to provide an answer to this question.

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Requirements: Ambiguity

Requirement 2 is ambiguous. It is not clear whether the input sequence is to be sorted in ascending or in descending order. The behavior of **sort** program, written to satisfy this requirement, will depend on the decision taken by the programmer while writing **sort**.

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Input domain (Input space)

*The set of all possible inputs to a program **P** is known as the input domain or input space, of **P**.*

Using Requirement 1 above we find the input domain of **max** to be the set of all pairs of integers where each element in the pair integers is in the range -32,768 till 32,767.

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Input domain (Continued)

Modified Requirement 2:

It is required to write a program that inputs a sequence of integers and outputs the integers in this sequence sorted in either ascending or descending order. The order of the output sequence is determined by an input request character which should be ``A" when an ascending sequence is desired, and ``D" otherwise.

While providing input to the program, the request character is input first followed by the sequence of integers to be sorted; the sequence is terminated with a period.

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Input domain (Continued)

Based on the above modified requirement, the input domain for **sort** is a set of pairs. The first element of the pair is a character. The second element of the pair is a sequence of zero or more integers ending with a period.



Valid/Invalid Inputs

The modified requirement for **sort** mentions that the request characters can be ``A" and ``D", but fails to answer the question ``What if the user types a different character ?'

When using **sort** it is certainly possible for the user to type a character other than ``A" and ``D". Any character other than ``A" and ``D" is considered as invalid input to **sort**. The requirement for **sort** does not specify what action it should take when an invalid input is encountered.



Correctness vs. Reliability

Though correctness of a program is desirable, it is almost never the objective of testing.

To establish correctness via testing would imply testing a program on all elements in the input domain. In most cases that are encountered in practice, this is impossible to accomplish.


Thus correctness is established via mathematical proofs of programs.



Correctness and Testing

While correctness attempts to establish that the program is error free, testing attempts to find if there are any errors in it. Thus testing does not demonstrate that a program is error free.

Testing, debugging, and the error removal processes together increase our confidence in the correct functioning of the program under test.




Software reliability: two definitions

Software reliability [ANSI/IEEE Std 729-1983]: is the probability of failure free operation of software over a given time interval and under given conditions.

Software reliability is the probability of failure free operation of software in its intended environment.

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Operational profile

An **operational profile** is a numerical description of how a program is used.

Consider a sort program which, on any given execution, allows any one of two types of input sequences. Sample operational profiles for sort follow.

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Operational profile

Operational profile #1

Sequence	Probability
Numbers only	0.9
Alphanumeric strings	0.1

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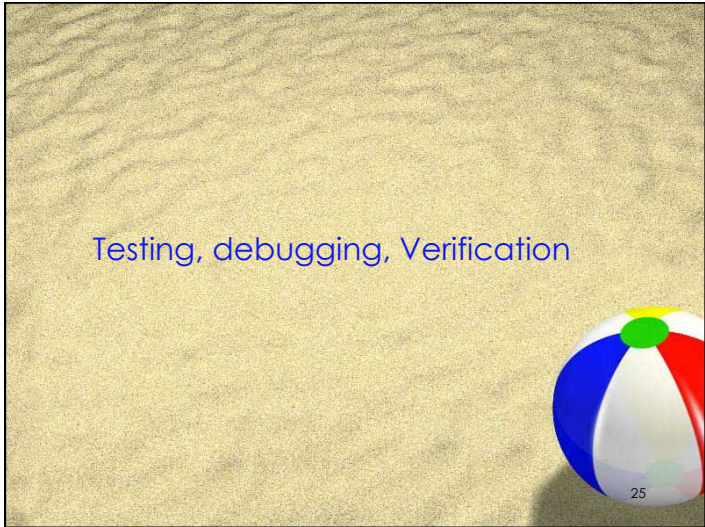


Operational profile

Operational profile #2

Sequence	Probability
Numbers only	0.1
Alphanumeric strings	0.9

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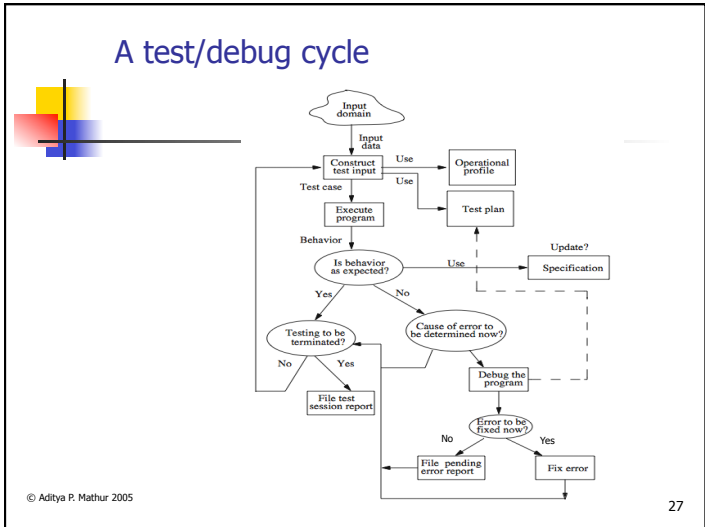
Testing and debugging

Testing is the process of determining if a program has any errors.

When testing reveals an error, the process used to determine the cause of this error and to remove it, is known as debugging.

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Test plan

A test cycle is often guided by a test plan.

Example: The `sort` program is to be tested to meet the requirements given earlier. Specifically, the following needs to be done.

- Execute `sort` on at least two input sequences, one with ```A``` and the other with ```D``` as request characters.

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Test plan (contd.)

- Execute the program on an empty input sequence.
- Test the program for robustness against erroneous inputs such as ``R" typed in as the request character.
- All failures of the test program should be recorded in a suitable file using the Company Failure Report Form.

Test case/data

A **test case** is a pair consisting of test data to be input to the program and the expected output. The test data is a set of values, one for each input variable.

A **test set** is a collection of zero or more test cases.

Sample test case for **sort**:

Test data: <"A" 12 -29 32 >
Expected output: -29 12 32

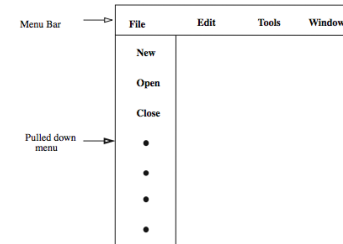
Program behavior

Can be specified in several ways: plain natural language, a state diagram, formal mathematical specification, etc.

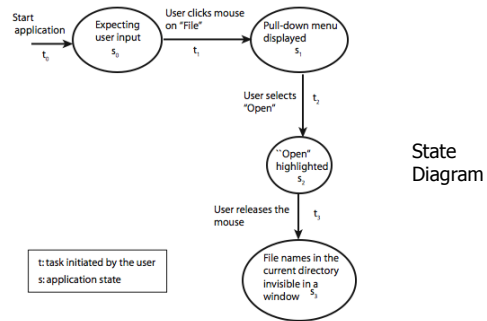
A **state diagram** specifies program states and how the program changes its state on an input sequence inputs.

Program behavior: Example

Consider a menu driven application.



Program behavior: Example (contd.)



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Behavior: observation and analysis

In the first step one **observes** the behavior.

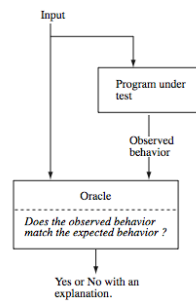
In the second step one **analyzes** the observed behavior to check if it is correct or not. Both these steps could be quite complex for large commercial programs.

The entity that performs the task of checking the correctness of the observed behavior is known as an **oracle**.

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Oracle: Example



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Oracle: Programs

Oracles can also be programs designed to check the behavior of other programs.

For example, one might use a matrix multiplication program to check if a matrix inversion program has produced the correct output. In this case, the matrix inversion program inverts a given matrix A and generates B as the output matrix.

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Oracle: Construction

Construction of automated oracles, such as the one to check a matrix multiplication program or a sort program, requires the determination of **input-output relationship**.

In general, the construction of automated oracles is a complex undertaking.



Testing and verification

Program verification aims at proving the correctness of programs by showing that it contains no errors. This is very different from **testing** that aims at uncovering errors in a program.

Program verification and testing are best considered as complementary techniques. In practice, one can shed program verification, but not testing.



Testing and verification (contd.)

Testing is not a perfect technique in that a program might contain errors despite the success of a set of tests.

Verification might appear to be perfect technique as it promises to verify that a program is free from errors. However, the person who verified a program might have made mistake in the verification process; there might be an incorrect assumption on the input conditions; incorrect assumptions might be made regarding the components that interface with the program, and so on.

Verified and published programs have been shown to be incorrect.



Program representation: Control flow graphs

Program representation: Basic blocks

A **basic block** in program P is a sequence of consecutive statements with a single entry and a single exit point. Thus a block has unique entry and exit points.

Control always enters a basic block at its entry point and exits from its exit point. There is no possibility of exit or a halt at any point inside the basic block except at its exit point. The entry and exit points of a basic block coincide when the block contains only one statement.

Basic blocks: Example

Example: Computing x raised to y

```

1  begin
2  int x, y, power;
3  float z;
4  input (x, y);
5  if (y<0)
6    power=-y;
7  else
8    power=y;
9  z=1;
10 while (power!=0){
11   z=z*x;
12   power=power-1;
13 }
14 if (y<0)
15   z=1/z;
16 output(z);
17 end
    
```

Basic blocks: Example (contd.)

Basic blocks

Block	Lines	Entry point	Exit point
1	2, 3, 4, 5	1	5
2	6	6	6
3	8	8	8
4	9	9	9
5	10	10	10
6	11, 12	11	12
7	14	14	14
8	15	15	15
9	16	16	16

Control Flow Graph (CFG)

A **control flow graph** (or flow graph) G is defined as a finite set N of nodes and a finite set E of edges. An edge (i, j) in E connects two nodes n_i and n_j in N. We often write $G = (N, E)$ to denote a flow graph G with nodes given by N and edges by E.

Control Flow Graph (CFG)

In a flow graph of a program, each basic block becomes a node and edges are used to indicate the flow of control between blocks.

Blocks and nodes are labeled such that block b_i corresponds to node n_i . An edge (i, j) connecting basic blocks b_i and b_j implies that control can go from block b_i to block b_j .

We also assume that there is a node labeled **Start** in N that has no incoming edge, and another node labeled **End**, also in N , that has no outgoing edge.

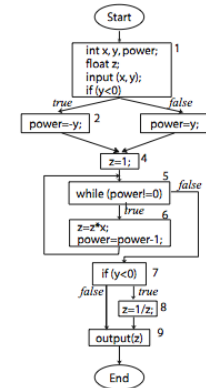
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CFG Example

$N = \{\text{Start}, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, \text{End}\}$

$E = \{(\text{Start}, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6), (6, 5), (5, 7), (7, 8), (7, 9), (\text{End})\}$



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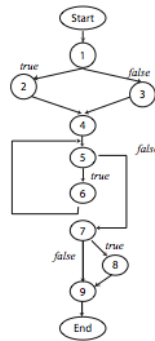
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CFG Example

Same CFG with statements removed.

$N = \{\text{Start}, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, \text{End}\}$

$E = \{(\text{Start}, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6), (6, 5), (5, 7), (7, 8), (7, 9), (\text{End})\}$



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Paths

Consider a flow graph $G = (N, E)$. A sequence of k edges, $k > 0$, (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k) , denotes a path of length k through the flow graph if the following sequence condition holds.

Given that n_p, n_q, n_r , and n_s are nodes belonging to N , and $0 < i < k$, if $e_i = (n_p, n_q)$ and $e_{i+1} = (n_r, n_s)$ then $n_q = n_r$.

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Paths: sample paths through the exponentiation flow graph

Two feasible and complete paths:

$p_1 = (\text{Start}, 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 5, 7, 9, \text{End})$

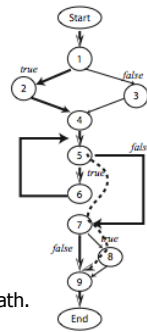
$p_2 = (\text{Start}, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 5, 7, 9, \text{End})$

Specified unambiguously using edges:

$p_1 = ((\text{Start}, 1), (1, 2), (2, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6), (6, 5), (5, 7), (7, 9), (9, \text{End}))$

Bold edges: complete path.

Dashed edges: subpath.



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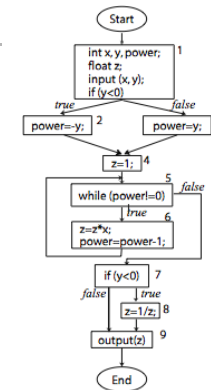
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Paths: feasible paths

A path p through a flow graph for program P is considered **feasible** if there exists at least one test case which when input to P causes p to be traversed.

$p_1 = (\text{Start}, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 5, 7, 8, 9, \text{End})$

$p_2 = (\text{Start}, 1, 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9, \text{End})$



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Number of paths

There can be many distinct paths through a program. A program with no condition contains exactly one path that begins at node Start and terminates at node End.

Each additional condition in the program can increase the number of distinct paths by at least one.

Depending on their location, conditions can have a multiplicative effect on the number of paths.

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Test generation



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Test generation

Any form of test generation uses a source document. In the most informal of test methods, the source document resides in the mind of the tester who generates tests based on a knowledge of the requirements.

In most commercial environments, the process is a bit more formal. The tests are generated using a mix of formal and informal methods directly from the requirements document serving as the source. In more advanced test processes, requirements serve as a source for the development of formal models.

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Test generation strategies

Model based: require that a subset of the requirements be modeled using a formal notation (usually graphical). Models: Finite State Machines, Timed automata, Petri nets, etc.

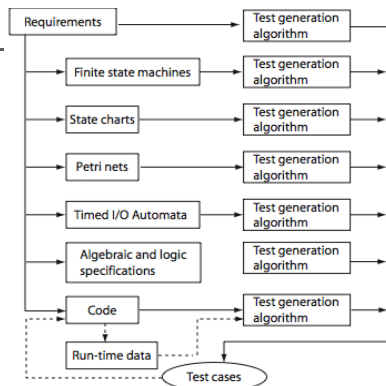
Specification based: require that a subset of the requirements be modeled using a formal mathematical notation. Examples: B, Z, and Larch.

Code based: generate tests directly from the code.

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Test generation strategies (Summary)



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Strings and languages



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Strings

Strings play an important role in testing. A string serves as a test input. Examples: 1011; AaBc; "Hello world".

A collection of strings also forms a language. For example, a set of all strings consisting of zeros and ones is the language of binary numbers. In this section we provide a brief introduction to strings and languages.



Alphabet

A collection of symbols is known as an **alphabet**. We use an upper case letter such as X and Y to denote alphabets.

Though alphabets can be infinite, we are concerned only with finite alphabets. For example, $X = \{0, 1\}$ is an alphabet consisting of two symbols 0 and 1. Another alphabet is $Y = \{\text{dog}, \text{cat}, \text{horse}, \text{lion}\}$ that consists of four symbols "dog", "cat", "horse", and "lion".



Strings over an Alphabet

A string over an alphabet X is any sequence of zero or more symbols that belong to X. For example, 0110 is a string over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$. Also, **dog cat dog dog lion** is a string over the alphabet $\{\text{dog}, \text{cat}, \text{horse}, \text{lion}\}$.

We will use lower case letters such as p, q, r to denote strings. The length of a string is the number of symbols in that string. Given a string s, we denote its length by $|s|$. Thus $|1011|=4$ and $|\text{dog cat dog}|=3$. A string of length 0, also known as an **empty string**, is denoted by ϵ .


Note that ϵ denotes an empty string.



String concatenation

Let s_1 and s_2 be two strings over alphabet X. We write $s_1.s_2$ to denote the **concatenation** of strings s_1 and s_2 .

For example, given the alphabet $X = \{0, 1\}$, and two strings 011 and 101 over X, we obtain $011.101=011101$. It is easy to see that $|s_1.s_2|=|s_1|+|s_2|$. Also, for any string s, we have $s.\epsilon = s$ and $\epsilon.s=s$.




Languages

A set L of strings over an alphabet X is known as a **language**. A language can be finite or infinite.

The following sets are finite languages over the binary alphabet $\{0, 1\}$:

- \emptyset : The empty set
- $\{\epsilon\}$: A language consisting only of one string of length zero
- $\{00, 11, 0101\}$: A language containing three strings

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Regular expressions

Given a finite alphabet X , the following are **regular expressions** over X :

If a belongs to X , then a is a regular expression that denotes the set $\{a\}$.

Let r_1 and r_2 be two regular expressions over the alphabet X that denote, respectively, sets L_1 and L_2 . Then $r_1.r_2$ is a regular expression that denotes the set $L_1.L_2$.

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Regular expressions (contd.)

If r is a regular expression that denotes the set L then r^+ is a regular expression that denotes the set obtained by concatenating L with itself one or more times also written as L^+ . Also, r^* known as the Kleene closure of r , is a regular expression. If r denotes the set L then r^* denotes the set $\{\epsilon\} \cup L^+$.

If r_1 and r_2 are regular expressions that denote, respectively, sets L_1 and L_2 , then $r_1 | r_2$ is also a regular expression that denotes the set $L_1 \cup L_2$.

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Embedded systems and Finite State Machines (FSMs)

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Embedded systems

Many real-life devices have computers embedded in them. For example, an automobile has several embedded computers to perform various tasks, engine control being one example. Another example is a computer inside a toy for processing inputs and generating audible and visual responses.

Such devices are also known as **embedded systems**. An embedded system can be as simple as a child's musical keyboard or as complex as the flight controller in an aircraft. In any case, an embedded system contains one or more computers for processing inputs.

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Specifying embedded systems

An embedded computer often receives inputs from its environment and responds with appropriate actions. While doing so, it moves from one state to another.

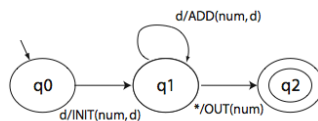
The response of an embedded system to its inputs depends on its current state. It is this behavior of an embedded system in response to inputs that is often modeled by a **finite state machine (FSM)**.

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FSM: Actions with state transitions

Machine to convert a sequence of decimal digits to an integer:



(a) Notice ADD, INIT, ADD,OUT actions.

(b) INIT: Initialize num. ADD: Add to num. OUT: Output num.

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FSM: Formal definition

An FSM is a quintuple: $(X, Y, Q, q_0, \delta, O)$, where:

X is a finite set of input symbols also known as the **input alphabet**.

Y is a finite set of output symbols also known as the **output alphabet**.

Q is a finite set **states**,

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FSM: Formal definition (contd.)

q_0 in Q is the **initial state**,

$\delta: Q \times X \rightarrow Q$ is a next-state or **state transition function**, and

$O: Q \times X \rightarrow Y$ is an **output function**.

In some variants of FSM more than one state could be specified as an initial state. Also, sometimes it is convenient to add $F \subseteq Q$ as a set of **final** or **accepting** states while specifying an FSM.

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State diagram representation of FSM

A state diagram is a directed graph that contains nodes representing states and edges representing state transitions and output functions.

Each node is labeled with the state it represents. Each directed edge in a state diagram connects two states. Each edge is labeled i/o where i denotes an input symbol that belongs to the input alphabet X and o denotes an output symbol that belongs to the output alphabet O . i is also known as the **input portion** of the edge and o its **output portion**.

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Properties of FSM

Completely specified: An FSM M is said to be completely specified if from each state in M there exists a transition for each input symbol.

Strongly connected: An FSM M is considered strongly connected if for each pair of states (q_i, q_j) there exists an input sequence that takes M from state q_i to q_j .

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Properties of FSM: Equivalence

V-equivalence: Let $M_1 = (X, Y, Q_1, m_1^0, T_1, O_1)$ and $M_2 = (X, Y, Q_2, m_2^0, T_2, O_2)$ be two FSMs. Let V denote a set of non-empty strings over the input alphabet X i.e. $V \subseteq X^+$.

Let q_i and q_j , $i \neq j$, be the states of machines M_1 and M_2 , respectively. q_i and q_j are considered **V-equivalent** if $O_1(q_i, s) = O_2(q_j, s)$ for all s in V .

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Properties of FSM: Distinguishable

Stated differently, states q_i and q_j are considered V-equivalent if M_1 and M_2 , when excited in states q_i and q_j , respectively, yield identical output sequences.

States q_i and q_j are said to be equivalent if $O_1(q_i, r) = O_2(q_j, r)$ for any set V. If q_i and q_j are not equivalent then they are said to be **distinguishable**. Thus machines M_1 and M_2 could be the same machine.

* This definition of equivalence also applies to states within a machine.

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Properties of FSM: Machine Equivalence

Machine equivalence: Machines M_1 and M_2 are said to be equivalent if (a) for each state σ in M_1 there exists a state σ' in M_2 such that σ and σ' are equivalent and (b) for each state σ in M_2 there exists a state σ' in M_1 such that σ and σ' are equivalent.

Machines that are not equivalent are considered distinguishable.

Minimal machine: An FSM M is considered minimal if the number of states in M is less than or equal to any other FSM equivalent to M .

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Properties of FSM: k-equivalence

k-equivalence: Let $M_1 = (X, Y, Q_1, m^1_0, T_1, O_1)$ and $M_2 = (X, Y, Q_2, m^2_0, T_2, O_2)$ be two FSMs.

States $q_i \in Q_1$ and $q_j \in Q_2$ are considered k-equivalent if, when excited by any input of length k, yield identical output sequences.

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Properties of FSM: k-equivalence (contd.)

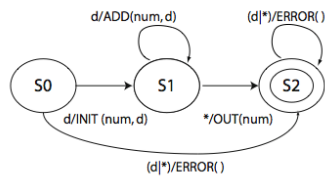
States that are not k-equivalent are considered **k-distinguishable**.

It is also easy to see that if two states are **k-distinguishable** for any $k > 0$ then they are also distinguishable for any $n \geq k$. If M_1 and M_2 are not k-distinguishable then they are said to be **k-equivalent**.

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Example: Completely specified machine



Types of software testing



Types of testing

One possible classification is based on the following four classifiers:

- C1:** Source of test generation.
- C2:** Lifecycle phase in which testing takes place
- C3:** Goal of a specific testing activity
- C4:** Characteristics of the artifact under test

C1: Source of test generation

Artifact	Technique	Example
Requirements (informal)	Black-box	Ad-hoc testing
		Boundary value analysis Category partition Classification trees Cause-effect graphs Equivalence partitioning Partition testing Predicate testing Random testing
Code	White-box	Adequacy assessment Coverage testing Data-flow testing Domain testing Mutation testing Path testing Structural testing Test minimization using coverage
		Requirements and code
Formal model: Graphical or mathematical specification	Black-box and White-box	
	Model-based Specification	Statechart testing FSM testing Pairwise testing Syntax testing
Component interface	Interface testing	Interface mutation Pairwise testing

C2: Lifecycle phase in which testing takes place

Phase	Technique
Coding	Unit testing
Integration	Integration testing
System integration	System testing
Maintenance	Regression testing
Post system, pre-release	Beta-testing

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C3: Goal of specific testing activity

Goal	Technique	Example
Advertised features	Functional testing	
Security	Security testing	
Invalid inputs	Robustness testing	
Vulnerabilities	Vulnerability testing	
Errors in GUI	GUI testing	Capture/plaback Event sequence graphs Complete Interaction Sequence Transactional-flow
Operational correctness	Operational testing	
Reliability assessment	Reliability testing	
Resistance to penetration	Penetration testing	
System performance	Performance testing	Stress testing
Customer acceptability	Acceptance testing	
Business compatibility	Compatibility testing	Interface testing Installation testing
Peripherals compatibility	Configuration testing	

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C4: Artifact under test

Characteristics	Technique
Application component	Component testing
Client and server	Client-server testing
Compiler	Compiler testing
Design	Design testing
Code	Code testing
Database system	Transaction-flow testing
OO software	OO testing
Operating system	Operating system testing
Real-time software	Real-time testing
Requirements	Requirement testing
Software	Software testing
Web service	Web service testing

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