Improving Spectrum-Based Fault Localization using quality assessment and optimization of a test suite

Chang Liu Chinese Aeronautical Radio Electronics Research Institute Shang Hai, China Chunyan Ma Software College Northwestern Polytechnical University Xi'an Shaanxi,China machunyan@nwpu.edu.cn TaoZhang Software College Northwestern Polytechnical University Xi'an Shaanxi,China

Abstract-Spectral fault localization is an automatic faultlocalization technique to expedite debugging, which uses risk evaluation formula to rank the risk of fault existence in each program entity after collecting testing information. To assess the potential usefulness of a test suite and improves the accuracy for spectral fault localization, methods of assessing and optimizing test suite are proposed in this paper, which. Firstly, Average Ranking Cost of the test suite quality and two kinds of constrains are defined; and test suite quality assessment method based on these definitions is given. Secondly, a new test suite optimization method based on greedy algorithm is proposed. Finally, two widely used program databases (SIR and Defects4j) and 8 SFL techniques are applied to verify the effectiveness of our method; and the fault localization cost before and after optimizing test suites of test objects are analyzed using effect size. The largest effect size reaches 0.5398 and Each SFL technology has different degrees of improvement in the rankings of faulty statements in different programs by optimizing test suite.

Keywords—Spectral fault localization, Average Ranking Cost, Test suite quality assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

The spectral fault localization (SFL), as an automatic localization technique, has been extensively studied in recent years. This approach uses risk evaluation formula to calculate suspicious factor of fault existence in each program entity after dynamically collecting testing information. The testing information includes: the execution coverage for each entity (e.g., statement, function, and basic block), and the execution result (i.e., pass or fail) for each test case. Then, all entities will be sorted in ascending order according to their suspicious factors. Debugging is then conducted on entities according to the top-to-bottom ranking list until a fault is found. For different program entities, the statement and the basic block have especially received attention. Without loss of generality, this study considers an entity as a statement. In order to make SFL techniques effective and useful, there are two things that should be considered. One is proposing new and effective SFL techniques. So far, more than 50 SFL techniques and related technologies have been proposed over the years, such as O and Op [2], DE(J) and DE(C) [1], Wong [3], Jaccard [4], Kulczynski1[5], D*[6], EMF [20] and so on. The other, which [7,15-16,18-19, 28] has adopted empirical approaches according to the established experimental setups and benchmarks, such as Siemens Suite, is improving the performance of existing SFL techniques through understanding the quality of test suites.

The goal of this work is to perform such an investigation of test suite quality assessment to improve spectral fault localization technique. We propose an *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints to measure test suites quality and then a test suite optimization method using greedy algorithm for *SFL* techniques. The major contributions of this research are summarized as follows:

- We propose an evaluation method that provides a repeatable and objective way investigating and assessing test suites through an Average Ranking Cost with two constraints.
- With the proposed evaluation method of test suites, we explore an aspect about how to improve the performance of *SFL* by optimizing test suite based on the greedy algorithm.
- Nine typical SFL techniques such as O, Op and two widely used program databases (SIR [7] and Defects4j [8]) are applied to verify the effectiveness of our method.

Next section provides the necessary background on *SFL* techniques. Section III presents the proposed quality assessment of a test suite in detail. Section IV explores test suite optimization method based on greedy algorithm. Section V provides evaluation for our method. Section VI gives the related work. Section VII draws conclusions.

II. TECHNIQUES REVISITED

For example, two *SFL* techniques O and O^p are shown in the following equations.

$$O(a_{nf}, a_{np}, a_{ep}, a_{ef}) = \begin{cases} -1(a_{nf} > 0) \\ a_{np}(otherwise) \end{cases}$$
(1)

$$O^{p}(a_{nf}, a_{np}, a_{ep}, a_{ef}) = a_{ef} - \frac{a_{ep}}{p-1}$$
 (2)

15	(11	L2	L3	L ₄	τ ₅	τ ₆	τ ₇	٤8	L9,	(anf	dnp	def	dep)
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	3	6	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0		1	0	2	6	
	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1		0	4	3	2	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		0	0	3	6	
	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1		0	3	3	3	
M:	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	MA:	0	3	3	3	SF
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		0	0	3	6	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1		2	0	1	6	
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		0	0	3	6	1
)	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1		0	3	3	3	
C	(1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0)						

Figure 1. An example for SFL

Considering the example in Fig. 1, a program PG has ten statements from s_1 to s_{10} , and test suite TS has nine test cases from t_1 to t_9 . Specifically, t_7 to t_9 give rise to fail runs and the remaining six test cases give rise to pass runs, as indicated in binary outcomes OC which records the testing results of TS. In OC, 1 indicates to pass and 0 indicates to fail. The elements in the *ith* row of matrix M represent the test coverage information of statement s_i executing t_1 to t_9 , in which 1

indicates that s_i is executed by the corresponding test case, and 0 otherwise. Matrix MA is such defined that its *ith* row represents the corresponding four values of the vector $\langle a_{nf}, a_{np}, a_{ef}, a_{ep} \rangle$ for s_i . SF is the suspicious factor list of statements using SFL O. For instance, $a_{np}=4$ for s_3 means that four test cases give pass without executing s_3 ; and in SF, "4" represents the suspicious factor of s_3 which is highest in the suspicious factors of all statements and "-1" represents the suspicious factors of s_2 and s_8 which is lowest in the SF. SF is using to rank statements from s_1 to s_{10} . The derived ranking list of statements using O is $[s_3, "s_5, s_6, s_{10}]$, " s_1, s_4, s_7, s_9 ", " s_2, s_8 "], where from left to right, the statements ranked from high to low and some statements have been marked by each "" have the same ranking.

For the performance measurement of *SFLs*, the *EXAM* is appropriate and majority of the *SFL* community use the same measurement as the *EXAM* or its equivalent. Therefore, we use the *EXAM* with tie-breaking ways as ranking cost in this paper.

$$\frac{g+e/2}{n} \qquad (3)$$

- g is the number of correct statements ranked strictly higher than all faults.
- *e* is the number of all statements ranked equal to the highest ranked fault and if no correct statement ranked equal to the highest ranked fault, then *e* = 0.
- *n* is the number of statements in the program.

For example, in Fig.1, if the s_l is assumed to be faulty, then for s_l , g=4 and e=3, and the fault localization cost is (4+3/2)/10 = 11/20 using *O*. The smaller the value of fault localization cost is, the better the performance of locating a fault for the *SFL* technique is.

III. THE QUALITY ASSESSMENT METHOD OF A TEST SUITE

Before quantify test suite quality, several assumptions, which are adopted from most of the previous *SFL* studies [2], [19], [10], [11], [12], are first listed.

- The *SFL* techniques are applied to programs whose testing result of either fail or pass can be decided for any test case.
- Debuggers examine the statements one by one from the top to bottom of the ranking list returned by *SFL*, and once the faulty statement is examined, the fault can always be identified.
- The test suite is assumed to have 100% statement coverage and also is assumed that the test suite contains at least one passed test case and one failed test case.
- The faulty statement must be executed by all failed test cases in a given single-fault program.

For a real faulty program, it is impossible to know which test suite is better to locate the specific fault using a *SFL* technique, because we don't know where the faulty statement is. The efficiency and effectiveness of a test suite cannot be evaluated when the faulty statement is unknown. In a single-fault program, one statement cannot be faulty if it is not covered by some failed execution and this view has been discussed detailly in [21]. So in order to generalize the test suite quality evaluation, we assume the single faulty statement exists in statements whose value of a_{nf} is equal to θ . These statements are called possible faulty statements. Then we

measure the test suite quality on Average Ranking Cost of locating all possible faulty statements. The definition of *"Average Ranking Cost"* of a test suite is as follows.

Definition 1 *Average Ranking Cost* of a test suite. Given a program $PG = \langle s_1, s_2, ..., s_n \rangle$ with n statements, a *SFL* and a test suite, the Average Ranking Cost is the average of the sum of performance calculated in terms of equation (3) for all possible faulty statements. All possible fault statements can refer to the set of statements with $a_{nf} = 0$ in the single fault scenario, or the set of statements with the top 20% of suspicious factor (exonerating about 80% of the blocks of code on average) in [22]. We take each of the possible faulty statements as a real faulty statement to calculate the ranking cost of the test suite respectively. If there are *x* possible faulty statements, we will calculate the average ranking cost of *x* statements to evaluate the ability of the test suite to locate faults.

For the example of fig.1, the statements s_1 , s_3 , s_4 , s_5 , s_6 , s_7 , s_9 and s_{10} are the possible faulty statements because their a_{nf} equal 0. The corresponding Average Ranking Cost is (11/20+0+11/20+1/5+1/5+11/20+11/20+1/5)/8 = 9/40 referring to equation (3). The smaller the value of Average Ranking Cost of a *SFL* applying for a test suite, the higher the quality of this test suite.

If we only use the Average Ranking Cost to evaluate the quality of a test suite, we found that sometimes Lowering the Average Ranking Cost can improve the rankings of some faulty statements, but it may also cause many statements, including faulty ones, to be ranked equal and indistinguishable. For example, in an original test suite, possible faulty statements in a program are ranked [I, 2, 2], and Average Ranking Cost of these statements is I. When a test case is removed for optimization, these statements are ranked [I, I, I], and Average Ranking Cost is 2/3. Thus when we use a method of reducing the test case to decrease Average Ranking Cost of possible faulty statements, the suspicious factors of more statements may be equal. This situation is contrary to the *SFL*'s principle of making statements more distinguishable. To prevent this situation, we define some constraints for the Average Ranking Cost.

In order to give constraints for Average Ranking Cost, we first give some definitions.

Definition 2 Partition. The *partition* is a list which is formed of consecutive equal values and it at least include 2 equal values in *SF*. In Figure 1, *SF* has three *partitions* which are [3,3,3], [0,0,0,0] and [-1,-1].

The more the number of *partitions*, the better the differentiation among risk rankings of statements. So *Constraint 1* is proposed.

Constraint 1 The number of the *partitions* cannot be reduced when the *Average Ranking Cost* is reduced after optimizing test cases.

Definition 3 Degree of a *Partition.* The degree of a *partition* is the number of elements contained by this *partition*. In Figure 1, the degree of the *partition* [3,3,3] is 3.

Definition 4 Degree of the program. The degree of the program is the sum of the degrees of all *partitions* with respect to all possible faulty statements. Taking Figure 1 as an

example, the degree of the program is 7, where s_1 and s_8 , whose a_{nf} are not 0, they do not participate in calculation.

The greater the degree of program, the worse the distinction among risk rankings of statements. So *Constraint 2* is proposed.

Constraint 2 The degree of the program cannot be increased when the *Average Ranking Cost* is reduced after optimizing test cases.

Combining definition 1 with constraint 1 and 2, we can calculate and compare the quality of the test suite according to the steps shown in Figure 2. For example, for any program, if we let the already available test suite be TS', the test suite be TS after TS' is reduced; or any program corresponds to two test suites TS and TS'. The following steps can be applied to compare TS and TS'.



Figure 2. The assessment method of a test suite

- For two sets of test suites TS and TS', we use any SFL to obtain suspicious factors of all possible faulty statements.
- We can calculate the *EXAMs* of all possible faulty statements by a ranking list of the suspicious factors of these statements.
- 3) By calculating the average of *EXAMs*, we can get Average Ranking Cost of *TS* and *TS*'. We assume that the value of *TS* is less than *TS*'.
- 4) We can calculate the degree of the program and the number of the *partitions*. If the degree of the program the number of the *partitions* for *TS* is less than *TS*', quality of *TS* is better than *TS*'.
- 5) Otherwise we cannot judge whose quality is better for both *TS* and *TS*'.

IV. A TEST SUITE OPTIMIZATION METHOD BASED ON GREEDY ALGORITHM

How to reduce test cases from an already available test suite to improve the performance of SFL techniques?

In this paper, a test suite optimization method based on greedy algorithm is proposed.

Greedy algorithm divides the problem (i.e. test suite optimization) into multiple sub-problems (i.e. Comparing the quality of test suite before and after deleting a test case). According to the chosen greedy strategy (heuristic principle), we select an optimal solution of each sub-problem, and finally constitute the optimal solution of the problem. The greedy strategy is to choose best Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints in the sub-question. We build a subset of test suites by reducing test cases and then calculate the Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints the test suites subset. According to the greedy strategy, a subset of test suites that reduces the Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints are selected as local optimal solutions. Thus, an optimized test suite is constructed by multiple local optimal solutions within the time complexity of O(n). We will introduce the process of using the greedy algorithm to solve the problem about optimization test suite from the design heuristic principle and algorithm implementation.

A. Heuristic principle

Before implementing the greedy algorithm, we need to design a heuristic principle for solving this problem, as shown below.

- We assume a negative correlation between Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints and quality of a test suite. The lower is Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints, the higher is the quality of the test suite.
- 2) At the same time, two test cases that increase *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints are removed, and the Average Ranking Cost is statistically more likely to decrease. In other words, removing test cases t_1 and t_2 separately can reduce the *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints, but removing them at the same time will increase the *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints. Although the above may theoretically exist, we assume that the probability of this happening is low.

B. Test suite optimization based on greedy algorithm

The main idea of the greedy algorithm in this paper is based on the heuristic principle of test suite optimization problem. A test case is removed from the original test suite to form a subset of the test cases. The optimal *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints of solving the subset of the test cases is a sub-question, and the solution result of the combined sub-problem constitutes a solution to the problem.

Figure 3 gives the Test suite optimization algorithm based on greedy algorithm. In line 1 to line 4 of this algorithm, it retains all test cases and calculates their Average Ranking Cost, the number of partitions (constraint 1) and the degree of the program(constraint 2). Next, for each test case, we remove a test case which execute the program and pass it on line 7 and then calculate Average Ranking Cost, the number of partitions (constraint 1) and the degree of the program(constraint 2) on line 11. If Average Ranking Cost is lower or unchanged, degree of the program is higher or unchanged and the number of the partitions for statements is more or unchanged, we should keep removing the test case and go to the next test case. Otherwise, re-add this removed test case to the test case set on line 16.

Average Ranking Cost is the average of Exam for program statements (excluding statements with $a_{nf}\neq 0$), so first we need to calculate the Exam cost for each possible faulty statements. We calculate the suspicious factor matrix SF of the program through the MA matrix. For each statements, we count the number of statements whose ranking is higher than the ranking and the number of statements in the program, and then the Exam value is calculated by the formula (2).

 Input: M[n,][n,] ► Test case coverage matrix eⁱ Input: OC[n,] ► Test result vector eⁱ Input: n, ► Total number of test cases eⁱ Input: n, ► Number of statements eⁱ Output: N[n] ► Reserved test case vector eⁱ N ← [1,1,1,,1] eⁱ bestAP ← resolveAveragePerformance(M_OC,N) eⁱ setDegree ← resolveDegree(M_OC,N) eⁱ for i ← 0 to n − 1 do eⁱ if N[i] = 1 then eⁱ N[i] ← 0 eⁱ a p ← resolveAveragePerformance(M_OC,N) eⁱ degree ← resolveDegree(M_OC,N) eⁱ a p ← resolveAveragePerformance(M_N,OC) eⁱ degree ← resolveDegree(M_OC,N) eⁱ setDegree ← resolveDegree(M_OC,N) eⁱ bestAP ← ap eⁱ bestAP ← ap eⁱ bestAP ← ap eⁱ bestEC ← numberOfParition eⁱ else eⁱ N[i] ← 1 eⁱ end eⁱ or unter A 	 Test case optimization method based on greedy algorithm[⊕] 	_
$\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \label{eq:constraint} \\ \mbox{Input: C[n]} \hline Test result vector e^{i} \\ \mbox{Input: n} \hline Total number of test cases e^{i} \\ \mbox{Input: n} \hline Number of statements e^{i} \\ \mbox{Output: N[n]} \hline Reserved test case vector e^{i} \\ \mbox{In } [1, 1]_{no.1}]e^{i}$ \\ \mbox{2 bestAP} \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M_OC,N) e^{i} \\ \mbox{3 bestDegree} \leftarrow resolveDegree(M_OC,N) e^{i} \\ \mbox{4 bestEC} \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M_N,OC) e^{i} \\ \mbox{4 bestEC} \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M_N,OC) e^{i} \\ \mbox{4 bestEC} \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M_N,OC) e^{i} \\ \mbox{6 if N[i]} = 1 then e^{i} \\ \mbox{7 N[i]} \leftarrow 0 e^{i} \\ \mbox{6 degree} \leftarrow resolveDegree(M_OC,N) e^{i} \\ \mbox{9 degree} \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M_N,OC) e^{i} \\ \mbox{9 degree} \leftarrow resolveDegree(M_OC,N) e^{i} \\ \mbox{11 if } ap $\leq bestAP \& \& degree $\geq bestDegree \& \& numberOfPartition $\geq bestEC$ then $bestEC \leftarrow numberOfPartition e^{i} \\ \mbox{13 bestDegree} \leftarrow degree e^{i} \\ \mbox{14 bestEC} \leftarrow numberOfPartition e^{i} \\ \mbox{15 else e^{i} \\ \mbox{16 motor of P artition e^{i} \\ \mbox{17 mm of e^{i} \\ \\ \mbox{18 end e^{i} \\ \mbox{19 end e^{i} \\ 19 end $$	■Input: M[n_l[n_l] ► Test case coverage matrix ←	
Input: $\mathbf{n} \models \text{Total number of test cases } e^{i}$ Input: $\mathbf{n} \models \text{Number of statements } e^{i}$ Output: $ \mathbf{n}_{ } \models \text{Reserved test case vector } e^{i}$ 1 $\mathbf{N} \leftarrow [1, 1, 1,, 1] \notin$ 2 bestAP \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M, OC, \mathbf{N}) e^{i} 3 bestDegree \leftarrow resolveAgeragePerformance(M, OC, \mathbf{N}) e^{i} 4 bestEC \leftarrow resolveAgeragePerformance(M, OC, \mathbf{N}) e^{i} 5 for $\mathbf{i} \leftarrow 0$ to \mathbf{n}_{-1} do e^{i} 6 if $\mathbf{N}[\mathbf{i}] \leftarrow 0$ e^{i} 8 ap \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance($M, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{OC}$) e^{i} 9 degree \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance($M, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{OC}$) e^{i} 10 numberOfPartition \leftarrow resolveNumberOfPartition($M, \mathbf{OC}, \mathbf{N}$) e^{i} 11 if $\mathbf{a}_{1} \leq \text{bestAP} \& \text{degree} \in i$ 13 bestDegree \leftarrow degree e^{i} 14 bestEC \leftarrow numberOfPartition e^{i} 15 else e^{i} 16 $\mathbf{N}[\mathbf{i}] \leftarrow 1 e^{i}$ 17 end e^{i} 18 end e^{i} 19 end e^{i} 20 return $\mathbf{N}e^{i}$	Input: OC[n₁] ► Test result vector ←	
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Output: N[n,] ▶ Reserved test case vector e^{i} 1 N $\leftarrow [1,1_{1,m},1] e^{i}$ 2 bestAP \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M,OC,N) e^{i} 3 bestDegree \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M,OC,N) e^{i} 4 bestEC \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M,OC,N) e^{i} 5 for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n \leftarrow 1$ do e^{i} 6 if N[i] $\leftarrow 1$ then e^{i} 7 N[i] $\leftarrow 0 e^{i}$ 8 ap \leftarrow resolveAveragePerformance(M,N,OC) e^{i} 9 degree \leftarrow resolveDegree(M,OC,N) e^{i} 10 numberOParition \leftarrow resolveNumberOParition(M,OC,N) e^{i} 11 if ap \leq bestAP & degree \geq bestDegree & numberOParition \geq bestEC then 12 bestAP \leftarrow ap e^{i} 13 bestDegree \leftarrow degree e^{i} 14 bestEC \leftarrow numberOParition e^{i} 15 else e^{i} 16 N[i] $\leftarrow 1 e^{i}$ 17 end e^{i} 18 end e^{i} 19 end e^{i} 20 return Ne ⁱ	Input: n _s ► Number of statements ←	
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15 else ↔ 16 N[i] ← 1 ↔ 17 end ↔ 18 end ↔ 19 end ↔ 20 return N↔	14 bestEC ← numberOfPartition ←	
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$18 \text{end} \in 1$ $19 \text{ end} \in 1$ $20 \text{ return } N^{c^2}$	17 end ↔	
19 end ↔ 20 return N↔	18 end ←	
20 return N←	19 end 4	
	20 return N [∠]	

Figure 3. Test suite optimization based on greedy algorithm

V. EVALUATION

A. Experimental objects

This experiment uses seven *C* language programs and 3 language Java programs. This *C* language experimental objects consists of five programs in the Software-artifact Infrastructure Repository [7]. TABLE 1 lists all information of programs. The TABLE 2 describes Java experimental objects are from *Defects4j* through the number of versions and the maximum and minimum values of the number of test cases in these programs.

Table 1: Experimental objects using C language

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Name	Description	Number of versions	Number of test cases	Number of lines
tcas	Air collision avoidance system	41	1500	174
print_ tokens	Lexical analyzer	7	4130	726
schedule2	Priority scheduler	10	2710	374
replace	Mode replacement	32	5542	564
tot_info	Information statistics	23	1052	565
expression _parser	Expression parsing and arithmetic	13	1361	1039
my_sort	Comparison of various sorting algorithms	10	1500	2512

Table 2.	Experimental	objects	using Java	language
1 4010 2.	Lapermentar	objects	using Java	language

Program name	Project name	Number of test cases	Number of test cases
Chart	JFreeChart	26	1591~2193
Math	Apache commonsmath	106	817~4378
Time	Joda-Timet	27	3749~4041

B. Evaluation method

In order to compare the quality of the test suite before and after optimization, we use the effect size to evaluate the comparison results. The effect size is a value used to express the degree of correlation between two sets. Currently, there are two commonly used effect size measures:

- Pearson correlation coefficient. It is mainly used to calculate the degree of correlation between two sets.
- Cohen's *d* metric. It is mainly used to calculate the difference between two sets.

Since the main purpose of this experiment is to explore the difference between ranking costs of real faulty statements before and after the test suite optimization, *Cohen's d* metric is used as a formula for calculating the effect size. *Cohen's d* is formula (4).

$$d = \frac{u_1 - u_2}{4} \tag{4}$$

In formula 5, u_1 represents the average of the first sample (that is ranking cost of the faulty statement for each faulty version after test suite optimization) and u_2 represents the average of the second sample (that is ranking cost of the faulty statement for each faulty version after test suite optimization). s represents the combined standard deviation of two samples, the formula of which is given by (5).

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1) \times s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) \times s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$
(5)

In the above formula, n_1 and n_2 are the sizes of the two samples, respectively, and s_1^2 and s_2^2 represent the variance of the two samples.

In this paper, ranking costs of real faulty statements before optimization is used as the data with subscript 1 in the above formula, and ranking costs of real faulty statements after optimization is used as the data with subscript 2. A positive number indicates that the *Average Ranking Costs* of faulty statements on the optimized test suite is lower than before optimization, and vice versa. The larger the absolute value is, the greater the difference between the two sets of data (before and after optimization). In short, the larger the effect size is, the better the quality of test suite after optimization will be.

C. Experimental method

We perform experiments on the above eleven programs, compare the ranking of faulty statements calculated on the optimized test suite with the ranking of faulty statements before optimization, and use the effect size to quantify the experimental results.



Figure 4. Experimental procedure

The overall experimental process is shown in Figure 4. First we run the original test suite in the test program. The matrix M and OC are constructed based on the collected operational information, and then the vector $\langle a_{nb}, a_{nb}, a_{eb}, a_{eb} \rangle$ of each statement which is used to construct the MA matrix is statistically calculated. We use nine suspicious factor calculation formulas to calculate the suspect factor for each statements to get the matrix SF. We can rank each statements of the program based on the value in SF and calculate the Average Ranking Cost of the original test suite. Based on the heuristic principle, we use greedy algorithm to get the sub-test suite whose Average Ranking Cost is lower than the original test suite and which makes less degrees of program and more the number of equivalence class for statements. To prove that the optimized test suite is higher quality than the original test suite, we use the optimized test suite to test program and use SFL technology to get a suspicious factor ranking sequence for each statements. We check the ranking and cost change of the corresponding faulty statements according to the line number of the specific faulty statement in the experiment object. That is based on the line number of the faulty statement and the SF matrix, a ranking sequence of faulty statements before and after optimization is constructed. Finally, we use effect size to quantify the contrast between the two.

D. Analysis of experimental results

Figure 5 shows the effect size of faulty statements before and after the test suite optimization for each programs under each formula. As shown in Figure 5, after using the greedy algorithm to optimize the test suites, in most cases the rankings of faulty statements have increased Effect Sizes. The largest effect size reaches 0.5398. For each *SFL* excluding *Jaccard*, *Ochiai* and *SBI*, the ranking costs with two kinds of constraints decrease after optimizing test cases. So the rankings of faulty statements in different programs has different degrees of improvement by optimizing test suite.

For *Jaccard*, *Ochiai* and *SBI*, the ranking cost of some faulty versions increased slightly after optimizing test cases.Due to the randomness of a real fault of programs, when test suite quality is assessed, all possible fault statements are involved in performance calculations in this paper. Our method takes the *Average Ranking Cost* as a measurement, the high-quality test suite could improve the average localization performance of faulty programs when we do not know where the real fault is. However, this does not show that it must improve the localization performance of a real fault in a given program. In the case of guaranteeing average performance, two kinds of constraints can further reduce the cost of finding faulty statements in practical applications.

At the same time, it is shown in the Figure 5 that the effect amount on *SIR*[12] is significantly higher than that on *Defects4j* [13]. Because there are a large number of repetitive (redundant) test cases in the *SIR* test suite, it is better to optimize the test suite by reducing the number of test cases. There are no redundant test cases in *Defects4j*, so the results are not obvious. From the results, there are still some negative effects in the partial program under some formulas.



Figure 5. Average of the effect size of each formula

VI. RELATED WORK

Several researchers have begun to empirically investigate the ways in which the composition of the test suite impacts the effectiveness of fault-localization technique.

How to reduce test cases from an already available test suite to improve the performance of SFL techniques? Hao et al. [16] posits that test-case similarity or redundancy results in a loss of fault-localization effectiveness. They performed an empirical study to show that injected redundancy can impair a fault-localization technique's effectiveness. Their results suggest that reduction of test cases could improve effectiveness. In [15], for their subject programs and test suites, they found that including more than six failed test cases or more than twenty passed test cases produces minimal effects on the effectiveness of the spectral fault localization. In [14] the first experiment using two types of test suite reduction strategies on the effectiveness of fault localization techniques are presented: (1) statement-based reduction, which generate a reduced test suite that covers the same statements as the original suite, and (2) vector-based reduction where the reduced test suite covers the same set of statement vectors as the original test suit. Statement based reduction significantly affects the effectiveness, while vector-based reduction has negligible effect. This experiment shows that four spectral fault-localization effectiveness(Tarantula, Ochiai, SBI, Jaccard) varies depending on the test-suite reduction strategy used. In [13], several spectra metrics (functions mapped from program spectra) are evaluated using the non-redundant test cases. In their proposed approach, by only selecting non redundant test case instances for pass and fail class, the effectiveness of SFL could be improved on several metrics include Op through experimental set-up. Masri et al. [7] proposed techniques to predict coincidentally correct test cases and remove them from the test suite to improve the effectiveness of SFL. Zhang et al. report a comprehensive study to investigate the impact of cloning the failed test cases on the effectiveness of typical SFL techniques [28].

These methods above show some test suites may be redundant and some subsets of the original test cases could improve fault-localization effectiveness. The rankings of some statements may be more distinguished than before via removing the redundant test cases, but this situation is not necessarily occur. These methods were unable to reveal the underlying rationale for all of their observations, and did not consider how and why removing test cases from the test suite can improve the fault localization.

In this paper, section IV and section V could guide us to assess test suite quality and find an optimal subset of a test suite which leads to high Average Ranking Cost with two kinds of constraints. These works above are specific cases of our approach could explain their experimental results; and they evaluated the effects of test suite reduction using some programs, and thus, they are unable to definitively state that their findings will hold for programming in general. For example, for the reference [13], after so-called redundant test cases are removed, the effectiveness cannot be improved even lower with respect to the existing test suites and the Op (or O); for the example in Figure 1 which has the same meaning with the Figure 1, where s10 is faulty, if the first column test case and the seventh test case which are redundant test cases are removed, the rankings of s1 to s10 are 9/7, 2/7, 11/7, 9/7, 11/7, 11/7, 9/7, 2/7, 9/7 and 11/7, thus, the ranking of s10 are reduced from being higher than s_3 , s_5 and s_6 to equaling s_3 , s_5 and s_6 , and the performance of Op are lower than before removing redundant test cases.

Lei, Y. et al. [19] have also identified "in a test suite, the passing test cases that do not execute the faulty statements and the failing test cases have a positive impact on the fault localization effectiveness, whereas the passing test cases that exercise the faulty statements have a negative effect on localization performance". Their result is drawn from a largescale empirical analysis on the localization effectiveness with respect to randomly sampled test suites and improve fault localization performance by removing those passing tests. Our quality assessment method for a test suite can shows "the failing test cases maybe have a positive impact on the fault localization effectiveness or no impact, and the passing test cases maybe have a positive impact or negative". For example, if the faulty statement is one of s_3 , s_5 , s_6 or s_{10} , and a new failed test case $t_{10} = [1,0,1,1,1,1,1,1,1]$ is added, then the suspiciousness has not changed in Figure 1, so the localization performance has not changed. We argue against that "the failing test cases must have a positive impact on the fault localization effectiveness". Our work does not distinguish the impact of the passing test cases, and Lei, Y, et al. break the passing test cases down into two cases. Lei, Y. et al. also proposed a method for improving fault localization performance by removing those passing tests. Through our example analysis, this method is not a stable method to improve performance and the result is random. For example, in Figure 1, according to the author's method, we remove t_3 and t_6 by that the feasible percentage value for *PTD-TO* is 90%.

- The derived ranking list of statements using *O* is ["*s*₅, *s*₆, *s*₁₀", *s*₃, "*s*₁, *s*₄, *s*₇, *s*₉", "*s*₂, *s*₈"]. If *s*₃ is faulty, it is changed from the previous ranking 1([*s*₃, "*s*₅, *s*₆, *s*₁₀", "*s*₁, *s*₄, *s*₇, *s*₉", "*s*₂, *s*₈"]) to the current ranking 4; and if *s*₅, *s*₆ or *s*₁₀ is faulty, their rankings have been improved.
- The derived ranking list of statements using *GP02* is ["s₅, s₆", s₃, s₁₀, "s₁, s₄, s₇, s₉", s₂, s₈]. If s₃ is faulty, it is changed from the previous ranking 1([s₃, "s₅, s₆, s₁₀", "s₁,

 s_4 , s_7 , s_9 ", s_2 , s_8]) to the current ranking 3; and if s_5 or s_6 is faulty, their rankings have been improved.

The derived ranking list of statements using GP03 is ["s₅, s₆, s₁₀", s₃, "s₁, s₄, s₇, s₉", s₂, s₈]. If s₃ is faulty, it is changed from the previous ranking 1([s₃, "s₅, s₆, s₁₀", "s₁, s₄, s₇, s₉", s₈, s₂]) to the current ranking 4; and if s₅, s₆ or s₁₀ is faulty, their rankings have been improved.

Our method takes the *Average Ranking Cost* with two kinds of constraints as a measurement, the high-quality test suite could improve the average localization performance of faulty programs when we do not know where the real fault is. Although this does not show that it must improve the localization performance of a real fault in a given program, it is a big probability event for all possible faulty statements. In the case of guaranteeing *Average Ranking Cost*, two kinds of constraints can further reduce the cost of finding faulty statements in practical applications.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The quality evaluation of test suite can promote the activity of improving the quality of test suite for the better localization performance of *SFL* techniques. This could be of significant practical benefit for larger programs. This study has proposed a method of test suite quality assessment through *Average Ranking Cost* and two kinds of constraints. Base on test suite quality assessment method, the greedy algorithm is used to optimize the test suite, which improves the accuracy of spectral fault localization. And so if an available test suite exists, the greedy algorithm can guide us to reduce test cases from an available test suite to improve the fault localization performance.

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