

A Test Generator for Model-Based Testing

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Keywords: Model Based Testing, Test Generator, Case Management Solutions.

Abstract: The idea of software testing by software itself drives the attempts of creation of model based testing approaches. Model based testing relies on models, that encode the desired behaviour of a system, the relevant behaviour of its environment; however, both the static and the behaviour models are not directly applicable for model based testing. The models should be different from implementation and possess the observational consistency allowing preservation behaviour of parts in the behaviour of the whole. The models need to be built into a tool for preparation of the model and data for test generation. This paper proposes to use protocol models for model based testing. A protocol model presents the external behaviour. Unlike other modelling approaches, the Protocol Modelling semantics incorporates data into the model. This property gives us advantages for the choice of the strategy of test generation. The main contribution of the paper is a combination of algorithms for test generating from a protocol model. The preparation of a protocol model for test generation and the results of test generation are illustrated with an example.

1 INTRODUCTION

What is a software test? It is a procedure or a sequence of actions that allows one to prove that the software meets the requirements. A test may come from requirements directly or may be generated (Figure 1) from a model different from the implementation model, as it is suggested in the UML test profile (UML, 2005).

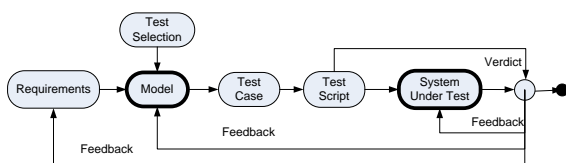


Figure 1: Model-Based Testing.

Development of a dedicated test generation model is often considered by system developers as unnecessary overhead, unless the model provides obvious reduction of testing effort. The choice of a behaviour modelling method with right properties facilitates reduction of testing effort and simplifies further system maintenance.

The right properties of the modelling method depend on the application domain. In this paper, we focus on the domain of Case Management Solutions

(CMS), that covers the systems that “coordinate a service request in finance, health, legal, citizen or human resources-related matters, on behalf of a subject such as a customer, a citizen, or an employee” (Davenport and Nohria, 1994; Aalst van der and Weske, 2005). The domain of Case Management Systems (CMS) has been defined in an OMG document. “A Case is a proceeding that involves actions taken regarding a subject in a particular situation to achieve a desired outcome... Case management planning is typically concerned with determination of which Tasks are applicable, or which follow-up Tasks are required, given the state of the Case. Decisions may be triggered by events or new facts that continuously emerge during the course of the Case, such as the receipt of new documents, completion of certain Tasks, or achieving certain Milestones. Individual Tasks that are planned and executed in the context of the Case might be predefined procedural Processes in themselves, but the overall Case cannot be orchestrated by a predefined sequence of Tasks. Representation of the circumstances and the decision factors in a Case model requires references to data about the subject of the Case. Modeling of constraints and guidance on the actions to be taken in a Case requires the specification of rules that reference the data in the CaseFile.... A new Case model may be defined as entirely at the discretion of

human participants initially, but it should be expected to evolve as repeatable patterns and best practices emerge.” (OMG, 2013) A CMS supports communication of the system with different business actors. The system reaction to the requests of actors is deterministically defined by business rules. It should not contain implementation details. Business rules are formulated using visible states of the system expressed with data. Therefore, the behaviour modelling method should

- (1) result in a deterministic models,
- (2) present only visible system states and
- (3) enable expressions with relevant data and data transformation.

The distinguished property of these systems is the frequent need of change and subsequent testing due to the changes of law regulations and business optimization. Modelling approaches which facilitate independent modelling of a change and its composition with the old model can reduce modelling and testing effort.

In this paper, we address the problem of model-based testing of CMSs. First, we analyse the modelling techniques in order to select the one that is the most suitable for CMSs. Second, we propose a method of using the chosen modelling technique for test generation and the corresponding algorithms.

2 MODELLING APPROACHES TO MODEL-BASED TESTING

The first research question that we answer in the paper is: Is there a modelling approach most suitable to the domain of Case Management Systems?

We start our analysis with the approaches standardised in the UML (OMG, 2003).

2.1 Modelling Approaches in the UML

Use Cases are used to describe the scenarios of interactions between the system and the environment. *Use Cases* are presented in a combination of the natural language and informal diagrams. The informal and partial use case does not cover system requirements, does not use data, does not support the composition of models.

Interaction Diagrams (Sequence Diagrams and Communication Diagrams) can be used to express interaction of communicating objects during their lifetime. Normally, one such diagram presents one sequence of interaction. If decision points are used, an interaction diagram can present a restricted number of sequences. A set of interaction diagrams usually presents only a subset of possible sequences. Composition of interaction diagrams is not defined in the

UML. The suggestions for ”mechanical” composition (Roubtsova and Kuiper, 2003; Greenyer et al., 2008; Hanenberg et al., 2007) do not guarantee the specification of complete behaviour.

Activity Diagrams provide a flow based modeling medium, similar to Petri Nets (Petri and Reisig, 2008). They are used to show ”the sequence and conditions for coordinating behaviors” rather than behaviours of objects. (OMG, 2003). This means that Activity Diagrams are not suitable for representing the behavior of an object model and, as a consequence, the separate modelling of requirements is not always possible.

State Machines exist in two variants: *Behavioral State Machines (BSM)* and *Protocol State Machines (PSM)* (OMG, 2003).

A *Behavior State Machine* usually presents behavior of one class. ”Behavior is modeled as a traversal of a graph of state nodes interconnected by one or more joined transition arcs that are triggered by the dispatching of series of (event) occurrences. During this traversal, the state machine executes a series of activities associated with various elements of the state machine.” (OMG, 2003) A transition label $e[g]/a$ includes an event e that triggers the transition, a guard g that restricts the condition of a transition firing and the action a that happens if the transition takes place. The composition semantics for *BSMs* defines an event queue which holds the incoming event instances until they are dispatched, an event dispatcher mechanism that selects event instances from the queue, and an event processor which processes dispatched event instances according to the general semantics of the UML state machines. Event instances being results of some actions within the system or in the environment are conveyed to one or more *BMSs* (OMG, 2003). An event is received by a *BMS* if it is placed on the event queue of the *BMS*. An event is dispatched when it is removed from the queue and delivered to the state machine for processing. If an event is dispatched, it may result in one or more transitions. If no transition is enabled, then the event is discarded. Finally the event is consumed and it is no longer available for processing. The consumption of events depends on the active state of a state machine. If an event triggers a transition in the current state, it is dispatched and consumed. ”A state may specify a set of event types that may be deferred in the state. An event instance that does not trigger any transition in the current state will not be dispatched if its type matches with the type of one of the deferred events. Instead it remains in the event queue while another not deferred message is dispatched instead” (OMG, 2003). In other words,

- if an event recognized by a machine that enables

a transition in its current state, then it can be consumed;

- if an event recognized by a machine that does not enable a transition in the current, an this event is included in the list of deferred events for this state, it is kept in a queue for later processing;
- otherwise the event is discarded (McNeile and Roubtsova, 2009).

This means that processing of an event by different machines is asynchronous and the result of processing is non-deterministic. If an event can cause firing of two transitions, which transition can happen first is not defined.

Thus, *BSMs* do provide complete behavior descriptions and can provide model based execution needed for MBT. However, *BSM* do not result in deterministic models and do not meet our requirements for the modelling method for MBT of CMS.

The *UML Protocol State Machines (PSMs)* are used to express the transitions that a classifier can trigger. A *PSM* is a way to define a life cycle of an object, or an order of the invocation of its operations. *PSMs* can express usage scenarios of object classes and interfaces. The effect actions of transitions are not specified in a *PSM* transition as the trigger itself is the operation. However, pre- and post- conditions are specified, so that the label of a transition is of the form $[precondition] \text{ event} / [postcondition]$. The occurrence of an event that a *PSM* cannot handle is viewed as a precondition violation, but the consequent behavior is left open. “The interpretation of the reception of an event in an unexpected situation (current state, state invariant, and pre-condition) is a *semantic variation point*: the event can be ignored, rejected, or deferred; an exception can be raised; or the application can stop on an error. It corresponds semantically to a pre-condition violation, for which no predefined behavior is defined in UML” (OMG, 2003). Unlike *BSMs*, *PSMs* can (to a limited extent) be composed. “A class may have several protocol state machines. This happens frequently, for example, when a class inherits several parent classes having protocol state machine, when the protocols are orthogonal.” (OMG, 2003). However, the semantics of composition for *PSMs* is undefined.

As a result of the above analysis we conclude that none of the UML behaviour modelling approaches are satisfying enough to meet the requirements to modelling Case Management Systems.

2.2 Outside the UML

The MBT approaches often experiment with labeled transition systems with different semantics. For ex-

ample, the Labelled Transition Systems (*LTSs*) used by Kervinen et al. (Kervinen et al., 2006) (s^0, S, E, T) (s^0 is an initial state; S - a set of states; E is a set of events; $T \subseteq S \times E \times S$) is a deterministic model. There is no state in which any output transition share the same action name. The *LTSs* can be composed using the CSP parallel composition (Hoare, 1985). Also there are rules of matching events that are used for synchronous composition.

LTSs used by Kervinen et al. (Kervinen et al., 2006) meet most of our requirements to the modelling method for CMS. Such *LTSs* are able to provide the basis of MBT implementation. The shortcoming is their abstraction from data.

The Protocol Modelling technique (McNeile and Simons, 2006) overcomes the above mentioned shortcomings of *LTSs*. Protocol Modelling uses the CSP parallel composition (Hoare, 1985) extended by A. McNeile to enable the composition of models with data (McNeile and Simons, 2006). It is proven in (McNeile and Roubtsova, 2008) that protocol models possess the property called *observational consistency*. This property means that a protocol machine may be added to and deleted from the model or locally changed and the trace behaviour of other protocol machines is not affected by the behaviour of of the added, deleted or modified protocol machines (McNeile and Roubtsova, 2008). We argue that, potentially, observational consistency of protocol models can reduce the modelling and testing effort when the CMS is changed.

3 PROTOCOL MODELLING FOR MBT

Our second research question is: How can a protocol model be used for test generation?

3.1 What is a Protocol Model?

The building blocks of a Protocol Model are protocol machines and events. They are instances of correspondingly *protocol machine types* and *event types*.

A **protocol machine type** is an *LTS* extended to enable modelling with data:

$$PM_i = (s_i^0, S_i, E_i, A_i, CB_i, T_i), \text{ where}$$

- s_i^0 is the initial state;
- S_i is a non-empty finite set of states.
- E_i is a finite set of recognized event types e_i , coming from the environment.

- A_i is a finite set of attributes of different types. The set can be empty.
- $CB_i(PM_1, \dots, PM_n, E_1, \dots, E_m) = (PM_1, \dots, PM_n, E_1, \dots, E_m)$ is a callback function for updating the values of the attributes, states and events of the protocol machines of the protocol model. PM_1, \dots, PM_n are the protocol machines of the protocol model. E_1, \dots, E_m are events of the protocol model. The default callback function (the absence of the callback) does not change the model elements.
- $T_i \subseteq S_i \times E_i \times S_i$ a finite set of transitions: $t = (s_x, e, s_y)$, $s_x, s_y \in S_i$, $e \in E_i$. The set of transitions can be empty. The states may be updated without callback functions. The values of the attributes, states and events may be updated using the callback function only as a result of a transition, i.e. as a result of an event acceptance.

In order to facilitate reuse, protocol machines come in two variants: Objects and Behaviours. Behaviours cannot be instantiated on their own but may extend functionality of objects. In a sense, objects with included behaviours are similar to mixins in programming languages (Bracha and Cook, 1990).

An event type is a tuple

$$e = (EventName, A^e, CB^e)$$

- A^e is a finite set of attributes of the event.
- $CB^e(PM_1, \dots, PM_n, E_1, \dots, E_m) = (PM_1, \dots, PM_n, E_1, \dots, E_m)$

is a callback function corresponding to this event. A default callback function (the absence of it) does not change the model elements. The callback function for an event is used if the event calculates attributes of generates other events from the state of the model.

An example of a protocol model is shown in Figure 2. It is a model of a small case management system for handling a document. Unique document parts are submitted to a document. When all parts have been submitted, the document can be submitted. to a document by participants of a project. There are four protocol machines in Figure 2: *OBJECT Part* with included *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* and *OBJECT Document* with included *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable*. The protocol machines are described textually as sets of their attributes, states and transitions. A behaviour protocol machine is always included into at least one object protocol machine. The *INCLUDES* relation is shown on the top of Figure 2 graphically as an arc with a half-dashed

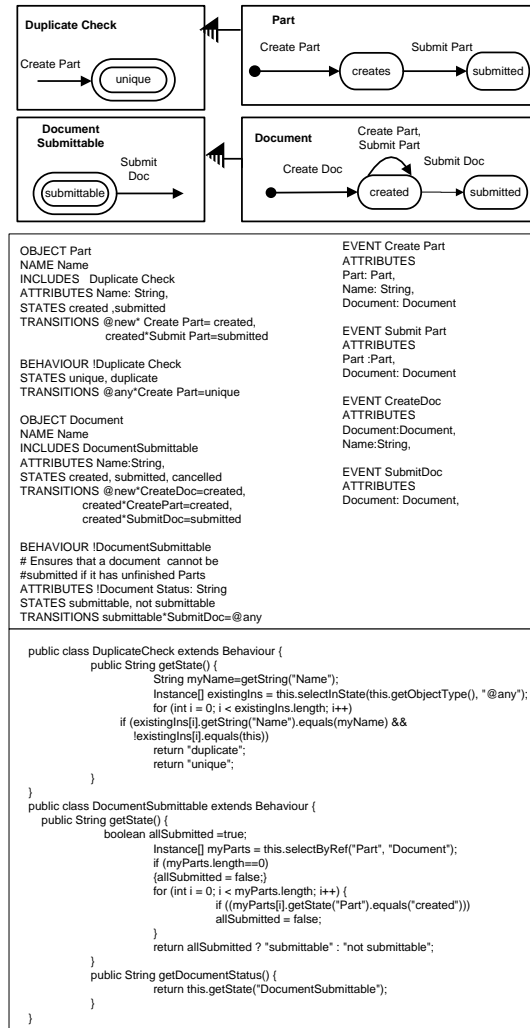


Figure 2: Protocol Model of a Document that consists of Parts.

arrowhead. Each of behaviours has the corresponding callback presented as a small Java function. The callback of the behaviour *Duplicate check* returns states *unique* or *duplicate*. The callback of the behaviour *Document Submittable* returns the state *submittable*, *not submittable*. There are four event types in the model presented with their attributes: *Create Part*, *Create Doc*, *Submit Part* and *Submit Doc*.

3.2 Data Handling and Its Use for MBT

Within the Protocol Modelling, the callback functions are the instruments for data handling. In the ModelScope tool (McNeile and Simons, 2000) supporting execution of protocol models, the callbacks are coded as small Java classes with methods changing and/or returning the values of attributes and states of in-

stances of protocol machines. They may also change attributes of events and generate event instances.

Usually transitions $t \in T_i$ of a protocol machine PM_i enable updates of its own states of the state set S_i . On the other hand, protocol machines can read the states of each other, although cannot change them. This property creates dependencies of protocol machines. The dependency means that one protocol machine needs to read the state of another machine to calculate its own state and/or the attributes. Such calculated states are called *derived states*, which distinguishes them from the "stored" states denoted in the model (McNeile and Simons, 2006). Callback functions CB_i are used to update attributes and calculate derived states.

There are two possibilities in dependent machines:

- (1) The pre-state of a transition can be calculated. The pre-state is similar to a guard calculated in the UML state machines. *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable* is an example of a pre-state.
- (2) The predicted after-state of a transition can be calculated and used to allow or refuse the event. This predicted after-state is a unique feature of Protocol modelling. Both behaviour protocol machines in Figure 2 have the after-states. For example, *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* derives state *unique* or *duplicate* after event *CreatePart* and enables the event only if the *Part* has a *unique* name. If an event is not enabled, the protocol machine is rolled back to the previous state of the model.

As the state of a dependent machine is changed by the corresponding callback, not by a transition, the dependency between protocol machines needs to be taken into account for test generation. Using the information in the callbacks, the derived states of a protocol machine can be visualised in the model with the corresponding stored states with the same names. The state changes, coded in the callbacks, can be presented as transitions. The transformed in such a way protocol machines with derived states, are called connected forms (McNeile and Roubtsova, 2012). They have been used for workflow analysis of protocol models. We propose to use them for test generation. Currently, we perform the model transformation as a manual procedure.

For example, the callback *Duplicate Check* extends behaviour *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check*.

The state *duplicate* may appear during the proceeding of event *CreatePart* but it should be rolled back. This means that there is no continuation of the test possible with the duplicated *Part*. In such a situation, the ModelScope tool generates an error message. The working protocol model of *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* contains only one transition (Figure 2).

```
BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck
STATES unique, duplicate
TRANSITIONS @any*CreatePart=unique,
```

Using the information from the callback we create the connected form being a non-deterministic protocol machine intended to be used for test generation. It contains two transitions for event *CreatePart* and the third transition for the event *SubmitPart* possible only in state *unique*:

```
BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck
STATES unique, duplicate
TRANSITIONS @any*CreatePart=unique,
             @any*CreatePart=duplicate,
             unique*SubmitPart=unique
```

3.3 Analysis of CSP Parallel Composition and Its Use for MBT

Another observation concerns the use of the CSP composition.

A protocol model contains only the protocol machine types serving as patterns for creating instances of protocol machines. In the initial state, a protocol model PM is a CSP parallel composition of the protocol machines each of which corresponds to a protocol machine type in the initial state $@new$. The instances of protocol machines of each type are created as a result of an acceptance of an event that transits the machine from the state $@new$ to some state of the machine life cycle.

In any state, a system model PM is a CSP parallel composition of finite set of *instances of protocol machines*.

$$PM = \prod_{i=1}^n PM_i = (s_0, S, E, A, CB, T), \quad n \in N.$$

A Protocol Model PM is also a protocol machine, the set of states of which is the Cartesian product of states of all composed protocol machines (McNeile and Simons, 2006):

$$s_0 = \bigcup_{i=1}^n s_i^0 \quad \text{is the initial state;}$$

$$S = \prod_{i=1}^n S_i \quad \text{is the set of states;}$$

$$E = \bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i \quad \text{is the set of events;}$$

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \quad \text{is the set attributes of all machines;}$$

$$CB = \bigcup_{i=1}^n CB^i \quad \text{is the set of callbacks of all machines.}$$

The set of transitions T of the protocol model is defined by the rules of the CSP parallel composition (Hoare, 1985). The rules synchronise transitions T_i of protocol machines. Namely, a Protocol Model handles only one event at a time. An event can be accepted only if all protocol machines having this event in their alphabets are in the state where they can accept this event. Otherwise the event is refused.

As a protocol machine can contain several instances of a certain type, tests should be able to differentiate them. This is possible since each *OBJECT* has a *NAME* attribute by which it can be identified. In our example in Figure 2 all events have only one link to object *Part*. This means that only one instance is used.

Similarly, any *BEHAVIOUR* can be included in several objects. In such cases the corresponding object model contains *INCLUDES* statement (see Figure 2) with the name of included *BEHAVIOUR* type. Although *BEHAVIOUR* does not have a *NAME* attribute, it can be uniquely identified in tests by the *NAME* attribute of the host *OBJECT*.

4 TEST GENERATION

Our proposed Protocol Model Based test generation technique consists of the following steps:

- Creation of object models for all individual protocol machines;
- Iterative generation of the System Protocol Machine, using the CSP composition;
- Generation of test traces for the system protocol machine.

4.1 Creation of Object Models for Individual Protocol Machines

Our test generation starts with building object models containing all such 'first class' model elements as protocol machines (objects and behaviours), events and callbacks as well as their attributes, states, transitions. These models are built by parsing the system protocol model textual representations in Figure 2.

4.2 Iterative Generation of the System Protocol Machine

The fact that the CSP parallel composition of protocol machines is a protocol machine allows us to implement the iterative algorithm for generating the system protocol machine from the models of objects and behaviours obtained at the first step (Algorithm 1).

Algorithm 1: Algorithm for CSP parallel composition \parallel of all protocol machines.

GIVEN: Set of Protocol machines from the protocol model $\{PM_i\}, i = 0, \dots, n$
RESULT: CSP parallel composition of all protocol machines of the protocol model $SystemPM = \parallel PM_i, i = 0, \dots, n$
Algorithm:
 $SystemPM = PM_0$
 $i = 1$
while ($i < n$) **do**
 Algorithm 2 for CSP composition \parallel of two Protocol Machines
 $SystemPM = SystemPM \parallel PM_i$
 $i++$
end while

Algorithm 2: Algorithm for CSP composition \parallel of two Protocol Machines.

GIVEN:
Object (behaviour) O_1 :
Transitions $O_1 : x_i * A = x_j$. Set of events E_1 . Set of states S_1 .
Object (behaviour) O_2 :
Transitions $O_2 : y_k * A = x_h$. Set of events E_2 . Set of states S_2 .
RESULT: CSP parallel composition $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
Algorithm:
Find $E_1 \cap E_2$.
for Each $e \in E_1 \cap E_2$ **do**
 Find transitions of $O_1 : O_1.x_i * e = O_1.x_j$, labeled by e .
 Find transitions of $O_2 : O_2.y_k * e = O_2.y_h$, labeled by e .
 Construct the transition of the composition of $O_1 \parallel O_2$:
 $O_1.x_i; O_2.y_k * e = O_1.x_j; O_2.y_h$.
 Add the initial and end states of the transition to the set of states of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
 Add e to the set of events of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
end for
for Each $a \notin E_1 \cap E_2$ **do**
 Find transitions of $O_1 : O_1.x_i * a = O_1.x_j$ labeled by a ;
 for All states of $O_2 : y$ **do**
 Construct transition of $O_1 \parallel O_2 : O_1.x_i; O_2.y * a = O_1.x_j; O_2.y$;
 Add initial and end states of the transition to the set of states of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
 Add a to the set of events of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
 end for
 Find transitions of $O_2 : O_2.y_k * a = O_2.x_h$ labeled by a ;
 for All states of $O_1 : x$ **do**
 Construct transitions of $O_1 \parallel O_2 : O_1.x; O_2.y_k * a = O_1.x; O_2.y_h$;
 Add initial and end states of the transition to set of states of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
 Add a to the set of events of $O_1 \parallel O_2$.
 end for
end for

The Algorithm 2 for CSP composition \parallel of two Protocol Machines reflects the synchronization of protocol machines. The rules of the CSP composition say that an event is accepted by the Protocol Model if it is accepted by both protocol machines if they both contain this event in their event sets, otherwise it is refused. This means that if the transitions of two protocol machines are labeled with the same event, then their initial and final states are united to produce a synchronised transition. If an event belongs to the set of only one of protocol machines (in the set of two), then the state of this machine is changed according to

Traces for OBJECT Part & BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck

```

1)Part.@new;!DuplicateCheck.@new*CreatePart=Part.created;!DuplicateCheck.unique-->
Part.created;!DuplicateCheck.unique*SubmitPart=Part.submitted;!DuplicateCheck.unique-->
|
2)Part.@new;!DuplicateCheck.@new*CreatePart=Part.created;!DuplicateCheck.duplicate-->

```

Traces for OBJECT Document & BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable & OBJECT Part & BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck

```

1)Document.@new&DocumentSubmittable.@new&Part.@new&DuplicateCheck.@new*CreateDoc=Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.@new&DuplicateCheck.@new-->
Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.@new&DuplicateCheck.@new*CreatePart=Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.created&DuplicateCheck.unique-->
Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.created&DuplicateCheck.unique*SubmitPart=Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.submittable&Part.submitted&DuplicateCheck.unique-->
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Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.@new&DuplicateCheck.@new*CreatePart=Document.created&DocumentSubmittable.notSubmittable&Part.created&DuplicateCheck.duplicate-->

```

Figure 3: Traces of the Part with Duplicate check and the model of a Document with one Part.

its transition, and the state of the other machine remains unchanged.

4.3 Generation of Test Traces for the System Protocol Machine

To generate tests we use the set of transitions of *SystemPM* obtained at the previous step. The preconditions are the following:

- Each unique trace has to start from the transition in which the initial state of each object is @new. This way a test case can cover the whole life cycle of the objects involved in a trace.
- Each possible transition in a particular trace has to be repeated only once. This way we decrease the number of test steps while still providing complete transition coverage.

Algorithm 3: Generation of test traces for the protocol model.

```

GIVEN: Transitions  $T$  of SystemPM:  $(x, e, y), x, y \in S, e \in E$ 
RESULT: test case traces for SystemPM
Algorithm:
Initial state of the system  $l =$  "all objects in state @new".
for each  $t \in T$  do
  if The input state of  $t$   $x \subseteq l$  then
    Add  $t$  to the set of transitions  $T_j, j = 0, \dots, k$  possible in
    the initial state "all objects in state @new"
  end if
end for
for Each  $T_j, j = 0, \dots, k$  do
  Apply the Algorithm for Transition Tree Generation for  $T_j$ 
  Make a trace by Traversing Transition Tree for  $T_j$ 
end for

```

Algorithm 4: Transition Tree Generation recursively makes a tree of traces starting with the initial transition T_j .

```

GIVEN:
Transitions  $T$  of SystemPm
Transition  $T_j$  for which precondition 1 holds
Result: test case traces for  $T_j$  as an initial transition
Algorithm:
Add  $T_j$  to a tree as a node
remove  $T_j$  from  $T$  /* to enforce precondition 2*/
for each  $t \in T$  do
  if initial state  $t =$  end state of  $T_j$  then
    Transition Tree Generation for  $t$ 
  end if
end for

```

Traversing Transition Tree from the initial transition T_j is straight forward. Each trace starts from the initial transition and stops in a leaf for which no transition exists with the initial state equal to the end state in the current leaf. Termination is assured because at each step in the trace the corresponding transition is removed from the finite set T .

4.4 Results of Test Generation

We implemented the above algorithms as a Java application. As we already mentioned, changeability is an immanent feature of Case Management Systems. In order to support testing of changeability, the traces can be built evolutionary. The task of regression testing (Myers, 2004) is selecting the minimal set of tests required to cover a particular change. Reducing the regression testing can contribute significantly in decreasing the overall testing effort.

Let us assume, that the model for *OBJECT Part* with *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* was created first. After that it was extended to a composed model *OBJECT Document*, *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable*, *OBJECT Part*, *BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck*.

Traces for *OBJECT Part* with *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* are shown on the top of Figure 3. Traces for the composed model *OBJECT Document*, *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable*, *OBJECT Part*, *BEHAVIOUR !DuplicateCheck* are shown on the bottom of Figure 3.

As we can see, lines 2 and 3 of the trace 1 of the composed model include the trace 1 of the *OBJECT Part* with *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate check*. The states of *OBJECT Document*, *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable* are not changed in this trace. Similarly, line 2 of trace 2 includes the trace 2 of *OBJECT Part*, *BEHAVIOUR Document Submittable*. This means that there is no need to repeat the tests of *OBJECT Part*, *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate check* for regression testing. The property of observational consistency of Protocol Models works for reduction of regression testing.

For the realistic testing of the model contains *Document* that may be submitted if all its *Parts*, we need at least two *Parts*. The submission of these parts can take place in different order. In the protocol model the number of parts and the submittability is calculated in the callback. Using the information from the callback we build the connected form of the protocol model and generate from it the test cases. The generator produces 14 traces that include the traces of the *Part* with *Duplicate Check*. Figure 4 shows the traces.

The traces 1, 3, 4, 8, 9, 11 (black) include the first trace of the *OBJECT Part* with *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate check* for both *Parts*.

The traces 2, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 14 (blue) are terminated by the *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* of one or two *Parts* and do not result in submitted *Document*. The tests of the *OBJECT Part* with *BEHAVIOUR Duplicate Check* are again included into the tests of the new model and should not be repeated. There are lines where the states of other objects and behaviours are not changed. This means that the tests of initial model should not be repeated as regression tests of the extended model.

5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The first research question we addressed in this paper was to find a modelling approach that meets the requirements for model-based testing of highly changeable Case Management Solutions.

As the result of our analysis, we found that the Protocol Modelling technique has the most promising properties as it uses the CSP parallel composition extended with data and possesses the property of observational consistency preserving behaviour of the parts in behaviour of the whole model.

Our second research question addressed the method of using the Protocol Modelling for test generation. We developed a method that combines the technique for manual preparation of a protocol model and the algorithms for automatic test generation from a protocol model. The experiments using our method show that protocol modelling decreases the modelling and testing efforts for regression testing (Myers, 2004) of CMSs. The protocol model presents the external behaviour of a system under the testing. It is different from the system implementation and therefore does not cause error propagation from the system model and code into the tests. Such model changes as behaviour extensions are easily localised as new protocol machines. This reduces the modelling effort for MBT. Thanks to the property of observational consistency

a change in the model preserves the tests of the old parts of the system. This reduces the effort for regression testing (Watkins and Simon, 2010). A small illustration of our experiments has been shown in the paper.

The contribution of this paper is shown in Figure 5 as boxes 3 and 4. Our algorithms form parts of the Protocol Model-Based testing tool chain, that we are going to apply for Case Management Systems.

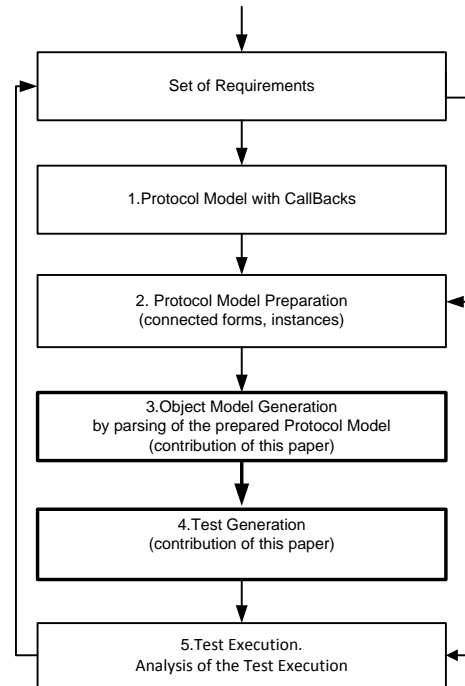


Figure 5: Protocol Model-Based Testing Methodology.

In future work we are also considering the following research directions:

(1) Partitioning a protocol model into the groups of independent protocol machines with disjoint sets of recognised events. The theory of Protocol Modelling identifies the trace-independent protocol machines and has a proof of observational consistency for them (McNeile and Roubtsova, 2008). Thus, the independent sets of protocol machines should result in independent sets of traces. Each such a group of protocol machines can be used to produce related tests which can be tested separately. This would again facilitate the reduction of testing effort if any of such sets change. In future work we will present our algorithm of partitioning of protocol machines and the methods for selection of a test strategy using partitioning of protocol machines.

(2) Automation of the model preparation and production of test scripts from our test traces. Un-

like other modeling methods, the protocol modeling makes use of callbacks that calculate data and states. Running the callbacks during the process of the generation of tests scripts from the test traces, generation of which is described in this paper, we are going to build executable tests.

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