# Heuristics to Increase Observability in Spectrum-based Fault Localization

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**Abstract.** The high abstraction level of Spectrum-based Fault Localization (SFL) reasoning, on the one hand, offers the advantage of a model-free approach to diagnosis, while, on the other, reduces the inherently limited testability of many hardware and software systems. Thus, along with substantial complexity gains, SFL exhibits limited diagnostic performance, compared to Model-Based Diagnosis. This paper describes two algorithms (Lion and Tiger) that exploit low cost heuristics to determine the best location to insert additional test oracles (monitors, probes, invariants) so as to increase the observability within the systems. Experiments show that even simple algorithms can considerably improve SFL's diagnostic accuracy.

#### **1 AMBIGUITY REDUCTION**

In SFL [1, 5] the following is given:

- A finite set  $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_j, \ldots, c_M\}$  of M components of which  $M_f$  are faulted.
- A finite set  $T = \{t_1, \ldots, t_i, \ldots, t_N\}$  of N tests with binary outcomes  $O = (o_1, \ldots, o_i, \ldots, o_N)$ , where  $o_i = 1$  if test  $t_i$  failed, and  $o_i = 0$  otherwise.
- A  $N \times M$  (test) coverage matrix,  $A = [a_{ij}]$ , where  $a_{ij} = 1$  if test  $t_i$  involves component  $c_j$ , and 0 otherwise.

The *health* of  $c_j$  is denoted  $h_j \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $h_j = 1$  represents full health,  $h_j = 0$  represents faulted in all circumstances, while  $0 < h_j < 1$  represents the case where  $c_j$  returns a failure in fraction  $h_j$  of the cases. The result of SFL is a *component ranking*  $R = < c_{r(1)}, \ldots, c_{r(j)}, \ldots, c_{r(M)} >$ , ordered non-increasingly in terms of the likelihood  $\Pr(c_j)$  that  $c_j$  is at fault. For the purpose of this paper we equate  $\Pr(c_j)$  to the Ochiai [2] similarity coefficient  $s_j$ ,

$$s_j = \frac{n_{11}(j)}{\sqrt{(n_{11}(j) + n_{01}(j))(n_{11}(j) + n_{10}(j))}}$$

where  $n_{pq}(j)$  is given by  $n_{pq}(j) = |\{i : a_{ij} = p \land o_i = q\}|.$ 

The diagnostic utility (accuracy, performance) of R is measured in terms of the *identification cost*  $C_d$ , which models the verification effort of a diagnostician, going down the ranking R searching for the actual faults (true positives). In particular, we measure the identification effort *wasted* on false positives (i.e., excluding the components found to be faulted) in order to obtain a metric that is independent of  $M_f$ . Let r denote the index in R of the faulted component with the lowest likelihood. Then the identification cost for all  $M_f$  faults equals r and the wasted cost is  $r - M_f$ . We will consider a normalized value  $C_d = (r - M_f)/(M - M_f)$  which ranges from 0 to 1 (0 indicates no identification effort, i.e., all faulted components are ranked at the top, whereas 1 indicates maximum identification effort, i.e., all faulted components are at the bottom of the list).

Consider the circuit topology shown on the left of Fig. 1.



Figure 1. Example system (left) extended with monitor (right)

In SFL, each primary output observation is interpreted as one test. Thus one input vector (x) represents two tests, one involving  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $c_3$  (the cone of  $y_1$ ), and one involving  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ , and  $c_4$  (the cone of  $y_2$ ). Two test oracles readily monitor  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ . Assume that  $c_1$  is at fault, and that we observe  $y_1$  correct <sup>4</sup> (pass), and  $y_2$  incorrect (fail). In terms of A and O we have

where '+' and '-' denote pass and fail, respectively, to distinguish O from A in the figure. The associated similarity coefficients for  $c_1, \ldots, c_4$  are 0.71, 0.71, 0, 1, respectively. In terms of diagnostic performance,  $C_d = 0.5$  since, after inspecting  $c_4$  (and finding out that it is normal), half of the times the diagnostician will hit on  $c_1$ . SFL's disappointing diagnostic performance ( $C_d = 0.5$ , no better than random) is due to the *ambiguity group* ( $c_1, c_2$ ), that have equal columns in A and therefore end up in the ranking with equal similarity coefficient. Suppose that, as shown on the right of Fig. 1, in order to improve the diagnosis, we choose the output of  $c_1$  to place the new monitor so as to break the ambiguity group. If we run x again we now obtain

The output of  $c_1$  ( $y_3$ ) turns out to be incorrect. The associated similarity coefficients for  $c_1, \ldots, c_4$  are now 0.82, 0.50, 0, 0.71, respectively. Consequently,  $c_1$  is now ranked on top and  $C_d = 0$ , i.e., perfect diagnostic performance.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Note that a fault has not to manifest itself at the component's output, nor propagate to a system output.

## 2 ALGORITHMS

Both algorithms for oracle placement sketched in the following are based on a simple, myopic heuristic, their space complexity is negligible compared with that of the coverage matrix, and they are intended to be called successively, until sufficient diagnosability is reached. The actual algorithms can be found in [4].

Algorithm 1 is intended for a static, design for SFL-diagnosability context, where a system topology and associated test suite are available (i.e., a coverage matrix A), but where the tests are not vet executed (or executable). Its rationale is to search for the largest ambiguity group (AG) in A: if one exists, it adds a monitor at a location that minimizes its size. Parameter  $P \subseteq C$  denotes the subset of components whose output is (already) monitored by a test oracle. Function GETLARGESTAG returns the largest AG, denoted C', from the components selected as parameter (initially C). If there exist several largest AGs, one of them is randomly chosen. Function UPDATEA adds the new rows to A that are generated by those tests in the test suite that exercise c. Lion selects the component c' that minimizes A's new AG size (s), and adds it to P. Note that each time a monitor is added, it is possible that other AGs are also split, which produces a further ambiguity decrease. The algorithm returns the updated A and P, which can be used when Lion is recursively applied. The ambiguity size is typically used as termination criterion.

GETLARGESTAG takes  $O(M^2 \cdot N)$  operations. The search for component c' costs O(M) (size of C') times the sum of the costs of both the matrix update (O(N) partial row copies) and the identification of the largest AG  $(O(M^2 \cdot N))$ , which totals  $O(N \cdot M^3)$ .

Algorithm 1 LION
function $LION(A, P)$
$C' \leftarrow \text{GetLargestAG}(A, C)$
if $ C'  = 1$ then
return NULL
end if
s =  C'
for each $c \in C', \ c \not\in P$ do
$A' \leftarrow UPDATEA(A, c)$
$C'' \leftarrow \text{GetLargestAG}(A', C')$
if $ C''  < s$ then
$s \leftarrow  C'' $
$c' \leftarrow c$
end if
end for
$A' \leftarrow \text{UPDATEA}(A, c')$
$P' \leftarrow P \cup \{c'\}$
return $(A', P')$
end function

Algorithm 2 is intended for a dynamic operational context where the outcomes of run-time tests are available. Such outcomes are exploited so as to assist SFL in minimizing the ambiguity of R (in probabilistic sense). To this end, Tiger selects the component having the highest likelihood among those whose output is not monitored yet. Function SFL computes ranking R given coverage matrix A and test outcomes O. After the new component c is selected for monitoring, Tiger recomputes the matrix, retests the system (function TEST), and returns the new A, P, O to allow recursive application. The ranking index of the component selected for monitoring and/or the size of the largest subset of components that have the same value of the similarity coefficient can be used as termination criterion.

The time complexity of Tiger is entirely determined by the SFL algorithm  $(O(M(N + \log M)))$ , the matrix update  $(O(N \cdot M))$ , and

executing the test suite (amounting to  $O(N \cdot M)$ ).

## **3 EXPERIMENTS**

The algorithms have been tested by using a simulator based on a real situations awareness system developed at Thales Naval Systems. The original DAG topology of the system was modified to include some more components and random execution paths (tests) to make the diagnosis task more challenging. The system comprises M = 74 components. There are 10 test suites available, each providing N = 33 distinct execution paths. The diagnostic performance of Lion and Tiger are measured in terms of the metric  $C_d$ , obtained from injecting  $M_f$  faults, running the tests and performing diagnosis, while increasing the number of monitors as subsequently computed by either Lion or Tiger. In order to provide a reference, the performances of the algorithms are compared to those of Random monitor placement (upper bound on  $C_d$ ) as well as Brute-Force placement (lower bound on  $C_d$ ), enumerating over all M - |P| added monitors.

Each of the 10 test suites is executed, and the  $C_d$  results are averaged over the 10 test suites. Within each test suite the  $C_d$  results are averaged over random fault injections, executing each test multiple times to sample from the random faulty component health (h). In total, per test suite the number of tests executed is 450 per monitor placement. Due to the complexity of brute-force computation, the experiments have been restricted to single fault injections  $(M_f = 1)$ . Experiments offer evidence that, even with its low-cost heuristic, Tiger is capable of approaching optimum brute-force placement, roughly within a factor close to 3 in terms of monitors required. Lion performs less, as it does not exploit the test outcomes. Nevertheless, Lion performs far better than random placement, as the AG size in A is a good predictor of diagnostic performance.

In the future, time efficiency and quality of results achieved by SFL when assisted by either Lion or Tiger should be compared with those relevant to a Model-Based Diagnosis solver that, as SFL, can diagnose multiple persistent and intermittent faults [3].

#### REFERENCES

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