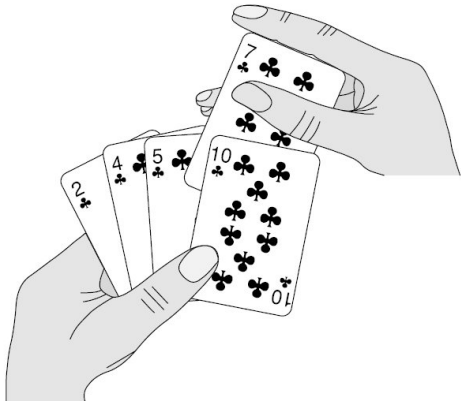


# BBM 101

## Introduction to Programming I

### Lecture #08 – Testing and Debugging

# Last time... Sorting, List Comprehension, Visualization



## Sorting

```
print("hamlet:", hamlet)

print("sorted(hamlet):",
      sorted(hamlet))

print("hamlet:", hamlet)

print("hamlet.sort():",
      hamlet.sort())

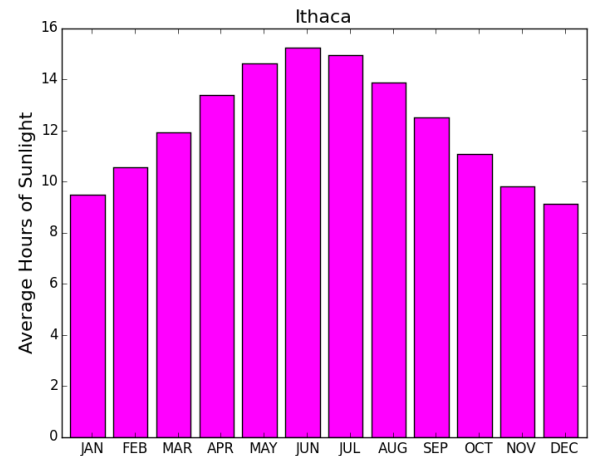
print("hamlet:", hamlet)
```

## List comprehension

```
[i*2 for i in range(3)]
```

## Data visualization

```
M = MonthAverages('Ithaca')
bar(range(12), M, facecolor='magenta')
xlim(-.2, 12)
ylabel('Average Hours of Sunlight')
title(A.City, fontsize=16)
show()
```



# Lecture Overview

- Debugging
- Exception Handling
- Testing

# Lecture Overview

- Debugging
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## The 5 Stages of Debugging

At some point in each of our lives, we must face errors in our code. Debugging is a natural healing process to help us through these times. It is important to recognize these common stages and realize that debugging will eventually come to an end.



### Denial

This stage is often characterized by such phrases as "What? That's impossible," or "I know this is right." A strong sign of denial is recompiling without changing any code, "just in case."



### Bargaining/Self-Blame

Several programming errors are uncovered and the programmer feels stupid and guilty for having made them. Bargaining is common: "If I fix this, will you please compile?" Also, "I only have 14 errors to go!"



### Anger

Cryptic error messages send the programmer into a rage. This stage is accompanied by an hours-long and profanity-filled diatribe about the limitations of the language directed at whomever will listen.



### Depression

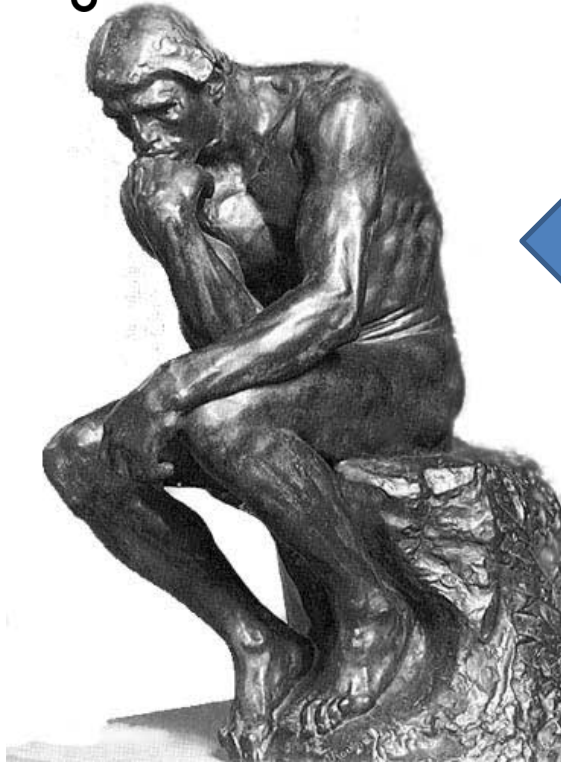
Following the outburst, the programmer becomes aware that hours have gone by unproductively and there is still no solution in sight. The programmer becomes listless. Posture often deteriorates.



### Acceptance

The programmer finally accepts the situation, declares the bug a "feature", and goes to play some Quake.

# The Problem



What you want  
your program to do



There is a bug!



What your program does

# What is Debugging?



- Grace Hopper was one of U.S.'s first programmers
- She found a moth in the Mark I computer, which was causing errors, and called it a computer "bug"
- Thus, the word debugging is coined 😊



9/9

0800 Antan started  
 1000 " stopped - antan ✓ { 1.2700 9.032 847 025  
 13<sup>00</sup> (032) MP-MC 1.58244000 9.037 846 895 correct  
 2.130476415  
 (033) PRO 2 2.130476415  
 correct 2.130676415  
 Relays 6-2 in 033 failed special speed test  
 in relay " 10,000 test.

1100 Started Cosine Tape (Sine check)  
 1525 Started Multi Adder Test.

1545 Relay #70 Panel F  
 (moth) in relay.

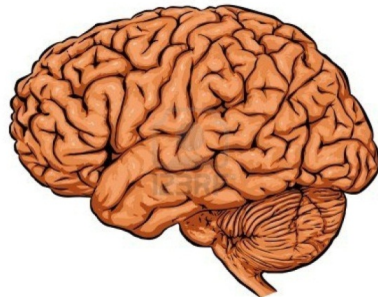
First actual case of bug being found.

1700 Antan started.  
 1700 closed down.

Relay 3145  
 Relay 3376

# Debugging Tools

- Python error message
- **assert**
- **print**
- Python interpreter
- Python Tutor (<http://pythontutor.com>)
- Python debugger
- Best tool:



# Two Key Ideas

1. The scientific method
2. Divide and conquer



If you master those, you will find debugging easy, and possibly enjoyable ;-)



# The Scientific Method



1. Create a hypothesis
2. Design an experiment to test that hypothesis
  - Ensure that it yields insight
3. Understand the result of your experiment
  - If you don't understand, then possibly suspend your main line of work to understand that

# The Scientific Method



## Tips:

- Be systematic
  - Never do anything if you don't have a reason
  - Don't just flail
    - Random guessing is likely to dig you into a deeper hole
- Don't make assumptions (verify them)

# Example Experiments

1. An alternate implementation of a function
  - Run all your test cases afterward
  
2. A new, simpler test case
  - Examples: smaller input, or test a function in isolation
  - Can help you understand the reason for a failure

# Your Scientific Notebook

Record everything you do

- Specific inputs and outputs (both expected and actual)
- Specific versions of the program
  - If you get stuck, you can return to something that works
  - You can write multiple implementations of a function
- What you have already tried
- What you are in the middle of doing now
  - This may look like a stack!
- What you are sure of, and why

Your notebook also helps if you need to get help or reproduce your results.

# Read the Error Message

Traceback (most recent call last):

```
File "nx_error.py", line 41, in <module>
    print(friends_of_friends(rj, myval))
File "nx_error.py", line 30, in friends_of_friends
    f = friends(graph, user)
File "nx_error.py", line 25, in friends
    return set(graph.neighbors(user))#
File "/Library/Frameworks/.../graph.py", line 978, in neighbors
    return list(self.adj[n])
TypeError: unhashable type: 'list'
```

First function that was called (<module> means the interpreter)

Second function that was called

Call stack or traceback

Last function that was called (this one suffered an error)

List of all exceptions (errors):

<http://docs.python.org/3/library/exceptions.html#builtin-exceptions>

Two other resources, with more details about a few of the errors:

<http://inventwithpython.com/appendixd.html>

<http://www.cs.arizona.edu/people/mccann/errors-python>

The error message: daunting but useful.

You need to understand:

- the literal meaning of the error
- the underlying problems certain errors tend to suggest

# Common Error Types

- **AssertionError**
  - Raised when an assert statement fails.
- **IndexError**
  - Raised when a sequence subscript is out of range.
- **KeyError**
  - Raised when a mapping (dictionary) key is not found in the set of existing keys.
- **KeyboardInterrupt**
  - Raised when the user hits the interrupt key (normally Control-C or Delete).

# Common Error Types

- **NameError**
  - Raised when a local or global name is not found.
- **SyntaxError**
  - Raised when the parser encounters a syntax error.
- **IndentationError**
  - Base class for syntax errors related to incorrect indentation.
- **TypeError**
  - Raised when an operation or function is applied to an object of inappropriate type.

# Divide and Conquer



- Where is the defect (or “bug”)?
- Your goal is to find the one place that it is
- Finding a defect is often harder than fixing it
- Initially, the defect might be **anywhere in your program**
  - It is impractical to find it if you have to look everywhere
- Idea: bit by bit **reduce the scope** of your search
- Eventually, the defect is localized to a few lines or one line
  - Then you can understand and fix it





# Divide and Conquer in the Program Code

- Localize the defect to **part of the program**
  - e.g., one function, or one part of a function
- Code that isn't executed cannot contain the defect

# Divide and Conquer in the Program Code

Three approaches:

1. Test one function at a time

# Divide and Conquer in the Program Code

Three approaches:

## 2. Add assertions or print statements

- The defect is executed before the failing assertion (and maybe after a succeeding assertion)

# Divide and Conquer in the Program Code

Three approaches:

## 3. Split complex expressions into simpler ones

Example: Failure in

```
result = set({graph.neighbors(user)})
```

Change it to

```
nbors = graph.neighbors(user)
```

```
nbors_set = {nbors}
```

```
result = set(nbors_set)
```

The error occurs on the "nbors\_set = {nbors}" line

# Divide and Conquer in Test Cases

- Your program fails when run on some large input
  - It's hard to comprehend the error message
  - The log of print statement output is overwhelming
- Try a smaller input
  - Choose an input with some but not all characteristics of the large input
  - Example: duplicates, zeroes in data, ...

# Divide and Conquer in Execution Time via Print (or “logging”) Statements

- A sequence of **print** statements is a record of the execution of your program
- The **print** statements let you see and search multiple moments in time
- Print statements are a useful technique, in moderation
- Be disciplined
  - Too much output is overwhelming rather than informative
  - Remember the scientific method: have a reason (a hypothesis to be tested) for each print statement
  - Don't *only* use print statements

# Divide and Conquer in Development History

- The code used to work (for some test case)
- The code now fails
- The defect is related to some line you changed
  
- This is useful only if you kept a version of the code that worked (use good names!)
- This is most useful if you have made few changes
- Moral: **test often!**
  - Fewer lines to compare
  - You remember what you were thinking/doing recently



# A Metaphor About Debugging

If your code doesn't work as expected, then by definition you don't understand what is going on.

- You're lost in the woods.
- You're behind enemy lines.
- All bets are off.
- Don't trust anyone or anything.

Don't press on into unexplored territory -- go back the way you came! (and leave breadcrumbs!)



*You're trying to "advance the front lines," not "trailblaze"*

# Time-Saving Trick: Make Sure You are Debugging the Right Problem

- The game is to go from “working to working”
- When something doesn’t work, **STOP!**
  - It’s wild out there!
- **FIRST:** Go back to the last situation that worked properly.
  - Rollback your recent changes and verify that everything still works as expected.
  - Don’t make assumptions – by definition, you don’t understand the code when something goes wrong, so you can’t trust your assumptions.
  - You may find that even what previously worked now doesn’t
  - Perhaps you forgot to consider some “innocent” or unintentional change, and now even tested code is broken

# A Bad Timeline

- A works, so celebrate a little
- Now try B
- B doesn't work
- Change B and try again
- Change B and try again
- Change B and try again
- ...



<https://xkcd.com/1739/>

# A Bad Timeline

- A works, so celebrate a little
- Now try B
- B doesn't work
- Change B and try again
- Change B and try again
- Change B and try again
- ...



from [giphy.com](https://giphy.com)

# A Better Timeline

- A works, so celebrate a little
- Now try B
- B doesn't work
- *Rollback to A*
- Does A still work?
  - Yes: Find A' that is somewhere between A and B
  - No: You have *unintentionally changed something else*, and there's no point futzing with B at all!

These “innocent” and unnoticed changes happen more than you would think!

- You add a comment, and the indentation changes.
- You add a print statement, and a function is evaluated twice.
- You move a file, and the wrong one is being read
- You are on a different computer, and the library is a different version

# Once You are on Solid Ground You can Set Out Again

- Once you have **something that works** and **something that doesn't work**, it is only a matter of time
- You just need to incrementally change the working code into the non-working code, and the problem will reveal itself.
- Variation: Perhaps your code works with one input, but fails with another. Incrementally change the good input into the bad input to expose the problem.

# Simple Debugging Tools

## `print`

- shows what is happening whether there is a problem or not
- does not stop execution

## `assert`

- Raises an exception if some condition is not met
- Does nothing if everything works
- Example: `assert len(rj.edges()) == 16`
- Use this liberally! Not just for debugging!



**David Amador**

@DJ\_Link



when a "simple" bug is found and we start looking at the code

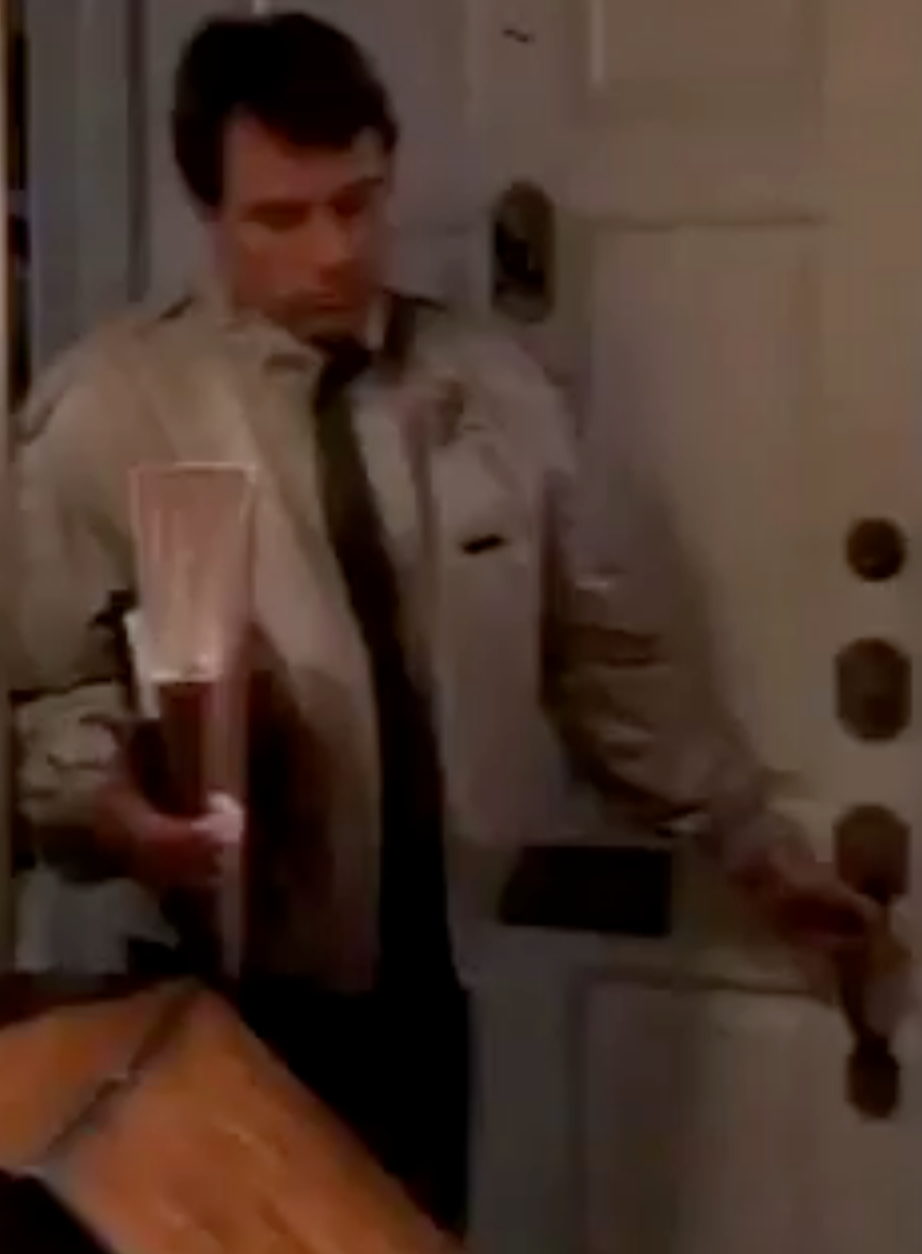
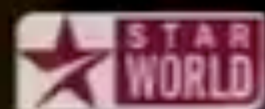


12:22 PM · Jul 3, 2017

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# Lecture Overview

- Debugging
- Exception Handling
- Testing

# What is an Exception?

- An exception is an abnormal condition (and thus rare) that arises in a code sequence at runtime.
- For instance:
  - Dividing a number by zero
  - Accessing an element that is out of bounds of an array
  - Attempting to open a file which does not exist

# What is an Exception?

- When an exceptional condition arises, an object representing that exception is created and thrown in the code that caused the error
- An exception can be caught to handle it or pass it on
- Exceptions can be generated by the run-time system, or they can be manually generated by your code

# What is an Exception?

```
test = [1,2,3]
```

```
test[3]
```

```
IndexError: list index out of range
```

# What is an Exception?

```
successFailureRatio = numSuccesses/numFailures
print('The success/failure ratio is',
      successFailureRatio)
print('Now here')
```

**ZeroDivisionError: integer division or modulo by zero**

# What is an Exception?

```
val = int(input('Enter an integer: '))  
print('The square of the number', val**2)
```

```
> Enter an integer: asd
```

```
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with  
base 10: 'asd'
```

# Handling Exceptions

- Exception mechanism gives the programmer a chance to do something against an abnormal condition.
- Exception handling is performing an action in response to an exception.
- This action may be:
  - Exiting the program
  - Retrying the action with or without alternative data
  - Displaying an error message and warning user to do something
  - ....



# Handling Exceptions

```
try:
    successFailureRatio = numSuccesses/numFailures
    print('The S/F ratio is', successFailureRatio)
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print('No failures, so the S/F is undefined.')
print('Now here')
```

- Upon entering the `try` block, the interpreter attempts to evaluate the expression `numSuccesses/numFailures`.
- If expression evaluation is successful, the assignment is done and the result is printed.
- If, however, a `ZeroDivisionError` exception is raised, the print statement in the `except` block is executed.

# Handling Exceptions

```
while True:
    val = input('Enter an integer: ')
    try:
        val = int(val)
        print('The square of the number', val**2)
        break #to exit the while loop
    except ValueError:
        print(val, 'is not an integer')
```

Checks for whether **ValueError** exception is raised or not

# Keywords of Exception Handling

- There are five keywords in Python to deal with exceptions: **try**, **except**, **else**, **raise** and **finally**.
- **try**: Creates a block to monitor if any exception occurs.
- **except**: Follows the try block and catches any exception which is thrown within it.

# Are There Many Exceptions in Python?

- Yes, some of them are...
  - `Exception`
  - `ArithmeticError`
  - `OverflowError`
  - `ZeroDivisonError`
  - `EOFError`
  - `NameError`
  - `IOError`
  - `SyntaxError`

List of all exceptions (errors):

<http://docs.python.org/3/library/exceptions.html#builtin-exceptions>

# Multiple `except` Statements

- It is possible that more than one exception can be thrown in a code block.
  - We can use multiple **`except`** clauses
- When an exception is thrown, each **`except`** statement is inspected in order, and the first one whose type *matches* that of the exception is executed.
  - Type matching means that the exception thrown must be an object of the same class or a sub-class of the declared class in the **`except`** statement
- After one **`except`** statement executes, the others are bypassed.

# Multiple except Statements

`try:`

You do your operations here;

`except Exception-1:`

Execute this block.

`except Exception-2:`

Execute this block.

`except (Exception-3[, Exception-4[, ...ExceptionN]]) :`

If there is any exception from the given exception list,

then execute this block.

```
except (ValueError, TypeError) :
```

```
...
```

The except block will be entered if any of the listed exceptions is raised within the try block

# Multiple except Statements

```
try:
    f = open('outfile.dat', 'w')
    dividend = 5
    divisor = 0
    division = dividend / divisor
    f.write(str(division))
except IOError:
    print("I can't open the file!")
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("You can't divide by zero!")
```

You can't divide by zero!

# Multiple except Statements

```
try:
    f = open('outfile.dat', 'w')
    dividend = 5
    divisor = 0
    division = dividend / divisor
    f.write(str(division))
except Exception:
    print("Exception occurred and handled!")
except IOError:
    print("I can't open the file!")
except ZeroDivisionError:
    print("You can't divide by zero!")
```

Exception occurred and handled!



# Multiple except Statements

```
try:
```

```
    f = open('outfile.dat', 'w')
    dividend = 5
    divisor = 0
    division = dividend / divisor
    f.write(str(division))
```

```
except:
```

```
    print("Exception occurred and handled!")
```

```
except IOError:
```

```
    print("I can't open the file!")
```

```
except ZeroDivisionError:
```

```
    print("You can't divide by zero!")
```

**SyntaxError: default 'except:' must be last**

# except-else Statements

**try:**

You do your operations here

**except:**

Execute this block.

**else:**

If there is no exception, execute this block.

```
try:
    f = open(arg, 'r')
except IOError:
    print('cannot open', arg)
else:
    print(arg, 'has', len(f.readlines()), 'lines')
```

# `finally` Statement

- `finally` creates a block of code that will be executed after a `try/except` block has completed and before the code following the `try/except` block
- `finally` block is executed whether or not exception is thrown
- `finally` block is executed whether or not exception is caught
- It is used to guarantee that a code block will be executed in any condition.

# finally Statement

You can use it to clean up files, database connections, etc.

**try:**

You do your operations here

**except:**

Execute this block.

**finally:**

This block will definitely be executed.

```
try:
    file = open('out.txt', 'w')
    do something...
finally:
    file.close()
    os.path.remove('out.txt')
```

# Nested `try` Blocks

- When an exception occurs inside a `try` block;
  - If the `try` block does not have a matching `except`, then the outer `try` statement's `except` clauses are inspected for a match
  - If a matching `except` is found, that `except` block is executed
  - If no matching `except` exists, execution flow continues to find a matching `except` by inspecting the outer `try` statements
  - If a matching `except` cannot be found at all, the exception will be caught by Python's exception handler.
- Execution flow never returns to the line that exception was thrown. This means, an exception is caught and `except` block is executed, the flow will continue with the lines following this `except` block

# Let's clarify it on various scenarios

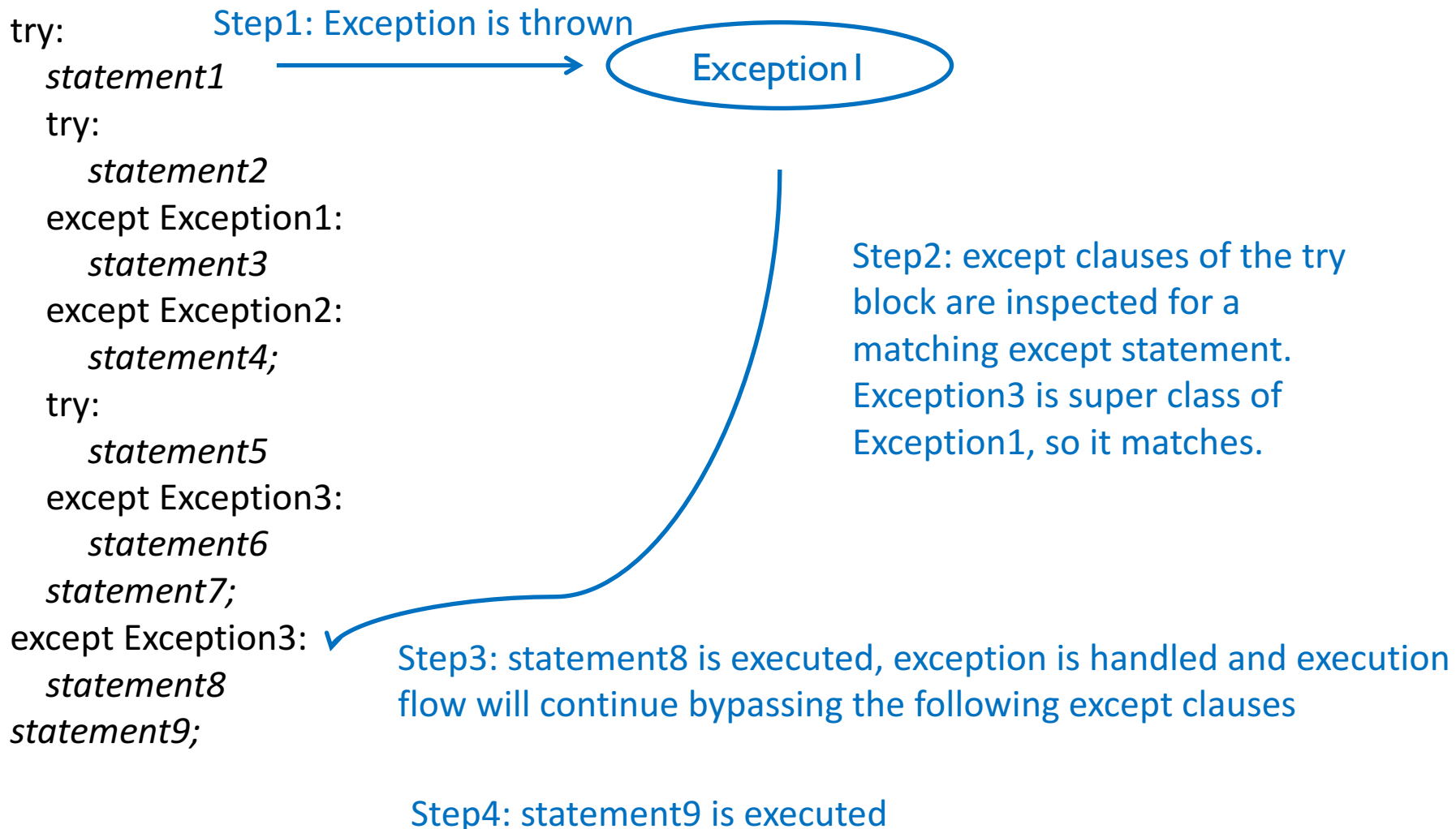
```
try:
    statement1
    try:
        statement2
    except Exception1:
        statement3
    except Exception2:
        statement4;
    try:
        statement5
    except Exception3:
        statement6
    statement7;
except Exception3:
    statement8
statement9;
```

**Information:** Exception1 and Exception2 are subclasses of Exception3

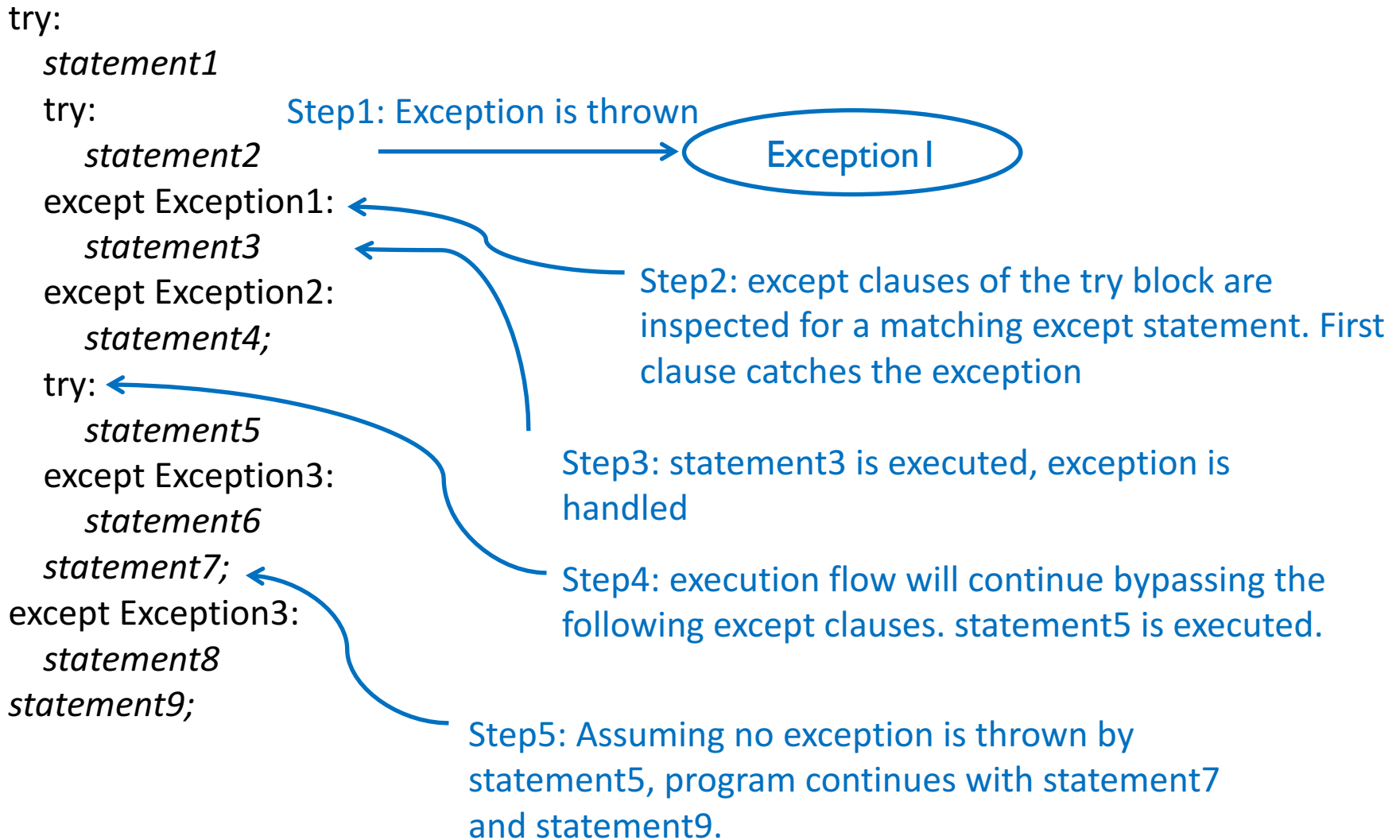
**Question:** Which statements are executed if

- 1- *statement1* throws Exception1
- 2- *statement2* throws Exception1
- 3- *statement2* throws Exception3
- 4- *statement2* throws Exception1 and *statement3* throws Exception2

# Scenario: statement1 throws Exception1

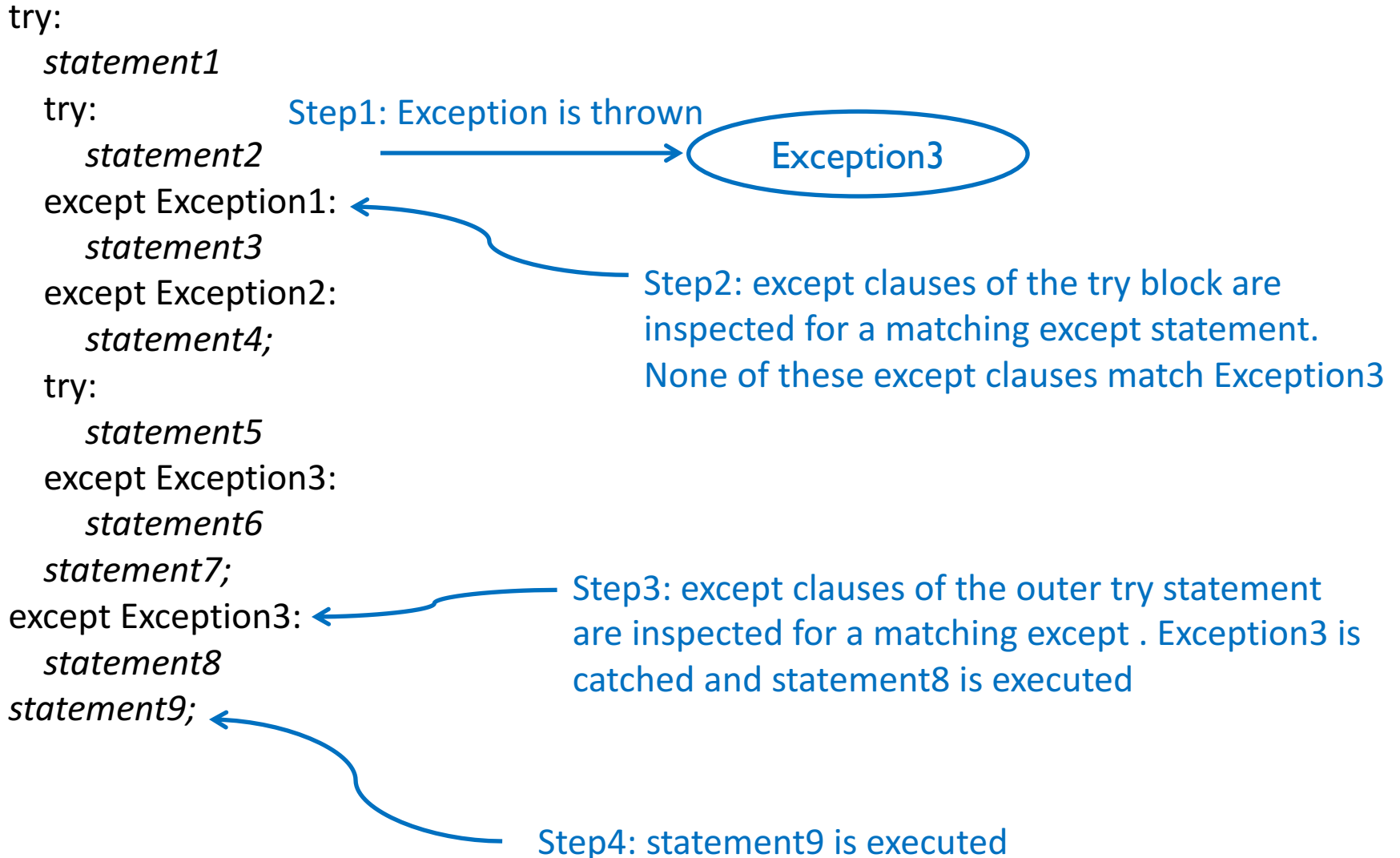


# Scenario: statement2 throws Exception1

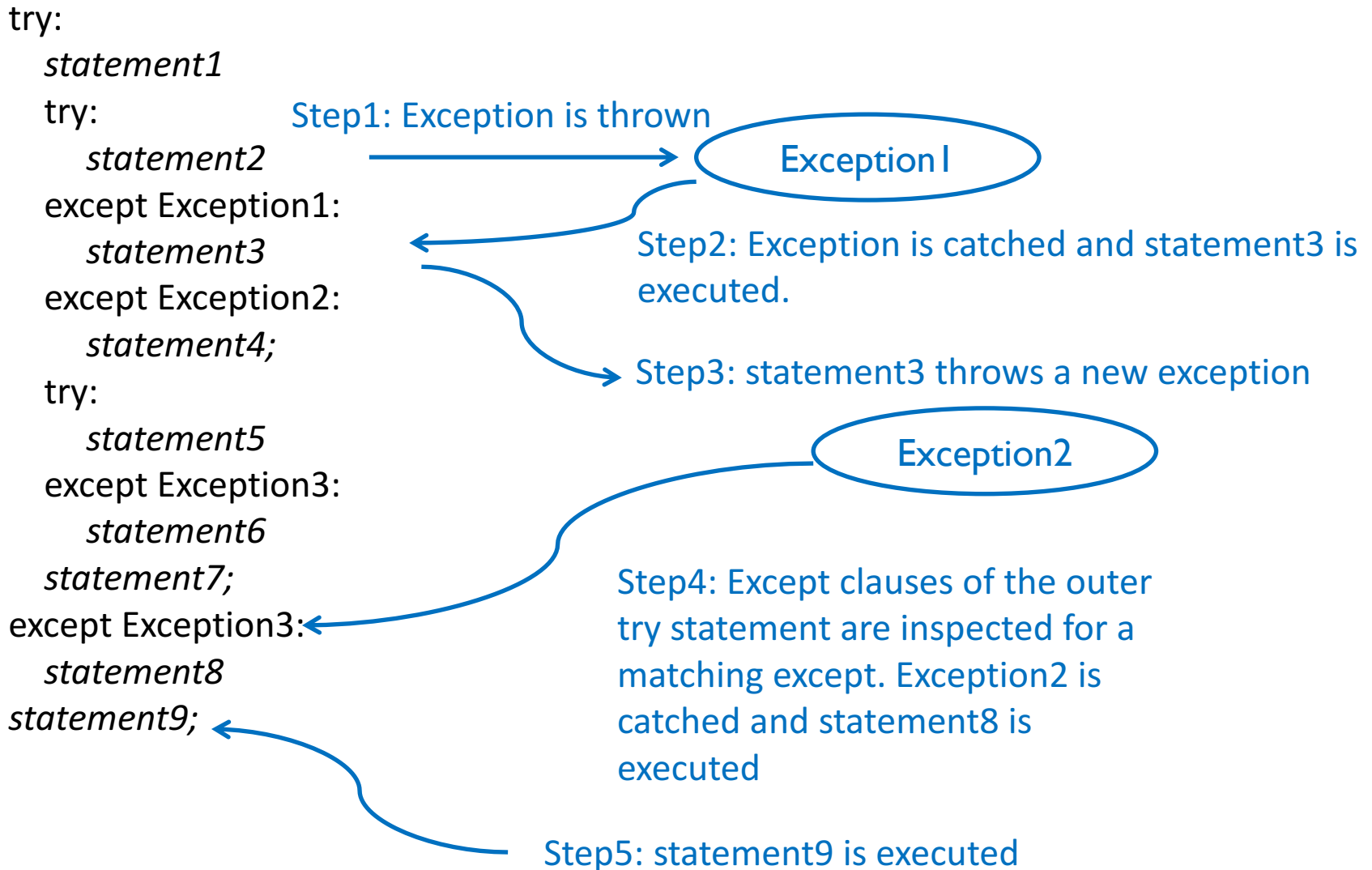




# Scenario: statement2 throws Exception3



# Scenario: statement2 throws Exception1 and statement3 throws Exception2



# **raise** Statement

- You can raise exceptions by using the **raise** statement.
- The syntax is as follows:  
**raise exceptionName (arguments)**

# raise Statement

```
def getRatios(vect1, vect2):
    ratios = []
    for index in range(len(vect1)):
        try:
            ratios.append(vect1[index]/vect2[index])
        except ZeroDivisionError:
            ratios.append(float('nan')) #nan = Not a Number
        except:
            raise ValueError('getRatios called with bad arguments')
    return ratios

try:
    print(getRatios([1.0, 2.0, 7.0, 6.0], [1.0,2.0,0.0,3.0]))
    print(getRatios([], []))
    print(getRatios([1.0, 2.0], [3.0]))
except ValueError as msg:
    print(msg)
```

```
[1.0, 1.0, nan, 2.0]
[]
getRatios called with bad arguments
```

# raise Statement

- Avoid raising a generic **Exception**! To catch it, you'll have to catch all other more specific exceptions that subclass it..

```
def demo_bad_catch():
    try:
        raise ValueError('a hidden bug, do not catch this')
        raise Exception('This is the exception you expect to handle')
    except Exception as error:
        print('caught this error: ' + repr(error))

>>> demo_bad_catch()
caught this error: ValueError('a hidden bug, do not catch this',)
```

# raise Statement

- and more specific catches won't catch the general exception:..

```
def demo_no_catch():
    try:
        raise Exception('general exceptions not caught by specific handling')
    except ValueError as e:
        print('we will not catch e')
```

```
>>> demo_no_catch()
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
  File "<stdin>", line 3, in demo_no_catch
Exception: general exceptions not caught by specific handling
```

# Custom Exceptions

- Users can define their own exception by creating a new class in Python.
- This exception class has to be derived, either directly or indirectly, from Exception class.
- Most of the built-in exceptions are also derived from this class.

# Custom Exceptions

```
class ValueErrorTooSmallError(Exception):  
    """Raised when the input value is too small"""  
    pass
```

```
class ValueErrorTooLargeError(Exception):  
    """Raised when the input value is too large"""  
    pass
```



# Custom Exceptions

```
number = 10 # you need to guess this number
```

```
while True:
```

```
    try:
```

```
        i_num = int(input("Enter a number: "))
```

```
        if i_num < number:
```

```
            raise ValueError
```

```
        elif i_num > number:
```

```
            raise ValueError
```

```
        break
```

```
    except ValueError:
```

```
        print("This value is too small, try again!")
```

```
    except ValueError:
```

```
        print("This value is too large, try again!")
```

```
print("Congratulations! You guessed it correctly.")
```

# Lecture Overview

- Debugging
- Exception Handling
- Testing

# Testing

- Programming to analyze data is powerful
- It is useless if the results are not correct
- **Correctness is far more important than speed**

# Famous Examples

- Ariane 5 rocket
  - On June 4, 1996, the maiden flight of the European Ariane 5 launcher crashed about 40 seconds after takeoff.
  - Media reports indicated that the amount lost was half a billion dollars
  - The explosion was the result of a software error
- Therac-25 radiation therapy machine
  - In 1985 a Canadian-built radiation-treatment device began blasting holes through patients' bodies.



# Testing does not Prove Correctness

- Edsger Dijkstra: “Program testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!”

# Testing = Double-Checking Results

- How do you know your program is right?
  - Compare its output to a correct output
- How do you know a correct output?
  - Real data is big
  - You wrote a computer program because it is not convenient to compute it by hand
- Use small inputs so you can compute by hand

- Example: standard deviation

– What are good tests for `std_dev`?

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

# Testing ≠ Debugging

- **Testing:** Determining **whether** your program is correct
  - Doesn't say **where** or **how** your program is incorrect
- **Debugging:** Locating the specific defect in your program, and fixing it
  - 2 key ideas:
    - divide and conquer
    - the scientific method

# What is a Test?

- A test consists of:
  - an **input**: sometimes called “test data”
  - an **oracle**: a predicate (boolean expression) of the output



# What is a Test?

- Example test for **sum**:
  - input: [1, 2, 3]
  - oracle: result is 6
  - write the test as: `sum([1, 2, 3]) == 6`
- Example test for **sqrt**:
  - input: 3.14
  - oracle: result is within 0.00001 of 1.772
  - ways to write the test:
    - `-0.00001 < sqrt(3.14) - 1.772 < 0.00001`
    - `math.abs(sqrt(3.14) - 1.772) < 0.00001`

# Test Results

- The test **passes** if the boolean expression evaluates to **True**
- The test **fails** if the boolean expression evaluates to **False**
- Use the **assert** statement:
  - `assert sum([1, 2, 3]) == 6`
  - `assert True` does nothing
  - `assert False` crashes the program and prints a message

# Where to Write Test Cases

- At the **top level**: is run every time you load your program

```
def hypotenuse(a, b):
```

```
...
```

```
    assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5
```

```
    assert hypotenuse(5, 12) == 13
```

- In a **test function**: is run when you invoke the function

```
def hypotenuse(a, b):
```

```
...
```

```
def test_hypotenuse():
```

```
    assert hypotenuse(3, 4) == 5
```

```
    assert hypotenuse(5, 12) == 13
```

# Assertions are not Just for Test Cases

- Use assertions throughout your code
- Documents what you think is true about your algorithm
- Lets you know immediately when something goes wrong
  - The longer between a code mistake and the programmer noticing, the harder it is to debug

# Assertions Make Debugging Easier

- Common, but unfortunate, course of events:
  - Code contains a mistake (incorrect assumption or algorithm)
  - Intermediate value (e.g., result of a function call) is incorrect
  - That value is used in other computations, or copied into other variables
  - Eventually, the user notices that the overall program produces a wrong result
  - Where is the mistake in the program? It could be anywhere.
- Suppose you had 10 assertions evenly distributed in your code
  - When one fails, you can localize the mistake to 1/10 of your code (the part between the last assertion that passes and the first one that fails)

# Where to Write Assertions

- Function entry: Are arguments legal?
  - Place blame on the caller before the function fails
- Function exit: Is result correct?
- Places with tricky or interesting code
- Assertions are ordinary statements; e.g., can appear within a loop:

```
for n in myNumbers:  
    assert type(n) == int or type(n) == float
```

# Where *not* to Write Assertions

- Don't clutter the code
  - Same rule as for comments
- Don't write assertions that are certain to succeed
  - The existence of an assertion tells a programmer that it might possibly fail
- Don't write an assertion if the following code would fail informatively

```
assert type(name) == str
print("Hello, " + name)
```

- Write assertions where they may be useful for debugging

# What to Write Assertions About

- Results of computations
- Correctly-formed data structures

```
assert 0 <= index < len(mylist)
assert len(list1) == len(list2)
```



# When to Write Tests

- Two possibilities:
  - Write code first, then write tests
  - Write tests first, then write code

# When to Write Tests

- If you write the **code first**, you remember the implementation while writing the tests
  - You are likely to make the same mistakes in the implementation

# When to Write Tests

- If you write the **tests first**, you will think more about the functionality than about a particular implementation
  - You might notice some aspect of behavior that you would have made a mistake about
  - This is the better choice

# Write the Whole Test

- A common **mistake**:
  1. Write the function
  2. Make up test inputs
  3. Run the function
  4. Use the result as the oracle
- You didn't write a test, but only half of a test
  - Created the tests inputs, but not the oracle
- The test does not determine whether the function is correct
  - Only determines that it continues to be as correct (or incorrect) as it was before

# Testing Approaches

- **Black box testing** - Choose test data *without* looking at implementation
- **Glass box (white box, clear box) testing** - Choose test data *with* knowledge of implementation

# Inside Knowledge might be Nice

- Assume the code below:

```
c = a + b
if c > 100
    print("Tested")
print("Passed")
```

- Creating a test case with a=40 and b=70 is not enough
  - Although every line of the code will be executed
- Another test case with a=40 and b=30 would complete the test

# Tests might not Reveal an Error Sometimes

```
def mean(numbers):  
    """Returns the average of the argument list.  
    The argument must be a non-empty number list."""  
    return sum(numbers)//len(numbers)  
  
# Tests  
assert mean([1, 2, 3, 4, 5]) == 3  
assert mean([1, 2, 3]) == 2
```

This implementation is elegant, but **wrong!**

`mean([1,2,3,4])` → **would return 2.5!!!**

# Last but not Least, Don't Write Meaningless Tests

```
def mean(numbers):  
    """Returns the average of the argument list.  
    The argument must be a non-empty number list."""  
    return sum(numbers)//len(numbers)
```

Unnecessary tests. **Don't write these:**

```
mean([1, 2, "hello"])  
mean("hello")  
mean([])
```