

# Classification Techniques Use to Empirically Validate Redundancy Metrics as Reliability Indicators based on Fault-proneness Attribute

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**Keywords:** Software Reliability, Software Redundancy Metrics, Software Metrics Validation, Fault-proneness.


**Abstract:** Software metrics are proposed as quantitative measures of internal quality factors like cohesion and complexity. For the external ones such as reliability and maintainability, they are usually predicted by means of various metrics of internal attributes. In this context, we have focused on a suite of four entropy-based software redundancy metrics considered as software reliability indicators. Despite their important purpose, they are manually computed and only theoretically validated. Hence, we have implemented an empirical approach for assessing these metrics, using a set of programs retrieved from real software projects. Given that software reliability as external attribute, cannot be directly evaluated, we employ other measurable quality factors representing direct reflections of this attribute. Among them, defect density and fault-proneness are widely used as means to measure and predict software reliability based on software metrics. The basic idea is to generate an empirical dataset embodying for each program, the values of the redundancy metrics and the values of one of these measurable attributes. In our previous work, we have studied their relationship with the defect density attribute in order to validate them as useful reliability indicators. Promising results indicating the usefulness of these metrics as defect density indicators are obtained. Classifying modules (functions or classes) as defective or not defective is also an important reliability indicator. Literature review shows that software reliability counts on its fault-prone modules and more trusted software consists of less fault-prone units. Therefore, we aim in this paper to propose an empirical approach to validate the redundancy metrics as significant reliability indicators. The validation is carried out using the accuracy measure and results show that the fault proneness attribute can be predicted using the redundancy metrics with a good accuracy rate of 0.82.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

One common way to verify and validate software quality is software testing which consists on identifying software faults (Lyu et al., 1996). This process takes too much time and requires a large amount of resources (Gondra, 2008). Therefore, methodologies of predicting software quality prior the testing phase are required to increase the efficiency of time, effort and cost usage. Software quality prediction requires the development of a measurement plan providing the needed data on software factors (Arvanitou et al., 2017). Software quality measurement consists on assigning numbers or symbols to software factors to evaluate their performance using software metrics (Nakai et al., 2016; Fenton and Bieman, 2014). These metrics provide quantitative values of different software factors related to the process and product

entities. In addition, they are used to develop quality prediction models (Reddivari and Raman, 2019). Most of software metrics were defined to evaluate internal quality attributes including coupling and complexity (Chidamber and Kemerer, 1994). For external attributes like reliability and maintainability, their measurement was usually determined by combining different metrics measuring internal characteristics (Briand and Wüst, 2002; Jabangwe et al., 2015). According to (Fenton and Bieman, 2014), external attributes are more difficult to understand than internal ones since they depend on the program behaviour and they are available at later phases of the development process. Thus, further studies focusing on the prediction of these attributes still required. Authors in (Mili et al., 2014) proposed a suite of metrics to monitor software reliability by evaluating the code redundancy based on Shannon entropy measure. The main limitation of this suite is the lack of an empirical validation showing its utility

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as reliability indicator. As software reliability is an external attribute that cannot be directly evaluated, we have focused on measurable attributes that reflect it to address this issue. In our previous work (Amara et al., 2021), we have studied the relationship between the redundancy metrics and the defect density attribute in order to validate them as useful reliability indicators. Promising results indicating the usefulness of these metrics as defect density indicators are obtained. Fault-proneness was also identified as an important reliability indicator (Gondra, 2008; Singh et al., 2018). Authors in (Verma and Kumar, 2017) noted that software reliability counts on its fault-prone modules; more trusted software consists of less faultprone units. Thus, it will be possible to monitor software reliability by predicting the number of faultprone modules based on software metrics (Gyimothy et al., 2005; Olague et al., 2007; Jabangwe et al., 2015).

Therefore, we aim in this paper to use the fault-proneness attribute to answer this question: Are redundancy metrics useful for software reliability prediction? To perform the empirical assessment and validation of the redundancy metrics, the data collection phase is required. For that step, Apache Common Mathematics Library was deployed in this research. Given its availability, two main elements of data are obtained:

- Different classes satisfying the redundancy metrics' assumption (Metrics are computed at method-level. These methods manipulate input and output variables. This means programs with input states represented by the declared variables and output states represented by the modified states of these variables (Mili et al., 2014)) are selected to compute them in order to construct an empirical data set containing the values of these metrics.
- The bug information of the selected classes needed to compute the values of the fault-proneness attribute was unavailable. Therefore, a fault injection procedure was used to obtain them and to perform the empirical validation of the redundancy metrics. Thus, in this study, the dataset we used to perform our validation and to train and evaluate the classification models contains the values of the redundancy metrics for each function and the related fault-proneness (0 or 1) attribute.

Different experiments based on classification techniques are conducted to address these issues. The validation is carried out using the accuracy measure and results confirm the predictive capability of the redundancy metrics for software fault prediction.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 summarizes the purpose of the redundancy metrics and provides an overview of software fault-proneness prediction. Section 3 presents the empirical validation approach, the data set collection and analysis procedures. Section 4 describes the performed experiments and results. Section 5 presents the discussion and threats to validity. Finally, Section 6 includes the conclusion.

## 2 RELATED WORKS

In this section, we present the purpose of the redundancy metrics. We also provide an overview of software fault prediction using software metrics.

### 2.1 Software Reliability

Software reliability is an important software quality attribute defined as the probability of failure-free operation for a specified period of time in a specified environment. It can be described by other sub-characteristics like maturity, availability, fault tolerance and recoverability (Febrero et al., 2016; Amara and Rabai, 2017). For (Bansiya and Davis, 2002), it is one of high-level quality attributes that cannot be directly observed and measured.

Different models based on direct metrics were proposed to predict it (Catal and Diri, 2009; Radjenović et al., 2013). These models used software metrics (called independent variables) to evaluate measurable reliability attributes (called dependent variable) like defect density, fault-proneness and defect count (Briand and Wüst, 2002). Authors in (Mili et al., 2014) also proposed a suite of four metrics to monitor programs reliability based on their redundancy. Different forms of software redundancy were defined including information redundancy (code redundancy) (Shannon, 2001), functional redundancy (Asghari et al., 2018) and time redundancy (Dubrova, 2013). The redundancy metrics proposed by (Mili et al., 2014) assess the information redundancy provided by the different states of the program (Shannon, 2001). These states reflect the uncertainty about the outcome of the program' variables. The terminology related to program states includes (Mili et al., 2014):

- Software program state: is the set of values given by its variables which may change by one or more actions (functions) of the program.
- State space: is the set of values taken by the declared program variables.

- Initial state space: is the state of the program represented by its input variables.
- Current state (actual state): represents the different states that the program may be in at any given point in the program.
- Final state space: represents the state of the program that is produced by its outputs for the relevant initial states.
- State redundancy: the extra range of values allowed by a program than it is needed to represent the program states. The state redundancy is represented by the initial and final state redundancy metrics defined above.

Example 1 illustrates these definitions.

---

Example 1: Let a program (method)  $g$  defined by:

---

```
int s; /*state space of g*/
s=2; /* initial state of g */
s=s+1; /*internal state 1 of g*/
s=2*s; /* internal state 2 of g*/
s=ss=s+12; /* final state of g */
```

---

## 2.2 Software Redundancy Metrics Suite

Redundancy metrics were defined based on Shannon entropy measure of programs code (Shannon, 2001). Four metrics were defined which are initial state redundancy, final state redundancy, functional redundancy and non-injectivity (Mili et al., 2014).

### 2.2.1 Initial and Final State Redundancy Metrics

The state redundancy represents the gap between the declared state and the actual state (really used) of a program (Mili et al., 2014; Ayad et al., 2018). For instance, the age of an employee is generally declared as an integer variable type. However, only a restrict range i.e between 0 and 120 is really required. This means that 7 bits are sufficient to store the age variable but the typical 32 bits size of an integer variable is used. The unused bits measure the code redundancy. The program moves from its initial states ( $\sigma_1$ ) to its final states ( $\sigma_f$ ), then two state redundancy measures namely initial state redundancy (ISR) and final state redundancy (FSR) were defined by:

$$ISR(g) = \frac{H(S) - H(\sigma_1)}{H(S)} \quad (1)$$

$$FSR(g) = \frac{H(S) - H(\sigma_f)}{H(S)} \quad (2)$$

### Notation:

ISR is the gap between the declared state and the initial state of the program.

FSR is the gap between the declared state and the final state of the program

$S$  is the program' declared state represented by its all declared variables.

$H(S)$  is the state space of the program as the maximum entropy (bits) taken by its declared variables.

$\sigma_1$  is the initial state of the program  $g$ , represented by its input variables.

$H(\sigma_f)$  is the state space (entropy) of the initial program' state.

$\sigma_f$  is the final state of the program given by its output variables.

$H(\sigma_f)$  is the entropy of the final program' state.

To compute the state redundancy (SR) metric (ISR and FSR), each data type is mapped to its width in bits. For instance, for Java language, the entropy of variable declarations of basic data types is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Entropy for basic data type.

Data type	Entropy
Boolean	1
Byte	8
Char, short	16
Int, float	32
Double, long	64

---

Example 2: Let a program (method)  $g$  defined by:

---

```
int x, y, z; //the program state is represented by x, y
and z variables
x= 21; // initial state of x
y= 90; // initial state of y
z=(x+y)/2; // final state
```

---

The declared space of this program is defined by three integer variables;  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ , hence, using the metrics definitions,  $H(S) = 96$  bits since 3 integer variables are used. Its initial state is defined by three variables;  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ . The input variables  $x$  and  $y$  require respectively 5 and 7 bits to be stored. The output variable  $z$  has a free range (32 bits). Hence  $H(\sigma_1) = 5+7+32= 44$  bits. For the final state, is determined by the state of the variable  $z$  (its entropy),  $H(\sigma_f) = H((21+90)/2)=6$  bits, then:  $ISR = (96-44)/96 = 0.54$   $FSR = (96-6)/96 = 0.93$

### 2.2.2 Functional Redundancy Metric (FR)

According to (Mili et al., 2014; Ayad et al., 2018), the functional redundancy metric is a function from initial states to final states. It reflects how initial states are mapped to final states. For a program (function)  $g$ , FR is the ratio of the output data delivered by  $g$  prorated to the input data received by  $g$  and given by:

$$FR = \frac{H(Y)}{H(X)} \quad (3)$$

#### Notation

- $X$  is a random variable representing the program' input data.
- $Y$  is a random variable that represents the program' output data.
- $H(Y)$  is the entropy of the output data delivered by  $g$
- $H(X)$  is the entropy of input data passed through parameters, global variables, read statements, etc.

In Example 2,  $H(S) = 96$  bits. The Random variable  $Y$  is defined by the integer variable  $z$  represented by 32 bits. Then,  $H(Y) = \log_2(2^{32}) = 32$ bits.  $H(X)$  is the input data received by  $g$  and represented by the two integer variables  $x$  and  $y$ . Then,  $H(X) = 2 * \log_2(2^{32}) = 64$ bits. FR is given by :

$$FR = \frac{32}{64} = 0.5$$

### 2.2.3 Non-injectivity (NI)

According to (Catal and Dir, 2009), a major source of program (function) redundancy is its non-injectivity. An injective function is a function whose value changes whenever its argument does. A function is non-injective when it maps several distinct arguments (initial states  $\sigma_1$ ) into the same image (final states  $\sigma_f$ ). NI was defined by:

$$NI = \frac{H(\sigma_1|\sigma_f)}{H(\sigma_1)} = \frac{H(\sigma_1) - H(\sigma_f)}{H(\sigma_1)} \quad (4)$$

In Example 2, NI is equal to  $(44-6)/44=0.86$ .

## 2.3 Overview of Software Fault-proneness Prediction

Fault-proneness consists on classifying modules (functions or classes) as defective or not defective (Singh et al., 2018). For (Rathore and Kumar, 2017; Kumar et al., 2017), software fault prediction (SFP) consists on identifying faulty modules as software

parts containing faults. This attribute was usually estimated and predicted using predictive models comprised of software metrics (Gondra, 2008). The early application of these models helps reducing the testing effort (Singh et al., 2018) as the identified defect-prone parts are tested with more rigor compared to other ones. In addition, effective resource allocation and reduction in cost and development time will be obtained (Kalaivani and Beena, 2018).

Different software fault prediction models have been studied since 1990. The development of these models was performed using classification techniques as fault-proneness attribute consists on classifying modules (functions or classes) as defective or not defective. These models play a crucial role in understanding, evaluating and improving the quality of software systems. According to (Singh et al., 2018), the early application of these models helps to reduce the testing effort as testing activities will be planned. Also, the parts of software system identified as defect-prone will be tested with more rigor in comparison to other system parts (Gondra, 2008). In the same context, (Kalaivani and Beena, 2018) noted that the early identification of faulty software parts provides an effective resource allocation and reduces the cost and time of software development. Numerous studies were defined to predict this attribute based on software metrics.

(Menzie et al., 2004) conducted an experiment where different fault prediction models were constructed using CART, NB and J48 algorithms over different projects taken from PROMISE repository. Results showed that the performance provided by NB is better than that is provided by J48.

(Olague et al., 2007) investigated six different versions of Mozilla Rhino project. The goal of the study was to study the ability of C&K, QMOOD, MOOD suites of metrics in predicting faulty modules. They applied the Univariate and multivariate binary logistic regression to the cited suites. The authors concluded that C&K and QMOOD suites are very useful for fault prediction by contrast to the MOOD.

(Zhou et al., 2010) examined C&K metrics suite for a defect prediction models based on LR, NB, RF algorithms. The data set under study consists on KC1 project taken from NASA data set. The objective was to predict the severity of faults. Authors concluded that the best fault prediction is achieved by most of C&K metrics expected NOC.

(Catal and Dir, 2009) conducted a comparative analysis to study the efficiency of RF and NB algorithms in predicting fault-proneness modules. Authors examined C&K metrics suite taken from NASA data sets. Results showed that for large data sets, RF,



provides the best prediction, whereas, for small data sets, NB provides best results.

(He et al., 2015) compared the performance of LR, J48, NB, SVM, DT and BN algorithms in predicting faulty classes. They examined 34 releases obtained from 10 open source PROMISE projects. Authors concluded that SVM and DT perform well in predicting faulty classes.

(Kaur and Kaur, 2018) compared the performance of Bagging, J48, DT, RF and NB classifiers. They constructed different defect prediction models based on C&K and QMOOD metrics. Authors concluded that only Bagging and J48 are the best defect predictors.

(Lomio et al., 2021) have also compared the performance of Machine and Deep Learning models in predicting faults. They have conducted a case study among 33 Java projects and results showed that deep learning provide a more accurate fault detection accuracy.

## 2.4 Formulation of the Research Hypothesis

The presented fault prediction studies highlighted the usefulness and the effectiveness of classification techniques in fault-proneness prediction. Thus, to validate the redundancy metrics as reliability indicators using fault-proneness attribute, we have designed the following hypotheses:

- **H1 (Alternative Hypothesis):** redundancy metrics are significant indicators of software fault-proneness attribute.
- **H2 (Null Hypothesis):** there is no significant relationship between the redundancy metrics and fault-proneness attribute.

Through these hypothesis, we aim to verify if a relationship between the different metrics and fault-proneness attribute exists in order to confirm their utility in monitoring software reliability.

## 3 EMPIRICAL VALIDATION OF REDUNDANCY METRICS AS FAULT-PRONENESS INDICATORS

### 3.1 Empirical Validation Approach

According to (Rathore and Kumar, 2017; Kumar et al., 2017), the fault prediction was conducted based on three main steps:

1. Data set collection and exploration. This step consists on collecting data related to software metrics and faults.
2. Data set analysis and models building. This step consists on performing the data set analysis, data splitting into learn and test sets and models building.
3. Models performance evaluation. Numerous evaluation measures were defined to evaluate the overall performance of the prediction models.

### 3.2 Data Set Collection

The development of fault prediction models starts by data set collection phase that requires two main elements; software metrics and software faults. Data related to these elements can include data from similar software projects or existed software metrics and historical fault data-sets of previous projects (Turabieh et al., 2019). In this paper, the fault-proneness attribute indicating whether a module is fault-free (0) or fault-prone (1) will be considered to perform our validation work. As explained in our previous work (Amara et al., 2021), as redundancy metrics are computed from the programs states manipulated by its variables, software classes containing functions of input/output types were selected. This means programs (functions) with input states represented by the declared variables and output states represented by modified states of these variables. We have focused on Apache Commons Math library (<https://commons.apache.org/>) (Kumar and Rathore, 2018) to selected different classes from which the metrics were computed.

To select the needed repository, we have considered Apache Commons products library which respects all our requirements and hypothesis. Then, from the selected repository, we have considered a set 43 classes (see (Amara et al., 2021)) containing functions manipulating variables in the input and the output state. A description of each class and its related function is available at <http://commons.apache.org/proper/commonsmath/javadocs/api-3.6/>. As this library contains only the source code and the associated unit tests, we have used fault injection procedure to obtain the fault-proneness values.

One of the well-known fault injection techniques is mutation testing which consists on automatically seeding into each class' code a number of faults (or mutations). The fault injection procedure is used to obtain fault data set. This prevents us to compute fault-proneness values at the class-level as all of the classes contain faults. Therefore, we ought to com-

pute this attribute at the function-level. The redundancy metrics will be also computed at this level leading to increase the size of our data set. Details of the redundancy metrics and fault-proneness computing are described in the subsequent sub-sections.

### 3.2.1 Redundancy Metrics Collection

We have computed the redundancy metrics at the function-level of each class as all classes will contain faults. The process we used to compute these metrics consists of the following steps:

- For each class, we have considered each function separately to generate the different metrics.
- For each function, we have focused on its input and output variables. Then, we have computed the metrics for random inputs using their equations (1) to (4).
- The output of this process is an Excel file in which the four redundancy metrics values of the different functions of each class were saved.

These steps were performed using the Eclipse development environment (version: Neon.3 Release (4.6.3)). Details of metrics computing are available in (Amara et al., 2021).

### 3.2.2 Fault Data Set Collection

Software fault-proneness attribute is a direct reflection of software reliability since as noted by (Karimian and Babamir, 2017; Reddivari and Raman, 2019), more trusted software consists of less fault-prone units. Software fault prediction (SFP) consists on classifying modules (functions or classes) as defective or not defective by identifying the faulty modules as software parts containing faults (Singh et al., 2018; Rathore and Kumar, 2017; Turabieh et al., 2019). According to (Gondra, 2008), this attribute can be estimated and predicted using prediction models based on software metrics.

Fault injection procedure is performed based on automated mutation tools like MuJava, MuEclipse, PiTest and much more (Delahaye and Du Bousquet, 2013). In our research work, PiTest is used within Maven environment. To inject faults, we have adopted the following steps:

- All possible faults which are active by default in PiTest are injected into the source code of the selected classes. These faults include the replacement of binary arithmetic operations by another ones (+ by -, - by +, \* by /, / by \*), etc.
- PiTest runs, and related reports are generated. They indicate for each function, the type and the location of the injected fault.

- PiTest reports are analyzed to identify for each function whether it is fault-free or not. Thus, we have determined the value of fault-proneness attribute (1 or 0) as follows:

- If all injected faults are detected (killed), then the function is not defective (killed) and the value 0 (fault-free) is assigned to fault-proneness attribute of this function. An example of non-defective function is depicted in Figure 1.

```

474 public static int lcm(int a, int b) throws MathArithmeticException {
475     if (a == 0 || b == 0){
476         return 0;
477     }
478     int lcm = FastMath.abs(ArithmeticUtils.mulAndCheck(a / gcd(a, b), b));
479     if (lcm == Integer.MIN_VALUE) {
480         throw new MathArithmeticException(LocalizedFormats.LCM_OVERFLOW_32_BITS,
481             a, b);
482     }
483     1. lcm : replaced return of integer sized value with (x == 0 ? 1 : 0) → KILLED
484 }

```

Figure 1: Non-Defective method (all injected faults are detected).

- If at least one of the injected faults is masked (survived), then this function is considered as defective and the value 1 is assigned to the attribute fault-proneness for this function. An example of defective function is depicted in Figure 2.

```

public static double erf(double x) {
2   if (FastMath.abs(x) > 40) {
3       return x > 0 ? 1 : -1;
    }
1   final double ret = Gamma.regularizedGammaP(0.5, x * x, 1.0e-15, 10000);
4   return x < 0 ? -ret : ret;
}

```

1. erf : changed conditional boundary → SURVIVED  
2. erf : removed negation → KILLED  
3. erf : negated conditional → KILLED  
4. erf : replaced return of double value with -(x + 1) for org/apache/commons/math3/special/Erf:erf → KILLED

Figure 2: Defective method (There is at least one masked fault from those injected).

The final obtained data set contains for each method the values of the redundancy metrics and the associated fault proneness attribute indicating whether this function contains faults (1) or not (0).

## 3.3 Data Set Analysis

In this section, we have performed the data exploration and correlation analysis. Data exploration is an important step required before the application of classification techniques to analyze the data set. Thus, we visualize in Figure 3, the percentage of fault-prone (1) and no-fault prone (0) functions. Figure 3 shows that

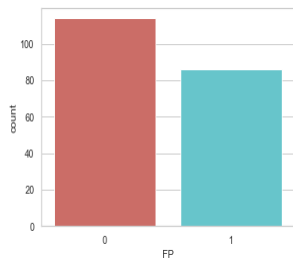


Figure 3: Data exploration.

43% of functions in the selected classes are defective and 57% are fault-free.

We have used the correlation matrix to identify the correlation between the independent variables; ISR, FSR, FR and NI. The objective is to consider metrics which are not inter-correlated in order to achieve better model accuracy. Results are illustrated in Figure 4. Figure 4 shows a strong correlation between ISR and

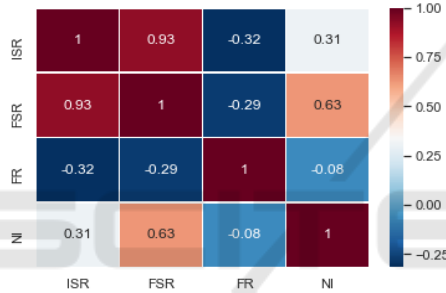


Figure 4: Pearson correlation coefficients between the independent variables.

FSR as their correlation coefficient is strong and equal to 0.93. FSR and NI have also significant correlation as their correlation coefficient is 0.63. Therefore, FSR will be omitted in our prediction. ISR and FSR metrics are strongly correlated as the FSR metric is computed using the value of  $H(\sigma_f)$  which in turn depends on the value of  $H(\sigma_1)$  used to compute ISR metric (See equations (1) and (2)). Therefore any changes in ISR values will lead to changes in FSR and NI ones which explain their correlation.

## 4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

This section summarizes the well-used software fault prediction techniques and presents the performed experiments.

### 4.1 Software Faults Prediction Techniques

The development of fault prediction models requires the use of software prediction techniques. To select which technique to use, we have to focus first on the response variable we aim to predict. In this paper, the output to predict is fault-proneness classifying modules (functions or classes) as fault-prone or fault-free. Therefore, classification techniques are useful to predict this attribute using the redundancy metrics. Different classification techniques were defined including Decision Trees (DT), Support Vector Machine (SVM), Naive Bayes (NB), Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF) and much others (Prasad et al., 2015; Turabieh et al., 2019; Malhotra, 2015; Singh et al., 2018).

As discussed in section 2, several studies are proposed to predict the fault-proneness attribute based on these techniques. The objective is to validate different software metrics or to compare the performance of these techniques. Most of these studies showed up the effectiveness of the classification techniques in predicting fault-proneness attribute. However, we have stated that different criteria like the size of the used data set (Catal and Diri, 2009), the level of metrics' computing (Koru and Liu, 2005) provide a variation in the performance of these techniques. As our main objective is to study the usefulness of the redundancy metrics in reflecting fault-proneness attribute and not to compare the classification techniques, we have started by applying some of them to reach this issue.

### 4.2 Experiments

To build the classification models, we have proceeded as follows:

1. To start with, data exploration phase is performed as explained above. In addition, required Python packages are imported.
2. Next, data set analysis and models building are performed. In this step, we have studied the correlation between the independent variables (redundancy metrics) to consider only metrics that are not inter-correlated as explained above. Also, data is divided into two parts; train data (80%) and test data (20%). In addition, the different cited classification techniques are used to build prediction models based on the train data.
3. Finally, the prediction is performed on the test data and evaluated based on different performance

evaluation measures.

The presented steps are performed based on appropriate modules and scripts available in the Python language and used to build the different considered classification techniques in order to test the stated hypothesis.

### 4.3 Results

In this section, we present the results of predicting faulty and non faulty modules using the classification techniques in order to answer the specified question; *“Is there a significant correlation between the redundancy metrics and the fault-proneness attribute?”*. Then, we compare their performance based on different performance evaluation measures.

#### 4.3.1 Common Performance Evaluation Measures

Various measures were defined to evaluate the performance of the classification techniques (Elish and Elish, 2008; Abaei and Selamat, 2014; Reddivari and Raman, 2019). A binary classifier uses data instances in the test data to predict either they are positive or negative. Then, four possible outcomes are obtained: True positive (TP), False positive (FP), True negative (TN), and False negative (FN). These four outcomes are presented in a confusion matrix from which different measures were derived:

- Precision: indicates how many classes are actually defect-prone from those returned by a model. The best value of this measure is 1. The high value of precision indicates fewer FP (correct elements which are classified incorrectly as defect-prone elements). This measure is defined by :  $Precision = TP / (TP+FP)$
- Recall: indicates how many of the defect-prone classes are returned actually by a model. The best value of this measure is 1. High value of recall measure indicates lower number of FN (defective classes non indicated by the model). It is defined by:  $Recall = TP / (TP+FN)$
- Accuracy: indicates the rate of correct classification. It is presented as ratio of the number of correctly predicted modules to the total number of modules and defined by:  $Accuracy = (TP+TN) / (TP+TN +FP+FN)$
- Area under the curve (AUC) : is a curve with two dimensions; x-axis is represented by FP and y-axis is represented by TP.

#### 4.3.2 Results

The presented evaluation measures are used to evaluate the performance of the different used classification techniques. Results are illustrated in Tables 2 to 6.

Table 2: Results of DT prediction model.

(a) Performance measure

	Precision	Recall	F1-score
0	0.83	0.87	0.70
1	0.81	0.76	0.79
Accuracy			0.82

(b) Confusion matrix

	1	0
1	20	3
0	4	13

Table 3: Results of LR prediction model.

(a) Performance measure

	Precision	Recall	F1-score
0	0.61	0.83	0.70
1	0.56	0.29	0.38
Accuracy			0.60

(b) Confusion matrix

	1	0
1	19	4
0	12	5

Table 4: Results of NB prediction model.

(a) Performance measure

	Precision	Recall	F1-score
0	0.63	0.83	0.72
1	0.60	0.35	0.44
Accuracy			0.82

(b) Confusion matrix

	1	0
1	19	4
0	11	6

Tables 2 to 6 illustrate the different evaluation measures obtained for the selected classification



Table 5: Results of SVM prediction model.

(a) Performance measure

	Precision	Recall	F1-score
0	0.70	0.83	0.76
1	0.69	0.53	0.60
Accuracy			0.70

(b) Confusion matrix

	1	0
1	19	4
0	8	9

Table 6: Results of RF prediction model.

(a) Performance measure

	Precision	Recall	F1-score
0	0.80	0.87	0.83
1	0.80	0.71	0.77
Accuracy			0.80

(b) Confusion matrix

	1	0
1	20	3
0	4	13

techniques. Thus, for each technique, we have summarized the classification report providing us with the values of the presented performance evaluation measures and we have presented the confusion matrix from which these measures are computed. As shown in these tables, the support measure for the different techniques indicates that the data tested for 1 (fault-prone functions) is 17 and for 0 (fault-free functions) is 23. For these values, we have stated that:

- The precision measure shows that DT and RF perform well in predicting fault-prone modules with values of respectively 0.81 and 0.80. NB and SVM perform moderately with a precision values of respectively 0.60 and 0.69. Precision shows also that LR is the least effective model for fault-proneness prediction with precision value of 0.56.
- In terms of recall and F-measure, LR and NB classifiers had low comparable performance and these measures range from 0.29 to 0.44. SVM has a moderate F-measure and recall rate that ranges from 0.53 to 0.60. DT and RF have the highest recall and F-measure rate that ranges from 0.71 to 0.79.

- Accuracy shows that LR and NB are the least effective models for fault-proneness prediction as their accuracy rates are respectively of 0.60 and 0.62. For SVM classifier, it has a moderate accuracy rate that is 0.7. DT and RF have the highest accuracy rates that are respectively of 0.82 and 0.81.
- Confusion matrix shows that for LR, there were 23 points in the first class (label 0) and 17 in the second one (1). From these 17 points, we have stated that:
  - LR and NB present comparative results and succeed in identifying respectively 5 and 6 of those correctly in label 1, but 12 and 11 were respectively marked as label 0.
  - For SVM, from the 17 points, it succeed in identifying 9 of those correctly in label 1, whilst, 8 points were marked as label 0.
  - Concerning DT, we have stated that from the 17 points, the model succeed in identifying 13 of those correctly in label 1 and only 4 points were marked as label 0. The same results were given by the RF classifier.

We summarize in Table 7, the accuracy rate of the different techniques.

Table 7: Accuracy rate for the selected classifiers.

Classifier	Accuracy rate
Logistic Regression	60%
Naive Bayes	62%
Support Vector Machine	70%
Decision Tree	82%
Random Forest	80%

Taking accuracy as the most used models' evaluation measure, results in Table 7 show that DT is the most appropriate technique followed by RF succeeded in measuring fault-proneness attribute based on redundancy metrics.

## 5 DISCUSSION, THREATS TO VALIDITY AND COMPARISON WITH RELATED WORKS

This section summarizes the results and presents the identified threats to validity. Also, a comparison with the related works is presented.

## 5.1 Overall Discussion of Results and Threats to Validity

We have experimented with different popular classifiers the usefulness of the redundancy metrics as reliability indicators using fault-proneness attribute. A set of 200 functions selected from Commons-math Apache project is used. Considering accuracy as the evaluating parameter, results show that the fault proneness attribute can be predicted using the redundancy metrics with a good accuracy rate of 0.82. This leads us to accept the stated H1 hypothesis indicating that the redundancy metrics are useful indicators of fault proneness attribute and reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between these two variables. Therefore, these results can be used as first guidance to predict faulty modules based on the redundancy metrics.

We have obtained promising results proposing validated ISR and NI redundancy metrics as significant reliability indicators for the both considered defect density and fault-proneness attributes. However, we have noted several threads to validity:

- First, the proposed redundancy metrics are semantic as they depend on the program functionality; each program (function or class) has its state represented by the manipulated variables. Hence, each time the used variables in the program input state change, the output state will change, and the values of the redundancy metrics will change too. Therefore, the proposed computing process described in the previous work is not fully automated and it is implemented separately for each program.
- Second, as more we use larger training data sets and optimizing model parameters, better we improve the model prediction performance (Singh et al., 2018), our data set can be extended to enhance the performance of the proposed prediction model.
- Comparing the redundancy metrics with other existed metrics validated as fault-proneness indicators can enhance their performance as significant quality indicators.
- Performing other experiments using the same dataset and the same classification techniques by taking into account different metrics that include internal attributes such as complexity and cohesion measured by C&K metrics (Chidamber and Kemerer, 1994) and compare results with entropy metrics.

## 5.2 Comparison between Our Proposed Approach and Related Works

In (Ayad et al., 2018), authors have proposed an empirical validation of the redundancy metrics using the rate of mutants as quality attribute. We compare our work with their work in Table 8.

Table 8: Some differences and similarities between the related works and our work.

Criteria	(Ayad et al., 2018)	Our work
Suite of metrics (Independent variables)	ISR, FSR, FR and NI	ISR, FSR, FR and NI
Quality attribute (Dependent variable)	Survival rate of mutants	Fault-proneness.
Data repository	Apache Common Mathematics Library	Apache Common Mathematics Library.
Size of the used data set	- 19 functions	- 200 functions for fault-proneness attribute.
Quality attribute collection procedure	Fault injection procedure based on PiTest tool is used then PiTest reports are analyzed to obtain the values of the considered attribute.	Fault injection procedure based on PiTest tool is used then PiTest reports are analyzed to obtain the values of the considered attribute.
Statistical techniques	- Correlation analysis between the independent variables is not performed. - Linear multivariate regression technique is used.	- Correlation analysis between the independent variables is performed. - Different classification techniques are used.
Results	All redundancy metrics are identified as significant indicators of the survival rate of mutants.	Only ISR and NI are identified as significant indicators of defect density and fault-proneness attributes.

Only ISR and FR are considered in our experimentation because we have identified a strong correlation between ISR and FSR as shown in Figure 4 which leads us to omit the FSR metric. Concerning the FR metric, we have included it in our experimentation, but we have stated that it hasn't any change on the results contrary to ISR and NI.

As shown in Table 8, little works are proposed to empirically validate the redundancy metrics as reliability predictors. The presented comparison shows that:

- The same validation approach was used. In both cases, data set is first collected, then, data analysis, models building and performance evaluation steps are performed. In addition, the work described in (Ayad et al., 2018) is comparable to our work as the same data repository is used to compute the metrics.
- Authors in (Ayad et al., 2018) showed that all of the redundancy metrics are significant predictors of the survival rate of mutants and software reliability. However, in our validation work, only ISR and NI metrics appeared to be adequate in predicting software reliability using defect density and fault-proneness attributes. The lack of correlation tests between the independent variables in their study and the difference in selecting reliability quality attributes can explain these different results. On another hand, the nature of the considered fault-proneness quality attribute as dependent variable lead us to use various classification techniques.

## 6 CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

Initial state redundancy, final state redundancy, non-injectivity, and functional redundancy metrics were proposed to assess the code' redundancy in order to monitor software reliability. However, all of these metrics are manually computed and theoretically presented. In this research, we aim at empirically validating these metrics as significant reliability indicators. We have used the fault proneness attribute as a direct reflection of software reliability to reach our objective.

We have used an empirical database including a set of Java functions taken from the Commons Math Library, all related redundancy metrics' values, and the fault-proneness attribute as a direct reliability

indicator. Five classification techniques (LR, SVM, DT, RF, and NB) are then used to assess the relationship between these two variables. The obtained results can be used as first guidance to predict faulty modules based on the redundancy metrics. The primary contribution is to assess the capability of the redundancy metrics in predicting faulty modules.

As the initial state redundancy metric only measures the program redundancy in its initial and final states without considering the redundancy of its internal states, we propose in the future work, to improve this metric by considering its internal states in order to reflect the overall program redundancy. In addition, replicated studies with large sized software should be carried out so that generalized results can be obtained.

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