Entropy-based Framework Dealing with Error in Software Development Effort Estimation

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Abstract: Software engineering community often investigates the error concerning software development effort estimation as a part, and sometimes, as an improvement of an effort estimation technique. The aim of this paper is to propose an approach dealing with both model and attributes measurement error sources whatever the effort estimation technique used. To do that, we explore the concepts of entropy and fuzzy clustering to propose a new framework to cope with both error sources. The proposed framework has been evaluated with the COCOMO’81 dataset and the Fuzzy Analogy effort estimation technique. The results are promising since the actual confidence interval percentages are closer to those proposed by the framework.

1 INTRODUCTION

Efficient and effective control of software development investment is crucial through the software development lifecycle. Indeed, the effort estimation activity is important and crucial for a successful and financially profitable delivery (Kirsopp, 2002) (MacDonell, 1997). Over the last decades, Software Development Effort Estimation (SDEE) has gained increasing attention. As a consequence, many techniques and models have been proposed in order to provide project managers with accurate effort estimates (Jorgensen, 2007). Unfortunately, the proposed techniques are not always accurate and the software industry is still plagued with unreliable estimates. In this context, error control helps improving projects running performances by capturing uncertainty and accessing it more efficiently. Organizations can then better design adapted financial risk buffers, to ensure a controlled project running and a successful delivery.

As error and uncertainty sources are various, error assessment becomes a challenging and complex task. According to (Kitchenham, 1997), there are four different sources of error estimates: (1) attributes measurement error; (2) model error, (3) assumption error; and (4) scope error. Therefore, error seems inherent to the effort estimation process. Based on a systematic mapping study in which 19 selected articles have been analyzed and discussed (El-Koutbi, 2016), two main approaches when dealing with effort estimation error have been identified. While the first category (58% of the selected studies) proposes to handle error concerning a specific effort estimation technique, the second category of approaches (42% of the selected studies) explores new designs, frameworks or methods dealing with error components themselves and handles error for any SDEE technique. In fact, effort estimation techniques are multiple and diverse, many studies have compared the performance of various SDEE techniques and no clear conclusions were drawn (Idri, 2015). In this context, it is valuable to develop an error evaluation approach independently of the effort estimation technique. The objective is to generate an effort probability distribution rather than one effort estimate.

This paper proposes such error approach and considers two error sources of (Kitchenham, 1997) to enable estimates adjustment and risk control more efficiently. To the best of our knowledge, the concept of entropy has not been investigated in order to deal with error in SDEE. However, (Papatheocharous, 2009) used this concept in order to propose a novel SDEE approach that attempts to cluster empirical project data samples via an entropy-based fuzzy k-modes clustering algorithm. This study proposes an entropy-based approach dealing with the two sources of uncertainty: attributes measurement and model errors, for any
SDEE technique. This approach consists of two main steps. First, entropy is computed, over a historical set of projects, based on the Fuzzy C-Means (FCM). Over the same historical set, effort deviation is calculated in order to generate a relationship function between entropy and effort deviation. At a second stage, to generate an effort distribution for a new project, we compute the corresponding entropy. The new project deviation is then induced using the relationship inferred over the historical set. The estimated deviation is finally used to set up the Gaussian effort distribution parameters. The proposed approach is evaluated over the COCOMO’81 dataset under Fuzzy Analogy as an estimation technique (Idri, 2002), (Amazal, 2014) and using JackKnife as an evaluation method.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides insights into the concepts of entropy and FCM. Section 3 presents the modeling of the attributes and model error. Section 4 describes the experiment design. Section 6 evaluates the proposed framework on the COCOMO’81 dataset and discusses the results. Finally, Section 7 presents conclusions and outlines perspectives and future work.

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Shannon Entropy

The concept of entropy of information was first introduced by Shannon in 1948 (Shannon, 1948). By defining a mathematical function describing the statistical nature of information lost over a transmission line, Shannon sets up a fundamental base of Information Theory (Gray, 1990). As entropy is a measure of unpredictability of information content, it is a key idea for describing random variables, processes and dynamic systems (Borda, 2011). For a discrete random variable X and probability mass function P(X), Shannon proposed the formal definition of the entropy H given in Eq.1.

\[
H(X) = E[I(X)]
\]

where \( E \) is the expected value operator, and \( I \) is the information content of X. As \( I(X) \) is itself a random variable, the entropy can explicitly be written as given in Eq.2.

\[
H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i) \log P(x_i)
\]

The Eq.2 can be generalized in the case of a continuous distribution as given in Eq.3.

\[
H(X) = - \int P(x) \log P(x) dx
\]

where \( P(x) \) represents a probability density function. In the case of \( n \) variables \((X_1, ..., X_n)\), entropy is defined as follows (Han, 2002):

\[
H(X_1, ..., X_n) = H(X_1) + H(X_2 | X_1) + ... + H(X_n | X_1, ..., X_{n-1})
\]

where \( I_m \) and \( I_n \) are respectively \( X_1 \) and \( X_i \) possible values and \( H(X_1 | X_j) \) is the conditional entropy.

It worth notice that for independent variables, entropy has an additive property:

\[
H(X_1, ..., X_n) = H(X_1) + \cdots + H(X_n)
\]

2.2 Fuzzy Clustering

Fuzzy logic was introduced by Zadeh in 1965 with his proposal of fuzzy set theory (Zadeh, 1965). Since, the fuzzy logic has been applied to many fields such as clustering and classification. Fuzzy clustering is a well-known clustering strategy that used the concept of fuzziness. Based on membership functions; it proposes an alternative approach of the hard clustering. As a result, a data point belongs to a cluster with a membership value between 0 and 1. Therefore, a data point could belong to different clusters with different membership values.

In SDEE, fuzzy clustering was investigated in order to deal with uncertainty of attributes. Especially: (Liao, 2003) generates convex fuzzy terms with a variant of the original Fuzzy C-Means (FCM) Algorithm; and (Idri, 2006) combines FCM with a Real Coded Genetic Algorithm (RCGA) in order to generate membership functions from numerical software project attributes.

This study uses the FCM algorithm which is the fuzzy version of the hard C-means algorithm that aims to group elements into clusters so that items in the same cluster are as similar as possible (Bezdek, 1981). FCM generates cluster centers (centroids) that minimize the function of Eq.6.

\[
\text{Min } J_m(U, C) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{c} u_{ij}^m \|x_i - c_j\|^2
\]

Subject to:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{ij} = 1, \forall j \in [1, n]
\]

where \((x_1, ..., x_n)\) are points of a data set; \(c\) is the desired number of clusters; \(m\) is the control parameter of fuzziness; \(U = (u_{ij})\) is the partition matrix, containing the membership values of all data in all clusters; and \(C = (c_j)\) is the set of cluster centers.

Updating iteratively the cluster centers and the
membership values improves the cluster centers location by minimizing the objective function of Eq.6. The number of clusters might be determined based on the Xie-Beni validity criterion (Xie, 1991). A brief description of the FCM algorithm is shown in Fig.1.

**Step 0.** Randomly initialize the membership matrix \( U \) respecting Eq.6.

**Step 1.** Calculate centroids using the formula:

\[
c_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij}^m x_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} u_{ij}^m}
\]

**Step 2.** Compute dissimilarity between centroids and data points using Eq.7.

Stop if improvement over previous iteration is below a threshold.

**Step 3.** Compute a new \( U \) using the formula:

\[
u_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^{c} \left( \frac{\| x_i - c_k \|}{\| x_i - c_j \|} \right)^{2/(m-1)}}
\]

Go to Step 1.

Figure 1: Fuzzy C-Means algorithm.

### 3 ATTRIBUTES MEASUREMENT AND MODEL ERROR IN SDEE

SDEE aims to provide accurate effort estimates based on project attributes description. To achieve this objective, the use of a historical projects dataset with known attributes and actual effort values is needed. Fig. 2 shows the classical SDEE dataset form, where \( E_{\text{act}} \) is the actual effort of a project \( P_i \), \( X_j \) are the attributes describing the projects \( P_i \), \( x_{ij} \) are their values, \( n \) and \( k \) are the number of projects and attributes respectively. Based on entropy and FCM concepts, presented in Section 2, we describe in this section the two approaches to deal with both attributes measurement and model errors in SDEE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual effort</th>
<th>( X_1 )</th>
<th>( X_2 )</th>
<th>( x_{11} )</th>
<th>( x_{12} )</th>
<th>( x_{1k} )</th>
<th>( x_{21} )</th>
<th>( x_{22} )</th>
<th>( x_{2k} )</th>
<th>( x_{nk} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project 1</td>
<td>( E_{\text{act}} )</td>
<td>( x_{11} )</td>
<td>( x_{12} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( x_{1k} )</td>
<td>( x_{21} )</td>
<td>( x_{22} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( x_{nk} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project 2</td>
<td>( E_{\text{act}} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project n</td>
<td>( E_{\text{act}} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New project</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>( x_{11} )</td>
<td>( x_{12} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( x_{1k} )</td>
<td>( x_{21} )</td>
<td>( x_{22} )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( x_{nk} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Software projects dataset form.

### 3.1 Attributes Measurement Error

Attributes measurement error is caused by accuracy limitations of input variables. It concerns especially uncertainty associated to attributes \( X_j \) (Kitchenham, 1997). As uncertainty is caused by attribute biases, it seems plausible to consider that it depends of attribute information rather than the attribute values. In this context, a mathematical function quantifying information uncertainty can help managing attributes measurement error in SDEE. This study proposes to use the well-known Shannon entropy, presented in Section 2.1, as a measure of attribute uncertainty. Since attribute values present an inherent imprecision, especially categorical data (Kitchenham, 1997), we use the continuous version of Shannon entropy (Eq.3). This enables us to take into account neighbor values while calculating attributes entropy. The following formalization is an adaptation of the entropy equation (Eq.3 and Eq.5) to the SDEE context.

Based on Eq.3, we define the entropy of an attribute \( X_j \) of a project \( P_i \) as follows:

\[
H_{ij} = -\int_{x_{ij} - r_{mj}}^{x_{ij} + r_{mj}} f_j(x) \log(f_j(x)) \, dx 
\]

where \( x_{ij} \) are the values of the attribute \( X_j \) of a project \( P_i \), \( r_{mj} \) is an average neighborhood distance and \( f_j \) are the membership functions generated by the FCM algorithm for the attribute \( X_j \).

For a project \( P_i \), the entropy value \( H_i \) is calculated by means of Eq.9.

\[
H_i = \sum_{j=1}^{k} H_{ij} = -\sum_{j=1}^{k} \int_{x_{ij} - r_{mj}}^{x_{ij} + r_{mj}} f_j(x) \log(f_j(x)) \, dx 
\]

where \( k \) is the number of attributes. For the other parameters description, refer to Eq.8.

### 3.2 Model Error

Model error occurs because all empirical SDEE models are abstractions of reality. Factors that affect effort but are not included explicitly in the model contribute to the model error. Model error concerns then the inherent limitation of the theoretical abstract approach of effort estimation. Since model error is related to effort estimation, absolute error is used to measure the estimates deviation from the actual effort. Hence, we define for each project \( P_i \) a deviation \( \Delta_{\text{effi}} \) as follows:

\[
\Delta_{\text{effi}} = |E_{\text{acti}} - E_{\text{esti}}| 
\]

where \( E_{\text{acti}} \) and \( E_{\text{esti}} \) are respectively the actual and estimated efforts of project \( P_i \).
3.3 SDEE Error Formulation

As shown in Fig. 2, the SDEE formulation is characterized by \( k+1 \) elements, where \( k \) corresponds to the number of attributes used to describe projects. By means of entropy and effort deviation, respectively described by Eq.9 and Eq.10, it is possible to reduce the SDEE problem dimension of Fig. 2 to deal with both attributes measurement and model error. Fig. 3 illustrates the proposed transformed dataset form in order to handle both measurement and model errors. In comparison with the dataset form of Fig. 3, we note that the \( k \) project attributes are replaced by a single variable that is their entropy. This dimensional reduction of the number of variables is due to the fact that attribute measurements error is an uncertainty concern and then depends of information uncertainty (measured here with entropy) rather than attributes values them-selves (Kitchenham, 1997).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deviation</th>
<th>Entropy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project 1</td>
<td>( \Delta_{eff1} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project 2</td>
<td>( \Delta_{eff2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project n</td>
<td>( \Delta_{effn} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New project</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Software projects dataset form to deal with attribute measurement and model errors.

In the rest of this paper, a project \( P_i \) is described by its entropy \( H_i \) and its deviation \( \Delta_{effi} \).

4 ENTROPY-BASED APPROACH FOR ERROR IN SDEE

This paper proposes a novel entropy-based framework in order to deal with both attributes measurement and model error whatever the effort estimation technique used. Based on entropy and effort deviation, the proposed approach consists of two main steps. In the following subsections, Steps 1 and 2 are detailed.

4.1 Step 1: Constructing Relationship of Entropy and Effort Deviation

The objective of this step is to use the learning set projects in order to generate the function \( g \) that associates entropy and effort deviation. This function is then used to estimate effort deviation of a new project knowing its entropy. The function \( g \) construction process is as follow:

(1) Attributes fuzzy clustering consists of applying the FCM Algorithm to generate fuzzy clusters of each attribute \( X_i \). The Xie-Beni validity criterion is used to decide on the optimal number of these clusters (Xie, 1991). Thereafter, the membership functions \( f_j \) were constructed for each attribute \( X_j \) by means of a Real Coded Genetic Algorithm (RCGA) (Idri, 2006).

(2) Projects entropy \( H_i \) of each project \( P_i \) is computed based on \( f_j \) and \( r_{mj} \) of all attributes \( X_j \) (Eq.9).

(3) In order to generate the effort deviation values, we apply an effort estimation technique on each project \( P_i \) to obtain its effort estimate. Thereafter, we calculate the \( P_i \) effort deviation \( \Delta_{effi} \) by means of Eq.10.

(4) We infer the function \( g \) modelling the entropy \( H_i \) and the deviation \( \Delta_{effi} \).

4.2 Step 2: Generating Error Distribution

This step aims to generate an estimation error distribution for a new project \( P_N \). To achieve this objective, we use entropy and effort deviation computed in Step 1 as well as the function \( g \).

As function \( g \) represents a relationship between entropy and effort deviation, we first compute the new project entropy \( H_N \) by means of Eq.9. Then, we interpolate the effort deviation \( \Delta_{effN} \) of \( P_N \) using function \( g \). Based on the interpolated deviation a Gaussian error distribution is generated.

The choice of a Gaussian error distribution was motivated by the fact that: (1) Gaussian function is the result of Gamma function convergence which has been suggested by (Kitchenham, 1997); and (2) Gaussian function is often used to model waiting or service times in queuing theory and it makes sense in SDEE context since estimating a project effort concerns the required time for software development tasks.

The classical Gaussian formula is given by Eq.11 (Bromiley, 2003).

\[
f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}
\]

where \( \mu \) is the distribution expectation and \( \sigma \) its standard deviation.

Finally and in order to set up the parameters \( \mu \) and \( \sigma \) to determine the error distribution of \( P_N \), we consider that:

(1) \( \mu = E_{estN} \): this implies that the effort distribution is centered around the estimated effort of \( P_N \), \( E_{estN} \), and there is neither overestimation nor underestimation preference.

(2) \( \Delta_{effN} \equiv \sigma \): this means for example that the actual deviation which corresponds to absolute
difference with \( E_{\text{estN}} \) is at 68.3% (Bromiley, 2003) in the interval of \( \pm \Delta_{\text{estN}} \) that corresponds to \( \pm \sigma \).

The Gaussian error distribution used is then:

\[
f(x) = \frac{1}{\Delta_{\text{estN}} \sqrt{2\pi} e^{-\frac{(x-E_{\text{estN}})^2}{2\Delta_{\text{estN}}^2}}}
\]  

(12)

5 EXPERIMENT DESIGN

5.1 Dataset Description

This study uses the COCOMO’81 historical dataset available in the PREdictOr Models In Software Engineering (PROMISE) data repository (Menzies, 2012). The original COCOMO’81 contains 63 projects. The version used in this study consists of 252 projects described by 13 attributes (refer to (Idri, 2016) for details). It’s worth precise that COCOMO’81 effort drivers are measured using a rating scale of six linguistic values (very low, low, nominal, high, very high and extra-high). In this experiment, for each couple of project and linguistic value, four numerical values have been randomly generated according to the classical interval used to represent the linguistic value.

5.2 Projects Entropy Computation

For each attribute \( X_j \), we used the FCM Algorithm to determine the number of clusters which has been varied between 2 and 7. The Xi-Benni criterion has been used to choose the best clustering. Fig. 4 reports the trapezoidal membership functions defined for three attributes of the COCOMO’81 dataset: PCAP, LEXP and VIRTMIN. In addition to that and in order to take into account neighbour values while calculating entropy, we compute the mean radius \( r_m \), defined in Eq.8. In this experimentation, for attribute \( X_j \), \( r_{\text{mij}} \) is defined as

\[
2 \times \min_{n \in [1, n]} \| x_i - x_{n} \| \text{ where } n \text{ is the number of projects, } r_m \text{ corresponds to two times the minimal distance between values of attribute } X_j \text{ in order to take into account superior and inferior neighbours.}
\]

For each attribute, the selected clusters number corresponds to the integer minimizing the Xi-Benni criterion. Based on attribute membership functions and radii, we compute entropy of each project based on Eq.9. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of entropy distribution over the COCOMO’81 dataset. We can notice a wide dispersion of entropy values. Median entropy is relatively low around 2.25 in comparison with mean and maximal entropy: 7631.73 and 175997.79 respectively.

5.3 Effort Deviation Calculation

The proposed approach to deal with SDEE error is adapted whatever the effort estimation technique used. This study uses the Fuzzy Analogy (FA) SDEE technique which has been developed by Idri et al. (Idri, 2002). FA has been evaluated and proven to outperform Classical Analogy in several studies (Idri, 2016), (Idri, 2015), (Amazal 2014). Fuzzy Analogy involves three steps: fuzzy identification of cases, fuzzy retrieval of similar cases, and fuzzy case adaptation (Idri, 2002). Each step is a fuzzification of its equivalent in the Classical Analogy procedure of Shepperd et al. (Shepperd, 1997). Based on the estimate and actual effort values, effort deviations were computed by means of Eq.10. Table 2 details COCOMO’81 effort deviation descriptive statistics under FA.

5.4 JackKnife Evaluation Method

In order to overcome the bias due to the learning set selection, we adopt the JackKnife evaluation method. The JackKnife, or “leave one out” (LOOCV), is a cross-validation technique (Quenouille, 1956) in which the target project is excluded from the dataset and estimated by the remaining projects in the historical dataset. The main reason behind using this method over n-folds

![Figure 4: Membership functions for VIRTMIN, LEXP and PCAP attributes.](image-url)
cross-validation is that LOOCV generates lower bias and it produces a higher variance estimate. Also, LOOCV can generate the same results in a particular dataset if the evaluation is replicated, which is not the case for n-folds cross validation (Kocaguneli, 2013).

6 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

6.1 Construction and Evaluation of the Function g

We computed the entropy and effort deviation data over COCOMO’81 dataset (Sections 5.2 and 5.3) by means of LOOCV evaluation method. Thereafter, four interpolation techniques were applied to determine the effort deviation of each project: Linear, Cubic, Spline and Nearest. The distributions of effort deviation are represented in Fig. 5. Taking into account median values and outliers spreading, Cubic, Linear and Nearest interpolations seems more interesting approximators of actual deviations than Spline method.

In order to analyze the interpolation technique accuracy, we adopt the z-score metric as proposed by Kitchenham et al. in their article about accuracy statistics (Kitchenham, 2001). The variable z is defined for a project $P_i$ as: $z_i = \frac{d_i - \bar{d}_i}{\sigma}$, where $d_i$ and $\bar{d}_i$ are the estimated and actual effort deviations of project $P_i$, respectively. Fig. 6 represents $z$ variable boxplots of the distributions of the four interpolation techniques. In addition to that, Table 3 gives numerical statistics concerning the $z$ variable distributions. As can be seen in Fig. 6, the medians of the $z$ variable of Cubic and Linear interpolations are closer to 1 (0.88 and 0.89 respectively) instead of Nearest and Spline ones (0.58 and 2.43 respectively). We recall that a closer value of $z$ to 1 indicates better estimation accuracy. It can also be noticed that the distributions of $z$ variable for the four interpolation techniques indicate a positive skewness, since the medians are closer to the lower quartile, in particular for Cubic, Linear and Nearest methods (4.07; 5.82 and 4.10 respectively). In addition, $z$ values have high variations for Nearest and Spline methods since the lower and upper quartiles are far from one another. Therefore, their boxes are taller than those of Cubic and Linear interpolations. In addition, Cubic interpolation has a bit low mean values than Nearest one (6.55 instead of 6.61). Moreover, we use Mean Magnitude Relative Error (MMRE) and Pred(25) of the four interpolation techniques to measure the accuracy of their estimated effort deviations since (Kitchenham, 2001) have demonstrated that MMRE and Pred(25) are, respectively, measures of the spread and the kurtosis of the variable $z$.

![Figure 5: Boxplots of the four interpolation methods effort deviation distribution.](image1)

![Figure 6: Boxplots of the four interpolation methods z variables.](image2)

6.2 Error Distribution Evaluation

Based on (El-Koutbi, 2016), we notice a large divergence of metrics used for SDEE error measure. In fact, MRE was the most widely used one (47%), followed by both Hit Rate and Confidence Intervals (21%) and Pred (16%). Since this study is interested in proposing an error probability distribution, confidence intervals are the most adapted criterion, in this context, to measure the performance of the proposed error distribution.
Table 3: Descriptive statistics of Cubic, Linear, Nearest and Spline z variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>MMRE</th>
<th>Pred(25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spline</td>
<td>343.60</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39580.48</td>
<td>11.91</td>
<td>151.27</td>
<td>343.49</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>104.30</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearest</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>170.27</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>41.04</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>107.68</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>18.36</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In fact, Stamelos and al. used a similar approach for error management over a portfolio of projects (Stamelos, 2001).

Based on Gaussian properties (Bromiley, 2003), we define three confidence intervals:

$I_i = [E_{act} - \Delta eff, E_{act} + \Delta eff]$

where $i \in \{1,2,3\}$, $E_{act}$ is project actual effort and $\Delta eff$ the estimated deviation. Table 4 shows, for each interval, the achievement percentage that represents the number of projects for which the actual effort was within the considered confidence interval.

Table 4: Achievement percentages over I1, I2 and I3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I1</th>
<th>I2</th>
<th>I3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spline</td>
<td>65.25%</td>
<td>77.46%</td>
<td>83.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>46.95%</td>
<td>60.56%</td>
<td>66.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearest</td>
<td>40.37%</td>
<td>52.11%</td>
<td>57.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>46.48%</td>
<td>61.50%</td>
<td>68.54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To evaluate the performance of the proposed Gaussian error distribution, entropy-based framework actual achievement percentages were compared to those of Gaussian function over the predefined confidence intervals. In fact over I1, Spline interpolation has a close behavior of Gaussian function (68.30%) with an achievement percentage of 65.25%. Cubic and Linear interpolation have both an achievement percentage of almost 50% while Nearest is around 40%. Over I2 and I3, Spline outperformed the other interpolation techniques with 77% and 83% respectively. Linear interpolation outperformed slightly Cubic one with 61% instead of 60% and 68% instead of 66%; Nearest has achievement percentages of 52% and 58% over I2 and I3 respectively while Gaussian function is around 95% and 99%.

Then, we conclude that the achievement percentages vary depending on the interpolation method used and that Spline interpolation outperforms the other interpolation techniques since its achievement percentages are the closest to those of a Gaussian distribution. Moreover, even if Spline interpolation has better achievement percentages over the three confidence intervals, the other interpolation techniques provide a better deviation approximation. In fact, median values of Cubic and Linear interpolations are around 62 Man/month for 145Man/month for Spline knowing that the actual median value of effort deviation is 50 Man/Month. Then, the performance of Spline interpolation in terms of achievement percentages can be explained by an overestimation of effort deviation.

Considering the four interpolation methods, the proposed entropy-based approach gave interesting results since almost 50% to 65% of COCOMO’81 dataset projects are within interval I1 and 50% to 77% within interval I2. Spline interpolation has a comparable results with those of Gaussian function which leads us to consider that the Kitchenham and Linkman (Kitchenham, 1997) assumption is a plausible one. It worth notice that outliers removal before interpolation improves the achievement percentages of 10% to 18%.

7 CONCLUSION

This paper proposed an entropy-based approach in order to deal with measurement and model errors for any SDEE technique. Based on Shannon entropy concept, the approach consists in two main steps. The first step aims to construct a relationship of entropy and effort deviation. Projects entropy is computed over a learning set, based on the FCM clustering algorithm which enables constructing attributes membership functions. Moreover, deviation is calculated to infer a relationship between entropy and deviation. The second step consists on estimating a new project effort deviation knowing its entropy and using the relationship function inferred over the learning set. The estimated deviation is then used to set up the Gaussian effort distribution parameters.

The proposed approach is evaluated over the COCOMO’81 dataset with the FA SDEE technique, the Jackknife evaluation method and with four different interpolation methods. The obtained results are interesting. Indeed, almost 50% to 65% of the projects met the first confidence interval of estimated effort deviation width. The effort distribution of the proposed approach had also comparable achievement percentage to the Gaussian distribution especially over the first confidence
interval. These results confirm the relevance of entropy as an uncertainty measure and Gaussian function as a plausible effort distribution. Still, the results presented in this work are only preliminary. Ongoing work explores other datasets and different entropy formulas than Shannon one.

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