PreSTyDe: Improving the Performance of within-project Defects Prediction by Learning to Classify Types of Software Faults

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Abstract: Software defect prediction (SDP) is an important task within software development. It is a challenging activity, as the detection of software modules that are prone to malfunction in new versions of software contributes to an improved testing process and also increases the quality of the software. In this paper, we propose a two-stage hybrid approach for predicting the error-proneness of the application classes in an upcoming version of a software project by employing a taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered from the previous software releases. The first stage of the proposed approach consists of an unsupervised labelling of software defects from the available versions of the analysed software system. During the second stage, a supervised classifier is used to predict the error proneness during the software project’s evolution employing the taxonomies of defects uncovered in the previous stage. Experiments carried out with Calcite software in a SDP scenario within a project highlighted that the performance of predicting software defects during a project evolution increases by approximately 5%, in terms of the average Area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic curve, by developing predictors for different classes of software defects.

1 INTRODUCTION

Software defect prediction (SDP) represents an active research area in the search-based software engineering field, being an important task within software development. With the current expansion of the programming industry, SDP is receiving increased attention from the scientific community. Software defects are errors such as logic or implementation faults that can cause the system to behave incorrectly or produce erroneous results. Thus, the detection of software modules that are prone to malfunction in new versions of software contributes to an improved testing process and also increases the quality of the software. SDP is helpful in process management and to improve software maintenance and evolution.

As SDP provides us with difficult learning contexts, most models may not be suitable for such a task. Firstly, the principal characteristic of SDP is that we are given a codebase, along with its tracking history of issues and bugs, and we are required to detect software bugs in the code of other repositories, follow the evolution of the system, and suggest revisions, with the final goal of having integrated such intelligent algorithms into our daily IDEs. Secondly, most software project releases have very few bugs, thanks to quality control; therefore, the defect class is considerably under-represented. That may result in classifiers that simply return the majority (non-defect) class, without analysing the data at all, and having very high accuracy despite poor precision and recall values. However, Machine learning (ML) is still an effective tool for complex classification tasks. Furthermore, more sophisticated deep learning (DL) has consistently had groundbreaking improvements in recent months. Two main directions have been investigated in the field of SDP (Wang et al., 2016). As a first line of research, the performance of machine learning techniques has been intensively investigated. In terms of binary classifiers proposed to detect software faults, there is a wide range of approaches, from conventional ML predictors (Linear Regression, Decision Trees, Artificial Neural Networks, Support Vector Machines, Ensemble Learning (Zhou et al., 2022)) to recurrent neural networks (RNNs) (Pachouly et al., 2022) and DL models (Miholca et al., 2022).

In SDP, another direction of great interest for the research community concerns the input features. Re-
cent feature engineering literature reveals many approaches proposed to learn features from software artifacts through DL models: Deep Belief Networks (Wang et al., 2016), Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) (Li et al., 2017), Long-Short Term Neural Networks, CNNs combined with Graph Neural Networks (Zhou et al., 2022), etc.

Although having the upper hand in feature extraction, DL models can still struggle to classify imbalanced data, and therefore one-class classification (OCC) adapted ML models were also investigated as a possible solution to improve defect prediction quality. Even if one-class predictive models are employed in the ML literature to address various unbalanced classification tasks, the literature on the use of OCC models for SDP is still scarce (Chen et al., 2016) (Moussa et al., 2022) (Ciobotariu et al., 2023) and the results are not reliable. One-class SVM (OCSVM) models trained on one class of instances (defective or non-defective) were investigated in various SDP scenarios and data sets, but the results revealed poor performance mainly for the within-project scenario (Ciobotariu et al., 2023) (Moussa et al., 2022). The binary classifiers such as Random Forest finetuned seem to still have a better performance than the OCC models. Recently, (Zhang et al., 2022) proposed the ADGAN-SDP model for anomaly detection based on Bidirectional Generative Adversarial networks. The proposed model was trained on non-defects, and it was designed to capture relevant features for the non-faulty class. The results show that GAN-based models achieve good results, provided that there are enough training data samples.

Besides the data imbalancement problem, which significantly affects the performance of supervised classifiers, another important issue in SDP is related to the feature-based representation of the software entities (modules, classes, components, etc.). In most open source data sets used in the SDP literature (data sets from public repositories such as NASA (Shepperd et al., 2018) or SeaCraft (Menzies et al., 2017)), software metrics are used to characterise the software entities, and these data sets may not be appropriate for training models that must perform in real-world scenarios. Recent studies in the SDP literature (Miholca et al., 2022) highlighted that features extracted from the source code may be more relevant to distinguish between faults and non-faults. Another important issue revealed by (Czibula et al., 2023) is that, while defects can be of various types (e.g. numeric errors, pointer issues, security vulnerabilities, etc.) and it is very likely that each defect type has its own properties, existing SDP approaches consider all defect types together and try to come up with a universal defect prediction model. By considering specific types of defects, it is very likely to increase the specificity of defect predictors, as we may expect that specific classes of faults could have common characteristics.

The current research starts from our previous findings (Czibula et al., 2023) in which we emphasised that specific types of software defects have particular behaviours and introduced, as a proof of concept, an unsupervised learning (UL) based approach for mining behavioural patterns for specific classes of software defects. In this paper, we make a further step towards our broader goal of developing defect predictors for particular defect types by introducing, as a proof of concept, a two-stage hybrid approach named PreSTyDe (Predictor for Specific Types of Defects) to validate our hypothesis that the performance of predicting software defects during software project evolution (within-project SDP scenario) would improve by developing predictors for specific classes of software defects. The first stage of the proposed approach consists of an unsupervised labelling of software defects from the available versions of the analysed software system. Then, a supervised classifier is used to predict the error proneness of the software entities in an upcoming version of the software project by employing the taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered from the previous versions. Experimental evaluation is carried out with Apache Calcite (Begoli et al., 2018) software, an open source framework for data management. To the best of our knowledge, our proposed approach is new in the SDP literature. In summary, in this paper we aim to answer the following research questions:

**RQ1.** Could the performance of predicting the error-proneness of the software entities in a specific version of a software project be enhanced by employing a taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered from the previous software versions?

**RQ2.** Does the proposed approach result in improved software defect prediction performance in the case of a complex, open-source application?

The response to RQ1 and RQ2 will help guide the effort to create more specific SDP models for real life software projects and give an insight into the validity of our assumption that more performant SDP models can be developed if the models are more specific to a set of defect types. Such models developed for specific defect types may be better customized to express the specificity of different types of defects, which may require different kind of information from the software system to be used as input into the model. For instance, for defects related to some
arithmetic overflow, the model should be fed with instruction and expression level information from the source code, while if the defects are related to some incorrect/ambiguous specification, the model should use the specifications and comments from the code or other sources as input for the model.

The remainder of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 introduces the PreSTyDe approach and the methodology employed. Section 3 presents our case study used to assess the performance of PreSTyDe, then the experimental results and research findings are presented, discussed, and compared with related work in Section 4. Section 5 discusses the threats to the validity of the study, while Section 6 presents directions to further extend our current work.

2 METHODOLOGY

We introduce the PreSTyDe two-stage hybrid approach for predicting the error-proneness during a software project’s evolution employing a taxonomy of software defects learnt from the available releases of the software. Even if the literature contains several defect type classifications and taxonomies (e.g., the Orthogonal Defect Classification proposed by IBM, Defect Origins, Types and Modes proposed by HP or IEEE Standard Classification for Software Anomalies), none of these taxonomies became widely applied in practice (Wagner, 2008) or employed in the SDP research literature. In addition, labelling defects according to such taxonomies is not a common practice in the industry yet.

As the results of existing SDP research have not been adopted within the industry, it is clear that the state of the art can be further improved. Thus, instead of employing an existing taxonomy of software defects, we propose learning such a taxonomy of faults from the available releases of the analysed software project. Such an approach of uncovering, through unsupervised learning, the taxonomy of defects specific to a certain software project may offer higher flexibility and may increase the SDP performance.

Empirical studies have shown that the frequency of software defects and their type can differ between applications. In a study that focused on server-side software, (Sahoo et al., 2010) showed differences between the types of defects encountered in several popular open-source applications. Three open-source GUI-driven applications were statically analysed in (Molnar and Motogna, 2020), with the authors concluding that over the lifetime of the target applications, defect prevalence and distribution remained application-specific.

2.1 Problem Statement and Formalisation

In the general SDP task formalised as a binary classification problem, two target classes are given: the class of software defects (the positive class, labelled as 1) and the class of non-defects (the negative class, labelled by 0). The goal of a supervised defect predictor is to build a classifier (from a training data set of software entities labelled with 0 or 1) capable of predicting if a certain software entity is likely to belong to a positive or negative target class.

Let us consider an object-oriented software system $S$ having multiple versions $S_{V_1}, S_{V_2}, \ldots, S_{V_k}$, with $V_k, k \neq 1$ being the current software version under development. We assume that for previous software versions $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_{k-1}$ historical data $D = \{D_{V_1}, D_{V_2}, \ldots, D_{V_{k-1}}\}$ is available, where $D_{V_j}$, $1 \leq j \leq k-1$ consists of software entities (application classes, in our approach) from $S_{V_j}$ labelled with their class (defective - positive or non-defective - negative). In our approach, a label of 0 is assigned to the negative class, while the positive class is labelled as 1.

In the data sets $D_{V_j}$, $\forall 1 \leq j \leq k-1$, each application class from the $j$-th version of $S$ ($S_{V_j}$) is characterised by a set of $m$ features considered to be relevant for discriminating between the defective and non-defective application classes. Thus, each application class $c \in D_{V_j}$ is represented as an $m$-dimensional numerical vector $c = (c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_m)$, where $c_i (\forall 1 \leq i \leq m)$ represents the value of the feature $f_i$ computed for the application class $c$.

Our approach consists of two main stages. During the first stage, a clustering algorithm is applied to software defects from previous versions $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_{k-1}$ of the analysed software system and the software defects will be labelled according to the identified partition $\{P_1, \ldots, P_m\}$. Then, a supervised classifier is used to predict the proneness to errors of the software entities in the current version $V_k$ of the software project by employing the taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered at the previous stage. Therefore, the goal of our formalised SDP task as a multi-class classification problem is to determine (from the available training data $D$) an approximation $\hat{f}$ of the function $f : D_{V_k} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \ldots, nc\}$ that will assign for each application class $c \in S_{V_k}$ the label 0 if $c$ is not error-prone and the label $f(i) (i \in [1, nc])$ if $c$ belongs to the type of defects represented by the cluster $P_i$.

2.2 Data Representation

As previously shown in Section 2.1, the application classes are represented as vectors of high-dimensional
real-valued features. Existing approaches from the SDP literature reveal that these feature vectors may express structural characteristics of the software entities through software metrics or conceptual characteristics directly extracted from the source code.

The feature-based representation employed in our approach is motivated by recent work (Miholca et al., 2022) which emphasised that conceptual-based features unsupervisedly learnt from the source code are more informative than structural-based ones, those based on software metrics. The extensive performance evaluation conducted by (Miholca et al., 2022) on all releases of Apache Calcite software revealed that natural language-based models such as Doc2Vec (Le and Mikolov, 2014) and Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI) (Deerwester et al., 1990) are capable of providing semantic features that are suitable for discriminating between faulty and non-faulty software entities. Both models, Doc2Vec and LSI, are used by (Miholca et al., 2022) to represent the source codes as numeric vectors of a predefined length to capture the semantic characteristics of the code. Furthermore, the concatenation of Doc2Vec and LSI representations (further denoted as Doc2Vec+LSI) provide higher predictive performance than when using only Doc2Vec or LSI semantic representations.

Consequently, the vectorial representation \((c_1, ..., c_{c+p})\) of an application class \(c\) is obtained by concatenating the \(\ell\)-dimensional conceptual vector representing \(c\) in the Doc2Vec space with the \(p\)-dimensional conceptual vector representing \(c\) in the LSI space.

### 2.3 Building the PreSTyDe Classifier

As discussed in Section 2.1, PreSTyDe is a hybrid classifier which is trained on historical data \(D = \{D_{v_1}, D_{v_2}, ..., D_{v_{k-1}}\}\) available in versions 1, 2, ..., \(k-1\) of the software system under analysis in two stages, an unsupervised classification stage followed by a supervised classification one.

**Unsupervised classification stage.** During this stage, a \(k\)-means clustering algorithm is applied on the set \(D_1 \cup \ldots \cup D_{k-1}\). We chose the \(k\)-means method for determining groups of defective application classes due to its ability to minimise the distance between the defective instances within a group, but also due to its high flexibility and quick prototyping.

The number \(nc\) of clusters used in \(k\)-means is calculated using the Elbow method (Shi et al., 2021). To further validate the results we obtained with the Elbow method, we also employed the Silhouette score (Shi et al., 2021). After the optimal number of clusters \((nc)\) was determined in the defective instances data set, the clustering step was performed using the \(k\)-means algorithm. After determining the partition \(P_1, P_2, ..., P_{nc}\) of software defects, the defective instances of \(Def\) are relabelled with labels 1, 2, ..., \(nc\) so that all the defects from partition \(P_j\) \((1 \leq j \leq nc)\) will be labelled with \(j\). After this relabelling stage, the defective application classes of \(D\) which initially were labelled as 1 (defective) will now have multiple labels (from 1 to \(nc\)). This multi-class labelling of software defects suggests that instead of identifying all defects as a whole, the defects are split into categories which may represent specific types of faults. We note that the relabelling procedure is applied only for the defective instances; thus, all the non-defective instances from the \(D\) remain with their initial label (i.e., 0).

Denoting by \(P_0\) the set of non-defective application classes, the unsupervisedly uncovered partition \(nc\) of \(D\) is \(\{P_0, P_1, ..., P_{nc}\}\), such that \(D = \bigcup_{i=0}^{nc} P_i\). In this partition, the set \(P_0\) corresponds to non-faulty application classes, while \(P_0\) \((1 \leq i \leq nc)\) each represent a specific type of defect.

**Supervised classification stage.** The goal of this stage is to build a multi-class classification model \(classifier\) which, for a new application class expressed as a conceptual feature vector in the concatenated Doc2Vec and LSI space (as shown in Section 2.2) will be able to predict a class from \(\{0, 1, ..., nc\}\) (0 representing non-defect, and \(nc\) representing a specific type of software defect).

The prediction model \(classifier\) may be: (1) a multi-class classification model (e.g., deep neural network, support vector machine, etc) trained on the re-labeled data set \(D\) in which the labels of the defective entities are updated according to the unsupervised learning stage; and (2) the previously uncovered clustering model itself (thought as an online clustering model), in which the new instance (application class) will be assigned to the cluster \(P_i\) \((1 \leq i \leq nc)\) which is the most similar to it (considering a specific distance metric) and thus labeled with \(i\).

The algorithmic description of the training step of PreSTyDe is given in Algorithm 1.

### 3 CASE STUDY

The case study proposed in our work targets Apache Calcite, an open-source framework for data management. Its use as a case study target is relatively new, being introduced by (Herbold et al., 2022) and employed in recent SDP researches (Ciubotariu et al., 2022).
Algorithm 1: The training stage of PreSTyDe.

```plaintext
Function Training(D) is
Input: D = D_1, D_2, ..., D_{k-1} the training data set in the form (c, ℓ_c) - c is an application class represented as a conceptual numerical vector in the concatenated Doc2Vec and LSI space (see Section 2.2) and ℓ_c ∈ {0, 1} is c’s label (0: non-defect; 1: defect).
Output: the classification model PreSTyDe

[/* Stage 1. Unsupervised classification stage */]
/* Determine the subset Def of defective application classes from D */
Def ← \{c|c ∈ \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} D_i, ℓ_c = 1\} /* Determine a partition ℙ = \{P_0, P_1, ..., P_{nc}\} of Def using the k-means clustering method */
nc ← ElbowMethod(Def)
ℙ ← k-means(Def, nc)
/* Extend the partition with the cluster of non-defective application classes */
P_0 ← \{c|c ∈ \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} D_i, ℓ_c = 0\}
/* Recompute the labels of the defective instances from D according to the identified partition ℙ */
for i ← 1, nc do
  for c ∈ P_i do
    ℓ_c ← i
  end
end

[/* Stage 2. Supervised classification stage */]
/* Build a multi-class classifier on the training data set D */
PreSTyDe ← buildClassifier(D)
Training ← PreSTyDe

EndFunction
```

2023) (Czibula et al., 2023) (Briciu et al., 2023). In the original data set (Herbold et al., 2022), there are 16 releases of the Calcite software (from 1.0.0 to 1.15.0). Application classes from each version are characterised by the values of 4189 software metrics (such as static code metrics, metrics extracted from the Abstract Syntax Tree representation of the source code, code churn metrics), and a binary label indicating whether the class was identified as being defective or not. This identification was done via a modified version of the SZZ algorithm, designed to work with the JIRA issue tracking system, together with manual data validation in order to establish the ground truth (Herbold et al., 2022).

We note very high data imbalancement (number of defective software entities vs. number of non-defects) for all Calcite versions: the defective rates range from 0.033 (for version 1.15.0) to 0.166 (for version 1.0.0). The total number of defective application classes in all Calcite versions is 1577.

As highlighted in Section 2.2, the relevance of the feature set employed for characterizing the application classes is of major importance in our SDP task, as these features will have an impact on the PreSTyDe model and its ability to create a good separation boundary between the class of defective and non-defective software entities. Starting from the research findings of (Miholca et al., 2022), we aim to use conceptual-based features for capturing semantic characteristics of source code instead of the classical features expressed through software metrics.

For a better understanding of the structural and conceptual feature-based representation of the defects from all the Calcite releases we depict in the 2D visualization of a self-organizing map (SOM) (Czibula and Czibula, 2012) unsupervisedly trained on the defective software application classes represented as software metrics (left side image of Figure 1) and conceptual features (right side image of Figure 1) proposed by (Miholca et al., 2022).

For visualizing the SOMs from Figure 1 the U-Matrix (Lötsch and Ullisch, 2014) method was employed. The adjacent neurons from the map are coloured based on their distance in the 2D output
Figure 1: 2D visualization of the set \( \text{Def} \) of software defects from all 16 Calcite releases visualized using a SOM: using the software metrics-based features proposed by (Herbold et al., 2022) (left side image), and semantic vectors extracted using Doc2Vec+LSI (right). Darker areas represent clusters of similar instances while lighter areas express cluster separators.

In our visualization, we employed a darker colouring for neurons that correspond to input instances whose vectors are close in the input space and thus darker regions express clusters of similar instances. Lighter areas represent larger distances between the neurons and thus express separation boundaries between the clusters. The visualizations from Figure 1 highlight that the conceptual feature-based representations in Doc2Vec+LSI spaces are the most informative, being able to distinguish more than two groups (types) of defective application classes. On the SOM built considering the software metrics-based representation (left image) we observe two clusters of software defects, while the semantic representation reveals about five groups. Based on this observation and the literature results, the combined Doc2Vec and LSI representations proposed and used by (Miholca et al., 2022) for the software application classes will be further employed in our study.

In order to help replicate our study, we made our data set and analysis source code publicly available at (Chelaru, 2024).

**Experiment.** We describe below the experiment used as a proof of concept for assessing the predictive performance of the PreSTyDe classifier on the previously described Calcite data set. Let us consider the data set \( \mathcal{D} \) of all (defective and non-defective) application classes from all 16 Calcite releases, represented as real-valued vectors in the Doc2Vec+LSI space. In our experiment we opted for exactly the same representations as those employed in the related work paper in order to allow a more accurate comparison with the results of (Miholca et al., 2022). Thus, the concatenated Doc2Vec+LSI representation is of length 60 (a dimensionality of 30 for the vectors extracted using both Doc2Vec and LSI). As shown by (Miholca et al., 2022), the Doc2Vec and LSI representations were extracted using the Gensim library (Rehůrek and Sojka, 2010), while the corpora used for training the Doc2Vec and LSI models consisted of the source code with comments but without operators, special symbols, English stop words or Java keywords.

The data set \( \mathcal{D} = \text{Def} \cup \text{NonDef} \) consists of 19571 application classes, from which 1577 are defective (the set \( \text{Def} \), with instances labeled with 1) and 17994 are non-defective (the set \( \text{NonDef} \), with instances labeled with 0). We note that the defective class is severely outnumbered by the non-defective one, thus revealing an extreme data imbalance (a defective rate of 8.06%).

Following the methodology introduced in Section 2, we present the two main stages to build the PreSTyDe classifier: the unsupervised classification stage followed by the supervised classification stage which also includes the performance evaluation methodology.

**Unsupervised classification stage.** As described in Section 2.3, the first step before applying the \( k \)-means classification method to the set of defects \( \text{Def} \) of all Calcite versions is to determine the optimal number \( nc \) of clusters using the Elbow method (Shi et al., 2021). Figure 2 is a visual representation of the elbow score applied to the set of defective instances. This method determines the optimal number of clusters by identifying the point at which the sum of squares within the cluster starts to decrease at a slower rate, similar to an “elbow” in the plot.

To further validate these findings, we also employed the Silhouette method, as seen in Figure 3, which measures how well defined and separated the clusters are, helping to identify an optimal number of clusters when the elbow point in the within-cluster sum of squares plot is ambiguous. Having the confirmation of this second test, we move further with the division into 5 clusters.

After determining the optimal number of clusters in the defective instances data set \( nc = 5 \), the clustering step was performed using the \( k \)-means algorithm from the scikit-learn library, which partitions the data set into \( k \) clusters, in our case 5, by iteratively assign-
ing data points to the nearest cluster centroid and updating the centroids to minimise the sum of squares within the cluster; this process continues until convergence. Figure 4 presents a 2D visualisation of the five clusters. The figure was constructed using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) dimensionality reduction technique, which allowed us to reduce the number of data features, but retain as much information as possible. We observe that there is no clear delimitation between all clusters, and this may be due to the vectorial representation of the data.

After the set $Def$ of defects was partitioned in 5 clusters using the $k$-means method, the labels of the defective application classes from $\mathcal{D}$ are changed according to the identified partition, i.e., the label of all software defects from the $i$-th cluster ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$) is changed to $i$.

**Supervised classification stage.** We describe the supervised classification stage used to assess our initial assumption that it would be more easy to differentiate the non-defects from a specific type of software faults than from the entire set of software faults.

Thus, for each cluster of defects $cl \in \{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_{nc}\}$, our goal is to train a deep neural network (DNN) model $M_i$ able to differentiate the specific class of defects $P_i$ from the set $NonDef$ of non-defects. Inspired by the inherent process of software evolution, $M_i$ will be trained only on the application classes (from $P_i$ and $NonDef$) from the first 10 software releases (1.0.0 to 1.9.0) and tested on those instances (from $P_i$ and $NonDef$) that belong to the last software releases (1.10.0 to 1.15.0).

The DNN is based on the keras library and comprises an input layer of 60 input features, two hidden layers employing ReLU activation, and a sigmoid-activated output layer. An additional dropout layer with a dropout rate of 0.2 was incorporated for regularisation. The loss function chosen is binary cross-entropy, optimised with the Adam optimiser having a learning rate of 0.001. Training spans 15 epochs with a batch size of 16, accompanied by the use of class weights to address class imbalance.

To find the optimal configuration for our model, we performed hyperparameter tuning experiments using GridSearchCV, exploring learning rates, the number of hidden layers and neurons per layer, the number of epochs, and batch sizes.

**Performance evaluation.** The performance of each $M_i$ model trained as previously described will be compared with the performance of a DNN model $M_{all}$ trained on releases 1.0.0 to 1.14.0 to differentiate the entire set $Def$ of defective application classes from the set of non-defective ones $NonDef$. The testing of $M_{all}$ is performed, as for the models $M_i$, on version 1.15.0. If the performance of $M_i$ will be higher than the performance of $M_{all}$ then our initial hypothesis stands. For a more accurate performance evaluation, $M_{all}$ will be trained/tested using the same methodology as the individual $M_i$ models.

Once the binary classification models $(M_{all}, M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_{nc})$ were trained, their performance on the testing set (Calcite version 1.15.0) is evaluated using the following performance measures:

- **Sensitivity (Sens)** - the true positive rate of the
classifier (also known as recall or probability of detection); Specificity (Spec) - the true negative rate of the classifier Area under the ROC curve (AUC) - considered among the best metrics for performance evaluation in SDP (Fawcett, 2006), is computed as the average between the specificity and sensitivity values; Weighted F1 score \((W.F1)\) - computed as the weighted average of the F1-scores for the defect and non-defect classes; Average Area under the Precision-Recall curve \((\text{Avg} \text{AUPRC})\) - computed as the average between the AUPRC value of the positive and negative class. Matthews Correlation Coefficient \((MCC)\) - an evaluation metric used in the ML literature mainly for imbalanced classification.

All the evaluation measures should be maximised in order to obtain better defect predictors. \(MCC\) range in \([-1,1]\), while the other measures range in \([0,1]\).

4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We present the results of the experiment described in Section 3 on the Apache Calcite software for answering RQ1 in what concerns the performance of the PreSTyDe classifier.

As presented in Section 3, for each cluster of defects identified in all 16 Calcite releases, we train a DNN-based model \(M_i\) \((1 \leq i \leq 5)\) for separating \(P_i\) from the set \(\text{NonDef}\) of non-defects as well as a DNN model \(M_{\text{all}}\) trained to differentiate the entire set of defects \((\text{Def})\) from the set of non-defective ones \(\text{NonDef}\). Each of the learning models is trained on all application classes from Calcite releases 1.0.0-1.9.0, while the testing set consists of the instances from Calcite versions 1.10.0-1.15.0. The decision to divide the data set as such is based on two facts: first, we wanted to follow the evolution of the project; therefore we trained our model on early releases and used the latest versions possible for testing, but also had to include entities from all the uncovered clusters in both training and testing.

Table 1 presents, for each of the evaluated learning models \((M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_5\) and \(M_{\text{all}})\) the number of defects from the testing data, the obtained confusion matrix together with the values for the performance metrics employed. We note that the testing data sets for each of the models contains 7595 non-defective instances (non-defects from releases 1.10.0-1.15.0).

A first issue that should be noted (as revealed by the results from Table 1) is that the difficulty of classification increases when attempting to distinguish a specific class of defects (clusters \(P_1-P_5\)) from the class of non-defective instances. This was to be expected, due to a more severe data imbalancement for training the models \(M_1-M_5\) (significantly smaller number of defects, as depicted in the last column of the table) which makes it more difficult for the classifier to recognize the minority class.

To mitigate this issue of data imbalancement and reduce the bias of the classifier towards the non-defective class, weights were used during the training. Nevertheless, classifiers \(M_1-M_5\) have a false negative rate \((\text{FNRate})\) higher with more than 20\% than the false negative rate of \(M_{\text{all}}\). The higher values of the FNRate reveal that more defects are misclassified by \(M_1-M_5\) than by \(M_{\text{all}}\) which lead to lower positive predictive values \((\text{PPVs})\) - precision values for the defective class. This is also reflected in the sensitivity of the classifiers: \(M_{\text{all}}\) has a higher sensitivity value \((0.482)\) than all classifiers \(M_1-M_5\).

Figure 5 depicts the variation of sensitivity with respect to the number of defects from the testing data and the imbalancement degree \((\text{ID})\) - computed as the number of non-defects divided to the number of defects \((M_1-M_5, M_{\text{all}})\). The Pearson correlation coefficients \((\text{PCC})\) were also computed for measuring the degree of linear relationship between the specificity and ID/number of defects. We note weak correlations between \(\text{Spec}\) and ID \((\text{PCC} \approx -0.123)\) and the number of defects \((\text{PCC} \approx 0.235)\). However, the PPV values are strongly correlated with ID \((\text{PCC} \approx -0.738)\) and very strongly correlated with the number of defects \((\text{PCC} \approx 0.933)\) suggesting that the precision of the classifier in detecting the defects are strongly dependent on the number of defects from the training/testing data.

![Figure 5: Variation of Spec with respect to the imbalance degree (ID) and the number of defects from the testing data for the models \(M_1-M_5, M_{\text{all}})\). The values for the ID and number of defects were scaled to \([0.1, 0.5]\).](image)

Even if the models \(M_1-M_5\) have lower probability of detection values than \(M_{\text{all}}\) (as revealed by the previous analysis), it should be noted that the specificity values for the models \(M_1-M_5\) are higher than the specificity of \(M_{\text{all}}\) with more than 30\%. Thus, models \(M_1-M_5\) are able to better recognize the class of
Table 1: Experimental results. Each of the evaluated learning models (M₁, M₂, ..., M₅ and M₆) is trained on the application classes from the first 10 Calcite releases and tested on the five remaining versions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning model</th>
<th>TD</th>
<th>FD</th>
<th>TN</th>
<th>FN</th>
<th>Sens (t)</th>
<th>Spec (t)</th>
<th>AUC (t)</th>
<th>W_F1 (t)</th>
<th>Avg_AUPRC (t)</th>
<th>MCC (t)</th>
<th># of defects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M₁</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>6872</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>0.948</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₂</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1479</td>
<td>6116</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₃</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>7484</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.985</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₄</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>6748</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.580</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₅</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>7250</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.955</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M₆</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>3349</td>
<td>4246</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>0.482</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-defects than M₆, meaning that the non-defective instances are more easily distinguished from the specific types of defects (clusters P₁-P₃) than from the whole set of defects. We also note that for all the other metrics (AUC, W_F1, Avg_AUPRC, MCC), the models M₁, M₂, M₃, and M₅ have better values than M₆. In terms of AUC measure, which is considered among the best metrics in SDP, there is an increase in performance with more than 6% for the classification of specific types of defects.

It is surprising that the cluster P₃ is the worst separated from the set of non-defects, even if the number of defects from the cluster is the highest compared to the other clusters. However, the specificity of the model M₃ is the highest, which means that non-defects are better recognized than the defects. We analyzed the bug reports, the source code and all the changes made to the misclassified instances from P₃ for identifying common reasons for the wrong classifications. In some cases the difference between the version containing the defect and the version that fixed the bug is very small and consequently the generated feature representation in the combined Doc2vec and LSI space did not manage to meaningfully capture the change. For example the class CassandraEnumerator from the package org.apache.calcite.adapter.cassandra having 116 lines of code contained a bug ([CXCITE-1855]) in version 1.12.0, then the fix was provided in version 1.13.0 by the commit 43e32fa5a and it only consisted in merging two if statements and removing one line. In other cases, for example for the bug report [CXCITE-1569] where the fix contains classes from P₃, there are lengthy discussions about the reported issue suggesting that even the human experts are not in agreement on the exact requirements and specification for a given class. The discussion around this particular bug report contains multiple alternatives to fix the issue, potentially affecting a different set of classes.

Overall, considering all six evaluation metrics, the performance of the models M₁-M₃ exceeds the performance of M₆ in 73% of the cases (22 out of 30 comparisons). Thus, our hypothesis that the classification on specific types of defects is more performant than the classification of all software defects considered as a whole is sustained and RQ₁ is answered.

However, we acknowledge the poorer performance of PreStyDe in terms of probability of detection (Spec). This may be due to a limitation of the employed classifier (DNN) which misclassifies the software defects (due to the severe imbalance of the data) and can be caused by inappropriate class weights or the architecture itself. Other classification models, such as support vector machines or gradient boosting methods may be more suitable for the considered SDP tasks and will be further explored. The one-class classification models may also be an alternative to address the low classification recall.

Another possible cause for the poorer performance in terms of Spec may be the representation employed. It would be possible that the used representation (Doc2vec+LSI) is not able to distinguish the faulty entities and should be enriched with other features (e.g., software metrics or semantic features learned from other software artifacts).

### 4.1 Comparison to Related Work

Despite of the vast research in the field of SDP using machine learning and recently deep learning approaches, there are very few approaches in the literature addressing the problem of predicting specific types of software defects. Existing SDP approaches highlight the need to shift the SDP research towards predicting specific types of software faults such as security vulnerability issues (Dam et al., 2019), numeric errors, complexity issues, pointer issues (Czibula et al., 2023), energy defects, performance defects (Kamei and Shihab, 2016) as specific defect types have their own specific behavior. Still, most SDP approaches consider all defect types together and try to propose a universal defect prediction model.

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There are very few methods in the recent SDP literature addressing the problem of predicting specific defect types.
(Xu et al., 2021) attempted to address the difficulty of predicting all types of defects using a single model and introduced a graph representation that allowed to extract defect region candidates for specific defect types. Experiments were carried out on the Software Assurance Reference Dataset (SARD, 2023) and three different types of software faults: improper validation of an array index vulnerability (CWE-129), unchecked input for loop condition (CWE-606) and divide by zero (CWE-369). Very good performance was obtained for the models specifically developed for the three types of defects, with Area Under the ROC curve values ranging between 0.846 and 0.995.

It is difficult to provide a direct comparison between our approach and (Xu et al., 2021), as they have different goals. First, we do not use predefined types of software defects, but we aim to detect defect classes from the available releases of the software and further employ these classes for predicting types of defects in future software releases. Thus, our aim is to adapt the types of defects to the analysed software. Second, the current work is not focused on improving the performance of prediction for the specific types of defects, but to point out that the performance of predicting specific defect types is higher than the performance of predicting all defect types together. And last, (Xu et al., 2021) do not perform their experiments on Calcite.

4.2 Analysis from a Software Engineering Perspective

We aim to answer RQ2 from a software engineering point of view. We focus on the 1.10.0 - 1.15.0 versions, on which the $M_i$ models were tested. Changes to these versions included support for Java 10, numerous improvements and bugfixes, extensions to the supported SQL syntax as well as new functionalities and API changes. We carried out a manual comparison between all consecutive version pairs (e.g., 1.10.0 and 1.11.0). We observed that Calcite’s file structure did not undergo significant changes, which was expected from already mature application versions (Molnar and Motogna, 2020).

While a detailed evaluation of the classifier’s per class performance is beyond the scope of our present paper, we selected one defect from each of the studied versions, in order to highlight the inherent complexity of the SDP task.

CALCITE-1501 was a major bug affecting a class in version 1.10, which PreSTyDe mislabelled as non-defective. Fixing it required detailed knowledge of the operators used within Calcite, proof being the detailed discussion recorded on JIRA. CALCITE-1949 was a major bug first reported in version 1.11 that lead to potential memory leaks and which was resolved in version 1.17. Repairing the defect entailed calling the close() method of a superclass belonging to the Avatica external library. For version 1.12, we selected CALCITE-1881, a major bug that induces an error due to a defect in working with date and timestamp types. The fix consisted in updating how Calcite worked with data types interpretable as a timestamp.

We use source file DruidQuery.java as an example for the difficulties in pinpointing the decisions taken by SDP approaches. Both the original data set (Herbold et al., 2022) and our classifier marked the source file as defective in version 1.13; our manual examination revealed the existence of several overlapping issues that were fixed either in version 1.13 (CALCITE-1853) or one of the following ones (CALCITE-2035, CALCITE-2094, CALCITE-2101). CALCITE-2055 was a major bug present in 1.14, which was fixed in version 1.15. It had to do with correct parsing of invalid date components and the responsible source file was not correctly classified by PreSTyDe. The issue was resolved by adding the required verification code and raising an exception in case invalid input was provided. For Calcite version 1.15, we selected CALCITE-2188, a major bug that resulted in errors in specific use of date-type objects in SQL queries. While fixed in version 1.17, the associated discussion on JIRA is a good illustration of the complexities of source code that must remain compatible with several relational database systems, each of which handles issues such as timestamp differently.

Our examination reaffirmed the variance in software defects. We confirmed the findings of (Herbold et al., 2022) that defining defects is not practical for most real-life software systems. In several of the examined cases, defect resolution involved the inclusion of large sections of new code as the result of lengthy discussion between subject matter experts.

5 THREATS TO VALIDITY

The research conducted in this paper followed the guidelines stated in (Runeson and Höst, 2009). Starting from a research hypothesis and two well-defined research questions, we established the methodology (all defect data and details are available on JIRA)

1https://calcite.apache.org/news/releases/
2https://issues.apache.org/jira/browse/CALCITE-1501
of our study, the target application, collected, processed and analyzed the data. In order to allow the replication or extension of our study, the data used in our experiments was published as an open-data package (Chelaru, 2024). Moreover, to address the internal, external and construct threats to our study’s validity the existing best practices in both machine learning and software engineering research were adopted.

In what concerns internal threats we note that the feature set employed for representing the application classes is of major importance and may have an influence on the obtained results. In addition, an analysis of the source code of all Calcite project releases revealed several situations which may cause noise in the training data and affect the performance of our approach. We found 56 application classes labelled as non-defects (0) in a certain software version, label that changed to defective (1) in a future release without any change in the source code of the application class. We also detected an application class initially labelled as 1, with the label changed in a newer release to 0 without any source code changes. These data points corroborate some of our earlier findings (Cizbulia et al., 2023) regarding limitations in the analysis of large volumes of source code and associated information. We note these instances were not removed from the data sets and could have introduced noise into the ML models’ building and evaluation.

We leveraged previous work (Herbold et al., 2022) that combined automated tooling and manual validation in order to ensure the validity of our method’s input data. However, this limited the scope of our study to the 16 versions covered by the research. As such, the most important external threat to our study’s validity regards its scope, which is currently limited to a subset of all the versions of a single member of the Apache suite.

We addressed construct threats by targeting a popular open-source application for which source code and associated development data is available. We employed a combination of widely used performance metrics together with complementing the results of the PreSTyDe approach with an additional analysis from a software engineering point of view. However, it is possible that additional, yet hidden software defects exist which could confound our analysis and skew obtained results. In addition, dividing the available versions into training (first 10 versions) and testing (next 6 versions) meant that the latter was carried out using mature application versions. We aim to extend our work in order to cover multiple systems as well as application development phases, in order to capture the target application’s entire lifecycle.

6 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Starting from the hypothesis that the performance of predicting software defects would improve by developing predictors for specific classes of software defects, we proposed the PreSTyDe defect prediction model. PreSTyDe consists of an unsupervised labelling of defects from the available versions of the analysed software system followed by a supervised defect predictor used to predict the error proneness of the application classes in an upcoming version of the software by employing the taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered during the previous stage.

An initial case study was conducted on the Calcite software as a proof of concept for assessing the predictive performance of PreSTyDe; it confirmed the feasibility of predicting specific types of software defects instead of developing one classifier for predicting the whole class of software faults. The research questions stated in Section 1 have been answered. As a response to the RQs, we highlighted that the performance of predicting the defect-proneness of the application classes in a specific version of a software could be improved by employing a taxonomy of defects unsupervisedly uncovered from the previous software releases. We also carried out an initial analysis from a software engineering perspective conducted on a selected number of software defects. We used Apache Calcite (Begoli et al., 2018), a mature real life software project to indicate the potential and viability of the proposed approach in an industrial context.

We believe that our current work on classifying defects by their category should be the new line of research in the SDP field as, on one hand, it could lead to a better understanding of software defects, and from a practical perspective it may aid development teams to early detect specific faults.

In what concerns future work, the immediate goal is to increase the specificity of the proposed approach by investigating other classifiers such as support vector machines or gradient boosting methods. Another direction regards complementing existing data sets such as (Herbold et al., 2022) with additional results from static analysis tools such as SonarQube (Molnar and Motogna, 2020) or PTIDEJ (Lenarduzzi et al., 2019); we believe it is likely that having input data at a higher level than class-based metrics could further improve the precision of methods such as PreSTyDe. We aim to complement these efforts by carrying out an extensive evaluation of our classifier’s accuracy from a software engineering standpoint, by examining the generated clusters and using a known defect taxonomy to evaluate cluster-specific errors.
Finally, we will focus on extending our investigation to other systems within the Apache Software Foundation due to their strict inclusion criteria, mature nature and comprehensive feature and software defect information (Lenarduzzi et al., 2019).

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