Forecasting Field Defect Rates Using a Combined Time-based and Metrics-based Approach: a Case Study of OpenBSD

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ABSTRACT
Open source software systems are critical infrastructure for many applications; however, little has been precisely measured about their quality. Forecasting the field defect-occurrence rate over the entire lifespan of a release before deployment for open source software systems may enable informed decision-making. In this paper, we present an empirical case study of ten releases of OpenBSD. We use the novel approach of predicting model parameters of software reliability growth models (SRGMs) using metrics-based modeling methods. We consider three SRGMs, seven metrics-based prediction methods, and two different sets of predictors. Our results show that accurate field defect-occurrence rate forecasts are possible for OpenBSD, as measured by the Theil forecasting statistic. We identify the SRGM that produces the most accurate forecasts and subjectively determine the preferred metrics-based prediction method and set of predictors. Our findings are steps towards managing the risks associated with field defects.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
D.2.4 [Software Engineering]: Software/Program Verification – Reliability, Statistical methods
D.2.8 [Software Engineering]: Metrics – Process metrics, Product metrics, Software science
D.2.9 [Software Engineering]: Management – Cost estimation, Software quality assurance

General Terms
Management, Measurement, Reliability, Experimentation

Keywords
Metrics-based modeling, deployment and usage metrics, software and hardware configurations metrics, comparative study, open source software

1. INTRODUCTION
Many software applications, including mobile applications, depend upon open source software systems to provide critical computing infrastructure. The quality of the infrastructure (e.g. operating system) may affect the quality of the application. In this paper, we present a case study of the open source operating system OpenBSD, which is a key component of several commercial network security products [30].

Quantitatively-based decision making regarding open source systems is often difficult, because the quality of open source software systems is often not known quantitatively. Being able to forecast field defect-occurrence rates (i.e. the rates of customer reported software problems requiring developer intervention to resolve) over the entire lifespan of a release (i.e. as long as there are field defect occurrences) before deployment (i.e. at the time of release) may allow existing quantitatively-based decision-making methods to be used to:

• Help organizations seeking to adopt open source software systems to make informed choices between candidates
• Help organizations using open source software systems to decide whether to adopt the latest release
• Help organizations that adopt a release to better manage resources to deal with possible defects
• Insure users against the costs of field defect occurrences

Prior work by Li et al. [17] has shown that it is not possible to forecast field defect-occurrence rates (i.e. the field defect-occurrence pattern over time) by fitting a SRGM to development defect information. In this paper, we report results using the novel approach of using metrics-based modeling methods to predict model parameters of time-based models (i.e. SRGMs).

We conduct empirical experiments comparing combinations of SRGMs, metrics-based modeling methods, and sets of predictors to forecast field defect-occurrence rates before release. We construct combinations along the following dimensions:
2. PRIOR WORK AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

We motivate our work and our experimental design by discussing prior work.

We define a field defect as a user-reported problem occurring after release requiring developer intervention to resolve. Our operational measure of a field defect for OpenBSD is a user submitted problem report in the request tracking system of the class software bugs occurring after the official release date (discussed more in sections 3 and 4). Each problem report is counted. For example, two user-reported problems traced to the same underlying defect are counted as two field defects. These software related problem reports require developer intervention to resolve.

A field defect occurrence is the occurrence of a field defect. A similar definition is used in Li et al. [15].

2.1 Fixed dimensions in our experimental design

Granularity of observation, types of prediction, defect modeling approaches, and forecasting approaches are dimensions of variation we do not vary in our study. The dimensions listed in the introduction are dimensions we vary in our study and are discussed in section 2.2.

2.1.1 Granularity of observation

In this paper, we examine field defect occurrences for the entire system as a whole. This is the correct level of granularity because we are focused on helping software consumers; and, software consumers generally view the software system as a whole.

Prior work has predicted field defects for individual software changes (e.g. in Mockus et al. [21]), files (e.g. in Ostrand et al. [26]), modules (e.g. in Khoshgoftaar et al. [12]), and entire systems (e.g. in Kenney [4]).

2.1.2 Types of predictions

In this paper, we predict the rate of field defect occurrences over time because effective quantitatively-based decision making requires knowing the rate of field defect occurrences over time as discussed by Li et al. [15].

Predictions regarding field defects in prior work generally belong to one of four categories:

- Relationships: These studies establish relationships between predictors and field defects. For example, Harter et al. [2] establish a relationship between an organization’s CMM level and the number of field defects.

- Classifications: These studies predict if the number of field defects is above a threshold for an observation. For example, Khoshgoftaar et al. [6] classify software modules as risky (will contain at least one field defect) or not risky (no field defects).
• Quantities: These studies predict the number of field defects. For example, Khoshgoftar et al. [11] predict the number of defects for software modules.

• Rates of occurrences over time: These studies predict the field defect-occurrence rate. For example, Kenny [4] predicts the defect occurrence pattern as captured by the Weibull model for two IBM systems.

2.1.3 Defect modeling approaches
In this paper, we use a novel approach of using metrics-based modeling methods to predict model parameters of a SRGM, which captures the field defect-occurrence pattern of a software release over the entire lifetime of the release (i.e. until there are no more field defect occurrences).

Field defect predictions generally belong to one of two classes: time-based approach and metrics-based approach. Schneidewind [28] distinguishes between these two approaches:

1. Time-based approach: This approach uses defect occurrence times or the number of defects in time intervals during testing to fit a SRGM. The field defect-occurrence rate is forecasted using the fitted SRGM. Musa [20] and Lyu [24] describe this approach in detail.

2. Metrics-based approach: This approach uses historical information on metrics available before release (predictors) and historical information on field defects to fit a predictive model. The fitted model and predictors’ values for a new observation are used to predict classifications or quantities; however, metrics-based models have not been used to predict model parameters of SRGMs. Examples of this approach are in Mockus [22] and Khoshgoftar et al. [11]

Li et al. [17] show that it is not possible to use the time-based approach of fitting a SRGM to development defects to predict field defect-occurrence rates for OpenBSD. The authors find that the field defect-occurrence rates are generally increasing at the time of release; therefore, the authors cannot fit a meaningful model. Other studies (e.g. [16] and [4]) reach similar conclusions.

Furthermore, in order for the defect-occurrence pattern to continue from testing into the field, the software has to be operated in a similar manner as that in which reliability predictions are made (as stated by Farr in [20]). However, we are interested in widely-used systems such as COTS and open source software systems. The similarity of testing and deployment environments assumption does not necessarily hold for these systems. Therefore, it may not be appropriate to forecast field defect-occurrence rates using a SRGM fitted using testing information.

Unlike the time-based approach, the metrics-based approach uses historical information on predictors and actual field defects to construct a predictive model. Since there is no assumption about the similarity between testing and field environments, metrics-based models are more robust against differences between how the software is tested and how it is used in the field.

2.1.4 Forecasting approaches
In this paper, we simulate a real world situation by forecasting field defect-occurrence rates using only information available at the time of release (i.e. before deployment) for multiple releases.

Prior work in metrics-based modeling either inadequately addresses multiple releases or does not account for multiple active releases. Some studies (e.g. Khoshgoftar et al. [11]) split data from the same release into fitting and testing sets. This approach ignores possible differences between releases that are not accounted for in the model. A better approach is to use a model fitted using data from a historical release to predict for future releases. This is the approach taken by Khoshgoftar et al. in [6] and by Ostrand et al in [26]. However, previous studies assume that complete defect information is available for historical releases; yet, complete field defect information is often not available for historical releases that are still active in the field.

In this study, we estimate model parameters for active historical releases using field defect information available at the time of release. An example prediction situation for a typical release is illustrated in Figure 1.
we use the estimated model parameters for the two releases. Predictor information and model parameters for releases 2.4-2.6 are then used to predict model parameters for release 2.7.

2.2 Dimensions of variation in our experimental design

The SRGMs, the modeling methods, and the predictors are the dimensions we vary in our study.

2.2.1 Software reliability growth models (SRGMs)

Prior work by Li et al. [15] has compared the ability of SRGMs from the literature to model the rate of defect occurrences (including defects during development) of OpenBSD based on post-facto fits and has concluded that the Weibull model is better than other models, as judged by the AIC model selection criterion. We have replicated the experiment using only field defects and have arrived at the same conclusions (i.e. the Weibull model is better) [18].

Prior work is based on post-facto fits evaluated using the AIC model selection criterion [15]. Even though AIC penalizes for extra model parameters, Weibull model parameters may be much harder to predict compared with model parameters of other models. Therefore, in this paper, we also consider the Gamma model (also known as the S-shaped model [20]) and the Exponential model (also known as the Goel-Okumoto model [20]), which have been shown to be the next most effective models [18]. We have also examined the Logarithmic (also known as the Musa-Okumoto model [24]) and Power (also known as Duane’s model [20]) models; however, their post-facto fits are worse than the models we consider for releases of OpenBSD.

The models’ forms are in Table 1. The model parameters (highlighted) dictate the rate of field defect occurrences. We predict the model parameters using metrics-based modeling methods. Interpretations of the models and discussions of the match between the SRGMs and the field defect-occurrence phenomenon (e.g. in Musa [24] and in Kenny [4]) are beyond the scope of this paper. This dimension of variation addresses the question:

Which SRGM yields the most accurate field defect-occurrence rate forecasts?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model type</th>
<th>Model form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exponential</td>
<td>$\lambda(t) = Na^t e^{-\alpha t}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weibull</td>
<td>$\lambda(t) = N \alpha (\lambda t + 1)^{\alpha - 1} e^{-\lambda t}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gamma</td>
<td>$\lambda(t) = N \beta \alpha (\lambda t + 1)^{-\alpha - 1} e^{-\lambda t}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.2 Metrics-based modeling methods

Prior work has explored using metrics-based modeling methods to predict quantities (e.g. the total number of field defects). It may be possible to use these methods to predict model parameters that describe the field defect-occurrence pattern. We consider metrics-based modeling methods that have been used in previous studies to predict quantities. We discuss these methods in detail in section 5.

Many studies have compared the accuracy of predicted classifications of various metrics-based models (e.g. Khoshgoftaar et al. [7]). Few studies have compared the accuracy of predicted quantities of various metrics-based models (e.g. Khoshgoftaar et al. [11]). No work has compared the accuracy of predicted field defect-occurrence rates of various metrics-based methods. This dimension of variation addresses the question:

Which metrics-based modeling method predicts model parameters that produce the most accurate field defect-occurrence rate forecasts?

2.2.3 Predictors

Metrics available before release are predictors, which can be used by metrics-based modeling methods to predict model parameters.

We categorize predictors used in prior work using an augmented version of the categorization schemes used by Fenton and Pfleeger in [1] and by Khoshgoftaar and Allen in [5]:

- Product metrics: metrics that measure attributes of any intermediate or final product of the software development process. Product metrics have been shown to be important predictors by studies such as Khoshgoftaar et al. [6].
- Development metrics: metrics that measure attributes of the development process. Development metrics have been shown to be important predictors by studies such as Mockus et al. [21].
- Deployment and usage metrics (DU): metrics that measure attributes of deployment of the software system and usage in the field. DU metrics have been shown to be important predictors by studies such as Jones et al. [3].
- Software and hardware configurations metrics (SH): metrics that measure attributes of the software and hardware systems that interact with the software system in the field. SH metrics have been shown to be important predictors by Mockus et al. [22].

Prior work has only examined commercial software systems, and no prior work has examined predictions using predictors in all the categories simultaneously. In this paper, we compare using only predictors in the referenced work (e.g. product metrics only) and using a superset of predictors (i.e. predictors in all the categories). This dimension of variation addresses the question:

Do more predictors and more categories of predictors yield more accurate forecasts?

3. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

OpenBSD is an open source Unix-style operating system written primarily in C. The OpenBSD project uses the
same intent otherwise. All the predictors used in previous studies were product metrics. We computed product metrics (106 metrics) and development metrics (22 metrics) that capture each sources of variance in product and development metrics identified by Munson and Khoshgoftaar in [23] and by Khoshgoftaar et al. in [14]. Furthermore, we computed metrics that capture information about deployment and usage (9 metrics) and software and hardware configurations in use (7 metrics).

We collected deployment and usage metrics in two categories: mailing list predictors and request tracking system predictors. Mailing list predictors counted the number of messages to non-hardware related mailing lists during development. We believed our mailing list predictors were valid because they quantified the amount of interest in OpenBSD, which might be related to deployment and usage. Request tracking predictors counted the number of problem reports during development that were not defects (e.g., documentation problems). We believed our request tracking system predictors were valid because users had to install OpenBSD and use the system before they could report a problem. An example of a deployment and usage metric is TechMailing, which is the number of messages to the technical mailing list during the development period.

We collected software and hardware configuration metrics in two categories: mailing list predictors and request tracking system predictors. Mailing list predictors counted the number of messages to hardware specific mailing lists during development. We believed our mailing list predictors were valid because they reflected the amount of interest/activity related to the specific hardware, which might be related to how many of the specified hardware machines had OpenBSD installed. Request tracking predictors counted the number of defects (field defects and development defects) during development that identified the type of hardware used. We believed our request tracking system predictors were valid because users had to install OpenBSD on the specified HW before they could report a problem. An example of a software and hardware configurations metric is AllDefectHWSparc, which is the number of field defects reported against all active release during the development period that identify the machine as of type Sparc.

5. DATA ANALYSIS
In this section, we describe the modeling methods in each referenced work as well as the adjustments we had to make. A more detailed discussion is in [18].

We predicted model parameters using each of the metrics-based modeling method (the same method for all model parameters). Accuracy of the resulting field defect-occurrence rate forecast was evaluated using the Theil forecasting statistic. Analysis was preformed using the open source statistical package R [27].
The Theil statistic compares the forecast for each time interval $i$ against a no-change forecast based on the previous time interval's value \[ U^2 = \frac{\sum (P_i - A_i)^2}{\sum A_i^2} \]
The Theil statistic $U$ is greater or equal to zero. The term $P_i$ is the projected change and $A_i$ is the actual change in interval $i$. A Theil statistic of zero indicates perfect forecasts with $P_i = A_i$. A Theil statistic of one indicates that forecasts are no better than no-change forecasts with $P_i = 0$. Values greater than 1 indicate forecasts are worse than no-change forecasts. We consider forecasts accurate if the resulting Theil statistic is less than 1.

### 5.1 Principal component analysis, clustering, and linear regression

We roughly replicated (explained below) the principal component analysis (PCA), clustering, and linear regression method in Khoshgoftaar et al. [10]. PCA constructs new predictors that capture all the variation in the original predictors using linear combinations of the original predictors. Clustering groups observations together based on predictors’ values.

Khoshgoftaar et al. [10] constructed principal components and then clustered observations using the principal components. They fitted linear models to the observations in each cluster. To predict for a new observation, the observation was placed into one of the clusters based on its predictors’ values. The fitted linear model for the cluster was then used to predict for the new observation.

Khoshgoftaar et al. [10] predicted field defects for modules using 11 product metrics. They fitted models using 260 observations in four clusters. Since we only had 9 observations, we modified the process to use two clusters and to fit a null linear model for each cluster (i.e. an average of the observations). In addition, we did not have enough observations to perform a PCA. Therefore, when using the same predictors as the original study, we used the linear coefficients of the referenced work to construct principal components. When using all the predictors, we did not conduct a PCA. We used the popular K-means clustering method, since Khoshgoftaar et al. [10] did not identify the clustering method used.

### 5.2 Linear regression with model selection

We replicated the linear regression with model selection method in Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] and in Khoshgoftaar et al. [8]. Linear regression models the predicted value using a linear combination of predictors’ values. Model selection keeps predictors that improve the fit significantly as judged by a model selection criterion (e.g. AIC).

Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [8] used backwards and stepwise model selection techniques to select a subset of predictors. They fitted a linear regression model using the selected predictors and the least squares method. To predict for a new observation, the predictors’ values and the fitted model were used to estimate the value.

Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [8] predicted field defects for modules of two systems using 8 product metrics for one system and 11 product metrics for the other system. They used 188 and 226 observations to fit models for the two systems. Due to data constraints, we modified our model selection method to select only one predictor (to prevent over-fitting). Since no model selection criterion was identified in Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [8], we used the popular AIC model selection criterion.

### 5.3 Non-linear regression

We replicated the non-linear regression method used in Khoshgoftaar and Munson [9] and in Khoshgoftaar et al. [8]. Non-linear regression models the predicted value using a non-linear combinations of the predictors’ values.

Khoshgoftaar and Munson [9] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [8] used non-linear least squares regression to construct non-linear models of the form:

\[ y = b_0 + b_1 \times (\text{LOC})^{b_2} \]

where $y$ = number of faults, $b_0$, $b_1$, $b_2$ were modeling parameters, LOC was lines of code.

For a new observation, the value of the lines of code predictor was inserted into the fitted model to produce a prediction.

Khoshgoftaar and Munson [9] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [8] used 15 observations to train the model. We found that it was not possible to fit a model with three parameters using 9 observations; therefore, we simplified the model by dropping a modeling parameter. Our model was:

\[ y = b_1 \times (\text{LOC})^{b_2} \]

### 5.4 Trees

We replicated the Classification and Regressions Trees (CART) method in Khoshgoftaar and Seliya [13]. The trees method iteratively splits observations into similar groups as judged by the predicted value using predictors’ values.

Khoshgoftaar and Seliya [13] built a regression tree using training observations and a minimum node size of 10. To predict for a new observation, the observation traversed the tree until it reached a leaf node. The mean of the training observations in the leaf node was the predicted value of the new observation.

Khoshgoftaar and Seliya [13] predicted field defects in modules using 9 product metrics. They fitted models using 4648 observations. Since we had at most 9 training observations, we built trees with varying minimum node sizes of between 2 to 7.
5.5 Neural networks
We replicated the feed-forward neural networks method used in Khoshgoftaar et al. [12] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [11]. Neural networks use non-linear functions to combine predictors’ values to produce an output.

A neural networks model is a multi-layer perceptron model that produces a value between 0 and 1. The predictors are in one layer, with each predictor as one neuron, and the output is in one layer. A non-linear function is used to combine values to connect layers and to produce the output. For a new observation, the predictors’ values are placed on the outer layer and the predicted value between 0 and 1 is produced at the output neuron.

Khoshgoftaar et al. [12] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] scaled all values (predictors and the predicted value) to be between 0 and 1 by dividing by the value of the maximum element in each set. The data were then used to fit a neural network. To predict for a new observation, the predictors’ values were used to produce a value between 0 and 1. The value was then scaled up according to the range of the predicted value in the training set.

Khoshgoftaar et al. [12] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] predicted field defects for the same two systems as the linear regression with model selection method. They used 16 and 18 hidden layer neurons for the two systems. We modified the process by fitting separate neural networks for each predictor (i.e. one input neuron) using one hidden layer neuron. For each release, we selected the best model by evaluating fitted values. The most accurate model was then used to make predictions for the next release.

5.6 Exponential smoothing and moving averages
We replicated the moving averages and exponential smoothing methods used in Li et al. [15].

To predict for the next release, a weighted average of the values from historical releases was used. For the moving averages method, each historical release received equal weight. For exponential smoothing method, releases closer in time received more weight, since recent releases might be more similar to the current release. Li et al. [15] considered averaging 2-7 releases. We made no modifications to the method.

6. RESULTS
This section summarizes results of our 99 forecasting experiments. The top 10 SRGM, prediction method, and predictors combinations based on the average Theil statistic are in table 2. Complete results are in [18].

No training data was available for the first release (R2.4) and we excluded release 3.2; therefore, we predicted for nine releases. Many combinations were not able to predict for all releases because the modeling methods required additional data.

Our approach yields accurate forecasts, as measured by the Theil statistic (discussed in section 5). The accuracy is also evident upon a visual inspection of our forecasts. A plot of the nine releases and forecasts of the top three combinations are in figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model, method, predictor combination</th>
<th>R2.5</th>
<th>R2.6</th>
<th>R2.7</th>
<th>R2.8</th>
<th>R2.9</th>
<th>R3.0</th>
<th>R3.1</th>
<th>R3.3</th>
<th>R3.4</th>
<th>Avg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the moving averages method of 2 releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.7520</td>
<td>.5911</td>
<td>.5267</td>
<td>3099</td>
<td>.5982</td>
<td>.6925</td>
<td>.6142</td>
<td>.4360</td>
<td>.5651</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the non-linear regression method using lines of code (same predictors as referenced work)</td>
<td>.7017</td>
<td>3172</td>
<td>.7830</td>
<td>.6788</td>
<td>.4023</td>
<td>.5079</td>
<td>.5651</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the trees method splitting with six observations using all predictors</td>
<td>.7048</td>
<td>.7520</td>
<td>.4407</td>
<td>.6978</td>
<td>.2984</td>
<td>.5713</td>
<td>.6745</td>
<td>.6754</td>
<td>.2991</td>
<td>.5682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the exponential smoothing method of five releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.2973</td>
<td>.6795</td>
<td>.6795</td>
<td>.6858</td>
<td>.6058</td>
<td>.6547</td>
<td>.5846</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gamma model using the non-linear method using lines of code (same predictors as referenced work)</td>
<td>.6690</td>
<td>.4052</td>
<td>.7056</td>
<td>.6590</td>
<td>.4393</td>
<td>.6412</td>
<td>.5866</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the exponential smoothing method of four releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.6462</td>
<td>.3222</td>
<td>.3222</td>
<td>.6469</td>
<td>.6890</td>
<td>.6117</td>
<td>.6180</td>
<td>.5890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the moving averages method of four releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.6978</td>
<td>.3047</td>
<td>.3047</td>
<td>.6418</td>
<td>.6883</td>
<td>.5264</td>
<td>.6854</td>
<td>.5907</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the exponential smoothing method of two releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.6436</td>
<td>.6436</td>
<td>.5365</td>
<td>3577</td>
<td>.6202</td>
<td>.6926</td>
<td>.6746</td>
<td>.4386</td>
<td>.5908</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using trees method splitting on with 7 releases using all predictors</td>
<td>.7048</td>
<td>.7520</td>
<td>.4407</td>
<td>.6978</td>
<td>.2983</td>
<td>.7854</td>
<td>.6745</td>
<td>.6754</td>
<td>.2991</td>
<td>.5920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential model using the moving averages method of three releases using no predictors</td>
<td>.4407</td>
<td>.6504</td>
<td>.6166</td>
<td>.3695</td>
<td>.6610</td>
<td>.6926</td>
<td>.6834</td>
<td>.6207</td>
<td>.5932</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The trees method splitting with a minimum of six observations using the Exponential model and all predictors is the best combination (highlighted in table 2). It is able to predict for all releases and its average Theil statistic is within .0032 of the best Theil statistic. In addition, of the top ten combinations, it has the best Theil statistics for 6 out of the 9 releases (more than any other combination) and its Theil statistics is within .401 of the best Theil statistics for all releases. The predictors used in the trees are in table 3. The fitted trees for the two parameters of the Exponential model for Release 3.4 (the most recent release) are in figures 3 and 4.
We had at most 9 training observations (in a real world setting, more data is unlikely to be available). Other metrics-based modeling techniques might not have been effective because they did not have enough training data. For example, the neural network method in Khoshgoftaar et al. [12] and Khoshgoftaar et al. [11] had ~20x more training observations. If more data were available, other metrics-based methods might have produced better results. However, the trees method was effective even though Khoshgoftaar and Seliya [13] had ~500x more training observations. This supported our conclusion that the trees method was the best method.

7.3 Predictors
Our results indicate that accurate forecasts (i.e., forecasts that are in the top ten in terms of the Theil forecasting statistic) are possible even with few (e.g., only lines of code) or no predictors.

Six out of ten combinations in the top ten were moving averages or exponential smoothing methods. They did not use any predictors. Of the other four methods in the top ten, two used all the predictors (trees methods) and two used only lines of code (non-linear regression methods).

First, since we collected 145 predictors and had at most 9 observations in the training set, spurious fits (i.e., fits that are better by chance) might have occurred. This might have reduced the benefits of having more predictors.

When all the predictors were used, the important predictors included predictors capturing characteristics of the development process (NotCUUpdates), of the deployment and usage pattern (TechMailings), and of the software and hardware configurations in use (AllDefectHWSparc). Our findings supported previous findings that non-product related metrics are important predictors of field defects (e.g., Mockus et al. [22]).

Secondly, as evident in figure 2, the field defect-occurrence patterns of OpenBSD releases were very similar and thus changes in predictors did not correspond to changes in model parameter values. The developers of OpenBSD might have been able to evaluate their ability to implement features and to fix defects. Thus, the releases were released with similar quality and similar field defect occurrence patterns. The field defect-occurrences rates peaked within 3 months of the release date for all but two of the releases.

8. CONCLUSION
In this case study, we have forecasted field defect occurrence rates over the entire lifespan of releases using only information available before release for OpenBSD using a novel approach of combining the time-based approach and the metrics-based approach. The results are interesting and appropriate for a case study; however, they need to be replicated to show general applicability. We envision replicating our experiment for commercial systems to examine differences due to development methods, as well as for other open source software systems.
We have shown that accurate forecasts are possible, as measured by the Theil forecasting statistic; however we have not determined if the forecasts are accurate enough for quantitatively-based decision making methods. Future work needs to address the issue. Confidence bounds and intervals also need to be considered.

We have tried to replicate modeling methods and to collect the same metrics as in previous studies. However, there may be differences due to specific definitions and modeling tuning parameters. These differences are acceptable for empirical replications as discussed by Ohlsson and Runeson in [25].

Our field defect-occurrence rates forecasts are steps towards quantitatively-based decision making, which can lower the risks associated with field defect occurrences.

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10. REFERENCES
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