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## **Updated Software Reliability Metrics**

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**The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers'** *Standard Dictionary of Measures of the Software Aspects of Dependability* **(982.1) has been scheduled for updating. This standard was issued several years ago. Since then new software reliability metrics have been developed and evaluated. In addition, modifications of metrics in the standard have developed and evaluated. The objective of this paper is to describe, evaluate, and apply the new and modified metrics, using failure data from several releases of the NASA Space Shuttle flight software. Recognizing that users of standards have other applications, the methodology, equations, and prediction plots are explained so that reliability engineers can apply the metrics to their applications. The metrics are assessed from two standpoints: 1) identify metrics that support a specified purpose (e.g., demonstrate reliability growth) and 2) use these metrics to identify software releases that, based on reliability predictions, are ready to deploy and identify which software requires additional testing. Prediction accuracy is computed for all metrics and the metrics are compared based on the results.**

## **I. Objective**

 $\mu$  ur objective is to introduce new and modified metrics – new in the sense that they were not included in the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers' (IEEE) *Standard Dictionary of Measures of the Software Aspects of Dependability* (982.1) [1]. (In plain English, this standard is about software reliability metrics!) Modifications are made to selected original metrics to enhance their usability. In addition, we examine the justification of assumptions that support the validity of the metrics. Also, as well as the metrics themselves, there are the trends in metrics, which indicate whether reliability growth is being achieved, that we add to the metrics toolkit. We propose that the metrics we describe and analyze be included in the next version of the standard. To assess the validity of predictive metrics, we compute the mean relative error (MRE) between predicted and actual values.

Where predictive reliability metrics are introduced or modified, we use the Schneidewind Software Reliability Model (SSRM) [2]. Other models recommended in the *IEEE/AIAA Recommended Practice on Software Reliability* [3] could be used. In software reliability analysis, there are various time values: failure time, time *when* a prediction is made, time for which a prediction is *made*, etc. We designate all of these as  $T_i$ , where *i* identifies an event (e.g., failure *i*) or an interval of test or operational time of the software.

To validate the metric computations, we compared  $C++$  program results with Excel computation results for the Shuttle releases [operational increments (OIs)]. The computations were not considered validated until the  $C++$ program and Excel computations matched.

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## **II. Reliability Metric Assumptions**

## <span id="page-1-0"></span>**A. Independence of Successive Failures**

Some researchers [4] claim that the assumption of independence of successive software failures in applying software reliability models is inappropriate. Whether this is true depends on the kind of testing that is conducted. Sometimes different test scenarios are grouped according to high-level functionalities and a series of related test runs are conducted. In addition, input data may be chosen to increase the testing effectiveness, that is, to detect as many faults as possible. As a result, once a failure is observed, series of related test runs are conducted to help isolate the cause of failure. This would also be the case during debugging when successive failures could be dependent because debugging is a fine-grained search for specific faults that may be violating the specification. On the other hand, the failure data that drives software reliability models is obtained during system tests of program functions. Given the enormity of the input and program space, it is unlikely that two faults could cause two successive failures to be related [5]. This is particularly the case if random selection of inputs is used in system testing. Rather than make an assumption that may turn out to be erroneous, the data should be subjected to an autocorrelation test, using a statistical package. For example, to test the assumption of independence of successive failures, we computed and plotted the autocorrelation functions for several National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) space systems, using time to next failure  $T_i$ . The autocorrelation function is defined in Eq. (1) [6]:

$$
Autocorrelation (T_i, \Delta t) = Correlation (T_i, T_i + \Delta t),
$$
\n(1)

where  $\Delta t$  represents the lag between values of  $T_i$ . For example,  $\Delta t = 1$  represents the series  $T_i$ ,  $T_{i+1}$ ,  $T_{i+2}$ , etc.,  $\Delta t = 2$  represents the series  $T_i$ ,  $T_{i+3}$ ,  $T_{i+5}$ , etc. When computing the autocorrelation function, confidence intervals of the function are produced to see when the function, plotted for various lags, falls outside the intervals. When this is the case, a high degree of correlation is indicated. In Figs. [A1](#page-8-0) to [A4](#page-9-0) in the Appendix, for the NASA Space Shuttle flight software there is no significant correlation, which indicates that the independence assumption is justified for these data. However, in the case of the NASA satellite project JM1 in Fig. [A5,](#page-10-0) there is significant autocorrelation for  $\Delta t = 1$ . Therefore, it would not be appropriate to use a model to predict the series  $T_i$ ,  $T_{i+1}$ ,  $T_{i+2}$ , etc. As there is no significant correlation at other values of  $\Delta t$ , predictions could be made, for example, of series  $T_i$ ,  $T_{i+5}$ ,  $T_{i+9}$ , etc.

A word about accounting for the passage of time: in some cases, time is measured at an instance in time, for example, a prediction of time to next failure. In other cases, time is measured in intervals, for example, failures that occur in the interval  $(T_{i+1} - T_i)$ .

## **III. New Software Reliability Metrics**

#### **A. Time Between Failures Trend**

If the trend of a series of time between failures increases, a reliability growth is suggested, as expressed in Eq. (2):

$$
M_{i+1} = (T_{i+2} - T_{i+1}) \quad > \quad M_i = (T_{i+1} - T_i) \tag{2}
$$

#### **B. Trend Analysis**

A method is needed to ascertain whether the trend in a series like Eq. (2) indicates reliability growth. One such method by Bates [7] is:

$$
U_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_i} M_i - ((N_i/2)(T_i))}{T_i \left(\sqrt{\frac{N_i}{12}}\right)}
$$
(3)

where  $N_i$  is the actual cumulative number of failures at interval  $i$ ,  $T_i$  is the time during which the  $N_i$  failures occur, and  $M_i$  is the series being examined. With  $M_i = (T_{i+1} - T_i)$ , increasing positive values of  $U_i$  indicate reliability growth [5].

## **C. Predicted Software Reliability**

Strangely, software reliability was not included in 982.1. Using SSRM, reliability is predicted in Eq. (4):

$$
R(T_i) = \exp(-(\alpha/\beta)\{\exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 1)] - \exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 2)]\})
$$
\n(4)

where  $\alpha$  is initial failure rate,  $\beta$  is rate of change of failure rate,  $T_i$  is the time for which the prediction is made, and *s* is the first time interval at which failure data are used in the estimation of parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

#### **D. Actual Software Reliability**

In addition to predicted reliability, we can compute the actual reliability  $R_a(T_i)$ , based on failures observed in interval  $i$ ,  $x_i$ , in relation to the total cumulative number of failures observed at interval  $t$ ,  $X_t$ , in Eq. (5):

$$
R_a(T_i) = 1 - (x_i / X_t)
$$
\n(5)

## **E. Reliability Required to Meet Mission Duration Requirement**

The original 962.1 does provide metrics for meeting the mission duration requirement by predicting the time to next failure and seeing whether the prediction *exceeds* the mission duration. Another approach is to predict the reliability at the mission duration  $T_m$  plus mission start, or launch, time  $T_s$  (nominally the last test time), and see whether the result meets the required reliability *during* the mission. This is accomplished by reformulating Eq. (4) in Eq. (6).

$$
R(T_s + T_m) = \exp[-(\alpha/\beta)(\exp\{-\beta[(T_s + T_m) - s + 1]\} - \exp\{-\beta[(T_s + T_m) - s + 2]\})]
$$
(6)

## **F. Rate of Change of Software Reliability**

In addition to the predicted software reliability, its rate of change is also important to identify the amount of test or operational time at which the rate of change is maximum. Beyond this time, increases in reliability yield diminishing returns, although additional reliability may be warranted to meet reliability requirements. The rate of change is formulated by differentiating Eq. (4) and is given in Eq. (7):

$$
\frac{d[R(T_i)]}{d(T_i)} = \alpha R(T_i) \exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 1)] - \exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 2)]
$$
\n(7)

#### **G. Parameter Ratio**

In [3] it has been demonstrated that the parameter ratio  $(PR) = \beta/\alpha$  from SSRM can accurately rank the reliability of a set of software modules or releases, *before* extended effort is involved in making reliability predictions, by just using the result of parameter estimates. That is, increasing values of PR are associated with increasing values of reliability. The reason is – referring to the definitions above – high values of β mean that the failure rate decreases rapidly and small values of  $\alpha$  mean that the failure rate decreases from a low starting value. The two parameters in concert, computed in PR, leads to increasing reliability, as can be seen by examining Eq. (4).

## **H. Software Restoration Time**

When software fails and the fault that was the culprit is corrected, the question is 'How long will it take to restore the system to the specified reliability?'† This metric was suggested by Harold Williams, Editor of *The R & M Engineering Journal*, American Society for Quality. This metric can be obtained by solving Eq. (4) for *Ti* – the restoration time – specifying  $R(T_i)$  as the required reliability when the system has been restored. The result is Eq. (8):

$$
T_i = \left(-\frac{1}{\beta}\right) \log \left\{\frac{-\log[R(T_i)\beta]}{\alpha[1 - \exp(-\beta)]}\right\} + (s-1)
$$
\n(8)

## **I. Predicted Cumulative Failures**

In 982.1, there is no prediction of cumulative failure, which is a fundamental reliability growth measure [i.e.,  $F(T_i)$  will increase at a decreasing rate if reliability growth is present). Therefore, cumulative failures are predicted

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<span id="page-3-0"></span>(using SSRM) [2] in Eq. (9).

$$
F(T_i) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) \{1 - \exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 1)]\} + X_{s-1},
$$
\n(9)

where  $F(T_i)$  uses the definitions:  $T_i$  is the time when  $F(T_i)$  failures are predicted to occur and  $X_{s-1}$  is the observed failure count in the range  $(s - 1, T_i)$ .

#### **J. Fault Correction Rate and Delay**

Our approach to fault correction prediction is to relate it to failure prediction, introducing a delay, *dT*, between failure detection and the completion of fault correction (i.e., fault correction time) [8]. We assume that the rate of fault correction is proportional to the rate of failure detection. In other words, we assume that fault correction keeps up with failure detection, except for the delay  $d(T_i)$  in correcting fault *i*. If this assumption is not met in practice, the model will underestimate the remaining faults in the code. Thus, the model provides a lower bound on remaining faults (i.e., the remaining faults would be no less than the prediction). Using this assumption, the cumulative number of faults corrected by time  $T_i$ ,  $N_{ci}$ , would have the same form as the cumulative number of failures  $F(T_i)$  that have been detected by time  $T_i$ , but delayed by the interval  $d(T_i)$ . The fault correction rate for fault *i* is modeled in Eq. (10), where  $x_i$  is the number of faults corrected in interval *i*:

$$
c_i = \frac{x_i}{(T_{i+1} - T_i)}
$$
\n(10)

We use a random variable to model the delay  $d(T_i)$ . For the Space Shuttle,  $d(T_i)$  was found to be exponentially distributed with mean fault correction time  $1/m_i$ , where  $m_i$  is the mean fault correction rate in interval *i* in Eq. (11).

$$
m_i = \sum_{i=1}^i \left\{ \left[ \frac{x_i}{(T_{i+1} - T_i)} \right] / N_{ci} \right\} \tag{11}
$$

This distribution was confirmed for the Shuttle, using a sample of 85 fault correction times and the Kolmogorov– Smirnof test, resulting in  $p = 0$ . In addition, Musa found that failure correction times were exponentially distributed for 178 failure corrections [5].

The great variability in fault correction time that we found in both the Shuttle and Goddard Space Flight Center data means we emphasize predicting limits instead of expected values. For a given mean fault correction rate *mi*, the cumulative probability distribution  $F(dT_i)$  of the fault correction delay  $dT_i$  is used to specify an upper limit of  $d(T_i)$ . The concept is to bound the delay time, for example at  $F(dT_i) = 0.99$ , and to use this limit in the fault correction delay prediction. Thus, when making predictions, there would be high confidence that the actual delay is within the limit (e.g., probability of 0.01). The equation for  $F(dT_i)$  for the cumulative exponential distribution, when using  $m_i$ , computed in Eq. (11) is:

$$
F(dT_i) = 1 - \exp[-(m_i)(dT_i)]
$$
\n(12)

Eq. (12) is manipulated to produce Eq. (13), which is used to compute the limit of  $d(T_i)$ , using the specified limit  $F(dT_i)$ :

$$
d(T_i) = \frac{\{-\log[1 - F(dT_i)]\}}{m_i}
$$
\n(13)

## **K. Cumulative Number of Faults Corrected**

Knowing the correction rate for fault *i* from Eq. (10) and the time between failures from Eq. [\(2\)](#page-1-0), assuming these times are equal to the times between faults, we can predict the cumulative number of faults corrected, *Nci*, at interval *i* in Eq. (14) [8].

$$
N_{ci} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{ci}-1} [c_i (T_{i+1} - T_i)]
$$
\n(14)

## <span id="page-4-0"></span>**L. Proportion of Faults Corrected**

Now having predicted the number of cumulative faults corrected in Eq. [\(14\)](#page-3-0) and using the cumulative number of actual failures  $N_i$ , observed at interval  $i$ , and assuming the number of faults equals the number of failures, we compute the proportion of faults corrected at interval *i* in Eq. (15) [8]:

$$
P_{ci} = \frac{N_{ci}}{N_i} \tag{15}
$$

## **M. Predicted Failure Rate**

It is important to have a prediction of failure rate that can take into account *future* test or operational time, for example, mission duration. The predicted failure rate is the derivative of the predicted cumulative failures in Eq. [\(9\)](#page-3-0). The result is Eq.  $(16)$  [9]:

$$
f(T_i) = \frac{d[F(T_i)]}{d(T_i)} = \alpha \exp\{\exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 1)]\}
$$
 (16)

## **N. Predicted Number of Failures in Interval** *i*

In addition to predicting cumulative failures, which aggregates failure count, a fine-grain prediction can be applied to the interval *i*. With this prediction, failures can be tracked from interval to interval to see whether any anomalies occur. Using SSRM [2], the prediction is made in Eq. (17):

$$
m(T_i) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) \{ \exp[-\beta(T_i - s + 1)] - \exp[-\beta(T_{i+1} - s + 1)] \}
$$
 (17)

#### **O. Predicted Normalized Number of Failures in Interval** *i*

Although Eq. (17) is very useful as a predictor of software quality, large values of  $m(T_i)$  could simply be the result of large programs producing large numbers of failures! Therefore, we can normalize  $m(T_i)$  by the size of the program *S*, in thousand lines of code (KLOC), as shown in Eq. (18).

$$
M(T_i) = \frac{m(T_i)}{S} \tag{18}
$$

## **P.** Predicted Maximum Number of Failures (at  $T_i = \infty$ )

It is important to predict the number of failures over the life of the software. Software is crucial to the economy and infrastructure of a nation, so it is seldom discarded. Rather, it is maintained and upgraded. Thus, the prediction of total number of failures over the life of the software is highly relevant. To ensure that we have a conservative prediction of this metric, infinity is used as its life in Eq. [\(9\)](#page-3-0), which results in Eq. (19).

$$
F(\infty) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) + X_{s-1} \tag{19}
$$

## **Q. Predicted Maximum Number of Remaining Failures**

Additionally, the predicted maximum number of remaining failures is an excellent indicator of residual faults and failures that remain after testing is complete. This metric is computed by subtracting the cumulative number of failures  $X_t$  observed at the previous test time  $t$ , from Eq. (19). This is done in Eq. (20).

$$
RF(T) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) + X_{s-1} - X_t \tag{20}
$$

## **R. Predicted Operational Quality**

According to the former manager of the Shuttle flight software development, predicted operational reliability (1 – fraction remaining failures) is an excellent managerial tool for assessing the overall quality of the software because it indicates – on a fractional (percentage) basis – the extent of fault and failure removal [10]. This metric is computed by using Eqs. (19) and (20), which results in Eq. (21):

$$
Q(t) = 1 - \left[\frac{RF(t)}{F(\infty)}\right]
$$
\n(21)

## **S. Probability of x***<sup>i</sup>* **Failures**

It is time now to address the probability that failures will occur because this metric provides the software developer with a measure of risk of operating the software. Most failure processes during test fit the Poisson process [5]. Thus, the probability of  $x_i$  failures occurring during interval  $i$  is formulated:

$$
P(x_i) = \frac{[(m_i)x_i \exp(-m_i)]}{x_i!}
$$
 (22)

where  $m_i$  is the mean number of failures in interval *i*, computed as a cumulative value:

$$
m_i = \frac{x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^i x_i} \tag{23}
$$

The reason for computing Eq. (23) as shown, rather that summing to the total number of failures, is that the latter quantity would not be known at the time of making the computation. Thus, we sum to the last known interval *i*.

#### **T. Predicted Number of Faults Remaining**

Once the *maximum number of failures over the life of the software* and the *cumulative number of faults corrected* have been predicted, the *number of faults remaining to be corrected at interval i* can be predicted using Eq. (24), assuming one-to-one correspondence between faults and failures. To make the prediction, we call upon Eq. [\(14\)](#page-3-0) (cumulative number of faults corrected,  $N_{ci}$ ) and Eq. [\(19\)](#page-4-0) (maximum number of failures,  $F(\infty)$ :

$$
R_{ci} = F(\infty) - N_{ci} \tag{24}
$$

#### **U. Predicted Fault Correction Quality**

Then, having predicted the *number of faults remaining to be corrected* in Eq. (24), the *fault correction quality* at interval *i* can be predicted in Eq. (25), where higher values correspond to higher fault correction quality:

$$
Q_{ci} = 1 - \left[\frac{R_{ci}}{F(\infty)}\right]
$$
 (25)

## **V. Weighted Failure Severity**

Up to this point nothing has been said about failure severity. We have been treating failures as if they were equal in severity. Of course, they are not. In the following formulation, we develop a weighted severity metric for a software release. Designating  $s_i$  as the severity of fault  $i$ ,  $s_m$  as the maximum *value* of  $s_i$  (*minimum* severity),  $w_r$  as the severity weight of software release  $r$ ,  $x_i$  as the number of failures of severity  $s_i$ , and N as the number of failures that have occurred on release  $r$ ,  $w_r$  is computed in Eq. (26).

For example,  $s_i = 1$ , 2, 3, 4, and 5, where  $s_i = 1$  is the most severe, and  $s_i = 5 = s_m$  is the least severe. The higher the value of  $w_r$ , the lower the quality of the software release. Table 1 shows the definition of the failure code used in the computation of weighted failure severity:

$$
w_r = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( x_i * \left\{ 1 - \left[ \frac{(s_i - 1)}{s_m} \right] \right\} \right) / N \tag{26}
$$

Table [2](#page-6-0) is a compilation of the definitions of new metrics, as expressed in the above equations.

## **Table 1 Definition of failure severity code**



<span id="page-6-0"></span>

Metric	Purpose	Data requirement	Parameter estimates
Time between failures trend, $M_i$	Demonstrate reliability growth	Failure time, $T_i$	
Trend analysis, $U_i$	Demonstrate reliability growth	$M_i$ , $T_i$ ; Actual cumulative failures, $N_i$	
Software reliability, $R(T_i)$	Predict reliability	Prediction time, $T_i$	Failure rate parameters, $\alpha, \beta, s$
Reliability to meet mission duration, $R(t_s + t_m)$ Actual reliability, $R_a(T_i)$	Demonstrate required reliability Assess empirical (i.e.,	Mission start time, $t_{s}$ ; Mission duration, $t_m$ Number of failures in	$\alpha, \beta, s$
	historical) reliability	interval $i, x_i$ ; total number of failures at interval $t, X_t$	
Rate of change of reliability, $d[R(T_i)]/d(T_i)$	Identify $T_i$ where gain in $R(T_i)$ is maximum	$R(T_i)$ , $T_i$	$\alpha, \beta, s$
Parameter ratio	Rank reliability of releases		$\alpha, \beta$
Software restoration time, $T_i$	Predict time when software will return to its specified reliability $R(T_i)$	$R(T_i)$	$\alpha, \beta, s$
Predicted cumulative failures, $F(T_i)$	Demonstrate reliability growth	$T_i$	$\alpha$ , $\beta$ , s; observed failures in the range $1, s-1, X_{s-1}$
Fault correction rate, $c_i$	Predict rate of fault correction	$T_i, T_{i+1}, x_i$	
Fault correction delay, $d(T_i)$	Predict delay in correcting faults	Specified limit, $F(dT_i)$ ; mean fault correction rate, $m_i$	
Cumulative number of faults corrected, $N_{ci}$	Assess progress in fault correction	$c_i$ ; $T_i$ , $T_{i+1}$	
Proportion of faults corrected, $P_{ci}$	Identify variation in fault correction by fault i	$N_{ci}$ , cumulative number of failures, $N_i$	
Predicted failure rate, $f(T_i)$	Predict future failure rate	$T_i$	$\alpha, \beta, s$
Predicted number of failures in interval i, $m(T_i)$	Predict failures on fine-grained basis	$T_i, T_{i+1}$	$\alpha, \beta, s$
Predicted normalized number of failures in interval i, $M(T_i)$	Include program size in failure predictions	$m(T_i)$ ; program size, S	
Predicted maximum number of failures, $F(\infty)$	Predict failures over the life of the software		$\alpha, \beta, X_{s-1}$
Predicted maximum number of remaining failures, RF(t)	Predict residual failures over the life of the software		$\alpha$ , $\beta$ , $X_{s-1}$ ; number of observed failures, $X_t$
Predicted operational quality, $Q(t)$	Predict overall quality of software	$RF(t), F(\infty)$	
Probability of $x_i$ failures, $P(x_i)$	Assess risk of operating software	Mean number of failures in interval i, $m_i$ , $x_i$	
Predicted number of faults remaining, $R_{ci}$	Determine whether the software is ready to deploy	$F(\infty)$ , $N_{ci}$	
Predicted fault correction quality, $Q_{ci}$	Assess fault correction process	$R_{ci}, F(\infty)$	

**Table 2 Definition of new software reliability metrics**

## **IV. Modified Software Reliability Metrics**

## **A. Actual Mean Time to Failure**

Whereas 982.1 computes the mean value of  $(T_{i+1} - T_i)$  over the total  $(T_{i+1} - T_i)$  and cumulative failure count, we can obtain a refined assessment by computing a value for each failure  $i$ , as in Eq. (27):

$$
M_a(T_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_i} (T_{i+1} - T_i)}{N_i}
$$
\n(27)

where  $N_i$  is the number of cumulative failures at failure *i*.

## **B. Predicted Mean Time to Failure**

The original 982.1 used SSRM to make this prediction. We have found that Eq. (28) will result in less error (MRE) than the original model:

$$
M_p(T_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_i} \frac{(T_{i+1} - T_i)}{F(T_i)},
$$
\n(28)

where  $F(T_i)$  is the predicted cumulative failures from Eq. [\(9\)](#page-3-0).

Reliability growth would be demonstrated by an increasing  $M_a(T_i)$  and  $M_p(T_i)$ , as a function of test time  $T_i$ .

## **C. Actual Failure Rate**

Although 982.1 includes an incremental failure rate computed by dividing incremental failures by incremental test or operational time, we now include an actual failure rate, Eq. (29) designed to demonstrate reliability growth, if it exists:

$$
f(x_i, T_i) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i} x_i}{T_i},
$$
\n(29)

where  $x_i$  is the failure count in time interval i and  $T_i$  is the time when  $x_i$  failures have been observed. Thus, it can be seen that Eq. (29) computes the failure rate on a *cumulative* basis.

Table 3 is a compilation of modified software reliability metrics, based on the above equations.

## **V. Reliability Metrics Prediction Results**

In this section we show results from predictions, using the equations that have been presented and selected OIs of the Shuttle. Each subsection is dedicated to the purpose of the metrics, as identified in Tables [2](#page-6-0) and 3.

## **A. Demonstrate Reliability Growth**

## *1. Trend Analysis, U<sup>i</sup>*

Figure [1](#page-8-0) demonstrates reliability growth by virtue of the trend metric *Ui* increasing in the positive direction. A reliability engineer can use this kind of plot to test for reliability growth, for various reliability data, such as failure count – the technique is not limited to time-to-next failure trend.



## **Table 3 Definition of modified software reliability metrics**

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

**Fig. 1 Time to next failure trend**  $U_i$  versus test time  $T_i$ .



**Fig. 2 Shuttle OI3: cumulative failures and MTTF versus test time** *Ti.*

## *2. Cumulative Failures, F(Ti), Mean Time to Failure*

Figure 2 shows reliability growth from another perspective:  $F(T_i)$  asymptotically approaches a maximum value as a function of test time  $T_i$  and mean time to failure (MTTF) increases monotonically as a function of  $T_i$ . We also see that, based on MRE, *F (Ti)* is a more accurate predictor of reliability than MTTF for *these* data. The practical application of these plots is see whether  $F(T_i)$  and MTTF behave as shown in Fig. 2. If they do not, the software development process should be investigated to determine the cause of excessive faults.

## **B. Predict Reliability, Demonstrate Required Reliability and Predict Reliability Restoration Time**

1. Reliability,  $R(T_i)$ , Reliability to Meet Mission Duration,  $R(T_s + T_m)$ , Rate of Change of Reliability  $d[R(T_i)]/d(T_i)]$  *Reliability Restoration Time, T<sub>i</sub>* 

It is important to predict reliability and to predict the reliability that would be achieved for the duration of the mission. For this purpose, the mission duration relevant for a given application should be used. In Fig. [3,](#page-9-0)  $T_m = 0.50$ 

<span id="page-9-0"></span>(0.50 months or 15 days for a typical Shuttle mission is used). Furthermore, it is of interest to identify the test time at which maximum reliability is achieved. In Fig. 3, this is accomplished by plotting the rate of change of reliability. This test time corresponds to the point of maximum payoff of reliability versus test time (i.e., cost). Of course, additional test time may be required to achieve the required reliability, but at diminishing returns to the investment in testing. If the required reliability for the mission duration is not achieved, the software should be subjected to additional testing to eliminate more faults.

If the specified reliability has been temporarily violated because of software failure, the restoration time – the operational time necessary to restore software reliability to its required value – can be predicted. In Fig. 4, we show the restoration time as a function of specified reliability for several OIs. As Fig. 4 shows, latter releases require more restoration time. This is probably caused by the increasing functional complexity of the software across releases, which reflects that each Shuttle release contains all the functionality of previous releases plus the added functionality



**Fig. 3 Reliability**  $R(T_i)$  and rate of change of reliability  $d[R(T_i)]/d(T_i)$  versus test time  $T_i$ .



**Fig. 4** Restoration time  $T_i$  versus reliability  $R(T_i)$ .

<span id="page-10-0"></span>of the current release. This plot would be used to predict whether the restoration time is acceptable for recovering from a failure, based on the specified reliability.

### **C. Predict and Assess Progress in Fault Correction**

## *1. Fault Correction Rate, ci, Fault Correction Delay, d(Ti), Proportion of Faults Corrected, Pci*

Figure 5 demonstrates that, at the maximum fault-correction rate, the fault correction delay, and the proportion of faults corrected stabilize (i.e., assume constant values) as a function of test time. This is a valuable relationship because a reliability engineer can make these plots and identify the test time in which maximum progress is being made in correcting faults.

## *2. Predicted Number of Faults Remaining, Rci*

Figure [6](#page-11-0) indicates that the greater functional complexity of later releases means the predicted number of remaining faults is higher. This plot is useful for indicating whether the software should be deployed on a mission. If the remaining faults are too high, as in the case of OI5, additional testing should be conducted until the remaining faults are predicted to be acceptable (e.g.,  $R_{ci} = 1$ ).

## *3. Predicted Fault Correction Quality, Qci*

In Fig. [7,](#page-11-0) the predicted fault correction quality provides an overall assessment of the fault-correction process. This metric increases as the number of faults remaining to be corrected decreases. If this plot does not asymptotically approach a maximum with increasing test time, this would indicate an unstable correction process. In this case, the cause of the problem would be identified and corrected, such as inadequate test cases. We observe that correction quality becomes worse in a later release because of the aforementioned increase in functional complexity.

## **D. Perform Fine-grained Reliability Analysis**

*1. Predicted Number of Failures in Interval i, m(Ti), Predicted Normalized Number of Failures in Interval i, M(Ti)*

While reliability metrics based on cumulative values, such as cumulative failures, are useful for demonstrating reliability growth, they do not provide a focused prediction of reliability in each test time interval *i*. For this purpose, we use  $m(T_i)$ . Now, while useful,  $m(T_i)$  does not account for the size of the software. Therefore, a companion prediction is the normalized failures in the interval  $i$ ,  $M(T_i)$ .



**Fig. 5 OI4: Fault correction rate**  $c_i$ , fault correction delay  $d(T_i)$ , and proportion of faults corrected  $P_{ci}$  versus test **time** *Ti.*

<span id="page-11-0"></span>

**Fig. 6 Number of faults remaining to be corrected**  $R_{ci}$  **versus test time**  $T_i$ **.** 



**Fig. 7 Fault correction quality Q***ci* **versus test time** *Ti***.**

Figure [8](#page-12-0) demonstrates that normalized predicted failures in interval *i* can vary considerably as a function of test time. The main point of the variation from a reliability standpoint is the test time when  $M(T_i)$  begins to stabilize (i.e., decreases towards zero). The increased functionality of OI8 versus OI3 means OI8 stabilizes later in the test time. This plot is a tool in the arsenal of the reliability engineer for identifying the test time at which it is no longer cost-effective to continue testing. These times are  $T_i = 30$  and 45 for OI3 and OI8, respectively.

## *2. Actual Failure Rate, f (xi, Ti), Predicted Failure Rate, f (Ti)*

Other metrics that allow us to focus on fine-grained analysis are actual and predicted failure rate, with the distinction that the former estimates failure rate based on empirical (i.e., historical) failure data and the latter predicts *future* failure rate based on estimating model parameters, using empirical data. We do not have the "future" available for comparing the results produced by the two metrics, so we necessarily compute MRE over the empirical failure data

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

**Fig. 8** Normalized predicted failures in interval  $iM(T_i)$  versus test time  $T_i$ .



**Fig. 9** predicted failure rate  $f(T_i)$  and actual failure rate  $f(x_i, T_i)$  versus test time  $T_i$ .

range. These values of MRE are shown on Fig. 9, which indicates that OI51 has better prediction accuracy than OI8. Also shown is PR, the higher values of which are associated with higher values of reliability (i.e., lower failure rate; see above). This is the case in Fig. 9 where OI51 has both lower predicted and lower actual failure rates than OI8.

An important application of these plots is that, for both OIs, the predictions monotonically decrease, but this is not the case for the actual rates. In the latter case, the failure rate can temporarily increase and then decrease, which reflects changes to the software that are made over test time. Interestingly, this phenomenon is accounted for in the Yamada S-shaped model that allows for an increase in failure rate [11]. If the reliability engineer has an application with this failure data characteristic, the Yamada model could be used, which is described in [3].

## <span id="page-13-0"></span>**E. Assess Reliability Risk**

## *1. Probability of xi Failures in Interval i, P (xi)*

To assess the risk to reliability of the incidence of failures, we predict the probability of failures occurring in test time interval *i*. Of course, the threat to reliability would occur in *operational time* and not in test time. However, the idea of testing is to emulate, to the extent feasible, operational conditions. Therefore, with respect to realistic operational testing in Fig. 10, the software would not be released for operational use at test time  $T_i = 4.90$ . Rather, we would continue testing until there are no longer any spikes in the plot, at which time the software could be deployed.

## **F. Track Number of Faults Corrected**

#### *1. Cumulative Number of Faults Corrected, Nci*

By tracking the cumulative number of faults corrected over test time we can determine whether this function reaches a maximum asymptotic value early or late in test time. The former is preferable because it indicates an



**Fig. 10 OI4: Probability of**  $x_i$  **failures in interval**  $iP(x_i)$  **versus test time**  $T_i$ **.** 



**Fig. 11 Predicted number of faults corrected**  $N_{ci}$  versus test time  $T_i$ .

<span id="page-14-0"></span>

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369

of software reliability metrics attributes (Continued) **Table 4 Summary of software reliability metrics attributes (Continued)** Table 4 Summary

accelerated fault correction process. This principle is illustrated in Fig. [11,](#page-13-0) in which OI3 produces the knee of the plot earlier than OI8. In other words, this is a method for evaluating test effectiveness.

## **VI. Summary of Reliability Metric Results**

We have defined and analyzed a myriad of reliability metrics, so it is necessary to document the major results in Table [4](#page-14-0) to identify: 1) the metrics that have the least variability across test time, as measured by the standard deviation; 2) the metrics that have the greatest predictive validity, as measured by MRE; and 3) the releases (OIs) that have the smallest predictive error, as measured by MRE. In some cases it is appropriate to use other measures, such as maximum fault-correction rate. Some metrics do not appear in Table [4.](#page-14-0) These are metrics that are evaluated better using a plot. In these cases, the reader is referred to the relevant figure. The best values per OI are in bold and the best values per metric are in italics.

Although there is not a great deal of consistency in the results, we conclude that: 1) OI51 is the release with the most consistent "best" metrics (e.g., low standard deviation for reliability) and 2) for metrics where MRE can be computed, the metric predicted cumulative failures has the lowest prediction error. This is because cumulative functions smooth irregularities in the data. A reliability engineer could use this approach to: 1) identify software that is ready to deploy (OI51) and software that is not ready to deploy (OI8) and 2) rank reliability metrics by their predictive validity, using MRE.

## **VII. Conclusions**

We have described and evaluated many metrics. There were no dominant metrics in the set with respect to producing the most desirable prediction (i.e., maximum fault-correction rate). Nor were there dominant metrics with respect to minimum prediction error, although metrics based on aggregated failure values, such as cumulative failure, provided marginally more accurate predictions. In contrast, we were able to identify a software release that generally yielded better predictions and less error than other releases. Based on these results, we conclude that the reliability engineer should evaluate several, if not many, metrics to ensure that those metrics appropriate for a given application can be identified. Furthermore, the evaluated metrics should be used to predict reliability for the various software releases to determine which software is ready to be deployed and which software requires further testing.

## **Appendix**



**Fig. A1 Shuttle OI3:** *Ti* **5% confidence intervals autocorrelation.**



**Fig. A2 Shuttle OI4:** *Ti* **5% confidence intervals autocorrelation.**



**Fig. A3 Shuttle OI5:** *Ti* **5% confidence intervals autocorrelation.**



**Fig. A4 Shuttle OI6:** *Ti* **5% confidence intervals autocorrelation.**



**Fig. A5 Satellite JM1:** *Ti* **5% confidence intervals autocorrelation.**

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