Improving software development effort estimation using support vector regression and feature selection

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ABSTRACT

Accurate and reliable software development effort estimation (SDEE) is one of the main concerns for project managers. Planning and scheduling a software project using an inaccurate estimate may cause severe risks to the software project under development such as delayed delivery, poor quality software, missing features. Therefore, an accurate prediction of the software effort plays an important role in the minimization of these risks that can lead to the project failure. Nowadays, the application of artificial intelligence techniques has grown dramatically for predicting software effort. The researchers found that these techniques are suitable tools for accurate prediction. In this study, an improved model is designed for estimating software effort using support vector regression (SVR) and two feature selection (FS) methods. Prior to building model step, a preprocessing stage is performed by random forest or Boruta feature selection methods to remove unimportant features. Next, the SVR model is tuned by a grid search approach. The performance of the models is then evaluated over eight well-known datasets through 30% holdout validation method. To show the impact of feature selection on the accuracy of SVR models, the proposed model was compared with SVR model without feature selection. The results indicated that SVR with feature selection outperforms SVR without FS in terms of the three accuracy measures used in this empirical study.

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1. INTRODUCTION

In an age of regular technological disruption, for software companies, growing fast has become essential to survival. Moreover, software companies must also target becoming profitable rapidly and efficiently. One of the main keys to achieve this goal is to allocate software project resources efficiently and schedule activities as optimally as possible. In this context, estimating software development effort is critical. Various methods have been investigated in software effort estimation, including traditional methods such as the constructive cost model (COCOMO) [1], and, recently, machine learning techniques such as MLP neural networks [2], radial basis function (RBF) neural networks [3], random forest (RF) [4-5], fuzzy analogy (FA) [6] and support vector regression (SVR) [7]. Machine learning techniques use data from past projects to build a regression model that is subsequently employed to predict the effort of new software projects. However, no single method has been found to be entirely stable and reliable for all cases. Furthermore, the performance of any method depends mainly on the characteristics of the dataset used to construct the model. These characteristics include dataset size, outliers, number of features, categorical features and missing values.

Therefore, performing a preprocessing data prior to any SDEE model building can contribute to improve the
accuracy of the generated estimation. Depending on dataset used, the preprocessing data can be cleaning data by imputing missing value or transforming and/or reducing the data by removing redundant and irrelevant features. As one of the major concerns when using dataset to construct a SDEE model is the negative impact of irrelevant and redundant information on estimation accuracy [8].

Hence, we need to remove irrelevant and redundant information and keep a subset of relevant features so only information about the effort (dependent variable) is reserved. For this purpose, many feature selection (FS) methods have been employed in the literature [8-13]. In this context, this paper aims to investigate the use of two feature selection methods as preprocessing step before feeding data to SVR model building stage. The paper aims also to evaluate whether or not the wrapper feature selection methods improve the accuracy of the SVR model. Therefore, we assess SVR models preprocessed with two wrapper methods and we compare them with SVR model built without feature selection methods. The main contributions of this paper are threefold: (1) assessing the impact of feature selection methods on the predictive capability of SVR models over eight datasets (2) employing two wrapper feature selection methods to select the attributes used for SVR models (3) tuning the hyperparameter values of SVR using a grid search approach and 10-fold cross-validation approach. This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the SVR technique and the two feature selection methods used in this study and Section 3 gives an overview of related work conducted on SVR in SDEE. In Section 4, we describe the architecture of the proposed model including the methodology adopted to adjust it parameters values. Section 5 presents a brief description of the datasets, the accuracy measures, the validation method used in this study. The empirical results are presented and discussed in Section 6. Finally, Section 7 concludes the paper.

2. BACKGROUND

Before entering into details, we introduce the three main tools of this paper: support vector regression, feature importance, and feature selection.

2.1. Support vector regression

Support Vector Machines as described in [14] have shown to deliver promising solutions in various classification and regression tasks thanks to their ability to avoid local minima, improved generalization capability, and sparse representation of the solution. SVM are based on Structural Risk Minimization (SRM) principle and thus tries to control the upper bound of generalization risk while reducing the model complexity. In addition, they do not suffer from over fitting problem and local minimization issues and hence offer enhanced generalization capability. For regression tasks, Vapnik proposed an SVM called ε-support vector regression (ε-SVR), which performs prediction tasks from the ε-insensitive loss function. Because the ε parameter is useful if the approximation accuracy is specified beforehand, it is better to find a procedure to optimize this accuracy without depending a priori on a value set. This procedure was studied by Sölkopf, Smola, Williamson and Bartlett [15]. They proposed a new formulation, called ν-support vector regression (ν-SVR), that automatically minimizes the ε-insensitive loss function and changes the SVR formulation by using a new ν parameter whose value is between [0,1]. In addition to minimizing the ε value, the ν parameter is used for controlling the number of support vectors, since the value of ε influences the choice of support vectors.

In this study, a special form of SVM i.e., Support Vector Regression (SVR) is utilized for modeling the input–output functional relationship or regression purpose and is explained next. Given a set of input–output sample pairs \( \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)\} \) where \( x_i \in IR^p \) and \( y_i \in IR \), the objective of ν-SVR technique is to approximate the nonlinear relationship given in (1), such that \( f(x) \) should be as close as possible to the target value \( y \) and should be as flat as possible in order to avoid over-fitting.

\[
f(x) = w^T \varphi(x) + b
\]

where \( w^T \) is the weight vector, \( b \) is the bias and \( \varphi(x) \) represents the transformation function that maps the lower dimensional input space to a higher dimensional space. The primal objective of the problem thus reduces to (2), in order to ensure that the approximated function meets the above two objectives of closeness and flatness.

\[
\text{minimize} \quad \frac{1}{2}||w||^2 + C \left\{ \gamma \varepsilon + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\xi_i + \xi_i^*) \right\}
\]
subject to the constraints
\[
\begin{align*}
(y_i - (w^T, \varphi(x))) - b &\leq \varepsilon + \xi_i^+, \\
(w^T, \varphi(x)) + b - y_i &\leq \varepsilon + \xi_i^- \\
\xi_i^+ + \xi_i^- &\geq 0
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\varepsilon\) is a deviation of a function \(f(x)\) from its actual value and, \(\xi_i^+, \xi_i^-\) are additional slack variables introduced by Cortes & Vapnik, 1995, which determines that, deviations of magnitude \(\xi\) above \(\varepsilon\) error are tolerated. The constant \(C\) known as regularization parameter determines the tradeoff between the flatness of \(f\) and tolerance of error above \(\varepsilon\). Further \(Y (0 \leq Y \leq 1)\), represents the upper bound on the function of margin errors in the training set and establishes the lower bound on the fraction of support vectors. To solve the primal problem in (2), its dual formulation is introduced by constructing Lagrange function (L) given as:

\[
L = \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i + \xi_i^-) \right\} - \sum_{i=1}^n (\eta_i \xi_i + \eta_i^* \xi_i^-) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\varepsilon + \xi_i - w^T, \varphi(x) - b) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\varepsilon + \xi_i^- - w^T, \varphi(x) + b) - \beta \varepsilon
\]

(3)

where \(\alpha, \alpha^*, \eta, \eta^*\) and \(\beta\) are Lagrange multipliers and \(\alpha^{(*)} = \alpha, \alpha^*\). Thus, maximizing the Lagrange function gives \(w = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*), \varphi(x_i)\) and yields the following dual optimization problem:

\[
\min \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*) \right\} \cdot (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*)
\]

subject to
\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*) &= 0, \\
\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*) &\leq CY, \\
\alpha_i, \alpha_i^* &\in [0, \frac{C}{n}]
\end{align*}
\]

(4)

where \(K(x_i, x_j)\) denotes the kernel function given by \(K(x_i, x_j) = \varphi(x_i)^T, \varphi(x_j)\). The solution to (4) yields the Lagrange multipliers \(\alpha, \alpha^*\). Substituting weight \(w\) in (1), the approximated function is given as:

\[
f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha_i - \alpha_i^*) \cdot K(x_i, x) + b
\]

(5)

The choice of kernel function for specific data patterns, which is another attractive question in the application of SVR, appeared somewhat Arbitrary till now. Some previous work [6, 16] empirically indicate that the use of the gaussian RBF kernel is superior to other kernel functions because of its accessibility to implement and powerful mapping capability. Therefore, the gaussian RBF kernel function, (6), was employed in this study.

\[
K(x_i, x_j) = \exp \left( -\gamma \|x_i - x_j\|^2 \right) \quad \text{where} \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}
\]

(6)

The parameter \(\sigma\) affects the mapping transformation of the input data to the feature space and controls the complexity of the model, thus, and the value of parameter \(\gamma\) should be selected carefully and adequately. In addition, SVR requires also setting two parameters: the complexity parameter usually denoted by \(C\), the extent to which deviations (i.e., errors) are tolerated denoted by Epsilon (\(\varepsilon\)), and the \(\nu\) parameter which is used for controlling the number of support vectors, since the value of \(\varepsilon\) influences the choice of support vectors.

2.2. Feature selection methods

This subsection provides an overview of the feature selection methods with particular focus on feature importance concept used by the methods used in this paper.

2.2.1. Feature selection methods

Feature selection, also known as variable selection, is the process of identifying the most promising features (variables, attributes) in a given dataset. The selected feature will be used to construct the model or as inputs of a prediction system. There are many potential benefits of feature selection such as improving the generalization performance of the predictive model, reducing the computational time to construct the model,
and better understanding the underlying process. Several feature selection methods have been proposed and studied in the literature [17]. They can fall into three categories: the wrapper, the filter and embedded. The wrapper methods use a predictive model to score feature subsets. Each new subset is used to train a model, which is tested on a hold-out set. Counting the number of mistakes made on that hold-out set (the error rate of the model) gives the score for that subset [18]. The filter methods consider statistical characteristics of a data set directly without involving any learning algorithm. The embedded methods combine feature selection and the learning process in order to select an optimal subset of features. In general, the results of wrapper methods are better than those of filter methods. However, the wrapper method is slow (time-consuming) and very complicated when there are many features in the dataset. Fortunately, in our case, the datasets used in this study have relatively a small number of features.

2.2.2. Random forest feature importance

Random forest (RF) is an ensemble learning technique based on classification and regression trees [19]. Each tree is trained on a bootstrap sample, and optimal variables at each split are identified from a random subset of all variables. The selecting criteria are different for classification and regression problems. For the former setting, the Gini index is applied, whereas variance reduction is used for the latter approach. The global prediction of the RF is computed as a majority vote or average for classification or regression, respectively [20]. In addition to prediction, RFs can be used as method to estimate variable importance measures to rank variables by predictive importance. To illustrate this, let’s $F_j$ a project feature. RF feature importance of $F_j$ is defined, as described in [21], as follows. For each tree $t$ of the forest, consider the associated $OOB_t$ sample (Out Of Bag is the data which was not included in the bootstrap sample used to construct $t$). Denote by $errOOB_t$ the mean square error (MSE) of a single tree $t$ on this $OOB_t$ sample. Now, randomly permute the values of $F_j$ in $OOB_t$ to get a perturbed sample denoted by $OOB_t'$ and compute $errOOB_t'$, the error of predictor $t$ on the perturbed sample. Feature importance of $F_j$ is then equal to:

$$FeatImp(F_j) = \frac{1}{ntree}\sum_t (OOB_t - errOOB_t'),$$

where the sum is over all trees $t$ of the RF and $ntree$ denotes the number of trees of the RF. Features that are relevant for prediction will have large importance values, whereas features that are not associated with the outcome have values close to zero.

2.2.3. Boruta feature selection method

Boruta is an all relevant feature selection algorithm, i.e., embedded with the RF algorithm and uses calculated Z-scores as a measure of band importance. The main idea of this approach is to compare the importance of the real predictor variables with those of random so-called shadow variables using statistical testing and several runs of RFs [22]. In each run, the set of predictor variables is doubled by adding a copy of each variable. The values of those shadow variables are generated by permuting the original values across observations and therefore destroying the relationship with the outcome. A RF is trained on the extended data set and the variable importance values are collected. For each real variable a statistical test is performed comparing its importance with the maximum value of all the shadow variables. Variables with significantly larger or smaller importance values are declared as important or unimportant, respectively. All unimportant variables and shadow variables are removed and the previous steps are repeated until all variables are classified or a certain determined number of runs has been done [20].

3. RELATED WORK

The SVR technique has been used in many empirical software engineering studies especially in predicting several software characteristics such as bug and defect [23-24], reliability [25], quality [26] and enhancement effort [27]. Regarding application of an SVR for estimating software development effort, we identified 13 relevant studies in the literature [7, 27-38]. The first investigation of SVR in SDEE was originally carried out by Oliveira [7]. He has considered SVR with linear as well as RBF kernels and optimized its parameters employing grid selection. The experiments were performed using software projects from NASA dataset and the results have shown that SVR significantly outperforms RBFNs and linear regression. His work did not investigate feature selection methods; all input features were used for building the regression models. In [28, 39] used a genetic algorithm (GA) approach to select an optimal subset feature and optimize SVR parameter for SDEE. They used binary coded chromosome as solution representation for subset feature and SVR parameter. Their simulations have shown that the proposed GA-based approach was
able to improve substantially the performance of SVR and outperform bagging MLP network and bagging M5P.

The authors in [36] investigated particle swarm optimization (PSO) application to select subset feature and SVR parameter applied to software effort estimation. They used continuous value type to optimize SVR parameter and discrete value type to select subset feature. However, the study was limited to Desharnais dataset and does not show the performance of the resulting SVR model using commonly employed accuracy measures in SDEE. Support vector regression has been also used to estimate the development effort of web projects using Tukutuku dataset in [30, 40-41]. The results of these studies showed that SVR has potential since it outperformed the most commonly adopted prediction techniques. It was argued that SVR is a flexible method that use kernels and parameter settings which enable the learning mechanism to better suit the characteristics of different chunks of data, which is a typical characteristic of cross-company datasets. In order to automatically select suitable SVR parameters including the kernel function, the authors in [33] proposed the use of an approach based on Tabu Search (TS). They evaluated empirically the proposed model using different types of datasets from PROMISE repository and Tukutuku dataset. Their results showed that SVR combined with TS significantly outperformed CBR and manual stepwise regression methods. This section has attempted to provide a brief summary of the major literature relating to software effort estimation using support vector regression.

4. SVR MODELS WITH FEATURE SELECTION METHODS

This section presents an overview of the two SVR models designed in this paper namely SVR with backward feature elimination and SVR with Boruta feature selection (henceforth SVR-BFE and SVR-BORUTA respectively) and illustrates how these models were trained and optimized by grid search method.

4.1. SVR models with backward feature elimination (SVR-BFE)

In the preprocessing stage of this model, we used a simpler form of backward feature elimination so that instead of iterating the backward elimination procedure until the end, we stopped this procedure at the fourth elimination. This method is particularly useful in studying the accuracy of the model after each iteration and comparing the results obtained with the Boruta based SVR. Following this method and using variable importance computed by random forest, four subsets of features were generated by removing each time the least important variable. So, in the first subset denoted BFE_1, we eliminate the least significant feature and in the second subset BFE_2, we removed the next least important feature according to variable importance ranking and so on. Starting from these subsets, four SVR models, denoted SVR-BFE_i were optimized using grid search optimization method and 10-fold cross validation approach. Figure 1 depicts the model graphically and shows the different stages of SVR model building including feature selection step and hyper-parameter optimization step.

4.2. SVR model with boruta feature selection method (SVR-BORUTA)

This SVR model is composed, like the first one, from one preprocessing stage where Boruta algorithm is performed to remove all unimportant features and keep only the relevant ones. Next, the hyperparameter of SVR model (C, µ) were adjusted by the same procedure used for SVR with BFE in order to evaluate them under the same conditions. Figure 1 illustrates the model building architecture.
4.3. Parameters setting

It is well known that the parameter settings could have a significant impact on the estimation accuracy of trained SDEE techniques. Therefore, building an accurate model requires selection of optimal values of its learning parameters [16]. However, finding optimal values is complicated task and various approaches have been proposed in the literature to address this issue, such as grid search (GS) [42], particle swarm optimization (PSO) [43] and genetic algorithm (GA) [39]. In order to enable SVR models, developed in this study, to achieve a higher prediction accuracy over the eight datasets used in SDEE, we employed grid search (GS) as optimization method combined with cross-validation procedure. The main idea behind the grid search method is that different pairs of parameters are tested and the one with the highest cross validation accuracy is selected. The major advantage of GS method is its high learning accuracy and the ability of parallel processing on the training of every SVR, because they are independent of each other. Although GS method can find the optimum parameters, the computational complexity is very big obviously, and the time spent is very large, especially for large sample data. In our case, we limited the search space to most promising values guided by previous studies [44]. Table 1 shows GS parameter for SVR models.

| Techniques | Parameters                                      |
|------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Type       | { μ-regression}                                 |
| Kernel function | { RBF }                                        |
| Complexity | {from 0.005 to 0.1, step=0.005}                 |
| Kernel parameter | {1/number of features}                         |
| μ          | {0,1 to 1,0, step=0,1}                          |

The GS method finds the best configuration of SVR models by evaluating every possible combination of Table 2 with respect to mean square error (MSE) based error function using 10-fold cross-validation approach. The best configuration of each technique that minimizes MSE is then selected. Note that the same range of parameter values were used for SVR with Boruta feature selection method. Regarding the parameters of random forest feature selection and Boruta algorithm were adjusted as shown in Table 3. In fact, these parameters do not have a significant impact on variable importance ranking except maxRuns parameter of Boruta method which should be increased in certain case to resolve attributes left Tentative by the algorithm.
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5. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

This section presents the experimental design of this study including: (1) the accuracy measures used to evaluate the proposed SVR models, (2) the description of the datasets used, and (3) the experimental process followed to construct and compare the different SVR models.

5.1. Accuracy measures

We employ the following criteria to assess and compare the accuracy of the effort estimation models. A common criterion for the evaluation of effort estimation models is magnitude of relative error (MRE), which is defined as

\[
MRE = \left| \frac{\text{Effort}_{\text{actual}} - \text{Effort}_{\text{estimated}}}{\text{Effort}_{\text{actual}}} \right|
\]

(8)

The MRE values are calculated for each project in the dataset, while mean magnitude of relative error (MMRE) computes the average over N projects as follows:

\[
MMRE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} MRE_i
\]

(9)

Generally, the acceptable target value for MMRE is 25%. This indicates that on the average, the accuracy of the established estimation models would be less than 25%. Another widely used criterion is the Pred(l) which represents the percentage of MRE that is less than or equal to the value l among all projects. This measure is often used in the literature and is the proportion of the projects for a given level of accuracy. The definition of Pred(l) is given as follows:

\[
Pred(l) = \frac{k}{N}
\]

(10)

Where N is the total number of observations and k is the number of observations whose MRE is less or equal to l. A common value for l is 0.25, which is also used in the present study. The Pred(0.25) represents the percentage of projects whose MRE is less or equal to 25%. The Pred(0.25) value identifies the effort estimates that are generally accurate whereas the MMRE is fairly conservative with a bias against overestimates [45-46]. For this reason, MdMRE has been also used as another criterion since it is less sensitive to outliers (10).

\[
MdMRE = median(MRE_i)
\]

(11)

5.2. Datasets

For this study, eight datasets, collected from different organizations and countries, were selected to evaluate the performance of SVR and SVR-RF techniques. A total of 1119 projects were used from three sources:

- 915 projects came from six datasets of PROMISE data repository which is a publicly available online data repository (Menzies et al. 2012) namely: Albrecht, COCOMO81, China, Desharnais, Kemerer and Miyazaki datasets.
- 151 projects selected from ISBSG R8 repository. In fact, this repository contains more than 2000 software projects described by more than 50 numerical and categorical attributes. The selected projects are the results of a data pre-processing study conducted by [47], the objective of which was to select data (projects and attributes), in order to retain projects with high quality. The first step of this study was to select only the new development projects with high quality data and using IFPUG counting approach. The second step was concerned by selecting an optimal subset of numerical attributes that are relevant to effort estimation and most appropriate to use as effort drivers in empirical studies.
- 53 Web projects from Tukutuku dataset [48]. Each Web application is described using 9 numerical attributes such as: the number of html or shtml files used, the number of media files and team experience. However, each project volunteered to the Tukutuku database was initially characterized
using more than 9 software attributes, but some of them were grouped together. For example, we grouped together the following three attributes: number of new Web pages developed by the team, number of Web pages provided by the customer and the number of Web pages developed by a third party (outsourced) in one attribute reflecting the total number of Web pages in the application (Webpages).

Table 3 summarizes descriptive statistics of the selected datasets, including size of dataset, effort unit, number of attributes, median, mean, minimum, maximum, skewness and kurtosis of effort. None of the selected datasets had a normally distributed effort as skewness values ranged from 2.04 to 6.26. This presents a challenge for researchers attempting to build accurate SDEE techniques [16, 49].

| Dataset      | # of software project | Unit        | # of features | Min       | Max       | Distribution of Effort | Mean       | Median | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|--------------|-----------------------|-------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|------------------------|------------|--------|----------|----------|
| ISBSG (R8)   | 151                   | Man/hours   | 6             | 24        | 60 270    | 5 039                  | 2 449      | 4.17   | 21.10    |          |
| COCOMO       | 252                   | Man/months  | 13            | 6         | 11 400    | 683.4                  | 98         | 4.39   | 20.50    |          |
| TUKUTUKU     | 53                    | Man/months  | 9             | 6         | 5 000     | 414.85                 | 105        | 4.21   | 20.17    |          |
| DESHARNAIS   | 77                    | Man/hours   | 8             | 546       | 23 940    | 4 834                  | 3 542      | 2.04   | 5.30     |          |
| ALBRECHT     | 24                    | Man/months  | 7             | 0.5       | 105.20    | 21.88                  | 11.45      | 2.30   | 4.67     |          |
| KEMERER      | 15                    | Man/months  | 6             | 23        | 1107      | 219.24                 | 130        | 3.07   | 10.6     |          |
| MIYAZAKI     | 48                    | Man/months  | 8             | 5.6       | 1586      | 87.47                  | 38         | 6.26   | 41.3     |          |
| CHINA        | 499                   | Man/hours   | 15            | 26        | 54 620    | 3 921.04               | 1 829      | 3.92   | 19.3     |          |

5.3. Validation method
A 30% holdout validation method was used to evaluate the generalization ability of the estimation models. So, the datasets were split randomly into two non-overlapping sets: training set containing 70% of data and testing set composed from 30% of the remaining data. The purpose of holdout evaluation is to test a model on different data to that from which it is learned. This provides less biased estimate of learning performance than all-in evaluation method.

6. EMPIRICAL RESULTS
This section reports and discusses the results of empirical experiments performed using SVR models designed in Section IV and following the building process illustrated in Figure 1. To carry out these empirical experiments, different R packages were used to develop an R prototype employed to construct the proposed models. In this way, e1071 package was used to build the SVR models and randomForest, and Boruta packages were used for feature selection methods.

6.1. Feature selection results
This subsection presents the results of the preprocessing step. Table 4 provides the four least important features generated by random forest, and the number of selected features and removed ones by Boruta method in each dataset. It can be seen from the data in Table 4 that the features rejected by Boruta are generally among the four least important feature identified by random forest, which is not surprising since Boruta algorithm is based on RF variable importance. However, Boruta method did not always remove the first least important feature. As example, for Albrecht dataset, it removed the second one (input) while the first least important feature is FPAd. Concerning the number of the selected features, Boruta method selected almost at least 50% of features available in each dataset. The only exception was the case of Tukutuku dataset for which out of nine features, Boruta selected only two features. The single most striking result to emerge from the data is that all features of COCOMO dataset were deemed relevant and none of them was rejected.
6.2. Evaluation of SVR with FSS

The second step of the model building process uses the original and the reduced datasets to determine the best setup of the proposed SVR models. The best configuration is determined, as explained earlier, by a search grid to minimize the mean square error (MSE). Once the five SVR models were trained using training sets (70% of data), we evaluated the generalization capability of the five configurations of SVR models using testing sets (30%) over the eight datasets. The evaluation was based on the MMRE, MdMRE, and Pred(0.25) criteria. The complete empirical results obtained are shown in Tables 5-8. From data in Table 5, we notice that no SVR configuration gave the best Pred(0.25) value in all datasets. However, SVR-BFE_1 (removing only the least important feature) generated the best Pred in 6 out of 8 datasets and SVR-BFE_4 only came second by giving best value of Pred in 5 datasets. The SVR without FS and SVR-BFE_4 in China dataset (83.33).

The results reported in Table 6 and Table 7 related to MMRE and MdMRE measures confirm the fact that no SVR configuration performed better than the other in all situation. Nevertheless, we can easily observe that the best values of MMRE and MdMRE are obtained with same datasets as those of Pred. So, the lowest errors were obtained with China dataset and highest errors were generated with ISBSG dataset. What is interesting about the data in these tables is that the values of MdMRE are far lower than those of MMRE especially in COCOMO, ISBSG, Tukutuku and Kemerer datasets. These latter findings agree with the values of skewness and kurtosis of these datasets that exhibit high level of asymmetry and of nonnormality.

### Table 4. Number of selected features and removed ones in each dataset

| Datasets          | # ofFeat. | Four least important feature RF (1,2,3,4) | Boruta # of selected Features | Removed feature                  |
|-------------------|-----------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| ISBSG (R8)        | 6         | Business, Locations, Factor, Concurrent  | 3                              | Factors, Business, Locations     |
| COCOMO            | 13        | VEXP, VIRTmajor, LEXP, VIRTminor         | 13                             |                                  |
| TUKUTUKU          | 9         | Audio, Teamexp, tot_nhigh, ANIM          | 2                              | devTeam, teamExp, textP          |
| DESHARNAIS        | 8         | TeamExp, ManagerExp, Language, Envergure | 6                              | TeamExp, MangerEx                |
| ALBRECHT          | 7         | FAdj, Input, Inquiry, File               | 6                              | Input                            |
| KEMERER           | 6         | Language, Hardware, Duration, RAWFP      | 3                              | Language, Hardware, Duration,     |
| MIYAZAKI          | 7         | EFORM, ESCRN, FILE, SCRN                | 6                              | EFORM                            |
| CHINA             | 15        | Dev.Type, Deleted, Changed, Resource     | 13                             | Deleted, Dev.Type                |

### Table 5. The results obtained in terms of pred(0.25) over the eight datasets

| Techniques    | FSS method/# removed features | COCOMO | ISBSG | TUKUTUKU | ABRECHT | DESHARNAIS | KEMERER | MIYAZAKI | CHINA |
|---------------|-------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|---------|------------|---------|----------|-------|
| SVR           | 0                             | 30,263 | 26,667| 31,25    | 28,571  | 21,739     | 20      | 35,714   | 15,333|
|               | 1                             | 36,842 | 31,111| 37,5     | 42,857  | 30,435     | 20      | 42,857   | 81,333|
|               | 2                             | 32,895 | 24,444| 37,5     | 42,857  | 34,783     | 20      | 24,219   | 81,333|
|               | 3                             | 31,579 | 24,444| 37,5     | 42,857  | 34,783     | 0       | 24,219   | 80    |
|               | 4                             | 36,842 | 31,111| 12,5     | 42,857  | 39,13      | 0       | 24,219   | 83,333|
| SVR - Boruta  | 34,211                        | 24,444 | 25    | 28,571   | 34,783  | 0          | 42,857  | 75,333   |

### Table 6. The results obtained in terms of MMRE over the eight datasets

| Techniques    | FSS method/# removed feature | COCOMO | ISBSG | TUKUTUKU | ABRECHT | DESHARNAIS | KEMERER | MIYAZAKI | CHINA |
|---------------|-------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|---------|------------|---------|----------|-------|
| SVR           | 0                             | 1,367  | 1,703 | 1,065    | 0,583   | 0,464      | 1,37    | 0,556    | 1,337 |
|               | 1                             | 1,375  | 1,478 | 0,856    | 0,583   | 0,467      | 1,235   | 0,553    | 0,187 |
|               | 2                             | 1,262  | 1,187 | 0,8      | 0,548   | 0,456      | 1,334   | 1,503    | 0,191 |
|               | 3                             | 1,304  | 1,407 | 0,814    | 0,668   | 0,521      | 1,627   | 1,394    | 0,195 |
|               | 4                             | 1,242  | 1,092 | 1,028    | 0,685   | 0,462      | 1,59    | 1,367    | 0,17  |
| SVR - Boruta  | 1,524                         | 1,559  | 0,507 | 0,566    | 0,457   | 1,671      | 0,527   | 0,242    |

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Table 7. The results obtained in terms of MdMRE over the eight datasets

| Techniques | FSS method/# removed feature | COCOMO | ISBSG | TUKUTUKU | ABRECHT | DESHRANNAIS | KEMERER | MIYAZAKI | CHINA |
|------------|-------------------------------|--------|-------|----------|----------|--------------|---------|----------|-------|
| SVR        | 0                             | 0.451  | 0.54  | 0.316    | 0.323    | 0.376        | 0.579   | 0.375    | 0.726 |
|            | 1                             | 0.456  | 0.526 | 0.338    | 0.422    | 0.397        | 0.844   | 0.295    | 0.054 |
| SVR-BFE    | 2                             | 0.471  | 0.568 | 0.339    | 0.308    | 0.324        | 0.469   | 0.588    | 0.052 |
|            | 3                             | 0.521  | 0.486 | 0.407    | 0.725    | 0.396        | 0.646   | 0.526    | 0.055 |
|            | 4                             | 0.508  | 0.429 | 0.47     | 0.709    | 0.361        | 0.636   | 0.571    | 0.047 |
| SVR-Boruta | 0.41                          | 0.433  | 0.516 | 0.343    | 0.332    | 0.668        | 0.311   | 0.088    |       |

Table 8. The Results obtained in terms of pred(0.25), MdMRE and MdMRE over the eight datasets

| Techniques | FSS method/# removed feature | Pred(0.25) | MMRE | MdMRE |
|------------|-------------------------------|------------|------|-------|
| SVR        | 0                             | 26,192     | 1,056| 0.461 |
|            | 1                             | 40,367     | 0.842| 0.417 |
| SVR-BFE    | 2                             | 36,905     | 0.910| 0.390 |
|            | 3                             | 34,074     | 0.991| 0.470 |
|            | 4                             | 34,293     | 0.955| 0.466 |
| SVR-Boruta | 33,150                        | 0.882      | 0.388|       |

To sum up, the findings of this study suggest that the use of feature selection method in the preprocessing phase of the SVR model building can contribute significantly to improve the accuracy of effort estimates. In addition, the backward feature selection can generate better effort estimates than Boruta method.

7. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This empirical study assessed the impact of feature selection methods on the accuracy of SVR models in SDEE. For this purpose, two wrapper feature selection methods were used to pre-process eight well-known datasets. The SVR models based on pre-processed datasets were compared to those built without feature selection. The SVR models were optimized using a grid search procedure. The performance of the proposed models was assessed using three accuracy measures through 30% holdout validation method. The results obtained showed that the SVR models with feature selection generated better estimation than the SVR constructed without feature selection methods. In addition, using the proposed backward feature elimination based on RF feature importance can leads to better accuracy than Boruta method. However, this study has only examined the SVR models based on one type of feature selection method. Therefore, it would be interesting to assess the impact of others feature selection methods on the accuracy of SVR models in SDEE.

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