

SENG 637 Dependability, Reliability & Testing of Software Systems

Software Reliability Models (Chapter 2)

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Contents

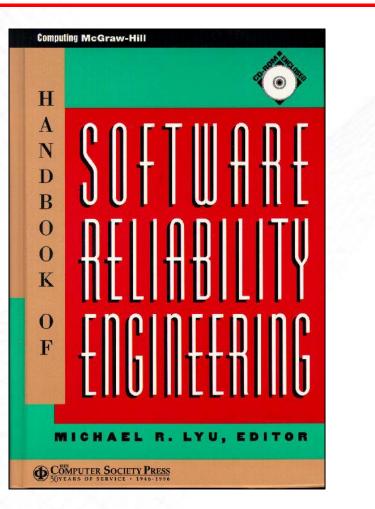
- Basic Features of the Software Reliability Models
- Single Failure Model
- Reliability Growth Model
- Weibull and Gamma Failure Class Models
- Bayesian Models
- Early Life-Cycle Prediction Models





Reference

- Software Reliability Engineering Handbook
- Chapter 3: Software Reliability Modeling Survey



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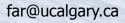
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Basic Features of SRE Models

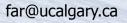
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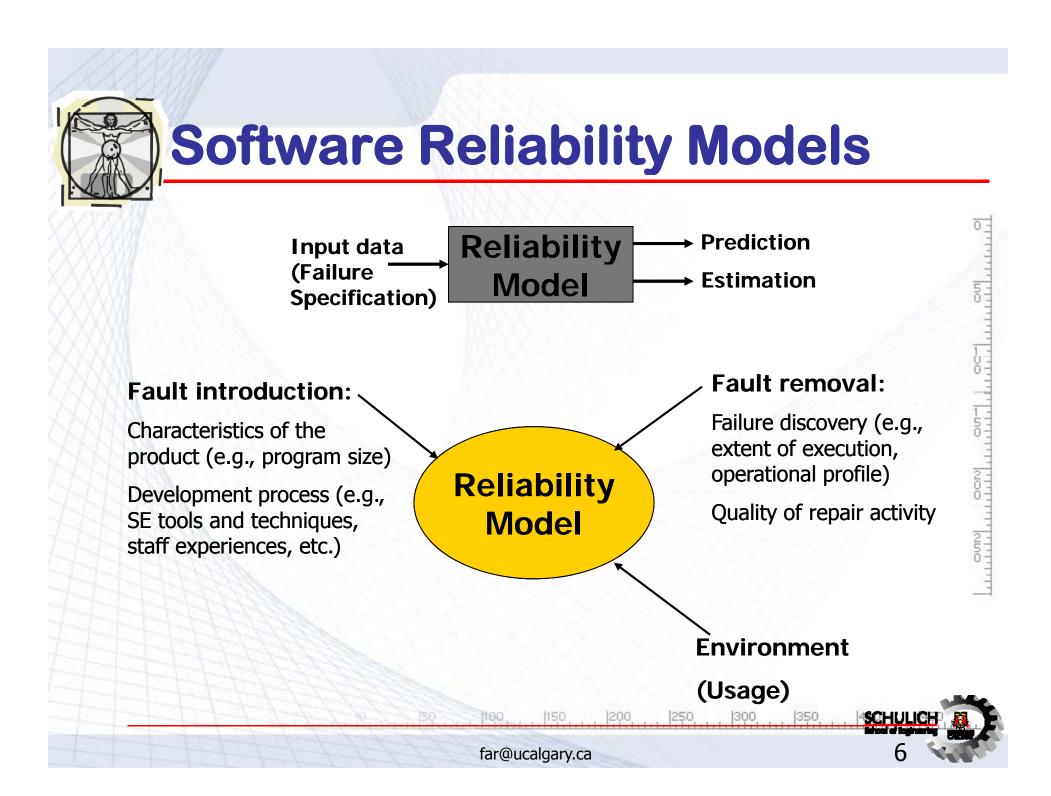


Goal

It is important to be able to

- Predict probability of failure of a component or system
- Estimate the mean time to the next failure
- Predict number of (remaining) failures
- during the development.
- Such tasks are the target of the reliability management models.







Failure Specification /1

- Time of failure
 Time interval
 - between failures
- 3) Cumulative failure up to a given time
- 4) Failures experienced in a time interval

Time based failure specification

Failure	Failure	Failure
no.	times	interval
N	(hours)	(hours)
1	10	10
2	19	9
3	32	13
4	43	11
5	58	15
6	70	12
7	88	18
8	103	15
9	125	22
10	150	25
11	169	19
12	199	30
13	231	32
14	256	25
15	296	40

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Failure Specification /2

- Time of failure
 Time interval between failures
- 3) Cumulative failure up to a given time
- 4) Failures experienced in a time interval

Failure based failure specification

Time(s)	Cumulative Failures	Failures in interval
30	2	2
60	5	3
90	7	2
120	8	1
150	10	2
180	11	1
210	12	1
240	13	1
270	14	1

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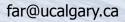
Two Reliability Questions

Single failure specification:

What is the probability of failure of a system (or a component)?

Multiple failure specification:

- If a system (or a component) fails at time *t*₁, *t*₂,
 ..., *t*_{i-1},
 - What is the expected time of the next failure?
 - What is the probability of the next failure?





Various Reliability Models /1

Exponential Failure Class Models

- Jelinski-Moranda model (JM)
- Nonhomogeneous Poisson Process model (NHPP)
- Schneidewind model
- Musa's Basic Execution Time model (BET)
- Hyperexponential model (HE)
- Others





Various Reliability Models /2

- Weibull and Gamma Failure Class Models
 - Weibull model (WM)
 - S-shaped Reliability Growth model (SRG)

Infinite Failure Category Models

- Duane's model
- Geometric model
- Musa-Okumoto Logarithmic Poisson model





Various Reliability Models /3

- Bayesian Models
 - Littlewood-Verrall Model

Early Life-Cycle Prediction Models

Phase-based model



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How to Choose a SRE Model?

- Collect failure data (failure specification)
- Examine data (Density distribution vs. Cumulative distribution)
- Select a model
- Estimate model parameters
- Customize model using the estimated parameters
- Goodness-of-fit test
- Make reliability predictions





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Background: Randomness & Probability

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Randomness /1

Random actions in reliability engineering:

- Introduction of defects into the code and their removal
- Execution of the test-cases, etc.
- We should define some *random processes* to represent the randomness
- How to handle randomness?
 - Collect failure data through testing
 - Find a *distribution function* that is a best-fit for the collected data
 - Make assumptions about the presence of errors and reliability

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Randomness /2

What is a random variable?

- A random variable x on a sample space S is a rule that assigns a numerical value to each outcome of S (a function of S into a set of real numbers)
- In reliability modeling what can be represented by random variable?
 - Number of failures in an interval
 - Time of failure within an interval
 - etc.





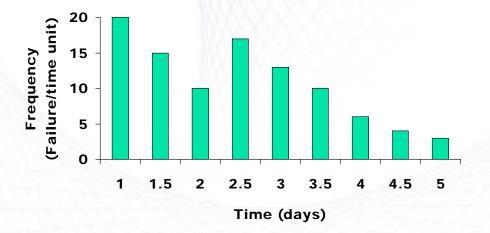
- Suppose that a random variable X assigns a finite number of values to a sample space S
- Then X induces a *distribution function* f that assigns probabilities to the points in R_x

$$R_x = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$$

$$f(x_k) = P(X=x_k)$$

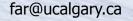


The set of ordered pairs $[x_k, f(x_k)]$ is usually represented by a table or a graph (histogram)



The expected value of X, denoted by E(X) is defined by

 $E(X) = x_1 f(x_1) + x_2 f(x_2) + \dots + x_n f(x_n)$



- Let *M(t)* be a random process representing the *number of failures* at time *t*
- The mean function µ(t) represents the expected number of failures at time t

 $\mu(t) = \mathrm{E}(M(t))$

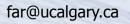
 Failure intensity is the rate of change of the expected number of failures with respect to time

$$\lambda(t) = d \mu(t) / dt$$

λ(t) is the number of failures per unit time
λ(t) is an instantaneous value



- Discrete distributions:
 - Binomial distribution
 - Poisson distribution
- Continuous distributions:
 - Normal / Gaussian distribution
 - Lognormal distribution
 - Weibull distribution
 - Rayleigh distribution
 - Exponential distribution
 - Γ (Gamma) distribution
 - χ2 (Kai square) distribution





Binomial Distribution /1

- Gives probability of exact number of successes in *n* independent trials, when probability of success *p* on single trial is a constant.
- Situations with only 2 outcomes (success or failure)



Jakob Bernoulli (1645-1705)

 Probability remains the same for all *independent* trials (Bernoulli trials)

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n

p

9

f(x)

Binomial Distribution /1

Probability of exactly x successes:

$$f(x) = \frac{n!}{x! (n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x} = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}$$

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: number of trials

- : probability of x successes in n trials
 - : probability of success
- : probability of failure

$$p+q=1$$



Binomial Distribution /2

Probability of having upto r successes:

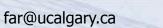
$$F(r) = \sum_{x=0}^{r} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}$$

n : number of trials f(x) : probability of x successes in n trials p : probability of success q : probability of failure p + q = 1 F(r) : probability of obtaining r or fewer successes in n trials

Calculating F(r) becomes increasingly difficult as n (sample set) gets larger

It is possible to find an approximate solution by means of a normal distribution

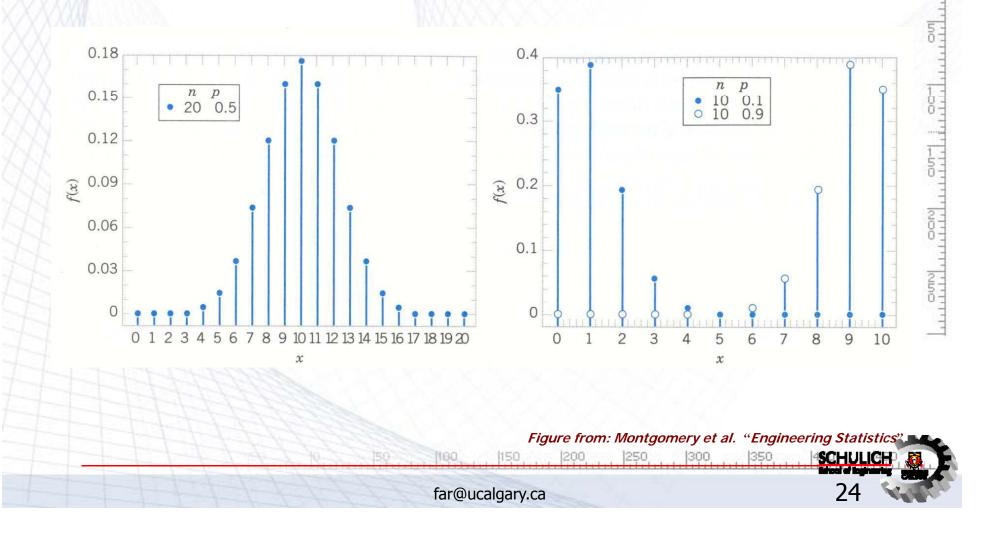
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Binomial Distribution /3

Common shapes of binomial distribution





Example: Binomial Distribution

Acceptance sampling:

- A lot is accepted if not more than 2 defectives are found in a sample of 6. The defect probability is 25%.
- Probability of having exactly 2 defects in the lot is:

$$f(2) = \binom{6}{2} 0.25^2 \times 0.75^4 = 0.297$$

Probability of having more than 4 defects in the lot is:

$$F(r > 4) = F(5) + F(6) = \binom{6}{5} 0.25^5 \times 0.75^1 + 0.25^6 = 0.0046$$



Example 2

- In a company there are 4 file servers each having the exact replica of a data set. The probability of failure for each server is 10%.
- Probability of having 2 servers fail:

$$f(2) = \binom{4}{2} 0.1^2 \times 0.9^2 = 0.0486$$

Probability of having more than 3 servers fail:

$$F(r>2) = F(3) + F(4) = \binom{4}{3} 0.1^3 \times 0.9^1 + 0.1^4 = 0.00036$$



Poisson Distribution /1

- Some events are rather rare, they don't happen that often. Still, over a period of time, we want to say something about the nature of rare events.
- Poisson distribution is special case of binomial distribution (either p or q is very small and n very large)
- Conditions under which a Poisson distribution holds
 - counts of rare events, i.e. small probability
 - all events are independent
 - average rate (usually denoted by μ) does not change over the period of interest



Simeon Poisson (1781-1840)

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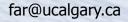


Poisson Distribution /2

Poisson distribution is a special case of binomial distribution (either *p* or *q* is very small and *n* very large): $\mu = np$

$$f(x) = \frac{\mu^{x}}{x!}e^{-\mu}$$
 $x = 0, 1, 2, ...$

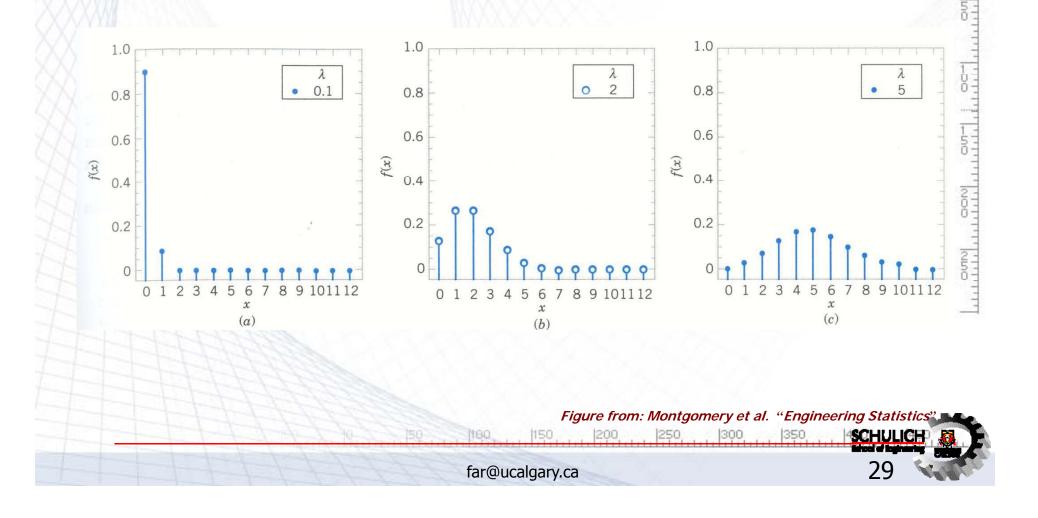
μ: mean rate of occurrence (in statistics literature is usually denoted by λ)
 x : observed number of failures





Poisson Distribution /3

Common shapes of Poisson distribution





Example: Poisson Distribution

Suppose that the defect rate is only 2% find the probability that there are 3 defective items in a sample of 100 items.

 $\mu = np = 100 \times 0.02 = 2$

$$f(x=3) = \frac{2^3 \times e^{-2}}{3!} = 0.18$$





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Single Failure Model

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Hardware Reliability Models

Uniform model:

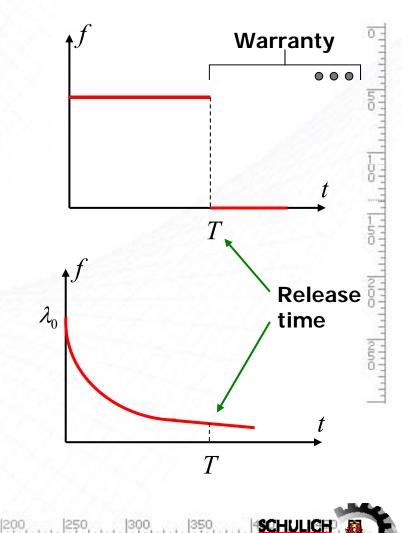
Probability of failure is fixed.

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \le T \\ 0 & t > T \end{cases}$$

Exponential model:

 Probability of failure changes exponentially over time

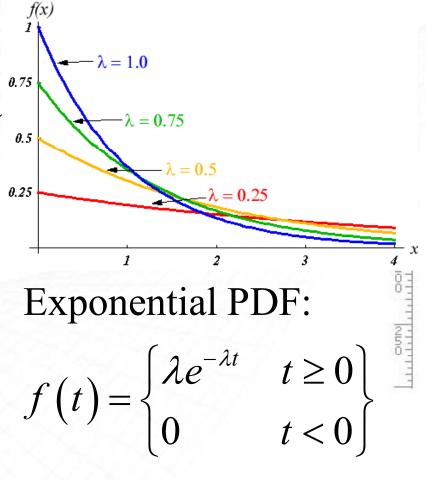
$$f(t) = \lambda_0 e^{-\beta t}$$



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- Probability Density Function (PDF): depicting changes of the probability of failure up to a given time *t*.
 - A common form of PDF is exponential distribution
- Usually we want to know how long a component will behave correctly before it fails, *i.e.*, the probability of failure from time 0 up to a given time t.

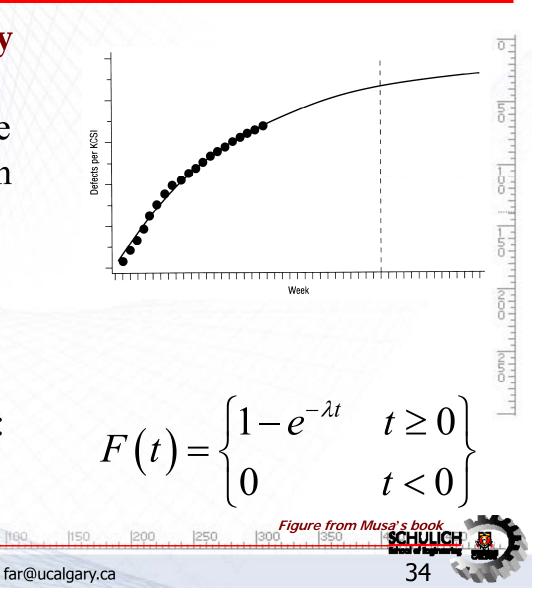




Cumulative Density Function (CDF): depicting cumulative failures up to a given time *t*.

$$F(t) = \int_0^t f(t)$$

 For exponential distribution, CDF is:



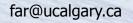


Reliability function R(t): defined as a component functioning without failure until time t, that is, the probability that the time to failure is greater than t.

$$R(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) = 1 - F(t)$$

• For exponential distribution, with a constant failure rate λ :

$$R(t) = e^{-\lambda t}$$





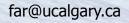
What is the expected value of failure at time *T*?

 It is the mean of the probability density function (PDF), named mean time to failure (MTTF)

$$E(T) = \int_0^\infty t f(t) dt$$

• For exponential distribution, MTTF is:

$$MTTF = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$





Single Failure Model /5

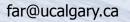
Median time to failure (t_m) : a point in time that the probability of failure before and after t_m are equal.

$$\int_{0}^{t_{m}} t f(t) dt = \frac{1}{2} \quad or \quad F(t_{m}) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Failure (hazard) Rate z(t): Probability density function divided by reliability function.

$$z(t) = \frac{f(t)}{R(t)}$$

For exponential distribution, z(t) is: λ





Single Failure Model /6

System Reliability: is the multiplication of the reliability of its components. (for serial systems, i.e., with no redundancy) $R_{system}(t) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} R_i(t)$

For exponential distribution:

$$R_{system}(t) = e^{-\lambda_1 t} e^{-\lambda_2 t} \cdots e^{-\lambda_n t} = e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n)t}$$

$$R_{system}\left(t\right) = e^{-t\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n}\lambda_{i}\right)}$$



Single Failure Model /7

System Cumulative Failure (hazard) Rate: is the sum of the failure rate of its components.

$$Z_{system}\left(t\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_{i}\left(t\right)$$

For exponential distribution:

$$Z_{system}(t) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$

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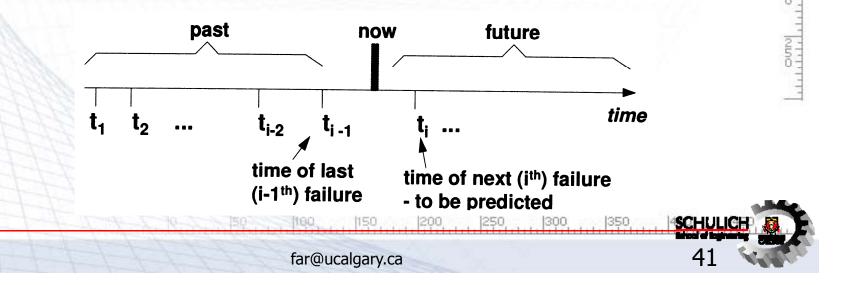
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Reliability Growth Model

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- For hardware systems one can assume that the probability of failure (probability density function, PDF) *for all failures* are the same (*e.g.*, replacing a faulty hardware component with an identical working one).
- In software, however, we want to "fix" the problem, i.e., *have a lower probability for the remaining failures* after a repair (or longer *∆ti* = *ti*-*ti*-1). Therefore, we need a model for reliability growth (i.e., reliability change over time).



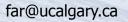


- In reliability growth models we are assuming some effort of fault removal. This leads to a variable failure intensity $\lambda(t)$.
- Every reliability growth model is based on specific assumptions concerning the change of failure intensity $\lambda(t)$ through the process of fault removal.





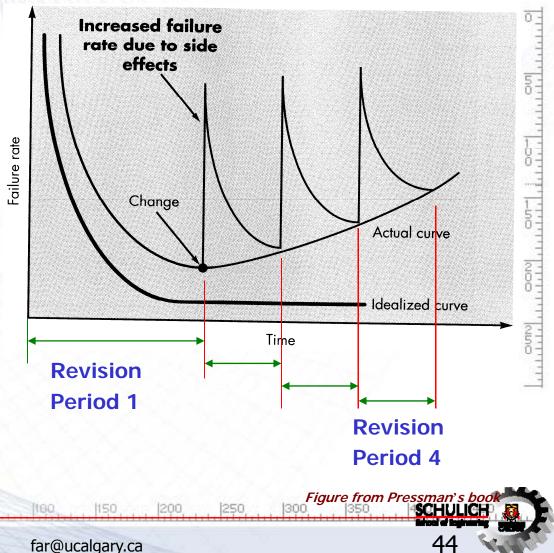
- Common software reliability growth models are:
 - Basic Exponential model
 - Logarithmic Poisson model
- The basic exponential model assumes finite failures (v₀) in infinite time.
- The logarithmic Poisson model assumes infinite failures.



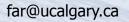


Validity of the Models

- Software systems are changed (updated) many times during their life cycle.
- The models are good for one revision period rather than the whole life cycle.



- Variables involved in reliability growth models:
- 1) Failure intensity (λ) : number of failures per natural or time unit.
- Execution time (τ): time since the program is running. Execution time may be different from calendar time.
- 3) Mean failures experienced (μ): mean failures experienced in a time interval.





Failure(s)

Probability

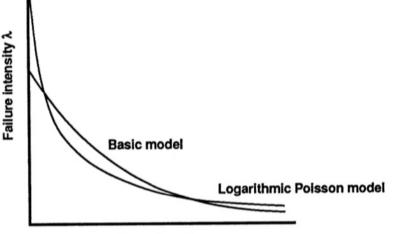
		Failure(s)	Frobability	
10 - Mean valu	e function 10	in time period	Elapsed time (1 hour)	Elapsed time (5 hours)
	10	0	0.10	0.01
E C		1	0.18	0.02
-		2	0.22	0.03
		3	0.16	0.04
Wean failures		4	0.11	0.05
		5	0.08	0.07
			0.05	0.09
	Time t _B	(tailures) 5 6 7 8	0.04	0.12
		8 8	0.03	0.16
		9	0.02	0.13
		10	0.01	0.10
	Failure intensity	11	0	0.07
		12	0	0.05
		13	0	0.03
	5 10	14	0	0.02
Ti	15	0	0.01	
Figure from Musa's b		Mean	3.04	7.77
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Failure intensity (λ)
versus execution time
(τ)

$$(\mathbf{B}) \quad \lambda(\tau) = \lambda_0 e^{\left(-\frac{\lambda_0}{\nu_0}\right)\tau}$$

P)
$$\lambda(\tau) = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_0 \theta \tau + 1}$$



Execution time τ

 λ_0 Initial failure intensity ν_0 Total failures

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Figure from Musa's boo

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 v_0 Total failures

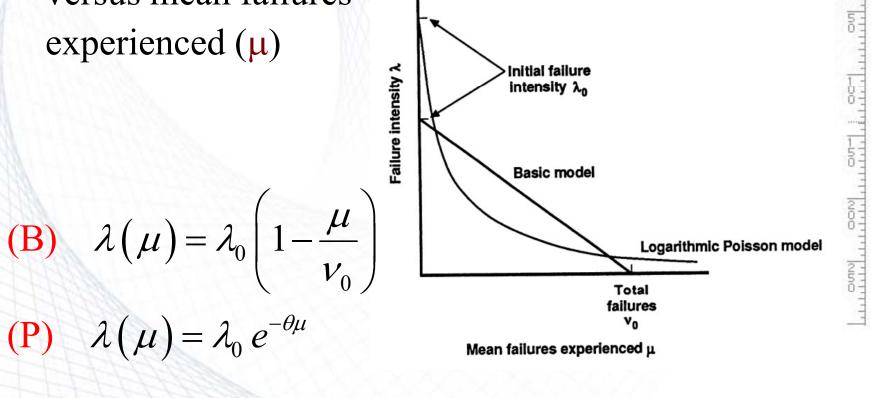
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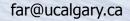
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 θ Decay parameter



Failure intensity (λ) versus mean failures experienced (μ)





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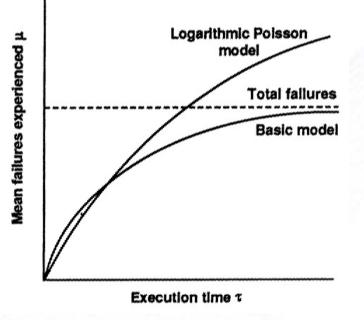
Figure from Musa's book



Mean failures
 experienced (μ) versus
 execution time (τ)

(B)
$$\mu(\tau) = v_0 \left[1 - e^{-\left(\frac{\lambda_0}{\nu_0}\tau\right)} \right]$$

(P) $\mu(\tau) = \left(\frac{1}{\theta}\right) \ln(\lambda_0 \theta \tau - 1)$



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Figure from Musa's boo





How to Use the Models?

Release criteria (time): time required to test the system to reach a target failure intensity:

(B)
$$\Delta \tau = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F}$$

(P) $\Delta \tau = \frac{1}{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_F} - \frac{1}{\lambda_P} \right)$

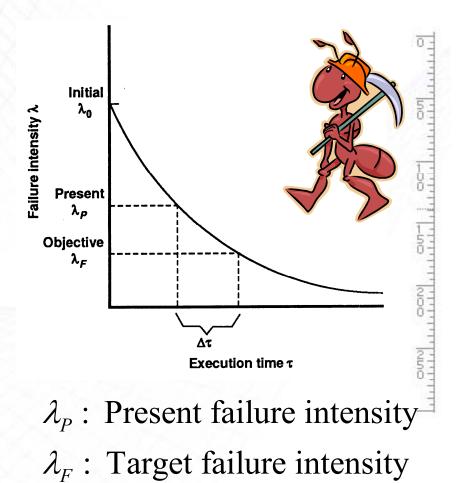


Figure from Musa's boo

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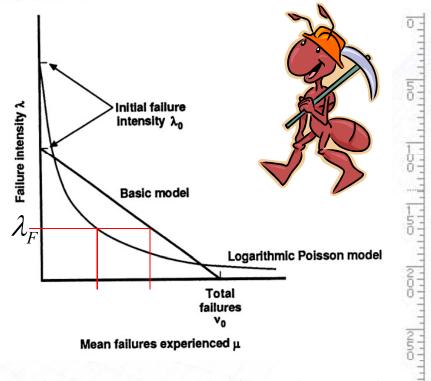
How to Use the Models?

Release criteria (failure):

time required to test the system to reach a target number of failures:

$$(\mathbf{B}) \quad \Delta \mu = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \left(\lambda_P - \lambda_F \right)$$

$$(\mathbf{P}) \quad \Delta \mu = \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F}$$



 λ_P : Present failure intensity- λ_F : Target failure intensity

Figure from Musa's boo

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Reliability Metrics

Mean time to failure (MTTF): Usually calculated by dividing the total operating time of the units tested by the total number of failures encountered (assuming that the failure rate is constant).

Example:

- MTTF for Windows 2000 Professional is 2893 hours or 72 workweeks (40 hours per week).
- MTTF for Windows NT Workstation is 919 hours or 23 workweeks.
- MTTF for Windows 98 is 216 hours or 5 workweeks.
- Mean time to repair (MTTR): mean time to repair a (software) component.
- Mean time between failures (MTBF): MTBF = MTTF + MTTR





Reliability Metrics: Availability

Software System Availability (A):

$$A(t) = \frac{1}{1 + t_m \lambda(t)} \quad or \quad \lambda(t) = \frac{1 - A(t)}{t_m A(t)}$$

 λ is failure intensity

tm is downtime per failure

Another definition of availability:

$$A = \frac{MTTF}{MTTF + MTTR} = \frac{MTTF}{MTBF}$$

Example: If a product must be available 99% of time and downtime is 6 min, then λ is about 0.1 failure per hour (1 failure per 10 hours) and MTTF=594 min.



Reliability Metrics: Reliability

Software System Reliability (*R*):

$$\lambda(t) = \frac{-\ln R(t)}{t} \quad or \quad \lambda \approx \frac{1 - R(t)}{t} \quad for \quad R(t) \ge 0.95$$

 λ is failure intensity

- R is reliability
- t is natural unit (time, etc.)
- Example: for λ=0.001 or 1 failure for 1000 hours, reliability (*R*) is around 0.992 for 8 hours of operation.

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Example

In reliability growth testing of a software system the failure data fits to both the Exponential model and Logarithmic Poisson model. The model parameters are given below:

Exponential model	Logarithmic Poisson model		
$\lambda_0 = 20$ failures/CPU hour	$\lambda_0 = 50$ failures/CPU hour		
$v_0 = 120$ failures	$\theta = 0.025$ failures		

Assume for both cases below that you start from the initial failure intensity.



Example (cont'd)

Determine the additional failure and additional execution time required to reach a failure intensity objective of 10 failure/CPU hour for both models.

For Basic model:

$$\Delta \mu = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \left(\lambda_P - \lambda_F \right) = \frac{120}{20} \left(20 - 10 \right) = 60 \quad failures$$
$$\Delta \tau = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F} = \frac{120}{20} \ln \frac{20}{10} = 4.16 \quad CPU \text{ hour}$$

For Poisson model:

$$\Delta \mu = \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F} = \frac{1}{0.025} \ln \frac{50}{10} = 64 \quad failures$$
$$\Delta \tau = \frac{1}{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_F} - \frac{1}{\lambda_P} \right) = \frac{1}{0.025} \left(\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{50} \right) = 3.2 \quad CPU \text{ hours}$$



Example (cont'd)

Repeat the same calculation for a failure intensity objective of 1 failure/CPU hour for both models.

For Basic model:

$$\Delta \mu = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \left(\lambda_P - \lambda_F \right) = \frac{120}{20} \left(20 - 1 \right) = 114 \quad failures$$
$$\Delta \tau = \frac{\nu_0}{\lambda_0} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F} = \frac{120}{20} \ln \frac{20}{1} = 18 \quad CPU \text{ hour}$$

For Poisson model:

$$\Delta \mu = \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \frac{\lambda_P}{\lambda_F} = \frac{1}{0.025} \ln \frac{50}{1} = 156 \quad failures$$
$$\Delta \tau = \frac{1}{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_F} - \frac{1}{\lambda_P} \right) = \frac{1}{0.025} \left(\frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{50} \right) = 39.2 \quad CPU \text{ hour}$$

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Example (cont'd)

Based on the experiment's results compare the two model results and explain what will happen to the additional execution time required when the failure intensity objective gets smaller.

As failure intensity gets smaller the additional failures and execution time required to reach them become substantially larger for Logarithmic Poisson model than the Basic model.

Therefore the Basic model gives an optimistic estimation while Logarithmic Poisson model offers a pessimistic one.

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Weibull and Gamma Failure Class Models

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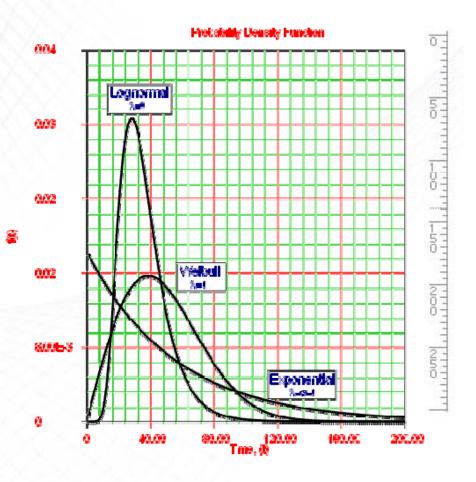
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⁴⁵⁰ 60



Gamma Failure Class Models

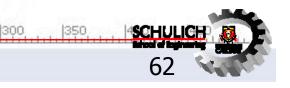
The generalized gamma distribution (total 3 parameters, i.e., scale, shape, location) includes other distributions as special cases based on the values of the parameters.



Reference: http://www.weibull.co



- Failure distribution is Weibull distribution rather than exponential
- Depending on the values of the parameters (total 3 parameters, i.e., scale, shape, location), the Weibull distribution can be used to model a variety of behaviours





Assumptions:

- Total number of faults is bounded
- The time to failure is distributed as Weibull distribution
- The number of faults detected in each interval are independent for any finite collection of times
- Data requirement:
 - Fault counts on each testing interval: *f1*, *f2*, ..., *fn*
 - Completion time of each period: *t1*, *t2*, ..., *tn*





The Weibull distribution has the probability density function

$$f(T) = \frac{\beta}{\eta} \left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta-1} e^{-\left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

where $f(T) \ge 0, T \ge 0$ or $\gamma, \beta > 0, \eta > 0, -\infty < \gamma < \infty$

- η = scale parameter
- β = shape parameter (i.e., slope)
- $\gamma = \text{location parameter}$
- Cumulative density function, *cdf* :

$$F(T) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\theta}}$$



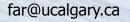
Reliability

$$R(T) = e^{-\left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta}}$$

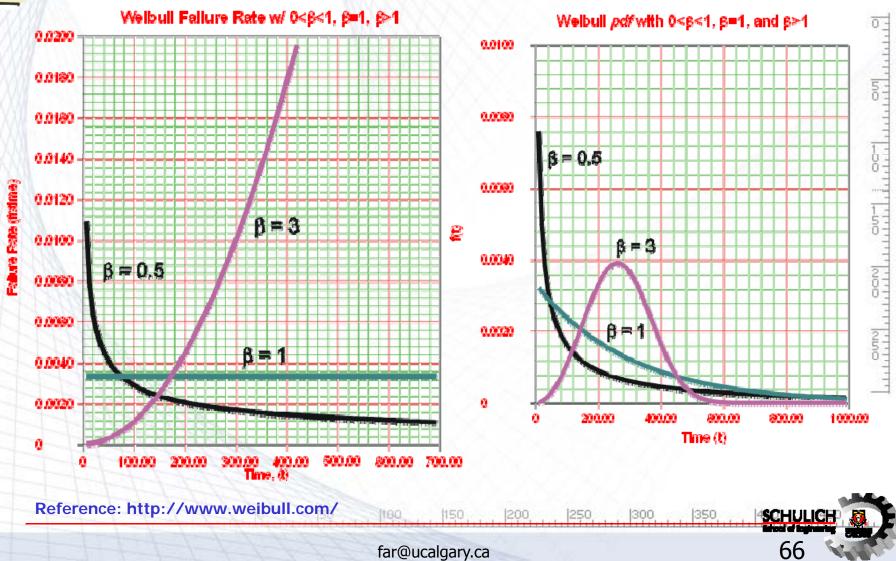
Failure intensity

$$\lambda(T) = \frac{f(T)}{R(T)} = \frac{\beta}{\eta} \left(\frac{T-\gamma}{\eta}\right)^{\beta-1}$$

Model parameters: η (scale parameter), β (shape or slope parameter) and γ (location parameter)











UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY Chapter 2 Section 6

Bayesian Models

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Bayesian Models /1

- The previous models allow change in the reliability only when an error occurs.
- Assumptions:
 - If no failures occur while the software is tested then the reliability should increase, reflecting the growing confidence in the software by the user.
 - Different faults have different impacts on reliability. The number of faults is not as important as their impacts.
- Reliability is a reflection of both the number of faults that have been detected and the amount of failure-free operation.
 - Uses prior distribution representing the "past data" and a posterior distribution to incorporate past and "current data".

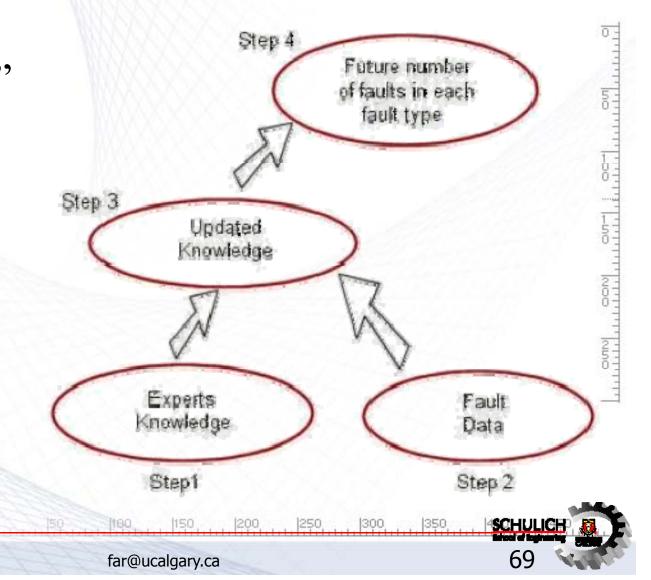




Bayesian Models /2

 Takes more "subjective" view of failure
 Steps of

Bayesian approach





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UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY Chapter 2 Section 7

Early Life-Cycle Prediction Models



Early Life-Cycle Models /1

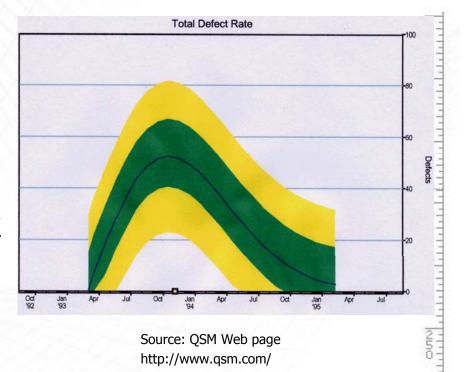
- Most of the reliability growth models *predict* reliability at the later stages of development life cycle, i.e., during testing stage. However, if a software organization waits until all necessary data is available to collect, what usually happens is that it is already too late to make proper improvements in software reliability to achieve the reliability goal.
- **Question:** Would it be possible to predict reliability at the earlier stages?
- Models that relate early stage data to reliability are needed.
- Typical early stage data: requirements, man-power build-up, development process, error injection rate and trends, code size estimates, etc.





The Raleigh-Putnam Model

- It is usually assumed that over the life of the project the faults detected (per month) will resemble a Raleigh curve
 - The rate of expending effort is proportional to the rate of committing errors. Putnam assumes that the rate of effort expenditure is a Raleigh curve.



ELCM: The Process /1

Obtain the milestones for the schedule:

- Start date and total months in project
- Date of expected full operational capability ta
- Estimate the total number of faults over the life of the project - Er.
- A Raleigh curve can be generated by solving for each month t using this equation:

$$E_{m} = \begin{pmatrix} 6E_{r} \\ /t_{d}^{2} \end{pmatrix} t \times e^{\begin{pmatrix} -3t^{2} / t_{d}^{2} \end{pmatrix}}$$



ELCM: The Process /2

- Use this profile to gauge the fault detection process during each phase of development.
- In particular, this profile can be used to gauge the original schedule estimate and the prediction for the total number of defects.
- For example, the estimated number of defects impacts the height of the curve while the schedule impacts the length of the curve.
- If the actual defect curve is significantly different from the predicted curve then one or both of these parameters may have been estimated incorrectly and should be brought to the attention of management.



Reliability Growth Model Assumptions vs. Practice

Assumptions	In practice		
Software does not change and defects are fixed immediately	Software changes rapidly and certain defects are scheduled to be fixed in a later date		
Testing Operational Profile (OP)	Focus on functional testing. It is difficult to define OP and perform operational tests.		
Constant test effort and independent failure intervals	Varying test effort (due to holidays and vacations) and failure intervals may vary		
All failures are observable	Testing in a controlled environment may be different from running software in live environment		
Collect failure reports	Collect defect reports. Any kind of defect observed is recorded. Not all reports address a failure		
Remaining failures are either constant or decreasing	Remaining failures may actually increase due to improper bug fixes		

[Stringfellow & Andrews 2002]

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